

Circuit Analysis and Design

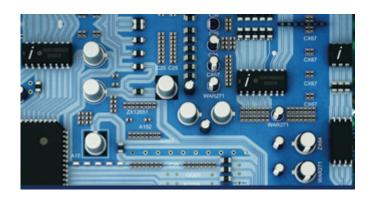
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"A good student never steal or cheat"

Agenda



- Sinusoidal signals
- RMS value
- Phasors
- Impedances and admittances
- Phasor-transformed circuit
- Kirchhoff's current law (KCL) and Kirchhoff's voltage law (KVL)
- Series and parallel connection of impedances

Introduction

- We analyze circuits in the steady state when the input signal is a sinusoid. The three parameters (amplitude, frequency, and phase) of a sinusoidal signal are presented, followed by the definition of phasors. For a given frequency, the magnitude and the phase describe the sinusoidal signal completely. The phasor in a polar coordinate system is the magnitude and phase.
- Impedance is the equivalent of resistance, but depends on frequency. Admittance is the equivalent of conductance and also depends on frequency. Impedance and admittance are defined for the resistor, inductor, and capacitor, and are used to analyze ac circuits. For a given frequency, the impedances for inductors and capacitors are complex numbers. If a circuit is driven by a sinusoidal signal, the steady-state response of the circuit can be found by transforming the circuit to the phasor domain first, and then applying the circuit laws and theorems.

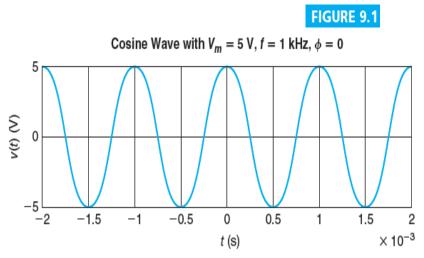
Sinusoidal Signals

- •A cosine wave $v(t) = V_m \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right)$ has three parameters: amplitude V_m , period T, and phase ϕ .
- •As the independent variable t (time) increases, the angle of cosine $2\pi t/T + \phi$ increases. At t=0, the angle of cosine is ϕ . As t is increased from t=0 to t=T, the angle increases linearly from ϕ to $2\pi + \phi$. Since

$$\cos(2\pi + \phi) = \cos(2\pi)\cos(\phi) - \sin(2\pi)\sin(\phi) = 1 \times \cos(\phi) - 0 \times \sin(\phi) = \cos(\phi)$$

the value of cosine wave at t = T is identical to the value at t = 0. The cosine wave repeats itself every T seconds as shown in Figure 9.1. It is a periodic wave with period T seconds.

•In 1 second, there are f = 1/T periods (cycles, waves) of cosine wave. The parameter f is called frequency and has a unit of 1/s, called Hertz (Hz).



Sinusoidal Signals (Continued)

• Because the angle changes by 2π radians in one period, and there are f periods in one second, the change in angle in one second is given by

$$\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi/T$$

The parameter ω is called angular velocity and has a unit of radians per second (rad/s). In terms of radian frequency ω , cosine wave becomes

$$v(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

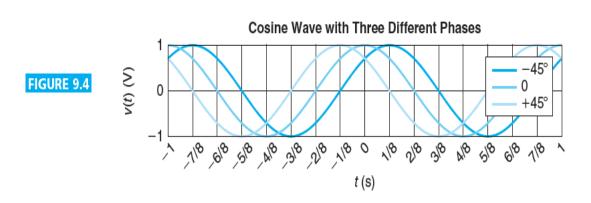
• The phase ϕ of a cosine wave determines the starting value of the cosine wave at t=0. At t=0, the cosine wave has a value of $V_m \cos(\phi)$. The cosine wave can be rewritten as

$$v(t) = V_m \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right) = V_m \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \frac{2\pi}{T}\phi\frac{T}{2\pi}\right) = V_m \cos\left[\frac{2\pi}{T}\left(t + \frac{\phi}{2\pi}T\right)\right]$$

• The cosine wave $V_m \cos(2\pi t/T + \phi)$ is a time shift of $V_m \cos(2\pi t/T)$ by $\phi T/(2\pi)$ seconds. If ϕ is positive, the shift is to the left; if ϕ is negative, the shift is to the right.

Sinusoidal Signals (Continued)

- Figure 9.4 shows a cosine wave with three different phases ($\phi = -45^{\circ} = -\pi/4$, $0^{\circ} = 0$, $45^{\circ} = \pi/4$) for $V_m = 1 \ V$ and $f = 1 \ Hz$ ($T = 1 \ s$).
- When $\phi = 0$, the cosine wave crosses zero at t = -0.25 s. When $\phi = \pi/4$, the cosine wave crosses zero at t = -0.375 s. This is earlier than $\phi = 0$ by 0.125 s or T/8. When $\phi = -\pi/4$, the cosine wave crosses zero at t = -0.125 s. This is later than $\phi = 0$ by 0.125 s or T/8.
- If we look at the peaks of the three cosine waves around t=0, we arrive at the same conclusion. When $\phi=0$, the peak of the cosine wave occurs at t=0. When $\phi=\pi/4$, the peak of the cosine wave occurs at t=-0.125 s. This is earlier than $\phi=0$ by 0.125 s or T/8. When $\phi=-\pi/4$, the peak of the cosine wave occurs at t=0.125 s. This is later than $\phi=0$ by 0.125 s or T/8.



