

Lecture 31

AC circuits

Driven RLC circuits

$$\text{For } \mathcal{E}MF = \mathcal{E}_0 e^{i\omega t}$$

$$Q(t) = C_+ e^{a_+ t} + C_- e^{a_- t} + \frac{1}{i\omega Z} \frac{R - i(X_L - X_C)}{Z} e^{i\omega t}$$

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2} \quad X_L = L\omega \quad X_C = \frac{1}{C\omega}$$

$$\tan \phi = \frac{(X_L - X_C)}{R}$$

$$Q(t) = C_+ e^{a_+ t} + C_- e^{a_- t} + \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{i\omega Z} e^{i(\omega t - \phi)}$$

$$I(t) = \frac{dQ}{dt} = C_+ a_+ e^{a_+ t} + C_- a_- e^{a_- t} + \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{Z} e^{i(\omega t - \phi)}$$

- ① The terms $e^{a_+ t}$, $e^{a_- t}$ which are solutions of the homogeneous equation fix the initial conditions but eventually become irrelevant because they both $\rightarrow 0$ exponentially as $t \rightarrow \infty$

- ② taking the real and imaginary parts of the solution gives real solutions, (here I ignore the solutions to the homogeneous equation.)

$$Q(t) = \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{Z\omega} \cos(\omega t - \phi - \frac{\pi}{2}) \quad \mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_0 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$Q(t) = \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{Z\omega} \sin(\omega t - \phi - \frac{\pi}{2}) \quad \mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_0 \sin(\omega t)$$

for the current I_c

$$I(t) = \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{Z} \cos(\omega t - \phi) \quad \mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_0 \cos(\omega t)$$

$$I(t) = \frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{Z} \sin(\omega t - \phi) \quad \mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}_0 \sin(\omega t)$$

- ③ resonance current through the resistor will be maximal when Z is minimal

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2}$$

$$\therefore \text{when } X_L = X_C \quad \text{or } \omega^2 = \frac{1}{LC}$$

special cases

$$\tan \phi = \frac{X_L - X_C}{R}$$

$$\cos \phi = \frac{R}{Z}$$

$$\sin \phi = \frac{X_L - X_C}{Z}$$

$$X_L = R = 0$$

$$\sin \phi = -1$$

$$\cos \phi = 0$$

$$\phi = -\pi/2$$

$$X_C = R = 0$$

$$\sin \phi = 1$$

$$\cos \phi = 0$$

$$\phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$X_L = X_C = 0$$

$$\cos \phi = 1$$

$$\sin \phi = 0$$

$$\phi = 0$$

these agree with our previous definitions

Power in resistor

$$P = I^2 R$$

$$= \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{Z} \right)^2 \cos^2(\omega t - \phi) R$$

If we average this over one period

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

$$\langle P \rangle = \left(\frac{\mathcal{E}_0}{Z} \right)^2 \underbrace{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \cos^2(\omega t - \phi) dt}_{1/2} \cdot R$$

$$= \frac{\mathcal{E}_0^2}{2Z} \cdot \frac{R}{Z}$$

where $R/Z = \cos\phi$

$$\boxed{\langle P \rangle = \frac{\mathcal{E}_0^2}{2Z} \cos(\phi)}$$

To maximize the power through the resistor we want $\phi = 0$
 This is also the condition that minimizes Z ($X_L = X_C \Rightarrow \omega = 1/\sqrt{LC}$)

while the power changes periodically, it is always positive, this is not true for the EMF and current. what is normally measured is the root mean square current or emf

$$\left[\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T I^2(t) dt \right]^{1/2} = I_{rms} = \left[\left(\frac{E_0}{Z} \right)^2 \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \cos^2(\omega t - \phi) dt \right]^{1/2}$$

$$I_{rms} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{E_0}{Z}$$

similarly

$$\left[\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T E^2(t) dt \right]^{1/2} = E_{rms} = \left[E_0^2 \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \cos^2(\omega t - \phi) dt \right]^{1/2}$$

