

**CH31: Electromagnetic
Oscillations and Alternating
Current
Lecture 6**



31-3 Forced Oscillations of Three Simple Circuits

Why ac? The basic advantage of alternating current is this: As the current alternates, so does the magnetic field that surrounds the conductor. This makes possible the use of Faraday's law of induction, which, among other things, means that we can step up (increase) or step down (decrease) the magnitude of an alternating potential difference at will, using a device called a transformer, as we shall discuss later. Moreover, alternating current is more readily adaptable to rotating machinery such as generators and motors than is (nonalternating) direct current.

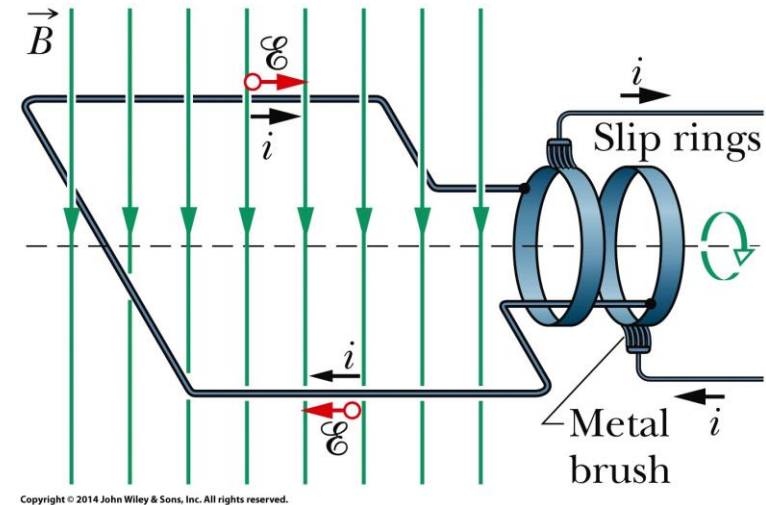
Forced Oscillations (with external emf)



Whatever the natural angular frequency ω of a circuit may be, forced oscillations of charge, current, and potential difference in the circuit always occur at the driving angular frequency ω_d .

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_m \sin \omega_d t.$$

$$i = I \sin(\omega_d t - \phi),$$



The basic mechanism of an alternating-current generator is a conducting loop rotated in an external magnetic field. In practice, the alternating emf induced in a coil of many turns of wire is made accessible by means of slip rings attached to the rotating loop. Each ring is connected to one end of the loop wire and is electrically connected to the rest of the generator circuit by a conducting brush against which the ring slips as the loop (and ring) rotates.

31-3 Forced Oscillations of Three Simple Circuits

Resistive Load

The alternating potential difference across a resistor has amplitude

$$V_R = I_R R \quad (\text{resistor}).$$

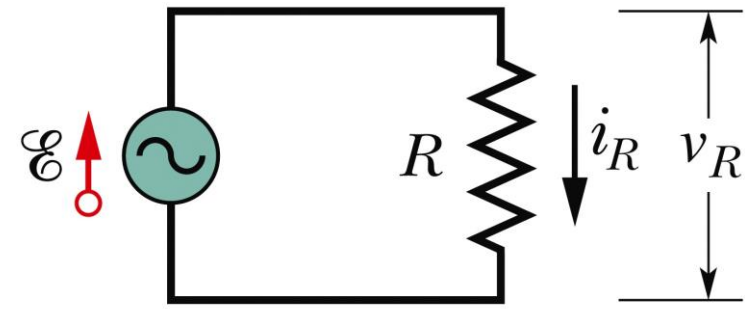
where V_R and I_R are the amplitudes of alternating current i_R and alternating potential difference v_R across the resistance in the circuit.

Angular speed: Both current and potential difference phasors rotate counterclockwise about the origin with an angular speed equal to the angular frequency ω_d of v_R and i_R .

Length: The length of each phasor represents the amplitude of the alternating quantity: V_R for the voltage and I_R for the current.