Sinusoidal Signals (Continued)

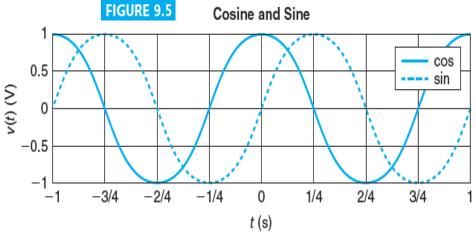
•A sine wave $V_m \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right)$ can be viewed as a time shift of a cosine wave $V_m \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right)$ by 90° to the right:

$$V_{m} \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = V_{m} \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right) \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + V_{m} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$= V_{m} \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right) \times 0 + V_{m} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right) \times 1 = V_{m} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{T}t + \phi\right)$$

•90° to the right is equivalent to -T/4. Figure 9.5 shows the cosine wave and the sine wave with the same amplitude ($V_m = 1 V$)

and frequency (f = 1 Hz), and $\phi = 0$.



RMS Value

A sinusoidal voltage is given by

$$v(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \theta_v)$$

- The peak amplitude is $V_p = V_m$.
- The peak-to-peak amplitude is $V_{p-p} = 2V_m$.

 If the voltage v(t) is squared, we obtain $v^2(t) = V_m^2 \cos^2(\omega t + \theta_v) = \frac{V_m^2}{2} + \frac{V_m^2}{2} \cos(2\omega t + 2\theta_v)$ (1)
- The mean square value of v(t) is defined as the average value of $v^2(t)$. If v(t) is periodic with period T, the mean square value of v(t) is given by

$$V_{ms} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{\frac{-T}{2}}^{\frac{T}{2}} v^2(t) dt \quad (2)$$

- Substitute Equation (1) to Equation (2): $V_{ms} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{V_m^2}{2} dt + \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{V_m^2}{2} \cos(2\omega t + 2\theta_v) dt = \frac{V_m^2}{2}$ (3)
- The root mean square (RMS) value is the square root of the mean square value. For sinusoids, we have

$$V_{rms} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.7071 V_m \quad (4)$$

RMS Value (Continued)

• In general, the rms value of v(t) is defined as

$$V_{rms} = \sqrt{\lim_{T_0 \to \infty} \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} v^2(t) dt}$$

• If v(t) is periodic with period T, the rms value of v(t) is given by

$$V_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} v^2(t) dt}$$

Phasors

•Euler's rule:

$$e^{j\theta} = cos(\theta) + j sin(\theta)$$

 $cos(\theta) = Re(e^{j\theta})$
 $sin(\theta) = Im(e^{j\theta})$

Applying Euler's rule, we have

$$V_m e^{j(\omega t + \phi)} = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) + j V_m \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$Re[V_m e^{j(\omega t + \phi)}] = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

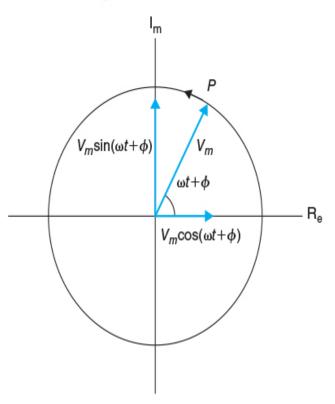
$$Im[V_m e^{j(\omega t + \phi)}] = V_m \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

• $V_m e^{j(\omega t + \phi)} = V_m e^{j\phi} e^{j\omega t}$ is a point P in a circle of radius V_m rotating at a constant speed of ω rad/s in the counterclockwise direction in the complex plane as shown in Figure 9.14. At t = 0, the point P is at $V_m e^{j\phi}$.

•Phasor is defined as $V = V_m e^{j\phi} = V_m \angle \phi$.

FIGURE 9.14

Rotation of a point P around a circle of radius V_m .



Phasors (Continued)

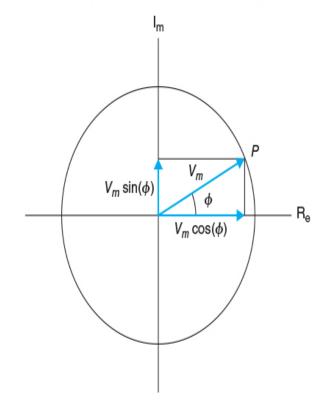
•Phasor is a point P at t = 0. It is the starting point of rotation.

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet V &= V_m \mathrm{e}^{j\phi} = V_m \angle \phi = V_m \cos(\phi) + j \ V_m \sin(\phi) \\ Re[V] &= V_m \cos(\phi) \\ Im[V] &= V_m \sin(\phi) \end{aligned}$$

•The phasor provides two of the three parameters (V_m, ϕ, ω) of a sinusoid. For the given frequency ω , phasor provides complete information of a sinusoid.

