

12.12.19

CHAPTER-1

ELECTROLYTIC PROCESS

ELECTROLYTE

It is a substance which gets dissolved into ions when electric current will flow through it.

ELECTROLYTIC PROCESS

→ The process of decomposition of electrolyte by the passage of electric current is called electrolytic process.

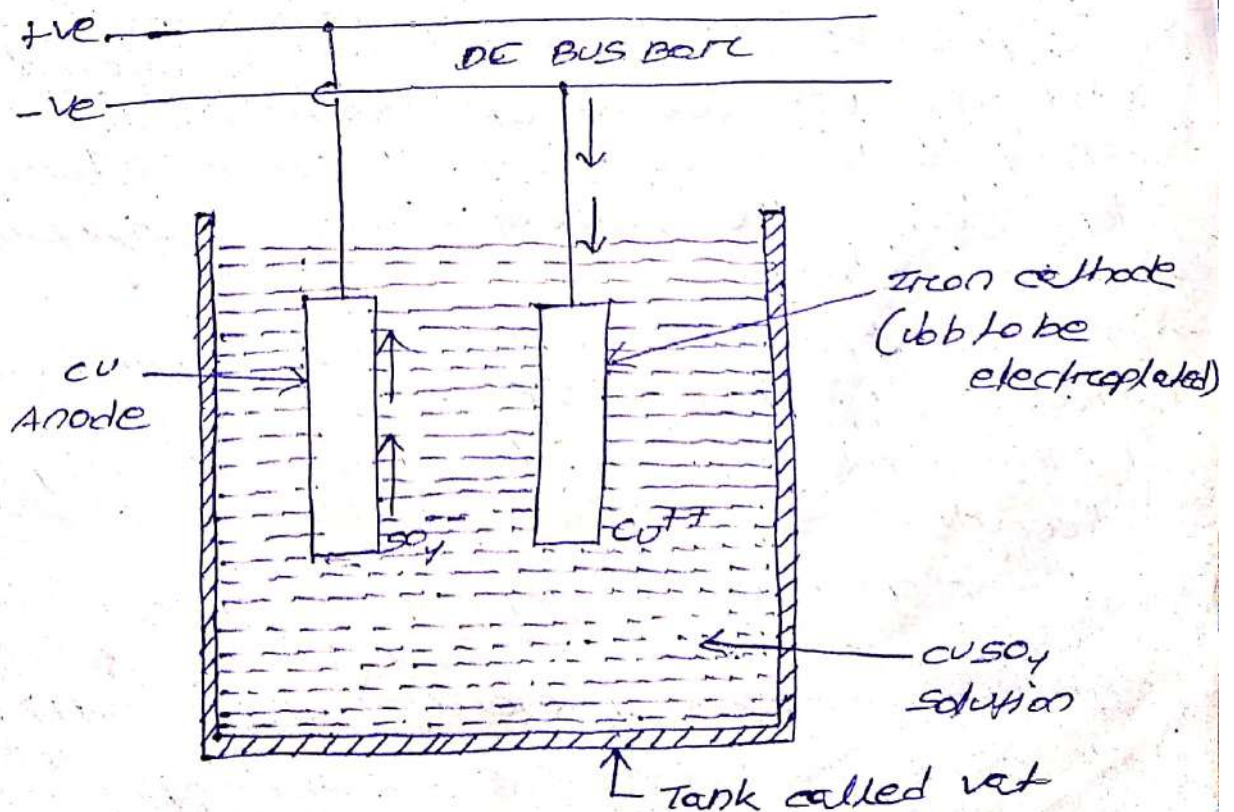
ELECTRO DEPOSITION / ELECTRO PLATING

→ The process of deposition of metal over the surface of another metal by the process of electrolysis is called electro deposition or electro plating.

NEED OF ELECTROPLATING

- To protect the metal against corrosion.
- To give shining appearance to a metal.
- To repair a damaged casting etc.

PRINCIPLE:



- Hence two electrodes are taken and are dipped in an electrolyte and DC supply is applied to the electrodes, so the electrolyte will get dissolved into ions called anions and cations.
- consider the case of iron ring to be plated with copper. In this case the electrolyte is taken as copper sulphate (CuSO_4), which will get dissolve into Cu^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} .
- The iron ring which is to be plated is taken as cathode and the Cu metal is placed at the anode.
- The dissolved SO_4^{2-} ions will move towards the anode which have a surplus of two number of electrons. Each SO_4 ion will donate the two no. of extra electrons to anode and become SO_4 radicals.
- This SO_4 radicals will attract the Cu anode to form CuSO_4 molecules which again dissolves in water to maintain the electrolyte concentration.
- The positive Cu^{2+} ion will move towards cathode and receives two no. of electrons from the supply to form Cu atom. These Cu atom get deposited at the cathode. The Cu deposited at the cathode.
- The Cu deposited at the cathode surface is practically having the same mass as lost by the anode. In maintaining the electrolyte strength.
- This phenomenon of deposition of a metallic coating on the surface of other metal through the process of electrolysis is called electrodeposition or electroplating.

17.12.19

TERMS REGARDING ELECTROLYSIS

1. ELECTROLYTE

The solution of salt when used in the process of electrolysis is called an electrolyte.

2. ELECTRODES

The rods we must in an electrolyte and connected to DC supply is called electrodes.

3. ANODE

The +ve electrode are anode.

4. CATHODE

-ve electrode are cathode.

5. ANIONS/CATIONS

When DC current is passed through an electrolyte it can decompose into +ve ions and -ve ions.

These positively charged ions are called cations and negatively charged ions are called anions.

6. ATOMIC WEIGHT

→ It is the ratio of weight of an atom of the element to the weight of an atom Hydrogen.
(or)

→ It is also defined as weight of all the isotopes present in that atom.

7. VALENCY

→ It is the no. of hydrogen atom with which the atom will react chemically.

8. CHEMICAL EQUIVALENT WEIGHT (C.E.W)

It is defined as the ratio of atomic weight to valency of the substance.

9. ELECTRO CHEMICAL EQUIVALENT (E.C.E)

It is the amount of substance deposited at the cathode on passing a steady electric current of 1A for 1sec through its solution.

FARADAY'S LAW OF ELECTROLYSIS

1ST LAW

It's state that the weight of substance liberated from an electrolyte in a given time is directly proportional to the quantity of electricity passed in that time.

Mathematically,

$$\begin{aligned} W &\propto Q \\ \Rightarrow W &\propto It \\ \Rightarrow \boxed{W \cdot Q = Z \cdot It} \end{aligned}$$

where,

Z = Electro chemical equivalent.

2ND LAW

If the same current flows for a given time to several electrolytes then the weight of substance liberated are proportional to their chemical equivalent weight.

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{\text{weight of Cu deposited by same quantity of electricity}}{\text{weight of Ni deposited by same quantity of electricity}} \\ &= \frac{C.E.W. \text{ of Cu}}{C.E.W. \text{ of Ni}} \end{aligned}$$

CURRENT EFFICIENCY

Due to presents of certain impurity which causes secondary reaction the quantity of substance liberated is less than calculated from Faraday's law i.e called current efficiency.

$$C.E = \frac{\text{Actual quantity of substance liberated}}{\text{quantity of substance to be liberated as per Faraday's law or theoretically}}$$

→ so the value of the current efficiency lies in between 90-98%.

ENERGY EFFICIENCY

$$E.E = \frac{\text{Theoretical energy}}{\text{Actual energy produced}}$$

- due to secondary reactions the actual voltage required for deposition or liberation of metal is higher than the theoretical value which will increase the actual energy required.
- Energy efficiency is defined as the ratio of theoretical ~~and~~ energy required to the actual energy produced.

FACTORS AFFECTING ELECTRODEPOSITION OR ELECTRO-PLATING

1. TIME

Time is directly proportional to the quantity of electro deposition so more weight of substance will be deposited in more time and less mass will be deposited in less time.

2. EFFICIENCY

- greater is the efficiency greater is the quantity of metal deposited for a given time.

3. CURRENT

- value of current is also directly proportional to the mass of metal deposition.

4. STRENGTH OF ELECTROLYTE

If the strength of solution will be more then the mass of metal deposited will be more as compare to dilute solution electrolyte.

FACTORS AFFECTING BETTER ELECTRODEPOSITION

1. CURRENT DENSITY

At low current density the ions are released at slow rate therefore the deposit will be more ~~as compare to~~ crystalline in nature. But at higher current density the quantity of deposit become more uniform and fine, so at higher current density electrodeposition will be better.

→ But if the current density exceed the limiting value for electrolyte then spongy and porous deposit will be obtain.

2. ELECTROLYTE CONCENTRATION

By increasing the concentration of electrolyte higher current density can be obtain and electrolyte tends to be better deposit.

3. TEMPERATURE

Temperature of electrolyte is different for different metal to have better deposit for example chromium plating temp 35°C

Cu 50°C

Ni $50-60^{\circ}\text{C}$

(4) ADDITIONAL AGENTS

The quality of deposition improved by the presents of an additional agents which may be an organic compound such as gum, rubber, sugar etc.

(5) NATURE OF ELECTROLYTE

→ The smoothness of deposit largely depends on the nature of electrolyte i.e example silicon from silicon dioxide AgNO_3 solution from rough deposit which that from a cyanide solution form a smooth deposit.

THROWING POWER

The throwing power of an electrolyte may be regardless the quantity which produces a uniform deposit on a irregular cathode surface.

→ since the surface is irregular so the resistance to current path from ~~cathode~~ anode to the far end will be more as compare to the near end. so the amount of deposit on the far end will be less as compare to the near end.

→ The throwing power can be improved in two ways

i. By increasing the distance between the anode and the object such that the relative variation resistance between anode and different part of object is reduced.

ii. By ~~increasing~~ using some colloidal metal which results in increase in the current density.

Ex- Addition of cyanides.

EXTRACTION OF METAL

This can be done twoⁱⁿ way

1. When the ore is in the molten state it is directly electrolyte in the furnace.
2. The ore is treated with the strong acid to obtain a salt and the salt is electrolysed to extract the metal.

1. EXTRACTION OF ZINC (Zn)

→ The ore consisting of zinc which primary component is ZnO_2 (zinc oxide) is treated with concentrated ~~and~~ sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) and passed through various chemical processes to remove impurities like cadmium (Cd), Cu etc.

→ The zinc sulfate solution which is ~~also~~ obtain now electrolyte. This electrolytic process is carried out in wooden box with inner lining of lead the anodes are lining of lead and the cathodes are of aluminium. Zinc will be deposited at cathode.

2. EXTRACTION OF ALUMINIUM (Al)

→ ores of Al are bauxite, cryolite, and bauxite. Bauxite is treated chemically and reduce to 'Al' oxide and then it is dissolved with cryolite and now electrolysed.

→ The furnace is lies with carbon at a temp. is about 1000°C and Al is deposited at cathode.

3. REFINING OF METAL

→ Electrolytic extraction gives about 98 to 99% of pure metal further refining is done by electrolysis.

→ The anodes are made up impure metal extracted from its ore and electrolyte is a solution of salt of the metal pure metal will get deposited on the cathode.

APPLICATIONS OF ELECTROLYSIS

1. Extraction of metal from their ore
2. Extraction of Al
3. Extraction of Zn
4. Refining of metals
5. Electrodeposition
6. production of chemical
4. separating metal from their compound.
8. Electro typing
9. Electro forming
10. Electrocleaning.

6. PRODUCTION OF CHEMICAL

Many chemical such as caustic soda (NaOH) etc. chloride gas, Ammonium phosphate phosphate etc. are produced by electrolysis in large scale.

4. SEPARATING METAL FROM THEIR COMPOUND

Many metals are separated from their compound by electrolysis

8. ELECTRO TYPING

→ First the is prepared of the type in works and then it is coated in black lead to give metallic surface and there it is subjected to electrolytic process where layer of copper is form.

9. ELECTRO FORMING

→ The production or reproduction of an article by electrodeposition is called electro forming.

10. ELECTRO CLEANING

A solution of sodium phosphate is used as an electrolyte in the plating tank. Tank is connected to the +ve terminal of DC supply and work piece is made cathode which is suspended in the solution heavy current is passed through the solution and caustic soda is produced at the cathode which have a cleaning action.

→ Also during the process hydrogen gas is evolved at the cathode which removes materials like greases this process is called electro cleaning.

07.02.20

CHAPTER-2 ELECTRICAL HEATING

ELECTRIC HEATING

When an electric current flows through a substance heat is produced and this is the principle of electric heating.

→ When current I flows through a ckt having resistance of R OHM the power dissipated in the ckt is given by I^2R watt. If the current flows for t sec then energy consumed = I^2Rt Joule or watt-sec

→ This energy consumed is converted into heat and found as

$$H = \frac{I^2Rt}{4.2} \text{ calories}$$

→ Mechanical equivalent of heat = 4.2

→ There are 3 modes of heat transfer

1. conduction
2. convection
3. Radiation.

→ Solid object are generally heated by conduction.

→ Liquid are heated by convection

→ Distance object are heated by radiation.

→ Electric heating finds application both in domestic as well as industrial applications

DOMESTIC APPLICATION

→ Electric heating heaters

→ Room heaters

→ Electric irons

→ Gybers

→ Emotions Rod

→ popcorn plant

→ Electric oven

→ Toaster

INDUSTRIAL APPLICATION

- melting of metal
- Heat treatment of metal like annealing, soldering.
- Moulding of glass
- For making glass appliances
- Making of plywoods.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRIC HEATING OVER CONVENTIONAL METHOD OF HEATING

1. CLEAN AND NEAT ATMOSPHERE

No coal dust or smoke and operators hand don't glow black while operating appliances in electric heating.

2. NO POLLUTION

There is absence of fuel gases so this method is pollution free.

3. CONTROLLED TEMP.

Temp. can be control within the $\pm 5^\circ\text{C}$ which is not possible in conventional method of heating.

4. EASE OF CONTROL

→ Heating can be started instantaneously or stopped at a required time.

5. LOCALISED APPLICATION

A work piece can be heated up to a particular depth for heat treatment where as work piece as a whole receives it in non-electric heating.

6. LOW AMBIENT TEMP

The temp around an electrical furnace is much lower as compare to that around non-electrical furnace.

4. UNIFORM HEATING

Heating can be generated within the work piece resulting in uniform heating of the work piece.

8. HEATING OF BAD CONDUCTORS OF HEAT AND ELECTRICALLY

→ Wood, plastic and bakery items can be uniformly heated by dielectric heating process.

9. HIGHEST EFFICIENCY OF UTILISATION

Heat produced electrically do not go waste through chimney and others by products resulting in high efficiency.

10. CHEAP FURNACE

Electrical furnace do not required big space for installation no storage of coal or wood is necessary no chimney is required so the electrical furnace become cheap as compare non-electrical furnace.

11. MOBILITY OF JOB

pieces under will heat treatment can be mounted on a conveyer passing through heating cabinet at making use of electric heaters.

DIFFERENT MODES/METHODS OF HEATING

→ There are 3 mode of heat transfer

1. conduction
2. convection
3. Radiation.

1. CONDUCTION

→ In this ~~method~~ mode of heat transfer one molecule of the body gets heated and transfers some of the heat to adjacent molecule and so on.

→ There is a temperature gradient between the two ends of the body being heated.

2. CONVECTION

→ In this process heat is transferred by the ~~two ends~~ flow of hot and cold air content. This process is applied if the heating of water by electromagnetic rad.

3. RADIATION

→ It is a method of transfer of heat from a hot body to a cold body in a straight line without affecting the intervening medium.

→ STEFAN'S LAW

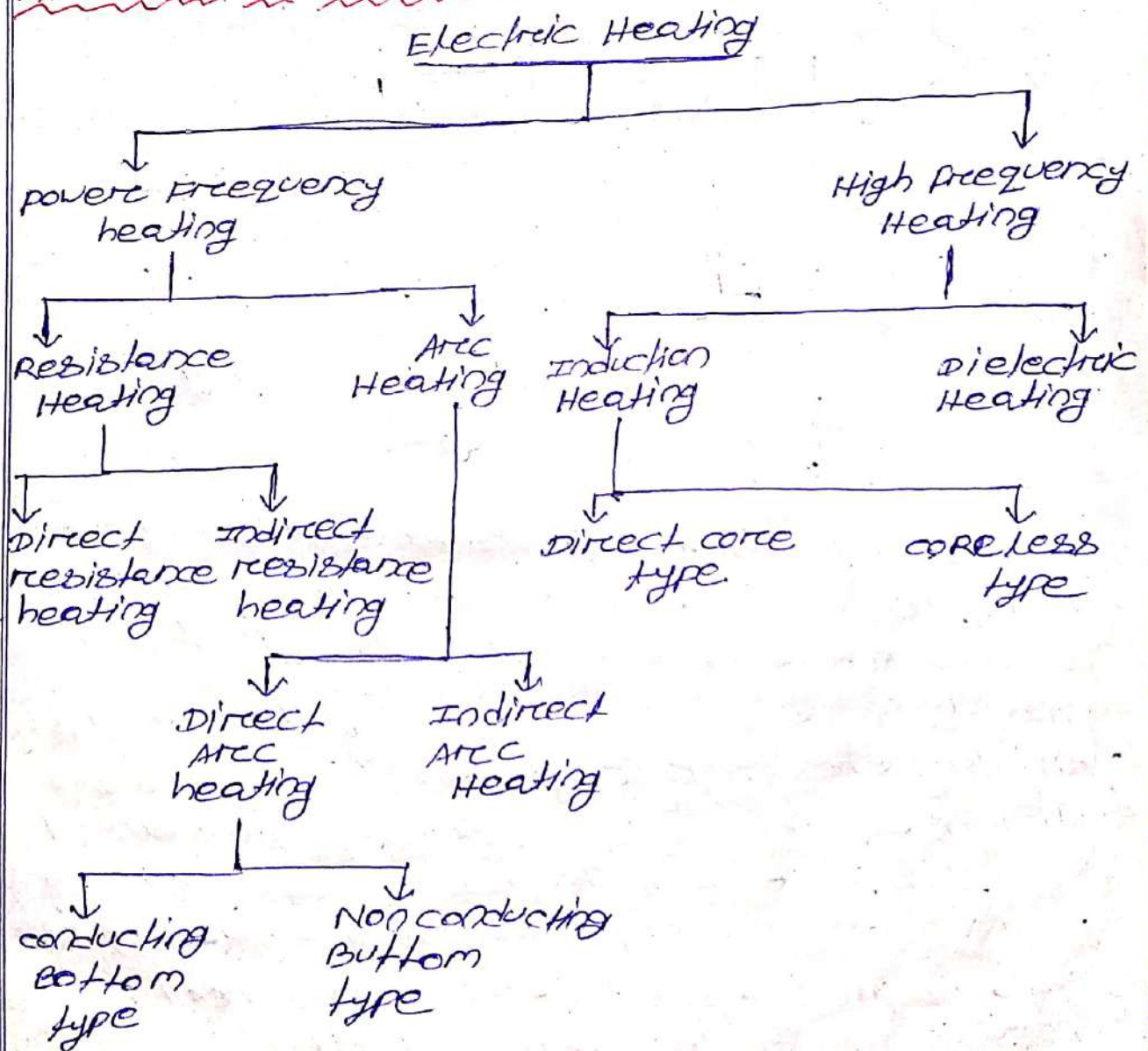
Rate of heat emission

$$H = 5.72 ek \left[\left(\frac{T_1}{100} \right)^4 - \left(\frac{T_2}{100} \right)^4 \right]$$

e = emissivity of heating element

k = Radiating effect.

METHODS OF HEATING



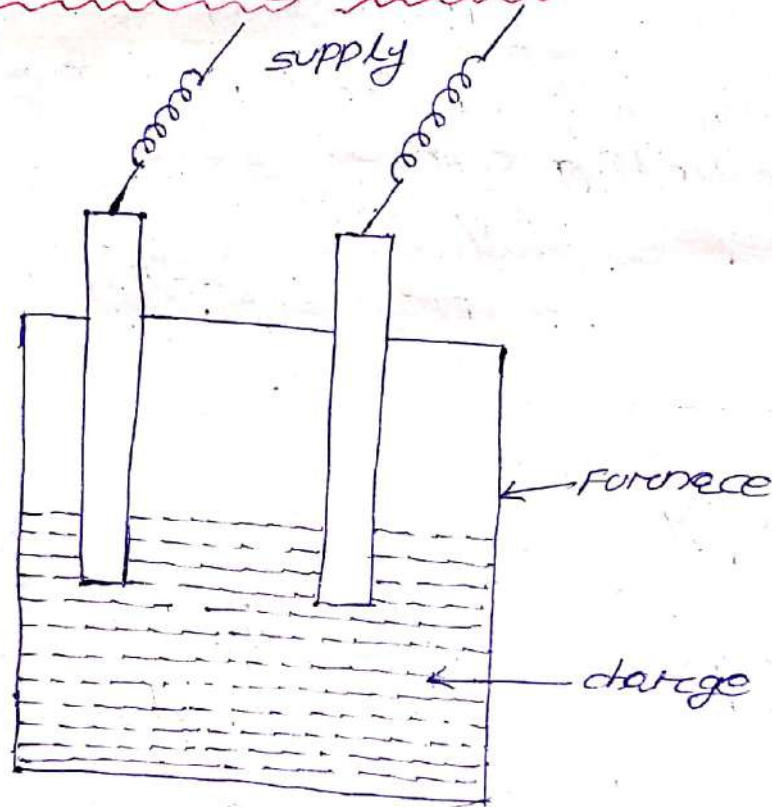
RESISTANCE HEATING

In resistance heating current flows through a resistance element due to the I^2R loss heating is produced

→ Resistance heating is classified into two types

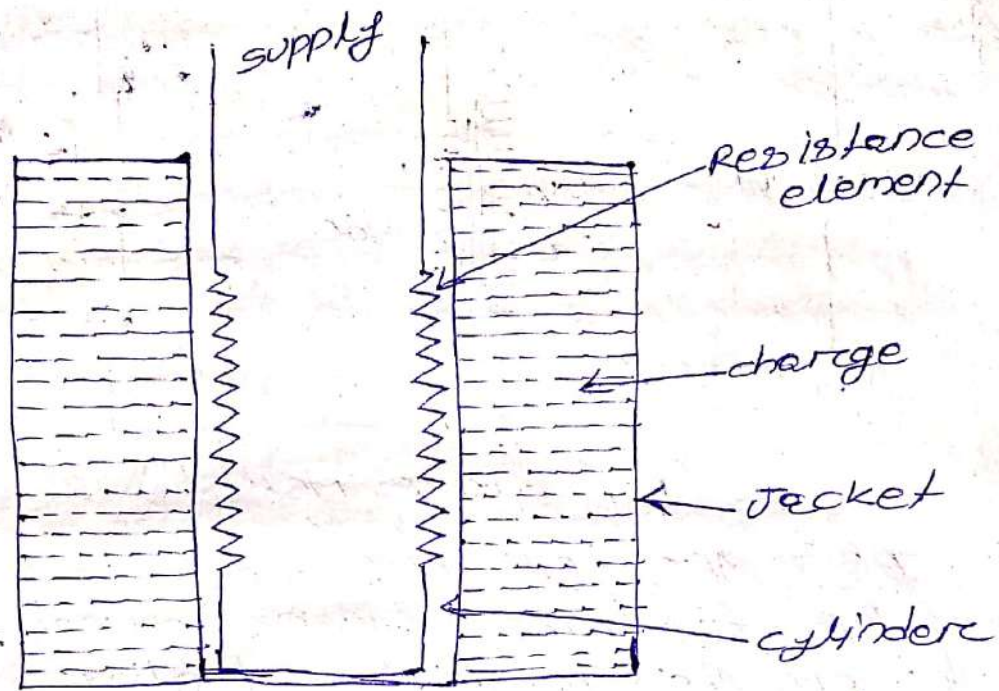
1. Direct resistance heating
2. Indirect resistance heating.

1. DIRECT RESISTANCE HEATING



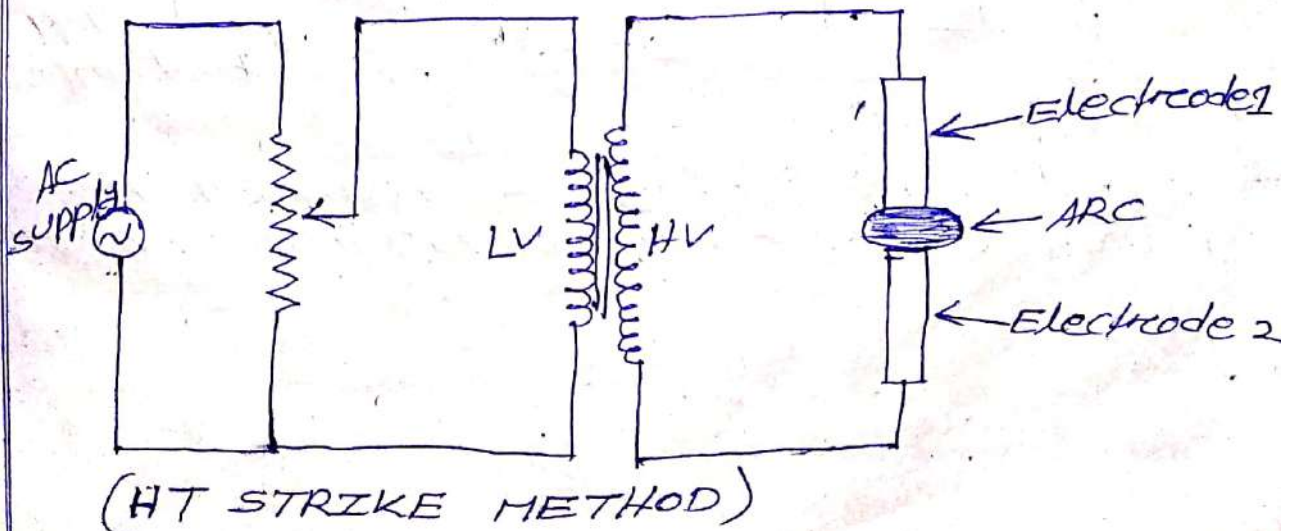
- In this method of heating the materials or charge to be heated is taken as resistance and electric current is directly pass through it.
- Two electrodes are placed inside the charged and they are connected to supply.
- When metal piece is to be heated a powder of high resist^{ed}ance material springs over the surface of the charge to avoid short ckt.
- This method is high efficiency since heat is produced inside the charge itself.
- Measure application of this process is ~~short~~ self bore furnace having operating temp between 500°C to 1400°C .

