

## Parallel RLC Second Order Systems

- Consider a parallel RLC
- Switch at  $t=0$  applies a current source
- For parallel will use KCL
- Proceeding just as for series but now in voltage

(1) Using KCL to write the equations:

$$C \frac{di}{dt} + \frac{v}{R} + \frac{1}{L} \int_0^t v dt = I_0$$

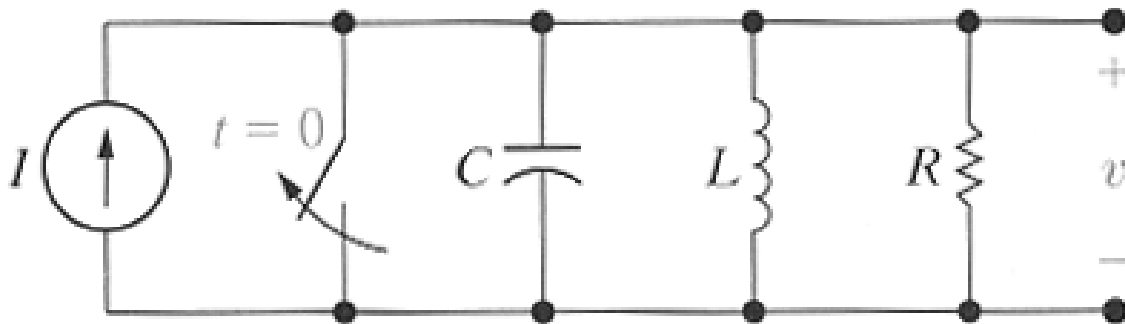
(2) Want full differential equation

- Differentiating with respect to time

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

(3) This is the differential equation of second order

- Second order equations involve 2nd order derivatives



## Solving the Second Order Systems Parallel RLC

- Continuing with the simple parallel RLC circuit as with the series
- (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

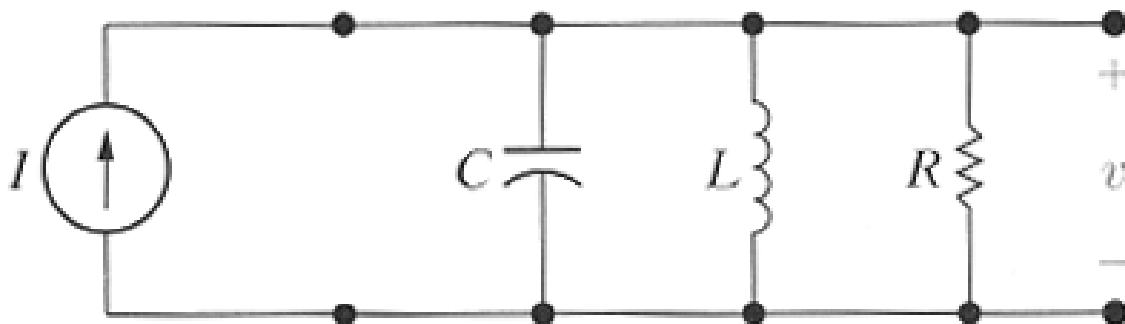
$$C \frac{d^2 v}{dt^2} + \frac{1}{R} \frac{dv}{dt} + \frac{1}{L} v = 0$$

$$Cs^2 A \exp(st) + \frac{1}{R} sA \exp(st) + \frac{A}{L} \exp(st) = 0$$

- Dividing out the exponential for the characteristic equation

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

- Giving the Homogeneous equation
- Get the 3 same types of solutions but now in voltage
- Just parameters are going to be different



## General Solution Parallel RLC

- Solving the homogeneous quadratic as before

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

- The general solution is:

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

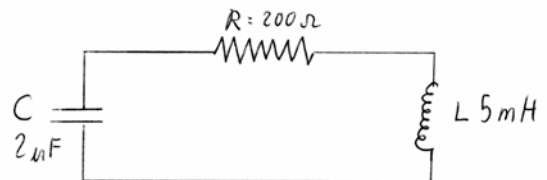
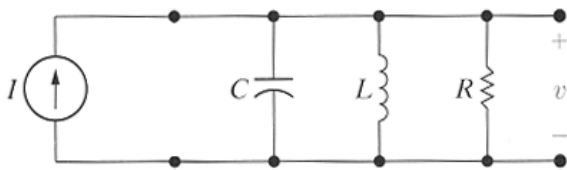
- Note the difference from the series RLC

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

- Note the difference is in the damping term first term
- Again type of solution is set by the Discriminant

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

- Recall RC is the time constant of the resistor capacitor circuit



### 3 solutions of the Parallel RLC

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

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

- Again how fast is energy transferred from the L to the C
- How fast is energy lost to the resistor
- Get the same three cases & general equations set by D
- $D > 0$  : roots real and unequal: overdamped case
- $D = 0$  : roots real and equal: critically damped case
- $D < 0$  : roots complex and unequal: underdamped case
- Now the damping term changes

$$\alpha_{parallel} = \frac{1}{2RC}$$

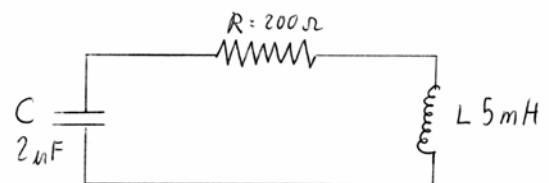
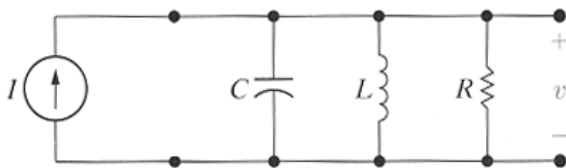
- For the series RLC it was

$$\alpha_{series} = \frac{R}{2L}$$

- Recall  $\tau = RC$  for the resistor capacitor circuit
- While  $\tau = \frac{R}{L}$  for the resistor inductor circuit
- The natural frequency (underdamped) stays the same