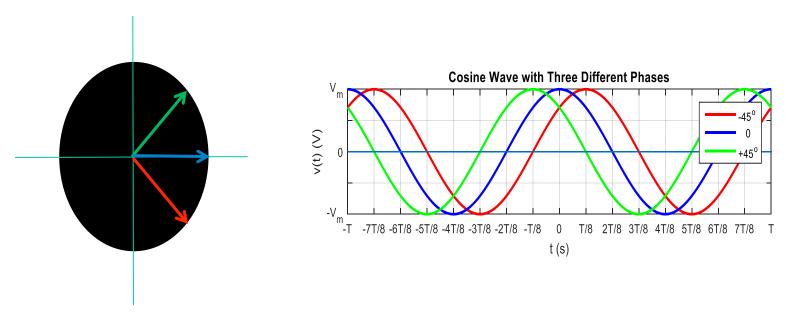
FIGURE 9.15

Phasor representation of $V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$.



Phasors (Continued)

• The three phasors $V_m \angle -45^\circ$, $V_m \angle 0^\circ$, $V_m \angle 45^\circ$ and the corresponding cosines in the time domain are shown below.



• The magnitude is nonnegative. If the amplitude of a sinusoid is given as a negative number, the negative number is converted to a positive magnitude, and a phase of 180° or -180° is added. If the sinusoid is given as a sine, it should be changed to cosine by subtracting 90° .

•Find the phasors of the following signals, and draw phasors for (a), (b), and (f).

a.
$$v(t) = -110 \cos(2\pi 60t + 210^{\circ}) V$$
 b. $v(t) = -110 \cos(2\pi 60t - 60^{\circ}) V$

c.
$$v(t) = 220 \sin(2\pi 50t + 30^{\circ}) V$$

e.
$$i(t) = 15 \sin(2\pi 60t - 60^{\circ}) A$$

b.
$$v(t) = -110 \cos(2\pi 60t - 60^{\circ}) V$$

d.
$$v(t) = -220 \sin(2\pi 50t - 120^{\circ}) V$$

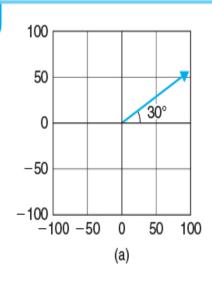
f.
$$i(t) = -20 \sin(2\pi 60t + 120^{\circ}) A$$

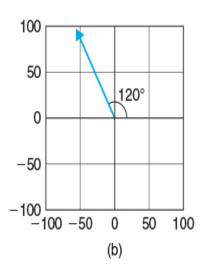
•a.
$$V = 110 \angle 30^{\circ} \text{ V}$$
 b. $V = 110 \angle 120^{\circ} \text{ V}$ c. $V = 220 \angle -60^{\circ} \text{ V}$ d. $V = 220 \angle -30^{\circ} \text{ V}$

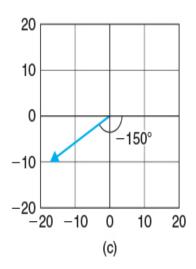
•e.
$$I = 15 \angle - 150^{\circ} A$$
 f. $I = 20 \angle - 150^{\circ} A$

FIGURE 9.16

Phasor diagram for (a) $V = 110 \angle 30^{\circ}$ (b) $V = 110 \angle 120^{\circ}$ (c) $I = 20 \angle -150^{\circ}$.







• Find the waveform for the following phasors when the frequency is 60 Hz.

a.
$$V = 110 \angle 120^{\circ} V$$

b.
$$V = 120 \angle - 30^{\circ} V$$

- **a.** $v(t) = 110 \cos(2\pi 60t + 120^\circ) V$
- **b.** $v(t) = 120 \cos(2\pi 60t 30^{\circ}) V$

Conversion from Cartesian to Polar and Polar to Cartesian

- Cartesian to Polar:
- •First quadrant: a > 0, b > 0, $z = a + jb = re^{j\phi} = r \angle \phi$, $\phi = tan^{-1}(b/a)$, $0^{\circ} < \phi < 90^{\circ}$, $r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$
- •Second quadrant: a > 0, b > 0, $z = -a + jb = re^{j\phi} = r \angle \phi$, $\phi = 180^{\circ} tan^{-1}(b/a)$, $90^{\circ} < \phi < 180^{\circ}$ $r = \sqrt{\left(-a\right)^2 + b^2}$
- •Third quadrant: a > 0, b > 0, $z = -a jb = re^{j\phi} = r \angle \phi$, $\phi = -180^{\circ} + tan^{-1}(b/a)$, $-180^{\circ} < \phi < -90^{\circ}$ $r = \sqrt{(-a)^2 + (-b)^2}$
- •4th quadrant: a > 0, b > 0, $z = a jb = re^{j\phi} = r \angle \phi$, $\phi = -tan^{-1}(b/a)$, $-90^{\circ} < \phi < 0^{\circ}$,
- •a > 0, b > 0, z = a = $a \angle 0^{\circ}$, z = -a = $a \angle 180^{\circ}$, z = $jb = b \angle 90^{\circ}$, z = - $jb = b \angle -90^{\circ}$

