

## Part 1

## **Diodes**

**Assoc. Prof. Liter Siek** 

email: elsiek@ntu.edu.sg

**EE2002 Analog Electronics** 





### At the end of this lesson, you should be able to:

- Describe ideal and real diodes
- Distinguish between an ideal diode under the reversebiased situation and ideal diode under the forward-biased condition
- Discuss the regions of operation of the diode including forward-bias region, reverse-bias region and breakdown region
- Analyse the relationship between the current in the diode and voltage applied in diode and hence, the extraction of parameters for the diode formula with two sets of  $(I_D, V_D)$  given





- Determine the Q-point or the values of  $I_{\mathrm{D}}$  and  $V_{\mathrm{D}}$  of diode by iteration method
- Analyse small-signal diode circuits to determine the dynamic resistance of the diode, if the Q-point and diode equation are known
- Explain the concept of diode rectifiers.

## **Outline**



- Ideal Diodes
- Real Diodes
- Forward-bias and Reverse-bias of a PN Junction
- Terminal Characteristics of Junction Diodes
- Analysis of Diode Circuits
- Diode Rectifiers
- Elementary DC Power Supply
- Absolute Value Circuit





The ideal diode is a two-terminal device having the circuit symbol and i-v characteristics shown in Figures 1 and 2.

Forward-bias:  $V_D = 0 \Rightarrow$  Diode behaves like a short circuit.

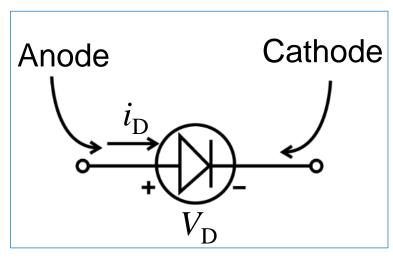


Figure 1. The ideal diode circuit symbol

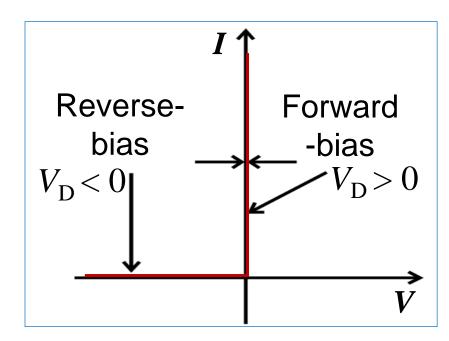


Figure 2. The ideal diode i-v characteristic.





### Under the reverse-biased condition,

 $V_{\rm D} < 0 \implies i_{\rm D} = 0$  and the diode behaves as an open circuit.

### Under the forward-biased condition,

- A positive current is applied to the ideal diode;  $V_{\rm D} \approx 0~{\rm V}$  appears across it.
- The ideal diode behaves as a short circuit in the forward direction and an open circuit in the reverse direction.





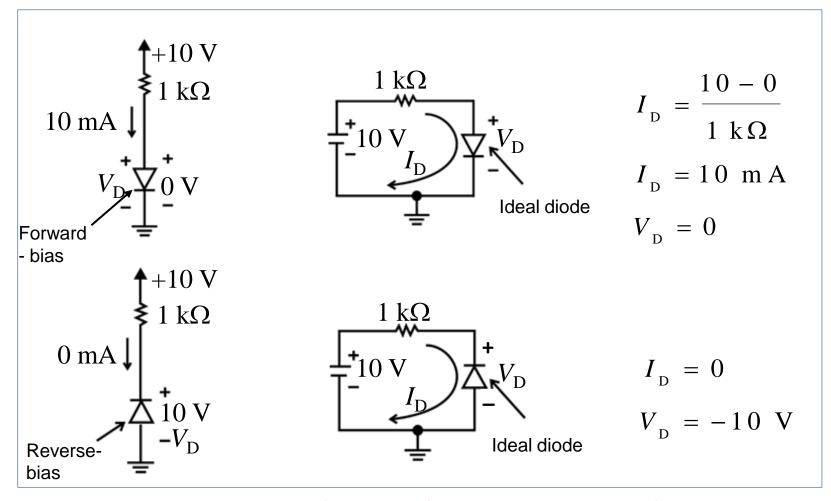
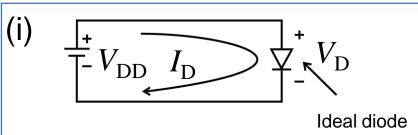


Figure 3. The two modes of operation of ideal diodes and the use of an external circuit to limit the forward current and the reverse voltage.

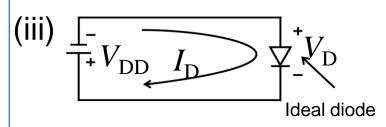


#### Forward-bias vs Reverse-bias of an Ideal Diode



Forward-bias:

$$V_{\rm D} = 0 \; {\rm V} \; {\rm and} \; I_{\rm D} = \infty$$



Reverse-bias:

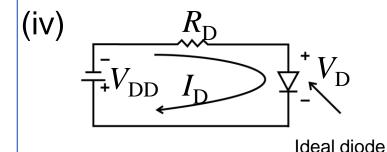
$$I_{\rm D}\!=0$$
 and  $V_{\rm D}\!=\!-V_{\rm DD}$ 

(ii) 
$$R_{\rm D}$$

$$V_{\rm DD} V_{\rm DD}$$
| Ideal diode

Forward-bias:

$$V_{\mathrm{D}} = 0 \; \mathrm{V} \; \mathrm{and} \; I_{\mathrm{D}} = V_{\mathrm{DD}}/R_{\mathrm{D}}$$



Reverse-bias:

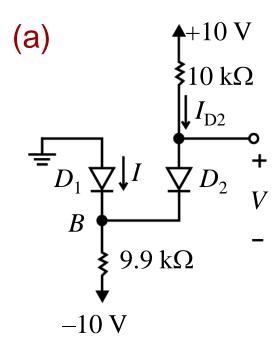
$$I_{\rm D}\!=0$$
 and  $V_{\rm D}\!=\!-V_{\rm DD}$ 

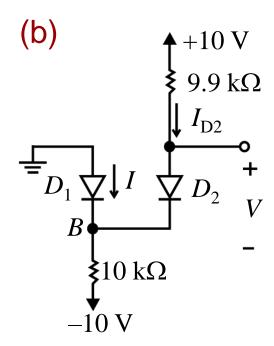




### **Example:**

Assuming the diodes to be ideal, find the values of I and V in the circuit diagrams given below:







#### **Solution:**

(A) Refer to the circuit in (a) and assume that both ideal diodes are conducting.

