

## Solving the Second Order Systems

- Continuing with the simple RLC circuit

(4) Make the assumption that solutions are of the exponential form:

$$i(t) = A \exp(st)$$

- where A and s are constants of integration.
- Then substituting into the differential equation

$$L \frac{d^2 i}{dt^2} + R \frac{di}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} i = 0$$

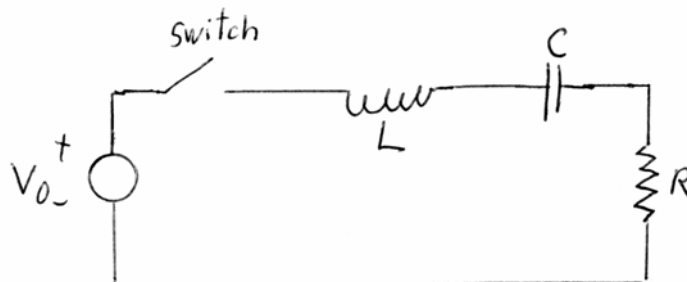
$$L \frac{d^2 A \exp(st)}{dt^2} + R \frac{dA \exp(st)}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} A \exp(st) = 0$$

$$Ls^2 A \exp(st) + RsA \exp(st) + \frac{A}{C} \exp(st) = 0$$

- Dividing out the exponential for the characteristic equation

$$Ls^2 + Rs + \frac{1}{C} = 0$$

- Also called the Homogeneous equation
- Thus quadratic equation and has generally two solutions.
- There are 3 types of solutions
- Each type produces very different circuit behaviour
- Note that some solutions involve complex numbers.



## General solution of the Second Order Systems

- Consider the characteristic equations as a quadratic
- Recall that for a quadratic equation:

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

- The solution has two roots

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

- Thus for the characteristic equation

$$Ls^2 + Rs + \frac{1}{C} = 0$$

- or rewriting this

$$s^2 + \frac{R}{L}s + \frac{1}{LC} = 0$$

Thus

$$a = 1 \quad b = \frac{R}{L} \quad c = \frac{1}{LC}$$

- The general solution is:

$$s = -\frac{R}{2L} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC}}$$

## General solution Second Order Systems Cont'd

- Second order equations have two solutions
- Usually define

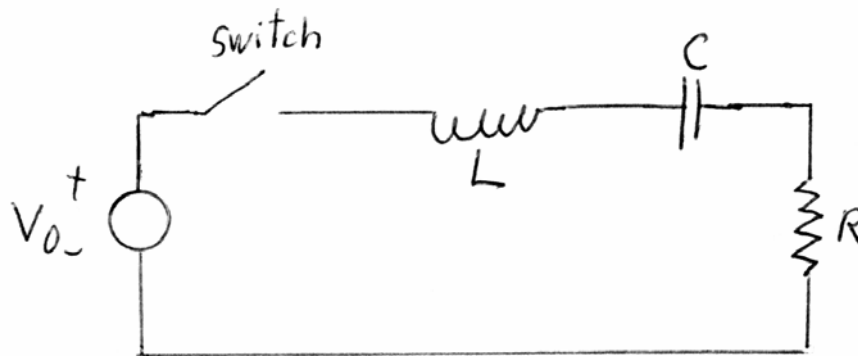
$$s_1 = -\frac{R}{2L} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC}}$$

$$s_2 = -\frac{R}{2L} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC}}$$

- The type of solutions depends on the value these solutions
- The type of solution is set by the **Discriminant**

$$D = \left[ \left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC} \right]$$

- Recall  $\frac{R}{L}$  is the time constant of the resistor inductor circuit
- Clearly the discriminant can be either positive, zero, or negative



### 3 solutions of the Second Order Systems

- What the **Discriminant** represents is about energy flows

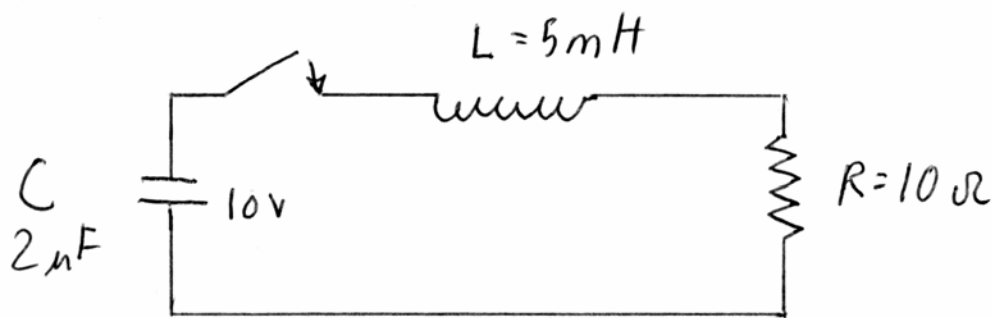
$$D = \left[ \left( \frac{R}{2L} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC} \right]$$

- How fast is energy transferred from the L to the C
- How fast is energy lost to the resistor
- There are three cases set by the discriminant

- $D > 0$  : roots real and unequal
- In electronics called the overdamped case

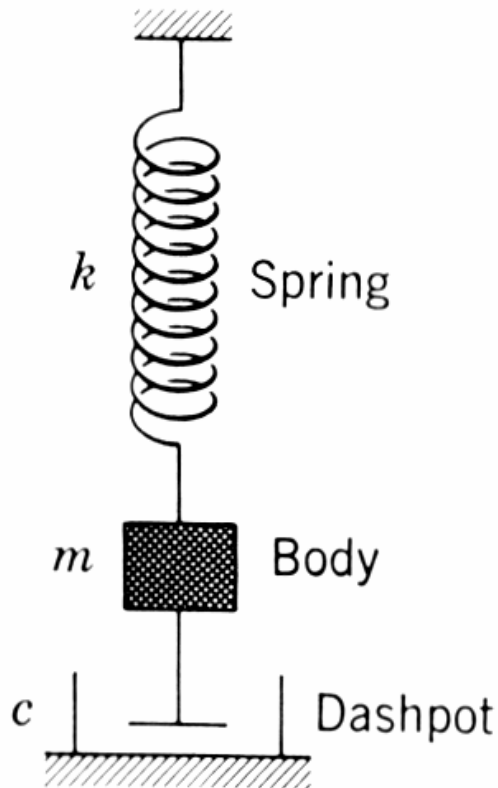
- $D = 0$  : roots real and equal
- In electronics the critically damped case

- $D < 0$  : roots complex and unequal
- In electronics: the underdamped case: very important



## Second Order Solutions

- Second order equations are all about the energy flow
  - Consider the spring case
  - The spring and the mass have energy storage
  - The damping pot losses the energy
  - The critical factor is how fast is energy lost
- 
- In **Overdamped** the energy is lost very fast
  - The block just moves to the rest point
  - **Critically Damped** the loss rate is smaller
  - Just enough for one movement up and down
  - For **Underdamped** spring moves up and down
  - Energy is transferred from the mass to the spring and back again
  - Loss rate is smaller than the time for transfer



## Complex Numbers

- Imaginary numbers necessary for second order solutions
- Imaginary number  $j$

$$j = \sqrt{-1}$$

- Note: in math imaginary number is called  $i$
- But  $i$  means current in electronics so we use  $j$
- Complex numbers involve Real and Imaginary parts

$$\vec{W} = R_w + jI_w$$

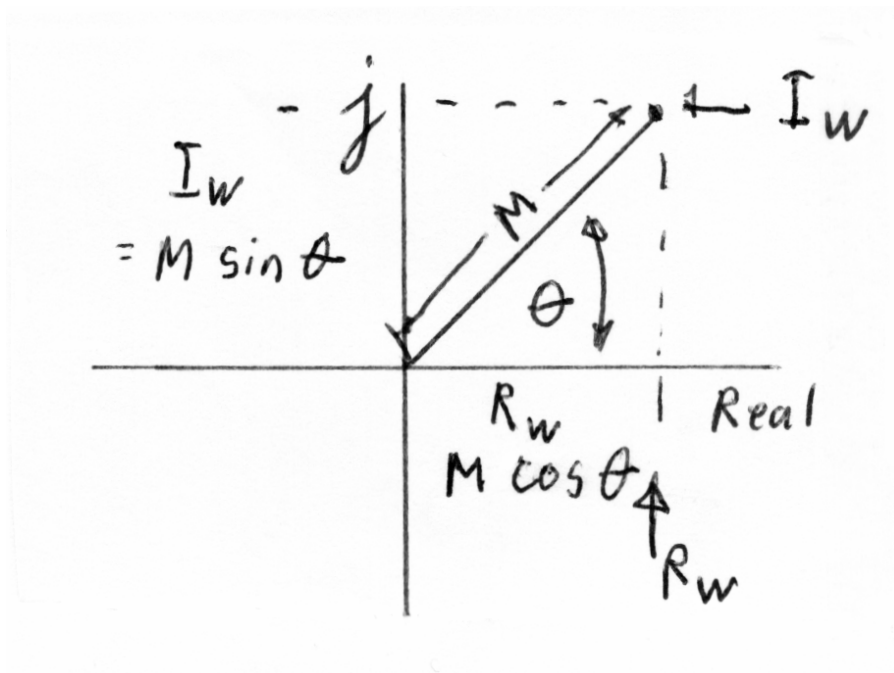
- May designate this in a vector coordinate form:

$$\vec{W} = (R_w, I_w)$$

- Example:

$$\vec{W} = 1 + j2 = (1, 2)$$

$$\text{Re}(W) = 1 \quad \text{Im}(W) = 2$$



## Complex Numbers Plotted

- In electronics plot on X-Y axis
- X axis real, Y axis is imaginary
- A vector represents the imaginary number has length
- Vector has a magnitude M
- Vector is at some angle  $\theta$  to (theta) the real axis
- Then the real and imaginary parts are

$$\text{Real}(W) = R_w = M \cos(\theta)$$

$$\text{Imaginary}(W) = I_w = M \sin(\theta)$$

$$\vec{W} = M [\cos(\theta) + j \sin(\theta)]$$

- The magnitude

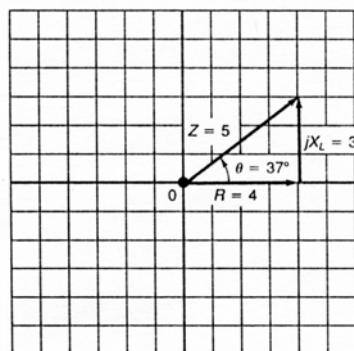
$$\text{Mag}(\vec{W}) = |\vec{W}| = \sqrt{(R_w^2 + I_w^2)}$$

- The angle

$$\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{I_w}{R_w}\right)$$

Thus can give the vector in polar coordinates

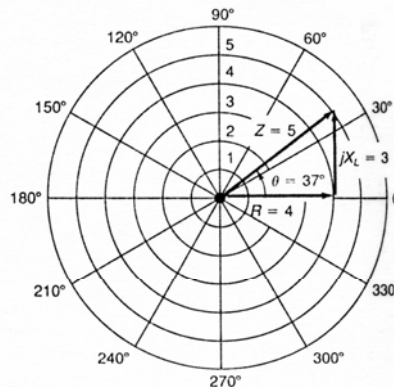
$$\vec{W} = (M, \theta) = M \angle \theta$$



$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + X_L^2}$$

$$\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{X_L}{R}\right)$$

(a)



$$R = Z \cos \theta$$

$$X_L = Z \sin \theta$$

(b)

**Fig. 25-8** Magnitude and angle of a complex number. (a) Rectangular form. (b) Polar form.

## Complex Numbers and Exponentials

- Polar coordinates are connected to complex numbers in exp
- Consider an exponential of a complex number

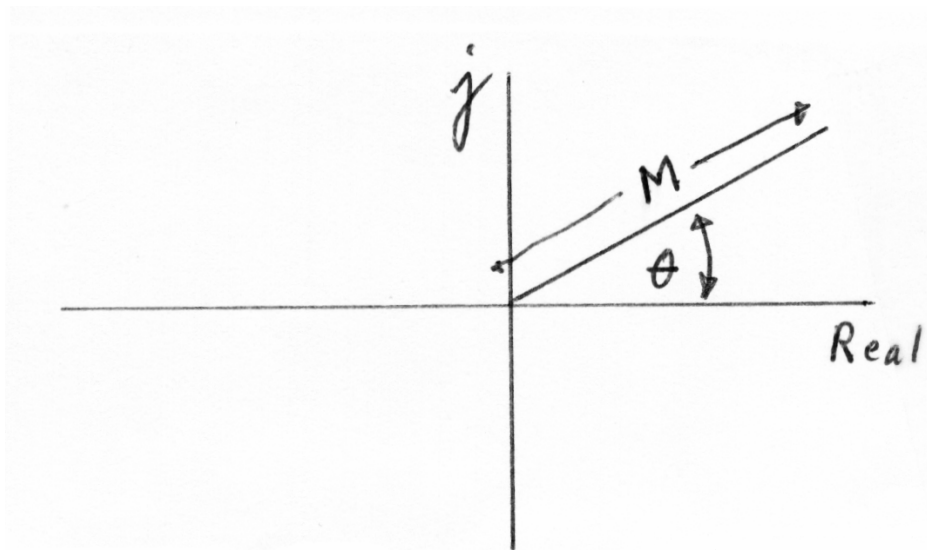
$$\vec{W} = (M, \theta) = R_w + jI_w$$

- This is given by the Euler relationship

$$\exp(j\theta) = [\cos(\theta) + j \sin(\theta)]$$

$$\vec{W} = M \exp(j\theta) = M [\cos(\theta) + j \sin(\theta)]$$

- This relationship is very important for electronics
- Used in second order circuits all the time.





## Overdamped RLC

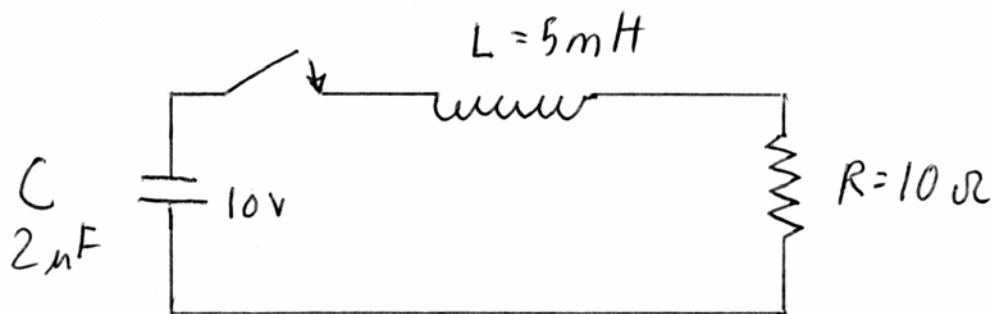
- This is a very common case
- In RLC series circuits this is the large resistor
- Energy loss in the resistor much greater than energy transfers
- Two real roots to the characteristic equation

$$s = -\frac{R}{2L} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC}}$$

- The solution is a double exponential decay

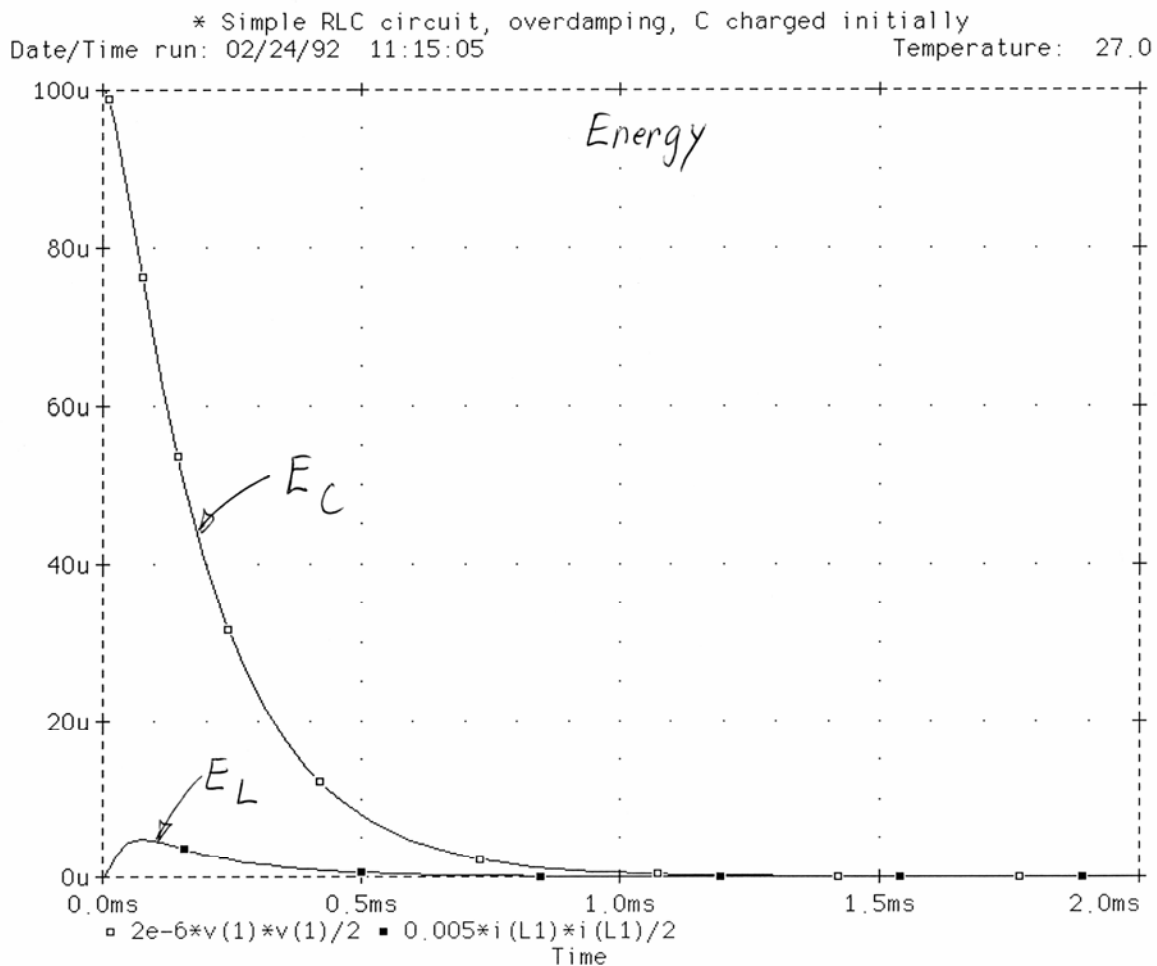
$$i(t) = A_1 \exp(s_1 t) + A_2 \exp(s_2 t)$$

