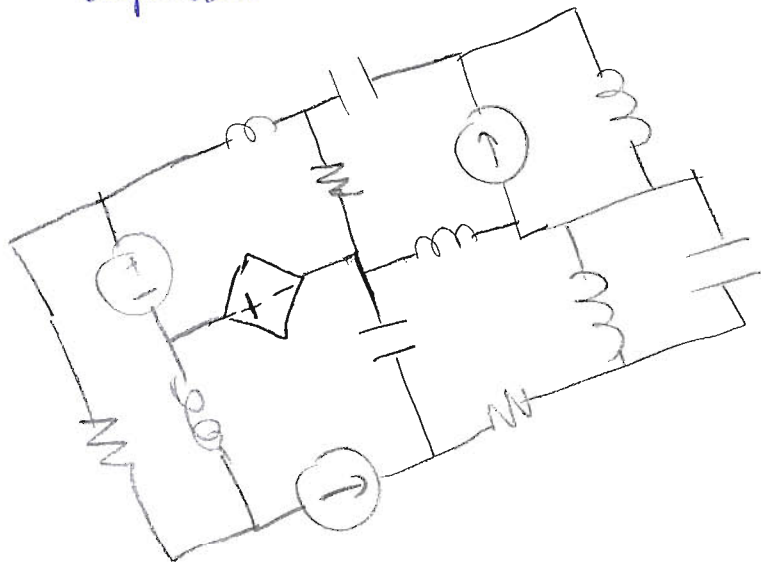


Introduction to AC analysis : phasors & impedances

(alternating current)
växelström

and conversion between phasors
and time-functions

Consider a general* circuit
of R, L, C, independent and
dependent sources.



*"general": not restricted to e.g. only one capacitor

● its full transient solution
when changes happen may
be very difficult ... ODEs
of high order, many natural
"modes" of oscillations


● the steady state (equilibrium)
with all sources constant (dc)
is actually very easy: we
did this already.

● now we consider another
special situation where
everything is SINUSOIDAL ...


"sinusoidal steady state" means that:

* the quantities of all independent sources vary sinusoidally in time, all at the same frequency

e.g.


$$U_1(t) = U_{1\text{peak}} \cdot \sin(\omega t)$$


$$I(t) = I_{\text{peak}} \cdot \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$


$$U_2(t) = U_{2\text{peak}} \cdot \sin(\omega t + \pi/2)$$

same angular frequency

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$

radian/s

frequency
eg. Hz

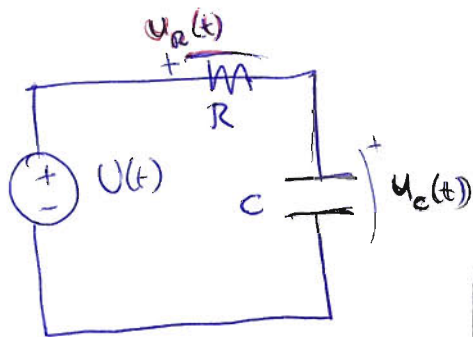
* the circuit is stable, and linear (we always assume that in this course), and has been left "long enough" with these sinusoidal sources so that the "natural response" in the circuit has damped away and all voltages and currents are just the "forced response" due to the sources

⇒ THEN ALL VOLTAGES AND CURRENTS ARE SINUSOIDAL

Sinusoidal steady state: "all quantities (u, i) have same shape as the source - sinusoidal"
 but they can differ in their size and timing
 amplitude "phase"

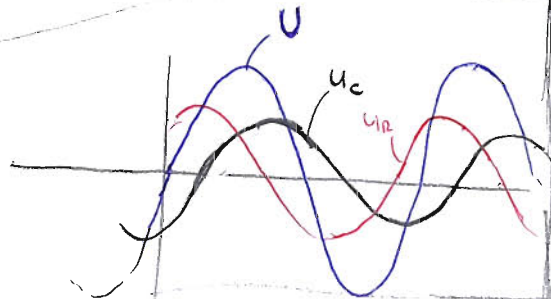
This is not a general result for any periodic stimulus!
 It's a special property of sinusoids.