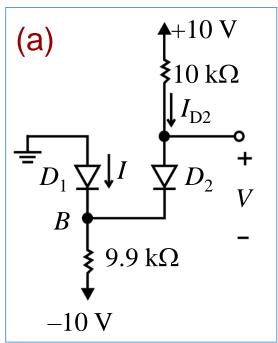
$$V_{\rm D1} = V_{\rm D2} = 0; \ V_{\rm B} = 0; \ V = 0$$

$$I_{\rm D2} = \frac{10 - 0}{10 \text{ k}\Omega} = 1.0 \text{ m A}$$

Using KCL at node B,

$$I + I_{D2} = \frac{0 - (-10)}{9.9 \text{ k}\Omega} = 1.01 \text{ m A}$$
  

$$\therefore I = 0.01 \text{ m A}$$





## **Solution (Cont.):**

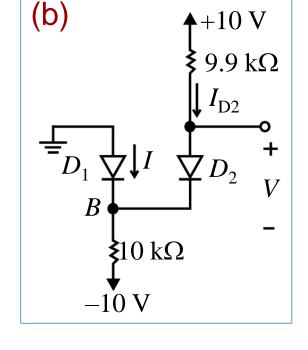
(B) Refer to the circuit in (b) and assume that both ideal diodes are conducting.

$$V_{\rm R} = 0; V = 0$$

$$I_{\rm D2} = \frac{10 - 0}{9.9 \text{ k}\Omega} = 1.01 \text{ m A}$$

Applying KCL at node B,
$$I + I_{D2} = \frac{0 - (-10)}{10 \text{ k}\Omega} = 1.0 \text{ m A}$$

I = -0.01 m A



This is impossible! The original assumption is not correct.



## **Solution (Cont.):**

Now, assuming  $D_1$  is off and  $D_2$  is on, then

$$I_{\rm D2} = \frac{10 - (-10)}{19.9 \text{ k}\Omega} = 1.005 \text{ m A}$$

$$V_{\rm B} = (1.005 \text{ m A} \times 10 \text{ k}\Omega) + (-10 \text{ V})$$
  
= 0.05 V

The diode  $D_1$  is reverse-biased as assumed, and

$$I = 0$$

$$V = +0.05 \text{ V}$$





### What is a pn junction diode?

- A pn junction diode is a two-terminal semiconductor device having circuit symbol as shown in Figure 4.
- The pn junction is produced by placing a layer of p-type semiconductor next to a layer of n-type semiconductor.

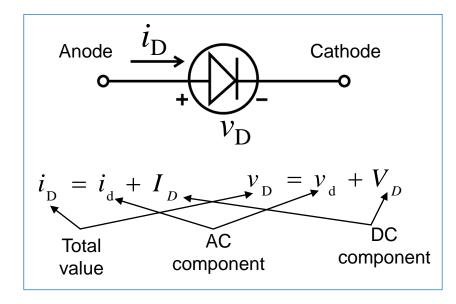


Figure 4. The circuit symbol of a pn junction





The formation of a pn junction is shown in Figure 5.

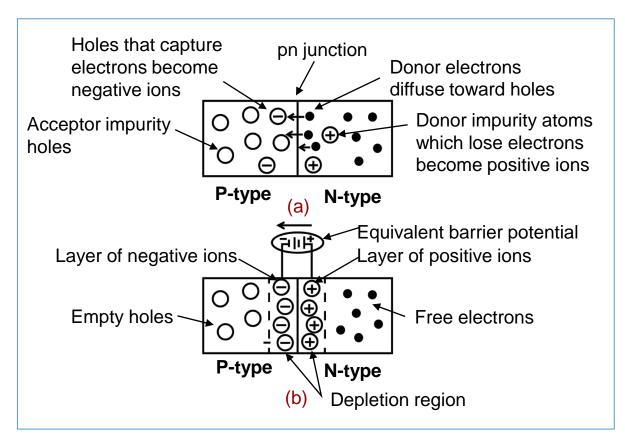


Figure 5. The formation of a pn junction.

### Barrier potential:

Germanium (Ge)  $\approx 0.2 \sim 0.30 \text{ V}$ 

Silicon (Si)  $\cong 0.6 \sim 0.70 \text{ V}$ 

# Forward-bias of a PN Junction



Forward-bias is one of the two possible ways to apply an external voltage source to a pn junction.

The details are shown in Figure 6.

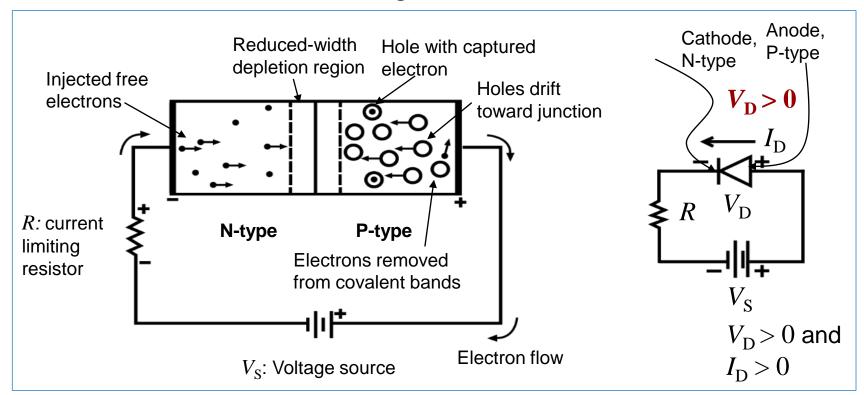


Figure 6. The pn junction with forward-bias.

