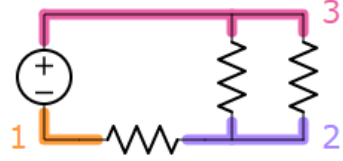
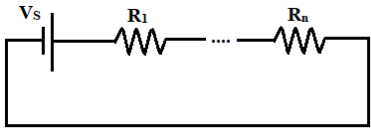
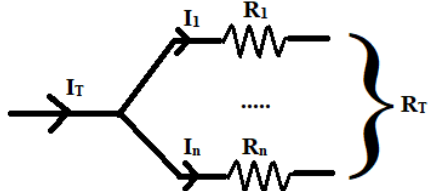
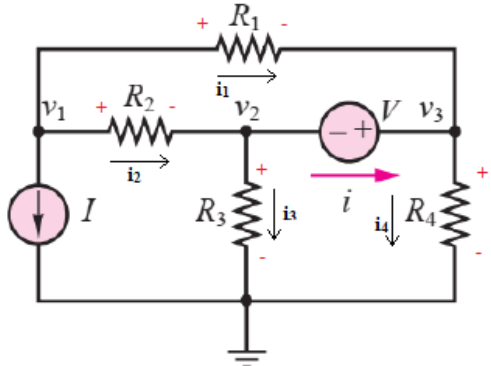
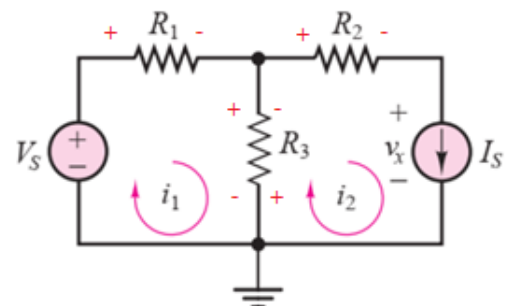


Formula	Description	Notes/Diagram
$I = \frac{Q}{t}$	I: Electric current Intensity ( <b>Ampere A</b> ) Q: electric charge ( <b>Coulomb C</b> ) t: time (sec)	Electric charge can be calculated by this formula $Q = Ne$ , where: N: number of carriers e: electron charge = $1.602 \times 10^{-19} C$
$R = \rho \frac{l}{A}$	R: resistance ( <b>Ohm <math>\Omega</math></b> ) $\rho$ : resistivity (property of the element) l: length of conductor (e. g. wire) (m) A: cross sectional area ( $m^2$ )	Electrical conductivity ( $\sigma$ or G) is the inverse of electrical resistivity. $\sigma = G = \frac{1}{\rho}$
<b>Ohm's law</b> $V = IR$	V: electric potential difference (voltage) between two points ( <b>Volt V</b> ) I: intensity of current between them. R: resistance between them.	You will use this A LOT :)
$P = IV = I^2 R = \frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{dW}{dt}$ $W = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} P(t) dt$	Electric power: the rate at which the electrical energy is transferred. Energy can then be calculated by integrating power.	Power is measured in ( <b>Watt W</b> ) Transmitted power over wires $P_T = IV$ Lost power due to transformation $P_L = I^2 R = \frac{V^2}{R}$
$R_{EQ} = \sum_{k=1}^n R_k$ (1) $R_{EQ} = \left( \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{R_k} \right)^{-1}$ (2)	Equivalent resistance for n resistors connected in series (1) or in parallel (2).	
$\sum_{k=1}^n I_k = 0, \sum_{k=1}^n V_k = 0$	<b>Kirchhoff's Current Law (KCL):</b> sum of the currents at a node must equal zero. <b>Kirchhoff's Voltage Law (KVL):</b> sum of voltages around a loop must equal zero. (going from - to +, we add voltage) (going from + to -, we subtract voltage)	<b>Loop (3):</b> closed path in a circuit <b>mesh (2):</b> a loop that has no other loops inside it. <b>Branch (4):</b> contains an electrical component (connects two nodes) <b>node (3):</b> connecting two or more branches (#wire segments used)
<b>Voltage divider rule:</b> The voltage is divided between resistors connected in series in direct proportion to their resistance (voltage is the same across parallel resistors.)  $V_X = \frac{R_X}{\sum R_i} V_S$ 		<b>Current divider rule</b> $I_X = \frac{R_T}{R_X} I_T$ 
<b>Node Voltage Method (NVM)</b> (useful for calculating node potential, calculating voltage across circuit elements) <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Choose a reference ground node (has zero potential).</li> <li>Identify currents and their direction (from + to - across resistors, from - to + across voltage sources).</li> <li>Write Ohm's law for each pair of nodes <math>i_{a \rightarrow b} = \frac{v_a - v_b}{R_{ab}}</math></li> <li>For a voltage source going from node a to b, equation will become <math>v_{source} = v_b - v_a</math></li> <li>Write KCL equations at each node, then solve the system.</li> </ol> $\begin{cases} i_1 = \frac{v_1 - v_3}{R_1}, i_2 = \frac{v_1 - v_2}{R_2}, i_3 = \frac{v_2}{R_3}, i_4 = \frac{v_3}{R_4} \\ V = v_3 - v_2 \\ -I - i_1 - i_2 = 0, i_2 - i - i_3 = 0, i_1 + i - i_4 = 0 \end{cases}$		
<b>Principle of superposition</b> (useful for analyzing circuits with multiple sources) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Branch voltage/current is the sum of N voltages/currents, each of which can be computed by setting all but one source to zero and solving the circuit containing that single source.</li> </ul> <p>Removing (setting sources to zero): <b>voltage sources are shortened, current sources are opened.</b></p>		

