

Lecture 18 - AC circuits and Phasors

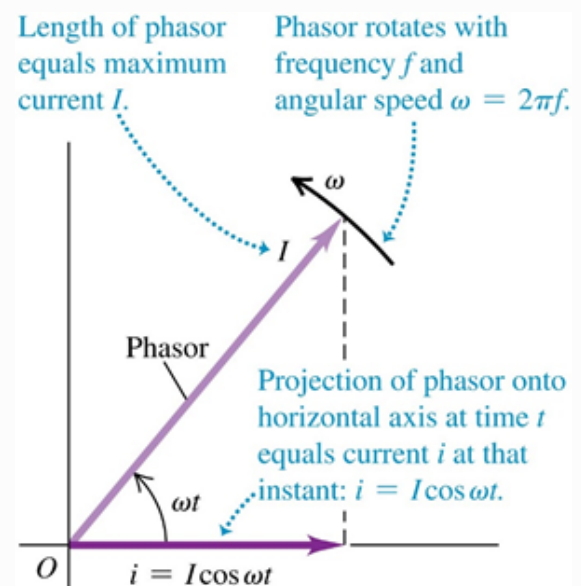
Why are harmonic (sinusoidal) signals useful?

- Harmonic emfs occur when we spin a coil in a magnetic field.
- Sinusoidal voltages and currents can be easily transformed using pairs of inductors.
- Any periodic signal can be represented as the sum of sine and cosine signals (Fourier series).
- Any pulse can be represented as the integral of sine and cosine signals (Fourier transform).

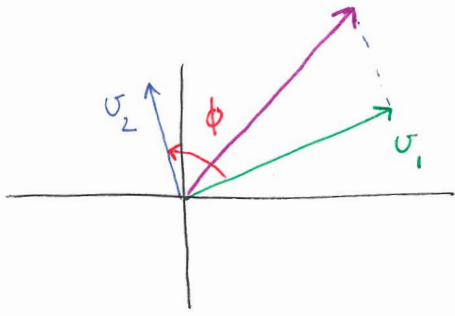
Phasor representation

A harmonic quantity $v = V_0 \cos(\omega t + \phi)$ can be represented by a rotating vector known as a **phasor** using the following conventions:

1. Phasors rotate in the CCW direction with angular speed ω .
2. The length of each phasor is proportional to the AC quantity amplitude.
3. The projection of the phasor on the x-axis gives the instantaneous value



When we want to add instantaneous voltages around a loop, we need to keep the phase in mind.



$$v_1(t) = V_1 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$v_2(t) = V_2 \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

Add phasors just like vectors.

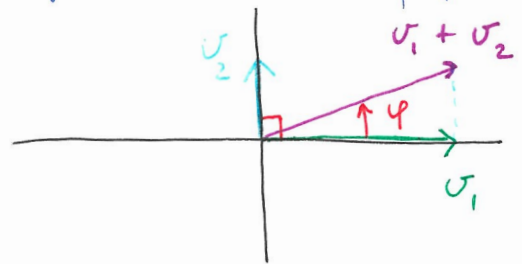
Example: adding two AC voltages 90° out of phase

$$v_1(t) = V_1 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$v_2(t) = V_2 \cos(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2})$$

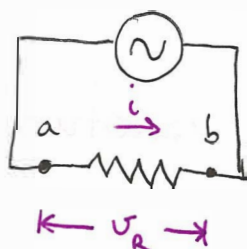
$$v_1(t) + v_2(t) = V_T \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$V_T = \sqrt{V_1^2 + V_2^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \phi = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right)$$



