

# **Lecture 3**

## **Circuits and Electronics**

### **Chapter 3 and Notes**

- **Intro to basic circuits principles**
- **Passive, active circuits; circuit laws**
- **Filters**
- **Op amps (ideal, nonideal amplifiers)**
- **Active circuits with op amps**
- **Applications and problems**

# Electronic Components

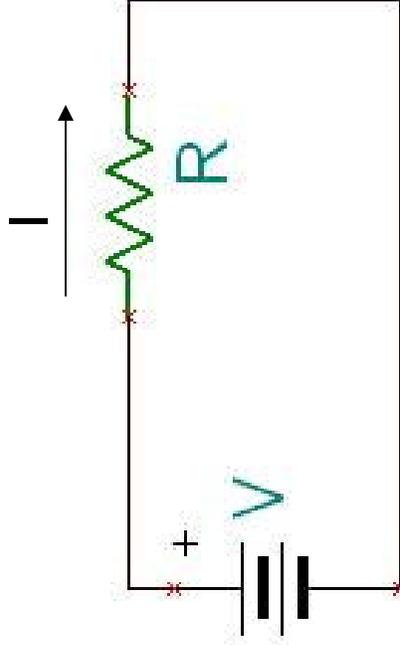
**There are two classes of components: Passive and Active**

- **PASSIVE:** Resistors, capacitors, transformer/inductor etc. are known as passive devices. Their properties do not depend actively on currents/voltages applied. Their properties are usually linear.
- **ACTIVE:** Diodes, Transistors (various types; analog/digital such as bipolar, field effect used in analog circuit and MOS/CMOS used in digital circuits), LED/ photodetector, op amp, digital integrated circuits. Their properties are usually nonlinear

**Another way to classify: Analog vs. Digital**

- **ANALOG:** The component response is continuously and proportionally dependent on the input (may be linear or nonlinear). Good example: amplifier
- **DIGITAL:** The component response is essentially 1 or 0 (ON or OFF). These are usually used in digital circuits, computer memory and processors. Good example: Microprocessor

# RESISTORS



Ohm's Law

$$V = IR$$

V: volts and I: amperes

How much power does an implantable pacemaker consume if...it runs at 5V, drawing 100 microA of current for 10 years.

Resistor color code: BBROYGBVGVW (Black, Brown, Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Violet, Gray, White: 0, 1, 2..., 9)

Resistors have tolerance:  $\pm 5$  or 10% (1% for extra cost)

Power level:  $\frac{1}{4}$  W to many W (W: watts):  $P = V * I = I^2 R = V^2 / R$

Energy (Joules):  $(V^2 / R) T$

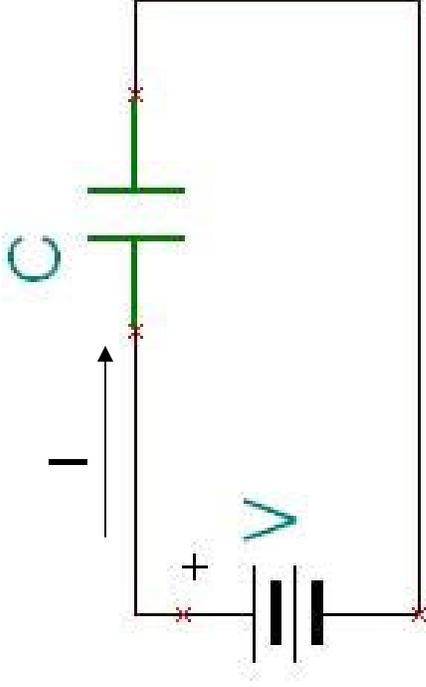
Applications? Light bulb, electric iron, ...

Example: Defibrillator. Energy of 10 Joules by applying say 1000 V into 1000 ohms for 10 ms

# CAPACITORS – DC

Stores charge: Q (Coulombs)  $I = \Delta Q / \Delta T$

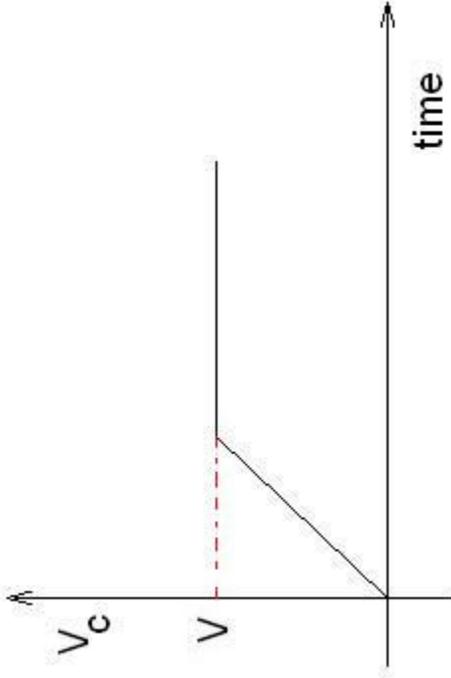
Flow of charge is Current: I (Amperes)



$$I = C \frac{dV_c}{dt}$$

$$V_c = \frac{1}{C} \int i dt$$

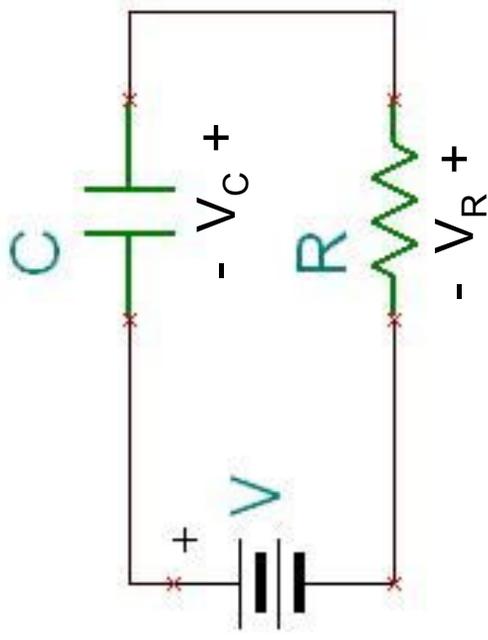
[Water bucket analogy!](#)



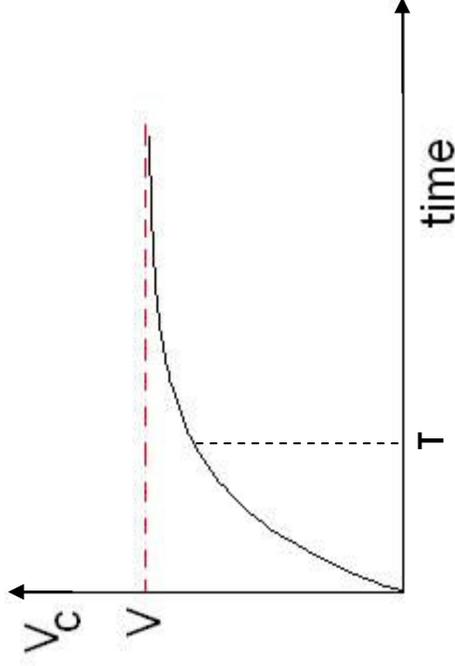
The capacitor charges linearly till the voltage across it reaches the applied voltage after which the driving force is lost and the capacitor 'blocks' DC.

[Example: Time delay circuit](#)

# RC CIRCUIT – DC



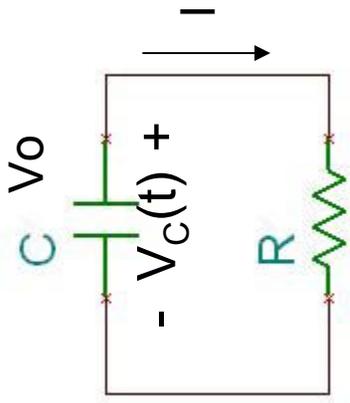
$$V_C(t) = V(1 - e^{-t/RC})$$



This is similar but the capacitor charges non-linearly till the voltage across it reaches the applied voltage after which the driving force is lost. Time constant  $\tau=RC$  is the time in which the capacitor is charged to 67%

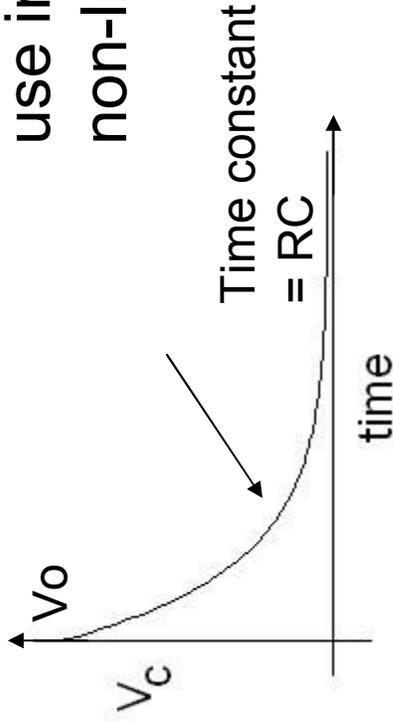
[Example: Charging of a defibrillator!](#)

# RC CIRCUIT – DC



After a capacitor has charged to  $V_0$ , it discharges if there is a resistance in the external circuit (otherwise it retains the charge : use in DRAMs). The discharge is

$$\text{non-linear } V_C(t) = V_0 e^{-t/RC}$$

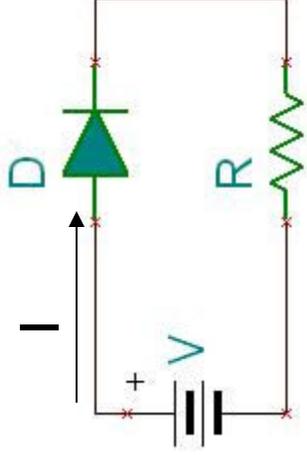


Example: Discharge the defibrillator capacitor into the heart

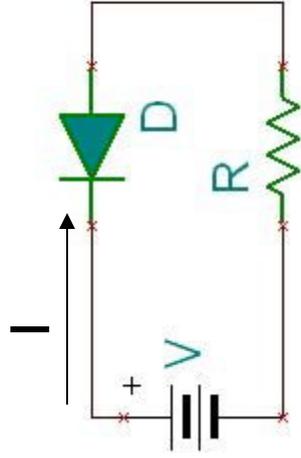
- We will return to Capacitors in the section 'Impedance' to consider their frequency response.

