

When  $R^2 = \frac{4L}{C}$ , the system no longer oscillates.  
↳ critically damped case.



When  $R^2 > \frac{4L}{C}$ , → overdamped. Capacitor charge approaches zero even more slowly.

Ex. What resistance  $R$  is required to give an L-R-C circuit an oscillation frequency that is  $\frac{1}{2}$  the undamped frequency.

undamped frequency:  $\sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}}$

$$\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC} - \frac{R^2}{4L^2}} \Rightarrow R = \frac{3L}{C}$$

## Chap 31 : Alternating Current

Circuits in which voltages and currents vary sinusoidally are called as alternating current circuits.

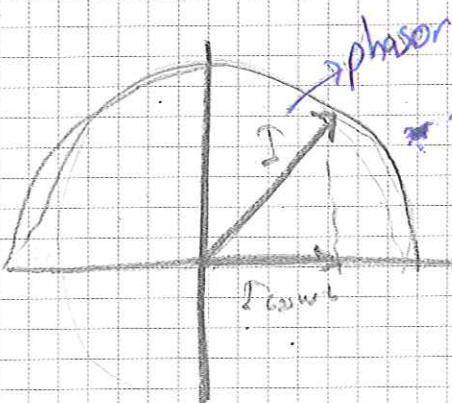
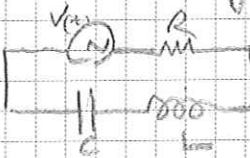
### Phasors and Alternating Currents

A sinusoidal voltage is described as:

$$v = V \cos \omega t$$

A sinusoidal current is described as:

$$i = I \cos \omega t$$

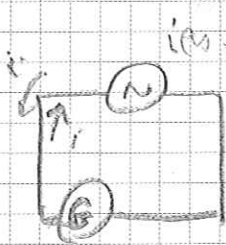


We use phasor diagrams to represent sinusoidally varying voltages and currents. The instantaneous value of a quantity that varies sinusoidally with time is represented by the projection onto a horizontal axis of a vector with a length  $I$ .

"Phasor is the vector in 2D whose projection to the horizontal axis gives the instantaneous value of the variable."



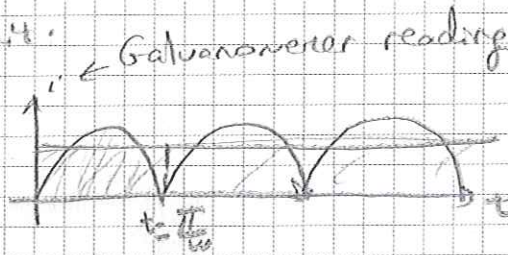
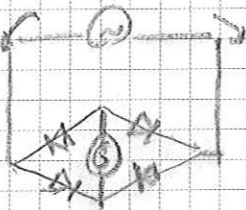
"The vector which rotates <sup>in the</sup> counter-clockwise direction with angular speed  $\omega$  is called a phasor."



AC can be both positive and negative.  
 $\Rightarrow$  If we place a galvanometer (for current measurement) into an AC circuit it will not show a value, unless the oscillations are really slow.

$\frac{0}{\omega}$   $\Rightarrow$  So, we have to find other ways to describe and measure AC.

Full-wave rectifier circuit.



It is consisted of 4 diodes  $\Rightarrow$  these are elements which have 0 resistance in the forward and infinite resistance in the backward direction.

Galvanometer will display an average value:

$$\int_0^{T/2} I \sin \omega t \, dt = I \left[ -\frac{\cos \omega t}{\omega} \right]_0^{T/2} = -\frac{I}{\omega} (-1 - 1) = \frac{2I}{\omega}$$

$$\frac{2I}{\omega} = I_{\text{rav}} \cdot \frac{\pi}{\omega} \Rightarrow \boxed{I_{\text{rav}} = \frac{2}{\pi} I}$$

rectified average value of a sinusoidal current.



