

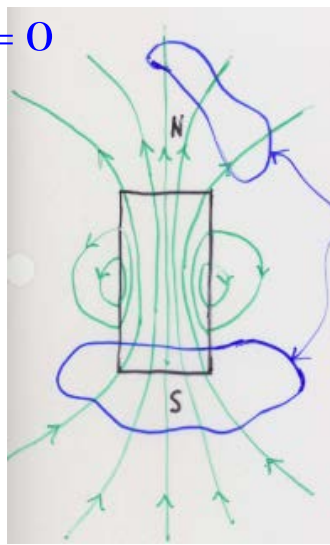
TABLE 9.1 Generalized Forms of Maxwell's Equations

Differential Form	Integral Form	Remarks
$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = \rho_v$	$\oint_S \mathbf{D} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int_v \rho_v dv$	Gauss's law –how charges produce electric fields –field lines begin / end on q
$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$	$\oint_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$	Nonexistence of isolated magnetic charge* –magnetic field lines have neither end nor beginning
$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$	$\oint_L \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$	Faraday's law –changing ϕ_B produces \vec{E}
$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = \mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t}$	$\oint_L \mathbf{H} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int_S \left(\mathbf{J} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{D}}{\partial t} \right) \cdot d\mathbf{S}$	Ampère's circuit law –electric current and changing ϕ_E produces \vec{B}

*This is also referred to as Gauss's law for magnetic fields.

displacement current

Re $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$



*closed
surfaces*

- no magnetic monopoles : only dipoles
- since magnetic field lines are continuous, # of lines entering a closed surface = # lines leaving

or

$$\phi_B = \oint_{CS} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$$

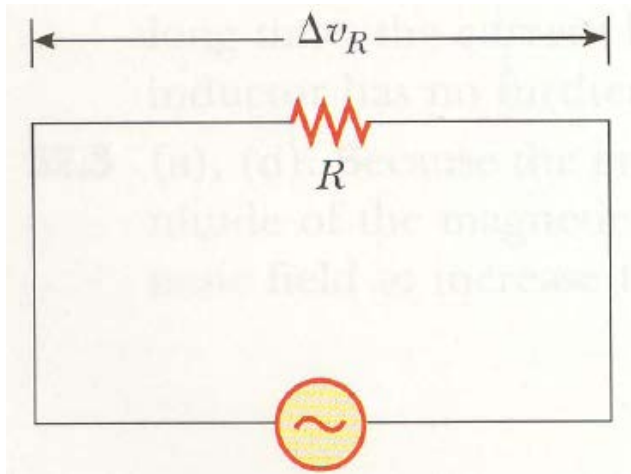
3 Alternating Current (AC) circuits

– will consider sinusoidal voltages (e.g. emf, IR drops):

$$v(t) = V_{\max} \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

instantaneous voltage (pointing to $v(t)$)
peak value or amplitude, also V_0 (pointing to V_{\max})
phase angle (pointing to ϕ)
 $\omega = 2\pi f = \frac{2\pi}{T}$ (pointing to ω)

1) R in AC circuits



Kirchhoff 's Voltage rule :

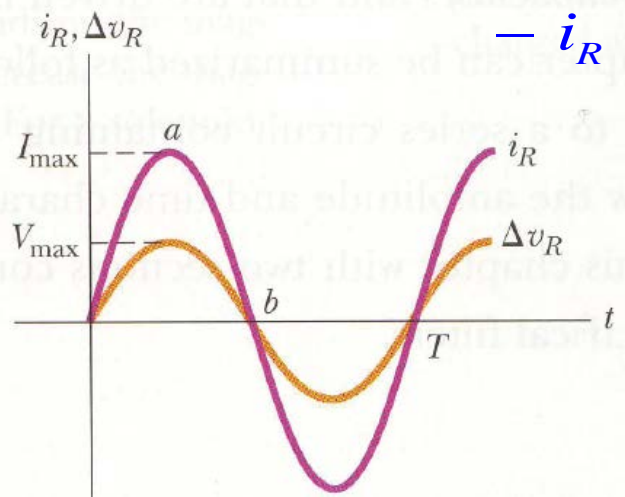
$$v + v_R = 0 ; \text{ here } v - i_R R = 0$$

