

Last time

- Mesh analysis
- AC circuits

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7.1

This time

- Review R, L and C
- Review AC circuits
- Examples of impedance (Chapter 6)
- Power in AC circuits (Chapter 7)

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7.2

Review of Resistors, Inductors and Capacitors

- Resistors, where R is the resistance (in Ohm) Chapter 3.5

$$V = RI$$

$$R_{\text{series}} = R_1 + R_2 \quad \frac{1}{R_{\text{parallel}}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$$

- Inductors, where L is the inductance (in Henry) Chapter 5.5

$$V = L \frac{dI}{dt}$$

$$L_{\text{series}} = L_1 + L_2 \quad \frac{1}{L_{\text{parallel}}} = \frac{1}{L_1} + \frac{1}{L_2}$$

- Capacitors, where C is the capacitance (in Farad) Chapter 4.7

$$V = \frac{Q}{C} = \frac{1}{C} \int I \cdot dt \quad \therefore I = C \cdot \frac{dV}{dt}$$

$$\frac{1}{C_{\text{series}}} = \frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_2} \quad C_{\text{parallel}} = C_1 + C_2$$

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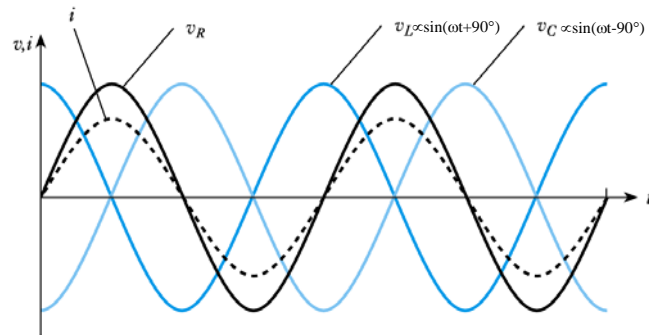
Key Points of AC circuits

- A sinusoidal voltage waveform can be described by the equation $v = V_p \sin(\omega t + \phi)$
- The voltage across a resistor is *in phase with* the current, the voltage across an inductor *leads* the current by 90°, and the voltage across a capacitor *lags* the current by 90°
- The reactance of an inductor $X_L = \omega L$
- The reactance of a capacitor $X_C = 1/\omega C$
- The relationship between current and voltage in circuits containing reactance can be described by its impedance
- The use of impedance is simplified by the use of complex notation

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7.4

**CIVIL (C \Rightarrow I leads V; L \Leftarrow V lead I) or
ELI the ICE man (E leads I in L, I leads E in C)**



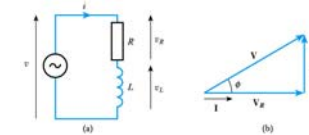
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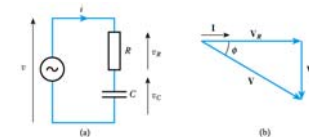
Phasor analysis of RL and RC series circuits

Current the same in both. ∴ what is the voltage?

- Current R = Current L \Rightarrow E leads I in L \Rightarrow positive ϕ

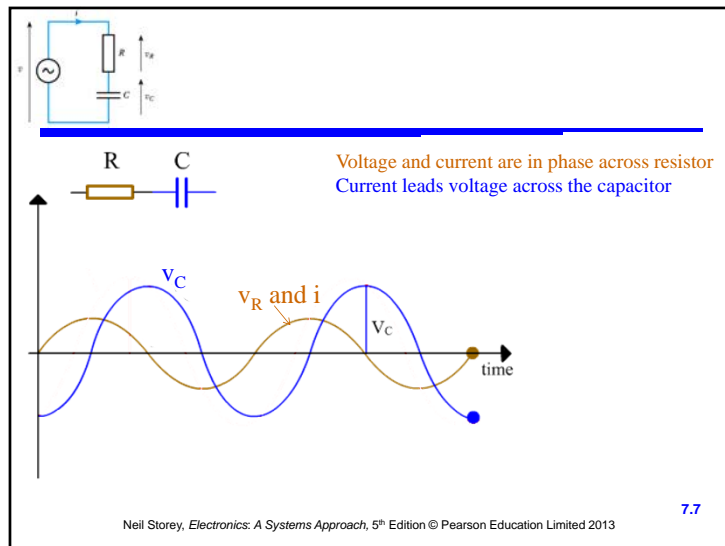


- Current R = Current C \Rightarrow I leads E in C (\therefore E lags I in C) \Rightarrow negative ϕ



