# **Summary | Electrical Fundamentals**

## Introduction

Be sure to revise the Electricity unit of G.C.E. (A/L) Physics.

# Charge

- measured in Coulomb ( C ) =  $6.25 \times 10^{18}$  number of electrons
- · quantized
- conserved

Time invariant charge is denoted as Q. And time varying charge is denoted as q.

#### Current

Amount of charges (in  $oldsymbol{C}$ ) flowing through a point in unit time. Conventional current (opposite to electron flow) flows from positive to negative potentials.

$$I = rac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}t}$$

Time invariant current (DC) is denoted as  $\emph{I}$ . And time varying current (AC) is denoted as  $\emph{i}$ .

# **Voltage**

Voltage at a point is the work that must be done against the electric field to move a unit positive charge from infinity to that point.

f 1 volt is the potential difference between f 2 points when f 1 joule of energy is used to move f 1 coulomb of charge from one point to the other.

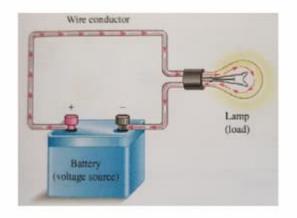
$$V = rac{E}{Q}$$

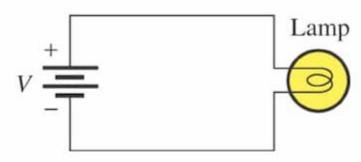
Time invariant voltage is denoted as V. And time varying voltage is denoted as v.

Voltage difference is the work that must be done against the electric field to move a unit positive charge from one point to another.

$$V_{AB} = V_A - V_B$$

### **Electric Circuit**





Schematic diagram

Pictorial diagram

### Types of circuits

- Closed circuit the electricity flows
- Open circuit the electricity doesn't flow. current = 0.  $\infty$  resistance.
- Short circuit very large current. **0** resistance.

#### **Power**

$$p=rac{\mathrm{d}w}{\mathrm{d}t}=rac{\mathrm{d}w}{\mathrm{d}q}rac{\mathrm{d}q}{\mathrm{d}t}=vi$$

#### **Total Work**

$$w = \int_{t_0}^t p \,\mathrm{d}t = \int_{t_0}^t vi \,\mathrm{d}t$$

#### When v and i are constant

$$w=vi\int_{t_0}^t \mathrm{d}t = vi(t-t_0)$$

### **Electrical Load**

Something that consumes electrical energy.

#### **Linear loads**

Loads that can be expressed using a combination of resistors, capacitors and inductors only.

## (i) Note

If a AC sinusoidal voltage is applied across a load, current through the load will also be sinusoidal **iff** the load is linear.

# **Double subscript notation**

-	Current	Voltage
	$\circ a$	+ O a -
Double subscript	$i_{ab} \downarrow $	$v_{ab}$ $\geqslant$ $v_{ba}$
	0 b	- O b +
Equation	$i_{ab}=-i_{ba}$	$v_{ab}=-v_{ba}=v_a-v_b$
Description	Current is flowing from point $a$ to point $b$	Voltage is <b>higher at point</b> $oldsymbol{a}$ and lower at point $oldsymbol{b}$

## **Common Terms**

#### **Branch**

A branch represents a single element, such as a resistor or a battery.

#### **Node**

A node is the point connecting more than 1 branches. Denoted by a dot.

(i) Note

All points in a circuit that are connected directly by ideal conductors can be considered to be a single node.

### Two terminal element

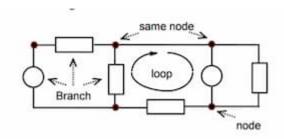
An element connected to two nodes. Branches are two terminal elements.

## Loop

A loop is a closed path through a circuit in which no node is encountered more than once except for the same start/finish node.

#### Mesh

A mesh is a loop without having other loops inside it. Subset of loops.



# **Circuit elements**

Two types of circuit elements.

