

EEE 322

Electromechanical Energy Conversion – II

Prepared By

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Given By

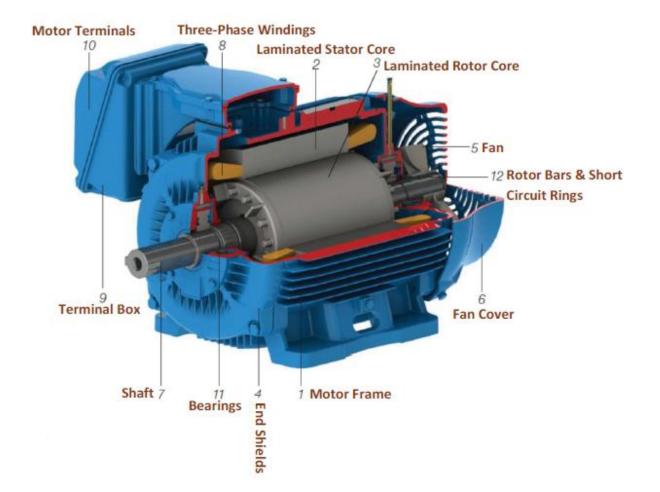
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CHAPTER 4

INDUCTION MOTORS

Induction motors



Induction motors

- So far we have seen that damping (amortisseur) windings on a synchronous motor could develop a starting torque without the necessity of supplying an external DC field current.
- So we can define "induction machine" as a machine with only damping (amortisseur) windings without supplying an external DC field current field.
- In induction machines, rotor voltage (which produces the rotor current and the rotor magnetic field B_R) is induced in the rotor windings.
- So, the **difference** between an *induction machine* and *synchronous machine* is that <u>no DC field current is</u> <u>required to run the induction machine</u>.
- The induction machine can be either used as a *motor* or a *generator*.
- Induction machines are also called "asynchronous machines".





Different size induction motors



0.5 Hp induction motor



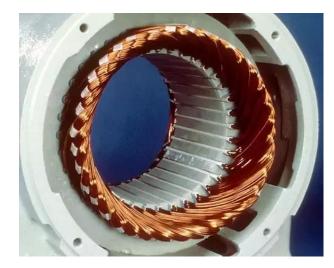
2 Hp, 400V induction motor



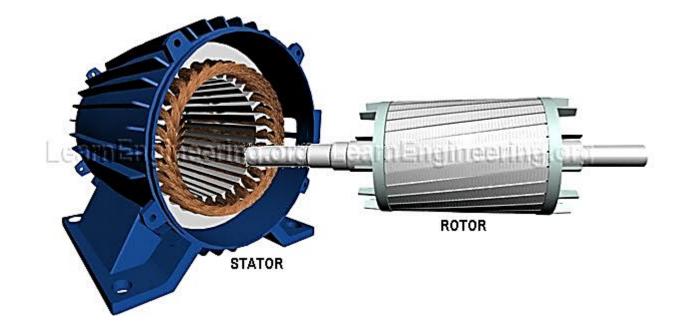
300 Hp, 460V induction motor

Induction motors

- An induction motor has the same physical stator as a synchronous machine.
- But, induction motor has a different rotor structure than a synchronous machine.

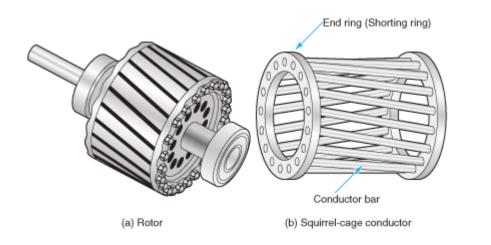


The stator of an induction motor

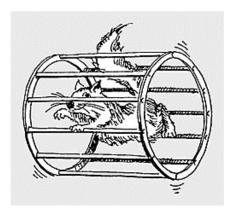


Rotor types of induction motors

- There are **two different types of rotors** which can be placed inside the stator of an induction motor:
 - Squirrel cage rotor
 - Wound rotor



Schematic diagram of squirrel cage rotor



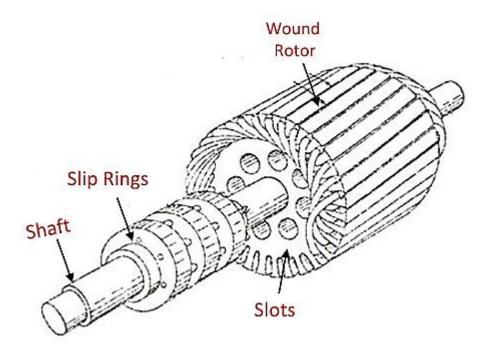
A squirrel running inside of a rotating cage



A real photo of a squirrel cage rotor

Rotor types of induction motors

- There are two different types of rotors which can be placed inside the stator of an induction motor:
 - Squirrel cage rotor
 - Wound rotor



Schematic diagram of wound rotor



A real photo of a wound rotor

Rotor types of induction motors

Squirrel Cage

Wound



Cheap

٠

- Requires less maintenance than wound rotor
- Used only in induction motors
- Can not be used in induction generators



Expensive •

- Usually Y-connected
- Extra resistance can be added to rotor circuit to modify torque-٠ speed characteristics
- requires much more maintenance than squirrel cage rotor ٠
- Can be used in wind turbines (**D**oubly **F**ed Induction **G**enerators) ٠

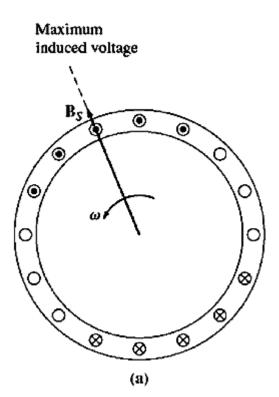
Development of induced torque

- A three-phase set of voltages has been applied to the stator.
- Then a three-phase set of stator currents is flowing in stator windings.
- These currents produce a magnetic field B_S , which is rotating in counterclockwise direction as shown in the figure.
- The rotating speed of *B_S* is given by:

$$n_{syn} = \frac{120f_e}{P}$$

where

- f_e is the frequency of the applied voltage to the stator windings (*Source frequency, 50 or 60 Hz*)
- *P* is the number of poles of the machine



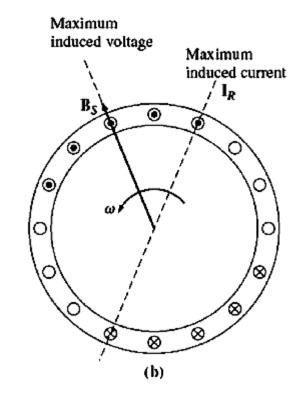
Development of induced torque

- This rotating magnetic field *B_S* passes over the rotor bars (*assuming squirrel cage rotor*) and induces a voltage on rotor bars.
- The induced voltage on a rotor bar is given by the equation:

 $e_{ind} = (v x B_S). l$

where

- v is the velocity of the bar relative to the magnetic field
- *l* is length of conductor in the magnetic field
- Since the rotor is mostly **inductive** $(X \gg R)$, the peak rotor current I_R lags behind the peak rotor voltage as shown in the figure.

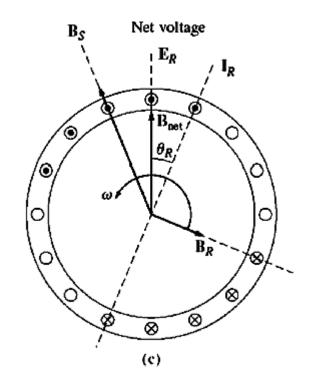


Development of induced torque

- The rotor current I_R flowing through the rotor bars produces a rotor magnetic field B_R .
- Rotor magnetic field B_R lags 90° behind itself as shown in the figure.
- B_R and B_S interacts to produce a counterclockwise torque induced in the machine, given by the following equation:

 $\tau_{ind} = k B_R x B_S$

• Since the induced torque is in the counterclockwise direction, the rotor starts to move in that direction.



Upper limit of rotor's speed

• There is a **finite upper limit** to the motor's speed. This can be explained as follows:

> If the rotor were turning at synchronous speed n_{syn} , then the rotor bars would be stationary relative to the rotating magnetic field B_S and hence v = 0

- > Then there would be no induced voltage, $e_{ind} = 0$
- > If $e_{ind} = 0$ then there would be no rotor current and no rotor magnetic field, $B_R = 0$.
- > With no rotor magnetic field, the induced torque $\tau_{ind} = 0$ would be zero.
- Since there is no induced torque on the rotor, the rotor starts to slow down as a result of friction losses.
- Thereby, an induction motor's speed is very close to the synchronous speed, but the speed of the rotor can never exactly reach synchronous speed.

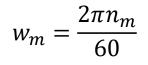
Rotor slip

- So far, we have understood that there is always a speed difference between rotating stator magnetic field and the rotor itself.
- The **slip speed** is defined as this speed difference, and given by the following equation:

 $n_{slip} = n_{syn} - n_m$

where

 n_{slip} is the slip speed of the induction machine n_{sync} is the speed of the stator rotating magnetic field B_S n_m is the mechanical shaft (rotor) speed of the induction machine



• **Slip** is defined as follows:

$$s = \frac{n_{slip}}{n_{syn}} x 100\% = \frac{n_{syn} - n_m}{n_{syn}} x 100\%$$
$$s = \frac{w_{slip}}{w_{syn}} x 100\% = \frac{w_{syn} - w_m}{w_{syn}} x 100\%$$

 $0 \le s \le 100\%$

- if the rotor turns at synchronous speed, s = 0
- If the rotor is stationary (not rotating), s = 1

Rotor slip

• Since;

$$s = \frac{n_{syn} - n_m}{n_{syn}} x100\%$$

• Solving the above equation for n_m yields;

 $n_m = (1 - s)n_{syn}$ The unit is **rev/min** or **rpm**

• Or;

 $w_m = (1 - s)w_{syn}$ The unit is **rad/sec**

Electrical frequency on the rotor

- An induction motor works by inducing voltages and currents in the rotor of the machine, and for that reason it
 has sometimes been called a "rotating transformer".
- Like a transformer, the **primary** (*stator*) induces a voltage in the *secondary* (*rotor*).
- But unlike a transformer, the **secondary frequency** is **not necessarily the same** as the **primary frequency**.
- If the rotor is locked (blocked) so that it cannot move, then the rotor will have the same frequency as the stator.
- If the rotor turns at synchronous speed, the frequency on the rotor will be zero.
- What will the rotor frequency be for any arbitrary rate of rotor rotation?
 - If $n_m = 0 \rightarrow s = 1 \rightarrow frequency of the voltage/current of the rotor (f_r) will be equal to the frequency of the three-phase applied voltage of the stator (f_e), f_r = f_e$
 - > If $n_m = n_{syn}$ → s = 0 → $f_r = 0$ (since no induced voltage)
 - > By combining the above two conditions we can derive an equation as follows: $f_r = sf_e$

Electrical frequency on the rotor

• Since;

 $f_r = sf_e$ and $s = \frac{n_{syn} - n_m}{n_{syn}}$

$$f_r = \frac{n_{syn} - n_m}{n_{syn}} f_e$$

• Moreover since;

$$n_{syn} = \frac{120f_e}{P}$$

$$f_r = \left(n_{syn} - n_m\right) \frac{P}{120f_e} f_e$$

$$f_r = \frac{P}{120} \left(n_{syn} - n_m \right)$$

Example:

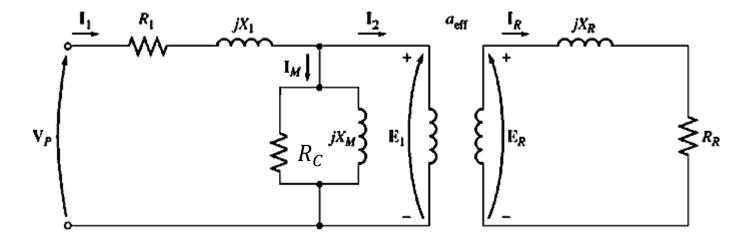
A 208-V, 10-hp, four-pole, 60-Hz, Y-connected induction motor has a full-load slip of 5 percent. Answer the following questions:

(a) What is the synchronous speed of this motor?(b) What is the rotor speed of this motor at the rated load?(c) What is the rotor frequency of this motor at the rated load?(d) What is the shaft torque of this motor at the rated load?

Equivalent circuit of an induction motor

- Since the voltages and currents in the rotor circuit of an induction motor is essentially generated like a transformer operation, the equivalent circuit of an induction motor can be accepted to be **very similar** to the equivalent circuit of a **transformer**.
- An induction motor is called a **singly excited machine** (*as opposed to a doubly excited synchronous machine*), since power is supplied to **only the stator circuit**.
- Because an induction motor does not have an independent field circuit, its model will not contain an internal
 voltage source such as the internal generated voltage E_A in a synchronous machine.

