

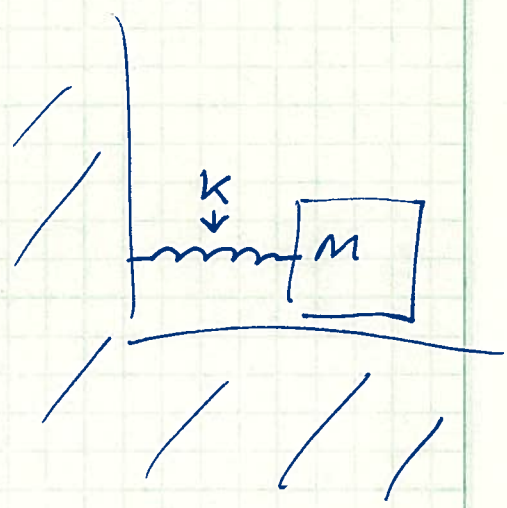
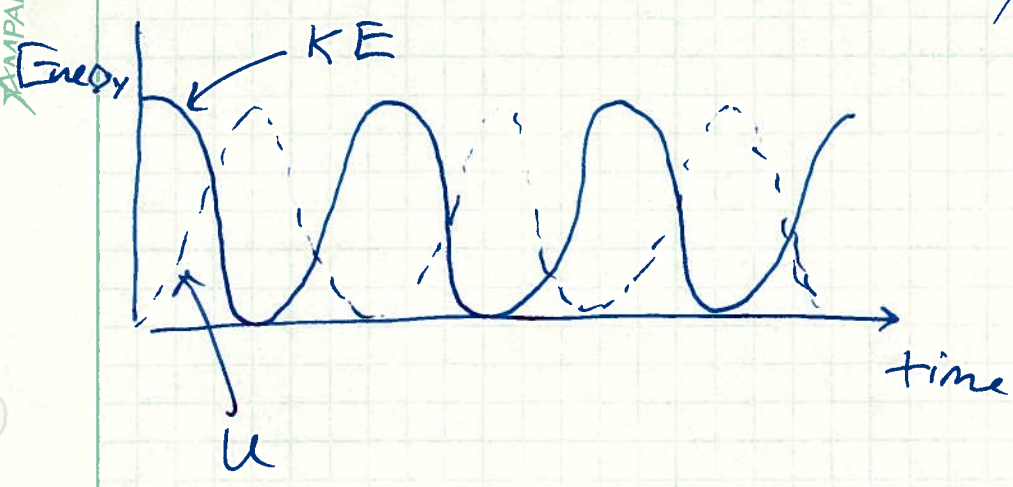
Electrical Oscillators

Mechanical Oscillator: energy is converted between kinetic and elastic potential

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2$$

$$U = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$$

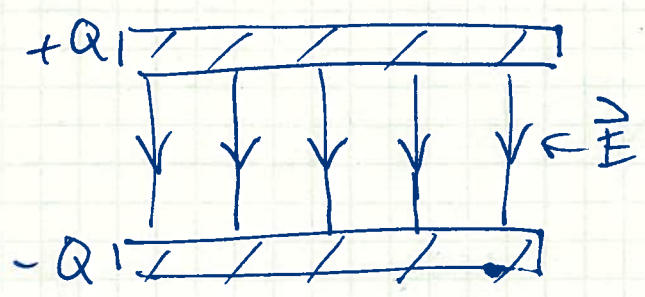
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Electrical Oscillator: Energy is converted between electric (\vec{E} field) and magnetic (\vec{B} field).

① Capacitor: Device for storing energy in an electric field

Ex: Parallel Plate Capacitor



Each small volume of space (dV) with an electric field \vec{E} stores a small amount of electric energy (dU_E):

$$dU_E = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 |\vec{E}|^2}_{u_E} dV, \quad u_E = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 |\vec{E}|^2$$

Energy, big U \nearrow

u_E
↑
energy density, little u

= "electric energy density of free space"
= $\frac{\text{Joules}}{\text{meter}^3}$

The total energy stored is

"big U " $\rightarrow U_E = \int_{\text{all space}} \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 |\vec{E}|^2 dV$

If the electric field is created by a capacitor with charges $+Q$ and $-Q$ and voltage difference V , then the total energy can be written

$$U_E = \frac{1}{2} QV = \frac{1}{2} CV^2 = \frac{Q^2}{2C}$$

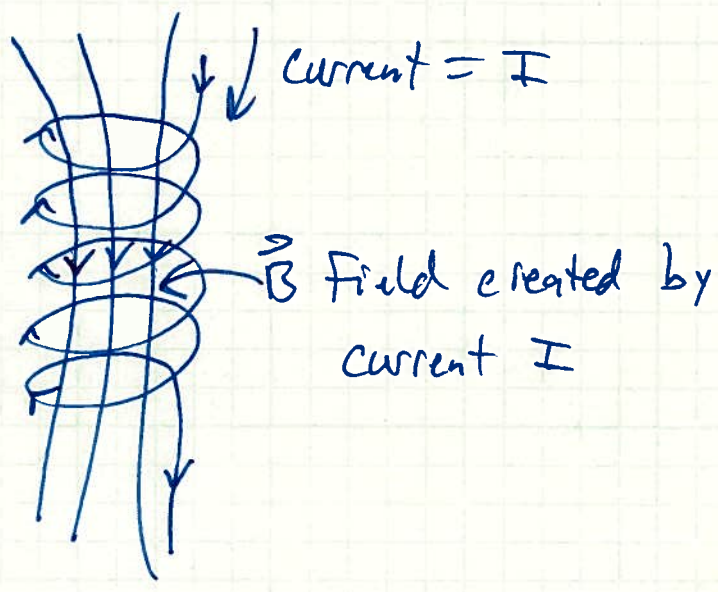
where $C = \text{capacitance} = \frac{Q}{V}$

Capacitance is a constant that only depends on the shape and material of the capacitor.

" $Q = CV$ " says "charge on the capacitor is proportional to the voltage across it. C is the proportionality constant."

② Inductor: Device for storing energy in a magnetic field.

A simple solenoid:



The energy density of a magnetic field is

$$dU_B = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} |\vec{B}|^2 dV, \quad u_B = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} |\vec{B}|^2$$

The total magnetic energy is

$$\Rightarrow U_B = \int_{\text{all space}} \frac{1}{2\mu_0} |\vec{B}|^2 dV$$

"little u" = "magnetic energy density of free space"

"big u"

For an inductor, the total energy can be written as

$$= \frac{\text{Joules}}{\text{meter}^3}$$

$$U_B = \frac{1}{2} LI^2, \text{ where } L = \text{"self-inductance"}$$

L is determined by the shape and material of the inductor. It is the proportionality constant between magnetic flux and current:

Φ_B = magnetic flux through the inductor = LI
 ↑ ↓ current
 proportionality constant.