$$\therefore i_R(t) = \frac{v}{R} = \frac{V_m}{R} \sin \omega t = I_m \sin \omega t$$

$$\text{and } v_R(t) = i_R(t)R = I_m R \sin \omega t$$

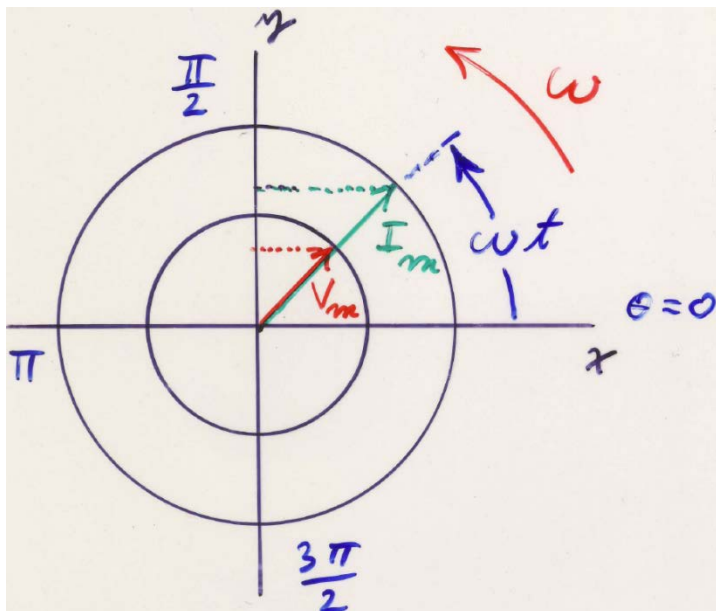
$$\mathcal{E}(t) = v(t) = V_m \sin(\omega t)$$

Note re notation: the "Δ" from Δv , Δi has been dropped from all written text. Small letters \Rightarrow time dependent quantities

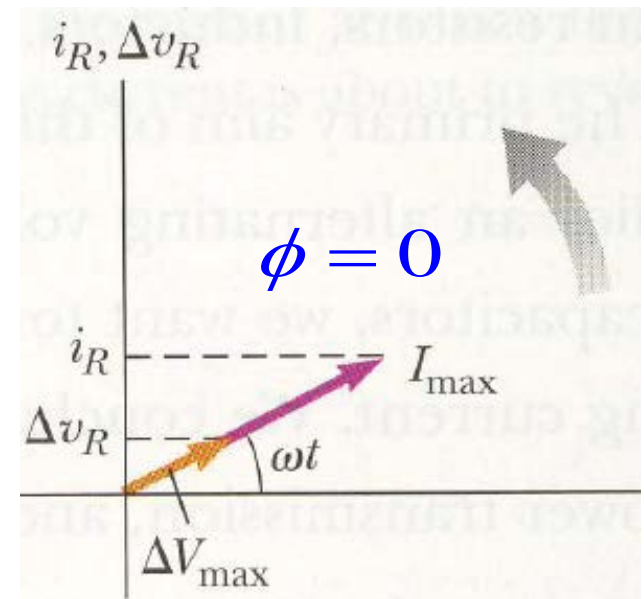


- i_R and v_R have identical behaviour with time
- they are in phase
- here this is true for the whole circuit emf $v(t)$ and circuit current $i(t)$ as well

• or as rotating vectors \vec{V}_m and \vec{I}_m :



or simply:
PHASOR
 diagram
 (of phasors)



