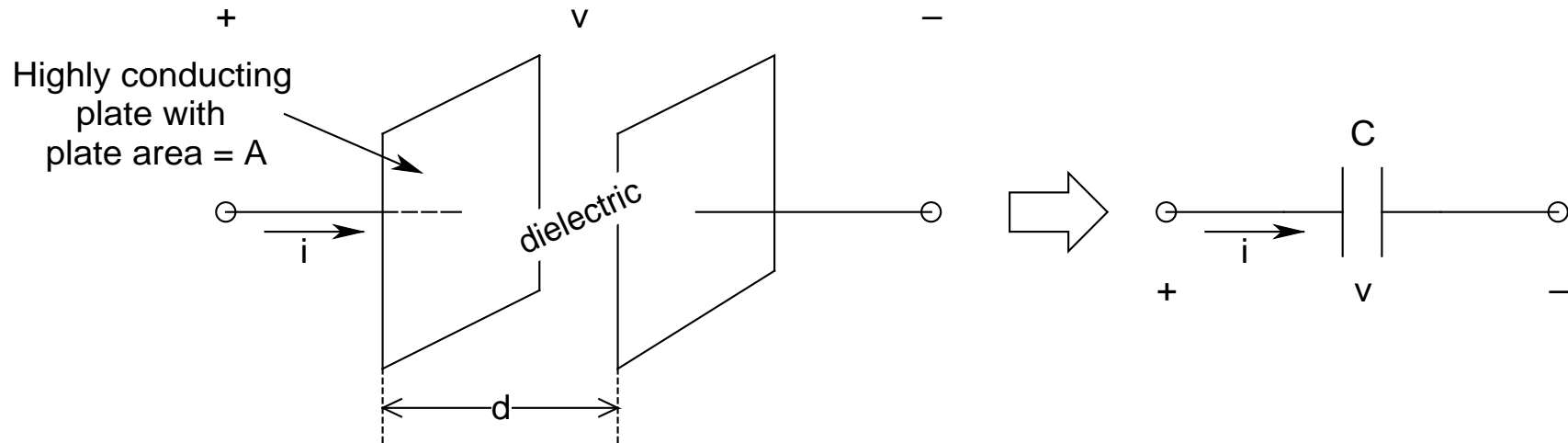


Time Domain (Transient) Response

- ***Inductors (L)/Capacitors (C):***
 - ***Passive elements***, capable of storing and delivering finite amounts of energy, but average power can't be greater than zero over an infinite time interval
 - I-V relations for these two elements are ***function of time***
- ***Goal:***
 - To investigate the ***time domain*** (transient) response of RL and RC circuits

- ***Capacitors:***



Two highly conducting plates (preferably of metal) separated by a dielectric, e.g., paper, mica, plastic, glass, ceramic, etc.

* The capacitance of the structure: $C = \frac{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r A}{d}$

$\epsilon_0 = \textit{permittivity of free space}$

$(= 8.854 \times 10^{-14} \text{ F / cm})$

$\epsilon_r = \textit{relative permittivity of the dielectric}$

$A = \textit{plate area}, d = \textit{separation between the plates}$

* ϵ_r for some commonly used dielectric materials :

paper – 3.85, *teflon* – 2.1, *polyethylene* – 2.25,

polystyrene – 2.4-2.7, *glass* – 3.7-10, *mica* – 3-6

* Higher values of ϵ_r are preferred to reduce area

- * Unit of C:

$$\textbf{Farad (F)} = \text{Coulomb (C)}/\text{Volt (V)} = \text{A-s/V}$$

- * Capacitance is defined as *charge per potential*

- * Dielectric should ideally have *zero conductance*
 \Rightarrow *infinite resistance* \Rightarrow won't allow any current

- * Real dielectrics are *leaky*, i.e., they have resistance, however, it is *very large* ($> \text{M}\Omega$)

- * If charges are placed on one plate of a capacitor, then it will immediately induce charges of opposite polarity on the other plate

- **Classification of Capacitors:**
 - *Mica* - 1 pF to 0.1 μ F
 - *Ceramic* - 10 pF to 1 μ F
 - *Mylar (Polyester)* - 1 nF to 10 μ F
 - *Paper* - 1 nF to 50 μ F
 - *Electrolytic* - 0.1 μ F to 0.2 F
- **Shapes:**
 - *Discs* or *Cylinders*
- Be very careful with *electrolytic capacitors*
 - Always make sure that you discharge them before using by touching them to a metal plate



1 nf - 102 capacitor



100 nf - 104 capacitor



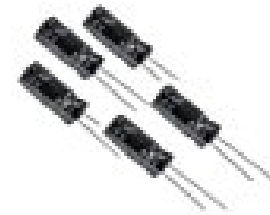
10 nf - 103 capacitor



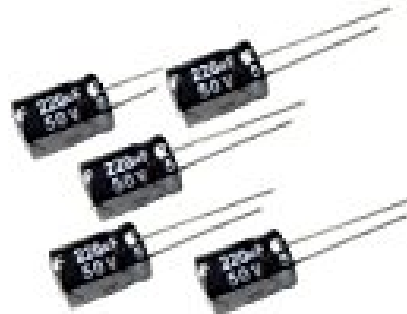
100 uf capacitor



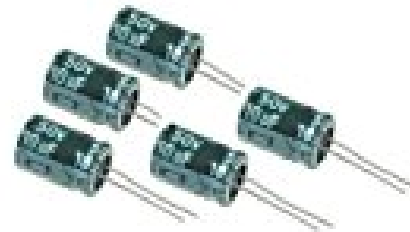
47 uf capacitor



1 uf capacitor



220 uf capacitor



10 uf capacitor

40 Capacitors

* *More rigorous definition of capacitance:*

Incremental change in charge dq caused by an incremental change in voltage dv across it

i.e., $C = dq/dV$

* Under steady-state, i.e., when there is no time variation, $C = Q/V$

* Implies that if a charge $+Q$ is placed on one plate of the capacitor, it will induce charge $-Q$ on the other plate

* The plate having positive charges will be at a higher potential than the plate having the negative charges

- * Note: Putting charges on one plate of a capacitor needs *work* to be done
- * With external stimulus removed, these charges are stored in the capacitor, with the appearance of a potential difference (V), and consequently, an electric field (\mathcal{E}) across the dielectric of the capacitor (note that it is caused due to the charge separation)

- * The resulting energy storage, which is actually the *work done* (W) in building up this potential difference, is given by :

$$W = -q \int_0^d \mathcal{E} \, dx = -q \int_0^V (-dv) = \int_0^Q \frac{q \, dq}{C} = \frac{Q^2}{2C} = \frac{1}{2} CV^2$$

