Sec. 1.4 Balabanian-Bickart Sec. 1.1 Temes-Lapatra

Definitions

- Network Any structure containing interconnected elements.
- Circuit Usually physical structure constructed from electrical components.
- (A) Linear Network: response proportional to excitation. Superposition applies:

Then
$$k_1 \cdot e_1(t) \rightarrow w_1(t) \quad and \quad e_2(t) \rightarrow w_2(t)$$

$$k_1 \cdot e_1(t) + k_2 \cdot e_2(t) \rightarrow k_1 \cdot w_1(t) + k_2 \cdot w_2(t)$$

idealonly

- (B) **Time-Invariant Network**: $e(t) \rightarrow w(t)$ relation the same if $t \rightarrow t + t_1$. Time varying otherwise.
- (C) Passive Network: EM energy delivered always non-negative. Specifically:

or
$$E(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} v(x)i(x)dx \ge 0$$

$$E(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} v(x)i(x)dx \ge 0$$

$$E(t) = \int_{t_0}^{t} v(x)i(x)dx + E(t_0) \ge 0$$

$$E(t) = \int_{t_0}^{t} v(x)i(x)dx + E(t_0) \ge 0$$

$$Velevente tions$$
This must be true for any voltage and its resulting current for all t .

Otherwise, active.

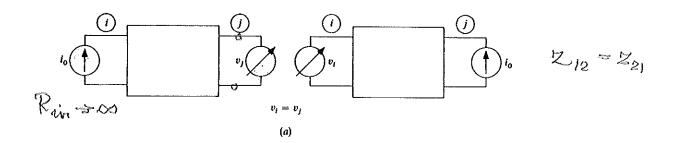
- (D) Lossless Circuit: input energy is always equal to the energy stored in the network. Otherwise, lossy.
- (E) **Distributed Network**: must use Maxwell's equation to analyze. Examples: transmission lines, high speed VLSI circuits, PCBs.

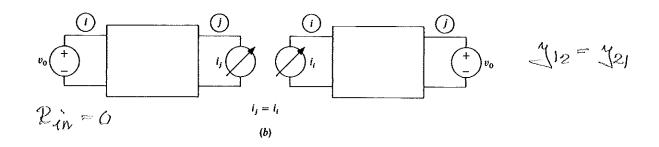
Lumped

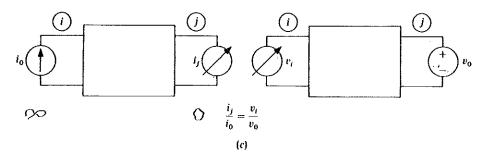
(F) Memoryless or Resistivity Circuit: no energy storing elements. Response depends only on instantaneous excitation. Otherwise, dynamic or memoried circuit.

Sec. 1.4 Balabanian-Bickart Sec. 1.1 Temes-Lapatra

(G) **Reciprocity**: response remains the same if excitation and response locations are interchanged. Specifically:





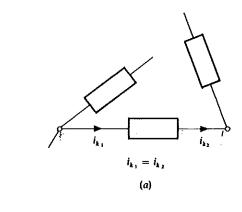


Otherwise, non-reciprocal.

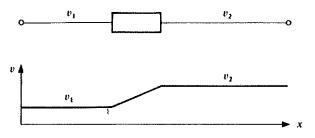
$$k_{12} = -k_{21}$$
 $g_{12} = -g_{21}$

Sec. 1.4 Balabanian-Bickart Sec. 1.1 Temes-Lapatra

(H) Lumped Network: physical dimensions can be considered zero. In reality, much smaller than the wavelength of the signal.



KCL



(b)

Branch ego

(I) Continuous-Time Circuit: the signals can take on any value at any time.

7

(J) Sampled-Data Circuit: the signals have a known value only at some discrete time instances. Digital, analog circuits.

An ideal RLC circuit is linear, time-invariant, passive, lossy, reciprocal, lumped, dynamic continuous-time network.