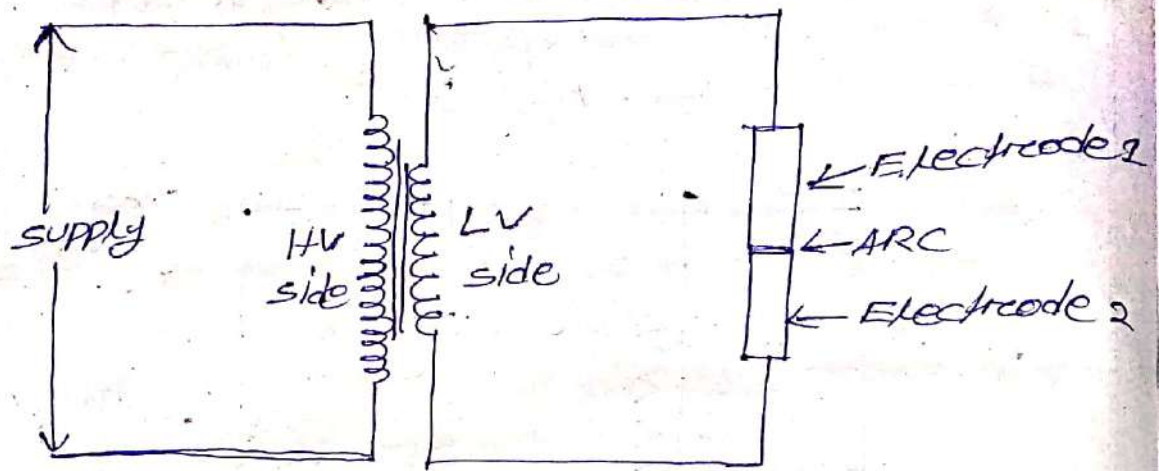
2. INDIRECT RESISTANCE HEATING



- In this method current is passed through a highly resistance element which is placed either above or below the oven depending on the nature of job to be performed.
- The heat proportional to $i^2 R$ loss is produced in the heating element which is delivered to the charge either by convection or by radiation.
- In case of industrial heating the resistance is placed inside a cylinder which is surrounded by charge placed inside a jacket. common example is resistance oven.

ARC HEATING



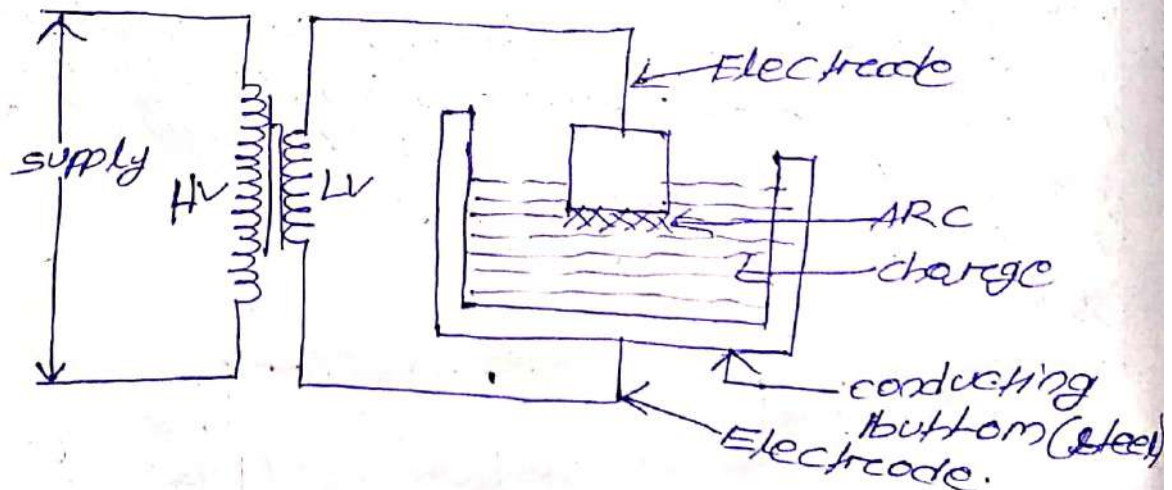


(LT strike Method)

1. DIRECT ARC HEATING

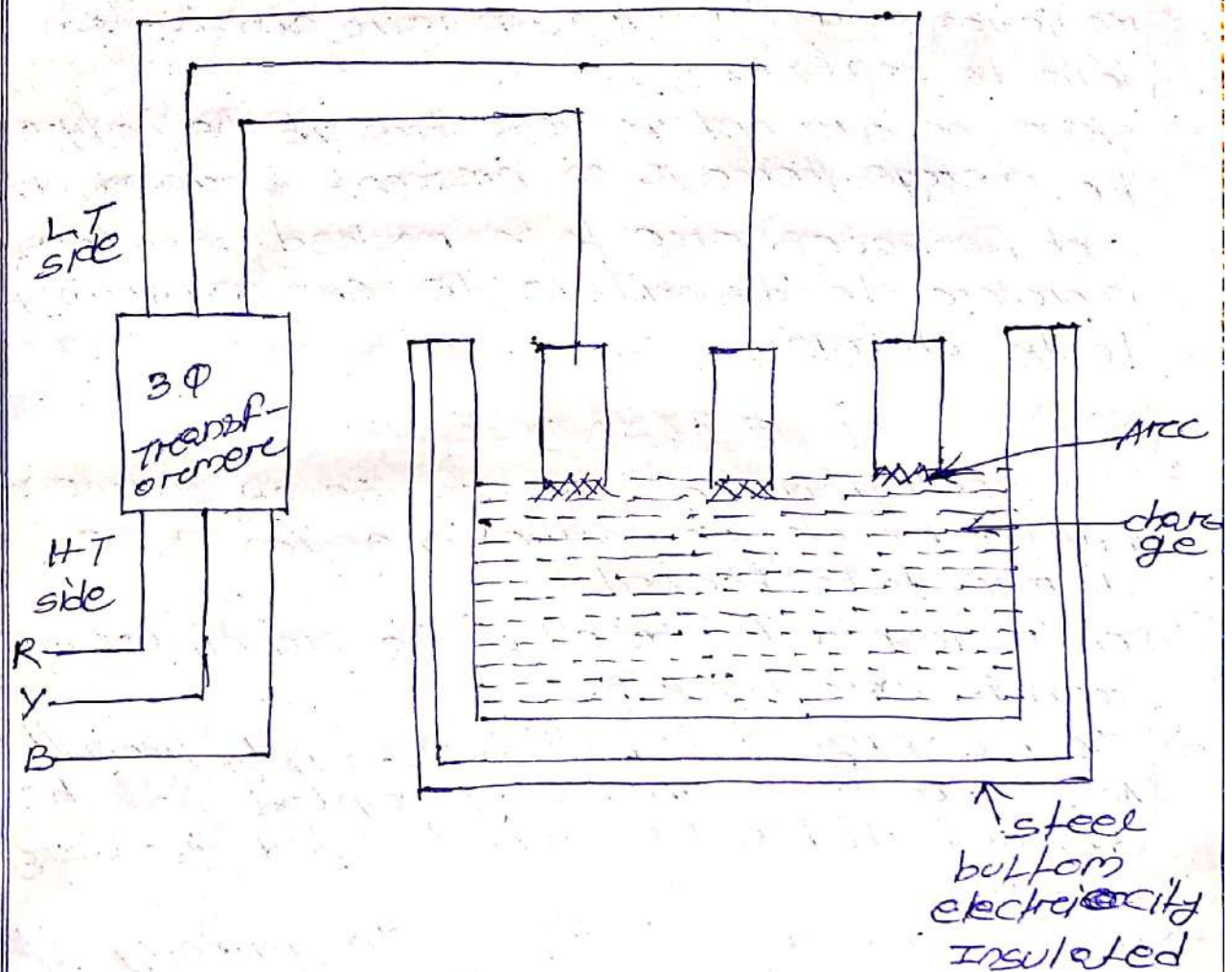
- In this case arc is struck between the electrodes and the charge to be heating such that the arc current flows through the charge and there is a direct contact between the arc and the charge.
- Heating is faster and heating efficiency is high.

2. CONDUCTING BOTTOM TYPE



- In conducting bottom type the bottom of the furnace act as a part of electric ckt.

II. NON-CONDUCTING BOTTOM TYPE

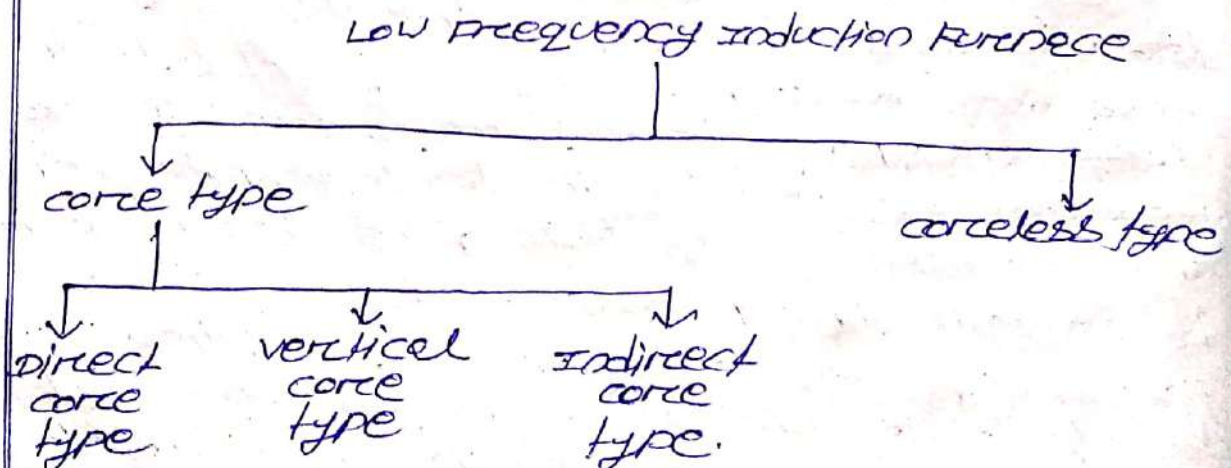


- In non conducting bottom type furnace no current flows through the bottom of the furnace.
- Most of the furnace used are non-conducting bottom type because of no insulation problem.
- INDIRECT ARC FURNACE (Next page)
- In this case heat is produced by the arc between two electrodes which does the heating two electrodes which does not heating indirectly.
- Arc does not come in direct contact with the charge but heat is transferred through radiation from arc to the top layer of the charge and then from the top layer of the charge to the bottom layer through conduction.
- In this case low voltage 1 ϕ AC is applied across the electrodes arc is struck by short circuit the electrodes for a moment and then separating it.

- Heat from the arc is transferred to the top layer of the charge and refractory lining through radiation and from the top layer and bottom layer to conduction.
- Since no current passes through the body of the charge there is no inherent stirring hence such furnaces are to be rocked continuously in order to distribute the heat uniformly to the charge.

INDUCTION HEATING

- This heating process makes use of current induced by electro magnetic action in the charge to be heated.
- It is generally based on the principle of transformer working.
- The primary winding which is supply from the AC source is magnetically coupled to the charged which act as short ckted secondary winding.
- When AC voltage is applied to the primary it induces voltage in the secondary winding i.e the charge the emf in the secondary side is produced & a current which heats up the charge.
- The value of this current depends on magnitude of primary current, permeability of the T/F, co-efficient of magnetic coupling etc.
- Low frequency induction furnaces are used for heating and melting of metal.



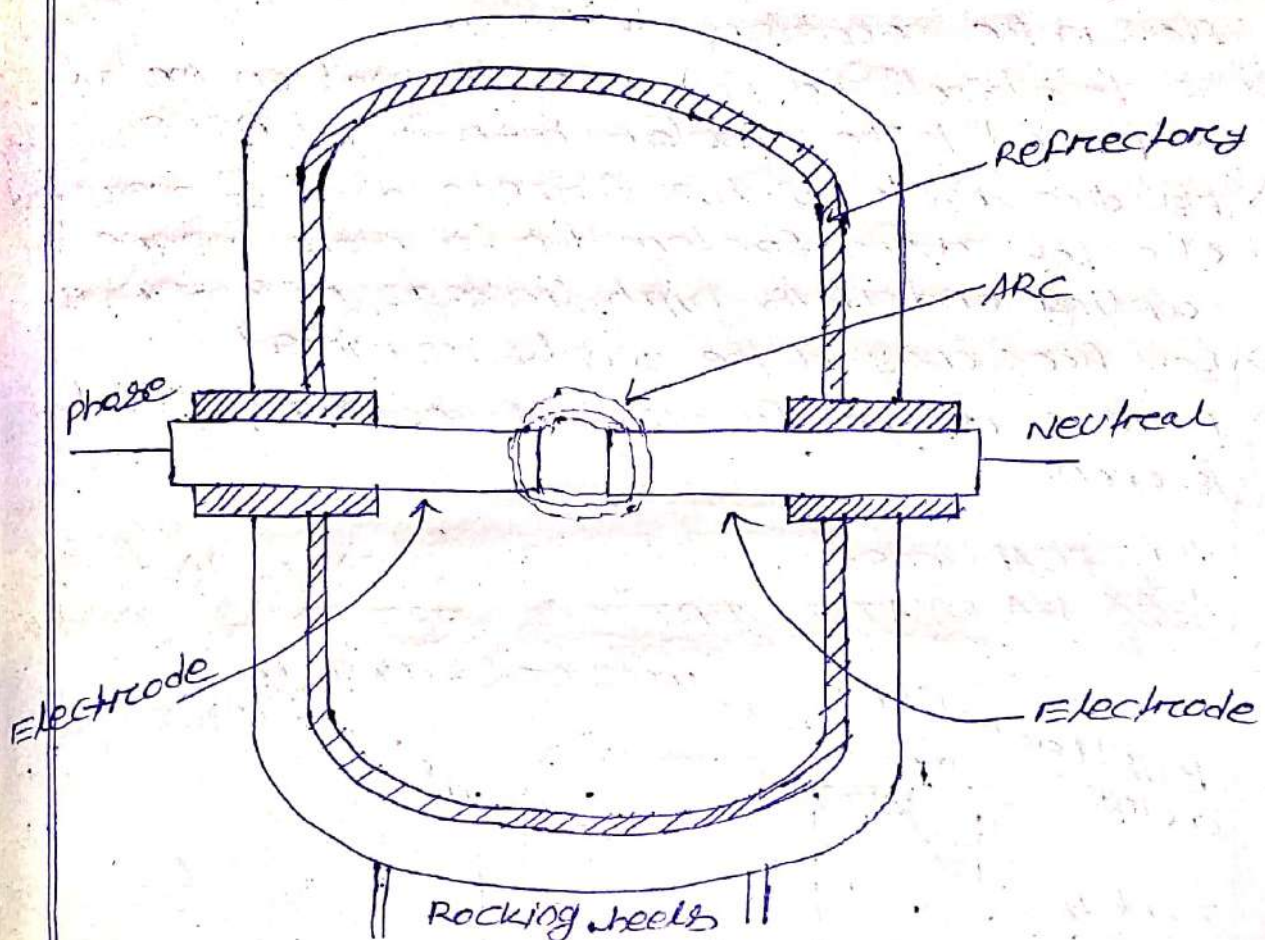
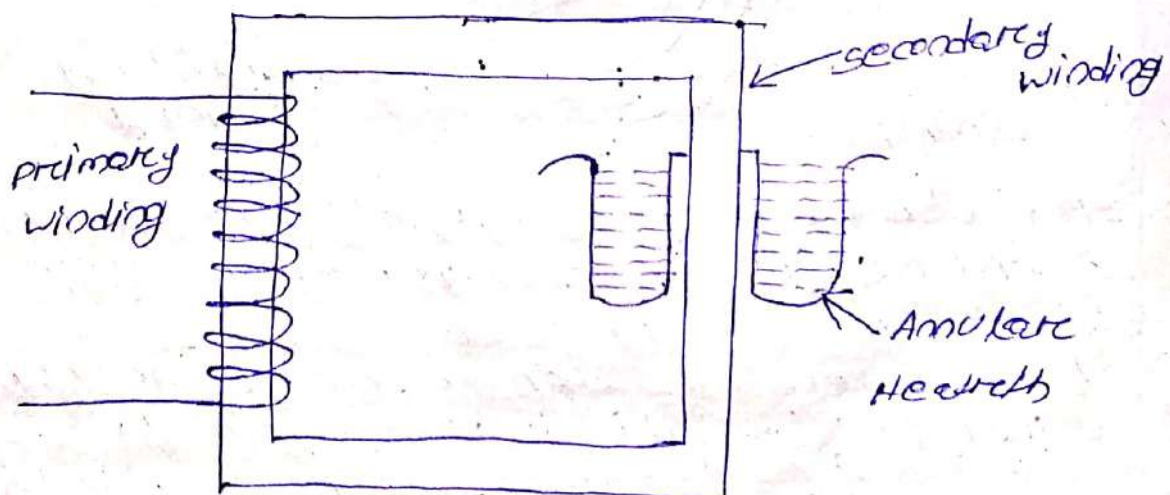


Fig: Indirect Arc Furnace

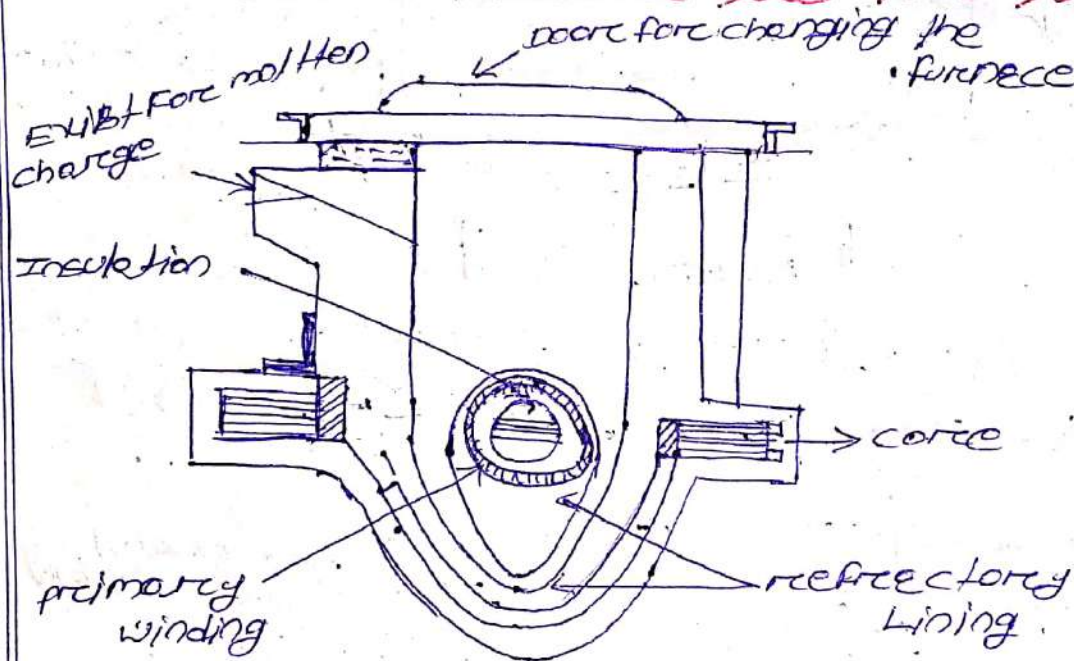
DIRECT CORE TYPE INDUCTION FURNACE



- It is like T/F having the charge ~~for~~ forms the secondary winding and consist of one turn only formed by the metal to be melted.
- The charged is magnetically coupled to the primary winding.
- Electro magnetic force are set up by the high current in the melting metal.

- When there is no molten metal, no current will flow in the secondary winding.
- so to start the furnace the molten metal is poured in the annular hearth furnace.
- Few drawback of this furnace are it operates at a low power factor due to poor magnetic coupling and it is high leakage reactance.
- Low frequency of the supply required
- Furnace can not function if secondary ckt is open.

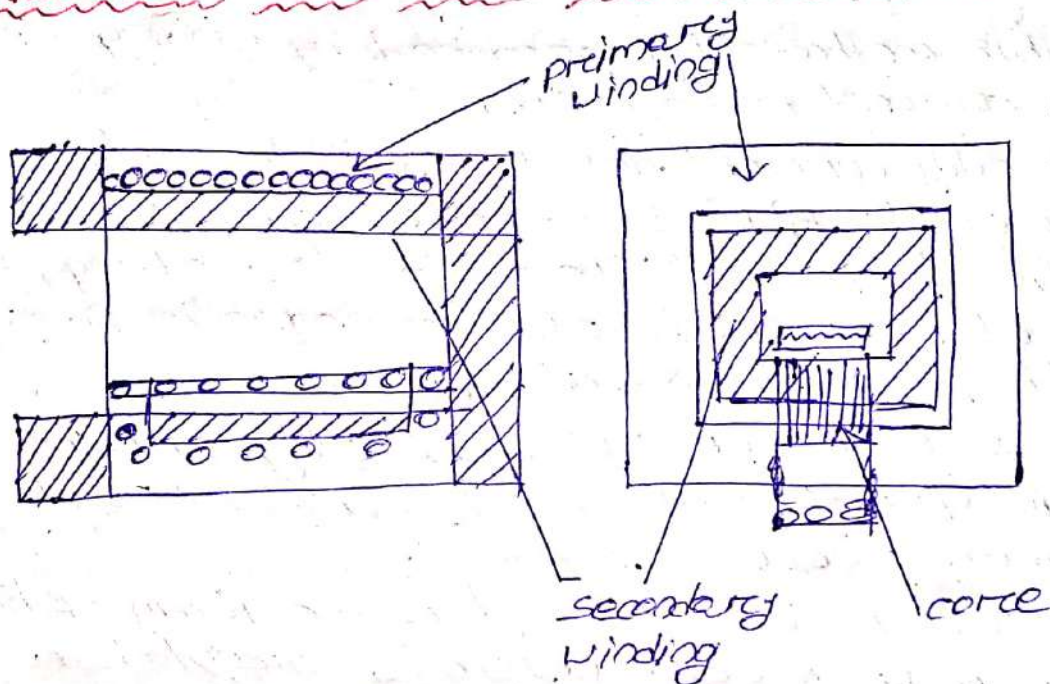
VERTICAL CORE-TYPE INDUCTION FURNACE / AJAX ~~WYATT~~ WYATT VERTICAL CORE TYPE FURNACE



- It is also known as ajax wyatt ~~vertical~~ furnace and represents an improvement over the direct core type furnace.
- It has a vertical channel for the charge so that the crucible is also vertical.
- The magnetic coupling in the furnace is better than direct core type so leakage current is comparatively low and power factor is high so it can operate from normal frequency supply i.e. 50 Hz.

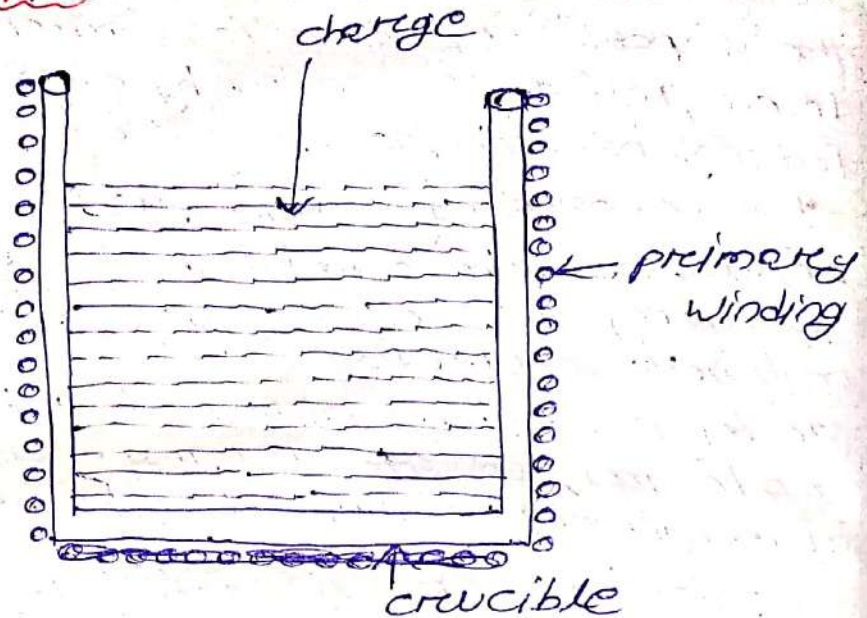
- The circulation of molten metal is kept up round the 'V' position by convection current and in the lower half of 'V' section by electro magnetic forces between the induced current.
- It is necessary to keep the 'V' section full of metal, in order to maintain the continuity of secondary ckt so that the ckt is suitable for continuous operation.
- The top is covered with insulated cover which can be removed for charging. Hydraulic tilting arrangement is there to take molten metal.

