

Chapter 9

Sinusoidal Steady–State Analysis

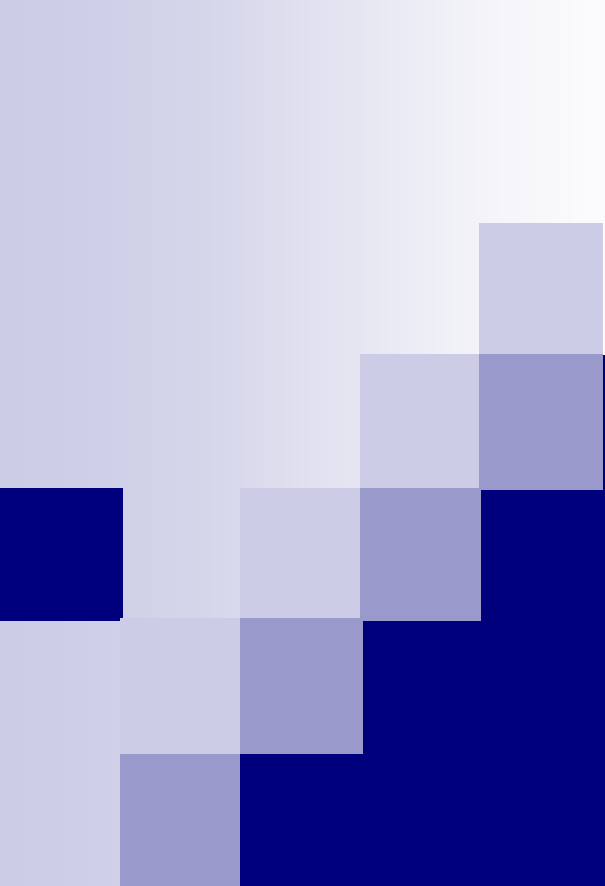
- 9.1-9.2 The Sinusoidal Source and Response
- 9.3 The Phasor
- 9.4 Impedances of Passive Elements
- 9.5-9.9 Circuit Analysis Techniques in the
Frequency Domain
- 9.10-9.11 The Transformer
- 9.12 Phasor Diagrams

Overview

- We will generalize circuit analysis from constant to **time-varying** sources (Ch7-14).
- **Sinusoidal** sources are particularly important because: (1) Generation, transmission, consumption of electric energy occur under sinusoidal conditions. (2) It can be used to predict the behaviors of circuits with **non-sinusoidal** sources.
- Need to work in the realm of **complex numbers**.

Key points

- What is the **phase** of a sinusoidal function?
- What is the **phasor** of a sinusoidal function?
- What is the phase of an **impedance**? What are in-phase and quadrature?
- How to solve the sinusoidal steady-state response by using phasor and impedance?
- What is the **reflected impedance** of a circuit with transformer?



Section 9.1, 9.2

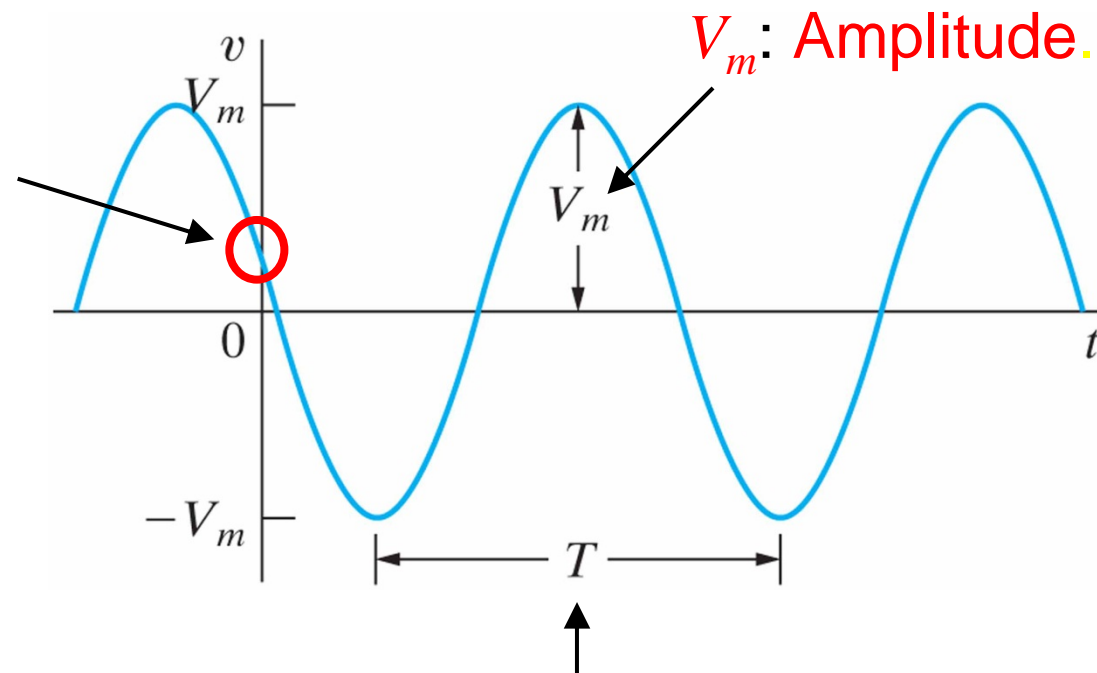
The Sinusoidal Source and Response

1. Definitions
2. Characteristics of sinusoidal response

Definition

- A source producing a voltage varying sinusoidally with time: $v(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$.

ϕ : Phase angle, determines the value at $t=0$.

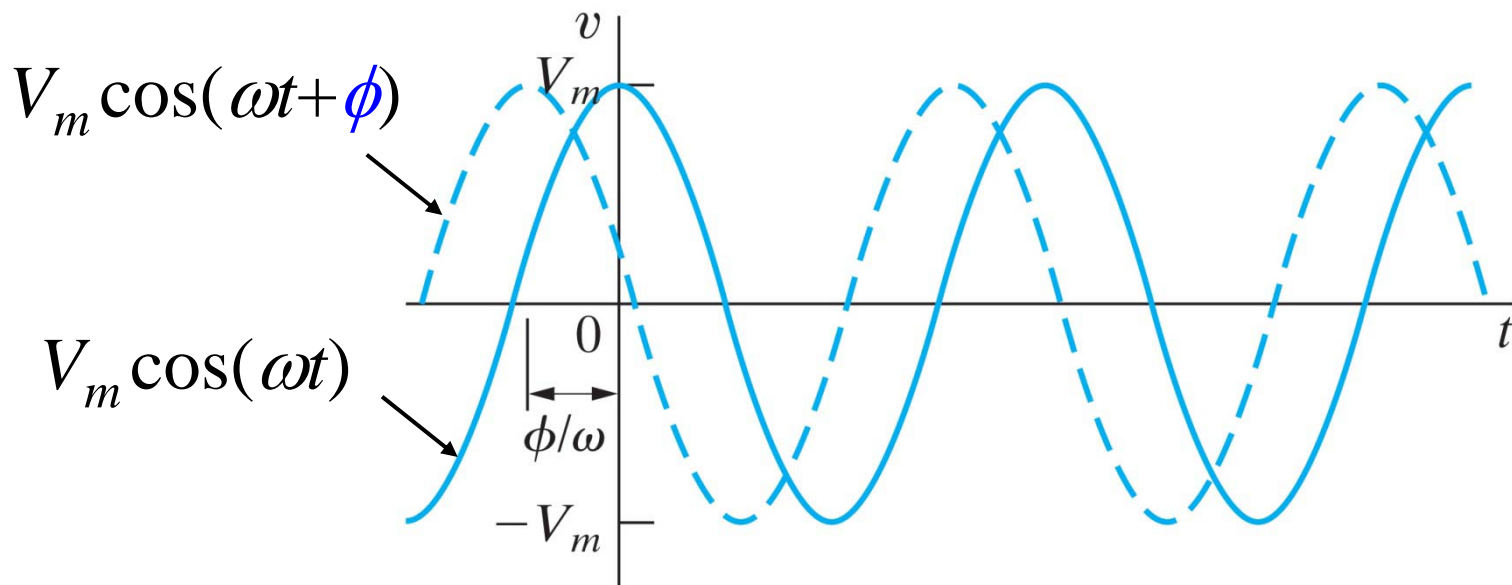


ω : Angular frequency, related to period T via $\omega = 2\pi/T$.

The argument ωt changes 2π radians (360°) in one period.

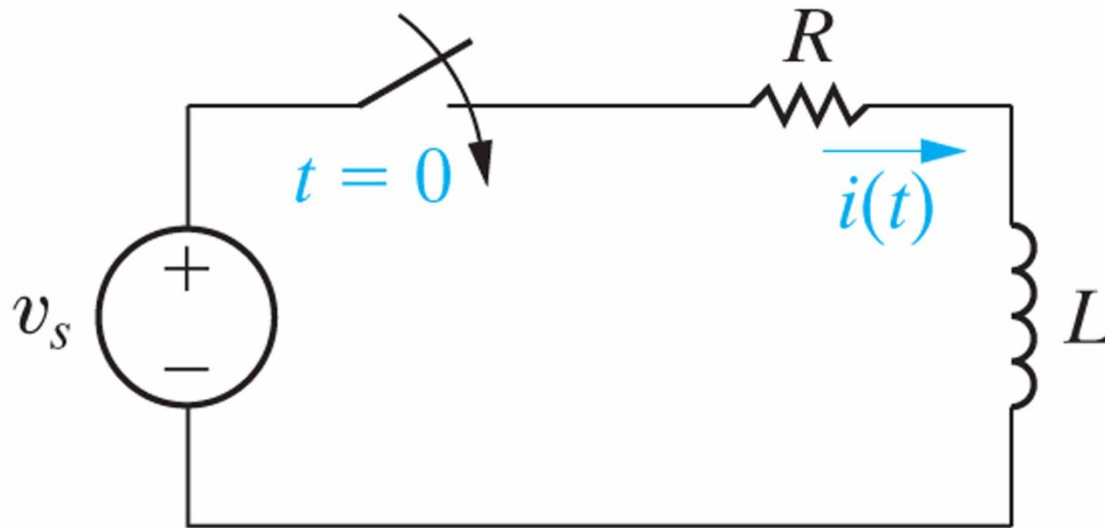
More on phase angle

- Change of phase angle **shifts** the curve **along the time axis** without changing the shape (amplitude, angular frequency).
- Positive phase ($\phi > 0$), \Rightarrow the curve is shifted to the **left** by ϕ/ω in time, and vice versa.



Example: RL circuit (1)

- Consider an RL circuit with zero initial current $i(t = 0^+) = 0$ and driven by a sinusoidal voltage source $v_s(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$:



- By KVL: $L \frac{d}{dt} i + Ri = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$.

Example: RL circuit (2)

- The complete solution to the ODE and initial condition is (verified by substitution):

$$\dot{i}(t) = \dot{i}_{tr}(t) + \dot{i}_{ss}(t),$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} i_{tr}(t) \equiv -\frac{V_m \cos(\phi - \theta)}{\sqrt{R^2 + \omega^2 L^2}} e^{-(R/L)t} \quad \text{Transient response, vanishes as } t \rightarrow \infty. \\ i_{ss}(t) \equiv \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{R^2 + \omega^2 L^2}} \cos(\omega t + \phi - \theta) \quad \text{Steady-state response, lasts even } t \rightarrow \infty. \\ \theta = \tan^{-1}(\omega L/R). \end{array} \right.$$

Characteristics of steady-state response

- $i_{ss}(t)$ of this example exhibits the following characteristics of steady-state response:

$$i_{ss}(t) \equiv \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{R^2 + \omega^2 L^2}} \cos(\omega t + \phi - \theta)$$

1. It **remains sinusoidal** of the same frequency as the driving source if the circuit is linear (with constant R, L, C values).
2. The **amplitude differs** from that of the source.
3. The **phase angle differs** from that of the source.

Purpose of Chapter 9

- Directly finding the **steady-state** response without solving the differential equation.
- According to the characteristics of steady-state response, the task is reduced to finding **two real numbers**, i.e. amplitude and phase angle, of the response. The waveform and frequency of the response are already known.
- Transient response matters in switching. It will be dealt with in Chapters 7, 8, 12, 13.



Section 9.3

The Phasor

1. Definitions
2. Solve steady-state response by phasor

Definition

- The phasor is a **constant complex number** that carries the amplitude and phase angle information of a sinusoidal function.
- The concept of phasor is rooted in **Euler's identity**, which relates the (complex) exponential function to the trigonometric functions: $e^{\pm j\theta} = \cos \theta \pm j \sin \theta$.

$$\Rightarrow \cos \theta = \operatorname{Re}\{e^{j\theta}\}, \quad \sin \theta = \operatorname{Im}\{e^{j\theta}\}.$$

Phasor representation

- A sinusoidal function can be represented by the real part of a **phasor** times the “**complex carrier**”.

$$\begin{aligned} V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) &= V_m \operatorname{Re}\{e^{j(\omega t + \phi)}\} \\ &= \operatorname{Re}\left\{\left(V_m e^{j\phi}\right)e^{j\omega t}\right\} = \operatorname{Re}\left\{\underbrace{\mathbf{V}}_{\text{phasor}} \times \underbrace{e^{j\omega t}}_{\text{carrier}}\right\} \end{aligned}$$

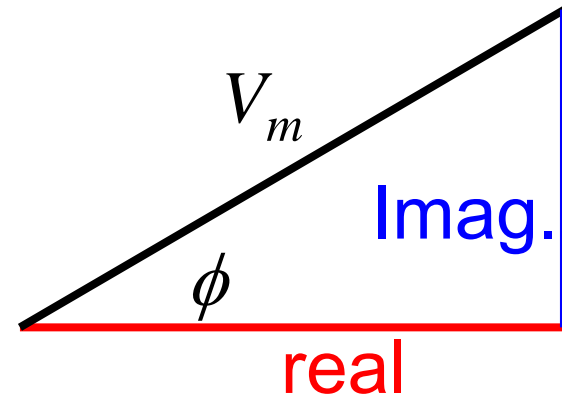
- A phasor can be represented in two forms:

1. Polar form (good for \times , \div):

$$\mathbf{V} \equiv V_m e^{j\phi} = V_m \angle \phi,$$

2. Rectangular form (good for $+$, $-$):

$$\mathbf{V} \equiv V_m \cos \phi + jV_m \sin \phi.$$



Phasor transformation

- A phasor can be regarded as the “phasor transform” of a sinusoidal function from the time domain to the frequency domain:

$$\mathbf{V} = P \left\{ \underbrace{V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)}_{\text{time domain}} \right\} = \underbrace{V_m e^{j\phi}}_{\text{freq. domain}}.$$

- The “inverse phasor transform” of a phasor is a sinusoidal function in the time domain:

$$P^{-1} \{ \mathbf{V} \} = \text{Re} \{ \mathbf{V} e^{j\omega t} \} = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi).$$

Time derivative \leftrightarrow Multiplication of constant

Time

domain:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt} V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) &= -\omega V_m \sin(\omega t + \phi) \\ &= \omega V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi + 90^\circ),\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) = -\omega^2 V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi).$$

Frequency

domain:

$$\mathbf{P} \left\{ \frac{d}{dt} V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) \right\} = \omega V_m e^{j(\phi + 90^\circ)}$$

$$= \omega (V_m e^{j\phi}) e^{j90^\circ} = j\omega \mathbf{V},$$

$$\mathbf{P} \left\{ \frac{d^2}{dt^2} V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi) \right\} = (j\omega)^2 \mathbf{V} = -\omega^2 \mathbf{V}.$$

How to calculate steady-state solution by phasor?