N	4
-	7)
Carrie Ca	L./

		Voltage-Current Relationship			
Element	Parameter	Direct	Inverse	Symbol	
Resistor	Resistance <i>R</i> Conductance <i>G</i>	v = Ri	$i = \frac{1}{R}v = Gv$	r R	associaled
Inductor	Inductance L Inverse Inductance T	$v = L \frac{di}{dt}$	$i(t) = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^t v(x) dx + i(0)$	1 0000 · v	Associable directions
Capacitor	Capacitance C Elastance D	$i = C \frac{dv}{dt}$	$v(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int_0^t i(x) dx + v(0)$	'↓ + ;	for A & i

duals

Table 1

Each passive;

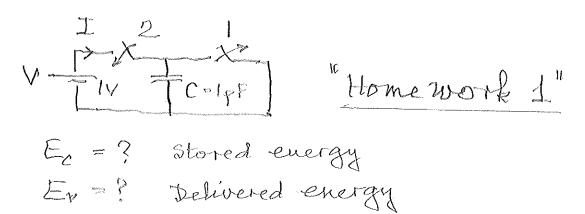
Assuming standard references, the energy delivered to each of the elements starting at a time when the current and voltage were zero will be:

$$E_R(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t'} Ri^2(x) dx \ge 0 \qquad \qquad \stackrel{\text{(67)}}{\approx} > 0$$

$$E_{R}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t'} Ri^{2}(x) dx \ge 0 \qquad (67)$$

$$E_{L}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} L \frac{di(x)}{dx} i(x) dx = \int_{0}^{i(t)} Li di = \frac{1}{2} Li^{2}(t) \ge 0 \qquad (68)$$

$$E_C(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} C \frac{dv(x)}{dx} v(x) dx = \int_{0}^{v(t)} Cv' dv' = \frac{1}{2} Cv^2(t) \ge 0$$
 (69)



Port Two port

Ideal Transformer:

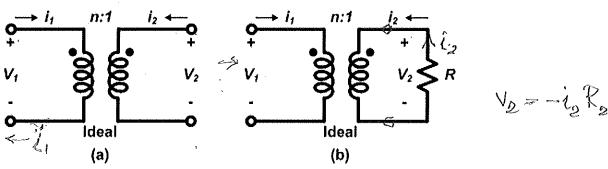


Fig. 6 An ideal transformer

Defined in terms of the following v-i relationships:

v-i relationships:

$$v_1 = nv_2$$

$$i_2 = -ni_1$$
(70a)

01

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ i_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & n \\ -n & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (70c)

$$v_1 = nv_2 = -nRi_2 = (n^2R)i_1$$

$$R_{in} = N^2R$$
(71)

At the input terminals, then, the equivalent resistance is n^2R . Observe that the total energy delivered to the ideal transformer from connections made at its terminals will be

$$E(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} (v_1(x)i_1(x) + v_2(x)i_2(x))dx = 0$$
 (72)

Lossless, memoryless!

The right-hand side results when the v-i relations of the ideal transformer are inserted in the middle. Thus, the device is passive; it transmits, but neither stores nor dissipates energy.

Memoryless!

Sec. 1.5 Balabanian-Bickart

(C) {| Physical Transformer:

L₁: primary self-inductance

M: mutual inductance



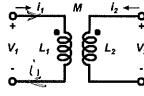


Fig. 7 A transformer

v. Two-port

The diagram is almost the same except that the diagram of the ideal transformer shows the turns ratio directly on it. The transformer is characterized by the following v-i relationships for the reference shown in Fig. 7:

$$v_1 = L_1 \frac{di_1}{dt} + M \frac{di_2}{dt}$$
 (73a)
Prikary self-ikd,

And

$$v_2 = M \frac{di_1}{dt} + L_2 \frac{di_2}{dt}$$
 (73b)

Thus it is characterized by three parameters: the two self-inductances L_1 and L_2 , and the mutual inductance M. The total energy delivered to the transformer from external sources is

$$E(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} [v_{1}(x)i_{1}(x) + v_{2}(x)i_{2}(x)]dx$$

$$= \int_{0}^{t_{1}} L_{1}i_{1}'di_{1}' + \int_{0}^{t_{1},i_{2}} Md(i_{1}'i_{2}') + \int_{0}^{t_{2}} L_{2}i_{2}'di_{2}'$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(L_{1}i_{1}^{2} + 2Mi_{1}i_{2} + L_{2}i_{2}^{2}) \ge 0 \quad \text{older to physical}$$

