

## Chapter-3 Transformer

DORNIMA

o.	Lecture No.	Faculty	Subject Name	Subject Code	Main Topics:-
					Transform

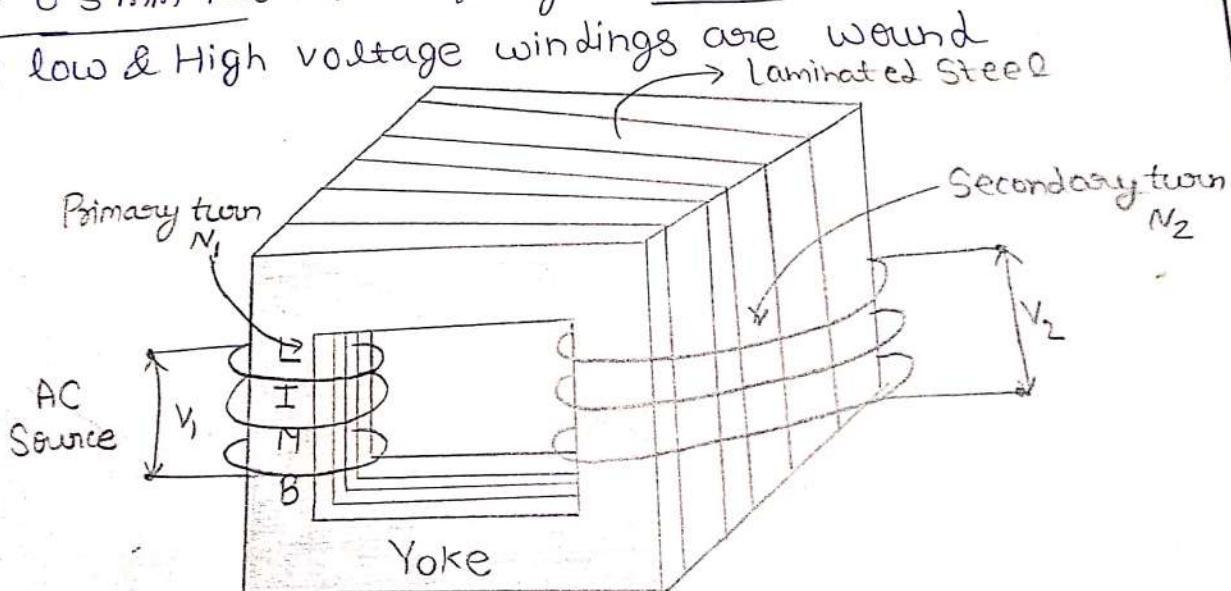
## UNIT- 3 Transformers

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\* Construction of transformers →

- The single phase transformer consists of magnetic core & two windings.
- By construction two windings are called as high voltage (H.V.) & low voltage (L.V.).
- The core of transformer is constructed from Sheet Steel to provide a continuous magnetic path.
- It is laminated to minimize eddy current loss.
- Silicon is added with Steel lamination to reduce loss.
- The lamination are insulated by each other by light coating or varnishes or an offside layer.
- The thickness of lamination are varies from 0.35mm to 0.5 mm from a frequency of 50Hz.
- The low & High voltage windings are wound



Acc<sup>r</sup> to core construction & manner in which primary & secondary windings are placed around it, the transformers are classified as:

- (i). core type
- (ii). shell type

In the core type transformer windings surround one considerable portion of core whereas shell type considerable portion of shell.

(i). Core type transformer → In this type core is generally stacked by L shaped laminations.

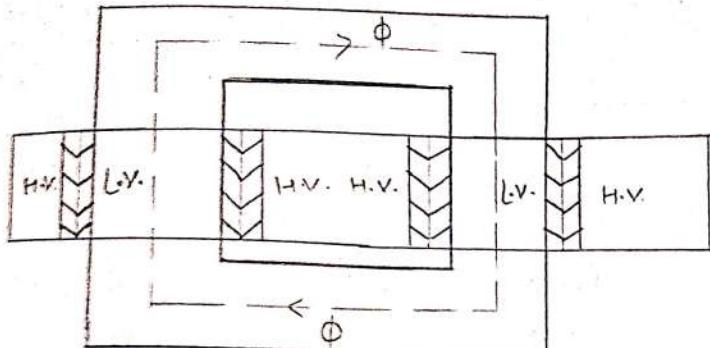
- This type of transformer has single magnetic circuit. But it has two legs (limbs).
- Initially some part of low voltage windings is wrapped around the two legs then some part of high voltage windings is wrapped over.
- The connection point is overlapped each other (H.V & L.V) i.e. it is called as concentric wiring on cylindrical windings.

(ii). Shell type transformer → In this type of transformer, the laminations are used to stack the shell.

- This type of transformer has double magnetic circuit & three legs.
- Along with these legs it generally requires only one central leg for winding.
- To reduce the leakage flux to minimum, increase the amount of leakage flux to maximum.
- The low voltage & high voltage windings are alternatively put in the form most.

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- Such arrangements of winding is called as sandwich or Disc winding.



(i). Core type transformer

### Comparison b/w Core Type Transformer & Shell Type Transformer

#### Core Type Transformer

- The winding surrounds a considerable part of the core.
- More suitable for high voltage transformers.
- Windings are of cylindrical type.
- Core is either circular or rectangular.
- Mean length of coil turn is shorter.

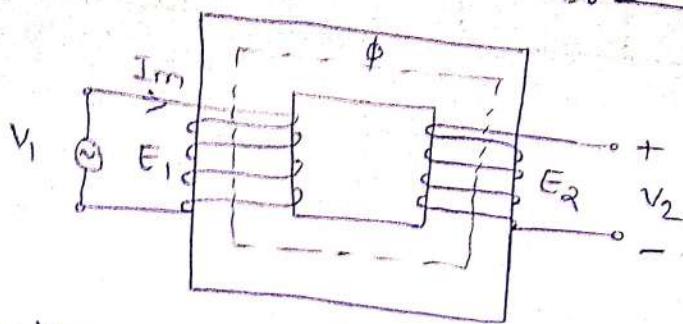
#### Shell Type Transformer

- The core surrounds one considerable position of the winding.
- More economically for low voltage transformers.
- Winding are of disc or staggered type.
- Core is of spiral type.
- Mean length of coil is longer.

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

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## \* EMF equation of transformer →



As we know that the working principle of transformer is based on Faraday's law of electro magnetic induction. This is also known as mutual inductance law & fundamental and represented as

$$e = -N \frac{d\phi}{dt} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

As we know that the emf generated is denoted or represented by sinusoidal wave along with this the flux is also represented as sinusoidal wave.

$$\text{So, } \phi = \phi_m \sin \omega t \quad \textcircled{2}$$

$$e = -N \frac{d \phi_m \sin \omega t}{dt}$$

$$e = -\omega \phi_m N \cos \omega t$$

$$e = -N \omega \phi_m \cos \omega t$$

$$e = -N \underbrace{\omega \phi_m}_{E_m} \sin(\omega t - \pi/2)$$

$$E = E_m \sin(\omega t - \pi/2)$$

$$\therefore E_m = N \omega \phi_m$$

$$\therefore E_{avg} = \frac{E_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= \frac{N \cdot \omega \cdot \phi_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

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$$= \frac{N(2\pi f)\phi_m}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{2}} (Nf \cdot \phi_m)$$

$$= \sqrt{2}\pi (Nf \cdot \phi_m)$$

$$\boxed{E_{\text{rms}} = 4.44 \left( \frac{N \cdot f \cdot \phi_m}{\sqrt{2}} \right)}$$

(No. of turns)  
(frequency) (maximum flux in transformer circuit)

$$E_1 = 4.44 (N_1 \cdot f \cdot \phi_m)$$

$$E_2 = 4.44 (N_2 \cdot f \cdot \phi_m)$$

\* Voltage transformation Ratio :-

- It is the ratio of secondary voltage to primary voltage & represented as K.
- For an ideal transformer terminal voltages are equal to induced voltage. So,

$$V_1 = E_1$$

$$V_2 = E_2$$

$$\text{Transformation ratio } K = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{E_2}{E_1} = \frac{4.44(N_2 f \phi_m)}{4.44(N_1 f \phi_m)}$$

$$\boxed{K = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{E_2}{E_1} = \frac{N_2}{N_1}}$$

Case I. if the value of K is more than Unity ( $N_2 > N_1$ ), the transformation is said to be Step-up transformer.

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

Library / Website Ref.: -

Case-II if the value of  $k$  is less than unity ( $N_1 > N_2$ ),  
the transformation is said to be Step-down transformer.

For ideal transformer input power must be equal to output power. So,

$$V_1 I_1 = V_2 I_2$$

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{I_2}{I_1} \quad \left| \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{I_1}{I_2} \right.$$

(Current transformation ratio)  $\rightarrow$

### \* Ideal Transformer $\rightarrow$

- An ideal transformer is an imaginary transformer which has following properties. The resistance of primary & secondary winding are negligible. Therefore, Copper losses in the transformer is zero.
- In this transformer the linkage of flux is zero & efficiency is high & 100%.
- There are no losses due to hysteresis & eddy current.
- The core has infinite Permeability & core losses reduce to zero.
- In this transformer there is no ohmic losses exist as Ohmic resistance is zero.

### \* Difference b/w Practical & ideal transformers $\rightarrow$

#### Practical Transformers

① There are Copper

② There is leakage of flux.

③ Windings of this transformers has  
Ohmic resistance.

#### Ideal Transformers

① There

② There is no leakage of flux.

③ No ohmic resistance.

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- (4) Efficiency is varied from 70 percent to maximum.
- (5) All concentrated transformers are practical transformer.
- (6) Efficiency is 100 percent.
- (7) It is impossible to design ideal transformer.

\* Losses in transformers →

There are no. of losses exist in transformer & they are known as (i). Core loss

- (ii). Ohmic loss →
  - Stray loss
  - Dielectric loss

(i). Core loss → The core losses is represented by  $P_c$  in transformers. Generally this type / core loss consist two components (i). loss ( $P_h$ ) & (ii). eddy current loss ( $P_e$ )

The mathematical expression for this is given by

$$P_c = P_h + P_e$$

(ii). Ohmic loss → It is also known as Copper loss or  $I^2R$  loss. Ohmic loss is generally occur in both primary & Secondary loss.

Note → In addition to ohmic & core losses the following two losses are also present in transformer

(a). Stray load loss → As leakage field is present in transformer, induces eddy current in conductor, tanks, channels etc. these eddy current gives arise to stray load loss.

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

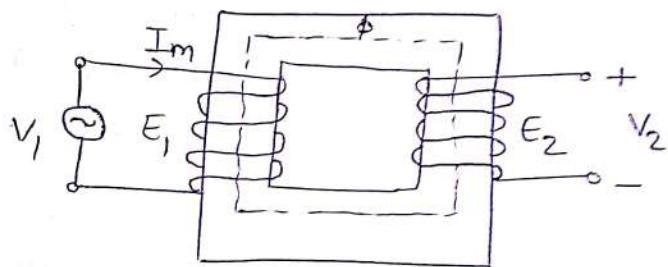
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(b). Dielectric loss → This loss occurs in insulating material in Solid insulation of H.V. transformer & in the transformer oil.

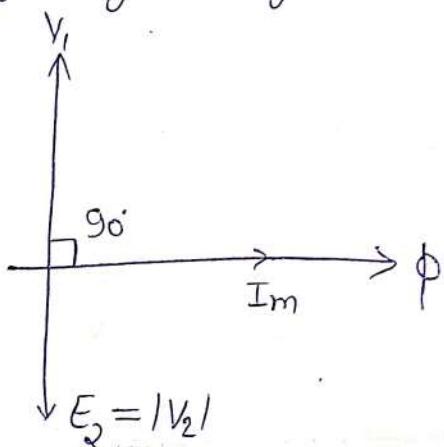
Note → The stray load loss & dielectric losses <sup>are</sup> very small & therefore neglected.

### \* Phasor of Ideal transformer at no load →

- At no load condition output current is zero ( $I_2=0$ ).
- $V_1$  is applied across the primary winding of the transformer.
- This voltage application draws one magnetizing current  $I_m$ .



In the case of no load transformer the current lags the voltage by an angle of 90°.



Phasor for transformer  
at No load

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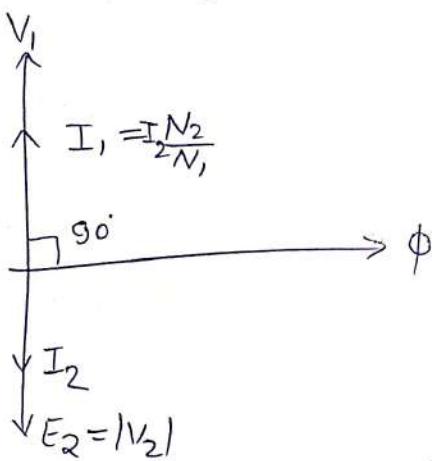
The magnetizing current  $I_m$  setup a flux  $\phi$  in the common magnetic circuit. Acc. to the formula  $\phi = \frac{N_1 I_m}{R}$

Since,  $N_1$  &  $R$  <sup>are</sup> constant the flux is in phase with  $I_m$ .

