

2. ELECTRIC MOTORS

Syllabus

Electric motors: Types, Losses in induction motors, Motor efficiency, Factors affecting motor performance, Rewinding and motor replacement issues, Energy saving opportunities with energy efficient motors.

2.1 Introduction

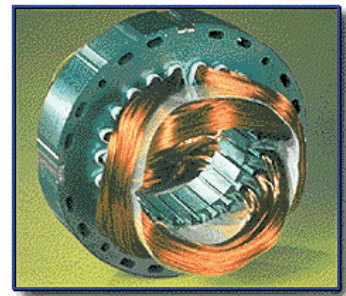
Motors convert electrical energy into mechanical energy by the interaction between the magnetic fields set up in the stator and rotor windings. Industrial electric motors can be broadly classified as induction motors, direct current motors or synchronous motors. All motor types have the same four operating components: stator (stationary windings), rotor (rotating windings), bearings, and frame (enclosure).

2.2 Motor Types

Induction Motors

Induction motors are the most commonly used prime mover for various equipments in industrial applications. In induction motors, the induced magnetic field of the stator winding induces a current in the rotor. This induced rotor current produces a second magnetic field, which tries to oppose the stator magnetic field, and this causes the rotor to rotate.

The 3-phase squirrel cage motor is the workhorse of industry; it is rugged and reliable, and is by far the most common motor type used in industry. These motors drive pumps, blowers and fans, compressors, conveyers and production lines. The 3-phase induction motor has three windings each connected to a separate phase of the power supply.



Direct-Current Motors

Direct-Current motors, as the name implies, use direct-unidirectional, current. Direct current motors are used in special applications- where high torque starting or where smooth acceleration over a broad speed range is required.

Synchronous Motors

AC power is fed to the stator of the synchronous motor. The rotor is fed by DC from a separate source. The rotor magnetic field locks onto the stator rotating magnetic field and rotates at the same speed. The speed of the rotor is a function of the supply frequency and the number of magnetic poles in the stator. While induction motors rotate with a slip, i.e., rpm is less than the synchronous speed, the synchronous motor rotate with no slip, i.e., the RPM is same as the synchronous speed governed by supply frequency and number of poles. The slip energy is provided by the D.C. excitation power

2.3 Motor Characteristics

Motor Speed

The speed of a motor is the number of revolutions in a given time frame, typically revolutions per minute (RPM). The speed of an AC motor depends on the frequency of the input power and the number of poles for which the motor is wound. The synchronous speed in RPM is given by the following equation, where the frequency is in hertz or cycles per second:

$$\text{Synchronous Speed (RPM)} = \frac{120 \times \text{Frequency}}{\text{No. of Poles}}$$

Indian motors have synchronous speeds like 3000 / 1500 / 1000 / 750 / 600 / 500 / 375 RPM corresponding to no. of poles being 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 16 (always even) and given the mains frequency of 50 cycles / sec.

The actual speed, with which the motor operates, will be less than the synchronous speed. The difference between synchronous and full load speed is called slip and is measured in percent. It is calculated using this equation:

$$\text{Slip (\%)} = \frac{\text{Synchronous Speed} - \text{Full Load Rated Speed}}{\text{Synchronous Speed}} \times 100$$

As per relation stated above, the speed of an AC motor is determined by the number of motor poles and by the input frequency. It can also be seen that theoretically speed of an AC motor can be varied infinitely by changing the frequency. Manufacturer's guidelines should be referred for practical limits to speed variation. With the addition of a Variable Frequency Drive (VFD), the speed of the motor can be decreased as well as increased.

Power Factor

The power factor of the motor is given as: $\text{Power Factor} = \text{Cos } \phi = \frac{\text{kW}}{\text{kVA}}$

As the load on the motor comes down, the magnitude of the **active current** reduces. However, there is no corresponding reduction in the **magnetizing current**, which is proportional to supply voltage with the result that the motor power factor reduces, with a reduction in applied load. Induction motors, especially those operating below their rated capacity, are the main reason for low power factor in electric systems.

2.4 Motor Efficiency

Two important attributes relating to efficiency of electricity use by A.C. Induction motors are efficiency (η), defined as the ratio of the mechanical energy delivered at the rotating shaft to the electrical energy input at its terminals, and power factor (PF). Motors, like other inductive loads, are characterized by power factors less than one. As a result, the total current draw needed to deliver the same real power is higher than for a load characterized by a higher PF. An important effect of operating with a PF less than one is that resistance losses in wiring upstream of the motor will be higher, since these are proportional to the square of the current. Thus, both a high value for η and a PF close to unity are desired for efficient overall operation in a plant.

Squirrel cage motors are normally more efficient than slip-ring motors, and higher-speed motors are normally more efficient than lower-speed motors. Efficiency is also a function of

motor temperature. Totally-enclosed, fan-cooled (TEFC) motors are more efficient than screen-protected, drip-proof (SPDP) motors. Also, as with most equipment, motor efficiency increases with the rated capacity.

The efficiency of a motor is determined by intrinsic losses that can be reduced only by changes in motor design. Intrinsic losses are of two types: **fixed losses** - independent of motor load, and **variable losses** - dependent on load.

Fixed losses consist of magnetic core losses and friction and windage losses. Magnetic core losses (sometimes called iron losses) consist of eddy current and hysteresis losses in the stator. They vary with the core material and geometry and with input voltage.

Friction and windage losses are caused by friction in the bearings of the motor and aerodynamic losses associated with the ventilation fan and other rotating parts.

Variable losses consist of resistance losses in the stator and in the rotor and miscellaneous stray losses. Resistance to current flow in the stator and rotor result in heat generation that is proportional to the resistance of the material and the square of the current (I^2R). Stray losses arise from a variety of sources and are difficult to either measure directly or to calculate, but are generally proportional to the square of the rotor current.