- Active
- Passive

## **Active**

Capable of generating electrical energy.

- Voltage sources
- Current sources

These can interchangeably be used.

#### **Passive**

Either consumes or stores electrical energy.

- Resistors
- Inductors
- Capacitors
- · Any other elements

# **Voltage sources**

- Batteries electrochemical
- Solar cells photo voltaic
- Generators electromagnetic

# Ideal voltage source

Constant voltage for any required currents. Does not exist.

# **Resistors**

Resistance, in terms of physical dimensions:

$$R = rac{
ho l}{A}$$

Here:

• l: length

•  $m{A}$ : cross-sectional area

ρ: <u>resistivity</u>

If a voltage V is applied across a conductor, then a given current I will flow through the conductor  $V \propto I$ . The proportionality constant is called resistance R.

$$R = rac{V}{I}$$

# **Capacitors**

Made of two conductive plates separated by an insulating (dielectric) layer.

Capacitance (C), in terms of physical dimensions:

$$C=rac{\epsilon A}{d}$$

Here:

•  $m{d}$  : distance between the plates

•  $m{A}$  : area of a plate

In an ideal capacitor, the charge imbalance  ${\it Q}$  is proportional to the voltage  ${\it V}$  across the plates.

$$Q = CV$$

# v and i

As  $oldsymbol{C}$  is constant, current  $oldsymbol{i}$  passing through the capacitor and the voltage  $oldsymbol{v}$  across the capacitor are related by:

$$i = C rac{\mathrm{d}v}{\mathrm{d}t}$$

# **Energy stored**

Suppose voltage across an initially uncharged capacitor rises from  $oldsymbol{0}$  to  $oldsymbol{V}$  during a time period of  $oldsymbol{t}$ .

$$e=\int_0^t p\,dt=\int_0^t vi\,dt=C\int_0^v v\,dv$$

$$E=rac{1}{2}CV^2$$

# **Inductors**

When there is a current in the inductor, a magnetic field is created. Any change in current causes the magnetic field to change, this in turn induces a voltage across the inductor that opposes the original change in current.

A length of wire turned into a coil works as a inductor.

# Inductance (L)

For an ideal inductor:

$$v=Lrac{\mathrm{d}i}{\mathrm{d}t}$$

Here the  $m{v}$  is the voltage difference between the inductor, and  $m{i}$  is the current through the inductor.

The polarity is such as to oppose the change in current.

# **Energy stored**

Assume voltage across an inductor rises from 0 to i during a time period of t seconds.

$$e=\int_0^t p\,dt=\int_0^t vi\,dt=L\int_0^i i\,di$$
 $E=rac{1}{2}Li^2$ 

## **Kirchhoff Laws**

#### **Kirchhoff Current Law**

The algebraic sum of all the currents entering and leaving a node is zero. Based on principle of conversation of charge.

$$\sum_{
m node} I = 0 \implies \sum_{
m in} I = \sum_{
m out} I$$

# **Kirchhoff Voltage Law**

The algebraic sum of voltages around a loop is zero. Based on principle of conversation of energy.

$$\sum_{\text{node}} V = 0$$

# **Voltage division**

Series connection is used to divide voltage. Potentiometeres are commonly used to create voltage divider circuits.

## **Current division**

Parallel connection is used to divide current.

# Introduction to Waves

### **Waveform**

Obtained by plotting instantaneous values of a time-varying quantity against time.

#### **Periodic Waveform**

A pattern repeats after T time. Periodic time is T and frequency f is  $\frac{1}{T}$ .

### **Alternating Waveform**

A waveform that changes in magnitude and direction with time. Is also a periodic waveform.

#### Sinusoidal Waves

Same as  $\sin \theta$  vs  $\theta$  (in rad). Also called sine waves or sinusoid.

$$y = Asin(\omega t + \phi)$$

When  $\phi$  is:

- ullet >0 the wave is said to be  ${
  m leading}$  by  $\phi$
- $\bullet = 0$  the wave is the **reference**
- ullet < 0 the wave is said to be **lagging** by  $\phi$

Sinusoidal voltages are be easily generated using rotating machines.