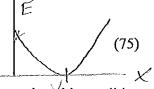
$$L_{1}x^{2} + 2Mx + L_{2} \quad \text{considerations}$$

x & 1/12

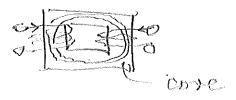
It is easy to show that the last line will be non-negative if

Homework 2"

 $\frac{M^2}{L_1 L_2} = k^2 \le 1$



Since physical considerations require the transformer to be passive, this condition must apply. The quantity k is called the *coefficient of coupling*. Its maximum value is unity for a closely-coupled transformer.



A transformer for which the coupling coefficient takes on its maximum value k = 1 is called a perfect, or perfectly coupled, transformer. A perfect transformer is not the same thing as an ideal transformer. To find the difference, turn to the transformer equations (73) and insert the perfecttransformer condition $M = \sqrt{L_1 L_2}$; then take the ratio v_1/v_2 . The result will be

$$\frac{v_1}{v_2} = \frac{L_1 \frac{di_1}{dt} + \sqrt{L_1 L_2} \frac{di_2}{dt}}{\sqrt{L_1 L_2} \frac{di_1}{dt} + L_2 \frac{di_2}{dt}} = \sqrt{L_1 / L_2}.$$
 (76)

This expression is identical with $v_1 = nv_2$ for the ideal transformer if

$$n = \sqrt{L_1/L_2} \,. \tag{77}$$

Next let us consider the current ratio. Since (73) involve the derivatives of the currents, it will be necessary to integrate. The result of inserting the perfect-transformer condition $M = \sqrt{L_1 L_2}$ and the value n = $\sqrt{L_1/L_2}$, and integrating (73a) from 0 to t will yield, after rearranging,

$$i_1(t) = -\frac{1}{n}i_2(t) + \left\{\frac{1}{L_1}\int_0^t v_1(x) dx + \left[i_1(0) + \frac{1}{n}i_2(0)\right]\right\}. \tag{78}$$

This is to be compared with $i_1 = -i_2/n$ for the ideal transformer. The form of the expression in brackets suggests the v-i equation for an inductor. The diagram shown in Fig. 8 satisfies both (78) and (76). It shows how a perfect transformer is related to an ideal transformer. If, in a perfect transformer, L_1 and L_2 are permitted to approach infinity, but in such a way that their ratio remains constant, the result will be an ideal transformer.

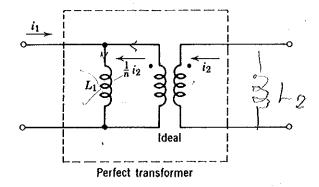


Fig. 8. Relationship between a perfect and an ideal transformer.

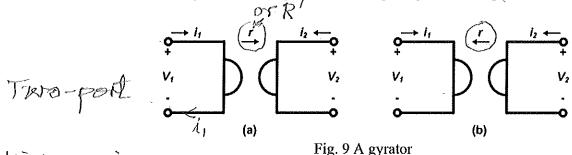
Losssless, memoried element.

(D) The Gyrator:

Definitions:

gyration res.

- Port: Two terminals, both input leads always carrying the same current.
- Gyrator: A two port network requiring active components for realization.



V(ja) = 1+12

Often used to transform (convert) impedance into a different kind. Generally,

Time domain analysis
$$Z_{in} = \frac{r^2}{Z_{load}} \qquad [\omega \ o \in S \ domain$$

$$V_{1} = -ri_{2} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{bmatrix} V_{1} \\ V_{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -r \\ r & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{1} \\ i_{2} \end{bmatrix} \qquad (79a)$$

For Fig. 9(b) $V_{1} = ri_{2} \quad V_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} V_{1} \\ V_{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & r \\ -r & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{1} \\ i_{2} \end{bmatrix}$ (79b)

$$E(t) = \int_{0}^{t} (v_1 i_1 + v_2 i_2) dx = \int_{0}^{t} [(-ri_2)i_1 + (ri_1)i_2] dx = 0$$
 (80)

