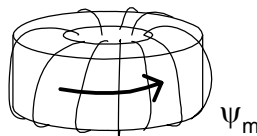


## Lecture 4: RL Circuits. Inductive Kick. Diode Snubbers.

Inductors are the third basic discrete component listed in Lecture 2. Uses for inductors in the NorCal 40A include **filters** and RF “**chokes**.” The latter provides essentially a short circuit at DC and nearly an open circuit at RF frequencies. (Essentially the opposite function of a DC blocking capacitor!)


You will wind some of your own inductors for the NorCal 40A. (The others are axial-lead inductors. They look like resistors, but are green with colored bands.)

The inductors you wind will be wound on a toroidal-shaped ferrite core. Toroid inductors are essentially “self shielding” at RF frequencies since most **magnetic flux**  $\psi_m$  is contained in the core.



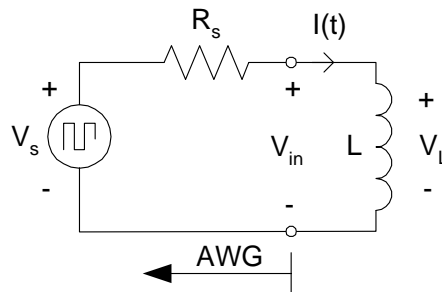
Consequently, these inductors can be placed **close** to each other on a PCB without too much mutual (and undesirable) interaction. However, be careful in your own designs. (For example, keep air-core inductors perpendicular to each other.)

Inductors store energy in a magnetic field. They also **oppose a change in the current** through them.

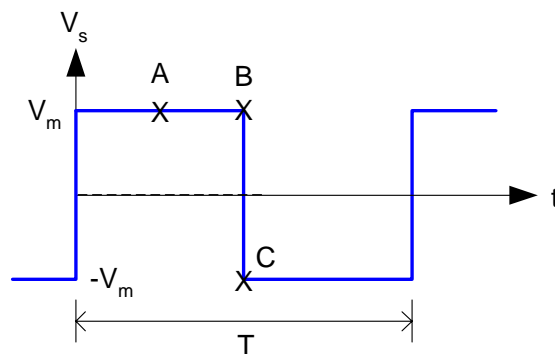
$$V_L = L \frac{dI}{dt}$$


This opposition can cause the inductor voltage to become enormous if there is a big change in the current. Called “**inductive kick.**”

To see this explicitly, consider this simple circuit (an inductor connected directly to an AWG, for example)



The open circuit source voltage is



We will carefully analyze this circuit to predict the input voltage  $V_{in}$ . In the following analysis we'll assume that  $\tau = L/R \ll T/2$ .

1. At “A”  $V_s$  has reached steady state so that  $I(t)$  is nearly constant and approximately equal to  $V_m / (R_s + R_L)$ , where  $R_L$  is the resistance of the inductor.

The work done by the source against the magnetic force produces energy stored in the magnetic field

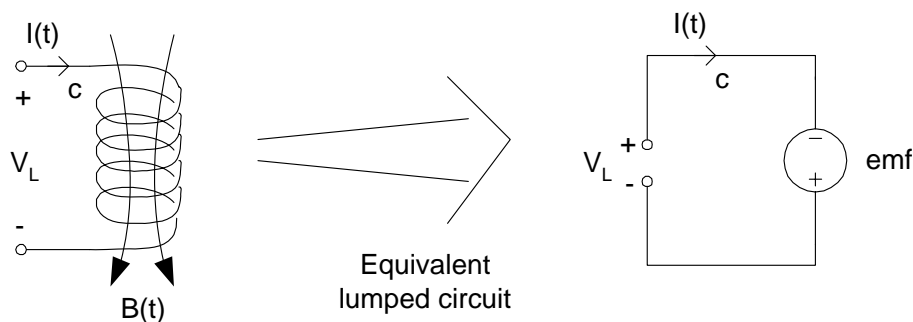
$$W_L = \frac{1}{2} LI^2 \quad [\text{J}]$$

2. From “B” to “C” the source  $V_s$  is switching from  $V_m$  to  $-V_m$  volts. Since  $V_L = L dI/dt$ ,  $I$  cannot change instantly, but it can change rapidly.

3. From **Faraday’s Law of Induction**

$$\text{emf} = -\frac{d\psi_m}{dt} \quad [\text{V}] \quad \text{or} \quad \oint_{c(s)} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_{s(c)} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

where  $\psi_m = \text{magnetic flux} = B(t) \cdot N \cdot A$ , where  $N = \text{number of identical turns of wire}$  and  $A$  is the cross-sectional area.



Recall that as  $V_s$  goes from  $V_m$  to  $-V_m$ , there will be a rapid **decrease** in  $I(t)$ . It’s not an instantaneous change from  $V_m / (R_s + R_L)$  to  $-V_m / (R_s + R_L)$  because of  $L$ , but a rapid change.

However,  $B(t) \propto I(t)$  which implies there will be a rapid **decrease** in  $B(t)$  and, hence,  $\psi_m(t)$ .

4. Therefore, the  $\text{emf} = -d\psi_m/dt$  will be large and **positive**. This emf (a net “**push**” on the charges) keeps current moving in the same direction (from top to bottom in the figure) and thus **opposing change**.

