

Introduction

①

* Engineering: Engineering is the science of transforming knowledge in physics, chemistry and mathematics into products & system.

* Electronics: The branch of Engineering which deals with current conduction through a vacuum @ gas @ semiconductor is known as electronics.

* Electronic device: The device in which current flows through a vacuum @ gas @ semiconductor is called electronic device.

* Applications of electronics @ Importance of electronics

① Rectification ② Amplification ③ Conversion of light into electricity ④ Conversion of electricity into light etc

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* Structure of Solids:

Solid @ material @ matter consists of atoms @ molecules.

* Atomic Structure:

The atoms are the building bricks of all matter.

An atom consists of a central nucleus of positive charge around which small negatively charged particles called electrons revolve in different paths @ orbits.

Nucleus consists of protons & neutrons. A proton is a positively charged particle, while the neutron has no charge.

Note: ① Matter is also known as Material.

- ② Four states of matter are solid, liquid, gas & plasma.
- ③ An atom is the smallest unit consists of proton, neutron & electron.
- ④ A molecule is formed when two or more atoms join together chemically.
- ⑤ A compound is a molecule that contains at least two different elements.
- ⑥ An atom or molecule with a net electric charge due to the loss or gain of one or more electrons, is ion.
- ⑦ A minute portion of matter is particle. A particle is a small piece of anything.
- Ex: ① Atoms are particles for matter
② protons, neutrons & electrons are particles of an atom.

⑧ Mass of the proton = Mass of the neutron = $1.672 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

⑨ Mass of electron = $9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$

⑩ Charge of an electron = $1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

- ⑪ Some basic arrangement of atoms is repeated throughout the entire solid material is called crystal lattice. Such solids are called crystalline solids.

• Solid materials which do not have crystalline structure are called non-crystalline @ amorphous Solids.

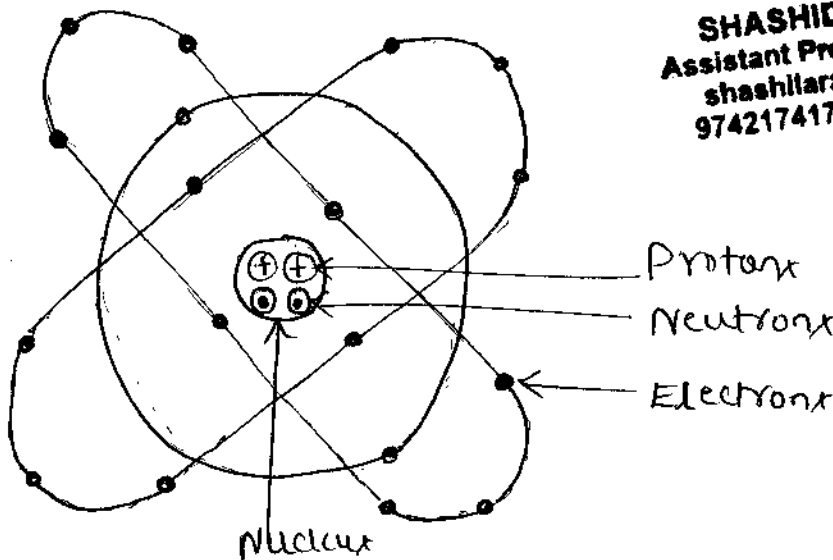
Ex: All metals & elements like Silicon & Germanium are crystalline materials.

Wood, Plastic, Paper, glass etc are amorphous materials

(12) ^(Atomic mass) Atomic weight = no of protons + no of neutrons.

Atomic number = no of protons @ electrons in an atom.

(13) In a normal atom, the number of protons = no of electrons. (Atom is neutral)



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Structure of an atom.

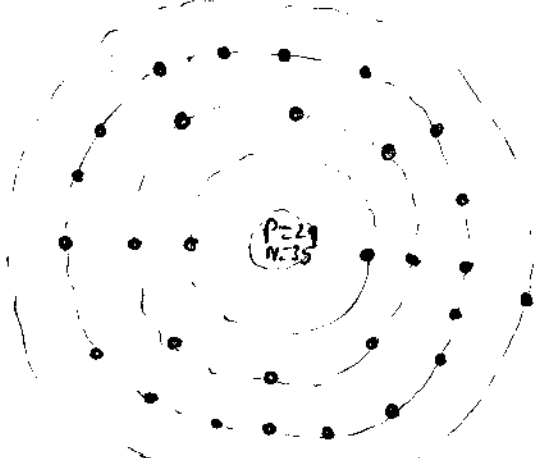
(14) The electrons in an atom revolve around the nucleus in different orbits @ paths. The number and arrangement of electrons in any orbit is determined by the following rules:

(i) The number of electrons in any orbit = $2n^2$.

$n \rightarrow$ number of the orbit.

First orbit contains, $2 \times 1^2 = 2$ electrons etc

- (ii) The last orbit cannot have more than 8 electrons.
- (iii) The last but one orbit cannot have more than 18 electrons.



COPPER P=29
N=35
e=29

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* Energy of an electron:

An electron moving around the nucleus possesses two types of energies viz. kinetic energy due to its motion & potential energy due to the charge on the nucleus. The total energy of the electron is the sum of these two energies.

The energy of an electron increases as its distance from the nucleus increases. The electron in the last orbit possesses very high energy as compared to the electrons in the inner orbits.

* Electron orbits:

The orbits are represented by the letters K, L, M, N, etc. counted from the nucleus to outwards. Sometimes K, L, M, N etc. are also designated as 1, 2, 3, 4 etc.

* Distribution of electrons in atoms

→ Atomic number of boron is 5.

It has 5 protons & 5 electrons.

Two electrons occupy the K-shell, which is then said to be completely filled. The other 3 electrons occupy the L-shell as shown in fig ①

→ Atomic number of Silicon is 14.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

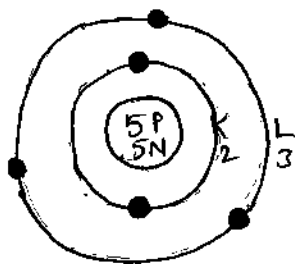


Fig ①: Boron (B)

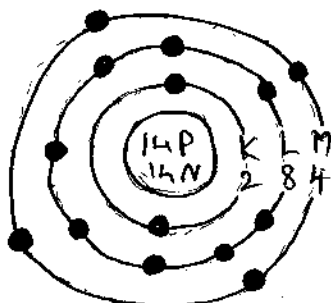


Fig ②: Silicon (Si)

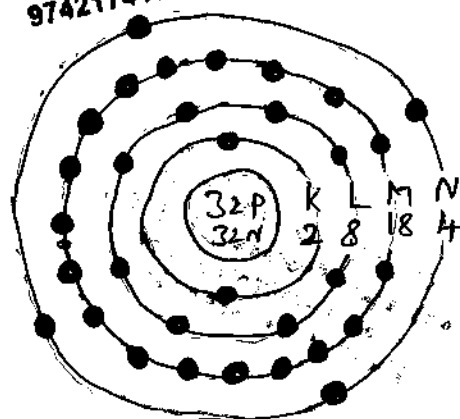


Fig ③: Germanium (Ge)

It has 14 protons and 14 electrons.

2 electrons occupy the K-shell, 8 in L-shell & 4 in the M-shell as shown in fig ②.

→ Atomic number of Germanium is 32.

It has 32 protons and 32 electrons.

2 electrons occupy the K-shell, 8 in L-shell, 18 in M-shell and 4 in N-shell as shown in fig ③

Note:

① Each electron orbit (main shell) in an atom consists of no of sub-orbitals @ sub-shells. The no of sub-orbitals is equal to the no of its principal quantum no (n).

Ex: K-shell → 1 sub-orbit
L-shell (n=2) → 2 sub-orbitals
M-shell (n=3) → 3 sub-orbitals etc

* Energy possessed by an electron in the orbit

→ Some energy is emitted by an electron, when it moves from a higher orbit to a lower orbit.

→ Similarly, some energy is absorbed by an electron, when it moves from a lower orbit to a higher orbit.

→ The amount of energy emitted (or absorbed) is,

$$W_2 - W_1 = hf \text{ Joules}$$

Where

W_1 → Energy of the initial orbit

W_2 → Energy of the final orbit.

h → Planck's constant = $6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$

f → frequency of radiation.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

→ The total energy (both kinetic and potential) possessed by an electron, when it revolves in the n^{th} orbit of an atom, with atomic number Z , is,

$$W_n = -21.76 \times 10^{-19} \frac{Z^2}{n^2} \text{ Joules}$$

→ Energy of an electron (in electron volt) is,

$$E_n = \frac{-21.76 \times 10^{-19}}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}} \frac{Z^2}{n^2} = -13.6 \times \frac{Z^2}{n^2} \text{ eV}$$

Smaller unit of energy is electron volt;
 $1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ Joules}$

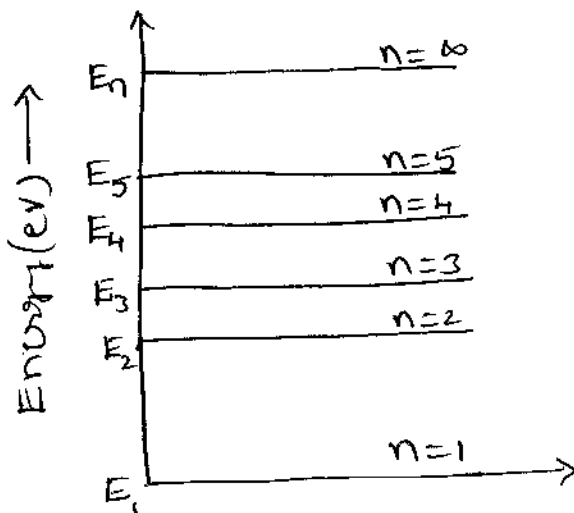
* Energy levels & Energy level diagram:

→ Electrons can occupy only certain orbital shells at fixed distances from the nucleus.

→ The electrons in the outer shell determine the

Electrical and chemical properties of a material.

- The closer an electron is to the nucleus, the stronger are the forces that bind it to the atom.
- Each shell has an energy level associated with it that represents the amount of energy required to extract an electron from the atom.
- Least amount of energy is required to extract the electrons from valence shell.
- Greatest energy is required to extract the electrons from the orbits which are closest to the nucleus.
- The diagram in which we plot the energies corresponding to K, L, M, ... etc shells is known as Energy level diagram (Fig*)



Fig(*) : Energy level diagram

→ When the electron is present in the first orbit (n=1), it is said to be in its normal ground state.

→ If the electron is present in the higher orbits, it is said to be in the excited state.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

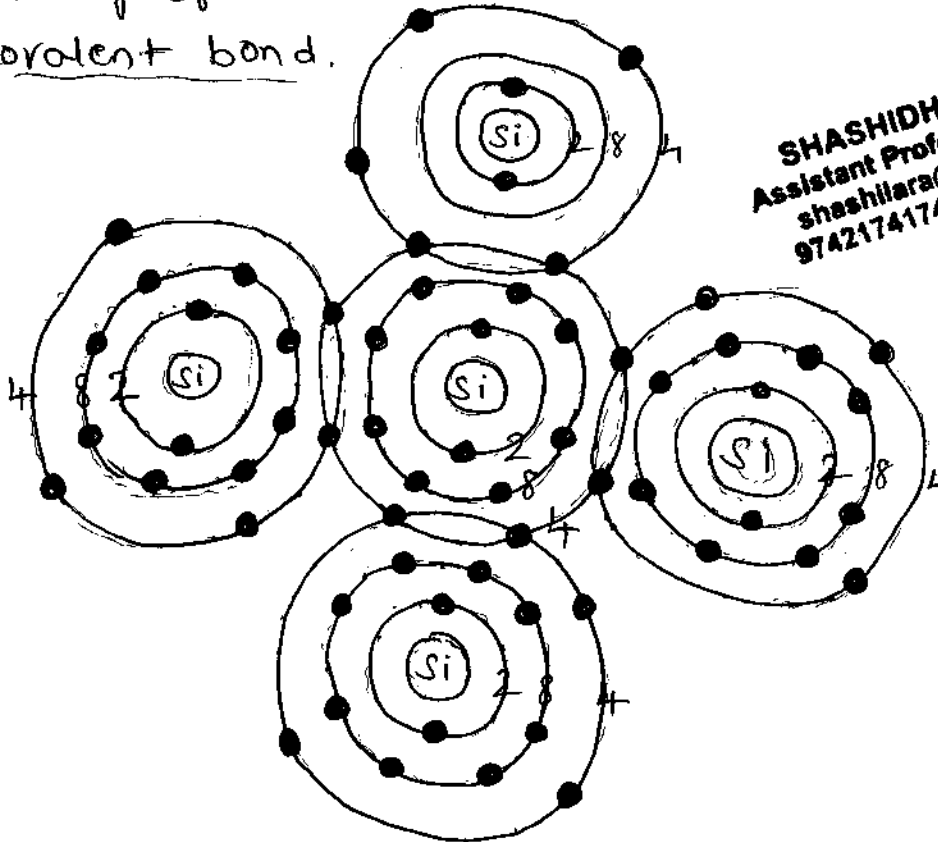
Note:

① Interatomic bonds: The bond formed between the atoms in the solid (interatomic forces) is called Interatomic bond.

② Ionic bond: The bond formed between two oppositely charged ions, which are produced by the transfer of electrons from one atom to another, is called ionic bond

③ Electrovalent bond.

④ Covalent Bond: The bond which is formed by the sharing of electrons between two atoms, is called Covalent bond.



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig: Formation of covalent bond in silicon crystal

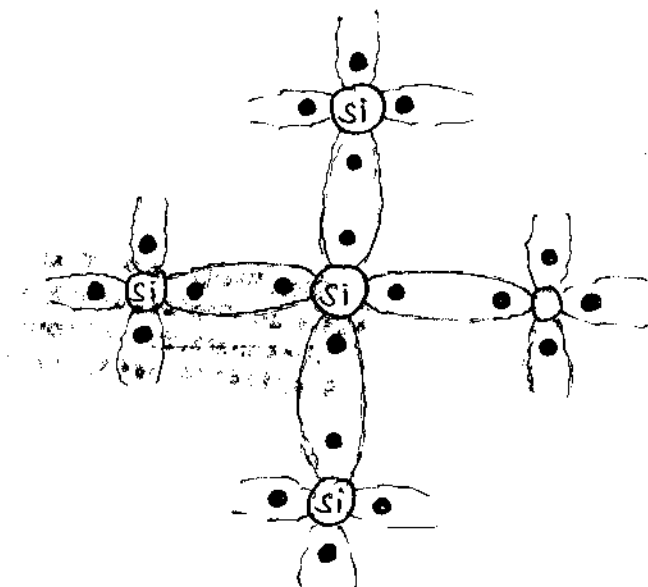


Fig: Covalent bond in silicon structure

④ Metallic bond:

In metal atoms, the electrons in the outer most shells are loosely held by their nucleus. So electrons in the outer shell require a very small amount of energy to detach themselves from their nuclei. At room temp, all the metal atoms lose their outermost shell electrons, which form an electron cloud @ common pool of electrons. These electrons have a freedom to move any where within the crystal. The atoms, after losing their outermost shell electrons, acquire positive charges and become positive ions. The electrostatic force of attraction btw the electron cloud and positive ions forms a bond, known as Metallic bond. (it takes place in metals only)

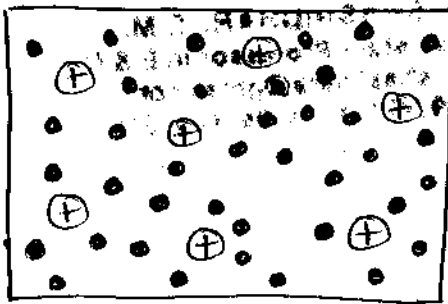


Fig: Metallic bond

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑤ Energy bands:

→ The energy levels form continuous bands of allowed energy, which the electrons may occupy.

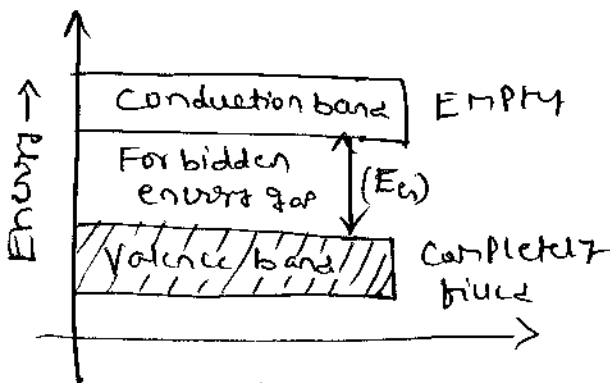


Fig: Energy level diagram

→ Each band consists of a large number of very closely spaced discrete energy levels. (The range of energies possessed by an electron in a solid is known as energy band)

* Valence electrons :

The electrons in the outermost orbit of an atom are known as valence electrons

* Free electrons:

The valence electrons which are very loosely attached to the nucleus are known as free electrons,

The free electrons can be easily removed & detached by applying a small amount of external energy

* Classification of Solids (Materials):

Based on electrical ~~con~~ properties, materials are generally classified into conductors, insulators and semiconductors.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

① conductor: (Metal)

→ No of valence electrons of an atom is less than 4. EX: Sodium, Magnesium, aluminium etc

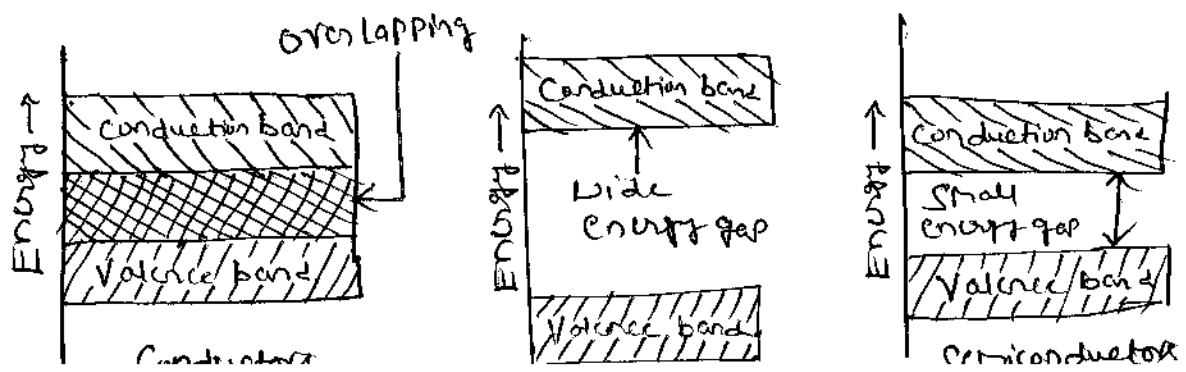
→ Large no of free electrons exists.

→ When P.d is applied across a conductor, the free electrons move towards the positive polarity of supply constituting electric current.

→ Positive temperature coefficient of resistance

→ Conduction & valence bands overlap.

→ Resistance is in the order of $10^{-6} \Omega$.



② Insulators: (Non-metal) (Dielectric materials)

- No of valence electrons of an atom is more than 4.
- Ex: Nitrogen, Sulphur, Neon etc
- Insulator has practically no free electrons at ordinary temperature.
- Conduction and valence bands are separated by a wide energy gap ($\approx 15 \text{ eV}$)
- have very high resistivity ($10^{14} \Omega$) & low conductivity.
- If temperature is raised, some of the valence electrons may acquire energy and jump into the conduction band, & hence resistivity decreases. (negative temperature coefficient)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

③ Semiconductors:

- No of valence electrons of an atom is 4.
- Ex: Carbon, Silicon, Germanium etc
- Very few electrons at room temperature
- Very small energy gap ($\approx 1 \text{ eV}$)
- Resistivity is of the order 10^{-4} to $0.5 \Omega \text{ m}$. (10^2)
- Conductivity & resistivity differ b/w insulators & conductors.
- Small amount of energy is required to free the electrons by moving them from the valence band into the conduction band.
- behave like insulators at 0 K (no electrons in the conduction band), However at room temp, a significant

no of electrons are available in the conduction band.
 → Semiconductors also have negative temperature coefficient of resistance.

Note:

① Voltage source

There are two types of voltage sources, namely,

- (i) Direct voltage source (ii) Alternating voltage source.

Ex: Cell, dc generator

Ex: Ac generator.

Symbol:



Symbol:



② Current source



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

③ Electric current: The movement of electric charge is called an electric current, denoted by I (A)

The conventional current flow is opposite to electron flow.

④ Passive elements

(i) Resistance (Ω)

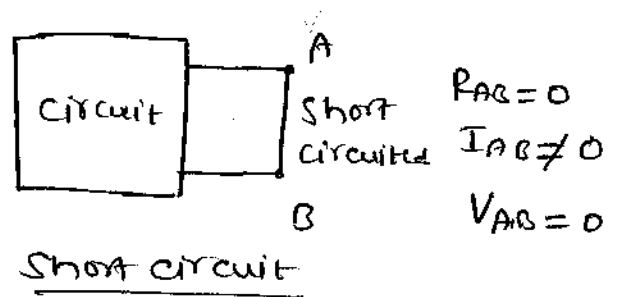
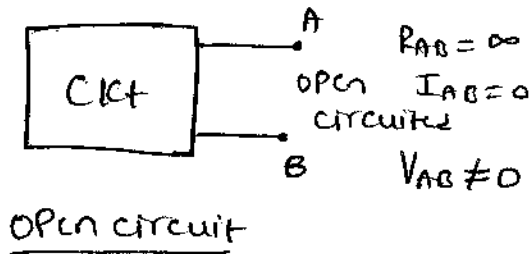
(ii) Capacitance (F)

(iii) Inductance H

⑤ Conductance, $G = \frac{1}{R}$ Siemens (S) @ mho

conductivity $\cdot \sigma = \frac{1}{\rho}$ (S/m) @ $(\Omega^{-1}m)$

① Open and Short Circuits



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashliara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

② Kirchhoff's Law:

① Kirchhoff's current law (KCL):

"In any network, the algebraic sum of currents at any junction is zero"

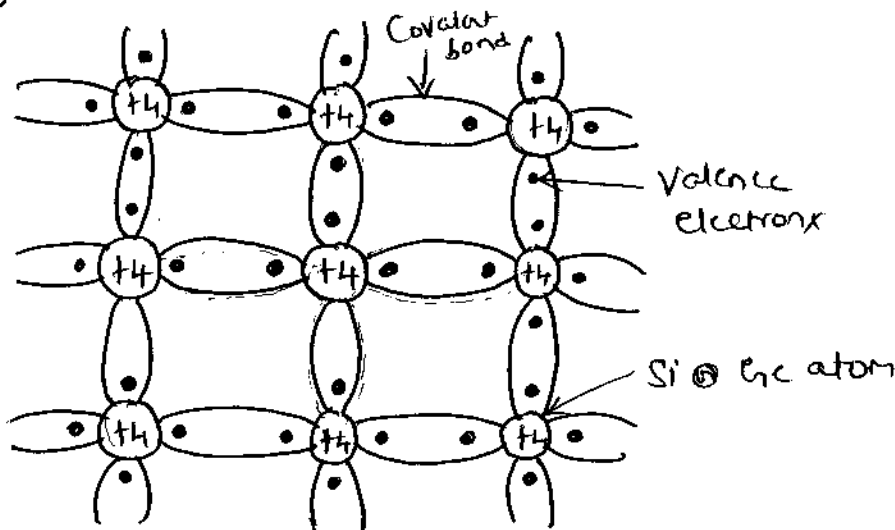
② Kirchhoff's Voltage Law:

"In any network, the sum of all the voltages around a closed path (of a loop) is zero"

Types of Semiconductors

- ① Intrinsic ② Extrinsic

① Intrinsic: A semiconductor which is in its extremely pure form is known as an intrinsic or pure semiconductor.



Two dimensional representation of a Silicon or a Germanium

→ At 0K @ 273°C (Absolute zero temperature)

All the valence electrons are tightly held by the parent atoms, therefore they cannot conduct electricity.

→ At 27°C @ 300K (Room temperature)

Some of the covalent bonds are broken, the electrons are free to move anywhere within the crystal, & hence vacancies (holes) are created, therefore they conduct current.

② Extrinsic: The semiconductors which are obtained by adding a certain amount of desired impurity atoms to pure semiconductor are called Extrinsic Semiconductors

Depending upon the type of impurity added, extrinsic semiconductors are classified into.

- (i) n-type (ii) p-type

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

(i) n-type: The semiconductors, which are obtained by adding pentavalent atoms (i.e. atoms containing 5 valence electrons) are known as n-type semiconductors

Ex of pentavalent impurities are arsenic^(As), antimony (Sb), phosphorus (P), & Bismuth (Bi) [Donor]

(ii) p-type: The semiconductors, which are obtained by adding trivalent impurity atoms (i.e. atoms containing 3 valence electrons) are known as p-type semiconductors

Ex of trivalent impurities are gallium (Ga), indium (In), aluminium (Al), Boron (B) etc [Acceptor]

Note:

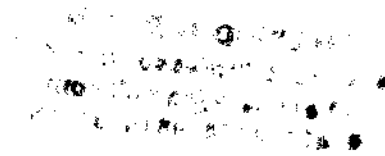
- ① In an n-type material, the electron is called the Majority carrier and the hole the Minority carrier.
- ② In a p-type material, the hole is the Majority carrier and the electron is the Minority carrier.
- ③ The current produced due to drifting of free electrons is called drift current (When voltage is applied)
- ④ The current produced due to diffusion (Charge carriers move from high charge density to the low carrier (charge) density) is called diffusion current (Without voltage)
- ⑤ The process of adding impurity atoms to a pure semiconductor is called doping.
- ⑥ The impurity atoms added to pure semiconductor are called dopants.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

- | | |
|---|---|
| <p>⑦ Si</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① Barrier voltage at 25°C is 0.7V ② The forward <u>V_f</u> drop is 0.7V ③ Atomic number is 14. ④ It has 14 protons & 14 electrons ⑤ 4 valence electrons ⑥ Resistivity at 20°C is 2500 Ω-m | <p style="text-align: right;">Ge</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① Barrier voltage at 25°C is 0.3V. ② The forward <u>V_f</u> drop is 0.3V ③ Atomic number is 32 ④ It has 32 protons & 32 electrons. ⑤ 4 valence electrons ⑥ Resistivity at 20°C is 0.45 Ω-m |
|---|---|

- ⑦ At room temperature, the intrinsic concentration is $1.5 \times 10^{16}/m^3$
- ⑧ The maximum temperature rating is about $200^\circ C$
- ⑨ Higher PIV & current rating compared to Ge
- ⑩ Reverse saturation current is less
- ⑪ At room temperature, the intrinsic concentration is $2.5 \times 10^{19}/m^3$
- ⑫ The maximum temperature rating is about $100^\circ C$.
- ⑬ Lower PIV & current rating compared to Si
- ⑭ Reverse saturation current is high

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315



Syllabus: P-n junction diode, characteristics and Parameters, Diode approximations, Dc load line analysis, Half wave rectifier, Two-diode Full-Wave rectifier, Bridge rectifier, Capacitor filter circuit (only qualitative approach), Zener diode voltage regulator: Regulator circuit with no load, loaded regulator, Numerical examples as applicable.

* Introduction:

Extrinsic Semiconductors are classified into

- ① n-type ② P-type

SHASHIDHAR. T. M. apt.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com 15
9742174174, 9844231315

① n-type:

→ When a small amount of Pentavalent impurity is added to a pure semiconductor, it is known as n-type semiconductor.

→ Typical examples of Pentavalent impurities are Arsenic (As), antimony (Sb), Phosphorus (P), bismuth (Bi) etc.

→ Electrons are majority carriers & holes are minority carriers.

② P-type:

→ When a small amount of trivalent impurity is added to a pure semiconductor, it is called P-type semiconductor.

→ Typical examples of trivalent impurities are Gallium (Ga), indium (In), aluminium (Al), Boron (B) etc.

→ Holes are majority carriers & electrons are minority carriers.

* P-n junction: (1) Semiconductor diode:

→ When a P-type Semiconductor is suitably joined to n-type semiconductor by special fabrication technique, a P-n junction is formed. (Fig 1)

→ P-n junction is called a Semiconductor diode @ P-n junction diode @ simply a Crystal diode.

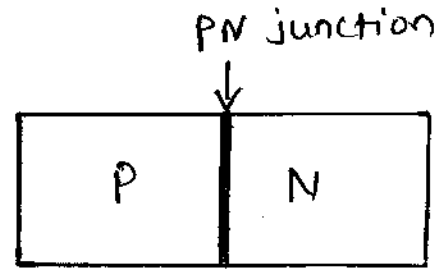
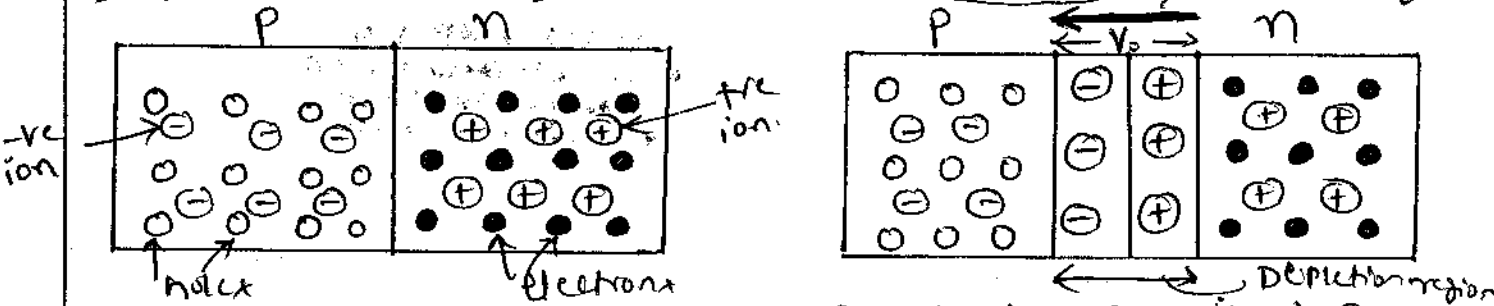


Fig 1: P-n junction

* Explanation: (Properties of Pn junction) (Formation of depletion layer): (Unbiased Pn junction):



→ The P-region has holes (majority carriers) & negatively charged impurity atoms, called negative ions (or acceptor ions).

→ The N-region has free electrons (majority carriers) & positively charged impurity atoms, called positive ions (or donor ions).

→ The holes, from the P-region diffuse to the N-region where they combine with the electrons. This creates a layer of negative charges (trivalent ions) near the junction.

→ The free electrons, from the N-region diffuse to the P-region, where they combine with holes. This creates a layer of positive charges (pentavalent ions) near the junction.

→ The region (layer) containing the positive & negative charges, in the vicinity of the junction is called

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

depletion region (depletion layer) (Space charge region)
 (transition region)

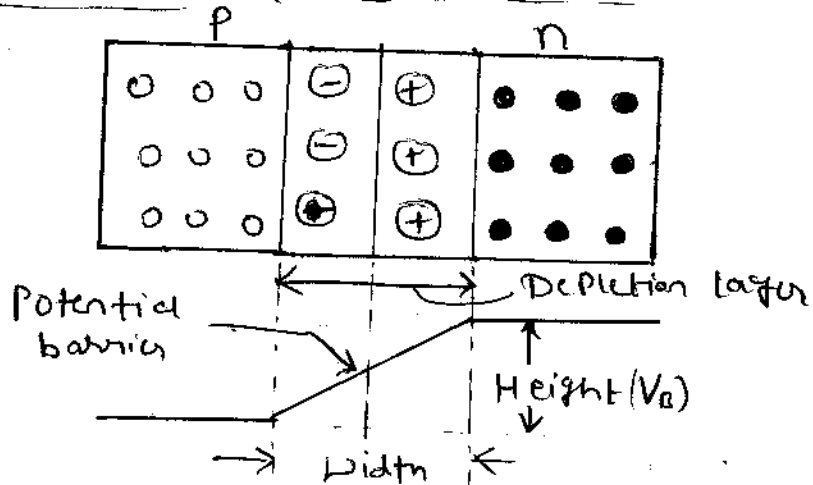
→ The electrons, trying to diffuse into the P-region, are repelled by the negative charge of the acceptor ions. Similarly, the holes, trying to diffuse into n-region are repelled by the positive charge of the donor ions.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhar@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① Barrier Voltage @ Barrier Potential @ Junction Potential @ Built-in Potential @ Cut-in Potential

→ Once Pn junction is formed and depletion layer created, the diffusion of charge carriers stops.



→ The depletion region acts as a barrier to the further movement of charge carriers.

→ The depletion layer behaves like an insulator.

→ The positive & negative charges setup an electric field.

→ The potential difference across the depletion layer is called barrier potential (V_B).

→ $V_B = 0.6V$ for Si, $V_B = 0.2V$ for Ge.
 to $0.7V$ to $0.3V$

② Effect of temperature on Barrier Voltage

- The barrier voltage depends upon ① Density
② Electronic charge & ③ Temperature.
- For a given PN junction, the first two factors are constant.
- For both Ge & Si, the value of V_B decreases by $2\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}$.

$$\Delta V_B = -0.002 \times \Delta t$$

Where, Δt → Increase in temperature in $^\circ\text{C}$.

- A PN junction, across which no external voltage source is connected, is known as unbiased PN junction.

③ In an unbiased PN junction, the majority carrier current & minority carrier current are equal in magnitude & flow in opposite directions, thus there is no net flow of current across the junction.

④ The higher the doping level, the thinner will be the depletion layer and vice versa.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑤ In 1919, William Henry Eccles coined the term 'diode' from the Greek roots dia means "through" & ode means "path".

* ⑥ Biassing the PN junction: (Applying DC Voltage across PN junction):

→ Connecting a PN junction to an external DC voltage is called biassing.

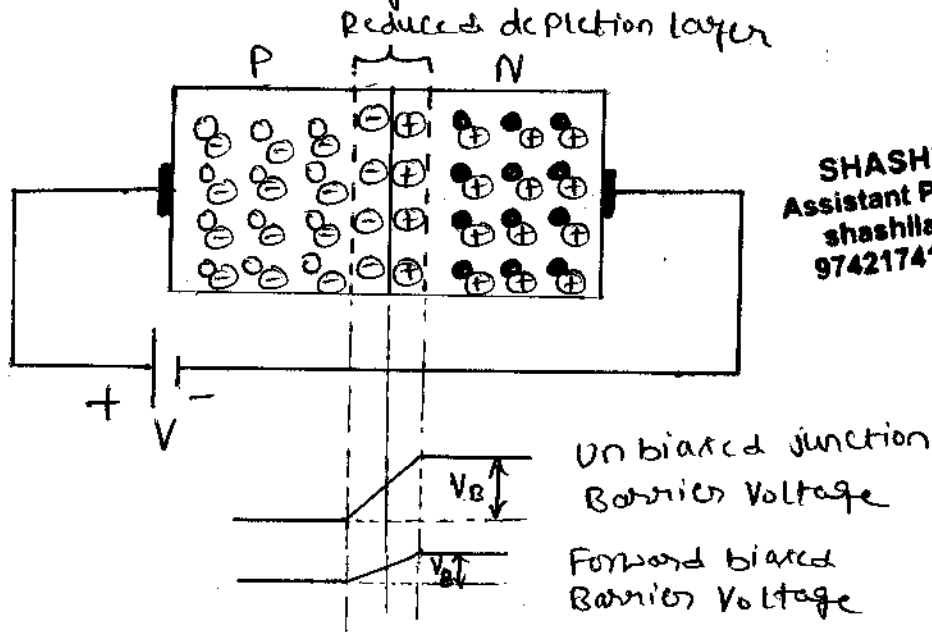
→ The biassing is classified into two types namely,

- ① Forward biassing ② Reverse biassing.

① Forward biasing:

When external dc voltage applied to the junction is in such a direction that it cancels the potential barrier, thus permitting current flow, it is called forward biasing. ①

A semiconductor diode is said to be forward biased, when the positive terminal of the voltage source is connected to the P-side and negative terminal to the N-side.



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Explanation:

- The holes are repelled by the positive terminal of the voltage source and are forced to move towards the junction.
- The electrons are repelled by the negative terminal of the voltage source and move towards the junction.
- Some of the holes and electrons enter the depletion layer and recombine themselves. Thus the width of the depletion layer ~~is~~ and the barrier potential (barrier voltage) reduces.
- The junction forward resistance reduces and a large current (forward current) flows through the PN junction. (of the order of mA)

Note: * Diffusion ② Storage Capacitance :

→ The capacitance which exists in a forward-biased junction, is called a diffusion capacitance.

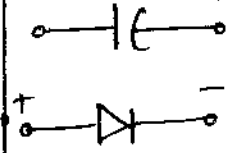
→ ~~Diff~~ Diffusion capacitance is much larger than the transition capacitance. (∵ Width of the depletion layer is very less). Typical value of C_D is 0.02 MF

→ Diffusion capacitance C_D is given by,

$$C_D = \frac{dQ}{dV} = \frac{\tau I_F}{\eta V_T} = \frac{\tau I_F}{V_F}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

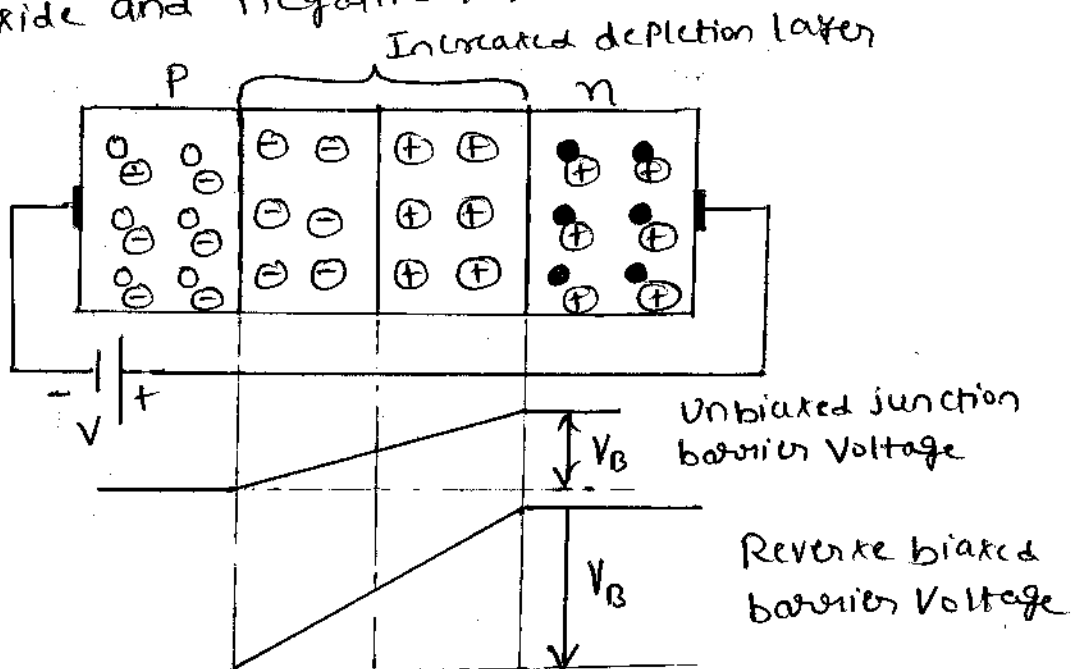
where τ → Mean life time of the carriers,
 I_F → Value of forward current.
 η → A constant ($\eta = 1$ for Ge, $\eta = 2$ for Si)
 V_F → Forward voltage
 V_T → Volt equivalent of temperature.



② Reverse biasing:

When the external dc voltage applied to the junction is in such a direction that potential barrier is increased, it is called reverse biasing. (a)

A PN junction is said to be reverse biased, when the positive terminal of the voltage source is connected to the n-side and negative terminal to the p-side.



Explanation:

- The holes in the p-region are attracted towards the negative terminal of the voltage source.
- The electrons in the n-region are attracted towards the positive terminal of the voltage source.
- Thus the majority carriers are drawn away from the junction. This widens the depletion layer and increases the barrier potential.
- The junction reverse resistance becomes very high, and hence no current flows.
- However, a very small current flows due to minority carriers (of the order of 10^{-10} A). This is called reverse saturation current (I_0).
- If reverse voltage is increased continuously, the kinetic energy of minority carriers increases & a large reverse current flows. This damages (destroys) the junction (diode) permanently. This is called the reverse breakdown of a diode.

→ The reverse breakdown (junction breakdown) causes due to two processes.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 0762170115, 0840271115

1. Zener breakdown:

- When the pn-junction is heavily doped, the depletion layer is narrow.
- When the reverse voltage is increased, the electric field at the junction also increases.
- This strong electric field breaks the covalent bond. As a result, a large number of minority carriers are generated and a large current flows through the

Junction. Such a Phenomenon is called Zener effect

2. Avalanche effect: (Avalanche breakdown):

→ If the reverse Voltage is increased, the minority carriers acquire a large amount of energy (or momentum).

→ These carriers collide with the atoms and break the covalent bonds and generate additional carriers (electron-hole pairs).

→ These additional carriers pick up energy from the applied voltage and generate still more carriers (Carriers generation @ Carriers multiplication).

→ As a result, the reverse current increases rapidly. This process is called Avalanche multiplication @ Avalanche effect @ Avalanche breakdown.

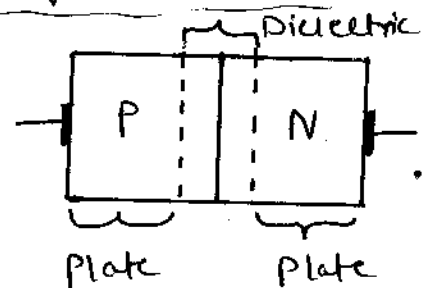
Note:

@ Simple junction capacitance

① Depletion layer capacitance @ Space-charge capacitance

② Transition capacitance @ depletion region capacitance

→ P region & N-region act as two plates of a capacitor, separated by a dielectric (i.e. depletion layer)



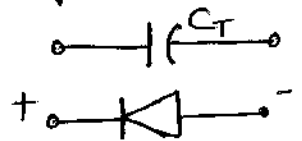
→ The capacitance which exists in a reverse-biased junction is called depletion layer capacitance.

→ The depletion layer capacitance C_T is given by,

$$C_T = \frac{K}{(V_B - V)^n}$$

Where $K \rightarrow$ A constant, depending upon the semiconductor
 $V_B \rightarrow$ Barrier Voltage

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315



$V \rightarrow$ Applied reverse voltage

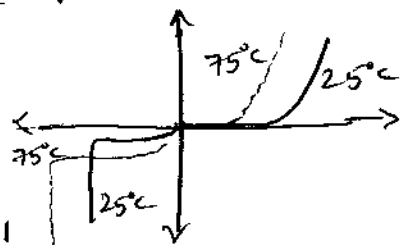
$n \rightarrow$ A constant depending upon the nature of the junction.

② Junction temperature effects (Effect of temperature on diode characteristics)

\rightarrow The reverse saturation current (leakage current) approximately doubles for each 10°C rise in temperature

\rightarrow current at T_2 is,

$$I_0(T_2) = I_0(T_1) \left[2^{(T_2 - T_1)/10} \right]$$



Where, $I_0(T_1) \rightarrow$ reverse current at T_1

③ Diode equation @ diode current equation @ Shockley equation:

The equation relating Pn-junction current & voltage level is called the Shockley equation.

Shockley equation is,

$$I_D = I_0 \left[e^{V_D/nV_T} - 1 \right] \quad - \textcircled{1}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Where, $I_D \rightarrow$ Junction current.

$I_0 \rightarrow$ Reverse saturation current.

$V_D \rightarrow$ Junction voltage

$n \rightarrow$ constant (1 for Ge, & 2 for Si)

$V_T \rightarrow$ Volt equivalent of temperature = $\frac{KT}{q}$
(Thermal Voltage)

Where

$k \rightarrow$ Boltzmann's const ($1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$)
Absolute

$T \rightarrow$ Temperature (in Kelvin)

$q \rightarrow$ Electronic charge ($1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$)

$$T (\text{Kelvin}) = 273 + \text{temp } ^\circ\text{C}$$

① For an unbiased Pn junction: $V_D = 0 \therefore I_D = 0$

② For Forward biased $I_D = I_0 e^{V_D/nV_T}$

③ For Reverse biased $I_D = -I_0$

④ PN junction diode:

A PN junction diode is a two terminal unidirectional device, offering a low resistance when forward-biased, and behaving almost as an open switch when reverse biased.

The circuit symbol (or graphic symbol) is shown in fig ②

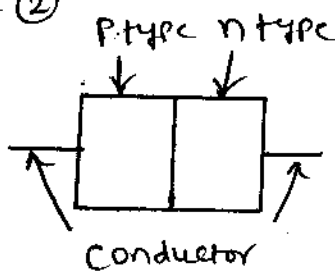


Fig ①: A semiconductor diode

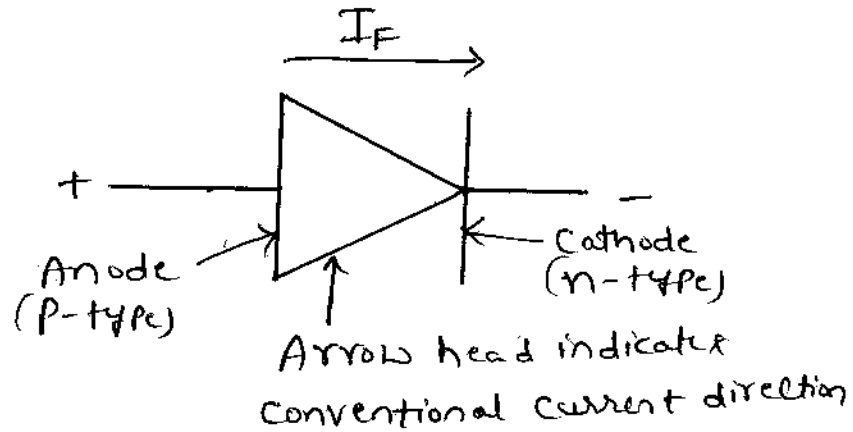


Fig ②: Diode circuit symbol

⑤ Types of diodes (Classification of diodes):

Depending upon physical size, diodes are classified into,

- ① Low current diodes
- ② Medium current diodes
- ③ High current diodes (Power diodes)

① Low current diodes:

- Low current diodes are 0.3cm long.
- Colour band is near the cathode (K).
- Capable of passing a maximum forward current of 100mA.
- Capable of withstanding 75V reverse voltage (without breaking down)
- Reverse current is usually less than 1μA (at 25°C)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174173 9844101113

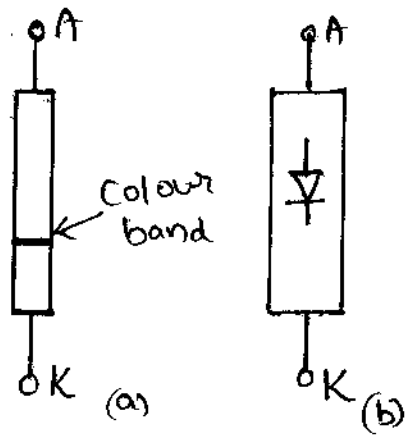


Fig ①: Low current diodes

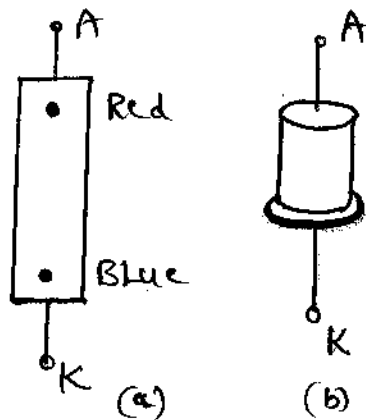


Fig ②: Medium current diode

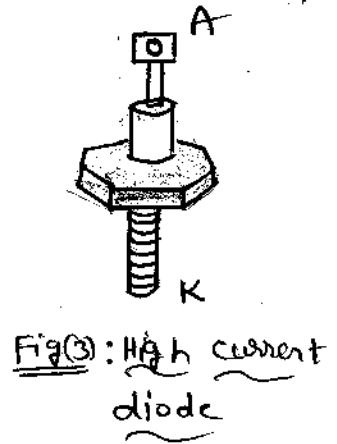


Fig ③: High current diode

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

② Medium-current diodes:

- The end lying near the blue dot is a Cathode, while the other end is anode (fig 2a)
- The diode is packaged in a metal can-like casing.
- The typical diameter is 8.9mm and length is 7.6mm.
- These diodes are bigger in size compared to low current diodes.
- The diodes can pass a forward current of about 400mA and withstand (Survive) reverse voltage of about 200V.

③ High-current diodes: (Power diodes)

- These diodes are mechanically connected to a metal heat sink (for the heat dissipation)
- The typical diameter is 7.8mm and the length is 31.2mm
- These diodes can pass a forward current of many amperes and can withstand reverse voltage of several hundred volts.
- These diodes are bigger in size compared to low current & medium current diodes.

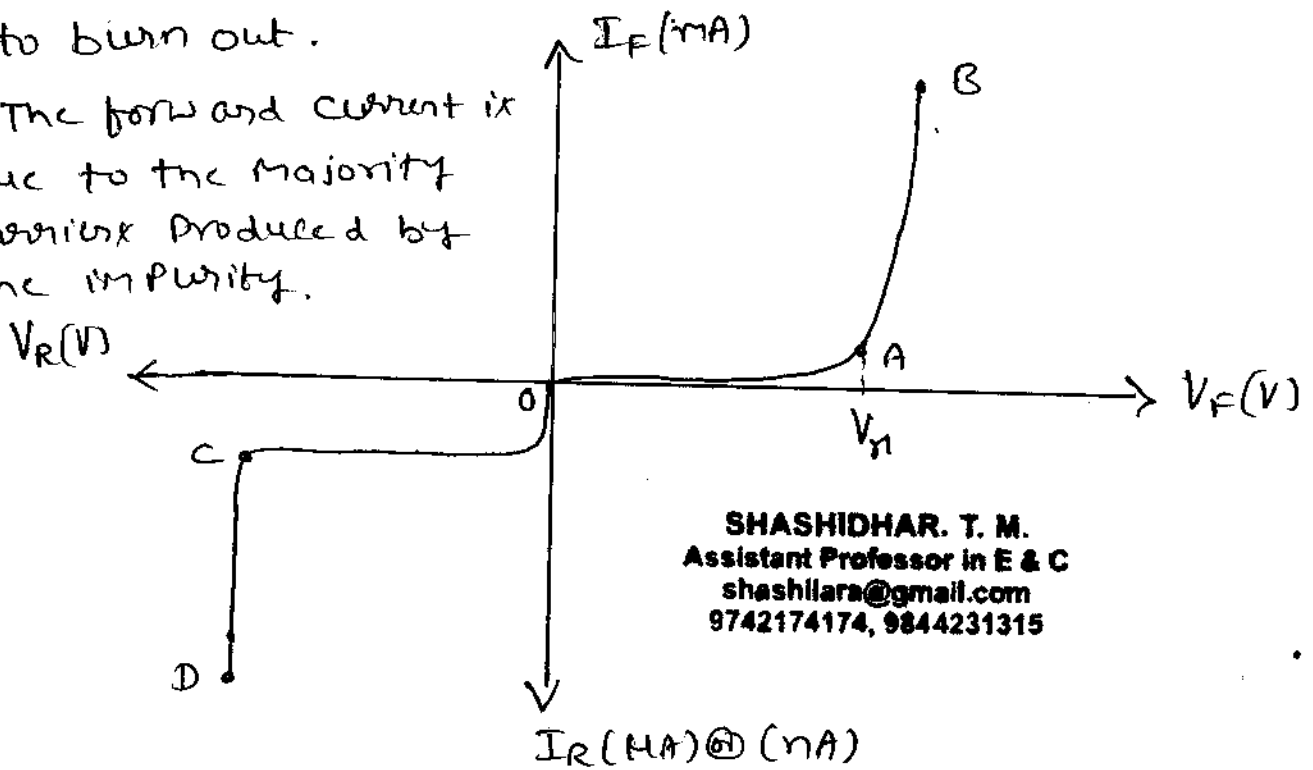
* V-I Characteristics of PN Junction (Diode) (67)

Forward & Reverse Characteristics of PN Junction

① Forward Characteristics:

- P-type is connected to positive terminal & n-type is connected to negative terminal of the battery.
- A very small forward current (I_F) flows until the forward voltage (V_F) exceeds the cut-in voltage (V_{in}) (Portion OA)
- when the forward voltage exceeds the cut-in voltage the current increases rapidly. (Portion AB)
- The applied voltage should not be increased beyond a certain safe limit, otherwise the diode is likely to burn out.

→ The forward current is due to the majority carriers produced by the impurity.



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

② Reverse Characteristics:

- P-type is connected to negative terminal & n-type is connected to positive terminal of the battery.
- When the applied reverse voltage is below the breakdown voltage (V_{bo}) the diode current is very

Small and constant. This value of current is called reverse saturation current (I_0). (Region OC)

→ When the reverse voltage exceeds breakdown voltage, the current increases very rapidly. (Region CD)

→ The applied voltage should not be increased beyond the breakdown voltage, otherwise the diode is destroyed permanently.

→ The reverse current is due to the minority carriers produced due to breaking of some covalent bonds.

Note: VI characteristics of Ge & Si

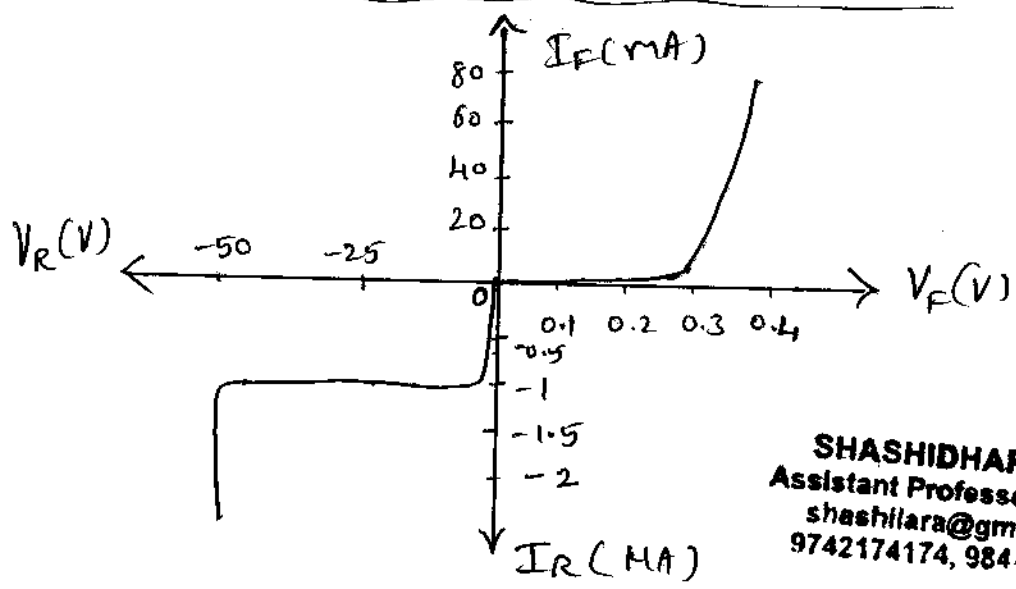


Fig 1: VI characteristics of Ge

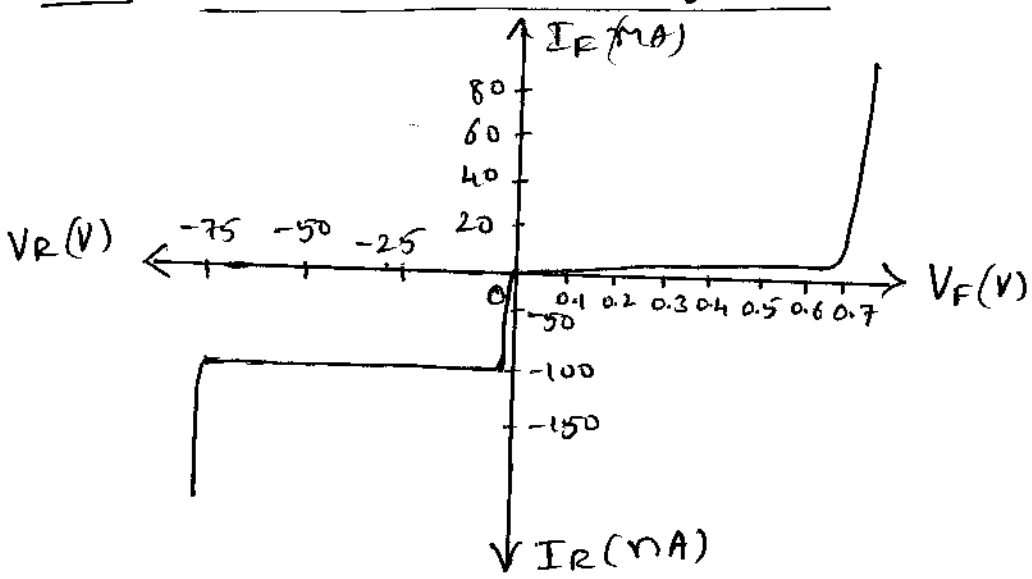


Fig 2: VI characteristics of Si

Ge (Fig 1)

Forward characteristics:

→ A very small forward current flows until the forward voltage exceeds 0.3V.

→ When the forward voltage exceeds 0.3V, the current increases rapidly.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Reverse characteristics:

→ When the applied reverse voltage is below the breakdown voltage, the diode current is very small, typically around 1 μ A. (which is larger than the reverse current for a silicon diode)

→ When the reverse voltage exceeds breakdown voltage, (around 50V), the current increases very rapidly.

→ Reverse breakdown voltage for Ge is less than that of Si

→ From the characteristics, $|I_F| \gg |I_R|$

Si (Fig 2)

Forward characteristics:

→ A very small forward current flows until the forward voltage exceeds 0.7V.

→ When the forward voltage exceeds 0.7V, the current increases rapidly.

Reverse characteristics:

→ When the applied reverse voltage is below the breakdown voltage, the diode current is very small, typically around (100 nA).

→ When the reverse voltage exceeds breakdown voltage (around 75V), the current increases very rapidly.

→ From the characteristics, $|I_F| \gg |I_R|$.

② Conditions under which a PN junction can be destroyed

- (i) Pn junction diode is overheated by a high forward current. $[I_{F(max)}]$
- (ii) A large reverse voltage causes the Pn junction to break down. $[V_{R(max)}]$

* Diode Parameters (Important terms):

- (i) Forward Voltage ⁽ⁿ⁾ (Knee Voltage) ⁽ⁿ⁾ (Forward Voltage drop) ⁽ⁿ⁾ turn-on Voltage ⁽ⁿ⁾ Potential barrier Voltage ⁽ⁿ⁾ (V_m) :

→ It is the voltage applied across a forward biased device. ⁽ⁿ⁾

The forward voltage is the voltage at which the current through the junction starts to increase rapidly.

→ The knee voltage for Si diode is 0.7V and 0.3V for Ge diode.

- (ii) Maximum forward current: $(I_{F(max)})$:

→ It is the maximum current that a diode can withstand under forward bias condition, without permanent damage to the Pn junction due to overheating.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

- (iii) Forward current: (I_F) :

→ It is the current flowing through a forward biased diode.

- (iv) Reverse breakdown Voltage ⁽ⁿ⁾ Breakdown Voltage: (V_{BR}) :

It is the reverse voltage at which the Pn junction diode breaks down and reverse current increases rapidly (permanently damages the diode) ⁽ⁿ⁾

It is the minimum reverse voltage at which Pn junction breaks down with sudden rise in reverse current.

→ The reverse breakdown voltage is around 50V for Ge diodes and 75V for Si diodes.

(vi) Reverse Voltage: (V_R)

→ It is the voltage across a reverse biased diode.

(vii) Reverse Current: (Reverse bias current): (I_R) (Leakage current)

→ It is the direct current flowing through a reverse-biased diode. This current is due to the minority carriers.

(viii) Reverse Saturation Current: (I_0)

→ It is the nominal current, which flows through the diode when it is reverse biased. @

It is the constant reverse current flowing through the reverse biased diode.

→ It is in the order of mA for Ge diodes and nA for Si diodes.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

(ix) Peak Inverse Voltage: (PIV)

→ It is the maximum reverse voltage that a diode can withstand without destroying the junction.

→ There are two types of PIV

(i) Repetitive PIV (ii) Non-repetitive PIV

→ PIV may be between 10V and 10kV depending upon the type of diode.

(x) Power Dissipation: (P_D):

The power dissipated in a diode for a given value of diode voltage (V_D) and current (I_D)

$$\text{i.e. } P_D = V_D \times I_D$$

(X) Maximum Power Rating @ Maximum Power dissipation rating ($P_{D(max)}$):

It is the maximum power that can be dissipated at the junction without damaging it.

Maximum power rating is given by,

$$P_{D(max)} = V_D(max) \times I_D(max)$$

(Xi) Maximum junction temperature (T_J):

It is the maximum allowable junction temperature of the diode.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

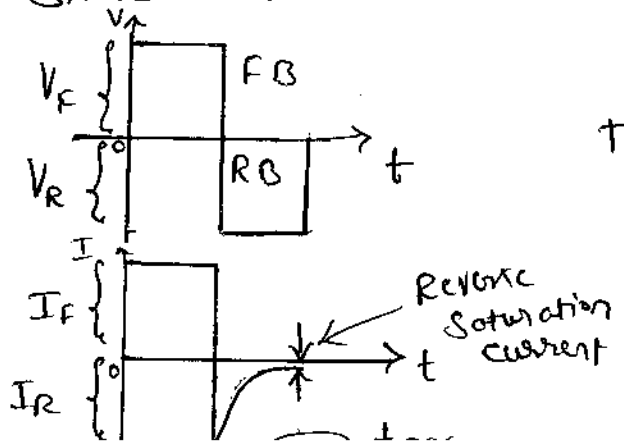
(Xii) Forward recovery time (t_{ff}):

It is the time required for the forward current @ voltage to reach a specified value after the diode has been abruptly switched from the reverse-biased state to the forward-biased state.

(Xiii) Reverse recovery time (t_{rr}):

It is the time required by the reverse current @ voltage to reach a specified value, when the diode is switched from the forward-biased condition to the reverse-biased condition abruptly.

⊙ It is the time required for the current to decrease to the reverse saturation current level, when the diode is switched from the forward-bias to reverse bias.



The minimum fall time of the applied voltage pulse is,

$$t_f(min) = 10 t_{rr}$$

Note:

① The maximum power dissipation (W)

$$P_2 = (P_1 \text{ at } T_1) - (D \times \Delta T)$$

Where P_1 (W) \rightarrow Power at temp T_1 (W)

$D \rightarrow$ Derating factor ($W/^\circ C$)

$\Delta T \rightarrow$ Temperature change ($^\circ C$) ($T_2 - T_1$)

$T_1 \rightarrow$ Temperature ($^\circ C$)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

② The diode forward voltage drop V_F (at any temperature)

$$V_{F2} = (V_{F1} \text{ at } T_1) + [\Delta T (\Delta V_F / ^\circ C)]$$

Where,

$V_{F1} \rightarrow$ Forward V_F drop at T_1 (V)

$\Delta T \rightarrow (T_2 - T_1) \rightarrow$ Temperature change ($^\circ C$)

$\Delta V_F / ^\circ C \rightarrow$ Voltage / Temperature coefficient ($V/^\circ C$)

$= -1.8 \text{ mV}/^\circ C$ for Si, $-2.02 \text{ mV}/^\circ C$ for Ge

③ Dynamic resistance of a forward-biased diode at any temperature is,

$$r_d' = \frac{26 \text{ mV}}{I_F} \left(\frac{T + 273^\circ C}{298^\circ C} \right)$$

Where, $I_F \rightarrow$ Forward current (A)

$T \rightarrow$ Junction temperature ($^\circ C$)

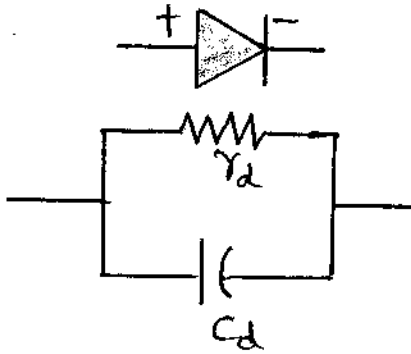
* Equivalent Circuits (Models): ① Diode Model

An equivalent circuit for a device is a circuit that represents the device behavior under forward and reverse bias conditions.

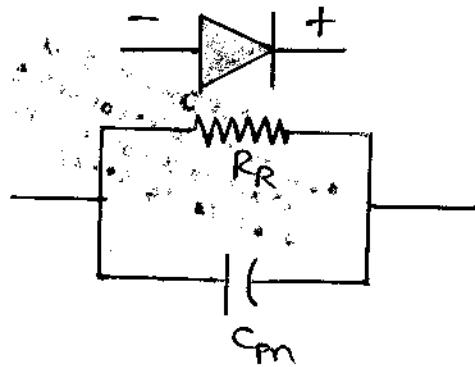
① AC equivalent circuit:

A Forward-biased diode can be represented by the dynamic resistance r_d in parallel with the diffusion capacitance $C_d(C_0)$ [Fig(1)]

A reverse-biased diode can be represented by the high reverse resistance R_R in parallel with the depletion layer capacitance $C_{pn}(C_1)$ [Fig(2)]



Fig(1): AC equivalent circuit for a forward-biased diode



Fig(2): AC equivalent circuit for a reverse-biased diode

Dr. SHASHI K. R. I. N. C
Assistant Professor in E.E.E
9308894717/17174719
shashikr@gmail.com

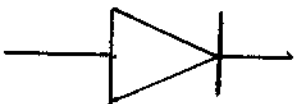
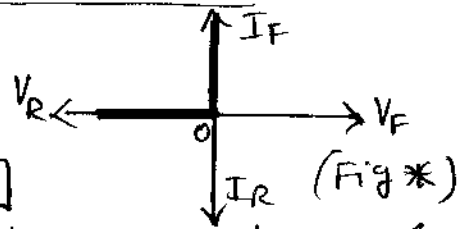
② DC equivalent circuit:

(i) Ideal diode equivalent circuit: [Fig(3)]

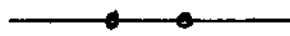
→ The diode conducts when it is forward biased & has zero resistance (acts as closed switch)

→ The diode blocks the conduction when it is reverse biased and has infinite resistance (acts as open switch)

→ This equivalent circuit has ideal characteristics (Fig*)



Ideal diode



Closed Switch (Forward biased)



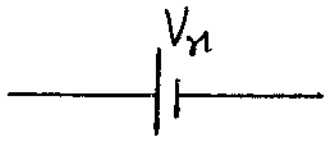
Open Switch (Reverse biased)

Fig(3): Ideal diode equivalent circuit

(ii) Near ideal diode equivalent circuit (Practical diode (Fig 4))

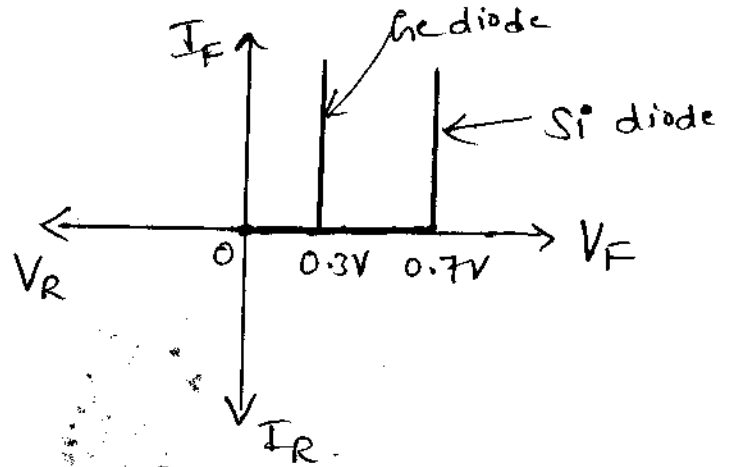
Approximate equivalent circuit @ Basic dc equivalent circuit

The diode equivalent circuit consists of a voltage source with a voltage V_{γ} and negligible forward resistance. This equivalent circuit has the second approximation characteristics (or approximate characteristics) shown in fig 5.



Fig(4): Basic dc equivalent circuit

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



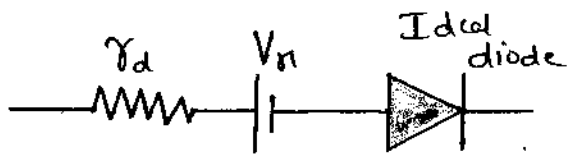
Fig(5): Ge & Si diode approximate characteristics

(iii) Piecewise linear equivalent circuit: (Complete DC equivalent circuit) (Third approximation equivalent circuit) (Fig 6)

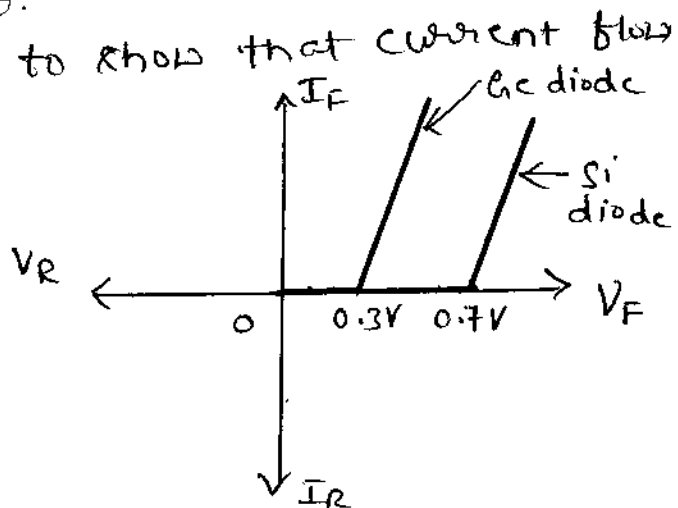
The equivalent circuit consists of diode dynamic resistance r_d in series with the voltage source V_{γ} .

This equivalent circuit has the piecewise linear characteristics shown in fig 7.

An ideal diode is included to show that current flows only in one direction.



Fig(6): Complete dc equivalent circuit



Fig(7): Ge & Si diode piecewise linear characteristics

* Diode approximations:

There are three diode approximations, namely

① Ideal diode approximation:

→ An ideal diode (Perfect diode) have ^{Zero} forward resistance and infinite reverse resistance (Zero forward voltage drop @ cut-in voltage)

→ A forward biased diode can be replaced by a short circuit (SC) and reverse biased diode can be replaced by a open circuit (OC)

→ Fig ① shows the ideal diode characteristics.

SHASHIBHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashihara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

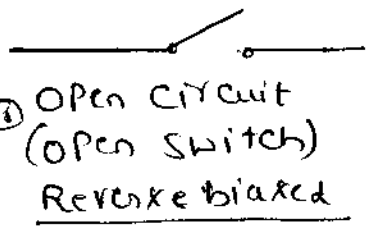
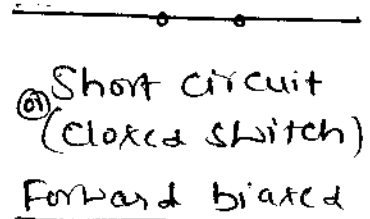
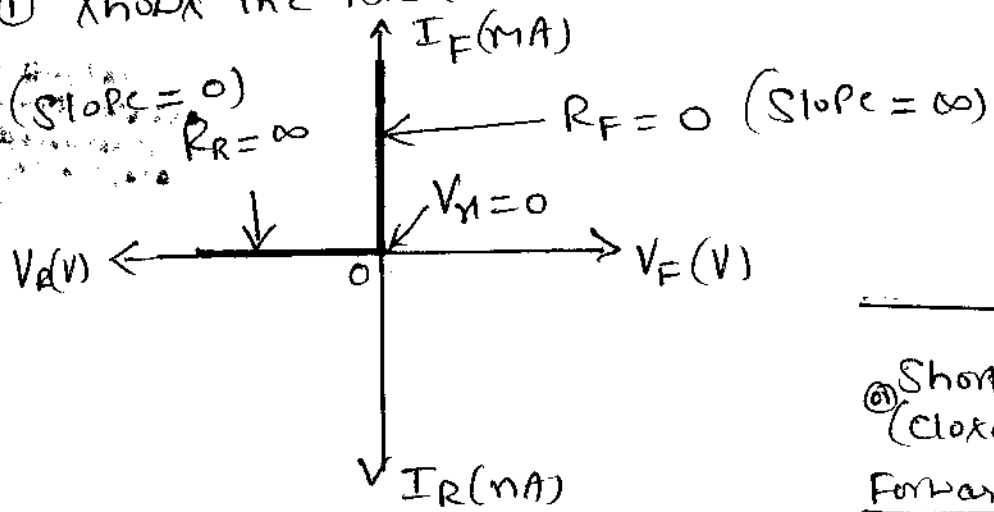


Fig ①: Ideal diode characteristics

② Near-ideal diode approximation ①

(Second ~~order~~ approximation) ②

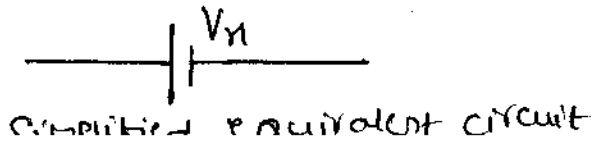
① (Practical approximation) ② (Approximate characteristic)
(Simplified equivalent approximation) characteristic

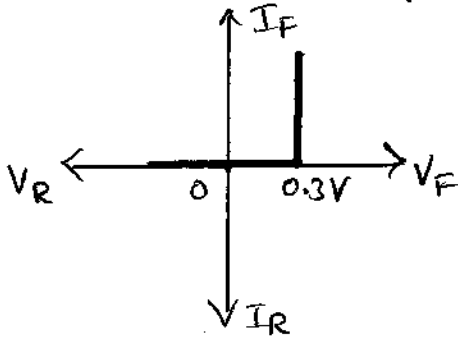
→ An ideal diode doesnot exist Practically, there are many applications where diodes can be assumed to be near-ideal diodes.

→ The cut-in voltage is 0.3V for Ge & 0.7V for Si

→ The reverse current is very small so it can be ignored

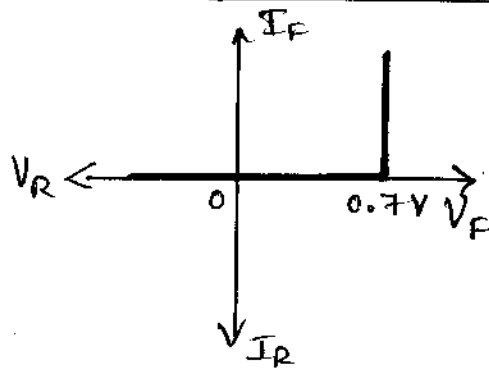
→ Fig ② shows the approximate diode characteristics





$V_n = 0.3V, R_F = 0, R_R = \infty,$
 $I_R = 0$

Fig: Approximate characteristics of Ge diode



$V_n = 0.7V, R_F = 0, R_R = \infty$
 $I_R = 0$

Fig: Approximate characteristics of Si diode

Fig (2): Approximate characteristics

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9244231315

③ Piecewise linear approximation: (Third situation)

→ When the forward characteristic of a diode is not available, a straight line approximation called the piecewise linear approximation is used.

→ Construction of piecewise linear characteristic

Step 1: Mark $V_F (V_n)$ on x-axis. [Point A ($V_F, 0$)]

Step 2: Draw a straight line (let AB) with a slope equal to the reciprocal of the dynamic resistance of the diode.

→ It consists of two straight line pieces, one horizontal and other with slope $1/r_d$

→ Fig (3) shows the piecewise linear characteristics

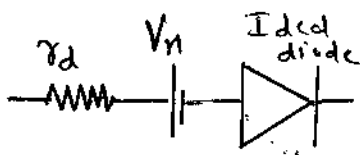


Fig: Simplified Equivalent circuit

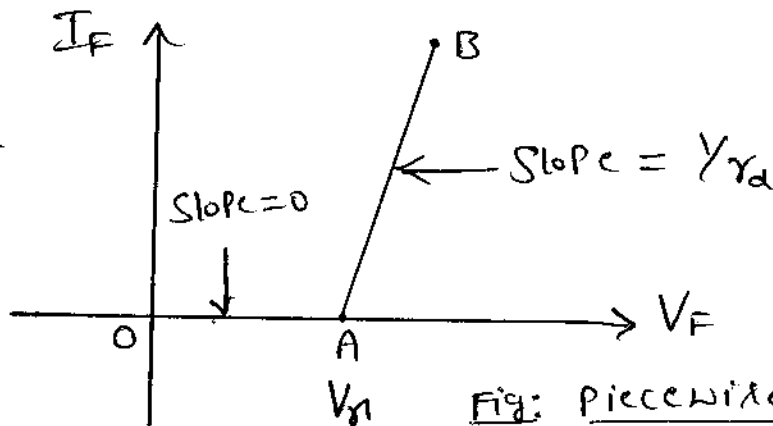


Fig: Piecewise Linear

* Resistance of diode:

① DC Static Resistance:

It is the opposition offered by the diode to the direct current.

② Static forward resistance ③ DC forward resistance:

→ It is the opposition offered by the forward biased diode to the direct current, denoted by R_F ④ R_F .

→ It is measured by the ratio of d.c. voltage across the diode to the resulting d.c. current through it.

→ From the forward characteristic of fig ①, the dc forward resistance at P is,

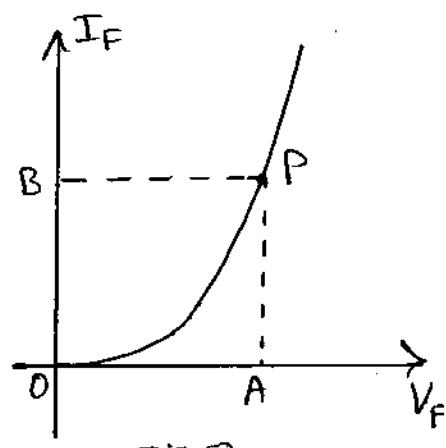


Fig ①

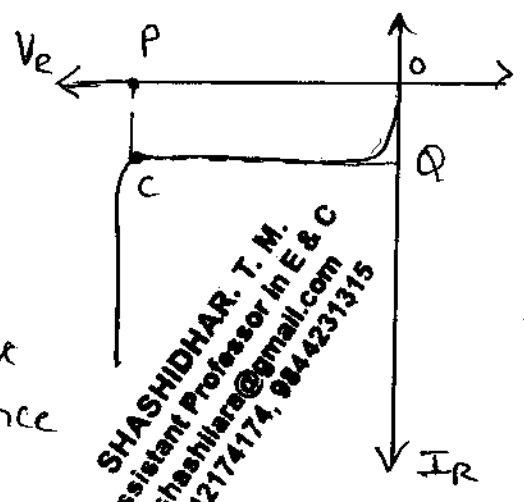
$$R_F = \frac{\text{Forward d.c. Voltage}}{\text{Forward d.c. current}} = \frac{OA}{OB}$$

④ Static reverse resistance ⑤ DC reverse resistance:

→ It is the opposition offered by the reverse biased diode to the direct current, denoted by R_R ⑥ R_R .

→ It is measured by the ratio of reverse d.c. voltage across the diode to the reverse saturation current.

→ From the reverse characteristic of fig ②, the dc reverse resistance at C is,



SHASHIDHAR, T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhar@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Fig ②

$$R_R = \frac{\text{Reverse d.c. Voltage}}{\text{Reverse saturation current}} = \frac{OP}{OQ}$$

② AC ③ Dynamic ④ Incremental resistance:

→ It is the opposition offered by the forward biased diode under a.c. conditions (When the applied voltage is a.c.) ⑤

It is the reciprocal of the slope of the forward characteristic beyond its knee, denoted by r_d ⑥ r_F ⑦ r_F

→ It is measured by the ratio of change in applied voltage to the change in the current.

→ From the forward characteristic of fig ③, the dynamic forward resistance is:

$r_d = \frac{\Delta V_F}{\Delta I_F} = \frac{1}{\text{Slope of forward characteristic}}$

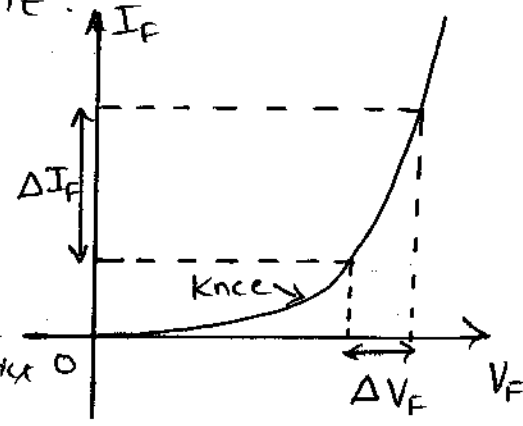


Fig ③

→ r_d includes dc resistance of the semiconductor material. The pure ac resistance is given by,

$r_d' = \frac{0.026}{I_F}$ where, $I_F \rightarrow$ DC forward current

Eqn ⑧ is valid at 25°C only.

→ Semiconductor substrate resistance is,

$r_{\text{substrate}} = r_d - r_d'$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M. Assistant Professor in E & C shashidhara@gmail.com 9742174174, 9844231315

* DC load line:

A DC load line is a straight line on the diode characteristic which describes all the dc conditions that exist within the circuit.

Explanation:

The graphical analysis used to calculate the precise load current and voltage is called dc load

Line analysis.

Consider a simple diode circuit as shown in fig ①.

→ The diode is forward biased, so the diode forward current I_F flows through resistor R .

→ Applying KVL to the ckt, we get

$$V - I_F R - V_F = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V = I_F R + V_F \quad \text{--- (*)}$$

Put $I_F = 0$ in eqn (*)

$$V = V_F$$

$$\textcircled{01} \quad \boxed{V_F = V}$$

SHASHIDHAR, T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

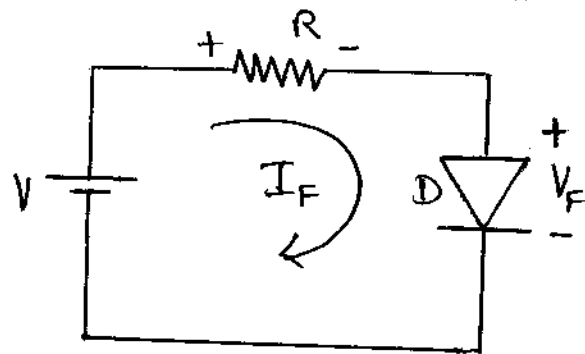


Fig ①: Simple diode circuit

From eqn (*), we can write

$$V - V_F = I_F R$$

$$\Rightarrow I_F = \left(-\frac{1}{R}\right) V_F + \frac{V}{R} \quad \text{--- (**)}$$

Now mark point ~~A(0,0)~~ A(V, 0)

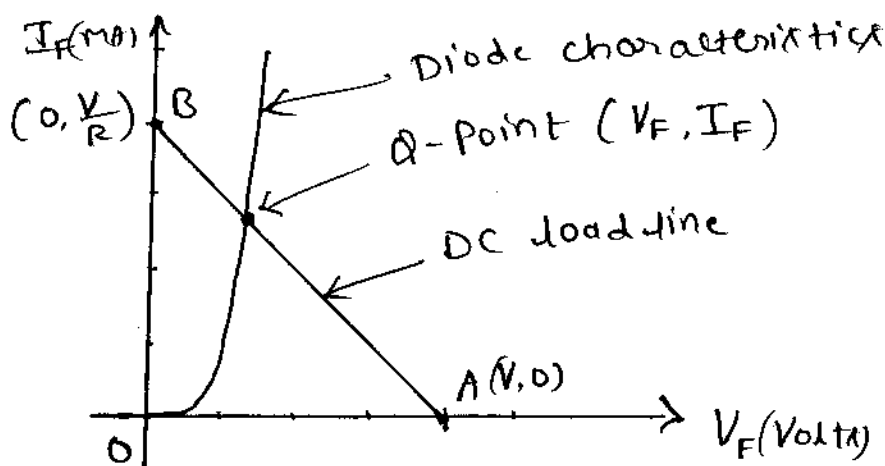
Put $V_F = 0$ in eqn (*)

$$V = I_F R$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{I_F = \frac{V}{R}}$$

Now mark point B(0, $\frac{V}{R}$)

Join AB to get the dc load line



Q-Point (or) Quiescent Point (or) dc bias Point (or) operating Point (or) Working bias Point:

- The intersection of the diode forward characteristic and the dc load line is called the Q-Point.
- The values of forward current through the diode (I_F) and the voltage drop across the diode (V_F) can be found at Q-Point.

Note:

① To calculate the load resistance (R) and supply voltage (V)

Consider eqn (**).

$$I_F = \left(-\frac{1}{R}\right)V_F + \frac{V}{R}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

This equation is of the form $y = mx + c$

Where, $y = I_F$, $m = -\frac{1}{R}$, $x = V_F$, $c = \frac{V}{R}$

① Given Q-Point and Supply Voltage (V):

- Load line is drawn from Point A ($V, 0$) through Q-Point.
- Load resistance R is calculated from the slope of the load line.

② Given Q-Point and load resistance (R):

- Load line is drawn through Q-Point and having slope $1/R$.
- The intersection of the load line with x -axis gives the value of supply voltage (V).

③ Transformer utilization factor (T.U.F)

T.U.F = $\frac{\text{D.C Power delivered to the load}}{\text{A.C rating of the transformer}}$

For HWR, T.U.F = 0.287

For Full CR, T.U.F = 0.693

For Full BR, T.U.F = 0.812

* Rectifier:

A circuit (device) which converts a.c. Voltage into pulsating d.c. Voltage is called rectifier.

The different types of rectifier circuits are

- (i) Half-Wave rectifier
- (ii) Full-Wave rectifier
 - (a) Centre tapped full wave rectifier
 - (b) Bridge full wave rectifier

① Half-Wave rectifier: (HWR):

Definition: The rectifier which conducts current (Voltage) only during one half-cycle of the ac input is called Half-Wave rectifier.

Circuit diagram and input & output wave forms:

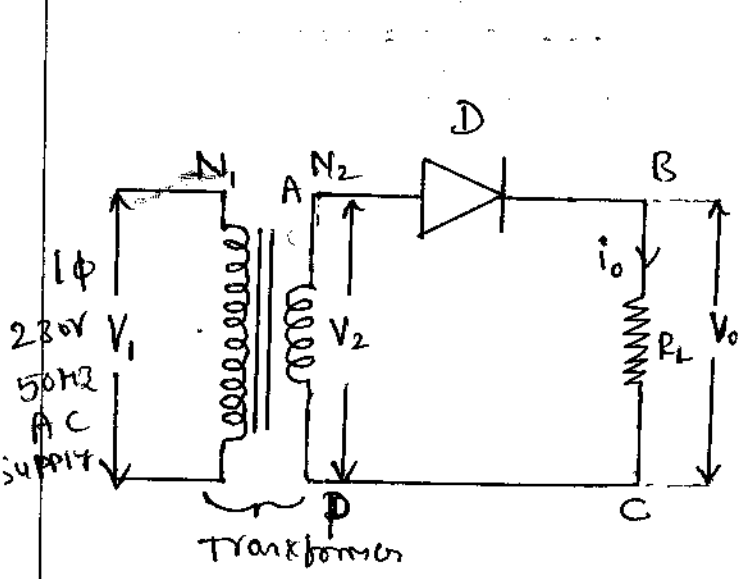
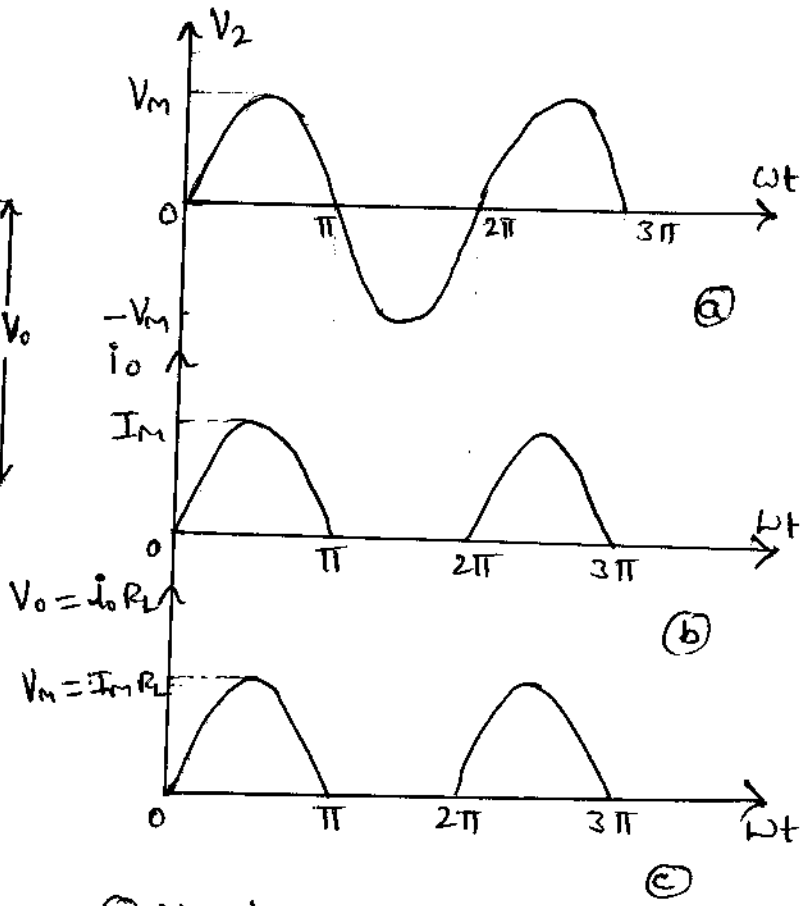


Fig: Half Wave rectifier



- ① Waveform of secondary trans. voltage
- ② load current wave form
- ③ load voltage wave form

Construction: It consists of a Step down transformer, a diode and a load resistor. The Primary coil of a transformer is connected to ac input and Secondary coil to a load resistor (R_L) through the diode (D).

Operation: (Principle of operation):

→ During positive half cycle of the input voltage, end A becomes positive w.r.t end P. Hence the diode is forward biased and current flows through R_L (Path: ADBCPA). [$V_o = i_o R_L$]

→ During negative half cycle of the input voltage, end A becomes negative w.r.t end P. Hence the diode is reverse biased and no current flows in the circuit.

[$V_o = 0$]
Therefore, current flows through the diode during positive half-cycle of input a.c. voltage only, it is blocked during the negative half-cycle.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① Uses of transformer:

- (i) It allows us to step up & step down the a.c input voltage.
- (ii) It isolates the rectifier circuit from power line and thus reduces the risk of electric shock.

② Disadvantages & Drawbacks of HWR: ① Demerits

- (i) The ripple factor is too high ($\gamma = 1.21$)
- (ii) Efficiency of rectification is low ($\eta = 0.406$)
- (iii) The T.U.F (Transformer utilization factor) is very low.
- (iv) D.C. Saturation of transformer secondary winding takes place.

③ Advantages & Merits of HWR:

- (i) The a.c supply delivers power only half the time. Therefore, the output is low.
- (ii) A large filter capacitor is required to produce steady

direct current (Pulsating current in the load contains alternating component whose basic frequency equal to the supply frequency).

③ Advantages @ Merits of HWR:

- (i) only one diode is required
- (ii) No centre-tap on the transformer is required.

④ Current through diode @ R_L & Peak Load Current @ Peak diode current (I_m)

Instantaneous supply voltage is,

$$V_1 = V_m \sin \omega t \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Instantaneous secondary voltage is,

$$V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Using (1) in (2), we get

$$V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_m \sin \omega t$$

Let $N_1 = N_2$, then

$$V_2 = V_m \sin \omega t \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$V_m \gg I_m$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

The equivalent circuit when the diode is conducting & not conducting is shown below,

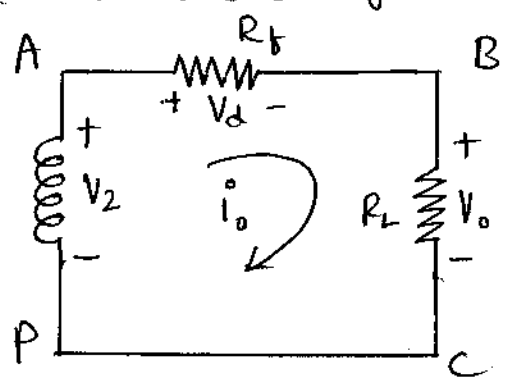


Fig 1 Equivalent circuit when diode is conducting

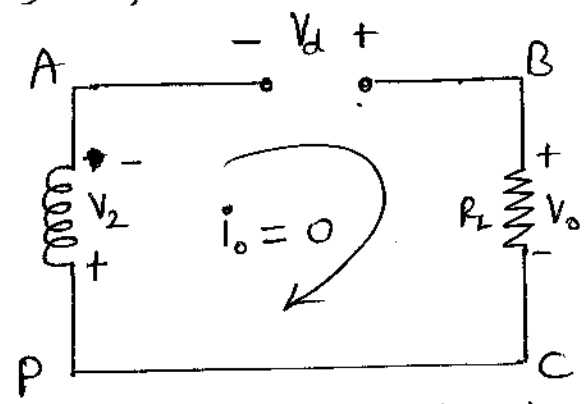


Fig 2 Equivalent circuit when diode is not conducting

Where

$R_f \rightarrow$ Forward resistance of the diode.

From fig ①,

$$i_o = \frac{V_2}{R_f + R_L} ; 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \quad \text{--- ④}$$

From fig ②

$$i_o = 0 ; \pi \leq \omega t \leq 2\pi \quad \text{--- ⑤}$$

Using ③ in ④, we get

$$i_o = \frac{V_m \sin \omega t}{R_f + R_L} ; 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi$$

$$i_o = I_m \sin \omega t ; 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \quad \text{--- ⑥}$$

Where $I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

From ⑤ & ⑥, we can write

$$i_o = \begin{cases} I_m \sin \omega t ; 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \\ 0 ; \pi \leq \omega t \leq 2\pi \end{cases}$$

Current through diode

⑦ R_L

⑦

where, $I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L}$

Peak load current ⑧

Peak diode current

⑧

Derivations:

① Average Load current ⑨ DC load current ⑩ DC output current ⑪ Average output current (I_{dc}):

DC load current,

$$I_{dc} = \frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } i_o}{\text{Period of } i_o}$$

$$= \frac{\int_0^{2\pi} i_o d\omega t}{2\pi}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t d\omega t + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} 0 d\omega t \right] \quad \text{(Using 7)}$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{2\pi} [-\cos \omega t]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{2\pi} [-\cos\pi + \cos 0]$$

$$I_{dc} = \frac{I_m}{\pi} \text{ or } 0.3183 I_m \quad \text{--- (9)} \quad (\because \cos\pi = -1, \cos 0 = 1)$$

② Average Load Voltage or DC Load Voltage or DC Output Voltage or Average output Voltage (V_{dc}):

DC load voltage,

$$V_{dc} = I_{dc} \cdot R_L$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{\pi} \cdot R_L \quad \text{(Using 9)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left[\frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L} \right] R_L \quad \text{(Using 8)}$$

$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L} \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{\pi} \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

③ RMS Load Current (I_{rms}):

RMS load current,

$$I_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } i_o^2}{\text{Period of } i_o}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\int_0^{2\pi} i_o^2 dt}{2\pi}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\int_0^{\pi} I_m^2 \sin^2 \omega t dt + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} 0 dt \right]} \quad \text{(Using 7)}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{I_m^2}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \left(\frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2} \right) dt} \quad \left(\because \sin^2 \theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \left\{ (\omega t)^\pi - \left(\frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2} \right)^\pi \right\}} \quad [\because \sin n\pi = 0, n \in \mathbb{I}]$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} (\pi - 0)}$$

$$\boxed{I_{RMS} = \frac{I_m}{2}} \quad - (12)$$

4) RMS load voltage (V_{RMS})

RMS load voltage,

$$V_{RMS} = I_{RMS} R_L$$

$$= \left(\frac{I_m}{2} \right) R_L$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L} \right) R_L$$

$$\boxed{V_{RMS} = \frac{V_m/2}{1 + R_f/R_L}} \quad - (13)$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore \boxed{V_{RMS} = \frac{V_m}{2}} \quad - (14)$$

5) RIPPLE factor (γ):

Ripple factor,

$$\gamma = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}} \quad - (5)$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{V_{RMS}^2 - V_{dc}^2}}{V_{dc}}$$

$$[\because V_{RMS}^2 = V_{ac}^2 + V_{dc}^2]$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{V_{RMS}}{V_{dc}} \right)^2 - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{V_m/2}{1 + R_f/R_L} \right)^2 / \left(\frac{V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L} \right)^2 - 1} \quad (\text{using (10) \& (13)})$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2}{4} - 1}$$

$$\gamma = 1.21 \text{ (or) } 121\% \quad - (15)$$

Note:

- ① AC Components present in the dc output of a rectifier are called ripple.
- ② A measure of the smoothness of the dc output of a rectifier is called the ripple factor

(or)

The ratio of rms value of ac component present in the rectified output to the dc component in the rectified output is called ripple factor

$$\text{i.e. } \gamma = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}} \text{ (or) } \frac{I_{ac}}{I_{dc}}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

③ We have

$$\left(\text{Total RMS Value of rectified output} \right)^2 = (\text{DC Value})^2 + \left(\text{RMS Value of ac component} \right)^2$$

$$\text{i.e. } I_{\text{RMS}}^2 = I_{\text{dc}}^2 + I_{\text{ac}}^2 \quad - (17)$$

$$\text{(or)} \quad V_{\text{RMS}}^2 = V_{\text{dc}}^2 + V_{\text{ac}}^2 \quad - (18)$$

④ From (15) & (18), we can write

$$\gamma = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}} = 121\% \Rightarrow \boxed{V_{ac} = 121\% \text{ of } V_{dc}} \quad - (19)$$

∴ AC or ripple component is 121% of the dc component. Hence HWR is not recommended for practical applications.

⑤ Efficiency or Rectification efficiency: (η) (Power Conversion Efficiency)

$$\text{Efficiency, } \eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}} \quad - (20)$$

$$= \frac{I_{dc}^2 R_L}{I_{rms}^2 (R_f + R_L)} \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} \therefore P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L \\ \& P_{ac} = I_{rms}^2 (R_f + R_L) \end{array} \right]$$

$$= \frac{(I_m/\pi)^2 R_L}{(I_m/2)^2 (R_f + R_L)} \quad [Using (9) \& (12)]$$

$$= \frac{4}{\pi^2} \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$\eta = \frac{0.406}{1 + R_f/R_L} \text{ or } \frac{40.6\%}{1 + R_f/R_L} \quad - (21)$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore \eta = 0.406 \text{ or } 40.6\% \quad - (22)$$

Note:

① The ratio of the dc output power to ac input power supplied to the rectifier is known as rectification efficiency.

② From (20) & (22), we can write

$$\eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}} = 40.6\% \Rightarrow P_{dc} = 40.6\% \text{ of } P_{ac} \quad - (23)$$

\therefore The dc output power is 40.6% of the ac input power (a maximum of 40.6% of a.c input power is converted into dc output power). Hence HWR has a very poor rectification efficiency.

③ The process of converting a.c voltage into pulsating d.c voltage is called rectification.

④ Percentage regulation (or) Voltage regulation (% Regulation)

$$\% \text{ Regulation} = \frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100 \quad - (24)$$

$$= \frac{V_m}{\pi} - \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right) \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L} \times 100$$

$$\frac{\left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right) \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}}$$

$$= \frac{1 - \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}}{\frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{R_f + R_L - R_L}{R_f + R_L} \times 100$$

$$\frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}$$

$$\left[\begin{aligned} \therefore V_{NL} &= \frac{V_m}{\pi} \\ V_{FL} &= \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right) \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L} \end{aligned} \right]$$

$$\% \text{ Regulation} = \frac{R_f}{R_L} \times 100$$

— (25)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore \% \text{ Regulation} = 0$$

— (26)

Note: (1) From (26), For an ideal diode, a HWR behaves as an ideal dc Power Supply.

- (2) V_{NL} → DC output voltage when load current is zero
 - (a) DC output voltage when no load
- V_{FL} → DC output voltage with load current
 - (a) DC output voltage with load
- (3) The variation of dc output voltage as a function of DC load current is called regulation
 - (a) The variation of dc output voltage as load changes from no load to full load is called regulation

④ Ideally, the dc voltage (O/P) is independent of load current,

∴ $V_{NL} = V_{FL}$

Hence, % Regulation = 0

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑤ Lesser the value of the voltage regulation, better is the performance of the rectifier circuit.

⑥ $V_{NL} = V_{dc} \Big|_{R_L = \infty} = \frac{V_m / \pi}{1 + R_f / \infty} = \frac{V_m}{\pi}$ (From 10)

$V_{FL} = V_{dc} = \frac{V_m / \pi}{1 + \frac{R_f}{R_L}} = \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi}\right) \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}$ (Anything $\frac{\infty}{\infty} = 0$)

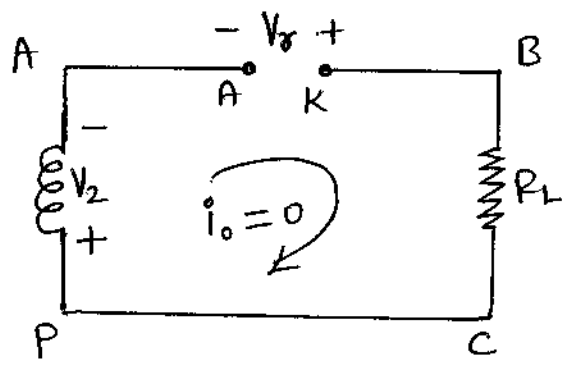
⑦ $f_{out} = f_{in}$
(Freq of HWR_{O/P}) = (IP frequency)

⑧ Peak inverse Voltage (or) Peak reverse Voltage (PIV)

The Peak inverse voltage is the maximum voltage across the reverse biased diode of a rectifier.

① The peak inverse voltage is the maximum reverse voltage to which the diode can be subjected.

The equivalent circuit of a HWR when diode is reverse biased (not conducting) is shown below,



Applying KVL to the loop,

$-V_2 + V_r - i_0 R_L = 0$

$\Rightarrow V_r = V_2$ (∵ $i_0 = 0$)

$\Rightarrow V_r = V_m \sin \omega t$ (∵ $V_2 = V_m \sin \omega t$)

$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_{rmax} = V_m = PIV}$ - ②⑦

∴ PIV for a HWR is equal to the peak secondary voltage of the transformer.

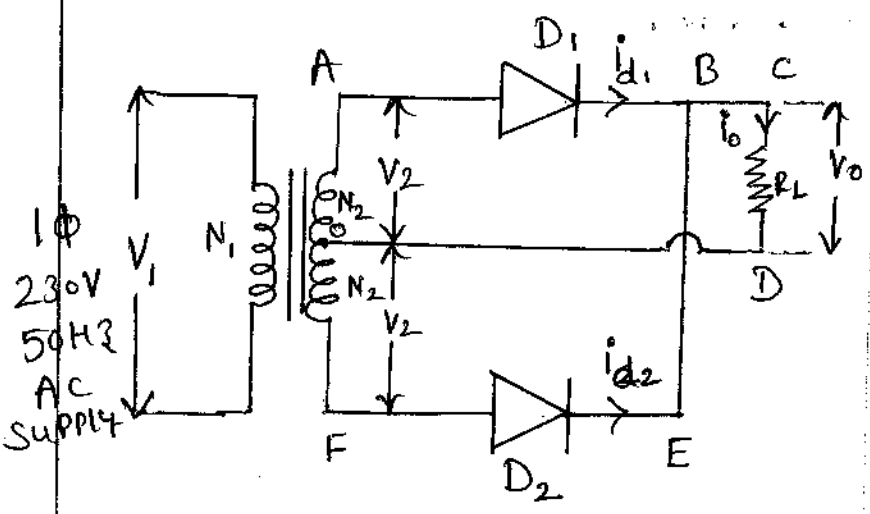
(ii) Full-Wave Rectifier (FWR):

Definition: The rectifier which conducts current (voltage) during both positive and negative half-cycles of the ac input is called Full Wave Rectifier.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

@ Centre tapped full wave rectifier:

Circuit diagram and input & output waveforms:



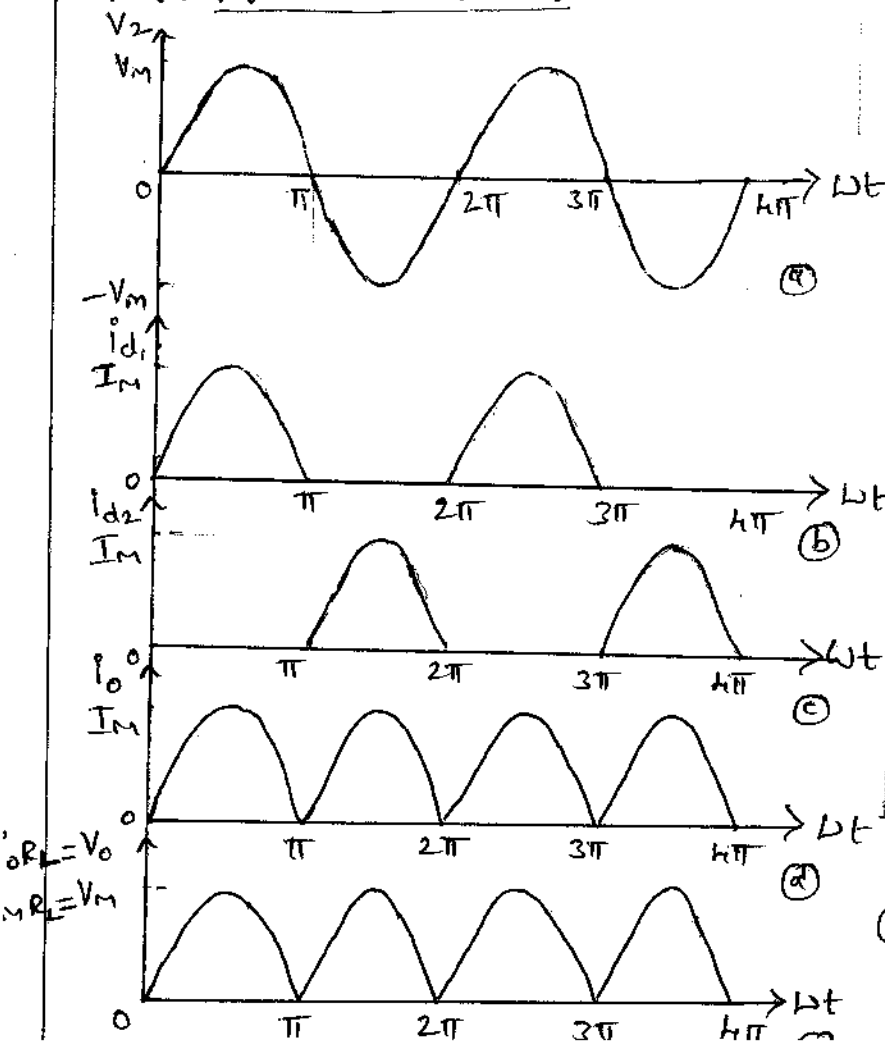
Construction:

It consists of step down transformer with a centre-tapped secondary winding, two diodes and a load resistor. The input signal is applied to the primary winding of the transformer. The centre-tapped secondary winding of the transformer is connected to two diodes.

Operation:

→ During positive half cycle of the input voltage, end A becomes positive w.r.t end F. Hence the diode D1 conducts & D2 is off & the current flows through RL (path: ABCDOA) (i_{d1})

Fig: Full Wave Rectifier



- (a) Secondary voltage wave form
- (b) & (c) Diode current wave form
- (d) Load current wave form
- (e) Load voltage wave form

→ During negative half cycle of the input voltage, end A becomes negative w.r.t end F. Hence the diode D_2 conducts & D_1 is off & the current flows through R_L (Path: F-E-B-C-D-F) (I_{D_2})

Therefore, the current flows through R_L in the same direction (C to D) for both half-cycles of input ac voltage.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① Advantages @ Merits of Center-tapped FWR:

- (i) The dc output voltage and load current are twice than those of a HWR.
- (ii) The ripple factor is much less (0.482) than that of a HWR (1.21)
- (iii) The efficiency ^(81.2%) is twice that of HWR (40.6%)
- (iv) The T.U.F (Transformer utilization factor) is more
- (v) No D.C Saturation of transformer secondary winding takes place.

② Disadvantages @ Drawbacks @ Demerits of Center-tapped FWR:

- (i) The output voltage is half of the secondary voltage
- (ii) The Peak-inverse Voltage (PIV) of a diode is twice that of the diode used in the HWR.
- (iii) It is difficult to locate the centre tap on the secondary winding.
- (iv) Higher PIV diodes are larger in size & costlier.
- (v) It is expensive to manufacture a centre-tapped transformer, which produces equal voltage on each half of the secondary winding.

② current through diode or current through R_L (i_o)

↳ Peak load current (I_M):

Instantaneous supply voltage is,

$$V_1 = V_m \sin \omega t \quad \text{--- (28)}$$

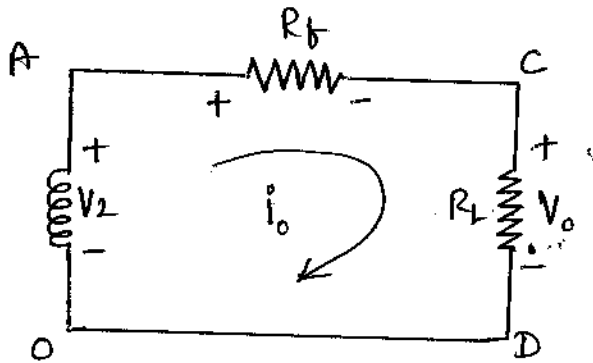
Instantaneous secondary voltage is,

$$V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1 \quad \text{--- (29)}$$

Using (28) in (29), we get

$$V_2 = V_m \sin \omega t \quad \text{--- (30) (Let } N_1 = N_2 \text{)}$$

The equivalent circuit when the diode D_1 is ON & D_2 is OFF is shown below,



Applying KVL to the loop,

$$V_2 - i_o R_f - i_o R_L = 0$$

$$i_o = \frac{V_2}{R_f + R_L}, \quad 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \quad \text{--- (31)}$$

Using (30) in (31), we get

$$i_o = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L} \sin \omega t, \quad 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi$$

$$\Rightarrow i_o = I_M \sin \omega t; \quad 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \quad \text{--- (32)}$$

Where, $I_M = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L} \quad \text{--- (33)}$

R_f → Forward resistance of the diode.

Eqn (32) gives the current through R_L

Eqn (33) gives the peak load current.

Derivations:

① Average load current or DC load current or DC output current or Average output current (I_{dc}):

DC load current,

$$I_{dc} = \frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } i_o}{\text{Period of } i_o}$$

$$= \frac{\int_0^{\pi} i_o d\omega t}{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left[\int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t d\omega t \right] \quad (\text{Using 32})$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{\pi} \left[-\cos \omega t \right]_0^{\pi}$$

$$\boxed{I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} \text{ (or) } 0.636 I_m} \quad - (34) \quad (\because \cos \pi = -1, \cos 0 = 1)$$

② Average load Voltage (or) DC load Voltage (or) DC output Voltage (or) Average output Voltage (V_{dc}):

DC load Voltage,

$$V_{dc} = I_{dc} R_L$$

$$= \frac{2I_m}{\pi} R_L \quad (\text{Using 34})$$

$$= \frac{2}{\pi} \left[\frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L} \right] R_L \quad (\text{Using 33})$$

$$\boxed{V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L}} \quad - (35)$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore \boxed{V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} \text{ (or) } 0.636 V_m} \quad - (36)$$

Note: ① Comparing (9) & (34), we can

write, $I_{FDR} = 2 I_{dCLR}$

② ILL4 FROM (10) (or) (11) & (35) (or) (36)

$$\textcircled{67} \quad V_{dc} = \frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } V_o}{\text{Period of } V_o}$$

$$= \frac{\int_0^{\pi} V_o d\omega t}{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{\int_0^{\pi} i_o R_L d\omega t}{\pi} \quad [\because V_o = i_o R_L]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left(\int_0^{\pi} i_o d\omega t \right) R_L$$

$$\Rightarrow = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L} \quad (\text{Same as } \textcircled{35})$$

③ RMS load current (I_{RMS}):

RMS load current.

$$I_{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } i_o^2}{\text{Period of } i_o}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\int_0^\pi i_o^2 dt}{\pi}}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$= \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \left[\int_0^\pi I_m^2 \sin^2 \omega t dt \right]} \quad (\text{Using 32})$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{I_m^2}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \left(\frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2} \right) dt} \quad (\because \sin^2 \theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2})$$

$$= I_m \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \left\{ (\omega t)_0^\pi - \left(\frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2} \right)_0^\pi \right\}} \quad (\because \sin 2\pi = \sin 0 = 0)$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\boxed{I_{RMS} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}} \quad - (37)$$

Note: ① Comparing (12) & (37), we can write
 $I_{RMS}(FWR) = \sqrt{2} I_{RMS}(HWR)$ or $1.414 I_{RMS}(HWR)$
② Similarly from (13) & (14) & (38) & (39), we can write
 $V_{RMS}(FWR) = \sqrt{2} V_{RMS}(HWR)$ or $1.414 V_{RMS}(HWR)$

④ RMS load voltage (V_{RMS}):

RMS load voltage.

$$V_{RMS} = I_{RMS} R_L$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} R_L \quad (\text{Using 37})$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L} R_L \quad (\text{Using 33})$$

$$\boxed{V_{RMS} = \frac{V_m / \sqrt{2}}{1 + R_f / R_L}} \quad - (38)$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore \boxed{V_{RMS} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}} \quad - (39)$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{RMS} &= \sqrt{\frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } V_o^2}{\text{Period of } V_o}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\int_0^\pi V_o^2 dt}{\pi}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi i_o^2 R_L^2 dt} \quad (\because V_o = i_o R_L) \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi i_o^2 dt} \times R_L \\ &= \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} R_L \\ &\Rightarrow = \frac{V_m / \sqrt{2}}{1 + R_f / R_L} \quad (\text{Same as (38)}) \end{aligned}$$

5) RIPPLE factor (γ):

RIPPLE factor,

$$\gamma = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}} \quad \text{--- (*)}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{V_{rms}^2 - V_{dc}^2}}{V_{dc}} \quad \text{(Using 18)}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{V_{rms}}{V_{dc}}\right)^2 - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{V_m/\sqrt{2}}{1 + R_f/R_L}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L}\right)^2 - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 - 1} \quad \text{(Using 35 & 38)}$$

$$\gamma = 0.483 \text{ @ } 48.3\% \quad \text{--- (40)}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{I_{ac}}{I_{dc}}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{I_{rms}^2 - I_{dc}^2}}{I_{dc}} \quad \text{(Using 1)}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}}\right)^2 - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_m/\sqrt{2}}{2I_m/\pi}\right)^2 - 1}$$

$$= \sqrt{\left(\frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 - 1}$$

$$= 0.483 \cdot \text{(Same as (40))}$$

6) Efficiency @

Rectification efficiency @

Power conversion efficiency (η)

Efficiency,

$$\eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}} \quad \text{--- (**)}$$

$$= \frac{I_{dc}^2 R_L}{I_{rms}^2 (R_f + R_L)}$$

$$= \frac{(2I_m/\pi)^2 R_L}{(I_m/\sqrt{2})^2 (R_f + R_L)}$$

$$= \frac{8}{\pi^2} \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}$$

$$\eta = 81.2\% \text{ @ } 0.812 \quad \text{--- (41)}$$

From (*) & (40), we can write

$$\gamma = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}} = 48.3\%$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{ac} = 48.3\% \text{ of } V_{dc}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\eta = 81.2\% \text{ @ } 81.2\% \quad \text{--- (42)}$$

Note: ① From (***) & (42), we can write

$$\eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}} = 81.2\% \Rightarrow \boxed{P_{dc} = 81.2\% \text{ of } P_{ac}} \quad \text{--- (43)}$$

② From (22) & (42), we can write

$$\eta_{(FLR)} = 2 \eta_{(HLR)}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

⑦ Percentage regulation @ Voltage regulation (% Regulation)

$$\% \text{ Regulation} = \frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100 \quad \text{--- (44)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{\frac{2V_m}{\pi} - \frac{(2V_m/\pi) R_L}{R_f + R_L}}{\frac{(2V_m/\pi) R_L}{R_f + R_L}} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{2V_m}{\pi} \left(1 - \frac{R_L}{R_f + R_L}\right) \times 100 \\ &= \frac{2V_m}{\pi} \left(\frac{R_f}{R_f + R_L}\right) \\ &= \frac{R_f + R_L - R_L}{R_f + R_L} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{R_f}{R_f + R_L} \times 100 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{FL} &= V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L} \\ \Rightarrow V_{FL} &= \frac{(2V_m/\pi) R_L}{R_f + R_L} \\ \text{At } V_{NL} &= V_{dc} |_{R_L = \infty} \\ &= \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/\infty} \\ V_{NL} &= \frac{2V_m}{\pi} \quad (\because R_f = 0) \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\% \text{ Regulation} = \frac{R_f}{R_L} \times 100} \quad \text{--- (45)}$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

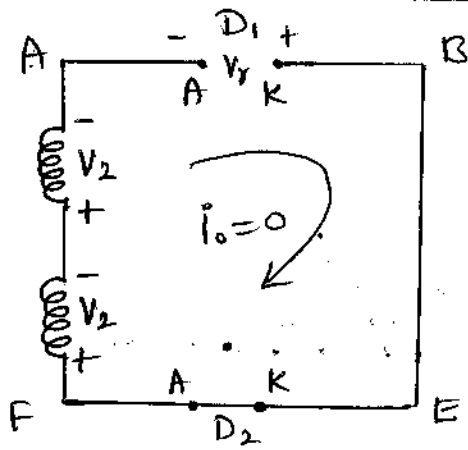
$$\therefore \boxed{\% \text{ Regulation} = 0} \quad \text{--- (46)}$$

From (25) & (45),
 $\% \text{ Regulation for HLR} =$
 $\% \text{ Regulation for FLR}$

⑧ Peak inverse Voltage @ Peak reverse Voltage (PIV)

The equivalent circuit of FLR when D_1 is ON & D_2 is OFF is shown in fig (**)

The equivalent circuit of FLR when D_1 is OFF & D_2 is ON is shown in fig (**)



Fig(**): During negative half cycle of input

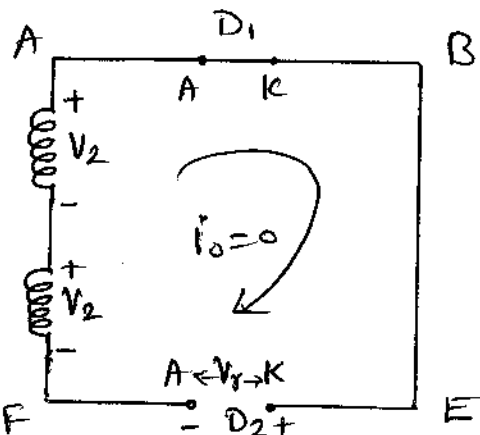
Applying KVL to the loop,

$$-V_2 - V_2 + V_r = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_r = 2V_2$$

$$\Rightarrow V_r = 2V_m \sin \omega t$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{PIV = V_{rmax} = 2V_m} \quad (\text{Using 30}) \quad (47)$$



Fig(*): During Positive half cycle of input

Applying KVL to the loop,

$$+V_2 + V_2 - V_r = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_r = 2V_2$$

$$\Rightarrow V_r = 2V_m \sin \omega t$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{PIV = V_{rmax} = 2V_m} \quad (\text{Using 30}) \quad (47)$$

Note: From (27) & (47), we can write

$$(PIV)_{FWR} = 2(PIV)_{HWR}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

(B) Full-Wave bridge rectifier:

Circuit diagram:

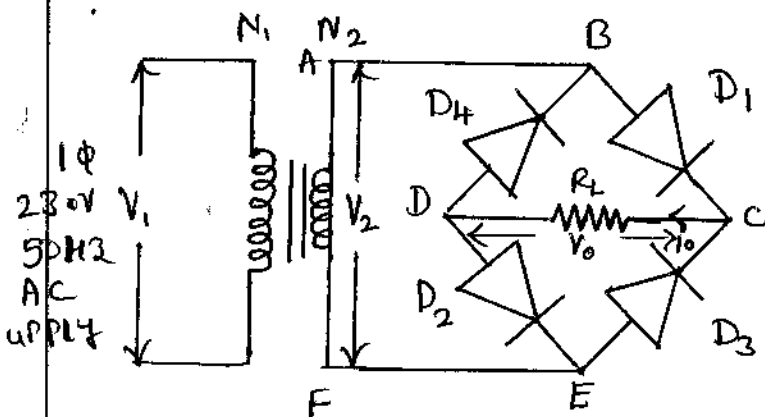


Fig: Full-Wave bridge rectifier

Operation:

→ During positive half cycle of the input voltage, end A becomes positive w.r.t end C. Hence the diodes D1 & D3 are

Construction:

It consists of a Step down transformer, four diodes & a load resistor. The primary coil of a transformer is connected to ac input and secondary coil to a load resistor (RL) through diodes.

ON & D₃ and D₄ are OFF. The current flows through R_L (Path: A B C D E F A)

→ During negative half cycle of the input voltage, end A becomes negative w.r.t end F. Hence the diodes D₃ & D₄ are ON & D₁ & D₂ are OFF. The current flows through R_L (Path: F E C D B A F)

Therefore, the current flows through R_L in the same direction (C to D) for both half-cycles of input ac voltage.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

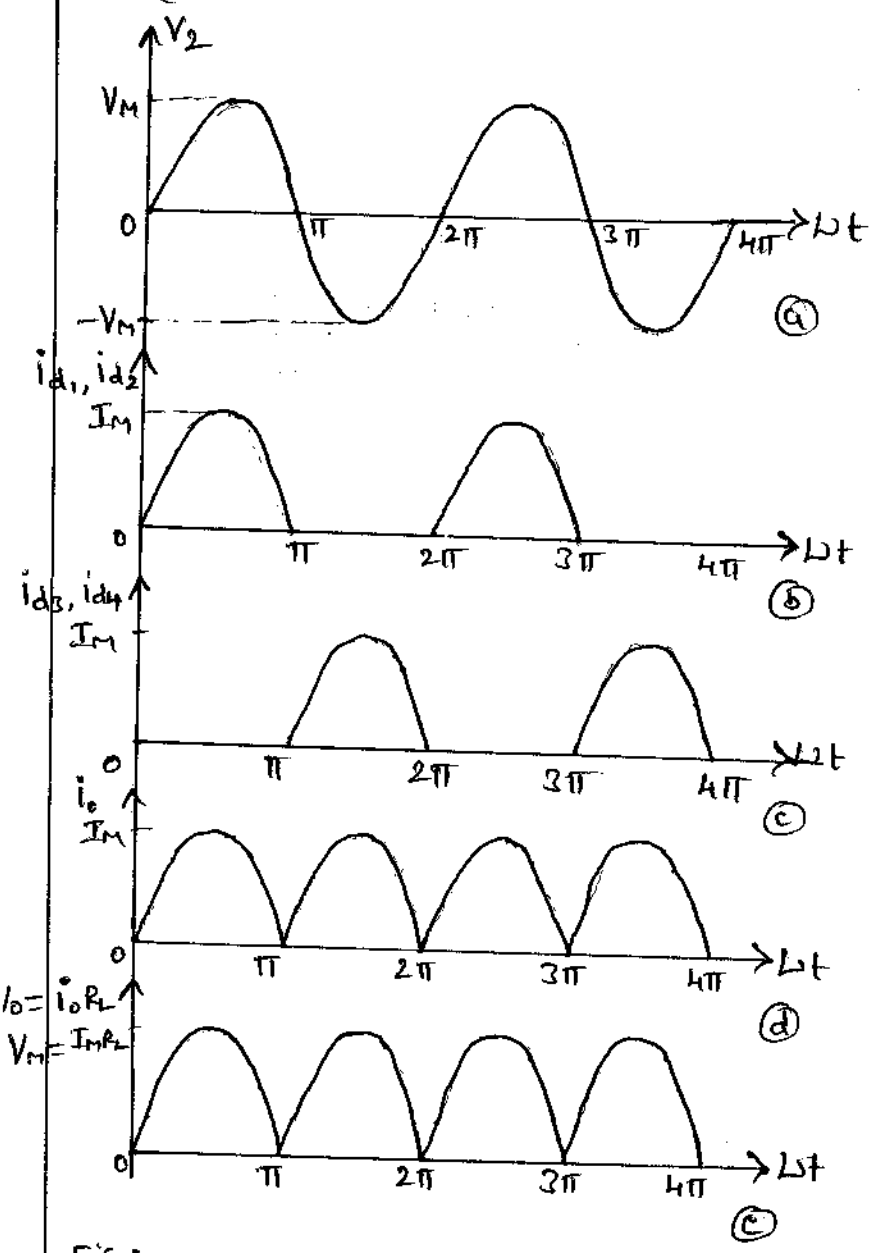


Fig:

- Ⓐ Secondary voltage waveform
- Ⓑ & Ⓒ Diode current waveforms
- Ⓓ Load current waveform
- Ⓔ Load voltage waveform.

Note:

- Ⓐ Advantages
- Ⓑ Merits of Full-Wave bridge rectifier
 - (i) The center-tapped transformer is not required.
 - (ii) The transformer is less costly.
 - (iii) The PIV is one-half that of the Centre-tap circuit.
 - (iv) The output is twice that of the Centre-tap circuit for the same secondary voltage.

- (v) The T.U.F (Transformer Utilization factor) is more.
- (vi) Less D.C Saturation of transformer secondary winding
- (viii) It can be used in applications where floating output terminals are allowed.

② Disadvantages @ Drawbacks @ Demerits of Full Wave bridge rectifier:

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

- (i) It requires four diodes
- (ii) As during each half-cycle of a.c input two diodes that conduct are in series, therefore, voltage drop in the internal resistance of the rectifying unit will be twice as compared to centre tap circuit.

