

Automatic Power Factor Measurement and Correction Device for Improvement of Power Quality

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Abstract:

Power quality is a significant concern in electrical systems, and power factor (PF) correction plays a crucial role in improving efficiency. This paper presents an Automatic Power Factor Measurement and Correction Device that continuously monitors and improves the power factor of an electrical system using a microcontroller-based control system. The device measures power factor in real-time and employs capacitor banks to compensate for reactive power, thereby reducing losses and penalties. The implementation of such a device enhances energy efficiency in industrial and domestic applications.

Keywords— Power factor correction (PFC), microcontroller, capacitor bank, reactive power, power quality.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the modern era of industrialization and technological advancement, the demand for electrical energy has surged exponentially, accompanied by a growing emphasis on energy efficiency and power quality. One of the most critical challenges in electrical systems is maintaining a near-unity power factor (PF), which directly impacts the efficiency of power transmission, operational costs, and the lifespan of electrical infrastructure. The power factor is the ratio between the KW and the KVA drawn by an electrical load where the KW is the actual load power and the KVA is the apparent load power. It is a measure of how effectively the current is being converted into useful work output and more particularly is a good indicator of the effect of the load current on the efficiency of the supply system.[1]

Types of Power

True Power: -

The actual amount of power being used, or dissipated, in a circuit is called true power. It is measured in watts and is symbolized mathematically by the capital letter P. True power is a function of the circuit's dissipative elements, such as resistances (R).

Reactive Power: -

Reactive loads such as inductors and capacitors dissipate zero power, but the fact that they drop voltage and draw current gives the perception that they do dissipate power. This “dissipated power” is called the reactive power and is measured in Volt Amps-Reactive (VAR). Reactive power is represented by the capital letter Q and is a function of a circuit's reactance (X).

Apparent Power: -

The combination of true power and reactive power is called apparent power. It is the product of a circuit's voltage and current, without reference to phase angle. Apparent power is measured in the unit of Volt-Amps (VA) and is symbolized by the capital letter S. Apparent power is a function of a circuit's total impedance (Z).

A low power factor, often caused by inductive loads such as motors, transformers, and electronic ballasts, results in increased reactive power demand, leading to higher line losses, voltage instability, and financial penalties from utility providers. The proliferation of inductive loads in industrial, commercial, and residential settings has exacerbated power quality issues. For instance, inductive devices draw lagging currents, creating a phase difference between voltage and current

waveforms. This phase displacement increases the apparent power, forcing utilities to supply excess current to meet the same real power demand.

Traditional power factor correction methods, such as fixed capacitor banks or manual switching, are inefficient and fail to adapt to dynamic load variations. [2] To address these limitations, this research proposes an **Automatic Power Factor Measurement and Correction Device** system which measures PF, calculate compensation requirements, and switch capacitors accordingly to improve efficiency. This project utilizes an **8051 microcontroller-based** system that ensures optimal power factor correction under varying load conditions, reducing energy consumption and ensuring regulatory compliance.[3]