AC is also described by the root mean square value:

$I_{rms} = \sqrt{\overline{i(t)^2}}$ , square-root of the time average of current squared.

$$i(t) = I \cos \omega t$$

$$\Rightarrow i(t)^2 = I^2 \cos^2 \omega t = I^2 \left( \frac{1 + \cos 2\omega t}{2} \right) = \frac{I^2}{2} + \frac{I^2}{2} \cos 2\omega t$$

$$\overline{i(t)^2} = \left( \frac{I^2}{2} \right) + \underbrace{\frac{I^2}{2} \cos 2\omega t}_{=0} = \frac{I^2}{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{I^2}{2}$$

$\therefore \boxed{I_{rms} = \frac{I}{\sqrt{2}}}$  root-mean-square value of a sinusoidal current

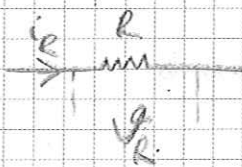
similarly  $\boxed{V_{rms} = \frac{V}{\sqrt{2}}}$

### 31.2 Resistance and Reactance

We will determine how to represent resistors, inductors and capacitors in ac circuits.

⇒ Find the relationships between phasors!

#### Resistor in an AC circuit



$$i_R = I \cos \omega t$$

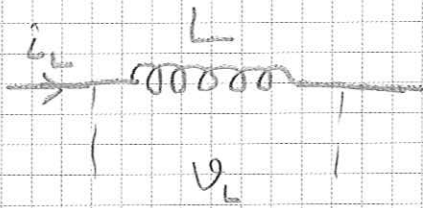
$$\Rightarrow v_R = IR \cos \omega t = V_R \cos \omega t$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_R = IR} \quad \text{phasor relationship}$$





Inductor in an AC circuit



$$i_L = I \cos \omega t$$

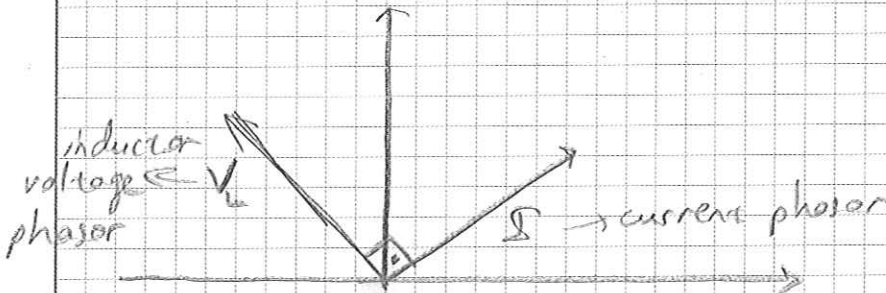
$$E = v_L = L \frac{di_L}{dt} = -LI\omega \sin \omega t$$

$$v_L = -I\omega L \sin \omega t$$

$$v_L = \underbrace{I\omega L}_{V_L} \cos(\omega t + 90^\circ)$$

$\Rightarrow V_L = IX_L \Rightarrow \boxed{X_L = \omega L}$  inductive reactance

↑  
amplitude of voltage across an inductor



Ex 31.2: You want the current amplitude in a pure inductor to be  $250 \mu A$ , when voltage amplitude is  $3.6 V$  at  $f = 1.6 MHz$

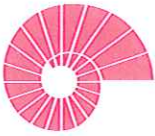
a)  $X_L = ?$   $X_L = \omega L = \frac{V_L}{I} = \frac{3.6 V}{250 \times 10^{-6} A} = 14.4 k\Omega$

$L = ?$

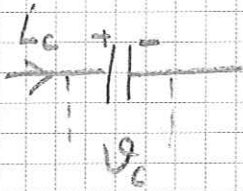
$$L = \frac{14.4 \times 10^3 \Omega}{2\pi \cdot 1.6 \times 10^6 Hz} = 1.43 mH //$$

b) at  $f = 1.6 MHz$   $I = ?$  if  $V_L$  is the same

$$X_L = 2\pi f L = \frac{V_L}{I} \Rightarrow I = \frac{V_L}{2\pi f L} \Rightarrow \boxed{I = 25 \mu A}$$



Capacitor in an AC circuit



Choose the positive direction of current to be towards the + plate of the capacitor.  
 $\Rightarrow$  Capacitor is charging.

