

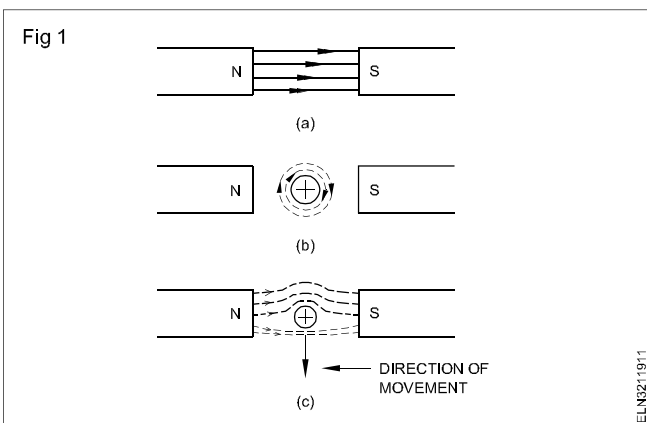
**DC motor - principle and types**

**Objectives:** At the end of this lesson you shall be able to

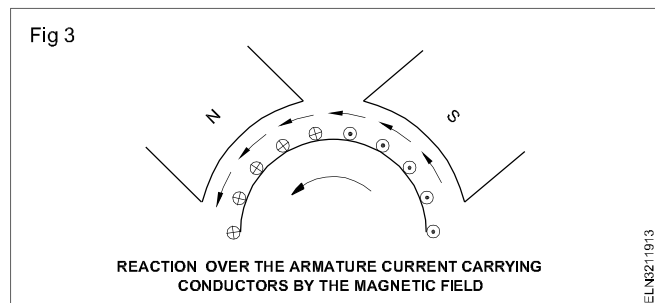
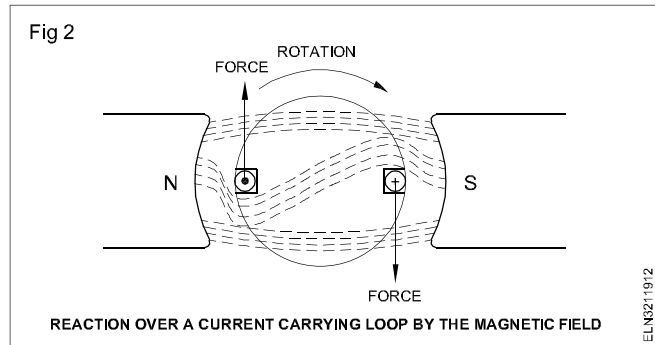
- explain the working principle of a DC motor
- state the different types of DC motors.

**Introduction:** A DC motor is a machine which converts DC electrical energy into mechanical energy. It is similar to a DC generator in construction. Therefore, a DC machine can be used as a generator or as a motor. Even today, because of the excellent torque, speed and load characteristics of DC motors, 90% of the motors used in precision machines, wire drawing industry and traction are of this type. The DC motor needs frequent care and maintenance by qualified electricians. Hence more job opportunities exist in this area for an electrician.

**Principles of a DC motor:** It works on the principle that whenever a current-carrying conductor is kept in a uniform magnetic field, a force will be set up on the conductor so as to move it at right angles to the magnetic field. It can be explained as follows. Fig 1a shows the uniform magnetic field produced by a magnet, whereas Fig 1b shows the magnetic field produced around the current-carrying conductor. Combining the effects of Fig 1a and Fig 1b in one figure, Fig 1c shows the resultant field produced by the flux of the magnet and the flux of the current-carrying conductor. Due to the interactions of these two fields, the flux above the conductor will be increased and the flux below the conductor is decreased as represented in Fig 1c. The increased flux above the conductor takes a curved path thus producing a force on the conductor to move it downwards.



If the conductor in Fig 1 is replaced by a loop of wire as shown in Fig 2, the resultant field makes one side of the conductor move upwards and the other side move downwards. It forms a twisting torque over the conductors, and they tend to rotate, if they are free to rotate. But in a practical motor, there are a number of such conductors/coils. Fig 3 shows the part of a motor. When its armature and field are supplied with current, the armature experiences a force tending to rotate in an anticlockwise direction as shown in Fig 3.



The direction of rotation or movement can be determined by Fleming's left hand rule. Accordingly, the direction of rotation of the armature could be changed either by changing the direction of armature current or the polarity of the field.

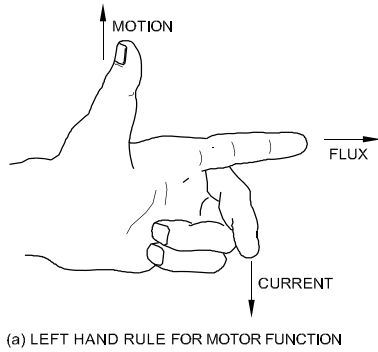
**Fleming's Left Hand Rule:** The direction of force produced on a current-carrying conductor placed in a magnetic field can be determined by this rule. As shown in Fig 4a, hold the thumb, forefinger and middle finger of the left hand mutually at right angles to each other, such that the forefinger is in the direction of flux, and the middle finger is in the direction of current flow in the conductor; then the thumb indicates the direction of motion of the conductor. For example, a loop of coil carrying current, when placed under north and south poles as shown in Fig 4b, rotates in an anticlockwise direction.

**Types of DC motors:** As the DC motors are identical in construction to that of DC generators, they are also classified as series, shunt and compound motors, depending upon their connection of field winding with the armature and supply.

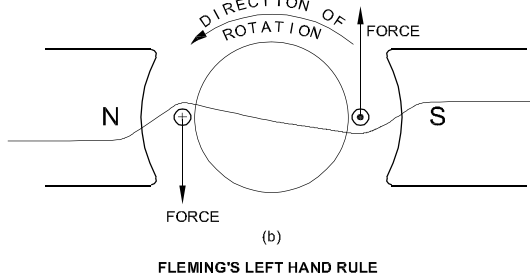
When the armature and field are connected in series, as shown in Fig 5, it is called a series motor.

When the armature and field are connected in parallel across supply, as shown in Fig 6, it is called a shunt motor.

Fig 4



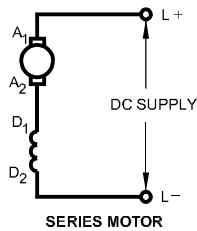
(a) LEFT HAND RULE FOR MOTOR FUNCTION



FLEMING'S LEFT HAND RULE

ELN321914

Fig 5

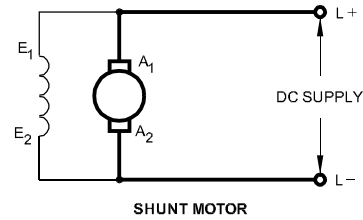


SERIES MOTOR

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When the motor has two field coils, one in series with the armature and the other in parallel with the armature, as shown in Fig 7, it is called a compound motor.

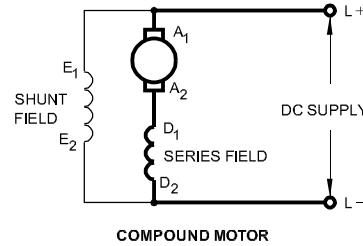
Fig 6



SHUNT MOTOR

ELN321916

Fig 7



COMPOUND MOTOR

ELN321917

**The relation between applied voltage, back emf, armature voltage drop, speed and flux of DC motor, method of changing direction of rotation.**

## The relation between applied voltage, back emf, armature voltage drop, speed and flux of DC motor - method of changing direction of rotation

**Objectives:** At the end of this lesson you shall be able to

- explain the relation between applied voltage, back emf, armature voltage drop - speed - flux
- describe the method of changing the direction of rotation of a DC motor.

**Back emf:** As the armature of a DC motor starts rotating, the armature conductors cut the magnetic flux produced by the field poles. Due to this action, an emf will be produced in these conductors. The induced emf is in such a direction as to oppose the flow of current in the armature conductor as shown in Fig 1. As it opposes the supply voltage it is called 'BACK EMF' and is denoted by  $E_b$ . Its value is the same as that found in the generator. It could be written as

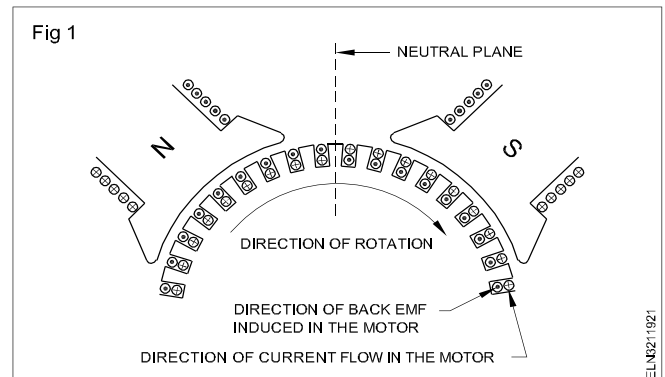
$$E_b = \frac{\phi ZNP}{60A} \text{ volts}$$

The direction of the induced (back) emf could be determined by Fleming's right hand rule.

