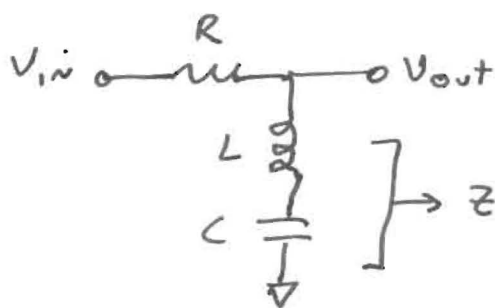


Models of Motion 2015

— Circuits, Week 4 Solutions —

4/21/15

1.26



note: this circuit  
discussed on p 4/4  
of the Lab Manual

$$Z_2 = Z_L + Z_C = \frac{1}{i\omega C} + i\omega L$$

This circuit is a voltage divider, with the lower (LC) part having  $Z_2 = Z_L + Z_C =$  impedance of the capacitor and inductor in series... so

$$V_{out} = V_{in} \frac{Z_2}{Z_2 + R} \quad \text{by the voltage divider equation,}$$

or

$$G = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{Z_2}{Z_2 + R} \quad \text{with } Z_2 = \frac{1}{i\omega C} + i\omega L$$

It is easiest to re-write  $Z_2$  as a single complex number:

$$Z_2 = \frac{1}{i\omega C} + i\omega L = \frac{-i}{\omega C} + i\omega L = i\left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)$$

Then

$$G = \frac{i\left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)}{R + i\left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)} \quad \text{Egn (1)}$$

Arguably this answers the question... but it's better to give  $G = |G| e^{i\phi}$ , i.e. as a magnitude and a phase.

Before we do that, let's see what Egn (1) tells us:

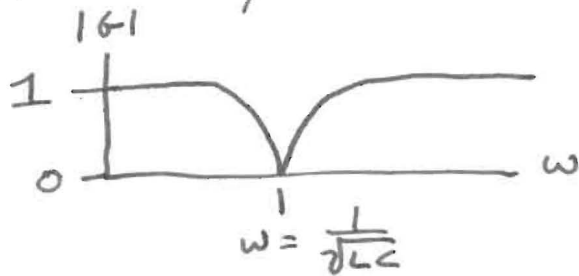
a) when  $\omega L = \frac{1}{\omega C}$ ,  $G = 0$ . In other words, the gain  $\rightarrow 0$  when  $\omega^2 = \frac{1}{LC}$  or  $\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$ , i.e.  $G = 0$  at the resonant frequency  $\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$ .

b) As  $\omega \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $G \rightarrow 1$  since  $\omega L \gg \frac{1}{\omega C}$   
when  $\omega \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\omega L \gg R$

c) As  $\omega \rightarrow 0$ ,  $G \rightarrow 1$ , since

$$\frac{1}{\omega L} \gg \omega L \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{\omega C} \gg R \quad \text{when } \omega \rightarrow 0.$$

So we already can see that  $|G|$  behaves like:



Let's write  $G$  as a magnitude and a phase:

$$G = |G| e^{i\phi}$$

Since we already know that  $\omega_R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$  is the special "resonant" frequency, it will be nicer to write  $G$  in terms of  $\omega_R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$ . To do this, let's multiply by:

$$G = \frac{1}{R + i(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})} = \frac{(\frac{\omega}{L})}{(\frac{\omega}{L})} \frac{i(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})}{R + i(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})}$$

$$= \frac{i(\omega^2 - \frac{1}{LC})}{\omega \frac{R}{L} + i(\omega^2 - \frac{1}{LC})} = \frac{i(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)}{\omega \frac{R}{L} + i(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)} = G$$

This makes it easy to get  $|G|$ :

$$|G| = \sqrt{G G^*} = \left[ \frac{(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)^2}{(\omega \frac{R}{L})^2 + (\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)^2} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

This is not particularly more illuminating than our earlier expression for  $G$ ; however, let's look at the phase behavior:

1.26 cont'd

3

To get  $\phi$ , it would be handy to have  $G$  in the form  $G = a + ib$ , since then  $\tan \phi = \frac{b}{a}$ .