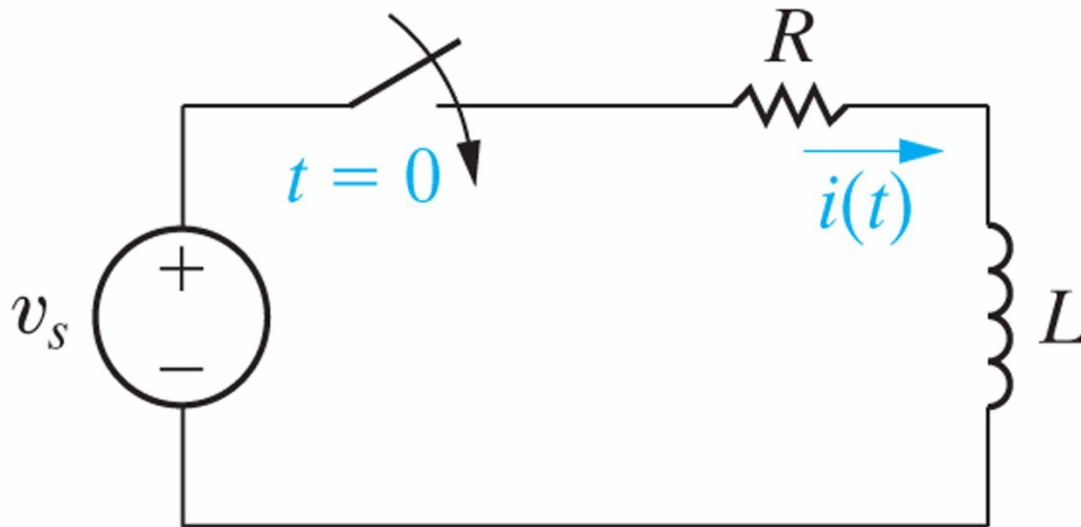
- Step 1: Assume that the solution is of the form:

$$\text{Re}\left\{\left(Ae^{j\beta}\right)e^{j\omega t}\right\}$$

- Step 2: Substitute the proposed solution into the differential equation. The common time-varying factor $e^{j\omega t}$ of all terms will cancel out, resulting in two **algebraic** equations to solve for the two unknown constants $\{A, \beta\}$.

Example: RL circuit (1)

- Q: Given $v_s(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$, calculate $i_{ss}(t)$.



Assume

$$i_{ss}(t) = I_m \cos(\omega t + \beta).$$

$$\Rightarrow L \frac{d}{dt} i_{ss}(t) + R i_{ss}(t)$$

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

$$\Rightarrow L \frac{d}{dt} [I_m \cos(\omega t + \beta)] + R [I_m \cos(\omega t + \beta)] = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi),$$

$$\Rightarrow -\omega L I_m \sin(\omega t + \beta) + R I_m \cos(\omega t + \beta) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi),$$

Example: RL circuit (2)

- By cosine convention:

$$\Rightarrow \omega L I_m \cos(\omega t + \beta + 90^\circ) + R I_m \cos(\omega t + \beta) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi),$$

$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{Re}\left\{\omega L I_m e^{j(\beta+90^\circ)} e^{j\omega t}\right\} + \operatorname{Re}\left\{R I_m e^{j\beta} e^{j\omega t}\right\} = \operatorname{Re}\left\{V_m e^{j\phi} e^{j\omega t}\right\},$$

$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{Re}\left\{j\omega L \mathbf{I} e^{j\omega t}\right\} + \operatorname{Re}\left\{R \mathbf{I} e^{j\omega t}\right\} = \operatorname{Re}\left\{\mathbf{V} e^{j\omega t}\right\},$$

$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{Re}\left\{(j\omega L + R) \mathbf{I} e^{j\omega t}\right\} = \operatorname{Re}\left\{\mathbf{V} e^{j\omega t}\right\}.$$

- A **necessary** condition is:

$$(j\omega L + R) \cancel{\mathbf{I} e^{j\omega t}} = \mathbf{V} \cancel{e^{j\omega t}}, \Rightarrow (j\omega L + R) \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{V}.$$

Example: RL circuit (3)

- A more convenient way is directly **transforming the ODE** from time to frequency domain:

$$L \frac{d}{dt} i_{ss}(t) + R i_{ss}(t) = V_m \cos(\omega t + \phi),$$
$$\Rightarrow L(j\omega)\mathbf{I} + R\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{V}, \quad (j\omega L + R)\mathbf{I} = \mathbf{V}.$$

- The solution can be obtained by one complex (i.e. two real) **algebraic equation**:

$$\mathbf{I} = \frac{\mathbf{V}}{j\omega L + R}, \quad \text{i.e. } I_m e^{j\beta} = \frac{V_m e^{j\phi}}{j\omega L + R}.$$



Section 9.4

Impedances of The Passive Circuit Elements

1. Generalize resistance to impedance
2. Impedances of R, L, C
3. In phase & quadrature

What is the impedance?

- For a resistor, the ratio of voltage $v(t)$ to the current $i(t)$ is a real constant R (Ohm's law):

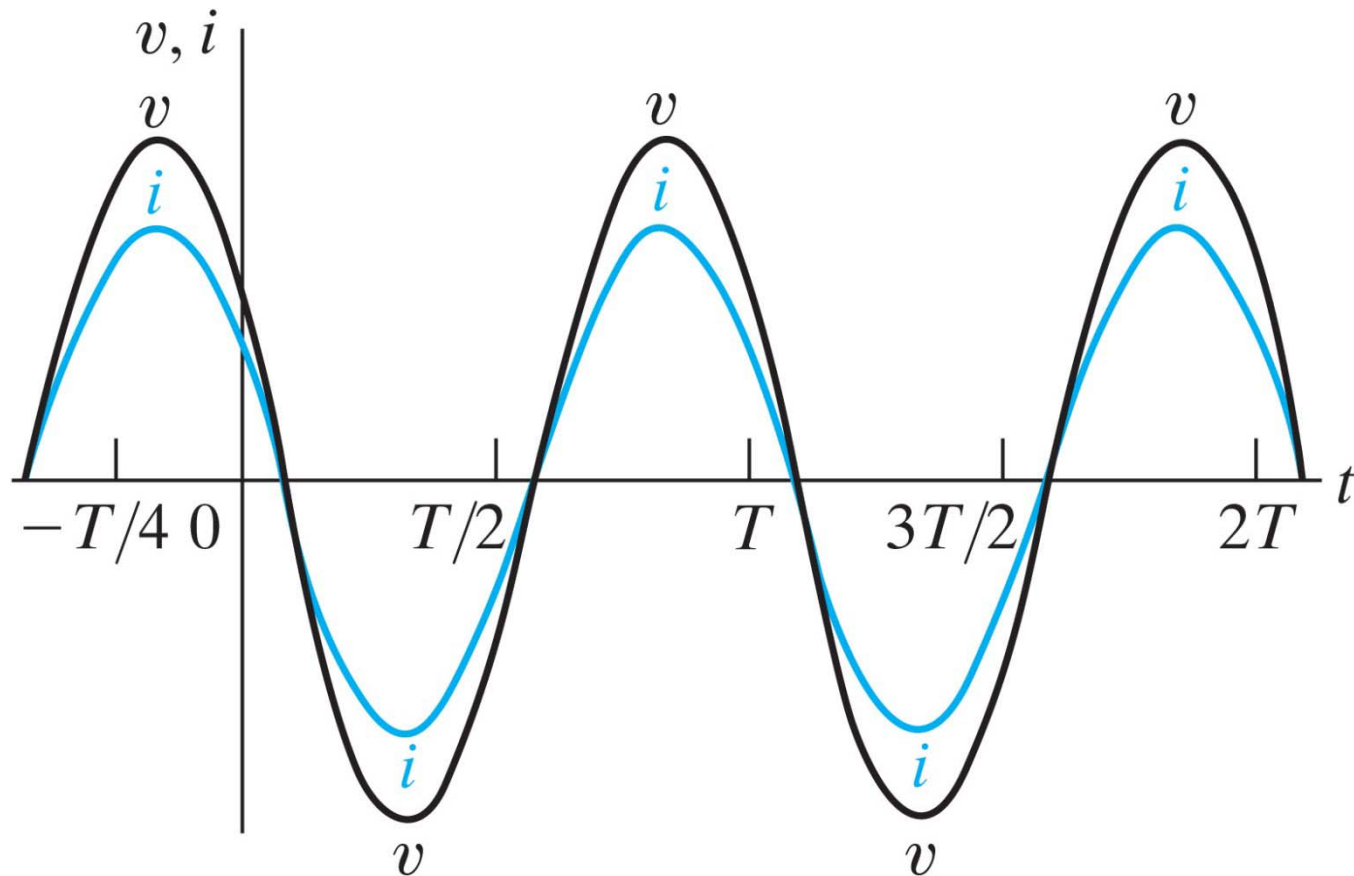
$$R = \frac{v(t)}{i(t)} \dots \text{resistance}$$

- For two terminals of a linear circuit driven by sinusoidal sources, the ratio of voltage phasor V to the current phasor I is a **complex** constant Z :

$$Z \equiv \frac{V}{I} \dots \text{impedance}$$

The i - v relation and impedance of a resistor

- $i(t)$ and $v(t)$ reach the peaks simultaneously (in phase), \Rightarrow impedance $Z=R$ is real.



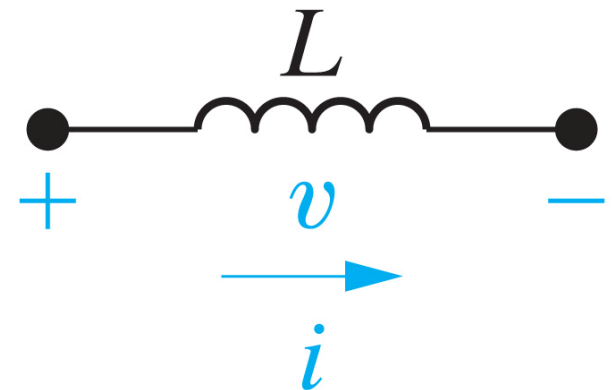
The i - v relation and impedance of an inductor (1)

- Assume $i(t) = I_m \cos(\omega t + \theta_i)$

$$\Rightarrow v(t) = L \frac{d}{dt} i(t)$$

$$= L[-\omega I_m \sin(\omega t + \theta_i)]$$

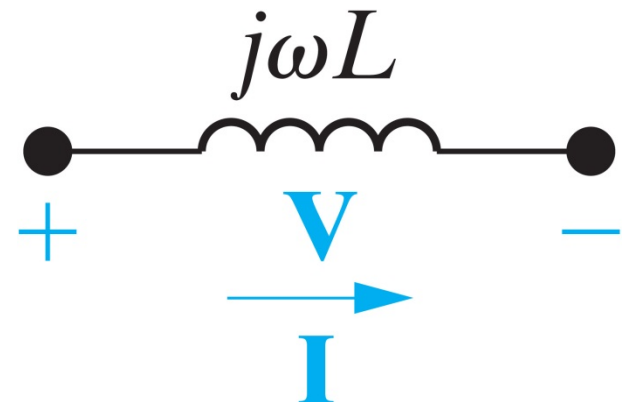
$$= \omega L I_m \cos(\omega t + \theta_i + 90^\circ).$$



- By phasor transformation:

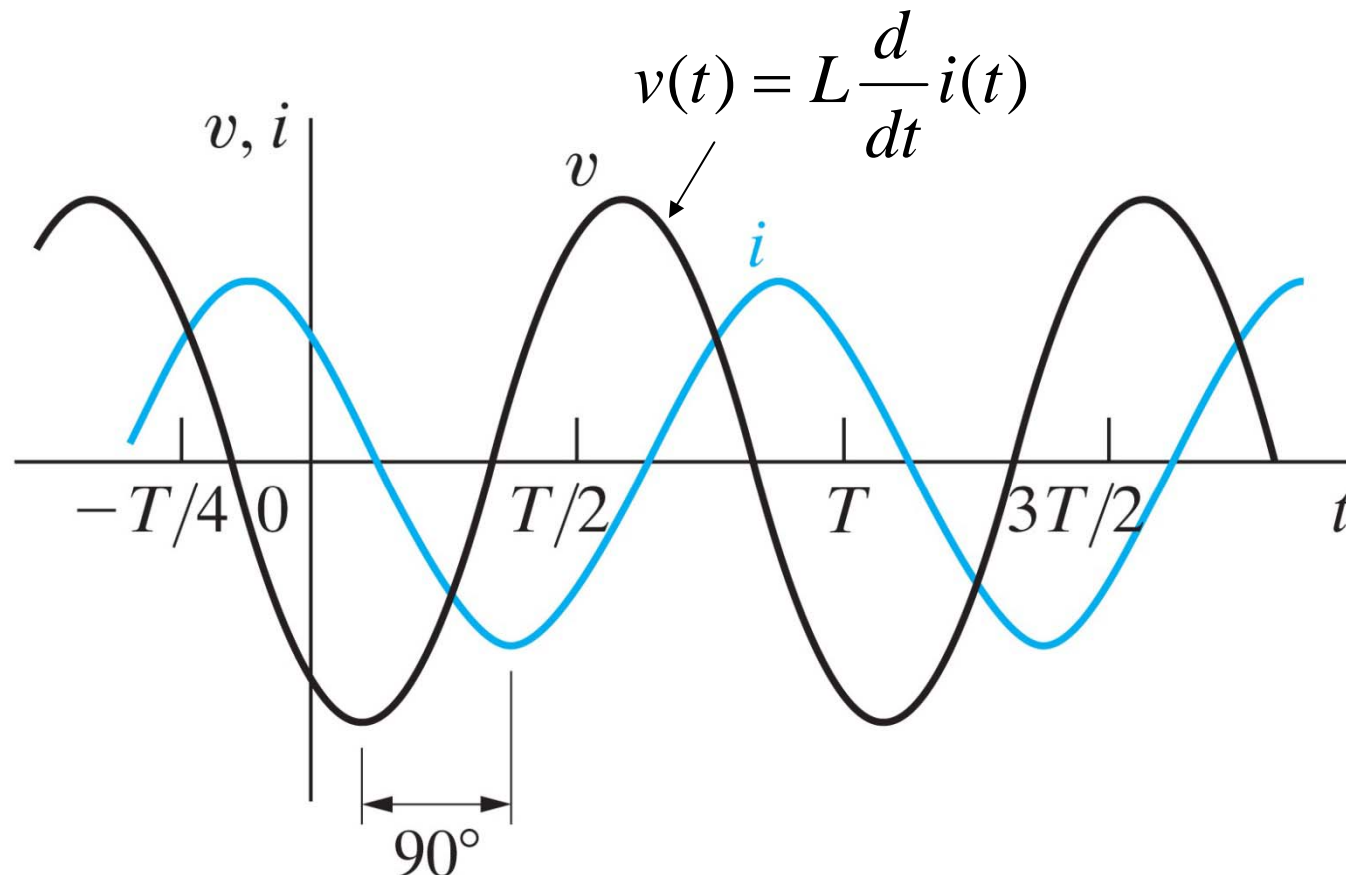
$$\mathbf{V} = L \cdot j\omega \mathbf{I}$$

$$\Rightarrow Z = \frac{\mathbf{V}}{\mathbf{I}} = j\omega L.$$

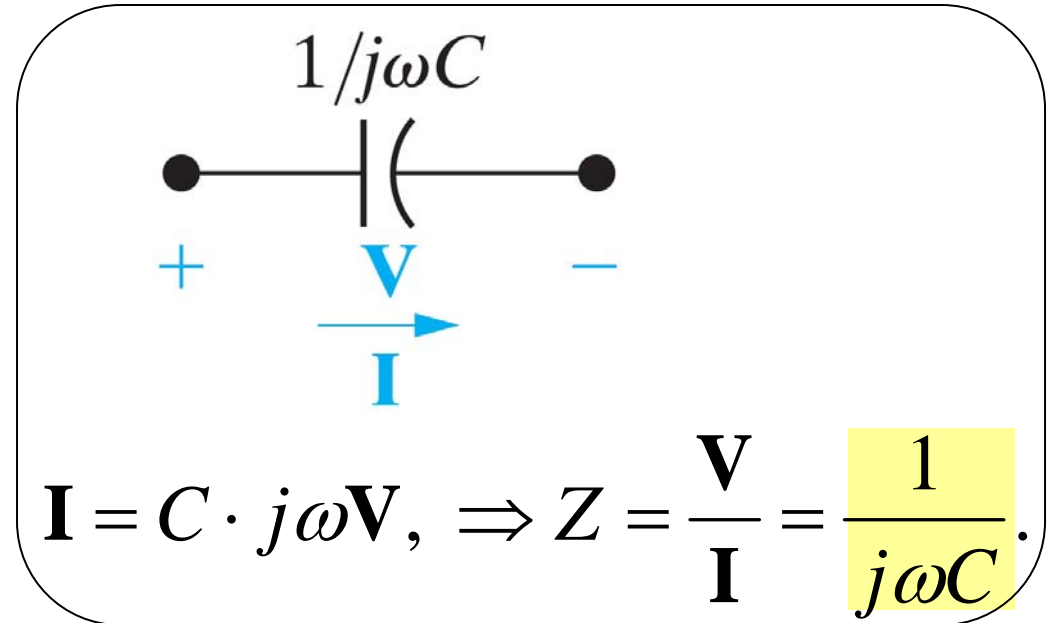
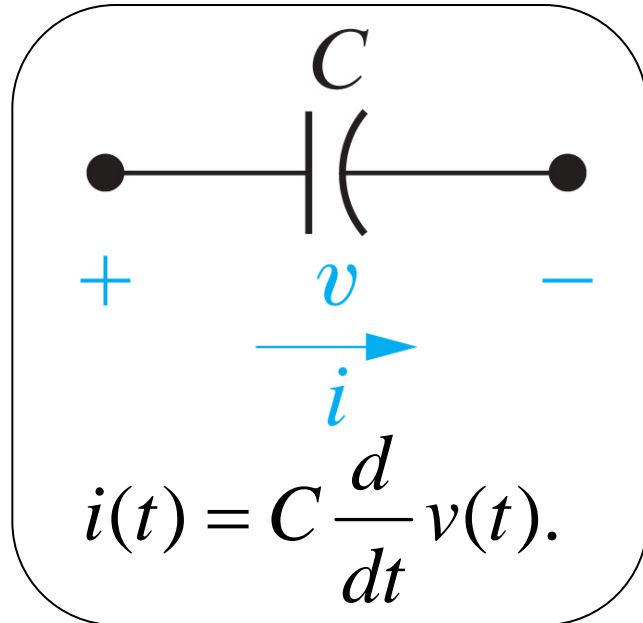


The i - v relation and impedance of an inductor (2)

- $v(t)$ **leads** $i(t)$ by $T/4$ ($+90^\circ$ phase, i.e. quadrature)
 \Rightarrow impedance $Z = j\omega L$ is purely positive imaginary.

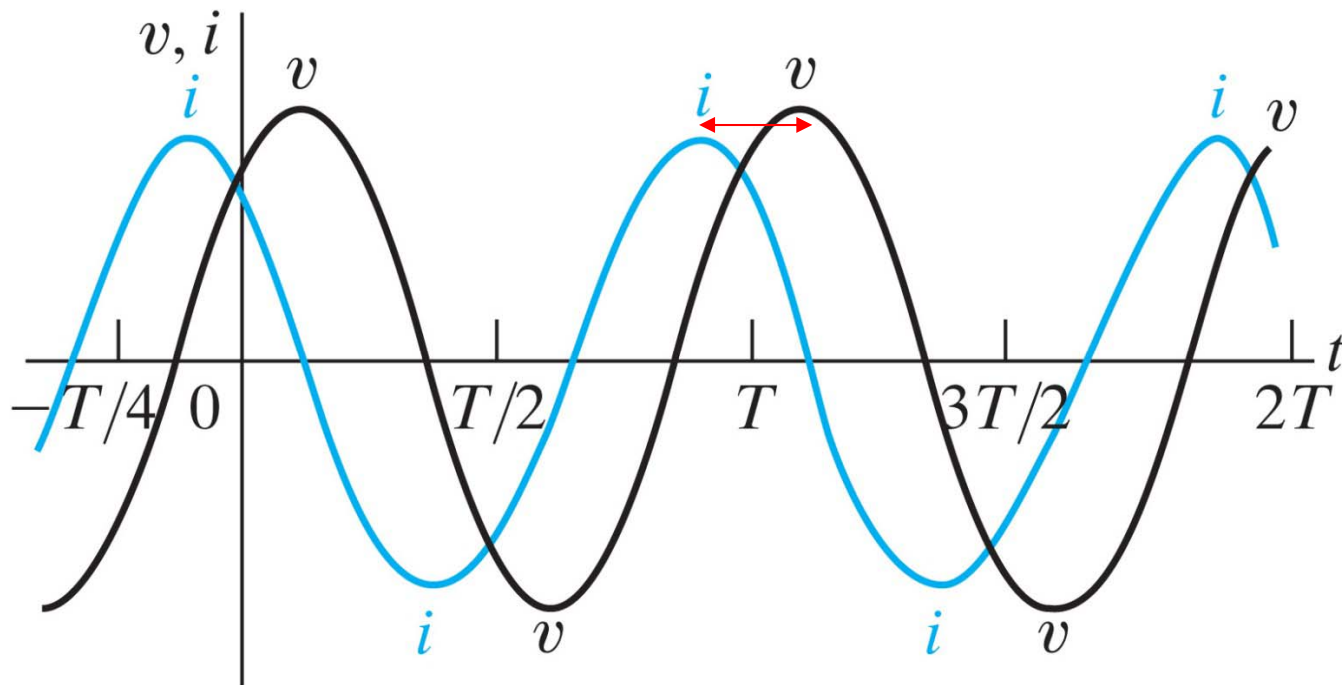


The i - v relation and impedance of an capacitor (1)



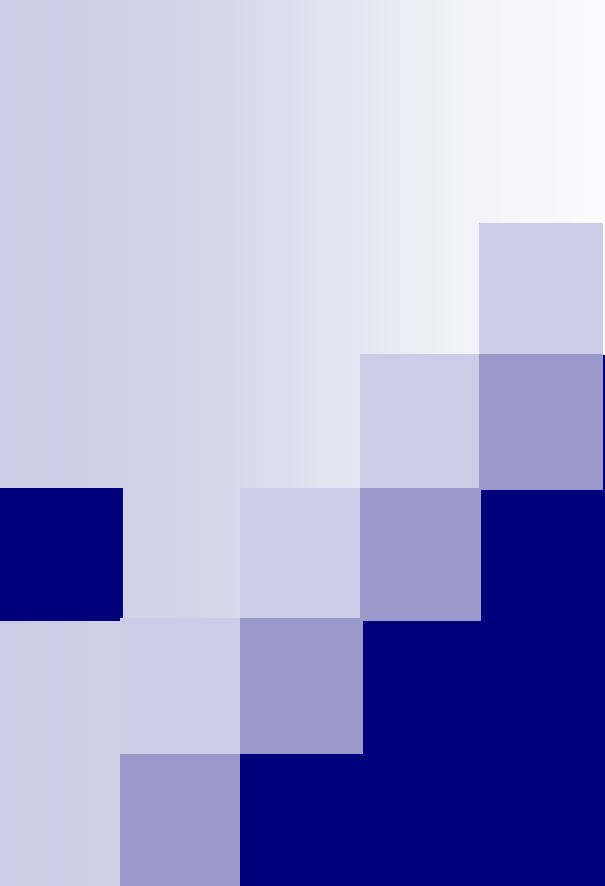
The i - v relation and impedance of a capacitor (2)

- $v(t)$ **lags** $i(t)$ by $T/4$ (-90° phase, i.e. quadrature)
 \Rightarrow impedance $Z = 1/(j\omega C)$ is purely negative imaginary.



More on impedance

- Impedance Z is a complex number in units of Ohms.
- Impedance of a “mutual” inductance M is $j\omega M$.
- $\text{Re}(Z) = R$, $\text{Im}(Z) = X$ are called resistance and **reactance**, respectively.
- Although impedance is complex, **it's not a phasor**. In other words, it cannot be transformed into a sinusoidal function in the time domain.



Section 9.5-9.9

Circuit Analysis Techniques in the Frequency Domain

Summary

- All the DC circuit analysis techniques:

1. KVL, KCL;
2. Series, parallel, Δ -Y simplifications;
3. Source transformations;
4. Thévenin, Norton equivalent circuits;
5. NVM, MCM;

are still applicable to sinusoidal steady-state analysis if the voltages, currents, and passive elements are replaced by the corresponding **phasors** and **impedances**.