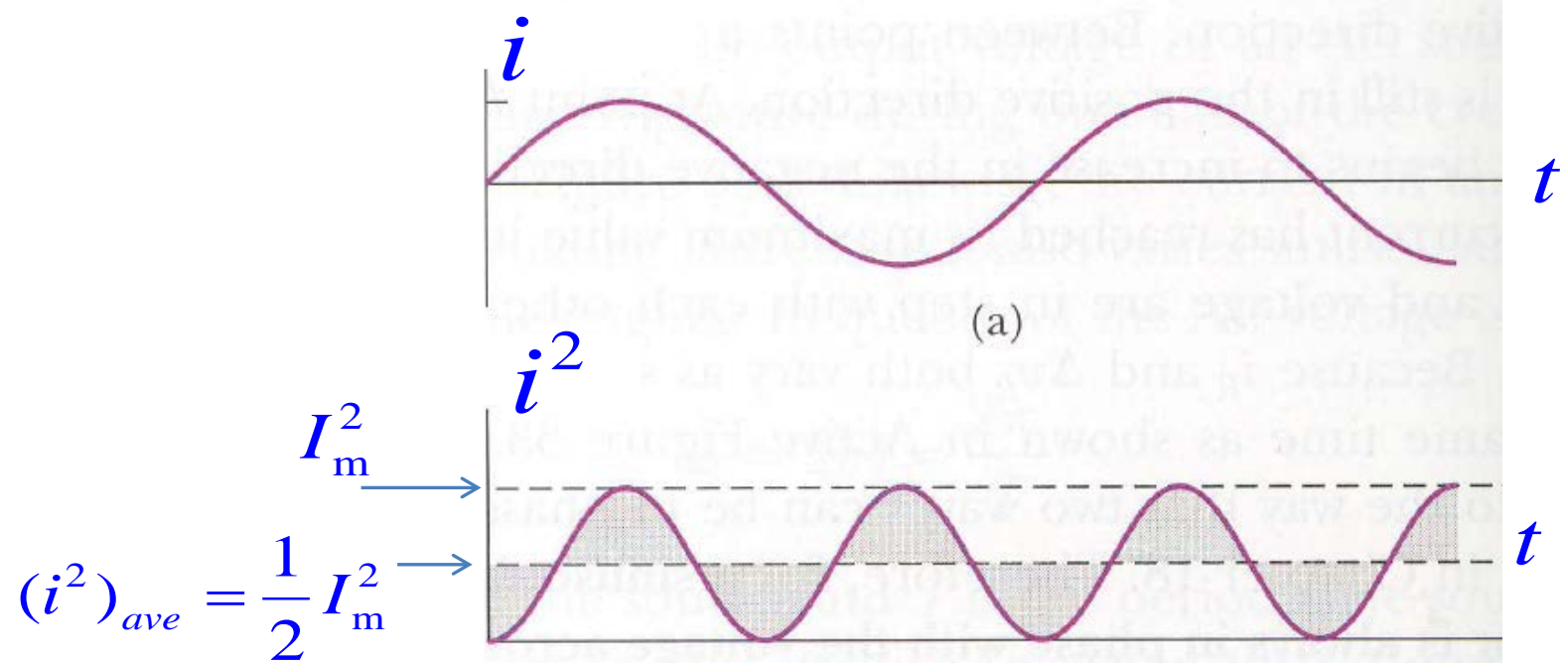
– projections of \vec{V}_m and \vec{I}_m onto y -axis give v_R and i_R

Power dissipated in AC circuits

and root – mean – square values :

$$P_R = i^2(t)R \qquad P_R(ave) = \frac{1}{2} I_{\max}^2 R = I_{rms}^2 R$$

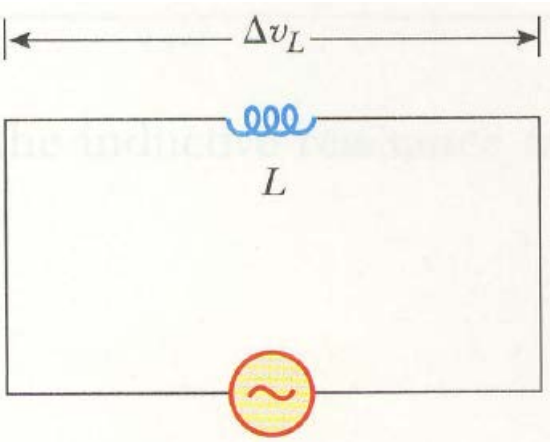
$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad I_{rms} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$