Similarities between C & L

Device	Circuit Symbol	MKS unit	Stores energy in:	Proportionality Constant:	Determined by
C		Farad	\vec{E}	$Q = CV$	Shape and material
L		Henry	\vec{B}	$\Phi_B = LI$	

If you know the shape & material of your capacitor/inductor, then you can calculate $\left\{ \begin{matrix} C \\ L \end{matrix} \right\}$.

Neither C nor L depends on $\left\{ \begin{matrix} Q \\ V \\ I \end{matrix} \right\}$ These things depend on time, but C & L are constant.

Voltage Rules:

Capacitor: $|V_C| = \left| \frac{1}{C} Q \right|$ or $V_C = \frac{1}{C} Q$ (ignoring any sign)

Inductor: $|V_L| = \left| - \frac{d\Phi_B}{dt} \right| = \left| - \frac{d(LI)}{dt} \right| = \left| L \frac{dI}{dt} \right|$

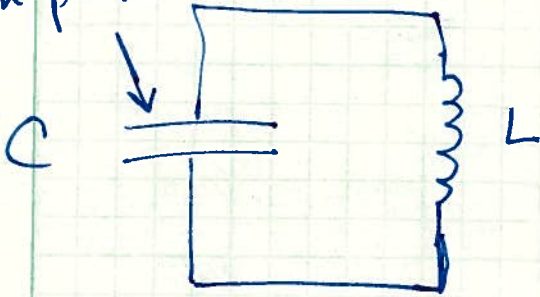
$\therefore V_L = L \frac{dI}{dt}$ (ignoring any sign)

LC oscillator

Simplest electrical oscillator.

Energy exchanges between electric & magnetic.

q = charge on plate



Voltage Loop rule:

$$V_C + V_L = \emptyset$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{C} q\right) \left(L \frac{dI}{dt}\right) = L \frac{dq}{dt^2}$$

since $I = \frac{dq}{dt}$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{C} q + L \frac{d^2 q}{dt^2} = \emptyset$$

$$\boxed{\ddot{q} + \frac{1}{LC} q = \emptyset}$$

Simple harmonic oscillator equation

Solution: $q(t) = q_0 e^{i(\omega_0 t + \delta)}$, where $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$

q_0 & δ are determined by the initial conditions

= "natural freq."

$$\dot{q}(t) = I(t) = (i\omega_0)(q_0 e^{i(\omega_0 t + \delta)}) = i\omega_0 q(t)$$

↑ current has a phase shift of 90° compared to charge

Energy: $U_E = \text{electric energy}$

$$= \frac{1}{2C} q^2 = \frac{1}{2C} [q_0 \cos(\omega_0 t + \delta)]^2$$

$$= \frac{q_0^2}{2C} \cos^2(\omega_0 t + \delta)$$

$U_B = \text{magnetic energy}$

$$= \frac{1}{2} L I^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} L \left[\frac{q_0}{C} \operatorname{Re} \left(i \omega_0 e^{i(\omega_0 t + \delta)} \right) \right]^2$$

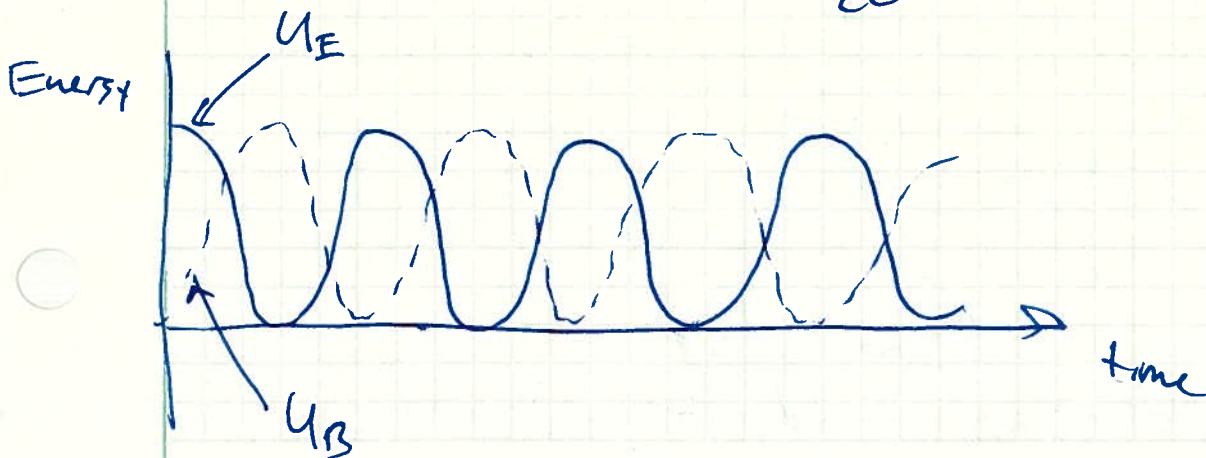
$$= \frac{1}{2} q_0^2 \omega_0^2 L \sin^2(\omega_0 t + \delta)$$

$$\omega_0^2 = \frac{1}{LC} \quad \text{so} \quad \omega_0^2 L = \frac{1}{C}$$

$$= \frac{q_0^2}{2C} \sin^2(\omega_0 t + \delta)$$

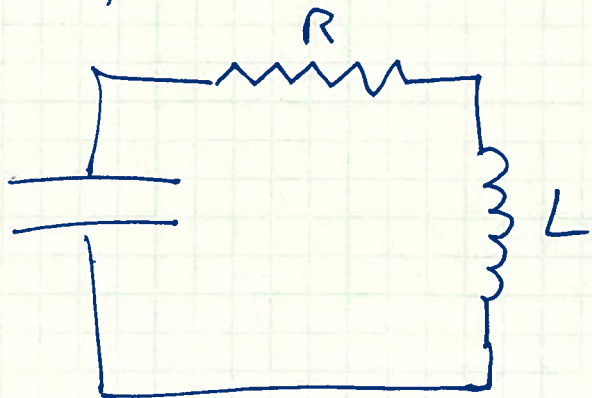
Total energy = $U_E + U_B = \frac{q_0^2}{2C} \left[\cos^2(\omega_0 t + \delta) + \sin^2(\omega_0 t + \delta) \right]$

$$= \frac{q_0^2}{2C} = \text{constant}$$



LC oscillator with damping - RLC circuit

Add a resistor to the circuit: Electrical energy will be converted to heat in the resistor



