University of Diyala Engineering College Electronic Department

Year (2015-2016)

Electrical Circuits 2nd Class Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi

Magnetically Coupled Circuits

#### 1) Introduction

The circuits we have considered so far may be regarded as conductively coupled, because one loop affects the neighboring loop through current conduction. When two loops with or without contacts between them affect each other through the magnetic field generated by one of them, they are said to be *magnetically coupled*.

The *transformer* is an electrical device designed on the basis of the concept of magnetic coupling. It uses magnetically coupled coils to transfer energy from one circuit to another. Transformers are key circuit elements. They are used in power systems for stepping up or stepping down ac voltages or currents. They are used in electronic circuits such as radio and television receivers for such purposes as impedance matching, isolating one part of a circuit from another, and again for stepping up or down ac voltages and currents.

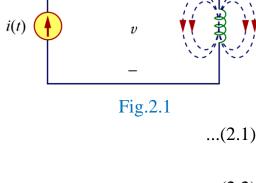
## 2) <u>Mutual Inductance</u>

 $v = N \frac{d\phi}{dt}$ 

or Eq. (2.1) can be written as,

When two inductors (or coils) are in a close proximity to each other, the magnetic flux caused by current in one coil links with the other coil, thereby inducing voltage in the latter. This phenomenon is known as *mutual inductance*.

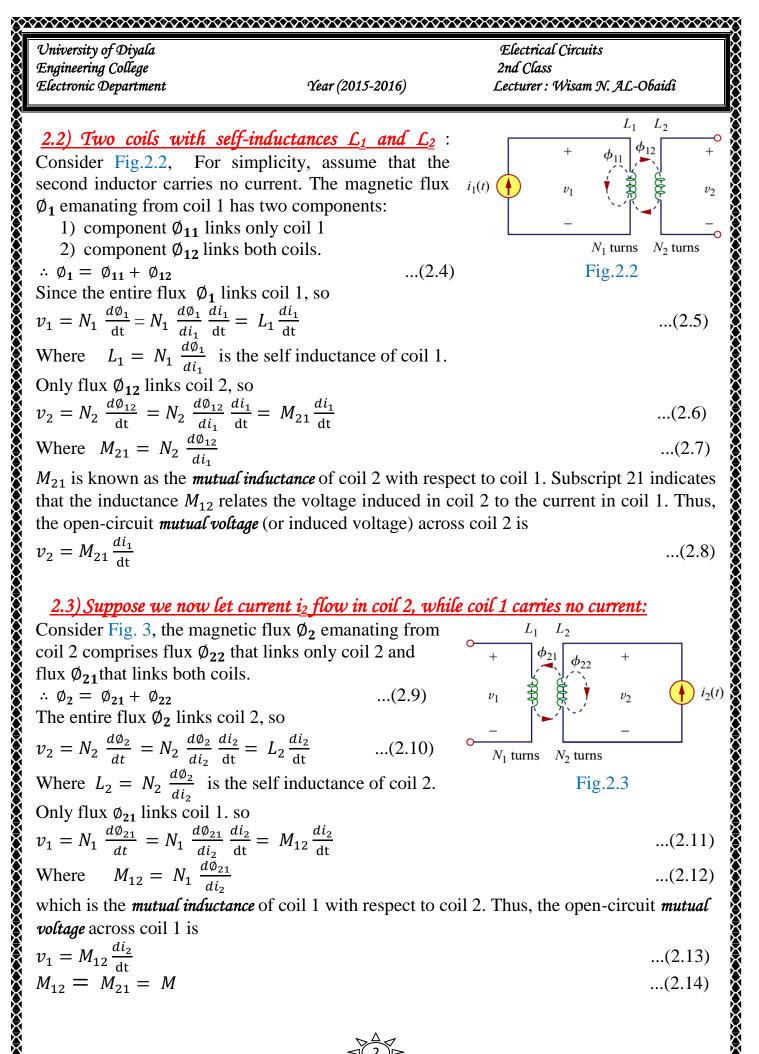
2.1) Single inductor (a coil with  $\mathcal{N}$  turns): When current *i* flows through the coil, a magnetic flux  $\emptyset$  is produced around it (Fig.2.1). According to Faraday's law, the voltage  $\nu$  induced in the coil is proportional to the number of turns N and the time rate of change of the magnetic flux; that is,



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 $v = N \frac{d\phi}{di} \frac{di}{dt} = L \frac{di}{dt}$ where  $L = N \frac{d\phi}{di}$ ...(2.2)

This inductance is commonly called *self-inductance*, because it relates the voltage induced in a coil by a time-varying current in the same coil.



$$v_2 = M_{21} \frac{di_1}{dt}$$
 ...(2.8)

## 2.3) Suppose we now let current $i_2$ flow in coil 2, while coil 1 carries no current:

Consider Fig. 3, the magnetic flux  $\phi_2$  emanating from  $L_2$ coil 2 comprises flux  $Ø_{22}$  that links only coil 2 and flux  $Ø_{21}$  that links both coils.  $\therefore \phi_2 = \phi_{21} + \phi_{22}$ ...(2.9) $v_2$ The entire flux  $\phi_2$  links coil 2, so  $v_2 = N_2 \frac{d\phi_2}{dt} = N_2 \frac{d\phi_2}{di_2} \frac{di_2}{dt} = L_2 \frac{di_2}{dt}$ ...(2.10)  $N_1$  turns  $N_2$  turns Where  $L_2 = N_2 \frac{d\phi_2}{di_2}$  is the self inductance of coil 2. **Fig.2.3** Only flux  $\phi_{21}$  links coil 1. so  $v_1 = N_1 \frac{d\phi_{21}}{dt} = N_1 \frac{d\phi_{21}}{di_2} \frac{di_2}{dt} = M_{12} \frac{di_2}{dt}$ ...(2.11) Where  $M_{12} = N_1 \frac{d\phi_{21}}{di_2}$ ...(2.12) which is the *mutual inductance* of coil 1 with respect to coil 2. Thus, the open-circuit *mutual* voltage across coil 1 is  $v_1 = M_{12} \frac{di_2}{dt_2}$ ...(2.13)

$$M_{12} = M_{21} = M$$
 ...(2.14)

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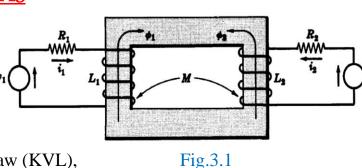
Year (2015-2016)

Electrical Circuits 2nd Class Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi

Mutual inductance is the ability of one inductor to induce a voltage across a neighboring inductor, measured in henrys (H). Like self-inductance L, mutual inductance M is measured in henrys (H).

## 3) ANALYSIS OF COUPLED CIRCUITS

Although mutual inductance *M* is always a positive quantity, the mutual voltage ( $v = M \frac{di}{dt}$ ) may be negative or positive, just like the self induced voltage ( $v = L \frac{di}{dt}$ ).



#### For Fig.3.1. apply Kirchhoff's voltage law (KVL),

$$R_1 i_1 + L_1 \frac{di_1}{dt} \mp M \frac{di_2}{dt} = v_1$$
  

$$R_2 i_2 + L_2 \frac{di_2}{dt} \mp M \frac{di_1}{dt} = v_2$$

To determine the correct signs in Eqs(3.1) and (3.2) apply the right hand rule to each coil, allowing the fingers to wrap around in the direction of the assumed current. Then the right thumb points in the direction of the flux. Thus the positive directions of  $\emptyset_1$ , and  $\emptyset_2$  are as shown in the figure. If fluxes  $\emptyset_1$  and  $\emptyset_2$  due to the assumed positive current directions aid one another, then the signs on the voltages of mutual inductance are the same as the signs on the voltages of self-inductance.

So Eqs(3.1) and (3.2) becomes
$$D_{i} = L \frac{di_1}{di_2} - m$$
(2.2)

$$R_{1}i_{1} + L_{1}\frac{dt}{dt} - M\frac{dt}{dt} = v_{1} \qquad ...(3.3)$$

$$R_{2}i_{2} + L_{2}\frac{di_{2}}{dt} - M\frac{di_{1}}{dt} = v_{2} \qquad ...(3.4)$$

In frequency domain (replacing each  $\frac{d}{dt}$  by  $j\omega$ )Eqs(3.3) and (3.4) becomes,

 $(R_{1} + j\omega L_{1})I_{1} - j\omega MI_{2} = V_{1} \rightarrow Z_{11}I_{1} + Z_{12}I_{2} = V_{1} \qquad \dots (3.5)$  $-j\omega MI_{1} + (R_{2} + j\omega L_{2})I_{2} = V_{2} \rightarrow Z_{21}I_{1} + Z_{22}I_{2} = V_{2} \qquad \dots (3.6)$ 

Where  $Z_{11} = R_1 + j\omega L_1$ ,  $Z_{22} = R_2 + j\omega L_2$ , and  $Z_{12} = Z_{21} = -j\omega M$  which is common to the two mesh currents  $I_{1 \text{ and }} I_{2.}$ 

## 4) NATURAL CURRENT

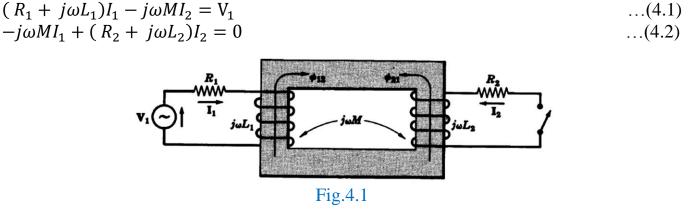
In Fig.4.1. select current  $I_1$  in agreement with the source  $V_1$  and apply the right hand rule to determine the direction of the flux  $\emptyset_{12}$ . Now Lenz's law states that *the polarity of the induced voltage is such that if the circuit is completed, a current will pass through the coil in a direction which creates a flux opposing the main flux set up by current I*<sub>1</sub>. Therefore when the switch is closed in the circuit of Fig.5, the direction of flux  $\emptyset_{21}$  according to Lenz's law is as shown. Now apply the right hand rule with the thumb pointing in the direction of the fingers will

...(3.1)

...(3.2)

University of Diyala		Electrical Circuits
Engineering College		2nd Class
Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi

wrap around coil 2 in the direction of the natural current. Then the mesh current equations are



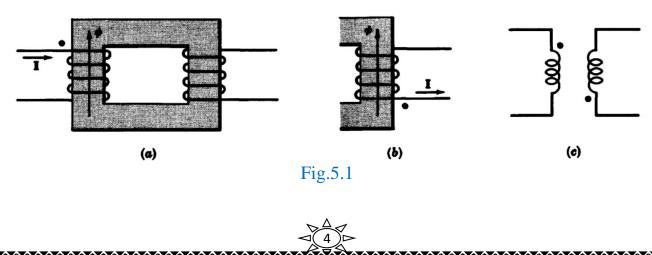
# <u>5) DOT RULE FOR COUPLED COILS</u>

While the relative polarity for voltages of mutual inductance can be determined from sketches of the core which show the winding, the method is not practical. To simplify the diagrammatic representation of coupled circuits, the coils are marked with *dots* as shown in Fig.5.1 (c). On each coil, a dot is placed at the terminals which are instantaneously of the same polarity on the basis of the mutual inductance alone.