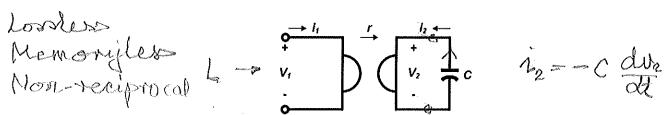


Fig. 11 Gyrator terminated in a capacitor C

 $i_2 = -C \frac{dv_2}{dt}$. Therefore, upon inserting the v-i relations associated with the gyrator, we observe that

$$v_{1} = -ri_{2} = -r\left(-C\frac{dv_{2}}{dt}\right) = rC\frac{d(ri_{1})}{dt} = r^{2}C\frac{di_{1}}{dt} \triangleq L\frac{di_{1}}{dt}$$

$$V = \int_{1}^{\infty} kS$$

(The first one is more practical, using transconductors)

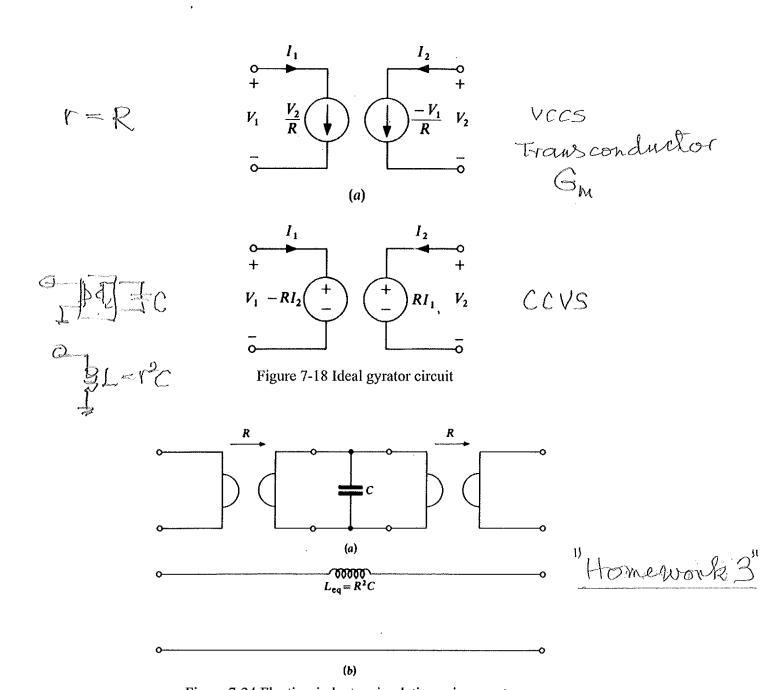
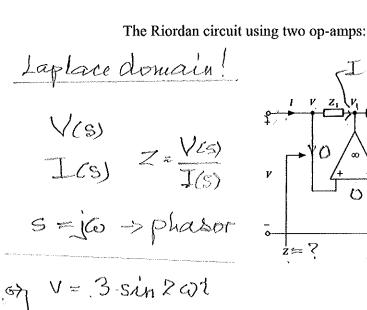
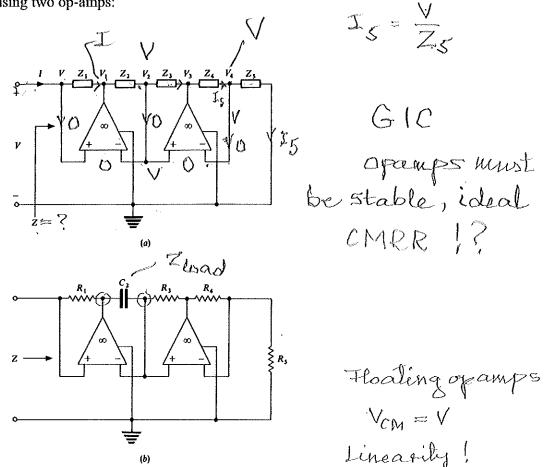


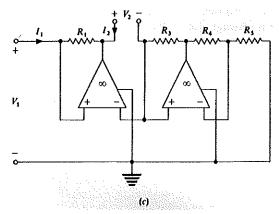
Figure 7-24 Floating-inductor simulation using gyrator