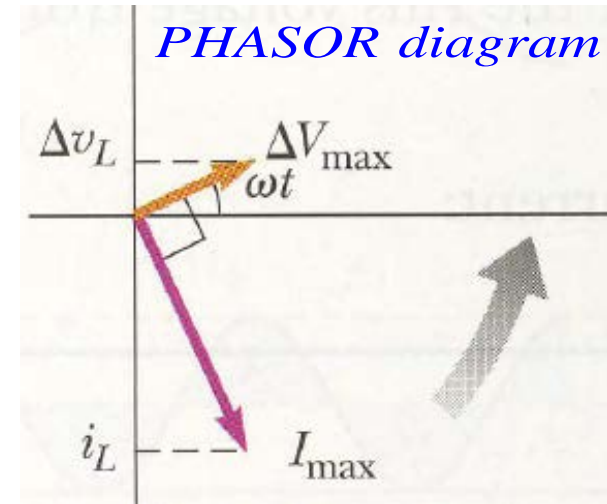
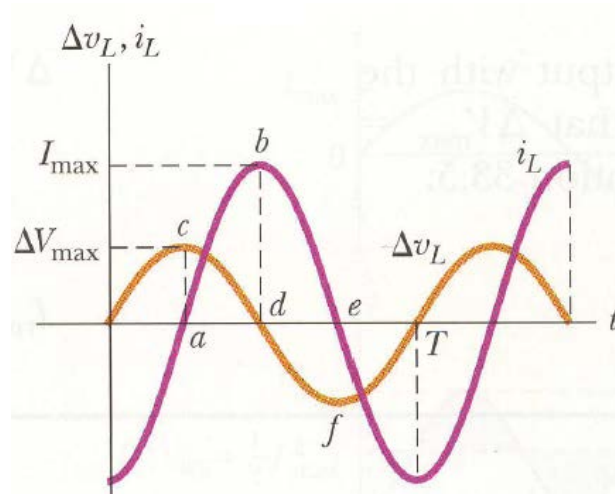
2) L in AC circuits

Can show:

$$i_L(t) = i(t) = -I_m \cos \omega t = I_m \sin \left(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2} \right) \text{ with } I_m = \frac{V_m}{\omega L}$$



$$v(t) = V_m \sin(\omega t)$$



Can write : $i(t) = \frac{V_m}{\omega L} \sin \left(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$ as $i(t) = \frac{V_m \sin \left(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2} \right)}{X_L}$

where $X_L = \omega L \equiv$ inductive reactance

– a time independent "ac resistance" of the inductor

Then $v_L(t) = I_m X_L \sin \omega t$ (i.e. Ohm's Law; $V_m = I_m X_L$)

Note : when $f (= \frac{\omega}{2\pi}) \rightarrow 0$; $X_L \rightarrow 0$

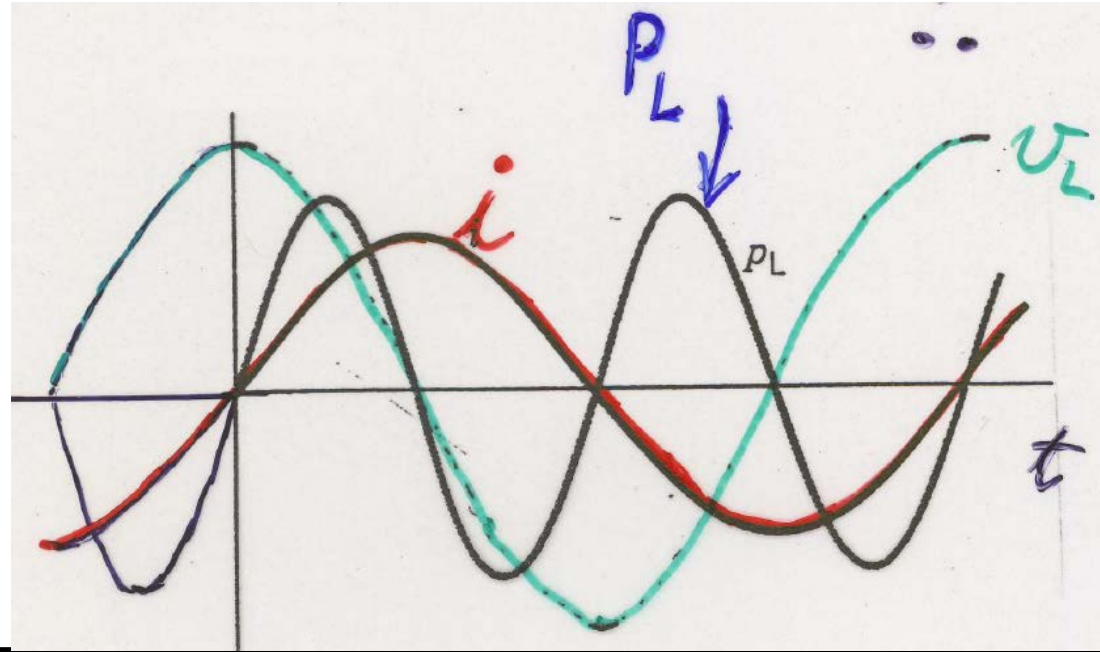
$f \rightarrow \infty$; $X_L \rightarrow \infty$ (infinite $\frac{di}{dt}$)