Resistor in an AC circuit

3



$$\text{Let } v_R(t) = V_R \cos \omega t$$

$$i_R(t) = \frac{v}{R} = \frac{V_R}{R} \cos \omega t = I_0 \cos \omega t$$

The resistance does not depend on

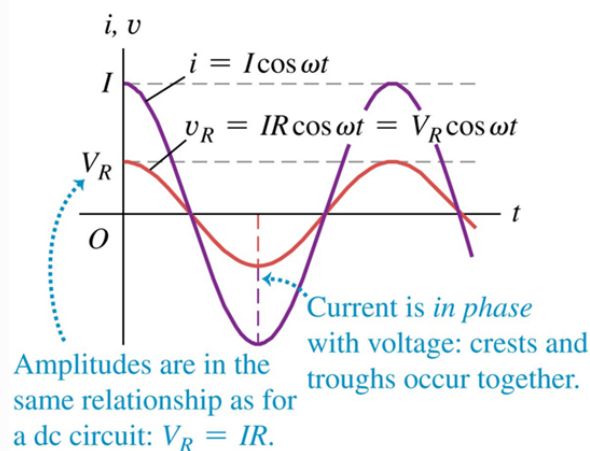
the frequency of the AC source.

The voltage and current amplitudes are related by Ohm's law :

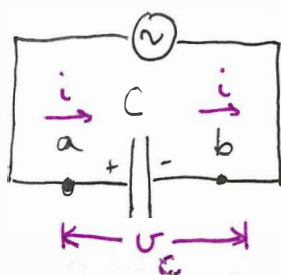
$$V_R = I_0 R$$

The phasors for current and voltage are in phase with one another.

Graphs of current and voltage versus time



Capacitor in an AC circuit



$$v_C(t) = V_C \sin(\omega t)$$

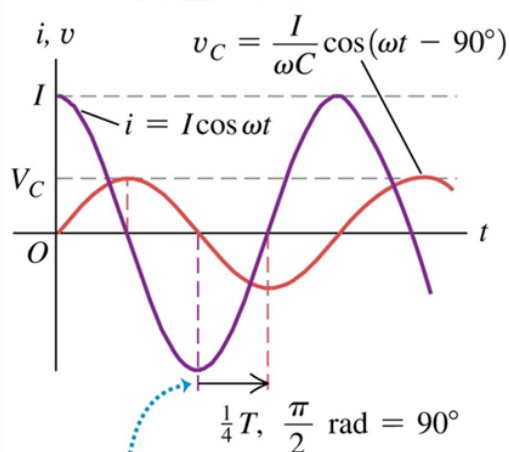
$$\Rightarrow q_C = C v_C = C V_C \sin(\omega t)$$

$$i_C = \frac{dq_C}{dt} = C V_C \omega \cos(\omega t)$$

$$= \frac{V_C}{(1/C\omega)} \cos(\omega t)$$

$$= I_C \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

Note that the current through a capacitor is 90° out of phase with voltage.

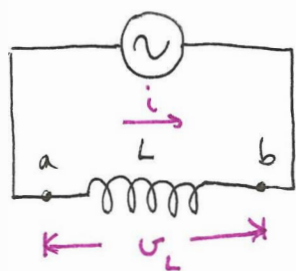


Voltage curve lags current curve by a quarter-cycle (corresponding to $\phi = -\pi/2$ rad = -90°).

- When a capacitor is connected to an AC source, the voltage and current amplitudes are related by:

$$V = IX_c \quad \text{where} \quad X_c \equiv \frac{1}{\omega C} \quad \text{is the reactance}$$

Inductor in an AC circuit



$$v_L(t) = V_c \sin(\omega t) = +L \frac{di}{dt}$$

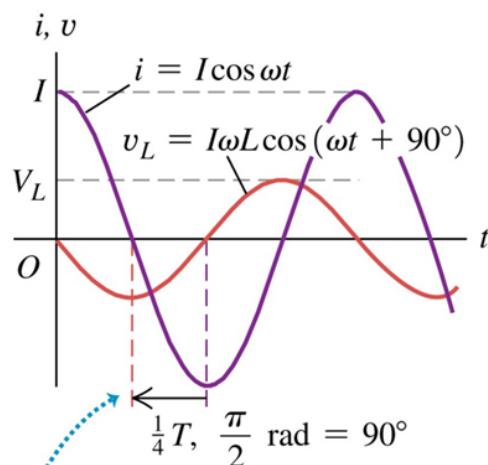
$$\Rightarrow i(t) = \frac{-V_L}{\omega L} \cos(\omega t)$$

Note that the AC current through an inductor is 90° out of phase with voltage.