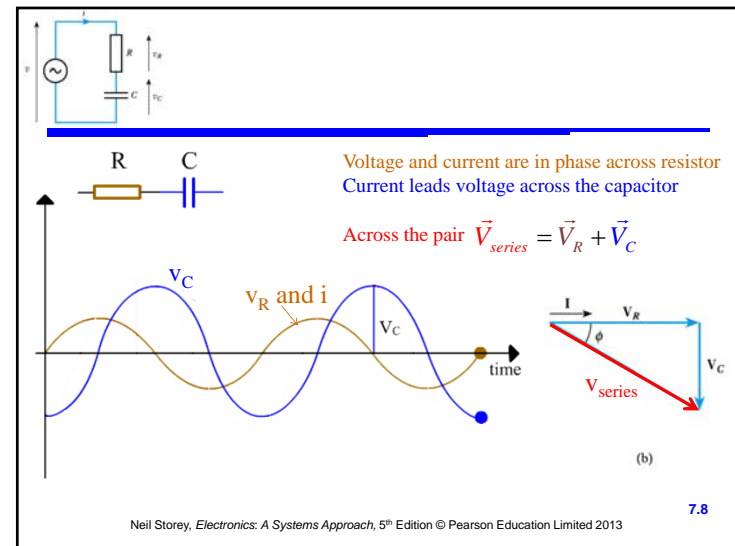
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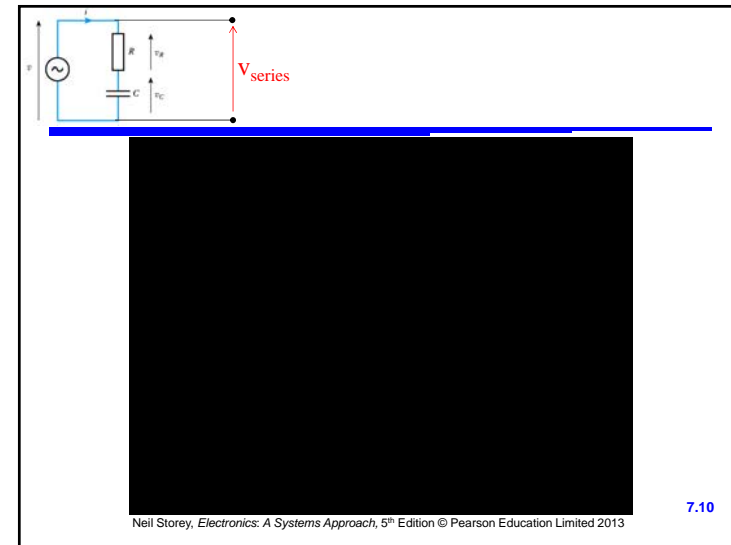
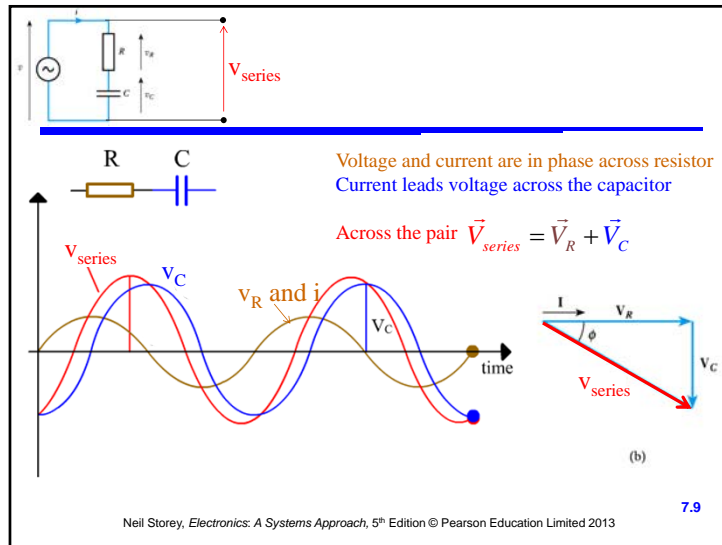
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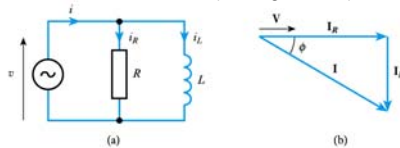
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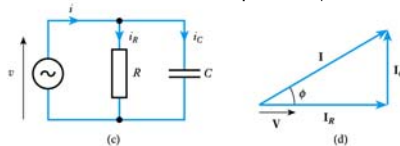
Phasor analysis of RL and RC parallel circuits