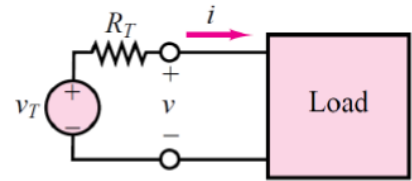
**Mesh Current Method (MCM)** (useful for finding current through an element)

1. Identify currents at each mesh, assume clockwise direction.
2. Write KVL for each mesh, **mesh current goes from + to -** (we change signs assumptions when considering each mesh).
3. Current sources provides the current mesh (trivial).
4. Solve the system.

$$\begin{cases} V_S - i_1 R_1 - (i_1 - i_2) R_3 = 0 \\ -v_x - (i_2 - i_1) R_3 - i_2 R_2 = 0 \\ i_2 = I_S \end{cases}$$

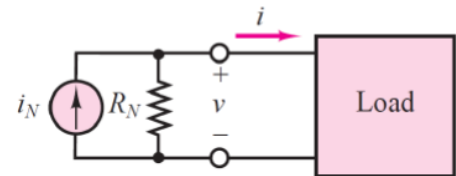
**Thevenin equivalent circuit:**

- Works for networks with voltage/current sources and linear resistors
- Assume the load is in between nodes  $a$  and  $b$
- Remove (open) the load  $\Rightarrow (V_{ab} = V_T)$
- Remove (short/open) all sources  $\Rightarrow R_{a \rightarrow b} = R_T$

**Norton equivalent circuit:**

- Works for networks with voltage/current sources and linear resistors
- Assume the load is in between nodes  $a$  and  $b$
- Remove (short) the load  $\Rightarrow (I_{ab} = I_N)$
- Remove the source  $\Rightarrow R_{a \rightarrow b} = R_N$

**Source transform:**  $V_T = R_T i_N$ ,  $R_T = R_N$

**AC sine wave**

$$x(t) = A * \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

In phasor notation

$$x(t) = A \angle \phi$$

$A$ : amplitude (peak value)

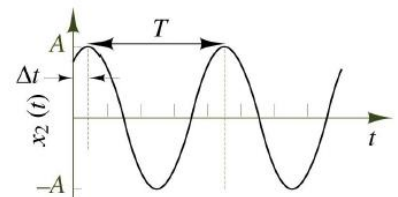
$T$ : period (s) (after which it repeats)

$\omega = 2\pi f$ : radial frequency (rad/s)

$f = 1/T$ : natural frequency (Hz)

$\phi = \frac{2\pi \Delta t}{T}$ : phase shift b/w  $v$  and  $i$  (rad).

$\phi = 90^\circ$  in inductor,  $\phi = -90^\circ$  in capacitor



$$Q = CV$$

$$Q = It = Ne, e = 1.602 * 10^{-19} C$$

**Equivalent capacitance:**

- For **parallel** capacitors  $= \Sigma C_i$
- For **series** capacitors  $= 1/\Sigma C_i^{-1}$

$Q$ : amount of electric charge stored in the capacitor (coulomb)

$V$ : voltage b/w capacitor plates

$C$ : capacitance (Farad = coulomb/volt), constant for a certain capacitor.

