

\* Explain Kirchoff's law

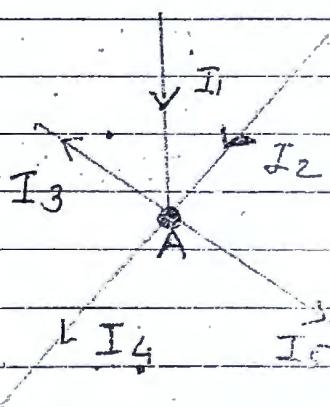
KCL (Kirchoff's Current Law)

Statement : " In any electrical network

algebraic sum of all currents meeting at a junction OR Node is zero

$$\therefore \sum I = 0$$

→ Assume that currents coming towards point A are (+Ve) Positive & currents leaving the Point A are (-Ve) Negative



→ from the above figure & statement

$$I_1 + I_2 + (-I_3) + (-I_4) + (-I_5) = 0$$

$$I_1 + I_2 = I_3 + I_4 + I_5$$

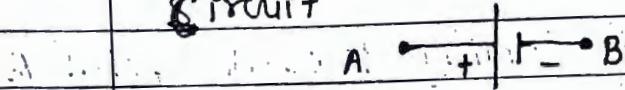
Sum of Incoming Currents = Sum of outgoing Currents

## KVL (Kirchoff's Voltage Law)

Statement: "In any Electrical Network algebraic sum of Voltage (E.M.F) plus algebraic sum of products of Currents Resistances is zero"

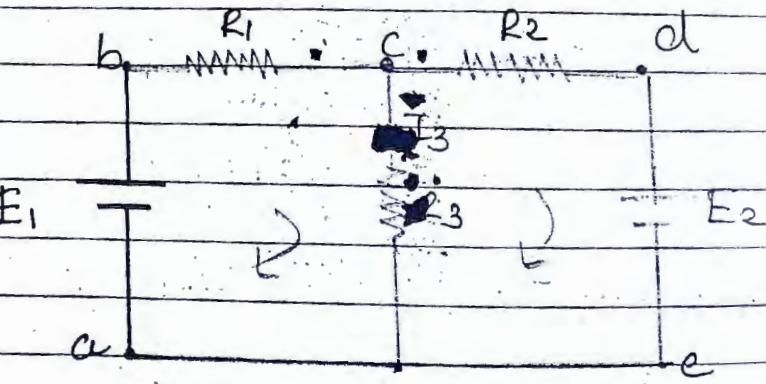
$$\sum V + \sum I R = 0$$

→ Some sign consideration for analysing Circuit



- 1) if current flows from A to B  $\Rightarrow -V$
- 2) if current flows from B to A  $\Rightarrow +V$  (fall in voltage)  
(Rise in voltage)

A → B	R	if terminal A is +ve & B is -
+ -		if we move A to B voltage drop occurs $-IR$ (fall) Vice-versa



for path abcfa :  $+E_1 - I_1 R_1 - I_3 R_3$   
for path cdefc :  $+E_2 + I_2 R_2 + I_3 R_3$

## \* Explain Thevenin's theorem with Example.

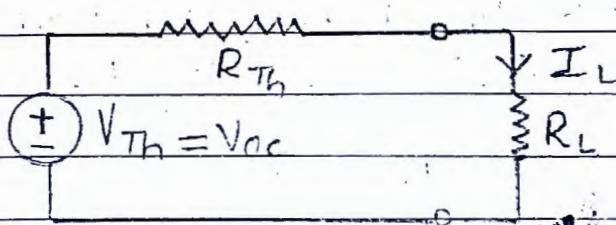
→ Thevenin's theorem is used to find particular branch current.

### → STATEMENT :-

"In any linear active network one or more than one sources replaced by single Voltage source ( $V_{Th}$  or  $V_{oc}$ ) in series with resistances ( $R_{Th}$ )".

→ The Voltage  $V_{Th}$  is known as Thevenin's Voltage or  $V_{oc}$  is known as Open circuit Voltage.

→  $R_{Th}$  is Thevenin's resistance across open circuit terminal.



→ Above figure shows general thevenin's equivalent network.

### STEPS: to apply theorem in Network.

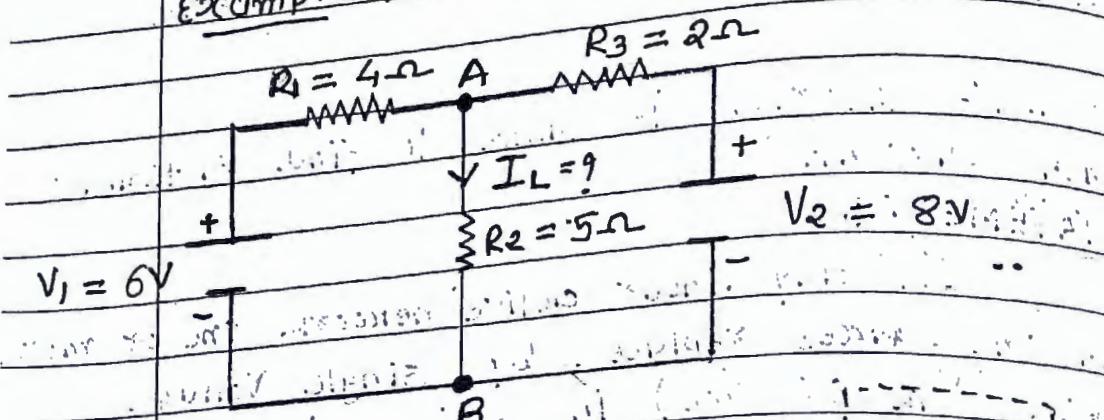
Step-1 : Remove the branch (Resistance) through which Current is to be determined.

Step-2 :- calculate  $V_{Th}$  OR  $V_{oc}$

Step-3 :- Calculate  $R_{Th}$  by replacing Voltage Source as short circuit & Current source as open circuit

Step-4 . Draw the thevenin's equivalent Network. & find  $I_L = \frac{V_{Th}}{R_{Th}}$

Example : find the current through Branch A



→ from the above figure  $R_2 = R_L$  & Load current  $I_L$  flows through it that we have to find. Now apply thevenin's theorem

Step. 1: Remove the branch current through which resistance ( $R_2 = R_L$ ). Ps determine

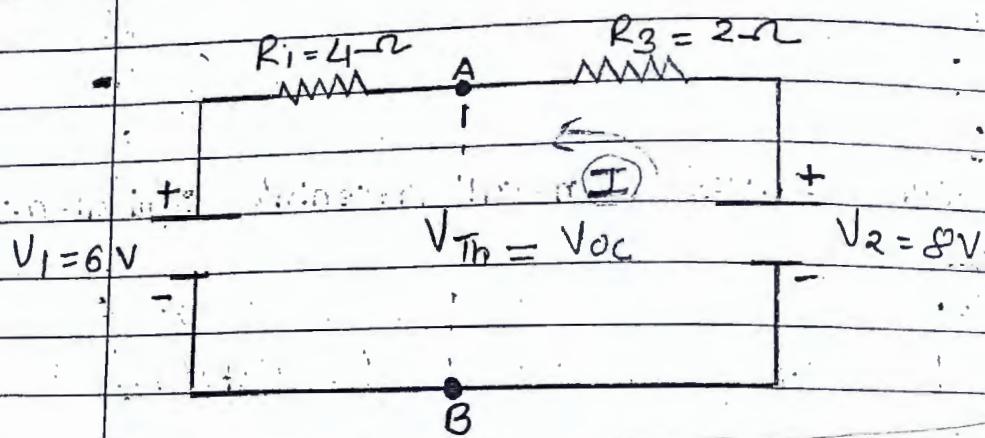


fig.: NO.: 1

Step. 2: Calculate  $V_{Th}$  or  $V_{oc}$  from fig:

→ From the Loop Using KVL

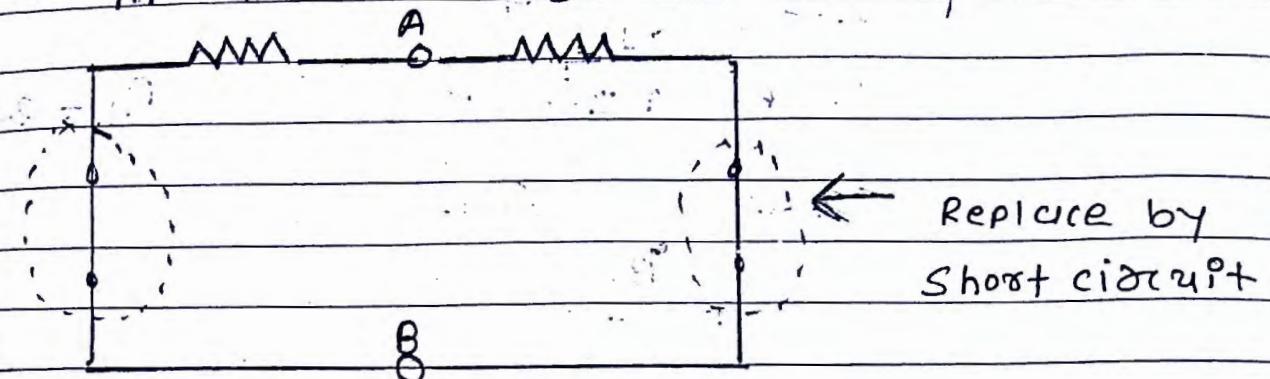
$$8 - 2I - 4I_4 - 6 = 0$$

$$2 = 6I \Rightarrow I = \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow I = 0.3$$

$$V_{Th} = V_{oc} = 8 - (2 \times I) = 8 - (0.66) = 7.3V$$

Step-3 Calculate  $R_{Th}$  by replacing Voltage Source with short circuit & Current Source as Open circuit.

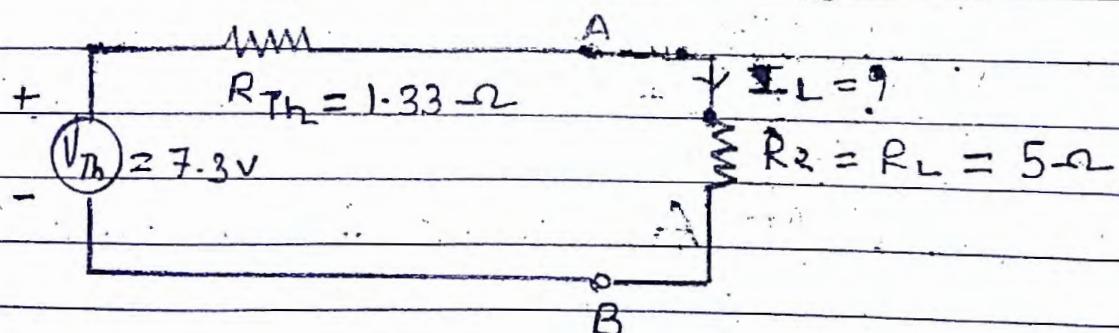
$$R_1 = 4\Omega \quad R_3 = 2\Omega$$



→ from the above fig resistors are connected in parallel

	A	○		
K	→	$R_3 = 2\Omega$	$R_2 = 4\Omega$	$R_{Th} = R_1 \parallel R_3$
m				$= 2 \parallel 4 \Rightarrow \frac{2 \times 4}{2+4}$
s	B	○		$R_{Th} = 1.33\Omega$

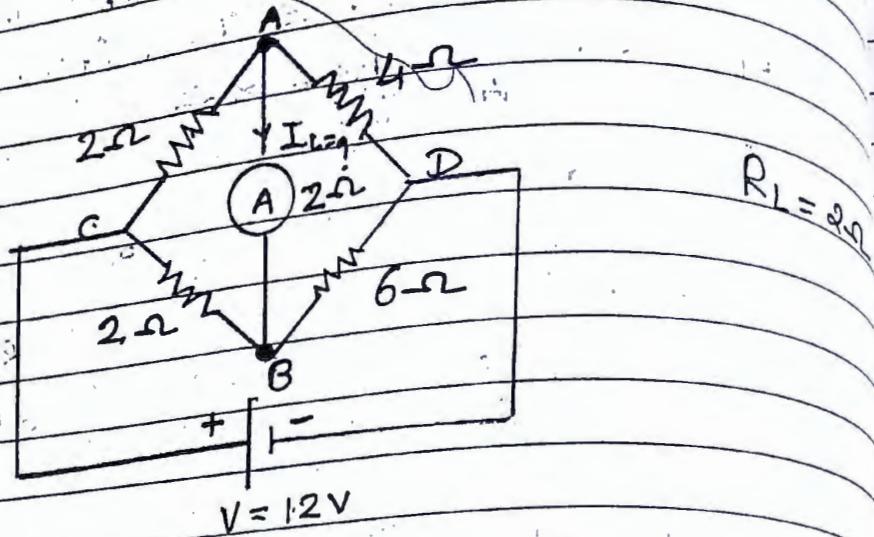
Step-4 : calculate  $I_L$  Using thevenin's equivalent Network.



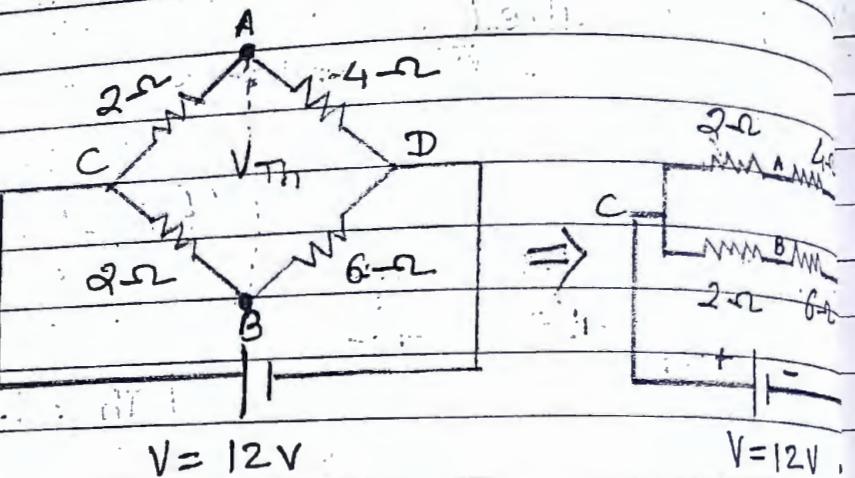
$$I_L = \frac{V_{Th}}{R_{Th} + R_L} = \frac{7.3}{1.33 + 5} = 1.15$$

Ans Current through Branch AB is 1.15A

Example : Determine Current through the circuit connected in Wheatstone bridge of below fig.



Step - 1 :



Step 2 : Determine  $V_{Th}$

$$V_{Th} = -V_A + V_B \quad \text{from the above}$$

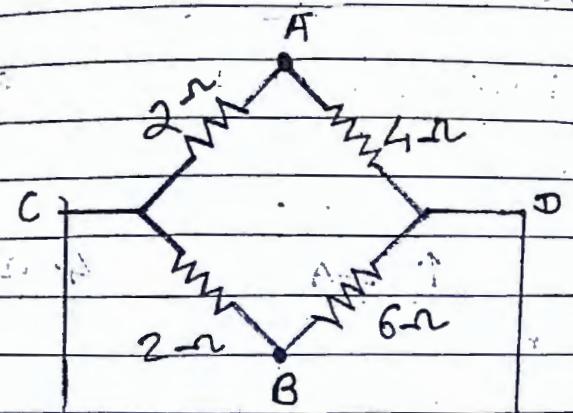
(voltage) potential of A w.r.t. D =  $12 \times \frac{4}{6}$

(rule) Potential of B w.r.t. D =  $12 \times \frac{6}{8}$

$$V_{Th} = V_B - V_A = 9 - 8 = 1 \text{ V}$$

(with B is +ve)

Step 3 Calculate  $R_{Th}$



→ from the above circuit

$$R_{Th} = 2 \parallel 4 + 2 \parallel 6$$

$$R_{Th} = (2 \parallel 4) + (2 \parallel 6)$$

$$= \left( \frac{2 \times 4}{2+4} \right) + \left( \frac{2 \times 6}{2+6} \right)$$

$$= \frac{8}{6} + \frac{12}{8} \Rightarrow 2.83 \Omega$$

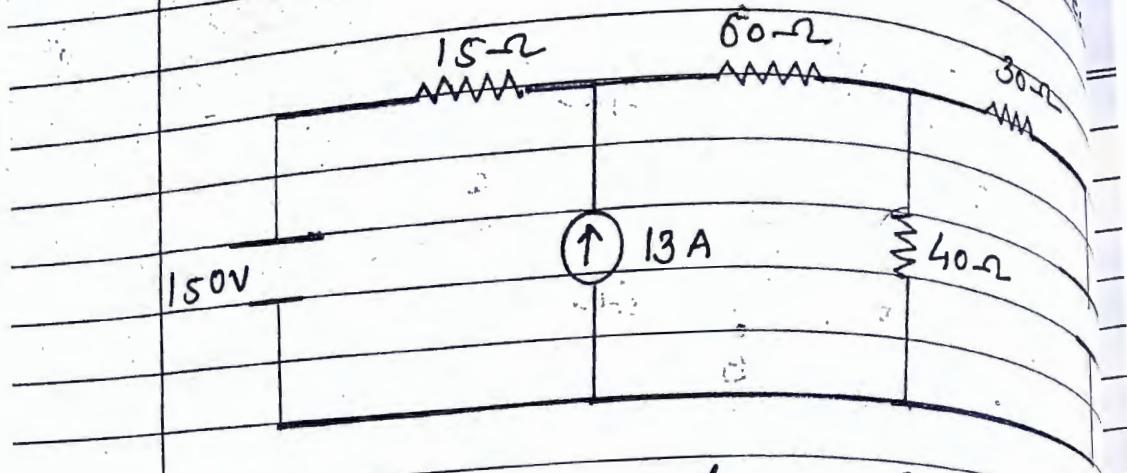
Step 4 calculate  $I_L$  using thevenin's equivalent Network

$$\begin{aligned} V_{Th} &= 4V \\ R_{Th} &= 2.83 \Omega \\ I_L &= ? \end{aligned}$$

$$R_L = 2 \Omega$$

$$I_L = \frac{V}{R_{Th} + R_L} = \frac{4}{2.83 + 2} = 1.43$$

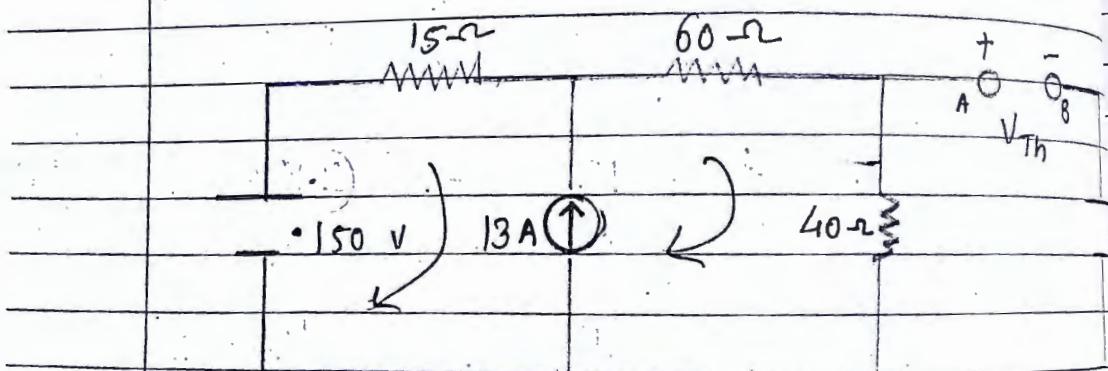
Example: Find Current through the  $30\Omega$  using thevenin's theorem



→ from the above fig  $R_L = 30\Omega$

Step. 1: Remove the branch (Resistor) through which Current is determined.

Step. 2 Calculate  $V_{Th}$  OR  $V_{oc}$



→ Both Mesh form supermesh

(Supermesh means if current source is common in both Loop or mesh)

→ Form the figure writing the equation

$$15I_1 + 60I_2 + 40I_2 = 150$$

$$\cancel{150} \rightarrow 15I_1 + 100I_2 = 150$$

→ Writing the equation for Supermesh (current)

$$I_a - I_1 = 13 \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{2} \Rightarrow I_2 = 13 + I_1$$

solving equation (1) & \textcircled{2}

$$15I_1 + 100I_2 = 150$$

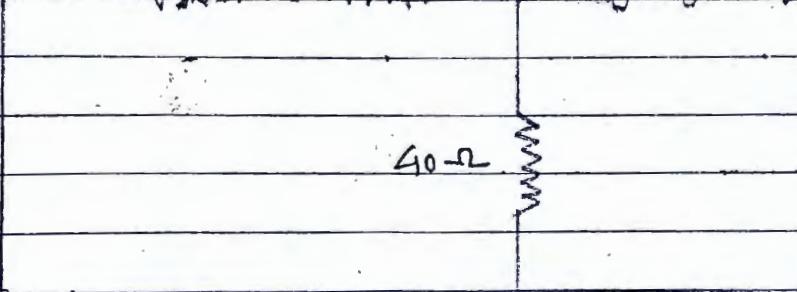
$$-I_1 + I_2 = 13$$

$$\rightarrow I_1 = -10A, \quad I_2 = 3A$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{Th} = 40I_2 - 50 \\ = (40 \times 3) - 50 \Rightarrow V_{Th} = 70V$$

Step 3 Calculate  $R_{Th}$  by voltage source as  
Open circuit & Current source  
as short circuit.

$$15\Omega \quad 60\Omega \quad A + - B$$



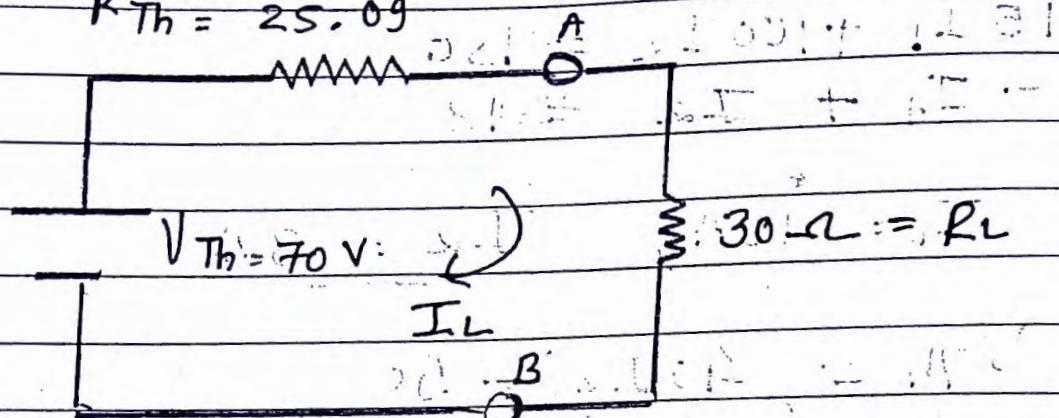
→ From the fig

$$R_{Th} = (15 + 60) \parallel 40 \\ = 75 \parallel 40 \\ = \frac{40 \times 75}{40 + 75}$$

$$R_{Th} = 26.09 \Omega$$

Step-4 Draw the equivalent circuit of thevenin's & find  $I_L$

$$R_{Th} = 25.09$$



$$I_L = \frac{V_{Th}}{R_L + R_{Th}} = \frac{70}{25.09 + 30} = 1.25$$

$$I_L = \frac{V_{Th}}{R_L + R_{Th}} = \frac{70}{25.09 + 30}$$

## Explanation : NORTON'S Theorem

→ Norton's theorem is the corollary of thevenin's theorem . we can say it is dual of thevenin's theorem

### STATEMENT :-

" In any linear active network having one or more than one sources can be replaced by single current source ( $I_{sc}$ ) with parallel resistance ( $R_{eq} = R_{Th} = R_N = Z_N$ ) "

### STEPS to solve (Norton's theorem) Example

Step-1 : Short circuit required branch (Resistance  $R_L$ ) through which current is to be determined

Step-2 : Calculate short circuit current source  $I_{sc}$

Step-3 : Calculate  $R_{Th}$   $\left( R_{eq} = R_N = Z_N \right)$  by replacing Voltage source as short circuit & Current source as open circuit.

Step-4 : Draw the Norton's equivalent CKT diagram

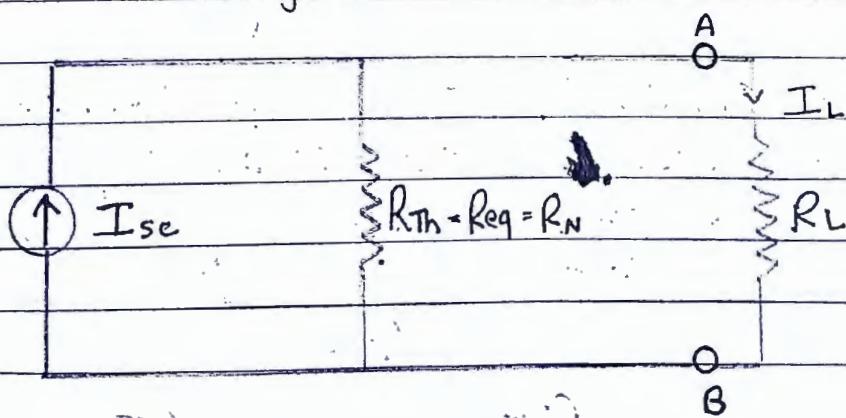
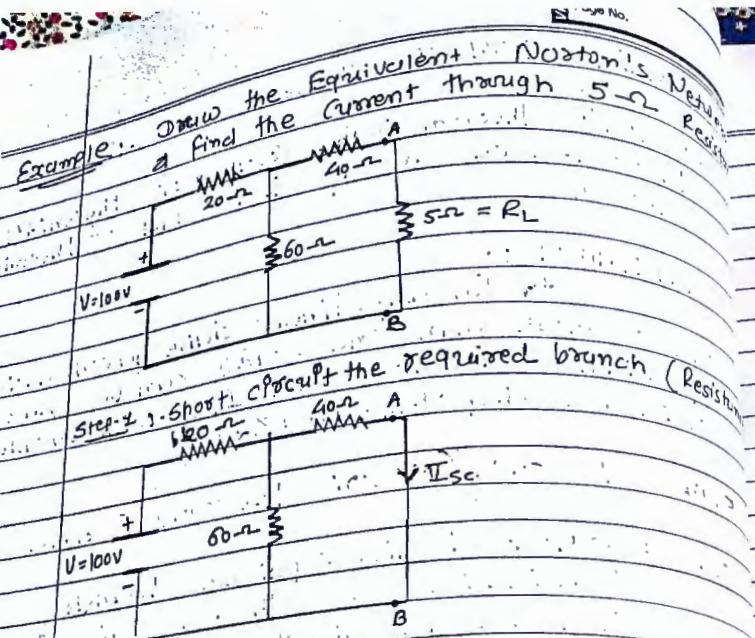


Figure shows Norton's equivalent circuit.

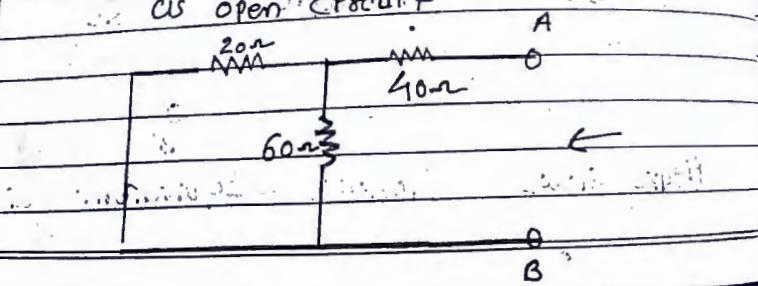


Step-2: calculate  $I_{Sc}$  (short circuit current)

Total Current  $I = \frac{V}{R_{Total}} = \frac{100}{(40 \parallel 60) + 20}$

$$I_{Sc} = \frac{I \cdot 60}{60 + 40} = \frac{2.27 \times 60}{100} = 1.36A$$

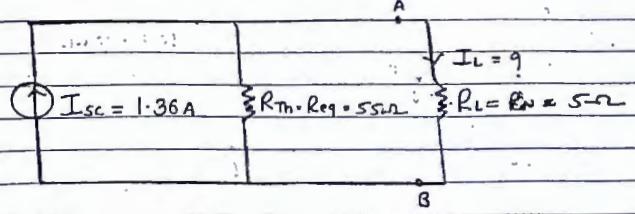
Step-3: Obtain  $R_{Req} = R_{Th}$  by replacing Voltage source as shortcircuit & Current source as open circuit



Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

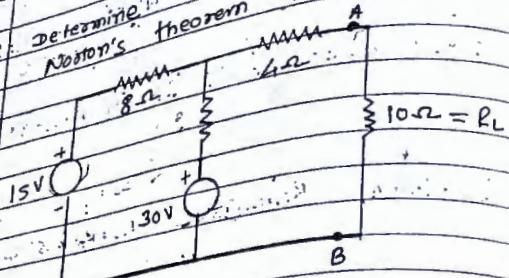
$$R_{Th} = R_{Req} = 40 + (20 \parallel 60) = 40 + \frac{20 \times 60}{20+60} = 55\Omega$$

Step-4: Draw equivalent circuit for Norton's theorem



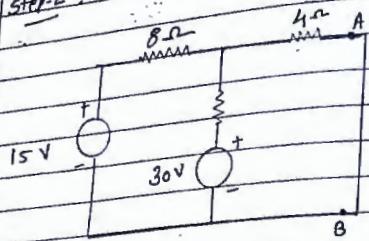
$$I_L = I_{Sc} \cdot \frac{R_{Th}}{R_{Th} + R_L} = 1.36 \cdot \frac{55}{55+5} = 1.24A$$

Example: Determine Equivalent in  $10\Omega$  resistance using Norton's theorem in below Network.