$$r = \sqrt{a^2 + \left(-b\right)^2}$$

- •Degrees to radians: $\phi_r = \phi_d \times \pi/180$, Radians to degrees: $\phi_d = \phi_r \times 180/\pi$
- •Polar to Cartesian: $z = re^{j\phi} = r \angle \phi = a + jb$

$$a = r \cos(\phi), b = r \sin(\phi)$$

Convert the following numbers in Cartesian coordinates to polar coordinates.

a.
$$z = 3 + j4$$

b.
$$z = -4 + j3$$

a.
$$z = 3 + j4$$
 b. $z = -4 + j3$ **c.** $z = -3 - j4$ **d.** $z = 4 - j3$

d.
$$z = 4 - j3$$

• **a.**
$$z = 3 + j4 = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} \angle tan^{-1}(4/3) = 5 \angle 53.1301^\circ$$

• **b.**
$$z = -4 + j3 = \sqrt{(-4)^2 + 3^2} \angle 180^\circ + tan^{-1}(3/(-4)) = 5\angle 143.1301^\circ$$

• **c.**
$$z = -3 - j4 = \sqrt{(-3)^2 + (-4)^2} \angle -180^\circ + tan^{-1}((-4)/(-3)) = 5\angle -126.8699^\circ$$

• **d.**
$$z = 4 - j3 = \sqrt{4^2 + (-3)^2}$$
 $\angle tan^{-1}((-3)/4) = 5\angle - 36.8699^\circ$

Convert the following phasors to Cartesian coordinates.

a.
$$V = 110 \angle 120^{\circ} \text{ V}$$
 b. $V = 240 \angle -120^{\circ} \text{ V}$ **c.** $V = 480 \angle 150^{\circ} \text{ V}$ **d.** $V = 880 \angle -60^{\circ} \text{ V}$

•a.
$$V = 110 \angle 120^\circ = 110 \cos(120^\circ) + j110 \sin(120^\circ) = 110 \times (-0.5) + j110 \times \sqrt{3} /2 = -55 + j95.2626 V$$

•b.
$$V = 240 \angle - 120^\circ = 240 \cos(-120^\circ) + j240 \sin(-120^\circ) = 240 \times (-0.5) - j240 \times \sqrt{3} / 2 = -120 - j207.8452 V$$

•c.
$$V = 480 \angle 150^\circ = 480 \cos(150^\circ) + j480 \sin(150^\circ) = 480 \times (-\sqrt{3}/2) + j480 \times 0.5$$

= $-415.6922 + j240 \ V$

•d.
$$V = 880 \angle -60^\circ = 880 \cos(-60^\circ) + j880 \sin(-60^\circ) = 880 \times 0.5 - j880 \times \sqrt{3} / 2$$

= $440 - j762.1024 \ V$

Phasor Arithmetic

- Addition: The phasors in polar coordinates are converted to Cartesian coordinates before being added.
- $A = 5 \angle 60^{\circ} = 2.5 + j4.3301$, $B = 10 \angle -45^{\circ} = 7.0711 j7.0711$
- $C = A + B = 9.5711 j2.7409 = 9.9558 \angle -15.9804^{\circ}$
- Subtraction: The phasors in polar coordinates are converted to Cartesian coordinates before being subtracted.
- $D = A B = -4.5711 + j11.4012 = 12.2834 \angle 111.8473^{\circ}$
- Multiplication: The magnitude of the product of two phasors in polar coordinates is the product of two magnitudes, and the phase of the product is the sum of the phases.
- $E = AB = (5 \angle 60^{\circ})(10 \angle -45^{\circ}) = 50 \angle 15^{\circ} = 48.2063 + j12.9410$
- Division: The magnitude of the division of two phasors in polar coordinates is the division of two magnitudes, and the phase of the division is the difference of the phases.
- $F = A/B = (5 \angle 60^{\circ})/(10 \angle -45^{\circ}) = 0.5 \angle 105^{\circ} = -0.1294 + j0.4830$

Sum of Sinusoids

- Two or more sinusoids with same frequency can be added using phasors.
- Let

$$v_1(t) = 10 \cos(2\pi 100t + 30^\circ) \text{ V} \Rightarrow V_1 = 10\angle 30^\circ \text{ V}$$

 $v_2(t) = -5 \sin(2\pi 100t - 45^\circ) \text{ V} \Rightarrow V_2 = 5\angle 45^\circ \text{ V}$

Then, adding phasors, we obtain

$$V = V_1 + V_2 = 10 \angle 30^\circ + 5 \angle 45^\circ = 12.1958 + j8.5355 = 14.8860 \angle 34.9872^\circ V$$

The sum of sinusoids is given by

$$v(t) = v_1(t) + v_2(t) = 14.8860 \cos(2\pi 100t + 34.9872^\circ) V$$

Represent

$$v(t) = 150 \cos(2\pi 60t - 60^{\circ}) + 100 \sin(2\pi 60t + 120^{\circ}) V$$
 by a single sinusoid.