\* Phasor of Ideal transformer at load →

When a load is connected to the output terminals there will be a phase difference bet<sup>n</sup> voltage & current, decided by nature of load.

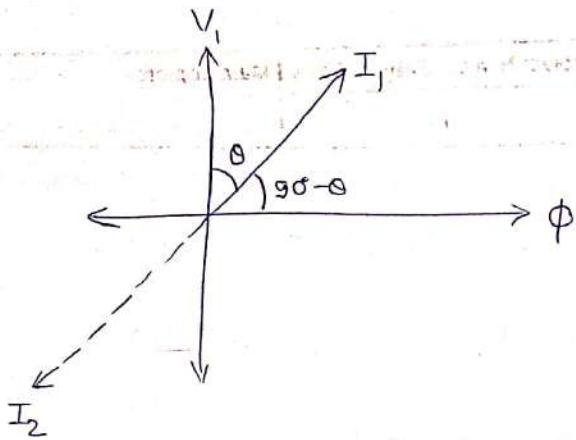
- i). ~~Resistive~~ Resistive load When the load applied is resistive in nature the phase difference bet<sup>n</sup> voltage & current is zero.  
 → There will be a phase difference of  $90^\circ$  b/w generated flux & applied voltage.



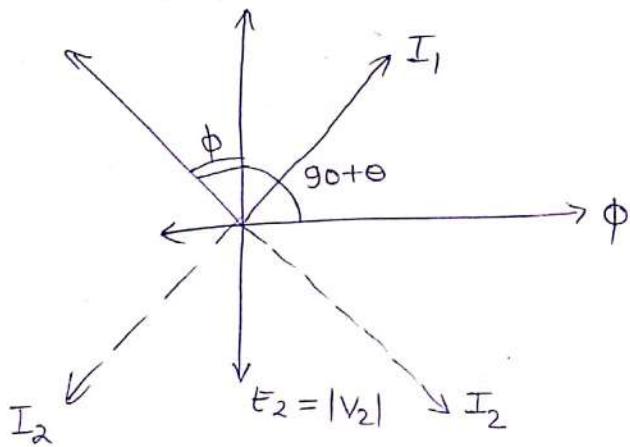
Phasor for transformer  
at Resistive load

- ii). Inductive load → In case of inductive load current lags behind from voltage by an angle of  $\theta$ .  
 → And current lags the flux by angle of  $90 - \theta$

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:



- iii). In Case of Capacitive load , the Current lags the voltage by angle  $\theta$ .  
 → And current also lags the flux by angle of  $90 + \theta$ .



### \* Voltage Regulation →

$$\text{Percentage Regulation} = \frac{\text{Terminal voltage at no load} - \text{Terminal voltage at on load}}{\text{Terminal voltage at no load}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{\text{Voltage drop in transformer at load}}{\text{no load stated voltage}}$$

### \* Efficiency of transformer →

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Output Power}}{\text{Input Power}} = \frac{\text{Input Power} - \text{losses}}{\text{Input Power}}$$

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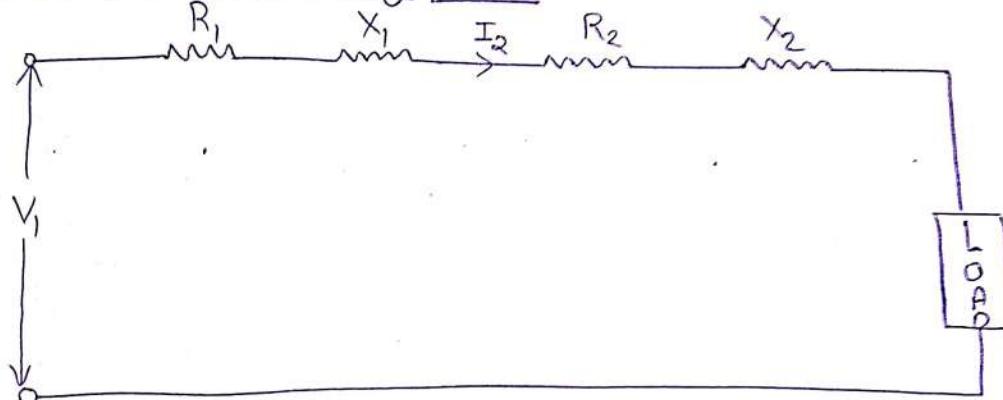
$$= \frac{\text{losses}}{\text{Input Power}}$$

\* Equivalent circuit of transformer →

Two independent circuit of a transformer can be reduced into an equivalent circuit. There are two methods available to refer transformer equivalent circuit.

- 1) Refer to Secondary Side
- 2) Refer to Primary Side

1). Refer to Secondary Side



- The Resistive drop in Secondary winding =  $I_2 R_2$
- The reactive drop in Secondary winding =  $I_2 X_2$
- The Resistive drop in Primary winding =  $I_1 R_1$
- The reactive drop in Primary winding =  $I_1 X_1$

As transformation ratio is  $K$ , primary & reactive drops as referred to secondary will be  $K$  times, so  $KI_1 R_1$  &  $KI_1 X_1$  respectively.

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

If  $I_1$  is substituted as  $KI_2$ , Primary resistive & reactive drops referred to Secondary side will be  $K^2 I_2 R_1$  &  $K^2 I_2 X_1$

Total resistive drop in a transformer =  $K^2 I_2 R_1 + I_2 R_2$   
=  $I_2 (K^2 R_1 + R_2)$   
=  $I_2 R_{o2}$

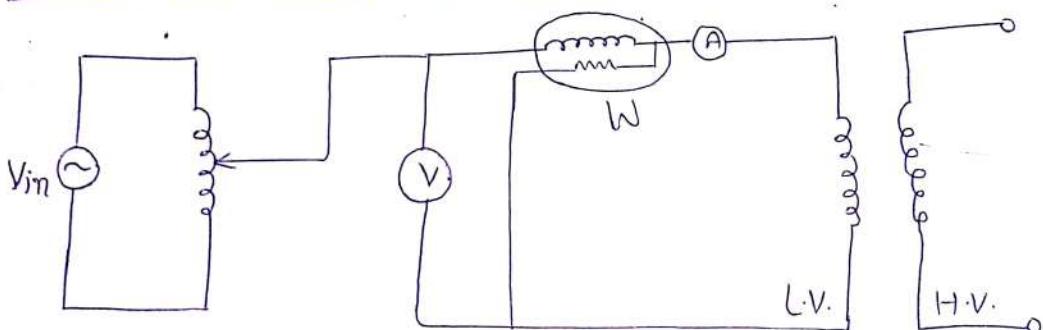
~~reactive drop~~ reactive drop =  $K^2 I_2 X_1 + I_2 X_2$   
=  $I_2 (K^2 X_1 + X_2)$   
=  $I_2 X_{o2}$

2). Refer to Primary →

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- \* Transformer Rating →
- Typical nameplate rating of transformer is given as 10 kVA, 3300/220V, 50 Hz.
- Here, 10 kVA is rated output at secondary terminals which is expressed as Kilo-Volt-Ampere rather than Kilo-Watt.
- This is due to that the output is limited by Heating & hence by the losses in the transformer.
- These losses depends upon the voltage (core loss) & current ( $I^2R$  loss) & are unaffected by the load Powerfactor.

#### \* Open circuit Test for transformer :-



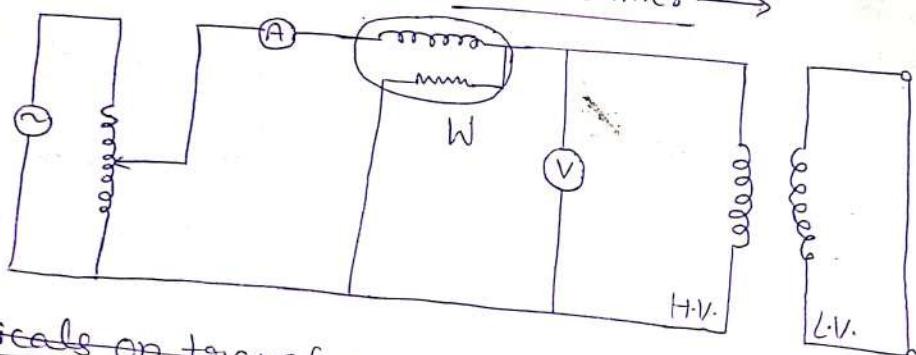
The connection diagram for open circuit test is given with Voltmeter, wattmeter & Ammeter. These meters are connected with low voltage side.

The voltage at rated frequency is applied to that low voltage side with the help of auto variable transformer.

The high voltage side of the transformer is kept open.

With the help of Variac (auto-transformer), applied voltage slowly increase until the voltmeter gives reading equal to rated voltage to the low voltage side.  
After reaching at rated L.V. Side Voltage all three instrument readings are recorded

\* Short Circuit Test for transformer



Numericals on transformer →

① → The flux  $\phi$  linked with coil depends on time  $t$  is

Poor

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\* Numer  
Q → The  
soln → o

Q → A  
has ful  
Seco

Sol<sup>n</sup> →

Main Id

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\* Numericals on transformer →

Q → The flux  $\phi$  depends on t. is  $\phi = (3t^2 + t + 5)$ ,  $t = \phi$ .

$$\text{Soln} \rightarrow \frac{d\phi}{dt} = 6t + 1 = 7$$

Q → A single phase 3300/220 V, 50 Hz transformer has secondary has full load current of 180 Ampere. It has 50 turns on its secondary side. Calculate (i). voltage per turn

(ii). No. of primary turns N

(iii). The full load Primary Current

(iv). KVA output of transformer

Soln →

$$V_1 = 3300 \text{ V}$$

$$V_2 = 220 \text{ V}$$

$$f = 50 \text{ Hz}$$

$$I_2 = 180 \text{ A}$$

$$N_2 = 50$$

(i). Voltage per turn

$$\frac{V_2}{N_2} = \frac{220}{50} = 4.4 \text{ turn}$$

(ii). No. of primary turn

$$\frac{V_1}{V_2} = \frac{N_1}{N_2} \Rightarrow \frac{3300}{220} = \frac{N_1}{50} \Rightarrow N_1 = \frac{3300 \times 50}{220} \Rightarrow N_1 =$$

(iii). The full load Primary Current

$$\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{I_1}{I_2}$$

$$\frac{220}{3300} = \frac{I_1}{180} \Rightarrow I_1 = \frac{180 \times 220}{3300} = 12 \text{ A}$$

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

(iv). KVA Output of transformer

$$\begin{aligned} V_1 I_1 &= V_2 I_2 \\ 3300 \times 12 &= 220 \times 180 \\ 39600 &= 39600 \end{aligned}$$

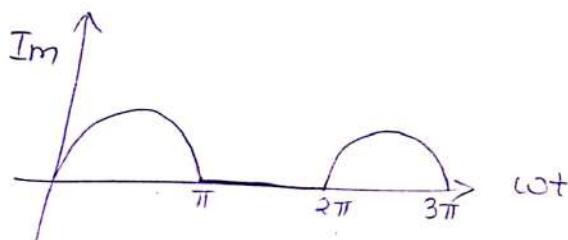
- Q → A 6 KVA, 110 v/500v Single phase transformer has Secondary terminal voltage of 487.5 when loaded. Determine the regulation of transformer.

Soln →

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_2}{V_1} &= \frac{E_2}{E_1} \\ \frac{500}{110} &= \frac{487.5}{E_1} \\ E_1 &= \frac{487.5 \times 110}{500} \\ E_1 &= 1072.5 \text{ V} \end{aligned}$$

★ Numerical on Waveform →

- Q → Find the Average, effective value & formfactor of a half rectifier current wave.



$$\text{Soln} \rightarrow \text{Average} = \bar{I}_{av} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} i_d(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$i = \begin{cases} I_m \sin \omega t & 0 < \omega t \leq \pi \\ 0 & \pi < \omega t \leq 2\pi \end{cases}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} I_m \sin \omega t d(\omega t)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ I_m \cos \omega t \right]_0^{\pi} = \frac{I_m}{2\pi} = \frac{I_m}{\pi}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
 I_{\text{avg}} &= \overbrace{\dots}^{\text{Integrate}} \quad \boxed{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} i^2 d(\omega t)} \\
 &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} i_m^2 \sin^2 \omega t d(\omega t) + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} 0 \cdot d(\omega t)} \\
 &=
 \end{aligned}$$

## Chapter - 4 Electrical Machine

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09/10/18	4		Mr. Mohit Bajpai	BEE		Electrical Machines

### \* Introduction →

The two types of voltage & current sources are available, for the same two types of rotating electrical energy conversion machines are available.

i). A Direct Current (D.C.) Machine

ii). The Alternating current (A.C.) Machines

~~The~~ The Word machine is commonly used for the feature that are common to both the motor & the generator.

### \* D.C. Machines →

The D.C. Machines are the electro mechanical energy conversion device. The DC Machines are of two

types:

i). D.C. Motor

ii). D.C. Generator

The Machine which converts mechanical energy into D.C. electrical energy is known as D.C. Generator.

