

Electromagnetic Energy Conversion ELEC0431

Exercise session 1: Phasors and power in the sinusoidal steady state

10 February 2023

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In this class...

Today's aim: Introduce a very important concept: The phasors

(pay particular attention to this class!)

- Reminders (one-ports and Kirchhoff laws)
- > Harmonic functions
- ➤ Root Mean Square value
- > The phasors
- > Exercise 1
- > Product of two harmonic functions
- > Active, reactive and apparent power
- > Exercises 2 and 3

Reminders

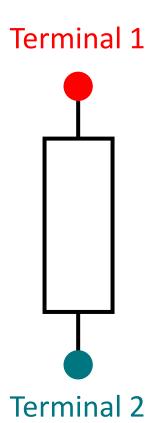
One-ports
Kirchhoff laws

One-ports (or "dipoles" in French)

A one-port is a two-terminal electric component.

It can be:

- > A resistance R
- \triangleright An inductance L
- ➤ A capacitance *C*
- > A power generator
- > A diode
- > A combination of components
- Etc.



One-ports (or "dipoles" in French)

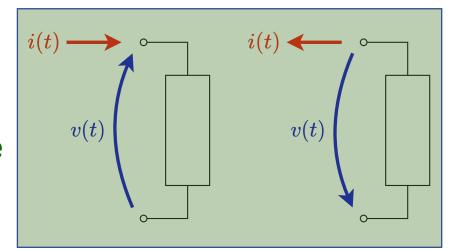
Each one-port is associated with a current i(t) and a voltage v(t).

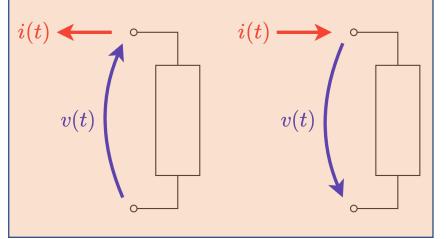
- $\geq i(t)$ is positive if the positive charges flow in the direction indicated by the arrows.
- > v(t) is positive if the tension at the head of the arrow is larger than the one at the tip.

Four different configurations can thus be obtained.

if i(t) and v(t) are both positive, two of them consume power and two of them deliver power.

Consume
Power
(like a **passive**component)





Deliver
Power
(like an active component)

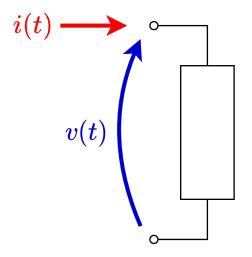
This leads to two different conventions: the passive convention and the active convention.

Passive VS Active conventions

The passive convention

(also called receiver, motor or load convention)

The <u>passive</u> one-port <u>receives</u> the power p(t) = v(t) i(t)

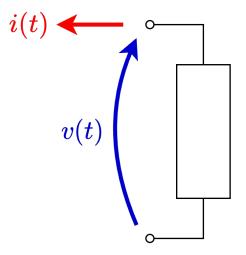


This convention is used for R, L, C, lumped parameters, motors and <u>primary</u> side of transformers.

The active convention

(also called generator or source convention)

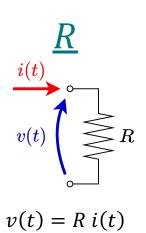
The <u>active</u> one-port **delivers** the power p(t) = v(t) i(t)

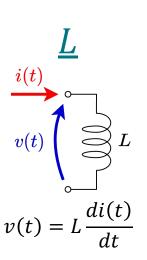


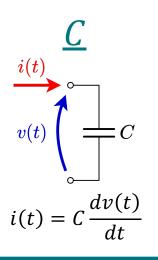
This convention is used for voltage sources, current sources, generator and <u>secondary</u> side of transformers.