**Applied voltage:** The voltage applied across the motor terminals is denoted by 'V'.

**Armature voltage drop:** Since armature conductors have some resistance, whenever they carry current a

voltage drop occurs. It is called  $I_a R_a$  drop because it is proportional to the product of the armature current  $I_a$  and armature resistance  $R_a$ . It has a definite relation with the applied voltage and back emf as shown by the formula



$$V = E_b + I_a R_a.$$

$$\text{Alternatively, } I_a R_a = V - E_b.$$

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Further the back or counter emf  $E_b$  depends upon flux per pole ' $\phi$ ' and speed ' $N$ '. Therefore, the applied voltage, back emf, armature drop, flux and speed are related to one another as follows.

$$E_b = V - I_a R_a$$

$$\frac{\phi ZNP}{60A} = V - I_a R_a$$

$$\therefore N = \frac{(V - I_a R_a) \times 60A}{\phi ZP} \text{ rpm}$$

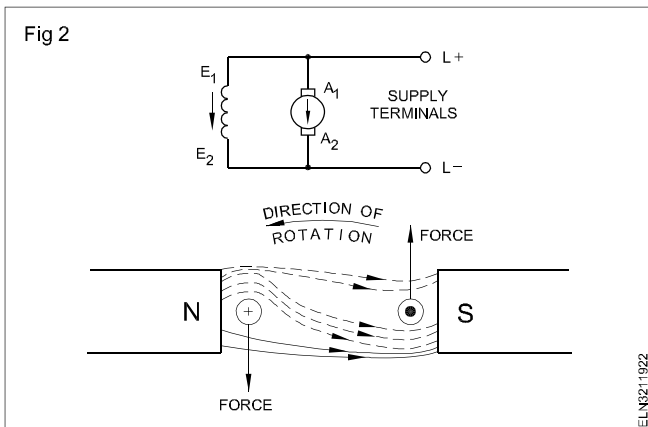
For a given motor ZPA and 60 are constants and can be denoted by a single letter K

$$\text{where } K = \frac{60A}{ZP}$$

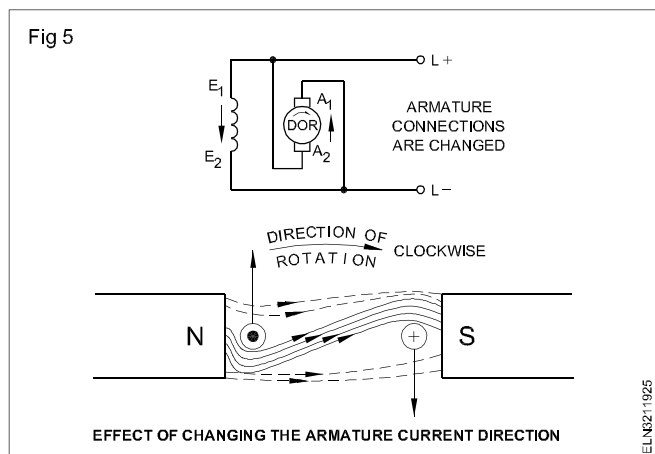
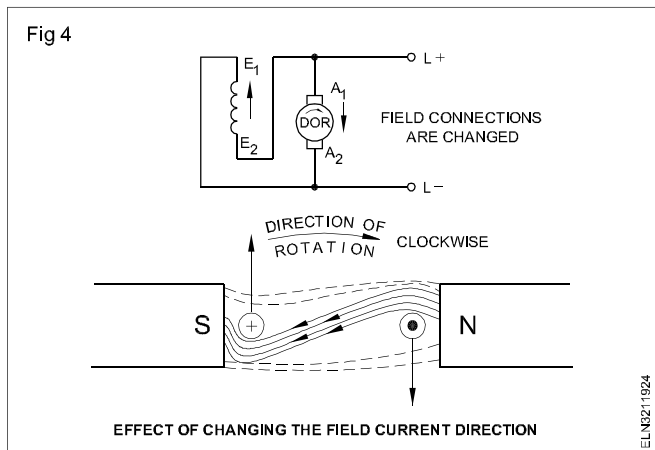
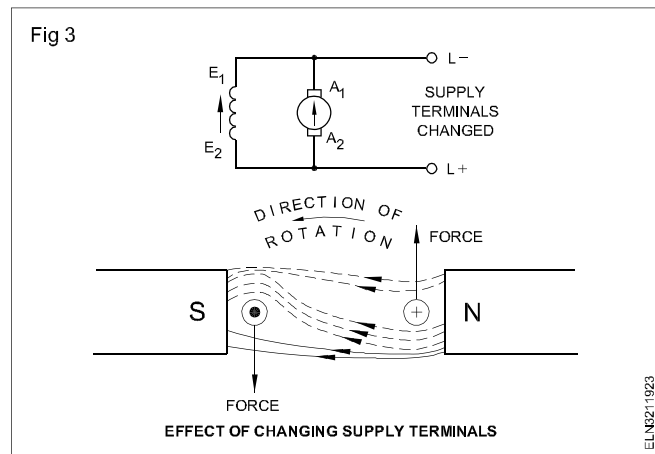
$$\text{Therefore } N = K E_b / \phi.$$

It shows that the speed of a DC motor is directly proportional to  $E_b$  and inversely proportional to the flux  $\phi$ .

**Reversing the direction of rotation of DC motors:** The direction of rotation of a DC motor can be changed either by changing the direction of the armature current or by changing the direction of the field current. The direction of rotation of a DC motor cannot be changed by interchanging the supply connections because this changes the direction of the field as well as the armature current. Its effect is as shown in Figs 2 and 3.



But when the field current direction alone is changed, the direction of rotation changes as shown in Fig 4. When the armature current direction alone is changed, the direction of rotation changes as shown in Fig 5.



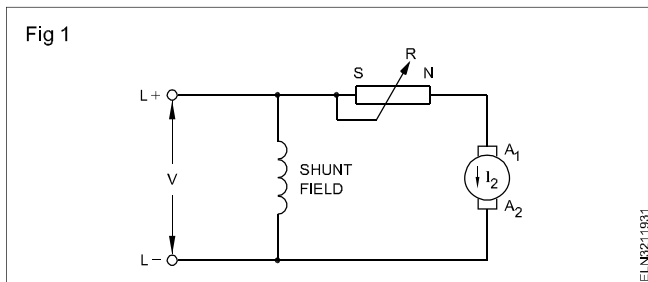
To reverse the direction of rotation of a compound motor without changing its characteristics, the best method is to change only the armature current direction. In case, changing the direction of rotation needs to be done by changing the field terminals, it is essential to change the current direction in both the shunt and series windings. Otherwise, the machine, which was running as cumulatively compounded, will change its characteristic as differentially compounded or vice versa.

## DC motor starters

**Objectives:** At the end of this lesson you shall be able to

- state the necessity of starter for a DC motor
- state the different types of starters - construction and working principle of 2-point, 3-point and 4-point starters.

**Necessity of starters:** Since the armature is stationary before starting, the back emf which is proportional to speed is zero. As the armature resistance is very small, if the rated voltage is applied to the armature, it will draw many times the full load current, and thereby, there is every possibility of damaging the armature due to heavy starting current. Therefore, the starting current should be limited to a safe value. This is done by inserting a resistance in series with the armature at the time of starting for a period of 5 to 10 seconds. As the motor gains in speed, back emf is built up, and then the starting resistance could be gradually cut off. Fig 1 shows such an arrangement. Resistance R is fully included in the armature circuit by keeping the moving arm in position 'S' at the time of starting, and then it is moved towards position 'N' to exclude the resistance 'R' when the motor has picked up its speed. But such an arrangement will be purely manual and needs constant monitoring. For example, if the motor is running, the resistance 'R' will be excluded, and the moving arm position will be at position 'N'. In case the supply fails, the motor will stop but the moving arm will still be in position 'N'. When the supply returns, as there is no resistance included in the armature circuit through 'R', the armature may draw heavy current and may get damaged. To prevent such a happening a device called starter is used in motor circuits.



In addition to the automatic inclusion of resistance at the time of starting, the starters may protect the motor from overload and will switch 'off' the motor, when supply fails. These starters are named according to the number of connecting terminals as explained subsequently.

**Types of starters:** Starters used to start the DC motors are generally of three types.

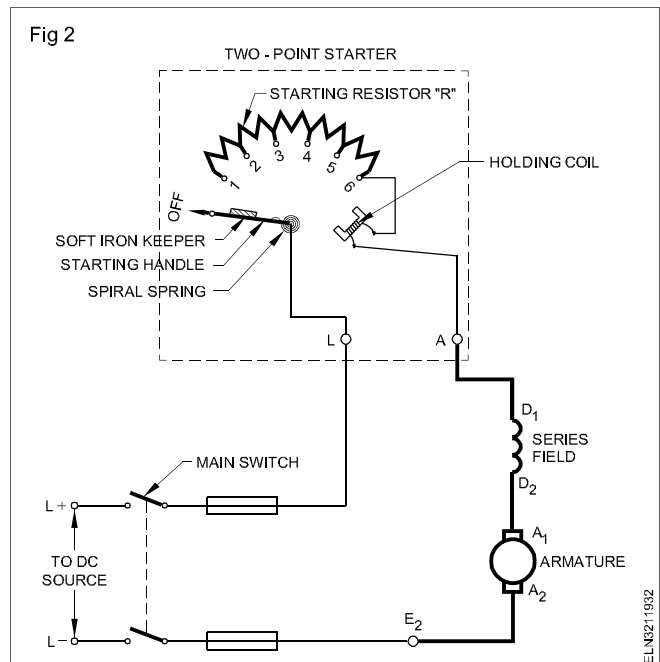
- Two-point starter
- Three-point starter
- Four-point starter

**Two-point starter:** This contains the following components.

- The series resistor required for starting a motor.
- The contacts (brass studs) and switching arm required to include or exclude the resistor in the armature circuit.

