

hello in this and the next few lectures i will be discussing what is known as alternating current some time back we had talked about direct current circuits and i would like to point out that in our day-to-day use it is the alternating current which is uh more prevalent than direct currents and we will be discussing uh the various properties that go with it but before we do that let me remind you of what you have done earlier on faraday's law in our discussion of faraday's law of electromagnetic induction we had seen that if we have a situation where the magnetic flux changes with time then an emf is produced the emf relationship is given by the mathematical statement of faraday's law which says emf is equal to minus  $n \frac{d\phi}{dt}$  where  $\phi$  is the flux through each turn and  $n$  is the number of turns if you recall our definition of flux was integral of  $\mathbf{b} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$  over a surface the formula is written usually with a minus sign and that is because this is a reminder of what is known as lenz's law the lenz's law talks about the direction of current induced in the circuit

so according to lenz's law now the direction of such induced current is always such that the magnetic field that such a current produces opposes the change that produced it in other words it tends to negate whatever change was being shot by the agency producing this current let's push this idea a little further supposing we have a rotating coil in a uniform magnetic field

so i will just give you a schematic diagram

so i have a coil which is rotating in a constant magnetic field

so this is the rotating coil and let's suppose this is the direction of the magnetic field which is uniform and the coil of course ah moves around this axle and suppose the direction of  $\mathbf{b}$  makes an angle  $\theta$  with the perpendicular to the plane of the coil

so let me represent it like this supposing this is the direction of the magnetic field and this is a section view

so this angle is  $\theta$

so this is the way it's rotating

so therefore what happens is this that the flux produced is remember this is  $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}$  that is  $b a \cos \theta$

so it is  $b a \cos \theta$  which is of course a function of  $t$  and that is equal to  $b a \cos \omega t$  because the coil is rotating with a uniform angular speed  $\omega$

so therefore the emf generated by it according to faraday's law is  $n \frac{d\phi}{dt}$  which is equal to  $n b a \omega \sin \omega t$   $n$  is the number of turns in that question now this i can write as  $\epsilon_0 \sin \omega t$

so since you notice that this emf is changing sinusoidally

so therefore this will produce a potential difference which also changes sinusoidally

so let me say that the potential the voltage  $v$  is given by an expression like  $v_m \sin \omega t$  now suppose i am to plot this voltage against time

so this is a representative diagram in the sense that when i say  $t$  equal to  $0$  it doesn't mean that is the instant when the voltage was switched on but any particular time you can take it as time  $t$  equal to  $0$  and proceed for one cycle

so supposing at my time  $t$  equal to zero this is axis time my voltage happens to be zero and then i go through one cycle

so this magnitude the maximum magnitude of it

so this is my voltage  $v$  as a function of time and this is  $v_m$  that's the maximum voltage

so in this picture what i have done is to say  $v$  equal to  $0$  at time  $t$  equal to  $0$  now the voltage returns to the same value

so this is time  $t$  equal to  $0$  after a time  $T$  passing through a full cycle and this  $T$  after which the voltage at any point in the circuit returns to

the value that it had time  $t$  before is known as the period

so  $t$  by  $4$  after the initial time the voltage becomes maximum and this is  $t$  by  $2$  this point where it becomes maximum but in the negative direction is  $3t$  by  $4$  and this is full cycle  $t$  now if you want to compare this graph with that of what happens in a dc circuit the dc means there is no time variation

so this is the dc voltage

so this definition is  $v$  of time  $t$  plus  $t$  is equal to  $v$  of  $t$  now this  $\omega$  is related to the linear frequency remember the linear frequency  $f$  is equal to  $1$  over  $t$  and  $\omega$  then is  $2\pi$  times  $f$  which is equal to  $2\pi$  over  $t$  now let me then write down the simplest possible ac circuit

so the symbol for an ac remember in dc circuit i had a battery type of symbol but here this is given like this and this is  $v$  equal to  $v_m \sin \omega t$  and all that i have is a resistance in this element