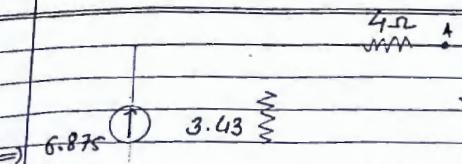
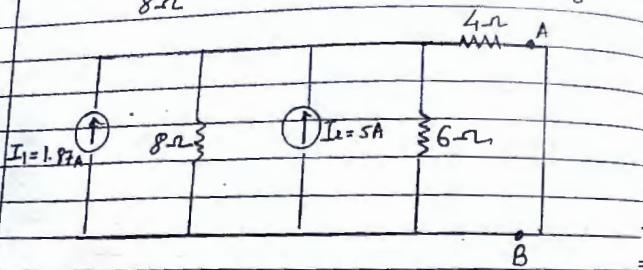
Step-1: Short circuit required branch (Resistance)

Step-2: Calculate  $I_{SC}$



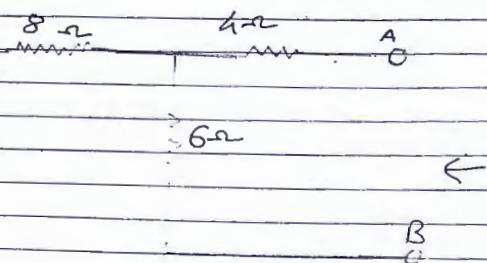
Convert Voltage Sources into Current Sources

$$I_1 = \frac{15}{8} = 1.87 \text{ A} \quad I_2 = \frac{30}{8} = 3.75 \text{ A}$$



$$I_{SC} = \frac{I \cdot 3.43}{3.43 + 4} = 3.17 \text{ A}$$

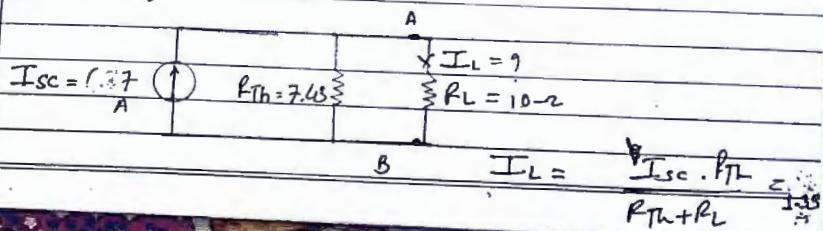
Step-3 Calculate  $R_{TH}$  by Voltage source w/ S/C



$$R_{TH} = R_{eq} = R_N = \left( \frac{8 \times 6}{8+6} \right) + 4 = \frac{8 \times 6}{8+6} + 4 = 7.43 \Omega$$

$$R_{TH} = R_{eq} = R_N = 3.43 + 4 = 7.43 \Omega$$

Step-4 Draw Norton's Equivalent Network & find Current.



## Explain Superposition theorem with Example

### STATEMENT

Response (current or voltage) in any element of linear bilateral network having more than one source can be obtained as the algebraic sum of responses (current or voltage) by individual sources. Keeping other sources as inactive.

- It is used to find out voltage & current.
- It has two main aspects:

- 1) Homogeneity
- 2) Additively property

Following are STEPS to solve the complex network.

STEP-1: Consider Individual Source keeping the voltage source as short circuit & current source as open circuit. Consider the direction & polarities of resp.

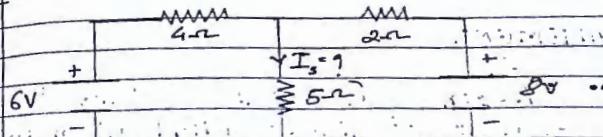
STEP-2: Algebraic sum of Response of individual source.

Response

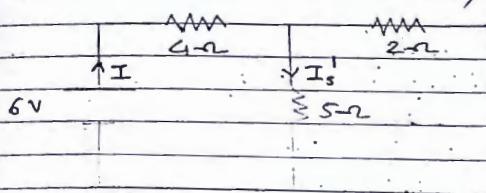
means

- Voltage OR current

Example: Find the Current through  $5\Omega$  resistor



Step-1: Consider the individual source (for 6V) replace voltage source as short circuit a current source as open circuit. Find the response (current) with direction.



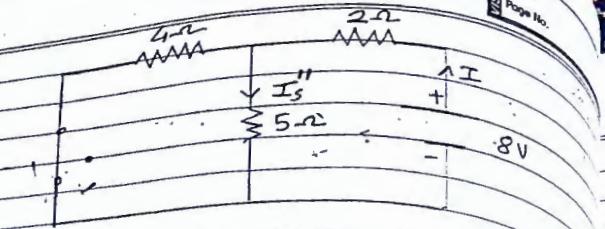
$$I = V = \frac{6}{R} = \frac{6}{4 + (5 \times 2)} = \frac{6}{5 + 2} = \frac{6}{7} = 0.857$$

$$I = 1.110$$

$$I_s = 1.110 \times \frac{2}{2+5} = 0.317$$

$$I_s = 0.317$$

For 8V



$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{8}{2 + (4||5)} = 8$$

$$I = 1.89 \text{ A}$$

current divider rule

$$I_s'' = 1.89 \times \frac{4}{5+4} = 0.84$$

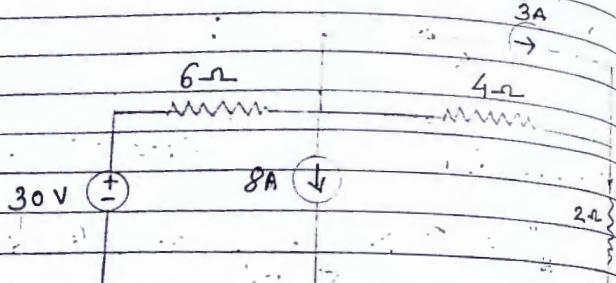
Step 2 Algebraic sum of Response

$$I_s = I_s' + I_s''$$

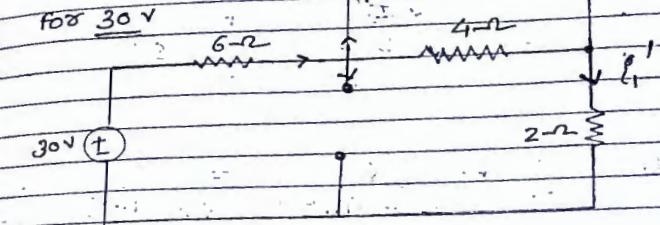
$$= 0.317 + 0.84$$

$$(I_s = 1.15 \text{ A})$$

Example Determine the value of  $I_1$  using theorem in given Network.



STEP - 1



$$30V (+)$$

$$30V (-)$$

$$I_1'$$

$$2\Omega$$

$$4\Omega$$

$$6\Omega$$

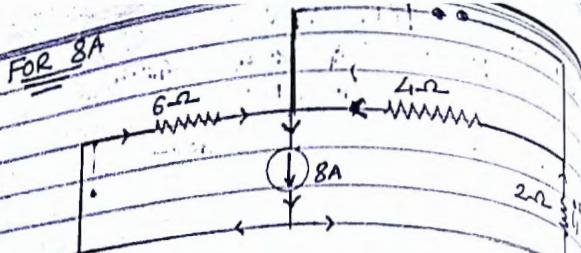
$$30V$$

$$I_1'$$

$$2\Omega$$

$$4\Omega$$

$$6\Omega$$



From the figure  $4+2 = 6\Omega$ ,

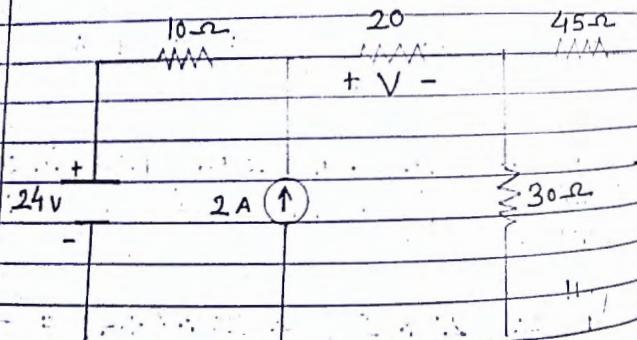
$$I_{111} = 8 \times \frac{6}{6+6} = 4A \Rightarrow I_1 =$$

STEP-2: Sum of Algebraic response

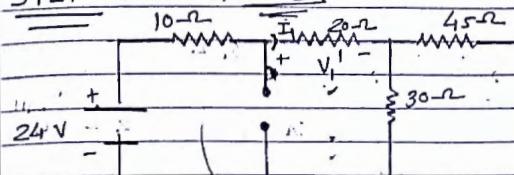
$$\begin{aligned} I_1 &= I_1^{(1)} + I_2^{(2)} + I_3^{(3)} \\ &= 2.5 + 1 + 4 \\ &= -0.5 A \end{aligned}$$

$$I_1 = -0.5 A$$

Example: Find the value of  $V$  across  $20\Omega$  given network with Superposition theorem



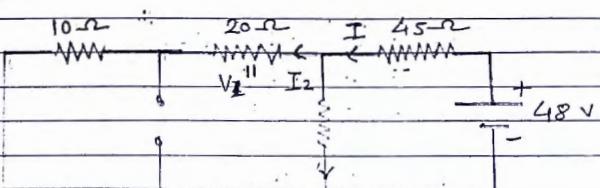
STEP-1 FOR 24V



$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{24}{10+20+(45||30)} = 0.5 A$$

$$V_1^{(1)} = 20 \times I_1 = 20 \times 0.5 = 10 V$$

FOR 48V

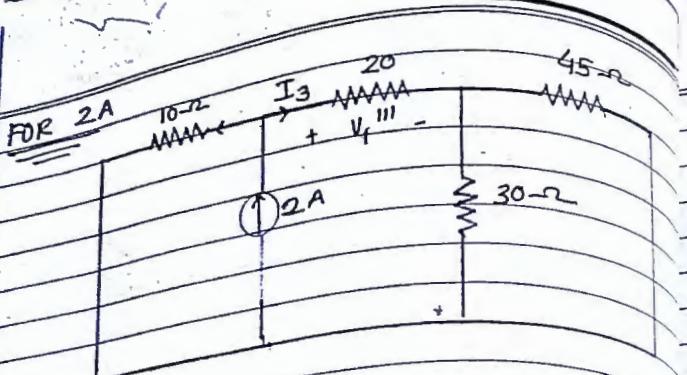


$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{48}{45 + [30 || \{10+20\}]} = \frac{48}{60} = 0.8 A$$

$$I_2 = \frac{0.8 \times 30}{30+20} = -0.4 A$$

AS current through  $20\Omega$  flows in opposite direction from the reference direction shown for  $V$

$$V_1^{(2)} = 20 \times I_2 = 20 \times (-0.4) = -8 V$$



$$I_3 = \frac{2 \times 10}{10 + [20 + \frac{45}{30}]} = \frac{2 \times 10}{10 + 18} = \frac{5}{12} = 0.416$$

STEP-3

$$V_1^{III} = 20 \times I_3 = 20 \times 0.416 = 8.33$$

$$V = V_1^{II} + V_1^{III}$$

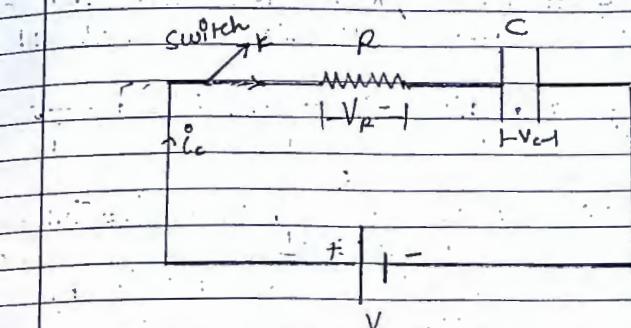
$$= 10 + (-8) + 8.33$$

$$V = 10.32 \text{ V}$$

\* Devise the charging Voltage equation

(OR)

- \* Prove that  $V_C = V [1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}]$  (OR)
- \* Explain first order RC circuit



→ If any one storing Energy element (C OR L) is connected with Resistance then it is first order system

→ As shown in figure when switch K is closed, Capacitor C can be charged through Resistance R from the Supply Voltage V (Battery)

→ Initially charge on Capacitor C is zero at  $t=0$  time

→ As R & C are connected in series, The applied Voltage (V)

$$V = V_R + V_C$$

$$V = I_R + V_C$$

$$V = \frac{dq}{dt} \cdot R + V_C$$

$$V = \frac{d(CV_C)}{dt} \cdot R + V_C$$

$$V = \frac{d}{dt} (CVR) + V_C$$

$V_C$  = Voltage across Capacitor

$V_R$  = Voltage across Resistor

$I_C$  = Charging Current

$$I_C = \frac{dq}{dt}$$

$$q = CV_C$$

$$V - V_c = RC \frac{dV_c}{dt} \rightarrow \frac{V - V_c}{dV_c} = \frac{RC}{dt}$$

rearrange step

$$\frac{dV_c}{V - V_c} = \frac{dt}{RC}, \text{ now take integration}$$

$$-\int \frac{dV_c}{V - V_c} = -\int \frac{dt}{RC} \rightarrow -[-\ln(V - V_c)] = -\frac{t}{RC}$$

$$\ln(V - V_c) = -\frac{t}{RC} + K \quad \text{where, } K = \text{Int. const.}$$

→ To find the value of  $K$  put initial condition in equation no. 1 at initial condition  $t=0$ , hence

$$\ln(V - 0) = 0 + K \Rightarrow K = \ln V$$

Put the value of  $K$  (eq. no. 2) in to eq. no. 1

$$\ln(V - V_c) = -\frac{t}{RC} + \ln V$$

$$\ln(V - V_c) - \ln V = -\frac{t}{RC} \Rightarrow \ln\left(\frac{V - V_c}{V}\right) = -\frac{t}{RC}$$

$$\frac{V - V_c}{V} = e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} \Rightarrow V - V_c = V \cdot e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}$$

$$V_c = V - V \cdot e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}$$

$$V_c = V [1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}] \quad \dots \text{eq. 3}$$

Now  $RC$  is called Time constant of circuit It can be denoted by  $\lambda$ .  $\therefore \lambda = RC$

$$V_c = V(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda}}) \quad \dots \text{eq. 4}$$

→ from the above equation  $V$  &  $\lambda$  are constants equation shows relation between  $V_c$  &  $t$

if we substitute  $t = \lambda = RC$  in equation (4)

$$V_c = V(1 - e^{-\frac{\lambda}{\lambda}}) = V(1 - e^0)$$

$$V_c = V\left(1 - \frac{1}{e}\right) \Rightarrow V_c = V\left(1 - \frac{1}{2.718}\right)$$

$$V_c = 0.632V$$

→ When  $t = RC = \lambda$  Voltage across Capacitor (Charging Voltage  $V_c$ ) becomes  $0.632V$

Definition of Time Constant for charging the capacitor

"Time during which Voltage across Capacitor (Charging Voltage  $V_c$ ) becomes  $63.2\% \text{ of final steady state voltage}$ "

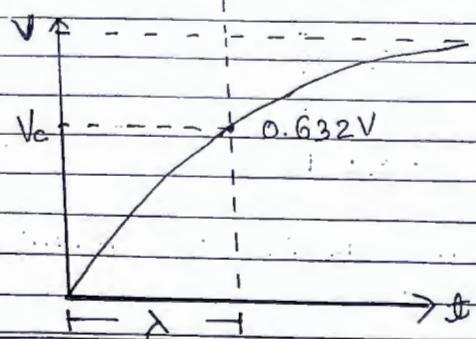


fig: Charging of Capacitor

Charging current  $I_c$

$$I_c = I_m e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda}} \quad \text{where } I_m = \frac{V}{R}$$

if  $t = \lambda = RC$ , put this value in eqn

$$I_c = I_m e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} = I_m e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda}}$$

$$I_c = I_m \left[ \frac{1}{e} \right] = I_m \left[ \frac{1}{2.718} \right]$$

$$I_c = 0.367 I_m$$

Time Constant:

Time during which charging current decrease to 0.37 of its initial value

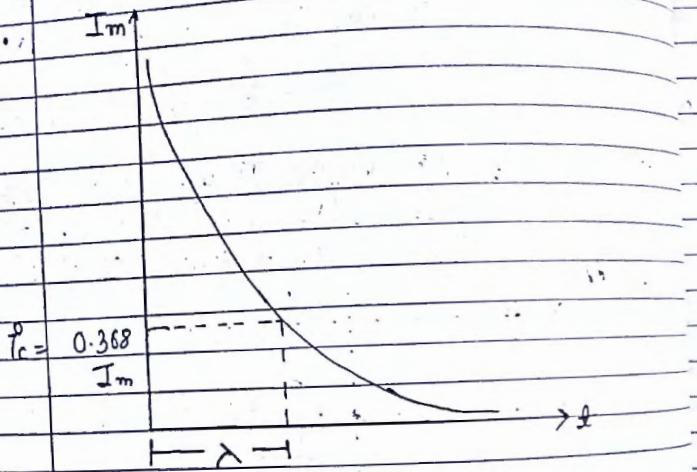


fig: charging of capacitor

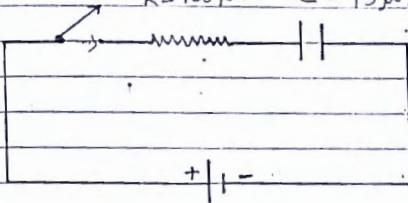
Example

Capacitor of  $15\text{ }\mu\text{F}$  is connected in series with resistor of  $100\text{k}\Omega$ . The combination is given  $200\text{V}$  d.c supply.

Find:

- Time constant
- Time required for voltage across capacitor is  $100\text{V}$
- Voltage across capacitor after  $0.2\text{ sec}$  when switch is close (on)
- Find Initial current
- Value of charging current after  $0.5\text{ sec}$  when switch is close (on)
- Time required for charging current to become  $0.2\text{ mA}$
- Initial Rate of rise of voltage across capacitor

$$R = 100\text{k}\Omega \quad C = 15\text{ }\mu\text{F}$$



$$V = 200\text{V}$$

a) Time Constant  $\lambda = RC$   
 $\lambda = 100 \times 10^3 \times 15 \times 10^{-6} = 1.5\text{ sec}$

b) Time required for Voltage across capacitor is  $100\text{V}$

$$V_c = V [1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}}]$$

$$100 = 200 [1 - e^{-\frac{t}{1.5}}]$$

$$\frac{100}{200} = [1 - e^{-\frac{t}{1.5}}]$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore 0.5 &= 1 - e^{-t/1.5} \\ \therefore 0.5 - 1 &= -e^{-t/1.5} \\ \therefore -0.5 &= -e^{-t/1.5} \Rightarrow e^{-t/1.5} = 0.5 \\ \therefore -\frac{t}{1.5} &= \ln 0.5 \Rightarrow -\frac{t}{1.5} = -0.693 \\ \therefore -t &= -0.693 \times 1.5 \\ \therefore t &= 1.038 \text{ sec}\end{aligned}$$

c) Voltage across capacitor after 0.2 sec  
switch is closed (on)

$$V_c = V [1 - e^{-t/\tau}]$$

$$V_c = 200 [1 - e^{-0.2/1.5}] = 200 [1 - e^{-0.133}]$$

$$V_c = 24.38 \text{ volt}$$

d) Initial Current or Maximum Current

At initial condition  $V_c = 0$

$$V = V_R + V_C$$

$$V = V_R + 0 \Rightarrow V = V_R$$

$$I_m = I = \frac{V_R}{R} = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{200}{100 \times 10^3} = 2 \times 10^{-3}$$

e) Value of charging current after 0.2 sec when switch is close

$$I = I_m e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$I = 2 \times 10^{-3} \cdot e^{-0.2/1.5} = 1.43 \text{ mA}$$

f) Time required for charging current to 0.2 mA

$$I = I_m e^{-t/\tau} \Rightarrow 0.2 \times 10^{-3} = 2 \times 10^{-3} \cdot e^{-t/1.5}$$

$$\therefore e^{-t/1.5} = 0.1 \Rightarrow -\frac{t}{1.5} = \ln 0.1$$

$$\therefore -\frac{t}{1.5} = -2.30 \Rightarrow t = 2.30 \times 1.5$$

$$t = 3.45 \text{ sec}$$

g) Initial Rate of rise of voltage across capacitor

$$\left( \frac{dV_c}{dt} \right)_{t=0} = \frac{V}{RC} = \frac{200}{1.5} = 133.33 \text{ V/s}$$



$$V_R = V[1 - e^{-\frac{Rt}{L}}]$$

$$I = \frac{V}{R} [1 - e^{-\frac{Rt}{L}}]$$

$$I = I_m [1 - e^{-\frac{Rt}{L}}] \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$\lambda = \text{Time Constant} \therefore \lambda = \frac{L}{R} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{R}{L}$$

$$I = I_m [1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda}}] \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

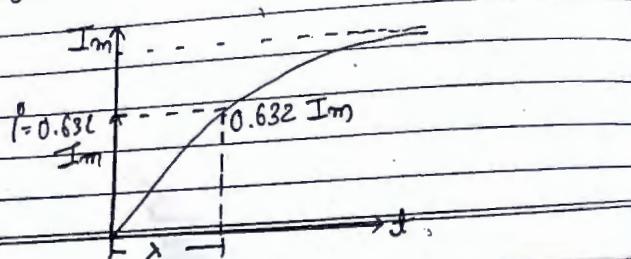
Now take  $t = \lambda$  & put in equation No.

$$I = I_m [1 - e^{-\frac{\lambda}{\lambda}}] = I_m [1 - e^{-1}]$$

$$I = 0.632 I_m$$

Time conston is defined as

63.2% of its maximum value during growth of current in R-L circuit



Example

for given circuit find

- a) Time constant      b) Current after 5 m sec, after switch is closed.

$R = 1 \text{ k}\Omega \quad L = 10 \text{ H}$

$V = 20 \text{ V}$

c) Time constant

$$\lambda = \frac{L}{R} = \frac{10}{1000} = 0.01 \text{ sec} = 10 \text{ msec}$$

b) Current after 5 m sec when switch is closed

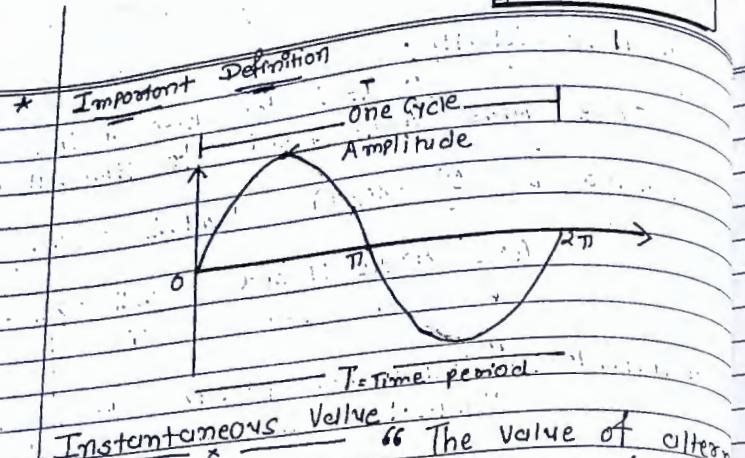
$$I = I_m (1 - e^{-\frac{5}{10}})$$

$$I_m = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{20}{1000} = 0.02 \text{ A}$$

$$I_m = 20 \text{ mA}$$

$$I = 20 (1 - e^{-\frac{5}{10}}) = 20 (1 - e^{-0.5})$$

$$I = 7.86 \text{ mA}$$



Instantaneous Value :- "The value of alternating quantity (e.g. e.m.f., voltage, current, flux) at particular instant is called Instantaneous Value."

Cycle :- "Cycle is defined as One complete set of positive & negative values of alternating quantity." Unit is Radian

Frequency :- "Number of cycles per second of an alternating quantity"

denoted by  $f$  & Unit is Hz (Hertz)  
 $f = \frac{1}{T}$  where  $T = \text{Time}$

Time period :- "Time required to complete one cycle of an alternating quantity"

denoted by  $T$ , Unit is sec  
 $T = \frac{1}{f}$

Angular Velocity :-

"It is the Ratio of the Cycle Spans (Angle turned) to Time taken"

denoted by  $\omega$  (Omega) Unit is radians/second

$$\omega = \text{Angle turned} = \frac{\theta}{T} = \frac{\theta}{\frac{1}{f}} = \theta f$$

Amplitude :- "Maximum positive OR negative Value of Alternating quantity."

R.M.S Value OR Effective Value OR Active Value

"The value of D.C (Direct Current) or Steady Current flowing through the given circuit for given time produces the same Heating effect as produced by alternating quantity for same circuit & time."

R.M.S Ps Root means square

$$\text{e.g. } I_{r.m.s} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 I_m$$

Average Value OR Mean Value

"The value of D.C which transfer the same charge as transferred by alternating quantity in same circuit & time."

Average Value = Area under the curve length of base of curve

$$I_{av} = \frac{\sqrt{2} I_m}{\pi} = 0.637 I_m$$

Form Factor :- "It is the ratio of R.M.S Value to Average Value"

Form factor is denoted by,  $K_f$

$$K_f = \frac{\text{R.M.S}}{\text{Average}} = \frac{0.707 I_m}{0.637 I_m}$$

$$K_f = 1.11$$

Crest Factor OR Peak factor OR Amplification Factor

"Ratio of Peak Value to R.M.S Value"

denoted by  $K_p$

$$K_p = \frac{I_m}{0.707 I_m} \frac{(\text{Peak Value})}{(\text{R.M.S Value})} = 1.414$$

$$K_p = 1.414$$

Active Power

"Power drawn by circuit component of current ( $I \cos \phi$ ) is called Active power"

Denoted by  $P$ ,  $P = VI \cos \phi$ , Unit is Watt  $\text{W} \text{ KW}$

Reactive power :-

"Power drawn due to reactive component ( $I \sin \phi$ ) is called Reactive power"

denoted by  $Q$ , Unit KVA

$$Q = VI \sin \phi \quad (\text{OR}) \quad Q = I^2 X$$

Apparent power :-

"Total power in the circuit is called Apparent power"

denoted by  $S$ , Unit is KVA (Volts Ampere)

$$S = VI$$

### \* Generation of E.M.F in A.C

Prove that OR  $E = Em \sin \theta$  OR  $e = Em \sin \theta$

→ Alternating E.M.F can be generated by the following methods:

- 1) Rotating conductor (coil) in Magnetic field.
- 2) Conductor (coil) in rotating Magnetic field.

→ Alternating quantity always changes its magnitude & direction with time as per Faraday's Law of Electromagnetic Induction.

$$e = -N \frac{d\phi}{dt} \quad \text{(1)}$$

→ The Magnitude of Voltage depends on

- 1) No. of turns in coil.
- 2) Strength of Magnetic field.
- 3) Speed of Rotating Coil.

→ Consider rectangular coil having  $N$  turns rotating in anticlockwise direction with angular velocity  $\omega$  (Radian/second) in Uniform magnetic field.

→ Let  $\phi_m$  (Maximum flux) cutting by the coil when its axis coincides with XX' axis take it as Reference line.

→ When the coil is along YY' or coin flux linking = 0

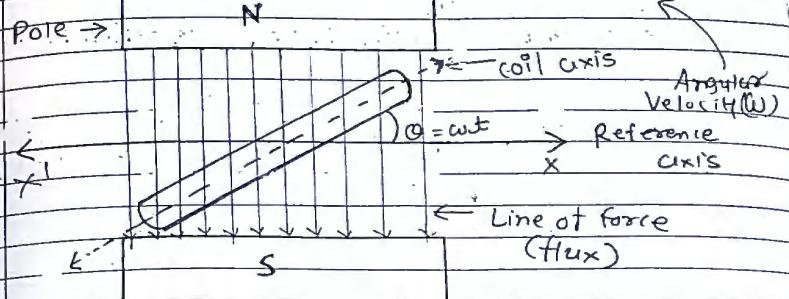


Fig:- a

→ From the fig. a, coil rotates in anticlockwise direction from its reference position.

→ In this position component of flux perpendicular to plane of coil. so flux linking in the coil

$$\phi = \phi_m \cos \theta \quad \text{(2)}$$

Angle  $\theta$  through which coil has rotated  $t$  seconds

$$\theta = \omega t \quad \text{(3)}$$

→ put the value (2) & (3) in equation

No. I

$$e = -N \frac{d\phi}{dt} = -N \frac{d}{dt} (\phi_m \cos \omega t)$$

$$e = -N\phi_m (-\sin \omega t, \omega)$$

$$e = N\phi_m \omega \sin \omega t \quad (\because \theta = \omega t)$$

$$e = N\phi_m \omega \sin \theta$$

$\Rightarrow e$  (Magnitude of voltage is maximum at  $\theta = 90^\circ$ )

$$\theta = N\phi_m \omega \sin(90^\circ)$$

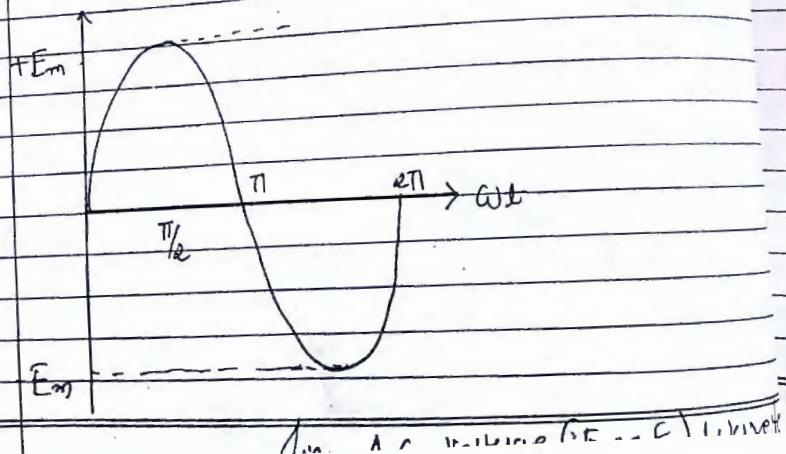
$$E_m = N\phi_m \omega$$

put value of eq no. (5) in to (4)

$$e = E_m \sin \theta$$

$$e = E_m \sin \omega t$$

→ By varying angle  $\theta$  from 0 to  $2\pi$  get sinusoidal E.M.F



→ at  $\theta = 90^\circ = \frac{\pi}{2}$  E.M.F is Maximum.