- A spring on the handle to bring the handle to the 'OFF' position when supply fails.
- An electromagnet to hold the handle in the 'ON' position.

The two-point starter is frequently used with a DC series motor. The starting resistance, electromagnet armature and the series field are all connected in series as shown in Fig 2.

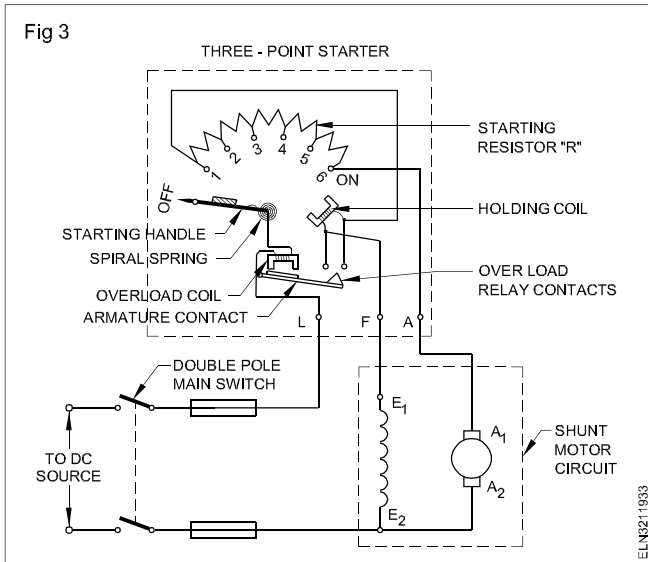


When the arm is moved to the first contact point, the circuit is completed, and the armature begins to rotate. As the armature speed increases, the arm is slowly moved towards the right side electromagnet, thereby the starter resistance is reduced. When the arm is against the electromagnet, complete starter resistance is cut off from the circuit.

The electromagnet is wound with a thick gauge wire to carry the rated armature current of the motor. This holds the handle in the 'ON' position when the motor is working. The handle comes back to the 'OFF' position, due to spring action when the electromagnet demagnetises due to failure of supply. This starter in general will not have protection against overloads.

**Three-point starter:** Fig 3 shows the internal diagram of a three-terminal point starter connected to a DC shunt motor. The direct current supply is connected to the starter, the motor circuit through a double pole switch and suitable fuses. The starter has an insulated handle or knob for the operator's use. By moving the starter handle from the 'off' position to the first brass contact (1) of the starter,

the armature is connected across the line through the starting resistance. Note that the armature is in series with the total starting resistance. The shunt field, in series with the holding coil, is also connected across the line. In this mode of operation, the rush of the initial current to the armature is limited by the resistance. At the same time, the field current is at the maximum value to provide a good starting torque.



As the handle arm is moved to the right, the starting resistance is reduced and the motor gradually accelerates. When the last contact is reached, the armature is connected directly across the supply; thus, the motor is at full speed.

The holding coil is connected in series with the shunt field to provide a 'no-field release'. If the field circuit opens by accident, the motor speed will become excessive should the armature remain connected across the line. To prevent this increase in speed, the holding coil is connected in series with the field. In case of an open circuit in the field, there will be no current through the holding coil, and hence, it will be demagnetized, and the spring action returns the arm to the 'off' position.

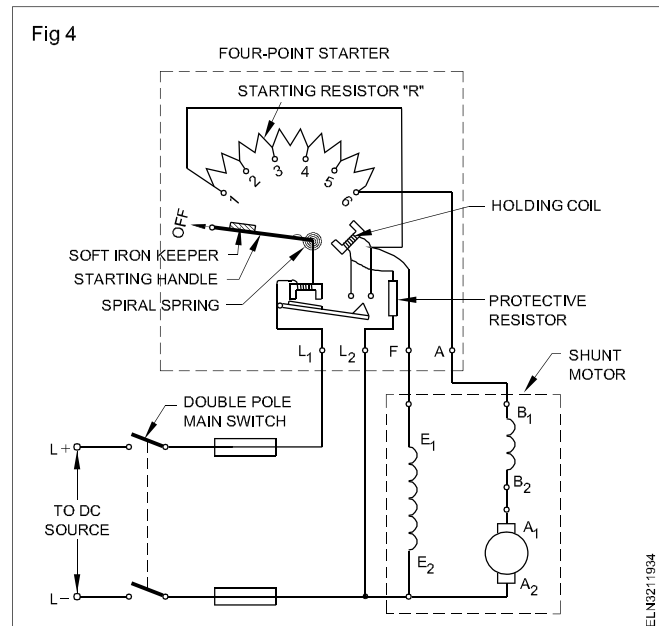
An overload coil is provided to prevent damage to the motor from overload. Under normal load condition, the flux produced by the O/L coil will not be in a position to attract the armature contact. When the load current increases beyond a certain specified value, the flux of the O/L coil will attract the armature. The contact points of the armature then short-circuit the holding coil and demagnetize it. This enables the handle to come to the 'OFF' position due to the tension of the spiral spring.

This type of starter can be used to start both shunt and compound motors.

However, a 3-point starter will be found to be tripping when the motor speed is controlled through the field regulator. The reason could be explained as stated below.

When the speed of a shunt or compound motor is to be increased beyond its rated speed, the resistance is increased in the field regulator to reduce the field current, and thereby, the field flux. While doing so, the holding coil which is in series with the field gets very low current and produces less holding force on the handle armature against the tension of the spiral spring. When the current reduces below a certain value, the handle is pulled out from the 'ON' position to the 'OFF' position. This is an undesirable effect. To avoid this, the 3-point starter circuit is modified, and the holding coil circuit is made independent of the field circuit. Such a starter is called a 4-point starter.

**Four-point starter:** In applications where many motor speeds are to be increased beyond their rated value, a four-terminal, face plate starter is used with the motor. The four-terminal point starter, shown in Fig 4, differs from the three-point starter in that the holding coil is not connected in series with the shunt field. Instead, it is connected across the supply in series with a resistor. This resistor limits the current in the holding coil to the desired value. The holding coil serves as a no-voltage release rather than as a no-field release. If the line voltage drops below the desired value, the magnetic attraction of the holding coil is decreased, and then the spring pulls the starter handle back to the 'off' position.



## Relation between torque, flux and armature current in a DC motor

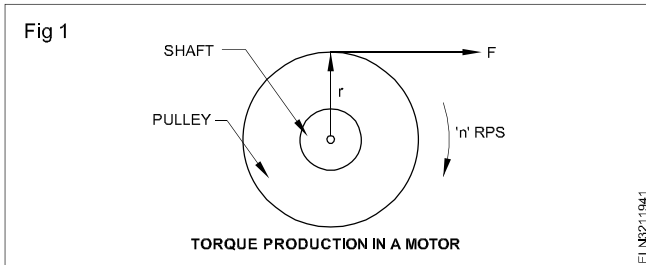
**Objectives:** At the end of this lesson you shall be able to

- explain the relation between torque, flux and armature current
- solve problems pertaining to metric HP; load current, rated voltage, torque and speed of DC motors.

## Relation between armature current, flux and torque

**Torque:** The turning or twisting moment of a force about an axis is called torque. It is equal to the product of force and the radius of the pulley.

Consider a pulley of radius 'r' metres acts upon by a circumferential force 'F' Newton, and rotates at a speed of 'n' r.p.s. as shown in Fig 1.



Then torque  $T = F \times r$  Newton-metres(N-m)

Work done by this force

in one revolution = Force x distance  
 $= F \times 2\pi r$  joules.

Power developed in one second =  $F \times 2\pi r \times n$  joule/second or watts  
 $= (F \times r) 2\pi n$  watts

As  $2\pi n$  is angular velocity  $\omega$  in radian/second and

$$(F \times r) = \text{Torque } T$$

Power developed =  $T \times \omega$  watts

$$P = T\omega \text{ watts.}$$

**Torque of a motor:** Let  $T_a$  be the torque developed by the armature of a motor in newton-metre and 'n' the speed of armature in r.p.s.

Then the power developed in the armature =  $T_a 2\pi n$  watts.

As we know the electrical power is converted into mechanical power

Electrical power supplied to the armature =  $E_b I_a$  where

$E_b$  is the back emf

$I_a$  is the armature current.

Electrical power supplied to the armature = Mechanical power developed in the armature

We get  $E_b I_a = T_a 2\pi n$

Since  $E_b = \frac{\phi Z n P}{A}$  volts (By taking 'n' in r.p.s.)

$$T_a \times 2\pi n = \frac{\phi Z n P}{A} \times I_a$$

By cross multiplication we get

$$T_a = \frac{\phi Z P \times I_a}{2\pi A} \text{ Newton - metre}$$

$$\text{or } T_a = \frac{0.159 \phi Z P}{A} \times I_a \text{ Newton - metre}$$

For a given motor. ZP and A are constants as they depend upon the design.