so i am looking at what happens when a alternating voltage is applied in a circuit which consists of a resistance only

so let me assume ohm's law

so my current  $i$  then is given by this quantity  $v_m$  divided by  $r$  times  $\sin \omega t$  which we will write as  $i_m \sin \omega t$  where  $i_m$  is the maximum value of the current in the circuit now i had already shown you the way the voltage varies with time you notice that the variation of the voltage just for comparison sake was given by  $v_m \sin \omega t$

so what you realize is that the time variation is identical there the current's maximum is  $v_m$  divided by  $r$

so therefore the magnitude of the maximum current would depend upon what the resistance  $r$  is

so if i am in the same diagram plotting the difference plotting both the current and the voltage in the same diagram let us do that

so i have a time diagram x axis is time and on y axis i will plot both the voltage and the current obviously because their scales are different their units are different

so i will have two different scales on that

so let me first plot the voltage for instance

so this is one cycle but let me just write down another cycle also half cycle

so this is your  $v_m$  supposing in the same diagram

so this is real supposing in the same diagram i also plotted the current in other words the current will be plotted but with this scale being different

so voltage is in volts and i will be plotting here the current will be in amperes and depending upon the value of  $r$  i will get a different value of  $i$  maximum but the important point to notice when the voltage becomes maximum the current becomes maximum and vice versa

so therefore my plot of the current would be something like this the each part is identical it doesn't look identical because of free hand drawing

so this is your  $i$

so the point that i am trying to make is this time here or let's say  $\omega t$  doesn't matter point that i am trying to make is the current  $i$  becomes maximum or minimum at the same time as the voltage does now one of the things which is frequently done is to plot what is known as a phasor diagram now a phasor diagram is basically a polar curve with its x axis being a reference line at time  $t$  equal to zero

so let me just plot this and i will go on explaining what is the phasor diagram

so this is some reference line i have taken with respect to this time that what i call it the initial time i am plotting everything

so i assume that at time  $t$  equal to  $0$  i have a vector of length  $v_m$  which is aligned with this

so axis

so let me put it like this imagine one end of that vector is at the point o origin and it has a length equal to  $v_m$  and end point is a

so this is

so let me say that oa vector has a magnitude equal to  $v_m$  now what i assume is this that keeping the end o fixed this vector rotates about an axis which is perpendicular to the plane of the paper passing through with an angular velocity  $\omega$

so that at time t equal to t the angle that it has swept is  $\omega t$  and this vector then lines up like this

so the magnitude still remains  $v_m$  but it goes to the point b where this point this angle is  $\omega$  times t now suppose i take my variation of voltage with time as i have said a little while back  $v$  of t is equal to  $v_m \sin \omega t$  this tells me that if you take the projection of this vector v ob at time t equal to t then this gives you the instantaneous value of the voltage now supposing instead i had taken  $v_t$  equal to  $v_m \cos \omega t$  then the projection along the x axis would have given me that now let's look at what happens to the current now in a phasor diagram like this i plot both the current and the voltage in the same diagram but since current and voltage have different units of measurement i can choose my scale appropriately to make these lengths of vector the way i want it

so so what we do is this that suppose i write  $i$  of t for a purely resistive circuit to be given by  $i_m \sin \omega t$  remember the current and the voltages are in phase then at all time the current phasor is lined up along the direction in which the voltage phasor is lined up and suppose i decide on a scale in which the current magnitude is given by the length of the vector oc

so oc magnitude is  $i_m$  then the projection of this oc at time t equal to t is gives me the instantaneous value of the current now an important point to take home from this is for a purely resistive circuit the current is in phase with the voltage now let us look at what is the average value of subtle current but before i do that let me define what is meant by the average of a quantity over a cycle

so supposing i have a time dependent quantity  $f$  of t the average of  $f$  of t over a period it is written like this or you could also write it like  $\bar{f}$  of t whatever there is no standard way of doing it is  $\frac{1}{t} \int_0^t f dt$

so let us look at a time dependent quantity such as current which is given by  $i$  of t equal to  $i_m \sin \omega t$