We can use the usual trick of multiplying  $G$  by 1, where  $1 = \frac{\text{complex conjugate of denominator}}{\text{complex conj. of denominator}}$ :

$$G = \frac{i(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)}{\omega \frac{R}{L} + i(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)} \cdot \frac{\omega \frac{R}{L} - i(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)}{\omega \frac{R}{L} - i(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)}$$

$$= \frac{(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)^2 + i \omega \frac{R}{L} (\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)}{(\omega \frac{R}{L})^2 + (\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)^2} = a + ib$$

so  ~~$\frac{b}{a} = \frac{\omega \frac{R}{L} (\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)}{(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)^2}$~~   $\frac{b}{a} = \frac{\omega \frac{R}{L} (\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)}{(\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)^2} = \boxed{\frac{\omega R}{L (\omega^2 - \omega_R^2)}} = \tan \phi = \frac{b}{a}$

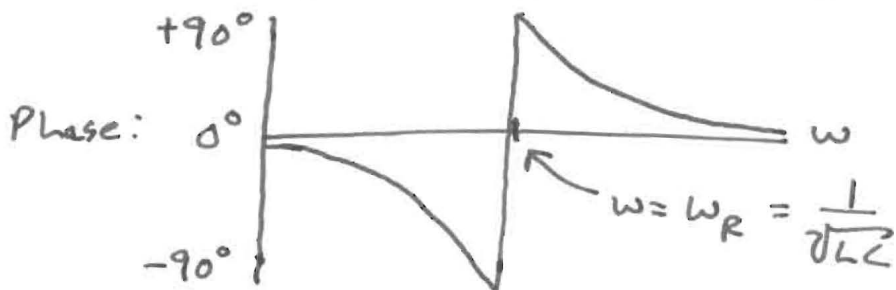
This one is tricky: note that for:

$0 \leq \omega < \omega_R$ ,  $\tan \phi < 0$  and as  $\omega \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\tan \phi \rightarrow 0$   
 $\omega \rightarrow \omega_R$ ,  $\tan \phi \rightarrow -\infty$

$\omega_R < \omega \leq \infty$ ,  $\tan \phi > 0$  and as  $\omega \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\tan \phi \rightarrow 0$

$\omega = \omega_R$ ,  $\tan \phi = \text{undefined}$ .  $\omega \rightarrow \omega_R$ ,  $\tan \phi \rightarrow \infty$

When  $\tan \phi < 0$ ,  $\phi < 0^\circ$ ; when  $\tan \phi > 0$ ,  $\phi > 0^\circ$ , and when  $\tan \phi = \pm \infty$ ,  $\phi = \pm 90^\circ$ , so:

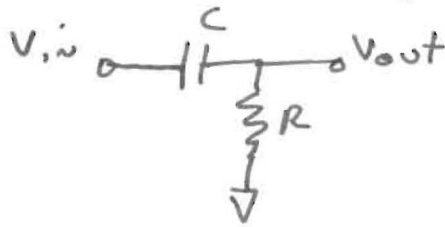


#3, Add. Ex:

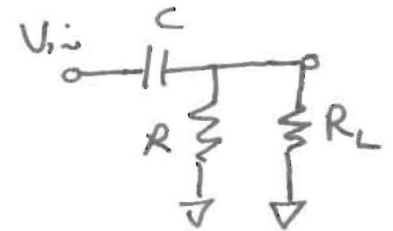
4

Filter must pass frequencies  $> 20 \text{ Hz}$ , and have a 3dB point of  $F_{3dB} = 10 \text{ Hz}$ . Load is  $\geq 10k$ .

→ if a circuit must pass frequencies above some cutoff, it must be a high-pass filter, which looks like:



or, with the load attached:



For an RC circuit we know  $\omega_{3dB} = \frac{1}{RC}$ , or

$$F_{3dB} = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

We also know the output impedance of our circuit must be very low compared to  $R_{Load}$  so that the circuit behavior doesn't change when we connect the load:  $R_{out} \ll R_{Load}$ .