$\frac{0.159 Z P}{A}$  can be regarded as constant 'K'

$$\text{Then } T_a = K \phi I_a$$

where  $\phi$  is the flux pole in weber

$I_a$  is the armature current

$$K = \frac{0.159 Z P}{A}$$

$T_a$  is the armature torque in newton metres.

Therefore, we can say the torque of a DC motor is directly proportional to the field flux and the armature current.

The other formula which gives torque

$$T_a \text{ is } = \frac{9.55 \times E_b I_a}{N} \text{ Newton - metre}$$

where 'N' is speed in r.p.m.

**Shaft torque:** The complete armature torque calculated above is not available for doing useful work because of the losses in the motor.

**The torque which is available for doing work is known as shaft or output torque, and it is denoted as  $T_{sh}$ .**

The difference ( $T_a - T_{sh}$ ) is known as loss of torque due to iron, friction and windage losses of motor.

$$\text{One H.P. metric} = \frac{2\pi n T_{sh}}{735.5} = \frac{2\pi N T_{sh}}{60 \times 735.5} \text{ HP}$$

where 'n' is the speed in r.p.s., N is the speed in r.p.m.

and  $T_{sh}$  is the shaft torque in newton metre.

If the torque is given in kg. metre, it can be converted into newton metre as given below.

Newton metre = Kg. metre x 9.81

**Example 1:** A 250V, 4 pole, wave-wound DC series motor has 782 conductors in its armature. It has a combined armature and series field resistance of 0.75 ohms. The motor takes a current of 40 A. Estimate its speed, armature torque and H.P. if the flux per pole is 25 milli-weber.

$$\begin{aligned} E_b &= V - I_a R_a \\ &= 250 - (40 \times 0.75) \\ &= 250 - 30 = 220 \text{ volts} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } E_b = \frac{\phi Z n P}{A} \text{ volts}$$

$$N = \frac{E_b \times 60 \times A}{\phi Z P} = \frac{220 \times 60 \times 2}{25 \times 10^{-3} \times 782 \times 4}$$

$$= \frac{220 \times 60 \times 2 \times 10^3}{25 \times 782 \times 4} = 338 \text{ rpm.}$$

$$T_a = \frac{9.55 \times E_b I_a}{N} = \text{Nm}$$

$$T_a = \frac{9.55 \times 220 \times 40}{338} = 248.64 \text{ Nm.}$$

Assuming armature Torque  $T_a =$  Shaft torque  $T_{sh}$

$$\text{Metric H.P.} = \frac{2\pi N T_{sh}}{60 \times 735.5} = \frac{2 \times 22 \times 338 \times 248.64}{7 \times 60 \times 735.5}$$

$$= 11.97 \text{ HP metric.}$$

**Example 2:** A 220V DC shunt motor runs at 500 r.p.m. when the armature current is 50A. It has an armature resistance of 0.2ohm. Calculate the speed if the torque is doubled.

The torque is proportional to  $I_a$  and  $\phi$ . But  $\phi$  is constant for shunt motor  $T \propto I_a$ .

Therefore,  $T_{a1} \propto I_{a1}$  and  $T_{a2} \propto I_{a2}$ .

$$\text{Therefore, } \frac{T_{a2}}{T_{a1}} = \frac{I_{a2}}{I_{a1}}$$

As  $T_{a2}$  is double of  $T_{a1}$  we have  $\frac{T_{a2}}{T_{a1}} = 2$

$$2 = \frac{I_{a2}}{I_{a1}} = \frac{I_{a2}}{50}$$

Therefore  $I_{a2} = 50 \times 2 = 100$  amps.

$$E_{b1} = V - I_a R_a$$

$$= 220 - (50 \times .2)$$

$$= 220 - 10 = 210 \text{ volts}$$

$$E_{b2} = V - I_a R_a$$

$$= 220 - (100 \times .2)$$

$$= 220 - 20 = 200 \text{ volts.}$$

$$\text{Now } = \frac{N_2}{N_1} = \frac{E_{b2}}{E_{b1}}$$

$$= \frac{N_2}{500} = \frac{200}{210}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } N_2 = \frac{200 \times 500}{210} = 476 \text{ rpm.}$$

## Service and maintenance of DC motor starters

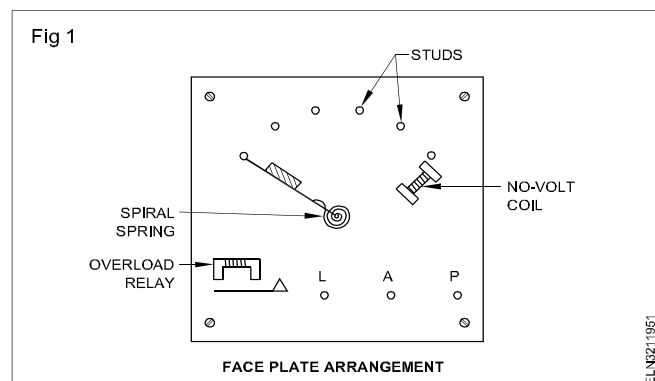
**Objectives:** At the end of this lesson you shall be able to

- explain the procedure of service and troubleshoot the DC motor starter
- state how to check the handle for its spring tension and contact pressure against the studs
- state how to check the no-volt coil assembly
- explain the overload relay for the desired current rating.

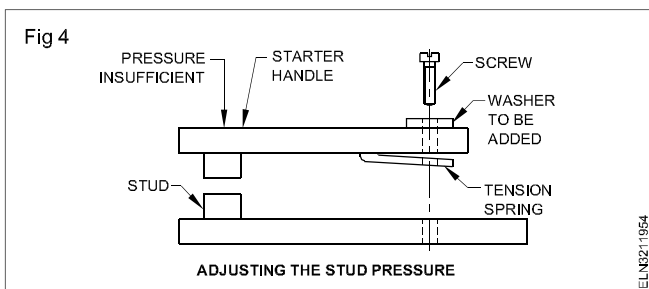
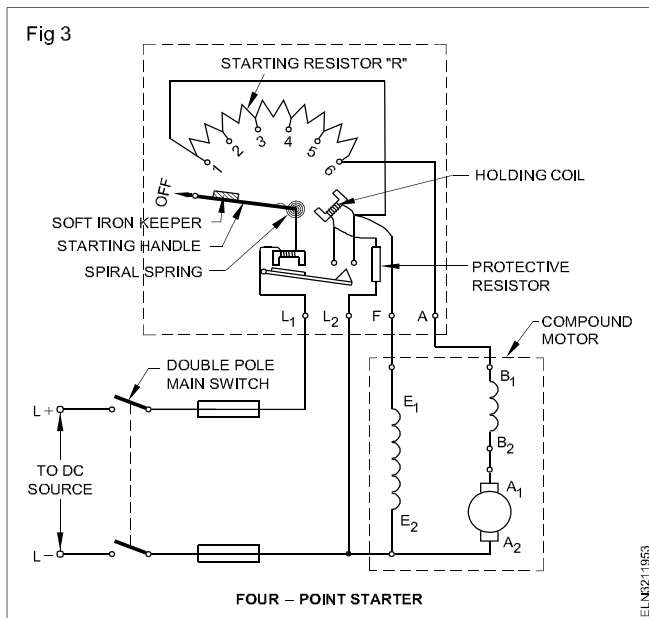
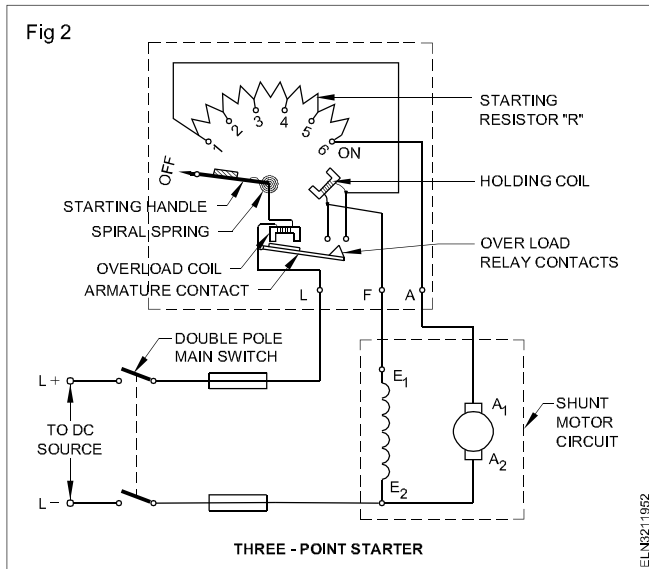
**Servicing the starter:** The starting resistance of the 3-point and 4-point starters is made up of coiled Eureka wire and it is fixed between the studs of the starter. The brass studs are arranged on the face plate of the starter in a semi-circular form as shown in Fig 1. The studs are firmly fixed on the insulated face plate. During maintenance the studs should be dressed with zero number sandpaper if the burrs are small and a smooth file should be used for pittings and big burrs, and then cleaned properly with a contact cleaner. In case the starter resistance is found open, replace it with a new resistance coil as per the original specification of the manufacturer.

Figs 2 and 3 show the schematic diagrams of 3 and 4 point starters respectively.