Part-load performance characteristics of a motor also depend on its design. Both η and PF fall to very low levels at low loads. The Figures 2.1 shows the effect of load on power factor and efficiency. It can be seen that power factor drops sharply at part loads. The Figure 2.2 shows the effect of speed on power factor.

Field Tests for Determining Efficiency

No Load Test: The motor is run at rated voltage and frequency without any shaft load. Input power, current, frequency and voltage are noted. The no load P.F. is quite low and hence low PF wattmeters are required. From the input power, stator I^2R losses under no load are subtracted to give the sum of Friction and Windage (F&W) and core losses. To separate core and F &

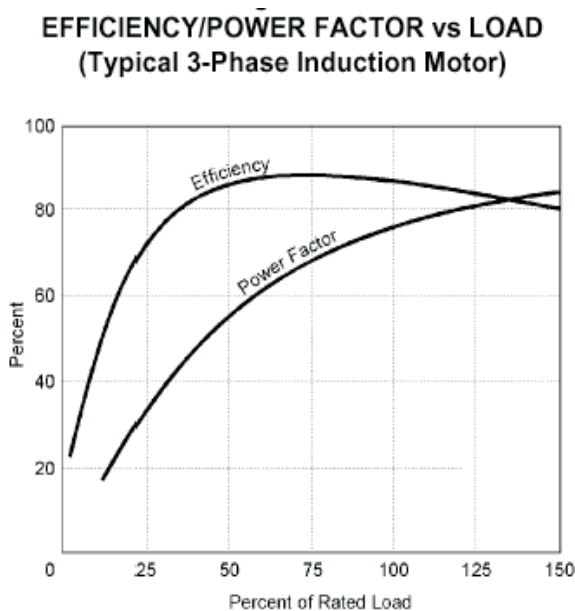


Figure 2.1 % Load vs. Power factor, Efficiency

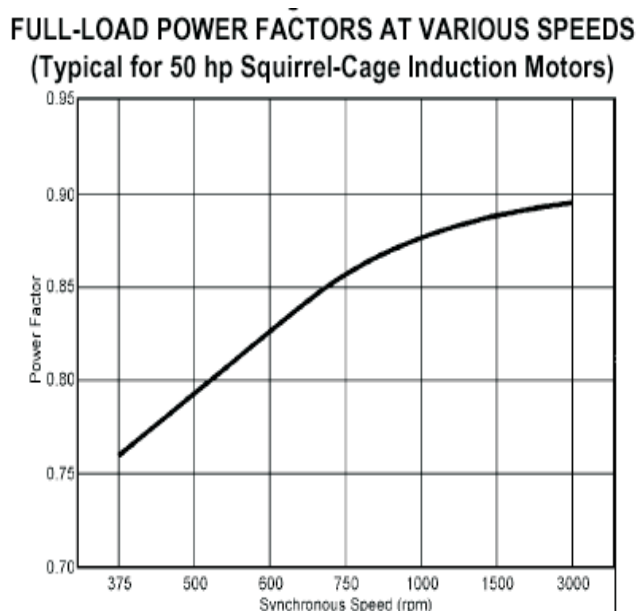


Figure 2.2 Speed vs. Power factor

W losses, test is repeated at variable voltages. It is useful to plot no-load input kW versus Voltage; the intercept is Friction & Windage kW loss component.

F&W and core losses = No load power (watts) - (No load current)² × Stator resistance

Stator and Rotor I²R Losses: The stator winding resistance is directly measured by a bridge or volt amp method. The resistance must be corrected to the operating temperature. For modern motors, the operating temperature is likely to be in the range of 100°C to 120°C and necessary correction should be made. Correction to 75°C may be inaccurate. The correction factor is given as follows :

$$\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \frac{235 + t_2}{235 + t_1}, \text{ where, } t_1 = \text{ambient temperature, } ^\circ\text{C} \text{ \& } t_2 = \text{operating temperature, } ^\circ\text{C}.$$

The rotor resistance can be determined from locked rotor test at reduced frequency, but rotor I²R losses are measured from measurement of rotor slip.

Rotor I²R losses = Slip × (Stator Input – Stator I²R Losses – Core Loss)

Accurate measurement of slip is possible by stroboscope or non-contact type tachometer. Slip also must be corrected to operating temperature.

Stray Load Losses: These losses are difficult to measure with any accuracy. IEEE Standard 112 gives a complicated method, which is rarely used on shop floor. IS and IEC standards take a fixed value as 0.5 % of input. The actual value of stray losses is likely to be more. IEEE – 112 specifies values from 0.9 % to 1.8 % (see Table 2.1.)

TABLE 2.1 MOTOR RATING VS. STRAY LOSSES - IEEE	
Motor Rating	Stray Losses
1 – 125 HP	1.8 %
125 – 500 HP	1.5 %
501 – 2499 HP	1.2 %
2500 and above	0.9 %

Pointers for Users:

It must be clear that accurate determination of efficiency is very difficult. The same motor tested by different methods and by same methods by different manufacturers can give a difference of 2 %. In view of this, for selecting high efficiency motors, the following can be done:

- When purchasing large number of small motors or a large motor, ask for a detailed test certificate. If possible, try to remain present during the tests; This will add cost.
- See that efficiency values are specified without any tolerance
- Check the actual input current and kW, if replacement is done
- For new motors, keep a record of no load input power and current
- Use values of efficiency for comparison and for confirming; rely on measured inputs for all calculations.