$$i_c = \frac{dq}{dt} > 0$$

$$i_c = I \cos \omega t = \frac{dq}{dt}$$

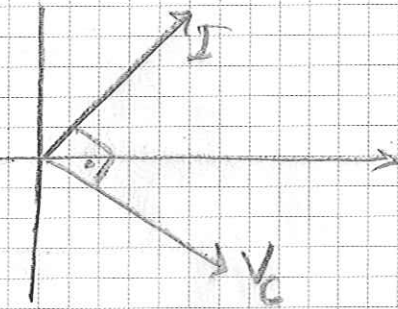
for,

$$\Rightarrow q(t) = \frac{I}{\omega} \sin \omega t, \quad q_0 = 0$$

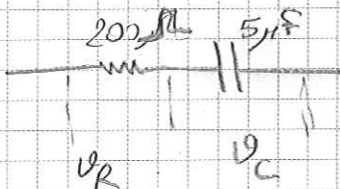
$$q(t) = \frac{I}{\omega} \cos(\omega t - 90^\circ)$$

$$\Rightarrow v_c = \frac{q}{C} = \left( \frac{I}{\omega C} \right) \cos(\omega t - 90^\circ)$$

$$V_c = \frac{I}{\omega C} = I X_c \Rightarrow \boxed{X_c = \frac{1}{\omega C}} \quad \text{capacitive reactance}$$



Ex 31.3: Resistor and capacitor in an AC circuit.



$$v_R = 1.2 \text{ V} \cos(2500 \text{ rad/s } t)$$

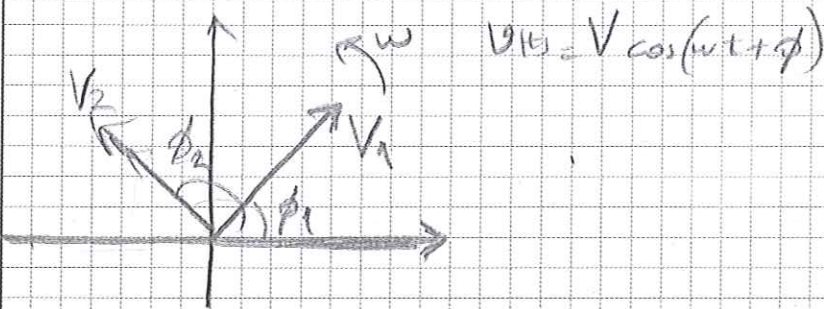
a)  $i = ?$   $i = \frac{v_R}{R} = \frac{1.2 \text{ V} \cos(2500 \text{ rad/s } t)}{200 \Omega} = 6 \text{ mA} \cos(2500 \text{ rad/s } t)$

b)  $X_c = ?$   $X_c = \frac{1}{\omega C} = \frac{1}{2500 \text{ rad/s} \cdot 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ F}} = 80 \Omega$

c)  $v_c = ?$   $v_c = X_c I \sin \omega t = 80 \Omega \cdot 6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ A} \sin(2500 \text{ rad/s } t) = 0.48 \text{ V} \sin(2500 \text{ rad/s } t)$



Phasor Analysis:



$$v_1(t) = V_1 \cos(\omega t + \phi_1) \quad , \quad v_2(t) = V_2 \cos(\omega t + \phi_2)$$

Projection of  $\vec{V}_1$  to the horizontal axis

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \vec{V}_1 &= V_{1x} \hat{i} + V_{1y} \hat{j} \\ \vec{V}_2 &= V_{2x} \hat{i} + V_{2y} \hat{j} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$\rightarrow v(t) = v_1(t) + v_2(t)$$

$$\vec{V}_1 + \vec{V}_2 = \underbrace{(V_{1x} + V_{2x})}_{v(t)} \hat{i} + (V_{1y} + V_{2y}) \hat{j}$$

Summation of the projections of  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  to the horizontal axis is the projection of the vectorial sum of  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  to the horizontal axis.