P, N is the “doping” of silicon to carry P (+) or N (-) charge)

# DIODES -> Rectifier



Forward bias, conducting



Reverse bias, non conducting

If  $V > V_{ON}$  of diode, 
$$I = \frac{V - V_{ON}}{R}$$

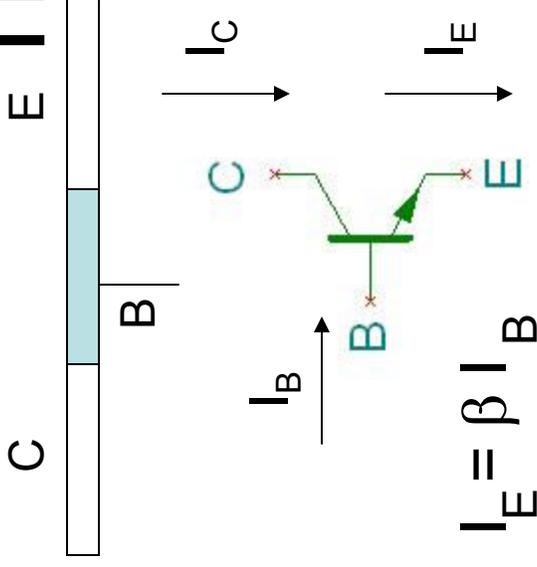
$V_{on} \sim 0.6 \text{ V}$

Example: convert “ac” voltage into dc voltage; e.g. use a transformer, capacitor and a diode.

$$I = 0$$

Diodes are silicon based semiconductor devices with P and N junctions. They carry current through electrons or holes (+ charges) in *one direction*.

# BIPOLAR JUNCTION TRANSISTORS



Base, Emitter, Collector

$$I_E = I_B + I_C$$

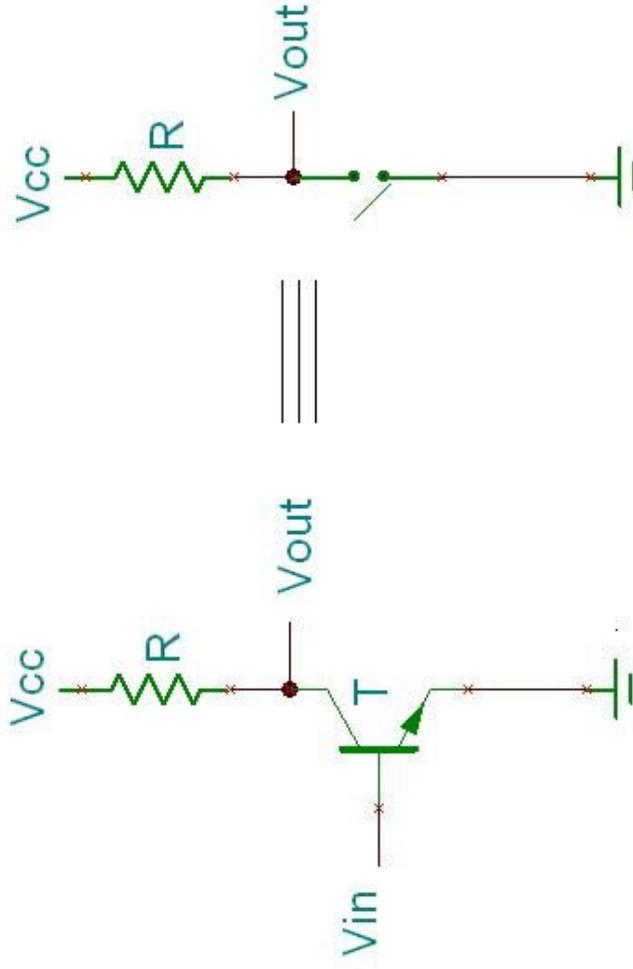
$$I_E = \beta I_B \quad V_{BE} = 0.060 \log \left( \frac{I_C}{10^{-13}} \right) \quad \text{at } 27^\circ\text{C}$$

Amplifying effect! => small change in base current  $I_B$  has a large amplifying effect on currents  $I_C$  and  $I_E$

Transistors are active components with the *ability to amplify electrical signal*. Small current at the base B is amplified to produce large current at collector C and emitter E. Transistors are made typically from Silicon (Si) and they come in different categories:

- bipolar (typically analog, range of currents, voltages, frequencies)
- field effect (both analog and digital; high impedance)
- MOS or CMOS (digital, high speed and low power, respectively)

# TRANSISTOR AS A SWITCH



If  $V_{in}$  is high, T is ON, switch is closed and  $V_{out}$  is low. Digital “0”

If  $V_{in}$  is low, T is OFF, switch is open and  $V_{out}$  is high. Digital “1”

Switch function occurs when high base voltage ( $>0.7$  V) saturates the transistor and it fully conducts current in the C-E path resulting in  $V_{out} = 0$ .

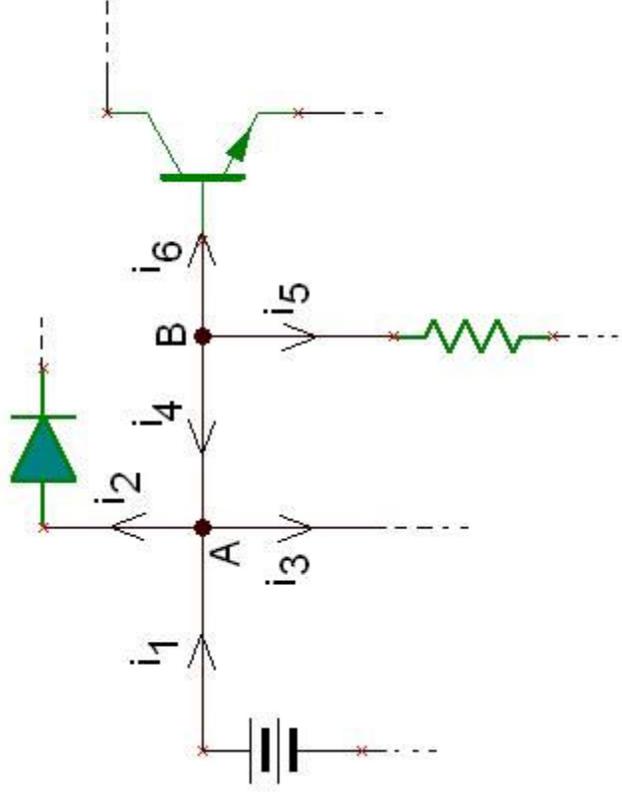
or when the the base voltage is negative. Then it cuts off the current in the C-E path and  $V_{out} = V_{cc}$ .

*This is the means by which digital or on/off switching can be accomplished and forms the basis for all digital circuits (including computers)*

# Basic Circuit Laws

- Ohm's law – links voltage with current and resistance
  - Know about energy/ power relationships
- Thevenin equivalent circuits
  - Provides means to combine sources of signal (voltage or current, as well as indirectly resistance)
- Kirchoff's current law
  - Provides means to analyze complex circuits
  - voltages in a loop or current at any node

# CIRCUIT ANALYSIS : KIRCHOFF'S CURRENT LAW



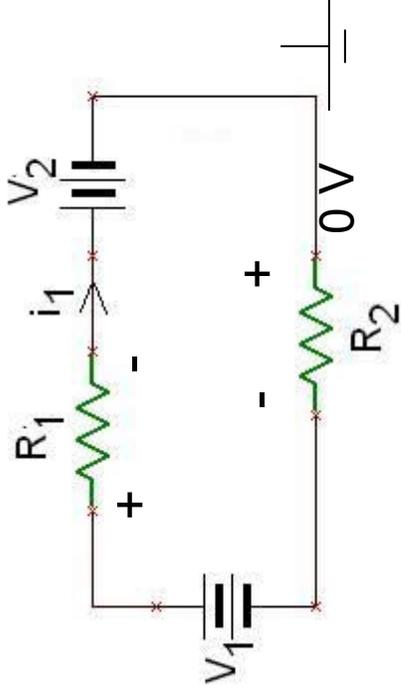
*Irrespective of the components attached, the sum of all currents entering a node is zero.*

- 1. Current into node : +ve*
- 2. Current leaving node : -ve*

Therefore at A,  $\sum I = 0 = i_1 + (-i_2) + (-i_3) + i_4 \Rightarrow i_2 + i_3 = i_1 + i_4$

Therefore at B,  $\sum I = 0 = -i_4 - i_5 - i_6 \Rightarrow i_4 + i_5 + i_6 = 0$

# CIRCUIT ANALYSIS : KIRCHOFF'S LOOP LAW



*In a closed loop, the sum of all voltage drops is zero.*

*1. Current travels from higher potential to lower.*

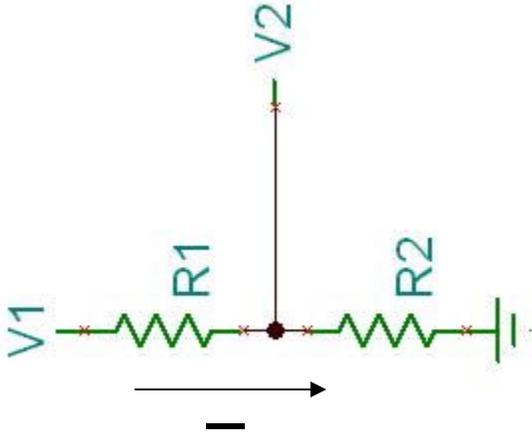
*2. Positive current flows from + to – inside a voltage source.*

Thus in the loop,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & -V_1 && \text{due to (2)} \\
 & +i_1R_1 && \text{due to (1)} \\
 & +V_2 && \text{due to (2)} \\
 & +i_1R_2 && \text{due to (1)} \\
 & = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow i_1 = \left( \frac{V_1 - V_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right)$$

# VOLTAGE DIVIDER



$$I = \left( \frac{V_1}{R_1 + R_2} \right)$$

$$V_2 = IR_2$$

$$\therefore V_2 = V_1 \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right)$$

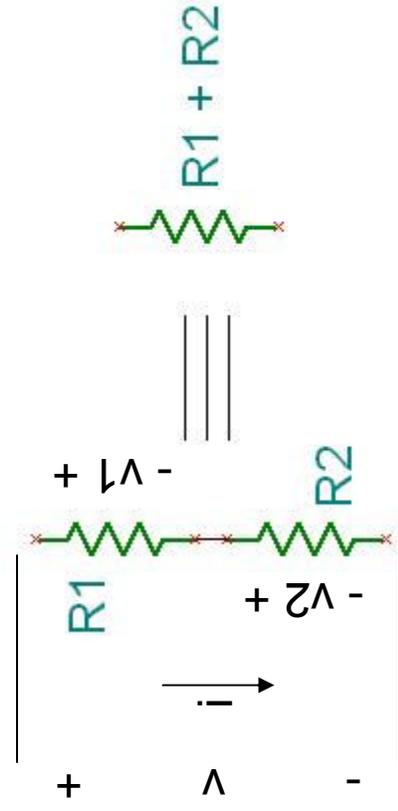
$$V_1 = I \cdot R_1 + I \cdot R_2$$

Therefore,  $V_2 = ?$

$V_2$  is a fraction of  $V_1$  determined by the ratio of the two resistances  $R_1$  and  $R_2$