# Forward-bias of a PN Junction



A pn junction is forward-biased by an external voltage source which makes its p-type end more positive than its n-type end.

A forward-biased junction will allow current flow through it.

# Reverse-bias of a PN Junction



Under reverse-bias condition, the external voltage source is applied to the pn junction as shown in Figure 7.

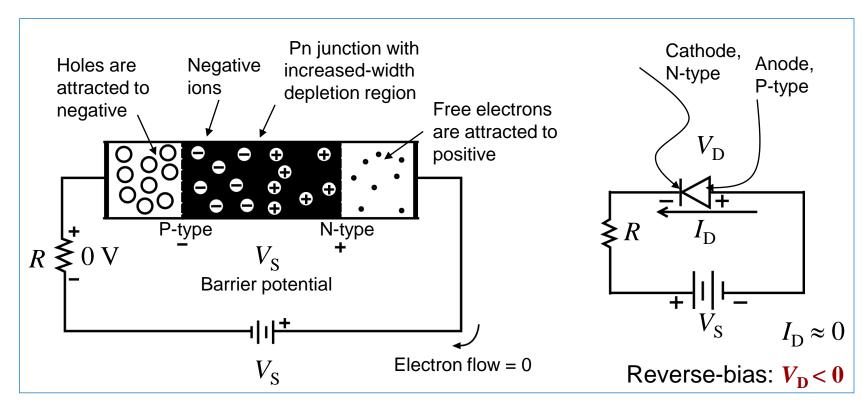


Figure 7. The pn junction with reverse-bias.

# Reverse-bias of a PN Junction



- A pn junction is reverse-biased by an external voltage source which makes its p-type end more negative than its n-type end.
- A reverse-biased pn junction will have a current of approximately zero through it.

# Terminal Characteristics of Junction Diodes



Figure 8 shows the silicon junction diode i-v characteristics.

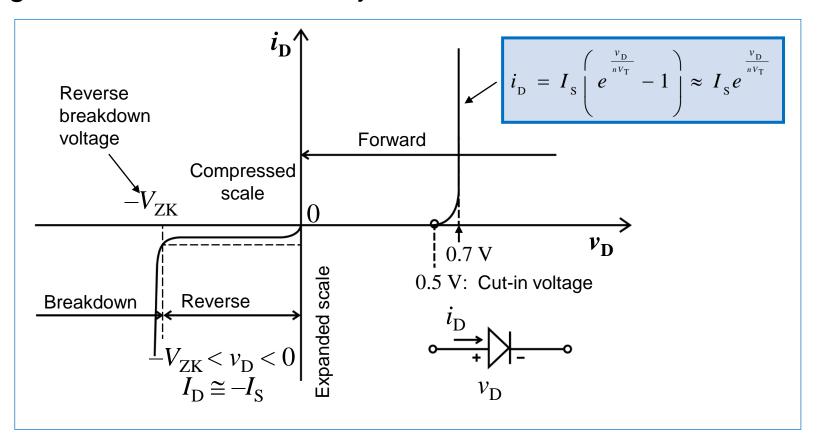


Figure 8. The diode i-v relationship with some scales expanded and others compressed in order to reveal details.

## Terminal Characteristics of Junction Diodes



## **Three Distinct Regions:**

- Forward-bias region,  $v_D > 0$
- Reverse-bias region,  $-V_{\rm ZK} < v_{\rm D} < 0$
- Breakdown region,  $v_{\rm D} < -V_{\rm ZK}$

For 
$$0 < v_D < 0.5 \text{ V}, I_D \approx 0$$

For normal applications,  $-V_{\rm ZK} < v_{\rm D} < \approx 0.70 \ {\rm V}$ 

## The Forward-Bias Region



The forward-bias region of operation is entered when terminal voltage  $v_{\rm D} > 0$  and the i-v relationship is described by the Shockley diode equation.

$$I_{\rm D} = I_{\rm S} (e^{\frac{v_{\rm D}}{nV_{\rm T}}} - 1)$$

$$\approx I_{\rm S} e^{\frac{v_{\rm D}}{nV_{\rm T}}} - 1$$

where,

 $I_{\rm D}$  = diode current (A),

 $I_{\rm S}$  = saturation current (A),

- doubles in value for every 10°C rise in temperature
- is of the order of 10<sup>-17</sup> A for normal diodes

## The Forward-Bias Region



## (Cont.)

n=1 (emission coefficient), and  $V_{\rm T}=$  thermal voltage [see equation(2)].

$$V_{\mathrm{T}} = \frac{kT}{q} - (2)$$

 $I_{D} = I_{S} \left(e^{\frac{v_{D}}{nV_{T}}} - 1\right)$   $\approx I_{S} e^{\frac{v_{D}}{nV_{T}}}$ 

where,

 $k = \text{Boltzmann's constant}, 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$ 

T = absolute temperature (Kelvin)

q = charge on one electron,  $1.602 \times 10^{-19}$  C.

At room temperature (27°C),

\* $V_T \approx 25 \text{ mV} \text{ or } 26 \text{ mV} \text{ at } 27^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

\*(depends on which book is used)





For  $I_D >> I_S$ , equation (1) becomes

$$I_{\rm D} \cong I_{\rm S} e^{\frac{v_{\rm D}}{nV_{\rm T}}} - (3)$$

or

$$v_{\rm D} = n V_{\rm T} \ln \left( \frac{i_{\rm D}}{I_{\rm S}} \right)$$
 (4)

Figure 8 reveals (See slide 19):

- $I_{\rm D}$  is negligibly small for  $v_{\rm D}$  < 0.5 V, the cut-in voltage.
- $v_{\rm D}$  varies within 0.5 to 0.9 V for a conducting diode.