INDIRECT CORE TYPE INDUCTION FURNACE



- In this method a suitable element is heated by induction which ~~its~~ transfers the heat to the charge by radiation.
- The secondary winding consists of metal container which forms the wall of the furnace.
- The primary winding is magnetically coupled to the secondary winding by an iron core.
- When primary winding connected to AC supply secondary current is used in the metal container by the TKE action.
- The metal container transfers the heat to the charge. This method is advantageous because its temp. can be automatically controlled without the use of external equipment.

CORELESS TYPE



- In this method flux produced by winding sets up eddy current in the charge.
- The eddy current developed is directly proportional to $B_m^2 f^2$. These eddy current are sufficient to heat the metal to melting point and also ~~set~~ set up electromagnetic forces which produces a stirring action.
- The direction of resultant eddy current will be in opposite direction to current with primary coil.
- The coil is constructed in the form of hollow through which cold water is circulated.

SKIN EFFECT

When DC supplied across the conductor the conduction is distributed uniformly over the whole cross-section of the conductor but in the case of AC the distribution of the current will not be uniform. The AC current tends to be concentrated near the surface of the conductor and almost no current flows through the core of the conductor. This phenomenon of concentration of AC near the surface area is called skin effect and it increases the resistance of the conductor.

- At low frequency the skin effect is small but its effect become significantly at high frequency.

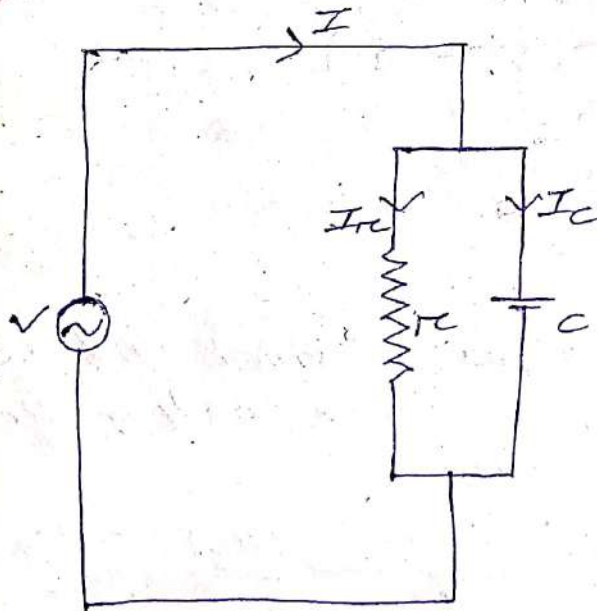
14.01.20

→ ~~This~~

DIELECTRIC HEATING

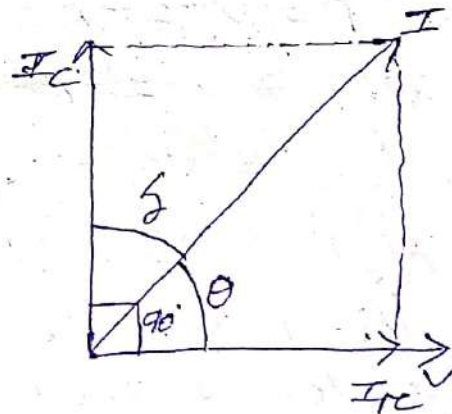
- This also called 'high frequency capacity heating' and is employed from heating insulating materials like wood, ceramics, plastic etc.
- The supply voltage applied in this type of heating is in the range of 20kV and the frequency is about 20 to 30 mega(M) Hz.

PRINCIPLE



$$I_R \ll I_C$$

$$\Rightarrow I = I_R + I_C \approx I_C$$



δ = dielectric loss angle.

$$\sin \delta = \frac{I_R}{I}$$

$$\tan \delta = \frac{I_R}{I_C}$$

- When a dielectric material subjected to sinusoidal voltage the current run by it will never lead the voltage by an angle 90° rather the angle between voltage and current will be less than 90° rather by an angle δ called dielectric loss angle.
- There is certain component of current which is always inphase in the voltage and produced a power loss called dielectric loss.

→ At high frequency the loss will be very high and reflected as heat which will heat the material.

$$\text{power}(P) = VI \cos \theta$$

$$I \cong I_c$$

$$\Rightarrow P = VI_c \cos \theta$$

$$= V \cdot \frac{V}{X_c} \cos \theta$$

$$= V \cdot \frac{V}{\left(\frac{1}{2\pi FC}\right)} \cos \theta$$

$$= V^2 2\pi FC \cos \theta$$

$$P = V^2 2\pi FC \cos(90 - \phi)$$

$$\Rightarrow P = V^2 2\pi FC \sin \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow P = V^2 2\pi FC \tan \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow P = V^2 2\pi FC \phi$$

→ so this is the amount of power which will be converted to heat and used for heating the material.

APPLICATION OF DIELECTRIC HEATING

- Plywood Industry
- plastic Industry
- Tobacco Industry
- Bakeries
- Electronic sewing
- Dehydration of food.

MICROWAVE HEATING

- In this method electricity is converted into electromagnetic waves which generates heat energy.
- The wave length of this wave is very less and having high frequency and that's way

These known as microwaves.

- When this microwave comes in contact with certain substance it is reflected, transmitted or absorbed.
- When this wave gets absorbed heating effect will occur.
- Microwave heating is used in microwave ovens for baking purpose. The frequency is used is in the range of 900 MHz to 2400 MHz.

APPLICATIONS

- Baking of bread/toast.
- Drying of paper and textiles.
- Food processing.
- Treatment of cancer.
- Processing of cement and timber etc.

CHAPTER-3

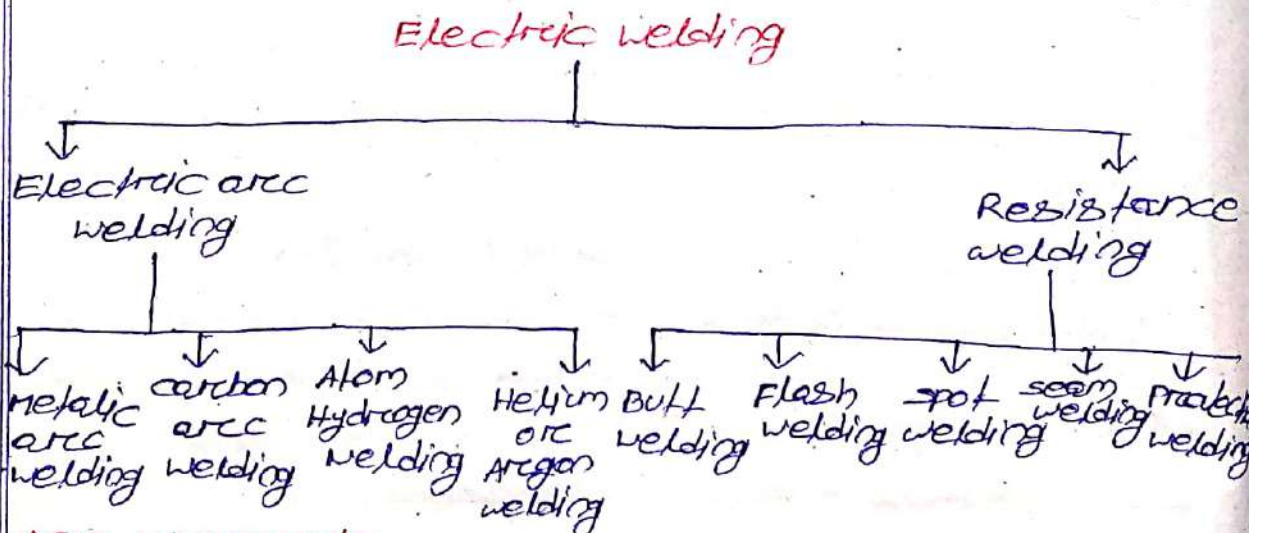
ELECTRIC WELDING

GENERAL WELDING

It may be defined as the process in which metals are joint by heating them to a suitable temp with or without the application of pressure and addition of filler metals.

ELECTRIC WELDING

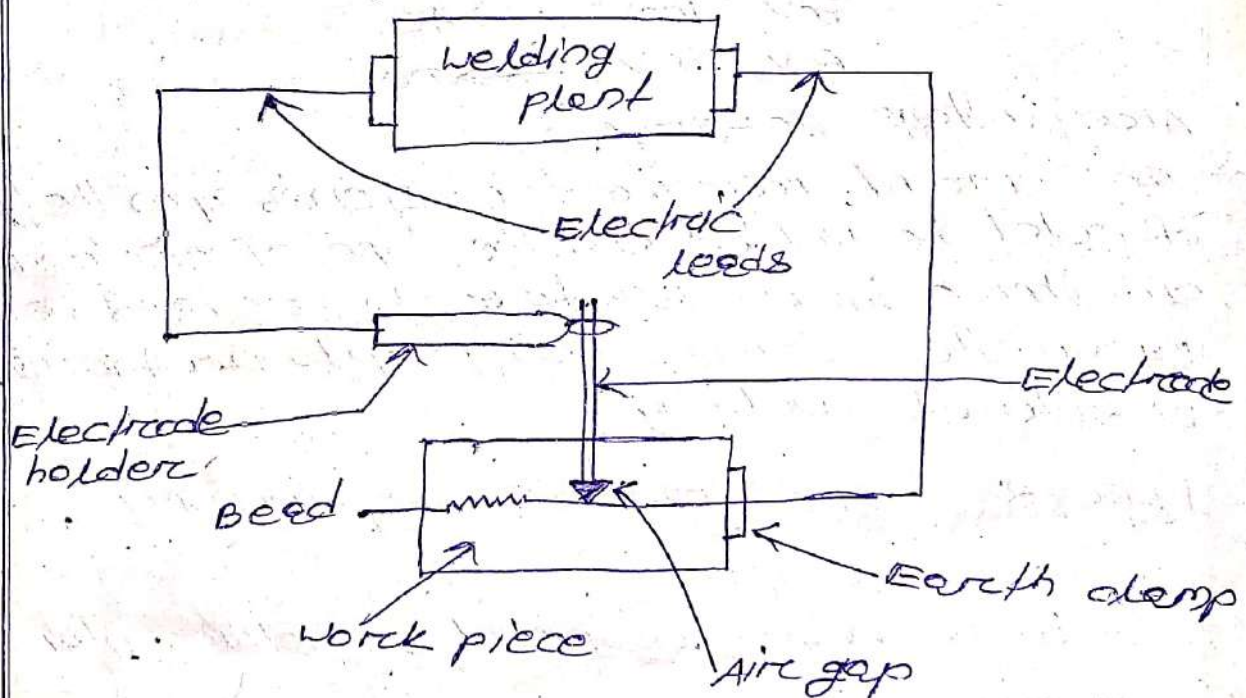
- It is defined as the branch of welding in which electric current is passed to produce large amount of heat for joining together two pieces of metal to form a union.
- In electric welding heat is produced either by striking an arc between the electrode and the metallic joint or by passing a heavy current through the joint.
- The first method is called electric arc welding where as the second method is called resistance welding.



ARC WELDING

An electric arc is produced by bringing two conductors connected to a suitable source of electric current momentarily in contact and then separating them by a small distance.

- The current will flow across the small gap continuously and produced high heat.
- That heat developed is utilized to melt the part of the work pieces and the filler metal to form a joint.
- so the welded joint is a union of metal parts made of localized heat without any pressure.
- For arc welding the temp is about 3000°C . maximum voltage for welding is about 100V and current range from 32 to 600A .



- current from AC or DC source is obtained. one terminal is connected to the electrode and the other terminal is work piece and the ckt is completed through the air gap.
- The gap is provided between the tip of the electrode and the surface of work piece by keeping the electrode at the distance is about 3mm to 6mm from the work piece.
- Due to the air gap arc will be produced which will result in heating effect and the temp. ranges from 3700°C to 4000°C .

→ This high temp. will melt ~~be~~ the metal and welding take place.

CONDITION FOR SUCCESSFUL WELDING

→ The main requirements are a relatively high striking voltage to enable the arc to be struck and maintain stability.

→ A relatively low voltage is required to enable the arc to be maintain without being violent and the current of the correct value to melt the metal and the electrode without burning
striking voltage

80V - 100V → AC

60V - 80V → DC

Arc voltage 20 - 35V

→ The current required is depends upon the type of metal be welded and the type of electrode and hence is now 15A to 600A; For hand welding and the current can go up to 1200A in case of automatic welding.

ELECTRIC ARC WELDING EQUIPMENT

1. DC welding equipment

2. DC welding equipment / DC welding plant

1. DC WELDING EQUIPMENT

→ It consist of a generally a motor generator set. The motor is a squirrel cage induction motor and the generator is a differentially compound DC generator to give drooping char.

→ In such generators the terminal voltage falls automatically with increasing in load current.

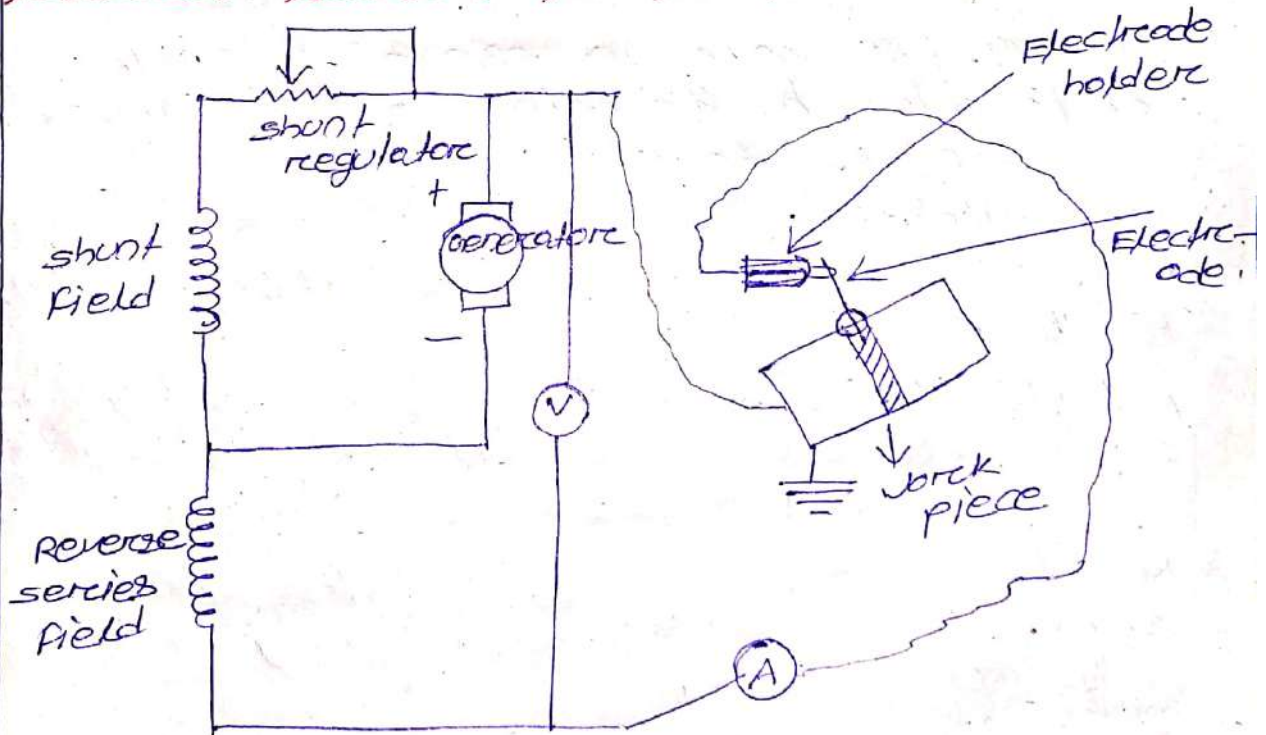
2. AC WELDING PLANT

In this case a T/F is used to reduce the voltage to about 100V to regulate the current and produce a drooping char. a resistance or reactance may be used.

WELDING ACCESSORIES

1. AC or DC welding plant
2. one electrode holder fitted with a length of flexible cable.
3. Another flexible cable which is connected to the work piece.
4. one face screen fitted with coloured glasses.
5. observer face screen fitted with coloured glasses
6. pair of leather gloves.
7. one chipping hammer to remove slag.
8. one brush to clean the weld after chipping.

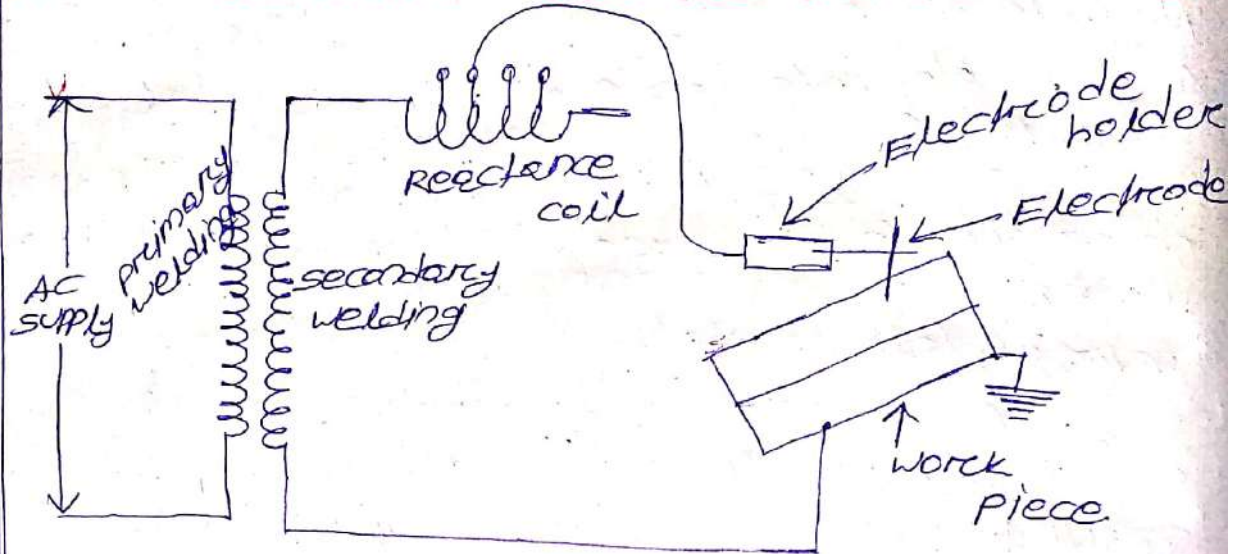
STANDARD METHODS FOR DC GENERATOR



- In this method the series field are connected in the reverse direction to the shunt coil, and therefore the field created by the series field will be in opposition to field created by the shunt coil.
- on open circuit shunt field is only operating and maximum voltage is available to strike the arc.
- When the arc is struck current will flow through series winding producing or creating opposition shunt field. so resultant field strength decreases

and voltage drops and drooping char. can be achieved.

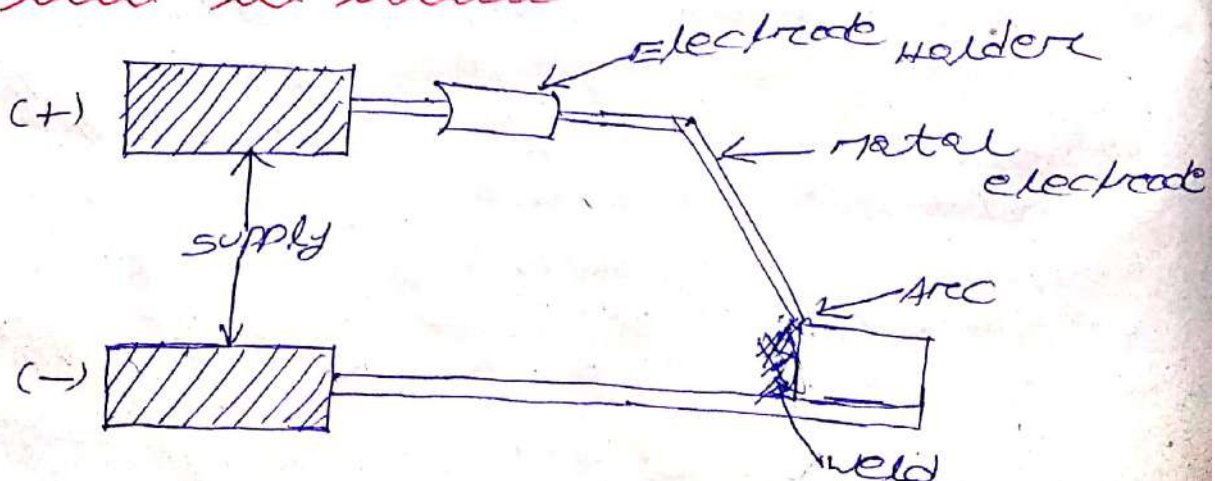
USE OF REACTANCE COIL FOR AC EQUIPMENT



- The drooping char. in case of AC equipment can be obtain by the help of a reactance coil in series with the arc.
- The voltage at the secondary side of the TF remains constant and is available for striking the arc.
- But when the current flows the voltage drop across the reactance coil reduces the voltage at the arc to the required value.
- Reactance coil also control the flow of current which is done by adjusting the tapping ^{tap} in the reactance coil.

TYPES OF ARC WELDING

1. METAL ARC WELDING



- In this method the metal rod is used as an electrode and an arc is struck between the electrode and the work piece which respectively ~~form~~ from the two terminals.
- In this case both AC and DC can be used.
- The work is suddenly touched by the electrode and then separated by a small distance. This results in an arc between the electrode and the work piece.
- Due to high amount of heat produce by the arc the electrode as well as the part of the work piece melts.
- After cooling it will give a strongly welded joint.
- Temp. is about 3500°C between the electrode and the work piece.

2. CARBON ARC WELDING

- This method of arc welding is normally used for welding coppers and its alloys.
- For this type of welding only DC can be used.
- The carbon electrode is kept -ve with respect to the work piece because if carbon is at positive it has a tendency go in to the welded joints and causes brittleness.
- The heat ~~form~~ from the arc forms a molten pool and extra metal required to make the weld is supplied by a filled rod of the same composition as that of the molten metal.
- Two methods of carbon ~~arc~~ arc welding are used
 1. For ferrous metal flux is used to prevent oxidation.
 2. In non ferrous metal no flux is used.

3. ATOMIC HYDROGEN ARC WELDING

- In this type of welding arc is struck between two tungsten electrodes and hydrogen gas is passed through the work piece.
- Due to high temp. of about 4000°C hydrogen changes to its atomic form.
- This atomic hydrogen will take up the heat and travels to cooler region.
- It gives off the heat in the cooler region i.e. the work piece and again converts to molecular arc form.
- This process will continuously take place and large amount of heat will be generated which will be used to melt the work piece to be welded.

4. ARGON/HELIUM ARC WELDING

- This method is used for ~~heating~~ welding Al alloys, magnesium and magnesium alloys.
- And arc is struck between electrode tungsten and the work piece and helium and argon gas is used to give an inert atmosphere so that oxidation of the welded joint does not take place.

2. RESISTANCE HEATING WELDING

It may be defined as the method in which sufficiently strong electric current is sent through the two metals in contact to be welded bringing the two metal pieces in molten state and applying a mechanical pressure in the axial direction to complete the joint.

- The heat generated by the flow of electric current I through a resistance R is given by $H = I^2 R t$

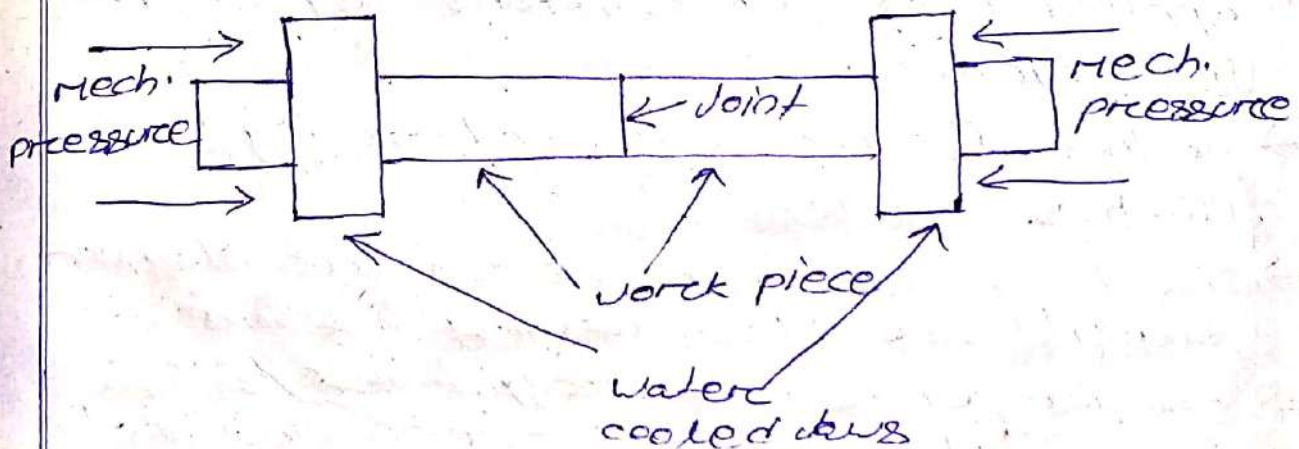
- so to obtain a greater heating effect current should be high because 'H' is directly proportional to I^2 .
- For this reason resistance welding requires low voltage and high current.

ADVANTAGES OF RESISTANCE ~~HEATING~~ WELDING

- It is a quick method for joining two metals.
- There will be no wastage of energy.
- process can be easily controlled.
- welding is consistently uniform.