- Capacitor stores electric charge between its two plates separated by dielectric.
- The higher the capacitance, the more charge the capacitor can store at the same voltage.
- **These formulas work only for constant values of  $Q, V, I$**

$$C = \epsilon \frac{A}{d}$$

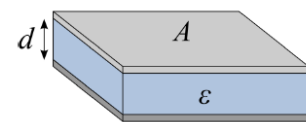
In vacuum (free space)

$$\epsilon_0 \approx 8.854 \times 10^{-12} F.m^{-1}$$

$A$ : common area b/w capacitor plates ( $m^2$ )

$d$ : distance b/w the plates (m)

$\epsilon$ (permittivity): a measure of the electric polarizability of a dielectric.



$$Q(t) = C * V(t)$$

$$I(t) = \frac{dQ}{dt} = C * \frac{dV(t)}{dt}$$

$$P(t) = I(t)V(t) = \frac{dW(t)}{dt}$$

$$W(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t I(t')V(t')dt'$$

$$= \frac{C}{2} V^2(t) + W(0)$$

- Capacitor equations for varying voltage (and current) in AC circuits.

- **Capacitor in DC circuits = Open circuit**

- **Capacitor in AC circuits = Short circuit**

- Capacitor can consume power ( $P < 0$ ) or deliver power ( $P > 0$ ) that is the rate of energy consumption per unit time.

- Energy (electric charge) stored in the capacitor is the integral of power

-  $W(0)$  and  $V(0)$  account for initial values and can be also called  $W(-\infty), V(-\infty)$

Given  $i_c(t)$  we can get an expression for voltage on the capacitor

$$V_c(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int_{-\infty}^t I_c(t')dt'$$

If  $I_c(t)$  is a piece-wise defined function,  $V_c(t)$  will also be so. **Example**

$$I(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t \in (-\infty, 5] \\ t & t \in (5, +\infty) \end{cases} \Rightarrow$$

$$v(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{t}{C} + v(0) & t \in (-\infty, 5] \\ \frac{t^2}{2} - \frac{5^2}{2} + v(5) & t \in (5, +\infty) \end{cases}$$

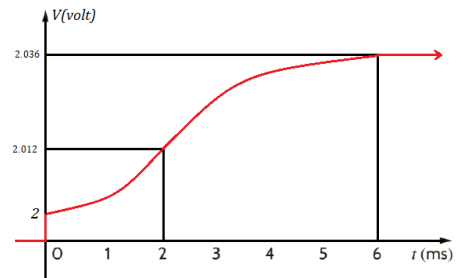
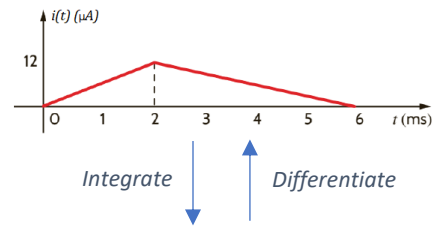
## Graphing integration/differentiation relations.

- Extract the definition for the piecewise function from the given graph.
  - Convert the graph and everything to standard units.
- Integrate/differentiate functions for each case separately

**Example integration problem:** graph  $V_c(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int_0^t I_c(t') dt' + V_0$  given the graph of  $I(t)$  and  $V_0 = 2V, C = 1\mu F = 10^{-6}F$

$$I_{\mu A}(t_{ms}) = \begin{cases} 12 \cdot 10^{-6} t \\ 2 \cdot 10^{-3} t \\ -12 \cdot 10^{-6} t + 1.8 \cdot 10^{-5} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 6 \cdot 10^{-3} t & t \in [0, 2] \text{ ms} \\ -3 \cdot 10^{-3} t + 1.8 \cdot 10^{-5} & t \in (2, 6] \text{ ms} \end{cases}$$