# **Complex Waveforms**

Periodic non-sinusoidal waveforms can be split into its fundamental and harmonics.

#### **Fundamental Waveform**

$$f_0 = f_{
m complex}$$

#### **Harmonics**

Sine waves with higher frequencies which is a multiple of  $f_0$ .

$$f_{ ext{harmonic}} = n \cdot f_0 \; ; \, n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Harmonics are grouped into:

- **odd harmonic** when n is odd.
- **even harmonic** when n is even.

# **Definitions in AC Theory**

(i) Note

Only sinusoidal AC supply are considered in s1.

Say v is alternating as in  $v = V_m sin(\omega t + \phi)$ .

### Peak value

Maximum instantaneous value.  $V_m$  in the example.

# Peak-to-peak value

Maximum variation between maximum positive and negative instantaneous values.  $\mathbf{2}V_m$  in the example.

For a sinusoidal waveform, this is twice the peak value.

## Mean value

$$v_{ ext{mean}} = rac{1}{T} \int_{T_0}^{T_0+T} v(t) \mathrm{d}t$$

Here:

- $T_0$  is the starting time of a cycle
- $oldsymbol{\cdot}$  T is the periodic time

For any symmetric waveform, mean value is  $\mathbf{0}$ .

# **Average value**

Mean value of the rectified version of a waveform.

For symmetric waveforms, half-cycle mean value is taken as the average value.

$$v_{ ext{average}} = rac{2}{T} \int_{T_0}^{T_0 + rac{T}{2}} v(t) \, \mathrm{d}t$$

For sinusoidal waveforms, from the example:

$$egin{align} v_{ ext{average}} &= rac{2}{T} \int_{T_0}^{T_0 + rac{T}{2}} V_m sin(\omega t + \phi) \, \mathrm{d}t \ &= rac{2}{\pi} V_m = 0.637 V_m \end{split}$$

# Effective value or rms (root mean square) value

$$v_{
m rms} = \sqrt{rac{1}{T}\int_{T_0}^{T_0+T} v(t)^2\,\mathrm{d}t}$$

For sinusoidal waveforms:

$$v_{
m rms} = V_m \sqrt{rac{1}{T} \int_{T_0}^{T_0+T} sin^2(\omega t + \phi) \, \mathrm{d}t} = rac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

### Note

 $i_{
m rms}$  is the equivalent current that dissipates same amount of power across a resistor R in time T as i(t). Similar for voltage.

rms value is always used to express the magnitude of a time varying quantity.

# Instantaneous power

$$P = vi = i^2 R$$

### Form factor

$$ext{Form factor} = rac{ ext{rms value}}{ ext{average value}} = rac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} imes rac{2}{\pi V_m} = 1.111$$

### **Peak factor**

$$ext{Peak factor} = rac{ ext{peak value}}{ ext{rms value}} = V_m imes rac{\sqrt{2}}{V_m} = 1.412$$

# **Phasor Representation**

Phasor (phase vector) is a vector representing a sinusoidal function.

- Magnitude of the phasor: rms value of the wave
- Angle of the phasor: The angular position  $\,\phi$  , with respect to a reference direction

Can also be represented by a complex number.