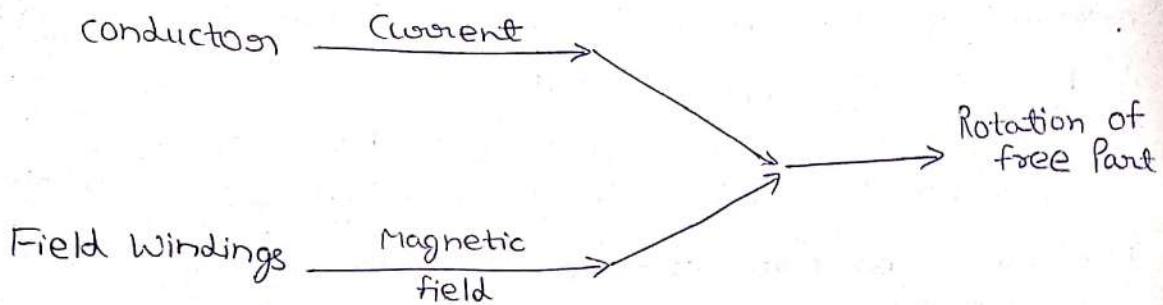
The Machine which converts <sup>DC</sup> electrical energy into mechanical energy is known as D.C. Motor.

### \* Working Principle of D.C. Machines →

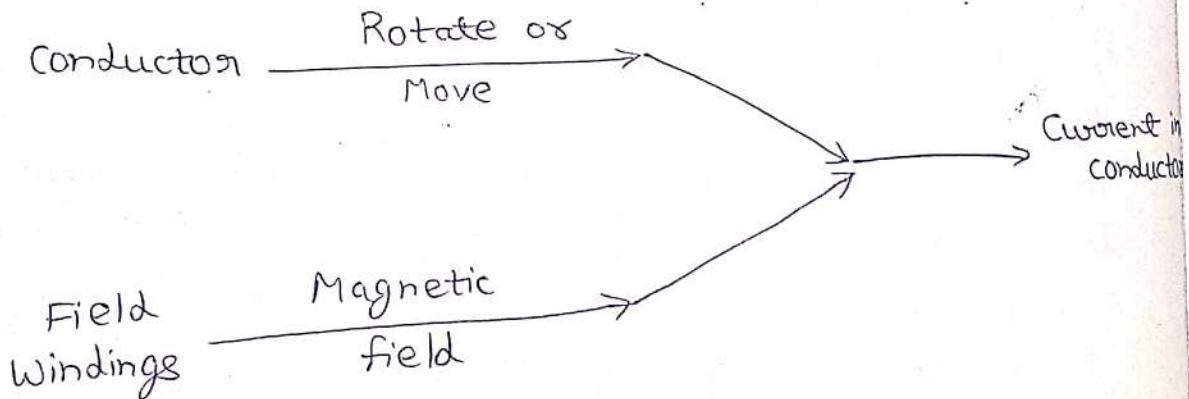
① It is based on the Principal of Electro mechanical energy conversion.

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

- ② This conversion & principle is represented as "When a current carrying conductor is placed in a Magnetic field, It experiences a force that move as such that electrical energy is converted to mechanical energy. (Fig.1)



(Fig.1) Line Diagram For D.C. Motor



(Fig.2) Line Diagram For D.C. Generator

If an external applied force makes the Conductors to move in the current starts to flow in conductor i.e. M.E. into Electrical energy. (Fig.2)

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In Both principle the magnetic field is the medium for energy conversion.

\* Parts of D.C. Machines →

Any electrical machine has mainly two parts:

(1). Rotor → It is free to move & normally it is inner part of machine.

(2). Stator → It is fixed such that cannot move & normally outer part of the machine.

Along with the Stator & Rotor dc machines has following other parts

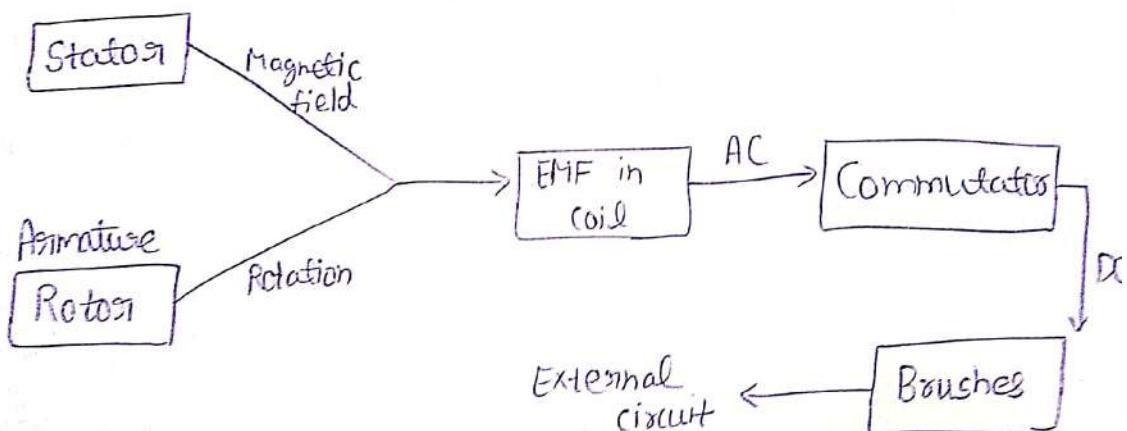
(i). Magnetic field System (Stator)

(ii). Armature (Rotor)

(iii). Coil System

(iv). Commutator (use to convert AC into DC)

(v). Brushes



Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

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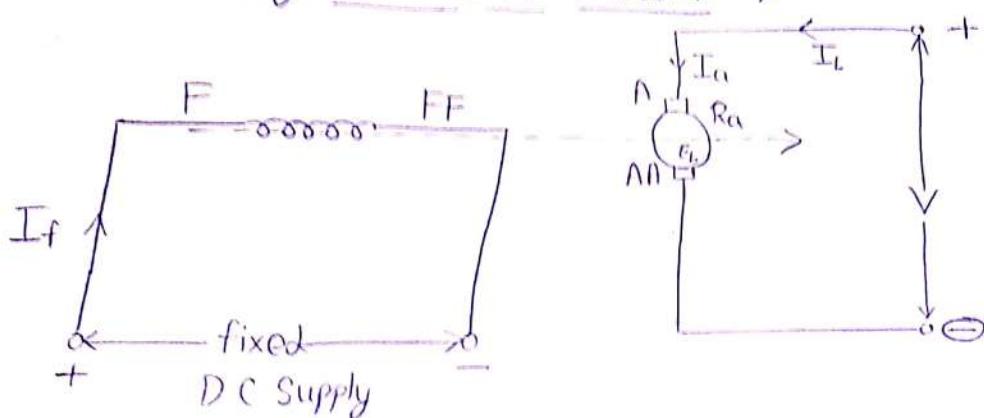
## \* Types of D.C. Machines →

On the basis of Excitation Method there are two types of DC Machines available -

- ✓①. Separately Excited DC Machine
- ✗②. Self Excited DC Machine

- a → Shunt type
- b → Series type
- c → Compound type
  - ↳ long shunt
  - ↳ short shunt

## ①. Separately Excited DC Motor →



When Separately excited dc machine the excitation source is used Separately to excited the device.

In case of Separately excited dc motor their will be a it self generated emf called as back Emf ( $E_b$ ). The relation between terminal voltage  $V$  & back Emf ( $E_b$ ) is given by

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$$V = E_b + I_a \times R_a$$

$$V > E_b$$

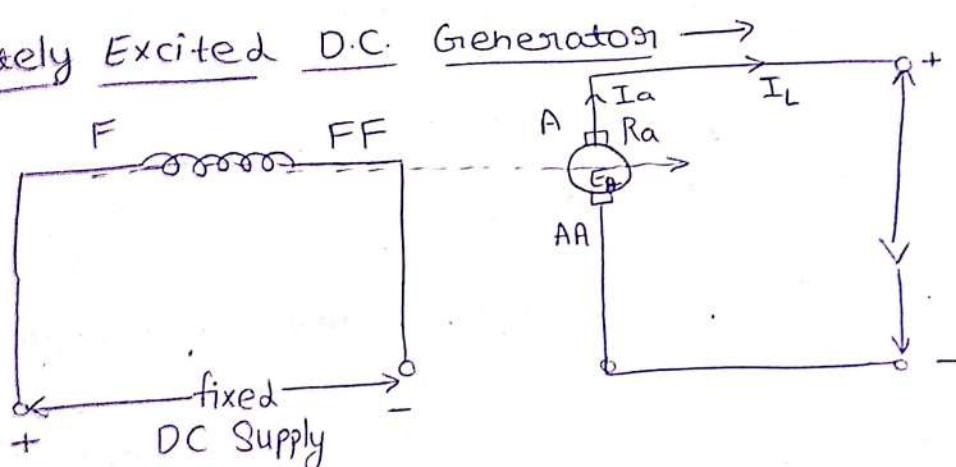
where,  $V$  is terminal voltage

$E_b$  is back emf

$I_a$  Armature Current

$R_a$  Armature Resistance

\* Separately Excited D.C. Generator



$$V = E_g - I_a \times R_a$$

$$V < E_g$$

In Separately excited d.c. generator, a generated emf called as  $E_g$ .

The current  $I_a$  &  $I_L$  both are equal so,  $I_a = I_L$ .  
Current must be reaching to the output terminal from the device.

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The dependency on voltage  
This equation so, speed N increase in

### \* EMF Equation of DC Machines →

$$E = \frac{N \times P \times \phi \times Z}{60 \times A}$$

Where,  $E$  → Generated Emf

$N$  → Speed in RPM

$P$  → No. of Poles

$\phi$  → Flux

$Z$  → No. of conductors

$A$  → No. of parallel paths

∴ for lap winding  $A = P$

∴ for wave winding  $A = 2$

### \* Characteristics of Separately Excited DC Motor →

i). In Separately excited DC Motor, the field is supplied from a constant voltage so that the field current is constant. The two motor therefore has similar characteristics.

Characteristic is a graph between two dependent quantities.

In case of Separately Excited DC Motor, there are following two characteristics exist:

### \* $N$ vs $I_a$ Characteristics

$$N \propto \frac{V - I_a R_a}{\phi}$$

In design of characteristics between  $N$  &  $I_a$  we kept voltage  $V$  is constant.

As the result flux is also constant at low load condition. The flux slightly decreases due to Armature reaction.

If the effect of armature reaction is neglected the flux  $\phi$  remains constant. The motor Speed is given as

(b). Torque  
If the constant

This  
then

Main Ideas,

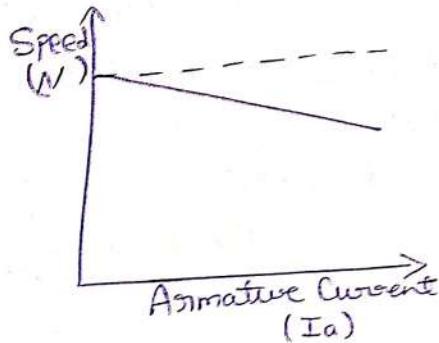
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The dependency of Speed shown by formula given & its depends on voltage, armature.

This equation is of a straight line with negative slope. so, speed  $N$  of the motor decreases linearly with increase in armature current.

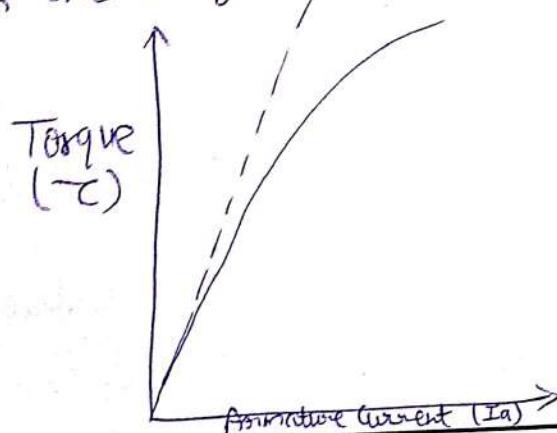


(b). Torque - Armature Current characteristics →  
If the effect of Armature  $\propto h$  is neglected.  $\phi$  is nearly constant & relation of  $T$  with  $I_a$  is represented from

$$T \propto \phi \cdot I_a$$

$$\Rightarrow T \propto I_a$$

This relation is also straight line relation which passes through the origin.



Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

## \* Speed Control of Separately excited DC Motor

Speed of DC motor is given by

$$N = \frac{V - I_a R_a}{K \phi}$$

As the relation of speed shows that it depends upon the supply voltage  $V$ , the armature resistance  $R_a$  & field flux  $\phi$  which is produced by the field current.

On the basis of speed dependency there are three methods to control speed:

① Variation of Resistance in Armature Circuit

This method is also called as Armature resistance controlled (Resistive Control)

② Variation of field flux

This is called as field flux controlled.

③ Variation of Applied voltage

This is called Armature voltage controlled

① Variation of Resistance in Armature Circuit  
Armature resistance controlled (Resistive Control)

In this method Variable series resistor  $R_{se}$  is put in series with armature circuit.

The Speed are control while varying the resistance which varied the current.

