## EE101: Sinusoidal steady state analysis



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\begin{equation*}
R\left(C V_{c}^{\prime}\right)+V_{c}=V_{m} \cos \omega t, \quad t>0 . \tag{1}
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\begin{equation*}
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from which, $V_{c}^{(h)}(t)=A \exp (-t / \tau)$, with $\tau=R C$.

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Substituting in (1), we get,

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\omega R C\left(-C_{1} \sin \omega t+C_{2} \cos \omega t\right)+C_{1} \cos \omega t+C_{2} \sin \omega t=V_{m} \cos \omega t
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$C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ can be found by equating the coefficients of $\sin \omega t$ and $\cos \omega t$ on the left and right sides.

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* This is known as the "sinusoidal steady state" response since all quantities (currents and voltages) in the circuit are sinusoidal in nature.
* Any circuit containing resistors, capacitors, inductors, sinusoidal voltage and current sources (of the same frequency), dependent (linear) sources behaves in a similar manner, viz., each current and voltage in the circuit becomes purely sinusoidal as $t \rightarrow \infty$.


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* Use of phasors substantially simplifies analysis of circuits in the sinusoidal steady state.
* Note that a phasor can be written in the polar form or rectangular form, $\mathbf{X}=X_{m} \stackrel{\Delta \theta}{ }=X_{m} \exp (j \theta)=X_{m} \cos \theta+j X_{m} \sin \theta$.
The term $\omega t$ is always implicit.


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| $\mathrm{v}_{2}(\mathrm{t})$ $=-0.1 \cos (\omega \mathrm{t}) \mathrm{V}$ <br>  $=0.1 \cos (\omega \mathrm{t}+\pi) \mathrm{V}$ |
| $\mathrm{i}_{2}(\mathrm{t})=0.18 \sin (\omega \mathrm{t}) \mathrm{A}$ <br> $=0.18 \cos (\omega \mathrm{t}-\pi / 2) \mathrm{A}$ |
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| $\mathrm{i}_{3}(\mathrm{t})=\sqrt{2} \cos \left(\omega \mathrm{t}+45^{\circ}\right) \mathrm{A}$ | $\begin{aligned} \mathrm{I}_{3} & =1+\mathrm{j} 1 \mathrm{~A} \\ & =\sqrt{2} \angle 45^{\circ} \mathrm{A} \end{aligned}$ |

## Addition of phasors

Consider addition of two sinusoidal quantities:

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\begin{aligned}
v(t) & =v_{1}(t)+v_{2}(t) \\
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Now consider addition of the phasors corresponding to $v_{1}(t)$ and $v_{2}(t)$. $\mathbf{V}=\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{1}}+\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{2}}$
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## Addition of phasors

Consider addition of two sinusoidal quantities:

$$
\begin{aligned}
v(t) & =v_{1}(t)+v_{2}(t) \\
& =V_{m 1} \cos \left(\omega t+\theta_{1}\right)+V_{m 2} \cos \left(\omega t+\theta_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now consider addition of the phasors corresponding to $v_{1}(t)$ and $v_{2}(t)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{V} & =\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{1}}+\mathbf{V}_{2} \\
& =V_{m 1} \mathrm{e}^{j \theta_{1}}+V_{m 2} e^{j \theta_{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

In the time domain, $\mathbf{V}$ corresponds to $\tilde{v}(t)$, with

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{v}(t) & =\operatorname{Re}\left[\mathbf{V} e^{j \omega t}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{Re}\left[\left(V_{m 1} e^{j \theta_{1}}+V_{m 2} e^{j \theta_{2}}\right) e^{j \omega t}\right] \\
& =\operatorname{Re}\left[V_{m 1} e^{j\left(\omega t+\theta_{1}\right)}+V_{m 2} e^{\left(\omega t+j \theta_{2}\right)}\right] \\
& =V_{m 1} \cos \left(\omega t+\theta_{1}\right)+V_{m 2} \cos \left(\omega t+\theta_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
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which is the same as $v(t)$.

