### Introduction

12 October 2016

Assume 0 resistance in circuit diagram wires

Node - all the points that are connected together with interconnecting wires in a circuit A node has 0 resistance so the voltage is the same everywhere along the node

Branches - Components that link a pair of nodes

Passive sign convention - make voltage arrow opposite to current arrow

When charge is free to move, every point in the circuit is electrically neutral

Arrow of current on wire does not matter. If outcome is -ve then current is flowing in opposite direction to the arrow

Conductance = 1/ resistance

Any node is chosen to be grounded and is referenced to

 $V_{AB} = V_A - V_B$ 

When current flows through a resistor, electrical potential energy > heat energy

P = V.I for any component

 $P = V^2/R = I^2.R - \frac{\text{only for resistors}}{1}$ 

On Graph
When taking in energy, VI> 0
When supplying energy, VI <0

In any circuit, the net power will sum to zero, as elements are supplying and absorbing the same amount overall.

KVL - the sum of the voltages around any closed loop is zero

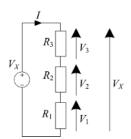
KCL - the sum of the currents entering and exiting any closed loop always sums t



Entering loop -ve

To spot - each internal node connects to only two branches Same current flowing through resistors

To spot - components are connected to the same pair of nodes Same voltage across each resistor



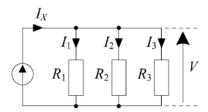
# Voltage Divider



If  $I_Y$  is much smaller than I, then voltage divider approximately works.

 $V_X$  is divided into  $V_1:V_2:V_3$  in the proportions  $R_1:R_2:R_3$ .

### **Current Divider**



Special case for TWO resistors - works like a VD

$$I_1 = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} I_X$$

### **Equivalent Resistors**

- Does not affect relationship between V and I
  - Series:
  - Nodes disappear
  - Parallel:
    - o Currents disappear
    - Number of nodes stays the same

 $I_X$  is divided into  $I_1:I_2:I_3$  in the proportions  $G_1:G_2:G_3$ .

 $= 1/R_1 : 1/R_2 : 1/R_3$ 

### Parallel Resistors - Formulae

For parallel resistors  $G_P = G_1 + G_2 + G_3$ or equivalently  $R_P = R_1 ||R_2|| R_3 = \frac{1}{^{1}\!/R_1 + ^{1}\!/R_2 + ^{1}\!/R_3}$ 

These formulae work for any number of resistors.

For the special case of two parallel resistors

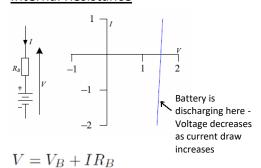
$$R_P = \frac{1}{^{1}\!/R_1 + ^{1}\!/R_2} = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$
 ("product over sum")

• If one resistor is a multiple of the other

Suppose 
$$R_2 = kR_1$$
, then

Suppose 
$$R_2=kR_1$$
, then 
$$R_P=\frac{R_1R_2}{R_1+R_2}=\frac{kR_1^2}{(k+1)R_1}=\frac{k}{k+1}R_1=(1-\frac{1}{k+1})R_1$$

# Internal Resistance

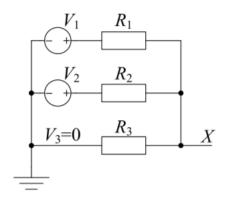


# **Nodal Analysis**

Always label one node as 0V at start

For a circuit with N nodes and S voltage sources, there will always be N - S - 1 KCL simultaneous equations to solve.

### Weighted Average Circuit:



$$(X - V_1)G_1 + (X - V_2)G_2 + (X - V_3)G_3 = 0$$

$$X(G_1 + G_2 + G_3) = V_1G_1 + V_2G_2 + V_3G_3$$

$$X = \frac{V_1G_1 + V_2G_2 + V_3G_3}{G_1 + G_2 + G_3} = \frac{\sum V_iG_i}{\sum G_i}$$

Voltage X is the average of  $V_1, V_2, V_3$  weighted by the conductances.