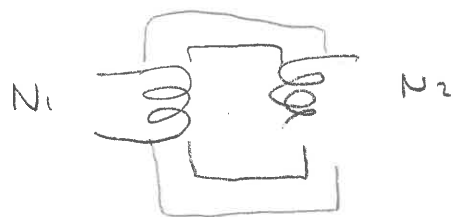
$$E_{rms} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} E_0$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle P \rangle &= I_{rms}^2 R \cos \phi = \frac{1}{2} \frac{E_0^2}{Z} \cos \phi \\ &= E_{rms} I_{rms} \cos \phi = \frac{1}{2} E_0 I_0 \cos \phi \end{aligned}$$

this means the average power has DC looking formula: if we replace currents and EMF's by RMS currents and EMF

Ideal transformers - these are devices based on the idea of mutual inductance



A transformer has N_1 turns of wire wrapped around one side of an iron ring and N_2 on the other side - In an ideal transformer the magnetic flux is trapped in the ring so both coils feel the same field

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_1 &= N_1 BA & \Phi_2 &= N_2 BA \\ &= L_1 I_1 & &= L_2 I_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathcal{E}_1 = - \frac{d\Phi}{dt} = -N_1 A \frac{dB}{dt}$$

changing EMF in 1 $\Rightarrow \frac{dB}{dt} \rightarrow$
 the same $\frac{dB}{dt}$ results in a change
 in flux in coil 2

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = -N_2 A \frac{dB}{dt}$$

If both coils have the same area

$$\frac{\mathcal{E}_2}{N_2} = \frac{\mathcal{E}_1}{N_1}$$

or

$$\mathcal{E}_2 = \frac{N_2}{N_1} \mathcal{E}_1$$

This means that a transformer can be used to change the EMF

$$5V = \frac{N_2}{N_1} 110V$$

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{110}{5} = 22$$

With this ratio 22 we can step down from 110, like you would in a cell phone charger

Since the frequency does not change we also have

$$\mathcal{E}_2^{RMS} = \frac{N_2}{N_1} \mathcal{E}_1^R$$



What resistance does the EMF feel

energy is conserve in an ideal transformer

$$\frac{E_1^2}{R_1} = \frac{E_2^2}{R_2}$$

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{E_1^2}{E_2^2} = \frac{N_1^2}{N_2^2}$$

$$R_1 = \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right)^2 R_2$$

We can use this to find the relation between the RMS current

$$I_{RMS}^1 E_{emf}^1 = I_{RMS}^2 E_{emf}^2$$

$$\frac{I_{RMS}^1}{I_{RMS}^2} = \frac{E_{2RMS}}{E_{1RMS}} = \frac{N_2}{N_1}$$

uses of transformers

efficient power distribution

power loss in a resistor is $I_{rms}^2 R$ - increasing the voltage by a factor of 100 reduces the current by a factor of 100 - thus reduces the power loss by a factor of $(100)^2$

Another use of transformer: impedance matching

* tune both circuits so $\phi = 0$,



R_2 is the resistance in my resistor -
to maximize the power in R_2

$$P = I^2 R_2 = \left(\frac{E}{R_1 + R_2} \right)^2 R_2$$

$$\frac{dP}{dR_2} = \left(\frac{E}{R_1 + R_2} \right)^2 - \frac{2E^2}{(R_1 + R_2)^3} R_2 = 0$$

$$1 = \frac{2R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \quad R_1 + R_2 = 2R_2 \quad R_1 = R_2$$

so if we want to maximize the transmitted power - we can use a transformer to change the effective resistance to maximize power.

This is an important consideration in loudspeakers. It is called impedance matching.