In Variation of current the flux is affected & hence the Speed is varied or control.

The Resistance  $R_{se}$  reduce and result to reduce in voltage applied to armature & hence Speed is reduce.

This method suffers from the following draw back:

① A large amount of power is wasted in external resistance  $R_{se}$ .

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- ② Contain increase  
③ For a constant motor

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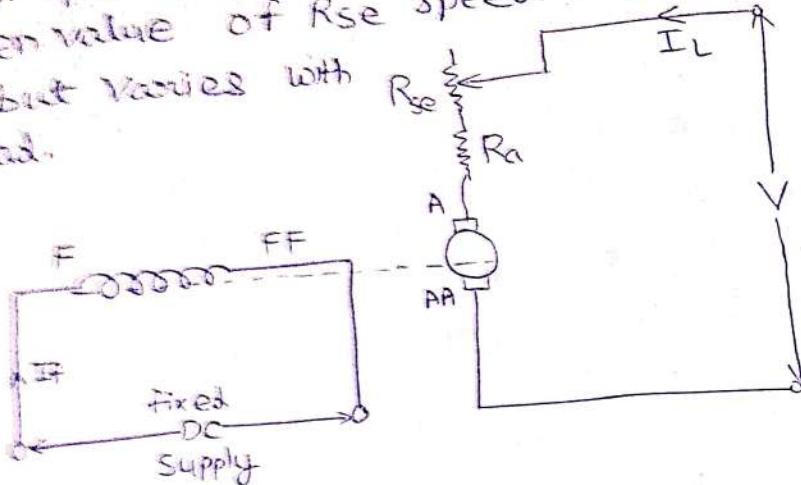
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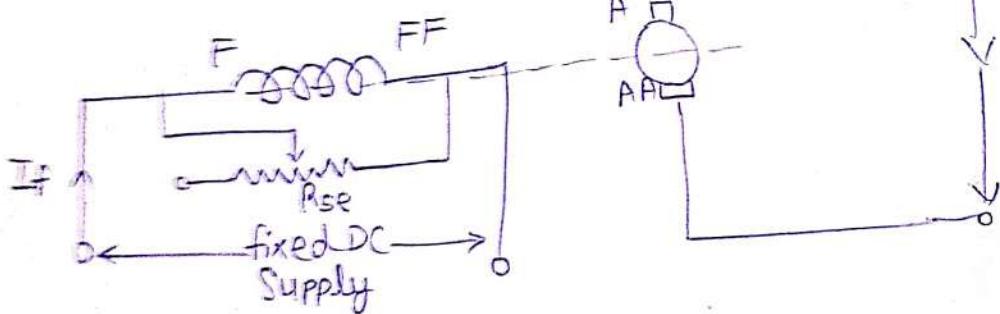
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| Date | Unit No. | Machine No. | Faculty | Subject Name | Subject Code | Main Topics:- |
|------|----------|-------------|---------|--------------|--------------|---------------|
- ④ Control is limited to given speed nominal rating & increases of speed cannot be opp by this method.
- ⑤ for a given value of R<sub>se</sub> Speed reduction is not constant but varies with motor load.



- ⑥ Variation of field flux ( $\phi$ )  
Field Flux Controlled

Weakening of field causes increase in speed of the motor while strengthening the field causes decrease the speed. Here, the variable resistance is connected in series with the field coil.

In this way the speed is controlled by means of flux variations.



#### Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

Reluctance control involve variation of Reluctance of magnetic circuit of motor. Field Voltage control by varying the voltage at field circuit while keeping Armature terminal voltage constant.

- ③ Speed Controlled by Varying the Armature terminal voltage → If the Armature terminal voltage ( $V$ ) is varying, counter emf ( $V - I_a R_a$ ) or  $E_b$  changes almost proportionally.

For a constant flux motor the speed varied accordingly with the change in input voltage.

DC Motor speed control by this method is obtained in three following methods:

- i). Ward Leonard System
- ii). Controlled Rectifiers
- iii). Series Parallel armature control

### ★ A.C. Machines →

→ Generation & Utilization of electricity are generally in A.C. & Machines which works on A.C. Supply are called as A.C. Machines.

→ A.C. Machine are more popular than D.C. Machine Because available supply is AC.

→ A.C. Machines are basically of two types:

i). Induction Machines → These Machines are singly excited machine which works on the principle of mutual induction.

These are classified into two categories:

- (a). Single phase induction Machine
- (b). Three phase induction Machine

ii). Synchronous Machines → These Machines are double excited machine & basically used to generate large amount of power at power generating stations.

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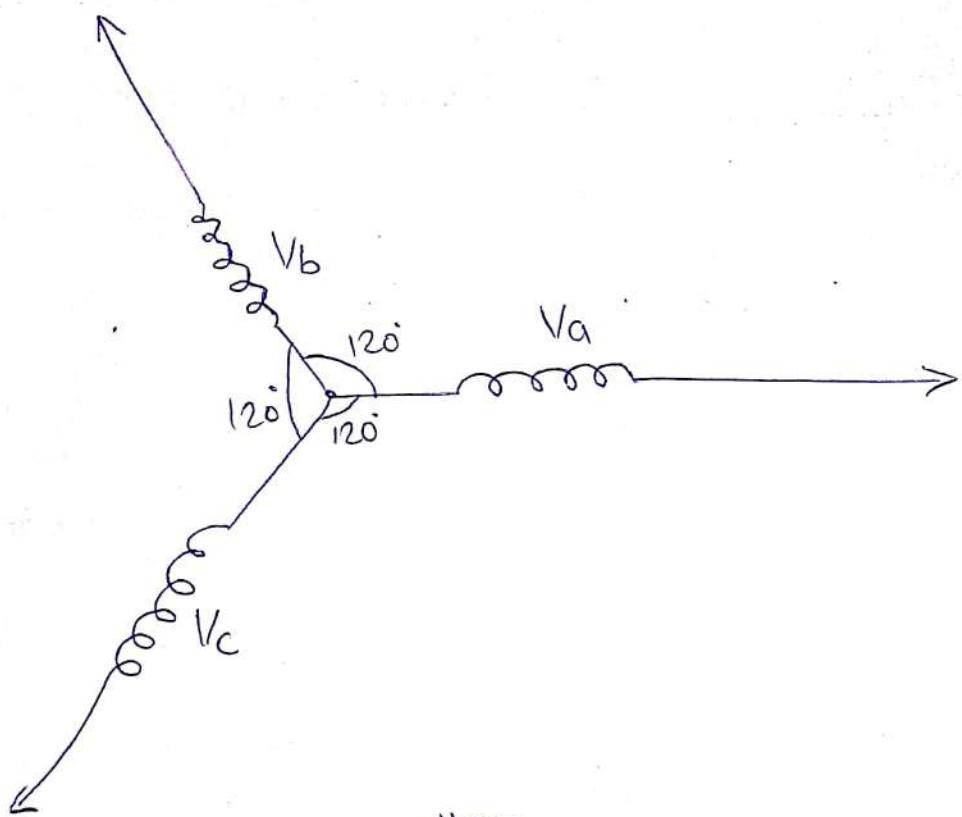
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Date	Unit No.	Lecture No.	Faculty	Subject Name	Subject Code	Main Topics:-

★ Generation of Rotating Magnetic field →

- The Generation of Electricity is always in 3-φ such that we are using 3-φ Generators at generating power plants.
- In three Phase Generators the three windings are used & utilized at  $120^\circ$  separation as Given in diagram



- The Voltage developed in <sup>three</sup>windings is denoted by

$$V_a = V_m \sin \omega t$$

$$V_b = V_m \sin(\omega t + 120^\circ)$$

$$V_c = V_m \sin(\omega t + 240^\circ)$$

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

→ As all three windings are apart from each other at  $120^\circ$  the supply or magnetic field is also generated with same separation.

→ In such a way the generated / developed magnetic field is also of rotating in nature.

### ★ Three Phase induction Machine (Motor) →

Principle → The working principle of induction motor based upon the principle of mutual inductance b/w Stator & rotor.

→ This mutual inductance principle is related with Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction.

→ Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction is given in two parts:

(a).

(b).

### Working of Three Phase induction Motor →

Stator of an induction motor is stationary Part which is fixed in nature.

→ 3- $\phi$  Supply is fed to in induction Motor, which is wound by three phase balanced windings.

→ As Stator is excited by 3- $\phi$  balance current, there is a mmf is developed (Magnetic Motive Force).

→ This mmf is equal to the product of no. of turns in windings & the current flow in that windings.

$$F = N \cdot I$$

→ As this mmf is rotating in nature i.e. magnetic field develops around the winding. But 3- $\phi$  windings are not physically rotating.

So, we can say Stator field is rotating with respect to Stator & Speed of Stator field is given by

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Date	Unit No.	Lecture No.	Faculty	Subject Name	Subject Code	Main Topics:-

$$N_S = \frac{120 \times f}{P}$$

Where,  $N_S \rightarrow$  Stator field Speed / Synchronous Speed  
 $f \rightarrow$  Frequency of Supply  
 $P \rightarrow$  No. of Stator Poles

→ This <sup>rotating</sup> MMF is transferred to motor side with the help of mutual inductance.

→ Now, the motor starts to rotate at less speed wrt to the synchronous speed.

→ This MMF is received by rotor winding & it starts to rotate. The rate at which the rotor behind the synchronous speed is called Slip (S).

$$S = \frac{N_S - N_R}{N_S}$$

Where  
 $N_R \rightarrow$  Speed of motor

$$\text{Percentage Slip (S)} = \frac{N_S - N_R}{N_S} \times 100$$

## Construction of Induction Machine & Types of Induction Machine

An induction machine has basically two main parts

- 1). Stator
- 2). Rotor

Stator & Rotor are non-attached basically & electrically  
 $0.4\text{mm}$  to  $4\text{mm}$ .  
 there is a small

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

**Library / Website Ref.:-**

- 1). Stator → It is the stationary part of the machine which consist of Stator frame & Stator winding.
- Stator frame is made up of from a Speed on which enclosed are follow, cylindrical core made from thin laminated Silicon Steel.
  - Laminations are used to reduced the eddy current losses.
  - Stator Winding are wound in inner <sup>surface</sup> part of Stator, to increase the mechanical strength of winding a no. of evenly space slots are provided & windings are wound in provided slots.
  - Three phase windings are wound for definite no. of poles, which is according to the speed of machine. The speed is inversely proportional to the no. of poles as given by equation

→ Poles are always multiples of two such that 2, 4, 6, ... & Frequency is 50 Hz.

- 2). Rotor → It is rotating part of machine which consists of cylindrical laminated iron core on a shaft.
- The core is also laminated speed of iron but they are thicker than stator core.
  - Rotor Consist of rotor winding & shaft.

→ Acc<sup>o</sup> to windings & constructional feature, rotor is divided into two categories:

- (i). Squirrel cage motor
- (ii). Wound motor

**POORNIMA**

Date	Unit No.	Lecture No.	Faculty	Subject Name	Subject Code	Main Topics:-

\* Types of Induction Machine →

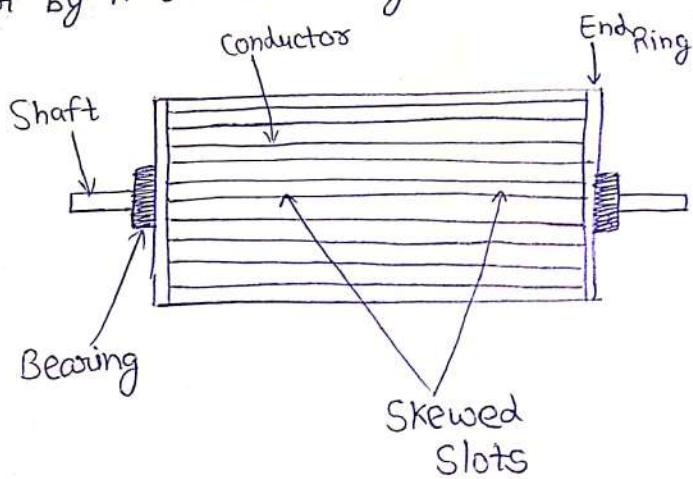
On the basis of rotor classification machine is of two types:

1). Squirrel case induction machine → In this machine the rotor type is commonly used and almost 85% machines are made up of with this rotor.

→ This rotor consist of slots like stator But no. of slots in stator & rotor differs, to avoid magnetic locking.

→ In these slots rotor winding are wound which is made up from copper bars.

→ All Copper bars are join at more ends to each other by metal ring.