# **Universal Nodal Analysis Algorithm:**

- Pick any node as OV, label dependant sources as V<sub>S</sub> and I<sub>S</sub>
- Label nodes next to known voltage sources
- Label any unlabelled nodes with X, Y.. And create super nodes with these terms if any exist
- For any dependent sources, write down an equation in terms of known nodes/ values
- Write down KCL equations for all nodes include super nodes in normal node KCL's
- Solve simultaneous equations

# **Summary of Nodal Analysis:**

- Simple Circuits (no floating or dependent voltage sources)
- Floating Voltage Sources
  - use supernodes: all the nodes connected by floating voltage sources (independent or dependent)
- Dependent Voltage and Current Sources
  - Label each source with a variable
  - Write extra equations expressing the source values in terms of node voltages
  - ▷ Write down the KCL equations as before

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# Linearity and Superposition

12 November 2016 11:04

Linearity theorem - Any circuit containing resistors and independent voltage and current sources, Every node voltage and branch current is a linear function of the source values

EG -

$$X = \frac{1}{3}U_1 + \frac{2}{3}U_2, \quad Y = \frac{1}{3}U_1 + \frac{11}{3}U_2$$

Zero Value Voltage source - short circuit

0V = |

Zero Value Current source - open circuit



Superposition - set all but one of the independent sources to 0, and find value of node in terms of one source. Repeat for all sources, then add X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>3</sub> ... to get X

Power DOES NOT obey superposition

If there are dependent sources, treat as independent then eliminate form final expressions

Proportionality - If all independent sources are multiplied by a value K, then all voltages and currents in the circuit will be multiplied by the value K, and the power dissipated by any component will be multiplied by K<sup>2</sup>

# Thevenin and Norton Equivalents

12 November 2016

Norton - CURRENT SOURCE - PARALLEL

Thevenin - VOLTAGE SOURCE - SERIES

 $\mathsf{NCP} \, \_ \, \mathsf{TVS}$ 

#### To find Thevenin Resistance:

- Voltage sources short circuit
- Current source open circuit
- Then find resistance between the two terminals

### Thevenin Properties:

- $V = R_{TH}I + V_{TH}$
- Open circuit, I = 0, then  $V_{OC} = V_{TH}$
- Short circuit, V = 0, then  $I_{SC} = -V_{TH} / R_{TH}$
- R<sub>TH</sub> is represented by 1/ slope of IV graph

### Norton Properties:

- I = V / R<sub>TH</sub> I<sub>VO</sub>
- Open circuit, I = 0, then  $V_{OC} = I_{NO}R_{TH}$
- Short circuit, V = 0,  $I_{SC} = -I_{NO}$
- $R_{NO} = R_{TH}$

#### Thevenin via nodal analysis:

- 1. Label ground as output terminal
- 2. Write down nodal equations
- 3. Eliminate all nodes except for input terminal node

Small $R_{\text{TH}}$	Large R <sub>TH</sub>
Thevenin	Norton

Change between Norton and Thevenin -  $V_{TH} = I_{NO}R_{TH}$  Just like V=IR

Power Transfer from an equivalence circuit, connected to a resistance  $\[ L \]$ . For a fixed  $R_{TH}$ , max power transferred when  $R_{TH} = R_{\underline{L}}$ 

# **Operational Amplifiers**

12 November 2016 11:04

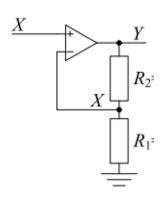
Negative feedback adjusts output Y to make V+ ~ V-

Positive Feedback - VOUT = +- VMAX

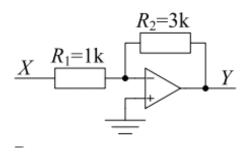
To analyse Op-Amp circuit

- Assume A ~ ∞
- Assume 0A input current
- 1. Check for negative feedback, Y connected somehow to V-
- 2. Assume V+=V-
- 3. Apply KCL at each input separately, with input current 0

Non-inverting Amplifier Y/X = 1 + R2 / R1

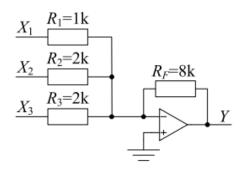


Inverting Amplifier Y/X = -R2 / R1



**Inverting Summing Amp** 

Y is **weighted sum** of input voltages  $X_i$ Where coefficient is  $-R_F / R_i$ 



Differential Amp

Output = A(Input 1 - Input 2)

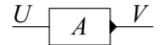
So proportional to the difference

Use superposition to work out A

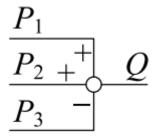
# **Block Diagrams**

13 November 2016

Gain Block: V = U x A



Adder Block:  $Q = P_1 + P_2 - P_3$ 



To solve block diagrams:

- 1. Label all inputs, outputs and adder outputs
- 2. Write down equations for the output and all adder outputs
- 3. Solve by eliminating unwanted variables

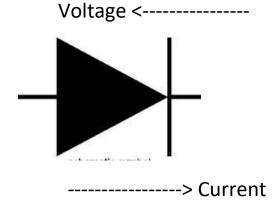
# **Nonlinear Components**

13 November 2016 18:04

### A diode

To solve a circuit with a diode, guess how it acts, then check if condition is correct