TYPES OF RESISTANCE WELDING

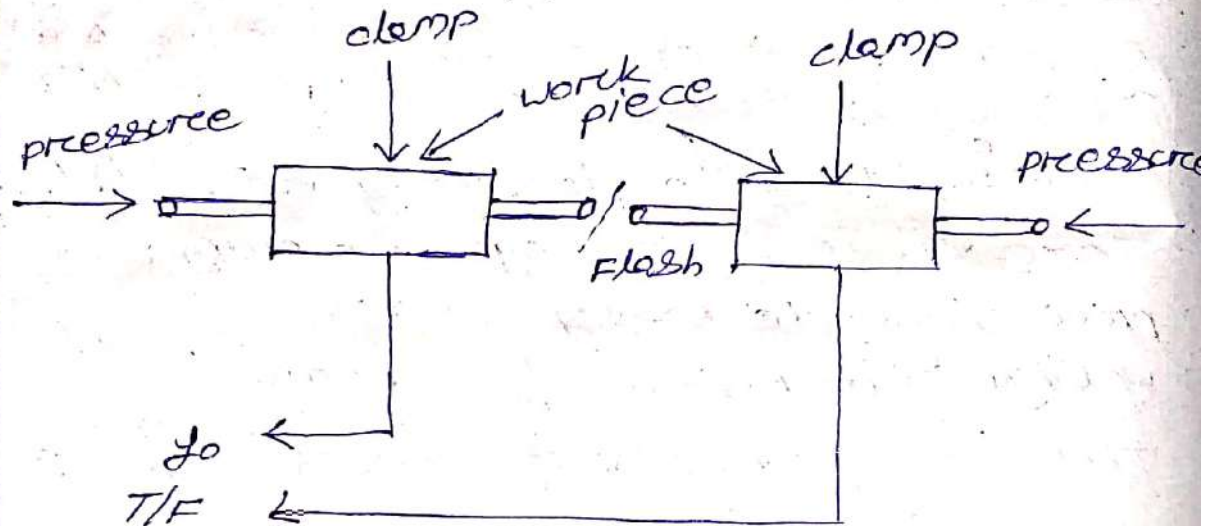
1. BUTT WELDING



- Here heat is generated by contact resistance between two components.
- The two components are brought together and pressure is applied along the axial direction.
- A heavy current is passed from a welding T/F having less no. of turns in the secondary winding.
- which will create the necessary amount of heat.
- The metal at the ~~work~~ joint melts and produces the fused joint.

→ Ex - welding of pipes, rods, and wires.

2. FLASH WELDING



→ This is similar to butt welding except the difference that in this case current is applied to the parts before they are brought together.

→ so that when they will meet arcing or flashing will take place

→ The two pieces to be welded are clamped strongly in a flash welding machine.

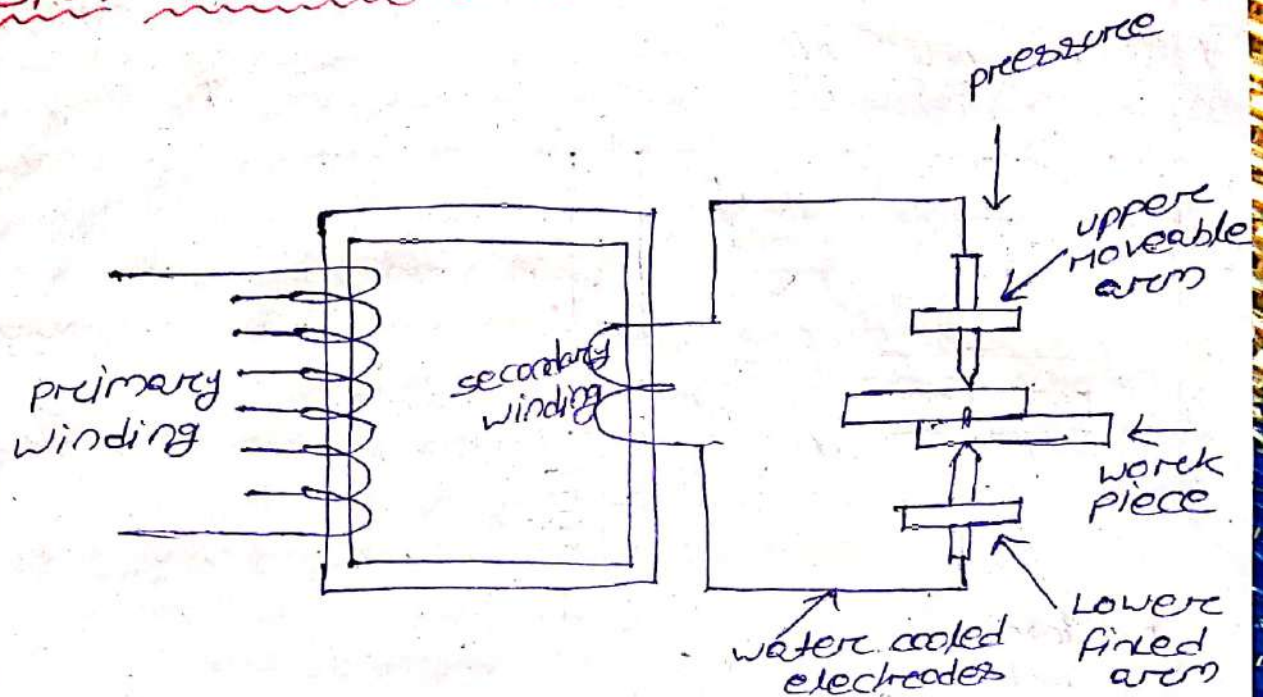
→ The two parts are brought together and the resistance to the current flow heats the contact in surface.

→ As soon as the melts has be brought to its melting temp. current is shut off and a considerable pressure is apply.

→ during this process the squeezed molten metal give some spark or flash and hence the name is flash welding.

→ Ex - welding of rods and pipes together, production work etc.

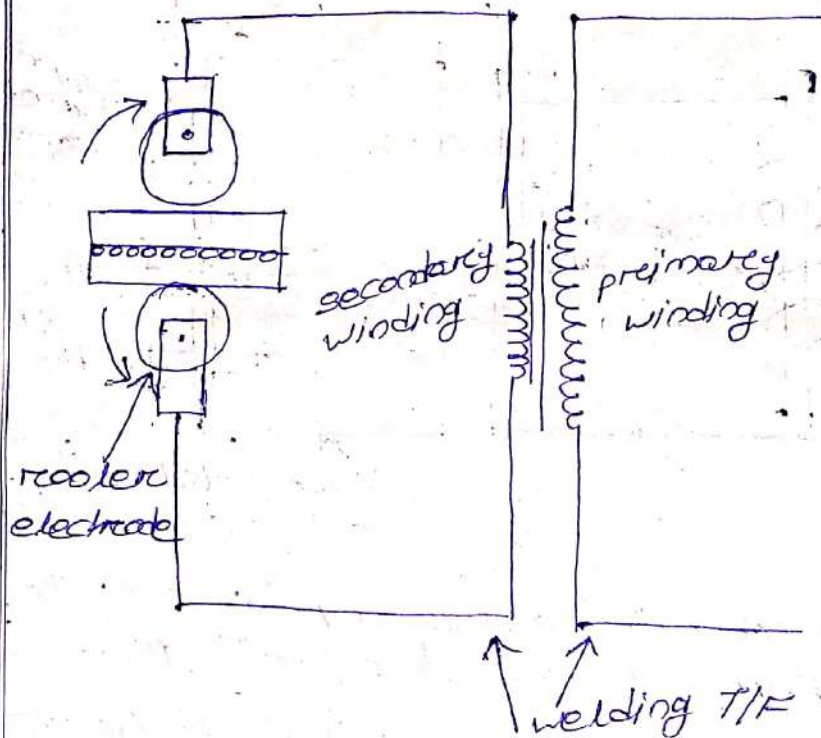
3. SPOT WELDING (IMP)



- spot welding machine consist of a T/F to produce a high current at low voltage.
- i.e electrode are connected that to the ends of secondary winding for leading the current to the work and applying necessary mechanical pressure.
- Tapping is provided in the primary winding of the T/F to regulate the secondary voltage and thus the welding current.
- In this process the metal to be welded are overlapped and pass between two water cool electrode and an impulse of current is passed through the ~~exp~~ assembly.
- The metal in the zone of pressure gets heated up to fusion and joint thus made gets cooled under pressure.
- For spot welding current is about 5000 A and voltage is about 3V.
- The value of welding current, time for current flow and pressure between electrode tips are the main factors affecting the quality of spot welding.

→ EX → welding of metal sheets

4. SEAM WELDING



→ It is similar to spot welding except that series of spot are produced by roller electrodes instead of tipped electrodes.

→ As the roller travels over the metal the metal pieces are under pressure and current passing between the metal pieces heats then the fusion point and welding take place. This may be called as seams spot weld method.

→ There are two type of seam welding
a. continuous seam
b. discontinuous seam.

→ In continuous seam uninterrupted flow of current is supplied to the electrodes so spots are continuous.

→ In discontinuous seam current to the electrode is turned off at certain interval so spots are produced at intervals.

5. PROJECTION WELDING

- Here projections are made on the ~~sheet~~^{sheet} of metal in precized locations by a special set of dies.
- Afterc projections are formed, the raised portions on ~~the~~ one piece are pressed into contact with another piece and at ~~same~~ same time a heavy current is passed through two pieces this high current melts and fuses the two pieces together.

CHAPTER-4

ILLUMINATION

RADIATIONS

- The energy of an atom is constant as long as the electron stays in a stationary orbit and atom is set to be in stationary state.
- Radiation is produced when an electron falls from an outer stationary orbit to one nearer the nucleus.
- When such a transition occurs, a single quantum or photon of radiation is emitted.
- Thus the radiations from an atom is not continuous but in the form of quantum whenever an electron moves from one stationary orbit to another.
- But as we dealing with large no. of atoms the radiations seems to be continuous in time.
- Each photon may be considered to be associated with a wave which predicts how the photon will travel and it is given by

$$v = \lambda f$$

where v = velocity of wave

λ = wavelength of wave (unit = Angstrom)

f = frequency of wave

$(\text{\AA}) = 10^{-10} \text{ m}$
 10^{-8} cm

SPECTRUM OF LIGHT

- The spectrum of light consist of 7 colours: Violet, Indigo, Blue, Green, Yellow, orange and Red denoted by VIBGYOR.
- All these radiation have different wave length and frequency. above and below the radiations are ~~at~~ ultraviolet and infra-red radiations.

ILLUMINATION

When light falls on a surface, the phenomenon is called illumination.

→ Illumination makes a surface more or less bright with certain colour and it is the brightness and colour which our eyes see.

TERMS USED IN ILLUMINATION

1. LIGHT

It is defined as the radiant energy from a hot body causing visual sensation of eyes.

2. LUMINOUS INTEN FLUX (F) IMP

It is defined as the total quantity of light energy radiated or emitted per second from a luminous body in the form of light waves.

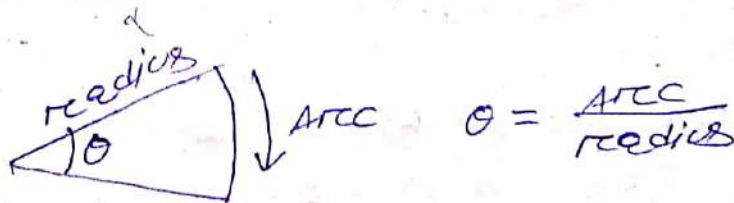
→ It is denoted by 'F' or 'Φ'

→ unit: lumens.

3. RADIANT EFFICIENCY / LUMINOUS EFFICIENCY (H) IMP

The ratio of energy emitted by the body in the form of light to the total amount of energy emitted is called luminous efficiency or radiant efficiency.

4. PLANE PHASE ANGLE (θ)



→ plane angle is subtended ~~that~~ at a point in the same plane by two converging lines.

→ unit: degree / radian.

5 SOLID ANGLE (ω)



$$\omega = \frac{\text{area}}{(\text{radius})^2}$$

- A solid angle enclose a volume by infinity no. of line lying on a surface and meeting at a point.
- It is measured in steradians.

6. LUMINOUS INTENSITY

- Luminous intensity at any particular direction is the luminous flux emitted by the source per unit solid angle.

$$I = \frac{F}{\omega}$$

- unit: lumen/steradians or candle

7 CANDLE POWER

- It is the total light rendering capacity of a source in a unit solid angle.
- OR
- It is defined as the no. of lumen given out by the source in a unit solid angle in a given direction.

$$\text{candle power} = \frac{\text{lumen}}{\omega}$$

8. LUMEN

$$\text{Lumen} = \text{candle power} \times \omega$$

- It is defined as the amount of luminous flux given out in space represented by one unit solid angle by a source having an intensity of 1 candle power in a given direction.

9. ILLUMINATION (E)

$$E = F/A$$

→ When light falls upon the surface the phenomenon is called illumination.

→ It is defined as the no. of lumen falling on the surface per unit area so.

$$E = F/A \quad \text{unit} = \frac{\text{lumen}}{\text{m}^2} = \text{lux}$$

10. M.S.C.P (IMP)

→ It is defined as the average of candle power in all direction and in all plane from the source of light.

→ M.S.C.P stands for mean spherical candle power.

11. MHCB (IMP)

→ Means horizontal candle power

→ It is defined as the average of the candle power in all direction only in horizontal plane containing the source of light.

12. MHSCP (IMP)

→ Mean Hemi-spherical candle power

→ It is defined as the average of the candle power in all direction, above and below the horizontal line passing through the source of light.

13. BRIGHTNESS / LUMINANCE

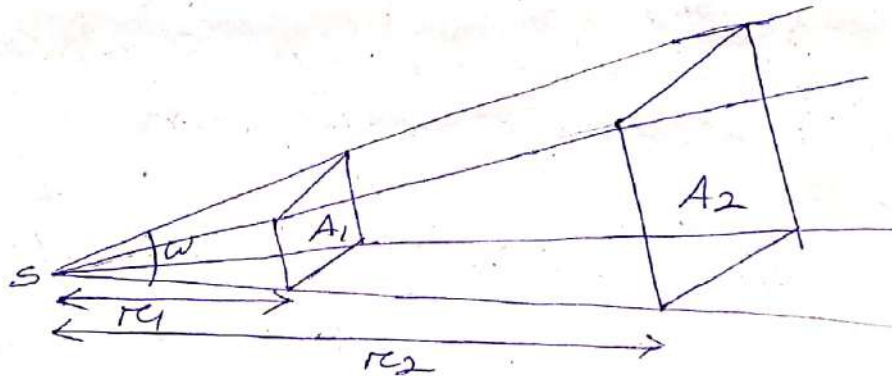
→ It is defined as the luminous intensity per unit projected area of either a surface source of light or reflecting surface.

LAWS OF ILLUMINATIONS (IMP)

→ There are two laws of illumination

1. INVERSE SQUARE LAW

→ It states that the illumination of a surface is inversely proportional to the square of the distance between the source and the surface provided that the distance between the source and the surface is sufficiently ~~that~~ large



→ consider a point source S having intensity $I = \text{lumen/steradian}$ so any surface enclosed by solid angle (w) we receive total flux

$$F = I \times w$$

$$\text{and } w = \frac{\text{Area}}{(\text{radius})^2}$$

For surface area A_1

Flux on surface A_1

$$F = I \times w$$

$$= I \times \frac{A_1}{r_1^2}$$

Illumination

$$E_1 = \frac{F}{A_1} = \frac{I}{r_1^2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

For surface area A_2

Flux on surface A_2

$$F = I \times w$$

$$= I \times \frac{A_2}{r_2^2}$$

Illumination

$$E_2 = \frac{F}{A_2} = \frac{I}{r_2^2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

so from (1) and (2)

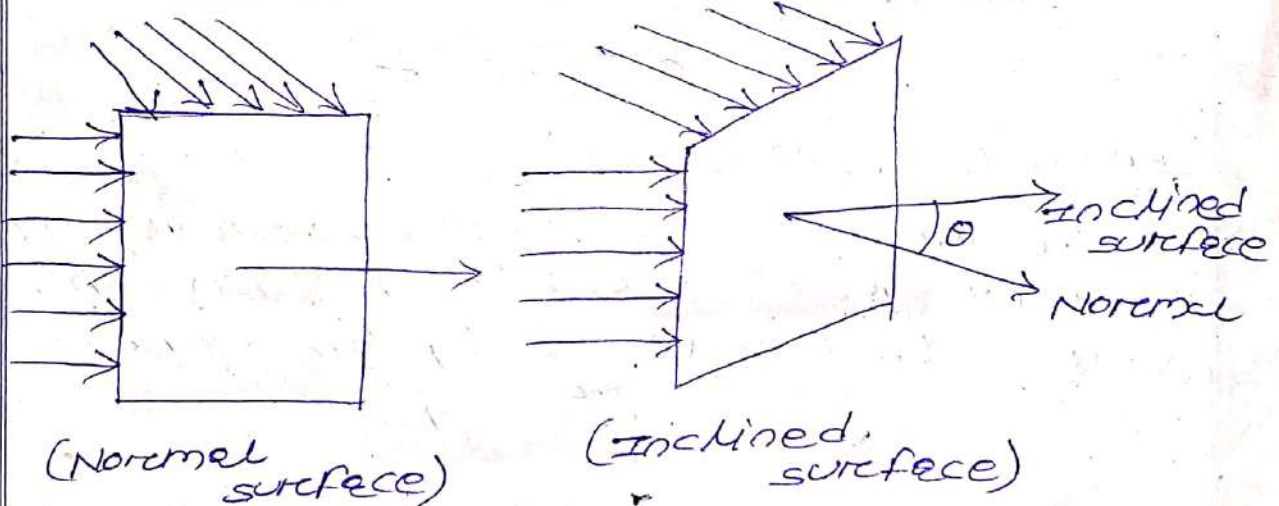
$$\frac{E_1}{E_2} = \frac{(I/r_1^2)}{(I/r_2^2)} = \frac{r_2^2}{r_1^2}$$

2. LAMBERT'S COSINE LAW ~~(LAW)~~

It states that illumination of a surface varies directly as the cosine of the angle between the normal to the surface and the direction of incident light.

$$E \propto \cos \theta$$

θ = Angle between normal to the surface and direction of inclined light

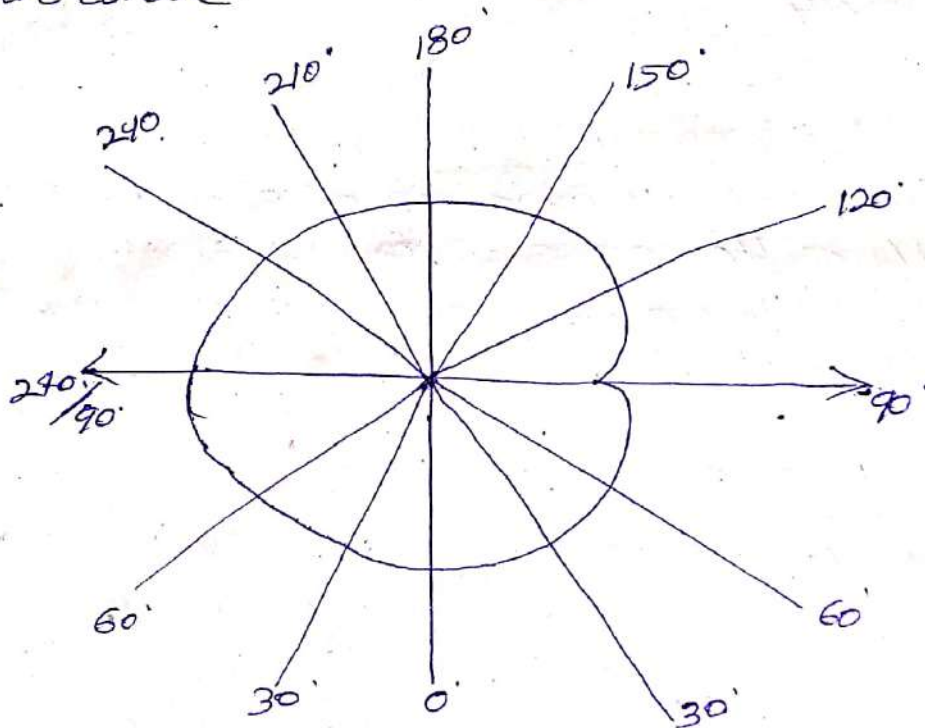


POLAR CURVE (ZMP)

- The luminous intensity of any practically lamp is not uniform in all direction due to its un-symmetrical shape.
- The luminous intensity in all direction can be represented by a curve called polar curve.
- There are two types
 1. Horizontal polar curve
 2. Vertical polar curve.

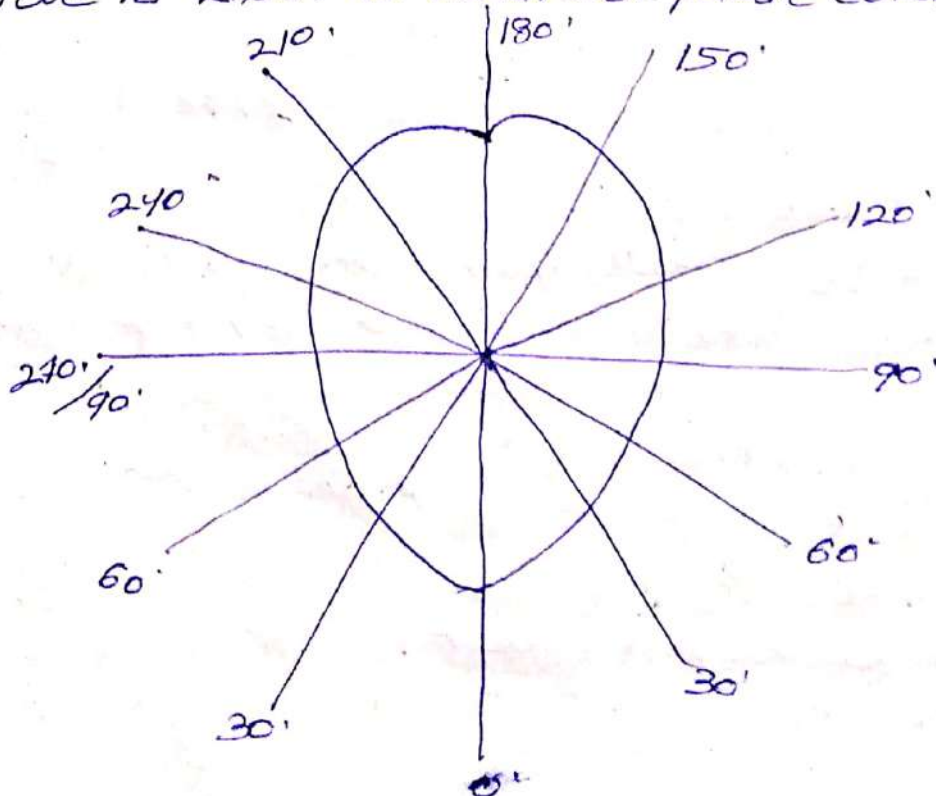
1. HORIZONTAL POLAR CURVE

If the luminous intensity in a horizontal plane passing through the lamp is plotted against angular position then this curve is called Horizontal polar curve.



2. VERTICAL POLAR CURVE

→ If the luminous intensity in a vertical plane is plotted against the angular position then the curve is known as vertical polar curve.



MAINTENANCE FACTOR ~~IMP~~

due to accumulation of dust, smoke, dirty on the lamps they emitted less light as compare to that they ~~emit~~ emit when there perfectly new

- The ratio of illumination under normal working condition to the illumination when the lamp are perfectly clean or new is called maintenance factor.

$$\text{Maintenance Factor} = \frac{\text{Illumination of a lamp under normal working condition}}{\text{Illumination of the lamp when everything is perfectly clean.}}$$

- The value of the maintenance factor will always be less than one.

DEPRICIATION FACTOR ~~IMP~~

- It is the reciprocal of maintenance factor
- It is defined as the ratio of illumination of the lamp when every thing is perfectly clean to illumination of a lamp under normal working condition.

$$\text{Depreciation Factor} = \frac{\text{Illumination of the lamp when every-thing is perfectly clean}}{\text{Illumination of a lamp under normal working condition.}}$$

- The value of the depreciation factor will always be greater than one

DESIGNING OF LIGHTING SCHEME

1. SPACE-HEIGHT RATIO

- It is defined as the ratio of horizontal distance between two adjacent lamps and the mounting height of the lamps.
- 0.8 → 1.2 → Normal lighting
- 1 - 2 → Reflecting lighting

2. UTILISATION FACTOR

→ ~~Total~~ The total luminous flux radiated out by the source is not utilized wholly on the working surface and is given by utilization factor.

$$U.F = \frac{\text{Lumen utilized in the surface}}{\text{Total lumen radiated from the lamp}}$$

→ For direct lighting the value of U.F should be between 0.25 ~~to~~ to 0.5 and indirect lighting is 0.1 to 0.3

3. DEPRECIATION FACTOR previous page

TYPES OF LIGHTING SCHEME

Depending on whether the source throws light directly over the surface or it reaches the surface after reflection from other surface lighting scheme can be classified into 4 types.

1. Direct lighting
2. Indirect lighting
3. Semi direct lighting
4. Semi indirect lighting.

1. DIRECT LIGHTING

In this case the light from the source is thrown directly over the surface to be illuminated.

2. INDIRECT LIGHTING

In this case no light reaches directly from the source on the surface to be illuminated.

→ Here the illumination of the surface takes place through reflecting light.

3. SEMI DIRECT LIGHTING

→ 60% of light reaches the surface comes directly from the surface and 40% of the light comes through reflecting light.