Maxwells Equations

① Coulomb's Law

$$\vec{F} = q\vec{E}$$

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum q_i \frac{\vec{r} - \vec{r}_i}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_i|^3}$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot \hat{n} dA = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \quad (\text{Gauss Law})$$

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V \quad (\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0)$$

② Biot Savart Law

$$d\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{I d\vec{\ell}' \times (\vec{r} - \vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|^3}$$

$$\oint \vec{B}(\vec{r}) \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \frac{\mu_0}{\epsilon_0} I \quad (\text{Ampere's Law})$$

③ Faraday's Law

$$\frac{d\Phi}{dt} = -\mathcal{E}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int \vec{B} \cdot \hat{n} dA = -\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell}$$

$$\int \left(\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot \hat{n} dA \right) = - \int (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) \cdot \hat{n} dA$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = - \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

Maxwell's suggestions

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \oint \vec{E} \cdot \hat{n} dA = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \oint \vec{B} \cdot \hat{n} dA = ?$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \oint \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot \hat{n} dA = - \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 I \quad (?)$$

Gauss law suggests that flux must end on electric charges - clearly

$\oint \vec{E} \cdot \hat{n} dA = 0$ in regions with no net charge, this suggests

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot \hat{n} dA = 0$$

that is equivalent to saying there
 no magnetic charges. This
 is a new Maxwell equation

Maxwell postulated that a time
 varying electric flux would create
 a magnetic field - he proposed
 replacing Ampere's law by

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \mu_0 \left(I + \epsilon_0 \frac{d}{dt} \oint \mathbf{E} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dA \right)$$

which should be compared

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = - \frac{d}{dt} \oint \mathbf{B} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dA$$

The coefficient $\mu_0 \epsilon_0$ follows from
 dimensional analysis

$$\frac{\mathbf{B}}{\mu_0} = \frac{\mathcal{Q}}{d \cdot t} \quad \epsilon_0 \frac{\mathbf{E} \Delta}{t} = \frac{\mathcal{Q}}{d \cdot t}$$

In this case the induced magnetic
 field is in the opposite direction to
 the direction given by the right
 hand rule.

$$\epsilon_0 \frac{d}{dt} \oint \mathbf{E} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dA$$

is called the displacement current.
 the full set of Maxwell's equations
 are

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot \hat{n} dA = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$$

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot \hat{n} dA = 0$$

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{x} = \mu_0 \left(I + \epsilon_0 \int \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \cdot \hat{n} dA \right)$$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{x} = - \int \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \cdot \hat{n} dA$$

The first and third equations involve
 current or charge sources; the
 second and fourth equations
 are called source free equations.

Recall with Faraday's law we show

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{e} = \int (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) \cdot \hat{n} dA$$

by looking at $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{e}$ around a small
 square, using the same method

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{e} = \int (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \hat{n} dA$$

These relations lead to

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \int (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) \cdot \hat{n} dA = \int -\left(\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} \cdot \hat{n}\right) dA$$

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = \mu_0 \int \vec{J} \cdot \hat{n} dA + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \int \frac{\partial E}{\partial t} \cdot \hat{n} dA = \int (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) \cdot \hat{n} dA$$

since the area enclosed by the loop is arbitrary

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} + \mu_0 \vec{J} \end{array} \right.$$

It is useful to derive the differential form of these equations:

① consider a small cube centered

$\vec{r}_0 = (x, y, z)$ with sides of length $\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z$

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot \hat{n} dA$$

In this integral $\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = \vec{E}(\vec{r}_0) + \text{corrections} \propto \Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z$

