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Introduction

The concepts of voltage and current are clearly important in the analysis of circuits, but the concept of power analysis may be of even greater importance since:

- power is the most important quantity in the transmission of electrical energy from one point to another.
- every industrial and household electrical device requires the delivery of power to it in order to operate.

The most common form of electric power in the United States is 50- or 60-Hz AC power.



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Average power can also be found when the voltage and current are expressed in the frequency domain:

$$P = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re}[\operatorname{VI}^*] = \frac{1}{2} V_m I_m \cos(\theta_v - \theta_i)$$

When the voltage and current are in phase ($\theta_v = \theta_i$), a purely resistive circuit or resistive load is implied and:

$$P = \frac{1}{2}V_m I_m = \frac{1}{2}I_m^2 R = \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{I}|^2 R$$

When $\theta_v - \theta_i = \pm 90^\circ$, the circuit is purely reactive and: $P = \frac{1}{2} V_m I_m \cos(90^\circ) = 0$

A resistive load (R) absorbs power at all times while a reactive load (L or C) absorbs zero average power.







It was previously shown that, for a DC supply circuit, maximum power was transferred to a load when the load resistance equaled the Thevenin resistance of the supply circuit as seen from the load.



For a sinusoidal, steady-state supply circuit, the maximum average power transfer occurs when the load impedance (\mathbf{Z}_L) is equal to the complex conjugate of the Thevenin impedance as seen from the load:

 $\mathbf{Z}_{L} = \mathbf{R}_{L} + j\mathbf{X}_{L} = \mathbf{R}_{Th} - j\mathbf{X}_{Th} = \mathbf{Z}_{Th}^{*}$

This is known as the *maximum average power transfer theorem* for sinusoidal steady-state.

The maximum average power is given by: $P_{\text{max}} = \frac{|\nabla_{Th}|^2}{8R_{Th}}$

For maximum average power transfer to a purely resistive load, therefore, the load impedance (or resistance) is equal to the magnitude of the Thevenin impedance:

$$R_L = \left| \overline{Z_{Th}} \right| = \sqrt{\left(R_{Th}^2 + X_{Th}^2 \right)}$$







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11.4 Effective or RMS Value

When a time-varying current source is delivering power to a resistive load, it is often necessary or useful to know how effective the source is in delivering power to that load.

The *effective value* of a periodic current is the DC current that delivers the same average power to a resistor as the periodic current.

$$v(t)$$
 + AC circuit R V_{eff} DC circuit R

The effective value of a periodic signal is its root mean square (rms) value:

The average power can then be written:

$$P = \frac{1}{2} V_m I_m \cos(\theta_v - \theta_i)$$
$$P = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{I_m}{\sqrt{2}} \cos(\theta_v - \theta_i)$$
$$P = V_{rms} I_{rms} \cos(\theta_v - \theta_i)$$

The average power absorbed by a resistor can be written:

$$P = I_{rms}^2 R = \frac{V_{rms}^2}{R}$$

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11.5 Apparent Power and Power Factor

Average power delivered to a resistive load by a time-varying circuit, when written in terms of rms values, is: $P = V_{rms} I_{rms} \cos(\theta_v - \theta_i)$

The product $V_{rms}I_{rms}$ is known as *apparent power* (S) and is modulated by the phase difference between the voltage and current [$\cos(\theta_v - \theta_i)$], which is referred to as the *power factor* (pf).

The apparent power is the product of the rms values of voltage and current, and is measured in volt-amperes (VA) to distinguish it from the average or real power, which is measured in watts.

The power factor is the cosine of the phase difference between voltage and current, and is also the cosine of the angle of the load impedance. The power factor is dimensionless since it is the ratio of the average power (P) to the apparent power ($V_{rms}I_{rms}$).

pf ranges between 0 and 1. For a purely resistive load, the voltage and current are in phase, so that $(\theta_v - \theta_i) = 0$ and pf = 1, which implies that the apparent power is equal to average power. For a purely reactive load, $(\theta_v - \theta_i) = \pm 90^\circ$ and pf = 0. In this case, the average power is 0. Between these two extremes pf is said to be *leading* (current leads voltage, implying a capacitive load) or *lagging* (current lags voltage, implying an inductive load.

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Example and Practice Problems

- E11.9 A series-connected load draws a current $i(t) = 4 \cos (100 \pi t + 10^{\circ})$ A while the applied voltage is $v(t) = 120 \cos (100\pi t 20^{\circ})$ V. Find the apparent power, the power factor, and determine the element values that form the series-connected load.
- P11.9 Find the power factor and the apparent power of a load whose impedance is $\mathbf{Z} = 60 + j40$ ohms when the applied voltage is $v(t) = 155.56 \cos(377t + 10^\circ)$ V.
- E 11.10 Determine the power factor of the circuit shown below as seen by the source, and calculate the average power delivered by the source. $_{6\,\Omega}$



11.6 Complex Power

The term complex power refers to the total effect of parallel loads on power.