Estimation of efficiency in the field can be done as follows:

- Measure stator resistance and correct to operating temperature. From rated current value , I^2R losses are calculated.
- From rated speed and output, rotor I^2R losses are calculated
- From no load test, core and F & W losses are determined for stray loss

The method is illustrated by the following example:

Example :

Motor Specifications

Rated power	= 34 kW/45 HP
Voltage	= 415 Volt
Current	= 57 Amps
Speed	= 1475 rpm
Insulation class	= F
Frame	= LD 200 L
Connection	= Delta

No load test Data

Voltage, V	= 415 Volts
Current, I	= 16.1 Amps
Frequency, F	= 50 Hz
Stator phase resistance at 30°C	= 0.264 Ohms
No load power, P _{nl}	= 1063.74 Watts

- Calculate iron plus friction and windage losses
- Calculate stator resistance at 120°C

$$R_2 = R_1 \times \frac{235 + t_2}{235 + t_1}$$

- Calculate stator copper losses at operating temperature of resistance at 120°C
- Calculate full load slip(s) and rotor input assuming rotor losses are slip times rotor input.
- Determine the motor input assuming that stray losses are 0.5 % of the motor rated power
- Calculate motor full load efficiency and full load power factor

Solution

- Let Iron plus friction and windage loss, $P_i + f_w$
No load power, $P_{nl} = 1063.74$ Watts

Stator Copper loss, $P_{st-30^{\circ}\text{C}}$ ($P_{st.cu}$)

$$= 3 \times (16.1 / \sqrt{3})^2 \times 0.264$$

$$= 68.43 \text{ Watts}$$

$$P_i + f_w = P_{nl} - P_{st.cu}$$

$$= 1063.74 - 68.43$$

$$= 995.3 \text{ W}$$

b) Stator Resistance at 120°C ,

$$R_{120^{\circ}\text{C}} = 0.264 \times \frac{120 + 235}{30 + 235}$$

$$= 0.354 \text{ ohms per phase}$$

c) Stator copper losses at full load, $P_{st.cu}$ 120°C

$$= 3 \times (57 / \sqrt{3})^2 \times 0.354$$

$$= 1150.1 \text{ Watts}$$

d) Full load slip

$$S = (1500 - 1475) / 1500$$

$$= 0.0167$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rotor input, } P_r &= P_{\text{output}} / (1-S) \\ &= 34000 / (1-0.0167) \\ &= 34577.4 \text{ Watts} \end{aligned}$$

e) Motor full load input power, P_{input}

$$= P_r + P_{st.cu} \text{ } 120^{\circ}\text{C} + (P_i + f_w) + P_{\text{stray}}$$

$$= 34577.4 + 1150.1 + 995.3 + (0.005^* \times 34000)$$

$$= 36892.8 \text{ Watts}$$

*where, stray losses = 0.5% of rated output (assumed)

f) Motor efficiency at full load

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{P_{\text{output}}}{P_{\text{input}}} \times 100$$

$$= \frac{34000}{36892.8} \times 100$$

$$= 92.2 \%$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Full Load PF} &= \frac{P_{\text{input}}}{\sqrt{3} \times V \times I_{\text{fl}}} \\
 &= \frac{36892.8}{\sqrt{3} \times 415 \times 57} \\
 &= 0.90
 \end{aligned}$$

Comments :

- a) The measurement of stray load losses is very difficult and not practical even on test beds.
- b) The actual value of stray loss of motors up to 200 HP is likely to be 1 % to 3 % compared to 0.5 % assumed by standards.
- c) The value of full load slip taken from the nameplate data is not accurate. Actual measurement under full load conditions will give better results.
- d) The friction and windage losses really are part of the shaft output; however, in the above calculation, it is not added to the rated shaft output, before calculating the rotor input power. The error however is minor.
- e) When a motor is rewound, there is a fair chance that the resistance per phase would increase due to winding material quality and the losses would be higher. It would be interesting to assess the effect of a nominal 10 % increase in resistance per phase.

2.5 Motor Selection

The primary technical consideration defining the motor choice for any particular application is the torque required by the load, especially the relationship between the maximum torque generated by the motor (break-down torque) and the torque requirements for start-up (locked rotor torque) and during acceleration periods.

The duty / load cycle determines the thermal loading on the motor. One consideration with totally enclosed fan cooled (TEFC) motors is that the cooling may be insufficient when the motor is operated at speeds below its rated value.

Ambient operating conditions affect motor choice; special motor designs are available for corrosive or dusty atmospheres, high temperatures, restricted physical space, etc.

An estimate of the switching frequency (usually dictated by the process), whether automatic or manually controlled, can help in selecting the appropriate motor for the duty cycle.

The demand a motor will place on the balance of the plant electrical system is another consideration - if the load variations are large, for example as a result of frequent starts and stops of large components like compressors, the resulting large voltage drops could be detrimental to other equipment.

Reliability is of prime importance - in many cases, however, designers and process engineers seeking reliability will grossly oversize equipment, leading to sub-optimal energy performance. Good knowledge of process parameters and a better understanding of the plant power system can aid in reducing oversizing with no loss of reliability.

Inventory is another consideration - Many large industries use standard equipment, which can be easily serviced or replaced, thereby reducing the stock of spare parts that must be maintained and minimizing shut-down time. This practice affects the choice of motors that might provide better energy performance in specific applications. Shorter lead times for securing individual motors from suppliers would help reduce the need for this practice.