To assign the dots on a pair of coupled coils,

1) select a current direction in one coil of the pair and place a dot at the terminal where this current enters the winding. The dotted terminal is instantaneously positive with respect to the other terminal of the coil.

- Apply the right hand rule to find the corresponding flux in the second coil as shown in Fig.6 (a). Now in the second coil the flux must oppose the original flux, according to *Lenz's law*. See Fig.6 (b).
- 3) Use the right hand rule to find the direction of the natural current, and since the voltage of mutual inductance is positive at the terminal where this natural current leaves the winding, place a dot at this terminal as shown in Fig.5.1 (b). With the instantaneous polarity of the coils given by the dots, the core is no longer needed in the diagram and the coupled coils may be illustrated as in Fig.5.1 (c).



University of Diyala		Electrical Circuits
Engineering College		2nd Class
Engineering College Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi

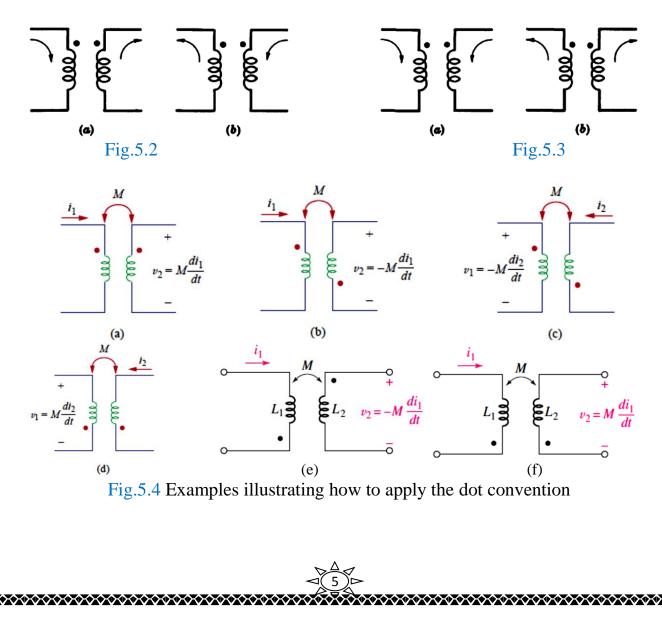
To determine the sign of the voltage of mutual inductance in the mesh current equations, we use the dot rule which states:

- 1) When both assumed currents enter or leave a pair of coupled coils at the dotted terminals, the signs of the M terms will be the same as the signs of the L terms;
- 2) If one current enters at a dotted terminal and one leaves by a dotted terminal, the signs of the M terms are opposite to the signs of the L terms.
- or

- 3) If a current enters the dotted terminal of one coil, the reference polarity of the mutual voltage in the second coil is positive at the dotted terminal of the second coil.
- 4) If a current leaves the dotted terminal of one coil, the reference polarity of the mutual voltage in the second coil is negative at the dotted terminal of the second coil.

Thus, the reference polarity of the mutual voltage depends on the reference direction of the inducing current and the dots on the coupled coils.

Fig.5.2 shows when the signs of the M and L terms are opposite. Fig.5.3 shows two cases in which the signs of M and L are the same.



University of Diyala Engineering College Electronic Department		Electrical Circuits	
Engineering College		2nd Class	
Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi	
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Fig.5.5 shows the dot convention for coupled coils in series. For the coils in Fig.5.5 (a), the total inductance is

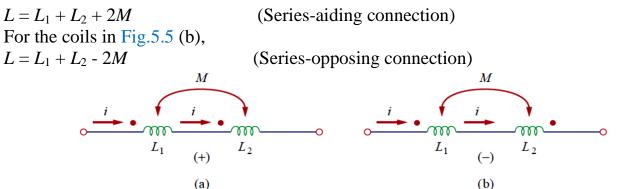
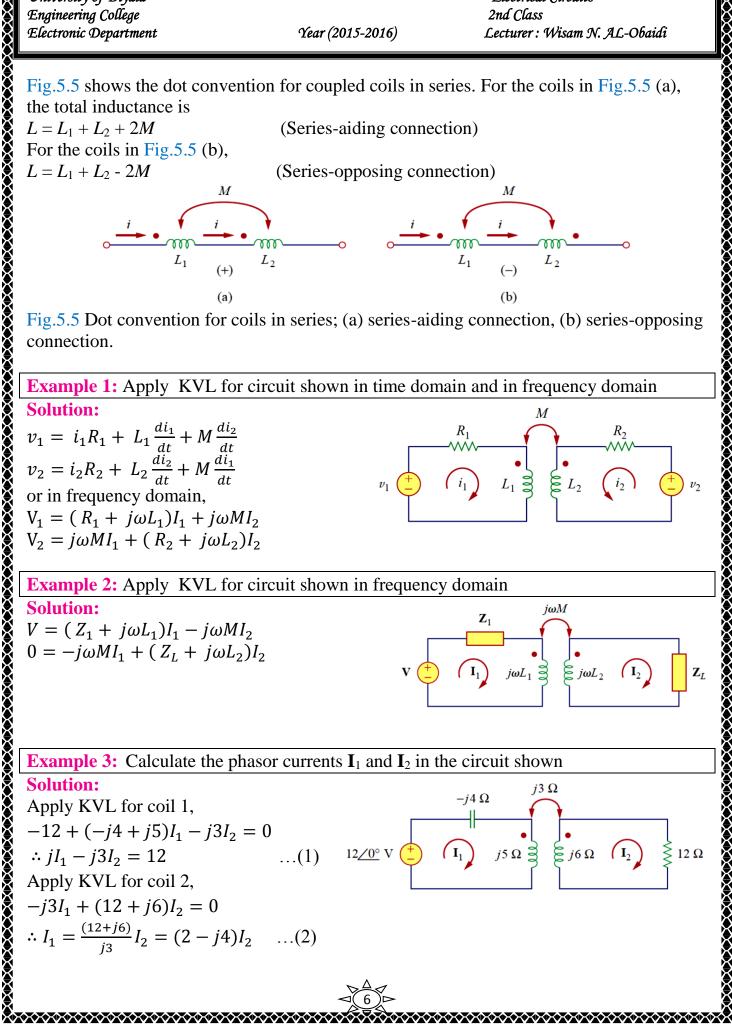
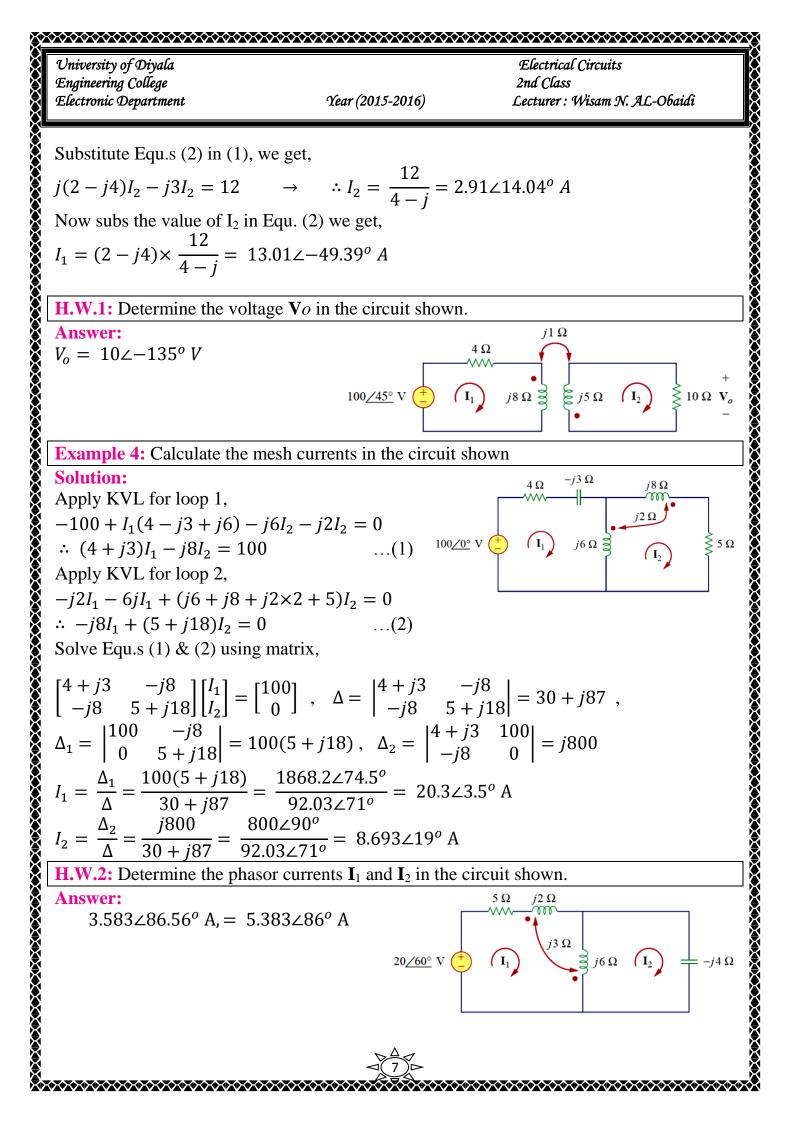


Fig.5.5 Dot convention for coils in series; (a) series-aiding connection, (b) series-opposing connection.