Example: Light dimmer (has a potentiometer which is a variable resistance). You dim the light by the ratio of resistors dropping the voltage going to the light bulb

# COMBINING RESISTORS



Series: from Kirchoff's 1st law,

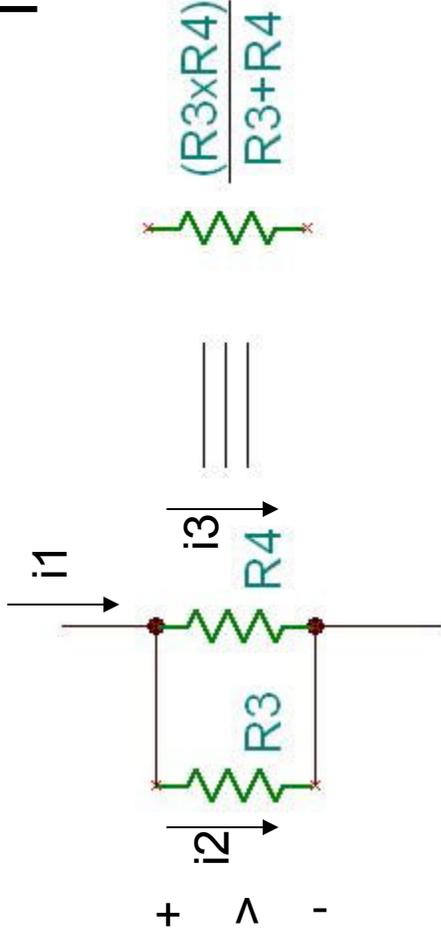
$$V - V_1 - V_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow V = V_1 + V_2$$

$$= iR_1 + iR_2 = i(R_1 + R_2)$$

$$\text{also } V = iR = i(R_1 + R_2).$$

Thus  $R = R_1 + R_2$ . [ergo]



Parallel: from Kirchoff's 1st law,

$$i_1 = i_2 + i_3$$

$$= (V/R_3) + (V/R_4)$$

$$= V(R_3 R_4 / (R_3 + R_4))$$

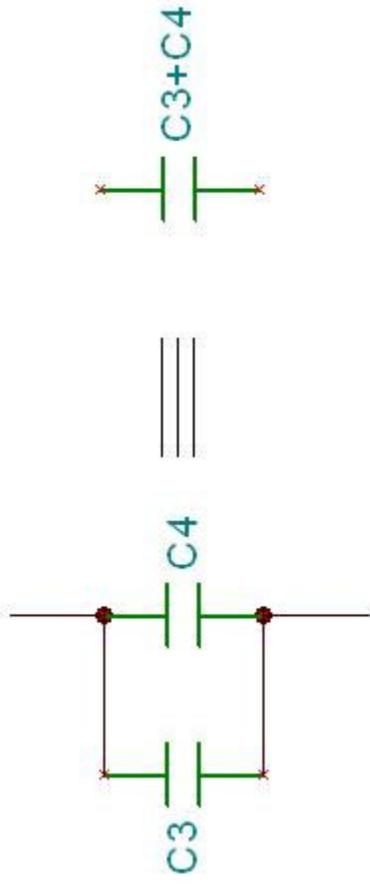
also  $i_1 = V/R$

Thus  $R = R_3 R_4 / (R_3 + R_4)$ . [ergo]

# COMBINING CAPACITORS

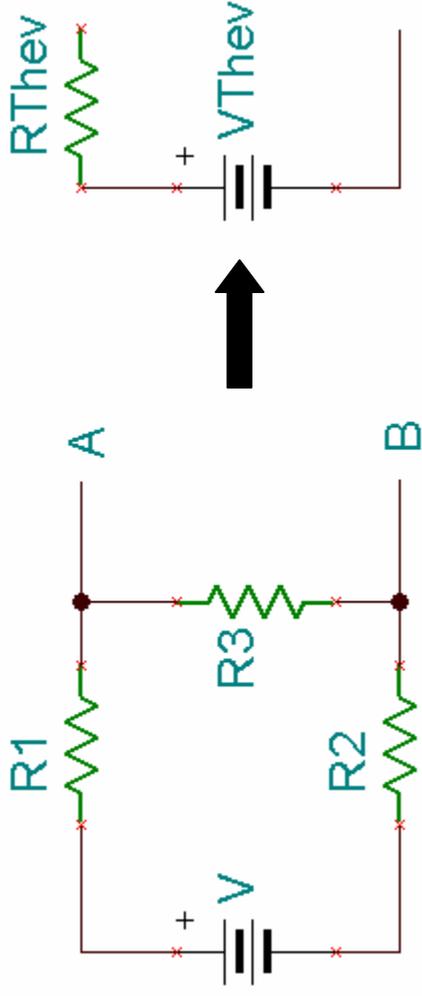


Series



Parallel

# Thevenin equivalent



Any circuit of resistors and sources can be reduced to a single source and resistor – the Thevenin's equivalent.

$V_{Thev}$  is the voltage seen between A and B

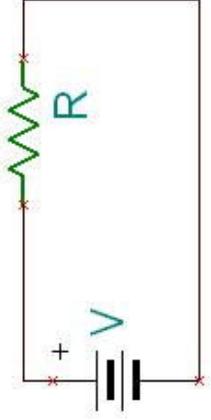
$$= VR_3 / (R_1 + R_2 + R_3)$$

$R_{thev}$  is the resistance seen between A and B with the source shorted

$$= R_3 \parallel (R_1 + R_2) = R_3(R_1 + R_2) / (R_3 + R_1 + R_2)$$

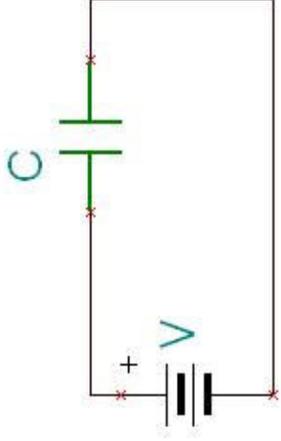
# IMPEDANCE

- Different from RESISTANCE as it includes a frequency component – dependent on the frequency  $f$  (in Hz) of the input.



$$Z = R$$

Frequency independent



$$Z = \frac{1}{j2\pi fC}$$

Inversely dependent on frequency

Example:  $Z = R + (1/j\omega C)$  ....

Resistance + frequency dependent capacitance

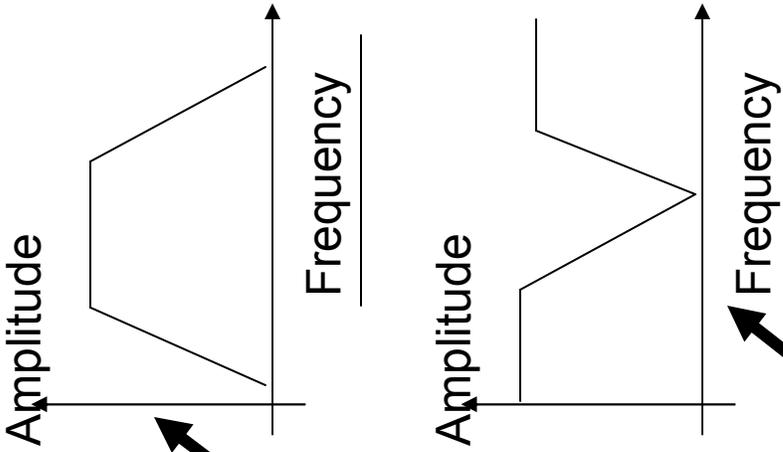
# Return to Capacitance : frequency

We saw  $Z = \frac{1}{j2\pi fC}$  in frequency or fourier domain

$Z = \frac{1}{sC}$  in Laplace domain

Thus for analyzing circuits with capacitors, we assume them to have the above resistance. So the result we get is frequency dependant. This is called the *frequency response* of circuits. We will encounter this in filters.

# DIFFERENT FILTERS

- Low pass filter
  - High pass filter
  - Bandpass filter
    - e.g. ECG: 0.05-100 Hz
  - Band reject (notch) filter: e.g. 60 Hz
- 
- The image contains two graphs illustrating filter responses. The top graph shows a low-pass filter response, where the amplitude is constant at low frequencies and then decreases as frequency increases. The bottom graph shows a high-pass filter response, where the amplitude is zero at low frequencies and then increases as frequency increases, eventually leveling off at high frequencies. Arrows point from the text 'Low pass filter' to the top graph and from 'High pass filter' to the bottom graph.