Region	Condition	Equation	Acts as
Forward Bias (On)	I > 0	V = 0	Short Circuit
Reverse Bias (Off)	V < 0	I = 0	Open Circuit
	Check this after	Make the guess	

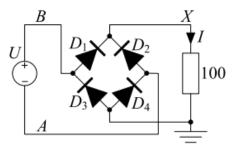


For real diode, switching occurs around 0.7V

Can high-current circuits, V ~ 1.0V

# Bridge Rectifier (Full wave)

4 Diodes,



### 2 cases:

- D1 and D4 on
- D2 and D3 on

X = |U|

If U is AC, then X has double its frequency

### **Halfwave Rectifier**

- Gives X = max(U-0.7,0)
- U causes Diode to switch on and off

U	Diode	X
<0.7	OFF	0
?0.7	ON	U-0.7

### **Precision Halfwave Rectifier**

- Gives X = max(U, 0)
- Use of op-amps eliminates the 0.7V diode drop

# Capacitors and Inductors

13 November 2016 18:04

**Capacitor Equations:** 

$$q = Cv$$

differentiate both sides w.r.t. t:

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

-> voltage doesn't change instantly

$$W=\frac{1}{2}CV^2$$

**Inductor Equations:** 

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

-> current doesn't change instantly

$$W=\frac{1}{2}LI^2$$

**AVERAGE** power absorbed by these components = **0**As energy stored is returned over time

Can tell from Circuit Symbols

Capacitor	Inductor
Average CURRENT = 0	Average Voltage = (

	<u>Series</u>	<u>Parallel</u>
Capacitor	// EQN for R	SUM capacitance
Inductor	SAME as R	SAME as R

### Sine waves and Phasors

13 November 2016

Phasor: A complex number representing a sin wave

The sine wave:

$$A\cos(2\pi ft + \emptyset) = \underline{A\cos\theta}\cos 2\pi ft + \underline{A\sin\theta}\sin 2\pi ft = \underline{X}\cos 2\pi ft + \underline{Y}\sin 2\pi ft$$

Phasor V = X + jYWave  $v(t) = X \cos 2\pi f t - Y \sin 2\pi f t$ 

- o Plus j in phasor > Minus sine in wave
- o Assume Frequency is known

Complex number X + jY represents the sine wave at time t = 0;

Magnitude of a phasor =  $\sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}$ , gives the Amplitude of the sine wave

Argument of a phasor =  $\tan^{-1} \frac{Y}{Y}$ , gives Phase Shift relative to  $\cos 2\pi ft$ 

0	<0	Lagging
	>0	Leading

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<u>Operation</u>	<u>Phasor</u>
ADDITION	$V_1 + V_2$
SCALING	aV
DIFFERENTIATRE	jωV

### **Complex Impedance**

Component	Z
Resistor	R
Inductor	jωL
Capacitor	1
	jωC

# **CIVIL**

In a Capacitor I leads V but V leads I in an Inductor

For any network (resistors+capacitors+inductors):

(1) Impedance = Resistance + 
$$j \times$$
 Reactance  $Z = R + jX(\Omega)$ 

(2) Admittance = 
$$\frac{1}{\text{Impedance}}$$
 = Conductance +  $j \times$  Susceptance  $Y = \frac{1}{Z} = G + jB \text{ Siemens (S)}$ 

So 
$$G = \frac{R}{R^2 + X^2} = \frac{R}{|Z|^2}$$
 
$$B = \frac{-X}{R^2 + X^2} = \frac{-X}{|Z|^2}$$

Beware:  $G \neq \frac{1}{R}$  unless X = 0.

### Frequency Responses

Have to plot two graphs for output,

08 January 2017 19:0

• |Gain| vs ω

Phase vs ω

Phasor input into any RCL circuit gives Phasor output, which varies with input frequency of input phasor

<u>Transfer function</u> of the circuit is  $\frac{output}{input} = gain \ of \ the \ circuit$ 

Voltage ratio in decibels (dB) =  $\frac{20log_{10}}{|V_1|} \frac{|V_2|}{|V_1|}$ 

### For $\mathbf{H} = C(j\omega)^R$

- Magnitude response
  - o C is the y-intercept
  - o R is the gradient of the straight line
- Phase response
  - Horizontal line
  - Phase = 90 x R
  - o If C < 0, +- 180 •

# BEFORE AND AFTER straight line approximations can be found without factorisation:

- Low Freq. Asymptote
  - $\circ \frac{\text{Lowest power of jw from top}}{\text{Lowest power of jw from bottom}}$
- High Freq. Asymptote
  - $\frac{\text{Highest power of jw from top}}{\text{Highest power of jw from bottom}}$

