

Greek Alphabet

A α	alpha	/'ælfə/	N ν	nu	/'nju:/
B β	beta	/'bi:tə/	Ξ ξ	xi	/'ksai/
Γ γ	gamma	/'gæmə/	O ο	omicron	/'ɒmɪkrən/
Δ δ	delta	/'dɛltə/	Π π	pi	/'paɪ/
E ε	epsilon	/'ɛpsɪlən/	P ρ	rho	/'rou/
Z ζ	zeta	/'zi:tə/	Σ σ	sigma	/'sɪgmə/
H η	eta	/'i:tə/	T τ	tau	/'taʊ/
Θ θ	theta	/'θi:tə/	Y υ	upsilon	/'ʊpsɪlən/
I ι	iota	/ai'ou:tə/	Φ φ	phi	/'fai/
K κ	kappa	/'kæpə/	X χ	chi	/'kai/
Λ λ	lambda	/'læmdə/	Ψ ψ	psi	/'psai/
M μ	mu	/'mju:/	Ω ω	omega	/'oʊmɪgə/

Symbols

<i>Abbreviation</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Abbreviation</i>	<i>Variable</i>	<i>Unit</i>
v	voltage	[V]	J	current density	[A/m ²]
i	current	[A]	E	electric field	[V/m]
$e(t)$	induced voltage e.m.f.	[V]	H	magnetic field intensity	[A/m]
R	resistance	[Ω]	B	magnetic flux density	[T]
G	conductance	[S]	\mathcal{R}	reluctance	[H ⁻¹]
L	inductance	[H]	$\Lambda(\mathcal{P})$	permeance	[H]
C	capacitance	[F]	$M(\mathcal{F})$	magnetomotive force m.m.f.	[A·turns]
X	reactance	[Ω]	$\Phi(\varphi)$	magnetic flux	[Wb]
B	susceptance	[S]	$\psi(\lambda)$	flux linkage	[Wb]
Z	impedance	[Ω]	n_p	number of pole pairs	
Y	admittance	[S]	T	torque	[Nm]
p	instant power	[W]	F	force	[N]
P	active power	[W]	J	inertia	[kg m ²]
A	apparent power	[VA]	$W(U)$	energy	[J]
Q	reactive power	[Var]	f	frequency	[Hz]
$Re()$	real part of		ω	angular speed/frequency	[rad/s]
$Im()$	imaginary part of		v	linear speed	[m/s]
\underline{a}	complex conjugate				
j	imaginary unit				

Symbol	Variable	Unit	Symbol	Variable	Unit
v	voltage (tensione)	[V]	J	current density (densità di corrente)	[A/m ²]
i	current (corrente)	[A]	E	electric field (campo elettrico)	[V/m]
e(t)	induced voltage, electromotive force (e.m.f.) (tensione indotta, forza elettromotrice (fem))	[V]	H	magnetic field intensity (campo magnetico)	[A/m]
R	resistance (resistenza)	[Ω]	B	magnetic flux density (induzione magnetica)	[T]
G	conductance (conduttanza)	[S]	θ (R)	reluctance (riluttanza)	[H ⁻¹]
L	inductance (induttanza)	[H]	Λ (P)	permeance (permeanza)	[H]
C	capacitance (capacità)	[F]	M (F)	magnetomotive force m.m.f. (forza magnetomotrice)	[A·turns]
X	reactance (reattanza)	[Ω]	Φ (φ)	magnetic flux (flusso magnetico)	[Wb]
B	susceptance (suscettanza)	[S]	ψ (λ)	flux linkage (flusso concatenato)	[Wb]
Z	impedance (impedenza)	[Ω]	n _p	number of pole pairs (numero di coppie polari)	
Y	admittance (ammettenza)	[S]	T	torque (coppia)	[Nm]
p	instant power (potenza istantanea)	[W]	F	force (forza)	[N]
P	active power (potenza attiva)	[W]	J	inertia (inerzia)	[kg m ²]
A	apparent power (potenza apparente)	[VA]	W (U)	energy (energia)	[J]
Q	reactive power (potenza reattiva)	[Var]	f	frequency (frequenza)	[Hz]
Re()	real part of (parte reale di)		ω	angular speed/frequency (velocità angolare/pulsazione)	[rad/s]
Im()	imaginary part of (parte immaginaria di)		v	linear speed (velocità lineare)	[m/s]
a	complex conjugate (complesso coniugato)				
j	imaginary unit (unità immaginaria)				

Passive Circuit Elements

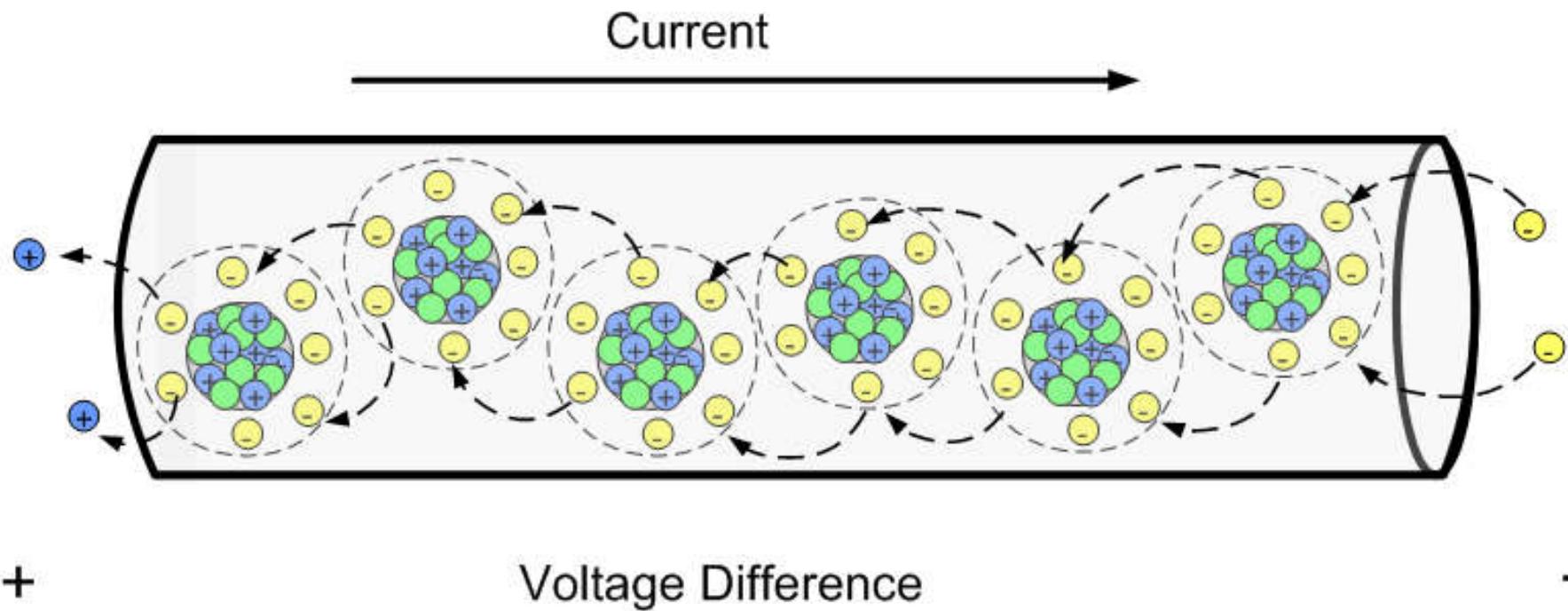
- Resistors
- Capacitors
- Inductors

extract from www.digilentinc.com/eeboard/RealAnalog/text/LectureB.ppt

Passive circuit elements - resistors

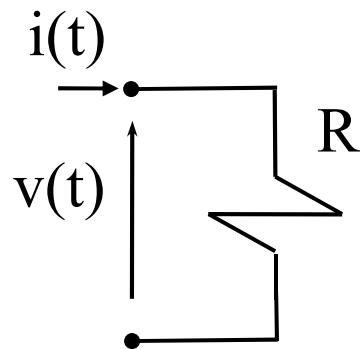
- *Resistance* models the fact that energy is always converted in heat
- Electrons moving through a material “collide” with the atoms composing the material
 - These collisions impede the motion of the electrons
 - Thus, a voltage potential difference is required for current to flow. This potential energy balances the energy lost in these collisions.