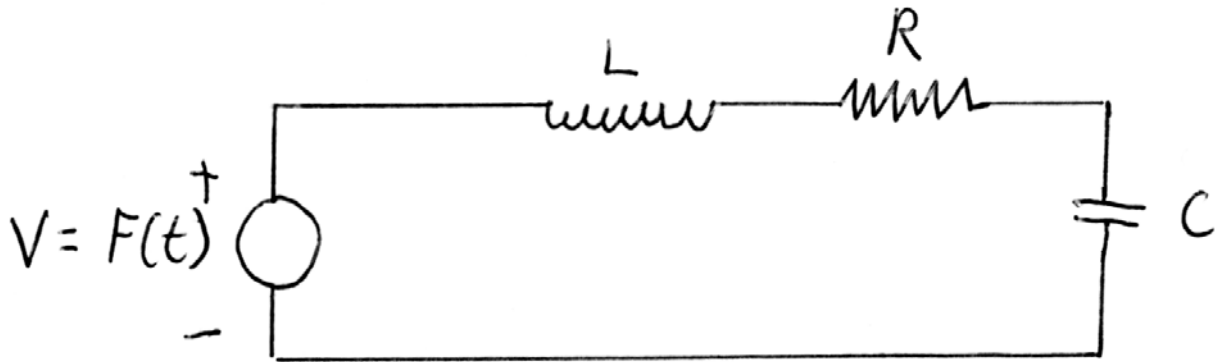
$$\omega_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

The difference is in the solutions created by the initial conditions



## Forced Response & RL, RC and RLC Combination

- Natural Response: energy stored then decays
- Forced Response: voltage/current applied
- Forcing function can be anything
- Typical types are steps or sine functions
- Step response: called complete response in book
- Step involves both natural and forced response
- Forced response (Book): after steady state reached
- forced response: when forcing function applied.
- Forcing function: any applied V or I
- Most important case simple AC response



## Forced Response

- How does a circuit act to a driving  $V$  or  $I$  which changes with time
- Assume this is long after the function is applied
- Problem easiest for RC & RL
- General problem difficult with RLC type
- Procedure: write the KVL or KCL laws
- Equate it to the forcing function  $F(t)$

$$F(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n v_j$$

- Then create and solve Differential Equation

General solution difficult

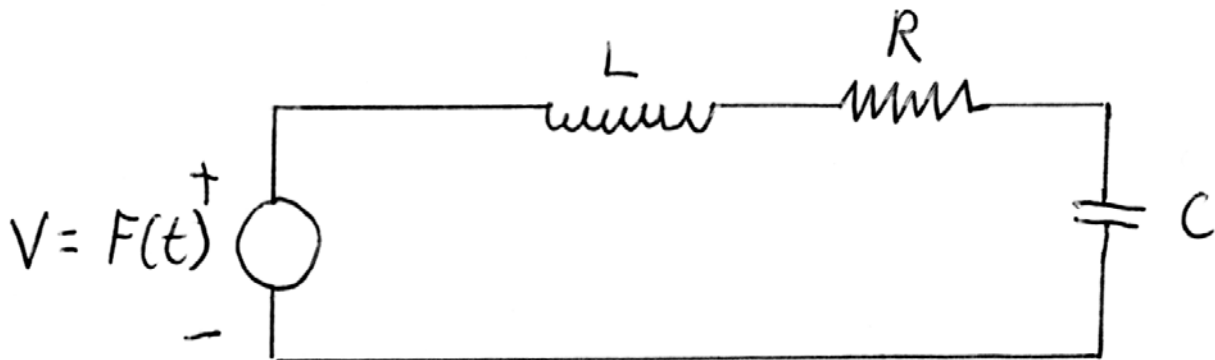
Two simple Cases important:

(1) Steady  $V$  or  $I$  applied, or sudden changes at long intervals

- Just need to know how the  $C$  or  $L$  respond
- In long time  $C$  become open,  $L$  a short
- Solved as in RL and RC case
- Must have time between changes  $\gg$  time constants

(2) Sinewave AC over long time

- Solved using the complex Impedance



## Complete Response

- Complete response: what happens to a sudden change
- Apply a forcing function to the circuit (eg RC, RL, RLC)

• Complete response is a combination two responses

(1) First solve natural response equations

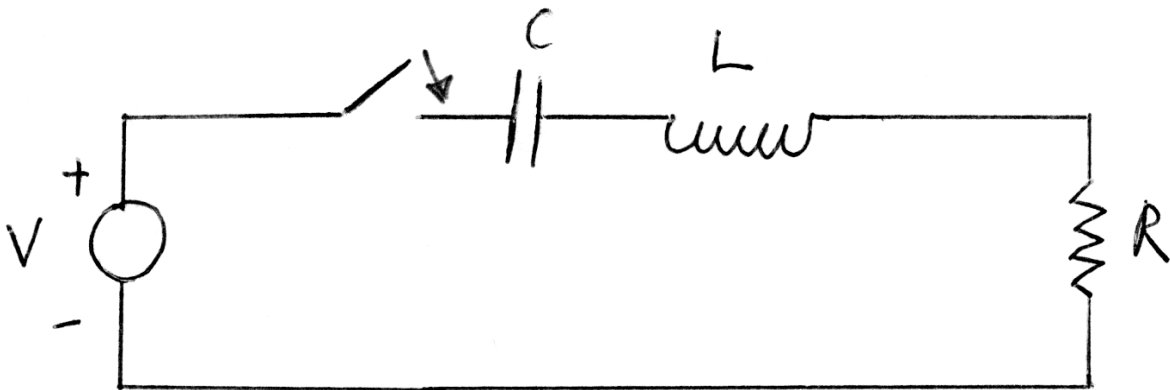
- use either differential equations
- Get the roots of the exp equations
- Or use complex impedance (coming up)

(2) Then find the long term forced response

(3) Add the two equations

$$V_{complete} = V_{natural} + V_{forced}$$

(4) Solve for the initial conditions



## Example Complete Response of RL to a step

- Consider an RL circuit with a switched voltage
  - This is called a voltage step
- (1) From previous results the natural response is:

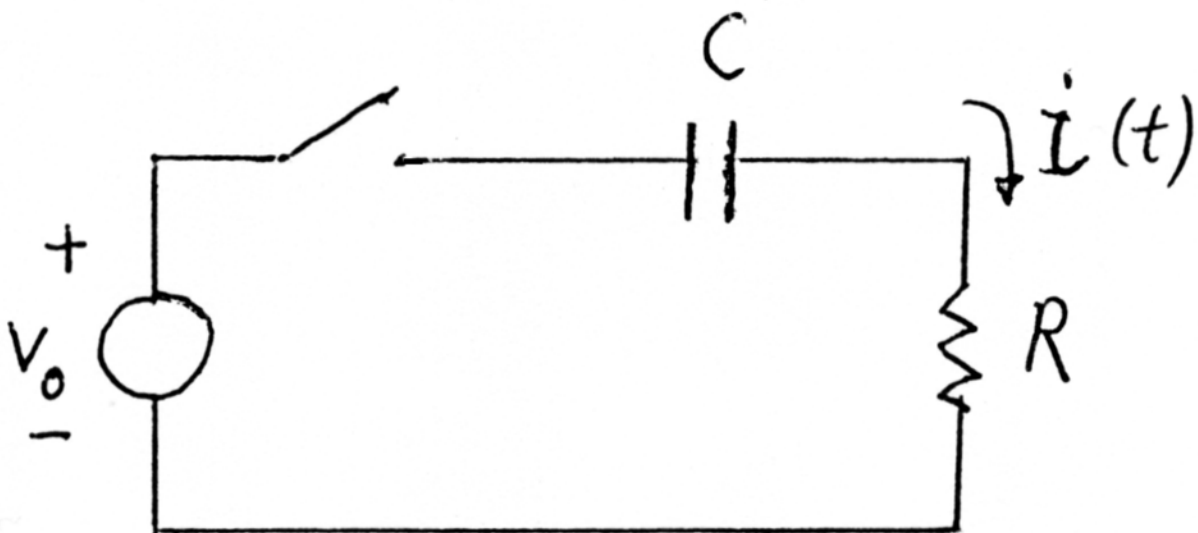
$$I(t)_{nat} = A \exp\left[-\frac{Rt}{L}\right]$$

- (2) In the long term the L acts as an short

$$I(t \rightarrow \infty)_{for} = \frac{V_{in}}{R}$$

- (3) Combine the equations

$$I(t) = \frac{V_{in}}{R} + A \exp\left[-\frac{Rt}{L}\right]$$





## Complete Response of RL Con'd

(4) Solve for initial conditions

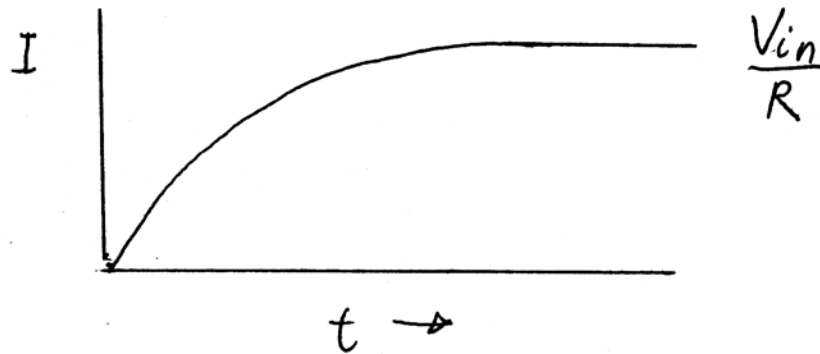
At  $t=0+$  no current must flow

$$0 = I(0) = \frac{V_{in}}{R} + A \exp\left[-\frac{R0}{L}\right]$$

$$A = -\frac{V_{in}}{R}$$

• thus the complete response equation is

$$I(t) = \frac{V_{in}}{R} \left[ 1 - \exp\left[-\frac{Rt}{L}\right] \right]$$



## **Complete Response In General**

- General solution difficult
- Two simple Cases important:
  - (1) Steady V or I applied
    - just need to know how the C or L respond
    - in long time C become open, L a short
    - solved as in RL and RC case
  - (2) Sinewave AC over long time
    - solved using the complex Impedance (EC 10)

## Complete Response of Second Order Circuits

- 2nd order complete response procedure same as 1st
- but getting coefficients more complex

(1) First solve natural response equations

- use either differential equations
- or impedance method (next section)

(2) Then find the long term forced response

- for sudden DC changes get steady state results

(3) Add the two equations

$$I_{complete} = I_{natural} + I_{forced}$$

(4) Solve for the initial conditions.

- must use initial conditions
- For current need both

$$I(t=0+) \quad \frac{dI(t=0+)}{dt}$$

- similar requirements for Voltage

## Complete Response of series RLC to a Voltage step

- Consider an RLC circuit with a switched voltage
- Find the voltage across the capacitor

(1) From previous results for the natural response:

- in terms of the solution  $s$  of this impedance then

$$I(t)_{nat} = A_1 \exp(s_1 t) + A_2 \exp(s_2 t)$$

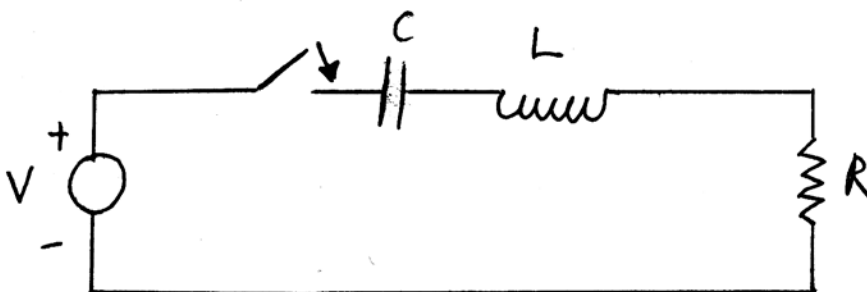
- where  $s'$  are the roots of the homogeneous equation

(2) In long term, L acts as an short, C open

$$I(t \rightarrow \infty)_{for} = 0$$

(3) Combine the equations

$$I(t)_{nat} = A_1 \exp(s_1 t) + A_2 \exp(s_2 t)$$



## Complete Response of RLC series Con'd

(4) Solve for initial conditions

At  $t=0+$  no current must flow, L open

$$0 = I(0) = A_1 \exp(s_1 0) + A_2 \exp(s_2 0)$$

$$A_1 = -A_2$$

- Also need the derivative at  $t=0+$
- noting that L is open and C uncharged then

$$V_{in} = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

- thus:

$$\frac{V_{in}}{L} = A [s_1 \exp(s_1 0) - s_2 \exp(s_2 0)]$$

$$A = \frac{V_{in}}{L(s_1 - s_2)}$$

- the exact form depends on the type of roots.