③ Current through R_L (i_o) & Peak load current (I_m):

Instantaneous supply voltage is,

$$V_1 = V_m \sin \omega t \quad \text{--- (48)}$$

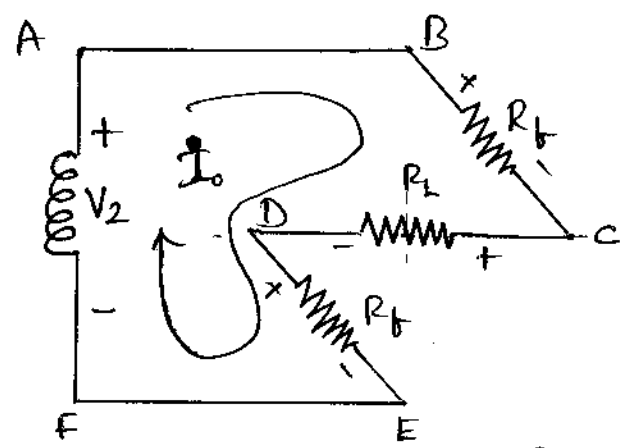
Instantaneous secondary voltage is,

$$V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1 \quad \text{--- (49)}$$

Using (48) in (49), & assuming $N_1 = N_2$, we can write,

$$V_2 = V_m \sin \omega t \quad \text{--- (50)}$$

The equivalent circuit when the diodes D_1 & D_2 are ON & the diodes D_3 & D_4 are OFF is shown below,



Equivalent circuit during first cycle

Applying KVL to the loop

$$V_2 - i_o R_f - i_o R_L - i_o R_f = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow i_o = \frac{V_2}{2R_f + R_L} \quad , \quad 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \quad \text{--- (51)}$$

Using (50) in (51), we get

$$i_o = \frac{V_m}{2R_f + R_L} \sin \omega t \quad , \quad 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi$$

$$\Rightarrow i_o = I_m \sin \omega t ; 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \quad \text{--- (52)}$$

Where, $I_m = \frac{V_m}{2R_f + R_L}$ --- (53)

Where, $R_f \rightarrow$ Forward resistance of the diode

Eqn (52) gives the current through R_L

Eqn (53) gives the peak load current @ maximum load current

Derivations

① Average load current @ DC load current @ DC output current @ Average output current (I_{dc}):

$$I_{dc} = \frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } i_o}{\text{Period of } i_o}$$

$$I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} \text{ @ } 0.636 I_m \text{ @ } \frac{2V_m/\pi}{2R_f + R_L} \quad \text{--- (54)} \quad \text{(Using 53)}$$

② Average load Voltage @ DC load Voltage @ DC output Voltage

@ Average output voltage (V_{dc}):

$$V_{dc} = I_{dc} R_L = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} R_L \quad \text{(Using 54)}$$

$$V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + 2(R_f/R_L)} \quad \text{--- (55)} \quad \text{(Using 53)}$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} \text{ @ } 0.636 V_m \quad \text{--- (56)}$$

③ RMS load current (I_{rms}):

$$I_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } i_o^2}{\text{Period of } i_o}}$$

$$I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \text{ @ } \frac{V_m/\sqrt{2}}{2R_f + R_L} \quad \text{--- (57)} \quad \text{(Using 53)}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

4) RMS Load Voltage (V_{rms}):

$$V_{rms} = I_{rms} R_L$$

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m / \sqrt{2}}{1 + 2(R_f / R_L)} \quad - (58)$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$.

$$\therefore V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} \quad - (59)$$

5) Ripple factor (γ):

$$\gamma = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}}$$

$$\gamma = 0.483 @ 48.3\% \quad - (60)$$

6) Efficiency @ Rectification efficiency @ Power Conversion Efficiency (η):

$$\eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}}$$

$$\eta = \frac{0.812}{1 + 2(R_f / R_L)} \quad - (61)$$

If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore \eta = 0.812 @ 81.2\% \quad - (62)$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

7) Percentage regulation @ Voltage regulation (% Regulation):

$$\begin{aligned} \% \text{ Regulation} &= \frac{V_{NL} - V_{FL}}{V_{FL}} \times 100 \\ &= \frac{\frac{2V_m}{\pi} - \frac{(2V_m / \pi) R_L}{2R_f + R_L}}{\frac{(2V_m / \pi) R_L}{2R_f + R_L}} \times 100 \end{aligned}$$

$$\% \text{ Regulation} = \frac{2R_f}{R_L} \times 100 \quad - (63)$$

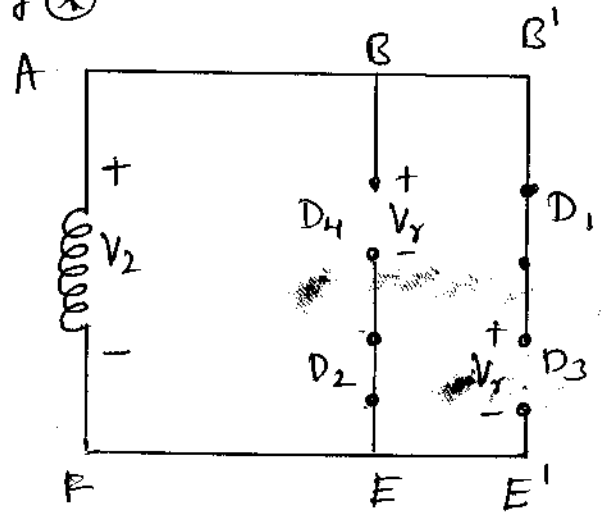
If diode is ideal, $R_f = 0$

$$\therefore \% \text{ Regulation} = 0 \quad - (64)$$

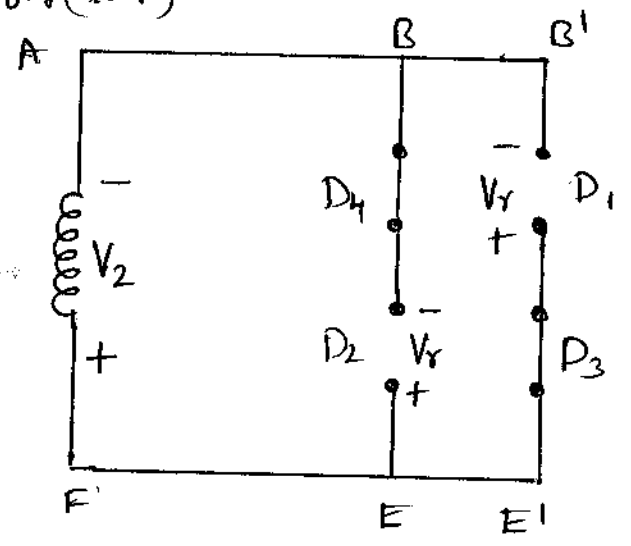
8) Peak inverse Voltage @ Peak reverse Voltage (PIV) @ (PRV)

The equivalent circuit of full wave bridge rectifier when D_1 & D_2 are ON and D_3 & D_4 are OFF is shown in fig (*)

(**) The equivalent circuit of full wave bridge rectifier when D_3 & D_4 are ON and D_1 & D_2 are OFF is shown in fig (***)



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



Applying KVL to ABEEFA (*)

$$V_2 - V_r = 0 \quad (A B B' E' E F A)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_r = V_2 = V_m \sin \omega t \quad (\text{Using (5)})$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{PIV = V_{rmax} = V_m}$$

Applying KVL to ABEEFA (***)

$$-V_2 + V_r = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_r = V_2 = V_m \sin \omega t$$

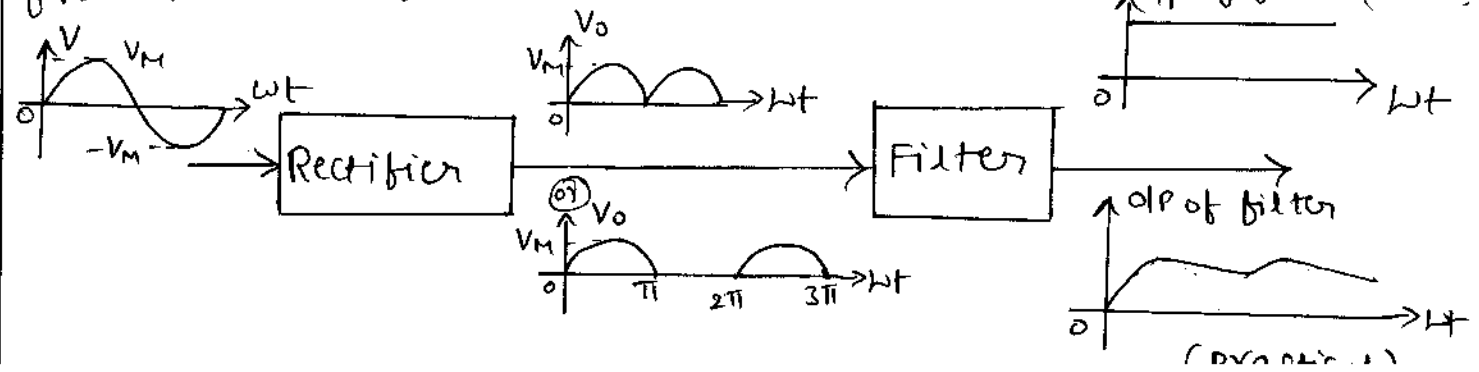
$$\Rightarrow \boxed{PIV = V_{rmax} = V_m}$$

Note: (1) $f_{out} = 2 f_{in}$
(FLR O/P freq) = (2 x i/P freq)

* Filters (1) Filter circuits:

The output of the rectifier is pulsating dc i.e. it contains ac and dc components.

A device which ^(filter out) removes the a.c component (ripple) from the rectified output is called filter.



The most commonly used filter circuits are
 ① Capacitor filter ② Inductor filter ③ Choke input (LC) filter ④ π -filter (Capacitor input)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

① HBR With Capacitor filter:

Fig ① shows a HBR with capacitor filter.

- The reactance of a capacitor is, $X_c = \frac{1}{2\pi f c}$
- For d.c, $f=0$, $\therefore X_c = \infty$ i.e capacitor offers infinite reactance to d.c (capacitor passes a.c signal but blocks d.c)

Fig ② shows different waveforms

→ During the positive half-cycle of the ac input voltage, the diode is forward biased (conducts) and it charges the capacitor to the peak value of secondary transformer voltage (V_m) (indicated by oa). The charging time is negligible.

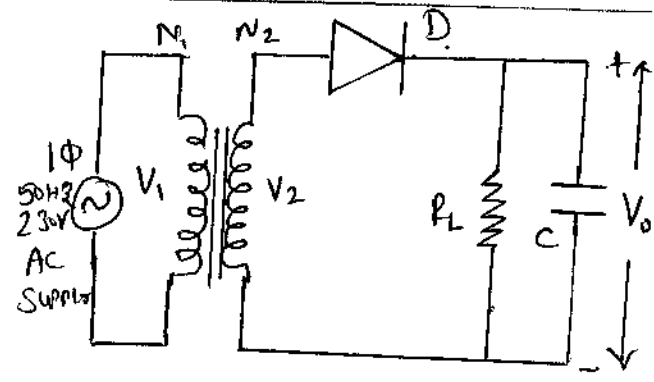
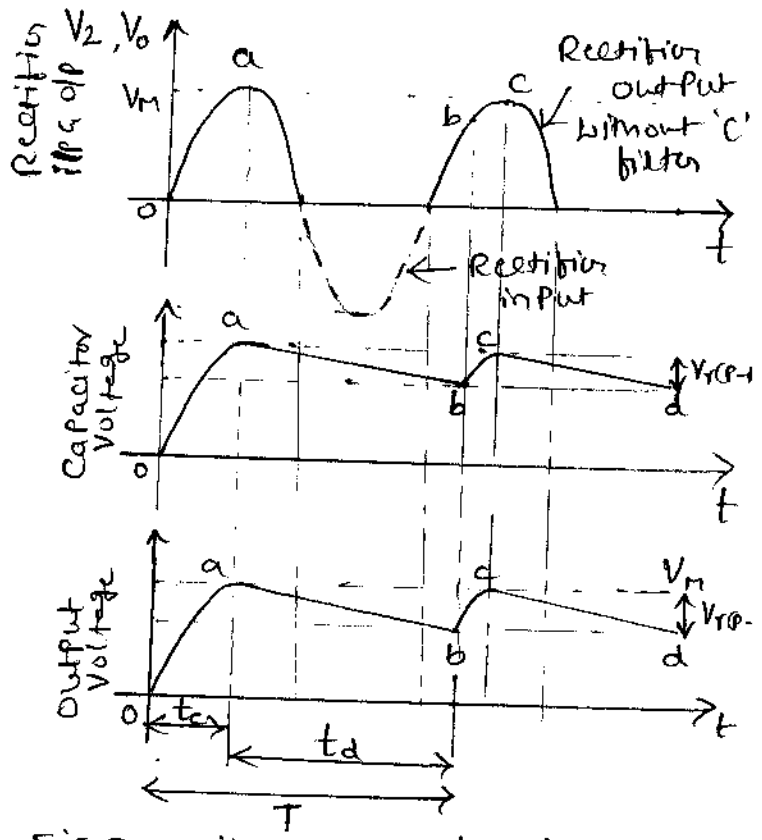


FIG ①: HBR With Capacitor filter

When the ac input voltage falls below V_m , the capacitor discharges through the load resistance (indicated by ab). This discharging ~~of~~ of the capacitor continues until the diode starts conducting again. This process is repeated again and again, and the output voltage waveform becomes 'oabcd'



The ripple factor with 'C' filter is,

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3} f R_L C}$$

$f \rightarrow$ Frequency of the supply $\frac{V}{Hz}$

$R_L \rightarrow$ Load resistance

$C \rightarrow$ Capacitance value of capacitor

Note: ① The process of removing ac components (ripples) from the rectified output is called filtering.

② The discharging time (t_d) is,

$$t_d = C \cdot R_L$$

where, $C \rightarrow$ capacitance value of the capacitor
 $R_L \rightarrow$ Load resistance.

③ Without capacitor filter, output varies between 0 to V_m
 With capacitor filter, output varies between $[V_m - V_{r(p-p)}]$ & V_m

④ $V_{r(p-p)} = \frac{I_{dc}}{fC} = \frac{V_{dc}}{fC R_L}$ $V_{r(p-p)} \rightarrow$ Peak to Peak ripple voltage on capacitor.

⑤ $V_{dc} = V_m - \frac{I_{dc}}{2fC} = V_m - \frac{V_{dc}}{2fC R_L}$

⑥
$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{2fC R_L}\right)}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashihara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

2) Full Wave rectifier with capacitor filter:

Fig ③ shows a FWR with capacitor filter.

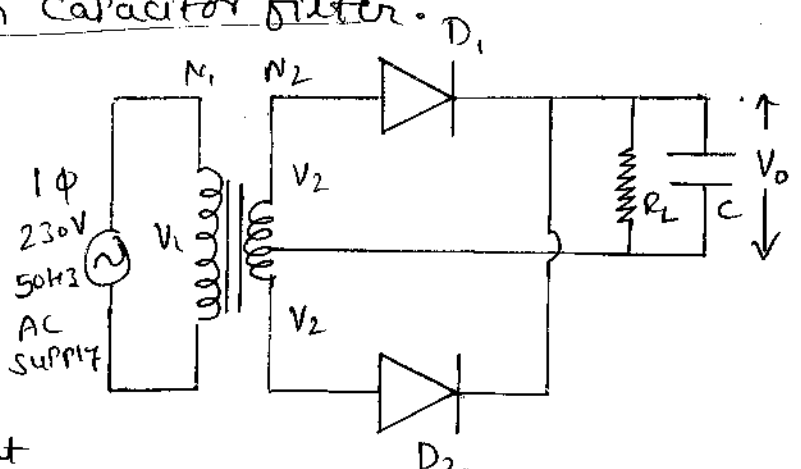


Fig ④ shows different waveforms.

\rightarrow During the positive half-cycle of the ac input voltage, the diode D_1 is forward biased and it

Fig ③: FWR with capacitor filter

charges the capacitor to the peak value of secondary transform

Voltage (V_m) (indicated by 'a').

When the transformer secondary voltage falls below V_m , the capacitor discharges through the load resistance (D_1 stop conducting) and this continues until the diode D_2 starts conducting again. This process is repeated again and again and the output waveform becomes 'o a b c d e f g'.

The ripple factor with 'C' filter is,

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} f R L C}$$

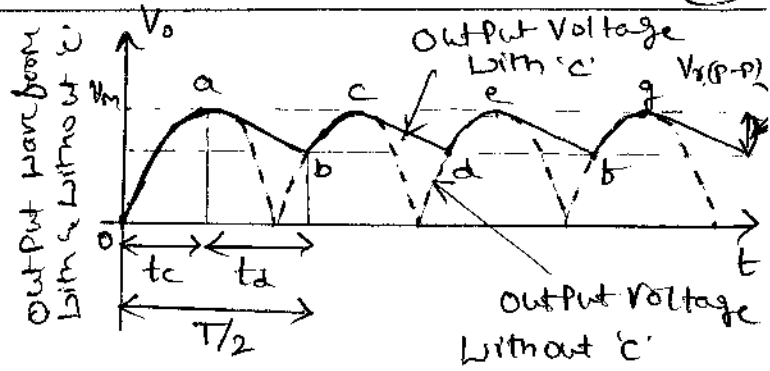


Fig 4: Different waveforms

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231115

③ Full Wave bridge rectifier with capacitor filter:

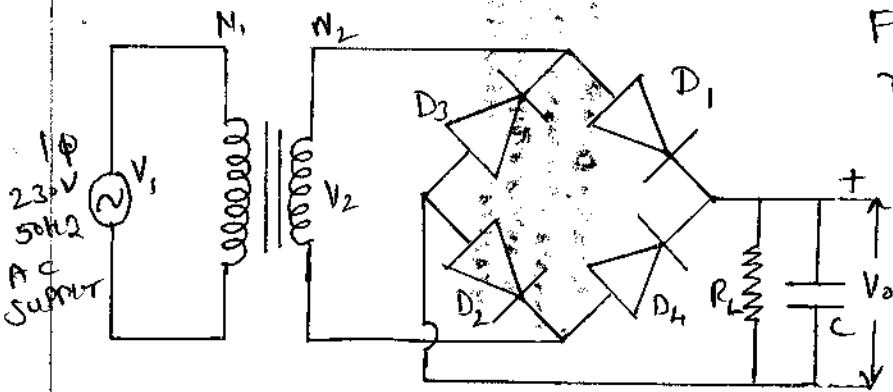


Fig 5 shows a FW bridge rectifier with capacitor filter.

Fig 5: Full Wave bridge rectifier with capacitor filter

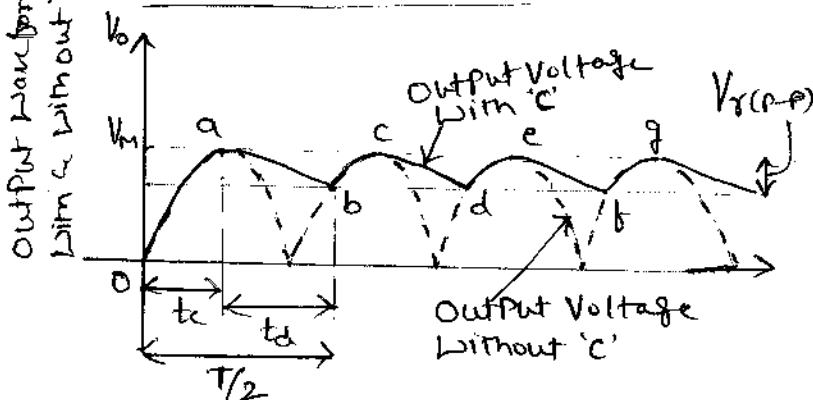


Fig 6: Different waveforms

Fig 6 shows different waveforms.

→ During the positive half-cycle of the ac input voltage, diodes D_1 and D_2 conduct & charge the capacitor to the peak value of the secondary transformer voltage (V_m) (indicated by 'a').

When the transformer secondary voltage falls below V_m (D_1 & D_2 stop conducting), the capacitor discharges through the load resistance and this continues

until the diodes D_3 & D_4 start conducting (indicated by ab) again. This process is repeated again & again and output waveform becomes 'abcdebg'

The ripple factor with 'C' filter is,

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} f R_L C}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174 9844233315

Note: ① $V_{r(P-P)} = \frac{I_{dc}}{2fc} = \frac{V_{dc}}{2fcR_L}$

② $V_{dc} = V_M - \frac{I_{dc}}{4fc} = V_M - \frac{V_{dc}}{4fcR_L}$ ③

$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_M}{1 + \frac{1}{4fcR_L}}$$

For FW center tap
 rectifier & FW
 bridge rectifier

③ Advantages of capacitor filter:

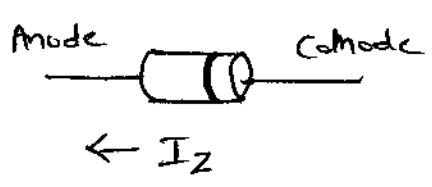
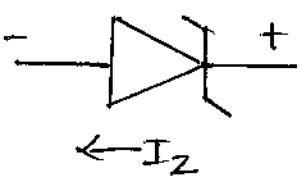
- (i) Low cost (ii) Small size (iii) Little weight
- (iv) Good characteristics (v) An inexpensive filter for light loads
 (i.e. a load with larger value of resistance)
- (vi) Suitable for small load currents (say upto 50mA)
 [used in transistor radio battery eliminators]

④ Disadvantages of capacitor filter:

- (i) Not suitable for heavy loads (i.e. a load with smaller value of resistance)
- (ii) Ripple factor depends on load resistance

Note: ① Zener diodes

(i) Circuit Symbol:



(ii) Junction breakdown:

When a junction diode is reverse biased, a very small

reverse saturation current flows through the diode. Zener diodes are the diodes which are designed to operate in the breakdown region. They are also called as breakdown

⊗ Avalanche diodes

When the reverse voltage is sufficiently increased, the junction breaks down and a large reverse current flows. If a resistor (R_1) is connected in series with the diode, the current is limited & will not destroy the device.

(iii) Voltage regulators:

A circuit which converts unregulated dc to regulated (constant) dc is called voltage regulator

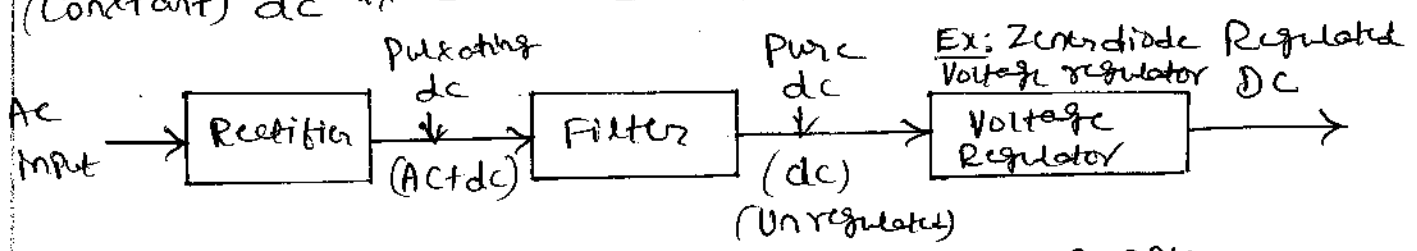


Fig: Block diagram of Regulated dc Power Supply

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315.

* Zener diode Voltage regulators:

Under reverse bias condition, the voltage across the zener diode remains constant (even input changes). Hence Zener diode is sometimes called as voltage regulator

The Zener current (I_Z) must satisfy the condition

$$I_{ZK} < I_Z < I_{ZM}$$

I_Z should be selected as I_{ZT} (Specified test current (usually 20mA))

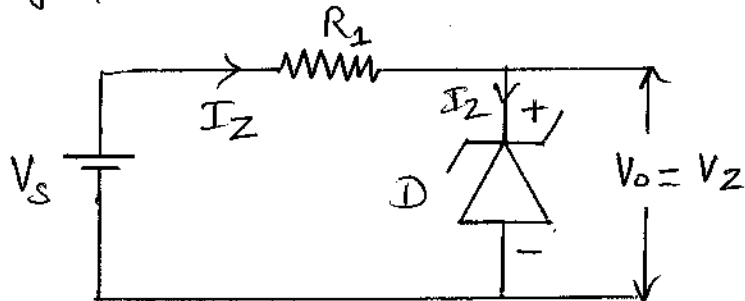
Where I_{ZK} → Diode knee voltage @ minimum reverse current to sustain breakdown

I_{ZM} → Maximum Zener current limited by the maximum power dissipation (P_D)

$$P_D = V_Z I_{ZM}$$

① Zener diode Voltage regulator Under no load (Regulator circuit with no load) Under no load

Fig shows the Zener voltage regulator with no load



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shachilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig: Zener voltage regulator with no load

→ V_s is the unregulated dc voltage (output from rectifier with filter) greater than the Zener breakdown voltage (V_z).

→ Hence $V_o = V_z = \text{constant}$

→ Current I_z must satisfy the condition.

$$I_{zk} < I_z < I_{zm} \quad \text{Where}$$

→ Normally I_z is selected as I_{zT} (Specified test current).

→ Applying KVL to the loop

$$V_s - I_z R_1 - V_z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_z = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1} \quad \text{or} \quad R_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{I_z}$$

Minimum Zener current,

$$I_{zmin} = \frac{V_{smin} - V_z}{R_1}$$

Maximum Zener current,

$$I_{zmax} = \frac{V_{smax} - V_z}{R_1}$$

→ Power dissipated in R_1 ,

$$P_{R_1} = I_z^2 R_1$$

② Loaded regulator (Shunt regulator) Loaded Zener voltage regulator

Fig shows the Zener voltage regulator with load

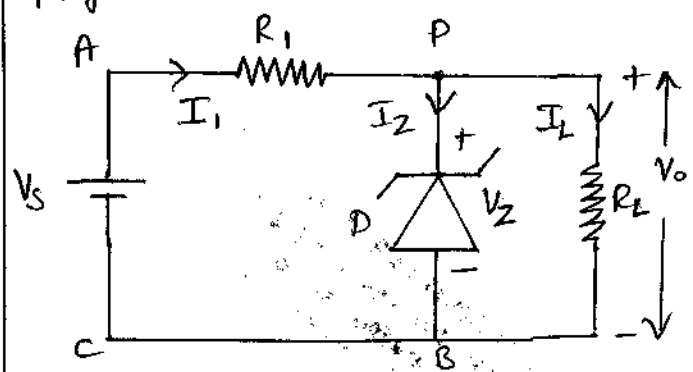


Fig: Zener Voltage regulator with load

→ V_s is the unregulated dc voltage (output from rectifier with filter)

→ Voltage across $R_L =$ Voltage across Zener diode

ie $V_o = V_z$ — (1)

→ We have from KCL at node P,

$I_1 = I_2 + I_L$ — (2)

→ Applying KVL to loop APBC, we get,

$V_s - I_1 R_1 - V_z = 0$

$\Rightarrow I_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1}$ — (3)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

→ When $I_L = I_{Lmax}$, $I_z = I_{zmin}$, we get (from con 2)

$I_1 = I_{zmin} + I_{Lmax}$ — (4)

For a Zener diode with an $I_{zt} = 20mA$, $I_{zmin} = 5mA$

→ When $I_L = 0$, entire I_1 flows through the Zener diode.

We should ensure that the total current does not exceed the maximum Zener diode current (I_{zm}), Now con (2) becomes,

$I_1 = I_{zm}$ — (5)

[∵ $I_z = I_{zm}$, $I_L = 0$]
in con (2)]

→ Equating (4) & (5), we get

$I_{zm} = I_{zmin} + I_{Lmax}$ — (6)

→ Using (5) in (3), we get

$I_{zm} = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1}$ — (7)

$R_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{I_{zm}}$ — (8)

Note: ① I_b input voltage V_s varies

Using ② & ③. $I_z = \left(\frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1} \right) - I_L$

$\Rightarrow \frac{V_{smin} - V_z - I_{Lmax}}{R_1} > I_{zmin}$ ④ $R_{1(max)} = \frac{V_{smin} - V_z}{I_{zmin} + I_{Lmax}}$

& $\frac{V_{smax} - V_z - I_{Lmin}}{R_1} < I_{zmax}$ ⑤ $R_{1(min)} = \frac{V_{smax} - V_z}{I_{zmax} + I_{Lmin}}$

② Power Supply Performance

The dc output voltage in a dc power supply varies due to

- ① source effect
- ② load effect

① Source effect

Without load

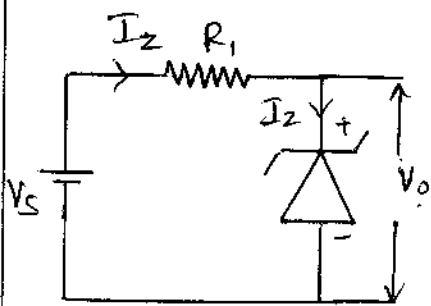


Fig ①

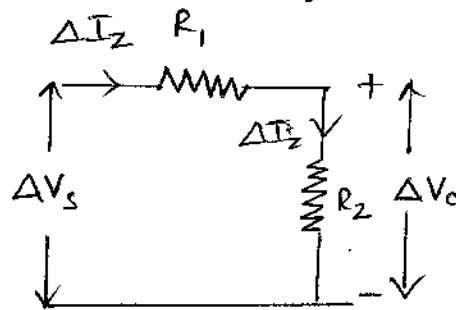


Fig ②

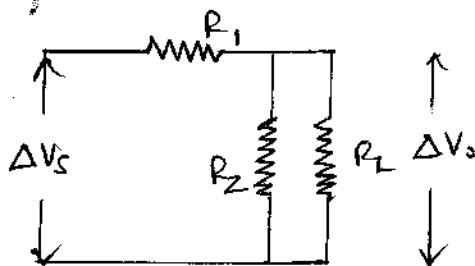
SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

→ The Equivalent circuit of Zener voltage regulator under no load is shown in fig ②.

→ From voltage divider rule,

$$\Delta V_o = \frac{\Delta V_s R_z}{R_1 + R_z}$$

With load



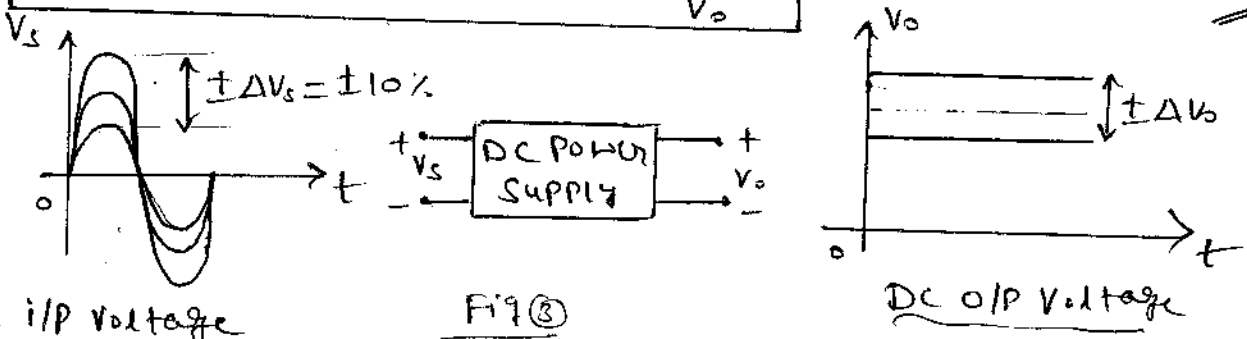
$$\Delta V_o = \frac{\Delta V_s (R_z || R_L)}{R_1 + (R_z || R_L)}$$

→ The change in the output voltage (ΔV_o) due to the change in the d.c. voltage (ac supply voltage) is called source effect

ie Source effect = ΔV_o for a 10% change in V_s

→ The source effect expressed as a percentage of the dc output voltage V_o is called the line regulation @
Source regulation

ie line regulation = $\frac{\Delta V_o \text{ for a 10\% change in } V_s \times 100\%}{V_o}$

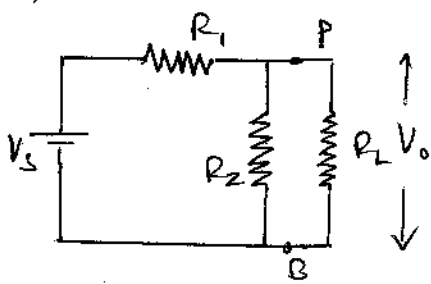


AC i/p voltage

Fig 3

DC o/p voltage

⑥ Load effect:

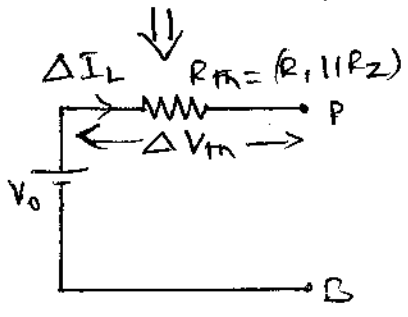
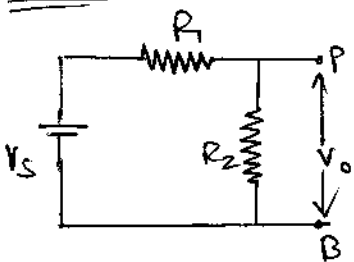


Thevenin's equivalent circuit of the Zener voltage regulator with load is shown in fig 5

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$\Delta V_{th} = \Delta I_L (R_1 || R_2)$

Fig 4



→ The change in load voltage is due to the change in voltage ΔV_{th} , which is due to change in current.
 → The change in the output voltage (ΔV_o) due to the change in the load current (ΔI_L) is called load effect.

ie load effect = ΔV_o for ΔI_L

→ The load effect expressed as a percentage of the dc output voltage (V_o) is called the load regulation

Fig 5

ie load regulation = $\frac{\Delta V_o \text{ for } \Delta I_L \times 100\%}{V_o}$

Problem:

- ① Determine the level of reverse saturation current at temperature of 35°C and 45°C for a junction which has $I_0 = 30 \text{ nA}$ at 25°C.

Sol: Given $I_0(T_1) = 30 \times 10^{-9} \text{ A}$ at $T_1 = 25^\circ\text{C}$

$I_0(T_2) = ?$ at $T_2 = 35^\circ\text{C}$

Let

$$I_0(T_2) = I_0(T_1) \left[2^{(T_2 - T_1)/10} \right]$$

$$I_0(T_2) = 30 \times 10^{-9} \left[2^{(35 - 25)/10} \right]$$

$$I_0(T_2) = 60 \text{ nA} \text{ at } T_2 = 35^\circ\text{C}$$

$I_0(T_2) = ?$ at $T_2 = 45^\circ\text{C}$

$$I_0(T_2) = 30 \times 10^{-9} \left[2^{(45 - 25)/10} \right]$$

$$I_0(T_2) = 120 \text{ nA} \text{ at } T_2 = 45^\circ\text{C}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

- ② A Silicon pn-junction has a reverse saturation current of $I_0 = 30 \text{ nA}$ at a temperature of 300K. Calculate the junction current when the applied voltage is (a) 0.7V forward bias, (b) 10V reverse bias.

Sol:

(a) Given $I_0 = 30 \times 10^{-9} \text{ A}$,

$T = 300 \text{ K}$,

$V_D = 0.7 \text{ V}$

Let

$$I_D = I_0 \left(e^{V_D/nV_T} - 1 \right)$$

$$= 30 \times 10^{-9} \left(e^{13.46} - 1 \right)$$

$$I_D = 21 \text{ mA}$$

(b) Given $I_0 = 30 \times 10^{-9} \text{ A}$

$T = 300 \text{ K}$

$V_D = -10 \text{ V}$

$$I_D = 30 \times 10^{-9} \left(e^{-19.2} - 1 \right)$$

$$I_D = -30 \text{ nA}$$

$$\left(\frac{V_D}{nV_T} = \frac{-10}{2 \times 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \times 300} = -19.2 \right)$$

1.6×10^{-19}

$$\left(\therefore \frac{V_D}{nV_T} = \frac{V_D}{n \cdot kT/q} = \frac{0.7}{2 \times \frac{1.38 \times 10^{-23} \times 300}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}}} = 13.46 \right)$$

③ A Silicon Pn-junction has a reverse saturation current of 30nA at a temperature of 300k. Calculate the junction forward-bias voltage required to produce a current of (a) 0.1mA, (b) 10mA.

Sol: We have,

$$I_D = I_0 (e^{V_D/nV_T} - 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_D = nV_T \ln\left(\frac{I_D}{I_0} + 1\right)$$

Given, $n = 2$ (Si)
 $I_0 = 30 \times 10^{-9} \text{ A}$
 $T = 300 \text{ K}$
 (a) $V_D = ?$ at $I_D = 0.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A}$
 (b) $V_D = ?$ at $I_D = 10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A}$
 $V_T = 26 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V}$ at $T = 300 \text{ K}$

(a)

$$V_D = 2 \times 26 \times 10^{-3} \ln\left(\frac{0.1 \times 10^{-3}}{30 \times 10^{-9}} + 1\right)$$

$V_D = 421.8 \text{ mV}$

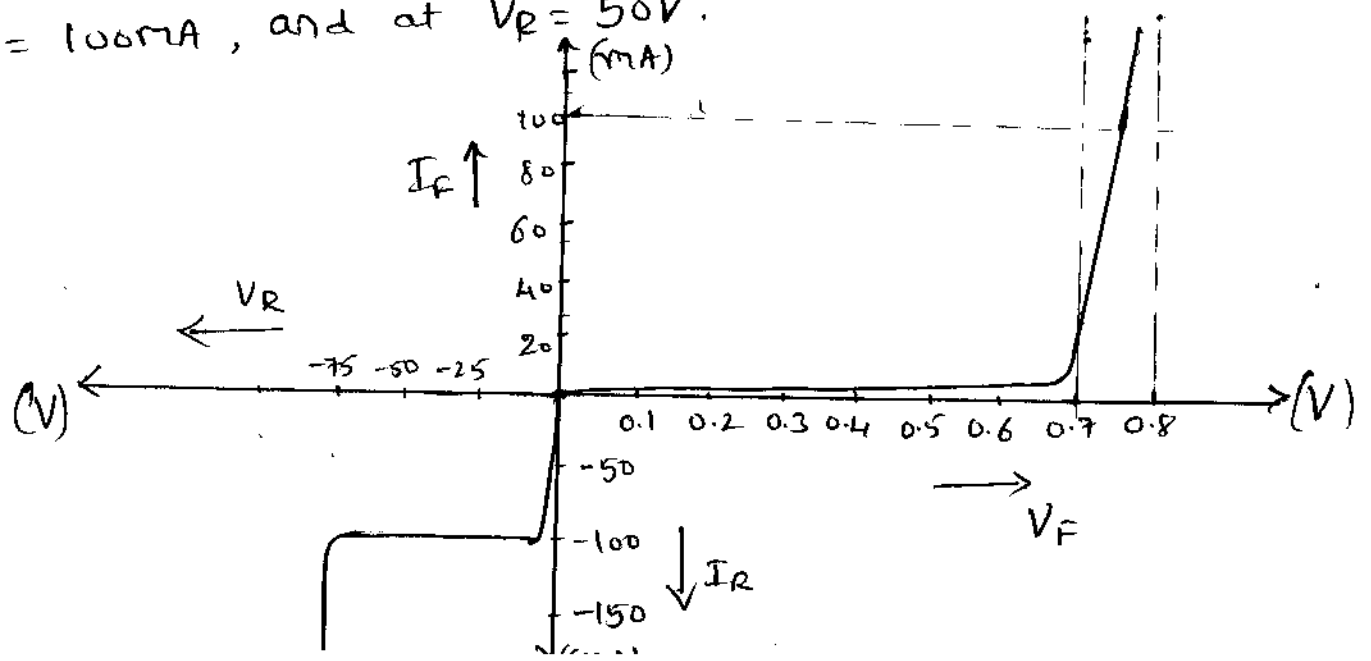
(b)

$$V_D = 2 \times 26 \times 10^{-3} \ln\left(\frac{10 \times 10^{-3}}{30 \times 10^{-9}} + 1\right)$$

$V_D = 661.27 \text{ mV}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

④ Calculate the forward and reverse resistances offered by a silicon diode with the characteristics in fig (a), at $I_F = 100 \text{ mA}$, and at $V_R = 50 \text{ V}$.



Sol: From the characteristics,

At $I_F = 100\text{mA}$, $V_F \approx 0.75\text{V}$

∴ Forward resistance,

$$R_F = \frac{V_F}{I_F}$$

$$= \frac{0.75}{100 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$R_F = 7.5 \Omega$$

At $V_R = 50\text{V}$, $I_R \approx 100\mu\text{A}$

∴ Reverse resistance,

$$R_R = \frac{V_R}{I_R}$$

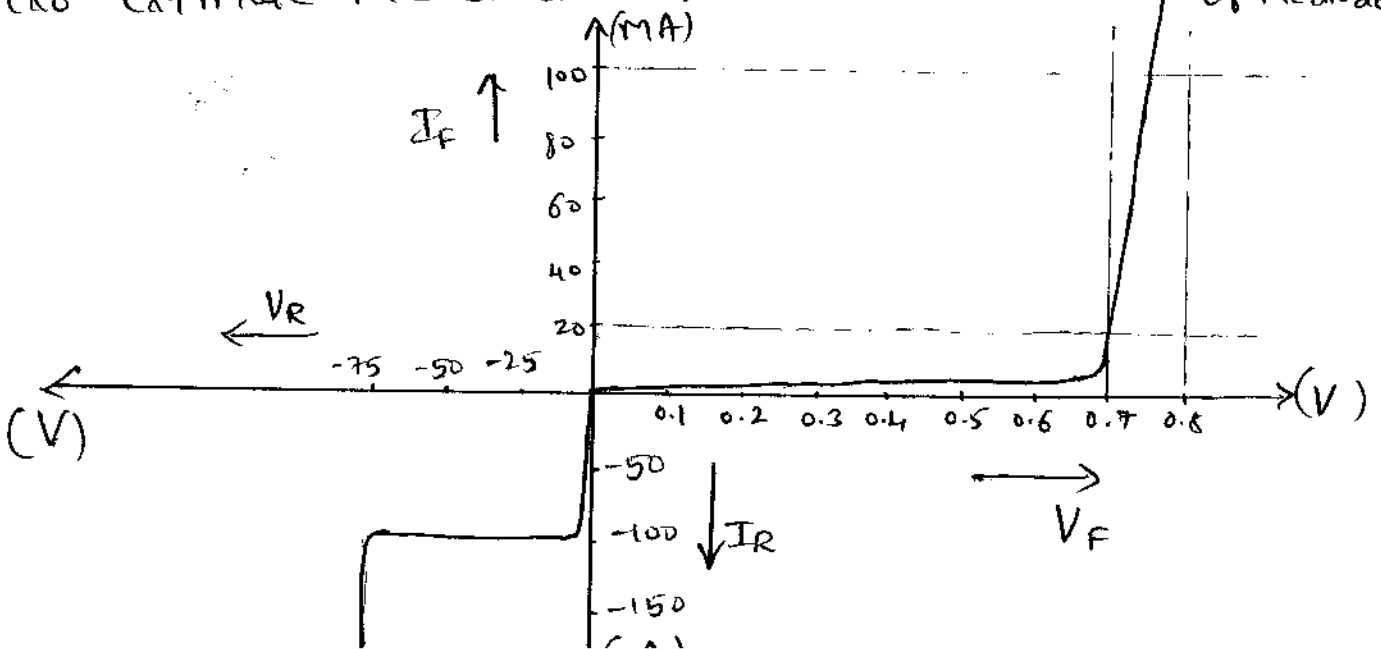
$$= \frac{50}{100 \times 10^{-9}}$$

$$R_R = 500\text{M}\Omega$$

∴ $I_R \ll I_F$
 $R_R \gg R_F$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑤ Determine the dynamic resistance at a forward current of 70mA for the diode characteristics given in fig ⑤. Also estimate the diode dynamic resistance & cut-in voltage of the diode.



Q.1: Dynamic resistance, r_d ,

$$r_d = \frac{\Delta V_F}{\Delta I_F} = \frac{V_{F2} - V_{F1}}{I_{F2} - I_{F1}}$$

Let us take two points on the curve at $(70 \text{ mA} \pm 30 \text{ mA})$

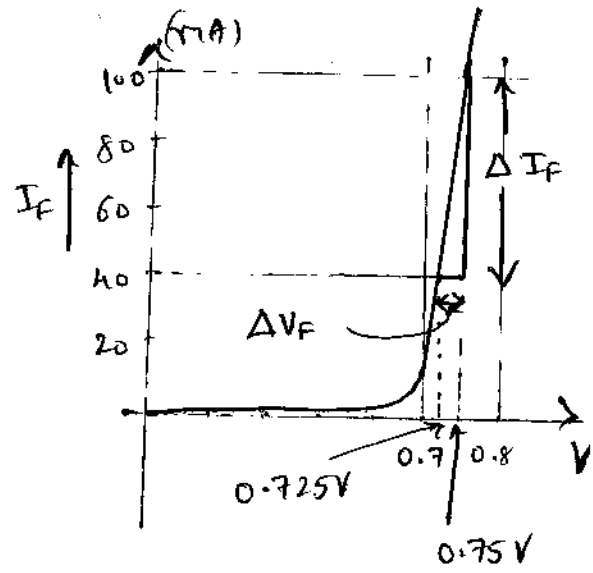
At $I_{F2} = 100 \text{ mA}$, $V_{F2} =$

At $I_{F1} = 40 \text{ mA}$, $V_{F1} =$

$$\therefore r_d = \frac{0.75 - 0.725}{100 \times 10^{-3} - 40 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$r_d = 0.4166 \Omega$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

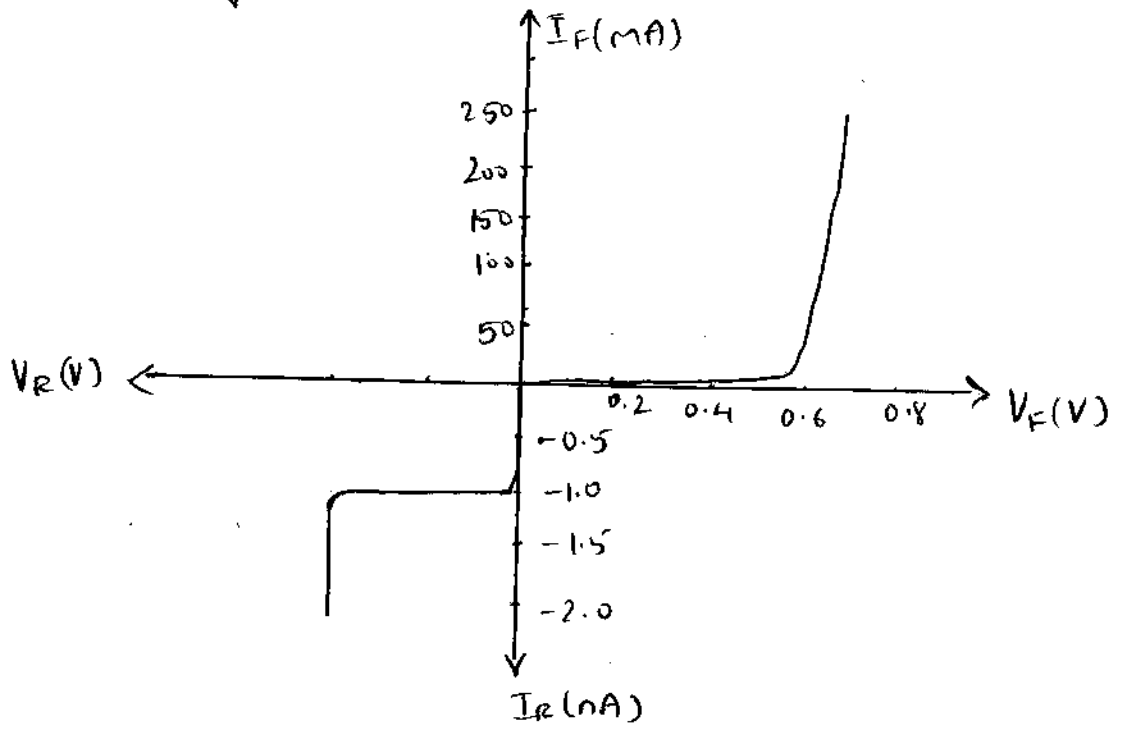


Diode dynamic resistance

$$r_d' = \frac{26 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V}}{I_F} = \frac{26 \times 10^{-3}}{70 \times 10^{-3}} = 0.371 \Omega$$

From the knee of the characteristic, $V_{th} = 0.7 \text{ V}$

Q.2: From the characteristic shown below identify the diode and give its ratings.



Sol: From the knee of the characteristic,

$$V_{in} = 0.6V$$

∴ Diode used in the given characteristic is a Silicon diode

Rating:

Maximum forward current, $I_{F(max)} = 250mA$

Cut-in voltage, $V_{in} = 0.6V$

Reverse saturation current, $I_0 = 1mA$

Reverse breakdown voltage $V_{BR} = 100V$

Maximum reverse voltage, $V_{R(max)} = 75V$ (75% of 100V)

⊕ Plot the forward & reverse characteristics of a diode, given the following data:

Cut-in voltage = 0.6V, Reverse breakdown voltage = 40V,

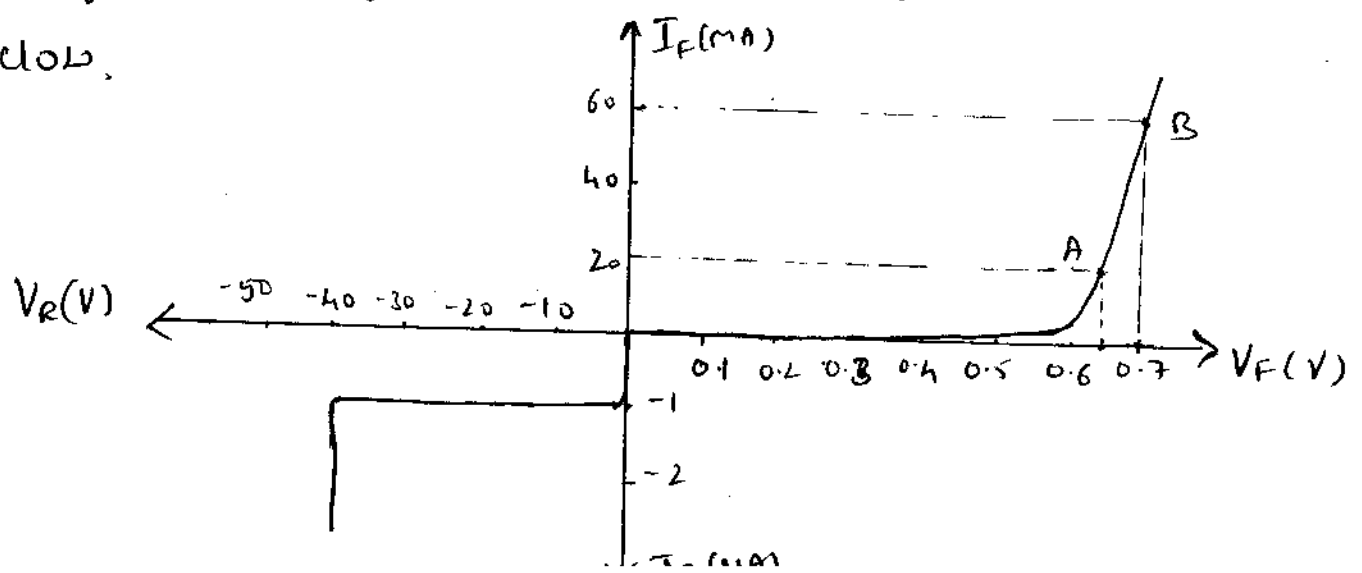
Nominal reverse current = 1mA, Forward current = 20mA at a forward voltage of 0.65V, Forward current = 60mA at a forward voltage of 0.7V.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

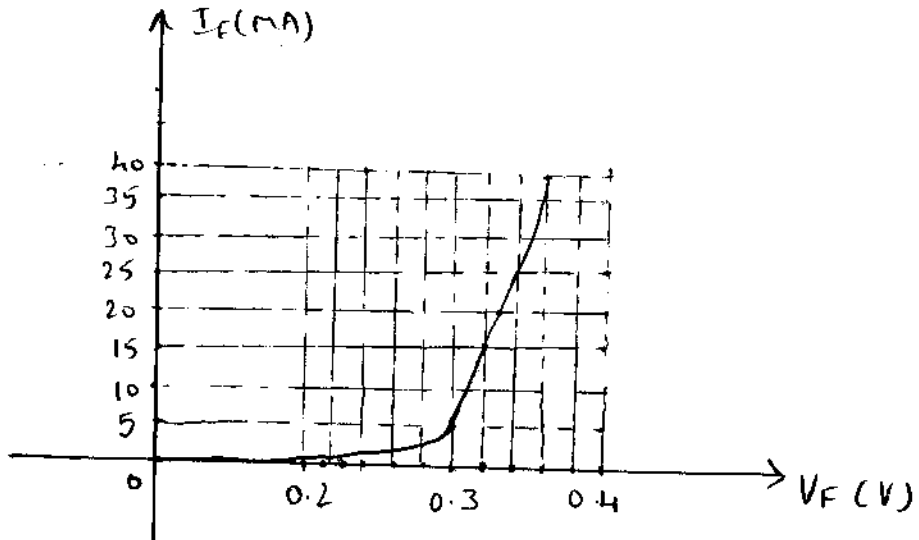
Sol: Given, $V_{in} = 0.6V$, $I_0 = 1mA$, $V_{BR} = 40V$,

$I_F = 20mA$ at $V_F = 0.65V$ (Point A), $I_F = 60mA$ at $V_F = 0.7V$ (Point B)

The forward & reverse characteristics of the diode is shown below,



⑧ Find the static forward resistance at a forward current of 20mA for the diode whose characteristics is shown below. Further; find the dynamic resistance at 20mA using (i) the characteristics and (ii) the forward current. Estimate the value of the substrate resistance.



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashihara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Sol:
 Static forward resistance.

$$R_F = \frac{V_F}{I_F} = \frac{0.33V}{20 \times 10^{-3}A} = \underline{\underline{16.5 \Omega}} \quad (\text{At } I_F = 20mA, V_F = 0.33V)$$

(i) Dynamic resistance from the characteristics,

$$r_d = \frac{\Delta V_F}{\Delta I_F} = \frac{V_{F2} - V_{F1}}{I_{F2} - I_{F1}} = \frac{0.35 - 0.31}{(30 - 10) \times 10^{-3}} = \underline{\underline{2 \Omega}}$$

(ii) Dynamic resistance using forward current (Pure ac resistance)

$$r_d' = \frac{0.026}{I_F} = \frac{0.026}{20 \times 10^{-3}} = \underline{\underline{1.3 \Omega}}$$

Substrate resistance.

$$r_{\text{Substrate}} = r_d - r_d' = 2 - 1.3 = \underline{\underline{0.7 \Omega}}$$

At $I_{F1} = 20mA - 10mA = 10mA$ $V_{F1} = 0.31V$

At $I_{F2} = 20mA + 10mA = 30mA$ $V_{F2} = 0.35V$

- 9) Construct the piecewise linear characteristic for a Si diode that has a 0.25Ω dynamic resistance and a 200mA maximum forward current.

Sol:

Cut-in voltage of Si diode, $V_{\text{in}} = 0.7\text{V}$

STEP 1: Draw the voltage and current axis.

STEP 2: Mark Point A at $V_F = 0.7\text{V}$ on the V_F axis i.e. $A(0.7, 0)$

STEP 3: By definition,

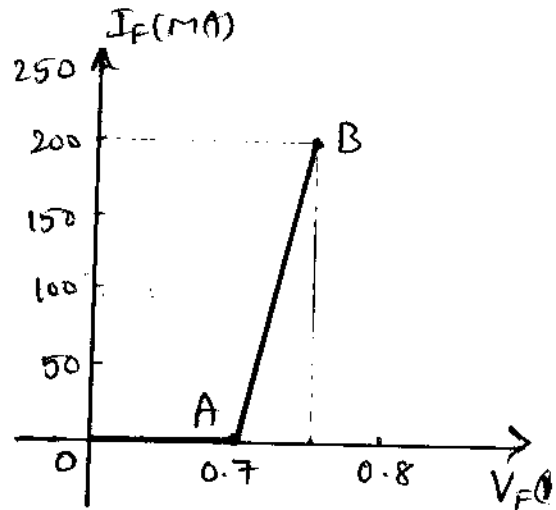
$$r_d = \frac{\Delta V_F}{\Delta I_F}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta V_F = r_d \times \Delta I_F = 0.25 \times 200 \times 10^{-3} = 0.05\text{V}$$

$$\therefore V_F = 0.7 + 0.05 = 0.75\text{V}$$

Now mark Point B at $V_F = 0.75\text{V}$ & $I_F = 200\text{mA}$ i.e. $B(0.75, 200 \times 10^{-3})$

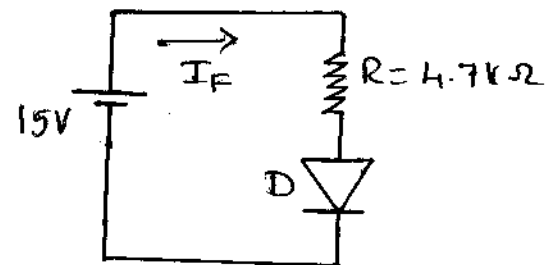
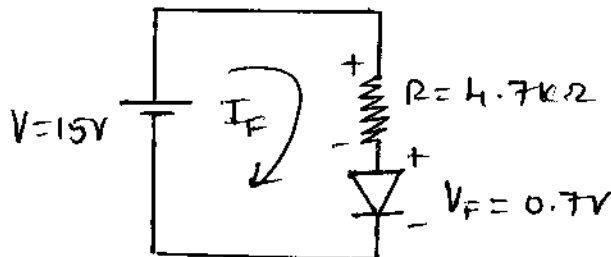
STEP 4: Join AB to get the piecewise linear characteristic of Si diode



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

- 10) A silicon diode is used in the circuit shown in fig 10. Calculate the diode current.

Sol:

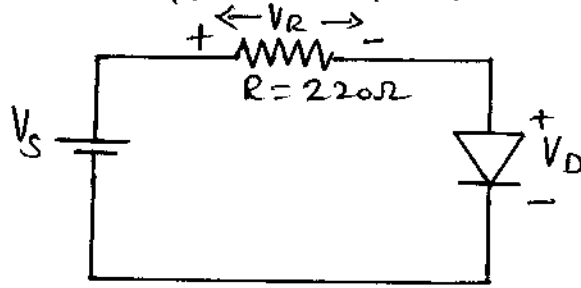


Applying KVL to the loop,

$$V - I_F R - V_F = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_F = \frac{V - V_F}{R} = \frac{15 - 0.7}{4.7 \times 10^3} = \underline{\underline{3.042\text{mA}}}$$

11) A diode is in series with 220Ω and the voltage across the resistor is $4V$. What is the current through the diode?



Sol: Current through the diode is,

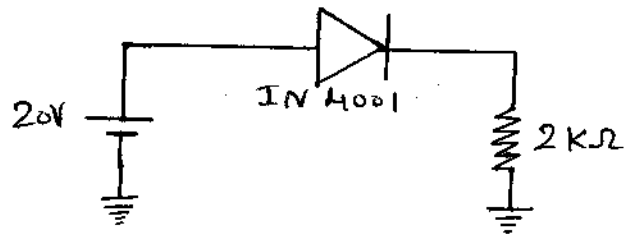
$$I_D = \text{Current through resistor}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Voltage across the resistor}}{\text{Resistance}}$$

$$= \frac{4}{220}$$

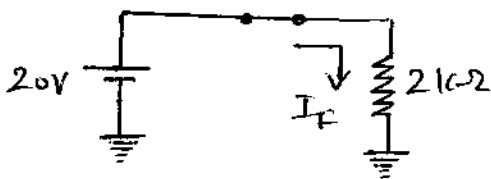
$$I_D = 18.18 \text{ mA}$$

12) Calculate the load current for the circuit shown in fig (12). (Ideal diode)



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

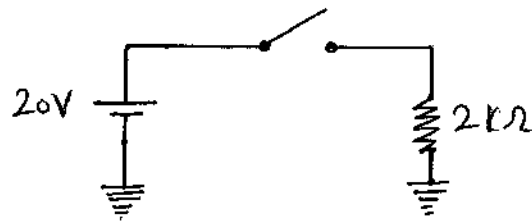
Sol: During Forward bias



$$I_F = \frac{20V}{2 \times 10^3 \Omega}$$

$$I_F = 10 \text{ mA}$$

During Reverse bias



$$I_F = 0$$

13) In fig (13), calculate the load current, load voltage, load power, diode power and total power.

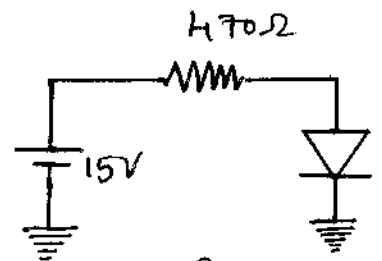


Fig (13)

Sol: Given $V = 15V$, $R = 470\Omega$

Load Current, $I_R = \frac{15}{470} = 3.2 \times 10^{-2} A //$

Load Voltage, $V_R = I_R \times R = 3.2 \times 10^{-2} \times 470 = \underline{\underline{15V}}$
 (\because Diode is ideal)

Load Power $P_D = I_R \times V_R = 3.2 \times 10^{-2} \times 15 = 0.48W //$

Diode Power $P_{diode} = \text{Diode } V_{td} \times \text{Diode Current}$
 $= 0 // (\because \text{Diode Voltage} = 0)$

Total Power $P_T = V \times I = 15 \times 3.2 \times 10^{-2} = \underline{\underline{0.48W}}$

14 Calculate I_F for the diode circuit in fig 14 assuming that the diode has $V_F = 0.7V$ and $r_d = 0$. Then recalculate the current taking $r_d = 0.25\Omega$.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

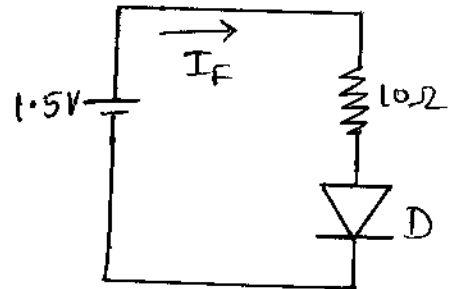
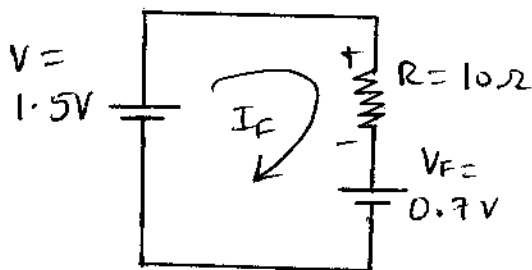


Fig 14

Sol: With $r_d = 0$



Applying KVL

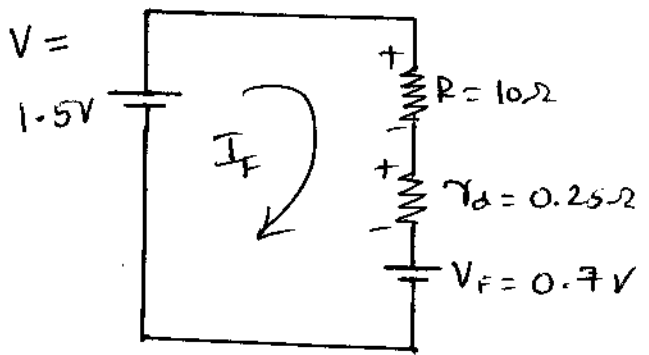
$$+1.5 - I_F R - 0.7 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_F R = 1.5 - 0.7$$

$$I_F = \frac{1.5 - 0.7}{10}$$

$$I_F = 80mA //$$

With $r_d = 0.25\Omega$



Applying KVL

$$1.5 - I_F R - I_F r_d - V_F = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_F = \frac{1.5 - 0.7}{10 + 0.25}$$

$$I_F = 78mA //$$

15) Find the value of resistor R in the circuit shown in fig (15).

Given, dynamic resistance of the diode is 0.4Ω & the circuit current is 100 mA .

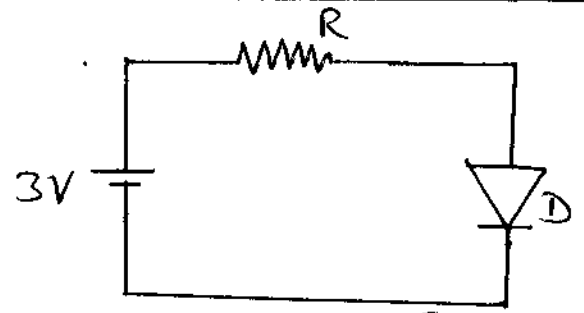
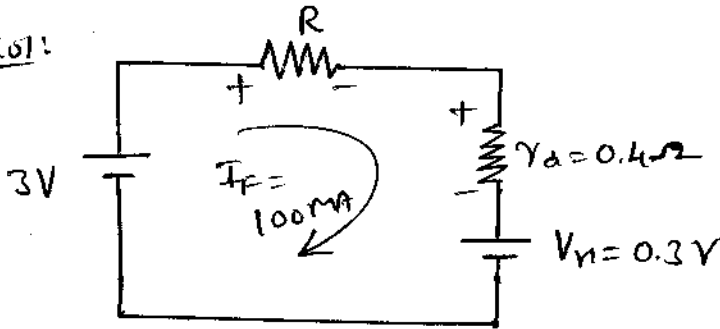


Fig (15)

Sol:



Applying KVL to loop

$$3 - RI_F - r_d I_F - V_D = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow R = \frac{3 - 0.4 \times 100 \times 10^{-3} - 0.3}{100 \times 10^{-3}}$$

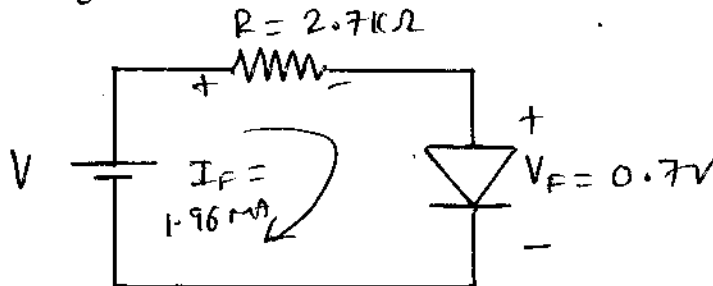
$$= \frac{2.66}{100 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$R = 26.6 \Omega$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

16) A circuit consists of a silicon diode in series with a $2.7 \text{ k}\Omega$ resistor and a battery. Find the supply voltage if the forward current is 1.96 mA .

Sol:



Applying KVL

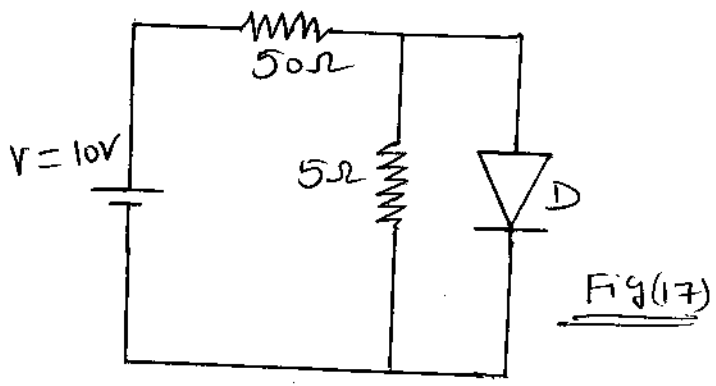
$$V - I_F R - V_F = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V = I_F R + V_F$$

$$= 1.96 \times 10^{-3} \times 2.7 \times 10^3 + 0.7$$

$$V = 5.992 \text{ V}$$

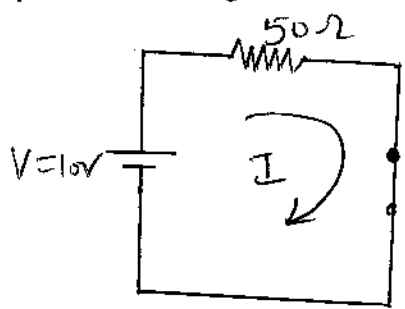
17) Find the current through the diode in the circuit shown in fig (17). Assume diode to be ideal.



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig (17)

Sol: Since diode D is ideal, it acts as a short circuit. Resistor 5Ω can be neglected since it is in parallel with SC.



∴ Current through the diode is,

$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{10}{50} = \underline{\underline{0.2A}}$$

18) Determine the current I in the circuit shown in fig 18. Assume the diodes to be of Silicon and forward resistance of diodes to be zero.

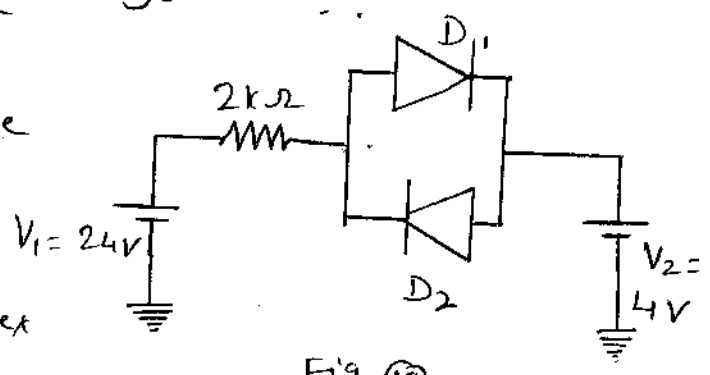
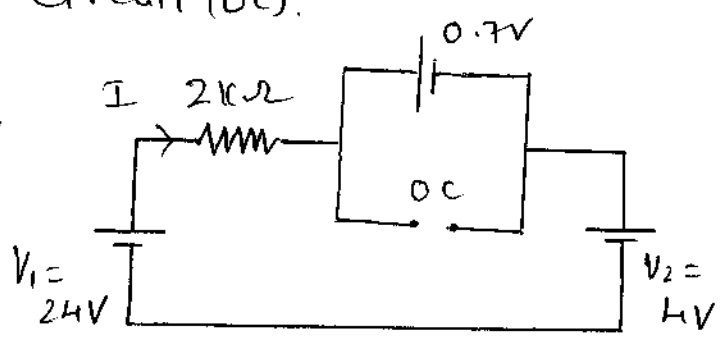


Fig (18)

Sol: Here diode D₁ is forward biased and diode D₂ is reverse biased. ∴ D₁ acts as ^{V_f source of 0.7V} short circuit and D₂ acts as open circuit (OC).



Applying KVL,

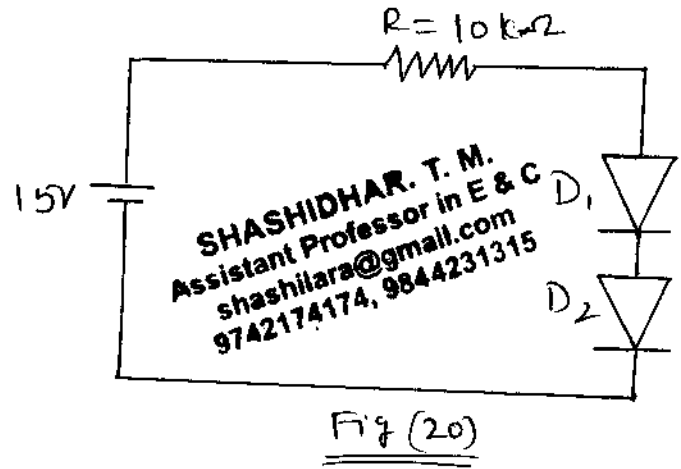
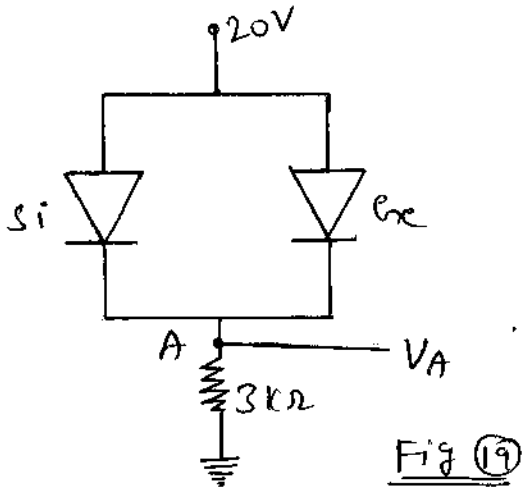
$$V_1 - 2kI - 0.7 - V_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \frac{V_1 - V_2 - 0.7}{2 \times 10^3}$$

$$= \frac{24 - 0.7 - 4}{2 \times 10^3}$$

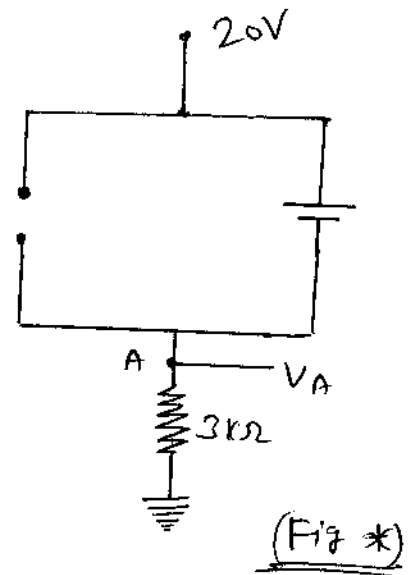
$$I = \underline{\underline{9.65mA}}$$

19) Find the voltage V_A in the circuit shown in fig 19.



Sol:

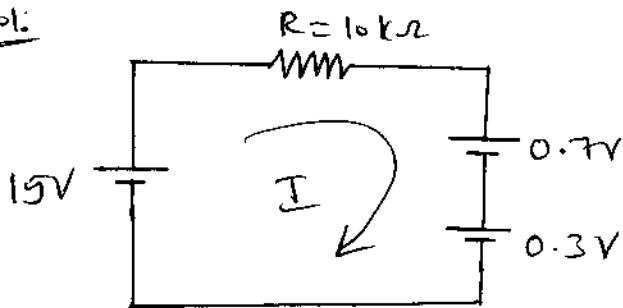
When voltage is applied, Ge diode ($V_{th} = 0.3V$) will turn on first and a drop of 0.3V is maintained across the parallel circuit. The Silicon diode never gets the opportunity to have 0.7V across it and therefore, remains in open-circuit state as shown in fig (*).



$$\therefore V_A = 20 - 0.3 = \underline{19.7V}$$

20) Calculate the diode current in the circuit shown in fig 20. Assume D_1 as Si diode and D_2 as Ge diode.

Sol:



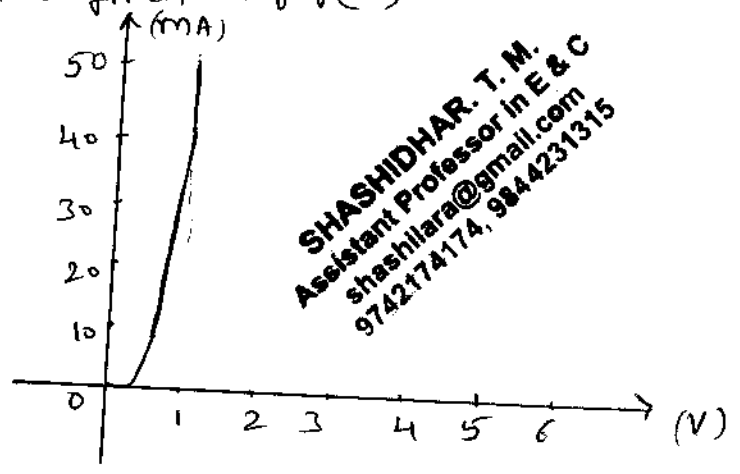
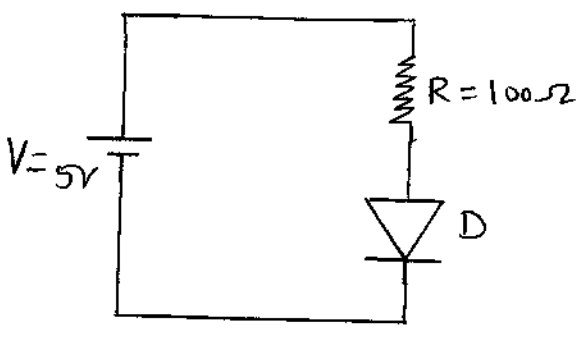
Applying KVL to the loop,

$$15 - IR - 0.7 - 0.3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \frac{15 - 1}{R} = \frac{14}{10 \times 10^3}$$

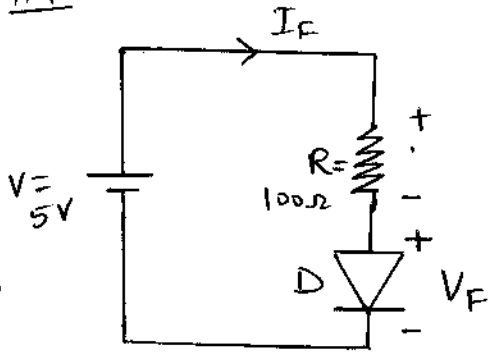
$$\boxed{I = 1.4 \text{ mA}}$$

21) Draw the dc load line for the circuit in fig (21) on the diode forward characteristic given in fig(*)



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhar@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Sol:



Applying KVL to the loop,

$$V - I_F R - V_F = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V = I_F R + V_F \quad (*)$$

Put $I_F = 0$ in eqn(*)

$$V = V_F$$

$$\Rightarrow V_F = V = 5V$$

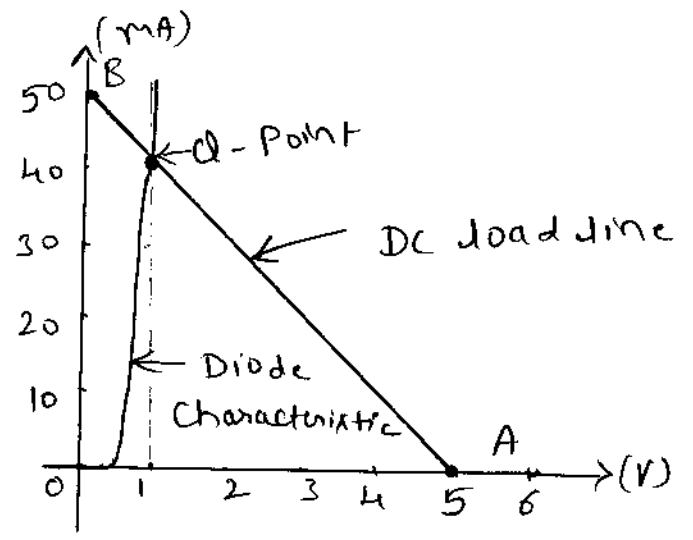
Put $V_F = 0$ in eqn(*)

$$V = I_F R$$

$$\Rightarrow I_F = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{5}{100} = 50 \text{ mA}$$

Mark Point A at $V_F = 5V$ & $I_F = 0$ & Mark Point B at $V_F = 0$ & $I_F = 50 \text{ mA}$.

Join AB to get the dc load line [fig(**)]



Fig(**)

22) Using the device characteristics in fig (22), determine the required load resistance for the circuit in fig(***)

to give $I_F = 30\text{mA}$.

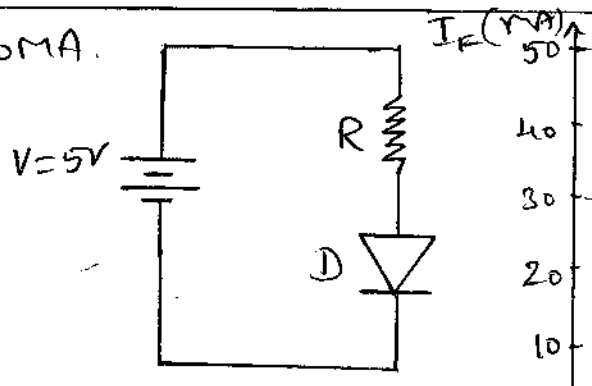
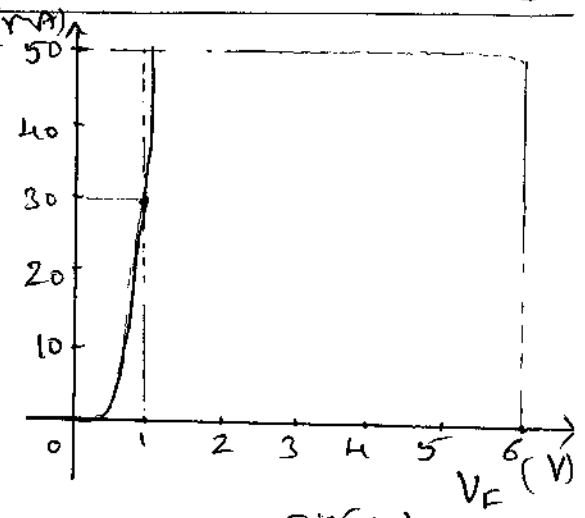
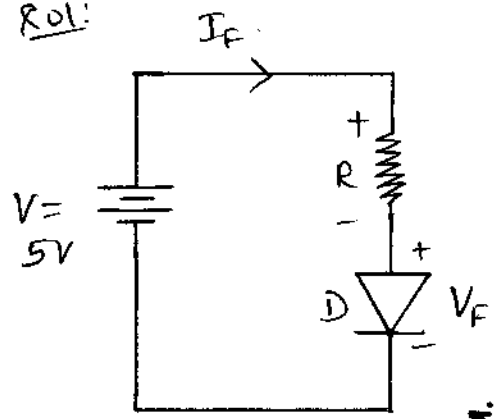


Fig (***)



Fig(22)

sol:



Applying KVL to the loop,

$$V - I_F R - V_F = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V = I_F R + V_F$$

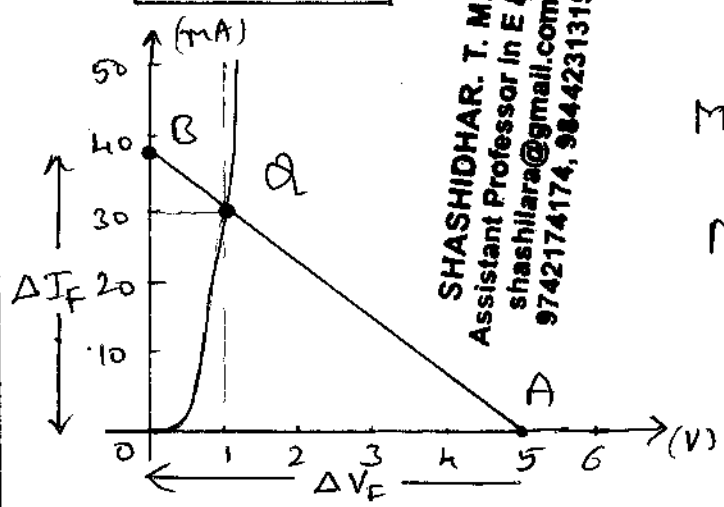
Put $I_F = 0$,

$$V_F = V = 5\text{V}$$

Mark Point A at $V_F = 5\text{V}$ & $I_F = 0$

Now Plot Point Q at $I_F = 30\text{mA}$

Draw the dc load line from Point A through Q.

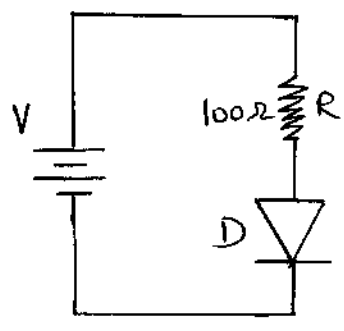


SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

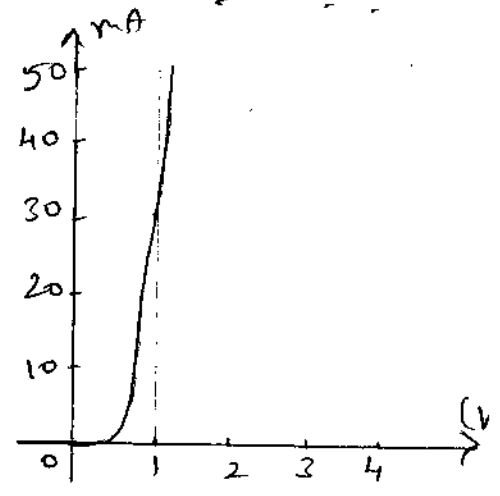
From the load line

$$R = \frac{\Delta V_F}{\Delta I_F} = \frac{5}{37.5 \times 10^{-3}} = 13 \Omega$$

23) Determine a new supply voltage for the circuit in fig(1) to give a 50mA diode forward current when $R = 100\Omega$. Also draw the dc load line on the characteristic given in fig(2)

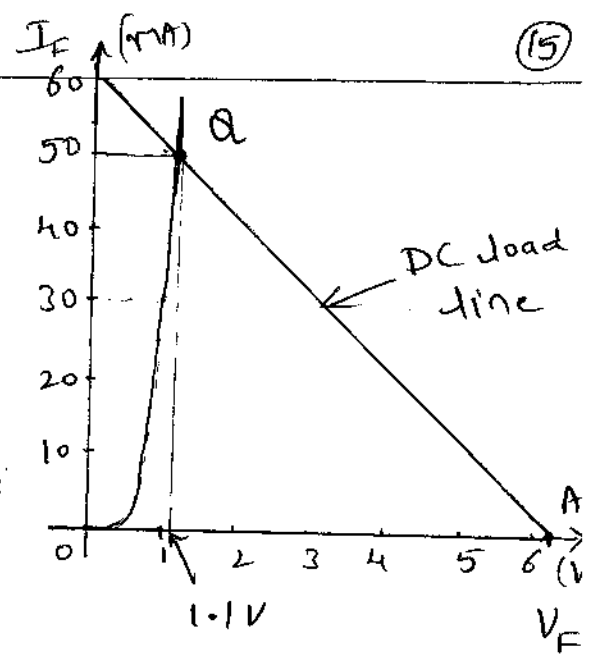


fig(1)



Fig(2)

Sol:



Plot Point Q on the diode characteristic at $I_F = 50 \text{ mA}$

Project Point Q on V_F axis,

$\therefore V_F = 1.1 \text{ V}$

We know that

$$R = \frac{\Delta V_F}{\Delta I_F}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$\Rightarrow \Delta V_F = \Delta I_F \times R = 50 \times 10^{-3} \times 100 = \underline{\underline{5 \text{ V}}}$

New supply voltage,

$V = V_F + \Delta V_F = 1.1 + 5 = \underline{\underline{6.1 \text{ V}}}$

Mark point A at $I_F = 0$ & $V_F = 6.1 \text{ V}$

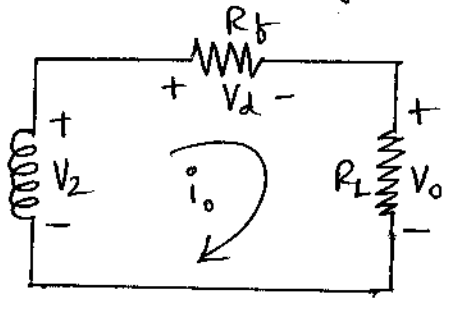
Draw dc load line through A & Q.

24)

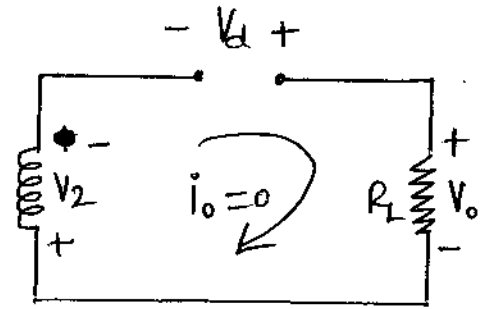
S.T in a HWR, the dc voltage across the diode is equal but opposite in polarity of the dc voltage across R_L .

Sol:

The equivalent circuit when the diode is conducting & not conducting is shown below,



① Equivalent circuit when diode is conducting



② Equivalent circuit when diode is not conducting

Instantaneous diode voltage (fig 1),

$V_d = i_o R_f$

$\Rightarrow V_d = I_m R_f \sin \omega t, 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi$ ($\because i_o = I_m \sin \omega t$)

Applying KVL to the loop of fig 2.

$$-V_2 + V_d - i_o R_L = 0, \quad \pi \leq \omega t \leq 2\pi$$

\Rightarrow

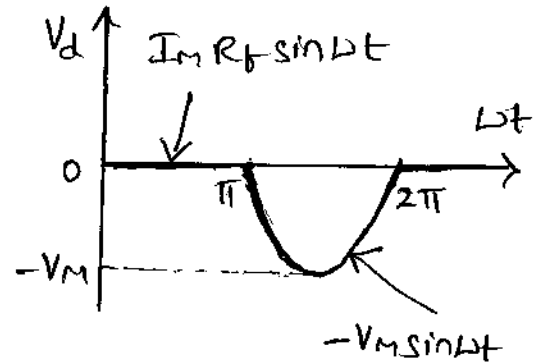
$$V_d = V_2 = V_M \sin \omega t, \quad \pi \leq \omega t \leq 2\pi$$

— (2)

From (1) & (2), we can write

$$V_d = \begin{cases} I_m R_f \sin \omega t & ; 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \\ V_M \sin \omega t & ; \pi \leq \omega t \leq 2\pi \end{cases}$$

The voltage across a diode ' V_d ' is shown below (Assuming $R_f = 0$).



Average dc voltage across diode,

$$V_{dc}' = \frac{\text{Area under one cycle of } V_d}{\text{Period of } V_d}$$

$$= \frac{\int_0^{2\pi} V_d d\omega t}{2\pi}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[\int_0^{\pi} 0 d\omega t + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} V_M \sin \omega t d\omega t \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[V_M (-\cos \omega t) \Big|_{\pi}^{2\pi} \right]$$

$$= \frac{V_M}{2\pi} (-\cos 2\pi + \cos \pi)$$

$$V_{dc}' = -\frac{V_M}{\pi} \quad (\because \cos \pi = -1, \cos 2\pi = 1)$$

$$\boxed{V_{dc}' = -V_{dc}} \quad \text{--- (3)} \quad \left(\because V_{dc} = \frac{V_M}{\pi} \right) \text{ (from (1), Page (31))}$$

Eqn (3), shows, that the dc voltage across the diode is equal but opposite in polarity of the dc voltage across R_L .

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

25) Show that the power delivered to the load is maximum in a half-wave rectifier when the load resistance is equal to the forward resistance of the diode. Also find the maximum dc output power.

Sol: W.K.T $P_{dc} = \frac{V_{dc}^2}{R_L}$

$$\Rightarrow P_{dc} = \frac{1}{R_L} \left[\frac{(V_m/\pi) R_L}{R_f + R_L} \right]^2 \quad \left(\because V_{dc} = \frac{V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L} \right)$$

$$P_{dc} = \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right)^2 \frac{R_L}{(R_f + R_L)^2} \quad \text{--- (*)}$$

DC output power is maximum, when $\frac{dP_{dc}}{dR_L} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right)^2 \left\{ \frac{(R_f + R_L)^2 \cdot 1 - R_L \cdot 2(R_f + R_L)}{(R_f + R_L)^4} \right\} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (R_f + R_L)^2 - 2R_L(R_f + R_L) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (R_f + R_L)(R_f + R_L - 2R_L) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (R_f + R_L)(R_f - R_L) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow R_f - R_L = 0 \quad \left(\because R_f + R_L \neq 0 \text{ @ } R_f \neq -R_L \right)$$

$$\boxed{R_L = R_f} \quad \text{// Here proof}$$

Now maximum output dc power is,

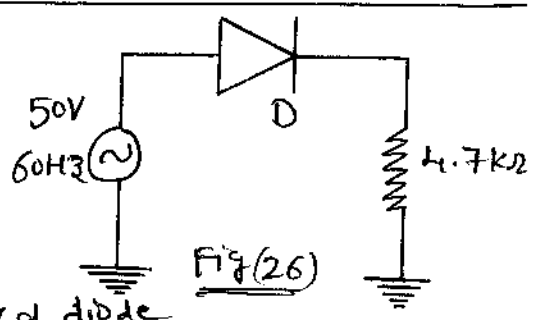
$$P_{d(\max)} = \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right)^2 \frac{R_L}{(R_f + R_L)^2} \Big|_{R_L = R_f}$$

$$= \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right)^2 \frac{R_L}{(R_L + R_L)^2}$$

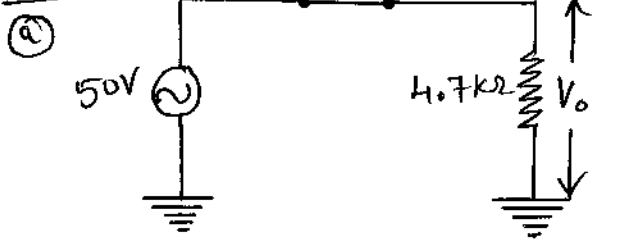
$$\boxed{P_{d(\max)} = \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right)^2 \frac{1}{4R_L} \text{ @ } \left(\frac{V_m}{\pi} \right)^2 \frac{1}{4R_f}}$$

SHASHIDHAR T. M.
Assistant Professor in E.E.C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742176176, 9844331316

26) What is the peak output voltage in the fig (26) if the diode is ideal? What is the average value? What is the dc value? Sketch the output waveform.

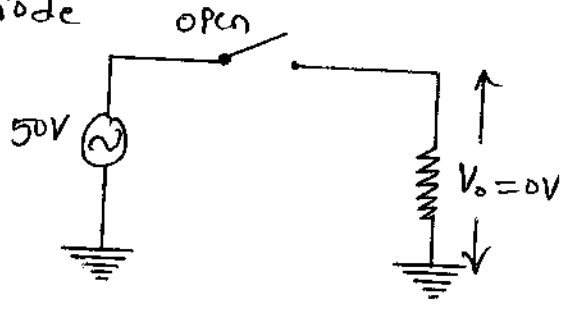


Sol:



Circuit in Positive half cycle

Repeat part (a) if the ideal diode is replaced by a Si diode



Circuit in negative half cycle

Given $V_{in} = 50V$ (RMS)

$\therefore V_m = \sqrt{2} V_{in} = \sqrt{2} \times 50 = 70.710V \rightarrow$ Peak output Voltage
(Peak input Voltage)

W.K.T Average value @ DC Value

$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{\pi} = \frac{70.710}{\pi} = 22.56V \rightarrow$ Average Value (DC Value)

The diode conducts only for positive half cycle of input signal & the output waveform is shown in fig (*)

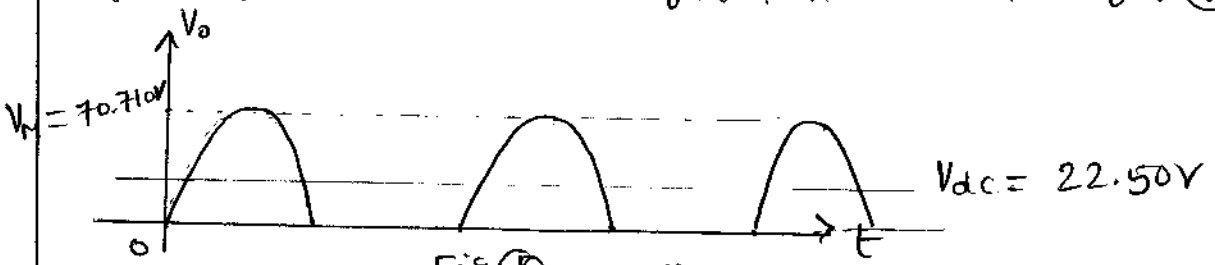
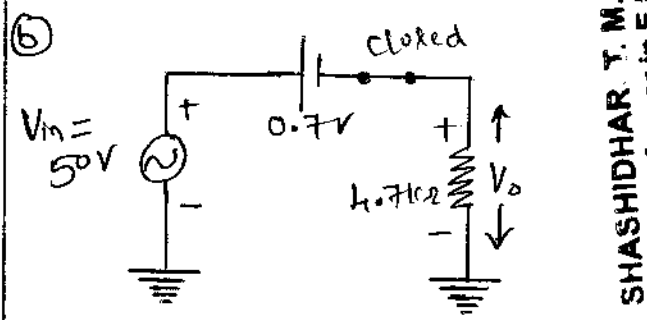
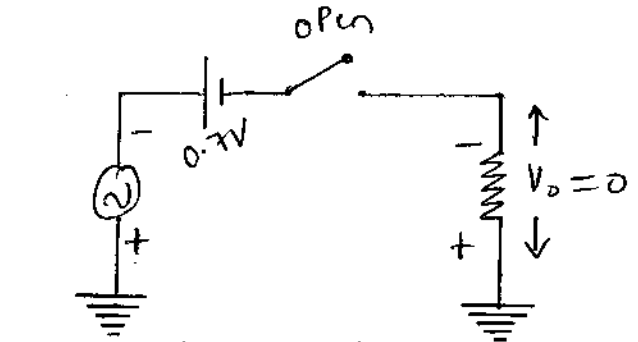


Fig (*)



Circuit in Positive half cycle



Circuit in negative half cycle

SHASHIDHAR T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Applying KVL to the loop

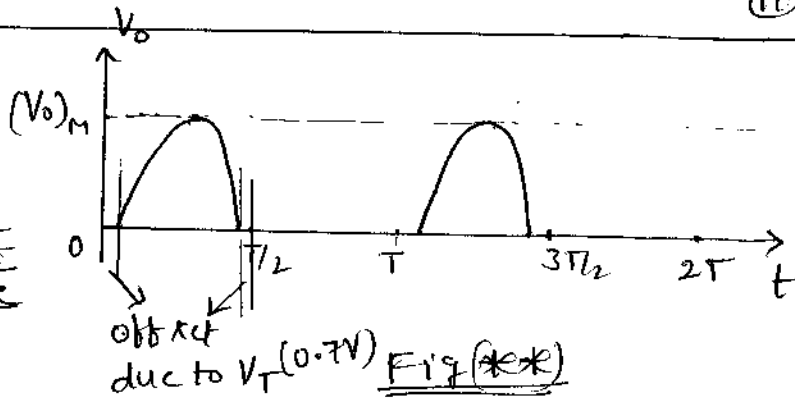
$V_{in} - 0.7 - V_o = 0$

$\Rightarrow V_o = V_m - 0.7$

$$\Rightarrow (V_o)_m = (V_{in})_m - 0.7$$

$$= \sqrt{2} \times 50 - 0.7$$

$$= \underline{\underline{70.010V}} \rightarrow \text{Peak Output Voltage}$$

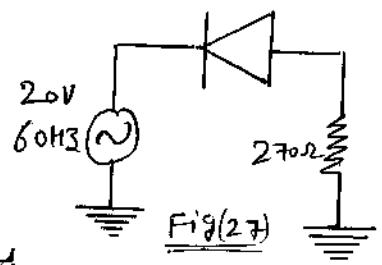


W.k.t Average @ DC Value is,

$$V_{dc} = \frac{(V_o)_m}{\pi} = \frac{70.010}{\pi} = \underline{\underline{22.28V}} \rightarrow \text{Average Value @ DC Value}$$

The diode conducts only when the input voltage is at least 0.7V. For levels of V_m less than 0.7V, the diode is still in an open-circuit state. The output waveform is shown in fig (**)

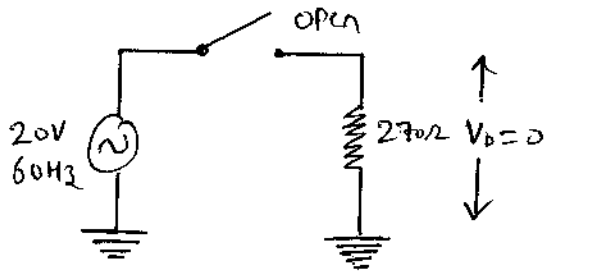
- 27) (a) What is the peak output voltage in fig (27) if the diode is ideal? What is the average @ dc value? Sketch the output waveform



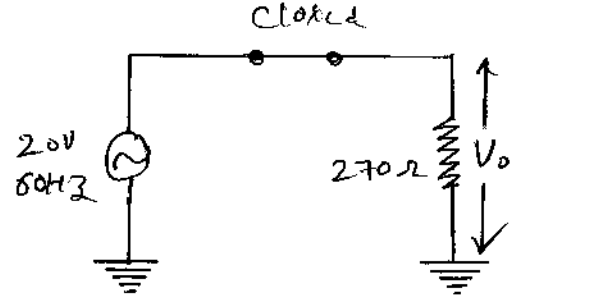
- (b) Repeat part (a) if the ideal diode is replaced by second approximation of the diode.

Sol:

Let us assume the given diode as Si diode (Cut-in voltage = 0.7V)



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



Circuit in positive half cycle

Circuit in negative half cycle

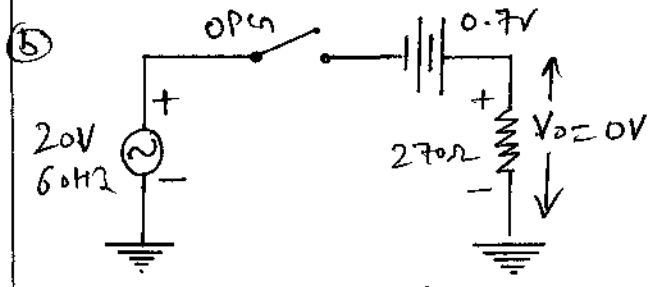
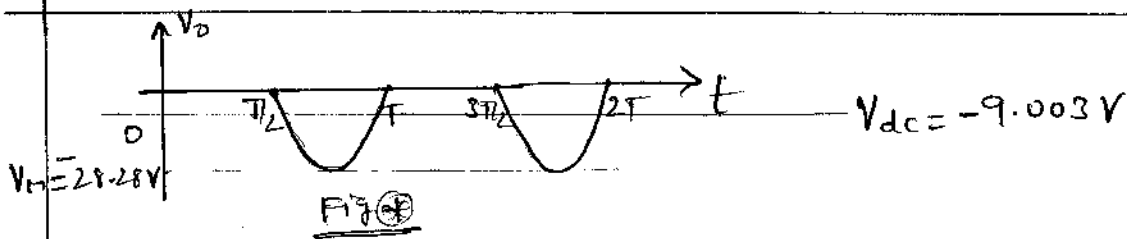
Given $V_m = 20V$ (RMS)

$$\therefore V_M = \sqrt{2} V_m = \sqrt{2} \times 20 = \underline{\underline{28.28V}} \rightarrow \text{Peak output voltage (Peak input voltage)}$$

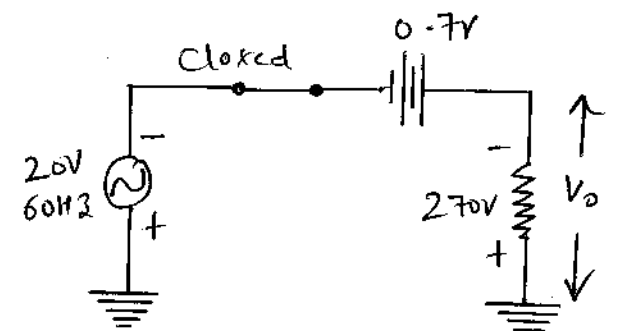
W.k.t Average Value @ DC Value,

$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_M}{\pi} = \frac{28.28}{\pi} = \underline{\underline{9.003V}} \rightarrow \text{Average Value @ DC Value}$$

The diode conducts only for negative half cycle of input signal & the output waveform is shown in fig (*)



Circuit in Positive half cycle



Circuit in negative half cycle

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Applying KVL to the loop,

$$-V_m + 0.7 + V_o = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_o = V_m - 0.7$$

$$\Rightarrow (V_o)_m = (V_m)_m - 0.7$$

$$= \sqrt{2} \times 20 - 0.7$$

$$(V_o)_m = 27.58V$$

Peak Output Voltage

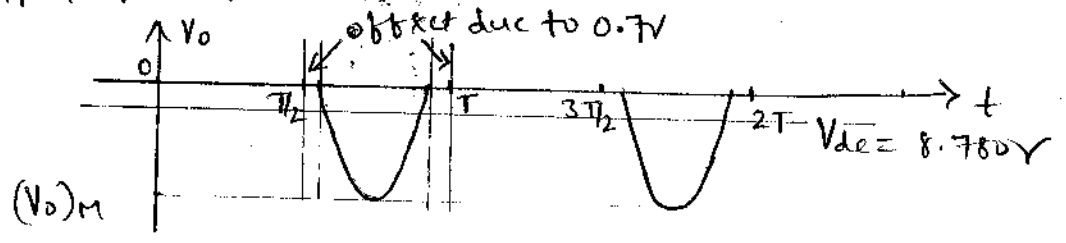
Average Value @ DC Value

$$V_{dc} = \frac{(V_o)_m}{\pi} = \frac{27.58}{\pi} = 8.780V$$

Average Value
@ DC Value

Peak load current (maximum) $I_o = \frac{V_m - 0.7}{R_L} \Rightarrow I_m = \frac{(V_m)_m - 0.7}{R_L}$
--

Diode doesnot conduct during positive half cycle of input signal & during negative half cycle, the diode conducts only when the input voltage is $> 0.7V$. The wave form is shown in fig (**)



A diode whose internal resistance is 20Ω , is used to supply power to a $1k\Omega$ load from a $110V$ (rms) source of supply. Calculate
 (a) Peak load Voltage
 (b) Peak load current
 (c) DC load Voltage
 (d) DC load current
 (e) Peak load current
 (f) DC diode V_{avg}

(Average value of load power) (21)
 (h) Total input power to the circuit (i) Power delivered to the load (j) PIV (k) % Regulation

Sol: Given $R_f = 20\Omega$, $R_L = 1000\Omega$, $V_1 = 110V$ (rms)

(a) Peak load voltage (V_M)

D.L.Ct $V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1 = V_1 = 110V$ (Assume $N_1 = N_2$)

$V_M = \sqrt{2} V_2 = \sqrt{2} \times 110 = \underline{\underline{155.56V}}$

(b) Peak load current (I_M)

D.L.Ct $I_M = \frac{V_M}{R_f + R_L}$
 $= \frac{155.56}{20 + 1000}$

$I_M = \underline{\underline{152.5mA}}$

(c) DC load voltage (V_{dc})

$V_{dc} = \frac{V_M/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L}$
 $= \frac{155.56/\pi}{1 + 20/1000}$

$V_{dc} = \underline{\underline{48.54V}}$

(d) DC load current (I_{dc})

$I_{dc} = \frac{I_M}{\pi}$
 $= \frac{152.5 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi}$

$I_{dc} = \underline{\underline{48.54mA}}$

(e) AC load voltage (RMS load voltage) (V_{rms})

$V_{rms} = \frac{V_M/2}{1 + R_f/R_L}$
 $= \frac{155.56/2}{1 + 20/1000}$
 $= \underline{\underline{76.25V}}$

(f) RMS load current (AC load current) (I_{rms})

$I_{rms} = I_M/2$
 $= 76.25mA$

(g) DC diode voltage (V_{dc}')

$V_{dc}' = -V_{dc}$
 $V_{dc}' = \underline{\underline{-48.54V}}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

(h) Total input power to the circuit (P_{in})

$P_{in} = I_{rms}^2 (R_f + R_L)$
 $P_{in} = \underline{\underline{5.93W}}$

(i) Power delivered to load (P_{dc})

$P_{dc} = \frac{V_{dc}^2}{R_L} @ I_{dc}^2 R_L$
 $= \frac{(48.54)^2}{1000}$
 $P_{dc} = \underline{\underline{2.356W}}$

(j) PIV (PIV)

$PIV = V_M$
 $PIV = \underline{\underline{155.56V}}$

Ⓚ % Regulation

% Regulation = $\frac{V_r}{V_L} \times 100 = \frac{20}{1000} \times 100 = \underline{\underline{2}}$

29) The input to a half-wave rectifier is given through a 10:1 transformer from a supply given by $230 \sin 314 t$ V. If $R_f = 50 \Omega$ & $R_L = 500 \Omega$, determine

- Ⓐ DC load voltage
- Ⓑ maximum load voltage
- Ⓒ Peak load current
- Ⓓ RMS load voltage
- Ⓔ PIV across the diode
- Ⓕ Rectification efficiency
- Ⓖ DC power delivered to the load
- Ⓗ Frequency of the input & output voltage

Sol: Given, $N_1 : N_2 = 10 : 1$, $V_1 = 230 \sin 314 t$ V,

$R_f = 50 \Omega$, $R_L = 500 \Omega$, $V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1 = \frac{1}{10} 230 \sin 314 t$ V

$V_2 = 23 \sin 314 t$ V

Comparing with $V_2 = V_m \sin \omega t$ V

$\therefore V_m = 23$ V, $\omega = 314$

$2\pi f = 314$

$f = \frac{314}{2\pi} = 50$ Hz

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Ⓐ V_{dc}

$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m / \pi}{1 + R_f / R_L}$
 $= \frac{23 / \pi}{1 + 50 / 500}$

V_{dc} = 6.66 V

Ⓑ V_m

V_m = 23 V

Ⓒ I_m

$I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L}$
 $= \frac{23}{50 + 500}$

I_m = 0.0418 A

Ⓓ V_{rms}

$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m / 2}{1 + R_f / R_L}$
 $= \frac{23 / 2}{1 + 50 / 500}$

V_{rms} = 10.45 V

Ⓔ PIV

PIV = V_m
PIV = 23 V

Ⓕ η %

$\eta \% = \frac{40.6}{1 + R_f / R_L}$
 $= \frac{40.6}{1 + 50 / 500}$

$\eta = 36.91\%$

Ⓖ P_{dc}

$P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L$ or V_{dc}^2 / R_L
 $= 6.66^2 / 500 = 88.7$ mW

Ⓗ f_{in} & f_{out}

$\omega_{in} \& \omega_{out} = f_{in} = f = 50$ Hz

30) A half wave rectifier is used to supply 50V d.c to a resistive load of 800Ω. The diode has a resistance of 25Ω. Calculate a.c voltage required.

sol: Given: $V_{dc} = 50V$, $R_L = 800\Omega$, $R_f = 25\Omega$

L.K.T $V_{dc} = \frac{V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M. Assistant Professor in E & C shashilara@gmail.com 9742174174, 9844231315

$\Rightarrow V_m = V_{dc} \times \pi \times (1 + R_f/R_L) = 161.988V$

A.C Voltage of maximum value 161.988V is required

31) A half wave rectifier circuit is supplied from a 230V, 50Hz supply with a 3:1 transformer. The diode forward resistance is 50Ω, load resistance is 1kΩ & transformer secondary ~~resistance~~ resistance is 10Ω. Calculate peak load current & AC power to the circuit.

sol: Given, $V_1 = 230V$, $N_1 : N_2 = 3 : 1$, $R_f = 50\Omega$, $R_L = 1000\Omega$, $R_s = 10\Omega$. $I_m = ?$. $P_{in} = ?$

I_m $I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_s + R_f + R_L}$
 $= \frac{108.42}{10 + 50 + 1000}$
 $= 102.28 \text{ mA}$

$V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1$
 $= \frac{1}{3} 230$

$V_2 = 76.66V$

$\therefore V_m = \sqrt{2} \times V_2 = \sqrt{2} \times 76.66$

$V_m = 108.42V$

P_{in} $P_{in} = I_{rms}^2 (R_s + R_f + R_L)$
 $= (51.14 \times 10^{-3})^2 [10 + 50 + 1000]$

$I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{2}$
 $= \frac{102.28 \times 10^{-3}}{2}$

$P_{in} = 2.772W$

$= 51.14 \text{ mA}$

32) The applied input a.c power to a half-wave rectifier is 100 Watts. The d.c output power obtained is 40 Watts.
 (i) What is the rectification efficiency?
 (ii) What happens to remaining 60 Watts?

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Sol:
 (i) $\eta = \frac{\text{DC output power}}{\text{AC input power}} = \frac{40}{100} = 40\%$

(ii) 40% efficiency of rectification does not mean that 60% of power is lost in the rectifier circuit. In fact, a crystal diode consumes little power due to its small internal resistance. The 100W a.c power is contained as 50Watts in positive half cycle and 50Watts in negative half-cycle. The 50W in the negative half-cycle are not supplied at all. Only 50Watts in the positive half-cycle are converted into 40Watts.

$\therefore \text{Power efficiency} = \frac{40}{50} \times 100 = 80\%$

\therefore Efficiency of rectification is 40% & not 80% (Which is Power efficiency)

33) In a FWR, the forward resistance of the diode is 10 Ω , the load resistance is 2k Ω . The secondary voltage with reference to center tap is 220V. Calculate

- (a) Peak load voltage (b) Peak load current (c) RMS load voltage (d) RMS load current (e) DC load voltage (f) DC load current (g) DC current in each diode (h) DC output power (i) Percentage regulation (j) PIV across each diode (k) RMS current through each diode

Sol: Given $R_f = 10\Omega$, $R_L = 2k\Omega$, $V_2 = 220V(\text{rms})$

(a) Peak load voltage (V_M)

$V_M = \sqrt{2} V_2 = \sqrt{2} \times 220 = 311.12V$

$$b) \underline{I_m} \quad I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L}$$

$$I_m = \frac{311.12}{10 + 2000}$$

$$I_m = 0.154 \text{ A}$$

$$\textcircled{a} \quad \underline{154.78 \text{ mA}}$$

$$c) \underline{V_{rms}}$$

$$V_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= \frac{154.78 \times 10^{-3}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\sqrt{2}$$

$$= \underline{109.45 \text{ mA}}$$

$$e) \underline{V_{rms}} \quad V_{rms}$$

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= \frac{311.12}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\sqrt{2}$$

$$V_{rms} = \underline{219.99 \text{ V}}$$

$$c) \underline{V_{dc}} = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L}$$

$$= \frac{2 \times 311.12/\pi}{1 + 10/2000}$$

$$1 + 10/2000$$

$$= \underline{197.07 \text{ V}}$$

$$f) \underline{I_{dc}} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{2 \times 154.78 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi}$$

$$\pi$$

$$= \underline{98.53 \text{ mA}}$$

g) Since each diode acts as HWR, the dc current through each diode is,

$$I_{dc}(\text{diode}) = \frac{I_m}{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{154.78 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi}$$

$$= \underline{49.26 \text{ mA}}$$

SHASHIDHAR T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$h) P_{dc} = I_{dc}^2 R_L$$

$$\textcircled{a} \quad = \frac{V_{dc}^2}{R_L}$$

$$= \frac{(197.07)^2}{2000}$$

$$= \underline{19.41 \text{ W}}$$

$$i) \% \text{ Regulation} = \frac{R_f}{R_L} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{10}{2000} \times 100$$

$$= \underline{0.5\%}$$

j)

$$PIV = 2V_m$$

$$= 2 \times 311.12$$

$$= \underline{622.24 \text{ V}}$$

k) Since each diode acts as HWR, the rms current through each diode is,

$$I_{rms}(\text{diode}) = \frac{I_m}{2} = \frac{154.78 \times 10^{-3}}{2} = \underline{77.39 \text{ mA}}$$

34) The center-tap FWR has a load of $2 \text{ k}\Omega$, the forward resistance of the diode is 10Ω . The ac voltage applied to the diodes is $200 \text{ V}-0-200 \text{ V}$. Calculate

a) Average load current b) Average load voltage

- © ripple ~~factor~~ Efficiency © ripple Voltage
- ⊗ if a capacitor of 25μF is connected across the load

Sol: Given, $R_L = 2k\Omega$, $R_f = 10\Omega$, $V_2 = 200V$
 $C = 25\mu F$

$$\Rightarrow V_m = \sqrt{2} V_2 = \sqrt{2} \times 200$$

$$V_m = 282.84V$$

Ⓐ $I_{dc} = \frac{2 I_m}{\pi}$
 $= \frac{2 \times 140.71 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi}$
 $= 89.57mA$

Ⓑ $V_{dc} = I_{dc} R_L$
 $= 89.57 \times 10^{-3} \times 2000$
 $= 179.15V$

$I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L}$
 $= \frac{282.84}{10 + 2000}$
 $= 140.71mA$

© W.Let
 $\gamma = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}}$

SHASHIBHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashihara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$\Rightarrow V_{ac} = \gamma V_{dc}$
 $= 0.483 \times 179.15$ ($\because \gamma = 0.483$ for FWR)
 $V_{ac} = 86.53V$

Ⓐ $\eta = \frac{86.2\%}{1 + R_f/R_L}$
 $= \frac{81.2\%}{1 + 10/2000}$
 $= 80.79\%$

Ⓢ If capacitor is connected across the load, then

Ripple factor $\gamma = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} f R_L C} = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} \times 50 \times 2000 \times 25 \times 10^{-6}} = 0.0577$

Let $f = 50Hz$

New ripple Voltage,

$V_{ac} = \gamma V_{dc}$ [W.Let FWR,
 $= \gamma (V_m - \frac{I_{dc}}{4fc})$ $V_m = V_m - \frac{I_{dc}}{4fc}$ @ $\frac{V_m}{1 + \frac{1}{4fCR_L}}$]
 $= 0.0577 \left(282.84 - \frac{89.57 \times 10^{-3}}{4 \times 50 \times 25 \times 10^{-6}} \right)$
 $= 15.28V$

35) What is AC input power from the transformer secondary used in FWR to deliver 100W of DC power to the load?

Sol: W.k.t $\eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}} \times 100$

$$\Rightarrow P_{ac} = \frac{P_{dc}}{\eta} \times 100$$

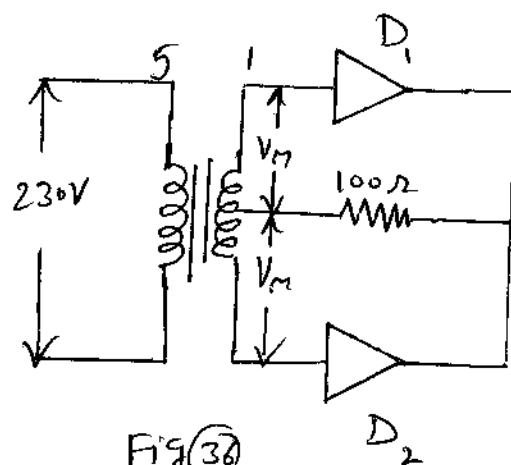
$$= \frac{100}{81.2} \times 100 \quad (\because \eta = 81.2\% \text{ for FWR})$$

$$\underline{P_{ac} = 123.15W}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

36) In the Centre-tap circuit shown in fig (36), Find

- DC output voltage
- PIV
- Rectification efficiency
- Frequency of output waveform



Sol: Given $N_1 : N_2 = 5 : 1$, $V_1 = 230V$, $R_L = 100\Omega$

$$\text{W.k.t } V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1 = \frac{1}{5} \times 230 = 46V$$

$$\text{Maximum voltage across secondary} = \sqrt{2} V_2 = \sqrt{2} \times 46 = \underline{65.05V}$$

\therefore Maximum voltage across half secondary winding is,

$$V_m = \frac{65.05}{2} = \underline{32.52V}$$

$$(i) V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 32.52}{\pi} = \underline{20.70V} \quad (\because R_b = 0)$$

$$(ii) PIV = 2V_m = 2 \times 32.52 = \underline{65.05V}$$

$$(iii) \eta = \frac{81.2\%}{1 + R_f/R_L} = \underline{81.2\%} \quad (\because R_f = 0)$$

$$(iv) f_{out} = 2f_m = 2 \times 50 = \underline{100Hz} \quad (L_f f_m = 50Hz)$$

37 If ac supply voltage is $220 \sin 314t$ V (for FLR) find maximum voltage across secondary winding, for 10:1 turn ratio

Sol: Given

$N_1 : N_2 = 10 : 1, V_1 = 220 \sin 314t$ V

SHASHIDHAR T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Let $V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1 = \frac{1}{10} 220 \sin 314t$

$V_2 = 22 \sin 314t$ ($V_2 = V_m \sin \omega t$)

\Rightarrow Maximum voltage across secondary = 22V

\therefore Maximum voltage across secondary winding = $\frac{22}{2} = \underline{\underline{11V}}$

38 A full wave bridge rectifier uses transformer secondary voltage as $100 \sin \omega t$ V. The forward resistance of each diode is 25Ω & load resistance is 950Ω . Calculate

- (i) DC output voltage (ii) DC value of current through R_L
- (iii) PIV across non-conducting diode. (iv) Percentage regulation (v) Peak diode current (Peak load current)
- (vi) DC current through each diode (vii) RMS current through each diode

Sol: Given, $V_2 = 100 \sin \omega t$ V, $R_f = 25 \Omega, R_L = 950 \Omega$
 $\Rightarrow V_m = 100$

(i) $V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + 2(R_f/R_L)}$
 $= \frac{2 \times 100/\pi}{1 + 2 \times 25/950}$
 $= \underline{\underline{60.48V}}$

(ii) $I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi}$
 $= \frac{2 \times 100 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi}$
 $= \underline{\underline{63.66mA}}$

(v) $I_m = \frac{V_m}{2R_f + R_L}$
 $= \frac{100}{2 \times 25 + 950}$
 $= \underline{\underline{100mA}}$

(iii) $PIV = V_m$
 $= \underline{\underline{100V}}$

(iv) % Regulation = $\frac{2R_f}{R_L} \times 100$
 $= \underline{\underline{5.26\%}}$

(vii) $I_{dc}(\text{diode}) = \frac{I_m/\pi}{2}$
 $= \underline{\underline{31.83mA}}$

$$(VII) I_{max}(diode) = \frac{I_m}{2} = \frac{100mA}{2} = \underline{\underline{50mA}}$$

(Each diode acts as HWR)

- 39) A FW bridge rectifier uses four diodes & a transformer of ratio of 230V:110V. The forward resistance of each diode is 25Ω & load resistance is 500Ω , find Maximum value of current in the circuit

Sol:

Peak Value of Secondary V_2 ,

$$V_m = \sqrt{2} \times 110 = \underline{\underline{155.58V}}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Maximum value of current in the circuit,

$$I_m = \frac{V_m}{2R_f + R_L} = \frac{155.58}{2 \times 25 + 500} = \underline{\underline{282.8mA}}$$

- 40) A bridge rectifier consisting of 4 identical diodes produces a direct current of 124.49mA across a $2k\Omega$ resistive load. If the rms value of primary input supply is 220V, calculate the primary to secondary ratio of the transformer if each diode has a forward resistance of 10Ω .

Sol:

Given $I_{dc} = 124.49mA$, $R_L = 2k\Omega$, $V_1 = 220V$, $R_f = 10\Omega$

$$\text{We have, } I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_m = \frac{\pi I_{dc}}{2} = \frac{\pi \times 124.49 \times 10^{-3}}{2} = \underline{\underline{0.195A}}$$

$$\therefore \text{Let } V_m = I_m (2R_f + R_L) = 0.195 (2 \times 10 + 2000) = \underline{\underline{393.9V}}$$

Also we have, $V_m = \sqrt{2} V_2$

$$\Rightarrow V_2 = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{393.9}{\sqrt{2}} = \underline{\underline{278.5V}}$$

$$\text{Now, } V_2/V_1 = N_2/N_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{278.5}{220} = 1.26$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{N_1:N_2 = 1:1.26}$$

Q11) A bridge rectifier is driving a load resistance of 100Ω . It is driven by a source voltage of $230V, 50Hz$. Neglecting diode resistance, Calculate

- (a) frequency of output waveform. (b) Average output V_{dc}

Sol: Given $V_2 = 230V, f = 50Hz, R_L = 100\Omega$.

$$V_m = \sqrt{2} V_2 = 141.42V$$

(a) $f_{out} = 2f = 100Hz$

(b)
$$V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + 2R_D/R_L} = \frac{2 \times 141.42/\pi}{1 + 2(0)/100} = \underline{90.03V}$$

Q12) The bridge rectifier is shown in fig (L2) (use Si diodes). Find

- (i) DC o/p V_{dc} (ii) DC o/p current
(iii) Sketch the o/p w/f

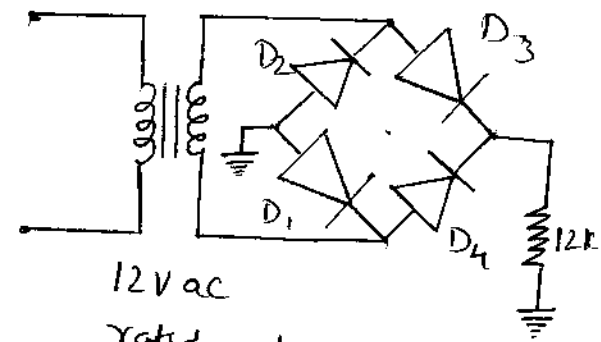
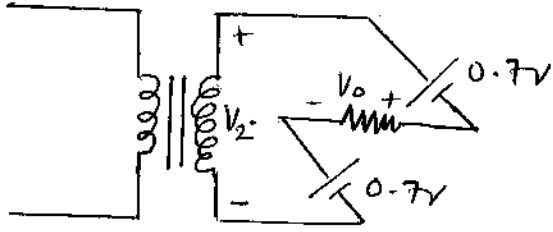


fig (L2)

Sol:



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Given, $R_L = 12k\Omega$
 $V_2 = 12V$

$$V_m = \sqrt{2} V_2 = \underline{16.97V}$$

KVL

$$V_2 - 0.7 - V_0 - 0.7 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_0 = V_2 - 1.4$$

$$\Rightarrow (V_0)_m = (V_2)_m - 1.4$$

$$= 16.97 - 1.4$$

$$(V_0)_m = \underline{15.57V} \rightarrow \text{Peak output Voltage}$$

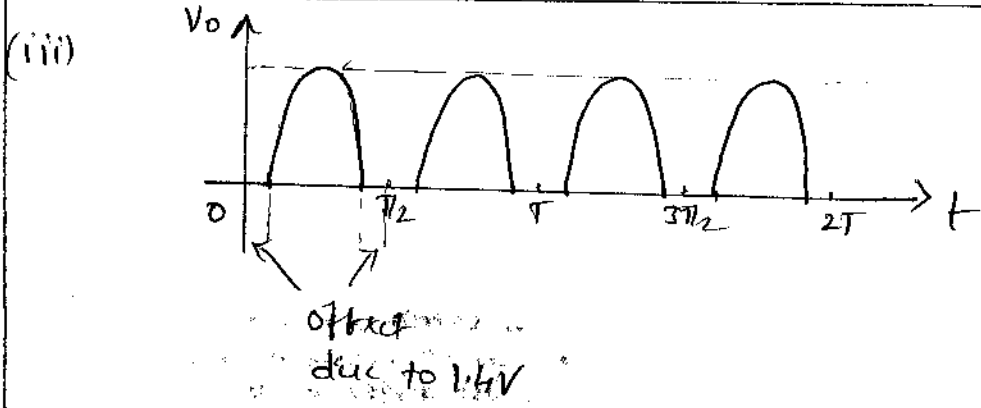
(i) DC @ Average o/p V_{dc}

$$V_{dc} = \frac{2(V_0)_m}{\pi} = \frac{2 \times 15.57}{\pi}$$

$$V_{dc} = \underline{9.91V}$$

(ii) Average @ DC o/p current

$$I_{dc} = \frac{V_{dc}}{R_L} = \underline{825.8 \mu A}$$



Q3) A HWR with capacitor filter is supplying a resistive load of 1000Ω . The value of filter capacitor is $200 \mu F$. If the supply voltage to the rectifier is $200 V$ at $50 Hz$. Calculate
 (a) Ripple factor (b) DC output voltage
 (c) DC load current (d) PIV across the diode (e) RMS ripple output voltage

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Given: $R_L = 1000 \Omega$, $C = 200 \mu F$, $V_2 = 220 V$
 $f = 50 Hz$ $V_m = 220\sqrt{2} = 311.13 V$

(a)
$$r = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}fR_LC}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3} \times 50 \times 1000 \times 200 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$= 0.0288 \text{ (b) } \underline{\underline{2.88\%}}$$

(b)
$$V_{dc} = V_m - \frac{I_{dc}}{2fc}$$

(c)
$$V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{1 + \frac{1}{2fcR_L}}$$

$$= \frac{311.13}{1 + \frac{1}{2 \times 50 \times 200 \times 10^{-6} \times 1000}}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{296.31 V}}$$

(c)
$$I_{dc} = \frac{V_{dc}}{R_L}$$

$$= \frac{296.31}{1000}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{0.296 A}}$$

(d)
$$PIV = V_m$$

$$= \underline{\underline{311.13 V}}$$

(e)
$$V_{ac} = r V_{dc} \left(\because r = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{ac} = 0.0288 \times 296.31$$

$$V_{ac} = \underline{\underline{8.533 V}}$$

14) In a FWR with a capacitor filter, the load current from the circuit operating from 230V, 50Hz supply is 10mA. Estimate the value of capacitor required to keep the ripple factor less than 1%. Also find minimum value of capacitance

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Sol: Given, $V_2 = 230V$, $f = 50Hz$, $I_{dc} = 10mA$, $C = ?$

$$V_m = \sqrt{2} V_2$$

$$= \sqrt{2} 230$$

$$= 325.269V$$

$$\gamma < 0.01 @ 1\%$$

DKT $\gamma = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} f R_L C} < 0.01$

DKT $R_L = \frac{V_{dc}}{I_{dc}}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{C} < 0.01 \times 4\sqrt{3} \times 50 \times 32.52 \times 10^3$$

$$R_L = \frac{V_m}{I_{dc}} \quad (\because V_{dc} \approx V_m)$$

$$\Rightarrow C > \frac{1}{0.01 \times 4\sqrt{3} \times 50 \times 32.52 \times 10^3}$$

$$= \frac{325.269}{10 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$C > \underline{\underline{8.87\mu F}}$$

$$= 32.5269k\Omega$$

$C_{min} = 8.87\mu F$ \rightarrow Minimum Value

15) A FL bridge rectifier supplies a load of 400 Ω in parallel with a capacitor of 500 μF . If the ac supply voltage is 230 Sin 314t (V), find @ RPPLE factor.