Remember the lab 3 (see the comments file):



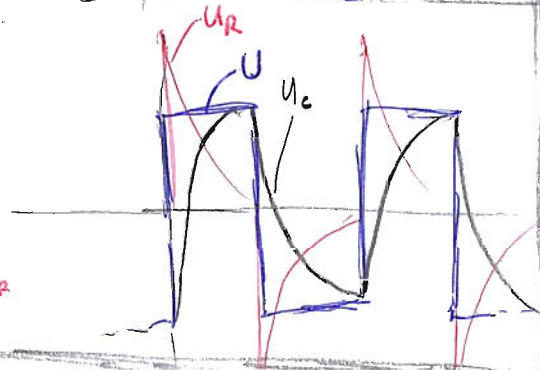
$U(t)$ sinusoidal

⇒ all quantities are sinusoidal
 differ only in amplitude & phase



$U(t)$ not sinusoidal
 eg. Square-wave

⇒ very different shapes are possible for u_C & u_R



Why is this "ac analysis", based on "sinusoidal steady state" useful?

⇒ Why devote so much time to it?

* solution is much easier than the full ODE transient solution for complex circuits

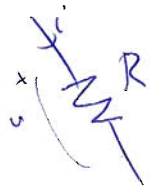
* many applications have sinusoidal (or approximately sinusoidal) stimulus (and have transients dying away relatively quickly)

eg. the ac electric power system
"carrier" of a radio station

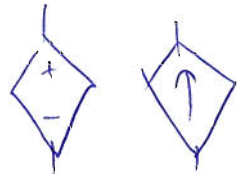
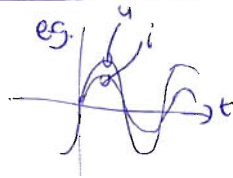
* other periodic waveforms can be treated by their fourier series components
— es. do ac analysis for each of the main (strongest) components

So it's actually very important, in power and communications!

Can we think of simple justifications of why the circuits with all sinusoidal stimulus will have only sinusoidal u & i everywhere?



if one quantity is sinusoidal, the other must be: $\frac{u}{i} = R$ at every point in time



and dependent sources just 'follow the controlling variable', so if that is a sinusoid the output will be a sinusoid.



integral or derivative of sin or cos is another sin or cos function of same frequency

eg.

$$u = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

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

(example)

$$u(t) = \omega L I \cos(\omega t) = \omega L I \sin(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2})$$



KCL

KVL

adding or subtracting sinusoids of the same frequency gives another sinusoid of this frequency

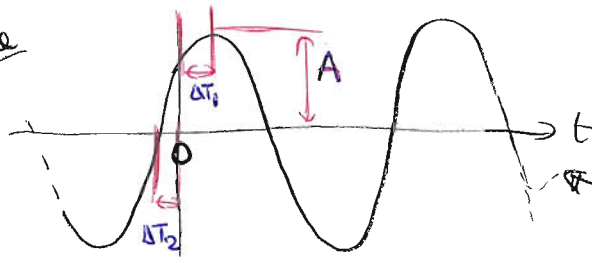
this shows that it makes sense for sinusoidal quantities in all parts of the circuit being able to have a solution (it's no proof!)

Basic principles: PHASOR fasvektor

By the assumptions for ac analysis, any voltage or current will be sinusoidal, of known ^{angular} frequency ω

In that case only two parameters are needed to specify it completely (describe)
 \Rightarrow amplitude and phase

example



angle added to whatever we choose as our reference function, to make this signal.

This can be written as:

$$A \cos(\omega t - \varphi_1) \quad \text{where } \varphi_1 = \Delta T_1 \cdot \omega$$

$$\text{or } A \sin(\omega t + \varphi_2) \quad \text{where } \varphi_2 = \Delta T_2 \cdot \omega$$

$$\text{or } A \cos(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2} + \varphi_2)$$

etc.

↑
phase, depending on whether the chosen function is sin or cos

Complex numbers have magnitude and angle. They are well suited to describing these sinusoids.

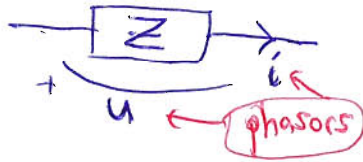
A PHASOR is a complex number representing a sinusoidal quantity.