Transformer model of an induction motor

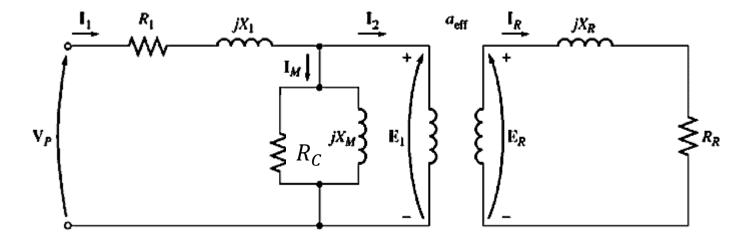


 V_P is the **per-phase** stator voltage (Amper-*rms*) I_1 is the **phase current** of the stator (Amper-*rms*) R_1 is the **per-phase** stator **resistance** (*ohm*) X_1 is the **per-phase** stator **leakage reactance** (*ohm*) R_C is the **resistance** used to model **core losses** of the induction motor (*hysteresis* + *eddy current losses*) (*ohm*)

 X_M is the magnetizing reactance of the stator (ohm)

 I_M is the **magnetizing current** of the stator (*ohm*)

Transformer model of an induction motor



 I_R is the equivalent rotor **current** (Amper-*rms*)

 R_R is the **per-phase** rotor equivalent **resistance** (*ohm*)

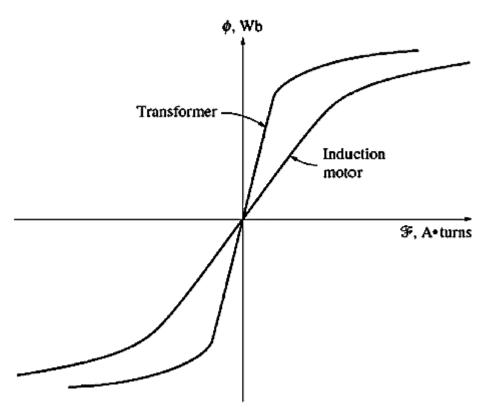
 X_R is the **per-phase** rotor **leakage reactance** (*ohm*)

 E_R is the induced per-phase equivalent rotor voltage (Volt-*rms*)

 a_{eff} is the effective turns ratio between stator and rotor

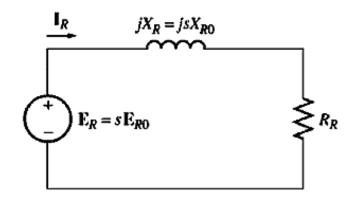
Comparison of the magnetization curve of an induction motor with a transformer

- The difference shown in figure is due to the **air gap** between rotor and stator in the induction motor.
- Because, **air gap** greatly **increases** the **reluctance** of the flux path and therefore reduces the coupling between primary and secondary windings.
- The higher reluctance means that a higher magnetizing current is required to obtain a given flux level.
- Therefore, the magnetizing reactance X_M in the equivalent circuit is much smaller than that of an ordinary transformer.



The magnetization curve of an induction motor compared to that of a transformer

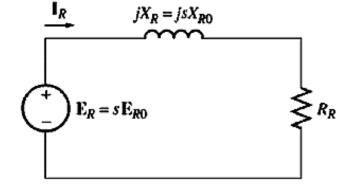
- When a voltage is applied to the stator windings, a voltage is induced in the rotor windings of an induction motor.
- The greater the relative motion between the rotor and the stator magnetic fields, the greater the resulting rotor voltage and rotor frequency.
- The largest relative motion occurs when the rotor is stationary (s=1), called the "locked-rotor" or "blockedrotor" condition, so the largest voltage and rotor frequency are induced in the rotor at that condition.
- The smallest voltage (0V) and frequency (0Hz) occur when the rotor moves at the same speed as the stator magnetic field, resulting in no relative motion (s=0).
- The magnitude and frequency of the voltage induced in the rotor at any speed (0 ≤ s ≤ 1) is directly proportional to the slip of the rotor, s:



The rotor circuit model of an induction motor

• Therefore, induced per-phase equivalent rotor voltage (E_R) can be written as follows:

 $E_R = s. E_{R0}$



The rotor circuit model of an induction motor

where

 E_{R0} is the maximum possible value of rotor voltage obtained at **s=1** (*rotor is stationary*)

• So;

$$First At s=1 \Rightarrow E_R = E_{R0}$$

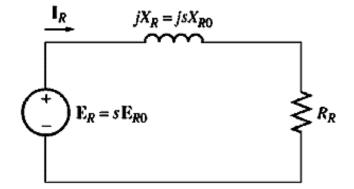
$$First At s=0 \Rightarrow E_R = 0$$

• Similary, the frequency of the induced voltage/current in the rotor (f_R) can be written as follows:

 $f_R = s.f_e$

• So;

At s=1 → $f_R = f_e$ At s=0 → $f_R = 0$



The rotor circuit model of an induction motor

• The rotor reactance depends on the inductance of the rotor and the frequency of the voltage/current in the rotor.

 X_{R0}

• The rotor reactance can be written as follows:

where

- L_R is the inductance of the rotor
- X_{R0} is the locked rotor reactance

• The rotor current can be found as

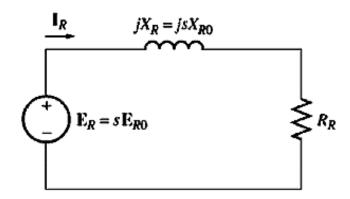
$$\mathbf{I}_{R} = \frac{\mathbf{E}_{R}}{R_{R} + jX_{R}}$$
$$\mathbf{I}_{R} = \frac{\mathbf{E}_{R}}{R_{R} + jsX_{R0}}$$

$$\mathbf{I}_R = \frac{\mathbf{E}_{R0}}{R_R/s + jX_{R0}}$$

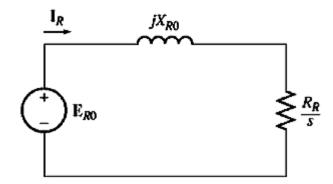
• Now the equivalent rotor impedance from this point of view can be written as:

 $Z_{R,eq} = R_R/s + jX_{R0}$

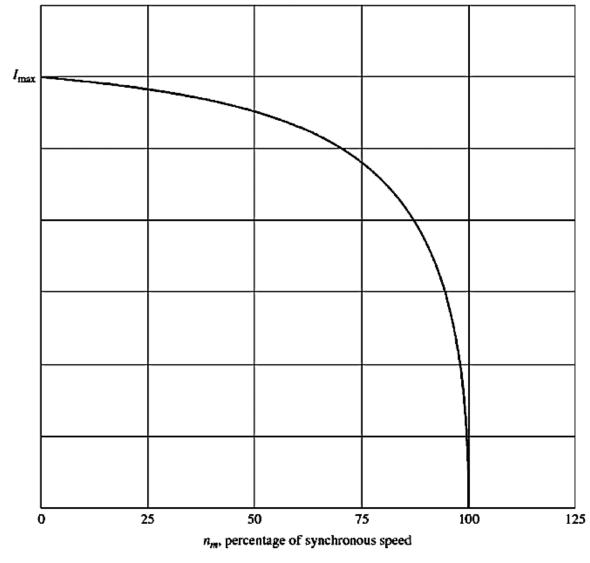
• The final modified equivalent circuit of the rotor can be redrawn as shown in the figure



The rotor circuit model of an induction motor



The rotor circuit model with all the frequency (slip) effects concentrated in the resistor



Rotor current

Rotor current as a function of rotor speed

Final equivalent circuit of induction motor

- To produce the **final per-phase equivalent circuit** for an **induction motor**, **rotor circuit is <u>referred</u> to stator side**.
- In a transformer, the voltages, currents, and impedances on the secondary side can be referred to the primary side by means of the turns ratio of the transformer.
- These referring actions are given by the following equations:

$$\mathbf{V}_{P} = \mathbf{V}_{S}' = a\mathbf{V}_{S}$$
$$\mathbf{I}_{P} = \mathbf{I}_{S}' = \frac{\mathbf{I}_{S}}{a}$$
$$Z_{S}' = a^{2}Z_{S}$$

• The same sort of transformation can also be done for the induction motor's rotor circuit:

Final equivalent circuit of induction motor

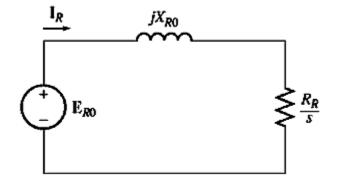
- The same sort of transformation can also be done for the induction motor's rotor circuit:
 - $\mathbf{E}_1 = \mathbf{E}'_R = a_{\text{eff}} \mathbf{E}_{R0}$ (The **rotor voltage** referred to **stator**)

$$I_2 = \frac{I_R}{a_{eff}}$$
 (The **rotor current** referred to **stator**)

$$Z_2 = a_{\text{eff}}^2 \left(\frac{R_R}{s} + jX_{R0}\right)$$
 (The **rotor impedance** referred to **stator**)

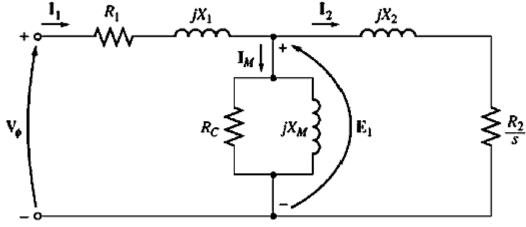
$$R_2 = a_{\text{eff}}^2 R_R$$

 $X_2 = a_{\text{eff}}^2 X_{R0}$ (The rotor resistance and reactance referred to stator)



Final equivalent circuit of induction motor

• The final per-phase equivalent circuit of the induction motor is shown in the figure.



The per-phase equivalent circuit of an induction motor

- Rotor resistance (R_R) and the locked-rotor rotor reactance (X_{R0}) are very difficult (or impossible) to determine directly on cage rotors.
- Effective turns ratio (*a_{eff}*) is also difficult to obtain for cage rotors.
- But we can estimate the values of **referred rotor resistance** (R_2) and **reactance** (X_2) with some tests.

Input power of an induction motor

• The input power (*P*_{in}) of induction motor is in the form of three-phase electrical power:

 $P_{in} = \sqrt{3}V_T I_L \cos(\theta)$ $P_{in} = 3V_{\phi} I_{ph} \cos(\theta)$ (Either of them can be used)

where;

V_T is the terminal voltage (or line voltage or line-to-line voltage) of the stator

 I_L is the **line current** of the stator

V_Ø is the **phase voltage** (or *line-to-neutral voltage*) of the stator

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I_{\emptyset} is the phase current of the stator
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\theta is the phase angle between V_{\emptyset} and I_{\emptyset}
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 $cos(\theta)$ is the **power factor** of the induction motor (it is <u>always lagging</u> for an **induction motor**)

Output power of an induction motor

• **The output power** (*P*_{out}) of induction motor is in the form of **mechanical power**:

 $P_{out} = \tau_{load} w_m$

where;

 au_{load} is the load torque on the shaft (or rotor) (Nm)

 w_m is the **angular speed of the rotor** (rad/sec)

• The efficiency of an induction motor can be calculated as follows:

 $\eta = \frac{P_{out}}{P_{in}} \times 100\% \qquad \qquad (0 < \eta < 100\%) \\ (P_{out} < P_{in}, \text{ because of } losses)$

Losses of an induction motor

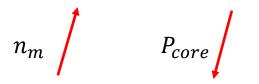
- There are **five different losses** in an induction motor:
- Stator copper losses (*P_{SCL}*): These losses occur as a result of heating of the stator windings because of current flow:
- Core losses (*P_{CORE}*): These losses occur as a result of hysteresis losses and eddy current losses in the stator.
- Rotor copper losses (P_{RCL}): These losses occur as a result of heating of the rotor bars/windings because of current flow:
- Friction and windage losses ($P_{F\&W}$): These losses are mechanical losses due to rotation of the rotor side.
- Stray losses (*P_{stray}*): These losses are the losses occurring in the induction motor that can not be identified exactly.
 Stray losses can be sometimes assumed to be zero.

Losses of an induction motor

• Generally, the higher the speed of an induction motor, the higher its friction/windage, and stray losses.



• On the other hand, the **higher the speed** of the motor (*up to synchronous speed*), the **lower its core losses**.