Price is another issue - Many users are first-cost sensitive, leading to the purchase of less expensive motors that may be more costly on a lifecycle basis because of lower efficiency. For example, energy efficient motors or other specially designed motors typically save within a few years an amount of money equal to several times the incremental cost for an energy efficient motor, over a standard-efficiency motor. Few of salient selection issues are given below:

- In the selection process, the power drawn at 75 % of loading can be a meaningful indicator of energy efficiency.
- Reactive power drawn (kVAR) by the motor.
- Indian Standard 325 for standard motors allows 15 % tolerance on efficiency for motors upto 50 kW rating and 10 % for motors over 50 kW rating.
- The Indian Standard IS 8789 addresses technical performance of Standard Motors while IS 12615 addresses the efficiency criteria of High Efficiency Motors. Both follow IEC 34-2 test methodology wherein, stray losses are assumed as 0.5 % of input power. By the IEC test method, the losses are understated and if one goes by IEEE test methodology, the motor efficiency values would be further lowered.
- It would be prudent for buyers to procure motors based on test certificates rather than labeled values.
- The energy savings by motor replacement can be worked out by the simple relation : kW savings = kW output \times [$1/\eta_{old} - 1/\eta_{new}$] where η_{old} and η_{new} are the existing and proposed motor efficiency values.
- The cost benefits can be worked out on the basis of premium required for high efficiency vs. worth of annual savings.

2.6 Energy-Efficient Motors

Energy-efficient motors (EEM) are the ones in which, design improvements are incorporated specifically to increase operating efficiency over motors of standard design (see Figure 2.3). Design improvements focus on reducing intrinsic motor losses. Improvements include the use of lower-loss silicon steel, a longer core (to increase active material), thicker wires (to reduce resistance), thinner laminations, smaller air gap between stator and rotor, copper instead of aluminum bars in the rotor, superior bearings and a smaller fan, etc.

Energy-efficient motors now available in India operate with efficiencies that are typically 3 to 4 percentage points higher than standard motors. In keeping with the stipulations of the BIS, energy-efficient motors are designed to operate without loss in efficiency at loads between 75 % and 100 % of rated capacity. This may result in major benefits in varying load applications. The power factor is about the same or may be higher than for standard motors. Furthermore, energy-

STANDARD vs HIGH EFFICIENCY MOTORS (Typical 3-Phase Induction Motor)

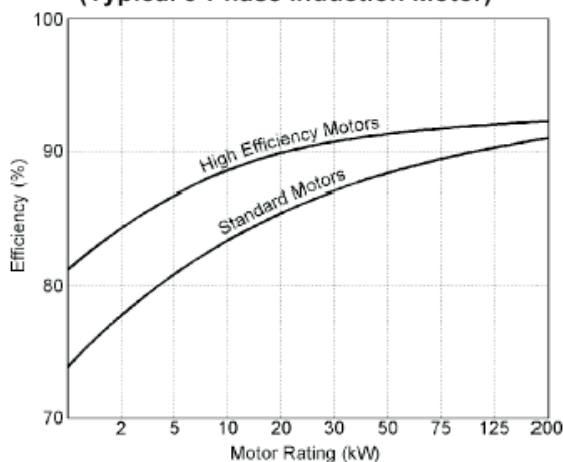


Figure 2.3 Standard vs High Efficiency Motors

efficient motors have lower operating temperatures and noise levels, greater ability to accelerate higher-inertia loads, and are less affected by supply voltage fluctuations.

Measures adopted for energy efficiency address each loss specifically as under:

Stator and Rotor I^2R Losses

These losses are major losses and typically account for 55% to 60% of the total losses. I^2R losses are heating losses resulting from current passing through stator and rotor conductors. I^2R losses are the function of a conductor resistance, the square of current. Resistance of conductor is a function of conductor material, length and cross sectional area. The suitable selection of copper conductor size will reduce the resistance. Reducing the motor current is most readily accomplished by decreasing the magnetizing component of current. This involves lowering the operating flux density and possible shortening of air gap. Rotor I^2R losses are a function of the rotor conductors (usually aluminium) and the rotor slip. Utilisation of copper conductors will reduce the winding resistance. Motor operation closer to synchronous speed will also reduce rotor I^2R losses.

Core Losses

Core losses are those found in the stator-rotor magnetic steel and are due to hysteresis effect and eddy current effect during 50 Hz magnetization of the core material. These losses are independent of load and account for 20 – 25 % of the total losses.

The hysteresis losses which are a function of flux density, are reduced by utilizing low-loss grade of silicon steel laminations. The reduction of flux density is achieved by suitable increase in the core length of stator and rotor. Eddy current losses are generated by circulating current within the core steel laminations. These are reduced by using thinner laminations.

Friction and Windage Losses

Friction and windage losses result from bearing friction, windage and circulating air through the motor and account for 8 – 12 % of total losses. These losses are independent of load. The

reduction in heat generated by stator and rotor losses permit the use of smaller fan. The windage losses also reduce with the diameter of fan leading to reduction in windage losses.

Stray Load-Losses

These losses vary according to square of the load current and are caused by leakage flux induced by load currents in the laminations and account for 4 to 5 % of total losses. These losses are reduced by careful selection of slot numbers, tooth/slot geometry and air gap.

Energy efficient motors cover a wide range of ratings and the full load efficiencies are higher by 3 to 7 %. The mounting dimensions are also maintained as per IS1231 to enable easy replacement.

As a result of the modifications to improve performance, the costs of energy-efficient motors are higher than those of standard motors. The higher cost will often be paid back rapidly in saved operating costs, particularly in new applications or end-of-life motor replacements. In cases where existing motors have not reached the end of their useful life, the economics will be less clearly positive.

Because the favourable economics of energy-efficient motors are based on savings in operating costs, there may be certain cases which are generally economically ill-suited to energy-efficient motors. These include highly intermittent duty or special torque applications such as hoists and cranes, traction drives, punch presses, machine tools, and centrifuges. In addition, energy-efficient designs of multi-speed motors are generally not available. Furthermore, energy-efficient motors are not yet available for many special applications, e.g. for flame-proof operation in oil-field or fire pumps or for very low speed applications (below 750 rpm). Also, most energy-efficient motors produced today are designed only for continuous duty cycle operation.

