



# EEE 322

## Electromechanical Energy Conversion – II

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# **CHAPTER 3**

## ***SYNCHRONOUS MOTORS***

# Synchronous Motors

- **Synchronous motors** are synchronous machines used to convert AC electric power into mechanical power.
- **Synchronous motors** are required for **constant speed** applications.
- They are used



*In conveyor belt applications*



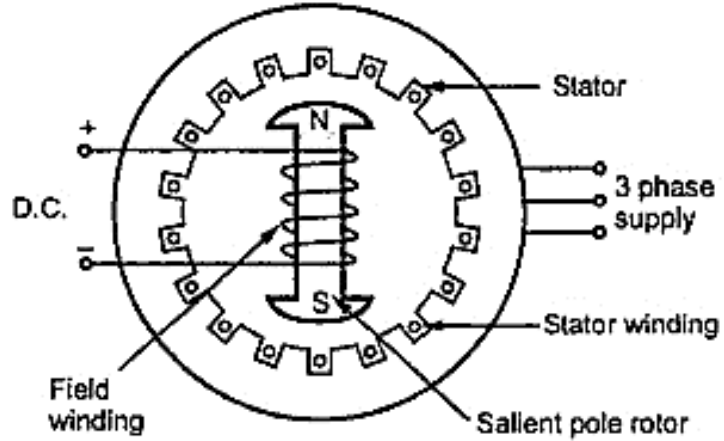
*In ball mill in a mine ore process*



*In paper mills*

# Synchronous Motors

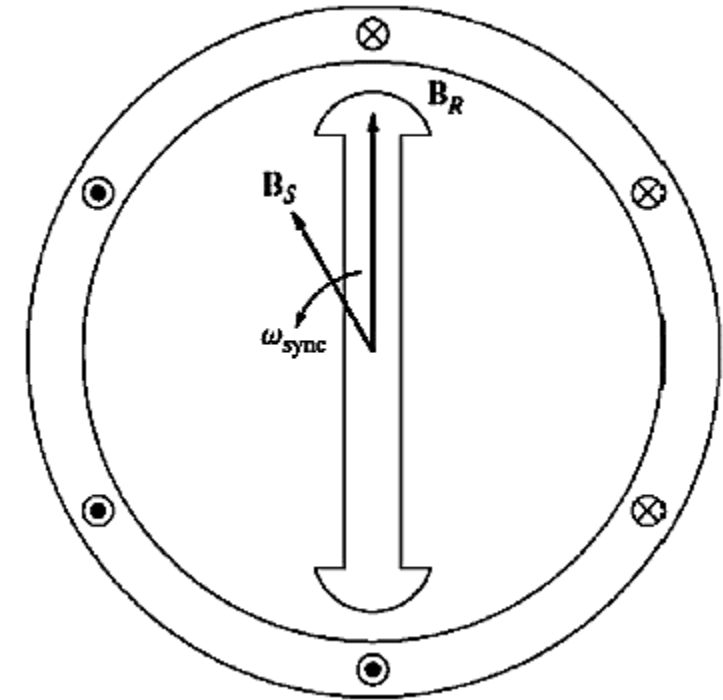
- Physically, **synchronous motors are exactly the same** as synchronous generators.



*Schematic representation of three phase two-pole synchronous motor*

# Operation principle of synchronous motors

- The field current  $IF$  of the motor produces a steady-state magnetic field  $BR$ .
- A three-phase set of voltages is applied to the stator, which produces a three-phase current flow in the windings.
- A three-phase set of currents in an armature winding produces a uniform rotating magnetic field  $Bs$ .
- Therefore, there are **two magnetic fields** present in the machine.
- The rotor field will tend to line up with the stator field, just as two bar magnets will tend to line up if placed near each other.
- Since the stator magnetic field is rotating, the rotor magnetic field (and the rotor itself) will constantly try to catch up.
- The rotor "**chases**" the rotating stator magnetic field around in a circle, never quite catching up with it.

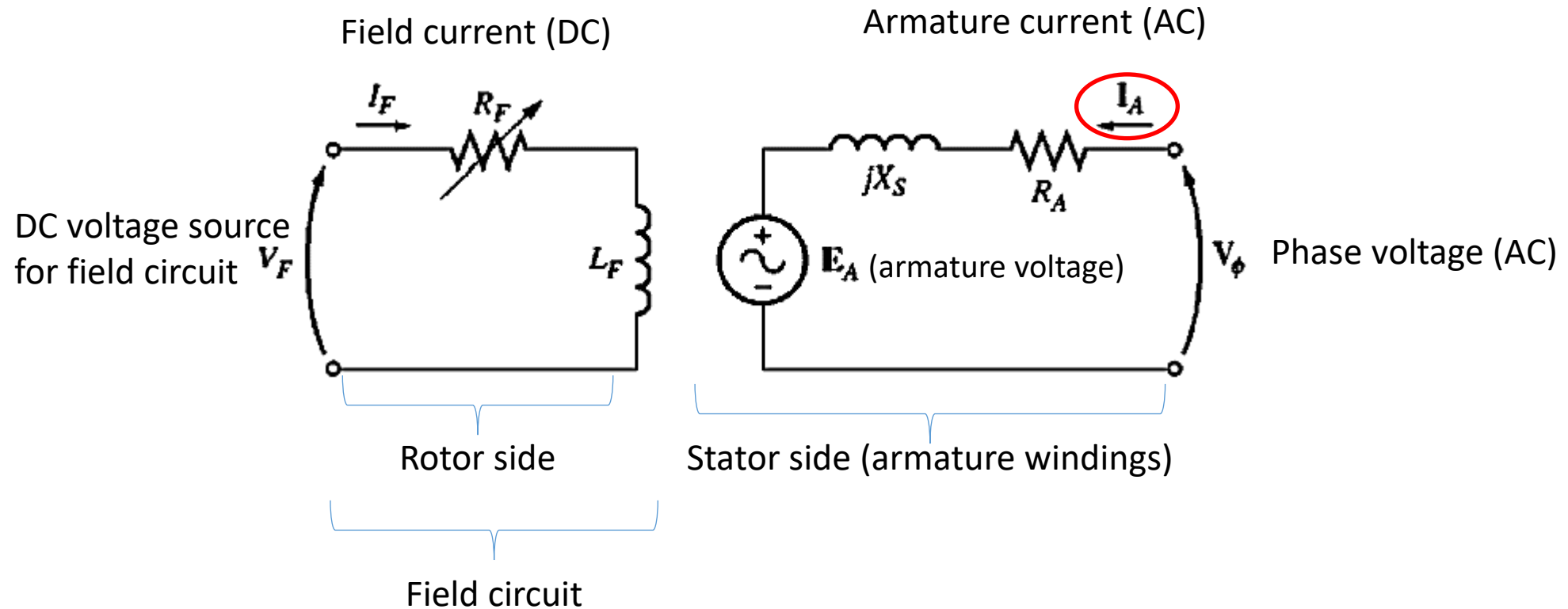


*A two-pole synchronous motor*

# Per-phase equivalent circuit of sync. motor

- A **synchronous motor** is the **same** in all respects as a **synchronous generator**, **except** that the **direction of power flow is reversed**.
- Since the **direction of power flow is reversed**, the **direction of current flow in the stator of the motor** is also **reversed**.
- Therefore, the **equivalent circuit of a synchronous motor** is **exactly the same** as the equivalent circuit of a **synchronous generator**, except that the **reference direction of armature current**.
- The stator of the synchronous motor can be either **wye** or **delta** connected.

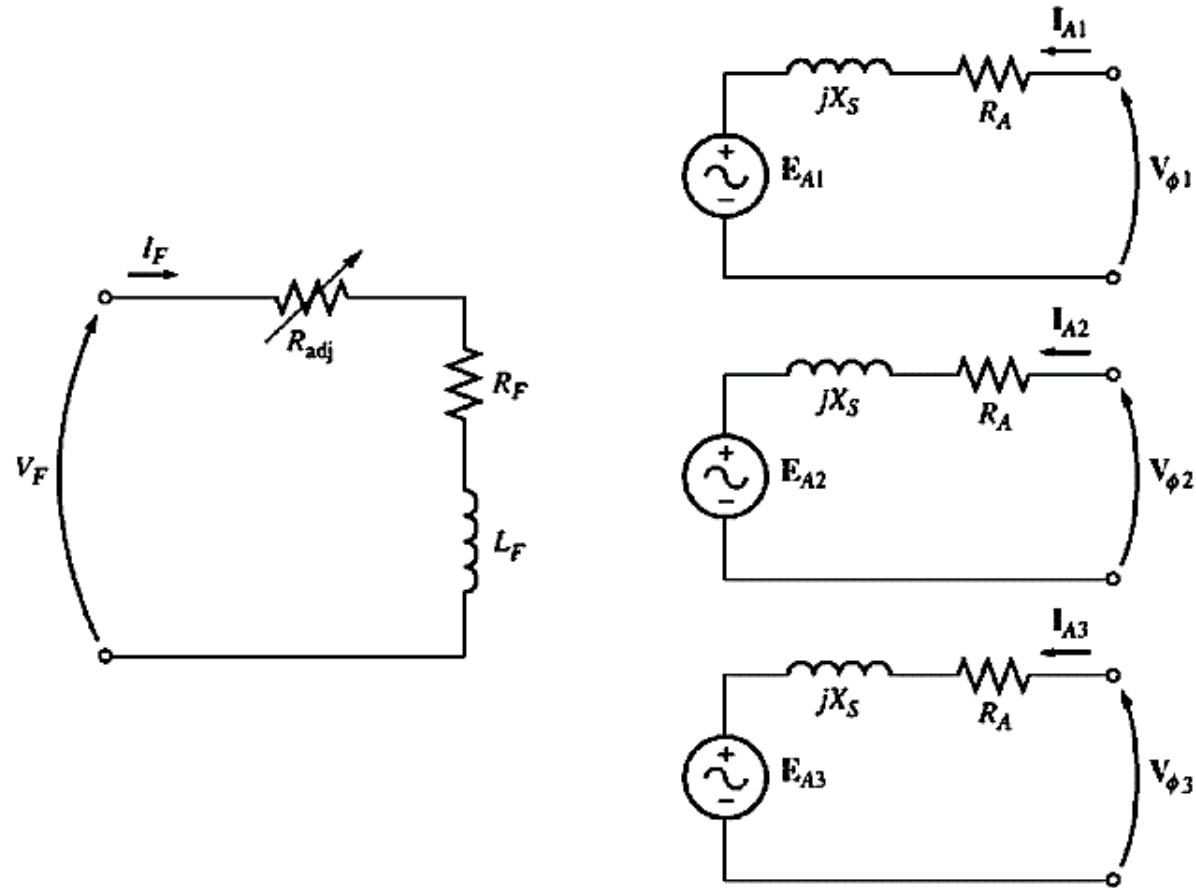
# Per-phase equivalent circuit of sync. motor



