

Circuit Analysis I

Wire in a circuit allows any level of current to move without any voltage drop.

Current is a flow rate of charge through an element. Think of it like water, charges being its molecules.

Voltage is an electric potential difference between two points. Imagine gravitational potential differences of an object, the object here being the charge.

3 basic component of a circuit is resistor, capacitor and inductor. Often called as RLC.

Resistor is an element whose voltage is \propto to current, also known as the ohm's law.

Capacitor is an element that stores electrical energy in an electrical field. It also opposes sudden change in voltage.

Inductor is an element that stores energy into a magnetic field, this allows the element to oppose sudden changes in current.

$$Q = CV \quad V = IR \quad I = C \frac{dV}{dt} \quad V = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

$$Q = CV$$

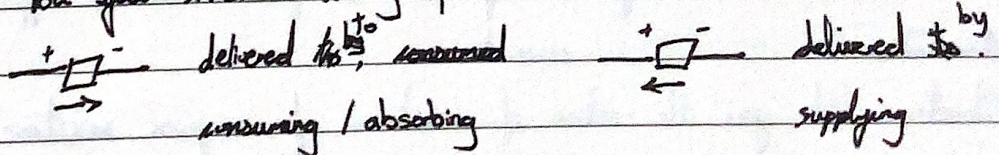
As with any other objects, the elements consumes or produce energy. The unit J, represents the energy delivered to 1C charge by e-field with 1V voltage.

Power is the energy per time. And thus the power of an element in circuit can be derived.

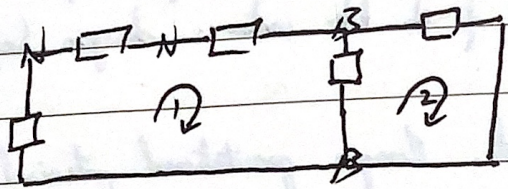
$$P = IV$$

How do we know if power is consumed or produced?

You can knowed using potential convention.



Geometry of circuit consists of:



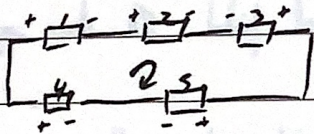
Node, point of connection.

Branch, a place connecting two nodes.

loop, node \rightarrow branches \rightarrow original node.

Two main laws governing circuit analysis are:

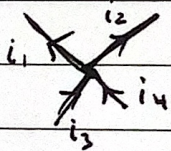
Kirchoff's voltage law, where sum of voltage in a given loop is zero.



$$-V_1 - V_2 + V_3 - V_4 + V_5 = 0$$

* note your polarity
use potential convention if possible.

Kirchoff's current law, sum of current in & out is zero, in a given node / branch.

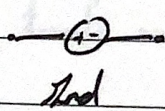


$$-i_1 - i_2 + i_4 + i_3 = 0$$

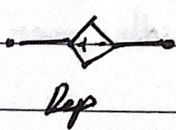
* in \rightarrow pos out \rightarrow neg.

Main elements of the circuit, mainly sources:

Voltage Source

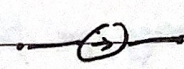


Ind



Dep

Current Source



"



"

Voltmeter tells the voltage (btw two terminal) at a place without effecting its current.

Ammeter

current

voltage.

Ohmmeter tells you the value of resistance of a given resistor.

Simple overview of electronics:

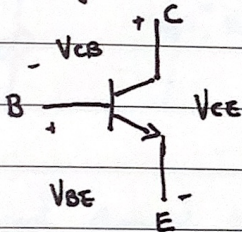


is a device that allows the current to flow only in one direction. When applied small $+V$, current is allowed to pass, however, when $-V$ is applied, no current is allowed to pass.

$$V \geq 0 \quad i > 0$$

$$V < 0 \quad i = 0$$

Bipolar Junction Transistor

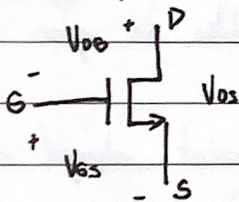


is a device that in which current through collector (C) & emitter (E) is controlled by the base (B).

$$i_C = \beta i_B \quad i_E = i_C + i_B$$

↳ current gain

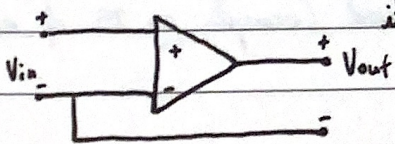
Field-Effect Transistor



is a device in which the current flowing in source (S) & drain (D) is controlled by the voltage applied in gate (G)

$$i_D \rightarrow \text{depends on } V_{GS} \quad i_S = i_G + i_D$$

Operational Amplifier



is a device that amplifies the difference in voltage between its two terminals.

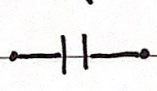
Introduction to 1st - order circuit:

1st order time dependant circuit is a circuit in which the behavior of voltage and current is described by 1st order linear ODE.

As a systematic approach to 1st order circuit

1. KVL KCL element, before switching. Get desired variable.
2. Determine how the variable of interest behaves \rightarrow with switching action.
3. KVL KCL element, after switching. (a new circuit)
4. Eliminate variable to get 1st - order ODE
5. Use the info. on step 2 to solve the ODE.

Behaviors of C & L

 $i = C \frac{dv}{dt}$

During switching, capacitor will resist abrupt changes in voltage.

In DC-SS, capacitor will act like an open circuit.

 $v = L \frac{di}{dt}$

During switching, inductor will resist abrupt change in current.

In DC-SS, inductor will act like a short circuit, like on a wire.

Growth & decay of both components can be derived (example pg 25 of e-note).

tau

τ is a time constant which the exponentially decaying function dropped to ≈ 0.36 to its original value.

$t > 0$ the general equation $v(t) = (V_{(0)} - V_{(ss)})e^{-t/\tau} + V_{(ss)}$ is valid.

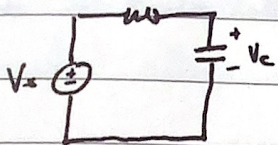
General solution for $v_c(t) = Ae^{-t/RC} + B$ where $\tau = RC$.

$$v_c(t) = Ae^{-t/(\frac{L}{R})} + B \quad \text{where } \tau = \frac{L}{R}$$

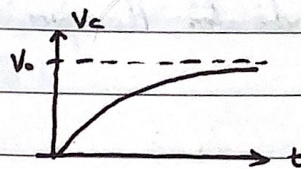
$\therefore v(t) = Ae^{-t/\tau} + B$ is the general solution for all first order circuit components.

Circuit Responses

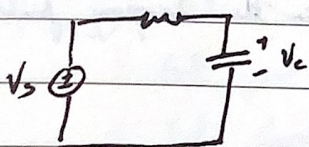
Step response is the response of a circuit to a step function.



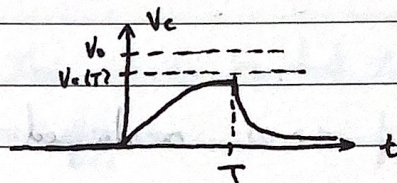
$$V_s = V_0 u(t)$$



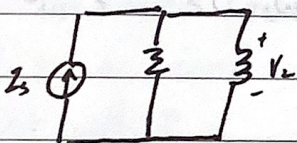
Pulse response is the response of a circuit to a pulse function.



$$V_s = V_0 [u(t) - u(t-T)]$$



Numerical Approach to TD circuit (finite difference time domain)



$$V_s = V_0 u(t)$$

$$V_L = V_R = Ri = R i_0$$

$$-V_L' = -\frac{1}{L/R} V_L$$

$$V_L' + \frac{1}{L/R} V_L = 0$$

using discretization

$$V_L' \approx \frac{\Delta V_L}{\Delta t} = \frac{V_L(t + \Delta t) - V_L(t)}{\Delta t} = -\frac{1}{L/R} V_L(t)$$

$$V_L(t + \Delta t) = V_L(t) - \frac{\Delta t}{L/R} V_L(t)$$

Introduction to 2nd Order circuit:

2nd order time dependent circuit, unlike the first, ^{come} ~~consists~~ ^{consists} of both component R, L, C combination, then, provides a oscillating factor that exhibits a damping property.

Damping

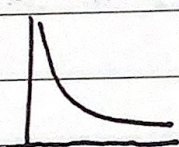
For the equation $\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2\alpha \frac{dx}{dt} + \omega^2 x = f$ where ω is the natural frequency α is the damping factor

if $\alpha > \omega$, overdamped. $x(t) = m_1 e^{s_1 t} + m_2 e^{s_2 t} + \frac{f}{\omega^2}$

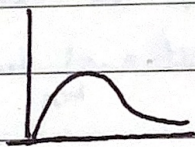
$$s_{1,2} = -\alpha \pm \sqrt{\alpha^2 - \omega^2}$$

if $\alpha = \omega$, critically damped $x(t) = (m_1 t + m_2) e^{-\alpha t} + \frac{f}{\omega^2}$

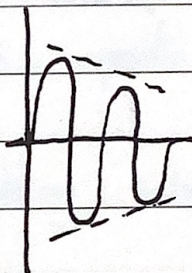
if $\alpha < \omega$, under damped $x(t) = (m_1 \cos(\omega_d t) + m_2 \sin(\omega_d t)) e^{-\alpha t} + \frac{f}{\omega^2}$



over



crit.



under

Linear Circuit:

Linear circuit is a circuit where all the components hold linear relationships. All voltage and current will have linear dependence on all independent sources.

$$V_j = a_{1j} S_1 + a_{2j} S_2 + \dots + a_{nj} S_n$$

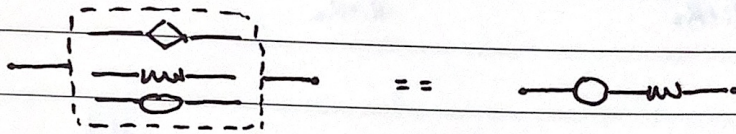
Superposition:

Superposition in a circuit describes that in a linear circuit you are able compute the sum of all independent source by computing individual parts and adding them.