Since a voltage source looks like a short circuit,

$$R_{out} = Z_C \parallel R = \frac{R Z_C}{R + Z_C} \ll R_L$$

and from above

$$F_{3dB} = 10 \text{ Hz} = \frac{1}{2\pi RC}$$

Since we need  $R_{out} \ll R_L$ , we need to know what the ~~smallest~~ <sup>largest</sup> value of  $R_{out}$  is. From above,

$$R_{out} = \frac{R Z_C}{R + Z_C} = \frac{R \left(\frac{1}{i\omega C}\right)}{R + \left(\frac{1}{i\omega C}\right)} \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

#3, Add Ex.

5

Cont'd

Looking at Eqn 1, as:

$\omega \rightarrow 0$ ,  $R_{out} \rightarrow R$  (since  $\frac{1}{j\omega C} \rightarrow \infty$ , and since it's on the top and the bottom, it cancels)

$\omega \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $R_{out} \rightarrow 0$

There are no special frequencies in between - you could calculate  $|R_{out}|$  (really should be  $|Z_{out}|$  since it's complex) to see that this is true.

Given that  $Z_{out} \leq R$ , and we need

$|Z_{out}| \ll R_L$ , i.e.  ~~$R_L > 10|Z_{out}|$~~   $R_L > 10 \cdot |Z_{out}| = 10R$

then  $R \leq 1k$  since  $R_L = 10k > 10R$ .

Since  $F_{3db} = 10 \text{ Hz} = \frac{1}{2\pi R L}$ ,  $C = \frac{1}{2\pi R \cdot 10 \text{ Hz}} \approx \frac{1}{6} e^{-4} = 1.5e^{-5}$

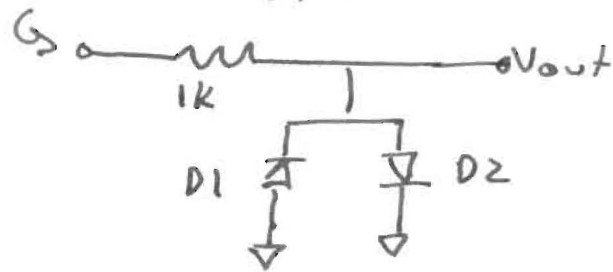
or  $C \approx 15 \mu\text{F} = 15e^{-6} \text{ F}$

#7, Add. Ex.

6

we're given

$$V_{in} = 6.3 V_{rms}, AC$$



Diode  $D_2$  will conduct when  $V_{out} \geq 0.6 V$  (one diode drop)  
so  $V_{out} \leq 0.6 V$ .

Diode  $D_1$  will conduct (be a short circuit, albeit w/ a 0.6 V drop) when  $V_{out} \leq -0.6 V$ .

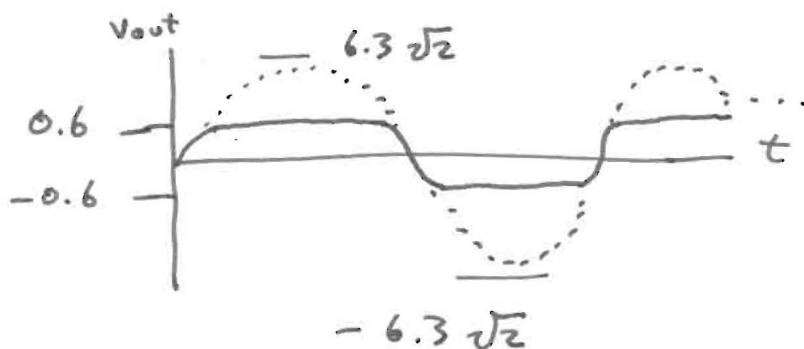
Hence 
$$\boxed{-0.6 V \leq V_{out} \leq 0.6 V}$$

Since  $V_{in} = 6.3 V_{rms}$  (probably from wall voltage, so AC at 60 Hz)

$$V_{in} = \sqrt{2} \cdot 6.3 V \cdot \cos(2\pi \cdot 60 \text{ Hz} \cdot t)$$

Since RMS voltage for a sine wave is given by  $\frac{V_{peak}}{\sqrt{2}} = V_{rms}$

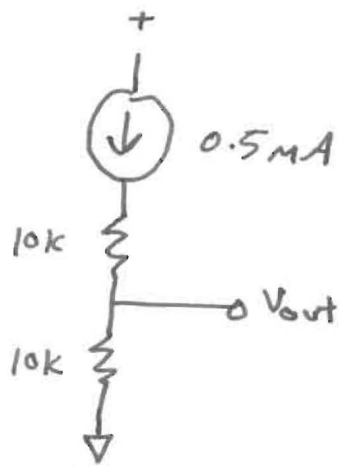
So, roughly,  $V_{out}$  will look like



The sinusoidal waveform is clipped at  $\pm 0.6 V$ .