**NOTE:** By changing  $R_F$ , we can control the magnitude of  $E_A$



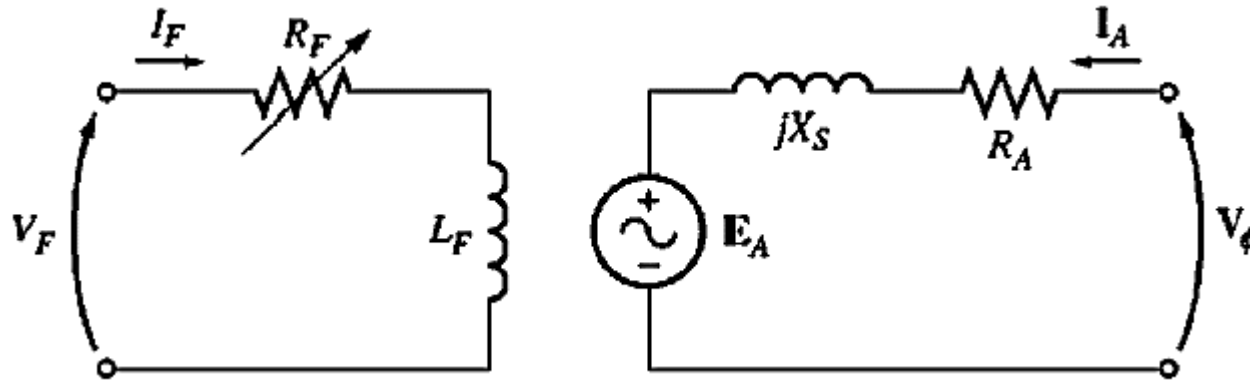
# Per-phase equivalent circuit of sync. motor



*The full equivalent circuit of a three-phase synchronous motor*



# Per-phase equivalent circuit of sync. motor



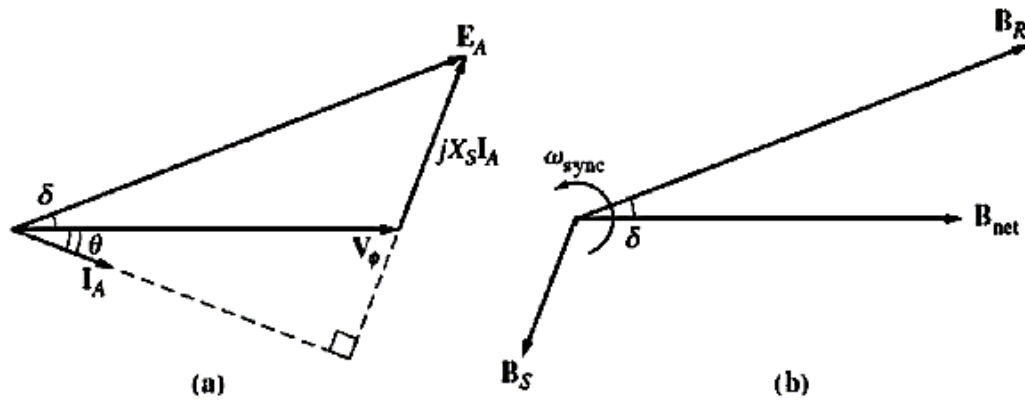
$$P_{in} = 3 \cdot V_\phi \cdot I_A \cdot \cos\theta$$

$$V_\phi = E_A + jX_S I_A + R_A I_A$$

$$E_A = V_\phi - jX_S I_A - R_A I_A$$

*Voltage equations of the per-phase equivalent circuit of synchronous motor*

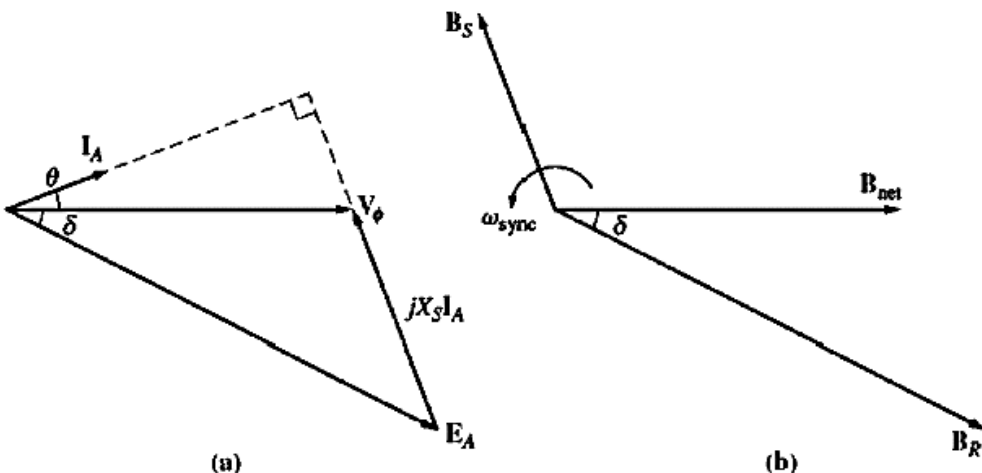
# Comparison of phasor diagrams of synch. gen. and motor



Phasor diagram of a **synchronous generator** operating at a **lagging power factor** and the corresponding magnetic field diagram.



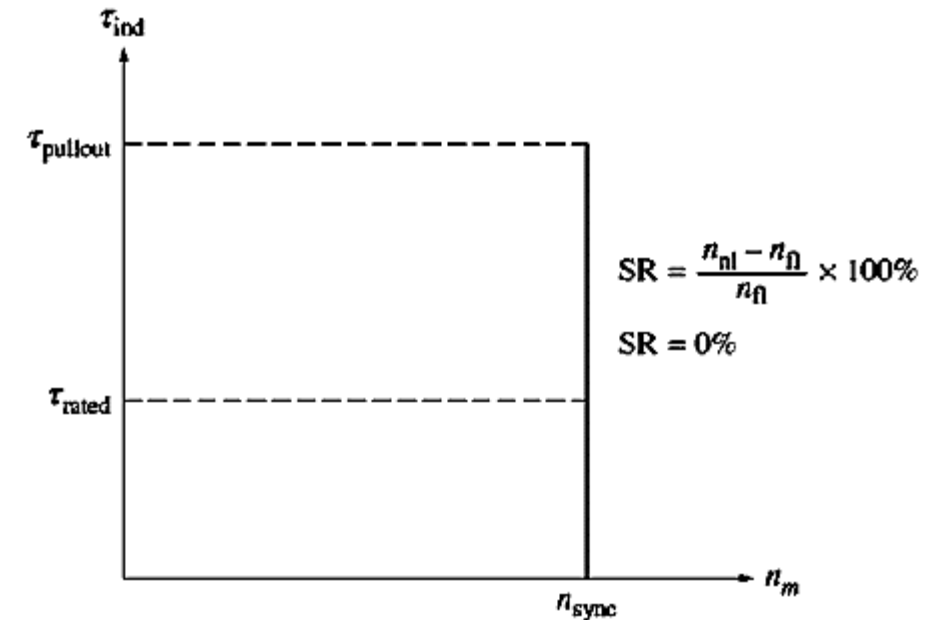
**Transition** from generator to motors occurs when **the prime mover torque is removed**



Phasor diagram of a **synchronous motor** operating at a **leading power factor** and the corresponding magnetic field diagram.

# Synchronous motor torque-speed characteristics

- **Synchronous motors** supply power to electrical loads that are basically **constant-speed devices**.
- **Synchronous motors** are usually connected to **infinite buses**. This means that the **terminal voltage** and **system frequency** will be **constant** regardless of the amount of power drawn by the motor.
- The **speed of rotation of the motor** is locked to the **applied electrical frequency**, so the **speed of the motor** will be **constant** regardless of the amount of the load.
- Since the **speed of the motor is constant**, its **speed regulation is zero**.



*The torque-speed characteristic of a synchronous motor*

# Torque equations of synchronous motor

- **Induced torque** of the synchronous motor (*ignoring armature resistance*):

$$\tau_{ind} = \frac{3V_{\phi}E_A \sin\delta}{\omega_m X_s}$$

- **Maximum (*pull-out*)** induced torque occurs when  $\delta = 90^\circ$

$$\tau_{ind(max)} = \frac{3V_{\phi}E_A}{\omega_m X_s}$$

- Normally, **full-load torque** of the synchronous motor is **much less** than maximum induced torque.

$$\tau_{(full-load)} \ll \tau_{ind(max)}$$

- In fact, the **pullout torque** may typically be **3 times** the **full-load torque** of the motor.

$$\tau_{ind(max)} \approx 3 \times \tau_{(full-load)}$$

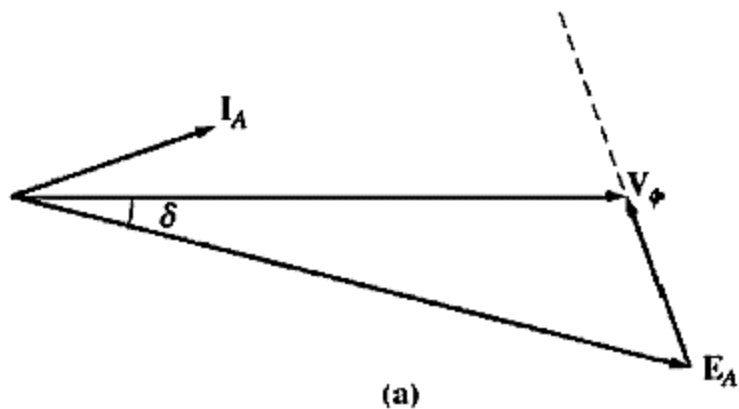
# “Loss of synchronism” of synchronous motor

- When the **torque on the shaft of a synchronous motor** (*load torque*) exceeds the **pullout torque**, the rotor can no longer remain locked to the stator.
- Instead, the rotor starts to **slip behind** rotating stator magnetic field ( $B_{net}$ ).
- As the **rotor slows down**, the stator magnetic field "**laps**" it repeatedly, and cause the whole motor to **vibrate** severely.
- **The “loss of synchronization”** after the pullout torque is exceeded is known as “**slipping poles**”.
- Since maximum induced torque is proportional to  $E_A$ , the larger  $E_A$  (hence the larger **field current,  $I_F$** ) gives a stability advantage to the synchronous motor.
- Therefore it is usually better to operate the synchronous motor with a **large field current,  $I_F$** .