KVL, KCL

■ KVL: $v_1(t) + v_2(t) + \dots + v_n(t) = \sum_{q=1}^n v_q(t) = 0,$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{q=1}^n V_{mq} \cos(\omega t + \theta_q) = \sum_{q=1}^n \operatorname{Re} \left[V_{mq} e^{j(\omega t + \theta_q)} \right]$$

$$= \left\{ \sum_{q=1}^n \operatorname{Re} \left[V_{mq} e^{j\theta_q} \right] \right\} e^{j\omega t} = 0,$$

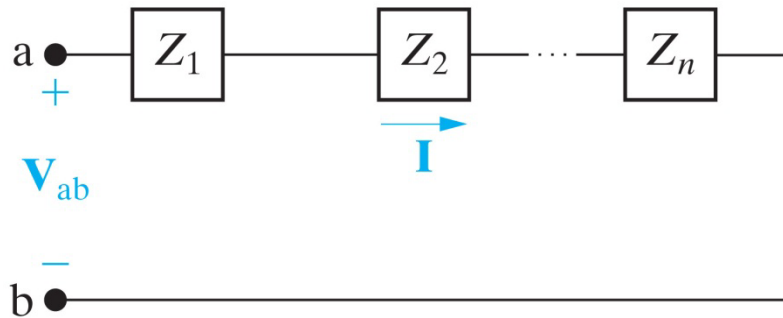
$$\mathbf{V}_1 + \mathbf{V}_2 + \dots + \mathbf{V}_n = 0.$$

■ KCL: $i_1(t) + i_2(t) + \dots + i_n(t) = 0, \Rightarrow$

$$\mathbf{I}_1 + \mathbf{I}_2 + \dots + \mathbf{I}_n = 0.$$

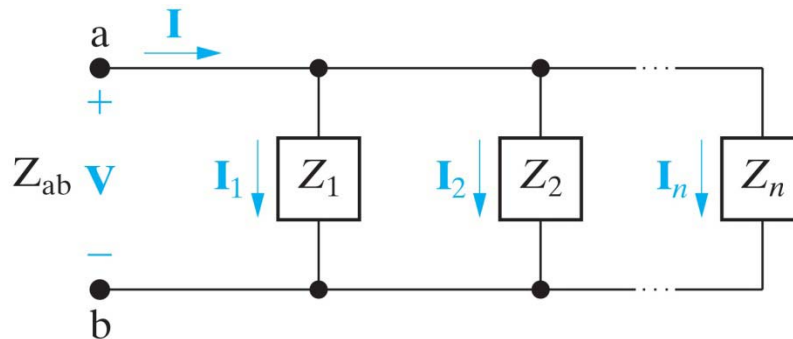
Equivalent impedance formulas

■ Impedances in series



$$Z_{ab} = \sum_j Z_j$$

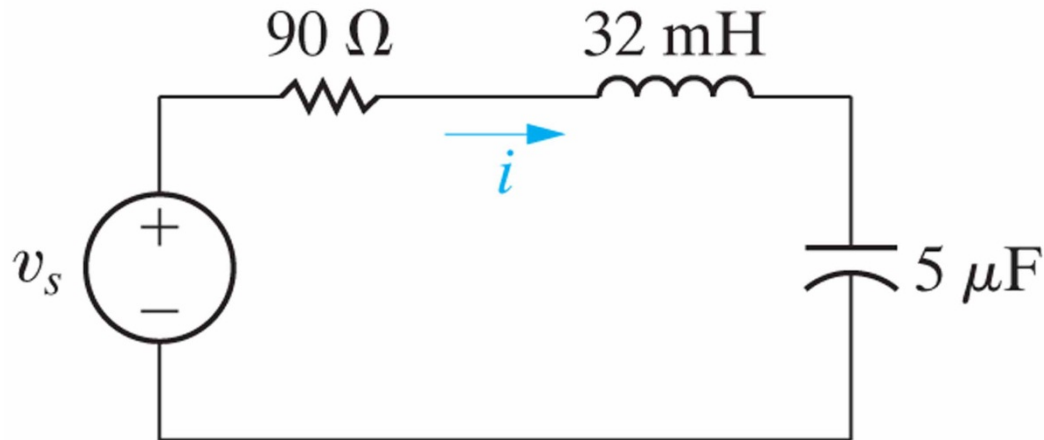
■ Impedances in parallel



$$\frac{1}{Z_{ab}} = \sum_j \frac{1}{Z_j}$$

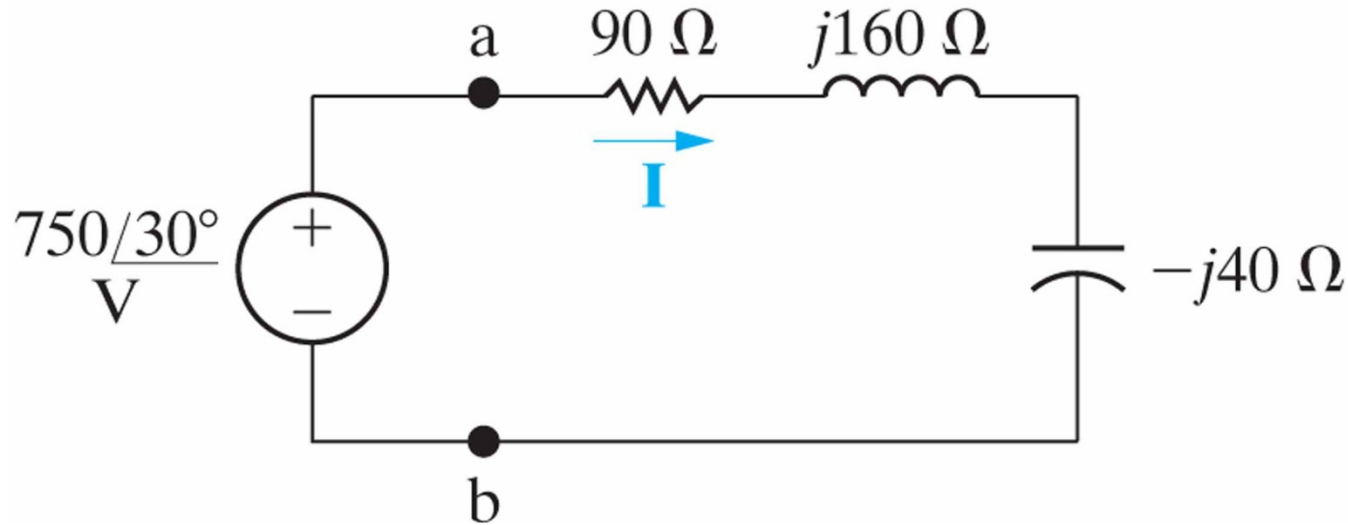
Example 9.6: Series RLC circuit (1)

- Q: Given $v_s(t) = 750 \cos(5000t + 30^\circ)$, $\Rightarrow i(t) = ?$



$$\begin{cases} Z_L = j\omega L = j(5000)(32 \times 10^{-3}) = j160 \, \Omega, \\ Z_C = \frac{1}{j\omega C} = -j \frac{1}{(5000)(5 \times 10^{-6})} = -j40 \, \Omega, \\ \mathbf{V}_s = 750 \angle 30^\circ \, \text{V}, \end{cases}$$

Example 9.6: Series RLC circuit (2)

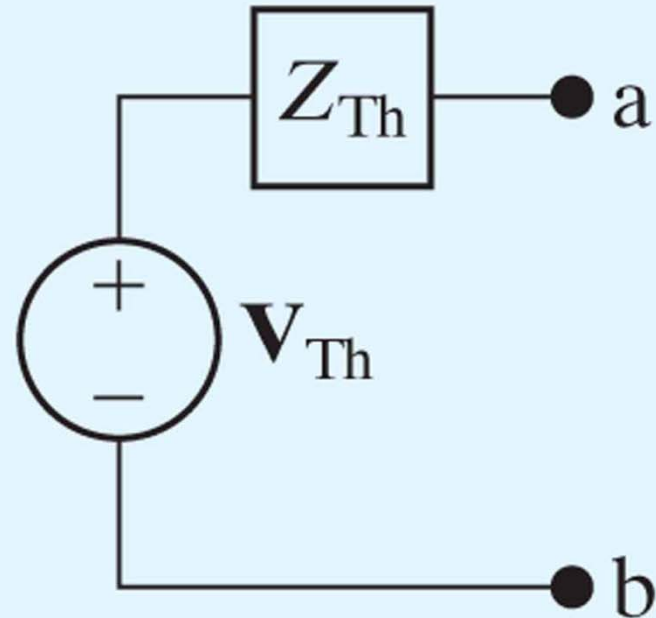
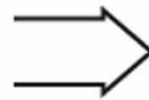


$$\begin{aligned} Z_{ab} &= 90 + j160 - j40 = 90 + j120 \\ &= \sqrt{90^2 + 120^2} \angle \tan^{-1}(120/90) = 150 \angle 53.13^\circ \Omega, \\ \Rightarrow \mathbf{I} &= \frac{\mathbf{V}_s}{Z_{ab}} = \frac{750 \angle 30^\circ \text{ V}}{150 \angle 53.13^\circ \Omega} = 5 \angle -23.13^\circ \text{ A}, \\ \Rightarrow i(t) &= 5 \cos(5000t - 23.13^\circ) \text{ A}. \end{aligned}$$

Thévenin equivalent circuit

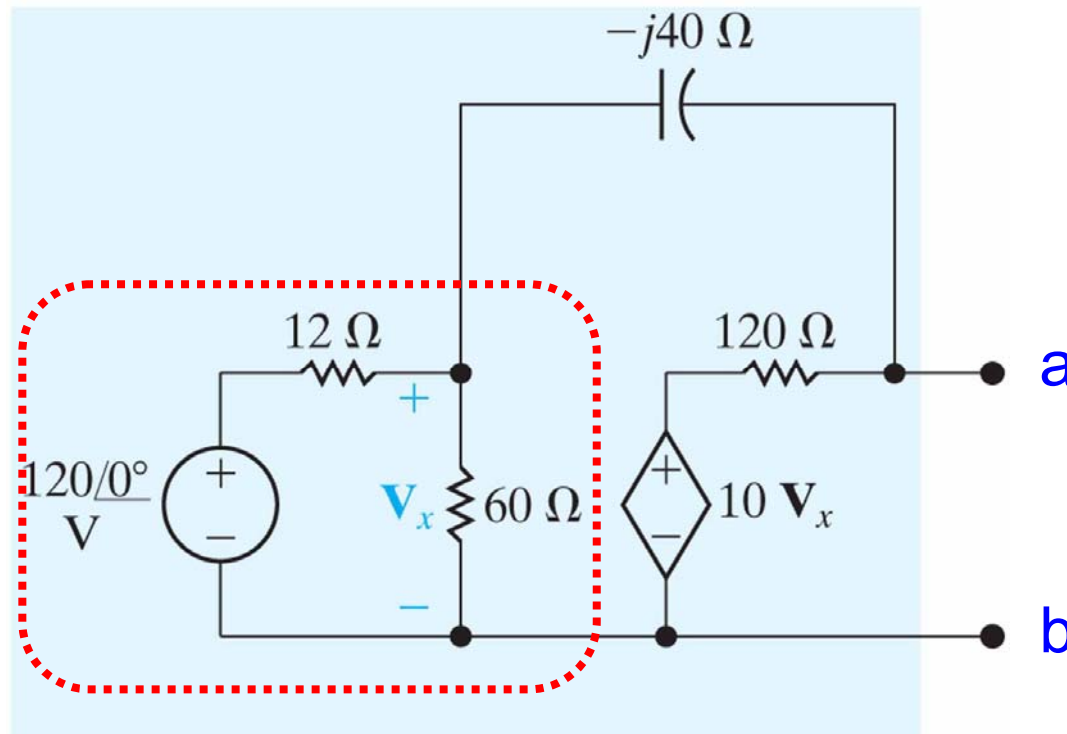
- Terminal voltage phasor and current phasor are the same by using either configuration.

● a
Frequency-domain
linear circuit;
may contain
both independent
and dependent
sources. ● b



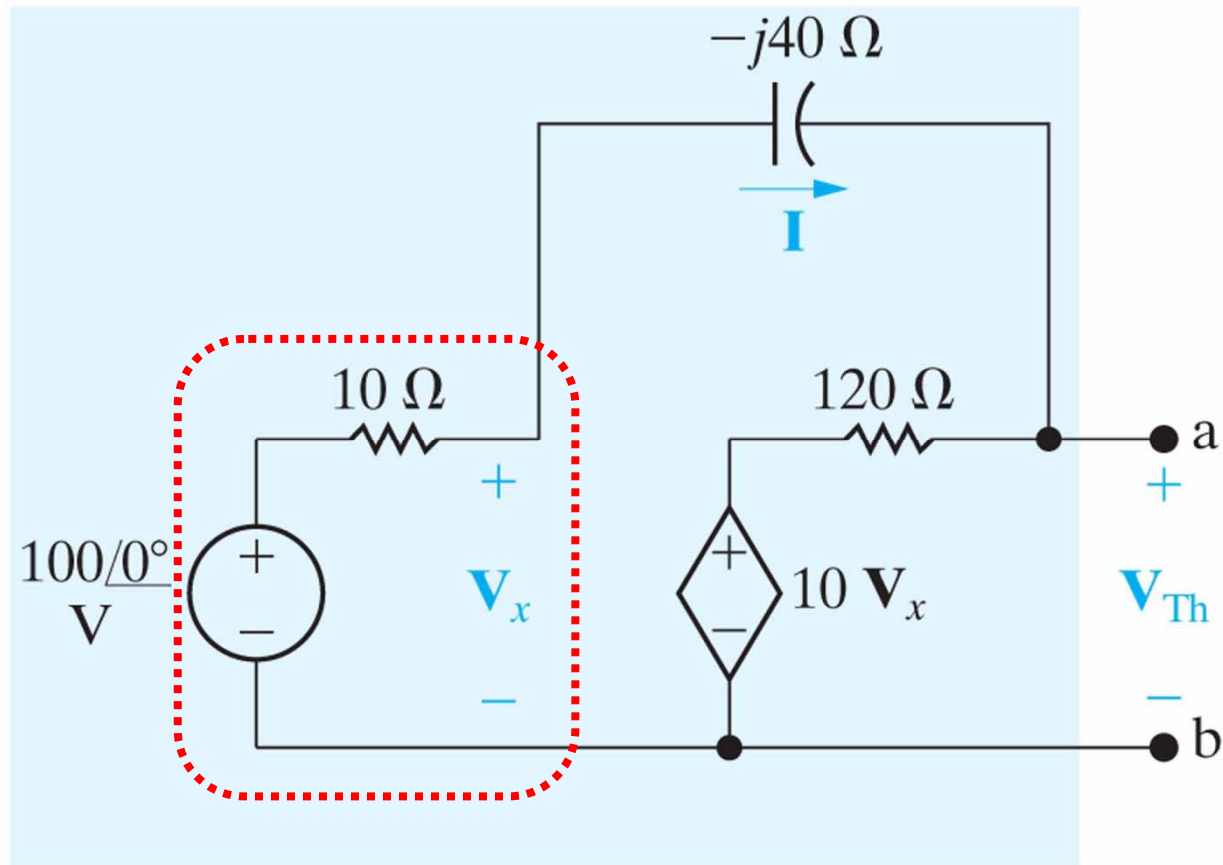
Example 9.10 (1)

- Q: Find the Thévenin circuit for terminals a, b.



- Apply source transformation to $\{120\text{V}, 12\Omega, 60\Omega\}$ twice to get a simplified circuit.