### To plot Magnitude Response for any Transfer function, H(jω)

- · Factorize the polynomials
- Find Corner Frequencies
  - $\circ$   $(i\omega + \alpha)$
- Do approximations as straight line before, between and after corner frequencies
  - $\circ$  For frequency less than corner frequency factor becomes an  $\omega$
  - o Higher factors become their constant terms

### To plot Phase Response for any Transfer function, $H(j\omega)$

- · Factorize the polynomials after HF and LF
- Find Corner Frequencies
  - $\circ$   $(i\omega + \alpha)$ 
    - Take note if from Numerator or Denominator
- If from Denominator
  - $\circ$  At 0.1 $\omega_c$ , Plot decreases by -45  $\circ$  rad/decade
  - $\circ$  At 10 $\omega_c$ , Plot increases by +45  $\circ$  rad/decade
- If from Numerator
  - $\circ$  At 0.1 $\omega_c$ , Plot increases by +45  $\circ$  rad/decade
  - $\circ$  At 10 $\omega_c$ , Plot deacreases by -45  $\circ$  rad/decade
- For Intermediate horizontal straight-line section
  - Value =  $\frac{\text{previous horizontal} \pm \frac{\pi}{4} log_{10} \left(\frac{\text{current corner freq}}{\text{previous corner freq}}\right)}{\text{corner freq}}$

### Resonance

08 January 2017

Occurs when quadratic factor in transfer function cannot be factorised into linear factors

For Quadratic factor  $F(j\omega) = A(j\omega)^2 + B(j\omega) + C$ 

• 
$$\omega_c = \sqrt{\frac{c}{A}}$$

• Damping factor, 
$$\zeta = \frac{B}{\sqrt{4AC}} = \frac{B.Sgn(A)}{2a\omega_c}$$

• Quality Factor, 
$$Q \approx \frac{1}{27}$$

• 
$$Q \triangleq \omega \times W_{stored} \div \bar{P}_R$$

■  $W_{stored} = peak \ stored \ energy$ ■  $\bar{P}_R = average \ power \ loss \ through \ resistor$ 

Resonant Frequency,  $oldsymbol{\omega_r}$ , occurs when Impedance, Z, is purely real

 $\circ\;$  Current in L and C cancel out

### Half-power bandwidth

- Gain² (power)
  - o Range of frequencies
  - o For which power is greater than half its peak

### Magnitude Plot:

- Small ζ > higher peak, smaller bandwidth
- Large  $\zeta$  > lower peak at lower  $\omega_P$ , larger bandwidth
  - Peak Frequency,  $\omega_P = \omega_C \sqrt{1 2\zeta^2}$ 
    - □ True for circuit with only one quadratic factor in denominator

### Phase Plot:

• Small  $\zeta$  > faster phase change around  $\omega_C$ 

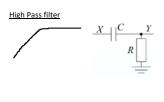
### **Filters**

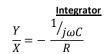
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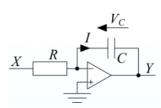
Order of a circuit = highest power of (jw) in the denominator of the Transfer function

	Low	High
Capacitor	Open Circuit	Short Circuit
Inductor		

Low Pass filter
'Gain Floor' - flat at high frequencies - hence FLOOR
X 3R Y R C T







# Op-Amp Filter advantages:

- Can have gain > 1
- Low output impedance
- Input impedance does not vary with frequency

### **Filter Transformations**

### Impedance Scaling by factor K

R'	C'	L'
KR	$K^{-1}C$	KL

### Frequency Shift - To the LEFT by a factor of K

R'	C'	L'
R	KC	KL

### LR to RC circuit

$$\square R' = KL$$

$$_{\square}\ C'=\frac{1}{KR}$$

# $\frac{\text{Reflection in Frequency axis around }\omega_m}{\Box \ R' = \frac{K}{\omega_m C}}$

$$\square R' = \frac{K}{\omega_m \alpha}$$

$$\Box C' = \frac{1}{\omega_m KR}$$

- Magnitude plot flipsPhase plot flips and NEGATES

$$< y > = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T y \, dt$$

Average Power,  $P = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T p(t) dt$ 

$$V_{rms} \triangleq \sqrt{\langle v^2(t) \rangle} \equiv DC \ voltage$$

For Voltage phasor  $V=|V|e^{j\theta_1}$  and Current phasor  $I=|I|e^{j\theta_1}$ 

Average Power,  $P = \frac{1}{2}|V||I|\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$ 