→ at  $\theta = 0 = 0 = 180^\circ$  E.M.F is Zero

Date : \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

Derive R.M.S value of AC Voltage OR  
 or Prove that  $I_{R.M.S} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 I_m$   
 or  $V_{R.M.S} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 V_m$   
 Derive R.M.S. Value by Analytical Method OR Integration Method

→ Heat produced by an alternating current of instantaneous value  $i^2$  in resistor  $R$  in time  $dt$  is  $i^2 R dt$

$$H.a.c = \int_0^{T/2} i^2 R dt$$

→ Heat produced by direct current  $I$  some resistor  $R$  in time  $T$

$$H.d.c = \frac{I^2 R T}{2}$$

→ By definition of R.M.S value

$$H.d.c = H.a.c$$

$$H.d.c = \frac{I^2 R T}{2} = \int_0^{T/2} i^2 R dt$$

$$H.d.c = R \int_0^{T/2} i^2 dt$$

$$H.d.c = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^{T/2} i^2 dt$$

$$H.d.c = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^{T/2} i^2 dt \quad \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

→ We know that  $i = I_m \sin \omega t$  and  $T = 2\pi/\omega$   
 put in equation (1)

$$I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{T/2} I_m \sin \omega t \cdot d\omega \quad (\because \sin \omega t = \frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2})$$

$$I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \times 2} \int_0^{T/2} I_m \left( \frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2} \right) d\omega$$

$$I = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2\pi} \times 2} \int_0^{T/2} (1 - \cos 2\omega t) d\omega$$

$$I = \frac{I_m}{4\pi} \int_0^{T/2} (1 - \cos 2\omega t) d\omega$$

$$I = \frac{I_m}{4\pi} \left[ \omega - \frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2} \right]_0^{T/2}$$

$$I = \frac{I_m}{4\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{T\pi}{2} - 0 \right) - \left( 0 - \frac{\sin(2\pi)}{2} \right) \right] = \left[ \frac{T\pi}{2} - 0 \right]$$

$$I = \frac{I_m}{4\pi} \left[ (2\pi - 0) - (0 - 0) \right]$$

$$I = \sqrt{\frac{I_m \times 2\pi}{4\pi}} = \sqrt{\frac{I_m}{2}}$$

$$I_{R.m.s} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 I_m$$

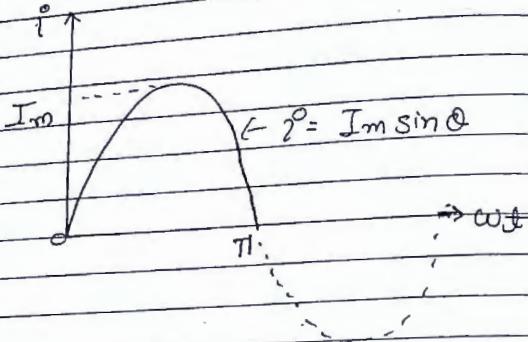
Q- Derive the expression of Average Value of A.C Voltage of Current

OR  
 $V_{av} = \frac{2}{\pi} V_m = 0.637 V_m$

Prove that  $I_{av} = 0.637 I_m$  OR  $I_{av} =$

(Q)  
 Derive the Average Value of A.C Voltage by Analytical or Integration Method.

→ The Average Value of symmetrical wave is obtained by considering only half cycle.



Average Value = Area Under the Curve  
 length of base of curve

$$I_{av} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T i(t) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T I_m \sin \omega t dt$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{T} \int_0^T \sin \omega t dt$$

$$= \frac{I_m}{T} \left[ -\cos \omega t \right]_0^T$$

$$= -\frac{I_m}{T} \left[ \cos \omega T \right]_0^T$$

$$= -\frac{I_m}{T} \left[ (\cos \pi) - (\cos 0) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{I_m}{T} [-1 - 1]$$

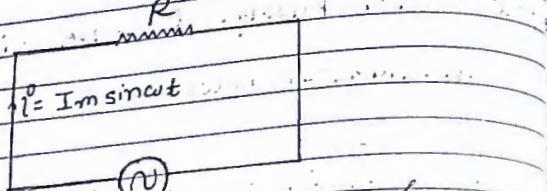
$$= -\frac{I_m}{T} [-2]$$

$$I_{av} = \frac{2I_m}{\pi} = 0.637 I_m$$

Q) Explain (a) purely resistive circuit & prove that  
 Prove that power in purely resistive circuit  
 $P = V I \sin \omega t$  (b)  $P = VI$

(c) Power factor of purely resistive circuit is  $I$  (Unity)  $\{ \cos \phi = 1 \}$  (d)

→ Consider circuit having  $R$  resistance across the alternating voltage source as shown in figure 1.



→ If supply voltage is  $V = V_m \sin \omega t$  then apply Ohm's law

$$P = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{V_m \sin \omega t}{R} = \frac{V_m}{R} \sin \omega t$$

Now take  $\omega t = \pi/2$  for

$$I = \frac{V_m}{R} \sin(\pi/2) \Rightarrow \left( I, \frac{V_m}{R} \right)$$

$$P = I_m \sin \omega t$$

OR  $P = I_m$

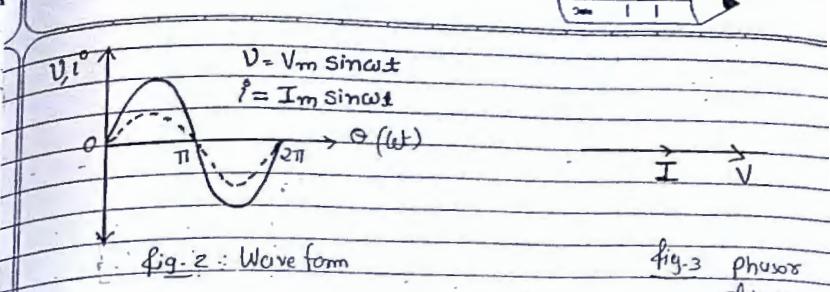


fig. 2 : Wave form

fig. 3 phasor diagram

→ fig. 2 and fig. 3 shows Wave form & phasor diagram of Purely Resistive circuit respectively.

### \* Power in Purely Resistive circuit :-

#### → Instantaneous Power

$$P = V^2 / R$$

$$P = V_m \sin \omega t \cdot I_m \sin \omega t$$

$$P = V_m I_m \sin^2 \omega t$$

$$(\omega t = 0)$$

$$P = V_m I_m \sin^2 \omega t$$

#### → Average power

$$P = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} P \, d\omega t$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} V_m I_m \sin^2 \omega t \, d\omega t$$

$$= \frac{V_m I_m}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 \omega t \, d\omega t$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{V_m I_m}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \left( 1 - \cos 2\phi \right) d\phi \\
 &= \frac{V_m I_m}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \left( 1 - \cos 2\phi \right) d\phi \\
 &= \frac{V_m I_m}{4\pi} \left[ \phi - \frac{\sin 2\phi}{2} \right]_0^{\pi} \\
 &= \frac{V_m I_m}{4\pi} \left[ \pi - 0 \right] = \frac{\pi V_m I_m}{4\pi} = \frac{V_m I_m}{4}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{V_m I_m}{4\pi} \left[ (\pi - 0) - (0 - 0) \right]$$

$$= \frac{V_m I_m \times R\pi}{4\pi}$$

$$= \frac{V_m I_m}{2}$$

$$P = \frac{V_m I_m}{2}$$

$$P = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \left( V = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}, I = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$P = V \cdot I \quad \text{OR} \quad P = V_{\text{r.m.s.}} I_{\text{r.m.s.}}$$

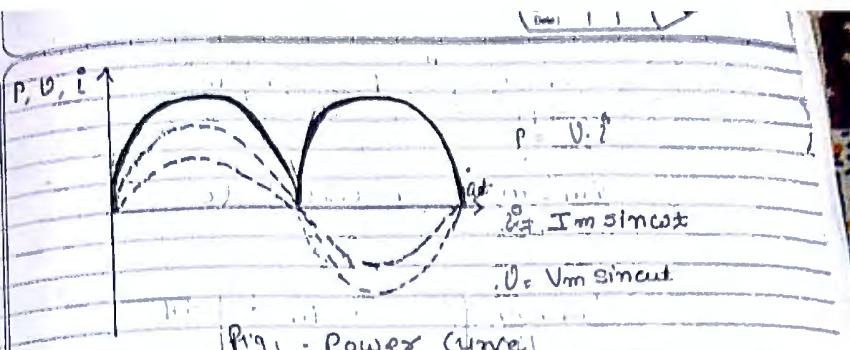


Fig. - Power curve.

Power-factor :-

Power factor is the cosine angle between voltage and current.

→ In purely resistive circuit, phase angle ( $\phi$ ) between voltage and current is zero

$$\phi = 0$$

$$P.f = \cos \phi$$

$$P.f = \cos(0^\circ) = 1$$

→ Power factor of purely resistive circuit is Unity (1)

→ So in purely resistive circuit current and voltage are in-phase.

Q - Explain purely Inductive circuit  
 Prove that  $P = I_m \sin(\omega t - \pi/2)$  and  $\cos\phi = 0$   
 Derive & prove that Power in purely circuit is zero, ( $P = 0$ )  
 OR Power factor in purely Inductive circuit is lagging, and current lags behind voltage by  $\pi/2$ .

Fig.: Circuit diagram  
 At  $t = 0$ ,  $V = V_m \sin \omega t$   
 → Voltage is applied to circuit to produce flux. Due to this  
 → Self Induced E.M.F at any instant is given by

$$e = -L \frac{di}{dt}$$

→ Applied Voltage is opposite to self E.M.F at any instant.

Applied Voltage = -self Induced E.M.F  
 $V = -e$   
 $V_m \sin \omega t = -(-L \frac{di}{dt})$

$$\therefore V_m \sin \omega t = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

$$\therefore di = \frac{1}{L} V_m \sin \omega t \, dt$$

Take the integration both side

$$\int di = \int \frac{1}{L} V_m \sin \omega t \, dt$$

$$I = \frac{V_m}{L} \int \sin \omega t \, dt$$

$$I = \frac{V_m}{L} \left( -\frac{\cos \omega t}{\omega} \right) = -\frac{V_m}{\omega L} (\cos \omega t)$$

$$I = -\frac{V_m}{\omega L} \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \omega t \right) = -\frac{V_m}{\omega L} \sin \left( -(\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2}) \right)$$

$$I = \frac{V_m}{\omega L} \sin \left( \omega t - \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$$

→ for Maximum value  $\omega t = \pi/2$

$$I = \frac{V_m}{\omega L} \sin \left( \pi - \frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \frac{V_m}{\omega L} \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$$

$$\therefore I_m = \frac{V_m}{\omega L} = \frac{V_m}{2\pi f L}$$

$$\therefore \sin \frac{\pi}{2} = I$$

$$I = I_m \sin \left( \omega t - \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$$

From the above equation Current lags the voltage. power factor angle  $\phi = 90^\circ$   
 power factor =  $\cos(\phi) = \cos(90^\circ) = 0$

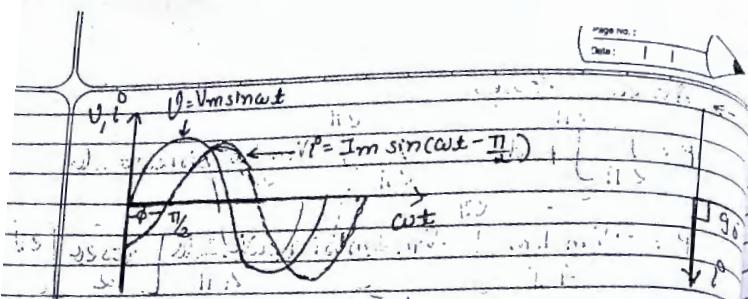


fig.2: Wave form

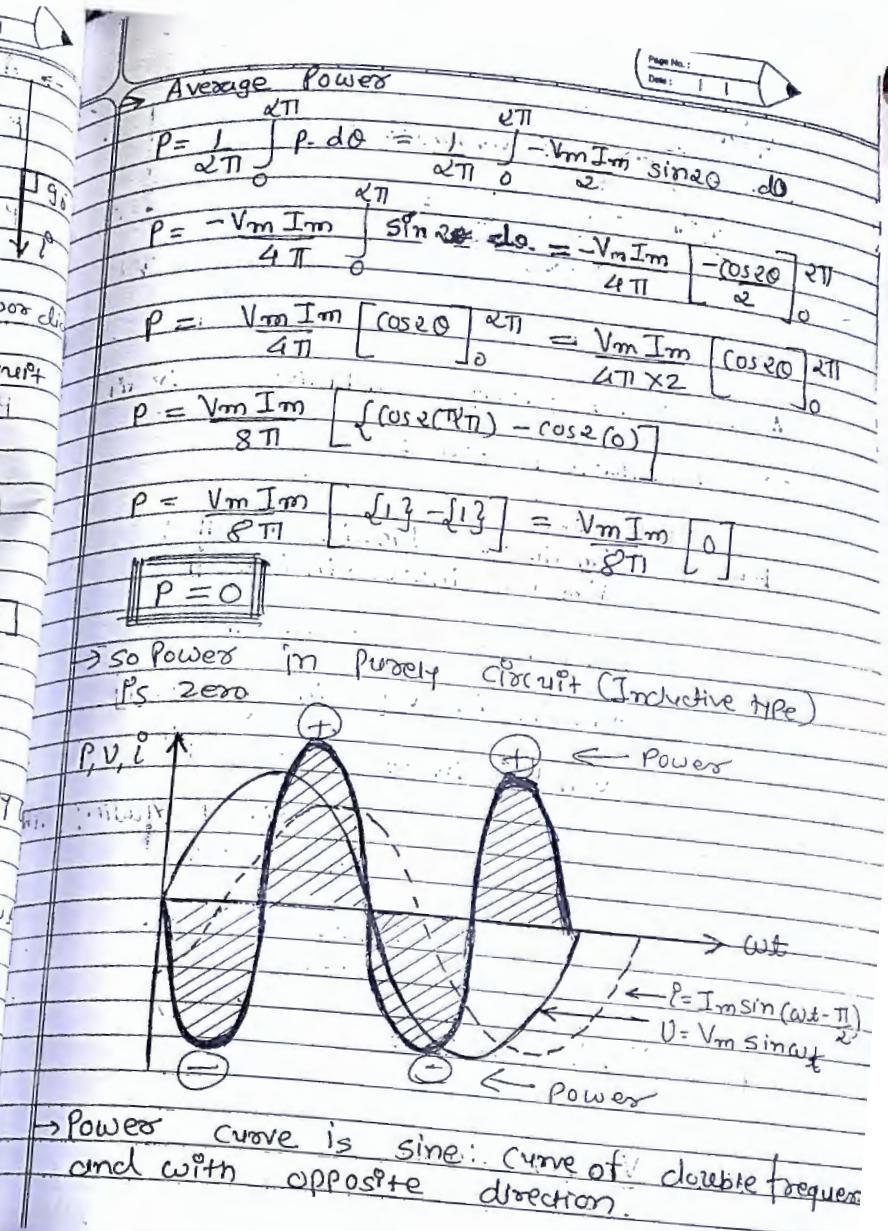
fig:3 phasor diagram

### \* Power In Purely Inductive Circuit

→ Instantaneous powers

$$\begin{aligned}
 P &= V \cdot I \cdot \cos \theta \\
 \text{But } P &= V_m \sin \omega t \cdot I_m \sin (\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2}) \\
 &= V_m I_m \sin \omega t \cdot \sin (\omega t - \frac{\pi}{2}) \\
 &= V_m I_m \sin \omega t [-\sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - \omega t)] \\
 &= -V_m I_m \sin \omega t [\sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - \omega t)] \\
 &= -V_m I_m \sin \omega t \cos \omega t \\
 &\quad \left( \therefore \text{divide by } 2 \text{ and multiply by } 2 \right) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \times 2 V_m I_m \sin \omega t \cdot \cos \omega t \\
 &\quad \left( \because \sin \omega t = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\omega t \cdot \cos \omega t \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \therefore \omega t = 0 \right) \\
 &= -V_m I_m \sin 2\omega t
 \end{aligned}$$

$$P = -\frac{V_m I_m}{2} \sin \omega t$$



Q- Explain Purely Capacitive Circuit.

OR prove that Power factor is leading current by  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  in purely capacitive circuit,  $P=0$  prove it.

ANS

Fig.: Circuit diagram

Let the Applied Voltage  $V = V_m \sin \omega t$

and  $q = CV$   $(V = V_m \sin \omega t)$

$q = CV_m \sin \omega t$

But  $i = \frac{dq}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} [CV_m \sin \omega t]$

$i = CV_m \frac{d}{dt} (\sin \omega t)$

$= CV_m (\cos \omega t \cdot \omega)$

$= \omega C V_m (\cos \omega t)$

$= \frac{V_m}{X_C} \cos \omega t$

$i = \frac{V_m}{X_C} \cos \omega t \quad (X_C = \frac{1}{\omega C})$

$i = \frac{V_m \cos \omega t}{X_C} = \frac{V_m \sin (\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2})}{X_C}$

$\therefore i_m = \frac{V_m}{X_C}$

$i = I_m \sin (\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2})$

→ Current leads the Voltage by  $90^\circ$

$\phi = 90^\circ$

Power factor (P.f)  $= \cos \phi \Rightarrow P.f = \cos (90^\circ) = 0$

Fig.: Waveform

Phasor diagram

$V = V_m \sin \omega t$

$i = I_m \sin (\omega t + \frac{\pi}{2})$

Now Multiply & divide with  $\frac{1}{\omega L}$

$$P = \frac{V_m I_m}{2} \sin \omega t \cdot \cos \omega t \quad (\because \omega t = 0)$$

$$P = \frac{V_m I_m}{2} \cdot 2 \sin \omega t \cdot \cos \omega t = \frac{V_m I_m}{2} \sin 2\omega t$$

$\Rightarrow$  Average Power

$$P = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} P \cdot d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{V_m I_m}{2} \sin 2\omega \cdot d\omega$$

$$P = \frac{V_m I_m}{2\pi \times 2} \int_0^{2\pi} \sin 2\omega \cdot d\omega$$

$$P = \frac{V_m I_m}{4\pi} \left[ -\frac{\cos 2\omega}{2} \right]_0^{2\pi} = \frac{V_m I_m}{8\pi} [0]$$

$$P = -\frac{V_m I_m}{8\pi} \left[ \cos 2\omega \right]_0^{2\pi}$$

$$P = -\frac{V_m I_m}{8\pi} \left[ \{ \cos 2(2\pi) \} - \{ \cos 0 \} \right]$$

$$P = -\frac{V_m I_m}{8\pi} \left[ \{ \cos 4\pi \} - \{ \cos 0 \} \right]$$

$$P = -\frac{V_m I_m}{8\pi} [1 - 1] = -\frac{V_m I_m}{8\pi} [0]$$

$$\boxed{P=0}$$

$\rightarrow$  So Power in purely Capacitive circuit is

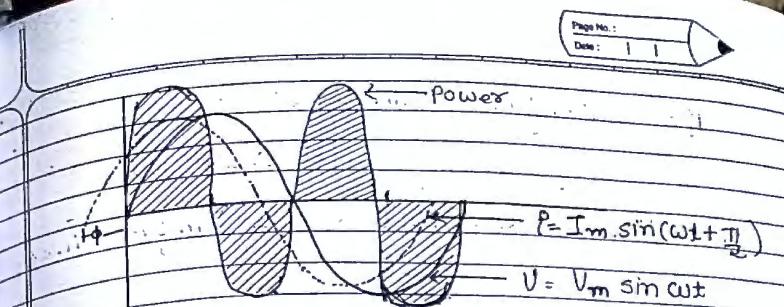
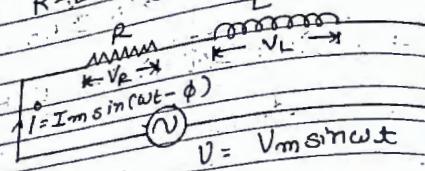


Fig. Power Curve

Power curve is sine curve of double frequency and with same direction.

### Explaining R-L series circuit



$$V = V_m \sin \omega t$$

$V = V_m \sin \omega t$  = Applied Voltage.

$V_m$  = RMS Value of Applied Voltage

$I$  = R.M.S Value of Resultant Current

$V_R = IR$  = Voltage across Resistor R

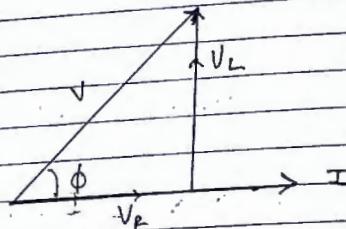
$V_L = IX_L$  = Voltage across inductor L

→ Due to series connection Current I

Same

→ Current lags the Voltage  $V_L$  by  $90^\circ$

Current in phase with  $V_R$  by  $0^\circ$



From Phasor diagram

$$\vec{V} = \vec{V}_R + \vec{V}_L$$

$$\therefore V = \sqrt{V_R^2 + V_L^2} \Rightarrow V = \sqrt{(IR)^2 + (IX_L)^2}$$

$$\therefore V = \sqrt{I^2 R^2 + I^2 X_L^2} \Rightarrow V = I \sqrt{R^2 + X_L^2}$$

$$\therefore V = I \sqrt{R^2 + X_L^2}$$

$$\therefore \frac{V}{I} = \sqrt{R^2 + X_L^2}$$

$$\therefore Z = \sqrt{R^2 + X_L^2}$$

→ from the phasor diagram

$$\tan \phi = \frac{V_L}{V_R} = \frac{IX_L}{IR} = \frac{X_L}{R}$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{X_L}{R}$$

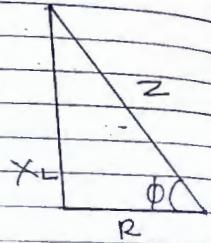
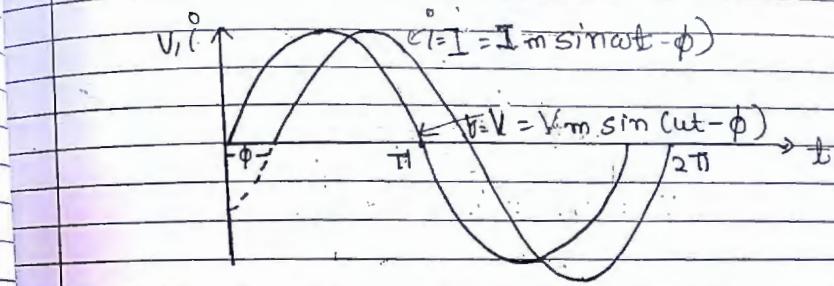


fig.: Impedance Triangle

### Current & Voltage Waveform



$$2SS = C - C \Rightarrow 2S(A)SCB = C(A - B) - C$$

$\frac{1}{2} = \sin \phi$   
 $\frac{1}{2} = \cos \phi$

Power in R-L Series circuit

$$U = V_m \sin \omega t$$

$$P = I_m \sin(\omega t - \phi)$$

$$P = VP$$

$$= V_m \sin \omega t \cdot I_m \sin(\omega t - \phi)$$

$$= V_m I_m \sin \omega t \cdot \sin(\omega t - \phi)$$

$$= V_m I_m \frac{1}{2} \sin \omega t \cdot \sin(\omega t - \phi)$$

$$= V_m I_m \frac{1}{2} [ \cos \{\omega t - (\omega t - \phi)\} - \cos \{\omega t + \omega t - \phi\} ]$$

$$= V_m I_m \frac{1}{2} [ \cos \{\omega t - \omega t + \phi\} - \cos \{\omega t + \omega t - \phi\} ]$$

$$= V_m I_m \frac{1}{2} [ \cos \phi - \cos(2\omega t - \phi) ]$$

$$= V_m I_m \frac{1}{2} \cos \phi - V_m I_m \frac{1}{2} \cos(2\omega t - \phi)$$

Constant term

Pulsating term

$\rightarrow V_m I_m \cos \phi$  which is constant term w.r.t respect to time, so it will contribute the power is called as  $R_p$

$\rightarrow V_m I_m \frac{1}{2} \cos(2\omega t - \phi)$  which is pulsating

$\phi$  has twice frequency than of applied voltage & current. It's Average value over complete cycle is zero

so Average power in one cycle

$$P = \frac{V_m I_m \cos \phi}{2} = \frac{V_m I_m \cos \phi}{\sqrt{2} \sqrt{2}}$$

$$P = VI \cos \phi$$

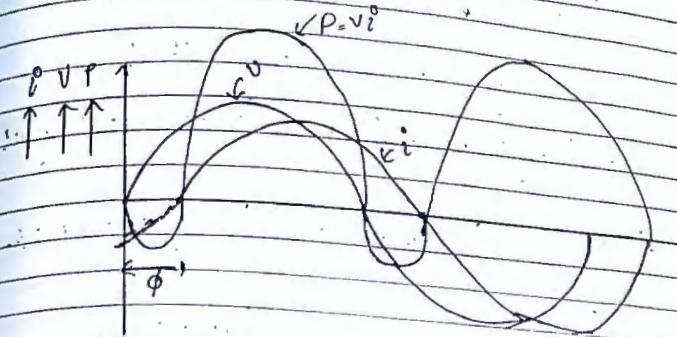
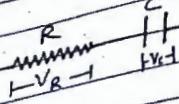


fig: Power, voltage & Current Waveform

\* Explain R-C Circuit

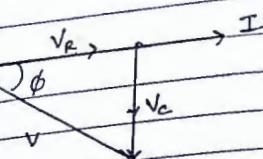


$$V = V_m \sin \omega t$$

$V = V_m \sin \omega t$  = Applied Voltage  
 $P = R.M.S$  value of current

$V_R = IR$ , Voltage across Resistor R  
 $V_C = IX_C$ , Voltage drop across C

→ R-C series circuit has current lead  
Voltage angle  $\phi$



→ The Magnitude of applied voltage

$$\vec{V} = \vec{V}_R + \vec{V}_C$$

$$V = \sqrt{V_R^2 + V_C^2} = \sqrt{(IR)^2 + (IX_C)^2} = IZ$$

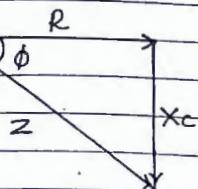
$$\frac{V}{I} = Z = \sqrt{R^2 + X_C^2}$$

→ Form the Phasor Impedance triangle

$$\tan \phi = \frac{V_C}{V_R} = \frac{I X_C}{I R} = \frac{X_C}{R}$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{X_C}{R}$$

→ Impedance triangle



→ Power in R-C series circuit

$$P = VI^2$$

$$= V_m \sin \omega t \cdot I_m \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$= V_m I_m \sin \omega t \cdot \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$= V_m I_m \frac{Z}{Z} \cdot \sin \omega t \cdot \sin(\omega t + \phi) \quad (\because \text{Multiply & divide by } Z)$$

$$= V_m I_m \cdot \frac{2}{2} \sin \omega t \cdot \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$= V_m I_m \left[ \cos \{ \omega t - (\omega t + \phi) \} - \cos \{ \omega t + (\omega t + \phi) \} \right]$$

$$= V_m I_m \left[ \cos \{ \omega t - \omega t - \phi \} - \cos \{ \omega t + \omega t + \phi \} \right]$$

$$= V_m I_m \left[ \cos \{-\phi\} - \cos \{2\omega t + \phi\} \right]$$

$$= \frac{V_m I_m}{2} \left[ \cos \phi - \cos \{2\omega t + \phi\} \right]$$

$$P = \frac{V_m I_m \cos \phi}{2} - \frac{V_m I_m \cos(2\omega t + \phi)}{2}$$

↓  
Constant      Pulsating

→ Constant term  $\frac{V_m I_m \cos \phi}{2}$  is real power

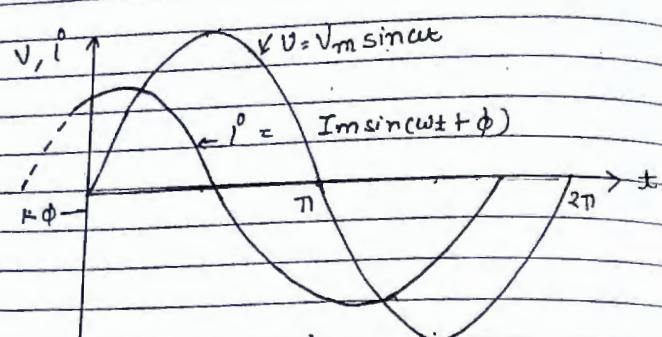
→ Pulsating part  $\frac{V_m I_m \cos(2\omega t + \phi)}{2}$  which has twice frequency due to that value over a complete cycle is 2.

→ So the Average Power.

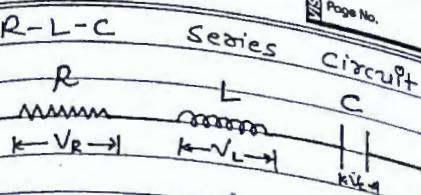
$$P = \frac{V_m I_m \cos \phi}{2}$$

$$P = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \cos \phi$$

$$P = VI \cos \phi$$



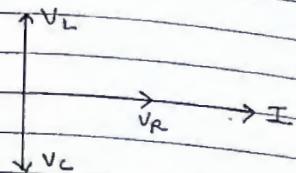
### Explain R-L-C Series Circuit



(v)

$$V = V_m \sin \omega t$$

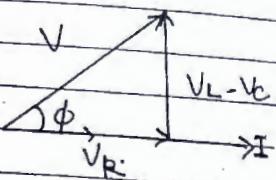
- $V$  = R.M.S Value of applied Voltage
- $I$  = R.M.S Value of resultant Current
- $V_R = IR$  = Voltage drop across  $R$
- $V_L = IX_L$  = Voltage drop across  $L$
- $V_C = IX_C$  = Voltage drop across  $C$



→ Since  $V_L$  &  $V_C$  are in opposition to each other so there are two cases

- i)  $V_L > V_C$
- ii)  $V_C > V_L$

Consider first case  $V_L > V_C$



$$\text{Total Voltage } V = \sqrt{V_R^2 + (V_L - V_C)^2}$$

$$V = \sqrt{(IR)^2 + (IX_L - IX_C)^2}$$

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

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

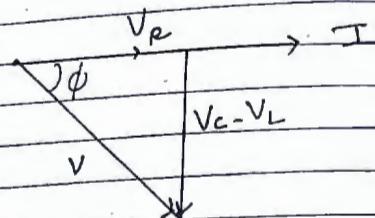
$$\tan \phi = \frac{V_L - V_C}{V_R} = \frac{IX_L - IX_C}{IR}$$

$$\tan \phi = \frac{I(X_L - X_C)}{IR} = \frac{X_L - X_C}{R}$$

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

Consider case  $V_C > V_L$

$$\text{Total Voltage } V = \sqrt{V_R^2 + (V_C - V_L)^2}$$



$$V = \sqrt{(IR)^2 + (IX_C - IX_L)^2} = I \sqrt{R^2 + (X_C - X_L)^2}$$

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

$$\tan \phi = \frac{V_C - V_L}{V_R} = \frac{IX_C - IX_L}{IR}$$

$$\tan \phi = \frac{f(X_C - X_L)}{IR} = \frac{X_C - X_L}{R}$$

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

\* **Expln** Resonance in R-L-C Series  
and derive equation of Resonance freq.  
( $f_r$ ) and Quality factor ( $Q$ ) OR Expln  
Voltage Magnification.