Given the tendency of over sizing on the one hand and ground realities like ; voltage, frequency variations, efficacy of rewinding in case of a burnout, on the other hand, benefits of EEM's can be achieved only by careful selection, implementation, operation and maintenance efforts of energy managers.

A summary of energy efficiency improvements in EEMs is given in the Table 2.2:

TABLE 2.2 ENERGY EFFICIENT MOTORS	
Power Loss Area	Efficiency Improvement
1. Iron	Use of thinner gauge, lower loss core steel reduces eddy current losses. Longer core adds more steel to the design, which reduces losses due to lower operating flux densities.
2. Stator I ² R	Use of more copper and larger conductors increases cross sectional area of stator windings. This lowers resistance (R) of the windings and reduces losses due to current flow (I).
3. Rotor I ² R	Use of larger rotor conductor bars increases size of cross section, lowering conductor resistance (R) and losses due to current flow (I).
4. Friction & Windage	Use of low loss fan design reduces losses due to air movement.
5. Stray Load Loss	Use of optimized design and strict quality control procedures minimizes stray load losses.

2.7 Factors Affecting Energy Efficiency & Minimising Motor Losses in Operation

Power Supply Quality

Motor performance is affected considerably by the quality of input power, that is the actual volts and frequency available at motor terminals vis-à-vis rated values as well as voltage and frequency variations and voltage unbalance across the three phases. Motors in India must comply with standards set by the Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS) for tolerance to variations in input power quality. The BIS standards specify that a motor should be capable of delivering its rated output with a voltage variation of $\pm 6\%$ and frequency variation of $\pm 3\%$. Fluctuations much larger than these are quite common in utility-supplied electricity in India. Voltage fluctuations can have detrimental impacts on motor performance. The general effects of voltage and frequency variation on motor performance are presented in Table 2.3:

Voltage unbalance, the condition where the voltages in the three phases are not equal, can be still more detrimental to motor performance and motor life. Unbalance typically occurs as a result of supplying single-phase loads disproportionately from one of the phases. It can also result from the use of different sizes of cables in the distribution system. An example of the effect of voltage unbalance on motor performance is shown in Table 2.4.

TABLE 2.3 GENERAL EFFECTS OF VOLTAGE AND FREQUENCY VARIATION ON INDUCTION MOTOR CHARACTERISTICS

	Percentage	Starting and Max. Running Torque	Syn-chronous Speed %	% Slip	Full-load Speed %	Efficiency			Power Factor			Full-load Current %	Starting Current %	Max. Overload Capacity %
						100 % Load	75 % Load	50 % Load	100 % Load	75 % Load	50 % Load			
Voltage	120	↑ 44	None	↓ 30	↑ 1.5	Small incr.	↓ 5 to 2 pts.	↓ 7 to 20 pts	↓ 5 to 15 pts	↓ 10 to 30 pts	↓ 15 to 40 pts	↓ 11	↑ 25	↑ 44
	110	↑ 21	None	↓ 17	↑ 1	↑ .5 to 1 pt.	Almost none	↓ 1 to 2 pts	↓ 3 pts	↓ 4 pts	↓ 5 to 6 pts	↓ 7	↑ 10 to 12	↑ 21
	90	↓ 19	None	↑ 23	↓ 1.5	↓ 2 pts.	Almost none	↑ 1 to 2 pts	↑ 1 pt	↑ 2 to 3 pts	↑ 4 to 5 pts	↑ 11	↓ 10 to 12	↓ 19
	Function of	(volt) ²	Const.	(volt) ²	(Synch. speed slip)								(volt.)	(volt.) ²
Frequency	105	↓ 10	↑ 5	Almost none	↑ 5	-----	slight increase each load	-----				Slight	↓ 5 to 6	Slight ↓
	95	↑ 11	↓ 5	Almost non	↓ 5	-----	slight decrease each load	-----				Slight ↑	↑ 5 to 6	Slight ↑
	Function of	(freq.) ²	(freq.)		(synch. Speed slip)								(freq.) ⁻¹	

The options available for an energy manager to ensure near to rated voltage at motor terminals include:

- i) Load end power factor improvement by providing matching PF capacitors
- ii) Minimizing line / cable voltage drops from sub-station to motor terminals
- iii) Transformer tap changing as required in case of consistent and continuous low voltage situations.

TABLE 2.4 EXAMPLE OF THE EFFECT OF VOLTAGE UNBALANCE ON MOTOR PERFORMANCE

Parameter	Percent unbalance in voltage*		
	0.30	2.30	5.40
Unbalance in current (%)	0.4	17.7	40.0
Increased temperature rise (°C)	0	30	40

* Percent unbalance in voltage is defined as $100 (V_{\max} - V_{\text{avg}}) / V_{\text{avg}}$, Where V_{\max} and V_{avg} are the largest and the average of the three phase voltages, respectively.

The options that can be exercised to minimize voltage unbalance include:

- i) Balancing any single phase loads equally among all the three phases
- ii) Segregating any single phase loads which disturb the load balance and feed them from a separate line / transformer

Motor Loading

Measuring Load

% Loading of the motor can be estimated by the following relation:

% loading = $\frac{\text{Input power drawn by the motor (kW) at existing load} \times 100}{\text{(Name plate full load kW rating / name plate full load motor efficiency)}}$

or

% loading = $\frac{\text{Input power drawn by the motor (kW) at existing load} \times 100}{\sqrt{3} \times \text{kV} \times \text{I} \times \text{Cos}\phi}$

- Never assume power factor
- Loading should not be estimated as the ratio of currents.