II. SYSTEM FLOWCHART

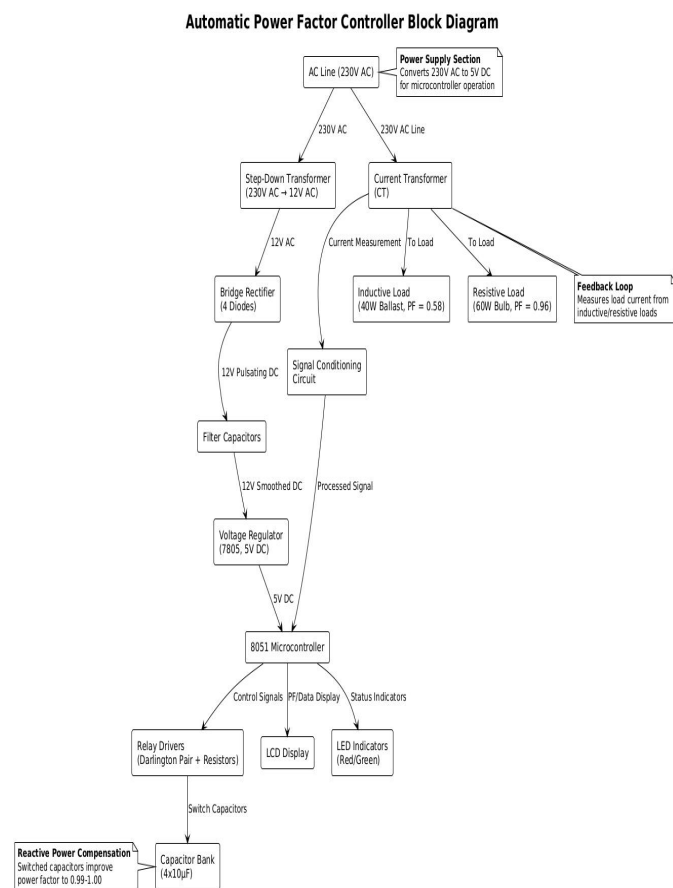


Fig. 1: Automatic Power Factor Measurement and Correction Device Block Diagram

III. METHODOLOGY

A. MAJOR COMPONENTS

The Automatic Power Factor Controller comprises several critical components that work together to measure and correct the power factor in real-time. The system begins with a **230V AC line**,

which serves as the primary power input. A **step-down transformer** reduces the 230V AC supply to 12V AC, making it safe for low-voltage electronic components. The 12V AC output is then fed into a **bridge rectifier**, a circuit consisting of four diodes arranged in a bridge configuration, which converts the AC voltage into pulsating DC. To stabilize this DC voltage, **filter capacitors** are employed to smooth out ripples, ensuring a steady DC output. A **voltage regulator (7805 IC)** further refines the DC voltage to a stable 5V, which powers the **8051 microcontroller** and other logic circuits.[4]

The **8051 microcontroller** acts as the brain of the system. It processes data from the **current transformer**, which measures the load current, and calculates the power factor using real-time voltage and current phase difference. The microcontroller's decisions are displayed on an **LCD screen**, which shows parameters like power factor, active power, and compensation status. **LED indicators** (red and green) provide immediate visual feedback: the red LED activates when the power factor drops below the target (0.97), and the green LED turns on once correction is achieved.[5]

To correct the power factor, the microcontroller triggers **relays** connected to a **capacitor bank** (four 10µF capacitors). These relays switch capacitors into the circuit to offset reactive power. **Resistors** are used in a Darlington pair configuration to amplify the microcontroller's low-current signals, ensuring the relays operate reliably. The **current transformer** plays a vital role by isolating the measurement circuit from the high-voltage AC line and providing a proportional current signal to the microcontroller.[6]

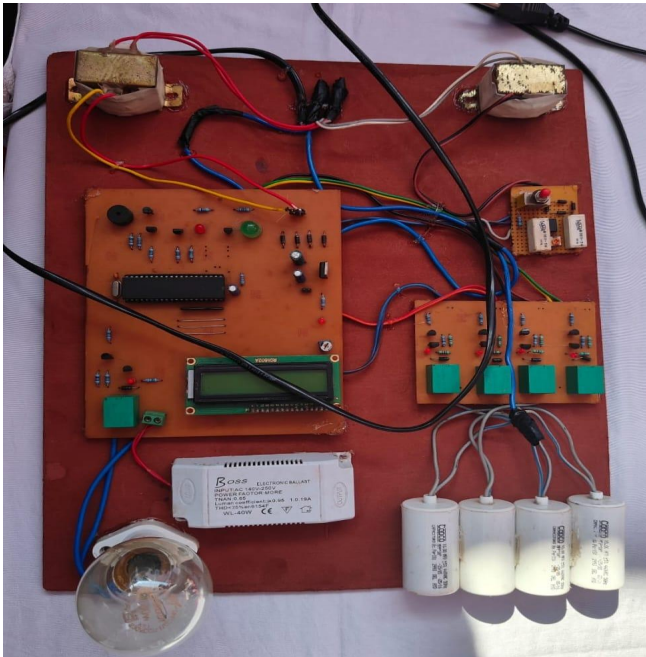


Fig. 2: Automatic Power Factor Measurement and Correction Device Model

B. WORKING PRINCIPLE

The system operates in a closed-loop manner to maintain the power factor (PF) at 0.97 or higher. Here's a step-by-step breakdown of its working:

1. **Power Supply and Conditioning:**
The 230V AC input is stepped down to 12V AC using a transformer. The bridge rectifier converts this to 12V DC, which is filtered by capacitors to remove ripple. The 7805 voltage regulator then delivers a stable 5V DC to power the microcontroller and peripherals.
2. **Current and Voltage Sensing:**
A current transformer (CT) clamped around the live wire measures the load current. The CT's output is conditioned (scaled and isolated) and fed to the microcontroller. Simultaneously, the microcontroller monitors the AC voltage waveform using a zero-crossing detector circuit to determine phase relationships.
3. **The microcontroller calculates the power factor using the formula:**
$$\text{Power Factor (PF)} = \frac{\text{Real Power (P)}}{\text{Apparent Power (S)}}$$

Real power (P) is derived from voltage, current, and their phase difference, while apparent power (S) is the product of RMS voltage and current.

4. Capacitor Switching Logic:

- For inductive loads (e.g., motors, ballasts), where PF drops to 0.58, the microcontroller computes the reactive power deficit and activates 3 relays to connect three 10 μ F capacitors (49.86 VAR), improving PF to 0.99.



Fig. 3: Initial Power Factor for Inductive Load



Fig. 4: Final Power Factor for Inductive Load

- For resistive loads (e.g., bulbs), where PF is 0.96, one capacitor (16.62 VAR) is switched in to achieve a PF of 1.00.



Fig. 5: Initial Power Factor for Resistive Load



Fig. 6: Final Power Factor for Resistive Load

5. **Real-Time Feedback and Display:**
The LCD continuously updates the PF, load type, and capacitor status. LEDs provide instant alerts: red for low PF and green for corrected PF.
6. **Dynamic Adjustment:**
The system operates in a feedback loop. After capacitor switching, the microcontroller rechecks the PF and fine-tunes the capacitor bank to prevent overcompensation.[7]

C. CALCULATIONS

1. **Inductive Load (40W Ballast)**
 - Given: $P=40\text{W}$, $Q_{\text{initial}} = 56.2\text{VAR}$
 - Initial PF: 0.58

- Compensation Required: $Q_c = 50.32$
- Capacitors Activated: 3 (49.86 VAR).
- Final PF: 0.99

2. Resistive Load (60W Bulb)

- Given: $P=60W$, $Q_{initial} = 17.5 \text{ VAR}$
- Initial PF: 0.96
- Compensation Required: $Q_c = 17.5 \text{ VAR}$
- Capacitors Activated: 1 (16.62 VAR).
- Final PF: 1.00

$$Q_{c_needed} = P * (\tan(\theta_{initial}) - \tan(\theta_{target}));$$

```
capacitors_needed = (int)(Qc_needed / 16.62)
+ 1; // Ceiling function
if (capacitors_needed > 4) capacitors_needed
= 4; // Max 4 capacitors
}
```

IV. IMPLEMENTATION

D. MICROCONTROLLER CODE

```
#include <reg51.h>

#include <math.h> // For trigonometric
functions (simplified for 8051)

sbit Relay1 = P2^0; // Capacitor 1
sbit Relay2 = P2^1; // Capacitor 2
sbit Relay3 = P2^2; // Capacitor 3
sbit Relay4 = P2^3; // Capacitor 4

sbit RedLED = P3^0; // Low PF indicator
sbit GreenLED = P3^1; // Corrected PF
indicator

float P, Q_initial, Qc_needed;
int capacitors_needed;

// Function to calculate initial PF from Q_initial
float calculate_pf_initial() {
    float S_initial = sqrt(P * P + Q_initial *
Q_initial);
    return P / S_initial;
}

// Function to determine compensation
void calculate_compensation() {
    float PF_initial = calculate_pf_initial();
    float PF_target = (P == 40.0) ? 0.99 : 1.00; //
Target based on load

    float theta_initial = acos(PF_initial);
    float theta_target = acos(PF_target);
```

```
// Function to adjust capacitors
void adjust_capacitors() {
    Relay1 = Relay2 = Relay3 = Relay4 = 0; //
Reset relays
    if (capacitors_needed >= 1) Relay1 = 1;
    if (capacitors_needed >= 2) Relay2 = 1;
    if (capacitors_needed >= 3) Relay3 = 1;
    if (capacitors_needed >= 4) Relay4 = 1;

    // LED control
    if (calculate_pf_initial() < (P == 40.0 ? 0.99 :
1.00)) {
        RedLED = 1;
        GreenLED = 0;
    } else {
        RedLED = 0;
        GreenLED = 1;
    }
}

void main() {
    while (1) {
        // Simulate load detection (replace with
sensor inputs)
        P = 40.0; // Inductive load (Q_initial =
56.2 VAR)
        // P = 60.0; // Resistive load (Q_initial =
17.5 VAR)

        Q_initial = (P == 40.0) ? 56.2 : 17.5; //
Load-specific Q_initial
```

```

calculate_compensation();
adjust_capacitors();
delay(1000); // Update every 1 second
}
}[8]