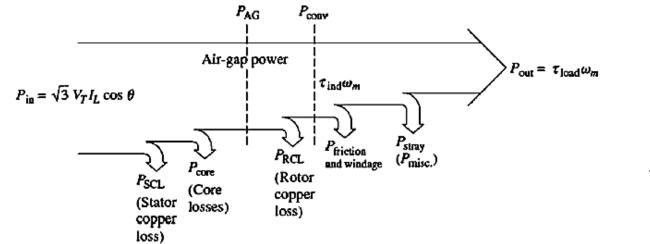


- These three losses can be together encountered as "rotational losses"
- Since they change oppositely as speed changes, their sum is assumed to be constant (independent of speed)

$$P_{rotational \ losses} = P_{F\&W} + P_{stray} + P_{core} \cong constant$$

Power flow diagram of an induction motor

Finally, the power flow diagram of an induction motor is shown in the figure:



 $\tau_{\rm ind} = \frac{P_{\rm conv}}{\omega_m}$ (induced torque=developed torque)

 $\tau_{ind} > \tau_{load}$ (Because of the $P_{F\&W}$ and P_{styray} losses)

 $P_{AG} = P_{in} - (P_{SCL} + P_{core})$ (Air-gap power)

$$P_{conv} = P_{in} - (P_{SCL} + P_{core} + P_{RCL})$$
$$P_{conv} = P_{AG} - P_{RCL}$$

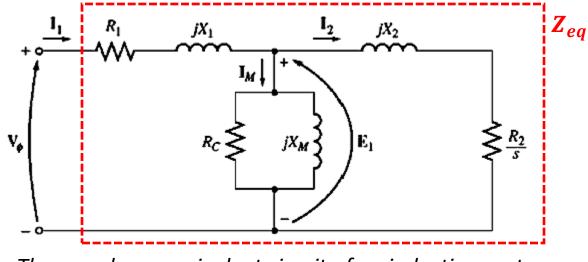
 $P_{out} = P_{conv} - (P_{F\&W} + P_{stray})$

Converted power (P_{conv}) is sometimes called as "*developed mechanical power*" and it is the power when **stator copper losses**, **core losses**, and **rotor copper losses** are **subtracted** from the **input power**.

Example:

A 480-V, 60-Hz, 50-hp, three-phase induction motor is drawing 60 A at 0.85 PF lagging. The stator copper losses are 2 kW, and the rotor copper losses are 700 W. The friction and windage losses are 600 W, the core losses are 1800 W, and the stray losses are negligible. Find the following quantities:

(a) The air-gap power(b) The power converted(c) The output power(d) The efficiency of the motor



The per-phase equivalent circuit of an induction motor

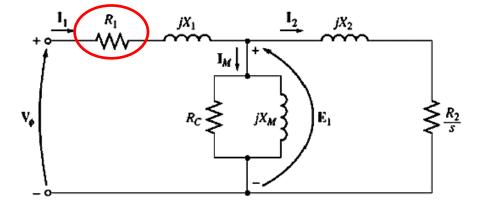
$$I_1 = \frac{V_{\phi}}{Z_{eq}}$$
 (Per-phase stator current)

$$Z_{eq} = R_1 + jX_1 + \frac{1}{G_C - jB_M + \frac{1}{\frac{R_2}{s} + jX_2}}$$
 (Per-phase equivalent impedance)

 $G_C = 1/R_C$ $B_M = 1/jX_M$

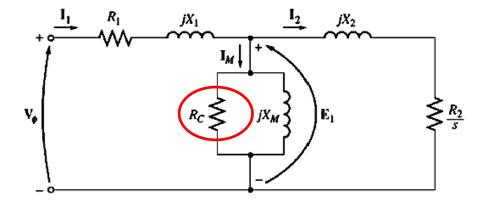
• Stator copper losses can be calculated as:

 $P_{SCL} = 3R_1 I_1^2$ (Watts)



• **Core losses** can be calculated as:

$$P_{core} = \frac{3E_1^2}{R_C} = 3G_C E_1^2$$
 (Watts)



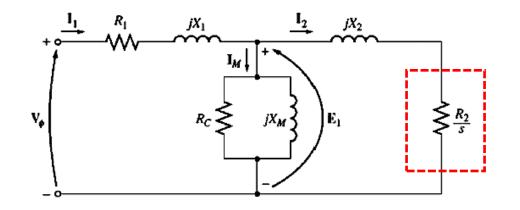
• Air-gap power was given previously as:

 $P_{AG} = P_{in} - (P_{SCL} + P_{core})$

• An alternative equation for the air-gap power can also be written as:

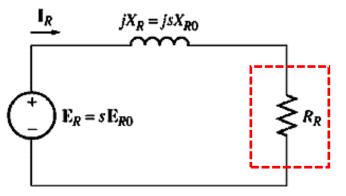
$$P_{AG} = 3I_2^2 \frac{R_2}{s}$$

Because the circuit element that can **consume** only the **real power** on the rotor side (P_{AG}) is the **resistive element** ($\frac{R_2}{s}$)



• The actual resistive losses in the rotor circuit are given by:

 $P_{RCL} = 3R_R {I_R}^2$

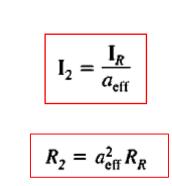


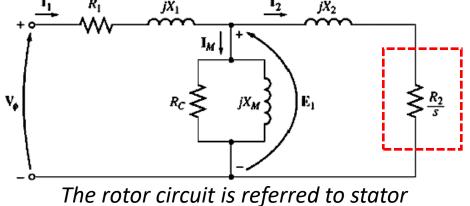
The actual rotor circuit model

 After referring the rotor circuit to the stator, the above equation is modified as follows:

$$P_{RCL} = 3R_R I_R^2$$
$$P_{RCL} = 3\frac{R_2}{a_{eff}^2} I_2^2 a_{eff}^2$$

 $P_{RCL} = 3R_2 {I_2}^2$





• Converted power can be formulated as:

$$P_{\text{conv}} = P_{\text{AG}} - P_{\text{RCL}}$$
$$= 3I_2^2 \frac{R_2}{s} - 3I_2^2 R_2$$
$$= 3I_2^2 R_2 \left(\frac{1}{s} - 1\right)$$
$$P_{\text{conv}} = 3I_2^2 R_2 \left(\frac{1-s}{s}\right)$$

• Since we already found that:

$$P_{RCL} = 3R_2 I_2^2$$

$$P_{RCL} = sP_{AG}$$

$$P_{Conv} = P_{AG} - P_{RCL}$$

$$= P_{AG} - sP_{AG}$$

$$P_{RCL} = sP_{AG}$$

$$P_{Conv} = (1 - s)P_{AG}$$

The lower the slip of the motor, the lower the rotor losses.

➢ if the rotor is not turning (s=1), the air-gap power is entirely consumed in the rotor (
$$P_{AG} = P_{RCL}$$
).

• Since;

$$\tau_{\rm ind} = \frac{P_{\rm conv}}{\omega_m}$$

(previously defined)

 $w_m = (1-s)w_{syn}$

 $P_{\rm conv} = (1 - s)P_{\rm AG}$

• We can also write an **alternative formula** for the **induced torque** as follows:

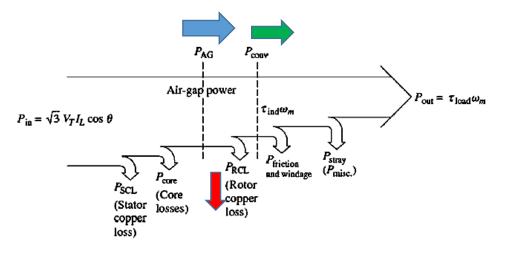
$$\tau_{\text{ind}} = \frac{(1 - s)P_{\text{AG}}}{(1 - s)\omega_{\text{sync}}}$$
$$\tau_{\text{ind}} = \frac{P_{\text{AG}}}{\omega_{\text{sync}}}$$

Separating rotor copper losses and converted power in an induction motor's equivalent circuit

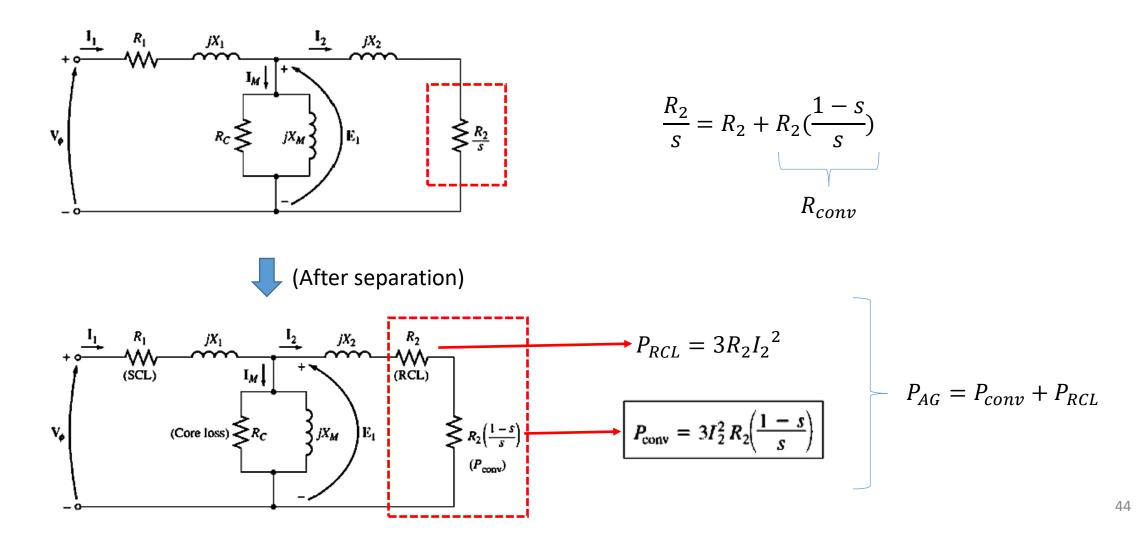
• Major part of the **air-gap power** is the **converted power**, while the **smaller part** is the **rotor copper losses**:

 $P_{AG} = P_{conv} + P_{RCL}$

 So, it is possible to express the air-gap power as two different circuit elements in the equivalent circuit of the induction motor.



Separating rotor copper losses and converted power in an induction motor's equivalent circuit



Example:

A **460-V**, **25-hp**, **60-Hz**, **four-pole**, **Y-connected** induction motor has the following impedances in ohms per phase referred to the stator circuit:

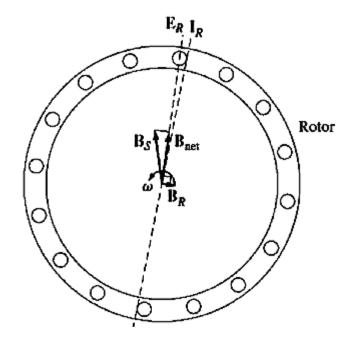
- R1 = 0.641 ohm X1 = 1.106 ohm R2 = 0.332 ohm
- X2 = 0.464 ohm
- XM = 26.3 ohm

The total **rotational losses** are **1100** W and are assumed to be **constant**. The core loss is lumped in with the rotational losses. For a **rotor slip of 2.2 percent** at the **rated voltage and rated frequency**. Find the motor's

(a) Speed

- (b) Stator current
- (c) Power factor
- (d) Converted power and output power
- (e) Induced torque and load torque
- (f) Efficiency

- The figure shows a cage-rotor induction motor that is initially operating at no load.
- Because of no-load condition, the rotor speed is very close to synchronous speed (s≈0).
- Bnet is mainly produced by the magnetization current *I_M*.
- The magnitude of the **magnetization current** I_M is proportional to E_1 .
- The voltage drop on the elements $(R_1 + jX_1)$ is relatively very small and hence **Bnet** is approximately <u>constant</u> as **load changes**.
- At no-load, the relative motion between the rotor and the stator magnetic field is very small and hence the voltage induced on rotor bars (*E_R*) and the rotor frequency (*f_r*) are also very small.
- Since *E_R* is very small, the rotor current (*I_R*) is also very small and *B_R* is also very small (as seen in the figure)

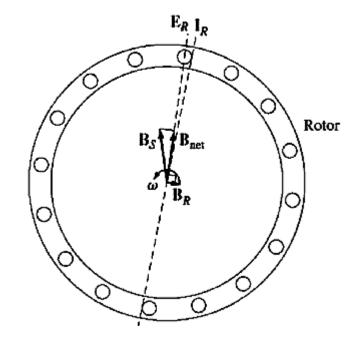


- Since at no-load (s≈0), the rotor frequency (f_r) is very small, the rotor reactance becomes also very small (X_R = 2πf_RL_R).
- Since X_R is too small, the rotor circuit becomes resistive $(R_R + jX_R)$ and E_R and I_R are almost in-phase at no-load.
- At **no-load**, the **induced torque** just keeps the rotor turning, and is given by the following equation:

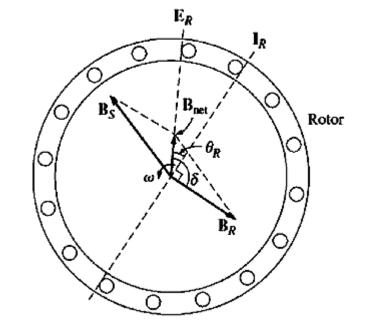
 $\tau_{\rm ind} = k \mathbf{B}_R \times \mathbf{B}_{\rm net}$

 $\tau_{\rm ind} = k \mathbf{B}_R \mathbf{B}_{\rm net} \sin \delta$

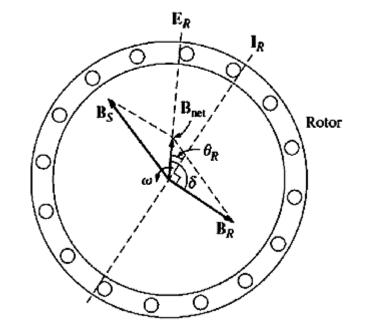
• Since B_R is too small, the **induced torque** is also **quite small**, just large enough to overcome the motor's rotational losses.