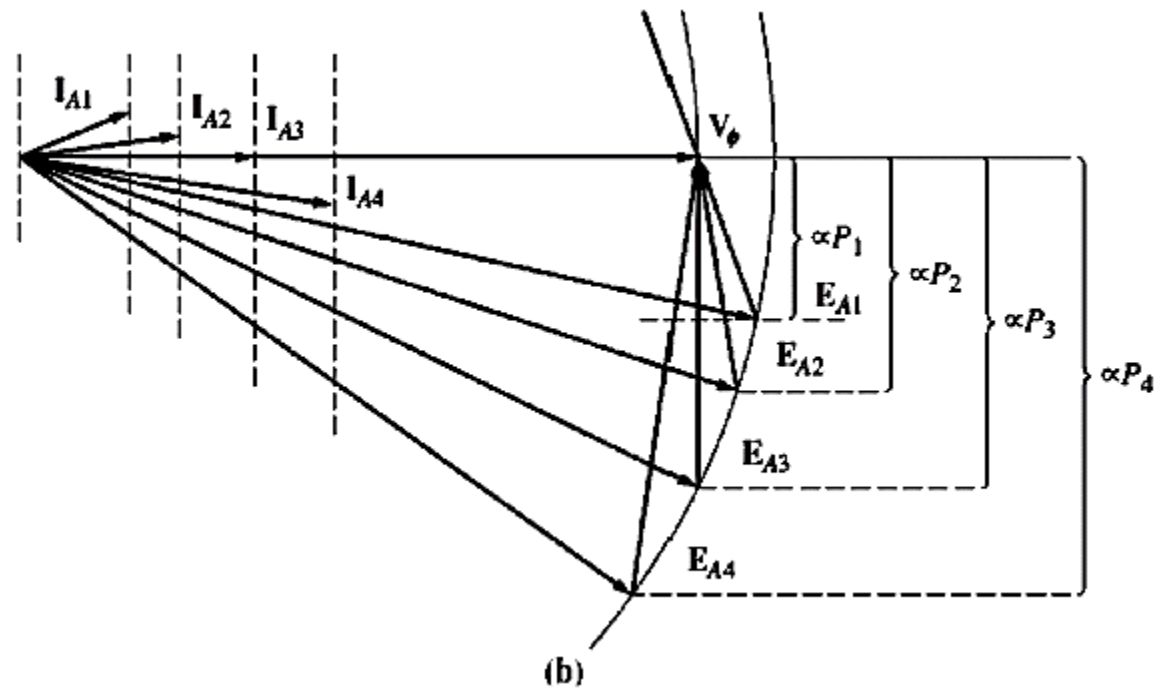
$$\tau_{ind(max)} = \frac{3V_{\phi}E_A}{\omega_m X_s}$$

# Effect of load changes on a synchronous motor

- If a load is attached to the shaft of a synchronous motor which is connected to the infinite bus, the motor will develop enough torque **to keep the motor and its load turning at a synchronous speed.**
- What happens when the **load is changed** on a synchronous motor? (**Field current is kept constant**)



Phasor diagram of a sync. motor operating at a **leading power factor**



The effect of an **increase in load** on the operation of a synchronous motor

# Effect of load changes on a synchronous motor: An example

**Example:** A **208-V, 45-kVA, 0.8-PF-leading, delta-connected, 60-Hz synchronous motor** has a synchronous reactance of **2.5 ohm**, and a **negligible armature resistance**. Its friction and windage losses are **1.5 kW**, and its core losses are **1.0 kW**. Initially, the shaft is supplying a **15-hp load**, and the motor's power factor is **0.8 leading**.

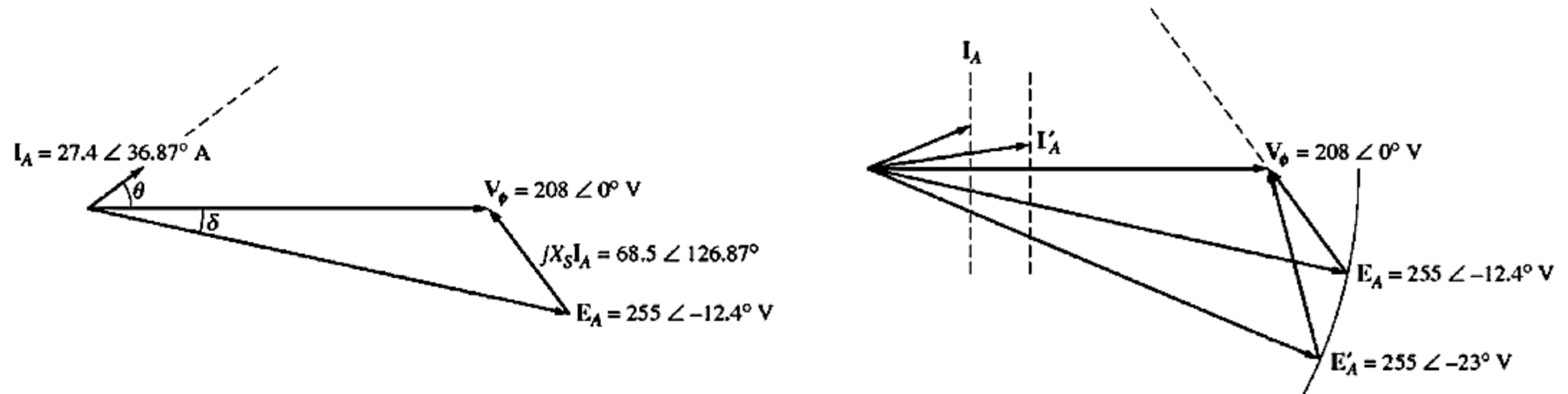
- (a) Sketch the phasor diagram of this motor, and find the values of  $I_A$ ,  $I_L$ , and  $E_A$ .
- (b) Assume that the shaft load is now **increased to 30 hp**. Sketch the behavior of the phasor diagram in response to this change.
- (c) Find  $I_A$ ,  $I_L$ , and  $E_A$  after the load change. What is the new power factor of the motor?

$$P_{in} = 3V_{\phi} \frac{E_A \sin \delta}{X_S}$$

$$P_{in} = 3 \cdot V_{\phi} \cdot I_A \cdot \cos \theta$$

# Effect of load changes on a synchronous motor: An example

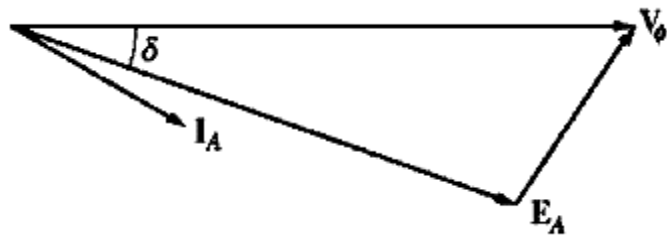
Solution: Resultant phasor diagrams of the synchronous motor under increasing load



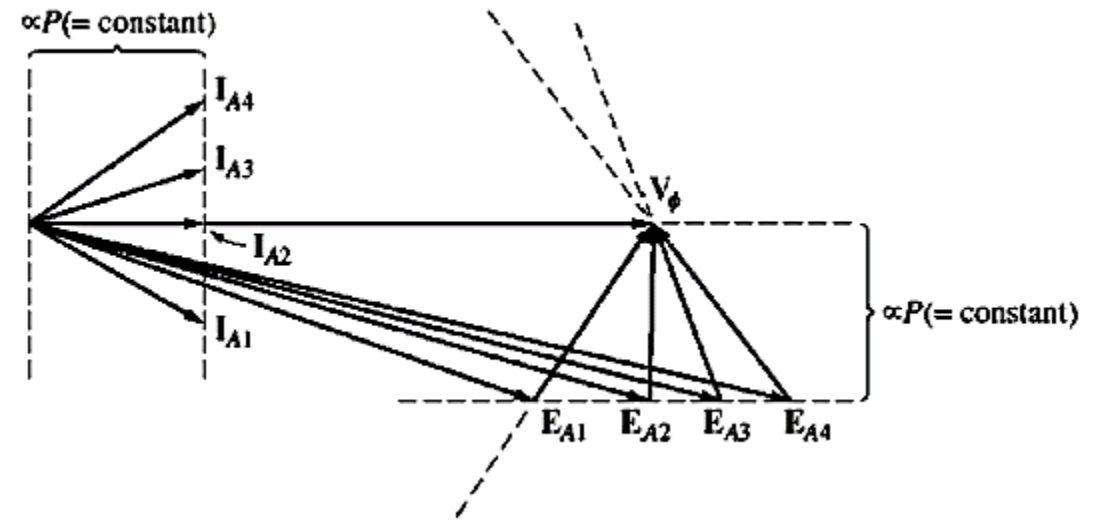


# Effect of field current changes on sync. motor

- What happens when the field current of the synchronous motor changes ? (*load is constant*)