When an inductor is connected to an AC source, the voltage and current amplitudes are related by:

$$V = IX_L \quad \text{where} \quad X_L \equiv \omega L \quad \text{is the reactance}$$

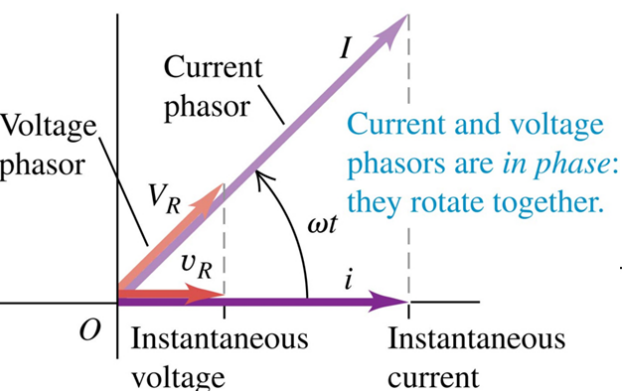
Graphs of current and voltage versus time



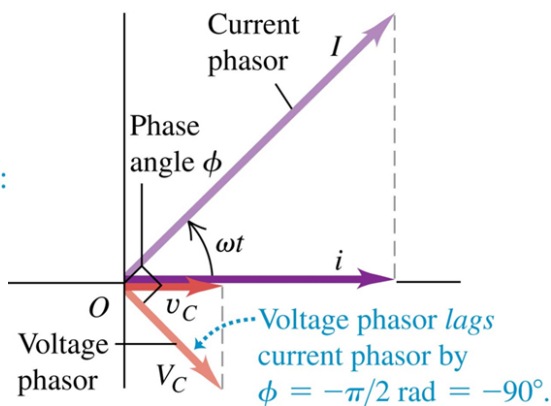
Voltage curve leads current curve by a quarter-cycle (corresponding to $\phi = \pi/2 \text{ rad} = 90^\circ$).

Mnemonic for phase: eLi the iCe man

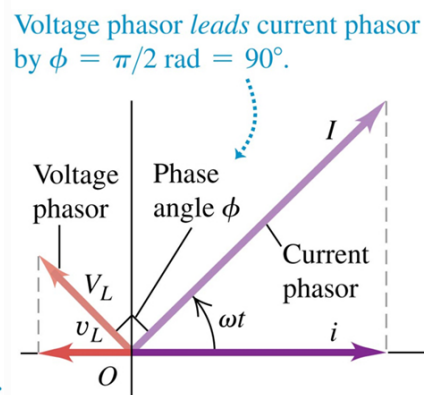
Phasor diagram



Phasor diagram



Phasor diagram



Complex numbers

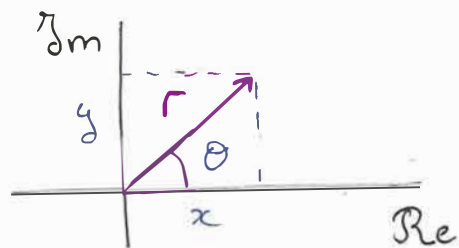
Phasors can be represented by complex numbers which include both real and imaginary parts:

$$\tilde{z} = x + jy$$

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

$$\text{with } r = \sqrt{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$



$$j \equiv \sqrt{-1} = e^{j\pi/2}$$

Multiplying a harmonic function by j increases the phase by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ (rotates the phasor by 90° CCW):

$$\tilde{A}(t) = jae^{j\omega t} = ae^{j\frac{\pi}{2}}e^{j\omega t} = ae^{j(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2})}$$

Remember:

$$\cos(\omega t) = \sin\left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \quad \sin(\omega t) = \cos\left(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

Basic complex arithmetic:

If $\tilde{z}_1 = A_1 e^{j\varphi}$ and $\tilde{z}_2 = A_2 e^{j(\varphi+\delta)}$, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{z}_1 + \tilde{z}_2 &= e^{j\varphi} (A_1 + A_2 e^{j\delta}) \\ &= e^{j\varphi} ((A_1 + A_2 \cos \delta) + j A_2 \sin \delta) \\ &= e^{j\varphi} M e^{j\beta} = M e^{j(\beta+\varphi)}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } M = \sqrt{(A_1 + A_2 \cos \delta)^2 + (A_2 \sin \delta)^2};$$

$$\beta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{A_2 \sin \delta}{A_1 + A_2 \cos \delta} \right)$$