Voltage Rule:

$$V_C + V_R + V_L = 0$$

$$\downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow$$

$$\frac{q}{C} \quad IR \quad L \frac{dI}{dt} = L \frac{dq}{dt}$$

$$= -\dot{q}R \quad = L\ddot{q}$$

$$\therefore \frac{q}{C} + R\dot{q} + L\ddot{q} = 0$$

$$\ddot{q} + \frac{R}{L}\dot{q} + \frac{1}{LC}q = 0$$

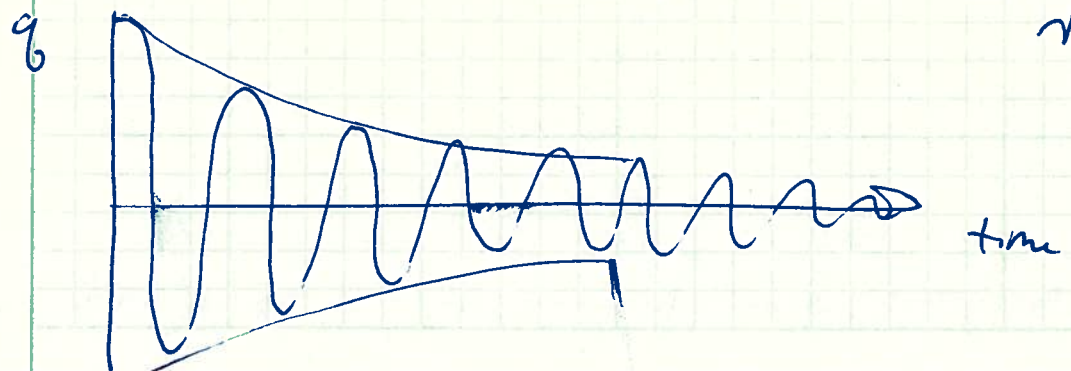
Simple Harmonic Oscillator with damping

Solution (light damping):

$$q(t) = q_0 e^{-\gamma/2 t} e^{i(\omega t + \delta)}$$

where $\gamma = \frac{R}{L}$

$$\text{and } \omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \frac{\gamma^2}{4}}$$



Driven RLC circuit - Series

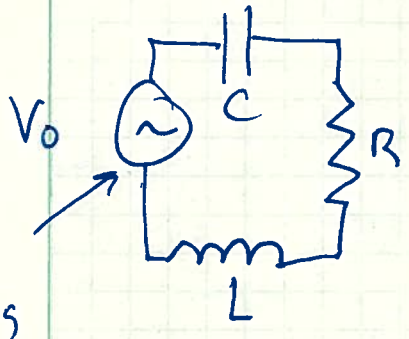
Suppose we have an oscillating circuit with a voltage source that varies in time as a cosine:

$$V_{\text{source}}(t) = V_0 \cos(\omega t) = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$$

↑
foreign frequency

We choose δ (phase shift) = ϕ by choosing $t = \phi$ correctly.

Then the RLC series circuit looks like:



time varying voltage source

Voltage Loop Rule:

$$V_S = V_C + V_R + V_L$$

\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow
 $(V_0 e^{i\omega t})$ $(\frac{1}{C} q)$ $(R \dot{q})$ $(L \ddot{q})$

$$\ddot{q} + \left(\frac{R}{L}\right) \dot{q} + \left(\frac{1}{LC}\right) q = \left(\frac{V_0}{L}\right) e^{i\omega t}$$

Driven Harmonic Oscillator.

Steady State

Solution: $q(t) = q_0 e^{i(\omega t + \delta)}$ or $A e^{i(\omega t + \delta)}$

where

~~$q_0 = \frac{V_0}{L}$~~
 $q_0(\omega) = \frac{V_0}{L}$

ω = driving frequency

$$\sqrt{(\omega_0^2 - \omega^2)^2 + (\omega r)^2}$$

$$\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$$

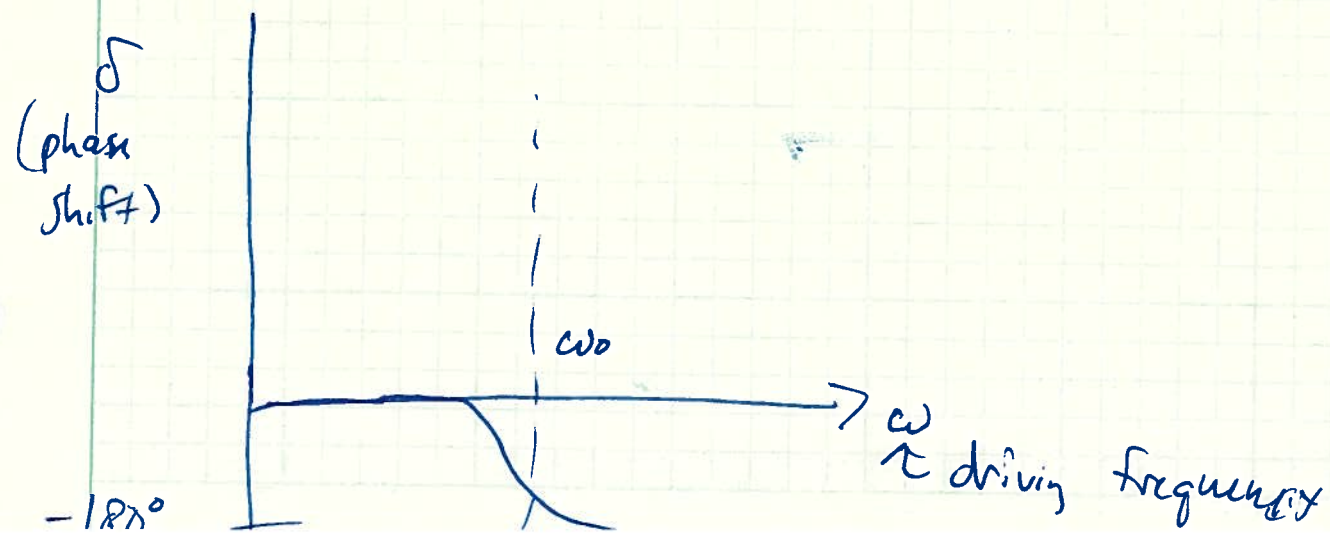
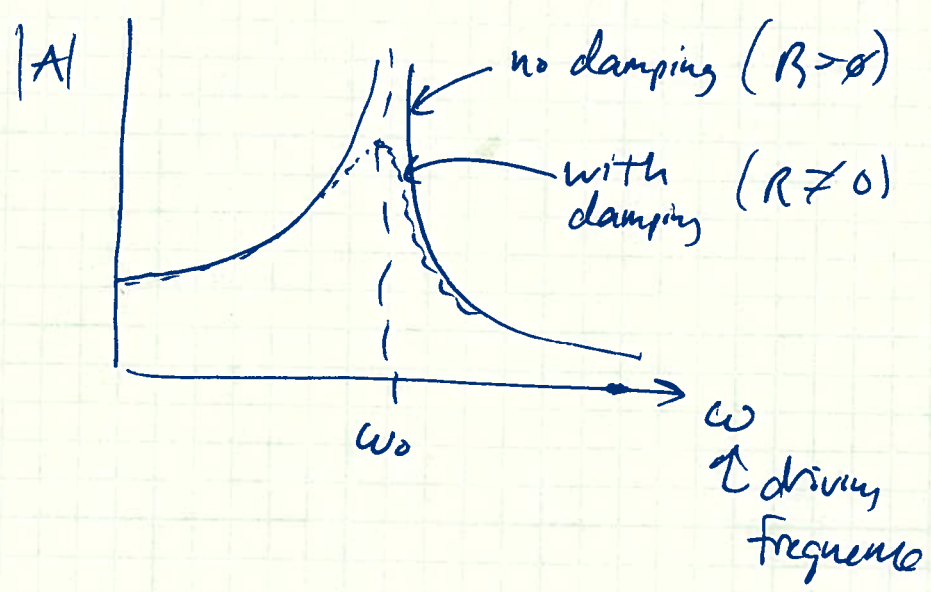
$$r = (R/L)$$

and $\delta(\omega) = -\tan^{-1} \left[\frac{\omega R}{\omega_0^2 - \omega^2} \right]$

Just like the forced mechanical oscillators, we have a resonance when $\omega \approx \omega_0$.