A synchronous motor operating at a **lagging power factor**

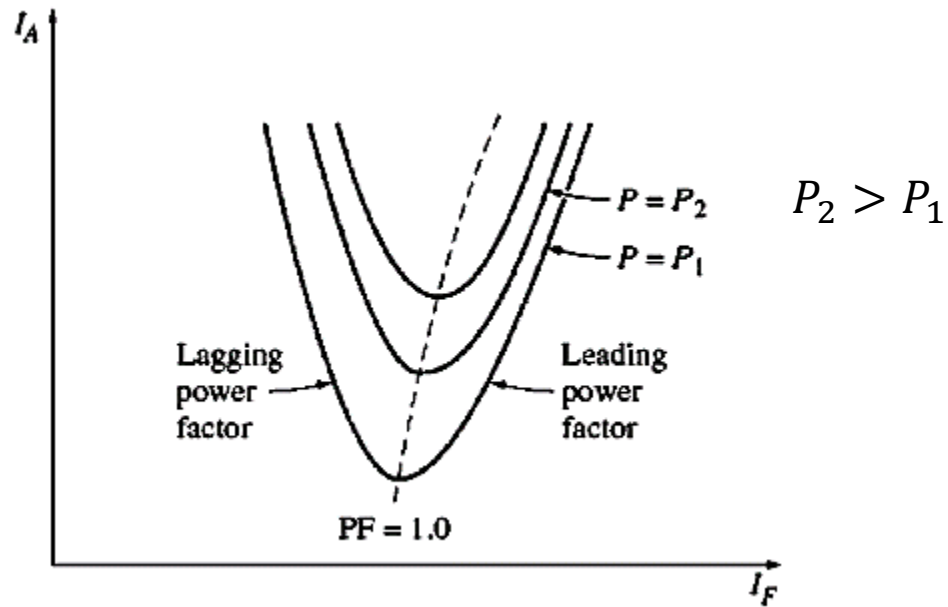


The effect of an **increase in field current** on the operation of this motor.

$$P_{in} = 3V_{\phi} \frac{E_A \sin \delta}{X_S}$$

$$P_{in} = 3 \cdot V_{\phi} \cdot I_A \cdot \cos \theta$$

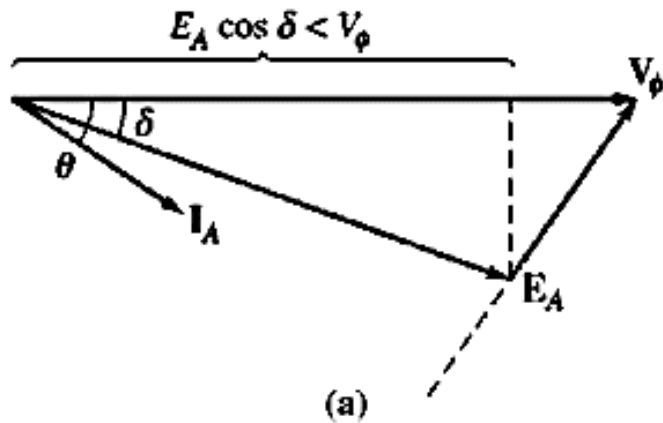
# Synchronous motor V curves



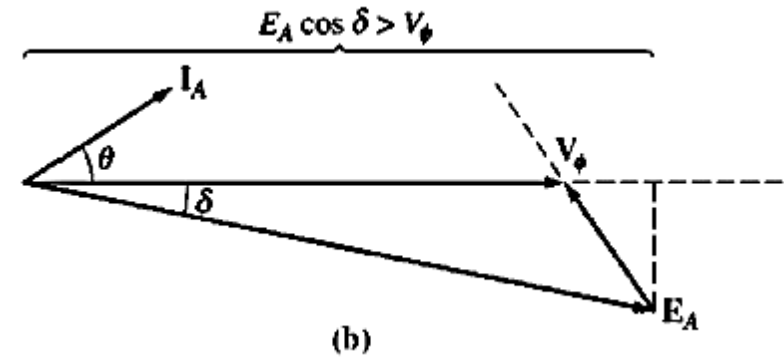
*Synchronous motor V curves.*

While the load is kept constant, **controlling the field current** of a synchronous motor will **change the reactive power supplied or consumed by the motor to or from the power system.**

# Underexcited vs overexcited cases

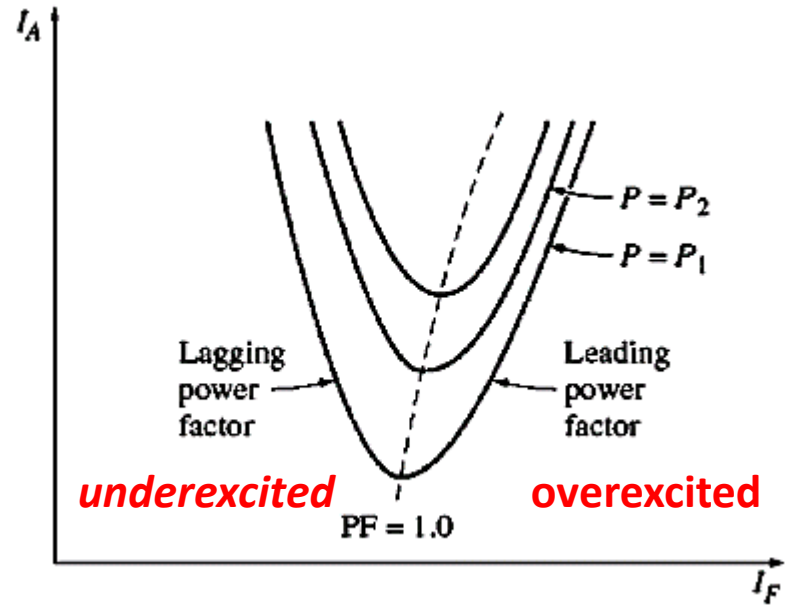


The phasor diagram of an **underexcited** synchronous motor.



The phasor diagram of an **overexcited** synchronous motor.

# Underexcited vs overexcited cases



*Synchronous motor V curves.*

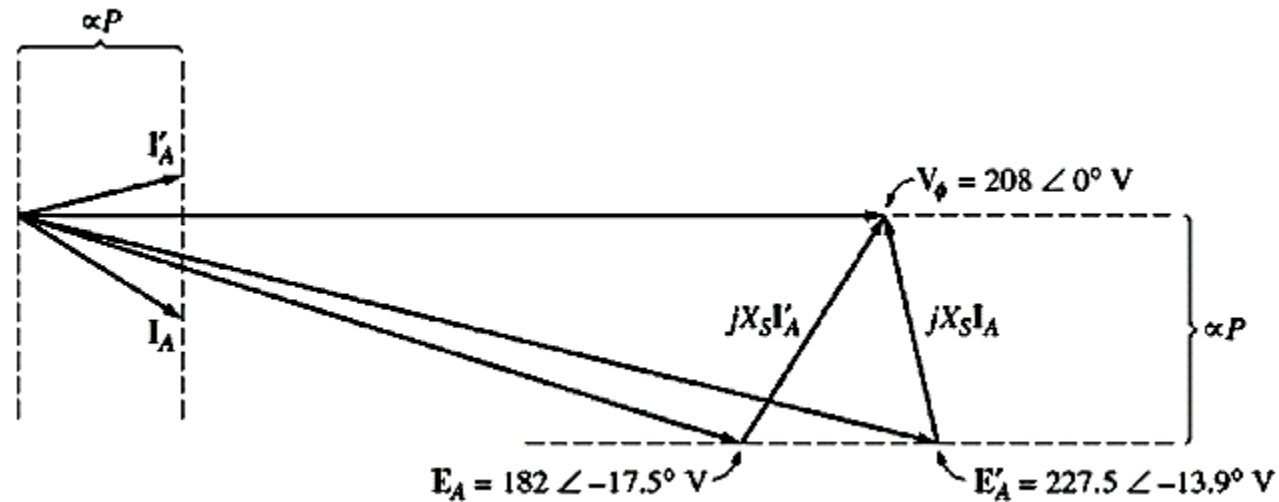
# Effect of field current change on a synchronous motor: An example

**Example:** The **208-V, 45-kVA, 0.8 PF-leading, delta-connected, 60-Hz** synchronous motor of the previous example is supplying a **15-hp load** with an initial power factor of **0.85 PF lagging**. The **field current** at these conditions is **4.0 A**.

- (a) Sketch the initial phasor diagram of this motor, and find the values of  **$IA$**  and  **$EA$** .
- (b) If the **motor's flux is increased by 25 percent**, sketch the new phasor diagram of the motor. What are  **$EA$** ,  **$IA$** , and **the power factor of the motor** now?

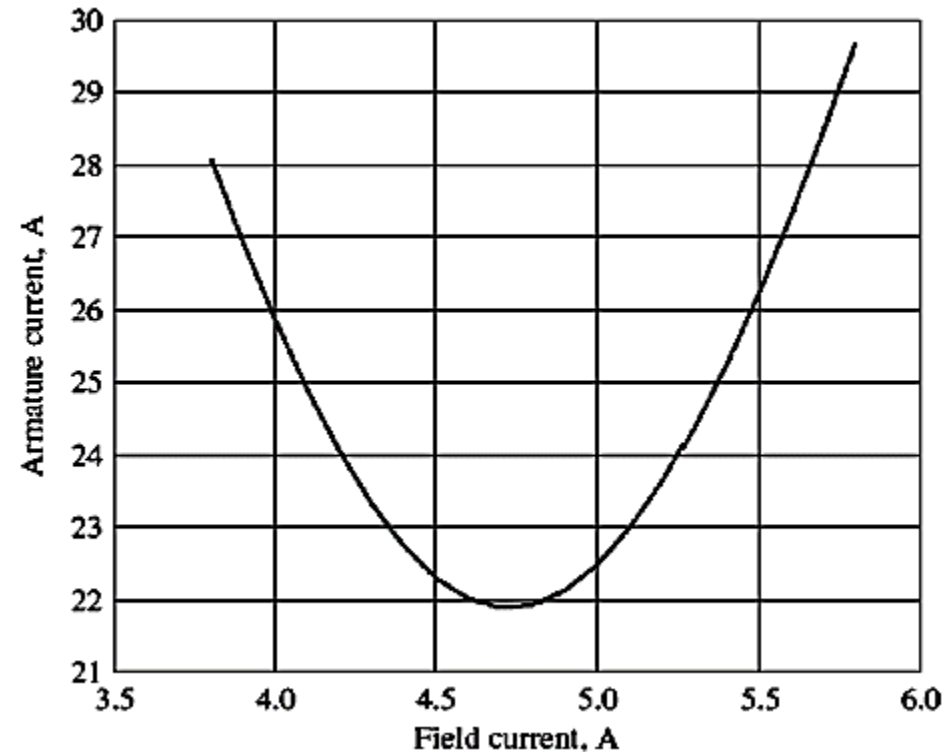
# Effect of field current change on a synchronous motor: An example

