

2026aug01

02.15001

15. Chapter 15 : Alternating Current (AC)

02-15002

2026 aug 01

0215003

15.1 Complex Number Math

a) History of Number (in brief)

There were always:

Integers (positive integers) $1, 2, 3, \dots$

↓
Fractions: Ratios of integers

$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} \text{ etc.}$$

also now called rational numbers

However, ancient Egyptian mathematicians
had anxiety about fractions
that were NOT unit fractions

Unit fractions $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$

But I recall, they
though $\frac{2}{3}$ was OK.

↓
Irrational Number $\sqrt{2}$ that be written
as fractions

↓
Greek mathematics
had anxiety about irrationals

↓
 0 = zero sometime in the Middle Ages
and it made place value
arithmetic possible

↓

15009

↓
Negative numbers
 $-1, -2, -\frac{1}{2}, -\sqrt{2} \dots$

↓ Sometime 17th century?
Real numbers: All of the above

↓
Complex Numbers: $\sqrt{-2} \dots$
Sometime 17th century?

b) Complex Number Math

They can be written
as an ordered pair (x, y) ,
and so are sort of vectors,
But they point in an
abstract complex number space
and have a funny multiplication rule.

To make this rule we write them

$$z = x + iy$$

The complex number

the real part

the imaginary part

Note $z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2)$

z, x, y are just generic symbols

Real and imaginary are just jargon names.

Both x and y are real numbers.

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02-15005

and i is the imaginary unit
that has the property
that $i^2 = -1$,

and so somewhat symbolically $i = \sqrt{-1}$.

c) Complex Number Rules

i) But i gives the funny multiplication rule

$$\begin{aligned} Z_1 Z_2 &= (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) \\ &= x_1 x_2 - y_1 y_2 + i(x_1 y_2 + y_1 x_2) \end{aligned}$$

ii) Complex conjugate operation * ^{Asterisk}

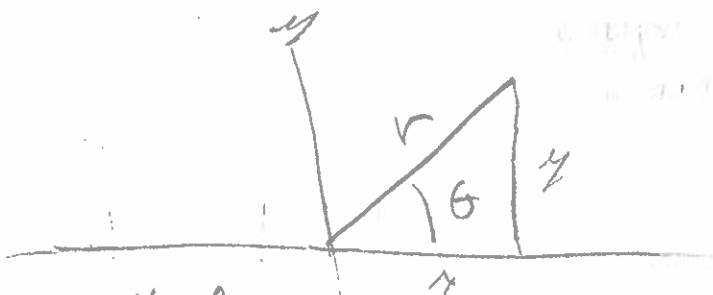
z^* is the complex conjugate of z

$$z^* = (x + iy)^* = x - iy \quad (\text{Art-356})$$

iii) Modulus or Magnitude (Art-354, 356)

$$\begin{aligned} r = |z| &= \sqrt{zz^*} \\ &= \sqrt{(x + iy)(x - iy)} \\ &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad \text{a pure real} \end{aligned}$$

iv) Argand diagram (Just x - y plane)



$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{y}{x} \right)$$

θ is called call the argument
but in AC circuitry the phase
and with symbol ϕ .

$\tan^{-1}$ is inverse
tangent
also called
arctangent and
symbolized arctan
or atan

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In fact, computer languages often
us

$$\theta = \text{atan}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

but assume $x > 0$

$\therefore \theta = \text{atan}\left(\frac{y_+}{x_+}\right)$ is correct
and is in $[0, \pi/2]$