- * Thus, the energy stored in a capacitor is directly proportional to the value of the capacitance and to the square of the voltage

- * Note : Each dielectric has a *breakdown strength*, i.e., the *maximum electric field* that can be applied across it before it electrically breaks down
- * *Electrical breakdown*: high electric field tears off electrons from atoms, which gets accelerated, and knocks off electrons from other atoms
⇒ known as *avalanche breakdown*
- * Typical breakdown strength of dielectrics in kV/cm:
Air – 30, *Polystyrene*, *Teflon* – 200, *Mica* – 1200

* ***Breakdown voltage*** is simply the product of the breakdown strength and the plate separation, since the electric field inside a capacitor is ***constant***

* ***I-V Relation (Derivative Form)***:

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

* Note that for ***positive dv/dt*** , current flows from the positive terminal to the negative terminal, implying ***charging*** of a capacitor

- * Similarly, *negative dv/dt* implies that the current direction is reversed, and the capacitor is *discharging*
- * Note : Under steady-state, $i = 0$ (*no dc current can pass through a capacitor*)
 - \Rightarrow Under *dc* conditions, capacitors behave as *open-circuits*
 - \Rightarrow extremely important observation

* ***I-V Relation (Integral Form):***

$$dv = \frac{i}{C} dt \quad \text{or} \quad v = \frac{1}{C} \int i dt + K_1$$

K_1 : constant of integration (***initial voltage across the capacitor***)

* Note : Once charges are stored in a capacitor, thus developing a potential across it, and then the external stimulus is removed, then these charges would remain within the capacitor for an ***infinite time*** (ideally)

- * However, recall that actual capacitors have *leakage resistance* (very high though), and thus, the charges stored in the capacitor actually keep on *discharging* with time, albeit at a very slow rate
- * Also, capacitors can *acquire* charge from the ambient and start developing a *potential difference* between its terminals, which may reach dangerous proportions
- * To ensure that such a situation does not arise, it is advisable to store capacitors with their two terminals *shorted*

* ***Instantaneous power*** delivered to a capacitor:

$$p = vi = Cv \frac{dv}{dt}$$

* If the capacitor was initially discharged, i.e., $v(0) = 0$, and after a finite time t_1 , acquires voltage V , then the total ***energy stored*** in the capacitor at time t_1 :

$$\text{Energy stored} = \int_0^{t_1} p dt = C \int_0^V v dv = \frac{1}{2} CV^2$$

Some Observations:

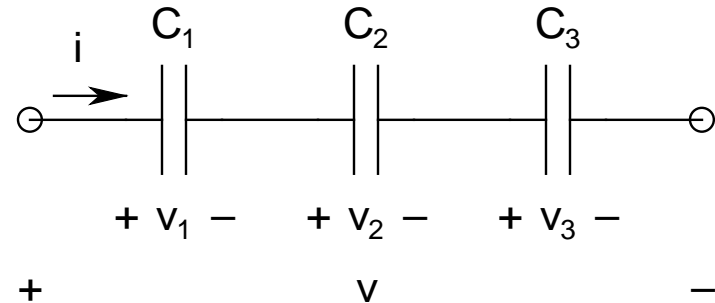
- * If the voltage across a capacitor changes *linearly* with time, then the *current* through the capacitor becomes a *constant*
 \Rightarrow Known as *constant current charging/*
discharging of a capacitor
- * In case the voltage across a capacitor changes *instantly* (e.g., a step function), then from the I-V relation, it becomes apparent that the current would be *infinite*

- * In reality, that's not the case, since the current would be controlled by the *internal resistance* of the capacitor
- * $\because Q = CV$, a change in V (potential) implies a change in Q (charge)
- * A change in charge across a capacitor involves a change in *dielectric polarization*, which takes time
- * Governed by *dielectric relaxation time*, i.e., the time needed for the *dipole moments* to reorient

- * This process can be hastened/slowed down by increasing/decreasing the *driving force*
- * Thus, an *instantaneous change in charge across a capacitor is impossible*
- * **Key Inference:**
The voltage across a capacitor cannot change instantly, however, the current through it can
⇒ This is an extremely important point, and should be noted carefully

- ***Series Combination of Capacitors:***

Note : Same current (i) flows through all the capacitors



$$V = V_1 + V_2 + V_3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{C_{\text{net}}} \int i dt = \frac{1}{C_1} \int i dt + \frac{1}{C_2} \int i dt + \frac{1}{C_3} \int i dt$$

$$\Rightarrow C_{\text{net}} = \left(C_1^{-1} + C_2^{-1} + C_3^{-1} \right)^{-1} \Rightarrow \textit{smallest one dominates}$$

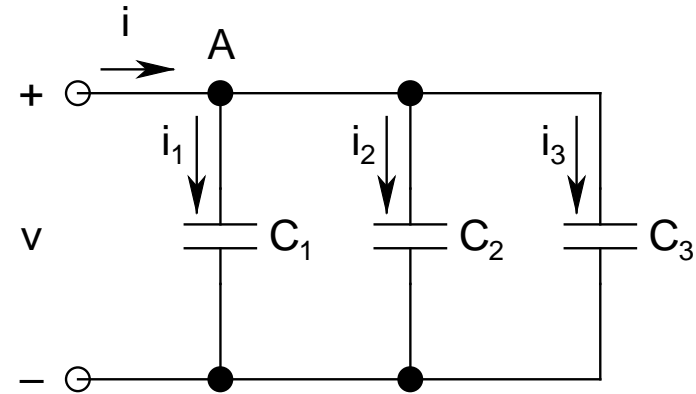
Note : This rule follows that of parallel combination of resistors!

Note: *All capacitors store the same amount of charge Q*

$\therefore V = Q/C, \therefore$ the smallest capacitance would have the largest voltage across it

- ***Parallel Combination of Capacitors:***

Note: All the capacitors have the same voltage v across them



$$i = i_1 + i_2 + i_3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad C_{\text{net}} \frac{dv}{dt} = C_1 \frac{dv}{dt} + C_2 \frac{dv}{dt} + C_3 \frac{dv}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_{\text{net}} = C_1 + C_2 + C_3 \Rightarrow \textit{largest one dominates}$$

Note: This rule follows that of series combination of resistors!