Ⓐ DC load current.

Sol: Given $R_L = 400\Omega$, $C = 500\mu F$, $V_2 = V_1 = 230 \text{ Sin } 314t$
 $\Rightarrow V_m = 230V$

$$\textcircled{a} \gamma = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} f R_L C} = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} 50 400 500 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$\omega = 314$$

$$f = \frac{314}{2\pi} = \underline{\underline{50Hz}}$$

$$\gamma = 0.0144 @ 1.44\%$$

$$\textcircled{b} V_{dc} = \frac{V_m}{1 + \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} f R_L C}} = \frac{230}{1 + \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3} 50 400 500 \times 10^{-6}}} \approx 224.39V$$

$$\therefore I_{dc} = \frac{V_{dc}}{R_L}$$

$$I_{dc} = \frac{224.39}{400} = \underline{\underline{0.56A}}$$

46) A HLR dc power supply has to supply 20V to a 500Ω load. The Peak-Peak Voltage should not exceed 10% of the average output voltage and the ac input frequency is 60Hz. Calculate the required capacitor value.

Sol: Given $V_2 = 20V$, $R_L = 500\Omega$,
 $V_m = \sqrt{2} \times 20 = 28.28V$, $f = 60Hz$, $V_{r(p-p)} = 10\%$ of V_{dc}
 $C = ?$

Consider, $V_{r(p-p)} = 10\%$ of V_{dc}

$$\Rightarrow V_{r(p-p)} = 0.1 V_{dc}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2\sqrt{3} V_{ac} = 0.1 V_{dc} \quad (\because V_{r(p-p)} = 2\sqrt{3} V_{ac})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}} = \frac{0.1}{2\sqrt{3}} = 0.02886$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma = 0.02886$$

Let $\gamma = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3} f R_L C}$

$$\textcircled{a} C = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3} \gamma f R_L} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3} \times 0.02886 \times 60 \times 500} = \underline{\underline{343.66 \mu F}}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhar@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

47) A 12V reference source is to use a series-connected Zener diode as regulator connected to a 30V supply. Select suitable components & calculate the circuit current when the supply voltage drops to 25V.

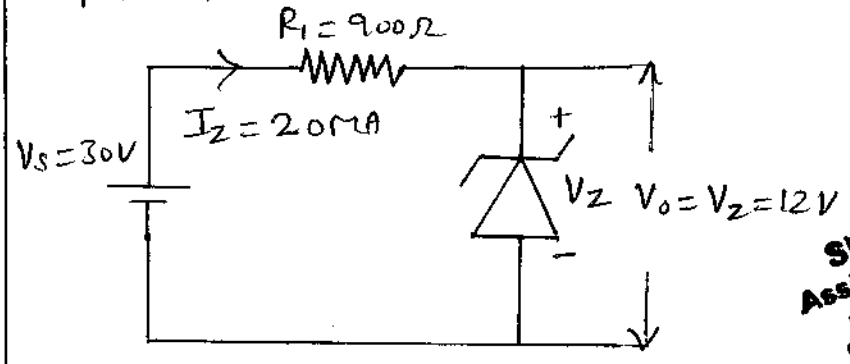
Sol: \textcircled{a} Given $V_s = 30V$, $V_o = V_z = 12V$, \textcircled{b} $V_s = 25V$
 $I_z = ?$

\textcircled{a} Let $I_z = I_{zT} = 20mA$

We have,

$$R_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{I_z} = \frac{30 - 12}{20 \times 10^{-3}} = 900 \Omega //$$

The circuit is shown below



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

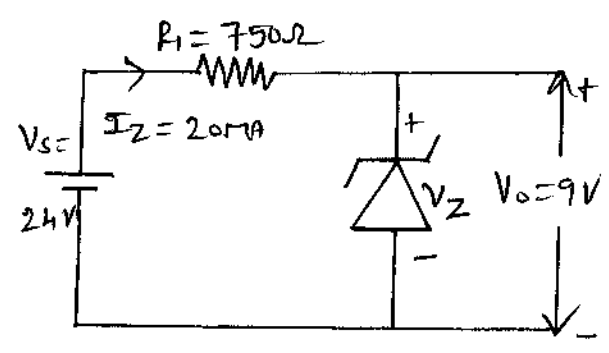
⑥ We have
$$I_z = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1} = \frac{25 - 12}{900} = \underline{\underline{14.44 \text{ mA}}}$$

⑧ Design a 9V dc reference source consisting of a Zener diode & series connected resistor to operate from a 24V supply. Determine the effect on the diode current when the supply voltage drops to 20V & power dissipation in resistor.

Sol: ① Given, $V_s = 24V$, $V_0 = V_z = 9V$,
 let $I_z = I_{zT} = 20 \text{ mA}$.

② $I_z = ?$, $V_s = 20V$,
 $P_{R_1} = ?$

① We have
$$R_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{I_z} = \frac{24 - 9}{20 \times 10^{-3}} = \underline{\underline{750 \Omega}}$$



② Let
$$I_z = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1} = \frac{20 - 9}{750} = 14.66 \text{ mA}$$

$$P_{R_1} = (I_z)^2 R_1 = (20 \times 10^{-3})^2 (750) = \underline{\underline{0.3 \text{ W}}}$$

⑨ A Zener diode has a breakdown voltage of 10V. If it is supplied from a voltage source varying between 20 & 40V

in series with a resistance of 820Ω . Using an ideal Zener diode model obtain minimum & maximum Zener current.

Given: $V_z = 10V$, $R_1 = 820\Omega$, $V_s = 20V - 40V$

$V_{smin} = 20V$, $V_{smax} = 40V$

We have,

$$I_z = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1}$$

When $V_s = V_{smin}$, $I_z = I_{zmin}$

$$I_{zmin} = \frac{V_{smin} - V_z}{R_1}$$

$$= \frac{20 - 10}{820}$$

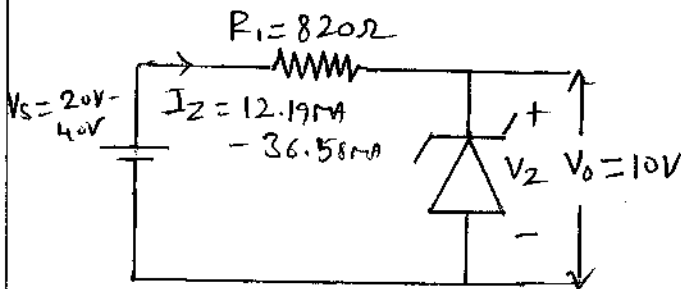
$$= 12.19mA$$

When $V_s = V_{smax}$, $I_z = I_{zmax}$

$$I_{zmax} = \frac{V_{smax} - V_z}{R_1}$$

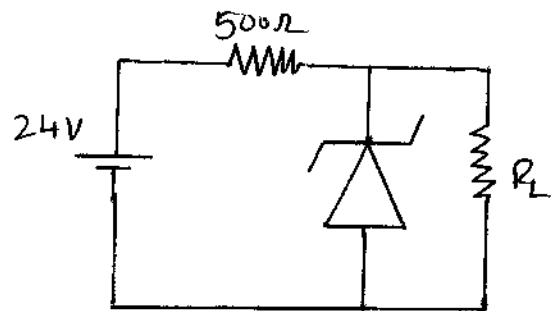
$$= \frac{40 - 10}{820}$$

$$= 36.58mA$$



SHASHIDHAR T.M.C
 Professor in E & C
 sashashidhar@gmail.com
 9447417124
 9447417124

Determine the minimum & maximum values of load current for which the Zener diode shunt regulator shown in fig (50) will maintain regulation



What is the minimum R_L

Given $V_z = 12V$, $I_{zmin} = 3mA$, $I_{zmax} = 90mA$, $r_z = 0$ Fig(50)

sol: Minimum load current

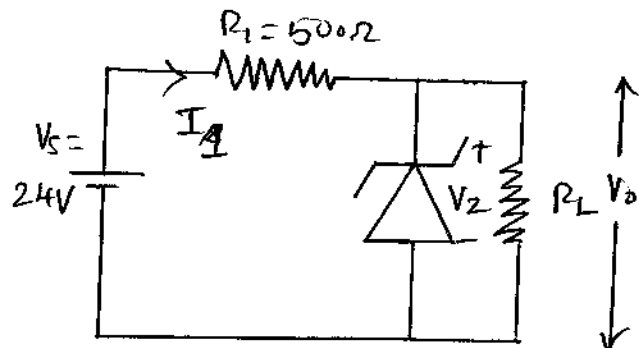
We have

$$I_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1} = \frac{24 - 12}{500}$$

$$I_1 = 24mA$$

Since $I_1 \ll I_{zmax}$.

$$I_{Lmin} = 0$$



Maximum load current

$$I_{L(max)} = I_1 - I_{Zmin} = 24 - 3 = \underline{\underline{21mA}}$$

Minimum load resistance

$$R_{Lmin} = \frac{V_Z}{I_{Lmax}} = \frac{12}{21 \times 10^{-3}} = \underline{\underline{571\Omega}}$$

51

For a Zener shunt regulator if $V_Z = 10V$, $R_S = 1k\Omega$, $R_L = 2k\Omega$, & the input varies from 22 to 40V, find the maximum & minimum values of Zener current.

Sol: Given, $V_Z = 10V$, $R_S = 1k\Omega$, $R_L = 2k\Omega$, $V_{smin} = 22V$, $V_{smax} = 40V$.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

W.k.t $I_L = \frac{V_Z}{R_L} = \frac{10}{2 \times 10^3} = 5mA$ (Assume $I_L = I_{Lmax}$)
 $I_{Lmin} = 0$

Maximum Zener current

$$I_Z(max) = \frac{V_{smax} - V_Z}{R_S} - I_{Lmin} = \frac{40 - 10}{1 \times 10^3} - 0 = \underline{\underline{30mA}}$$

Minimum Zener current

$$I_Z(min) = \frac{V_{smin} - V_Z}{R_S} - I_{Lmax} = \frac{22 - 10}{1 \times 10^3} - 5 \times 10^{-3} = \underline{\underline{7mA}}$$

52

Design a Zener voltage regulator for $V_o = 5V$, $V_{in} = 12 \pm 3V$, $I_L = 20mA$, $P_Z = 500mW$ (Zener Voltage), $I_{Zmin} = 5 \times 10^{-3}$

Sol: Given $V_o = V_Z = 5V$, $V_{inmin} = 12 - 3 = 9V$, $V_{inmax} = 12 + 3 = 15V$.

$P_Z = 500mW$. Assume $I_{Lmin} = 0$, $I_{Lmax} = 20mA$

Max $I_{Zmax} = \frac{P_{Zmax}}{V_Z} = \frac{500 \times 10^{-3}}{5} = \underline{\underline{100mA}}$ ($P_{Zmax} = P_Z$)

R_{Lmin} $R_{Lmin} = \frac{V_{inmax} - V_Z}{I_{Zmax} + I_{Lmin}} = \frac{15 - 5}{100 \times 10^{-3} + 0} = 100\Omega$

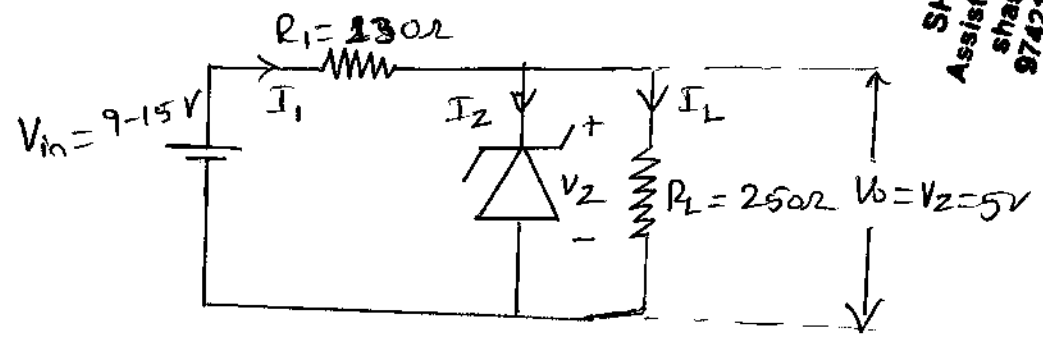
R_{1min} : $R_{1max} = \frac{V_{in\ min} - V_Z}{I_{Zmin} + I_{Lmax}} = \frac{9-5}{5 \times 10^{-3} + 20 \times 10^{-3}} = 160 \Omega$

Let $R_1 = \frac{R_{1min} + R_{1max}}{2} = \frac{100 + 160}{2} = 130 \Omega$

R_L
 NoL $R_L = \frac{V_o}{I_L} = \frac{5}{20 \times 10^{-3}} = 250 \Omega$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shaahidara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Voltage Regulator is shown below



38

Design a 6V dc reference source to operate from a 15V supply. The circuit has to provide a maximum possible load current. Calculate the maximum load current that can be drawn from the circuit. Also find POWs dissipation in series resistor

Sol: Given $V_o = V_Z = 6V$, $V_s = 15V$.

Assume $I_{ZT} = 20mA$, $P_D = 400mW$ & $I_{Zmin} = 5mA$

We have, $I_{ZM} = \frac{P_D}{V_Z} = \frac{400 \times 10^{-3}}{6} = 66.67mA$

Also we have, $R_1 = \frac{V_s - V_Z}{I_{ZM}} = \frac{15 - 6}{66.67 \times 10^{-3}} = 135 \Omega$

Power dissipation in R_1 . $P_{R1} = (I_{ZM})^2 R_1 = (66.67 \times 10^{-3})^2 \times 135$
 $P_{R1} = 0.6W$

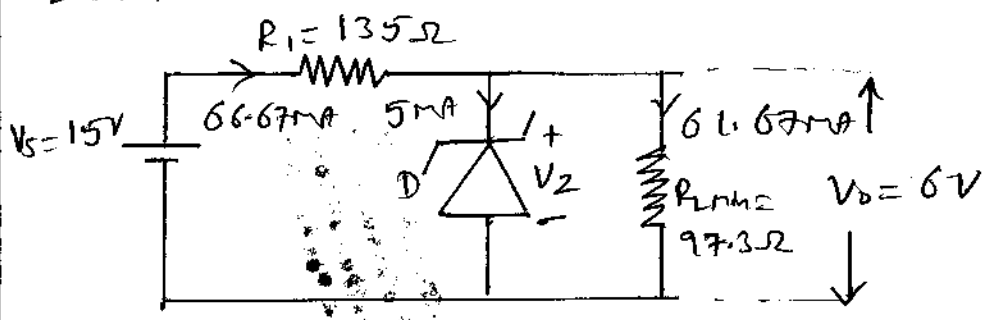
We have, $I_{ZM} = I_{Lmax} + I_{Zmin}$

$\Rightarrow I_{Lmax} = I_{ZM} - I_{Zmin} = 66.67mA - 5mA$

$I_{Lmax} = 61.67mA //$

$$R_{Lmin} = \frac{V_o}{I_{Lmax}} = \frac{6}{66.67 \times 10^{-3}} = \underline{\underline{97.3 \Omega}}$$

Zener voltage regulator is shown below



- Q24) A 24V, 600mW, Zener diode is used for providing a 24V stabilized supply to a variable load. If the input voltage is 32V, calculate the following
- (i) value of series resistance (ii) Diode current when $R_L = 2.4k\Omega$
 - (iii) minimum R_L (iv) power dissipated in resistor (series)

Sol Given $V_s = 32V$, $V_o = V_z = 24V$, $P_D = 600mW$

Ans: Assume $I_{zm} = 5mA$

(i) $R_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{I_{zm}} = \frac{32 - 24}{25 \times 10^{-3}} = \underline{\underline{320 \Omega}}$
 $I_{zm} = \frac{P_D}{V_z} = \frac{600 \times 10^{-3}}{24}$
 $\Rightarrow I_{zm} = 25mA$

(ii) $I_z = I_{zm} - I_L$ ($\because I_{zm} = I_z + I_L$)
 $= 25 \times 10^{-3} - 10 \times 10^{-3}$ ($I_L = \frac{V_o}{R_L} = \frac{24}{2.4 \times 10^3} = 10mA$)
 $= \underline{\underline{15mA}}$

(iii) $R_{Lmin} = \frac{V_o}{I_{Lmax}} = \frac{24}{20 \times 10^{-3}} = \underline{\underline{1200 \Omega}}$
 $\because I_{zm} = I_{Lmax} + I_{zm}$
 $I_{Lmax} = I_{zm} - I_{zm}$
 $= 25 \times 10^{-3} - 5 \times 10^{-3}$
 $= 20mA$

(iv) $P_{R1} = (I_{zm})^2 R_1$
 $= (25 \times 10^{-3})^2 \times 320$
 $= \underline{\underline{0.2W}}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Q5) The output voltage of a dc power supply varies from 30V to 29.6V when the load current is increased from 360 to maximum. The voltage also increases to 30.7V when the ac supply increases by 10%. Calculate the load & source effect & the load & line regulation.

80. Given

$$\Delta V_o = 30 - 29.6 \text{ (for } \Delta I_L(\text{max}) \text{)}, V_o = 30V$$

$$= 0.4V \text{ (for } \Delta I_L(\text{max}) \text{)}$$

$$\Delta V_o = 30.7 - 30 \text{ (for 10\% change in } V_s \text{)}$$

$$= 0.7V \text{ (for 10\% change in } V_s \text{)}$$

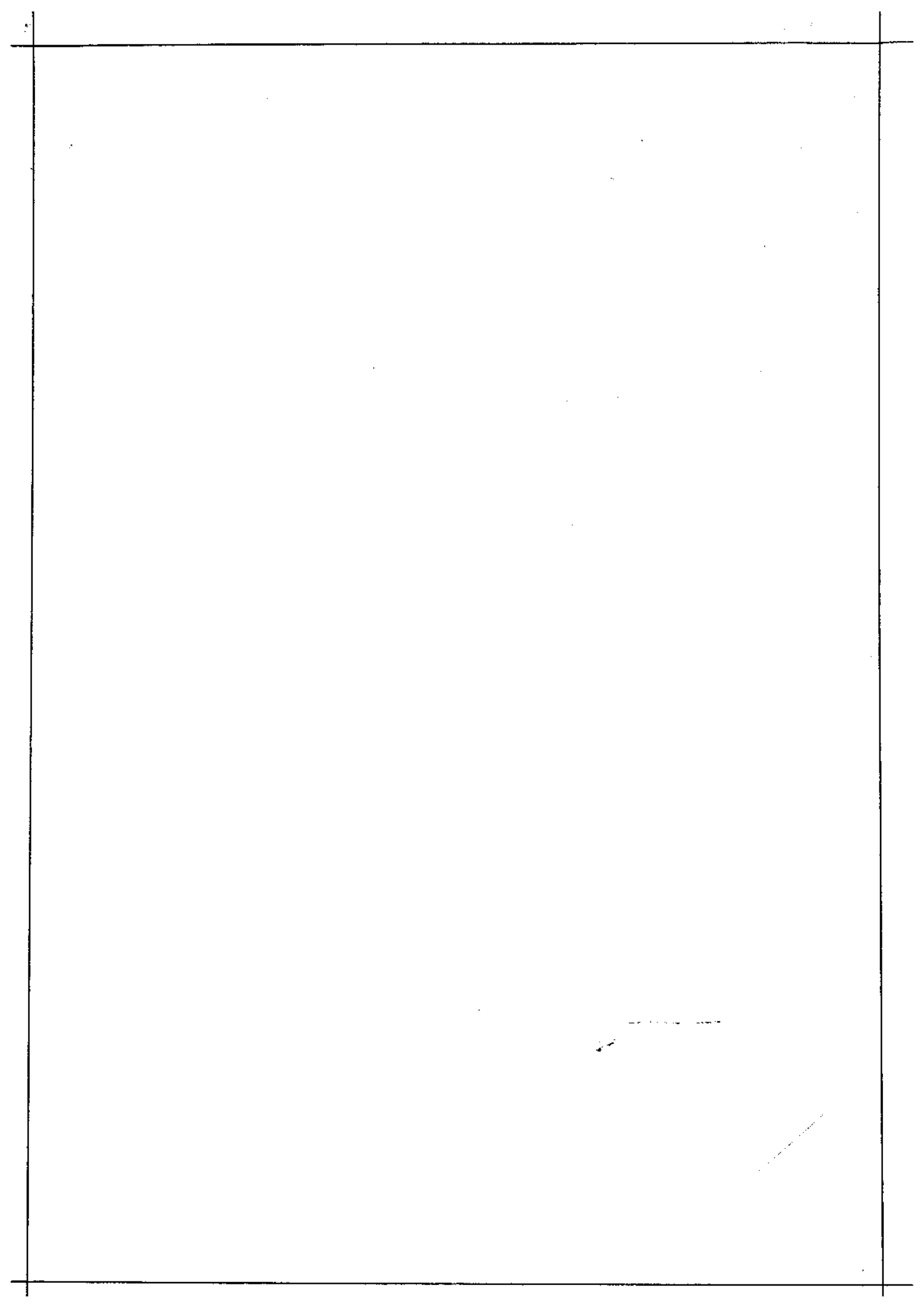
Load effect = ΔV_o for $\Delta I_L(\text{max}) = \underline{\underline{0.4V}}$

Source effect = ΔV_o for 10% change in $V_s = \underline{\underline{0.7V}}$

Load regulation = $\frac{\Delta V_o \text{ for } \Delta I_L(\text{max})}{V_o} \times 100 = \frac{0.4}{30} \times 100 = \underline{\underline{1.33\%}}$

Line regulation = $\frac{\Delta V_o \text{ for 10\% change in } V_s}{V_o} \times 100 = \frac{0.7}{30} \times 100 = \underline{\underline{2.33\%}}$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9944231315



Syllabus: Bipolar Junction Transistors: BJT Operation, BJT Voltage and currents, BJT amplification, Common base, Common Emitter and Common Collector characteristics, Numerical examples as applicable.

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.

Shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* Introduction:

- The first transistor was invented in 1947 (23 Dec) at the Bell Telephone Laboratories (USA) by Dr. William Shockley, Dr. John Bardeen & Dr. Walter H. Brattain.
- Transistor is an electronic device consisting of two pn junctions formed by sandwiching either P-type n-type semiconductor between a pair of opposite types.
- Transistor is a three terminal (three layers) & two junctions electronic device. (2 Port device)
- Transistor is a current controlled device (ie output current, voltage and/or power are controlled by its input current)
- Transistor can be considered as connection of two back-to-back diodes (fig 3) & (fig 6)
- The term transistor is derived from TRANSfer of - RESISTOR (∵ amplification is achieved by passing input current from a region of low resistance to a region of high resistance)
- Transistor can be used as switch and amplifier [Amplification of weak signals (current & voltage)]
- Three blocks [(P, n, P) @ (n, P, n)] are grown out of same crystal by adding corresponding impurities in turn.

→ TYPE of transistor (Based on number of charge carriers):

- Unipolar Junction Transistor (UJT): Current conduction is only due to one type of charge carriers [either electrons or holes (majority carriers)]
- Bipolar Junction Transistor (BJT): Current conduction is due to both the types of charge carriers [holes & electrons (Majority & Minority carriers)]

→ Types of Bipolar Junction Transistor (Construction):

There are two types of BJTs

① NPN transistor

• NPN transistor is obtained when a P-type layer of semiconductor is sandwiched between two n-type layers of semiconductor.

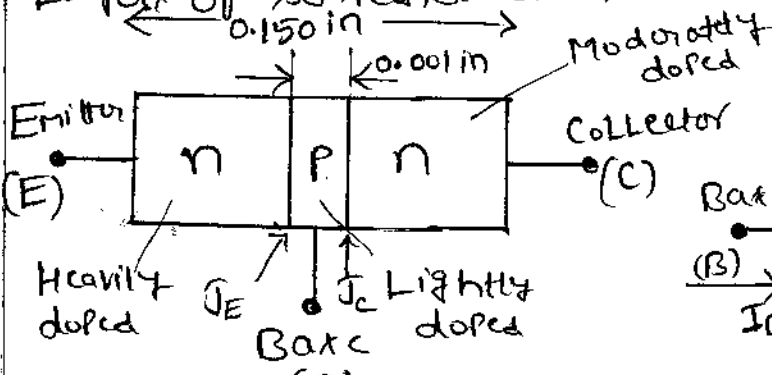


Fig ①: Schematic representation of NPN transistor

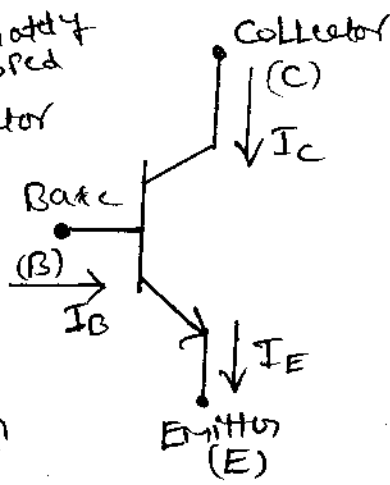


Fig ②: Symbol of NPN transistor

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

• There are three terminals one taken from each type of semiconductor (Emitter, Base & Collector)

~ Emitter: ⇒ The section on one side that supplies charge carriers (electrons) is called the emitter

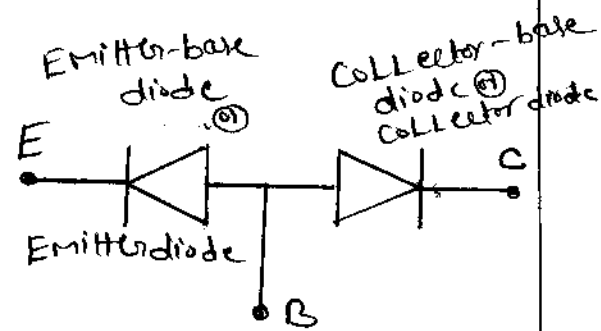


Fig ③: Two diode transistor analogy @ Diode equivalent circuit of NPN transistor

- ⇒ It is a heavily doped region
- ⇒ It is always forward biased w.r.t base & provides low resistance in the emitter.

• Base: ⇒ The middle layer (or section or region) between the emitter & collector is called the base. SHASHIDHAR T M Assistant Professor in ECE c Shashilara@gmail.com 9742174174, 98442313

⇒ It is thin & lightly doped region.

- Collector: ⇒ The section on the other side which collects charge carriers (electrons) is called the collector
- ⇒ It is moderately doped region & larger than emitter & base.
- ⇒ It is always reverse biased w.r.t base & provides high resistance in the collector.

^{NOTE} During transistor operation, much heat is produced at the collector junction, so collector is made larger to dissipate the heat.

- Transistor has two Pn junctions (ie it is like two diodes)
- ⇒ The junction between emitter & base is emitter-base junction (J_E) @ emitter-base diode @ emitter diode (Always FB)
- ⇒ The junction between the base & collector is collector-base junction (J_C) @ collector-base diode @ collector diode (Always RB)

- The ratio of the total width to center layer (Base) is $0.150/0.001 = 150:1$
- The ratio of doping level of outer layers (E & C) to center layer (B) is typically $10:1$ @ 10^3
- The direction of arrow head (fig 2) indicates the direction of conventional current flow in transistor.
- Free electrons are majority carriers & holes are minority carriers.

6) PNP transistor

• PNP transistor is obtained by sandwiching a n-type Semiconductor layer between two P-type layers of Semiconductor.

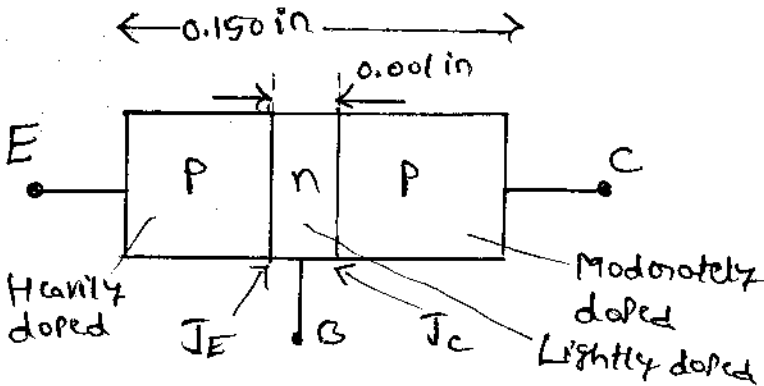


Fig 4: Schematic representation of PNP transistor

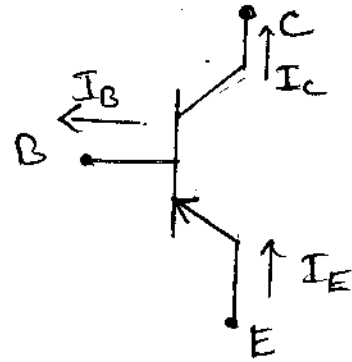


Fig 5: Symbol of PNP transistor

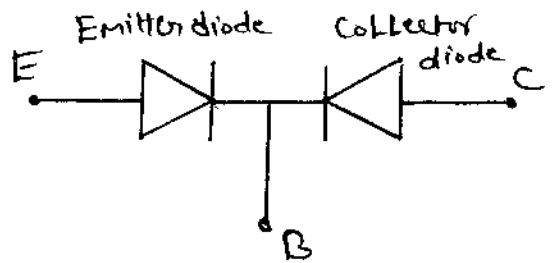


Fig 6: Diode equivalent circuit of PNP transistor

- Emitter supplies holes to other two regions
- collector collects holes
- Holes are the majority carriers & electrons are minority carriers.

→ Transistor manufacturing techniques

Basic techniques used for transistor manufacturing techniques are

- ① Grown-junction
- ② Alloy
- ③ Diffused-junction
- ④ Epitaxial.

→ Transistor Package types:

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

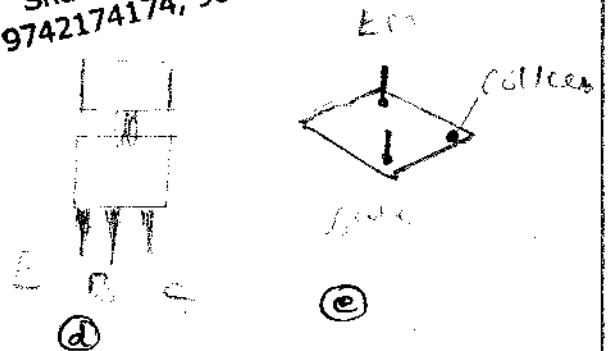
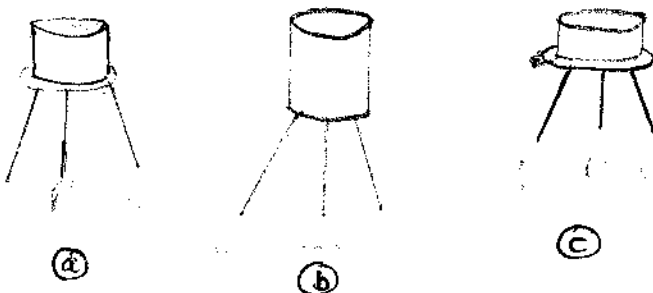


Fig 7: Transistor Package types

Metal can-type ①, ②, ③, ④
Plastic enclosure ⑤

Low Power transistor: ①, ②, ③

High Power transistor: ④, ⑤

* Unbiased transistor: Depletion regions & Barrier Voltages of an unbiased transistor)

1) nPN transistor:

→ A transistor with no external dc voltage is called unbiased transistor.

→ The base layer is very thin & lightly doped compared to the outer layers.

→ The outer layers are more heavily doped than the base layer.

→ During diffusion, depletion regions penetrate more deeply into the base from either side, thus the distance between the two depletion layers within the base is reduced.

→ Junction barrier voltages are positive on the emitter & collector and negative on the base (0.3V for Ge & 0.7V for Si) (Electrons are majority carriers)

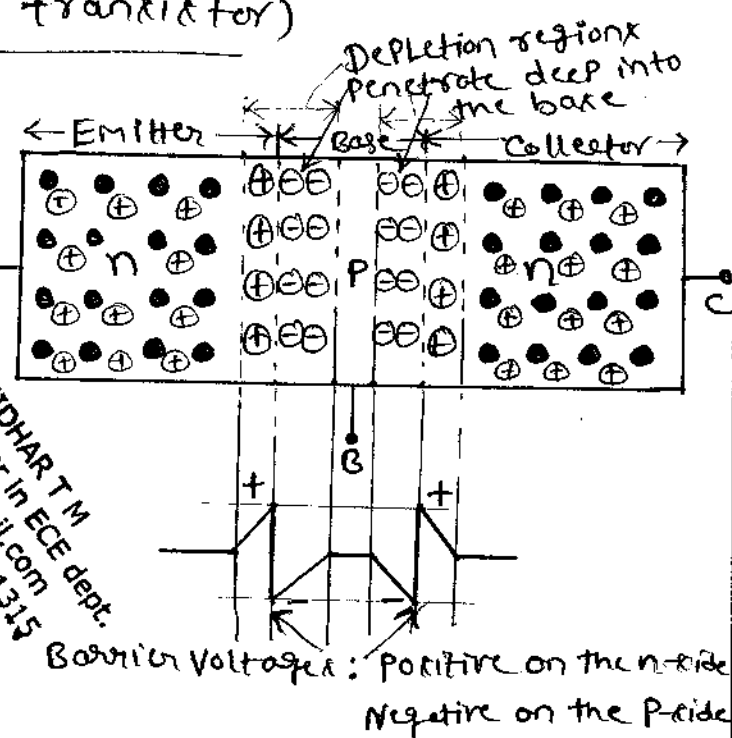
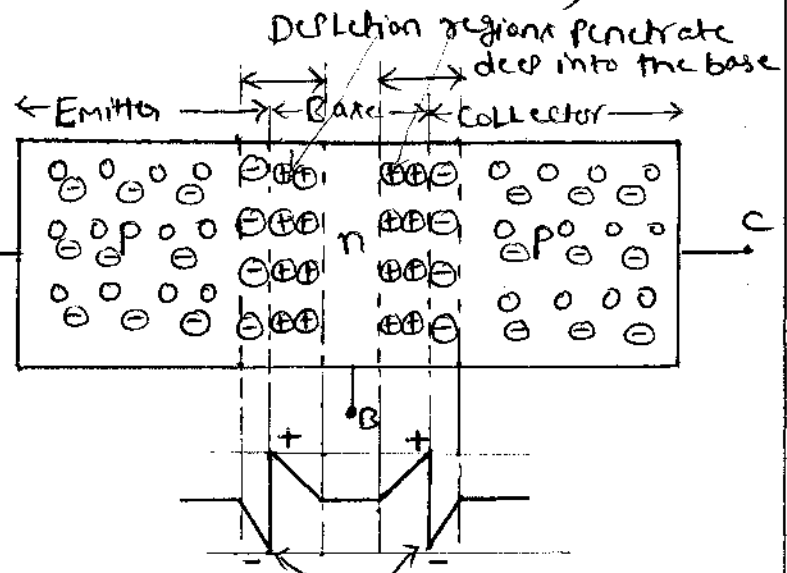


Fig 8: Depletion regions & barrier voltages at the junctions of an unbiased nPN transistor

2) pNP transistor:

Fig 9: Depletion regions & barrier voltages at the junctions of an unbiased pNP transistor



Barrier voltages: Positive on the p-side

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Example: ...

→ A PNP transistor behaves exactly like a NPN transistor with the exception that the holes are majority carriers.

→ Junction barrier voltages are positive on the base and negative on the emitter & collector

Note:

- ① Modes of transistor operation ② Different ways of biasing a transistor ③ Regions of operation of BJT

④ Operating regions of a transistor:

Application of suitable DC voltages across the transistor terminals is called biasing.

A transistor can be operated in four different regions

- ① Active region ② Linear region ③ Forward-active region.
- ④ Saturation region.
- ⑤ Cut-off region.
- ⑥ Reverse-active region.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

① Active region: (Fig 10)

→ The Emitter-base junction (J_E) is forward biased (FB) & the collector-base junction (J_C) is reverse biased (RB).

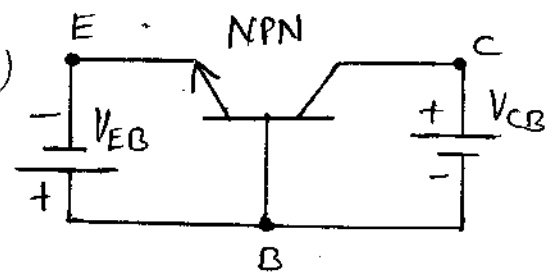


Fig 10 ① Forward-active (NPN)

→ For NPN transistor:

FB require
 The negative terminal of a battery is connected to N-side & positive terminal to P-side.

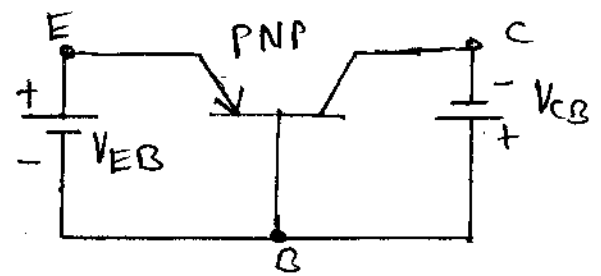


Fig 10 ② Forward-active (PNP)

RB require
 The positive terminal of a

battery is connected to N-side & negative terminal to P-side.

→ The collector current consists of two components:
(i) current due to the forward biasing of EB junction &
(ii) current due to reverse biasing of CB junction [I_{co} or I_{cso}] (Very small in magnitude)

ⓐ Saturation region: (Fig 11)

→ Both the emitter-base & collector-base junctions are forward biased

→ I_c increases rapidly for a very small change in V_{cb} .

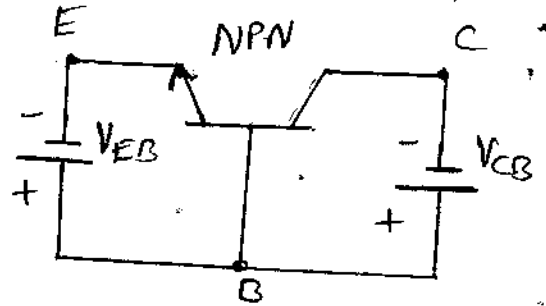


Fig 11(a): Saturation (NPN)

ⓑ Cut-off region: (Fig 12)

→ Both the emitter-base & collector-base junctions are reverse biased.

→ The current is very small & transistor is assumed to be in off state.

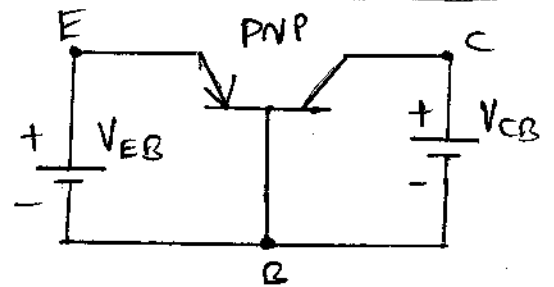


Fig 11(b): Saturation (PNP)

Ⓐ Reverse-active region: (Fig 13)

→ The emitter-base junction is reverse biased & the collector-base junction is forward biased.

→ It is used for less amplification.

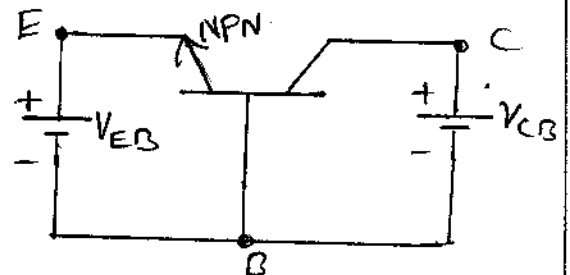


Fig 12(a): Cut-off (NPN)

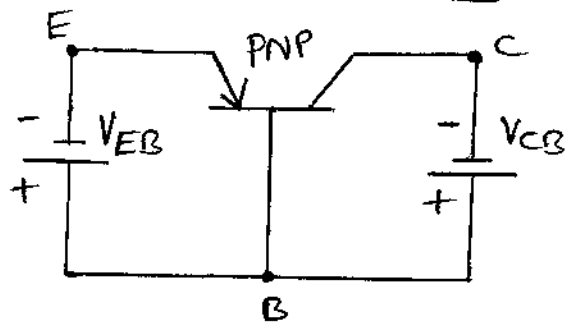


Fig 12(b): Cut-off (PNP)

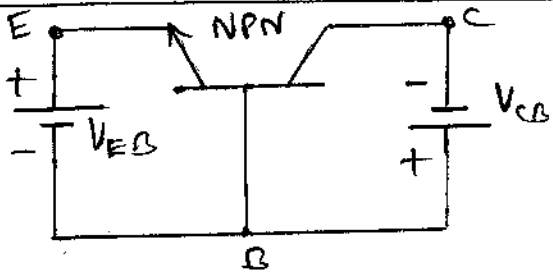


Fig 13(a): Reverse active (NPN)

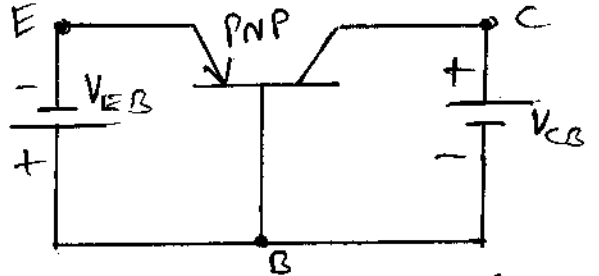


Fig 13(b): Reverse active (PNP)

Region of operation	Emitter-Base junction J_E	Collector-Base junction J_C	Application
① Active	FB	RB	Good amplification
② Saturation	FB	FB	Closed switch (ON)
③ Cut-off	RB	RB	Open switch (OFF)
④ Reverse-active	RB	FB	Less amplification

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Biased transistor ① Principle of operation of transistor:

① NPN transistor:
 (Principle of operation)
 → Emitter-base junction is forward biased & collector-base junction is reverse biased.

→ The forward bias on the emitter-base junction causes the electrons in the n-type emitter to flow towards the base (repelled by negative potential of V_{EB}).

This constitutes emitter current (I_E) (opposite to flow of electrons)

→ The base is lightly doped & very thin, so only a few electrons (less than 5%) coming from the emitter

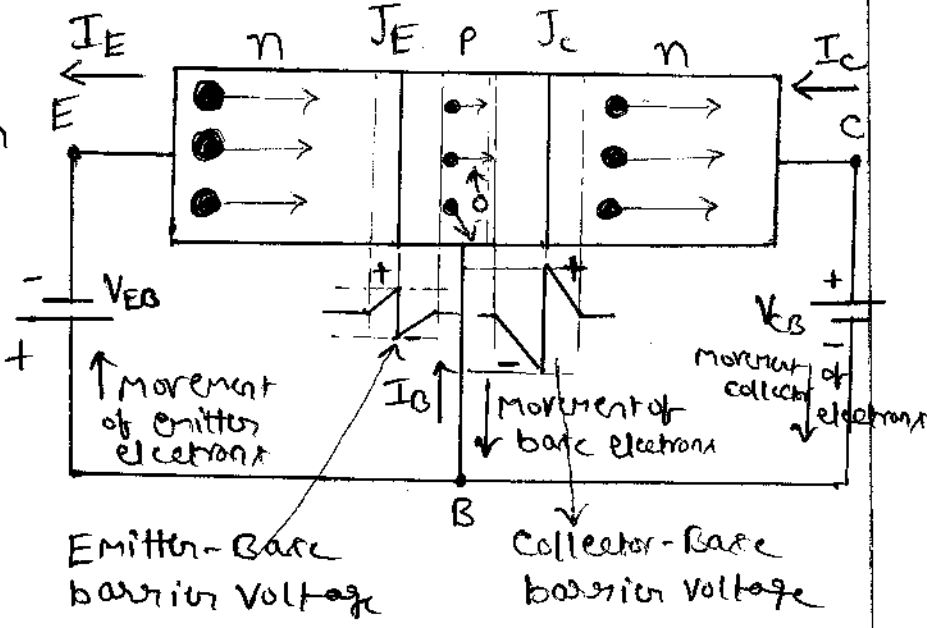


Fig 14: Operation of NPN transistor

Combine with the holes causing base current (I_B) (mA) (MA)

→ The remaining electrons (more than 95%) will diffuse to the collector & constitute collector current (or)

Injected current (I_c), (mA)

→ There is another component of collector current due to thermally generated carriers. This current component (very small) is called reverse saturation current (I_{CBO}) (MA) (mA)

→ It is clear that emitter current is the sum of collector & base currents

ie $I_E = I_B + I_C$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① Collector current is also called as injected current because this current is produced due to electrons injected from the emitter region.

② The resistances R_E & R_C may be connected in series with emitter & collector to limit the magnitude of current in the transistor.

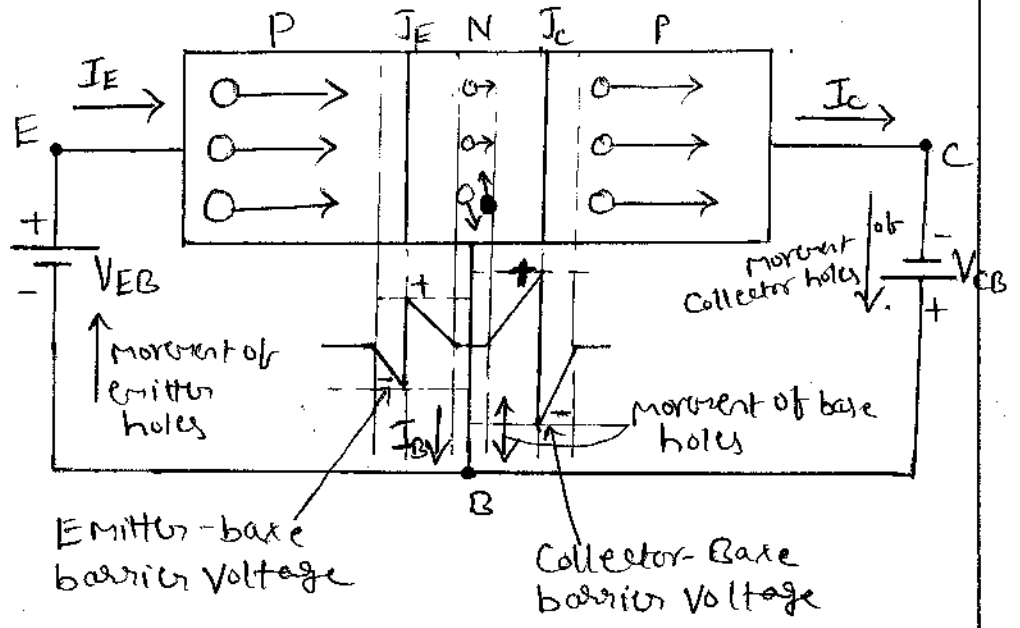
Reasons
③ That most of the electrons from emitter continue their journey through the base to collector to form collector current are
④ The base is lightly doped & very thin. Therefore, there are a few holes which find enough time to combine with electrons
⑤ The reverse bias on collector is quite high & exerts attractive forces on these electrons.

④ Collector current, $I_C = \alpha I_E + I_{CBO}$
(MA) (MA) (MA) (MA)
[($I_{c\text{majority}}$) + ($I_{c\text{minority}}$)] → (I_C current with emitter terminal open)
↙ (current due to majority of electrons (more than 95%) from emitter)
↘ Reverse saturation current (due to thermally generated carriers) ⑥
⑦ minority current component Leakage current

② PNP transistor:

(Principle of operation of PNP transistor)

→ Emitter-base junction is forward biased & collector-base junction is reverse biased.



Fig(13): operation of PNP transistor

→ The forward bias on the emitter-base junction causes the holes in the emitter region to flow

towards the base (repelled by positive potential of V_{EB}). This constitutes the emitter current (I_E) (mA)

→ The base is lightly doped & very thin, so only a few holes (less than 5%) coming from the emitter combine with the electrons causing base current (I_B) (mA)

→ The remaining electrons (more than 95%) will diffuse to the collector & constitute collector current or injected current (I_C) (mA)

→ There is another component of collector current due to thermally generated carriers. This current component (very small) is called reverse saturation current (I_{CBO}) (mA)

→ It is clear that the emitter current is the sum of collector & base currents.

$$I_E = I_B + I_C$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* BJT Voltage and currents:

① BJT Voltage (Terminal Voltage):

② NPN transistor:

Fig 16 shows the terminal voltage for NPN transistor.

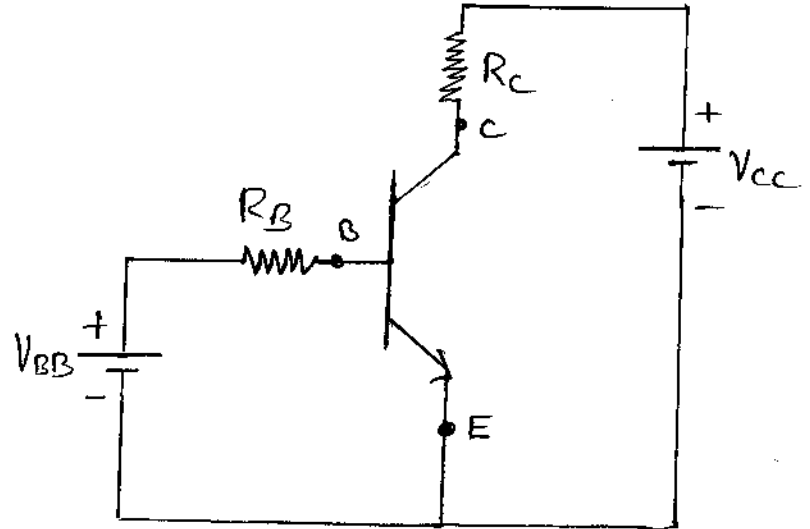
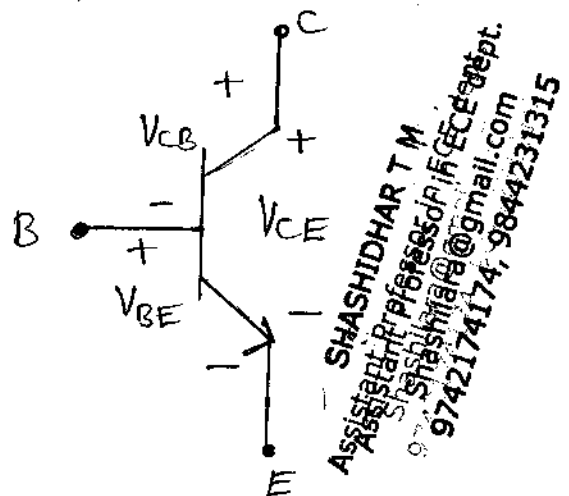


Fig 16 : Terminal Voltage

Fig 17 : Voltage source connection

For NPN transistor,

- Base Voltage must be positive w.r.t the emitter.
- collector voltage must be positive w.r.t the base.
- collector voltage must be positive w.r.t the emitter

Fig 17 shows voltage source connection to NPN transistor via resistors.

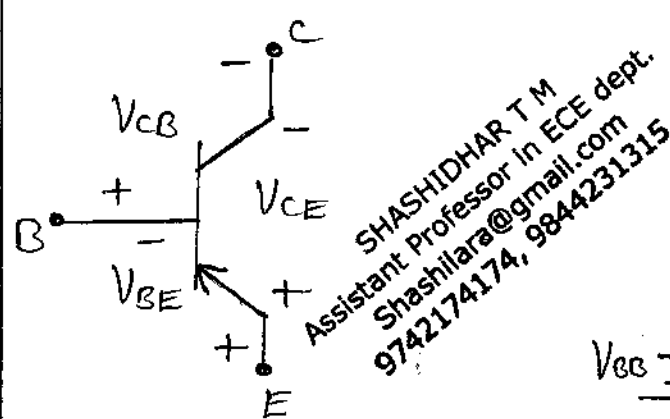
- Base bias voltage (V_{BB}) is connected via resistor (R_B)
- & the collector supply (V_{CC}) is connected via resistor (R_C).
- The negative terminal of V_{BB} & V_{CC} are connected at the transistor emitter terminal.
- To ensure reverse biasing of collector-base junction, V_{CC} must be much larger than V_{BB} .

→ Typical voltage: $V_{BE} = 0.3V$ for Ge & $0.7V$ for Si
 $V_{CE} = 3V$ to $20V$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor, IIT Bombay
 Shashidhar@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

⑥ For PNP transistor

Fig ⑱ Showx the terminal voltages for PNP transistor.



SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Fig ⑱: Terminal Voltages

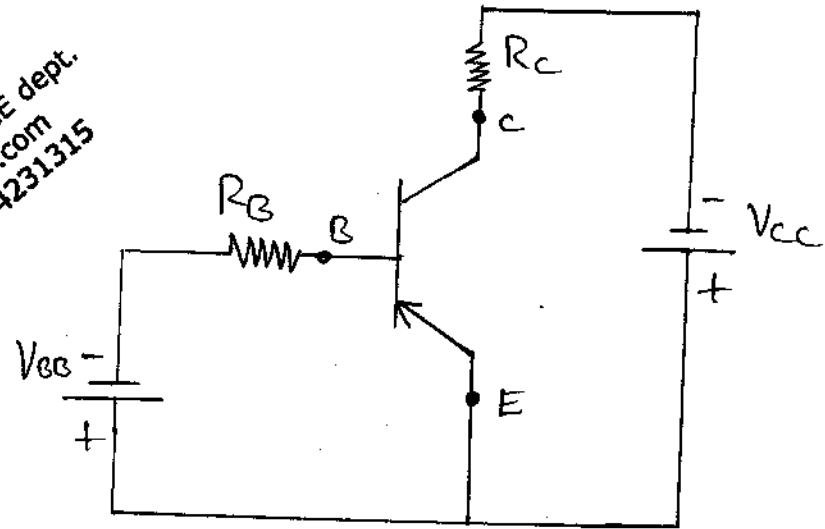


Fig ⑲: Voltage source connections

For PNP transistor

- Base voltage must be negative w.r.t the emitter
- collector voltage must be negative w.r.t the base.
- collector voltage must be negative w.r.t the emitter.

Fig ⑲ showx voltage source connection to PNP transistor via resistors.

- Base bias voltage V_{BB} is connected via resistor R_B
- & the collector supply V_{CC} is connected via resistor R_C .
- The positive terminals of V_{BB} & V_{CC} are connected at the transistor emitter terminal.
- To ensure reverse biasing of collector-base junction, V_{CC} must be much larger than V_{BB} .

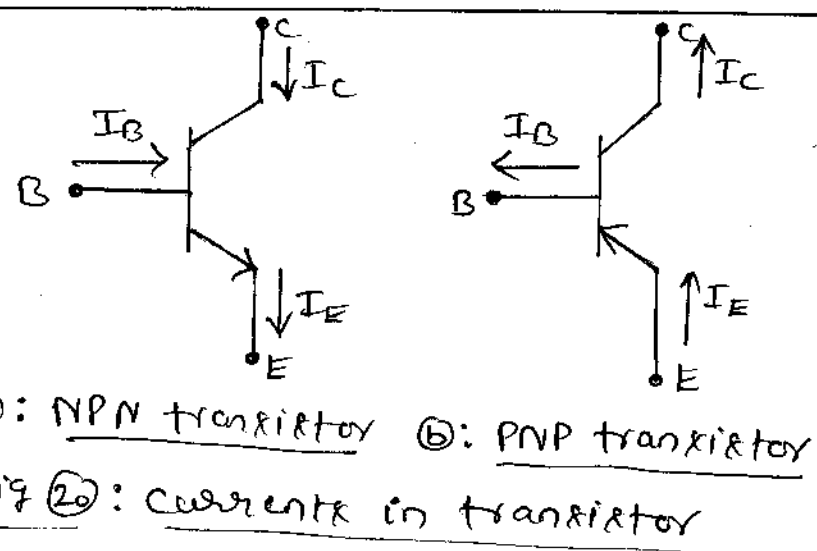
② BJT currents:

Fig ⑳ showx NPN & PNP transistor I_B & I_C currents.

Applying KCL to the transistor (as it is a single node),

$$I_E = I_C + I_B$$

Note: The ratio of the transistor output current to the input current is called current gain of a transistor



* Transistor Configurations & Connections:

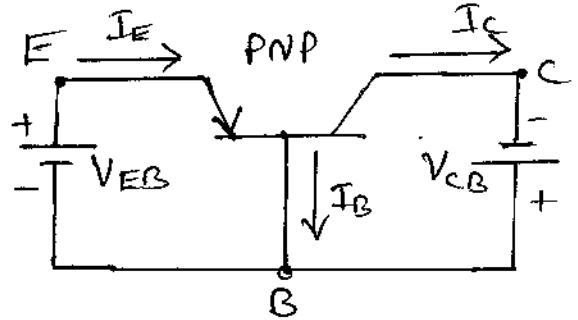
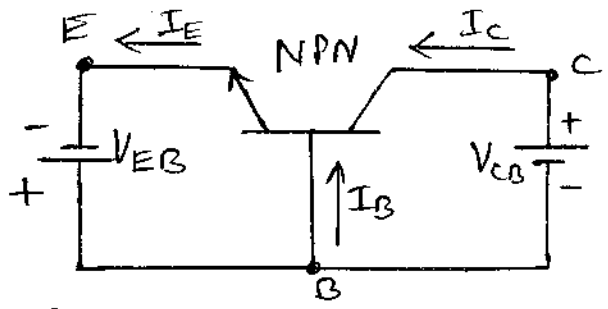
There are three configurations of transistor.

- ① Common base Connection
- ② Common emitter Connection.
- ③ Common Collector Connection.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

① Common base configuration:

Fig 21 shows the common base transistor circuit.



Ⓐ NPN transistor

Ⓑ PNP transistor

Fig 21: Common base transistor.

- Input is applied between the emitter & base terminals.
- The output is taken between the collector & base terminals.
- The emitter current is the input current & collector current is the output current.
- Input and output current may be either direct

Current (or) alternating Current.

- Common base dc current gain (or) Current amplification factor (or) small signal current gain (or) Common base, short circuit, amplification factor (or) Common base, short circuit current gain (α_{dc})

It is defined as the ratio of collector current (I_c) to the emitter current (I_E). It is denoted by α (or) α_{dc} (or) h_{FB}

i.e.
$$\alpha_{dc} = \frac{I_c}{I_E}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Common base ac current gain (α_{ac})

It is defined as the ratio of small change in collector current (ΔI_c) to the small change in emitter current (ΔI_E) for a constant collector-to-base voltage (V_{CB})

(or)

It is defined as the ratio of change in collector current to the change in emitter current at constant collector-base voltage (V_{CB})

It is designated by α_o (or) α_{ac} (or) h_{fb}

i.e.
$$\alpha_{ac} = \frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta I_E}$$

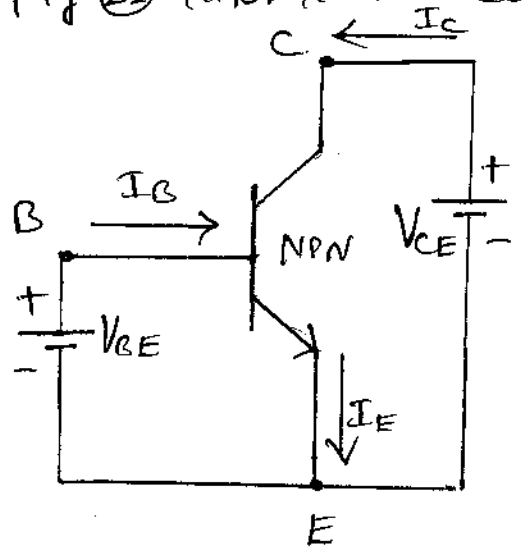
(or)

$$\alpha_{ac} = \left. \frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta I_E} \right|_{V_{CB} = \text{constant}}$$

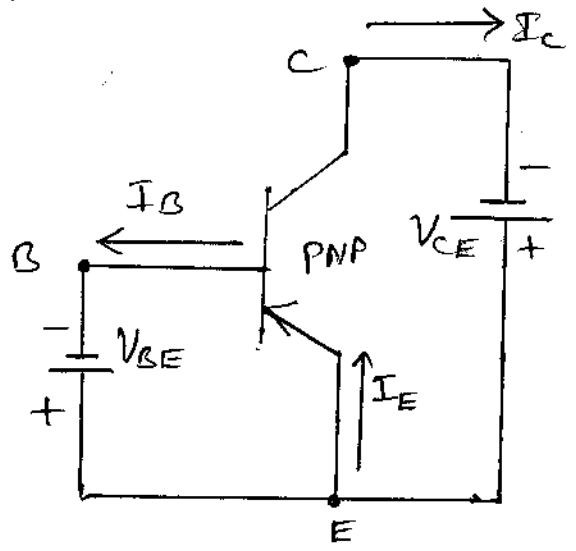
- In practice, $\alpha_{dc} = \alpha_{ac}$
- α_{dc} is typically from 0.90 to 0.998

② Common Emitter Connection:

Fig 22 shows the common emitter transistor circuit.



Ⓐ NPN transistor



Ⓑ PNP transistor

Fig 22: Common emitter transistor

→ The base current is the input current & the collector current is the output current.

- Ⓐ Common emitter dc current gain Ⓜ Large signal common-emitter current gain Ⓜ Base current amplification factor Ⓜ Common-emitter short circuit current gain Ⓜ Current gain from base to collector: (β_{dc})

It is defined as the ratio of collector current (I_c) to the base current (I_B). It is denoted by β Ⓜ β_{dc} Ⓜ h_{FE} .

ie
$$\beta_{dc} = \frac{I_c}{I_B}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Ⓑ Common emitter ac current gain (β_{ac}) (ΔI_c)

It is defined as the ratio of change in collector current to the change in base current (ΔI_B) for a constant collector-to-emitter voltage (V_{CE}).

It is denoted by β_o Ⓜ β_{ac} Ⓜ h_{fe}

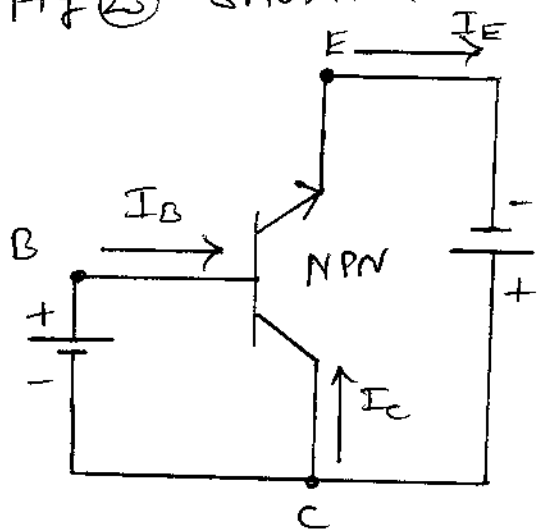
i.e. $\beta_{ac} = \frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta I_B}$ (or)

$\beta_{ac} = \frac{\Delta I_c}{\Delta I_B} \Big|_{V_{CE} = \text{constant}}$

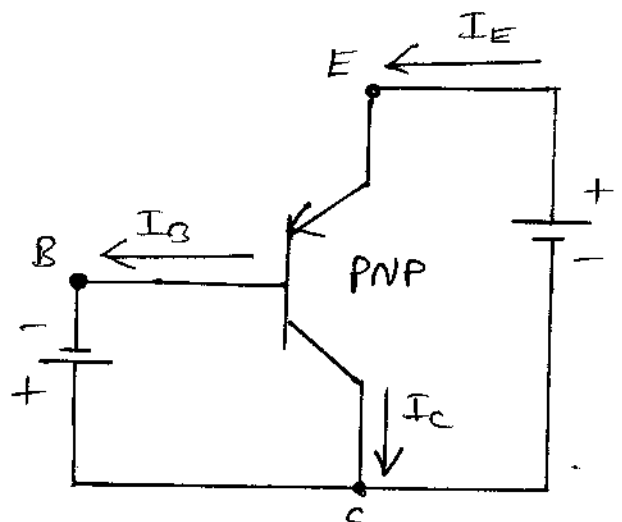
- In Practice, $\beta_{ac} = \beta_{dc}$
- β_{dc} is typically from 20 to 500

③ Common collector configuration:

Fig 23 shows the common collector transistor circuit



Ⓐ NPN transistor



Ⓑ PNP transistor

Fig 23: Common collector transistor

→ The base current is the input current & emitter current is the output current.

Ⓐ Common - collector dc current gain (β_{dc})

It is defined as the ratio of emitter current (I_E) to the base current (I_B). It is denoted by β_{dc}

$\beta_{dc} @ h_{fc}$

i.e. $\beta_{dc} = \frac{I_E}{I_B}$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Ⓑ Common - collector ac current gain (β_{ac})

It is defined as the ratio of change in emitter current (ΔI_E) to the change in base current (ΔI_B)

for a constant Emitter-to-collector Voltage (V_{EC})

It is denoted by α_o @ α_{ac} @ h_{fc}

$$\alpha_{ac} = \frac{\Delta I_E}{\Delta I_B} \quad (1)$$

$$\alpha_{ac} = \frac{\Delta I_E}{\Delta I_B} \Big|_{V_{EC} = \text{constant}}$$

- In Practice, $\alpha_{ac} = \alpha_{dc}$
- α_{dc} is typically from 21 to 501.

* Relation between α_{dc} & β_{dc}

We know that,

$$I_E = I_C + I_B \quad (1)$$

Dividing (1) by I_C , we get

$$\frac{I_E}{I_C} = 1 + \frac{I_B}{I_C} \quad (2)$$

We have $\alpha_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_E}$ & $\beta_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_B} \quad (3)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\alpha_{dc}} = \frac{I_E}{I_C} \quad (3) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\beta_{dc}} = \frac{I_B}{I_C} \quad (4)$$

Using (3) & (4) in (2), we get

$$\frac{1}{\alpha_{dc}} = 1 + \frac{1}{\beta_{dc}} \quad (5)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\alpha_{dc}} = \frac{\beta_{dc} + 1}{\beta_{dc}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_{dc} = \frac{\beta_{dc}}{\beta_{dc} + 1} \quad (6)$$

Now from (5), we can write,

$$\frac{1}{\beta_{dc}} = \frac{1}{\alpha_{dc}} - 1$$

$$\frac{1}{\beta_{dc}} = \frac{1 - \alpha_{dc}}{\alpha_{dc}}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\beta_{dc} = \frac{\alpha_{dc}}{1 - \alpha_{dc}}} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

* Relation between β_{dc} & γ_{dc} :

Consider eqn (1)

$$I_E = I_C + I_B$$

÷ by I_B

$$\frac{I_E}{I_B} = \frac{I_C}{I_B} + 1 \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

We have, $\gamma_{dc} = \frac{I_E}{I_B}$ --- (9)

Using (7) & (9) in (8), we get

$$\boxed{\gamma_{dc} = \beta_{dc} + 1} \quad \text{--- (10)} \Rightarrow \boxed{\beta_{dc} = \gamma_{dc} - 1} \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

* Relation between α_{dc} & γ_{dc} :

Using (7) in (10), we get

$$\gamma_{dc} = \frac{\alpha_{dc}}{1 - \alpha_{dc}} + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma_{dc} = \frac{\alpha_{dc} + 1 - \alpha_{dc}}{1 - \alpha_{dc}}$$

$$\boxed{\gamma_{dc} = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha_{dc}}} \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \alpha_{dc} = \frac{1}{\gamma_{dc}}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma_{dc}} = \alpha_{dc}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\alpha_{dc} = \frac{\gamma_{dc} - 1}{\gamma_{dc}}} \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

* Relation among α_{dc} , β_{dc} & γ_{dc} :

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

We know that

$$\gamma_{dc} = \frac{I_E}{I_B}$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma_{dc} = \frac{I_E / I_C}{I_B / I_C}$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma_{dc} = \frac{1/\alpha_{dc}}{1/\beta_{dc}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\gamma_{dc} = \frac{\beta_{dc}}{\alpha_{dc}}} \quad - (14)$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① I_C interms of I_B & α_{dc}

We have $\alpha_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_E}$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \alpha_{dc} I_E$$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \alpha_{dc} (I_C + I_B) \quad (\because I_E = I_C + I_B)$$

$$\Rightarrow I_C (1 - \alpha_{dc}) = \alpha_{dc} I_B$$

$$\boxed{I_C = \frac{\alpha_{dc} I_B}{1 - \alpha_{dc}}} \quad - (15)$$

②

Let $\beta_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_B}$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \beta_{dc} I_B$$

$$\boxed{I_C = \frac{\alpha_{dc} I_B}{1 - \alpha_{dc}}} \quad (\because \beta_{dc} = \frac{\alpha_{dc}}{1 - \alpha_{dc}})$$

- ② n pn transistor \rightarrow NOT pointing in
- PNP transistor \rightarrow pointing in

③ β_{ac} is defined by a simple ratio of dc currents at an operating point. Whereas the β_{ac} is sensitive to the characteristics in the region of interest.

④ Expression for collector current:

Consider a PNP transistor circuit as shown in fig (24)

① When switch is closed:

The forward bias voltage V_{EB} injects holes in the base region. The reverse bias voltage V_{CB} on the collector-base junction attracts the majority of holes from the base region & constitute collector current (injected current)

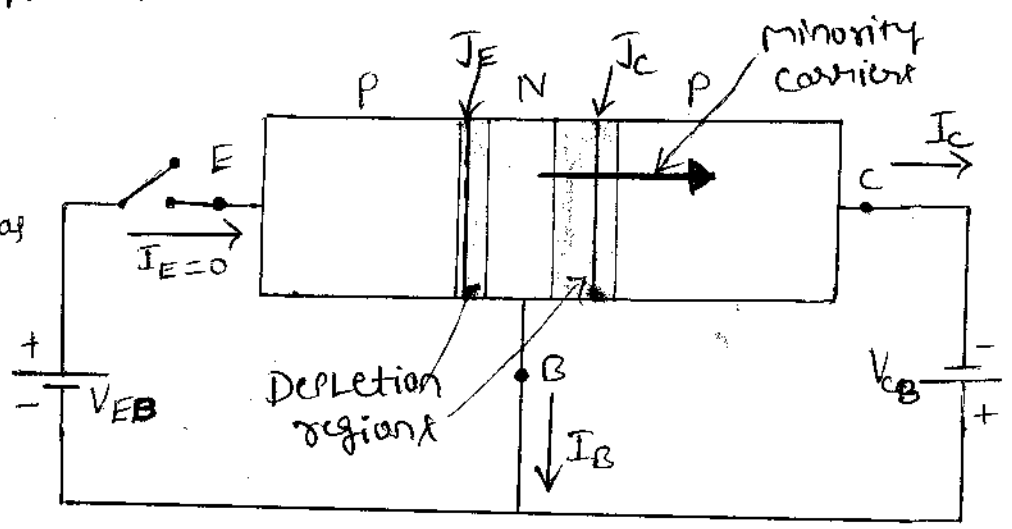


Fig (24): Common base PNP transistor

ie $I_C = \alpha_{dc} I_E$ (Due to majority carriers) (MA) — (16)

② When switch is open:

There is no emitter current & therefore no base current & no collector current. The minority carriers diffuse across the collector base junction & hence produce a current known as leakage current (I_{CBO}) @ reverse saturation current @ collector cut-off current @ I_C current with emitter terminals open (I_{CO})

ie $I_C = I_{CBO}$ (Due to minority carriers @ thermally generated carriers) (MA @ MA) — (17)

The total collector current

$I_C = \alpha_{dc} I_E + I_{CBO}$ — (18)

$\Rightarrow I_C = \alpha_{dc} (I_C + I_B) + I_{CBO}$ ($\because I_E = I_C + I_B$)

$$\Rightarrow I_c - \alpha_{dc} I_c = \alpha_{dc} I_B + I_{CBO}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_c(1 - \alpha_{dc}) = \alpha_{dc} I_B + I_{CBO}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_c = \frac{\alpha_{dc} I_B + I_{CBO}}{1 - \alpha_{dc}}$$

$$I_c = \beta_{dc} I_B + (1 + \beta_{dc}) I_{CBO}$$

(19)

Let
① $\beta_{dc} = \frac{\alpha_{dc}}{1 - \alpha_{dc}}$

② $\frac{1}{1 - \alpha_{dc}} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\beta_{dc}}{1 + \beta_{dc}}}$

$$\Rightarrow = \frac{1}{1 + \beta_{dc} - \beta_{dc}} = \frac{1}{1 + \beta_{dc}}$$

$\frac{1}{1 - \alpha_{dc}} = 1 + \beta_{dc}$ (20)

⑤ At room temperature

For Si transistor, $I_{CBO} @ I_{CO} \rightarrow \mu A$ (can be neglected)

For Ge transistor, $I_{CBO} @ I_{CO} \rightarrow mA$ (cannot be neglected)

⑥ The value of I_{CBO} is strongly temperature dependent for both Si & Ge. It doubles for every 10°C increase in temperature.

⑦ Si transistors can be used upto 200°C
Ge transistors can be used upto 100°C

⑧ For common emitter configuration, (Common collector)

$$I_c = \beta_{dc} I_B + (1 + \beta_{dc}) I_{CBO}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_c = \beta_{dc} I_B + I_{CEO} \quad (21)$$

Where, $I_{CEO} \rightarrow$ Collector-Emitter current with base Open

$$= (1 + \beta_{dc}) I_{CBO} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{1 - \alpha_{dc}} I_{CBO}$$

$I_B = 0 mA$

Emitter current,

$$I_E = I_c + I_B$$

Using (21) we get

$$I_E = \beta_{dc} I_B + I_{CEO} + I_B$$

$$I_E = (1 + \beta_{dc}) I_B + I_{CEO} \quad (22)$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* BJT amplification (or) Transistor as an amplifier :

① current amplification (or) Transistor as a current amplifier :

→ The current amplifier (NPN transistor) is shown in fig (25).

→ A small change (increase or decrease) in base current (ΔI_B) produces a large change (increase or decrease) in collector current (ΔI_C) & a large emitter current change (increase or decrease) (ΔI_E) [shown in fig (26) (a) & (b)]

→ The common emitter current gain is the ratio of change in collector current (ΔI_C) (output current) to the change in base current (ΔI_B) (input current).

It is denoted by β_{ac} or h_{fe}

$$\therefore \beta_{ac} = \frac{\Delta I_C}{\Delta I_B}$$

Where, $\Delta I_C \rightarrow$ AC collector current, denoted by I_c
 $\Delta I_B \rightarrow$ AC base current, denoted by I_b

$$\therefore \beta_{ac} = \frac{I_c}{I_b}$$

Ex: If $I_b = \pm 1 \mu A$ (Assume $\beta = 100$), then,

$$I_c = \beta_{ac} I_b = 100 \times \pm 1 \mu A = \pm 0.1 \text{ mA}$$

\therefore A small change in the base current, produces a large change in collector current.

Hence transistor acts as current amplifier.

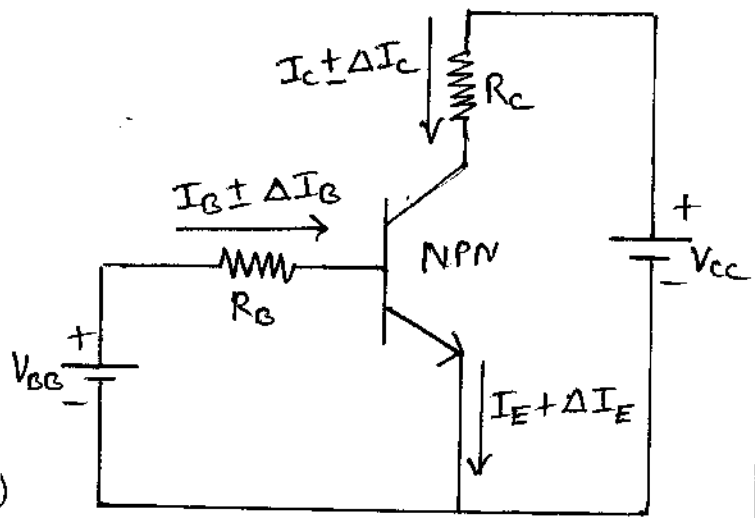


Fig (25) : current amplifier

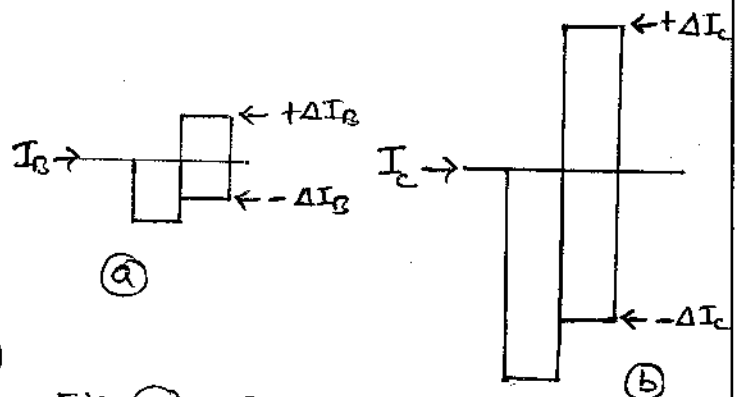


Fig (26) : Base & Collector currents

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

② Voltage amplification ⑤ Transistor as a voltage amplifier:

→ The voltage amplifier (NPN transistor) is shown in fig 27.

→ The dc voltage $V_{BE} = 0.7V$ forward biases the base-emitter junction.

→ An AC voltage source (V_i) in series with V_{BE} provides a $\pm 20mV$ input voltage variation.

→ Let the transistor is connected to a $V_{CC} = 20V$ dc voltage source via $R_C = 12k\Omega$ resistor & let $\beta_{ac} = 50$

→ The V_{BE} vs I_B characteristics is shown in fig 28.

→ Case (i): When $V_i = 0V$, $V_{BE} = 0.7V$

From the characteristics,

$$I_B = 20\mu A$$

Collector current,

$$I_C = \beta_{ac} I_B = 50 \times 20 \times 10^{-6} = 1\mu A$$

Collector voltage, (Applying KVL to loop containing V_{CC} , R_C & V_C)

$$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 20V - 1 \times 10^{-3} \times 12 \times 10^3 = \underline{\underline{8V}}$$

- Case (ii): When $V_i = \pm 20mV$

From the characteristics, change in base current,

$$\Delta I_B = \pm 5\mu A$$

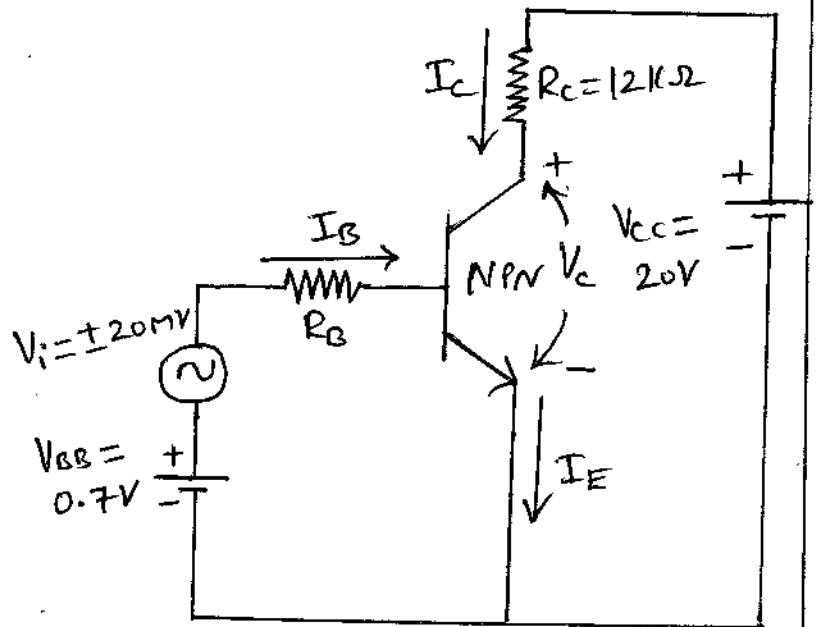


Fig (27): Voltage amplifier

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

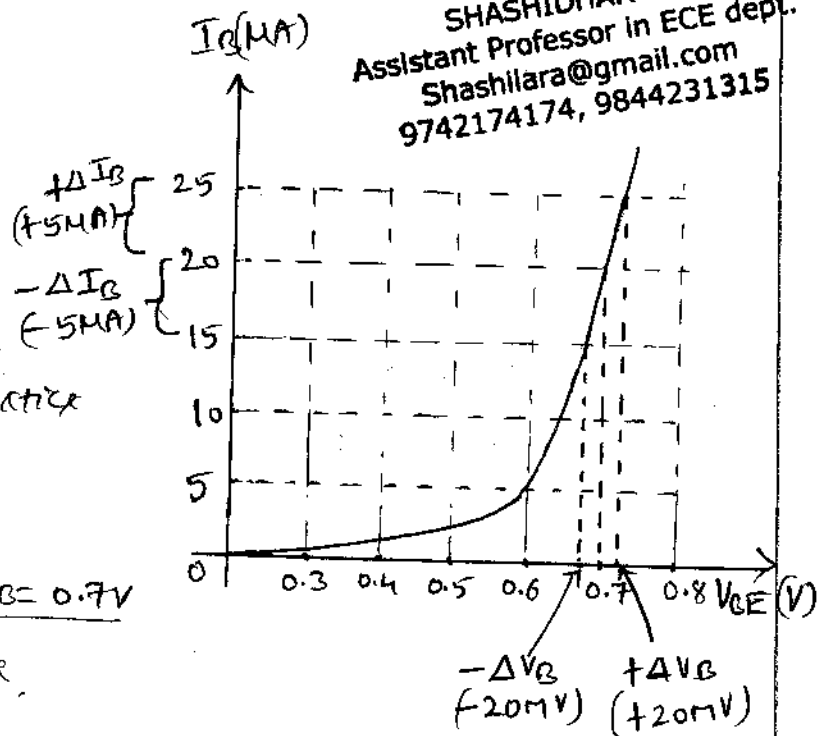


Fig (28): V_{BE} vs I_B Characteristics

Change (Variation) in collector current,

$$\Delta I_c = \beta_{dc} I_B = 50 (\pm 5 \mu A) = \pm 250 \mu A$$

Change (Variation) in collector voltage,

$$\Delta V_c = \Delta I_c \times R_c = \pm 250 \mu A \times 12 \text{ k}\Omega = \pm 3 \text{ V}$$

→ Since the output voltage ($\Delta V_c = \pm 3 \text{ V}$) is greater than the input voltage ($\Delta V_B = \pm 20 \text{ mV}$), the transistor circuit is voltage amplifier.

→ Voltage gain (A_v) is the ratio of the output voltage to the input voltage.

$$i.e. A_v = \frac{\Delta V_c}{\Delta V_B} = \frac{\pm 3 \text{ V}}{\pm 20 \text{ mV}} = 150$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* Transistor characteristics (a) characteristics of transistor

The important characteristics of transistor are

- (a) Input characteristics
- (b) Output characteristics
- (c) Current gain characteristics.

(a) Input characteristics: It is a plot of input current as a function of input voltage, keeping the output voltage constant.

(b) Output characteristics: It is a plot of output current vs output voltage at constant input current.

(c) Current gain characteristics (a) Forward transfer characteristics: It is a plot of output current vs input current at constant output voltage.

(1) Common base configuration:

Fig (29) shows common base PNP transistor.

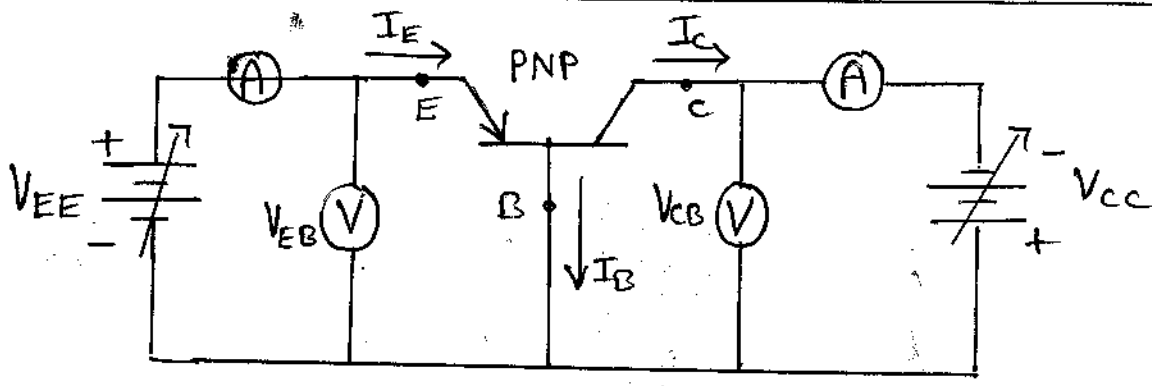


Fig (29): Common base PNP transistor

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

→ Input Characteristics : (Fig 30)

● It is a plot of input current (I_E) vs input voltage (V_{EB}) at constant output voltage (V_{CB}).

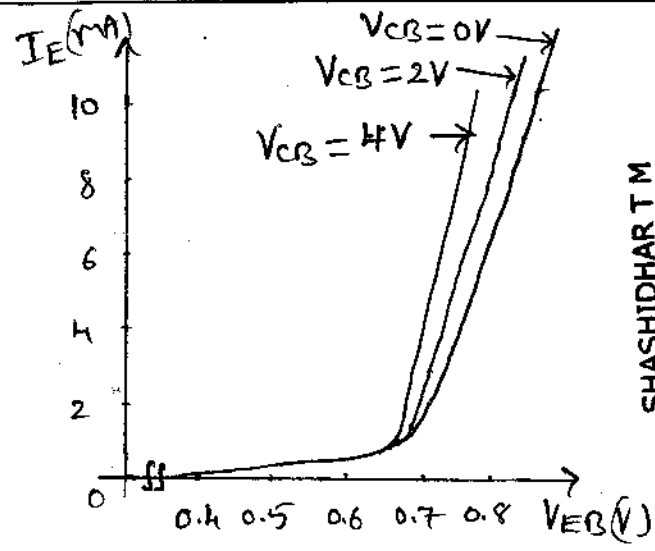
● Procedure :

- ① Keeping V_{CB} constant at particular value, increase V_{EB} in small suitable steps & note down the corresponding values of I_E .
- ② The above step is repeated for different output voltage (V_{CB}) values
- ③ A graph of I_E along y-axis & V_{EB} along x-axis for each value of V_{CB} is plotted.

● Observation :

- ① Below threshold voltage ② offset voltage ③ cut-in voltage ④ knee voltage V_{in} , I_E is negligibly small ($V_{in} \approx 0.3V$ for Ge & $0.7V$ for Si)
- ② Beyond V_{in} , for a fixed V_{CB} voltage, the I_E increases rapidly with a small increase in V_{EB}
- ③ As V_{CB} is increased, the curves shift upwards.
- ④ AC input resistance.

$$R_i = \frac{\Delta V_{EB}}{\Delta I_E} \Big|_{V_{CB} = \text{constant}} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{It is very low} \\ \text{typically } 50\Omega \end{array} \right)$$



SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

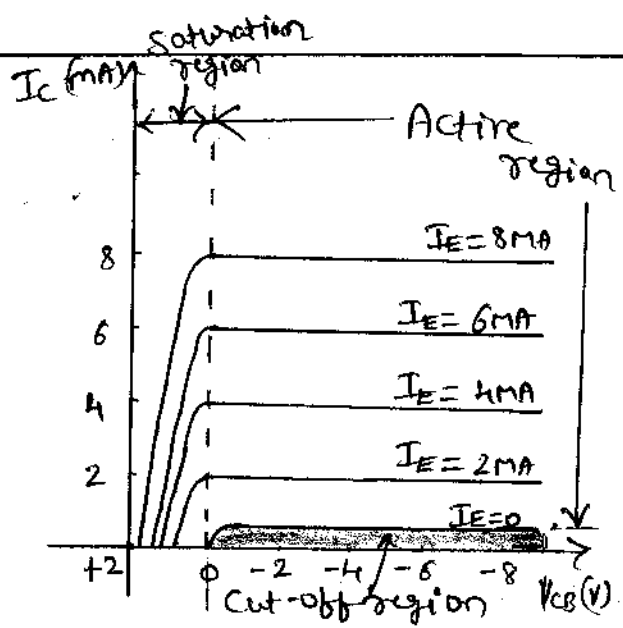


Fig (20): Input characteristics

Fig (31): Output characteristics

→ Output characteristics (Fig 31)

- It is a plot of output current (I_C) vs output voltage (V_{CB}) at constant input current (I_E).
- Procedure:
 - ① Keeping I_E constant at particular value, increase V_{CB} in suitable steps & note down (record) the corresponding value of I_C
 - ② The above step is repeated for different input current values (I_E)
 - ③ A graph of V_{CB} along X-axis & I_C along Y-axis for each value of I_E is plotted.

• Observations:

① The output characteristics has three important regions namely Saturation region, active region & cut-off region.

Saturation region

- ⊙ It is the region to the left of the vertical dashed line
- ⊙ In this region, both emitter-base & collector-base

Junctions are forward biased

Ⓔ In this region, a small change in V_{CB} results in a large value of current I_c .

Active Region

Ⓐ It is the region between the vertical dashed line & the horizontal axis.

Ⓑ In this region, emitter-base junction is forward biased & collector-base junction is reverse biased.

Ⓒ In this region, the collector current is constant and is equal to the emitter current.

Cut-off region

Ⓐ It is the region along the horizontal axis as shown by a shaded region.

Ⓑ In this region, both emitter-base & collector-base junctions are reverse biased.

Ⓒ It corresponds to the curve marked $I_E = 0$

Ⓓ I_c flows even when the V_{CB} is ≥ 0 .

Ⓔ A small collector current (Leakage current ' I_{CBO} ') flows even when $I_E = 0$

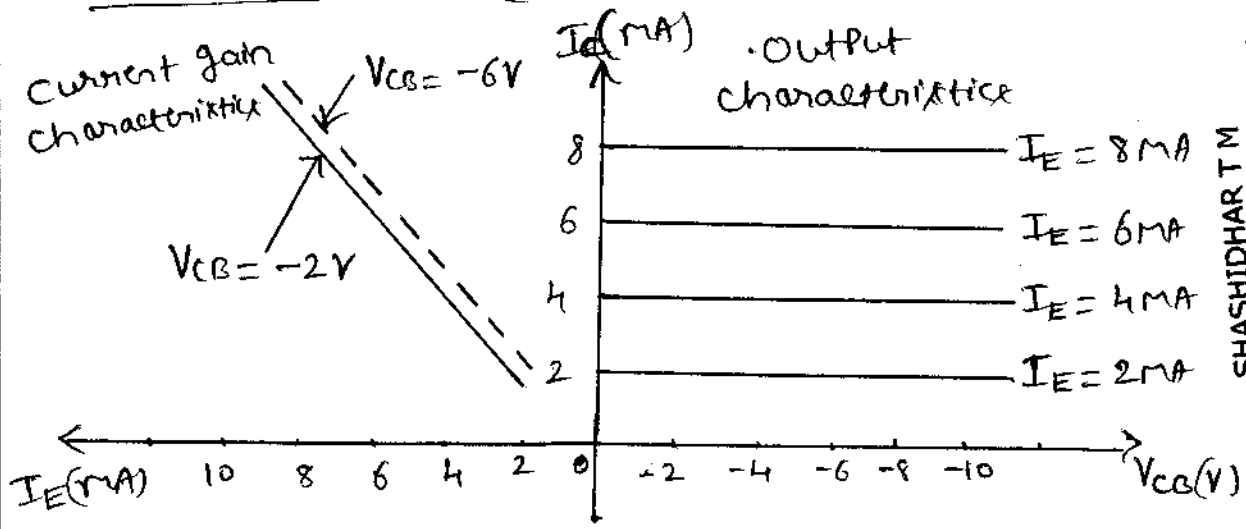
Ⓕ I_c is practically independent of V_{CB} in the active region. However, if V_{CB} is increased beyond a certain large value, the collector current increases rapidly due to avalanche breakdown (not shown in fig) & the transistor action is lost.

Ⓖ AC output resistance.

$$R_o = \frac{\Delta V_{CB}}{\Delta I_c} \Big|_{I_E = \text{constant}} \left(\text{It is very high \& typically about } 500 \text{ k}\Omega \right)$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

→ Current gain characteristic (Forward transfer characteristic) (Fig 32)



SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Fig 32: Current gain characteristic

- It is a plot of output current (I_C) versus input current (I_E) at constant output voltage (V_{CB})
- Procedure:
 - ① Keeping V_{CB} constant at particular value, I_C is measured for various levels of I_E
 - ② A graph of I_C vs I_E is plotted.

② Common Emitter Configuration:

Fig 33 Shows Common Emitter PNP transistor.

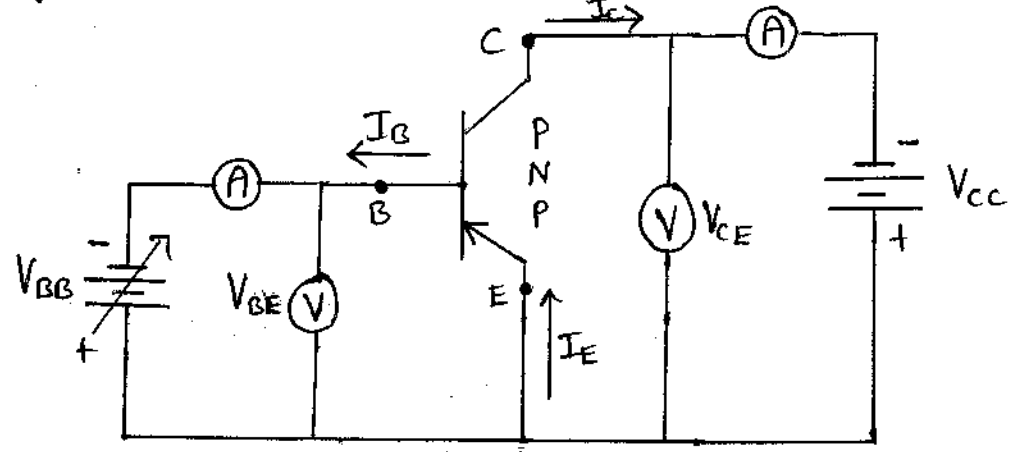


Fig 33: Common Emitter PNP transistor

→ Input Characteristics : (Fig 34)

• It is a plot of input current (I_B) vs input voltage (V_{BE}) at constant output voltage (V_{CE}).

• Procedure:

- ① Keeping V_{CE} constant at particular value, increase V_{BE} in small suitable steps & notedown the corresponding values of I_B .
- ② The above step is repeated for different output voltage (V_{CE}) values.
- ③ A graph of I_B along y-axis & V_{BE} along x-axis for each value of V_{CE} is plotted.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

• Observations:

- ① Below threshold voltage @ Knee voltage ' V_n ', I_B is negligibly small.
- ② Beyond V_n , for a fixed V_{CE} voltage, the I_B increases rapidly with a small increase in V_{BE} .
- ③ As V_{CE} is increased, the curves shift downwards.
- ④ AC input resistance.

$$R_i = \frac{\Delta V_{BE}}{\Delta I_B} \quad | \quad V_{CE} = \text{Constant}$$

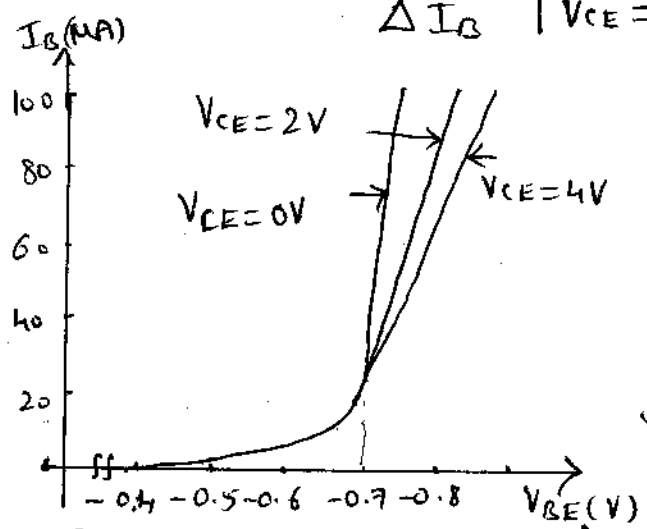


Fig 34: Input characteristics

(It is low & typically ranges from 600 Ω to 400 Ω)

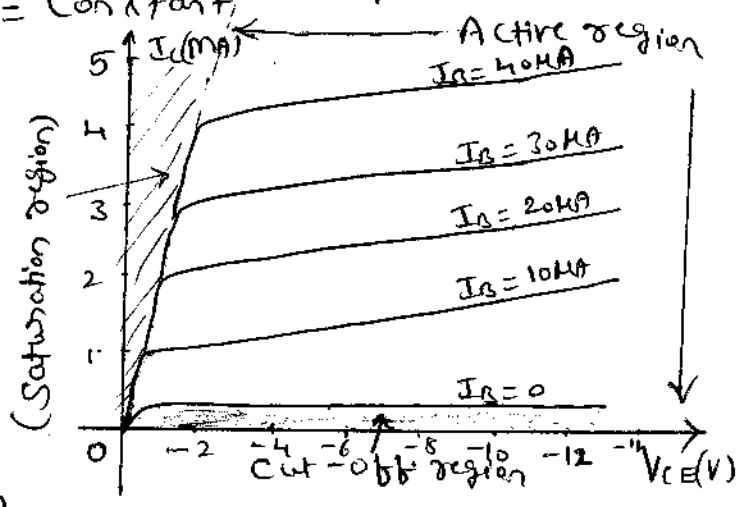


Fig 35: Output characteristics

→ Output Characteristics (Fig 35)

• It is a plot of output current (I_c) vs output voltage (V_{CE}) at constant input current (I_B).

• Procedure:

- ① Keeping I_B constant at particular value, increase (V_{CE}) in suitable steps & note down the corresponding values of I_c .
- ② The above step is repeated for different input current values (I_B).
- ③ A graph of V_{CE} along x-axis & I_c along y-axis for each value of I_B is plotted.

• Observations:

- ① The output characteristics has three important regions namely saturation region, active region & cut-off region.

Saturation region:

- ① It is the region shown by the shaded area
- ② In this region, both base-emitter & collector-emitter junctions are forward biased.
- ③ In this region, a small change in V_{CE} results in a large value of current I_c .

Active region

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

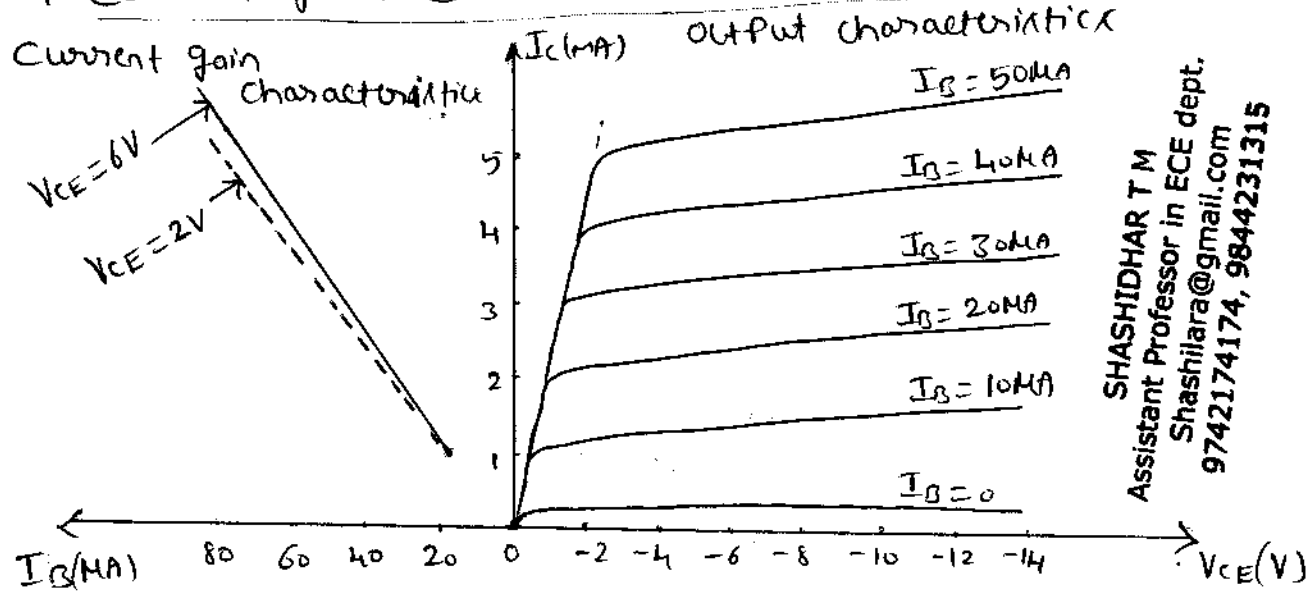
- ① It is the region between the saturation & cut-off region.
- ② In this region, base-emitter junction is forward biased & collector-emitter junction is reverse biased.
- ③ In this region, when V_{CE} is increased further, I_c increases slightly.

Cut-off region

- ① It is the region along the horizontal axis as shown by a shaded region (Corresponds to Curve marked $I_B=0$)
- ② In this region, both base-emitter & collector-emitter junctions are reverse biased.
- ③ I_C increases rapidly to a saturation value, when V_{CE} is increased above zero. (depending upon the value of I_B)
- ④ A small collector current (leakage current I_{CO}) flows even when $I_B=0$.
- ⑤ If V_{CE} is increased beyond a certain value, the I_C increases rapidly due to avalanche breakdown (not shown in fig) & the transistor action is lost.
- ⑥ AC output resistance.

$$R_o = \frac{\Delta V_{CE}}{\Delta I_C} \Big|_{I_B = \text{constant}} \quad \left(\text{It is high \& typically ranges from } 10\text{K}\Omega \text{ to } 50\text{K}\Omega \right)$$

→ Current gain ⑥ Forward transfer characteristics (Fig 36)



SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Fig 36: Current gain characteristics

- It is a plot of output current (I_C) versus input current (I_B) at constant output voltage (V_{CE}).

• Procedure

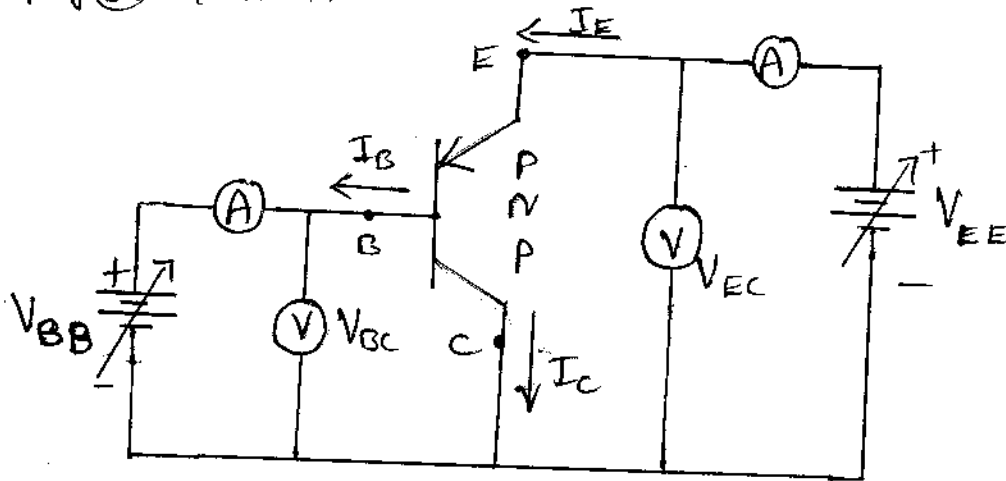
① Keeping V_{CE} constant at particular value, I_c is measured for various levels of I_B .

② A graph of I_c vs I_B is plotted

• Current gain characteristics can be obtained & experimentally (Fig 33) or derived from the output characteristics (Fig 36)

③ Common Collector Configuration:

Fig 37 shows Common Collector PNP transistor



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig 37: Common Collector PNP transistor

→ Input Characteristics (Fig 39)

• It is a plot of input current (I_B) vs input voltage (V_{BC}) at constant output voltage (V_{EC})

• Procedure:

① Keeping V_{EC} constant at particular value, increase V_{BC} in small suitable steps & note down the corresponding value of I_B .

② The above step is repeated for different output voltage values (V_{EC})

③ A graph of I_B along y-axis & V_{BC} along x-axis

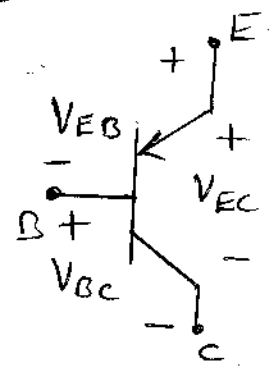
for each value of V_{EC} it is Plotted.

• Observations:

① Applying KVL around the transistor,
 (Fig 37) or Fig(31)

$$V_{EC} - V_{EB} - V_{BC} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_{EB} = V_{EC} - V_{BC}}$$



Fig(38): Common collector
 Ckt

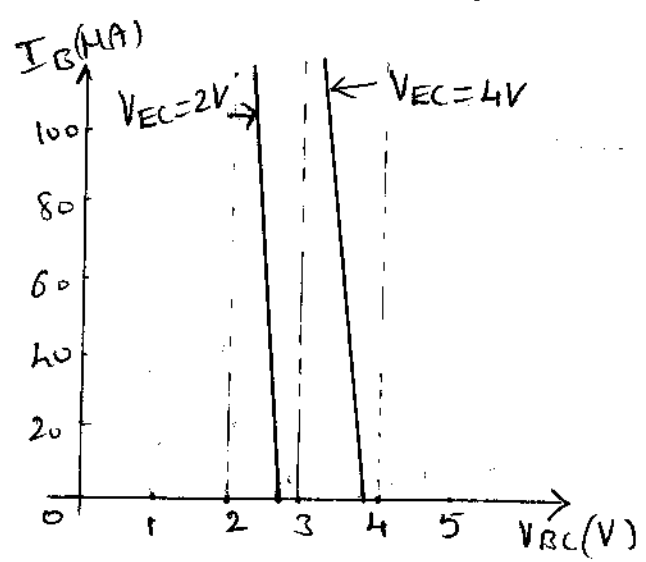
② Increasing V_{BC} with V_{EC} held constant reduces the V_{EB} & thus reduces I_B . This explains the slope of the CC input characteristics.

③ As V_{EC} is increased, the curves shift rightward.

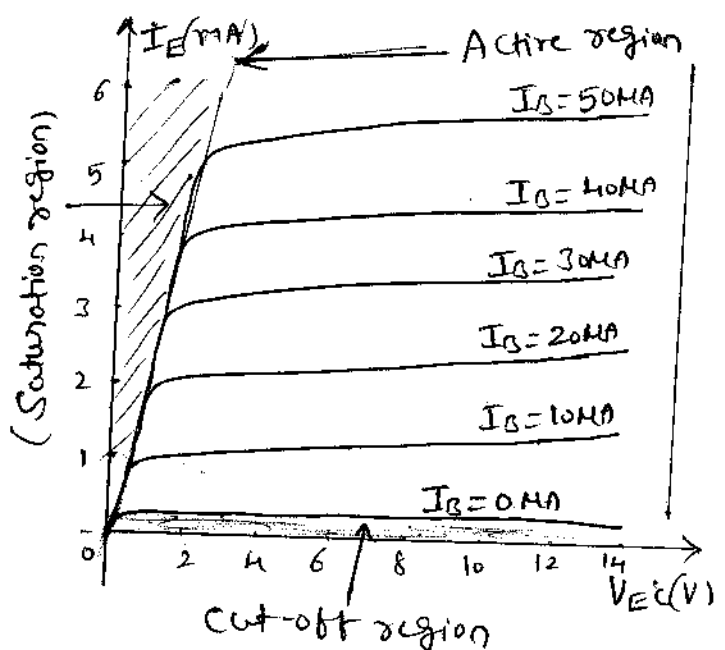
④ AC input resistance.

$$R_i = \frac{\Delta V_{BC}}{\Delta I_B} \Big|_{V_{EC} = \text{Constant}}$$

(It is very high R_i about 750K Ω)



Fig(39): Input characteristics



Fig(40): Output characteristics

→ Output Characteristics (Fig40)

• It is a Plot of Output current (I_E) vs Output Voltage (V_{EC}) at constant input current (I_B).

• Procedure:

- ① Keeping I_B constant at Particular Value, increase (V_{EC}) in Suitable steps & note down the Corresponding Value of I_E
- ② The above step is repeated for different Input current Values I_B .
- ③ A graph of V_{EC} along x-axis & I_E along y-axis for each Value of I_B is Plotted.

• Observations:

- ① The output characteristics has three important regions namely saturation, active & cut-off region.

Saturation region

- ① It is the region shown by the shaded area.
- ② In this region, both base-collector & emitter-collector junctions are forward biased.
- ③ In this region, a small change in V_{EC} results in a large value of current I_E .

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Active region

- ① It is the region between the saturation & cut-off region.
- ② In this region, base-collector junction is forward biased & emitter-collector junction is reverse biased.
- ③ In this region, when V_{EC} is increased further, I_E increases slightly

Cut-off region

- ① It is the region along the horizontal axis as shown by a shaded area (corresponds to curve marked $I_B = 0$).

⑥ In this region, both base-collector & emitter-collector junctions are reverse biased.

② I_E increases rapidly to a saturation value, when V_{EC} is increased above zero (depending upon the value of I_B)

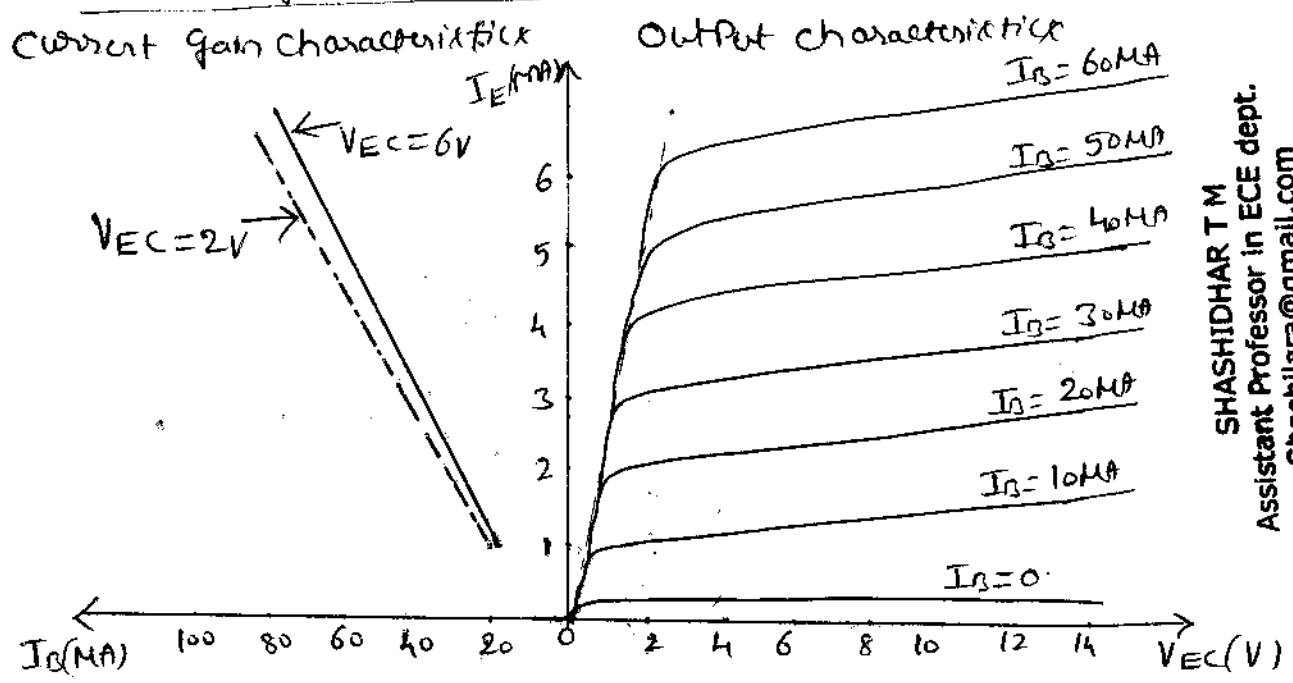
③ A small collector current (Leakage current I_{C0}) flows even when $I_B = 0$.

④ In V_{EC} is increased beyond a certain value, the I_C increases rapidly due to avalanche breakdown (not shown in fig) & the transistor action is lost.

⑤ AC output resistance

$$R_o = \frac{\Delta V_{EC}}{\Delta I_E} \Big|_{I_B = \text{constant}} \quad \left(\text{It is very low \& is about } 50 \Omega \right)$$

→ Current gain @ Forward transfer characteristics (Fig 41)



SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Fig(41): Current gain characteristics

- It is a Plot of Output current (I_E) versus Input current (I_B) at constant Output voltage (V_{EC})
- Current gain characteristics can be obtained experimentally (Fig 37) or derived from the output characteristics (Fig 41)

• Procedure

- ① Keeping V_{EC} constant at Particular value, I_E is measured for various levels of I_B .
- ② A graph of I_E vs I_B is plotted.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Note: ① In transistor, voltage breakdown occurs in two types namely

① Avalanche breakdown: It is a form of voltage breakdown that arises, when the electrons & holes in the semiconductor are accelerated enough by the applied voltage. The accelerated electrons & holes collide with the bound electrons and produce more free electrons. This causes even more collisions due to which current increases to a large value.

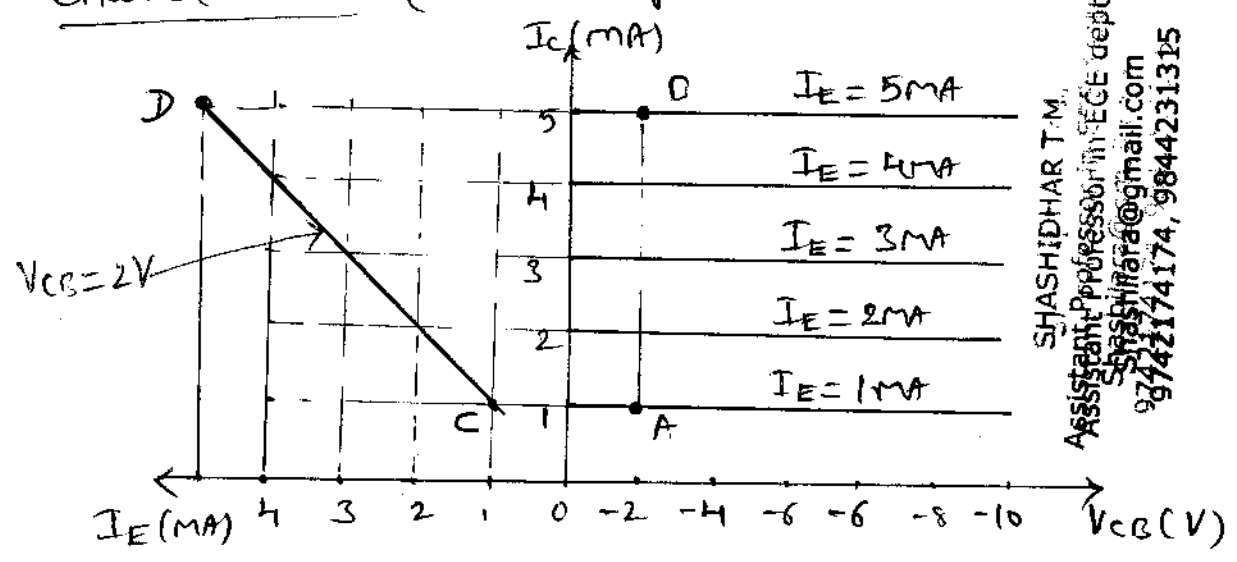
② Punch through or reach-through: It is a form of voltage breakdown that arises due to the increased width of collector & base junction depletion region with increased collector-base junction voltage. (This phenomenon of reducing the base width is called Early effect or base-width modulation). The depletion region at a junction is the region of fixed ions on both sides of the junction. As the applied voltage across the junction increases, the depletion region penetrates deeper into the base. Since the base is very thin, therefore it is possible that at moderate voltages, the depletion region will have spread completely across the base to reach the emitter-base junction. As a result of this, the current increases to a very large value.

② Common emitter circuit is most efficient

Main reasons are

- ① High current gain: In CE connection, $I_c = \beta_{ac} I_B$ \ominus
 $I_c = \beta_{dc} I_B + I_{CBO}$. As β_{dc} is very large, the output current I_c is much more than I_B .
 \therefore current gain in CE arrangement is very high (20 to 500)
- ② High Voltage & Power gain: Due to high current gain, CE ckt has the highest Voltage & Power gain;
- ③ Moderate output to input impedance ratio: In CE ckt the ratio of output impedance to input impedance is small (about 20). So it is ideal one for coupling between various transistor stages. [In CB & CC ckt this ratio is very large]

③ Deriving current gain characteristics from output characteristics (Considering CB configuration)



SHASHIDHAR T.M.
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Let $V_{CB} = -2\text{V}$

- STEP 1: Draw a vertical line through given V_{CB} value.
- STEP 2: Line intersects the characteristics at points A & B (Note down I_E & I_C) (Here $I_E \approx I_C$)
- STEP 3: Plot points C & D for the output characteristics

at the corresponding levels of I_C & I_E .

STEP 4: Draw the characteristic through points C & D.

4) Advantages, Disadvantages & Applications of Transistors

Advantages:

- They are mechanically strong
- Much smaller
- More compact
- Light weight
- Practically unlimited life (Last for many years)
- No heater requirement
- Transistors along with resistors and diodes can be integrated to produce ICs
- No heater loss
- Low operating voltages
- No warm-up period
- Less power absorbed by the device itself
- High voltage gain

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Disadvantages:

- Drive circuit of BJT is complex
- Storage charge in base reduces switching frequencies
- Cannot be used in high power applications
- Lower input impedance
- Temperature dependence
- Inherent variation of parameters (β_{dc} for 148 transistors may vary between 100 & 600)

Applications:

- Switched Mode Power Supplies (SMPS)
- DC to DC converter (Choppers)
- Bridge inverters
- Power factor correction techniques
- Amplifiers
- Switches
- Impedance matching

5) Comparison of CB, CE & CC Configurations

Sl no.	Characteristic	CB	CE	CC
1)	Input resistance	Very low (50Ω)	Low (600Ω)	Very high ($750k\Omega$)
2)	Output resistance	Very high ($500k\Omega$)	High ($10k\Omega$)	Low (50Ω)
3)	Current gain	Less than unity	Greater than unity	Greater than unity
4)	Voltage gain	Medium (about 10)	Medium (about 50)	Low (< 1)
5)	Input current	I_E	I_B	I_B
6)	Output current	I_C	I_C	I_E
7)	Input terminals	E & B	B & E	B & C
8)	Output terminals	C & B	C & E	E & C
9)	Current amplification factor	$\alpha_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_E}$	$\beta_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_B}$	$\gamma_{dc} = \frac{I_E}{I_B}$
10)	Phase between input & output	In-Phase (0°)	Out-of-Phase (180°)	In-Phase (0°)
11)	Applications	For high frequency applications	For audio frequency applications	For impedance matching

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

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Problems

① In a common base connection, a certain transistor has an emitter current of 10mA & a collector current of 9.8mA. Calculate the value of the base current.

Sol: Given $I_E = 10\text{mA}$, $I_C = 9.8\text{mA}$, $I_B = ?$

We have, $I_E = I_C + I_B$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = I_E - I_C = 10 \times 10^{-3} - 9.8 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$I_B = 0.2\text{mA}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

② In a common-base connection, the emitter current is 6.28mA & the collector current is 6.20mA. Determine the common-base dc current gain.

Sol: Given $I_E = 6.28\text{mA}$, $I_C = 6.20\text{mA}$, $\alpha_{dc} = ?$

$$\text{We have, } \alpha_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_E} = \frac{6.20 \times 10^{-3}}{6.28 \times 10^{-3}} = 0.987$$

③ The common-base dc current gain of a transistor is 0.967. If the emitter current is 10mA, what is the value of base current?

Sol: Given $\alpha_{dc} = 0.967$, $I_E = 10\text{mA}$, $I_B = ?$

$$\text{We have, } I_C = \alpha_{dc} I_E \quad \left(\because \alpha_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_E} \right)$$

$$= 0.967 \times 10 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$I_C = 9.67\text{mA} //$$

Let $I_E = I_C + I_B$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = I_E - I_C = 10 \times 10^{-3} - 9.67 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\therefore I_B = 0.33\text{mA} //$$

4) (a) A transistor has an α of 0.975, What is the value of β (b) if $\beta = 200$, What is the value of α ?

Sol:

(a) Given $\alpha = 0.975, \beta = ?$

We have,

$$\beta = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}$$
$$= \frac{0.975}{1-0.975}$$

$$\beta = 39 //$$

(b) Given, $\beta = 200, \alpha = ?$

We have,

$$\alpha = \frac{\beta}{1+\beta}$$
$$= \frac{200}{200+1}$$

$$\alpha = 0.995 //$$

5) A transistor has a typical β of 100. If the collector current is 40mA, What is the emitter current?

