

Modelling of Machines

Section 8

Universal motor operation on an AC supply

The same Kron primitive and generalised form of the voltage matrix equations apply, i.e.

$$\begin{vmatrix} v_a \\ v_f \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} R_a + L_a p & \omega_r M \\ 0 & R_f + L_f p \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} i_a \\ i_f \end{vmatrix}$$

But on a sinusoidal AC supply $p=j\omega_s$


$$\begin{vmatrix} V_a \\ V_f \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} R_a + j\omega_s L_a & \omega_r M \\ 0 & R_f + j\omega_s L_f \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} I_a \\ I_f \end{vmatrix}$$

Note: V_a , V_f , I_a and I_f are now steady state AC values


Applying the same constraining equations as for DC operation (i.e. $V = V_a + V_f$ and $I = I_a = I_f$) yields:

$$V = [R_a + R_f + \omega_r M + j\omega_s (L_a + L_f)] I$$

Rotational
angular velocity
in elec rad/s



Supply angular
velocity in elec
rad/s



Introduce a variable N which is defined as:
$$N = \frac{\text{Actual speed}}{\text{Synchronous speed}}$$

e.g a 2 pole machine rotating at 16,500rpm on a 50Hz electrical supply has a value of $N = 5.5$ since synchronous speed is 3000rpm (50×60)

Using this definition of N gives $\omega_r = N\omega_s$ and hence:

$$V = [r + NX_m + jX] I$$

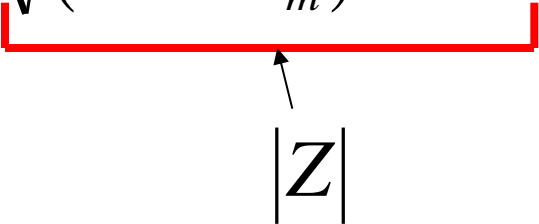
Where:

$$r = R_a + R_f$$

$$X_m = \omega_s M$$

$$X = j\omega_s (L_a + L_f)$$

Magnitude of V is given by:

$$|V| = |I| \sqrt{(r + NX_m)^2 + X^2}$$


The diagram illustrates the magnitude of impedance $|Z|$ as the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle. The horizontal side is labeled $(r + NX_m)$ and the vertical side is labeled X . A red bracket underneath the horizontal side and a red vertical line at its end indicate the components of the impedance. An arrow points from the label $|Z|$ below to the hypotenuse of the triangle.

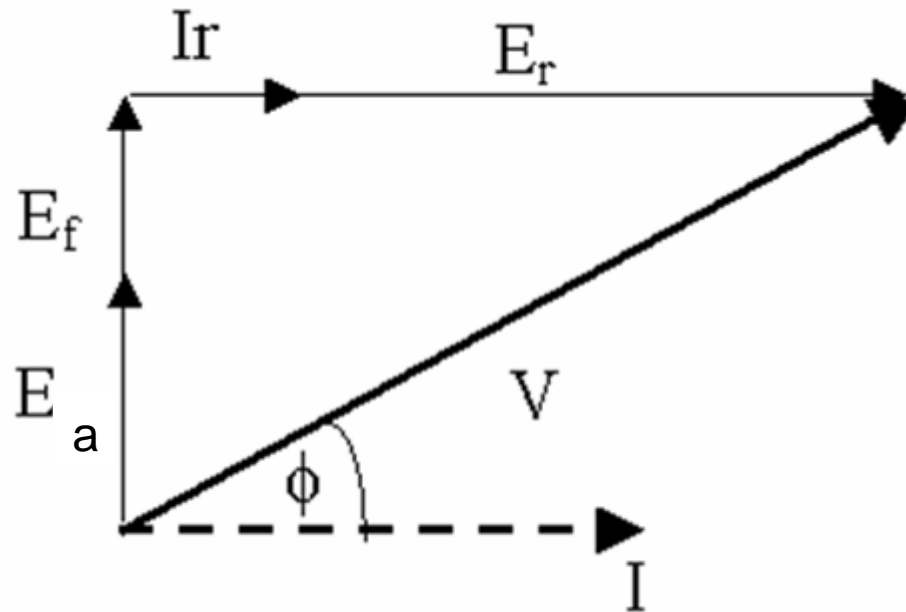
$$\text{Power factor} = \cos \phi = \frac{\text{Re}\{Z\}}{|Z|} = \frac{r + NX_m}{\sqrt{(r + NX_m)^2 + X^2}}$$