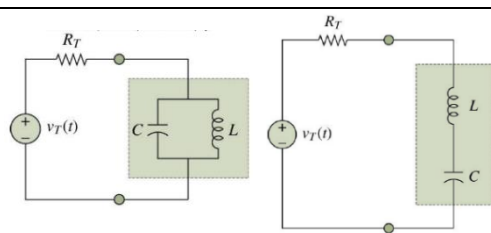
$$\Rightarrow V_{volt}(t_{ms}) = \begin{cases} \frac{6 \cdot 10^{-3} t^2}{2 \cdot 10^{-6}} + 2 \\ \frac{-3 \cdot 10^{-3}}{2 \cdot 10^{-6}} t^2 + \frac{1.8 \cdot 10^{-5}}{10^{-6}} t - 0.03 + 2.012 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 3000t^2 + 2 & t \in [0, 2] \\ -1500t^2 + 18t + 1.982 & t \in (2, 6] \end{cases}$$



More curves for Power  $P(t) = I(t)V(t)$  or Energy  $W_L(t) = L \int_{-\infty}^t IdI$  or  $W_C = C \int_{-\infty}^t VdV$  can be constructed and drawn in the same manner.

**Note:** integration graph for  $0 \Rightarrow$  constant, constant  $\Rightarrow$  line, line  $\Rightarrow$  parabola, etc.

<b>Faraday law</b> $\varepsilon = -\frac{d\Phi}{dt}$ - Magnetic flux is measured in weber (Wb = V.S)	Induced EMF is given by the rate of change of the magnetic flux. <b>Inductance (Henry = V/A):</b> a property of inductor, measures the amount of induced EMF per unit change in current	
$V_L(t) = L \frac{dI}{dt}$ $I_L = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-\infty}^t V_L(t') dt'$ $P(t) = I(t)V(t) = \frac{dW(t)}{dt}$	Voltage on an inductor Current flowing through inductor - Inductor in DC circuits = Short circuit - Inductor in AC circuits = Open circuit	Equivalent inductance: - For <b>series</b> inductors = $\Sigma L_i$ - For <b>parallel</b> inductors = $1/\Sigma L_i^{-1}$ $W(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t I(t')V(t') dt'$ $= L \int_{-\infty}^t IdI = \frac{L}{2} I^2(t) + W(0)$
<b>Same equations for power and energy apply</b>		
$A + Bj = L(\cos(\theta) + jsin(\theta)) = Le^{j\theta}$ $L = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}, \theta = \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$ $A = L * \cos(\theta), B = L * \sin(\theta)$ $\frac{L_1 \angle \theta_1}{L_2 \angle \theta_2} = \frac{L_1}{L_2} \angle (\theta_1 - \theta_2)$ $L_1 \angle \theta_1 * L_2 \angle \theta_2 = L_1 L_2 \angle (\theta_1 + \theta_2)$	Complex number formulas for phasor calculations. $\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \cos x$ $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \sin x$ $\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right) = \cos x$ $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right) = -\sin x$	<b>Recall</b> $\sin(A \pm B) = \sin A \cos B \pm \cos A \sin B$ $\cos(A \pm B) = \cos A \cos B \mp \sin A \sin B$ $\tan A \pm B = \frac{\tan A \pm \tan B}{1 \mp \tan A \tan B}$ $\sin A \cos B = 0.5(\sin(A+B) + \sin(A-B))$ $\cos A \cos B = 0.5(\cos(A+B) + \cos(A-B))$ $\sin A \sin B = 0.5(\cos(A-B) - \cos(A+B))$
$Z_R = R$ $Z_C = \frac{1}{j\omega C} = -\frac{j}{\omega C}$ $Z_L = j\omega L$ $Z = R + jX$ - Re(Z) = Resistance - Im(Z) = Reactance	- Impedance of Resistor, Capacitor, and Inductor. - Equivalent impedance can be found in the same way as equivalent resistance. $X > 0 \Rightarrow \text{Inductive impedance}$ $X < 0 \Rightarrow \text{Capacitive Impedance}$	<b>Recall</b> Angular frequency (rad/s) = $2\pi * \text{natural frequency (Hz)}$ $\omega = 2\pi f = \frac{2\pi}{T}$