so average of  $i$  of t if you look at this definition would be  $i_m \frac{1}{t} \int_0^t \sin \omega t dt$  you recall that integral of  $\sin \omega t$  is  $-\frac{\cos \omega t}{\omega}$

so it is  $i_m \frac{1}{\omega t} [1 - \cos \omega t]$  and if you take the limit it is  $\frac{1}{\omega t} [1 - \cos \omega t]$  that is  $\frac{1}{\omega t} [1 - \cos \omega t]$

so uh i have to find out what is this recall by definition of time period  $i$  have  $\omega t$  is equal to  $2\pi$

so therefore what i have here is  $\frac{1}{2\pi} [1 - \cos 2\pi]$  and but  $\cos 2\pi$  has the same value as  $\cos 0$

so therefore this quantity is equal to 0 and this would also be true for functions such as also valid for you could have  $\sin 2\omega t$   $\sin 3\omega t$  etcetera or even  $\cos \omega t$   $\cos 2\omega t$  etc there is another relationship that we would require as you go along how much is average of  $\sin^2 \omega t$

so let us plug this into the definition

so average of  $\sin^2 \omega t$  is  $\frac{1}{t} \int_0^t \sin^2 \omega t dt$  from 0 to t in you recall your multiple angle formula which tells me that  $\sin^2 \theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2}$

square  $\omega t$  is written as  $1 - \cos(2\omega t)$  divided by 2 and I have just now told you that any multiple of sine or cosine  $\omega t$  integrates out to averages out to 0

so therefore the only thing that I am left with is this factor  $\frac{1}{2} dt$  which gives me  $t$

so therefore this gives me  $\frac{1}{2}$  and that is because average cosine of  $2\omega t$  will be using this as we go along

so what we have shown in the process is the average current is zero incidentally this doesn't imply that the power dissipated is 0 because power is given by  $i^2 r$

so average power dissipated in the circuit is average of  $i^2 r$  and which is equal to  $i_{\text{m}}^2 r$  average of  $\sin^2 \omega t$  which I just now proved the average of  $\sin^2 \omega t$  is half over a cycle

so it is  $i_{\text{m}}^2 r$  divided by two

so you notice that this formula has some similarity with the power dissipated in DC circuits but for this factor of 2.

now we could remedy this situation and make the two formula very similar provided we defined a new quantity which is known as the root mean square current usually denoted by  $i_{\text{rms}}$  I can similarly define root mean square voltage but let's stick with this now as the name suggests the root mean square is take the square take the mean of the square of the thing and then take a square root of it

so the way one defines it is like this it is square root of average of  $i^2$  but we have just now seen that  $i^2$  of  $t$  is  $i_{\text{m}}^2$  by 2

so therefore  $i_{\text{rms}}$  happens to be  $i_{\text{m}}$  divided by square root of 2 and likewise we can define a  $v_{\text{rms}}$  equal to  $v_{\text{m}}$  divided by square root of 2.

now if you are plotting for example the current  $i$  of  $t$  remember that my current has a sinusoidal variation

so this was my maximum  $i_{\text{m}}$  the root mean square which is  $i_{\text{m}}$  by square root of 2 is about 70 percent of this value because  $1/\sqrt{2}$  is about 0.707

so therefore my root mean square value is somewhere here  $i_{\text{m}}/\sqrt{2}$  now once you start using root mean square current instead of the maximum current in this circuit you realize immediately that I can write  $P_{\text{average}}$  as equal to  $i_{\text{rms}}^2 r$  that is because there is a  $1/\sqrt{2}$  there which will take care of the factor of 2 times  $r$  and the formula would then be looking very similar to what we had seen in case of a DC circuit now I would like to point out that when we talk about the voltage supplied to our homes for instance in India for instance the supplied voltage is AC and varies generally it is supposed to be 240 volts but it generally varies between 220 to 240.

is between 220 to 240.