$V = V_{rms} \sin \omega t$

→ Consider R-L-C series circuit connected to variable frequency sinusoidal voltage source.

→ For series R-L-C circuit impedance

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

Resonance :-

"When Inductive reactance ( $X_L$ ) equal to Capacitive reactance ( $X_C$ )"

Resonance frequency ( $f_r$ ) :-

"Frequency at which resonance occurs is called Resonance frequency"

⇒ So, at Resonance,  $X_L = X_C$

$$X_L - X_C = 0$$

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2} = \sqrt{R^2 + (0)^2} = R$$

$$\boxed{Z = R}$$

→ So at Resonance condition impedance circuit becomes minimum

At Resonance Condition, Power factor is unity

$$\cos \phi = \frac{R}{Z} \Rightarrow \cos \phi = \frac{R}{R} \Rightarrow \cos \phi = 1$$

→ For resonant frequency

$$X_L = X_C$$

$$XL = \frac{1}{\omega C}$$

$$2\pi f L = \frac{1}{2\pi f C}$$

$$4\pi^2 f^2 = \frac{1}{LC}$$

$$f^2 = \frac{1}{4\pi^2 LC}$$

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}} = f_r$$

$$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$$

→ Q-factor :-

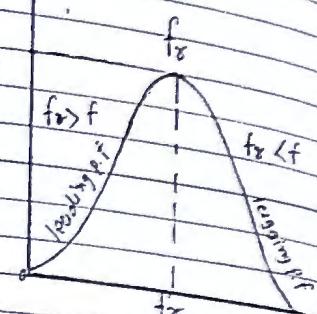
"It is measure of voltage magnification at resonance in R-L-C Series Circuit"

Voltage magnification = Voltage applied across C or L

Applied Voltage

Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

Fig. Resonance frequency



$$Q\text{-factor} = \frac{V_L}{V} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{V_C}{V}$$

$$= \frac{I_m X_L}{I_m Z} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{I_m X_C}{I_m Z}$$

$$= \frac{X_L}{Z} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{X_C}{Z}$$

$\because Z = R$   
at Resonance

$$= \frac{\omega_r L}{R} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{1}{\omega_r R C}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi f_r L}{R} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{1}{2\pi f_r R C}$$

$$\left( \because \frac{f_{r0}}{f_0} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2\pi \times 1 \times L}{2\pi f_r L C R} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{1}{2\pi^2 L C R}$$

$$= \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$

$$Q\text{-Factor} = \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$

→ Q-factor is also defined as Reciprocal of Power factor

$$Q = \frac{1}{\cos \phi} = \frac{1}{P/Z} = \frac{Z}{R}$$

→ Q-factor also known as "Figure of Merit"  
 $Q = \frac{\omega^2 T I}{\text{Maximum Energy Stored} - \text{Energy dissipated per cycle}}$

→ Q-factor for coil (L)

$$Q = \frac{X_L}{R} = \frac{\omega L}{R}$$

→ Q-factor for capacitor (C)

$$Q = \frac{X_C}{R} = \frac{1}{\omega R C}$$

Q1. Explain Resonance in parallel R-L-C circuit and Q-factor (OR)

Inductive coil L and Resistance R is connected in parallel with capacitor C then derive Expression for Resonant frequency  $f_0$  and Q-factors (OR) Explain Current Magnitude

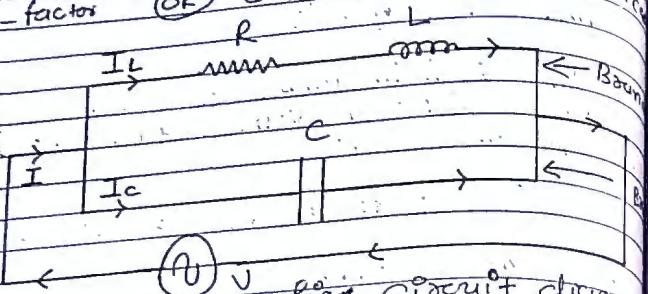


Fig 1. Circuit diagram

→ Resonance occurs in the parallel circuit when  $X_L = X_C$  and power factor  $P.F. = 1$

→ In Branch-1 R-L Series circuit so the current  $(I_L)$  current is lags the Voltage by  $\phi$ .

→ In Branch-2 Capacitor is only connected current  $(I_C)$  is leads the Voltage by

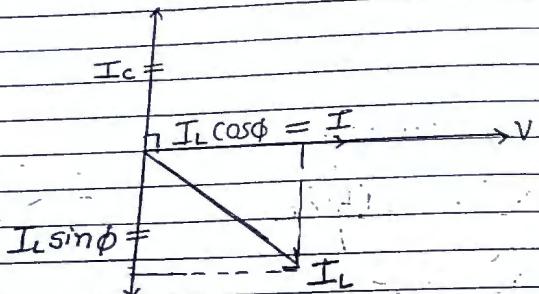


Fig 2. Phasor diagram

From this phasor diagram  $I_L$  has two components

- 1)  $I_L \cos \phi$  on x-axis
- 2)  $I_L \sin \phi$  on y-axis

→ Form the phasor diagram  
 $I_C = I_L \sin \phi$   
 and  $I_L \cos \phi = I$

$I_L \cos \phi$  is in phase with Voltage angle between Voltage and current ( $I_L \cos \phi$ ) becomes zero

$\phi = 0^\circ \Rightarrow$  Power factor  $= \cos \phi \Rightarrow \cos 0^\circ = 1$   
 So At Resonance

$$I_C = I_L \sin \phi$$

$$I_L = \frac{V}{Z_L} \quad \text{and} \quad \sin \phi = \frac{X_L}{Z_L}$$

Put this value in equation (1)

$$I_C = \frac{V \cdot X_L}{Z_L Z_L}$$

$$X_C = \frac{X_L \cdot X_L}{Z_L^2}$$

$$\therefore Z_L = X_L \cdot X_C$$

$$\therefore R + X_L^2 = \omega L^2 / \omega C$$

$$\therefore R + X_L^2 = \frac{L}{C}$$

$$\text{Fig 3. Inverse } \frac{R}{X_C} \text{ diode}$$

$$\therefore X_L = \omega L$$

$$\therefore X_C = \frac{1}{\omega C}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \frac{dI}{dt} &= L - \frac{V}{R} \\ \therefore (2\pi f L) &= L - \frac{V}{R} \\ \therefore (2\pi f L)^2 &= L^2 - \frac{V^2}{R^2} \quad | \text{min} \\ \therefore (2\pi f L) &= \frac{V}{C} \cdot \frac{1}{L} - \frac{V^2}{R^2} \quad | \text{div} \\ \therefore (2\pi f L) &= \frac{1}{LC} - \frac{V^2}{L^2} \\ \therefore f_0 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC} - \frac{V^2}{L^2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC} - \frac{R^2}{L^2}}$$

$\rightarrow Q$ -factor

$\rightarrow Q$ -factor in parallel circuit is (current magnification) at resonance.

$\rightarrow$  we can derive the  $Q$ -factor for the parallel circuit as below

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Current Magnification} &= \frac{I_c}{I} \\ (\text{Q-factor}) &= \frac{I_c \sin \phi}{I \cos \phi} \\ &= \tan \phi \\ &= \frac{X_L}{R} \quad (\text{from the } \text{Fig. 5}) \\ &= \frac{2\pi f_0 L}{R} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{But } f_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{LC}}$$

$$\text{so } Q = \frac{2\pi L}{2\pi \sqrt{LC}} \cdot \frac{1}{R}$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$

$$Q\text{-factor} = \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$$

Q1: Comparison (OR) Difference between series resonance and parallel resonance

ANS	Description	Series Circuit	Parallel
→ Resonant frequency ( $f_r$ )	$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$	$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$	
→ Nature of Circuit	Resistive	Resistive	
→ Magnification	Voltage	Current	
→ Impedance at Resonance	Minimum ( $Z=R$ )	Maximum	
→ Current at Resonance	Maximum ( $I=\frac{V}{R}$ )	Minimum	
→ Power factor	Unity ( $I$ )	Unity ( $I$ )	
→ Effective Impedance at Resonance	$Z_{eff} = R$	$Z_{eff} = \frac{L}{RC}$	
→ Q-factor	$Q = \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$	$Q = \frac{1}{R} \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$	
→ Half power frequency	$f_p = \sqrt{f_r/2}$	$f_p = \sqrt{f_r/2}$	
→ Type of Circuit	Accepted	Rejected	
→ Bandwidth	$B.W = f_p/f_r$	$B.W = f_p/f_r$	
→ $f > f_r$	Circuit is inductive	Circuit is capacitive	
→ $f < f_r$	Circuit is capacitive	Circuit is inductive	
→ Use & Application	Radio, Tuning circuit	Impedance filter	

Explain Graphical representation of R-L-C series circuit Resonance

(OR)

Variation of frequency with  $R$ ,  $X_L$ ,  $X_C$ ,  $Z$ ,  $I$  & power factor ( $\cos\phi$ )

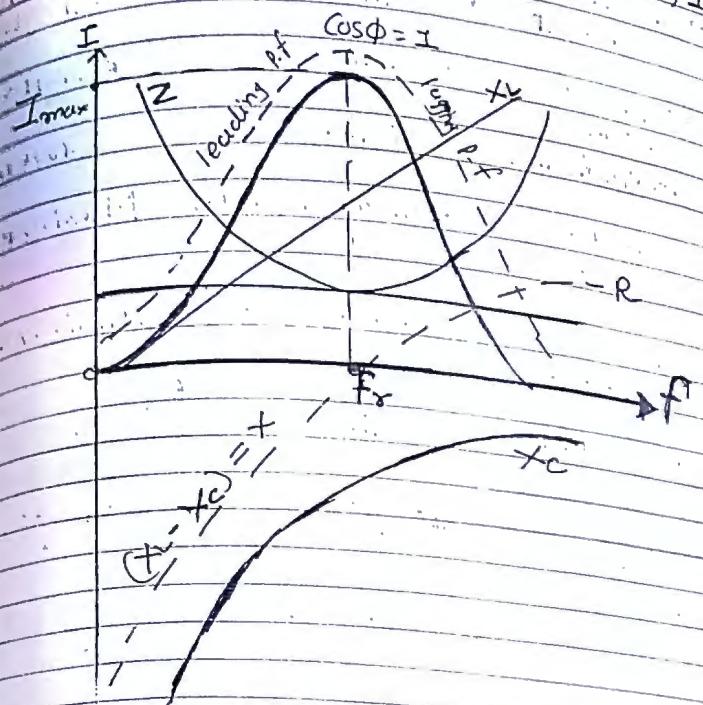


Fig: Graphical representation of R-L-C series Resonance

Resistance  $R$

→ It is independent of frequency so it is represented by straight line

### Inductive Reactance ( $X_L$ ) :-

→ Resistance offered by Inductance is called Inductive Reactance.

$$X_L = \alpha \pi f L \Rightarrow X_L \propto f$$

→  $X_L$  is directly proportional to frequency  
→ so increase in frequency causes increase in  $X_L$ .

→ graph is straight line passing through origin.

### Capacitive Reactance ( $X_C$ ) :-

→ Resistance offered by Capacitance is called Capacitive Reactance.

$$X_C = \frac{1}{2\pi f C} \propto \frac{1}{f}$$

→ Capacitive reactance is inversely proportional to frequency, increase frequency decreases  $X_C$ .

→ So the graph is rectangular hyperbola.

### Net Reactance ( $X$ ) :-

$$\text{Net Reactance } X = X_L - X_C \text{ or } X = X_C - X_L$$

→  $X$  is negative for all frequency below Resonance & positive for greater than Resonance.

### Impedance ( $Z$ ) :-

→ Resistance offered by circuit is called Impedance

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

when  $X_L \gg X_C$  so Net reactance is inductive  
Circuit Impedance is high above Resonant Frequency.

when  $X_C \gg X_L$  so Net Reactance is capacitive  
Circuit Impedance is also high below Resonant Frequency.

### Current (I) :-

$I = V/Z$   
→ If the impedance is high current is low  
but impedance is low current is high at Resonance frequency.

### Power factor ( $\cos \phi$ ) :-

→ at Resonance freq (fr), Power factor is 1.  
→  $f < fr$  then power factor is leading.  
 $f > fr$  then power factor is lagging.

\* Important Formula

$$\text{Angular Velocity } (\omega) = \alpha \pi f$$

$$+ \text{frequency } (f) = \frac{1}{\text{Time period } (T)}$$

$$+ \text{Inductive Reactance } (X_L) = \alpha \pi f L$$

$$X_L = \omega L$$

where  $L$  = inductance of coil

$$+ \text{Capacitive Reactance } (X_C) = \frac{1}{\omega C} = \frac{1}{\alpha \pi f C}$$

where  $C$  = capacitance

$$+ \text{Net Reactance } (X) = X_L - X_C \quad \text{OR} \quad X_C - X_L$$

$$+ \text{Voltage drop across Resistance } (V_R) = IR$$

$$+ \text{Voltage across Inductor (coil)} (V_L) = IX_L$$

$$+ \text{Voltage across Capacitor } (V_C) = IX_C$$

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

$$+ \text{Supply Voltage } (V) = I \cdot Z$$

= Total current  $\times$  Impedance

$$(Q) \quad V = \sqrt{V_R^2 + (V_L - V_C)^2}$$

$$+ \text{Power factor } (\cos \phi) = \frac{\text{Resistance}}{\text{Impedance}}$$

$$\cos \phi = \frac{\text{Active Power}}{\text{Apparent Power}}$$

$$+ \text{Phase angle } (\phi) = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{X_L - X_C}{R} \right) \text{ if } (X_L > X_C)$$

or  
Power factor  
angle

$$= \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{X_C - X_L}{R} \right) \text{ if } (X_C > X_L)$$

$$+ \text{Active power } (P) = VI \cos \phi$$

$$= I^2 R$$

$$+ \text{Reactive power } (Q) = VI \sin \phi$$

$$= I^2 X_L$$

$$+ \text{Apparent power } (S)$$

$$(S) = VI$$

$$= I^2 Z$$

$$+ \text{Total current } (I) = \frac{V}{Z}$$

$$I = \sqrt{I_R^2 + (I_L - I_C)^2}$$

$$+ Z_L = R + jWL$$

$$= R + jXL$$

$$+ Z_C = R - jXC$$

$$= R - j \frac{1}{\omega C}$$

$$+ \text{Resonance condition}$$

$$X_L = X_C$$

$$\omega L = \frac{1}{\omega C}$$

+ Resonance frequency ( $f_r$ ) =  $\frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$  for series

+ Q-Factor (Quality Factor) =  $\frac{1}{2\pi f_r L} \cdot \frac{R}{L^2}$

$$Q = \frac{1}{2\pi f_r L} \cdot \frac{R}{L^2}$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{2\pi f_r R} \cdot \frac{L}{C}$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{2\pi f_r R} \cdot \frac{L}{R\sqrt{C}}$$

where  $f_r$  = Resonance frequency

\* Bandwidth  $BW = \Delta f$   
 $= f_2 - f_1$

$$B.W = \frac{f_2 - f_1}{Q \text{ factor}}$$

$$(\therefore B.W = f_2 - f_1)$$

$$B.W = \frac{f_2 - f_1}{Q \text{ factor}} \quad \Delta F = f_2 - f_1$$

Where  $f_1$  = Lower frequency

$f_2$  = Higher frequency

At half power frequency

$$f_1 = f_r - \frac{B.W}{2}$$

$$f_2 = f_r + \frac{B.W}{2}$$

Admittance ( $Y$ ) =  $\frac{1}{Z} = \frac{1}{R + jX_L}$

$$Y_L = G - jB_L$$

Where  $Y_L$  = Inductive Admittance  
 $G$  = Conductance  
 $B_L$  = Susceptance of Inductor

$$Y_C = G + jB_C$$

$$Y_C = \text{Capacitive Admittance}$$

$$G = \text{Conductance}$$

$$B_C = \text{Capacitive Susceptance}$$

\*  $G = \frac{R}{R^2 + X_L^2}$  for Inductance (or)  $= \frac{R}{Z^2}$

$= \frac{R}{R^2 + X_C^2}$  for Capacitance (or)  $= \frac{R}{Z^2}$

\*  $B_L = \frac{X_L}{R^2 + X_L^2}$ , or  $= \frac{X}{Z^2}$

\*  $B_C = \frac{X_C}{R^2 + X_C^2}$ , or  $= \frac{X}{Z^2}$

$Y = \sqrt{G^2 + (-B_L)^2}$ , or  $= \sqrt{G^2 + B_C^2}$

\* Power factor  $\cos \phi = \frac{G}{Y}$

\* Power factor circle  $\phi = \tan^{-1} \left( -\frac{B_L}{G} \right)$

OR  
 $\tan^{-1} \left( \frac{B_L}{G} \right)$

\*  $B_L = Y \sin \phi$

\*  $B_C = Y \cos \phi$

$\frac{1}{Z_{eq}} = \frac{1}{Z_1} + \frac{1}{Z_2} \Rightarrow Y = \frac{1}{Y_1} + \frac{1}{Y_2}$

\* Current  $I = VY$

\* Admittance  $Y = \frac{I}{V}$

Three alternating currents can be expressed

$I_1 = 20 \sin \omega t$

$I_2 = 30 \sin (\omega t + \pi/4)$

$I_3 = 40 \cos (\omega t - \pi/6)$

in three branches of parallel circuit from single phase A.C. supply

Final Resultant Current, R.M.S Value

$I = 20 \sin \omega t = 20 \sin(0^\circ)$

$I_2 = 30 \sin (\omega t + \pi/4) = 30 \sin (45^\circ)$

$I_3 = 40 \cos (\omega t - \pi/6) = 40 \cos (-30^\circ)$

$I = 40 \sin (90 + (-30)) = 40 \sin (60^\circ)$

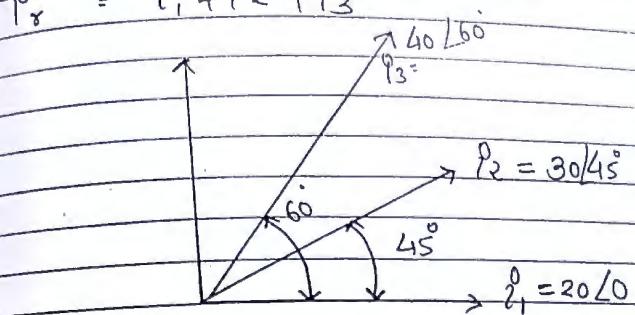
$I_1 = 20 \angle 0^\circ$

$I_2 = 30 \angle 45^\circ$

$I_3 = 40 \angle 60^\circ$

For the parallel circuit

$I_g = I_1 + I_2 + I_3$



→ The sum of horizontal Components ( $\Sigma x$ )

$$I_x = \Sigma x = 20 \cos(0) + 30 \cos(45^\circ) + 40 \cos(60)$$

$$= 20 + 21.21 + 20$$

$$\Sigma x = 61.21 \text{ Amp}$$

→ The sum of Vertical Components ( $\Sigma y$ )

$$I_y = \Sigma y = 20 \sin(0) + 30 \sin(45^\circ) + 40 \sin(60)$$

$$= 0 + 21.21 + 34.64$$

$$\Sigma y = \Sigma y = 55.85 \text{ Amp}$$

Magnitude of Resultant Current ( $I_m$ )

$$I_m = \sqrt{(\Sigma x)^2 + (\Sigma y)^2} = \sqrt{(I_x)^2 + (I_y)^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{(61.21)^2 + (55.85)^2}$$

$$I_m = 82.86$$

Phase angle  $\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{\Sigma y}{\Sigma x}$

$$= \tan^{-1} \frac{55.85}{61.21}$$

$$\phi = 42.37^\circ$$

+ Resultant Current

$$I = I_m (\sin(\omega t + \phi))$$

$$I = 82.86 \sin(\omega t + 42.37^\circ)$$

$$I_{\text{r.m.s}} = 0.77 I_m$$

$$= 0.707 \times 82.86$$

$$= 58.58 \text{ Amp}$$

$$I_{\text{r.m.s}} = 58.58 \text{ A}$$

1 step Note

D  $\Sigma x$  (cos compo)  
D  $\Sigma y$  (sin compo)

3)  $I_m = \sqrt{\Sigma x^2 + \Sigma y^2}$

w  $\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{\Sigma y}{\Sigma x}$

All angles must be in sin

$$I = I_m \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

$$V = V_m \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

Q) An alternating current has 8.m.s value 30 A. and frequency is 50 cycle/second. Calculate

i) Angular Velocity ( $\omega$ )

ii) Peak (Maximum) Value + Average Value

iii) Write the instantaneous equation of

iv) Time period ( $T$ ) + Time at which Maximum

v) Calculate Instantaneous Value of Current at 0.0025 seconds after passing the

positive maximum value

vi) To find current at 0.002 seconds it reaches zero and thereafter decreases.

vii) At what time current passed through positive maximum to be 21.2 A

VIII Peak factor & Form factor

$$f = 50 \text{ cycle/second} \quad I_{r.m.s} = 30 \text{ A}$$

i) Angular Velocity ( $\omega$ )

$$\omega = \sqrt{\pi f} = \sqrt{\pi} \times 3.14 \times 50 = 314 \text{ rad/s}$$

ii) Maximum (Peak) Value  $I_m$  : AMPLITUDE

$$I_{r.m.s} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707 I_m$$

$$30 = 0.707 I_m$$

$$I_m = \frac{30}{0.707} = 42.43 \text{ Amp}$$

Average Value  $I_{av}$

$$I_{av} = 0.637 I_m$$

$$= 0.637 \times 42.43$$

$$I_{av} = 27.02 \text{ Amp}$$

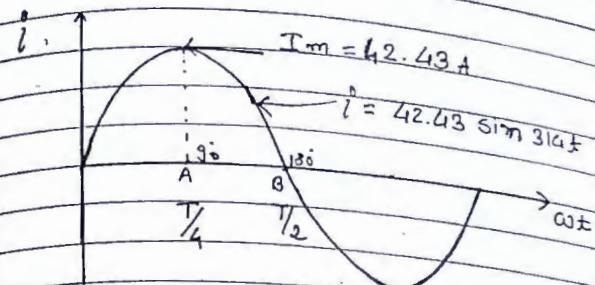
iii) Instantaneous Equation of Current

$$i = I_m \sin \omega t$$

$$i = 42.43 \sin 314t$$

iv) Time Period ( $T$ )

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{50} = 0.02 \text{ sec}$$



$$T = \frac{1}{f} = 0.02 \text{ sec}$$

→ Maximum Positive Value occurs at  $T/4$  time

$$t = \frac{T}{4} = \frac{0.02}{4} = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}$$

Q An alternating current has a.m.s value 30 A. and frequency 50 cycle/second. Calculate

i) Angular Velocity ( $\omega$ )

ii) Peak (Maximum) Value + Average Value

iii) Write the instantaneous equation of current

iv) Time period ( $T$ ) + Time at which Maximum

v) Calculate Instantaneous Value of current at 0.0025 seconds after passing through positive maximum value

vi) To find current at 0.002 seconds it reaches zero and thereafter decreases.

vii) At what time current passed through positive maximum to be 21.2 A.

VIII Peak factor & Form factor

$$f = 50 \text{ cycle/second} \quad I_{r.m.s} = 30 \text{ A}$$

i) Angular Velocity ( $\omega$ )

$$\omega = \pi f = \pi \times 50 = 314 \text{ rad/s}$$

ii) Maximum (Peak) Value  $I_m$  (AMPLITUDE)

$$I_{r.m.s} = \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \Rightarrow I_m = \sqrt{2} I_{r.m.s} = 0.707 I_m$$

$$30 = 0.707 I_m$$

$$I_m = \frac{30}{0.707} = 42.43 \text{ Amp}$$

Average Value  $I_{av}$

$$I_{av} = 0.637 I_m$$

$$= 0.637 \times 42.43$$

$$I_{av} = 27.02 \text{ Amp}$$

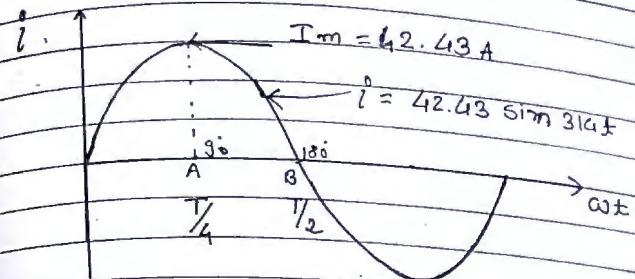
iii) Instantaneous equation of current

$$i = I_m \sin \omega t$$

$$i = 42.43 \sin 314t$$

iv) Time Period ( $T$ )

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{50} = 0.02 \text{ sec}$$



$$T = \frac{1}{f} = 0.02 \text{ sec}$$

→ Maximum positive value occurs at  $T/4$  time

$$t = \frac{T}{4} = \frac{0.02}{4} = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}$$

vi) Find value of  $i$  at 0.0025 seconds  
 Positive Maximum Value  
 → Positive Maximum value occurs at Point  
 at  $T/4$  time.  
 $i = I_m \sin(\omega t + 90^\circ)$   
 $= I_m \cos \omega t$   
 $\therefore \rho = 42.43 \cos(314 \times 0.0025) = 42.43 \cos(44.97^\circ)$   
 $\therefore \rho = 42.43 \cos(44.97^\circ)$   
 $(\therefore 0.785 \text{ Rad.} = 44.97^\circ)$   
 $\underline{\underline{i}} = 30.01 \text{ Amp}$

vii) To find value of current at 0.002 second after it reaches zero and decreases  
 → Current is zero at point B

$i = I_m \sin(\omega t + 180^\circ)$   
 $i = -I_m \sin \omega t$   
 $\rho = -42.43 \sin(314 \times 0.002)$   
 $i = -42.43 \sin(0.628)$   
 $i = -42.43 \sin(35.98^\circ)$   
 $\underline{\underline{i}} = 24.92 \text{ Amp}$

viii) At what time current passed through maximum positive value to be 21.2 Amp  
 → It means find the time after the point A (Maximum) where current is 21.2 Amp  
 $P = I_m \sin(\omega t + 90^\circ)$   
 $i = I_m \cos \omega t$   
 $21.2 = 42.43 \cos(314 \times t)$   
 $21.2 = \cos(314 t)$   
 $0.5 = \cos(314 t)$   
 $\cos^{-1} 0.5 = 314 t$   
 $1.04 = 314 t$   
 $\frac{t}{3} = \frac{1.04}{314} = 3.33 \times 10^{-3} \text{ sec}$

viii)  
 Peak Factor ( $K_p$ ) =  $\frac{I_m}{I_{r.m.s.}} = \frac{42.43}{30}$   
 OR  
 (RMS Factor)  $\frac{I_m}{I_{r.m.s.}}$   
 Amplitude factor  $K_p = \frac{I_m}{I_{r.m.s.}} = 1.414$

Form Factor ( $K_f$ )  $\frac{I_{r.m.s.}}{I_{av}} = \frac{30}{27.02} = 1.11$

A circuit consists of resistance of  $12\ \Omega$  of  $320\ \mu F$ , Inductance of  $0.08\ H$  connected in Series with Supply voltage of  $240\ V$ ,  $50\ Hz$  to the circuit. Calculate

- 1) Inductive Reactance,  $X_L$
- 2) Capacitive Reactance,  $X_C$
- 3) Impedance,  $Z$
- 4) Current,  $I$
- 5) Frequency at which current is maximum
- 6) Voltage drop (across)  $R$ ,  $L$ ,  $C$
- 7) Q-factor and power factor ( $\cos\phi$ )
- 8) Band width (B.W)  $\Delta f$ . OR  $f_2 - f_1$
- 9) Lower half frequency ( $f_1$ )
- 10) Upper half frequency ( $f_2$ )
- 11) Active Power ( $P$ )
- 12) Reactive Power ( $Q$ )
- 13) Apparent power ( $S$ )

$$R = 12\ \Omega \quad L = 0.08 \quad C = 320\ \mu F$$

$V = 240\ V, f = 50\ Hz$

$$R = 12\ \Omega$$

$$L = 0.08\ H$$

$$C = 320\ \mu F = 320 \times 10^{-6}\ F$$

$$V = 240\ V$$

$$f = 50\ Hz$$

Inductive Reactance ( $X_L$ )

$$X_L = 2\pi f L$$

$$= 2 \times 3.14 \times 50 \times 0.08$$

$$X_L = 25.12\ \Omega$$

Capacitive Reactance ( $X_C$ )

$$X_C = \frac{1}{2\pi f C} = 2 \times 3.14 \times 50 \times 320 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$X_C = 9.952\ \Omega$$

Impedance ( $Z$ )