Voltage the same over both \therefore what is the current?

- Voltage constant \Rightarrow E leads I in L (\therefore I lags E in L) \Rightarrow negative ϕ



- Voltage constant \Rightarrow I leads E in C \Rightarrow positive ϕ



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What if we have R, L and C in both series and parallel?

- Phasors get messy
- But, phasors look like complex numbers
 - Vertical axis imaginary with $j = (-1)^{1/2}$
- We will combine them using the Impedance, which we derive from the Reactance

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Reactance is ratio of V_p to I_p BUT WE MUST ACCOUNT FOR PHASE TO GET $v(t)$!

- The reactance of a component can be used in much the same way as resistance:
 - For a resistor $V_p = I_p X_R = I_p (R)$ Note, for DC ($\omega=0$) we only get V and I across a resistor But $V=0$ across an inductor And $I=0$ across a capacitor
 - for an inductor $V_p = I_p X_L = I_p (\omega L)$
 - for a capacitor $V_p = I_p X_C = I_p \left(\frac{1}{\omega C} \right)$

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Account for phase with Complex Notation 6.6

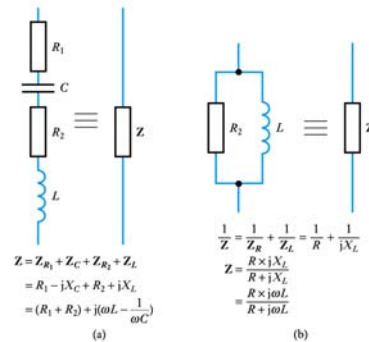
- Take the impedance of a resistor as purely real, an inductor to be +imaginary, and a capacitor to be - imaginary
- We represent impedance using complex notation as:
 - Resistors: $Z_R = R$
 - Inductors: $Z_L = jX_L = j\omega L$
 - Capacitors: $Z_C = -jX_C = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} = \frac{1}{j\omega C}$

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Series and parallel combinations of impedances

- impedances combine in the same way as resistors

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Manipulating complex impedances

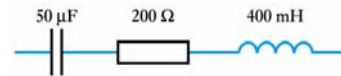
- complex impedances can be *added, subtracted, multiplied and divided* in the same way as other complex quantities
- they can also be expressed in a range of forms such as the **rectangular**, **polar** and **exponential** forms
- if you are unfamiliar with the manipulation of complex quantities (or would like a little revision on this topic) see **Appendix D** of the course text which gives a tutorial on this subject

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▪ **Example** – see **Example 6.7** in the course text

Determine the complex impedance of this circuit at a frequency of 50 Hz



At 50Hz, the angular frequency $\omega = 2\pi f = 2 \times \pi \times 50 = 314 \text{ rad/s}$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Z} &= \mathbf{Z}_C + \mathbf{Z}_R + \mathbf{Z}_L = R + j(X_L - X_C) = R + j\left(\omega L - \frac{1}{\omega C}\right) \\ &= 200 + j\left(314 \times 400 \times 10^{-3} - \frac{1}{314 \times 50 \times 10^{-6}}\right) \\ &= 200 + j62 \text{ ohms} \end{aligned}$$

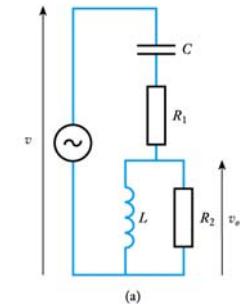
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▪ **A further example**

A more complex task is to find the output voltage of this circuit

The analysis of this circuit, and a numerical example based on it, are given in **Section 6.6.4** and **Example 6.8** of the course text



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Further Study



- The **Further Study** section at the end of Chapter 6 looks at the characteristics of a simple reactive circuit.
- See if you can model the behaviour of the circuit at a single frequency and then watch the video to check your analysis.