When $\omega \approx \omega_0$, the following things become very large:

- 1) the peak charge on the capacitor
- 2) the peak current in the circuit
- 3) the ^{total} energy stored in the C & L.



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Phasor Analysis of AC circuits

Phasors give us a geometric method for thinking about harmonic oscillators. Particularly useful for AC circuits.

Basic Principles

① Resistors: Voltage Rule: $V = IR$

If $V_R = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$, then $I = \frac{V_0}{R} e^{i\omega t}$

$V_R = IR$ Ohm's Law for resistors

no phase shift

② Capacitors: $Q = CV$

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = C \frac{dV}{dt}$$

If $V = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$, then $I = i\omega C V_0 e^{i\omega t}$

or

$$V = I \left(\frac{1}{i\omega C} \right)$$

Define $X_C \equiv \frac{1}{i\omega C}$

"Capacitive Reactance"

The

$V = IX_C$

"Ohm's Law for Capacitors"

(2)

③ Inductors: $V = L \frac{dI}{dt}$

If $V = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$

Then $I = \frac{1}{i\omega L} \underbrace{(V_0 e^{i\omega t})}_V$

OR

$$V = I \underbrace{(i\omega L)}$$

Define $i\omega L \equiv X_L =$ "inductive reactance."

Then $\boxed{V = IX_L}$ Ohm's Law
for Inductors

Summarizing

Resistors: $V = IR$, $\Rightarrow V$ & I are 100% in phase
(no phase difference)

Capacitors: $V = IX_C$, $X_C = \frac{1}{i\omega C} = \frac{-i}{\omega C}$ ← phase difference
 \Rightarrow Voltage lags the current
by 90° ($\pi/2$)

Inductors: $V = IX_L$, $X_L = i\omega L$ ← phase difference
 \Rightarrow Voltage leads the current
by 90° .

In AC circuits, Capacitors and Inductors behave like resistors in that the peak voltage is proportional to the peak current. (Like Ohm's Law for resistors.) On the other hand,

① There is a phase shift of $+90^\circ$ or -90° between voltage & current.

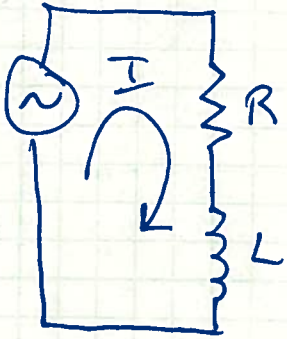
② The proportionality "constant" ~~for~~ depends on the frequency: $X_C = \frac{-i}{\omega C}$, $X_L = i\omega L$.

↑
↑
frequency dependent

Application to Phasor Analysis

Ex:

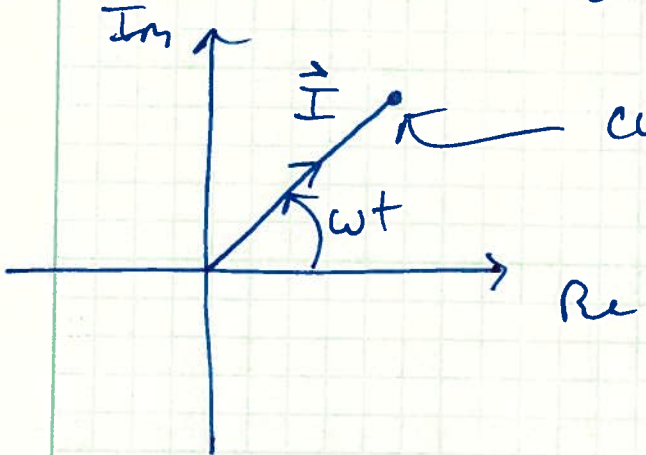
$V_S = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$



Driven RL circuit.

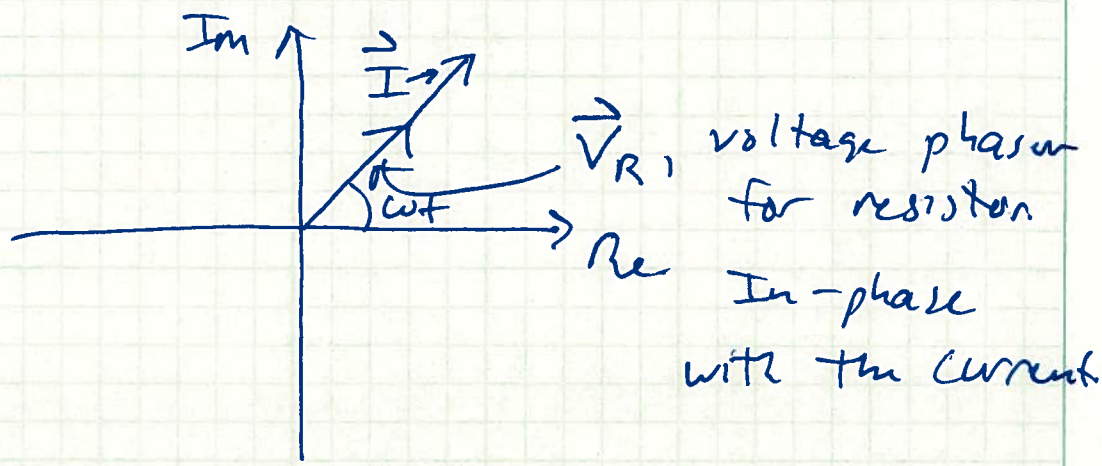
This circuit has one and only one current.

