EXPERIMENT 7:
Frequency Dependence in Circuits
SERIES AND PARALLEL RLC RESONATOR CIRCUITS

Equipment List

- S_1 BK Precision 4011 or 4011A 5 MHz Function Generator
- OS BK 2120B Dual Channel Oscilloscope
- V_1 BK 388B Multimeter
- L_1 Leeds & Northrup #1532 100 mH Inductor
- R_1 Leeds & Northrup #4754 Decade Resistor
- C_3 Cornell-Dubilier #CDA2 Decade Capacitor
- C_2 Cornell-Dubilier #CDB3 Decade Capacitor

Introduction

Consider the LRC circuit drawn to the right. According to Kirchoff s Law, at any time after the switch is closed we must find

$$V = V_R + V_C + V_L$$
$$V = iR_t + \frac{Q}{C} + L\frac{di}{dt}$$

(1)

Figure 1: LRC Circuit

where the total resistance in the circuit is the sum of the external resistance and the internal resistance of the inductance; i.e. $R_t = R + R_L$. Taking account of the relation dq/dt = i, after the switch is closed, the derivative of this equation is

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = R_t\frac{di}{dt} + \frac{1}{C}i + L\frac{d^2i}{dt^2}$$

(2)

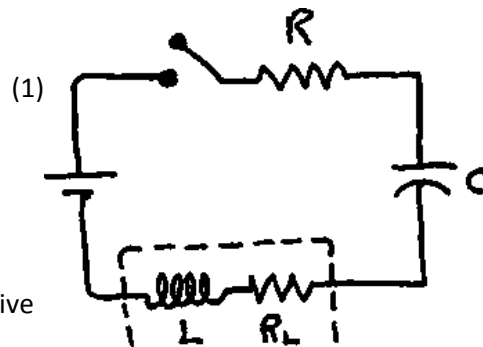A solution to this second order differential equation is known to be damped harmonic and, for the initial conditions q = i = 0, given by

$$i = \frac{V}{L\sqrt{\delta}}e^{-\frac{R_t}{2L}t}\sin\left[(\sqrt{\delta})t\right]$$

(3)

This equation contains an exponential damping term times a sine wave term where the frequency of the sine wave is

$$\omega_{th} = \sqrt{\delta} \quad \delta = \frac{1}{LC} - \frac{R_t^2}{4L^2}$$

(4)

This solution has three regions of interest:

1. **underdamped** ($\delta > 0$) - the solution is damped oscillations

2. **overdamped** ($\delta < 0$) - the argument of the sine function is complex; thus, the sine function becomes a real exponential

3. **critically damped** ($\delta = 0$) - the current returns to zero in the shortest possible time.
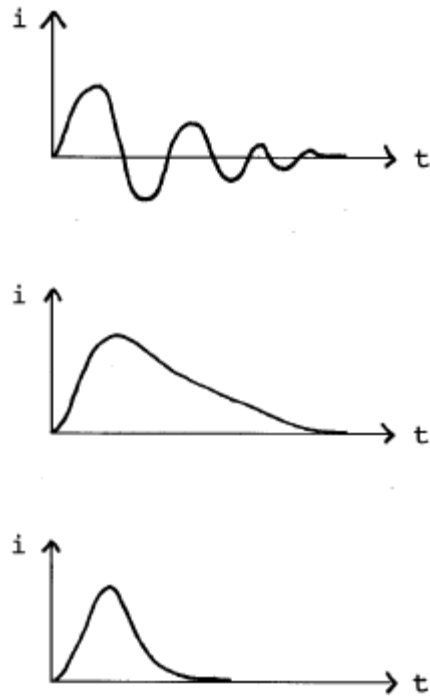
It should be recognized that in any circuit which undergoes an abrupt change in voltage these effects will be present. Case one is the most frequent and is called ringing.

In an alternating current LRC circuit the change in voltage with time in equation 2 is no longer zero, and whatever transient effects due to the turning on of the AC generator will quickly disappear. For a sine wave input, the solution to equation 2 is also a sine wave. For the series circuit, the current is the same through all components. As we observed last week, the voltage across the capacitor lags the current by 90°. Thus, V_L and V_C are 180° out of phase with one another in the series circuit. If we choose the phase of the current to be zero, the current can be written as

Figure 2: Underdamped, Overdamped, and Critically Damped LRC Circuit Response

$$i_s = I \sin(\omega t) \tag{5}$$

Then the source voltage is

$$v_s = V \; \sin(\omega t + \phi) \tag{6}$$

where the source voltage leads the current by the phase angle

$$\phi = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega L - 1/\omega C}{R}\right) \tag{7}$$