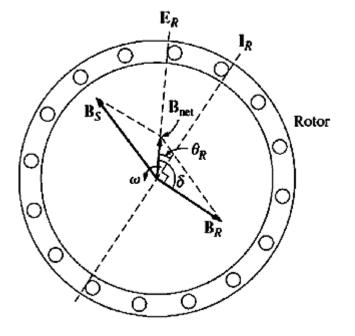
- Now suppose that a **load is attached** to the induction motor.
- As the motor's load increases, the speed drops and hence slip increases.
- Since the **rotor speed is slower**, there is now more relative motion between the **rotor** and the **stator magnetic fields**.
- This greater relative motion produces a stronger rotor voltage (E_R) which in turn produces a larger rotor current.
- With a larger rotor current (I_R) the rotor magnetic field (B_R) also increases.
- Since the rotor slip is larger now, the rotor frequency rises. $(f_R = sf_e)$
- As a result, the **rotor's reactance increases** ($X_R = 2\pi f_R L_R$).



- The rotor current now lags further behind the rotor voltage.
- Also the **angle** of the rotor magnetic **increases**. (Becomes much larger than 90 degrees).
- The increase in (B_R) tends to increase the torque, while the increase in the angle tends to decrease the torque ($\delta > 90$)
- Since the **first effect is larger than the second one**, the overall induced torque **increases** as the load of the motor is increased.

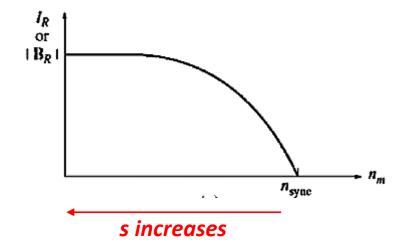


- What is the **upper limit** of this torque increase ?
- The maximum induced torque is defined as "pullout torque"
- This happens when the point is reached where, as the load on the shaft is increased, the $sin(\delta)$ term decreases more than the B_R term increases.
- At that point, a further increase in load decreases the induced torque and the motor stops.
- If we do not reduce stator voltage immediately at this point, the stator windings will be damaged because of very large current flow

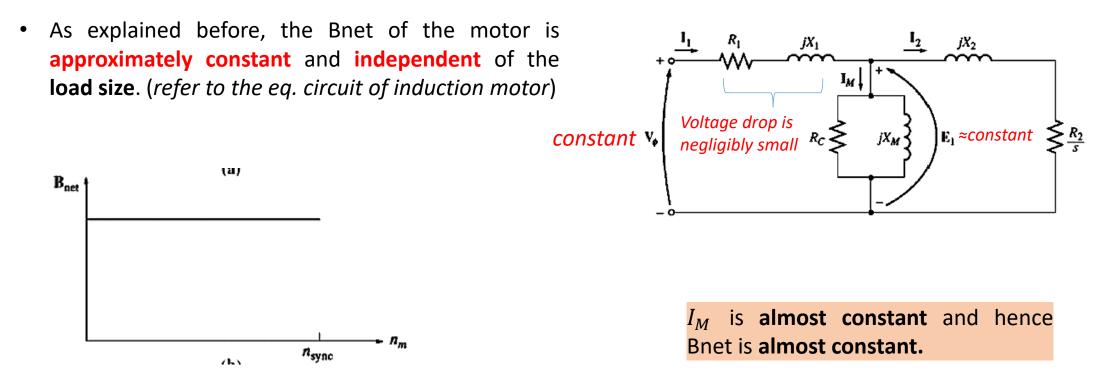


- The rotor magnetic field is directly proportional to the current flowing in the rotor, as long as the rotor is unsaturated.
- The current flow in the rotor increases with increasing slip (*decreasing speed*) according to the following equation:

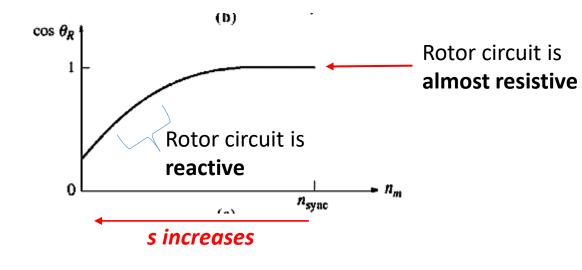
$$\mathbf{I}_R = \frac{\mathbf{E}_{R0}}{R_R/s + jX_{R0}}$$



The plot of rotor current versus speed for an induction motor.



Plot of net magnetic field versus speed for the motor



$$E_R$$

 B_S B_{net}
 ω δ
 B_R
 δ
 B_R

 $\delta = \theta_R + 90^\circ$

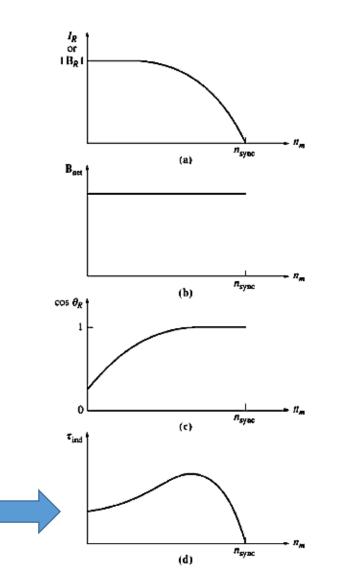
$$\sin \delta = \sin \left(\theta_R + 90^\circ \right) = \cos \theta_R.$$

• Since the induced torque equation is given as:

 $\tau_{\rm ind} = k \mathbf{B}_R \times \mathbf{B}_{\rm net}$

 $\tau_{\rm ind} = k \mathbf{B}_R \mathbf{B}_{\rm net} \sin \delta$

Three parameters can be graphically multiplied to obtain torque-speed chararacteristics

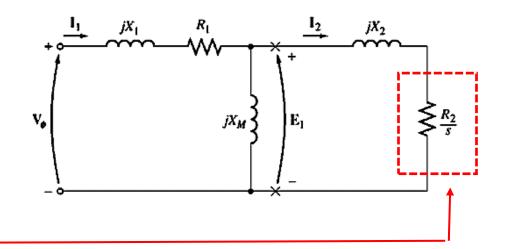


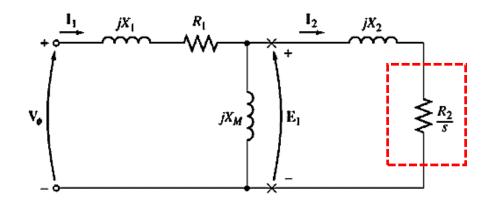
The resulting **torque-speed characteristic** of an **induction motor**

- It is possible to use the equivalent circuit of an induction motor and the power flow diagram for the motor to derive a general expression for induced torque as a function of speed.
- So far, the **induced torque** equation is given as:

 $r_{\rm ind} = \frac{\frac{P_{\rm conv}}{\omega_m}}{Or}$ $r_{\rm ind} = \frac{P_{\rm AG}}{\omega_{\rm sync}}$

The **air-gap power** is the power **crossing the gap** from the stator circuit to the rotor circuit. It is equal to the power absorbed in the resistance **R2/s**.





• The airgap power of one phase of the motor:

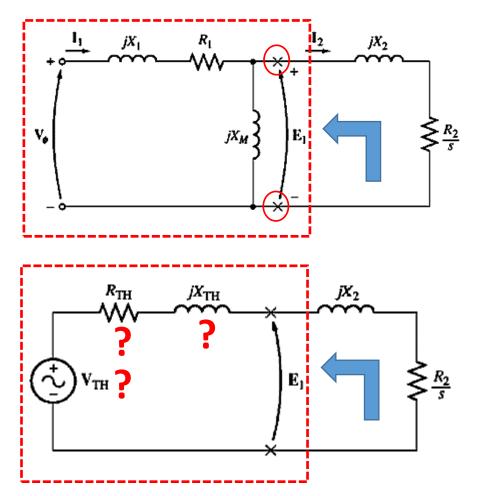
$$P_{\rm AG,1\phi} = I_2^2 \frac{R_2}{s}$$

• The total (three-phase) airgap power of the motor:

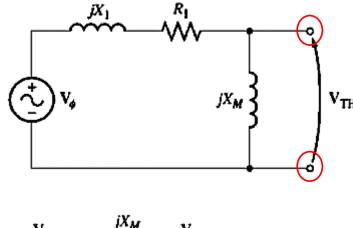
$$P_{\rm AG} = 3I_2^2 \frac{R_2}{s}$$

• If we are able to calculate I_2 , we can find P_{AG}

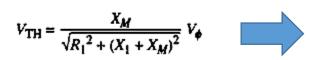
• One efficient way to find *I*₂ is to use **Thevenin's theorem**:



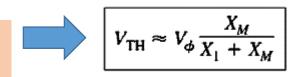
• Thevenin's voltage can be calculated by leaving the terminals open-circuit:



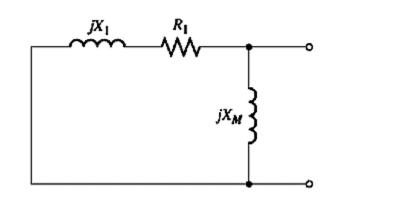
- $V_{TH} = \frac{jX_M}{R_1 + jX_1 + jX_M} V_{\phi}$
- The **magnitude** (*rms*) of Thevenin's voltage is written as:

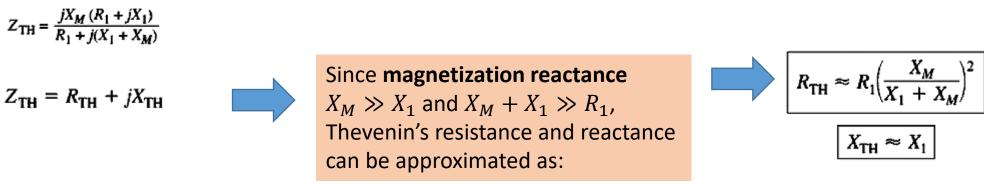


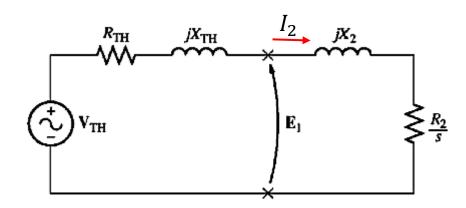
Since magnetization reactance $X_M \gg X_1$ and $X_M \gg R_1$, Thevenin's voltage can be approximated as:



• Thevenin's equivalent impedance can be calculated by killing the voltage source:







$$\boxed{V_{\rm TH} \approx V_{\phi} \frac{X_M}{X_1 + X_M}}$$

$$\boxed{ R_{\rm TH} \approx R_1 \Big(\frac{X_M}{X_1 + X_M} \Big)^2 } \\ \boxed{ X_{\rm TH} \approx X_1 }$$

$$I_2 = \frac{V_{TH}}{R_{TH} + R_2 / s + jX_{TH} + jX_2}$$

The magnitude of this current is ٠

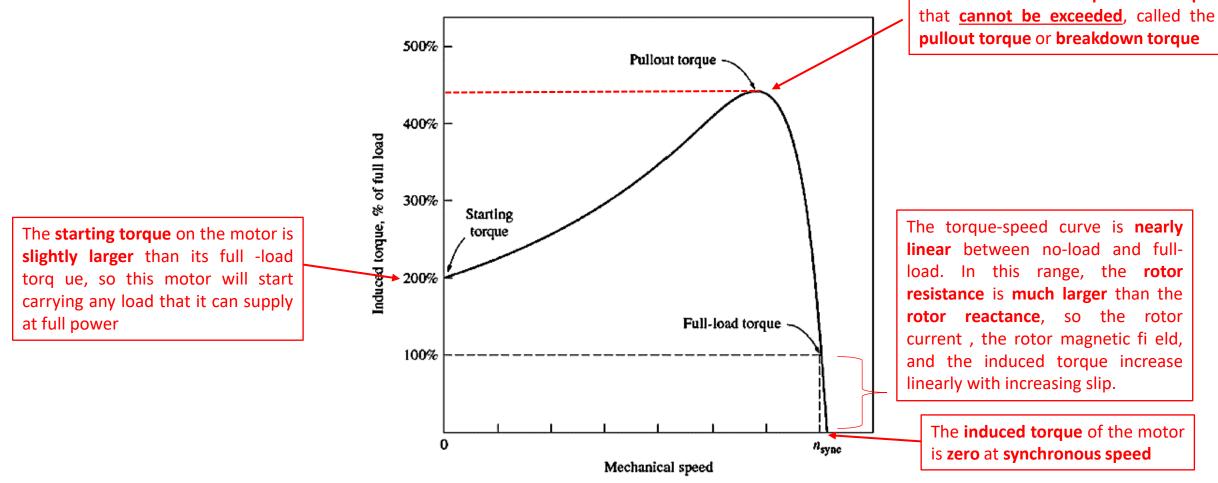
$$I_2 = \frac{V_{\rm TH}}{\sqrt{(R_{\rm TH} + R_2/s)^2 + (X_{\rm TH} + X_2)^2}}$$

The **air-gap power** is therefore given by ٠

$$P_{\rm AG} = 3I_2^2 \frac{R_2}{s} = \frac{3V_{\rm TH}^2 R_2/s}{(R_{\rm TH} + R_2/s)^2 + (X_{\rm TH} + X_2)^2}$$

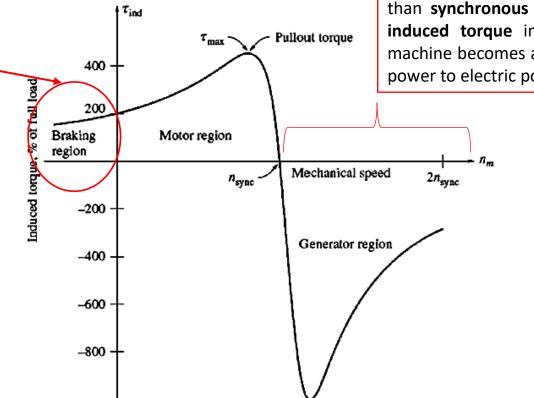
And the **induced torque** is given by ٠

$$\tau_{\rm ind} = \frac{P_{\rm AG}}{\omega_{\rm sync}} = \frac{3V_{\rm TH}^2 R_2/s}{\omega_{\rm sync}[(R_{\rm TH} + R_2/s)^2 + (X_{\rm TH} + X_2)^2]}$$

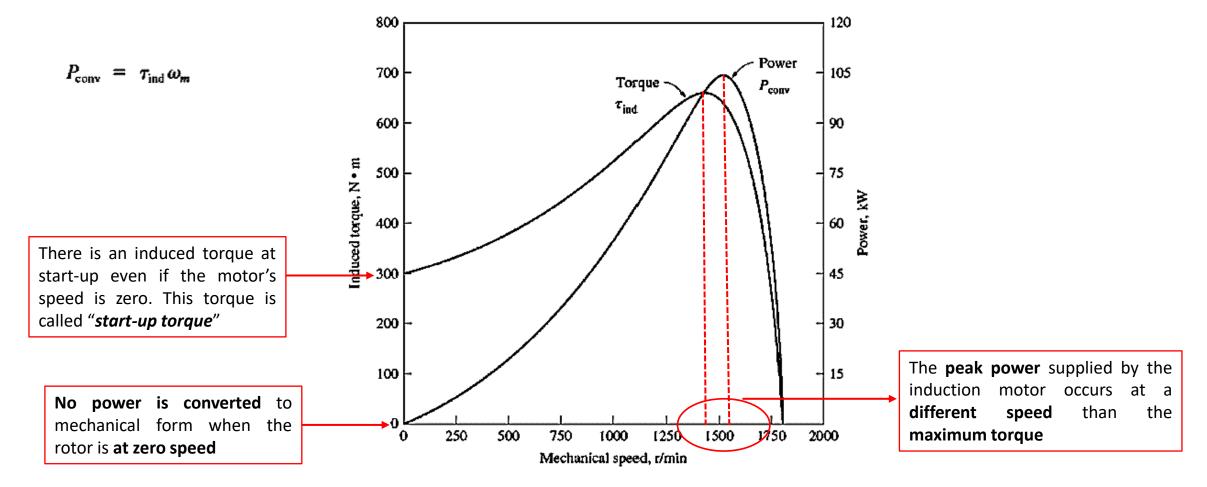


A typical induction motor torque-speed characteristics

If the motor is turning backward relative to the direction of the magnetic fields, the induced torque in the machine will stop the machine very rapidly and will try to rotate it in the other direction. Since reversing the direction of magnetic field rotation is simply a matter of switching any two stator phases, this fact can be used as a way to very rapidly stop an induction motor. The act of switching two phases in order to stop the motor very rapidly is called "*plugging*"



If the rotor of the induction motor is driven **faster** than **synchronous speed**, then the **direction of the induced torque** in the machine **reverses** and the machine becomes a **generator**, converting mechanical power to electric power (*induction generator*).

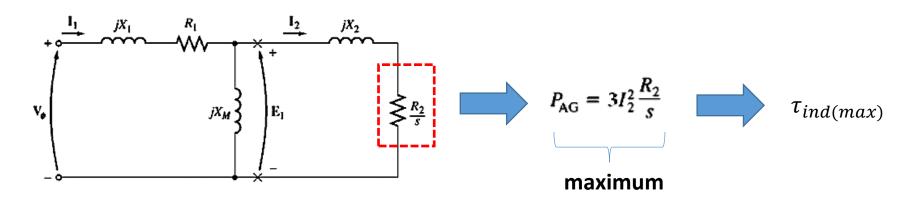


• The **induced torque** is given as:

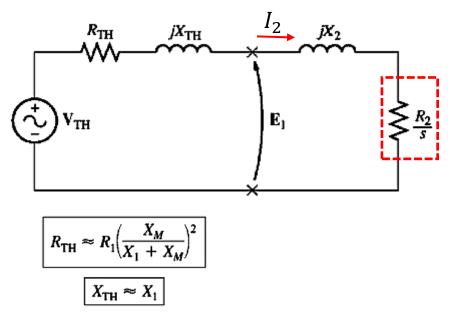
$$\tau_{ind} = \frac{P_{AG}}{w_{syn}}$$

• The maximum possible torque occurs when the air-gap power is maximum. (Synchronous speed is constant)

• Since the **air-gap power** is equal to the **power consumed in the resistor R2/s**, the **maximum induced torque** will occur when the **power consumed by that resistor is maximum**.



- So when is the power supplied to R2/s becomes maximum ?
- The maximum power transfer theorem states that maximum power transfer to the load resistor R2/s will occur when the magnitude of this resistance is equal to the magnitude of the source impedance:



$$Z_{\text{source}} = R_{\text{TH}} + jX_{\text{TH}} + jX_2$$

• Since **induced torque** is given by:

$$\tau_{\rm ind} = \frac{3V_{\rm TH}^2 R_2/s}{\omega_{\rm sync} [(R_{\rm TH} + R_2/s)^2 + (X_{\rm TH} + X_2)^2]}$$

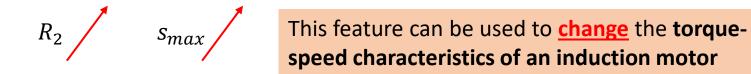
• We can find the **pullout torque** by inserting $s = s_{max}$ in the above equation:

$$s_{\max} = \frac{R_2}{\sqrt{R_{\text{TH}}^2 + (X_{\text{TH}} + X_2)^2}}$$

$$\tau_{\rm max} = \frac{3V_{\rm TH}^2}{2\omega_{\rm sync}[R_{\rm TH} + \sqrt{R_{\rm TH}^2 + (X_{\rm TH} + X_2)^2]}}$$

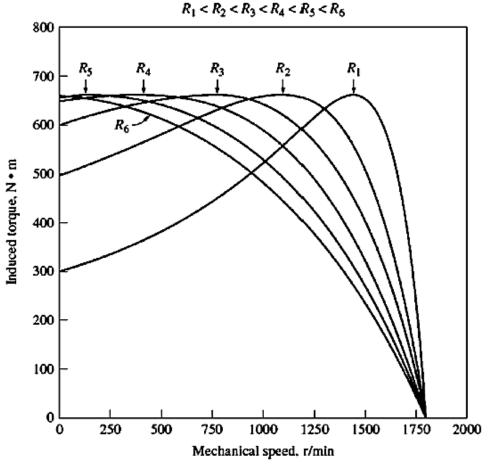
 Since the referred rotor resistance R2 appears only in the numerator, so the slip of the rotor at maximum torque becomes directly proportional to the rotor resistance:





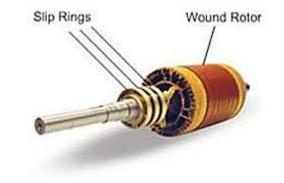
- Inserting a resistance into the rotor circuit of a <u>wound</u> rotor induction motor <u>changes</u> the torque-speed characteristics.
- This can be done using **slip rings**.
- The figure shows that as the rotor resistance is increased, the pullout speed of the motor decreases. (Pullout speed is the speed at which the maximum torque is induced in the induction motor)
- However, as the rotor resistance is increased, the maximum torque remains constant.

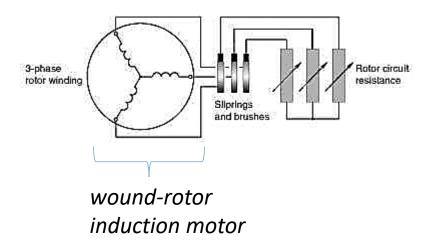
$$\tau_{\rm max} = \frac{3V_{\rm TH}^2}{2\omega_{\rm sync}[R_{\rm TH} + \sqrt{R_{\rm TH}^2 + (X_{\rm TH} + X_2)^2]}}$$



The effect of varying rotor resistance on the torque-speed characteristic of a wound-rotor induction motor.

- It is possible to take advantage of this characteristic of wound-rotor induction motors to start very heavy loads.
- If a resistance is inserted into the rotor circuit, the maximum torque can be adjusted to occur at starting conditions.
- Therefore, the maximum possible torque would be available to start heavy loads.
- On the other hand, once the load is turning, the extra resistance can be removed from the circuit, and **the maximum torque** will move up to **near-synchronous speed** for regular operation.





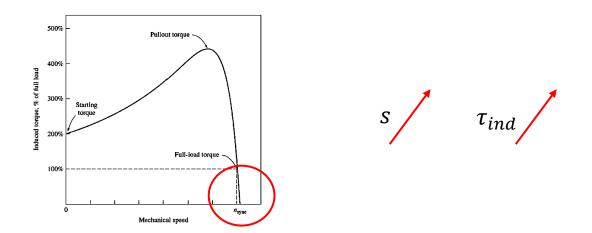
Example:

A two-pole, 50-Hz induction motor supplies 15 kW to a load at a speed of 2950 r/min. Answer the following questions:

(a) What is the motor's slip?

(b) What is the induced torque in the motor in Nm under these conditions? (assume efficiency is 100%) (c) What will the operating speed of the motor be if its torque is doubled?

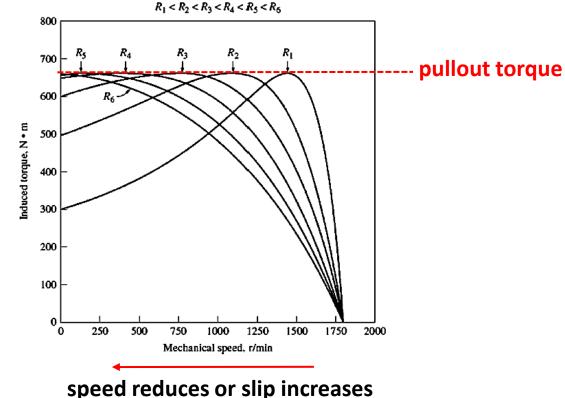
In the low-slip region, the torque-speed curve is linear, so induced torque is directly proportional to slip.