**Handle:** The handle of the face plate starter consists of a movable arm attached with a spiral spring which acts against the magnetic action of the no volt coil. In case the spring becomes weak, the arm will not come to the off position even though the supply fails.

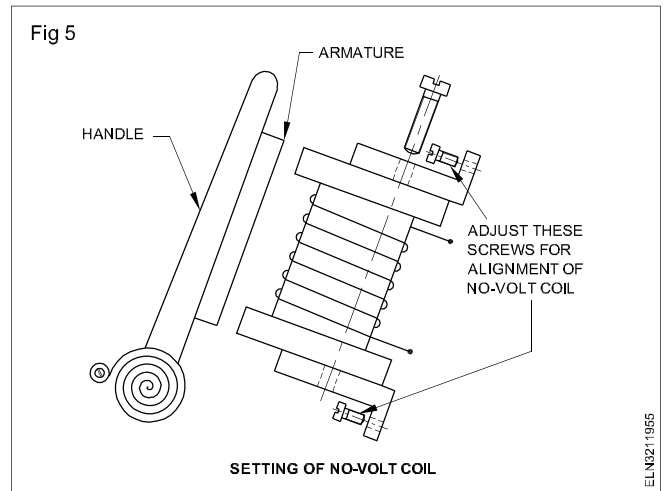


During the course of maintenance these points have to be checked. If the starter handle does not come to the off position in case of power failure, it is necessary to replace the spring as per the manufacturer specification. Also ensure during maintenance, proper pressure of the movable contact of the arm is available against the brass studs of the face plate. If proper tension is not found then the starter handle is to be tightened with the help of fixing screw by adding one or two flat washers on the top of the handle as shown in Fig 4.



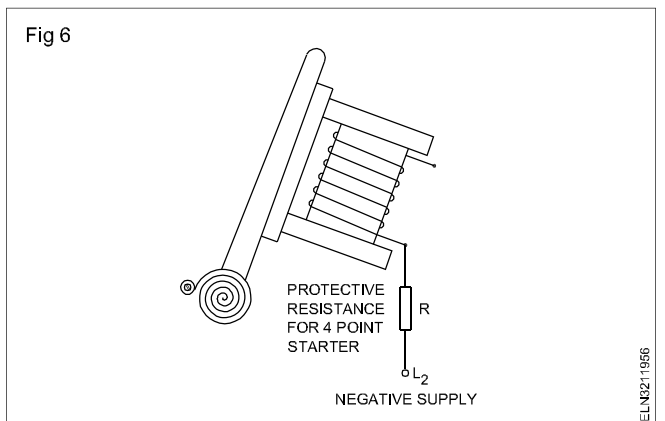
**Maintenance and servicing of no-volt coil assembly:** The no-volt coil is connected in series with the field winding in the case of 3-point starter and in parallel with the supply through a limiting resistance in the case of 4 point starter. The no-volt coil is wound with a thin insulated wire and has a few number of turns.

When the handle of the starter is moved to the running position, the armature of the handle should be touching the core assembly of the no-volt coil. In case the core assembly is not touching properly, loosen the mounting screws of the core/coil assembly, align the core and tighten the screws. (Fig 5).



If the NVC is not energised check visually the condition of the NVC. Measure the value and resistance of the coil as well as the insulation value and make a note of these readings. Periodically check these values and compare these with original manufacturer's data. In any case, at any time if the value falls below 80% of the normal value, then replace it with a new no-volt coil of the same specification.

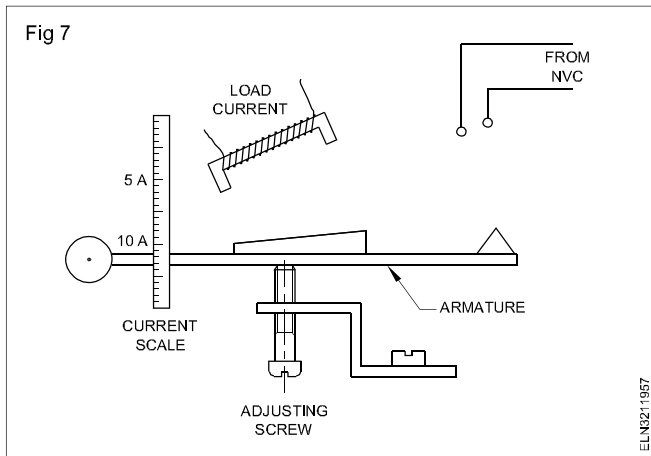
In the case of 4-point starter, the no-volt coil should be checked as mentioned above. If found OK, then the protective resistance should be checked with a multimeter. If found defective it has to be replaced with a resistance of same specification. (Fig 6.)



The overload relay coil is wound with thick gauge insulated wire suitable to carry the load current and has less turns. When the load current exceeds the set current, the magnetic strength of the overload coil assembly will be sufficient to attract the armature. The upward movement of the armature short-circuits the tapped contacts of the no-volt coil, thereby bypasses the current in the no-volt coil resulting in the demagnetisation of the no volt coil and releasing the handle to off position.

**Maintenance of overload relay (Fig 7):** A magnetic overload relay is provided near the handle on the left side of the starter face plate; underneath the overload relay an armature is provided and it is adjusted as per the load current of the motor.





To test the overload relay the motor has to be loaded and the tripping of the overload relay to be observed. In case the overload relay trips at a lower current or higher current value when compared to set current value the current scale has to be recalibrated.

In the case of chattering noise observed at the no-volt coil the surfaces of the core assembly and armature need to be cleaned.

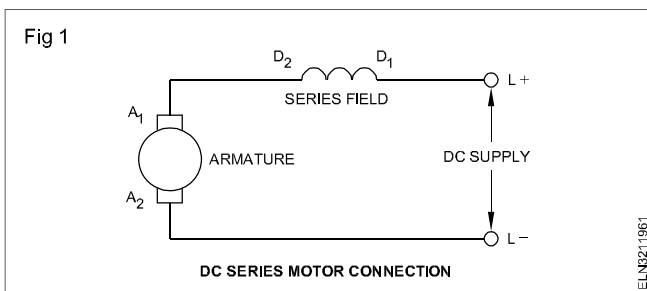
For the troubleshooting procedure follow the chart given in the trade practical exercise.

## Characteristics and applications of a DC series motor

**Objectives:** At the end of this lesson you shall be able to

- explain the characteristics of a series motor
  - torque versus load
  - speed versus load
  - speed versus torque
- state the uses of a DC series motor
- explain the method of changing the direction of rotation of a DC series motor
- state the method of loading the motor and explain the brake test.

**DC series motors:** The DC series motor, like the DC series generator, has its field connected in series with the armature as shown in Fig 1. Due to this mode of connection, all the current that flows through the armature must also flow through the field, and hence, the field strength varies with the change in the load.



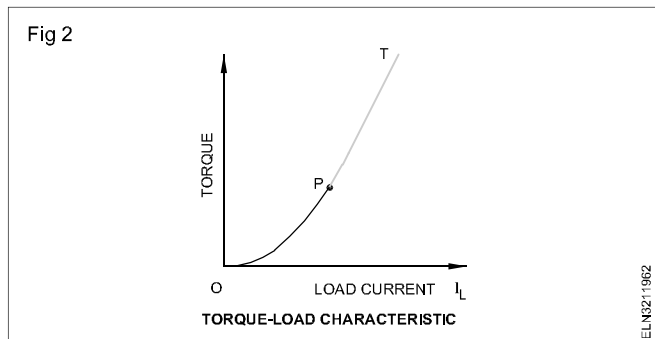
A DC series motor has a very high starting torque. In some motors, it may be as high as five times the full load torque. Further, the speed of the DC series motor also varies with the load.

**Characteristics of DC series motors:** The torque 'T' in a DC motor is proportional to the flux 'Ø' and the armature current 'I<sub>a</sub>'. The speed is inversely proportional to the flux. The relation between these factors i.e. torque vs load, speed V<sub>s</sub> load and torque V<sub>s</sub> speed are plotted on a graph, and are known as characteristic curves of motors. The study of these characteristics enables us to understand the behaviour of the motors under different conditions.

**Torque load characteristics of the DC series motor:**

Fig 2 shows the torque load characteristic curve of a DC series motor. At low or light load, the torque is low due to the low armature current and low field flux. But as the load increases, the torque also increases proportionate to the square of the armature current up to the point 'P' of the

curve. This could be illustrated by the formula T proportional to armature current and field flux.  $T \propto I_a \phi_{se}$  as  $\phi_{se}$  is proportional to  $I_{se}$  and, further,  $I_{se}$  is proportional to the armature current. We have



$$T \propto I_a I_{se}$$

$$T \propto I_a I_a$$

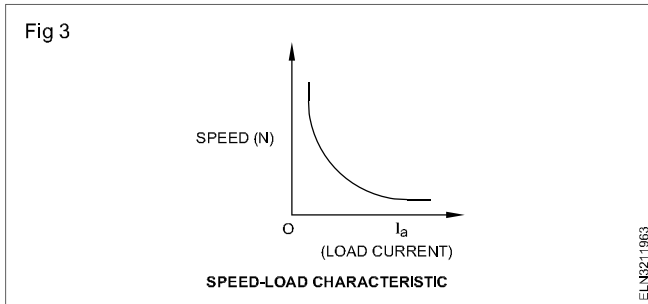
$$T \propto I_a^2$$

Beyond this point 'P' the curve becomes a straight line, and indicates the torque is proportional to the armature current only as the field cores are saturated. This curve shows that the torque is low at light loads and increases at heavy loads. Further the starting current of a DC series motor is about 1.5 times the full load current and the torque is about 2.25 times (1.5<sup>2</sup>) the full load torque assuming the poles are not saturated.