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<u>6) Energy in a Coupled Circ</u>	cuit	М
Consider circuit shown in F		
	ially, the power and energy	stored in +
the coils is zero.		
$p_1(t) = p_2(t) = 0$ &		$v_1 \qquad L_1 \stackrel{\circ}{\ni} \stackrel{\circ}{\in} L_2$
• If we let $i_1$ increase from $i_2 = 0$ , so	zero to $I_1$ while maintaining	_
$p_1(t) = v_1 i_1 = i_1 L_1 \frac{di_1}{dt}$		(6.1) Fig.6.1
ui		
$w_1 = \int p_1  \mathrm{d} t = L_1 \int_0^{I_1}$	$^{1}i_{1}.di_{1} = \frac{1}{2}L_{1}I_{1}^{2} \qquad \dots$	(6.2)
		to $I_2$ , the mutual voltage induced in
coil 1 is $M_{12} \frac{a t_2}{dt}$ while	the mutual voltage induced	in coil 2 is zero, since $i_1$ does no
change. So	יב וג	
$p_2(t) = i_1 M_{12} \frac{di_2}{dt} + i_2 i_1$	$v_2 = I_1 M_{12} \frac{di_2}{dt} + i_2 L_2 \frac{di_2}{dt}$	(6.3)
$w_2 = \int p_2 dt = M_{12}I_1$	$\int_0^{I_1} di_2 + L_2 \int_0^{I_2} i_2 di_2 = M$	$I_{12}I_1I_2 + \frac{1}{2}L_2I_2^2$ (6.4)
	0 0	$i_2$ have reached constant values is,
$w = w_1 + w_2 = \frac{1}{2}L_1I_1^2$		(6.5)
Δ.	2	e $i_1$ from zero to $I_1$ , the total energy
stored in the coils is		
$w = \frac{1}{2}L_1I_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}L_2I_2^2 + \dots$	$M_{21}I_{1}I_{2}$	(6.6)
Compare Eq.s (6.5) with	h (6.6) we get,	
$M_{12} = M_{21} = M$		(6.7)
$w = \frac{1}{2}L_1I_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}L_2I_2^2 + \dots$	$MI_1I_2$	(6.8)
		ie coil currents both entered the dotte
		he other current leaves the other dotted
· ·	s negative, so that the mutual er	nergy $MI_1I_2$ is also negative. In that
<i>case</i> , $1 + 12 + 1 + 12 = 14$	7.7	
$w = \frac{1}{2}L_1I_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}L_2I_2^2 - M_1$		(6.9)
The instantaneous energy s	tored in the circuit the gener	al expression
$w = \frac{1}{2}L_1I_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}L_2I_2^2 \mp$		(2.10)
$W = \frac{1}{2}L_1I_1 + \frac{1}{2}L_2I_2 + \frac{1}{2}L$		(6.10)
	*	
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Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi
7) <u>Coupling coefficient (k</u>	)	
		ce <i>M</i> . mutual The energy stored in
		ssive. This means that the quantity
$\left(\frac{1}{2}L_{1}i_{1}^{2}+\frac{1}{2}L_{2}i_{2}^{2}-Mi_{1}i_{2}\right)$	must be greater than or equa	l to zero:
$\frac{1}{2}\tilde{L}_1i_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}\tilde{L}_2i_2^2 - Mi_1i_2$	$\geq 0$	(7.1)
		term $i_1 i_2 \sqrt{L_1 L_2}$ on the right-hand
side of Eq. (6.11) and obta		
$\frac{1}{2}(i_1\sqrt{L_1}-i_2\sqrt{L_2})^2+i_1i_2$	$I_2(\sqrt{L_1L_2} - M) \ge 0$	(7.2)
<u>L</u>		b. Therefore, the second term on the
right-hand side of Eq. (6.12	2) must be greater than zero;	that is,
$\sqrt{L_1 L_2} - M \ge 0$		
or		
$M \leq \sqrt{L_1 L_2}$	. 1	(7.3)
		the geometric mean of the self- atual inductance $M$ approaches the
	the coefficient of coupling k, give	
$k = \frac{M}{\sqrt{L_1 L_2}}$	,	(7.4)
$\sqrt{L_1 L_2}$		()
$M = k_{\sqrt{L_1 L_2}}$		(7.5)
$M = \kappa_{\sqrt{L_1 L_2}}$		
Where $0 \le k \le 1$ or equ	ivalently $0 \le M \le \sqrt{L_1 L_2}$ .	
		nating from one coil that links the other
coil. For example, in Fig.6.	2(a),	
$k = \frac{\phi_{12}}{\phi_1} = \frac{\phi_{12}}{\phi_{11} + \phi_{12}}$		(6.6)
and in Fig.6.2(b),		
$k = \frac{\phi_{21}}{\phi_2} = \frac{\phi_{21}}{\phi_{21} + \phi_{22}}$		(6.7)
	flux produced by one coil	links another coil, 100% coupling
the coils are said to $l$		
	said to be <i>loosely coupled</i> ;	
3) For $k > 0.5$ , coils are	e said to be <i>tightly coupled</i> .	
The coupling coefficient	k is a measure of the mag	netic coupling between two
coils; $0 \le k \le 1$		
coupling coefficient k depend	on the closeness of the two coil	s, their core, their orientation, and thei
windings.	-	
	٨	
	$\sqrt{9}$	

 $\sim$ 

# 7) Coupling coefficient (k)

$$\frac{1}{2}L_1i_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}L_2i_2^2 - Mi_1i_2 \ge 0$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(i_1\sqrt{L_1} - i_2\sqrt{L_2})^2 + i_1i_2(\sqrt{L_1L_2} - M) \ge 0 \qquad \dots (7.2)$$
  
The squared term is never negative; at its least it is zero. Therefore, the second term on the right-hand side of Eq. (6.12) must be greater than zero; that is,

$$\sqrt{L_1 L_2} - M \ge 0$$
or

$$k = \frac{M}{\sqrt{L_1 L_2}} \qquad \dots (7.4)$$

$$M = k\sqrt{L_1 L_2} \tag{7.5}$$

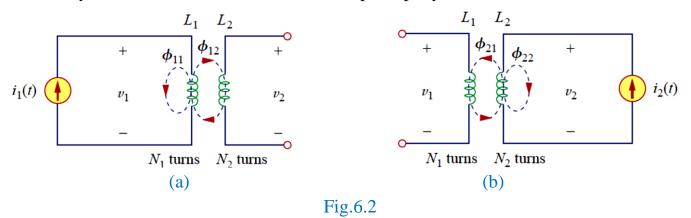
$$k = \frac{\phi_{12}}{\phi_1} = \frac{\phi_{12}}{\phi_{11} + \phi_{12}}$$
and in Fig.6.2(b),
(6.6)

$$k = \frac{\phi_{21}}{\phi_2} = \frac{\phi_{21}}{\phi_{21} + \phi_{22}} \tag{6.7}$$

- 1) For k = 1 (the entire flux produced by one coil links another coil, 100% coupling) the coils are said to be *perfectly coupled*.
- 2) For k < 0.5 coils are said to be *loosely coupled*;
- 3) For k > 0.5, coils are said to be *tightly coupled*.

University of Diyala		Electrical Circuits
Engineering College		2nd Class
Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Electrical Circuits 2nd Class Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi
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The air-core transformers used in radio frequency circuits are loosely coupled, whereas iron-core transformers used in power systems are tightly coupled. The linear transformers are mostly air-core; the ideal transformers are principally iron-core.



**Example 5:** Determine the coupling coefficient and calculate the energy stored in the coupled inductors at time t=1 s if  $v = 60\cos(4t + 30^\circ)$  V.

**Solution:** 

<i>k</i> =	$\frac{M}{\sqrt{L_1L_2}} =$	$\frac{2.5}{\sqrt{5\times 4}} =$	= 0.56	(tightly coupled)
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To find the energy stored, we need to calculate the current. To find the current, we need to obtain the frequency-domain equivalent of the circuit.

$$60 \cos(4t + 30^\circ) \implies 60/30^\circ, \ \omega = 4 \text{ rad/s}$$

$$5 \text{ H} \implies j\omega L_1 = j20 \ \Omega$$

$$2.5 \text{ H} \implies j\omega M = j10 \ \Omega$$

$$4 \text{ H} \implies j\omega L_2 = j16 \ \Omega$$

$$\frac{1}{16} \text{ F} \implies \frac{1}{j\omega C} = -j4 \ \Omega$$

The frequency-domain equivalent is shown in Fig.. Now apply mesh analysis. For mesh 1,

$$(10 + j20)I_1 + j10I_2 = 60 \angle 30^0 \qquad \dots (1)$$

For mesh 1,  $j10I_1 + (j16 - j4)I_2 = 0$  ...(2) Solve Eq.s (1) and (2) we get,  $I_1 = 3.905 \angle -19.4^{\circ} A$  &  $I_2 = 3.254 \angle 160.6^{\circ} A$ In time domain.  $i_1 = 3.905 \cos(4t - 19.4^{\circ})$  &  $i_2 = 3.254 \cos(4t + 160.6^{\circ})$ At t=1s, 4t = 4 rad  $= 229.2^{\circ}$  $i_1 = 3.905 \cos(229.2^{\circ} - 19.4^{\circ}) = -3.389 A$ 