•
$$V = 150 \angle -60^{\circ} + 100 \angle 30^{\circ} = 180.2776 \angle -26.3099^{\circ} V$$

•
$$v(t) = 180.2776 \cos(2\pi 60t - 26.3099^{\circ}) V$$

Impedance and Admittance

- If the input voltage to a resistor, a capacitor, an inductor, or combination of these is a sinusoid, the current through it is also a sinusoid of same frequency as the input voltage. But the magnitude and phase of the current may be different.
- The voltage can be transformed into voltage phasor V, and the current can be transformed into current phasor I. The ratio of V to I is defined as impedance I of the component; that is,

$$Z = V/I$$

- The SI unit for impedance is ohm (Ω). The impedance is similar to resistance, but the impedance can be a function of frequency, and in general, is a complex quantity representing both the magnitude and phase.
- The equation Z = V/I is an Ohm's law for phasor transformed circuits. The Ohm's law can also be written as

$$V = ZI$$

$$I = V/Z$$

Impedance and Admittance (Continued)

- Since Z is complex in general, it can be represented as Z = R + jX
- The real part of Z, R, is the resistance and the imaginary part of Z, X, is the reactance. The SI unit for both R and X is ohm (Ω).
- The ratio of current / to voltage V is defined as the admittance and is denoted as Y. The admittance is the inverse of the impedance:

$$Y = I/V = 1/Z$$

The SI unit for Y is siemens (S). The current and voltage can be expressed respectively as

$$I = YV, V = I/Y$$

In general, admittance is a complex quantity.

$$Y = G + jB$$

• The real part of the admittance is defined as the conductance, G, and the imaginary part of admittance is defined as the susceptance, B. The unit for G and B is siemens (S).

Impedance and Admittance of a Resistor

- Ohm's law: v(t) = R i(t)
- $V(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) = Re[V_m e^{j\phi} e^{j\omega t}] = Re[Ve^{j\omega t}], V = V_m e^{j\phi} = V_m \angle \phi$
- $i(t) = v(t)/R = Re[(V_m e^{j\phi}/R)e^{j\omega t}] = Re[(I)e^{j\omega t}]$
- $I = (V_m e j^{\phi})/R = V/R$
- Z = V/I = R, Y = 1/R = G
- V and I have same phase ϕ as shown in Figure 9.21 and Figure 9.22.
- X = 0, B = 0

FIGURE 9.19

Voltage across and current through a resistor.

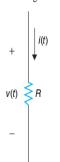


FIGURE 9.21

Phasors V and I for the resistor.

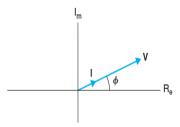


FIGURE 9.22

Waveform for voltage across the resistor and current through the resistor.

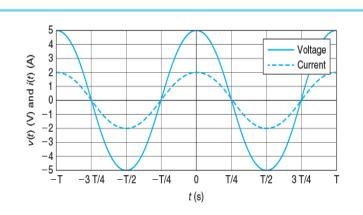
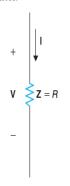


FIGURE 9.20

The impedance of a resistor.



Impedance and Admittance of a Capacitor

$$\bullet i(t) = C dv(t)/dt$$

•
$$v(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) = Re[V_m e^{j\phi} e^{j\omega t}] = Re[Ve^{j\omega t}], V = V_m e^{j\phi} = V_m \angle \phi$$

•
$$i(t) = C dv(t)/dt = Re[(j\omega CV_m e^{j\phi})e^{j\omega t}] = Re[(l)e^{j\omega t}]$$

•
$$I = j\omega CV_m e^{j\phi} = (j\omega C)V$$

•
$$Z = V/I = 1/(j\omega C) = -j/(\omega C) = 1/(\omega C) \angle -90^{\circ}, Y = j\omega C = \omega C \angle 90^{\circ}$$

•/ leads V by 90° as shown in Figure 9.25 and Figure 9.26.

•
$$R = 0, X = -/(\omega C), G = 0, B = \omega C$$

FIGURE 9.23

Voltage across and current through a capacitor.

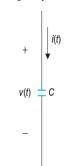


FIGURE 9.24

The impedance of a capacitor.

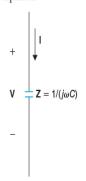


FIGURE 9.25

Phasors V and I for the capacitor.

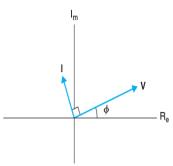
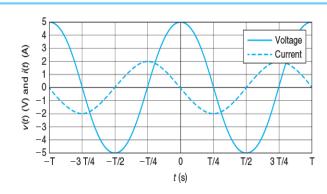


FIGURE 9.26

Waveform for voltage across the capacitor and current through the capacitor.