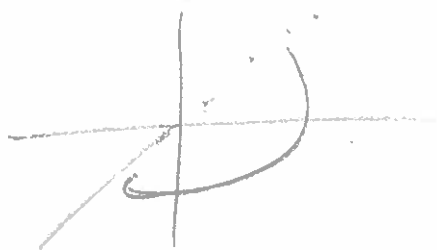
$\theta = \text{atan}\left(\frac{y_-}{x_+}\right)$ is correct
and is in $[-\pi/2, 0]$

but $\theta = \text{atan}\left(\frac{y_+}{x_-}\right)$ gives
a value in $[-\pi/2, 0]$
and you have
add π



and $\theta = \text{atan}\left(\frac{y_-}{x_-}\right)$ gives a value
in $[0, \pi/2]$

and you have
to add $-\pi$



Of course $\theta + 2\pi n$ where n
is the same as θ in most contexts
but NOT in complex math

v) $\theta = \text{atan}^{-1}(x, y)$ (evaluated correctly)

is the phase of a complex number
and phase is why complex numbers are so useful
for quantities with phase as in AC.

2026 aug 01

02-15007

vi) Now $z = x + iy$ is Cartesian representation

good for addition
and subtraction
(see 02-15007)

and $z = re^{i\theta}$

is the polar representation

good for
multiplication and
division

For example

$$z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{The moduli multiply} \\ \text{and the phases add.} \end{array} \right.$$

vii) How to change representations

$$r = |z| = \sqrt{zz^*}$$

$$\text{and } \theta = \tan^{-1}(y, x)$$

$$\text{and gives } z = re^{i\theta}$$

Now Euler's formula (Wik)

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$$

Note,

$$\begin{aligned} z^* &= (re^{i\theta})^* \\ &= r(e^{i\theta})^* \\ &= r[\cos \theta + i \sin \theta]^* \\ &= r[\cos \theta - i \sin \theta] \\ &= re^{-i\theta} \\ &\text{as expected} \end{aligned}$$

Proven by equating infinite series expansions.

viii) Re and Im functions for $z = x + iy$

$$\text{Re}[z] = x$$

$$\text{Im}[z] = y$$

The outputs
are pure reals

02.15008

d) What are Complex Numbers Good For?

Well, they are rich area for new math theorems

But for our purposes, they treat quantities with phases very easily.

AC without complex number math involves endless trigonometric transformations with trig identities.

But these operations are simple with complex numbers:

$e^{i\theta}$ replaces $\cos \theta$ and $\sin \theta$.

Of course, electric currents are real quantities, and so at the end of solution you have to convert to pure real solutions but those tricks are well known.

Complex numbers are actually essential for quantum mechanics, but that is a story for later.

Now intro textbooks in physics like ours generally feel introducing complex number math is beyond scope, but they have introduced AC by klutzy procedures including phasor diagrams which are just a way of visualizing complex numbers in the $x-y$ plane.

NOT a useful way either for most people it seems.

e) A conflict of Conventions

The imaginary unit is given the symbol $i = \sqrt{-1}$ in all fields except electrical engineering where j is used.

In electrical engineering, i is used for current as a function of time (i.e., $i = i(t)$) and I is used for current amplitude (maximum absolute value) (Text-625),

Also $v = v(t)$ is voltage as a function of time and V for amplitude.

We will stick with the electrical engineering convention But for clarity, I'll use I_0 and V_0 for amplitudes.

15010

15.2 Intro to AC circuitry by Means of a driven LRC circuit

a) We solved (in great detail) the undriven LRC circuit p. 02-1401 ff.

Here we add a AC driven:

Note, the real-in-both-senses driver is $V(t) = V_0 \cos(\omega t)$ and $t=0$ is just a fiducial $t=0$ point for a perpetually repeating periodic solution.

$$V(t) = V_0 e^{j\omega t}$$

amplitude V_0 and ω a constant

$e^{j\omega t}$ is the complex time variation.

$$e^{j\omega t} = \cos(\omega t) + j \sin(\omega t) \quad \text{by Euler's formula (Wik)}$$

real part

imaginary part

$j = \sqrt{-1}$ is complex unit (here j NOT i)