**Power Factor** of V and I is  $cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)$ 

### **Complex Power**

• S = RMS Voltage \* RMS Conjugate Current

• 
$$S = \tilde{V} * \tilde{I}^* = \frac{|\tilde{V}|^2}{Z^*} = |\tilde{I}|^2 * Z$$
  
•  $S = P + jQ = |\tilde{V}||\tilde{I}|\cos \emptyset + |\tilde{V}||\tilde{I}|\sin \emptyset$ 

• 
$$S = P + jQ = |\tilde{V}| |\tilde{I}| \cos \emptyset + |\tilde{V}| |\tilde{I}| \sin \emptyset$$

• Phase of S = Phase of Z

• Apparent Power = |Complex|

• 
$$\cos \emptyset = \frac{P}{|S|}$$

• Capacitors generate Reactive Power

• Inductors absorb Reactive Power

• Phase of S = Phase of Z

• Complex Power in any circuit = 0 - Tellegen's Theorem

08 January 2017

19:05

$$y(t) = y_{SS}(t) + y_{Tr}(t)$$

y<sub>SS</sub>(t) same frequency as new input
Use nodal/Phasor analysis to get this term

# $\underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathsf{Tr}}(\mathsf{t})$ if of the form $Ae^{-t/\tau}$

Does not depend on input, only the circuit  $\tau = R \mathit{C} \ or \ \frac{L}{R}$ 

A depends on initial conditions of input

- $\circ$  RC find  $v_c(0-)$ , RL find  $i_L(0-)$
- Find y(0+) via Nodal Analysis or other
- $\circ$  A = y(0+) y<sub>SS</sub>(0+)
- Can work out R<sub>Th</sub>
  - $\circ$  Remove C or L when working out R<sub>Th</sub>

### Sinusoidal input

- For y<sub>SS</sub>
  - o Get transfer Function
  - $\circ y_{SS}(t) = X * H(w)$

### **Negative Exponential**

Time it takes to get somewhere from a known point

$$T = \tau * \ln(\frac{initial\ distance\ to\ Limit}{final\ distance\ to\ Limit})$$

### <u>Transient from Transfer Function:</u>



- Calculate H(w)
- y<sub>ss</sub>(t) = LF gain \* x(t)
- y(discontinuity) = HF gain \* x(discontinuity)

• 
$$\tau = \frac{1}{Denominator CF}$$

Then work out A using difference

# **Transmission Line Equations**

• 
$$C_0 \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial i}{\partial x}$$

• Capacitance per unit length,  $C_0 = \frac{c}{\partial x}$ 

• 
$$L_0 \frac{\partial i}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

 $\circ$  Total Inductance per unit length,  $L_0 = \frac{L_1 + L_2}{\partial x}$ 

### **Reflections**

Backwards wave is a multiple of forward wave

$$g_L = \rho_L f_L$$

**Reflection Coefficient** 

$$\rho_L = \frac{R_L - Z_0}{R_L + Z_0}$$

ρ	Comment
0	No Reflection
+1	Open Circuit - Double Voltage
-1	Closed Circuit - 0V

### **SOLUTIONS**

• 
$$v(t,x) = f\left(t - \frac{x}{u}\right) + g\left(t + \frac{x}{u}\right)$$
  
•  $i(t,x) = \frac{f\left(t - \frac{x}{u}\right) + g\left(t + \frac{x}{u}\right)}{Z_0}$ 

Power Flow into region  $f^2 g^2$ 

$$\bullet \ P = \frac{f^2}{Z_0} - \frac{g^2}{Z_0}$$

- o f carries power into the region
- o g carries power out of the region

• *u* is the propogation delay

$$\bullet \ \ Z_0 = \sqrt{\frac{L_0}{C_0}}$$

Driving a Line:

Voltage on line is from potential divider of Driver Resistance and  ${\cal Z}_0$ 

05 April 2017 21:09

f and g are sinusoidal with same frequency

$$F_0 = A e^{j\emptyset}$$
 - Phasor at start of line

### At point x on the line:

$$k = \frac{\omega}{u}$$

• 
$$F_x = F_0 e^{-jkx}$$
  
•  $G_x = G_0 e^{+jkx}$ 

• 
$$G_x = G_0 e^{+jkx}$$

### At Load, L

- Ohms Law applies
- ullet  $ho_L$  still same
- Travelling from x to L
  - $\circ e^{-jk(L-x)}$  is the phase delay
    - ^ Multiply Phasor by this

# Reflections - Creates a Standing Wave

- Amplitude of Line Voltage ∝ X
- Max Amplitude of (1 +  $|\rho_L|$ ) occurs every  $\frac{\lambda}{2}$  away from L