Resistance



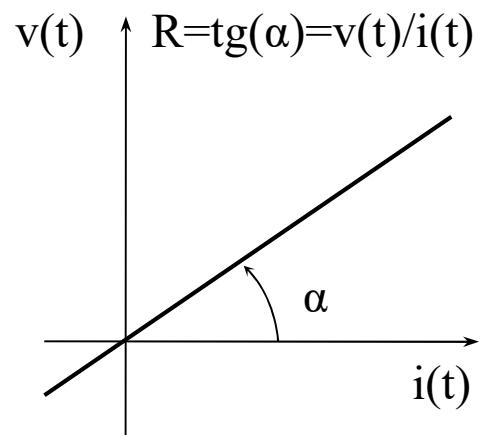
Resistors

- Circuit symbol:
- Voltage-current relation (Ohm's Law):



- **R** is the resistance
 - Unit is Ohm [Ω]
- **G** is the conductance = $1/R$
 - Unit is Siemens [S]

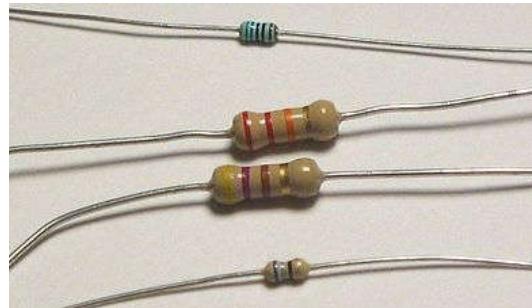
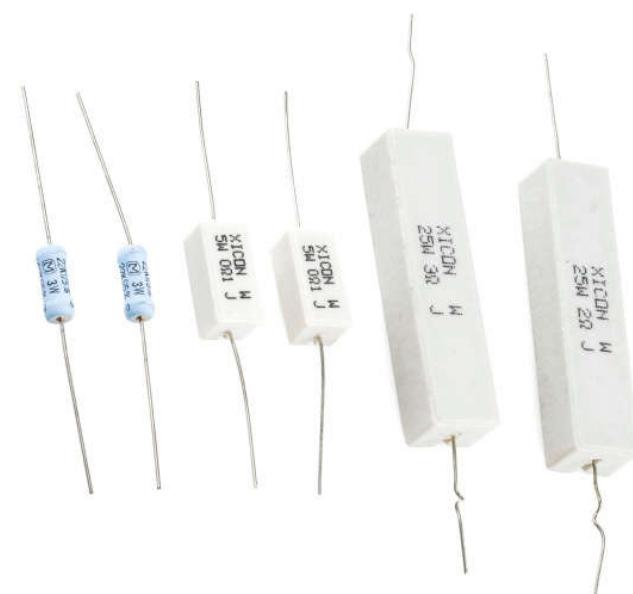
$$v(t) = R \cdot i(t)$$
$$i(t) = G \cdot v(t)$$