- As R is increased damping increases
- Get the overdamped case



## Overdamped RLC Energy Flows

- For the example case  $L = 5 \text{ mH}$ ,  $C = 2 \mu\text{F}$ ,  $R = 200 \Omega$
- Also assume  $C$  is charged to  $10 \text{ V}$  at  $t = 0$
- Initially energy starts in the Capacitor  $C$
- Some energy transfers to the Inductor  $L$
- $C$  loses charge much faster than  $L$  gains current
- So energy starts to rise in  $L$  but only to a limited level
- Then energy is removed from both by the resistor



## Overdamped RLC Initial Conditions

- For the overdamped case the  $s$ 's are real & different

$$i(t) = A_1 \exp(s_1 t) + A_2 \exp(s_2 t)$$

- To solve the constants  $A$  need the initial conditions
- For second order need two conditions
- Thus both initial current & its derivative
- This varies from circuit to circuit
- In the case of a charged  $C$  switched into the circuit
- Since  $L$  acts as an open initially then  $i(0) = 0$ , thus

$$i(0) = A_1 + A_2$$

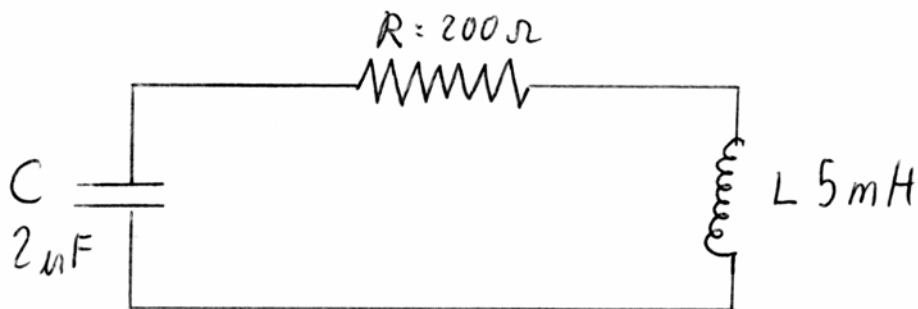
- Thus

$$A_2 = -A_1$$

- Again since the inductor acts open at time zero &  $i(0)=0$
- Thus voltage drop across the resistor is zero

$$V_c(0) = V_L(0) = L \frac{di(0)}{dt}$$

$$\frac{di(0)}{dt} = \frac{V_c(0)}{L}$$



## Overdamped RLC Full Solution

- Now using substituting A equation into the exp equation

$$i(t) = A_1 \exp(s_1 t) - A_1 \exp(s_2 t)$$

- To solve the constants A with the derivative initial condition

$$\frac{di(t)}{dt} = A_1 [s_1 \exp(s_1 t) - s_2 \exp(s_2 t)]$$

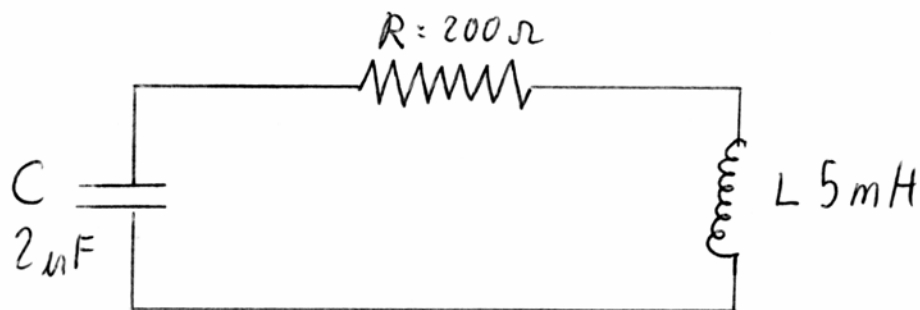
- Now applying the initial condition derivative

$$\frac{di(t=0)}{dt} = A_1 [s_1 \exp(0) - s_2 \exp(0)] = A_1 [s_1 - s_2] = \frac{V_c(0)}{L}$$

- Now solving the equations

$$A_1 = \frac{V_c(0)}{[s_1 - s_2]L}$$

$$i(t) = \frac{V_c(0)}{[s_1 - s_2]L} [\exp(s_1 t) - \exp(s_2 t)]$$



## Overdamped RLC Circuit Example

- For the example case  $L = 5 \text{ mH}$ ,  $C = 2 \mu\text{F}$ ,  $R = 200 \Omega$
- Solving for the roots first what are the discriminate values

$$\left(\frac{R}{2L}\right) = \frac{200}{2 \times 0.005} = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ sec}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\tau} \quad \tau = 50 \mu\text{sec}$$

$$\frac{1}{LC} = \frac{1}{0.005 \times (2 \times 10^{-6})} = 10^8 \text{ sec}^{-2}$$

$$D = \left[ \left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC} \right] = \left[ (2 \times 10^4)^2 - 10^8 \right] = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ sec}^{-2}$$

- Thus gives

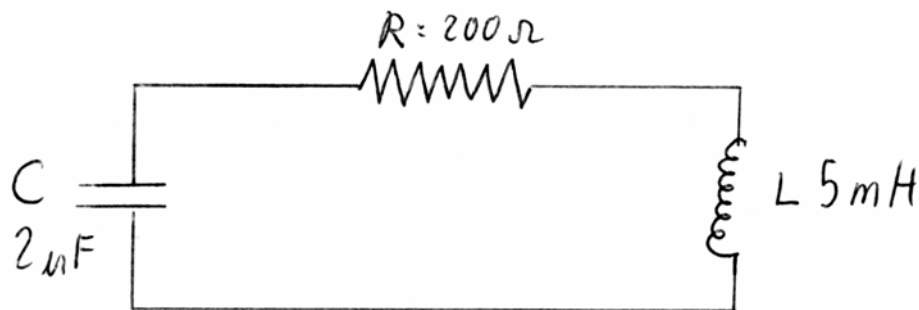
$$s_1 = -\frac{R}{2L} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC}} = -\frac{200}{2 \times 0.005} + \sqrt{3 \times 10^8} = -2.68 \times 10^3 \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

$$s_2 = -\frac{R}{2L} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{R}{2L}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC}} = -\frac{200}{2 \times 0.005} - \sqrt{3 \times 10^8} = -3.73 \times 10^4 \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

- Thus

$$A_1 = \frac{V_c(0)}{[s_1 - s_2]L} = \frac{10}{[1.87 \times 10^4 + 5.87 \times 10^4]0.005} = 5.77 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A}$$

$$i(t) = 5.77 \times 10^{-2} \left[ \exp(-2.68 \times 10^3 t) - \exp(-3.73 \times 10^4 t) \right] \text{ A}$$