Sol: Given $\beta = 100, I_c = 40mA, I_E = ?$

We have

$$I_B = \frac{I_c}{\beta} \quad (\because \beta = \frac{I_c}{I_B})$$
$$= \frac{40 \times 10^{-3}}{100}$$

$$I_B = 0.4mA @ 400 \mu A //$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Now, $I_E = I_B + I_c = 0.4 \times 10^{-3} + 40 \times 10^{-3} = 40.4mA$

6) A transistor has $\beta = 150$. Calculate the approximate collector & base currents, if the emitter current is 10mA

Sol: Given, $\beta = 150, I_E = 10mA, I_B = ?, I_c = ?$

We have

$$\alpha = \frac{\beta}{1+\beta} = \frac{150}{1+150} = 0.993 //$$

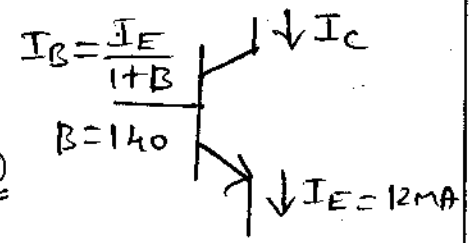
Also $\alpha = \frac{I_c}{I_E}$

$$\Rightarrow I_c = \alpha I_E = 0.993 \times 10 \times 10^{-3} = 9.93mA //$$

Now, $I_B = I_E - I_c = 10 \times 10^{-3} - 9.93 \times 10^{-3} = 0.07mA$ ($I_E = I_c + I_B$)

7 Determine the value of I_c & I_B for Ckt shown in fig 7

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



sol:

Given $I_E = 12 \text{ mA}$, $\beta = 140$, $I_B = \frac{I_E}{1 + \beta}$

$\therefore I_B = \frac{12 \times 10^{-3}}{1 + 140} = 0.085 \text{ mA}$

Now $I_c = I_E - I_B = 12 - 0.085 \times 10^{-3} = 11.915 \text{ mA}$

8 A transistor has $I_B = 105 \mu\text{A}$ & $I_c = 2.05 \text{ mA}$. Find
a) β b) α c) I_E d) If I_B changes by $27 \mu\text{A}$ & I_c changes by 0.65 mA , find the new value of β .

sol: Given $I_B = 105 \mu\text{A}$, $I_c = 2.05 \text{ mA}$. a) $\beta = ?$, b) $\alpha = ?$, c) $I_E = ?$

a) $I_B' = I_B + 27 \mu\text{A}$, $I_c' = I_c + 0.65 \text{ mA}$, $\beta' = ?$

b) $\beta = \frac{I_c}{I_B} = \frac{2.05 \times 10^{-3}}{105 \times 10^{-6}} = 19.5$

b) $\alpha = \frac{\beta}{1 + \beta} = \frac{19.5}{1 + 19.5} = 0.95$

c) $I_E = I_B + I_c = 105 \times 10^{-6} + 2.05 \times 10^{-3} = 2.155 \text{ mA}$

d) $I_B' = I_B + 27 \mu\text{A} = 105 \times 10^{-6} + 27 \times 10^{-6} = 132 \times 10^{-6} \text{ A}$

$I_c' = I_c + 0.65 \text{ mA} = 2.05 \times 10^{-3} + 0.65 \times 10^{-3} = 2.7 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A}$

New value of β , $\beta' = \frac{I_c'}{I_B'} = \frac{2.7 \times 10^{-3}}{132 \times 10^{-6}} = 20.5$

9 A common emitter transistor has $\alpha = 0.98$, $I_{c0} = 5 \text{ mA}$ & $I_B = 100 \mu\text{A}$. Find the values of collector & emitter currents

Sol: Given $\alpha = 0.98$, $I_{CO} = 5 \mu A$, $I_B = 100 \mu A$, $I_C = ?$, $I_E = ?$

$$I_C = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} I_B + \frac{I_{CO}}{1-\alpha}$$

$$= \frac{0.98}{1-0.98} 100 \times 10^{-6} + \frac{5 \times 10^{-6}}{1-0.98}$$

$$I_C = 5.15 \text{ mA}$$

We have $I_E = I_B + I_C = 100 \times 10^{-6} + 5.15 \times 10^{-3} = 5.25 \text{ mA}$

10 A transistor has a maximum power dissipation of 500 mW at 25°C. The derating factor is 2.28 mW/°C. What is the maximum power dissipation at 70°C?

Sol: Given $P_{D(max)} = 500 \times 10^{-3} \text{ W}$ at 25°C

$$DF = 2.28 \text{ mW/}^\circ\text{C}$$

$$P_{D(max)} = ?, \text{ at } T = 70^\circ\text{C}$$

We have $P_{D(max)}(70^\circ\text{C}) = P_{D(max)} - DF(T - 25)$

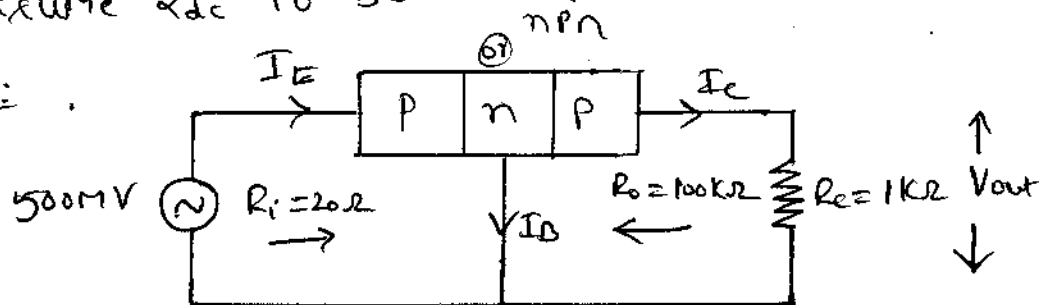
SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$= 500 \times 10^{-3} - 2.28 \times 10^{-3} (70 - 25)$$

$$= 0.397 \text{ W}$$

11 A common base transistor amplifier has an input resistance of 20Ω & output resistance of 100kΩ. The collector load is 1kΩ if a signal of 500mV is applied between emitter and base, find the voltage amplification. Assume α_{dc} to be nearly one.

Sol:



Input Current, $I_E = \frac{\text{Input Voltage}}{\text{input resistance}}$
 $= \frac{500 \times 10^{-3}}{20}$

$I_E = 25 \text{ mA}$

Now, $I_C = I_E$

$I_C = 25 \text{ mA}$

Output voltage,

$V_{out} = I_C R_C$
 $= 25 \times 10^{-3} \times 1 \times 10^3$
 $= 25 \text{ V} //$

$\therefore \alpha_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_E}$
 $1 = \frac{I_C}{I_E} \quad \therefore \alpha_{dc} \approx 1$ (given)
 $I_E = I_C$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Voltage amplification (Voltage gain) is,

$A_v = \frac{V_{out}}{i/p \text{ Vtg}} = \frac{25}{500 \times 10^{-3}} = 50 //$

12) In a Common base connection, the emitter current is 1mA. If the emitter circuit is open, the collector current is 50µA. Find the total collector current

Given $\alpha = 0.92$

Sol: Given, $I_E = 1 \text{ mA}$, $I_{CBO} = 50 \mu\text{A}$, $I_C = ?$, $\alpha = 0.92$

We have, $I_C = \alpha I_E + I_{CBO} = 0.92 \times 1 \times 10^{-3} + 50 \times 10^{-6}$

$I_C = 0.97 \text{ mA} //$

13) In a common base connection, $\alpha = 0.95$. The voltage drop across $2 \text{ k}\Omega$ resistance which is connected in the collector is 2V. Find the base current.

Sol: Fig 13 shows common base ckt.

Given, $\alpha = 0.95$, $R_C = 2 \text{ k}\Omega$, $V_C = 2 \text{ V}$, $I_B = ?$

* We have, $I_c = \frac{V_c}{R_c} = \frac{2V}{2k\Omega} = \underline{1mA}$

We have, $I_E = \frac{I_c}{\alpha} \left(\because \alpha = \frac{I_c}{I_E} \right)$
 $= \frac{1 \times 10^{-3}}{0.95}$
 $= 1.05mA$

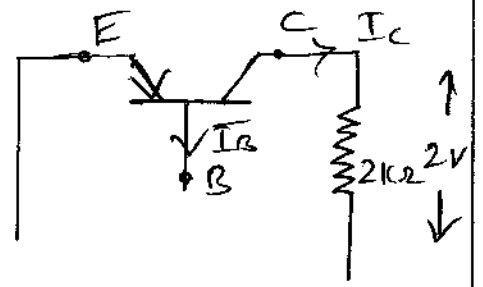


Fig (13)

Now $I_B = I_E - I_c = 1.05 \times 10^{-3} - 1 \times 10^{-3} = \underline{0.05mA}$

14) For the common base CRT shown in fig (14), determine I_c & V_{CB} . Assume Si transistor.

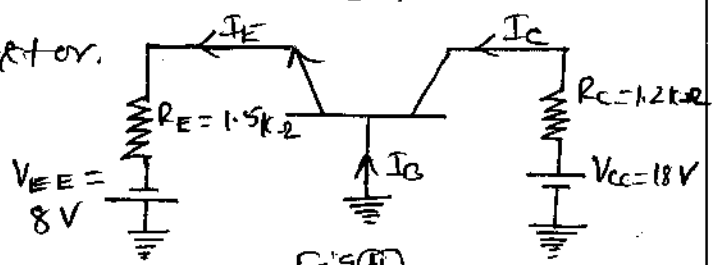


Fig (14)

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Sol: Given, $R_E = 1.5k\Omega$, $V_{EE} = 8V$, $R_C = 1.2k\Omega$, $V_{CC} = 18V$,
 $V_{BE} = 0.7V$ (Given Si transistor)

Applying KVL to emitter side loop,

$$V_{EE} = I_E R_E + V_{BE}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_E = \frac{V_{EE} - V_{BE}}{R_E} = \frac{8 - 0.7}{1.5 \times 10^3} = \underline{4.87mA}$$

Let $I_c \approx I_E = 4.87mA$

Applying KVL to collector-side loop,

$$V_{CC} = I_c R_C + V_{CB}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{CB} = V_{CC} - I_c R_C = 18 - 4.87 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.2 \times 10^3$$

$$V_{CB} = \underline{12.16V}$$

Actually

$$I_E = \frac{-V_{BE}}{-(-V_{EE})} = \frac{-V_{BE}}{V_{EE}}$$

15) A transistor has $\alpha = 0.9$. If $I_E = 10mA$, find β , η , I_B & I_c

Sol: Given $\alpha = 0.9$, $I_E = 10mA$,
 $\beta = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha} = \frac{0.9}{1 - 0.9} = \underline{9}$
 $\eta = 1 + \beta = \underline{10\%}$

$$I_C = \alpha I_E = 0.9 \times 10 \text{ mA} = 9 \text{ mA} //$$

$$I_B = I_E - I_C = 10 \times 10^{-3} - 9 \times 10^{-3} = 1 \text{ mA} //$$

Q6 Calculate α_{dc} & β_{dc} for the transistor, if $I_C = 1 \text{ mA}$, $I_B = 25 \mu\text{A}$. Determine the new base current to give $I_C = 5 \text{ mA}$.

Rot: Given $I_C = 1 \text{ mA}$, $I_B = 25 \mu\text{A}$,

$$\alpha_{dc} = ?, \beta_{dc} = ?$$

Let here, $\beta_{dc} = \frac{I_C}{I_B} = \frac{1 \times 10^{-3}}{25 \times 10^{-6}}$

$$\boxed{\beta_{dc} = 40} //$$

Now,

$$\alpha_{dc} = \frac{\beta_{dc}}{1 + \beta_{dc}} = \frac{40}{1 + 40}$$

$$\boxed{\alpha_{dc} = 0.975} //$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilata@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$I_B' = ?$$

$$I_C' = 5 \text{ mA}$$

We have

$$I_C' = \beta_{dc} I_B'$$

$$I_B' = \frac{I_C'}{\beta_{dc}}$$

$$= \frac{5 \times 10^{-3}}{40}$$

$$\boxed{I_B' = 0.125 \text{ mA} //$$

MODULE - 2 : BJT Biasing

①

Syllabus: BJT Biasing: DC load line & Bias Point, Base bias, voltage divider bias. Numerical examples as applicable

* Transistor biasing (or) Biasing the transistor:

The process of applying external dc voltage to a transistor is called transistor biasing or biasing the transistor

(or)
The process of applying external dc voltage to a transistor to operate it in the desired region is called transistor biasing

(or)
The process of applying external dc voltage to a transistor to establish the required dc currents and voltages so that it operates in the appropriate region of the characteristics is called transistor biasing

(or)
The proper flow of zero signal collector current & the maintenance of proper collector-emitter voltage during the passage of signal is known as transistor biasing

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com

9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① For transistor to be an amplifier: It must be operated in the active region of its characteristics (ie for CB configuration, base-emitter junction should be forward biased & collector-base junction should be reverse biased)

② For transistor to be a switch: It is operated in the cut-off region (open switch) and/or saturation region (closed switch).

3) The circuit which provides transistor biasing is known as biasing circuit.

4) The basic ^(Conditions for proper biasing of a transistor) conditions for faithful amplification

- i) Proper zero signal collector current.
- ii) Minimum proper base-emitter voltage (V_{BE}) at any instant. (0.3V for Ge & 0.7V for Si)
- iii) Minimum proper collector-emitter voltage (V_{CE}) at any instant. (0.5V for Ge & 1V for Si)

5) Need for biasing:

- i) To turn on the device
- ii) To set a fixed level of current & fixed voltage drop across the transistor junctions.
- iii) To operate transistor in the desired region (where it operates linearly & provides a constant voltage gain)

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

6) Inherent variations of transistor parameters:

In practice, the transistor parameters such as β , V_{BE} are not same for every transistor even of the same type. Ex: For BC147 (Silicon NPN transistor), β varies from 100 to 600 (for another transistor it may be 100, for the other it may be 600).

The inherent variations of transistor parameters may change the operating point, resulting in unfaithful amplification. Therefore, the biasing network (circuit) is designed such that it should be able to work with all transistors of one type. In other words, the operating point should be independent of transistor parameters variations.

⑦ Stabilization:

The process of making operating point independent of temperature changes & variations in transistor parameters is known as stabilization.

⑧ Need for Stabilization: & Factors affecting stability of Q-Point:

Stabilization of the operating point @ Q-Point is necessary due to the following reasons:

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

① Temperature dependence of I_c

The collector leakage current (I_{c0}) is greatly influenced (especially in Ge transistor) by temperature changes.

② Inherent variations of transistor parameters:

The values of β & V_{BE} are not same for any two transistors even of the same type. Also V_{BE} decreases with increase in temperature.

③ Thermal runaway:

The self-destruction of an unstabilized transistor is known as thermal runaway.

The collector leakage current I_{c0} is strongly dependent on temperature.

Higher stability factor for stability, means a better quality of transistor.

④ Stability factor:

The rate of change of collector current (I_c) w.r.t the reverse saturation current (I_{c0} @ I_{c0}) at constant β & I_B is called Stability factor (S)

ie
$$S = \frac{dI_c}{dI_{c0}} \text{ at constant } I_B \text{ \& } \beta \quad \text{---} (*)$$

* DC Load line and Bias Point :

DC Load line :

Defn: A straight line drawn on the transistor output characteristics is called DC load line for a transistor circuit. (1)

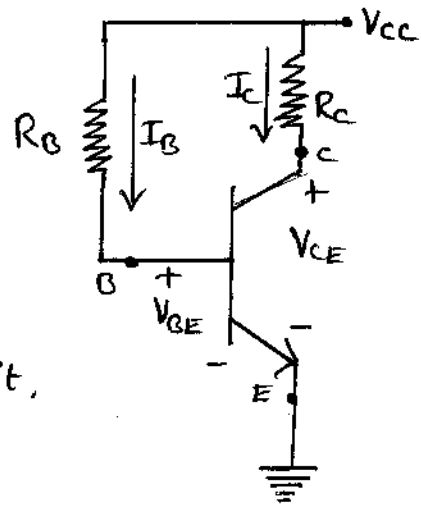
The Load line is a graph of collector current (I_c) versus collector-emitter voltage (V_{CE}), for a given value of collector resistance (R_c) and a given supply voltage (V_{CC}) [For a common emitter circuit]

(2) A straight line which shows all corresponding values of I_c and V_{CE} that can exist in a particular circuit is called DC load line [For CE circuit]

Analysis:

Consider a NPN CE transistor as shown in fig (1)

Here supply voltage (V_{CC}) forward biases the base-emitter junction & reverse biases the collector-emitter junction.



Applying KVL to the collector circuit,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Case (i) : Let $I_C = 0$

Eqn (1) becomes,

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Mark Point A at $A(V_{CE}, I_C) = A(V_{CC}, 0)$
(Transistor in cut-off)

Case (ii) : Let $V_{CE} = 0$

Eqn (1) becomes

$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Mark Point B at $B(V_{CE}, I_C) = B(0, \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C})$

Fig (1): NPN CE transistor

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

(Transistor in Saturation)

Now draw the Straight line through points A & B
(DC load line)

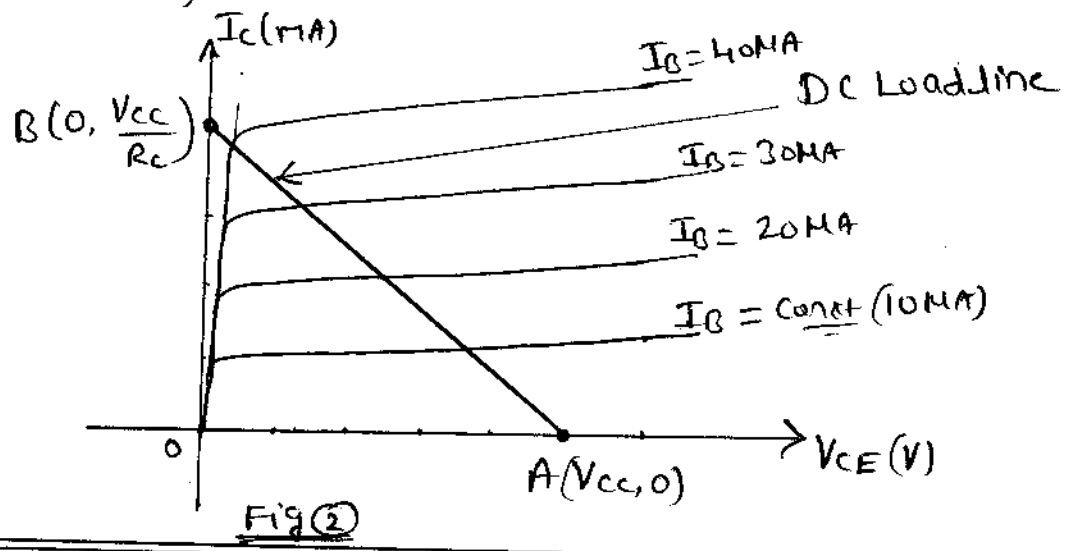


Fig 2

Note:

Consider eqn ①

$$V_{cc} - I_c R_c - V_{ce} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_c = \left(\frac{-1}{R_c}\right) V_{ce} + \left(\frac{V_{cc}}{R_c}\right) \text{--- ④}$$

Comparing ④ with $y = m x + c$,
We get
 $m = \frac{-1}{R_c}$ (Slope)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$\frac{V_{ce}}{V_{cc}} + \frac{I_c}{(V_{cc}/R_c)} = 1 \text{--- ⑤}$$

Comparing ⑤ with $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = 1$, we get
 $a = V_{cc}$, $b = V_{cc}/R_c$
(x-intercept) (y-intercept)

DC bias Point ⑥ Operating Point ⑦ Quiescent Point ⑧
Q-Point ⑨ Silent Point

Defn: The point at which the dc load line intersects with the output characteristics of the transistor & it defines the dc conditions in the circuit is called dc bias point.

⑩
The point which identifies the transistor collector

current & collector-emitter voltage when there is no input signal at the base terminal is called dc bias point.

A point on the DC load line which represents the zero signal values of V_{CE} (V_{CEQ}) & I_C (I_{CQ}) in a transistor is called dc operating point or Q-point.

Analysis:

Consider a npn CE transistor as shown in fig 3

STEP 1: Applying KVL to base loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0 \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

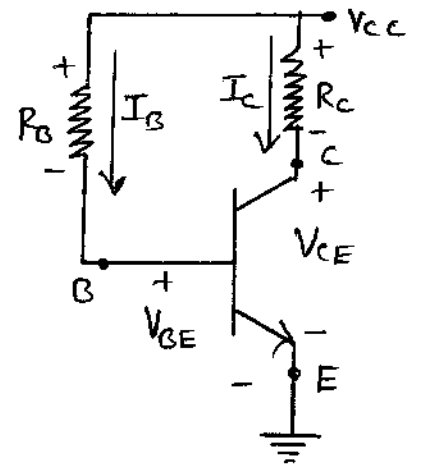


Fig 3: npn CE transistor

STEP 2:

We have $I_C = I_{CQ} = \beta I_B$ --- (8)

STEP 3:

Applying KVL to collector loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{CE} = V_{CEQ} = V_{CC} - I_{CQ} R_C \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

STEP 4:

Now mark Q point as $Q(V_{CEQ}, I_{CQ})$

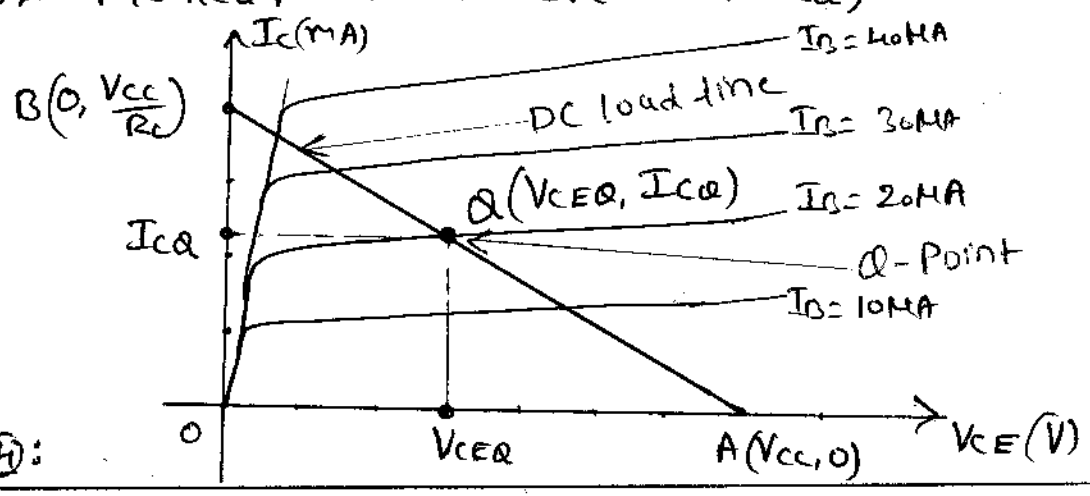


Fig 4:

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE Dept.
9742174174, 9844231315
Shashidhar@gmail.com

Note:

① Consider DC load line drawn on CE output characteristics as shown in fig 5

→ Here Q_1 is near cut-off region, Q_5 is near saturation region & Q_3 is in the middle of the active region.

→ Selection of Q-point depends on the application of the transistor.

② Variation of I_B, I_C & V_{CE} :

→ Here $A(V_{CE}, I_C) = A(20V, 0mA)$
 $B(V_{CE}, I_C) = B(0, 2mA)$

→ Let us choose Q-point as shown in fig 7.

Now from fig 7,

$I_B = 20\mu A$
 $I_C = 1mA$

$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$
 $= 20 - 1 \times 10^{-3} \times 10 \times 10^3$

$V_{CE} = 10V$

⇒ At $I_B = 20\mu A, Q(10V, 1mA)$

→ When I_B is increased from $20\mu A$ to $40\mu A$

I_C increases from $1mA$ to $1.95mA$ & V_{CE} decreases from $10V$ to $0.5V$

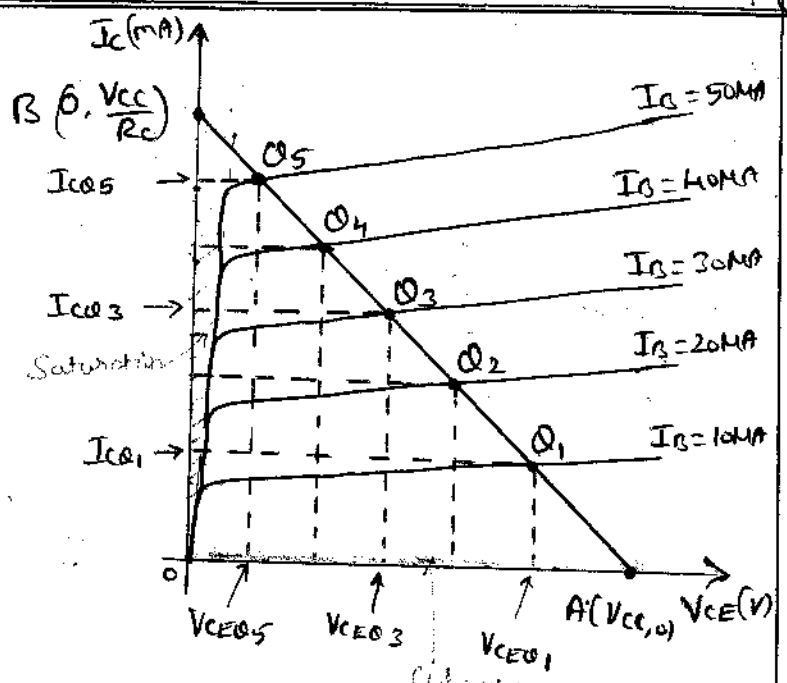


Fig 5: CE output characteristics

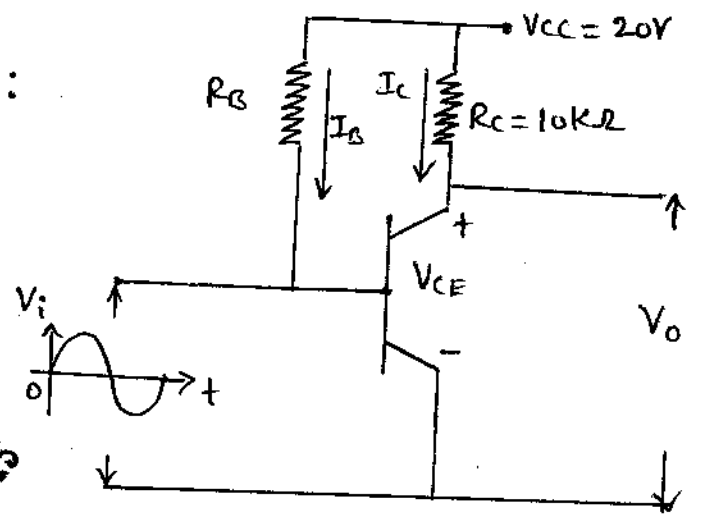


Fig 6: CE NPN transistor

SHASHIDHART M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

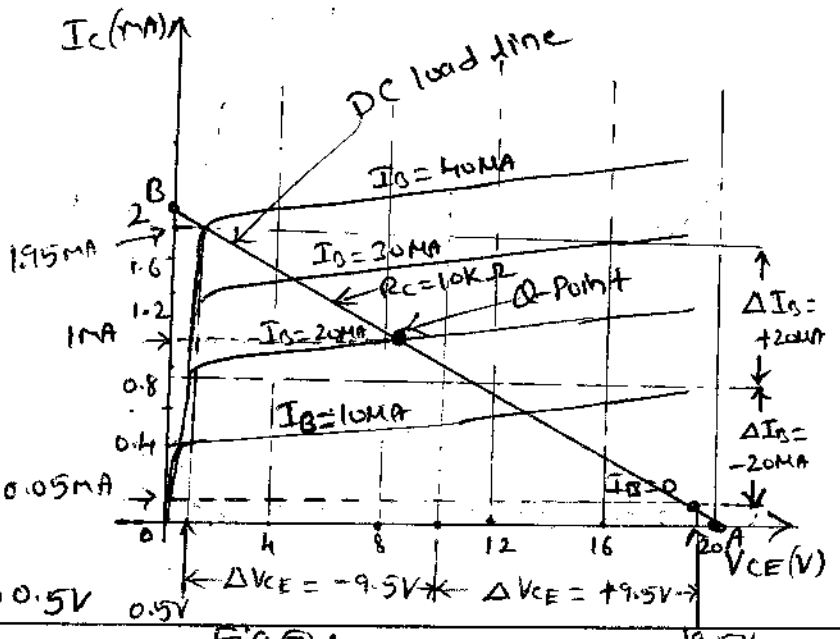


Fig 7

→ When I_B is decreased from $20\mu A$ to 0

I_C decreases from $1mA$ to $0.05mA$ &

V_{CE} increases from $10V$ to $19.5V$

∴ By varying input (V_i), I_B , I_C & V_{CE} can be varied

③ Selection of Q-Point: (For CE Configuration)

Based on the application of the transistor, it can be operated in any of the three regions such as,

- ① Saturation
- ② near Saturation region
- ③ Cut off region
- ④ near cut off region.
- ⑤ Active region
- ⑥ at the centre of the active region
- ⑦ at the centre of the load line.

Fig 8 shows the input signal applied to base terminal.

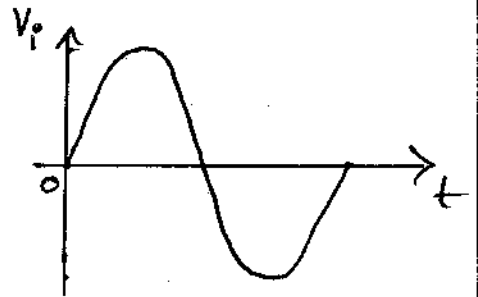
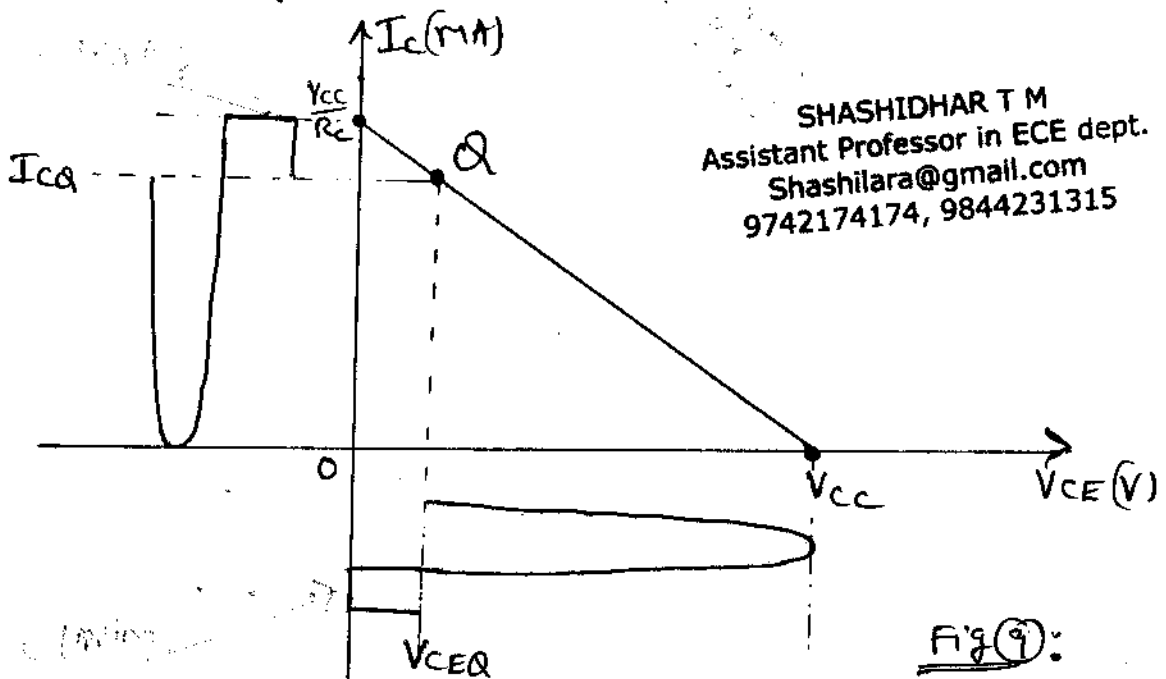


Fig 8: Input signal

① Near Saturation region (Fig 9):

If Q-Point is located near the Saturation region, the transistor is driven into Saturation. Therefore the negative peak of the output voltage (positive peak of the output current) is clipped off. Here we get a distorted output.

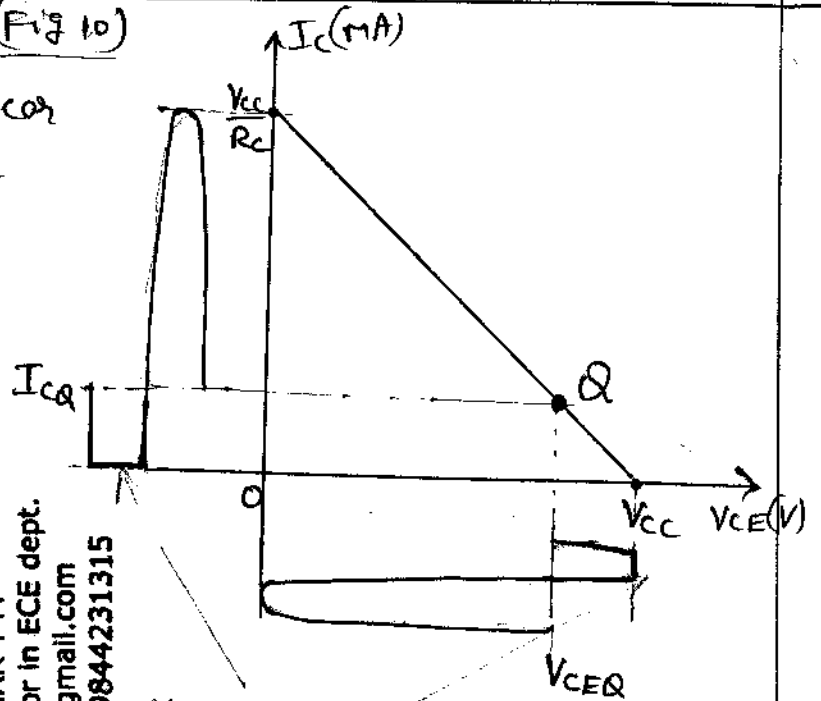


SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Fig 9:

(b) Near cut-off region (Fig 10)

If Q-point is located near the cut-off region, the transistor is driven into cut-off. Therefore the positive peak of the output voltage (negative peak of the output current) is clipped off. Here we get a distorted output.



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig 10

(c) At the centre of the active region (Fig 11)

If Q-point is located at the centre of the load line (active region), the transistor is driven into active region. Here we get an undistorted output.

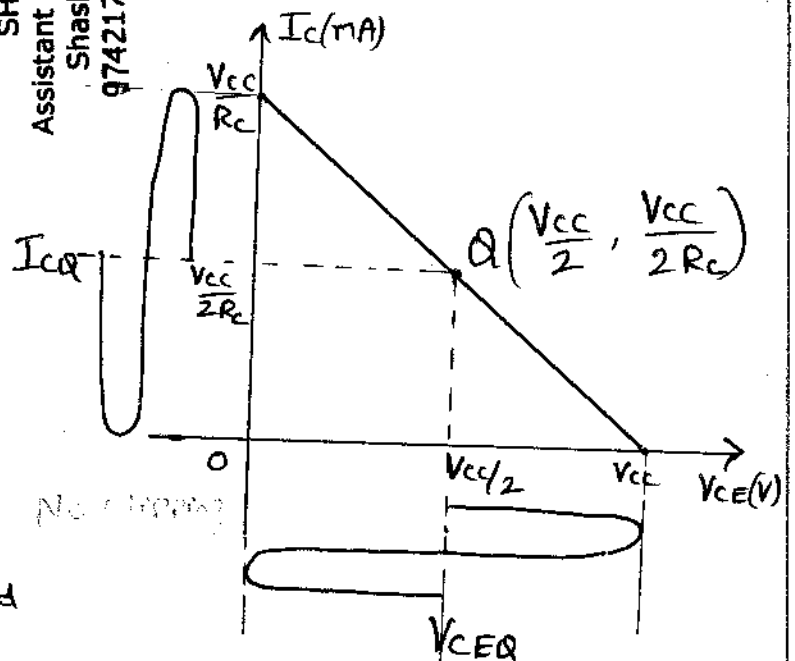


Fig 11

Conclusion:

For a maximum undistorted output, the transistor should be driven into active region [or Q-point must be located at the centre of the active region (load line)]

(4)

- For large-signal amplifiers, Q-point must be at the centre of the load line (output voltage swing = $\pm 10V$)
- For small-signal amplifiers, Q-point need not to be at the centre of the dc load line (output voltage swing not greater than $\pm 1V$)

5) Effect of Emitter resistor:

Consider a circuit that has a resistor R_E as shown in fig (12)

Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - V_{CE} - I_C R_E = 0 \quad (\because I_C \approx I_E) \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

Case (i) Put $V_{CE} = 0$

$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_E} \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

MARK at Point A $(V_{CE}, I_C) = (0, \frac{V_{CC}}{R_E})$

Case (ii) Put $I_C = 0$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

MARK at Point B $(V_{CE}, I_C) = (V_{CC}, 0)$

Draw a straight line through A $(0, \frac{V_{CC}}{R_E})$ & B $(V_{CC}, 0)$ to get dc load line (shown in fig 14)

Now consider a circuit that has collector & emitter resistors R_C & R_E as shown in fig (13).

Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} - I_C R_E = 0 \quad (\because I_C \approx I_E) \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

Case (i) Put $V_{CE} = 0$

$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C + R_E} \quad \text{--- (14)}$$

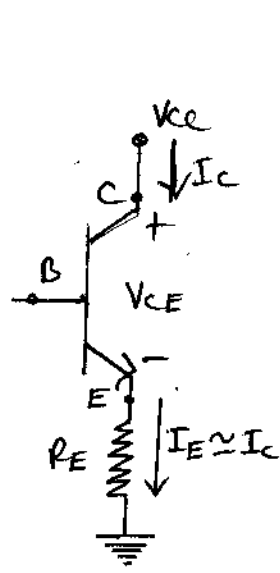
MARK at Point A $(0, \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C + R_E})$

Case (ii) Put $I_C = 0$

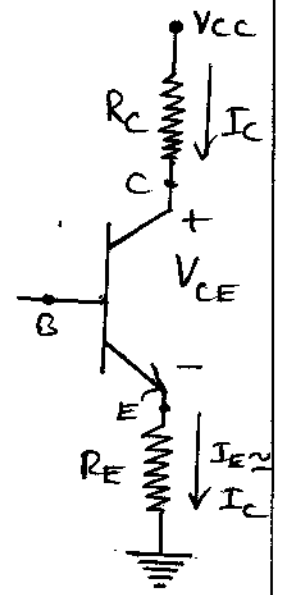
$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} \quad \text{--- (15)}$$

MARK at Point B $(V_{CC}, 0)$

Draw a straight line through A & B to get dc load line (fig 15)



$R_L(dc) = R_E$
Fig (12)



$R_L(dc) = R_C + R_E$
Fig (13)

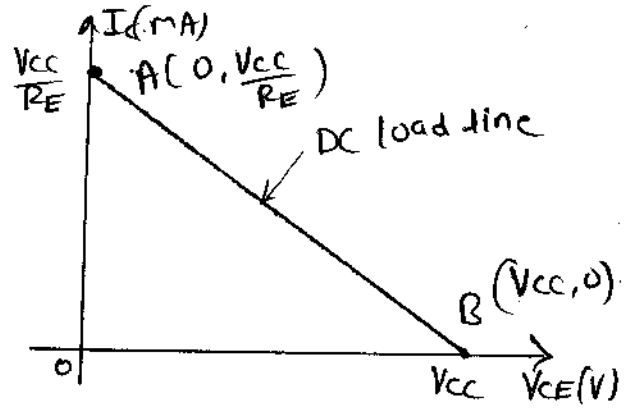


Fig (14):

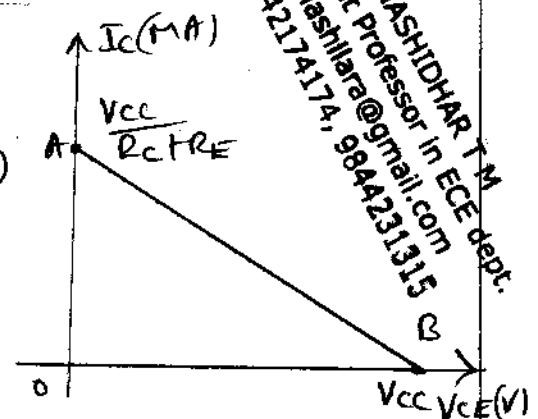


Fig (15):

SHASHIDHAR T.M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* Methods of transistor biasing:

The most commonly used methods for biasing the transistors are

- ① Base bias ② Fixed bias ③ Fixed current bias ④ Base resistor
- ⑤ Emitter bias ⑥ Emitter feedback bias ⑦ Base bias with emitter feedback.
- ⑧ Collector-to-base bias ⑨ Collector feedback bias ⑩ Base bias with collector feedback.
- ⑪ Voltage-divider bias ⑫ Self bias ⑬ universal bias ⑭ Emitter current bias.

① Base bias ② Fixed bias ③ Fixed current bias ④ Base Resistor

The circuit in which the base current is a constant quantity determined by supply voltage V_{CC} & base resistor R_B (constant quantity) is called Fixed bias

Fig (16) shows the base bias circuit.

Step ①:

APPLYING KVL to base-emitter circuit,

$$V_{CC} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{I_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B}} \text{ --- (16)}$$

Step ②:

We have,

$$\boxed{I_C = h_{FE} I_B} \text{ --- (17)}$$

Step ③:

APPLYING KVL to collector-emitter circuit,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C} \text{ --- (18)}$$

When V_{CC} , R_C , R_B & h_{FE} are known, the values of I_B , I_C & V_{CE} can be determined using (16), (17) & (18)

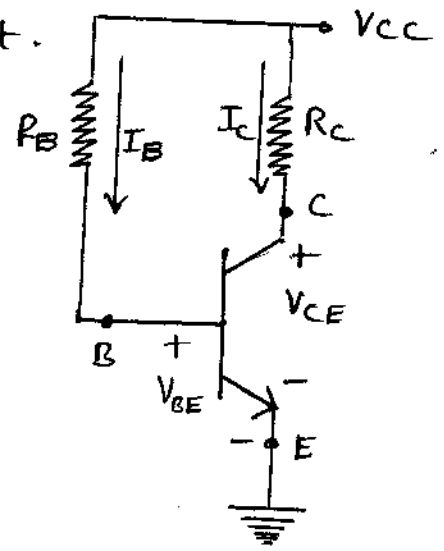


Fig (16): Base bias circuit

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① Effect of $h_{FE}(\text{max})$ & $h_{FE}(\text{min})$: Voltage divider.
When $h_{FE}(\beta)$ is known, the circuit bias conditions (I_B, I_C & V_{CE}) can be determined exactly.

In practice the precise (exact) value of h_{FE} is not known, therefore the maximum & minimum values of current gain (h_{FE}) can be obtained from the manufacturer's data sheet. Now $h_{FE}(\text{max})$ & $h_{FE}(\text{min})$ must be used to calculate the range of I_C & V_{CE} .

② Base bias using PNP transistor:

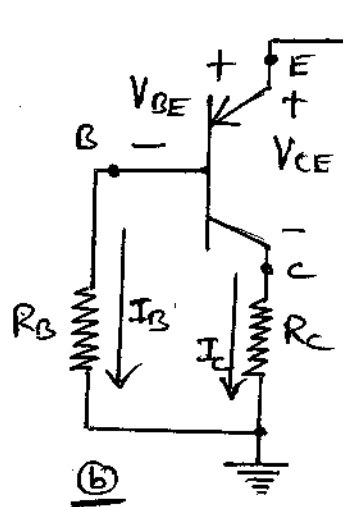
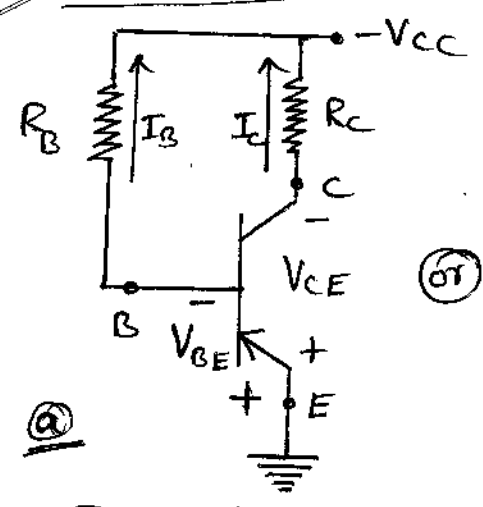


Fig (17): Base bias using a PNP transistor

Q-Point shift in the range of I_C & V_{CE} will be increased by 10% to 20%.

→ Voltage Polarities & current directions are reversed compared to nPn transistor.

→ EOs (16), (17) & (18) are used to analyze the circuit.

③ Design of base-bias circuit:

Finding the component values of biasing circuit is called design.

Base-circuit design can be done either in mathematical approach or characteristic approach.

Mathematical approach:

The values of $V_{CC}, V_{CE}, V_{BE}, I_C$ (or I_B) & h_{FE} will be given.

The design steps are as follows:

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Step 1: Calculate R_c using the relation

$$R_c = \frac{V_{cc} - V_{ce}}{I_{c1}} \quad \text{--- (19)}$$

Step 2: Calculate I_B (or I_c) using the relation,

$$I_B = \frac{I_c}{h_{FE}} \quad \text{or} \quad I_c = h_{FE} I_B$$

Step 3: Calculate R_B using the relation,

$$R_B = \frac{V_{cc} - V_{BE}}{I_B} \quad \text{--- (21)}$$

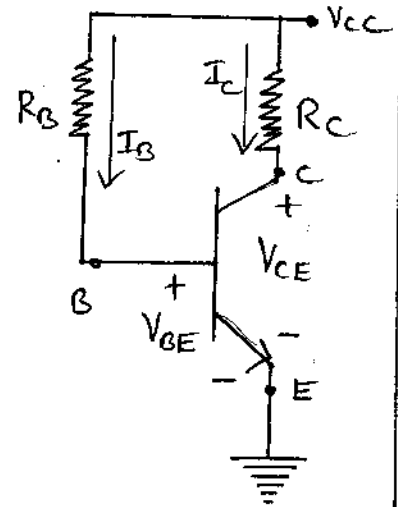


Fig (18): Base-bias circuit

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

4) DC load line & Q-point of Base-bias

Consider the base bias circuit as shown in fig (19)

Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{cc} - I_c R_c - V_{ce} = 0 \quad \text{--- (22)}$$

Put $I_c = 0$

$$V_{ce} = V_{cc} \quad \text{--- (23)}$$

Put $V_{ce} = 0$

$$I_c = \frac{V_{cc}}{R_c} \quad \text{--- (24)}$$

Point A ($V_{cc}, 0$)

Point B ($0, \frac{V_{cc}}{R_c}$)

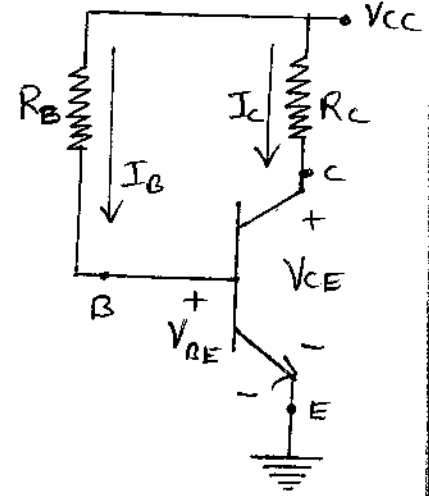


Fig (19): Base bias circuit

Applying KVL to base-emitter loop,

$$V_{cc} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0 \quad \text{--- (25)}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = I_{BQ} = \frac{V_{cc} - V_{BE}}{R_B} \quad \text{--- (26)}$$

We have, $I_c = I_{cQ} = \beta I_B$ --- (27)

From (22) $V_{ce} = V_{ceQ} = V_{cc} - I_{cQ} R_c$ --- (28)

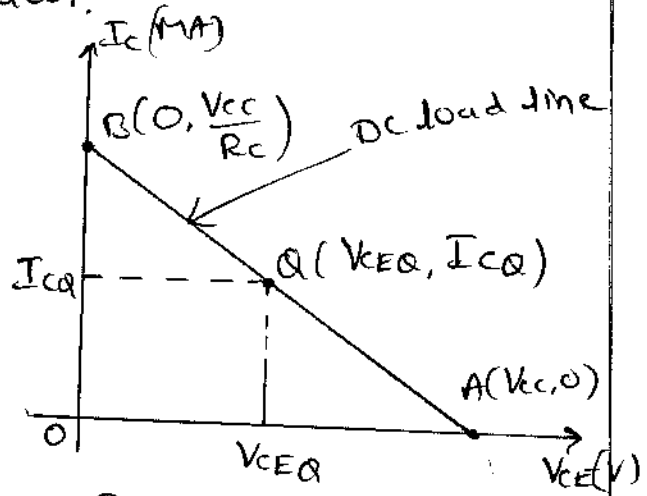


Fig (20):

5 Advantages, disadvantages & Applications of Base bias

Advantages @ Merits

- ① A very less number of components are required.
- ② operating point can be shifted easily anywhere in the active region by simply changing the base resistor (R_B)
- ③ There is no loading of the source by the biasing circuit since no resistor is employed across base-emitter junction.

Disadvantages @ Demerits @ drawbacks

- ① Poor Stabilization (operating point is unstable)
- ② The stability factor is very high ($S = \beta + 1$), hence prone to thermal runaway.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Applications @ Usage

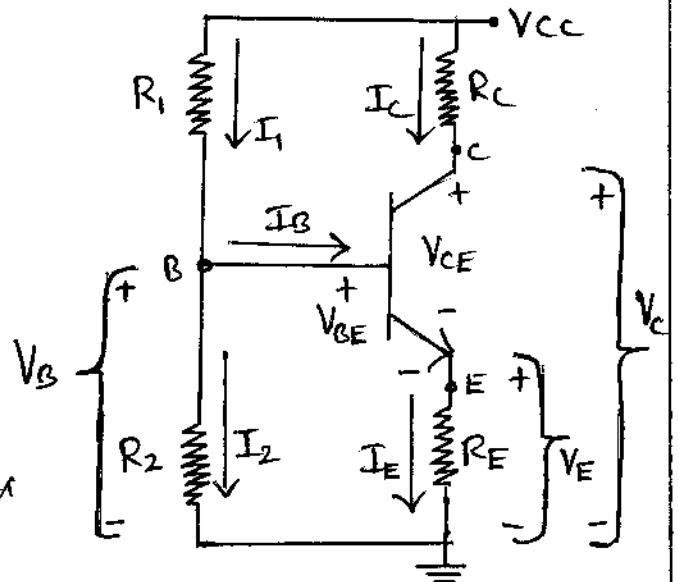
- ① Rarely used in linear circuits (ie the circuits which use the transistor as a current source).
- ② It is often used in circuits where transistor is used as a switch.

3 Voltage - divider bias @ Self bias @ universal bias @ Emitter current bias:

Voltage divider bias is the most stable transistor bias circuit.

Circuit operation

- A voltage divider bias circuit is shown in fig (2).
- Resistors R_1 & R_2 divide the supply voltage V_{CC} & voltage drop across R_2 provides biased bias voltage ' V_B ' at the base.



Fig(2): Voltage - divider bias circuit

- The emitter resistor R_E provides stabilization.
- The total dc load in series with the transistor is $(R_C + R_E)$
- Let the current I_2 is very much larger than I_B & V_B is assumed to be constant.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Methods of Analysis

- ① Approximate Method ② Analysis
- ③ Exact ④ Accurate ⑤ Precise Method ⑥ Analysis

① Approximate Method: (Fig 21)

It is a direct method, saves time & energy.

APPLYING KVL to Voltage-divider network,

$$V_{CC} - I_1 R_1 - I_2 R_2 = 0 \quad \text{--- (29)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{I_2 = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_1 + R_2}} \quad \text{--- (30)} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{Since } I_1 = I_B + I_2 \\ \Rightarrow I_1 \approx I_2 \quad (\because I_2 \gg I_B) \end{array} \right] \quad \text{--- (31)}$$

Voltage across R_2

$$V_B = I_2 R_2 \quad \text{--- (32)}$$

$$\boxed{V_B = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_1 + R_2} R_2} \quad \text{--- (33)} \quad \text{[Using (30) in (32)]}$$

We have, $V_B = V_{BE} + V_E \quad \text{--- (34)}$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_E = V_B - V_{BE}} \quad \text{--- (35)}$$

Emitter current, $I_E = \frac{V_E}{R_E} \quad \text{--- (36)} \quad \text{[Using (35) in (36)]}$

$$\boxed{I_E = \frac{V_B - V_{BE}}{R_E}} \quad \text{--- (37)}$$

APPLYING KVL to Collector loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} - I_E R_E = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C (R_C + R_E)} \quad \text{--- (38)} \quad \text{[}\because I_E \approx I_C\text{]}$$

Collector Voltage,

$$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C \text{ or } V_{CE} + V_E \quad \text{--- (39)}$$

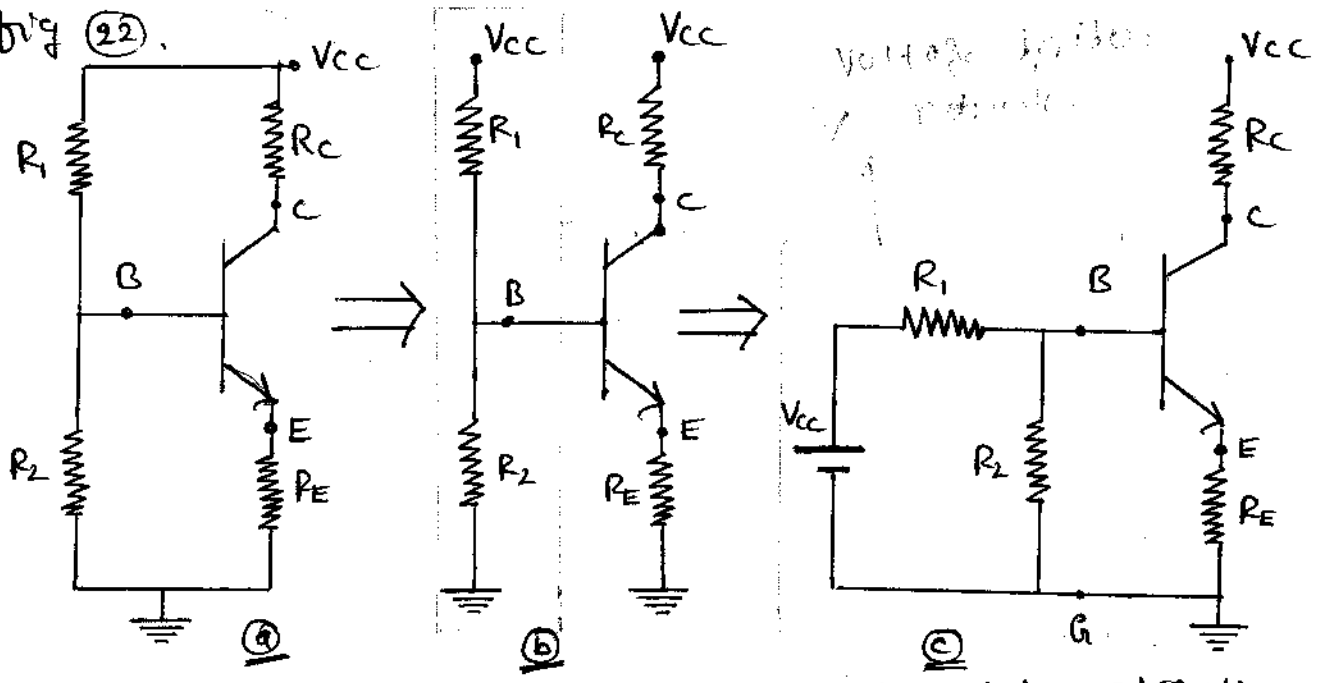
With $I_C \approx I_E$ constant, the V_{CE} remains constant. Q-Point is independent of β_{FE} ($\because \beta_{FE}$ is not involved in any of the above equations)

② Exact ① Accurate ③ Precise Method:

It can be applied to any voltage divider circuit.

The voltage-divider network is replaced by its Thevenin equivalent circuit.

Consider the voltage divider bias circuit as shown in fig (22).



Fig(22): Simplification of voltage divider bias circuit

Now consider the voltage divider network as shown in fig (23)

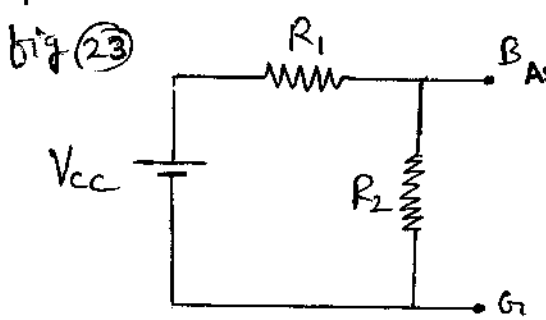
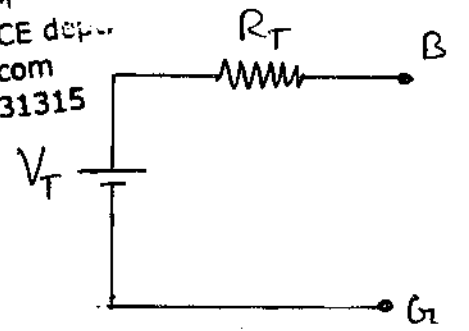


Fig (23): Voltage divider network

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



Fig(24): Thevenin equivalent circuit

The Thevenin equivalent circuit of Voltage divider network is shown in fig (24).

V_T : Thevenin's voltage:

V_T is the voltage across B-G terminals. Voltage across R_2 .

From voltage divider rule,

$$V_T = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \quad (40)$$

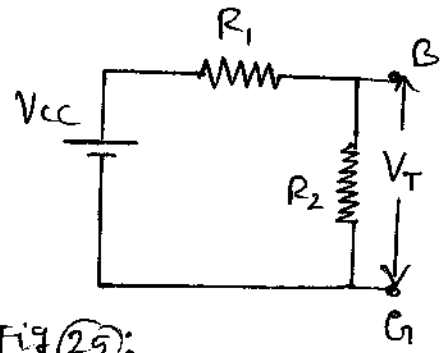


Fig (25):

R_T : Thevenin's resistance:

R_T is the resistance seen between the terminals B-G. (By shorting the voltage source V_{CC})

$$R_T = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \quad (41)$$

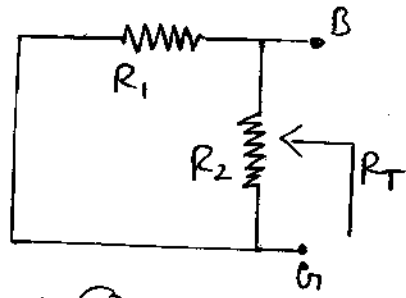


Fig (26):

Now replace the voltage divider network with its Thevenin equivalent circuit (between B & G) as shown in fig (27)

Applying KVL to base-emitter loop,

$$V_T - I_B R_T - V_{BE} - I_E R_E = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_T - V_{BE} = I_B R_T + I_E R_E$$

$$\Rightarrow V_T - V_{BE} = I_B R_T + (I_B + I_C) R_E$$

$$\Rightarrow V_T - V_{BE} = I_B R_T + (I_B + h_{FE} I_B) R_E$$

$$\Rightarrow V_T - V_{BE} = I_B [R_T + R_E (1 + h_{FE})]$$

$$I_B = \frac{V_T - V_{BE}}{R_T + R_E (1 + h_{FE})} \quad (42)$$

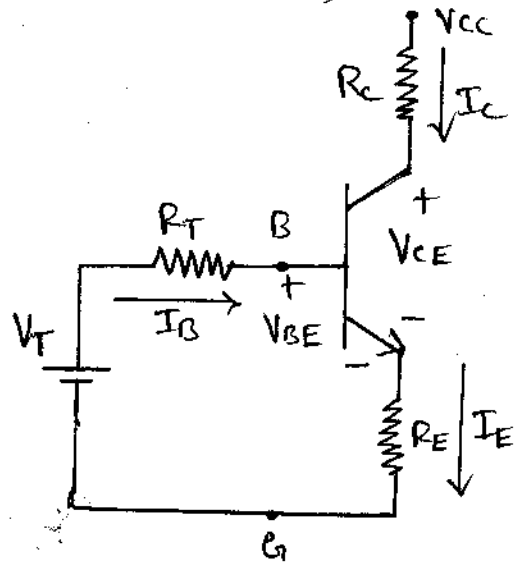


Fig (27): Voltage divider bias circuit with Thevenin equivalent circuit

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Now $I_c = h_{FE} I_B$ — (43)

Applying KVL to Collector - Emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_c R_c - V_{CE} - I_E R_E = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_c R_c - I_E R_E$$
 — (44)

Emitter Voltage, $V_E = I_E R_E$ — (45)

Collector Voltage, $V_C = V_{CE} + V_E$ (or) $V_{CC} - I_c R_c$ — (46)

Base Voltage, $V_B = V_{BE} + V_E$ — (47)

Q-Point is independent of h_{FE} (though h_{FE} is used in the above equations)

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① Q-Point ② operating point is almost independent of $h_{FE} (\beta)$ variation, so voltage divider bias is the most stable transistor bias circuit. (See page 109/110)

② Voltage divider bias using PNP transistor:

→ Voltage Polarities & current directions are reversed compared to NPN transistor.

→ A PNP transistor voltage divider bias circuit is analyzed in exactly the same way as an NPN transistor voltage divider bias circuit.

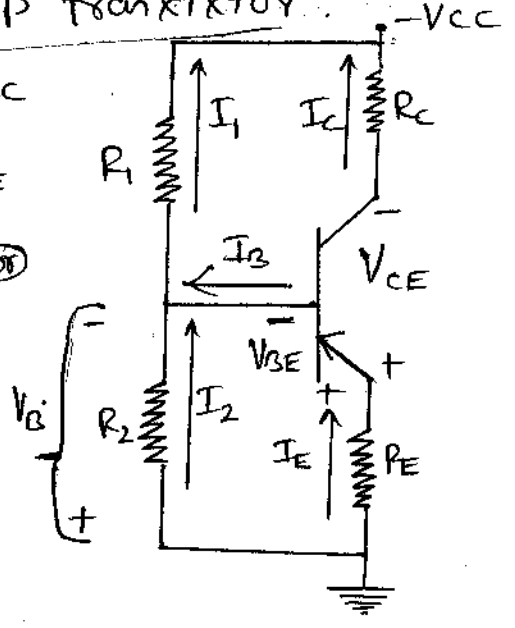
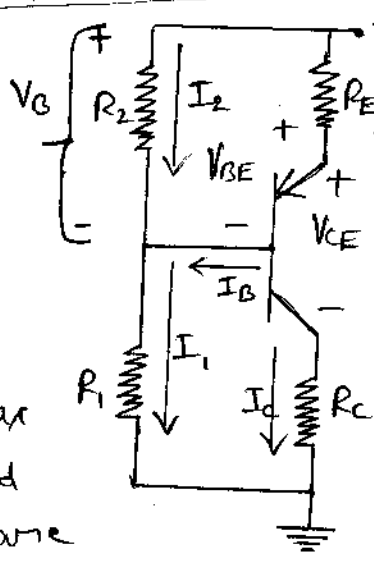


Fig (28): PNP transistor voltage divider bias circuit

③ The stability of a system (transistor circuit) is a measure of sensitivity of a network to variations in its parameters.

In any transistor amplifier, I_c is sensitive to the following parameters.

β : Increases with increase in temperature.

V_{BE} : Decreases about $7.5\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}$ increase in temp

I_{c0} (Reverse saturation current): Doubles for every 10°C increase in temperature

Design of voltage-divider bias circuit: (Finding R_1, R_2)
 R_c & R_E

The values of $V_{CC}, V_{CE}, V_{BE}, I_c$ & h_{FE} will be given.

The design steps are as follows:

Step 1: Let $I_2 = \frac{I_c}{10}$ (As a thumb rule) — (48)

Step 2: Let $V_E \gg V_{BE}$ (If V_E is not given) — (49)

Choose V_E in 3V-5V range (3V when V_{CC} is low (9V)
 5V regardless of voltage)

Step 3: Calculate R_E using the relation,

$R_E = \frac{V_E}{I_c}$ ($\because I_c \approx I_E$) — (50)

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Step 4: Calculate R_2 using the relation

$R_2 = \frac{V_B}{I_2}$ Where, $V_B = V_{BE} + V_E$ — (51)

Step 5: Calculate R_1 using the relation,

$R_1 = \frac{V_{CC} - V_B}{I_2}$ — (53)

Step 6: Calculate R_c using the relation,

$R_c = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE} - V_E}{I_c}$ — (54)

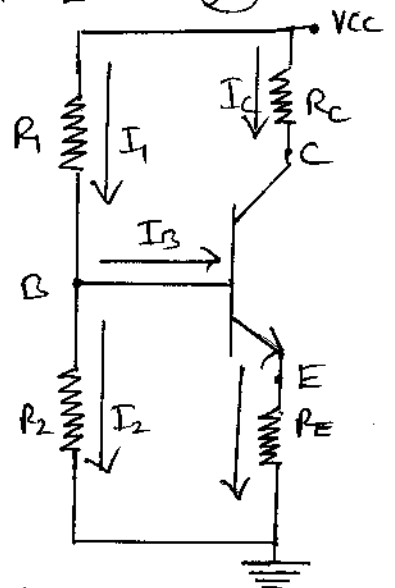


Fig (29): Voltage-divider bias circuit

5) DC load line & Q-Point of Voltage-divider bias

⇒ Consider the Voltage-divider bias circuit as shown in fig (30)

Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - V_{CE} - I_C R_C - I_E R_E = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{CC} - V_{CE} - I_C (R_C + R_E) = 0 \quad (\because I_C \approx I_E) \quad \text{--- (55)}$$

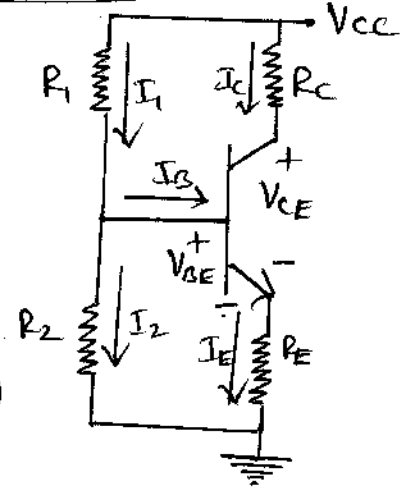


Fig (30): Voltage-divider bias circuit

Put $I_C = 0$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} \quad \text{--- (56)}$$

Point A ($V_{CC}, 0$)

Put $V_{CE} = 0$

$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C + R_E} \quad \text{--- (57)}$$

Point B ($0, \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C + R_E}$)

⇒ We have

$$I_E = \frac{V_B - V_{BE}}{R_E} \quad \text{where,} \quad V_B = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$\therefore I_C \approx I_{CQ} \approx I_E \quad \text{--- (58)}$$

$$\text{W.K.T } V_{CE} = V_{CEQ} = V_{CC} - I_C (R_C + R_E) \quad \text{--- (59)}$$

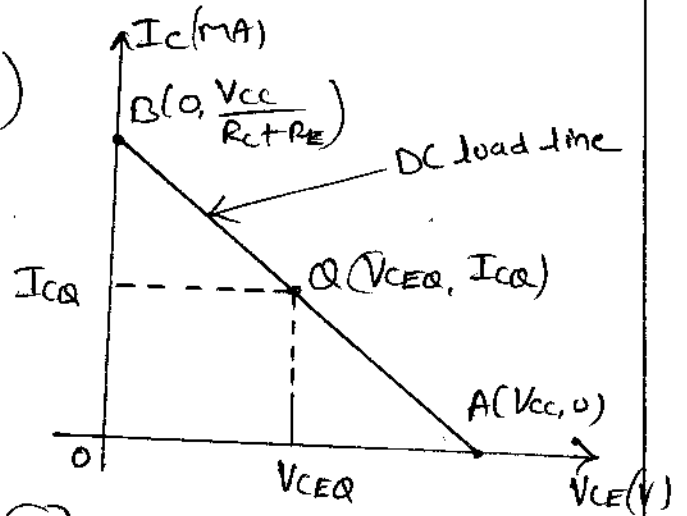


Fig (31)

6) Which value of β to be used?

a) Distinct β_{min} & β_{max} given

b) Range of β given ($\beta_{min} - \beta_{max}$)

Solve using β_{min} & β_{max} separately

GM @ geometric average of the two values should be used.

$$\beta = \sqrt{\beta_{min} \times \beta_{max}}$$

7) Why Si is preferred over Ge?

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Main reasons

a) Smaller I_{CBO} : Si: 0.01mA to 1mA ($A + 25^\circ C$)
Ge: 2 to 15mA

b) Smaller Variation of I_{CBO} with temperature:

For Si: I_{cbo} approximately double with each $12^{\circ}C$ rise
 For Ge: I_{cbo} approximately double with each 8 to $10^{\circ}C$ rise.

① Greater Working temperature:

For Si: Normal working temperature upto $150^{\circ}C$

For Ge: Normal working temperature upto $70^{\circ}C$

② Higher PIV rating:

Si: PIV ratings around $1000V$

Ge: PIV ratings around $400V$

[One drawback of Si as compared to Ge is Potential barrier of Si diode is $0.7V$; which is more than that of Ge diode ($0.3V$)]

③ Advantages, disadvantages & Applications of Voltage divider bias

Advantages @ Merits:

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

① Operating Point (Q-Point) is almost independent of β (h_{FE}) variation.

② The Stability factor is the smallest possible value, ($S \approx 1$) hence leads to the maximum possible thermal stability. ③ operating Point stabilized against shift in temperature.

Disadvantages @ Demerits @ drawbacks

① It is complex, since it requires more components than other biasing circuits.

② If R_E is of large value, high V_{CC} is necessary. This increases cost as well.

③ The negative feedback caused by R_E , reduces the

gain of the amplifier.

Applications @ Usage

① Used to bias linear amplifier

② Comparison of Biasing Circuits

Sl no.	Parameter	Base bias	Voltage divider bias
1	Circuit		
2	Stability	Poor	Excellent
3	Bias Conditions	Unpredictable	Most predictable
4	Feedback	Not present	Negative feedback
5	Components (Circuit complexity)	Less	More
6	Stability Factor(S)	$S = 1 + \beta (1 + h_{FE})$	$S = \frac{1 + \beta}{1 + \beta \left(\frac{R_E}{R_E + R_{TH}} \right)} \approx 1$ <p>Where $R_{TH} = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$</p>
7	VCE (min)	1.8V	9.4V
8	VCE (max)	13.75V	10.4V
9	IC	$= \beta \left(\frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} \right)$	$= \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} - V_{BE}$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742179174, 9844231315

10	V_{CE}	$= V_{CC} - I_E R_C$	$= V_{CC} - I_C (R_C + R_E)$
11	DC Load line	A straight line from A($V_{CC}, 0$) to B($0, \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C}$)	Straight line from A($V_{CC}, 0$) to B($0, \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C + R_E}$)
12	Q-Point	$Q(V_{CEQ}, I_{CQ})$ $V_{CEQ} = V_{CC} - I_{CQ} R_C$ $I_{CQ} = \left(\frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} \right) \beta$	$Q(V_{CEQ}, I_{CQ})$ $V_{CEQ} = V_{CC} - I_C (R_C + R_E)$ $I_{CQ} = \frac{V_{CC} R_2 - V_{BE}}{\frac{R_1 + R_2}{\beta} + R_E}$
13	Applications	Used in switching circuits	Used in linear amplifiers

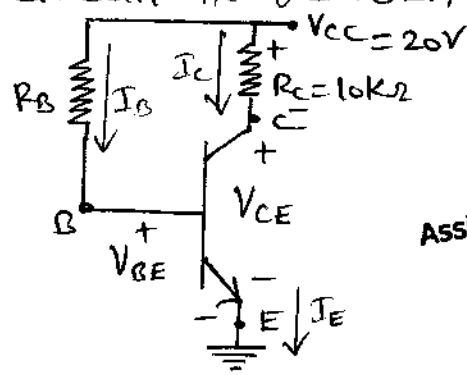
SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Problem

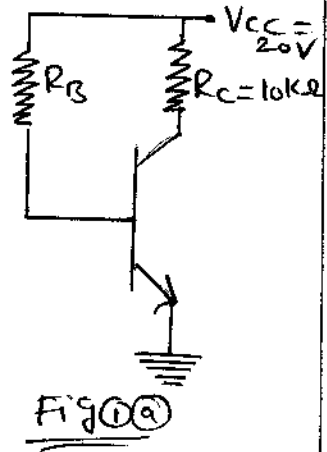
(1)

1) Draw the dc load line for the circuit shown in fig 1a

Given circuit is redrawn below.



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0$$

Put $I_C = 0$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} = 20V$$

Mark at Point

$$A(V_{CE}, I_C) = A(20, 0)$$

Put $V_{CE} = 0$

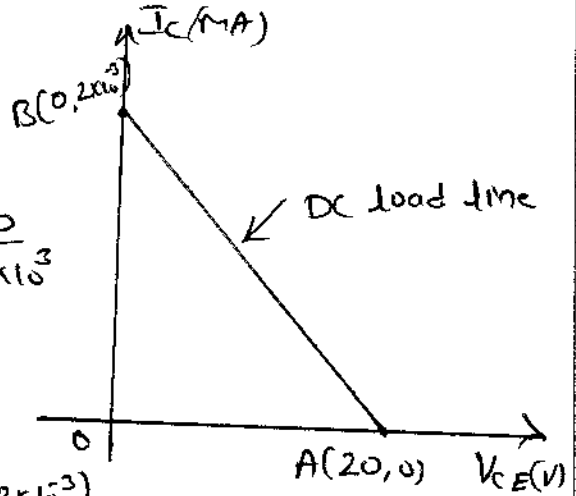
$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C} = \frac{20}{10 \times 10^3}$$

$$I_C = 2mA$$

Mark at Point

$$B(V_{CE}, I_C) = B(0, 2 \times 10^{-3})$$

Draw a straight line through $A(20, 0)$ & $B(0, 2 \times 10^{-3})$ to get load line



2) The transistor circuit in fig 2a has the collector characteristics shown in fig 2b. Determine the circuit Q-Point & estimate the maximum symmetrical output voltage swing.

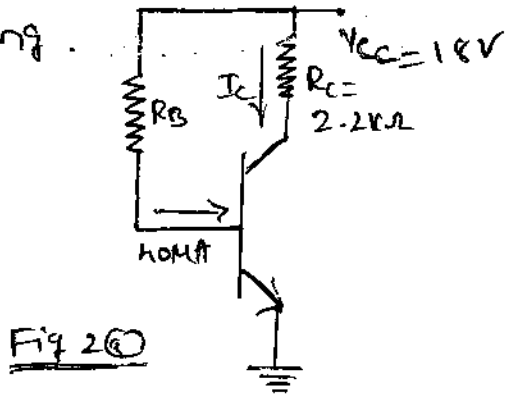


Fig 2a

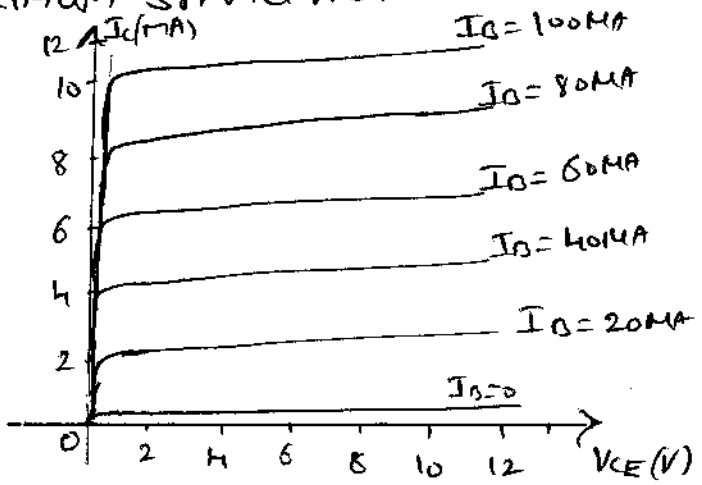


Fig 2b

Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0$$

Put $I_C = 0$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} = 18V$$

Point A (18, 0)

Put $V_{CE} = 0$

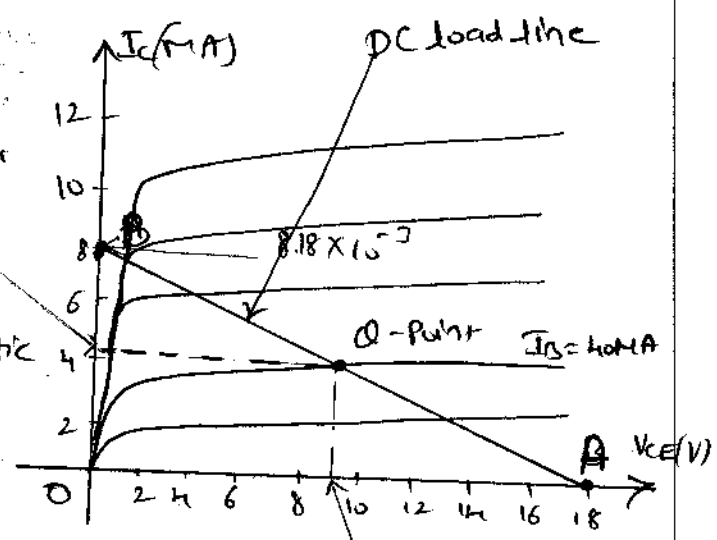
$$I_C = \frac{V_{CE}}{R_E} = \frac{18}{2.2 \times 10^3}$$

$$I_C = 8.18 \text{ mA}$$

Point B (0, 8.18×10^{-3})

Draw the dc load line through points A & B on the given output-characteristic [fig 2(b)].

The intersection of the dc load line & $I_B = 40 \mu\text{A}$ characteristic is Q-Point as shown in fig 2(c).



The dc bias conditions are

$$I_C \approx 4.1 \text{ mA} \text{ \& } V_{CE} \approx 9V$$

∴ Maximum symmetrical output voltage swing is

$$\Delta V_{CE} \approx \pm 9V$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

fig 2(c)

9V

3) The base bias circuit is shown in fig 3(a). Determine I_B , I_C & V_{CE} .

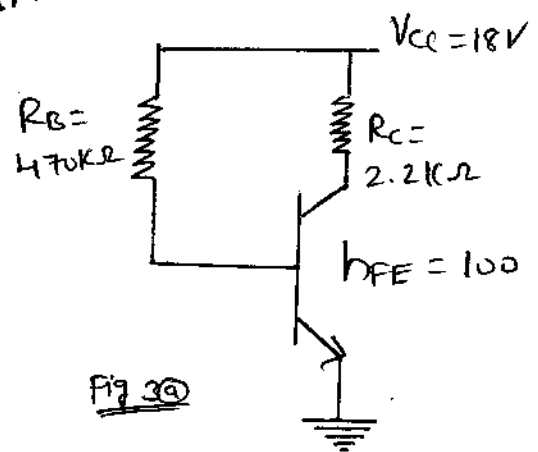
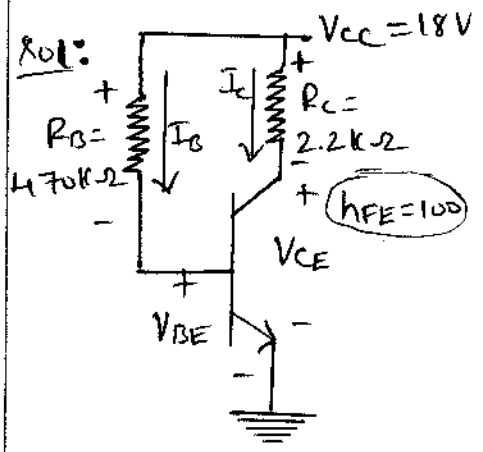


Fig 3(a)

Applying KVL to base-emitter circuit

$$V_{CC} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} = \frac{18 - 0.7}{470 \times 10^3} = 36.8 \mu\text{A}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{BE} &= 0.3V \text{ for Ge} \\ V_{BE} &= 0.7V \text{ for Si} \\ \text{If } V_{BE} \text{ not given take } V_{BE} &= 0.7V \\ I_B &= \frac{18 - 0.7}{470 \times 10^3} = 36.8 \mu\text{A} \end{aligned}$$

We have, $I_c = h_{FE} I_B = 100 \times 36.8 \times 10^{-6} = \underline{\underline{3.68 \text{ mA}}}$

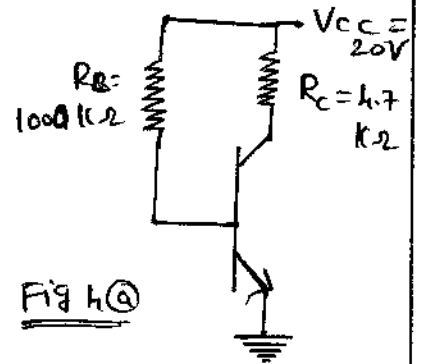
Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_e R_e - V_{CE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_e R_e = 18 - 3.68 \times 10^{-3} \times 2.2 \times 10^3$$

$$\boxed{V_{CE} = 9.904 \text{ V}}$$

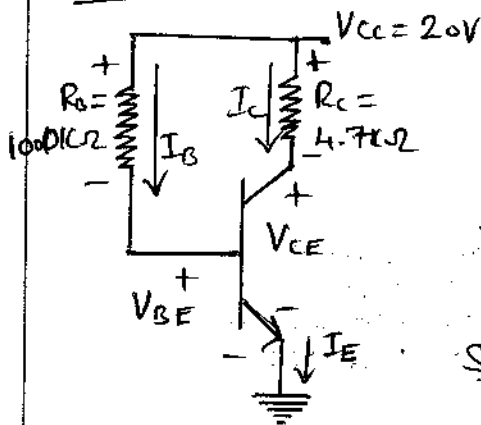
For the circuit shown in fig 4(a), draw DC load line & mark the Q-Point. Assume $\beta = 100$ & neglect V_{BE}



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig 4(a)

Ref: DC load line



STEP 1: Applying KVL to collector loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_c R_c - V_{CE} = 0$$

STEP 2: Put $I_c = 0$, $V_{CE} = V_{CC} = 20 \text{ V}$

Mark at Point A ($V_{CE}, 0$) = A(20, 0)

STEP 3: Put $V_{CE} = 0$, $I_c = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_c} = \frac{20}{4.7 \times 10^3} = 4.25 \text{ mA}$

Mark at Point B ($I_c, 0$) = B(4.25×10^{-3} , 0)

STEP 4: Draw a straight line through Points A & B as shown in fig 4(b)

Q-Point

STEP 1: Applying KVL to base-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0 \quad (\text{Given } V_{BE} = 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_B} = \frac{20}{1 \times 10^6} = \underline{\underline{20 \mu\text{A}}}$$

We have

$$I_{CQ} = I_c = \beta I_B = 100 \times 20 \times 10^{-6} = \underline{\underline{2 \text{ mA}}}$$

STEP 2: KVL to collector-emitter loop,

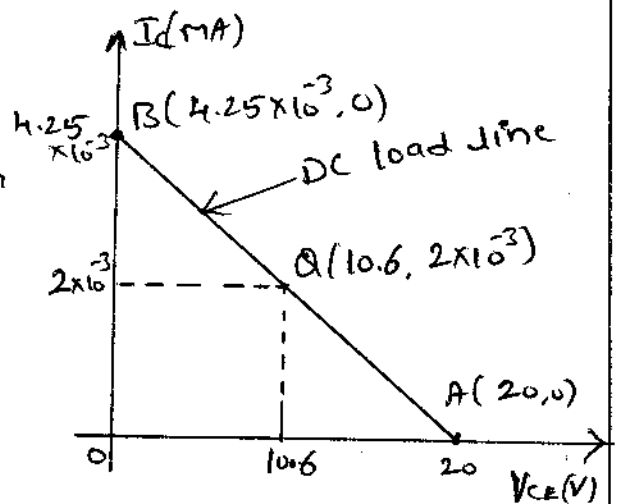


Fig 4(b)

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{CEQ} = V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 20 - 2 \times 10^{-3} \times 4.7 \times 10^3 = \underline{\underline{10.6V}}$$

Mark at point Q (10.6, 2×10^{-3}) [shown in fig 4(b)]

5) Calculate the value of R_B that will saturate the base bias transistor circuit. Given $h_{FE} = 200$, $V_{CE} = 0.3V$
 $R_C = 2.2k\Omega$, $V_{CC} = 10V$

sol: The base-bias circuit is shown in fig 5

Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_C = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE}}{R_C} = \frac{10 - 0.3}{2.2 \times 10^3} = \underline{\underline{4.409mA}}$$

We have,

$$I_C = h_{FE} I_B$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = \frac{I_C}{h_{FE}} = \frac{4.409 \times 10^{-3}}{200}$$

$$I_B = 22.04 \mu A$$

Applying KVL to base-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0 \quad (\text{Assume } V_{BE} = 0.7V)$$

$$\Rightarrow R_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{I_B} = \frac{10 - 0.7}{22.04 \times 10^{-6}} = \underline{\underline{421.96k\Omega}}$$

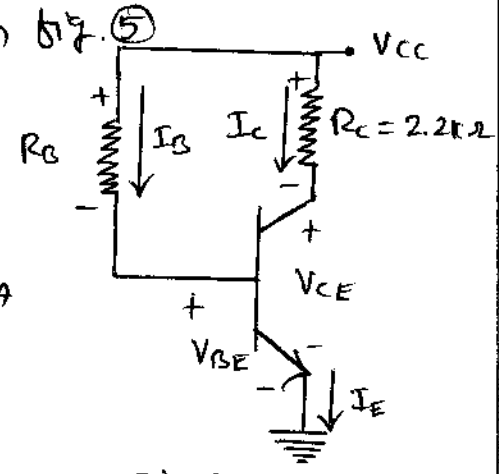


Fig 5

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

6) Calculate the maximum & minimum level of I_C & V_{CE} for the base bias circuit shown in fig 6 when $h_{FE(min)} = 50$ & $h_{FE(max)} = 200$.

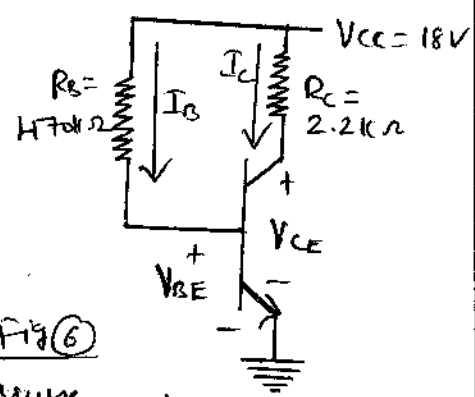


Fig 6

sol: KVL to base loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} = \frac{18 - 0.7}{470 \times 10^3} = \underline{\underline{36.8 \mu A}} \quad (\text{Assume } V_{BE} = 0.7V)$$

For $h_{FE(\min)}$

$$I_C = h_{FE(\min)} I_B$$

$$= 50 \times 36.8 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$I_C = \underline{\underline{1.84 \text{ mA}}}$$

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

$$= 18 - 1.84 \times 10^{-3} \times 2.2 \times 10^3$$

$$= \underline{\underline{13.95 \text{ V}}}$$

For $h_{FE(\max)}$

$$I_C = h_{FE(\max)} I_B$$

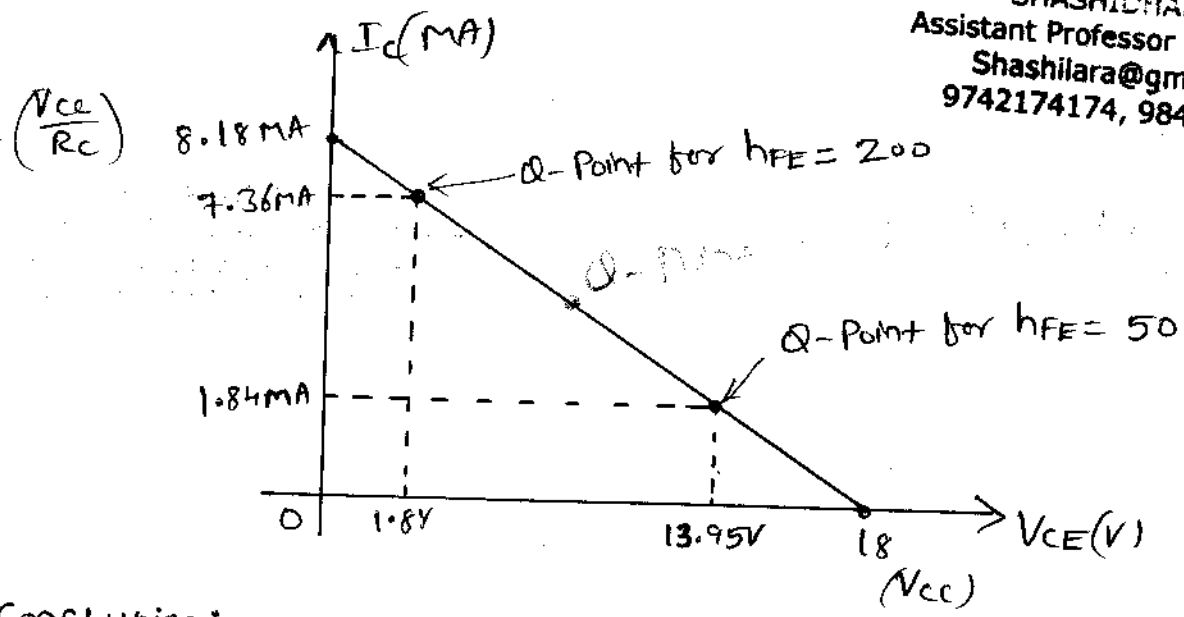
$$= 200 \times 36.8 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$I_C = \underline{\underline{7.36 \text{ mA}}}$$

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

$$= 18 - 7.36 \times 10^{-3} \times 2.2 \times 10^3$$

$$= \underline{\underline{1.8 \text{ V}}}$$



SHASHIDHAR T N
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

- Conclusion:
- From the above characteristics, the Q-Point changes when β (h_{FE}) changes.
 - Q-Point shifts towards saturation region (from active region) when h_{FE} is increased from 100 to 200
 - Q-Point shifts towards cut-off region (from active region) when h_{FE} is decreased from 100 to 50.

- Determine the following for the biased-bias configuration of fig 7.
- Q-point Voltage
 - I_{BQ} & I_{CQ}
 - V_{CEQ}
 - V_B & V_C
 - V_{BE}
 - Stability factor
 - Saturation level

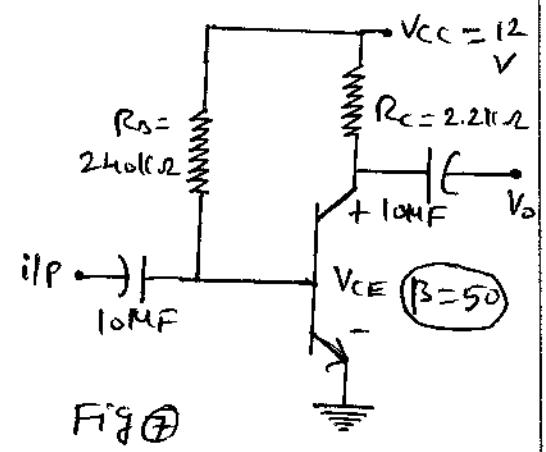


Fig 7

8) Neglect capacitor.

APPLYING KVL to base-emitter loop.

$$V_{CC} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = I_{BQ} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_{BQ} = \frac{12 - 0.7}{24 \times 10^3}$$

$$I_{BQ} = 47.08 \mu A$$

We have

$$I_{CQ} = \beta I_{BQ} = 50 \times 47.08 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$I_{CQ} = 2.35 \text{ mA}$$

$$V_{BC} = V_B - V_C = 0.7 - 6.83 = -6.13 \text{ V}$$

© Saturation level @ Saturation Current.

$$I_{C \text{ sat}} = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C} = \frac{12}{2.2 \times 10^3} = 5.45 \text{ mA}$$

$$V_{CE} (\text{cut-off}) = V_{CC} = 12 \text{ V}$$

8) Fig 8 show biasing with base resistor method.

© Determine I_C & V_{CE} , Neglect small base-emitter voltage. Given $\beta = 50$

ii) If R_B is changed to $50 \text{ k}\Omega$, find the new operating point.

9) Applying KVL to base loop.

$$V_{BB} - I_B R_B - V_{BE} = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_B = \frac{V_{BB}}{R_B} = \frac{2}{100 \times 10^3} = 20 \mu A \quad (\text{Given } V_{BE} = 0)$$

$$I_C = \beta I_B = 50 \times 20 \times 10^{-6} = 1 \text{ mA}$$

APPLYING KVL to collector loop.

6) KVL to collector-emitter loop

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0$$

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

$$V_{CEQ} = V_{CE} = 12 - 2.35 \times 10^{-3} \times 2.2 \times 10^3$$

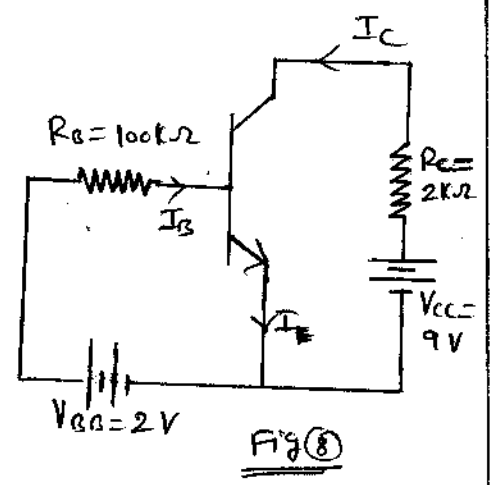
$$V_{CEQ} = 6.83 \text{ V}$$

$$V_B = V_{BE} = 0.7 \text{ V}$$

$$V_C = V_{CE} = 6.83 \text{ V}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Stability factor
 $S = 1 + \beta = 51$



$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 9 - 1 \times 10^{-3} \times 2 \times 10^3 = \underline{\underline{7V}}$$

(ii) From (1), $I_B = \frac{V_{BB}}{R_B} = \frac{2}{50 \times 10^3} = 40 \mu A$

Note, $I_C = \beta I_B = 50 \times 40 \times 10^{-6} = 2 \text{ mA}$

$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 9 - 2 \times 10^{-3} \times 2 \times 10^3 = 5 \text{ V}$

\therefore New operating point is (5V, 2mA)

Q Design base resistor bias circuit for $V_{CE} = 8V$ & $I_C = 2 \text{ mA}$. Given $V_{CC} = 15V$, $\beta = 100$ (Si transistor), $V_{BE} = 0.6V$. Also calculate the load resistance.

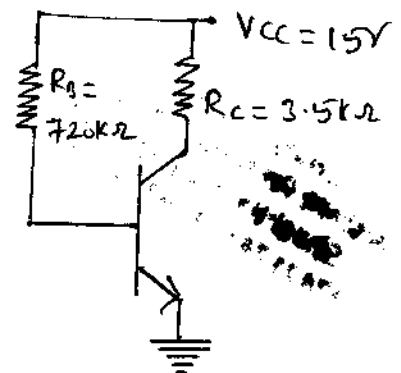
Given $V_{CE} = 8V$, $I_C = 2 \text{ mA}$, $V_{CC} = 15V$, $\beta = 100$, $V_{BE} = 0.6V$

We have $R_C = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE}}{I_C} = \frac{15 - 8}{2 \times 10^{-3}} = \underline{\underline{3.5 \text{ k}\Omega}}$ (Load resistance)

$R_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{I_B} = \frac{15 - 0.6}{0.02 \times 10^{-2}} = \underline{\underline{720 \text{ k}\Omega}}$

$\left(\begin{aligned} I_B &= \frac{I_C}{\beta} = \frac{2 \times 10^{-3}}{100} \\ &= 0.02 \text{ mA} \end{aligned} \right)$

Fig 9 shows base resistor bias ckt.



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Q A base bias circuit in fig 10 is subjected to an increase in temperature from 25°C to 75°C. If $\beta = 100$ at 25°C & 150 at 75°C, determine the percentage change in Q-Point values over this temperature range. Neglect change in V_{BE} & the effects of leakage current.

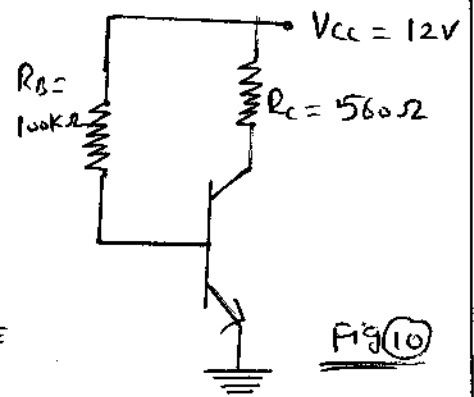


Fig 10

sol: At 25°C

$$I_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} = \frac{12 - 0.7}{100 \times 10^3} = 0.113 \text{ mA}$$

$$I_C = \beta I_B = 100 \times 0.113 \times 10^{-3} = 11.3 \text{ mA}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 12 - 11.3 \times 10^{-3} \times 560$$

$$V_{CE} = 5.67 \text{ V}$$

At 75°C

$$I_B = \frac{12 - 0.7}{100 \times 10^3} = 0.113 \text{ mA}$$

$$I_C = \beta I_B = 150 \times 0.113 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$I_C = 17 \text{ mA}$$

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

$$= 12 - 17 \times 10^{-3} \times 560$$

$$= 2.48 \text{ V}$$

%age change in I_C is,

$$\Delta I_C (\%) = \frac{I_C (75^\circ\text{C}) - I_C (25^\circ\text{C})}{I_C (25^\circ\text{C})} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{17 \times 10^{-3} - 11.3 \times 10^{-3}}{11.3 \times 10^{-3}} \times 100$$

$$= 50\% \text{ (Increase)} \quad \left(I_C \text{ changes by the same percentage as } \beta \right)$$

%age change in V_{CE} is,

$$\Delta V_{CE} (\%) = \frac{V_{CE} (75^\circ\text{C}) - V_{CE} (25^\circ\text{C})}{V_{CE} (25^\circ\text{C})} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{2.48 - 5.67}{5.67} \times 100$$

$$= -56.3\% \text{ (Decrease)}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Comment: Q-Point is extremely dependent on β . Therefore, base bias circuit is very unstable

ii) Fig (ii) shows the characteristics, determine V_{CC} , R_C & R_B . (Base bias circuit)

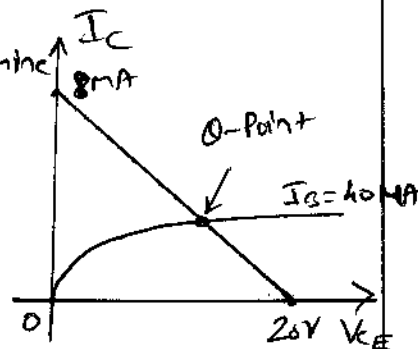


Fig (ii)

Sol: From the dc load line (given), $V_{CC} = 20V$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_C} \quad \text{or} \quad R_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{I_C}$$

$$R_C = \frac{20}{8 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$R_C = 2.5 K\Omega$$

(Use $R_C = 2.4 K\Omega$ standard value)

We have, $I_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B}$

$$\Rightarrow R_B = \frac{20 - 0.7}{40 \times 10^{-6}}$$

(From the characteristics, $I_B = 40 \mu A$)

$$R_B = 482.5 K\Omega \quad (\text{Use } R_B = 470 K\Omega \text{ standard value})$$

12) A base bias circuit has $V_{CC} = 20V$, $R_B = 400 K\Omega$, $R_C = 2.2 K\Omega$, $V_{CE} = 2V$. calculate β . Determine the new V_{CE} when a new transistor with $\beta = 100$ is used.

Sol: Given $V_{CC} = 20V$, $R_B = 400 K\Omega$, $R_C = 2.2 K\Omega$, $V_{CE} = 2V$, $\beta = ?$

We have

$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE}}{R_C} = \frac{20 - 2}{2.2 \times 10^3} = 8.181 \text{ mA}$$

$$I_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} = \frac{20 - 0.7}{400 \times 10^3} = 48.25 \mu A$$

$$\text{Now, } \beta (h_{FE}) = \frac{I_C}{I_B} = \frac{8.181 \times 10^{-3}}{48.25 \times 10^{-6}} = 169.55 //$$

Now $V_{CE} = ?$, $\beta = 100$

$$I_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{R_B} = \frac{20 - 0.7}{400 \times 10^3} = 48.25 \mu A$$

$$I_C = h_{FE} I_B = 100 \times 48.25 \times 10^{-6} = 4.825 \text{ mA}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 20 - 4.825 \times 10^{-3} \times 2.2 \times 10^3$$

$$V_{CE} = 9.385 V$$

3) (a) Analyze the voltage-divider bias circuit shown in fig (13) to determine the emitter voltage, collector voltage, & collector-emitter voltage.

(b) Accurately analyze fig (13) to determine I_C , V_E , V_C & V_{CE} when $h_{FE} = 100$

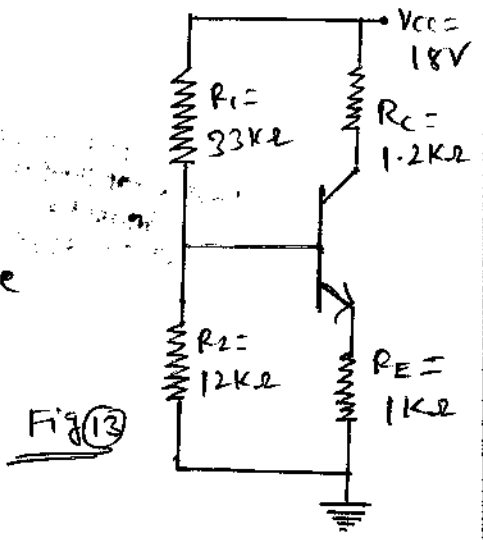


Fig (13)

sol: We have $V_B = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{18 \times 12 \times 10^3}{33 \times 10^3 + 12 \times 10^3} = \underline{4.8V}$

$V_E = V_B - V_{BE} = 4.8 - 0.7 = \underline{4.1V}$

$I_E = \frac{V_B - V_{BE}}{R_E} = \frac{4.8 - 0.7}{1 \times 10^3} = 4.1 \text{ mA}$, $I_C \approx I_E = \underline{4.1 \text{ mA}}$

$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 18 - 4.1 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.2 \times 10^3 = \underline{13.1V}$

$V_{CE} = V_C - V_E = 13.1 - 4.1 = \underline{9V}$

We have $V_T = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{18 \times 12 \times 10^3}{33 \times 10^3 + 12 \times 10^3} = \underline{4.8V}$

$R_T = R_1 || R_2 = 33 \times 10^3 || 12 \times 10^3 = \underline{8.8 \text{ k}\Omega}$

$I_B = \frac{V_T - V_{BE}}{R_T + R_E (1 + h_{FE})} = \frac{4.8 - 0.7}{8.8 \times 10^3 + 1 \times 10^3 (1 + 100)} = \underline{37.3 \text{ }\mu\text{A}}$

$I_C = h_{FE} I_B = 100 \times 37.3 \times 10^{-6} = \underline{3.73 \text{ mA}}$

$I_E = I_B + I_C = 37.3 \times 10^{-6} + 3.73 \times 10^{-3} = \underline{3.77 \text{ mA}}$

$V_E = I_E R_E = 3.77 \times 10^{-3} \times 1 \times 10^3 = \underline{3.77V}$

$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 18 - 3.73 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.2 \times 10^3 = \underline{13.52V}$

$V_{CE} = V_C - V_E = 13.52 - 3.77 = \underline{9.75V}$

Q-Point is $Q (V_{CE}, I_C) = Q (9.75, 3.73 \times 10^{-3})$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

14) a) Accurately analyze the Voltage divider bias circuit shown in fig 14 for $h_{FE(min)} = 50$

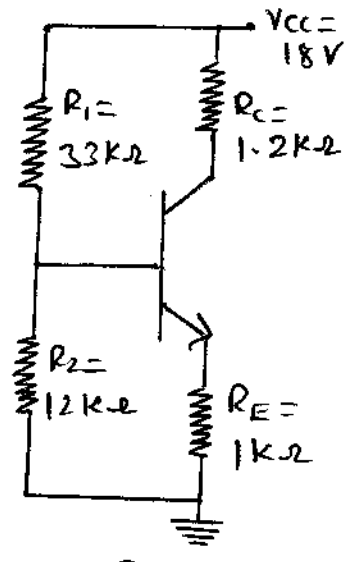


Fig 14

b) Repeat part a) for $h_{FE(max)} = 200$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

9/

a) We have $V_T = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{18 \times 12 \times 10^3}{33 \times 10^3 + 12 \times 10^3} = \underline{\underline{4.8V}}$

$R_T = R_1 || R_2 = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{33 \times 10^3 \times 12 \times 10^3}{33 \times 10^3 + 12 \times 10^3} = \underline{\underline{8.8K\Omega}}$

$I_B = \frac{V_T - V_{BE}}{R_T + R_E (1 + h_{FE})} = \frac{4.8 - 0.7}{8.8 \times 10^3 + 1 \times 10^3 (1 + 50)} = \underline{\underline{68.6 \mu A}}$

$I_C = h_{FE} I_B = 50 \times 68.6 \times 10^{-6} = 3.43 \text{ mA} //$

$I_E = I_B + I_C = 68.6 \times 10^{-6} + 3.43 \times 10^{-3} = 3.5 \text{ mA} //$

$V_E = I_E R_E = 3.5 \times 10^{-3} \times 1 \times 10^3 = 3.5V //$

$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 18 - 3.43 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.2 \times 10^3 = \underline{\underline{13.9V}}$

$V_{CE} = V_C - V_E = 13.9 - 3.5 = 10.4V //$

Q-Point $Q(V_{CE}, I_C) = Q(\underline{\underline{10.4}}, \underline{\underline{3.43 \times 10^{-3}}})$

b) We have, $V_T = \underline{\underline{4.8V}}, R_T = \underline{\underline{8.8K\Omega}}$

$I_B = \frac{V_T - V_{BE}}{R_T + R_E (1 + h_{FE})} = \frac{4.8 - 0.7}{8.8 \times 10^3 + 1K (1 + 200)} = \underline{\underline{19.5 \mu A}}$

$I_C = h_{FE} I_B = 200 \times 19.5 \times 10^{-6} = 3.9 \text{ mA} //$

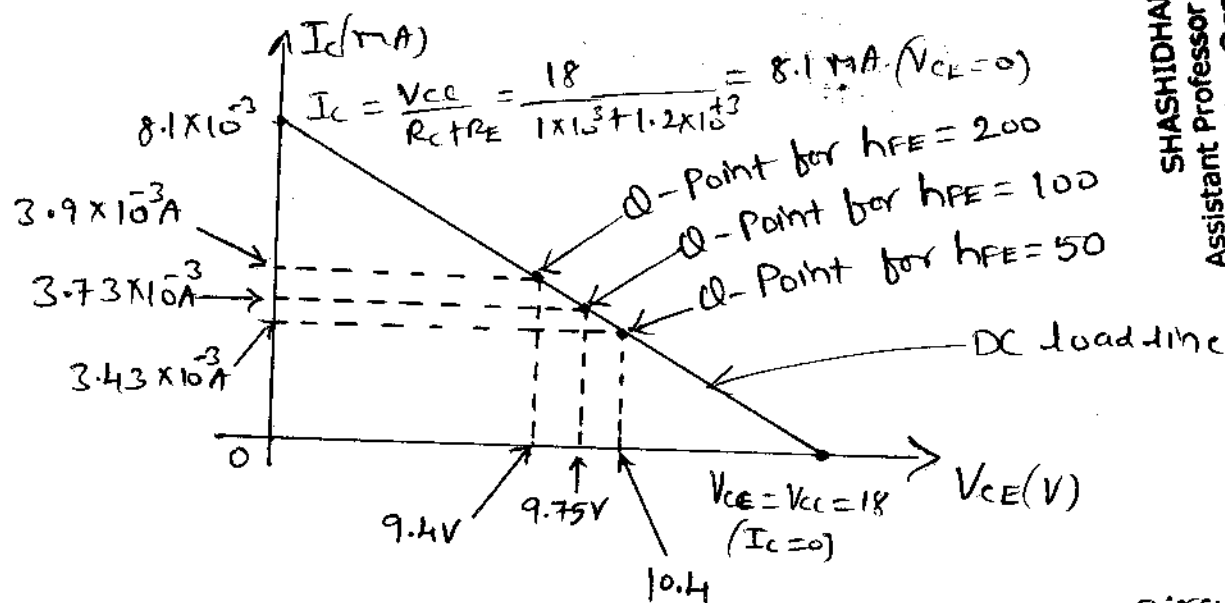
$$I_E = I_B + I_C = 19.5 \times 10^{-6} + 3.9 \times 10^{-3} = 3.92 \text{ mA}$$

$$V_E = I_E R_E = 3.92 \times 10^{-3} \times 1 \times 10^3 = 3.92 \text{ V}$$

$$V_C = V_{CC} - I_C R_C = 18 - 3.9 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.2 \times 10^3 = 13.3 \text{ V}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_C - V_E = 13.3 - 3.92 = 9.4 \text{ V}$$

Q-Point, $Q(V_{CE}, I_C) = Q(9.4, 3.9 \times 10^{-3})$



SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashihara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Conclusion: • From the above characteristics, the circuit (Voltage divider bias) is insensitive to the change in β .

② Q-Point is almost insensitive to change in β .
 \therefore Voltage-divider bias circuit is most stable bias circuit

⑤ For the fig (5), draw the dc load line & determine the operating point. Assume Si transistor

Sol: DC load line
 Redraw the given circuit

Applying KVL to collector-emitter loop,

$$V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} - I_E R_E = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{CC} - V_{CE} - I_C (R_C + R_E) = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

($\because I_E \approx I_C$)

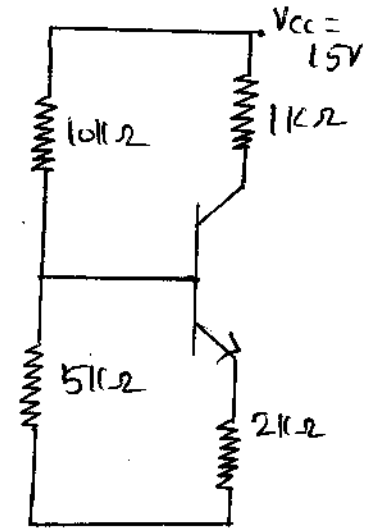
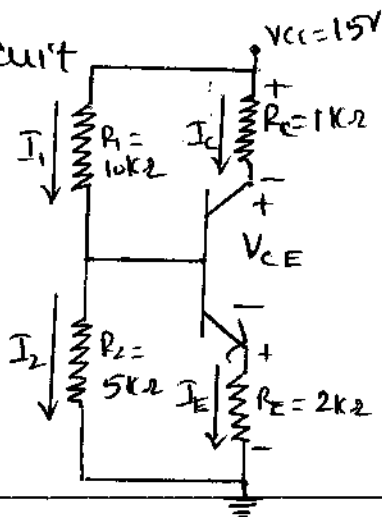


Fig (5)

① Put $I_c = 0$ in ①

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} = 15V$$

Mark at Point A (V_{CE}, I_c) = A(15, 0)

② Put $V_{CE} = 0$ in ①

$$I_c = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_c + R_E} = \frac{15}{1 \times 10^3 + 2 \times 10^3} = 5mA$$

Mark at Point B (V_{CE}, I_c) = B(0, 5×10^{-3})

Draw a straight through A(15, 0) & B(0, 5×10^{-3}) to get dc load line as shown in fig 15(a)

Operating Point (Q-Point)

Vt across R_2 ,

$$V_B = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{15 \times 5 \times 10^3}{10 \times 10^3 + 5 \times 10^3}$$

$$V_B = 5V$$

Emitter current,

$$I_E = \frac{V_B - V_{BE}}{R_E} = \frac{5 - 0.7}{2 \times 10^3} = 2.15mA$$

Collector current,

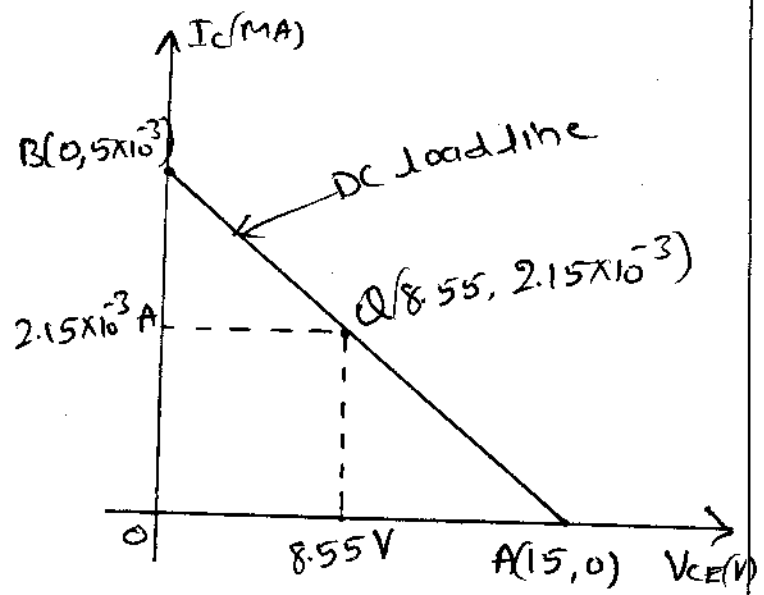
$$(I_{CQ}) I_c \approx I_E = 2.15mA //$$

Collector-emitter Voltage,

$$\begin{aligned} (V_{CEQ}) V_{CE} &= V_{CC} - I_c (R_c + R_E) \\ &= 15 - 2.15 \times 10^{-3} (1 \times 10^3 + 2 \times 10^3) \\ &= 8.55V \end{aligned}$$

∴ Q-Point is Q (V_{CEQ}, I_{CQ}) = Q(8.55, 2.15×10^{-3})

Mark operating Point at Q($8.55, 2.15 \times 10^{-3}$)



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

- 6) A potential divider bias circuit has $R_1 = 50k\Omega$, $R_2 = 10k\Omega$, $R_E = 1k\Omega$. If $V_{CC} = 12V$, find
- ① Stability factor. ($\beta = 100$)
 - ② the value of I_c , given $V_{BE} = 0.1V$.
 - ③ Saturation current ($R_c = 1.2k\Omega$)
 - ④ I_c , given $V_{BE} = 0.3V$
 - ⑤ Comment on the results.

Q: Given $R_1 = 50 \times 10^3 \Omega$, $R_2 = 10 \times 10^3 \Omega$, $R_E = 1 \times 10^3 \Omega$, $V_{CC} = 12V$.

a) $V_B = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{12 \times 10 \times 10^3}{50 \times 10^3 + 10 \times 10^3} = 2V$

Collector current, $I_C = \frac{V_B - V_{BE}}{R_E} = \frac{2 - 0.1}{1 \times 10^3} = 1.9mA$

b) $V_B = 2V$

$I_C = \frac{V_B - V_{BE}}{R_E} = \frac{2 - 0.3}{1 \times 10^3} = 1.7mA$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

c) V_{BE} varies by 200%. The value of I_C changes by nearly 10%. In voltage-divider bias circuit, I_C is almost independent of transistor parameter variations.

d) $S = \frac{1 + \beta}{1 + \beta \left(\frac{R_E}{R_{TH}} \right)} = \frac{1 + 100}{1 + 100 \left(\frac{1 \times 10^3}{1 \times 10^3 + 8.33 \times 10^3} \right)}$

$R_{TH} = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$
 $= \frac{50 \times 10^6}{(50 + 10) \times 10^3}$
 $R_{TH} = 8.33K\Omega$

$S = 9.6$

e) $I_{C(sat)} = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_1 + R_E} = \frac{12}{1.2 \times 10^3 + 1 \times 10^3} = 5.45mA$

7) a) Determine the dc bias voltage V_{CE} & the current I_C for the voltage-divider circuit of fig 7

b) Repeat the analysis of fig 7 using the approximate technique & compare solutions for I_C & V_{CEQ} .

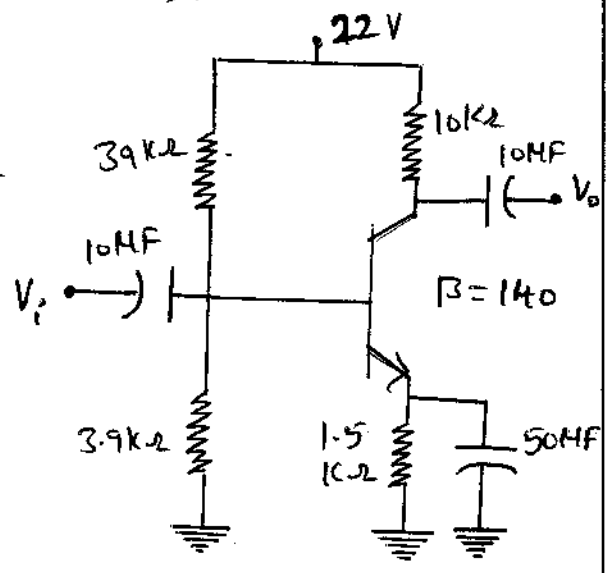


Fig 7

sol: (a) $V_T = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{22(3.9 \times 10^3)}{39 \times 10^3 + 3.9 \times 10^3} = \underline{2V}$

$R_T = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{39 \times 10^3 \times 3.9 \times 10^3}{39 \times 10^3 + 3.9 \times 10^3} = \underline{3.55 k\Omega}$

$I_B = \frac{V_T - V_{BE}}{R_T + R_E(1 + h_{FE})} = \frac{2 - 0.7}{3.55 \times 10^3 + 1.5 \times 10^3(141)} = \underline{6.05 \mu A}$

$I_C = h_{FE} I_B = 140 \times 6.05 \times 10^{-6} = 0.85 \text{ mA}$. ($I_E = I_B + I_C = 0.85 \text{ mA} \approx I_C$)

$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C (R_C + R_E) = 22 - 0.85 \times 10^{-3} (10 \times 10^3 + 1.5 \times 10^3)$

$V_{CE} = \underline{12.22V}$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

(b) $V_B = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{22 \times 3.9 \times 10^3}{39 \times 10^3 + 3.9 \times 10^3} = \underline{2V}$

$V_E = V_B - V_{BE} = 2 - 0.7 = \underline{1.3V}$

($I_{CQ} =$) $I_C \approx I_E = \frac{V_B - V_{BE}}{R_E} = \frac{1.3}{1.5 \times 10^3} = 0.867 \text{ mA}$

($V_{CEQ} =$) $V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C (R_C + R_E) = 22 - 0.867 \times 10^{-3} (10 \text{ k} + 1.5 \text{ k})$

(V_{CEQ}) $V_{CE} = \underline{12.03V}$

Comparison:

Analysis	$I_{CQ}(I_C)$	$V_{CEQ}(V_{CE})$
Exact	0.85 mA	12.22 V
Approximate	0.867 mA	12.03 V

The values of I_{CQ} & V_{CEQ} are very close. (The larger the level of R_1 compared to R_2 , the closer the approximate to the exact solution).

8) Design a base bias circuit to have $V_{CE} = 5V$ & $I_C = 5 \text{ mA}$. The supply voltage is 15V, $h_{FE} = 100$

Solⁿ

$$R_C = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE}}{I_C} = \frac{15 - 5}{5 \times 10^{-3}} = 2k\Omega //$$
 (Use $1.8k\Omega$ @ $2.2k\Omega$ Standard Value)

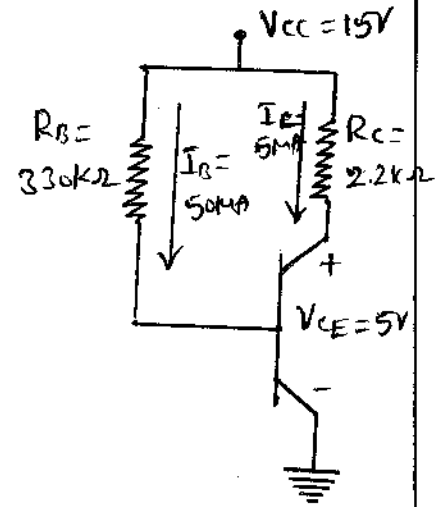


Fig (18)

$$I_B = \frac{I_C}{h_{FE}} = \frac{5 \times 10^{-3}}{100} = 50\mu A$$

$$R_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{I_B} = \frac{15 - 0.7}{50 \times 10^{-6}} = 286k\Omega //$$

(Use $270k\Omega$ @ $330k\Omega$ Standard Value)

The base bias circuit is shown in fig (18)

Q) Given $I_{CQ} = 2mA$ & $V_{CEQ} = 10V$, determine R_1 & R_2 of potential divider circuit. shown in fig (19)

Solⁿ:

$$V_E = I_E R_E = 2 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.2 \times 10^3 = 2.4V$$
 ($\because I_C \approx I_E$)

$$V_B = V_{BE} + V_E = 0.7 + 2.4 = 3.1V$$

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

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashifara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$$\Rightarrow 3.1 = \frac{18 \times 18 \times 10^3}{R_1 + 18 \times 10^3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{R_1 = 86.52k\Omega} \text{ (Use } 82k\Omega \text{ @ } 91k\Omega \text{ Standard Value)}$$

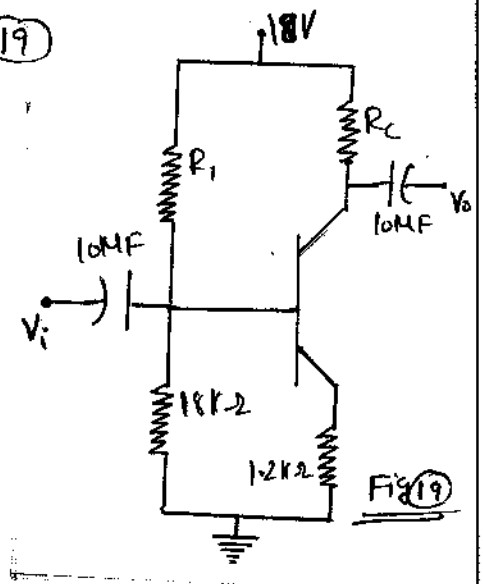


Fig (19)

$$V_C = V_{CE} + V_E = 10 + 2.4 = 12.4V$$

$$R_C = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE} - V_E}{I_C} \text{ (or) } \frac{V_{CC} - V_C}{I_C}$$

$$= \frac{18 - 10 - 2.4}{2 \times 10^{-3}} = 2.8k\Omega$$

$$\boxed{R_C = 2.8k\Omega} //$$

Q) Design the voltage divider bias circuit to have $V_{CE} = V_E = 5V$ & $I_C = 5mA$ when the supply voltage is $15V$. Assume $h_{FE} = 100$.

Given $V_{CE} = 5V$, $V_E = 5V$, $I_C = 5mA$, $h_{FE} = 100$, $V_{CC} = 15V$

Assume $V_{BE} = 0.7V$.

STEP 1: Let $I_2 = I_E = \frac{I_C}{\beta} = \frac{5 \times 10^{-3}}{100} = 50 \mu A$

STEP 2: $R_E = \frac{V_E}{I_C} = \frac{5}{5 \times 10^{-3}} = 1k\Omega$

STEP 3: $R_2 = \frac{V_B}{I_2} = \frac{V_{BE} + V_E}{I_2} = \frac{0.7 + 5}{500 \times 10^{-6}} = 11.4k\Omega$

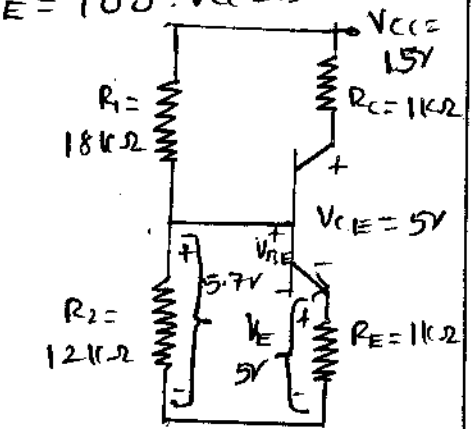


Fig 20

(Use 12kΩ standard value)

STEP 4: $R_1 = \frac{V_{CC} - V_B}{I_2} = \frac{15 - (V_{BE} + V_E)}{500 \times 10^{-6}} = \frac{15 - 0.7 - 5}{500 \times 10^{-6}} = 18.6k\Omega$

(Use 18kΩ standard value)

STEP 5: $R_C = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE} - V_E}{I_C} = \frac{15 - 5 - 5}{5 \times 10^{-3}} = 1k\Omega$

The voltage divider bias circuit is shown in fig 20

Q1) Design the voltage-divider bias circuit to operate from a 12V supply. Given $V_{CE} = 3V$, $V_E = 5V$ & $I_C = 1mA$.

Given $V_{CC} = 12V$, $V_{CE} = 3V$, $V_E = 5V$, $I_C = 1mA$.

Assume $V_{BE} = 0.7V$.