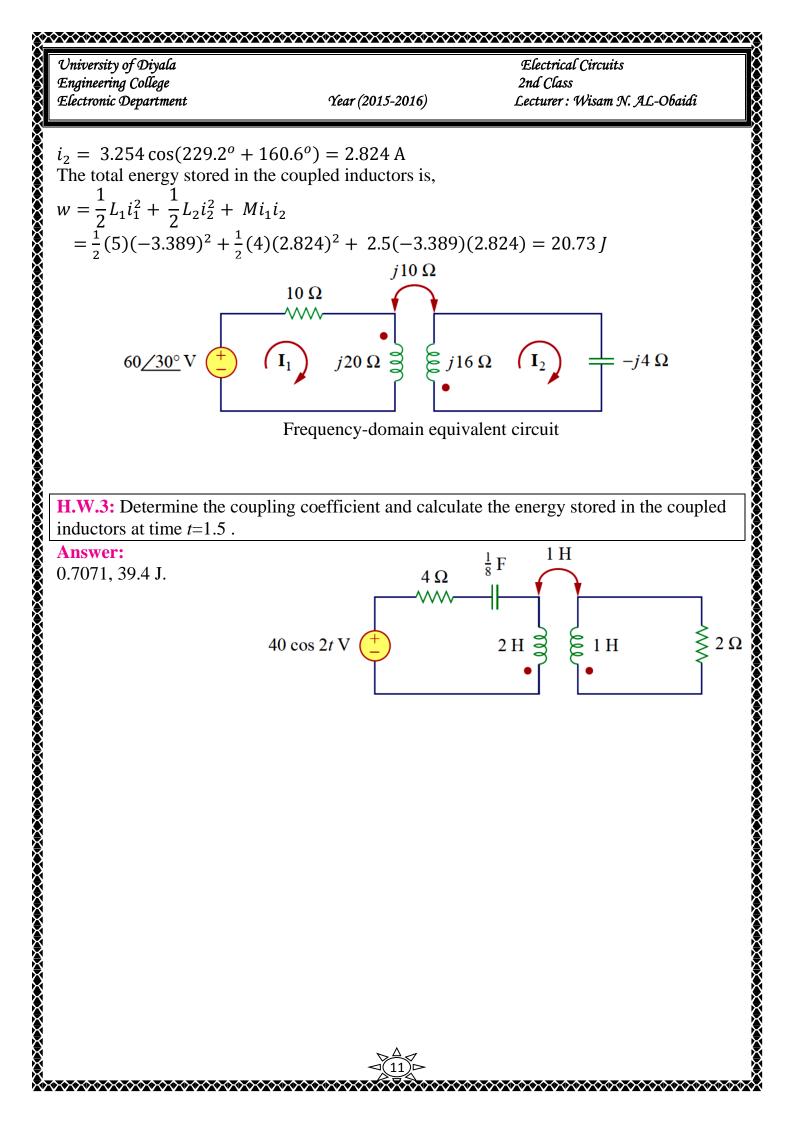
 $\frac{1}{16}$ 

2.5 H

4 H

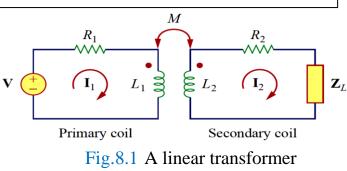
10 Ω

5 H



University of Diyala Engineering College Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Electrical Circuits 2nd Class Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi
<u>8) Linear Transformers</u>		
A transformer is gene magnetically coupled co	•	evice comprising two (or more)
As shown in Fig.8.1, the co- connected to the voltage so <i>primary winding.</i> The coil of load is called <i>the seconda</i> resistances $R_1$ and $R_2$ a account for the losses (po- in the coils.	burce is called <i>the</i> connected to the <i>fary winding</i> . The are included to	$\begin{array}{c} R_1 \\ \hline \\ R_1 \\ \hline \\ R_2 \\ \hline \\ R_2 \\ \hline \\ L_2 \\ \hline \\ L_2 \\ \hline \\ R_2 \\ \hline \\$
material for which the magnet Bakelite, and wood. In fac	etic permeability is constant). ct, most materials are mag ore transformers, although not	yound on a magnetically linear material( Such materials include air, plastic gnetically linear. Linear transformers t all of them are necessarily air-core
	$_{n} = \frac{V}{I_{1}}$ ) as seen from the	source governs the behavior of the
primary circuit. Applying KVL to the two n	meshes in Fig.8.1 gives	
$V = (R_1 + j\omega L_1)I_1 - j\omega M$ $0 = -j\omega MI_1 + (R_2 + j\omega L_1)I_1 - j\omega M$	MI <sub>2</sub>	(8.1)
From Eq.(8.2)	$L_2 + L_L J I_2$	(8.2)
$I_2 = \frac{j\omega M}{(R_2 + j\omega L_2 + Z_L)} I_1$		(8.3)
Substitute Eq. (8.3) in (8.1) $V = \left( (R_1 + j\omega L_1) + \frac{1}{(R_2 + j\omega L_1)} \right)$	$\frac{\omega^2 M^2}{+j\omega L_2 + Z_L} \bigg) I_1$	(8.4)
From Eq. (8.4) we get, $\overline{\mathbf{Z}}_{\cdot} = \frac{V}{I} = (R_1 + i\omega L_1)$	) + $\omega^2 M^2$	(8.5) . The first term, $(R_1 + j\omega L_1)$ , is th
primary impedance. The s	second term is due to the as though this impedance is	The first term, $(R_1 + j\omega L_1)$ , is the coupling between the primary and s reflected to the primary. Thus, it is
$Z_R = \frac{\omega^2 M^2}{(R_2 + j\omega L_2 + Z_L)}$		(8.6)
It should be noted that the	Eq. (8.5) or (8.6) is not after the same result is produced w	ffected by the location of the dots o
	$\triangleleft$ (12)>	

# 8) Linear Transformers



$$V = (R_1 + j\omega L_1)I_1 - j\omega MI_2 \qquad ...(8.1)$$

$$0 = -j\omega M I_1 + (R_2 + j\omega L_2 + Z_L) I_2 \qquad ...(8.2)$$
  
From Eq.(8.2)

$$I_{2} = \frac{j\omega M}{(R_{2} + j\omega L_{2} + Z_{L})} I_{1} \qquad \dots (8.3)$$

$$V = \left( (R_1 + j\omega L_1) + \frac{\omega^2 M^2}{(R_2 + j\omega L_2 + Z_L)} \right) I_1 \qquad \dots (8.4)$$

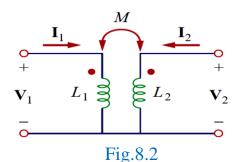
$$\mathbf{Z}_{in} = \frac{V}{\mathbf{I}_{1}} = (R_{1} + j\omega L_{1}) + \frac{\omega^{2}M^{2}}{(R_{2} + j\omega L_{2} + Z_{L})} \dots (8.5)$$

$$Z_R = \frac{\omega^2 M^2}{(R_2 + j\omega L_2 + Z_L)} \dots (8.6)$$

University of Diyala		Electrical Circuits
Engineering College		2nd Class
Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi

# 9) Conductively Coupled Equivalent Circuits

It is convenient to replace a magnetically coupled circuit by an equivalent circuit with no magnetic coupling. Now to replace the linear transformer in Fig.8.2 by an equivalent **T** or **II** circuit, a circuit that would have no mutual inductance.



The voltage-current relationships for the primary and secondary coils give the matrix equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} j\omega L_1 & j\omega M \\ j\omega M & j\omega L_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix} \dots (9.1)$$

By matrix inversion, this can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{L_2}{j\omega(L_1L_2 - M^2)} & \frac{-M}{j\omega(L_1L_2 - M^2)} \\ \frac{-M}{j\omega(L_1L_2 - M^2)} & \frac{L_1}{j\omega(L_1L_2 - M^2)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix} \dots (9.2)$$

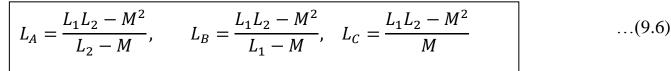
1) For the T (or Y) network of Fig.8.3, mesh analysis provides the terminal equations as  $\begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} j\omega(L_a + L_c) & j\omega L_c \\ j\omega L_c & j\omega(L_b + L_c) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \dots (9.3)$ 

If the circuits in Fig.8.2 and Fig.8.3 are equivalents, Eqs. (9.1) and (9.3) must be identical. Equating terms in the impedance matrices of Eqs. (9.1) and (9.3) leads to

$$L_a = L_1 - M, \qquad L_b = L_2 - M, \quad L_c = M$$
 ...(9.4)

2) For the  $\Pi$  (or  $\Delta$ ) network in Fig.8.4, nodal analysis gives the terminal equations as  $\begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{j\omega L_A} + \frac{1}{j\omega L_C} & -\frac{1}{j\omega L_C} \\ -\frac{1}{j\omega L_C} & \frac{1}{j\omega L_B} + \frac{1}{j\omega L_C} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix} \dots (9.5)$ 