Using equation (4), 
$$v_D = n V_T \ln \left( \frac{i_D}{I_S} \right)$$
,

1-mA diode:  $I_D = 1.0 \text{ mA}, v_D = 0.65 \text{ V}$ 

1-A diode:  $I_D = 1.0 \text{ A}, v_D = 0.83 \text{ V}$ 

Check if you can compute!

However, for simple diode model, assuming  $v_{\rm D}$  = 0.70 V, irrespective of the current,

$$I_{\rm D} = 1.0 \text{ mA}, v_{\rm D} = 0.70 \text{ V};$$

$$I_{\rm D} = 1.0 \,\text{A}, \, v_{\rm D} = 0.70 \,\text{V}.$$



## The Forward-Bias Region

The forward-bias diode  $i_{\rm D}$ - $v_{\rm D}$  characteristic varies with temperature as shown in Figure 9.

At a given constant  $I_D$ ,  $v_D$  decreases by approximately 2 mV for every 1°C increase in temperature, i.e., the temperature coefficient (TC) is -2 mV/°C.

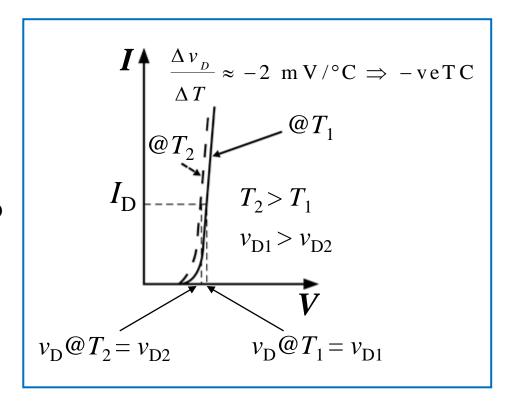


Figure 9. Illustration of the temperature dependence of the diode forward characteristics

This property can be used to build a thermometer.





In this region  $V_{\rm D}$  is negative, but with  $v_{\rm D} > -V_{\rm ZK}$ .

If  $|v_{\rm D}| << V_{\rm T}$ , then equation becomes:

$$i_{D} = I_{S} \left( e^{\frac{v_{D}}{nV_{T}}} - 1 \right) \Rightarrow -I_{S}$$

$$\because \text{ for } v_{D} \stackrel{\text{<}}{<} V_{T} \Rightarrow e^{\frac{v_{D}}{nV_{T}}} \stackrel{\text{<}}{<} 1$$

$$\therefore i_D \cong -I_S \quad ---- \quad (5)$$





The breakdown region diode operation is achieved when the reverse-bias voltage exceeds a threshold value (breakdown voltage) specific to the particular diode.

This is shown in Figure 8 (as shown in slide 19) and is denoted  $V_{\rm ZK}$ .





Consider the diode circuit shown in Figure 10.

The values for  $I_{\rm D}$  and  $V_{\rm D}$  can be found by solving equations (6) and (7).

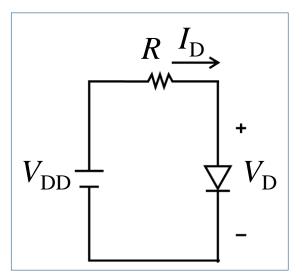


Figure 10. A simple diode circuit.

For 
$$V_{\rm DD} > 0.5 \text{ V}$$
,
$$I_{\rm D} = I_{\rm S} e^{\frac{V_{\rm D}}{nV_{\rm T}}} \qquad ----- (6)$$

By KVL,

$$I_{D} = \frac{V_{DD} - V_{D}}{R} - (7)$$

Equations (6) and (7) give:

$$I_{_{
m D}},\ V_{_{
m D}}$$



### **Graphical Analysis**

Graphical analysis is done by plotting Equations (6) and (7) on the i-v plane as depicted in Figure 11.

The straight line represents Equation (7) and is known as load line.

The intersection point of load line and diode characteristic is the operating point Q of the circuit (Q stands for Quiescent).

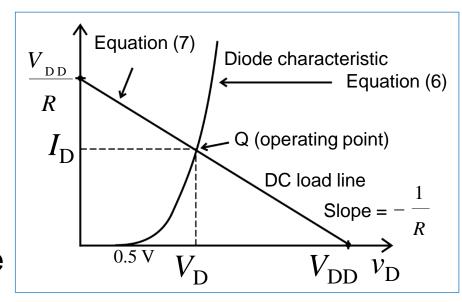
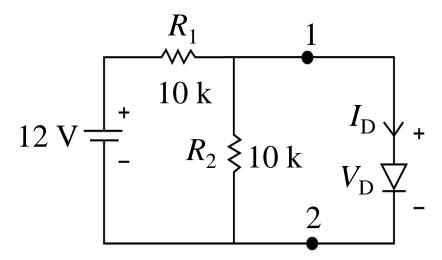


Figure 11. Graphical analysis of the circuit in Figure 10.



#### **Iterative Solution**

Solving diode circuit by iteration method:



Given for the diode D:  $I_s = 10 \text{ nA}$ ; n = 2

$$\therefore I_{\rm D} = I_{\rm S} e^{\frac{V_{\rm D}}{2V_{\rm T}}} \text{ or } V_{\rm D} = 2V_{\rm T} \ln \frac{I_{\rm D}}{I_{\rm S}}$$
EE2002 Analog Electronics