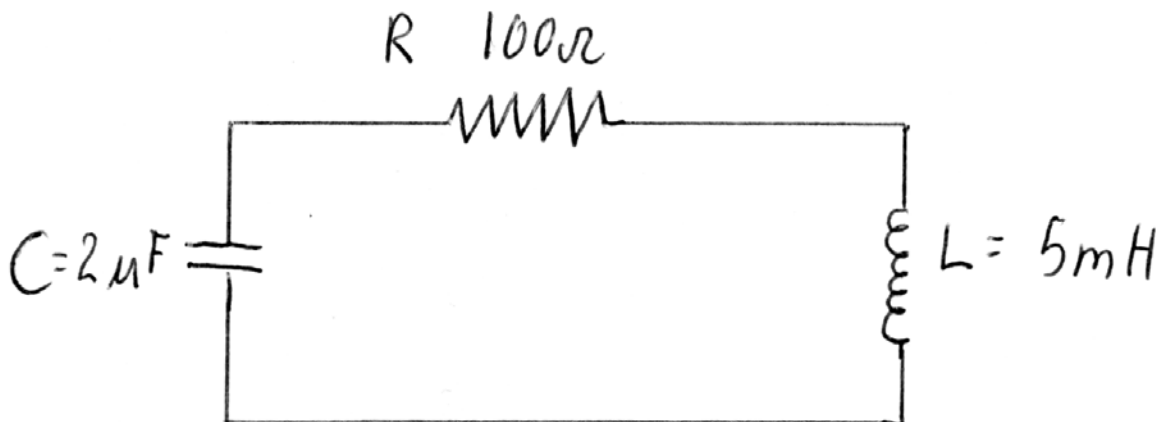
## Critical Damped RLC

- If we decrease the damping (resistance) energy loss decreases
- Change the exponential decay until discriminant=0

$$D = \left[ \left( \frac{R}{2L} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{LC} \right] = 0$$

$$\left( \frac{R}{2L} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{LC}$$

- This is the point called critical damping
- Difficult to achieve: only small change in R moves from this point
- Small temperature change will cause that to occur
- Energy transfer from C to L is now smaller than loss in R



## Critical Damped RLC Solutions

- The characteristic equation has two identical solutions

$$s^2 + \frac{R}{L}s + \frac{1}{LC} = 0$$

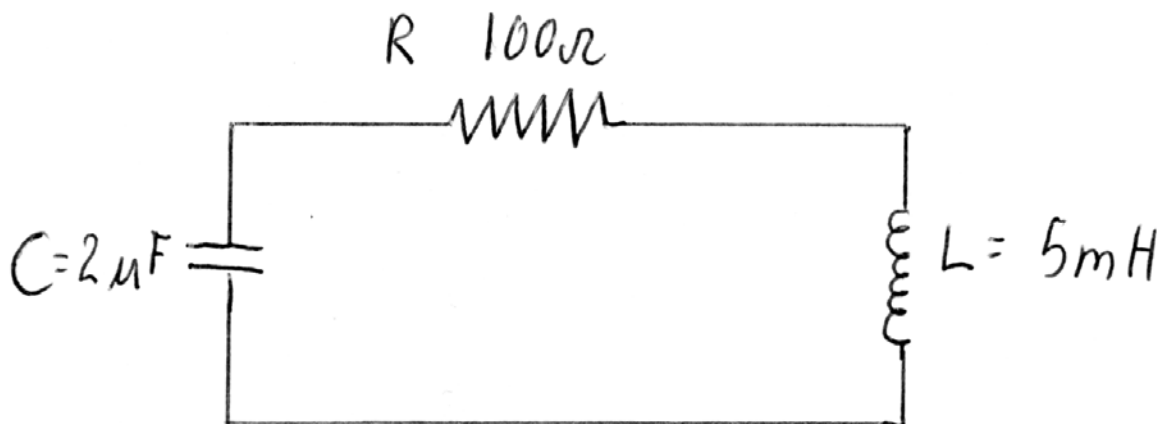
$$s_1 = s_2 = -\frac{R}{2L}$$

- This is a special case, with special solution

$$i(t) = [A_1 + A_2 t] \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right)$$

Why this solution?

Given in the study differential equations in math

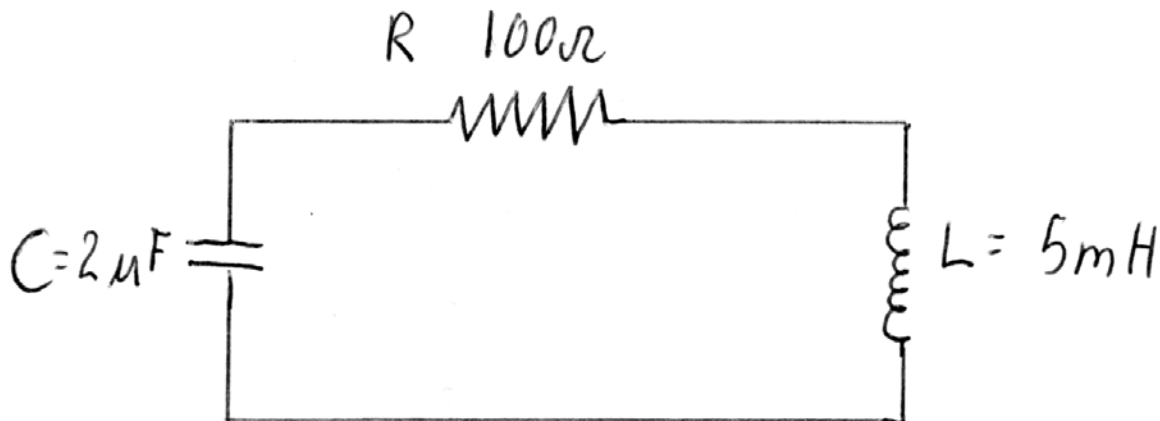


## Critical Damped RLC Two Solutions

- The critically damped equation has two solutions

$$i(t) = [A_1 + A_2 t] \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right)$$

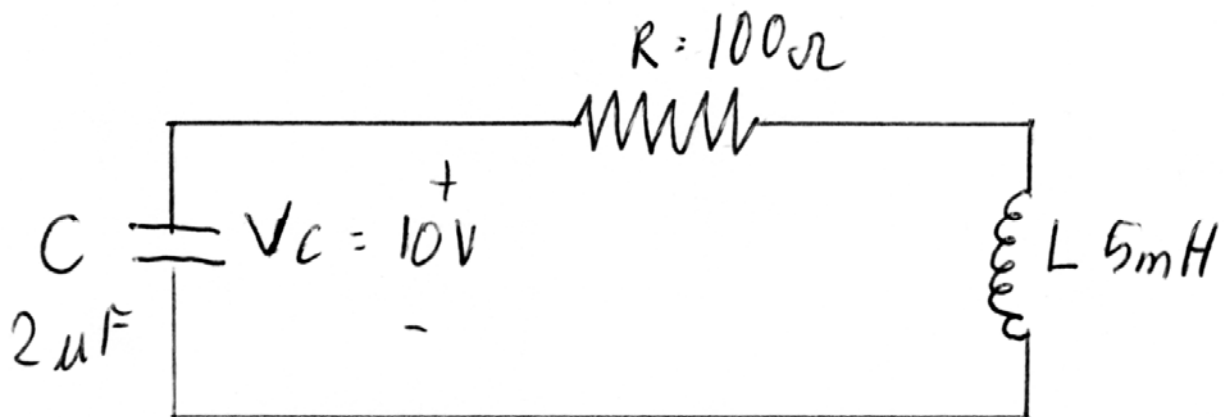
- Solution has two possible behaviours depending on A values
- The characteristic equation has two identical solutions
- Get only one oscillation (transient)
- Or get slow approach to final value
- Difference depends on initial conditions only
- If starts with  $i(t=0) = 0$ , slow approach to rest value
- If start with  $i(t=0) \neq 0$ , get one oscillation then rest value
- Thus same circuit will have different solutions
- Depending on the initial current conditions & energy storage