The phase angle can be illustrated by the vector representation in Figure 3. In this example the inductive reactance $X_L = \omega L$ is greater than the capacitive reactance $X_C = 1/\omega C$, thus, the phase angle is positive and the source voltage leads the source current. For a constant amplitude source
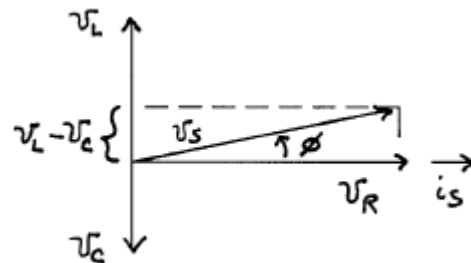
Figure 3 Phase Relationships

Experiment 7, Frequency Dependence in Circuits

$$I = \frac{V}{Z} \tag{8}$$

where the impedance Z is given by

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + \left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)^2} \tag{9}$$

The important difference between the LRC circuit and that of either the RC or RL circuits is that the current does not asymptotically increase or decrease but has a maximum. Note the behavior of the impedance

$$Z \to \begin{cases} \infty & as \;\; \omega \to 0 \\ \infty & as \;\; \omega \to \infty \end{cases} \tag{10}$$

Note that the current goes to zero when the impedance becomes infinite. Thus, the current is zero for zero frequency, peaks for some finite frequency, and then drops to zero for large frequencies. The current reaches a maximum when the impedance is a minimum, or equivalently, for that frequency where the capacitive and inductive reactances are equal; i.e., from equation 9

$$\omega_o L - \frac{1}{\omega_o C} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \omega_o = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \tag{11}$$

This type of circuit is a selective filter and is the basis for tuning in radios and TVs, etc. A measure of how sharp the resonance peak is, or the fineness of tuning, is called the Q factor of the circuit. The Q value is defined as the inverse of the fractional bandwidth.

$$\frac{1}{Q} = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_o} = \frac{\Delta f}{f_o} \tag{12}$$

In an LRC series circuit the Q value can be calculated for R not too large as
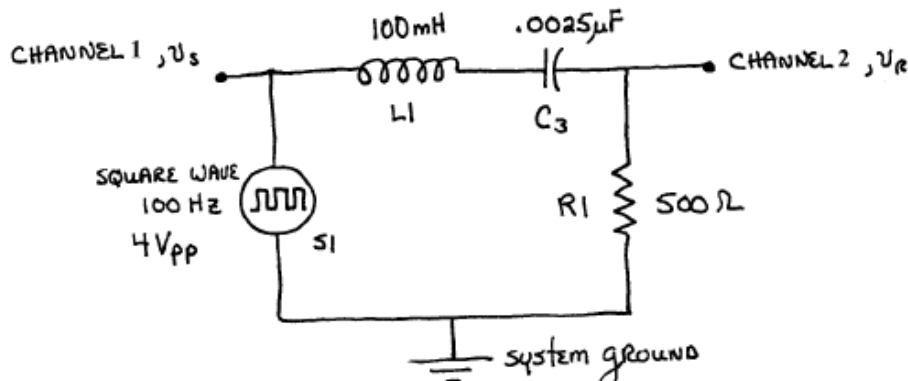
$$Q = \frac{\omega_o L}{R} \tag{13}$$

Part1: Ringing

Figure 4:Laboratory Setup for Ringing

a. Measure the resistance of the inductor L_1 with your multimeter.
b. Construct the circuit shown above. This should produce an underdamped circuit.
c. Using equation 4, calculate δ and then the theoretical frequency of oscillation, f_{th}.
d. Measure the actual frequency of oscillation from the channel 2 of the oscilloscope.
e. Vary R and C around the given values.

Question 1: What are the most obvious effects of changing R and C? Answer in terms of equations 3 and 4.

f. For L = 100 mH and R = 500 Ω, calculate the value of C needed to produce critical damping.
g. Adjust C for critical damping on the oscilloscope.

Part II: Resonance

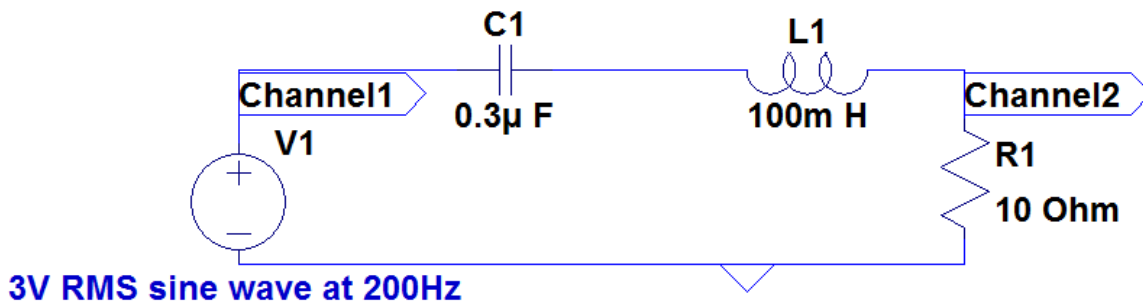a. Set up the following circuit to determine the resonance frequency and Q of the circuit experimentally.