v(t) - i(t) relationship of basic components

Passive convention

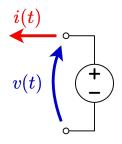






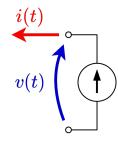
Active convention

Voltage source



v(t) is imposed, i(t) is set by the rest of the circuit

Current source



i(t) is imposed, v(t) is set by the rest of the circuit

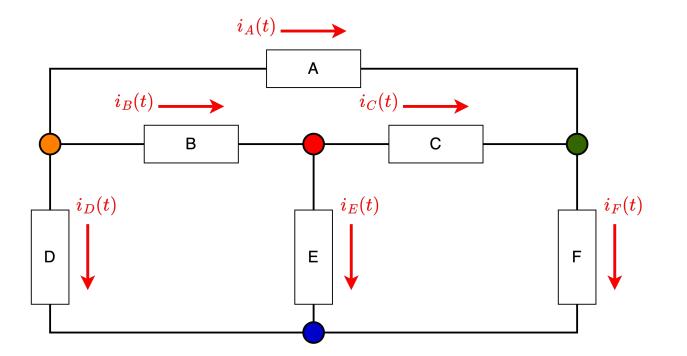
When connected together, use **Kirchhoff laws**

Kirchhoff laws

Kirchhoff's first law

(also called Kirchhoff's junction rule or Kirchhoff's current law)

At any junction in the electrical circuit, the sum of currents flowing into the junction is equal to the sum of currents flowing out of the junction.



$$igodelightarrow 0 = i_A(t) + i_B(t) + i_D(t)$$

$$lacksquare i_B(t) = i_C(t) + i_E(t)$$

$$lacksquare i_A(t) + i_C(t) = i_F(t)$$

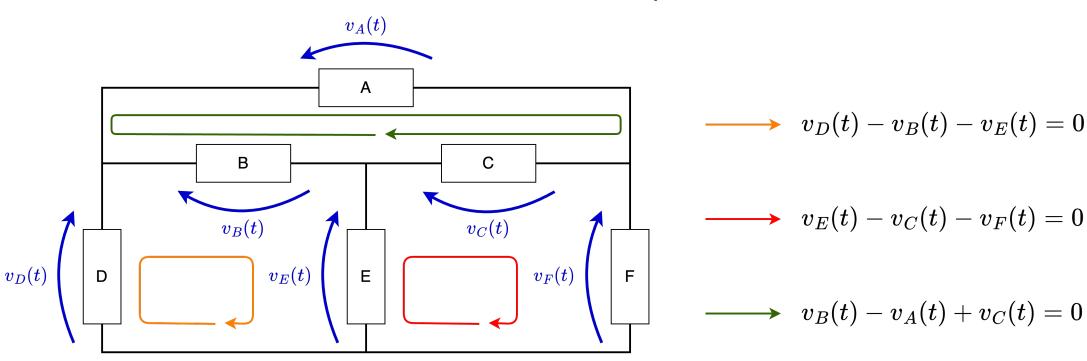
$$lacksquare i_D(t) + i_E(t) + i_F(t) = 0$$

Kirchhoff laws

Kirchhoff's second law

(also called Kirchhoff's loop rule or Kirchhoff's voltage law)

Around any closed loop in a circuit, the directed sum of potential differences across components is zero.



Introduction to phasors

Harmonic functions

Root Mean square value

The phasors

Harmonic function Phasor equivalence

Phasors applied to circuits

Application: Exercise 1

Harmonic functions

In this class, we deal with harmonic functions of the type

$$f(t) = F_{peak} \cos(\omega t + \theta)$$

where:

- $ightharpoonup F_{peak}$ is the amplitude,
- $\succ \omega$ is the angular frequency,
- $\triangleright \theta$ is the phase angle.

The angular frequency is linked to the frequency f and period T as

$$\omega = 2\pi f = \frac{2\pi}{T}.$$

Root Mean square (RMS) value

Let's consider a resistance
$$R$$
: $v(t)$
 (t)
 R

The instantaneous power p(t) dissipated in the resistance is

$$p(t) = v(t) i(t) = R i(t)^2 = \frac{v(t)^2}{R}$$

And the mean dissipated power is

$$P = \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} v(t) i(t) dt = R \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} i(t)^{2} dt = \frac{1}{R} \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} v(t)^{2} dt$$

$$I_{RMS}^{2}$$

$$V_{RMS}^{2}$$

Root Mean square (RMS) value

The Root Mean Square (RMS) value (or effective value) of f(t) is defined as:

$$F_{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(t)^2 dt}.$$

With $f(t) = F_{peak} \cos(\omega t + \theta)$, we obtain:

$$F_{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T}} \int_{0}^{T} F_{peak}^{2} cos^{2}(\omega t + \theta) dt = F_{peak} \sqrt{\frac{1}{T}} \int_{0}^{T} cos^{2}(\omega t) dt$$

$$= F_{peak} \sqrt{\frac{1}{T}} \int_{0}^{T} \frac{1 + \cos(2\omega t)}{2} dt = F_{peak} \sqrt{\frac{1}{T}} \int_{0}^{T} \frac{1}{2} dt = \frac{F_{peak}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Root Mean square (RMS) value