Reducing Under-loading

Probably the most common practice contributing to sub-optimal motor efficiency is that of under-loading. Under-loading results in lower efficiency and power factor, and higher-than-necessary first cost for the motor and related control equipment. Under-loading is common for several reasons. Original equipment manufacturers tend to use a large safety factor in motors they select. Under-loading of the motor may also occur from under-utilisation of the equipment. For example, machine tool equipment manufacturers provide for a motor rated for the full capacity load of the equipment ex. depth of cut in a lathe machine. The user may need this full capacity rarely, resulting in under-loaded operation most of the time. Another common reason for under-loading is selection of a larger motor to enable the output to be maintained at the desired level even when input voltages are abnormally low. Finally, under-loading also results from selecting a large motor for an application requiring high starting torque where a special motor, designed for high torque, would have been suitable.

A careful evaluation of the load would determine the capacity of the motor that should be selected. Another aspect to consider is the incremental gain in efficiency achievable by changing the motor. Larger motors have inherently higher rated efficiencies than smaller motors. Therefore, the replacement of motors operating at 60 – 70 % of capacity or higher is generally not recommended. However, there are no rigid rules governing motor selection; the savings potential needs to be evaluated on a case-to-case basis. When downsizing, it may be preferable to select an energy-efficient motor, the efficiency of which may be higher than that of a standard motor of higher capacity.

For motors, which consistently operate at loads below 40 % of rated capacity, an inexpensive and effective measure might be to operate in star mode. A change from the standard delta operation to star operation involves re-configuring the wiring of the three phases of power input at the terminal box.

Operating in the star mode leads to a voltage reduction by a factor of $\sqrt{3}$. Motor is electrically downsized by star mode operation, but performance characteristics as a function of load remain unchanged. Thus, full-load operation in star mode gives higher efficiency and power factor than partial load operation in the delta mode. However, motor operation in the star mode is possible only for applications where the torque-to-speed requirement is lower at reduced load.

As speed of the motor reduces in star mode this option may be avoided in case the motor is connected to a production facility whose output is related to the motor speed. For applications with high initial torque and low running torque needs, Del-Star starters are also available in market, which help in load following de-rating of electric motors after initial start-up.

Sizing to Variable Load

Industrial motors frequently operate under varying load conditions due to process requirements. A common practice in cases where such variable-loads are found is to select a motor based on the highest anticipated load. In many instances, an alternative approach is typically less costly, more efficient, and provides equally satisfactory operation. With this approach, the optimum rating for the motor is selected on the basis of the load duration curve for the particular application. Thus, rather than selecting a motor of high rating that would operate at full capacity for only a short period, a motor would be selected with a rating slightly lower than the peak anticipated load and would operate at overload for a short period of time. Since operating within the thermal capacity of the motor insulation is of greatest concern in a motor operating at higher than its rated load, the motor rating is selected as that which would result in the same temperature rise under continuous full-load operation as the weighted average temperature rise over the actual operating cycle. Under extreme load changes, e.g. frequent starts / stops, or high inertial loads, this method of calculating the motor rating is unsuitable since it would underestimate the heating that would occur.

Where loads vary substantially with time, in addition to proper motor sizing, the control strategy employed can have a significant impact on motor electricity use. Traditionally, mechanical means (e.g. throttle valves in piping systems) have been used when lower output is required. More efficient speed control mechanisms include multi-speed motors, eddy-current couplings, fluid couplings, and solid-state electronic variable speed drives.

Power Factor Correction

As noted earlier, induction motors are characterized by power factors less than unity, leading to lower overall efficiency (and higher overall operating cost) associated with a plant's electrical system. Capacitors connected in parallel (shunted) with the motor are typically used to improve the power factor. The impacts of PF correction include reduced kVA demand (and hence reduced utility demand charges), reduced I^2R losses in cables upstream of the capacitor (and hence reduced energy charges), reduced voltage drop in the cables (leading to improved voltage regulation), and an increase in the overall efficiency of the plant electrical system.

It should be noted that PF capacitor improves power factor from the point of installation back to the generating side. It means that, if a PF capacitor is installed at the starter terminals of the motor, it won't improve the operating PF of the motor, but the PF from starter terminals to the power generating side will improve, i.e., the benefits of PF would be only on upstream side.

The size of capacitor required for a particular motor depends upon the no-load reactive kVA (kVAR) drawn by the motor, which can be determined only from no-load testing of the motor. In general, the capacitor is then selected to not exceed 90 % of the no-load kVAR of the motor. (Higher capacitors could result in over-voltages and motor burn-outs). Alternatively, typical power factors of standard motors can provide the basis for conservative estimates of capacitor ratings to use for different size motors. The capacitor rating for power connection by direct connection to induction motors is shown in Table 2.5.

From the above table, it may be noted that required capacitive kVAR increases with decrease in speed of the motor, as the magnetizing current requirement of a low speed motor is more in com-

TABLE 2.5 CAPACITOR RATINGS FOR POWER FACTOR CORRECTION BY DIRECT CONNECTION TO INDUCTION MOTORS						
Motor Rating (HP)	Capacitor rating (kVAR) for Motor Speed					
	3000	1500	1000	750	600	500
5	2	2	2	3	3	3
7.5	2	2	3	3	4	4
10	3	3	4	5	5	6
15	3	4	5	7	7	7
20	5	6	7	8	9	10
25	6	7	8	9	9	12
30	7	8	9	10	10	15
40	9	10	12	15	16	20
50	10	12	15	18	20	22
60	12	14	15	20	22	25
75	15	16	20	22	25	30
100	20	22	25	26	32	35
125	25	26	30	32	35	40
150	30	32	35	40	45	50
200	40	45	45	50	55	60
250	45	50	50	60	65	70

parison to the high speed motor for the same HP of the motor. Since a reduction in line current, and associated energy efficiency gains, are reflected backwards from the point of application of the capacitor, the maximum improvement in overall system efficiency is achieved when the capacitor is connected across the motor terminals, as compared to somewhere further upstream in the plant's electrical system. However, economies of scale associated with the cost of capacitors and the labor required to install them will place an economic limit on the lowest desirable capacitor size.