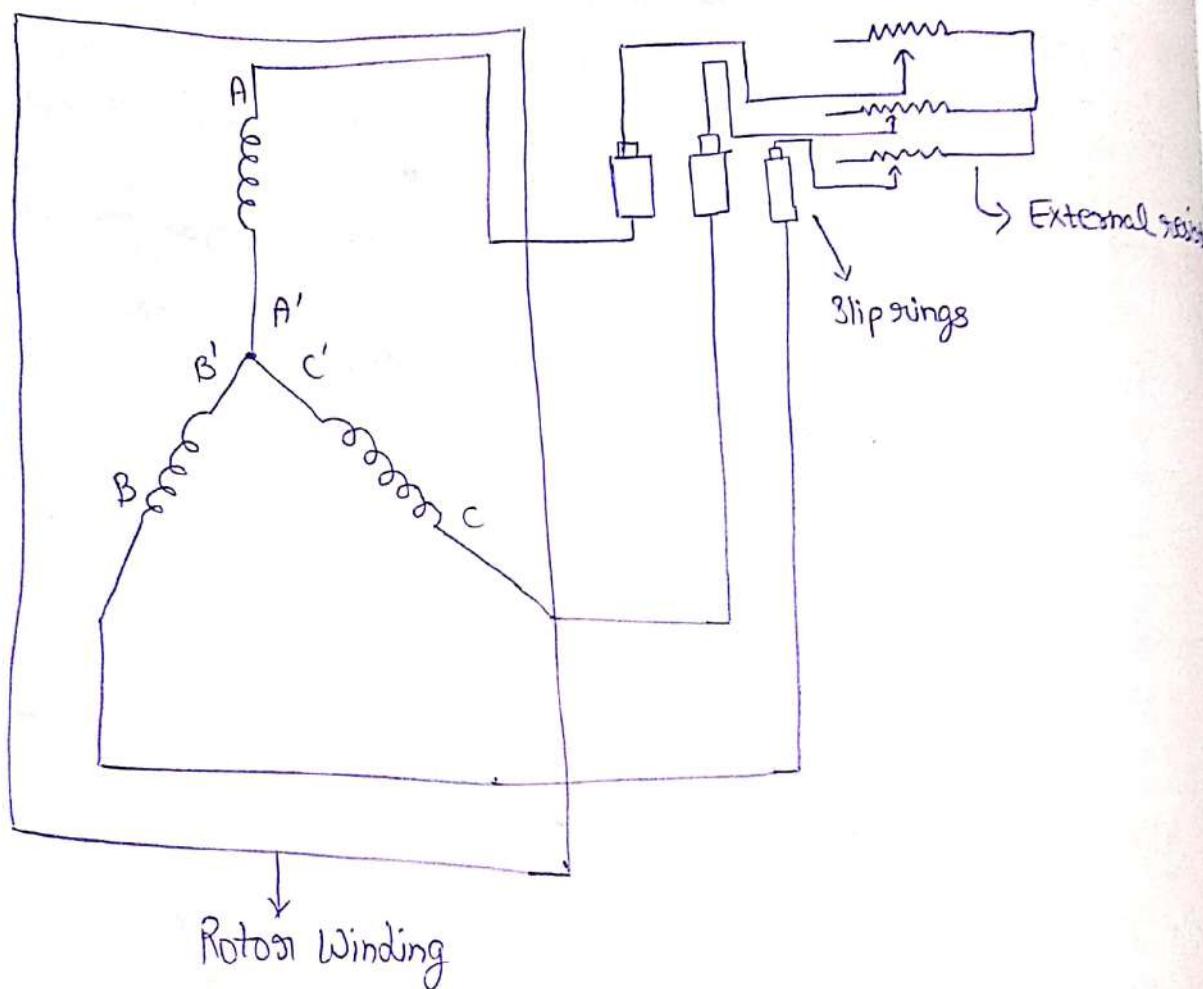
2). Wound Rotor or Slipring Induction Machine →

→ It consist of laminated cylindrical core which has slots like stator & squirrel case induction machine.

→ In Wound rotor the rotor is wound with insulated copper winding like stator But with lesser no. of slots than stator.

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

- Generally winding is star connected whose one end is short circuited at common point & at other end external resistance is connected with slip rings.
- External resistance increases the starting torque of machine as well as reduces starting current.
- Construction of slip ring & wound motor is complicated & expensive.
- It is used where large starting torque is required like cranes, lifts



\* Comparison of Squirrel case induction motor & Slip ring induction motor →

**POORNIMA**

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Squirrel Cage Induction Motors

Slip rings Induction Motors

- Q-1. They are simple in construction.      ①. They are complicated in construction.
- ②. No external resistance is required.      ②. External resistance is required & connected with slip rings.
- ③. They are economically cheap.      ③. They are costly.
- ④. They have low starting torque.      ④. They have high starting torque.
- ⑤. They are used in water pump, fan, miles etc.      ⑤. They are used in lift, cranes, traction etc.

\* Numericals on Induction Machine →

- Q-1. Find the running speed of a 4 poles induction motor working on 50 Hz supply having 4% slip.

$$\text{Soln} \rightarrow N_s = \frac{120 \times f}{P}$$

$$N_s = \frac{120 \times 50}{4} = 1500 \text{ RPM}$$

$$\% S = \frac{N_s - N_r}{N_s} \times 100$$

$$4 = \frac{1500 - N_r}{1500} \times 100$$

$$60 = 1500 - N_r$$

$$N_r = 1440 \text{ RPM}$$

- Q-2. A three phase induction motor has 4 pole & is connected to 400 volt, 50 Hz Supply. Calculate the actual rotor speed & Rotor frequency when the slip is 3%.

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

$$\text{Soln} \rightarrow N_s = \frac{120 \times f}{P}$$

$$N_s = \frac{120 \times 50}{4} = 1500 \text{ RPM}$$

$$\% S = \frac{N_s - N_r}{N_s} \times 100$$

$$S = \frac{1500 - N_r}{1500} \times 100$$

$$N_s = 1500 - N_r$$

$$N_r = 1455 \text{ RPM}$$

$$\boxed{f' = S \times f}$$

Rotor frequency

Supply frequency

$$f' = \frac{3}{100} \times 50$$

$$f' = \frac{15}{10} = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5 \text{ Hz}$$

Q → A 3-φ, 50Hz, 6 pole induction motor runs at its full load with speed 960 RPM. Calculate the slip of motor at full load.

$$\text{Soln} \rightarrow S = \frac{N_s - N_r}{N_s}$$

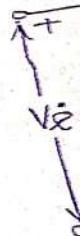
$$N_s = \frac{120 \times 50}{6} = 1000$$

$$S = \frac{1000 - 960}{1000} = \frac{40}{1000} = \frac{4}{100}$$

$$\% S = \frac{40}{1000} \times 100 = 4 \%$$

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Date	Unit No.	Lecture

\* Torque 8



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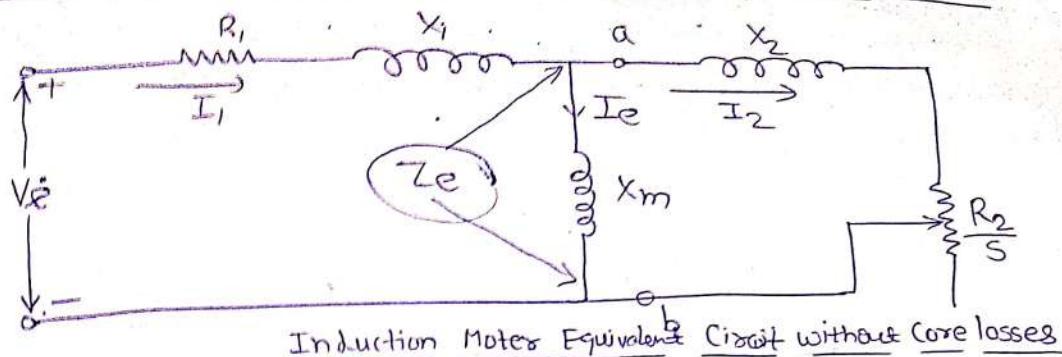
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\* Torque Slip Characteristics of 3-φ Induction Motor →



- For torque slip characteristics of 3-φ induction motor, the application of thevenin's theorem is required.
- The equivalent circuit of 3-φ induction motor reduces the computation work.
- In this equivalent circuit  $R_1$  &  $X_1$  represent primary winding (Stator circuit) resistance & reactance respectively &  $R_2$  &  $X_2$  represent (Rotor circuit) secondary winding & reactance respectively.
- For applying Thevenin's theorem to this equivalent circuit, consider points a & b as given.
- From these two points view towards the voltage source  $V_1$  & circuit considered  $R_1$ ,  $X_1$ ,  $X_m$  & voltage source  $V_1$ .
- According to the thevenin's theorem the circuit is replaced by eq. source & eq. impedance ( $Z_e$ ) as given below.

Voltage ( $V_e$ )

$$V_e = \frac{V_1(jX_m)}{R_1 + j(X_1 + X_m)}$$

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

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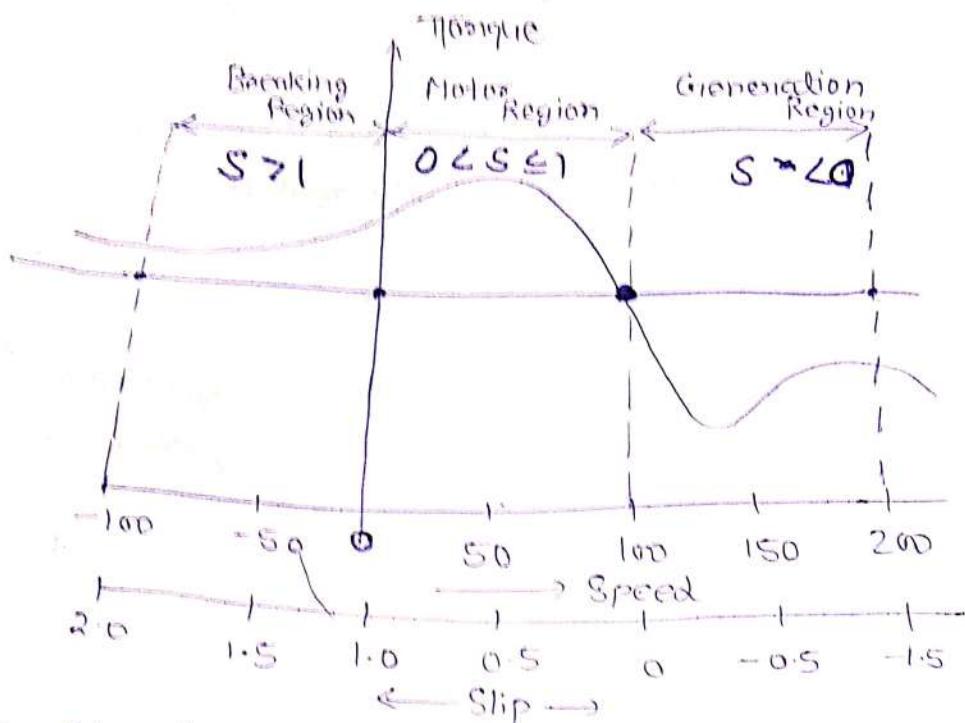
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$$Z_e = \frac{(R_1 + jX_1)(jX_m)}{R_1 + j(X_1 + X_m)}$$

→ Here,  $V_e$  is the Voltage appearing across terminal a & b with the external circuit is connected from these two points dis.

→ Equivalent stator circuit  $Z_e$  is the impedance view from terminals a & b towards the voltage source.



\* Torque slip characteristic Curve in region of braking motor & generation

\* Significance torque slip characteristics  
IMP

### (1) Motoring mode

- For motoring mode the slip is defined as  $0 < s \leq 1$
- Under normal operation, motor revolves in the direction of rotating field produced by stator.
- As slip varies from 1 to 0 at synchronous speed the region is utilized for motor.

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### ② Generation mode →

- For these mode the slip is negative & defined as  $s < 0$
- An Induction motor will operate in this region only. its stator terminal are connected to frequency voltage & its motor is above Synchronous Speed.
- The Connection of stator terminal to Voltage source. Is design in order to establish the rotating gap at Synchronous speed.

### ③ Breaking mode →

- For this mode the slip is  $s > 1$
- A slip more than one can we obtained by driving the motor opposite to the direction of rotating field.
- A practically utility as  $s > 1$  obtained by making the motor to a quick stop by Breaking action. Called as plugging.
- Plugging condition can be obtained by inter the leads of stator.

### ★ Starting of Induction Motor →

Induction motor, when direct supply take 5-7 times these full load Current & developed only 1.5 to 2.5 times full load torque.

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

**Library / Website Ref.:-**

The initial excessive current is objectionable because this will produce large line voltage drop which will affect operation of other electric equipments connected to same line.

### Direct On Line Starting :-

- In this method as the name indicates the motor is started by connecting it directly to 3- $\phi$
- The motor is connected directly to supply directly the starting current will be high that 5 to 7 times full load current.
- Hence this method of starting is suitable for relatively small machines.