Let's draw it in the complex plane:

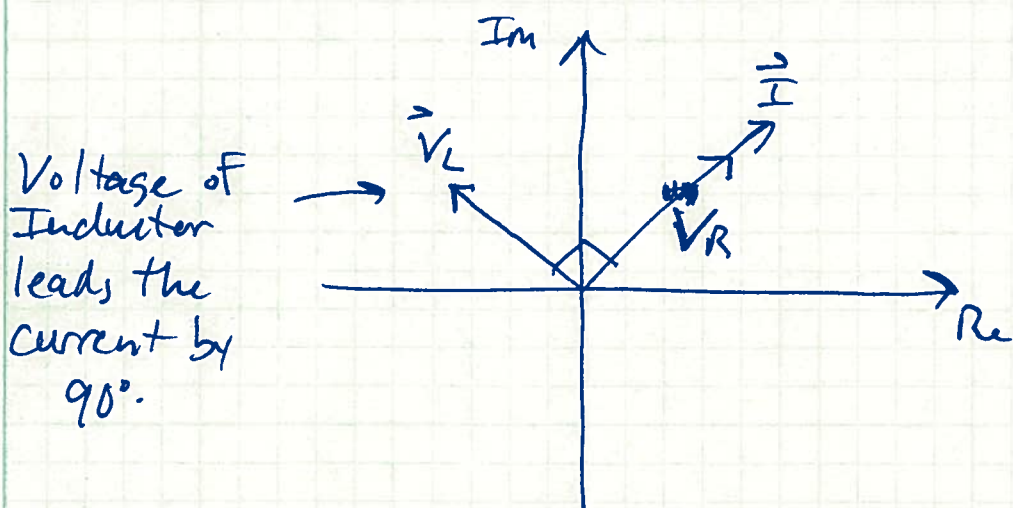


current phasor, rotating at frequency ω . Makes an angle ωt with the real axis.

Add the voltage phasor for the resistor



Now add the voltage phasor for the inductor:

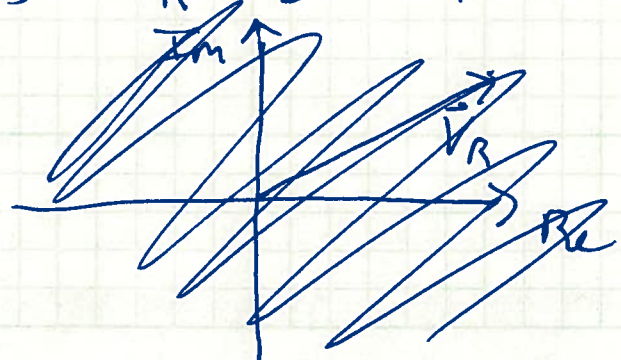


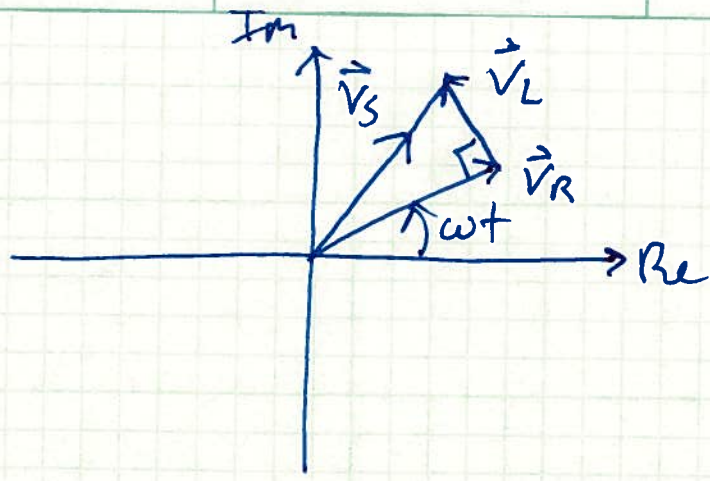
Now the voltage loop rule says:

$V_s = V_R + V_L$ which we can interpret geometrically.

$\vec{V}_s = \vec{V}_R + \vec{V}_L$ ← phasors

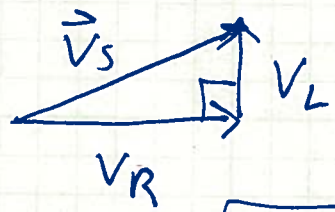
or





This is a phasor diagram for the voltages in the circuit

This is useful because we can use the geometry to figure out the relationships:



$$\therefore |\vec{V}_s| = V_0 = \sqrt{|V_R|^2 + |V_L|^2}$$

$$|V_R| = I_0 R$$

$$|V_L| = I_0 |i\omega L| = I_0 (\omega L)$$

$$V_0 = \sqrt{(I_0 R)^2 + (\omega L I_0)^2}$$

$$V_0 = I_0 \left[\sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L)^2} \right] = I_0 Z$$

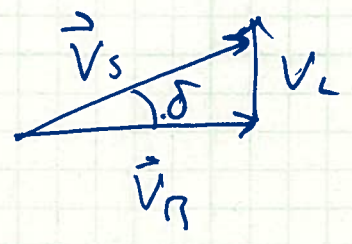
Define $Z = \text{"impedance"}$

Peak current $I_0 = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L)^2}}$

Peak current drops as driving frequency increases



How about phase differences?



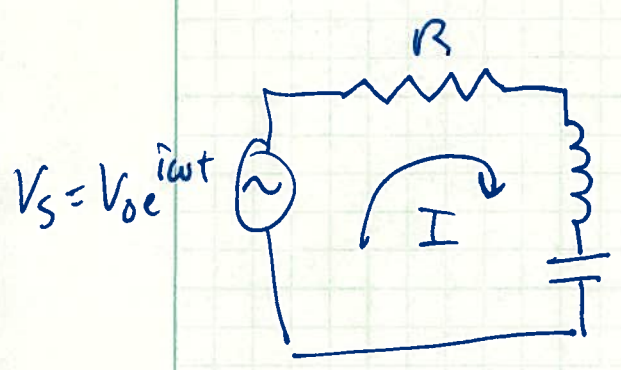
phase difference between V_R & V_s : (or I & V_s)

$$\delta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{|V_L|}{|V_R|} \right) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\omega L I_0}{R I_0} \right)$$

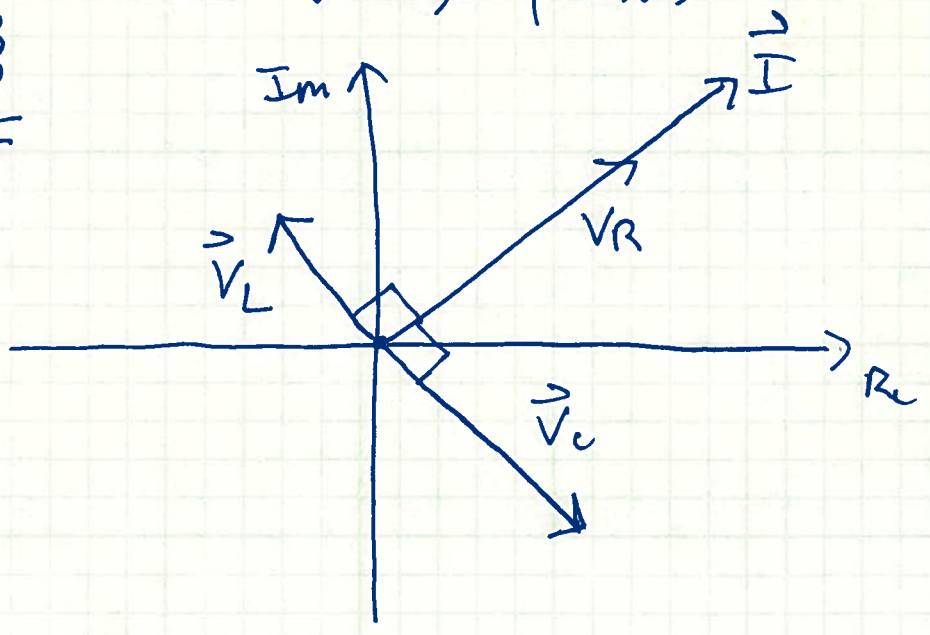
$$\delta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\omega L}{R} \right)$$