Instantaneous power supplied to inductor :

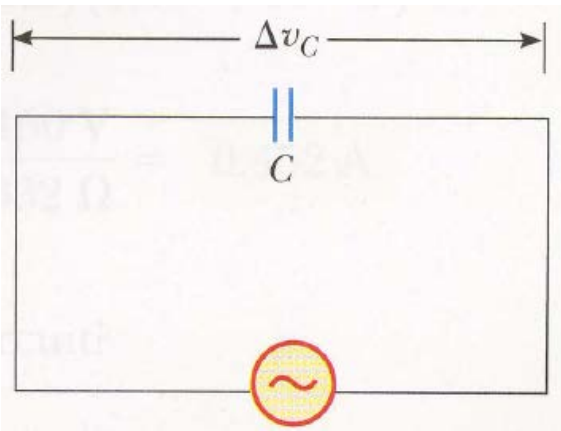
—can show :

$$P_L(t) = -I_m^2 X_L \frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2}$$

$$P_L(ave) = 0$$



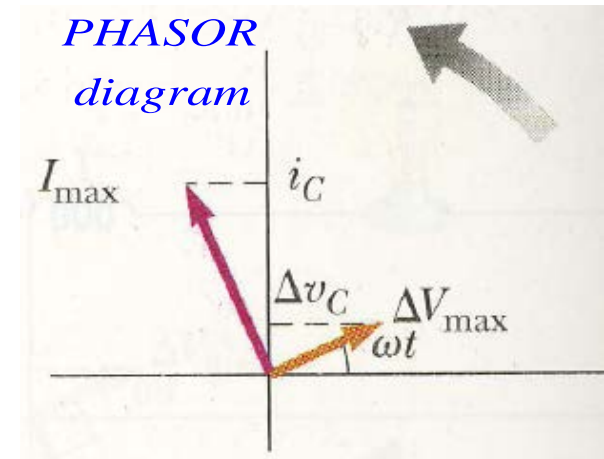
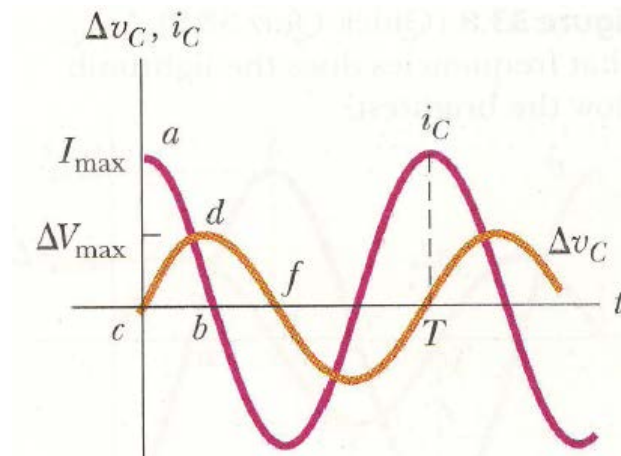
3) C in AC circuits



$$v(t) = V_m \sin(\omega t)$$

From Kirchhoff's voltage or loop rule get:

$$i_C(t) = i(t) = I_m \cos \omega t = I_m \sin \left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2} \right) \text{ with } I_m = \omega C V_m$$



Can write : $i(t) = \omega C V_m \sin(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2})$ as $i(t) = \frac{V_m \sin(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2})}{X_C}$

where $X_C = \frac{1}{\omega C} \equiv$ capacitive reactance

– a time independent "ac resistance" of the capacitor

Then $v_C(t) = I_m X_C \sin \omega t$ (i.e. Ohm's Law)