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2} = \sqrt{(12)^2 + (25.12 - 9.952)^2}$$

$$Z = 19.34\ \Omega$$

Current ( $I$ )

$$I = \frac{V}{Z} = \frac{240}{19.34}$$

$$I = 12.41\ A$$

Frequency at which current is maximum is known as Resonance frequency ( $f_r$ )

$$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}} = \frac{1}{2 \times 3.14 \sqrt{320 \times 10^{-6} \times 0.08}}$$

$$f_r = 31.47\ Hz$$

$$\text{Voltage across } R, (V_R) = I \times R = 12.41 \times 12$$

$$V_R = 149\ V$$

$$\text{Voltage across } L, (V_L) = I \times X_L = 12.41 \times 25.12$$

$$V_L = 311.73\ V$$

$$\text{Voltage across } C, (V_C) = I \times X_C = 12.41 \times 9.952$$

$$V_C = 123.5\ V$$

$$Q\text{-factor} = \frac{\omega_0 L}{R} = \frac{2\pi f_0 L}{R} = \frac{2\pi \times 31.4 \times 3.14}{R}$$

$$\text{Q-factor} = 1.31$$

Note:  $Q = \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}}$  or  $Q = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$

$$\text{Power factor } \cos\phi = \frac{R}{Z} = \frac{2\pi f_0 C R}{Z}$$

$$\cos\phi = 0.62$$

Phase angle OR Power factor angle ( $\phi$ )

$$\phi = \cos^{-1} 0.62$$

$$\phi = 51.68^\circ$$

Bandwidth (B.W) OR  $\Delta f$  of  $f_2 - f_1$

$$B.W = \frac{f_0}{Q\text{-factor}} = \frac{31.47}{1.31} =$$

$$f_2 - f_1 = f_0$$

$\text{Q-factor where } f_1 = \text{lower freq}$

$$\Delta f = \frac{f_0}{Q\text{-factor}}$$

$$B.W = 24.02 \text{ Hz}$$

lower half frequency ( $f_1$ )

$$f_1 = \frac{f_0 - B.W}{2} = \frac{31.47 - 24.02}{2} = 3.725 \text{ Hz}$$

$$f_1 = 19.46 \text{ Hz}$$

Upper half frequency ( $f_2$ )

$$f_2 = \frac{f_0 + B.W}{2} = \frac{31.47 + 24.02}{2} = 27.745 \text{ Hz}$$

$$f_2 = 43.48 \text{ Hz}$$

Active power ( $P$ )

$$P = V I \cos\phi = 240 \times 12.41 \times 0.62$$

$$P = 1846 \text{ Watt} \quad \text{OR} \quad P = 1.846 \text{ kVA}$$

Reactive power ( $Q$ )

$$Q = V I \sin\phi = 240 \times 12.41 \times \sin(51.68^\circ)$$

$$Q = 2336 \text{ VAR} \quad \text{OR} \quad 2.336 \text{ kVAR}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos\phi &= 0.62 \\ \phi &= \cos^{-1} 0.62 \\ \phi &= 51.68^\circ \end{aligned}$$

Apparent power ( $S$ )

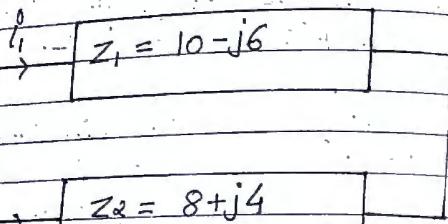
$$S = V \cdot I$$

$$= 240 \times 12.41$$

$$S = 2978 \text{ VA} \quad \text{OR} \quad S = 2.978 \text{ kVA}$$

Note :  
 → Polar form :  $V = V_r \angle \theta$   
 → Rectangular Form :  $V = V_r + jV_i$   
 Multiplication, & Division possible only in POLAR Angle (subtraction)  
 Subtraction & Addition possible only in RECTANGULAR

Two impedances  $Z_1 = 10 - j6 \Omega$  &  $Z_2 = 8 + j4 \Omega$  are connected in parallel across  $(230 + j0)$ . Calculate (i) Current in Each branch  
 ii) Current I & Equivalent Impedance  
 iii) Power factor  $\cos \phi$   
 iv) Admittance  $y_{eq}$  & Admittance of each branch  
 v) Conductance G of each branch  
 vi) Susceptance B of each branch  
 vii) Power consumed by circuit (Active power) & Power consumed in each branch



$$Z_1 = 10 - j6$$

$$Z_2 = 8 + j4$$

$$P_1$$

$$P_2$$

$$V = (230 + j0)$$

Current in Each branch  
 $P_1 = \frac{V}{Z_1} = \frac{230 + j0}{10 - j6}$

Note: Division possible only in Polar form  
 Convert in to polar

 $= 230 \angle 0^\circ$ 
 $= 230 \angle 0^\circ$ 
 $11.66 \angle -30.96^\circ$ 
 $P_1 = 19.72 \angle 0^\circ - (-30.96)$ 
 $P_1 = 19.72 \angle 30.96^\circ$ 

(Note in Division Angle (subtraction))

$$I_2 = \frac{V}{Z_2} = \frac{230 + j0}{8 + j4} = 28.94 \angle 26.56^\circ$$
 $P_2 = 25.72 \angle 0^\circ - (26.56)$ 
 $P_2 = 25.72 \angle -26.56^\circ$

Equivalent Impedance  $Z_{eq}$

$$Z_{eq} = \frac{Z_1 Z_2}{Z_1 + Z_2} = \frac{(10 - j6)(8 + j4)}{(10 - j6) + (8 + j4)}$$

$Z_1 = 11.66 \angle -30.96^\circ$   
 $Z_2 = 8.94 \angle 26.56^\circ$

(Note: Multiplication possible in Polar and Angle (addition))

$$= \frac{(11.66 \angle -30.96^\circ)(8.94 \angle 26.56^\circ)}{10 - j6 + 8 + j4}$$

$$= \frac{104.24 \angle -30.96^\circ + (26.56^\circ)}{18 - j2}$$

$$= \frac{104.24 \angle -4.4}{18-j2} = \frac{104 \angle -4.4}{18.11 \angle 6.84}$$

$$= 5.75 \angle -4.4 - (6.34)$$

$$\frac{Z_1 Z_2}{Z_1 + Z_2} = Z_{eq} = 5.75 \angle -10.74$$

① Current  $I = \frac{V}{Z_{eq}} = 40 \angle 0^\circ - (-10.74)$

$$I = 40 \angle 10.74$$

Power factor  $\cos \phi$

"P.f. is cosine angle between Voltage & current  
Here  $I = 40 \angle 10.74$

$\overbrace{\text{Cosine angle}}$

(if Angle is positive  
then leading)

$$\phi = 10.74$$

Power factor (P.f) =  $\cos \phi$

$$P.f = \cos(10.74)$$

$$\text{power factor} = 0.9825 \text{ (lead)}$$

Admittance in each branch

$$Y_1 = \frac{1}{Z_1} = \frac{1}{V} = \frac{I_1}{V} \quad \left( Y_1 = \frac{1}{Z_1} \right) \quad \left( I_1 = 120 \right)$$

$$Y_1 = \frac{I_1}{V} = \frac{19.72 \angle 30.96}{230 \angle 0} = 0.085 \angle 30.96 - (0)$$

$$Y_1 = 0.085 \angle 30.96 \quad \text{OR} \quad Y_1 = (0.072 + j0.043)$$

$$Y_2 = \frac{1}{Z_2} = \frac{1}{8.94 \angle 26.56} = 1 \angle 0^\circ$$

$$Y_2 = 0.11 \angle 0^\circ - (26.56)$$

$$Y_2 = 0.11 \angle -26.56^\circ \quad \text{OR} \quad Y_2 = (0.098 - j0.049)$$

Admittance  $Y_{eq} = Y_1 + Y_2$

(OR)

$$= \frac{1}{Z_{eq}}$$

$$Y = Y_1 + Y_2 = (0.072 + j0.043) + (0.098 - j0.049)$$

$$= 0.072 + j0.043 + 0.098 - j0.049$$

$$Y_{eq} = (0.171 - j0.006) \quad \text{OR} \quad 0.171 \angle -2.83^\circ$$

(V) Conductance  $G$  in Each branch:

$$G_1 = \frac{R_1}{Z_1^2} = \frac{10}{11.66^2} = 0.0769 \text{ W}$$

(OR)

$$G_1 = \frac{R_1}{Z_1^2} = \frac{10}{(11.66 + j1.66)^2} = \frac{10}{130.64 - 23.32j} = 0.0769 \text{ W}$$

Siemens

$$G_2 = \frac{R_2}{Z_2^2} = \frac{8}{8.94^2} = 1.11 \text{ W}$$

(VI) Susceptance  $B$  in Each Branch

$$B_1 = \frac{X_1}{Z_1^2} = \frac{-6}{11.66^2} = -0.514$$

$$B_2 = \frac{X_2}{Z_2^2} = \frac{4}{8.94^2} = 0.44$$

Power Consumed by circuit OR Active power

$$P = VI \cos \phi$$

$$P = 230 \times 40 \times 0.98 = 9016 \text{ W}$$

$$P = 9.016 \text{ kW}$$

Power consumed in Each branch

$$P_1 = I_1^2 R_1 = (19.72)^2 \times 10 = 3888.78 \text{ W} = 3.8 \text{ kW}$$

Note that take only Magnitude of current

$$P_2 = I_2^2 R_2 = (25.72)^2 \times 8 = 5292.14 \text{ W} = 5.3 \text{ kW}$$

NOTE

$$P = P_1 + P_2 = 3.8 \text{ kW} + 5.3 \text{ kW} = 9.1 \text{ kW}$$

Q. An inductive coil having Resistance of 17.2 & Inductance of 0.5 H, if it is connected in parallel with a capacitor of 120 μF using supply 230 V

Find 1) for (Resonance frequency)

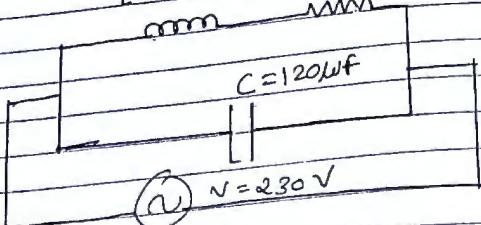
2) I (current) at resonance

3) Dynamic Impedance

$$L = 0.5 \text{ H} \quad R = 17.2$$

mm mm

C = 120 μF



$$R = 17.2, L = 0.5 \text{ H}, C = 120 \times 10^{-6} \text{ F}$$

$$f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{LC} - \frac{R^2}{L^2}} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{1/0.5 \times 120 \times 10^{-6}}} \text{ Hz}$$

$$f_r = 19.83 \text{ Hz}$$

→ Current at Resonance

$$I = \frac{V}{CR} = \frac{230}{0.5 \times 120 \times 10^{-6}} \text{ A}$$

$$I = 0.94 \text{ A}$$

Dynamic Impedance

"Impedance at Resonance"

for parallel circuit

$$Z = \sqrt{L/C} = 245 \Omega$$

$$Z = \sqrt{0.5 / 120 \times 10^{-6} \times 17} = 245 \Omega$$

\* Establish Relationship between LINE & PHASE Current & Voltages and STAR (WYE) Connected balanced system.

→ STAR (WYE) connection is obtained when all the windings or coils are connected at common point.

→ Common Point ( $N$ ) is known as Star (OR) Neutral.

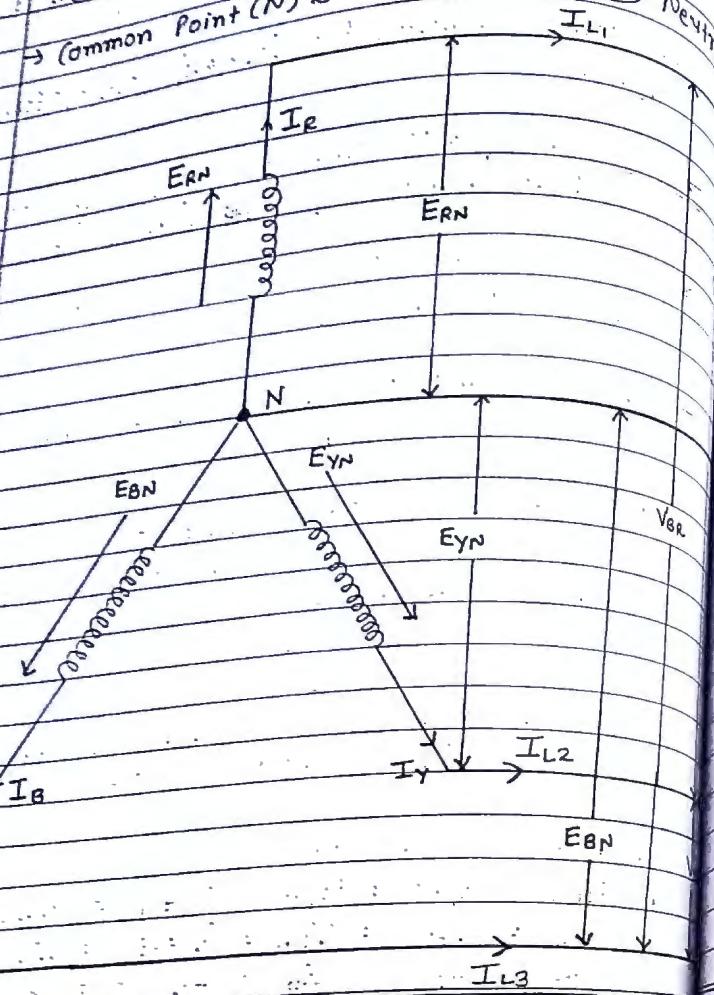


fig:- 3- $\phi$  star connection for balance load

→ form the figure it is 3-phase, 4 wire star connected system.

→ Phase Voltage :- "Voltage or E.M.F induced in winding is called Phase Voltage".

→ "Voltage between Line & Neutral is also called phase Voltage".

→ Phase voltage denoted by  $E_{RN}$ ,  $E_{YN}$ ,  $E_{BN}$  in figure.

→ Line Voltage :- "Voltage between any two lines" denoted by  $V_{RY}$ ,  $V_{YB}$ ,  $V_{BR}$  in fig.

→ Phase Current :- "Current delivered by each winding" denoted by  $I_R$ ,  $I_Y$ ,  $I_B$  in fig.

→ Line Current :- "Current flowing in each line" denoted by  $I_{L1}$ ,  $I_{L2}$ ,  $I_{L3}$

→ Phase Voltages or E.M.F of each coils are taken in positive direction from Neutral point's Outwards.

→ In star connection, there are two windings or coils between two line produces the E.m.f in opposite directions.

→ Balanced system:-

$$E_{RN} = E_{YN} = E_{BN} = E_{ph} = V_{ph} = \text{Phase Voltage}$$

$$V_{RY} = V_{YB} = V_{BR} = V_L = E_L = \text{line Voltage}$$

$$I_R = I_Y = I_B = I_{ph} = \text{Phase Current}$$

$$I_{L1} = I_{L2} = I_{L3} = I_L = \text{line Current}$$

$$E_{RN} = V_R = E_R$$

$$E_{YN} = V_Y = E_Y$$

$$E_{BN} = V_B = E_B$$

$\Rightarrow$  Relation between line & phase Current

From figure  
 $I_R = I_{L1}$   $\Rightarrow I_{ph} = I_{L1}$   
 $I_Y = I_{L2}$   $\Rightarrow I_{ph} = I_{L2}$   
 $I_B = I_{L3}$   $\Rightarrow I_{ph} = I_{L3}$

$\rightarrow$  So, In Star Connection

$$I_{ph} = I_L$$

Phase current =

$\Rightarrow$  Relation between line & phase Voltage

$V_{RY}$  is phasor sum of ( $E_{RN}$ ) & ( $-E_{YN}$ )

$$V_{RY} = E_{RN} + (-E_{YN})$$

Similarly,

$$V_{BR} = E_{BN} - E_{RN}$$

$$V_{YB} = E_{YN} - E_{BN}$$

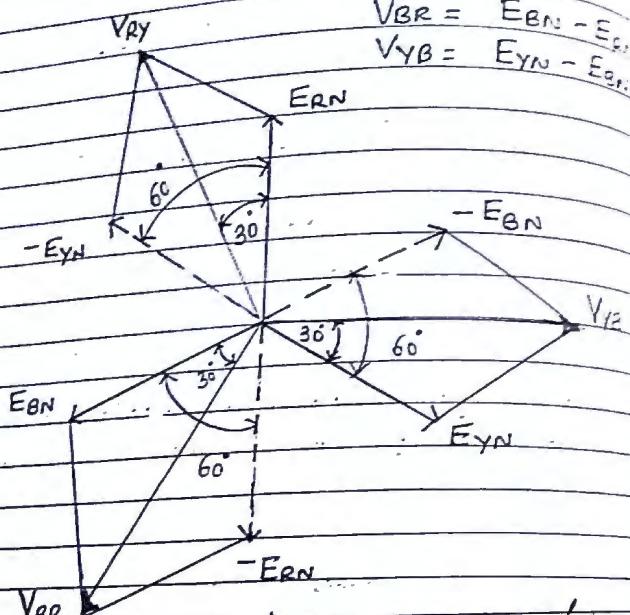


Fig: Phasor diagram / Vector diagram of line & phase

Date :  
Page No.:

To find Magnitude of  $V_{RY}$  consider parallelogram  
 with  $E_{RN}$  &  $E_{YN}$

$$V_{RY} = \sqrt{E_{RN}^2 + E_{YN}^2 + 2E_{RN}E_{YN} \cos\phi}$$

From the figure of balanced system

$$V_{RY} = \sqrt{E_{ph}^2 + E_{ph}^2 + 2E_{ph}E_{ph} \cos(60^\circ)}$$

$$V_{RY} = \sqrt{E_{ph}^2 + E_{ph}^2 + 2E_{ph}^2 \times \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$V_{RY} = \sqrt{3} E_{ph}$$

$$V_{RY} = V_L = \sqrt{3} E_{ph}$$

$$V_L = \sqrt{3} E_{ph} \Rightarrow E_{ph} = \frac{V_L}{\sqrt{3}} = V_{ph}$$

Line voltage =  $\sqrt{3} \times$  Phase voltage

$\rightarrow$  Power  $P = 3 \times$  Power in each phase  
 $= 3 \times V_{ph} I_{ph} \cos\phi$

$$= 3 \times \frac{V_L}{\sqrt{3}} \times I_L \cos\phi$$

$$P = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos\phi$$

$\rightarrow$  In Star Connection Phase Voltage lags by  $30^\circ$  to Line Voltage (respective)

Derive Relationship between LINE & PHASE  
Voltage and LINE & PHASE Currents  
DELTA or MESH ( $\Delta$ ) Connected

→ Delta (Mesh) connection is obtained by connecting  
Starting point to Ending Point of other coil

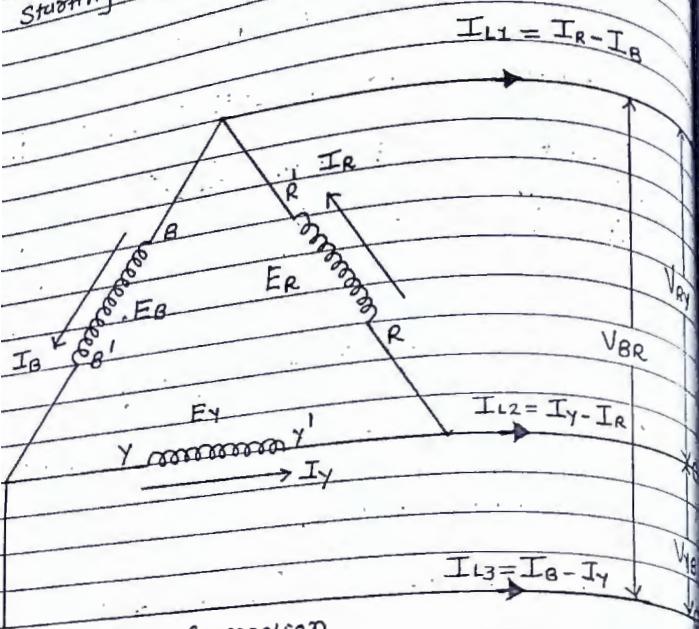


fig: Delta connection

In this connection there is NO Neutral  
so it's called 3-Phase, 3-Wire System

Direction E.M.F OR Phase Voltages taken  
positive from Starting (R, Y, B) to End  
(R', Y', B') of coil as shown in figure.

As system is balanced,

- Let Phase Voltages are
- $E_R = E_Y = E_B = E_{ph} = V_{ph}$
- Line Voltages are
- $V_{RY} = V_{BY} = V_{BR} = E_L = V_L$
- Phase Currents are
- $I_R = I_Y = I_B = I_{ph}$
- Line Currents are
- $I_{L1} = I_{L2} = I_{L3} = I_L$

⇒ Relation between LINE & PHASE Voltage

$$\begin{aligned} V_R = E_R &= V_{RY} \Rightarrow E_{ph} = V_L \\ V_Y = E_Y &= V_{YB} \Rightarrow E_{ph} = V_L \\ V_B = E_B &= V_{BR} \Rightarrow E_{ph} = V_L \end{aligned}$$

$E_{ph} = V_L$   
phase voltage = Line voltage

⇒ Relation between LINE & PHASE Current  
from the figure

Current in Line-1  $I_{L1} = I_R - I_B$

Current in Line-2  $I_{L2} = I_Y - I_R$

Current in Line-3  $I_{L3} = I_B - I_Y$

→ Let,  $I_R$  &  $I_B$  the sides of parallelogram  
with  $I_{L1}$  is the resultant (diagonal)

$$I_{L1} = \sqrt{I_R^2 + I_B^2 + 2I_R I_B \cos \phi}$$

$$I_{L1} = \sqrt{I_a^2 + I_b^2 + 2 I_a I_b \cos \phi}$$

C.  $\therefore$

Bullock

$$I_{L1} = \sqrt{I_{ph}^2 + I_{ph}^2 + 2 I_{ph}^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$I_{L1} = \sqrt{3} I_{ph}$$

$I_L = \sqrt{3} I_{ph} \Rightarrow I_{ph} = \frac{I_L}{\sqrt{3}}$

L<sub>ph</sub> current =  $\sqrt{3}$  phase current

→ power  $P = 3 \times$  power in each phase

$$= 3 \times V_{ph} \times I_{ph} \cos \phi$$

$$= 3 \times V_L \times \frac{I_L}{\sqrt{3}} \cos \phi$$

$$P = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \phi$$

$$P = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \phi$$

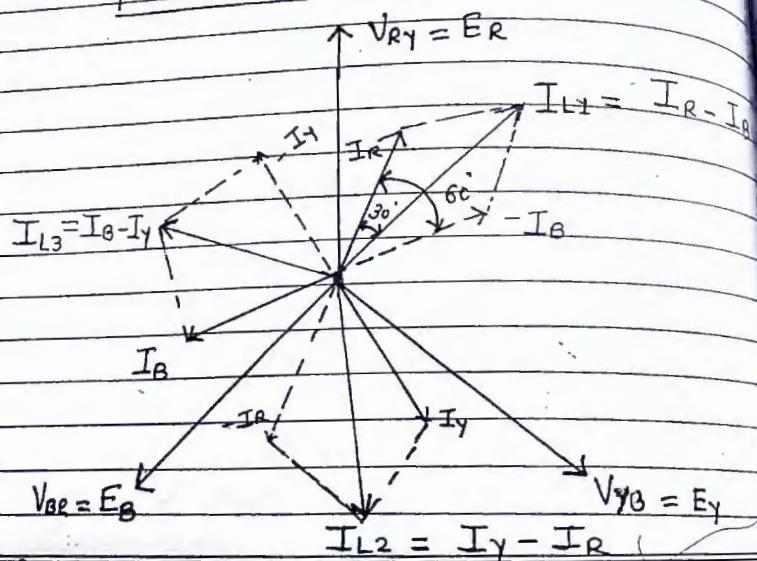


fig: Phasor diagram of Delta Connection

Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

→ Line current ( $I_L$ ) lags the Phase current ( $I_{ph}$ ) by  $30^\circ$

Measurement of 3- $\phi$  power by Two-Wattmeter method for Star Connected balanced load

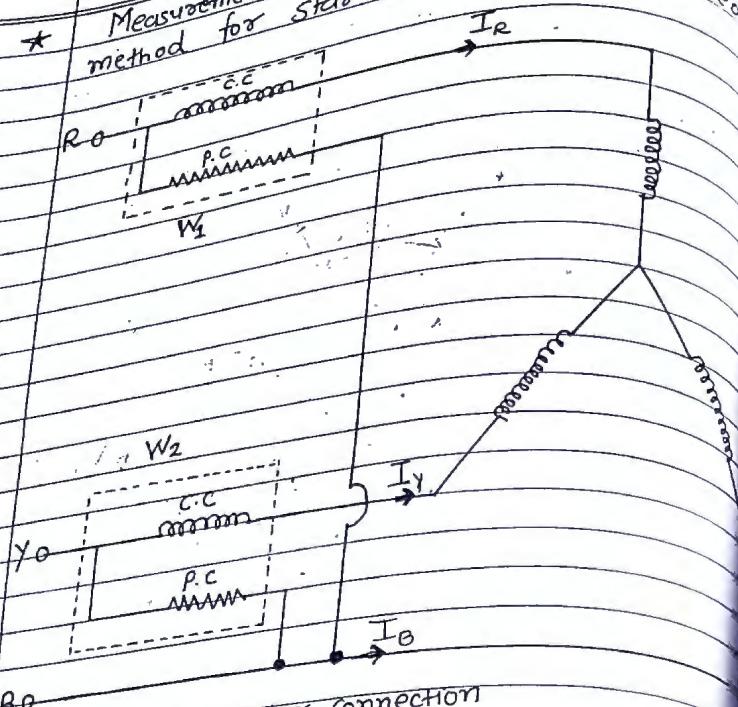


Fig: 3- $\phi$  star connection

→ Wattmeter consists of C.C (Current coil) and P.C (Potential coil) or Potential coil to measure Current & Voltage respectively.

→ Make sure that both P.C (Potential coil) is connected to line in which Wattmeter is not connected.

→ Above figure shows measurement of 3- $\phi$  star connection using two-wattmeter method.

VISION  
Date : \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

VISION  
Date : \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

From the Watt meter W<sub>1</sub>

$$V_{RB} = V_R - V_B$$

From the Watt meter W<sub>2</sub>

$$V_{YB} = V_Y - V_B$$

The angle between  $I_R$  &  $V_R$  is  $\phi$ .  
Similarly angle between  $I_Y$  &  $V_Y$  is  $\phi$ .

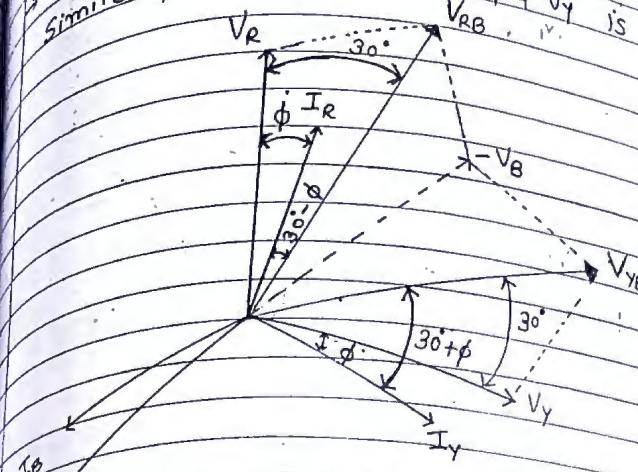


fig: Phasor diagram for star connected load

→ Here we consider balanced load

$$V_R = V_Y = V_B = V_{ph} = E_{ph} = \text{Phase Voltage}$$

$$V_{RB} = V_{YB} = V_{YB} = V_L = E_L = \text{Line Voltage}$$

$$I_R = I_Y = I_B = I_{ph} = I_L = \text{Line Current} = \text{Phase Current}$$

From the figure, Angle between  $I_R$  &  $V_{RB} = 30 - \phi$   
Similarly Angle between  $I_Y$  &  $V_{YB} = 30 + \phi$

$$\cos A + (\cos \phi - \frac{1}{2}) = \cos(30^\circ - \phi) \cdot \cos(\frac{A-B}{2})$$

$$so, \text{ Power } (W_1) = V_{RB} I_R \cos(30^\circ - \phi)$$

$$W_1 = V_L I_L \cos(30^\circ - \phi)$$

$$\text{Similarly Power } (W_2) = V_{RB} I_R \cos(30^\circ + \phi)$$

$$W_2 = V_L I_L \cos(30^\circ + \phi)$$

→ We have two possibilities  
(I)  $W_1 + W_2$ , (II)  $W_1 - W_2$

$$(I) W_1 + W_2 = V_L I_L \cos(30^\circ - \phi) + V_L I_L \cos(30^\circ + \phi)$$

$$W_1 + W_2 = V_L I_L [\cos(30^\circ - \phi) + \cos(30^\circ + \phi)]$$

$$= V_L I_L [2 \cos \left\{ \frac{30^\circ - \phi + 30^\circ + \phi}{2} \right\} \cdot \cos \left\{ \frac{30^\circ - \phi - 30^\circ - \phi}{2} \right\}]$$

$$= V_L I_L [2 \cos \left( \frac{60^\circ}{2} \right) \cdot \cos \left( -\frac{2\phi}{2} \right)]$$

$$= V_L I_L [2 \cos 30^\circ \cos \phi]$$

$$= V_L I_L \left[ \frac{2 \times \sqrt{3}}{2} \cos \phi \right]$$

$$W_1 + W_2 = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \phi$$

$$W_1 - W_2 = V_L I_L [\cos(30^\circ - \phi) - \cos(30^\circ + \phi)]$$

$$W_1 - W_2 = V_L I_L [-2 \sin \left\{ \frac{30^\circ - \phi + 30^\circ + \phi}{2} \right\} \sin \left\{ \frac{30^\circ - \phi - 30^\circ - \phi}{2} \right\}]$$

$$W_1 - W_2 = V_L I_L [-2 \sin \left\{ \frac{60^\circ}{2} \right\} \cdot \sin \left\{ -\frac{2\phi}{2} \right\}]$$

$$\begin{aligned} W_1 - W_2 &= V_L I_L [-2 \sin 30^\circ \sin(-\phi)] \\ &= V_L I_L [2 \sin 30^\circ \sin \phi] \\ &= V_L I_L [\frac{2}{2} \cdot 1 \sin \phi] \end{aligned}$$

$$W_1 - W_2 = V_L I_L \sin \phi$$

Dividing equation (4) by (5) for finding P.f angle

$$\frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_1 + W_2} = \frac{V_L I_L \sin \phi}{\sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \phi} = \frac{\tan \phi}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_1 + W_2} = \frac{\tan \phi}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\tan \phi = \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_1 + W_2} \right)$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_1 + W_2} \right)$$

From the Watt meters reading we can determine power factor angle ( $\cos \phi$ ) also.