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Power in AC Circuits



- Introduction
- Power in Resistive Components
- Power in Capacitors
- Power in Inductors
- Circuits with Resistance and Reactance
- Active and Reactive Power
- Power Factor Correction
- Three-Phase Systems
- Power Measurement



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7.20

Introduction



- The instantaneous power dissipated in a component is a product of the instantaneous voltage and the instantaneous current

$$p = vi$$

- In a resistive circuit the voltage and current are in phase – calculation of p is straightforward
- In reactive circuits, there will normally be some phase shift between v and i , and calculating the power becomes more complicated

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Power in Resistive Components



- Suppose a voltage $v = V_p \sin \omega t$ is applied across a resistance R . The resultant current i will be

$$i = \frac{v}{R} = \frac{V_p \sin \omega t}{R} = I_p \sin \omega t$$

- The result power p will be

$$\begin{aligned} p &= vi \\ &= V_p \sin \omega t \times I_p \sin \omega t \\ &= V_p I_p (\sin^2 \omega t) \\ &= V_p I_p \left(\frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

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From Chapter 2
 $V_{\text{avg}} = (2/\pi) \cdot V_p$
 $V_{\text{rms}} = (1/\sqrt{2}) \cdot V_p$
 Current the same

- The average value of $(1 - \cos 2\omega t)$ is 1, so

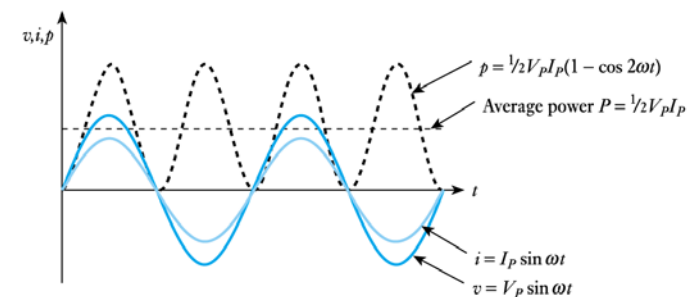
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Average Power } P &= \frac{1}{2} V_p I_p \\ &= \frac{V_p}{\sqrt{2}} \times \frac{I_p}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= VI \end{aligned}$$

where V and I are the **r.m.s. voltage and current**

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- Relationship between v , i and p in a resistor**



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Power in Capacitors



- From our discussion of capacitors we know that the current leads the voltage by 90°. Therefore, if a voltage $v = V_p \sin \omega t$ is applied across a capacitance C , the current will be given by $i = I_p \cos \omega t$

- Then

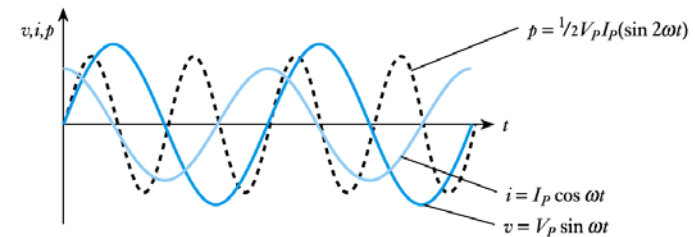
$$\begin{aligned} p &= vi \\ &= V_p \sin \omega t \times I_p \cos \omega t \\ &= V_p I_p (\sin \omega t \times \cos \omega t) \\ &= V_p I_p \left(\frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

- The average power is zero

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Relationship between v , i and p in a capacitor



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Power in Inductors



- From our discussion of inductors we know that the current lags the voltage by 90°. Therefore, if a voltage $v = V_p \sin \omega t$ is applied across an inductance L , the current will be given by $i = -I_p \cos \omega t$