The methods of starting induction motor are given as

#### (i) Squirrel case motor

- Stator resistance starting or primary resistance starting
- Auto transformer starting
- Star-Delta starting

#### (ii) Slip ring Motor

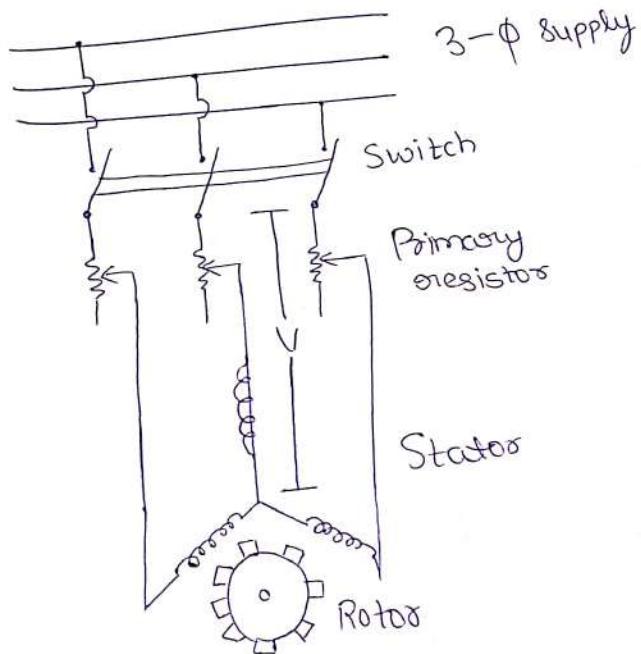
- Rotor resistance starting.



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- Stator resistance starting →
- In this method the external resistances are connected in series with each phasor of stator winding.
- The purpose of resistor connection is to drop some voltage.
- Therefore, the current drawn by the motor is reduced & this is the <sup>initial</sup> drawback of this method also.
- Drawback is also depend as current varies directly with the square of applied voltage.



Connection Diagram of Primary resistors

- If the voltage applied across the motor is reduced <sup>by</sup> 50%, Starting current is reduced by 50% & Torque is reduced by 25%

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

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Each phase has maximum resistance offered in start of motor circuit this reduces the starting current & increasing the starting torque.

As the motor picks up the speed the external resistance is gradually cut out in each phase of the circuit.

### \* Speed Control of Induction Motor →

The speed of induction motor can be expressed as

$$N_d = N_s(1-s)$$

$$N_s = \frac{120f}{P} (1-s)$$

According to the formula the speed of motor depends on Frequency, no. of poles & slip (s).

Generally the methods of speed control are distinguished according to the action of motor i.e. (i) from the stator side

(ii) from the rotor side

① Various methods of speed control from the stator are :

(i) change in no. of poles

(ii) Varying the line frequency

(iii) Varying the applied voltage

② Various methods of speed control from the motor side are :

(i) Varying the motor circuit resistance

(ii) Injecting voltage of suitable frequency into rotor circuit.

① (i) change in no. of poles → A change in no. of poles, changes the synchronous speed of motor & therefore the operating speed or motor speed is controlled.

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Since the no. of poles can be change only by even numbers, the speed controlled is not continuous But a Stepped L.

### (i). Varying of Line frequency

The synchronous speed of induction motor is depends on frequency. & By varying the line varying the line frequency Speed can be controlled But this method is rarely used.

### (ii). Varying of the applying voltage

By Varying the applied voltage to induction motor the speed of the motor can be changed. This method is very easy & also cheap to control the motor speed.

- ② (i). The slip on wound motor, motor speed is reduced by introducing an external resistance in series with an rotor circuit change the motor resistance, motor stardon may be use, the disadvantage of this method is that with the increase in motor resistance i<sup>2</sup> losses will increase.

- (ii). The speed of induction motor is controlled by injecting a voltage in the motor circuit.

The injected voltage should have the same frequency as the motor frequency.

When injected voltage, which has phase opposition to the rotor induced emf, it decreases the speed of motor.

When injected voltage, which has phase same to the rotor induced emf, it increases the speed of motor.

## \* Synchronous Generator (Alternator) →

- Synchronous generator is known as Double excited AC generator which induces AC supply.
- Double excited means it require an external DC supply to excite field coil.
- Alternators are universally adopted for generation of large 3-φ power. Alternators ex, on deliver AC Power
- But field winding always takes Power from a external source.
- Alternator is designed to operate with minimum slip as its Synchronous & motor Speed are same.
- The speed of Alternator given as

$$N = \frac{120f}{P}$$

## \* Working & Construction →

- In 3-φ Alternator Armature winding always wound on Stator & field winding is wound on rotor.
- Because Agfield winding as two terminals & it require only two slip rings, which reduces the cost of insulation
- Armature winding as four terminals, which required four slip rings, 3 for phases & 1 for neutral.
- Alternators are design for large power generation But & economical
- Complicated & expensive for small power generation.
- The amount of insulation between slip ring & shaft is kept high because voltage rating of generation is in order of 11 KV.
- Construction wise <sup>motor of</sup> Synchronous machine are of two types:
  - cylindrical rotor
  - Salient pole rotor

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According to the constructional ~~one~~ feature of rotor  
Alternator are two types :

- (1). Hydro Alternator
- (2). Turbo Alternator

**(1). Hydro Alternator**

- Hydro Alternators are designed with Salient pole rotor, which operates best at low Speed
- Salient pole motor as large no. of poles for generation at 50Hz with low Speed.
- For e.g. → if alternator is rotate at 300 RPM & generates supply at 50Hz then no. of poles required are

$$N = \frac{120f}{P}$$

$$P = \frac{120 \times 50}{300} = 20 \text{ Poles}$$

- The Salient Pole the diameter is small & length of rotor is high.

**(2). Turbo Alternator**

- Turbo Alternators are designed with cylindrical rotor, which operates best at high Speed.
- Cylindrical rotor as small no. of poles for generation at 50Hz with High Speed.

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

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## CHAPTER - 5

### Power Converter

#### \* Semiconductor material →

The material whose properties lies in between conductor & insulator materials.

Date	Unit No.	Page No.
★ P-N Junction In N-type & minority In P-type & minority		

Semiconductor are of two types:

- Intrinsic Semiconductor (Pure)
- Extrinsic Semiconductor (Impure)

Doping → Adding some impurities to pure semiconductor is known as doping.

There exist two types of doping process:

- Triivalent
- Pentavalent

By applying the Process of Doping the Extrinsic Semiconductors are of two types:

- N-type (Pentavalent Doping)
- P-type (Triivalent Doping)

With the Combination of P-type & N-type Semiconductors, various electronic devices can be design like

- P-N Junction diode
- Transistor (PNP or N-P-N)
- IGBT
- SCR
- JFET etc.

→ PN Junction  
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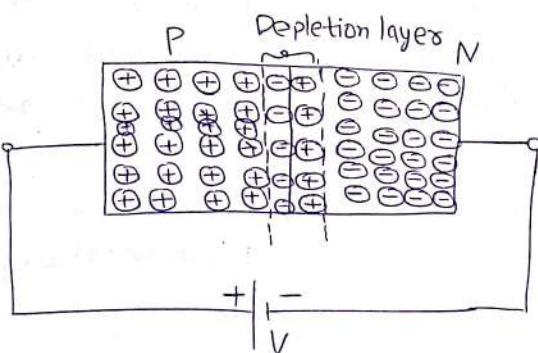
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Date	Unit No.	Lecture No.	Faculty	Subject Name	Subject Code	Main Topics:-

→ P-N Junction Diode →

In N-type Semiconduction majority charge carrier is equal to electrons & minority charge carrier is equal to holes.

In P-type Semiconductors majority charge carrier is equal to holes & minority charge carrier is equal to electrons.



→ PN Junction diode is the two terminal device having a single junction. The two terminals are known as Anode and Cathode.

→ At the joining of p-type & n-type semiconductor with Special fabrication process So called as junction.

→ The working PN diode

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

**Library / Website Ref.:-**

① When Positive terminal of battery is connected with P type & negative terminal of battery is connected with N type, the connection is called Forward biased.

① Forward biased → In this biasing as the positive voltage is increased no. of holes at P terminal & no. of electrons at N terminal increase accordingly.

→ This increment in charge carriers at both terminals will allow to move holes & electrons through junction.

→ In this regards the depletion layer (which exist at junction) decrease by increasing the voltage continuously.

→ As the voltage crosses the line threshold limit we will get movement of electrons across the junction.

→ This movement of electrons is taking place from n to p terminal & current will flow from P to n.

→ The current will increase as the increase in voltage up to a limit only afterwards there will be ~~a~~ a break down.

② Reverse biased → When Positive terminal of battery is connected to N type & negative terminal of battery is connected with P type, the connection is called Reverse biased.

→ In this biasing as the positive voltage is increased no. of holes at n terminal & no. of electrons at P terminal increase accordingly.

→ The increment in charge carriers at both terminals will allow to move holes & electrons through junction.

→ In this regards the depletion layer (which exist at junction)

→ As the voltage increase

→ This movement of electrons is taking place from p to n terminal & current will flow from n to p.



Note →

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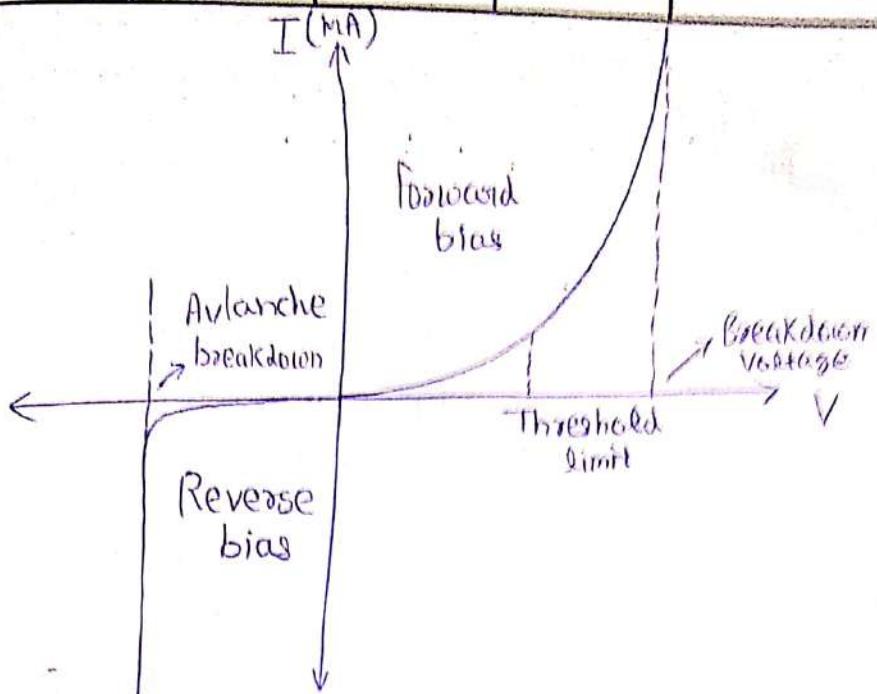


Fig. → V-I characteristics of an P-N Junction

Note → PN Junction diode is usually known as diode. It is a unidirectional device which is allow flow of I. in one direction. which is forward biased.  
they are generally used in rectifier.

#### \* Transistor →

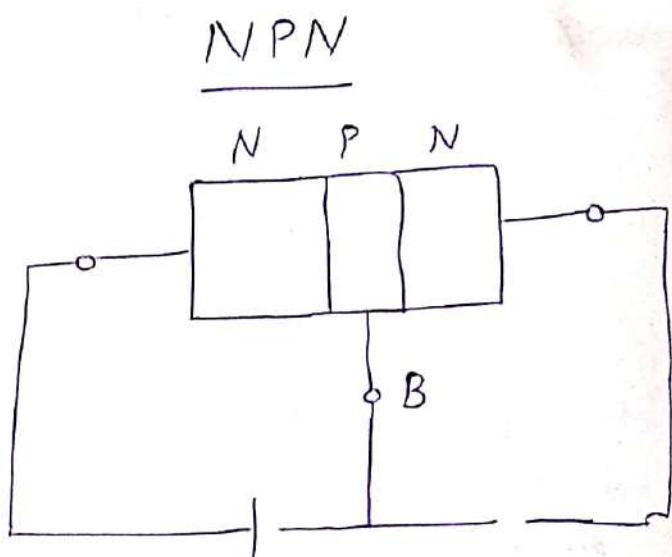
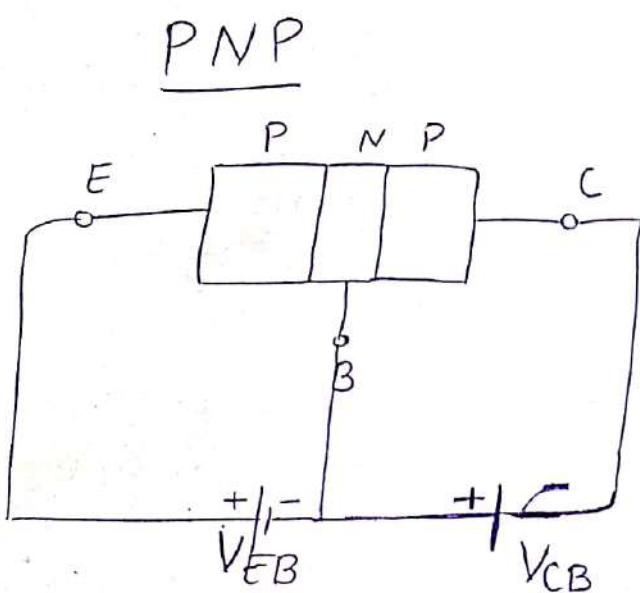
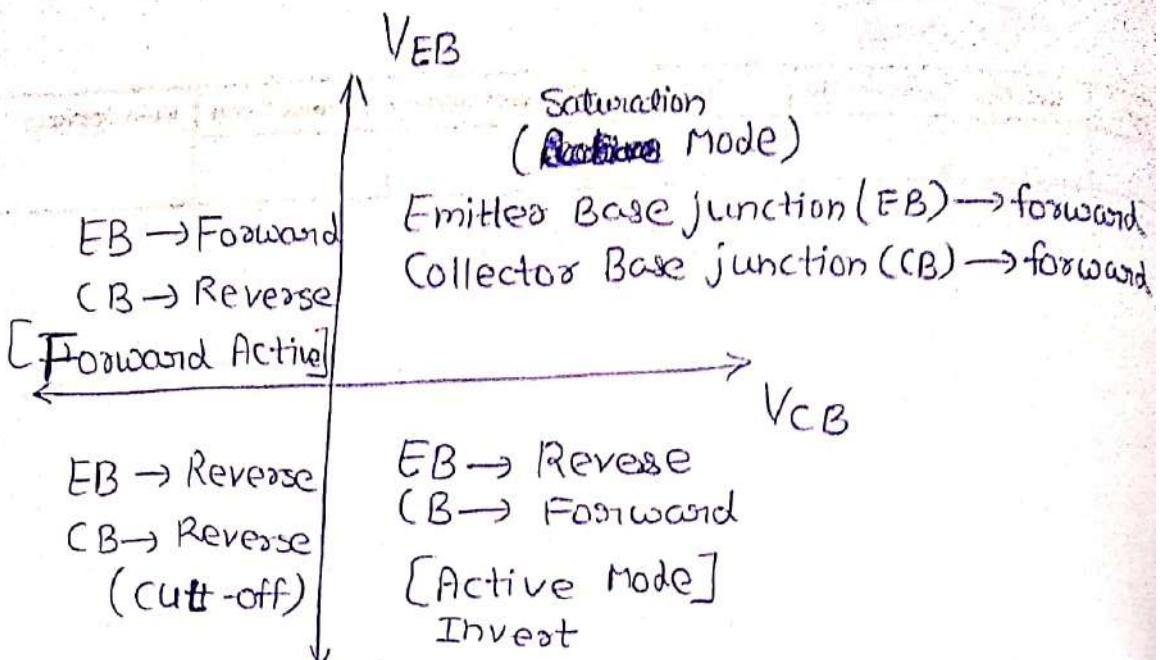
Transistor is a 3-terminal junction device. The three terminals are ~~connected~~ Emitter, Base & collector.