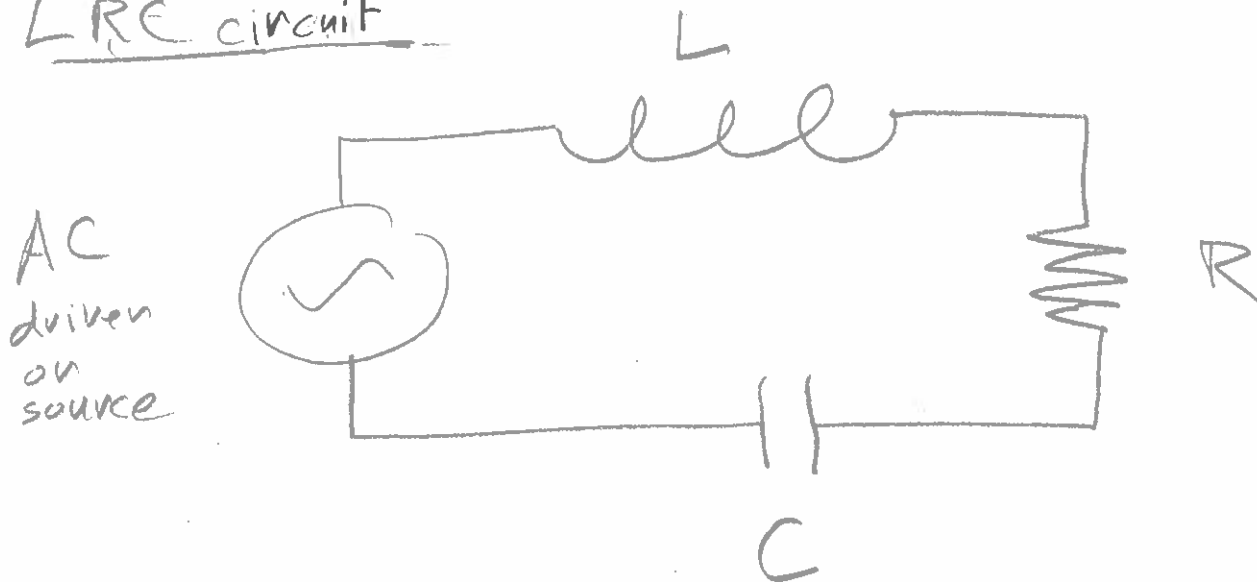
Polar form of a complex number with modulus $V = 1$

Just a phase factor "includes" sinusoidal functions

(2026aug01)

(02/5011)

b) LRE circuit



We apply Kirchhoff's Voltage law

$$\dot{V}(t) = Li' + iR + \frac{q}{C}$$

$q = q(t)$
and
 Q_0 is amplitude

$$q = \int_0^t i dt + Q_0$$

and so this is an integro-DE.
We differentiate to get a

2nd order ordinary linear DE

highest derivative
of order 2

Just
one independent
variable
time t

Independent means
one cannot be
created from the
other

solutions of
the homogeneous
part can be
added to make
new solutions
and 2 independent
solutions of the homogeneous
part

02_15012

The homogeneous part is the part containing only $i(t)$ and its derivatives.

The driver $v(t) = V_0 e^{i\omega t}$ is the inhomogeneous part.

Note the homogeneous solutions can always be added to the inhomogeneous solution since the $\times$ contribute nothing to the Left-Hand-Side (LHS).

The homogeneous solutions as shown on p. 02_14011 ft decay exponentially and can be used to match initial conditions, but then decay. See p. 02_14011 ft. They are transient solutions.

Here, we are only interested in the inhomogeneous periodic solution.

The DE is

$$j\omega V_0 e^{j\omega t} = L i'' + i' R + \frac{i}{C}$$

where $v = V_0 e^{j\omega t}$

We ansatz (ie, assume) a solution of the form

$$i = \tilde{I}_0 e^{j\omega t} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \tilde{I}_0, \text{ because we} \\ \text{define } I_0 \text{ differently} \\ \text{below} \end{array} \right.$$

current amplitude which the unknown
to solve for.

If this is the right form, it will solve
the DE.