STEP 1: $I_2 = I_C = \frac{I_C}{\beta} = \frac{1 \times 10^{-3}}{10} = 100 \mu A$

STEP 2: $R_E = \frac{V_E}{I_C} = \frac{5}{1 \times 10^{-3}} = 5k\Omega$ (Use 4.7kΩ standard value)

STEP 3: $R_2 = \frac{V_B}{I_2} = \frac{V_{BE} + V_E}{I_2} = \frac{0.7 + 5}{100 \times 10^{-6}} = 57k\Omega$ (or) $\frac{0.7 + 4.7}{100 \times 10^{-6}} = 54k\Omega$ (Use $I_B R_E = 4.7k\Omega$)

(Use 56kΩ standard value)

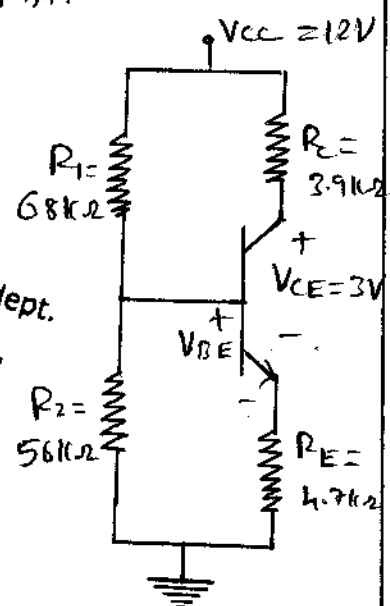


Fig 21

STEP 4: $R_1 = \frac{V_{CC} - V_B}{I_2} = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE} - V_E}{I_2} = \frac{12 - 0.7 - 5}{100 \times 10^{-6}} = 96.4 \times 10^3 \Omega$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$R_1 = 63k\Omega \text{ @ } \underline{\underline{68.46k\Omega}}$$

Step 5: $R_c = V_{cc} - V_{CE} - V_E$

$$I_c = \frac{12 - 3 - 5}{1 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ @ } \frac{12 - 3 - 4.7}{1 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$R_c = 4k\Omega \text{ @ } \underline{\underline{4.3k\Omega}}$$

(Use 3.9kΩ standard value)

$$I_B R_E = 4.7k\Omega$$

$$\Rightarrow V_E = R_E I_C$$

$$= 4.7 \times 10^3 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\boxed{V_E = 4.7V}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_2 = \frac{V_B}{R_2}$$

$$= \frac{5.4}{56 \times 10^3}$$

$$\boxed{I_2 = 96.4\mu A}$$

The voltage-divider circuit is shown in fig (21)

22) Determine V_{CE} for the voltage-divider bias

Configuration of fig (22)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

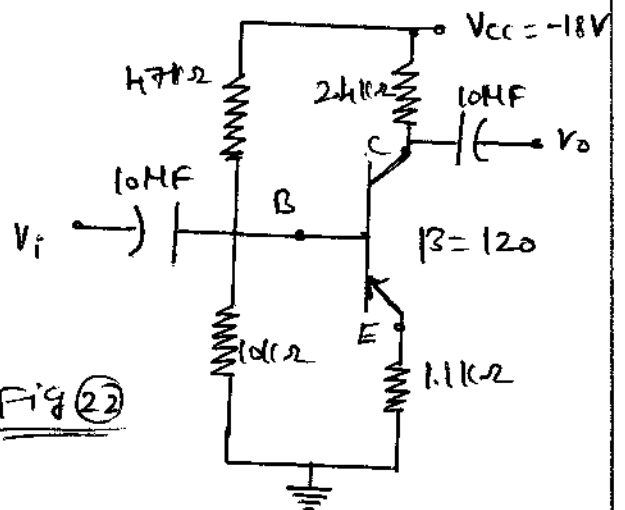


Fig (22)

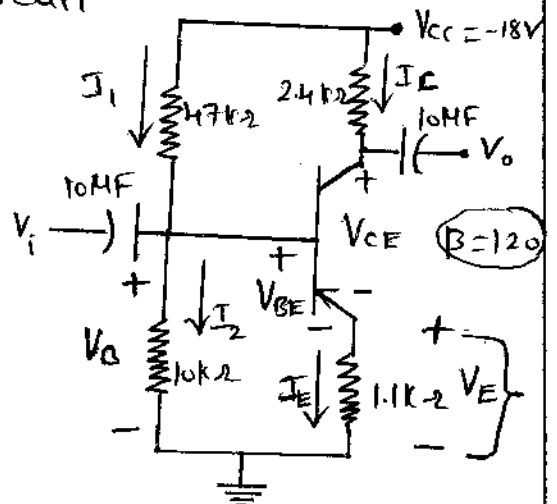
The given voltage-divider bias circuit is shown in fig 22 @

$$V_B = \frac{-V_{cc} R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$= \frac{-18 \times 10k}{47k + 10k}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{-3.16V}}$$

$$\left[\begin{aligned} -V_{cc} - I_1 R_1 - I_2 R_2 &= 0 \\ \text{@ } I_2 &= -\frac{V_{cc}}{R_1 + R_2} \left(\frac{I_1}{I_2} \right) \\ V_B &= \left(\frac{-V_{cc}}{R_1 + R_2} \right) R_2 \end{aligned} \right]$$



$$V_E = V_B - V_{BE} \quad [\because V_B = V_{BE} + V_E]$$

$$= -3.16 - (-0.7)$$

$$= \underline{\underline{-2.46V}} \quad \left(\begin{aligned} V_{BE} &= -0.7V \\ \text{for PNP transistor} \\ \text{with a base circuit} \end{aligned} \right)$$

$$I_E = \frac{V_E}{R_E} = \frac{-2.46}{1.1 \times 10^3} = -2.24 \text{ mA}$$

$$I_C \approx I_E = -2.24 \text{ mA}$$

$$V_{CE} = -V_{CC} - I_C(R_C + R_E) \quad [-V_{CC} - I_C R_C - V_{CE} - I_E R_E = 0]$$

$$= -18 - (-2.24 \times 10^{-3})(2.4 \text{ k} + 1.1 \text{ k})$$

$$= -10.16 \text{ V}$$

or The given voltage-divider bias

$$I_2 = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{18}{47 \text{ k} + 10 \text{ k}} = 0.316 \text{ mA}$$

$$\left(\begin{aligned} -V_{CC} + I_1 R_1 + I_2 R_2 &= 0 \\ I_1 &\approx I_2 \end{aligned} \right)$$

$$V_B = I_2 R_2 = 3.16 \text{ V}$$

$$V_E = V_B - V_{BE} = 3.16 - 0.7 = 2.46 \text{ V}$$

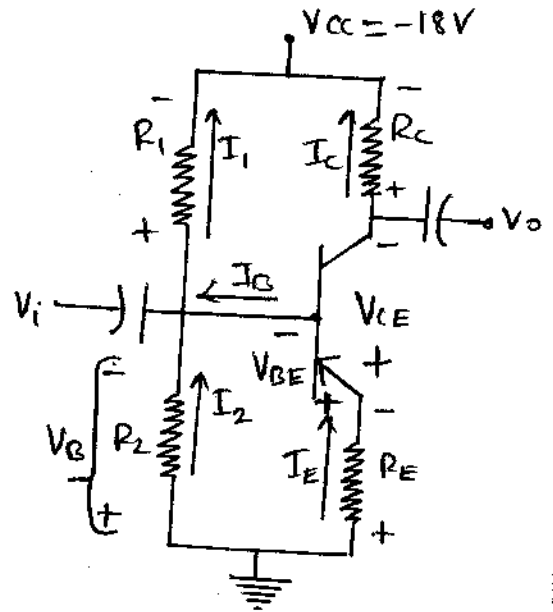
$$I_E = \frac{V_E}{R_E} = \frac{2.46}{1.1 \times 10^3} = 2.24 \text{ mA}$$

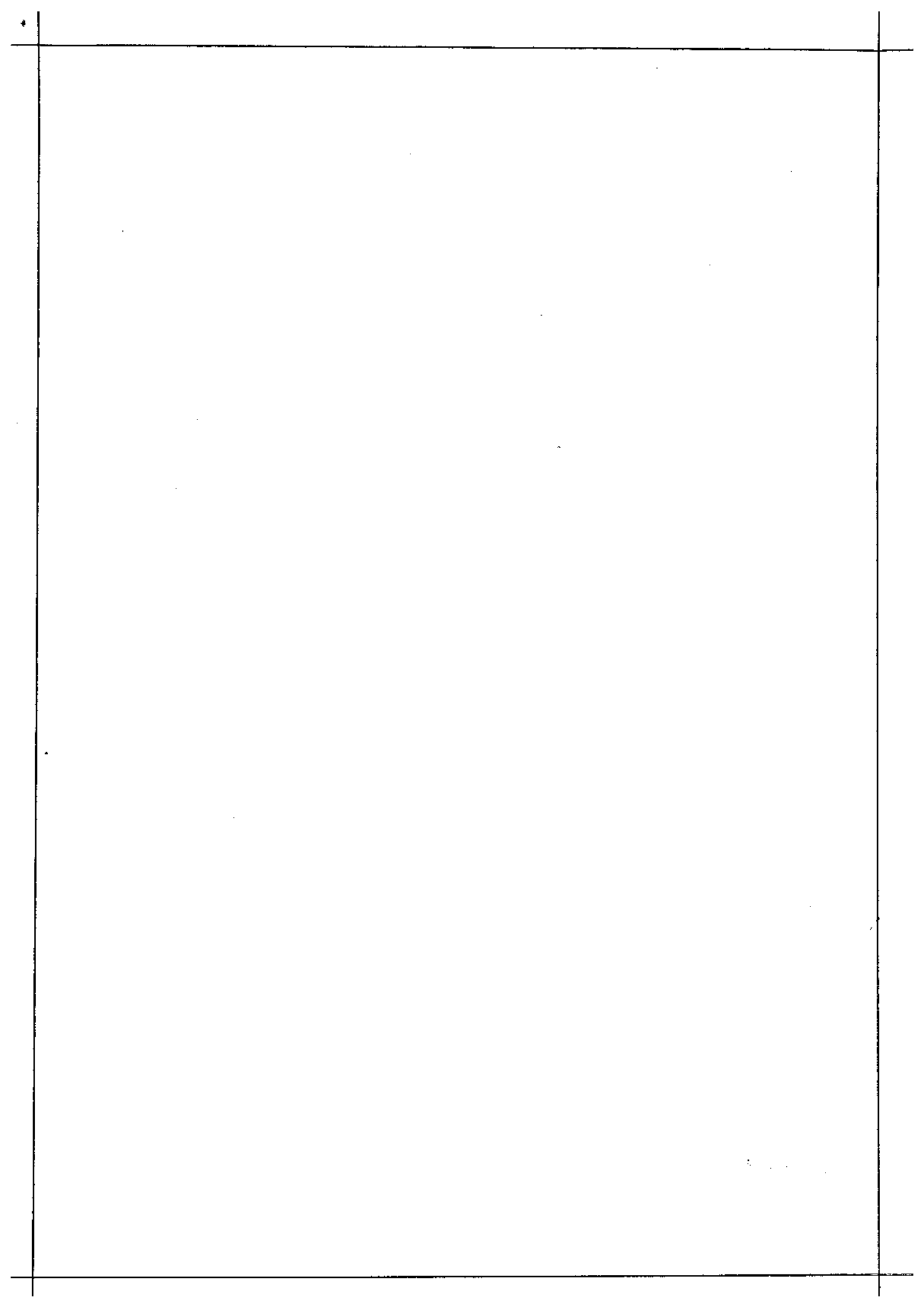
$$I_C \approx I_E = 2.24 \text{ mA}$$

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

$$= 18 - 2.24 \times 10^{-3}(2.4 \text{ k} + 1.1 \text{ k})$$

$$= 10.16 \text{ V}$$





Introduction to Operational Amplifiers

Syllabus: Ideal OP-AMP, Inverting and Non-inverting OP-AMP circuits, OP-AMP applications: Voltage follower, addition, subtraction, integration, differentiation, Numerical examples as applicable.

* Operational Amplifier or OP-AMP:

An OP-AMP is a very high gain differential amplifier with high input impedance and low output impedance.

① An OP-AMP is a direct-coupled high-gain amplifier usually consisting of one or more differential amplifiers and usually followed by a level translator and an output stage.

SHASHID: 1000
Assistant Professor in ...
Shashidara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

- ① An OP-AMP is a linear integrated circuit (IC)
- ② The OP-AMP is a versatile device (used to amplify both AC and DC input signals)
- ③ OP-AMP is used to perform mathematical operations such as addition, subtraction, differentiation and integration.
- ④ Robert J. Widlar invented $\mu A 741$ IC (An internally compensated OP-AMP) in 1968.
MA \rightarrow Fairchild (Manufacturer)
- ⑤ Advantages of OP-AMP over transistor amplifiers
 - Less power consumption
 - Low cost
 - More compact
 - More reliable
 - Easy design
 - Versatile device
 - Higher gain can be obtained etc

⑥ Applications of OP-AMP.

- AC and DC signal amplification
- Active filter.
- Oscillators
- Comparators
- Regulators
- Biomedical instrumentation. etc

④ Pin diagram of OP-AMP (µA 741 IC)

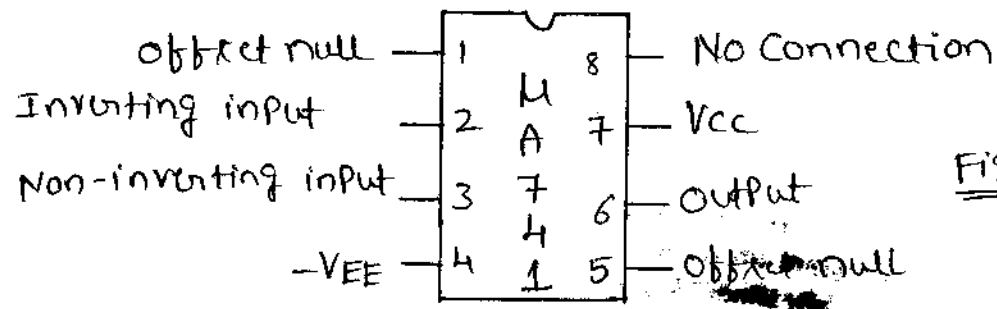
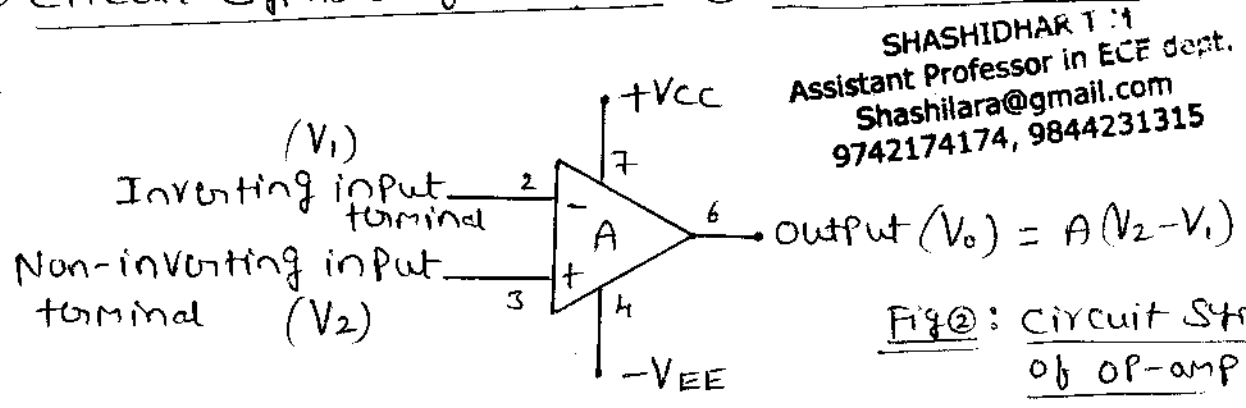


Fig ①: Pin diagram of OP-amp

⑧ Circuit Symbol of OP-AMP ⑨ Schematic Symbol



SHASHIDHAR T :
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig ②: Circuit Symbol of OP-amp

⑩ Single-Ended input: Input signal is connected to one input with the other input connected to ground.

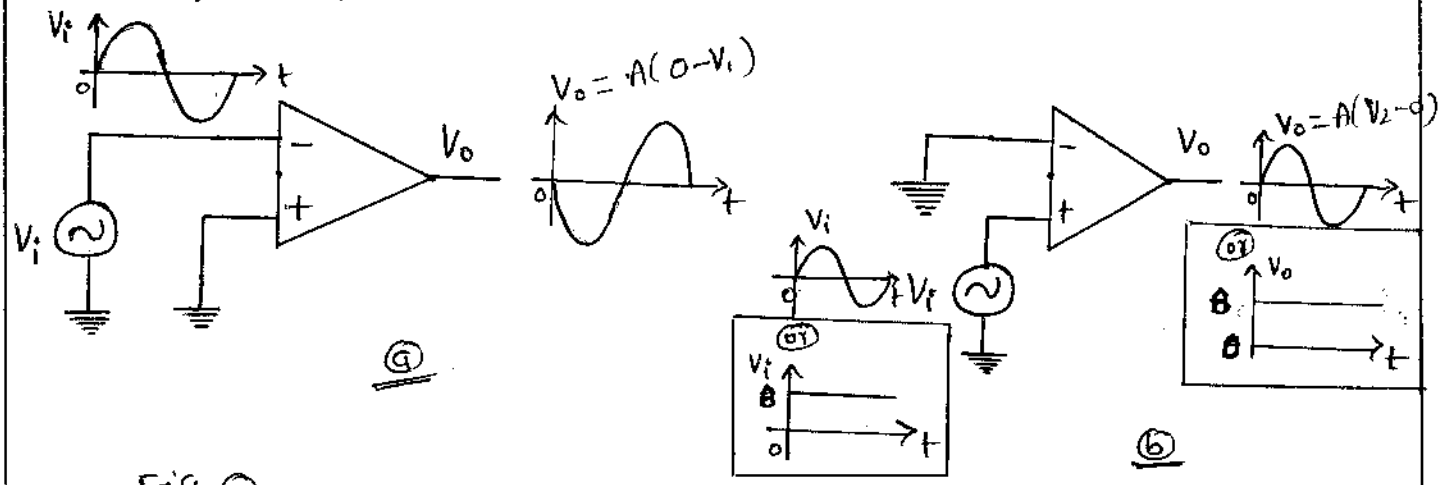
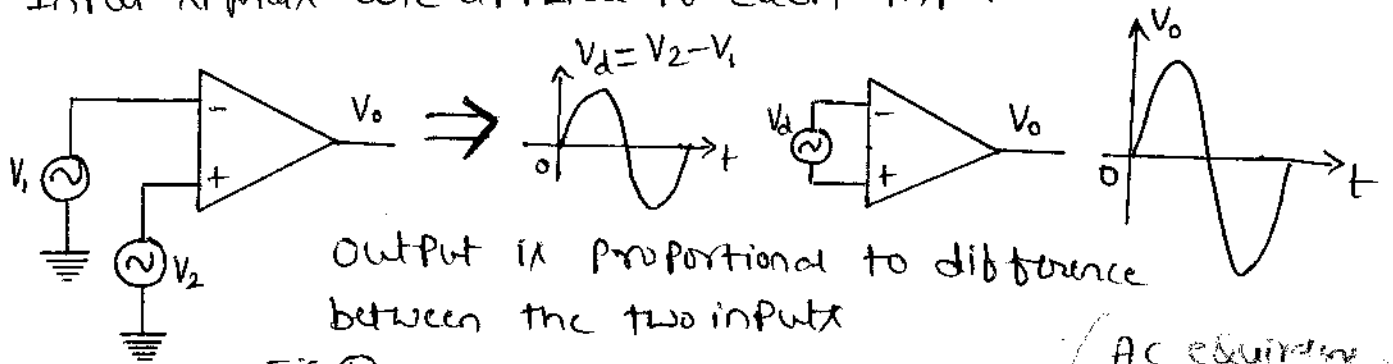


Fig ③

⑥

(b) Double-Ended (Differential) Input :

Input signals are applied to each input



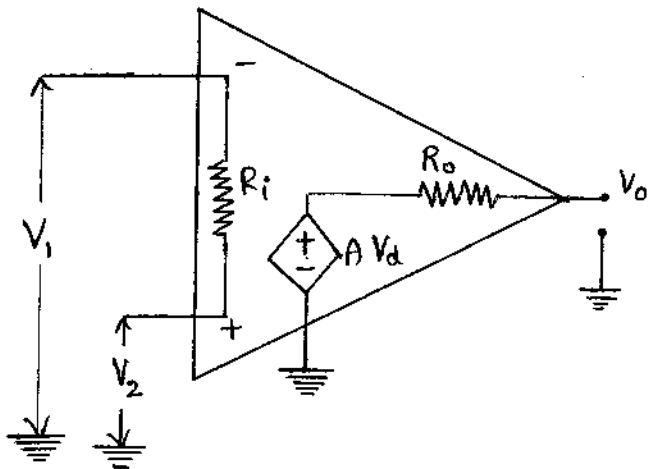
Output is proportional to difference between the two inputs

Fig 4

(AC equivalent)

(c) Equivalent circuit @ Circuit model of OP-AMP :

Fig 5 shows the simplified circuit model of Practical OP-AMP.



→ $AV_d [A(V_2 - V_1)]$ is the Thevenin equivalent voltage source, & R_o is the Thevenin equivalent resistance

→ A is the gain @ Large signal voltage gain

→ R_i is the input resistance

→ $V_d (V_2 - V_1)$ is the difference input voltage.

Fig 5 : circuit model of Practical OP-AMP

Fig 6 shows the Equivalent circuit of ideal OP-AMP.

→ An ideal OP-AMP has $A = \infty, R_i = \infty, R_o = 0$

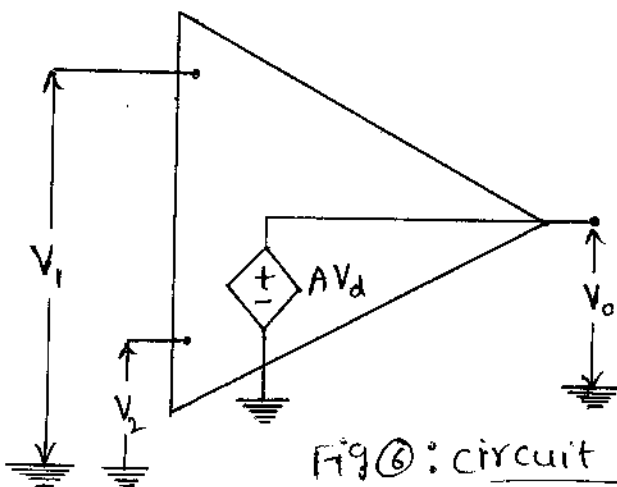


Fig 6 : circuit model of ideal OP-AMP

SHASHIDHAR TM
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

11) Package types

There are three basic types of Linear IC Packages:

- Ⓐ The flat pack
- Ⓑ The metal can
- Ⓒ Transistor pack
- Ⓓ The dual-in-line Package (DIP)

12) Features of 741

- No external frequency compensation required
- Short-circuit protection.
- Offset null capability
- Large common-mode and differential voltage ranges.
- Low power consumption.
- No Latch-up Problem.

13) Differential amplifier:

It amplifies the difference of the two inputs $V_d (V_2 - V_1)$

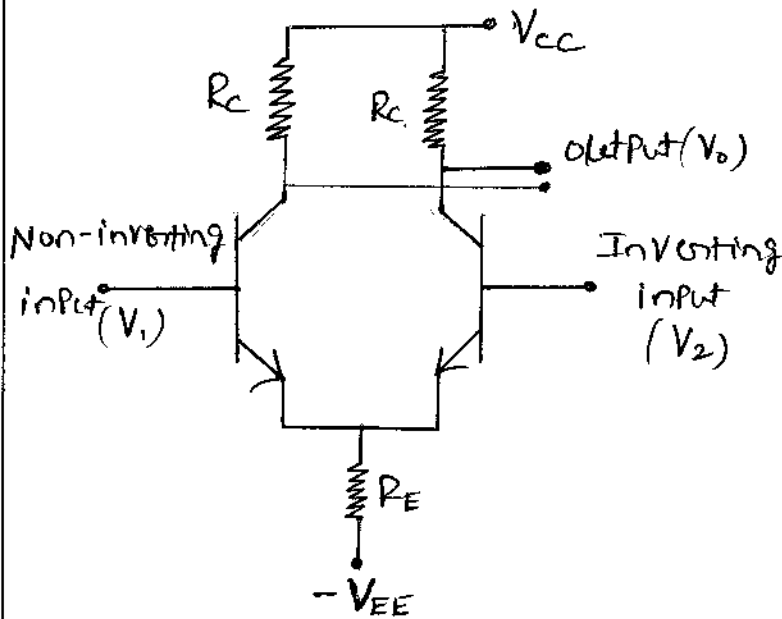


Fig 7: Differential amplifier

Output is,

$$V_o \propto (V_1 - V_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_o = A(V_1 - V_2) \quad (67)$$

$$V_o = AV_d$$

Where,

- A → Large signal voltage gain
- V_1 → voltage applied to the non-inverting input
- V_2 → voltage applied to inverting input
- V_d → Difference voltage

14) • OP-amp which use BJT are called bipolar type OP-amp

• OP-amp having FET input circuit with the remainder of the circuit using BJT are called FET type OP-amp

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* Block diagram of OP-amp (i) Internal Block diagram

(ii) Architecture of op-amp:

The block diagram of an OP-amp is shown in fig (8)

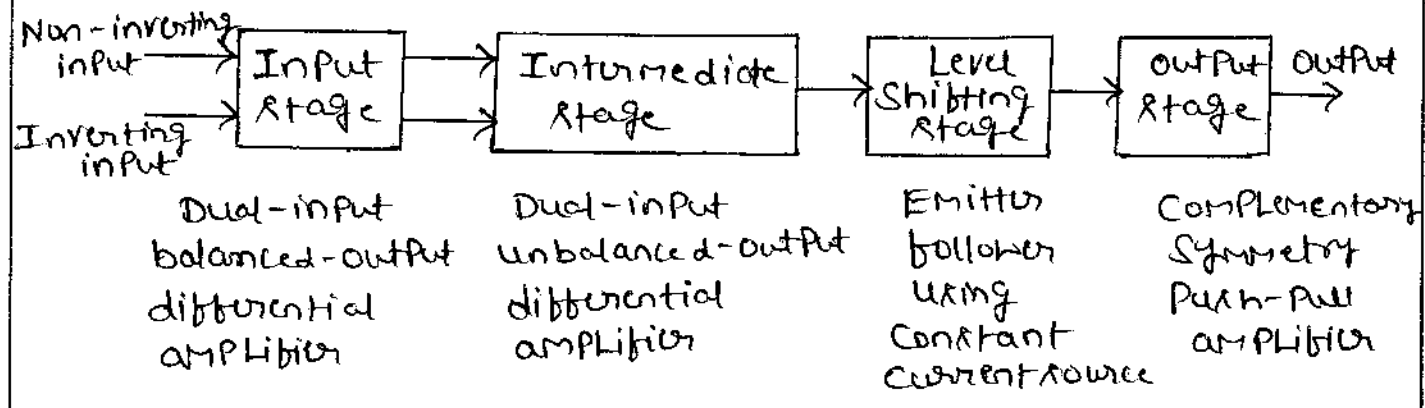


Fig (8): Block diagram of a typical OP-amp

There are four stages:

- Input stage (i) Differential amplifier stage
 - It can amplify difference between the two input signals.
 - Input resistance is very high, draws zero current from the input sources.
- Intermediate stage (stage) (ii) High gain amplifier stage
 - It uses direct coupling.
 - It provides very high gain.
- Level translator stage (iii) Level Shifter stage (Buffer)
 - It shifts the dc level of the output voltage of the intermediate stage to zero.
- Output stage (iv) Power amplifier stage (v) driver stage
 - It has very small output resistance.
 - output voltage is the same irrespective of the value of the load resistance connected to the output terminal.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Note: (i) Configurations (ii) Voltage gain of OP-amp:

① Open-loop Configuration ② Open-loop Voltage gain (A_{OL})

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

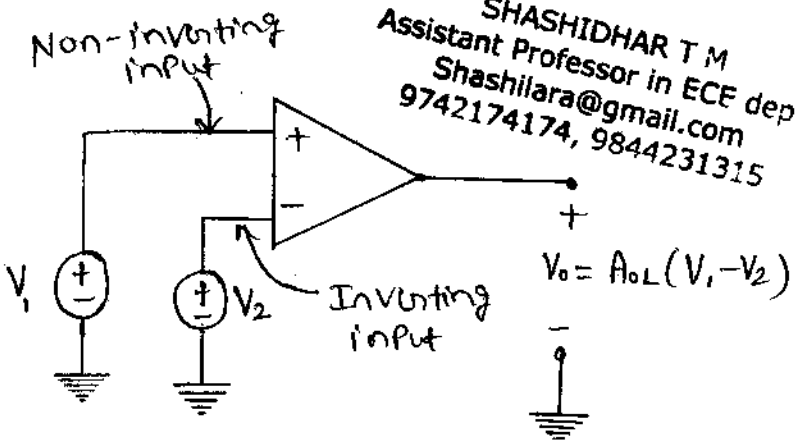


Fig ①: Open loop Configuration

- A_{OL} is the open-loop voltage gain of op-amp (Typically $A_{OL} = 2 \times 10^5$)
- A_{OL} is the maximum possible voltage gain.
- There is no feedback from the output to input

- If input is in micro volts, output will be in volts.
- Output voltage cannot cross the value of power supply (i.e. saturation value) V_{CC} (or V_{EE})
- So, if input is in milli volts, output reaches saturation value $V_{sat} = V_{CC}$ (or V_{EE}). This property of op-amp is called saturation property.

② Closed-loop Configuration ③ Closed-loop Voltage gain (A_{CL})

- Open-loop voltage gain of op-amp is very high, such high gain is not required in most applications.
- In order to reduce gain, negative feedback is used (a part of the output signal is fed back in phase opposition to the input)

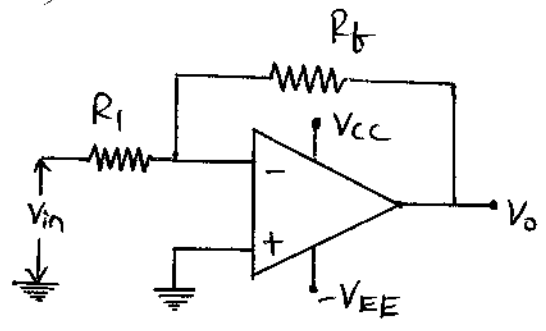


Fig ②: Negative feedback op-amp circuit (closed loop configuration)

- Many other op-amp characteristics are improved with this.

③ Total output of a differential amplifier (practically)
④ (op-amp)

The output of OP-AMP (DA) is, (DA → Differential Amplifier)

$$V_o = A_d V_d \text{ --- (1)}$$

Where, A_d → Differential gain (Gain with which the DA amplifies the difference between two input signals)

V_d → Difference between two inputs ($V_1 - V_2$)

$$A_d = \frac{V_o}{V_d}$$

If $V_1 = V_2$, then ideally output is zero ($V_o = 0$)

But in practical OP-AMP, output is,

$$V_o = A_{cm} V_{cm} \text{ --- (2)}$$

$$A_{cm} = \frac{V_o}{V_{cm}}$$

Where A_{cm} → common mode gain (Gain with which DA amplifies the common mode signal)

V_{cm} → common mode signal ($\frac{V_1 + V_2}{2}$)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

∴ Total output is,

$$V_o = A_d V_d + A_{cm} V_{cm}$$

$$V_o = A_d V_d \left(1 + \frac{1}{CMRR} \frac{V_{cm}}{V_d} \right) \quad \left[\because CMRR = \frac{A_d}{A_{cm}} \right]$$

$$\textcircled{III} A_d \text{ (dB)} = 20 \log_{10} (A_d)$$

OP-AMP parameters & Characteristics (Large signal voltage gain) (A)

① Differential gain @ Differential mode gain (A_d)

It is the factor by which the difference between the two input signals is amplified by the OP-AMP.

①

It is the ratio of the output voltage to the difference voltage. It is denoted by A_d .

i.e. $A_d = \frac{V_o}{V_d} = \frac{V_o}{V_1 - V_2}$

Ideally: $A_d = \infty$
 Practically: $A_d = A = 2 \times 10^5$
 (HA741)

② Common Mode gain (A_{cm})

It is the factor by which the common mode input voltage is amplified by the OP-amp.

① It is the ratio of the output voltage to the common mode signal. It is denoted by ' A_{cm} '

i.e. $A_{cm} = \frac{V_o}{V_{cm}} = \frac{V_o}{(V_1 + V_2)/2}$

Ideally: $A_{cm} = 0$
 Practically: $A_{cm} = 6 - 7$
 (HA741)

③ Common mode rejection ratio (CMRR)

It is the factor which explains the ability of an OP-amp to reject the common mode signal.

① It is the ratio of differential gain to common mode gain. It is denoted by 'CMRR'.

i.e. $CMRR = \frac{A_d}{A_{cm}}$ ① $CMRR(dB) = 20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{A_d}{A_{cm}} \right) (dB)$

Ideally: $CMRR = \infty$
 Practically: $CMRR = 90dB$
 (HA741)

(A_d is always a large value w.r.t to A_{cm})

④ Differential input resistance ① Input resistance ②

Input impedance (R_i)

It is the equivalent resistance measured at either the inverting ① non-inverting input terminal with the other terminal connected to ground. It is denoted by ' R_i '

Ideally: $R_i = \infty$
 Practically: $R_i = 2M\Omega$ (For HA741)

⑤ Output resistance ① Output impedance (R_o)

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

It is the equivalent resistance measured between the output terminal of the OP-amp and the ground. It is denoted by R_o .

Ideally: $R_o = 0$
 Practically: $R_o = 75 \Omega$ (741C)

⑥ Bandwidth (BW)

It is the range of frequency over which the gain of OP-amp is almost constant.

It is the range of frequency over which the performance of the OP-amp is satisfactory. It is denoted by BW.

Ideally: $BW = \infty$
 Practically: $BW = 1 \text{ MHz}$ (741C)

741C IC is
 Range of 741C

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Sshashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

⑦ Input offset voltage (V_{io})

It is the voltage that must be applied between the two input terminals of an OP-amp to make output voltage zero (to null the output). It is denoted by V_{io} .

Ideally: $V_{io} = 0$
 Practically: $V_{io} = 6 \text{ mV}$ (741C)

$V_{io} = V_2 - V_1$
 $V_{io} = 0$

⑧ Output offset voltage (V_{oo})

It is the output voltage when both input voltages are zero. It is denoted by V_{oo} .

Ideally: $V_{oo} = 0$
 Practically: $V_{oo} = 1 \text{ mV}$ (741C)

⑨ Input offset current (I_{io})

It is the difference between the currents in the input terminals. It is denoted by 'I_{io}'.

i.e. $I_{io} = |I_1 - I_2|$

Where, I₁ → current into the noninverting input
I₂ → current into the inverting input.

Ideally: $I_{io} = 0$
Practically: $I_{io} = 20nA$ (For $\mu A 741$)

20nA max

⑩ Input bias current (I_{ib})

It is the average of the currents in the input terminals. It is denoted by 'I_{ib}'

i.e. $I_{ib} = \frac{I_1 + I_2}{2}$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Where, I₁, I₂ → current into non-inverting & inverting input respectively.

Ideally: $I_{ib} = 0$
Practically: $I_{ib} = 80nA$ (For $\mu A 741$)

80nA max

⑪ Slew rate (SR)

It is the maximum rate of change of output voltage with respect to time. It is denoted by SR.

i.e. $SR = \left. \frac{dV_o}{dt} \right|_{max}$ (V/μs)

Ideally: $SR = \infty$
Practically: $SR = 0.5V/\mu s$

⑫ Supply Voltage Rejection Ratio ① Power Supply Sensitivity ② Power Supply Rejection Ratio: (SVRR) ③ (PSRR)

It is the change in input offset voltage (V_{io}); caused by variations in supply voltage. It is denoted

by SVRR @ PSRR.

$$\text{ie. } SVRR = \frac{\Delta V_{io}}{\Delta V} \text{ (}\mu\text{V/V)}$$

Ideally: $SVRR = 0$

Practically: $SVRR = 150 \mu\text{V/V}$ (741C)

Note:

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

① Input Capacitance (C_i):

It is the equivalent capacitance measured at either the inverting @ noninverting terminal with the other terminal connected to ground. It is defined by ' C_i '.

Practically: $C_i = 1.4 \text{ pF}$ for 741C

② Gain-Bandwidth product (GB)

It is the bandwidth of the OP-amp when the voltage gain is 1

Practically: $GB = 1 \text{ MHz}$ for 741C

③ Maximum signal frequency in terms of Slew rate (for an undistorted output)

Let the output voltage (sinusoidal signal) be.

$$V_o = V_m \sin(\omega t) \quad \text{--- ①}$$

Diff w.r.t 't' on b.s

$$\frac{dV_o}{dt} = V_m \cos(\omega t) \cdot \omega$$

$$\Rightarrow \left. \frac{dV_o}{dt} \right|_{\text{max}} = \omega V_m \quad \text{--- ②} \quad (\because \cos(\omega t)|_{\text{max}} = 1)$$

To prevent distortion at the output, the rate of change of output w.r.t must be less than the SR.

i.e. $\left. \frac{dV_o}{dt} \right|_{\max} \leq SR \quad \text{--- (3)}$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Using (2) in (3), we get,

$\omega V_m \leq SR$

$\Rightarrow \omega \leq \frac{SR}{V_m} \Rightarrow \omega_{\max} = \frac{SR}{V_m} \text{ (rad/s)}$

$\Rightarrow f \leq \frac{SR}{2\pi V_m} \text{ (}\because \omega = 2\pi f\text{)} \Rightarrow f_{\max} = \frac{SR}{2\pi V_m} \text{ (Hz)}$

4) OP-AMP characteristics:

Sl. No.	Parameter	Symbol	Ideal Value	Typical Value for 741
1	Differential gain @ Large signal Voltage gain @ Open-loop Voltage gain.	A_d @ A	∞	2×10^5
2	Common mode gain	A_{cm}	0	6
3	Common mode rejection ratio	CMRR	∞	90dB
4	Input resistance	R_i	∞	2M Ω
5	output resistance	R_o	0	75 Ω
6	Bandwidth	BW	∞	1MHz
7	Input offset voltage	V_{io}	0	6mV
8	output offset voltage	V_{oo}	0	1mV
9	Input offset current	I_{io}	0	20nA
10	Input bias current	I_{ib}	0	80nA
11	Slew rate	SR	∞	0.5V/ μ s
12	SUPPLY Voltage rejection ratio	SVRR	0	150mV/V

5) Virtual ground @ Virtual short :

The OP-AMP inverting amplifier is shown in fig (11)

The output voltage is,

$$V_o = A(V_2 - V_1) \text{ --- (1)}$$

Where, $A \rightarrow$ Large signal voltage gain

For an output voltage of 12V, the input voltage would be,

$$V_2 - V_1 = \frac{V_o}{A} \text{ (}\because \text{From 1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_2 - V_1 = \frac{12}{2 \times 10^5} \text{ (}\because \text{Practically, } A = 2 \times 10^5 \text{ for } \mu A 741)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_2 - V_1 = 0.06 \text{ mV}$$

Differential input voltage is very small, ($V_d = V_2 - V_1$)

Ideally, $V_2 - V_1 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_1 = V_2} \text{ --- (2)}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

From (2), we can conclude,

- Voltage at inverting terminal = Voltage at non-inverting terminal
- There exists a virtual short-circuit @ virtual ground
- No current flows through the short circuit
- Current through $R_i =$ current through R_f .

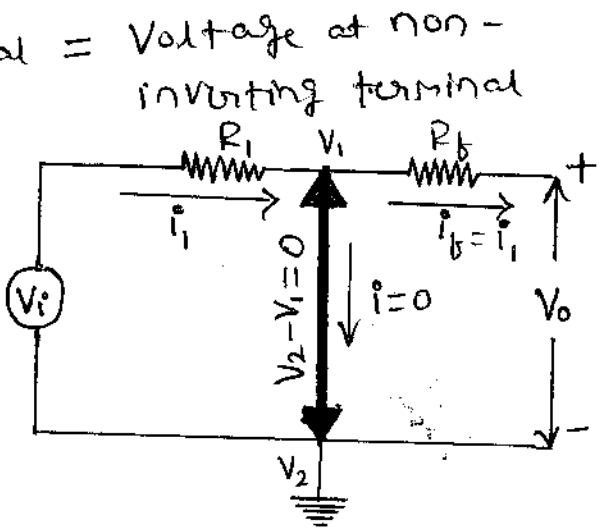


Fig (12): virtual ground

① The virtual short is indicated by a thick line between input terminals.

② For an op-amp, output voltage cannot cross $V_{cc}(V_{EE})$ (≈ 12 to $15V$) (\because From saturation property)

⑧ No current flows into OP-amp input terminals (∵ Input impedance is very high)

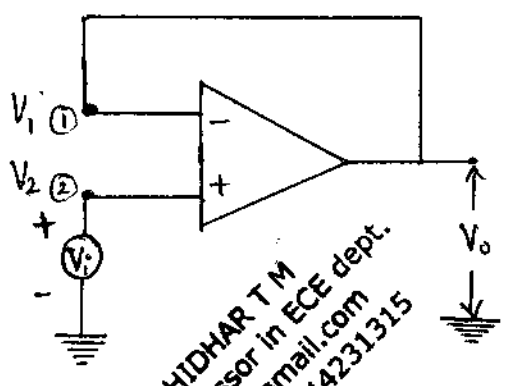
* OP-AMP APPLICATIONS

- ① Voltage follower
- ② Inverting amplifier
- ③ Non-inverting amplifier
- ④ Summer (Adder)
- ⑤ Subtractor (difference amplifier)
- ⑥ Differentiator
- ⑦ Integrator

* ① Voltage follower ② unity gain amplifier ③ buffer

Definition: An OP-amp circuit in which the output voltage follows the input voltage is called voltage follower (output voltage is equal to input voltage)

Circuit diagram:



SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Analysis:

From virtual ground concept,

$V_1 = V_2 = V_i$ — ①

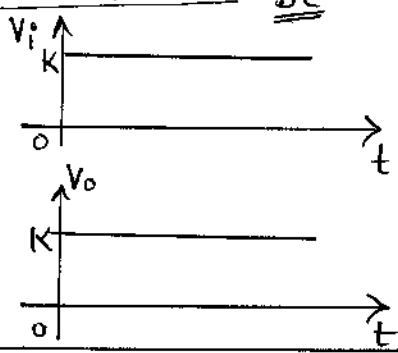
Since output is connected to input,

$V_o = V_i$ — ②

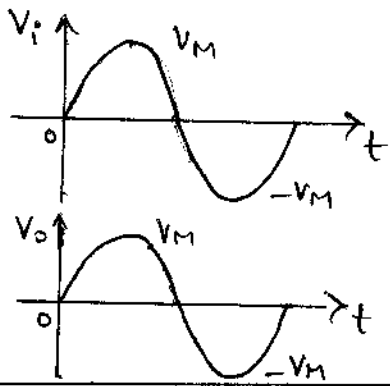
From ① & ②,

$V_o = V_i$ — ③

Wave forms: DC



AC



Conclusion:

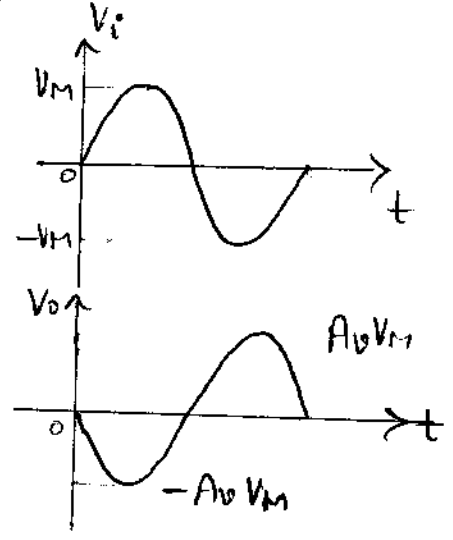
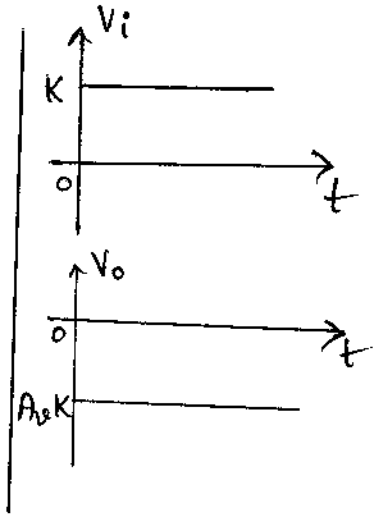
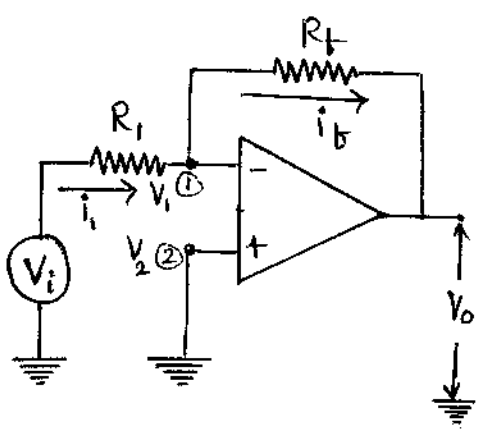
• From eqn ③, the output voltage follows the input voltage

* ② Inverting amplifier:

Definition: An OP-AMP circuit in which the output voltage is out of phase (180°) with respect to the input voltage is called inverting amplifier.

Waveforms:

circuit diagram:



Analysis:

APPLYING KCL at node ①,

$$i_i = i_f$$

(Since input impedance of OP-AMP is very high, no current flows into OP-AMP input terminal)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_i - V_1}{R_1} = \frac{V_1 - V_o}{R_f}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_i}{R_1} = -\frac{V_o}{R_f} \quad \left[\text{From virtual ground concept, } V_1 = V_2 = 0 \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_o = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1}\right)V_i} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

SHASHIDHART M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

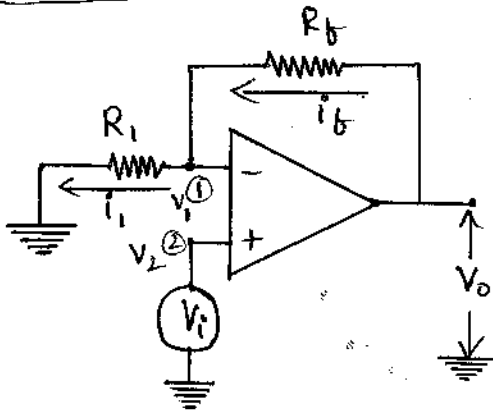
Where, $A_0 \rightarrow$ Closed loop voltage gain

Conclusion: From eqn (5), negative sign indicates that the output is inverted w.r.t the input.

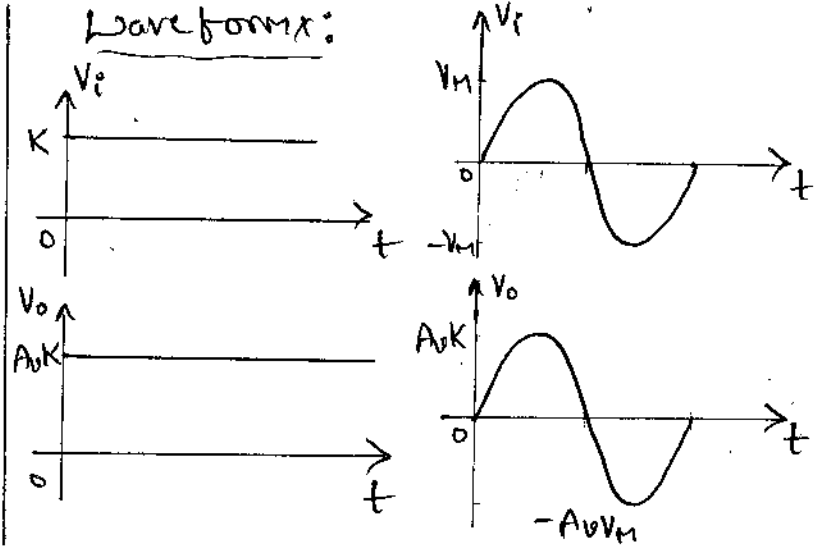
* ③ Non-inverting amplifier:

Definition: An op-amp circuit in which the output voltage is in phase with the input voltage is called Non-inverting amplifier.

Circuit diagram:



Waveform:



Analysis:

APPLYING KCL at node ①.

$$i_b = i_1$$

(∵ No current flows into op-amp input terminals)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_o - V_i}{R_f} = \frac{V_i - 0}{R_i} \quad \left(\text{From virtual ground concept, } V_1 = V_2 = V_i \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_o - V_i}{R_f} = \frac{V_i}{R_i}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_o - V_i}{V_i} = \frac{R_f}{R_i}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_o}{V_i} - 1 = \frac{R_f}{R_i}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{V_o}{V_i} = 1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i} = A_v} \quad \text{--- ⑥} \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{V_o = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i}\right) V_i} \quad \text{--- ⑦}$$

Where, $A_v \rightarrow$ closed loop voltage gain.

Conclusion: From ⑥ ⑦, • The output voltage is in-phase with the input voltage. • A_v depends on R_f & R_i .

* (h) Summer (adder) or Summing amplifier:

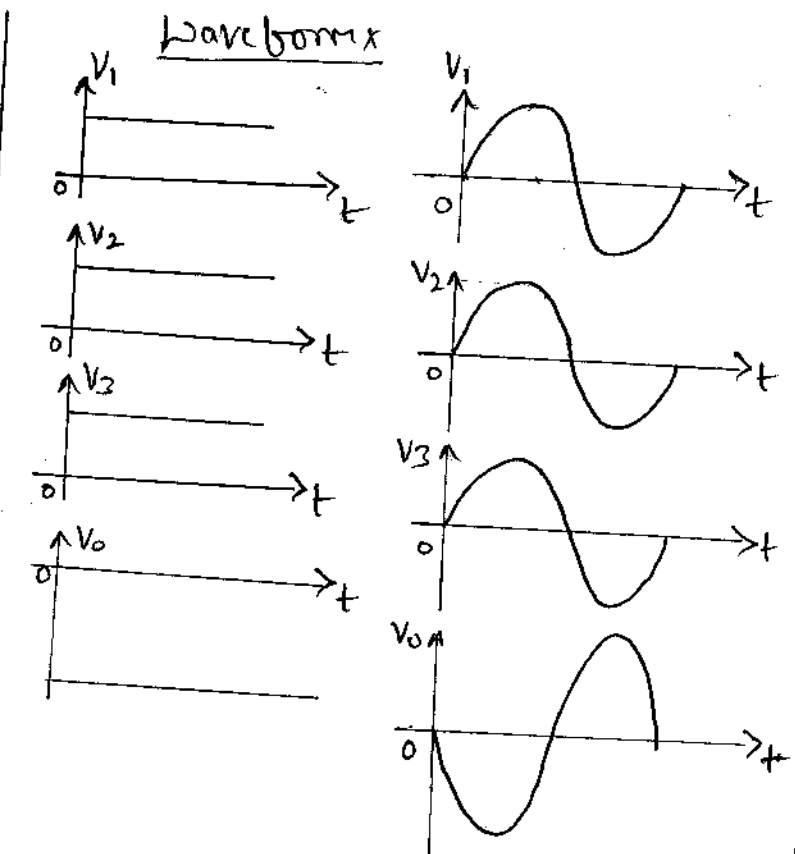
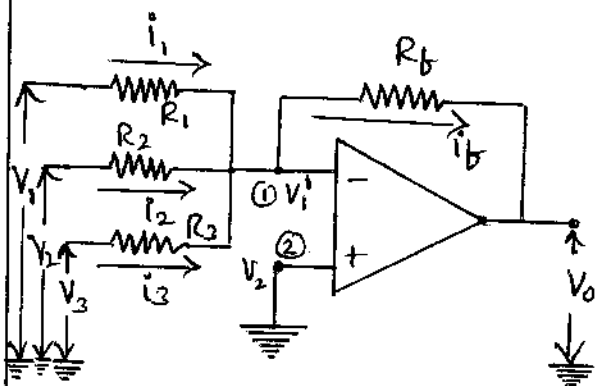
Definition: An op-amp circuit, in which the output voltage is the sum of the input signal voltages is called summer.

There are ~~two~~ types:

(a) Inverting summing amplifier:

Definition: An op-amp circuit, in which the output voltage is the inverted sum of the input voltages is called inverting summing amplifier.

Circuit diagram



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Analysis:

APPLYING KCL at node (1).

$$i_1 + i_2 + i_3 = i_f \quad (\because \text{No current flows into op-amp input terminals})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1 - V_1'}{R_1} + \frac{V_2 - V_1'}{R_2} + \frac{V_3 - V_1'}{R_3} = \frac{V_1' - V_0}{R_f}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2} + \frac{V_3}{R_3} = -\frac{V_0}{R_f} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{From virtual ground concept,} \\ V_1' = V_2 = 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_o = - \left(\frac{R_f}{R_1} V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2} V_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3} V_3 \right) \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

Conclusion:

From (8), the output voltage is proportional to the inverted sum of the input voltages.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9844231315

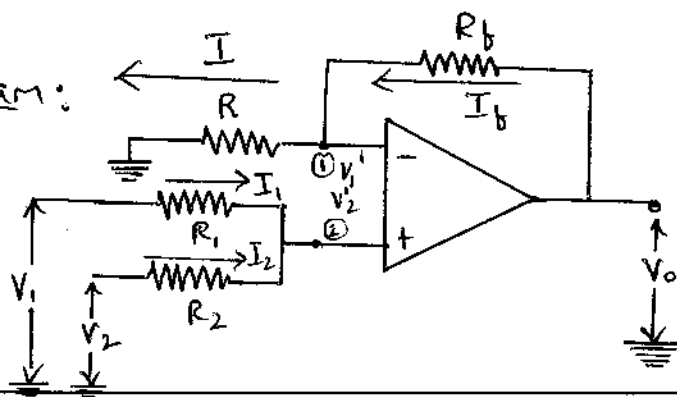
Note:

- ① From (4), • If $R_f = R_1$, $V_o = -V_i$ or $\frac{V_o}{V_i} = -1 = A_v$
 amplifier is unity gain inverting amplifier.
- ② From (7), • Irrespective of the value of R_1 & R_f , $V_o \geq V_i$
 • If $R_f = 0$ or $R_1 = \infty$, then $V_o = V_i$, amplifier is unity gain non-inverting amplifier.
- ③ From (8), • If $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_f$, then, $V_o = -(V_1 + V_2 + V_3)$
 output voltage is the negative of the sum of the input voltages [Gain of the summer is unity (1)]
 • If $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = 3R_f$, then, $V_o = - \left(\frac{V_1 + V_2 + V_3}{3} \right)$
 or $R_1 = R_2 = 2R_f$ & $V_3 = 0$, then $V_o = - \left(\frac{V_1 + V_2}{2} \right)$
 then circuit is averager or averaging circuit

⑤ Non-inverting Summer:

Definition: An OP-amp circuit, in which the output voltage is the sum of the input voltages is called Non-inverting Summer.

Circuit diagram:



Analysis:

APPLYING KCL at node ②

$$I_1 + I_2 = 0 \quad (\text{No current flows into input})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1 - V_2'}{R_1} + \frac{V_2 - V_2'}{R_2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2} = V_2' \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{R_2 V_1 + R_1 V_2}{R_1 R_2} = V_2' \left(\frac{R_2 + R_1}{R_1 R_2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_2' = \frac{R_2 V_1 + R_1 V_2}{R_1 + R_2} \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

APPLYING KCL at node ①,

$$I_f = I$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_o - V_1'}{R_f} = \frac{V_1' - 0}{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_o}{R_f} = V_1' \left(\frac{1}{R} + \frac{1}{R_f} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_o}{R_f} = V_1' \left(\frac{R_f + R}{R R_f} \right)$$

$$V_o = V_1' \left(\frac{R + R_f}{R} \right) \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

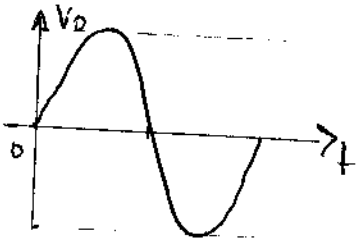
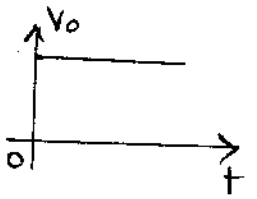
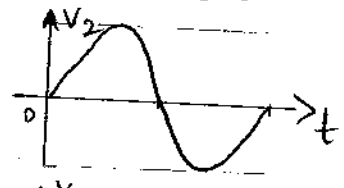
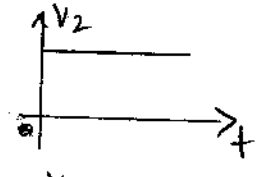
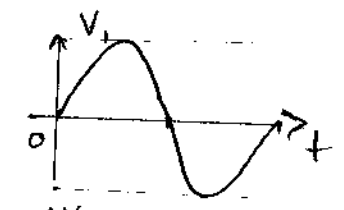
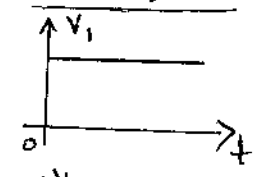
(From virtual ground,
 $V_1' = V_2' = \frac{R_2 V_1 + R_1 V_2}{R_1 + R_2}$)

$$\Rightarrow V_o = \left(\frac{R_2 V_1 + R_1 V_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \left(\frac{R + R_f}{R} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_o = \frac{R_2 (R + R_f)}{R (R_1 + R_2)} V_1 + \frac{R_1 (R + R_f)}{R (R_1 + R_2)} V_2$$

$$\Rightarrow V_o = \frac{(1 + R_f/R)}{(1 + R_1/R_2)} V_1 + \frac{(1 + R_f/R)}{(1 + R_2/R_1)} V_2 \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

Wave form



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Conclusion:

From (11), the output voltage is proportional to the sum of the input voltages.

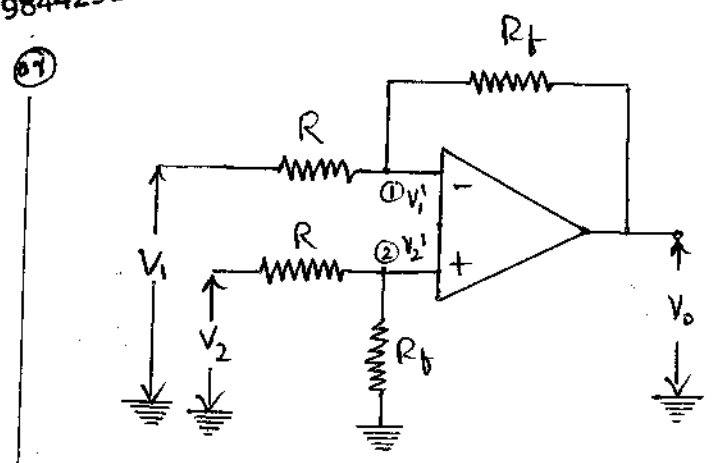
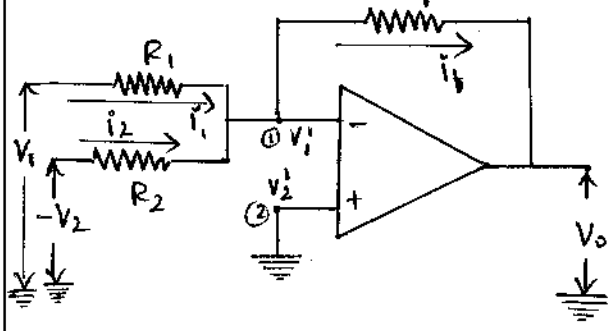
Note: (1) From (11), If $R = R_f = R_1 = R_2$, $V_o = V_1 + V_2$

Output voltage is equal to the non-inverted sum of the input voltages (2) From (8), if V_1, V_2, V_3 are negative, $V_o = \frac{R_f}{R_1} V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2} V_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3} V_3$

* (5) Subtractor (6) Difference amplifier

Definition: An op-amp circuit, in which the output voltage is the difference (subtraction) of two input voltages is called Subtractor.

Circuit diagram SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



Applying KCL at node (1),

$$i_1 + i_2 = i_f$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1 - V_1'}{R_1} + \frac{-V_2 - V_1'}{R_2} = \frac{V_1' - V_o}{R_f}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1}{R_1} - \frac{V_2}{R_2} = -\frac{V_o}{R_f} \quad (\because V_1' = V_2' = 0)$$

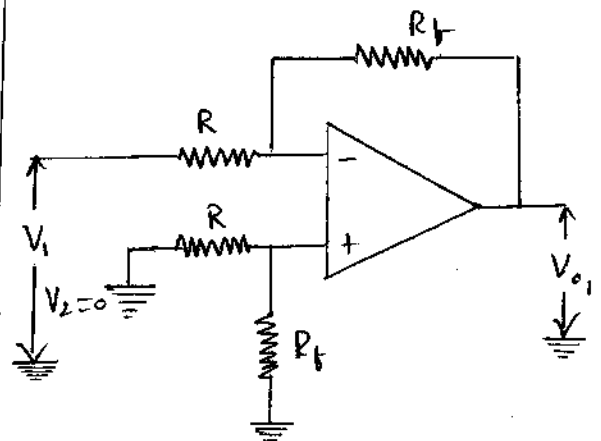
$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_o = \frac{R_f}{R_2} V_2 - \frac{R_f}{R_1} V_1} \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

If $R_1 = R_2 = R_f$, then

$$\boxed{V_o = V_2 - V_1} \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

Let us use superposition theorem.

Case (i): Let $V_2 = 0$

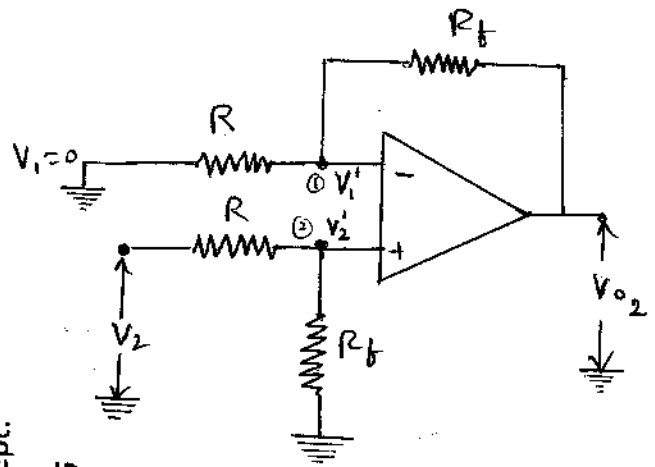


The resulting circuit is inverting amplifier

$$\therefore V_{o1} = -\frac{R_f}{R} V_1 \quad \text{--- (14)}$$

Case (ii): Let $V_1 = 0$

The resulting circuit is shown in fig*



The circuit is non-inverting amplifier.

$$V_{02} = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R}\right) V_2' \quad (15)$$

From potential divider rule

$$V_2' = \frac{V_2 R_f}{R + R_f} \quad (16)$$

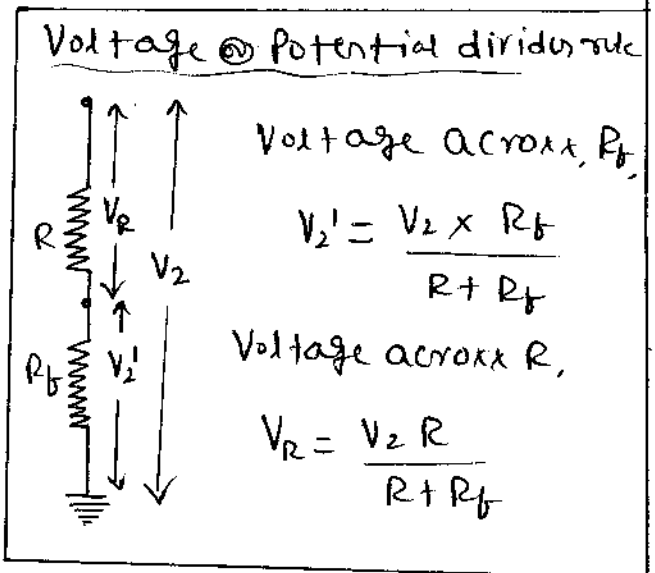
Using (16) in (15), we get

$$\begin{aligned} V_{02} &= \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R}\right) V_2 \left(\frac{R_f}{R + R_f}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{R + R_f}{R}\right) V_2 \left(\frac{R_f}{R + R_f}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$V_{02} = \frac{R_f}{R} V_2 \quad (17)$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig*:



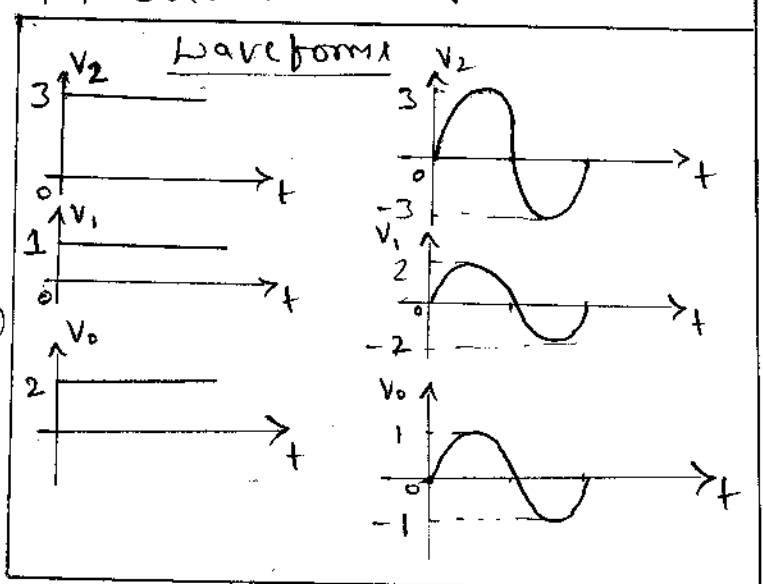
From Superposition theorem, the output voltage is

$$\begin{aligned} V_0 &= V_{01} + V_{02} \\ &= -\frac{R_f}{R} V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R} V_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$V_0 = \frac{R_f}{R} (V_2 - V_1) \quad (18)$$

If $R = R_f$, then

$$V_0 = V_2 - V_1 \quad (19)$$

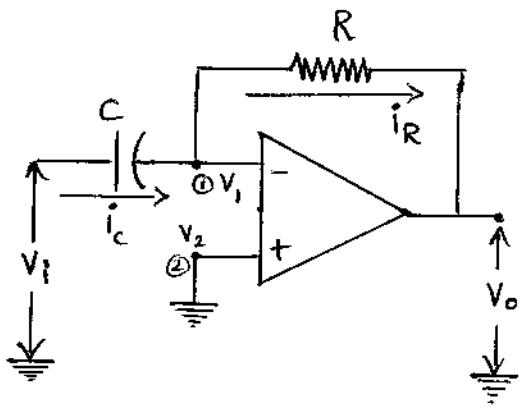


Conclusion: From (13) (18) (19), the output voltage is the difference of the two input voltages.

* ⑥ Differentiator;

Definition: An op-amp circuit, in which the output voltage is the differentiation (derivative) of the input voltage is called differentiator.

Circuit diagram



Analysis:

APPLYING KCL at node ①.

$$i_c = i_R$$

$$C \frac{d(V_i - V_1)}{dt} = \frac{V_1 - V_o}{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow C \frac{dV_i}{dt} = -\frac{V_o}{R} \quad \left(\because \text{From virtual ground concept, } V_1 = V_2 = 0 \right)$$

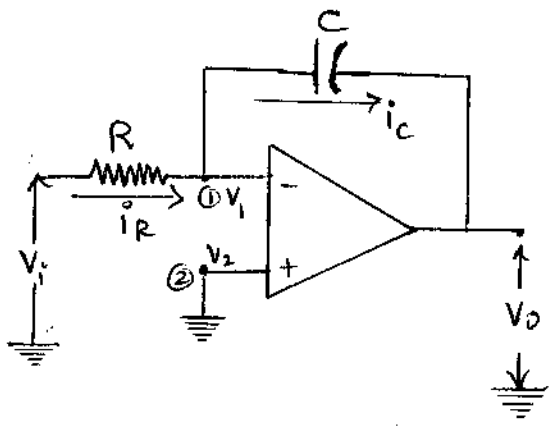
$$\Rightarrow V_o = -RC \frac{dV_i}{dt} \quad \text{--- (20)}$$

Conclusion: From (20), the output voltage is proportional to the time derivative of the input voltage.

* ⑦ Integrator;

Definition: An op-amp circuit, in which the output voltage is the integration of the input voltage is called integrator.

Circuit diagram:



Analysis:

APPLYING KCL at node ①.

$$i_R = i_c$$

$$\frac{V_i - V_1}{R} = C \frac{d(V_1 - V_o)}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_i}{R} = -C \frac{dV_o}{dt} \quad \left(\text{From virtual ground concept, } V_1 = V_2 = 0 \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow dV_o = -\frac{1}{RC} V_i dt$$

Integrating on both sides.

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$V_o = -\frac{1}{Rc} \int_0^t V_i dt + V_o(0) \quad \text{--- (21)}$$

Where, $V_o(0) \rightarrow$ Initial Voltage on capacitor at $t=0$
(Constant of integration)

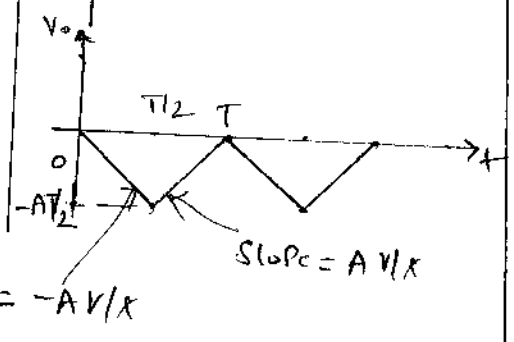
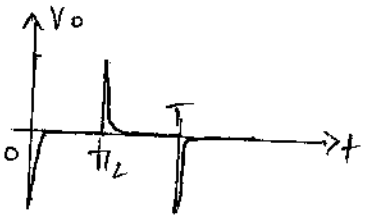
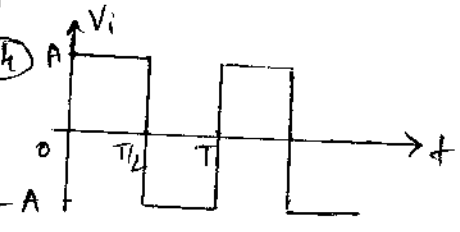
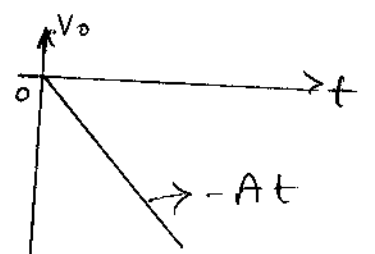
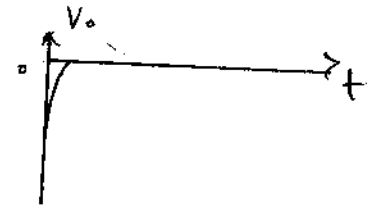
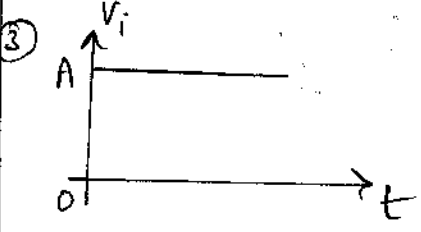
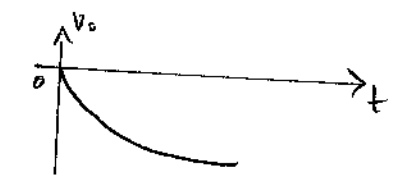
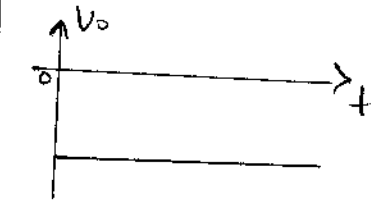
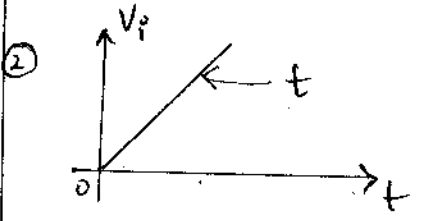
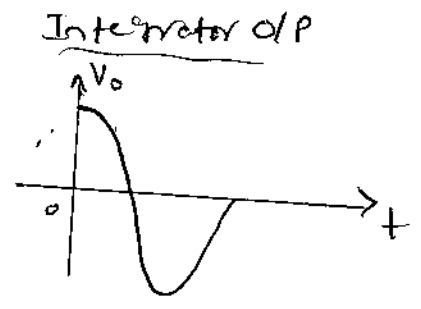
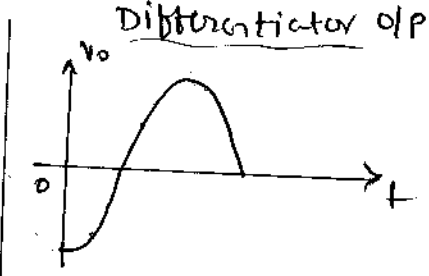
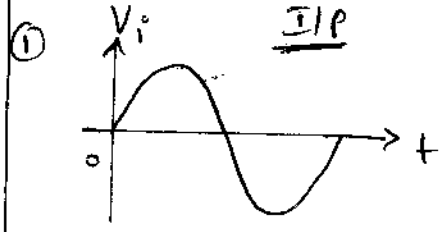
If $V_o(0) = 0$, then

$$V_o = -\frac{1}{Rc} \int_0^t V_i dt \quad \text{--- (22)}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

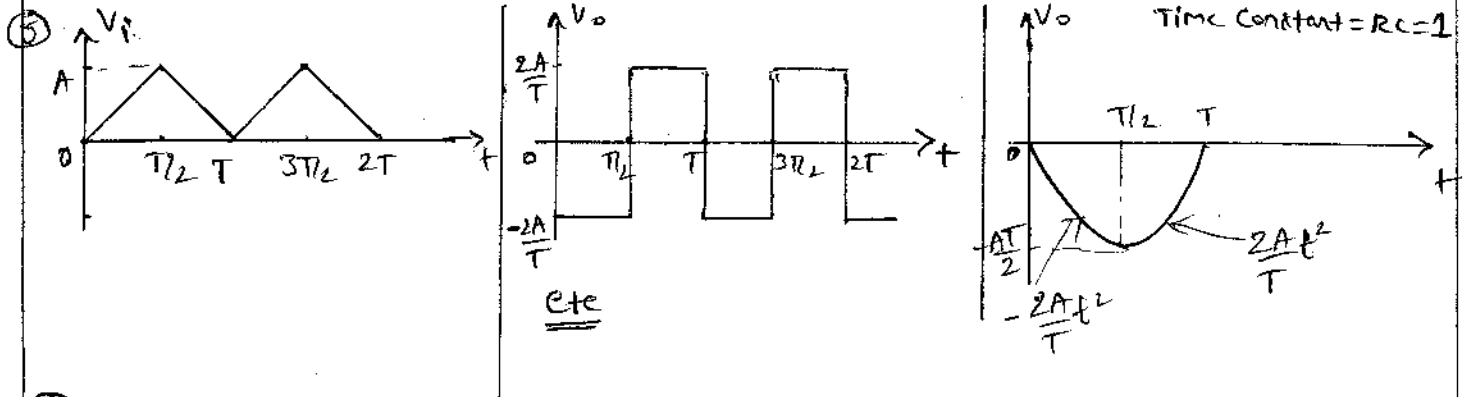
Conclusion: From (21) & (22), the output voltage is proportional to the integral of the input voltage.

Note: Wave forms



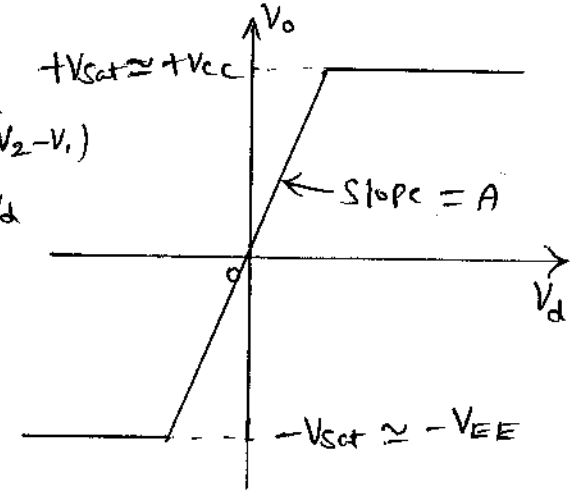
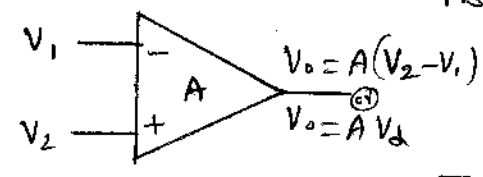
Slope = $-AV/x$

Slope = AV/x



II) Ideal Voltage transfer characteristic of an OP-amp

The output voltage,
 $V_o = A V_d$



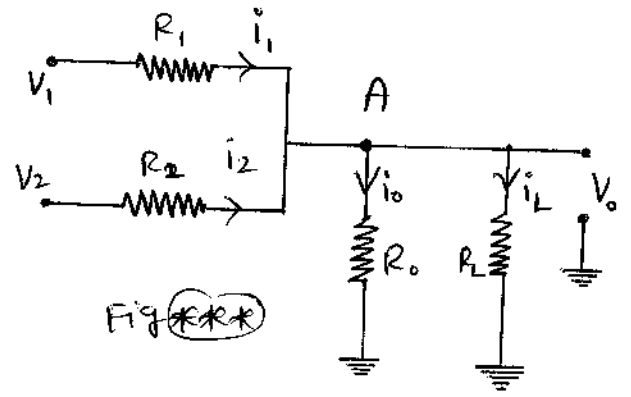
From characteristic
 • As \$V_d\$ increases,
 \$V_o\$ increases linearly until it attains the saturation voltage & thereafter it remains constant.

Fig (**):

Fig (**): Ideal Voltage transfer characteristic of an OP-amp

III) Need for an OP-amp

Let two signals \$V_1\$ & \$V_2\$ to be summed as shown in fig (***)



Applying KCL at node A

$$i_1 + i_2 = i_o + i_L$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1 - V_o}{R_1} + \frac{V_2 - V_o}{R_2} = \frac{V_o}{R_o} + \frac{V_o}{R_L}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2} = V_o \left[\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_o} + \frac{1}{R_L} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow V_o \left[\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_P} \right] = \frac{V_1}{R_1} + \frac{V_2}{R_2}$$

Fig (***)

$$\Rightarrow V_o \left[1 + \frac{R_p}{R_1} + \frac{R_p}{R_2} \right] = V_1 \left(\frac{R_p}{R_1} \right) + V_2 \left(\frac{R_p}{R_1} \right) \quad \text{Where } R_p = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_o} + \frac{1}{R_L}}$$

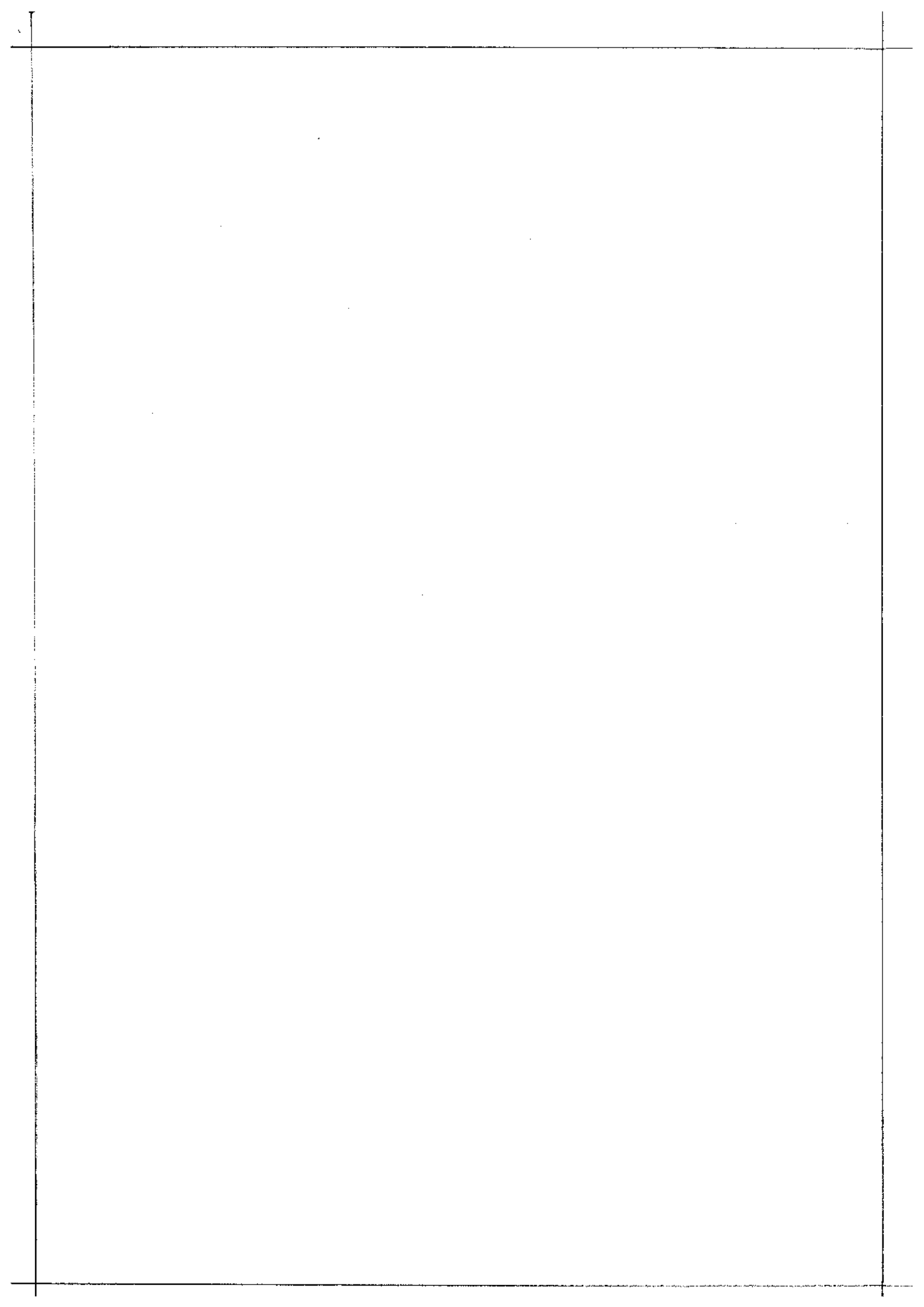
$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_o = V_1 \left(\frac{R_p}{R_1} \right) + V_2 \left(\frac{R_p}{R_1} \right)}{\left[1 + \frac{R_p}{R_1} + \frac{R_p}{R_2} \right]} \quad \text{--- } (*)$$

From eqn (*), it is clear that V_o depends on R_p which in turn depends on R_L .

It is desirable to make V_o independent of R_L . This is possible if $R_o \ll R_L$ @ $\frac{1}{R_o} \gg \frac{1}{R_L}$ ($R_p \approx \frac{1}{R_o}$)

But R_p will be small, results in small value of V_o which is undesirable. Therefore it is necessary to use amplifier whose gain (output voltage) is independent of R_L .

Thus op-amp is preferred since closed loop voltage gain (output voltage) is independent of R_L (depends only on external resistors R_f & R_1).



Problems

① For an inverting amplifier $R = 10k\Omega$ & $R_f = 60k\Omega$.
What is the output voltage for $V_i = 2V$?

Sol: Given $R = 10k\Omega$, $R_f = 60k\Omega$, $V_i = 2V$, $V_o = ?$

For an inverting amplifier,

$$V_o = -\frac{R_f}{R} V_i = -\frac{60 \times 10^3}{10 \times 10^3} (2) = \underline{\underline{-12V}}$$

② Design an inverting amplifier for output voltage of $-10V$
& an input voltage of $1V$.

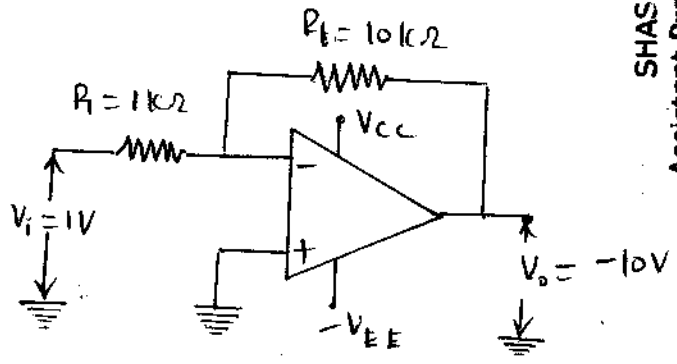
Sol: Given $V_o = -10V$, $V_i = 1V$, $R_i = ?$, $R_f = ?$

For an inverting amplifier,

$$V_o = -\frac{R_f}{R_i} V_i$$

$$\Rightarrow -10 = -\frac{R_f (1)}{R_i}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{R_f}{R_i} = 10$$



Assume $R_i = 1k\Omega$ //

$\therefore R_f = 10k\Omega$ //

③ The output signal of an op-amp with a slew-rate of $5V/\mu s$ has a maximum value of $15V$. Find the max freq for undistorted output voltage.

Sol: Given $SR = 5V/\mu s$, $V_m = 15V$, $f_{max} (W_{max}) = ?$

We have $f_{max} = \frac{SR}{2\pi V_m}$ $W_{max} = \frac{SR}{V_m}$

$$= \frac{5/10^{-6}}{2\pi (15)} \quad W_{max} = \frac{5/10^{-6}}{15}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$f_{max} = 53.05 \text{ KHz}$ @ $L_{max} = 333.33 \text{ rad/s}$

4) Determine the output voltage of an op-amp for the input voltages of 0.05mV & 0.04mV. The differential gain of the amplifier is 50000 & CMRR = 2×10^5 .

Sol Given $V_o = ?$, $V_1 = 0.05 \text{ mV}$, $V_2 = 0.04 \text{ mV}$, $A_d = 50000$, $\text{CMRR} = 2 \times 10^5$

We have,

$V_o = A_d V_d + A_c V_c$

$= 50000 \times 10 \times 10^{-6} + 0.25 \times 45 \times 10^{-6}$

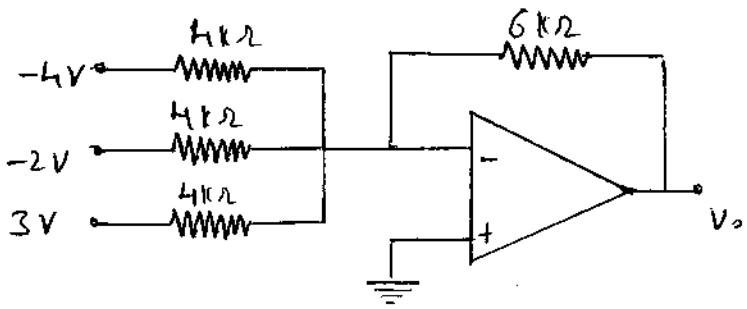
$= 0.5 + 11.25 \times 10^{-6}$

$= 500.011 \text{ mV}$

$\therefore V_d = V_1 - V_2$
 $= 0.05 \times 10^{-3} - 0.04 \times 10^{-3}$
 $= 0.01 \times 10^{-3} = 10 \times 10^{-6}$
 $A_c = \frac{A_d}{\text{CMRR}} = \frac{50000}{2 \times 10^5} = 0.25$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

5) Find the output voltage for the circuit shown in fig 5



Sol.

We have,

$V_o = - \left(\frac{R_f}{R_1} V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2} V_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3} V_3 \right)$

$= - \frac{R_f}{R_1} (V_1 + V_2 + V_3)$ ($\because R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = 4 \text{ k}\Omega$)

$= - \frac{6 \text{ k}\Omega}{4 \text{ k}\Omega} (-4 - 2 + 3)$

$= 4.5 \text{ V}$

6) Design an adder circuit for $V_o = -(2V_1 + 3V_2 + 5V_3)$

Sol: Given $V_o = -(2V_1 + 3V_2 + 5V_3)$

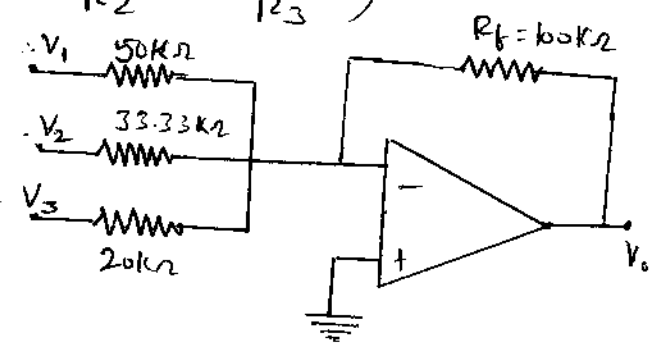
Comparing with, $V_o = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1}V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2}V_2 + \frac{R_f}{R_3}V_3\right)$

$\frac{R_f}{R_1} = 2$, $\frac{R_f}{R_2} = 3$, $\frac{R_f}{R_3} = 5$

Let $R_f = 100k\Omega$

$\therefore R_1 = \frac{R_f}{2}$, $R_2 = \frac{R_f}{3}$, $R_3 = \frac{R_f}{5}$

$\Rightarrow R_1 = 50k\Omega$, $R_2 = 33.33k\Omega$, $R_3 = 20k\Omega$



SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

7) Design an adder circuit for $V_o = 3V_1 + 2V_2 - 4V_3$

Sol: Given $V_o = 3V_1 + 2V_2 - 4V_3$

$\Rightarrow V_o = -[3(-V_1) + 2(-V_2) + 4V_3]$

Comparing with,

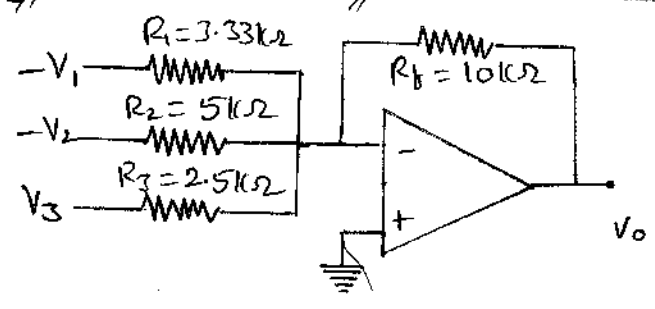
$V_o = -\left[\frac{R_f}{R_1}(-V_1) + \frac{R_f}{R_2}(-V_2) + \frac{R_f}{R_3}V_3\right]$

$\frac{R_f}{R_1} = 3$, $\frac{R_f}{R_2} = 2$, $\frac{R_f}{R_3} = 4$

Let $R_f = 10k\Omega$

$\therefore R_1 = \frac{10k}{3}$, $R_2 = \frac{10k}{2}$, $R_3 = \frac{10k}{4}$

$R_1 = 3.33k\Omega$, $R_2 = 5k\Omega$, $R_3 = 2.5k\Omega$



8) A differential amplifier has open circuit gain of 10^4 , the input signals are 1.2MV & 2.4MV . Determine the output voltage.

Sol: Given $A_d = 10^4$, $V_2 = 2.4 \times 10^{-6}\text{V}$, $V_1 = 1.2 \times 10^{-6}\text{V}$, $V_o = ?$

Output voltage, $V_o = A_d V_d$
 $= A_d (V_2 - V_1)$ (\because since A_c is not given)
 $= 10^4 (2.4 - 1.2) \times 10^{-6}$
 $= \underline{\underline{0.012\text{V}}}$

9) For the circuit shown in fig 19(a), draw the output voltage for the input voltage shown in fig 19(b)

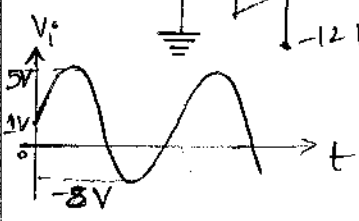
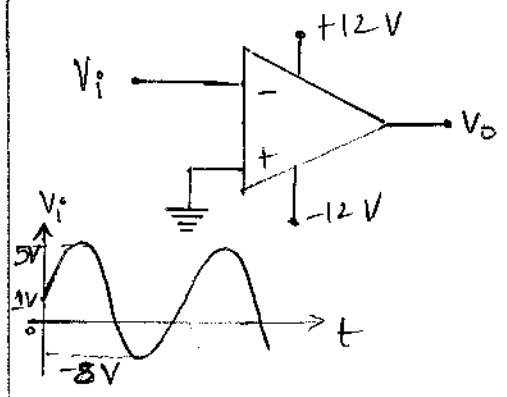


Fig 19(a)

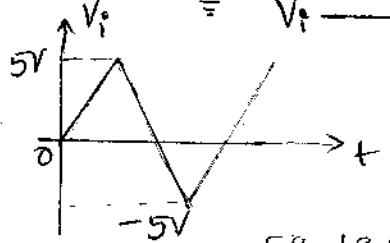
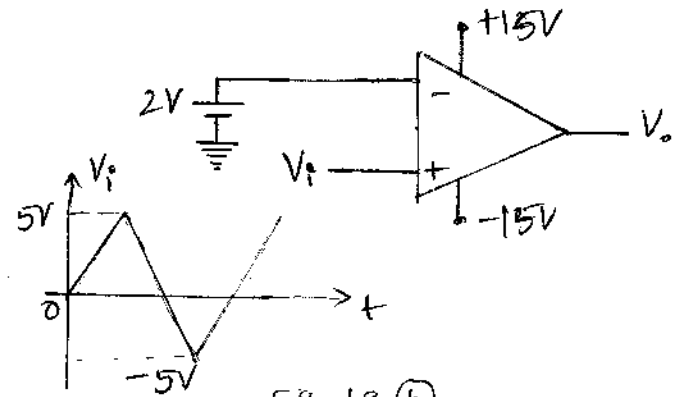
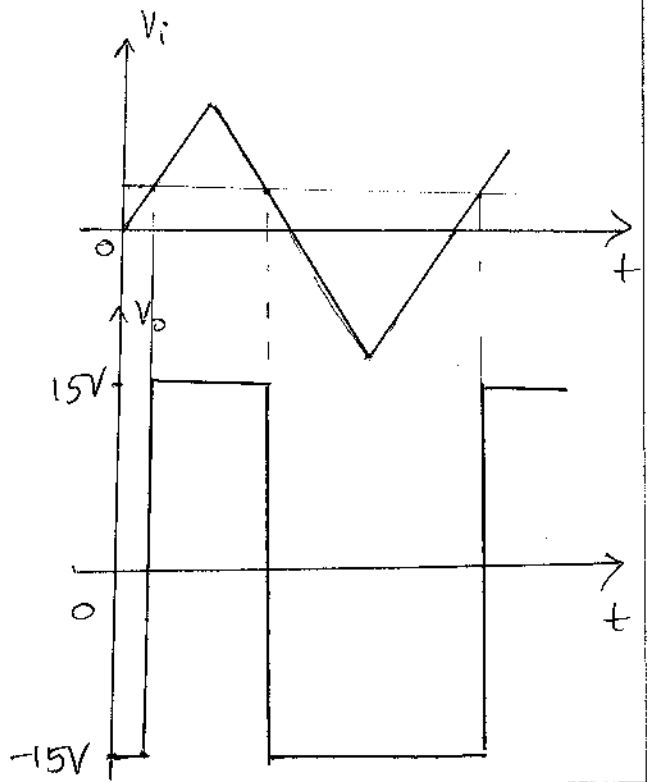
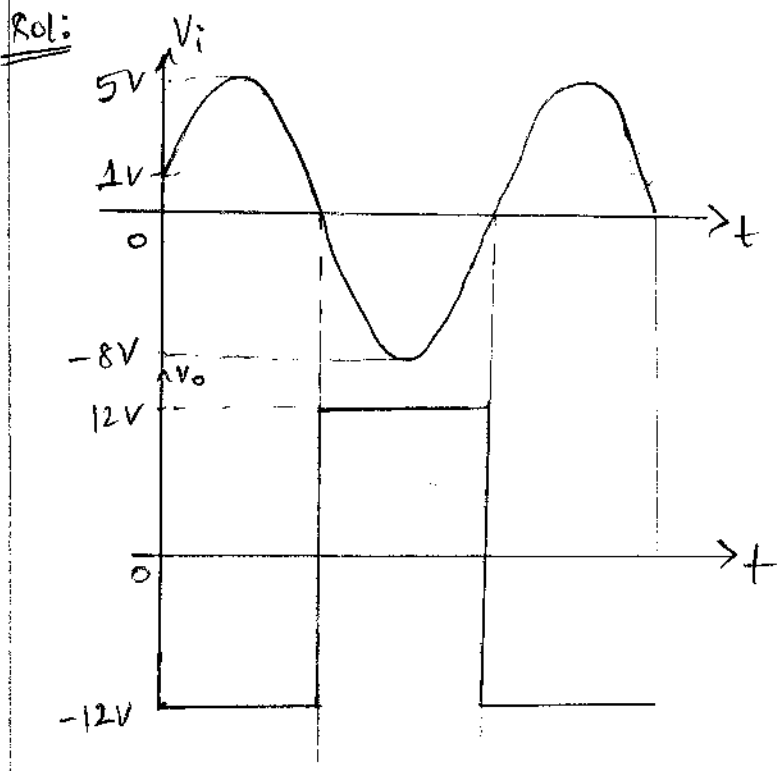
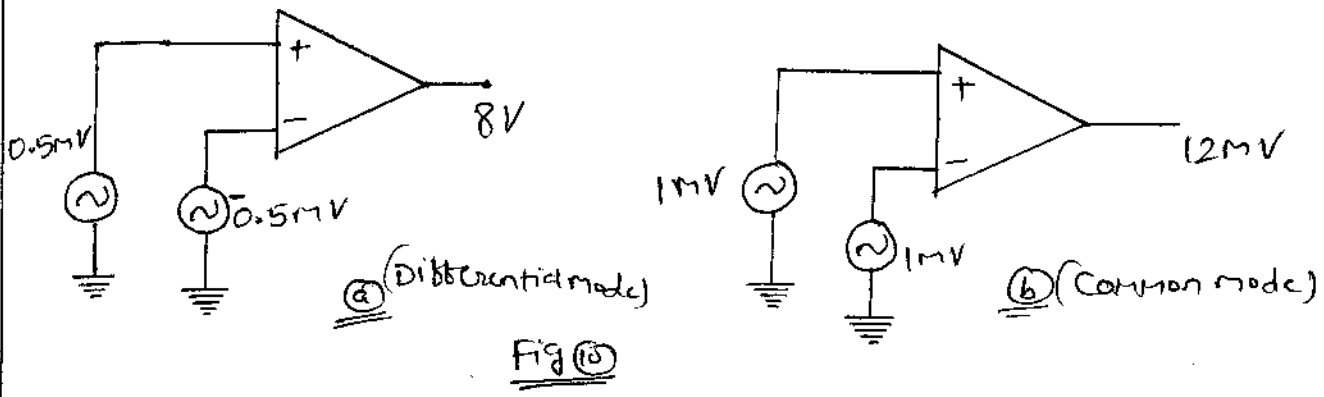


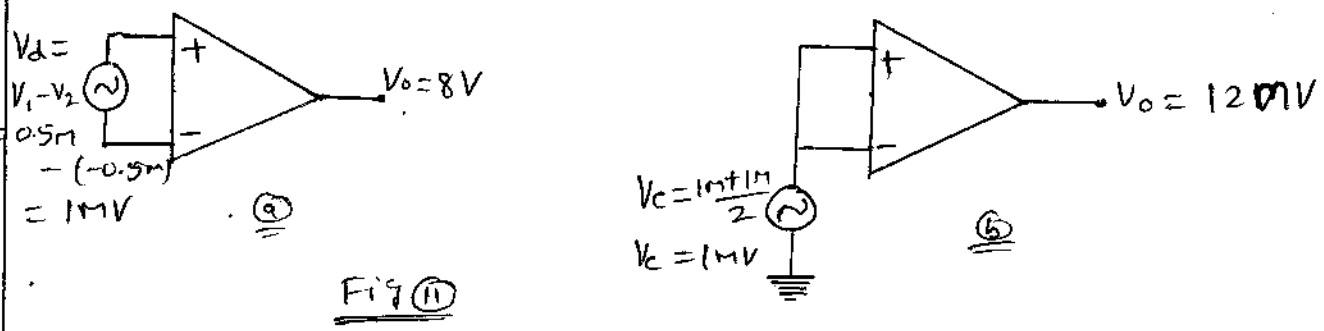
Fig 19(b)



10) Calculate the CMRR for the circuit measurements shown in fig 10.



sol: Fig 10(a) can be redrawn as shown in fig 11(a) & fig 10(b) can be redrawn as shown in fig 11(b).



From fig 10(a),

$$A_d = \frac{V_o}{V_d} = \frac{8}{1 \times 10^{-3}} = 8000$$

From fig 10(b),

$$A_c = \frac{V_o}{V_c} = \frac{12 \times 10^{-3}}{1 \times 10^{-3}} = 12$$

∴ CMRR is, $CMRR = \frac{A_d}{A_c} = \frac{8000}{12} = 666.66$

$$CMRR (dB) = 20 \log_{10} \frac{A_d}{A_c} = 20 \log_{10} (666.66) = 56.47 dB$$

11) Determine the output voltage of an OP-AMP for input voltages of $V_{i1} = 150mV$, $V_{i2} = 140mV$. The amplifier has a differential gain of $A_d = 4000$ & the value of CMRR is:

- (a) 100
- (b) 10^5

sol: Difference voltage, $V_d = V_{i1} - V_{i2} = 150 \times 10^{-6} - 140 \times 10^{-6} = 10 \mu V$
 Common Mode Voltage, $V_c = \frac{V_{i1} + V_{i2}}{2} = \frac{150 \times 10^{-6} + 140 \times 10^{-6}}{2} = 145 \mu V$

④ We have, $V_o = A_d V_d \left(1 + \frac{1}{\text{CMRR}} \frac{V_c}{V_d} \right)$

$$= (4000) (10 \times 10^{-6}) \left(1 + \frac{1}{100} \frac{145 \times 10^{-6}}{10 \times 10^{-6}} \right)$$

$$= 40 \times 10^{-3} (1 + 0.145)$$

$$= \underline{\underline{45.8 \text{ mV}}}$$

⑤ $V_o = (4000) (10 \times 10^{-6}) \left(1 + \frac{1}{10^5} \frac{145 \times 10^{-6}}{10 \times 10^{-6}} \right)$

$$= 40 \times 10^{-3} (1 + 0.00145)$$

$$= \underline{\underline{40.0058 \text{ mV}}}$$

⑫ Calculate the output voltage of a non-inverting amplifier for $V_i = 2 \text{ V}$, $R_f = 500 \text{ k}\Omega$ & $R_i = 100 \text{ k}\Omega$

Sol: Given $V_i = 2 \text{ V}$, $R_f = 500 \text{ k}\Omega$, $R_i = 100 \text{ k}\Omega$, $V_o = ?$

For non-inverting amplifier,

$$V_o = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i} \right) V_i = \left(1 + \frac{500 \times 10^3}{100 \times 10^3} \right) 2 = 6(2) = \underline{\underline{12 \text{ V}}}$$

⑬ A 741C is an OP-AMP with $A = 100,000$ & a minimum $\text{CMRR}_{\text{dB}} = 70 \text{ dB}$. What is the common-mode voltage gain? If a desired & common-mode signal each has a value of 5 mV , what is the output voltage?

Sol: Given $A = A_d = 100,000$, $\text{CMRR}_{\text{dB}} = 70 \text{ dB}$, $A_c = ?$
 $V_c = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ V}$, $V_o = ?$

We have $\text{CMRR}_{\text{dB}} = 20 \log_{10} \frac{A}{A_c}$

$$\Rightarrow 70 = 20 \log_{10} \frac{A}{A_c}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{A_c} = 10^{70/20}$$

$$\Rightarrow A_c = \frac{A}{10^{7/2}} = \frac{100,000}{10^{3.5}} = \underline{\underline{31.622}}$$

We have

$$V_o(CM) = A_c V_c$$

$$= 31.622 \times 5 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$V_o(CM) = \underline{\underline{158.11 \mu V}}$$

14) Assume that negative saturation occurs at 1V less than the supply voltage with an OP-AMP. How much inverting input voltage does it take to drive the OP-AMP of fig (14) into negative saturation?

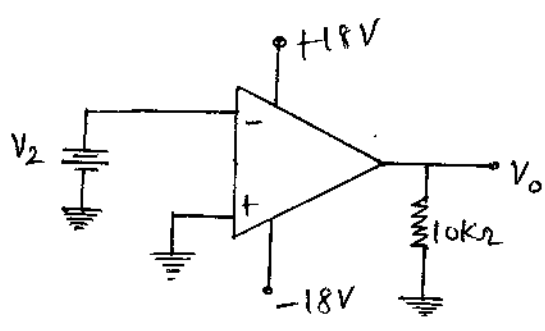


Fig (14)

Sol: Given $V_{cc} = \pm 18V$, Negative Saturation Voltage = $-17V$
 $V_2 = ?$ $A = 2 \times 10^5$ (Assume)

Given negative Saturation Voltage = $-17V$, Output saturates negatively at $-17V$.

$$\therefore V_2 = \frac{17}{200,000} = \underline{\underline{85 \mu V}} \quad [\because V_o = A V_2]$$

15) The input voltage to an OP-AMP is a large voltage step. The output is an exponential waveform that changes $0.75V$ in $50ns$. What is the SLEW rate of the OP-AMP?

Sol: Given $dV = 0.75V$, $dt = 50ns$

$$\text{We have, } SR = \frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{0.75}{50 \times 10^{-9}} = \underline{\underline{15V/\mu s}}$$

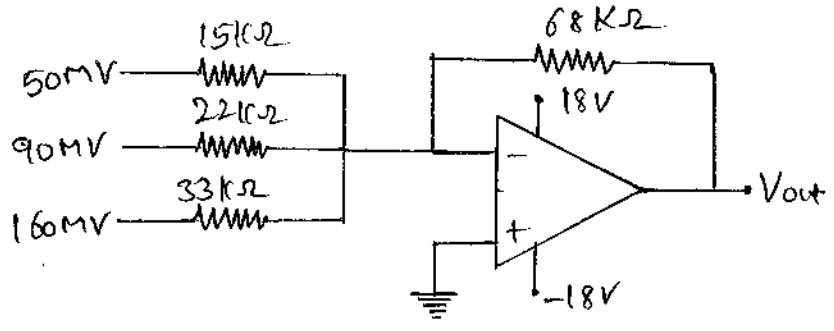
16) An OP-AMP has SLEW rate of $8V/\mu s$. What is the Power bandwidth for a Peak output voltage of $5V$?

Sol: Given $SR = 8V/\mu s$, $V_m = 5V$, $f_{max} = ?$

Highest freq @ Power bandwidth,

$$f_{max} = \frac{SR}{2\pi V_M} = \frac{.8/10^6}{2\pi \times 5} = \underline{\underline{254.64 \text{ KHz}}}$$

17 In fig 17, What is the ac output voltage? If a compensating resistor needs to be added to non-inverting input, what size should it be?



sol:

AC output voltage,

$$V_o = \left(\frac{R_f V_1}{R_1} + \frac{R_f V_2}{R_2} + \frac{R_f V_3}{R_3} \right)$$

$$= \left[\frac{68k}{15k} (50 \times 10^{-3}) + \frac{68k}{22k} (90 \times 10^{-3}) + \frac{68k}{33k} (160 \times 10^{-3}) \right]$$

$$= \underline{\underline{834.53 \text{ mV}}}$$

Compensating resistor,

$$R_B = R_1 \parallel R_2 \parallel R_3$$

$$= \frac{1}{\frac{1}{15k} + \frac{1}{22k} + \frac{1}{33k}}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{7.02 \text{ k}\Omega}}$$

If a summing circuit needs to be compensated by adding an equal resistance to the non-inverting input, the resistance is the Thevenin resistance looking from the inverting input back to the sources.

18 What is the initial slope of a sine wave with a frequency of 15kHz & a peak value of 2V? What happens to the initial slope if the frequency increases to 30kHz?

Qul: Given @ $f = 15\text{kHz}$, $V_m = 2\text{V}$, $S_s(SR) = ?$

Initial slope of a sine wave,

$$S_s = 2\pi f V_m \quad (\because SR = S_s = 2\pi f V_m)$$

$$= 2\pi \times 15 \times 10^3 \times 2$$

$$= \underline{188.49\text{MV}/\mu\text{s}}$$

(b) $f = 30\text{kHz}$, $V_m = 2\text{V}$, $S_s = ?$

$$S_s = 2\pi f V_m = 2\pi \times 30 \times 10^3 \times 2 = \underline{376.99\text{MV}/\mu\text{s}}$$

(19) Find V_{out} in fig (19), if $R = 10\text{k}\Omega$, $V_1 = -20\text{mV}$, $V_2 = -30\text{mV}$

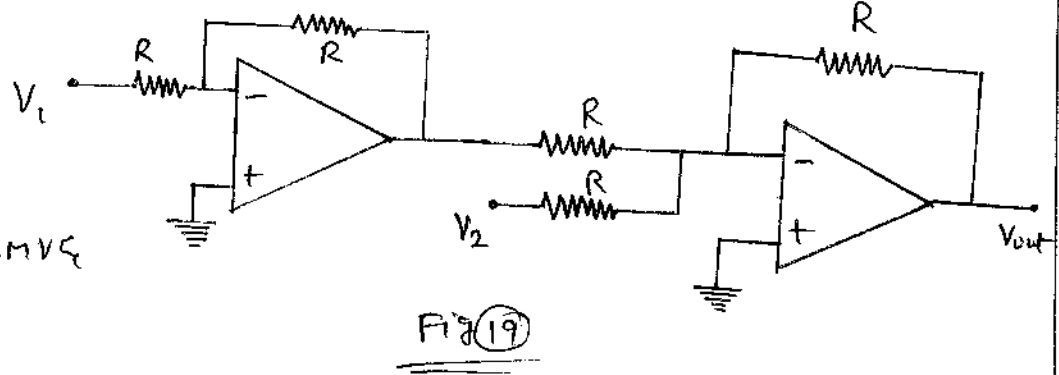
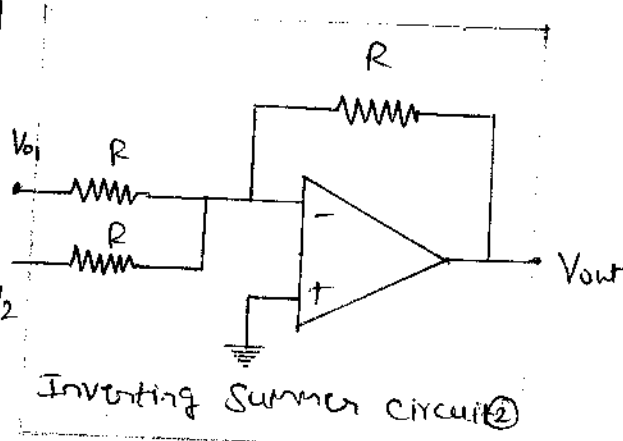
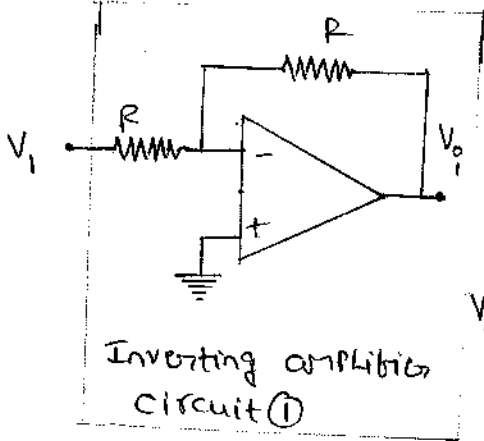


Fig (19)

sol: The given circuit is redrawn



From circuit (1),

$$V_{01} = -\frac{R}{R} V_1$$

$$= -(-20\text{mV})$$

$$= \underline{20\text{mV}}$$

From circuit (2)

$$V_{out} = -\left(\frac{R}{R} V_{01} + \frac{R}{R} V_2\right)$$

$$= -(20\text{mV} - 30\text{mV})$$

$$= -20\text{mV} + 30\text{mV}$$

$$V_{out} = V_2 - V_{01}$$

$$V_{out} = \underline{10\text{mV}}$$

The given circuit is a subtractor

2) In the OP-AMP circuit of fig 20. Show that $V_o = (V_3 + V_4) - (V_1 + V_2)$ if all resistances are equal.

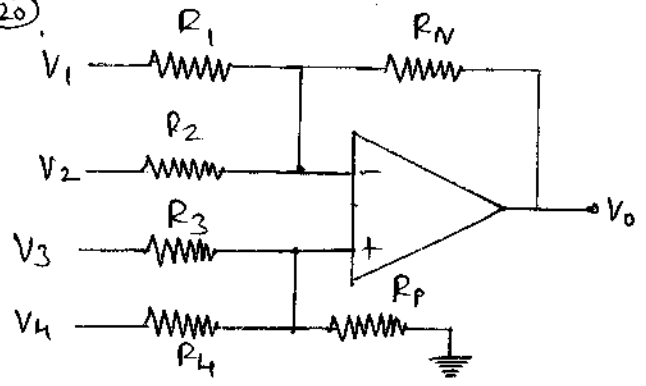


Fig 20

Sol:

Let us use superposition theorem.

Case (i): Let $V_2 = V_3 = V_4 = 0$

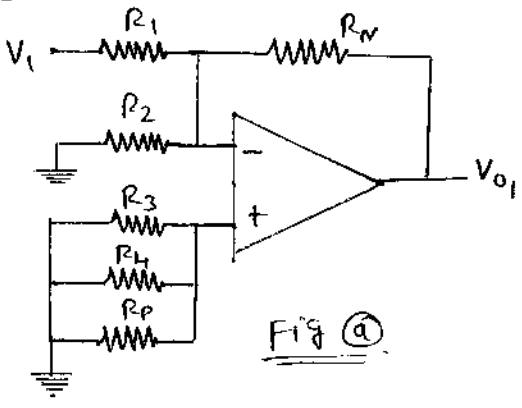


Fig a

The resulting circuit is shown in fig a. The circuit is inverting amplifier. $\therefore V_{o1}$ is

$$\therefore V_{o1} = -\frac{R_N}{R_1} V_1$$

$$\boxed{V_{o1} = -V_1} \quad \text{(Let } R_1 = R_N) \quad \text{--- ①}$$

Case (ii): Let $V_1 = V_3 = V_4 = 0$

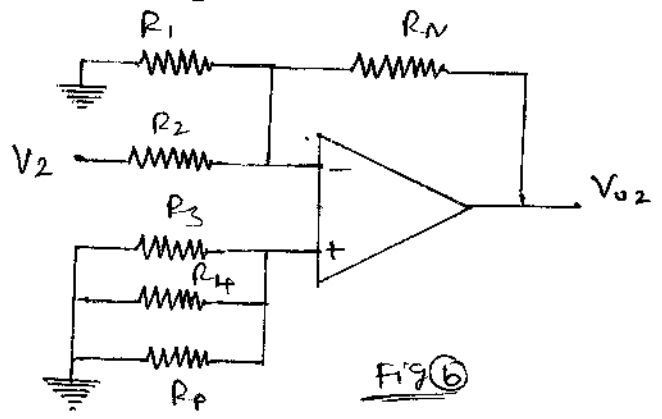


Fig b

The output voltage V_{o2} is,

$$V_{o2} = -\frac{R_N}{R_2} V_2$$

$$\boxed{V_{o2} = -V_2} \quad \text{--- ② (Let } R_2 = R_N)$$

Case (iii): Let $V_1 = V_2 = V_4 = 0$

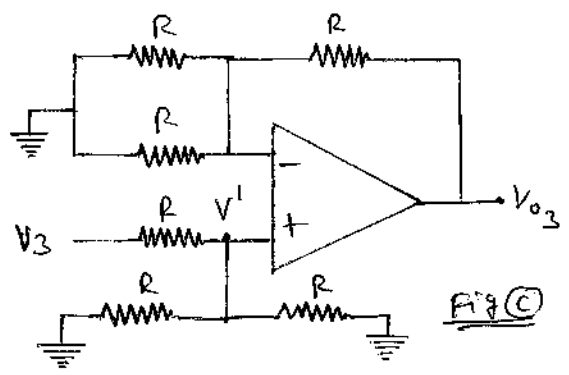


Fig c

From potential divider rule,

$$V^1 = \frac{V_3 (R \parallel R)}{R + (R \parallel R)}$$

Case (iv): Let $V_1 = V_2 = V_3 = 0$

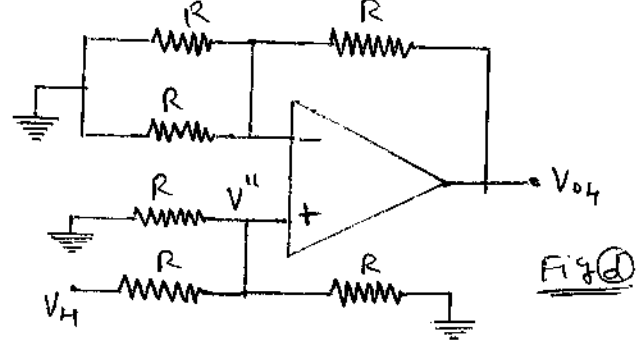


Fig d

From potential divider rule,

$$V'' = \frac{V_4 (R \parallel R)}{R + (R \parallel R)}$$

$$V' = \frac{V_3 \frac{RR}{R+R}}{R + \frac{RR}{R+R}}$$

$$= V_3 \frac{\frac{R^2}{2R}}{R + \frac{R^2}{2R}}$$

$$= \frac{V_3 R/2}{3R/2}$$

$$= \frac{V_3}{3} \quad \text{--- (*)}$$

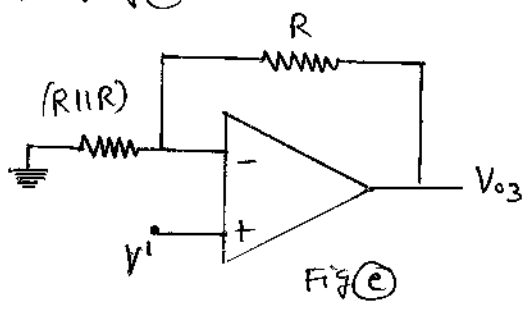
$$\Rightarrow V'' = \frac{V_4 (RR/R+R)}{R + (RR/R+R)}$$

$$\Rightarrow V'' = \frac{V_4}{3} \quad \text{--- (**)}$$

$$V_{oH} = \left[1 + \frac{R}{(R||R)} \right] V''$$

$$V_{oH} = V_4 \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Now Fig (c) can be redrawn as



The resulting circuit shown in fig (c) is non-inverting amplifier

∴ The output voltage V_{o3} is

$$V_{o3} = \left[1 + \frac{R}{(R||R)} \right] V' \quad \text{--- (***)}$$

using (*) in (***)

$$V_{o3} = \left[1 + \frac{R}{(RR/R+R)} \right] \frac{V_3}{3}$$

$$= \left(1 + \frac{R}{R^2/2R} \right) \left(\frac{V_3}{3} \right)$$

$$= (1+2) \frac{V_3}{3}$$

$$V_{o3} = V_3 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

From superposition theorem, the output voltage is

$$V_o = V_{o1} + V_{o2} + V_{o3} + V_{o4} = (V_3 + V_4) - (V_1 + V_2)$$

1) For the fig (21), determine V_o

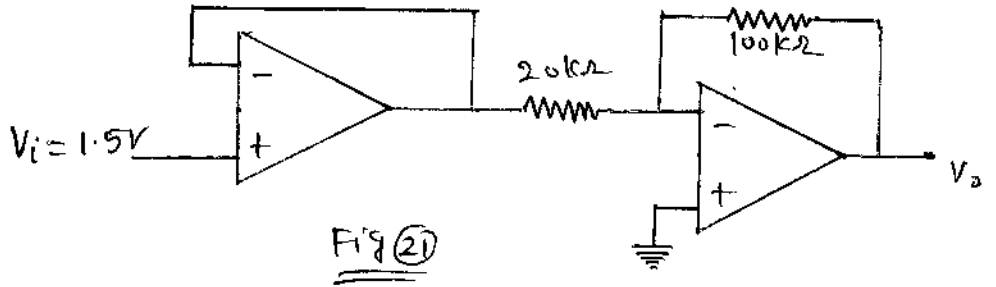
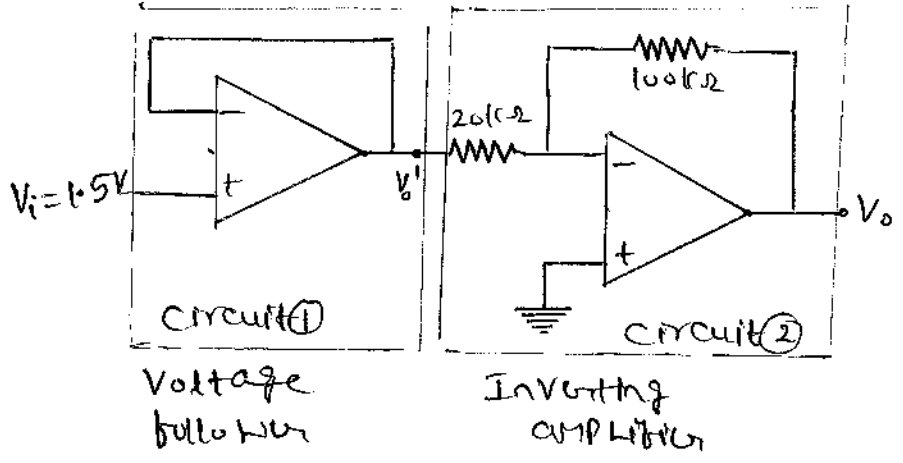


Fig (21)

Sol:



Voltage follower

Inverting amplifier

From circuit (1), o/p of voltage follower is,

$$V_o' = V_i = 1.5V$$

From circuit (2), output V_o is,

$$V_o = -\left(\frac{100K}{20K}\right) V_o' = -5(1.5) = -7.5V$$

2) Determine the input bias current and input offset current to an op-amp if the current into non-inverting and inverting terminals are 8.3mA and 7.9mA respectively.

Sol: Given $I_1 = 8.3mA$, $I_2 = 7.9mA$, $I_{ib} = ?$, $I_{io} = ?$

Input bias current, $I_{ib} = \frac{I_1 + I_2}{2} = \frac{8.3 + 7.9}{2} = 8.1mA$

Input offset current, $I_{io} = |I_1 - I_2| = |8.3 - 7.9| = 0.4mA$

3) How long does it take the output voltage of an op-amp to go from -8V to 7V, if the slew rate is 0.5V/ μ s?

Sol: Given $dV_o = 7 - (-8) = 15V$, $SR = \frac{0.5}{10^{-6}}$ V/ μ s, $dt = ?$

We have $SR = \frac{dV_o}{dt} \Rightarrow dt = \frac{dV_o}{SR} = \frac{15}{0.5/10^{-6}} = 30\mu s$

4) For the inverting amplifier, $R_1 = 20k\Omega$, $R_f = 100k\Omega$, $V_{in} = 1mV$, calculate
 a) closed-loop gain b) Input resistance seen by source
 c) output voltage d) Input current e) current entering the op-amp input terminal f) current through feedback.

Sol: Given, $R_1 = 20k\Omega$, $R_f = 100k\Omega$, $V_{in} = 1mV$, A (or A_d) = ?
 $R_{in} = ?$, $I_{in} = ?$, $V_o = ?$, $I_{op-amp} = ?$, $I_f = ?$

a) We have, $A = -\frac{R_f}{R_1} = -\frac{100 \times 10^3}{20 \times 10^3} = -5$

b) $R_{in} = R_1 = 20k\Omega$

c) Output voltage, $V_o = +AV_{in} = -5 \times 1 \times 10^{-3} = -5mV$

d) $I_{in} = \frac{V_{in} - V_1}{R_1} = \frac{1 \times 10^{-3} - 0}{20 \times 10^3} = 50nA$. [∵ From virtual ground, $V_1 = V_2 = 0$]

e) $I_{op-amp} = 0$ (∵ No current flows into op-amp input terminal)

f) $I_f = I_{in} = 50nA$

5) A sinusoidal signal with peak value 6mV at of 20kHz is applied to the input of an ideal op-amp integrator with $R = 100k\Omega$ & $C = 1\mu F$. Find the output voltage.

Sol: Given $R = 100k\Omega$, $C = 1\mu F$, $V_m = 6mV$, $f = 20kHz$, $V_o = ?$

$V_{in} = V_m \sin \omega t = 6 \times 10^{-3} \sin(2\pi ft) = 6 \times 10^{-3} \sin(40000\pi t)$

Output Voltage, $V_o = -\frac{1}{RC} \int_0^t V_m dt + V_o(0)$
 $= -\frac{1}{100 \times 10^3 \times 1 \times 10^{-6}} \int_0^t 6 \times 10^{-3} \sin(40000\pi t)$

Assume $V_o(0) = 0$
 Initial Vtz across capacitor = 0

$$= -10 \left[(6 \times 10^{-3}) \left(\frac{-\cos(40000\pi t)}{40000\pi} \right)^t \right]$$

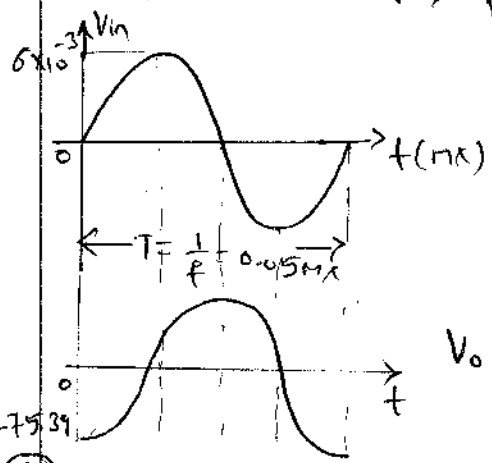
$$V_o = 477.46 [\cos(40000\pi t) - 1] \text{ mV}$$

26) The input to a ideal differentiator is a sinusoidal voltage of peak voltage 6mV & frequency 20kHz. Find the output voltage, Given R=100kΩ & C=1μF.

sol: Given R=100kΩ, C=1μF, Vm=6mV, f=20kHz

$$V_{in} = V_m \sin(\omega t) = 6 \times 10^{-3} \sin(40000\pi t)$$

Output Voltage, $V_o = -RC \frac{dV_{in}}{dt}$



$$= -100 \times 10^3 \times 1 \times 10^{-6} \frac{d[6 \times 10^{-3} \sin(40000\pi t)]}{dt}$$

$$= -0.1 \times 6 \times 10^{-3} \cos(40000\pi t) \cdot 40000\pi$$

$$V_o = -75.39 \cos(40000\pi t) \text{ V}$$

27) Determine the output voltage of a ideal differentiator for the input shown in fig 27. Given RC=1μs.