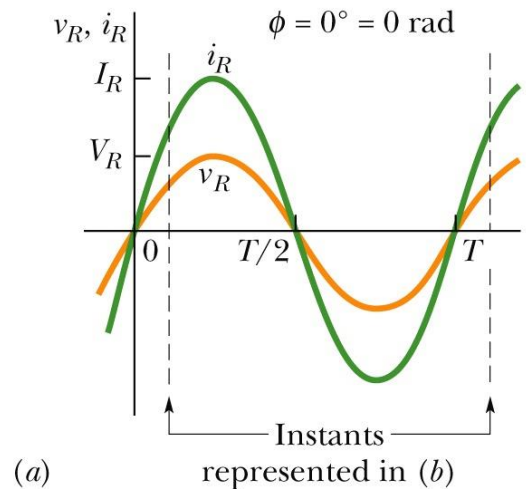
Projection: The projection of each phasor on the vertical axis represents the value of the alternating quantity at time t . v_R for the voltage and i_R for the current.

Rotation angle: The rotation angle of each phasor is equal to the phase of the alternating quantity at time t .

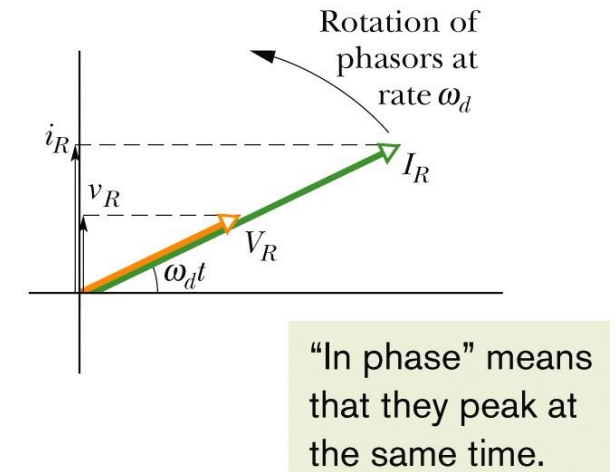


A resistor is connected across an alternating-current generator.

For a resistive load, the current and potential difference are in phase.



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(a) The current i_R and the potential difference v_R across the resistor are plotted on the same graph, both versus time t . They are in phase and complete one cycle in one period T . (b) A phasor diagram shows the same thing as (a).



Checkpoint 3

If we increase the driving frequency in a circuit with a purely resistive load, do
(a) amplitude V_R and (b) amplitude I_R increase, decrease, or remain the same?

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_m \sin \omega_d t.$$

$$i = I \sin(\omega_d t - \phi),$$

(a) remains the same; (b) remains the same

Sample Problem 31.03 Purely resistive load: potential difference and current

In Fig. 31-8, resistance R is $200\ \Omega$ and the sinusoidal alternating emf device operates at amplitude $\mathcal{E}_m = 36.0\text{ V}$ and frequency $f_d = 60.0\text{ Hz}$.

(a) What is the potential difference $v_R(t)$ across the resistance as a function of time t , and what is the amplitude V_R of $v_R(t)$?

KEY IDEA

In a circuit with a purely resistive load, the potential difference $v_R(t)$ across the resistance is always equal to the potential difference $\mathcal{E}(t)$ across the emf device.

Calculations: For our situation, $v_R(t) = \mathcal{E}(t)$ and $V_R = \mathcal{E}_m$. Since \mathcal{E}_m is given, we can write

$$V_R = \mathcal{E}_m = 36.0\text{ V.} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

To find $v_R(t)$, we use Eq. 31-28 to write

$$v_R(t) = \mathcal{E}(t) = \mathcal{E}_m \sin \omega_d t \quad (31-34)$$

and then substitute $\mathcal{E}_m = 36.0\text{ V}$ and

$$\omega_d = 2\pi f_d = 2\pi(60\text{ Hz}) = 120\pi$$

to obtain

$$v_R = (36.0\text{ V}) \sin(120\pi t). \quad (\text{Answer})$$

We can leave the argument of the sine in this form for convenience, or we can write it as $(377\text{ rad/s})t$ or as $(377\text{ s}^{-1})t$.

(b) What are the current $i_R(t)$ in the resistance and the amplitude I_R of $i_R(t)$?

KEY IDEA

In an ac circuit with a purely resistive load, the alternating current $i_R(t)$ in the resistance is *in phase* with the alternating potential difference $v_R(t)$ across the resistance; that is, the phase constant ϕ for the current is zero.

Calculations: Here we can write Eq. 31-29 as

$$i_R = I_R \sin(\omega_d t - \phi) = I_R \sin \omega_d t. \quad (31-35)$$

From Eq. 31-33, the amplitude I_R is

$$I_R = \frac{V_R}{R} = \frac{36.0\text{ V}}{200\ \Omega} = 0.180\text{ A.} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

Substituting this and $\omega_d = 2\pi f_d = 120\pi$ into Eq. 31-35, we have

$$i_R = (0.180\text{ A}) \sin(120\pi t). \quad (\text{Answer})$$

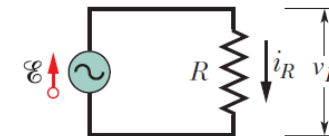


Figure 31-8 A resistor is connected across an alternating-current generator.