The **average** torque produced on an AC supply is also given by

$$T = \text{pole pairs} \times MI^2$$

- This is the same expression as the DC case, except that I is the rms value. Hence a value of rms current on an AC supply produces the same average torque as the same value of DC current.
- It is important to note that the torque pulsates on an AC supply.

Phasor diagram for AC operation



Notes:

Power factor is lagging

Power factor ($\cos\phi$) diminishes as E_a and E_f increase

Comparison of AC and DC operation

- 1) Average torque on DC is the same as that on AC with the same rms current
- 2) DC value same as rotational emf same as rms value for AC

$$\frac{E_{R_{AC}}}{E_{R_{DC}}} = \frac{N_{AC}}{N_{DC}}$$

- 3) From phasor diagram

$$E_{R_{AC}} = V \cos \phi - Ir$$

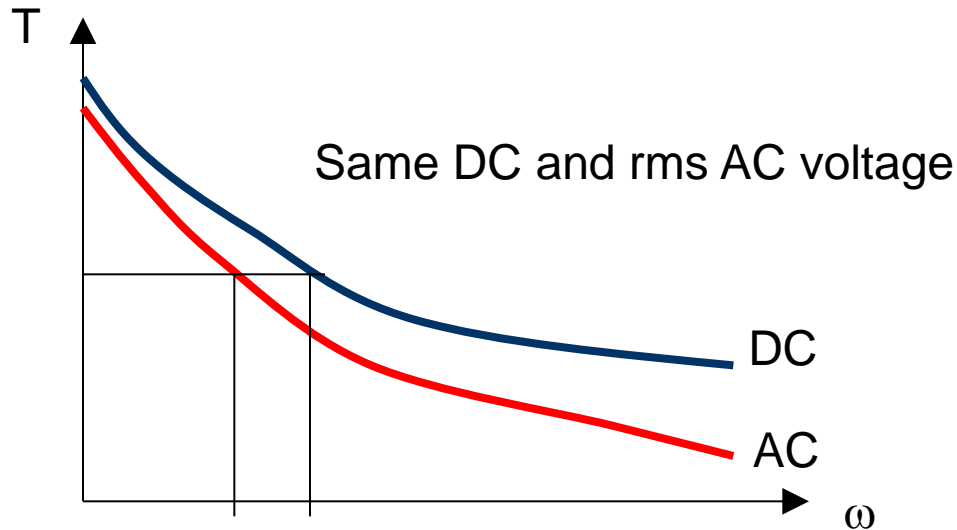
$$E_{R_{DC}} = V - Ir$$

$$\frac{N_{AC}}{N_{DC}} = \frac{\cos \phi - \frac{Ir}{V}}{1 - \frac{Ir}{V}}$$

In most design with reasonable efficiency $Ir \ll V$, hence the above expression can be simplified to:

$$\frac{N_{AC}}{N_{DC}} \approx \cos \phi$$

Machine will run slower on an AC supply for the same torque – speed difference is greater with lower power factor



Design considerations

Neglecting I_r , the angle between V and I is given by:

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{E_f + E_a}{E_R} \right)$$

Hence, to minimise the angle ϕ (i.e. maximum $\cos\phi$) it is necessary to maximise E_R and minimise E_f and E_a

Smaller E_f

- lower number of field turns ($L \propto N^2$)
- lower supply frequency ($E_f \propto \omega_s$)
- low d-axis flux

Smaller E_a

- low armature coil turns
- lower supply frequency
- low q-axis flux

Smaller E_R

- high armature coil turns
- high speed
- high d-axis flux

Unfortunately, several of these are conflicting – e.g. high versus low armature turns or not possible, e.g. change 50Hz mains