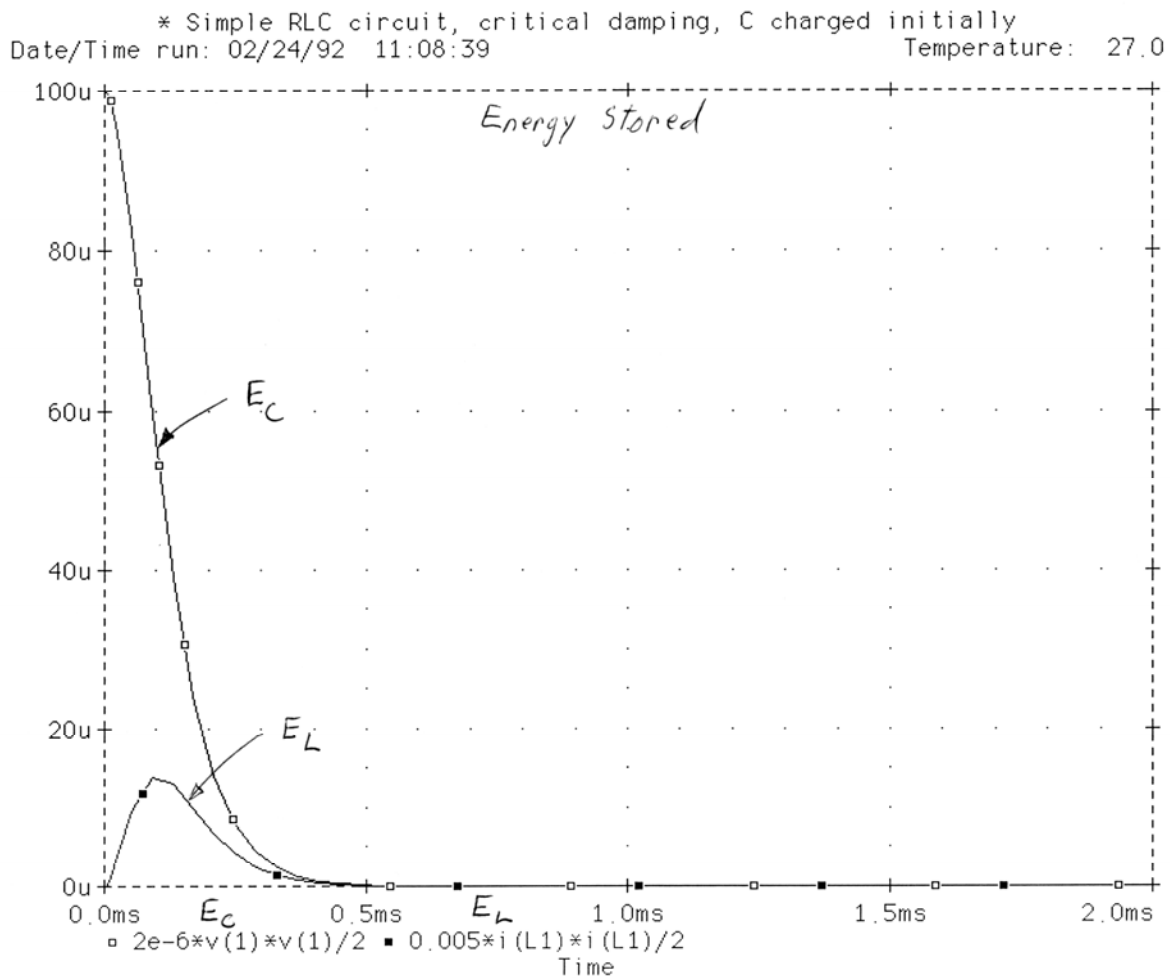
## Critical Damped RLC Example $i(0)=0$

- Keeping L & C the same
- If R is increased 100 ohm get critical damping
- Here  $L = 5 \text{ mH}$ ,  $C = 2 \mu\text{F}$ ,  $R = 100 \Omega$
- Also assume C is charged to 10 V at  $t = 0$
- Also assume C is charged to 10 V at  $t = 0$  but  $i(t)=0$
- This is the no oscillation case



## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) = 0$ Energy Plot

- Energy is transferred from Capacitor to Inductor
- Inductor energy is later and higher than overdamped case
- Then both energies decline



## Critical Damped RLC $i(0)=0$ Solution

- We define the **Damping Decay Constant**  $\alpha$

$$\alpha = \frac{R}{2L} = \frac{100}{2 \times 0.005} = 10^4 \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

- The damping constant gives how fast energy is decaying
- The basic Critical Damping equation is

$$i(t) = [A_1 + A_2 t] \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right)$$

- Solving for A constants from the initial conditions
- Since current is at  $t=0$  is zero then

$$i(t=0) = 0 = [A_1 + A_2 \cdot 0] \exp\left(-\frac{R \cdot 0}{2L}\right) = A_1$$

$$i(t) = A_2 t \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right)$$

- Again since the inductor acts open at time zero

$$\frac{di(0)}{dt} = \frac{V_c(0)}{L}$$

- Now applying this to the equation

$$\frac{di(t=0)}{dt} = A_2 \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right) \left[1 - \frac{Rt}{2L}\right] = A_2 \exp\left(-\frac{R \cdot 0}{2L}\right) \left[1 - \frac{R \cdot 0}{2L}\right] = A_2$$

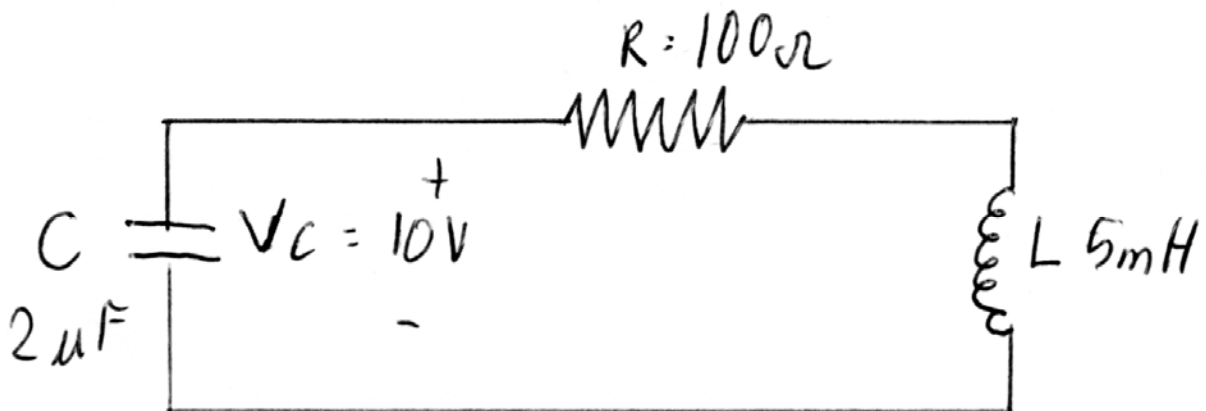
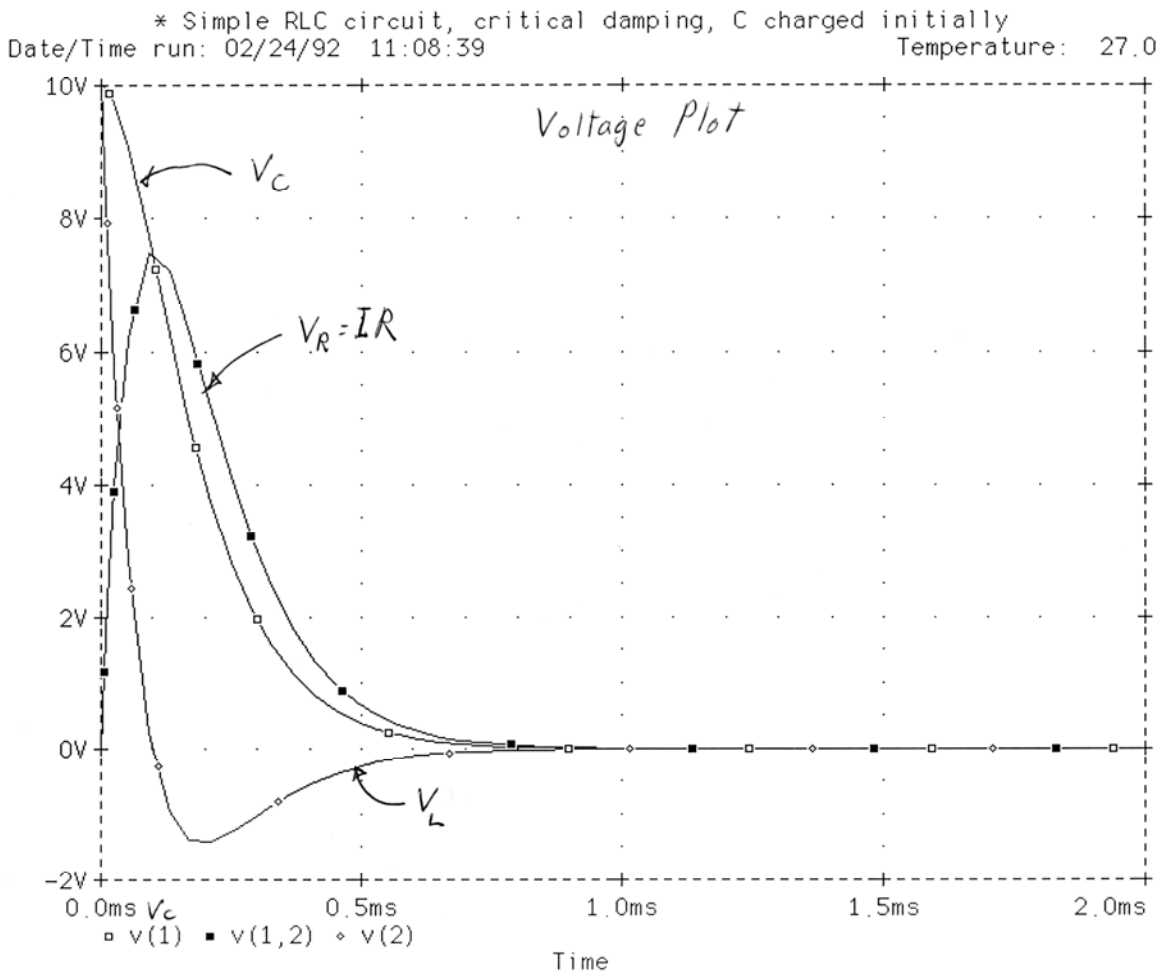
- Thus at time  $t=0$  then

$$A_2 = \frac{V_c(0)}{L} = \frac{10}{0.005} = 2000 \text{ A}$$

$$i(t) = [A_2 t] \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right) = 2000 t \exp(-10^4 t) \text{ A}$$

## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) = 0$ Voltage Plot

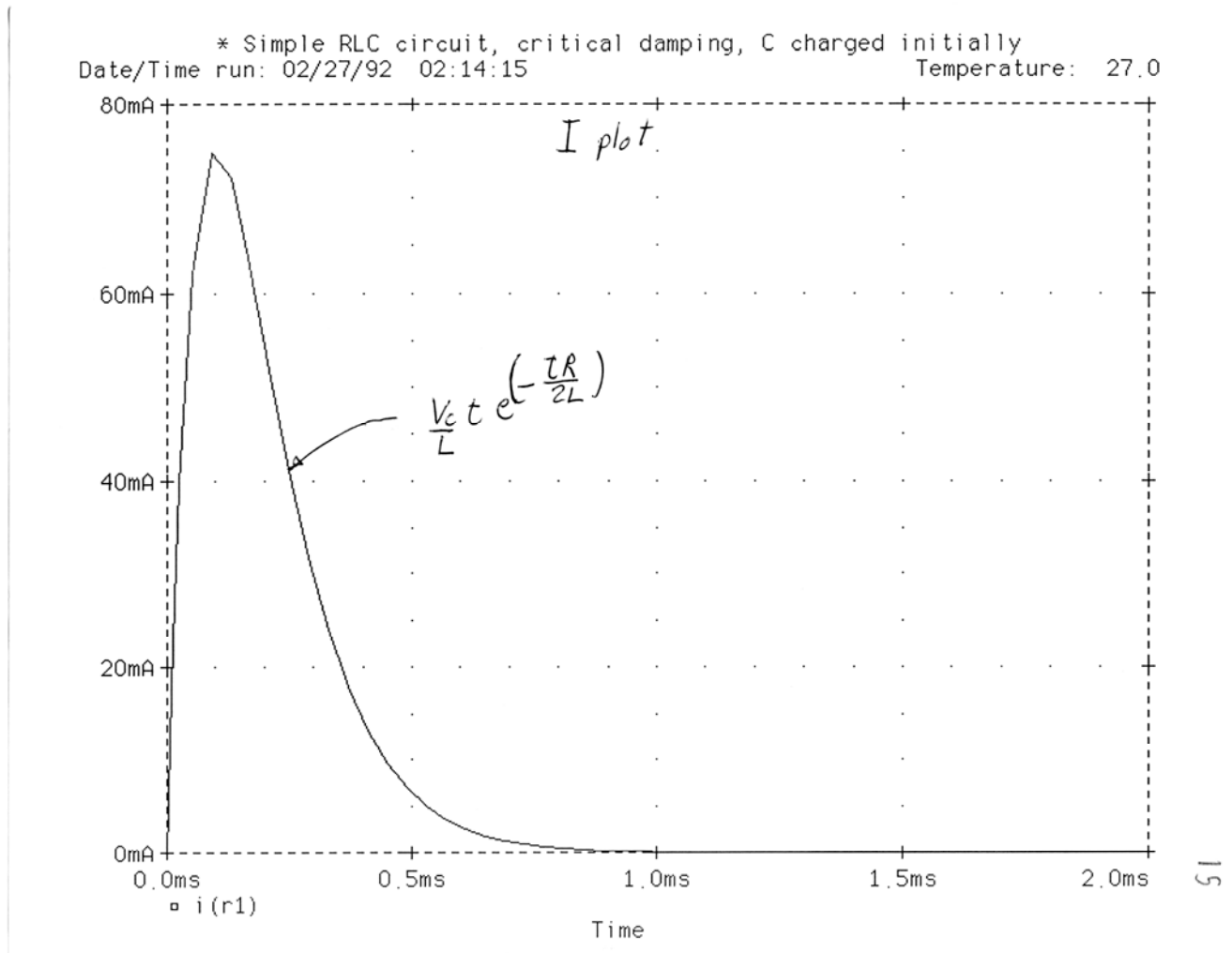
- Capacitor voltage starts at 10 V and declines
- Inductor voltage starts at 10 V then reverses & declines
- Resistor voltage starts at zero, rises to peak above  $V_c$  then declines



## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) = 0$ Current Plot

- Current rises to peak due to  $A_2t$  term
- Then current declines near exponential with  $\alpha$

$$i(t) = [A_2t] \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right) = 2000 t \exp(-10^4 t) A$$



## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) \neq 0$

- Now consider the case when  $i(t=0)$  is non zero
- The practical case is when capacitor is uncharged
- But inductor has current flowing in it
- The equation has both constants nonzero

$$i(t) = [A_1 + A_2 t] \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right)$$

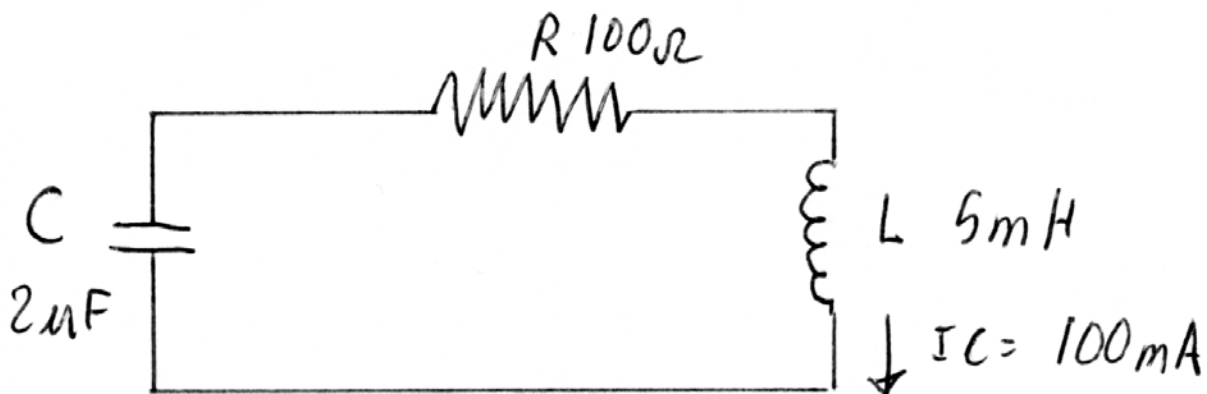
- Again the example have  $L = 5 \text{ mH}$ ,  $C = 2 \text{ } \mu\text{F}$ ,  $R = 100 \text{ } \Omega$
- Now assume  $L$  initially carries  $100 \text{ mA}$  at  $t = 0$ , thus

$$i(t=0) = I_0 = A_1 = 100 \text{ mA}$$

- Since  $C$  acts as a short at time  $t=0$  thus  $V_C(t=0) = 0$
- Then the only voltage drop is across the resistance

$$I_0 R + L \frac{di(t=0)}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{di(t=0)}{dt} = -\frac{I_0 R}{L}$$



## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) \neq 0$ Equation

- Now for the derivative of the equation

$$\frac{di(t)}{dt} = \left\{ A_2 + [A_1 + A_2 t] \left( -\frac{R}{2L} \right) \right\} \exp\left( -\frac{Rt}{2L} \right)$$

- For the initial conditions

$$\frac{di(t=0)}{dt} = \left\{ A_2 + [A_1] \left( -\frac{R}{2L} \right) \right\} \exp\left( -\frac{R0}{2L} \right) = A_2 - A_1 \left( \frac{R}{2L} \right) = A_2 - \frac{RI_0}{2L}$$