supposed to remain around 240 and the frequency linear frequency  $\nu$  is taken to be 50 Hz since many of our textbooks are of American origin I would like to point out that in the USA the household supply is about 120 volts and the frequency is 60 Hz and that is the reason why when you go abroad to a different country you need adapters to match the if your equipments are designed for a particular voltage or a frequency then you need adaptations

so we have discussed already what happens when an AC source is connected to a resistor but that's not really a very interesting situation the alternating voltage they become more interesting when you put into the circuit other elements in particular the inductance and the capacitance about which you have learnt in your previous lectures

so let me first talk about an alternating source applied to or connected to an

a purely inductive load what it means is that this circuit does not have any resistance no resistance and the only thing that is there in that circuit other than your ac source which will take it to be  $v_m \sin \omega t$  is an inductance now once again i'll use the kirchhoff's law here and you remember from your discussion of faraday's law and the properties of inductances that inductance provides what is known as a back-emf

so what we get is this and this back emf provided by the inductance is minus  $l \frac{di}{dt}$

so therefore if i use the kirchhoff's law in the circuit i get  $v$  of  $t$  at any instant of time minus  $l \frac{di}{dt}$  is equal to  $0$  which tells me that  $\frac{di}{dt}$  is  $\frac{v}{l}$  but  $v$  is known to be  $v_m \sin \omega t$

so this is  $\frac{v_m}{l} \sin \omega t$  if i integrate this now

so my  $i$  as a function of time will be  $\frac{v_m}{l} \sin \omega t$  which is equal to minus  $\frac{v_m}{l} \omega \cos \omega t$  now here i have taken the constant of integration to be  $0$  because we have seen that the voltage has no constant component and it is symmetrically oscillating around zero

so therefore my current should also not have any constant component and should also oscillate symmetrically about  $0$ .

so notice this in case of a purely resistive circuit the trigonometric form of the time variation of both the current and the voltage was identical but now i have a difference and since i can write this cosine function as sine of  $\omega t$  minus  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  that takes care of the minus sign as well

so what i am getting in this process is that the amplitude current amplitude is given by  $\frac{v_m}{l \omega}$

so this is current amplitude another interesting thing you notice is this that since the voltage is varying as  $\sin \omega t$  but the current in this circuit is varying as  $\sin \omega t$  minus  $\frac{\pi}{2}$

so what i notice is this that the current falls behind the voltage or in our language there is a phase lag of  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  with respect to voltage the purely resistive circuit had no such lag but now we have realized that the current lags behind the voltage this quantity which comes here as in the expression for current is given a name this  $\omega l$  now if you compare this with the direct current circuit you realize that this is playing the role of resistance but there is a difference this quantity depends on  $\omega$  and this is given a name it's called inductive reactance usually denoted by  $X_L$

so  $X_L$  is equal to  $\omega l$

so basically what is happening is something like this the  $X_L$  supposing i am plotting this versus the frequency then  $X_L$  is linear this is your  $X_L$  variation but as the frequency increases the current decreases

so this is the way your current would let's say current at any instant of time would change provided i am plotting it against the frequency

so this is called inductive reactance

so what actually happens is this that as the frequency increases the inductance value of the reactance increases and as a result the current decreases let me plot the current and voltage as a function of time

so let me draw the voltage waveform because this is completely one cycle but let me also draw a little more than that

so this is my time  $t$  and what i have plotted here is the voltage in this blue

so this is  $v$  of  $t$  this is  $\frac{t}{2}$  this is  $t$  this is of course  $3t/2$ .

