# <u>Lecture – 21</u>

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• Fourier Series and Applications

# **Fourier Series and Circuit Applications**

- So far, we have learnt the analysis of circuits with sinusoidal sources.
- However, many circuits are driven by non-sinusoidal periodic functions. The steady-state response of a circuit to a non-sinusoidal periodic excitation requires the application of a Fourier series, ac phasor analysis, and the superposition principle.
- The procedure usually involves four steps.

Steps for Applying Fourier Series:

- 1. Express the excitation as a Fourier series.
- 2. Transform the circuit from the time domain to the frequency domain.
- 3. Find the response of the dc and ac components in the Fourier series.
- 4. Add the individual dc and ac responses using the superposition principle.

# **Circuit Applications (contd.)**

• **First Step:** determine the Fourier series expansion of the excitation.

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 $v(t) = V_0 + \sum V_n \cos(n\omega_0 t + \theta_n)$ 





# **Circuit Applications (contd.)**

- The response to the **dc component** is determined in the frequency domain by setting n = 0 or  $\omega = 0$ , or in the time domain by replacing all inductors with short circuits and all capacitors with open circuits.
- The response to the ac component is obtained by the phasor techniques.

The network is represented by its impedance  $\mathbf{Z}(n\omega_0)$  and it's the value when  $\omega$  is replaced by  $n\omega_0$ 

• **Step-4:** apply principle of superposition to obtain the total current.





# **Circuit Applications (contd.)**

$$i(t) = i_0(t) + i_1(t) + i_2(t) + \cdots$$
$$= \mathbf{I}_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\mathbf{I}_n| \cos(n\omega_0 t + \psi_n)$$

where each component  $I_n$  with frequency  $n\omega_0$  has been transformed to the time domain to get  $i_n(t)$ , and  $\Psi_n$  is the argument of  $I_n$ .

#### Example – 1

In this situation, f(t) is the voltage source  $v_s(t)$ . Find the response of the circuit.



#### **Average Power and RMS Power**



• the periodic current and voltage in amplitude-phase form:  $i(t) = I_{dc} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} I_m \cos(m\omega_0 t - \phi_m)$  $v(t) = V_{dc} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} V_n \cos(n\omega_0 t - \theta_n)$  $1 \quad \int_{0}^{T} V_n = V_{dc} + V_n \cos(n\omega_0 t - \theta_n)$ 

• the average power:  $P = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T v i \, dt$ 

$$P = \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} V_{dc} I_{dc} dt + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{I_m V_{dc}}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \cos(m\omega_0 t - \phi_m) dt + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{V_n I_{dc}}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \cos(n\omega_0 t - \theta_n) dt + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{V_n I_m}{T} \int_{0}^{T} \cos(n\omega_0 t - \theta_n) \cos(m\omega_0 t - \phi_m) dt$$

Here, the second and third integrals vanish, due to the integration of the cosine over its period. All terms in the fourth integral are zero when  $n \neq m$ .

Average Power and RMS Power (contd.)

• For 
$$m = n$$
:  $P = V_{dc}I_{dc} + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}V_nI_n\cos(\theta_n - \phi_n)$ 

the total average power is the sum of the average powers in each harmonically related voltage and current.

• For a periodic function f(t), its rms value (or the effective value) is:

terms of

coefficients, the rms value is:

In

$$F_{\rm rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T}} \int_0^T f^2(t) \, dt$$

$$F_{\rm rms} = \sqrt{a_0^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2)}$$

• If f(t) is the current through a resistor *R*, then:  $P = RF_{rms}^2$ 

Fourier

• If f(t) is the voltage across a resistor *R*, then:  $P = \frac{F_{\rm rms}^2}{P}$ 

• The power dissipated  $P_{1\Omega} = F_{\rm rms}^2 = a_0^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2)$ by the 1 $\Omega$  resistance is:

## Average Power and RMS Power (contd.)

$$P_{1\Omega} = F_{\rm rms}^2 = a_0^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2)$$

- This result is known as *Parseval's theorem*.
- Notice that  $(a_0)^2$  is the power in the dc component, while  $\frac{1}{2}[(a_n)^2+(b_n)^2]$  is the ac power in the *n*th harmonic.
- Thus, Parseval's theorem states that the average power in a periodic signal is the sum of the average power in its dc component and the average powers in its harmonics.

# Example – 2

• Determine the average power supplied to this circuit if  $i(t) = 2 + 10\cos(t + 10^\circ) + 6\cos(3t + 35^\circ)A$ 



# Example – 3

Find the response  $i_o$  for the circuit. The  $v_s(t)$  is given in the waveform.



#### Example – 4

If the given periodic current waveform is applied to the circuit, find  $v_o$ .



## Example – 5

The full-wave rectified sinusoidal voltage is applied to the lowpass filter. Obtain the output voltage  $v_o(t)$  of the filter.



#### Example – 6

A series *RLC* circuit has  $R = 10 \Omega$ , L = 2 mH, and  $C = 40 \mu\text{F}$ . Determine the effective current and average power absorbed when the applied voltage is v(t) = 100cos1000t + 50cos2000t + 25cos3000t V.

# Spectrum Analyzers

- The FS provides the spectrum of a signal → the spectrum consists of the amplitudes and phases of the harmonics versus frequency.
- By providing the spectrum of a signal f(t), the FS helps in the identification of the pertinent features of the signal.
- It demonstrates which frequencies are playing an important role in the shape of the output and which ones are not.
- A *spectrum analyzer* is an instrument that displays the amplitude of the components of a signal versus frequency. It shows the various frequency components (spectral lines) that indicate the amount of energy at each frequency.
- It is unlike an oscilloscope, which displays the entire signal (all components) versus time.
- An oscilloscope shows the signal in the time domain, while the spectrum analyzer shows the signal in the frequency domain.

## **Spectrum Analyzers**

 It can conduct noise and spurious signal analysis, phase checks, electromagnetic interference and filter examinations, vibration measurements, radar measurements, and more.



# **Filters**

- Here, we investigate the techniques to design filters to select the fundamental component (or any desired harmonic) of the input signal and reject other harmonics.
- This filtering process cannot be accomplished without the Fourier series expansion of the input signal.

# **Low Pass Filter**

- The output of a low pass filter depends on the input signal, the transfer function  $H(\omega)$  of the filter, and the corner or half-power frequency  $\omega_c$ .
- We know  $\omega_c = \frac{1}{RC}$  for an *RC* passive filter.



By making  $\omega_c$  sufficiently large ( $\omega_c \gg \omega$  e.g., by making C small), a large number of the harmonics can be passed.

# **Low Pass Filter**

 the low-pass filter passes the dc and low-frequency components, while blocking the high-frequency components.



by making  $\omega_c$  sufficiently small ( $\omega_c \ll \omega$  e.g., by making *C* large), we can block out all the ac components and pass only dc

#### **Band Pass Filter**

the output of a band pass filter depends on the input signal, the transfer function of the filter  $H(\omega)$ , its bandwidth *B*, and its center frequency  $\omega_c$ .



# **Band Pass Filter**

For highly selective filter (B ≪ ω<sub>0</sub>) and ω<sub>c</sub> = ω<sub>0</sub> where ω<sub>0</sub> is the fundamental frequency of the input signal → if the filter passes only the fundamental component (n=1) of the input and blocks out all higher harmonics → essentially, with a square wave as input, we obtain a sine wave of the same frequency as the output.