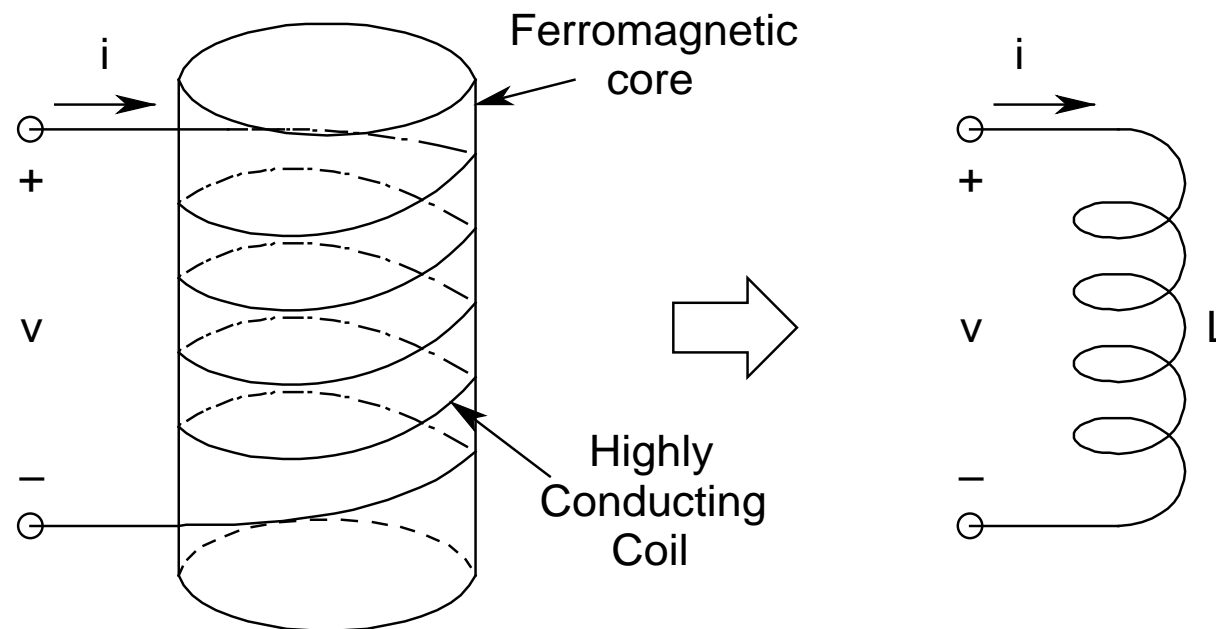
Charge analogue: $Q_1 = C_1 v$, $Q_2 = C_2 v$, $Q_3 = C_3 v$

$$\Rightarrow Q_{\text{net}} = C_{\text{net}} v = Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3 = (C_1 + C_2 + C_3) v$$

$$\Rightarrow C_{\text{net}} = C_1 + C_2 + C_3$$

- ***Inductors:***

- Highly conducting coil [typically made of *copper* (Cu)] wound around a ferromagnetic [e.g., *cobalt* (Co), *nickel* (Ni), *iron* (Fe), or their compounds] core



- Passive element that tries to *oppose* any change in the *current* flowing through it
- Current flowing through the coil builds up a *magnetic flux* within the ferromagnetic material
- Now, if for any reason, the current changes, then it would produce a change in this flux
- By *Lenz's law*, it would produce an *electromotive force* (emf) that would try to *oppose* the very cause that is producing it
 - *Current through an inductor cannot change instantly, however, voltage across it can*
- Unit of inductance: *Henry* (H) = V-s/A = Ω -s



- For a cylindrical core wire-wound inductor, the inductance L can be expressed as:

$$L = \frac{\mu_0 \mu_r N^2 A}{l}$$

- μ_0 ($= 4\pi \times 10^{-7}$ H/m) = *permeability of free space*
 - μ_r = *relative permeability of the ferromagnetic core*
 - N = *number of turns of the coil*
 - A = *cross-sectional area of the coil in m^2*
 - l = *length of the coil in m*
- μ_r of some ferromagnetic materials:
 - *mu-metal* – 20,000, *permalloy* – 8,000, *electrical steel* – 4,000, *steel* – 700, *nickel* – 100, etc.

* ***I-V Relation (Derivative Form)***: $v = L \frac{di}{dt}$

* ***Note*** : Under steady-state, $v = 0$

\Rightarrow Under ***dc*** conditions, inductors behave as
short-circuits

\Rightarrow extremely important observation

* ***Note***: This observation is ***dual*** to that of a capacitor

* ***I-V Relation (Integral Form)***:

$$di = \frac{v}{L} dt \quad \text{or} \quad i = \frac{1}{L} \int v dt + K_2$$

K_2 : constant of integration (initial current flowing through the inductor)

Why current through inductors cannot change instantly?

- * From the I-V relation, it will entail an ***infinite*** voltage change, which is impossible
- * In reality, the coil has ***resistance***, and that won't let the voltage change infinitely
- * Whenever there is a change in current flowing through an inductor, it produces a change in flux linkage of the ferromagnetic core, which produces a ***back emf*** that opposes the very cause producing it (***Lenz's law***)

Note: *Whereas in a capacitor, the voltage across it cannot change instantly, for the case of an inductor, the current flowing through it cannot change instantly*

Keep these two observations in mind!

* *Instantaneous power* delivered to an inductor:

$$p = vi = Li \frac{di}{dt}$$

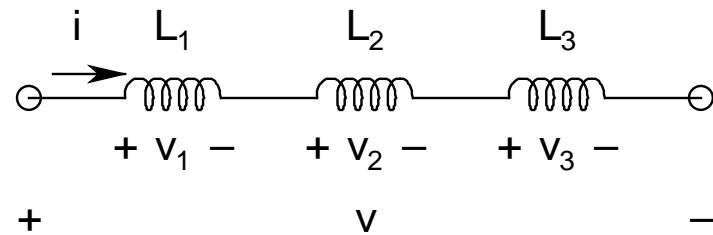
* If the initial current through the inductor was zero, i.e., $i(0) = 0$, and after a finite time t_1 , a current I flows through it, then the total *energy stored* in the inductor at time t_1 :

$$\text{Energy stored} = \int_0^{t_1} p dt = L \int_0^I i di = \frac{1}{2} LI^2$$

- * Practical inductors have *series resistance* associated with them, due to the finite resistance of the coil wire, however, it is *very small* (typically a few Ω s at the most)

- ***Series Combination of Inductors:***

Note: Same current (i) flows through all the inductors



$$V = V_1 + V_2 + V_3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad L_{\text{net}} \frac{di}{dt} = L_1 \frac{di}{dt} + L_2 \frac{di}{dt} + L_3 \frac{di}{dt}$$

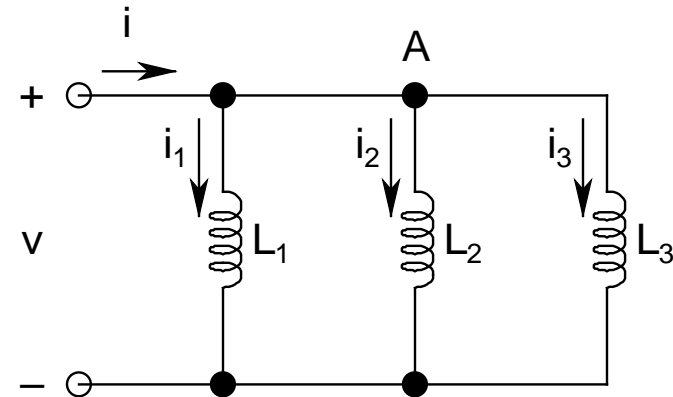
$$\Rightarrow L_{\text{net}} = L_1 + L_2 + L_3 \Rightarrow \textit{largest one dominates}$$

Note: This rule follows that of series combination of resistors!