Substituting in $i = \tilde{I}_0 e^{j\omega t}$
cancelling common factors gives

$$j\omega \frac{V_0}{\tilde{I}_0} = -\omega^2 L + j\omega R + \frac{1}{C}$$

$$\frac{V_0}{\tilde{I}_0} = \frac{-\omega L}{j} + R + \frac{1}{j\omega C}$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{1}{j} = \frac{j}{j^2} = -j$$

$$\therefore \frac{V_0}{\tilde{I}_0} = R + j\left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right)$$

Cartesian
form of
a complex
number
like $z = x + iy$

02-15014

which in polar form is

$$\frac{V_o}{I_o} = \sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})^2} e^{j\phi}$$

Symbol ϕ
is more
common in
this
context
than θ
used on
p. 02-15006

where phase $\phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}}{R} \right)$

Note,
 $\cos \phi = \frac{R}{Z}$
 $\sin \phi = \frac{X_L - X_C}{Z}$

where there is NO $\tan^{-1}()$ ambiguity
since $R > 0$ always
(see p. 02-15006)

Impedance $Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2}$
(Text-633)

capital Z with bar to make it clear
it is NOT the complex Z nor Z_{RMS}

where $X_L = \omega L$ is inductive reactance
(Text-629)

Now
 $\phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{X_L - X_C}{R} \right)$
Text-633

$X_C = \frac{1}{\omega C}$ is capacitive reactance
(Text-627)

The complex solution for $i = i(t)$ is $\begin{cases} = 1 \\ |e^{j(\omega t - \phi)}| \end{cases}$

$$i = \tilde{I}_o e^{j\omega t} = \frac{V_o}{Z} e^{j(\omega t - \phi)} = I_o e^{j(\omega t - \phi)}$$

Now if you go back to our original integro-DE
on p. 02-15011, all the coefficients
of I_o and ϕ are pure real.

Note $I_o \equiv \frac{V_o}{Z}$ is a new definition

2026 aug 01

U2-15015

Now pure real X_1 times

complex $Z_2 = X_2 + iY_2$

gives $X_1 Z_2 = X_1 X_2 + i X_1 Y_2$,

So those coefficients
cannot change

the real/imaginary part of i
into imaginary/real terms,

So the real and imaginary
parts of $i(t) = \frac{V}{Z} e^{j(\omega t - \phi)}$

- on the right-hand side (RHS)
separately satisfy the
real and imaginary parts
on the left hand side (LHS).

$\therefore V$ which are $V_0 \cos \omega t$ and $V_0 \sin \omega t$
using Euler's formula

$$e^{j\omega t} = \cos \omega t + j \sin \omega t$$

(see p. U2-15007)

$$\therefore i(t) = \frac{V_0}{Z} \cos(\omega t - \phi)$$

where $\frac{V_0}{Z} = I_0$ is the current solution
and $V(t) = V_0 \cos(\omega t)$

So they
differ
by the
phase
factor

02_150016

c) But what is $Q(t)$ from p. 02-15001?

Well, $Q(t) = \int_0^t i dt' + Q_0 = \int_0^t \frac{V_0}{Z} \cos(\omega t' - \phi) dt' + Q_0$

and so

$Q(t=0) = Q_0$

which is NOT
a surprise,

$$= \frac{V_0}{Z} \frac{1}{\omega} \sin(\omega t' - \phi) \Big|_0^t + Q_0$$

$$= \frac{V_0}{Z} \frac{1}{\omega} [\sin(\omega t - \phi) - \sin(-\phi)] + Q_0$$

$$= \frac{V_0}{Z} \frac{1}{\omega} [\sin(\omega t - \phi) + \sin \phi] + Q_0$$

and what satisfies Kirchhoff's Voltage law
at time $t = 0$?