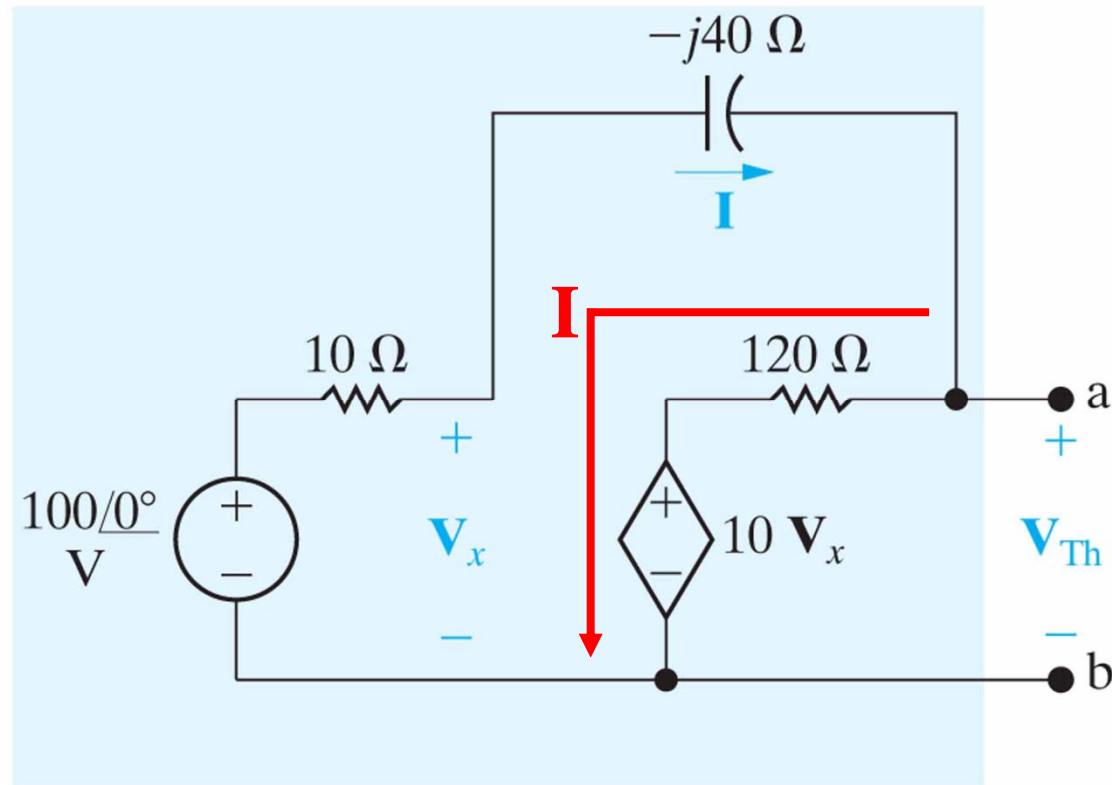
Example 9.10 (2)



$$100 = (10 - j40 + 120)\mathbf{I} + 10\mathbf{V}_x, \Rightarrow (130 - j40)\mathbf{I} + 10\mathbf{V}_x = 100 \cdots (1)$$

$$\mathbf{V}_x = 100 - 10\mathbf{I} \cdots (2)$$

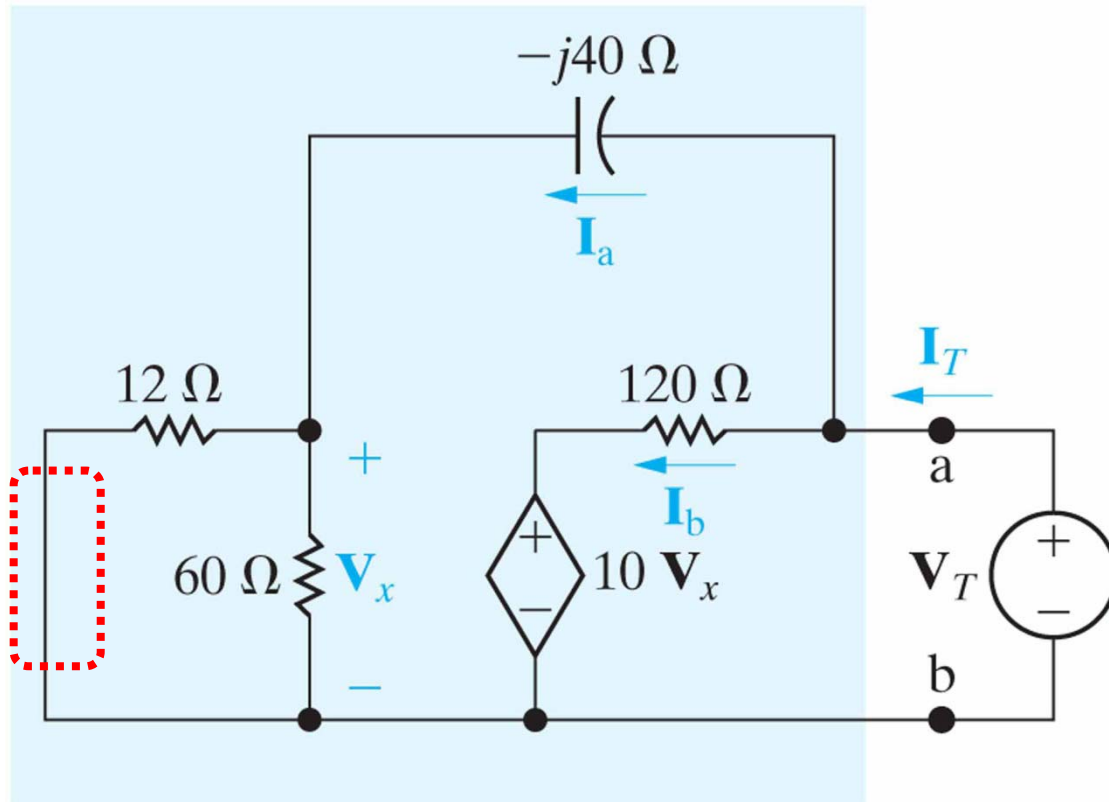
Example 9.10 (3)



$$\mathbf{I} = \frac{-900}{30 - j40} = 18 \angle -126.87^\circ \text{ A},$$

$$\mathbf{V}_{Th} = 10(100 - 10\mathbf{I}) + 120\mathbf{I} = 835.22 \angle -20.17^\circ \text{ V}.$$

Example 9.10 (4)



$$\mathbf{I}_a = \frac{\mathbf{V}_T}{-j40 + (12 // 60)}$$

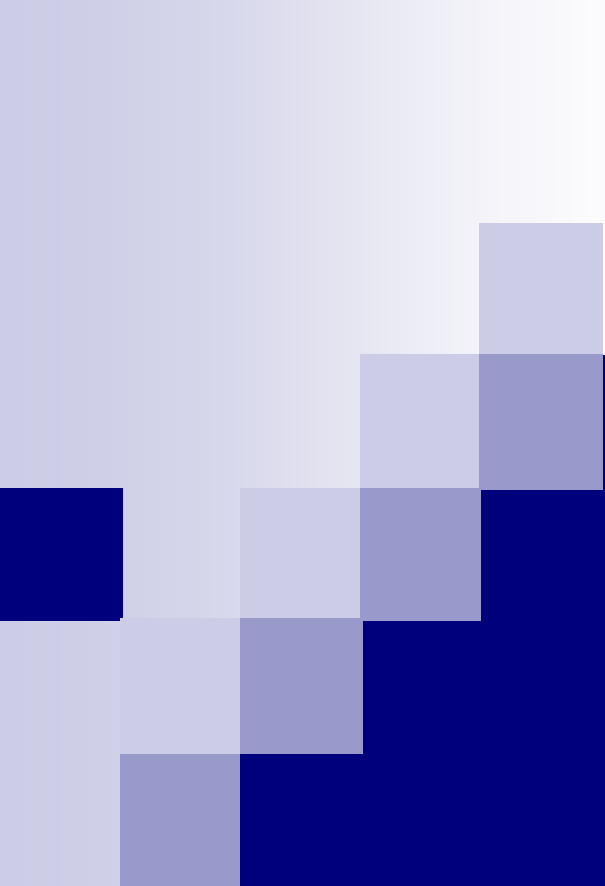
$$= \frac{\mathbf{V}_T}{10 - j40},$$

$$\mathbf{V}_x = (12 // 60)\mathbf{I}_a = 10\mathbf{I}_a,$$

$$\mathbf{I}_b = \frac{\mathbf{V}_T - 10\mathbf{V}_x}{120},$$

$$\mathbf{I}_T = \mathbf{I}_a + \mathbf{I}_b = \mathbf{I}_a + \frac{\mathbf{V}_T - 100\mathbf{I}_a}{120} = \frac{\mathbf{I}_a}{6} + \frac{\mathbf{V}_T}{120} = \frac{1}{6} \frac{\mathbf{V}_T}{10 - j40} + \frac{\mathbf{V}_T}{120},$$

$$\mathbf{Z}_{Th} = \mathbf{V}_T / \mathbf{I}_T = 91.2 - j38.4 \Omega.$$



Section 9.10, 9.11

The Transformer

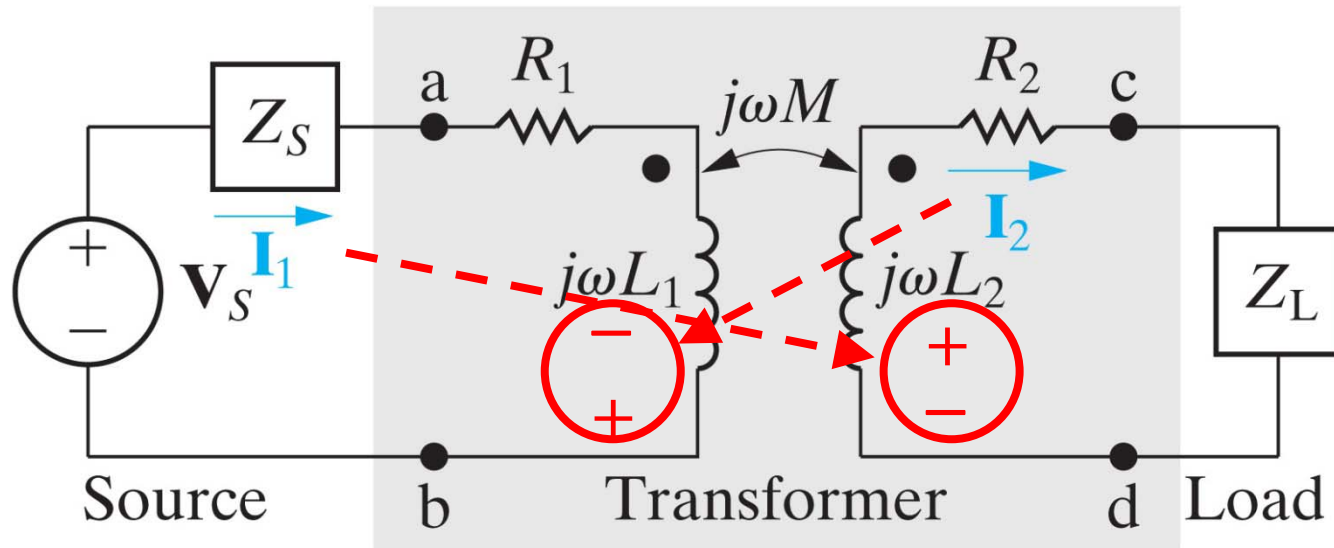
1. Linear transformer, reflected impedance
2. Ideal transformer

Summary

- A device based on magnetic coupling.
- Linear transformer is used in communication circuits to (1) match impedances, and (2) eliminate dc signals.
- Ideal transformer is used in power circuits to establish ac voltage levels.
- **MCM** is used in transformer analysis, for the currents in various coils cannot be written by inspection as functions of the node voltages.

Analysis of linear transformer (1)

- Consider two coils wound around a single core (magnetic coupling):

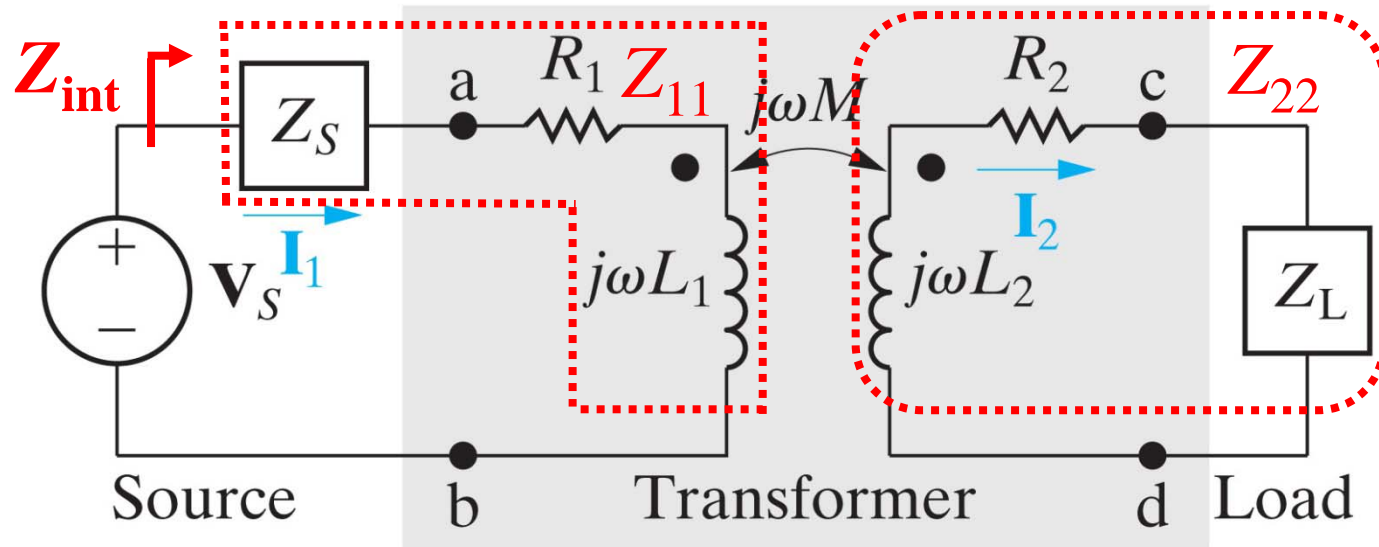


Mesh current equations:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{V}_s = \overset{Z_{11}}{(Z_s + R_1 + j\omega L_1)}\mathbf{I}_1 - j\omega M\mathbf{I}_2 \\ 0 = -j\omega M\mathbf{I}_1 + \underset{Z_{22}}{(R_2 + j\omega L_2 + Z_L)}\mathbf{I}_2 \end{cases}$$