Contrast this result with the series combination of capacitors, where the smallest one dominates

- ***Parallel Combination of Inductors:***

Note: All the inductors have the same voltage v across them



$$i = i_1 + i_2 + i_3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{L_{\text{net}}} \int v dt = \frac{1}{L_1} \int v dt + \frac{1}{L_2} \int v dt + \frac{1}{L_3} \int v dt$$

$$\Rightarrow L_{\text{net}} = \left(L_1^{-1} + L_2^{-1} + L_3^{-1} \right)^{-1} \Rightarrow \textit{smallest one dominates}$$

Note: This rule follows that of parallel combination of resistors!

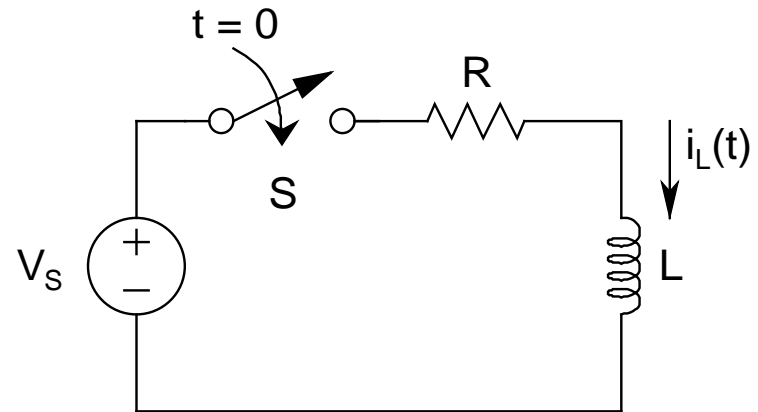
Contrast this result with the parallel combination of capacitor, where the largest one dominates

- ***Transient Response:***
 - Time response of RC and RL circuits
 - These are known as ***first-order circuits***
 - There is another type of circuit, having R, L, and C: these are known as ***second-order circuits***
 - We will consider only first-order circuits
 - The input is assumed to be a ***step function***, either going from zero to maximum or from maximum to zero within an infinitesimally small time
 - The behavior of the circuit, which is a function of time, is known as the ***transient response***

- ***RL Circuit:***

V_s : DC Voltage Source of magnitude V_1

Switch S was open for a long time and is closed at $t = 0$



Note : $i_L(t)$ for both $t = 0^-$ and 0^+ are zero, since no current was flowing in the circuit at $t = 0^-$, and that the current through an inductor cannot change instantly

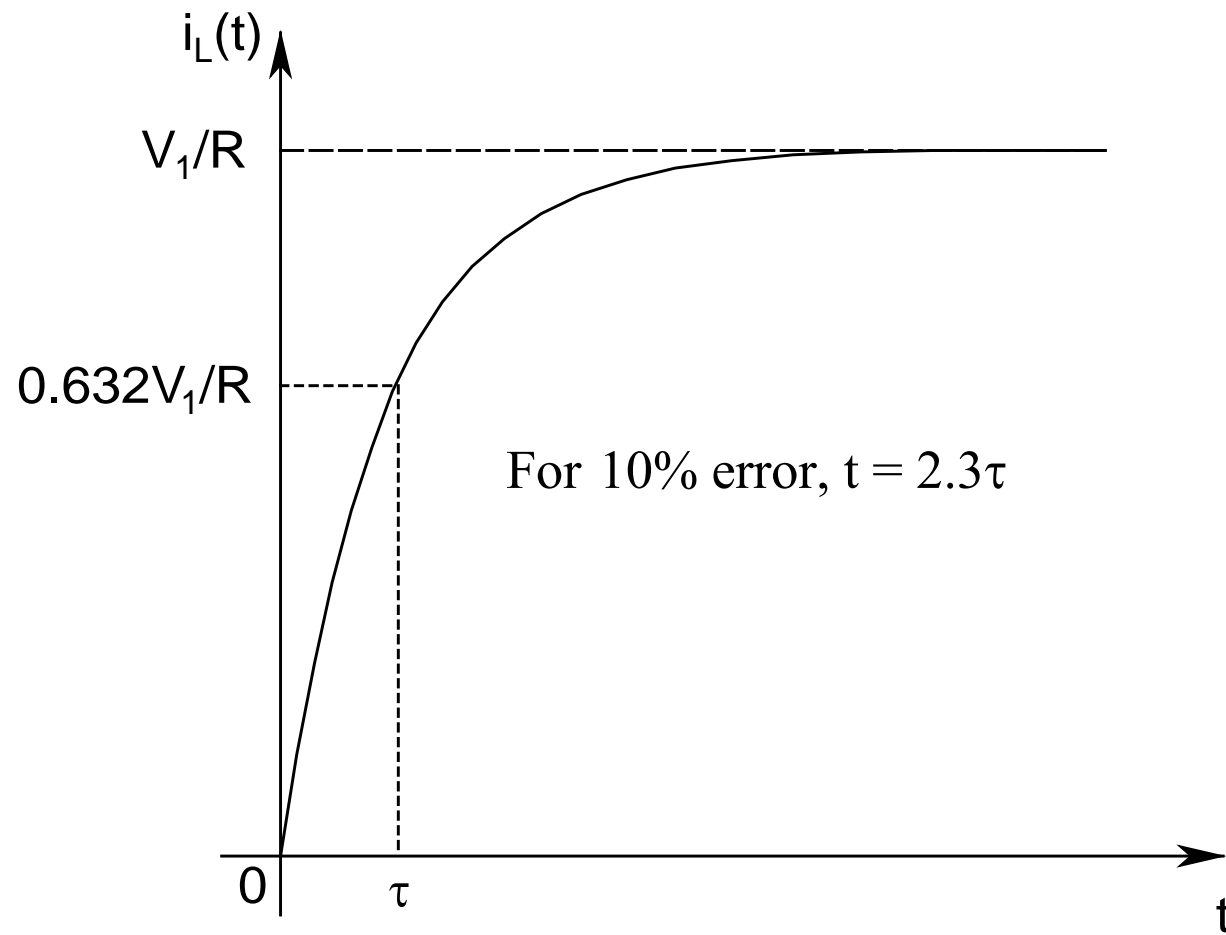
- * For $t > 0^+$: $V_1 = i_L(t)R + L \frac{di_L(t)}{dt}$
- * Simple first-order differential equation with constant coefficients

$$\begin{aligned} \textbf{Solution: } i_L(t) &= \frac{V_1}{R} \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{Rt}{L}\right) \right] \\ &= \frac{V_1}{R} \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