Note : when $f (= \frac{\omega}{2\pi}) \rightarrow 0$; $X_C \rightarrow \infty$

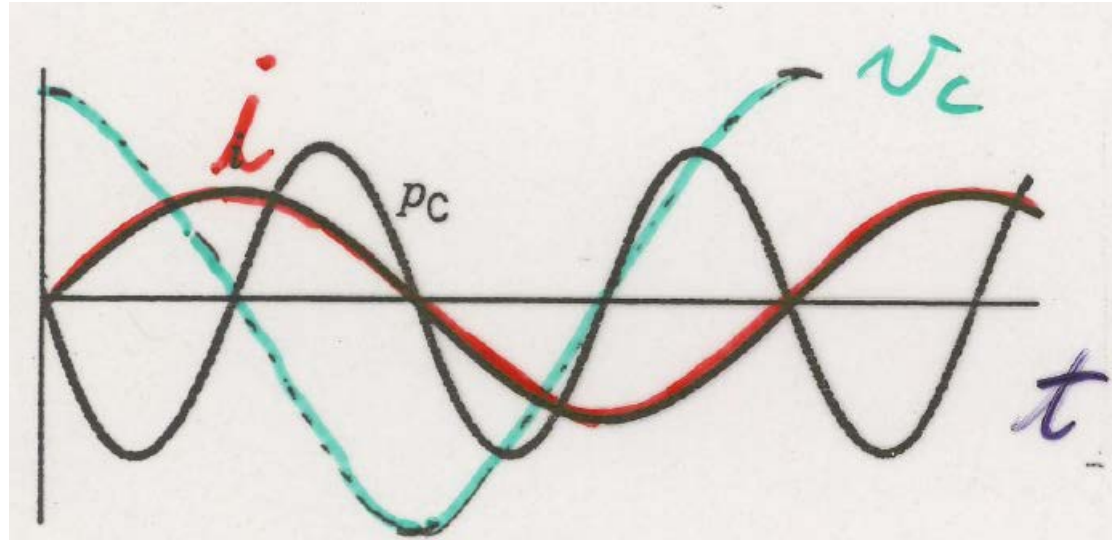
$f \rightarrow \infty$; $X_L \rightarrow 0$ (DC open)

Instantaneous power supplied to capacitor :

—can show :

$$P_C(t) = I_m^2 X_C \frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2}$$

$$P_C(ave) = 0$$



4) More complicated AC circuits

e.g. series RLC circuit

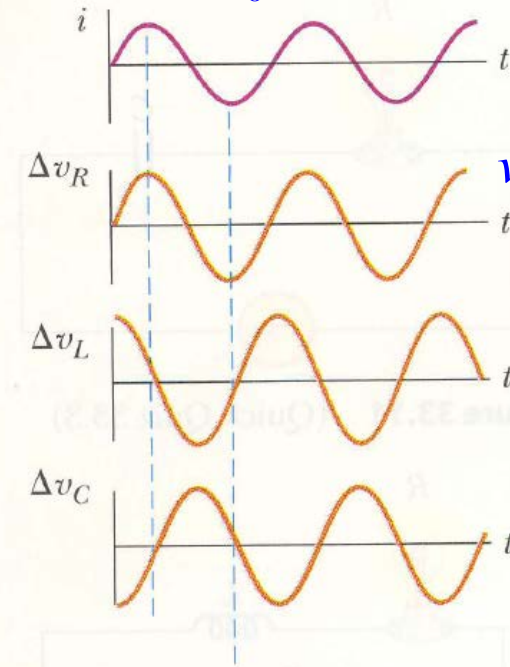
Letting $Q = V_C C$, K's Loop Rule gives

$$V_S(t) = \frac{Q}{C} + R \frac{dQ}{dt} + \frac{d^2 Q}{dt^2}$$

—can solve this 2nd order DE given

that $Q = 0$, $\frac{dQ}{dt} = 0$ at $t = 0$

Let $i(t) = I_0 \sin \omega t$ ("reference ϕ ")