## Addition of phasors

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## Addition of phasors

* Addition of sinusoidal quantities in the time domain can be replaced by addition of the corresponding phasors in the sinusoidal steady state.
* The KCL and KVL equations,
$\sum i_{k}(t)=0$ at a node, and
$\sum v_{k}(t)=0$ in a loop,
amount to addition of sinusoidal quantities and can therefore be replaced by the corresponding phasor equations,
$\sum \mathbf{I}_{k}=\mathbf{0}$ at a node, and
$\sum \mathbf{V}_{k}=\mathbf{0}$ in a loop.

Impedance of a resistor


## Impedance of a resistor



Let $i(t)=I_{m} \cos (\omega t+\theta)$.

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We have therefore the following relationship between $\mathbf{V}$ and $\mathbf{I}: \mathbf{V}=R \times \mathbf{I}$.
Thus, the impedance of a resistor, defined as, $\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{V} / \mathbf{I}$, is

$$
\mathbf{Z}=R+j 0
$$

## Impedance of a capacitor



## Impedance of a capacitor



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## Impedance of a capacitor



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## Impedance of a capacitor



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$i(t)=C \omega V_{m} \cos (\omega t+\theta+\pi / 2)$.

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In terms of phasors, $\mathbf{V}=V_{m} \angle \theta, \mathbf{I}=\omega C V_{m}\langle(\theta+\pi / 2)$.

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$\mathbf{I}=\omega C V_{m} e^{j(\theta+\pi / 2)}=\omega C V_{m} e^{j \theta} e^{j \pi / 2}=j \omega C\left(V_{m} e^{j \theta}\right)=j \omega C \mathbf{V}$

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Thus, the impedance of a capacitor, $\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{V} / \mathbf{I}$, is $\mathbf{Z}=1 /(j \omega C)$,
and the admittance of a capacitor, $\mathbf{Y}=\mathbf{I} / \mathbf{V}$, is $\mathbf{Y}=j \omega C$.



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## Impedance of an inductor



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Sources



* An independent sinusoidal current source, $i_{s}(t)=I_{m} \cos (\omega t+\theta)$, can be represented by the phasor $I_{m} \angle \theta$ (i.e., a constant complex number).

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* An independent sinusoidal voltage source, $v_{s}(t)=V_{m} \cos (\omega t+\theta)$, can be represented by the phasor $V_{m} \angle \theta$ (i.e., a constant complex number).
* Dependent (linear) sources can be treated in the sinusoidal steady state in the same manner as a resistor, i.e., by the corresponding phasor relationship. For example, for a CCVS, we have, $v(t)=r i_{c}(t)$ in the time domain. $\mathbf{V}=r \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{c}}$ in the frequency domain.


## Use of phasors in circuit analysis

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* The time-domain KCL and KVL equations $\sum i_{k}(t)=0$ and $\sum v_{k}(t)=0$ can be written as $\sum \mathbf{I}_{k}=\mathbf{0}$ and $\sum \mathbf{V}_{k}=\mathbf{0}$ in the frequency domain.


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* Series/parallel formulas for resistors, nodal analysis, mesh analysis, Thevenin's and Norton's theorems can be directly applied to circuits in the sinusoidal steady state.


## $R L$ circuit



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$\mathbf{I}=\frac{V_{m} \angle 0}{R+j \omega L} \equiv I_{m} \angle(-\theta)$,
where $I_{m}=\frac{V_{m}}{\sqrt{R^{2}+\omega^{2} L^{2}}}$, and $\theta=\tan ^{-1}(\omega L / R)$.

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In the time domain, $i(t)=I_{m} \cos (\omega t-\theta)$, which lags the source voltage since the peak (or zero) of $i(t)$ occurs $t=\theta / \omega$ seconds after that of the source voltage.