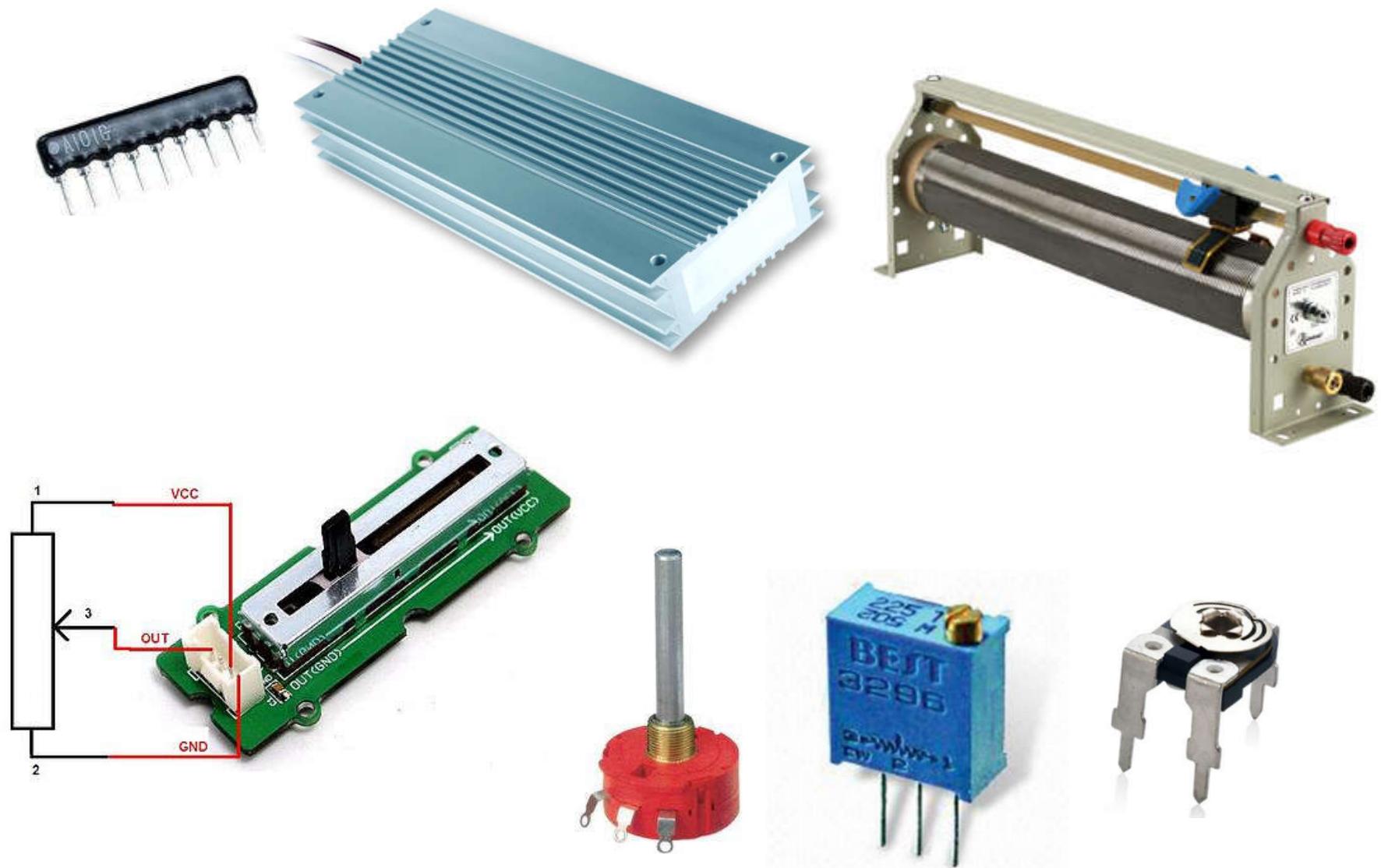


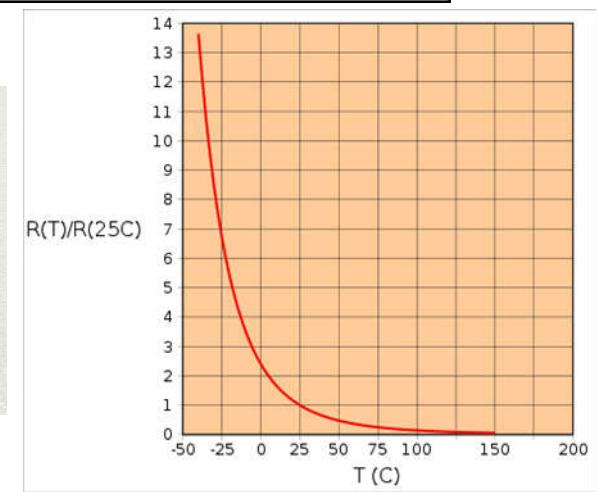
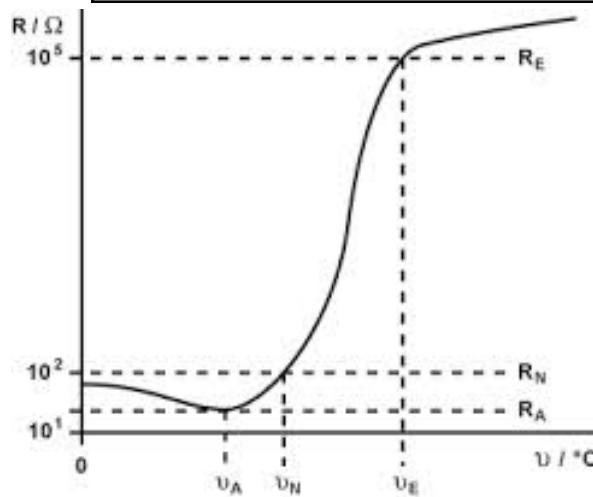
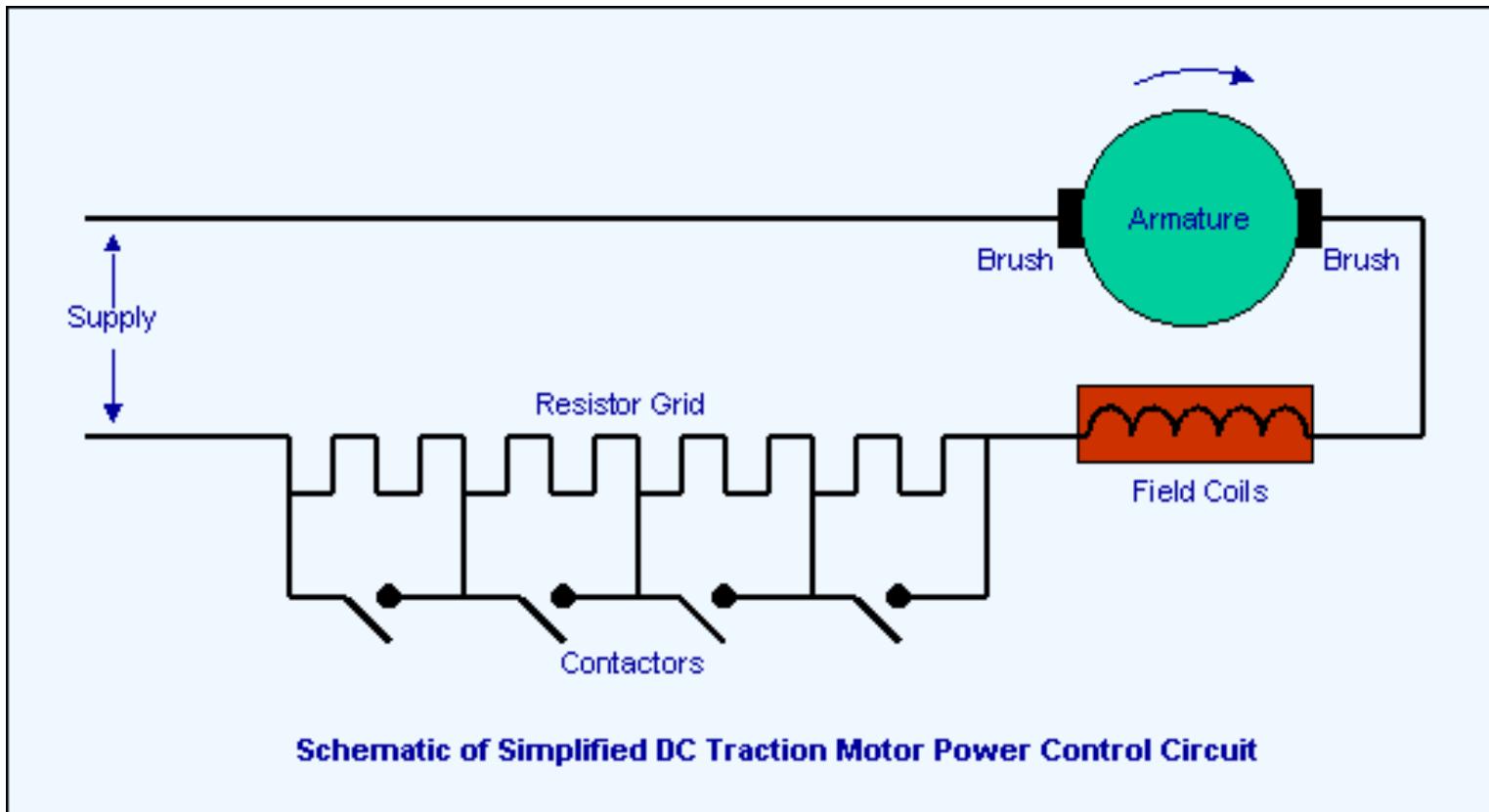
Resistor Power Dissipation

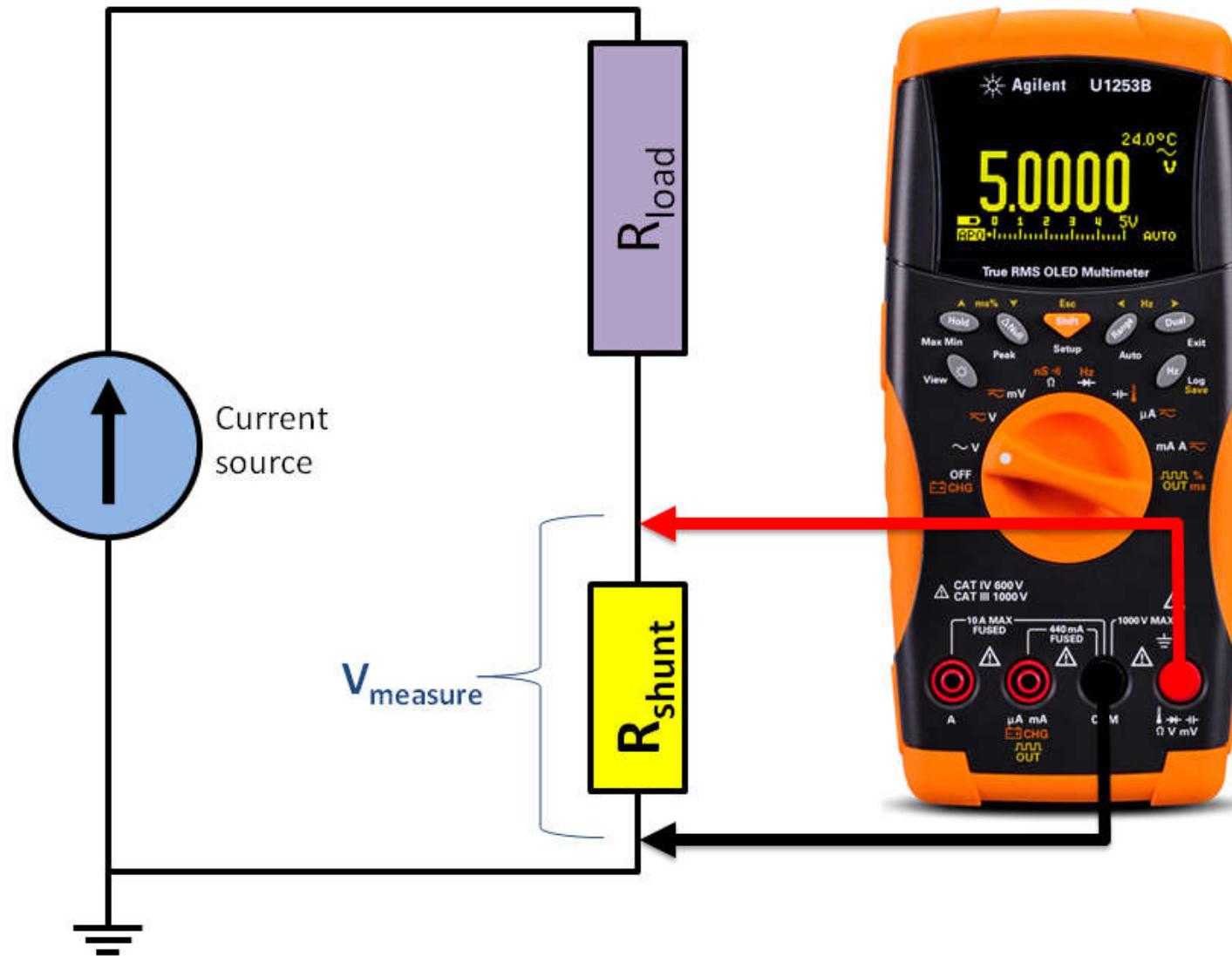
- **Ohm's Law:** $v(t) = R \cdot i(t) \implies i(t) = G \cdot v(t)$
- **Instant power:** $p(t) = v(t) \cdot i(t)$
- **Combining**
 - $p(t) = v(t) \cdot G \cdot v(t) \implies p(t) = G \cdot v^2(t) = \frac{v^2(t)}{R}$
 - $p(t) = R \cdot i(t) \cdot i(t) \implies p(t) = R \cdot i^2(t)$
- **Active power: mean value of instant power on a period T**

$$P = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T p(t) dt = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T R \cdot i(t)^2 dt = R \cdot \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i(t)^2 dt = R \cdot I_{rms}^2$$
$$P = \frac{V_{rms}^2}{R} = G \cdot V_{rms}^2$$