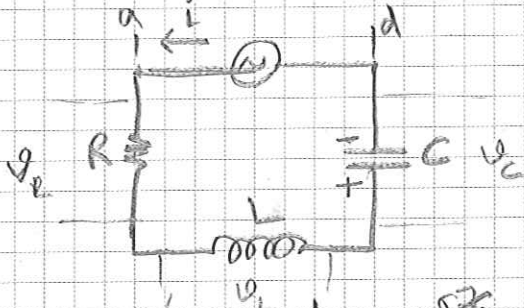
$\Rightarrow$  The phasor of  $v_1(t) + v_2(t)$



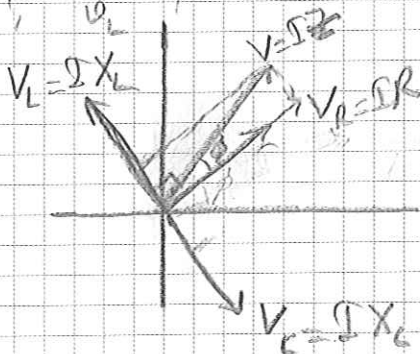


### 31.3 L-R-C Series Circuit

Consider the circuit:



We will use a phasor diagram in order to solve for the circuit.



$$v_{ad} = V \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$\vec{V} = \vec{V}_R + \vec{V}_L + \vec{V}_C$$

$$V = \sqrt{V_R^2 + (V_L - V_C)^2}$$

$$V = \sqrt{I^2 R^2 + I^2 (X_L - X_C)^2}$$

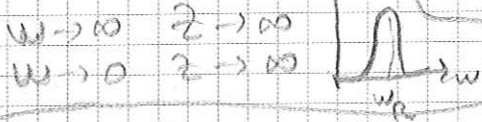
$$V = I \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2}$$

We define the impedance  $Z$  of an AC circuit as:

$$V = I Z \Rightarrow Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2}$$

impedance of an L-R-C series circuit

Band pass filter



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

$$\omega_r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

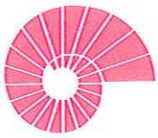
$\therefore$  For a given amplitude  $V$  of the source voltage, the amplitude

$I = \frac{V}{Z}$  will be different at different frequencies.

The angle  $\phi$  between the voltage and current phasors is given by:

$$\tan \phi = \frac{V_L - V_C}{V_R} = \frac{I(X_L - X_C)}{I R} = \frac{\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}}{R}$$

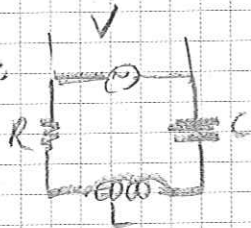
$$\therefore \text{If the current is } i = I \cos \omega t, \quad v = V \cos(\omega t + \phi) = I Z \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$



rms values are related as;  $V_{rms} = \frac{V}{\sqrt{2}}$ ,  $I_{rms} = \frac{I}{\sqrt{2}}$

$$V_{rms} = I_{rms} Z$$

Ex 31.4:



$R = 300\Omega$ ,  $L = 60\text{mH}$ ,  $C = 0.5\mu\text{F}$ ,  $V = 50\text{V}$ ,  $\omega = 1000\text{rad/s}$   
 $\rightarrow X_L, X_C, Z, I, \phi, V_R, V_L, V_C = ?$

$$X_L = \omega L = 1000\text{rad/s} \times 60 \times 10^{-3}\text{H} = 600\Omega$$

$$X_C = \frac{1}{\omega C} = \frac{1}{1000\text{rad/s} \times 0.5 \times 10^{-6}\text{F}} = 200\Omega$$

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2} = \sqrt{(300\Omega)^2 + (400\Omega)^2} = 500\Omega$$

$$I = \frac{V}{Z} = \frac{50\text{V}}{500\Omega} = 0.1\text{A}$$

$$\phi = \arctan\left(\frac{X_L - X_C}{R}\right) = \arctan\left(\frac{400}{300}\right) = 53^\circ$$

$$V_R = IR = 0.1\text{A} \times 300\Omega = 30\text{V}$$

$$V_L = IX_L = 0.1\text{A} \times 600\Omega = 60\text{V}$$

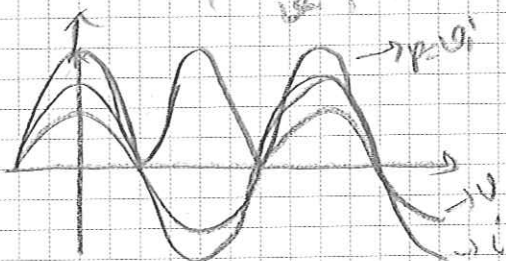
$$V_C = IX_C = 0.1\text{A} \times 200\Omega = 20\text{V}$$