- * $\tau = L / R$ is known as the *time constant* of the circuit (in sec)
- * Recall: the unit of L is Ω -sec

- * At $t = 0$, $i_L(0) = 0$, as expected
- * As $t \rightarrow \infty$, $i_L(\infty) = V_1/R$, since the inductor becomes a short-circuit, and the current gets controlled only by R
- * Note : Since the current varies exponentially with time, hence, it would take *infinite* amount of time for the current to become exactly equal to V_1/R

- * Hence, need to make some *engineering approximations*
- * Note: For $t = 4\tau$, $i_L(4\tau) = 0.98V_1 / R$
(within 2% of the final steady-state value)
- * For $t = 5\tau$, $i_L(5\tau) = 0.99V_1 / R$
(within 1% of the final steady-state value)
- * Thus, it is frequently assumed that within a time of $(4-5)\tau$, the transient gets more or less completed (1-2% error)
- * This assumption is widely used in all branches of science
- * Also, note that at $t = \tau$, the current reaches 63.2% of its maximum value



- ***Trick to obtain transient response by inspection:***

- * For both rising and falling exponents, the following relation holds:

$$i_L(t) = i_L(\infty) + [i_L(0) - i_L(\infty)] \exp(-t/\tau)$$

where

$i_L(0)$ = current at the start of the transient,

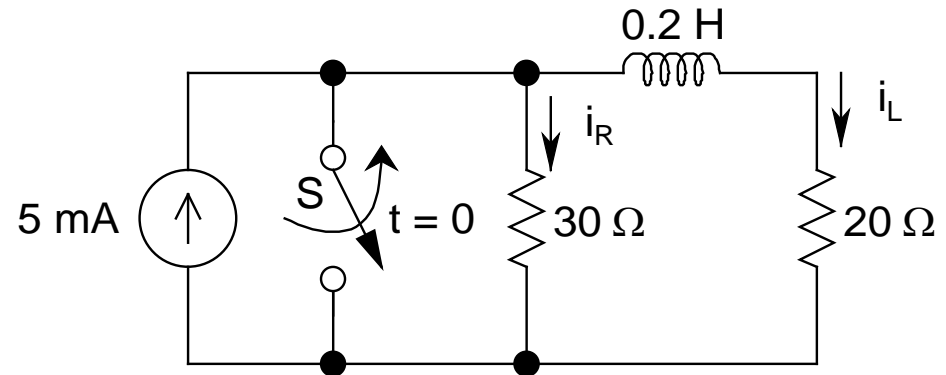
and

$i_L(\infty)$ = current after all the transients have died down and the system has reached its final steady state

For the example considered, $i_L(0) = 0$, and $i_L(\infty) = V_1 / R$, since after infinite time, all transients would have died down, and the inductor would have behaved like a short-circuit, with the same result as before

- **Example:** S was closed for a long time, and opened at $t = 0$. To find i_R at $t = 0^-$, 0^+ , ∞ , and 6 ms:

With S closed, the entire current of 5 mA would flow through S, thus, at $t = 0^-$, $i_R = 0 = i_L$



After S is opened at $t = 0$,

i_L will remain 0 at $t = 0^+$, since the inductor would oppose any instantaneous change in current through it

$$\therefore i_R(t = 0^+) = 5 \text{ mA}$$

As $t \rightarrow \infty$, all transients die down, and the inductor behaves like a short-circuit

The 5 mA source current gets divided between the two branches depending on the values of the resistors present in these two branches :

$$\Rightarrow i_R (t \rightarrow \infty) = \frac{20}{20 + 30} \times 5 = 2 \text{ mA}$$

The real transient problem is the evaluation of i_R at $t = 6 \text{ ms}$
Can find the time constant τ of the circuit by applying the Thevenin's technique:

Open the independent current source, remove the inductor, and look across its two terminals to find the total resistance between them

$$\Rightarrow R = 30 + 20 = 50 \text{ } \Omega, \text{ and } \tau = L/R = 0.2 \text{ H}/50 \text{ } \Omega = 4 \text{ ms}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\textbf{Note: } i_L(0) &= 0, \text{ and } i_L(t \rightarrow \infty) = (5 \text{ mA}) - i_R(t \rightarrow \infty) \\ &= (5 - 2) \text{ mA} = 3 \text{ mA}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow i_L(6 \text{ ms}) &= i_L(\infty) + [i_L(0) - i_L(\infty)] \exp(-t/\tau) \\ &= 3 + (0 - 3) \exp(-6/4) = 2.33 \text{ mA}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow i_R(6 \text{ ms}) &= (5 \text{ mA}) - i_L(6 \text{ ms}) = (5 - 2.33) \text{ mA} \\ &= 2.67 \text{ mA}\end{aligned}$$

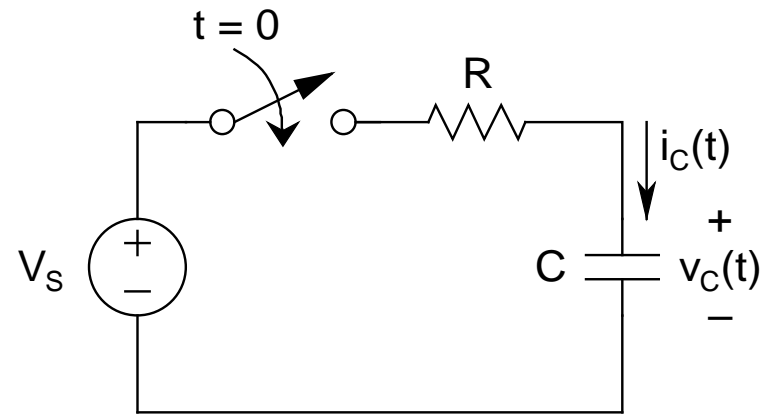
Thus, i_R reduces exponentially from 5 mA to 2 mA, and i_L increases exponentially from 0 to 3 mA, both with a time constant of 4 ms