# FILTERS: TRANSFER FUNCTION

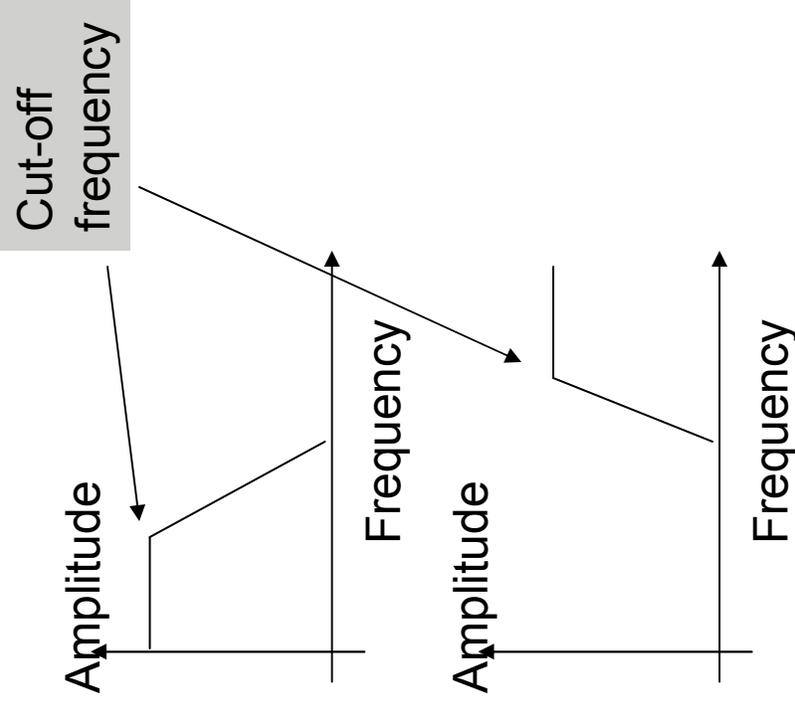
The  $V_{\text{OUT}}/V_{\text{IN}}$  of circuits is called their *Transfer Function*. It is a function of the frequency of operation. It is denoted by  $H(f)$ . Thus,

For LPF

$$H(f) = \left( \frac{1}{1 + j2\pi fRC} \right)$$

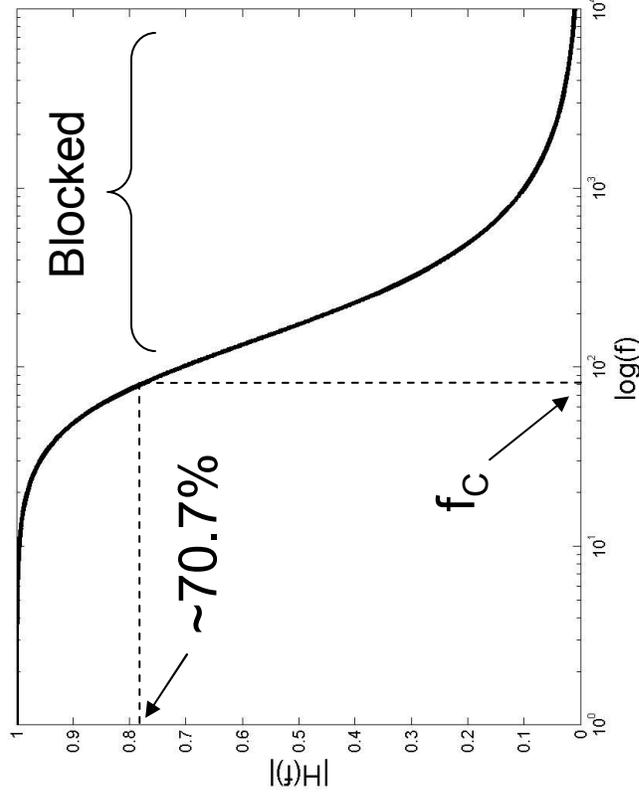
And for HPF

$$H(f) = \left( \frac{j2\pi fRC}{1 + j2\pi fRC} \right)$$



# FILTERS: FREQUENCY RESPONSE

The transfer function exists in the complex number domain. A plot of  $H(f)$  is a powerful way to analyse it. There are 2 parts to such a plot (called Bode plot). A magnitude part and a phase part. Shown is a magnitude Bode plot of a LPF.



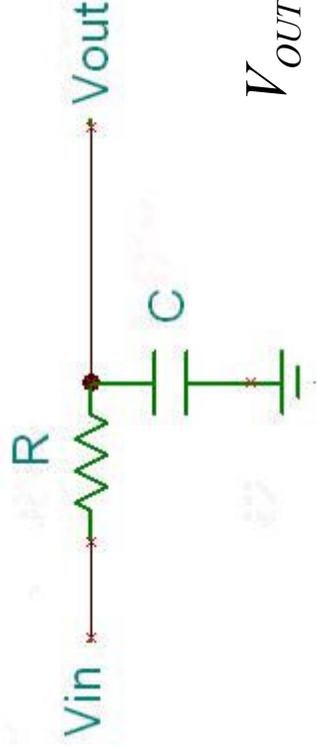
x axis:  $\log(\text{frequency})$

y axis: absolute value of

$$H(f) = |H(f)|$$

$f_c$  is the frequency on one side of which  $H(f) \sim 0$  or the circuit blocks those frequencies. It is the *cutoff frequency*.

# FILTERS : FREQUENCY SENSITIVE CIRCUITS

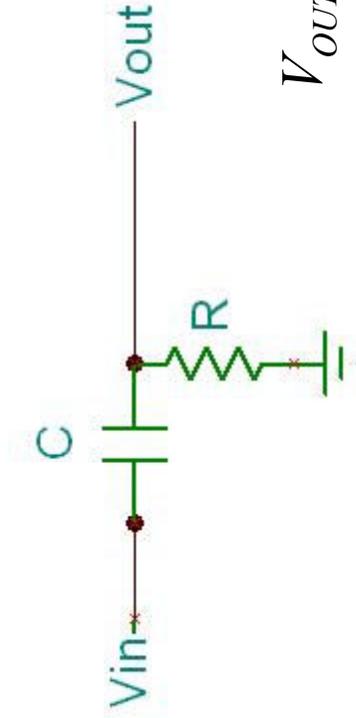


Recall voltage divider,

$$V_{OUT} = V_{IN} \left( \frac{\frac{1}{j2\pi fC}}{R + \frac{1}{j2\pi fC}} \right) = V_{IN} \left( \frac{1}{1 + j2\pi fRC} \right)$$

As  $f$  increases from 0 onwards,  $V_{OUT}/V_{IN}$  (the *TRANSFER FUNCTION*) goes from 1 to 0. Thus high frequencies are attenuated. Thus this is a **LOW PASS FILTER**.

# FILTERS : FREQUENCY SENSITIVE CIRCUITS

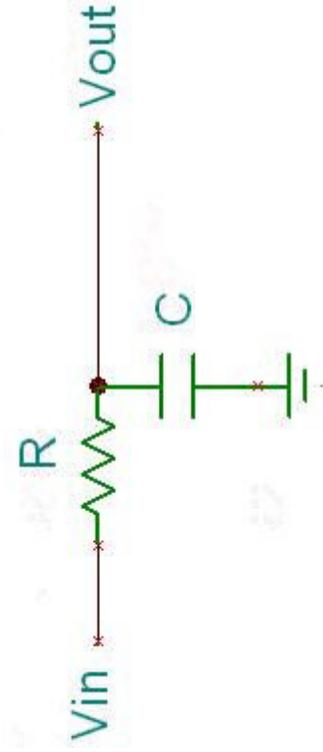


Recall voltage divider,

$$V_{OUT} = V_{IN} \left( \frac{R}{R + \frac{1}{j2\pi fC}} \right) = V_{IN} \left( \frac{j2\pi fRC}{1 + j2\pi fRC} \right)$$

As  $f$  increases from 0 onwards,  $V_{OUT}/V_{IN}$  (the *TRANSFER FUNCTION*) goes from 0 to 1. Thus low frequencies are attenuated. Thus this is a **HIGH PASS FILTER**.

# FILTERS : FREQUENCY SENSITIVE CIRCUITS – LPF



Recall voltage divider, impedance

$$V_{OUT}/V_{IN} = Z_C/(Z_R+Z_C)$$

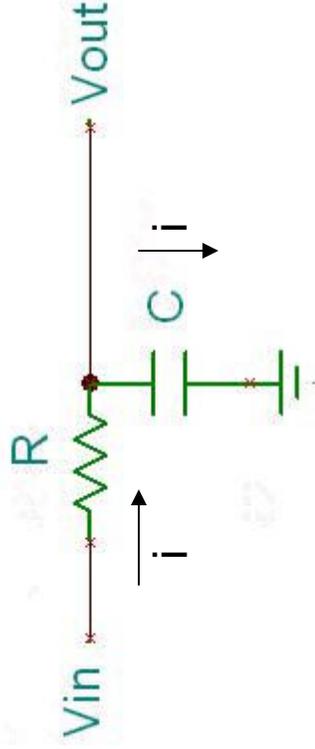
$$Z_R = R$$

$$Z_C = 1/j2\pi f$$

$$V_{OUT} = V_{IN} \left( \frac{\frac{1}{j2\pi f C}}{R + \frac{1}{j2\pi f C}} \right) = V_{IN} \left( \frac{1}{1 + j2\pi f RC} \right)$$

As  $f$  increases from 0 onwards,  $V_{OUT}/V_{IN}$  (the *TRANSFER FUNCTION*) goes from 1 to 0. Thus high frequencies are attenuated. Thus this is a **LOW PASS FILTER**.

# LPF: TIME AND LAPLACE DOMAIN



$$(V_{IN} - V_{OUT})/R = i = CdV_{OUT}/dt$$
$$V_{OUT} + RCdV_{OUT}/dt = V_{IN} \quad (1)$$

The differential eqn. relating input and output.

Taking Laplace transform of (1),

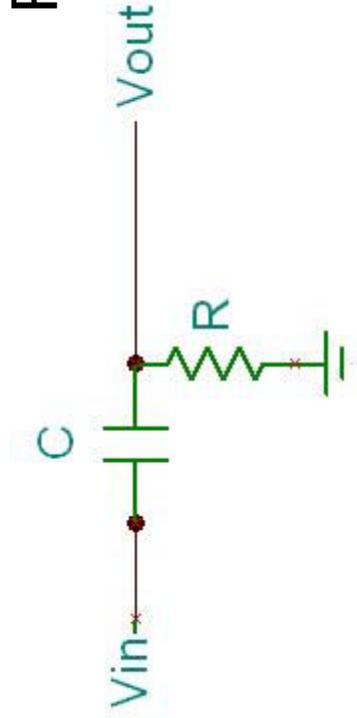
$$V_{OUT}(s) + sRCV_{OUT}(s) = V_{IN}(s)$$

$$s = j\omega$$

$$H(s) = V_{OUT}(s)/V_{IN}(s) = 1/(1 + sRC)$$

$$[= H(f) \text{ for } f = j\omega = j2\pi f]$$

# FILTERS : FREQUENCY SENSITIVE CIRCUITS – HPF



Recall voltage divider, impedance

$$V_{OUT}/V_{IN} = Z_R/(Z_R+Z_C)$$

$$Z_R = R$$

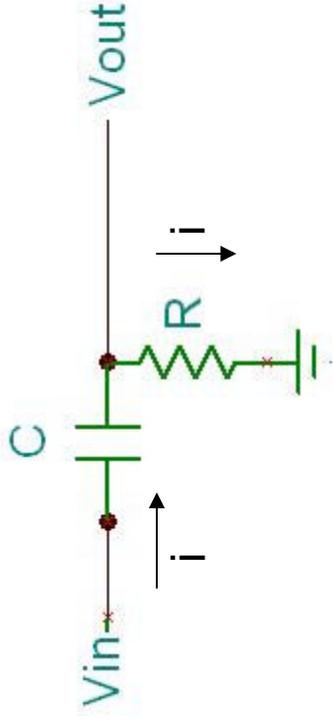
$$Z_C = 1/j2\pi f$$

$$V_{OUT} = V_{IN} \left( \frac{R}{R + \frac{1}{j2\pi f C}} \right) = V_{IN} \left( \frac{j2\pi f RC}{1 + j2\pi f RC} \right)$$

As  $f$  increases from 0 onwards,  $V_{OUT}/V_{IN}$  (the *TRANSFER FUNCTION*) goes from 0 to 1. Thus low frequencies are attenuated. Thus this is a **HIGH PASS FILTER**.