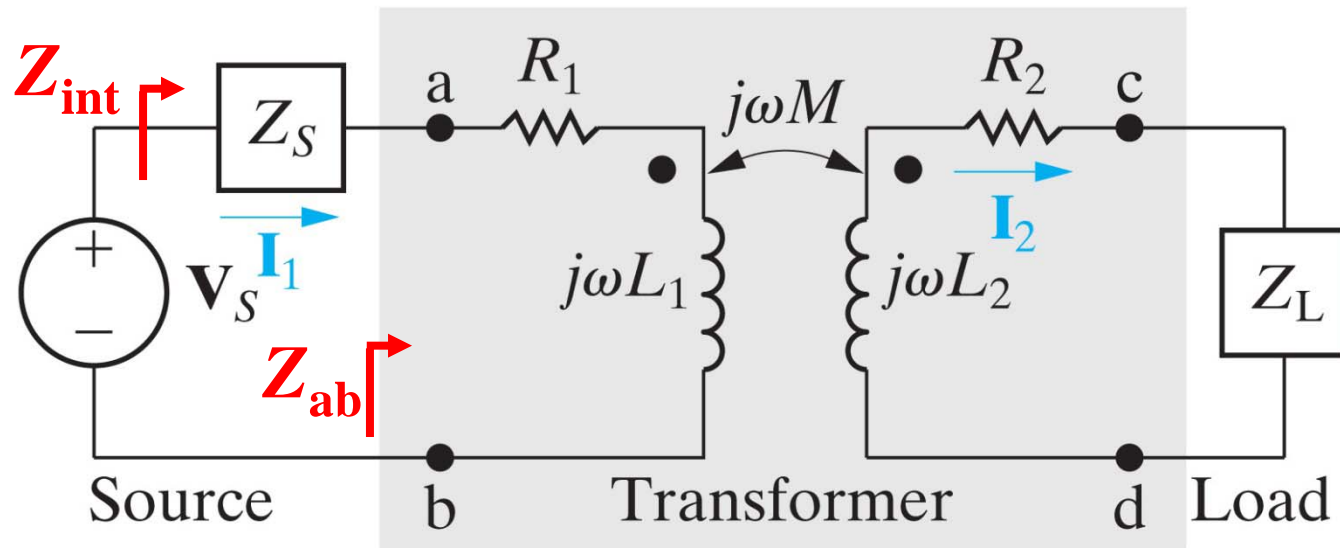
Analysis of linear transformer (2)

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{I}_1 = \frac{Z_{22}}{Z_{11}Z_{22} + \omega^2 M^2} \mathbf{V}_s, \quad \mathbf{I}_2 = \frac{j\omega M}{Z_{22}} \mathbf{I}_1 = \frac{j\omega M}{Z_{11}Z_{22} + \omega^2 M^2} \mathbf{V}_s.$$



$$\Rightarrow Z_{\text{int}} = \frac{\mathbf{V}_s}{\mathbf{I}_1} = \frac{Z_{11}Z_{22} + \omega^2 M^2}{Z_{22}} = Z_{11} + \frac{\omega^2 M^2}{Z_{22}}.$$

Input impedance of the primary coil

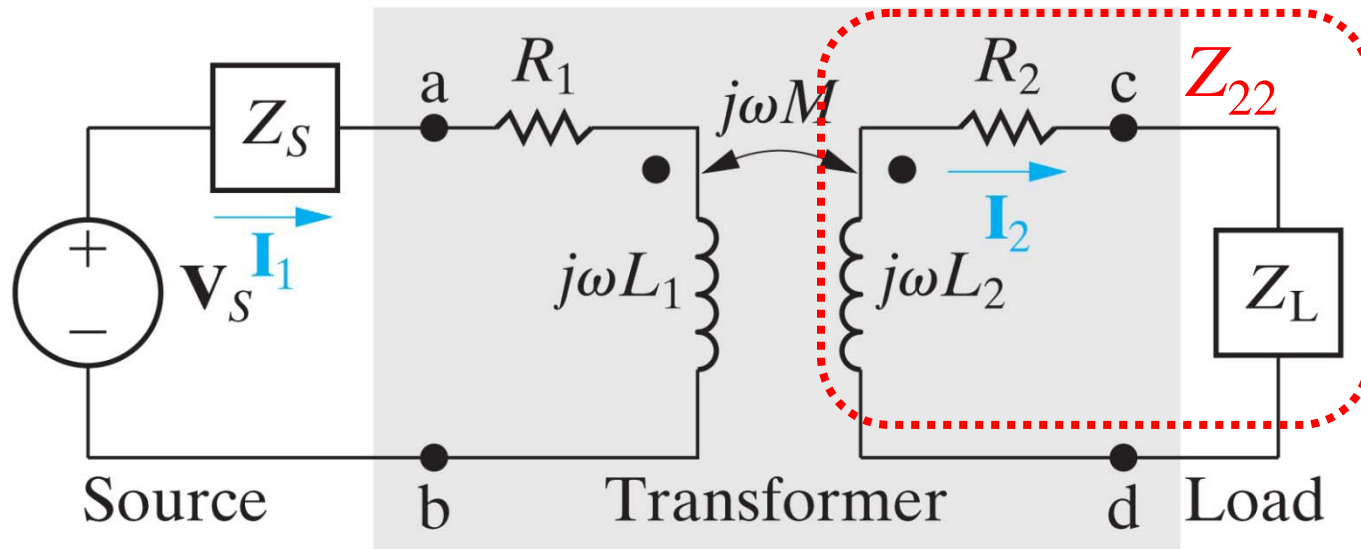


$$Z_{ab} = Z_{int} - Z_S = (R_1 + j\omega L_1) + Z_r, \quad \textcircled{Z_r} = \frac{\omega^2 M^2}{Z_{22}} = \frac{\omega^2 M^2}{R_2 + j\omega L_2 + Z_L}.$$

- Z_r is the equivalent impedance of the **secondary coil** and **load** due to the mutual inductance.
- $Z_{ab} = Z_S$ is needed to prevent power reflection.

Reflected impedance

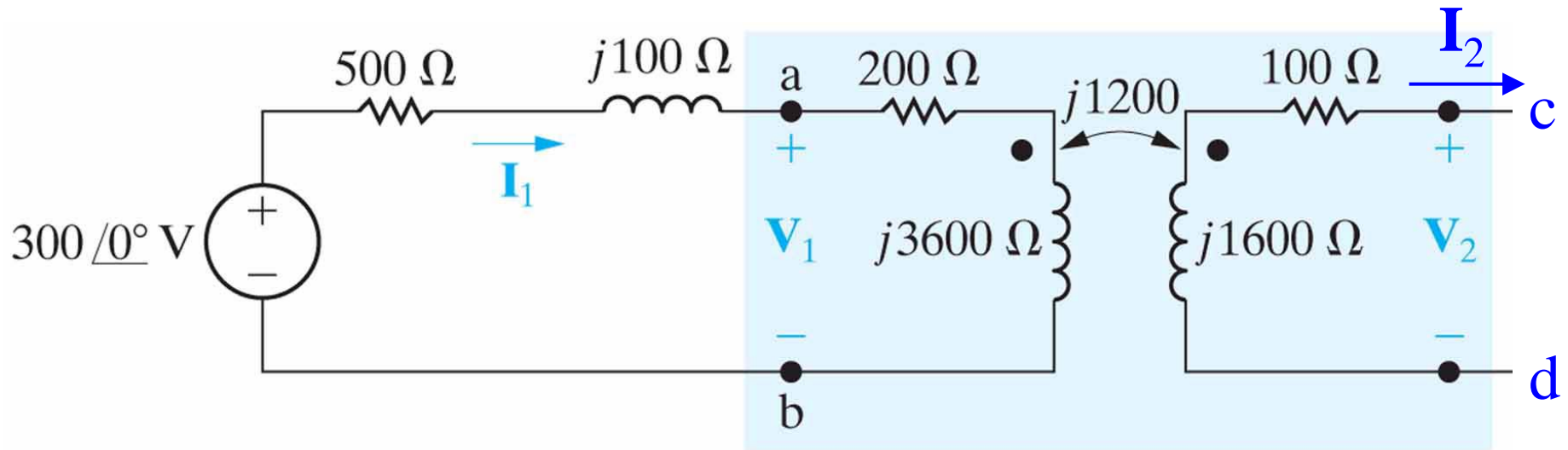
$$Z_r = \frac{\omega^2 M^2}{Z_{22}} = \frac{\omega^2 M^2}{Z_{22} Z_{22}^*} Z_{22}^* = \left(\frac{\omega M}{|Z_{22}|} \right)^2 Z_{22}^*.$$



- Linear transformer reflects $(Z_{22})^*$ into the primary coil by a scalar multiplier $(\omega M/|Z_{22}|)^2$.

Example 9.13 (1)

- Q: Find the Thévenin circuit for terminals c, d.

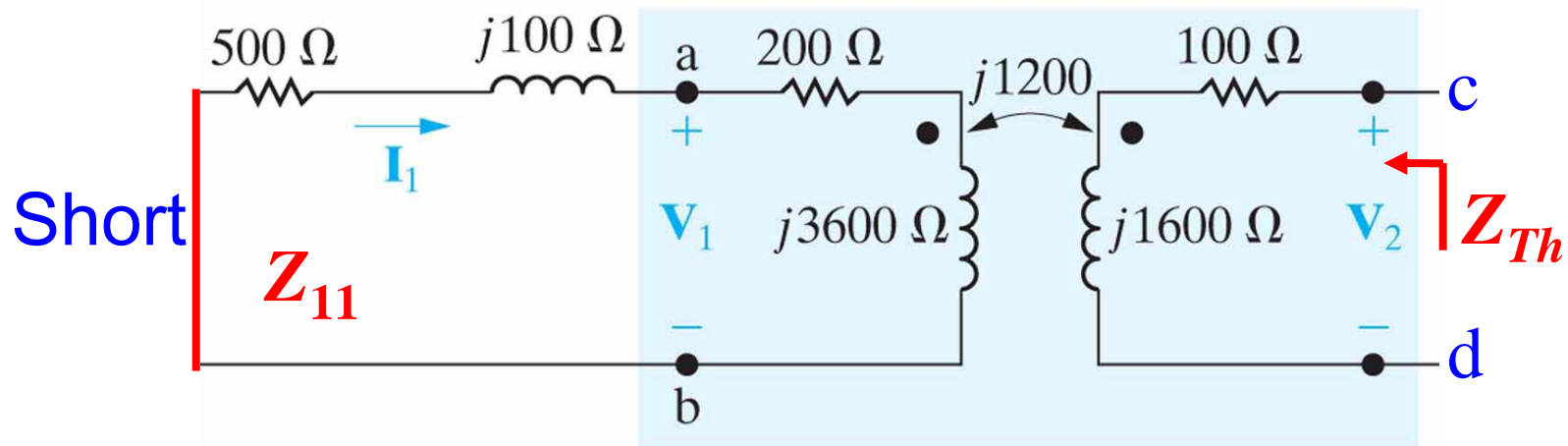


$V_{Th} = V_{cd}$. Since $I_2 = 0$, $\Rightarrow V_{cd} = I_1 \times j\omega M$, where

$$I_1 = \frac{V_s}{Z_{11}} = \frac{300 \angle 0^\circ}{(500 + j100) + (200 + j3600)} = 79.67 \angle -79.29^\circ \text{ A.}$$

$$\Rightarrow \textcircled{V_{Th}} = (79.67 \angle -79.29^\circ) \times (j1200) = 95.6 \angle 10.71^\circ \text{ V.}$$

Example 9.13 (2)