## RL circuit


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For $R=1 \Omega, L=1.6 \mathrm{mH}, f=50 \mathrm{~Hz}, \theta=26.6^{\circ}, t_{\text {lag }}=1.48 \mathrm{~ms}$.
(SEQUEL file: ee101_rl_ac_1.sqproj)

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If $R \gg|j \omega L|, \theta \rightarrow 0,\left|\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{R}}\right| \simeq\left|\mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{s}}\right|=V_{m}$.
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$$
\mathbf{I}=\frac{V_{m} \angle 0}{R+1 / j \omega C} \equiv I_{m} \angle \theta,
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where $I_{m}=\frac{\omega C V_{m}}{\sqrt{1+(\omega R C)^{2}}}$, and $\theta=\pi / 2-\tan ^{-1}(\omega R C)$.

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(SEQUEL file: ee101_rc_ac_1.sqproj)



$$
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$$

$$
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& \mathbf{V}_{\mathbf{R}}=\mathbf{I} \times R=R I_{m} \angle \theta, \\
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\end{aligned}
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## Series/parallel connections



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## Series/parallel connections



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$$
\begin{aligned}
Z & =\frac{Z_{1} Z_{2}}{Z_{1}+Z_{2}} \\
& =\frac{(j 25) \times(-j 100)}{j 25-j 100} \\
& =\frac{25 \times 100}{-j 75} \\
& =j 33.3 \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

## Impedance example

Obtain Z in polar form.


## Impedance example

Method 1:

Obtain Z in polar form.


$$
\begin{aligned}
Z & =\frac{10 \times j 10}{10+j 10}=\frac{j 10}{1+j} \\
& =\frac{j 10}{1+j} \times \frac{1-j}{1-j} \\
& =\frac{10+j 10}{2}=5+j 5 \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

Convert to polar form $\rightarrow Z=7.07 \angle 45^{\circ} \Omega$

## Impedance example

Method 1:

Obtain Z in polar form.


$$
\begin{aligned}
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& =\frac{10+j 10}{2}=5+j 5 \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

Convert to polar form $\rightarrow Z=7.07 \angle 45^{\circ} \Omega$

Method 2:

$$
\begin{aligned}
Z & =\frac{10 \times j 10}{10+j 10}=\frac{100 \angle \pi / 2}{10 \sqrt{2} \angle \pi / 4} \\
& =5 \sqrt{2} \angle(\pi / 2-\pi / 4)=7.07 \angle 45^{\circ} \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

## Circuit example



## Circuit example



## Circuit example



## Circuit example



$$
\mathbf{Z}_{3}=\frac{1}{j \times 2 \pi \times 50 \times 2 \times 10^{-3}}=-j 1.6 \Omega
$$

## Circuit example



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{Z}_{3}=\frac{1}{j \times 2 \pi \times 50 \times 2 \times 10^{-3}}=-j 1.6 \Omega \\
& \mathbf{Z}_{4}=2 \pi \times 50 \times 15 \times 10^{-3}=j 4.7 \Omega
\end{aligned}
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& \mathbf{Z}_{E Q}=\mathbf{Z}_{1}+\mathbf{Z}_{3} \|\left(\mathbf{Z}_{2}+\mathbf{Z}_{4}\right)
\end{aligned}
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\mathbf{Z}_{3} & =\frac{1}{j \times 2 \pi \times 50 \times 2 \times 10^{-3}}=-j 1.6 \Omega \\
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& =2.235-j 1.67=2.79 \angle\left(-36.8^{\circ}\right) \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

## Circuit example (continued)



## Circuit example (continued)



## Circuit example (continued)


$\mathbf{I}_{s}=\frac{\mathbf{V}_{s}}{\mathbf{Z}_{E Q}}=\frac{10 \angle\left(0^{\circ}\right)}{2.79 \angle\left(-36.8^{\circ}\right)}=3.58 \angle\left(36.8^{\circ}\right) \mathrm{A}$
$\mathbf{I}_{C}=\frac{\left(\mathbf{Z}_{2}+\mathbf{Z}_{4}\right)}{\mathbf{Z}_{3}+\left(\mathbf{Z}_{2}+\mathbf{Z}_{4}\right)} \times \mathbf{I}_{5}=3.79 \angle\left(44.6^{\circ}\right) \mathrm{A}$