If $\tilde{z}_1 = r_1 e^{j\theta_1}$ and $\tilde{z}_2 = r_2 e^{j\theta_2}$, then:

$$\tilde{z}_1 \tilde{z}_2 = r_1 e^{j\theta_1} r_2 e^{j\theta_2} = r_1 r_2 e^{j(\theta_2 + \theta_1)}$$

$$\frac{\tilde{z}_1}{\tilde{z}_2} = r_1 e^{j\theta_1} \frac{e^{-j\theta_2}}{r_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} e^{j(\theta_1 - \theta_2)}$$

See math appendix in Y&F or complex numbers in Schaum's.

7
Complex conjugate:

- whenever a j appears in a complex number, negate it.

$$(a + jb)^* = a - jb \quad \text{and} \quad (Re^{j\theta})^* = Re^{-j\theta}$$

- Multiplying by the complex conjugate always results in a real positive number.

$$(a + jb)(a - jb) = a^2 + b^2$$

- Multiplying by the complex conjugate and taking the square root yields the magnitude of a complex number: $|A| = \sqrt{AA^*}$

Manipulating complex ratios:

It is frequently useful to take a complex ratio, like $\frac{a+jb}{c+jd}$ and separate it into real and imaginary components. This allows us to rapidly determine how much of the complex number is "in-phase" and "out-of-phase" with the driving signal.

To do this, multiply top and bottom by the complex conjugate of the bottom.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{a+jb}{c+jd} \left(\frac{c-jd}{c-jd} \right) &= \frac{(ac+bd) + j(-ad+bc)}{c^2+d^2} \\ &= \left(\frac{ac+bd}{c^2+d^2} \right) + j \left(\frac{-ad+bc}{c^2+d^2} \right)\end{aligned}$$

Complex number worksheet

AC analysis of a resistor (exponential approach)

$$v_R(t) = V_0 \cos(\omega t) = \text{Re}(V_0 e^{j\omega t})$$

which we just write as $V_0 e^{j\omega t}$

$$\text{Using } v_R(t) = i(t)R,$$

$$i(t) = \frac{v_R(t)}{R} = \frac{V_0}{R} e^{j\omega t} = I_0 e^{j\omega t}$$

$$\boxed{Z_R \equiv \text{impedance} = \frac{v(t)}{i(t)} = R}$$

Impedance, generally $Z = R + jX$, keeps track of both amplitude and phase relationships.

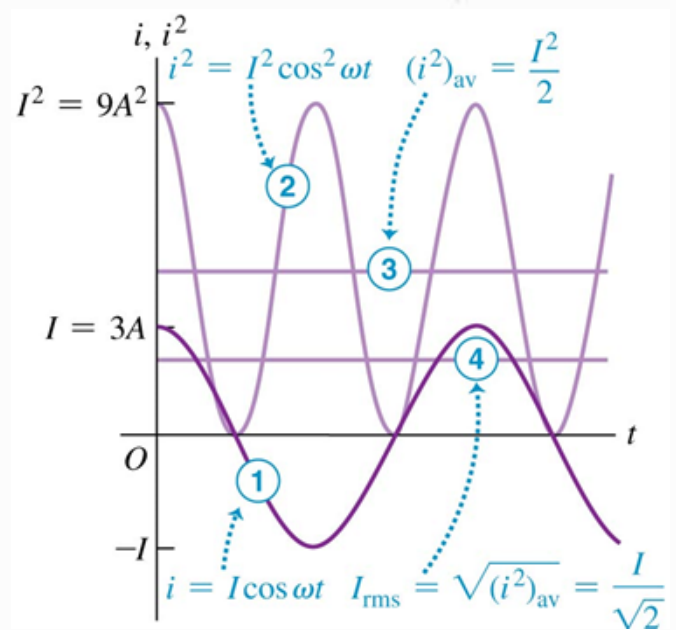
R = resistance is the real (in-phase) part of the $v(t)/i(t)$ ratio.