## Complete Response of RLC series Con'd

- if roots are complex then

$$s_1 = -\alpha + j\omega \quad s_2 = -\alpha - j\omega$$

- and the coefficient is

$$A = \frac{V_{in}}{L(s_1 - s_2)} = \frac{V_{in}}{jL2\omega}$$

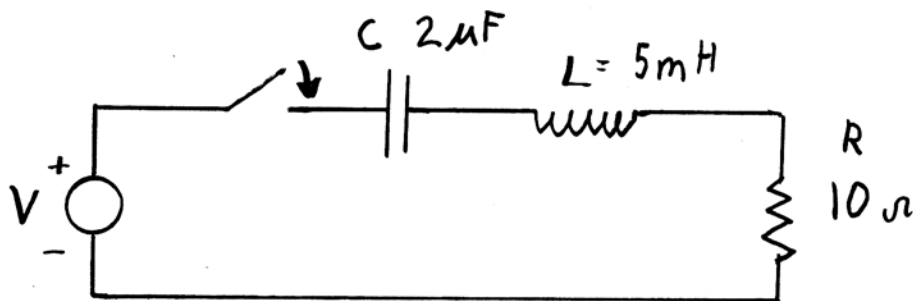
- since

$$\sin(\omega t) = \frac{1}{2j}[\exp(j\omega t) - \exp(-j\omega t)]$$

$$I(t)_{nat} = \frac{V_{in}}{L\omega} \exp(-\alpha t) \sin(\omega t)$$

- How to solve complete response for AC sources

- Need the complex impedance methods



## Sinusoidal waves

- Most circuits involve periodic signals
- Most common are made of sinusoidal waves

$$a(t) = A_0 \cos(\omega t + \alpha)$$

Where

$a(t)$  = signal at time  $t$

$A_0$  = max signal or amplitude

$\omega$  = (omega) radial frequency, radians/sec.

$t$  = time in sec.

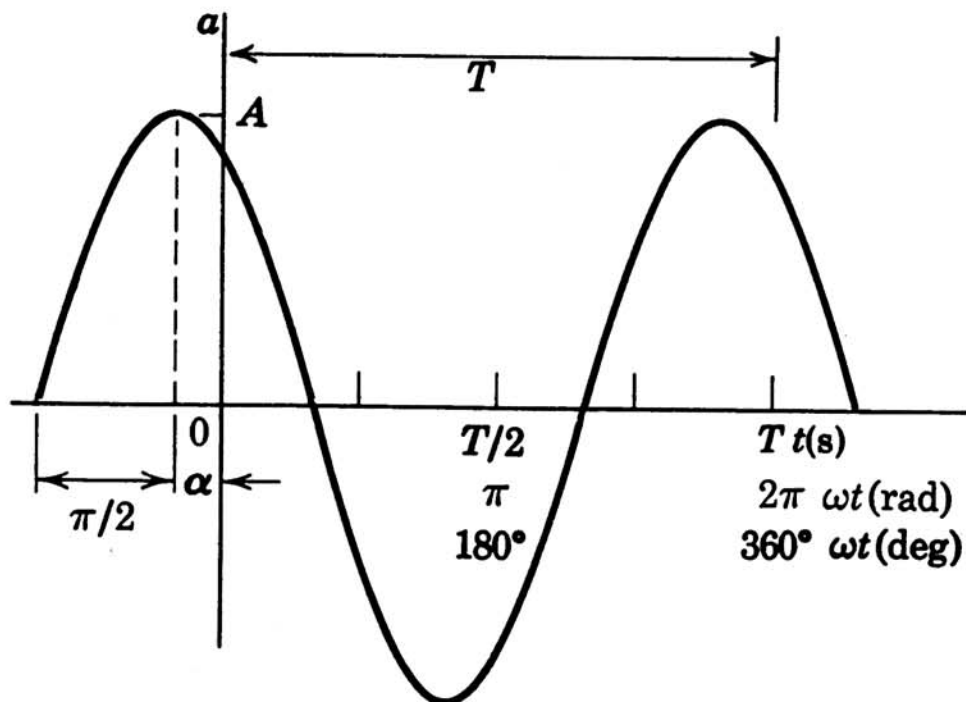
$\alpha$  = phase shift angle in radians (also  $\phi$  : phi)

- radial frequency related to the regular frequency  $f$  by

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$

- The period of the wave is

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$



## Sin waves

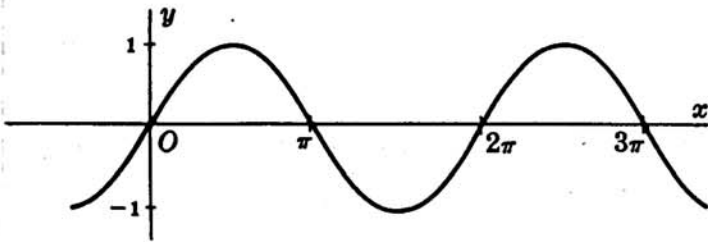
- can relate a cos wave to a sin wave via

$$a(t) = A_0 \cos(\omega t + \alpha) = A_0 \sin(\omega t + \alpha + \frac{\pi}{2})$$

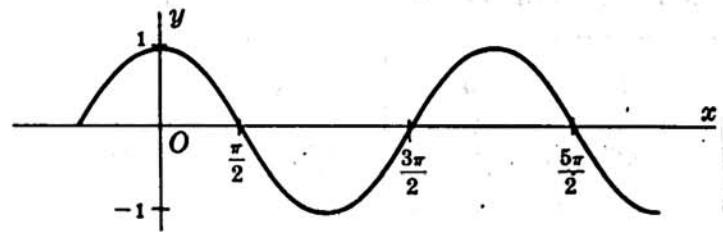
- sine wave: phase shifted by 90 degrees from cos

In each graph  $x$  is in radians.

5.22  $y = \sin x$



5.23  $y = \cos x$





## Projection of Cos wave

- Useful to regard wave as a rotating vector
- rotating vector is called a phasor
- Period of rotation

$$period = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

- instantaneous value = projection on x axis of vector

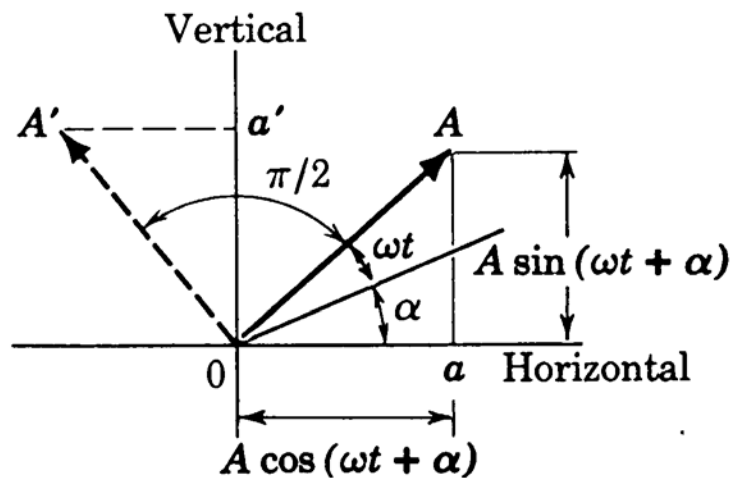


Figure 3.8 Projections of a rotating line.