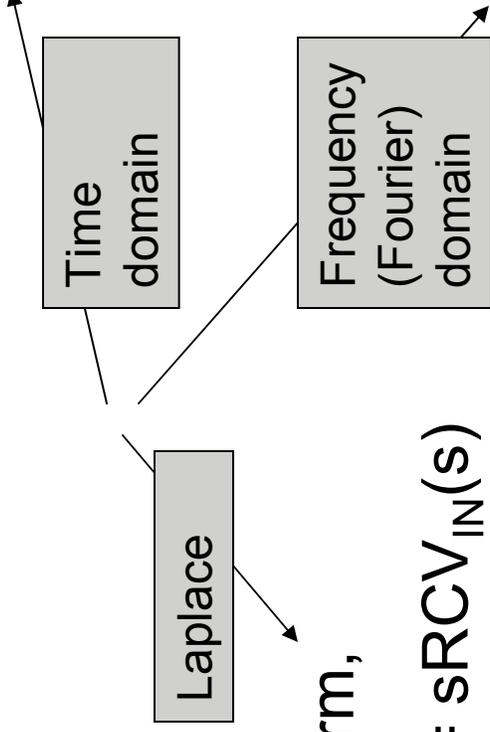
# HPF: TIME AND LAPLACE

## DOMAIN



$$i = C d(V_{IN} - V_{OUT})/dt = V_{OUT}/R$$

$$V_{OUT} + RC dV_{OUT}/dt = RC V_{OUT}/dt$$



Taking Laplace transform,

$$V_{OUT}(s) + sRCV_{OUT}(s) = sRCV_{IN}(s)$$

$$H(s) = V_{OUT}(s)/V_{IN}(s) = sRC/(1 + sRC) \quad [= H(f) \text{ for } f = j\omega = j2\pi f]$$

# OPTOELECTRONICS



Possible barrier

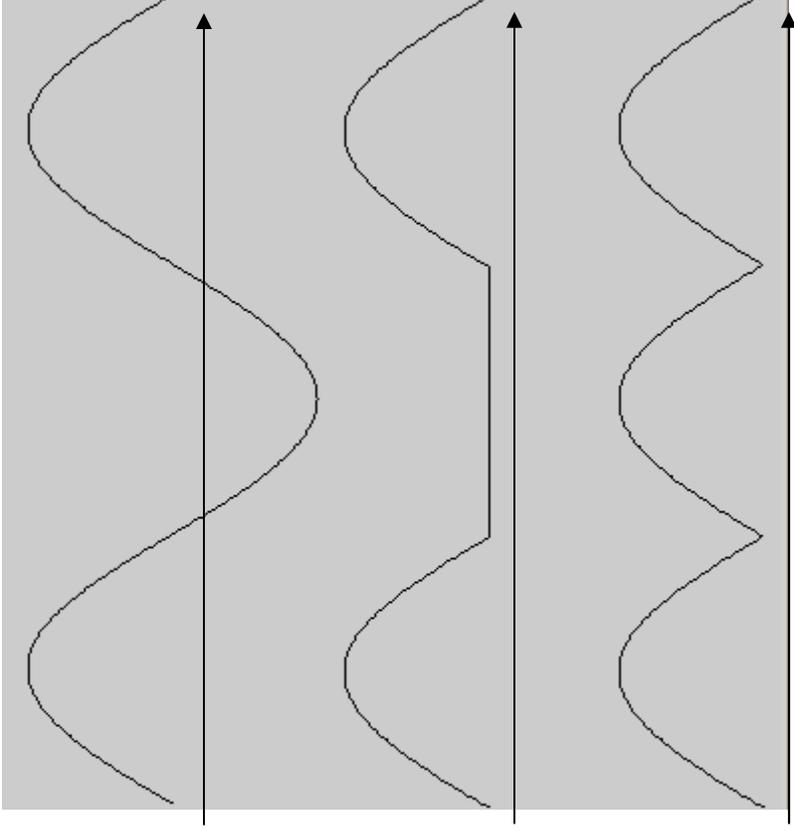
*LED* : light emitting diode

*Phototransistor* : light sensitive device made from Si

Recall Transistor as a switch. If light falls on the transistor, it is a closed switch else open. Can use to detect barriers – burglar alarms etc.

A medical application: shining an LED into finger and using a phototransistor to detect reflected or transmitted light to pick up finger pulse.

# RECTIFIERS



Original input

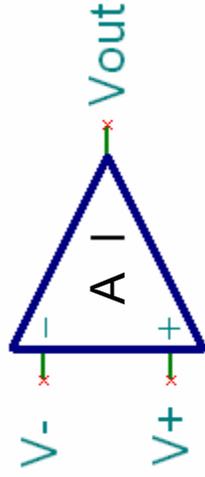
Half wave rectified output

Full wave rectified output

Rectification is done using diodes. Rectifiers are useful in power supplies: to convert ac signals to dc. Ac to dc conversion is done by rectifying and then peak voltage stored on a capacitor to produce dc voltage from ac.

# Operational Amplifier (OP AMP)

Basic and most common circuit building device. Ideally,



1. No current can enter terminals  $V_+$  or  $V_-$ . Called *infinite input impedance*.

2.  $V_{out} = A(V_+ - V_-)$  with  $A \rightarrow \infty$

$$\begin{aligned} V_o &= (A V_+ - A V_-) \\ &= A (V_+ - V_-) \end{aligned}$$

3. In a circuit  $V_+$  is forced equal to  $V_-$ . This is the *virtual ground* property

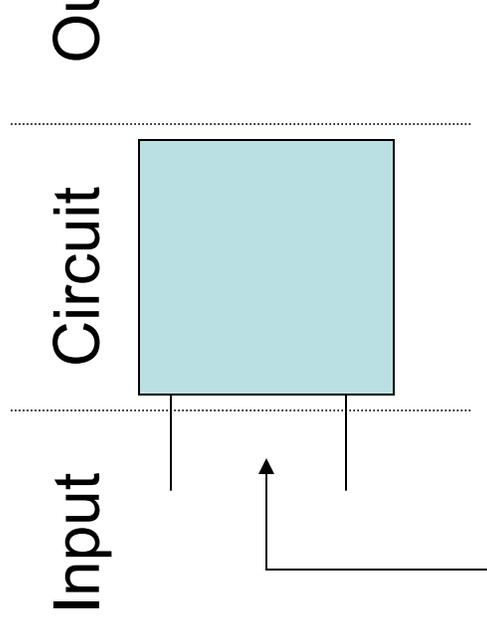
4. An opamp needs two voltages to power it  $V_{cc}$  and  $-V_{ee}$ . These are called the *rails*.

# IDEAL AMPLIFIER vs. REAL AMPLIFIER

- Infinite Gain
- Infinite Bandwidth
- Infinite Input Resistance
- Zero Output Resistance
- Zero Noise
- No Temperature Sensitivity
- Zero Power Consumption
- Perfectly Linear
- ...
- ...

- 100,000
- 0-MHz
- 100 M Ohm
- 50 Ohm
- Microvolt
- microV/C
- mWatt
- 0.1% nonlinearity
- ...
- ...

# INPUT IMPEDANCE



Impedance between  
input terminals = input  
impedance

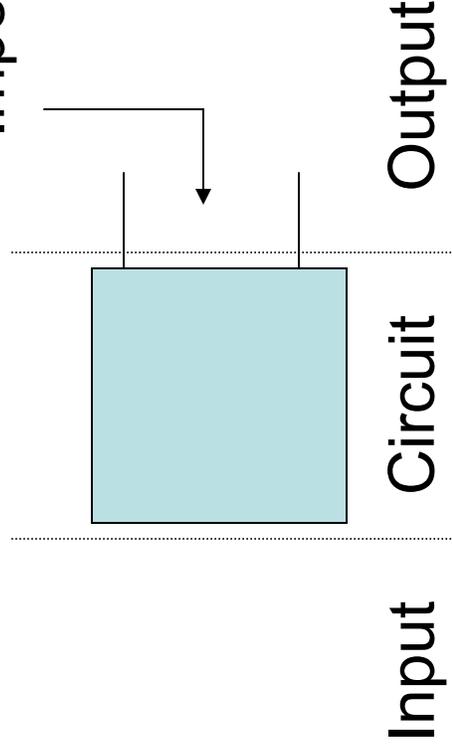
WHY?

For an instrument the  $Z_{IN}$  should be very high (ideally infinity) so it does not divert any current from the input to itself even if the input has very high resistance.

e.g. an opamp taking input from a microelectrode (10 M ohm resistance).

# OUTPUT IMPEDANCE

Impedance between output terminals =  
output impedance



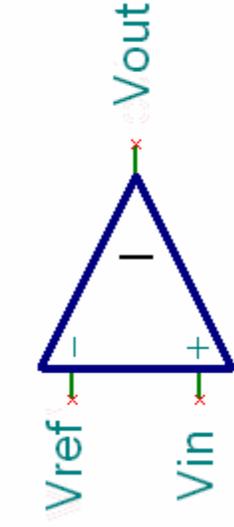
WHY?