Remark:

The following conventions will be used in the rest of the course for RMS and peak/max values:

$$F_{RMS} \Rightarrow F$$
 $F_{peak} \Rightarrow F_m$

In this class, we deal only with harmonic functions $f(t) = F_m \cos(\omega t + \theta)$ for which we have

$$F_m = \sqrt{2} F$$

The phasors

The definition of the phasors is obtained by manipulating the expression of f(t):

$$f(t) = F_m \cos(\omega t + \theta)$$

$$= \sqrt{2} F \cos(\omega t + \theta)$$

$$= R(\sqrt{2} F e^{j(\omega t + \theta)})$$

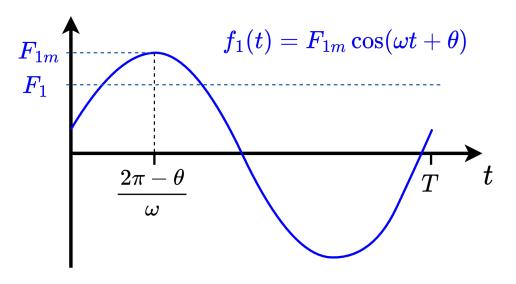
$$= R(\sqrt{2} F e^{j\theta} e^{j\omega t})$$

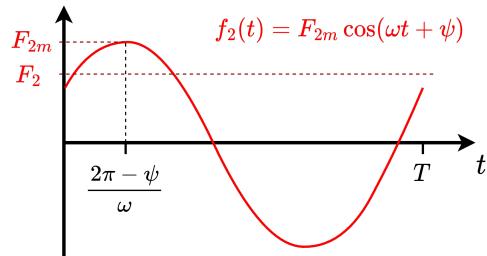
$$= F_{\overline{F}}$$

$$\bar{F} = F e^{j\theta}$$

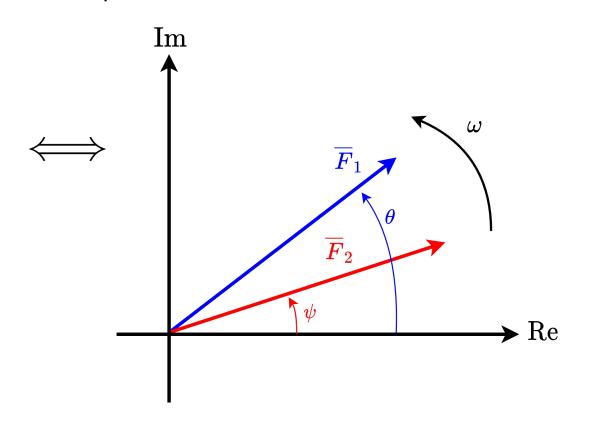
 $\overline{F} = F e^{j\theta}$ is the phasor of f(t). It is a complex number with information on the signal amplitude (F) and the signal phase (θ) . For a system operating at a fixed frequency, F and θ holds all the relevant information to describe the system.

The phasors





For signals evolving at a same angular frequency ω , phasors are like a snapshot representation containing all the necessary information (phase angle and amplitude) and allowing easy computations.