Remember setting VS to zero \rightarrow short, Using this we are able to compute individual sources V & I.
CS to zero \rightarrow open

Thevenin Equivalent:

This theorem says that if we have a circuit comprising of R, independent & dependent sources, in a linear relationship, we can represent any two point in a circuit by an independent voltage source and in series with R.

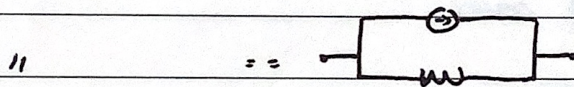


Steps you take

1. Get your open circuit voltage (V_{oc}). This will be equivalent to V_{TH} .
2. Get short circuit current (I_{sc}). Note $R_{TH} = \frac{V_{TH}}{I_{sc}}$.

Norton Equivalent:

Under the same assumption & with Thevenin, this theorem suggests that any two point in a circuit can be represented by independent current source in series parallel with R.



Steps also are identical.

No inter-change between the two representation, use source transformation.

$$V_{TH} = R_N I_N \rightarrow R_N = R_{TH} \quad \therefore V_{TH} = R_{TH} I_{sc}$$

$$\frac{V_{TH}}{R_{TH}} = I_N = I_{sc} = R_N I_N$$

Equivalent resistance is similar to Thevenin & Norton equivalent. R_{TH} .

When ~~there's~~ ^{there's} no independent source, apply a voltage or current and compute the rest, divide the two ~~to~~ to get R.

$$R_s = R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_n$$

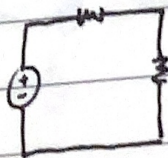
(same current)

$$R_{||} = \left(\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \dots + \frac{1}{R_n} \right)^{-1}$$

(same voltage)

Circuit Divisions :

Voltage division allow a analysis of two R 's in series.

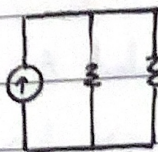


$$i = \frac{V}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$V_1 = R_1 i = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} V$$

$$V_2 = R_2 i = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} V$$

Current division allow a analysis of two R 's in parallel.



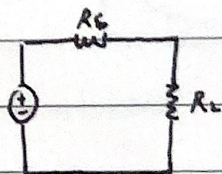
$$V = \frac{I}{\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}}$$

$$i_1 = \frac{V}{R_1} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} I$$

$$i_2 = \frac{V}{R_2} = \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} I$$

Maximum Power :

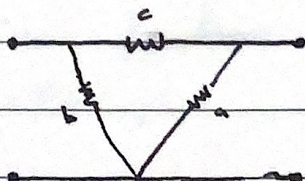
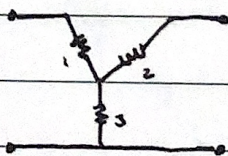
Maximum power theorem states that to draw a maximum power, resistance of load must equal resistance of source.



$$P_{max} \rightarrow R_s = R_L$$

$$P_{max} = \frac{V_{TH}^2}{4R_{TH}}$$

Wye - Delta Transformation :



$$R_1 = \frac{R_b R_c}{R_a + R_b + R_c}$$

$$R_a = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_1}$$

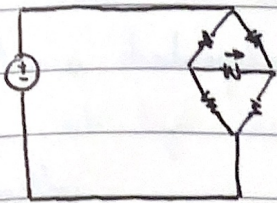
$$R_2 = \frac{R_c R_a}{R_a + R_b + R_c}$$

$$R_b = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_2}$$

$$R_3 = \frac{R_a R_b}{R_a + R_b + R_c}$$

$$R_c = \frac{R_1 R_2 + R_2 R_3 + R_3 R_1}{R_3}$$

The Wheatstone Bridge :

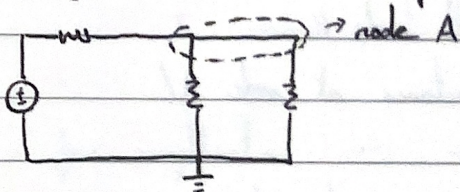


current through the middle is 0.

Nodal Analysis :

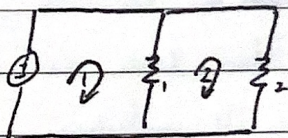
Node voltage is the voltage difference between a given node and a fixed reference node.

Defining any one of the nodes as a reference, with nodal voltages, we can compute any information in a given circuit.



Mesh Analysis :

Use the understanding that in a given loop, ^{voltage} ~~current~~ must add up. And the current within two loop through a element ~~must~~ co-exists in both must equal zero.



$$i_1 = I_1 - I_2$$

$$i_2 = I_2$$

$$A_1: -V + V_1 = 0$$

$$A_2: -V_1 + V_2 = 0$$

$$V_1 = I_1 R_1$$

$$V_2 = I_2 R_2$$

Super-position in larger circuits :

To find V_{oc} , solve V by I_s after killing independent voltage source and add the V you get killing the independent current source.

Also, utilize source transformations in getting the equivalent circuits.

~~Mesh Analysis Inspection:~~

Analysis Inspection:

Nodal inspection can be made when all sources in a circuit is independent current source.

Mesh inspection " " voltage source.

$$\begin{bmatrix} G_{11} & \dots & G_{1N} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ G_{N1} & \dots & G_{NN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ \vdots \\ V_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ \vdots \\ I_N \end{bmatrix}$$

Nodal - G_{kk} , sum of conductance ($\frac{1}{R}$) at node k .

G_{kl} , neg. of sum of the conductance at node kl .

V_k , unknown voltage at node k .

I_k , sum of indep. current source at node k .

Mesh - R_{kk} , " resistance " mesh k

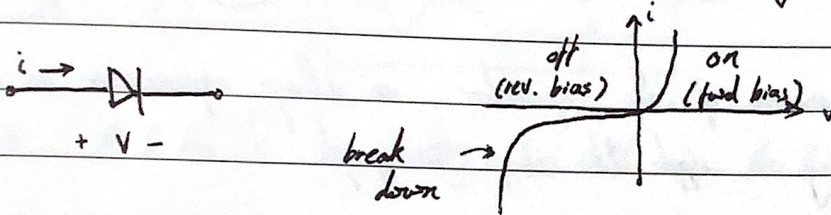
R_{kl} , " resistance " mesh kl

I_k , " current " mesh k

V_k , " voltage " mesh k .

Introduction to Electronics:

Diodes are devices in which at a positive input voltage, it behaves with a low resistance allowing the current to go through and at high ~~resistance~~ ^{neg. voltage}, it behaves with high ~~resistance~~ resistance, allowing no current to go through.



$$i = I_s (e^{\frac{V}{nV_T}} - 1)$$

n , ideality factor

~~$V_T = kT/q$~~ $V_T = kT$, the Boltzmann constant · Absolute temp.

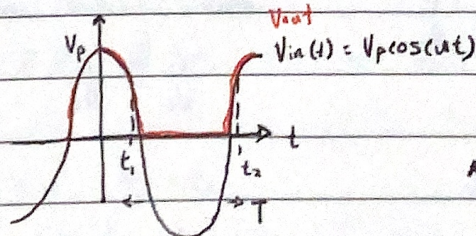
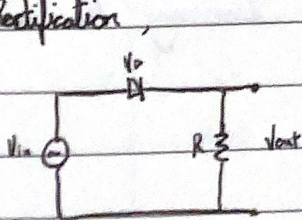
I_s , reverse saturation current.

few simplifications, r_D $V_D \ll i$

- assume reverse bias current is 0. and 0 until pos. voltage reaches $\sim 0.7V$ of threshold value. Beyond that, a linear increase.
- neglect resistance at fwd bias.
- turn-on voltage is 0.

How do we know in a given circuit that a diode is fwd or rev?
We can't until we try every possibilities and find the right one with computing V's on our assumptions.

Rectification



* V_{out} has pos. avg.

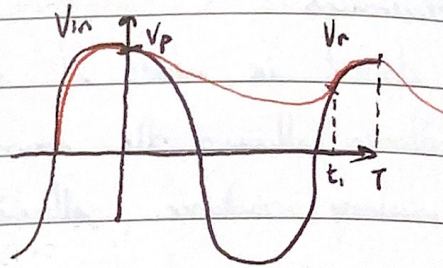
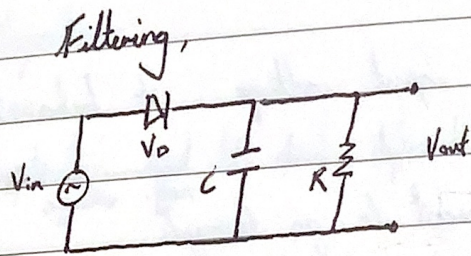
$$V_{in} = V_D + V_{out}$$

$$V_{in} > 0, V_D = 0$$

$$V_{in} < 0, V_{out} = 0$$

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$



Due to the presence of the capacitor, the voltage experiences an exponential decay, creating a ripple-like shape in graph.

when $V_r \ll V_p$,

$$(T \gg RC) \quad V_r \approx V_p (1 - e^{-\frac{T}{RC}})$$

$T \ll RC$,

$$V_r \approx \frac{T}{RC} V_p$$

$$V_{avg} \approx V_p - \frac{T}{2RC} V_p \quad i_{avg} = \frac{V_{out, avg}}{R}$$

The conduction interval $T - t_i = \Delta t$?

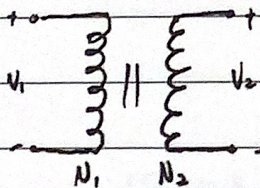
$$V_p (\cos(\omega \Delta t)) = V_p - V_r$$

$$\cos(\omega \Delta t) \ll 1 \approx 1 - \frac{1}{2} (\omega \Delta t)^2$$

$$V_p (1 - \frac{1}{2} (\omega \Delta t)^2) \approx V_p - V_r$$

$$\Delta t \approx \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\frac{2TV_p}{RC V_p} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

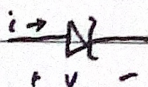
Transformer,



Device that transfers electric energy from one circuit to another, either increasing or decreasing the circuit voltage.