Transistor is of two design :

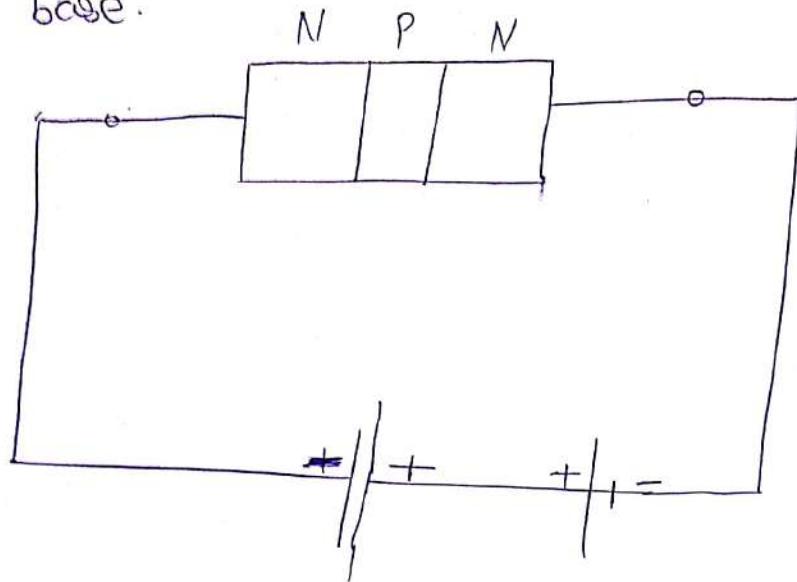
- ① PNP
- ② NPN

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

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(B) Saturation mode  $\rightarrow$  In saturation mode the Ammeter base junction & collector base junction both are forward biased.



$\Rightarrow$  Due to the forward bias connection the depletion layer at both junctions is reduced to minimum.

$\Rightarrow$  Because of reduction to minimum of depletion layer. The current will flow across the transistor. But this is not in completely way.

$\Rightarrow$  The working of transistor in saturation mode is defined as Closed Switch.

Cut off mode  $\rightarrow$

(not in syllabus)

## \* Configuration of Transistor →

There are three configuration available with transistor known as

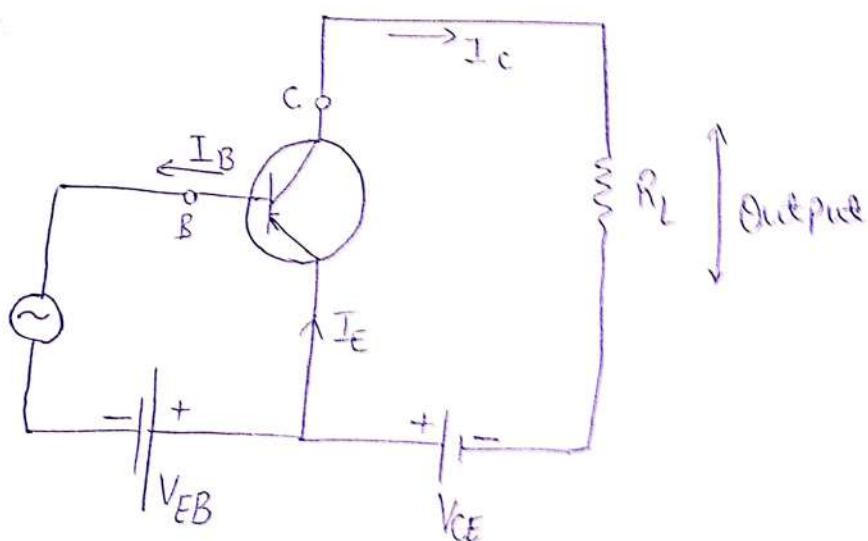
- 1) Common Emitter configuration (CE)
- 2). Common Base configuration (CB)
- 3). Common Collector Configuration (CC)

(PNP)

For CE Configuration Common Emitter Configuration (CE) →  
⇒ Input the emitter

⇒ In this configuration the input voltage is equal to  $V_{EB}$  & input current is equal to  $I_B$ .

Output voltage is equal to  $V_{CE}$  & input current is equal to  $I_C$ .



## Input characteristics →

⇒ Input characteristics is diaion between  $V_{EB}$  &  $I_B$  at constant  $V_{CE}$ .

⇒ It is considered that input characteristics are similar to that of a diode in forward bias.

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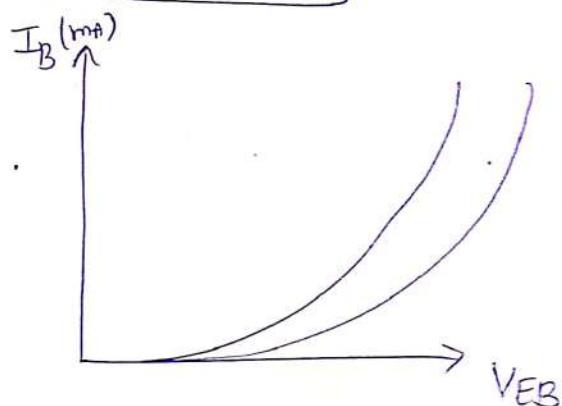
$I_B = 0$  below  $V_T$  or Cut in or threshold voltage

Si,  $V_T \approx 0.7V$

Ge,  $V_T = 0.3V$

- After  $V_T$ ,  $I_B$  increases with small increase in  $V_{EB}$
- Dynamic input resistance  $r_i =$

$$r_i = \frac{\Delta V_{EB}}{\Delta I_B} \text{ V}_E \text{ const}$$



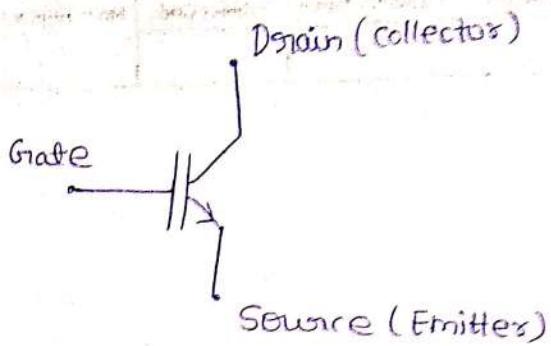
### Output characteristics

⇒ Output characteristics is drawn between  $V_{CE}$  &  $I_C$ .

⇒ It is considered that Output characteristics are in three regions.

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

Library / Website Ref.:-



- As it is known that IGBT is the replacement of BJT & MOS & working somewhere related to
- The condition is generated due to regenerative action.
- This is not desirable because it means loss of control of drain current by the apply gate voltage.  
The reason for this is that a component of hole current travels through the p type body layer.
- this lateral current causes an voltage drop in the resistance of body layer if this voltage is sufficient to that off transistor turn on voltage, the device (they) will not work.
- The steps taken during manufacturing of (IGBT) to avoid condition, i). to slow down IGBT at turn off so that rate of growth of depletion layer into drift region is slow down.
- i). To increase current by decreasing the resistance of body layer.
- ii). To use a bypass structure by eliminating one of Source reason.

## CHAPTER-6. Electrical Installation

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15/11/2018	6			BEE		Electrical Installation

### \* Switch Gear →

It is equipment & apparatus used for the electrical circuit switching, protection & controlling.

This is a generate term for wide range of apparatus like Circuit breaker, Switches, Switch fuse units, isolators, fuses etc.

Some devices <sup>only</sup> used for switching & not for fault detection. Essential feature of switch gear are the equipment must be completely reliable.

The equipment must be able to discriminate between the fault section & healthy section.

The equipment must operate very fast to avoid apparatus device

The equipment must have provision of manual control damage.

The equipment must have provision of manual control

Switch gear can be classified on the basis of voltage level →

- ①. Low Voltage (LV) Switch gear (upto 11kV)
- ②. Medium Voltage (MV) Switch gear (11kV to 33kV)
- ③. High Voltage (HV) Switch gear (above 36kV)

Note → LT → low tension  
HT → High tension

**Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:**

**Library / Website Ref.:-**

## \* L.V. Switch gear layout →

LV switch gear covers a wide range of equipment concerned with switching & interrupting under both normal & abnormal condition. These includes

- ① Switches
- ② Fuse
- ③ Circuit breaker
- ④ Relays

① Switches → A switch is a device used for opening & closing of electrical circuit.  
Switch operates on full load or no load condition But not on fault condition.

② Fuse → A short piece of wire on thin strip which melts when axis current will flow through it.

Fuse are connected in series with the circuit.  
The melting of fuse elements due to increase in temperature.

③ Circuit breaker → Circuit breakers are design to operate on all circuit conditions

The circuit breaker core design to operate manually under normal condition & automatically under fault condition.

④ Relays → Relays is a device to detect the fault & give the required information to the breaker for circuit interruption.

It is also used to switch the supply from two different for automatic working of equipments.

There are four devices are used in Switch gear :-

- ① SFU (Switch Fuse Unit)
- ② MCB (Miniature circuit Breaker)

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- (a). Type B
- (b). Type C
- (c). Type D

### ③. ELCB (Earth leakage Circuit Breaker)

- (a). Voltage ELCB
- (b). Current ELCB

### ④. MCCB (Molded Case Circuit Breaker)

- (a). Thermal trip unit
- (b). Electromagnetic trip unit
- (c). Thermal magnetic trip unit
- (d). Electronic trip unit
- (e). Microprocessor trip unit

### \* Elementary Calculations for Energy Consumption →

Appliance	Watts	No.	Hours	Watt x hour	Unit/day
CFL Bulbs	15	8	4	480	0.48
Celing Fans	100	3	8	2400	2.40
TV 32inch LED	40	1	4	160	0.16
Fridge 250L	—	1	24	501/year	1.37
Micro wave	700	1	0.5	350	0.35
Induction Cooker	1200	1	1	1200	1.20
Air Fryer	1500	1	0.5	750	0.75
Other	150	1	3	450	0.45

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Electrical energy is the most convenient form of energy. In households devices the consumption of electrical energy is measured through energy meter.

Electrical energy is derived from a movement of electric charge, energy i.e. kinetic energy & potential energy.

The calculation of Energy consumption for different electrical appliances in a given table.

The calculation of Per day electricity consumption for any apparatus is done like as

for e.g. → Ceiling fan 100W each

The daily uses of 3 fans running for 8 hours daily =  $100 \times 8 \times 3 = 2400 \text{ Wh} = 2.4 \text{ kWh}$

For the fridge the annual consumption of four star rated 250L capacity is 501 unit in a year running 24 hours daily.

This information is obtained from Govt. of India, Bureau of energy efficiency.