- Relating this to the resistance

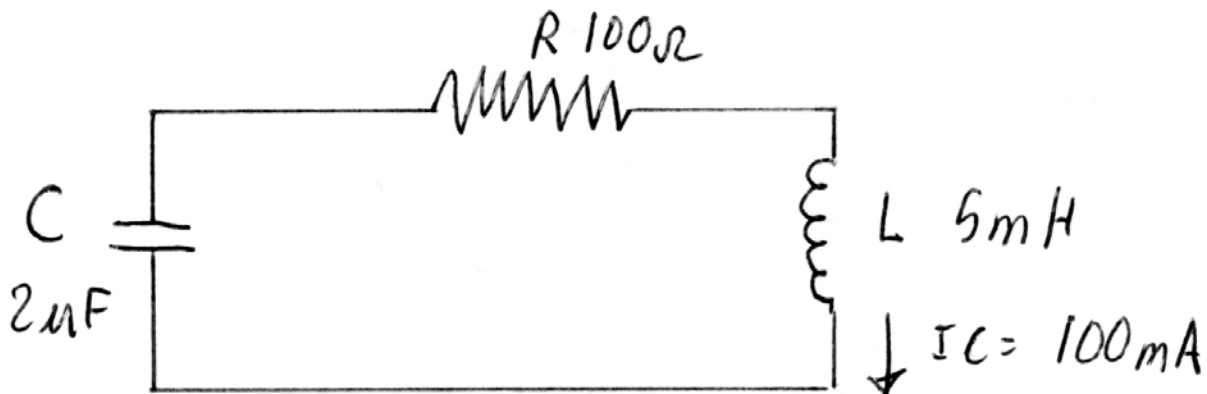
$$\frac{di(t=0)}{dt} = A_2 - \frac{RI_0}{2L} = -\frac{I_0 R}{L}$$

$$A_2 = \frac{RI_0}{2L} = -\frac{100 \times 0.1}{2 \times 0.005} = -1000 \text{ A}$$

- Thus the critically damped  $i(t=0) \neq 0$  current equation is

$$i(t) = [A_1 + A_2 t] \exp\left( -\frac{Rt}{2L} \right) = [0.1 - 1000 t] \exp(-10^4 t) \text{ A}$$

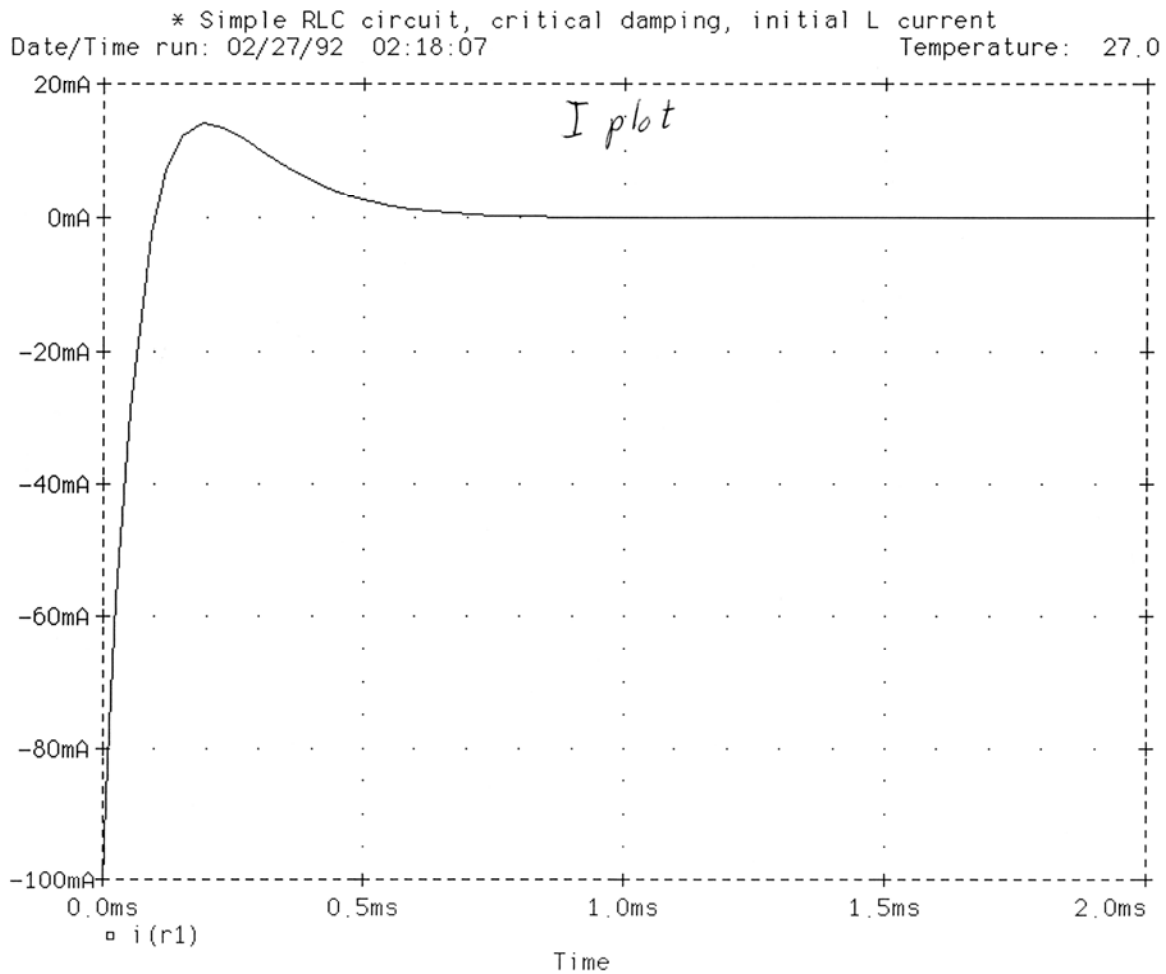
- Thus the current will reverse direction at  $t=0.1$  msec.



## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) \neq 0$ Current Plot

- Current reaches zero at  $t=0.1$  msec
- Reverses, reaches peak at  $t=0.2$  msec then declines

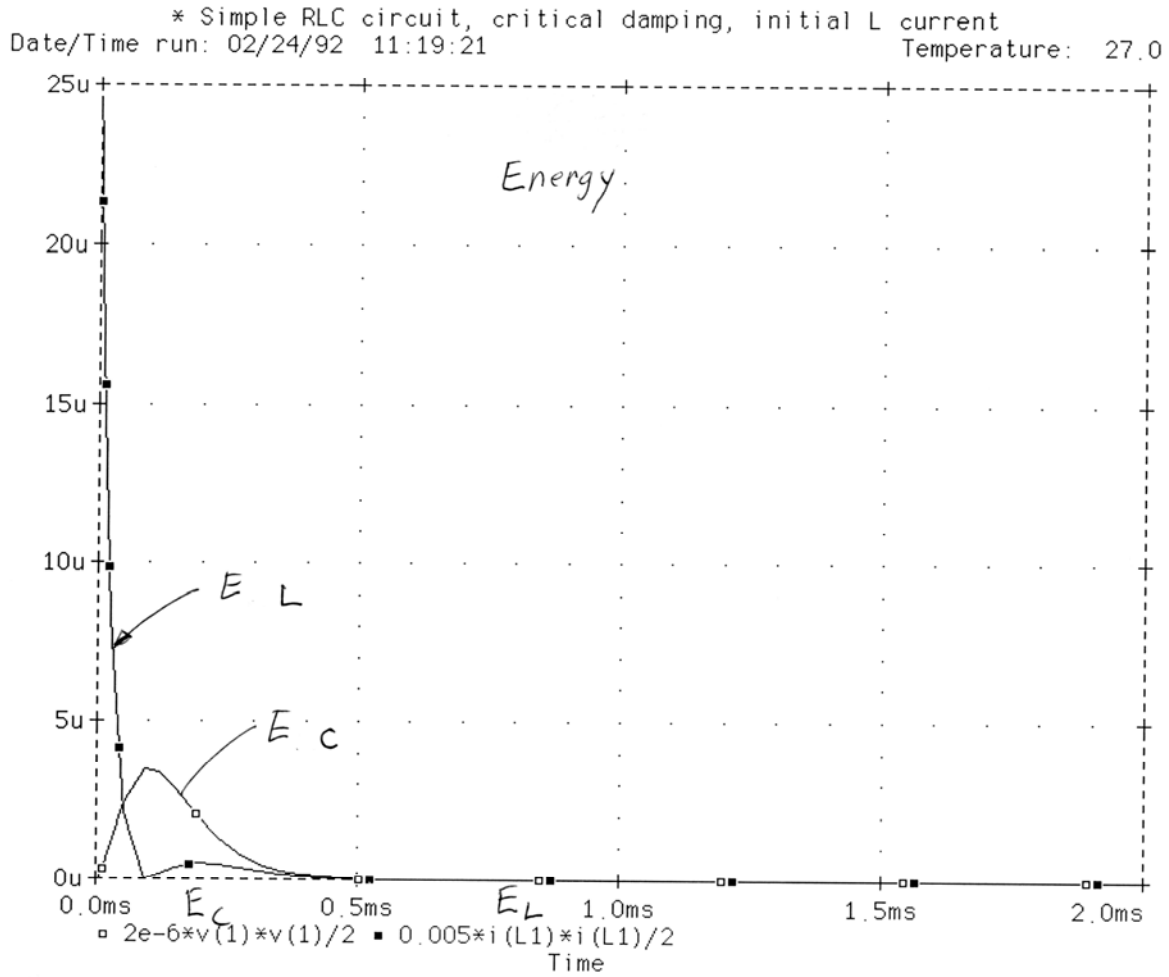
$$i(t) = [A_1 + A_2 t] \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{2L}\right) = [0.1 - 1000 t] \exp(-10^4 t) A$$