Example

Driven RLC circuit:

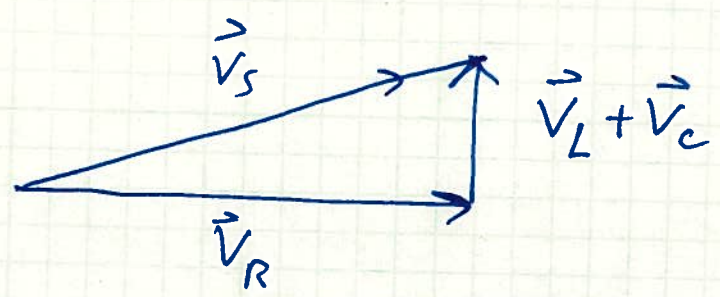


One current phasor,
four voltage phasors:



Voltage Loop Rule: $\vec{V}_s = \vec{V}_R + \vec{V}_L + \vec{V}_C$

Note that \vec{V}_L & \vec{V}_C are in opposite directions.



$$\begin{aligned} \therefore |\vec{V}_s| = V_0 &= \sqrt{|\vec{V}_R|^2 + (\vec{V}_L + \vec{V}_C)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(I_0 R)^2 + \left(I_0 \omega L - \frac{I_0}{\omega C}\right)^2} \\ &= I_0 \sqrt{R^2 + \left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Z = impedance of the circuit

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore I_0 = \text{peak current} &= \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{R^2 + \left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)^2}} \\ &= \frac{(V_0/L)}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{R^2}{L^2}\right) + \left(\omega - \frac{1}{\omega LC}\right)^2}} \\ &= \frac{R}{L} = r \quad , \quad \frac{1}{LC} = \omega_0^2 \end{aligned}$$

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$$I_0 = \frac{\omega (V_0/L)}{\sqrt{(\omega R)^2 + (\omega^2 - \omega_0^2)^2}}$$

Resonance when $\omega \approx \omega_0$.

Previously we found by solving the differential equation that

$$q_0 = \frac{(V_0/L)}{\sqrt{(\omega R)^2 + (\omega^2 - \omega_0^2)^2}} \quad \text{or} \quad q(t) = q_0 e^{i\omega t}$$

which means that

$$I(t) = \dot{q}(t) = i\omega q_0 e^{i\omega t}$$

$$I_0 = \omega q_0$$

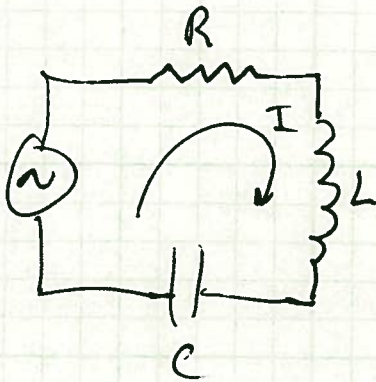
$$\text{or} \quad I_0 = \frac{\omega (V_0/L)}{\sqrt{(\omega R)^2 + (\omega^2 - \omega_0^2)^2}}$$

so we got the same result without calculating with the differential equation.

ANSWER

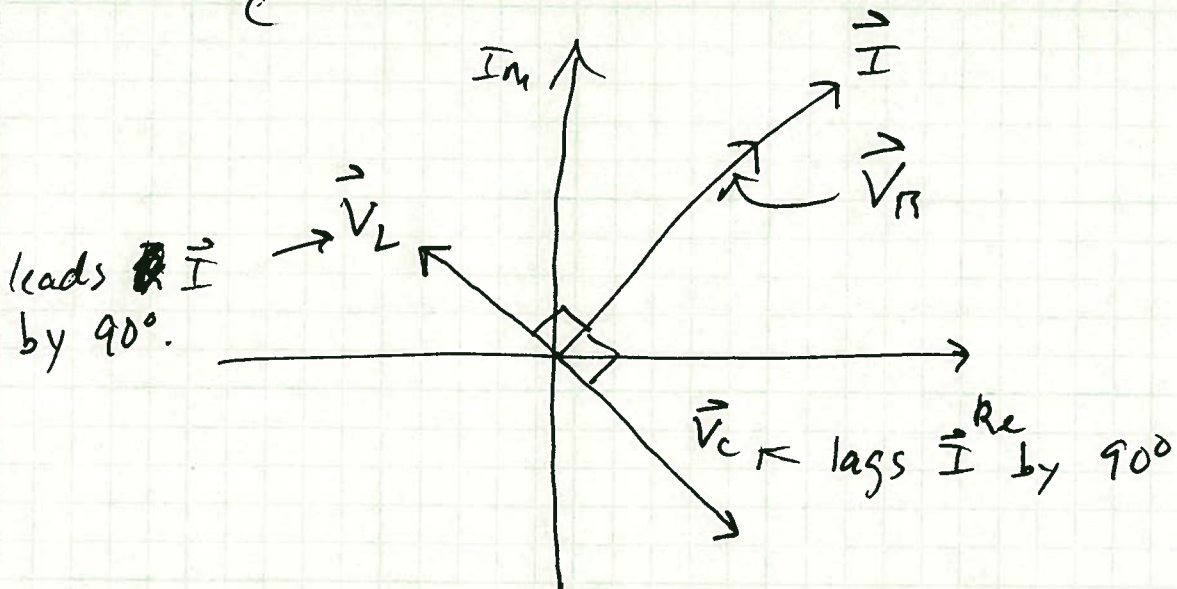
Driven RLC (series) circuit

$V_S = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$

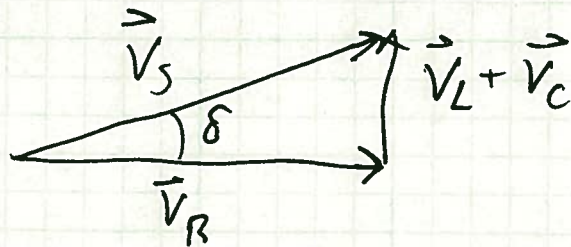


Only one current phasor: \vec{I}
(this circuit has only one current).