Well, $V(t=0) = V_0 \cos(\omega t) \Big|_{t=0} = V_0$

$$i(t=0) = \left[\frac{V_0}{Z} \cos(\omega t - \phi) \right]_{t=0} = \frac{V_0}{Z} \cos(-\phi)$$

$$i'(t=0) = \frac{V_0}{Z} [-\omega \sin(\omega t - \phi)]_{t=0} = -\frac{V_0}{Z} \omega \sin \phi$$

$$= \frac{V_0}{Z} \cos \phi$$

And so Kirchhoff's law at $t = 0$ is

$$V_0 = L \frac{V_0}{Z} \omega \sin \phi + \frac{V_0}{Z} \cos \phi R + \frac{Q_0}{C}$$

$$Q_0 = C V_0 \left[1 - \frac{\omega L}{Z} \sin \phi - \frac{R}{Z} \cos \phi \right]$$

$$= C V_0 \left[1 - \frac{X_L(X_L - X_C)}{Z^2} - \left(\frac{R}{Z} \right)^2 \right]$$

using results of p. 02-15001 &

I don't see any further simplifications.

There is nothing special about this Q_0 value.

It is just the capacitor charge for the perpetually repeating periodic solution when $V(t = 2\pi n) = V_0$ where n is any integer (i.e., $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$).

d) In AC work, the averages over a period (and every period is the same for perpetual AC) of $\cos^2(\omega t)$, $\sin^2(\omega t)$, and $\cos(\omega t)\sin(\omega t)$.

One can find these using usual trigonometric functions, but in the interest of complex math, let's use complex math.

Recall Euler's formula (Wiki)

$$e^{\pm i\theta} = \cos\theta \pm i\sin\theta$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta} \pm e^{-i\theta}) = \begin{cases} \cos\theta & \text{for } + \text{ case} \\ i\sin\theta & \text{for } + \text{ case} \\ -i\sin\theta & \text{for } - \text{ case} \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore \cos\theta = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) \text{ and } \sin\theta = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \langle \cos^2\theta \rangle \\ \langle \sin^2\theta \rangle \end{array} \right\} &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\pm \frac{1}{4} \right) (e^{2i\theta} + e^{-2i\theta} \pm 2) d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\pm \frac{1}{4} \right) \left[\frac{e^{2i\theta}}{2i} + \frac{e^{-2i\theta}}{-2i} \right]_0^{2\pi} \end{aligned}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \langle \cos^2\theta \rangle \\ \langle \sin^2\theta \rangle \end{array} \right\} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} = 0 \text{ since} \\ e^{i(\theta+2\pi)} = e^{i\theta} \end{array} \right.$$

and then

the root-mean-square (RMS) averages are

$$\sqrt{\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \langle \cos^2\theta \rangle \\ \langle \sin^2\theta \rangle \end{array} \right\}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\text{Now } \langle \cos\theta \sin\theta \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{4i} (e^{2i\theta} - e^{-2i\theta}) d\theta$$

by difference of squares

$$\langle \cos\theta \sin\theta \rangle = 0 \text{ similarly to } \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

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d) Power and Power Factor

$$P_{\text{source}} = i V_{\text{source}}$$

$$= \frac{V_0}{Z} \cos(\omega t - \phi) V_0 \cos \omega t$$

$$= \frac{V_0^2}{Z} [\cos \omega t \cos \omega t + \sin \omega t \sin \omega t \cos \phi]$$

$$\langle P_{\text{source}} \rangle = \frac{V_0^2}{Z} \left[\cos \phi \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \langle \sin^2 \omega t \rangle + \sin \phi \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \langle \sin^2 \omega t \rangle \right]$$

$$\langle \sin^2 \omega t \rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{\phi} \int_0^{\phi} \sin^2 \omega t \cos \omega t \, dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\phi} \left[\frac{\sin^2 \omega t}{2} \right]_0^{\phi}$$

$$= 0$$

$$\langle P_{\text{source}} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} I_0 V_0 \cos \phi$$

$$P_{\text{sink}} = i V_{\text{resistor}} = i^2 R$$

$$= \left[\frac{V_0}{Z} \cos(\omega t - \phi) \right]^2 R$$

$$= \frac{V_0^2}{Z} \sin^2(\omega t - \phi) \cos^2 \phi$$

$$\langle P_{\text{sink}} \rangle = \frac{V_0^2}{Z} \cos^2 \phi \frac{1}{\phi} \int_{\phi/\omega}^{\phi + \phi/\omega} \sin^2(\omega t - \phi) \, dt$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x \, dx$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos 2x) \, dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[x - \frac{\sin 2x}{2} \right]_0^{2\pi}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\omega \phi} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x \, dx$$