Basic principles: IMPEDANCE

Resistance is a ratio of $\frac{\text{voltage}}{\text{current}}$... hence $U = IR$ ecc.

Impedance is a more general concept (but similar) for AC circuits.

Symbol usually Z



$$Z = \frac{U}{i}$$

↑ may be complex as it is a ratio of phasors

for a resistor: simple .. $Z = R$. (purely real)

for an inductor: $Z = \overset{N-P}{j} \omega L$ (purely positive imaginary)

for a capacitor: $Z = \frac{1}{j\omega C} = \frac{-j}{\omega C}$ (purely negative imaginary)

What these impedances tell us is that:

- for a resistor, voltage and current are "in phase"
- for an inductor, voltage has phase 90° earlier than the current
this is seen from the j which $(\pi/2)$ ("leading")
is a 90° phase shift in the complex plane.
- for a capacitor, voltage has phase 90° later than the current.
this is seen from the $-j$ ("lagging")

We can see this from earlier studies

of C & L with sinusoids:

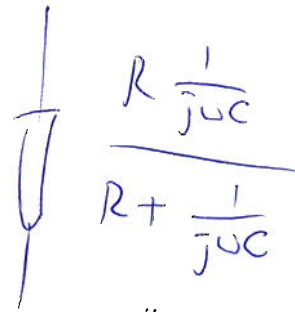
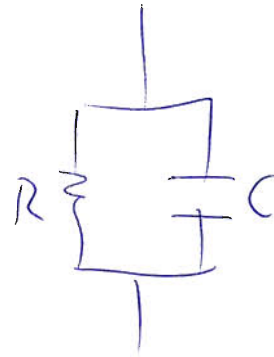
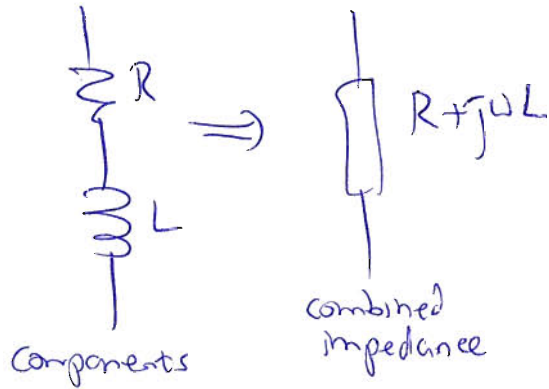


$$u(t) = L \frac{di}{dt} = \omega L I \cos(\omega t)$$

$\cos(\omega t)$ 'leads' $\sin(\omega t)$ by 90°

combining impedances --- just like resistances!

but COMPLEX
(numbers)



simplify to

$$\frac{R}{1 + j\omega RC}$$

etc.

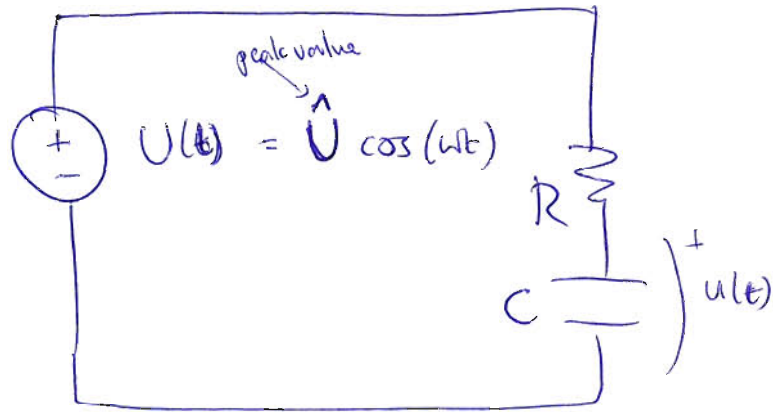
How to do ac analysis . . .

- 0 describe voltages and currents as phasors (known or unknown)
describe capacitors and inductors as impedances
- 1 calculate as for dc circuit, but with phasors and impedances instead of purely real values of dc sources and resistance.
- 2 if necessary, convert the solution (a phasor) to the corresponding time-function

In many applied cases, we don't care about time functions at all, but only about amplitudes and relative phase -- then step 2 can be omitted.