Equating terms in admittance matrices of Eqs. (9.2) and (9.5), we obtain



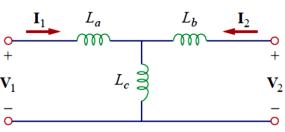


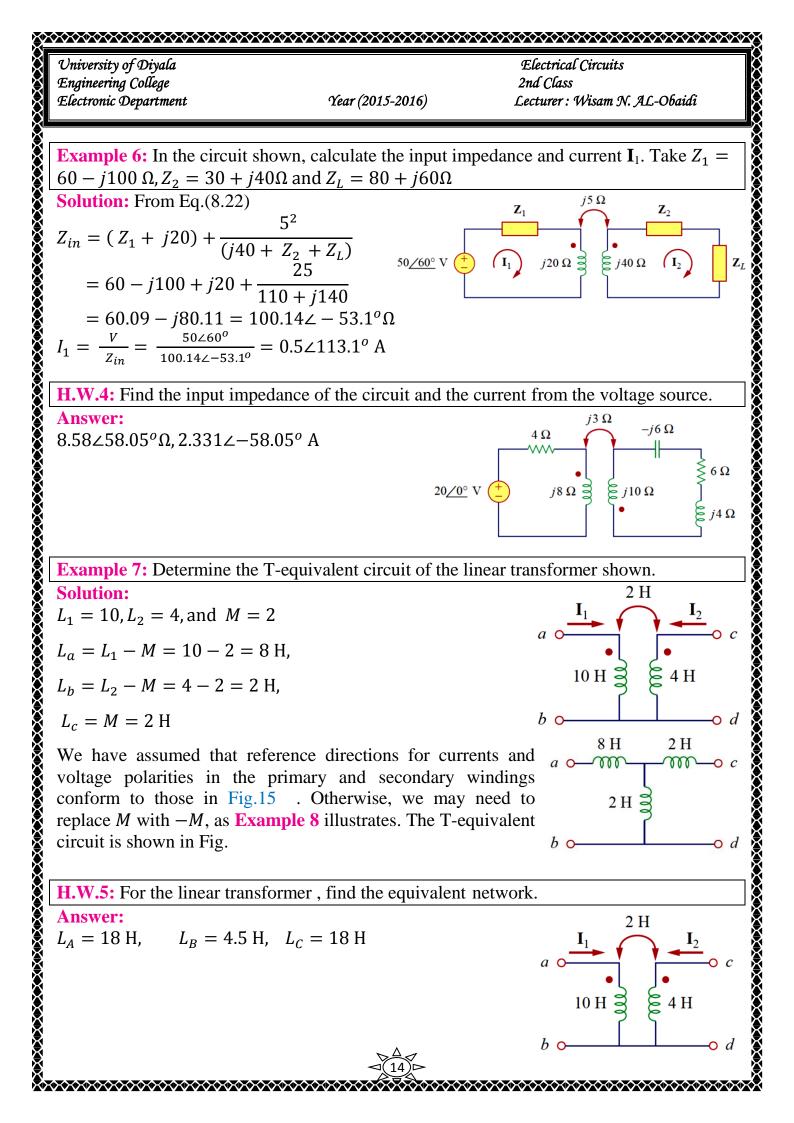
Fig.8.3 An equvalient T circuit

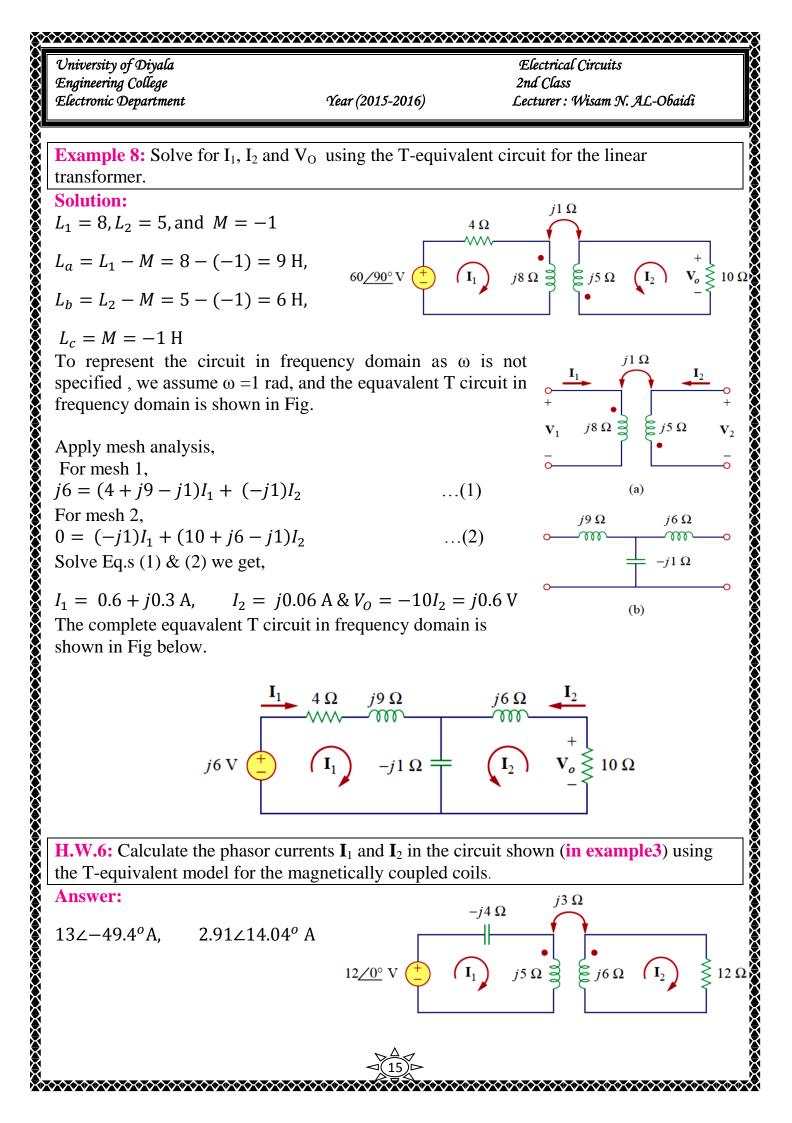
Fig.8.4 An equvalient  $\Pi$  circuit

 $L_B$ 

 $L_C$ 

 $L_{A}$ 





	Electrical Circuits	
	2nd Class	
Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi	
	Year (2015-2016)	2nd Class

## 10) Ideal Transformers

An ideal transformer is one with perfect coupling (k = 1). It consists of two (or more) coils with a large number of turns wound on a common core of high permeability. Because of this high permeability of the core, the flux links all the turns of both coils, thereby resulting in a perfect coupling. Consider the circuit in Fig.10.1.

In the frequency domain,

$$V_1 = j\omega L_1 I_1 + j\omega M I_2 \rightarrow I_1 = \frac{V_1 - j\omega M I_2}{j\omega L_1}$$
 ...(10)

 $V_2 = j\omega M I_1 + j\omega L_2 I_2$ 

Substituting Eq. (10.1) in (10.2) gives

$$V_{2} = j\omega M \left(\frac{V_{1} - j\omega M I_{2}}{j\omega L_{1}}\right) + j\omega L_{2}I_{2} = j\omega L_{2}I_{2} + \frac{MV_{1}}{L_{1}} - \frac{j\omega M^{2}I_{2}}{L_{1}} \qquad \dots (10.3)$$

But  $M = \sqrt{L_1 L_2}$  for perfect coupling (k = 1). Hence,

$$V_2 = j\omega L_2 I_2 + \frac{\sqrt{L_1 L_2} V_1}{L_1} - \frac{j\omega L_1 L_2 I_2}{L_1} = \sqrt{\frac{L_2}{L_1}} V_1 = nV_1 \qquad \dots (10.4)$$

where  $n = \sqrt{\frac{L_2}{L_1}}$  and is called the *turns ratio*.

As  $L_1, L_2, M \rightarrow \infty$  such that *n* remains the same, the coupled coils become an ideal transformer.

M

 $L_1 \supseteq$ 

Fig.10.1

 $v_1$ 

 $L_{2}$ 

...(10.2)

#### A transformer is said to be ideal if it has the following properties:

- 1. Coils have very large reactances  $(L_1, L_2, M \rightarrow \infty)$ .
- 2. Coupling coefficient is equal to unity (k = 1).

3. Primary and secondary coils are lossless  $(R_1 = 0, R_2 = 0)$ 

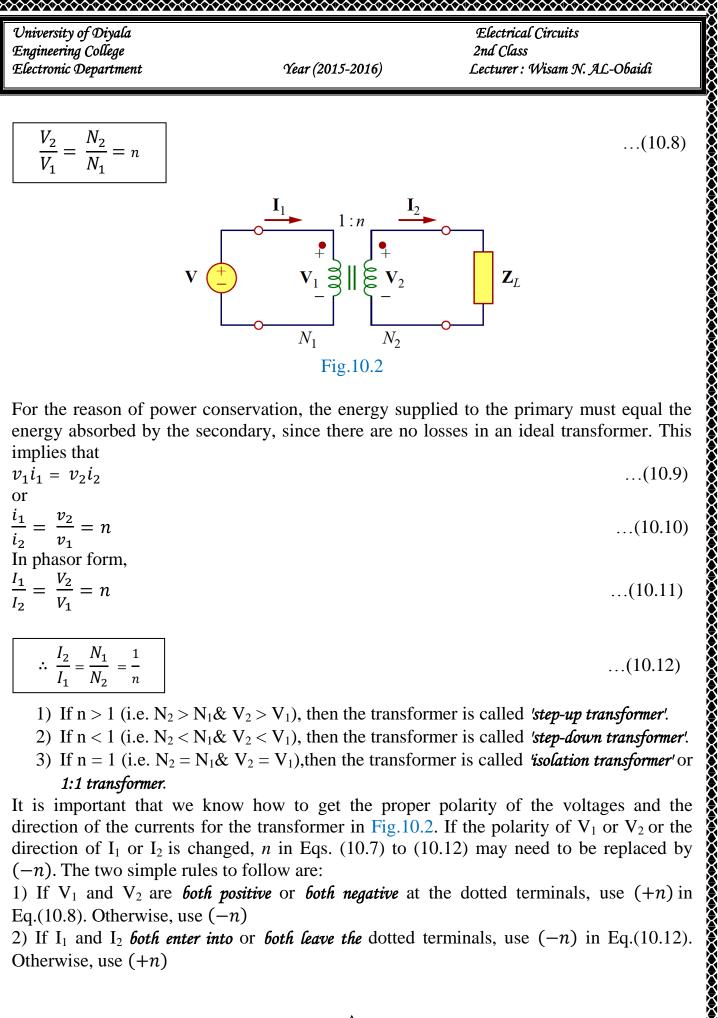
An ideal transformer is a unity-coupled, lossless transformer in which the primary and secondary coils have infinite self-inductances.

Iron-core transformers are close approximations to ideal transformers. These are used in power systems and electronics.

When a sinusoidal voltage is applied to the primary winding of ideal transformer as shown in Fig.10.2. and according to Faraday's law, the voltage across its windings are,

 $v_{1} = N_{1} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$   $v_{2} = N_{2} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$ Divide Eq.(10.6) by (10.5), we get  $\frac{v_{2}}{v_{1}} = \frac{N_{2}}{N_{1}} = n$ ...(10.7)
where *n* is, again, the *turns ratio or transformation ratio*. We can use the phasor voltages and

where n is, again, the *turns ratio or transformation ratio*. We can use the phasor voltages and rather than the instantaneous values and Thus, Eq. (10.7) may be written as



For the reason of power conservation, the energy supplied to the primary must equal the energy absorbed by the secondary, since there are no losses in an ideal transformer. This implies that

 $v_1 i_1 = v_2 i_2$ ...(10.9) or  $\frac{i_1}{i_2}$  $=\frac{v_2}{v_1}=n$ ...(10.10) In phasor form,  $\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = n$ ...(10.11)

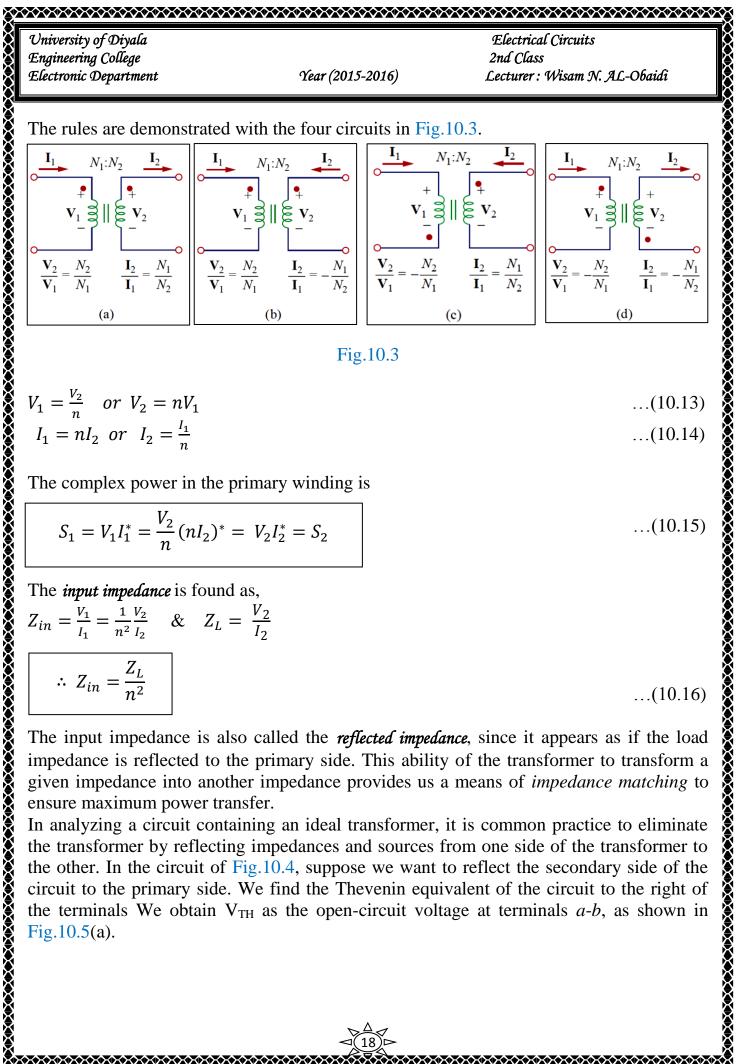
$$\therefore \ \frac{I_2}{I_1} = \frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{1}{n}$$
...(10.12)

- 1) If n > 1 (i.e.  $N_2 > N_1 \& V_2 > V_1$ ), then the transformer is called 'step-up transformer'.
- 2) If n < 1 (i.e.  $N_2 < N_1 \& V_2 < V_1$ ), then the transformer is called 'step-down transformer'.
- 3) If n = 1 (i.e.  $N_2 = N_1 \& V_2 = V_1$ ), then the transformer is called *'isolation transformer'* or 1:1 transformer.