## Circuit example (continued)


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$\mathbf{I}_{L}=\frac{\mathbf{Z}_{3}}{\mathbf{Z}_{3}+\left(\mathbf{Z}_{2}+\mathbf{Z}_{4}\right)} \times \mathbf{I}_{s}=0.546 \angle\left(-70.6^{\circ}\right) \mathrm{A}$

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M. B. Patil, IIT Bombay

## Sinusoidal steady state: power computation



## Sinusoidal steady state: power computation



$$
\text { Let } \begin{aligned}
v(t) & =V_{m} \cos (\omega t+\theta), \text { i.e., } \mathbf{V}=V_{m} \angle \theta, \\
i(t) & =I_{m} \cos (\omega t+\phi), \text { i.e., } \mathbf{I}=I_{m} \angle \phi
\end{aligned}
$$

## Sinusoidal steady state: power computation



Let $v(t)=V_{m} \cos (\omega t+\theta)$, i.e., $\mathbf{V}=V_{m} \angle \theta$, $i(t)=I_{m} \cos (\omega t+\phi)$, i.e., $\mathbf{I}=I_{m} \angle \phi$.
The instantaneous power absorbed by $\mathbf{Z}$ is,

$$
\begin{align*}
P(t) & =v(t) i(t) \\
& =V_{m} I_{m} \cos (\omega t+\theta) \cos (\omega t+\phi) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} V_{m} I_{m}[\cos (2 \omega t+\theta+\phi)+\cos (\theta-\phi)] \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

## Sinusoidal steady state: power computation



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The average power absorbed by $\mathbf{Z}$ is
$P=\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} P(t) d t$, where $T=2 \pi / \omega$.

## Sinusoidal steady state: power computation



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The first term in Eq. (1) has an average value of zero and does not contribute to $P$.
Therefore,

## Sinusoidal steady state: power computation



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The first term in Eq. (1) has an average value of zero and does not contribute to $P$. Therefore,
$P=\frac{1}{2} V_{m} I_{m} \cos (\theta-\phi)$ gives the average power absorbed by $\mathbf{Z}$.

## Average power for $R, L, C$

$$
\begin{array}{l|l}
+\mathbf{V}- & \begin{array}{l}
\text { General formula: } \\
\mathbf{I} \\
\mathbf{Z}
\end{array} \\
\begin{array}{l}
\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \theta, \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \phi \\
\mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos (\theta-\phi)
\end{array}
\end{array}
$$

## Average power for $R, L, C$

| $\begin{aligned} & +\mathrm{V}- \\ & \overrightarrow{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{Z} \end{aligned}$ | General formula: $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V}=\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \theta, \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \phi \\ & \mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos (\theta-\phi) \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\xrightarrow[\mathrm{l}]{+\mathrm{V}} \underset{\mathrm{R}}{\mathrm{~V}}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V}=\mathrm{RI} \\ & \text { For } \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha, \mathrm{~V}=\mathrm{RI}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha, \\ & \mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\mathrm{R} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}}\right) \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos (\alpha-\alpha)=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}}^{2} \mathrm{R}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}}^{2} / \mathrm{R} \end{aligned}$ |

## Average power for $R, L, C$

| $\xrightarrow[\mathrm{l}]{+\mathrm{V}}$ | General formula: $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V}=\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \theta, \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \phi \\ & \mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos (\theta-\phi) \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\overrightarrow{\mathrm{I}}_{\mathrm{R}}^{+\mathrm{V}-}$ | $\mathrm{V}=\mathrm{RI}$ <br> For $\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha, \mathrm{V}=\mathrm{R} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha$, $\mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\mathrm{R} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}}\right) \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos (\alpha-\alpha)=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}}^{2} \mathrm{R}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}}^{2} / \mathrm{R}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & +\mathbf{v}- \\ & \overrightarrow{\mathbf{l}} \underset{L}{m} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V}=\mathrm{j} \omega \mathrm{LI} \\ & \text { For } \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha, \mathrm{~V}=\omega \mathrm{L} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle(\alpha+\pi / 2), \\ & \mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos [(\alpha+\pi / 2)-\alpha]=0 \end{aligned}$ |