Figure 5 Series Resonance Circuit

Note: The 10Ω resistor is a current transducer, turning current into voltage by Ohms Law.

b. Look for a resonance around 900 Hz. <u>Remember to keep the source voltage constant</u>. The resonance is reached when V_R is a maximum. When you find resonance frequency, make many measurements around the resonance.
c. Measure V_R as a function of frequency about the resonance.
d. Plot $I_R{}^2$ versus frequency. This curve is proportional to power.
e. Determine the resonance frequency f_0 and the bandwidth Δf from your plot.
f. Calculate the Q of the circuit from equation 13.
g. Using equation 12, determine Q from the power plot.

Part III: Parallel Resonance

a. Set up the following circuit to determine the resonance frequency the parallel circuit experimentally
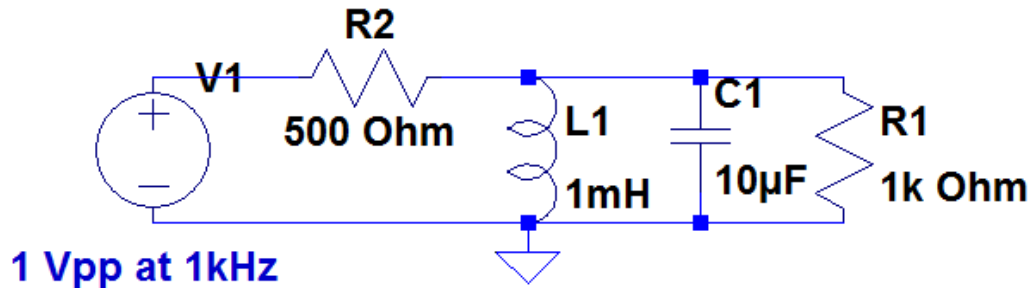

Figure 6: Parallel Resonant Circuit (tank circuit)

b. Set up the following circuit to determine the resonance frequency the parallel circuit experimentally.
c. Measure V_R for the load resistor as a function of frequency about the resonance.
d. Plot I_R^2 of versus frequency. This curve is proportional to power. From the graph determine the resonance frequency.
e. Analyze the circuit theoretically using complex impedances and compare your results to your experimentally determined resonance. (For this part ignore the internal resistance of the inductor.

Part IV: The Transformer

In a transformer made up of to coils of wire, one inside the other, the voltage developed across the loops is not resistive in the sense of an IR drop, but is given by Faraday's law as

$$V_1 = -N_1 \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} \tag{14}$$

where (p is the magnetic flux through each loop. If we assume that all of the magnetic field lines from loop 1 go through loop 2, as shown, then the change in flux/loop in loop two is just the change in flux/loop in loop one; thus, there is an EMF developed in the second loop given by

$$V_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} \tag{15}$$

where the difference in EMF's is due to the different number of turns in the two loops. In both loops the rate of change of the magnetic flux with time is the same. We can use this fact to show that the EMF's of the two coils can be related by

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{N_1}{N_2} \tag{16}$$

5

which says that the ratio of voltages between loops one and two goes as the ratio of the number of turns (i.e. the turns ratio).

a. Connect channel 1 of the oscilloscope to the inner coil (secondary) of the transformer. These leads are at the top of the transformer. Make sure the iron rod is in place inside the secondary. Connect the outer coil (primary) of the transformer to channel 2 of the oscilloscope. These leads are at the base of the transformer.

b. Send a 100Hz 4Vpp sine wave into the primary from the function generator.

c. Measure and record the peak-to-peak voltage of the secondary.

d. Determine the turns ratio from Eq. 16.

e. Slowly pull the secondary out from the primary holding the rod to the secondary. Since the magnetic flux of the primary no longer goes completely through the secondary you should observe a decrease in the secondary voltage. Replace the secondary coil.

f. Slowly pull the iron rod out from the secondary coil then replace it. The iron rod plays a central role in confining the magnetic field lines inside the secondary. Its removal also acts to decrease the secondary voltage.

Question 3: What happened when you pulled the secondary coil out? What happened when you pulled the iron rod out? Why does this make sense?

Name:_____

Part I:

R_L =

δ =

f_{th} =

f_{obs} =

C(theory) =

C(measured) =

Part II:

L =

Q =

R_L=

f(Hz)	v	i^2
200		
5000		
fo = Q(theory) = Q(measured) =	ω_0=	

Part III:

f(kHz)	v	i^2
1		
10		
$f_o =$	$\omega_o =$	

Part IV:

Peak-to-Peak Secondary Voltage =

Peak-to-Peak Primary Voltage =

Turns Ratio =