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{N_1}{N_2}$$

Zener Diode,

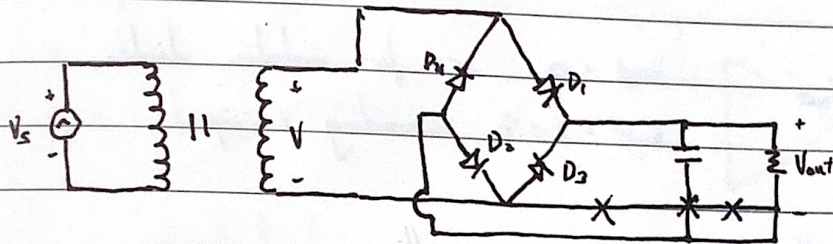


allows forward flow in a similar manner with ideal diode but also permit reverse flow once above a value known as breakdown voltage, here the diode provide a constant output voltage regardless on the changes in the input.

$$V_2 = V_{z0} + r_z I_z$$

$$\text{At reverse } V_{z0} = 8V \quad r_z = 20\Omega \quad I_{z0} = 1mA$$

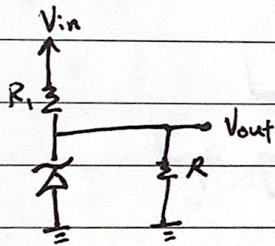
Rectification, Filtering & Transforming:



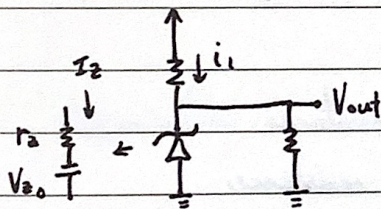
$V > 0$, D_1 & D_2 are on making $V_{out} = V$ as V_{D3} & $V_{D4} = 0$.

$V < 0$, D_3 & D_4 are on making $V_{out} = -V$ as V_{D1} & $V_{D2} = 0$.

Regulation:



Want to deliver a certain voltage, ^{to R} with V_{in} being a sinusoidal input. This means we need to know what R_1 should be.



We must ensure $I_{ZK} < I_Z < I_{Zmax}$.

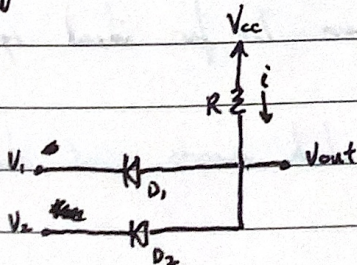
for $I_{ZK} < I_Z$,

compute i_1 when V_{in} is at min and get R_1 max.

for $I_Z < I_{Zmax}$,

compute i_1 when V_{in} is at max and get R_1 min.

Logic Gates:



If $V_1 = V_{cc}$ $V_2 = V_{cc}$,

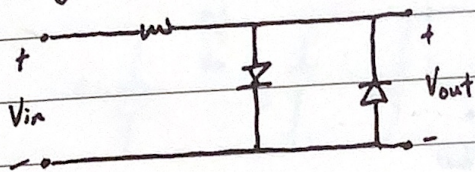
D_1 & D_2 off $\rightarrow i = 0 \rightarrow V_{out} = V_{cc}$

If $V_1 = 0$ $V_2 = V_{cc}$

D_1 on $\rightarrow V_1 = V_{out} \rightarrow V_{out} = 0$

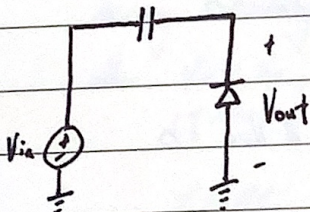
\therefore AND gate.

Limiting :



$V_{out} = 0$ or for realistic diode,
 $V_{out} = \pm 0.7$ according to input.

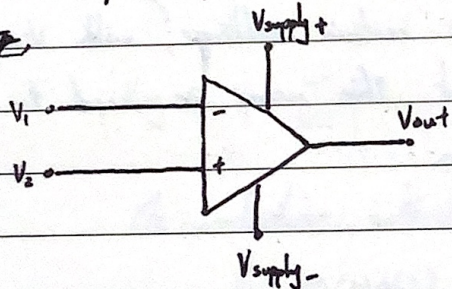
Clamping :



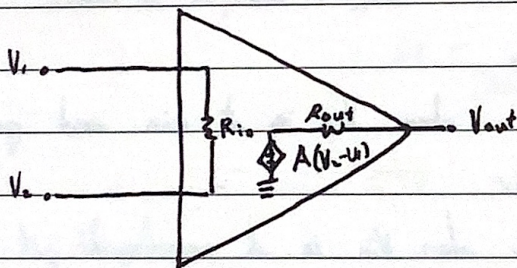
Adding DC value to AC input
 (shifting waves in y-axis)

Operation Amplifier,

~~Opamp~~



V_1 - Inverting input
 V_2 - Non-Inverting input



R_i - Input resistance
 R_{out} - Output resistance
 A - Open loop gain

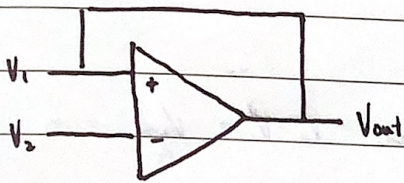
Operation amplifier amplifies voltages.

We want high R_{in} & low R_{out} for optimal amplification. So for ideal opamp,

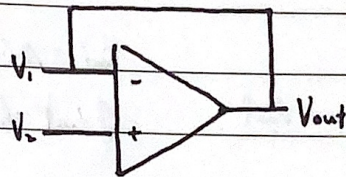
$$R_i = \infty, R_{out} = 0, A = \infty$$

We also want V_{out} stay within linear region, which means V_{out} should be bounded to V_{supply} 's.

positive & negative feedback :



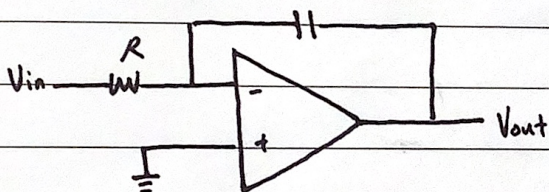
pos feedback



neg feedback ($V_1 = V_-$)

Other applications of opamps :

Integrator



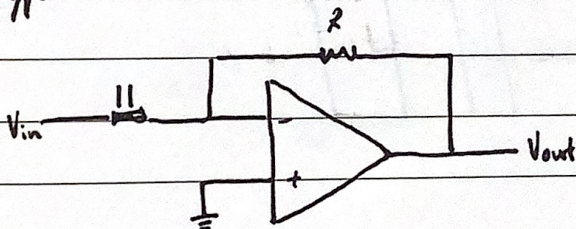
$$i_c = C \frac{dV_c}{dt} \quad i = \frac{V_{in}}{R}$$

$$V_c = \int_0^{V_c} dV_c = \frac{1}{C} \int_0^t i dt$$

↳ initially unchanged.

$$V_{out} = -\frac{1}{RC} \int_0^t V_{in} dt$$

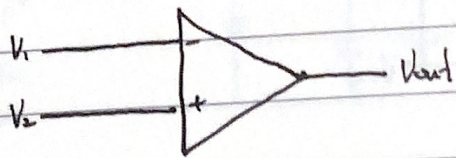
Differentiation :



$$i_c = C \frac{dV_c}{dt} = C \frac{dV_{in}}{dt}$$

$$V_{out} = -RC \frac{dV_{in}}{dt}$$

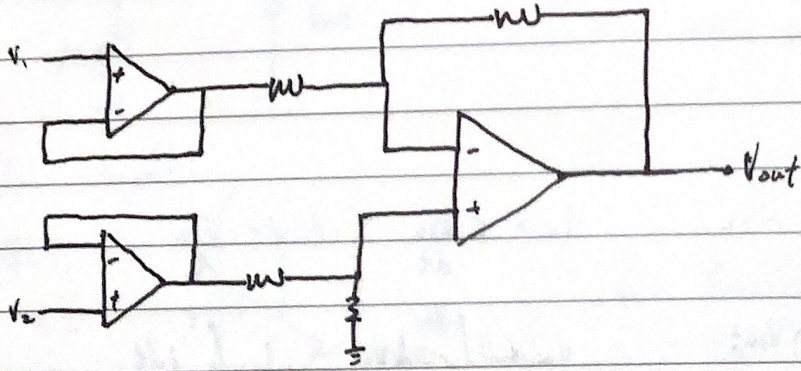
Ideal Op-amp:



$$V_{out} = A(V_2 - V_1)$$

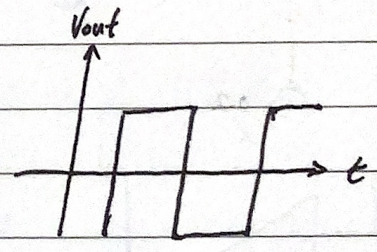
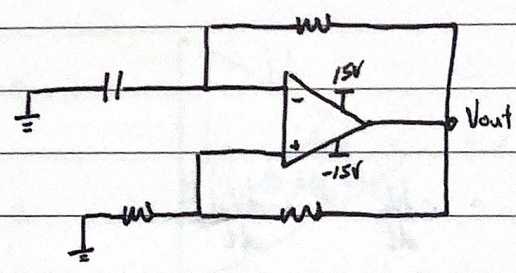
If at linear region $V_2 - V_1 = \frac{V_{out}}{A} = 0$

Instrumental amp:

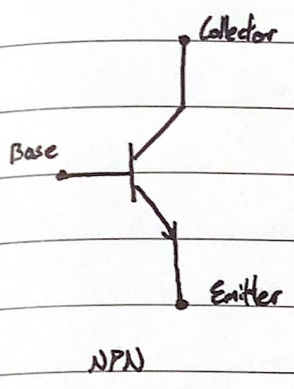


Cascading op-amp circuits.