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| :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{V}=\mathrm{RI} \\ & \text { For } \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha, \mathrm{~V}=\mathrm{RI}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha \\ & \mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\mathrm{R} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}}\right) \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos (\alpha-\alpha)=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}}^{2} \mathrm{R}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}}^{2} / \mathrm{R} \end{aligned}$ |
|  | $V=j \omega L I$ <br> For $\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha, \mathrm{V}=\omega \mathrm{L} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle(\alpha+\pi / 2)$, $\mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos [(\alpha+\pi / 2)-\alpha]=0$ |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{j} \omega \mathrm{CV} \\ & \text { For } \mathrm{V}=\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle \alpha, \mathrm{I}=\omega \mathrm{CV}_{\mathrm{m}} \angle(\alpha+\pi / 2) \\ & \mathrm{P}=\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{m}} \cos [\alpha-(\alpha+\pi / 2)]=0 \end{aligned}$ |

## Average power: example



Given: $I=2 \angle 45^{\circ} \mathrm{A}$
Find the average power absorbed.

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## Method 1:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{V} & =(50+j 25) \times 2 \angle 45^{\circ} \\
& =55.9 \angle 26.6^{\circ} \times 2 \angle 45^{\circ} \\
& =111.8 \angle\left(45^{\circ}+26.6^{\circ}\right)
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No average power is absorbed by the inductor.
$\Rightarrow P=P_{R}$ (average power absorbed by $R$ )

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No average power is absorbed by the inductor.
$\Rightarrow P=P_{R}$ (average power absorbed by $R$ )

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\frac{1}{2} I_{m}^{2} R=\frac{1}{2} \times 2^{2} \times 50 \\
& =100 \mathrm{~W}
\end{aligned}
$$

Maximum power transfer


Maximum power transfer

Let $\mathbf{Z}_{L}=R_{L}+j X_{L}, \mathbf{Z}_{T h}=R_{T h}+j X_{T h}$, and $\mathbf{I}=I_{m} \angle \phi$.


## Maximum power transfer

Let $\mathbf{Z}_{L}=R_{L}+j X_{L}, \mathbf{Z}_{T h}=R_{T h}+j X_{T h}$, and $\mathbf{I}=I_{m} \angle \phi$.
The power absorbed by $\mathbf{Z}_{L}$ is,

$$
P=\frac{1}{2} I_{m}^{2} R_{L}
$$



$$
=\frac{1}{2}\left|\frac{\mathbf{V}_{T h}}{\mathbf{Z}_{T h}+\mathbf{Z}_{L}}\right|^{2} R_{L}
$$

$$
=\frac{1}{2} \frac{\left|\mathbf{V}_{T h}\right|^{2}}{\left(R_{T h}+R_{L}\right)^{2}+\left(X_{T h}+X_{L}\right)^{2}} R_{L} .
$$

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For $P$ to be maximum, $\left(X_{T h}+X_{L}\right)$ must be zero. $\Rightarrow X_{L}=-X_{T h}$.

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With $X_{L}=-X_{T h}$, we have,
$P=\frac{1}{2} \frac{\left|\mathbf{V}_{T h}\right|^{2}}{\left(R_{T h}+R_{L}\right)^{2}} R_{L}$,
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which is maximum for $R_{L}=R_{\text {Th }}$.
Therefore, for maximum power transfer to the load $\mathbf{Z}_{L}$, we need,
$R_{L}=R_{T h}, X_{L}=-X_{T h}$, i.e., $\mathbf{Z}_{L}=\mathbf{Z}_{T h}^{*}$.

Maximum power transfer: example


Maximum power transfer: example


## Maximum power transfer: example



$$
\mathbf{Z}_{\text {Th }}=(-j 6) \|(4+j 3)=5.76-j 1.68 \Omega .
$$

## Maximum power transfer: example


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$\mathbf{Z}_{T h}=(-j 6) \|(4+j 3)=5.76-j 1.68 \Omega$.
For maximum power transfer, $\mathbf{Z}_{L}=\mathbf{Z}_{T h}^{*}=5.76+j 1.68 \Omega \equiv R_{L}+j X_{L}$.
$\mathbf{V}_{T h}=16 \angle 0^{\circ} \times \frac{-j 6}{(4+j 3)+(-j 6)}=19.2 \angle\left(-53.13^{\circ}\right)$.