$$\begin{aligned} \oint \vec{E} \cdot \hat{n} dA = & \int_{y-\frac{\Delta y}{2}}^{y+\frac{\Delta y}{2}} \int_{z-\frac{\Delta z}{2}}^{z+\frac{\Delta z}{2}} \left(\vec{E}_x(x+\Delta x/2, y, z) - \vec{E}_x(x-\Delta x/2, y, z) \right) dz dy \\ & + \int_{z-\frac{\Delta z}{2}}^{z+\frac{\Delta z}{2}} \int_{x-\frac{\Delta x}{2}}^{x+\frac{\Delta x}{2}} \left(\vec{E}_y(x, y+\frac{\Delta y}{2}, z) - \vec{E}_y(x, y-\frac{\Delta y}{2}, z) \right) dx dz \\ & + \int_{x-\frac{\Delta x}{2}}^{x+\frac{\Delta x}{2}} \int_{y-\frac{\Delta y}{2}}^{y+\frac{\Delta y}{2}} \left(\vec{E}_z(x, y, z+\frac{\Delta z}{2}) - \vec{E}_z(x, y, z-\frac{\Delta z}{2}) \right) dx dy \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \Delta y \Delta z \frac{\partial E_x}{\partial x} \Delta x + \Delta z \Delta x \frac{\partial E_y}{\partial y} \Delta y + \Delta x \Delta y \frac{\partial E_z}{\partial z} \Delta z \\
 &= \int d^3r \nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} = \int \frac{\rho(r)}{\epsilon_0} d^3r
 \end{aligned}$$

this means coulomb's law becomes

$$\boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}}$$

and by the same calculation

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot \hat{n} dA \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\boxed{\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0}$$

Recall the equations for the line integral around a small square

give

$$\begin{aligned}
 \oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} &= \int_{x-\Delta x/2}^{x+\Delta x/2} (B_x(x', y-\frac{\Delta y}{2})) dx' + \int_{y-\frac{\Delta y}{2}}^{y+\frac{\Delta y}{2}} B_y(x+\frac{\Delta x}{2}, y') dy' \\
 &\quad + \int_{x+\Delta x/2}^{x-\Delta x/2} B_x(x', y+\frac{\Delta y}{2}) dx' + \int_{y+\frac{\Delta y}{2}}^{y-\frac{\Delta y}{2}} B_y(x-\frac{\Delta x}{2}, y') dy'
 \end{aligned}$$

$$- B_x(x, y+\Delta y/2) \Delta x + B_x(x, y-\Delta y/2) \Delta x$$

$$+ B_y(x+\frac{\Delta x}{2}, y) \Delta y - B_y(x-\frac{\Delta x}{2}, y) \Delta y + O(\Delta^3)$$

$$\left(-\frac{\partial B_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial B_y}{\partial x} \right) \Delta x \Delta y + \dots$$

$$(\nabla \times \vec{B})_z$$

This leads to the differential form of Maxwell's equations:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} &= \rho/\epsilon \\ \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} &= 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} &= -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} &= \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} + \mu_0 \vec{J} \end{aligned}$$

Recall

$$\vec{A} \times (\vec{B} \times \vec{C}) = \vec{B}(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{C}) - \vec{C}(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B})$$

This holds if we replace $\vec{A}, \vec{B}, \vec{C}$ by $\vec{\nabla}$ provided everything the differential is placed on the right

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) = \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}) - (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \vec{E}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = \vec{\nabla}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}) - (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{B} = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \vec{B}$$

Since $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E}$ and $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0$ in regions where there are no charges and currents

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E}) = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B}) = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} = -\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2}$$

This shows that all components of both field satisfy

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_1^2} - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1^2} \right) \vec{E} = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z_1^2} - \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t_1^2} \right) \vec{B} = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\mu_0 \epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{c^2}$$

has units $\frac{s^2}{m^2}$ $c^2 = \frac{1}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0} = (\text{speed of light})^2$

$$\frac{1}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0} = \frac{4\pi}{\mu_0 \cdot 4\pi \epsilon_0} = \frac{4\pi k}{\mu_0} = 10^7 \times 8.99 \times 10^9 = 8.99 \times 10^{16} \frac{m^2}{s^2}$$

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}} \approx 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

equations (1) and (2) are called wave equations - the solutions must still satisfy maxwells equations