$\tau \frac{dx}{dt} + x = K_s f(t)$ <p>General form of a differential equation for a 1<sup>st</sup> order circuit (with 1 capacitor or 1 inductor)</p>	<p><math>x</math>: some variable, current/voltage through/on the capacitor/inductor.</p> <p><math>\tau</math>: transient time (growth/decay until steady state)</p> <p><math>f(t)</math>: input to the system (from current/voltage source)</p> <p><math>K_s</math>: DC gain, final output at the steady state (when <math>t \rightarrow \infty</math> and the input became constant)</p>	<p>Voltage and current on/through capacitor or inductor cannot change immediately because this will require infinite power.</p> $V_{C L}(0^-) = V_{C L}(0^+) = V_{C L}(0)$ $I_{C L}(0^-) = I_{C L}(0^+) = I_{C L}(0)$ <p><b>Recall:</b> in DC circuits (in steady state, circuit has been closed for a long time), capacitor acts as an open circuit, inductor – closed.</p>								
<p><b>Solution:</b></p> $x(t) = x(\infty) + (x(0^+) - x(\infty))e^{-t/\tau}$ $x(t) = x_F + x_N$ <p><b>Transient response</b> = Forced (steady state) response + Natural response</p>	<p><b>Recall:</b> capacitor discharging acts as a voltage source with voltage <math>V = V_C(0)</math>, inductor discharging acts as a current source with <math>I_S = I_L(0)</math></p> <p><math>x_F</math> = particular solution to the ODE</p> <p><math>x_N</math> = homogeneous solution</p>	<p><math>\tau = R_T C</math> for single capacitor circuit</p> <p><math>\tau = \frac{L}{R_T}</math> for single inductor circuit</p> <p><math>-R_T</math> is the thevenin equivalent resistance looking from capacitor(inductor) terminals.</p> <p>Thevenin ODE: <math>V_T = CR_T \frac{dV_C}{dt} + V_C</math></p> <p>Norton ODE: <math>i_N = \frac{L}{R_N} \frac{di_L}{dt} + i_L</math></p>								
$H(j\omega) = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} =  H  \angle -\text{atan}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)$ <p>Frequency response: how the output changes in response to a sinusoidal input.</p> <p><b>Recall:</b></p> $ H  = \sqrt{(Re(H))^2 + (Im(H))^2}, \angle H = \text{atan}\left(\frac{Im(H)}{Re(H)}\right)$	<p><b>Cutoff angular</b> frequency of the filter <math>\omega_0</math>: the value after which the filter effect begins to be visible.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- RC filters <math>\omega_0 = 1/RC</math></li><li>- RL filters <math>\omega_0 = R/L</math></li></ul>	<p><b>Low(high)-pass filter:</b> passes low(high)-frequency signals only and block other freqs (low=below cutoff, high=above cutoff)</p> <p><b>Bandpass filter:</b> passes signals with frequencies only in some range <math>[\omega_1, \omega_2]</math></p> <p><b>Bode-plot for filters:</b> two plots, first <math>(\omega,  H )</math>, second <math>(\omega, \angle H)</math>, usually logarithmic scaled.</p>								
<p><b>Frequency response for filters</b></p> <p>(a) Low-pass RC filter <math>H(j\omega) = \frac{1}{1+j\omega RC} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\omega RC)^2}} \angle \text{atan}(-\omega RC)</math></p> <p>(b) High-pass RL filter <math>H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega L}{R+j\omega L} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\frac{R}{\omega L})^2}} \angle \text{atan}\left(\frac{R}{\omega L}\right)</math></p> <p>(c) High-pass RC filter <math>H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega RC}{j\omega RC+1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\frac{1}{\omega RC})^2}} \angle \text{atan}\left(\frac{1}{\omega RC}\right)</math></p> <p>(d) Low-pass RL filter <math>H(j\omega) = \frac{R}{R+j\omega L} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(\frac{\omega L}{R})^2}} \angle \text{atan}\left(-\frac{\omega L}{R}\right)</math></p> <p>(e) Series RLC bandpass