

Power Factor and its Improvement Methods with Practical Solutions

1. Introduction to Power Factor

Power factor (PF) is a critical concept in alternating current (AC) electrical systems that describes the efficiency with which electrical power is converted into useful work. It is defined as the ratio of real power (kW) to apparent power (kVA).

Real Power (P or kW): The actual power consumed by the load to perform useful work (e.g., generating heat, light, or mechanical motion). Measured in Kilowatts (kW).

Reactive Power (Q or kVar): The power that continuously flows back and forth between the source and the inductive or capacitive loads. It does no useful work but is essential for the operation of devices like motors and transformers to establish magnetic fields. Measured in Kilovolt-Ampere reactive (kVar).

Apparent Power (S or kVA): The total power delivered by the source, which is the vector sum of real power and reactive power. It is the product of the total voltage and total current. Measured in Kilovolt-Amperes (kVA).

2. Why Power Factor is Important (Problems of Low Power Factor)

Maintaining a good power factor is crucial for several reasons:

- Increased Electricity Bills (Penalties):** Many utility companies charge penalties for low power factor, especially for industrial and commercial consumers. They might bill based on apparent power (kVA) or apply a surcharge if the PF falls below a certain threshold (e.g., 0.9 or 0.95).
- Increased Current Draw:** For a given amount of

apparent power (kVA), which in turn requires a higher current (since $kVA = V \times A$). Higher I^2R Losses (Copper Losses): Increased current due to low power factor leads to higher resistive losses (heat) in cables, transformers, and other equipment. This wastes energy and reduces overall system efficiency.

3. Causes of Low Power Factor

The most common causes of low power factor are inductive loads. Inductive loads create magnetic fields that require reactive power to operate. Examples include:

Electric Motors: Induction motors (the most common type of motor) in industrial machinery, HVAC systems, pumps, and fans.

Transformers: Used to step up or step down voltage.

Fluorescent and High-Intensity Discharge (HID) Lighting: Older ballast types are inductive.

4.1. Shunt Capacitors (Most Common Method):

Principle: Inductive loads draw lagging reactive power (measured in kVar lagging). Capacitors, when connected in parallel (shunt) to the inductive load, draw leading reactive power (measured in kVar leading). By carefully selecting and installing capacitors, the leading kVar from the capacitors can cancel out the lagging kVar from the inductive loads, reducing the total reactive power drawn from the utility.

Placement: Capacitors can be installed:

Individually at the load: Best for large, constant inductive loads (e.g., a single large motor) as it corrects the PF right at the source, reducing current throughout the feeder.

At group of loads (feeder level): For a group of smaller loads, capacitors can be installed at the branch circuit or sub-distribution panel.

At the main incoming supply (utility interface): Often used for overall plant power factor correction, especially with Automatic Power Factor Correction (APFC) panels.

Advantages: Relatively inexpensive, easy to install, passive devices, can be precisely sized.

Disadvantages: Can be susceptible to harmonics (requiring detuned/tuned filters), lifetime affected by voltage surges and temperature.

4.2. Synchronous Condensers (Synchronous Motors):

Principle: A synchronous motor can be operated without a mechanical load and with its field excitation varied to draw either leading or lagging reactive power. When over-excited, it acts like a large capacitor, supplying leading reactive power to the system.

Application: Typically used in large industrial plants or at substations for voltage support and power factor correction on a very large scale.

Advantages: Can provide continuous, variable reactive

Disadvantages: High initial cost, requires maintenance (rotating machine), causes mechanical losses.

4.3. Static Var Compensators (SVCs):

Principle: These are power electronics-based devices that can rapidly provide variable reactive power (either leading or lagging) to stabilize the system and improve power factor. They use thyristor-switched reactors and capacitors.

Application: Used in large industrial applications with rapidly changing loads (e.g., arc furnaces, rolling mills) or in utility transmission systems.

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Advantages: Fast response time, flexible control, can improve dynamic stability.

Disadvantages: High cost, complex power electronics, harmonic generation (can be designed with filters).

4.4. Active Power Factor Correctors (Active PFC):

Principle: These are electronic circuits, typically found integrated into modern electronic devices (like computer power supplies, LED drivers, variable speed drives), that actively shape the input current waveform to be in phase with the voltage waveform.

Application: Essential for devices with non-linear loads (which create harmonics) to improve their individual power factor and reduce harmonic distortion.

Advantages: Achieves very high power factors (close to unity), reduces harmonics, compact.

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5.2. Practical Example: Power Factor Improvement

Calculation Scenario: An industrial facility has a total real power (P) demand of 500 kW, and its existing power factor (PF_{old}) is 0.75 lagging.

The utility company penalizes for PF below 0.95. The facility wants to improve its power factor to 0.98 lagging (PF_{new}).

1. Calculate Existing Reactive Power (Q_{old}): First, find the angle θ_{old} : $\theta_{\text{old}} = \cos^{-1}(0.75) \approx 41.41^\circ$. Then, $Q_{\text{old}} = P \times \tan(\theta_{\text{old}}) = 500 \text{ kW} \times \tan(41.41^\circ) = 500 \text{ kW} \times 0.8819 \approx 440.95 \text{ kVar lagging}$.

Calculate Reactive Power at Target PF (Q_{new}):

First, find the angle θ_{new} : $\theta_{\text{new}} = \cos^{-1}(0.98) \approx 11.48^\circ$. Then, $Q_{\text{new}} = P \times \tan(\theta_{\text{new}}) = 500 \text{ kW} \times \tan(11.48^\circ) = 500 \text{ kW} \times 0.2029 \approx 101.45 \text{ kVar lagging}$.

Power factor is a critical indicator of electrical system efficiency. A low power factor, primarily caused by inductive loads, leads to increased operational costs, reduced system capacity, and potentially shortened equipment lifespan. Implementing power factor improvement methods, most commonly through the strategic installation of shunt capacitors (often managed by APFC panels), is a highly effective way to mitigate these issues. By correcting the power factor, businesses can realize significant financial savings through lower electricity bills.