### Q- Effect of power factor on wattmeters

Ans

$$\rightarrow \text{we have}$$

$$W_1 = V_L I_L \cos(30 - \phi)$$

$$W_2 = V_L I_L \cos(30 + \phi)$$

1) When  $(\phi = 0)$  i.e. P.F is unity ( $\cos \phi = 1$ )

$$W_1 = V_L I_L \cos(30 - 0) = V_L I_L \cos 30$$

$$W_2 = V_L I_L \cos(30 + 0) = V_L I_L \cos 30$$

$\boxed{W_1 = W_2}$

Both wattmeters give positive and equal readings.

2) When power factor  $(\cos \phi = 0.5)$  i.e.  $(\phi = 60^\circ)$

$$\rightarrow W_1 = V_L I_L \cos(30 - 60) = V_L I_L \cos 30$$

$$W_2 = V_L I_L \cos(30 + 60) = V_L I_L \cos 90$$

→ Entire power is measured by only wattmeter  
 $\rightarrow \boxed{W_1 \text{ is positive}} \quad \boxed{W_2 \text{ is zero}}$

3) When power factor is zero ( $\cos \phi = 0$ )

$$\rightarrow W_1 = V_L I_L \cos(30 - 90) = V_L I_L \cos 90$$

$$\rightarrow W_2 = V_L I_L \cos(30 + 90) = V_L I_L \cos 120 = -V_L I_L$$

$\boxed{W_1 = -W_2}$

→ Equal and opposite readings by wattmeters.

When the P.F is 0.5 and  $\text{P.F} < 0.5$

$0.5 > \cos \phi > 0 \Rightarrow 0^\circ < \phi < 60^\circ$

$\rightarrow W_1$  is negative &  $W_2$  is positive  
 Total Power is  $W_2 - W_1$

One wattmeter  $W_2$  is positive & wattmeter  $W_1$  is negative

Ez

Find the reading of two wattmeters for delta connected load having Power factor when connected across 415V, 50 Hz system. The line current is 20A.

$$\text{Total Power consumed} = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \phi$$

$$= \sqrt{3} \times 415 \times 20 \times 0.707 \\ = 10164 \text{ Watt}$$

$$W_1 + W_2 = 10164 \text{ Watt.}$$

Now for lagging load Power factor

$$\tan \phi = \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_1 + W_2} \right)$$

$$\tan(0.707) = \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{W_1 - W_2}{10164} \right)$$

$$W_1 - W_2 = 5868 \text{ Watt}$$

Comparing Equation (1) & (2)

$$W_1 = 8016 \text{ Watt}$$

$$W_2 = 2148 \text{ Watt.}$$

For 415V, 3-phase system power measured by two wattmeters and reading were 10.5 kW and calculate (1) power factor (2) Line current

$$\rightarrow \tan \phi = \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{W_1 - W_2}{W_1 + W_2} \right)$$

$$\text{Hence } W_1 = 10.5 \text{ kW}$$

$$W_2 = -2.5 \text{ kW}$$

$$\tan \phi = \sqrt{3} \left( \frac{10.5 - (-2.5)}{10.5 + (-2.5)} \right)$$

$$\tan \phi = \sqrt{3} \left[ \frac{10.5 + 2.5}{10.5 - 2.5} \right]$$

$$\tan \phi = 2.811$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1}(2.811)$$

$$\phi = 70.41^\circ$$

Power Factor =  $\cos \phi$

$$P.F = \cos(70.41^\circ)$$

$$P.F = 0.335 \text{ lagging}$$

Total Power Consumed  $P = W_1 + W_2$

$$P = 10.5 + (-2.5)$$

$$P = 8 \text{ kW.}$$

$$\rightarrow P = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \phi$$

$$I_L = \frac{P}{\sqrt{3} V_L \cos \phi} = \frac{8 \times 10^3}{\sqrt{3} \times 415 \times 0.335}$$

$$I_L = 33.26 \text{ A.}$$

## Classification of Magnetic Materials

Q. There are 5 types of Magnetic Materials

- 1) Diamagnetic
- 2) Paramagnetic
- 3) Ferromagnetic
- 4) Antiferromagnetic
- 5) Ferrimagnetic

### 1) Diamagnetic Material $\Rightarrow$

"The Material in which dipoles (Magnetic dipole moments) are absent are known as Diamagnetic Material."

$\rightarrow$  The Materials having their relative permeability ( $\mu_r$ ) less than 1 ( $\mu_r < 1$ )

$\rightarrow$  Such Materials are actually repelled by Magnet.  
e.g. Sulphur, bismuth

### 2) Paramagnetic Materials $\Rightarrow$

"If the dipole moments are randomly oriented and if the dipole moments interaction is zero or negligible then Material is called paramagnetic Material."

$\rightarrow$  Materials having relative permeability ( $\mu_r$ ) equal to one or more than one ( $\mu_r = 1 \text{ to } 10$ )

e.g. Aluminum, platinum.

Fig:-

### Ferromagnetic Materials $\Rightarrow$

If the dipole moments in material line themselves up in parallel to each other in some direction is called ferromagnetic materials.

Materials having relative permeability ( $\mu_r$ ) is 100 to 100,000 ( $\mu_r = 100 \text{ to } 100,000$ )

e.g. Steel, Iron, Nickel.

### Antiferromagnetic Materials $\Rightarrow$

If the neighboring dipole moments are aligned in antiparallel then the Material is known as an antiferromagnetic material.

### Ferrimagnetic Materials $\Rightarrow$

If the order of magnetic moments are shown in figure then it is known as ferrimagnetic material.

## Construction & Working of Trans

→ Transformer is a static device. The main parts of transformer are shown in Fig.

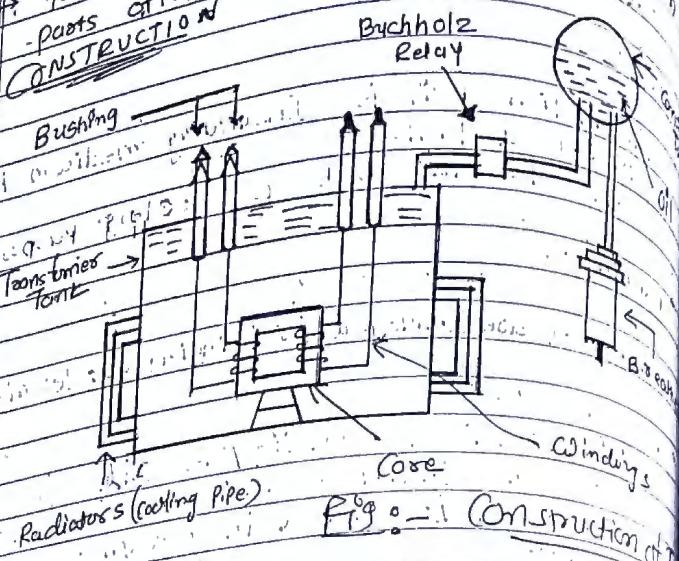


Fig. :- Construction of

### Magnetic Core

→ Core is made up of silicon steel. It is laminated to reduce hysteresis & Eddy current loss.

→ There are generally two types of transformer

1) Core Type

2) Shell Type

\* Winding

→ Winding is made up of copper

→ Both windings are electrically isolated but magnetically coupled.

→ L.V winding carries high current & H.V winding carries low current.

## Conductor Tank

→ The function of conductor tank is to allow the expansion and contraction of oil.

### Oil

→ The function of oil is Insulating medium between winding & tank.

→ Oil is also used as cooling purpose.

### Bushing

→ Bushing are employed for bringing out terminals.

### Breather

→ Function is to Purify the air from tank.

→ Absorb the moisture and dust from environment.

→ Silica gel is housed in breather to absorbing

### Moisture

## WORKING

### Working

→ Transformer is a static device. Consider two coiling, say primary & secondary winding.

→ There is no electrical connection, only magnetically coupled to the winding.

→ If supply voltage (A.C) is given to primary winding, alternating flux is produced. This flux links with other (Secondary) winding and E.M.F is induced.

According to Faraday's law of Electromagnetic Induction

→ If secondary winding is closed, the current starts flowing in circuit

→ From the figure,  $\phi = B \mu F$ ,  $V_1 = \text{Primary Voltage}$

$I_1 = \text{Primary Current}$ ,  $V_2 = \text{Secondary Voltage}$ ,  $N_1 = \text{Primary turn}$

$I_2 = \text{Secondary Current}$ ,  $N_2 = \text{Secondary turn}$

\* Derive the E.M.F Equation for Trans

OR

Prove that  
 $E = 4.44 f N \Phi_m$

OR

$E = 4.44 f N B_m A$

→ When the Alternating Voltage (A.C. Voltage) is supplied to primary winding produce Sinusoidal Alternating Flux in the core.

→ figure - I shows the Sinusoidal flux in core.

Where  $\Phi_m$  = Maximum value of flux

$f$  = Frequency of voltage

$N_1$  = Number of turns in Primary

$N_2$  = Number of turns in Secondary

$E_1$  = E.M.F in Primary winding

$E_2$  = E.M.F in Secondary winding

$B_m$  = flux density in core

$A$  = Cross-section Area of core

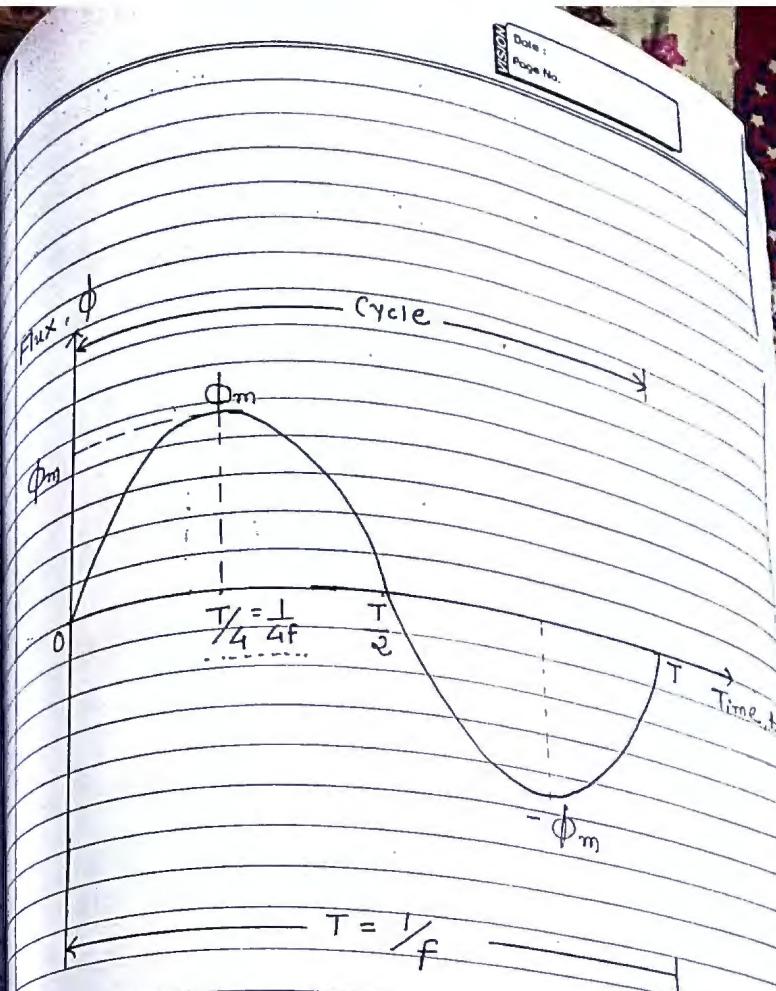


fig. I shows the Alternating (Sinusoidal flux)

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

Cycle

$T$

$\Phi_m$

$-\Phi_m$

$T/4$

$T/2$

$3T/4$

$T$

$\Phi$

Time

$$\text{Let, } \phi = \phi_m \sin \omega t \quad \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

→ According to Faraday's Law of Electromagnetic Induction

$$E = -N \frac{d\phi}{dt} = -N \frac{d(\phi_m \sin \omega t)}{dt} \quad (\because \text{from the equation})$$

$$E = -N \phi_m \omega \cos \omega t \quad (\because \omega t = \theta)$$

$$E = -N \phi_m \omega \cos \theta$$

$$E = -N \phi_m \omega \sin(90^\circ - \theta) \quad (\because \cos \theta = \sin(90^\circ - \theta))$$

$$E = N \phi_m \omega \sin(\theta - 90^\circ)$$

$$E = N \phi_m \omega \sin(\omega t - 90^\circ) \quad (\because \theta = \omega t)$$

→ From the above equation Max. E.M.F.

$$E_m = N \phi_m \omega$$

The R.M.S Value of Induced E.M.F

$$E_{\text{r.m.s}} = \frac{E_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{N \omega \phi_m}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{N \pi f \phi_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$E_{\text{r.m.s}} = 4.44 N f \phi_m$$

E.M.F induced in Primary winding

$$E_1 = 4.44 N_1 f \phi_m = 4.44 N_1 f B_m A$$

E.M.F induced in Secondary winding

$$E_2 = 4.44 N_2 f \phi_m = 4.44 N_2 f B_m A$$

From the Q no. 2  $E_2$  lags behind  $\phi$  by  $90^\circ$

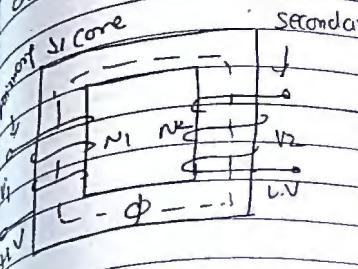
Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

Comparison (OR) Difference between  
Core type and ce Shell type transformer

Core Type

Two limbs for single  
Phase transformer

Windings are wound  
on two limbs



Winding Encircles the  
Core

Single Magnetic circuit

Cylindrical coils are  
used

Preferred for low  
Voltage side

Ropey used

Preferred for high  
Voltage

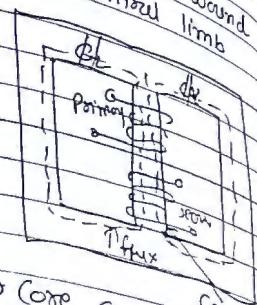
widely used.

Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

Shell Type

Three limbs for 1-b  
transformer

Windings are wound  
on central limb

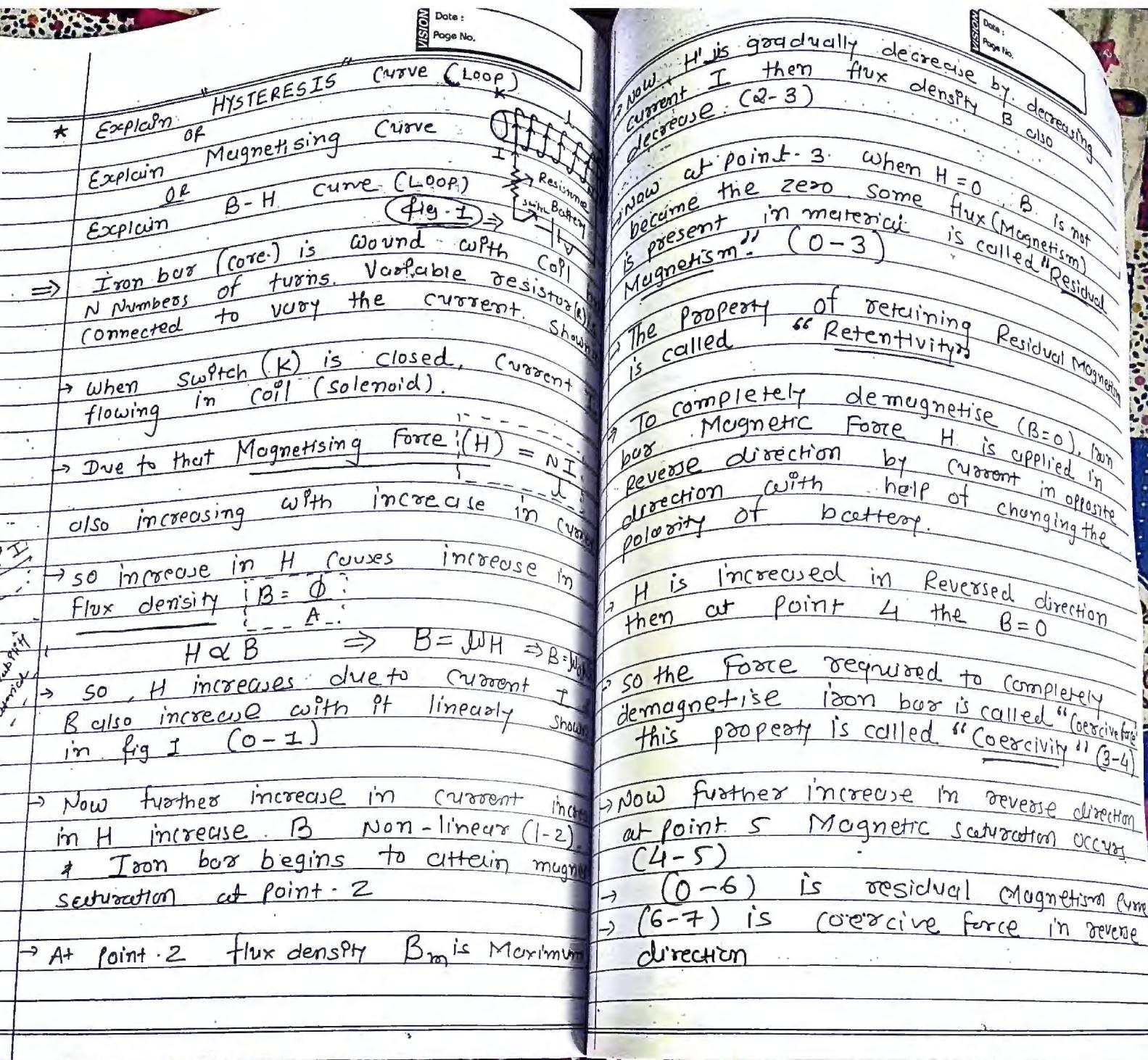


Core Encircles most part  
of winding.

Doubble Magnetic  
Circuit +

Sandwiched type  
Coils are used

widely used.



→ close loop obtained & - 3 - 4 - 5 - 6  
is called Hysteresis Loop

→ Area under the Hysteresis loop is lost in material.

→ "Lagging of Magnetisation or flux  
 (B) behind Magnetising force  
 is known as Magnetic Hysteresis  
 → B (flux density)

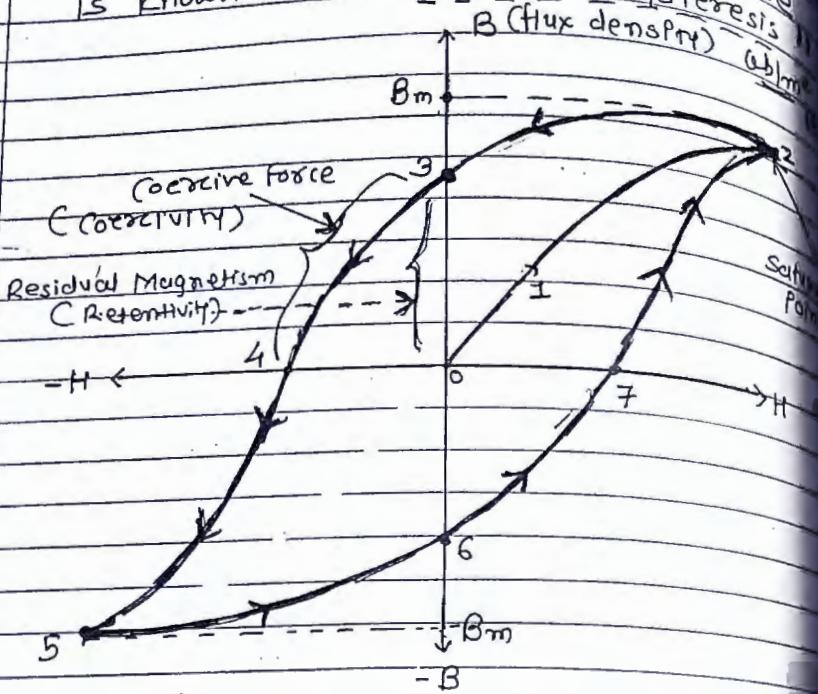


fig :- 2 :- Hysteresis Loop.

→ Soft magnetic materials like iron which is used to make core of transformer. Other electrical machine having small hysteresis loop are used.

→ Loop is small, Loss (waste of Energy) is small

→ Hysteresis loss is given by

$$W_h = n B_m f V$$

where

- $n$  = Steinmetz Constant
- $f$  = frequency of reversal
- $V$  = Volume of core in  $m^3$
- $B_m$  = Maximum flux density
- $W_h$  = Hysteresis loss

\* Transformed ON NO-LOAD with Phases diagram

→ When transformer is said to be on no-load means "Secondary winding is open circuit" NO current flows in Secondary winding.

→ When voltage is applied to primary winding small amount of ( $I_0$ ) no-load current flows in it. Show in fig-1

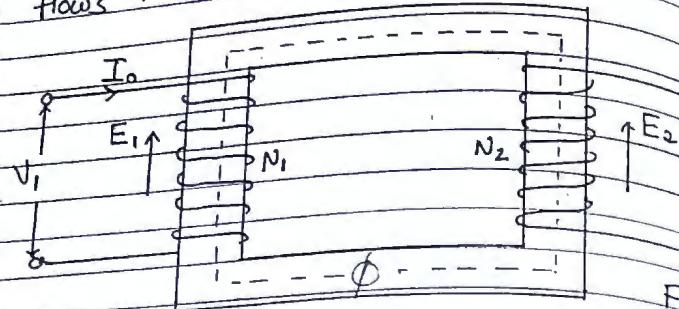


Fig. 1

→  $I_0$  (No-load current) has two components

$I_{W0}$

(Magnetizing component)

$I_{W0}$

(Working component)

→  $I_0$  (No-load current) lags behind the voltage  $V_1$  by angle  $\phi_0 < 90^\circ$

→  $I_{W0}$  (Magnetizing component) magnetize (OR) produce the flux in core.

→ so  $I_{W0}$  is in phase with flux  $\phi$ .

In core. ( $I_{W0}$  loss is negligible) supplies iron loss.  
 $I_{W0}$  is in-phase with  $V_1$ .  
 $E_1$   $E_2$  are produced by some flux  $\phi$  by each other  
 $E_1$   $E_2$  are in-phase with each other.  
 $V_1 = E_2$  As there is no-load OR. No-voltage  
 loop in secondary Applied voltage  $V_1$  to primary winding  
 leads the flux by  $90^\circ$  and in-phase opposition  
 (out of phase) with  $E_2$  show in Fig. 2

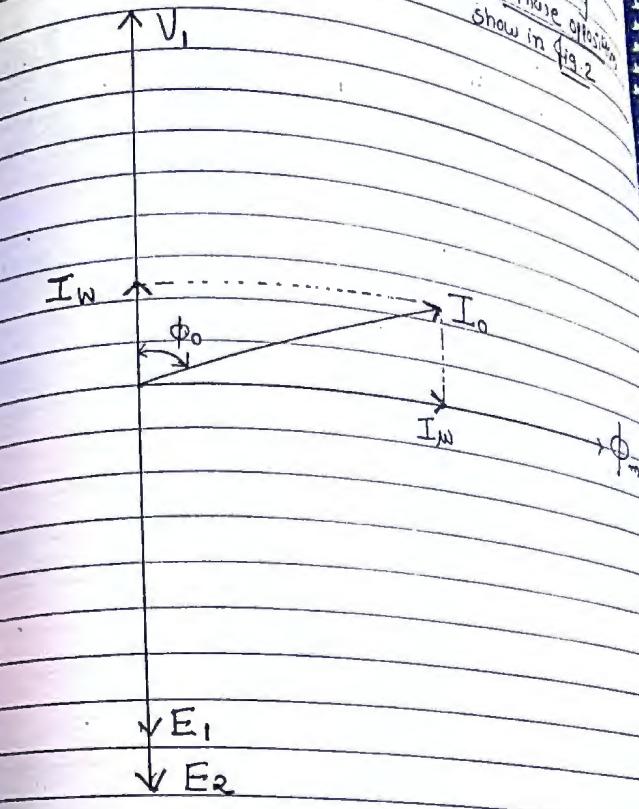


Fig. 2. Phasor diagram

From the diagram

$$I_w = I_o \sin \phi_0$$

$$I_w = I_o \cos \phi_0$$

$$I_o = \sqrt{I_w^2 + I_w^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos \phi_0 =$$

Note  
→  $I_w$  is called  $\Rightarrow$  "Magnetizing component",  
"Reactive component",  
"Wattless component",  
"Quadrature component"

$$\text{Iron loss OR Core loss } (P_c) = V_i I_o \cos \phi_0$$

where  $\phi_0$  = No-load Power factor

OR  
Hysteresis angle of adm.

→ NO load Current ( $I_o$ ) is 3% to 5% of rated current in primary.

→  $I_w$  is called  $\Rightarrow$  "Working component",  
"Active component",  
"Wattfull component",  
"In-Phase component",  
"Energy component",  
"Iron loss OR Core loss component"

→  $I_o$  is called  $\Rightarrow$  "No-load Current"  
 $\Rightarrow$  "Exciting Current"

- Date : \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_
- \* Explain the phasor diagram of Vector diagram of Transformer ON LOAD
    - OR
  - \* Explain phasor diagram of transformer for unity, lagging, leading power factor
    - OR
  - \* Explain phasor diagram of transformer Resistive, Inductive & Capacitive load
    - OR
  - \* Explain or Justify or Prove that flux remain constant in transformer.
    - OR
  - \* Explain or Justify or Prove that Iron loss or core loss is constant irrespective of load in transformer.
- When transformer is on load, secondary current  $I_2$  flows in Pt
- $I_2$  in phase with  $V_2$  for unity Power factor (Resistive)
- $I_2$  lags with  $V_2$  for Lagging Power factor (Inductive)
- $I_2$  leads with  $V_2$  for leading Power factor (Capacitive)
- When Primary Voltage ( $V_1$ ) is applied to primary winding it produce flux  $\Phi_1$ . At no-load condition Pt. Primary winding is Isolated so a Current in Primary winding produces MMF ( $N_1 I_1$ ). Now LOAD is connected in Secondary coil which produce flux  $\Phi_2$  which is opposite of  $\Phi_1$  due to weaken the main flux ( $\Phi_0$ ).  $E_1$  is momentarilly increased that causes flow of additional current  $I_2'$  which set up  $N_2 I_2'$  (MMF) which is opposite to primary flux  $\Phi_1$  which is opposite to  $\Phi_0$ . From the above we conclude that Main Flux ( $\Phi_0$ ) is remain constant.
- Magnetic effect of Secondary Current  $I_2$  due to load immediately neutralized by additional primary current  $I_1$ . So the core loss OR Iron loss is always constant.
- For the phasor diagram
- $I_1$  lags behind  $V_1$  by  $\phi_1$  angle
  - $I_2$  lags behind  $V_2$  by  $\phi_2$  angle
  - $I_2$  &  $I_2'$  opposite to each other (180°)
  - $E_1$  &  $E_2$  lags behind the flux ( $\phi$ ) by 90°
  - $I_1$  is vector OR phasor sum of  $I_2$  &  $I_2'$

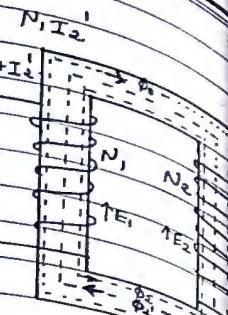
→ Form the figure 1

$$\phi_2 = \phi_2$$

$$N_1 I_{2'} = N_2 I_2$$

$$I_{2'} = N_2 \cdot I_2$$

$$I_{2'} = K I_2$$



→ Primary Current

$$I_1 = I_0 + I_2'$$

→  $I_2'$  is also called "Load component of Primary"

→  $I_2'$  is opposite (Anti-phase) with  $I_2$

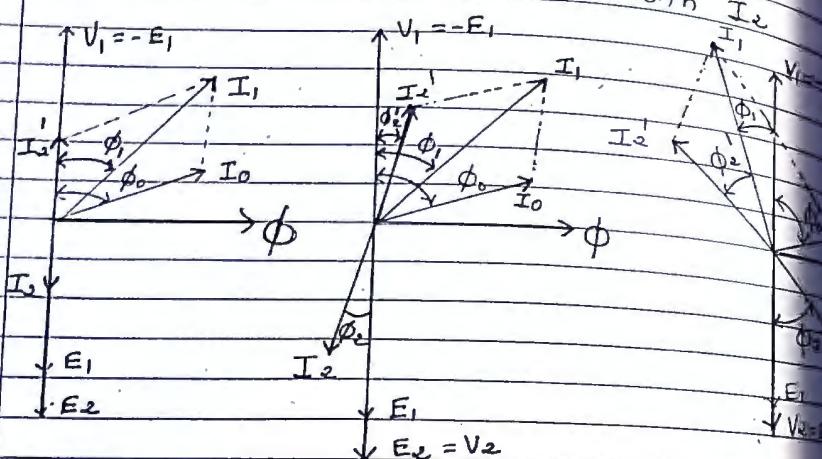


Figure - 2 Phasor diagram

Inductive Load

Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

Explain Auto transformers with applications  
OR  
Advantages & disadvantages  
Derive equation OR Explain  
in Auto Transformers.

Auto transformer has One winding connecting a secondary winding by tappings. Part of Winding above tapping is primary & below is Secondary here we are assuming that.