- $Z_{Th} = (100 + j1600) + \mathbf{Z_r}$, where Z_r is the reflected impedance of Z_{11} due to the transformer:

$$Z_{11} = (500 + j100) + (200 + j3600) = (700 + j3700)\Omega.$$

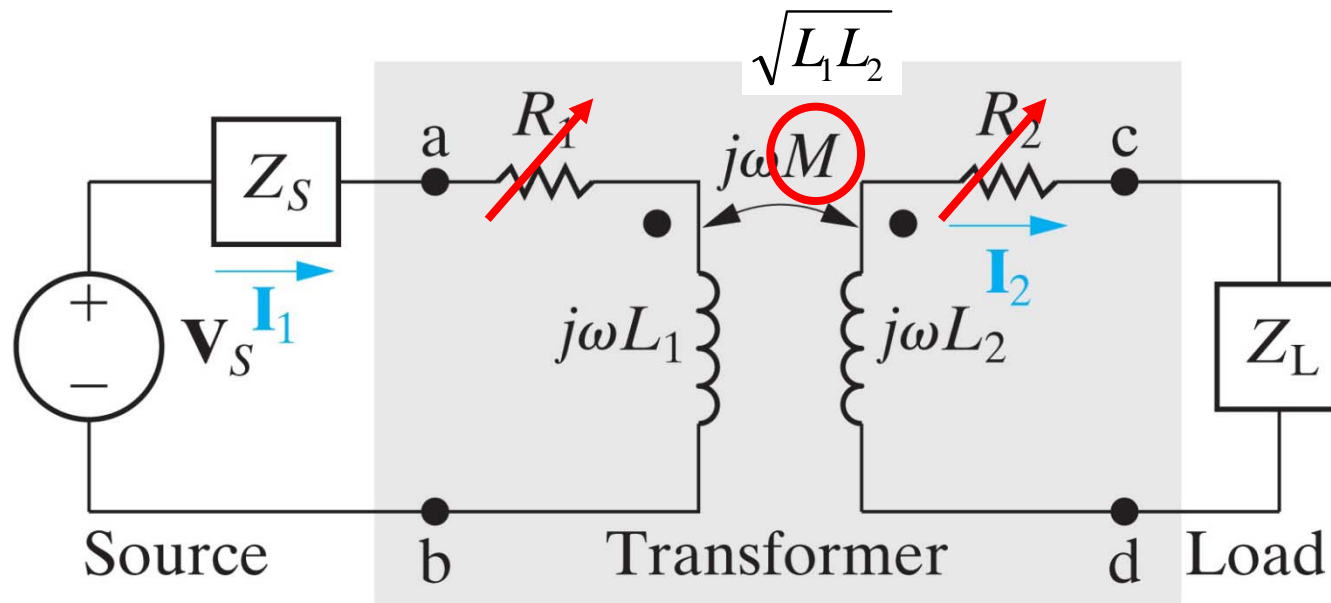
$$Z_r = \left(\frac{\omega M}{|Z_{11}|} \right)^2 Z_{11}^* = \left(\frac{1200}{|700 + j3700|} \right)^2 (700 - j3700),$$

$$\mathbf{Z_{Th}} = (100 + j1600) + Z_r = (171.09 + j1224.26)\Omega.$$

Characteristics of ideal transformer

- An ideal transformer consists of two magnetically coupled coils with N_1 and N_2 turns, respectively. It exhibits three properties:
 1. Magnetic field is **perfectly confined** within the magnetic core, \Rightarrow magnetic coupling coefficient is **$k=1$** , $\Rightarrow M = \sqrt{L_1 L_2}$.
 2. The self-inductance of each coil ($L_i \propto N_i^2$) is large, i.e. **$L_1 = L_2 \rightarrow \infty$** .
 3. The coil loss is negligible: **$R_1 = R_2 \rightarrow 0$** .

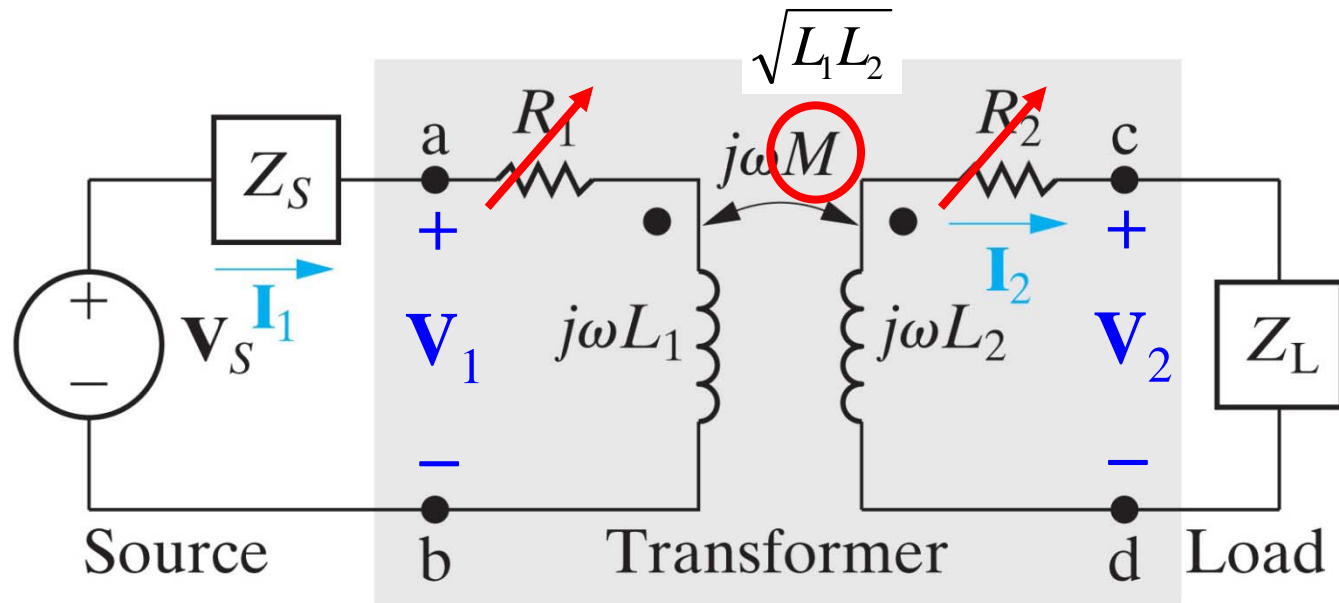
Current ratio



- By solving the two mesh equations of a general linear transformer:

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\mathbf{I}_1}{\mathbf{I}_2} = \frac{Z_{22}}{j\omega M} = \frac{j\omega L_2 + Z_L}{j\omega \sqrt{L_1 L_2}} \xrightarrow{\text{if } \omega L_2 \gg |Z_L|} \sqrt{\frac{L_2}{L_1}} = \frac{N_2}{N_1}.$$

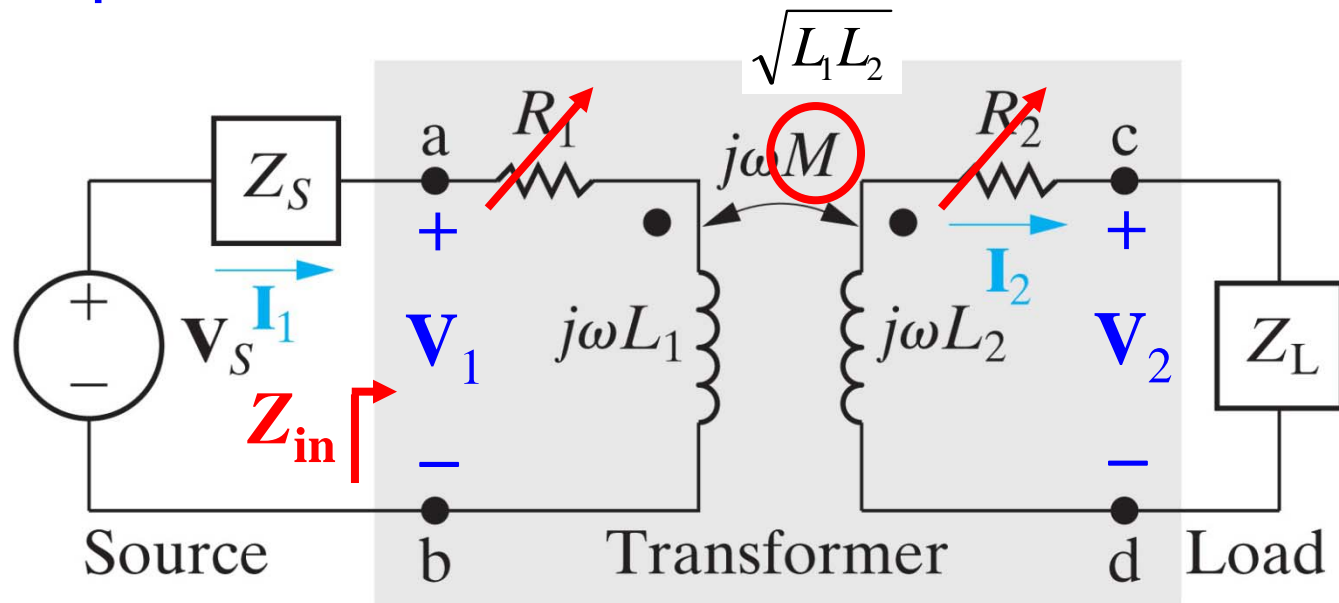
Voltage ratio



- Substitute $\mathbf{I}_2 = \frac{j\omega M}{Z_{22}} \mathbf{I}_1$ into $\begin{cases} \mathbf{V}_1 = j\omega L_1 \mathbf{I}_1 - j\omega M \mathbf{I}_2, \\ \mathbf{V}_2 = Z_L \mathbf{I}_2. \end{cases}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\mathbf{V}_1}{\mathbf{V}_2} = \frac{j\omega L_2 + Z_L}{j\omega M Z_L} (j\omega L_1) + \omega^2 M^2 = \frac{L_1}{M} = \sqrt{\frac{L_1}{L_2}} = \frac{N_1}{N_2}.$$

Input impedance



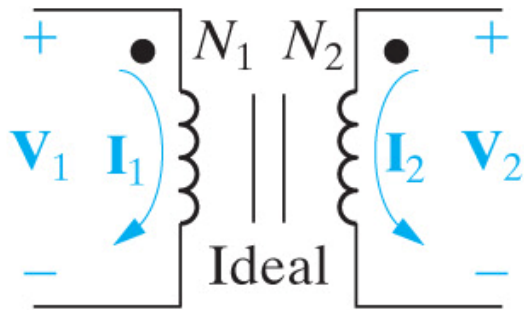
- By the current and voltage ratios,

in-phase

$$\frac{Z_{ab}}{Z_L} = \frac{\mathbf{V}_1 / \mathbf{I}_1}{\mathbf{V}_2 / \mathbf{I}_2} = \frac{\mathbf{V}_1}{\mathbf{V}_2} \frac{\mathbf{I}_2}{\mathbf{I}_1} = \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2} \right)^2, \Rightarrow Z_{in} = Z_{ab} = \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2} \right)^2 Z_L.$$

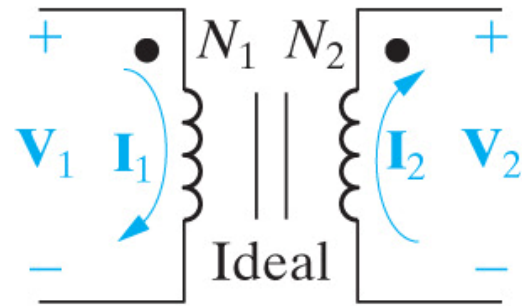
- For lossy transformer, $\Rightarrow Z_{ab} \rightarrow R_1 + \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2} \right)^2 (R_2 + Z_L).$