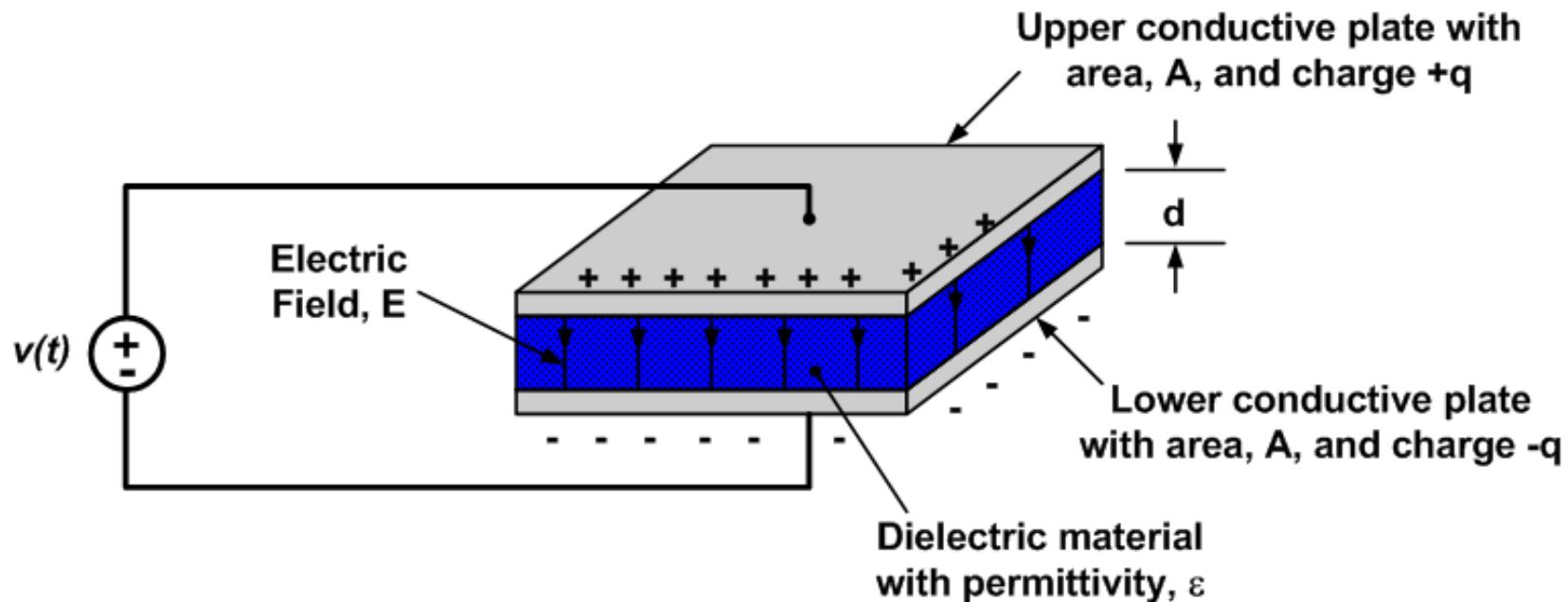






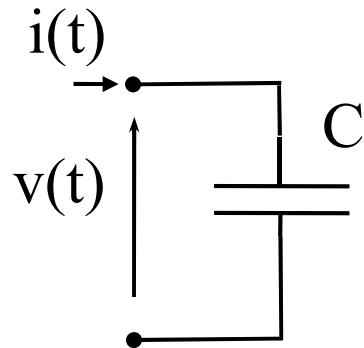
Passive circuit elements – capacitors

- Capacitors store energy in the form of an electric field
- Convert electric energy in dielectric energy (and vice-versa)
 - Typically constructed of two conductive materials separated by a non-conductive (*dielectric*) material



Capacitors

- Circuit symbol:



- C is the capacitance
 - Unit is Farad [F]

- Voltage-current relation:

$$i(t) = C \frac{dv(t)}{dt}$$

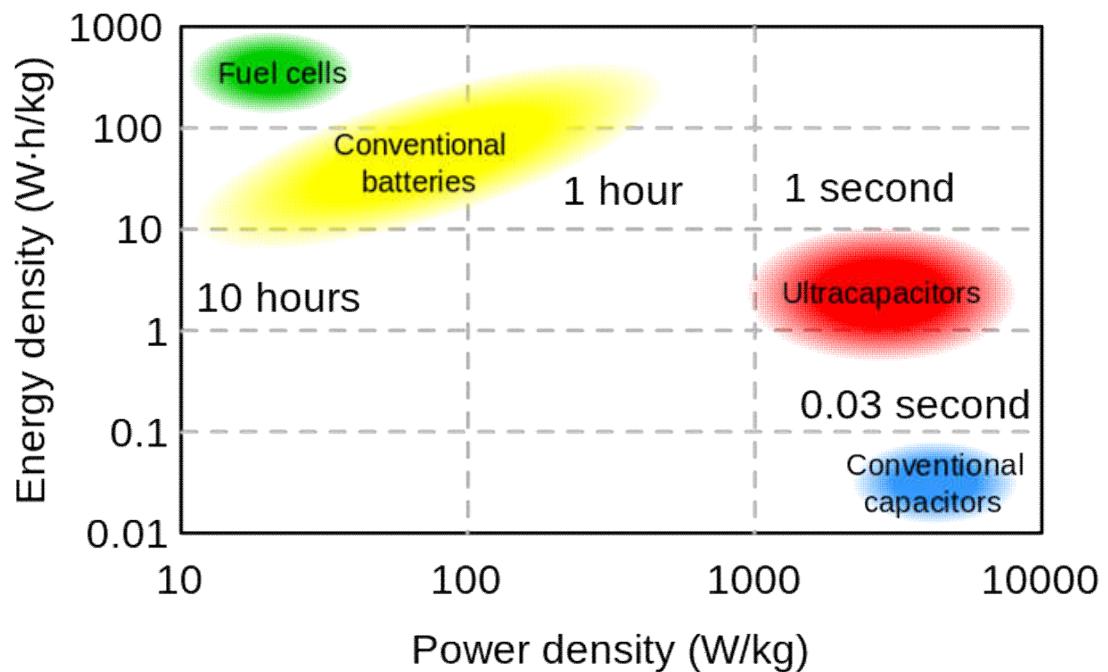
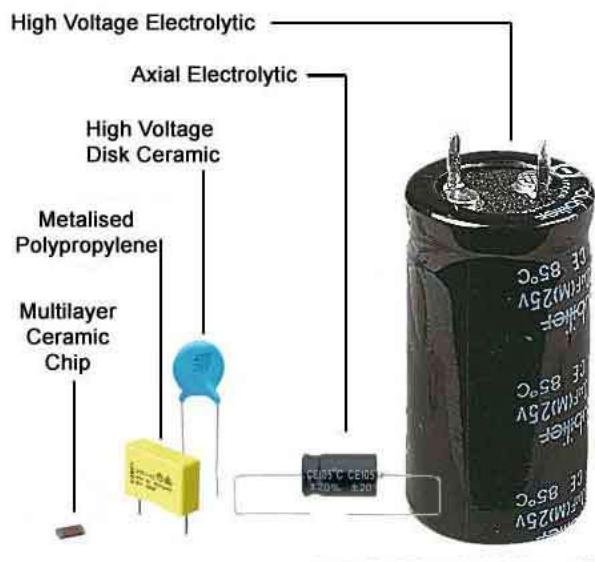
- Capacitors can store energy (dielectric)

$$W_c = \frac{1}{2} Cv^2$$

Capacitors

- Notes:
 - Capacitors can store energy
 - The voltage-current relation is a differential equation
 - Capacitance limits rate of change of voltage (filter design)
 - If the voltage is constant, the current is zero and the capacitor looks like an open-circuit