Diodes

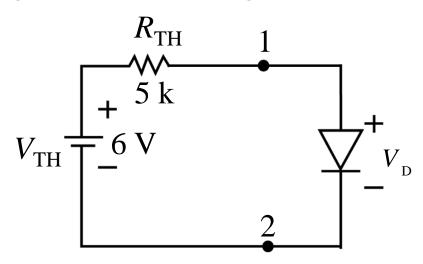




#### **Iterative Solution**

#### **Solution:**

Step 1: Thevenin equivalent circuit seen by  $V_{
m D}$ 



Loadline eq'n: 
$$I_{\rm D} = \frac{V_{\rm TH} - V_{\rm D}}{R_{\rm TH}}$$

$$R_{\text{TH}} = R_{1} / / R_{2}$$

$$= 5.0 \text{ k}$$

$$V_{\text{TH}} = \left(\frac{R_{2}}{R_{1} + R_{2}}\right) V_{\text{S}}$$

$$= \frac{10}{20} 12$$

$$= 6.0 V$$



#### **Iterative Solution**

## Solution (Cont.):

Step 2: Try  $V_D = 0.70 \text{ V}$ , then

$$I_{\rm D} \cong \frac{V_{\rm TH} - 0.70V}{R_{\rm TH}} \cong 1.06 \text{ mA}$$

Step 3: 
$$V_D \cong 2 \times 0.026 \ln \left( \frac{1.06 \text{ m A}}{10 \text{ n A}} \right) = 0.602 \text{ V}$$



#### **Iterative Solution**

## Solution (Cont.):

Step 4: 
$$I_D \approx \frac{6 - 0.602}{5} = 1.08 \text{ m A}$$

Step 5: 
$$V_D \cong 2 \times 0.026 \ln \left( \frac{1.08 \text{ m A}}{10 \text{ n A}} \right) = 0.603 \text{ V}$$

Step 6: 
$$I_D \cong \frac{6 - 0.603}{5} = 1.079 \text{ m A}$$



#### **Iterative Solution**

## **Solution (Cont.):**

Step 7: 
$$V_D \approx 0.026 \ln \left( \frac{1.079 \text{ m A}}{10 \text{ n A}} \right) = 0.603 \text{ V}$$

$$I_{\rm D} = \frac{V_{\rm TH} - V_{\rm D}}{5.0}$$

$$V_{\rm D} = 2V_{\rm T} \ln \left(\frac{I_{\rm D}}{I_{\rm S}}\right)$$

$$1.06^{(2)} 1.08^{(4)} 1.079^{(6)} 1.079^{(8)} \text{ m A}$$

$$0.70^{(1)} 0.602^{(3)} 0.603^{(5)} 0.603^{(7)} \text{ V}$$

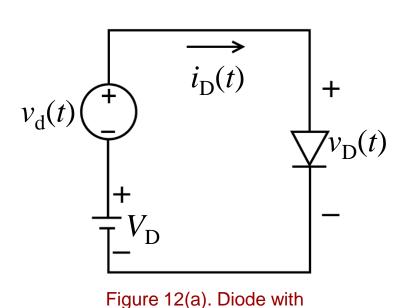
$$1.079^{(8)} \text{ Initial guess value for } V_{\rm D}$$

Q-point:  $I_D = 1.079 \text{ mA}, V_D = 0.603 \text{ V}$ 

# **Analysis of Small-signal Diode Circuits**



Consider the circuit shown in the Figure 12(a).



AC and DC voltages.

$$v_{D}(t) = V_{D} + v_{d}(t)$$

$$i_{D}(t) \cong I_{S}e^{\frac{v_{D}}{nV_{T}}}$$

$$= I_{S}e^{\frac{V_{D} + v_{d}(t)}{nV_{T}}}$$

$$= I_{S}e^{\frac{v_{D}}{nV_{T}}}e^{\frac{v_{d}(t)}{nV_{T}}}$$

$$= I_{S}e^{\frac{v_{D}(t)}{nV_{T}}}$$

# **Analysis of Small-signal Diode Circuits**



$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \dots$$
 $x \ll 1 \Rightarrow e^{x} = 1 + x$ 

If 
$$x = \frac{v_d}{nV_T}$$
, For  $\frac{v_d}{nV_T} \ll 1$ ,

$$e^{\frac{v_d}{nV_T}} \cong 1 + \frac{v_d}{nV_T}$$

$$i_{D}(t) = I_{D}e^{\frac{d}{nV_{T}}}$$

$$\cong I_{D}\left(1 + \frac{V_{d}(t)}{nV_{T}}\right)$$

$$i_{D}(t) \cong I_{D} + \frac{I_{D}}{nV_{T}}V_{d}(t)$$

$$= I_{D} + g_{d}V_{d}(t)$$

$$= I_{D} + i_{d}(t)$$

where 
$$g_{d} = \frac{I_{D}}{nV_{T}}$$
.



 $g_d$  is the small-signal conductance for the diode and  $i_d(t)=g_d v_d(t)$ .

 $l_{\rm d}(t)=g_{\rm d}v_{\rm d}(t).$ 

 $i_{\rm d}(t)$  is the small-signal diode current due to the small-signal voltage,  $v_{\rm d}(t)$ , across the diode.

The magnitude of

$$v_{d}(t) \ll nV_{T}.$$

$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \dots$$

$$\frac{x^{2}}{2!} \ll x \Rightarrow \frac{x}{2} \ll 1 \Rightarrow x \ll 2$$

$$\mathbf{If} \ x = \frac{v_{d}}{nV_{T}} \Rightarrow \frac{v_{d}}{nV_{T}} \ll 2$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{d} \ll 2nV_{T}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{d} \ll 2nV_{T}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{d} \ll 2nV_{T}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_{d} \ll 2 \times 26 \text{ m V}$$

$$v_{d} < 5 \text{ m V}$$



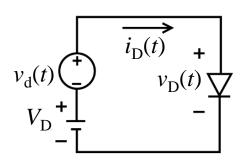


Figure 12(a). Diode with AC and DC voltages.

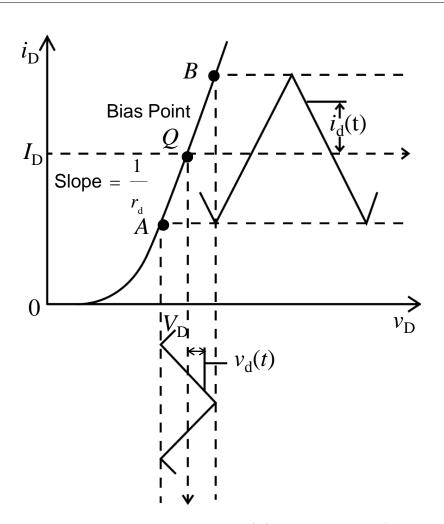


Figure 12(b). Illustration of where the AC signal is riding on the DC Q-point.