$$\text{where } \phi = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

$$\text{and } x = \omega t - \phi$$

$$dx = \omega \, dt$$

$$\text{So } x(t = \phi/\omega) = 0$$

$$x(t = \phi + \phi/\omega) = \omega \phi = 2\pi$$

$$\langle P_{\text{sink}} \rangle = \frac{V_0^2}{Z} \cos^2 \phi \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_0^2}{Z} \cos^2 \phi$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} I_0 V_0 \cos^2 \phi = I_{\text{RMS}} V_{\text{RMS}} \cos \phi$$

(see p. 15021 for RMS)

Note, we count potential rises and potential drops both as positive.

$$\therefore \langle P_{\text{source}} \rangle = \langle P_{\text{sink}} \rangle$$

02_15018

$$\therefore P_{ave} = \frac{1}{2} I_0 V_0 \cos \phi = \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_0^2}{Z} \cos \phi$$

$$\text{where } I_0 \equiv \frac{V_0}{Z} \text{ see p. 02-15014}$$

$$\text{and } \cos \phi = \frac{R}{Z} \text{ see p. 02-15014}$$

Now

$$\text{Power factor} \equiv \cos \phi = \begin{cases} \frac{R}{Z} & \text{in general} \\ 1 & \text{if } \phi = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \phi = \pi/2 \end{cases}$$

(Text-636)

$$\text{Recall Impedance } Z \equiv \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2}$$

(p. 02-15014)

and so the power factor

is maximum for $X_L - X_C = 0$

$$\text{which implies } \omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C} = 0$$

$$\text{or } \omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \quad \text{or } f_0 = \frac{\omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$$

This is impedance matching
for a simple LRC circuit.

From p. 02-14010, $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$ is the
resonance frequency of the simple LC circuit

2026aug01

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Since $I_0 = \frac{V_0}{Z}$

$$I_0(\omega = \omega_0) = \frac{V_0}{R} > I_0(\omega \neq \omega_0)$$

So on resonance you get the biggest oscillations,

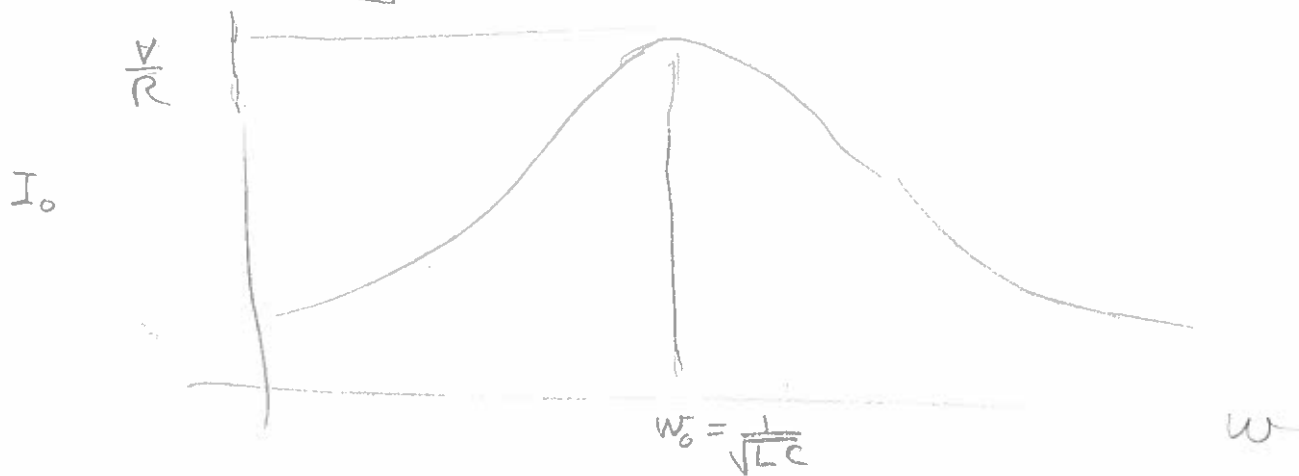
This is actually a general result in physics. If you drive a system at its resonance you get the biggest oscillations since the driver isn't fighting the system.