now in the same plot first let me write down what i have plotted here is voltage of course in volts in the in the same figure i'll be plotting the current but since current and voltages are measured in different units i can choose different scales for this and i have seen that for an inductor the

current lags the voltage in phase by  $\pi/2$  it means it lags by quarter of a cycle

so let me make a note here that for the inductive circuit current lags the voltage in phase by  $\pi/2$  which means by one quarter of a cycle

so in this figure when the voltage is 0 my current would be negative and maximum magnitude

so let me plot it here and this is quarter of a cycle

so therefore that when the voltage has reached maximum my current would become zero

so it's nice to divide this by  $t$  by 4

so my current could be something like this well they don't exactly look like a sine curve but since it's a freehand drawing it is sort of an acceptable thing

so what i've got here is this this is the red curve is  $i$  of  $t$  and you can see that it is lagging in phase by  $t$  by four

so that it is maximum negative at time  $t$  equal to zero when voltage is zero and when the voltage has reached its maximum the current is zero and then as the voltage remains positive and is decreasing and has just about reached 0 the current has reached its maximum and this maximum is my  $i_m$  value

so let me write down in red i have current in ips of course and this magnitude is what we wrote as  $v_l$

so let us look at how does the phasor diagram look this is for an inductive circuit

so let me for reference reproduce the current and the voltage curve remember this was my voltage

so this is my time  $t$  and this is time  $t$  by 4  $t$  by 2  $t$  by 4 and of course time  $t$  equal to 0 i repeat that this doesn't mean that i am switching on the emf at time  $t$  equal to 0 but it is a representative curve starting from any origin that you have taken for the time and with respect to which i am drawing this curve now the corresponding current curve was something like this remember that this is the way the current behaves

so this is current and this is voltage

so if you look at this diagram and find out what is the phasor diagram looks like for this

so as before i take the initial line to be  $t$  equal to 0 which is the reference line voltage which has a magnitude  $v_m$  is a vector of length  $ob$

so once again  $ob$  magnitude is equal to  $v_m$  and at time  $t$  it makes an angle  $\omega t$  with the x axis as i have said several times the projection along the y axis gives me the instantaneous value of the voltage now since the current lags behind the voltage by  $\pi/2$  it means that the current becomes maximum a full quarter of a cycle after the voltage does now the thing is this that because the lag the time lag between the voltage and the current is  $\pi/2$

so when this is in the first quadrant the corresponding current will be in the fourth quadrant and this angle will be 90 degrees

so this is my current there this is what i had represented by  $oc$  there

so  $oc$  magnitude is  $i_m$  and of course it automatically means that if the voltage goes to the second quadrant imagine this entire thing being rigidly being rotated by certain angle taking  $ob$  to the second quadrant by that time the current would then come to the first quadrant

so current would also become positive

so this is the way it is when voltage is positive the current is negative in the first quarter cycle in the next quarter cycle both of them happen to be positive in the third i have a negative from here and a positive from there and finally to conclude it both negative voltage as well as current are both negative what about the power in an inductive cell

so let's look at instantaneous power

so power is given by  $i$  times  $v$  this is instantaneous power

so instantaneous current multiplied by instantaneous voltage and this is equal to  $i_m \sin \omega t$  minus  $\pi$  by 2 and  $v$  is equal to  $v_m \sin \omega t$

so it is equal to  $i_m v_m$  we have seen that this is minus  $\cos \omega t$  and this is of course  $\sin \omega t$  which is nothing but minus  $i_m v_m$  by 2  $\sin 2 \omega t$  which tells me that the power over a cycle is zero the situation is very similar to what happens in a mass spring system supposing i have a mass on a frictionless table connected by a spring no friction now as you set the system into motion the mass gets gains kinetic energy at the expense of the potential energy of the spring and later on returns that amount of energy as the potential energy of the spring and it loses its kinetic energy and it's a conservative system because the only other thing here which could take away or dissipate power that is the friction which we have assumed that doesn't exist here and an identical thing happens in case of your inductors in the circuit

so inductor in one cycle part of a cycle would absorb power from the circuit actually retain it and re return it to the circuit in the next quarter cycle the effect of what i said is that for an inductive circuit the power over a cycle is zero

so for a an inductive circuit the average power equal to zero over a cycle which is another way of saying that the purely inductive circuit conserves energy and compare this a purely resistive circuit for which the average power was shown to be equal to  $i^2 r$  well actually  $i_{rms}^2 r$

so let me elaborate on this a little bit let us plot the current voltage relationship in this case