Sec. 7.3 Temes-Lapatra



Li= cos 2wl





gyncolor

Figure 7-19 The Riordan circuit: (a) basic circuit;

(b) used as an inductor; (c) used as a gyrator

A circuit which uses two grounded-output op-amps and is useful for the realization of either GICs or GIIs is shown in Fig. 7-19a.† The input impedance Z can easily be found, as follows. When we recall that the input voltage of an op-amp is very nearly zero,

$$V \approx V_2 \approx V_4 \tag{7-62}$$

is obtained. Also, if we denote the current through Z_1 by I_1 (with the reference direction pointing left to right), the current through Z_2 by I_2 , etc., clearly

$$I_{1} \approx I \qquad V - V_{1} = I_{1}Z_{1} \approx V_{2} - V_{1} = -I_{2}Z_{2}$$

$$I_{3} \approx I_{2} \qquad V_{2} - V_{3} = I_{3}Z_{3} \approx V_{4} - V_{3} = -I_{4}Z_{4}$$

$$I_{5} \approx I_{4} \qquad V \approx V_{4} = I_{5}Z_{5}$$
(7-63)

Here we assumed, as usual, that the current in the input leads of the op-amps is zero.

Working backward in (7-63) leads to

$$V \approx I_5 Z_5 \approx I_4 Z_5 \approx -I_3 \frac{Z_3}{Z_4} Z_5 \approx -I_2 \frac{Z_3}{Z_4} Z_5 \approx I_1 \frac{Z_1}{Z_2} \frac{Z_3}{Z_4} Z_5 \approx I \frac{Z_1 Z_3 Z_5}{Z_2 Z_4}$$
(7-64)

Hence

$$Z = \frac{V}{I} \approx \frac{Z_1 Z_3 Z_5}{Z_2 Z_4} \tag{7-65}$$

If Z_5 is regarded as a load impedance, the circuit behaves like a GIC; (7-46) takes the form

$$Z(s) = f(s)Z_5(s) \qquad f(s) \equiv \frac{Z_1(s)Z_3(s)}{Z_2(s)Z_4(s)}$$
 (7-66)

If, for example, $Z_1=R_1$, $Z_2=1/sC_2$, $Z_3=R_3$, $Z_4=R_4$, and $Z_5=R_5$ (Fig. 7-19b), then $f(s)=R_1\,R_3/[(1/sC_2)R_4]$ and

$$Z = \frac{R_1 R_3}{(1/sC_2)R_4} R_5 = s \frac{R_1 C_2 R_3 R_5}{R_4} = S L \qquad (7-67)$$

Hence, the input impedance is that of an *inductor*, with an equivalent inductance value $L_{eq} = R_1 C_2 R_3 R_5 / R_4$.

As (7-67) suggests, and as can be directly verified from (7-65), the two-port formed by regarding the terminals of Z_2 as an output port is a *gyrator* if all other impedances are purely resistive (Fig. 7-19c). More generally, if the terminals of Z_5 (or Z_1 or Z_3) constitute the output port, the circuit of Fig. 7-19a is a GIC; if the terminals of Z_2 (or Z_4) form the output port, the resulting two-port is a GII.

Assume now that we choose Z_2 and Z_4 as capacitive and Z_1 , Z_3 , and Z_5 as resistive impedances. Then (7-65) gives, for $s = j\omega$,

$$Z(j\omega) = \frac{R_1 R_3 R_5}{(1/j\omega C_2)(1/j\omega C_4)} = -\omega^2 R_1 C_2 R_3 C_4 R_5$$
 (7-68)

We note that $Z(j\omega)$ is pure real, negative, and a function of ω . Such an impedance is called a *frequency-dependent negative resistance* (FDNR). A slightly different form of FDNR can be obtained, e.g., by choosing Z_1 and Z_3 as capacitors and Z_2 , Z_4 , and Z_5 as resistors. Then

$$Z(j\omega) = -\frac{R_5}{C_1 R_2 C_3 R_4 \omega^2}$$
 (7-69)

As we shall see later, FDNRs are very useful for the design of active filters.