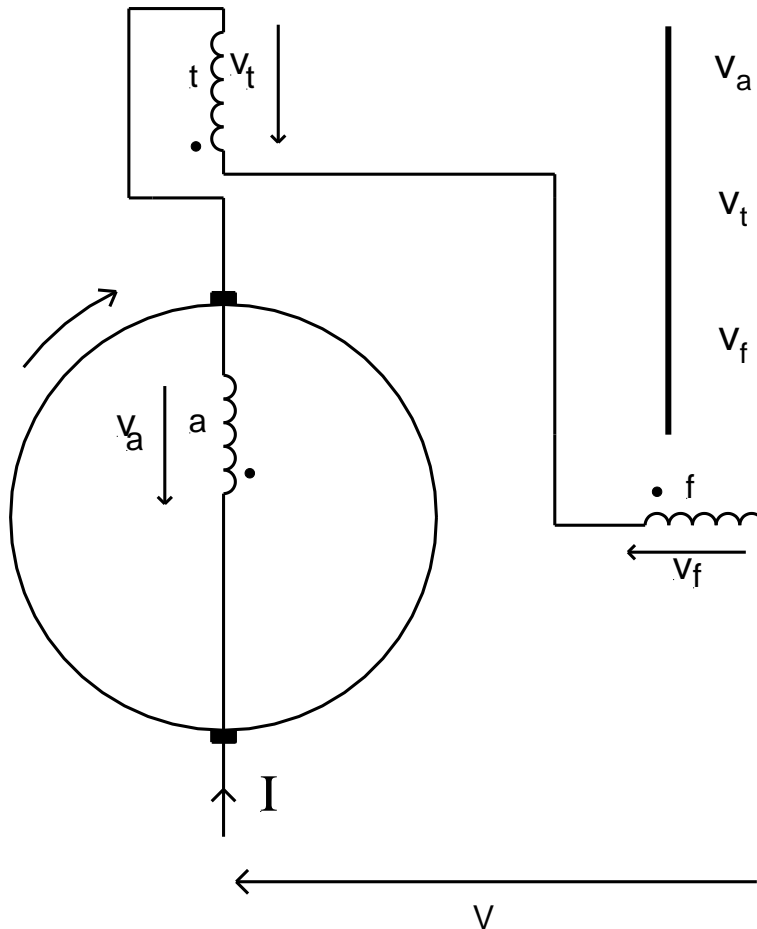
The general design guidelines (which involve compromises) are:

- 1) Low number of field turns – requires smallest airgap to maintain high d-axis flux
- 2) Low q-axis flux – use a salient structure to produce a large q-axis airgap
- 3) Run at high speed (15-20,000rpm common) – e.g. washing machines run with a gear ratio of 15-17 to give spin speeds of ~1200rpm

Compensation of universal motors

The performance of a universal motor can be improved by the addition of a compensating winding. to cancel E_f and E_a . Two types of compensation can be used, conductive and inductive

Conductive compensation



$$\begin{bmatrix} V_a \\ V_t \\ V_f \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_a + L_a p & M_{at} p & M_{af} \omega_r \\ M_{ta} p & R_t + L_t p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & R_f + L_f p \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_a \\ i_t \\ i_f \end{bmatrix}$$

For steady-state operation on a sinusoidal AC supply:

$$p = j\omega_s$$

$$\omega_r = N\omega_s$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} V_a \\ V_t \\ V_f \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} R_a + jX_a & jX_{ma} & NX_m \\ jX_{ma} & R_t + jX_t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & R_f + jX_f \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} I_a \\ I_t \\ I_f \end{vmatrix}$$

Constraining equations:

$$V = V_a - V_t + V_f$$

$$I = I_a = -I_t = I_f$$

$$V = I [R_a + R_t + R_f + NX_m + j(X_a + X_f + X_t - 2X_{ma})]$$

If the motor is constructed with a high coupling on the q-axis:

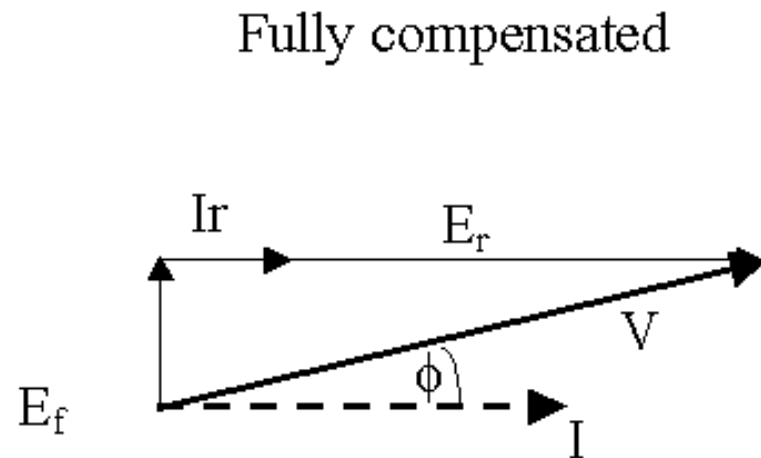
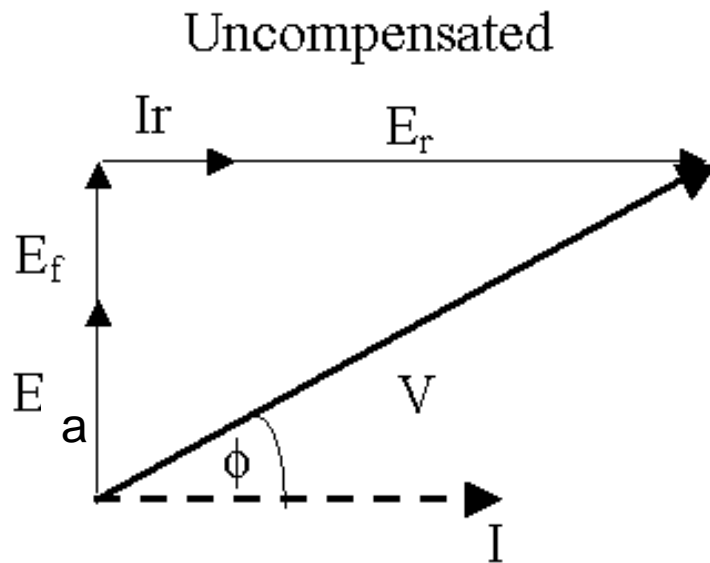
$$X_{ma} = K \sqrt{X_a X_t} \approx \sqrt{X_a X_t} \text{ if } k \approx 1$$

If $X_t = X_a$ then:

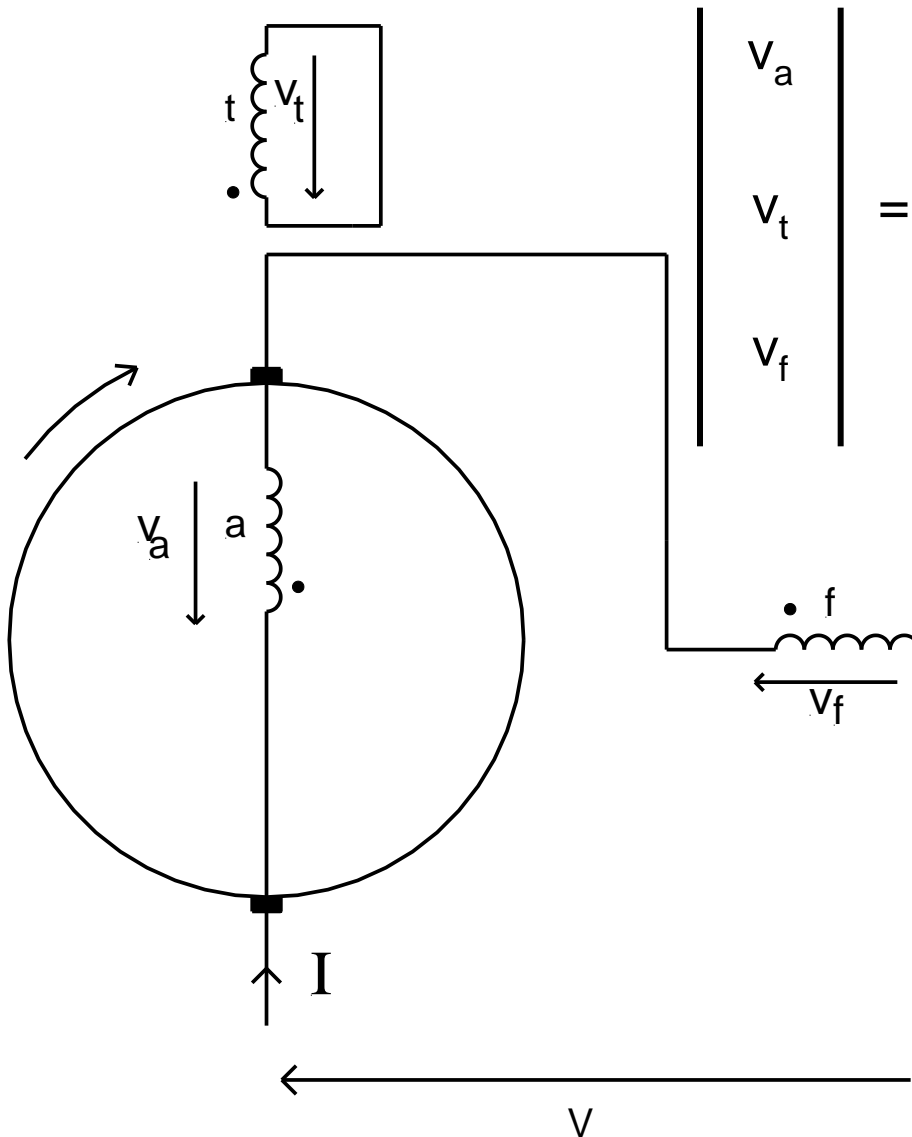
$$V = I [r + R_t + NX_m + jX_f]$$

Where $r = R_a + R_f$

There is no longer a q-axis reactance term – power factor is improved



Inductive compensation



$$\begin{bmatrix} v_a \\ v_t \\ v_f \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_a + L_a p & M_{at} p & M_{af} \omega_r \\ M_{ta} p & R_t + L_t p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & R_f + L_f p \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_a \\ i_t \\ i_f \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: same equations as conductive before application of constraining equations

For steady-state operation on a sinusoidal AC supply:

$$p = j\omega_s$$

$$\omega_r = N\omega_s$$

Constraining equations:

$$V = V_a + V_f$$

$$V_t = 0$$

$$I = I_a = I_f$$

For t-coil

$$V_t = 0 = jX_{ma}I + (R_t + jX_t) I_t$$

 Transformer coupled term

$$I_t = -\frac{jX_{ma}I}{(R_t + jX_t)}$$

Substituting for I_t in the voltage constraining equation yields:

$$V = I \left[R_f + R_a + NX_m + j(X_f + X_a) + \frac{X_{ma}^2}{R_t + jX_t} \right]$$

If the resistance of the inductive compensation coil (R_t) is negligible in comparison with its reactance (jX_t) then:

$$V = I \left[R_f + R_a + NX_m + j(X_f + X_a) - j \frac{X_{ma}^2}{X_t} \right]$$

If the coils on the q-axis are tightly coupled (i.e $K \approx 1$) then:

$$X_{ma} = K \sqrt{X_a X_t} \approx \sqrt{X_a X_t}$$

$$\text{Hence, } X_a - \frac{X_{ma}^2}{X_t} = X_a - \frac{X_a X_t}{X_t} = X_a - X_a = 0$$

Substituting for $X_a - \frac{X_{ma}^2}{X_t}$ in the voltage equation gives:

$$V = I \left[R_f + R_a + NX_m + jX_f \right]$$

Hence, complete compensation occurs without the requirement for $X_a = X_t$

Yields same phasor diagram as conductive compensation

Summary of universal machine compensation

- Both methods eliminate q-axis reactive component of voltage – hence improve power factor
- Both methods rely on close coupling of coils on q-axis (only ever approximated in practice)
- Conductive compensation requires $X_t = X_a$ for complete compensation
- Inductive compensation – current adjusts to achieve complete compensation
- Often used in higher performance universal motors to improve performance