- Call electrical signals of this type "Alternating Current"

## Example of sinusoidal wave

- Example: a 60 Hz wave has its maximum at 2.08 msec.
- find the wave formula

- first find the radial frequency

$$\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi 60 = 377 \text{ rads/sec}$$

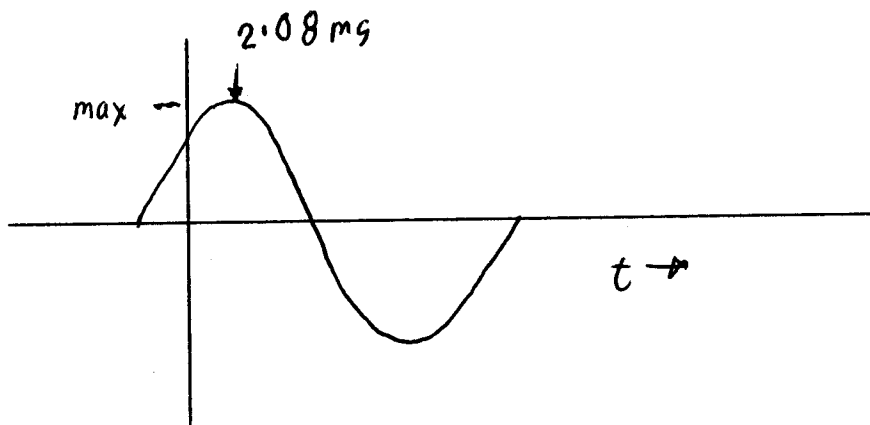
- to find the phase displacement:
- note for cos wave max occurs at

$$(\omega t + \alpha) = 0$$

Thus

$$\alpha = -\omega t = 377 \times 2.08 \times 10^{-3} = -0.784 \text{ rads} = -\frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$= -0.784 \times \frac{360}{2\pi} = -45 \text{ deg.}$$



## Periodic Waveforms

- Any shape of wave is periodic if it has a function

$$f(t) = f(t + nT)$$

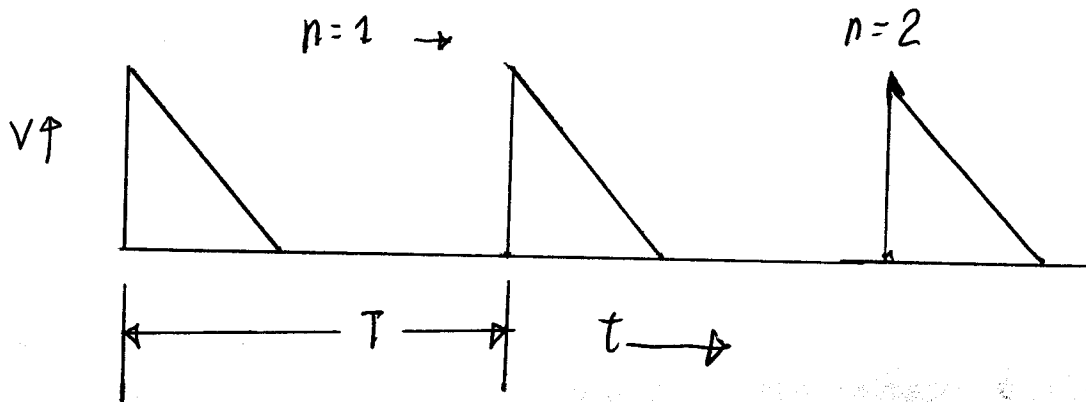
where

t = time in sec

T = period = 1/f

n = any integer

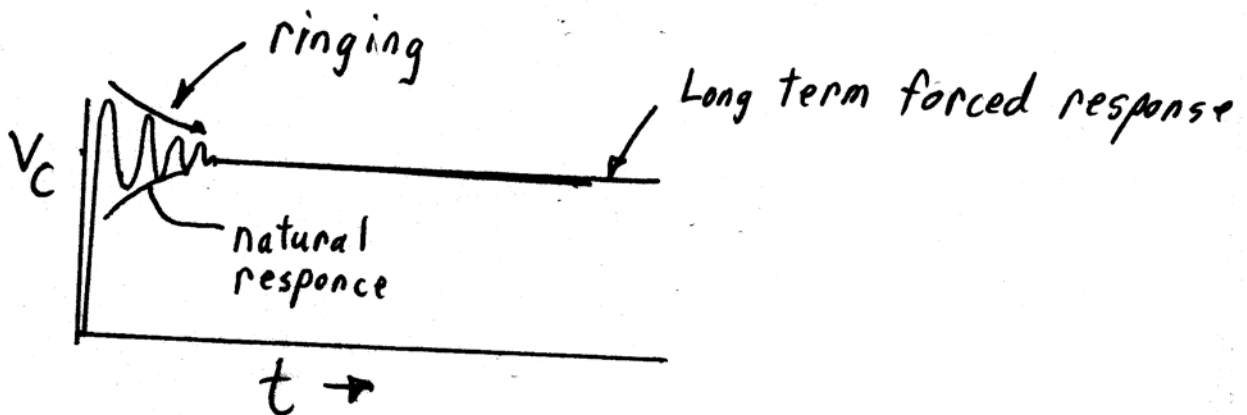
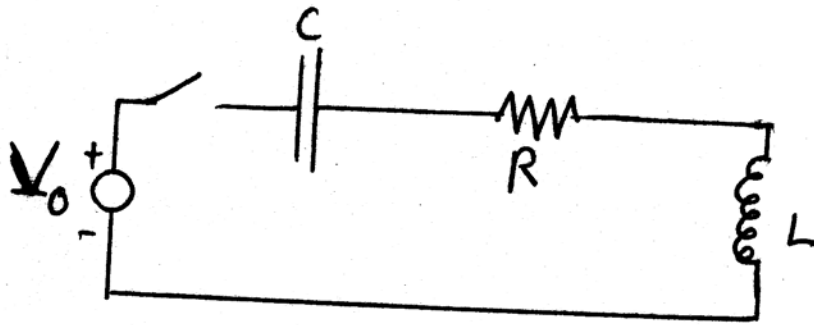
- NOTE: it can be shown that any periodic wave: can be made up of a series of sinusoidal waves