filter</p> $H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega RC}{j\omega RC - \omega^2 LC + 1} = \frac{\omega RC}{\sqrt{(1 - \omega^2 LC)^2 + (\omega RC)^2}} \angle \frac{\pi}{2} - \text{atan}\left(\frac{\omega RC}{1 - \omega^2 LC}\right) =$ <div><math display="block">= \frac{j\omega A}{(\frac{j\omega}{\omega_1} + 1)(\frac{j\omega}{\omega_2} + 1)} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} A = RC \\ \omega_1 = \frac{2}{CR + \sqrt{C^2 R^2 - 4LC}} \\ \omega_2 = \frac{2}{CR + \sqrt{C^2 R^2 - 4LC}} \end{cases}</math><math display="block"> H  = \frac{A\omega}{\sqrt{(\frac{\omega^2}{\omega_1^2} + 1)(\frac{\omega^2}{\omega_2^2} + 1)}}</math><math display="block">\angle H = \frac{\pi}{2} - \text{atan}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_1}\right) - \text{atan}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_2}\right)</math></div> <div><math display="block">\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} = \text{natural or resonant frequency}</math><math display="block">Q = \frac{1}{2\zeta} = \frac{1}{\omega_0 CR} = \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} = \text{quality factor}</math><math display="block">\zeta = \frac{1}{2Q} = \frac{R}{2} \sqrt{\frac{C}{L}} = \text{damping ratio}</math><math display="block">B = \frac{\omega_n}{Q} = \text{bandwidth}</math></div> <p>(f) Parallel RLC bandpass filter <math>H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega L}{R - j\omega L + j\omega L}</math></p>										
<p><b>Cramer's rule:</b></p> $\begin{cases} a_1x + b_1y = c_1 \\ a_2x + b_2y = c_2 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x = \frac{c_1b_2 - b_1c_2}{a_1b_2 - b_1a_2} \\ y = \frac{a_1c_2 - c_1a_2}{a_1b_2 - b_1a_2} \end{cases}$ <p><b>Operator method:</b> write <math>n</math> 1<sup>st</sup> order ODEs, substitute <math>s = \frac{d}{dt}</math> then solve for any of the variables and substitute <math>s</math> back to get the <math>n^{th}</math> order ODE</p>										
$\frac{1}{\omega_n^2} \frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2} + \frac{2\zeta}{\omega_n} \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + x(t) = K_s f(t)$ <p>General form of 2<sup>nd</sup> order circuit ODE</p>	<p><math>\zeta</math>: the damping ratio</p> <p><math>\omega_n</math>: natural frequency</p> <p><math>f(t)</math>: input</p> <p><math>K_s</math>: DC gain</p>	 <p>Parallel RLC circuit: <math>LCi_L'' + \frac{L}{R}i_L' + i_L = \frac{1}{R}V_T</math></p> <p>Series RLC circuit: <math>LCv_C'' + RCv_C' + v_C = V_T</math></p>								
<p><b>Solution</b></p> $x(t) = x_F + x_N = K_s f + (\alpha_1 e^{s_1 t} + \alpha_2 e^{s_2 t})$ $s_{1,2} = \begin{cases} -\zeta\omega_n \pm \omega_n\sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1} & \zeta > 1 \quad \text{Overdamped response} \\ -\omega_n & \zeta = 1 \quad \text{Critically damped response} \\ -\zeta\omega_n \pm j\omega_n\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2} & 0 < \zeta < 1 \quad \text{Underdamped response} \end{cases}$										
<p>Analogy b/w Series RLC circuit and Mass-Spring-Damper mechanical system</p> $Lv_c'' + Rv_c' + \frac{1}{C}v_c = V_T$ $my'' + by' + ky = u$										
<table><tr><th>Electrical System</th><th>Mechanical System</th></tr><tr><td>Inductance <math>L</math></td><td>Mass <math>m</math></td></tr><tr><td>Resistance <math>R</math></td><td>Damping coeff. <math>b</math></td></tr><tr><td>Capacitance <math>C</math></td><td>Compliance <math>1/k</math></td></tr></table>			Electrical System	Mechanical System	Inductance $L$	Mass $m$	Resistance $R$	Damping coeff. $b$	Capacitance $C$	Compliance $1/k$
Electrical System	Mechanical System									
Inductance $L$	Mass $m$									
Resistance $R$	Damping coeff. $b$									
Capacitance $C$	Compliance $1/k$									