You know this on the playground. When you pumped a playground swing on resonance, the oscillations get bigger and bigger until you got scared and quit.



Another perspective hit a pendulum just on resonance, you always adding to its energy not trying to cancel it.

02-15020



$$I_0 = \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{R^2 + (\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C})^2}}$$

It is not a symmetric peak

$$\begin{aligned} \text{However, } \omega' &= \omega_0 + \delta\omega \\ &= \omega_0 \left(1 + \frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C} = (\omega_0 L (1 + \frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0})) - \frac{1}{(\omega_0 + \delta\omega) C}$$

$$\approx \omega_0 L (1 + \frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0}) - \frac{1}{\omega_0 C} (1 - \frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0})$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} (1 + \frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0}) - \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} (1 - \frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0})$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} (2 \frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0})$$

$$\therefore I_0 \approx \frac{V_0}{\sqrt{R^2 + \frac{4L}{C} (\frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0})^2}} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{to lowest} \\ \text{order} \\ \text{in small } \frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0} \end{array}$$

and so the $I_0(\omega)$ function

is symmetrical about the resonance ω_0
for small $\delta\omega$ or to 1st order in $\frac{\delta\omega}{\omega_0}$

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02-15021

e) RMS Values, Power factor
and Quality factor

Recall from p. 02-15018

$$P_{ave} = \frac{1}{2} I_0 V_0 \underbrace{\cos \phi}_{\text{power factor}}$$

and since $\text{Power}(t) = iV$

$$= i^2 R$$
$$= \frac{V^2}{R}$$

it follows that

$$I_{RMS} = \sqrt{\langle i^2 \rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} I_0$$

$$V_{RMS} = \sqrt{\langle v^2 \rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} V_0$$

Which are the RMS (root mean square) values
(text - 636).