# Representation

- Polar form:  $A=|A| \angle \phi$
- Cartesian or rectangular form:  $A=A_x+jA_y$

Here:

$$oldsymbol{\cdot} |A| = A_{
m rms} = \sqrt{A_x^2 + A_y^2}$$

• 
$$A_x = |A| \cos \phi$$

• 
$$A_y = |A| \sin \phi$$

• 
$$j=\sqrt{-1}$$

• 
$$an \phi = rac{A_y}{A_x}$$

# Impedance & Admittance

Impedance (Z)

$$Z = \frac{V}{I} = R + jX$$

Here:

•  $m{R}$ : Resistance

• X: Reactance

# Admittance (Y)

Inverse of impedance.

$$Y = \frac{1}{Z} = \frac{I}{V} = G + jB$$

Here:

•  $m{G}$ : Conductance

•  $\boldsymbol{B}$ : Susceptance

From the definitions:

$$G=\frac{R}{R^2+X^2}\ \wedge B=-\frac{X}{R^2+X^2}$$

# For simple circuit elements

#### Resistor

Let  $i=I_m\sin{(\omega t+\phi_0)}$  is applied across a resistor with resistance R. From Ohm's law:

$$v = RI_m \sin{(\omega t + \phi_0)} \implies Z_R = R$$

No changes in frequency, phase angle.  $\emph{v}$  is in phase with  $\emph{i}$ .  $\emph{R}$  doesn't have reactance.

#### **Inductor**

Let  $i=I_m\sin{(\omega t+\phi_0)}$  is applied across an inductor with inductance L.

$$v = L \omega I_m \sin{(\omega t + (\phi_0 + rac{\pi}{2}))} \implies Z_L = j \omega L$$

Reactance of the inductor is  $X_L = L \omega$ .

(i) Note

v leads i by  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ . No changes in frequency.

# **Capacitor**

Let  $i=I_m\sin{(\omega t+\phi_0)}$  is applied across an capacitor with capacitance c.

$$v = rac{I_m}{c\omega} \mathrm{sin} \left( \omega t + (\phi_0 - rac{\pi}{2}) 
ight) \implies Z_C = - j rac{1}{c\omega}$$

Reactance of the capacitor (capacitive reactance) is  $X_c = -rac{1}{c\omega}$ .

(i) Note

v lags i by  $rac{\pi}{2}$ . No changes in frequency.

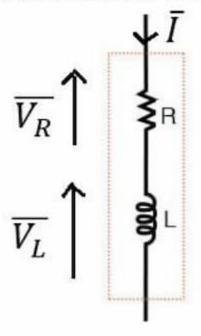
If v:

- lags  $oldsymbol{i}$  circuit is capacitive
- leads  $m{i}$  circuit is inductive

# For complex circuit elements

### **Real Inductor**

# Equivalent circuit for a real inductor



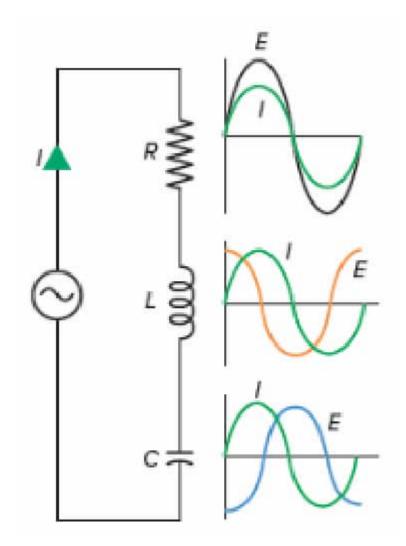
Take  $\overline{I}$  as the reference. We get:

$$\overline{V}=\overline{I}(R+j\omega L)$$

From here  $\overline{Z}$  can be written (in cartesian or polar form):

$$\overline{Z}=R+j\omega L=|\overline{Z}|\angle\phi$$

## **RLC** series circuit



Complex impedances are added up to find the total impedance of a series circuit.

$$\overline{Z} = R + j(\omega L - rac{1}{\omega C})$$

# For a series circuit

Total impedance is the sum of each component's impedance.

# For a parallel circuit

Total admittance is the sum of each component's admittance.