Note: Once the inductor current (i_L) is known as a function of time, the voltage (v_L) across it can be obtained from the relation $v_L = L(di_L/dt)$ (Caution: take care of the sign)

- ***RC Circuit:***

V_s : DC Voltage Source of magnitude V_1

Switch S was open for a long time and is closed at $t = 0$



Note: $v_C(t)$ for both $t = 0^-$ and 0^+ are zero, since the capacitor was initially discharged, and that the voltage across a capacitor cannot change instantly

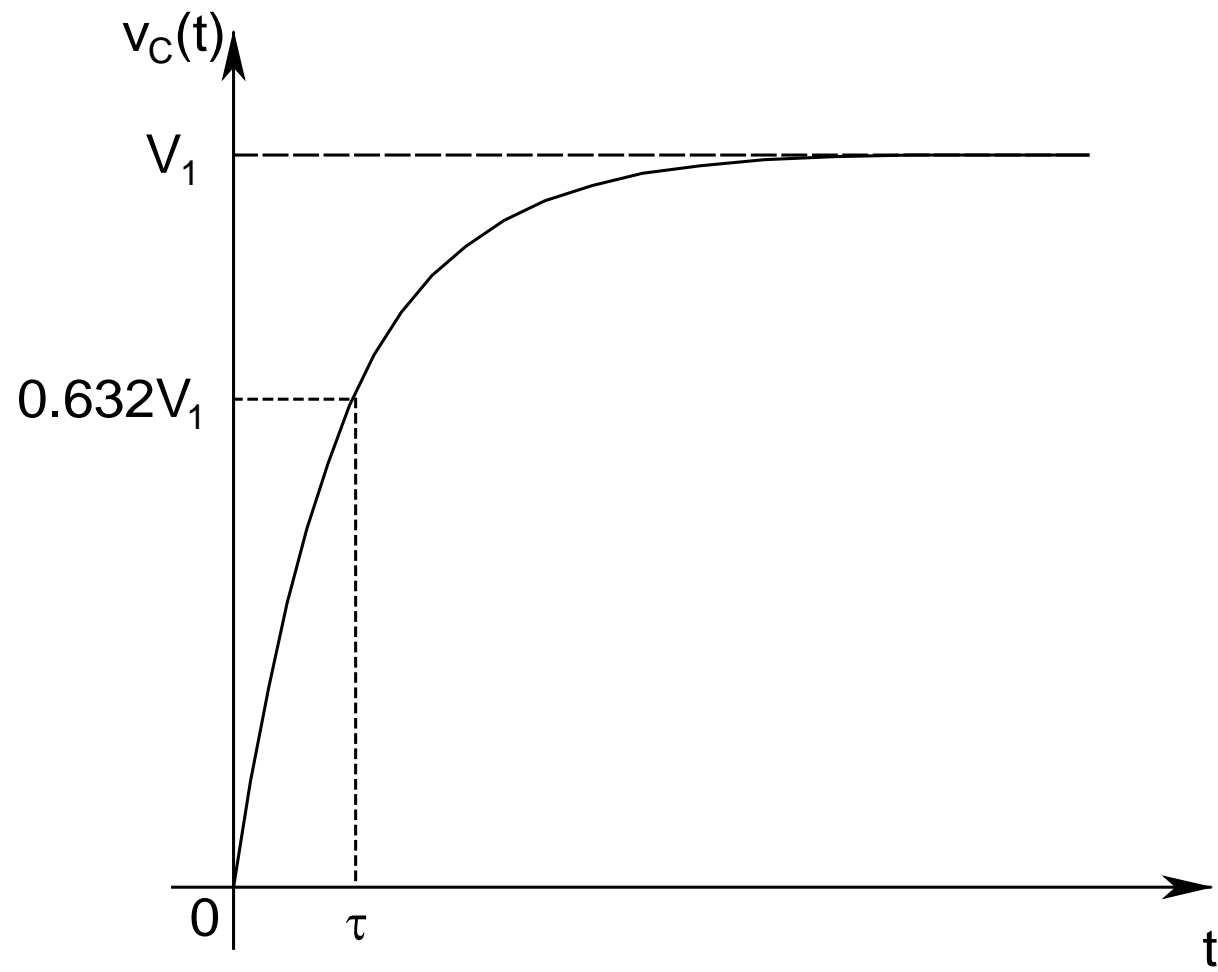
$$\text{For } t > 0^+ : V_1 = i_C(t)R + v_C(t) = RC \frac{dv_C(t)}{dt} + v_C(t)$$

Simple first-order differential equation with constant coefficients

Solution: $v_C(t) = V_1 \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \right] \quad (\tau = RC = \text{time constant})$

Observations:

- * At $t = 0$, $v_C(0) = 0$, as expected
- * As $t \rightarrow \infty$, $v_C(\infty) = V_1$, since the capacitor becomes an open-circuit, and the current through the circuit becomes zero
- * **Note:** Since the capacitor voltage varies exponentially with time, hence, it would take infinite amount of time for this voltage to become exactly equal to V_1
- * However, based on the preceding discussion, a time of the order of $(4 - 5)\tau$ is sufficient for the transient to reach close to its final steady-state value
- * Also, for 10% error, $t = 2.3\tau$



- ***Trick to obtain transient response by inspection:***

- * For both rising and falling exponents, the following relation holds:

$$v_C(t) = v_C(\infty) + [v_C(0) - v_C(\infty)] \exp(-t/\tau)$$

where

$v_C(0)$ = capacitor voltage at the start of the transient, and

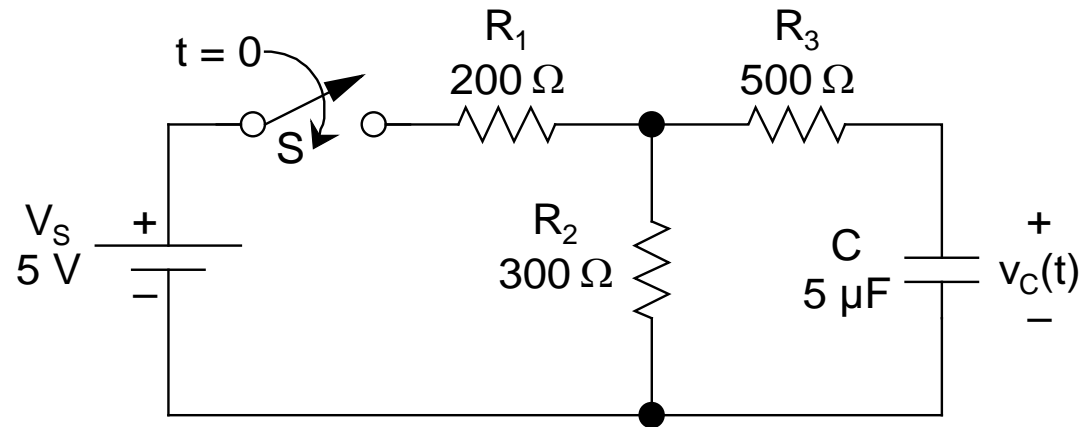
$v_C(\infty)$ = capacitor voltage after all the transients have died down and the system has reached its final steady state

- * For the example considered, $v_C(0) = 0$, and $v_C(\infty) = V_1$, which would lead to the same result as before

- **Example:** S was open for a long time, closes at $t = 0$, and opens again at $t = 5 \text{ ms}$. Sketch $v_C(t)$.