31-3 Forced Oscillations of Three Simple Circuits

Inductive Load

The **inductive reactance** of an inductor is defined as

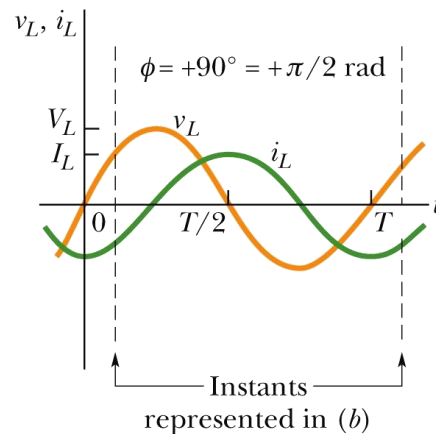
$$X_L = \omega_d L$$

Its value depends not only on the inductance but also on the driving angular frequency ω_d . The voltage amplitude and current amplitude are related by

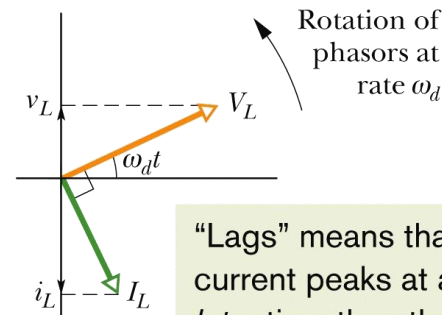
$$V_L = I_L X_L$$

For an inductive load, the current lags the potential difference by 90° .

(a) The current in the inductor lags the voltage by 90° ($= \pi/2$ rad). (b) A phasor diagram shows the same thing.

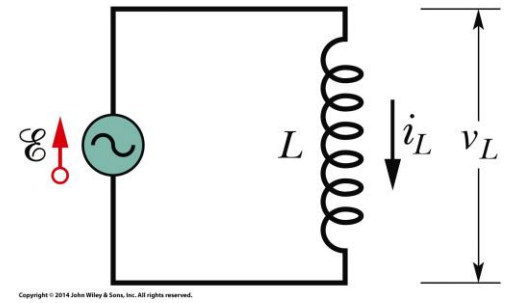


(a)



(b)

“Lags” means that the current peaks at a *later* time than the potential difference.



An inductor is connected across an alternating-current generator.

Fig. (left), shows that the quantities i_L and v_L are 90° out of phase. In this case, however, i_L lags v_L ; that is, monitoring the current i_L and the potential difference v_L in the circuit of Fig. (top) shows that i_L reaches its maximum value after v_L does, by one-quarter cycle.

Sample Problem 31.05 Purely inductive load: potential difference and current

In Fig. 31-12, inductance L is 230 mH and the sinusoidal alternating emf device operates at amplitude $\mathcal{E}_m = 36.0$ V and frequency $f_d = 60.0$ Hz.

(a) What are the potential difference $v_L(t)$ across the inductance and the amplitude V_L of $v_L(t)$?

KEY IDEA

In a circuit with a purely inductive load, the potential difference $v_L(t)$ across the inductance is always equal to the potential difference $\mathcal{E}(t)$ across the emf device.

Calculations: Here we have $v_L(t) = \mathcal{E}(t)$ and $V_L = \mathcal{E}_m$. Since \mathcal{E}_m is given, we know that

$$V_L = \mathcal{E}_m = 36.0 \text{ V.} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

To find $v_L(t)$, we use Eq. 31-28 to write

$$v_L(t) = \mathcal{E}(t) = \mathcal{E}_m \sin \omega_d t. \quad (31-53)$$

Then, substituting $\mathcal{E}_m = 36.0$ V and $\omega_d = 2\pi f_d = 120\pi$ into Eq. 31-53, we have

$$v_L = (36.0 \text{ V}) \sin(120\pi t). \quad (\text{Answer})$$

(b) What are the current $i_L(t)$ in the circuit as a function of time and the amplitude I_L of $i_L(t)$?