- Therefore

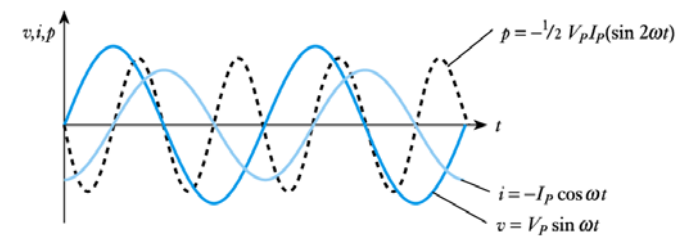
$$\begin{aligned} p &= vi \\ &= V_p \sin \omega t \times -I_p \cos \omega t \\ &= -V_p I_p (\sin \omega t \times \cos \omega t) \\ &= -V_p I_p \left(\frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

- Again the average power is zero

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Relationship between v , i and p in an inductor



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Trig relation :
 $\{\cos x - \cos(y)\} = -2 \cdot \sin\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \cdot \sin\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right)$

Circuit with Resistance and Reactance



- When a sinusoidal voltage $v = V_p \sin \omega t$ is applied across a circuit with resistance *and* reactance, the current will be of the general form $i = I_p \sin(\omega t - \phi)$
- Therefore, the instantaneous power, p is given by

$$\begin{aligned} p &= vi \\ &= V_p \sin \omega t \times I_p \sin(\omega t - \phi) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} V_p I_p \{\cos \phi - \cos(2\omega t - \phi)\} \\ p &= \frac{1}{2} V_p I_p \cos \phi - \frac{1}{2} V_p I_p \cos(2\omega t - \phi) \end{aligned}$$

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$$p = \frac{1}{2} V_p I_p \cos \phi - \frac{1}{2} V_p I_p \cos(2\omega t - \phi)$$

- The expression for p has two components
- The second part oscillates at 2ω and has an average value of zero over a complete cycle
 - this is the power that is stored in the reactive elements and then returned to the circuit within each cycle
- The first part represents the power dissipated in resistive components. **Average power dissipation** is

$$P = \frac{1}{2} V_p I_p (\cos \phi) = \frac{V_p}{\sqrt{2}} \times \frac{I_p}{\sqrt{2}} (\cos \phi) = VI \cos \phi$$

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- The average power dissipation given by

$$P = \frac{1}{2} V_p I_p (\cos \phi) = VI \cos \phi$$

is termed the **active power** in the circuit and is measured in watts (W)

- The product of the r.m.s. voltage and current VI is termed the **apparent power**, **S**. To avoid confusion this is given the units of volt amperes (VA)

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- From the above discussion it is clear that

$$\begin{aligned} P &= VI \cos \phi \\ &= S \cos \phi \end{aligned}$$

- In other words, the active power is the apparent power times the cosine of the phase angle.
- This cosine is referred to as the **power factor**

$$\frac{\text{Active power (in watts)}}{\text{Apparent power (in volt amperes)}} = \text{Power factor}$$

$$\text{Power factor} = \frac{P}{S} = \cos \phi$$

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Active and Reactive Power



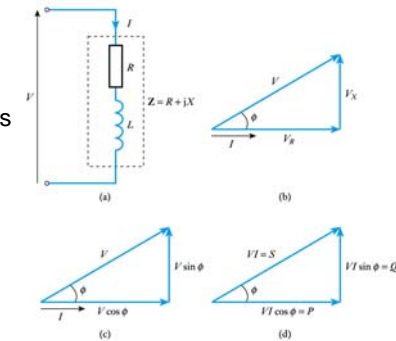
7.6

- When a circuit has resistive and reactive parts, the resultant power has 2 parts:
 - The first is *dissipated* in the resistive element. This is the **active power, P**
 - The second is *stored and returned* by the reactive element. This is the **reactive power, Q** , which has units of **volt amperes reactive** or **var**
- While reactive power is not dissipated it does have an effect on the system
 - for example, it increases the current that must be supplied and increases losses with cables

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- Consider an RL circuit
 - the relationship between the various forms of power can be illustrated using a power triangle



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- Therefore

Active Power	$P = VI \cos \phi$	watts
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Reactive Power	$Q = VI \sin \phi$	var
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Apparent Power	$S = VI$	VA
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$$S^2 = P^2 + Q^2$$