#2, Add. Ex.

7



Find the  
Thevenin equivalent  
circuit.

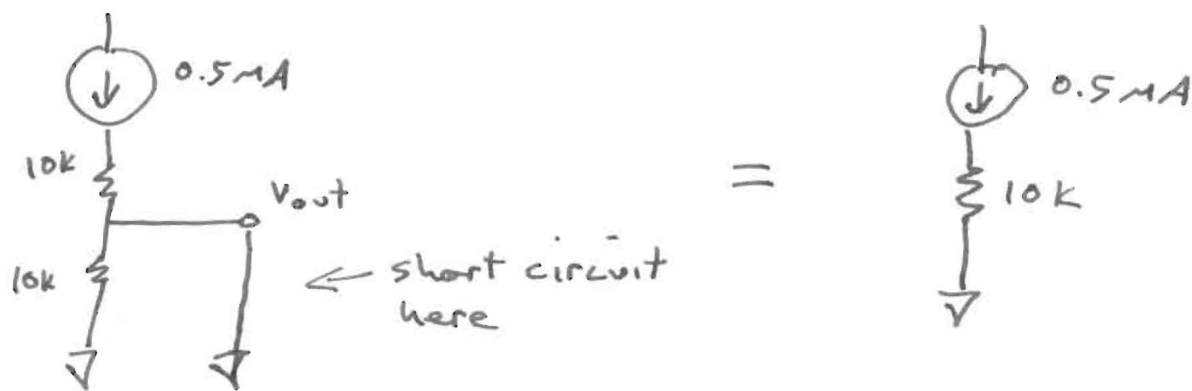
The simplest way to do this is to calculate

$$V_{oc} = V_{\text{open circuit}} \quad \text{and}$$

$$I_{sc} = I_{\text{short circuit}}.$$

$$\text{Then } V_{Th} = V_{oc} \quad \text{and} \quad R_{Th} = \frac{V_{oc}}{I_{sc}}.$$

$$V_{oc} \text{ is easy: } V_{oc} = IR = 0.5 \mu\text{A} \cdot 10\text{k} = 5\text{V}$$

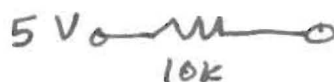


$I_{sc} = 0.5 \mu\text{A}$ , since we're given an ideal current source,  
so  $R$  actually doesn't matter.

$$\text{Then } R_{Th} = \frac{V_{oc}}{I_{sc}} = \frac{5\text{V}}{0.5 \mu\text{A}} = 10\text{k}.$$

So the equivalent circuit is:

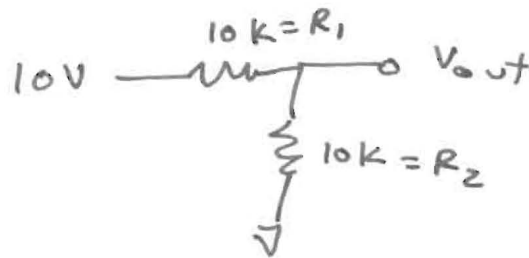
$$\text{with } \boxed{V_{Th} = 5\text{V}, R_{Th} = 10\text{k}}$$



#2, Add. Ex.