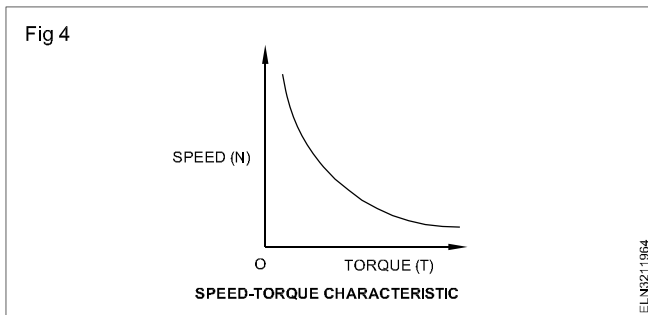
**Speed Vs load characteristics:**

Fig 3 shows the speed load characteristic curve of a DC series motor. From the curve it is clear that when the load is small the speed is high, and as the load increases the speed decreases. As the curve shown is parallel to the 'Y' axis at low load currents, it can be inferred that the speed attains a

dangerous value. Therefore, the DC series motors are seldom used without load. Care should be taken while using belt drives where the load can be 'OFF' if the belt breaks or slips out. To avoid this, usually the load is connected directly or through gears to a DC series motor.



**Speed-torque characteristics:** Fig 4 shows the speed-torque characteristic of a DC motor. It shows that when the torque is low, the speed is high. This is due to the low field flux ( $N \propto 1/\phi$ ). As the torque increases the motor draws more current and causes the speed to reduce. This is due to the increased field flux by increased load current in the DC series field.



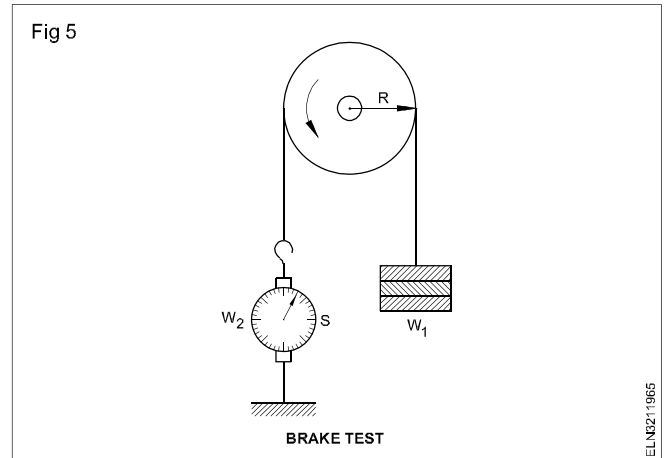
**Uses of a DC series motor:** The DC series motor is used in applications where torque and speed requirements vary substantially, and in jobs that require a heavy starting torque and a high rate of acceleration as in traction, hoists, cranes, and heavy construction trucks.

**Method of changing the direction of rotation of a DC series motor:** We know that by applying Fleming's left hand rule, the direction of rotation of the armature in a DC motor could be determined. According to Fleming's left hand rule, either by changing the polarity of the field or by changing the direction of current in the armature, the direction of rotation could be changed. However, if the polarity of the supply is changed, as both the polarity of field and the direction of current in the armature change, the direction of rotation will remain unchanged. Therefore, the direction of rotation of a DC series motor can be changed by changing either the field or the armature connection.

**Method of loading a DC series motor:** A DC series motor should never be operated without load. To keep the speed of the DC series motor within safe limits, we have to maintain a certain load on the shaft. This could be done by connecting the DC series motor to a direct-coupled load or by mounting a gear-coupled load.

The method of loading a DC series motor of small capacity for testing in a laboratory is by the brake test which is explained below.

**Brake test (Method I):** It is a direct method and consists of applying a brake through a special (camel hair) belt to a water-cooled drum mounted on the motor shaft as shown in Fig 5. One end of the belt is fixed to the ground via a spring balance S, and the other end is connected to a suspended weight  $W_1$ . The motor is run and the load on the motor is adjusted till it carries its full load current.



Let  $W_1$  – suspended weight in kg.

$W_2$  – reading on spring balance in kg.wt.

The net pull on the belt due to friction at the pulley is

$(W_1 - W_2)$  kg. wt. or  $9.81 (W_1 - W_2)$  newton. If  $R$ -radius of the pulley is in metre then, the shaft torque  $T_{sh}$  developed by the motor

$$= (W_1 - W_2)R \text{ kg.m}$$

$$= 9.81(W_1 - W_2)R \text{ N-m}$$

If  $n$  – motor or drum speed in r.p.s.

Motor output power =  $T_{sh} \times 2\pi n$  watt

$$= 2\pi \times 9.81 n (W_1 - W_2)R \text{ watt}$$

$$= 61.68 n (W_1 - W_2)R \text{ watt.}$$

Let,  $V$  = supply voltage;

$I$  = load current taken by the motor.

Then, input power =  $VI$  watt.

$$\text{Therefore, efficiency} = \frac{\text{output}}{\text{input}} = \frac{61.68n(W_1 - W_2)R}{VI}$$

Further the metric horsepower developed by the motor can be calculated by the formula

$$\text{HP metric} = \frac{2\pi n T_{sh}}{735.6}$$

where 'n' is the speed in r.p.s.

$T_{sh}$  is the shaft torque in newton metres.

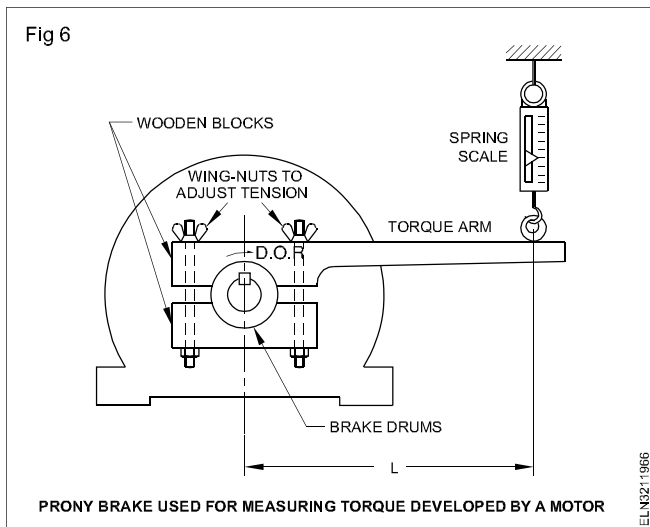
The power rating given in the name-plate of the motor indicates the horsepower which is developed at the shaft.

The simple brake test described above can be used for small motors only, because in the case of larger motors, it is difficult to dissipate the large amount of heat generated at the brake.

**It is most important to remember that a series motor should never be operated without a load.**

**The field is very weak at no load. Operating the motor without a load will allow the motor to reach such high speeds that the centrifugal force will cause the windings to tear free.**

**Brake test (Method II):** The torque developed by a motor may be measured alternatively by a device called a prony brake as shown in Fig 6.



There are various prony brake designs available. In Fig 6, the brake drum is encased in split wooden blocks. By tightening the wing-nuts, the pressure of the wooden blocks on the brake drum can be varied, and thereby, the load can be adjusted to the desired value. The brake drum

has an extension torque arm that is fastened to a spring scale which measures the force developed on the brake drum in newtons. The torque developed is the product of the net force on the scale (in newtons) X the effective length (L) of the torque arm in metres.

Torque = force x distance

= spring balance reading in Kg.wt x 'L' in metres.

The efficiency and the output of the motor in metric horsepower could be calculated as explained in the above paragraphs.

**Example 1:** A prony brake arm is 0.4 m in length. The wing-nuts on the brake are tightened on the motor pulley, creating a force of 50 Kg.wt. What is the torque that is being developed by the motor?

1 Kg.wt = 9.8 newtons

Torque = force x length(distance)

$$= 50 \times 9.81 \times 0.4$$

$$= 196.2 \text{ newton metres.}$$

**Example 2:** In the above case calculate the metric horsepower developed by the motor when the shaft speed is 1500 r.p.m.

$$\text{HP metric} = \frac{2\pi n T_{sh}}{735.6}$$

$$n = \frac{1500}{60} = 25 \text{ r.p.s. (n = r.p.s)}$$

$$T_{sh} = 196.2 \text{ N.m}$$

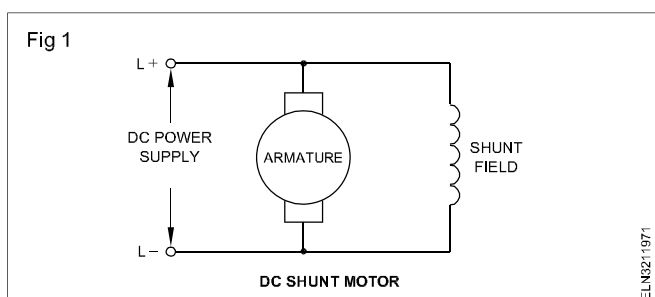
$$\text{HP (metric)} = \frac{2\pi \times 25 \times 196.2}{735.5} = 41.9 \text{ HP (metric)}$$

## Characteristic and applications of a DC shunt motor

**Objectives:** At the end of this lesson you shall be able to

- describe the characteristics of a DC shunt motor
  - speed vs load characteristics
  - torque vs load characteristics
  - torque vs speed characteristics
- state the applications of a DC shunt motor.