Solution:



*The phasor diagram of the motor in Example*

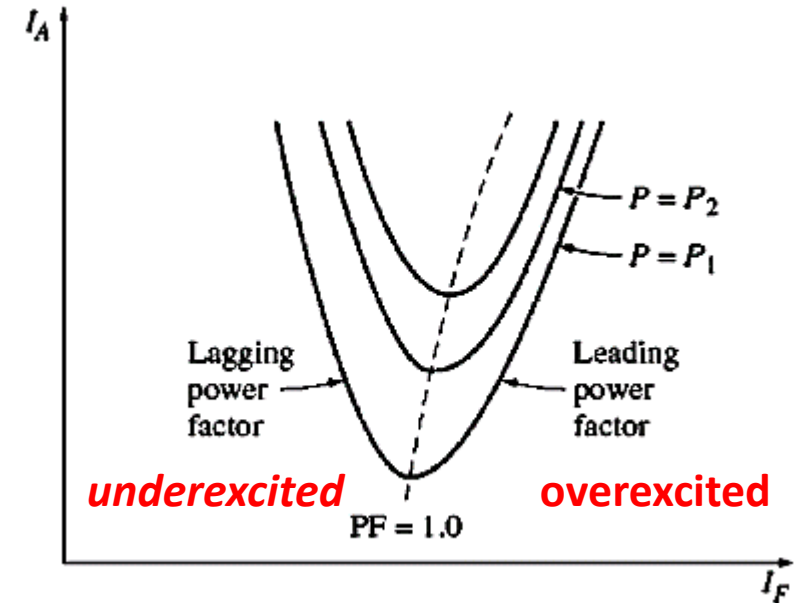
# Effect of field current change on a synchronous motor: An example



*V curve of the synchronous motor in the example*

# Synchronous motor and power factor correction

- We have seen so far that the **power factor of the synchronous motor** can be controlled by **changing the field current** (*See the figure*).
- So if a **synchronous motor** is operated with an electrical load (or a group of loads), it can be used for **reactive power compensation** (*power factor correction*) while it is rotating.



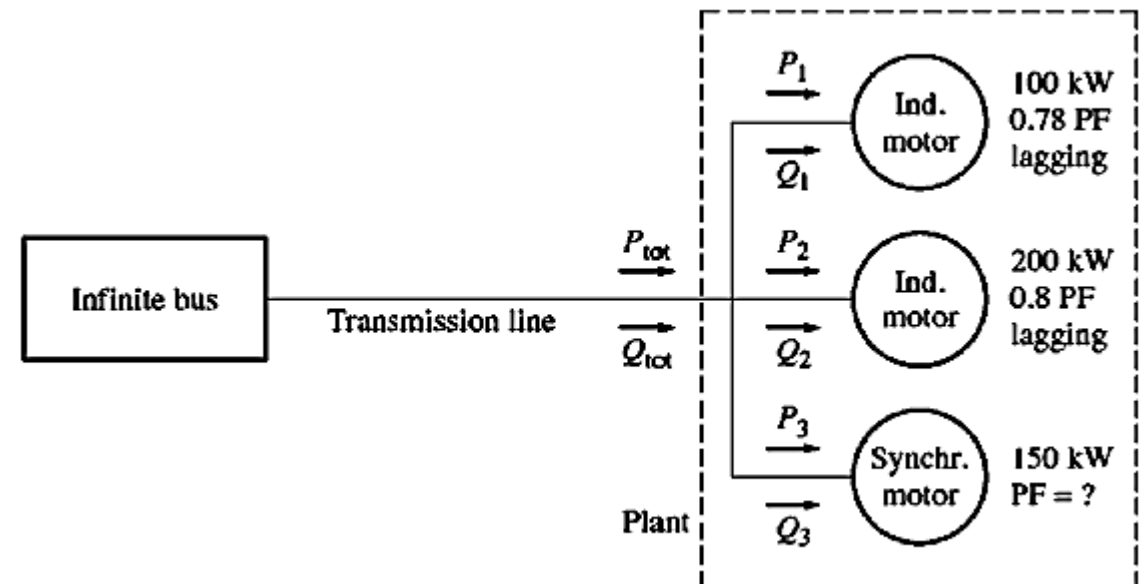
*Synchronous motor V curves.*



# Synchronous motor and power factor correction: An example

The infinite bus in the figure operates at **480 V**. Load 1 is an induction motor consuming **100 kW** at **0.78 PF lagging**, and load 2 is an induction motor consuming **200 kW** at **0.8 PF lagging**. Load 3 is a **synchronous motor** whose real power consumption is **150 kW**.

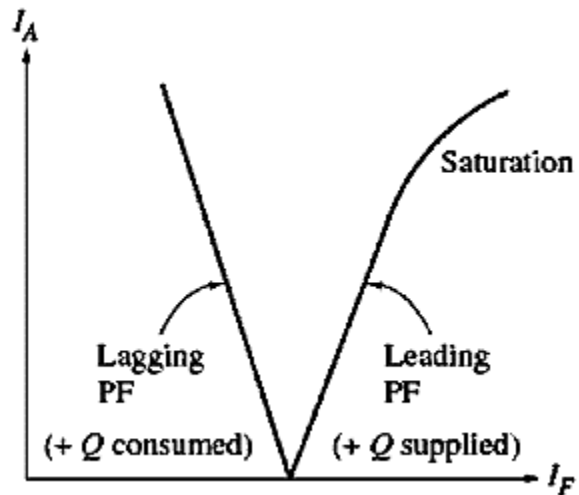
- (a) If the synchronous motor is adjusted to operate at **0.85 PF lagging**, what is the transmission line current in this system?
- (b) If the synchronous motor is adjusted to operate at **0.85 PF leading**, what is the transmission line current in this system?
- (c) How do the transmission losses compare in the two cases?



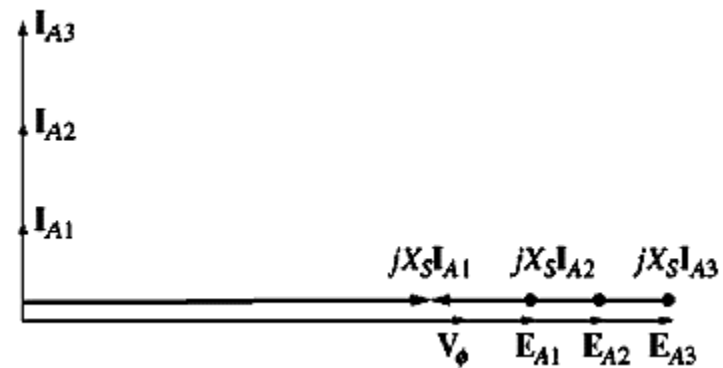
*A simple power system consisting of an infinite bus supplying an industrial plant through a transmission line.*

# Synchronous condenser

- Synchronous condenser (or *synchronous capacitor*) is a synchronous motor without a mechanical load attached to its shaft.
- Synchronous condenser is used for **reactive power compensation** (*power factor correction*).
- If its **field current is increased**, the power factor of the machine changes from **lagging-to-unity-to-leading power factor**



The V curve of a synchronous condenser



The phasor diagram of a synchronous condenser

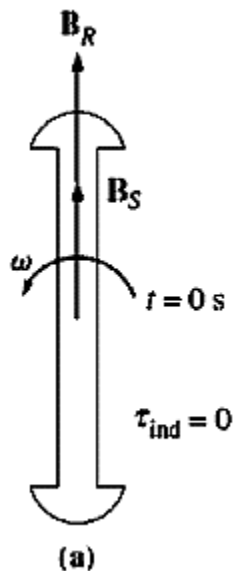
# Synchronous condenser



*A synchronous condenser installation at Templestowe substation, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia. Built in 1966, the unit is hydrogen cooled and capable of providing  $\pm 125$  MVAR of three-phase reactive power.*

# Starting synchronous motors

- Assume that the synchronous motor is **stationary** (*not rotating*) at  $t=0^-$
- Now at  $t=0^+$ ;
  - we apply **60-Hz three-phase voltages** to the stator windings so that  $B_S$  (**stator magnetic field**) is produced.
  - We apply **DC current** to the rotor windings so that  $B_R$  (**rotor magnetic field**) is produced.
- Induced torque ( $\tau_{ind}$ ) in the motor is **zero**, because of the following equation:

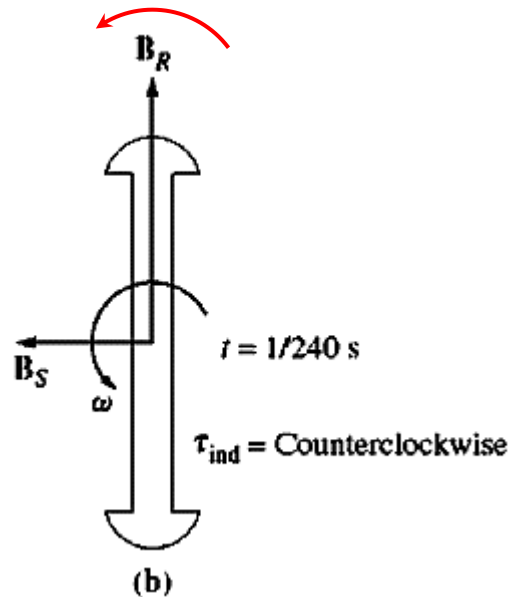


$$\tau_{ind} = kB_R \times B_S = 0$$

$B_R$  and  $B_S$  are parallel

# Starting synchronous motors

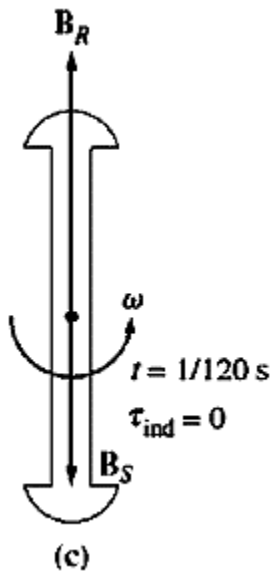
- At  $t = 1/(4 \cdot 60)$  seconds (*quarter of one period*), the orientation of both magnetic fields are shown in the figure.
- **Rotating stator magnetic field ( $B_S$ )** comes to the position as shown in the figure.
- Now, there is an induced torque in the motor, because of the following equation.
- This torque is in the **counterclockwise direction** as shown in the figure.
- Because of this induced torque, the **rotor and rotor magnetic field ( $B_R$ ) barely moved to the left.**
- Because, stator magnetic field is **rotating much faster than rotor**, so the **duration of this torque is very little.**



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

# Starting synchronous motors

- At  $t = 1/(2 \cdot 60)$  seconds (*half of one period*), the orientation of both magnetic fields are shown in the figure.
- We assume that the **rotor position approximately did not change**.
- However, **rotating stator magnetic field ( $B_S$ )** comes to the position as shown in the figure.
- Again induced torque in the motor is **zero** because of the following equation.