4. SEMI-INDIRECT LIGHTING

→ 60% of light is thrown on the surface through reflecting light and rest 40% comes directly from the sources.

depending on the manner sources are mounted to illuminate specific object lighting schemes are of two type.

1. Local lighting
2. General lighting

1. LOCAL LIGHTING

IF the light is confined to illuminate a particular object it is called local light.

→ Ex: study light, light for lathe machine etc.

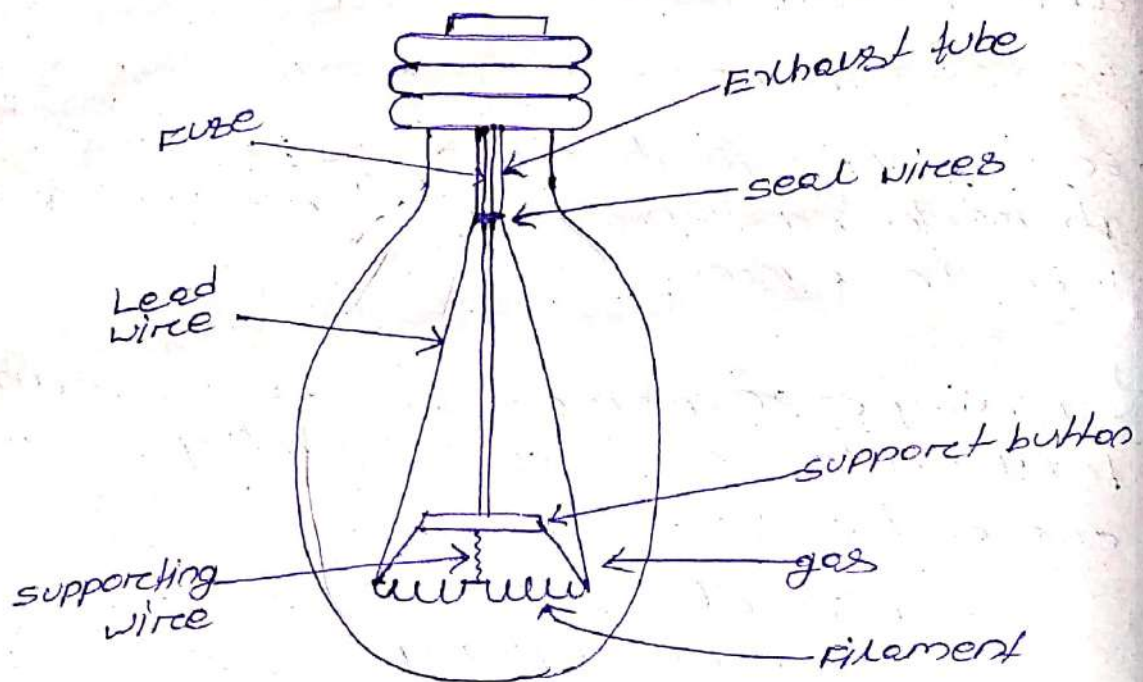
2. GENERAL LIGHTING

An addition to local lighting general lighting is done for proper illumination of the ~~sources~~ surface.

TYPES OF LAMP

1. Filament lamp
2. Incandescent lamp
3. Fluorescent lamp
4. Mercury vapour lamp
5. sodium vapour lamp
6. Gas discharge lamp
7. Neon sign lamp

1. FILAMENT LAMP



- Filament material used as are generally carbon & tungsten.
- Mostly tungsten is used as the filament material at ~~be~~ because it has most of the char. required by a filament material.
- The light emitted by filament lamp is proportional to T^{12} power of absolute temp (T^{12}) and that's ~~why~~ why lamps are run at high temp as far as possible.
- If the space in the lamps is replaced with an inert gas tungsten filament can reach a ~~temp~~ temp of 2400 kelvin without evaporation.
- due to high temp loss of heat will occur and thus we use gases like Argon or Nitrogen in the filament lamp.
- convection losses are minimized by the spiral arrangement of the filament.

- During manufacturing all air is pumped out of the glass envelope to prevent filament burning when operating.
- Lamps larger than 40W are filled with inert gas like argon and nitrogen to reduce ~~em~~ evaporation of tungsten.
- Tungsten filament.

$$\text{Light output} \propto V^{4 \text{ to } 5}$$

EFFECT OF VARIATION OF VOLTAGE ON WORKING OF FILAMENT LAMP

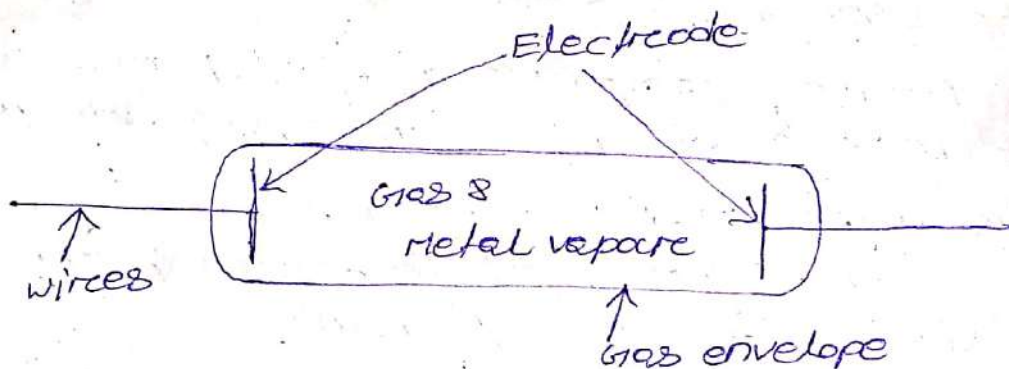
- The filament lamp are generally constructed for operation along constant supply voltage.
- But a variation of $\pm 6\%$ voltage at consumer terminal is permitted the operating voltage should be between 212V to 224V.

2. INCANDESCENT LAMP

- They are also known as filament lamp.
- The incandescent lamp operate by the principle of Incandescence i.e. when a current flows through a wire both light and heat energy is produced.
- When the filament is red hot it emits more heat as compare to light.
- When the filament is white hot the amount of light radiation is more than the heat radiation.
- Materials used for filament ~~resistivity~~ ~~have~~ should ~~be~~ have the following properties.
 - 1- It should have high melting point.
 - 2- It should have high resistivity
 - 3- It should have low temp. co-efficient
 - 4- It should have low vapour pressure
 - 5- It should be mechanically strong to withstand vibration during normal use.

- It should be ductile so that it can be drawn into very thin wires.
- Material used for filament are carbon, tungsten, osmium and tantalum filament lamps.
- Tungsten is used mostly because it possess all the above properties.

GASEOUS DISCHARGE LAMP



- Gases are normally poor conductors at atmospheric and high pressure.
- When a suitable voltage known as ignition voltage is applied across the two electrodes discharge of gases will take place along with electromagnetic radiation.
- The wave length of the radiation depends on the gas, its pressure and the metal vapour used in the lamp.
- Once the ionization gets started it has a tendency to increase continuously & compensated by a fall in the ckt resistance.
- In order to limit the value of current to a safe value a choke or Ballast is used.
- The choke performs two functions i.e. providing the ignition voltage ~~initially~~ sufficiently and limiting the value of current.

- Due to the use of choke the power factor become poor i.e 0.3 to 0.4 so in order to improve the power factor a condenser is used.
- The production of light by these lamps is based on the phenomenon of excitation and ionization in a gas or vapour.
- If a potential difference is applied to two electrodes placed in a gas having large no. of free electrons.
- The electron ~~th~~ will be attracted towards the +ve electrode and the velocity of this electron depends upon the potential gradient.
- During the motion towards the +ve electrode, the electron will strike with other atoms and the following result may be produced.

i. ELASTIC COLLISION

- The electron may be bounced off the atom it strikes and there may be no change in the velocity.
- This happens when the striking electron has small amount of kinetic energy.

ii. EXCITATION

- If the electron has acquired kinetic energy above certain critical value, the collision may cause one of the electrons to jump from its normal orbit to another orbit.
- The colliding electron imparts its kinetic energy to the atom that it strikes and the atom is said to be in the ~~excitation~~ excited state.

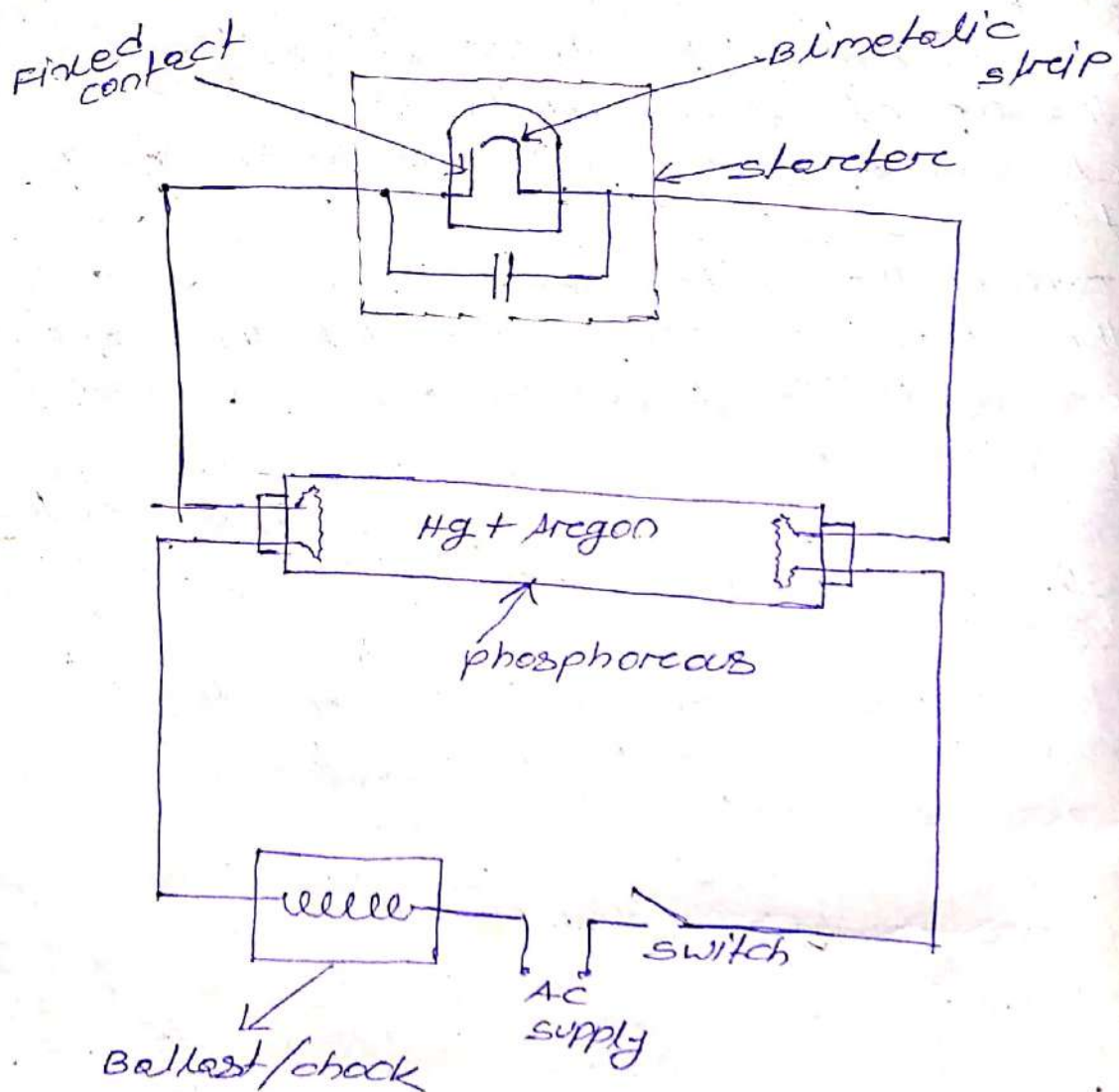
iii. IONISATION BY COLLISION

- If the kinetic energy of the colliding electron is sufficiently large it is completely knocked

and its electron from its orbit and the electron will now behave like a free electron and may produce more no. of free electron by collision.

→ A large no. of free electrons thus produce a heavy current and an electric arc may result this phenomenon is called ionization by collision.

FLUORESCENT LAMP



→ A Fluorescent tube is a low weight mercury vapour lamp that uses principle of fluorescence to deliver visible light.

→ An electric current in a gas energized mercury vapour which delivers ultraviolet radiation through discharge process and the ultraviolet

radiation causes the phosphorous coating of the inner of the tube to radiate visible light

- we connect one ballast, one switch and the supply in series then we connect the fluorescent tube and a starter to approach it.

OPERATION

When we switch on the supply full voltage comes across length and across the starter through the ballast.

- But at that instant no discharge happens i.e. no lumen output from lamp.
- At full voltage first glow discharge is established in the starter because the electrode gap in the neon bulb of the starter is ~~the~~ much lesser than the electrode gap of fluorescent lamp.
- The gas inside the starter gets ionized due to full voltage and heats the bimetallic strip so that the bimetallic strip will bend and connect the fixed contact.
- Now current starts flowing through the starter. As soon as the current starts flowing the voltage across the neon bulb that reduced because the current produces the voltage drop across the ballast.
- At reduced voltage across the neon bulb of the starter there will be no more gas discharge taking place hence bimetallic strip that cools and breaks away from fixed contact.
- At the breaking the current gets interrupted and a large voltage surge comes across the ballast i.e. $V = L \frac{di}{dt}$ this high voltage surge comes across the tube light electrodes and strikes the penning gas mixture.

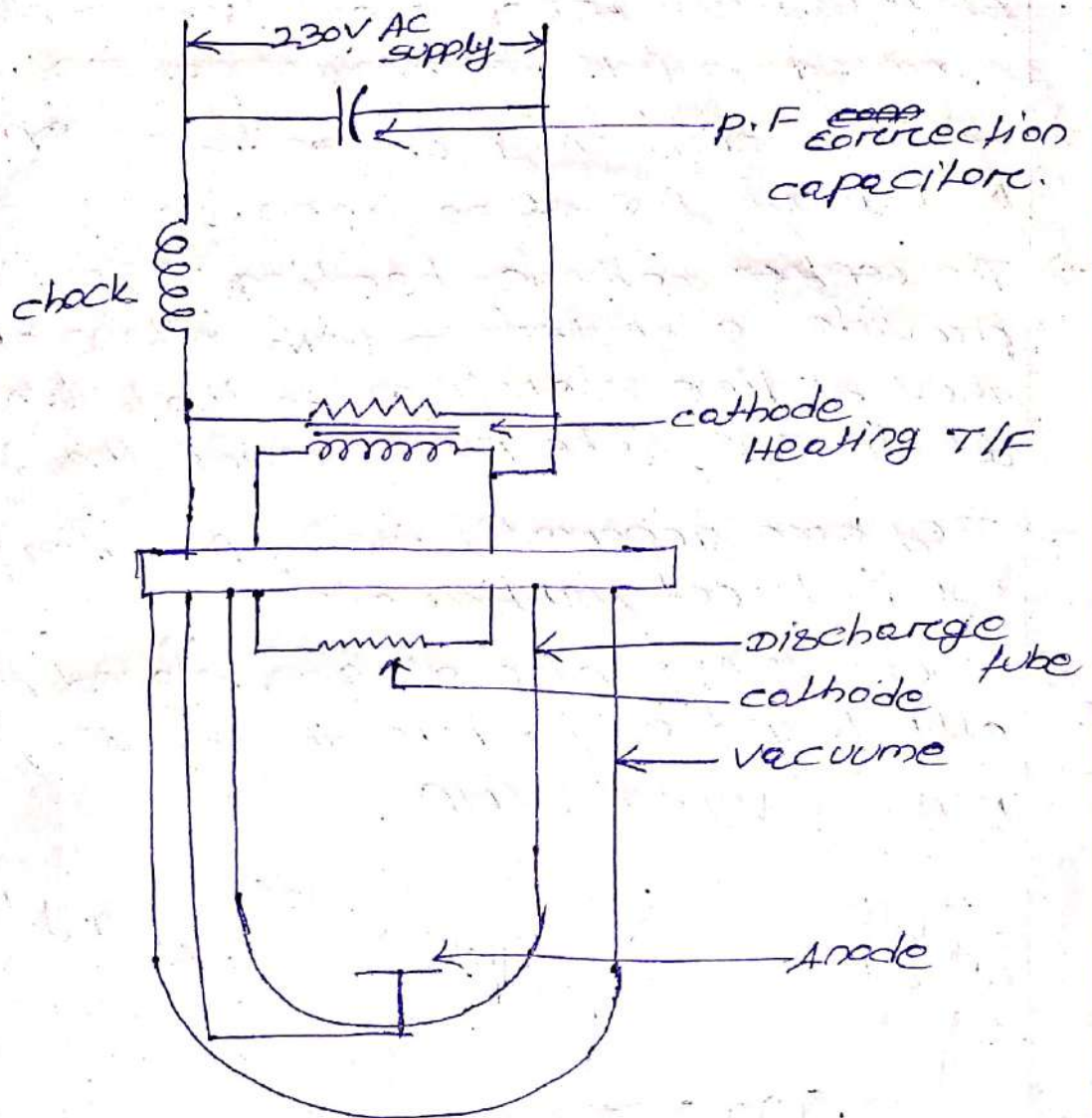
- Gas discharge will get started in the fluorescent lamp and current gets a path to flow through the fluorescent lamp itself.
- During discharging the penning gas offers a low resistance path than the resistance of the starter.
- The discharge of mercury atom produces ultraviolet radiation which in turn excites the phosphor powder coating to produce visible light.
- Starter gets inactive during glowing of the tube because no current flows through the starter in that condition.

NEON LAMP

- It consists of a gas tube filled with neon gas and small % of Helium.
- The two electrodes in the glass bulb are of pure iron spaced few mm apart.
- These lamps are operated on 110V AC or 150V DC supply.
- They are very small as compared to fluorescent lamp.
- They give orange pink coloured light.
- Its luminous efficiency is about 15 lumens/watt and power consumption is about 5 watt.
- They are used in indicator lamp and night lamps.

SODIUM VAPOUR LAMP

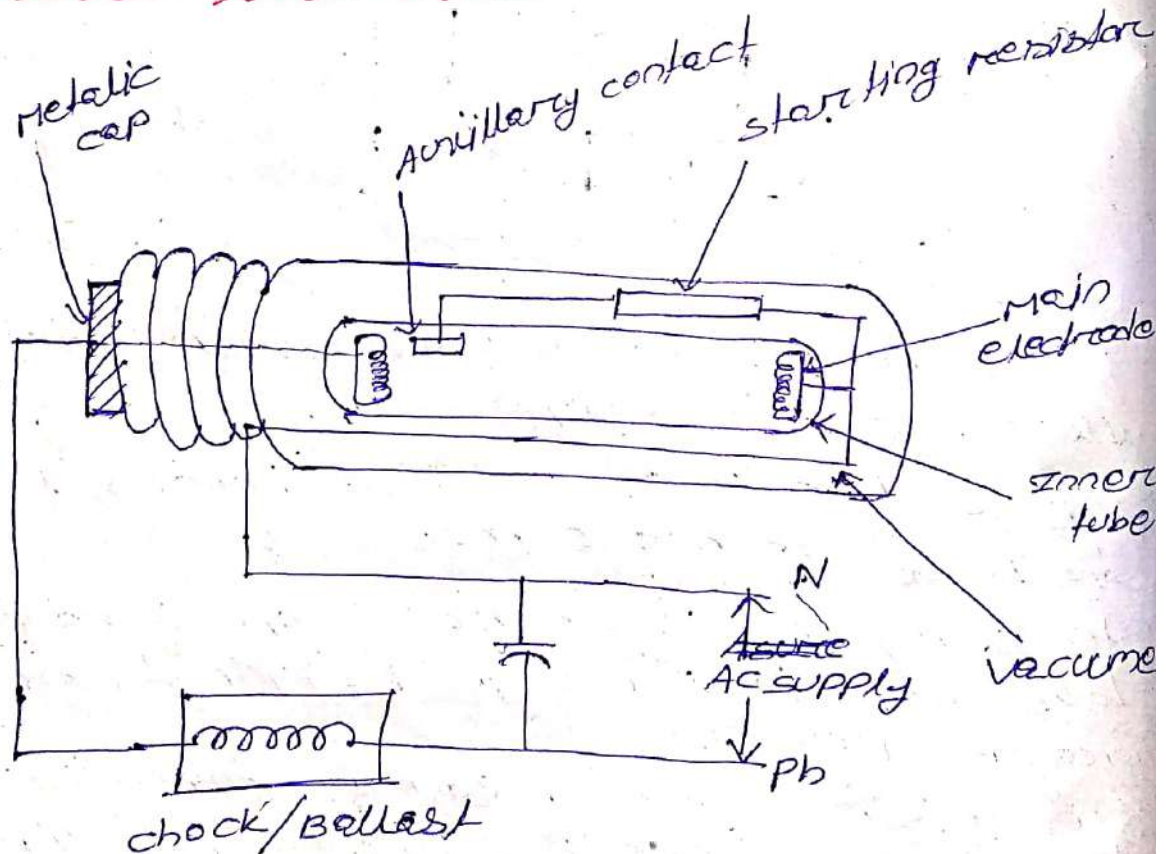
- It consists of an inner 'u' shaped glass tube made of high resistance glass and contains a small amount of metallic sodium, neon gas and two electrodes i.e. anode & cathode.



- The inner tube is enclosed of an outer glass tube of 'U' shape.
- The gas tube is of 'U' shape because long discharge path are necessary.
- When supply give to the lamp discharge take place in the neon gas ~~first~~ First Red-orange glow produces.
- The metallic sodium gradually vaporize and then ionizes there by producing a light of yellow colour.
- The lamp is also called monochromatic lamp because it emits a light of yellow colour of wave length ~~about~~ 5000 Å.

- This lamp takes about 5-6 minutes for starting and takes about 15 minutes for coming in full working condition.
- Luminous efficiency of sodium vapour lamp is highest i.e. ~~50~~ 50 lumen/watt.
- The ~~central~~ cathode heating T/F is used to provide a ~~high~~ high voltage of about 480V at time starting so that luminous discharge take place inside the tube.
- They are generally used of highly lighting, street lighting etc.
- These lamps are always placed horizontally to get a proper discharge path.

MERCURY VAPOUR LAMP

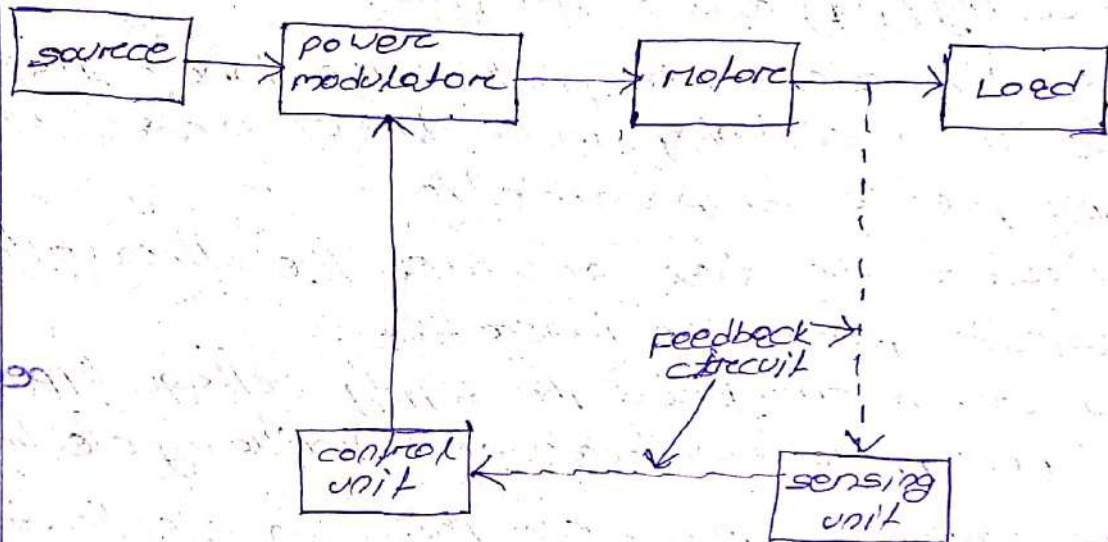


- The tube containing mercury vapour is made of hard glass the inner tube contains two main electrode which is placed close to one of the main made up tungsten wire, starting electrode which is placed close to one of the main electrode and gas mixture mercury (Hg) and argon (Ar)
- The outer glass tube protect the inner glass tube from coming into direct contact with atmospheric temp variation.
- The outer tube also absorbs the ultraviolet radiation from the inner tube.
- When it is energized the supply voltage appears between main electrode and Auxiliary electrode.
- The argon gas in between this two electrode is immediately ~~two electrode~~ ionized and glow appears between these electrode & small current starts flowing and results in building of pressure due to heating of mercury in condensed form.
- Ultimately the medium between the main electrode is ionized and the current start flowing between the two main electrode.
- The time taken during starting of the lamp is about 5-6 minuit.
- This lamp will give a ~~blue~~ bluish-pale colour which gives it an natural appearance to the living objects.

CHAPTER-5 INDUSTRIAL DRIVES

ELECTRIC DRIVE

An electric drive is defined as a form of machine equipment design to convert electrical energy to mechanical energy and provide electrical control of the process.