Maintenance

Inadequate maintenance of motors can significantly increase losses and lead to unreliable operation. For example, improper lubrication can cause increased friction in both the motor and

associated drive transmission equipment. Resistance losses in the motor, which rise with temperature, would increase. Providing adequate ventilation and keeping motor cooling ducts clean can help dissipate heat to reduce excessive losses. The life of the insulation in the motor would also be longer : for every 10°C increase in motor operating temperature over the recommended peak, the time before rewinding would be needed is estimated to be halved

A checklist of good maintenance practices to help insure proper motor operation would include:

- Inspecting motors regularly for wear in bearings and housings (to reduce frictional losses) and for dirt/dust in motor ventilating ducts (to ensure proper heat dissipation).
- Checking load conditions to ensure that the motor is not over or under loaded. A change in motor load from the last test indicates a change in the driven load, the cause of which should be understood.
- Lubricating appropriately. Manufacturers generally give recommendations for how and when to lubricate their motors. Inadequate lubrication can cause problems, as noted above. Over-lubrication can also create problems, e.g. excess oil or grease from the motor bearings can enter the motor and saturate the motor insulation, causing premature failure or creating a fire risk.
- Checking periodically for proper alignment of the motor and the driven equipment. Improper alignment can cause shafts and bearings to wear quickly, resulting in damage to both the motor and the driven equipment.
- Ensuring that supply wiring and terminal box are properly sized and installed. Inspect regularly the connections at the motor and starter to be sure that they are clean and tight.

Age

Most motor cores in India are manufactured from silicon steel or de-carbonized cold-rolled steel, the electrical properties of which do not change measurably with age. However, poor maintenance (inadequate lubrication of bearings, insufficient cleaning of air cooling passages, etc.) can cause a deterioration in motor efficiency over time. Ambient conditions can also have a detrimental effect on motor performance. For example, excessively high temperatures, high dust loading, corrosive atmosphere, and humidity can impair insulation properties; mechanical stresses due to load cycling can lead to misalignment. However, with adequate care, motor performance can be maintained.

2.8 Rewinding Effects on Energy Efficiency

It is common practice in industry to rewind burnt-out motors. The population of rewind motors in some industries exceed 50 % of the total population. Careful rewinding can sometimes maintain motor efficiency at previous levels, but in most cases, losses in efficiency result. Rewinding can affect a number of factors that contribute to deteriorated motor efficiency : winding and slot design, winding material, insulation performance, and operating temperature. For example, a common problem occurs when heat is applied to strip old windings : the insulation between laminations can be damaged, thereby increasing eddy current losses. A change in the air gap may affect power factor and output torque.

However, if proper measures are taken, motor efficiency can be maintained, and in some cases increased, after rewinding. Efficiency can be improved by changing the winding design, though the power factor could be affected in the process. Using wires of greater cross section, slot size permitting, would reduce stator losses thereby increasing efficiency. However, it is generally recommended that the original design of the motor be preserved during the rewind, unless there are specific, load-related reasons for redesign.

The impact of rewinding on motor efficiency and power factor can be easily assessed if the no-load losses of a motor are known before and after rewinding. Maintaining documentation of no-load losses and no-load speed from the time of purchase of each motor can facilitate assessing this impact.

For example, comparison of no load current and stator resistance per phase of a rewound motor with the original no-load current and stator resistance at the same voltage can be one of the indicators to assess the efficacy of rewinding.

2.9 Speed Control of AC Induction Motors

Traditionally, DC motors have been employed when variable speed capability was desired. By controlling the armature (rotor) voltage and field current of a separately excited DC motor, a wide range of output speeds can be obtained. DC motors are available in a wide range of sizes, but their use is generally restricted to a few low speed, low-to-medium power applications like machine tools and rolling mills because of problems with mechanical commutation at large sizes. Also, they are restricted for use only in clean, non-hazardous areas because of the risk of sparking at the brushes. DC motors are also expensive relative to AC motors.

Because of the limitations of DC systems, AC motors are increasingly the focus for variable speed applications. Both AC synchronous and induction motors are suitable for variable speed control. Induction motors are generally more popular, however, because of their ruggedness and lower maintenance requirements. AC induction motors are inexpensive (half or less of the cost of a DC motor) and also provide a high power to weight ratio (about twice that of a DC motor).

An induction motor is an asynchronous motor, the speed of which can be varied by changing the supply frequency. The control strategy to be adopted in any particular case will depend on a number of factors including investment cost, load reliability and any special control requirements. Thus, for any particular application, a detailed review of the load characteristics, historical data on process flows, the features required of the speed control system, the electricity tariffs and the investment costs would be a prerequisite to the selection of a speed control system.

The characteristics of the load are particularly important. Load refers essentially to the torque output and corresponding speed required. Loads can be broadly classified as either constant power or Constant torque. Constant torque loads are those for which the output power requirement may vary with the speed of operation but the torque does not vary. Conveyors, rotary kilns, and constant-displacement pumps are typical examples of constant torque loads. Variable torque loads are those for which the torque required varies with the speed of operation. Centrifugal pumps and fans are typical examples of variable torque loads (torque varies as the square of the speed). Constant power loads are those for which the torque requirements typically change inversely with speed. Machine tools are a typical example of a constant power load.

The largest potential for electricity savings with variable speed drives is generally in variable torque applications, for example centrifugal pumps and fans, where the power requirement changes as the cube of speed. Constant torque loads are also suitable for VSD application.