Oscillator:



Bipolar Junction Transistor



NPN

$$i_E = i_C + i_B$$

$$i_C = \beta i_B$$

$$= \alpha i_E$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\beta}{\beta + 1}$$

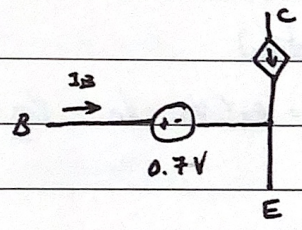
$$i_C \approx I_{s e} \left(\frac{V_{CE}}{V_T} \right)$$

↳ saturation current

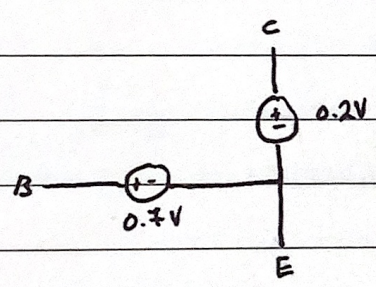
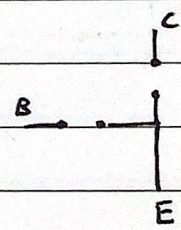
3 models to represent BJT depending on R_B & V_{CE} .

Steps:

represent BJT as a linear model

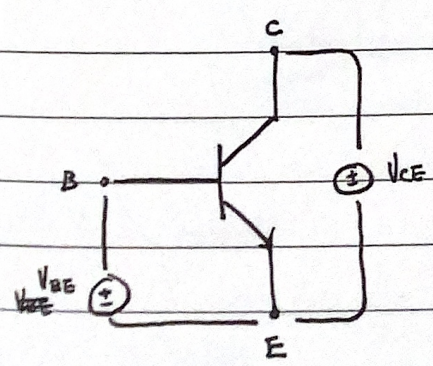


if $R_B < 0$, cutoff model
 if $R_B > 0$,
 test for saturation

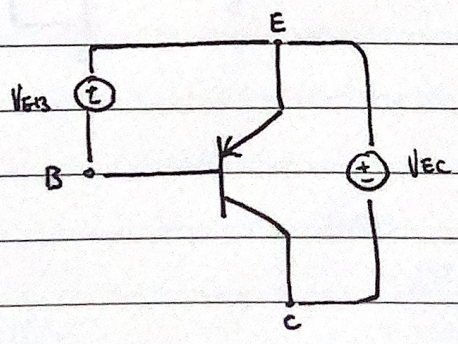


if $V_{CE} \leq 0.2$, saturation model
 if $V_{CE} > 0.2$, linear model

PNP & NPN

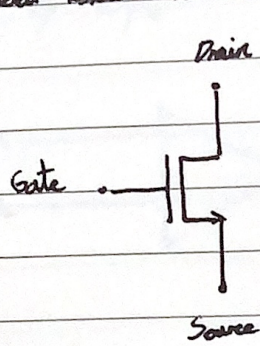


NPN



PNP

Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor



$$k_n = \frac{w}{L} \mu C_{ox}$$

Annotations for the equation above:
 - w : width
 - L : channel length
 - μ : mobility
 - C_{ox} : oxide cap per unit area.

n-channel

3 Ways to represent MOSFET V_{GS} & V_{OV} → over-drive voltage

If $V_{GS} < V_t$, cut off so $I_D = 0A$

If $V_{GS} > V_t$, compute $V_{OV} = V_{GS} - V_t$

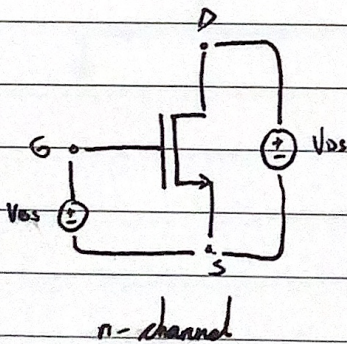
if $V_{DS} < V_{OV}$, triode (variable resistor)

$$g_{DS} = k_n (V_{GS} - V_t - \frac{V_{DS}}{2}), \quad I_D = k_n (V_{GS} - V_t - \frac{V_{DS}}{2}) V_{DS}$$

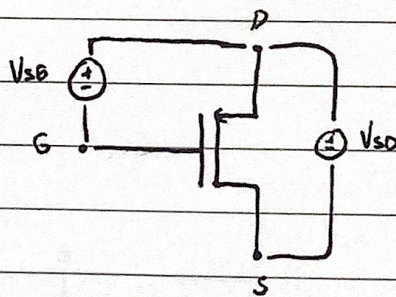
if $V_{DS} > V_{OV}$, saturation (linear)

$$I_D = \frac{1}{2} k_n (V_{GS} - V_t)^2$$

n & p channels



n-channel

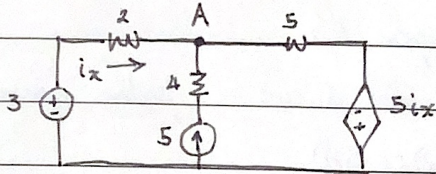


$V_{GS} - |V_t|$ ~~→~~ shift to this.

Circuit Analysis 21

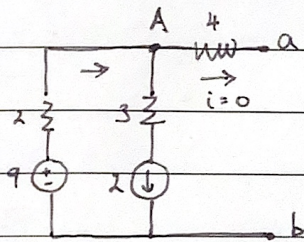
Few fundamentals from the previous:

MNA

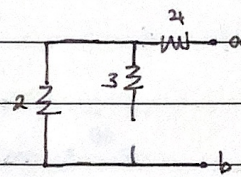


$$\frac{3-A}{3} + 5 = \frac{A+5ix}{5}, \quad ix = \frac{3-A}{5}$$

Thermin



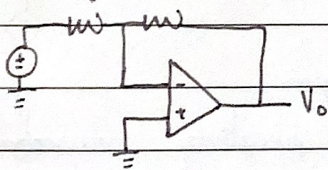
$$9 - A = 2 \cdot A \Rightarrow A = 3 \text{ Vth}$$



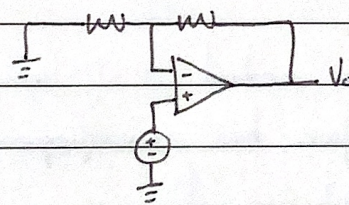
short VS
open CS
 $R_{th} = 6 \Omega$

Op-amps (basic configuration)

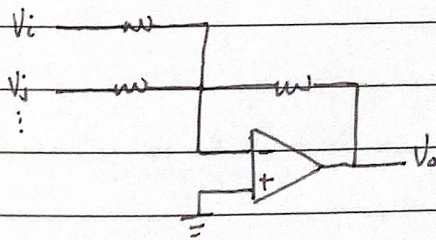
Inverting



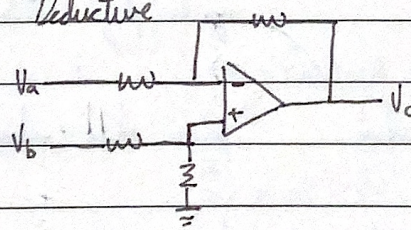
Non-inverting



Additive



Deductive



Inductors & Capacitors

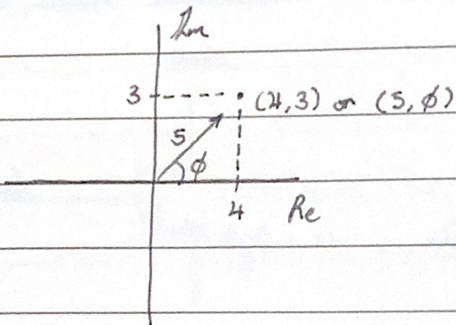
Power

$$P = VI$$

$$\text{Inductor } L: v_L = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

$$\text{Capacitor } C: i_C = C \frac{dv}{dt}$$

Complex Numbers :



$$4 + 3j \text{ or } 5 \angle \phi$$

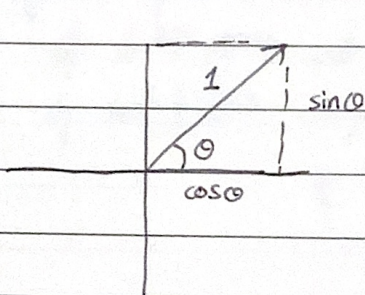
orthonormals of complex #'s

add & sub \rightarrow real & imag, vector representation

mult. $\rightarrow (a + jb)(c + jd)$

$$\text{div.} \rightarrow \frac{a + jb}{c + jd} = \frac{(a + jb)(c - jd)}{(c + jd)(c - jd)}$$

Euler's



$$e^{j\theta} = \cos\theta + j\sin\theta \quad \leftarrow \text{radians}$$

$$ae^{j\theta} \quad \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{angle} \\ \text{length} \end{array} \quad = \cos\theta + j\sin\theta$$

Steady State :

DC, long-time (SS) \rightarrow everything is constant \rightarrow L short C open

AC, " \rightarrow sinusoidal func. have same frequency \rightarrow everything sinusoidal \rightarrow

LRC is represented by phasors (V)

The sine function, $y = A \sin(\omega t + \theta)$

\uparrow amplitude \uparrow angular freq. (rad/s)
 \uparrow phase shift (radians)

Steinmetz Idea (of adding sub sinusoidal functions)

$$A \cos(\omega t + \alpha) + B \sin(\omega t + \beta) = C \cos(\omega t + \gamma)$$

$$\text{Adding } \operatorname{Re}(Ae^{j(\omega t + \alpha)}) + \operatorname{Re}(Be^{j(\omega t + \beta)}) = \operatorname{Re}(Ce^{j(\omega t + \gamma)})$$

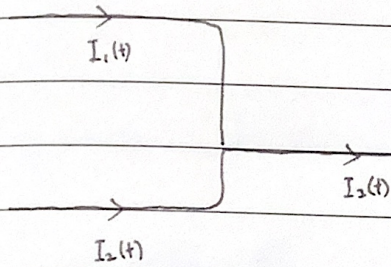
$$Ae^{j(\omega t + \alpha)} + Be^{j(\omega t + \beta)} = Ce^{j(\omega t + \gamma)}$$

$$e^{j\omega t} (Ae^{j\alpha} + Be^{j\beta}) = e^{j\omega t} (Ce^{j\gamma}) \quad \leftarrow \text{complex \# representation of sinusoidal phasors.}$$

$$\text{or } A \angle \alpha + B \angle \beta = C \angle \gamma$$

KVL & KCL

Just like in DC circuit, we can use the circuit analysis skill like MNA.



$$i_1(t) = 5 \cos(300t + 30^\circ) \rightarrow i_2(t) = 5 \angle 30^\circ + 7 \angle -20^\circ$$

$$i_2(t) = 7 \cos(300t - 20^\circ) = 10.908 \angle 0.556^\circ$$

or

$$10.907 + 0.105j$$

$$= 10.91 \cos(300t + 0.556^\circ)$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$0.556 \times \frac{180}{\pi}$$

to compute instantaneous i_2

Impedance:

Resistance (Ω) of components in AC circuit.