$n = p = n_i$	Intrinsic concentration of electrons and holes for some <b>pure</b> material are equal to the intrinsic carrier concentration.	$n_i = 1.5 \cdot 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-3}$ (electrons per cubic meters) for silicon at room temperature.
$n_{p\_side} p_{p\_side} = n_{n\_side} p_{n\_side} = n_i^2$	<b>Mass action law:</b> for any (doped) semiconductor: <b>electrons con. * holes con.</b> remains constant and is equal to the carrier con. squared, this can be used with p-side, or n-side.	
n-type: $n > n_i, p < p_i$ p-type: $n < n_i, p > p_i$	The number of electrons for an n-type semiconductor is greater than the intrinsic concentration for pure material.	n-type: doped with an element of group 15 (e.g., Arsenic) p-type: doped with an element of group 13 (e.g., Indium)
$V_0 = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{N_A N_D}{n_i^2} \right)$ $x_n = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s N_a}{q} \frac{1}{N_a N_a + N_d} V_0}$ $x_p = \sqrt{\frac{2\epsilon_s N_d}{q} \frac{1}{N_a N_a + N_d} V_0}$ $W_0 = x_n + x_p, \quad Q(x) = -qN_A$ $E(x) = -\frac{dV(x)}{dx}, \quad \frac{dE(x)}{dx} = \frac{Q(x)}{\epsilon}, \quad \kappa = \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0}$	$N_A$ = acceptor concentration. $N_D$ = donor concentration $V_0$ = Built-in potential for the semi-conductor. $x_n$ = n-side width of depletion region. $x_p$ = p-side width of depletion region. $W_0$ = total width of depletion region. $Q(x)$ = electric charge $E(x)$ = strength of electric field $\epsilon$ = permittivity of substance $\epsilon_0$ = permittivity of vacuum $\kappa$ = dielectric constant.	
$i_D = -I_0 = I_s$ $i_D = I_0 e^{\frac{qv_D}{kT}} - I_0 \cong I_0 e^{38.67 v_D}$ <p>Diffusion current for reverse-biased and forward-biased diode.</p> <p>Diffusion current <math>i_D</math>: holes moving from p to n (conventional direction)</p> <p>Drift current: electrons flowing from n to p.</p>	$q \cong 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ C}$ electron charge $k \cong 1.381 \cdot 10^{-23} \frac{\text{J}}{\text{K}}$ boltzmann const. $T$ : material temprature in kelvins (room temp $\cong 300 \text{ K}$ ) $I_s$ <u>reverse saturation current</u> : very small current ( $10^{-12}$ to $10^{-15} \text{ A}$ ) resulting from minority charge carriers flowing through the depletion region.	<p>Circuit models for <math>v_D \geq 0</math> (short) and <math>v_D &lt; 0</math> (open)</p> <p>Symbol for ideal diode</p>
<p>Two methods to determine whether the diode is conducting or not.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Assume it's not conducting, replace it with open circuit, calculate potential around its terminals using NVM (<math>V_{D1}, V_{D2}</math>). If <math>V_{D1} &lt; V_{D2} \Rightarrow V_D &lt; 0</math>, then our assumption was correct.</li> <li>Assume it's conducting, replace it with short circuit, calculate current through the short circuit using MCM (<math>i_d</math>). If <math>i_d &gt; 0</math> then our assumption was correct.</li> </ul> <p>* Non-ideal diode is equivalent to an ideal diode in series with a battery of offset volatage (silicon diodes, <math>v_\gamma = 0.6\text{V}</math>, germanium <math>v_\gamma = 0.3\text{V}</math>) - Diode starts to conduct when <math>V_{D1} &gt; V_{D2}</math> or <math>i_d &gt; 0</math></p>		<p>Diode off = open circuit Diode on = short circuit</p>
$v_T = i_D R_T + v_D$ $i_D = I_0 \left( e^{\frac{qv_D}{kT}} - 1 \right)$	<p>Diode (quiescent/operating/Q) <u>point</u> represents the actual current and voltage of the diode and can be calculated by solving the two equations simultaneously for <math>v_D, i_D</math> (approx. graphical solution is used)</p> <p>The first equation comes from the Thevenin equivalent of the circuit being analyzed with the diode treated as the load.</p>	
<p>Half-wave rectifier (using diode and resistor):</p> $v_{peak} = 2v_{rms}^{rectifier} = \sqrt{2} v_{rms}^{source}, \quad v_{dc}^{avg} = \frac{v_{peak}}{\pi}$		
<p>Full-wave rectifier (using bridge rectifier):</p> $v_{peak} = \sqrt{2} v_{rms}, \quad v_{dc}^{avg} = \frac{2v_{peak}}{\pi}$		
		<p>Logic gates using diodes (from left to right): AND, NOR, NAND, OR</p>
<p>Diode clamp with forward diode (in picture, -) or reverse diode (+) shifted by <math>v_{DC}</math></p> $v_{out} = v_s \pm V_{peak}, \quad v_{out} = v_s \pm V_{peak} - v_{DC}$		