X = reactance is the out-of-phase part of the ratio (applies to capacitors and inductors).

Root mean square of a sinusoidal voltage :

To calculate the rms of a sinusoidal current :

- square the instantaneous current i
- Take the average (mean) value of i^2
- Take the square root of that average.



$$i(t) = I \cos(\omega t) \Rightarrow I_{rms} = \sqrt{(i^2)_{av}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i^2(t) dt}$$

$$\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i^2(t) dt = \frac{I^2}{T} \int_0^T \cos^2\left(\frac{2\pi}{T} t\right) dt = \frac{I^2}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow I_{rms} = \frac{I}{\sqrt{2}} \quad ; \quad V_{rms} = \frac{V}{\sqrt{2}}$$

AC analysis of a capacitor (exponential approach) ¹⁰

$$v(t) = V_0 \cos(\omega t) = V_0 e^{j\omega t}$$

$$v_c(t) = \frac{q_c(t)}{C}$$

$$q(t) = Q_0 e^{j\omega t} \Rightarrow V_0 e^{j\omega t} = \frac{Q_0 e^{j\omega t}}{C}$$

$$\Rightarrow Q_0 = V_0 C$$

$$i(t) = \frac{dq}{dt} = j\omega V_0 C e^{j\omega t}$$

$$Z_c = \frac{v(t)}{i(t)} = \frac{V_0 e^{j\omega t}}{j\omega V_0 C e^{j\omega t}} = \frac{1}{j\omega C}$$

phase change

$$X_c = \frac{1}{\omega C}$$

$v(t) = i(t) Z$: treat Z like R in circuit.

AC analysis of an inductor (exponential approach)

$$v(t) = V_0 \cos(\omega t) = \text{Re}(V_0 e^{j\omega t})$$

$$v_L(t) = -L \frac{di(t)}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow i(t) = -\frac{1}{L} \int v_L(t) dt = -\frac{V_0}{L} \int e^{j\omega t} dt = \frac{-1}{j\omega L} V_0 e^{j\omega t}$$

$$Z_L = \frac{v(t)}{i(t)} = \frac{V_0 e^{j\omega t}}{\frac{-1}{j\omega L} V_0 e^{j\omega t}} = -j\omega L$$

$$X_L = \omega L$$

Power in AC circuits

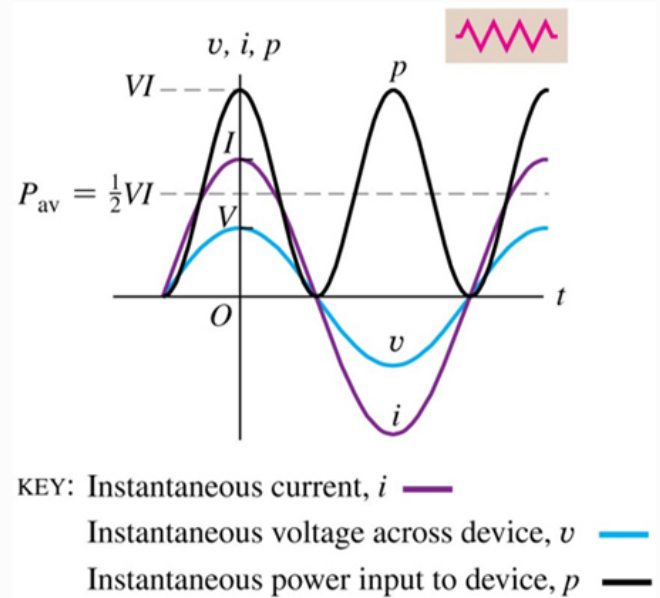
The instantaneous power flowing into or out of a device is the product of the voltage and current.

$$p(t) = i(t)v(t)$$

• For a resistor:

$$p_R(t) = i v = \frac{V_R^2}{R} \sin^2(\omega t)$$

$$P_{R \text{ avg}} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \frac{V_R^2}{R} \sin^2(\omega t) dt = \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_R^2}{R} = \frac{V_{\text{rms}}^2}{R}$$