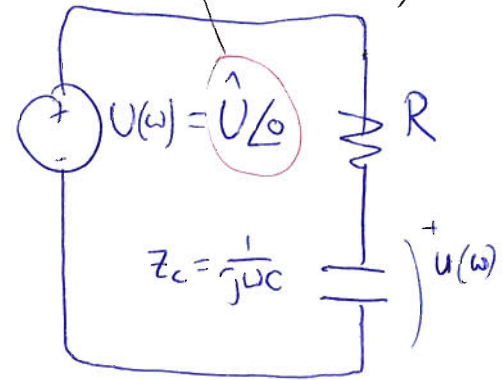
In this topic, we mainly start with time functions, convert to phasors, calculate by ac analysis, then convert back to time functions.

A simple example:



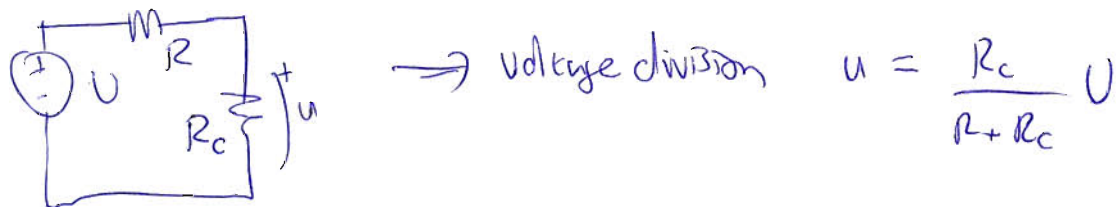
find $u(t)$

convert from "time domain"
to "frequency domain" (phasors)

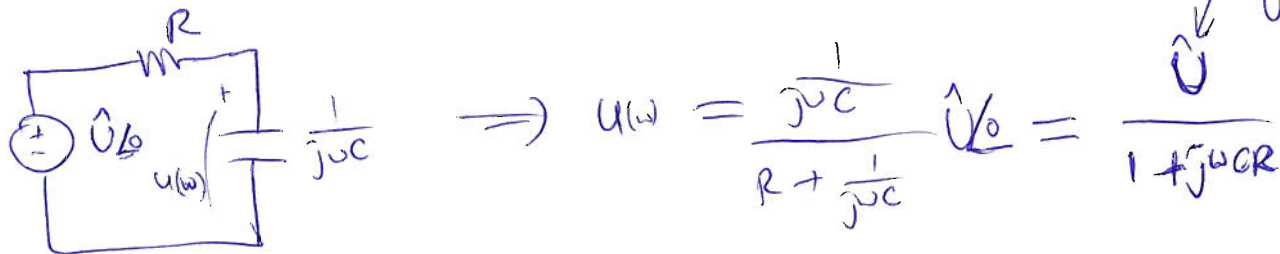


Now treat the phasors and impedances as you would treat the source values and resistances in a dc analysis.

If it had been dc, it could have looked like this:



So in our case we have instead (complex)



Since the angle is 0
we can write just \hat{U}
as a short form
of \hat{U}_0

This is a frequency domain solution: we have found a phasor u that describes the sought quantity.

We were asked to find $u(t)$, so we need to write the time function that this phasor describes.

Somehow we must convert $u(\omega) = \frac{\hat{U}}{1 + j\omega CR}$ to $u(t) = A \cdot \cos(\omega t + \phi)$

(frequency domain) amplitude phase
(time domain)

At the start we made a choice ... the source's time function
 of $U(t) = \hat{U} \cos(\omega t)$ was written as phasor $U(\omega) = \hat{U}$.