## Complete Response

- Combines both natural and forced response
- Complete response: what happens to a sudden change
- e.g. Suddenly close a switch
- response is:

$$V_{\text{complete}} = V_{\text{natural}} + V_{\text{forced}}$$



## Initial Underdamped Second Order Systems Con'd

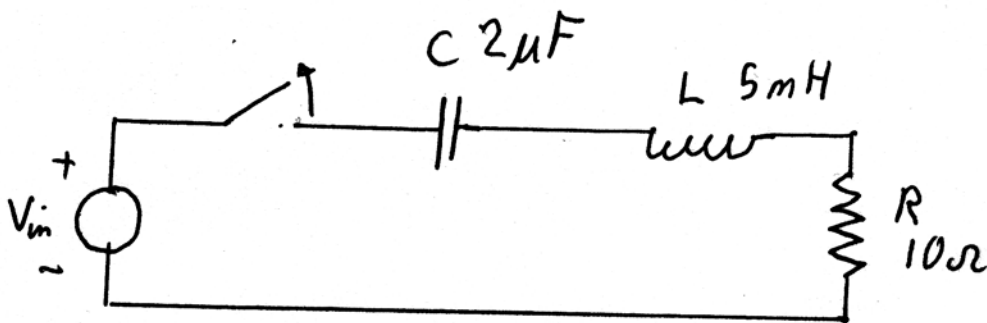
- for the example case  $L = 5 \text{ mH}$ ,  $C = 2 \mu\text{F}$ ,  $R = 10 \text{ ohms}$
- Exposed to a square wave: 0 to 1 V changes.
- as solved in the RCL underdamped example

$$i(t) = A_1 \exp(-\alpha t) 2j \sin(\omega t)$$

$$A_1 = \frac{V_c}{2j\omega L} = \frac{1}{2j \times 9.95 \times 10^3 \times 0.005} = \frac{20}{2j} \text{ mA}$$

The  $2j$  term is eliminated that from the sin function

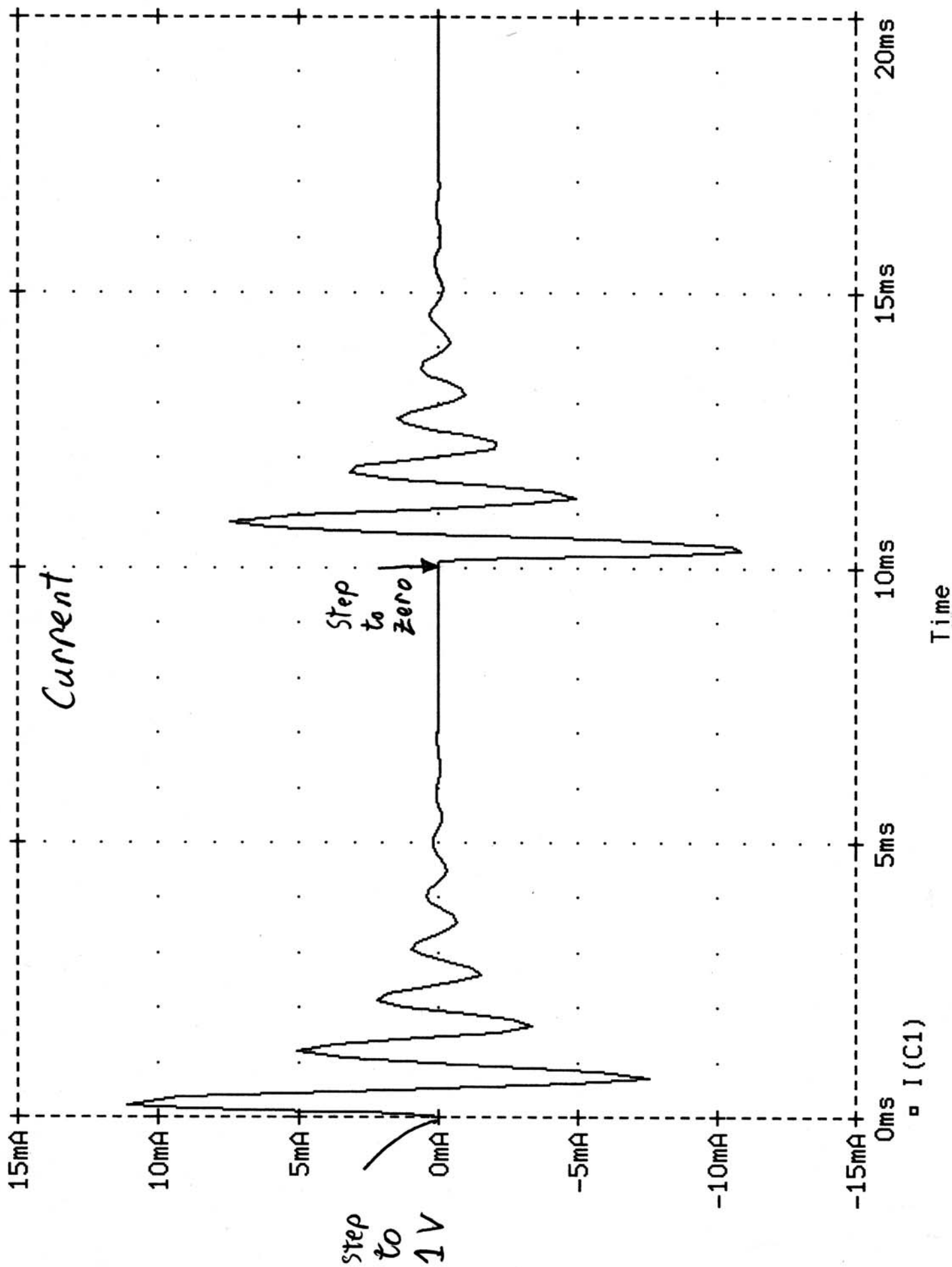
$$i(t) = 20 \exp(-10^3 t) \sin(9.95 \times 10^3 t) \text{ mA}$$