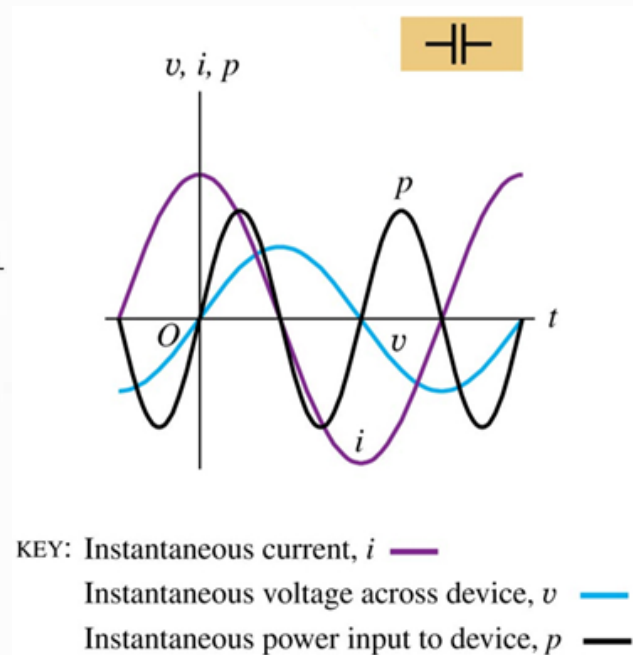
• In capacitors:

The current is 90° out-of-phase with the voltage.

$$p_C(t) = i_C v_C = V_C^2 \omega C \sin(\omega t) \cos(\omega t)$$

$$P_{C \text{ avg}} = 0$$

As charge oscillates, energy flows into, and then out, of a capacitor.



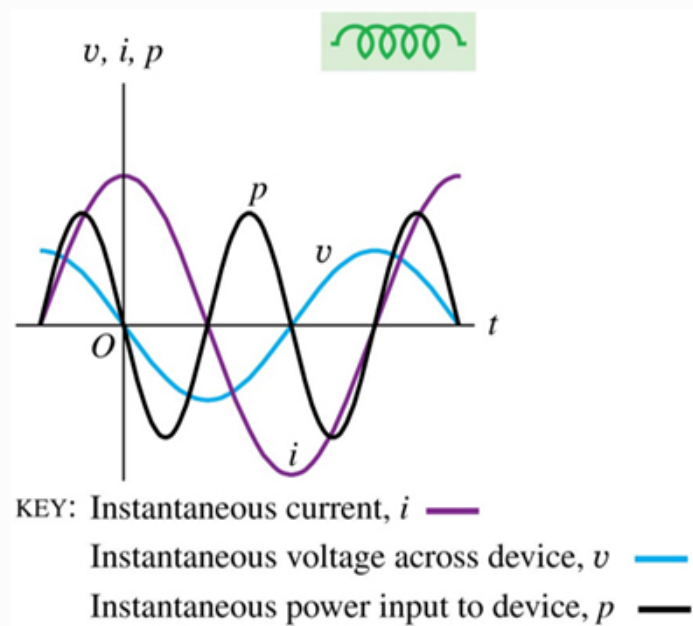
- In inductors:

The current and voltage are also 90° out of phase with each other.

$$p_L(t) = i_L v_L = \frac{V_L^2}{X_L} \sin(\omega t) \cos(\omega t)$$

$$P_{L_{avg}} = 0$$

As current oscillates, energy flows into, and then out, of an inductor.



Summary

- Phasors allow us to visualize oscillating systems.
- Exponential notation allows us to do math for oscillating systems more easily.
- Neither an ideal capacitor nor inductor dissipate energy in circuits! ($E_{in} = E_{out}$)
- $v(t) = i(t) Z$; $Z_R = R$, $Z_C = \frac{1}{j\omega C}$, $Z_L = j\omega L$
- Multiplying by j advances the phase by $\pi/2$
- Multiplying by $-j = \frac{1}{j}$ delays the phase by $\pi/2$
- $V_o = I_o |Z|$; $|Z| = \sqrt{Z Z^*}$