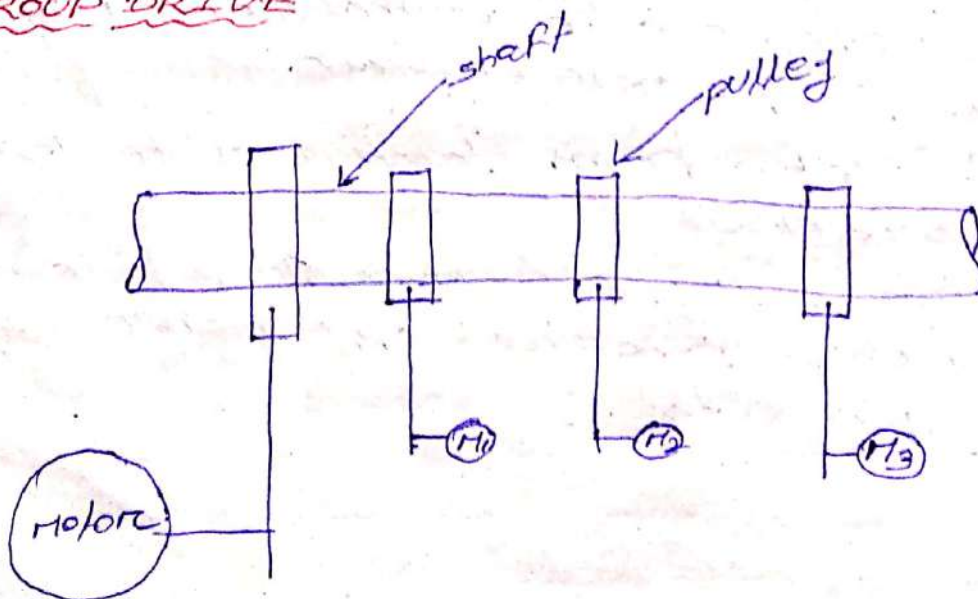


CLASSIFICATION OF ELECTRIC DRIVES

Electric drives used in industry may be divided into three types

- a. Group drive
- b. Individual drive
- c. Multimotor drive

a. GROUP DRIVE



- In this drive one motor is used as a drive for two or more than two machines.
- The motor is of bigger size and is connected to a long shaft on which belts and pulleys are connected to run other machines. It is also called line shaft drive.

ADVANTAGES

- This type of drive is economical because single motor of large capacity cost less than the cost of no. of small motors of the same total capacity.

DISADVANTAGES

- In case of fault in the motor the operation of all the machines will stop.
- If at a certain instant all the machines are not operate then the motor will be operating low capacity, hence by decreasing the efficiency of the system.
- It is not possible to install a new machine.

2. INDUSTRIAL DRIVES

- In this type of drive a single ^{electric} motor is used to drive one individual machine.
- The cost will be more than the group drive because of no. of motors but each operator has complete control of its machine.
- If there is a fault in one motor this will not effect the production of industry.

3. MULTI MOTOR DRIVE

- It consist of several individual each performs different function and are a part of big, complicated system.
- EX → cable manufacturing unit, metal cutting machine, paper making m/c etc.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRIC DRIVE

- cost is low as compare to other system of drive.
- The system is more simple and clean
- The control is very easy and smooth
- maintenance cost is quite low
- Transmission of power from one place to another can be done with the help of cables instead of long shafts etc.
- It can be started at any time without delay in time.
- Facility for remote control.

DISADVANTAGES

- This drive system is ~~restricted~~ tied only up to the electrified area.
- Failure in supply for a few minutes may paralyse the whole system.
- condition arising under short cut, leakage from conductors and breakdown over head conductor may lead to certain accidents.

GROUP DRIVE VS INDIVIDUAL DRIVE

during selecting a drive first it should be determined whether the drive should be individual or group drive.

ADVANTAGES OF INDIVIDUAL DRIVE

- Failure of individual drive will not effect the smooth working of different m/c.
- There is no necessity to shaft
- work at good power factor
- Efficiency is high
- Machine can be fitted wherever convenient.
- useful when constant space is required.
- most suitable for driving heavy m/c such as crane, lift, hoist, etc.

DISADVANTAGES OF INDIVIDUAL DRIVE

- cost is higher than group drive
- operators have to control the speed of every motor.
- Requirement of space will be higher.

ADVANTAGES OF GROUP DRIVE

- Initial cost of group drive is less as compare to individual drive.
- Group drive system is useful because all the operation can be started or stop simultaneously.
- Less space is required in group drive as compare to individual drive.
- Required less maintenance as compare to individual drive.

DISADVANTAGES OF GROUP DRIVE

- It has low power factor. If
- If all the machines are not working simultaneously the main motor will work at reduced capacity and thus efficiency decreases.
- The main motor will fail the whole system will come to standstill.
- It does not provide constant speed.
- The group drive is not suitable for driving heavy M/C such as crane, lift, hoist etc.

CHOICE OF ELECTRIC DRIVE

1. Requirement Related To source

- Type of source and its capacity.
- Magnitude of ~~power factor~~ voltage, power factor, voltage ~~fluctuation~~ fluctuation, harmonics etc.

2. Steady state char. Requirement

- speed torque char.
- speed regulation
- Efficiency
- speed range
- duty cycle.

3. Transient Requirement

→ starting, breaking, values of oscillation and deoscillation, reversing performance etc.

4. Capital & Running cost

5. Environment and location

6. Reliability

7. Space & weight restriction

STARTING & RUNNING CHAR. OF DC & AC MOTORS

→ starting char. is related to torque and running char. is related to speed.

STARTING CHAR. OF DC MOTOR

1. DC SHUNT MOTOR

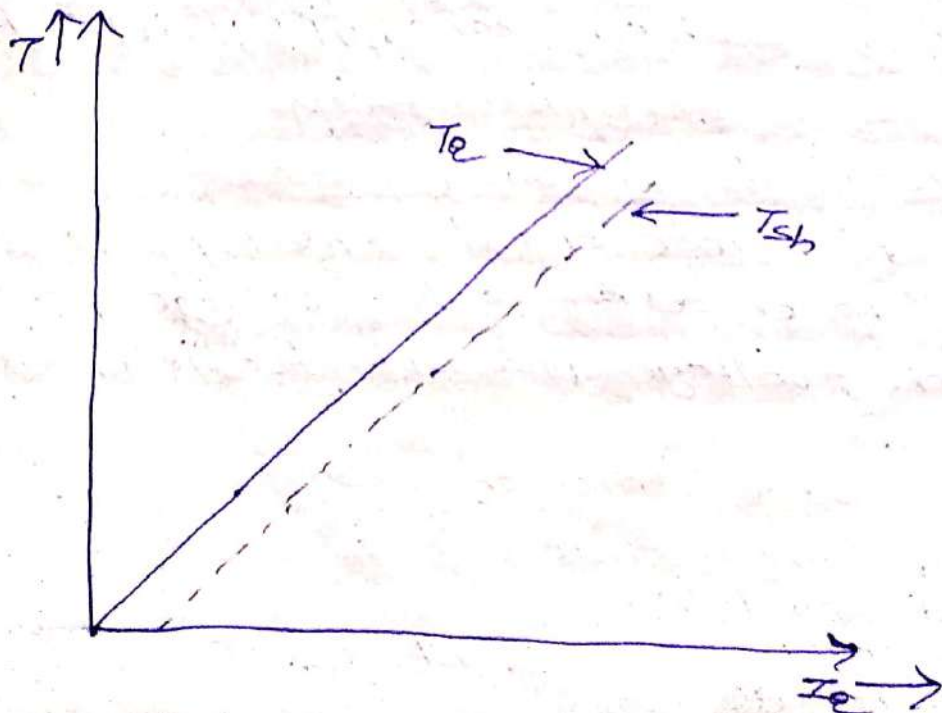
→ We know that $T \propto I_a \phi$

→ In case of shunt motor the field winding is supplied from constant voltage so ϕ is constant ~~same~~

since $\phi = \text{constant}$

$$T \propto I_a$$

→ so the curve is straight line starting from origin



→ From this curve it is clear that a very large current is required to start a heavy load so a shunt motor should not be started on heavy load.

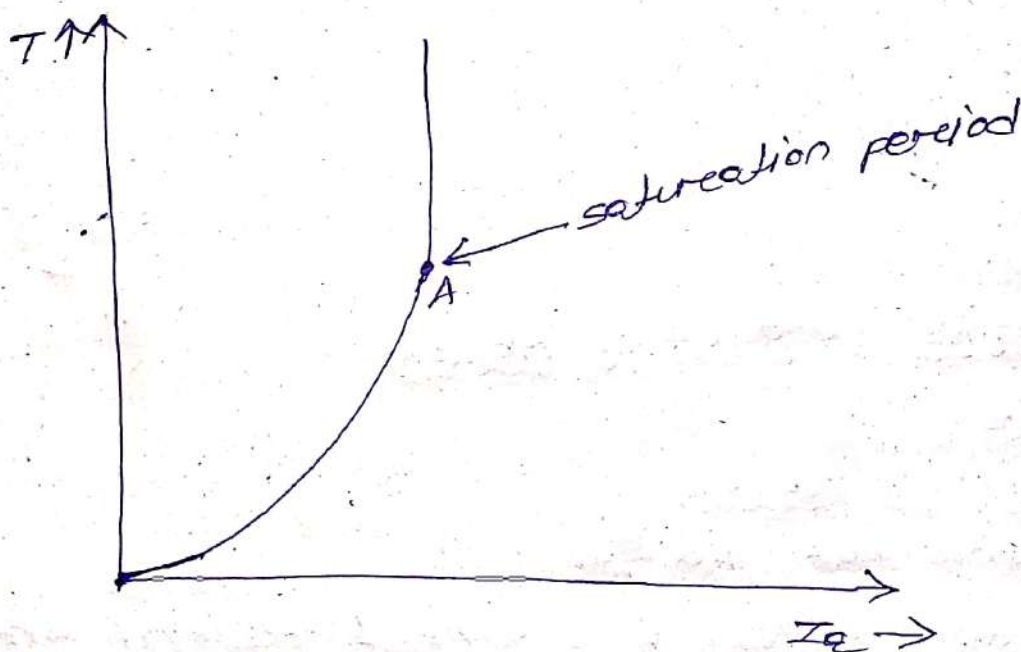
2. DC SERIES MOTOR

Here current passing through the field winding is same as that of armature current. Hence ϕ increases with I_a upto magnetic saturation

$$T \propto I_a^2$$

After magnetic saturation ϕ is constant

$$\text{So } T \propto I_a$$

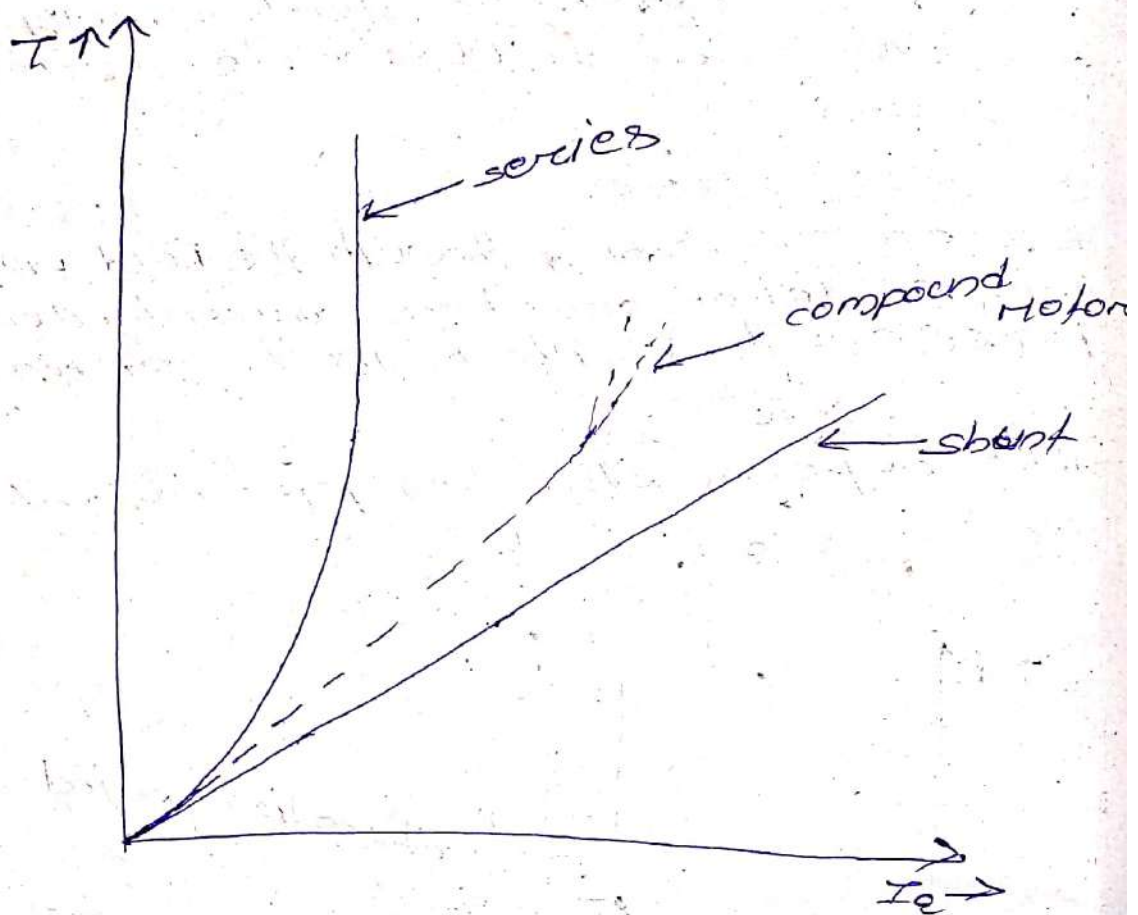


→ starting torque of DC series motor will be very high as compared to shunt motor.

3. CUMULATIVE COMPOUND MOTOR

→ As load increases series field strength increases but shunt field strength remains constant. So the total flux is increased and hence torque is increased.

→ Torque produced by compound motor is greater than that of shunt motor and less than that of series motor for a given armature current.



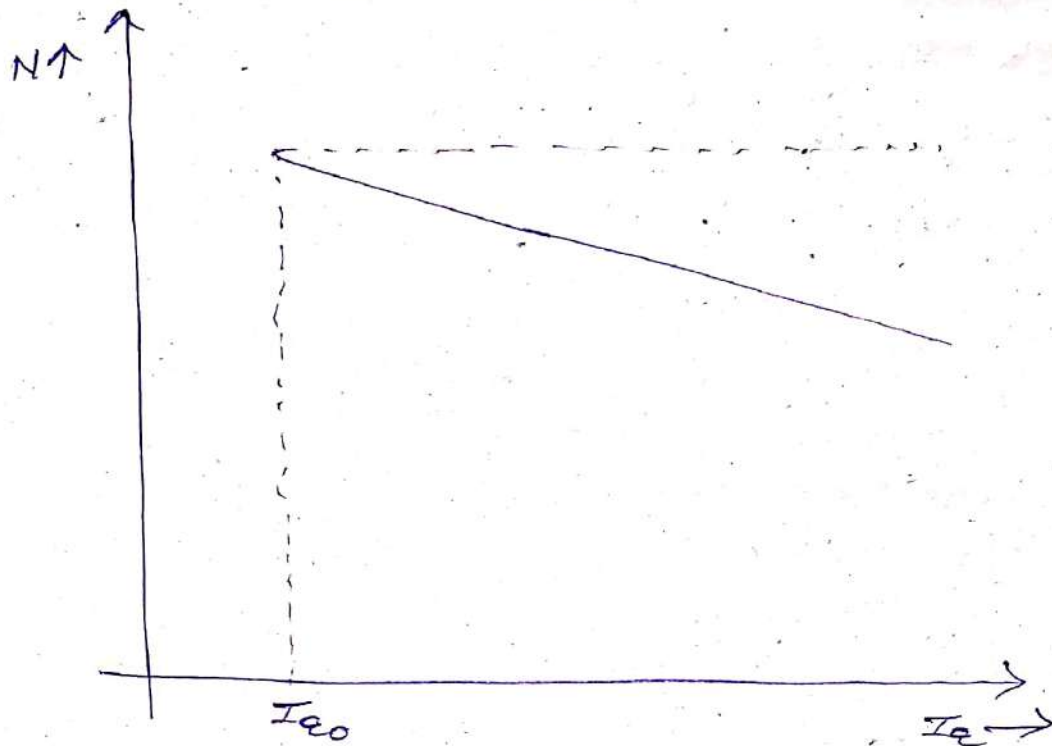
RUNNING CHAR. OF DC MOTOR

1. $N \propto I_a$

2. DC SHUNT MOTOR

We know that $N \propto \frac{E_b}{\phi}$

- For shunt motor ϕ is almost constant and also E_b constant under normal condition. so speed is ~~almost~~ also constant. But practically when load is connected E_b and ϕ decreases due to armature resistance drop and armature reaction drop respectively.
- However E_b decreases more than ϕ so speed of the motor decreases slightly with load.



b DC SERIES MOTOR

→ we know $N \propto \frac{E_b}{\phi}$

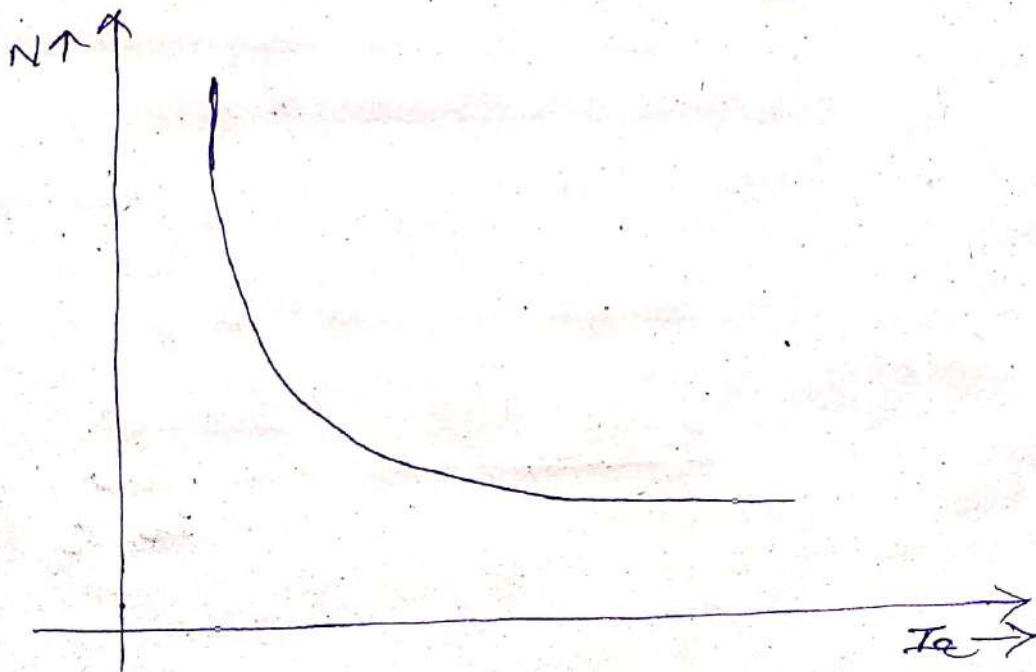
$$N \propto \frac{V - I_a(R_a + R_{se})}{\phi}$$

→ when armature current (I_a) ~~de~~ increases E_b decreases due to drop $I_a(R_a + R_{se})$

→ But we ~~increasing~~ ~~increasing~~ I_a field current increases and hence flux increases.