Per day unit calculated by  $\frac{501}{365} = 1.37 \text{ Unit/day}$

### Power measurement in d.c. circuits →

The electric Power is calculated in dc circuits with Simple formula  $P=V \cdot I$

The Voltage & current calculated with the help of voltmeter & ammeter as shown in Connection diagram.

Power

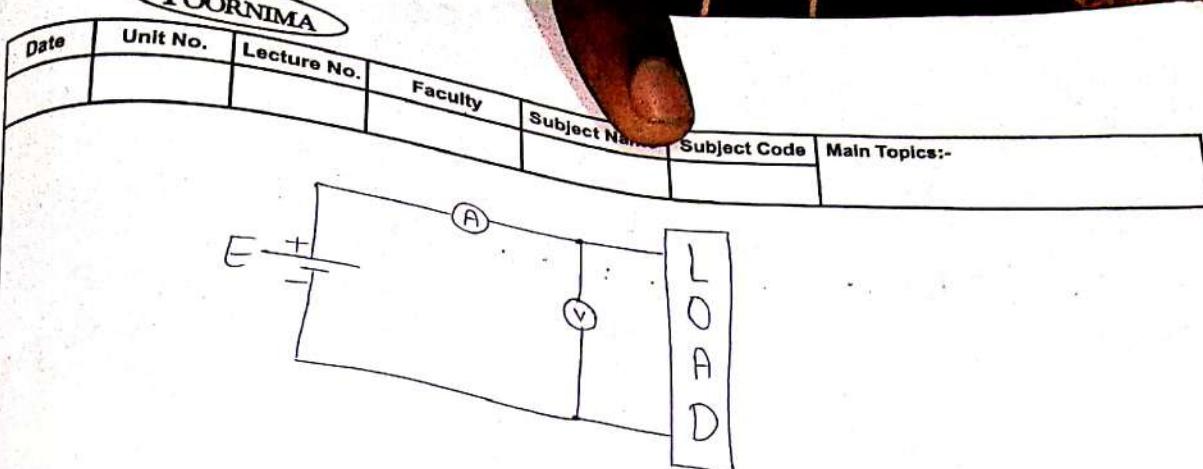
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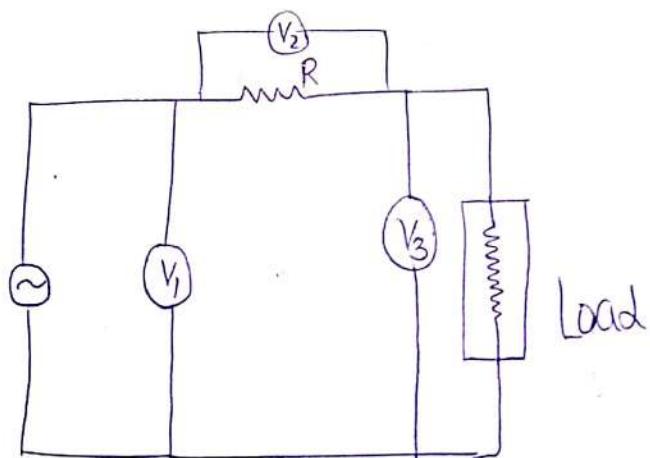
### \* Power Calculation in AC Circuits →

For AC circuit the Power is calculated by three methods

- ① Three voltmeter method
- ② Three Ammeter method
- ③ Wattmeter method

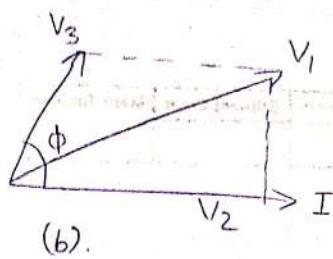
- ① Three Voltmeter method →

The Power in a single phase AC circuit can be measured using 3 Voltmeter as given in connection diagram



(a) Connection Diagram

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:



Assume that load is inductive  $V_1, V_2, V_3$  are load &  $R$  is purely non inductive resistance which is connected in series with the circuit.

$$V_1^2 = V_2^2 + V_3^2 + 2V_2V_3 \cos\phi$$

$$V_2 = IR$$

$$V_1^2 = V_2^2 + V_3^2 + 2 \times P \times R$$

$$P = V_3 I \cos\phi$$

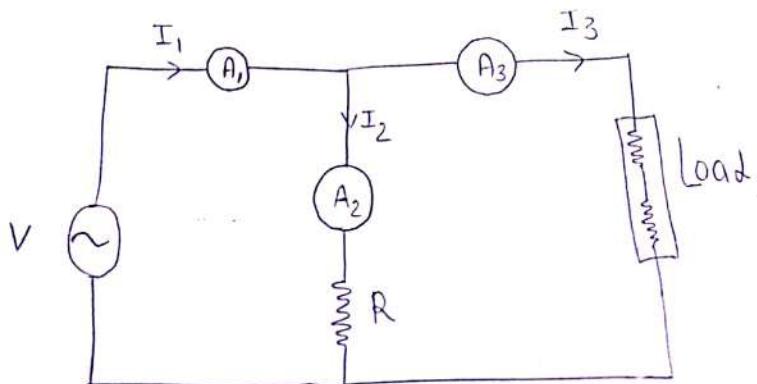
$$\cos\phi = \frac{V_1^2 - V_2^2 - V_3^2}{2V_2V_3} \Rightarrow P = \frac{V_1^2 - V_2^2 - V_3^2}{2R}$$

Note → Power calculated in AC Circuit is equal to  $P = V \cdot I \cdot \text{Power factor}$

From the above circuit the voltage  $V_1$  is the vector sum of  $V_2$  &  $V_3$  & represented with phasor diagram



### Three Ammeter Method →



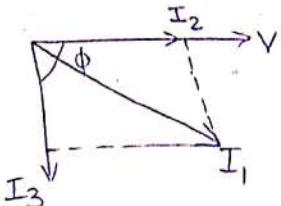
(a) Connection Diagram

Main Ideas, Question

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The circuit for measuring single phase power through the three ammeter method is given in connection diagram.

In this method a non inductive resistance  $R$  is connected across the inductive load with three Ammeter arrangements

From the phasor diagram the resistance current  $I_2$  is in phase with the voltage across the circuit.

The current  $I_3$  measured by Ammeter  $A_3$  lacks the voltage

by an angle of  $\phi$ .

$$I_1^2 = I_2^2 + I_3^2 + 2I_2I_3 \cos\phi$$

$$\text{And } I_2 = \frac{V}{R}$$

$$I_1^2 = I_2^2 + I_3^2 + 2 \frac{VI_3 \cos\phi}{R} \quad \therefore P = VI_3 \cos\phi$$

$$I_1^2 = I_2^2 + I_3^2 + \frac{2P}{R}$$

$$\frac{2P}{R} = I_1^2 - I_2^2 - I_3^2$$

$$P = \frac{R(I_1^2 - I_2^2 - I_3^2)}{2}$$

$$\cos\phi = \frac{I_1^2 - I_2^2 - I_3^2}{2I_2I_3}$$

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:-

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### ③ Wattmeter method →

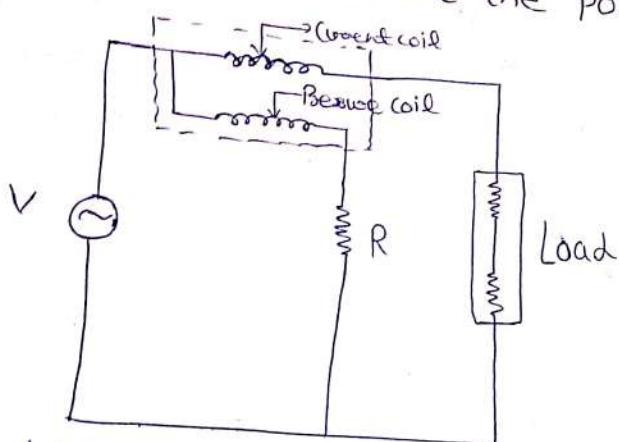
In order to measure the power through wattmeter we use wattmeter in the circuit.

Wattmeter has two coils

- ① Current coil
- ② Pressure coil

The load current must pass through the Current coil & hence it is connected in series with the load whereas pressure coil & hence it is connected across the load.

Wattmeter also measures the power like  $W = P = V \times I \times \cos\phi$



#### ★ Power measurement

Power can be measured in three phase circuit by wattmeter method.

Following methods are used to measuring the power in 3-φ circuit

- ① Single wattmeter method
- ② Two wattmeter method
- ③ Three wattmeter method

#### (i) Single Wattmeter method →

As name implies to measure power of single wattmeter requires only one wattmeter

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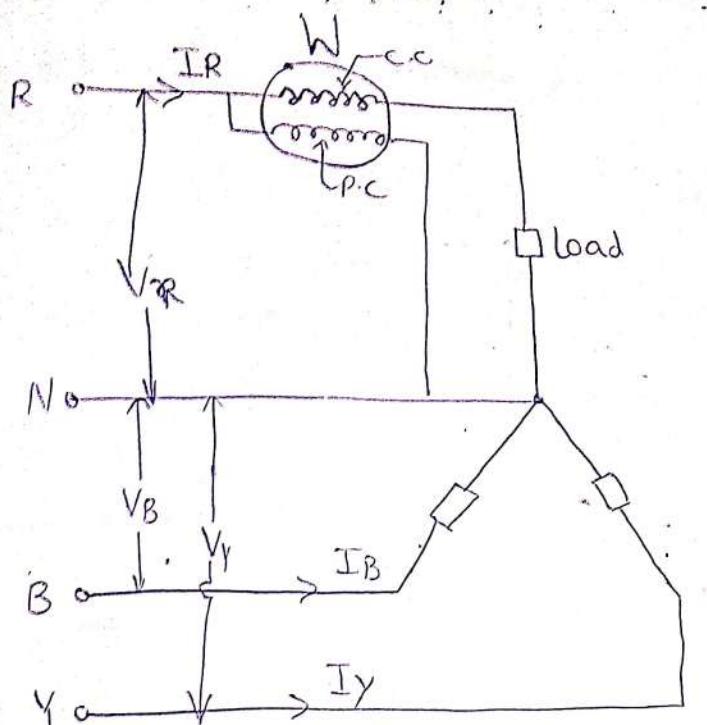
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This method can be used only if the load is balanced & are connected Star connection.



The reading of wattmeter ( $W$ ) =  $P_1 = V_R \cdot I_R \cdot \cos \phi$

As the load is balanced  $\Rightarrow V_R = V_Y = V_B = V_{Ph}$

And

$$I_R = I_Y = I_B = I_{Ph}$$

$$\text{So } P_1 = V_{Ph} \cdot I_{Ph} \cdot \cos \phi$$

And total Power  $P = 3P_1$

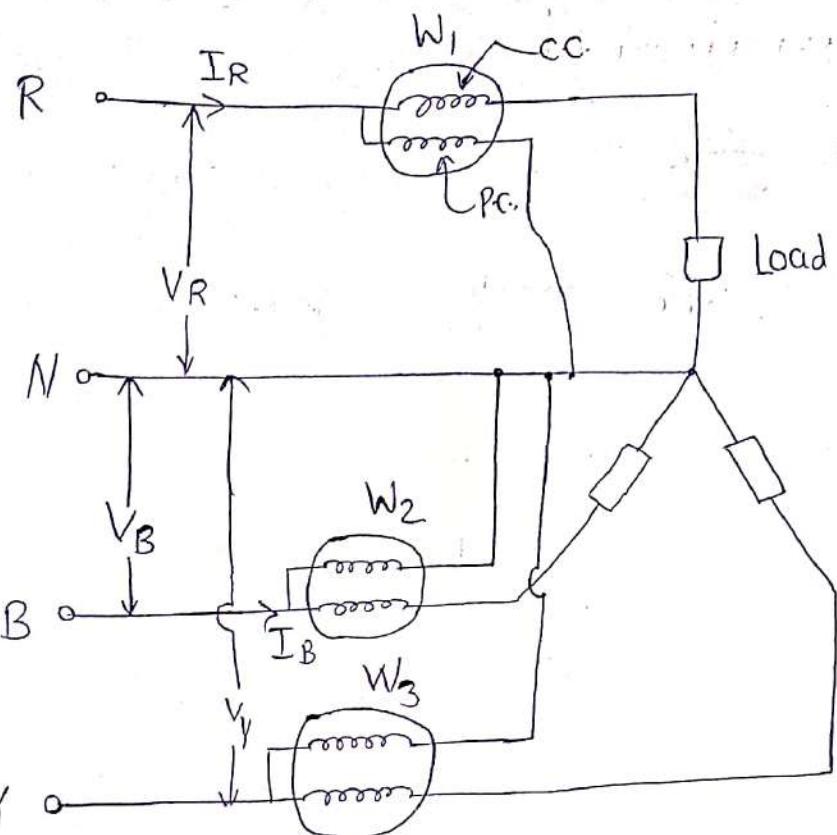
$$P = 3V_{Ph} \cdot I_{Ph} \cdot \cos \phi$$

Main Ideas, Questions & Summary:

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② Three Wattmeter Method →

This method can be used if the load is balanced as well as unbalanced when the connection is star connected.



$$\text{Reading of wattmeter } W_1 = \frac{P_1}{V}$$