Voltage phasors can be drawn relative to \vec{I} : $\vec{V}_R, \vec{V}_L, \vec{V}_C$



Voltage Loop Rule: $\vec{V}_S = \vec{V}_R + \vec{V}_L + \vec{V}_C$



Phase shift:

$$\delta = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{|\vec{V}_L + \vec{V}_C|}{|\vec{V}_R|} \right] = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{i\omega L I_0 - \frac{i I_0}{\omega C}}{R I_0} \right]$$

$$= \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{|i\omega L I_0 - \frac{iI_0}{\omega C}|}{|R I_0|} \right) \quad \text{--- } |i\omega L I_0 - \frac{iI_0}{\omega C}| \quad (2)$$

$$= I_0 \left| i\omega L - \frac{i}{\omega C} \right|$$

$$= I_0 (\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})$$

$\hookrightarrow |R I_0| = R I_0$

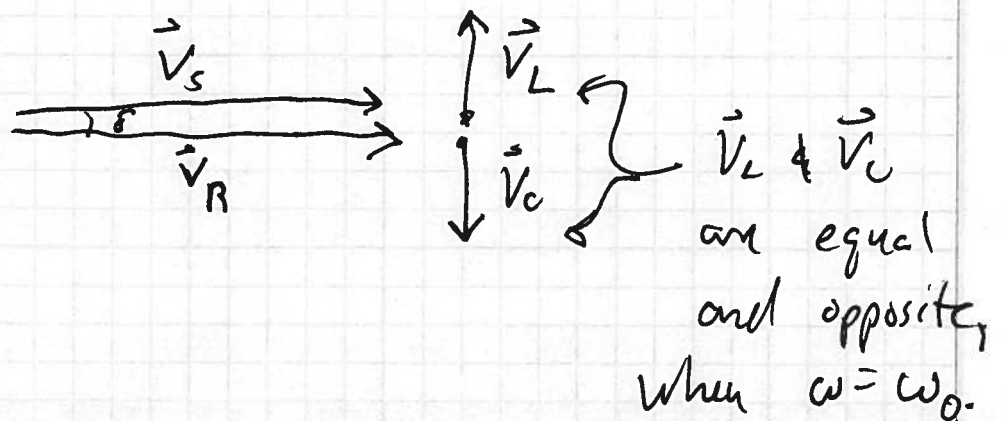
~~$\neq \tan^{-1}$~~

$$= \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{I_0 (\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})}{I_0 (R)} \right], \quad \text{or, using } \omega_0^2 = \frac{1}{LC}$$

and $\gamma = \frac{R}{L}$,

$$\delta = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{\omega^2 - \omega_0^2}{\omega \gamma} \right]$$

What does this mean? Well, if we choose to drive the circuit with frequency $\omega = \omega_0$, then the phase difference between \vec{V}_S and V_R is zero. Then the phasor diagram looks like:

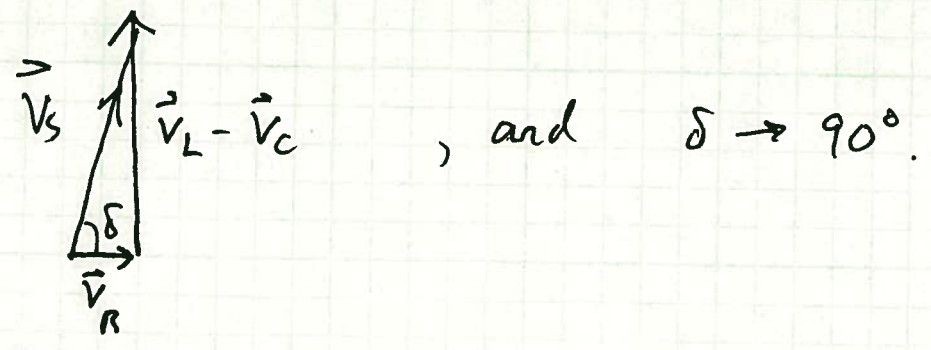


Conversely, suppose we choose $\omega = \text{very, very large}$.

Then $\vec{V}_C = \left(\frac{-i}{\omega C}\right) \vec{I} \approx \emptyset$

and $\vec{V}_L = (i\omega L) \vec{I} \approx \text{large}$, and the

phasor diagram is

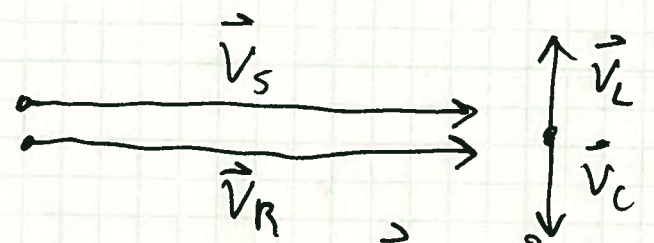


~~When does the~~

Question

At what driving frequency is the current maximal?

Answer: \vec{I} is maximal when \vec{V}_R is maximal, since $\vec{V}_R = \vec{I}R$. But $|\vec{V}_R|$ can never be larger than $|\vec{V}_s|$; since they have to add to zero in that



This happens when $\vec{V}_L + \vec{V}_C = \emptyset$

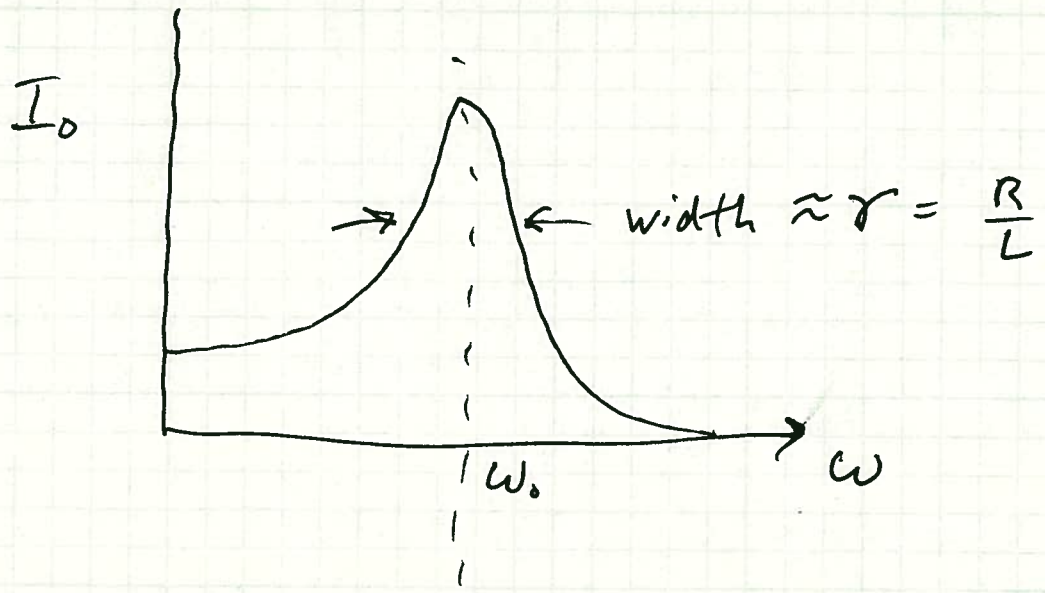
or $(i\omega L)I_0 + \left(\frac{-i}{\omega C}\right)I_0 = \emptyset$

or $\omega^2 = \frac{1}{LC}$

$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} = \omega_0$

← condition for maximal current.