Fig. 1 shows the Auto transformer one winding is AB connected to supply V1. A has  $N_1$  turns To obtain primary & secondary winding Tapping is provided at C

No. of turns in AC called Primary turns  $N_1$   
No. of turns in CB called Secondary turns  $N_2$

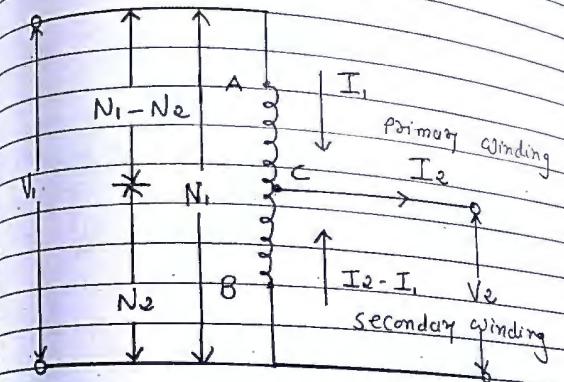


Fig. 3 Auto Transformer

→ Equation for Copper (Cu) Saving

→ Weight of copper in two-winding conventional  
transformers

$$W_t \propto IN$$

$$\rightarrow W_t = I_1 N_1 + I_2 N_2$$

→ In Auto-transformer

Weight of copper in AC position of winding  
and CB position of winding is

$$W_a = I_1 (N_1 - N_2) + (I_2 - I_1) N_2$$

$\frac{W_a}{W_t} = \frac{\text{Weight of copper (conductor) in Auto transformer}}{\text{Weight of copper (conductor) in two-winding}}$

$$\frac{W_a}{W_t} = \frac{I_1 (N_1 - N_2) + N_2 (I_2 - I_1)}{I_1 N_1 + I_2 N_2}$$

$$\frac{W_a}{W_t} = \frac{I_1 N_1 - I_1 N_2 + I_2 N_2 - I_1 N_2}{I_1 N_1 + I_2 N_2}$$

$$\frac{W_a}{W_t} = \frac{I_2 N_2 - I_1 N_2 + I_2 N_2}{2 I_2 N_2}$$

(We know that  
 $N_2 = I_2$ )  
 $\frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{I_2}{I_1} \Rightarrow N_1 I_1 = N_2 I_2$

$$2 I_2 N_2 - 2 I_1 N_2$$

$$2 I_2 N_2$$

$$2 I_2 N_2 - 2 I_1 N_2$$

$$2 I_2 N_2$$

$$\frac{W_a}{W_t} = 1 - \frac{I_1}{I_2}$$

$$\frac{W_a}{W_t} = 1 - K$$

$$W_a = W_t (1 - K)$$

Saving in Copper (Cu) in Auto transformer

$$= W_t - W_a$$

$$= W_t - [W_t (1 - K)]$$

$$= W_t - [W_t - W_t K]$$

$$= W_t - W_t + W_t K$$

$$\text{Savings in Copper} = W_t K$$

### Advantages

- Only One (Common) winding is required.
- Size is compact.
- Cost is less due to less copper.
- Losses are small.
- Efficiency is very high.
- require less space.
- Continuously varying Voltage can be obtained.

### Disadvantages :

- There is no electrical isolation.
- Their windings are connected in series.
- Chance of short circuit.
- Limited application due to one winding for higher voltage.

### Application

- Laboratory Equipments
- Starting of Induction Motor
- Also can be used as Boosters in A.C. T.

VISION  
Date :  
Page No.

Page No.

Rotating Magnetic Field (R.M.F) is produced? OR

Derive the equation OR

$$\phi_r = \frac{3}{2} \phi_m \quad \text{OR} \quad 1.5 \phi_m$$

where  $\phi_r$  = Total Flux (of length) OR  
 $\phi_r$  = Resultant Flux (of Total)

3-Φ (Three Phase) Windings are displaced by 120° shown in figure.

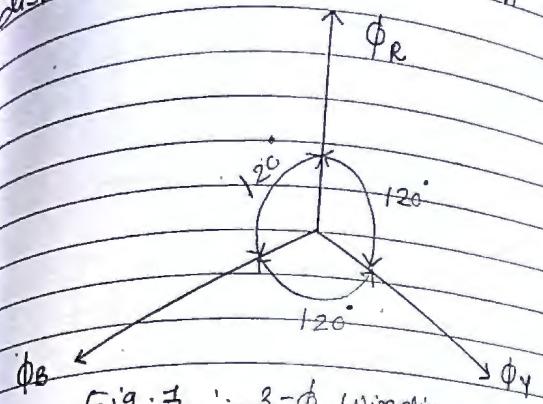


Fig. 1 : 3-Φ Winding displaced by 120°

When 3-Φ supply is given to Stator winding it produce Rotating Magnetic Field (R.M.F) with constant Magnitude & speed.

flux produce by 3-Φ Winding assumed to be sinusoidal & shown in Fig. 2

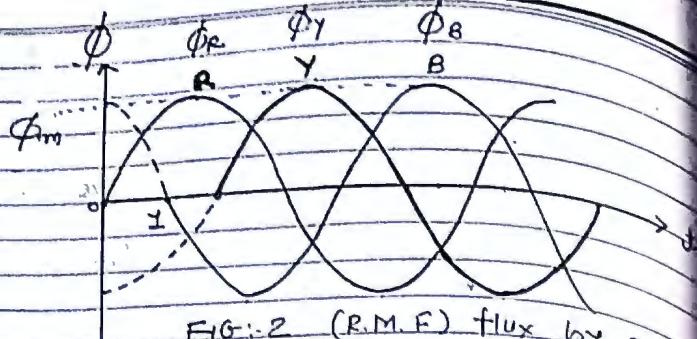


FIG. 2 (R.M.F) flux by 3-φ system

From the fig. 2

$$\phi_R = \phi_m \sin \omega t = \phi_m \sin \theta$$

$$\phi_Y = \phi_m \sin(\omega t - 120^\circ) = \phi_m \sin(\theta - 120^\circ)$$

$$\phi_B = \phi_m \sin(\omega t - 240^\circ) = \phi_m \sin(\theta - 240^\circ)$$

where flux  $\phi_m$  is Maximum flux by any phase.

Total Flux ( $\phi_T$ ) Resultant flux ( $\phi_T$ ) at any instant given by Vector sum of individual flux  $\phi_R, \phi_Y, \phi_B$

take  $\theta = 60^\circ$  at point - I Instant

$$\phi_R = \phi_m \sin \theta \Rightarrow \phi_R = \phi_m \sin 60^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \phi_m$$

$$\phi_Y = \phi_m \sin(\theta - 120^\circ) \Rightarrow \phi_Y = \phi_m \sin(60^\circ - 120^\circ) = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \phi_m$$

$$\phi_B = \phi_m \sin(\theta - 240^\circ) \Rightarrow \phi_B = \phi_m \sin(60^\circ - 240^\circ) =$$

$\phi_R = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \phi_m \rightarrow \phi_Y = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \phi_m, \phi_B = 0$

using vector sum & using fig. 2

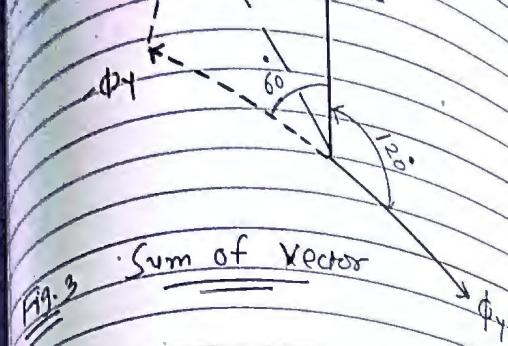


Fig. 3 Sum of Vector

Using Parallelogram

$$\phi_T = \sqrt{\phi_R^2 + \phi_Y^2 + 2\phi_R\phi_Y \cos 60^\circ}$$

$$\text{where } \theta = 60^\circ \\ \therefore \phi_R = \phi_m$$

$$\phi_T = \sqrt{\phi_R^2 + \phi_Y^2 + 2\phi_R\phi_Y \cos 60^\circ}$$

$$\phi_T = \sqrt{\phi_R^2 + \phi_R^2 + 2\phi_R^2 \times \frac{1}{2}} \quad (\because \cos 60^\circ = \frac{1}{2})$$

$$\phi_T = \sqrt{\phi_R^2 + \phi_R^2 + \phi_R^2}$$

$$\phi_T = \sqrt{3} \phi_R$$

$$\phi_T = \sqrt{3} \phi_R$$

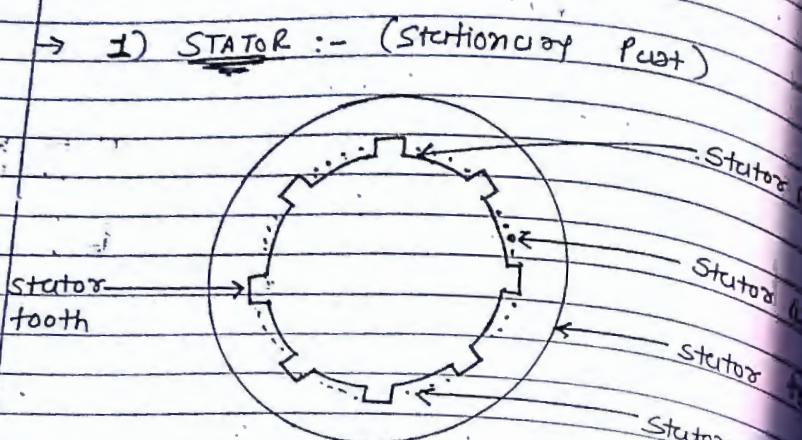
$$\phi_T = \frac{\sqrt{3} \cdot \sqrt{3} \phi_m}{2}$$

$$(\because \phi_R = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \phi_m)$$

$$(\phi_T = \phi_m \Rightarrow \phi_T = 1.5 \phi_m)$$

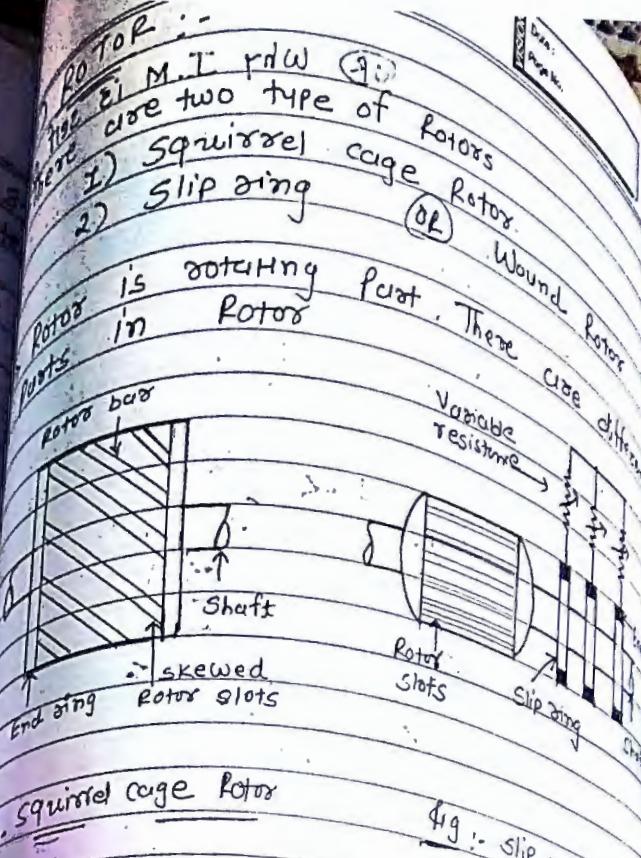
Q Explain Construction & working of Induction Motor Q.B Why I.M is self starting

- Basically 3- $\phi$  Induction Motor has two parts
  - 1) STATOR
  - 2) ROTOR.



- In stator there are different parts
  - a) Stator core
  - b) Stator winding.
  - c) Stator frame
  - d) Stator tooth(slots)

- Stator core is made up of silicon steel & function is to contains (house) winding
- Stator winding is made up of copper function is to produce rotating magnetic field
- Stator frame is made up of cast iron function is to support the core & protect inner parts.
- Stator tooth(slots) holds the stator winding



- Fig :- Slip ring Rotor
- Rotor winding :- is made up of copper wire to produce Rotor current.
  - Brush :- is made up of carbon. Function is to provide connection between resistance & slip ring.
  - Slip ring :- is made up of phosphorus bronze. OR Copper function is to connect the resistance to Rotor circuit through brushes.

Ghust: is made up of Mild steel function it supports the Rotor.

Endings: is used to short circuit the copper bars.

### WORKING :-

- When 3-ph A.C supply given to the stator coil winding, rotating magnetic field is produced.
- Rotating magnetic field is also known as Synchronous Speed ( $N_s = \frac{120f}{P}$ )
- This rotating magnetic field (flux) passes through air gap to Rotor.
- Rotating magnetic field (flux) cut by stationary Rotor winding (conductor). So change in flux occurs that produces E.M.F according to Faraday's law of Electromagnetic Induction.
- E.M.F is proportional to Relative speed between Stationary conductor & Rotating Magnetic field. (P.M.F)
- Direction of E.M.F is given by Fleming's Left hand Rule.
- Rotor circuit is closed then current flows in Rotor.

Direction of Current by Lenz's law

According to Lenz's law that is oppose the current which producing Pt

Cause is E.M.F (R) between Stationary Conductors & Rotating Magnetic field

To reduce the relative speed of Rotor to oppose the relative speed of R.M.F.

As current flows in Rotor produce torque on Motor Rotates in direction of R.M.F.

Rotor speed ( $N$ ) is less than Synchronous Speed ( $N_s$ ).

That is why Induction Motor is started.

## Operating Principle :-

Q- Explain Construction & Working of single phase Induction Motor (1-Φ I.M)

→ Construction of 1-Φ I.M. is similar to Induction Motor except following :-

- I) Stator is supplied with single phase winding.
- II) Centrifugal switch is used to cut off auxiliary winding used for starting purpose.

→ Stator :-

→ Stator slots are distributed uniformly usually 1-Φ double layer winding is used.

→ Stator has two winding and displaced by 90°

- 1) Main winding
- 2) Auxiliary OR Starting winding

→ Rotor

→ Rotor is made up of silicon steel

→ Rotor slots are provided to house the Rotor winding.

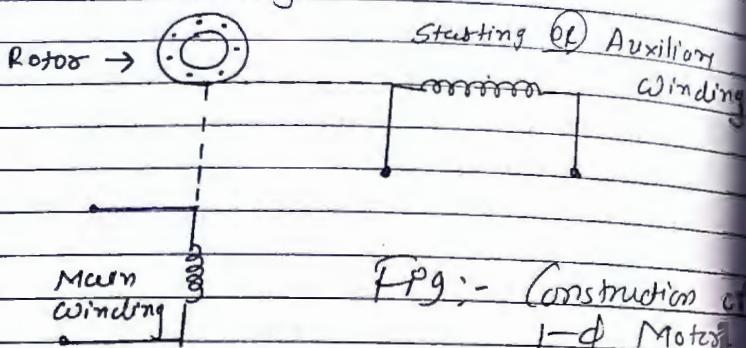
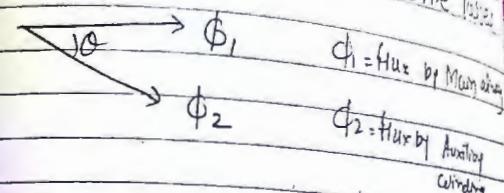


Fig:- Construction of 1-Φ Motor

When 1-Φ Supply is given to stator it induces alternating flux and it cuts the rotor conductors. Due to that torque is developed in rotor. This torque is subjected to torque due to that Pts in each pole. This type of torque is known as starting torque. That is why single phase - Induction Motor is not self starting. To make motor more in one direction we use 1-Φ double field revolving theory so that we need one auxiliary winding to split the phase and make the motor in one direction. Generally in 1-Φ motor auxiliary winding is used for starting purpose.

Centrifugal switch is used to cut off the auxiliary (starting) winding after the starting of Motor. to reduce the loss.



Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

Auxiliary Winding

Explain Construction & Working of D.C  
Motor OR D.C Generator

→ D.C motor and D.C generator has the same construction.

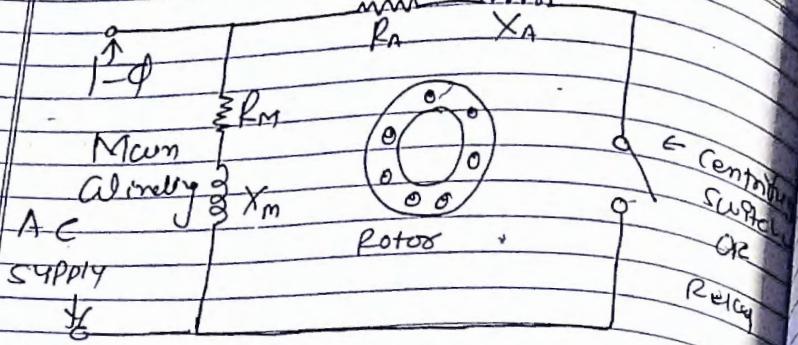
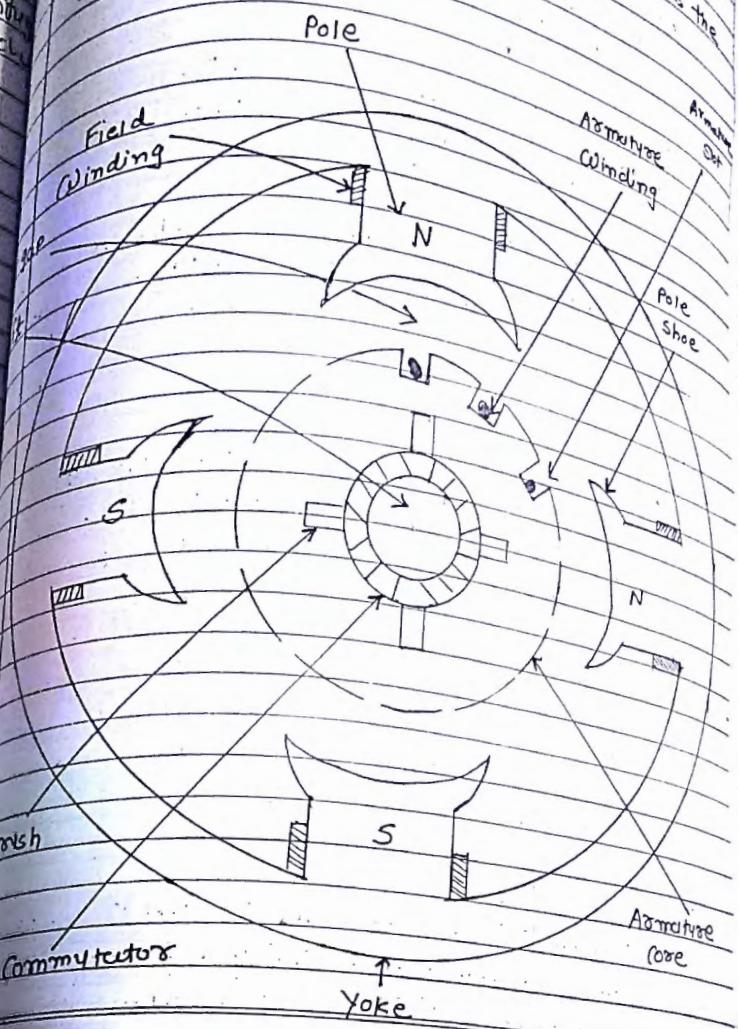


Fig. 1-Φ I-M.



\* Pole  
→ Pole is made up of iron & function is to provide magnetic flux.

\* Pole shoe  
→ Pole shoe is extended part of pole & function is to provide uniform flux distribution.

\* Armature core  
→ Armature core is made up of iron & There are slots in periphery (or) surface of core.

\* Armature winding  
→ Armature winding (conductors) is made up of copper and is connected to load through commutator.  
A brush function is cut the magnetic flux.  
E.M.F induced in it.

\* Field Winding  
→ Field winding is wound on pole. It is also known as exciting winding. Function is to magnetize the pole to produce flux.

\* Yoke  
→ Yoke is outer frame made of silicon steel. Function is to provide mechanical support to core & protection against mechanical damage.

\* Commutator  
→ Commutator is made up of copper segments. Mica insulation is provided between segments. Function is convert AC E.m.f to D.C S.m.f.

**BRUSH**  
Brushes are made up of carbon. Function is to collect the current from commutator.

**LAPPING :-**

When Current carrying conductor is placed in magnetic field. Conductor experiences mechanical force.

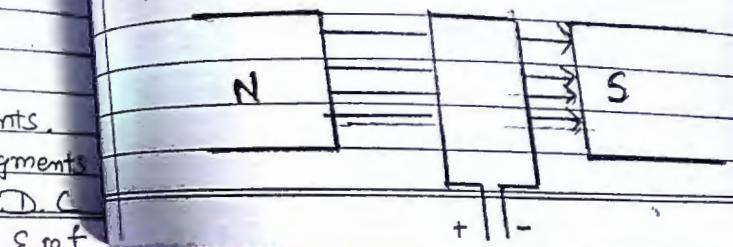
$$F = B I L \sin\theta$$

where  $B$  = Flux density  $\text{wb/m}^2$   
 $I$  = Current in conductor, A  
 $L$  = Length of conductor  
 $\theta$  = Angle between Magnetic field & conductor

→ Force is Unidirectional hence Commutator rotates in one direction

→ The direction of rotation of Commutator is given by Fleming's Left hand Rule

→ In this way input Electrical power is converted into output mechanical power in D.C Motor.



(Q) Explain Construction & working of Synchronous Generators OR Alternators

→ Synchronous generator is machine which converts mechanical energy into 3-Φ a.c. power from the mechanical energy.

→ Construction:

→ There are two main types parts  
1) Stator  
2) Rotor

\* Stator

→ In stator, Stator frame (outer cover) is made up of silicon steel or cast steel to reduce Hysteresis loss.  
→ Stator core is built up of thin laminations to reduce eddy current loss.  
→ The stator core has slots on its surface for holding armature conductors.

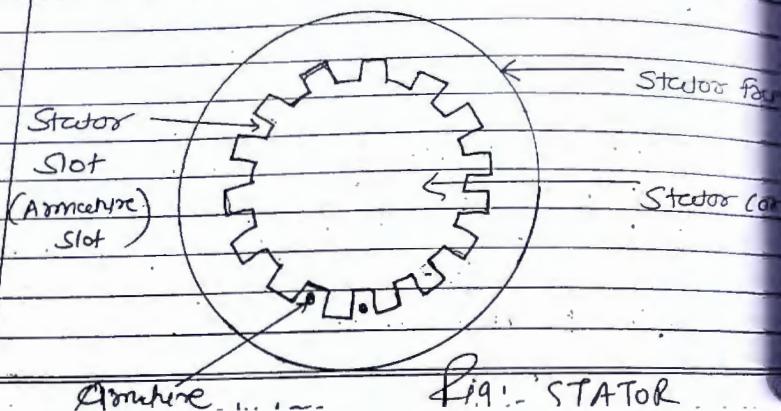


Fig:- STATOR

There are two type of Rotor

Salient pole type

(OR)

Projected Pole type

Non Salient pole type

(OR)

Smooth cylindrical type

Salient pole type

Non Salient pole

Poles are projecting

Poles are non projecting

Concentrated field

Distributed field

winding is used

winding is used

Separate dumper winding is used to prevent hunting

separate dumping winding is not required.

Larger diameter and smaller axial length.

Smaller diameter and larger axial length.

Preferred for low & medium speed of generators (50-1000 rpm) driven by diesel engine & Hydro turbine.

High speed generators (1500-3000 rpm) driven by Steam turbine

Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

Fig.: Salient Pole Rotor

Fig.: Smooth cylinder Rotor

This E.M.F. is also alternating, so current flows in one direction, then in other direction. The direction of E.M.F. can be given by Fleming's right hand rule.

The induced voltage (E.m.f) depends on speed of rotor & d.c. excitation current.

\* Working principle of synchronous generator (Alternator)

- Generally stationary armature & rotating field type of Generator is used.
- Rotor winding is energized by d.c. exciter.
- This causes alternate N and S poles to be developed on Rotor.
- When the rotor is rotated in anticlockwise direction by prime mover stator conductors are cut by rotor pole flux.
- As per faraday's law of electro magnetism e.m.f is induced in Stator.

What is Earthing (Grounding)? Necessity  
Earthing. List the types of Earthing. Explain One Earthing (Plate Earthing or Pipe Earthing). Methods of reducing Earth Resistance Earthing: "Process of connecting the metallic part of Non-current carrying part of Electrical equipment to Earth is called Earthing or Grounding".

→ For the practical purpose Potential Earth is to be considered zero.

→ Value of Earth resistance depends on following factors

- 1) Material & size of Earth wire & electrode
- 2) Moisture & Temperature of soil
- 3) Depth of Earth electrode (wire)

#### \* Types of Earthing

#### OR Methods of reducing Earth Resistance

- 1) Pipe Earthing
- 2) Plate Earthing
- 3) Rod Earthing
- 4) Staff or Wire Earthing
- 5) Water Earthing
- 6) Chemical Earthing

#### Necessity of Earthing :-

- 1) Protection against shock
- 2) Protection of Equipments
- 3) Maintain line voltage constant

## Earthing :-

Earth connection is made using GI (Galvanised) plate OR Copper plate. Dimensions of Copper plate should not be less than  $60\text{ cm} \times 60\text{ cm} \times 2.16\text{ mm}$ . For GI plate  $60\text{ cm} \times 60\text{ cm} \times 6.36\text{ mm}$ .

Plate is buried in to the ground (Earth) not less than 3m.

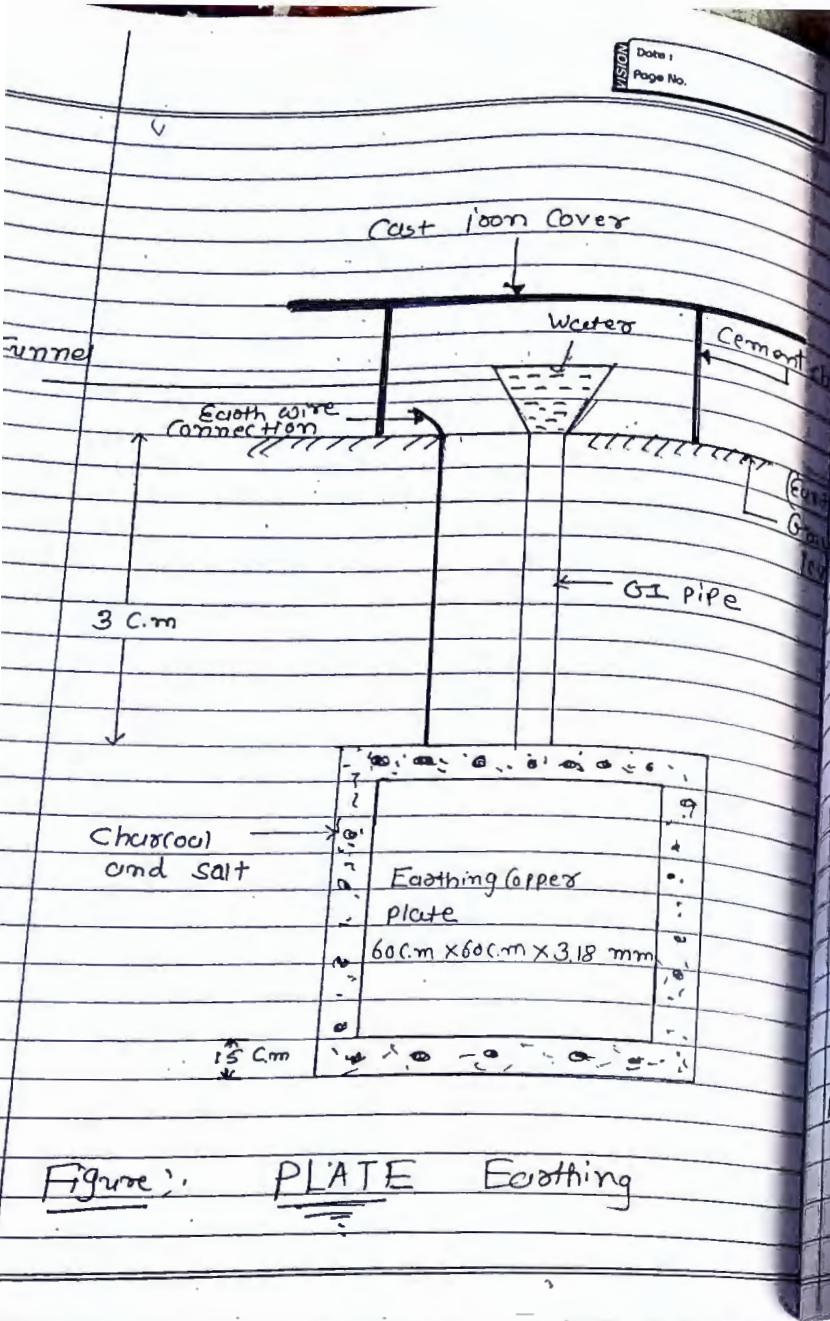
Earth plate (Copper or GI plate) is surrounded by Charcoal & salt layer for thickness of 15 cm (carbon).

Charcoal maintains moisture and enhance conductivity. Salts maintains the ions so helps in easily outflow of Earth current.