Harmonic function ⇔ Phasor equivalence

Linearity:

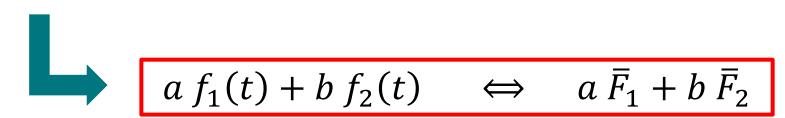
$$f_{1}(t) + f_{2}(t) = F_{1m} \cos(\omega t + \theta) + F_{2m} \cos(\omega t + \psi)$$

$$= \sqrt{2} F_{1} \cos(\omega t + \theta) + \sqrt{2} F_{2} \cos(\omega t + \psi)$$

$$= R(\sqrt{2} F_{1} e^{j(\omega t + \theta)}) + R(\sqrt{2} F_{2} e^{j(\omega t + \psi)})$$

$$= R(\sqrt{2} e^{j\omega t} (F_{1}e^{j\theta} + F_{2}e^{j\psi}))$$

$$= \frac{1}{F_{1} + F_{2}}$$



Harmonic function ⇔ Phasor equivalence

Differentiation:

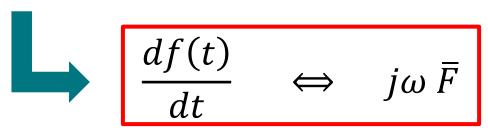
$$\frac{df(t)}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} (F_m \cos(\omega t + \theta))$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} R(\sqrt{2} F e^{j(\omega t + \theta)})$$

$$= R (\sqrt{2} F e^{j(\omega t + \theta)} j\omega)$$

$$= R (\sqrt{2} j\omega F e^{j\theta} e^{j\omega t})$$

$$j\omega \bar{F}$$



Harmonic function ⇔ Phasor equivalence

Integration:

$$\int f(t) dt = \int F_m \cos(\omega t + \theta) dt$$

$$= \int \mathbf{R}(\sqrt{2} F e^{j(\omega t + \theta)}) dt$$

$$= \mathbf{R}(\sqrt{2} F e^{j(\omega t + \theta)}) / j\omega$$

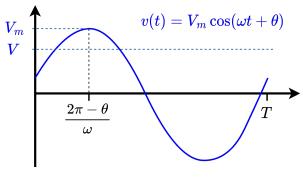
$$= \mathbf{R}(\sqrt{2} \int f(t) dt \iff \frac{\overline{F}}{j\omega}$$

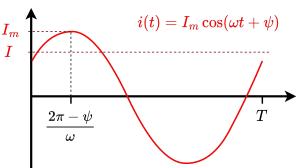
Phasors applied to circuits

The phasor formalism can be exported to voltages and currents:

$$v(t) = \sqrt{2} V \cos(\omega t + \theta)$$

$$i(t) = \sqrt{2} I \cos(\omega t + \psi)$$







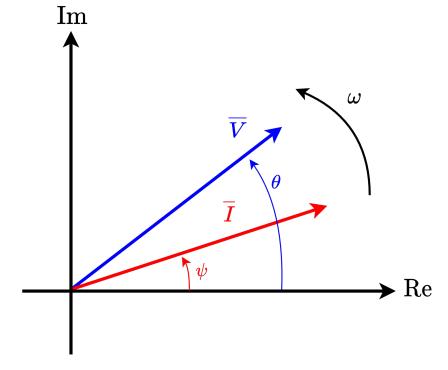


$$\bar{V} = V e^{j\theta}$$

$$\bar{V} = V e^{j\theta}$$

$$\bar{I} = I e^{j\psi}$$





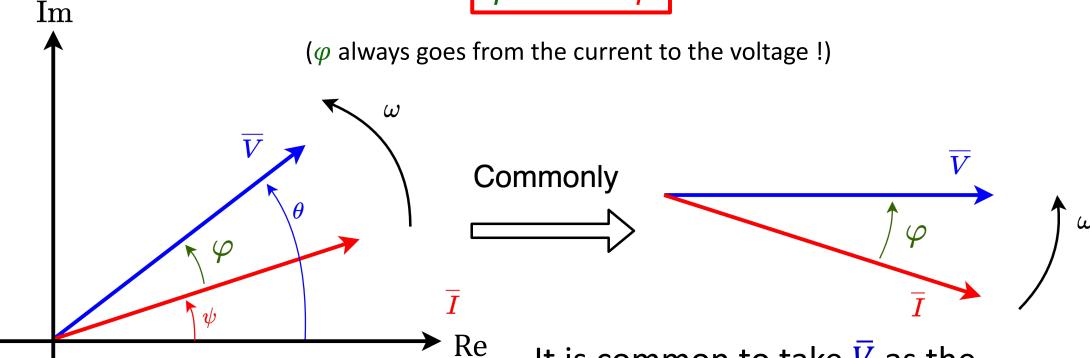
Phasors applied to circuits

Remark:

The phase angle difference (or phase lag) is noted φ .