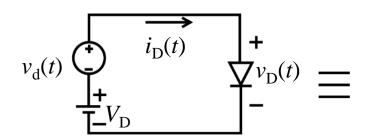
39

### **Application of Linear Superposition Principle**

#### This method is valid if

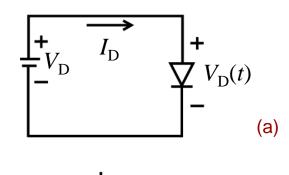
$$v_{\rm d}(t) \ll V_{\rm T}$$

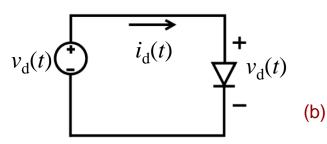
$$\left(v_{d}(t) < 5 \text{ m V}\right)$$



$$v_{\rm D}(t) = V_{\rm D} + v_{\rm d}(t)$$

$$i_{_{\mathrm{D}}}(t) = I_{_{\mathrm{D}}} + i_{_{\mathrm{d}}}(t)$$









#### **Application of Linear Superposition Principle**

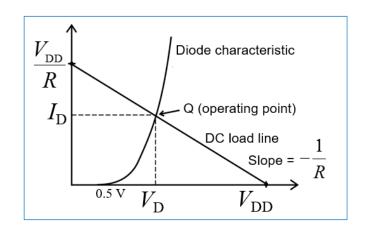
(i) The DC values for  $V_{\rm D}$  and  $I_{\rm D}$  can be found from the diode's forward  $i_{\rm D}$ - $v_{\rm D}$  curve described by the equation

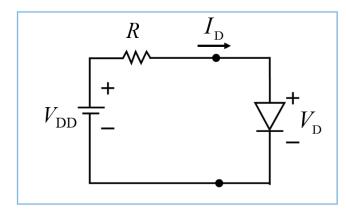
$$i_{_{\mathrm{D}}} \cong I_{_{\mathrm{S}}} e^{\frac{v_{_{\mathrm{D}}}}{nV_{_{\mathrm{T}}}}} \quad \text{or} \quad v_{_{\mathrm{D}}} \cong nV_{_{\mathrm{T}}} \ln \left(\frac{i_{_{\mathrm{D}}}}{I_{_{\mathrm{S}}}}\right)$$

and the load line equation

$$I_{\rm D} = \frac{V_{\rm DD} - V_{\rm D}}{R}$$

The DC values,  $I_{\rm D}$  and  $V_{\rm D}$ , are the coordinates of the Q-point.









### **Application of Linear Superposition Principle**

(ii) The AC values for  $i_{\rm d}(t)$  and  $v_{\rm d}(t)$  can be determined if  $i_{\rm d}(t)$  varies slightly around the Q-point (Figure 12-b in slide 38), i.e., within the portion AB of diode's  $i_{\rm D}$ - $v_{\rm D}$  curve.

This portion of  $i_D$ - $v_D$  curve approximates a straight line. Thus,  $i_d(t)$  and  $v_d(t)$ , are linearly related.

The slope or the small-signal conductance of the  $i_{\rm D}$ - $v_{\rm D}$  curve around the Q-point is constant.

### **Diode Circuit Analysis**



### **Application of Linear Superposition Principle**

From 
$$i_{D} \cong I_{S}e^{\frac{v_{D}}{nV_{T}}}, \quad \frac{\Delta i_{D}}{\Delta v_{D}} = \frac{I_{S}}{nV_{T}}e^{\frac{v_{D}}{nV_{T}}}.$$

$$\therefore g_{d} \equiv \frac{\Delta i_{D}}{\Delta v_{D}} \bigg|_{v_{D} = V_{D}}$$

$$g_{d} = \frac{1}{nV_{T}} I_{S} e^{\frac{V_{D}}{nV_{T}}}$$

$$g_{d} = \frac{I_{D}}{nV_{T}}$$

$$\therefore i_{d}(t) = g_{d}v_{d}(t)$$

- small-signal conductance of the diode at the Q-point
- $g_d$  = slope of the  $i_D$ - $v_D$  curve at the Q-point
- g<sub>d</sub> is proportional to the DC current flowing through the diode



### **Diode Circuit Analysis**

### **Application of Linear Superposition Principle**

e.g.

Given: n = 1,  $V_{\rm T} = 0.026 \text{ V}$  or 26 mV, and  $I_{\rm D} = 1 \text{ mA}$ 

$$g_{d} = \frac{1 \times 10^{-3}}{1 \times 0.026}$$

$$= 0.0385 \frac{A}{V}$$

$$= 38.5 \text{ m S or m } \text{ (S: siemens = } \text{$\mathcal{O}$: mho)}$$





### **Application of Linear Superposition**

e.g. (Cont.)

The small-signal resistance or incremental resistance, of a diode at Q-point is the reciprocal of the small-signal conductance.

$$r_{\rm d} \equiv \frac{1}{g_{\rm d}} = \frac{nV_{\rm T}}{I_{\rm D}}$$

In terms of  $r_{\rm d}$ ,

$$v_{d}(t) = i_{d}(t)r_{d}$$

# Diode Circuit Analysis: Example



$$v_{s}: +10 \text{ V} + 200 \text{ m} \text{ V}_{peak}$$

$$\downarrow R_{D}$$

$$\downarrow I_{D}$$

$$\downarrow V_{D}$$

$$\downarrow V_{D}$$

$$\downarrow V_{D}$$

$$\downarrow V_{D}$$

$$\downarrow V_{D}$$

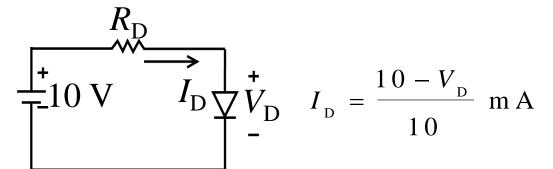
$$\downarrow V_{D}$$

For diode  $D_1$ ,  $I_S = 10^{-14} \, \text{A}$  and n = 1.

$$v_{\rm D} \cong 0.026 \ln \left( \frac{i_{\rm D}}{I_{\rm s}} \right)$$
. Find  $v_{\rm D}$  and  $i_{\rm D}$ .