Derivation

say $i(t) = A \cos(\omega t + \alpha) \leftrightarrow A \angle \alpha$

$$i(t) = -\omega A \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$$

$$= \omega A \sin(\omega t + \alpha + 90^\circ) \rightarrow \omega A \angle 90^\circ$$

or

$$j\omega(A \angle \alpha)$$

$$i(t) = \frac{A}{\omega} \cos(\omega t + \alpha - 90^\circ) \rightarrow \frac{A}{\omega} \angle -90^\circ$$

or

$$\frac{A \angle \alpha}{j\omega}$$

Inductor

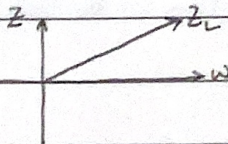
$$V_L = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

$$= L j\omega(A \angle \alpha)$$

$$\bar{V}_L = j\omega L \bar{I}$$

$$\frac{\bar{V}}{\bar{I}} = \frac{j\omega L}{A}$$

\downarrow
 Z_L & $X_L = \omega L$
 impedance reactance



Capacitor

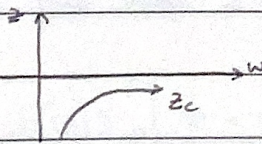
$$i_c = C \frac{dv}{dt}$$

$$= C j\omega(A \angle \alpha)$$

$$= j\omega C \bar{V}$$

$$\bar{V}_c = \frac{1}{j\omega C} i_c = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} i_c$$

\downarrow
 Z_c & $X_c = \frac{1}{\omega C}$



Resistor

$$\bar{V}_R = R \bar{I}_R$$

Ohm's Law

$$\bar{V} = \bar{Z} \bar{I}, \text{ where } Z_L = j\omega L \quad Z_c = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} \quad Z_R = R$$

Phase Implication of Ohm's law

Inductor 'stretches' current phasor by ωL times.

Capacitor 'shrinks' " ωC times.

Power in AC :

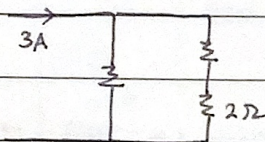
Power for AC circuit requires different implication to DC circuit.

DC Review

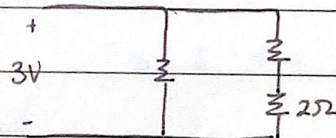
$$P = VI$$

Power in Resistor (only resistor!)

$$P_R = I^2 R = \frac{V^2}{R}$$



$$P_R = 2(3)^2 \text{ as } I_{2\Omega} = 3A$$



$$P_R = \frac{3^2}{2} \text{ as } V_{2\Omega} = 3V$$

Root Mean Square

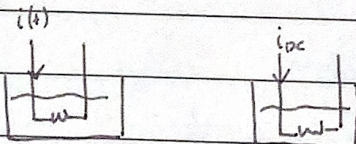
DC (A) reads $I_{avg} \rightarrow$ for $i(t)_{avg} = 0$ as \sin & \cos .

To make the reading work \rightarrow take square & \sqrt

\therefore at AC, $I_{DC} = \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i(t)^2 dt\right)^{1/2}$, AC (A) $\rightarrow I_{RMS}$ AC (V) $\rightarrow V_{RMS}$

Effective Value

Analogy



where heating = P_{avg} dissipated.

when $i(t)$ & i_{DC} cause the water to be same temp at the same time, the value of i is denoted as I_{eff} (or I_{DC}).

$$I_{DC} \rightarrow P = RI_{DC}^2$$

$$I_{AC} \rightarrow P = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T R i(t)^2 dt$$

Effective Value for Sinusoids

$$i(t) = I_{\text{peak}} \sin(\omega t + \theta) \rightarrow I_{\text{eff}} \text{ or } I_{\text{DC}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T I_{\text{peak}}^2 \sin^2(\omega t + \theta) dt}$$

$$= \frac{I_{\text{peak}}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

From now on ... $\tilde{I} = I_{\text{peak}} \angle 0^\circ \rightarrow \underline{I} = I_{\text{rms}} \angle 0^\circ$
rms angle

Power in AC Steady State:

Generalization of I_{eff}

$i(t) = A \sin(\omega t + \theta)$ heat a resistor the same as I_{DC} with a value of $\frac{A}{\sqrt{2}}$.

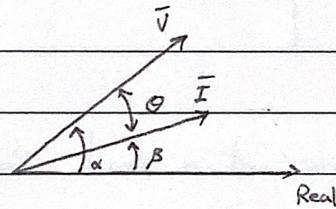
If we call 'M' effective value of $i(t)$, $M = \frac{A}{\sqrt{2}}$. Then, $i(t) = \sqrt{2} M \sin(\omega t + \theta)$

Active & Reactive & Apparent

voltage in generic load is $v(t) = \sqrt{2} V \sin(\omega t + \alpha)$ if $i(t) = \sqrt{2} I \sin(\omega t + \beta)$

$$\underline{V} = V_{\text{rms}} \angle \alpha^\circ$$

$$\underline{I} = I_{\text{rms}} \angle \beta^\circ$$



$$p(t) = i(t)v(t) = 2VI \sin(\omega t + \alpha) \sin(\omega t + \beta) \text{ simplifying ...}$$

$$= VI \cos(\alpha - \beta) + VI \cos(2\omega t + \alpha + \beta)$$

$$P_{\text{avg}} = VI \cos(\alpha - \beta) - 0$$

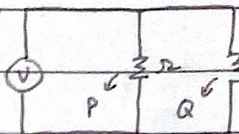
$$= V_{\text{RMS}} I_{\text{RMS}} \cos(\alpha - \beta)$$

power factor (%), inductive & capacitive (lagging) (leading)

θ , power factor angle

Active Power (W), positive source \rightarrow load

$Q = VI \sin(\alpha - \beta)$ } Reactive Power (VAR), load \rightarrow source (phenomena in all non-linear)
power that goes back & forth without doing meaningful work.



$$\text{Apparent Power } S = VI \text{ (VA)}$$

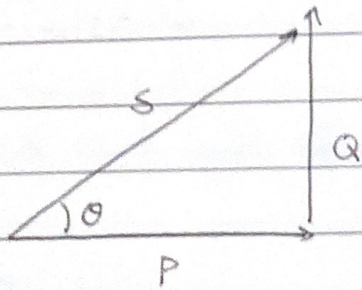
$$R \rightarrow \theta = 0 \quad P = S \quad Q = 0$$

$$L \rightarrow \theta = 90^\circ \quad P = 0 \quad Q = S$$

$$C \rightarrow \theta = -90^\circ \quad P = 0 \quad Q = -S$$

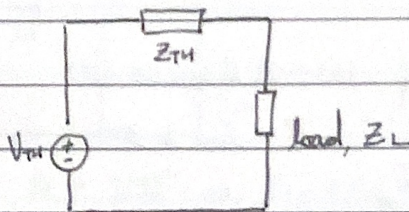
$S = P + Qj$; $Q = (S^2 - P^2)^{1/2}$ for power triangle

$P = S \cos \theta = S \cdot pf$ $Q = S \sin \theta$; Powers can also be computed using $Z|I|^2$ & $\frac{|V|^2}{Z}$



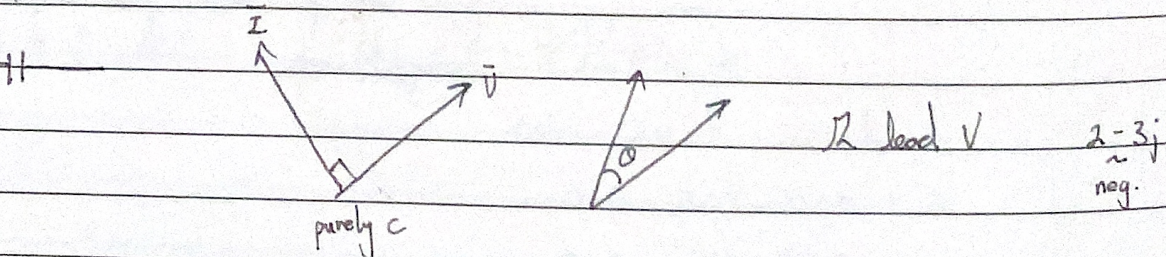
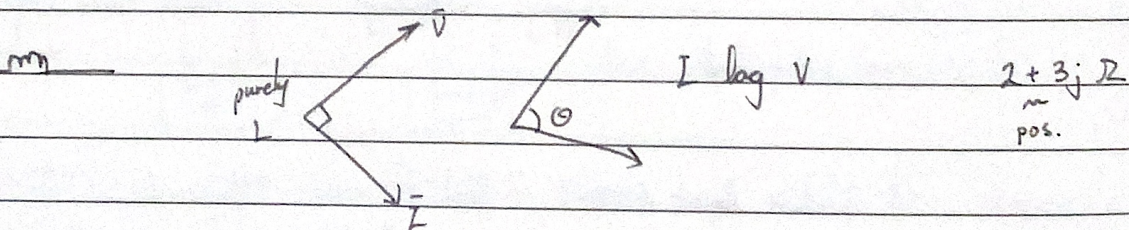
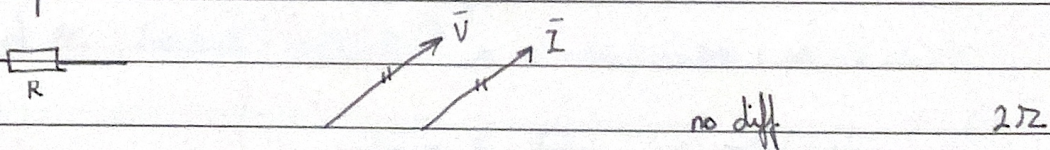
Maximum Powers