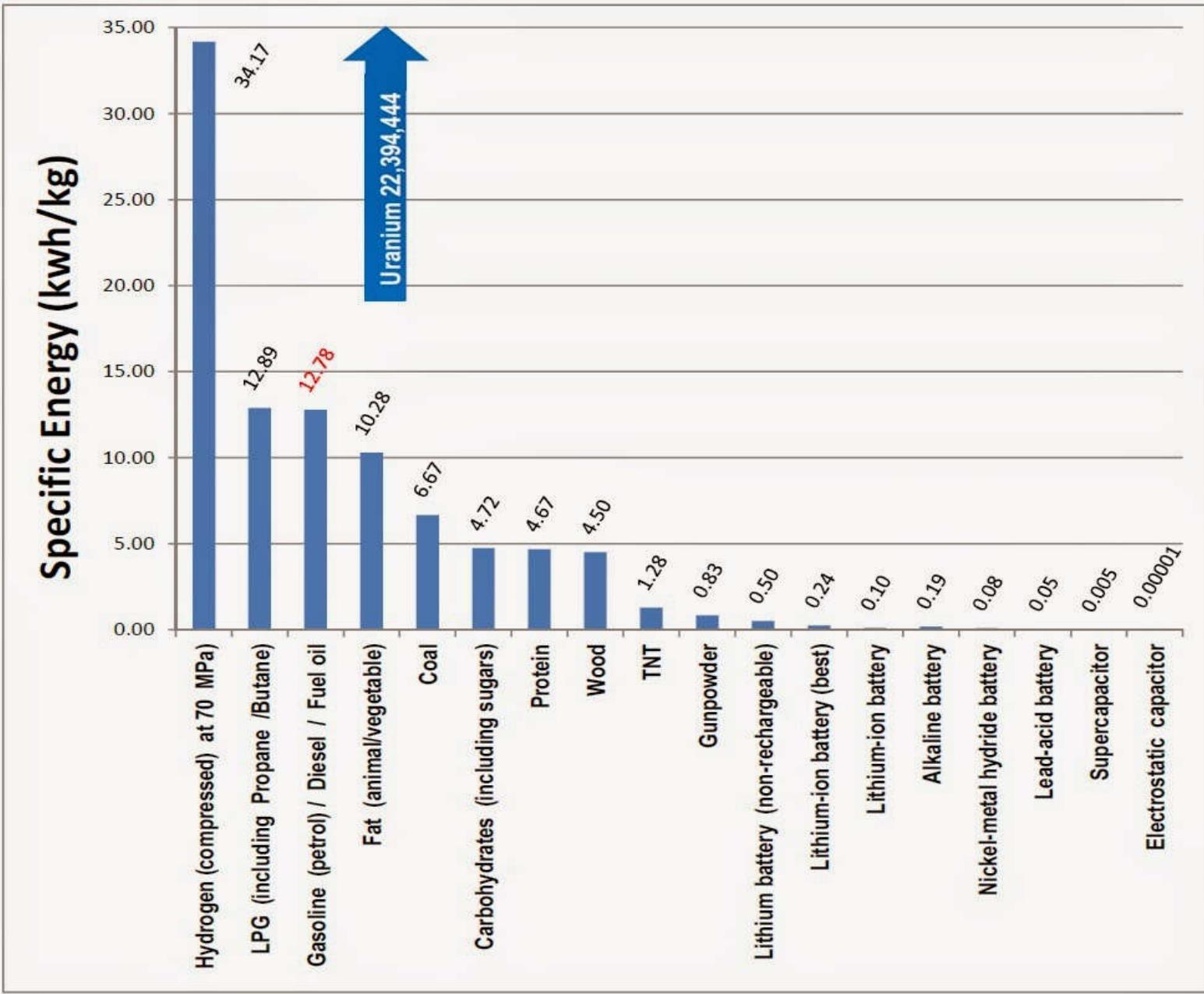
TYPE	CAPACITANCE RANGE	MAXIMUM VOLTAGE	MAXIMUM OPERATING TEMPERATURE (°C)	TOLERANCE (%)	INSULATION RESISTANCE (MΩ)	COMMENTS
Electrolytics						
Aluminum	1 μF–1 F	3–600V	85	+100 to –20	<1	Popular, large capacitance,
Tantalum	0.001–1000 μF	6–100V	125	±5 to 20	>1	awful leakage, horrible tolerances
Ceramic	10 pF–1 μF	50–1000V	125	±5 to 100	1000	Popular, small, inexpensive, poor tolerances.
Mica	1 pF–0.1 μF	100–600V	150	±0.25 to ±5	100,000	Excellent performance; used in high-frequency applications
Mylar	0.001–10 μF	50–600V		Good	Good	Popular, good performance, inexpensive
Paper	500 pF–50 μF	100,000V	125	±10 to ±20	100	—
Polystyrene	10 pF–10 μF	100–600V	85	±0.5	10,000	High quality, very accurate; used in signal filters
Polycarbonate	100 pF–10 μF	50–400V	140	±1	10,000	High quality, very accurate
Polyester	500 pF–10 μF	600V	125	±10	10,000	—
Glass	10–1000 pF	100–600V	125	±1 to ±20	100,000	Long-term stability
Oil	0.1–20 μF	200V–10 kV		Good		Large, high-voltage filters, long life



Choose the Ultracapacitor solution that works best for you:

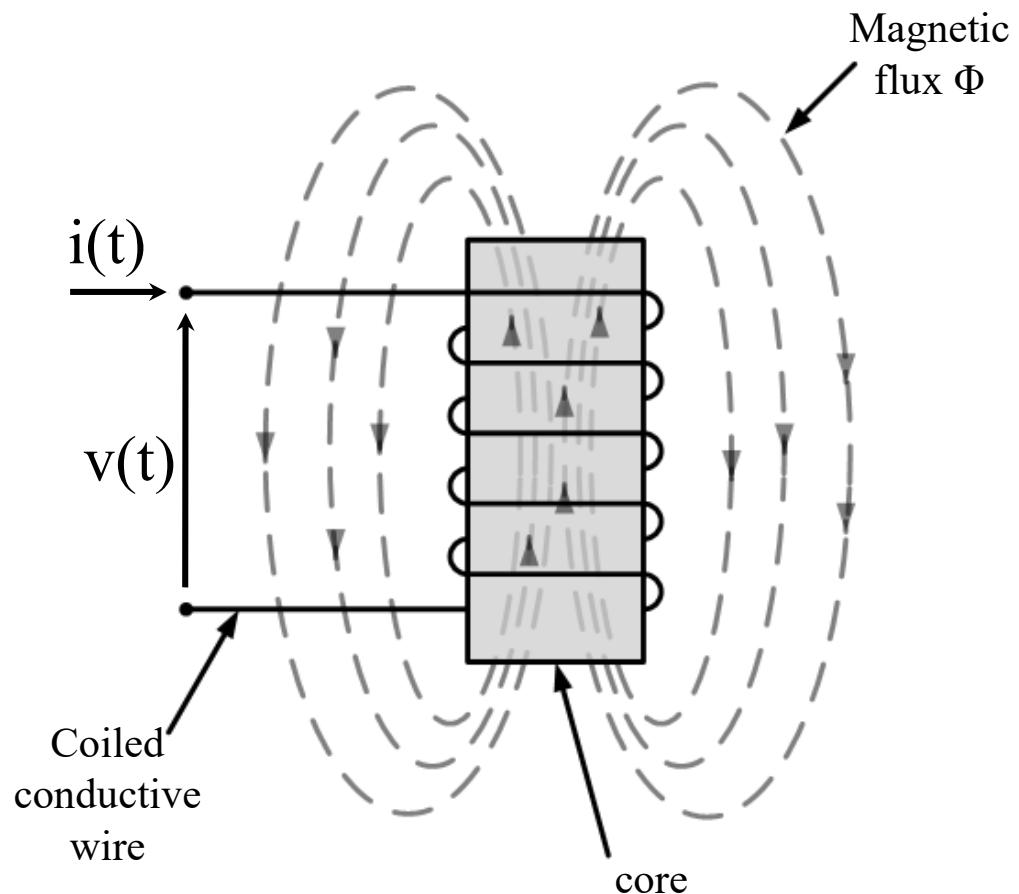
Specifications	BC Series	K2 Series	Modules
Capacitance (F)	310 - 350	650 - 3000	58 - 500
Voltage (V)	2.7	2.7	16 - 125
ESR, DC (mohm)	2.2 - 3.2	0.29 - 0.8	4.1 - 22
Leakage Current (mA)	0.30 - 0.45	1.5 - 5.2	1.5 - 170
Emax (Wh/kg)	5.2 - 5.9	4.1 - 6.0	1.5 - 3.9
Pmax (W/kg)	9,500 - 14,000	12,000 - 14,000	3,600 - 6,800

Available Performance	Lead Acid Battery	Ultracapacitor	Conventional Capacitor
Charge Time	1 to 5 hrs	0.3 to 30 s	10^{-3} to 10^{-6} s
Discharge Time	0.3 to 3 hrs	0.3 to 30 s	10^{-3} to 10^{-6} s
Energy (Wh/kg)	10 to 100	1 to 10	< 0.1
Cycle Life	1,000	>500,000	>500,000
Specific Power (W/kg)	<1000	<10,000	<100,000
Charge/discharge efficiency	0.7 to 0.85	0.85 to 0.98	>0.95
Operating Temperature	-20 to 100 C	-40 to 65 C	-20 to 65 C



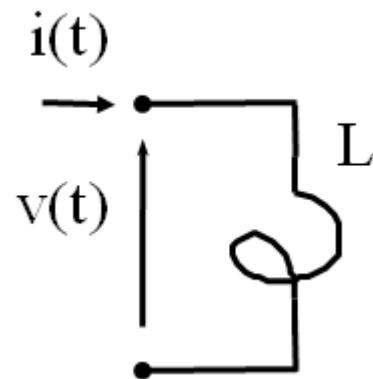
Passive circuit elements - inductors

- Inductors store energy in the form of a magnetic field
- Convert electric energy in magnetic energy (and vice-versa)
- Often constructed by coiling a conductive wire around a ferrite core