## **Power and Power factor**

- In a purely resistive AC circuit, the energy delivered by the source will be dissipated in the form of the heat by the resistance.
- In a purely capacitive or purely inductive circuit, all of the energy will be stored during one half of each cycle, and then returned to the source during the other half cycle there will be no net conversion to heat.
- When there is both a resistive component and a reactive component, some energy will be stored, and some will be converted to heat during each cycle.

# **Power equations**

### **Purely resistive circuit**

Suppose a circuit with load R resistance is supplied a voltage of  $v(t) = V_m \cos \omega t$ .

Instantaneous power dissipated by the load is given by:

$$p(t) = rac{V_m^2}{R} \mathrm{cos}^2 \left(\omega t
ight)$$

Always: p(t) > 0.

$$ext{Average power} = rac{1}{2} ext{Peak power} = rac{V_m^2}{2R}$$

# **Purely inductive circuit**

Suppose a circuit with inductor L is supplied a voltage of  $v(t) = V_m \cos \omega t$ .

Instantaneous power dissipated by the load is given by:

$$p(t)=rac{V_m^2}{2\omega L}{
m sin}\left(2\omega t
ight)$$

# **Purely capacitive circuit**

Suppose a circuit with inductor L is supplied a voltage of  $v(t) = V_m \cos \omega t$ .

Instantaneous power dissipated by the load is given by:

$$p(t)=-rac{V_{m}^{2}\omega C}{2}\mathrm{sin}\left( 2\omega t
ight)$$

### Power of a general load

Consider a general load with both resistive and reactive components. Depending on how inductive or capacitive the reactive component, the phase shift between voltage and current phasor lies between  $90^\circ$  and  $-90^\circ$ .

Suppose the circuit is supplied a voltage of  $v(t) = V_m \cos{(\omega t)}$ . And the current phasor shifts in  $\theta$  phase angle.

$$i(t) = I_m \cos{(\omega t - heta)}$$

This ends up with:

$$p(t) = rac{1}{2} V_m I_m igg[ \cos heta + \cos \left( \omega t - rac{ heta}{2} 
ight) igg]$$

#### Average of over 1 cycle

$$P_{ ext{avg}} = rac{1}{T} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T} p(t) \, \mathrm{d}t = V_{ ext{rms}} I_{ ext{rms}} \cos heta$$

# **Types of power**

#### **Reactive Power**

Power delivered to/from a pure energy storage element is known as reactive power.

- Average power consumed by a pure energy storage element is zero.
- Current associated with it is  ${f not}\ {f 0}$ . Transmission lines, transformers, fuses, etc. must all be designed to be capable of withstanding this current.
- Loads with energy storage elements will draw large currents and require heavy duty wiring even though little average power is consumed.
- In all electrical and electronic systems, it is the true power (the resistive power) that does the work, the reactive power simply shuttles back and forth between the source and the load.
- This means that the apparent power supplied is a combination of the true and the reactive power.

$$Q_{
m reactive} = V_{
m rms} I_{
m rms} \sin heta$$

### **Active power**

$$P = V_{\rm rms} I_{\rm rms} \cos \theta$$

### **Apparent power**

$$S=V_{
m rms}I_{
m rms}=\sqrt{P^2+Q^2}$$

The apparent power is essentially the effective power that the source "sees"

#### **Power factor**

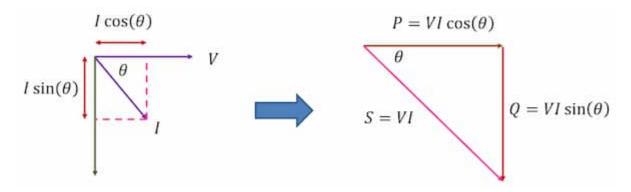
In the above equation of  $P_{\mathrm{avg}}$ , the  $\cos heta$  is called the power factor.

$$\cos heta = rac{ ext{Active power}}{ ext{Apparent power}}$$

Power factor is:

- leading when I leads V
- ullet lagging when I lags V

# **Power triangle**



- Take  $oldsymbol{V}$  phasor as the reference.
- ullet Draw  $oldsymbol{V}$  and  $oldsymbol{I}$  phasors.