**Shunt motor:** As shown in Fig 1, in a shunt motor, the field is connected directly across the armature and the supply. The field current, and hence, the field flux are constant. When operating without a load, the torque requirement is small, since it is only needed to overcome windage and friction losses. Because of the constant field flux, the armature will develop a back emf that will limit the current to the value needed to develop only the required torque.



**Speed load characteristic of the DC shunt motor:**

Shunt motors are classified as constant speed motors. In other words, there is very little variation in the speed of the shunt motor from no load to full load. Equation 1 may be used to determine the speed of the DC motor at various loads.

$$N = \frac{V - I_a R_a}{K_1 \phi} = \frac{E_b}{K_1 \phi} \text{ (Eqn.1)}$$

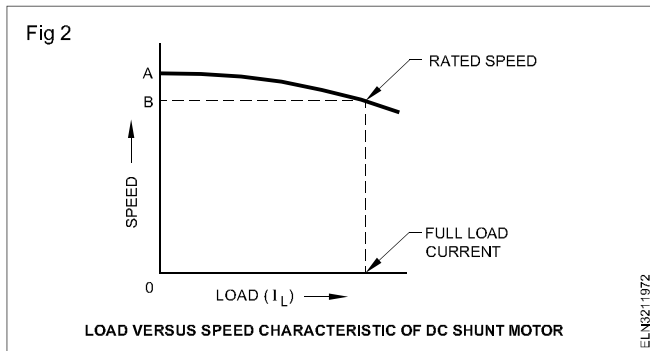
where

- N - speed of the armature in r.p.m.
- V - applied voltage
- $I_a$  - armature current at a specific load
- $R_a$  - armature resistance
- $\phi$  - flux per pole
- $K_1$  - a constant value for the specific motor
- $E_b$  - the back emf

In a shunt motor,  $V, R_a, K_1$  and  $\phi$  are practically constant values, and the armature current is the only variable. At no load the value of ' $I_a$ ' is small, leading to the maximum speed. At full load,  $I_a R_a$  is generally about 5 percent of  $V$ . The actual value depends upon the size and design of the motor. Consequently, at full load, the speed is about 95 percent of the no-load value.

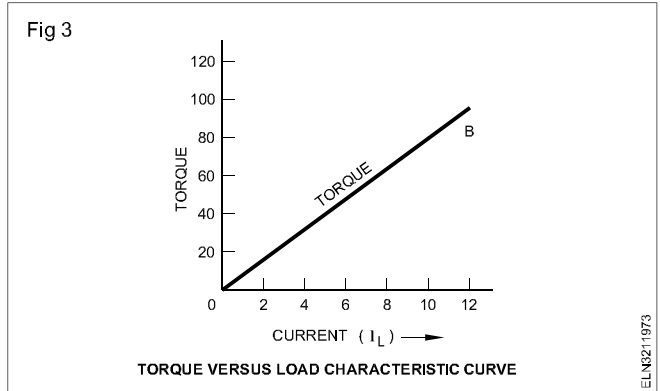
However the speed will drop slightly to reduce the back emf such that the armature can draw more current to develop an increased torque from no load to full load.

Fig 2 shows the speed-load characteristic of a DC shunt motor. From the curve it is observed that the speed slightly drops from its no-load speed OA to OB when the motor delivers full load. This is due to the increased  $I_a R_a$  drop in armature. As the drop is small, the DC shunt motor is regarded as a practically constant speed motor.



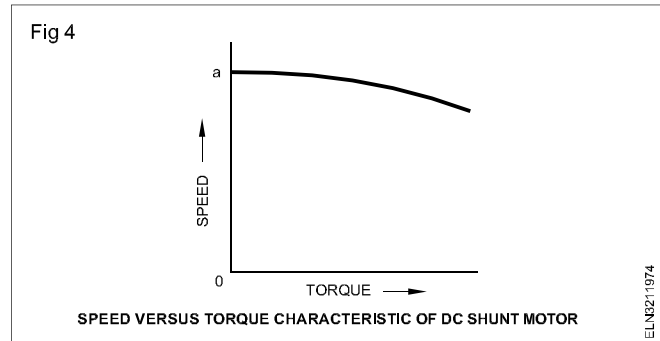
**Torque vs load characteristics of the DC shunt motor:**

Motor torque is proportional to the product of the field flux and the armature current. As the field flux is constant, the torque varies as the load current varies. Fig 3 shows the torque vs load curve of a DC shunt motor. From this it is clear that the torque is directly proportional to load or armature current  $I_a$ .



The starting torque of a shunt motor is about 1.5 times the full load torque indicating that the shunt motor does not have as high a starting torque as the series motor, but it has much better speed regulation.

**Torque Vs speed characteristics:** Fig 4 shows the torque speed characteristic of a DC shunt motor. From the curve it is observed that the increase in torque has negligible effect on the speed. The speed slightly drops as the torque increases.



**Application of DC shunt motor:** A DC shunt motor is best suited for constant speed drives. It meets the requirements of many industrial applications. Some specific applications are machine tools, wood planers, circular saws, grinders, polishers, printing processes, blowers and motor generator sets.

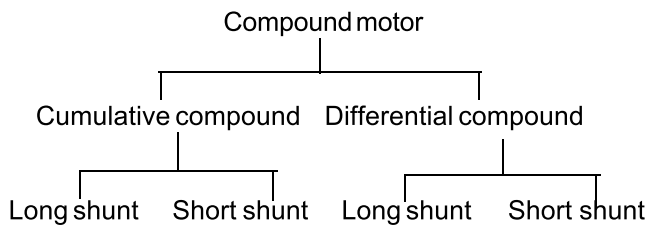
**When working with a shunt motor, never open the field circuit when it is in operation. If this happens, as the flux is only due to the residual field, the motor speed increases to a dangerous magnitude. At light loads this speed could become dangerously high, and the armature may fly off.**

# DC compound motor - load characteristics

**Objectives:** At the end of this lesson you shall be able to

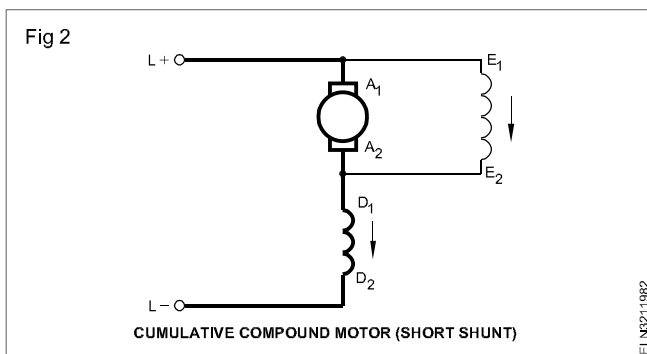
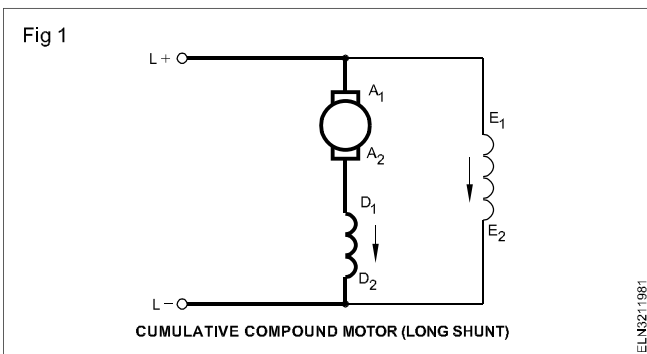
- state the types, applications of DC motors
- state the characteristic of a DC compound motor
- state the precautions to be observed while starting a differential compound motor.

**DC compound motor:** A DC compound motor has both shunt and series fields for producing the required main flux in the poles. A DC compound machine can be used as a motor or generator. It can be classified as indicated below.



**Cumulative compound motor:** When the series field of the DC compound motor is connected in such a way that its flux aids the flux produced by the shunt field, as shown in Fig 1, then it is called a cumulative compound motor.

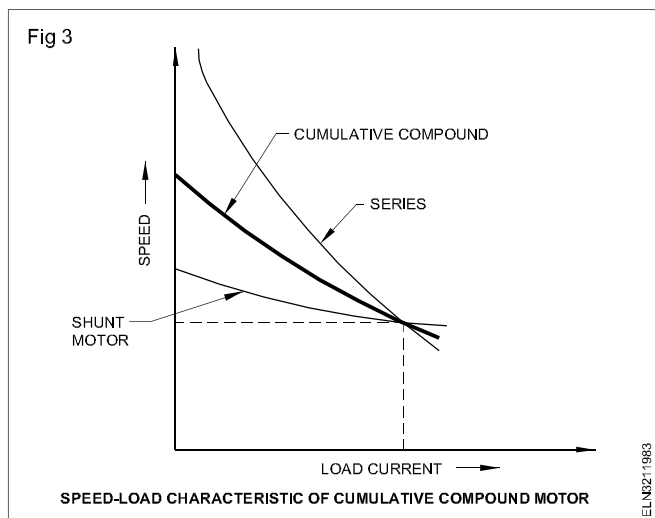
Depending on the shunt field connection, it is further subdivided as the long shunt, (Fig 1) the short shunt (Fig 2) cumulative compound motor.