$$v_R = I_0 R \sin \omega t = V_R \sin \omega t$$

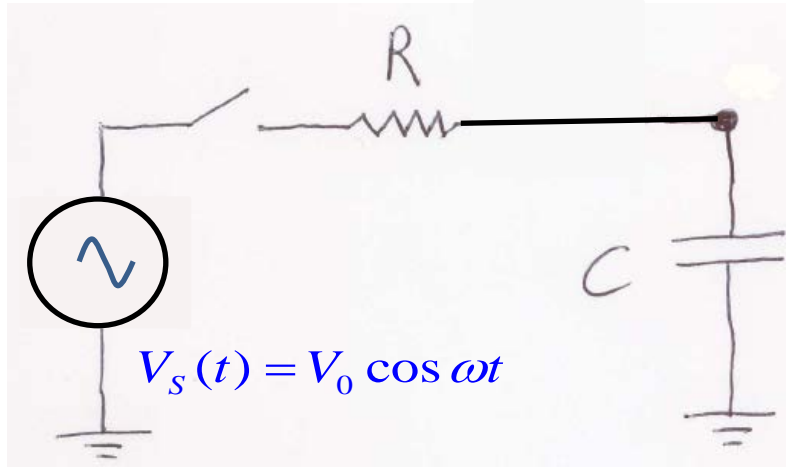
$$v_L = I_0 X_L \sin\left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = V_L \cos \omega t$$

$$v_C = I_0 X_C \sin\left(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -V_C \cos \omega t$$

• Real circuits often are much more complicated and analytical solutions to the resulting DEs may not be straight forward

• use phasor approach

– to make this more evident, consider just RC in an AC circuit :



Letting $Q = V_C C$, K's loop rule gives

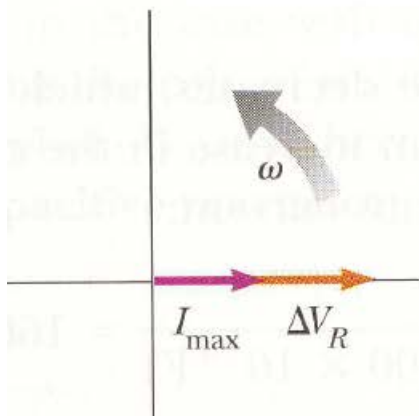
$$V_0 \cos \omega t = R \frac{dQ}{dt} + \frac{Q}{C}$$

Letting $V_C = V_C^0$ at $t = 0$ one can get (general form):

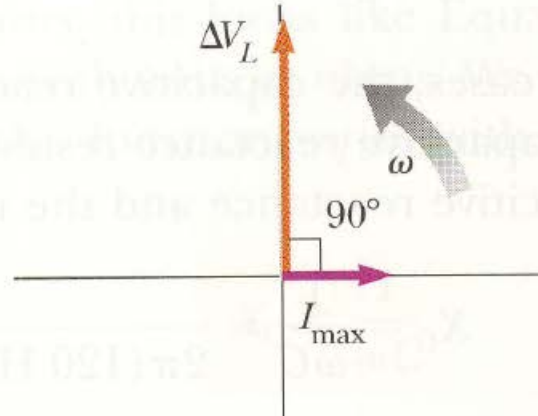
$$Q = f_1(V_0, R, C, \omega) \cos \omega t + f_2(V_0, R, C, \omega, V_C^0) \sin \omega t + f_3(V_0, R, C, \omega, V_C^0) e^{\frac{-t}{RC}}$$

- many practical RLC circuits actually do contain sinusoidal voltage and / or current sources.
- if, in addition, we can assume that we are looking for long - time behaviour only, the phasor approach is most effective

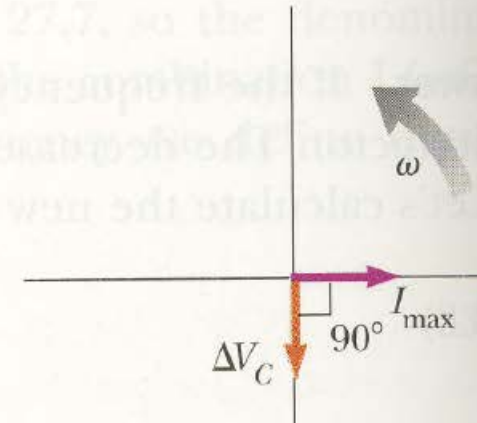
Consider separate Phasors for R, L, C in series RLC circuit :