For an instrument the  $Z_{OUT}$  should be very low (ideally zero) so it can supply output even to very low resistive loads and not expend most of it on itself.

e.g. a power opamp driving a motor

Example: Connect stereo amplifier to a loud speaker with high impedance wires

# OPAMP: COMPARATOR



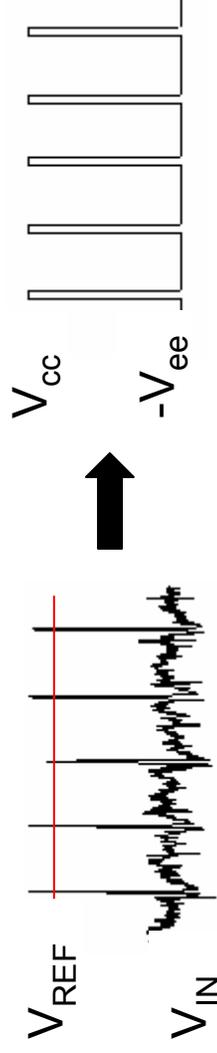
$$V_{out} = A(V_{in} - V_{ref})$$

If  $V_{in} > V_{ref}$ ,  $V_{out} = +\infty$  but practically hits +ve power supply =  $V_{cc}$

A (gain)  
very high

If  $V_{in} < V_{ref}$ ,  $V_{out} = -\infty$  but practically hits -ve power supply =  $-V_{ee}$

Application: detection of QRS complex in ECG

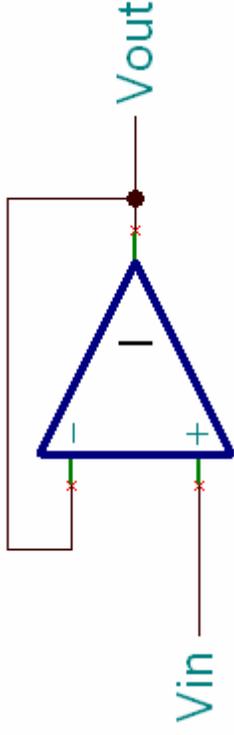


# OPAMP: ANALYSIS

The key to op amp analysis is simple

1. No current can enter op amp input terminals.  
=> Because of infinite input impedance
2. The +ve and -ve (non-inverting and inverting) inputs are forced to be at the same potential.  
=> Because of infinite open loop gain
3. These property is called “virtual ground”
4. Use the ideal op amp property in all your analyses

# OPAMP: VOLTAGE FOLLOWER



$$V_+ = V_{IN}$$

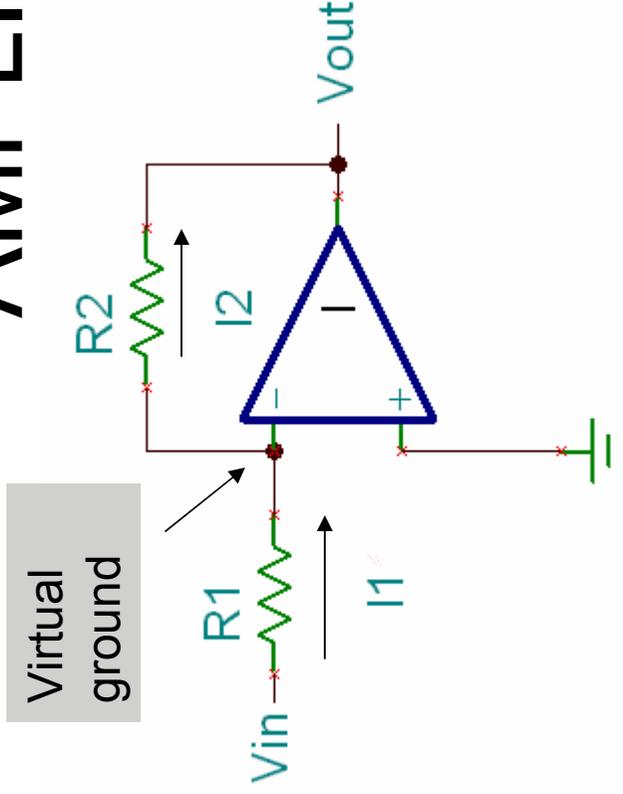
By virtual ground,  $V_- = V_+$

Thus  $V_{out} = V_- = V_+ = V_{IN}$  !!!!

So what's the point ? The point is, due to the infinite input impedance of an op amp, no current at all can be drawn from the circuit before  $V_{IN}$ . Thus this part is effectively isolated.

*Very useful for interfacing to high impedance sensors such as microelectrode, microphone...*

# OPAMP: INVERTING AMPLIFIER



1.  $V_- = V_+$

2. As  $V_+ = 0$ ,  $V_- = 0$

3. As no current can enter  $V_-$  and from Kirchoff's 1st law,  $I_1 = I_2$ .

4.  $I_1 = (V_{IN} - V_-)/R_1 = V_{IN}/R_1$

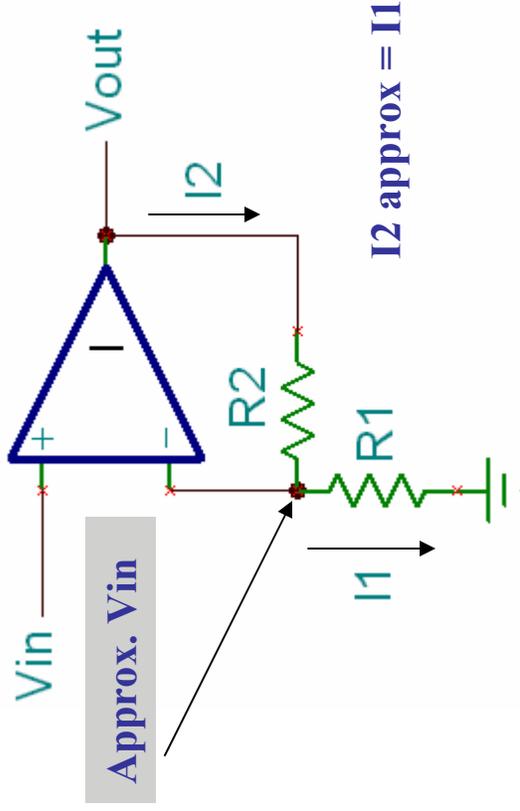
5.  $I_2 = (0 - V_{OUT})/R_2 = -V_{OUT}/R_2 \Rightarrow V_{OUT} = -I_2 R_2$

6. From 3 and 5,  $V_{OUT} = -I_2 R_2 = -I_1 R_2 = -V_{IN}(R_2/R_1)$

7. Therefore  **$V_{OUT} = (-R_2/R_1)V_{IN}$**

Example:  $R_2=10000$  and  $R_1=1000$ , then Gain =?

# OPAMP: NON – INVERTING AMPLIFIER

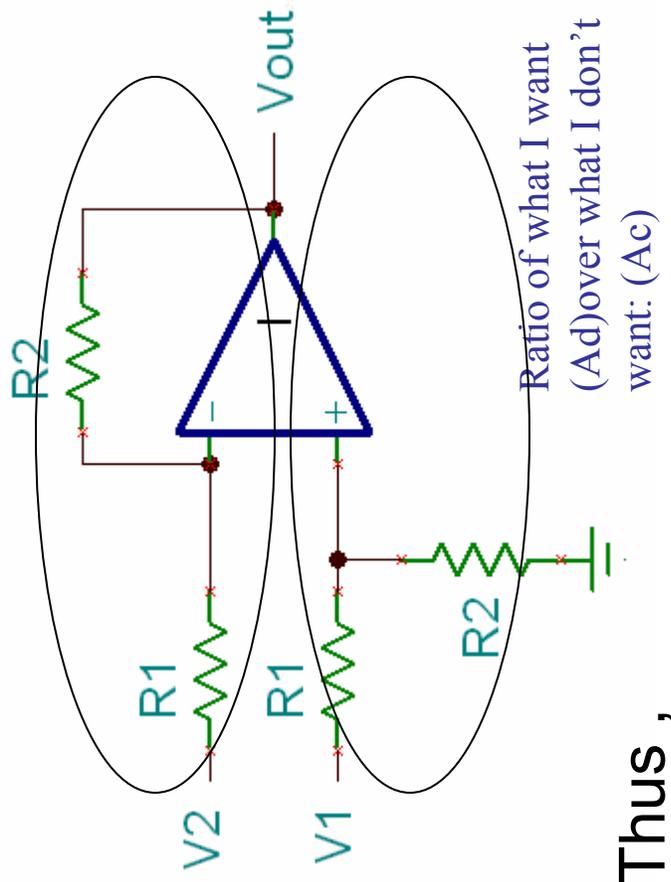


1.  $V_- = V_+$
2. As  $V_+ = V_{IN}$ ,  $V_- = V_{IN}$
3. As no current can enter  $V_-$  and from Kirchoff's 1st law,  $I_1 = I_2$ .

4.  $I_1 = V_{IN}/R_1$
5.  $I_2 = (V_{OUT} - V_{IN})/R_2 \Rightarrow V_{OUT} = V_{IN} + I_2 R_2$
6.  $V_{OUT} = I_1 R_1 + I_2 R_2 = (R_1 + R_2) I_1 = (R_1 + R_2) V_{IN} / R_1$
7. Therefore  $V_{OUT} = (1 + R_2/R_1) V_{IN}$

Properties of the op amp

# DIFFERENTIAL AMPLIFIERS



$$V_{OUT} = (V_1 - V_2)R_2/R_1$$

Amplifies a *difference*.

Common noise sources add symmetrically to an opamp. Thus there is a differential ( $V_1 - V_2$ ) and a common mode ( $V_1 + V_2$ ) component to the input.

Thus ,

$$V_{OUT} = A_C(V_1 + V_2) + A_D(V_1 - V_2)$$

$A_D$ : differential (signal) gain,  $A_C$ : common mode (noise) gain.

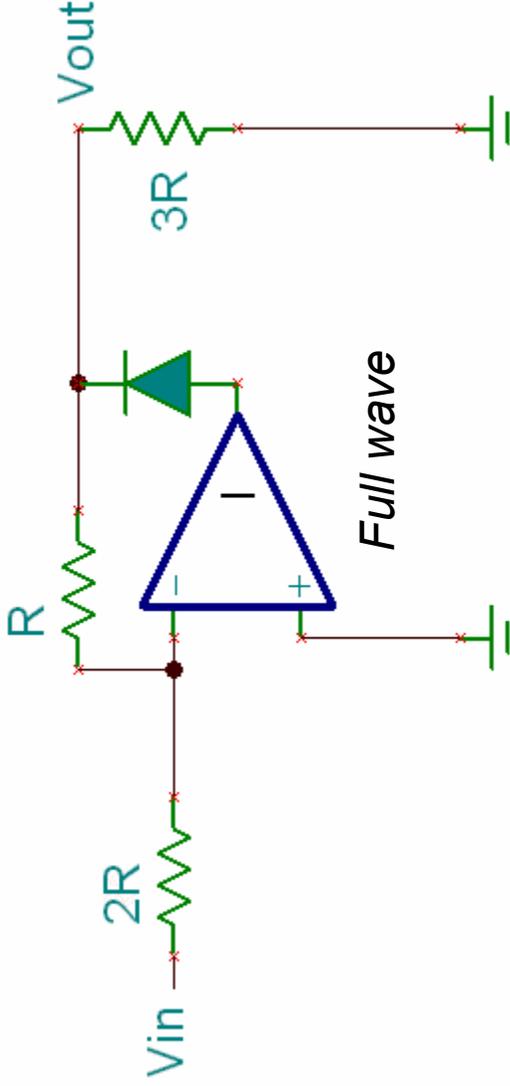
The ratio  $A_D/A_C$  (Common Mode Rejection Ratio – CMRR) is a very important parameter. Ideally CMRR  $\rightarrow \infty$

# RECTIFIERS

Recall Diodes, inverting amplifier, comparator, voltage divider.