KEY IDEA

In an ac circuit with a purely inductive load, the alternating current $i_L(t)$ in the inductance lags the alternating potential difference $v_L(t)$ by 90° . (In the mnemonic of the problem-solving tactic, this circuit is “positively an *ELI* circuit,” which tells us that the emf E leads the current I and that ϕ is positive.)

Calculations: Because the phase constant ϕ for the current is $+90^\circ$, or $+\pi/2$ rad, we can write Eq. 31-29 as

$$i_L = I_L \sin(\omega_d t - \phi) = I_L \sin(\omega_d t - \pi/2). \quad (31-54)$$

We can find the amplitude I_L from Eq. 31-52 ($V_L = I_L X_L$) if we first find the inductive reactance X_L . From Eq. 31-49 ($X_L = \omega_d L$), with $\omega_d = 2\pi f_d$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} X_L &= 2\pi f_d L = (2\pi)(60.0 \text{ Hz})(230 \times 10^{-3} \text{ H}) \\ &= 86.7 \, \Omega. \end{aligned}$$

Then Eq. 31-52 tells us that the current amplitude is

$$I_L = \frac{V_L}{X_L} = \frac{36.0 \text{ V}}{86.7 \, \Omega} = 0.415 \text{ A.} \quad (\text{Answer})$$

Substituting this and $\omega_d = 2\pi f_d = 120\pi$ into Eq. 31-54, we have

$$i_L = (0.415 \text{ A}) \sin(120\pi t - \pi/2). \quad (\text{Answer})$$

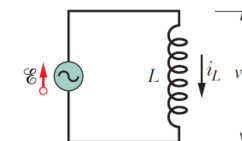


Figure 31-12 An inductor is connected across an alternating-current generator.

31-3 Forced Oscillations of Three Simple Circuits

Capacitive Load

The **capacitive reactance** of a capacitor, defined as

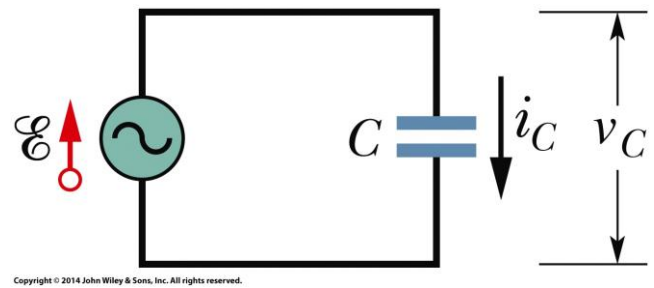
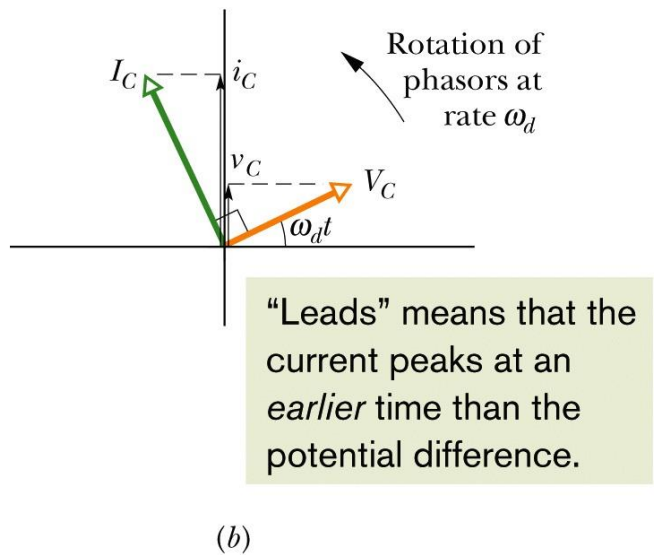
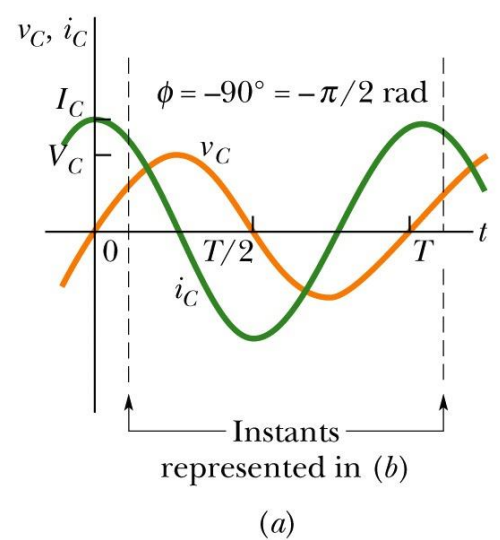
$$X_C = \frac{1}{\omega_d C}$$

Its value depends not only on the capacitance but also on the driving angular frequency ω_d . The voltage amplitude and current amplitude are related by

$$V_C = I_C X_C$$

For a capacitive load, the current leads the potential difference by 90° .