# **Power systems**

An electric power system consists of 3 principle sections

- · Power stations: electricity is generated
- Transmission: voltage is stepped to high voltage
- Distribution: voltage is stepped down to medium voltage for distribution over a relatively small region

## Variable load

Load on a power station changes with to uncertain demands of consumers. This is called the **variable load**.

Load vs time curve is called the **load curve**. Area under this curve is the **total energy** requirement.

# **Power grid**

Nation-wide, massive, geographically distributed system for electrical power supply network.

# **Sri Lankan Voltage Levels**

- High voltage 220~kV
- Medium voltage  $11 \, kV$
- Nominal voltage  $230\ V$
- Nominal line-to-line  $400~\mathrm{V}$

# **3-Phased System**

# Why 3-phase?

So that the current can be distributed into 3 wires instead of just 1. There is a maximum limit of how much current a wire can carry.

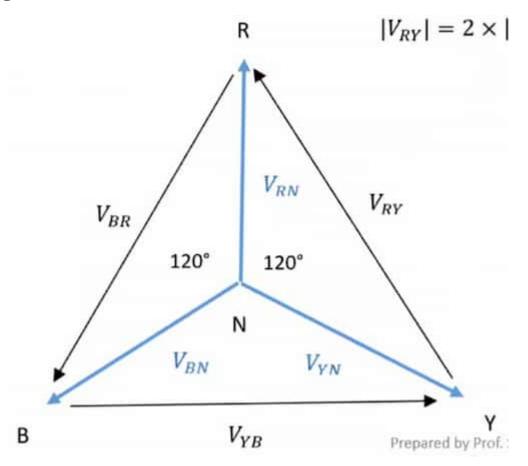
# **Balanced 3-phase**

The phases are denoted by R,Y,B in that order.

#### **Power source**

A 3-phase power source produce 3 phase voltages of equal rms value, but with  $120\,^\circ$  phase difference.

## **Phasor diagram**



# **Phase voltage**

Voltage between a phase wire and the neutral wire.

 $V_{
m RN}$  ,  $V_{
m YN}$  ,  $V_{
m BN}$  are the phase voltages.

# Line-to-line voltage

Voltage between any 2 phase wires. Line-to-line voltages also have a  $120\,^{\circ}$  phase difference.

 $V_{
m RY}$  ,  $V_{
m YB}$  ,  $V_{
m BR}$  are the line-to-line voltages or line voltages.

$$ig|V_{
m BR}ig|=2 imesig|V_{
m BN}ig|\cos(30\degree)=\sqrt{3}ig|V_{
m BN}ig|$$

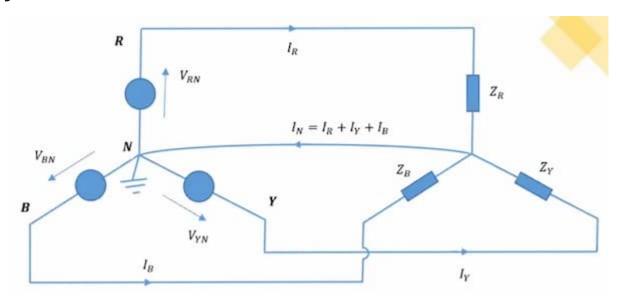
(i) Note

In a 3-phase system, line-to-line voltage is mentioned.

(i) Note

Devices that have a 3-phase power input, doesn't require a neutral line.

# **Analysis**



$$I_N = Eigg[rac{1 \angle 0^\circ}{z_R} + rac{1 \angle -120^\circ}{z_Y} + rac{1 \angle 120^\circ}{z_B}igg]$$

(i) Note

A balanced 3-phase circuit can be represented by a single-phase equivalent circuit. The diagram showing the single-phase equivalent of the power system using standard symbols.

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