#### 1. DC Analysis



$$I_{\rm D} = \frac{10 - V_{\rm D}}{10}$$

$$0.932^{(2)} \quad 0.934^{(4)} \quad 0.934^{(6)} \text{ m A}$$

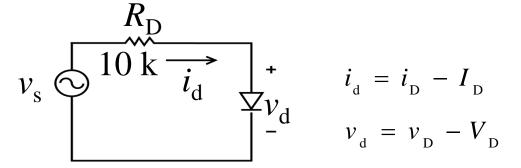
$$V_{\rm D} = 0.026 \ln \left(\frac{I_{\rm D}}{I_{\rm S}}\right)$$

$$0.70^{(1)} \quad 0.657^{(3)} \quad 0.657^{(5)} \text{ V}$$

Q-point for the diode circuit:  $I_{\rm D} = 0.934~{\rm mA}$  ,  $V_{\rm D} = 0.657~{\rm V}$ 



#### 2. AC Analysis

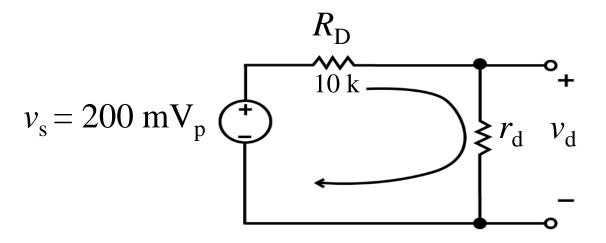


The small-signal resistance for the diode at the Q-point determined in (1) is

$$r_{\rm d} = \frac{V_{\rm T}}{I_{\rm D}} = \frac{26 \text{ m V}}{0.934 \text{ m A}} = 27.84 \Omega$$



#### 2. AC Analysis (Cont.)



$$v_{d} = \left(\frac{r_{d}}{r_{d} + R_{D}}\right) v_{s} = \left(\frac{27.84}{10,000 + 27.84}\right) (200 \text{ m V})$$
$$= 0.555 \text{ m V}_{P}$$



#### 2. AC Analysis (Cont.)

$$i_{\rm d} = \frac{v_{\rm d}}{r_{\rm d}} = 0.020 \text{ m A}_{\rm p}$$

$$v_{D} = V_{D} + v_{d} = (657 + 0.555 \sin \omega t) \text{ m V}$$

$$i_{D} = I_{D} + i_{d} = (0.934 + 0.020 \sin \omega t) \text{ m A}$$





50

A **rectifier** is a device that permits current to flow through it in one direction only.

The half-wave rectifier circuit using a diode is shown in Figure 13.

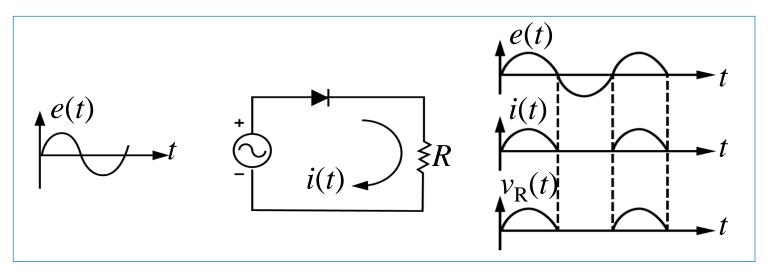


Figure 13. The diode used as a rectifier.

Current flows only during the positive half-cycle of the point.

## **Elementary DC Power Supplies**



- Most practical electronic circuits require a DC voltage source that produces and maintains a constant voltage.
- The pulsating half-sine waves must be converted to a steady DC level which can be done by filtering the waveform

The purpose of filtering the waveform for a DC power is to reject all AC components

## **Elementary DC Power Supplies**



- The process of filtering the waveform can be done by connecting a capacitor directly across the output of a halfwave rectifier.
- The AC components will "see" a low-impedance path to ground and will not therefore appear in the output.

## **Elementary DC Power Supplies**



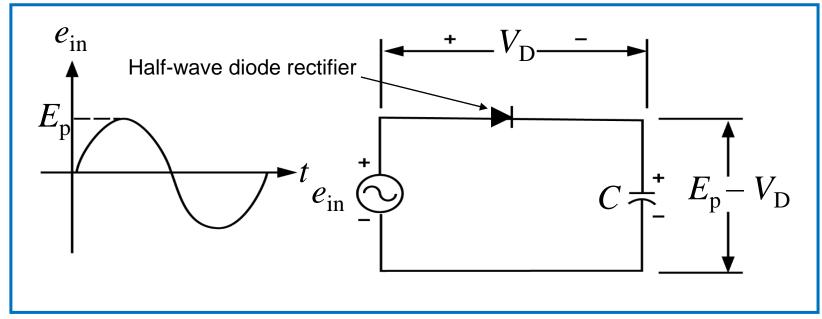


Figure 14. Filter capacitor C effectively removes the AC components from the half-wave-rectified waveform.