```

E. KEY FEATURES

1. **Dynamic PF Calculation:**
Computes $PF_{initial}$ from P and $Q_{initial}$.
2. **Load-Specific Compensation:**
Activates **3 capacitors** for inductive loads (PF:0.58→0.99).
Activates **1 capacitor** for resistive loads (PF:0.96→1.00).
3. **Hardware Constraints:**
Limits to 4 capacitors (40 μ F total) to prevent overcompensation.
4. **Real-Time Feedback:**
LEDs indicate whether the PF is corrected.

V. RESULT ANALYSIS

Inductive loads draw lagging reactive power, creating a significant phase difference between voltage and current. This results in high apparent power (68.97 VA) and inefficient energy use. Three 10 μ F capacitors (49.86 VAR) are switched in, reducing reactive power from 56.2 VAR to 6.34 VAR. The PF approaches unity, minimizing the phase difference and optimizing real power delivery.

Though resistive loads inherently have high PF, minor reactive components (17.5 VAR) still exist due to harmonics or measurement inaccuracies. One 10 μ F capacitor (16.62 VAR) cancels the residual reactive power, achieving a PF of 1.00. Pure resistive behaviour ensures all supplied power is utilized effectively.

Result Table

Parameter	Inductive Load	Resistive Load
Initial Power Factor (PF)	0.58	0.96
Final Power Factor (PF)	0.99	1.00
Capacitors Activated	3 (10 μ F each)	1 (10 μ F)

Initial Reactive Power (Q)	56.2 VAR	17.5 VAR
Final Reactive Power (Q)	6.34 VAR	0.88 VAR
Initial Apparent Power (S)	68.97 VA	62.5 VA
Final Apparent Power (S)	40.5 VA	60.006 VA
Reactive Power Compensation	49.86 VAR	16.62 VAR

A. How the system improves Power Quality:

•Reduction in Reactive Power

The capacitor bank neutralizes inductive reactive power by injecting leading reactive power. Example: For the inductive load, reactive power reduced by 89% (56.2 VAR → 6.34 VAR), minimizing energy losses in transmission lines.

•Lower Line Losses

By improving PF from 0.58 to 0.99 (inductive) and 0.96 to 1.00 (resistive), the system reduces the current drawn from the supply. Current reduction decreases I^2R losses in cables and transformers, improving overall efficiency.

•Voltage Stability

Reactive power compensation minimizes voltage drops caused by inductive loads. Stable voltage levels prevent equipment overheating and extend the lifespan of motors and transformers.[9]

•Compliance with Utility Standards

Utilities penalize consumers for $PF < 0.95$. By maintaining $PF \geq 0.97$, the system avoids financial penalties and reduces energy bills.

•Automated Dynamic Adjustment

The microcontroller continuously monitors and adjusts capacitor switching, ensuring optimal PF under varying load conditions without manual intervention.

B. Impact on Energy Efficiency

• Inductive Load:

- **Current Reduction:** Current reduced by 41%, lowering line losses.
- **Energy Savings:** Reduced losses translate to 10-15% savings in electricity costs for industrial users.

• Resistive Load:

- Near-Zero Reactive Power: $PF = 1.00$ ensures all supplied energy is used productively, maximizing efficiency.[10]

VI. CONCLUSION

The **Automatic Power Factor Measurement and Correction Device** successfully addresses the critical challenge of low power factor in electrical systems, offering a robust and cost-effective solution to enhance power quality and energy efficiency. By integrating real-time monitoring, dynamic compensation, and automated control, the system demonstrates significant improvements in power factor (PF) for both inductive and resistive loads, ensuring compliance with utility standards and reducing operational costs.

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