Polarity of the voltage and current ratios



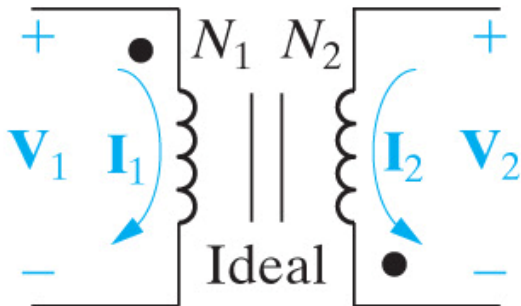
$$\frac{V_1}{N_1} = \frac{V_2}{N_2},$$

$$N_1 I_1 = -N_2 I_2$$



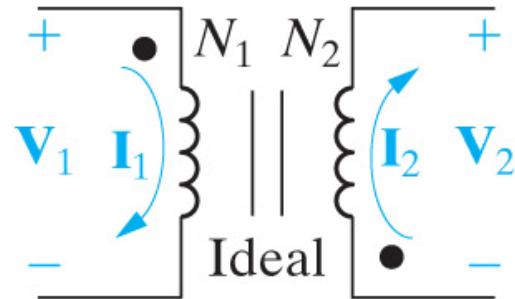
$$\frac{V_1}{N_1} = \frac{V_2}{N_2},$$

$$N_1 I_1 = N_2 I_2$$



$$\frac{V_1}{N_1} = -\frac{V_2}{N_2},$$

$$N_1 I_1 = N_2 I_2$$

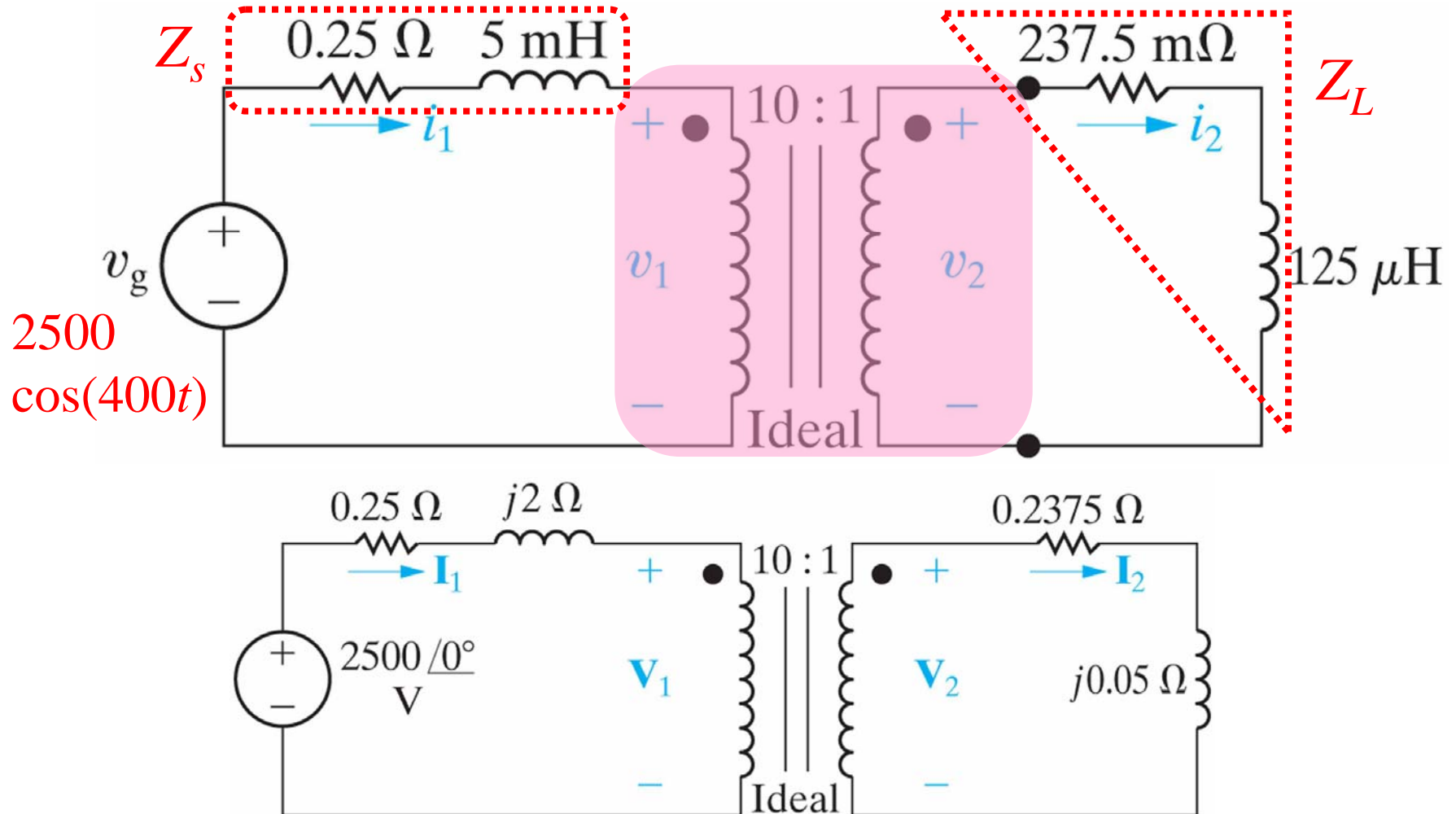


$$\frac{V_1}{N_1} = -\frac{V_2}{N_2},$$

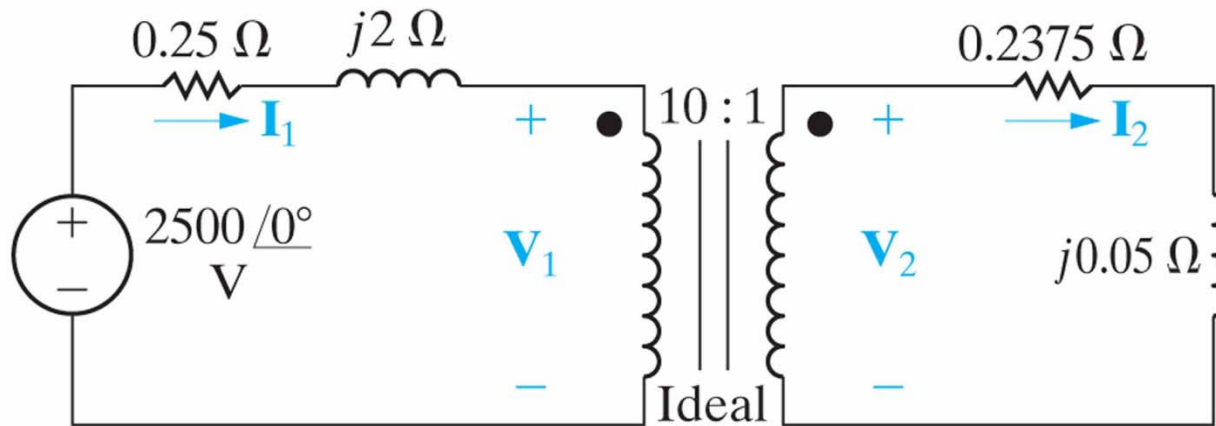
$$N_1 I_1 = -N_2 I_2$$

Example 9.14 (1)

- Q: Find v_1 , i_1 , v_2 , i_2 .



Example 9.14 (2)

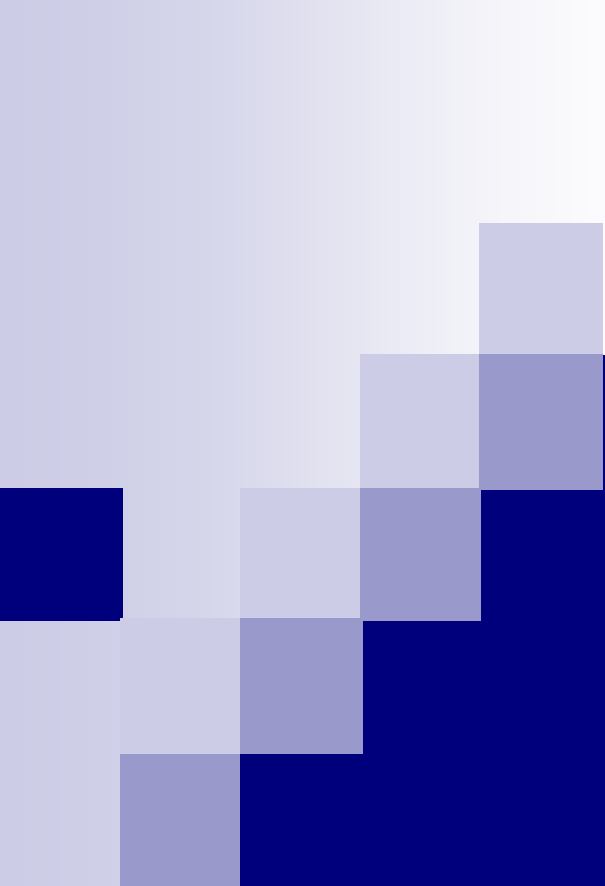


$$2500\angle 0^\circ = (0.25 + j2)\mathbf{I}_1 + \mathbf{V}_1 \cdots (1)$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{V}_2 = (0.2375 + j0.05)\mathbf{I}_2, \\ \mathbf{V}_1 = 10\mathbf{V}_2, \mathbf{I}_2 = 10\mathbf{I}_1, \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \mathbf{V}_1 = (23.75 + j5)\mathbf{I}_1 \cdots (2)$$

$$(2) \rightarrow (1): \mathbf{I}_1 = \frac{2500\angle 0^\circ}{24 + j7} = 100\angle -16.26^\circ, i_1 = 100\cos(400t - 16.26^\circ).$$

$$\text{By (2): } \mathbf{V}_1 = (23.75 + j5)(100\angle -16.26^\circ) = 2427\angle -4.37^\circ, v_1 = \dots$$

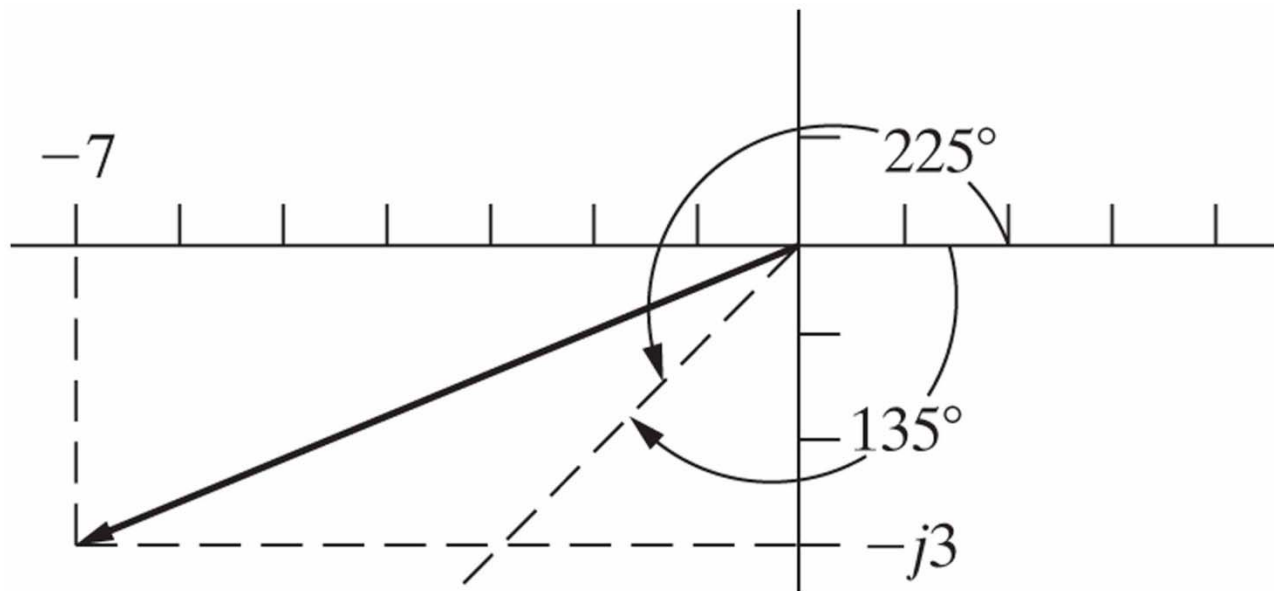


Section 9.12

Phasor Diagrams

Definition

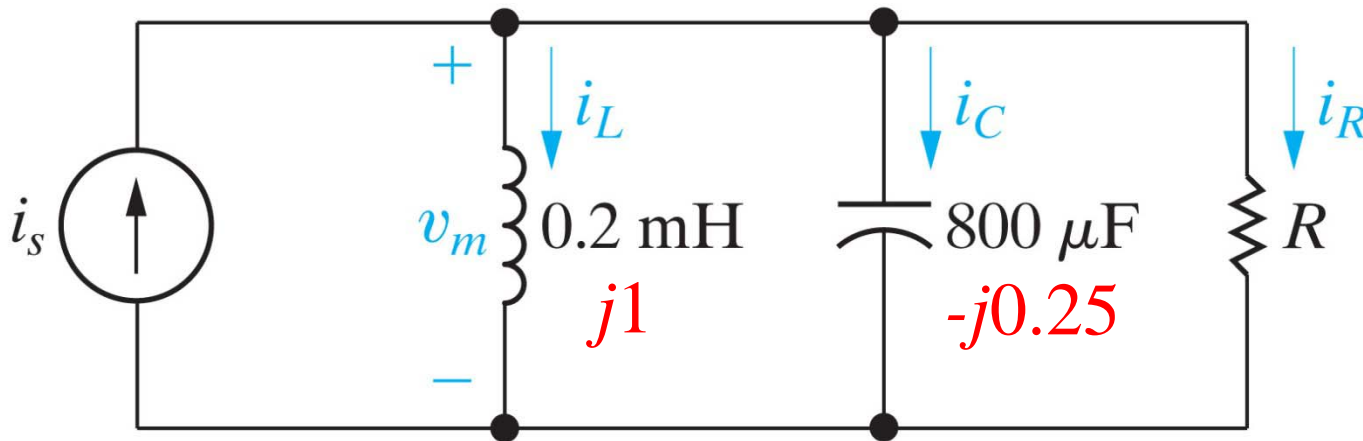
- Graphical representation of $-7-j3 = 7.62\angle -156.8^\circ$ on the complex-number plane.



- Without calculation, we can anticipate a magnitude >7 , and a phase in the 3rd quadrant.

Example 9.15 (1)

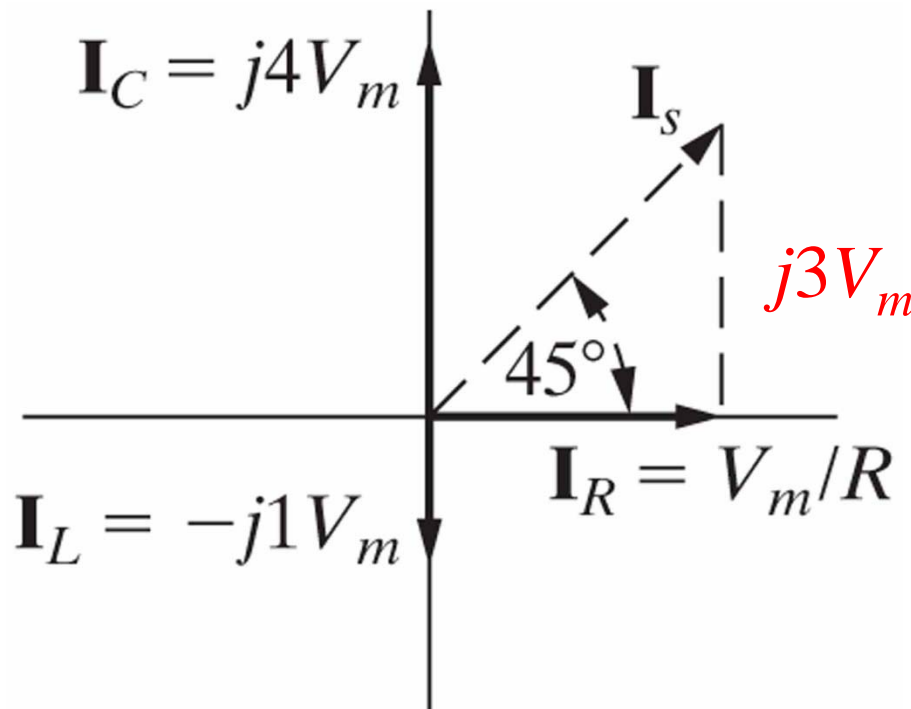
- Q: Use a phasor diagram to find the value of R that will cause i_R to lag the source current i_s by 45° when $\omega = 5$ krad/s.



$$\mathbf{I}_L = \frac{\mathbf{V}_m}{j1} = V_m \angle -90^\circ, \quad \mathbf{I}_C = \frac{\mathbf{V}_m}{-j0.25} = 4V_m \angle 90^\circ, \quad \mathbf{I}_R = \frac{\mathbf{V}_m}{R} = V_m \angle 0^\circ.$$

Example 9.15 (2)

- By KCL, $\mathbf{I}_s = \mathbf{I}_L + \mathbf{I}_C + \mathbf{I}_R$. Addition of the 3 current phasors can be visualized by **vector summation** on a phase diagram:



To make $\angle \mathbf{I}_s = 45^\circ$,
 $\mathbf{I}_R = 3V_m$,
 $\Rightarrow R = 1/3 \Omega$.

Key points

- What is the **phase** of a sinusoidal function?
- What is the **phasor** of a sinusoidal function?
- What is the phase of an **impedance**? What are in-phase and quadrature?
- How to solve the sinusoidal steady-state response by using phasor and impedance?
- What is the **reflected impedance** of a circuit with transformer?