To obtain Power max, V_{th} & Z_{th} must be established where $Z_L = Z_{th}^*$

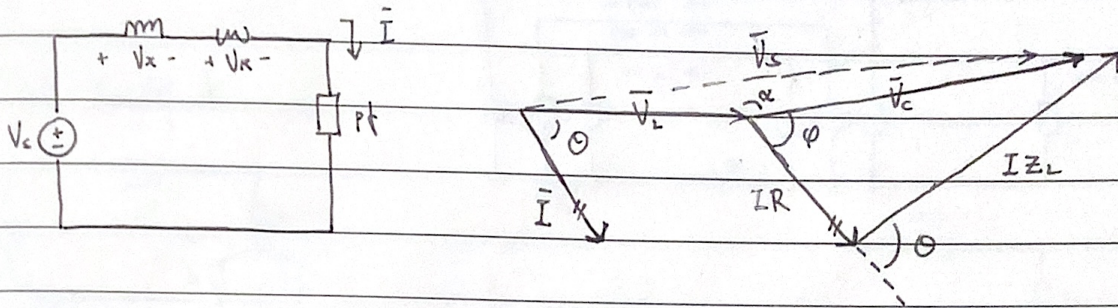


The maximum average power at a load $P_{max} = \frac{|V_{th}|^2}{8Z_{th}}$

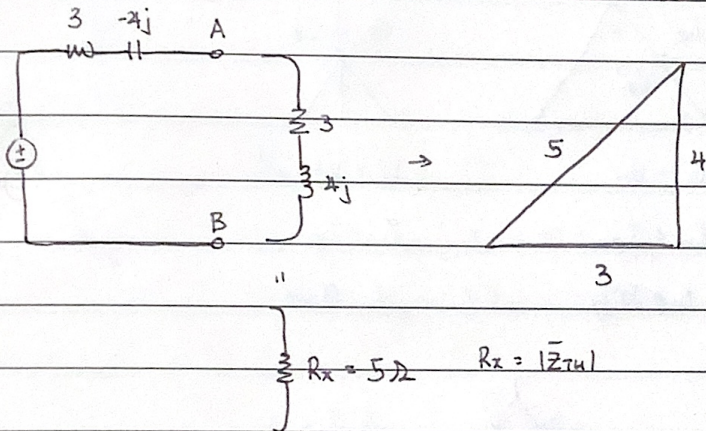
Graphic Representation



One Loop Circuit

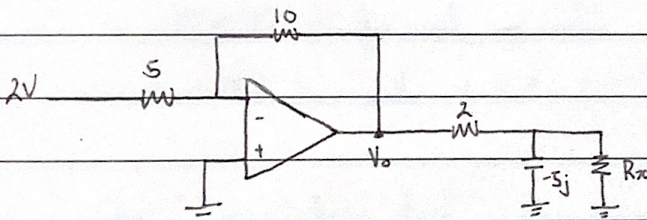


$$\alpha = 180 - (\phi - \theta) \quad \text{where } \phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{Z_L}{R} \right)$$

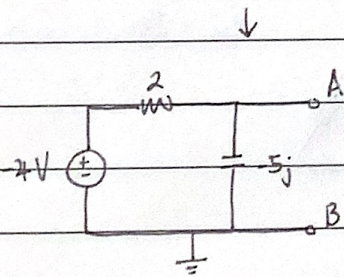


$$R_x = 5 \Omega \quad R_x = |Z_{TL}|$$

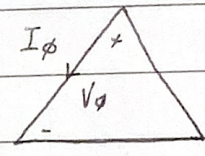
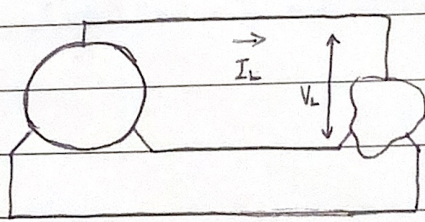
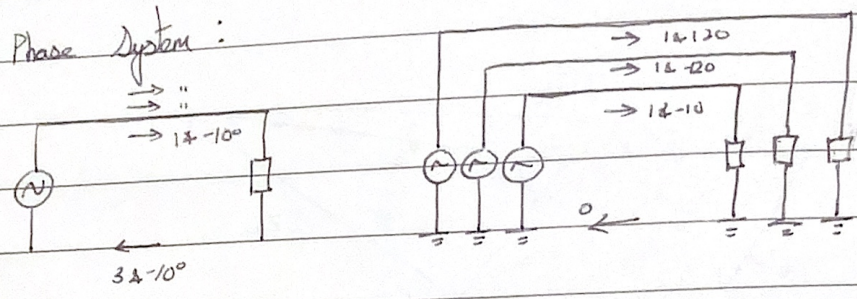
Op-Amp



$$V_o = -\frac{10}{5} (2) = -4$$



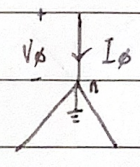
Three Phase System :



$$V_L = V_φ$$

$$I_L \neq I_φ$$

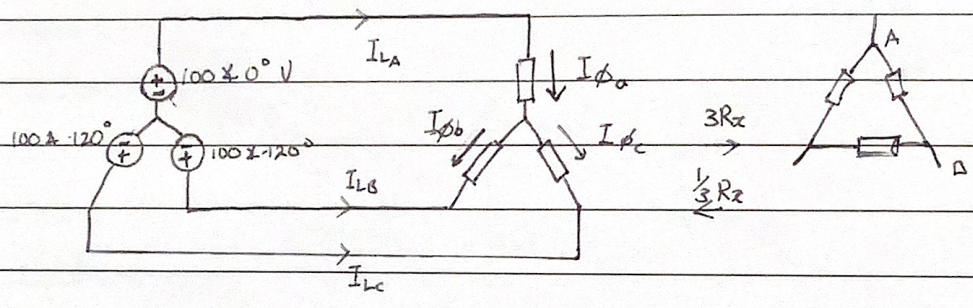
$$I_L = \sqrt{3} I_φ$$



$$V_L \neq V_φ$$

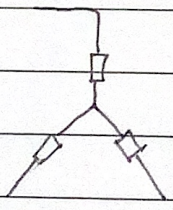
$$I_L = I_φ$$

$$V_L = \sqrt{3} V_φ$$



also $V_{AB} = V_{AN} + 30^\circ$

Power in 3 phase systems

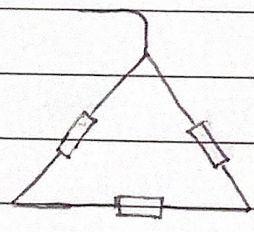


$$P = V_φ I_φ \cos \theta_φ$$

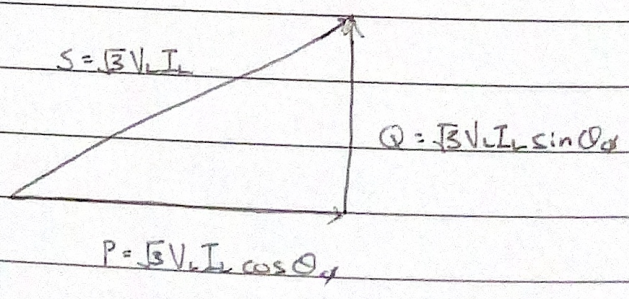
$$P_{3φ} = 3 V_φ I_φ \cos \theta_φ$$

$$V_φ = \frac{V_L}{\sqrt{3}} \quad I_φ = I_L$$

$$= \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \theta_φ$$

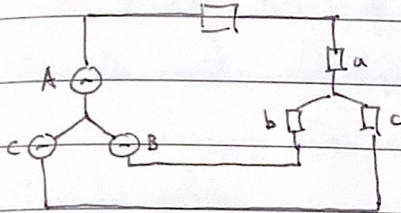


$$P_{3φ} = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \theta_φ$$

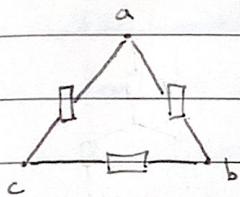
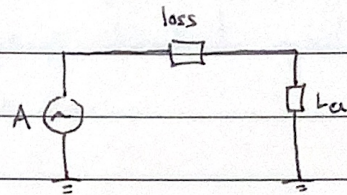


Power at the load $\rightarrow \bar{S} = |\bar{I}|^2 \bar{Z}$

Conversion and Simplification



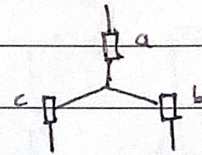
can be represented



$\frac{1}{3}$ for load

$I_L = I_{ay} \quad I_L = \sqrt{3} I_{a0}$

$I_{ay} = \sqrt{3} I_{ab} \angle I_{ab} - 30^\circ$



$V_L = \sqrt{3} V_{ay} \quad V_L = V_{ab}$

$V_{ay} = \frac{V_{ab}}{\sqrt{3}} \angle V_{ab} - 30^\circ$

Power, $S = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L$ is for real rms value.

\rightarrow but often we don't have this info IRL.