$V_{in}$    $V_{out}$  If  $V_{IN} > 0$ ,  $V_{OUT} = V_{IN}$ ,

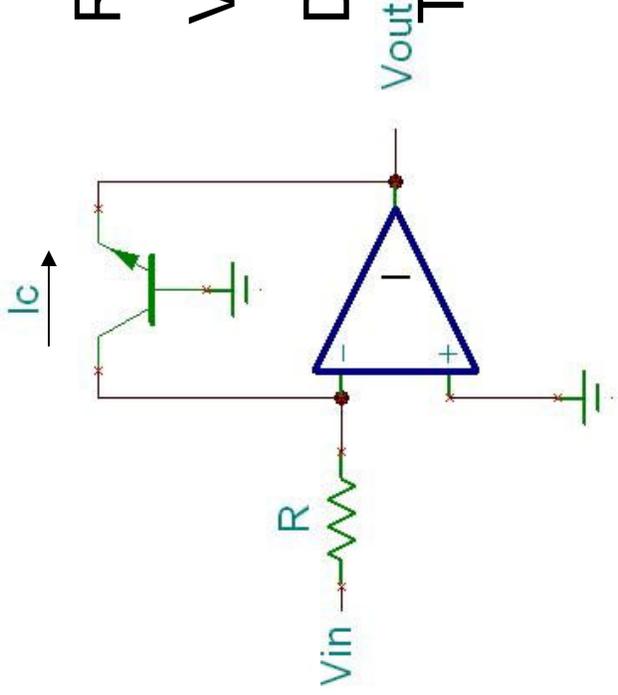
*Half wave* If  $V_{IN} < 0$ ,  $V_{OUT} = 0$



If  $V_{IN} > 0$ ,  $A = -V_{ee}$ ,  
 diode is off,  $V_{OUT} =$   
 $V_{IN}(3R/(2R+R+3R)) =$   
 $V_{IN}/2$  (divider)

If  $V_{IN} < 0$ ,  $A = V_{cc}$ , diode  
 is on,  $V_{OUT} =$   
 $-V_{IN}(R/2R) = -V_{IN}/2$   
 (inverting amplifier)

# NONLINEAR AMPLIFIER



Recall BJT.  $V_{OUT} = -V_{BE}$

$$V_{BE} = 0.06 \log(I_C / 10^{-13})$$

Due to opamp,  $I_C = V_{IN} / R$

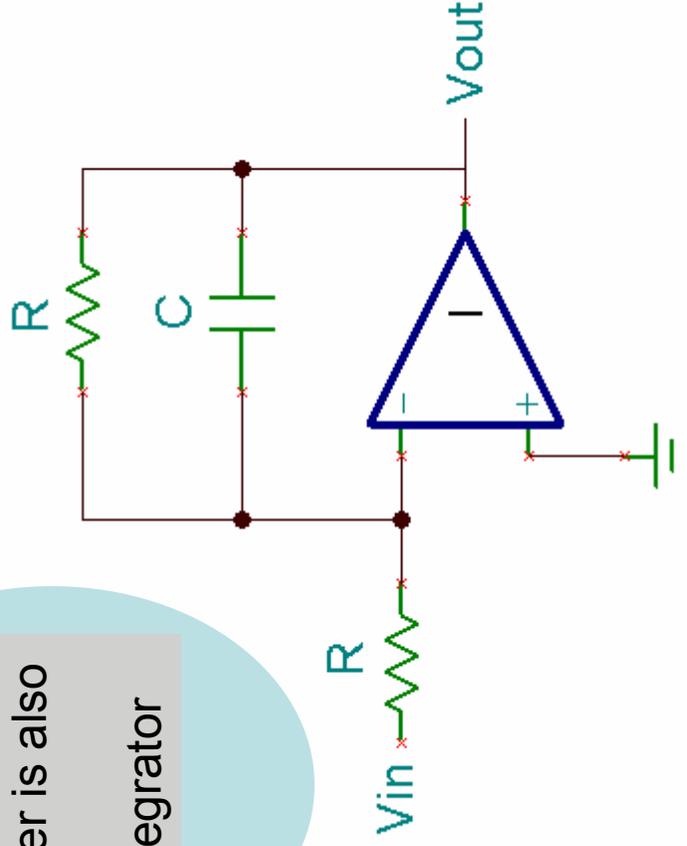
$$\text{Thus } V_{OUT} = -0.06 \log(V_{IN} / 10^{-13} R)$$

What are the possible applications of nonlinear circuits?

- e.g. temperature dependent transistor, doing logarithmic calculations
- linearizing other nonlinear circuit components

# ACTIVE FILTERS

Low pass filter is also an Integrator



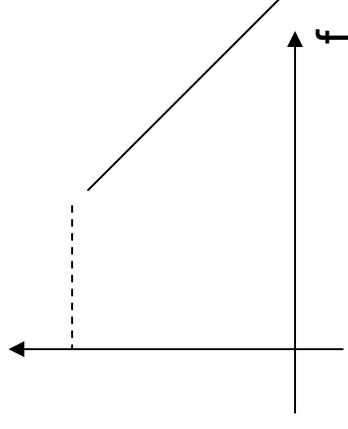
Recall impedance, inverting amplifier.

The feedback resistance is R in parallel with  $1/j2\pi fC$   
 $= R/(1+j2\pi fRC)$

$$V_{OUT}/V_{IN} = R_2/R_1 = R/(1+j2\pi fRC)R = 1/(1+j2\pi fRC)$$

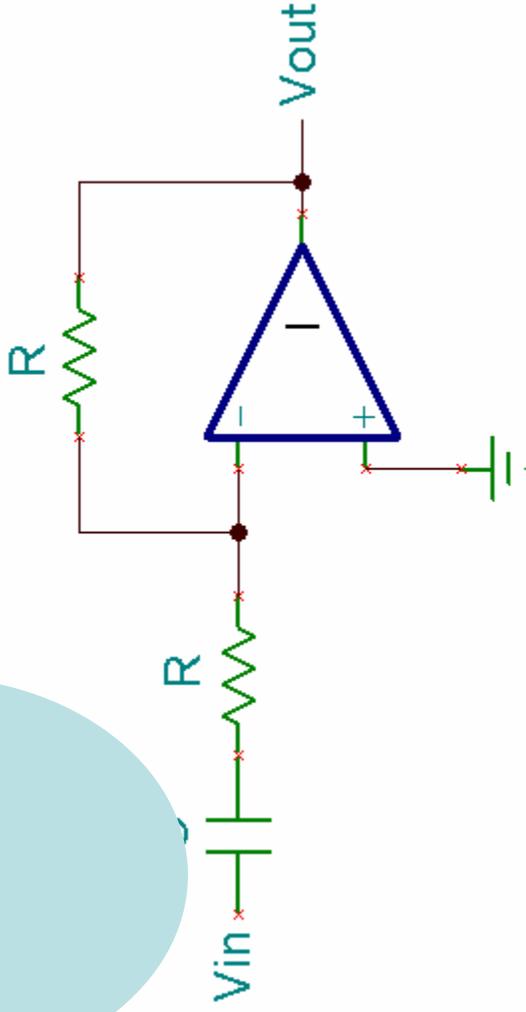
= 1 at  $f = 0$  and  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $f \rightarrow \infty$  therefore LPF

Cutoff frequency  $f = 1/2\pi \text{ sqrt}(RC)$  (where  $|H(f)|=0.707$ )



High pass filter is also a Differentiator

# ACTIVE FILTERS



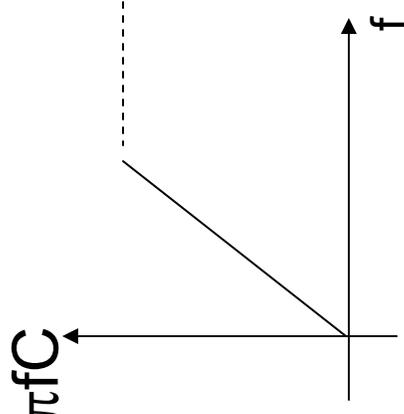
Resistance  $R$  is in parallel with the capacitor, impedance is  $R$  in series with  $1/j2\pi fC$

$$= R + 1/j2\pi fC$$

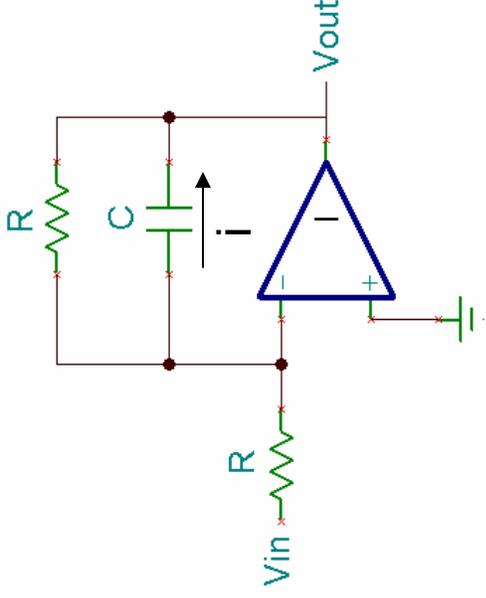
$$V_{OUT}/V_{IN} = R_2/R_1 = j2\pi fRC/(1+j2\pi fRC)$$

= 0 at  $f = 0$  and = 1 as  $f \rightarrow \infty$  therefore HPF

Cutoff frequency  $f = 1/2\pi(RC)$  (where  $|H(f)| = 0.707$ )