Impedance and Admittance of an Inductor

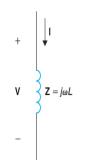
•
$$v(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) = Re[V_m e^{j\phi} e^{j\omega t}] = Re[Ve^{j\omega t}], V = V_m e^{j\phi} = V_m \angle \phi$$

$$i(t) = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-\infty}^{t} v(\lambda) d\lambda = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-\infty}^{t} \text{Re} \left[V_{m} e^{j\phi} e^{j\omega\lambda} \right] d\lambda = \text{Re} \left[V_{m} e^{j\phi} \frac{1}{j\omega L} e^{j\omega t} \right] = \text{Re} \left[\mathbf{I} e^{j\omega t} \right]$$

- $I = V_m e^{j\phi}/(j\omega L) = V/(j\omega L)$
- $Z = V/I = j\omega L = \omega L \angle 90^{\circ}$, $Y = 1/(j\omega L) = -j/(\omega L) = 1/(\omega L) \angle -90^{\circ}$
- / lags V by 90° as shown in Figure 9.29 and Figure 9.30.
- $R = 0, X = \omega L, G = 0, B = -1/(\omega L)$

FIGURE 9.28

The impedance of an inductor.



$+ \begin{cases} \downarrow i(t) \\ \downarrow v(t) \end{cases} L$

FIGURE 9.27

Voltage across and

current through an

inductor.

FIGURE 9.29

Phasors V and I for inductor.

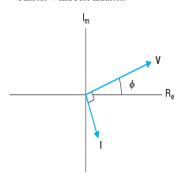
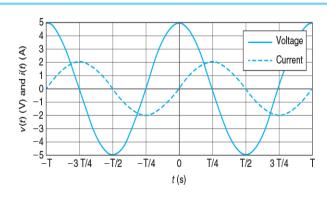


FIGURE 9.30

Waveform for voltage across the inductor and current through the inductor.



Phasor-Transformed Circuit

- If the voltage sources and current sources are sinusoids of given frequency, these sources can be transformed into voltage phasors and current phasors, respectively. The circuit elements can be transformed into the impedances.
- Circuits consisting of voltage phasors, current phasors, and impedances are called phasor-transformed circuits.
- Circuit laws and theorems for resistive circuits can be applied to phasor-transformed circuits, including Kirchhoff's current law (KCL), Kirchhoff's voltage law (KVL), the voltage divider rule, the current divider rule, nodal analysis, mesh analysis, source transformation, Thévenin's theorem, and Norton's theorem.
- The unknown voltages and currents in the phasor-transformed circuit can be found by applying these circuit laws and theorems.

• Draw the phasor-transformed circuit for the circuit shown in Figure 9.31. The AC voltage source is given by $v_s(t) = 150 \cos(2\pi 60t + 60^\circ) V$.

•
$$V_s = 150 \angle 60^{\circ} V$$

•
$$Z_{R1} = R_1 = 55 \ \Omega$$

•
$$Z_{R2} = R_2 = 105 \ \Omega$$

•
$$\omega = 2\pi 60 = 376.9911 \text{ rad/s}$$

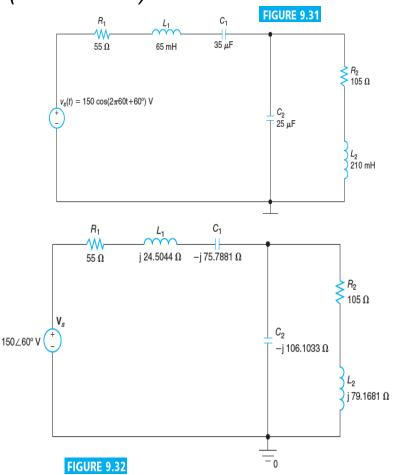
•
$$Z_{L1} = j\omega L_1 = j2\pi 60 \times 65 \times 10^{-3} = j24.5044 \ \Omega$$

•
$$Z_{L2} = j\omega L_2 = j2\pi 60 \times 210 \times 10^{-3} = j79.1681 \Omega$$

•
$$Z_{C1} = 1/(j\omega C_1) = -j75.7881 \Omega$$

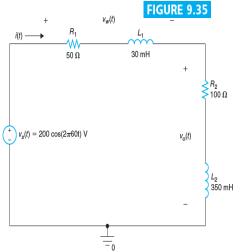
•
$$Z_{C2} = 1/(j\omega C_2) = -j106.1033 \ \Omega$$

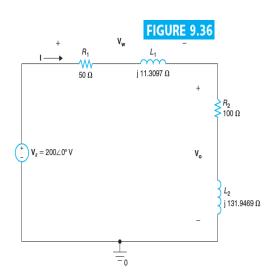
 The phasor-transformed circuit is shown in Figure 9.32.



• Draw the phasor-transformed circuit for the circuit shown in Figure 9.35, and find I, V_w , V_o , i(t), $v_w(t)$, $v_o(t)$.