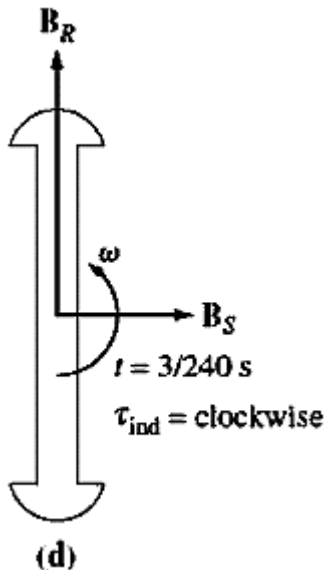


$$\tau_{ind} = k \underbrace{B_R \times B_S}_{=0} = 0$$

$B_R$  and  $B_S$  are reverse-parallel

# Starting synchronous motors

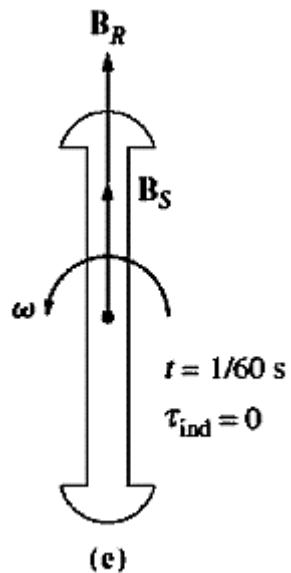
- At  $t = 3/(4 \cdot 60)$  seconds (3. quarter of one period), the orientation of both magnetic fields are shown in the figure.
- We assume that the **rotor position is still same**
- However, **rotating stator magnetic field ( $B_S$ )** comes to the position as shown in the figure.
- Now, there is an induced torque in the motor, given by the following equation.
- This torque is in the **clockwise direction** as shown in the figure.



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

# Starting synchronous motors

- At  $t = 4/(4 \cdot 60)$  seconds (4. quarter of one period), the orientation of both magnetic fields are shown in the figure.
- We assume that the **rotor position is still same**
- However, **rotating stator magnetic field ( $B_S$ )** comes to the position as shown in the figure.
- Again induced torque in the motor is **zero** because of the following equation.



$$\tau_{ind} = k B_R \times B_S = 0$$

$B_R$  and  $B_S$  are parallel



# Starting synchronous motors

- In summary;
- In one period of stator voltage, the **net induced torque** in the machine is **zero**.

$$\tau_{ind(net)} = 0 + \tau_{ind} + 0 + \tau_{ind} = 0$$



Counterclockwise  
direction



Clockwise  
direction

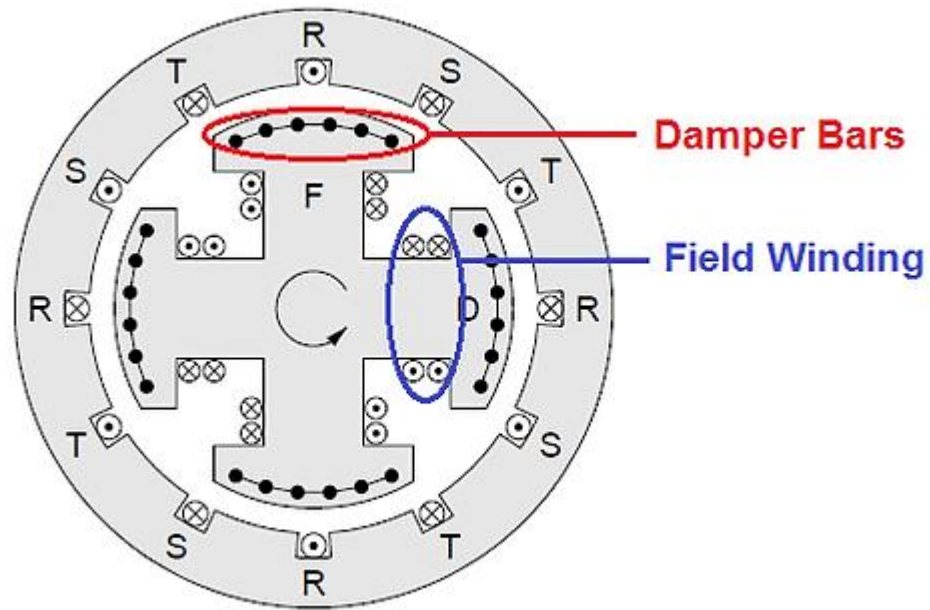
- The synchronous motor **vibrates heavily** in each electrical period and **overheats**.
- The synchronous motor can be **easily damaged because of overheating**.
- So a synchronous motor **cannot be started directly** like DC motors and induction motors.
- There are **different methods** to **start up a synchronous motor**.

# Starting synchronous motors

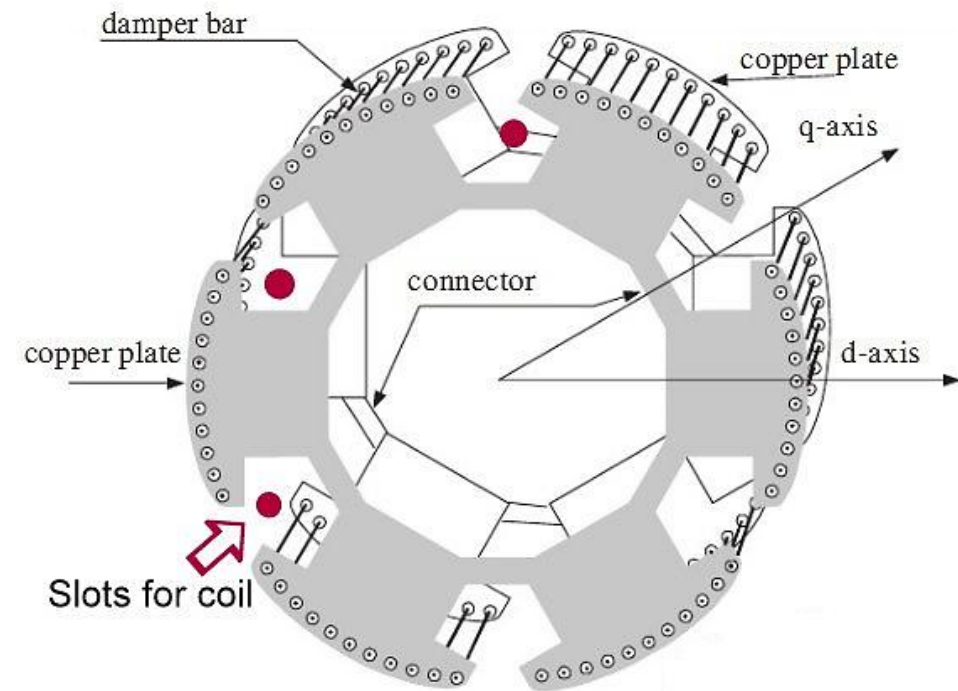
- There are **three basic approaches** to safely start a synchronous motor:
  - 1) **Reduce the speed of the stator magnetic field** to a low enough value that the rotor can accelerate and lock in with it during stator magnetic field's rotation. This can be done by **reducing the frequency** of the **applied three-phase stator voltage**. We can use a **three-phase inverter** to reduce this frequency.
  - 2) **Use an external prime mover** to accelerate the synchronous motor up to synchronous speed, go through the paralleling procedure, and **bring the machine on the line as a generator**. Then, **turning off or disconnecting** the prime mover will make the synchronous machine a **motor**.
  - 3) **Use damper windings (amortisseur windings)** on the rotor of the machine. (*the most popular method*)

# Damper windings

- **Damping** (*amortisseur*) windings (*bar*) are **special bars** laid into notches carved in the face of a synchronous motor's rotor and then **shorted out** on each end by a **shorting ring**.