(d) How much power will be supplied by the motor when the torque is doubled?

Rotor design due to desired torque-speed characteristics

- if a rotor is designed with high resistance, then pullout torque (maximum torque) is obtained at lower speeds or higher slip. (refer to the figure)
- So pullout torque is approached to starting conditions of the motor if high resistance rotor is used.
- Consequently, <u>starting torque</u> is <u>increased</u> if the rotor is designed with high resistance.
- On the other hand, for higher slip values, Pconv is reduced: $P_{conv} = (1 - s)P_{AG}$
- So, the overall efficiency of the motor reduces if the rotor is designed with high resistance.

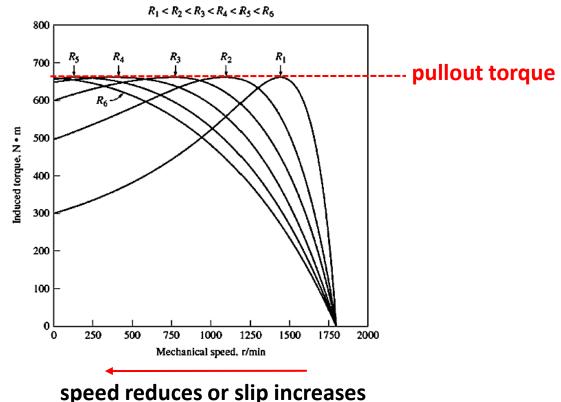


Rotor design due to desired torque-speed characteristics

- If a **low resistance rotor** is used, the induction motor will have a **low starting torque** (*refer to the figure*).
- Since, **the slip is small** at rated conditions, converted power will be high:

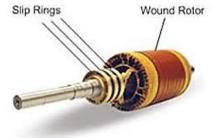
 $P_{\rm conv} = (1 - s)P_{\rm AG}$

• As a result, the overall efficiency of the motor becomes high if a low resistance rotor is used.



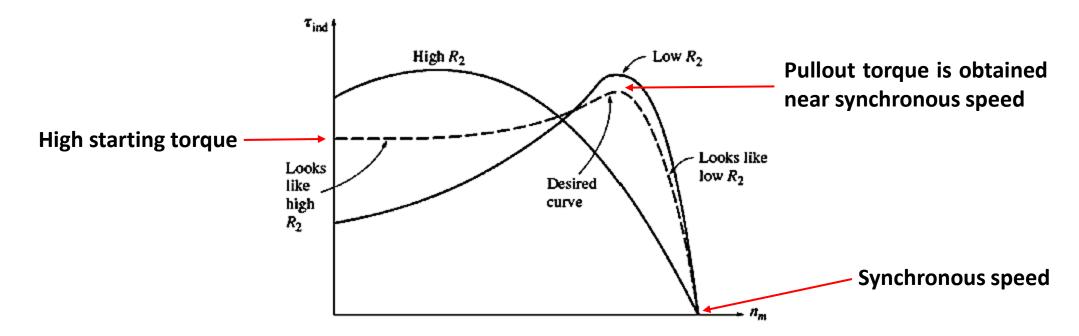
Rotor design due to desired torque-speed characteristics

• So the solution is **to use a wound-rotor induction motor**.



- Add an extra resistance to the rotor circuit during starting to increase starting torque.
- When the motor reaches at its **steady-state speed**, **remove this resistance** from the rotor circuit **to increase the overall efficiency of the induction motor**.
- Unfortunately, **wound-rotor** motors are
 - □ more expensive
 - □ need more maintenance
 - **u** require a more complex automatic control circuit than **squirrel-cage rotor** motors.
- So how can we get a solution with a **squirrel-cage rotor** to generate
 - □ high starting torque
 - □ high efficiency during normal operation

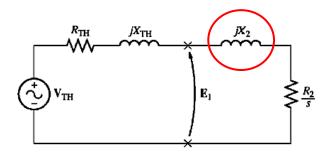
Rotor design due to desired torque-speed characteristics



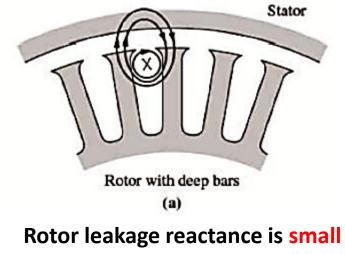
The desired torque-speed characteristics of an induction motor.

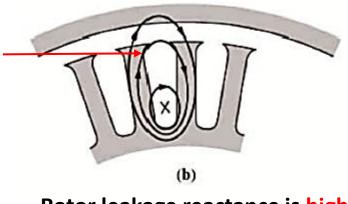
Definition of Rotor Leakage Reactance:

Rotor leakage reactance is the reactance due to the rotor flux lines that **do not couple with the stator windings**.



- So if the rotor current passes at the top of the bar, the flux is tightly linked to the stator and rotor leakage reactance becomes small. (See upper figure)
- So if the rotor current passes in the bottom of the bar, the flux is loosely linked to the stator and rotor leakage reactance becomes large. (See bottom figure)

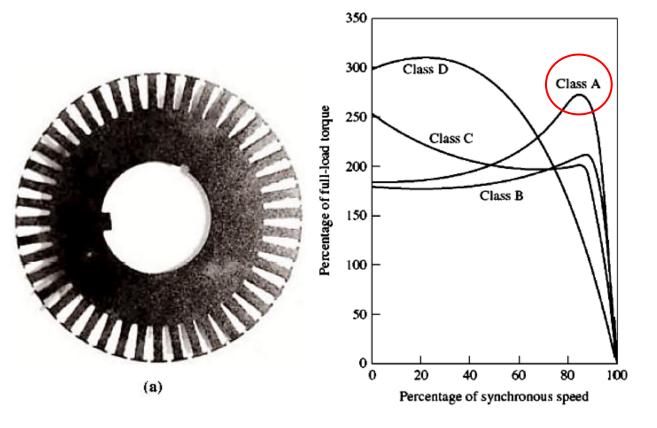




Rotor leakage reactance is high

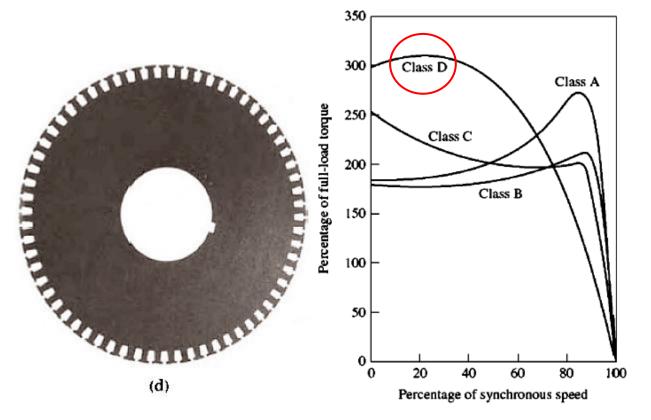
NEMA Design Class A: Large bars near the surface:

- As seen in the figure, the rotor bars are quite large and placed near the surface of the rotor.
- Such a design will have a **low rotor resistance** (*due to its large cross section*) and a **low leakage reactance** (*due to the bar's location near the stator*).
- Because of the low rotor resistance, the pullout torque will be quite near synchronous speed and the motor will be quite efficient under normal operation.
- Since rotor resistance is small, the motor's starting torque will be small and its starting current is high.



NEMA Design Class D: small bars near the surface:

- Since the cross-sectional area of the bars is small, the rotor resistance is relatively high.
- Since the bars are located near the stator, the rotor leakage reactance is still small.
- Since the rotor resistance is high, this motor has a high starting torque and the pullout torque occurs at low speeds (high slip).
- But the **efficiency** of this type of motor will be **lower** as discussed previously.



- So, now the question must be:
- How can we join the benefits of these two different rotor classes (NEMA Class A and Class D)?

• Advantages of NEMA Class A:

The pullout torque is near synchronous speedHigh efficiency under normal operation

• Advantages of NEMA Class D:

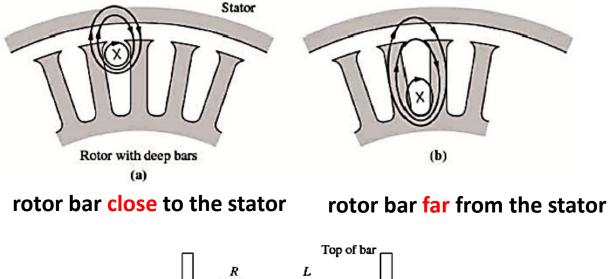
The pullout torque occurs at low speedsHigh starting torque

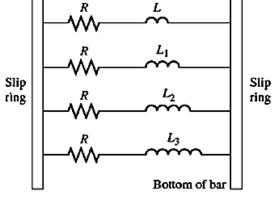
• The solution is to use either **deep rotor bar** or **double-cage rotor** structure.

NEMA Design Class B: Deep rotor bars:



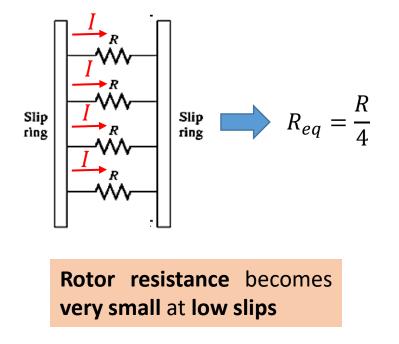
(b)





NEMA Design Class B: Deep rotor bars:

- At low slip (*high speed*), the rotor's frequency is very small (fr≈0), and the reactances of all the parallel paths through the bar are small compared to their resistances. (XL≈0)
- The impedances of all parts of the bar are approximately equal (see the figure), so current flows through all parts of the bar equally.
- The resulting large cross-sectional area makes the rotor resistance <u>quite small</u>, resulting in good efficiency at low slips. (*Like NEMA Class A*).

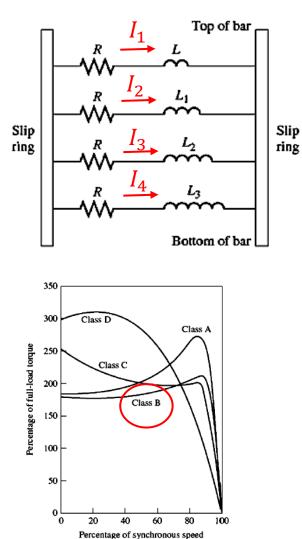


NEMA Design Class B: Deep rotor bars:

- At **high slip** (*starting conditions*), the reactances become larger compared to the resistances in the rotor bars. Because **f**r is higher.
- So major part of the rotor current is forced to flow in the region which is close to the top of bar.

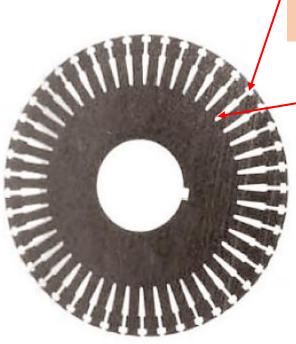
 $(I_1 > I_2 > I_3 > I_4)$

 Since the effective cross section is lower, the rotor resistance is higher than before. With a high rotor resistance at starting conditions, the starting torque is relatively higher and the starting current is relatively lower.



NEMA Design Class C: Double cage rotor bars:

- It consists of a large, low-resistance set of bars buried <u>deeply</u> in the rotor and a small, high-resistance set of bars set at the rotor surface.
- It is similar to the deep bar rotor, except that the difference between low-slip and high-slip operation is even more exaggerated.
- At starting conditions, only the small bar is effective, and the rotor resistance is quite high. This high resistance results in a large starting torque.
- However, at normal operating speeds, both bars are effective, and the resistance is almost as low as in a deep-bar rotor. This greatly improves the efficiency under normal operation.

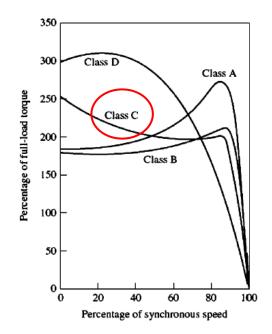


Small and highresistance set of bars are located at the rotor surface

> Large and lowresistance set of bars are located inside

NEMA Design Class C: Double cage rotor bars:

- **Double-cage rotors** have the **disadvantage** that they are **more expensive** than the other types of cage rotors.
- But they are **cheaper** than **wound-rotor designs**.
- They allow the following features:
 - □ High starting torque
 - □ Low starting current
 - Good efficiency at normal operating conditions



Induction motor design classes

• DESIGN CLASS A:

- Standard motors with a normal starting torque, normal starting current.
- ➤ Full-load slip is less than 5 %.
- > Pullout torque is 200 to 300 % of the full-load torque and occurs at a low slip (*less than 20 %*).
- The starting torque is at least the rated torque for larger motors and is 200 % or more of the rated torque for smaller motors.
- > Typical applications for these motors are driving fans, blowers, pumps, lathes, and other machine tools.