- $v_s(t) = 200 \cos(2\pi 60t) \text{ V}.$
- $V_s = 200 \angle 0^{\circ} V$
- $Z_{R1} = R_1 = 50 \ \Omega, Z_{R2} = R_2 = 100 \ \Omega$
- $\omega = 2\pi 60 = 376.9911 \text{ rad/s}$
- $Z_{L1} = j\omega L_1 = j2\pi 60 \times 30 \times 10^{-3} = j11.3097 \ \Omega$
- $Z_{L2} = j\omega L_2 = j2\pi 60 \times 350 \times 10^{-3} = j131.9469 \ \Omega$
- The phasor-transformed circuit is shown in Figure 9.36.
- $Z = Z_{R1} + Z_{L1} + Z_{R2} + Z_{L2} = 150 + j143.2566$ = $207.4186 \angle 43.6827^{\circ} \Omega$
- $I = V_s/Z = 0.9642 \angle 43.6827^\circ$
- $i(t) = 0.9642\cos(2\pi 60t 43.6827^{\circ}) A$
- $V_W = I \times (Z_{R1} + Z_{I1}) = 49.4297 \angle -30.9372^{\circ} V$
- $V_o = I \times (Z_{R2} + Z_{L2}) = 159.6382 \angle 9.1595^{\circ} V$
- $v_w(t)=49.4297\cos(2\pi 60t-30.9372^\circ) V$
- v_o(t)=159.6382cos(2π60t + 9.1595°) V





KCL and KVL for Phasors

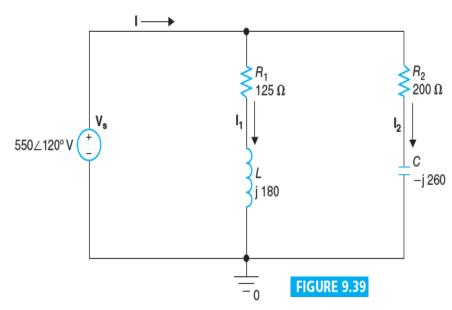
KCL

- The sum of currents entering a node equals the sum of currents leaving the same node.
- The algebraic sum of currents leaving a node equals zero.
- The algebraic sum of currents entering a node equals zero.

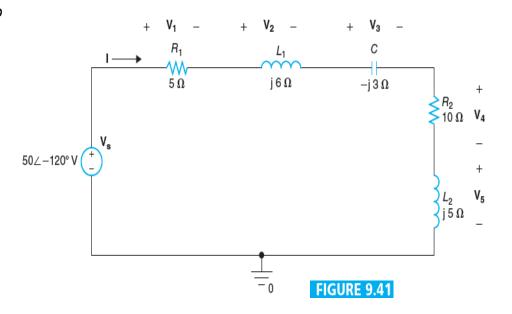
KVL

- The sum of voltage drops around a loop equals the sum of voltage rises of the same loop.
- The algebraic sum of voltage drops around a loop equals zero.
- The algebraic sum of voltage rises around the loop equals zero.

- Find the currents l_1 , l_2 , and l_1 in the circuit shown in Figure 9.39.
- $Z_1 = Z_{R1} + Z_1 = 125 + j180 = 219.1461 \angle 55.2222^{\circ} \Omega$
- $Z_2 = Z_{R2} + Z_C = 200 j260 = 328.0244 \angle 52.4314^{\circ} \Omega$
- $I_1 = V_s/Z_1 = 2.5097 \angle 64.7778^\circ = 1.0695 + j2.2705 A$
- $I_2 = V_s/Z_2 = 1.6767 \angle 172.4314^\circ = -1.6621 + j0.2208 A$
- $I = I_1 + I_2 = -0.5926 + j2.4913 A$ = $2.5608 \angle 103.3806^{\circ} A$



- Find I, V_1 , V_2 , V_3 , V_4 , and V_5 in the circuit shown in Figure 9.41.
- $I = (50 \angle -120^{\circ})/(5 + j6 j3 + 10 + j5) = 2.9412 \angle -148.0725^{\circ} = -2.4962 j1.5554 A$
- $V_1 = 5 \times I = 14.7059 \angle -148.0725^{\circ} V$
- $V_2 = j6 \times I = 17.6471 \angle -58.0725^{\circ} V$
- $V_3 = (-j3) \times I = 8.8235 \angle 121.9275^{\circ} V$
- $V_4 = 10 \times I = 29.4118 \angle -148.0725^{\circ} V$
- $V_5 = (j5) \times I = 14.7059 \angle -58.0725^\circ$

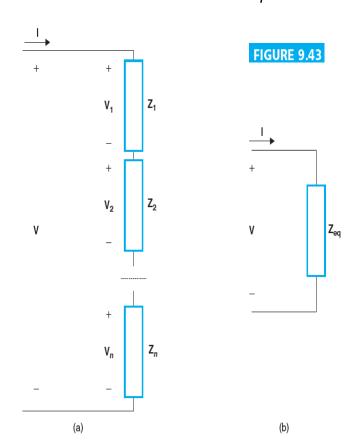


Series Connection of Impedances

•If *n* impedances are connected in series as shown in Figure 9.43(a), the current through all the impedances is I. Thus, according to KVL, the voltage across all the impedances is given by

$$V = V_1 + V_2 + ... + V_n = Z_1 I + Z_2 I + ... + Z_n I = (Z_1 + Z_2 + ... + Z_n) I = Z_{eq} I$$

- $\bullet Z_{eq} = Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_n$
- •The impedance Z_{eq} is the equivalent impedance of the n impedances connected in series.
- •Figure 9.43(b) shows the equivalent circuit with single impedance Z_{eq} .