It is defined as

$$\varphi = \theta - \psi$$



It is common to take \overline{V} as the reference with $\theta=0$ and $\varphi=-\psi$.

Phasors applied to circuits

Resistance:

Inductance:

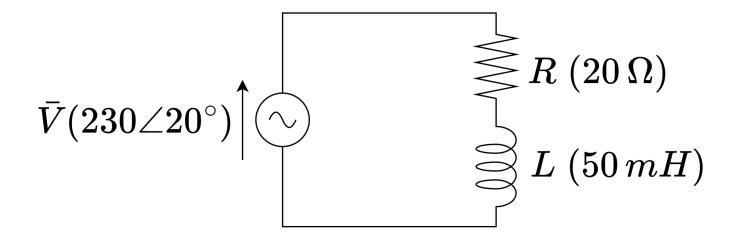
Capacitance:

<u>Time domain</u>	\Leftrightarrow	Frequency domain
$f(t) = \sqrt{2} F \cos(\omega t + \theta)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\overline{F} = F e^{j\theta}$
$a f_1(t) + b f_2(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$a \overline{F}_1 + b \overline{F}_2$
df(t)/dt	\Leftrightarrow	$j\omega~ar{F}$
$\int f(t) dt$	\Leftrightarrow	$ar{F}/j\omega$
v(t) = R i(t)	\Leftrightarrow	$\bar{V} = R \; \bar{I}$
v(t) = L di(t)/dt	\Leftrightarrow	$\bar{V} = j\omega L \bar{I}$
$v(t) = (1/C) \int i(t) dt$	\Leftrightarrow	$\bar{V} = \bar{I}/j\omega C$

Thanks to the linearity equivalence, the Kirchhoff laws can be applied to phasors. In addition, resistances, inductances and capacitances can be replaced by complex impedances $Z = \frac{\overline{V}}{\overline{I}}$ of value respectively equal to R, $j\omega L$ and $\frac{1}{i\omega C}$.

Application: Exercise 1

The circuit hereunder presents a resistive-inductive load powered with an AC generator of sinusoidal voltage (230 V, 50 Hz). Find the voltages across R and L (magnitude and phase angle) and represent all the voltages on a phasor diagram.



Product of two harmonic functions

Active, reactive, complex and apparent power

Application: Exercise 2

Homework: Exercise 3

Product of two harmonic functions

The instantaneous power p(t) consumed by passive components (or delivered by active components) is obtained as by the product of the instantaneous voltage v(t) with the instantaneous current i(t):

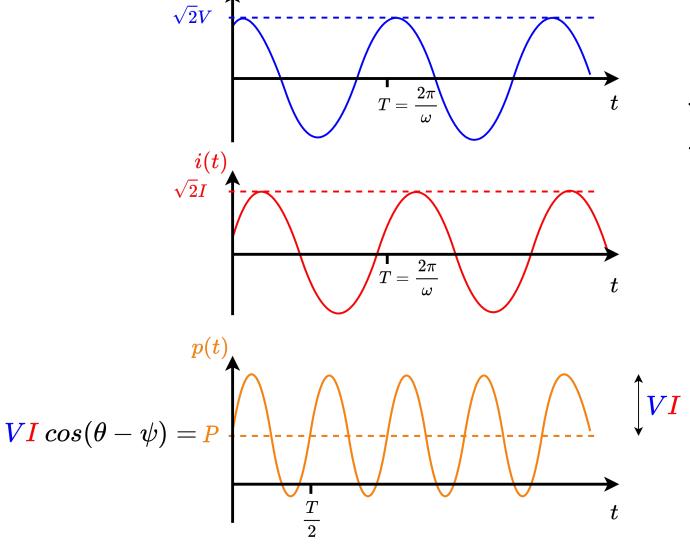
$$p(t) = v(t) i(t)$$

$$= \sqrt{2} V \cos(\omega t + \theta) \sqrt{2} I \cos(\omega t + \psi)$$

$$= 2 V I \cos(\omega t + \theta) \cos(\omega t + \psi)$$

$$= V I \left[\cos(\theta - \psi) + \cos(2\omega t + \theta + \psi)\right]$$
DC component
(at twice the original frequency)