Inductors

- Circuit symbol:



- L is the inductance
 - Unit is Henry [H]

- Voltage-current relation:

$$v(t) = L \frac{di(t)}{dt}$$

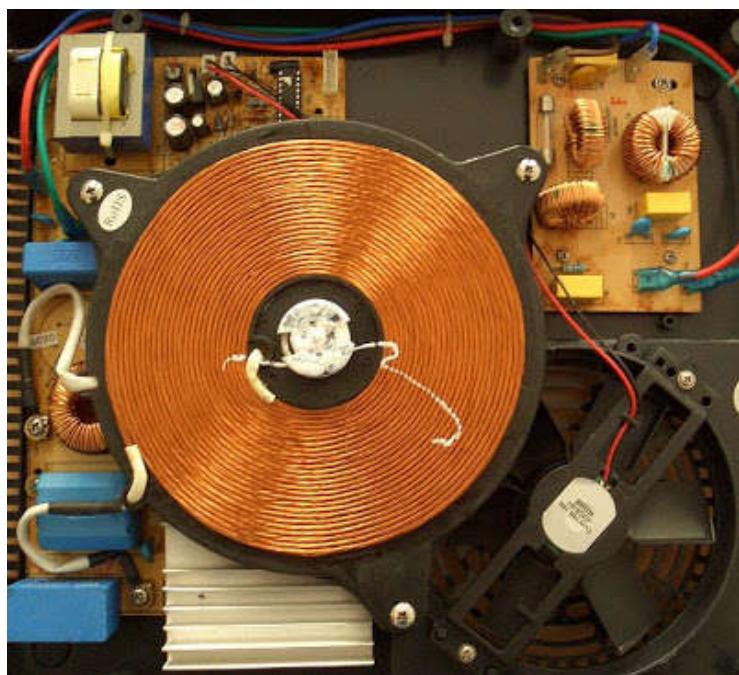
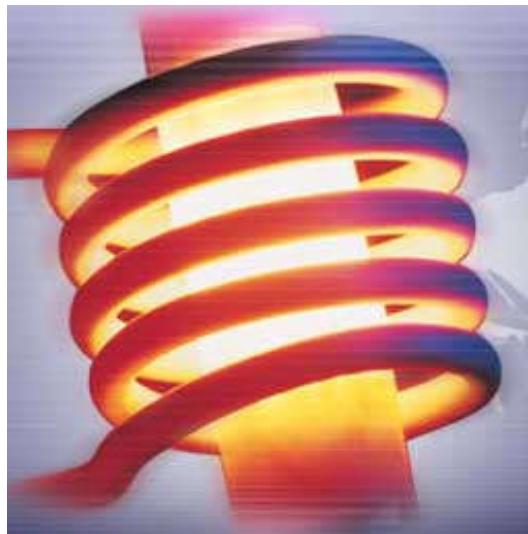
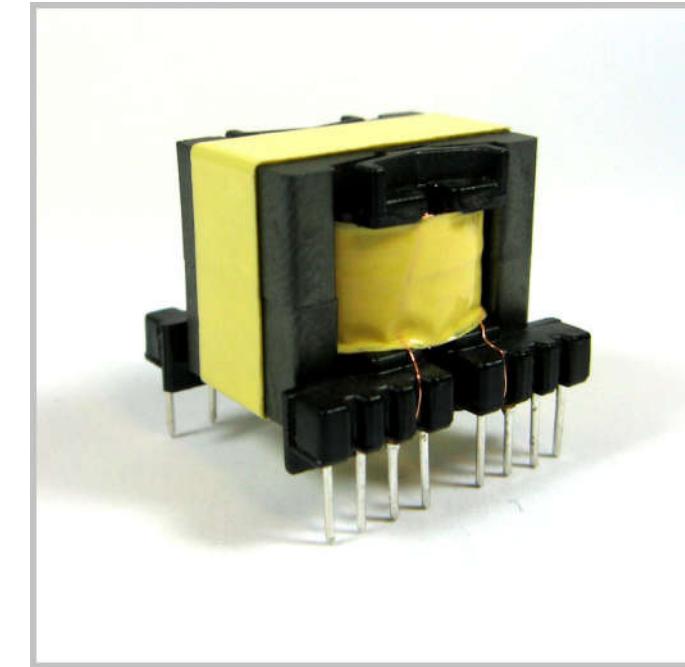
- Inductors can store energy (magnetic)

$$W_L = \frac{1}{2} L i^2$$

Inductors

- **Notes:**
 - Inductors can store magnetic energy
 - The voltage-current relation is a differential equation
 - Inductance limits rate of change of current (filter design)
 - If the current is constant, the voltage difference is zero and the inductor looks like a perfect conductor (short-circuit)

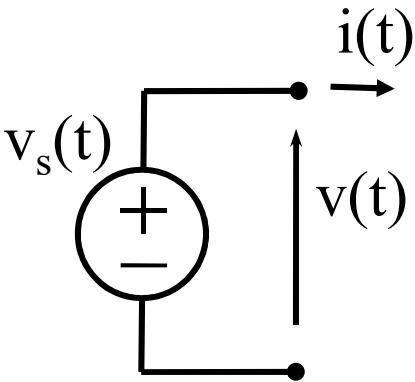




Active Circuit Elements

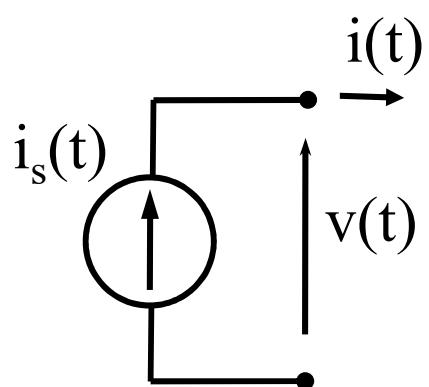
- Ideal voltage generator
- Ideal current generator

Ideal voltage generator

- Circuit symbol:

- Voltage-current relation:
$$v(t) = v_s(t) \quad \forall i(t)$$
- $v_s(t)$ is a known function of the time
- Electric energy is converted in other forms (mech., chem.,...) and vice-versa

Ideal current generator

- Circuit symbol:



- Voltage-current relation:

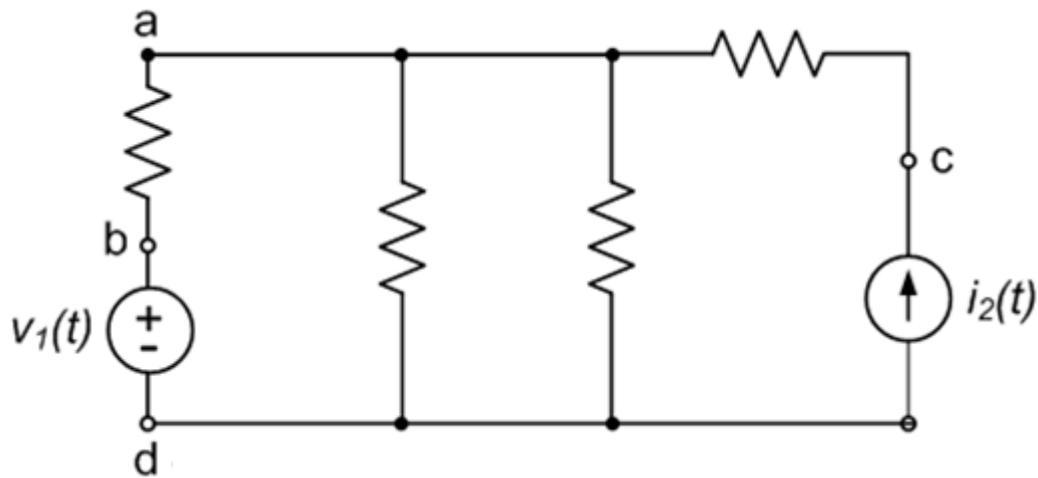
$$i(t) = i_s(t) \quad \forall v(t)$$

- Unit is Ampere[A]

- $i_s(t)$ is a known function of the time
- Electric energy is converted in other forms (mech., chem.,...) and vice-versa