It is important that we know how to get the proper polarity of the voltages and the direction of the currents for the transformer in Fig.10.2. If the polarity of  $V_1$  or  $V_2$  or the direction of  $I_1$  or  $I_2$  is changed, *n* in Eqs. (10.7) to (10.12) may need to be replaced by (-n). The two simple rules to follow are:

1) If  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are both positive or both negative at the dotted terminals, use (+n) in Eq.(10.8). Otherwise, use (-n)

2) If  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  both enter into or both leave the dotted terminals, use (-n) in Eq.(10.12). Otherwise, use (+n)



$$v_1 = \frac{1}{n} \quad or \quad v_2 = nv_1 \qquad \dots (10.13)$$
  

$$l_1 = nl_2 \quad or \quad l_2 = \frac{l_1}{n} \qquad \dots (10.14)$$

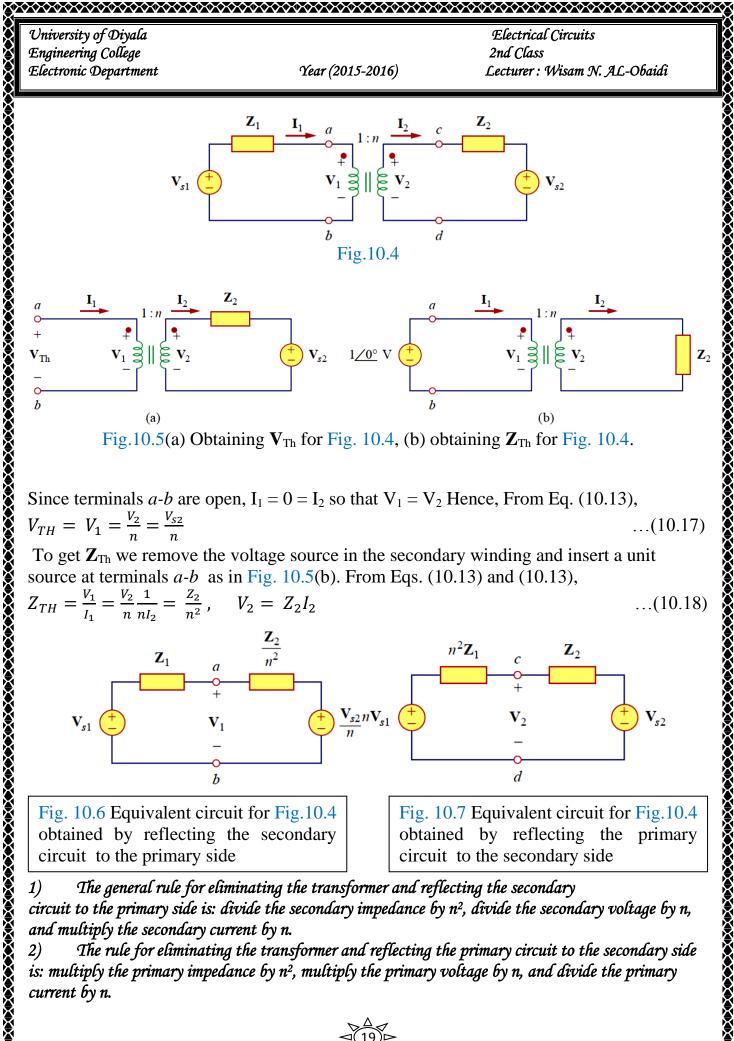
The complex power in the primary winding is

$$S_1 = V_1 I_1^* = \frac{V_2}{n} (nI_2)^* = V_2 I_2^* = S_2$$
 ...(10.15)

The *input impedance* is found as,  $Z_{in} = \frac{V_1}{I_1} = \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{V_2}{I_2} \quad \& \quad Z_L = \frac{V_2}{I_2}$  $\therefore Z_{in} = \frac{Z_L}{n^2}$ ...(10.16)

The input impedance is also called the *reflected impedance*, since it appears as if the load impedance is reflected to the primary side. This ability of the transformer to transform a given impedance into another impedance provides us a means of impedance matching to ensure maximum power transfer.

In analyzing a circuit containing an ideal transformer, it is common practice to eliminate the transformer by reflecting impedances and sources from one side of the transformer to the other. In the circuit of Fig.10.4, suppose we want to reflect the secondary side of the circuit to the primary side. We find the Thevenin equivalent of the circuit to the right of the terminals We obtain  $V_{TH}$  as the open-circuit voltage at terminals *a-b*, as shown in Fig.10.5(a).

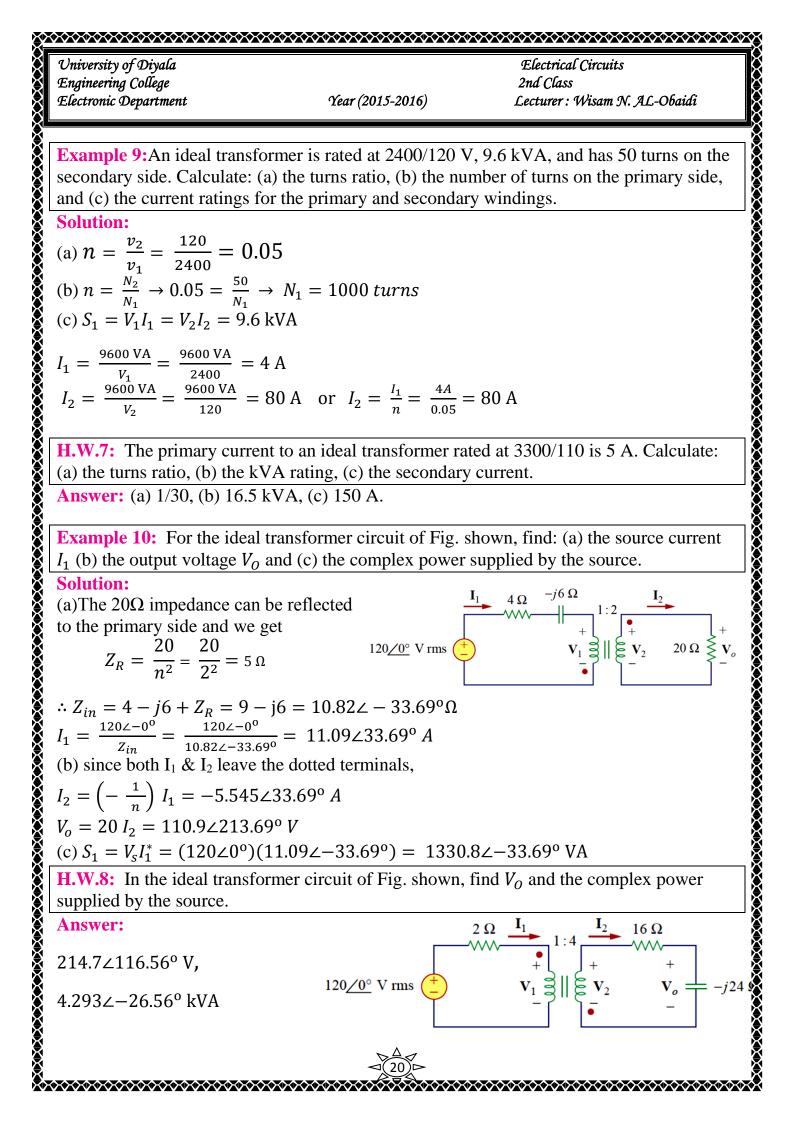


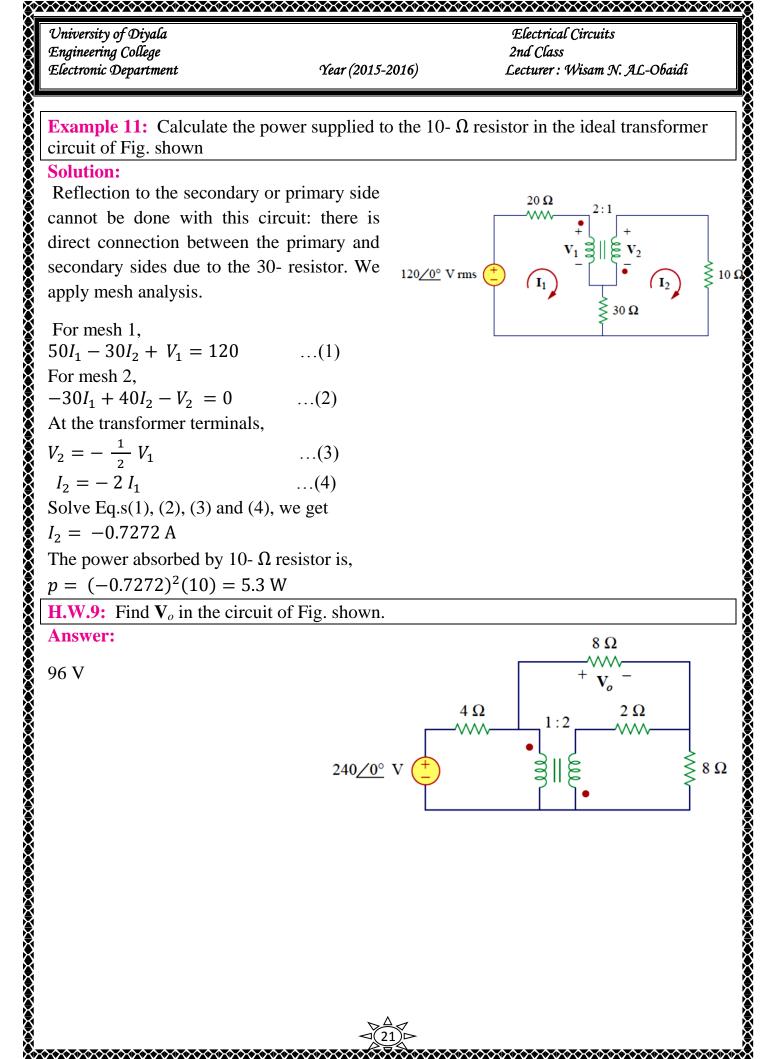
obtained by reflecting the secondary circuit to the primary side

obtained by reflecting the primary circuit to the secondary side

The general rule for eliminating the transformer and reflecting the secondary 1) circuit to the primary side is: divide the secondary impedance by  $n^2$ , divide the secondary voltage by n, and multiply the secondary current by n.

The rule for eliminating the transformer and reflecting the primary circuit to the secondary side 2) is: multiply the primary impedance by  $n^2$ , multiply the primary voltage by n, and divide the primary current by n.





**Example 11:** Calculate the power supplied to the 10-  $\Omega$  resistor in the ideal transformer circuit of Fig. shown

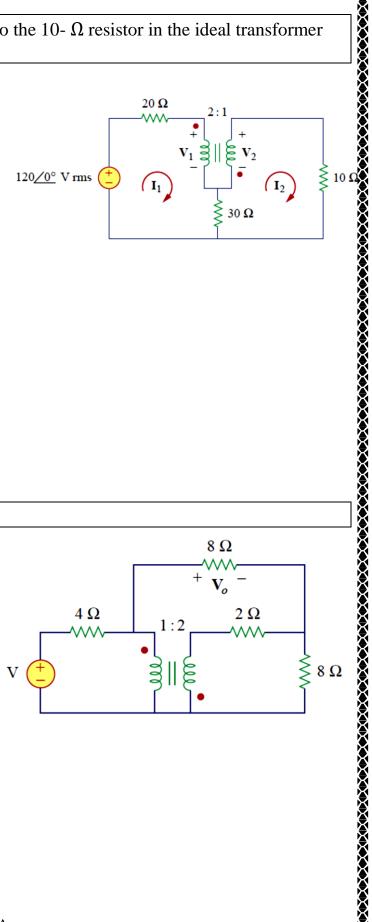
#### **Solution:**

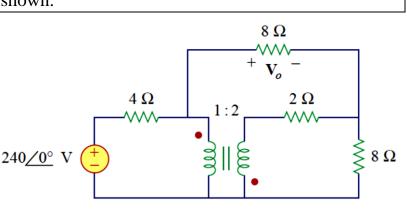
Reflection to the secondary or primary side cannot be done with this circuit: there is direct connection between the primary and secondary sides due to the 30- resistor. We apply mesh analysis.