## **Elementary DC Power Supplies**



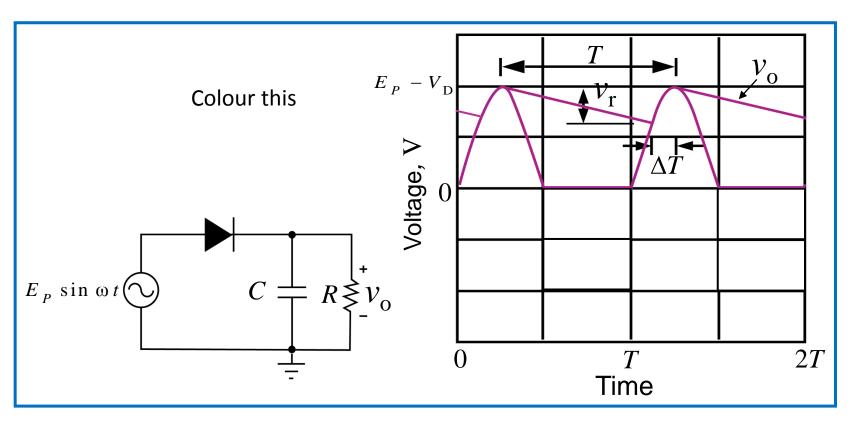


Figure 15. When load resistance R is connected across the filter capacitor, the capacitor charges and discharges, creating a load voltage that has a ripple voltage superimposed on a DC level.

## **Elementary DC Power Supplies**



A full-wave bridge rectifier is shown in Figure 16.

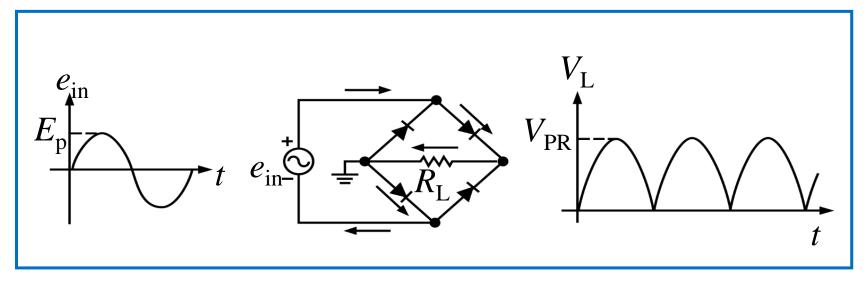


Figure 16. The full-wave bridge rectifier and output waveform.

The arrows show the direction of current flow when  $e_{\rm in}$  is positive.

## **Elementary DC Power Supplies**



Figure 17 demonstrates the current flow in the full-wave bridge rectifier.

The peak rectified voltage across  $R_{\rm L}$  is  $V_{\rm PR} = E_{\rm P} - 1.4 \, \rm V$ .

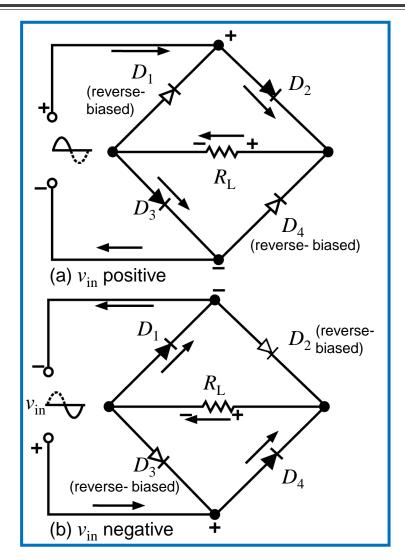


Figure 17. Current flow in the full-wave bridge rectifier.

# **Elementary DC Power Supplies**



The full-wave rectified waveform can be filtered by connecting a capacitor in parallel with load  $R_{\rm L}$ , as shown in Figure 18.

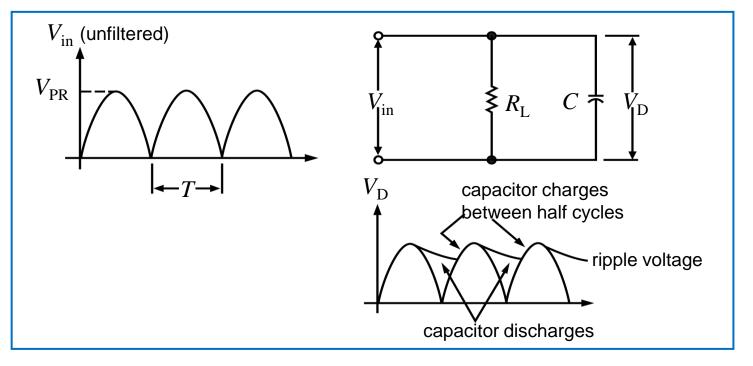


Figure 18. The ripple voltage in the filtered output full-wave rectifier is smaller than in the half-wave case because the capacitor recharges at shorter intervals: T = period of the full-wave rectified waveform (one half the period of the rectified sine wave).





The figure below shows the schematic and block diagrams of the commonly used signal wave rectifier circuit.

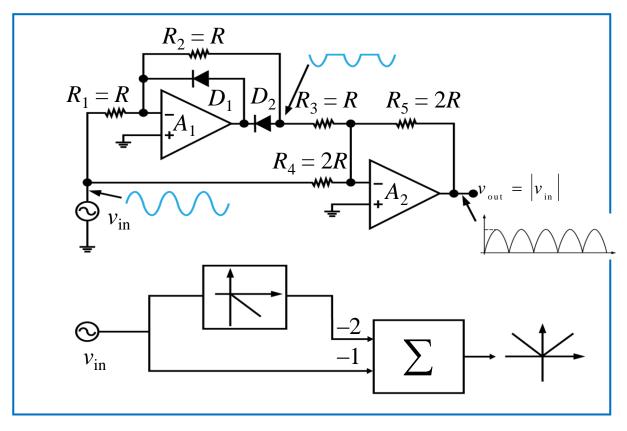


Figure 19. Schematic and block diagrams of the commonly used signal wave rectifier circuit.





- When the input signal is positive the output A1 is negative, so D1 is reverse-biased.
- D2 is forward-biased, closing the feedback to loop around A1 through R2 and forming an inverting amplifier.
- A2 sums the output of A1 times a gain of –2 with the input signal times a gain of –1, leaving a net gain of +1.
- When the input signal is negative, D1 is forward-biased, closing the feedback loop around A1.





- D2 is reversed-biased and does not conduct.
- A2 inverts the input signal, resulting in a positive output.
- The output of A2 is a positive voltage that represents the absolute value of the input, whether positive or negative.