Basic Definition – Node

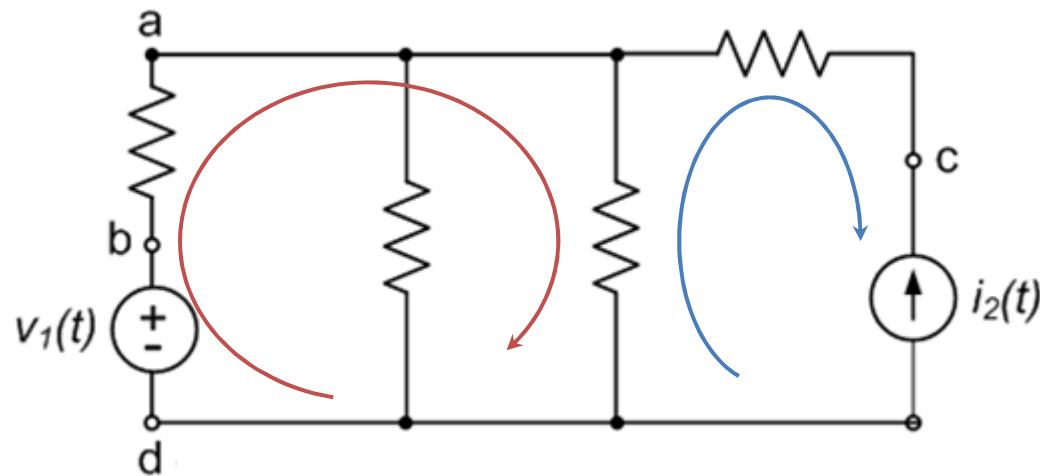
- A *Node* is a point of connection between two or more circuit elements



extract from <http://www.digilentinc.com/eeboard/RealAnalog/text/Lecture3.ppt>

Basic Definition – Loop (mesh)

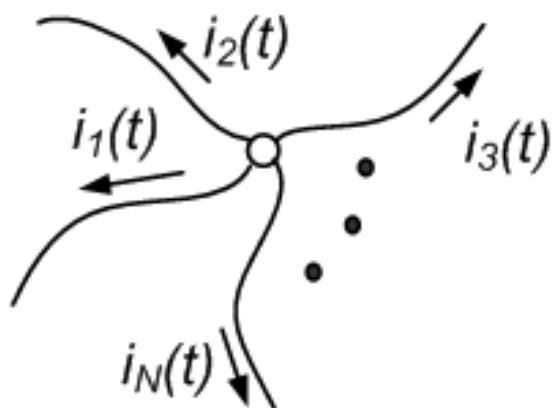
- A **Mesh** is any closed path through the circuit which encounters no node more than once
 - A **Loop** is a particular mesh with no elements inside



Kirchhoff's Current Law (KCL)

- The algebraic sum of all currents entering (or leaving) a node is zero
 - Equivalently: The sum of the currents entering a node equals the sum of the currents leaving a node
 - Mathematically:

$$\sum_{k=1}^N i_k(t) = 0$$



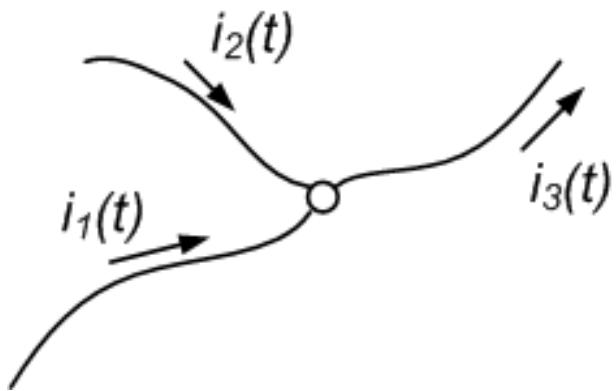
We can't accumulate charge at a node

Kirchhoff's Current Law – continued

- When applying KCL, the current directions (entering or leaving a node) are based on the assumed directions of the currents
 - Also need to decide whether currents entering the node are positive or negative; this dictates the sign of the currents leaving the node
 - As long all assumptions are consistent, the final result will reflect the actual current directions in the circuit

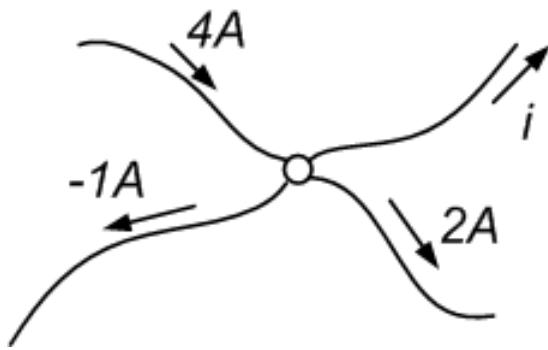
KCL – Example 1

- Write KCL at the node below:



KCL – Example 2

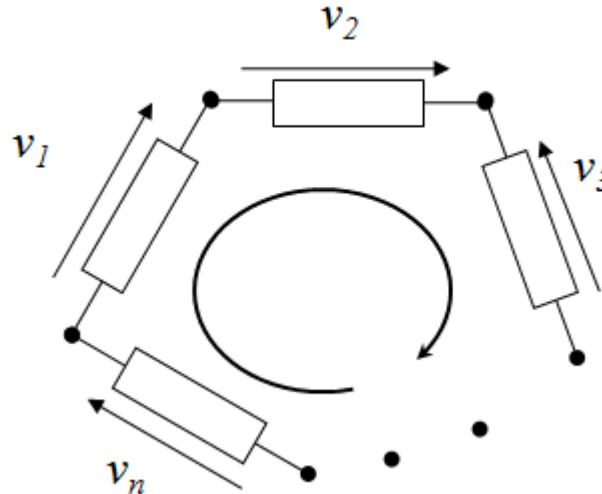
- Use KCL to determine the current i



Kirchhoff's Voltage Law (KVL)

- The algebraic sum of all voltage differences around any closed loop is zero
 - Equivalently: The sum of the voltage rises around a closed loop is equal to the sum of the voltage drops around the loop
 - Mathematically:

$$\sum_{k=1}^N v_k(t) = 0$$



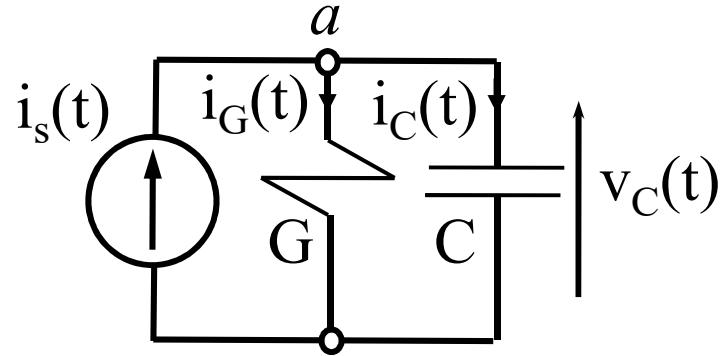
Kirchhoff's Voltage Law – continued

- Voltage polarities are based on assumed polarities
 - If assumptions are consistent, the final results will reflect the actual polarities
- To ensure consistency, I recommend:
 - Indicate assumed polarities on circuit diagram
 - Indicate loop and direction we are traversing loop
 - Follow the loop and sum the voltage differences:
 - If the voltage difference has the same direction of the loop, treat the difference as positive
 - Else, treat the difference as negative

Circuit analysis – applying KVL and KCL

- In circuit analysis, we generally need to determine voltages and/or currents in one or more elements
- Given l elements and n nodes, the unknown qualities are $2l$
- We can determine voltages, currents in all elements by:
 - Writing a voltage-current relation for each element (Ohm's law, for resistors): l equations
 - Applying KVL around all loops in the circuit: $l-(n-1)$ equations
 - Applying KCL at all but one node in the circuit: $n-1$ equations

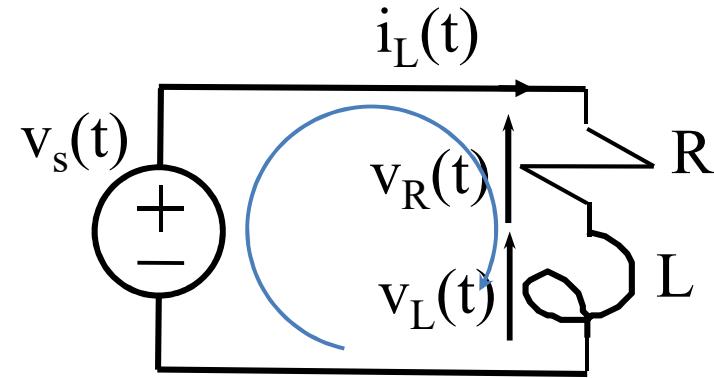
First Order Transient



KCL at the node a :

$$i_s(t) - i_G(t) - i_C(t) = 0$$

$$Gv_C(t) + C \frac{dv_C(t)}{dt} = i_s(t)$$



KVL around the loop:

$$v_s(t) - v_R(t) - v_L(t) = 0$$

$$Ri_L(t) + L \frac{di_L(t)}{dt} = v_s(t)$$

Complete Solution

Voltages and currents in a 1st order circuit satisfy a differential equation of the form ($f(t)$) is called the **forcing function**)

$$a \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + bx(t) = f(t)$$

The complete solution is the sum of **particular** solution (forced response or steady state solution) and **complementary** (homogeneous) solution (natural response).