8

We're asked to compare with the Thevenin equivalent circuit for



Here we can get  $V_{oc} = V_{out} = V_{in} \cdot \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$  since the circuit is just a voltage divider.

$$\text{So } V_{oc} = 10V \cdot \frac{10k}{10k + 10k} = 5V$$

$$I_{sc} = \frac{V_{in}}{R_1} = \frac{10V}{10k} = 1mA \quad \text{since when we short the output,}$$



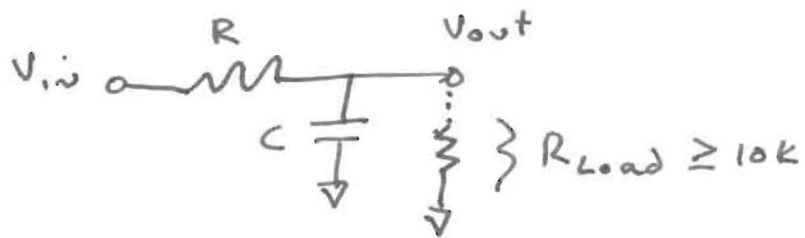
$$\text{So } R_{Th} = \frac{V_{oc}}{I_{sc}} = \frac{5V}{1mA} = 5k \quad \text{so}$$

$$\boxed{V_{Th} = 5V, R_{Th} = 5k} \quad \text{and} \quad 5V \text{ --- } 5k \text{ --- } V_{out}$$

for the circuit from #2, which is definitely not equivalent to our result for #3.

Another way to look at this is that since a voltage source looks like a short (has zero output impedance),  $R_{out} = 10k \parallel 10k = 5k$  for this circuit. A current source has  $\infty$  output impedance (current doesn't change no matter what  $R_{load}$  you connect, so  $R_{out} \gg \text{any } R_{load}$ , or  $R_{out} = \infty$ ). So for #3,  $R_{out} = 10k \parallel \infty$  or  $R_{out} = 10k \dots$  different than #2.

#4 Alt. Ex. Scratches are high frequency, so here we want a Low-pass filter. We're given  $f_{3db} = \frac{1}{2\pi RC} = 10 \text{ kHz}$ ,  $R_{Load} \geq 10k$ , and zero output impedance for the input signal. Hence we have



Similarly to problem #3, we want

$$R_{Load} \gg |Z_{out}|, \text{ or } R_{Load} \geq 10 |Z_{out}| \text{ at all times.}$$

But  $Z_{out} = R \parallel Z_C = \frac{R Z_C}{R + Z_C}$ , which can never be larger than  $R$ .

$$\text{So } R_{Load} = 10k \geq 10 \cdot |Z_{out}| \geq 10 \cdot R \quad \text{or}$$

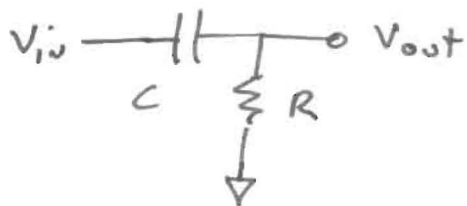
$$\boxed{R \leq 1k}$$

Then, plugging in to the formula for  $f_{3db}$  we get

$$C = \frac{1}{2\pi R f_{3db}} = \frac{1}{2\pi \cdot 1k \cdot 10kHz} = \frac{1}{6} e^{-7} F = 0.15 e^{-7} F$$

or  $C = 15000 \text{ pF} = 0.015 \text{ } \mu\text{F}$  (capacitances are always given in  $\mu\text{F}$  or  $\text{pF}$ )  
and  $R = 1k$

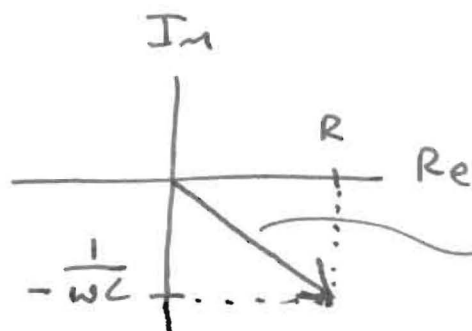
1.23



This is a voltage divider, so  $G = \frac{V_{out}}{V_{in}} = \frac{R}{R + Z_c}$

where  $Z_c = \frac{1}{i\omega C}$  ... so what we really need in order to get  $|G|$  is  $|R + Z_c|$ , since the  $R$  in the numerator is already a real number.