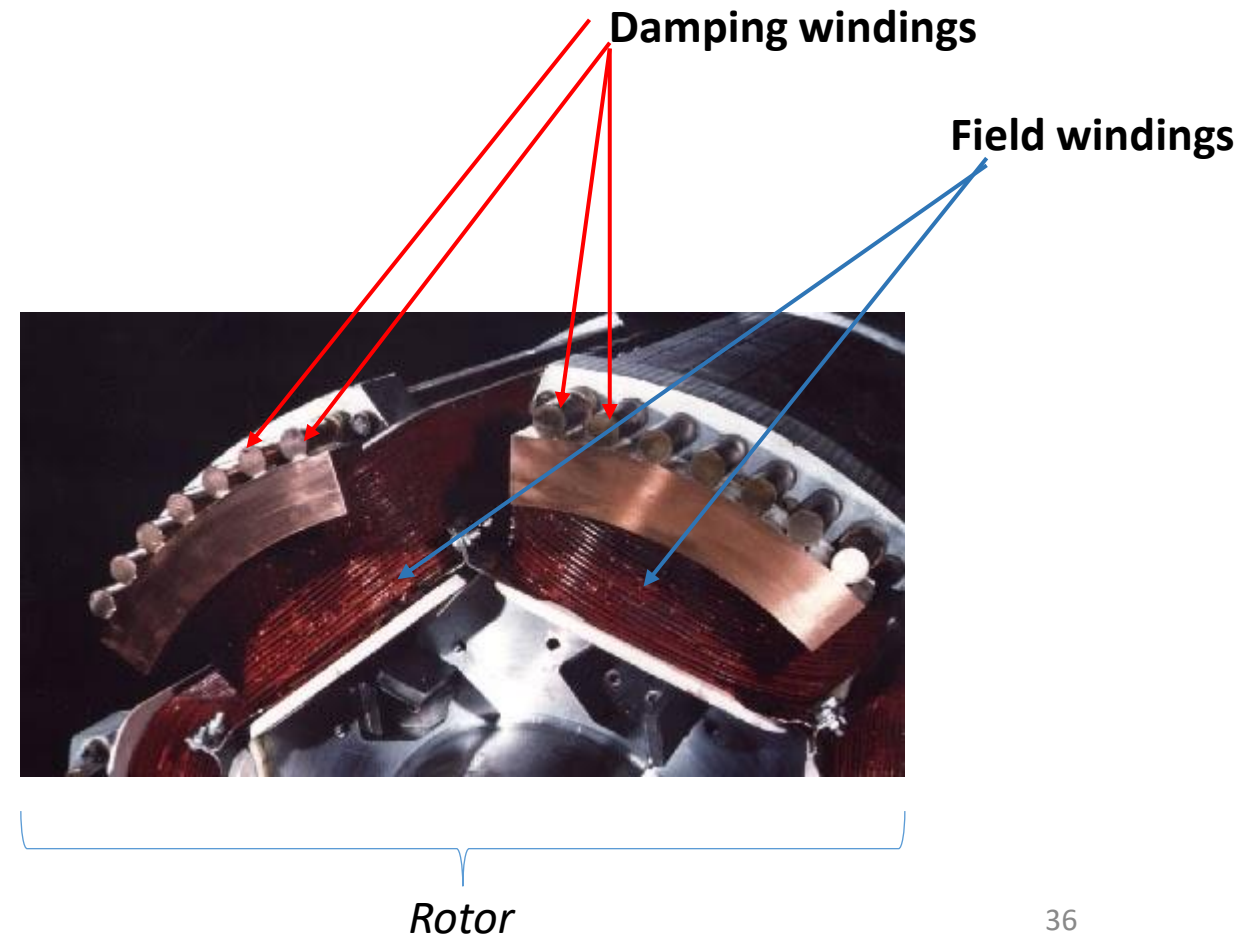
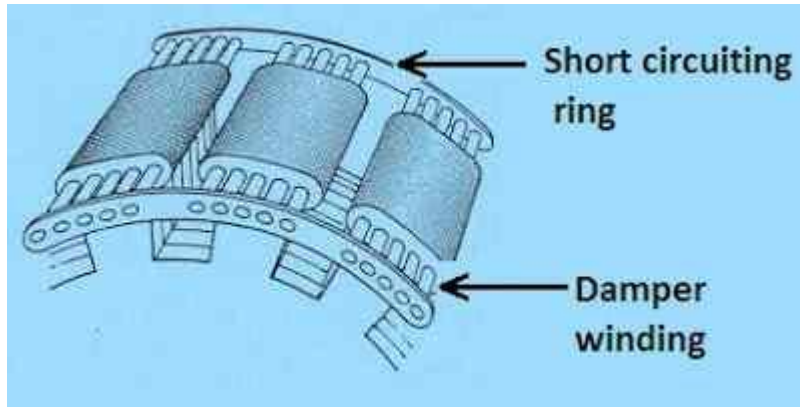
2 dimensional view



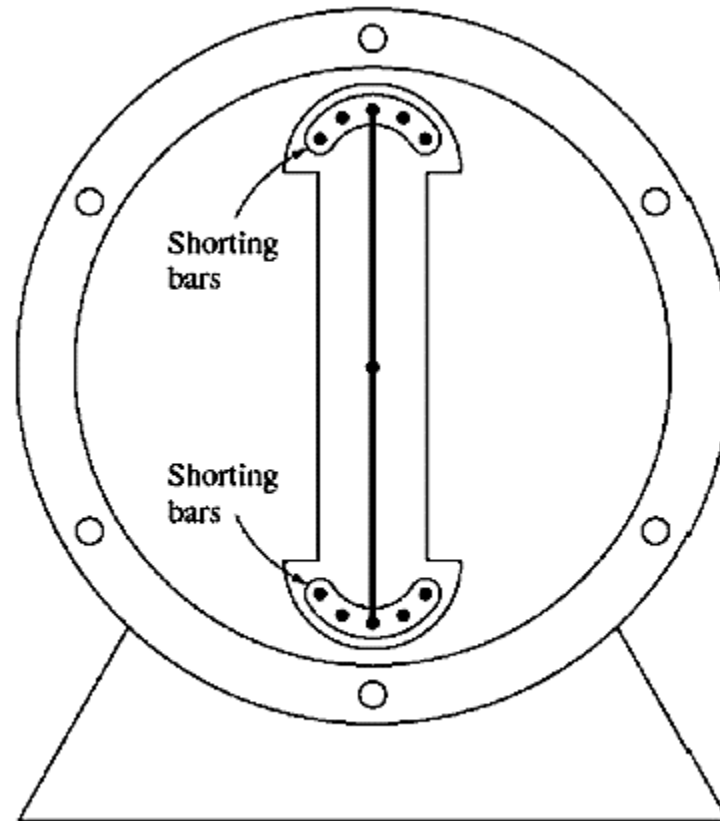
3 dimensional view

# Damper windings

- Damping windings are **short-circuited** using short circuiting ring as shown in the figure.



# How do damper windings operate ?



*A simplified diagram of a salient two-pole machine showing damper windings*

# How do damper windings operate ?

- Assume that initially, the *rotor field winding is disconnected* ( $B_R = 0$ ) and a **three-phase set of voltages** is applied to the stator at  $t=0^+$ .
- At  $t=0^+$ ,  $B_S$  orientation is shown in the figure.
- As the **rotating stator magnetic field**  $B_S$  sweeps along in a counterclockwise direction, it induces a voltage in the bars, given by the following equation:

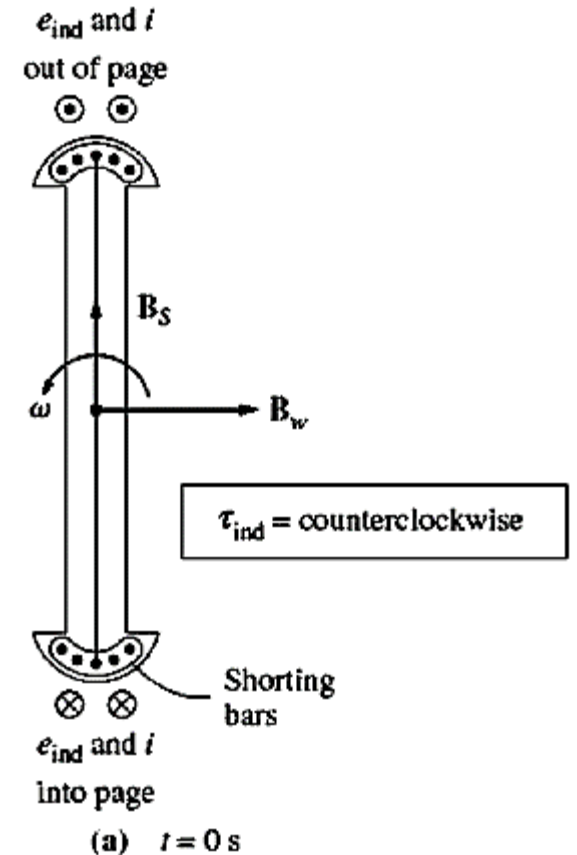
$$e_{ind} = (v \times B) \cdot l$$

where  $v$  = velocity of the bar *relative to the magnetic field*

$B$  = magnetic flux density vector

$l$  = length of conductor in the magnetic field

- The **bars** at the **top of the rotor** are moving to the **right** relative to the magnetic field, so the resulting direction of the **induced voltage** is **out of the page**.
- Similarly, the **induced voltage** is **into the page** in the **bottom bars**.

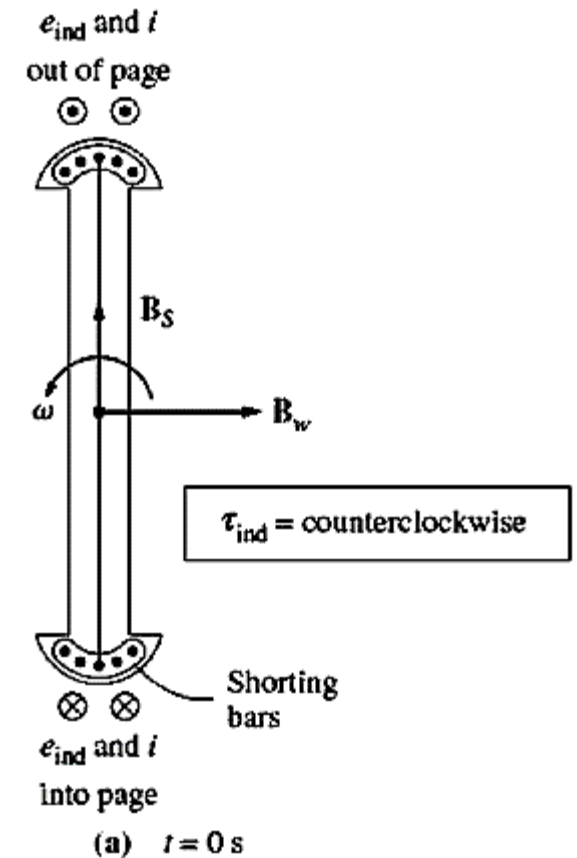


# How do damper windings operate ?

- These voltages produce a **current flow** from the top bars to the bottom bars.
- This current produces **damper winding magnetic field**,  $B_w$  **pointing to the right** as shown in the figure.
- Now, there are **two magnetic fields** in the synchronous motor ( $B_w, B_s$ ) and they produce a **torque**, given by the following equation:

$$\tau_{ind} = kB_w \times B_s$$

- This **induced torque** is in the direction of **counterclockwise** as shown in the figure.