→ However $I_a(R_a + R_{se})$ drop is very small and may be neglected so

$$N \propto \frac{1}{\phi} \Rightarrow N \propto \frac{1}{I_a}$$

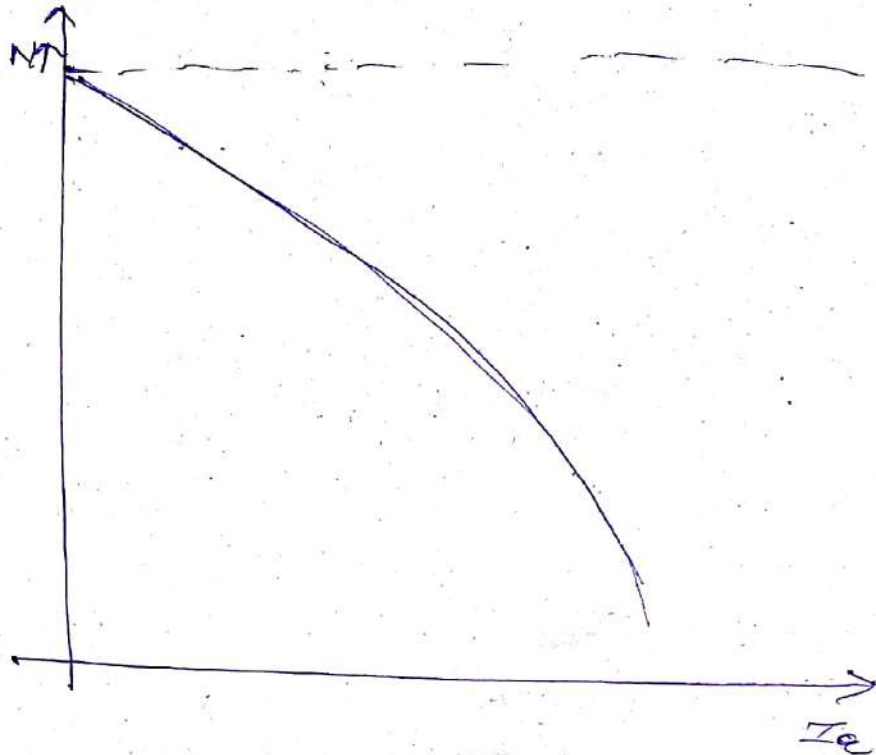


C. CUMULATIVE COMPOUND MOTOR

$$N \propto \frac{E_b}{\phi}$$

$$N \propto \frac{1}{\phi}$$

$$N \propto E_b$$

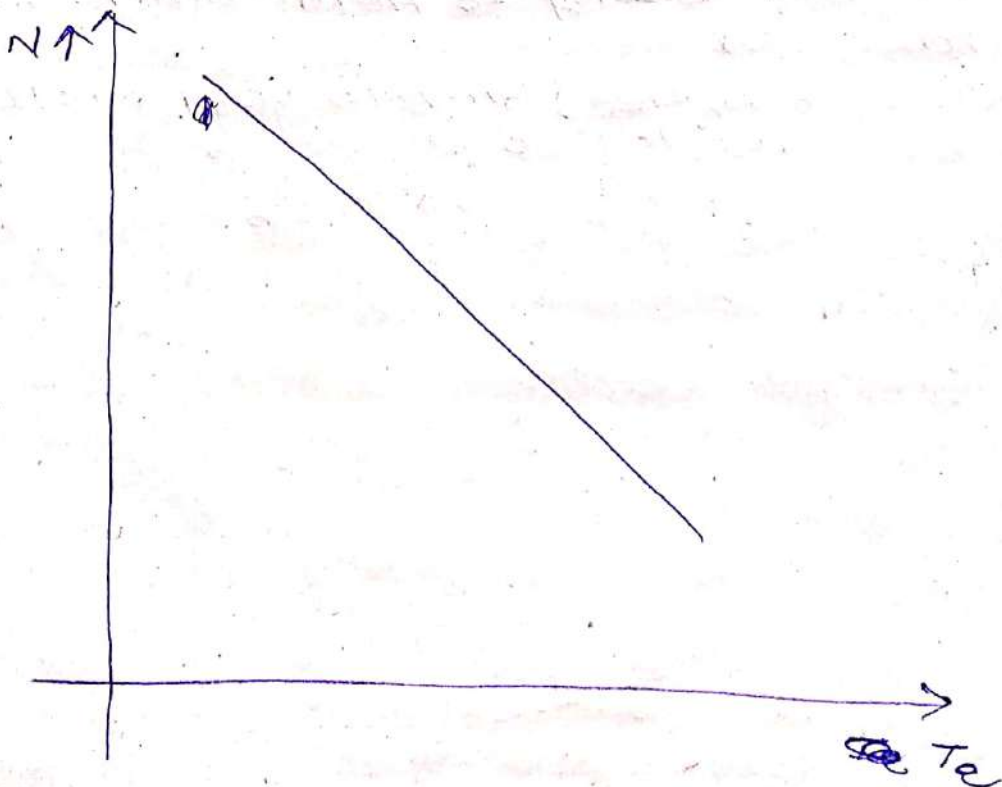


2. ~~N ~ I_a~~

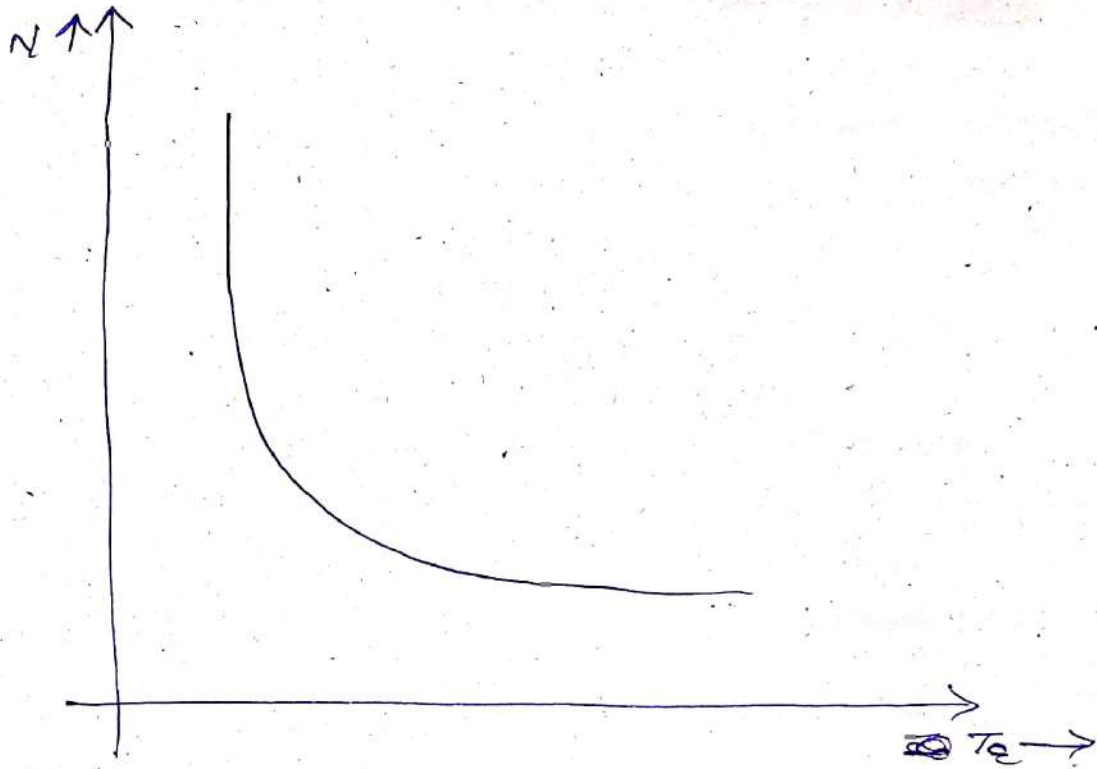
N ~ T_e

Q. DC SHUNT MOTOR

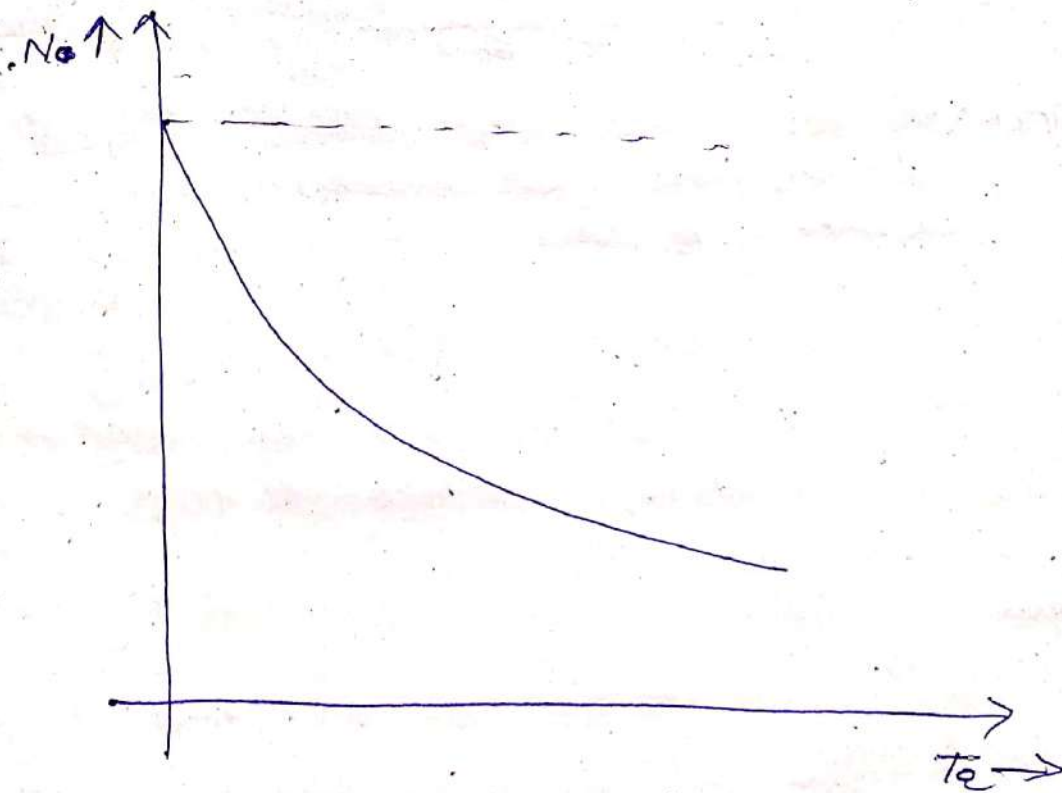
→ With increase torque speed decreases and vice versa



DC SERIES MOTOR

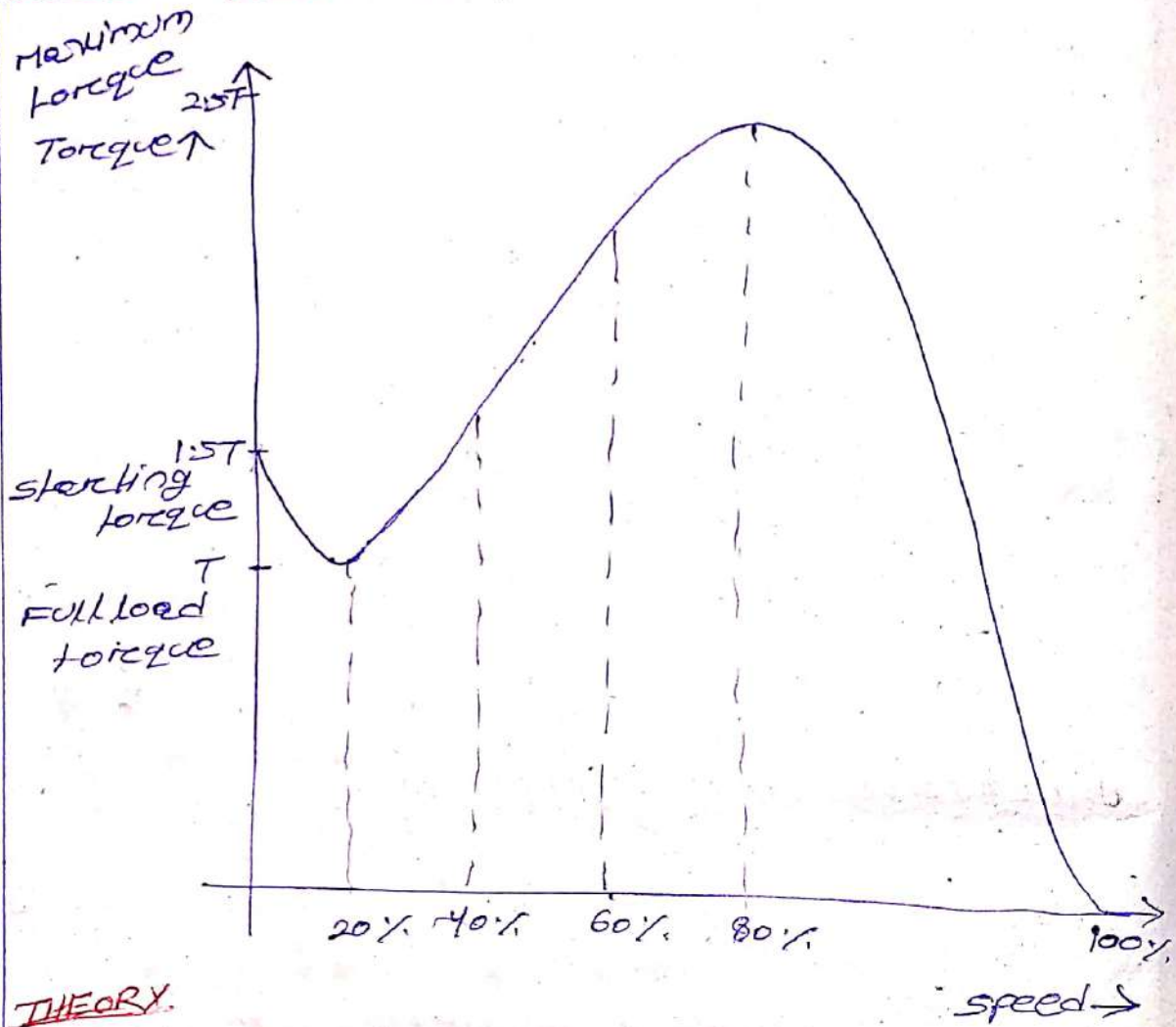


CUMULATIVE COMPOUND MOTOR



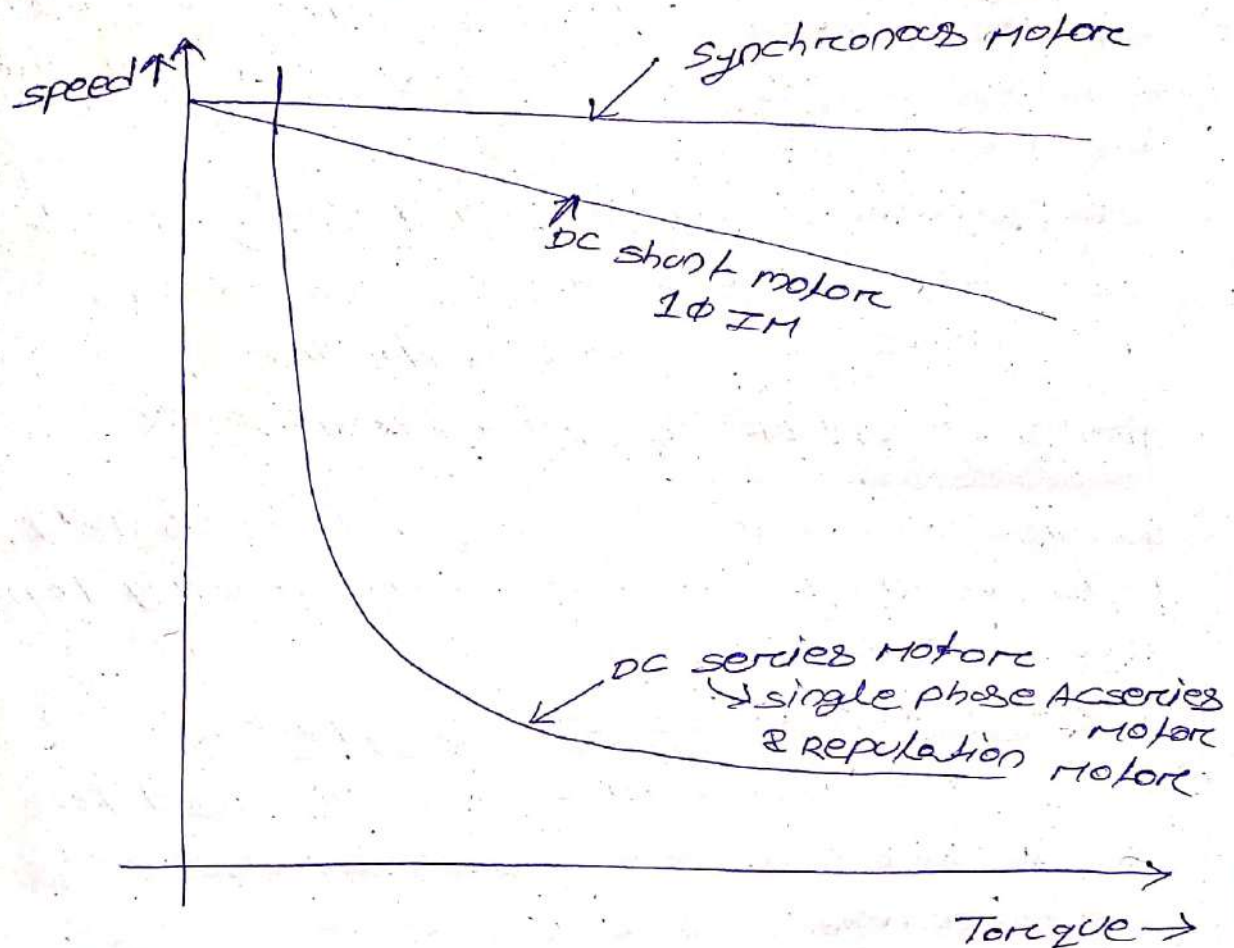
STARTING CHAR. OF 3 ϕ I.M

Torque ~ speed char



THEORY.

RUNNING CHAR. OF AC MOTORS



APPLICATION OF DC MOTOR

SHUNT MOTOR

- It is approximately a constant speed motor.
- uses: Lathes, drills, shapers, fans, lifts, centrifugal pumps, wipers, spinning & weaving m/c's.

SERIES MOTOR

- variable speed motor i.e. speed is low at high torque and vice versa.
- It is used when large starting torque is required.
- use: Electric traction, cranes, vacuum cleaners, hair driers, Air compressors, sewing machines.

COMPOUND MOTOR

- cumulative compound motors are used where a fairly constant speed is required with large loads.
- uses: presses, reciprocating m/c, Elevators, Hoist, Rolling mills, compressors, conveyors, stamping machine.

APPLICATION OF 3 ϕ INDUCTION MOTOR

- Electric train engine, printing machines, Rolling mills, chimneys at power plant, cooling fans used to cool large machines.

APPLICATION OF SYNCHRONOUS MOTOR

synchronous motors are basically used for

- i. power factor correction
- ii. voltage regulation
- iii. constant torque & constant speed

- uses \Rightarrow Reciprocating pumps, compressor, Rolling mills, centrifugal pumps, rubber & paper mills.

APPLICATION OF 1 ϕ INDUCTION MOTOR

uses: fans, washing machines, ~~etc~~ small machine tool, compressor, vacuum cleaners.

APPLICATION OF AC SERIES MOTOR/UNIVERSAL MOTOR

- uses: high speed vacuum cleaner, sewing m/c, electric shavers, drills, machine tools.

APPLICATION OF REPULSION MOTOR

- Textile industry, air compressor, printing press, pumps & fans, High speed lifts, Hoists, petrol pumps, mining tools, Air pumps, m/c tool etc.

ELECTRIC TRACTION

- Electric traction means a locomotion in which the driving force is obtained from electric motors.
- EX:- Electric trains, electric vehicles, trolley buses, tram cars, diesel electric vehicles, gas turbine electric vehicles.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRIC TRACTION

- i. cheapness:- It is the cheapest method of all other method of traction.
- ii. Acceleration & Braking:- These are smooth and rapid.
- iii. Cleanliness:- It is free from smoke and fuel gases and hence clean method.
- iv. Maintenance cost:-
Maintenance and repairing cost of electric traction is about 50% than that of steam traction system.
- v. STARTING TIME
It can be started without any loss of time whereas steam traction requires minimum hours before putting into operation.
- vi. HIGH STARTING TORQUE
Electric traction system uses DC or AC series motor which has a high starting torque which makes acceleration rate very high.
- vii. BRAKING
In electric traction regenerative braking is used which feeds back 40% of the energy.
- viii. SAVING OF HIGH GRADE COAL
Saving of high grade coal will happen because electrical energy required for running electric locomotive is taken either from hydro power station or thermal power station, which is run from low grade coals.

- IX. It has good passenger carrying capacity at higher speed as compare to steam locomotive.
- X. Fan's and light's in electric train can be connected directly to the supply lines ~~connected~~ and there is no need for providing extra generators and batteries.

DISADVANTAGES

- Higher initial expenditure is involved in electric traction.
- Failure of supply is a problem
- Electrically operated vehicles have to move only on electrified network.
- For electrical braking and controlling equipment is required.

DIFFERENT SYSTEM OF TRACTION

- The various systems of traction for rail road operation commonly used are:-
 1. Direct steam Engine
 2. Direct Internal combustion (IC) engine.
 3. IC engine electric drive
 4. Battery electric drive
 5. Electric drive.

1. DIRECT STEAM ENGINE

In this type of drive the reciprocating steam engine is used for getting the necessary power because of its inherent simplicity and easy speed control.

- The locomotive or train unit itself contains therefore it is not fixed to any route.

ADVANTAGES

- Initial cost is low as compare to electric drives
- It has simple controlled.

DISADVANTAGES

- very low efficiency i.e 6-8%
- Maintenance cost is high
- Limited overload capacity.

2. DIRECT IC ENGINE TRACTION

- The char. of IC engine that it produces almost constant torque at all speed.
- To increase the starting torque and also for speed control a gear box has to be provided.
- such arrangement is only applied to small trolleys where petrol engine is used.
- Efficiency is about 25%.

ADVANTAGES

- Initial cost is very low
- speed control and braking system is very simple.

DISADVANTAGES

- speed control is only possible through a gear box.
- Running and maintenance cost is high.
- overload capacity is limited.

3. IC ENGINE ELECTRIC DRIVE

- In this system the gear box is eliminated. Here a diesel engine drives a DC generator coupled to it at a constant speed.
- The DC generator supplies power to ~~drive~~ ~~are becoming widely used~~ electric motors fitted with the wheels.

ADVANTAGES

- No modification of existing track is required.
- Low capital cost
- Greater rate of acceleration at starting.
- overall efficiency is about 25%.

DISADVANTAGES

- Maintenance and operating cost is high.
- overload capacity is limited.
- Life of diesel engine is comparatively short etc.

4. BATTERY ELECTRIC DRIVES

- Here the locomotive carries the secondary batteries which supplied power to DC motor used for driving the vehicles.
- capacity of battery being small is used for local delivery of goods.

ADVANTAGES

- Low maintenance cost and absence of fumes

DISADVANTAGES

- storage capacity of battery is limited that's why these used in local purpose.

5. ELECTRIC DRIVE TRACTION

It is most widely used system of traction, Here the vehicles draw the electrical energy from distribution system fed is suitable point from substation.

ADVANTAGES

- clean method
- maintenance and repairing cost is less
- can be put in to service immediately.
- can withstand high overload for short time.

DISADVANTAGES

- High initial cost
- only applicable in electrified area.
- In case of power failure system will become stand still.

SYSTEMS OF TRACK ELECTRIFICATION

Two types of vehicles are used for electric traction. The first type of vehicle receives power from a distribution network while the second type of vehicle generate their own power.

→ The first type of vehicle are used on AC or DC power from overheadlines.

1. DC SYSTEM

→ In this system electric motor used are DC series motors. For main line railways the operating voltage is 1500V to 3000V and for suburban railways and tram cars the operating voltage 600V.

→ The motor receives power from overhead lines with the help of pantograph and the railway steel track in the return conductor.

→ The overheadlines is fed from various substations. The AC power is converted to DC power by the help of mercury arc rectifiers or rotary converters.

2. AC SYSTEM

a. 3 ϕ AC SYSTEM

This system employs 3 ϕ slip ring I.M. speed control of this system is obtained by combination of pole changing and rotor resistance method.

→ Regenerative braking is obtained immediately as the speed exceeds N_s without any changing condition.

→ The voltage and frequency at which motor is to operate are 3600V and $16\frac{2}{3}$ Hz.

b. 1 ϕ STANDARD FREQUENCY SYSTEM

- This system as a single overhead wires supply at 25kV, 50Hz. It T/F is mounted on locomotive
- which stepdown the voltage which is further rectified and supplied to the traction motor.
- The driving force is obtained from DC series motor.
- All modern day traction work is done by this system.

c. 1 ϕ LOW FREQUENCY SYSTEM

- single phase, 15kV, $16\frac{2}{3}$ Hz, system is used in countries like Germany, Sweden and Australia.
- A stepdown T/F is carried in the traction unit which step down the voltage to about 400V for the use of traction motor.
- Each substation is supplied at a high voltage at standard frequency. the voltage is step down and frequency is converted by motor generator set.
- AC series motor employed for traction
- Due to commutative difficulties at normal frequency on such motor a low frequency supply is essential.

d. 1 ϕ TO 3 ϕ SYSTEM (KONDO SYSTEM)

- In this system 1 ϕ high voltage AC system is employed for distribution network.
- The locomotive carry a phase converter which converts 1 ϕ to 3 ϕ .
- The 3 ϕ supply is connected to 3 ϕ IM for getting the necessary driving force.
- voltage for distribution network is 16kV and 50Hz.

CONTROL OF MOTORS

- The starting current taken by a DC motor during starting period is limited to safe value equal to normal rated current by the resistance of the starter.
- There is a considerable loss of energy at the starting resistance
- The back emf of the motor starts to build up from zero magnitude at instant of switching $E_b = 0$
so

$$\text{supply voltage} = \text{IR drop in armature} + \text{voltage drop in starting resistance}$$

- At any other point during starting
$$\text{supply voltage} = \text{back emf} + \text{IR drop in armature} + \text{voltage drop in starting resistance}$$
- At full running condition the starting resistance are cut out so

$$\text{supply voltage} = \text{back emf} + \text{IR drop in armature}$$

1. TAPPED FIELD CONTROL

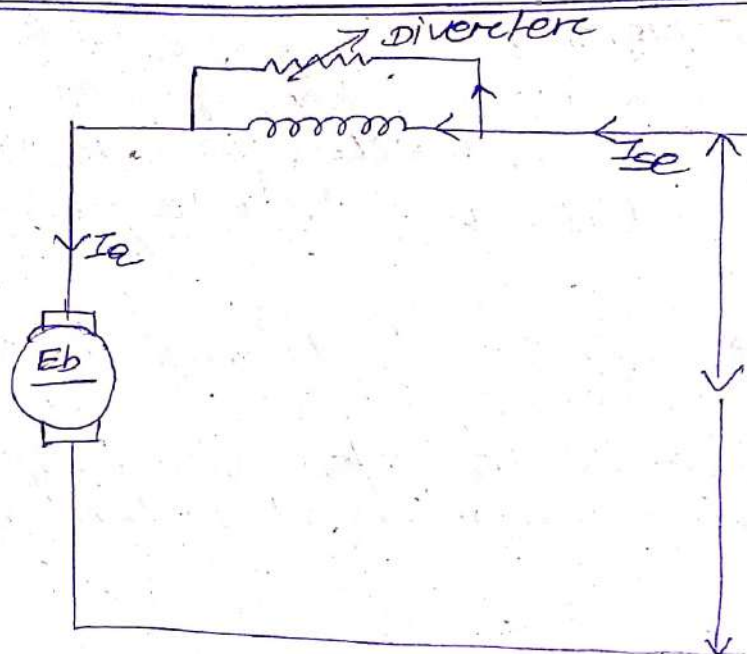
In case of DC series motor

$$N \propto \frac{1}{\phi} \quad \text{assuming } E_b = \text{constant}$$

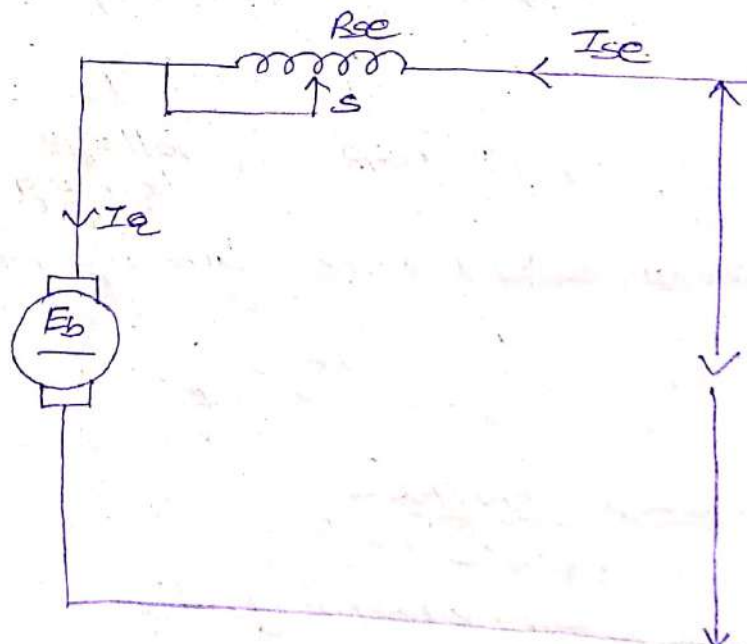
- The flux can be varied either by connecting a variable resistance known as diverter in parallel with series field winding or by cutting some of the series field turns.

i. Field diverter method

- The diverter will shunt some % of the current and the value of I_{se} decreases so flux (ϕ) decreases as flux is decreased so motor speed increases, by using this method motor speed above normal speed can be obtained.



ii) Field tapped Method

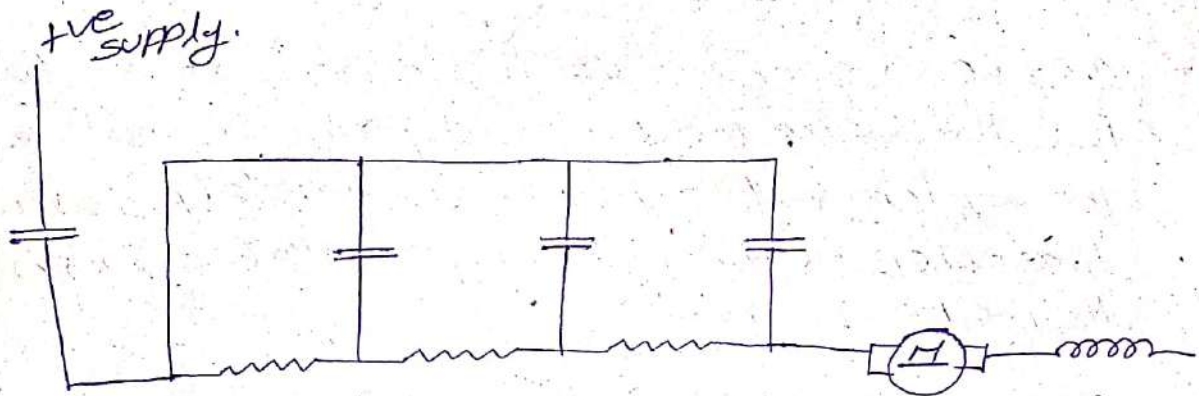


- By doing the tapping no. of turns in the series field winding decreases so flux is reduced & flux is reduced speed is increased.
- This method is used for increasing the speed of traction motor up to 10 to 15% when they have attained maximum possible speed by a series parallel controlled method.