$R + Z_c = R + \frac{1}{i\omega C} = R - \frac{i}{\omega C}$ . Plotting this gives:



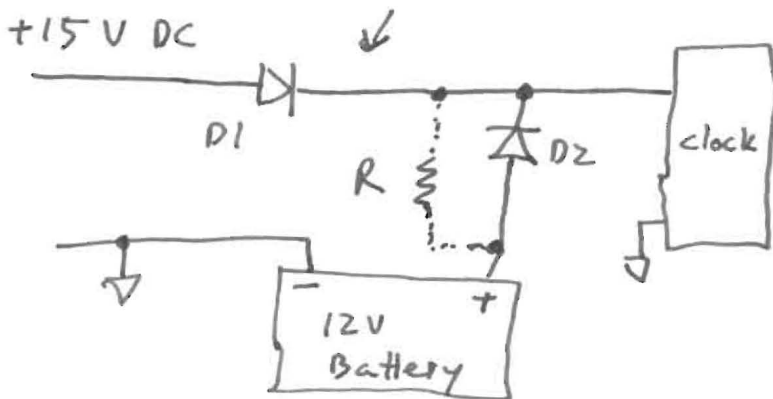
By geometry / Pythagorean theorem, length of this vector will be  $\sqrt{R^2 + (\frac{1}{\omega C})^2}$

$$\text{so } |G| = \left| \frac{R}{R + Z_c} \right| = \frac{R}{|R + Z_c|} = \boxed{\frac{R}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\frac{1}{\omega C})^2}} = |G|}$$

1.29

$$12.4V = 15V - 0.6V \text{ diode drop}$$

11



We want the battery to charge at  $10\text{mA}$  when the wall power ( $15\text{Vdc}$ ) is on.

The easiest way to do that would be to add a resistor  $R$  as shown. When the wall power is on, and assuming the battery is mostly charged (which is the expectation when you use a "trickle charger" of this sort to maintain charge) then the voltage  $\Delta V$  across the resistor will be

$$\Delta V = [15V - 0.6V \text{ diode drop}] - [12V \text{ battery}] = 2.4V$$

We want  $I = 10\text{mA}$ , so  $R = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{2.4V}{10\text{mA}} = 240\ \Omega$

So  $R = 240$

Note that Diode D1 prevents the battery from discharging into the wall if the power goes off.

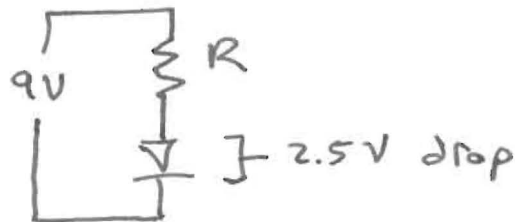
Aside: the problem actually specifies the clock input at  $12V \leq V_{\text{clock}} \leq 15V \dots$  but diode D2 will have a diode drop of  $0.6V$ , so if the wall power goes off then the voltage at the clock will be  $\leq 11.4V \dots$

oops ;)

LED Problem:

12

→ want  
 $I = 20 \text{ mA max.}$



A)  $\Delta V$  across  $R = 9\text{V} - 2.5\text{V} = 6.5\text{V}$

$$I = 20 \text{ mA} = \frac{\Delta V}{R}, \text{ so } R = \frac{\Delta V}{I} = \frac{6.5\text{V}}{20 \text{ mA}} = 325 \Omega$$

B) There are lots of ways to figure the power. My way

is  $P_{\text{LED}} = IV = 20 \text{ mA} \cdot 2.5 \text{ V drop} = 50 \text{ mW}$

$$P_{\text{Resistor}} = P_R = I^2 R = (20 \text{ mA})^2 \cdot 325 = 0.13 \text{ W} = 130 \text{ mW}$$

So

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{LED}} &= 50 \text{ mW} \\ P_R &= 130 \text{ mW} \end{aligned}$$

and Fraction of power in LED =  $\frac{P_{\text{LED}}}{P_{\text{Total}}} = \frac{50 \text{ mW}}{50 + 130 \text{ mW}} \approx 0.27$

so efficiency is  $\approx 27\%$

This is pretty poor efficiency. There are custom chips to do this that provide  $\approx 85\%$  efficiency (for a price...)