### 31.4 Power in Alternating-Current Circuits

Instantaneous power delivered to a circuit element:

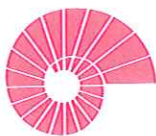


$$p = vi$$

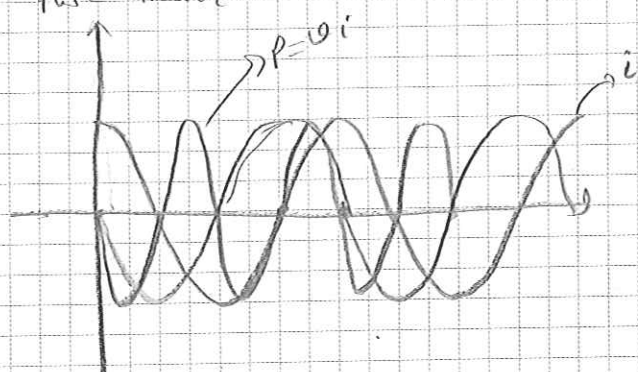


For a pure resistor





Pure inductor



For a pure resistor;  $p = v i = V I \cos^2 \omega t$

$$\Rightarrow P_{av} = V I \overline{\cos^2 \omega t} = V I \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\cos 2\omega t}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{V I}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{P_{av} = V_{rms} I_{rms}}$$

For an arbitrary circuit element:

$$p = v i = V \cos(\omega t + \phi) I \cos \omega t = V I \cos(\omega t + \phi) \cos \omega t$$

$$= V I \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \cos(\omega t + \phi) + \cos(\phi) \right] \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow P_{av} = \frac{V I}{2} \left\{ \underbrace{\cos(2\omega t + \phi)}_0 + \cos \phi \right\} = \frac{V I}{2} \cos \phi = \boxed{V_{rms} I_{rms} \cos \phi}$$

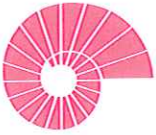
The factor  $\cos \phi$  is called the power factor.

For a pure resistance  $\phi = 0 \Rightarrow P_{av} = V_{rms} I_{rms}$

" " inductor  $\phi = 90^\circ \Rightarrow P_{av} = 0$

capacitor  $\phi = -90^\circ \Rightarrow P_{av} = 0$

} no average  
power delivered  
to an inductor  
or a capacitor



Ex 31.6: Power in a hair dryer

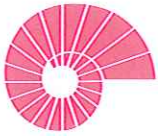
An electric hair dryer is rated  $\overbrace{1500 \text{ W}}$  at  $\overbrace{120 \text{ V}}$  rms voltage

a)  $R = ?$   $P_{\text{av}} = V_{\text{rms}} I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}^2}{R} \Rightarrow R = \frac{(120 \text{ V})^2}{1500 \text{ W}} = 9.6 \Omega$

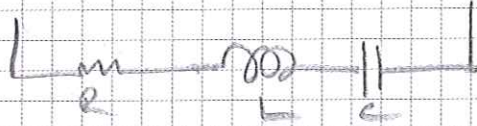
b) rms current ;  $I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}}{R} = \frac{120 \text{ V}}{9.6 \Omega} = 12.5 \text{ A}$