Product of two harmonic functions



v(t)

The instantaneous power can be split in two parts:

- VI $cos(\theta \psi)$: A DC component called the Active power P.
- ightharpoonup V I cos(2ωt + θ + ψ): An AC component oscillating at twice the original frequency.

$$p(t) = v(t) i(t)$$

$$= V I \left[\cos(\theta - \psi) + \cos(2\omega t + \theta + \psi) \right]$$

$$= V I \left[\cos(\theta - \psi) + \cos(2(\omega t + \theta) - (\theta - \psi)) \right]$$

$$= V I \left[\cos(\theta - \psi) + \cos(2(\omega t + \theta)) \cos(\theta - \psi) + \sin(2(\omega t + \theta)) \sin(\theta - \psi) \right]$$

$$= V I \cos(\theta - \psi) \left[1 + \cos(2(\omega t + \theta)) \right] + V I \sin(\theta - \psi) \sin(2(\omega t + \theta))$$

$$P \geq 0 \qquad Q \qquad \text{Oscillating } +-$$

p(t) can be decomposed into:

- \triangleright A flow of energy going always in the same direction with an average value $P = VI \cos(\theta \psi)$. The value P is called the active power.
- \triangleright A fluctuating flow of energy, exchanged back and forth twice a period, with an average value $Q = VI \sin(\theta \psi)$. The value Q is called the reactive power.

Although $p(t) = P \left[1 + \cos(2(\omega t + \theta)) \right] + Q \sin(2(\omega t + \theta))$ is a real number, one defines the complex power S as:

$$S = P + jQ$$



S IS NOT A PHASOR, it is just a convenient complex number allowing to describe easily and completely the instantaneous power (real number).

One also shows that is is really easy to determine S using phasors:

$$S = P + jQ = VI \cos(\theta - \psi) + j VI \sin(\theta - \psi) = VI \left[\cos(\theta - \psi) + j \sin(\theta - \psi)\right]$$
$$= VI e^{j(\theta - \psi)} = V e^{j\theta} I e^{-j\psi} = \overline{V} \overline{I}^*$$

$$S = \bar{V} \, \bar{I}^*$$

One also defines the apparent power:

$$|S| = \sqrt{P^2 + Q^2} = \sqrt{V^2 I^2 \cos^2(\theta - \psi) + V^2 I^2 \sin^2(\theta - \psi)} = VI$$

And the power factor:

$$PF = \cos(\theta - \psi) = \cos(\varphi) = \frac{P}{|S|}$$

Let's now suppose that we want to deliver an active power P to a load. What current I should we inject for a fixed voltage V?

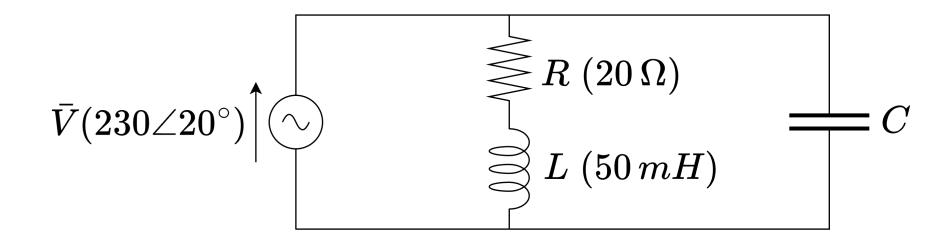
$$I = \frac{|S|}{V} = \frac{P}{V\cos(\varphi)}$$

I is larger when $\cos(\varphi)$ is small \rightarrow If $\cos(\varphi)$ is small, there are more transmission losses

 \rightarrow We want $\cos(\varphi)$ to be $1 \rightarrow$ We want the reactive power Q to be as small as possible.

Application: Exercise 2

Your colleague suggests to add a $50~\mu F$ capacitor in parallel of the RL load. It is supposed to compensate the reactive power consumed by the inductive load. Is it a good idea ? If so, what would be the exact value of C needed ?



Homework: Exercise 3

Fill the cells of the table below with the most appropriate answer among

$$=0$$
 <0 >0 $=1$ <1 $+\infty$ $-\infty$