• DESIGN CLASS B:

- They have a normal starting torque, a lower starting current, and low slip.
- These motors produce about the same starting torque as the class A motor with about 25 % less current.
- The pullout torque is greater than or equal to 200 % of the rated load torque, but less than that of the class A design because of the increased rotor reactance.
- Rotor slip is still relatively low (less than 5 %) at full load.
- Applications are similar to those for design A, but design B is preferred because of its lower starting-current requirements.

Induction motor design classes

• DESIGN CLASS C:

- > These motors have a high starting torque with low starting currents and low slip (less than 5 %) at full load.
- The pullout torque is slightly lower than that for class A motors, while the starting torque is up to 250 % of the full-load torque.
- These motors are built from double-cage rotors, so they are more expensive than motors in the previous classes.
- > They are used for high-starting-torque loads, such as loaded pumps, compressors, and conveyors.

• DESIGN CLASS D:

- > They have a very high starting torque (275 % or more of the rated torque) and a low starting current.
- They also have a high slip at full load.
- They are essentially ordinary class A induction motors, but with the rotor bars made smaller and with a higher-resistance material.
- The high rotor resistance shifts the peak torque to a very low speed. The highest torque occurs at zero speed (100 % slip).
- > Full-load slip is quite high because of the high rotor resistance. It is typically7 to 11 %.
- These motors are used in applications requiring the acceleration of extremely high-inertia-type loads, such as large flywheels used in punch presses or shears.
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- Induction motors can be started by simply connecting them to the three-phase power source.
- Although starting is easy, they require **high starting currents** in general.
- This high starting current may cause huge voltage dip in the power system's voltage.
- For wound-rotor induction motors, starting current can be limited by inserting an extra resistance in the rotor circuit during starting. This extra resistance also increases the starting torque (*mentioned previously*).
- For squirrel-cage induction motors, the starting current can be limited by other methods (*will be discussed soon*).
- The starting current of squirrel-cage induction motors depends on the motor's rated power and the effective rotor resistance at starting conditions.
- To estimate the starting current, all squirrel-cage motors have a **starting code letter on their nameplates**.

Nominal code letter	Locked rotor, kVA/hp	Nominal code letter	Locked rotor, kVA/hp 9.00–10.00		
A	0-3.15	L			
в	3.15-3.55	М	10.00-11.00		
с	3.55-4.00	N	11.20-12.50		
D	4.00-4.50	Р	12.50-14.00		
Е	4.50-5.00	R	14.00-16.00		
F	5.00-5.60	s	16.00-18.00		
G	5.60-6.30	т	18.00-20.00		
н	6.30-7.10	U	20.00-22.40		
J	7.7-8.00	v	22.40 and up		
к	8.00-9.00				

Table of NEMA code letters indicating the starting kilovolt amperes per horsepower of rating for a motor. Each code letter extends up to but does not include the lower bound of the next higher class.

• How is this table used to calculate the starting current of a given induction motor ?

Example: What is the starting current of a 15-hp, 208-V, code letter-F, three-phase induction motor?

Solution:

 $S_{\text{start}} = (\text{rated horsepower})(\text{code letter factor})$

 $S_{\text{start}} = (15 \text{ hp})(5.6) = 84 \text{ kVA}$

The starting current is thus

$$I_L = \frac{S_{\text{start}}}{\sqrt{3}V_T}$$
$$= \frac{84 \text{ kVA}}{\sqrt{3}(208 \text{ V})} = 233 \text{ A}$$

Nominal code letter	Locked rotor, kVA/hp	Nominal code letter	Locked rotor, kVA/hp		
A	0-3.15	L	9.00-10.00		
в	3.15-3.55	м	10.00-11.00		
с	3.55-4.00	N	11.20-12.50		
D	4.00-4.50	Р	12.50-14.00		
Е	4.50-5.00	R	14.00-16.00		
F	5.01-5.60	s	16.00-18.00		
G	5.60-6.30	т	18.00-20.00		
н	6.30-7.10	U	20.00-22.40		
J	7.7-8.00	v	22.40 and up		
к	8.00-9.00				

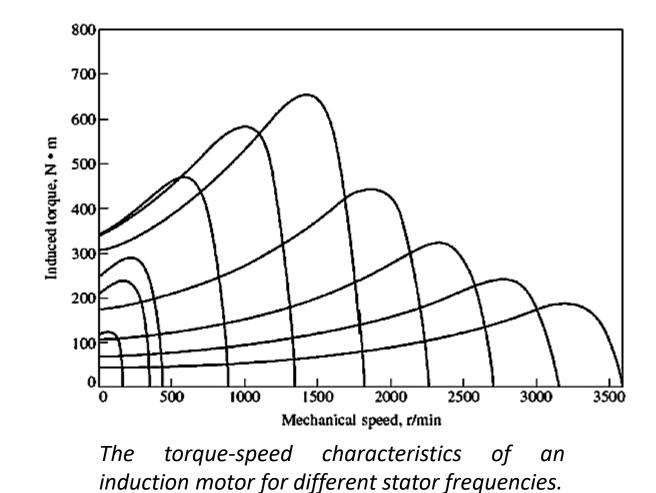
- For squirrel-cage induction motors, the terminal voltage of the motor can be reduced during starting by using autotransformers.
- Then the terminal voltage of the motor is increased gradually as motor speeds up to the rated condition.
- Since the induced torque is directly proportional to the square of the terminal voltage, the starting torque decreases as the square of the applied voltage.
- Therefore, only a certain amount of current reduction can be done if the motor is required to start under load (with a shaft load attached)

$$\tau_{\rm ind} = \frac{3V_{\rm TH}^2 R_2/s}{\omega_{\rm sync} [(R_{\rm TH} + R_2/s)^2 + (X_{\rm TH} + X_2)^2]}$$

• The synchronous speed (the speed of rotating magnetic field of the stator) of an induction motor is given as:

$$n_{syn} = \frac{120f_e}{P}$$

- Since the rotor is chasing the rotating stator magnetic field, the rotor speed can be controlled by changing n_{syn}
- So, there are two techniques in order to change the speed of an induction motor:
 - > Change f_e (Use an inverter variable speed drive, very common method used today)
 - Change pole number P. (Very old method, not used today anymore)



- When running at speeds below the base speed of the motor, it is necessary to reduce the terminal voltage applied to the stator linearly with decreasing stator frequency.
- This process is called "*derating*".
- If derating it is not done, the steel in the core of the induction motor will saturate and excessive magnetization currents will flow in the machine.
- The motor generates low order current harmonics which decreases the power quality of the power system.
- The *proof of derating* is given below:

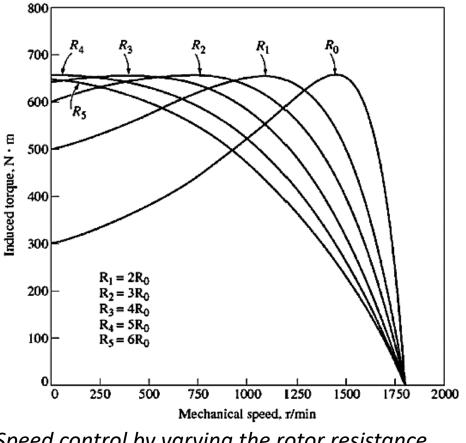
$$v(t) = -N \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$
 (Faraday's Law)

If a voltage $v(t) = V_M \sin(wt)$ is applied to the core: the resulting flux will be:

$$\phi(t) = \frac{1}{N_P} \int v(t) dt$$
$$= \frac{I}{N_P} \int V_M \sin \omega t dt$$
$$\phi(t) = -\frac{V_M}{\omega N_P} \cos \omega t$$

For example, if w is reduced by 10%, V_M should also be reduced by 10% to keep the flux level constant in the core

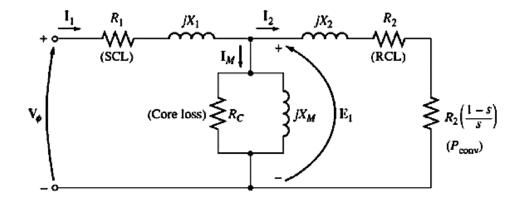
 If the motor is wound-rotor, speed control can also be done by adding an extra resistance to rotor circuit.



Speed control by varying the rotor resistance of a wound-rotor induction motor

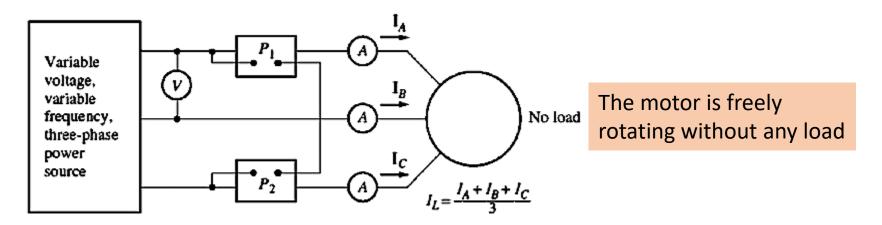
Determining circuit model parameters

• The equivalent circuit of an induction motor is a very useful tool for analyzing the motor.



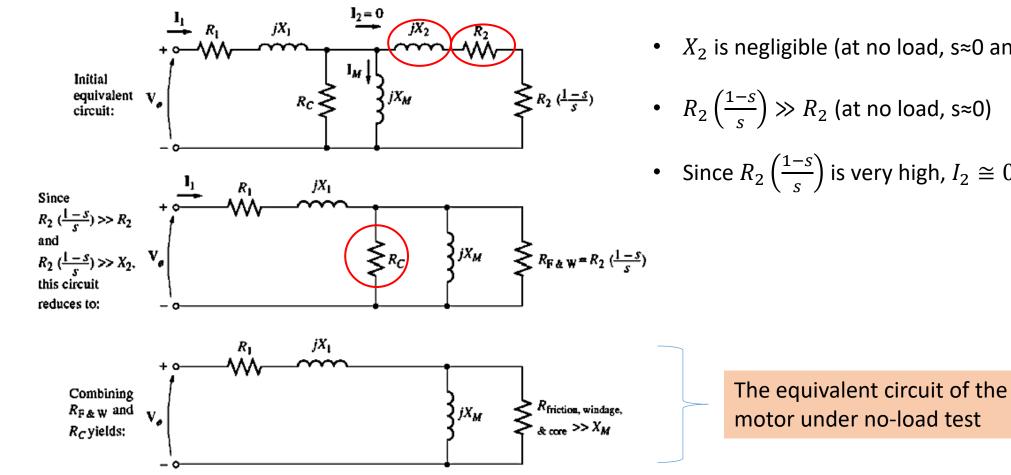
- The equivalent circuit model parameters can be found (*estimated*) by making **some tests** on the induction motor.
- These tests are as follows: (*These are similar to the tests made on a transformer*)
 - No-load test
 - DC test for stator resistance
 - Locked-rotor (Blocked-rotor) test

- No-load test of an induction motor is done to measure the rotational losses of the motor and provides information about its magnetization current.
- The test set-up is shown in the figure.



- The only load on the motor is the friction and windage losses, so all Pconv is consumed by mechanical losses.
- The **slip** of the motor is **very small** (possibly as small as **0.001 or less**).