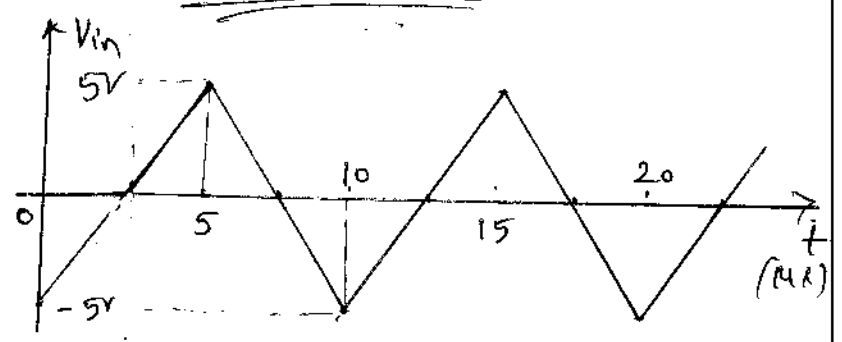


Fig 27

sol: Given RC=1μs

case 1: For 0 < t < 5μs

$$\frac{dV_{in}}{dt} = \frac{5 - (-5)}{(5 - 0)} = 2 \text{ V/}\mu\text{s} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$(0, -5)$ $(5, 5)$
 $\frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{y - y_1}{x - x_1}$
 $\Rightarrow y = 2x - 5$
 --- (2)
 $V_{in} = 2t - 5$
 Diff. w.r.t t
 $\frac{dV_{in}}{dt} = 2 \text{ V/}\mu\text{s}$

$$\therefore V_o = -RC \frac{dV_{in}}{dt} = -1 \times 10^6 \frac{2}{10^{-6}} = \underline{\underline{-2V}}$$

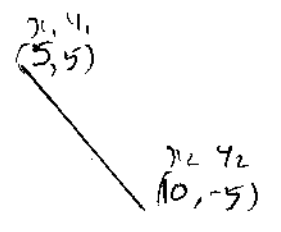
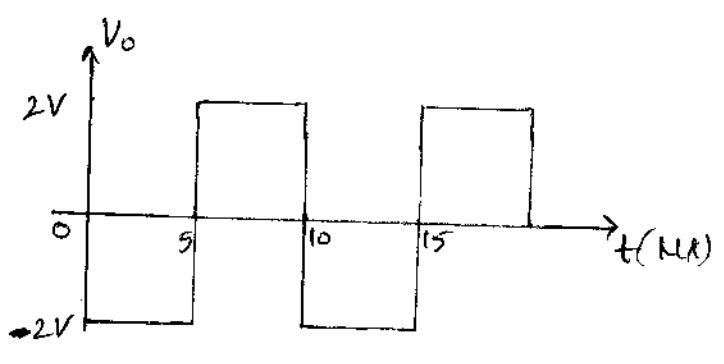
Calc (ii): For $5\mu s < t < 10\mu s$

$$\frac{dV_{in}}{dt} = \frac{-5-5}{(10-5)} = \frac{-10}{5} = -2V/\mu s$$

(27)

$$\therefore V_o = -RC \frac{dV_{in}}{dt} = -1 \times 10^6 \left(\frac{-2}{10^{-6}} \right)$$

$$= \underline{\underline{2V}}$$



$$\frac{-5-5}{10-5} = \frac{y-5}{x-5}$$

$$\frac{-10}{5} = \frac{y-5}{x-5}$$

$$y-5 = -2x+10$$

$$y = -2x+15$$

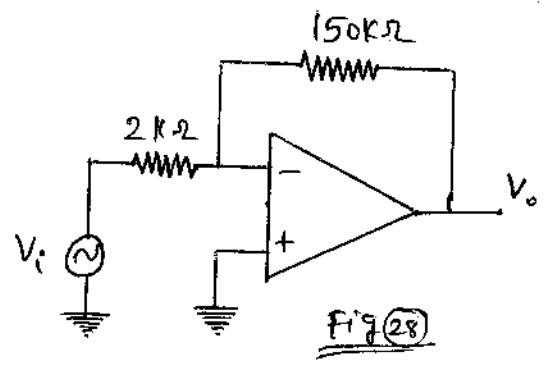
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -2V/\mu s$$

28) Calculate

(a) The output offset voltage due to input offset voltage = 1.2mV

(b) The output offset voltage due to input offset current = 100nA.

(c) The output offset voltage due to input offset voltage = 4mV & input offset current = 150nA.



Sol: (a) Given $V_{io} = 1.2mV$

output offset voltage,

$$V_{oo}(\text{due to } V_{io}) = V_{io} \left(\frac{R_1 + R_f}{R_1} \right) = 1.2 \times 10^{-3} \left(\frac{2k + 150k}{2k} \right)$$

$$V_{oo}(\text{due to } V_{io}) = \underline{\underline{91.2mV}}$$

b) $V_{oo}(\text{due to } I_{io}) = I_{io} R_f = 100 \times 10^{-9} \times 150 \times 10^3 = \underline{15 \text{ mV}}$

c) $V_{oo} = V_{oo}(\text{due to } V_{io}) + V_{oo}(\text{due to } I_{io})$
 $= V_{io} \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_1} \right) + I_{io} R_f$
 $= 4 \times 10^{-3} \left(1 + \frac{150 \text{ k}}{2 \text{ k}} \right) + 150 \times 10^{-9} (150 \text{ k})$
 $= 304 \times 10^{-3} + 22.5 \times 10^{-3}$
 $= \underline{326.5 \text{ mV}}$

29) Calculate the input bias currents at each input of an OP-AMP having input bias current = 30 nA & Input offset current = 5 nA

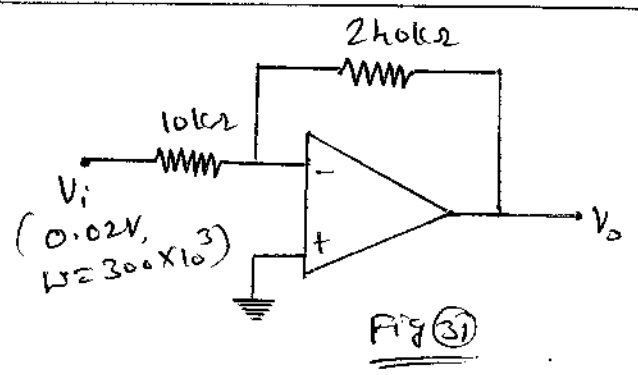
Sol: We have, $I_1 = I_{ib} + \frac{I_{io}}{2}$ & $I_2 = I_{ib} - \frac{I_{io}}{2}$
 $= 30 \times 10^{-9} + \frac{5 \times 10^{-9}}{2}$ $= 30 \times 10^{-9} - \frac{5 \times 10^{-9}}{2}$
 $= \underline{32.5 \text{ nA}}$ $= \underline{27.5 \text{ nA}}$

30) For an OP-AMP having a slew rate of 2 V/μs, what is the maximum closed-loop voltage gain that can be used when the input signal varies by 0.5V in 10 μs?

Sol: We have $V_o = A V_{in}$
 $\Rightarrow dV_o = A dV_{in}$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{dV_o}{dt} = A \frac{dV_{in}}{dt}$
 $\Rightarrow A = \frac{dV_o/dt}{dV_{in}/dt} = \frac{SR}{dV_{in}/dt} = \frac{2/10^{-6}}{0.5/10 \times 10^{-6}} = \underline{40}$

Maximum closed-loop Vtg gain = 40

31) For the signal & circuit of fig 31, determine the max frequency that may be used. OP-amp slew rate = 0.5 V/μs.



Sol: Gain $A = \left| \frac{R_f}{R_i} \right| = \frac{240 \times 10^3}{10 \times 10^3} = 24$

Output Voltage (Maximum)

$V_m = AV_i = 24 \times 0.02 = 0.48 \text{ V}$

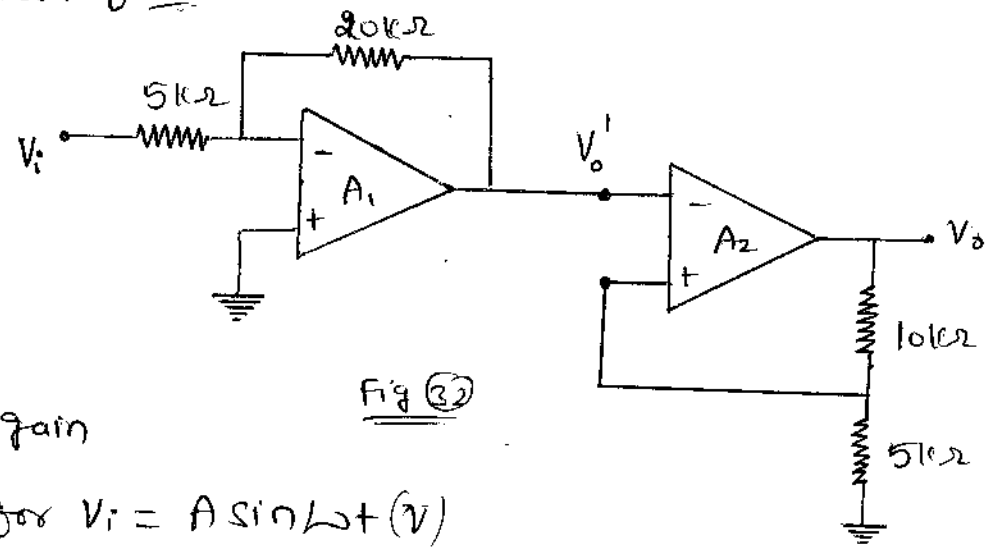
We have $\omega_m \leq \frac{SR}{V_m}$ @ $f_m \leq \frac{SR}{2\pi V_m}$

$\leq \frac{0.5/10^{-6}}{0.48}$ $\leq \frac{0.5/10^{-6}}{2\pi \times 0.48}$

$\omega_m \leq 1.041 \times 10^6 \text{ rad/s}$ @ $f_m \leq 165.78 \text{ kHz}$

Since the signal's frequency ($\omega = 300 \times 10^3 \text{ rad/s}$) is less than the maximum freq ω_m , no output distortion will result.

32) For the circuit shown in fig 32.



- a) Calculate A_1
- b) Calculate A_2
- c) Find the total gain
- d) Find V_o' & V_o for $V_i = A \sin \omega t$ (V)

Sol:

a) $A_1 = -\frac{20k\Omega}{5k\Omega} = -4$ b) $A_2 = 1 + \frac{10k\Omega}{5k\Omega} = 3$

c) $A = A_1 A_2 = -12$

④ $V_0' = (-2) A \sin \omega t = -2A \sin \omega t (V)$

$V_0 = A_2 V_0' = 3 (-2A \sin \omega t) = -6A \sin \omega t (V)$

33 Design an OP-amp circuit for $V_0 = 2V_1 - 3V_2 + 4V_3 - 5V_4$

Sol: $V_0 = 2V_1 - 3V_2 + 4V_3 - 5V_4$

$\Rightarrow V_0 = (2V_1 + 4V_3) - (3V_2 + 5V_4)$

$V_0 = V_{01} - V_{02} \rightarrow \text{①}$ Where $V_{01} = 2V_1 + 4V_3$

$V_{02} = 3V_2 + 5V_4$

Eqn ① is the expression for output voltage of subtractor.

Consider

$V_{01} = 2V_1 + 4V_3$

Comparing with,

$V_{01} = \frac{R_{f1}}{R_1} V_1 + \frac{R_{f1}}{R_3} V_3$

$\Rightarrow \frac{R_{f1}}{R_1} = 2, \frac{R_{f1}}{R_3} = 4$

Let $R_{f1} = 100k\Omega$,

$\therefore R_1 = 50k\Omega, R_3 = 25k\Omega$

Consider

$V_{02} = 3V_2 + 5V_4$, Comparing with

$V_{02} = \frac{R_{f2}}{R_2} V_2 + \frac{R_{f2}}{R_4} V_4$

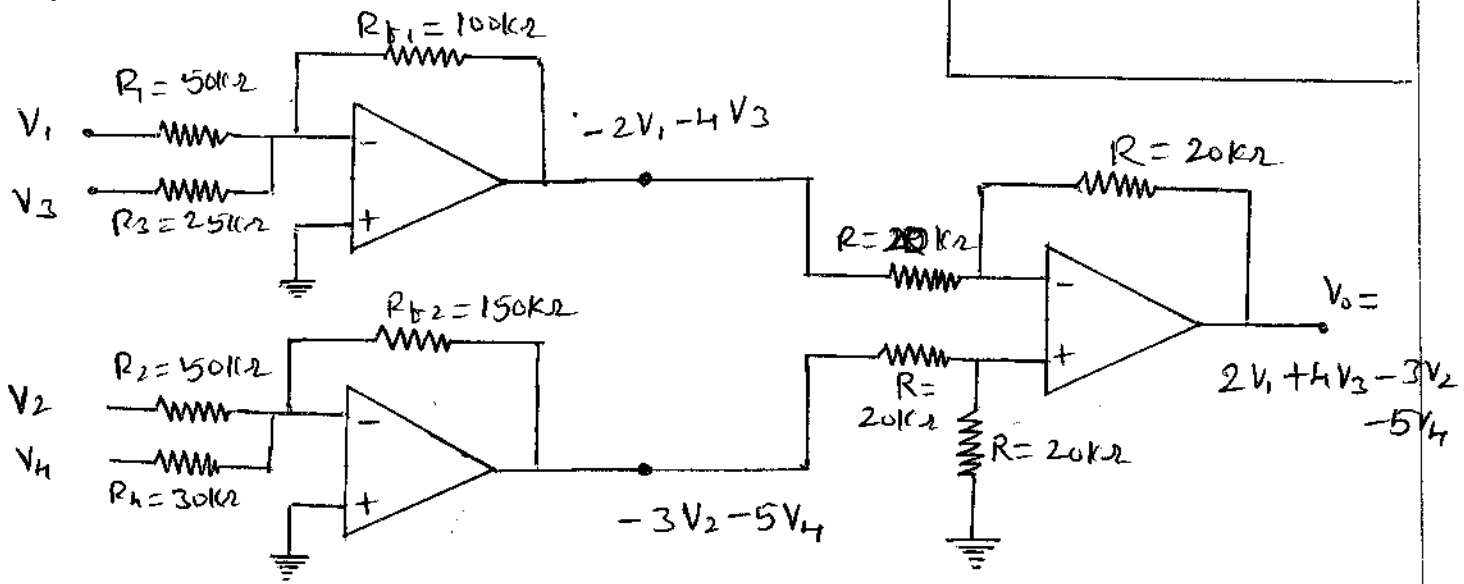
$\Rightarrow \frac{R_{f2}}{R_2} = 3, \frac{R_{f2}}{R_4} = 5$

Let $R_{f2} = 150k\Omega$

$\therefore R_2 = 50k\Omega, R_4 = 30k\Omega$

The OP-amp circuit is shown below

Let $R = 20k\Omega$



MODULE-3: DIGITAL ELECTRONICS

Syllabus: Introduction, Switching and Logic Levels, Digital Waveform, Number Systems: Decimal number System, Binary number System, Converting Decimal to Binary, Hexadecimal Number System, Converting Binary to Hexadecimal, Hexadecimal to Binary, Converting Hexadecimal to Decimal, Converting Decimal to Hexadecimal, Octal numbers: Binary to Octal Conversion, Complement of Binary Numbers, Boolean algebra theorems, De Morgan's theorem, Digital Circuits: Logic gates, NOT Gate, AND gate, OR gate, XOR gate, NAND gate, NOR gate, X-NOR gate, Algebraic Simplification, NAND & NOR implementation: NAND implementation, NOR implementation, Half adder, Full adder.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

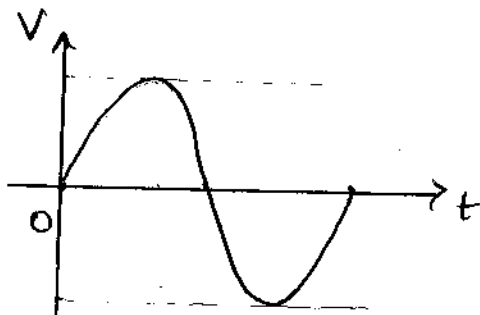
* Introduction:

→ A continuously varying signal (Voltage or current) is called an analog signal

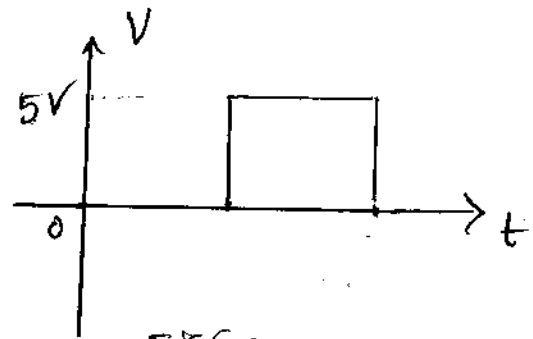
EX: Sinusoidal voltage (fig 1)

→ A signal (Voltage or current) which is having only two discrete values is called a digital signal

EX: Square wave (fig 2)



Fig(1)



Fig(2)

Analog domain

Digital domain

① An analog signal can have infinite number of values

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

② Analog systems are generally difficult to design

③ Information storage is difficult

④ Accuracy & Precision are less

⑤ Operation cannot be programmed

⑥ Analog circuits are affected by noise

⑦ Analog signals consume less bandwidth (BW)

⑧ Analog circuits are constructed using R, L, C & op-amp etc

① A Digital signal can have only two values (5V or 0V). These values are high (ON) (1) & low (OFF) (0)

② Digital systems are generally easier to design.

③ Information storage is easy

④ Accuracy & Precision are greater

⑤ Operation can be programmed

⑥ Digital circuits are less affected by noise

⑦ Digital signals consume more BW.

⑧ Digital circuits are constructed using adders, multipliers, memory etc

* Switching and Logic level:

The switching circuit is shown in fig 3.

When the switch 'S' is open (OFF) @ False @ NO @ Low, the output voltage is $V_o = 5V$ @ ON @ High @ True @ Yes.

When the switch 'S' is closed @ ON @ True @ Yes, the output $V_o = 0V$ @ Low @ OFF @ False.

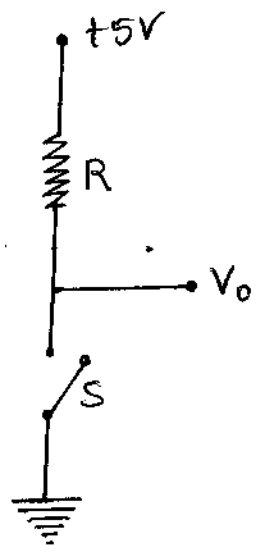


Fig 3: Switching circuit

Therefore input '0' results in output '1' & vice versa & hence this circuit is called as switching circuit @ State inversion circuit @ inverter @ NOT gate.

NOT gate symbol is shown in fig (4)

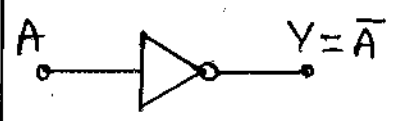


Fig (4)

A	Y
0	1
1	0

Fig (5)

Fig (5) shows the truth table (input-output relationship) of NOT gate

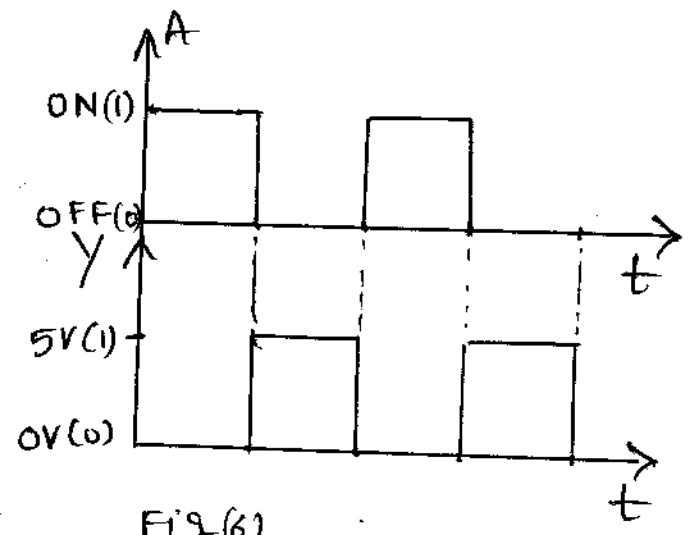


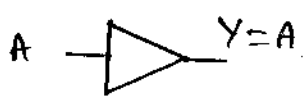
Fig (6)

Fig (6) shows the input-output waveforms of NOT gate.

Note:

- ① The branch of electronics, which deals with digital circuits is called digital electronics.
- ② An electronic circuit that handles only a digital signal (Low @ high) is called a digital circuit.

③ Buffer: (Noninverter)



Buffer symbol

A	Y
0	0
1	1

Buffer truth table

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashihara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

④ Types of Number Systems (digital number systems)

- ① Decimal EX: $(15)_{10}$ @ 15_{10} (uses 0 to 9)

- ⑥ Binary EX: $(101)_2$ @ 101_2 (Uses 0 and 1)
- ⑦ Octal EX: $(37)_8$ @ 37_8 (Uses 0 to 7)
- ⑧ Hexadecimal EX: $(3AC)_{16}$ @ $3AC_{16}$ (Uses 0 to 9 & A, B, C, D, E, F)

⑤ Each binary digit (0 @ 1) is bit
 A string of four bits is nibble (1010)
 A string of eight bits is byte (1010 0110)

⑥ Digital circuits which accomplish some operation (Boolean algebra) are logic gates

⑦ Branch of algebra which deals with only 0's & 1's is called Boolean algebra. (Algebra used to symbolically describe logic functions)

Digital Waveform:

Ideally:

High = 5V = 1
 Low = 0V = 0

Practically:

Voltages at different points may slightly vary (due to internal resistance, parasitic effects & loading effects).

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

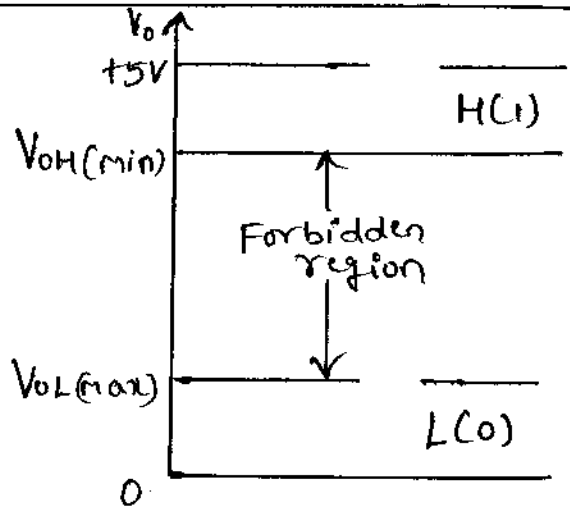


Fig ⑦: Voltage ranges for logic levels

High Voltage = Voltage between +5V & $V_{OH(min)}$
 (EX: 5V to 3.5V)

Low Voltage = Voltage between 0V & $V_{OL(max)}$
 (EX: 0V to 0.2V)

Forbidden region = $V_{OH(min)} - V_{OL(max)}$ (EX: $3.5 - 0.2 = 3.3V$)
 [Neither H(1) @ L(0)]

* Number Systems :

There are four number systems that are used in digital systems:

- 1). Decimal
- 2). Binary
- 3). Octal
- 4). Hexadecimal.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

①. Decimal number system

→ Decimal number system uses the digits 0 to 9 (10)

→ Any number N in a positional number system @ radix-weighted positional number system is represented by,

$$N = d_{n-1} d_{n-2} \dots d_1 d_0 d_{-1} \dots d_{-m} \quad \text{--- ①}$$

$$= d_{n-1} \times r^{n-1} + d_{n-2} \times r^{n-2} + \dots + d_0 \times r^0 +$$

$$d_{-1} \times r^{-1} + \dots + d_{-m} \times r^{-m} \quad \text{--- ②}$$

- where,
- $d_i \rightarrow$ Digit in the number system $[0 \leq d_i \leq (r-1)]$
 - $r \rightarrow$ base @ radix of the number system.
 - $n \rightarrow$ number of digits in the integer part of N.
 - $m \rightarrow$ number of digits in the fraction part of N.

EX: $2438 = 2000 + 400 + 30 + 8$
 $= 2 \times 10^3 + 4 \times 10^2 + 3 \times 10^1 + 8 \times 10^0$

$N = 2438, d_{n-1} = 2, d_{n-2} = 4, \dots, d_0 = 8, r = 10, n = 4$

②. Binary number system

→ Binary number system uses the digits 0 & 1 (2)

→ EX: $1101 = 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 \quad \text{--- ③}$

$$= 8 + 4 + 0 + 1$$

$$= 13_{10}$$

Comparing ② & ③, we can write $d_3 = 1, d_2 = 1, d_1 = 0, d_0 = 1$

$N = 1101, r = 2, n = 4.$

③. Octal number system

→ Octal number system uses the digits 0 to 7 (8)

→ Ex: $43672_8 = 4 \times 8^4 + 3 \times 8^3 + 6 \times 8^2 + 7 \times 8^1 + 2 \times 8^0$ — ④
 $= 16384 + 1536 + 384 + 56 + 2$
 $= 18362_{10}$

Comparing ② & ④, we can write,

$d_4 = 4, d_3 = 3, d_2 = 6, d_1 = 7, d_0 = 2, n = 5, r = 8$

$N = 43672$

④. Hexadecimal number system

→ Hexadecimal number system uses the digits 0 to 9 & A, B, C, D, E, F (16)

→ Ex: $AB3_{16} = 10 \times 16^2 + 11 \times 16^1 + 3 \times 16^0$ — ⑤
 $= 2560 + 176 + 3$
 $= 2739_{10}$

Comparing ② & ⑤, we can write

$d_2 = A = 10, d_1 = B = 11, d_0 = 3, n = 3, r = 16, N = AB3$

* Conversions:

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

① Decimal to Binary:

② Convert the decimal number 109 to binary

Sol:

2		109	
2		54	- 1
2		27	- 0
2		13	- 1
2		6	- 1
2		3	- 0
		1	- 1

$\therefore (109)_{10} = (1101101)_2$

6) Perform the following:

- (i) $(69)_{10} = (?)_2$
- (ii) $53.75_{10} = ?_2$
- (iii) $0.375_{10} = ?_2$

Sol:

(i)

2	69	
2	34	-1
2	17	-0
2	8	-1
2	4	-0
2	2	-0
	1	-0

$(69)_{10} = (1000101)_2$

(ii) Consider (Whole) Integer Part

2	53	
2	26	-1
2	13	-0
2	6	-1
2	3	-0
	1	-1

$(53)_{10} = (110101)_2$

Consider fractional Part

	Integer
$0.75 \times 2 = 1.5$	1
$0.5 \times 2 = 1$	1
$\therefore 0.75_{10} = 0.11_2$	

$(53.75)_{10} = (110101.11)_2$

(iii)

$0.375 \times 2 = 0.75$	Integer	0
$0.75 \times 2 = 1.5$		1
$0.5 \times 2 = 1$		1

$0.375_{10} = 0.011_2$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

2) Binary to Decimal:

convert the following binary numbers to decimal numbers.

- (i) 1101
- (ii) 10001.11
- (iii) 0.1011

Sol:

(i) $1101 = 1 \times 2^3 + 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 = 8 + 4 + 1 = (13)_{10}$

(ii) $10001.11 = 1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^0 + 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-2} = 16 + 1 + 0.5 + 0.25 = (17.75)_{10}$

(iii) $0.1011 = 1 \times 2^{-1} + 1 \times 2^{-3} + 1 \times 2^{-4} = 0.5 + 0.125 + 0.0625 = (0.6875)_{10}$

2) Perform the following (i) $(0.1011)_2 = (?)_{10}$

Sol:

$$0.1011 = 1 \times 2^{-1} + 0 \times 2^{-2} + 1 \times 2^{-3} + 1 \times 2^{-4}$$

$$= 0.5 + 0 + 0.125 + 0.0625$$

$$(0.1011)_2 = (0.6875)_{10} //$$

3) Decimal to octal:

2) Convert the following decimal numbers to octal numbers
(i) 359 (ii) 658.825 (iii) 0.245 (iv) 254

Sol:

(i) $8 \overline{) 359}$
 $8 \overline{) 44} - 7$
 $5 - 4$

$$(359)_{10} = (547)_8 //$$

(ii) Consider Integer Part (Whole no)

$8 \overline{) 658}$
 $8 \overline{) 82} - 2$
 $8 \overline{) 10} - 2$
 $1 - 2$

Consider Fractional Part

	Integer
$0.825 \times 8 = 6.6$	6
$0.6 \times 8 = 4.8$	4
$0.8 \times 8 = 6.4$	6
$0.4 \times 8 = 3.2$	3

$$(658)_{10} = (1222)_8 \quad \therefore 0.825_{10} = 0.6463_8$$

$$(658.825)_{10} = (1222.6463)_8 //$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

(iii)

$0.245 \times 8 = 1.96$	Integer
$0.96 \times 8 = 7.68$	1
$0.68 \times 8 = 5.44$	7
$0.44 \times 8 = 3.52$	5
	3

$$(0.245)_{10} = (0.1753)_8 //$$

(iv) $8 \overline{) 254}$
 $8 \overline{) 31} - 6$
 $3 - 7$

$$(254)_{10} = (376)_8 //$$

3) Perform the following upto 2 octal places

$$(0.44)_{10} = ?_8$$

Sol: Integer
 $0.44 \times 8 = 3.52$ 3
 $0.52 \times 8 = 4.16$ 4

~~Ans~~ $\therefore (0.44)_{10} = 0.34_8$ //

4) Octal to Decimal:

a) Perform the following

- (i) $(133)_8 = (?)_{10}$ (ii) $372_8 = ?_{10}$ (iii) $24.6_8 = ?_{10}$
 (iv) $0.76_8 = ?_{10}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Sol:
 (i) $133_8 = 1 \times 8^2 + 3 \times 8^1 + 3 \times 8^0 = 64 + 24 + 3 = 91_{10} //$
 (ii) $372_8 = 3 \times 8^2 + 7 \times 8^1 + 2 \times 8^0 = 192 + 56 + 2 = 250_{10} //$
 (iii) $24.6_8 = 2 \times 8^1 + 4 \times 8^0 + 6 \times 8^{-1} = 16 + 4 + 0.75 = 20.75_{10} //$
 (iv) $0.76_8 = 7 \times 8^{-1} + 6 \times 8^{-2} = 0.875 + 0.09375 = 0.96875_{10} //$

b) Convert the following octal numbers to decimal numbers

- (i) 564 (ii) 234.56

Sol:
 (i) $564_8 = 5 \times 8^2 + 6 \times 8^1 + 4 \times 8^0 = 320 + 48 + 4 = 372_{10} //$
 (ii) $234.56_8 = 2 \times 8^2 + 3 \times 8^1 + 4 \times 8^0 + 5 \times 8^{-1} + 6 \times 8^{-2}$
 $= 128 + 24 + 4 + 0.625 + 0.09375$
 $= 156.71875_{10}$

5) Decimal to Hexadecimal

a) Perform the following

- (i) $(541)_{10} = (?)_{16}$ (ii) $378_{10} = ?_{16}$

Sol:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 16 \overline{) 541} \\
 \underline{16 \overline{) 33} - 13 (D)} \\
 2 - 1
 \end{array}$$

$$\therefore (541)_{10} = (21D)_{16}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 16 \overline{) 378} \\
 \underline{16 \overline{) 23} - 10 (A)} \\
 1 - 7
 \end{array}$$

$$\therefore 378_{10} = 17A_{16}$$

Q) Convert the following decimal numbers to Hexadecimal numbers.

(i) 5386.345

(ii) 0.256 Upto 3 Hexadecimal Places

Sol:

(i) (Whole number)
Consider integer part

$$\begin{array}{r}
 16 \overline{) 5386} \\
 \underline{16 \overline{) 336} - 10 (A)} \\
 16 \overline{) 21} - 0 \\
 1 - 5
 \end{array}$$

$$\therefore 5386_{10} = 150A_{16}$$

Consider fractional part

	Integer
$0.345 \times 16 = 5.52$	5
$0.52 \times 16 = 8.32$	8
$0.32 \times 16 = 5.12$	5
$0.12 \times 16 = 1.92$	1

$$\therefore 0.345_{10} = 0.5851_{16}$$

$$\therefore (5386.345)_{10} = (150A.585)_{16}$$

(ii)

	Integer
$0.256 \times 16 = 4.096$	4
$0.096 \times 16 = 1.536$	1
$0.536 \times 16 = 8.576$	8

$$\therefore 0.256_{10} = 0.418_{16}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

6) Hexadecimal to decimal

a) Perform the following

(i) $(FACE)_{16} = (?)_{10}$ (ii) $(AB.32)_{16} = (?)_{10}$

Sol:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(i) } (FACE)_{16} &= F \times 16^3 + A \times 16^2 + C \times 16^1 + E \times 16^0 \\
 &= 15 \times 16^3 + 10 \times 16^2 + 12 \times 16 + 14 \times 1 \\
 &= 61440 + 2560 + 192 + 14
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{(FACE)_{16} = (64206)_{10} //}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(ii) } (AB.32)_{16} &= A \times 16^1 + B \times 16^0 + 3 \times 16^{-1} + 2 \times 16^{-2} \\
 &= 10 \times 16 + 11 \times 1 + \frac{3}{16} + \frac{2}{16^2} \\
 &= 160 + 11 + 0.1875 + 0.0078125
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{(AB.32)_{16} = (171.1953125)_{10} //}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

b) Convert the following hexadecimal numbers to decimal numbers.

(i) $3ABH.12$ (ii) $ABCDE$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Sol: } 3ABH.12 &= 3 \times 16^3 + A \times 16^2 + B \times 16^1 + H \times 16^0 + 1 \times 16^{-1} + 2 \times 16^{-2} \\
 &= 3 \times 16^3 + 10 \times 16^2 + 11 \times 16 + 4 \times 1 + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{2}{16^2} \\
 &= 12288 + 2560 + 176 + 4 + 0.0625 + 0.0078125
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{3ABH.12_{16} = 15028.07031_{10} //}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(ii) } ABCDE_{16} &= A \times 16^4 + B \times 16^3 + C \times 16^2 + D \times 16^1 + E \times 16^0 \\
 &= 10 \times 16^4 + 11 \times 16^3 + 12 \times 16^2 + 13 \times 16 + 14 \times 1 \\
 &= 655360 + 45056 + 3072 + 208 + 14
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{ABCDE_{16} = 703710_{10} //}$$

Note:

① What is the largest number that can be represented using eight bits?

Sol: $N = 8$

Largest number = $2^N - 1 = 2^8 - 1 = 255_{10} = \underline{\underline{11111111_2}}$

② Determine the value of base x , if

(i) $(225)_x = (341)_8$ (ii) $(211)_x = (152)_8$

Sol:

(i) Given

$(225)_x = (341)_8$ - ①

Convert $(341)_8$ to decimal

$(341)_8 = 3 \times 8^2 + 4 \times 8^1 + 1 \times 8^0$
 $= 192 + 32 + 1$

$(341)_8 = (225)_{10}$ - ②

From ① & ②, we get

$x = 10$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

(ii) Given

$(211)_x = (152)_8$

Convert $(152)_8$ to decimal

$(152)_8 = 1 \times 8^2 + 5 \times 8^1 + 2 \times 8^0$
 $= 64 + 40 + 2$

$(152)_8 = (106)_{10}$ - ①

$(211)_x = 2x^2 + 1x + 1x^0$

$(211)_x = 2x^2 + x + 1$ - ②

From ① & ②, we get

$2x^2 + x + 1 = 106$

$\Rightarrow 2x^2 + x - 105 = 0$

$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$

$a = 2$
 $b = 1$
 $c = -105$

$= \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1^2 + 4 \times 2 \times 105}}{2 \times 2}$

$= \frac{-1 \pm 29}{4}$

$= 7$ or -7.5

$\therefore x = 7$

③ Octal - binary numbers

Octal number	Binary Equivalent
0	000
1	001
2	010
3	011
4	100
5	101
6	110
7	111

Table ①

④ Hexadecimal - binary - decimal

Decimal number	Hexadecimal number	Binary Equivalent
0	0	0000
1	1	0001
2	2	0010
3	3	0011
4	4	0100
5	5	0101
6	6	0110
7	7	0111
8	8	1000
9	9	1001
10	A	1010
11	B	1011
12	C	1100
13	D	1101
14	E	1110
15	F	1111

Table ②

⑤ To write any number

in binary we use

$$\begin{array}{cccccc}
 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & \\
 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 & \\
 (16) & (8) & (4) & (2) & (1) & \text{(Using 5 bits)}
 \end{array}$$

Ex:

10 = 8 + 2 → 01010

14 = 8 + 4 + 2 → 01110

SHASHIDHAR. T. ...
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhar@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231316

Extra numerical:

① Convert Octal 143 to binary

Sol:

$$143_8 = (001100011)_2 \quad \text{[From table ①]}$$

② Perform the following

(i) $(232.76)_8 = (?)_2$ (ii) $(43.26)_8 = ?_2$

Sol:

(i) $232.76_8 = (010011010.111110)_2 //$

(ii) $43.26_8 = (100\ 011.010\ 110)_2$

3) Perform the following

(i) $(110101)_2 = (?)_8$ (ii) $(10100)_2 = (?)_8$

(iii) $(1101001.1101)_2 = ?_8$

Sol: (i) $\overset{6}{110}\ \overset{5}{101} \therefore (110101)_2 = (65)_8$

(ii) $(10100)_2 = \overset{2}{010}\ \overset{4}{100} = (24)_8$

(iii) $1101001.1101 = \overset{00}{110}\ \overset{001}{1001} . \overset{110}{110}\ \overset{100}{100} = (151.64)_8$

4) Perform the following

(i) $F A F B_{16} = ?_2$ (ii) $(A3.D24)_{16} = (?)_2$

Sol: (i) $F A F B_{16} = \underbrace{1111}_{F(15)}\ \underbrace{1010}_{A(10)}\ \underbrace{1111}_{F(15)}\ \underbrace{1011}_{B(11)}$

$\therefore F A F B_{16} = 111110101111011_2$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

(ii) $(A3.D24)_{16} = \underbrace{1010}_{A(10)}\ \underbrace{0011}_3 . \underbrace{1101}_{D(13)}\ \underbrace{0010}_2\ \underbrace{0100}_4$

$\therefore (A3.D24)_{16} = (10100011.110100100100)_2$

5) Perform the following

(i) $(4567)_{10} = (?)_2 = (?)_8 = (?)_{16}$

Sol: (ii) $(101101110.11011)_2 = (?)_{16}$

(i)

2	4567	
2	2283-1	
2	1141-1	
2	570-1	
2	285-0	
2	142-1	
2	71-0	
2	35-1	
2	17-1	
2	8-1	
2	4-0	
2	2-0	
	1-0	

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 00 & 000 & 111 & 010 & 111 & & \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 7 & 2 & 7 & & \end{array}$$

$$\therefore (1000111010111)_2 = \underline{\underline{(10727)}_8}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 000 & 000 & 111 & 010 & 111 & & \\ \hline 1 & 1 & D & 7 & & & \end{array}$$

$$\therefore (1000111010111)_2 = (11D7)_{16}$$

$$\therefore (4567)_{10} = (1000111010111)_2$$

$$\therefore (4567)_{10} = (1000111010111)_2 = (10727)_8 = (11D7)_{16}$$

(ii)

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 000 & 0110 & 1110 & . & 1101 & 1000 & \\ \hline 1 & 6 & E & . & D & 8 & \end{array}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$(01101110.11011)_2 = (16E.D8)_{16}$$

* Binary addition: [0 1]

Rules

①	0	②	0	③	1	④	1
	+ 0		+ 1		+ 0		+ 1
	<u>0</u>		<u>1</u>		<u>0</u>		<u>1</u>
↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
Carry	Sum	Carry	Sum	Carry	Sum	Carry	Sum

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ + 1 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline 2 \mid 2 \\ \downarrow \quad \downarrow \\ \text{Carry} \quad \text{Sum} \end{array}$$

1-0
↓
Sum

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ + 1 \\ \hline 1 \quad 1 \\ \uparrow \quad \uparrow \\ \text{Carry} \quad \text{Sum} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ + 1 \\ \hline 3 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} 2 \mid 3 \\ \uparrow \quad \uparrow \\ \text{Carry} \quad \text{Sum} \end{array}$$

Q Add the following binary numbers

- (a) 11011 & 10111 (b) 101 & 011 (c) 11.01 & 10.11

Sol:

$\begin{array}{r} 11011 \\ + 10111 \\ \hline (110010)_2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 101 \\ + 011 \\ \hline (1000)_2 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 11.01 \\ + 10.11 \\ \hline (110.00)_2 \end{array}$
--	--	--

* Octal & hexadecimal addition: [(0-7 for Octal) & (0-9 & A-F for Hexa)]

Q Perform the following

- (i) $(43.26)_8 + (31.42)_8 = (?)_8$ (ii) $(ABCD)_{16} + (AB32)_{16} = (?)_{16}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Sol:

$$\begin{array}{r} (43.26)_8 \\ + (31.42)_8 \\ \hline (74.70)_8 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 6 \\ 2 \\ 8 \quad 8 \mid 8 \\ \hline 1-0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{r} (ABCD)_{16} \\ + (AB32)_{16} \\ \hline (156FF)_{16} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} B \\ B \\ \hline 22 \\ 16 \mid 22 \\ \hline 1-6 \end{array}$$

* Binary subtraction:

$$\begin{array}{r} 16 \mid 21 \\ \hline 1-5 \end{array}$$

Rules

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ① $\begin{array}{r} 0 \\ - 0 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$ | ② $\begin{array}{r} 0 \\ - 1 \\ \hline 1 \end{array}$ | ③ $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ - 0 \\ \hline 1 \end{array}$ | ④ $\begin{array}{r} 1 \\ - 1 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$ |
| $\uparrow \quad \uparrow$
Borrow difference | $\uparrow \quad \downarrow$
Borrow difference | $\uparrow \quad \downarrow$
Borrow difference | $\uparrow \quad \downarrow$
Borrow difference |

① Perform the following binary subtraction

- Ⓐ 1101 - 1000 Ⓑ 1000 - 1101

sol:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1101 \\ - 1000 \\ \hline 0101 \end{array}$$

↑
Borrow

$(0101)_2$

In decimal,

$$\begin{array}{r} 13 \\ - 8 \\ \hline 5 \end{array}$$

Borrow = 0,
Answer is +ve

Ⓑ 1000 - 1101

$$\begin{array}{r} 1000 \\ - 1101 \\ \hline 1011 \end{array}$$

Ⓐ

Borrow

1's Complement of 1011 +

$$\begin{array}{r} 0100 \\ - (0101)_2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

In decimal,

$$\begin{array}{r} 8 \\ - 13 \\ \hline -5 \end{array}$$

Borrow = 1,
Answer is -ve
∴ 1's Complement of result is
add Borrow
give result

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* Complement of Binary number:

- ① Write the 1's Complement and 2's Complement of the following
- Ⓐ 10101 Ⓑ 11100.101 Ⓒ 11100

sol:

Ⓐ Given 10101

1's Complement of 10101 → 01010

2's complement of 10101 → 01011

1's Complement of 10101	→	01010
	+	1
2's Complement of 10101		<u>01011</u>

Ⓑ Given 11100.101

1's Complement of 11100.101 → 00011.010

2's complement of 11100.101 → ~~00011.010~~
00011.011

Ⓒ Given 11100

00011 → 1's Complement of 11100

+ 1

00100 → 2's Complement of 11100

2) Perform the following binary subtraction using

- (a) 1's Complement (b) 2's Complement

- (i) 1110 - 1001 (ii) 1001 - 1110

Ans:

(a) 1's Complement

(i) 1110 → Minuend
 - 1001 → Subtrahend

 1110 → Minuend
 + 0110 → 1's complement of
 Subtrahend (1001)

① 0100
 carry → 1 +

 (0101)₂

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

(ii) 1001 → Minuend
 - 1110 → Subtrahend

 1001 → Minuend
 + 0001 → 1's complement of
 Subtrahend (1110)

↑ No carry
 1010
 Take 1's complement of 1010

① (0101)₂

No carry, -ve take 1's complement
 Carry, +ve, Add carry to result

(b) 2's Complement

(i) 1110 → Minuend
 - 1001 → Subtrahend

 1110 → Minuend
 + 0111 → 2's complement
 of 1001 (Subtrahend)

① (0101)₂
 ↑ No carry
 (Discard)

(ii) 1001 → Minuend
 - 1110 → Subtrahend

 1001 → Minuend
 + 0010 → 2's complement
 of Subtrahend (1110)

↑ No carry
 1011
 ∴ Take 2's complement of

1011

∴ (0101)₂

No carry, result is -ve

In decimal (i) $\begin{array}{r} 14 \\ - 9 \\ \hline 5 \end{array}$ (ii) $\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ - 14 \\ \hline -5 \end{array}$

3) Perform the following binary subtraction using 1's complement and 2's complement

- (a) 1111 - 1101 (b) 10111 - 10101

Sol:

1's complement

(a) 1111 → Minuend
 - 1101 → Subtrahend

 1111 → Minuend
 + 0010 → 1's complement of Subtrahend (1101)

 ①0001
 Carry → 1 +

 (0010)₂

(b) 10111 → Minuend
 - 10101 → Subtrahend

 10111 → Minuend
 + 01010 → 1's complement of Subtrahend (10101)

 ①00001
 Carry → 1 +

 (00010)₂

SHASHIDHAR I. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

2's complement

(a) 1111 → Minuend
 - 1101 → Subtrahend

 1111 → Minuend
 + 0011 → 2's complement of Subtrahend (1101)

 ①0010
 Carry
 Discard

(b) 10111 → Minuend
 - 10101 → Subtrahend

 10111 → Minuend
 + 01011 → 2's complement of Subtrahend (10101)

 ①(00010)₂
 Carry
 Discard

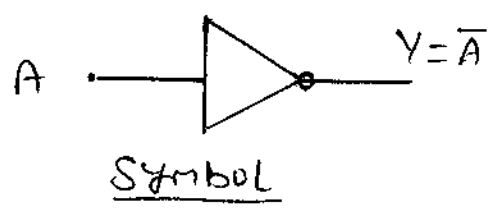
* Logic gates

① NOT gate (Inverter) (Complementor): (-) (')

* The output is the reverse of the input. i.e. a low-voltage input (0) is converted to a high-voltage output (1) & vice versa.

* If 'A' is the input, then output, $Y = \bar{A}$

*The symbol & truth table of a NOT gate is shown in fig ①.

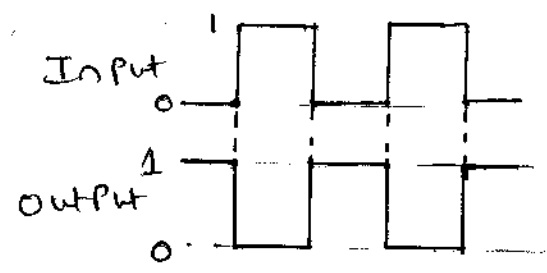


A	$Y = \bar{A}$
0	1
1	0

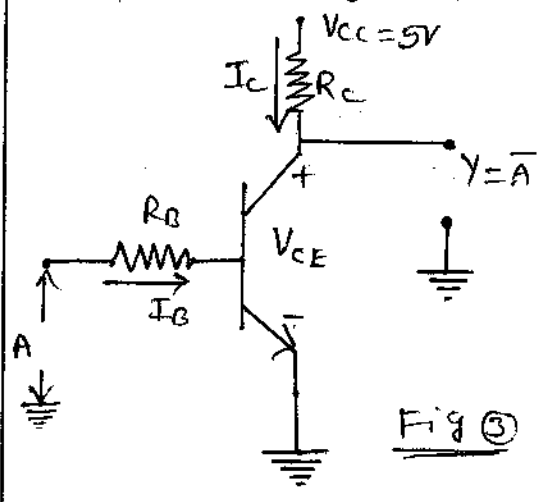
Fig ①

Truth table

*The input and output waveforms of a NOT gate is shown in fig ②



*The circuit diagram of a transistor based NOT gate is shown in fig ③



→ When $A = 5V$, $Y = 0V$
→ When $A = 0V$, $Y = 5V$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

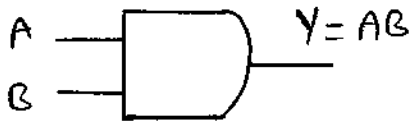
② AND Gate: (.)

* The output is 1 only if both A and B are 1, otherwise it is zero.

* If A and B are the inputs, then the output of AND gate is,

$$Y = A \cdot B \text{ (.) } AB$$

* The symbol & truth table of AND gate is shown in fig ④



Symbol

A	B	Y = AB
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Truth table

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig 4

* The input & output waveforms of a AND gate is shown in fig 5

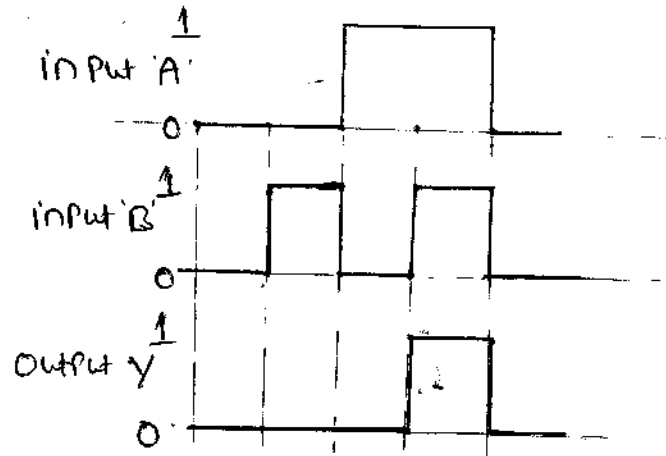


Fig 5

* The circuit diagram of an AND gate using diodes is shown in fig 6.

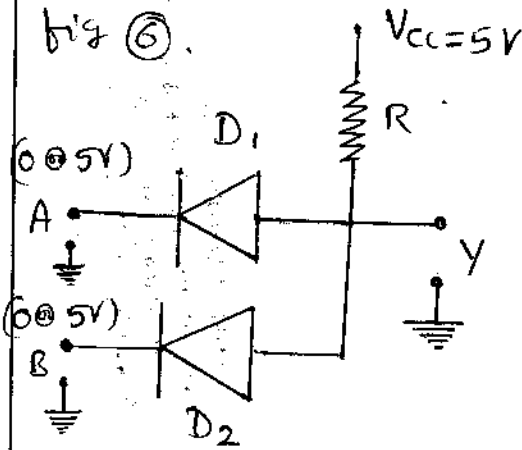


Fig 6

* If $A = B = 5V$, the diodes D_1 & D_2 do not conduct (open circuit), then the output $Y = 5V$

* If at least one input (A & B) is $0V$, then the output $Y = 0V$.

Note:

① Consider the simple electric circuit shown in fig 7

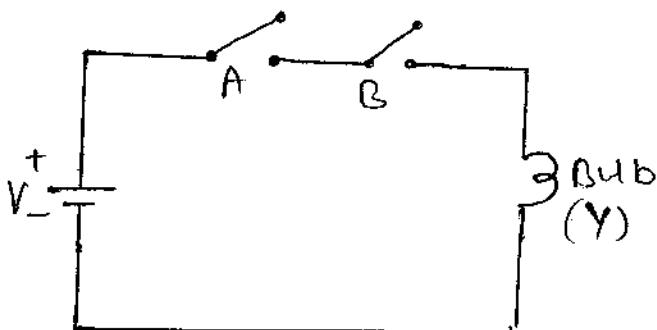


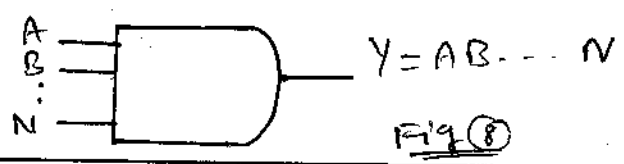
Fig 7

$A, B \rightarrow$ switches (Closed = 1, Open = 0)

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

② AND gate With N inputs (Output is 1 only when all the inputs are 1)

$$Y = A \cdot B \cdot C \cdot \dots \cdot N$$



③ NAND-gate is the dual of NOR-gate & vice versa

③ OR gate(+):

* The output is 0 when all the inputs are zero, otherwise it is 1.

* If A and B are the inputs, then the output of OR gate is

$$Y = A + B$$

* The symbol & truth table of OR gate is shown in fig 9.

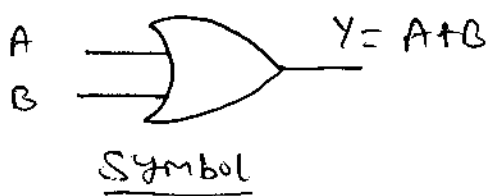


Fig 9

A	B	Y = A + B
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

Truth table

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* The input and output waveforms of a OR gate is shown in fig 10.

* The circuit diagram of an OR gate using diodes is shown in fig 11

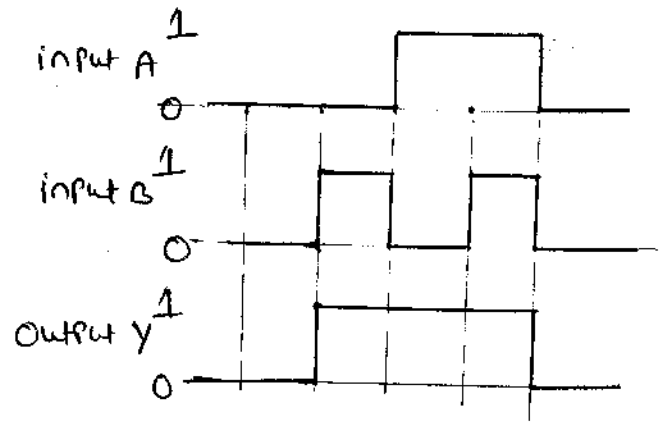
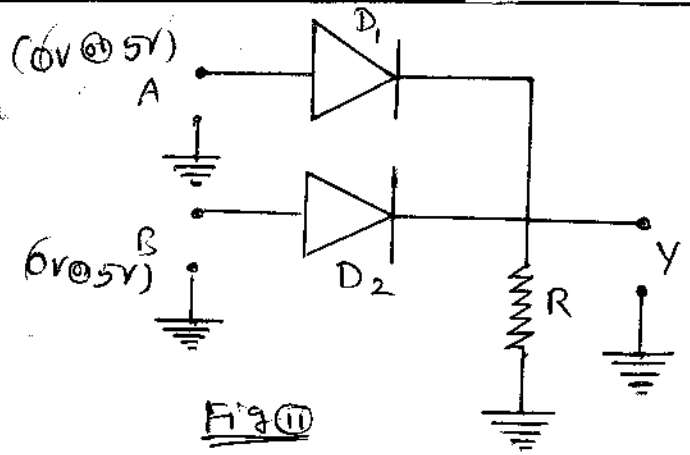


Fig 10

* When A=B=0V, the diodes D1 & D2 doesnot conduct, hence the output Y=0V.

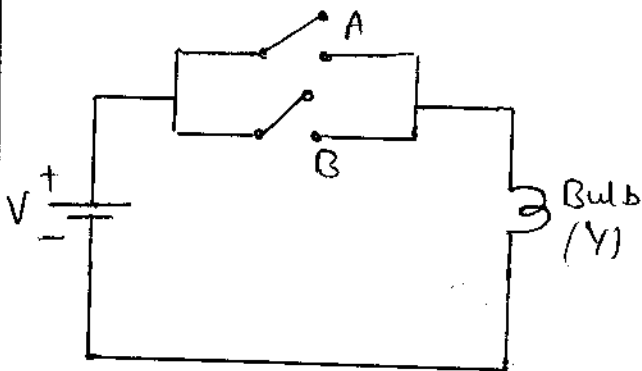
* When either A @ B
 @ both are at 5V(1),
 the diodes D₁ & D₂
 are on (conducts), hence
 the output Y = 1V



Fig(11)

Note:

① Consider the simple electric circuit shown in fig(12)



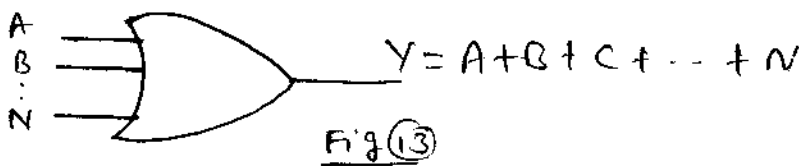
Fig(12)

A, B → Switches (Closed = 1)
 (Open = 0)

A	B	Y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

② OR gate with n inputs (output is '0' when all the inputs are '0')

$$Y = A + B + C + \dots + N$$



Fig(13)

③ $\bar{0} = 1$

④ $\bar{1} = 0$

(A) NAND gate:

* The output is '0' (Low) only if both A & B are 1, otherwise it is 1.

* If A and B are the inputs, then the output of NAND gate is,

$$Y = \overline{AB}$$

* The Symbol & truth table of NAND gate is shown in fig (14)

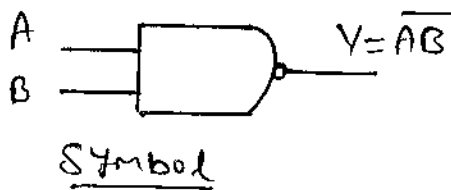


Fig (14)

A	B	$Y = \overline{AB}$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Truth table

* The input & output waveforms of NAND gate is shown in fig (15)

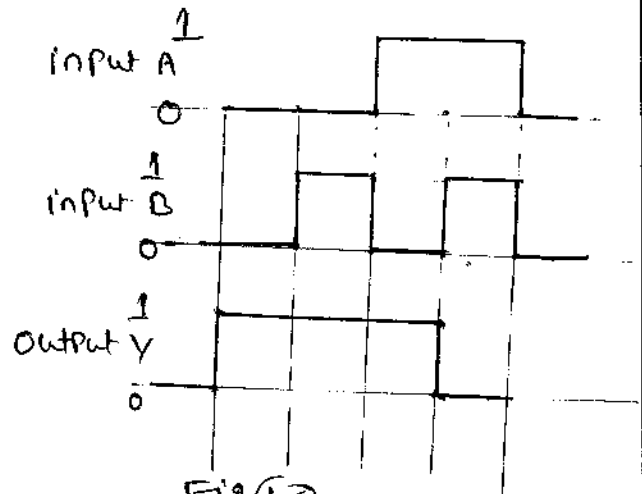


Fig (15)

* The output 'Y' of 'N' inputs NAND gate is,

$$Y = \overline{ABC \dots N}$$

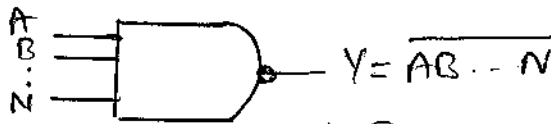


Fig (16)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑤ NOR gate:

* The output is '1' (high) when all the inputs are '0' (Low), otherwise it is '0' (Low)

* If A and B are the inputs, then the output of NOR gate is,

$$Y = \overline{A+B}$$

* The Symbol & truth table of NOR gate is shown in fig (17)

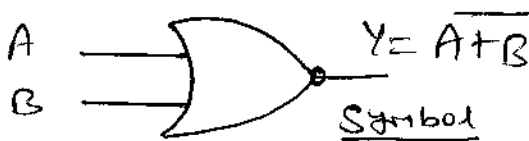


Fig (17)

A	B	$Y = \overline{A+B}$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

Truth table

* The input and output waveforms of NOR gate is shown in fig (18).

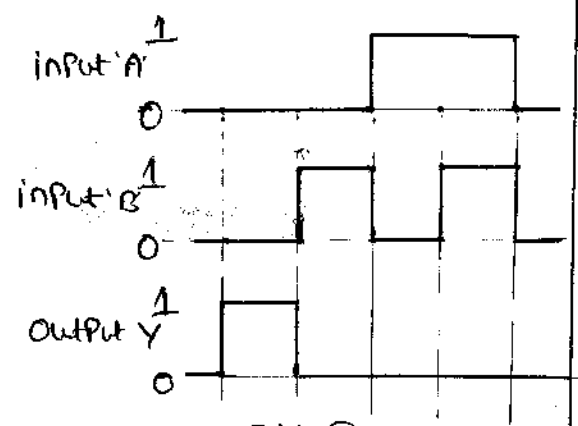


Fig (18)

* The output of N inputs NOR gate is,

$$Y = \overline{A+B+\dots+N}$$

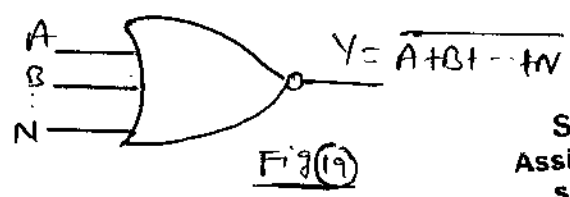


Fig (19)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑥ EXOR gate @ Exclusive - OR gate:

* The output is 1 (high), when the inputs are different, otherwise it is 0 (low)



Symbol

* If A and B are the inputs, then the output of XOR gate is,

$$Y = A \oplus B = \overline{A}B + A\overline{B} (= \overline{A\overline{B}} + \overline{\overline{A}B})$$

A	B	Y = A ⊕ B
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Truth table

Fig (20)

* The symbol & truth table of XOR gate is shown in fig (20)

* The input & output waveforms of XOR gate is shown in fig (21)

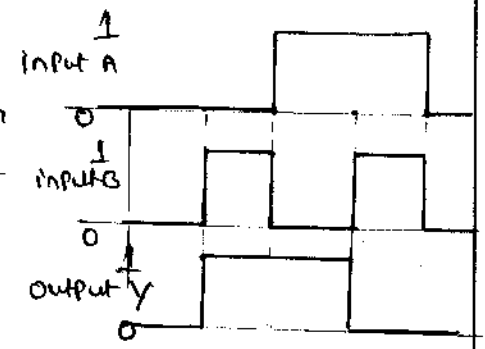


Fig (21)

* The output of N inputs XOR gate is, (output is 1 when odd number of inputs are high)

$$Y = A \oplus B \oplus \dots \oplus N$$

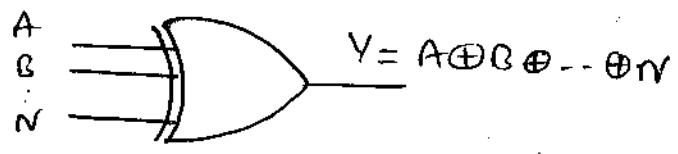


Fig (22)

③ EX-NOR gate @ EXclusive-NOR gate

* The output is '1' (high) when both inputs are same [(0,0) @ (1,1)].



Symbol

* If A and B are the inputs, then the output of EX-NOR gate is

$$Y = A \odot B = \bar{A}\bar{B} + AB \quad (= \overline{\bar{A}B + A\bar{B}})$$

* The symbol & truth table of EX-NOR gate is shown in fig (23)

A	B	Y = A ⊙ B
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Truth table

Fig (23)

* The output 'Y' of N inputs EX-NOR gate is, (output is high only when even number of ones @ all inputs are high)



$$Y = A \odot B \odot \dots \odot N$$

Fig (25)

* The input & output waveforms of EX-NOR gate is shown in fig (24)

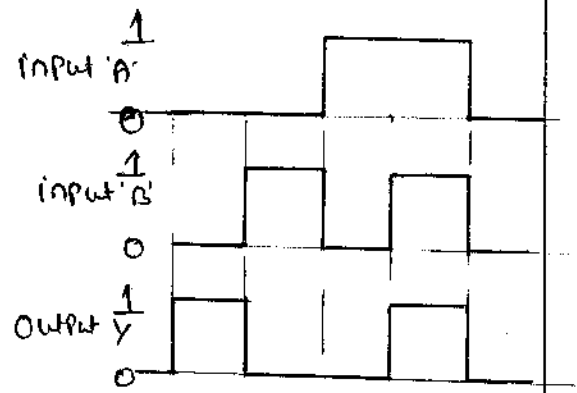


Fig (24)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* Boolean algebra theorem @ (Basic Boolean Law) :

Name	AND form	OR form
Identity Law	$1 \cdot A = A$	$0 + A = A$
Null Law	$0 \cdot A = 0$	$1 + A = 1$
Idempotent Law	$A \cdot A = A$	$A + A = A$
Inverse Law	$A \cdot \bar{A} = 0$	$A + \bar{A} = 1$
Commutative Law	$A \cdot B = B \cdot A$	$A + B = B + A$
Associative Law	$(A \cdot B) \cdot C = A \cdot (B \cdot C)$	$(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$
Distributive Law	$A + B \cdot C = (A + B) \cdot (A + C)$	$A \cdot (B + C) = A \cdot B + A \cdot C$
Absorption Law	$A \cdot (A + B) = A$	$A + A \cdot B = A$
Demorgan's Law	$\overline{A \cdot B} = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$	$\overline{A + B} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$

Absorption Law: it is also called as Redundancy Law

Proof:

① $1.A = A$

1	2
A	1.A
0	0
1	1

From 1st & 2nd Column

$1.A = A$ //

② $0 + A = A$

1	2
A	0 + A
0	0
1	1

From 1st & 2nd Column

$A = 0 + A$ //

③ $0.A = 0$

1	2
A	0.A
0	0
1	0

From 2nd Column output is zero always

$0.A = 0$ //

④ $1 + A = 1$

1	2
A	1 + A
0	1
1	1

From 2nd Column output is always '1'

$1 + A = 1$ //

⑤ $A.A = A$

1	2
A	A.A
0	0
1	1

From 1st & 2nd Column

$A.A = A$ //

⑥ $A + A = A$

1	2
A	A + A
0	0
1	1

From 1st & 2nd Column

$A + A = A$ //

⑦ $A.A̅ = 0$

1	2	3
A	A̅	A.A̅
0	1	0
1	0	0

From 3rd Column output is always 0

$A.A̅ = 0$ //

⑧ $A + A̅ = 1$

1	2	3
A	A̅	A + A̅
0	1	1
1	0	1

From 3rd Column the output is always 1

$A + A̅ = 1$ //

⑨ $AB = BA$

1	2	3	4
A	B	AB	BA
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0
1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1

From 3rd & 4th Column

$AB = BA$ //

⑩ $A + B = B + A$

1	2	3	4
A	B	A + B	B + A
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1

From 3rd & 4th Column

$A + B = B + A$ //

⑪ $(AB)C = A(BC)$

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	B	C	AB	BC	(AB)C	A(BC)
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1

From 6th & 7th Column

$(AB)C = A(BC)$ //

(12) $(A+B)+c = A+(B+c)$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	A	B	C	A+B	B+c	(A+B)+c	A+(B+c)
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1

From Column 6th & 7th
 $(A+B)+c = A+(B+c)$ //

(14) $A(B+c) = AB+AC$

Method 1

RHS = $AB+AC$
 $= A(B+c) = LHS$

Method 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	A	B	C	B+c (X)	AX (Y)	AC (Z)	Y+Z	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0

From 5th & 8th Column
 $A(B+c) = AB+AC$ //

(13) $A+BC = (A+B)(A+c)$

Method 1

RHS = $(A+B)(A+c)$
 $= AA+AC+AB+BC$
 $= A+AC+AB+BC$
 $= A(1+c+B)+BC$
 $= A+BC = LHS$

($\because AA=1, 1+c+\dots=1$)

Method 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	A	B	C	BC	A+BC	(A+B)	(A+c)	XY
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1

From 5th & 8th Column
 $A+BC = (A+B)(A+c)$ //

(15) $A(A+B) = A$

Method 1

LHS = $A(A+B)$
 $= AA+AB$
 $= A+AB (\because AA=A)$
 $= A(1+B)$
 $= A (\because 1+B=1)$
 $= RHS$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhar@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

15) Method 2

1	2	3	4
A	B	A+B	A(A+B)
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1

From 1st & 4th Column,

$A(A+B) = A$ //

16) $A + AB = A$

Method 1

LHS = $A + AB$
 $= A(1+B)$
 $= A$ ($\because 1+B=1$)
 $=$ RHS

Method 2

1	2	3	4
A	B	AB	A+AB
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1

From 1st & 4th Column

$A + AB = A$ //

Note:

① EX-OR = $\overline{\text{EX-NOR}}$

ie $A \oplus B = \overline{A \odot B}$

② EX-NOR = $\overline{\text{EX-OR}}$

ie $A \odot B = \overline{A \oplus B}$

③ $\Rightarrow \overline{AB} + A\overline{B} = \overline{A\overline{B}} + AB$

④ $\overline{A\overline{B}} + AB = \overline{A}B + A\overline{B}$

⑤ $\overline{\overline{A}} = A$

Proof:

1	2	3
A	\overline{A}	$\overline{\overline{A}}$
0	1	0
1	0	1

From 1st & 3rd column,

$\overline{\overline{A}} = A$ //

* De-Morgan's theorem (a) Law

① $\overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$

② The complement of a product is equal to the sum of the complements.

Proof:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	B	\overline{A}	\overline{B}	$\overline{A+B}$	AB	\overline{AB}
0	0	1	1	1	0	1
0	1	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	0	1	0

From 5th & 7th column, $\overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$ //

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

② $\overline{A+B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$ (9)

The complement of a sum is equal to the product of the complements.

Proof:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	B	\overline{A}	\overline{B}	$\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$	A+B	$\overline{A+B}$
0	0	1	1	1	0	1
0	1	1	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	0	1	0

From 5th & 7th columns $\overline{A+B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① DeMorgan's theorem for 3 variables

Ⓐ $\overline{ABC} = \overline{A} + \overline{B} + \overline{C}$ Ⓑ $\overline{A+B+C} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot \overline{C}$

② DeMorgan's theorem for 4 variables

Ⓐ $\overline{ABCD} = \overline{A} + \overline{B} + \overline{C} + \overline{D}$ Ⓑ $\overline{A+B+C+D} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot \overline{C} \cdot \overline{D}$

③ DeMorgan's theorem for N variables

Ⓐ $\overline{ABCD...N} = \overline{A} + \overline{B} + \overline{C} + \dots + \overline{N}$

Ⓑ $\overline{A+B+C+\dots+N} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot \overline{C} \cdot \dots \cdot \overline{N}$

Proof: ①

$2^N = 2^3 = 8$ combinations

* 2 variables = N

$2^N = 2^2 = 4$ combinations

②

$2^4 = 16$ combinations

③ AND, OR, NOT gates → Basic gates

④ NAND, NOR → Universal gates
(Any logic gate can be realized)

Proof of (1) (a)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A	B	C	ABC	\overline{ABC}	\overline{A}	\overline{B}	\overline{C}	$\overline{A+B+C}$
0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0

From 5th & 9th Column. $\overline{ABC} = \overline{A+B+C}$

(b)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A	B	C	\overline{A}	\overline{B}	\overline{C}	$\overline{A \cdot B \cdot C}$	A+B+C	$\overline{A+B+C}$
0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1
0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0

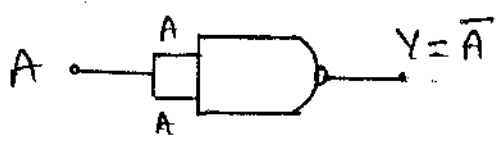
From 7th & 9th Column. $\overline{A+B+C} = \overline{A \cdot B \cdot C}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

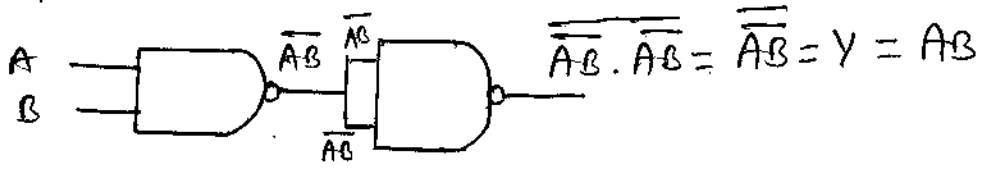
Problems:

- 1) Realize the following gates using NAND gates
 (a) NOT gate (b) AND gate (c) OR gate (d) NOR gate
 (e) EX-OR gate (f) EX-NOR gate

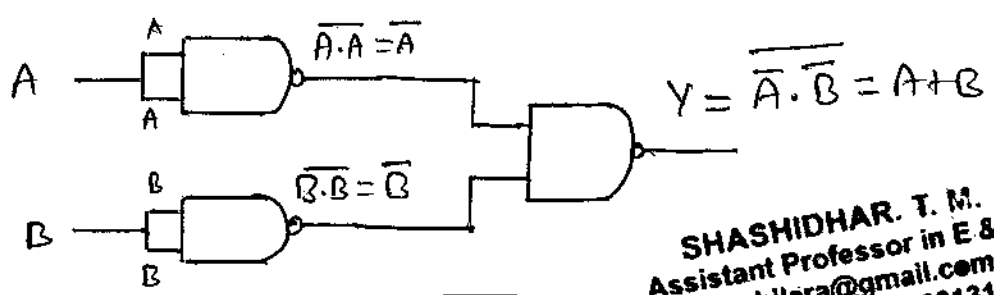
Sol: (a) $Y = \overline{A} = \overline{A \cdot A}$ ($\because A \cdot A = A$)



⑥ $Y = AB = \overline{\overline{AB}}$

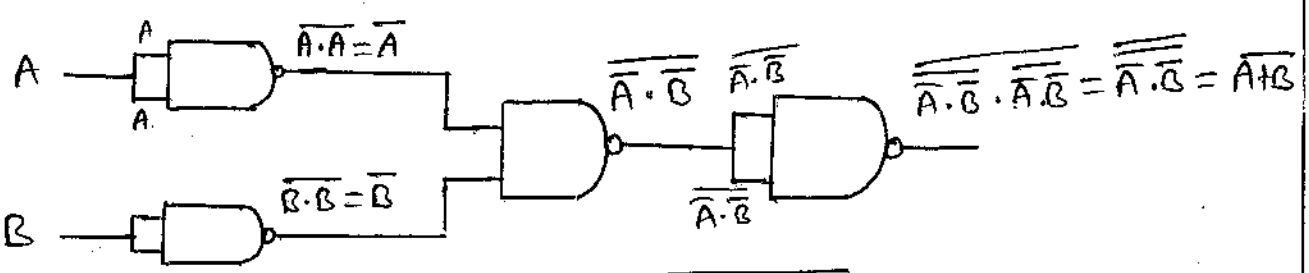


⑦ $Y = A+B = \overline{\overline{A+B}} = \overline{\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}}$



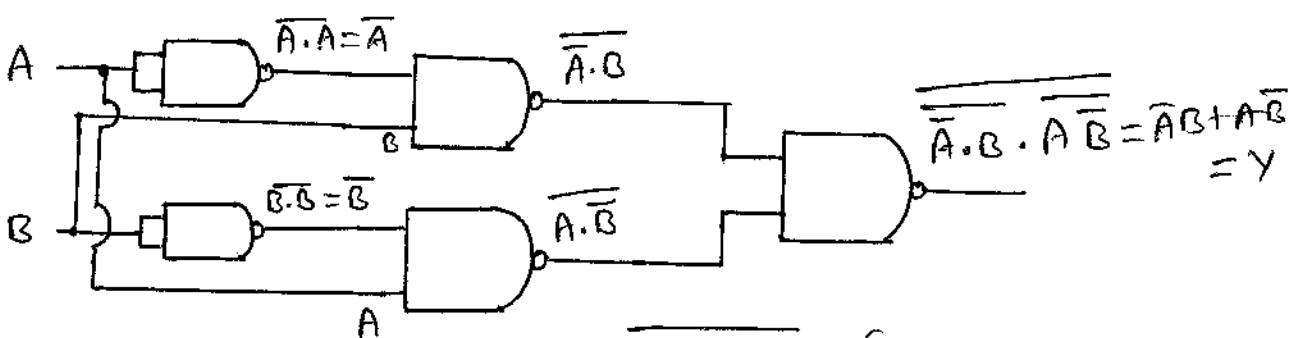
SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑧ $Y = \overline{A+B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} = \overline{\overline{\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}}}$



⑨ $Y = \overline{A}B + A\overline{B} = \overline{\overline{\overline{A}B + A\overline{B}}} = \overline{\overline{A}B} \cdot \overline{A\overline{B}}$ (Requires 5 NAND gates)

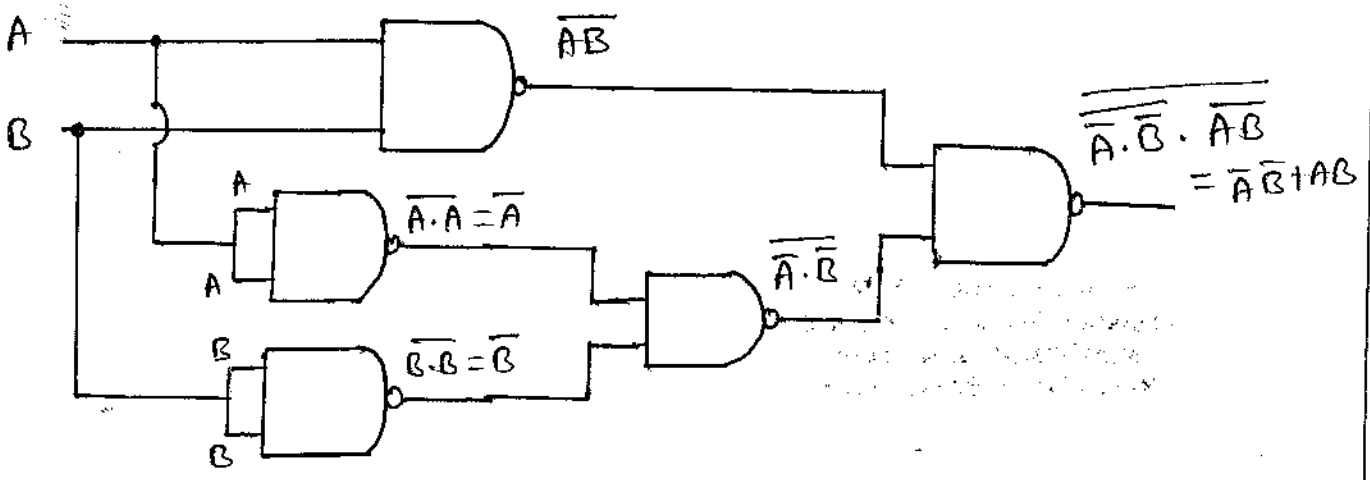
⑩ $Y = \overline{\overline{A}B + A\overline{B}} = \overline{\overline{A}B} \cdot \overline{A\overline{B}}$ (Requires 6 NAND gates)



⑪ $Y = \overline{A}B + A\overline{B} = \overline{\overline{\overline{A}B + A\overline{B}}} = \overline{\overline{A}B} \cdot \overline{A\overline{B}}$ (Requires 5 NAND gates)

⑫ $Y = \overline{\overline{A}B + A\overline{B}} = \overline{\overline{A}B} \cdot \overline{A\overline{B}} = \overline{\overline{\overline{A}B} \cdot \overline{A\overline{B}}}$ (Requires 6 NAND gates)

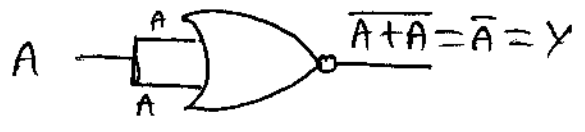
Note: EX-OR gate = EX-NOR gate & vice versa



2) Realize the following gates using NOR gates
 (a) NOT (b) AND (c) OR (d) NAND (e) EX-OR (f) EX-NOR

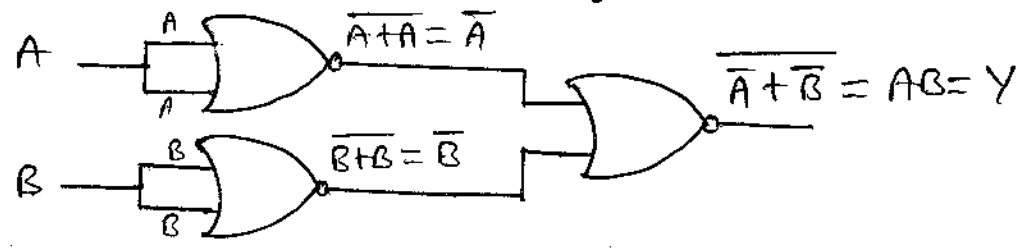
Sol:

(a) $Y = \bar{A} = \overline{A+A}$ ($\because A+A = A$)

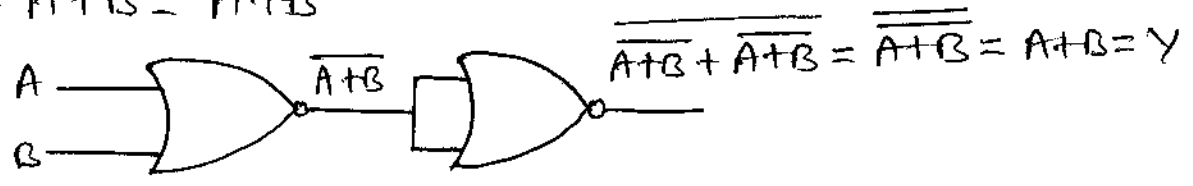


SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

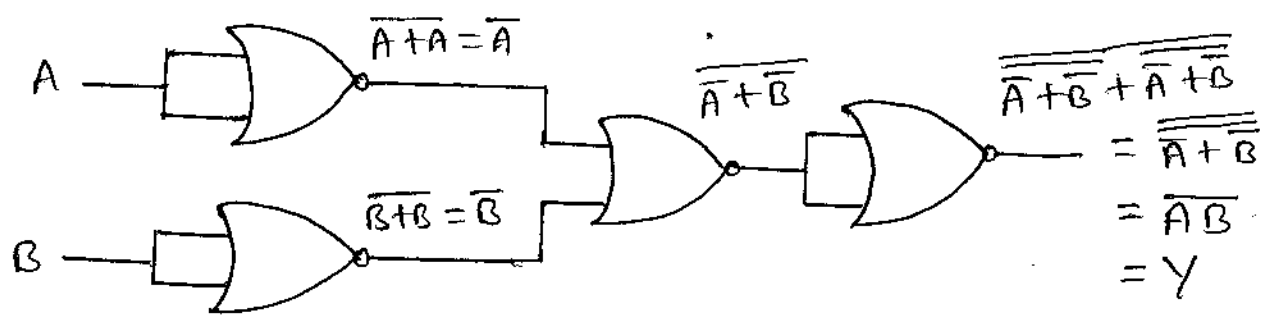
(b) $Y = AB = \overline{\overline{AB}} = \overline{\overline{A+B}}$



(c) $Y = A+B = \overline{\overline{A+B}}$



(d) $Y = \overline{AB} = \overline{A+B} = \overline{\overline{\overline{A+B}}}$

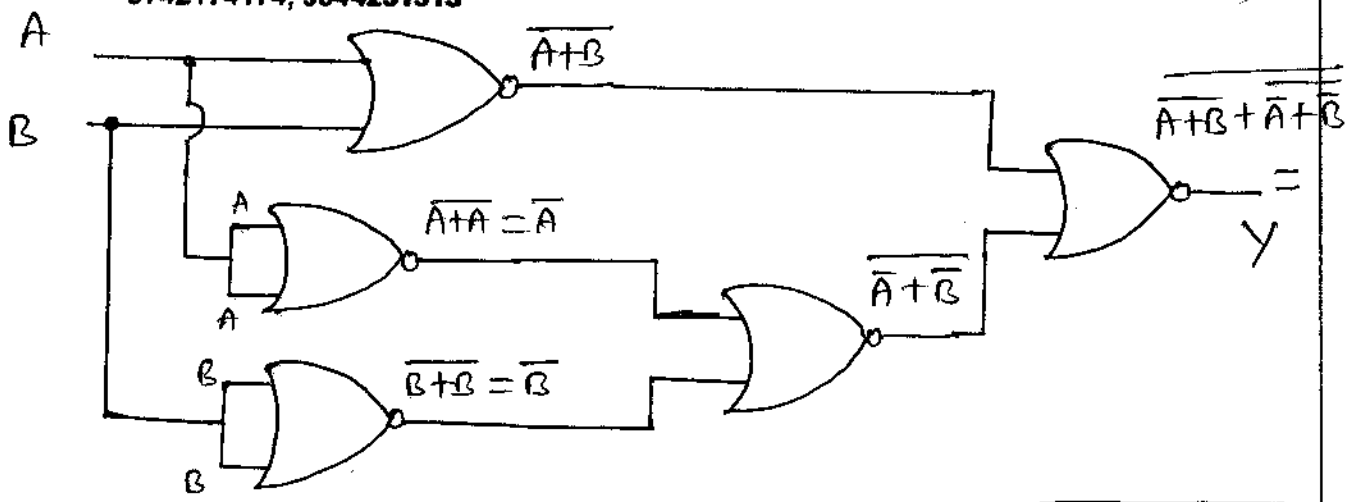


© $Y = \overline{A}B + A\overline{B} = \overline{\overline{\overline{A}B}} + \overline{\overline{\overline{A}B}} = \overline{\overline{A+B}} + \overline{\overline{A+B}}$

① $Y = \overline{\overline{A+B}} + \overline{\overline{A+B}} = \overline{A+B} + \overline{A+B}$ (6 gates required)

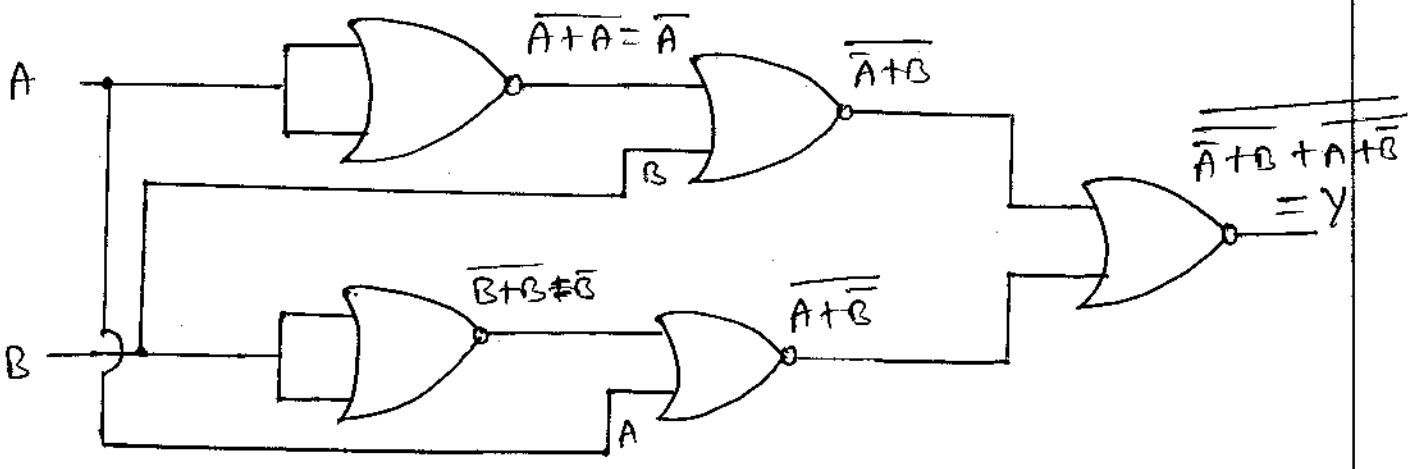
$Y = \overline{\overline{A}B} + \overline{\overline{A}B} = \overline{\overline{A}B} + \overline{\overline{A}B} = \overline{\overline{A+B}} + \overline{\overline{A+B}}$
 $= \overline{A+B} + \overline{A+B}$ (5 gates required)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315



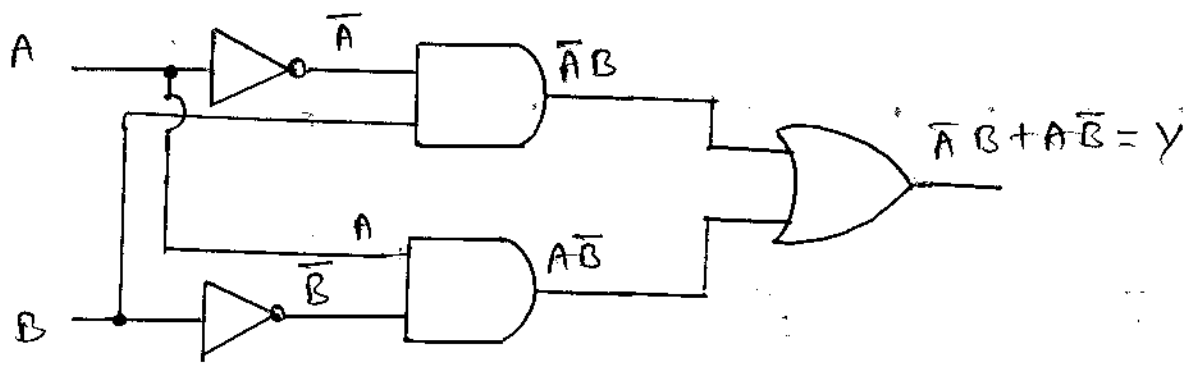
⑥ $Y = \overline{\overline{A}B} + \overline{\overline{A}B} = \overline{\overline{A}B} + \overline{\overline{A}B} = \overline{\overline{A+B}} + \overline{\overline{A+B}} = \overline{A+B} + \overline{A+B}$ (6 gates required)

① $Y = \overline{\overline{A}B} + \overline{\overline{A}B} = \overline{\overline{A}B} + \overline{\overline{A}B} = \overline{\overline{A+B}} + \overline{\overline{A+B}} = \overline{A+B} + \overline{A+B}$ (5 gates required)



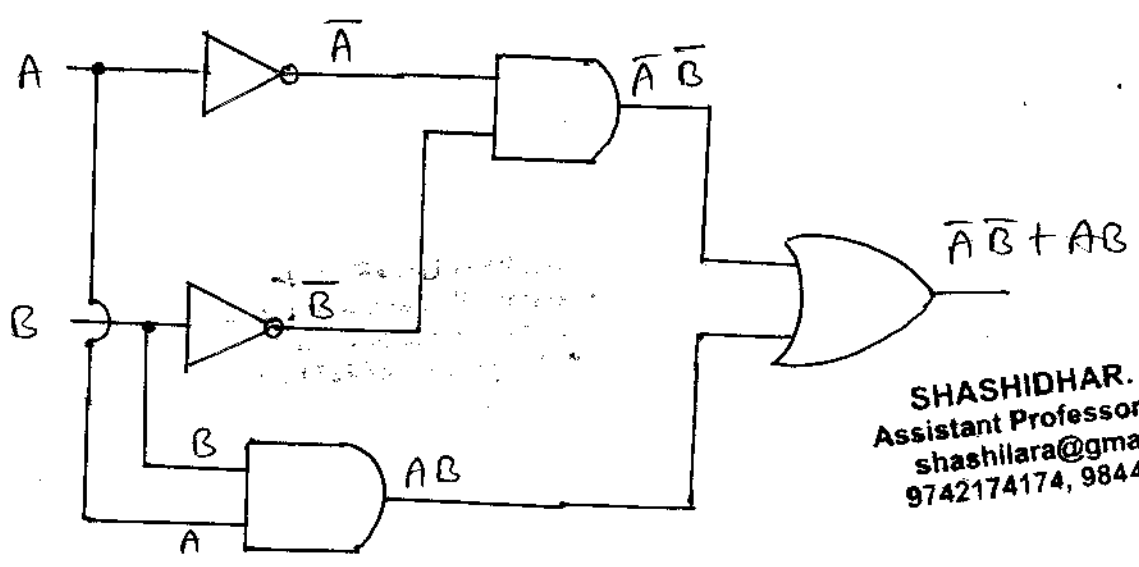
③ Redesign EX-OR & EX-NOR gates using basic gates.

Rule: EX-OR, $Y = \overline{A}B + A\overline{B}$ ① $\overline{\overline{A}B} + \overline{A\overline{B}}$



EX-NOR

$$Y = \overline{A\overline{B}} + A\overline{B} \text{ or } \overline{A\overline{B}} + A\overline{B}$$



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E. & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

H) Construct the truth table for the following Boolean expressions.

Ⓐ $Y = \overline{AB + \overline{A} + \overline{AB}}$ Ⓑ $Y = \overline{\overline{AB} + AB}$ Ⓒ $Y = A(\overline{B+C})$

sol: Ⓐ

A	B	\overline{A}	AB	\overline{AB}	X+Z+P	$Y = \overline{X+Z+P}$
0	0	1	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	1	0	1	0

Ⓑ $Y = \overline{\overline{AB} + AB} = \overline{AB} + AB$

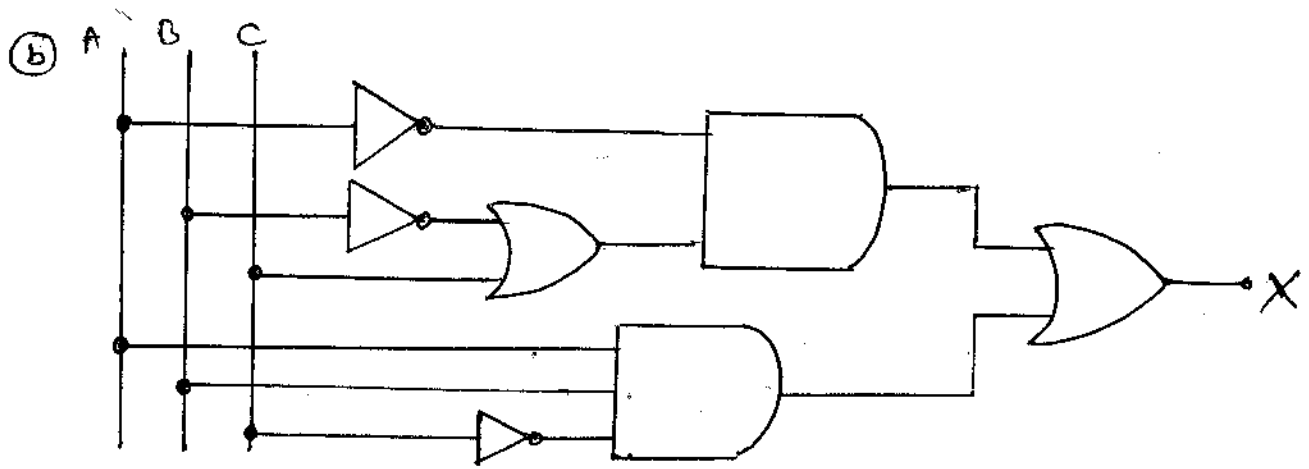
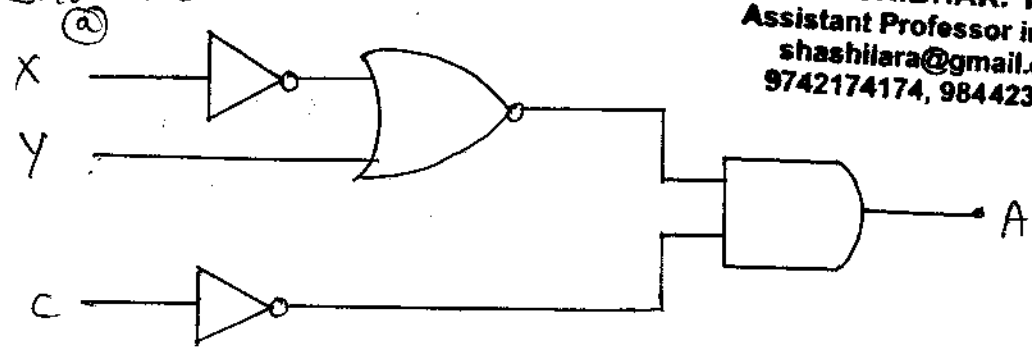
A	B	AB	\overline{AB}	$Y = \overline{AB} + AB$
0	0	0	1	1
0	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	0	1

© $Y = A(\overline{B} + \overline{C})$

A	B	C	\overline{B}	\overline{C}	$\overline{B} + \overline{C}$	$A(\overline{B} + \overline{C})$
0	0	0	1	1	1	0
0	0	1	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	1	0	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	0	0

5) Write the Boolean expressions for the logic diagram shown below.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

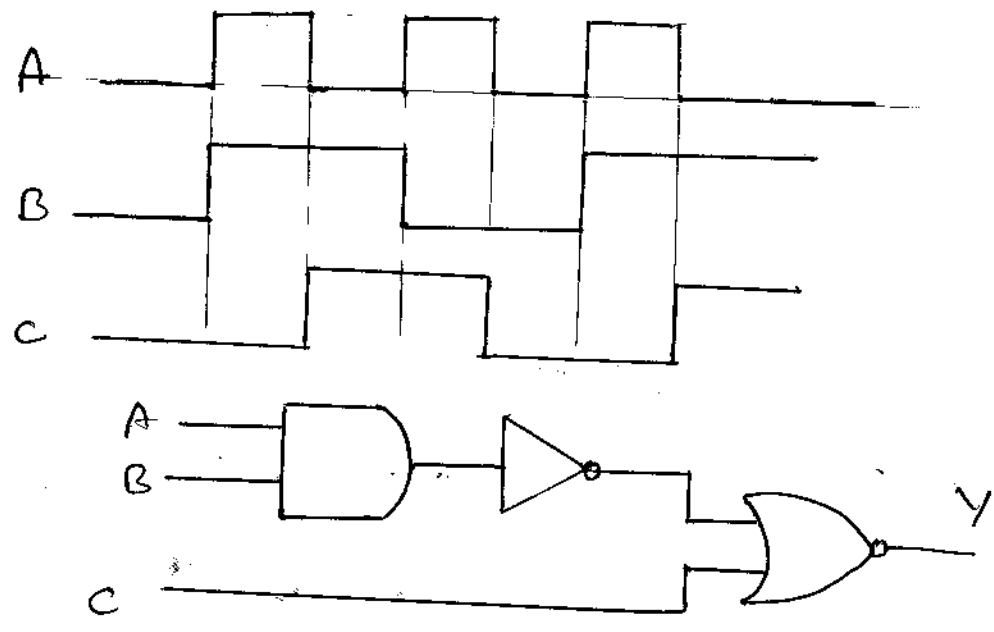


sol:

① $A = (\overline{X} + Y) \overline{C}$

② $X = \overline{A}(\overline{B} + C) + A B \overline{C}$

6) Draw the output waveform of the logic circuit shown for the following input waveform.



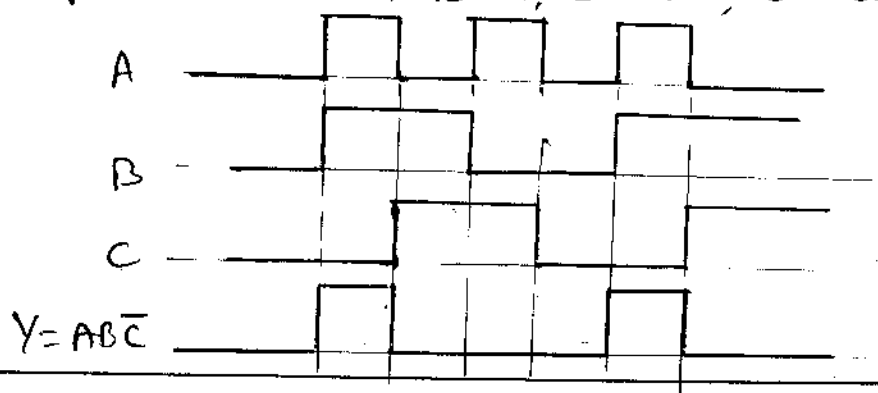
sol. From the given logic circuit,

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y &= \overline{AB} + C \\
 \Rightarrow Y &= \overline{A + B} + C \\
 &= \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} + C \\
 &= A\overline{B}C
 \end{aligned}$$

A	B	C	AB	\overline{C}	$Y = \overline{AB} + C$
0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

From truth table, it is clear that output $Y = 1$ only when $A = 1, B = 1, C = 0$, otherwise output $(Y) = 0$



7) Prove the following Boolean expressions

- (a) $A + \bar{A}B = A + B$ (b) $\bar{A} + AB = \bar{A} + B$
- (c) $A + \bar{A}B + AB\bar{C} = A + B$ (d) $A + \bar{A}B + ABC + A\bar{C} = A + B$
- (e) $\overline{AB + \bar{A}B + A} = 0$ (f) $AB + \bar{A} + \overline{AB} = 1$
- (g) $ABC + A\bar{B}C + AB\bar{C} = AB + AC$ (h) $\overline{AB} + \bar{A} + AB = 0$
- (i) $AB + A + A\bar{B} = A$ (j) $\bar{X}\bar{Y}\bar{Z} + \bar{X}\bar{Y}Z + \bar{X}Y + XY = \bar{Y}$

Sol: Method I

(a) LHS = $A + \bar{A}B$
 $= A \cdot 1 + \bar{A}B$
 $= A \cdot (1+B) + \bar{A}B \quad (\because 1+B=1)$
 $= A + AB + \bar{A}B$
 $= A + B(A + \bar{A}) \quad (\because A + \bar{A} = 1)$
 $= A + B \cdot 1$
 $= A + B = \text{RHS}$

Method II (Method of Perfect induction)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
A	B	\bar{A}	$\bar{A}B$	$A + \bar{A}B$	$A + B$	
0	0	1	0	0	0	
0	1	1	1	1	1	
1	0	0	0	1	1	
1	1	0	0	1	1	

From 5th & 6th column,

$A + \bar{A}B = A + B$

(b) LHS = $\bar{A} + AB = \bar{A}(1+B) + AB = \bar{A} + \bar{A}B + AB = \bar{A} + B(A + \bar{A})$
 $= \bar{A} + B$
 $= \text{RHS}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

(c) LHS = $A + \bar{A}B + AB\bar{C}$
 $= A(1 + B\bar{C}) + \bar{A}B$
 $= A + \bar{A}B \quad [\because 1 + B\bar{C} = 1]$
 $= A(1+B) + \bar{A}B \quad [1+B=1]$
 $= A + AB + \bar{A}B \quad [A + \bar{A} = 1]$
 $= A + B(A + \bar{A}) = A + B = \text{RHS}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{2} \text{ LHS} &= \underline{A + \bar{A}B + A\bar{B}C + A\bar{C}} \\
 &= A(1 + B\bar{C} + \bar{C}) + \bar{A}B \quad (\because 1 + \text{Anything} = 1) \\
 &= A + \bar{A}B \\
 &= A + B \quad (\because A + \bar{A}B = A + B) \\
 &= \underline{\underline{\text{RHS}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{c} \text{ LHS} &= \overline{AB + \bar{A}B + A} \\
 &= \bar{A}\bar{B} \cdot \overline{\bar{A}\bar{B}} \cdot \bar{A} \quad [\text{Demorgan's theorem } \overline{A+B+C} = \bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C}] \\
 &= \bar{A}\bar{B} \cdot AB \cdot \bar{A} \\
 &= 0 \quad [\because A\bar{A} = 0 \text{ III}^{\text{rd}} \text{ AB} \cdot \bar{A}\bar{B} = 0] \\
 &= \underline{\underline{\text{RHS}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{d} \text{ LHS} &= \underline{AB + \bar{A} + \bar{A}\bar{B}} \\
 &= AB + \bar{A}\bar{B} + \bar{A} \\
 &= 1 + \bar{A} \quad [\because A + \bar{A} = 1 \text{ III}^{\text{rd}} \text{ AB} + \bar{A}\bar{B} = 1] \\
 &= 1 \quad [1 + \text{Anything} = 1] \\
 &= \underline{\underline{\text{RHS}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{g} \text{ LHS} &= \underline{ABC + A\bar{B}C + AB\bar{C}} \\
 &= AC(B + \bar{B}) + AB\bar{C} \\
 &= AC + AB\bar{C} \quad (\because B + \bar{B} = 1) \\
 &= A(C + \bar{C}B) \\
 &= A(C + B) \quad (\because C + \bar{C}B = C + B) \\
 &= AB + AC \\
 &= \underline{\underline{\text{RHS}}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\textcircled{h} \text{ LHS} = \overline{AB} + \overline{A} + AB = \overline{AB} \cdot \overline{A} \cdot \overline{AB} = AB \cdot A \cdot \overline{AB} = 0 = \text{RHS}$$

($\because AB \cdot \overline{AB} = 0$)

$$\textcircled{i} \text{ LHS} = AB + A + AB = A(B + 1 + B) = A = \text{RHS}$$

[$\because 1 + \text{Anything} = 1$]

$$\textcircled{j} \text{ LHS} = \overline{X} \overline{Y} \overline{Z} + \overline{X} \overline{Y} \overline{Z} + \overline{X} \overline{Y} + X \overline{Y}$$

$$= \overline{X} \overline{Y} \overline{Z} + \overline{X} \overline{Y} + X \overline{Y} \quad (\because A + A = A \text{ III}^{\text{rd}} \overline{X} \overline{Y} \overline{Z} + \overline{X} \overline{Y} \overline{Z} = \overline{X} \overline{Y} \overline{Z})$$

$$= \overline{X} \overline{Y} (\overline{Z} + 1) + X \overline{Y}$$

$$= \overline{X} \overline{Y} + X \overline{Y} \quad (\because \overline{Z} + 1 = 1)$$

$$= \overline{Y} (\overline{X} + X) \quad (\because X + \overline{X} = 1)$$

$$= \overline{Y}$$

$$= \text{RHS}$$

SHASHI, IAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

8) Simplify (factorize) the following Boolean expressions

a) $\overline{A}C + \overline{A}C$ b) $AB + \overline{A}C + \overline{B}C$ c) $(A + \overline{B}C)(A\overline{B} + C)$

d) $(A + B)(\overline{A} + \overline{C})(\overline{B} + C)$ e) $AB + ABC + \overline{A}B + A\overline{B}C$

Sol
a) Let $Y = \overline{A}C + \overline{A}C = \overline{A}C + \overline{A} + \overline{C} = \overline{A}(C + 1) + \overline{C}$
 $= \overline{A} + \overline{C} + \overline{A}C$

b) Let $Y = AB + \overline{A}C + \overline{B}C$
 $= AB + C(\overline{A} + \overline{B})$
 $= AB + C\overline{AB}$
 $= \underline{AB + C} \quad \left[\because A + \overline{A}C = A + C \right.$
 $\left. \text{III}^{\text{rd}} AB + \overline{A}B C = AB + C \right]$

© (A + BC)(A + B + C)

= AAB + AC + ABBC + BCC

= A + B + C + ABC + BC [∵ AA = A, BB = B, CC = C]

= A + B + C + BC(A + 1)

= A + B + C + CA (∵ A + 1 = 1)

Ⓐ (A + B)(A + C)(B + C)

= (A + B)(AB + AC + BC + C)

= ABAB + AABC + ABBC + AC

= AB + ABC + ABC + AC

= AB(1 + C) + AC

= AB

Ⓒ AB + ABC + A + B + C

= AB(1 + C) + A + B + C

= AB + A + B + C

= B(A + 1) + A + C

= B + A + C

= B + AC

Ⓓ Simplify the following Boolean equations & draw the logic diagram

Ⓐ Y = A + B + C Ⓑ X + YZ + X + YZ + YZ + XZ

Ⓒ ABC + A + B + C

Ⓐ Given Y = A + B + C

= ~~A + B + C~~ + (A + B + C)

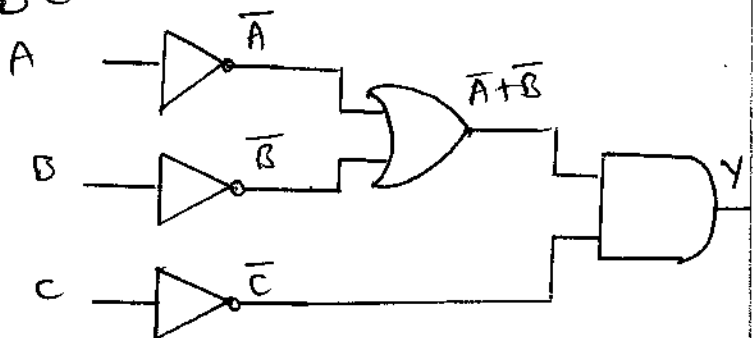
= A + B + C

= A + B + C

= C(A + B)

= CA + CB

SHASHIDHAR. T. M. Assistant Professor in E & C shashilara@gmail.com 9742174174, 9844231315



⑧ Let $A = \bar{X}\bar{Y}\bar{Z} + \overline{XYZ} + \bar{Y}Z + X\bar{Z}$

$$= \bar{Y}\bar{Z}(\bar{X} + 1) + (\bar{X} + \bar{Y})\bar{Z} + X\bar{Z}$$

$$= \bar{Y}\bar{Z} + \bar{X}\bar{Z} + \bar{Y}\bar{Z} + X\bar{Z}$$

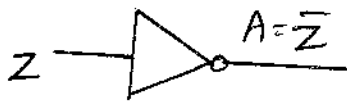
$$= \bar{Y}\bar{Z} + \bar{X}\bar{Z} + X\bar{Z}$$

$$= \bar{Y}\bar{Z} + \bar{Z}(\bar{X} + X)$$

$$= \bar{Y}\bar{Z} + \bar{Z}$$

$$= \bar{Z}(\bar{Y} + 1)$$

$$= \bar{Z} //$$



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231319

⑨ Let $X = ABC + A\bar{B}C + AB\bar{C} + \bar{A}BC$

$$= AC(B + \bar{B}) + AB\bar{C} + \bar{A}BC$$

$$= AC + AB\bar{C} + \bar{A}BC$$

$$= A(C + B\bar{C}) + \bar{A}BC$$

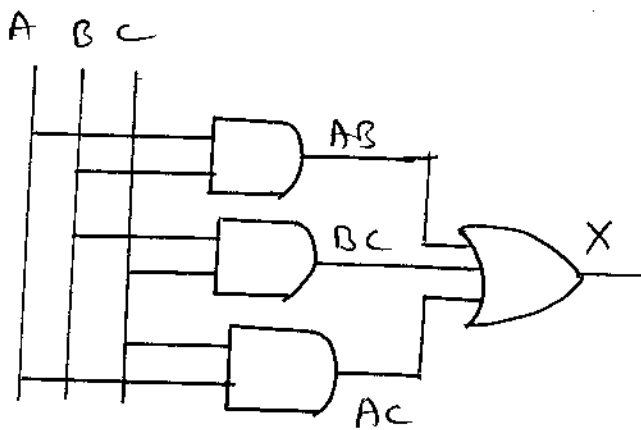
$$= A(C + B) + \bar{A}BC$$

$$= AC + AB + \bar{A}BC$$

$$= AC + B(A + \bar{A}C)$$

$$= AC + B(A + C)$$

$$= AC + BA + BC$$



⑩ Simplify & realize using only NAND gates the following Boolean expressions.

Ⓐ $Y = (A + B + C)(A + B)$ Ⓑ $Y = AB + ABC + AB\bar{C}$

Ⓒ $(A + \bar{B}C)(\bar{A} + B + \bar{C})(A + \bar{B})$

Sol Ⓐ $Y = (A + B + C)(A + B)$

$$= AA + AB + BA + BB + CA + CB$$

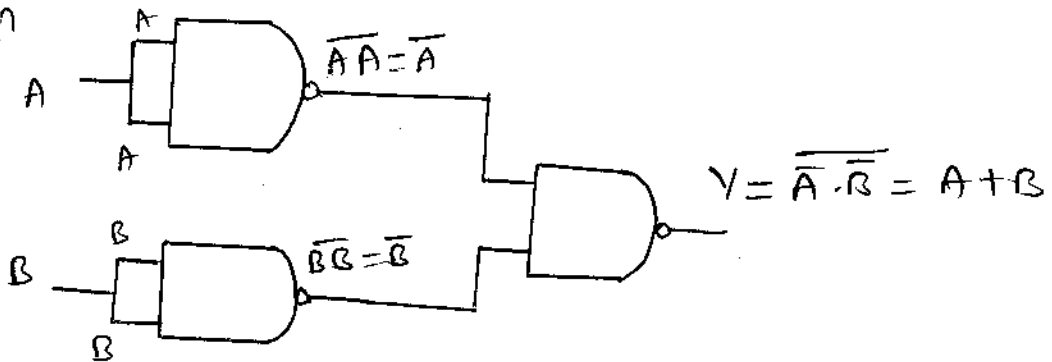
$$= \underline{A} + \underline{AB} + B + \underline{C}A + \underline{CB}$$

$$= A(1 + \cancel{B} + \cancel{C}) + B(1 + \cancel{C})$$

$$Y = A + B$$

Now $Y = A + B = \overline{\overline{A + B}} = \overline{\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}}$

Realization



⑤ Given $Y = AB + ABC + ABC$

$$= AB(1 + \cancel{C} + \cancel{C})$$

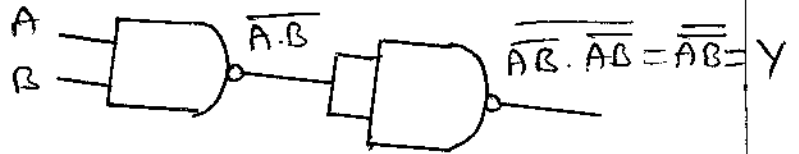
$$Y = AB$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Realization

Now

$$Y = AB = \overline{\overline{AB}}$$



⑥ Let $X = (A + \overline{B}C)(\overline{A} + B + \overline{C})(A + \overline{B})$

$$= (\cancel{A}A + \cancel{A}B + \cancel{A}C + \overline{A} \overline{B}C + B \overline{B}C + \overline{B} \overline{C}C)(A + \overline{B})$$

$$= (AB + A\overline{C} + \overline{A} \overline{B}C)(A + \overline{B})$$

$$= AAB + A\overline{B} + A\overline{C} + \overline{A} \overline{B}C + A\overline{A} \overline{B}C + \overline{A} \overline{B} \overline{B}C$$

$$= AB + A\overline{C} + \overline{A} \overline{B}C + \overline{A} \overline{B}C$$

$$= AB + A\overline{C} + \overline{A} \overline{B}C$$

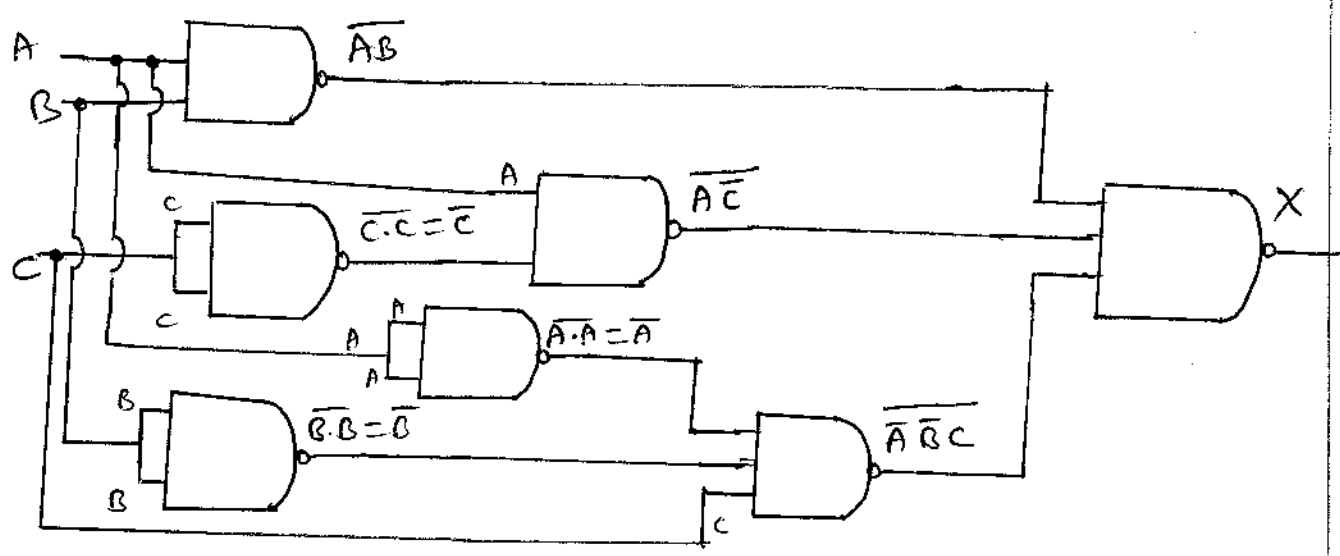
$$X = AB + A\overline{C} + \overline{A} \overline{B}C$$

Now

$$X = AB + A\overline{C} + \overline{A} \overline{B}C = \overline{\overline{AB + A\overline{C} + \overline{A} \overline{B}C}}$$

$$X = \overline{AB} \cdot \overline{AC} \cdot \overline{ABC}$$

Reduction



11) Simplify & implement the following expressions using only NOR gates

a) $Y = \overline{A} \overline{B} \overline{C} \overline{D} + \overline{A} \overline{B} \overline{C} D + A \overline{B} \overline{C} \overline{D} + A \overline{B} \overline{C} D$

b) $Y = (A + \overline{B} + C)(\overline{A} + B + C)(A + B)$

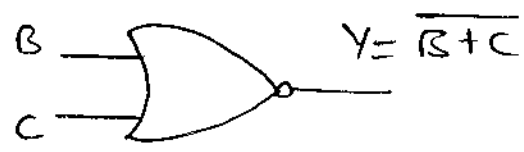
c) $X = \overline{A} B C + A \overline{B} C + A B C$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Sol.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{a) } Y &= \overline{A} \overline{B} \overline{C} \overline{D} + \overline{A} \overline{B} \overline{C} D + A \overline{B} \overline{C} \overline{D} + A \overline{B} \overline{C} D \\ &= \overline{B} \overline{C} (\overline{A} \overline{D} + \overline{A} D + A \overline{D} + A D) \\ &= \overline{B} \overline{C} [A(\overline{D} + D) + A(\overline{D} + D)] \\ &= \overline{B} \overline{C} (\overline{A} + A) \end{aligned}$$

$Y = \overline{B} \overline{C}$



Now $Y = \overline{B} \overline{C} = \overline{B+C}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{b} \quad Y &= (A + \bar{B} + C)(\bar{A} + B + C)(A + B) \\
 &= (\overline{A\bar{A}} + \overline{AB} + \overline{AC} + \overline{\bar{A}\bar{B}} + \overline{B\bar{B}} + \overline{BC} + \overline{AC} + \overline{BC} + \overline{CC})(A + B) \\
 &= (\overline{AB} + \overline{AC} + \overline{\bar{A}\bar{B}} + \overline{BC} + \overline{AC} + \overline{BC} + \overline{C})(A + B) \\
 &= (\overline{AB} + \overline{\bar{A}\bar{B}} + C(A + \bar{B} + \overline{\bar{A}} + B + 1))(A + B) \\
 &= (\overline{AB} + \overline{\bar{A}\bar{B}} + C)(A + B) \\
 &= \overline{AAB} + \overline{ABB} + \overline{A\bar{A}\bar{B}} + \overline{\bar{A}B\bar{B}} + \overline{CA} + \overline{CB} \\
 &= \overline{AB} + \overline{AB} + \overline{CA} + \overline{CB}
 \end{aligned}$$

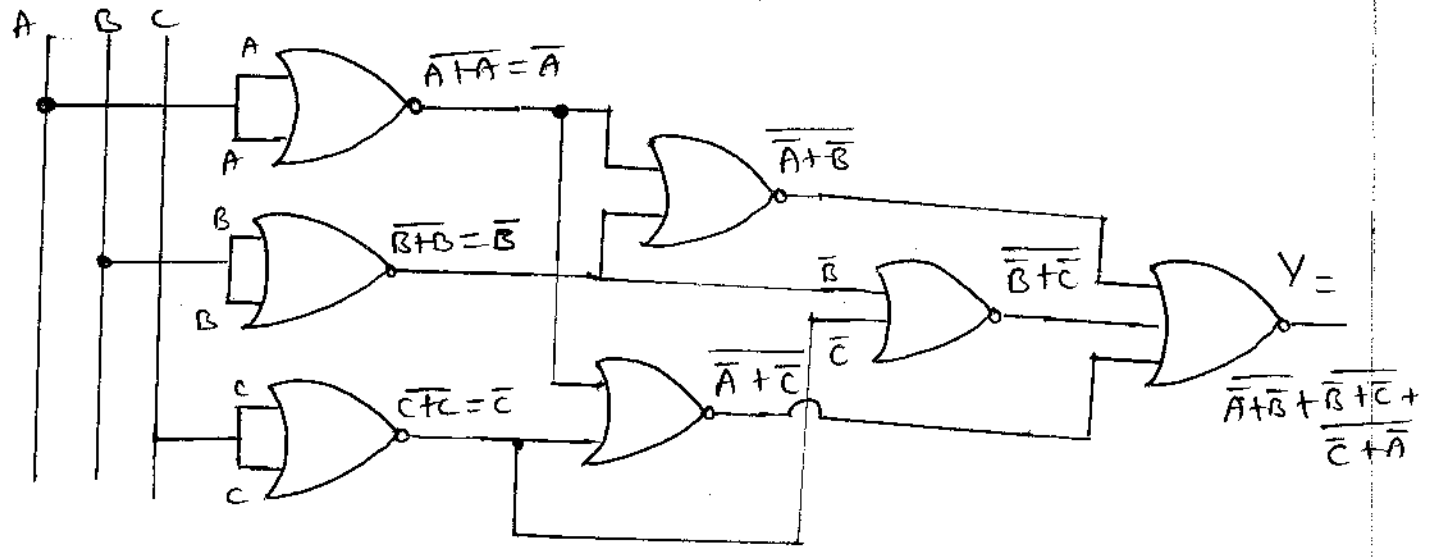
$$Y = \overline{AB} + \overline{BC} + \overline{CA}$$

NOB

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y &= \overline{\overline{AB}} + \overline{\overline{BC}} + \overline{\overline{CA}} \\
 &= \overline{\bar{A} + \bar{B}} + \overline{\bar{B} + \bar{C}} + \overline{\bar{C} + \bar{A}}
 \end{aligned}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Realization

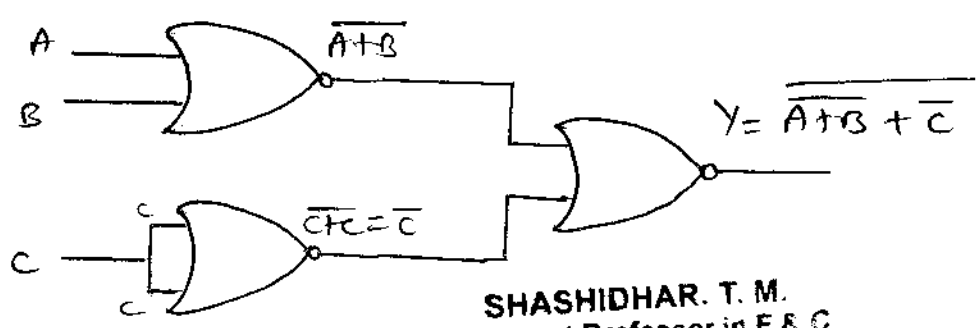


$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{c} \quad Y &= \bar{A}BC + A\bar{B}C + ABC \\
 &= \bar{A}BC + AC(\bar{B} + B) \\
 &= \bar{A}BC + AC \\
 &= C(\bar{A}B + A) = C(A + B) \text{ @ } CA + CB //
 \end{aligned}$$

NOV $Y = \overline{C(A+B)}$
 $= \overline{C} + \overline{A+B}$
 (3 NOR gates required)

① $Y = \overline{\overline{C}A + \overline{C}B}$
 $= \overline{\overline{C} + A} + \overline{\overline{C} + B}$
 (7 NOR gates required)

Realization



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* Half adder:

Definition: A Logic circuit which adds two binary variables (two bits), yields a carry but does not accept carry from another circuit (adder) is called a half adder.

Block diagram

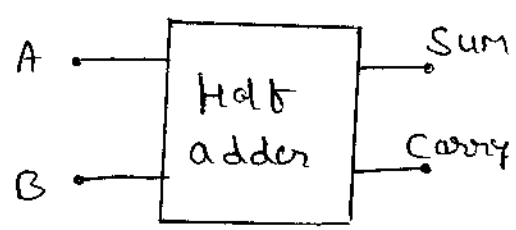


Fig ①

Truth table

The truth table of a half-adder with inputs A and B and outputs Sum 'S' & Carry 'C' is shown in fig ②

inputs		output	
A	B	Sum S	Carry C
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1

Fig ②

Boolean expressions for Sum & Carry

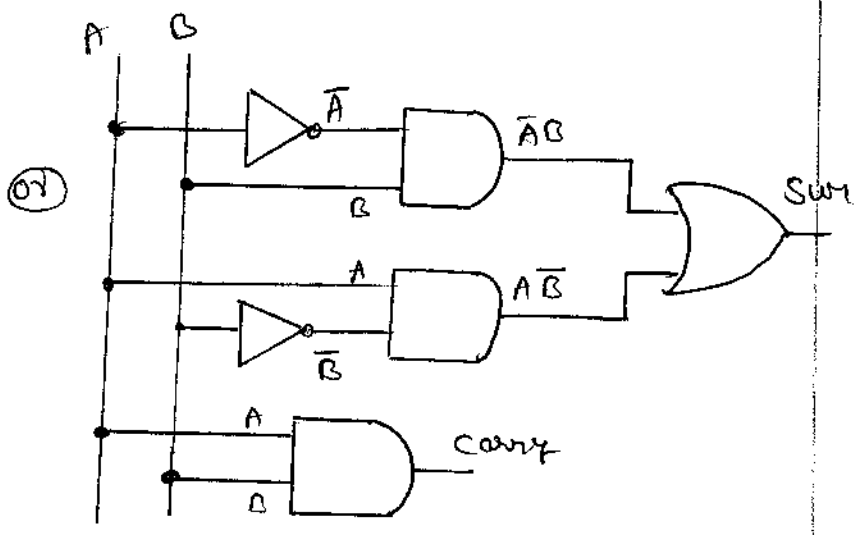
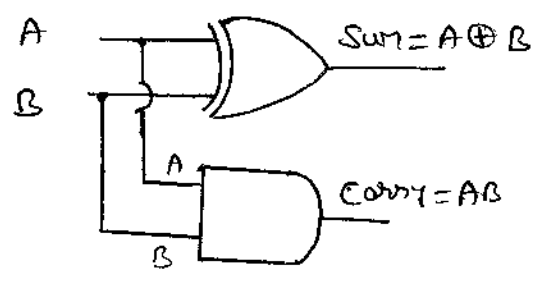
Sum is 1 when A=1, B=0
 & when A=0, B=1

$S = \overline{A}B + A\overline{B}$
 ① $S = A \oplus B$

Carry is 1 when A=B=1

$C = AB$

Implementation:



Limitation:

Addition of three bits cannot be done.