\* Simple RLC circuit

Date/Time run: 03/13/92 00:30:45

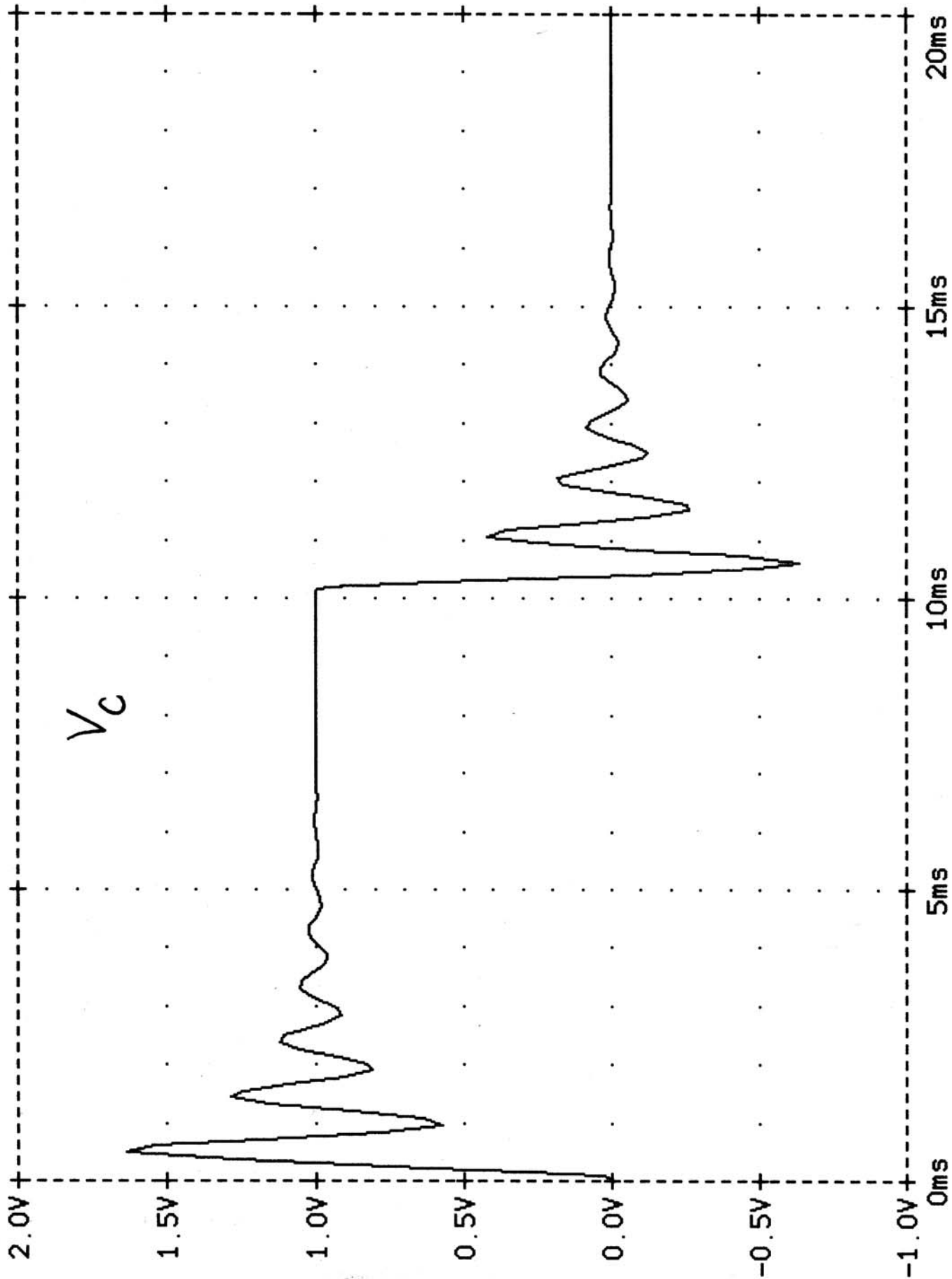
Temperature: 27.0



\* Simple RLC circuit

Date/Time run: 03/13/92 00:30:45

Temperature: 27.0



v(3)

Time

## Complex numbers

- Imaginary number  $j$

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

- Note: in math imaginary number is called  $i$
- complex numbers involve real and imaginary parts

$$\vec{W} = \text{Real}(W) + j \text{Imaginary}(W)$$

Example:

$$\vec{W} = 1 + j2$$

$$\text{Real}(W) = R_W = 1 \quad \text{Imaginary}(W) = I_W = 2$$

- often put as

$$\vec{W} = R_W + jI_W$$



## 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 the real axis
- Then the real and imaginary parts are

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

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

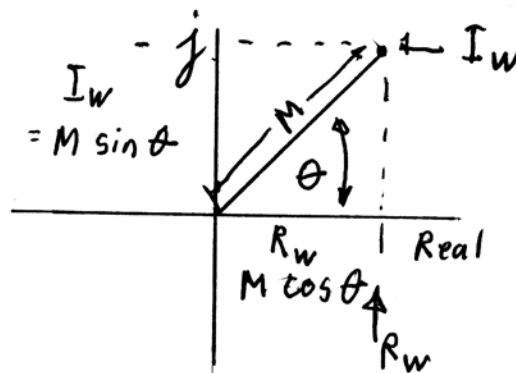
$$\vec{W} = M [\cos(\theta) + j \sin(\theta)]$$

- The magnitude

$$\text{Magnitude}(W) = (R_W^2 + I_W^2)^{1/2}$$

- And the angle is

$$\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{I_W}{R_W}\right)$$



## Complex Numbers and Exponentials

- What do complex numbers mean inside an exponential?
- Euler's Formula defines

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

- thus

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}[\exp(j\theta) + \exp(-j\theta)]$$

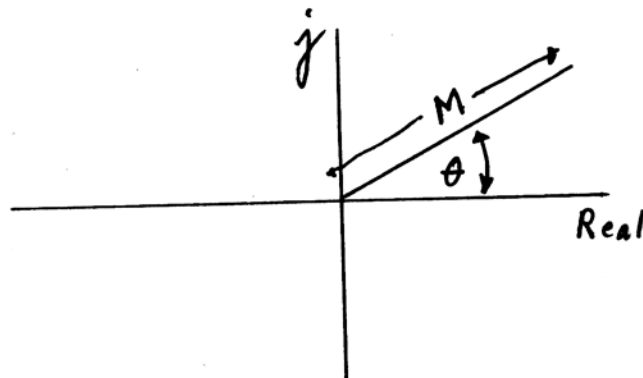
$$\sin(\theta) = \frac{1}{2j}[\exp(j\theta) - \exp(-j\theta)]$$