(a) The current in the capacitor leads the voltage by 90° ($= \pi/2$ rad). (b) A phasor diagram shows the same thing.



A capacitor is connected across an alternating-current generator.

In the phasor diagram we see that i_C leads v_C , which means that, if you monitored the current i_C and the potential difference v_C in the circuit above, you would find that i_C reaches its maximum before v_C does, by one-quarter cycle.

Sample Problem 31.04 Purely capacitive load: potential difference and current

In Fig. 31-10, capacitance C is $15.0\ \mu\text{F}$ and the sinusoidal alternating emf device operates at amplitude $\mathcal{E}_m = 36.0\ \text{V}$ and frequency $f_d = 60.0\ \text{Hz}$.

(a) What are the potential difference $v_C(t)$ across the capacitance and the amplitude V_C of $v_C(t)$?

KEY IDEA

In a circuit with a purely capacitive load, the potential difference $v_C(t)$ across the capacitance is always equal to the potential difference $\mathcal{E}(t)$ across the emf device.

Calculations: Here we have $v_C(t) = \mathcal{E}(t)$ and $V_C = \mathcal{E}_m$. Since \mathcal{E}_m is given, we have

$$V_C = \mathcal{E}_m = 36.0\ \text{V}. \quad (\text{Answer})$$

To find $v_C(t)$, we use Eq. 31-28 to write

$$v_C(t) = \mathcal{E}(t) = \mathcal{E}_m \sin \omega_d t. \quad (31-43)$$

Then, substituting $\mathcal{E}_m = 36.0\ \text{V}$ and $\omega_d = 2\pi f_d = 120\pi$ into Eq. 31-43, we have

$$v_C = (36.0\ \text{V}) \sin(120\pi t). \quad (\text{Answer})$$

(b) What are the current $i_C(t)$ in the circuit as a function of time and the amplitude I_C of $i_C(t)$?

KEY IDEA

In an ac circuit with a purely capacitive load, the alternating current $i_C(t)$ in the capacitance leads the alternating potential difference $v_C(t)$ by 90° ; that is, the phase constant ϕ for the current is -90° , or $-\pi/2$ rad.

Calculations: Thus, we can write Eq. 31-29 as

$$i_C = I_C \sin(\omega_d t - \phi) = I_C \sin(\omega_d t + \pi/2). \quad (31-44)$$

We can find the amplitude I_C from Eq. 31-42 ($V_C = I_C X_C$) if we first find the capacitive reactance X_C . From Eq. 31-39 ($X_C = 1/\omega_d C$), with $\omega_d = 2\pi f_d$, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} X_C &= \frac{1}{2\pi f_d C} = \frac{1}{(2\pi)(60.0\ \text{Hz})(15.0 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{F})} \\ &= 177\ \Omega. \end{aligned}$$

Then Eq. 31-42 tells us that the current amplitude is

$$I_C = \frac{V_C}{X_C} = \frac{36.0\ \text{V}}{177\ \Omega} = 0.203\ \text{A}. \quad (\text{Answer})$$

Substituting this and $\omega_d = 2\pi f_d = 120\pi$ into Eq. 31-44, we have

$$i_C = (0.203\ \text{A}) \sin(120\pi t + \pi/2). \quad (\text{Answer})$$

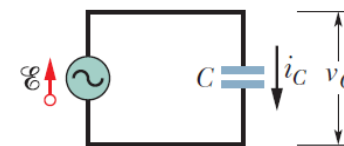


Figure 31-10 A capacitor is connected across an alternating-current generator.



Checkpoint 5

If we increase the driving frequency in a circuit with a purely capacitive load, do (a) amplitude V_C and (b) amplitude I_C increase, decrease, or remain the same? If, instead, the circuit has a purely inductive load, do (c) amplitude V_L and (d) amplitude I_L increase, decrease, or remain the same?

- (a) remains the same; (b) increases;
- (c) remains the same; (d) decreases

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_m \sin \omega_d t.$$

$$i = I \sin(\omega_d t - \phi),$$