S was open for a long time \Rightarrow C will get completely discharged through R_2 - R_3

$$\Rightarrow v_C(0^-) = 0$$



At $t = 0$, S closes, however, capacitor voltage cannot change instantly $\Rightarrow v_C(0^+) = 0$

For $t > 0$, the capacitor voltage would grow exponentially

The problem has **two part transients**: one between 0 and 5 ms, and the other beyond 5 ms

For t between 0 and 5 ms:

Need to find $v_C(\infty)$ and τ_1 (time constant)

$$v_C(\infty) = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} V_s = \frac{300}{200 + 300} \times 5 = 3 \text{ V}$$

since the capacitor would behave like an open-circuit

For τ_1 , we need to find $R_{\text{eff}1}$, i.e., the resistance *seen* by C

Using Thevenin's approach, by observation:

$$R_{\text{eff}1} = R_3 + (R_1 \parallel R_2) = 500 + (200 \parallel 300) = 620 \Omega$$

$$\Rightarrow \tau_1 = R_{\text{eff}1} C = (620 \Omega) \times (5 \mu\text{F}) = 3.1 \text{ ms}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow v_C(t) &= v_C(\infty) + [v_C(0) - v_C(\infty)] \exp(-t/\tau) \\ &= 3 + (0 - 3) \exp(-t/3.1) = 3[1 - \exp(-t/3.1)] \end{aligned}$$

At $t = 5 \text{ ms}$, $v_C(5 \text{ ms}) = 2.4 \text{ V}$

Note: From $t = 0$ to 5 ms , $v_C(t)$ increases exponentially from 0 V to 2.4 V

Note also that if the transient were allowed to proceed all the way (i.e., if S was not reopened at $t = 5 \text{ ms}$), then v_C would have reached a final steady state value of 3 V

For $t > 5 \text{ ms}$:

S opens again at $t = 5 \text{ ms}$, thus removing the source V_s from the circuit

Hence, C would now start to discharge and eventually $v_C(t)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ would approach zero

For this part of the transient, let us measure time starting from 5 ms, i.e., in our new reference of time,

$$v_C(0) = 2.4 \text{ V, and } v_C(\infty) = 0$$

The effective resistance *seen* by C for this case :

$$R_{\text{eff}2} = R_2 + R_3 = 800 \Omega$$

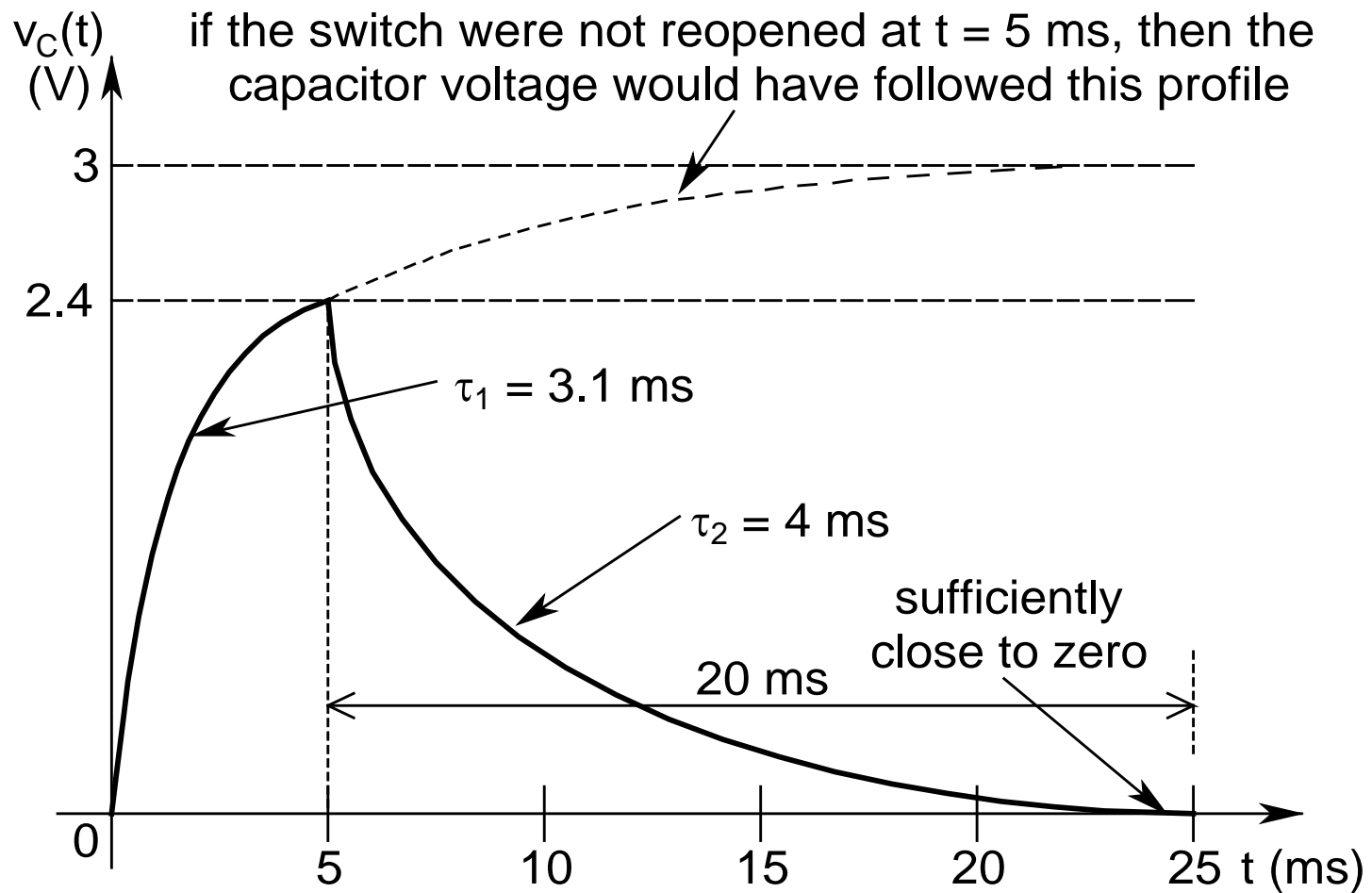
since R_1 gets open-circuited

$$\Rightarrow \text{time constant } \tau_2 = R_{\text{eff}2}C = (800 \Omega) \times (5 \mu\text{F}) = 4 \text{ ms}$$