- Thus can represent a complex number as:

$$\vec{W} = M \exp(j\theta)$$

- called the exponential or polar form.
- can be shown as

$$\vec{W} = M \angle \theta$$



## Polar Coordinate System

- Rectangular (Cartesian or X-Y) Coordinates:
- Coordinates in terms of X and Y projection
- Polar Coordinates: specify in radius R, & angle  $\theta$
- Translation from Polar to Rectangular

$$x = R \cos\theta$$

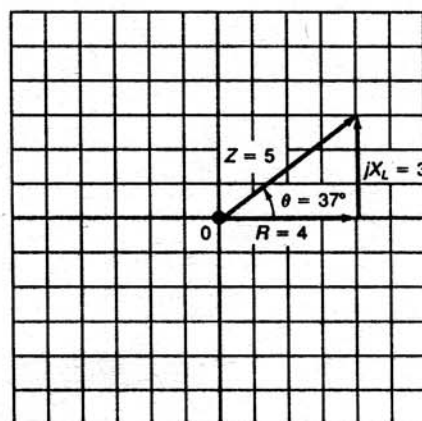
$$y = R \sin\theta$$

- Translation from Rectangular to Polar

$$|R| = \left[ x^2 + y^2 \right]^{0.5}$$

$$\theta = \arctan \left[ \frac{y}{x} \right]$$

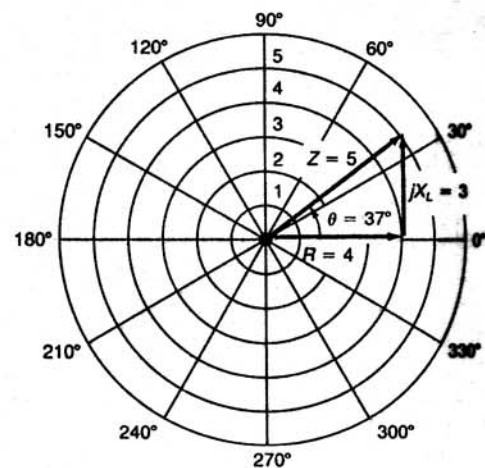
- Many Calculators have Rectangular to Polar conversion
- Use those for fastest complex operations
- Some also have special complex operations



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

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

(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 Arithmetic

- Complex numbers behave like vectors.
- Adding or subtracting:

complex and real added (subtracted) separately

$$(a + jb) + (c + jd) = (a + c) + j(b + d)$$

$$(a + jb) - (c + jd) = (a - c) + j(b - d)$$

- Multiplication of complex numbers easiest with Polar  
 $R_1 \exp(-j\theta_1) R_2 \exp(-j\theta_2) = R_1 R_2 \exp(-j[\theta_1 + \theta_2])$

- Division using the real and imaginary parts

$$(a + jb)(c + jd) = (ac - db) + j(ad + bc)$$

- Division of complex numbers much easier with Polar

$$\frac{R_1 \exp(-j\theta_1)}{R_2 \exp(-j\theta_2)} = \frac{R_1}{R_2} \exp(-j[\theta_1 - \theta_2])$$

- Division using the real and imaginary parts
- for this bring the divisor to a real number

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(a + jb)}{(c + jd)} &= \frac{(a + jb)(c - jd)}{(c + jd)(c - jd)} \\ &= \frac{(ac + bd) + j(bc - ad)}{c^2 + d^2} \end{aligned}$$

## Example Complex Arithmetic

- Addition

$$A = 3 + 5j \quad \text{and} \quad B = 5 + 10j$$

$$A + B = (3 + 5) + (5 + 10)j = 8 + 15j$$

In polar form

$$\theta = \arctan\left[\frac{10}{8}\right] = 61.9^\circ$$

$$|A + B| = \left[8^2 + 15^2\right]^{0.5} = 17$$

$$A + B = 17/\underline{61.9^\circ}$$

- Multiplication and Division

$$C = 3 + 4j = 5/\underline{53.1^\circ}$$

$$D = 24 + 7j = 25/\underline{16.3^\circ}$$

$$C \times D = 5 \times 25/\underline{53.1^\circ + 16.3^\circ} = 125/\underline{69.4^\circ} = 44 + 117j$$

$$\frac{C}{D} = \frac{25}{5}/\underline{16.3^\circ - 53.1^\circ} = 5/\underline{-36.8^\circ} = 4 - 3j$$

## Rotating vectors or Phasors

- What if we have an exponential dependent on time

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

where  $t$  = the time

- Consider this to vector, length  $M$
- it is rotating about the complex axis
- its angular velocity of rotation is  $\omega t$

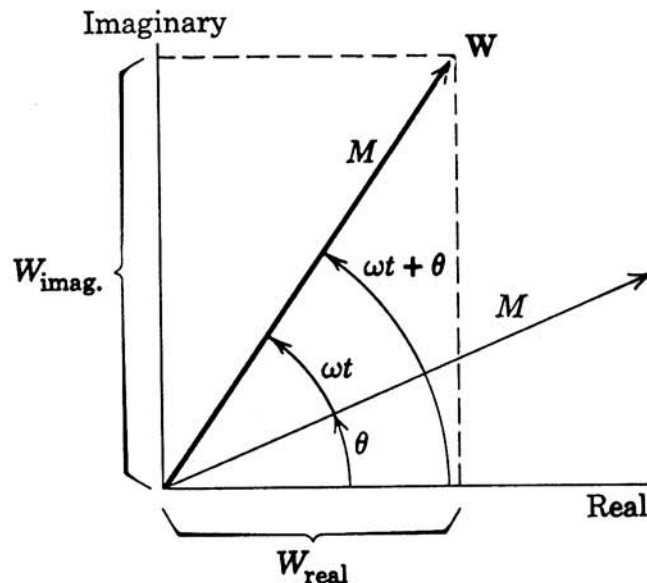
$$\exp(j[\omega t + \theta]) = \cos(\omega t + \theta) + j \sin(\omega t + \theta)$$

- This is the representation of a sine wave of frequency
- the real portion is the measured value of the wave  $t$

$$\text{Real}[\exp(j[\omega t + \theta])] = \cos(\omega t + \theta)$$

- the phase factor is  $\theta$
- the imaginary portion:  
where the phasor is at a given instance

$$\text{Imaginary}[\exp(j[\omega t + \theta])] = j \sin(\omega t + \theta)$$



## Example Phasor formula

- What is the complex phasor representation for 60 Hz sine wave 12 V peak with a 45 degree phase delay and what is its value at  $t = 2.08$  msec
- for the phase delay

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

- the angular frequency is:

$$\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi 60 = 377$$

- thus the phasor representation is

$$V(t) = 12\exp\left[j\left[377t + \frac{\pi}{4}\right]\right]$$

## Example Phasor formula Con'd

- at  $t = 2.08$  msec value is

$$V(t=2.08) = 12\exp\left[j\left[377 \times 2.08 + \frac{\pi}{4}\right]\right] = 12\exp\left[j\left[\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\pi}{4}\right]\right]$$

- the real value is:

$$\text{Real}[V(t=2.08)] = 12\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0$$

- the imaginary value (out of phase portion of wave)

$$\text{Imaginary}[V(t=2.08)] = 12\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 12$$

- thus as expected this is the zero point of the wave