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Power Factor Correction



7.7

- Power factor** (Active/Apparent power) is particularly important in high-power applications
- Inductive loads have a *lagging* power factor
- Capacitive loads have a *leading* power factor
- Many high-power devices are inductive
 - a typical AC motor has a power factor of 0.9 lagging
 - the total load on the national grid is 0.8-0.9 lagging
 - this leads to major **inefficiencies**
 - power companies therefore penalize industrial users who introduce a poor power factor

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- The problem of poor power factor is tackled by adding additional components to bring the power factor back closer to unity
 - a capacitor of an appropriate size in parallel with a lagging load can 'cancel out' the inductive element
 - this is **power factor correction**
 - a capacitor can also be used in series but this is less common (since this alters the load voltage)
 - for examples of power factor correction see **Examples 7.2 and 7.3** in the course text

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Three-Phase Systems



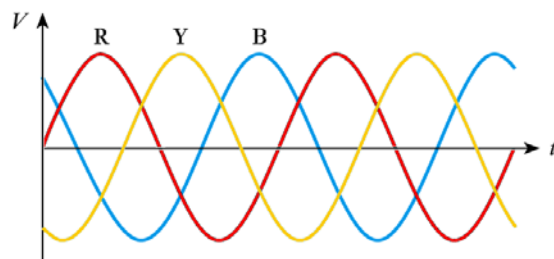
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- So far, our discussion of AC systems has been restricted to **single-phase** arrangement
 - as in conventional domestic supplies
- In high-power industrial applications we often use **three-phase** arrangements
 - these have three supplies, differing in phase by 120°
 - phases are labeled **red**, **yellow** and **blue** (**R**, **Y** & **B**)

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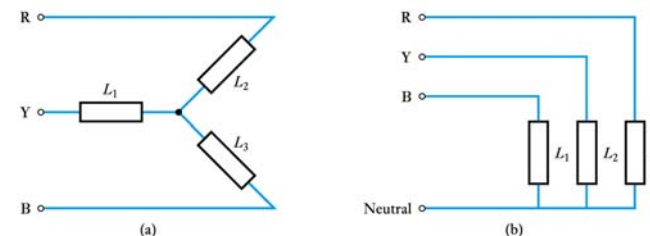
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- Relationship between the phases in a three-phase arrangement

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- Three-phase arrangements may use either 3 or 4 conductors

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Power Measurement



7.9

- When using AC, *power* is determined not only by the r.m.s. values of the **voltage** and **current**, but also by the **phase angle** (which determines the **power factor**)
 - consequently, you cannot determine the power from independent measurements of current and voltage
- In **single-phase systems** power is normally measured using an **electrodynamic wattmeter**
 - measures power directly using a single meter which effectively multiplies instantaneous current and voltage

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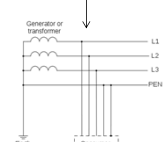
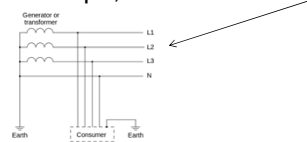
- In **three-phase systems** we need to sum the power taken from the various phases
 - in three-wire arrangements we can deduce the total power from measurements using 2 wattmeters
 - in a four-wire system it may be necessary to use 3 wattmeters
 - in balanced systems (systems that take equal power from each phase) a single wattmeter can be used, its reading being multiplied by 3 to get the total power

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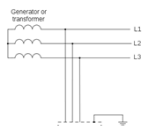
7.42

Who cares?

- In Europe, the standard is TT or TN-C earthing



- In Norway (and perhaps Albania) it is IT earthing
 - Buy equipment with TT or TN-C
 - You will need an additional transformer to run it in Norway

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Further Study



Video 7B Further Study

- The **Further Study** section at the end of Chapter 7 is concerned with power factor correction for a high-power motor.
- Your task is to calculate the size of capacitor needed to achieve a specific power factor.
- Do the sums and then watch the video.

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Key Points

- In resistive circuits the average power is equal to VI , where V and I are r.m.s. values
- In a capacitor the current *leads* the voltage by 90° and the average power is zero
- In an inductor the current *lags* the voltage by 90° and the average power is zero
- In circuits with both resistive and reactive elements, the average power is $VI \cos \phi$
- The term $\cos \phi$ is called the power factor
- Power factor correction is important in high-power systems
- High-power systems often use three-phase arrangements

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