so this is x axis is time and in the same plot i'll be plotting both the voltage and the current and this blue line on the blue curve is my voltage  $v(t)$  which is obviously in volts

so  $v(t)$  involves  $i$  will also plot now the current in the same uh curve in amperes

so a  $i(t)$  in amperes and since i know that the current for an inductive circuit lags behind the voltage by quarter of a cycle the curve that i get for the current is something like this notice my scales are different because in one case i am plotting current in the other case i am plotting voltage

so this is  $i$  of  $t$  now let's consider an instant of time when the voltage is zero now since the current at that instant has a maximum

so therefore this is my time  $t$  by four and let me also give some labels to these

so this is  $v_{max}$  and in the red curve this would be slightly different scale i have taken

so this should be  $i_{max}$

so let us look at how does current and voltage value in this cycle from  $t$  by 4 to  $t$  by 2 which is here you notice my current is greater than 0 not only that is increasing that is  $\frac{di}{dt}$  is greater than zero which implies that my voltage  $v$  of  $t$  is also greater

so it can also be seen of course in uh the voltage curve itself

so it tells me that power which is  $i$  times  $v$  is greater than 0 in this cycle

so since the power is greater than zero it implies that the energy is absorbed from the source

so then various signatures are the following voltage plus current plus now let's go to the next quad cycle from  $t$  by 2 to  $3t$  by four the current which had become maximum starts decreasing but it still remains positive

so  $i$  is greater than zero but  $\frac{di}{dt}$  is less than 0 which as you can see from the curve and from the signature of  $\frac{di}{dt}$   $v$  of  $t$  becomes negative

so which means power  $p_{iv}$  is less than zero which means the energy that was absorbed in the previous quarter cycle return to the source in the next section so this was my  $3t$  by  $4$ .

in this section as we have seen my voltage is negative current is positive in the next quarter cycle from three  $t$  by four to  $t$  my current is less than zero so is  $di$  by  $dt$  which means  $v_t$  is also less than  $0$  but since both are negative my power is greater than  $0$  which implies again that the energy is absorbed from the source

so this was from  $3t$  by  $4$  to  $t$

so here you notice this is negative and

so is the current negative now if  $i$  went from  $p$  to  $5t$  by  $4$  the situation would be simply a replica of what happens from  $0$  to  $t$  by  $4$  and there you can see that the current is negative the voltage is positive once again it means that whatever energy was absorbed in the previous quarter cycle is returned back

so this is positive and this is negative let me close this discussion with a couple of examples suppose i have a 48 milli henry inductor connected to some of these numbers i have chosen says that arithmetic becomes easy connected to 240 volts 50 hertz supply i need to find out what is rms current i do not have to tell you that whenever we are giving the value of voltage or current their rms values otherwise we would specifically point out that these are peak values

so in this case my first job is to find out what is my reactance my reactance is  $\omega$  times  $l$   $\omega$  is  $2\pi\nu$  and  $\nu$  is 50 earth so  $2\pi$  into 50.

the inductance is 48 milli henry

so therefore 48 into  $10$  to the power  $-3$  and that is  $4.8\pi$  which if you calculate works out to 15.

08 ohms

so my rms value of current is 240 divided by 15.

08 just let's take it as 15.

that's equal to 16 amperes this value of current which we have obtained is much higher than the typical household current which is generally limited to about 8 to 10 amperes but that's primarily because in this artificial circuit that i have considered i have not taken any resistance normally resistances are there in the circuit which would limit the value of the current

so what we have done today is to define an alternating source voltage and seen that when this is connected to a purely resistive circuit the current and the voltages are in phase but when you connect it to an inductive circuit then you find that the current lags behind the voltage the second point is that in a purely resistive circuit there is a power dissipation which is given by the same formula as for dc accepting that i have to change my definition of current to the rms current  $i^2 r$  whereas a purely inductive circuit does not dissipate power whatever power it absorbs in a part of the cycle is removed returned back to the circuit in another part you