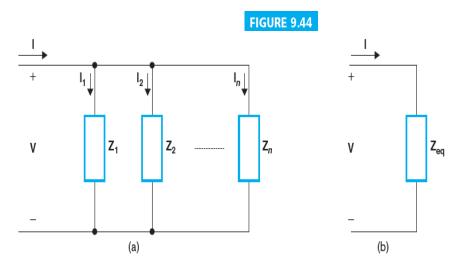
Parallel Connection of Impedances

If n impedances are connected in parallel as shown in Figure 9.44(a), the voltage across all the impedances is V. Thus, according to KCL, the current through all the impedances is given by

$$I = I_1 + I_2 + \dots + I_n = V/Z_1 + V/Z_2 + \dots + V/Z_n = V/(1/(1/Z_1 + 1/Z_2 + \dots + 1/Z_n)) = V/Z_{eq}$$

- $Z_{eq} = 1/(1/Z_1 + 1/Z_2 + ... + 1/Z_n)$
- The impedance Z_{eq} is the equivalent impedance of the n impedances connected in parallel.
- Figure 9.44(b) shows the equivalent circuit with single impedance Z_{eq} .
- For two impedances Z_1 and Z_2 in parallel,

$$Z_{eq} = 1/(1/Z_1 + 1/Z_2) = Z_1 \times Z_2/(Z_1 + Z_2)$$



•Find $v_a(t)$ and $v_b(t)$ in the circuit shown in Figure 9.45.

$$\bullet Z_{L1}=j\omega L_1=j26.3894~\Omega,~Z_{L2}=j\omega L_2=j37.7~\Omega$$

•
$$Z_{C1} = 1/(j\omega C_1) = -j106.1033 \ \Omega$$

•
$$Z_{C2} = 1/(j\omega C_2) = -j88.4194 \Omega$$

•
$$Z_a = Z_C \mid | (R_4 + Z_{L2}) = 69.7059 - j44.2256 \Omega$$

•
$$Z_b = (R_2 + Z_{L1}) \mid | (R_3 + Z_a) = 74.1614 - j6.7508 \Omega$$

•
$$Z_t = R_1 + Z_{C1} + Z_b = 104.1614 - j112.8540 \Omega$$

•
$$I = V_s/Z_t = 0.8833 + j0.9579 A$$

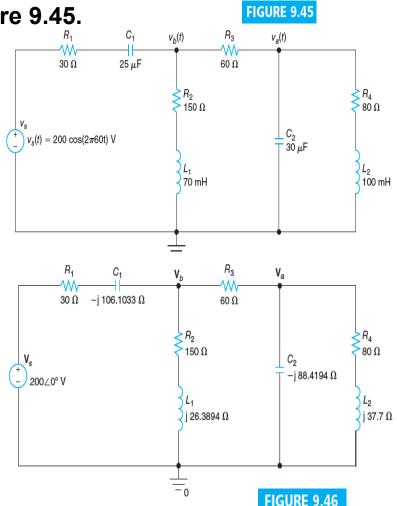
$$V_b = Z_b \times I = 96.9786 \angle 42.0926^{\circ} V$$

$$\bullet I_{R3} = V_b/(R_3 + Z_a) = 0.3439 + j0.6185 A$$

$$V_a = Z_a \times I_{R3} = 58.4199 \angle 28.5269^{\circ} V$$

$$\bullet V_a(t) = 58.4199 \cos(2\pi 60t + 28.5269^\circ) V$$

•
$$v_b(t) = 96.9786 \cos(2\pi 60t + 42.0926^\circ) V$$



Summary

- Phasor represents the magnitude and phase of a sinusoid. Phasors are useful in finding voltages and currents in the steady state when the input signals are sinusoids.
- The ratio of the voltage phasor V to the current phasor I is defined as the impedance Z of circuit elements. The impedance is similar to resistance, but the impedance is a function of frequency, and is a complex quantity representing both the magnitude and phase of the sinusoid.
- The admittance Y is defined as the ratio of the current phasor I to the voltage phasor V.
- If voltage sources and current sources are sinusoids, these sources can be transformed to voltage phasors and current phasors, respectively. Circuit elements can be transformed to impedances. Circuits consisting of voltage phasors, current phasors, and impedances are called phasor transformed circuit.
- Circuit laws and theorems for resistive circuits can be applied to phasor transformed circuits.
- Voltage phasors and current phasors can be transformed to voltages and currents in the time domain.