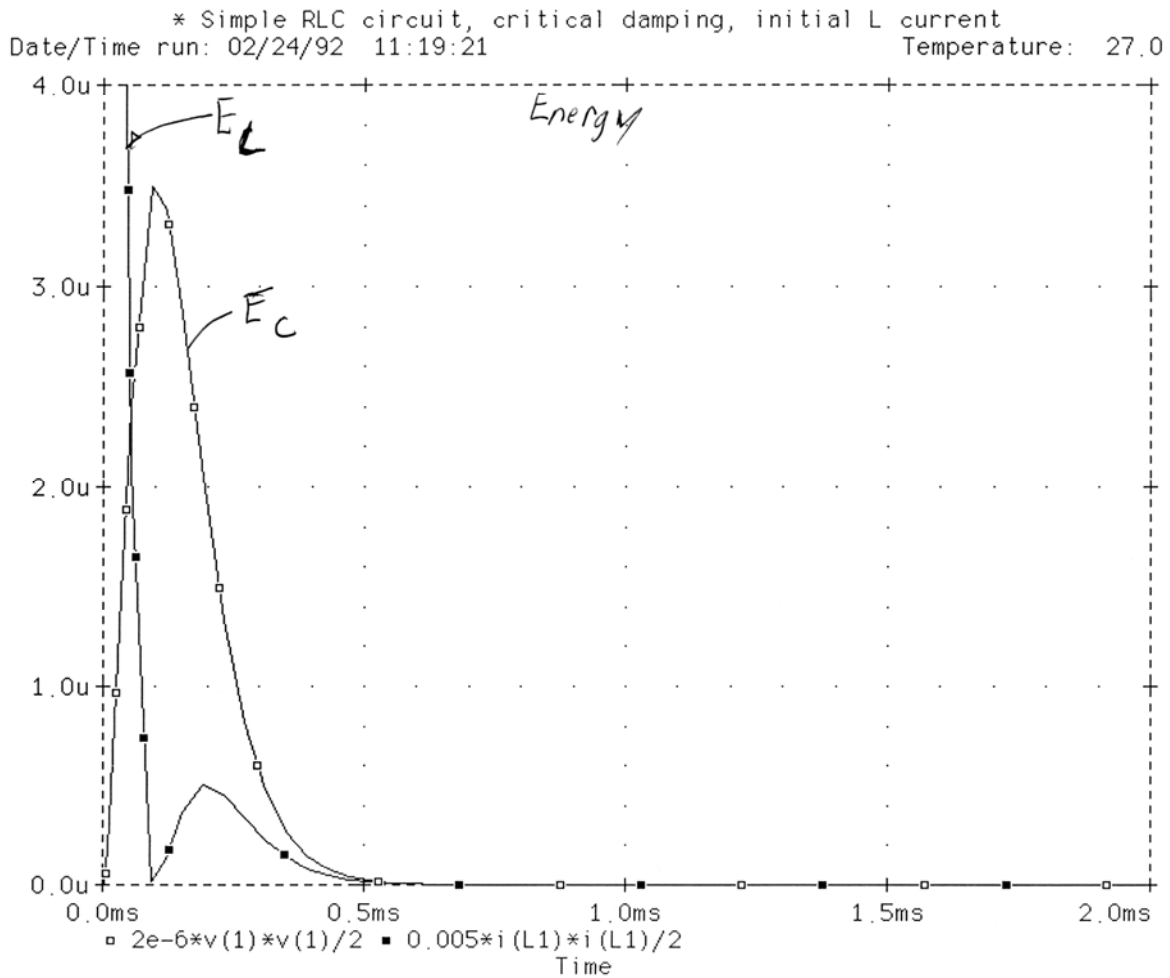
## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) \neq 0$ Energy Plot

- Inductor energy falls to minimum at  $t=0.1$  msec
- Energy is transferred from L to C and back to L



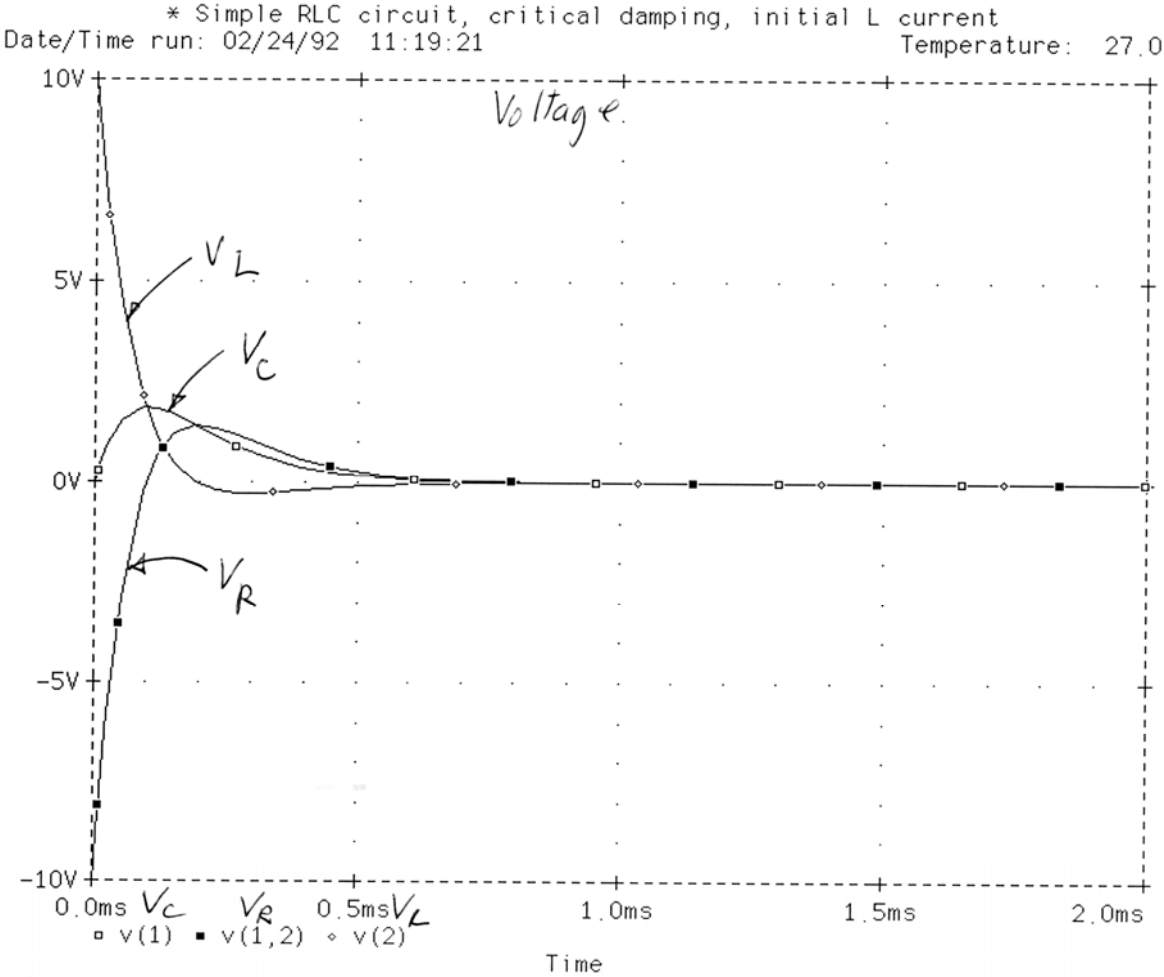
## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) \neq 0$ Energy Plot Expanded

- Capacitor energy reaches max when  $E_L$  is minimum
- Then Inductor energy rises again
- Both energies decay



# Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) \neq 0$ Voltage Plot

- Inductor voltage starts at 10 V and declines
- Resistor voltage starts at -10 V and rises to zero



## Critical Damped RLC, $i(t=0) \neq 0$ Voltage Plot Expanded

- Resistor voltage reaches zero at  $t=0.1$  msec
- Capacitor voltage reaches max also at  $t=0.1$  msec
- Inductor voltage falls to zero at  $t=0.2$  msec then goes negative
- Reason  $V_L$  depends on direction of Current derivative
- Resistor voltage changes to positive, reaches peak then declines