5. Using the equivalent lumped circuit above, we see that

$$V_L = -\text{emf} = \frac{d\psi_m}{dt}$$

Notice the negative sign! With  $\psi_m = LI$ , then

$$V_L = \frac{d}{dt}(LI) = L \frac{dI}{dt} + I \frac{dL}{dt}$$

or

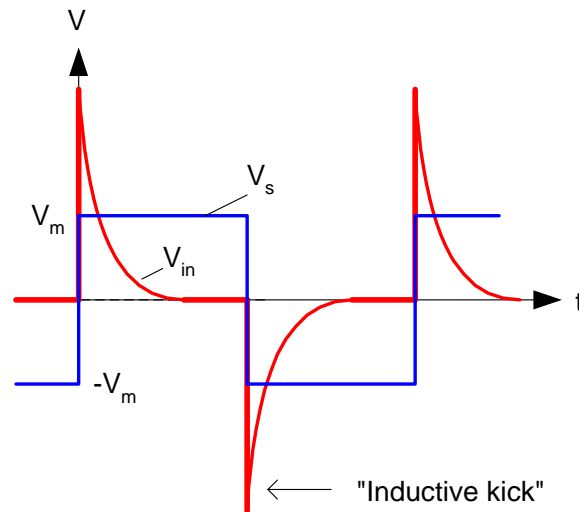
$$V_L = L \frac{dI}{dt} \quad [\text{V}] \quad (1)$$

which is what we originally stated on page 2.

Now, we’ll use (1) to predict the voltage  $V_{\text{in}} = V_L$  shown in the circuit on page 2.

$V_s$	$I(t)$	$V_{\text{in}} \propto \frac{dI}{dt}$
As $V_s$ goes from $V_m \rightarrow -V_m$ .	$I(t)$ is changing rapidly from $\frac{V_m}{R_L + R_s} \rightarrow -\frac{V_m}{R_L + R_s}$ .	<b>Negative</b> spike in voltage. (?)
As $V_s$ goes from $-V_m \rightarrow V_m$ .	$I(t)$ is changing rapidly from $-\frac{V_m}{R_L + R_s} \rightarrow \frac{V_m}{R_L + R_s}$ .	Positive spike in voltage.

In graphical form:

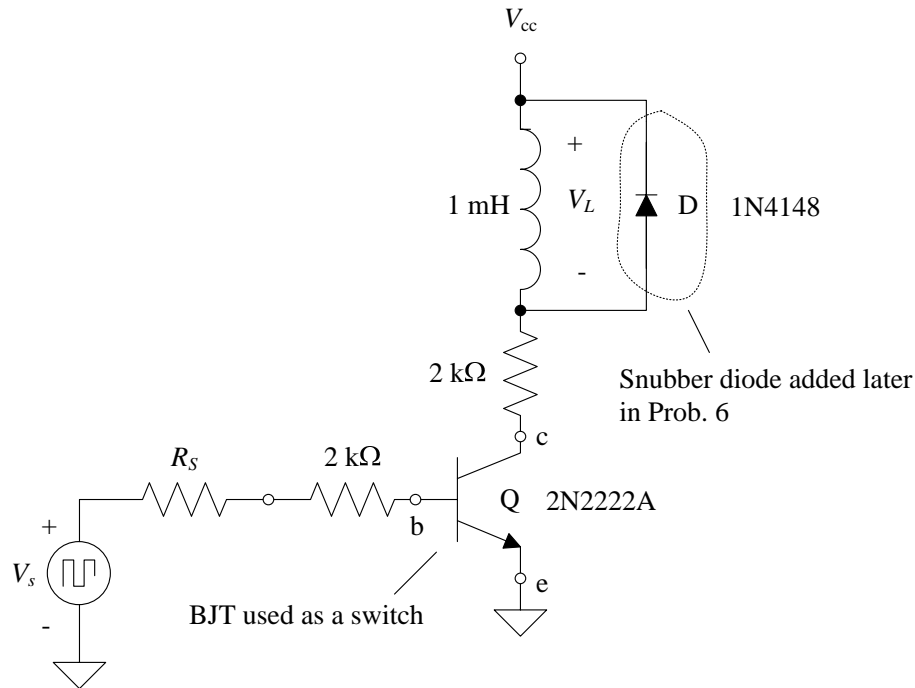


This rapidly changing current in an inductor can produce enormous  $V_{in}$  ( $= V_L$ ). Sometimes this is useful, as in an automobile spark ignition (see Fig. 2.19).

Similarly, this “**inductive kick**” can produce arcing in switches when they turn off electric motors. (I had a switch in a vacuum cleaner burn a hole through beryllium-copper sliding contacts due to this source of arcing.)

In sensitive electronic circuits, such inductive kick can be catastrophic and burn out transistors, for example.

You will study this phenomenon in Probs. 5 and 6. From Fig. 2.32(b) in Prob. 5:



When  $Q$  turns off, there would be a very large and negative voltage  $V_L$  if  $D$  were not present. This large voltage appears across  $c$  and  $e$  of  $Q$ . If this voltage is too large, then  $Q$  could be damaged. (Think of  $L$  as an equivalent inductance of an electric motor, for example.)

With the **snubber diode**  $D$ , this reverse voltage on  $L$  is limited to the forward voltage drop of  $D$ ! (Note that  $D$  must be able to withstand all of the current that initially exists in  $L$  just before  $D$  begins to conduct.)

We'll see the snubber diode again in Prob. 20 inside the Magnecraft W171DIP-7 reed relay.