c) Maximum instant. power

$P_{\text{max}} = V I = 2 V_{\text{rms}} I_{\text{rms}} = 3000 \text{ W}$



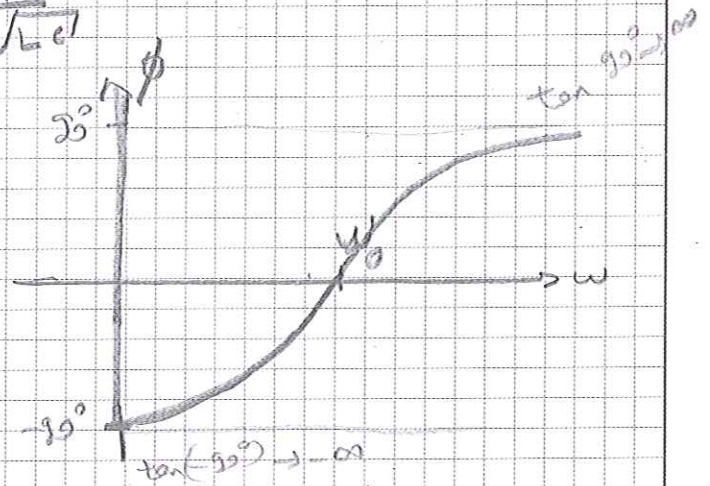
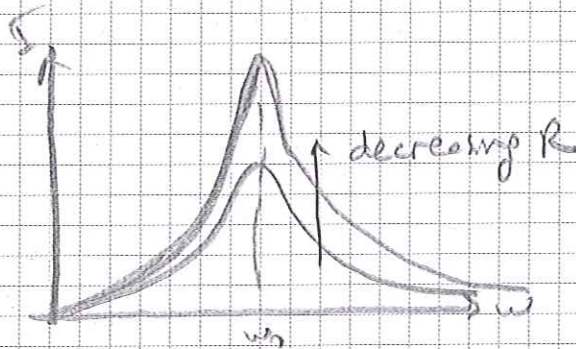
31.5 Resonance in Alternating Current Circuits



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

$\tan \phi = \frac{X_L - X_C}{R} = \frac{\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}}{R}$  , angle  $\phi$  between  $V$  and  $I$ .

$Z$  reaches to a minimum at  $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$



"Resonance"

Tuning is possible

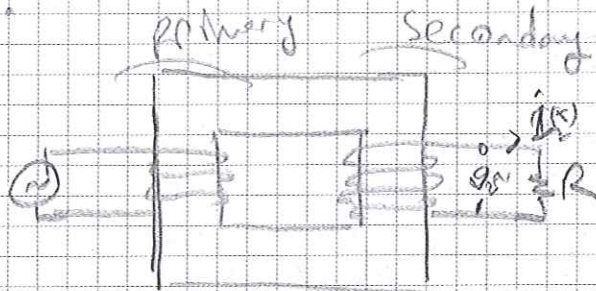
by changing  $L$  or  $C$ .

"Analog Radio and Television receiving circuits"



### 31.6 Transformers

It is much easier to change voltage levels in AC as compared to DC.



Two coils of different windings.

Core made of a magnetizable material so that the magnetic field lines remain in the core.

When we assume that all the magnetic field lines are confined to the iron core,  $\Phi_B$  is the same in both coils,

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = -N_1 \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}, \quad \mathcal{E}_2 = -N_2 \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\mathcal{E}_1}{N_1} = \frac{\mathcal{E}_2}{N_2} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\mathcal{E}_2}{\mathcal{E}_1} = \frac{N_2}{N_1}}$$

Exercise: Power delivered from the primary:

$$P_1 = \cancel{V_1 I_1} = \boxed{V_2 I_2}, \text{ there is no resistance in windings.}$$

$$V_2 = V_1 \frac{N_2}{N_1} = I_2 R$$

$$\cancel{V_1 I_1} = \cancel{V_1} \frac{N_2}{N_1} \frac{V_1}{N_1} \frac{N_2}{N_1} \frac{V_1}{R} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{V_1^2}{R} \left(\frac{N_2}{N_1}\right)^2}$$

Transformer transforms the resistance

$$\frac{V_1^2}{R} \left(\frac{N_2}{N_1}\right)^2 \Rightarrow \boxed{P = V_1 \frac{V_1}{R_{eq}} = \frac{V_1^2}{R_{eq}}}$$

$R_{eq} = \frac{R}{\left(\frac{N_2}{N_1}\right)^2}$