For mesh 1,  $50I_1 - 30I_2 + V_1 = 120$ ...(1) For mesh 2,  $-30I_1 + 40I_2 - V_2 = 0$ ...(2) At the transformer terminals,  $V_2 = -\frac{1}{2}V_1$ ...(3)  $I_2 = -2 I_1$ ...(4) Solve Eq.s(1), (2), (3) and (4), we get  $I_2 = -0.7272 \text{ A}$ The power absorbed by 10-  $\Omega$  resistor is,  $p = (-0.7272)^2(10) = 5.3 \text{ W}$ **H.W.9:** Find **V**<sub>o</sub> in the circuit of Fig. shown.

#### **Answer:**

96 V





	Electrical Circuits
	2nd Class
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Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi
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	Year (2015-2016)

# 11) Ideal Autotransformers

Unlike the conventional two-winding transformer we have considered so far, an *autotransformer* has a single continuous winding with a connection point called a *tap* between the primary and secondary sides. The tap is often adjustable so as to provide the desired turns ratio for stepping up or stepping down the voltage. This way, a variable voltage is provided to the load connected to the autotransformer.

An autotransformer is a transformer in which both the primary and the secondary are in a single winding.

Fig.11.1, the autotransformer can operate in the stepdown or stepup mode. The autotransformer is a type of power transformer. Its major advantage over the twowinding transformer is its ability to transfer larger apparent power. Example 12 will demonstrate this. Another advantage is that an autotransformer is smaller and lighter than an equivalent two-winding transformer. However, since both the primary and secondary windings are one winding, electrical isolation (no direct electrical connection) is lost. The lack of electrical isolation between the primary and secondary windings major disadvantage of the is a autotransformer.

For the step-down autotransformer circuit of Fig.11.1(a),

$$\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_2} = 1 + \frac{N_1}{N_2} \qquad \dots (11.1)$$

$$S_1 = V_1 I_1^* = V_2 I_2^* = S_2 \qquad \dots (11.2)$$

$$V_1 I_1 = V_2 I_2 \qquad \dots (11.3)$$

$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{N_2}{N_1 + N_2} \qquad \dots (11.4)$$
For the step-up autotransformer circuit of Fig.11.1(a),  

$$\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1} = 1 + \frac{N_2}{N_1}$$

$$S_1 = V_1 I_1^* = V_2 I_2^* = S_2 \qquad \dots (11.5)$$

$$V_1 I_1 = V_2 I_2 \qquad \dots (11.6)$$

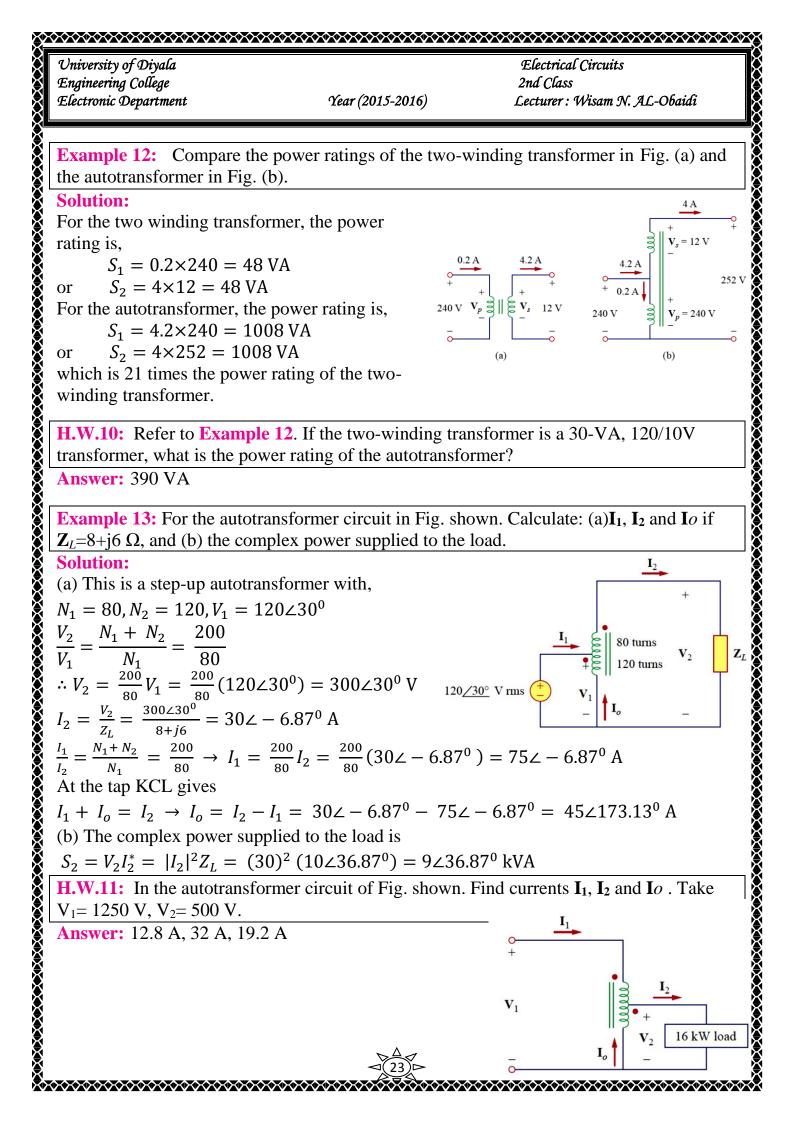
$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1} = 1 + \frac{N_2}{N_1} \qquad \dots (11.7)$$

A major difference between conventional transformers and autotransformers is that the primary and secondary sides of the autotransformer are not only coupled magnetically but also coupled conductively. The autotransformer can be used in place of a conventional transformer when electrical isolation is not required.

(a)

(b)

Fig.11.1



University of Diyala Engineering College		Electrical Circuits 2nd Class
Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi
12) Three-Phase Transforme	rrs	
To meet the demand for compatible with three-phase connections in two ways: b a so-called <i>transformer bank</i> , KVA rating, a three-phase phase transformers. When so have the same turns ratio standard ways of connecting for three-phase operations:	three-phase power transe operations are needed. y connecting three single-phase transformer is always smassingle-phase transformers a <i>n</i> to achieve a balanced to g three single-phase transformers Y-Y, $\Delta$ - $\Delta$ , Y- $\Delta$ , and $\Delta$ -Y.	smission, transformer connections We can achieve the transformer bhase transformers, thereby forming ee-phase transformer. For the same aller and cheaper than three single are used, one must ensure that they three-phase system. There are four ormers or a three-phase transformer ower $S_T$ , real power $P_T$ , and reactive
		(12.1)
$P_T = S_T \cos \theta = \sqrt{3}  V_L I_L \cos \theta$	$\cos  heta$	(12.2)
$Q_T = S_T \sin \theta = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \sin \theta$	n θ	(12.3)
Where, $V_L = line voltage$ , I	$_{\rm L} =$ line current	
$(V_{Lp} = line voltage for the p$	rimary side, $V_{Ls} = line volt$	age for the secondary side)
$(I_{Lp} = line current for the pr$	imary side, $I_{Ls} = line current$	nt for the secondary side)
For Y-Y & $\Delta$ - $\Delta$ transformed	r in Fig.12.1(a)(b),	
$V_{LS} = nV_{Lp}$		(12.4a)
$I_{LS} = \frac{I_{Lp}}{n}$		(12.4b)
For Y- $\Delta$ , transformer in Fig	g.12.1(c),	(12.5-)
$V_{LS} = \frac{nV_{Lp}}{\sqrt{3}}$		(12.5a)
$I_{LS} = \frac{\sqrt{3} I_{Lp}}{n}$		(12.5b)
For $\Delta$ - Y, transformer in Fig. $V_{Ls} = n\sqrt{3} V_{Lp}$	g.12.1(d),	(12.6a)
$I_{LS} = \frac{I_{Lp}}{n\sqrt{3}}$		(12.6b)
$T_{LS} = \frac{1}{n\sqrt{3}}$		(12.00
××××××××××××××××××××××××××××××××××××××		\

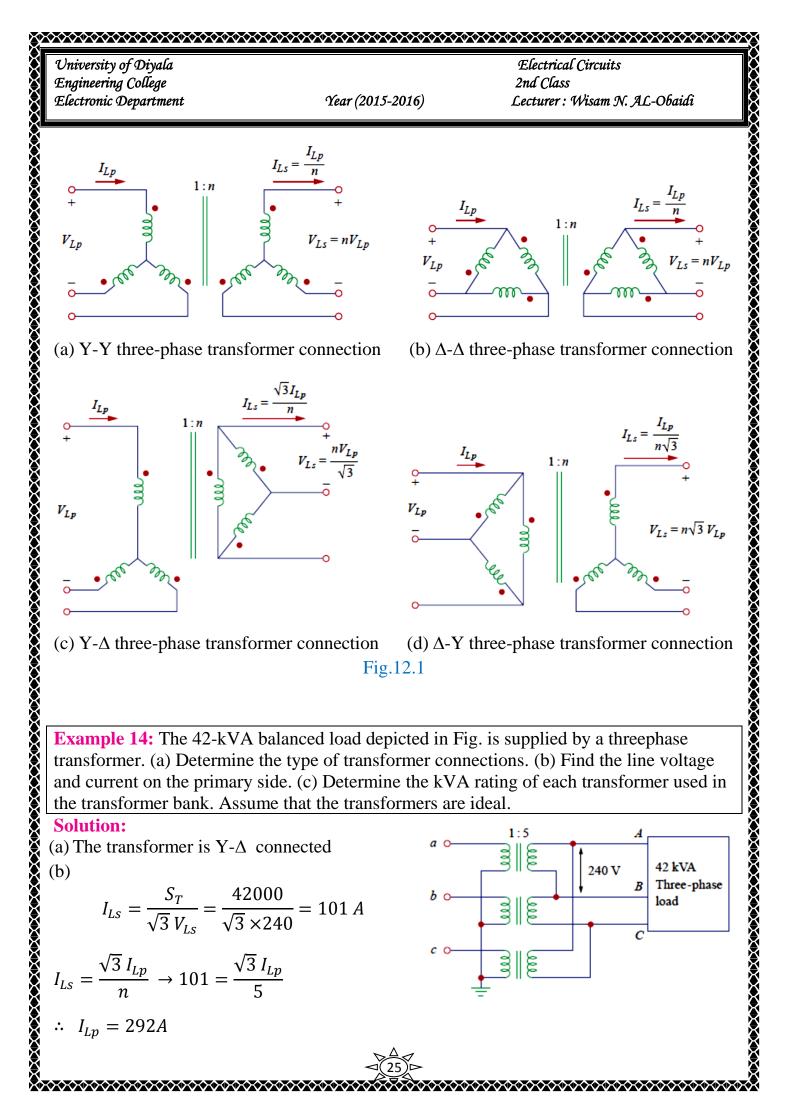
## 12) Three-Phase Transformers

$$S_T = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \qquad \dots (12.1)$$