The equivalent circuit of the motor under no-load test is shown in the figure. ٠



 X_2 is negligible (at no load, s ≈ 0 and $f_R \cong 0$)

•
$$R_2\left(\frac{1-s}{s}\right) \gg R_2$$
 (at no load, s≈0)

• Since
$$R_2\left(\frac{1-s}{s}\right)$$
 is very high, $I_2 \cong 0$)

• Under no-load conditions, the **stator copper losses** are given by:

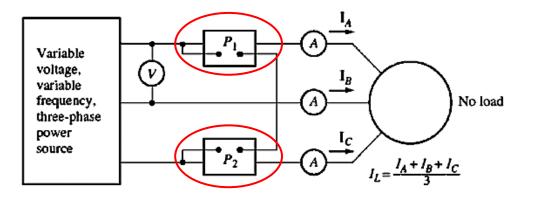
 $P_{\rm SCL} = 3I_1^2 R_1$

• So the sum of wattmeter readings will be equal to:

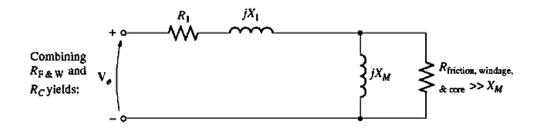
$$P_1 + P_2 = P_{in} = P_{SCL} + P_{core} + P_{F\&W} + P_{misc}$$
$$= 3I_1^2 R_1 + P_{rot}$$

where $P_{\rm rot}$ is the rotational losses of the motor:

$$P_{\rm rot} = P_{\rm core} + P_{\rm F\&W} + P_{\rm misc}$$



- Since X_1 is much greater than the series resistance R_1
- And, X_M is much smaller than the parallel resistance,

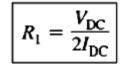


- The equivalent circuit of the induction motor under no load conditions is approximately a purely inductive circuit:
- So the **equivalent impedance of the motor** <u>under no load conditions</u> can be written as:

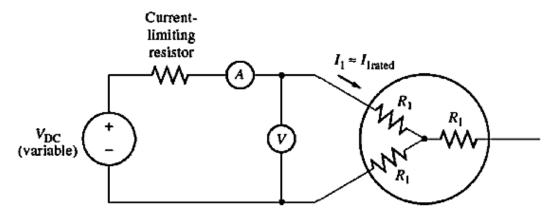
$$\left| Z_{\text{eq}} \right| = \frac{V_{\phi}}{I_{1,\text{nl}}} \approx X_1 + X_M$$

DC test for stator resistance

- DC test is applied to stator windings to measure per-phase stator resistance.
- To perform the test, the current in the stator windings is adjusted to the rated value.
- Since the applied voltage is DC, there will be no induced voltage in the rotor circuit and hence no rotor current will flow (Faraday's Law).
- Also, stator reactance becomes zero at DC (f = 0Hz).
- If **the stator is Y-connected**, the stator resistance can be estimated using the following equation:

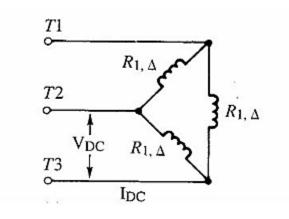


V_{DC} is the **voltmeter** reading I_{DC} is the **ampermeter** reading



DC test for stator resistance

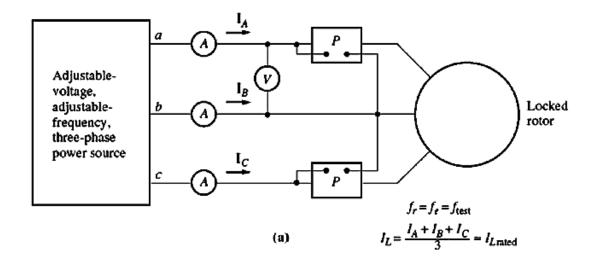
• If **the stator is** <u>∧-connected</u>, the stator resistance can be estimated using the following equation:



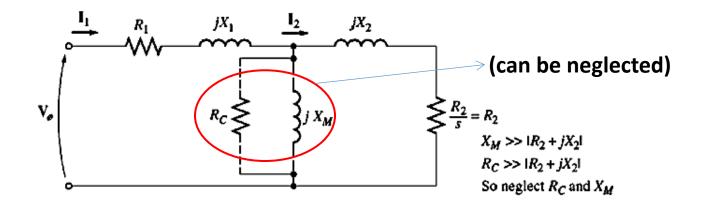
$$R_{DC} = \frac{R_{I\Delta} \cdot 2R_{I\Delta}}{R_{I\Delta} + 2R_{I\Delta}} = \frac{2}{3}R_{I\Delta}$$

 $\frac{V_{DC}}{I_{DC}} = R_{DC} = \frac{2}{3}R_{1\Delta}$ V_{DC} is the voltmeter reading I_{DC} is the **ampermeter** reading

- This test is also called «blocked-rotor test».
- This test corresponds to the **short-circuit** test on a transformer.
- In this test, the rotor is locked so that it cannot move, a variable AC voltage is applied to the stator, and the current flow is adjusted to be approximately full-load value, and the resulting voltage, current, and power are measured.



Since the rotor is not moving, the slip s = 1, and so the rotor resistance R2/s becomes equal to R2 (a very small value)



- At normal operating conditions, the slip of most motors is only 2 to 4 percent, and the resulting rotor frequency is in the range of 1 to 3 Hz.
- Becasue of this situation, to obtain realistic results, typically the frequency of the applied voltage is adjusted to be 25 % or less of the rated frequency.

• Under locked-rotor conditions, the total input power of the motor is given by:

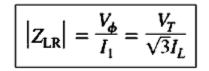
 $P = \sqrt{3} V_T I_L \cos \theta$

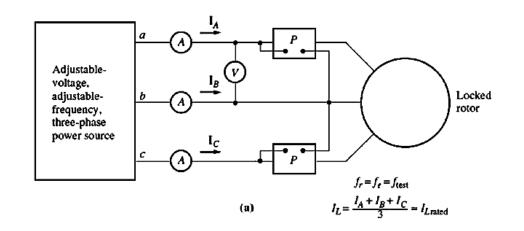
so the locked-rotor power factor can be found as

$$PF = \cos \theta = \frac{P_{in}}{\sqrt{3}V_T I_L}$$

and the impedance angle θ is just equal to cos⁻¹ PF.

• The magnitude of the total impedance in the motor circuit:





• Locked-rotor impedance can be written as:

$$Z_{LR} = R_{LR} + jX'_{LR}$$
$$= |Z_{LR}|\cos\theta + j|Z_{LR}|\sin\theta$$

Adjustablevoltage, adjustablefrequency, three-phase power source (a) Adjustablefrequency,three-phasepower source(a)<math display="block">Adjustablefrequency,three-phasepower source(a)<math display="block">Adjustablefrequency,three-phasepower source(b)<math display="block">Adjustablefrequency,three-phasepower source(c)<math display="block">Adjustablefrequency,three-phasefrequency,frequencyfrequ

where,

 $R_{\rm LR} = R_1 + R_2$

 $X_{\rm LR}^\prime = X_1^\prime + X_2^\prime$

where X1' and X2' are the stator and rotor reactances at the test frequency

• Since the **reactance is directly proportional to the frequency**, the total equivalent reactance at the nominal operating frequency can be found as:

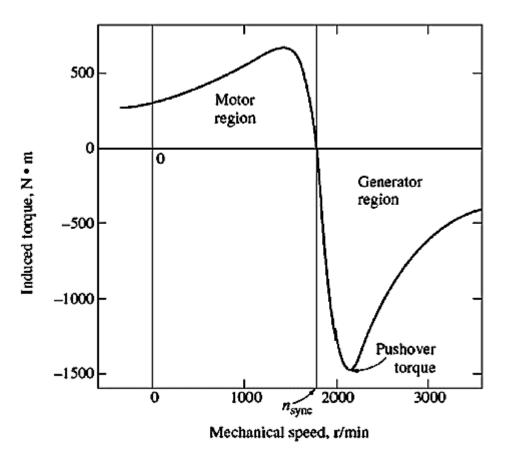
$$X_{\rm LR} = \frac{f_{\rm rated}}{f_{\rm test}} X_{\rm LR}' = X_1 + X_2$$

- Unfortunately, there is **no simple way to separate** the contributions of the stator and rotor reactances from each other.
- Over the years, experience has shown that motors of certain design types have certain proportions between the rotor and stator reactances. The following table summarizes this experience.

	X_1 and X_2 as functions of X_{LR}						
Rotor Design	X ₁	X2					
Wound rotor	0.5 X _{LR}	0.5 X _{LR}					
Design A	0.5 X _{LR}	0.5 X _{LR}					
Design B	0.4 X _{LR}	0.6 X _{LR}					
Design C	0.3 X _{LR}	0.7 X _{LR}					
Design D	0.5 X _{LR}	0.5 X _{LR}					

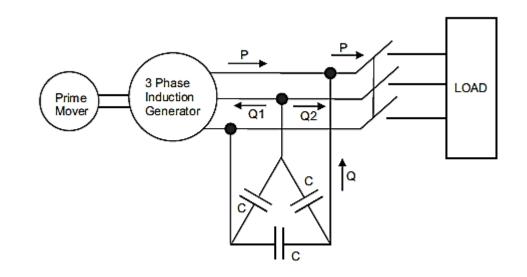
Rules of thumb for dividing rotor and stator circuit reactance.

- If an induction motor is driven at a speed greater than synchronous speed by an external prime mover (such as DC motor or wind turbine, and etc...), the direction of its inducted torque will reverse and it acts as a generator.
- As the torque applied to its shaft by the prime mover increases, the amount of power produced by the induction generator increases.
- There is a maximum possible induced torque in the generator region, which is known as "pushover torque" of the generator.
- If a prime mover applies a torque greater than the pushover torque to the shaft of an induction generator, the generator will overspeed.



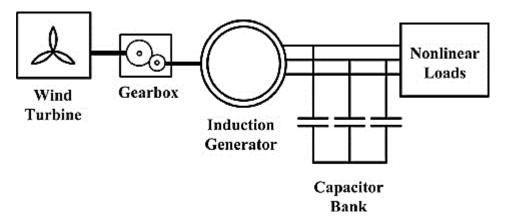
Disadvantages of induction generator:

- An induction generator <u>does not have</u> a separate field circuit so it <u>cannot produce</u> its own reactive power.
- In fact, it consumes reactive power (remember its equivalent circuit having many reactances), and an external source of reactive power must be connected to it at all times.
- The required reactive power is usually supplied by **deltaconnected capacitor banks.** (*Refer to the figure*)
- An **induction generator** <u>cannot control</u> its **output voltage** unlike a **synchronous generator**.
- The **terminal voltage** of the **induction generator** is controlled by the **external reactive power source**.
- If the induction generator is connected to an infinite bus, its terminal voltage is maintained by the infinite bus.



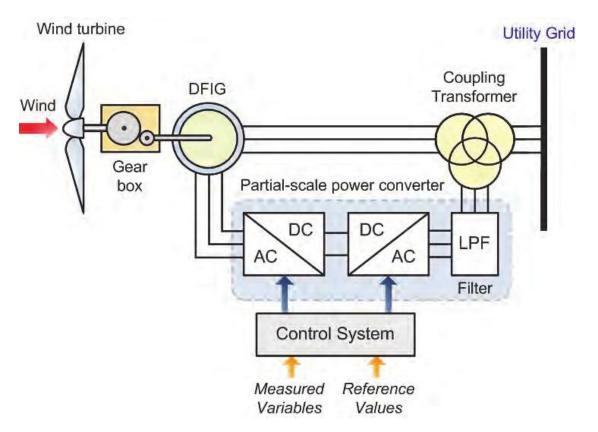
Advantages of induction generator:

- The induction generator is a very simple generator.
- It does not require a separate field circuit.
- It <u>does not require synchronization procedures</u> unlike a synchronous generator.
- It <u>does not have to be</u> driven continuously at a fixed speed unlike a synchronous generator.
- As long as the machine's speed is some value greater than its synchronous speed, the machine will act as a generator.
- Self-excited induction generators (SEIG) are easy and cheap to apply for wind energy applications (*Refer to the figure*)



Source: Saber Mohamed Saleh Salem, "Study of wind turbine based self-excited induction generator under nonlinear resistive loads as a step to solve the Egypt electricity crisis", Computers & Electrical Engineering, Vol. 51, 2016, pp. 1-11.

- Doubly fed induction generators (DFIG) are very popular nowadays.
- DFIGs can operate at variable wind speeds (*sub- or super synchronously*). However, SEIGs operate at only constant wind speed.
- **DFIGs** can **capture wind power better** than **SEIGs**
- **DFIGs** can control **reactive and active power separately**. (*This function is not available in SEIGs*).
- **DFIGs** are **more expensive** than **SEIGs**, because they need power converters (*Refer to the figure*).
- However **DFIGs** are preferred more than **SEIGs** because of **many advantages**, some of which are listed above.



Induction motor ratings

PE•2	1 PL	US™							P	REMIU	М	EFF	FICIE	ENCY
ORD.NO.	1LA02864SE41					ENC.								
TYPE						FRA	ME	286T						
H.P.	30.00				SERV	ICE OR	1.15 3						3 PH	
AMPS	34,9				VOL	TS	46	460						
R.P.M.	1765					HER	RTZ	60						
DUTY	CONT 40°C AME					3.				CODE	Γ			
CLASS NSUL	F	NEMA DESIGN	В	CCDE	G	NON	ENA ETT	9	3,6					
SH, END BRO,	50E	SC03JF	PP3		OPP. BR	END D,	5	0B	C03	JPP3				
\cap	MILL	AND (HEM	ICAL D	UTY	QU	ALI	ry I	NDU	CTION	MC	то	R	\cap

The nameplate of a typical induction motor

END OF CHAPTER 4

INDUCTION MOTORS