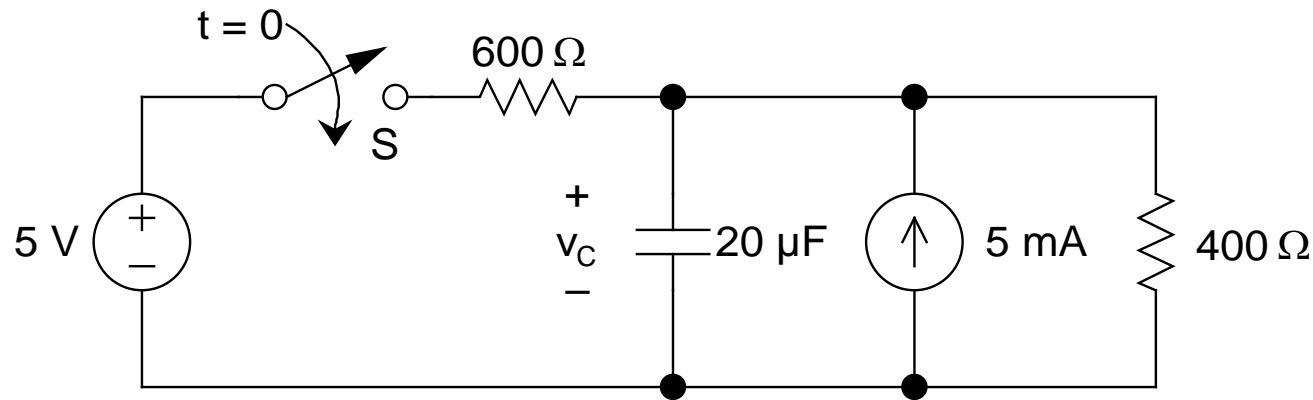
$$\Rightarrow v_C(t) = v_C(\infty) + [v_C(0) - v_C(\infty)] \exp(-t/\tau) = 2.4 \exp(-t/4)$$

with $t = 0$ implying an actual time of 5 ms

Allowing a time interval of $5\tau_2$, i.e., after 20 ms (measured in this new time scale), v_C would drop sufficiently close to zero



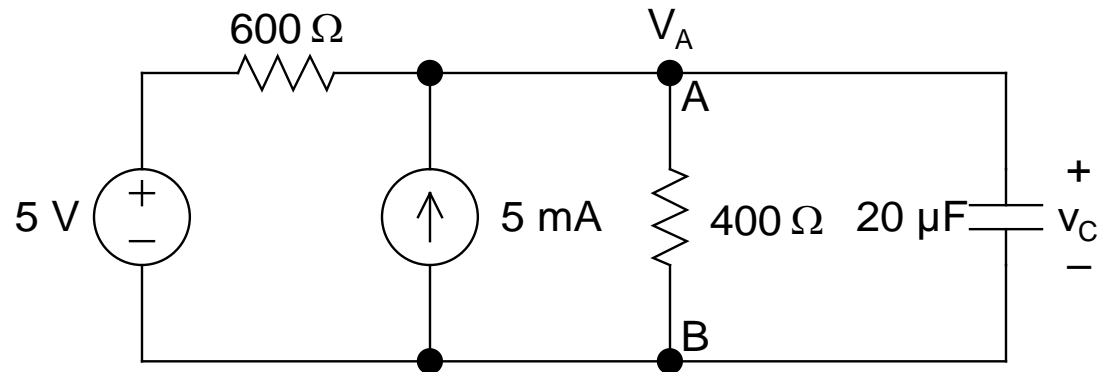
- **Example:** S was open for a long time, and closes at $t = 0$. Find v_C for $t = 0^-$, 0^+ , ∞ , and 10 ms.



With S open, 5 V source was disconnected from the circuit, and only 5 mA source was active

$$\Rightarrow v_C(0^-) = v_C(0^+) = (5 \text{ mA}) \times (400\Omega) = 2 \text{ V}$$

With S closed at $t = 0$, we redraw the circuit :



Apply Thevenin's technique: Remove the capacitor

Taking B as the reference potential (ground), KCL at A:

$$\frac{5 - V_A}{600} + 5 \times 10^{-3} = \frac{V_A}{400}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_A = V_{OC} = V_T = 3.2 \text{ V}$$

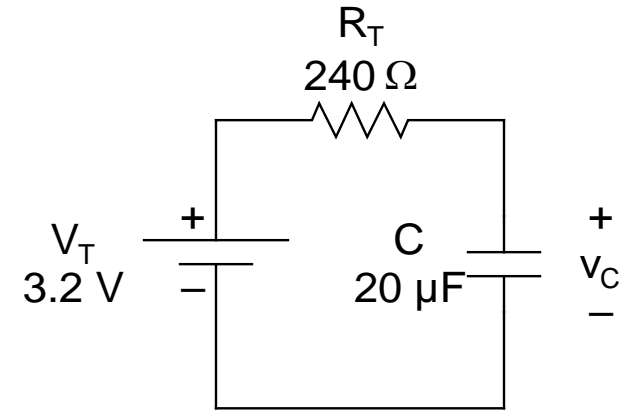
and Thevenin resistance $R_T = (600) \parallel (400) = 240 \Omega$

Thevenin Equivalent:

$$\text{Time constant } \tau = R_T C$$

$$= (240 \, \Omega) \times (20 \, \mu\text{F})$$

$$= 4.8 \, \text{ms}$$



From the figure, it is obvious that $v_C(\infty) = 3.2 \text{ V}$

Also, $v_C(0) = 2 \text{ V}$ (obtained earlier)

$$\Rightarrow v_C(t) = v_C(\infty) + [v_C(0) - v_C(\infty)] \exp(-t/\tau)$$

$$= 3.2 + (2 - 3.2) \exp(-t/4.8) = 3.2 - 1.2 \exp(-t/4.8)$$

$$\Rightarrow v_C(10 \text{ ms}) = 3.05 \text{ V}$$