$$P_T = S_T \cos \theta = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \cos \theta \qquad \dots (12.2)$$

$$Q_T = S_T \sin \theta = \sqrt{3} V_L I_L \sin \theta \qquad \dots (12.3)$$

For Y-Y & 
$$\Delta$$
- $\Delta$  transformer in Fig.12.1(a)(b),  
 $V_{Ls} = nV_{Lp}$  ...(12.4a)  
 $I_{Ls} = \frac{I_{Lp}}{n}$  ...(12.4b)  
For Y- $\Delta$ , transformer in Fig.12.1(c),  
 $V_{Ls} = \frac{nV_{Lp}}{\sqrt{3}}$  ...(12.5a)  
 $I_{Ls} = \frac{\sqrt{3} I_{Lp}}{n}$  ...(12.5b)  
For  $\Delta$ - Y, transformer in Fig.12.1(d),  
 $V_{Ls} = n\sqrt{3} V_{Lp}$  ...(12.6a)  
 $I_{Ls} = \frac{I_{Lp}}{n\sqrt{3}}$  ...(12.6b)



University of Diyala		Electrical Circuits
Engineering College		2nd Class
Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi
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$$V_{LS} = \frac{nV_{Lp}}{\sqrt{3}} \rightarrow 240 = \frac{5V_{Lp}}{\sqrt{3}}$$

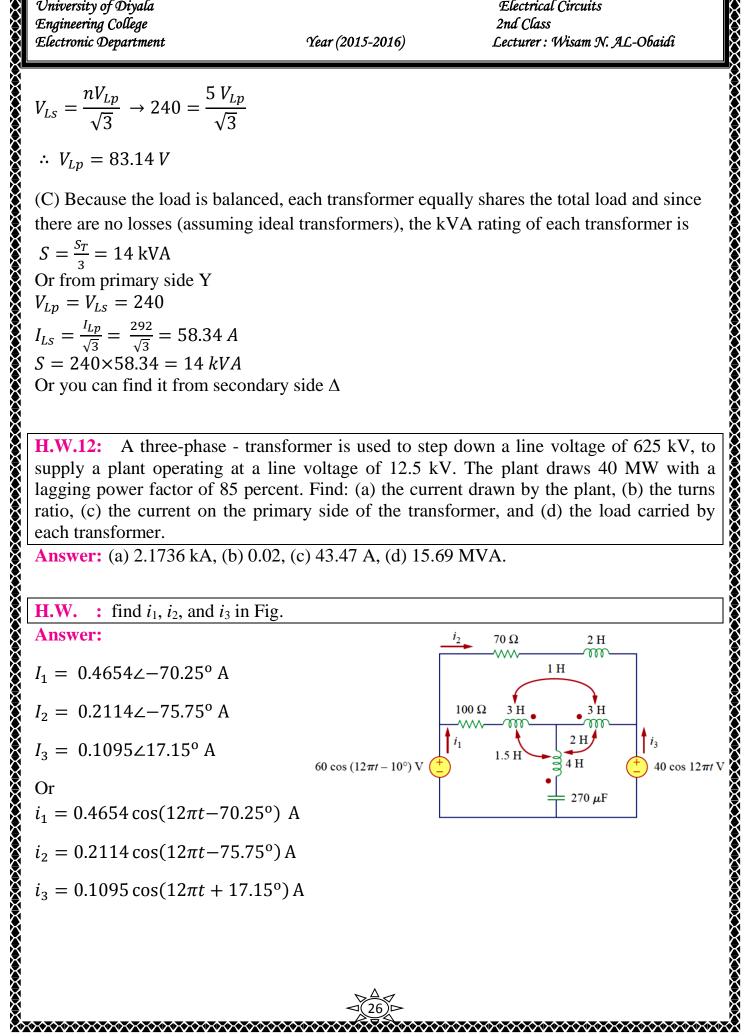
 $\therefore V_{Lp} = 83.14 V$ 

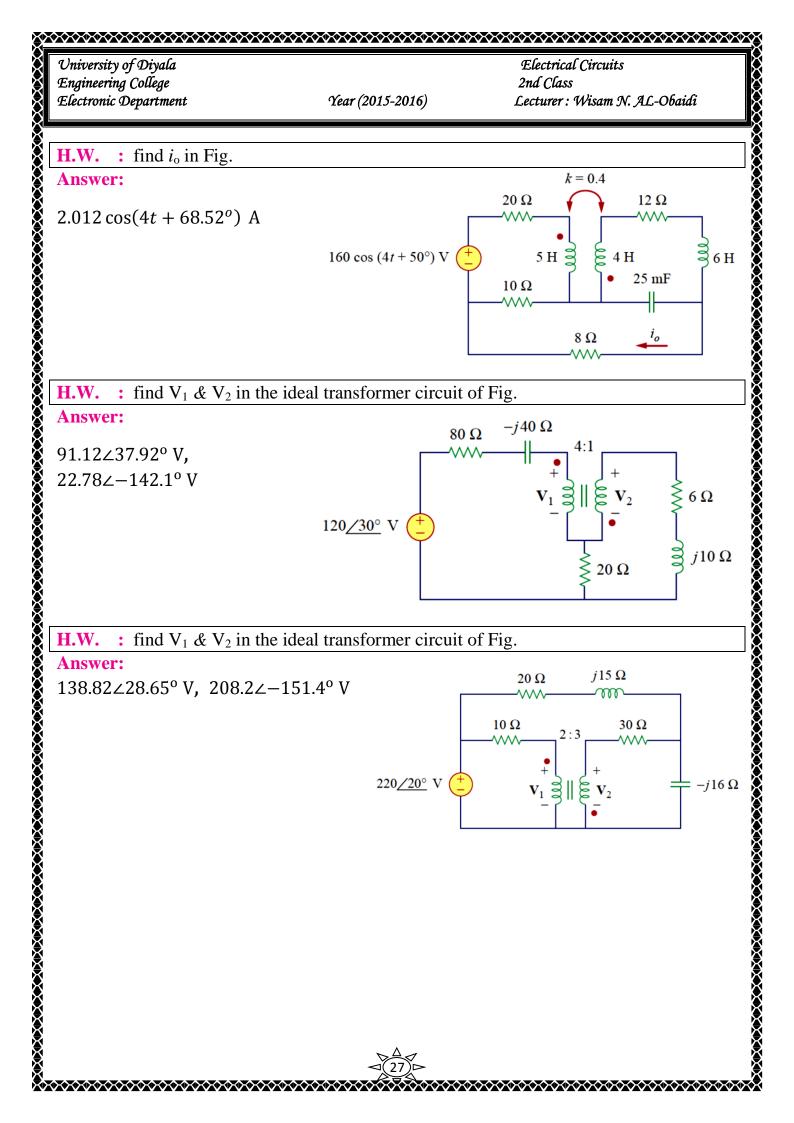
(C) Because the load is balanced, each transformer equally shares the total load and since there are no losses (assuming ideal transformers), the kVA rating of each transformer is

 $S = \frac{S_T}{3} = 14 \text{ kVA}$ Or from primary side Y  $V_{Lp} = V_{Ls} = 240$  $I_{Ls} = \frac{I_{Lp}}{\sqrt{3}} = \frac{292}{\sqrt{3}} = 58.34 \, A$  $S = 240 \times 58.34 = 14 \, kVA$ Or you can find it from secondary side  $\Delta$ 

H.W.12: A three-phase - transformer is used to step down a line voltage of 625 kV, to supply a plant operating at a line voltage of 12.5 kV. The plant draws 40 MW with a lagging power factor of 85 percent. Find: (a) the current drawn by the plant, (b) the turns ratio, (c) the current on the primary side of the transformer, and (d) the load carried by each transformer.

Answer: (a) 2.1736 kA, (b) 0.02, (c) 43.47 A, (d) 15.69 MVA.





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University of Diyala		Electrical Circuits
Engineering College		2nd Class
Electronic Department	Year (2015-2016)	Lecturer : Wisam N. AL-Obaidi

# 7) CONDUCTIVELY COUPLED EQUIVALENT CIRCUITS

It is possible in analysis to replace a mutually coupled circuit with a conductively coupled equivalent circuit. For Fig.9(a) the mesh current equations are,

$$(R_{1} + j\omega L_{1})I_{1} - j\omega MI_{2} = V_{1} \qquad ...(27)$$
  
-j\omega MI\_{1} + (R\_{2} + j\omega L\_{2})I\_{2} = V\_{2} \qquad ...(28)

Equ.s (27) & (28) can be written in matrix form as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} R_1 + j\omega L_1 & -j\omega M \\ -j\omega M & R_2 + j\omega L_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

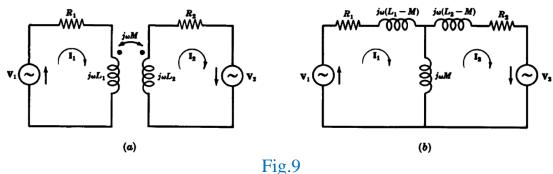
Or

 $\begin{bmatrix} Z_{11} & Z_{12} \\ Z_{21} & Z_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix}$ 

Note that:

- 1) the first loop impedance is the sum of first column impedances  $(Z_{11}+Z_{21} = R_1 + j\omega L_1 j\omega M)$
- 2) the second loop impedance is the sum of second column impedances  $(Z_{12} + Z_{22} = R_2 + j\omega L_2 j\omega M),$
- 3) the common impedance between the two loops is the diagonal impedance (-Z<sub>11</sub> or  $-Z_{22} = j\omega M$ )

the conductively copled circuit is shown in Fig.9(a).



Note : The above method of analysis does not always lead to a physically realizable equivalent circuit. This is true when  $M > L_1$  or  $M > L_2$ .

To replace the series connection of the mutually coupled coils shown in Fig.10 (a), proceed in the following manner. First apply the methods described above and obtain the dotted equivalent shown in Fig.10 (b). Then replace the dotted equivalent by the conductive equivalent shown in Fig.10 (c).