Resistor

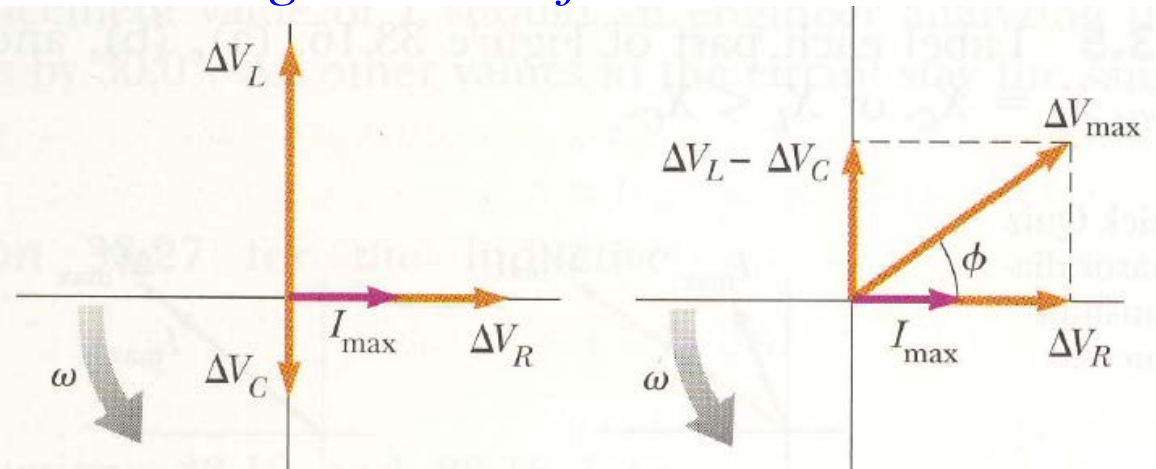


Inductor



Capacitor

Combining Phasors for series RLC case :



$$V_{max} \rightarrow V_0; I_{max} \rightarrow I_0$$

$$V_0 = \sqrt{V_R^2 + (V_L - V_C)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{(I_0 R)^2 + (I_0 X_L - I_0 X_C)^2}$$

$$V_0 = I_0 \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2}$$

or $V_0 = I_0 Z$, where $Z \equiv \text{impedance}$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{V_L - V_C}{V_R} \right) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{X_L - X_C}{R} \right)$$

$[X_L > X_C \Rightarrow \text{inductive; } i \text{ lags } v]$

$[X_L < X_C \Rightarrow \text{capacitive; } i \text{ leads } v]$

Example

A 1000 Ω resistor is connected in series to a 0.6 H inductor and a 2.5 μF capacitor. This RLC combination is then connected across a voltage source that varies as

$$v(t) = (80 \text{ V}) \sin\left(\frac{1000}{\pi} t\right)$$

a) Calculate Z and show X_L , X_C , R , Z and ϕ in an impedance diagram.

b) Calculate the peak current and write the expression for $i(t)$.

In the previous example calculate V_{rms} across the inductor, capacitor and resistor.

$$V_{rms} = I_{rms} X_L \ ; \ I_{rms} = \frac{I_0}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{5.47 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A}}{\sqrt{2}} = 3.868 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A}$$

$$\therefore V_{rms, L} = (3.868 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A})(191.0 \ \Omega) = 7.39 \text{ V}$$

$$V_{rms, C} = I_{rms} X_C = (3.868 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A})(1256.6 \ \Omega) = 48.61 \text{ V}$$

$$V_{rms, R} = I_{rms} R = (3.868 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A})(1000 \ \Omega) = 38.68 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{Note } \sum V_{rms} = 94.68 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{but } V_{rms, applied} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{80 \text{ V}}{\sqrt{2}} = 56.57 \text{ V}$$

In the previous example calculate V_{peak} across the inductor, capacitor and resistor.

$$V_L = I_0 X_L = (5.47 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A})(191.0 \, \Omega) = 10.45 \text{ V}$$

$$V_C = I_0 X_C = (5.47 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A})(1256.6 \, \Omega) = 68.74 \text{ V}$$

$$V_R = I_0 R = (5.47 \times 10^{-2} \text{ A})(1000 \, \Omega) = 54.7 \text{ V}$$

$$\sum V_{peak} = 133.89 \text{ V} \quad \text{-- also not equal to } v_{applied}$$

But for any t , $\sum v$'s must equal $v_{applied}$.