The amplitude of the current displays a resonance near $\omega = \omega_0$:



Series and Parallel impedance

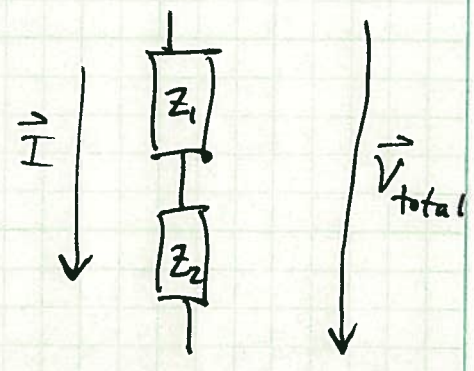
We have the following rules for impedances in AC circuits:

- ① Resistor : $V = I Z_R$, where $Z_R = R$
 - ② Capacitor : $V = I Z_C$, where $Z = \frac{-i}{\omega C}$
 - ③ Inductor : $V = I Z_L$, where $Z_L = i\omega L$
- phase shift between V & I

IF we combine two elements in series, then the total voltage drop is

$$\vec{V}_{total} = \vec{I}Z_1 + \vec{I}Z_2 \leftarrow \text{because } Z_1 \text{ \& } Z_2 \text{ share the same } \vec{I}$$

$$= \vec{I}(Z_1 + Z_2)$$



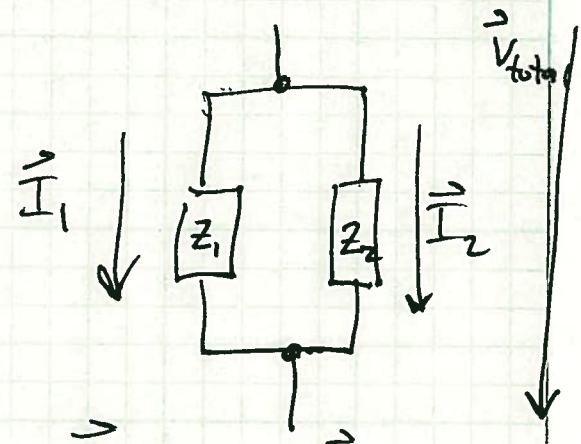
$\therefore \vec{V}_{total} = \vec{I}(Z_{\text{series}})$ where $Z_{\text{series}} = Z_1 + Z_2$.

\therefore The impedance of two elements in series is the simple sum of Z_1 & Z_2 .

IF we combine two elements in parallel, then the total current is ^{voltage drop}

$$\vec{V}_{total} = \vec{I}_1 Z_1 \quad \text{and}$$

$$\vec{V}_{total} = \vec{I}_2 Z_2$$



The total current is

$$\vec{I}_{total} = \vec{I}_1 + \vec{I}_2 = \frac{\vec{V}_{total}}{Z_1} + \frac{\vec{V}_{total}}{Z_2}$$

$$\therefore \vec{V}_{total} = \vec{I}_{total} \left(\frac{1}{Z_1^{-1} + Z_2^{-1}} \right)$$

$\vec{V}_{total} = \vec{I}_{total} Z_{\text{parallel}}$, where $Z_{\text{parallel}} = \frac{1}{Z_1^{-1} + Z_2^{-1}}$

i

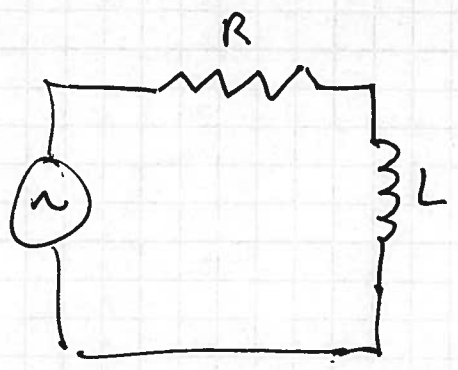
$$Z_{series} = Z_1 + Z_2$$

$$Z_{parallel} = \frac{1}{Z_1^{-1} + Z_2^{-1}}$$

Example RL ~~par.~~ Series circuit (driven)

AMPAD

V_S



$$Z_{total} = Z_R + Z_L$$

$$Z_{total} = R + i\omega L$$

$$\therefore \vec{V}_S = \vec{I}_{total} Z_{total}$$

$$\vec{V}_S = \vec{I}_{total} (R + i\omega L)$$

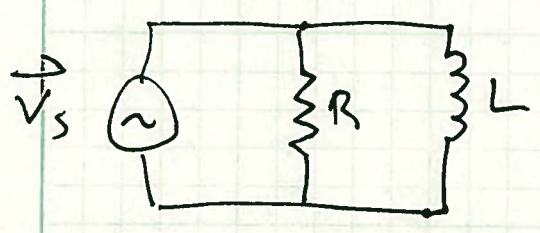
∴ phase difference between \vec{V}_S & \vec{I}_{total} :

$$\delta = \text{phase of } (R + i\omega L) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\omega L}{R} \right)$$

∴ magnitude of current:

$$|\vec{I}_{total}| = I_0 = \frac{|\vec{V}_S| \leftarrow V_0}{|R + i\omega L|} = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L)^2}}$$

Example RL parallel circuit (driven)



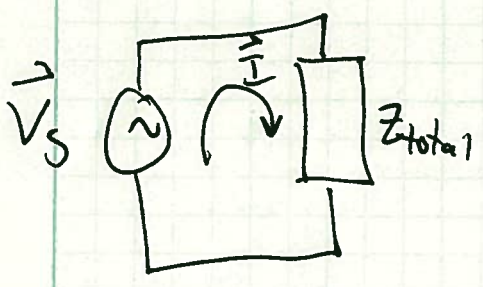
$$Z_{total} = \frac{1}{Z_R^{-1} + Z_L^{-1}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{R^{-1} + (i\omega L)^{-1}}$$

$$= \frac{(R\omega L) \times (\omega L + iR)}{(\omega L - iR) \times (\omega L + iR)}$$

$$= \left(\frac{R\omega L^2}{(\omega L)^2 + R^2} \right) (\omega + i\frac{R}{L})$$

or



$$Z_{total} = \left(\frac{R\omega L^2}{(\omega L)^2 + R^2} \right) (\omega + i\tau)$$

$$\therefore \vec{V}_{s_{total}} = \vec{I}_{total} \left[\left(\frac{R\omega L^2}{(\omega L)^2 + R^2} \right) (\omega + i\tau) \right] \quad \text{where } \tau = \frac{R}{L}$$

Phase difference between \vec{V}_s & \vec{I}_{total} .

$$\delta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau}{\omega} \right) \leftarrow \text{For very high } \omega, \delta \rightarrow \phi, \text{ like a resistor}$$

\leftarrow For very low ω , $\delta \rightarrow 90^\circ$, like an inductor.