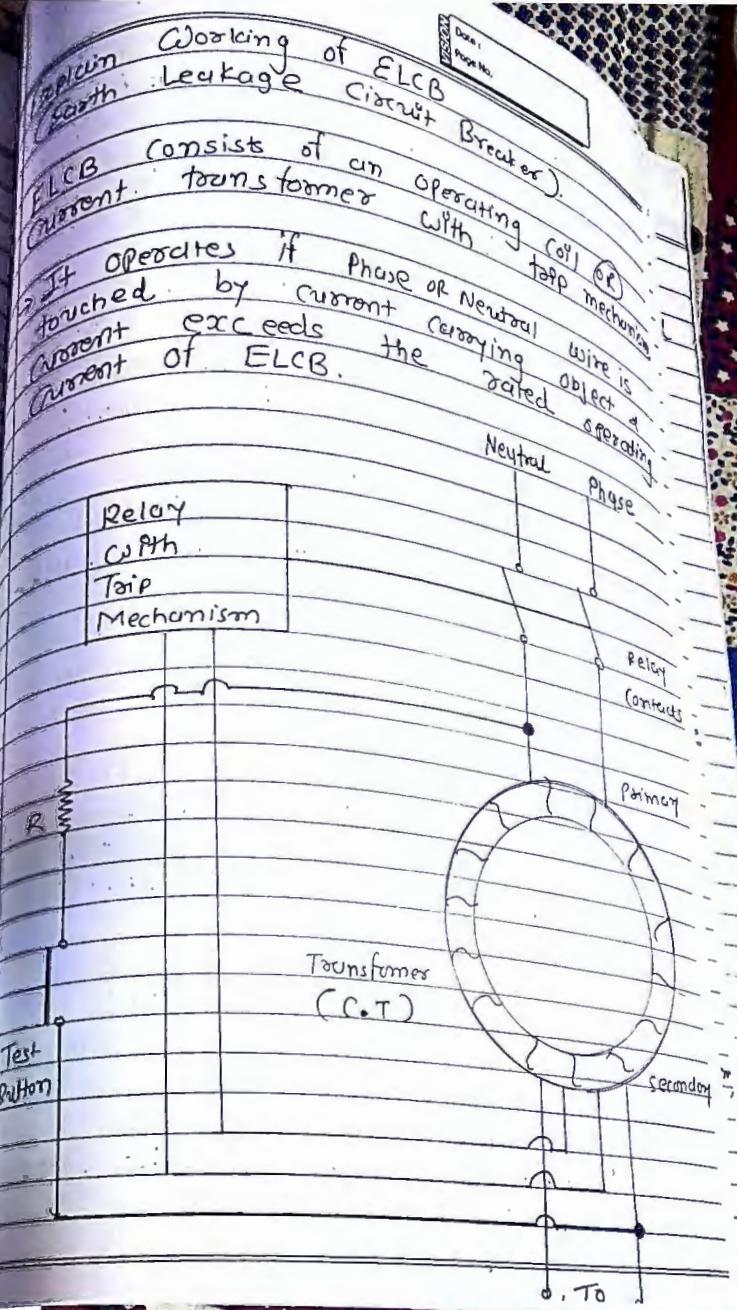
Water is poured for keeping the Earth's Electrode (plate) resistance value low. Water is poured by funnel.

Earth wire is securely bolted to plate (Copper wire).

Cement chamber is built with cast iron over for easy regular maintenance.



## Figure: PLATE Earthing



- Phase and Neutral wire connected to one winding of transformer through relay contacts.
- Second winding controls the trip mechanism.
- Under the Normal Conditions there is no leakage current so tripping relay is not energized. So the relay contacts are kept close using spring mechanism.
- When Earth leakage occurs either the phase side or neutral side of circuit, so currents are unbalanced.
- Due to that unbalanced current relay operates the trip mechanism which isolates supply from the load.
- A Test button is included in ELCB for testing trip mechanism. This test should be done periodically to ensure satisfactory working of ELCB.
- ELCB senses small leakage current so we can avoid the injury & fire from the shocks.
- This device also known as Residual Current Circuit Breaker (RCCB).

So ELCB (RCCB) operates with extremely small leakage current in definite time which is set by fuse and MCB.

So ELCB are used in Residential & Commercial premises.

Q-

What is Power Factor? Causes (Reasons) of low Power Factor. Disadvantages of low Power Factor. Methods of improving Power Factor.

ANS

Power Factor: Power Factor is the angle between voltage and current. ( $\cos\phi$ )

(\*) Causes (Reasons) of Low Power Factor :-

→ Most of AC Motors (1- $\phi$  & 3- $\phi$  A.C) have low lagging power factor around (0.2 to 0.3) at light load & at full load (0.8 to 0.9).

→ Arc lamps, Electrical discharge lamp have low power factor (0.6 to 0.7)

→ Industrial AC furnace has low power factor (0.5)

→ Load on power system is also varying during the day. At low load period in Transformer magnetizing current is increased so the power factor is reduced.

(\*) Disadvantages of Low Power Factor

Note → Power consumed is depend on power factor for 1- $\phi$  A.C

$$P = VI \cos\phi$$

For 3- $\phi$  A.C

$$P = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos\phi$$

$$\cos\phi = \frac{P}{VI}$$

$$\cos\phi = \frac{P}{\sqrt{3} V_L I_L}$$

From the equation

Power factor  $\propto$  Proportional to load Current

→ Greater conductor size is required as current is increased due to low power factor

→ Large copper loss ( $I^2 R$ ) due to large current reduce the efficiency

KVA Rating of Transformer

$$\cos\phi = \frac{\text{Active Power (kW)}}{\text{Apparent Power (kVA)}}$$

→ From the above equation KVA rating of transformer is increased lead to more capital cost

Poor Voltage Regulation  
→ Due to low power factor there is voltage drop in line leads to poor voltage regulation.

(\*) Methods to improve the power factor

→ Majority of loads are inductive and take lagging currents. Load lags voltage by  $\phi$ .

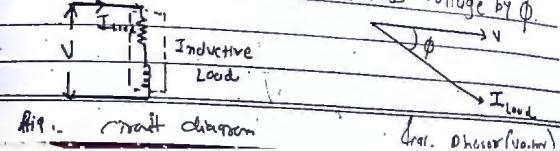


Fig. Phasor diagram

Fig. Phasor diagram

$\cos \phi = I_c / I$

Note:  $\cos \phi = 0.7076$  (for  $45^\circ$ )

Power factor  $45^\circ = 0.7076$  (for  $45^\circ$ )

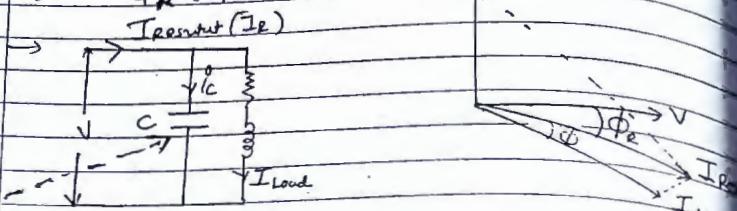
To improve the power factor, angle between voltage and current is to be decrease from  $90^\circ$  to zero for unity power factor.

If capacitor is placed (connected) in parallel, then  $I_c$  is capacitor current which is leading.

Now Resultant Current ( $I_r$ ) is vector sum of  $I_c + I_L$ .

Angle between  $I_{\text{resultant}}$  & Voltage is  $\phi_r$

$$\phi_r \because \phi_r < \phi$$



Methods to improve Power factor by following equipments

- 1) Static Capacitor
- 2) Synchronous Condenser
- 3) Phase advancer

Classification (Types) of wiring  
Comparison of difference between wiring systems  
A single conductor is surrounded by insulation  
Function of wire is to carry current.  
Gauge of wire measured by Gauge meter.

Types of wire :-

- a) V.I.R (Vulcanised Indian Rubber) wire
- b) C.T.S (Car Tyre sheathed)
- OR
- c) T.R.S (Tough Rubber sheathed) wire
- d) P.V.C (Poly Vinyl chloride) wire
- e) Lead Alloy sheathed wire
- f) Weather proof wire
- g) Flexible wire

Classification (Types) of wiring :-

i) Cleat wiring

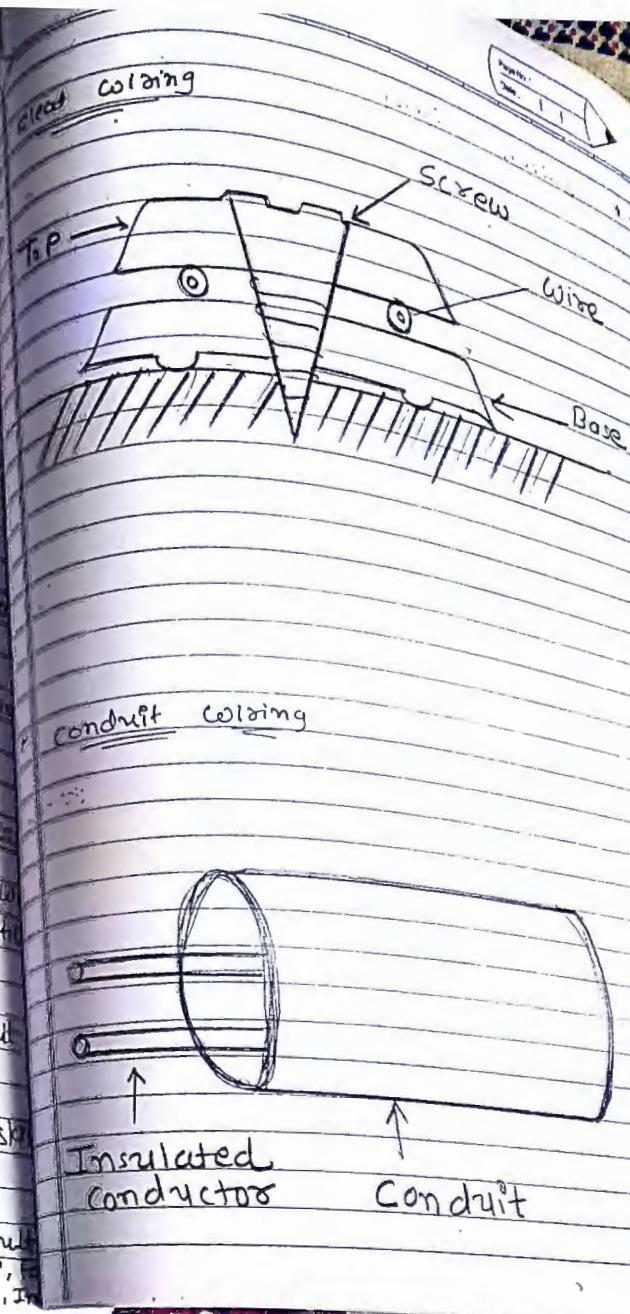
ii) Casing & Capping (PVC type)

iii) Battens wiring

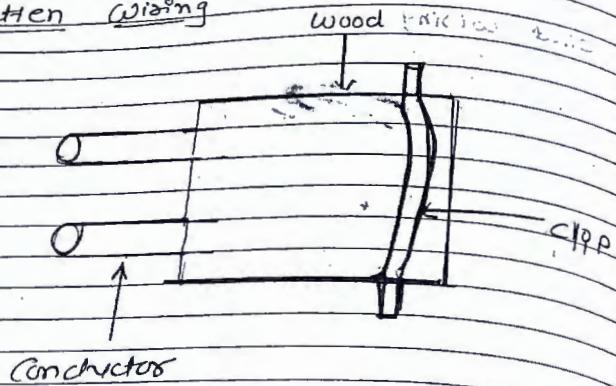
iv) Conduit wiring

## \* Comparison between different wiring systems

SR. NO	Particulars	Cable wiring	Casing wiring	Butter wiring	Conduit wiring
1	Life (short)	Moderately long	Fairly long	Very long	
2	Cost	Less	Medium	Medium	Higher
3	Fire Protection	Nill	Good	Good	Nill
4	Mechanical Protection	None	Fair	None	Very good
5	Protection from Moisture	No	Good	Less	Very good
6	Flexibility	More	Less	More	Very less
7	Maintenance	Easy	Moderate	Easy	Conduit very difficult
8	Installation	Easy	difficult	Easy	very difficult
9	Type of Labour required	Semiskilled	Semiskilled	Semiskilled	Highly skilled
10	Inspection	Easy	Easy	Easy	Difficult
11	Application	Social function (Temporary)	Residential (Commercial)	Office building	Workshop, Godowns, Industrial



### Batten wiring



Page No.:  
Date: 11

Ques. (a) Give classification of cables  
Explain General construction of cables.

When two or more conductors covered with suitable insulation and surrounded by protective cover is known as "cable".

Classification (Types) of cables :-

- (1) Type of conductor used
- (2) Type of core used
- (3) According to insulation
- (4) According to sheath
- (5) According to Armouring
- (6) According to construction type
- (7) According to use
- (8) According to Voltage level.

(1) Type of conductor :-

→ Copper or Aluminium as conductor is used.

(2) Type of core :-

→ According to core 1 core, 2 core, 3 core, 3 core.

(3) According to Insulation :-

→ Rubber

→ PVC

→ Varnished

→ Paper

→ Polythene

→ XLPE

## \* 4) According to sheath :-

- PVC Sheathed
- Lead Sheathed
- Lead-Alloy Sheathed
- Aluminum

## \* 5) According to Armouring :-

- Single layer Steel wire
- Double layer steel wire
- Double layer Steel tape

## \* 6) According to construction :-

- Belted cables
- H-type cables
- OPI filled cable
- Gas filled cable
- HSL type cable.

## \* 7) According to use :-

- Power cables → To transmit power
- Control cables → To transmit control signals

## \* 8) According to voltage level.

- L.T (Low Tension cable) up to 1000V
- H.T (High Tension cable) up to 11,000V
- S.T (Super Tension cable) up to 33,000V
- E.H.T (Extra high tension cable) up to 66,000V
- E.S.V (Extra super tension voltage) up to 132,000V
- U.H.V (Ultra high Voltage) beyond 132,000V

## CONSTRUCTION OF CABLE

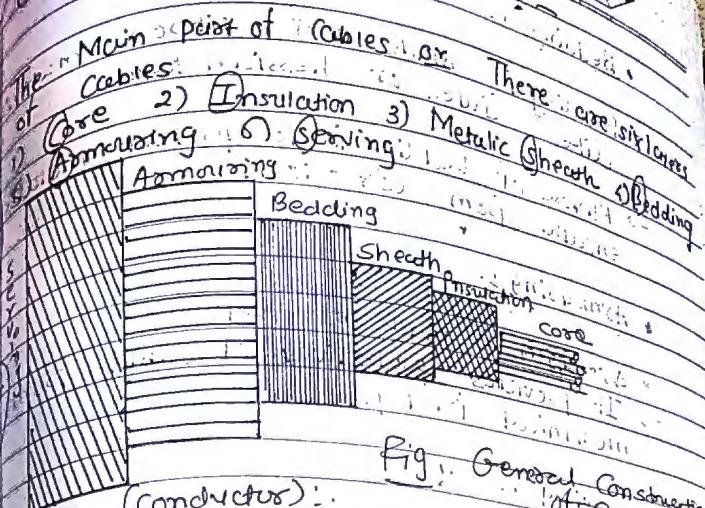


Fig.: General Construction of Cable.

## \* Core (Conductor) :-

- Core (Conductor) is made up of copper or aluminum
- Core may be 1 core, 2 core, 3 core, 4 core
- Function of core is to carry the current
- 2½ core (⊗) 4 core is used for 3-Φ A.C with Neutral system

## \* Insulation :-

- To withstand against high voltage (pressure)
- Various type of insulation like paper, rubber, PVC etc.

## \* Sheath :-

- Sheath is made of Aluminium or Lead or Metal
- It restricts moisture to reach the insulation.

### \* Bedding :-

- Bedding is made up of fibrous materials like Jute or hessian tape.
- Purpose of bedding is to protect metallic sheath from corrosion.

### \* Armouring :-

- Armouring is made of steel
- It provides protection of cable from mechanical injury.

### \* Seaving :-

- Seaving is the last layer of cable above the armouring.
- It is made of jute cloth which protects armouring from atmospheric condition.

What is cell? & Types of cell? Explain  
Types of Grouping of cells? Explain  
(OR)

Explain Series and parallel grouping of cells  
Explain Mixed grouping of cells  
Cell :- Device which convert Chemical Energy into Electrical Energy.

### Types of cell

Primary cell Secondary cell

Cell in which reversible process (Chemical) is not possible is called Primary cell.

It can supply the current only until Electrode is dissolved. It is non-rechargeable.

e.g. Daniell cell, Lech-lanche, dry cell, Zinc-Carbon, Mercury,

### Secondary :-

Cell in which chemical to electrical & reversible process (Electrical to chemical) is possible is called Secondary cell.

e.g. Lead-acid, lithium-ion, Nickel-ferrim, Cadmium-alkaline.

→ Due to rechargeable property. Pt. is widely used.

There are three types of grouping

- 1) Series Grouping
- 2) Parallel Grouping
- 3) Mixed grouping (Combination of series & parallel)

### Series Grouping :-

→ Series Grouping is used where higher current of voltage (OR) desirable Voltage is required.

→ When two or more cells are connected such that negative terminal of one cell is to the positive terminal of other cell it is called Series grouping as shown in fig.

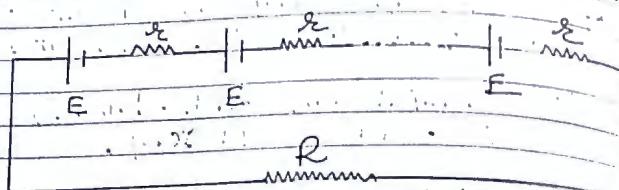


fig:- cells connected in series

Therefore,

$$\text{Total Voltage} = n \times E \text{ Volt}$$

$$\text{Total Internal resistance} = n \times r \text{ } \Omega$$

$$\text{Total Resistance} = R + (n \times r) \text{ } \Omega$$

$$\text{Total Current (I)} = \frac{nE}{R + (n \times r)} \text{ Amp}$$

Mixed Grouping (Series + Parallel grouping)  
Few cells are connected in series these branches are connected in serial then it is called Series - parallel grouping  
Ex:- Mixed grouping

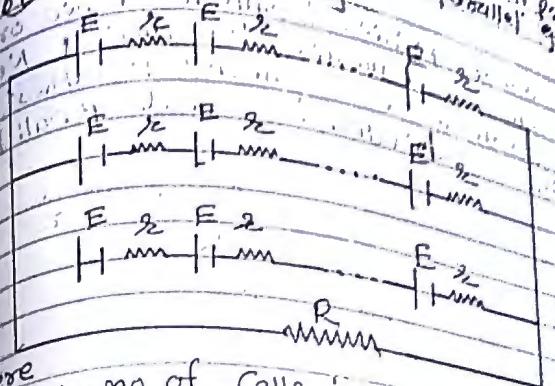


Fig:-  
Mixed  
grouping

Here

$n$  = no. of Cells in Series

$m$  = no. of branches in parallel

$r$  = Internal resistance of each cell

$E$  = E.M.F (Voltage) of cell

$$\therefore \text{Voltage of one branch} = nE$$

$$\therefore \text{Total internal resistance of one branch} = nr$$

$$\therefore \text{Total resistance of all cell} = \frac{nr}{m}$$

$$\therefore \text{Total Resistance of circuit} = R + \frac{nr}{m}$$

$$\therefore \text{Total Current I} = \frac{nE}{(R + \frac{nr}{m})} = \frac{nE}{mR + nr}$$

Q) What is Battery? Types of Battery :-  
Lead - Acid Battery  
Charging & discharging of Lead - Acid Battery  
Explain Construction & Working of Lead - Acid Battery

\* Battery :- "When two or more Cells are connected together is called Battery".

\* Types of Batteries :-

- 1) Lead - Acid Battery
- 2) Nickel - Iron Battery
- 3) Nickel - Cadmium cell
- 4) Lithium - Ion Battery
- 5) Nickel - Metal Hydride.

\* Construction of Lead - Acid Battery :-

→ Battery consists of following parts  
1) Anode (Positive)  
2) Cathode (Negative)  
3) Electrolyte  
4) Container

→ Anode (Positive) plates made of  $(\text{PbO}_2)$   
Lead peroxide & colour of Pt is black

→ Negative (Cathode) plates made of  $(\text{Pb})$   
Spongy Lead & colour is grey

→ Positive & negative plates are connected in group

Electrolyte used is dilute Sulphuric acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ). Both plates (Anode & Cathode) are immersed in electrolyte. Specific gravity about 1.28 in dilute form. Container is made of plastic or ceramic, so that no action take place on container.

Working :- (Charging & discharging).

\* Discharging :-

→ When full charged battery is connected to an External load circuit, it starts delivering current to load.

→ During Discharging process direction of current from positive (Anode) terminal to negative (Cathode) terminal in External load circuit and from Cathode to anode through Electrolyte inside battery.

→ Current passing through battery electrolyte decomposes  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  in Positive ( $\text{OH}^-$ ) and Negative ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) ions.

→ At Cathode :-

→  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  reacts with Negative (Cathode) plates



$\text{PbSO}_4$  is lead sulphate.

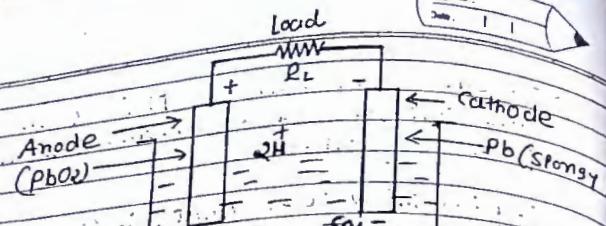
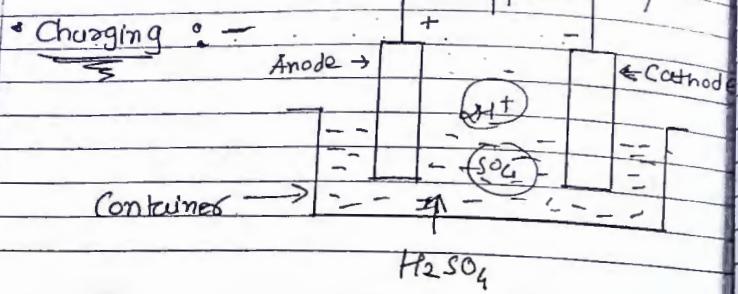


Fig: - D.P.S. charging

- At Anode:  $\text{PbO}_2 + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{PbO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- Hydrogen gas ( $\text{H}_2$ ) reacts with Anode  $\text{PbO}_2 + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{PbO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- This further reacts with  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$   $\text{PbO} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{PbSO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$

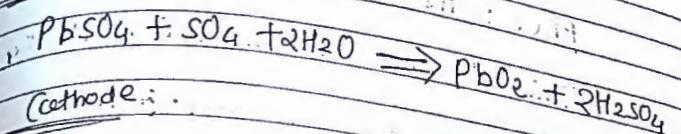
→ During load condition, discharging take place & Chemical Energy stored in battery is converted into Electrical Energy.

- By this process both Electrodes convert in whiteish colour.
- Due to formation of water,  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  dilution specific gravity reduced from 1.28 to 1 terminal voltage get reduced from 2.0 V to 1.8 V.



To charge the battery, Pt is connected with d.c. voltage source having higher than battery voltage.  
During this process Anode is connected with positive (+ve) terminals & Cathode is connected with negative (-ve) terminal. By this positive (H2) move towards Cathode & Sulphate ion ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) towards Anode.

At Anode:



At Cathode:



During Charging of battery both the plates regain their composition.

Water is consumed &  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  is formed.

Specific gravity of acid increased from 1.15 to 1.28

Voltage is increased from 1.8 V to 2.0 V

P.C.S. 11

Q Explain Characteristics (Electrical) of Battery (Lead-Acid Battery) OR Any Battery?  
 OR  
 Explanation Watt-hour Efficiency = Ampere-hour efficiency = voltage × current / capacity after the CCA of Battery (Accumulator)

ANS Watt-hour Efficiency (Energy Efficiency) :-  
 " Ratio of Watt-hour required during discharge to Watt-hour required during charging "

Watt-hour Efficiency ( $\eta_{wh}$ )

$$\eta_{wh} = \frac{\text{Watt hour (Energy) required during discharge}}{\text{Watt hour (Energy) required during charging}}$$

Practically Watt-hour OR Energy efficiency  $\eta_{wh}$  is about 75% to 85%.

Ampere-hour Efficiency ( $\eta_{Ah}$ ) :-

" Ratio of Ampere-hour during discharge to Ampere-hour required during charging "

Ampere-hour Efficiency ( $\eta_{Ah}$ )

$$\eta_{Ah} = \frac{\text{Ampere hour during discharge}}{\text{Ampere hour during charging}} \times 100$$

Another name of Ampere-hour efficiency is Capacity "

$\eta_{Ah}$  is about 90% to 95%.

Voltage :-

Average E.M.F of cell is about 2.0 V  
 E.M.F of cell changes with change in specific gravity, temperature & time.  
 While charging the battery or cell, source voltage must be higher than battery E.M.F.

Current :-

Current capacity is also known as Battery capacity. It is also expressed in Ampere-hours.  
 Take an Example 10 Ampere-hours means one Ampere current drawn (How) for 10 hours.  
 Current depends on size of electrodes & space between plate (electrodes)

CCA (Cold Cranking Ampere) :-

This rating is applicable to cell 12 V batteries irrespective of their size.

Battery discharge OR provides Ampere that cut  $-18^{\circ}\text{C}$

### Q. Comparison between Fuse and MCB

Fuse	MCB
→ Fuse wire melts on excessive current flows.	→ It operates to cut off circuit even on very small over load.
→ The fuse wire may not be available of demand of rating.	→ MCB (Miniature Circuit Breaker) available in standard rating.
→ It melts on 50 to 100% Overload.	→ It operates on 50% to 100% of overload.
→ It is very dangerous and risky to rewrite fuse at night.	→ It is very easy to operate it.
→ It is cheapest source of protection.	→ Initial cost is more.
→ It is require skillful person to Rewrite the fuse.	→ It does not require skillful person to operate MCB.
→ Fuse board is very large compare to MCB for some rating. So its looks is moderate.	→ MCB is compact so looks elegant.

### Energy Consumption

A consumer uses 10 kw gezer, 6 kw fan, 5 kw lamp of Electrical Energy have been used else find total cost of energy consumption per unit is 2.5 Rs.

$$\text{Load-1} \rightarrow 10 \text{ kw gezer}$$

$$\text{Load-2} \rightarrow 6 \text{ kw Electric fan}$$

$$\text{Load-3} \rightarrow 5 \text{ kw bulb} \times 5 = 300 \text{ Watt} = 0.5 \text{ kw}$$

$$\text{Total load} = 10 \text{ kw} + 6 \text{ kw} + 0.5 \text{ kw} = 16.5 \text{ kw}$$

$$\text{Time taken} = 15 \text{ hours}$$

$$\text{Energy Consumed} = \text{Power} \times \text{time}$$

$$= 16.5 \text{ kw} \times 15 = 247.5 \text{ J}$$

We know that

$$1 \text{ Unit} = 1 \text{ kWh}$$

so total Unit is 247.5 Unit.

Cost is 2.5 Rs per Unit

$$\text{then}$$

$$\text{total cost is } = 247.5 \times 2.5$$

$$= 618.75 \text{ Rs}$$

Q Explain or Elab or Describe the Safety Precautions for Electrical safety or Handling Electrical Appliances (Equipments)

Ans → Following are the Safety Precaution

- Always wear rubber shoes when working with electrical appliances.
- Do not charge battery in a dark room.
- Always follow the Manufacturer's Instruction
- Replace or Repair damaged wires.
- Keep Electrical equipments away from the water.
- Do not overload the Outlets
- Shut off the power supply when you don't want to operate appliances for longer time.
- Do not use flammable liquids.
- Always use proper protection like ELCB, MCB, Fuse, etc.
- Do the Maintenance of equipment when P.T. is needed.
- Do not touch overhead lines Unless you are sure that pt is dead and properly earthed.

Q Calculate Ah efficiency and Wh efficiency of cell having 20 hrs capacity and delivering 5A for 36 hrs with mean terminal voltage of 1.96 V.

The terminal Voltage on charge has a mean value of 2.35 V

$$\text{Charging current } (I_c) = 10 \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Charging time } (t_c) = 20 \text{ hrs}$$

$$\text{Charging Voltage } (V_d) = 2.35 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{Discharging current } (I_d) = 5 \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Discharging time } (t_d) = 36 \text{ hrs}$$

$$\text{Discharging Voltage } (V_d) = 1.96 \text{ V}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Ah charge} = I_c t_c = 10 \times 20 = 200 \text{ Ah}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Ah discharge} = I_d t_d = 5 \times 36 = 180 \text{ Ah}$$

$$\text{Ah efficiency} = \frac{\text{Ah discharge}}{\text{Ah charge}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{180}{200} \times 100 = 90\%$$

$$\text{Ah efficiency is } 90\%.$$

$$\boxed{\eta_{Ah} = 90\%}$$

$$\text{Wh efficiency} = \text{Ah efficiency} \times \frac{V_d}{V_c}$$

$$\text{Wh efficiency} = 90 \times 1.96$$

$$= \frac{1.96}{2.35} \times 100 = 84\%$$

$$\text{Wh efficiency} = 75\% \Rightarrow \boxed{\eta_{Wh} = 75\%}$$

Ex A discharged battery is put on charge at 5A for 3.5 hrs. At the end of this time it is disconnected and discharged through resistance R ohms. If the duration of discharge period is 6 hrs and terminal voltage remains constant at 12V, determine the value of R. The Ah efficiency is 85%

$$\begin{aligned} I_c &= 5A \\ t_c &= 3.5 \text{ hrs} \\ \eta &= 85\% \end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Ah charge} = 5 \times 3.5 = 17.5 \text{ Ah}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \text{Ah discharge} &= \text{Ah charge} \times \text{Ah Efficiency} \\ &= 17.5 \times 0.85 \\ &= 14.875 \text{ Ah} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow \text{Discharge current } I_d &= \frac{V}{R} \\ &= \frac{12}{R} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Ah discharge} = I_d \times t_d$$

$$14.875 = \frac{12 \times 6}{R}$$

$$R = \frac{12 \times 6}{14.875}$$

$$R = 4.84 \Omega$$

6. Similar cells are connected in series and supply current to load resistance of 6Ω. The E.M.F of each cell is 2V and internal resistance of each cell is 0.2Ω. Calculate i) Total internal resistance  
ii) Current supplied  
iii) Terminal voltage

$$\begin{aligned} \text{i) Total Internal resistance} &= n\gamma \\ &= 6 \times 0.2 \\ &= 1.2 \Omega \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ii) Total Voltage} &= nE \\ &= 6 \times 2 \\ &= 12 V \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{iii) Current Supplied } I &= \frac{nE}{R + n\gamma} \\ &= \frac{12}{6 + 1.2} \\ &= 1.667 A. \end{aligned}$$