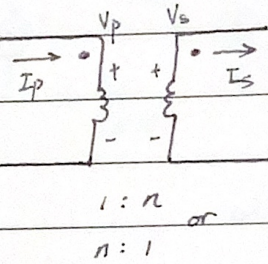
$\therefore \bar{S} = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L$ with $\angle V_L^\circ - I_L^\circ$ or $S = 3V_{ph} I_{ph}^*$

also, S_L where load is in series ^(Y), S_L seen by the source = $3S_L$
 S_L " " ^(Δ) parallel, " = S_L

$S_L = |I_L|^2 Z_L$ or $V_L I_L$, $\bar{S}_L = V_L I_L^*$...

1 Transformer:

A device that adjust the V Z P according to the device's coefficient (transformation ratio)



Step-Down [$n:1$, $n > 1$]

$$V_p = nV_s$$

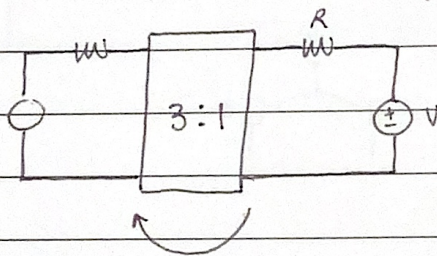
$$nI_p = I_s$$

Step-Up [$1:n$, $n > 1$]

$$nV_p = V_s$$

$$I_p = nI_s$$

We can move circuit elements from one side to the other.



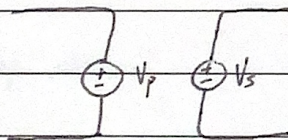
$$a^2 R, aV, \frac{I}{a}$$

$$\frac{R}{a^2}, \frac{V}{a}, aI$$

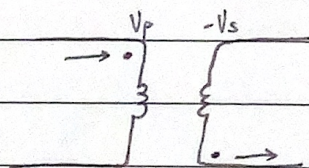
Low-to-high $n:1$

High-to-low $1:n$

Treating each transformer winding as a voltage source, simplifies many analytical steps.



Dot-Convention:



current goes in at one side, must come out at other

Notice that power equation stays the same, $S = V_{rms} I_{rms}^*$

* $I_p = \sum I_{sk}$ Primary current is the combination of sum of all secondary currents.

2nd - Order circuit :

The order in a circuit represents # reactive elements in a circuit.

∴ circuit with 2 reactive element.

Solving the circuit, we make use of p-operator ($p = \frac{d}{dt}$) & characteristic equations for ODE.

Steps for solving :

1. Find conditions $t < 0$, using usual analysis tools

2. Find conditions $t > 0^+$, using $i_L'(0^+) = \frac{V_L(0^+)}{L}$ $V_C'(0^+) = \frac{i_C(0^+)}{C}$ with reactive values from step 1 as $V_C(0^+) = V_C(0^-)$ & $i_L(0^+) = i_L(0^-)$.
V-Source L-Source

3. Find the equation for asked variable by converting the $t > 0$ circuit to p-operatable using $R \Rightarrow R$ $L \Rightarrow Lp$ $C \Rightarrow \frac{1}{Cp}$.

4. Take the characteristic equation from the denominator of the eq. at step 3, and get eigen-values. This allows us to know which solution to ODE is most fit, and the time-to-steady state = 5 τ larger

$$\hookrightarrow z_1 = -\frac{1}{b_1} \quad z_2 = -\frac{1}{b_2}$$

5. Use ODE solution, b_1 & b_2

$b^2 > 4ac$ b_1 & $b_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ (Over-damped) $- y(t) = k_1 e^{b_1 t} + k_2 e^{b_2 t} + k_3$

$b^2 < 4ac$ b_1 & $b_2 \notin \mathbb{R}$ (Under-damped) $- y(t) = k_1 e^{\sigma t} \cos(\omega t + k_2) + k_3$, $s = \sigma + j\omega$

$b^2 = 4ac$ $b_1 = b_2$ (critically-damped) $- y(t) = (k_1 t + k_2) e^{b_1 t} + k_3$

And the IC's, $y(0)$ & $y'(0)$, to solve the coefficients k_1 & k_2 & k_3 .

Note

• $(0.1p^2 + 17p + 100)V_C = \overset{0}{R}p + 600$ & $k_3 = \frac{600}{100} = 6$.

• For U-D case, one can also use

$$y(t) = e^{\sigma t} [k_1 \cos(\omega t) + k_2 \sin(\omega t)]$$

$$y'(t) = e^{\sigma t} [(\omega k_2 - \sigma k_1) \cos(\omega t) - (\omega k_1 + \sigma k_2) \sin(\omega t)]$$

The Laplace:

$$A \cos(\omega t + \theta) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{circuit}} \rightarrow k A \cos(\omega t + (\theta + \phi))$$

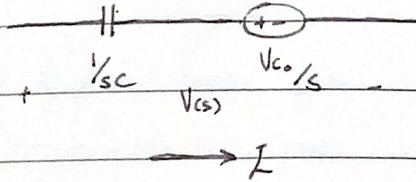
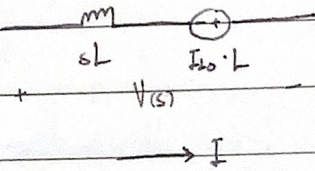
$$k A \cos(\theta + \phi) = \underbrace{k \cos \phi}_{\sim} \cdot A \cos \theta$$

↳ effect of the circuit to signal.

With initial conditions, we can transform the circuit in Laplace domain $t > 0$.

Inductor

Capacitance



Solve the circuit using 'normal' & 'Laplace' functions in HP Prime by solving for the right equation.
An equation for a given parameter can be solved by taking the inverse-Laplace.

Note that maximum of something can be solved using graph, or taking the 0's of derivative.

Transfer - Function :

$Y(s) = H(s) X(s) \rightarrow$ input function in s -domain
 \downarrow
 output \hookrightarrow tf, behavior of circuit $H(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)}$ at energy 0 [$V_{src} \& I_{L0} = 0$, V_{src} short]
 I_{src} Open

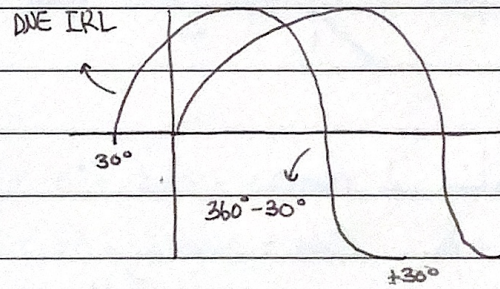
$$|H(s)| = k \quad H(s)^{\circ} = \delta, \quad k(\text{dB}) = 20 \log_{10}(k) \quad \delta(\text{rad}) = \frac{\delta \cdot 180}{\pi}$$

Notice if $X(s)$, the input is dirac-delta $\delta(x)$, $H(s) = Y(s)$

Time delay of the signal can be computed using δ , $\frac{(\delta(\text{rad}) - 2\pi) \cdot \frac{2\pi}{\omega}}{2\pi}$ or $\frac{(\delta(\text{deg}) - 360) \cdot \frac{2\pi}{\omega}}{360}$

* if pole @ RHS \rightarrow unstable.

* but δ here must come before the output, $\therefore -2\pi$ (if rad) or -360 (if $^{\circ}$)
from the circuit signal $H(s)$



7. Bode Plot:

We simulate the frequency response of a circuit using Bode plot (both amplitude & degrees).
(dB) (deg)

Amplitude Plot

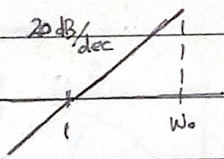
Decibel of any given frequency can be computed using $20 \log_{10}(\omega)$ where ω (rad/s) = $2\pi f$.

Given a $H(s) = k \cdot \frac{s(s+a)(s+b)^2}{(s+c)(s+d)}$

Contribution of a constant k ,

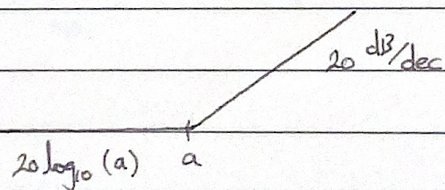
$$20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{k \cdot 1 \cdot a \cdot b^2}{c \cdot d} \right) \rightarrow \text{shifting the graph up/down}$$

Contribution of s (0 @ 0)

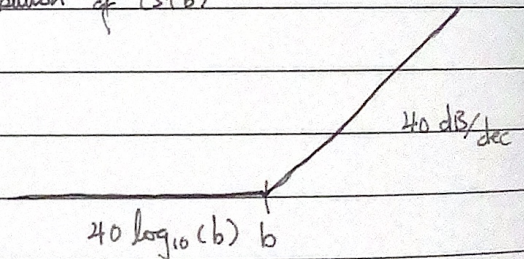


\rightarrow Crosses $\omega = 1 \Rightarrow 20 \log_{10}(1) = 0 \text{ dB}$
With $20 \log_{10}(\omega_0)$ contribution

Contribution of $(s+a)$



Contribution of $(s+b)^2$



For denominator, just flip the graph upside-down.

For initial contribution (starting point), sum all the contributions from first ω (ω_0) that is not 1. For $H(s)$ above $20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{k \cdot 1 \cdot a \cdot b^2}{c \cdot d} \right) + 20 \log_{10}(\omega_0)$

Note, decade = $\log_{10} \left(\frac{\omega_2}{\omega_1} \right)$

Phase Plot

$$\text{Given } H(s) = \frac{k \cdot s (s+a)(s+b)^2}{(s+c)(s+d)}$$

$$k \rightarrow 0^\circ \quad s \rightarrow 90^\circ/\text{dec} \quad 0.1a \rightarrow 45^\circ/\text{dec} \quad 0.1b \rightarrow 90^\circ/\text{dec}$$

$$s^2 \rightarrow 180^\circ/\text{dec} \quad 10a \rightarrow -45^\circ/\text{dec} \quad 10b \rightarrow -90^\circ/\text{dec}$$

$$0.1c \rightarrow -45^\circ/\text{dec}$$

$$10c \rightarrow 45^\circ/\text{dec}$$

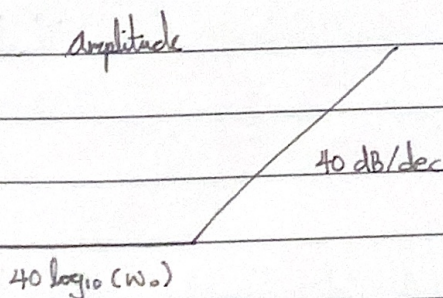
Bode - Martini Plot

When $H(s)$ has a two complex conj. instead of using Bode approx, we make use of Martini approx.

$$a+bj \ \& \ a-bj \rightarrow [s+(a+jb)][s+(a-jb)] = s^2 + 2as + a^2 + b^2$$

$$= s^2 + 2\xi\omega_0 s + \omega_0^2, \quad a = \xi\omega_0$$

ξ (damping freq.), ω_0 (undamped freq.)