Then $P_{ave} = I_{RMS} V_{RMS} \cos \phi$

and it seems I_{RMS} and V_{RMS} are
the quantities often cited

02-15022

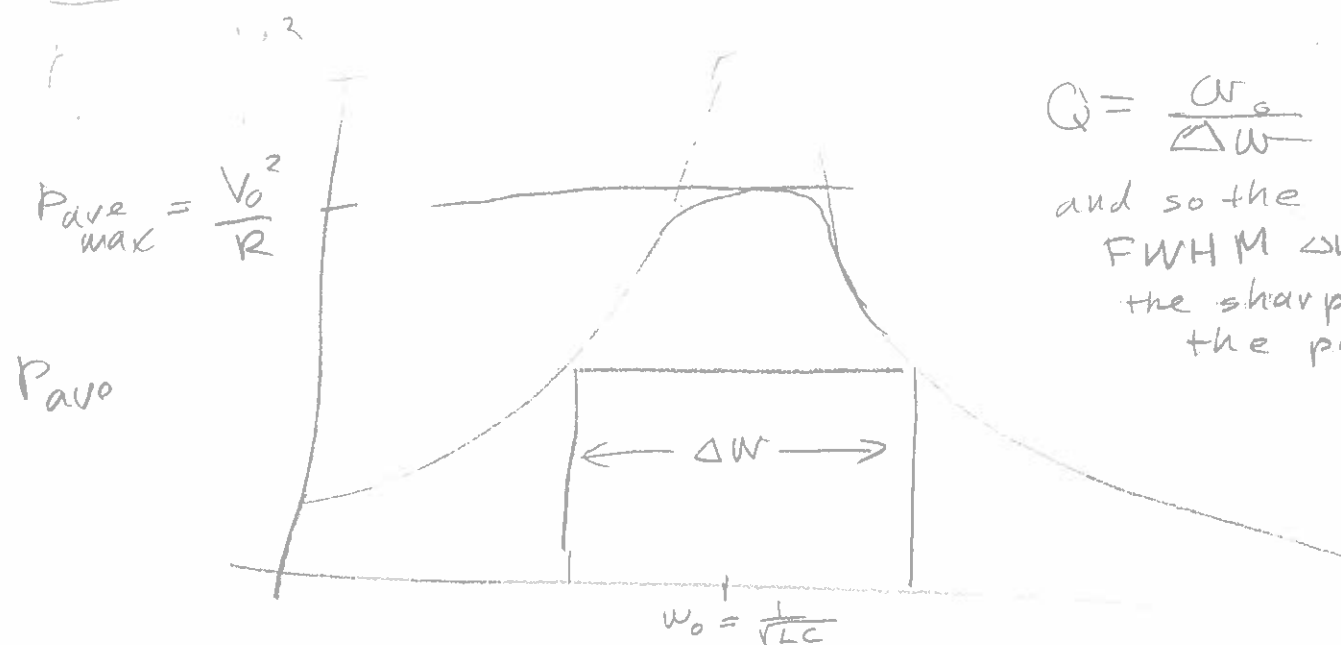
NOT change

The quality factor = $Q = \frac{\omega_0}{\Delta\omega}$

where $\Delta\omega$ is chosen such
that it is the full-width half maximum (FWHM)

of Power (Text - 642).

For the LRC circuit



Recall from 02-15018

$$P_{ave} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_0^2}{Z} \cos \phi$$

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

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

$$\frac{V_{rms}^2}{R} \cdot 1$$

is the maximum power

$$P_{ave} = \frac{V_{rms}^2 R}{Z^2} = \frac{V_{rms}^2 R}{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2}$$

We can solve for a formula for the quality for the LRC circuit.

2026 Aug 01

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$$P_{ave} \triangleq \frac{V_{RMS}^2 R}{R^2 + 4 \frac{L}{C} \left(\frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_0} \right)^2}$$

to lowest order in $\frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_0}$

$$\triangleq \frac{1}{2} \frac{V_{RMS}^2}{R}$$

from 02.15022

allows you to solve for the quality factor as long as P_{ave} is sufficiently sharply peaked.

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{R} = \frac{R}{R^2 + \frac{L}{C} \left(\frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_0} \right)^2}$$

$$R^2 + \frac{L}{C} \left(\frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_0} \right)^2 = 2 R^2$$

$$\frac{L}{C} \left(\frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_0} \right)^2 = R^2$$

$$\left(\frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_0} \right)^2 = \frac{C}{L} R^2$$

Note $\Delta \omega = 2 \delta \omega_{1/2}$
FWHM
half-width half-maximum

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

$$C = \frac{1}{\omega_0^2 L}$$

$$L = \frac{1}{\omega_0^2 C}$$

$$Q = \frac{\omega_0}{\Delta \omega} = R \sqrt{\frac{C}{L}} = \frac{R}{\omega_0 L} = \omega_0 R C$$

(Wik: Quality factor: RLC circuit confirms)

There may NOT be

a general exact analytic solution for quality factor Q .

02_15077)

15.3 Transformers:

Step-up transformer
and step-down transformers

Vaguely generalizing from
the LRC circuit

$$P_{ave} = I_{rms} V_{rms} \cos \phi$$

Power factor

and so power transmission
depends on product $I_{rms} V_{rms}$
which is generally true.

So you can transmit the same power
as long as $I_{rms} V_{rms}$ is held constant.

Now Ohmic losses are $P_{sink} = I_{rms}^2 R$
(see p. 02_15017)

and so they can be reduced by
making I_{rms} smaller.

So in general you want low I_{rms}
and high V_{rms} for transmission.

Transformers to be completed slide