Motor Speed Control Systems

Multi-speed motors

Motors can be wound such that two speeds, in the ratio of 2:1, can be obtained. Motors can also

be wound with two separate windings, each giving 2 operating speeds, for a total of four speeds. Multi-speed motors can be designed for applications involving constant torque, variable torque, or for constant output power. Multi-speed motors are suitable for applications, which require limited speed control (two or four fixed speeds instead of continuously variable speed), in which cases they tend to be very economical. They have lower efficiency than single-speed motors

Adjustable Frequency AC Drives

Adjustable frequency drives are also commonly called inverters. They are available in a range of kW rating from fractional to 750 kW. They are designed to operate standard induction motors. This allows them to be easily added to an existing system. The inverters are often sold separately because the motor may already be in place. If necessary, a motor can be included with the drive or supplied separately.

The basic drive consists of the inverter itself which converts the 50 Hz incoming power to a variable frequency and variable voltage. The variable frequency is the actual requirement, which will control the motor speed.

There are three major types of inverter designs available today. These are known as Current Source Inverters (CSI), Variable Voltage Inverters (VVI), and Pulse Width Modulated Inverters (PWM).

Direct Current Drives (DC)

The DC drive technology is the oldest form of electrical speed control. The drive system consists of a DC motor and a controller. The motor is constructed with armature and field windings. Both of these windings require a DC excitation for motor operation. Usually the field winding is excited with a constant level voltage from the controller.

Then, applying a DC voltage from the controller to the armature of the motor will operate the motor. The armature connections are made through a brush and commutator assembly. The speed of the motor is directly proportional to the applied voltage.

The controller is a phase controlled bridge rectifier with logic circuits to control the DC voltage delivered to the motor armature. Speed control is achieved by regulating the armature voltage to the motor. Often a tachogenerator is included to achieve good speed regulation. The tachogenerator would be mounted on the motor and produces a speed feedback signal that is used within the controller.

Wound Rotor AC Motor Drives (Slip Ring Induction Motors)

Wound rotor motor drives use a specially constructed motor to accomplish speed control. The motor rotor is constructed with windings which are brought out of the motor through slip rings on the motor shaft. These windings are connected to a controller which places variable resistors in series with the windings. The torque performance of the motor can be controlled using these variable resistors. Wound rotor motors are most common in the range of 300 HP and above.

2.10 Motor Load Survey: Methodology

Large industries have a massive population of LT motors. Load survey of LT motors can be

taken-up methodically to identify improvement options as illustrated in following case study.

i) Sampling Criteria

Towards the objective of selecting representative LT motor drives among the motor population, for analysis, the criteria considered are:

- Utilization factor i.e., hours of operation with preference given to continuously operated drive motors.
- Sample representative basis, where one drive motor analysis can be reasoned as representative for the population. Ex : Cooling Tower Fans, Air Washer Units, etc.
- Conservation potential basis, where drive motors with inefficient capacity controls on the machine side, fluctuating load drive systems, etc., are looked into.

ii) Measurements

Studies on selected LT motors involve measurement of electrical load parameters namely volts, amperes, power factor, kW drawn.

Observations on machine side parameters such as speed, load, pressure, temperature, etc., (as relevant) are also taken. Availability of online instruments for routine measurements, availability of tail-end capacitors for PF correction, energy meters for monitoring is also looked into for each case.

iii) Analysis

Analysis of observations on representative LT motors and connected drives is carried out towards following outputs:

- Motor load on kW basis and estimated energy consumption.
- Scope for improving monitoring systems to enable sustenance of a regular in-house Energy Audit function.
- Scope areas for energy conservation with related cost benefits and source information.

The observations are to indicate:

% loading on kW, % voltage unbalance if any, voltage, current, frequency, power factor, machine side conditions like load / unload condition, pressure, flow, temperature, damper / throttle operation, whether it is a rewound motor, idle operations, metering provisions, etc.

The findings / recommendations may include:

- Identified motors with less than 50 % loading, 50 – 75 % loading, 75 – 100 % loading, over 100 % loading.
- Identified motors with low voltage / power factor / voltage imbalance for needed improvement measures.
- Identified motors with machine side losses / inefficiencies like idle operations, throttling / damper operations for avenues like automatic controls / interlocks, variable speed drives, etc.

Motor load survey is aimed not only as a measure to identify motor efficiency areas but equally importantly, as a means to check combined efficiency of the motor, driven machine and controller if any. The margins in motor efficiency may be less than 10 % of consumption often, but the load survey would help to bring out savings in driven machines / systems, which can give 30 – 40 % energy savings.

QUESTIONS

1.	Name three types of motors in industrial practice.
2.	What is the relation between RPM (speed) and frequency of an induction motor?
3.	A 4-pole squirrel case induction motor operates with 5 % slip at full load. What is the full load RPM you may expect, if frequency is changed by a V/F control to: (a)40 c/s (b) 45 c/s (c) 35 c/s
4.	List the losses in induction motors and their expected percentage out of the total losses.
5.	List the factors affecting energy efficiency of electric motors?
6.	The power factor of an induction motor a) increases with load b) decreases with load c) remains constant with load d) has no relation to load
7.	List factors affecting windage and friction losses while rewinding.
8.	What are the factors affecting core losses while rewinding?
9.	List methods by which speed control of motor can be achieved.
10.	Explain the ways by which efficiencies of energy efficient motors are increased.
11.	How does efficiency loss occur in a rewind motor?
12.	How do you check the efficacy of rewind motor?
13.	A 50 kW induction motor with 86 % present full load efficiency is being considered for replacement by a 89 % efficiency motor. What will be the savings in energy if the motor works for 6000 hours per year and cost of energy is Rs. 4.50 per kWh?

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