Phase

$$\log_{10} \left(\frac{\omega_0}{\omega_1} \right) = \xi \quad \log_{10} \left(\frac{\omega_2}{\omega_0} \right) = \xi$$

$$\omega_1 \rightarrow \frac{40}{\xi} \text{ deg/dec} \quad \omega_2 \rightarrow \frac{90}{\xi} \text{ deg/dec}$$

* watch for denom or numer. Above is numer example.

Filters:

Resonance, is a freq where L & C cancels out (no reactive element) such that V_{src} only sees resistive component. (Z_r is real only)

Quality Factor, number ————— that determines the selectivity of the circuit (filter)

Half-Power Freq., ω where the signal is 3dB off of filtered value.

$$\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

$$Q_s = \frac{\omega_0 L}{R} \text{ or } \frac{1}{\omega_0 RC}$$

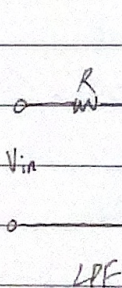
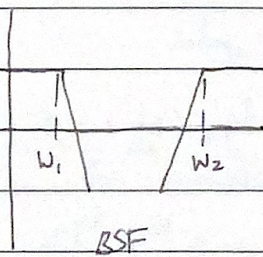
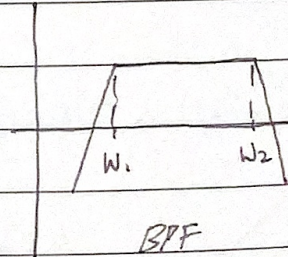
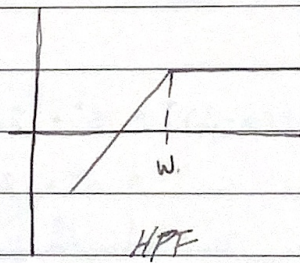
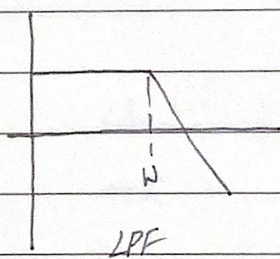
$$HPF = \omega_0 \left[\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_0}\right)^2} \pm \frac{\omega}{\omega_0} \right]$$

(ω_1, ω_2)

$$BW = \frac{\omega_0}{Q}$$

$$Q_u = \frac{R}{\omega_0 L} \text{ or } \omega_0 RC$$

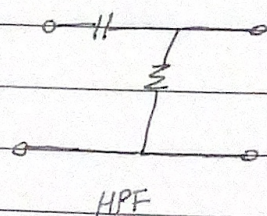
$$Q \gg 10 \Rightarrow \text{highly selective, } (\omega_1, \omega_2) = \frac{\omega_0 \pm BW}{2}$$



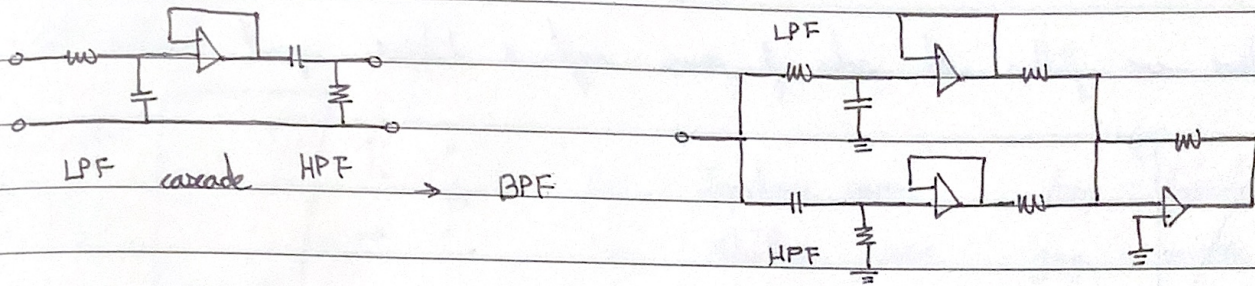
$$\frac{V_o}{V_{in}} = \frac{1}{CRs + 1}$$

pole @ $-\frac{1}{RC}$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{RC}$$



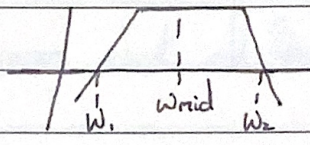
$$\omega = \frac{1}{RC}$$



additive op-amp → BSF

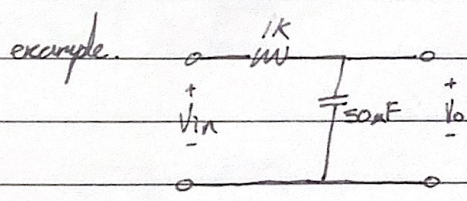
Order of filters are determined by the slope of its poles.

Mid-freq. is where filter hits its peak among BPF.
 $\omega_{mid} = (\omega_1 \omega_2)^{1/2}$.



A_{max} & A_{min}

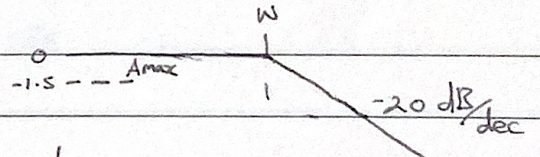
A_{max} is the max level of signal it rejects & A_{min} is the min level of signal it rejects.
 (ω_p) (ω_s)



$$H(s) = \frac{1/sC}{R + 1/sC} = \frac{1/RC}{s + 1/RC} \quad \omega = \frac{1}{RC}$$

$f = 1 \text{ Hz}$
 $A_{min} = -1.5$
 $A_{max} = 15$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{RC} = 20 \text{ rad/s}$$



$$H(s) = \frac{20}{s+20} \rightarrow 20 \log_{10} (|1/j\omega + 20|) = 0 - 1.5$$

$\omega_p = 12.85$

$$20 \log_{10} (|1/j\omega + 20|) = 0 - 15$$

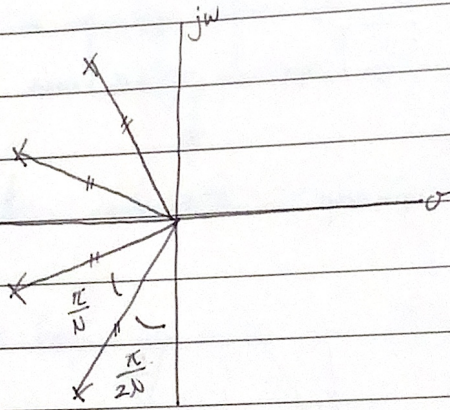
$\omega_s = 110.672$

Sensitivity factor measures the changes a filter experiences with a change of variable. Sensitivity = $\frac{\omega_p}{\omega_s} < 1$

Filter cookbook allows a scaling computation with a given filter.

$$\begin{aligned} R' &= kR & R' &= R & R' &= kR \\ L' &= kL & L' &= L/k_f & L' &= L \frac{k_m}{k_f} \\ C' &= C/k_m & C' &= C/k_f & C' &= C \frac{1}{k_m k_f} \end{aligned}$$

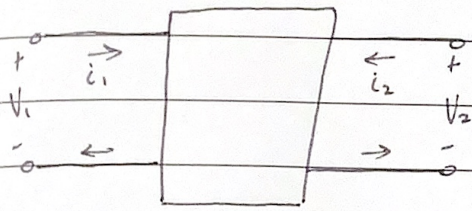
76 F Butterworth Filters are filters with poles of same angle & distance apart.



N - order

x 's are points which are equidistant from the origin.

Two-Port Network :



Z_{xy} - Impedance param

h_{xy} - hybrid param

Y_{xy} - Admittance param

g_{xy} - inverse param.

$$V_1 = Z_{11} i_1 + Z_{12} i_2$$

$$i_1 = Y_{11} V_1 + Y_{12} V_2$$

$$V_2 = Z_{21} i_1 + Z_{22} i_2$$

$$i_2 = Y_{21} V_1 + Y_{22} V_2$$

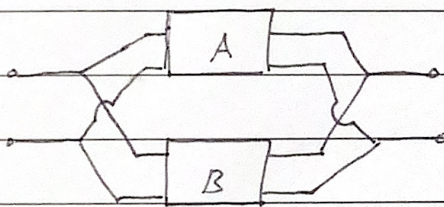
Use param. chart and convert param.

$$V_1 = k_{11} i_1 + k_{12} V_2$$

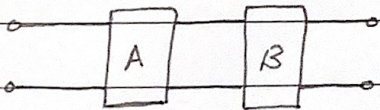
$$V_1 = A V_2 + B(i_2)$$

$$i_2 = k_{21} i_1 + k_{22} V_2$$

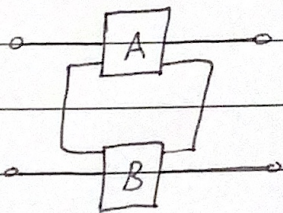
$$i_1 = C V_2 + D(i_2) \quad \{ ABCD \Rightarrow \text{transmission param} \}$$



Parallel, $[Y] = Y_A + Y_B$



Cascade, $[T] = T_A \cdot T_B$



Series, $[Z] = Z_A + Z_B$