* Full adder:

Definition: A Logic circuit which adds two binary numbers (two bits), accept a carry and yield a carry it called Full adder

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Block diagram

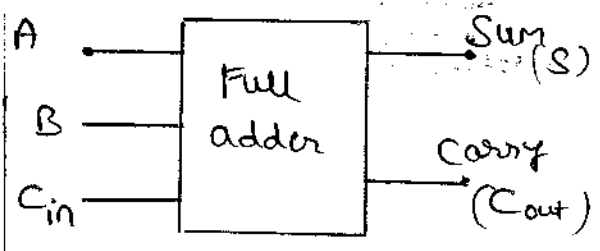


Fig ①

Truthtable

The truth table of a full adder with inputs A, B, & Cin and outputs Sum 'S' & Carry 'Cout' is shown in fig ②

A	B	C _{in}	SUM S	Carry Cout
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Boolean expressions for Sum (S) & Carry (Cout)

Sum is 1 when $A=0, B=0, C_{in}=1$
 $A=0, B=1, C_{in}=0$, $A=1, B=0, C_{in}=0$
 & $A=B=C_{in}=1$

$$\therefore S = \bar{A}\bar{B}C_m + \bar{A}B\bar{C}_m + A\bar{B}\bar{C}_m + ABC_m$$

$$= (\bar{A}\bar{B} + AB)C_m + (\bar{A}B + A\bar{B})\bar{C}_m \quad \text{--- ①}$$

Let $X = \bar{A}\bar{B} + AB \Rightarrow \bar{X} = \bar{A}B + A\bar{B}$ [$X = A \oplus B$]

--- ②
--- ③

Using ② & ③ in ①, we get

$$S = \bar{X}C_m + X\bar{C}_m$$

$$S = X \oplus C_m$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{S = A \oplus B \oplus C_m} \quad \text{--- ①}$$

Carry is 1 when $A=0, B=1, C_m=1, A=1, B=0, C_m=1, A=1, B=1, C_m=0$ & $A=B=C_m=1$

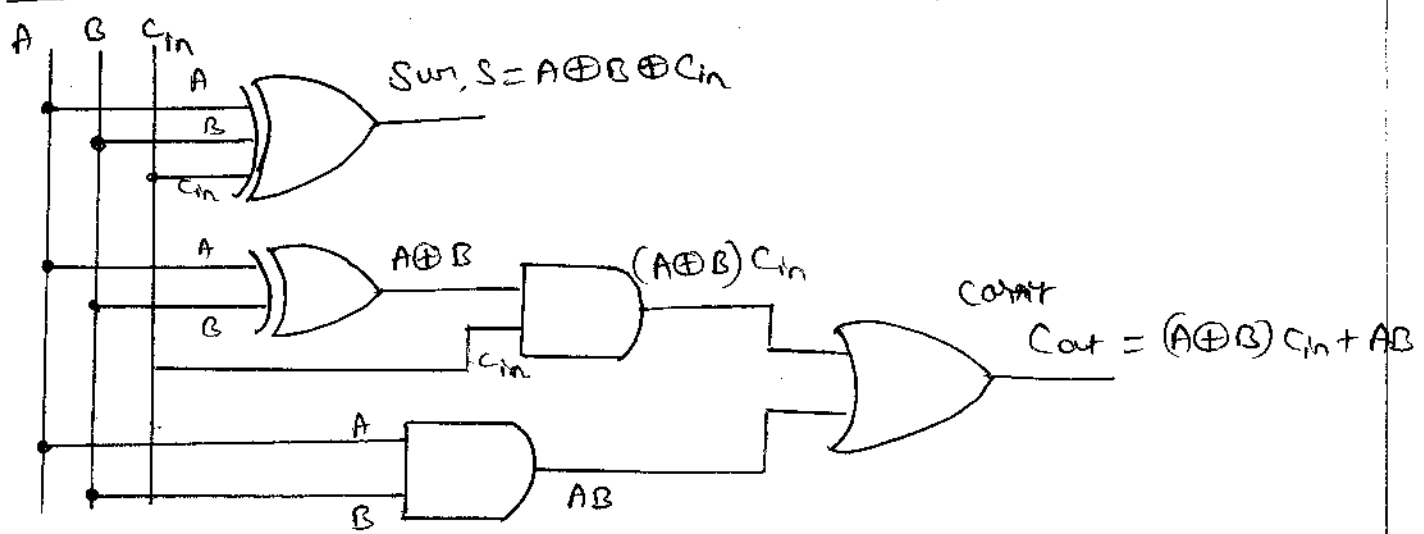
$$\therefore C_{out} = \bar{A}BC_m + A\bar{B}C_m + A\bar{B}\bar{C}_m + ABC_m$$

$$C_{out} = (\bar{A}B + A\bar{B})C_m + AB(\bar{C}_m + C_m)$$

$$\boxed{C_{out} = (A \oplus B)C_m + AB} \quad \text{--- ②}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Implementation:



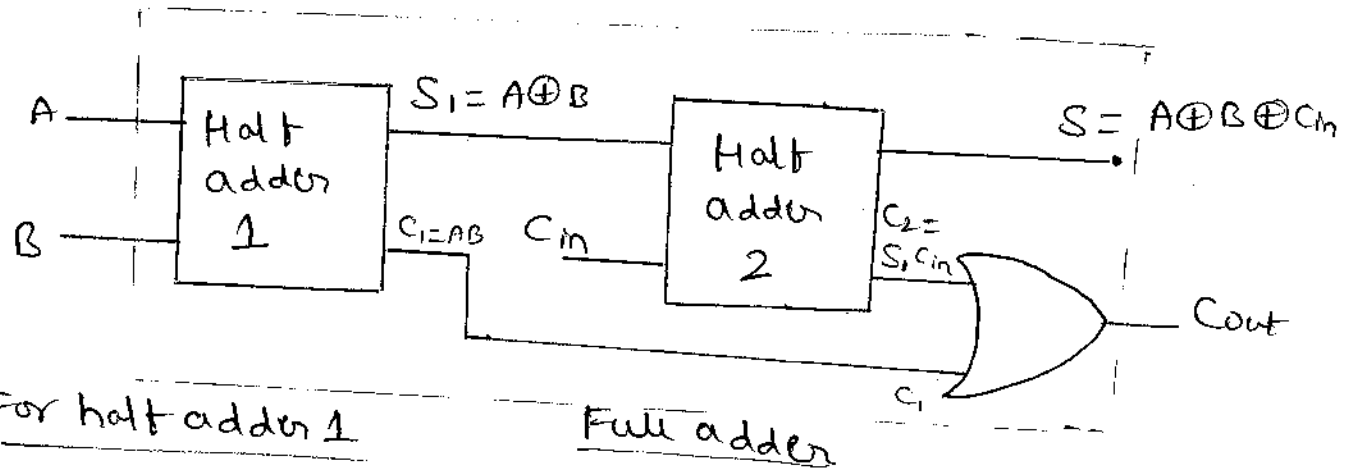
Advantage:

Addition of three bits can be done

* Implementation of Full adder using half-adder

(a) Implementation of Full adder using half-adder & NOR gate

Implementation of Full adder using half adder is shown below (Block diagram)



For half adder 1

Full adder

Sum, $S_1 = A \oplus B$ — (3)

Carry, $C_1 = AB$ — (4)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

For half adder 2:

(From (3) & (4))

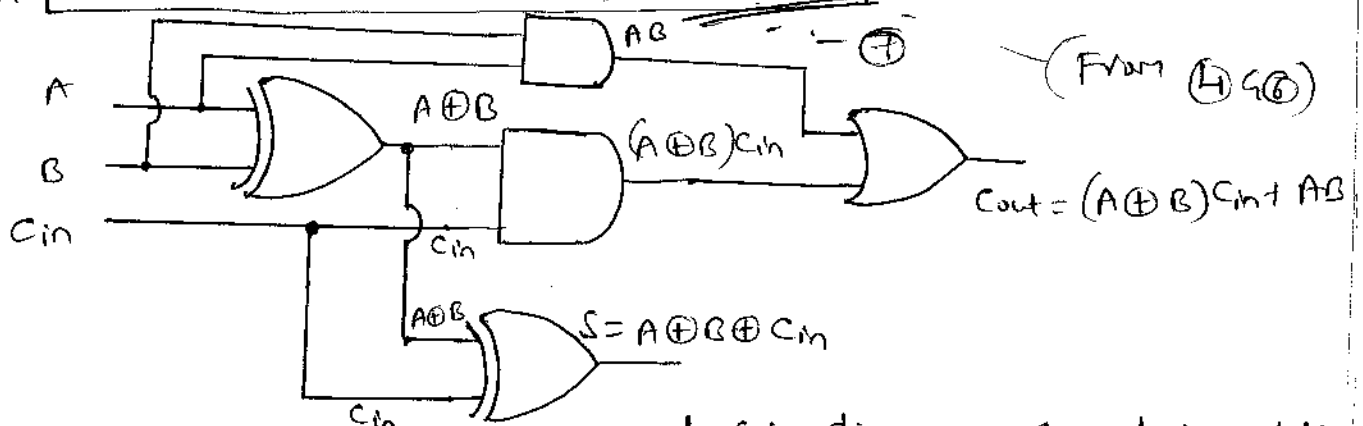
Sum, $S = S_1 \oplus C_1 = A \oplus B \oplus C_1$ — (5) [Same as (1)]

Carry, $C_2 = S_1 C_1 = (A \oplus B) C_1$ — (6)

(From (3) & (4))

OR gate output

Carry out $C_{out} = C_2 + C_1 = (A \oplus B) C_1 + AB$ [Same as (2)]



Logic diagram of a full adder

* Properties of logic gates & Characteristics

- ① Noise Margin
- ② Fan-in
- ③ Fan-out
- ④ propagation delay
- ⑤ power dissipation.

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhar@gmail.com
9844231315
9742174174

① For each element x in a Boolean algebra

- Ⓐ $x + 1 = 1$
- Ⓑ $x \cdot 0 = 0$

sol: Ⓐ

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LHS} &= x + 1 \\
 &= 1 \cdot (x + 1) \\
 &= (x + \bar{x}) (x + 1) \\
 &= x + (\bar{x} \cdot 1) \\
 &= x + \bar{x} \\
 &= 1 \\
 &= \text{RHS}
 \end{aligned}$$

Ⓑ

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LHS} &= x \cdot 0 \\
 &= 0 + (x \cdot 0) \\
 &= (x \cdot \bar{x}) + (x \cdot 0) \\
 &= x \cdot (\bar{x} + 0) \\
 &= x \cdot \bar{x} \\
 &= 0 \\
 &= \text{RHS}
 \end{aligned}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

② For each element x in a Boolean algebra

- Ⓐ $x + x = x$
- Ⓑ $x x = x$
- Ⓒ $\overline{\overline{x}} = x$

sol:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Ⓐ LHS} &= x + x \\
 &= (x + x) \cdot 1 \\
 &= (x + x) \cdot (x + \bar{x}) \\
 &= x + x \bar{x} \\
 &= x + 0 \\
 &= x \\
 &= \text{RHS}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Ⓑ LHS} &= x x \\
 &= x x + 0 \\
 &= x x + (x \cdot \bar{x}) \\
 &= x \cdot (x + \bar{x}) \\
 &= x \cdot 1 \\
 &= x \\
 &= \text{RHS}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Ⓒ LHS} &= \overline{\overline{x}} \\
 &= \overline{x} + 0 \\
 &= \overline{x} + x \bar{x} \\
 &= [\overline{x} + x] [\overline{x} + \bar{x}] \\
 &= (x + \overline{x}) (\bar{x} + \overline{\overline{x}}) \\
 &= (x + \overline{x}) \cdot 1 \\
 &= x + \overline{x} \\
 &= (x + \overline{x}) (x + \overline{x}) \\
 &= x + \overline{x} \cdot \overline{x} \\
 &= x + 0 \\
 &= x \\
 &= \text{RHS}
 \end{aligned}$$

3) For each pair of elements x and y in a Boolean algebra, (a) $x + xy = x$ (b) $x(x+y) = x$

sol:

(a) $x + xy = x \cdot 1 + xy$	(b) LHS = $x(x+y)$
$= x(1+y)$	$= x \cdot x + x \cdot y$
$= x \cdot 1$	$= x + xy$
$= x$	$= x(1+y)$
<u>$= RHS$</u>	$= x \cdot 1$
	$= x$
	<u>$= RHS$</u>

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

4) For each pair of elements x and y in a Boolean algebra

(a) $x + \bar{x}y = x + y$ (b) $x(\bar{x} + y) = xy$

sol: (a)

LHS = $x + \bar{x}y$	(b) LHS = $x(\bar{x} + y)$
$= (x + \bar{x})(x + y)$	$= x \cdot \bar{x} + xy$
$= 1 \cdot (x + y)$	$= 0 + xy$
$= x + y$	$= xy$
<u>$= RHS$</u>	$= RHS$

5) For every x, y, z in a Boolean algebra

(a) $x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$ (b) $x(yz) = (xy)z$

sol: (a)

Let $A = x + (y + z)$ & $B = (x + y) + z$.

Now $x A = x A$	& $x B = x B$
$= x [x + (y + z)]$	$= x [(x + y) + z]$
$= x$	$= x(x + y) + xz$
	$= x + xz$
	$= x$

∴ xA = xB = x — (*)

Now $\bar{x}A = \bar{x}A$

$$= \bar{x}[x+(y+z)]$$

$$= \bar{x}x + \bar{x}(y+z)$$

$$= x\bar{x} + \bar{x}(y+z)$$

$$= 0 + \bar{x}(y+z)$$

$$= \bar{x}(y+z)$$

$\bar{x}B = \bar{x}B$

$$= \bar{x}[(x+y)+z]$$

$$= \bar{x}(x+y) + \bar{x}z$$

$$= (\bar{x}x + \bar{x}y) + \bar{x}z$$

$$= (x\bar{x} + \bar{x}y) + \bar{x}z$$

$$= (0 + \bar{x}y) + \bar{x}z$$

$$= \bar{x}y + \bar{x}z$$

$$= \bar{x}(y+z)$$

∴ $\bar{x}A = \bar{x}B = \bar{x}(y+z)$ — (1)

Now, $xA + \bar{x}A = xA + \bar{x}A$

$xA + \bar{x}A = xB + \bar{x}B$ [Using (*)] (1)

$Ax + A\bar{x} = Bx + B\bar{x}$

$A(x + \bar{x}) = B(x + \bar{x})$

$A \cdot 1 = B \cdot 1$

$A = B$

⇒ $x + (y+z) = (x+y) + z$ //

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

6 For each pair of elements x and y in a Boolean Algebra

(a) $\overline{x+y} = \bar{x}\bar{y}$ (b) $\overline{x\bar{y}} = \bar{x} + y$

Prf: Let For every x in a Boolean algebra there is a unique \bar{x} such that $x + \bar{x} = 1$ and $x\bar{x} = 0$

(a) It is sufficient to s.t $\bar{x}\bar{y}$ is the complement of $x+y$. i.e. $(x+y) + (\bar{x}\bar{y}) = 1$ & $(x+y)(\bar{x}\bar{y}) = 0$

Now $(x+y) + (\bar{x}\bar{y}) = [(x+y) + \bar{x}][x + \bar{y}]$

$$= [(y+x) + \bar{x}] [(x+y) + \bar{y}]$$

$$= [y + (x + \bar{x})] [x + (y + \bar{y})]$$

$$= (y+1)(x+1)$$

$$= 1 \cdot 1$$

$$= 1$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Also, $(x+y)(\bar{x}\bar{y}) = (\bar{x}\bar{y})(x+y)$

$$= (\bar{x}\bar{y})x + (\bar{x}\bar{y})y$$

$$= (\bar{y}\bar{x})x + (\bar{x}\bar{y})y$$

$$= \bar{y}(x\bar{x}) + \bar{x}(y\bar{y})$$

$$= \bar{y} \cdot 0 + \bar{x} \cdot 0$$

$$= 0 + 0$$

$$= 0$$

⑤

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

7) Apply DeMorgan's theorems to each expression.

Ⓐ $\overline{\overline{A+B} + \overline{C}}$ Ⓑ $\overline{\overline{A+B} + \overline{CD}}$ Ⓒ $\overline{(A+B)\overline{C}\overline{D} + E + \overline{F}}$

sol:

Ⓐ $\overline{\overline{A+B} + \overline{C}} = \overline{\overline{A+B}} \cdot \overline{\overline{C}} = (A+B)C //$

Ⓑ $\overline{\overline{A+B} + \overline{CD}} = \overline{\overline{A+B}} \cdot \overline{\overline{CD}} = (\overline{A+B})CD //$

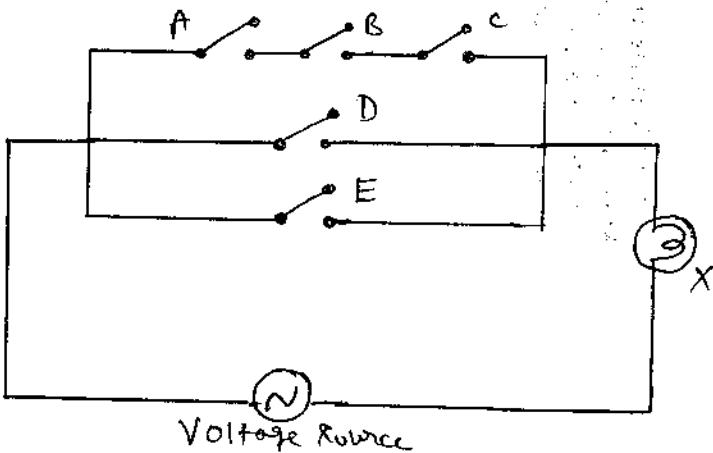
Ⓒ $\overline{(A+B)\overline{C}\overline{D} + E + \overline{F}} = \overline{(A+B)\overline{C}\overline{D}} \cdot \overline{E} \cdot \overline{\overline{F}}$
 $= \overline{[(A+B) + \overline{C} + \overline{D}]} \overline{E} \overline{\overline{F}}$
 $= \overline{(\overline{A}\overline{B} + C + D)} \overline{E} \overline{\overline{F}}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

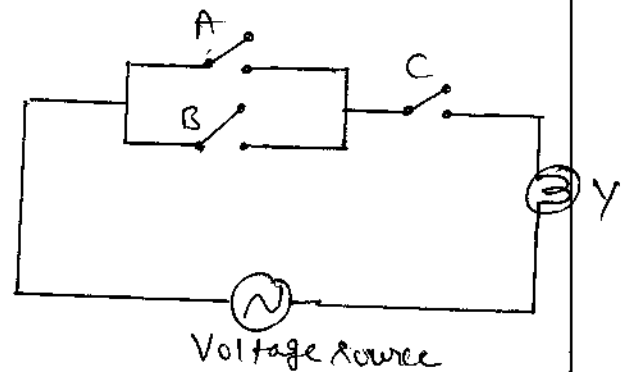
8) Write a switching circuit for the following Boolean expressions Ⓐ $X = ABC + D + E$ Ⓑ $Y = (A+B)C$

sol:

Ⓐ $X = ABC + D + E$



Ⓑ $Y = (A+B)C$



9) Find the complement of the following Boolean functions

Ⓐ $X = A(B+C)$ Ⓑ $(A+B)(C+D)$

sol: Ⓐ $\overline{X} = \overline{A(B+C)}$ Ⓑ Let $Y = (A+B)(C+D)$

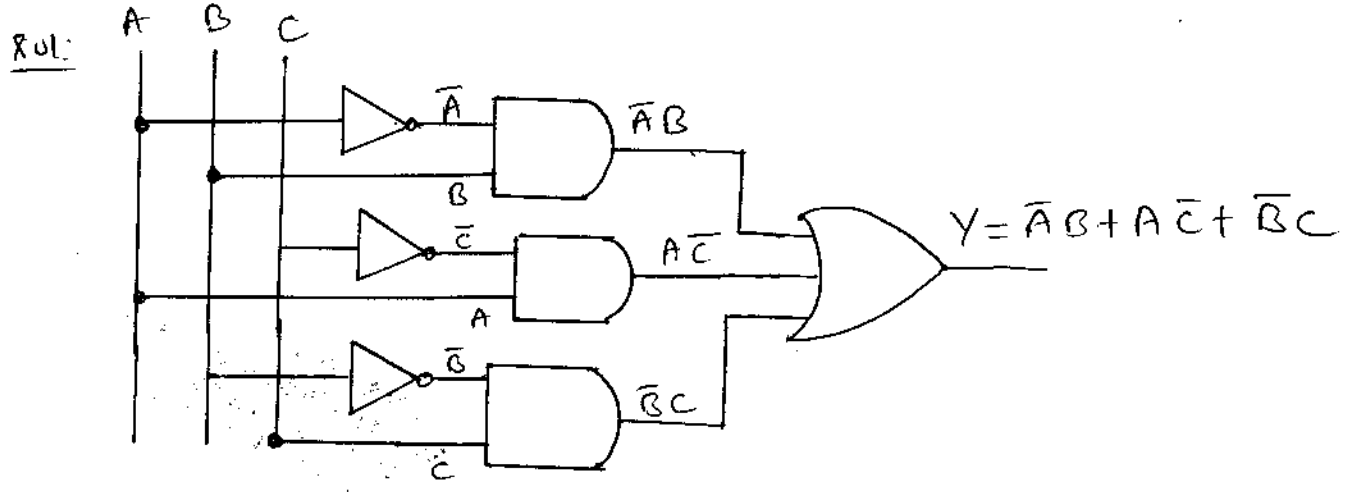
$\Rightarrow \overline{X} = \overline{A} + \overline{B+C}$ $\Rightarrow \overline{Y} = \overline{(A+B)(C+D)}$

$= \overline{A} + \overline{B} \cdot \overline{C}$

$\overline{Y} = \overline{A+B} + \overline{C+D}$

$= \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} + \overline{C} \cdot \overline{D}$

10) Realize the Boolean expression $Y = \bar{A}B + A\bar{C} + \bar{B}C$



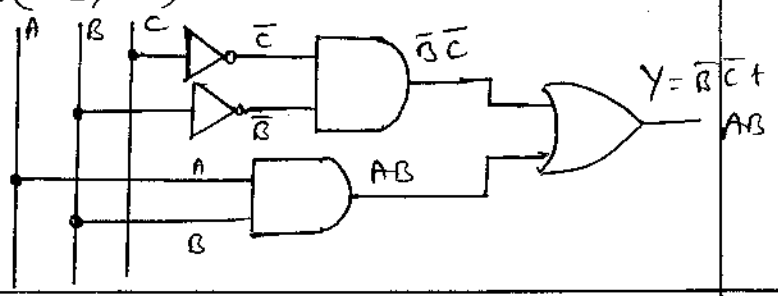
11) Implement the function using the truth table shown below, using minimum number of gates.

Inputs			Output
A	B	C	Y
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Sol: From the truth table, the output Y is 1 when
 $A = 0, B = 0, C = 0$, $A = 1, B = 0, C = 0$, $A = B = 1, C = 0$ &
 $A = B = C = 1$

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y &= \bar{A}\bar{B}\bar{C} + A\bar{B}\bar{C} + AB\bar{C} + ABC \\
 &= (\bar{A} + A)\bar{B}\bar{C} + AB(\bar{C} + C) \\
 &= \underline{\underline{\bar{B}\bar{C} + AB}}
 \end{aligned}$$



2) Show that the bubbled AND gate is same as NOR gate:

Sol:

Bubbled AND is shown in fig 1

NOR gate is shown in fig 2

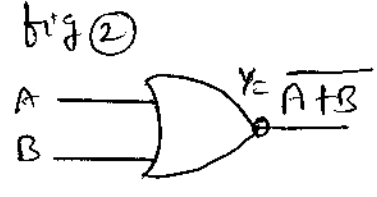
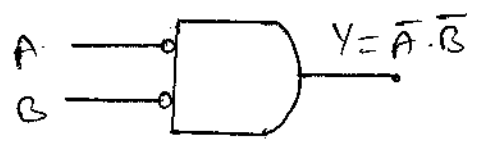


Fig 1

Output $Y = \overline{A \cdot B}$ - ①

Output

$Y = \overline{A + B}$
 $Y = \overline{A \cdot B}$ - ②

SHASHIDHAR T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E.R.C
 974217474, 9844231315
 shashidhar@gmail.com

From ① & ②, we can conclude that the bubbled AND gate is same as NOR gate

(∵ From De Morgan's Law $\overline{A + B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$)

3) Write the Dual of following expressions

- ① $A + 1 = 1$ ② $A \cdot 1 = A$ ③ $A + BC = (A + B) + (A + C)$

Sol:

① Given $A + 1 = 1$

② Given $A \cdot 1 = A$

③ Given

Dual of $A + 1 = 1$ is

Dual of $A \cdot 1 = A$ is

$A + BC = (A + B) + (A + C)$

Dual of $A + BC = (A + B) + (A + C)$ is

$A \cdot 0 = 0$

$A + 0 = A$

$A(B + C) = (A + B)(A + C)$

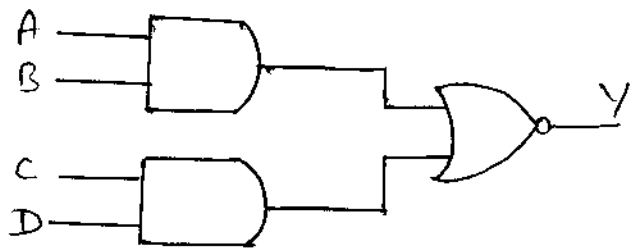
Hint: ① Replace AND to OR & OR to AND
 (• to +) (+ to •)

② Replace 1 to 0 & 0 to 1

4) Draw ~~write~~ AND-OR-Invert (AOI) circuit & write the output expression

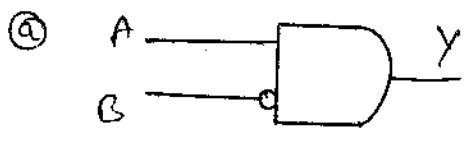
Sol:

$Y = \overline{AB + CD}$



15) EXPLAIN inhibit & enable operation for
 a) Two input AND gate b) Two input AND gate with strobe

Rule:



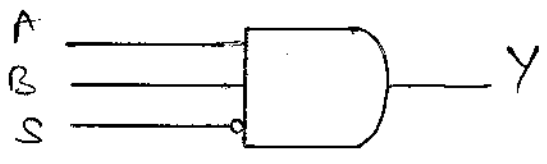
Output is,

$$Y = A \cdot B$$

If $B = 0$, $Y = 0$ (Enable)
 & $A = 1$

If $S = 1$, $Y = 0$, (Inhibit)

b)

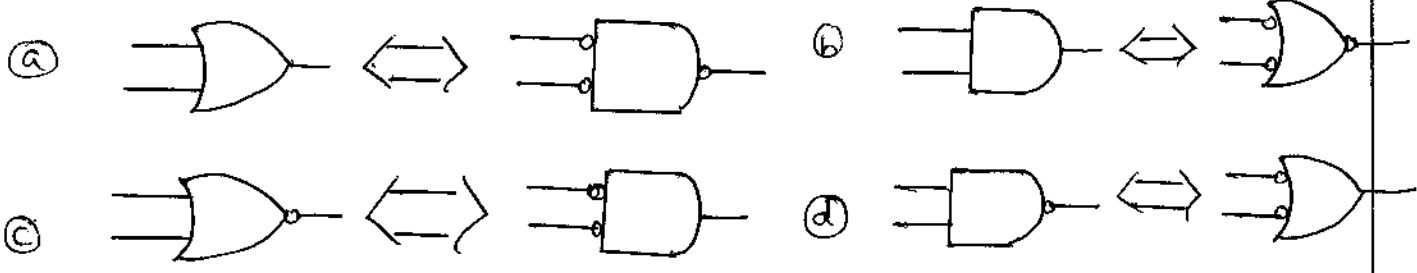


$$\text{Output, } Y = AB\bar{S}$$

If $A = 1, B = 1, S = 0$, then $Y = 1$,
 then gate is enabled

If $A = 1 @ 0, B = 1 @ 0, S = 1$,
 the output $Y = 0$, then the gate
 is inhibited

16) Prove the following equalities.



Rule: Let A, B be inputs, Y be output

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

a) $Y = A + B = \overline{\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}} = \overline{\overline{A} + \overline{B}} = A + B$

b) $Y = AB = \overline{\overline{A} + \overline{B}} = \overline{\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}} = AB$

c) $Y = \overline{A + B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$

d) $Y = \overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$

DeMorgan's theorem
 $\overline{A + B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$
 $\overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$

17) SIMPLIFY the following

a) $XY + X'Z + YZ$ c) $(A+B)(A+C+D)(A+\bar{C}+D)(B+\bar{C})$

b) $\overline{A(B+\bar{C})}(A+\bar{B}+C)(\overline{A\bar{B}C})$ d) $(B+\bar{C})(\bar{B}+C)(\overline{A+B+\bar{C}})$

Sol:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{a} \text{ Let } A &= XY + X'Z + YZ \quad (\text{Here } X' = \bar{X}) \\
 &= XY + X'Z + YZ(X + X') \quad (\because X + X' = 1) \\
 &= \underline{XY} + X'Z + \underline{XYZ} + X'YZ \\
 &= XY(1 + \overset{1}{Z}) + X'Z(1 + \overset{1}{Y}) \\
 &= XY + X'Z
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{b} \text{ Let } X &= \overline{A(B + \bar{C})} \cdot (A + \bar{B} + C) \cdot \overline{(\bar{A} \bar{B} \cdot \bar{C})} \\
 &= (\bar{A}) + (\overline{B + \bar{C}}) (A + \bar{B} + C) (\bar{A} + \bar{B} + \bar{C}) \\
 &= (A + \bar{B} \cdot \bar{C}) (A + \bar{B} + C) (A + B + C) \\
 &= (A + \bar{B}C) (A + \bar{B} + C) (A + B + C) \\
 &= (AA + A\bar{B} + AC + A\bar{B}C + \bar{B}\bar{B}C + \bar{B}CC) (A + B + C) \\
 &= (A + A\bar{B} + AC + A\bar{B}C + \bar{B}C + \bar{B}C) (A + B + C) \\
 &= (A(1 + \bar{B} + \overset{1}{C} + \bar{B}C) + \bar{B}C) (A + B + C) \\
 &= (A + \bar{B}C) (A + B + C) \\
 &= AA + AB + AC + A\bar{B}C + \overset{10}{B}\bar{B}C + \bar{B}CC \\
 &= A + AB + AC + A\bar{B}C + \bar{B}C \\
 &= A(1 + B + \overset{1}{C} + \bar{B}C) + \bar{B}C \\
 &= \underline{A + \bar{B}C}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{c} \text{ Let } Y &= (A + B)(A + C + \bar{D})(A + \bar{C} + D)(B + \bar{C}) \\
 &= (AA + AC + A\bar{D} + AB + BC + B\bar{D}) \quad [AA = A] \\
 &\quad (AB + A\bar{C} + B\bar{C} + \bar{C}\bar{C} + BD + \bar{C}D) \quad [\bar{C}\bar{C} = \bar{C}] \\
 &= (A + AC + A\bar{D} + AB + BC + B\bar{D})(AB + A\bar{C} + B\bar{C} + \bar{C} \\
 &\quad + BD + \bar{C}D)
 \end{aligned}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 984231315
 9742174174

$$\begin{aligned}
&= [A(1 + \overline{C} + \overline{D} + B) + BC + B\overline{D}] [AB + \overline{C}(A + B + 1 + D) + BD] \\
&= [A + BC + B\overline{D}] [AB + \overline{C} + BD] \\
&= AAB + A\overline{C} + ABD + ABBC + B\overline{C} + B\overline{C}D + B\overline{C}D + \\
&\quad ABB\overline{D} + B\overline{C}\overline{D} + B\overline{C}B\overline{D} \\
&= \overline{A}B + A\overline{C} + \overline{A}BD + \overline{A}BC + BCD + \overline{A}B\overline{D} + B\overline{C}\overline{D} \\
&= [AB(1 + D + \overline{C} + \overline{D}) + A\overline{C} + BCD + B\overline{C}\overline{D}] \\
&= AB + A\overline{C} + BCD + B\overline{C}\overline{D} \\
&= A(B + \overline{C}) + B(CD + \overline{C}\overline{D})
\end{aligned}$$

Q Let

$$\begin{aligned}
Y &= (B + \overline{C})(\overline{B} + C)(\overline{A} + B + \overline{C}) \\
&= (\overline{B}\overline{B} + B\overline{C} + \overline{B}C + \overline{C}\overline{C})(\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B} \cdot \overline{C}) \\
&= (\overline{B}C + \overline{B}\overline{C})(\overline{A}\overline{B}\overline{C}) \\
&= \overline{A}\overline{B}\overline{C}\overline{C} + \overline{A}\overline{B}\overline{B}C \\
&= 0 \\
&= 1
\end{aligned}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Q7 } Y &= (B + \overline{C})(\overline{B} + C)(\overline{A} + B + \overline{C}) \\
&= (\overline{B} + \overline{C}) + (\overline{B} + C) + (\overline{A} + B + \overline{C}) \\
&= (\overline{B} \cdot C) + (B \cdot \overline{C}) + (\overline{A} + B + \overline{C}) \\
&= \overline{B}C + B\overline{C} + \overline{A} + B + \overline{C} \\
&= \overline{B}C + B(\overline{C} + 1) + \overline{A} + \overline{C} \\
&= \overline{B}C + B + \overline{A} + \overline{C} \\
&= B + C + \overline{A} + \overline{C} = B + \overline{A} + 1 \\
&= B + \overline{A} + 1
\end{aligned}$$

MODULE-4 : FLIP - FLOP

1

Syllabus: Introduction to Flip-Flop, NAND Gate Latch, NOR Gate Latch, RS Flip-Flop, Gated Flip-Flop; Clocked RS Flip-Flop.

* Introduction:

Latch: Latch is a bistable element, whose output changes when its input changes.

Flip-Flop: Flip-Flop is a bistable element, whose output changes only either at the rising or falling edge of the enable signal (clock signal)

SHASHIDHAR T M

Assistant Professor in ECE dept,

Shashilara@gmail.com

9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

① Comparison of Latch & Flip-Flop:

Latch

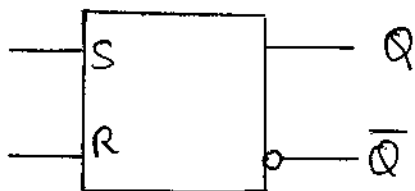
① Latch is a bistable element, whose output changes when its input changes

(Sometime clock signal may be present)

② It doesnot require any external timing signal (Asynchronous device)

③ Output changes when its input changes

④ Symbol of Latch is shown in fig ①



Active-high input S-R Latch (Fig ①)

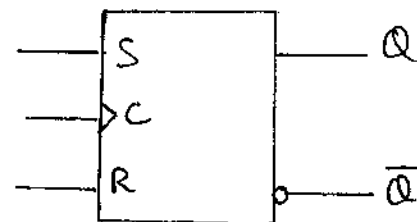
Flip-Flop (Bistable Multivibrator)

① Flip-Flop is a bistable element, whose output changes only either at the rising or falling edge of the enable signal (Clock signal)

② It require special timing signal called the clock (Synchronous device)

③ Its content (Output) remains constant even if the input changes

④ Symbol of Flip-Flop is shown in fig ②



Positive edge triggered SR FF (Fig ②)

⑤ The input lines are continuously being interrogated

⑤ Inputs are normally sampled & not interrogated continuously.

⑥ It is the basic element for storing information (can store one bit of information)

⑥ It is the basic element for storing information (can store one bit of information)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept,
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

② IEEE Logic Symbols & Traditional Logic-gate Symbols

Logic function	Traditional Logic Symbol	IEEE Logic Symbol
AND		
OR		
NOT		
NAND		
NOR		
XOR		
XNOR		

③ Two categories of Flip-Flops:

Table ③

① Edge-Triggered Flip-Flops

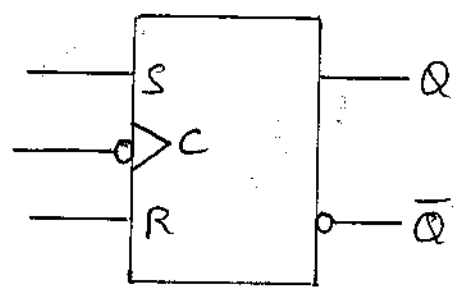
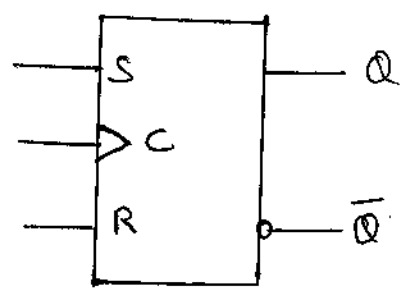
The term edge-triggered means that the flip-flop changes state either at the positive edge (rising edge)

Ⓐ at the negative edge (falling edge) of the clock pulse a is sensitive to its inputs only at this transition of the clock.

Three basic types of edge-triggered flip-flops:

- Ⓘ S-R
- ⓷ D
- ⓸ J-K

The logic symbol is shown in fig ④



Ⓐ Positive edge-triggered

Ⓑ Negative edge-triggered

Fig ④: Edge-triggered flip-flop

Ⓑ Pulse-Triggered (Master-Slave) Flip-Flop

The term pulse-triggered means that data are entered into the flip-flop on the leading edge of the clock pulse, but the output does not reflect the input state until the trailing edge of the clock pulse. The inputs must be setup prior to the clock pulse's leading edge, but the output is postponed until the trailing edge of the clock.

Three basic types of pulse-triggered flip-flops:

- Ⓘ S-R
- ⓷ D
- ⓸ J-K

The logic symbol is shown in fig ⑤

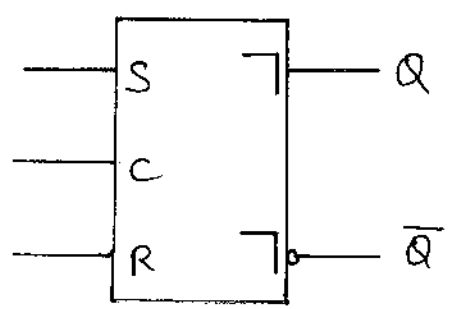


Fig ⑤: Pulse-triggered (master-slave) flip-flop

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* SR Latch @ RS Latch

The simplest type of Latch is SR Latch, It has 2 inputs, namely SET (S) & RESET (R), and 2 outputs Q and \bar{Q} .

The SR Latch can be implemented using NAND gates @ NOR gates

(a) NAND Gate Latch @ SR Latch using NAND gates @

RS Latch using NAND gates:

The NAND gate based SR Latch is shown in fig 6(a). It consists of cross connected NAND gates.

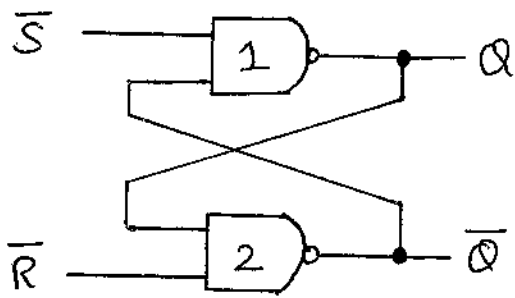


Fig 6(a) : circuit diagram

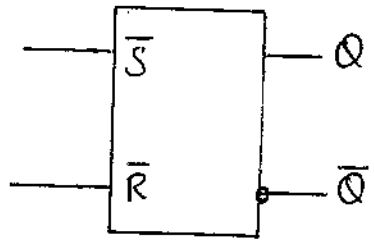


Fig 6(b)

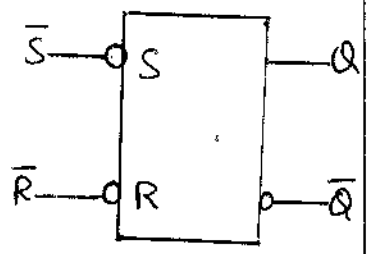


Fig 6(c)

The logic symbol of SR Latch is shown in fig 6(b). The IEEE symbol of SR Latch is shown in fig 6(c).

Operation:

Case 1: $\bar{S} = 1, \bar{R} = 1$

(a) Let $Q = 1 (\bar{Q} = 0)$: The inputs to the gate 1 are $\bar{S} = 1$ & $\bar{Q} = 0$, so its output is $Q = 1$ (No change).
 The inputs to the gate 2 are $\bar{R} = 1$ & $Q = 1$, so its output is $\bar{Q} = 0$ (No change).

(b) Let $Q = 0 (\bar{Q} = 1)$: The inputs to the gate 1 are $\bar{S} = 1$ & $\bar{Q} = 1$, so its output is $Q = 0$ (No change).
 The inputs to the gate 2 are $\bar{R} = 1$ & $Q = 0$; so its

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Output is $\bar{Q} = 1$ (No change)

∴ When $\bar{R} = 1, \bar{S} = 1$, the output remains in the previous state (Last state) ⊙ Output doesn't change.

Case 2: $\bar{S} = 0, \bar{R} = 1$

⊙ Let $Q = 1 (\bar{Q} = 0)$: The inputs to the gate 1 are $\bar{S} = 0$ & $\bar{Q} = 0$, so its output is $Q = 1$.

The input to gate 1 is $\bar{S} = 0$, so its output is $Q = 1$. Now inputs to the gate-2 are $\bar{R} = 1$ & $Q = 1$, so its output is $\bar{Q} = 0$.

The inputs to the gate 2 are $\bar{R} = 1$ & $Q = 1$, so its output is $\bar{Q} = 0$.

⊙ Let $Q = 0 (\bar{Q} = 1)$: The inputs to the

gate 1 are $\bar{S} = 0$ & $\bar{Q} = 1$, so its output is $Q = 1$.

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

The inputs to the gate 2 are $\bar{R} = 1$ & $Q = 1$, so its output is $\bar{Q} = 0$

∴ When $\bar{S} = 0, \bar{R} = 1$, the output is Set ($Q = 1$)

Case 3: $\bar{S} = 1, \bar{R} = 0$

The input to gate 2 is $\bar{R} = 0$, so its output is $\bar{Q} = 1$. Now inputs to the gate-1 are $\bar{S} = 1$ & $\bar{Q} = 1$, so its output is $Q = 0$.

∴ When $\bar{S} = 1, \bar{R} = 0$, the output is Reset ($Q = 0$)

Case 4: $\bar{S} = 0, \bar{R} = 0$

When $\bar{S} = 0, \bar{R} = 0$, both the outputs Q & \bar{Q} try to become 1, which is not possible.

The condition $\bar{S} = \bar{R} = 0$ is avoided because it results in an invalid mode of operation (Forbidden state) [Major drawback]

of any SET-RESET type of Latch]

The truth table of NAND gate Latch is shown in fig 6(a)

INPUTS		OUTPUTS		Comments
\bar{S}	\bar{R}	Q	\bar{Q}	
1	1	NC	NC	No change. Latch remains in previous state
0	1	1	0	Latch SETS
1	0	0	1	Latch RESETS
0	0	1	1	Invalid condition

Fig 6(a)

6 NOR Gate Latch @ SR Latch using NOR gates @ RS

Latch using NOR gates:

The NOR gate based SR Latch is shown in fig 7(a)

It consists of cross connected NOR gates.

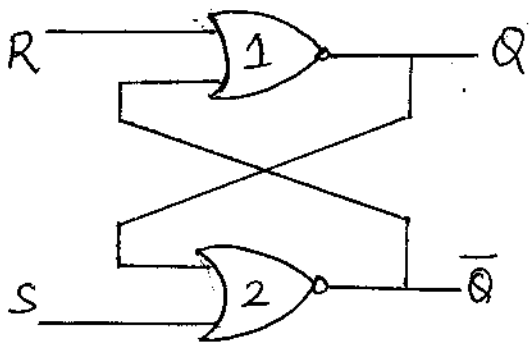


Fig 7(a): circuit diagram

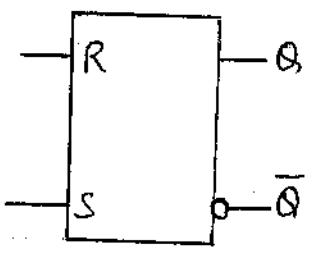


Fig 7(b)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

The logic symbol of SR Latch is shown in fig 7(b)

Operation:

Case 1: R=0, S=0

Let $Q=1$ ($\bar{Q}=0$): The inputs to the gate 1 are $R=0$

& $\bar{Q}=0$, So its output is $Q=1$ (No change)

The inputs to the gate 2 are $S=0$ & $Q=1$, So its output

if $\bar{Q}=0$ (No Change)

⑥ Let $Q=0$ ($\bar{Q}=1$): The inputs to the gate 1 are $R=0$ & $\bar{Q}=1$, So its output is $Q=0$ (No Change)

The inputs to the gate 2 are $S=0$ & $Q=0$, So its output is $\bar{Q}=1$ (No Change)

\therefore When $R=S=0$, the output remains in the previous state.

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Case 2: $R=0, S=1$

The input to gate 2 is $S=1$, So its output is $\bar{Q}=0$.
Now inputs to gate 1 are $R=0$ & $\bar{Q}=0$, So its output is $Q=1$.

\therefore When $R=0, S=1$, the output is Set ($Q=1$)

Case 3: $R=1, S=0$

The input to gate 1 is $R=1$, So its output is $Q=0$.
Now inputs to gate 2 are $S=0$ & $Q=0$, So its output is $\bar{Q}=1$.

\therefore When $R=1, S=0$, the output is Reset ($Q=0$)

Case 4: $R=1, S=1$

When $R=S=1$, both the outputs Q & \bar{Q} try to become 0, which is not possible.

The condition $R=S=1$, is avoided because it results in an invalid mode of operation (Forbidden State).

The truth table of NOR gate Latch is shown in fig 70

Inputs		Outputs		Comments
R	S	Q	\bar{Q}	
0	0	NC	NC	No change. Latch remains in previous state
0	1	1	0	Latch SETS
1	0	0	1	Latch RESETS
1	1	0	0	Invalid condition

Fig 7 ©

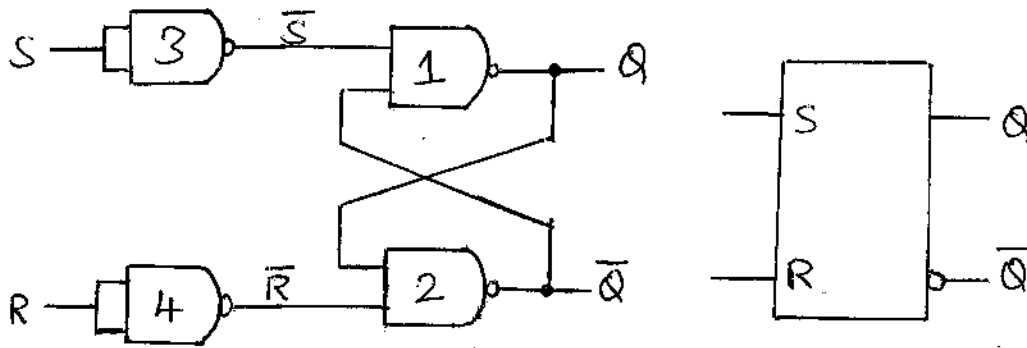
SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Note:

- ① The outputs Q/\bar{Q} can also be denoted by X/\bar{X} or A/\bar{A}
- ② Q is normal FF output, \bar{Q} is inverted FF output.
- ③ $Q=1, \bar{Q}=0 \rightarrow$ SET State @ 1 State @ High State
- ④ $Q=0, \bar{Q}=1 \rightarrow$ LOW State @ 0 State @ CLEAR @ RESET State
- ⑤ In NAND gate SR Latch, instead of \bar{S} & \bar{R} (inputs), S & R can be used. Similarly in NOR gate SR Latch, instead of S & R, \bar{S} & \bar{R} can be used.
- ⑥ Sometimes NAND gate based SR Latch is called as \bar{S} \bar{R} Latch (because inputs are \bar{S} & \bar{R})
- ⑦ RS Flip-Flop or RS Flip-flop Latch or NAND Gate SR Latch

Fig 8 shows RS Flip-Flop (alternative way of NAND Gate SR Latch implementation)

Explanation is same as NAND Gate SR Latch (Page 4)
 Case 1: $\bar{S}=1, \bar{R}=1 \Rightarrow S=0, R=0$



① Circuit diagram of RS flip-flop latch

② Logic Symbol

Inputs		Outputs		Comments
S	R	Q	\bar{Q}	
0	0	NC	NC	Last State (No change) Previous State
1	0	1	0	SET
0	1	0	1	RESET
1	1	1	1	Invalid condition (Forbidden)

③ Truth table

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig ⑧ : RS-Flip-flop

Case 2: $\bar{S}=0, \bar{R}=1 \Rightarrow S=1, R=0$

Case 3: $\bar{S}=1, \bar{R}=0 \Rightarrow S=0, R=1$

Case 4: $\bar{S}=0, \bar{R}=0 \Rightarrow S=1, R=1$

Gates ③ & ④ can be replaced by NOT gate or NOR gate.



Gated Flip-flops (Clocked RS Flip-flops) (Enable RS FFA)

Clocked RS Flip-flop using NAND gates

The Clocked RS NAND gate flip-flop is shown in fig 9(a)

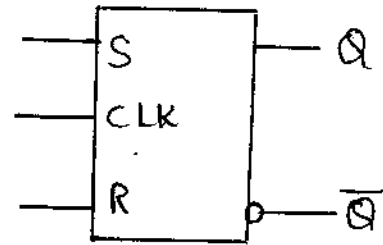
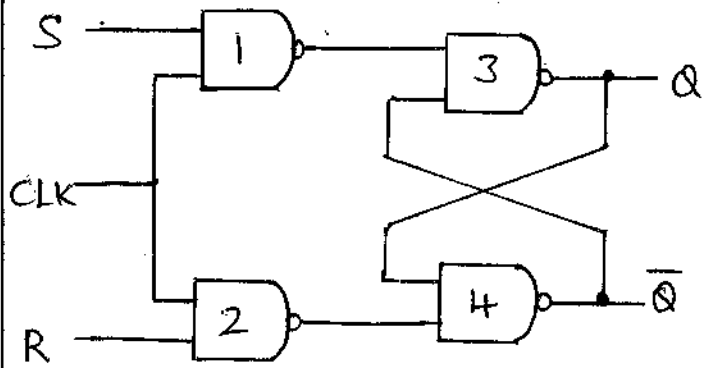


Fig 9(b): Logic Symbol

Fig 9(a): circuit diagram

The logic symbol of Clocked RS NAND gate flip-flop is shown in fig 9(b).

Operation:

• Clock is Low (CLK = 0):

When the clock is low, the output of gates 1 and 2 is high (1). Hence the output of gates 3 & 4 will not change regardless of S & R input values.

∴ When CLK = 0, S = x, R = x, the output remains in the previous state.

• Clock is high (CLK = 1):

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Case 1: S = 0, R = 0

When R = S = 0, the output remains in the previous state. (CLK = 1)

Case 2: S = 1, R = 0

When S = 1, R = 0 & CLK = 1, the output is Set (Q = 1)

Case 3: S = 0, R = 1

When S = 0, R = 1 & CLK = 1, the output is Reset (Q = 0)

Case 4: S = 1, R = 1

When S = R = CLK = 1, both the outputs Q & Q-bar try to

become 1, which is not possible (Invalid condition (Forbidden state))

The truth table of clocked RS NAND gate flip-flop is shown in fig 9@.

Inputs			Outputs		Comments
CLK	S	R	Q	\bar{Q}	
0	X	X	NC	NC	No change (previous state)
1	0	0	NC	NC	No change (previous state)
1	1	0	1	0	SET
1	0	1	0	1	RESET
1	1	1	1	1	Invalid

Fig 9@: Truth table of clocked RS NAND gate FF

Clocked RS Flip-flop using NOR gates

The clocked RS NOR gate flip-flop is shown in fig 10@

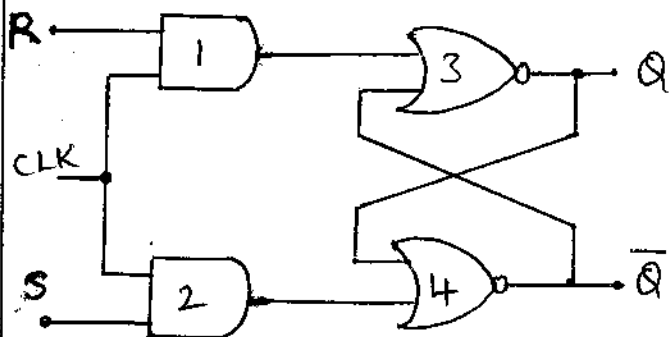


Fig 10@: circuit diagram

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

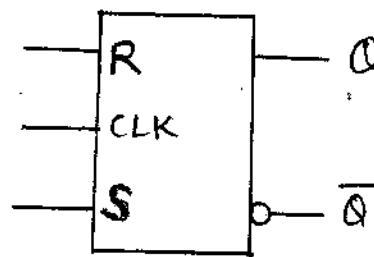


Fig 10@: Logic symbol

The logic symbol of clocked RS NOR gate flip-flop is shown in fig 10@.

Operation:

CLOCK is Low (CLK=0):

When the clock is low, the output of gates 1 and 2 is low(0). Hence the output of gates 3 & 4 will not change regardless of S & R input values.

∴ When CLK=0, S=X, R=X, the output remains in the previous state.

• Clock is high (CLK=1):

Case 1: R=0, S=0

When R=S=0 & CLK=1, the output remains in the previous state.

Case 2: R=0, S=1

When R=0, S=1 & CLK=1, the output is Set (Q=1)

Case 3: R=1, S=0

When R=1, S=0 & CLK=1, the output is Reset (Q=0)

Case 4: R=1, S=1

When R=S=CLK=1, both the outputs Q & Q̄ try to become 0, which is not possible (Invalid Condition @ Forbidden state)

The truth table of Clocked RS NOR gate flip-flop is shown in fig 10@

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

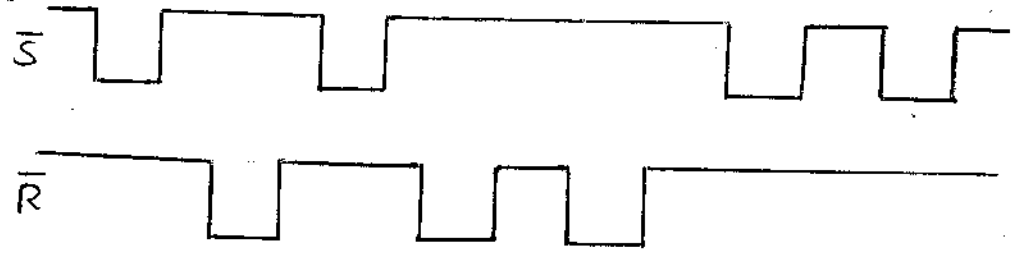
Inputs			Outputs		Comments
CLK	R	S	Q	Q̄	
0	X	X	NC	NC	No change (previous state)
1	0	0	NC	NC	No change (previous state)
1	0	1	1	0	SET
1	1	0	0	1	RESET
1	1	1	0	0	Invalid Condition

Fig 10@: Truth table of Clocked RS NOR Gate FF

Note: X → Don't care (1 @ 0)

Problem

1) If the \bar{S} & \bar{R} waveforms in fig 1(a) are applied to the inputs of the Latch



of fig 1(b),

determine the

waveform that would

be observed on the Q output. Assume

that Q is initially Low.

Fig 1(a)

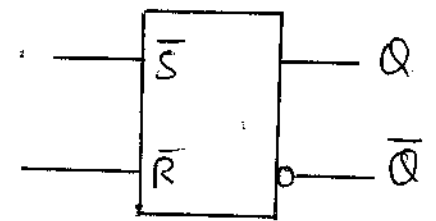
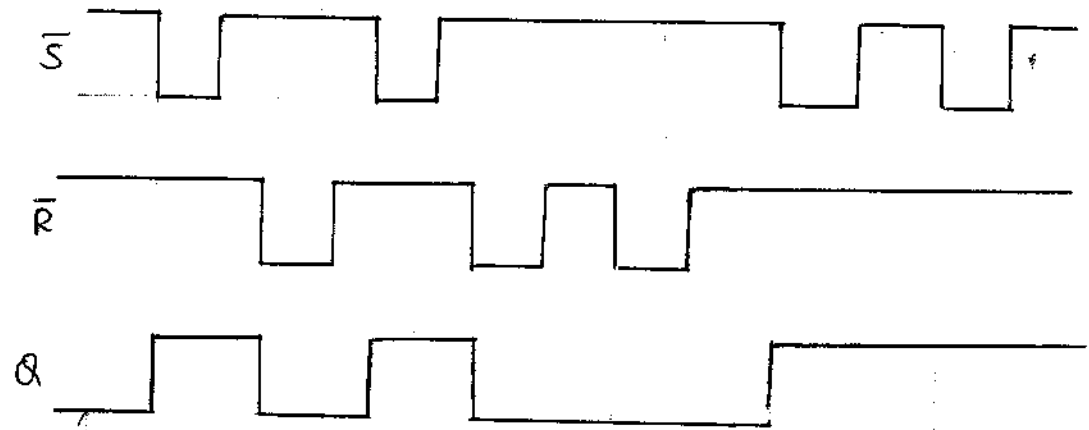


Fig 1(b)

Sol: We have truth table of SR Latch

Input		Output
\bar{S}	\bar{R}	Q
1	1	NC
0	1	1
1	0	0
0	0	1



Initially Low

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

2) Construct the TT for the circuit shown in fig 2

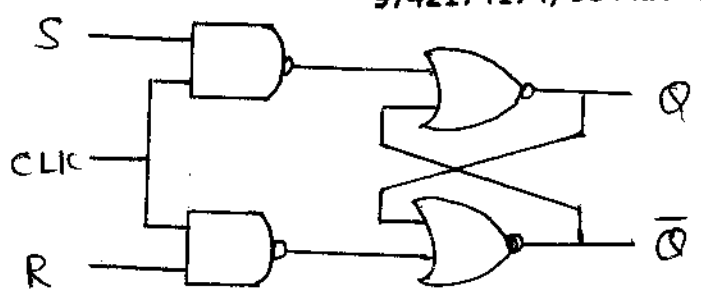


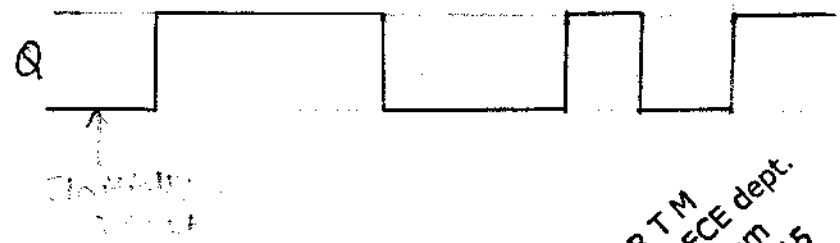
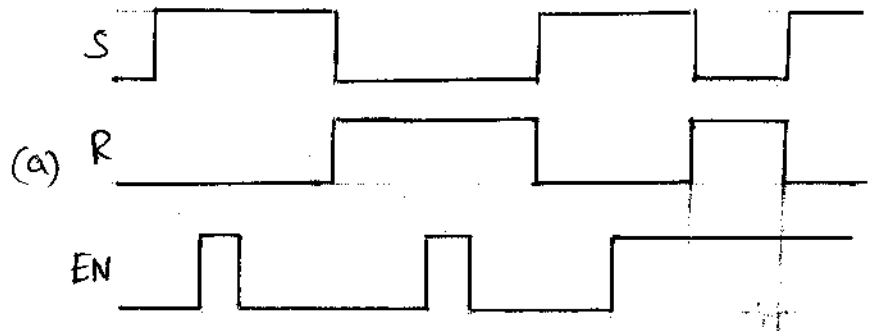
Fig 2

Sol: Input Output

CLK	S	R	Q	\bar{Q}
0	X	X	0	0
1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	NC	NC

} Invalid
→ Reset
→ Set
? Previous state

3) Determine the Q-output waveform if the inputs shown in fig 3(a) are applied to a gated S-R Latch that is initially RESET



Q:

Inputs			Output
CLK	S	R	Q
0	X	X	Q(NC)
1	0	0	Q(NC)
1	1	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	1	Invalid (Avoided)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Syllabus: Introduction to microcontroller, 8051 microcontroller, Architecture and an example of microcontroller based stepper motor control system (only Block diagram approach)

* Introduction:

- In 1981, Intel Corporation introduced an 8-bit microcontroller, called the 8051.
- Some of the companies producing a member of the 8051 family: Intel, Atmel, Philips/Signetics, Infineon, Dallas Semi/Maxim, Motorola etc
- A microcontroller has a CPU (a microprocessor) in addition to a fixed amount of RAM, ROM, I/O ports, & a timer all on a single chip.

②

The processor, RAM, ROM, I/O ports, & timer are all embedded together on a single chip is a microcontroller.

→ Advantages of microcontroller (MC)

- ① No need of any external memory, I/O & timer.
- ② Higher performance
- ③ Lower power consumption
- ④ Compact size

SHASHIDHART M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

→ Criteria for choosing a microcontroller

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① Speed ② Packaging ③ Power consumption ④ Cost/unit | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ⑤ Amount of RAM & ROM on chip ⑥ Number of I/O pins & the timer on the chip ⑦ Ease of upgrading to higher-performance. ⑧ Lower power consumption. |
|--|---|

→ Applications of microcontroller

Home appliances

Office

Others

- ① Intercom
- ② Telephone
- ③ Security System
- ④ Fax Machine
- ⑤ Computer
- ⑥ Camcorder
- ⑦ Remote Control
- ⑧ VCR
- ⑨ Video game
- ⑩ Camera
- ⑪ Paging
- ⑫ Sewing Machine
- ⑬ Musical Instruments
- ⑭ Cellular phone
- ⑮ Cable TV tuner
- ⑯ TVs
- ⑰ Washing machine

- ① Telephone
- ② Computer
- ③ Copier
- ④ Laser Printer
- ⑤ Color Printer
- ⑥ Network Server
- ⑦ Internet terminal
- ⑧ Mouse
- ⑨ CD-ROM driver
- ⑩ Elevator
- ⑪ Modem

- ① Engine control
- ② Air bag
- ③ Climate control
- ④ Keyless entry
- ⑤ Instrumentation
- ⑥ Car
- ⑦ Traffic signals
- ⑧ Aerospace
- ⑨ Diagnostic
- ⑩ Water level controller.

→ Features of 8051 microcontroller

- ① 8-bit CPU
- ② 128 bytes of RAM.
- ③ 4K bytes of on-chip ROM.
- ④ Two 16 bit timer/counter
- ⑤ One serial port
- ⑥ Four I/O ports (each 8-bit wide)

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

(8051 can have a maximum of 64K bytes of on-chip ROM)

(provides 32 I/O pins)

- ⑦ 8-bit Program Status Word (PSW)
- ⑧ 16-bit Program Counter (PC) and data pointer (DPTR)
- ⑨ 8-bit Stack Pointer (SP)
- ⑩ Two external & three internal interrupts
- ⑪ Four register banks, each containing 8 registers.
- ⑫ 8-bit data bus
- ⑬ 16-bit address bus.
- ⑭ Full duplex Serial data transmitter/receiver
- ⑮ Oscillator & clock circuits (operate at a clock frequency of 12MHz)

* Block diagram of 8051 microcontroller ①

Architecture of 8051 Microcontroller

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

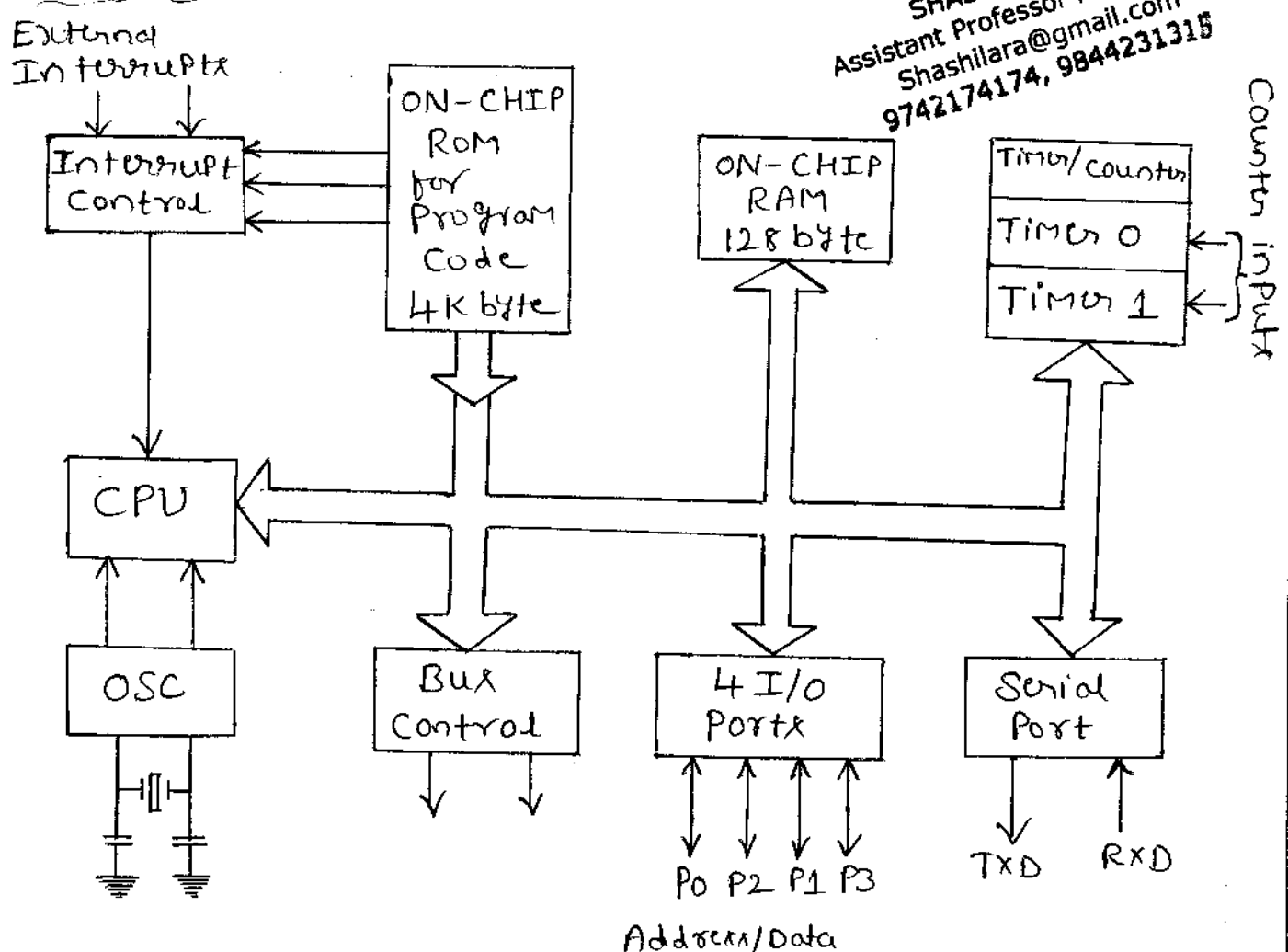


Fig ①: Block diagram of 8051 microcontroller

The block diagram of 8051 microcontroller is shown in fig 1.

8051 microcontroller consists of Registers, memory, I/O Ports, Interrupts, Timers/Counter, UART, Oscillator & clock circuits.

⊛ A register (Accumulator): It is an 8-bit register used for arithmetic & logical operations.

⊛ B register: It is an 8-bit register used for multiplication & division operations.

⊛ Internal memory: Internal memory of 8051 are
ⓐ 128 bytes RAM ⓑ 128 bytes of special function registers
ⓒ 4K bytes ROM.

⊛ External memory: External memory of 8051 are

- ⓐ ROM (64K bytes for Program)
- ⓑ RAM (64K bytes of data memory)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⊛ Stack: It is a section of internal RAM used to store information temporarily (data @ address)

⊛ Stack Pointer (SP): It is an 8-bit register used to access the stack

⊛ I/O Ports: There are four I/O ports each comprising 8 bits, namely P0, P1, P2 & P3

Three types of buses are used

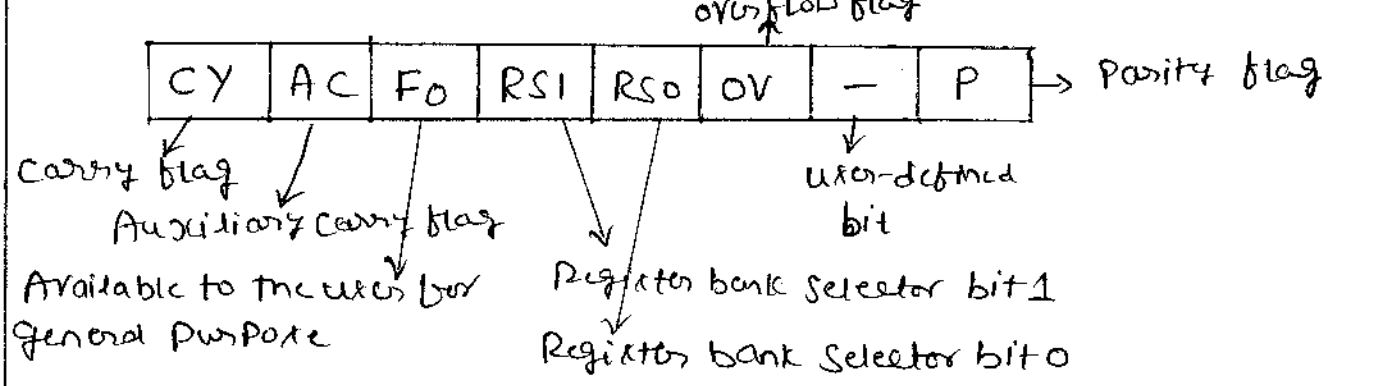
- ⓐ Address Bus (16-bit)
- ⓑ Data Bus (8 bit bi-directional)
- ⓒ Control Bus (consists of RD, WR, PSEN, ALE & EA)

⊛ DPTR (Data Pointer): It is a 16-bit register used to hold the address of external data memory @ Program memory. It consists of two 8-bit registers namely DPH (high byte) & DPL (Low byte)

⊛ Program Counter (PC): It is a 16-bit register which holds the address of the next instruction to be executed.

the address of the next instruction to be executed

- ⊛ Interrupts: There are 5th interrupts in the 8051.
- ⊛ TIMER/COUNTER: 8051 has two timer / counter :
TIMER0 & TIMER1 (16-bit)
- ⊛ Register bank: There are four register banks each consisting of 8-bit general purpose registers (R0-R7)
- ⊛ Flag register ⊛ Program Status Word (PSW) register:



⊛ UART (Universal Asynchronous Receiver & Transmitter): It is used for sending & receiving data bits serially.

⊛ Oscillator & clock circuit: Operates at a clock frequency of 12MHz.

* Microcontroller based Stepper motor control system

⊛ 8051 microcontroller connection to the Stepper motor:

The microcontroller based Stepper motor control system is shown in fig 2.

It consists of 8051 microcontroller, ULN2003 & a Stepper motor.

8051 microcontroller:

- 8051 MC is low power, high-performance, 8-bit processor.

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Resistors:

- If it is required, the external pull up resistors are connected to Pinx depending on the MicroController.

ULN 2003:

- It is a high Voltage & high current driving IC.

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Stepper motor:

- It is an electromechanical device which converts electrical pulses into Mechanical motion.
- This motor divides the complete rotation (360°) into a number of equal steps.
- Stepper motor consists of a rotor @ rotating shaft @ Motor shaft (usually a Permanent magnet) & a stator (fixed external winding @ Coil)

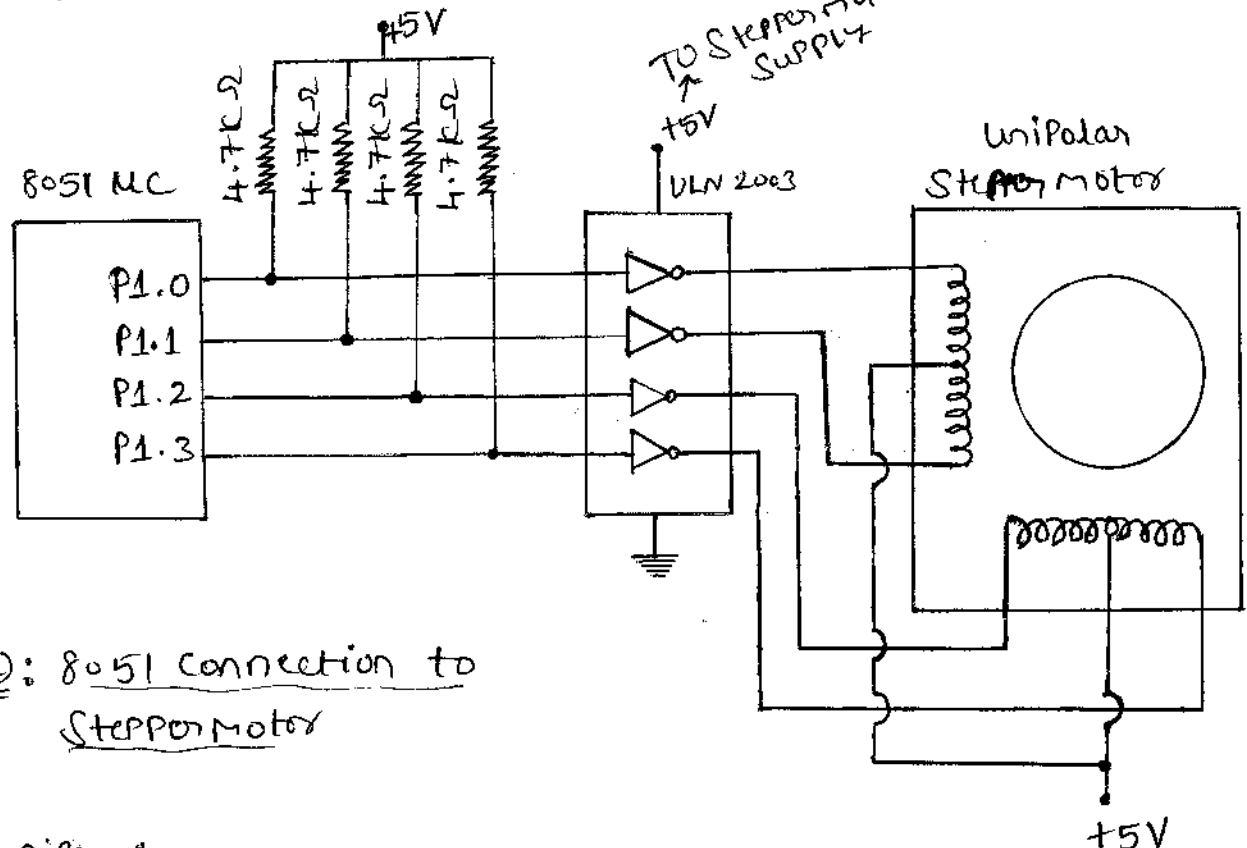


Fig 2: 8051 connection to Stepper motor

Principle:

- The main principle of the circuit is to rotate the Stepper motor stepwise at a particular step angle.

- ⊕ The Speed of the motor is determined by the time delay between each incremental movement.
- ⊕ Motor moves each time a pulse is received.
- ⊕ The stepper motor has 4 coils. These four coils are activated in the cyclic order method.
- ⊕ Full step drive: Two coils are energized at a time.
- ⊕ Half step drive: coils are energized alternatively.
- ⊕ Motor is connected to the Port 1 (P1.0 - P1.3) of the microcontroller through a driver IC.
- ⊕ The ULN 2003 IC is used to drive the stepper motor as the controller cannot provide current required by the motor (stepper motor requires more than 60mA).
- ⊕ Table 3 shows a 2-phase, 4-step stepping sequence.

clock like	Step #	Winding A	Winding B	Winding C	Winding D	Counter Clockwise
↓	1	1	0	0	1	↑
	2	1	1	0	0	
	3	0	1	1	0	
	4	0	0	1	1	

Table 3: Normal 4-Step sequence

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* Step angle (degree) Step angle = $\frac{360}{\text{No of steps per revolution}}$

* Revolutions Per minute (RPM) RPM = $\frac{60 \times \text{Steps per second}}{\text{Steps per revolution}}$

* Advantages: • High resolution dynamic torque

- Requires LOW operating Voltage
- Consumes less Power
- Cost-effective
- No encoder is required for simple positioning etc

* Applications:

- Facsimile machines • Plotters • Image Scanners
- Copiers • Robotics • Dot matrix printers • Clock
- Card readers • floppy disk • hard disk drives
- tele printers • tele type

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Module-5: Communication Systems

①

Syllabus: Introduction, Elements of Communication Systems, Modulation: Amplitude Modulation, Spectrum Power, AM Detection (Demodulation), Frequency and Phase Modulation, Amplitude and Frequency Modulation: A Comparison.

* Communication: Communication is the process of exchanging information between two points (through connection (Wired) @ Connectionless (Wireless) medium)

* Communication System: Communication System is a set of electronic equipments used for communication purpose.

* Elements of Communication Systems (Block diagram of Communication System):

Fig ① shows the basic elements of a Communication System

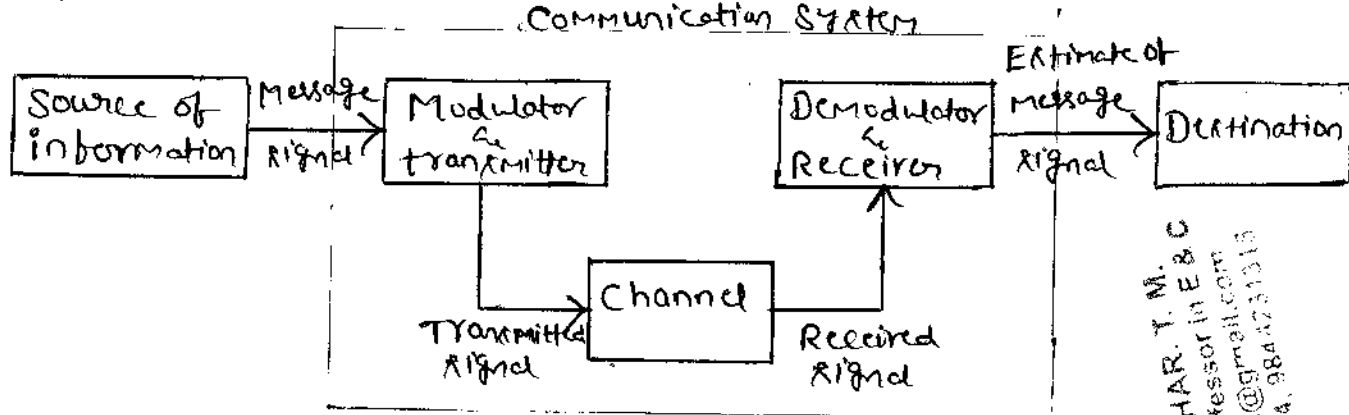


Fig ①: Block diagram of Communication System

Source of information:

→ The four important sources of information are:

① Speech ② Television ③ Facsimile (Fax) & ④ Personal computer

→ The signal that carries information cannot travel long distance.

Modulator & transmitter:

→ It converts the information signal to a form suitable

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Professor in E & C
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9844231313
9747174174

for transmission over the channel (Modulation)

→ It amplify the information signal.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Channel:

→ It is the physical medium through which the information is sent. (It may introduce noise & distortion)

→ It can be a pair of conducting wires, optical fiber, co-axial cable, waveguide or free space.

Demodulator & Receiver:

→ It extracts the message signal from the received signal (Demodulation @ Detection)

→ It amplify the message signal. (Remove noise & filtering)

Destination:

→ The message signal is fed to Loud speaker, TV picture tube, Computer display screen etc

Note:

① Message signal is called as Information signal @ Baseband signal @ Unmodulated signal @ Low frequency signal @ Modulating signal

② Carrier signal is called as High frequency signal

③ Frequency range with application

Sl. no.	Frequency range (Band)	Applications
1	30Hz - 300Hz, Extremely Low frequencies (ELF)	Power transmission
2	300Hz - 3KHz, Voice frequencies (VF)	Audio, submarine communication, navigation

3	3 KHz - 30 KHz, Very Low frequencies (VLF)	Submarine Communication Navigation
4	30 KHz - 300 KHz, Low frequencies (LF)	Submarine Communication Navigation.
5	300 KHz - 3 MHz, Medium frequencies (MF)	AM broadcast, Aeronautical Comm.
6	3 MHz - 30 MHz, High frequencies (HF)	Shortwave transmission.
7	30 MHz - 300 MHz, Very high frequencies (VHF)	TV & FM broadcast.
8	300 MHz - 3 GHz, ultra high frequencies (UHF)	Communication Satellites, Cellular Phones, Personal Comm. Stations
9	3 GHz - 30 GHz, Super high frequencies (SHF)	Satellite communication, Radar
10	30 GHz - 300 GHz, Extremely high frequencies (EHF)	Satellite communication, Radar.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* Need for modulation:

- ① Increase the operating range @ Increase the range of communication @ Long distance communication:

Modulation increases the frequency of the signal & thus they can be transmitted over long distances.

- ② Reduce the height of antenna:

Minimum height of the antenna is,

$$h = \lambda/4 = \frac{c}{4f} \quad \left(\because \lambda = \frac{c}{f} \right)$$

If $f = 1 \text{ KHz}$, $h = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{4 \times 1 \times 10^3} = 75,000 \text{ m}$

(Impractical)

λ → Wavelength (m)
 c → Velocity of light
 ($3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$)
 f → Frequency (Hz)

If $f = 1\text{MHz}$, $h = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{4 \times 10^6} = 75\text{M}$ (Practical)

③ Avoid mixing of signals:

Modulation avoids mixing of signals (by using different carrier frequencies for different signals)

④ Allows multiplexing of signals:

Modulation allows the transmission of two or more signals simultaneously over the same channel (multiplexing)

⑤ Improve the quality of reception & Reduces noise:

Modulation reduces the effect of noise & thus improve the quality of reception

⑥ Allows adjustments in bandwidth:

Modulation allows to vary the bandwidth of the signal (modulated signal)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑦ Wireless Communication:

Modulation avoids the use of wires (sometimes).
i.e. signal can be radiated into free space

* Modulation:

The process of changing one of the characteristics (E.g. AMPLITUDE, frequency & Phase) of a carrier signal (High frequency signal) with respect to the instantaneous values of the message signal (Low frequency signal) is called Modulation.

Note: ① The message signal is given by,

$$m(t) = V_m \sin \omega_m t$$

Where $V_m \rightarrow$ Peak @ maximum Amplitude of message signal
 $\omega_m \rightarrow$ Angular frequency of the message signal.

② The carrier signal is given by,

$$C(t) = V_c \sin(\omega_c t + \phi)$$

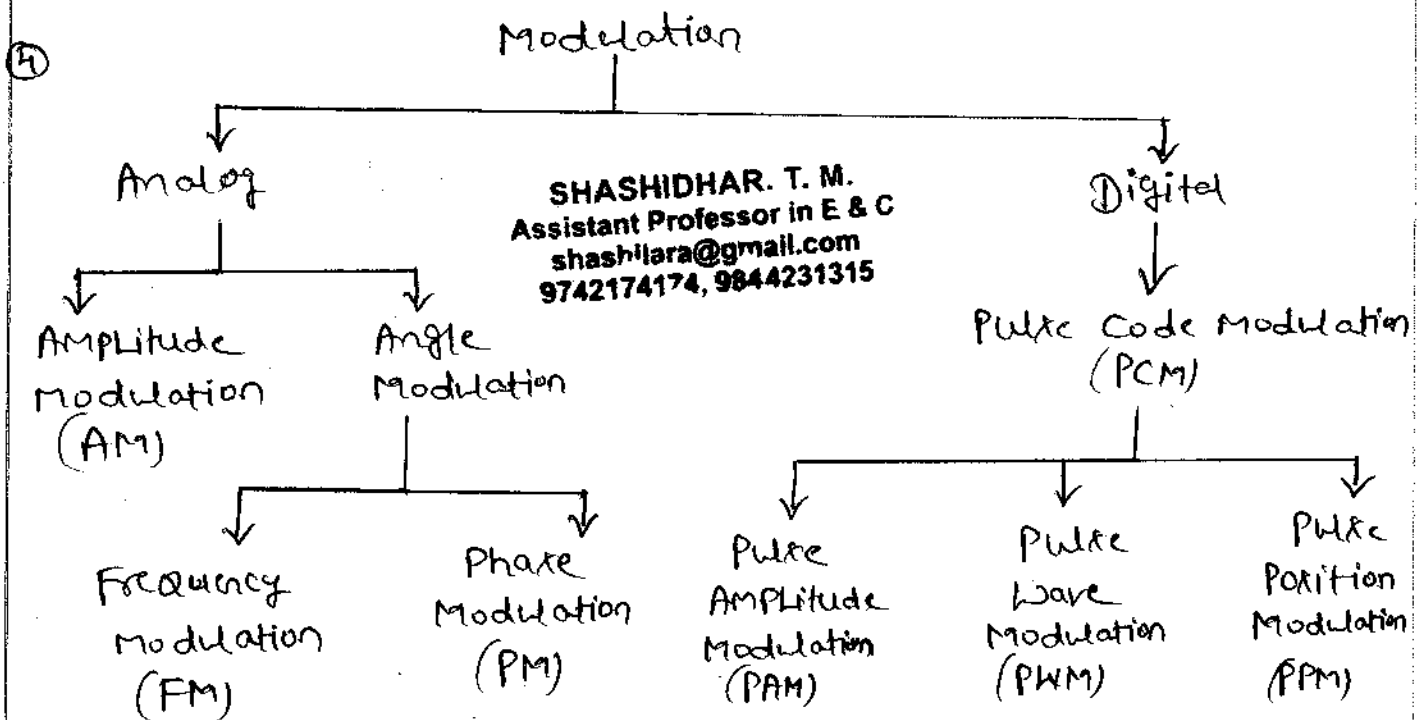
Where, $V_c \rightarrow$ Peak @ maximum amplitude of carrier signal.

$\omega_c \rightarrow$ Angular frequency of the carrier signal

$\phi \rightarrow$ Phase angle of the carrier signal with respect to some reference.

③ Demodulation @ detection

The process of recovering (extracting) the information signal (message signal) from the modulated signal is called demodulation @ detection



Types of Modulation:

There are three basic types of Modulation.

① Amplitude Modulation

② Frequency Modulation } Angle Modulation

③ Phase Modulation }

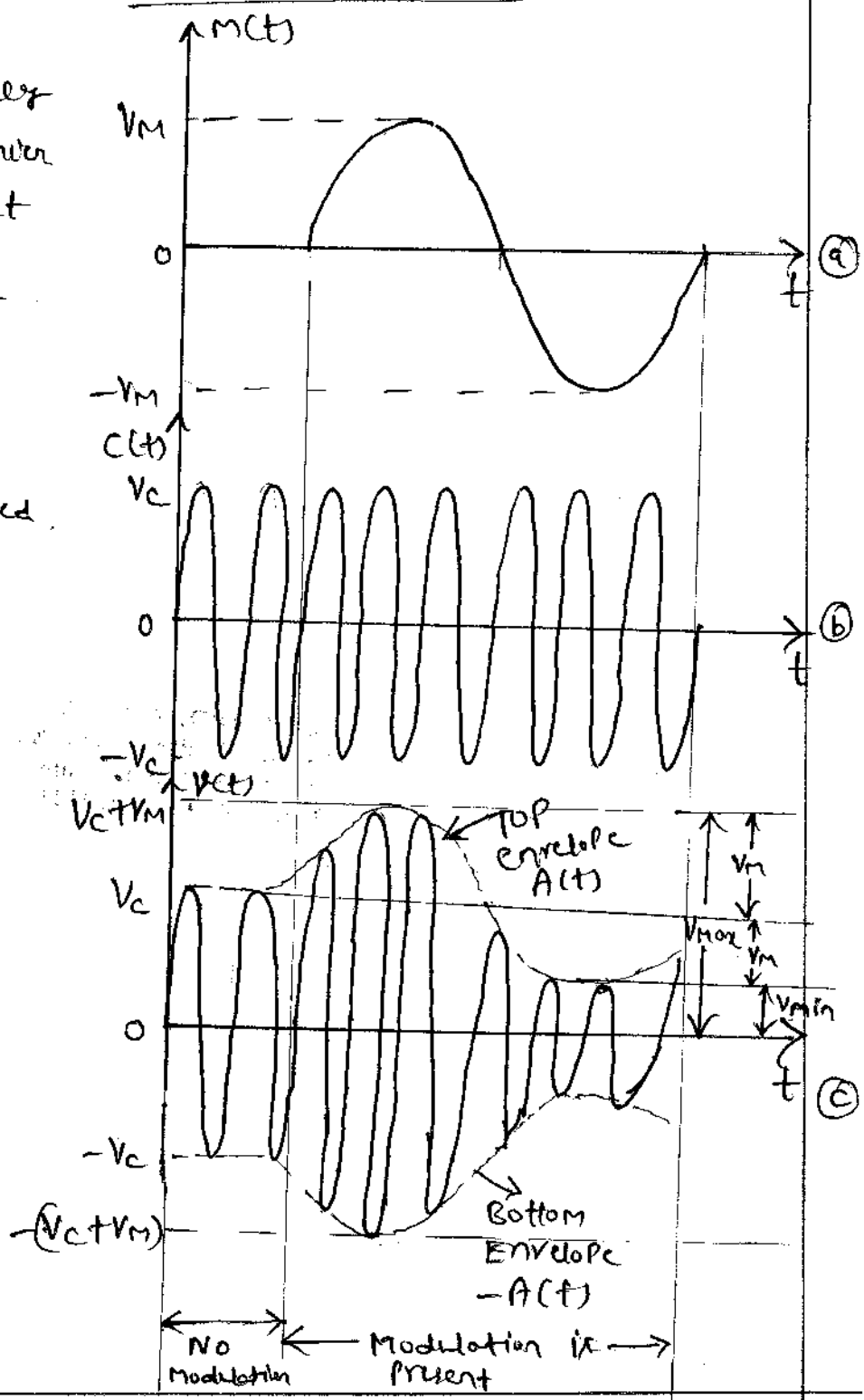
① Amplitude Modulation (AM):

The process of changing the amplitude of carrier wave with respect to the instantaneous values of the message signal is called Amplitude Modulation (AM)

→ Here the frequency & phase of the carrier wave is kept constant

→ During the positive half-cycle of the message signal, the amplitude of the carrier wave is increased.

→ During the negative half-cycle of the message signal, the amplitude of the carrier wave is decreased.



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Fig (1)

Eqn 5 & 6 are AM Wave @ Instantaneous Voltage of AM Wave

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note: ① From Eqn 5 & 6, the AM Wave consists of

- Ⓐ A carrier at frequency f_c with amplitude V_c
- Ⓑ LSB at frequency $(f_c - f_m)$ with amplitude $\frac{mV_c}{2}$ @ $\frac{V_m}{2}$
- Ⓒ USB at frequency $(f_c + f_m)$ with amplitude $\frac{mV_c}{2}$ @ $\frac{V_m}{2}$

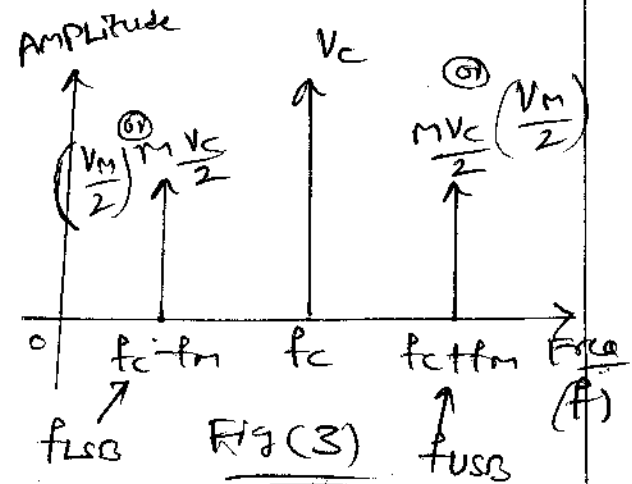
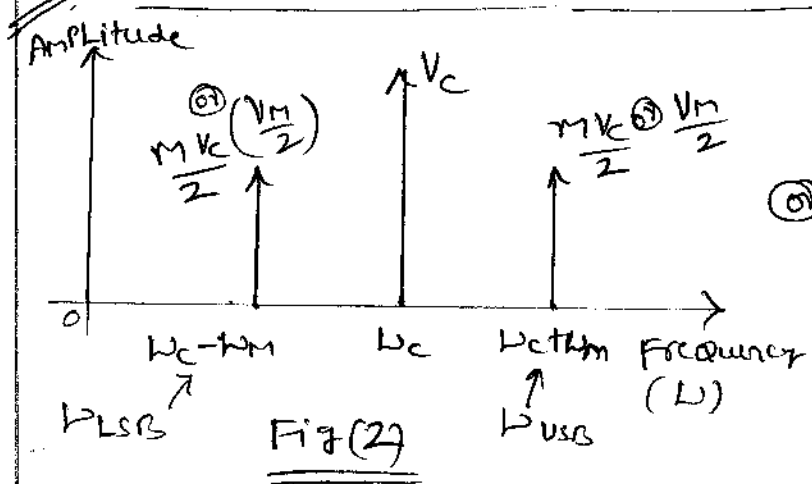
② Modulation Factor @ Modulation Index (m) (Depth of Modulation)

It is defined as the amount by which the carrier amplitude gets modified by the modulating signal.

It is ratio of the ~~carrier~~ peak amplitude of message signal to the peak amplitude of carrier signal V_c

ie $m = \frac{V_m}{V_c}$ — ⑦ ⑧ $m = \frac{V_m}{V_c} \times 100\%$

③ Frequency Spectrum of AM Wave @ Spectrum:



④ Bandwidth: It is range of frequencies between Lower Side & Upper Side frequencies. ~~between~~

$f_{USB} - f_{LSB}$

$\omega_{USB} - \omega_{LSB}$

ie $BW = (f_c + f_m) - (f_c - f_m)$ or $(\omega_c + \omega_m) - (\omega_c - \omega_m)$

$BW = 2f_m$ (Hz) ⑧

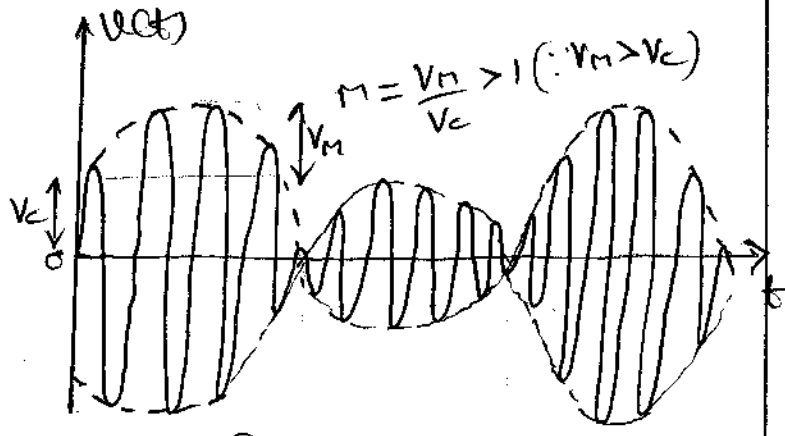
$BW = 2\omega_m$ (rad/s) ⑨

⑤ Effect of Modulation Index on AM

Case (i): $(M > 1)$

→ The carrier is said to be over-damped

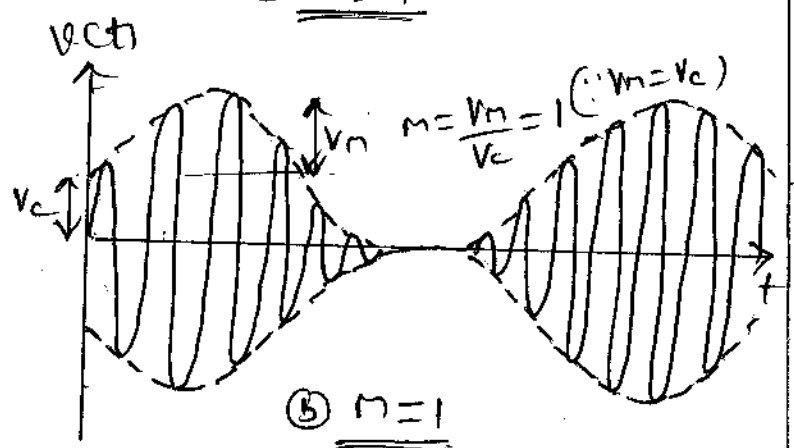
→ AM wave is distorted (Clipped off)



④ M > 1

Case (ii): $(M = 1)$

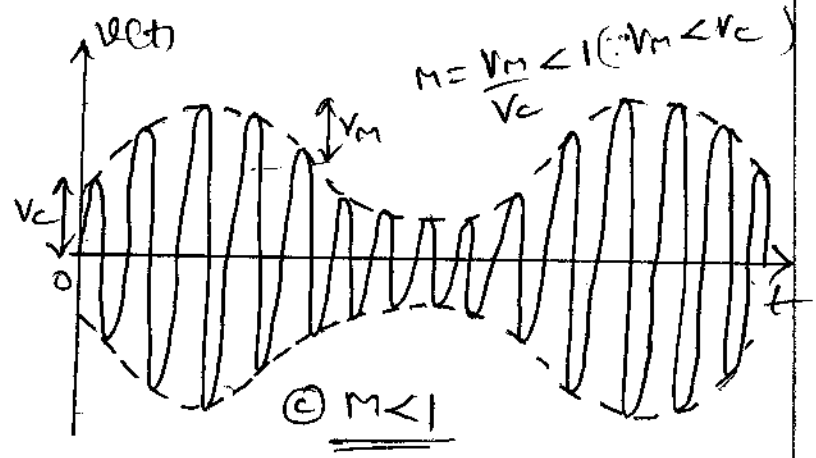
→ The carrier is said to be critically damped



⑤ M = 1

Case (iii): $(M < 1)$

→ The carrier is said to be under-damped



⑥ M < 1

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashihara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

∴ Modulation index should not exceed 1

∴ $M \leq 1$

Fig ④: Effect of Modulation Index (M) on AM

6) Expression for Modulation Index of AM (in terms of V_{max} & V_{min})

From fig (1)(c), we can write

$$V_{max} = 2V_m + V_{min}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2V_m = V_{max} - V_{min}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_m = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{2} \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

$$\& V_c = V_m + V_{min} \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

Using (10) in (11), we get

$$V_c = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{2} + V_{min}$$

$$V_c = \frac{V_{max} + V_{min}}{2} \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

$$\text{L.K.T } m = \frac{V_m}{V_c} \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

Using (10) & (12) in (13), we get

$$m = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{V_{max} + V_{min}}$$

$$m = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{V_{max} + V_{min}}$$

(14)

$$m = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{V_{max} + V_{min}} \times 100\%$$

(15)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* Expression for total average power of a AM wave

7) Spectrum Power in AM wave

AM wave is given by,

$$V(t) = \underbrace{V_c \sin \omega_c t}_{\text{Unmodulated Carrier}} + \underbrace{\frac{mV_c}{2} \cos(\omega_c - \omega_m)t}_{\text{Lower Sideband}} - \underbrace{\frac{mV_c}{2} \cos(\omega_c + \omega_m)t}_{\text{Upper Sideband}}$$

The total power P_t is given by,

$$P_t(\text{total}) = P_{\text{car}}(\text{carrier}) + P_{\text{LSB}}(\text{LSB}) + P_{\text{USB}}(\text{USB}) \quad \text{--- (16)}$$

$$\Rightarrow P_t = \frac{V_{\text{car}}^2}{R} + \frac{V_{\text{LSB}}^2}{R} + \frac{V_{\text{USB}}^2}{R} \quad \text{--- (17)} \quad \left[\because \text{Power } P = \frac{V^2}{R} \right]$$

Where, V_{car} → RMS Value of Carrier @ Unmodulated Carrier
 V_{LSB} → RMS value of Lower sideband
 V_{USB} → RMS value of Upper sideband,
 R → Resistance

$$\therefore V_{car} = \frac{V_c}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (18) \quad , \quad V_{LSB} = \frac{mV_c}{2\sqrt{2}} \quad (19) \quad , \quad V_{USB} = -\frac{mV_c}{2\sqrt{2}} \quad \left(\because V_{rms} = \frac{V_{max}}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \quad (20)$$

Using (18), (19) & (20) in (17) we get.

$$P_t = \frac{(V_c/\sqrt{2})^2}{R} + \frac{(mV_c/2\sqrt{2})^2}{R} + \frac{(mV_c/2\sqrt{2})^2}{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow P_t = \frac{V_c^2}{2R} + \frac{m^2}{4} \frac{V_c^2}{2R} + \frac{m^2}{4} \frac{V_c^2}{2R}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhar@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$$P_t = \frac{V_c^2}{2R} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{m^2}{4} \right)$$

$$P_t = \frac{V_c^2}{2R} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right) \quad (w) \quad (21)$$

$$P_t = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right) \quad (w) \quad (22)$$

Where $P_{car} = \frac{V_c^2}{2R}$

Eqn (21) & (22) is the expression for total power in AM wave

Note:

- ① From (21) & (22) we can say, ② Total Power in AM wave is more than carrier power
- ③ Total Power depends on the modulation index m .

② Maximum Power in an AM wave

From eqn (22), $P_t = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right)$

Maximum value of m is 1

$$\therefore P_t = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

$$P_t = 150\% \text{ of } P_{car} \quad P_t = 1.5 P_{car} \quad // \quad \text{--- (23) } \odot \quad P_{car} = 66.66\% P_t$$

Thus the maximum power in AM wave is $1.5 P_c$ \odot 150% of the carrier power P_{car}

③ Modulation index in terms of carrier power (P_{car})
& total power of AM wave (P_t)

From eqn (22), $P_t = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{P_t}{P_{car}} = 1 + \frac{m^2}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{m^2}{2} = \frac{P_t}{P_{car}} - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 = 2 \left(\frac{P_t}{P_{car}} - 1\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow m = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{P_t}{P_{car}} - 1\right)} \quad // \quad \text{--- (24)}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

④ Current relation in AM wave (Voltage relation)

From eqn (22), $P_t = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= VI \quad \odot \\ \therefore \text{Power, } P &= I^2 R \quad \odot \\ &= V^2 / R \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_t^2 R = I_{car}^2 R \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow I_t = I_{car} \sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}} \quad \text{--- (25)}$$

$$I_{car} = \frac{I_t}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}}} \quad \text{--- (26)}$$

$$m = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{I_t^2}{I_{car}^2} - 1\right)}$$

$$m = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{V_t^2}{V_{car}^2} - 1\right)}$$

⑤ Modulation Index & total Power when a carrier is amplitude modulated by several sine waves :

Let $V_1, V_2, V_3 \dots$ etc be amplitudes of sine waves, Then the total modulating voltage V_t is,

$$V_t = \sqrt{V_1^2 + V_2^2 + V_3^2 + \dots}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_t}{V_c} = \frac{\sqrt{V_1^2 + V_2^2 + V_3^2 + \dots}}{V_c}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_t}{V_c} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{V_1}{V_c}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{V_2}{V_c}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{V_3}{V_c}\right)^2 + \dots}$$

$$\boxed{M_t = \sqrt{M_1^2 + M_2^2 + M_3^2 + \dots}} \quad \text{--- (28)} \quad (M_t \leq 1)$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Where, $M_t = \frac{V_t}{V_c} \rightarrow$ total modulation index

$M_1 = \frac{V_1}{V_c}, M_2 = \frac{V_2}{V_c} \dots \rightarrow$ Individual modulation indices

From eqn (28), the total modulation index is the square root of the sum of the squares of the individual modulation indices.

The total power in the AM wave is,

$$\boxed{P_t = P_{c \cos} \left(1 + \frac{M_t^2}{2}\right)} \quad \text{--- (29)}$$

⑥ Transmission efficiency of AM wave :

The ratio of the power carried by the sidebands (P_{SB})

(or power that contains information) to the total power (P_t) is called transmission efficiency or efficiency (η)

Transmission efficiency is,

$$\eta = \frac{P_{SB}}{P_t} \quad \text{--- (30)}$$

$$= \frac{P_{LSB} + P_{USB}}{P_t}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{M^2}{4} \frac{V_c^2}{2R} + \frac{M^2}{4} \frac{V_c^2}{2R}}{P_t}$$

$$= \frac{V_c^2}{2R} \left(\frac{M^2}{4} + \frac{M^2}{4} \right)$$

$$= \frac{V_c^2}{2R} \left(\frac{M^2}{4} + \frac{M^2}{4} \right)$$

$$\frac{V_c^2}{2R} \left(\frac{M^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\eta = \frac{\frac{M^2}{2}}{1 + \frac{M^2}{2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore P_{LSB} &= \frac{V_{LSB}^2}{R} = \left(\frac{M V_c}{2/\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 \\ P_{USB} &= \frac{V_{USB}^2}{R} = \left(\frac{M V_c}{2/\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 \\ P_t &= \frac{V_c^2}{2R} \left(1 + \frac{M^2}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$\eta = \frac{M^2}{2 + M^2}$$

--- (31)

$$\% \eta = \frac{M^2}{2 + M^2} \times 100 \%$$

--- (32)

From (31) & (32), it is clear that the transmission efficiency increases with modulation index.

(i) When $M=0$, $\eta = \frac{0}{2+0} = 0$

(ii) When $M=0.5$, $\eta = \frac{0.5}{2+0.5} = 11.1\%$

(iii) When $M=1$, $\eta = \frac{1}{1+2} = 33.33\%$ (Max Value of M is 1)

\(\therefore\) Higher the modulation index, higher is the transmission efficiency. \(\therefore\) Maximum efficiency in AM is 33.33%.

* AM detection (demodulation) (Envelope detector):

→ The process of recovering the message signal (audio signal) from the modulated signal is known as demodulation @ detection (ie demodulation is the reverse of the modulation)

→ Fig 5 shows the envelope detector. It consists of a diode followed by a RC circuit.

- Demodulation of AM involves two steps
- ① Diode eliminates the envelope
- ② RC circuit (LPF) removes the high frequency carrier

→ The signal $V(t)$ is passed through a diode to cut off the bottom half (Lower half)

→ During positive half-cycle of the input, the diode is forward biased & the capacitor 'C' charges to peak value of the input signal. When the input signal falls below the peak value, the diode becomes reverse-biased & the capacitor 'C' discharges through the load resistor 'R'. The discharging process continues until the

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

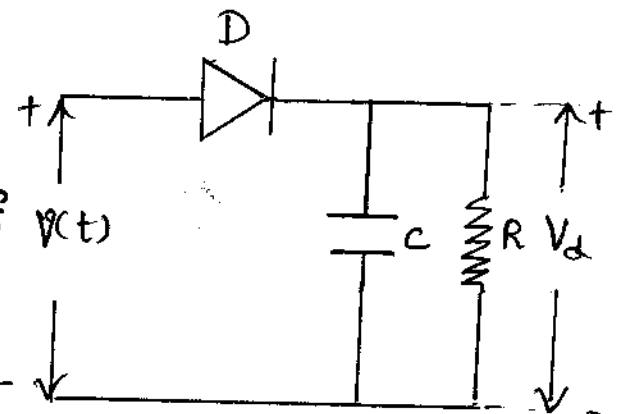


Fig 5: Envelope detector

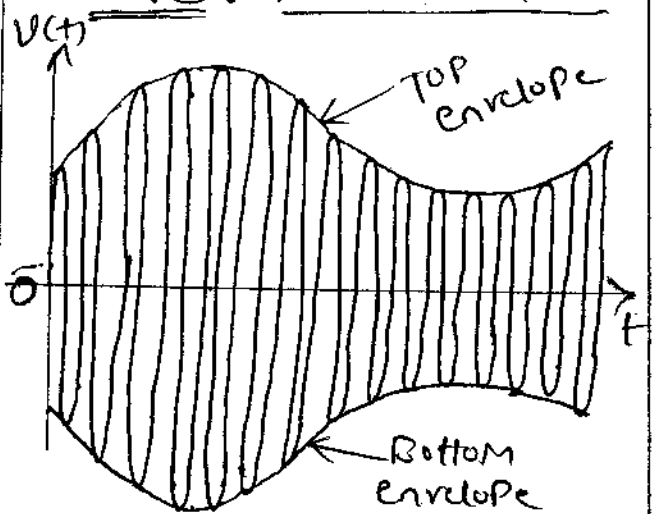


Fig 6: AM signal

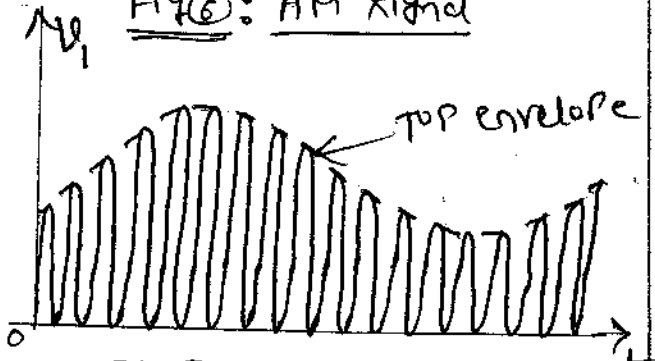


Fig 7: Rectified output

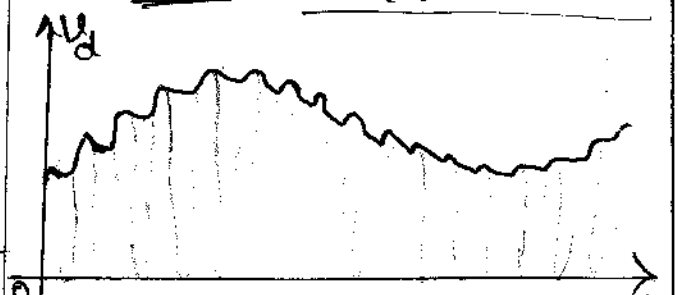


Fig 8: AM detector output

next ~~is~~ Positive half cycle.

→ When the input signal becomes greater than the voltage across the capacitor, the diode conducts again as the process is repeated. (OP V_d follows the modulated wave envelope)

→ The time constant (RC) must satisfy the following conditions

$RC \gg T_c$

$RC \ll T_m$

$\Rightarrow RC \gg \frac{2\pi}{\omega_c}$ — (33)

$\Rightarrow RC \ll \frac{2\pi}{\omega_m}$ — (34)

$\because T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$
 $\omega = 2\pi f$

From (33) & (34),

$\frac{2\pi}{\omega_c} \ll RC \ll \frac{2\pi}{\omega_m}$ — (35)

→ The detected envelope is,

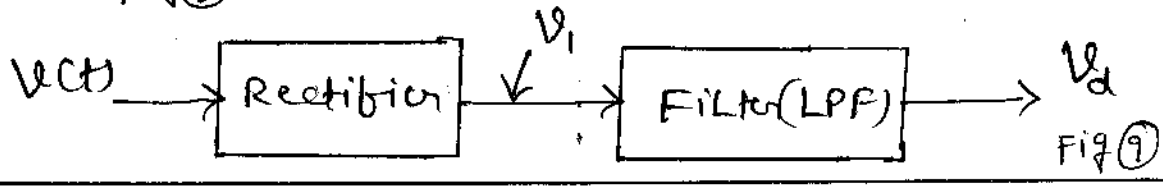
$V_d = V_c + M V_c \sin \omega_m t$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Where, V_c → dc component can be easily removed by a simple RC LPF

$\therefore V_d = V_m \sin \omega_m t$ → Message signal $\left[\because M = \frac{V_m}{V_c} \Rightarrow M V_c = V_m \right]$

Note: (1) Fig (5) is equivalent to fig (9) shown below,



2) Frequency Modulation (FM):

The process of changing the frequency of carrier wave with respect to the instantaneous values of the message signal is called frequency modulation (FM)

→ Here the amplitude & phase of the carrier wave is kept constant.

→ When the message signal voltage is zero as at A, C, E, the carrier frequency is unchanged (same as frequency f_c)

→ When the message signal approaches its positive peak as at B, the carrier frequency is increased to maximum as shown by the closely spaced cycles. (High frequency)

→ When the message signal approaches its negative peak as at D, the carrier frequency is reduced to minimum as shown by the widely spaced cycles. (Low frequency)

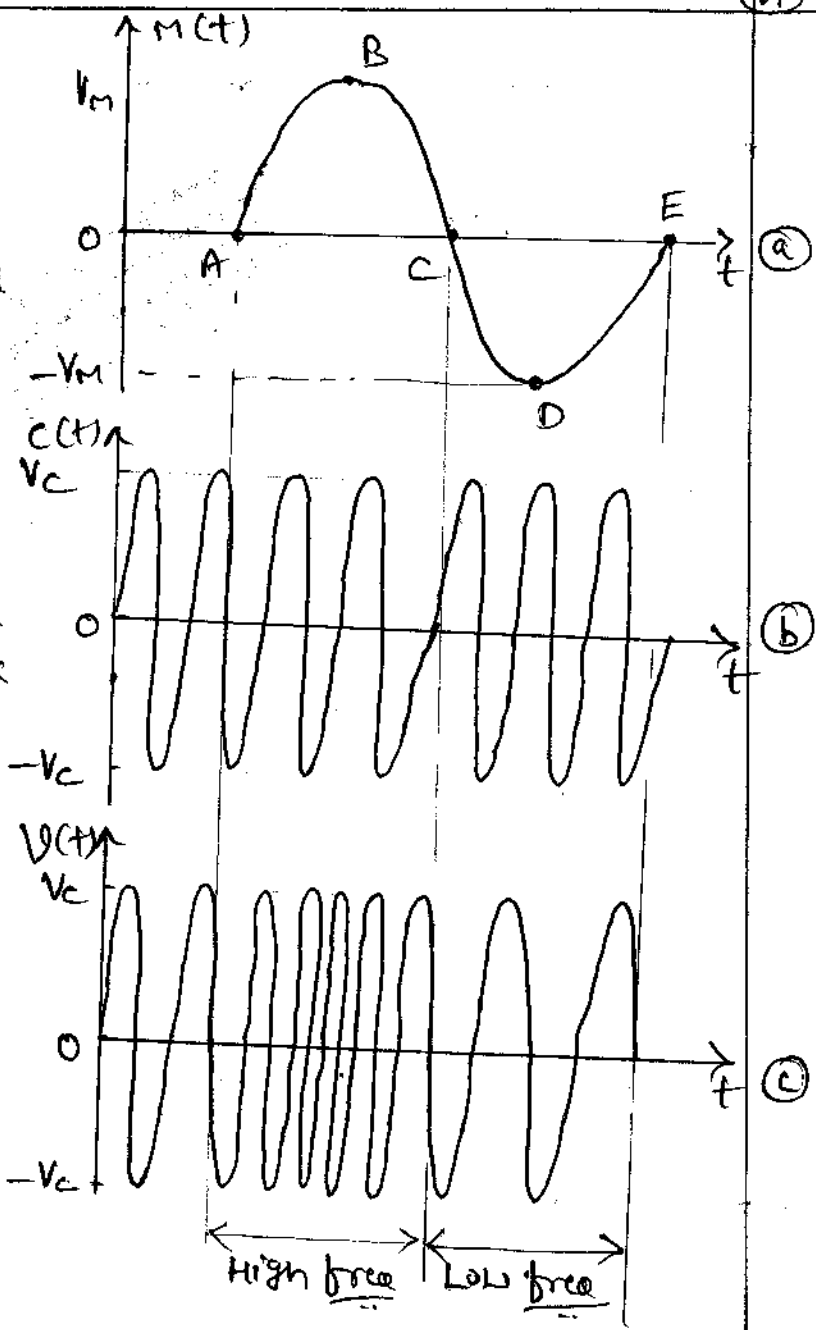


Fig 1

* FM Wave Equation @ Instantaneous Voltage of FM wave:

Let the instantaneous frequency of the FM wave

$$f_i = f_c(1 + K V_m \cos \omega t) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Where, $f_c \rightarrow$ carrier frequency

$K \rightarrow$ Constant of Proportionality

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Let the angular frequency of the FM wave is,

$$\omega_i = \frac{d\theta_i}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \int_0^t \omega_i dt \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Let the message signal is,

$$m(t) = V_m \cos \omega_m t \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Let the carrier signal is,

$$c(t) = V_c \cos \omega_c t \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\omega_m = 2\pi f_m$$

$$\omega_c = 2\pi f_c$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \int_0^t \omega_c (1 + K_f V_m \cos 2\pi f_m t) dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \int_0^t \omega_c dt + \int_0^t \omega_c K_f V_m \cos(2\pi f_m t) dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \omega_c t + \frac{\omega_c K_f V_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)}{2\pi f_m}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \omega_c t + \frac{2\pi f_c K_f V_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)}{2\pi f_m}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \omega_c t + \frac{K_f V_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)}{f_m}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \omega_c t + \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} \sin(2\pi f_m t) \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \omega_c t + \beta \sin(2\pi f_m t) \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

The FM wave is,

$$v(t) = V_c \cos \theta_i \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

Using (6) in (7), we get

$$v(t) = V_c \cos [\omega_c t + \beta \sin(2\pi f_m t)]$$

$$\text{--- (8)}$$

$$v(t) = V_c \cos [2\pi f_c t + \beta \sin(2\pi f_m t)] \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

∴ From (1),

$$f_i = f_c (1 + K_f V_m \cos \omega_m t)$$

$$\Rightarrow 2\pi f_i = 2\pi f_c (1 + K_f V_m \cos \omega_m t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega_i = \omega_c (1 + K_f V_m \cos \omega_m t)$$

Where $\omega_m = 2\pi f_m$

Where $K_f = K_f$
↓
Frequency sensitivity of FM (1)
Deviation constant

Where,
 $\Delta f = K_f V_m$
↓
Frequency deviation

$\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$
↓
Modulation index
⊙ Modulation factor
⊙ Phase deviation of FM wave

Eqn (8) & (9) are the expression for FM wave

Note: ① Modulation index for (FM): (β)

Modulation index is defined as the ratio of the frequency deviation to the modulating frequency.

ie $\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} \text{ or } \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_m} \text{ --- (10)}$

β is generally greater than 1 (measured in radians)

② Frequency spectrum:

FM consists of (a) carrier (at f_c)

(b) Infinite number of sidebands

Upper sideband frequencies at $f_c + f_s, f_c + 2f_s, \dots$
Lower sideband frequencies at $f_c - f_s, f_c - 2f_s, \dots$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

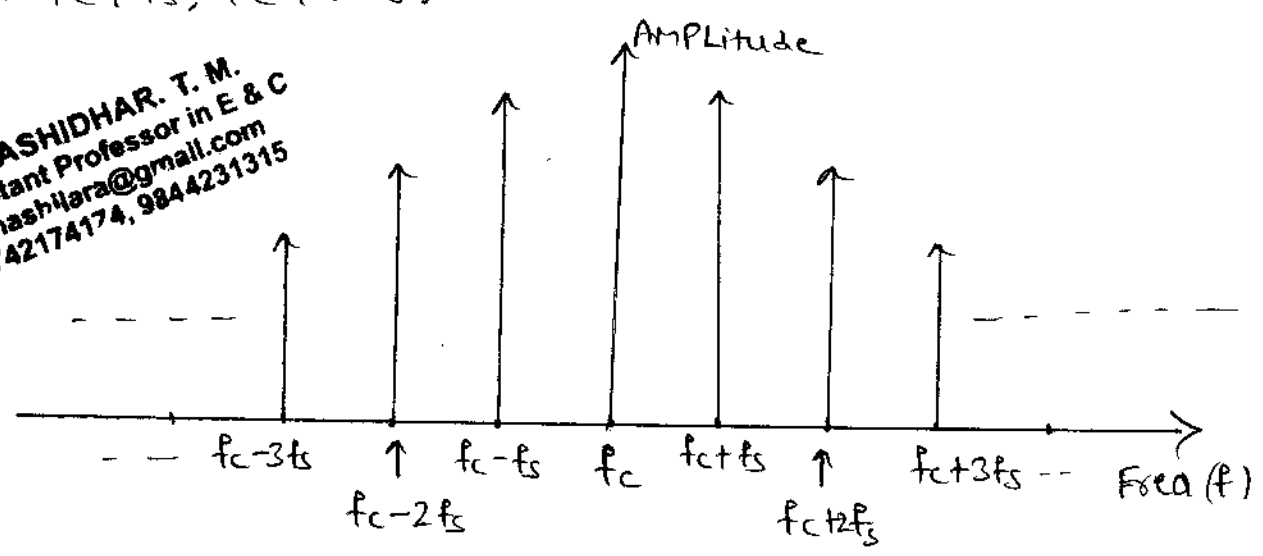


Fig ②: Frequency Spectrum of FM

③ Bandwidth:

From Carson's rule, the BW of FM is,

$BW = 2(\Delta f + f_m) \text{ or } 2\Delta f \left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta}\right)$
 $BW = 2\beta f_m + 2f_m \text{ or } 2f_m (\beta + 1)$ --- (11)

- If $\Delta f > f_m$, it is Wideband FM
- If $\Delta f < f_m$, it is narrowband FM.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

④ Total power in FM wave (P_t)

$$P_t = \frac{V_c^2}{2} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} J_n^2(\beta) \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

Where,

$J_n(\beta) \rightarrow$ Bessel function.

⑤ Frequency deviation

Consider eqn (1),

$$f_i = f_c (1 + K_f V_m \cos \omega_m t)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_i = f_c + K_f f_c V_m \cos \omega_m t$$

Maximum value of f_i occurs when $\cos \omega_m t = \pm 1$

$$\therefore f_i = f_c \pm K_f V_m \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

Comparing (13) with $f_i = f_c \pm \Delta f \quad \text{--- (14)}$

$\Delta f = K_f V_m$ \rightarrow Frequency deviation @
 Maximum frequency deviation.

③ Phase Modulation (PM):

The process of changing the phase of carrier wave with respect to the instantaneous values of the message signal is called Phase Modulation (PM)

\rightarrow Here the amplitude & frequency of the carrier wave is kept constant.

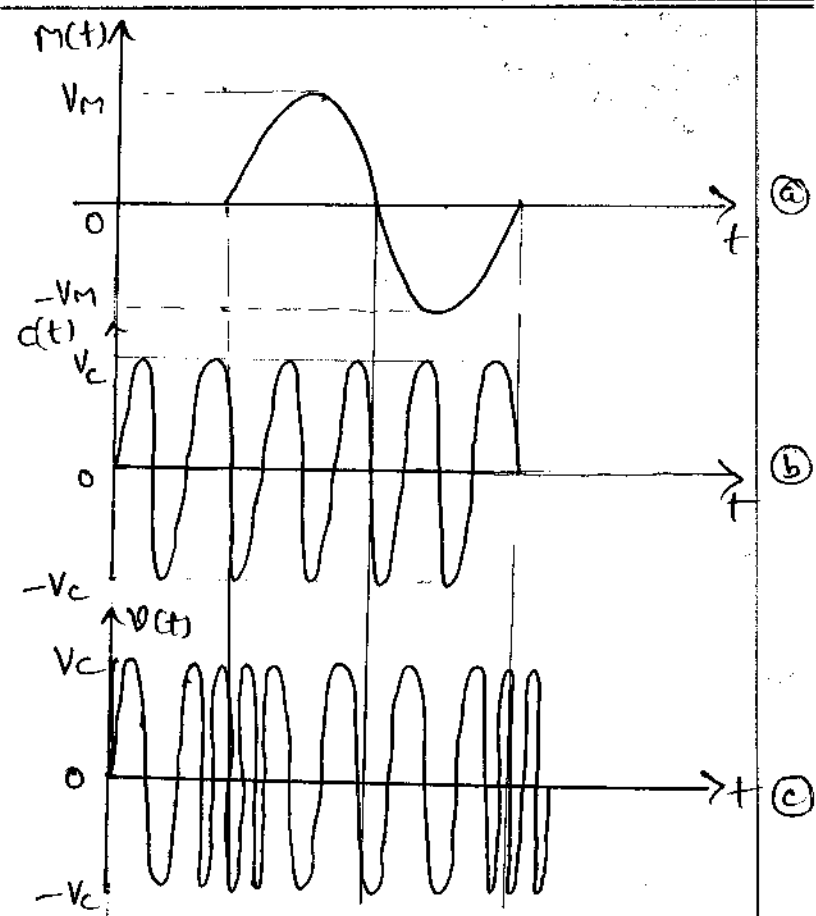


Fig 10

* PM Wave Equation @ Instantaneous Voltage of PM Wave

Let the message signal is,

$$m(t) = V_m \cos \omega_m t \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Angular freq of $m(t)$ is,
 $\omega_m = 2\pi f_m$

Let the carrier signal is,

$$c(t) = V_c \cos \omega_c t \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Angular freq of $c(t)$ is,
 $\omega_c = 2\pi f_c$

Let the instantaneous phase of the modulated carrier (PM wave) is,

$$\theta_i = \omega_c t + K_p m(t) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \omega_c t + K_p V_m \cos \omega_m t$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta_i = \omega_c t + M_p \cos \omega_m t \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$K_p \rightarrow$ Frequency deviation (rad/V)
Phase Sensitivity of PM
Constant of Proportionality for PM

The PM wave is,

$$v(t) = V_c \cos \theta_i \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Where, $M_p = K_p V_m$
 \downarrow
Modulation index

Using (3) in (4), we get

$$v(t) = V_c \cos (\omega_c t + M_p \cos \omega_m t) \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

$$v(t) = V_c \cos (2\pi f_c t + M_p \cos 2\pi f_m t) \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

Eqn (5) & (6) are the expression for PM wave.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M. S.C
Assistant professor in E.E.C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Note: (1) ω_i differentiating eqn (3) we get (ω_i at t)

$$\omega_i = \omega_c + K_p \frac{d m(t)}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2\pi f_i = 2\pi f_c + K_p \frac{d m(t)}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow f_i = f_c + \frac{K_p}{2\pi} \frac{d m(t)}{dt} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

$\therefore \frac{d \theta_i}{dt} = \omega_i$
 $\frac{d(t)}{dt} = 1$

Eqn (7) is the instantaneous freq of PM wave

② Bandwidth

$$BW = 2f_m (k_f V_m + 1) \text{ @ } 2f_m (m_f + 1)$$

③ The average transmitted power of angle modulated wave (both FM & PM) is,

$$P_{av} = \frac{1}{2} V_c^2$$

$$\left[P_{av} = \frac{V_{cos}^2}{R} = \frac{\left(\frac{V_c}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2}{R} = \frac{V_c^2}{2} \right]$$

$R = 1 \Omega$

* Advantages of AM (Merits):

- ① Bandwidth required is less (Compared to FM & PM)
- ② Demodulation of AM is much simpler (Compared to FM)
- ③ AM receivers are cheap.
- ④ AM is a linear process
- ⑤ AM has wider coverage area (Compared to FM)

* Disadvantages of AM @ Drawbacks @ Demerits:

- ① Transmission efficiency is poor ($\eta_{max} \leq 33.33\%$)
- ② Poor audio quality
- ③ Affected by noise
- ④ Limited operating range
- ⑤ Affected by electrical storms & other radio frequency interference.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

* Advantages of FM

- ① Better audio quality (Compared to AM)
- ② Efficiency is high ($\eta \leq 100\%$)
- ③ More immune to noise (Compared to AM)
- ④ Operating range is quite large

- ⑤ No adjacent channel interference
- ⑥ Transmitted Power is constant & independent of modulation depth
- ⑦ Signal to noise ratio can be improved

* Disadvantages of FM

- ① Bandwidth required is much larger (compared to AM)
- ② Cannot be transmitted over long distances. (Area of reception is small)
- ③ Complex & expensive transmitting & receiving equipments.
- ④ Jamming of FM signal is easier than for AM.
- ⑤ Presence of tall buildings & land masses may limit the coverage & quality of FM.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

* Comparison between AM & FM

AM	FM
① Amplitude of the carrier changes (Frequency & phase remain constant) (EM wave)	① Frequency of the carrier changes (Amplitude & phase remain constant) (EM wave)
② Modulation index varies from 0 to 1	② Modulation index is much greater than 1
③ More susceptible to noise	③ Less susceptible to noise
④ It has two sidebands	④ It has infinite number of sidebands
⑤ Transmitter & receiver are simple (IF for AM RX = 455 kHz)	⑤ Transmitter & receiver are more complex (IF for FM RX = 10.7 MHz)
⑥ Bandwidth = $2f_m$ (BW is less) (≈ 10 kHz)	⑥ BW = $2(\Delta f + f_m)$ (≈ 200 kHz) (BW is more compared to AM)
⑦ All transmitted power is not useful	⑦ All power is useful.
⑧ Poor audio quality	⑧ Better audio quality

- ⑨ More Prone to interference
- ⑩ Transmission efficiency is less ($\leq 33.33\%$)
- ⑪ Frequency ranges from 535 KHz to 1705 KHz
- ⑫ covers long distance
- ⑬ origin - 1870s (mid)
- ⑭ Propagation is by ground & sky waves
- ⑮ cannot handle weaker signals
- ⑯ AM wave is:
 $V(t) = V_c [1 + m \sin 2\pi f_m t] \sin 2\pi f_c t$
- ⑰ Zero crossing is equidistant

- ⑨ Less Prone to interference
- ⑩ Better efficiency ($\leq 100\%$)
- ⑪ Frequency ranges from 88 MHz to 108 MHz.
- ⑫ covers small distances
- ⑬ origin - 1930's
- ⑭ propagation is by space waves
- ⑮ can handle weaker signals
- ⑯ FM wave is:
 $V(t) = V_c \cos [2\pi f_c t + \beta \sin 2\pi f_m t]$
- ⑰ Zero crossing is not equidistant.