$$x(t) = x_c(t) + x_p(t)$$

The complementary solution has the form (A has to satisfy the **initial** conditions):

$$x_c(t) = A e^{\lambda t}$$

where λ is the solution to the homogeneous equation (τ is the **time constant**)

$$a\lambda + b = 0 \quad \lambda = -\frac{b}{a} \quad \tau = -\frac{1}{\lambda}$$

For an RC circuit, $\tau = C/G = RC$
For an RL circuit, $\tau = L/R$

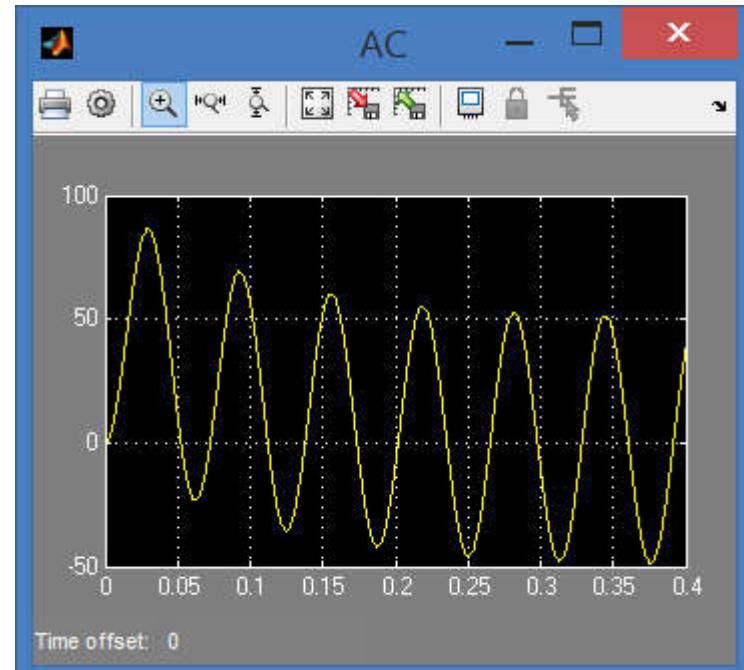
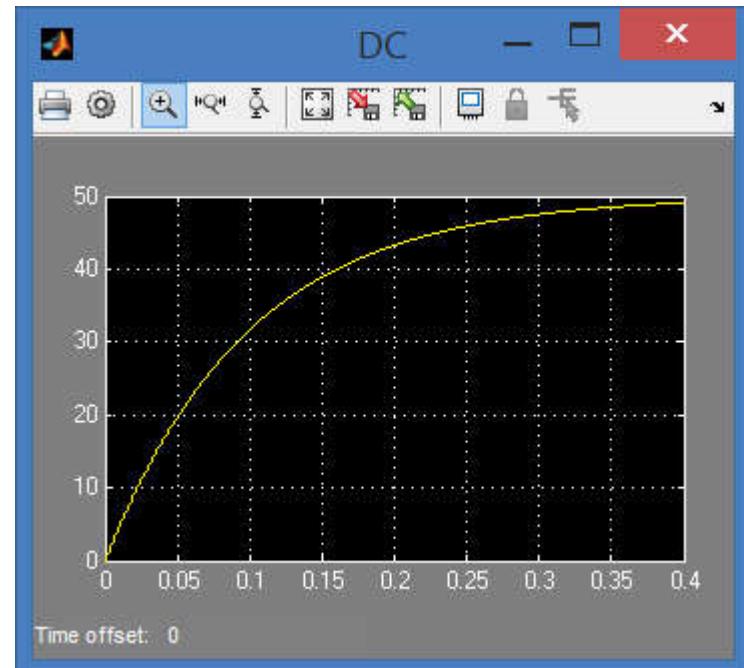
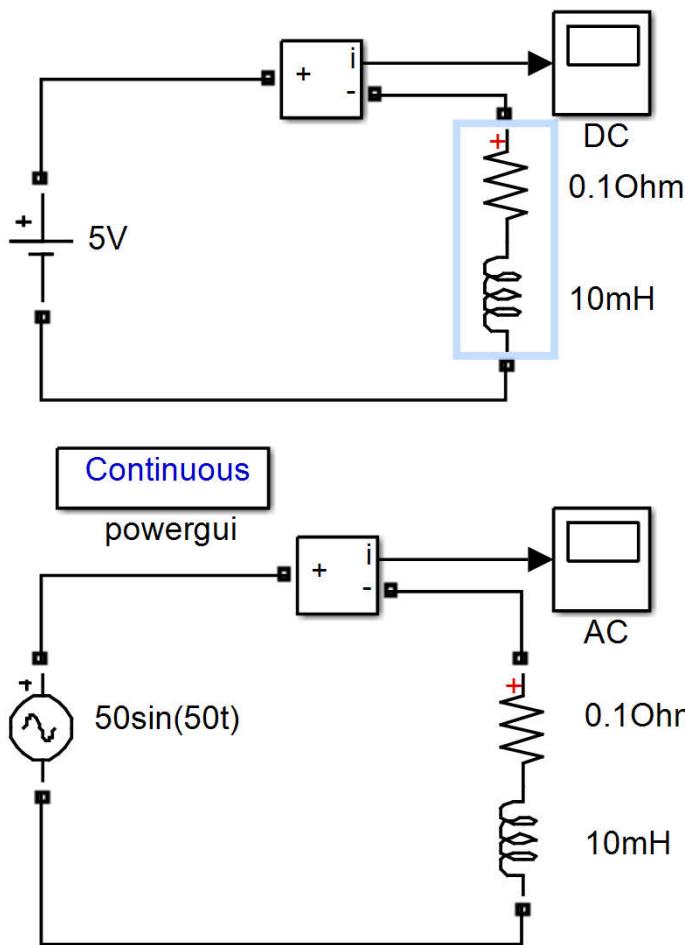
The particular solution

- The particular solution $x_p(t)$ has the same waveform of the forcing term $f(t)$
- If $f(t)$ is constant, then $x_p(t)$ is constant (steady-state solution, constant terms, L is a short circuit, C is an open circuit)
- If $f(t)$ is sinusoidal, then $x_p(t)$ is sinusoidal (sinusoidal steady-state analysis, element L becomes an impedance $Z_L=j\omega L$, C becomes $Z_C=1/(j\omega C)=-j/(\omega C)$)
- Given the initial condition $x_0 = x(0)$

$$x(0) = x_0 = x_c(t) + x_p(t) = A e^{\lambda_0 t} + x_p(0)$$

$$A = x_0 - x_p(0) \quad x_c(t) = (x_0 - x_p(0)) e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$$

Simulink example



Sinusoidal steady-state analysis (a.c.)

- f frequency [Hz]
- ω angular frequency [rad/s]
- φ phase angle (or displacement angle)

- **Phasor:**
- given the sinusoidal function

$$v(t) = V_{\max} \cos(\omega t + \varphi)$$

- the corresponding phasor is
- where

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_{\max}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Root mean square definition

$$P = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T p(t) dt = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T R \cdot i(t)^2 dt = R \cdot \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i(t)^2 dt = R \cdot I_{rms}^2$$

$$I_{rms}^2 = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i(t)^2 dt \Rightarrow I_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i(t)^2 dt} \quad V_{rms}^2 = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T v(t)^2 dt \Rightarrow V_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T v(t)^2 dt}$$

AC voltage-current relations

- Differential operators

$$\frac{d}{dt} = j\omega \quad \int dt = \frac{1}{j\omega} = -\frac{j}{\omega}$$

- X reactance
- B susceptance
- Z impedance
- Y admittance

- R $\bar{V} = R\bar{I} = \bar{Z}_R\bar{I}$

- L $\bar{V} = j\omega L\bar{I} = jX_L\bar{I} = \bar{Z}_L\bar{I}$

- C
$$\begin{cases} \bar{I} = j\omega C\bar{V} = jB_C\bar{V} = \bar{Y}_C\bar{V} \\ \bar{V} = -\frac{j}{\omega C}\bar{I} = -jX_C\bar{I} = \bar{Z}_C\bar{I} \end{cases}$$

Fourier