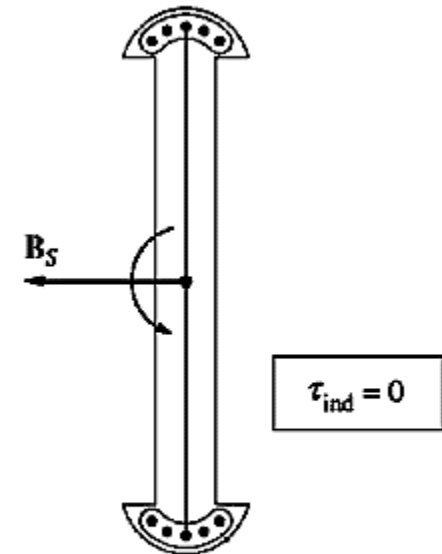
# How do damper windings operate ?

- At  $t = 1/(4 \times 60)$  seconds, the stator magnetic field  $B_S$  has rotated  $90^\circ$  while the rotor has **barely moved** (*it simply cannot speed up in so short a time*).
- At this point, the voltage induced in the damper windings is **zero**, because  **$v$  is parallel to  $B$** .

$$e_{ind} = \underbrace{(v \times B)}_0 \cdot l = 0$$

- With **no induced voltage**, there is **no current** in the windings, and hence  $B_w$  and  $\tau_{ind}$  are both **zero**.

$$\tau_{ind} = k \underbrace{B_w}_0 \times B_S = 0$$



(b)  $t = 1/240$  s



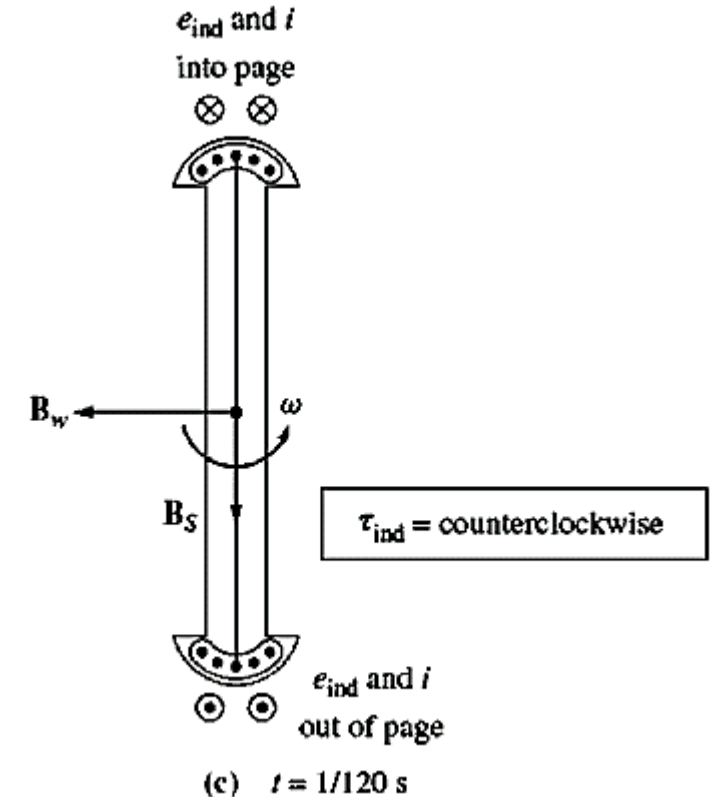
# How do damper windings operate ?

- At  $t = 1/(2 \times 60)$  seconds, the stator magnetic field  $B_S$  has rotated  $90^\circ$  while the rotor still has not moved yet. (it simply cannot speed up in so short a time).
- The induced voltage in the damper windings is **out of the page** in the bottom bars and **into the page** in the top bars.

$$e_{ind} = (v \times B).l$$

- The resulting current flow is **out of the page** in the bottom bars and **into the page** in the top bars, causing a magnetic field  $B_w$ , pointing to the left as shown in the figure.
- The resulting induced torque is given by the following equation and it is in the direction of **counterclockwise**:

$$\tau_{ind} = kB_w \times B_S$$



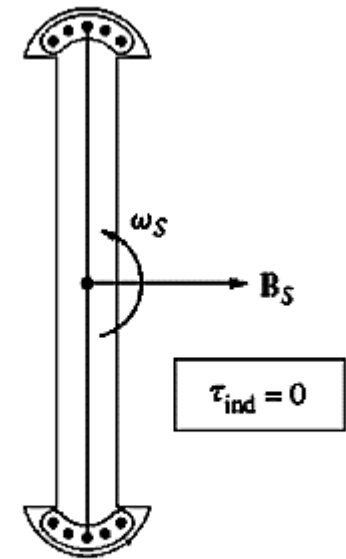
# How do damper windings operate ?

- At  $t = 3/(4 \times 60)$  seconds, the stator magnetic field  $B_S$  has rotated  $90^\circ$  while the rotor has **barely moved** (*it simply cannot speed up in so short a time*).
- At this point, the voltage induced in the damper windings is **zero**, because  **$v$  is parallel to  $B$** .

$$e_{ind} = \underbrace{(v \times B)}_0 \cdot l = 0$$

- With **no induced voltage**, there is **no current** in the windings, and hence  $B_w$  and  $\tau_{ind}$  are both **zero**.

$$\tau_{ind} = k \underbrace{B_w}_0 \times B_S = 0$$




(d)  $t = 3/240$  s

# How do damper windings operate ?

- Finally we see that the **net induced torque** in the synchronous motor is **not zero**:

$$\tau_{ind(net)} = 0 + \tau_{ind} + 0 + \tau_{ind} \neq 0$$

  
*Both are in **counterclockwise** direction*

- This torque is **unidirectional** (*has only one direction all the time*).
- Because of this **non-zero net torque**, the rotor **speeds up**.

# How do damper windings operate ?

- Although the motor's rotor will speed up, it can **never reach synchronous speed**. But why?
- Suppose that the rotor is turning at synchronous speed. Then the speed of the stator magnetic field  $B_S$  is the same as the rotor's speed, and there is **no relative motion** between  $B_S$  and the rotor.
- If there is **no relative motion**, the **induced voltage** in the windings will be **zero**, the resulting **current** flow will be **zero**, and the winding magnetic field  $B_w$  will be **zero**.
- Therefore, there will be **no torque** on the rotor to keep it turning.
- Even though a rotor **cannot speed** up to the **synchronous speed** with **damper windings**, it can get close to the **synchronous speed**.
- Now, the field current can be turned on and applied to the rotor windings.
- After applying the field current, the **rotor speed** will be the **same** as of the **rotating stator magnetic field**  $B_S$  (**synchronous speed**)

# How do damper windings operate ?

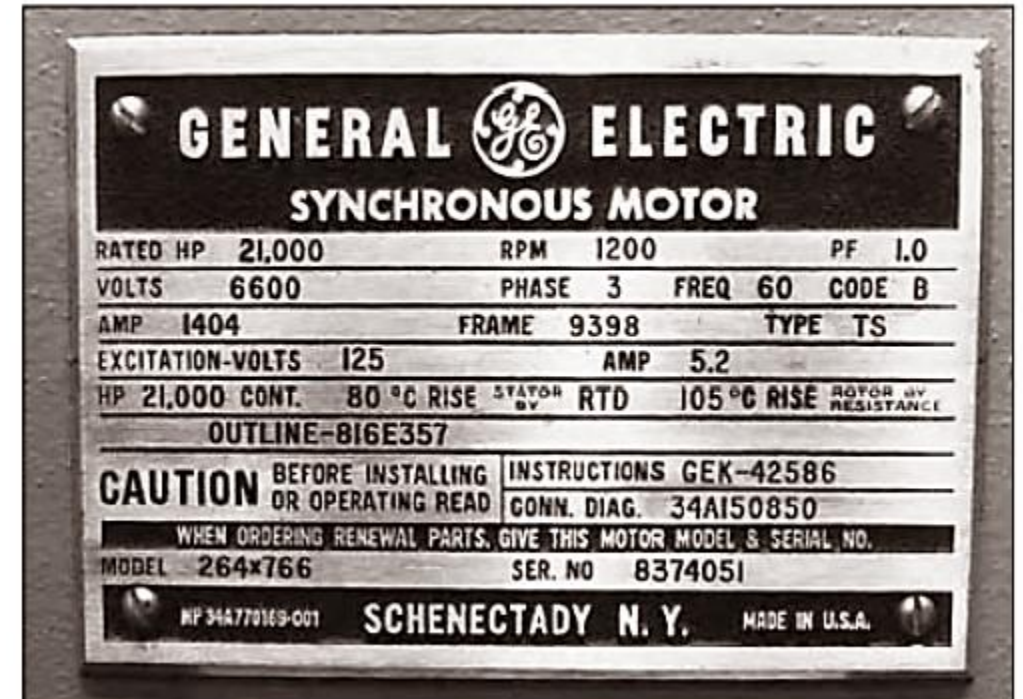
- In summary, if a synchronous motor has **damper** (*amortisseur*) **windings**, it can be started by the following steps:
  - 1) Disconnect the field windings from the DC power supply and short them out. (*Shorting will avoid inducing very high voltages at the terminals of the rotor windings*)
  - 2) Apply a three-phase voltage to the stator, and let the rotor accelerate up to near-synchronous speed.
  - 3) The motor should have no load on its shaft , so that its speed can approach synchronous speed as closely as possible.
  - 4) Connect the DC field circuit to its power source. After this is done, the motor will lock into the synchronous speed, and loads may then be added to its shaft.

# Comparison of synchronous generators and synchronous motors

	Supply reactive power $Q$ $E_A \cos \delta > V_\phi$	Consume reactive power $Q$ $E_A \cos \delta < V_\phi$
Supply power $P$ Generator  $E_A$ leads $V_\phi$		
Consume power $P$ Motor  $E_A$ lags $V_\phi$		

# Synchronous motor ratings

- Since **synchronous motors** are the **same physical machines** as **synchronous generators**, the basic machine ratings are the **same**.
- The one major difference is that a large  $E_A$  gives a **leading power factor** instead of a **lagging one**.
- Since the output of a **synchronous motor** is **mechanical power**, a **synchronous motor's power rating** is usually given in **horsepower** rather than **kilowatts**.
- In general, **synchronous motors** are **more adaptable** to **low-speed, high-power applications** than **induction motors**.
- **Synchronous motors**, therefore, are commonly used for **low-speed, high-power loads**.



**END OF CHAPTER 3**

***SYNCHRONOUS MOTORS***