2) RHEOSTARTING CONTROL METHOD

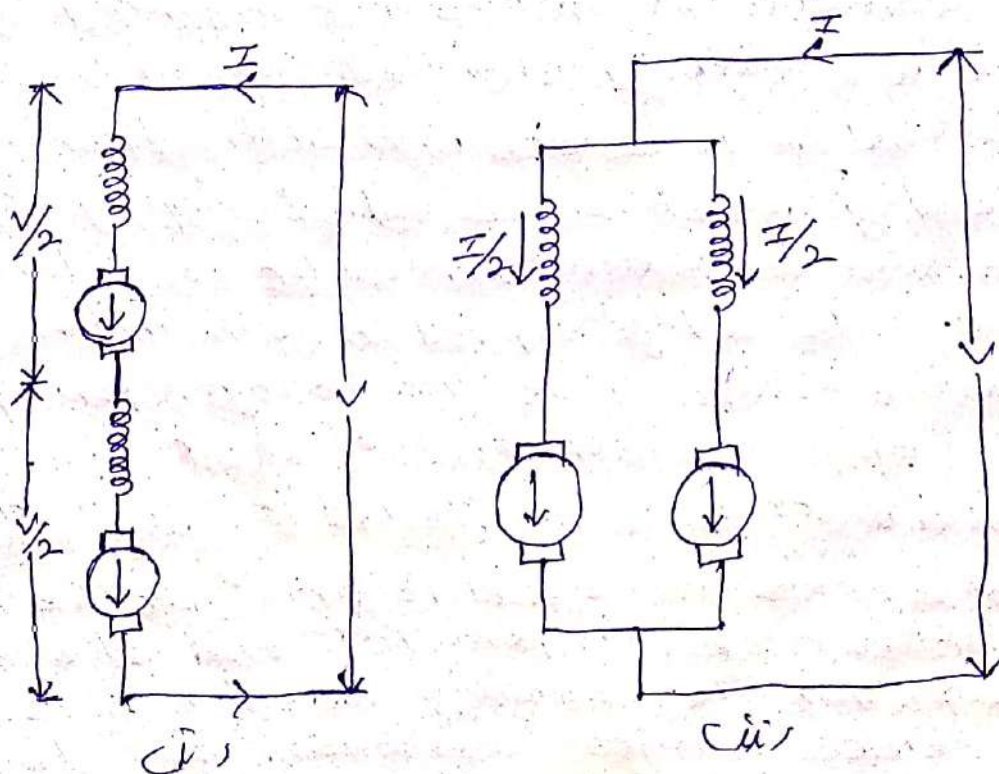
- A series motor can be started by connecting an external resistance in series with the main ckt of the motor.

- At starting $E_b = 0$, so full resistance connected in series with the motor.
- As the motor speed increased and E_b increases so resistances are gradually in steps in order to maintain the current constant throughout starting and settling oscillating period.



(3) SERIES - PARALLEL CONTROL

- Another method is used for the speed control of DC series motor is the series-parallel method. In this system which is widely used in traction system.
- Two or more similar d.c. series motor are mechanically coupled to the same load.



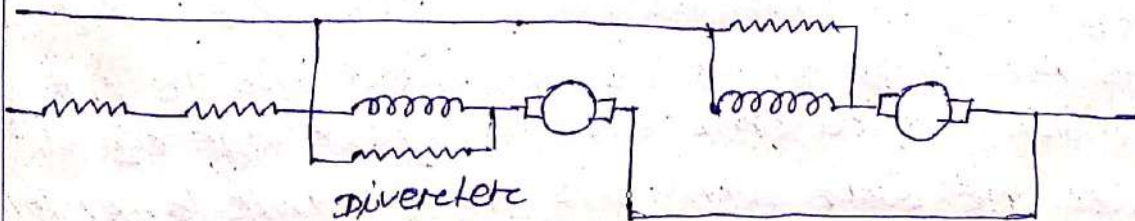
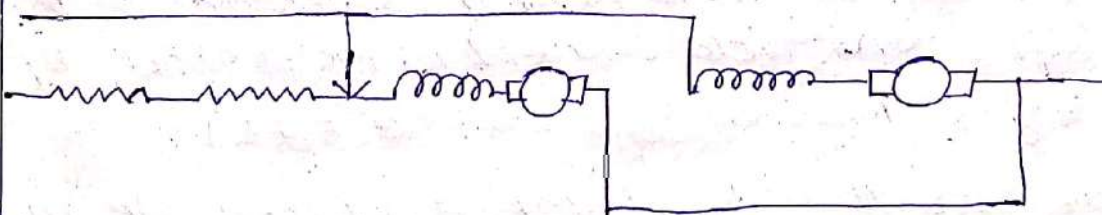
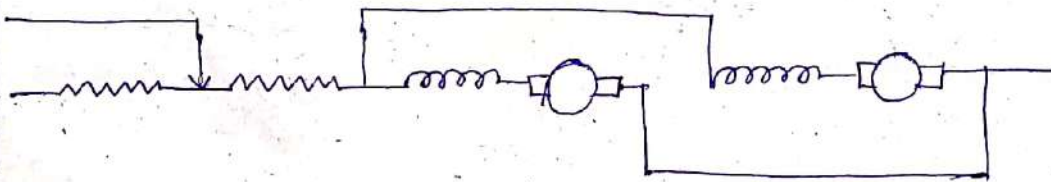
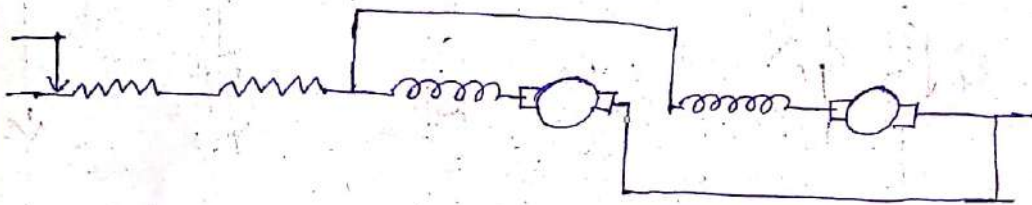
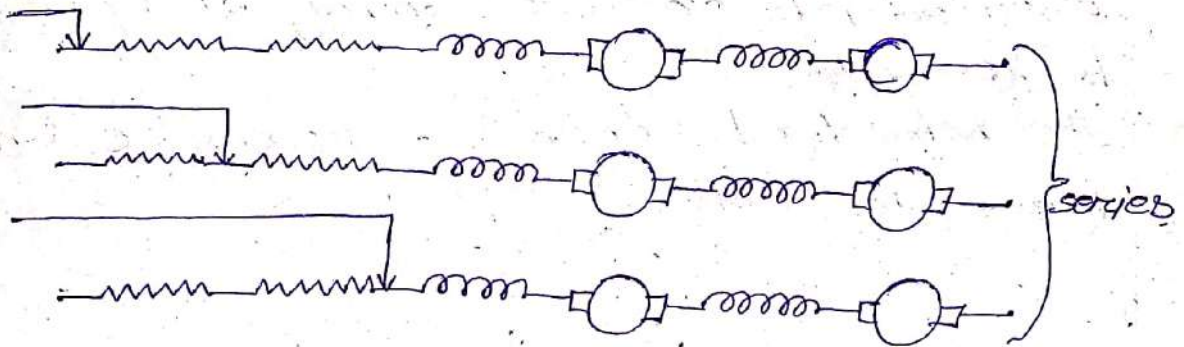
- When the motor are connected in series (fig (i)), each motor armature will receive one-half the normal voltage, therefore the speed will be low.
- When the motor are connected in parallel (fig (ii)), each motor armature receives the normal voltage and the speed is high.
- Thus we can obtain ~~the~~ two speed. Note that for the same load on the pair of motor, the system will be run approximately four time when reaching are in parallel as when they are in series.

series-parallel and Resistance control

In electric traction series-parallel method is usually combined with resistance method of control.

- In simplest case two DC series motor are coupled mechanically and drive the same vehicle.
- i. At standstill, the motors are connected in series via a starting rheostat. The motor are started up in series with each other and starting resistance is cutout step by step to increase the speed. When all the resistance is cutout, the voltage applied to each motor is about one-half of the line voltage. The speed is then about one-half of what it would be if the full line voltage were applied to each motor.
- ii. To increase the speed further, the two motor are connected in parallel and at ~~the~~ the same time the starting resistance is connected in series with the combination. The starting

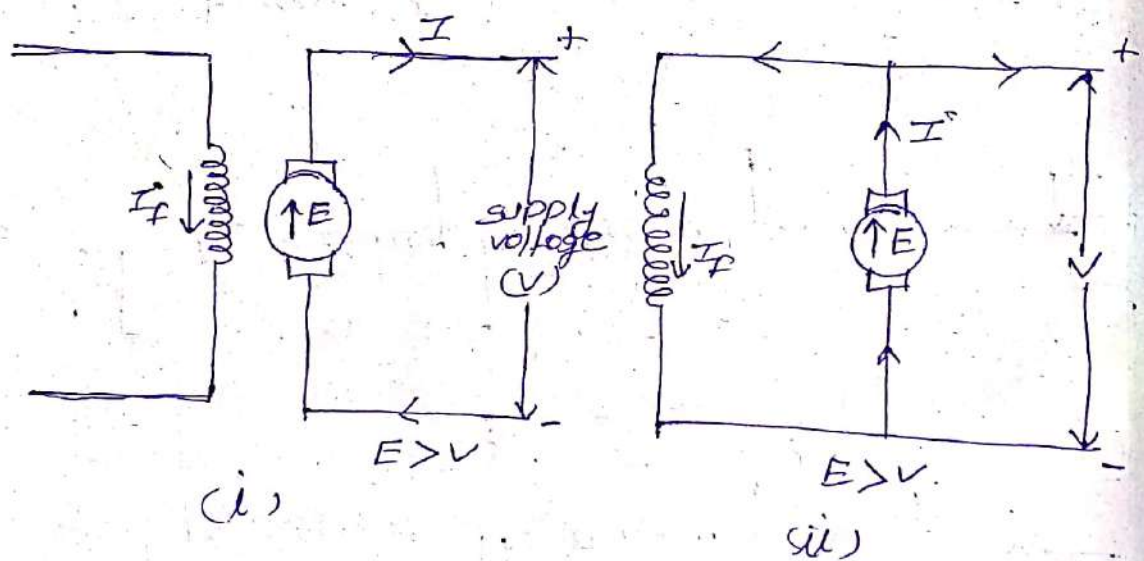
resistance again but out step by step until full speed is attained. The field control is introduced.



REGENERATIVE ~~CONTROL~~ BREAKING

In the regenerative braking, the motor is run as a generator.

- As a result, the kinetic energy of the motor is converted into electrical energy and returned to the supply.
- The below fig shows two methods of regenerative braking for a shunt motor.



- (a) In one method, field winding is disconnected from the supply and field current is increased by exciting it from another source (Fig i).
- As the result, induced emf E exceeds the supply voltage V and the machine feeds energy into the supply.
 - Thus braking torque is provided into the speed at which induced emf and supply voltage equal.
 - As the M/C slows down, it is not possible to maintain induced emf at a higher value than the supply voltage. Therefore this method is possible only for limited range of speed.

- (b) In a second method, the field excitation does not change but the load causes the motor to run above the normal speed.
- As a result, the induced emf E becomes greater than the supply voltage V (see figure).
 - The direction of armature current I , therefore reverse but the direction of shunt field current I_f remains unaltered.
 - Hence the torque is reverse and the speed falls until E becomes less than V .

BREAKING WITH SINGLE PHASE MOTORS

In this case both ~~reverse~~ rheostatic and regenerative braking are possible.

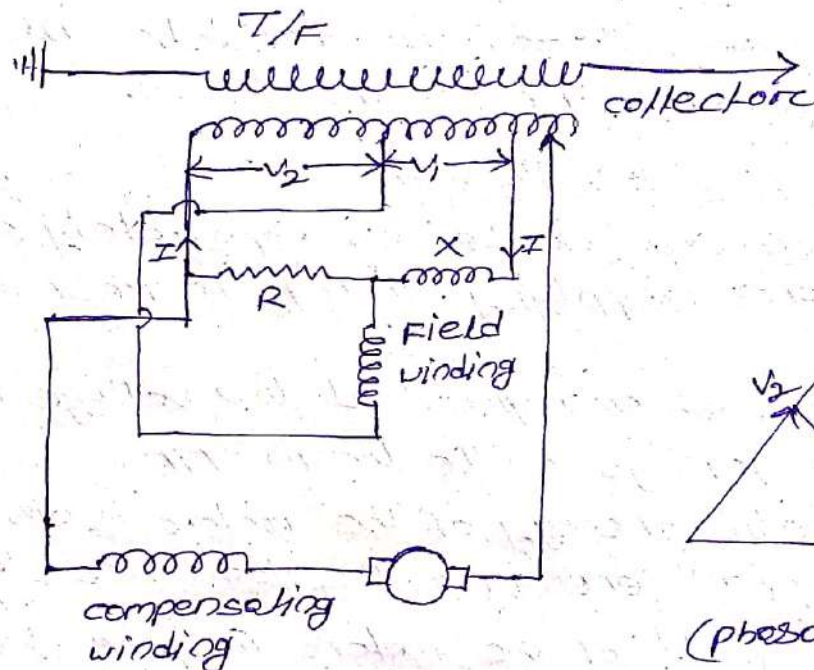
RHEOSTATIC BREAKING

- The motor are worked as separately excited generators supplying energy to resistance load.
- The field is energized at low voltage from suitable tapings on the train T/E.
- The kinetic energy of the rotor is dissipated as electrical energy in the load resistance.
- Also the field of the motor may be excited from one of the motor acting as a series generators.
- In this case DC will be generated in the rotor of the motor and the kinetic energy of rotors will be dissipated as D.C power in the loading resistors.

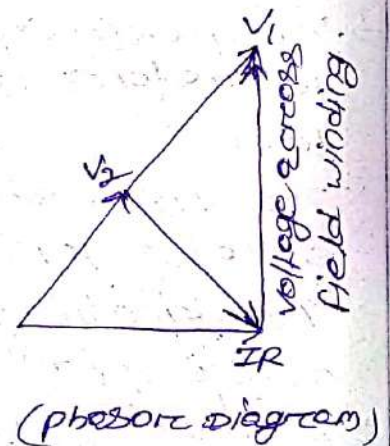
REGENERATIVE BREAKING

- The regenerated power should be at frequency of the main supply.
- This necessitates the energizing of the field winding from the main supply.

- secondly, the regenerated current must be in phase opposition to the applied voltage and also the flux Φ so that the power may be fed back into the supply system
- The voltage applied to the field winding must be 90° out of phase with respect to the supply voltage.
- An arrangement to obtain these conditions is shown below.



(connection diagram)



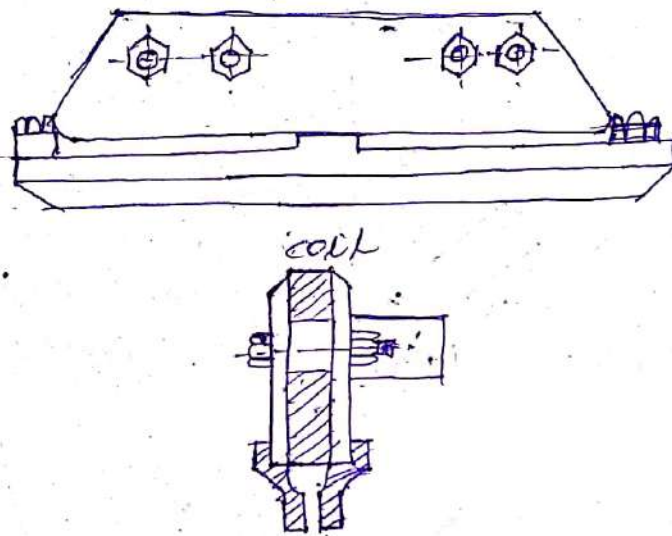
MAGNETIC TRACK BREAK

- It is used in trams cars. The electromagnet is bipolar.
- The body is made of cast steel and the pole faces are made of soft steel and can be renewed.
- The exciting coil is enclosed in a water-tight case.
- The magnetic flux is perpendicular to the pole faces and track. The force of attraction

between the magnet and the track given by

→ $F = \frac{B^2 a}{2 \times \pi \times 10^{-7}} \text{ N}$, where B is flux density in weber/m² and ' a ' is the area in the pole face in sq.m.

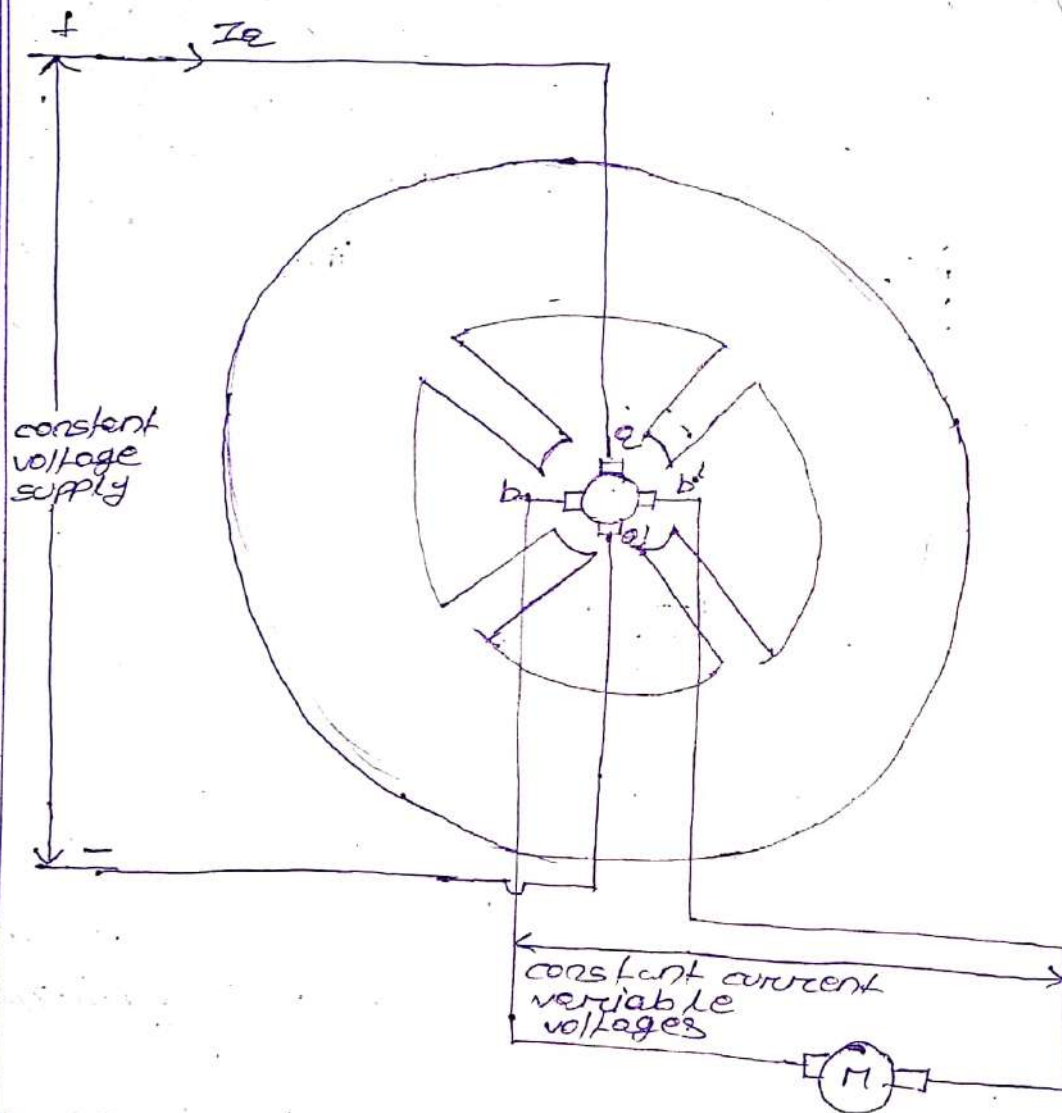
→ The drag that it can produce on the car is given by μr , where μ is the coefficient of friction.



METADYNE SPEED CONTROL

- This speed control system is based on constant current system.
- In this system metadyne converter is used which takes power at constant voltage and variable voltage.
- In series parallel control or resistance control systems there is waste of electrical energy in the starting resistance and the jerks are also experienced when the controller of the starter moves on notches.
- In metadyne speed control since current through out the starting period remaining constant, uniform tractive effort is developed.

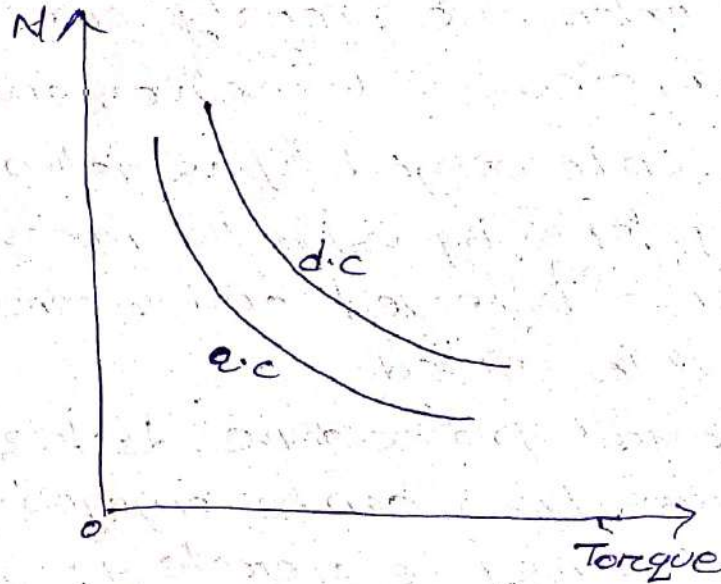
- This gives very smooth drive and high coefficient of adhesion.
- The converter has two pole d.c. armature and four pole field magnet as shown in below fig.
- There are two sets of brushes, one set connected to a constant voltage supply main and the other is disconnected to the load or traction motor.



- During operation the metadyne converter draws current I_a from the mains.
- The other set of brush will feed constant current at varying voltage to the traction motor.

DC AND AC TRACTION MOTOR

- DC traction motors are generally used for dc traction purposes, dc locomotives and drives.
- The speed can be changed by variation of the field winding taps. By using the rheostat taps the resistance is varied and accordingly the speed will be varied.
- Also for control in a dc drive, dc traction motors (series type) can be engaged. These traction motor may be operate in series or parallel.
- For the higher speeds requirement, the motors are operated in parallel and for lesser speed series connected motor are essential.
- In case of parallel operation of two traction motors the dc supply voltage available will be constant (high) and as speed $\propto V \Rightarrow$ speed increases.
- Also AC series traction motors may be operated in AC drive system i.e. in railway a.c traction motor are preferred.
- The 1 ϕ compensated series motors have been built for tractions work up to sizes of several hundred H.P.
- They have low P.F at starting and therefore starting torque is low.
- The A.C. series motor is not well suited to sub-urban services and stops are frequent.
- The speed torque char. is similar to that of a DC series traction motor and is drawn below.



→ Also 3ϕ Induction motor can be used for the traction purpose but with lesser extent it has been used in the kando system.

CHAPTER - 1

(2 mark)

1. Define Electro-deposition.
2. Define Current efficiency.
3. Define energy efficiency.
4. State the factors governing electro-deposition.
5. Define Electro-chemical equivalent.
6. Define Throwing power.
7. Define Electro forming.

Long type

1. Explain the principle of electro-deposition with suitable diagram.
2. State and explain Faraday's law of electrolysis.
3. Explain briefly factors affecting better electro-deposition.

CHAPTER - 2

2 mark

1. State Stephen's law.
2. Define Skin effect.
3. State some application of Dielectric heating.
4. State applications of Microwave heating.

Long type

1. State briefly the advantages of electrode heating over conventional method of heating.
2. Explain the principle of resistance heating with suitable diagram.

3. Explain working principle of direct arc furnace and indirect arc furnace with suitable diagram.
4. Explain working principle of vertical core type induction furnace and indirect core type induction furnace.
5. Explain briefly the principle of dielectric heating.

CHAPTER - 3

2 mark

1. Define electrode welding.
2. Classify electrode welding.

Long type

1. Discuss briefly the principle of arc welding.
2. Explain briefly different types of arc welding.
3. Explain different types of resistance welding.

CHAPTER - 4

2 Mark

1. Define luminous flux.
2. Define luminous efficiency.
3. Define solid angle.
4. Define luminous intensity.
5. Define candle power & lumens.
6. Define Illumination.
7. Define MSCP / MHCP / MHSCP.

8. Define Maintenance factor & Depreciation factor.
9. Define Utilisation factor.

Long type

1. State and explain Laws of illumination.
2. Explain polar curves.
3. Explain the construction and working principle of filament lamp.
4. Explain the construction and working principle of Fluorescent lamp.
5. Explain construction and working principle of Sodium vapour lamp.
6. Explain construction and working of Mercury vapour lamp.

CHAPTER-5

2 Mark

1. Define group drive.
2. Define Individual drive.
3. Applications of different Motors.

Long type

1. State group drive vs. individual drive.
2. Explain methods of choice of electric drive.
3. Explain starting and running characteristics of DC motor.

CHAPTER - 6

2 Mark

1. Define Electric traction
2. Define Electric braking.

Long type

1. Explain different system of traction.
2. Explain different methods of speed control of DC Motor.
3. Explain different methods of braking.