* That means we chose that a cosine $\cos(\omega t)$
 with no added phase corresponds to a phasor
 with zero phase (real number) — (this is called "cosine reference")

real number
 equal to amplitude
 of the time function

* And that a cosine with peak amplitude \hat{U}
 corresponds to a phasor of magnitude \hat{U} . (peak reference)

Neither of these choices is a necessary one (we could choose that
 $\sin(\omega t)$ or $\cos(\omega t + \pi)$ gives a phasor of zero angle, or that the phasor's
 magnitude is scaled by $\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 etc)

But we must use the same for $\begin{cases} u(t) \rightarrow u(\omega) \\ u(\omega) \rightarrow u(t) \end{cases}$
converting back into time

So, with our choice of references,

$$u(t) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{MAGNITUDE} \\ \text{OF OUR PHASOR} \\ u(\omega) \end{array} \right) \cdot \cos \left(\omega t + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{ANGLE OF} \\ \text{OUR PHASOR} \\ u(\omega) \end{array} \right) \right)$$

$$u(t) = \left| \frac{\hat{U}_0}{1+j\omega CR} \right| \cdot \cos \left(\omega t + \frac{\hat{U}_0}{1+j\omega CR} \right)$$

magnitude (pointing to the magnitude term)

means "angle of" (pointing to the angle term)

Thus

$$u(t) = \frac{\hat{U}}{\sqrt{1+(\omega CR)^2}} \cdot \cos \left(\omega t - \tan^{-1}(\omega CR) \right)$$

see "chapter" file for complex number refresher!

How were these parts done?

$$\frac{V_0}{1 + j\omega CR}$$

$$= \frac{A e^{j\alpha}}{B e^{j\beta}}$$

$$= \frac{A e^{j\alpha}}{B e^{j\beta}} = \frac{A}{B} e^{j(\alpha - \beta)}$$

$$= \frac{A}{B} e^{j(\alpha - \beta)}$$

$$= \left(\frac{A}{B} \right) \angle \alpha - \beta$$

magnitude of phasor

angle

$$A = 0$$
$$\alpha = 0$$

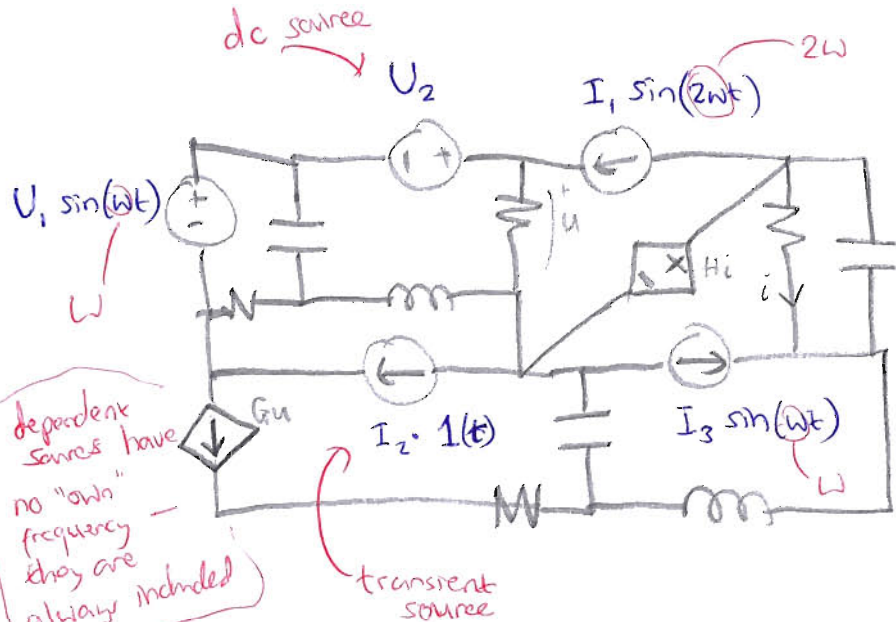
$$B = \sqrt{1^2 + \omega^2 C^2 R^2}$$
$$\beta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\omega CR}{1} \right)$$

$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{0}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega CR)^2}}$$

$$\alpha - \beta = -\tan^{-1} \omega CR$$

FINAL POINT

If we have only some sources sinusoidal at a particular frequency — and others have dc ($f=0$ Hz!) or other frequency, we can still do ac analysis, but using SUPERPOSITION to handle just the same-frequency sources at a time.



Could solve then superpose?

* ac analysis at ω
(two sources active)

* ac analysis at 2ω
(one source active)

* dc analysis (one source active)

* transient analysis (one source)

dependent sources have no "own" frequency — they are always included