* Features of PM:

- ① Zero crossing of PM does not occur at regular intervals of time (For FM also)
- ② The envelope of PM wave is constant compared to AM (For FM also)
- ③ Instantaneous value of PM (& also FM) is a non-linear function of the information signal.
- ④ Phase of the carrier changes (Frequency & amplitude remain constant)
- ⑤ PM wave is, $V(t) = V_c \cos (2\pi f_c t + M_p \cos 2\pi f_m t)$
- ⑥ PM is indirect method of producing FM
- ⑦ Modulation index, $M_p = K_p V_m$
- ⑧ BW = $2f_m(M_p + 1)$ (BW is more)
- ⑨ Average transmitted power, $P_{av} = \frac{1}{2} V_c^2$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

(9) PM is more immune to noise

(10) Less prone to interference

(12) Transmitter & Receiver are more complex

(13) Visualization difficulty of message waveform

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Problem

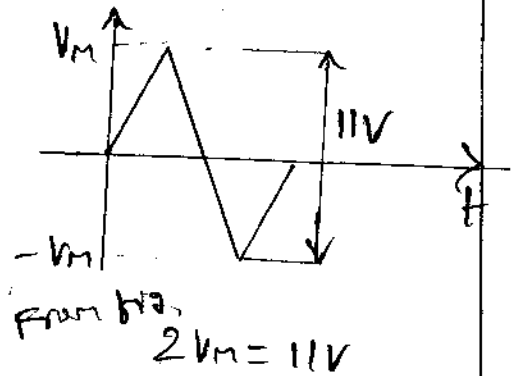
- ① A modulating signal consists of a symmetrical triangular wave, which has zero dc component & peak-to-peak voltage 11V. It is used to amplitude modulate a carrier of peak voltage 10V. Calculate the modulation index?

Sol: Peak Amplitude of modulating signal,

$$V_m = \frac{11}{2} = 5.5V$$

Modulation index, $m = \frac{V_m}{V_c}$

$$= \frac{5.5}{10}$$



Given,

$$V_c = 10V$$

$$m = 0.55$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

- ② A carrier wave of frequency 10MHz & peak value 10V is amplitude modulated by a 5kHz sine wave of amplitude 6V. Determine the modulation index & amplitude of the side frequencies.

Sol: Given $f_c = 10 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$, $V_c = 10V$,
 $f_m = 5 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}$, $V_m = 6V$.

Modulation index

$$m = \frac{V_m}{V_c}$$

$$m = \frac{6}{10}$$

$$m = 0.6$$

Amplitude of side frequencies

$$V_{SB} = \frac{m V_c}{2}$$

$$= \frac{0.6 \times 10}{2}$$

$$V_{SB} = 3V$$

3) A broadcast radio transmitter radiates 10kW, when the modulation Percentage is 60. How much of this is carrier power.

Sol: Given $P_t = 10 \times 10^3 \text{ W}$, $M = 60\% = 0.6$, $P_{ca} = ?$

$$\text{Let } P_t = P_{ca} \left(1 + \frac{M^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow P_{ca} = \frac{P_t}{1 + \frac{M^2}{2}} = \frac{10 \times 10^3}{1 + 0.6^2/2}$$

$$P_c = 8.47 \text{ kW} //$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

4) A radio transmitter radiates 10kW of carrier power is 8.5kW. Calculate modulation index.

Sol: Given $P_t = 10 \text{ kW}$, $P_{ca} = 8.5 \text{ kW}$ $M = ?$

$$\text{Let } P_t = P_{ca} \left(1 + \frac{M^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow M = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{P_t}{P_{ca}} - 1 \right)} = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{10 \times 10^3}{8.5 \times 10^3} - 1 \right)}$$

$$M = 0.59 //$$

5) A 400W carrier is modulated to a depth of 7.5%. Calculate total power in the modulated wave.

Sol: Given $P_c = 400 \text{ W}$, $M = 7.5\% = 0.075$, $P_t = ?$

$$\text{Let } P_t = P_{ca} \left(1 + \frac{M^2}{2} \right) = 400 \left(1 + \frac{0.075^2}{2} \right) = 401.12 \text{ W}$$

⑥ The antenna current of an AM transmitter is 8 A, when only the carrier is sent, but it increases to 8.93 A, when the carrier is modulated by a single sine wave. Find Percentage Modulation. Determine the antenna current when the Percent-Modulation changes to 0.8

Sol: Given $I_{car} = 8A$, $I_t = 8.93A$.

$$m = ?$$

Let

$$I_t = I_{car} \sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow m = \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{I_t}{I_{car}} \right)^2 - 1 \right]}$$

$$m = \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{8.93}{8} \right)^2 - 1 \right]}$$

$$m = 0.7014 \text{ @ } 70.14\%$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$m = 0.8, I_t = ?$$

Let

$$I_t = I_{car} \sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}}$$

$$= 8 \sqrt{1 + \frac{0.8^2}{2}}$$

$$I_t = 9.191A //$$

⑦ Calculate the Modulation index & Percentage Modulation if instantaneous voltages of modulating signal & carrier are $40 \sin \omega_m t$ & $60 \sin \omega_c t$ respectively.

Sol: Given $m(t) = 40 \sin \omega_m t$ $(t) = 60 \sin \omega_c t$

$$\Rightarrow V_m = 40$$

$$\Rightarrow V_c = 60$$

$$\therefore \text{modulation index, } m = \frac{V_m}{V_c} = \frac{40}{60} = 0.666$$

$$\% \text{ Modulation, } m\% = 66.66\%$$

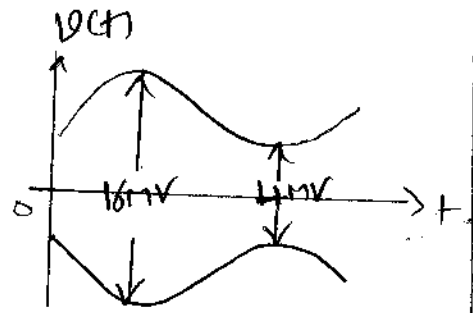
⑧ The maximum peak-to-peak voltage of an AM wave is 16 mV & the minimum peak-to-peak voltage is 4 mV.

Calculate the modulation factor.

Sol:

Given $2V_{max} = 16\text{mV}$, $2V_{min} = 4\text{mV}$

$\Rightarrow V_{max} = 8\text{mV}$, $V_{min} = 2\text{mV}$



W.K.T Modulation factor,

$$m = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{V_{max} + V_{min}}$$

$$= \frac{8 \times 10^{-3} - 2 \times 10^{-3}}{8 \times 10^{-3} + 2 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$= \frac{6 \times 10^{-3}}{10 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$= 0.6 \text{ @ } 60\%$$

$m = 0.6 \text{ @ } 60\%$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

9) A carrier of 100V & 1200KHz is modulated by a 50V, 1000KHz sine wave signal. Find the modulation factor.

Sol: Given, $V_c = 100\text{V}$, $V_m = 50\text{V}$

Modulation factor, $m = \frac{V_m}{V_c} = \frac{50}{100}$

$m = 0.5 \text{ @ } 50\%$

10) A 2500KHz carrier is modulated by audio signal with frequency span of 50-15000Hz. What are the freq of lower & upper sideband? What bandwidth of RF amplifier is required to handle the output?

Sol: Given $f_c = 2500 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}$,

$f_{m1} = 50 \text{ Hz}$

$f_{m2} = 15000 \text{ Hz}$

$LSB_1 = f_c - f_{m1} = 2499.95 \text{ kHz}$

$LSB_2 = f_c - f_{m2} = 2485 \text{ kHz}$

$USB_1 = f_c + f_{m1} = 2500.05 \text{ kHz}$

$USB_2 = f_c + f_{m2} = 2515 \text{ kHz}$

$BW_1 = USB_1 - LSB_1$

$BW_2 = USB_2 - LSB_2$

$BL_1 = 100\text{KHz}$ (2fm)

$BL_2 = 30\text{KHz}$ (2fm2)

Upper side band ranges from $2500.05\text{KHz} - 2515\text{KHz}$

Lower side band ranges from $2499.95\text{KHz} - 2485\text{KHz}$

Bandwidth ranges from $100\text{KHz} - 30\text{KHz}$

⑩ An AM wave is given by,

$V = 5(1 + 0.6 \cos 6280t) \sin 211 \times 10^4 t$ Volts

(i) What are the minimum & max amplitudes of the AM wave? (ii) What frequency components are contained in the modulated wave & what is the amplitude of each component?

Sol: Given $V = 5(1 + 0.6 \cos 6280t) \sin 211 \times 10^4 t$ — ①

Comparing it with standard AM wave,

$V(t) = V_c(1 + m \cos \omega_m t) \sin \omega_c t$ — ②

From ① & ②, we get

SHAHIDHAR R. I. N. C. Assistant Professor in E & T 9174217171714, 98443131313 shahidhar@gmail.com	$V_c = 5V$	$m = 0.6$	$\omega_m = 6280$	$\omega_c = 211 \times 10^4$
	$\Rightarrow \frac{V_m}{V_c} = 0.6$		$2\pi f_m = 6280$	$2\pi f_c = 211 \times 10^4$
	$\Rightarrow V_m = 0.6 \times 5$		$\Rightarrow f_m = \frac{6280}{2\pi}$	$\Rightarrow f_c = \frac{211 \times 10^4}{2\pi}$
	<u>$V_m = 3V$</u>		$f_m \approx 1\text{KHz}$	$f_c = 335.816\text{KHz}$

(i) Minimum & Max amplitudes of AM wave

$V_{min} = V_c - V_m = 5 - 3 = \underline{2V}$

$V_{max} = V_c + V_m = 5 + 3 = \underline{8V}$

(ii) Free components & the amplitude of each component

AM Wave will contain three frequency components

① Carrier: $f_c = 335.816 \text{ KHz}$

② LSB: $f_{LSB} = f_c - f_m = 335.816 \text{ KHz} - 1 \text{ KHz} = 334.816 \text{ KHz}$

③ USB: $f_{USB} = f_c + f_m = 335.816 \times 10^3 + 1 \times 10^3 = 336.816 \text{ KHz}$

Amplitudes of three components

① Carrier: $V_c = 5 \text{ V}$

② LSB: $V_{LSB} = \frac{M V_c}{2} = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5 \text{ V}$

③ USB: $V_{USB} = \frac{M V_c}{2} = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5 \text{ V}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

② A FM Voltage Wave is given by,

$$e = 12 \cos(8 \times 10^8 t + 5 \sin 1250 t)$$

Find (i) carrier frequency (ii) signal frequency

(iii) modulation index (iv) maximum frequency deviation

(v) power dissipated by the FM wave in 10Ω resistor

(vi) BW.

Sol: Given $e = 12 \cos(8 \times 10^8 t + 5 \sin 1250 t)$ — ①

Comparing with $V(t) = V_c \cos(\omega_c t + \beta \sin \omega_m t)$ — ②

From ① & ②, $V_c = 12 \text{ V}$, $\omega_c = 8 \times 10^8$, $\beta = 5$, $\omega_m = 1250$

(i) f_c $f_c = \frac{\omega_c}{2\pi} = \frac{8 \times 10^8}{2\pi} = 95.5 \text{ MHz}$

(ii) f_m $f_m = \frac{\omega_m}{2\pi} = \frac{1250}{2\pi} = 199 \text{ Hz}$

(iii) β $\beta = 5$

(iv) AF $\Delta f = \beta f_m = 5 \times 199 = 995 \text{ Hz}$

(v) P

$$P = \frac{V_{rms}^2}{R}$$

$$= \frac{(V_c / \sqrt{2})^2}{10}$$

$$= 7.2 \text{ W}$$

(vii) $BW = 2(\Delta f + f_m) = 2(995 + 199) = 2.388 \text{ KHz}$

(13) In FM broadcasting $\Delta f_{max} = 75 \text{ KHz}$, & modulation frequency 15 KHz , what is deviation ratio

Sol: Given $\Delta f_{max} = \Delta f = 75 \text{ KHz}$, $f_m = 15 \text{ KHz}$

B
$$\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} = \frac{75 \text{ K}}{15 \text{ K}} = 5\% \text{ (Deviation ratio)}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

(14) For an AM wave, the maximum & minimum amplitudes are 500 mV & 300 mV respectively, find Modulation index & Percentage of Modulation

Sol: Given $V_{max} = 500 \text{ mV}$, $V_{min} = 300 \text{ mV}$.

We have,
$$M = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{V_{max} + V_{min}} = \frac{500 \times 10^{-3} - 300 \times 10^{-3}}{500 \times 10^{-3} + 300 \times 10^{-3}}$$

Modulation index \rightarrow $M = 0.25$ // Percentage of Modulation = 25% //

(15) In a FM SM, audio frequency is 500 Hz , AF Voltage is 2 V . & the frequency deviation is 4.8 KHz . Find the modulation index.

Sol: Given $f_m = 500 \text{ Hz}$, $V_m = 2 \text{ V}$, $\Delta f = 4.8 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}$, $\beta = ?$

We have,
$$\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} = \frac{4.8 \times 10^3}{500} = 9.6$$

(16) What is the antenna height required for AM with carrier frequency $f = 4 \text{ MHz}$? $[\because \lambda = c/f]$

Sol: Given $f(f_c) = 4 \text{ MHz}$,

Height (size) of antenna;
$$h = \frac{\lambda}{4} = \frac{c}{f \times 4} = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{4 \times 10^6 \times 4} = 18.75 \text{ m}$$

Q7 Find the maximum power efficiency of an AM Modulator.

Sol: Let carrier power $P_{car} = \frac{V_{car}^2}{R} = \frac{(V_c/\sqrt{2})^2}{R} = \frac{V_c^2}{2R}$ — (1)
 (Does not contain information)

Power contained in sidebands $P_{SB} = P_{LSB} + P_{USB}$
 (contains information)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashidhara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$$= \frac{V_{LSB}^2}{R} + \frac{V_{USB}^2}{R}$$

$$= \frac{(mV_c/2)^2}{R} + \frac{(mV_c/2)^2}{R}$$

$$= \frac{m^2 V_c^2}{4R}$$
 — (2)

Now,

Power efficiency $\eta_p = \frac{P_{SB}}{P_{car}} = \frac{m^2 V_c^2 / 4R}{V_c^2 / 2R} = \frac{m^2}{2}$

maximum value of $m = 1$

∴ maximum power efficiency $(\eta_p)_{max} = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5 @ 50\%$

Q8 The total power content of an AM signal is 1.5 kW. Determine the power being transmitted at the carrier freq & at each of the sidebands when the modulation is 50%.

Sol: Given $P_t = 1.5 \times 10^3 W$, $m = 50\% = 0.5$, $P_{car} = ?$,
 $P_{USB} = ?$, $P_{LSB} = ?$

Let $P_t = P_{car} + P_{USB} + P_{LSB}$ — (1) $P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$ — (2)

$$\Rightarrow P_{con} = \frac{P_t}{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}} = \frac{1.5 \times 10^3}{1 + \frac{0.5^2}{2}} = \underline{\underline{1.333 \text{ kW}}}$$

NOW FROM ①.

$$P_{USB} + P_{LSB} = P_t - P_{con}$$

$$= 1.5 \times 10^3 - 1.333 \times 10^3$$

$$= 167 \text{ W}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$\Rightarrow P_{USB} = P_{LSB} = \frac{167}{2} = \underline{\underline{83.5 \text{ W}}} \quad [\because P_{USB} = P_{LSB}]$$

① An AM wave has a power content of 1000W at its carrier frequency. Determine the power of each sideband for 70% modulation.

Sol: Given $P_{con} = 1000 \text{ W}$, $m = 70\% = 0.7$, $P_{LSB} = P_{USB} = ?$

$$\text{Wkt } P_{LSB} = P_{USB} = P_{con} \frac{m^2}{4} = \frac{1000 \times 0.7^2}{4} = \underline{\underline{122.5 \text{ W}}}$$

② Determine modulation factor of signal if each of the sidebands contains 100W, given total power of an AM wave = 800W.

Sol: Given $m = ?$, $P_{LSB} = P_{USB} = 100 \text{ W}$, $P_t = 800 \text{ W}$

$$\text{Wkt } P_t = P_{con} + P_{USB} + P_{LSB}$$

$$\Rightarrow P_{con} = P_t - P_{USB} - P_{LSB} = 800 - 100 - 100$$

$$\boxed{P_{con} = 600 \text{ W}}$$

Also we have $P_t = P_{con} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$

$$\Rightarrow m = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{P_t}{P_{con}} - 1\right)} = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{800}{600} - 1\right)} = 0.816 \text{ @ } 81.6\%$$

4) A sinusoidal carrier voltage of amplitude 150V is amplitude modulated by a signal of freq 1KHz resulting in maximum modulated carrier of 220V. Calculate modulation factor

Sol: Given $V_c = 150V$, $f_m = 1 \times 10^3 Hz$, $V_{max} = 220V$

$m = ?$

Let here,

$$m = \frac{V_{max} - V_{min}}{V_{max} + V_{min}}$$

$$= \frac{220 - 80}{220 + 80} \left[\begin{array}{l} \because V_{min} = \\ 2V_c - V_{max} \\ V_{min} = 80V \end{array} \right]$$

$m = 0.466 @ 46.6\%$

or) We have

$$m = \frac{V_m}{V_c} \quad \left[\begin{array}{l} V_m = V_{max} - V_c \\ V_m = 220 - 150 \\ V_m = 70 \end{array} \right]$$

$$= \frac{70}{150}$$

$m = 0.466 @ 46.6\%$

5) An AM transmitter radiates 10kW with the carrier unmodulated & 11kW when the carrier is sinusoidally modulated. Calculate the modulation index. If another sine wave with modulation index 50% is transmitted simultaneously, determine total power.

Sol: Given $P_{car} = 10kW$, $P_t = 11kW$, $m_1 = ?$

$m_2 = 50\% @ 0.5$, $P_{t_{total}} = ?$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Let $P_t = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{m_1^2}{2} \right)$

$$\Rightarrow m_1 = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{P_t}{P_{car}} - 1 \right)} = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{11 \times 10^3}{10 \times 10^3} - 1 \right)} = \underline{0.44}$$

Let $m = \sqrt{m_1^2 + m_2^2} = \sqrt{0.44^2 + 0.5^2} = 0.66$ (Total Modulation Index)

Total Power, $P_{total} = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right) = 10 \times 10^3 \left(1 + \frac{0.66^2}{2} \right) = \underline{12.178 kW}$

23) The antenna current of an AM transmitter, modulated to 50% by a sine wave is 10A. It increases to 11A as a result of simultaneous modulation by another sine wave. What is the modulation index of second wave?

Sol: Given $m_1 = 50\% = 0.5$, $I_{t1} = 10A$, $I_t = 11A$, $m_2 = ?$

Let $I_{car} = \frac{I_{t1}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{m_1^2}{2}}} = \frac{10}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{0.5^2}{2}}} = 9.428A$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Now $I_t = I_{car} \sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}}$

$\Rightarrow m = \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{I_t}{I_{car}} \right)^2 - 1 \right]} = \sqrt{2 \left[\left(\frac{11}{9.428} \right)^2 - 1 \right]} = 0.85$

Let $m^2 = m_1^2 + m_2^2$

$\Rightarrow m_2^2 = \sqrt{m^2 - m_1^2} = \sqrt{0.85^2 - 0.5^2} = 0.68$

4) An audio signal is $15 \sin(2\pi 2000t)$ Amplitude modulates a carrier signal $60 \sin(2\pi 100,000t)$. Determine

- (i) Modulation factor
- (ii) Frequency of signal & carrier
- (iii) Frequency components of modulated wave
- (iv) Plot the spectrum

Sol: Given $m(t) = 15 \sin(2\pi 2000t)$ comparing with $C(t) = 60 \sin(2\pi 100,000t)$

$m(t) = V_m \sin(\omega_m t)$

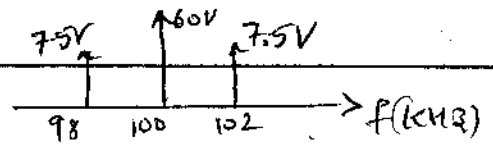
comparing with

$C(t) = V_c \sin(\omega_c t)$

$\Rightarrow V_m = 15$, $\omega_m = 2\pi f_m = 2\pi 2000$, $V_c = 60$, $f_c = 100,000 \text{ Hz}$
 $\Rightarrow f_m = 2000 \text{ Hz}$

(i) $M = \frac{V_m}{V_c} = \frac{15}{60} = 0.25$ (ii) $f_m = 2 \text{ kHz}$
 $f_c = 100 \text{ kHz}$

(ii) Carrier $f_c = 100\text{kHz}$



USB $f_{usb} = f_c + f_m = 100\text{kHz} + 2\text{kHz} = \underline{102\text{kHz}}$

LSB $f_{lsb} = f_c - f_m = 100\text{kHz} - 2\text{kHz} = \underline{98\text{kHz}}$

25) A Bandwidth of 20MHz is available for AM transmitters. If maximum audio freq to be used is 5kHz , how many stations can broadcast?

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

sol: Given $f_m = 5\text{kHz}$

$\Rightarrow \text{BW} = 2f_m$
 $= 2 \times 5\text{K}$

$\text{BW} = 10\text{kHz}$

Bandwidth required by each station

\therefore NO of stations

$N = \frac{20\text{MHz}}{10\text{kHz}}$

$N = 2000 \text{ Channels @ Stations}$

26) An FM signal has a resting freq of 105MHz & highest freq of 105.03MHz when modulated by a signal of freq 5kHz . Determine

- (i) freq deviation (ii) carrier swing (iii) Modulation index (iv) Lowest freq of FM wave (v) Bandwidth of signal.

sol: Given $f_c = 105\text{MHz}$, $f_h = 105.03\text{MHz}$, $f_m = 5\text{kHz}$

(i) Δf $\Delta f = f_h - f_c = 105.03 \times 10^6 - 105 \times 10^6 = \underline{30\text{kHz}}$

(ii) carrier swing $\text{carrier swing} = 2\Delta f = 60\text{kHz} //$

(iii) Modulation index $\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} = \frac{30 \times 10^3}{5 \times 10^3} = \underline{6}$

(iv) Lowest freq of FM wave $f_L = f_c - \Delta f = 105 \times 10^6 - 30 \times 10^3$

$f_c = 104.97 \text{ MHz}$

① BL $BL = 2(\Delta f + f_m) = 2(30 \times 10^3 + 5 \times 10^3) = 70 \text{ kHz}$

② When the modulating frequency in FM is 600 Hz & modulating voltage is 3V, the modulation index is 10. Calculate the maximum deviation. What is the modulation index when the modulating frequency is reduced to 400 Hz & the modulating voltage is changed to 5V.

Sol:

② Given $f_m = 600 \text{ Hz}$, $V_m = 3 \text{ V}$, $\beta = 10$

∴ Maximum deviation,

$\Delta f = \beta f_m = 10 \times 600 = 6 \text{ kHz}$ ($\because \beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$)

Also $K_f = \frac{\Delta f}{V_m} = \frac{6 \times 10^3}{3} = 2 \text{ kHz/V}$ ($\because \Delta f = K_f V_m$)

③ $f_m = 400 \text{ Hz}$, $V_m = 5 \text{ V}$, $\beta = ?$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

We have $\Delta f = K_f V_m = 2 \times 10^3 \times 5 = 10 \text{ kHz}$

Now $\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} = \frac{10 \times 10^3}{400} = 25$

③ A carrier wave of amplitude 3V & frequency 10MHz is frequency modulated by a sinusoidal signal of 6V & freq 5kHz. Find the frequency deviation & BW. Given constant = 1 kHz/Volt.

Sol
Given $V_c = 3 \text{ V}$, $f_c = 10 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$, $V_m = 6 \text{ V}$, $f_m = 5 \text{ kHz}$.

$\Delta f = ?$, $BL = ?$, $K_f = 1 \text{ kHz/V}$

$\Delta f = K_f V_m = 1 \times 10^3 \times 6 = 6 \text{ kHz}$ | $BL = 2(\Delta f + f_m) = 11 \text{ kHz}$

29) An AM broadcasting station broadcasts with an average transmitted power of 200W at a modulation index of 60%. Find the transmission power efficiency & the average power in carrier.

Sol: $P_t = 200W$, $m = 60\% = 0.6$

Carrier Power $P_c = \frac{P_t}{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}} = \frac{200}{1 + \frac{0.6^2}{2}} = 169.49W$

Transmission power efficiency

$\eta = \frac{m^2}{2 + m^2} = 0.1525 \text{ @ } \underline{\underline{15.25\%}}$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

30) The carrier frequency in an FM modulator is 10MHz & modulating freq is 20kHz. What are the first three upper sideband & lower sideband freq?

Sol Given $f_m = 20kHz$, $f_c = 10MHz$

Upper sideband frequencies

- ① $f_{USB1} = f_c + f_s = 10 \times 10^6 + 2 \times 10^3 = 10.002MHz = f_{USB1}$
- ② $f_{USB2} = f_c + 2f_s = 10 \times 10^6 + 2 \times 2 \times 10^3 = 10.004MHz = f_{USB2}$
- ③ $f_{USB3} = f_c + 3f_s = 10 \times 10^6 + 3 \times 2 \times 10^3 = 10.006MHz = f_{USB3}$

Lower sideband frequencies

- ④ $f_{LSB1} = f_c - f_s = 10 \times 10^6 - 2 \times 10^3 = 9.998MHz //$
- ⑤ $f_{LSB2} = f_c - 2f_s = 10 \times 10^6 - 2 \times 2 \times 10^3 = 9.996MHz //$
- ⑥ $f_{LSB3} = f_c - 3f_s = 10 \times 10^6 - 3 \times 2 \times 10^3 = 9.994MHz //$

31) In an FM SM, when the audio freq is 500Hz & the AF voltage is 2.4V, the frequency deviation is

4.8 KHz. If the AF Voltage is now increased to 7.2V, what is the new frequency deviation? If the AF voltage is raised to 10V while the AF is dropped to 200Hz, what is the deviation? Find the Modulation index in each case.

Sol: Given $f_m = 500 \text{ Hz}$, $V_m = 2.4 \text{ V}$, $\Delta f_1 = 4.8 \text{ KHz}$, $\beta_1 = ?$

Ⓐ $V_m = 7.2 \text{ V}$, $\Delta f_2 = ?$, $\beta_2 = ?$

Ⓑ $V_m = 10 \text{ V}$, $\Delta f_3 = ?$, $f_m = 200 \text{ Hz}$, $\beta_3 = ?$

Ⓐ $\beta_1 = \frac{\Delta f_1}{f_m} = \frac{4.8 \times 10^3}{500} = 9.6$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Ⓑ $\Delta f_2 = K_f V_m = 2 \times 10^3 \times 7.2 = 14.4 \text{ KHz}$

$K_f = \frac{\Delta f}{V_m}$
 $= \frac{4.8 \times 10^3}{2.4}$
 $= 2 \text{ KHz/V}$

$\beta_2 = \frac{\Delta f_2}{f_m} = \frac{14.4 \times 10^3}{500} = 28.8$

Ⓒ $\Delta f_3 = K_f V_m = 2 \times 10^3 \times 10 = 20 \text{ KHz}$

$\beta_3 = \frac{\Delta f_3}{f_m} = \frac{20 \times 10^3}{200} = 100\%$

2) A carrier wave of 10V & 10MHz is amplitude modulated by AF signal of 4KHz. Write the eqn of AM wave with modulation of 50%.

Sol Given $V_c = 10 \text{ V}$, $f_c = 10 \text{ MHz}$, $f_m = 4 \text{ KHz}$, $m = 50\%$
 $= 0.5$

AM wave is,

$v(t) = (V_c + V_m \sin \omega_m t) \sin \omega_c t$

$$V(t) = [10 + 5 \sin(2\pi \times 4 \times 10^3 t)] \sin(2\pi \times 10 \times 10^6 t)$$

(27)

$$m = \frac{V_m}{V_c}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_m = m V_c$$

$$= 0.5 \times 10$$

$$V_m = 5V$$

$$V(t) = V_c (1 + m \sin \omega_m t) \sin \omega_c t$$

$$V(t) = 10 [1 + 0.5 \sin(2\pi \times 4 \times 10^3 t)] \sin(2\pi \times 10 \times 10^6 t)$$

(28)

$$\omega_m = 2\pi f_m$$

$$\omega_c = 2\pi f_c$$

$$V(t) = V_c \sin \omega_c t + \frac{m V_c}{2} \cos(\omega_c - \omega_m) t - \frac{m V_c}{2} \cos(\omega_c + \omega_m) t$$

$$V(t) = 10 \sin(2\pi \times 10 \times 10^6 t) + \frac{0.5 \times 10}{2} \cos(2\pi \times 10 \times 10^6 - 2\pi \times 4 \times 10^3) t$$

$$- \frac{0.5 \times 10}{2} \cos(2\pi \times 10 \times 10^6 + 2\pi \times 4 \times 10^3) t$$

$$\Rightarrow V(t) = 10 \sin(2\pi \times 10^7 t) + 2.5 \cos[2\pi(10^7 - 4 \times 10^3) t] - 2.5 \cos[2\pi(10^7 + 4 \times 10^3) t]$$

(33) A 20 MHz, 3V carrier is modulated by a 1 kHz signal. The maximum frequency deviation is 10 kHz & the same modulation index is used for both FM & PM. Write expressions for FM & PM

Sol: Given $f_c = 20 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$, $V_c = 3V$, $f_m = 1 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}$, $\Delta f = 10 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}$

$$\beta = m_p = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} = \frac{10 \times 10^3}{1 \times 10^3} = 10$$

FM wave, $V(t) = V_c \cos[2\pi f_c t + \beta \sin(2\pi f_m t)]$

$$\Rightarrow V(t) = 3 \cos[2\pi \times 20 \times 10^6 t + 10 \sin(2\pi \times 10^3 t)]$$

PM wave, $V(t) = V_c \cos(\omega_c t + m_p \cos \omega_m t)$

$$\Rightarrow V(t) = 3 \cos[2\pi \times 20 \times 10^6 t + 10 \cos(2\pi \times 10^3 t)]$$

($\because \omega_m = 2\pi f_m$ & $\omega_c = 2\pi f_c$)

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

TRANSDUCERS

①

Syllabus: Introduction, Passive Electrical Transducers, Resistive transducer, Resistance thermometer, Thermistor, Linear Variable Differential Transformer (LVDT) Active Electrical Transducer, Piezoelectric transducer, Photoelectric transducer.

* Definition of transducer:

A transducer is a device which converts energy
① information from one form to another.

②

A transducer is a device which converts a Physical Quantity ② non electrical quantity (temperature, pressure, displacement, force, sound, light etc) into electrical signal (either voltage ② current)

Note:

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

① Classification of transducers:

② Based on the role of transducers:

- Input transducer (Instrument transducer) &
- Output transducer (Power transducer)

→ An input transducer can be used as a measurement device.

→ An output transducer delivers output signal like force, torque, pressure ② displacement when the electrical signal is applied as an input.

③ Based on the operation:

(Externally Powered)

- Active transducer (Self-generating) & Passive transducer

→ Active transducer develop the ~~or~~ voltage ② current by absorbing the energy needed from the measurement (input)

Ex: Thermo-couple, Piezo electric transducer, Photo-electric cell & photovoltaic cell.

→ Passive transducer accepts energy from an external source to produce output signal (they may absorb some energy from the measurand) (depend on charge in R, L, C)

Ex: Resistance strain gauge, thermistor, Linear variable differential transformer (LVDT), Hall effect sensor, & photomultiplier tube

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

① Based on output signal:

● Mechanical transducer & Electrical transducer

→ Mechanical transducer produces mechanical nature signal at its output. (Primary transducer)

→ Electrical transducer produces electrical signal at its output. (Secondary transducer)

① Based on the nature of output:

- Analog transducer
- Digital transducer

② Sensor & transducer:

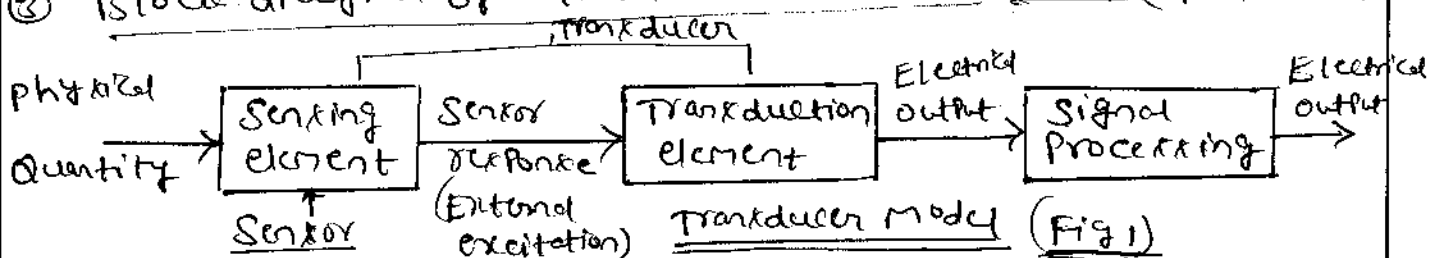
→ Sensor (Primary sensing element) is used to detect any quantity and report it in another form of energy (usually electrical signal)

Ex: Intensity & Luminance of a source may be measured by sensor.

→ Transducer converts a signal from one form to another form of energy (Transduction element) (one type to another type)

Ex: Temperature is measured by transducer.

③ Block diagram of transducer model (Fig 1) (Electrical transducer)



④ Transducers Connected in Series

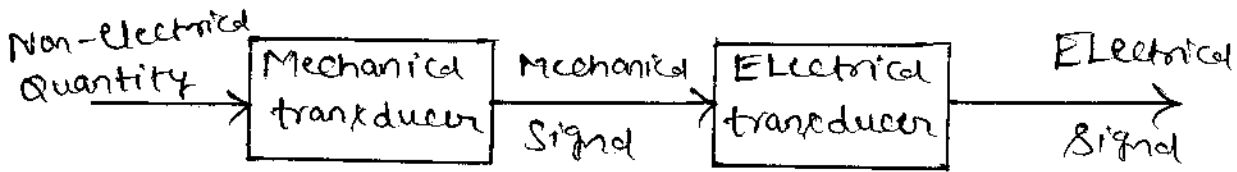


Fig ②: Transducers Connected in Series

⑤ Measurements: (Quantity to be measured):

Displacement, Position, Velocity, acceleration, Force, Load, Strain, Rotation, encoding, Vibrations, Flow, Vacuum, temperature, Pressure, Medical imaging, Acoustic fields, Magnetic field, Torque, PH and Partial Pressure of O₂ and CO₂ in blood etc

⑥ Advantages & Disadvantages of electrical transducers

→ Advantages

- ① Amplification & attenuation of electrical signal can be easily done.
- ② Can be controlled with a very small level of power.
- ③ Mass-inertia effects are minimized.
- ④ Effect of friction are minimized.
- ⑤ The electrical signal can be easily used, transmitted, and processed for the purpose of measurement.
- ⑥ ~~No~~ No mechanical wear and tear.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

→ Disadvantages

- ① Sensors and signal processing circuits are comparatively expensive.
- ② Less reliable (Sometimes) because of ageing & drift of active components.

④ Desirable Properties of Good Transducer ⑤

Parameters of transducer ⑥ Requirements of transducer:

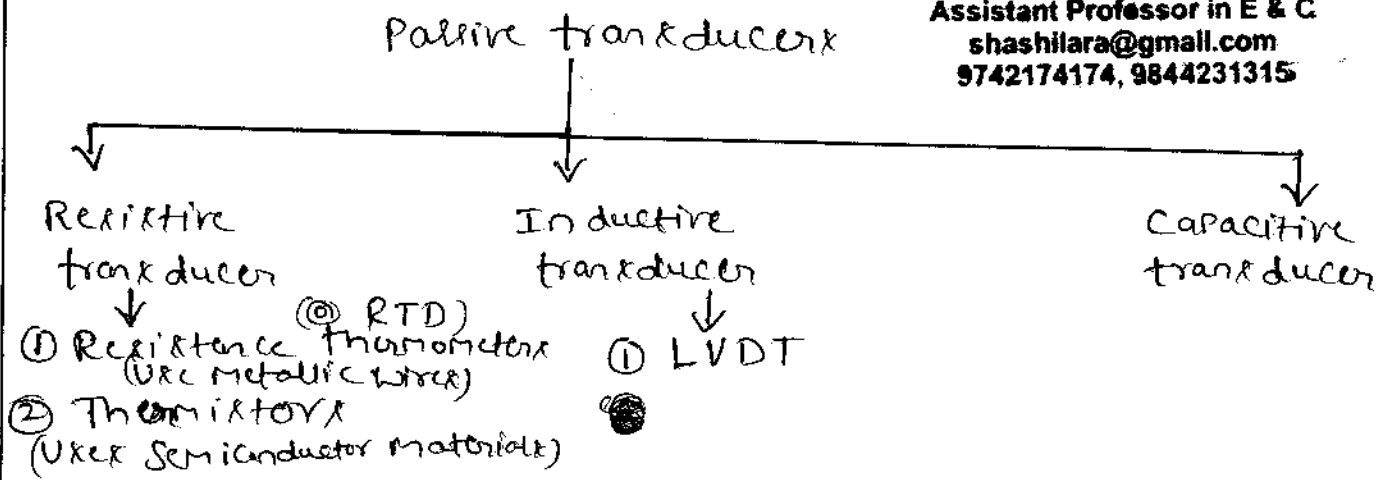
- ① Linearity: The input-output characteristics should be linear.
- ② Ruggedness: It should be capable of withstanding overload.
- ③ Dynamic response ④ Dynamic range: It must operate smoothly (uniformly) over a wide range of frequencies.
- ④ Repeatability (Precision): It should produce the same output ~~for~~ when the same input is applied repeatedly.
- ⑤ Accuracy: It should produce high degree of accuracy.
- ⑥ Stability & Reliability: The output should be independent of temperature, vibration & other environmental variations. (Error should be minimal)
- ⑦ Residual deformation: It must retain its original shape and structure even after long period of usage.
- ⑧ Physical size: It must have minimal weight & volume.
- ⑨ Range: It must cover a different range of measurand values.
- ⑩ Input threshold: It must be possible to detect smallest value of the measurand quantity.
- ⑪ Resolution: It should detect a small change in the measurand quantity.
- ⑫ Loading effects: No loading effect should happen.
- ⑬ Cost: It should be cost-effective.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashihara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

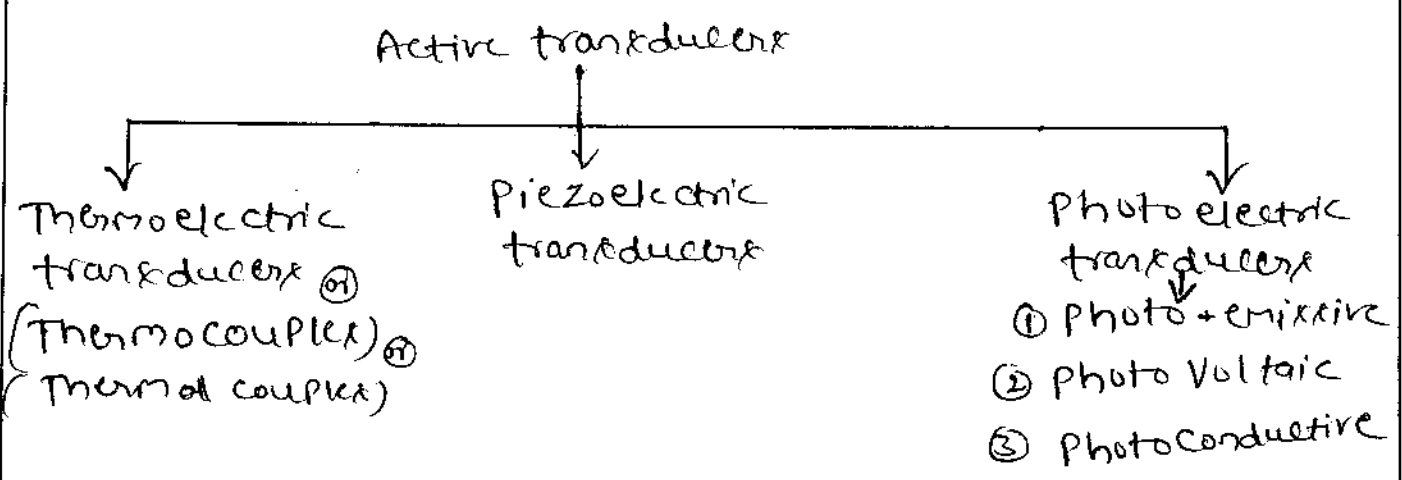
* Electrical transducers

① Passive electrical transducers: The transducers that are based on the variation of the parameters (Resistance, Capacitance & Inductance) due to the application of any external stimulus are known as Passive transducers

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



② Active electrical transducers: The transducers which produce output ~~without~~ without external source are known as active transducers.



* Passive electrical transducers:

① Resistive transducers:

→ Resistive transducers are passive transducers, in which the resistance changes due to change in physical quantity sensed (measurand)

→ DC Resistance of any metal conductor is given by,

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A} \text{ } (\Omega)$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Where, ρ → Resistivity (or) Specific resistance of the conductor ($\Omega\text{-m}$)

L → Length of conductor (m)

A → Cross-sectional area of conductor (m^2)

→ Change in resistance occurs when the external stimulus (or) Physical phenomenon (or) input signal (or) measurement affects (changes) either the dimension (L or A) or the resistivity (ρ) of the element.

→ For measurement of displacement, force, pressure, torque etc

When the resistive elements (conductors) are subjected to pressure, force, torque etc, the dimension (L or A) changes thereby resulting in change in resistance. Ex: Strain gauges

→ For measurement of temperature

Variation in temperature causes change in the resistivity of the conductor thereby resulting in the change in resistance. Ex: Resistance thermometer.

→ Thermistor & photoconductive transducer rely (work) on changing the concentration of charge carriers.

→ Resistive transducer (or) Resistive potentiometer consists of a resistive element provided with a sliding contact (wiper).

Motion of sliding contact may be translatory (or) rotational.

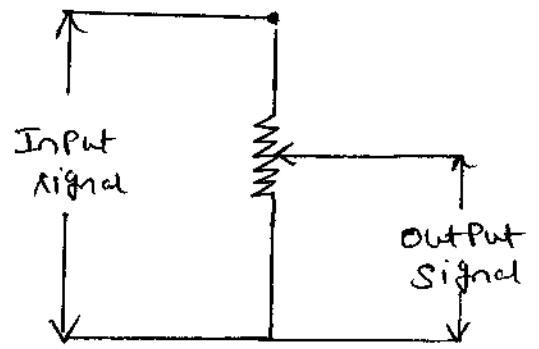


Fig 3: Resistive transducer

→ Merits & Advantages

- ① Easy to operate
- ② Simple in construction
- ③ Efficiency is very high
- ④ Inexpensive
- ⑤ Both AC and DC can be used
- ⑥ Speed of response is high
- ⑦ High resolution
- ⑧ Available in various sizes.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

→ Demerits & Drawbacks & Disadvantages

- ① A large force is required to move the sliding contact (When potentiometer is used)
- ② The sliding contact (Wiper) can wear out, become misalignment & generate noise.

③ Resistance Thermometers detectors (RTD)

④ Resistance temperature

→ Construction:

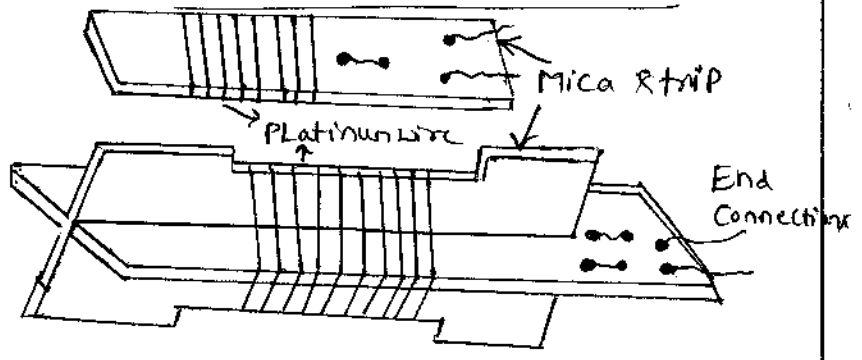


FIG 4: Resistance thermometer

- The wire resistance thermometers usually consist of a coil wound on a mica & ceramic former as shown in fig 4.

- The coil is wound in bifilar form so as to make it non-inductive. The coils are available in different sizes & with resistance values ranging from 10 to 25kΩ.

- The resistive element is normally enclosed in a protective tube of Pyrex glass, porcelain, Quartz & nickel.

~~• The element is brought~~

- The tube is evacuated and sealed & filled with air or any other inert gas and kept around atmospheric pressure.

- The element is brought to contact with fluid whose temperature is to be measured.

→ Principle of operation:

- Resistance thermometer is used to measure the temp by measuring resistance in a wire
- The resistance of conductor changes when its temp changes.
- The resistive element is usually made of a solid material, a metal, metallic alloy @ a semiconductor.
- Most commonly used materials for resistance thermometers are Platinum, Copper and Nickel.
- Platinum is used (most stable) predominantly.
- The resistivity of the metal increases with temperature (Positive temperature coefficient)
- The resistivity of the semiconductors & insulators generally decreases with temperature (Negative temperature coefficient)
- The resistance R_T of a resistance thermometer at any temperature $T(^{\circ}C)$ is,

$$R_T = R_0(1 + \alpha T)$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Where, $R_0 \rightarrow$ Resistance at $0^{\circ}C$ (Ω)

$T \rightarrow$ Temperature in $^{\circ}C$

$\alpha \rightarrow$ Temperature coefficient of resistance ($1/^{\circ}C$)

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\Delta T} \frac{\Delta R}{R_0}$$

Where, $\Delta T \rightarrow$ Change in temperature in $^{\circ}C$

$\Delta R/R_0 \rightarrow$ Fractional change in resistance.

$\Delta R \rightarrow$ Change in resistance (Ω)

- The Self-heating coefficient E is,

$$E = \frac{\Delta t}{R_T I^2}$$

Where, $\Delta t =$ (Indicated temperature) - (Fluid temperature) ^{Medium} ($^{\circ}C$)

$R_T \rightarrow$ Resistance of thermometer (Ω)

$I \rightarrow$ measurement current (A)

- Fig 5 shows the resistance thermometer with Wheatstone bridge.

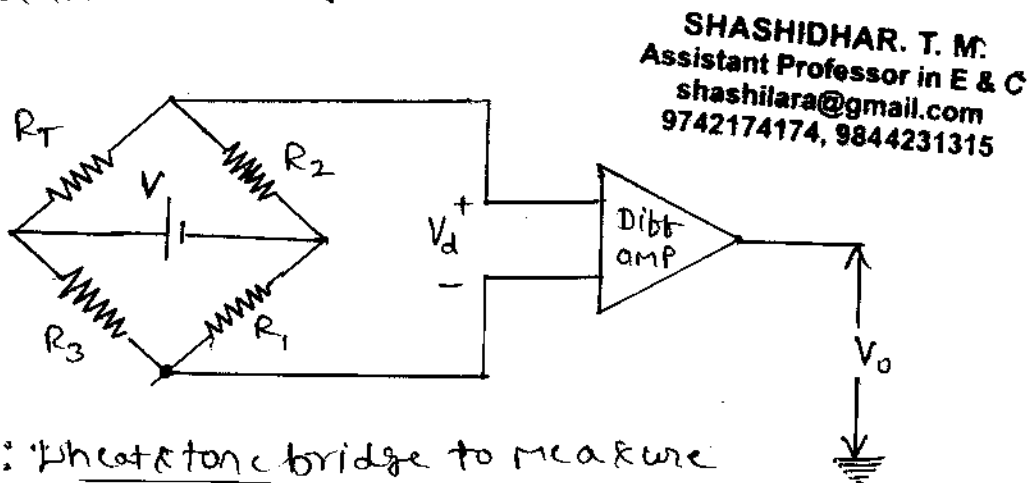


Fig 5: Wheatstone bridge to measure change in R_T

When R_T changes due to change in temperature, the bridge is imbalanced, generating a voltage V_d which is amplified and measured.

- The three main categories of RTD are

- Thin film
- Wire-wound
- Coiled elements

Advantages:

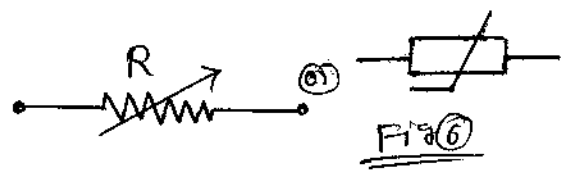
- High accuracy
- Excellent stability
- Excellent Precision
- Linear temperature-resistance characteristics
- Fast ^(Rapid) response
- Does not require temperature compensation
- Easy install
- Wide operating range
- Low drift

→ Disadvantages:

- ① Expensive
- ② Requires bridge circuit and external power source
- ③ Possibility of self-heating
- ④ Large size
- ⑤ Lower sensitivity
- ⑥ Tends to drift years of use

⑤ Thermistor:

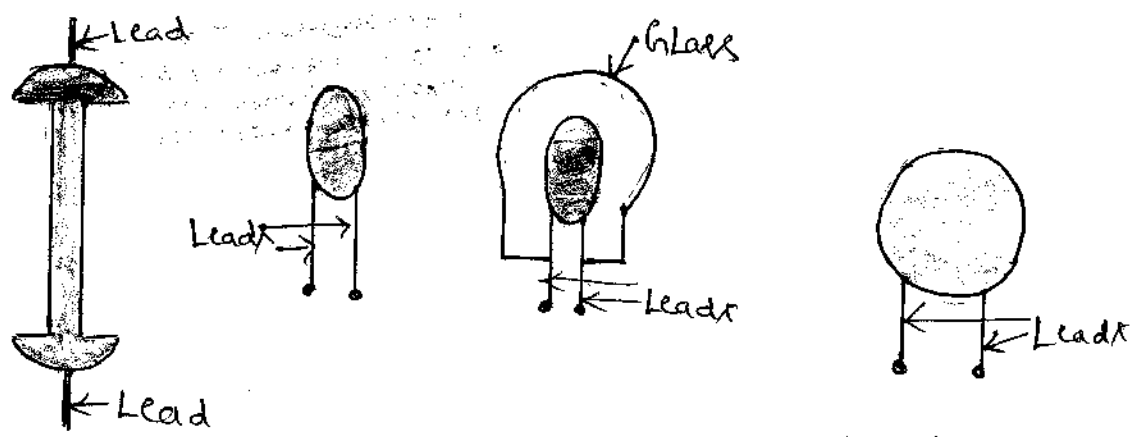
→ Symbol:



→ Construction:

• Thermistors are made up of oxides of Cobalt, nickel, copper, iron, uranium and manganese.

• Different structures of thermistor are shown in fig ④



① Rod ② Bead ③ Probe ④ Disc

Fig ④: Different structures of thermistors

- ① Rod: Diameter → 1.25mm - 4.25mm
Length → 12.5mm - 50mm
- ② Bead: Diameter → 0.15mm
- ③ probe: Bead with glass coating
- ④ Disc: Diameter → 10mm

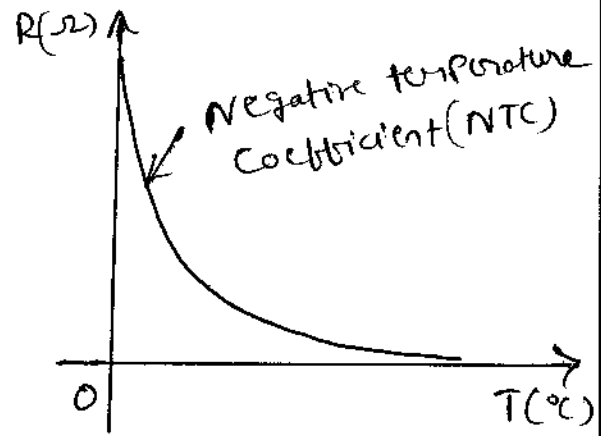
SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashihara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

→ Principle of operation:

→ Thermistor word is derived from THERMally sensitive RESISTOR (not metals).

→ Thermistor is a two terminal semiconductor slab whose resistance decreases with increase in temperature unlike a metal. (negative temperature coefficient)

→ Fig 8 shows the temperature - resistance characteristic of a thermistor.



→ Thermistor has very high NTC (3-5% per °C)

→ The resistance of the thermistor is (at T(K))

$$R = R_0 e^{\beta \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_0} \right)} \quad \text{--- ①}$$

Fig 8

Where, R_0 → Resistance at T_0 (K)

β → Constant to be determined experimentally.

If T is large, then eqn ① reduces to.

$$R = R_0 e^{\beta/T} \quad \text{--- ②}$$

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

→ APPLICATIONS:

- ① Thermistors are used in the measurement of
 - Ⓐ Temperature Ⓑ FLOW & Pressure Ⓒ Liquid level
 - Ⓓ Voltage & Power Ⓔ Vacuum Ⓕ Thermal conductivity.
- ② It can be used as current limiting devices for circuit protection (as replacement for fuses)
- ③ Used as timers
- ④ Used as heater in automotive industry to provide additional heat inside cabin with diesel engine
- ⑤ Used as temperature compensated Synthesizer Voltage Controlled oscillators.
- ⑥ Used in consumer appliances (Coffee makers, hair dryers etc)
- ⑦ Military Ⓓ Medical electronics etc

→ Advantages

- ① Cost effective (Low cost)
- ② Small size
- ③ Fast response over a narrow temperature range
- ④ Good sensitivity (Sense very small changes in temp)
- ⑤ Higher accuracy
- ⑥ Rugged
- ⑦ Flexibility in configuration
- ⑧ Chemically stable

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

→ Disadvantages

- ① Temperature - resistance characteristic is non-linear.
- ② Not suitable for wide temperature range.
- ③ Need of shielded cables due to high resistance.
- ④ Self-heating
- ⑤ Moisture failures (Non-glass only)

Note:

(RTD)

① Comparison between Resistance thermometer & thermistor

Parameter	Resistance thermometer	Thermistor.
① Principle of operation	Positive temperature of coefficient	Negative temperature of coefficient
② Characteristic	Linear	Non-linear (Exponential)
③ Sensitivity	Medium	High
④ Material	Pure metal (Platinum, copper & Nickel)	Ceramic & Polymer (Copper, iron, manganese etc)
⑤ Temperature range	Large (-200 to 650°C)	Limited (-100 to 325°C)
⑥ Accuracy	High	Moderate
⑦ Cost	High	Low

⑧ Size	Large	Small
⑨ Response Speed	High	High over a narrow temperature range
⑩ Type	Passive	Passive
⑪ Power required	Constant Voltage (or) Current	Constant Voltage (or) Current
⑫ Self-heating	No (Possibility Less)	Yes
⑬ Rugged	No	Yes
⑭ Packages	Not Flexible	Flexible

② Important Parameters

- ① Time constant: Time for resistance to fall from final value to 63% of the final value (Range: 1-50s)
- ② Dissipation factor: Power dissipated in Watt / °C temperature (Range: 1-10mW/°C)
- ③ Resistance ratio: Ratio of the resistance at 20°C to resistance at 125°C. (Range: 3-60)

SHASHIDHAR. T. A.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

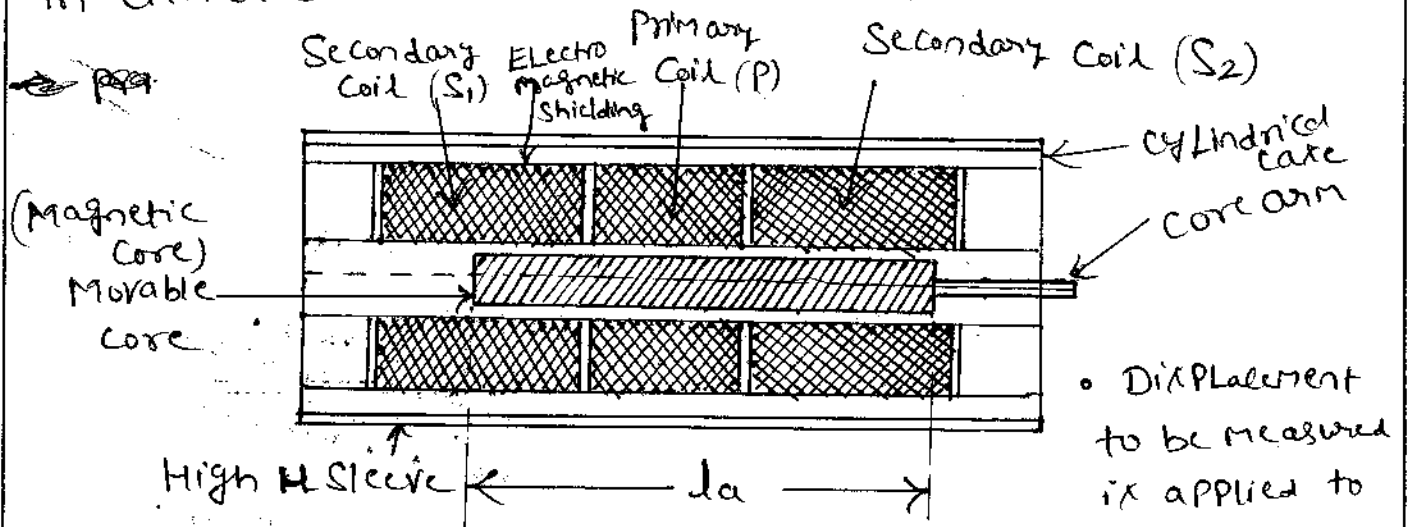
② Inductive transducer:

LVDT (Linear Variable Differential Transformer):

- LVDT works under the principle of mutual induction
- LVDT is a type of inductive transducer (electrical transformer) used for measuring displacement. (non-electrical energy (displacement) is converted into an electrical energy)
- Here the inductance is varied according to the physical quantity to be measured (measurand) (or) displacement

→ Construction: (Fig 9)

- LVDT consists of a Primary coil (P), uniformly wound over a certain length of the plastic cylindrical former and two identical Secondary coils symmetrically wound on either side of the Primary coil and away from the centre.
- The Secondary coils are connected in series but in phase opposition so that the output voltage (V_o) will be difference between the individual voltages $(V_{o1}$ & $V_{o2})$ induced in the secondary coils (hence the name differential transformer).
- A soft iron core (ferrous rod) is kept inside the plastic former & is free to move inside the former in either direction from the central (null) position.



Fig(9) : Construction of LVDT

• Displacement to be measured is applied to core arm.

→ Principle of operation (Working) :

- When an AC voltage (50 Hz to 20 kHz) is applied to the Primary coil, an alternating magnetic field is induced, which in turn induces voltages (emf) in the Secondary coils whose value depends on the core position.

- Let us consider three cases :

Case 1: (Fig 10)

The induced voltages (EMF) in secondary windings are equal. ($V_{01} = V_{02}$)

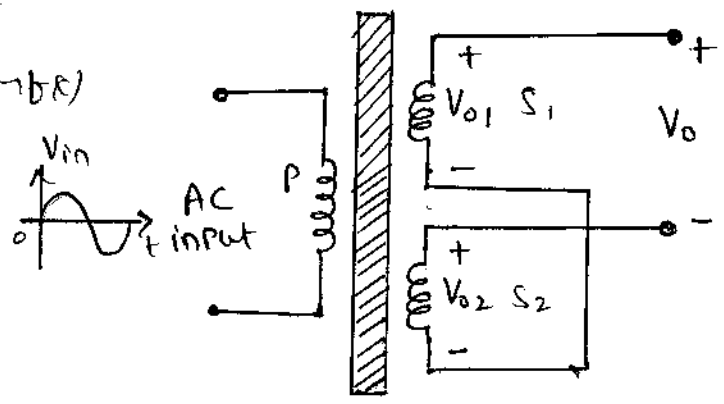
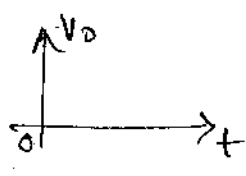


Fig 10: Core in Centre Position

∴ Output voltage 'Vo' is,

$$V_o = V_{01} - V_{02}$$

$$V_o = 0$$



Case 2: (Fig 11)

The induced voltage (EMF) in secondary coil (S1) is greater than EMF in secondary coil (S2). ($V_{01} > V_{02}$)

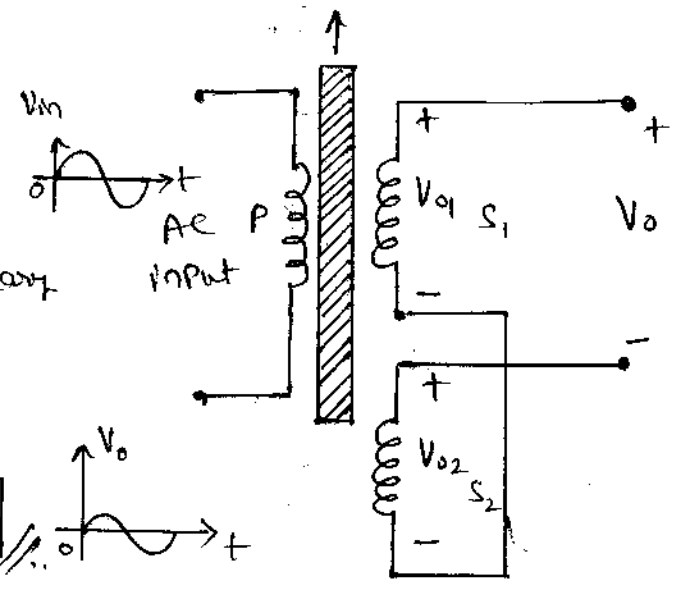
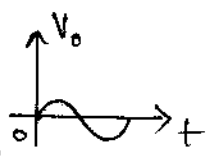


Fig 11: Core towards Secondary coil (S1)

∴ output voltage 'Vo' is,

$$V_o = V_{01} - V_{02} \text{ (Positive)}$$



SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhar@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Case 3: (Fig 12)

The induced voltage (EMF) in secondary coil (S2) is greater than EMF in secondary coil (S1). ($V_{02} > V_{01}$)

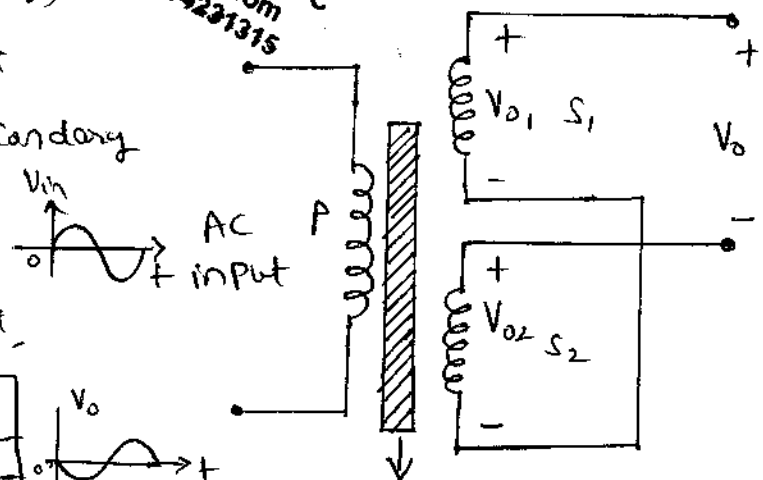
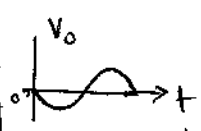


Fig 12: Core towards Secondary coil (S2)

∴ output voltage 'Vo' is,

$$V_o = V_{02} - V_{01} \text{ (Positive)}$$

$$V_o = V_{01} - V_{02} \text{ (negative)}$$



• The transfer characteristic of LVDT is shown in fig(13)

→ Applications :

- ① Used to measure force
- ② Used to measure weight
- ③ Used to measure Pressure
- ④ Used to measure velocity, acceleration
- ⑤ Sensing vibrations
- ⑥ Used in all applications where displacement ranging from fraction millimeter to centimeter.

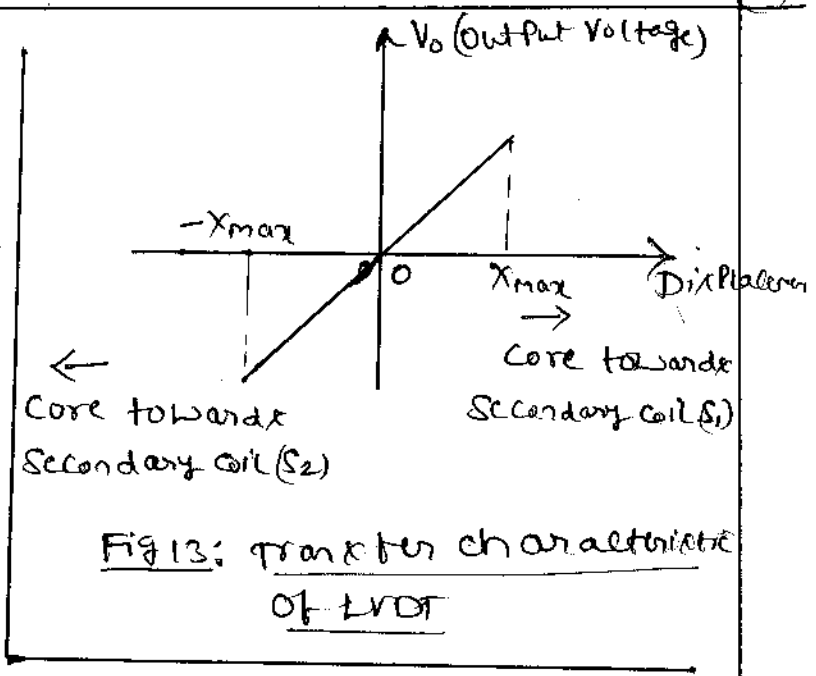


Fig 13: transfer characteristics of LVDT

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

→ Advantages :

- ① Infinite resolution
- ② Linear
- ③ High output
- ④ High sensitivity
- ⑤ Ruggedness
- ⑥ Less friction (Less wear & tear)
- ⑦ Low power consumption
- ⑧ Low hysteresis
- ⑨ Good dynamic range
- ⑩ Relatively low cost
- ⑪ Robust
- ⑫ Short response time
- ⑬ No permanent damage (Exceed the designed range)

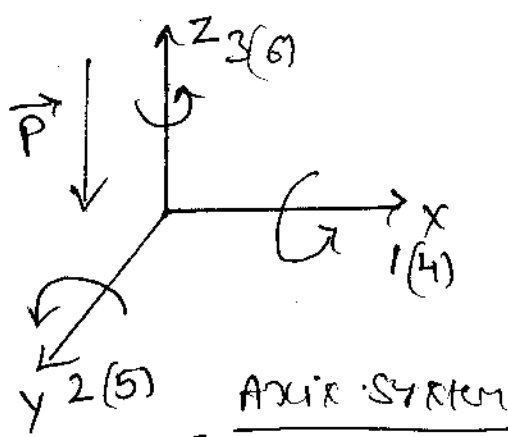
→ Disadvantages :

- ① Very high displacement is required for generating high voltage.
- ② Sensitive to magnetic field (Shielding is required)
- ③ Performance is affected by vibrations.
- ④ Greatly affected by temperature changes.
- ⑤ It can only run at speeds up to 1/10 or so of the excitation frequency (input).

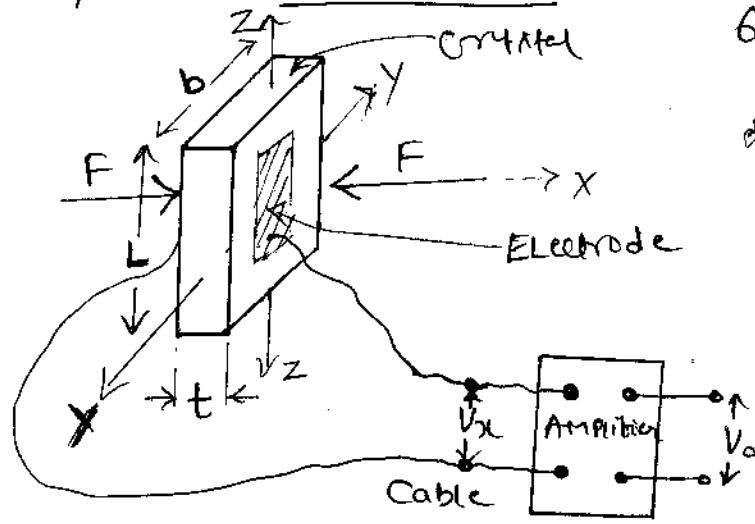
* Active Electrical transducers :

① Piezoelectric transducers : → Construction & Operation

* The ability of certain materials (Crystal & certain Ceramics)



#	Axis	
1	x	* Electric Polarization \vec{P} in
2	y	$\vec{P} = P_{xx}\vec{i} + P_{yy}\vec{j} + P_{zz}\vec{k}$
3	z	
4		Shear around x
5		Shear around y
6		Shear around z



* The output voltage V_o is,

$$V_o = g t F \text{ (Volts)}$$

$$\text{Where, } = g \frac{A}{t} P \quad \left[g = \frac{K}{t} \right]$$

g → Voltage sensitivity (Vm/N)

F → Force (N)

P → Pressure (F/A) (N/m²)

A → Area of crystal (m²)

t → Thickness of the crystal (m)

K → Piezoelectric constant

Fig (14): Piezoelectric transducer

→ Advantages

- ① High frequency response
- ② Small size
- ③ High output
- ④ Light weight
- ⑤ Simple signal conditioning
- ⑥ Negligible phase shift
- ⑦ High mechanical rigidity (Rugged)
- ⑧ Linearity
- ⑨ Low leakage
- ⑩ High sensitivity
- ⑪ Wide measuring range
- ⑫ Ultra low noise

S. TASHIDHAR, I. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashihara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

- ⑬ Reliable & robust
- ⑭ Unaffected by external EM fields
- ⑮ Polarity sensitive

→ Disadvantages:

- ① Cannot measure static conditions
- ② Output affected by temp. changes.
- ③ Output affected by long use or high temperature

to produce electric charges (which in turn produce potential @ voltage) when mechanical stress is applied across them is called Piezoelectric effect (1)

Piezoelectricity & such crystals (materials) are called Piezoelectric crystals (Piezoelectric transducers) (Converts mechanical energy into electrical energy)

* The Piezoelectric effect is reversible, i.e. conversely, if a varying potential is applied to crystal, it will change the dimensions of the crystal.

* Voltage depends on the magnitude & direction of force applied to crystal.

* Materials exhibiting the Piezoelectric phenomenon are Quartz, Rochelle salt, tourmaline, Ammonium Dihydrogen phosphate (ADP), Lithium Sulphate (LS) & Di Potassium Tartrate (DKT) etc

* The word Piezo. is derived from the Greek word 'Piezies', which means to 'squeeze' @ Press.

- * Types of Piezoelectric materials
 - ① Natural crystals (Ex: Quartz, Rochelle salt) ← tourmaline
 - ② Synthetic crystals (Ex: Lithium phosphate) ↓
 - ③ Ferroelectric ceramics (Ex: Barium titanate)

* Based on the direction of force applied, there are three modes of operation.

- ① Thickness expander mode
- ② Length expander mode
- ③ Volume expander mode

* Fig (14) shows Piezoelectric transducer.

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

→ APPLICATIONS

- ① It is used to measure force, pressure, acceleration, torque, strain & amplitude of vibration.
- ② Used in ① Aircraft flight test ② Generation of ultrasonic frequencies ③ Gas lighters ④ Electronic cigarette lighters ⑤ Aero-space ⑥ Medicine ⑦ Industry ⑧ Microphones (i) Actuator

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
 Assistant Professor in E & C
 shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

② Photo electric transducer:

→ Construction & Working

* If light is incident on a metal surface, the entire quantum energy is converted into kinetic energy of the electron & helps the electrons to move & contribute current in the metal. This is called photoelectric effect

* According to operating principle, photoelectric transducers may be grouped as follows.

- ① Photoemissive ② Photo Voltaic ③ Photo conductive (resistive)

* Photoemissive cell (Photoemissive transducer) (Photo tube)

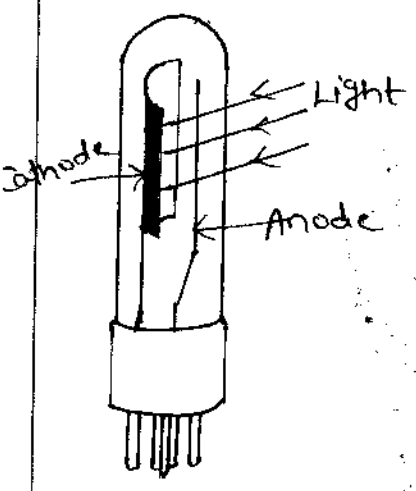


Fig 15: Photoemissive cell

- It consists of semi-cylindrical ① V-shaped electrode (cathode) coated with a photoemissive material and an anode (thin wire), both enclosed in an evacuated glass bulb (Fig 15).
- When the light falls on the cathode, electrons are emitted and are attracted by the anode & hence current flows.
- Current depends on (i) Intensity of incident radiation & (ii) Anode - Cathode voltage.

* Photo Voltaic cell (Solar Cell)

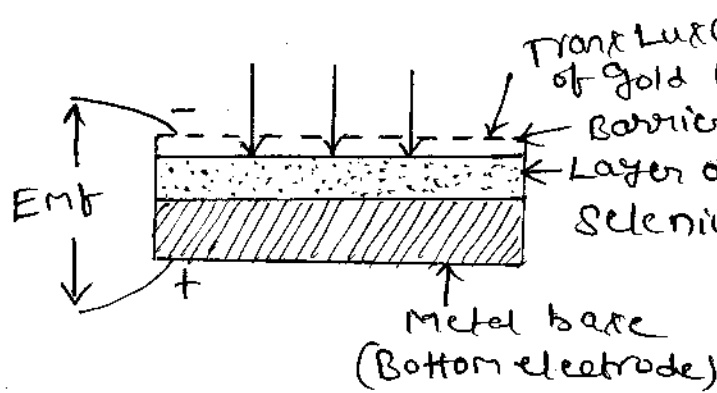


Fig 16: Photo Voltaic transducer (Selenium cell)

- It consists of a metal electrode (bottom) on which a layer of selenium is deposited, on the top of this a barrier layer is formed which is coated with a very thin layer of gold. (Fig 16)

- When light falls on semiconductor (Selenium), a potential (voltage) is generated.

* Photo conductive cell (Photo resistive cell):

Light Dependent Resistor (LDR)

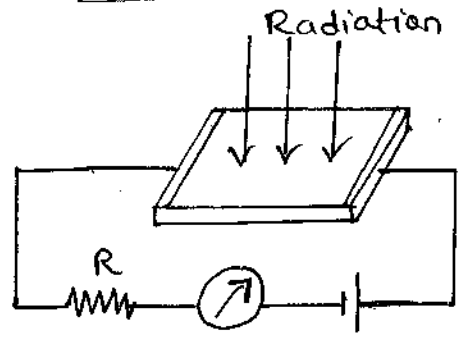


Fig 17: Photo Conductive transducer

- It consists of semiconductor material (like selenium, cadmium sulphide, lead sulphide and thallium sulphide) with two electrodes.

- When the light is illuminated on semiconductor material, its resistance decreases & current through the circuit increases.

→ Advantages

- ① Low cost
- ② Fast response
- ③ Sensitivity
- ④ Energy conversion efficient

→ Disadvantages

- ① Incident light must have enough energy to impart to electrons

SHASHIDHAR. T. M.
Assistant Professor in E & C
shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

→ Applications

① Photo-emissive cell

- ⓐ Photometry & Colorimetry
- ⓑ Sound reproduction from a motion-picture film
- ⓒ on & off circuits
- ⓓ Automatic opening of door
- ⓔ sorting of objects on a conveyor belt.

② Photo-voltaic cell

- ⓐ Automatic Control Systems
- ⓑ Television circuits
- ⓒ Sound Motion Picture and reproducing equipment.
- ⓓ Solar vehicles, Solar lamps
- ⓔ Space crafts.

③ photo-conductive cell

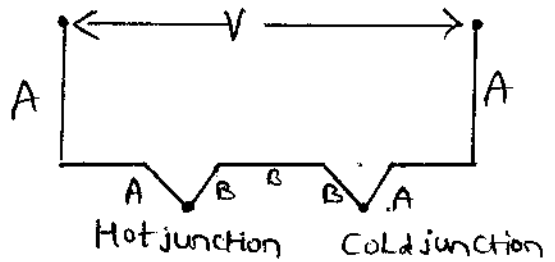
- ⓐ Detection of Ships & Aircrafts
- ⓑ Telephony by modulated infrared light
- ⓒ optical communication systems
- ⓓ object counting in industry.

③ Thermoelectric transducers ⓐ Thermo Coupler ⓑ Thermal Coupler:

→ It converts thermal energy ⓐ heat energy into electrical energy & vice versa.

→ It consists of two wires of different metals, joined together to form two junctions as shown in fig ①.

→ one of the two junctions is called the hot junction & the other is cold junction (reference junction)



A: Metal A
B: Metal B

Fig ①: Thermo Couple

→ There are four physical effects that contribute to the output voltage of the thermocouple.

- (a) Seebeck effect
 - (b) Peltier effect
 - (c) Thomson effect
 - (d) Joule heating → Irreversible thermoelectric effect
- } Thermodynamically reversible effects

(a) Seebeck effect:

→ It is the conversion of heat directly into electricity at the junction of different types of wire (at different temperatures)

→ In 1821, the German physicist Thomas Johann Seebeck discovered that a compass needle would be deflected by a closed loop formed by two different metals joined in two places, with a temperature difference between the joints (because of magnetic field).

→ EMF is given by, $E_{\text{emf}} = -S \nabla T$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Where, $S \rightarrow$ Seebeck effect @ Thermopower (-100 $\mu\text{V/K}$ to 1000 $\mu\text{V/K}$)
 $\nabla T \rightarrow$ Gradient in temperature

(b) Peltier effect:

- It is the reverse phenomenon of Seebeck effect
- It is the conversion of electricity into heat (or cool)
- The amount of heat liberated @ absorbed is proportional to the quantity of current that crosses the junction.
- The amount of heat liberated @ absorbed when one ampere passes for a second is called the Peltier coefficient
- Peltier heat generated at the junction per unit time is

$$\dot{Q} = (\pi_A - \pi_B) I$$

Where π_A (π_B) → Peltier coefficient of conductor A (B)
 $I \rightarrow$ Electric current (from A to B)

① Thomson effect :

→ It is also the reverse phenomenon of Seebeck effect.

→ It is the conversion of electricity into heat

→ Ex: When a current flows through a copper conductor, having thermal gradient (temperature difference) along its length, heat is liberated at any point where the current is in the same direction as the heat flow, while heat is absorbed at any point when the current flows in the direction opposite to the flow of heat.

→ Heat Production rate per unit Volume,

$$Q = -K J \cdot \nabla T$$

K → Thomson coefficient

∇T → Temperature gradient

J → current density.

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

→ First Thomson relation is,

$$K = \frac{d\pi}{dT} - S$$

Application of thermocouple

Steel industry, gas-bed heating,

Thermoelectric refrigerator ⊕

generator, measurement of temperature and radiation.

② Joule heating :

→ It is irreversible thermoelectric effect.

→ Heat is generated whenever a current is passed through a resistive material.

→ The electric current 'I' is transformed into heat 'P' according to,

$$P = R I^2$$

Where, P → Power (W)

R → Electrical resistance of the conductor (Ω)

I → Electric current (A).

Problems

- ① In a Linear Voltage differential transformer (LVDT) the output voltage is 1.8V at maximum displacement. At a certain load the deviation from linearity is maximum and is $\pm 0.0045V$ from a straight line through the origin. Find the linearity at the given load.

Sol: Given $V_0 = 1.8V$, $\Delta V = \pm 0.0045V$

$$\therefore \text{Linearity} = \frac{\Delta V}{V_0} = \frac{\pm 0.0045}{1.8} = \pm 0.0025 = \pm 0.25\%$$

- ② A piezoelectric crystal measuring $6mm \times 6mm \times 1.8mm$ is used to measure force. Its voltage sensitivity is $0.055V/m/N$. Calculate the force if voltage developed is 120V.

Sol: Given $A = 6mm \times 6mm$, $t = 1.8mm$,
 $g = 0.055V/m/N$, $V_0 = 120V$

$$\text{Hkt } V_0 = g t P$$

$$\Rightarrow P = \frac{V_0}{g t} = \frac{120}{0.055 \times 1.8 \times 10^{-3}} = 1.212 \text{ MN/m}^2$$

$$\therefore \text{Force, } F = PA = 1.212 \times 10^6 \times 8 \times 10^{-3} \times 6 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$F = 43.63N$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept,
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

① Equation of straight line.

① $y = mx + c$ ② $\frac{y_2 - y_1}{y_2 - y_1} = \frac{x_2 - x_1}{x_2 - x_1}$ ③ $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = 1$

④ $y = mx$ ⑤ $y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$ ⑥ $x \cos \theta + y \sin \theta = p$

⑦ $Ax + By + C = 0$

⑧ $\cos 2\theta = 1 - 2\sin^2 \theta$, $\cos 2\theta = 2\cos^2 \theta - 1$

$\cos 2\theta = \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta$

⑨ $\int \sin \theta d\theta = -\cos \theta$, $\int \cos \theta = \sin \theta$, $\int t dt = \frac{t^2}{2}$

$\int k dt = kt$

⑩ $\cos 0 = 1$, $\cos \frac{\pi}{2} = 0$, $\cos \pi = -1$, $\cos \frac{3\pi}{2} = 0$, $\cos 2\pi = 1$

$\sin 0 = 0$, $\sin 90^\circ = 1$, $\sin 180^\circ = 0$, $\sin 270^\circ = -1$, $\sin 360^\circ = 0$

⑪ Any finite non-zero $\infty = 0$

⑫ $\frac{d}{dt}(\sin t) = \cos t$ $\frac{d}{d\theta}(\sin \omega \theta) = \omega \cos \omega \theta$

$\frac{d}{dt}(\cos \omega t) = -\omega \sin \omega t$, $\frac{d}{dt}(t) = 1$, $\frac{d}{dt}(k) = 0$

⑬ $\sin(A+B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$

$\sin(A-B) = \sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B$

$\cos(A+B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B$

$\cos(A-B) = \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B$

$\sin A \sin B = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(A-B) - \cos(A+B)]$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$\cos A \cos B = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(A+B) + \cos(A-B)]$$

$$\sin A \cos B = \frac{1}{2} [\sin(A+B) + \sin(A-B)]$$

⑧

K - Kilo - 10^3

M - Mega - 10^6

G - Giga - 10^9

m - milli - 10^{-3}

μ - micro - 10^{-6}

n - nano - 10^{-9}

p - pico - 10^{-12}

f - femto - 10^{-15}

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Formulae: Introduction

③

① Mass of Proton = Mass of neutron = $1.672 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

② Mass of electron = $9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$

③ Charge of an electron = $-1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

④ Charge of Proton = $1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$

⑤ Atomic Weight @ Atomic mass = Number of Protons + Number of Neutrons

⑥ Atomic number = Number of Protons @ electrons

⑦ Amount of energy emitted @ absorbed = $W_2 - W_1 = hf$ (Joules)

⑧ Planck's constant, $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$

⑨ Energy of an electron, $E_n = -21.76 \times 10^{-19} \frac{Z^2}{n^2}$ (Joules)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑩
 $= -\frac{21.76 \times 10^{-19}}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}} \frac{Z^2}{n^2}$ @ $-\frac{13.6 Z^2}{n^2}$ (eV)

⑪ $1 \text{ eV} = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ Joules}$

⑫ conductance, $G = \frac{1}{R}$ S @ mho @ Ω^{-1} , $R \rightarrow$ Resistance (Ω)

⑬ Conductivity $\sigma = \frac{1}{\rho}$ Sm @ $\Omega^{-1} \text{ m}$, $\rho \rightarrow$ Resistivity ($\Omega \text{ m}$)

⑭ KCL: $\sum I = 0$

⑮ KVL: $\sum V + \sum IR = 0$

⑯ RMS Voltage, $V_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V}{\sqrt{2}}$

⑰ Angular frequency $\omega = 2\pi f$ (rad/s)

$f \rightarrow$ Linear frequency (cycles/s) @ (Hz)

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑦

Pressure $P = \frac{\text{Force}}{\text{Area}}$

① $V_n = \begin{cases} 0.3V & \text{for Ge} \\ 0.7V & \text{for Si} \end{cases}$, $I_0 = \begin{cases} 1\mu A & \text{for Ge} \\ 100nA & \text{for Si} \end{cases}$, $V_{BR} = \begin{cases} 50V & \text{for Ge} \\ 75V & \text{for Si} \end{cases}$

② (Decrease) Change in Barrier Voltage, (for Ge & Si),

$$\Delta V_n = -0.002 \Delta T$$

Where, $\Delta T \rightarrow$ (Increase) in temperature (in $^{\circ}C$)
change

③ Diffusion capacitance, | Transition capacitance

$$C_D = \frac{\tau I_F}{V_F} = \frac{\tau I_F}{n V_T} \quad \left| \quad C_T = \frac{K}{(V_b - V)^2}$$

④ Reverse current at T_2 is,

$$I_0(T_2) = I_0(T_1) \left[2^{(T_2 - T_1)/10} \right]$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

⑤ Shockley equation,

$$I_D = I_0 (e^{V_D/nV_T} - 1), \quad n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for Ge} \\ 2 & \text{for Si} \end{cases}$$

⑥ $V_D = nV_T \ln \left(\frac{I_D}{I_0} + 1 \right)$, $V_T = \frac{kT}{q}$, $k = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$
 $T(K) = 273 + T(^{\circ}C)$

⑦ Power, $P = VI = I^2R = V^2/R$

⑧ Minimum fall time, $t_f(\text{min}) = 10 t_{rr}$.

$t_{rr} \rightarrow$ Reverse recovery time

⑨ Power dissipation at $T_2(^{\circ}C)$,

$$P_2 = P_1(\text{at } T_1) - D \times \Delta T$$

$D \rightarrow$ Derating factor ($W/^{\circ}C$)

$\Delta T \rightarrow (T_2 - T_1)$

⑩ Diode voltage drop at any temperature ($T_2^{\circ}C$),

$$V_{F2} = V_{F1} (\text{at } T_1) + [\Delta T (\Delta V_F / ^\circ C)]$$

$$\Delta V_F / ^\circ C \rightarrow \begin{cases} -1.8 \text{ mV}/^\circ C \text{ for Si} \\ -2.02 \text{ mV}/^\circ C \text{ for Ge} \end{cases}$$

10) Dynamic resistance of a forward biased diode at any temperature, (Sometimes called as pure ac resistance)

$$r_d' = \frac{26 \text{ mV}}{I_F} \left(\frac{T + 273^\circ C}{298^\circ C} \right)$$

11) Dynamic forward resistance (from characteristics),

$$r_d = \frac{\Delta V_F}{\Delta I_F} = \frac{1}{\text{Slope of forward characteristic}} = \frac{V_{F2} - V_{F1}}{I_{F2} - I_{F1}}$$

12) Semiconductor substrate resistance,

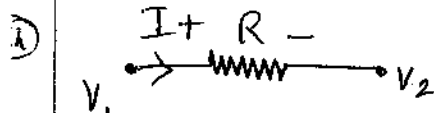
$$r_{\text{substrate}} = r_d - r_d'$$

13) DC @ Static resistance

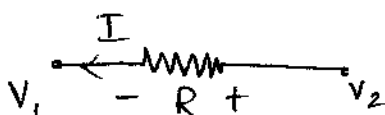
$$R_F = \frac{V_F}{I_F}$$

$$R_R = \frac{V_R}{I_R}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315



$$I = \frac{V_1 - V_2}{R}$$



$$I = \frac{V_2 - V_1}{R}$$

(Ohm's law $V = IR$ @ $I = V/R$)

15) DC load line End Points

$$A (V, 0) = A (V_F, 0) \quad , \quad B (0, I_F) = B (0, \frac{V}{R})$$

16) TUF = DC Power delivered to load

AC rating of the transformer secondary

For HBR, TUF = 0.287, For FLR, TUF = 0.693.

For FWR: TUF = 0.812

17) Instantaneous secondary voltage of transformer,

$$V_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_1 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} V_m \sin \omega t$$

18) HLR ($R_s = 0$)
Current through diode,

$$i_o = \begin{cases} I_m \sin \omega t & ; 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi \\ 0 & ; \pi \leq \omega t \leq 2\pi \end{cases}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

19) Peak load current, $I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L}$

20) $I_{dc} = \frac{I_m}{\pi}$, $V_{dc} = \frac{V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L}$, $V_{mrx} = \frac{V_m/2}{1 + R_f/R_L}$, $I_{mrx} = \frac{I_m}{2}$

$\eta = 121\%$, $\eta = \frac{P_{ac}}{P_{dc}} = \frac{I_{ac}}{I_{dc}}$, $I_{mrx}^2 = I_{dc}^2 + I_{ac}^2$

$V_{mrx}^2 = V_{ac}^2 + V_{dc}^2$, $\eta = \frac{P_{ac}}{P_{dc}} = \frac{40.6\%}{1 + R_f/R_L}$, $PIV = V_m$

% Regulation = $\frac{R_f}{R_L} \times 100$, $f_{out} = f_{in}$

Ideally, $R_f = 0$

FWCTR (Assuming transformer secondary resistance (R_s) = 0)

21) $i_o = I_m \sin \omega t$, $0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi$, $I_m = \frac{V_m}{R_f + R_L}$

$I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi}$, $V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + R_f/R_L}$, $I_{mrx} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$, $V_{mrx} = \frac{V_m/\sqrt{2}}{1 + R_f/R_L}$

$\eta = 48.3\%$, $\eta = \frac{81.2\%}{1 + R_f/R_L}$, % Regulation = $\frac{R_f}{R_L} \times 100$

$PIV = 2V_m$, $f_{out} = 2f_{in}$

FWBR (Assuming $R_s=0$)

22) $i_o = I_m \sin \omega t ; 0 \leq \omega t \leq \pi, I_m = \frac{V_m}{2R_f + R_L}$

$I_{dc} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi}, V_{dc} = \frac{2V_m/\pi}{1 + 2(R_f/R_L)}, I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$

$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m/\sqrt{2}}{1 + 2(R_f/R_L)}, \gamma = 48.3\%, \eta = \frac{81.2\%}{1 + 2(R_f/R_L)}$

% Regulation = $\frac{2R_f}{R_L} \times 100, PIV = V_m, f_{out} = 2f_{in}$

23) Reactance of a capacitor, discharging time

$X_c = \frac{1}{2\pi f_c}$

$t_d = CR_L$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

24) HWR with 'C' filter

$\gamma = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}fR_L C}, V_{XP-P} = \frac{I_{dc}}{fC} = \frac{V_{dc}}{fC R_L}$

$V_{dc} = V_m - \frac{I_{dc}}{2fC} = V_m - \frac{V_{dc}}{2fC R_L} = \frac{V_m}{(1 + \frac{1}{2fC R_L})}$

25) FWCTR & FWBR with 'C' filter

$\gamma = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{3}fR_L C}, V_{XP-P} = \frac{I_{dc}}{2fC} = \frac{V_{dc}}{2fC R_L}$

$V_{dc} = V_m - \frac{I_{dc}}{4fC} = V_m - \frac{V_{dc}}{4fC R_L} = \frac{V_m}{1 + \frac{1}{4fC R_L}}$

26) Zener diode voltage regulator (No load)

$I_{zk} < I_z < I_{zm}, R_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{I_z}, P_{R_1} = I_z^2 R_1$

$I_{zmin} = \frac{V_{smin} - V_z}{R_1}, I_{zmax} = \frac{V_{smax} - V_z}{R_1}, V_o = V_z$

Zener diode voltage regulator (With load)

$$I_1 = I_2 + I_L, \quad I_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1}, \quad I_1 = I_{Zmin} + I_{Lmax}$$

$$I_1 = I_{ZM}, \quad I_{ZM} = I_{Zmin} + I_{Lmax}, \quad I_{ZM} = \frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1}$$

$$R_1 = \frac{V_s - V_z}{I_{ZM}}$$

$$I_Z = \left(\frac{V_s - V_z}{R_1} \right) - I_L, \quad R_{1(max)} = \frac{V_{smin} - V_z}{I_{Zmin} + I_{Lmax}}$$

$$R_{1(min)} = \frac{V_{smax} - V_z}{I_{Zmax} + I_{Lmin}}, \quad I_{ZT} = 20mA, \quad I_{Zmin} = 5mA$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

Source effect = ΔV_o for a 10% change in V_s
line regulation = $\frac{\Delta V_o \text{ for a 10\% change in } V_s \times 100\%}{V_o}$

Load effect = ΔV_o for $\Delta I_{L(max)}$
Load regulation = $\frac{\Delta V_o \text{ for } \Delta I_{L(max)} \times 100\%}{V_o}$

TRANSISTORS

$$I_E = I_B + I_C, \quad I_{BE} = \begin{cases} 0.3V \text{ for Ge} \\ 0.7V \text{ for Si} \end{cases} \quad V_{CE} = 3 \text{ to } 20V$$

$$I_C = \alpha I_E + I_{CBO} = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} I_B = \beta I_B + I_{CEO}$$
$$I_{CEO} = (1 + \beta) I_{CBO}$$

$$h_{fb} = \alpha = \frac{I_C}{I_E}, \quad \beta = \frac{I_C}{I_B} = h_{fe}, \quad \gamma = \frac{I_E}{I_B} = h_{bc}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\beta}{1 + \beta}, \quad \beta = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}, \quad \gamma = 1 + \beta, \quad \beta = \gamma - 1$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma}, \quad \gamma = \frac{\beta}{\alpha}$$

$$R_i = \frac{\Delta V_{in}}{\Delta I_{in}} \quad | \quad V_{out} = \text{constant}$$

$$R_o = \frac{\Delta V_{out}}{\Delta I_{out}} \quad | \quad I_{in} = \text{constant}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

$$P_{D(max)}(T_2^\circ C) = P_{D(max)}(T_1^\circ C) - DF(T_2 - 25)$$

$$A_v = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}}$$

$$0 \leq \alpha \leq 1, \quad \beta > 1$$

BJT BiasingStability factor

$$S = \frac{dI_c}{dI_{c0}} \text{ at constant } I_B \text{ \& } \beta$$

$$V_{BE} = \begin{cases} 0.3 \text{ V for Ge} \\ 0.7 \text{ V for Si} \end{cases}, \quad V_{CE} = \begin{cases} 0.5 \text{ V for Ge} \\ 1 \text{ V for Si} \end{cases}$$

DC load line end points

$$A(V_{CE}, 0) = A(V_{CC}, 0), \quad B(0, I_c) = B(0, \frac{V_{CC}}{R_c})$$

Base - biasDesign of Base - bias

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

$$\textcircled{1} R_B = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{BE}}{I_B}$$

$$I_c = h_{FE} I_B = \beta I_B$$

$$\textcircled{2} I_B = \frac{I_c}{h_{FE}}$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_c R_c$$

$$\textcircled{3} R_c = \frac{V_{CC} - V_{CE}}{I_c}$$

Q Point (V_{CE}, I_c), $S = 1 + \beta$

Voltage - dividerApproximate method

$$I_2 = \frac{V_{CC}}{R_1 + R_2}$$

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

$$V_E = V_B - V_{BE}$$

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

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_c (R_c + R_E), \quad V_c = V_{CC} - I_c R_c \textcircled{1} V_{CE} + V_E$$

Exact method

$$V_T = \frac{V_{CC} R_2}{R_1 + R_2}, \quad R_T = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}, \quad I_B = \frac{V_T - V_{BE}}{R_T + R_E(1+h_{FE})}$$

$$I_C = h_{FE} I_B, \quad V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C - I_E R_E, \quad V_E = I_E R_E$$

$$V_C = V_{CE} + V_E = V_{CC} - I_C R_C, \quad V_B = V_{BE} + V_E$$

Design of voltage divider

$$I_2 = \frac{I_C}{10}, \quad V_E \gg V_{BE}, \quad R_E = \frac{V_E}{I_C}, \quad R_2 = \frac{V_B}{I_2}, \quad R_1 = \frac{V_{CC} - V_B}{I_2}$$

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

SHASHIDHART M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

Q-Point

Q(V_{CE}, I_C)

Stability factor

$$S = \frac{1 + \beta}{1 + \beta \left(\frac{R_E}{R_E + R_{TH}} \right)}$$

Base-bias

Percentage change in I_C.

$$\Delta I_C(\%) = \frac{I_C(T_2^\circ C) - I_C(T_1^\circ C)}{I_C(T_1^\circ C)} \times 100$$

Percentage change in V_{CE}

$$\Delta V_{CE}(\%) = \frac{V_{CE}(T_2^\circ C) - V_{CE}(T_1^\circ C)}{V_{CE}(T_1^\circ C)} \times 100$$

Introduction to operational amplifier

(13)

$$V_o = A_d V_d + A_{cm} V_{cm}, \quad \text{or} \quad A_d V_d \left(1 + \frac{1}{CMRR} \frac{V_{cm}}{V_d} \right)$$

$$V_d = V_1 - V_2, \quad V_{cm} = \frac{V_1 + V_2}{2}$$

$$A_d(\text{dB}) = 20 \log_{10}(A_d), \quad A_d = \frac{V_o}{V_d} = \frac{V_o}{V_1 - V_2}$$

$$A_{cm}(\text{dB}) = 20 \log_{10}(A_{cm}), \quad A_{cm} = \frac{V_o}{V_{cm}} = \frac{V_o}{(V_1 + V_2)/2}$$

$$CMRR = \frac{A_d}{A_{cm}}, \quad I_{io} = |I_1 - I_2|, \quad I_{ib} = \frac{I_1 + I_2}{2}$$

$$SR = \left. \frac{dV_o}{dt} \right|_{\text{Max}} = (2\pi V_M) f_{\text{max}} = V_M (\omega_{\text{max}}) \quad \text{or} \quad f_{\text{max}} = \frac{SR}{2\pi V_M}$$

(or) $\omega_{\text{max}} = \frac{SR}{V_M}$

$$SVRR \text{ (PSRR)} = \frac{\Delta V_{io}}{\Delta V}$$

Virtual ground concept: $V_1 = V_2$

$$\text{Voltage follower } V_o = V_i, \quad A_v = 1 = \frac{V_o}{V_i}$$

Inverting amplifier

$$V_o = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_i}\right) V_i, \quad A_v = \frac{V_o}{V_i} = -\frac{R_f}{R_i}$$

Non-inverting amplifier

$$V_o = \left(1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i}\right) V_i, \quad A_v = \frac{V_o}{V_i} = 1 + \frac{R_f}{R_i}$$

Inverting summer

$$V_o = -\left(\frac{R_f}{R_1} V_1 + \frac{R_f}{R_2} V_2 + \dots + \frac{R_f}{R_n} V_n\right)$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

11) Non-inverting Summer

$$V_o = \frac{(1 + R_f/R) V_1}{(1 + R_1/R_2)} + \frac{(1 + R_f/R) V_2}{(1 + R_2/R_1)}$$

12) Subtractor

$$V_o = V_2 - V_1 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{R_f}{R} (V_2 - V_1)$$

13) Differentiator

$$V_o = -RC \frac{dV_i}{dt}$$

14) Integrator

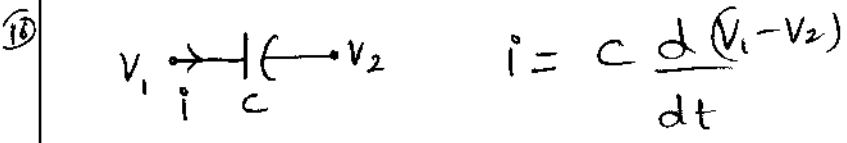
$$V_o = -\frac{1}{RC} \int_0^t V_i dt + V_o(0)$$

15) Total gain of a circuit consisting of two circuits with gains A_1 & A_2 is,

$$A = A_1 A_2$$

16) Input currents of an op-amp.

$$I_1 = I_{ib} + \frac{I_{io}}{2} \quad I_2 = I_{ib} - \frac{I_{io}}{2}$$



① NOT gate, AND gate, OR gate, NAND gate, NOR gate
 $Y = \bar{A}$ $Y = AB$ $Y = A+B$ $Y = \overline{AB}$ $Y = \overline{A+B}$

EX-OR gate EX-NOR gate

$$Y = \overline{AB} + A\bar{B}$$

$$Y = \overline{\overline{AB} + A\bar{B}}$$

$$Y = \overline{AB} + A\bar{B}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

② Boolean Laws

$1 \cdot A = A$, $0 \cdot A = 0$, $A \cdot A = A$, $A \cdot \bar{A} = 0$, $AB = BA$
 $(AB)C = A(BC)$, $A+BC = (A+B)(A+C)$, $A(A+B) = A$
 $0+A = A$, $1+A = 1$, $A+A = A$, $A+\bar{A} = 1$, $A+B = B+A$
 $(A+B)+C = A+(B+C)$, $A(B+C) = AB+AC$, $A+AB = A$
 $\overline{\bar{A}} = A$, $\overline{0} = 1$, $\overline{1} = 0$

③ De-Morgan's Law

$$\overline{A+B+C+\dots+N} = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B} \cdot \bar{C} \cdot \dots \cdot \bar{N}$$

$$\overline{A \cdot B \cdot C \cdot \dots \cdot N} = \bar{A} + \bar{B} + \bar{C} + \bar{D} + \dots + \bar{N}$$

④ Half adder

Sum, $S = \bar{A}B + A\bar{B} = A \oplus B$
 Carry, $C = AB$

⑤ Full adder

Sum: $S = A \oplus B \oplus C_{in} = (\bar{A}B + A\bar{B})C_{in} + (\bar{A}\bar{B} + AB)C_{in}$
 Carry, $C_{out} = (A \oplus B)C_{in} + AB = (\bar{A}B + A\bar{B})C_{in} + AB$

② Rules to be followed to simplify the Boolean expression

Rule 1: ① Convert POS (Product of sum) term to SOP (Sum of Product) [If no complement ② a complement on 'full length expression is present']

⑤ If complement is present for few terms: Use demorgan's law, then follow Rule 1 ①

Rule 2: ① Use Boolean algebra laws.

⑥ If any common variables are there among few terms

② all the terms, then take it outside

③ Repeat Rule 2 ①

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

③ Rules to be followed to implement using only NAND gates

Step 1: Follow the above Rules (1 to 2)

Step 2: ① Make sure no '+' is present (only '.' is allowed)

⑥ If '+' (OR) is present, Use the rule (Ex: $A+B = \overline{\overline{A+B}} = \overline{\overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}}$)
Such as $\overline{\overline{A}} = A$ & Demorgan's Law.

⑦ Make sure we have one full complement for the whole expression is present. If not put double bar

(∵ $A = \overline{\overline{A}}$)

④ Rules to be followed to implement using only NOR gates

Follow the above two steps [with '+' replaced by '.' & '.' replaced by '+']

SHASHIDHAR T M
 Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
 Shashilara@gmail.com
 9742174174, 9844231315

① $0 \cdot A \text{ or } 0 \cdot B = 0$

② $1 + A \text{ or } 1 + B = 1$

③ NAND gate Latch

$\bar{S} = \bar{R} = 1, Q = NC, \bar{S} = \bar{R} = 0, Q = \bar{Q} = 1$ (Invalid)

$\bar{S} = 0 (\bar{R} = 1), Q = Set, \bar{R} = 0 (\bar{S} = 1), Q = Reset$

④ NOR gate Latch

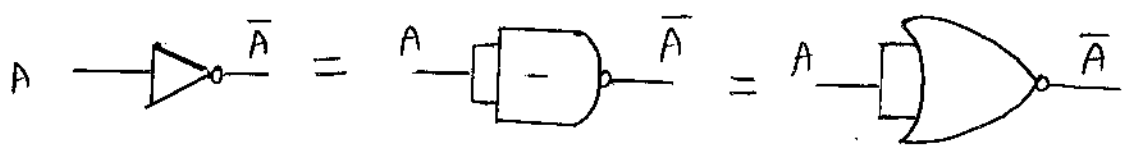
$R = S = 0, Q = NC, R = 1 (S = 0), Q = Reset$

$R = 0 (S = 1), Q = Set, R = S = 1, Q = \bar{Q} = 0$ (Invalid)

⑤ RS Flip-Flop

$R = S = 0, Q = NC, R = 1 (S = 0), Q = Reset$

$R = 0 (S = 1), Q = Set, R = S = 1, Q = \bar{Q} = 1$ (Invalid)



⑥ Clocked RS Flip-Flop using NAND gates

$CLK = 0, S = X, R = X, Q = NC$

$CLK = 1, S = R = 0, Q = NC$

$CLK = 1, S = 0 (R = 1), Q = Reset$

$CLK = 1, S = 1 (R = 0), Q = Set$

$CLK = 1, S = R = 1, Q = \bar{Q} = 1$ (Invalid)

⑦ Clocked RS Flip-Flop using NOR gates

$CLK = 0, S = X, R = X, Q = NC$

$CLK = 1, S = R = 0, Q = NC$

$CLK = 1, S = 1 (R = 0), Q = Set$

CLK = 1, S = 0 (R = 1), Q = Reset

CLK = 1, S = R = 1, Q = \bar{Q} = 0

Microcontroller

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

$$\text{STEP angle} = \frac{360}{\text{Number of steps per revolution}}$$

$$\text{RPM} = \frac{60 \times \text{STEP per second}}{\text{STEP per revolution}}$$

① Height of antenna,

$$h = \frac{\lambda}{4} = \frac{c}{4f} \quad [c \odot v = f \lambda]$$

② Message signal,

$$m(t) = V_m \sin \omega_m t$$

③ Carrier signal,

$$c(t) = V_c \sin \omega_c t$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashidhara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

④ AM

Amplitude of AM wave,

$$A(t) = V_c + K_a V_m \sin \omega_m t = V_c + K_a m(t) \quad (\text{Let } K_a = 1)$$

AM wave:

$$v(t) = V_c \sin \omega_c t + \frac{V_m}{2} \cos(\omega_c - \omega_m)t - \frac{V_m}{2} \cos(\omega_c + \omega_m)t$$

Modulation index:

$$m = \frac{V_m}{V_c} \quad (0 \leq m \leq 1) \quad m = \frac{V_{\max} - V_{\min}}{V_{\max} + V_{\min}}$$

Bandwidth:

$$BW = 2f_m \text{ (Hz)} \quad \textcircled{1} \quad 2\omega_m \text{ (rad/s)} \quad \textcircled{2} \quad \text{USB-LSB}$$

Total Power:

$$P_t = P_{\text{car}} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right), \quad P_{\text{car}} = \frac{V^2}{2R}$$

Modulation index in terms of P_t & P_{car} (or I_t & I_{car}) (or V_t & V_{car}):

$$m = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{I_t}{I_{\text{car}}}\right)^2 - 1} = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{V_t}{V_{\text{car}}}\right)^2 - 1} = \sqrt{2 \left(\frac{P_t}{P_{\text{car}}} - 1\right)}$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad I_t = I_{\text{car}} \sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad V_t = V_{\text{car}} \sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad I_{\text{car}} = \frac{I_t}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}}}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad V_{\text{car}} = \frac{V_t}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{m^2}{2}}}$$

Minimum & maximum amplitude

$$V_{\min} = V_c - V_m, \quad V_{\max} = V_c + V_m$$

Modulation index When a carrier is AMPLITUDE Modulated by several waves:

$$M_t = \sqrt{M_1^2 + M_2^2 + \dots + M_n^2}$$

$$P_t = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{M_t^2}{2} \right)$$

Amplitudes of USB & LSB

$$V_{USB} = \frac{M V_c}{2} = V_{USB} =$$

TRANSMISSION efficiency

$$\eta = \frac{M^2}{2 + M^2}$$

TIME constant

$$\frac{2\pi}{\omega_c} \ll RC \ll \frac{2\pi}{\omega_m}$$

LSB & USB

$$LSB = f_c - f_m, \quad USB = f_c + f_m$$

Detected envelope

$$V_d = V_c + M V_c \sin \omega_m t$$

$$\Rightarrow V_d = V_m \sin \omega_m t$$

5) FM

Instantaneous frequency of FM wave.

$$f_i = f_c (1 + K_f V_m \cos \omega_m t) = f_c \pm K_f V_m$$

Angular frequency

$$\omega_i = \frac{d\phi_i}{dt}$$

Frequency sensitivity

Deviation constant

$$K_f = K_f f_c$$

Frequency deviation

$$\Delta f = K_f V_m$$

$$\Delta f = K_f f_c V_m$$

FM wave.

$$V(t) = V_c \cos \left[(2\pi f_c t) + \beta \sin(2\pi f_m t) \right]$$

①

$$V(t) = V_c \sin \left[(2\pi f_c t) + \beta \cos(2\pi f_m t) \right]$$

Modulation Index (Modulation factor) (Phase deviation of FM)

$$\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} \text{ ① } \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_m} ; \beta > 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{BW} \quad BW &= 2(\Delta f + f_m) = 2\Delta f \left(1 + \frac{1}{\beta} \right) = 2f_m(\beta + 1) \\ &= 2\beta f_m + 2f_m \end{aligned}$$

Instantaneous Phase

$$\phi_i = \omega_c t + \beta \sin(2\pi f_m t)$$

PM

Instantaneous Phase of PM wave

$$\phi_i = \omega_c t + m_p \cos \omega_m t$$

PM Wave

$$V(t) = V_c \cos [2\pi f_c t + m_p \cos(2\pi f_m t)]$$

Modulation Index

$$m_p = k_p V_m$$

BLW

$$BW = 2f_m(1+m_p) = 2f_m(1+k_p V_m)$$

Transducers

Resistance (DC resistance) of any metal is,

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$$

Resistance of resistance thermometer at T(°C) is,

$$R_T = R_0(1 + \alpha T), \quad R_0 \rightarrow \text{Resistance at } 0^\circ\text{C}$$

T → Temperature in °C

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{R_0} \frac{\Delta R}{\Delta T}$$

Self-heating coefficient,

$$E = \frac{\Delta T}{R_T I^2}$$

Resistance of thermistor at T(K)

$$R = R_0 e^{\beta \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_0} \right)} \approx R_0 e^{\beta/T}$$

Output Voltage of LVDT is,

$$V_o = V_{o1} - V_{o2}$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

② Output voltage of Piezoelectric transducers.

$$V_o = \frac{g t F}{A} = g t P \quad \left(g = \frac{k}{t} \right)$$

SHASHIDHAR T M
Assistant Professor in ECE dept.
Shashilara@gmail.com
9742174174, 9844231315

QUESTION BANK

Sub: Basic Electronics

Sub Code: 15ELN15

MODULE I: a) Semiconductors diodes and its applications

1. Define the following diode parameters: a) Forward voltage b) Knee voltage c) Dynamic resistance d) Reverse saturation Current e) PIV f) Reverse recovery time g) Reverse breakdown voltage h) Forward recovery time i) reverse recovery time
2. Explain the quantitative theory of unbiased p-n junction.
3. What do you mean by biasing the pn junction? Explain briefly.
4. Explain the V-I characteristics with respect to the Shockley equation.
5. Draw and explain V-I characteristics of p-n junction diode.
6. Discuss on types of diodes.
7. What is the effect of temperature on cut-in voltage and reverse saturation current?
8. Differentiate between diffusion and transition capacitance.
9. Differentiate between Zener breakdown and Avalanche breakdown
10. Draw the volt- ampere characteristics of Si & Ge diode, explain briefly.
11. Explain DC equivalent circuits of pn junction.
12. Discuss on the diode approximations.
13. What is dc load line? Explain briefly. Give the significance of Q-point.
14. Explain the following terms w r t pn junction:
a) DC resistance b) AC resistance
15. With a neat circuit diagram and wave forms, explain the operation of Half-wave rectifier. Also mention its merits and demerits.
16. Explain Zener diode voltage regulator circuit with no load and with load.
17. Explain the working of a full wave bridge rectifier with the help of circuit diagram and wave forms. Also mention its merits and demerits.
18. With a neat circuit diagram and waveforms, explain the working of FWR. Also mention its merits and demerits.

19. For HWR, derive an expression for a) DC load current b) Average load voltage c) RMS load current d) RMS load voltage e) Ripple factor f) Efficiency g) Percentage regulation h) PIV
20. For FWR, derive an expression for a) DC load current b) Average load voltage c) RMS load current d) RMS load voltage e) Ripple factor f) Efficiency g) Percentage regulation h) PIV
21. For FWBR, derive an expression for a) DC load current b) Average load voltage c) RMS load current d) RMS load voltage e) Ripple factor f) Efficiency g) Percentage regulation h) PIV
22. What is filter? List the types of filters.
23. With a neat circuit diagram and waveforms, explain the working of HWR with 'C' filter.
24. With a neat circuit diagram and waveforms, explain the working of FWR with 'C' filter.
25. With a neat circuit diagram and waveforms, explain the working of FWBR with 'C' filter.
26. State the advantages and disadvantages of capacitor filter.
27. Explain briefly line and load regulation.

MODULE 1: b) Bipolar Junction Transistors

1. Draw an unbiased NPN transistor. Label it and show the depletion regions and barrier potentials. Explain briefly.
2. With a neat diagram, explain unbiased PNP transistor.
3. Discuss on the operating regions of a transistor.
4. Discuss on the types of BJTs.
5. With a neat diagram, explain biased NPN transistor.
6. With a neat diagram, explain biased PNP transistor.
7. Discuss on BJT voltages and currents.
8. Discuss on the different configurations of BJT.
9. Define current gain of CB, CE and CC transistor configurations.

10. Prove the following a) $\beta_{dc} = \frac{\alpha_{dc}}{1-\alpha_{dc}}$ b) $\gamma_{dc} = \frac{\beta_{dc}}{\alpha_{dc}} = \beta_{dc} + 1$ c) $I_C = \frac{\alpha_{dc}}{1-\alpha_{dc}} I_B$
d) $I_C = \beta_{dc} I_B + (1 + \beta_{dc}) I_{CBO} = \frac{\alpha_{dc}}{1-\alpha_{dc}} I_B + \left(\frac{1}{1-\alpha_{dc}}\right) I_{CBO}$ e) $\alpha_{dc} = \frac{\beta_{dc}}{\beta_{dc}+1} = \frac{\gamma_{dc}-1}{\gamma_{dc}}$
11. With the help of a circuit diagram, show how a transistor can amplify direct current and alternating current.
12. With a neat circuit diagram, explain how transistor acts as voltage amplifier.
13. Sketch the common-emitter input, output and forward transfer characteristics and explain briefly.
14. Draw the common-base input, output and forward transfer characteristics and explain briefly.
15. Draw common collector circuit and sketch the input, current gain and output characteristics. Also explain operating regions by indicating them on characteristics curve.
16. Explain briefly avalanche breakdown, early effect and punch through.
17. Which is the most efficient transistor configuration? Explain briefly.
18. Discuss how to derive current gain characteristics from output Characteristics.
19. List the merits, demerits and applications of BJT.
20. Compare CB, CE and CC configurations.

Module 2: a) Transistors Biasing

1. Explain the operation of the base bias circuit using an NPN transistor and write the expressions for I_B, I_C and V_{CE} .
2. What is Dc load line? Explain Base bias method with necessary equations.
3. What do you mean by biasing the transistor?
4. Explain the need for biasing the transistor.
5. What do you mean by silent point? Explain briefly.
6. Show that for a maximum undistorted output, the transistor should be driven into active region.
7. Discuss on the design of base-bias circuit.
8. Explain the operation of the base bias circuit using an pnp transistor and write the expressions for I_B, I_C and V_{CE} .
9. State the merits, demerits and usage of base bias circuit.
10. Discuss on the factors affecting the stability of Q-point.
11. Sketch a universal bias circuit using an pnp transistor.
12. Compare base-bias and self bias circuits.
13. Discuss on the design of Voltage divider bias circuit.
14. With a neat circuit diagram, explain the Emitter current bias circuit using
 - a) Approximate analysis.
 - b) Precise analysis.
15. Define the stability factor of transistor circuit.
16. Draw Dc load line and locate Q-point for a Voltage-divider bias circuit.
17. State the merits, demerits and usage of voltage divider bias circuit.

MODULE 2: b) OP Amp

1. What is an Op-Amp? What are the basic properties of an Op-Amp
2. State the applications of Op-Amp.
3. Draw the pin diagram, circuit symbol and Circuit model of Op-Amp.
4. Mention the features of $\mu A 741$.
5. State the advantages of Op-Amp over transistor amplifier.

6. With a neat block diagram, explain the architecture of Op-Amp.
7. Discuss on saturation property of Op-Amp.
8. Explain the different configurations of an Op-amp.
9. With usual notations, show that the total output of an Op-amp(differential amplifier) is given by, $V_o = A_d V_d (1 + \frac{1}{CMRR} \frac{V_{cm}}{V_d})$
10. Explain the concept of virtual short.
11. Prove that for an undistorted output voltage, the maximum signal frequency is given by, $f_{max} = \frac{SR}{2\pi V_m} (Hz)$ or $\omega_{max} = \frac{SR}{V_m} (rad/s)$
12. Define the following Op-amp parameters.

a) Large signal voltage gain	b) Common mode gain	c) CMRR
d) Input impedance	d) Output resistance	e) BW
f) Input Offset voltage	g) Output Offset voltage	h) SR
i) Input Offset current	j) Input bias current	k) SVRR(PSRR)
13. Explain the working of Op-Amp as: a) Inverting amplifier b) Integrator
c) Differentiator d) Voltage follower e) Non-inverting amplifier
14. List the characteristics of an ideal Op-Amp
15. Draw the transfer characteristics of an Op-amp and explain briefly.
16. Explain the need for an Op-amp.
17. List the characteristics of μA 741 Op-Amp
18. Derive an expression for output voltage of 3 input summing amplifier.
19. Derive an expression for output voltage of a subtractor.

Module 3: Digital Electronics

1. Convert $(110.01101)_2 = ()_{10}$ and $(69.25)_{10} = ()_2$.
2. Convert $(101101101)_2 = ()_{16}$ and $(BAD.143)_{16} = ()_2$
3. Convert $(101.001101)_2 = ()_8$ and $(276.045)_8 = ()_2$
4. Convert $(4567.23)_8 = ()_{10}$ and $(678.234)_{10} = ()_8$
5. Convert $(54.387)_{10} = ()_{16}$ and $(BACE.143)_{16} = ()_{10}$

6. Perform the following
 - a) $(1010110.1001100101)_2 = (?)_8 = (?)_{10} = (?)_{16}$
 - b) $(FACE.BAC)_{16} = (?)_8 = (?)_{10} = (?)_2$
7. State and prove Demorgan's theorems for 4 variables.
8. With a neat diagram, Explain the transistor based NOT gate.
9. With a neat diagram, Explain AND and OR gates using diodes.
10. Write the 1's and 2's complement of the following a) 110011 b) 010101
11. Perform the following
 - a) $(110011)_2 + (101011)_2 = (?)_2$ b) $(101110011)_2 + (101111000)_2 = (?)_2$
12. Perform using 1's and 2's complement method
 - a) $(101001)_2 - (10010)_2$ b) $(11101)_2 - (10011)_2$ c) $(98)_{10} - (53)_{10}$
 - d) $(567)_8 - (329)_8$ c) $(ABC)_{16} - (FED)_{16}$
13. Realize half adder using a) NAND gates only b) NOR gates only c) Basic gates.
14. Compare analog and digital domains.
15. Realise Full adder using a) NAND gates only b) NOR gates only c) Basic gates.
16. Implement the following gates using only NAND Gates.
 - a) AND b) OR c) NOT d) EX-NOR e) NOR f) EX-OR
17. Implement the following gates using only NOR Gates.
 - a) AND b) OR c) NOT d) EX-NOR e) NAND f) EX-OR
18. What is half Adder? Explain briefly. Also State its drawback. Suggest a scheme to overcome it and explain briefly.
19. Explain the following gates.
 - a) AND b) OR c) NOT d) XOR e) XNOR f) NAND g) NOR
20. Why NAND and NOR Gates are called Universal Gates?
21. Prove the following Boolean expressions
 - a) $(A+B)(A+C) = A+BC$ b) $A(A+B) = A$ c) $A+AB = A$ d) $\overline{AB} + A\overline{B} = \overline{\overline{A}B} + AB$
22. With truth table, circuit diagram and Boolean expressions, Explain Full adder.

MODULE 4: a) FLIP FLOPS

1. Write a short note on clocked RS Flip-Flop.
2. Explain the operation of NOR gate latch(NOR gate FF) using its circuit diagram, logic symbol and truth table.
3. What is a RS Flip-Flop? Explain using its circuit diagram, logic symbol and truth table.
4. Draw the traditional and IEEE logic symbol of AND, NOT, NOR, XOR and XNOR.
5. What do you mean by a Flip-Flop? Explain briefly.
6. Write a short note on the categories of Flip flops.
7. List the types of Flip flops. Explain briefly anyone.
8. Give the differences between latch and flip flop.
9. With a neat circuit diagram, Logic symbol and truth table, Explain Gated (Clocked) RS Flip-flop.
10. Explain the operation of NAND gate latch(NAND gate RS FF) using its circuit diagram, logic symbol and truth table.

MODULE 4: b) MICROCONTROLLER

1. What is Microcontroller? List the features of μ c 8051.
2. Mention the advantages of Microcontroller.
3. List the criteria for choosing a Microcontroller.
4. List the applications of Microcontroller.
5. With a neat diagram, explain the architecture of 8051.
6. With a neat block diagram, discuss on the interfacing of stepper motor with 8051. Also write the excitation table.
7. With a neat block diagram, explain the construction details of 8051 connection to stepper motor. Write the formula to calculate step angle and RPM of stepper motor. Also mention its advantages and applications.

MODULE 5: a) COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

1. What do you mean by modulation? Mention its types

2. What do you mean by Communication ? With a neat block diagram, explain the elements of Radio communication system.
3. Explain the necessity of modulation.
4. List out the different frequency ranges with its applications.
5. Compare AM, FM and PM.
6. With neat waveforms, explain the principle of Frequency Modulation. (Or) Write a short note on FM.
7. What is angle modulation? Explain any one of the type.
8. What is demodulation (detection)? With a neat circuit diagram and waveforms, explain the operation of Envelope detector.
9. Derive an expression for FM wave.
10. Derive an expression for an AM wave
11. Derive an expression for modulation index in terms of total power and carrier power (or total current and carrier current) of an AM wave
12. Define modulation index or depth of modulation or modulation factor. Derive an expression for modulation index in terms of maximum and minimum voltages of AM wave.
13. Explain the effect of modulation index on AM
14. Draw the frequency spectrum of AM wave. Write an expression for BW of AM wave.
15. Derive an expression for total power in an AM wave when the carrier is modulated by N Cosine waves.
16. Derive an expression for instantaneous phase of FM wave.
17. Draw the frequency spectrum of FM wave.
18. Define the following terms w.r.t FM
 - i) modulation index
 - ii) BW
 - iii) Frequency deviation.
19. Prove that the maximum efficiency in AM is 33.33%.
20. Prove that the minimum efficiency in AM is 0%.

21. With a neat waveforms, explain the principle of Amplitude Modulation. (Or)
Write a short note on Amplitude modulation
22. With a neat waveforms, explain the principle of Phase Modulation with necessary mathematical expressions.
23. With usual notations, Prove that $P_t = \frac{V_c^2}{2R} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$ or $P_t = P_{car} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$
Or S T the total power in an AM wave is more than carrier power.
24. Derive an expression for total current contained in an AM wave in terms of carrier wave current and modulation index.
25. Prove that the maximum power in an AM wave is 150% of the carrier power.

MODULE 5: b) TRANSDUCERS

1. What is transducer? Explain briefly with a neat block diagram
2. Mention the differences between Active and Passive transducers. Also list the few measurands.
3. List the merits and demerits of electrical transducer.
4. List the Characteristics (or requirements) of a transducer.
5. Classify the transducers.
6. With a neat diagram, explain the construction and principle of operation of LVDT. Also state the advantages, drawbacks and applications of LVDT.
7. With a neat diagram, explain the principle of operation of Resistance thermometer (or RTD). Also state the advantages, drawbacks and applications of Resistance thermometer
8. With a neat diagram, explain the principle of operation of thermistor. Also state the advantages, drawbacks and applications of thermistor.
9. With a neat diagram, explain the principle of operation of Piezoelectric transducer. Also state the advantages, drawbacks and applications of Piezoelectric transducer.
10. With a neat diagram, explain the principle of operation of Photoelectric transducer. Also state the advantages, drawbacks and applications of Photoelectric transducer

11. What do you mean by resistance transducer? Explain any one of the type.
12. What is inductive transducer? Explain briefly.
13. What is thermal couple? Explain the terms Seebeck, Peltier, Thomson and Joule effect.
14. Compare resistance thermometer and thermistor.
15. Define the following terms w.r.t resistance transducer:
 - a) Time Constant
 - b) Dissipation factor
 - c) Resistance ratio

SHASHIDHAR T M