## Maximum power transfer: example


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$\mathbf{I}=\frac{\mathbf{V}_{T h}}{\mathbf{Z}_{T h}+\mathbf{Z}_{L}}=\frac{\mathbf{V}_{T h}}{2 R_{L}}$.

## Maximum power transfer: example


$\mathbf{Z}_{T h}=(-j 6) \|(4+j 3)=5.76-j 1.68 \Omega$.
For maximum power transfer, $\mathbf{Z}_{L}=\mathbf{Z}_{T h}^{*}=5.76+j 1.68 \Omega \equiv R_{L}+j X_{L}$.
$\mathbf{V}_{T h}=16 \angle 0^{\circ} \times \frac{-j 6}{(4+j 3)+(-j 6)}=19.2 \angle\left(-53.13^{\circ}\right)$.
$\mathbf{I}=\frac{\mathbf{V}_{T h}}{\mathbf{Z}_{T h}+\mathbf{Z}_{L}}=\frac{\mathbf{V}_{T h}}{2 R_{L}}$.
$P=\frac{1}{2} I_{m}^{2} R_{L}=\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{19.2}{2 R_{L}}\right)^{2} \times R_{L}=\frac{1}{2} \frac{(19.2)^{2}}{4 R_{L}}=8 \mathrm{~W}$.

## Effective (rms) values of voltage/current


time-varying $v$ and $i$
$+V_{\text {eff }}-$

constant v and i

Consider a periodic current $i(t)$ passing through $R$.

## Effective (rms) values of voltage/current


time-varying $v$ and $i$

constant v and i

Consider a periodic current $i(t)$ passing through $R$.
The average power absorbed by $R$ is,
$P_{1}=\frac{1}{T} \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{0}+T}[i(t)]^{2} R d t$,
where $t_{0}$ is some reference time (we will take $t_{0}$ to be 0 ).

## Effective (rms) values of voltage/current


time-varying $v$ and $i$

constant v and i

Consider a periodic current $i(t)$ passing through $R$.
The average power absorbed by $R$ is,
$P_{1}=\frac{1}{T} \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{0}+T}[i(t)]^{2} R d t$,
where $t_{0}$ is some reference time (we will take $t_{0}$ to be 0 ).
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$I_{\text {eff }}$, the effective value of $i(t)$, is defined such that $P_{1}=P_{2}$, i.e.,
$l_{\text {eff }}^{2} R=\frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T}[i(t)]^{2} R d t$,
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Similarly, $V_{\text {eff }}=V_{m} / \sqrt{2}$.


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$(\theta-\phi)<0: i(t)$ leads $v(t)$, the P. F. is called a leading P. F. (capacitive impedance)

## Power factor: examples



1. Given: $\mathbf{V}=120 \angle 0^{\circ} \mathrm{V}$ (rms), $\mathbf{I}=2 \angle\left(-36.9^{\circ}\right) \mathrm{A}(\mathrm{rms})$. Find $P_{\text {app }}$, P.F., and $P$.

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## Why is power factor important?



Consider a simplified model of a power system consisting of a generator $\left(\mathbf{V}_{s}\right)$, transmission line $(R)$, and load ( $\mathbf{Z}_{L}$ ).
The load is specified as $P=50 \mathrm{~kW}$, P.F. $=0.6$ (lagging), $\mathbf{V}_{L}=480 \angle 0^{\circ} V$ (rms).
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Thus, a higher power factor can substantially reduce transmission losses.

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Thus, a higher power factor can substantially reduce transmission losses.
The effective power factor of an inductive load can be improved by connecting a suitable capacitance in parallel.

## Power computation: home work



* Find $\mathbf{I}_{1}, \mathbf{I}_{2}, \mathbf{I}_{s}$.
* Compute the average power absorbed by each element.
* Verify power balance.
(SEQUEL file: ee101_phasors_2.sqproj)