As this motor has both shunt and series fields, it has the combined behaviour of the shunt and series motor, depending on the magnitude of the fluxes due to these two fields. If the series ampere-turns are more predominant than the shunt ampere-turns at full load, then it has a higher starting torque than the shunt motor, and its speed falls more than that of the shunt motor. If the shunt ampere-turns are more predominant than the series ampere-turns at full load, the motor acts almost like a

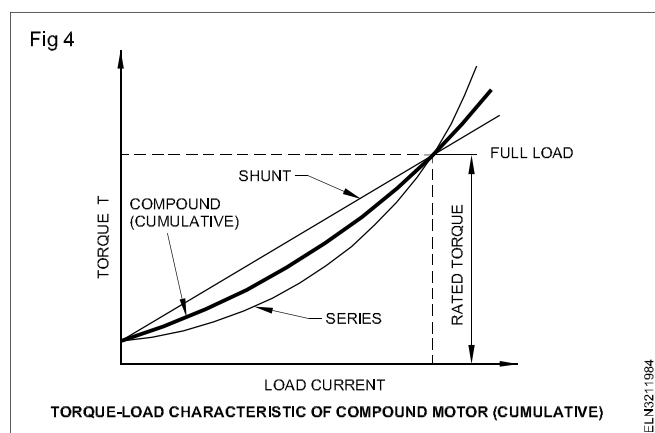
shunt motor but its speed drops a little more than that of a shunt motor.

**Speed-load characteristic:** Fig 3 shows the speed-load characteristic of the cumulative compound motor, and also of the series and shunt motors for comparison. The speed of this motor falls more than the shunt motor but falls less than the series motor. As the speed load curve starts from Y-axis, unlike in a DC series motor, the cumulative compound motor can also run on no-load at a specified speed.



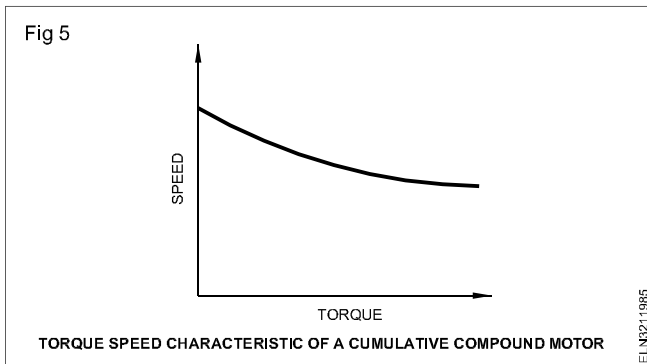
The increased drop in speed at load is due to the combined drop of the voltage due to armature and series field resistances.

**Torque-load characteristic:** Fig 4 shows the torque-load characteristic of the cumulative compound motor, and also that of the series and shunt motors for comparison. Up to full load, the torque developed in a cumulative compound motor is less than that in the shunt motor but more than in the series motor.



However, at the time of starting, the starting current is about 1.5 times the full load current, and hence, the cumulative compound motor produces a high torque, which is better than that of the shunt motor during starting.

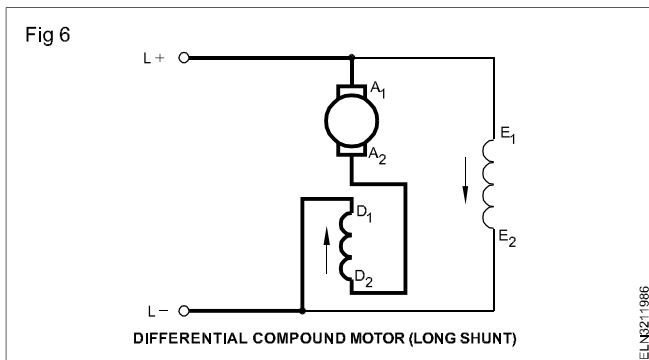
**Torque-speed characteristic:** Fig 5 shows the torque-speed characteristic of the cumulatively compound motor. As the total flux of the motor increases with load, the speed decreases but the torque increases. As the output power is proportional to the product of speed and torque, the cumulative compound motor will not be overloaded in case of sudden appearance of load as in rolling mills.



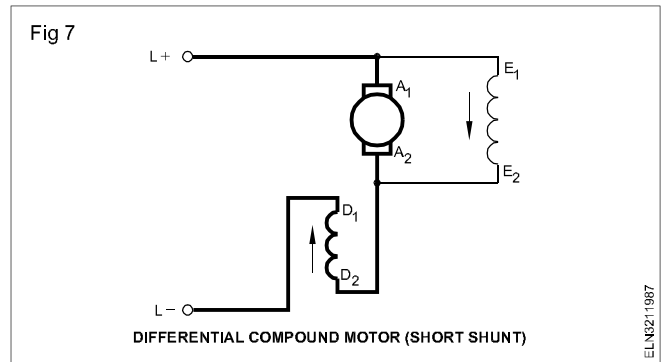
**Application of cumulative compound motors:** Compound motors are used to drive machines that require a relatively constant speed under varying loads. They are frequently used on machines that require sudden application of heavy loads, such as presses, shears, compressors, reciprocating tools, steel rolling machinery and elevators. Compound motors are also used when it is desired to protect the motor by causing it to decrease the speed under heavy loads. However, using a flywheel along the motor facilitates almost constant speed by converting the stored energy in the flywheel to be utilised during heavy loads. During light loads the kinetic energy is stored in the flywheel.

**Never open the shunt field of a compound motor when the motor is operating at high load.**

**Differential compound motor:** When the series field of the DC compound motor is connected in such a way that its flux opposes (bucks) the flux produced by the shunt field as shown in Fig 6, it is called a differential compound motor.

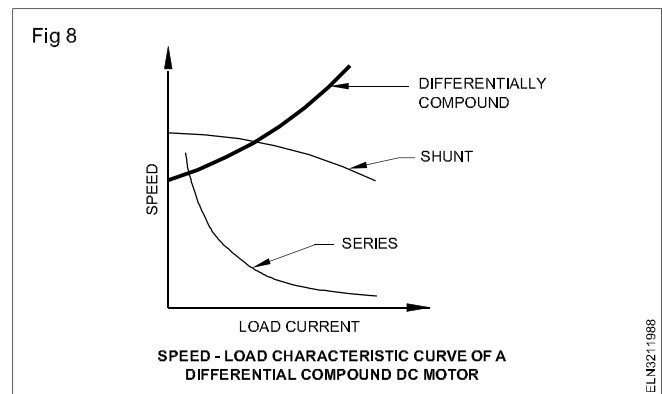


Depending upon the shunt field connection, the compound motor is further subdivided as long shunt (Fig 6) and short shunt (Fig 7) differential compound motor.



As the series field flux is in the opposite direction to the shunt field flux, there is some inherent problem at the time of starting. At the time of starting, the shunt field takes some time to build up, whereas a heavy rush of current will be through the series field and armature. The motor will, therefore, tend to start up the wrong way. When the shunt field is fully established, the total flux, which is the difference of series and shunt field fluxes, may be so small that the motor may not produce sufficient torque to run the motor. Hence it is advisable to short-circuit the series field of the differential compound motor at the time of starting, and then put the series field in the circuit when the motor is running.

**Characteristics of a differential compound motor:** The speed-load characteristic of the differential compound motor, shown in Fig 8, indicates that the motor speed increases with the increase in load due to the fact that the total flux decreases at the increased load.



The torque-load characteristic of the DC differential compound motor shown in Fig 9, indicates that the torque increases with the increased load.

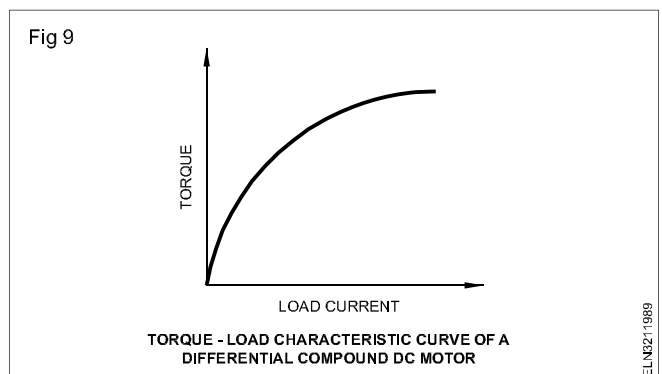


Fig 10 shows the torque-speed characteristic indicating that both speed and torque increase in the machine, resulting in the overloading of the machine initially, and thereby, reaching an unstable state.

**Application of DC differential compound motor:** This motor is not in common use due to its unstable behaviour at overloads. This motor is dangerous to use unless there is no possibility of the load exceeding the normal full load value as it is designed to work within full load limits.