The complex power, **S**, absorbed by an AC load is the product of the rms voltage phasor and the complex conjugate of the rms curent phasor:

$$S = \frac{1}{2}VI^* = I_{rms}^2 Z = \frac{V_{rms}^2}{Z^*} = V_{rms}I_{rms}^*$$

As a complex quantity, its real part is the average or real power (P) and its imaginary part is reactive (or quadrature) power (Q).

The complex power expressed in rectangular form is: $S = I_{rms}^2(R + jX) = P + jQ$

where: $P = \operatorname{Re}(S) = I_{rms}^2 R$ $Q = \operatorname{Im}(S) = I_{rms}^2 X$

The real power is the only useful power. It is measured in watts.

The reactive power is a measure of the energy exchange between the source and the reactive load, and is measured in units of volt-ampere reactive (VAR)

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Summarizing Power Complex Power= $S = P + jQ = V_{rms}(I_{rms})^*$ $= |V_{rms}||I_{rms}| \angle (\theta_v - \theta_i)$ Apparent Power= $S = |S| = |V_{rms}||I_{rms}| = \sqrt{P^2 + Q^2}$ Real Power= $P = \operatorname{Re}(S) = S \sin(\theta_v - \theta_i)$ Reactive Power= $Q = \operatorname{Im}(S) = S \sin(\theta_v - \theta_i)$ Power Factor= $\frac{P}{S} = \cos(\theta_v - \theta_i)$

Example and Practice Problems		
E11.11	The voltage across a load is $v(t) = 60 \cos(\omega t - 10^\circ)$ V and the current through the element in the direction of the voltage drop is $i(t) = 1.5 \cos(\omega t + 50^\circ)$ A. Find (a) the complex and apparent powers, (b) the real and reactive powers, and (c) the power factor and the load impedance.	
E11.12	A load Z draws 12 kVA at a power factor of 0.856 lagging from a 120-V _{rms} sinusoidal source. Calculate (a) the average and reactive powers delivered to the load, (b) the peak current, and (c) the load impedance.	

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11.7 Conservation of AC Power

The principle of conservation of power (energy) applies to AC circuits as well as to DC circuits.

In fact, all forms of AC power are conserved: instantaneous, real, reactive, and complex.

Regardless of how circuit elements are connected, the total complex power delivered is equal to the total complex power absorbed by the elements.

The complex, real, and reactive powers of the sources equal the respective sums of the complex, real, and reactive powers of the individual loads.

NOTE: this is not true of apparent power.

11.8 Power Factor Correction	
The process of increasing the power factor (pf) witho known as <i>power factor correction</i> .	but altering the voltage or current to the original load is
Alternatively, power factor correction may be vie capacitor) in parallel with the load in order to ma	wed as the addition of a reactive element (usually a lake the power factor closer to unity.
Most domestic and industrial loads, such as washing motors are inductive and have a low, lagging power f	machines, air conditioners, and induction
The load cannot be changed, but the power factor ca current to the original load.	n be increased without altering the voltage or ۱
To mitigate the inductive aspect of the load, a capacitor is added in parallel with the load.	V Inductive V Inductive C C
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With the same supplied voltage, the current draw is since power companies charge more for larger current of the same set of th	less by adding the capacitor, which is a benefit ents because it leads to larger power losses.
Overall, the power factor correction benefits the pow	ver company and the consumer.
By choosing a suitable size for the capacitor, the po unity.	wer factor can be made to approach or become
Adding a capacitor causes the phase angle between the voltage and current $(\theta_v - \theta_i)$ to become smaller, and the more it approaches 0° the more the pf approaches its maximum of 1.	$\frac{1}{\theta_1}$
The value of the shunt capacitance can be found fro	om:

$$C = \frac{Q_c}{\omega V_{rms}^2} = \frac{P(\tan \theta_1 - \tan \theta_2)}{\omega V_{rms}^2}$$

Be careful with what θ_1 and θ_2 represent.**

Note that the real power dissipated in the load is not affected by the shunt capacitor. Although it is not as common, if a load is capacitive in nature, the same treatment with an inductor can be used.

> ** θ_1 is the power factor $[\cos(\theta_y - \theta_i)]$ for the circuit without the shunt capacitor. θ_2 is the power factor $[\cos(\theta_v - \theta_i)]$ for the circuit with the shunt capacitor.

Example and Practice Problems		
E11.15 When connected to a 120-V _{rms} , 60-Hz power line, a load absorbs 4 kW at a lagging power factor of 0.8. Find the value of capacitance necessary to raise the pf to 0.95.		
P11.15 Find the value of parallel capacitance needed to correct a load of 140 kVAR at 0.85 lagging pf to unity pf. Assume that the load is suppled by a 220-V (rms), 60-Hz line.		

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