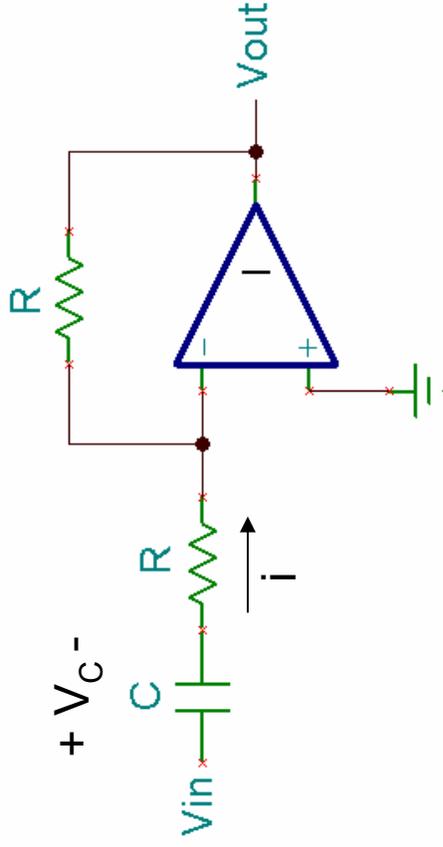


# FILTERS AS INTEGRATORS AND DIFFERENTIATORS



$$\text{LPF, } V_{OUT} = 0 - \frac{1}{C} \int i dt$$

Thus it is like an integrator



$$\text{HPF, } V_{OUT} = 0 - iR = -RC \frac{dV_C}{dt}$$

Thus it is like a differentiator

## **Electric Circuits – overview**

- What are the different electrical circuit components?  
R, C, diode, transistor, transformer, inductor...
- What are the circuit analysis laws?
  - What is Ohm's law
  - Kirchoff's current law (current at a node sums to zero): think of water pipes distributing water through finer pipes at a node
  - Kirchoff's voltage law (voltage around a loop sums to zero): think of going up and down the hill and gaining/losing potential energy
- Develop simple circuits (buy parts at an electronic store such as XYZ Shack and build hobby prototypes)
  - Battery voltage applied to a beeper (match voltages)
  - Battery voltage applied to an electric motor (") via a switch
  - Battery connected via a resistor to an LED
  - Develop time-varying circuits using capacitors
  - Capacitor charging/discharging through a resistor
  - Calculate the time constant
  - Calculate the time varying charge and discharge equation

# **Electronic circuits - Overview**

Semiconductors such as Si and Ge

Diode: current in one direction

Come up with one or two applications of diodes

Transistor: amplifies current (current in the collector-emitter path is amplified version of the current in the base)

Use of a transistor to amplify audio sound: interface a microphone and a loud speaker

Operational amplifier

Ideal op amp, Real op amp

Use an op amp to compare a signal with a threshold voltage

Use an op amp to amplify low level microphone signal

# Case Studies

- **Applications of dc circuits**

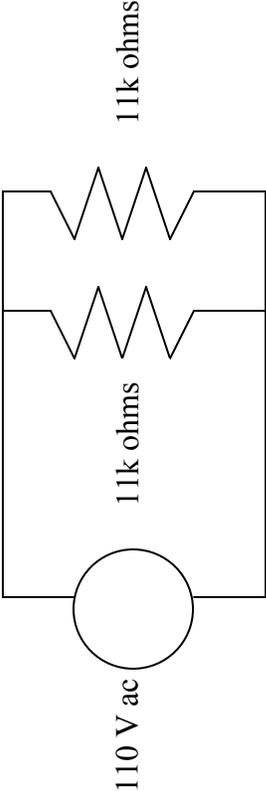
Voltage across a cell membrane

- Ion channel currents
- Voltage clamp
- Patch clamp

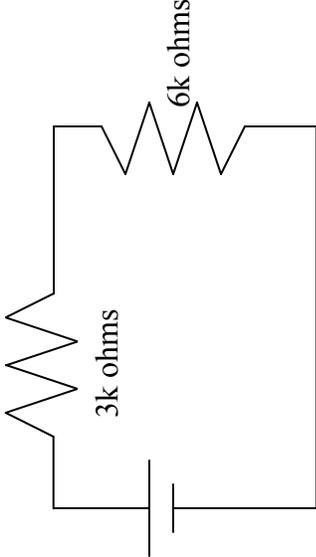
## **Applications of time varying circuits**

- Charging and discharging a capacitor
- Charging and discharging a defibrillator

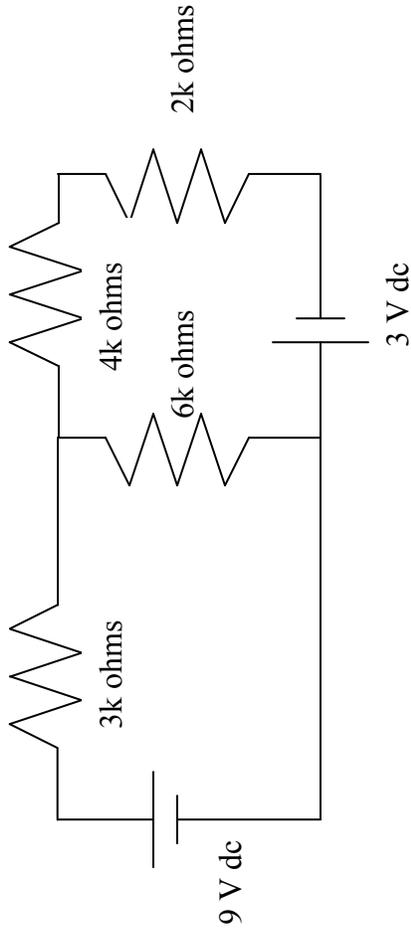
Calculate the current in the following circuit. What is the equivalent resistance of the two resistors in parallel?



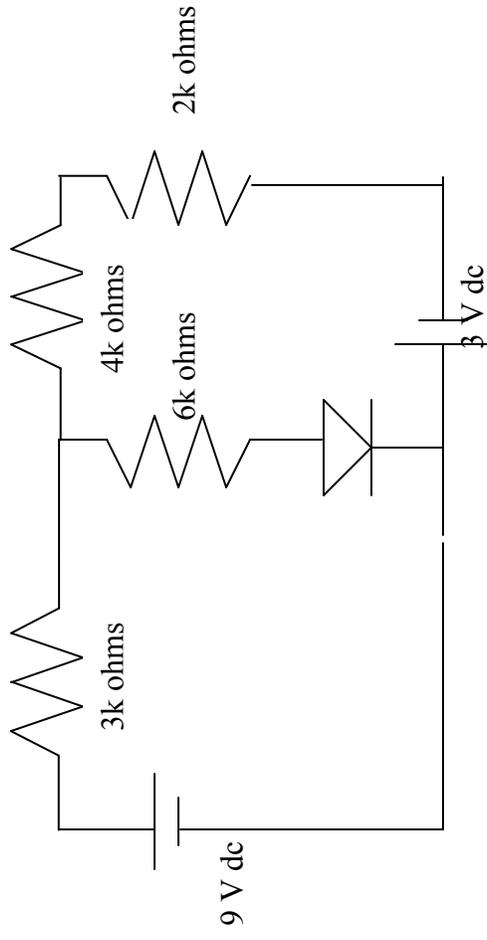
Calculate the voltage across each resistor. What is the equivalent resistance value of the two resistors in series?

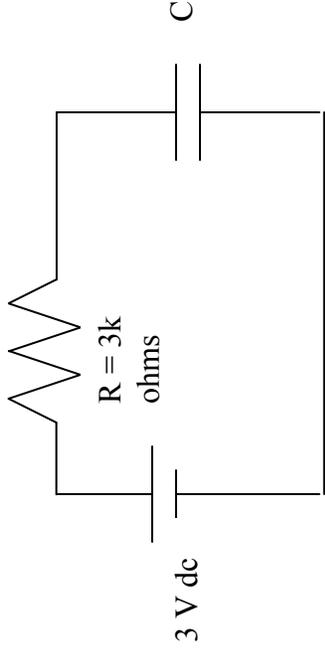


Use Kirchoff's current law and voltage law to calculate the current through and voltage across each of the resistors.



In the following circuit, put a switch so that the LED would light up when turned on. Will this LED light up (hint: find the current direction)?





Calculate the rate of charging (time constant) for the following circuit. What should be the value of the capacitor to achieve 10 second time constant? How long will it take for the capacitor to “fully” charge? What will be the current in the circuit when the capacitor is fully charged?

- Design a defibrillator circuit as follows. We want to deliver a 1000 Volt pulse for 10 ms when the physician commands it. This would be done in two steps. The first step is the “charge” command, and the second step is the discharge or shock command.
- Draw the shape of the defibrillator pulse that was produced by a charging a capacitor of 100  $\mu$ F through a resistor of 100 ohms and then discharged through a resistance of 1 k ohm.
- In the class, we gave the formula for power as  $P = VI$  and the energy as  $E = VI \Delta T$ . Derive the formula for energy in terms of voltage and resistance R. That is, the current I is flowing through resistance R when voltage V is applied.
- Calculate the energy consumed by a pacemaker which has to produce a 1 ms pulse of 5 Volt amplitude for 10 years. The pacemaker delivers the pulse in a heart with 50 ohm resistance.

Draw the circuit of a differentiator –OR– integrator.

- Now, through circuit analysis show why that circuit works like a differentiator/integrator (i.e. derive the relationship between output and input of the amplifier to show using your equation that the input signal is differentiated/integrated.
- Next, obtain the frequency response of this circuit. E.g. you can derive a transfer function (output over input) in the Laplace form, substitute  $s=j\omega$  and then show the frequency response.
- Point out *one major advantage* and *one major disadvantage* of an analog differentiator/integrator over a digital/software version.
- Describe (*very briefly*) a biomedical instrumentation application of an integrator or differentiator.

# Problems

- Research different types of transistors, logic, and relative benefits (analog/digital, low power, high speed, computer or cell phone applications)
- Applications of different components...e.g. bipolar, CMOS, etc.
- Where would you use low power, low voltage, etc.
- Convert “ac” voltage into dc voltage; e.g. use a transformer, capacitor and a diode.

# Alternative Power Sources

- Can we use body power to power the implantable devices? What kind of power source? Research different sensors, transducer mechanisms, would this have sufficient energy/power density? What are the plusses and minuses?
- Transistor applications: Gain, Power, Boost current, Photo-transistor, Temp dependent sensor, switching device (what can it be used for)? What applications can you think of using switching “logic”?

# More Problems

- Give examples of different filters and what they might be used for? E.g. give new/different uses of low/high/band/reject filters.
- Design amplifiers with gain of 1, infinity...
- Design comparator with a variable threshold
- Design complex circuits! E.g. Design a circuit for detecting heart beat and lighting up an LED at each heart beat. Some variations:
  - What if the ECG (heart beat) had both positive and negative polarity?
  - What circuit would you use to detect pulses from a “pulse oximeter” (i.e. shine a light/detect transmitted or reflected light)