



SRI MANAKULA VINAYAGAR ENGINEERING COLLEGE

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DEPARTMENT OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING

Subject Name: Electrical and Electronics Engineering

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3. ALTERNATOR

*Alternators - construction - Operating principle - alternators on No load – Alternators on Load
 - Phasor diagram - Losses – Efficiency-voltage regulation by EMF method – Parallel operation of
 alternators*

Part- A (2 Marks)

- 1. Write down the equation for frequency of emf induced in an alternator (NOV/2014)**

Frequency of emf induced in an Alternator, f , expressed in cycles per second or Hz, is given by the following equation

$$F = (PN) / 120 \text{ Hz,}$$

Where P- Number of poles

N-Speed in rpm

- 2. Name the types of alternator based on their rotor construction (NOV/2014)**

Based on the alternator rotor construction

- Salient pole (or) Projected pole type
- Non- salient Pole (or) Smooth Cylindrical type

- 3. Calculate the synchronous speed of a four pole 50Hz alternator. (APRIL/2014)**

$$N_s = \frac{120 f}{P}$$

$$N_s = \frac{120 * 50}{4}$$

$$N_s = 1500 \text{ rpm}$$

- 4. Write the emf equation of an alternator. (APRIL/2014)**

$$E_{ph} = 4.44 K_c K_d f \Phi T_{ph} \text{ volts}$$

Where, K_c = Pitch factor

K_d = Distribution factor

5. Differentiate salient pole rotor and smooth cylindrical type rotor of an alternator(NOV/2013)(APRIL/2012)

Salient Pole Rotor	Cylindrical Rotor
Large diameter and short axial length	Small diameter and long axial length
Used for low speed alternators	Used for high - speed turbo-alternators
Has projecting poles	No projecting poles
Needs damper windings	Does not need damper windings
Windage loss is more	Windage loss is less

6. List the various losses in an alternator(NOV/2013)(or) **What are the losses in an alternator?**(NOV/2012)

The various losses occur in an alternators are

- Iron loss
 - Hysteresis loss
 - Eddy current loss
 - Mechanical loss
 - Frictional loss
 - Windage loss
 - Copper loss (or) Variable Loss
- } Constant losses

7. Define voltage regulation.(APRIL/2013)(or)**Define voltage regulation of an alternator.**(APRIL/2012)

The voltage regulation of an alternator is defined as the change in its terminal voltage when full load is removed, keeping field excitation and speed constant, divided by the rated terminal voltage.

So if V_{ph} = Rated terminal voltage

E_{ph} = No load induced e.m.f.

The voltage regulation is defined as,

$$\text{Regulation \%} = \frac{E_{ph} - V_{ph}}{V_{ph}} \times 100$$

8. What is meant by synchronous reactance? (NOV/2012)

It is the sum of the leakage reactance X_l and armature reactance X_a .

$$X_s = X_l + X_a$$

9. Why emf method called Pessimistic method?

The value of voltage regulation obtained by EMF method is always more than the actual value; therefore it is called Pessimistic method

10. Why are Alternators rated in kVA and not in kW?

The continuous power rating of any machine is generally defined as the power the machine or apparatus can deliver for a continuous period so that the losses incurred in the machine gives rise to a steady temperature rise not exceeding the limit prescribed by the insulation class. Apart from the constant loss incurred in Alternators is the copper loss, occurring in the three phase winding which depends on I^2R , the square of the current delivered by the generator. As the current is directly related to apparent – power delivered by the generator, the Alternators have only their apparent power in VA/kVA/MVA as their power rating.

11. What is the necessity for predetermination of voltage regulation?

Most of the alternators are manufactured with large power rating and large voltage ratings. Conduction load test is not possible for such alternators. Hence other indirect methods of testing are used and the performance can be predetermined at any desired load currents and power factors.

12. What are the main parts of Alternator?

- Stator core
- Salient or non salient rotor field winding
- Rotor shaft
- Bearings
- Internal cooling Fan etc.

13. Write down conditions for parallel operation of two Alternators?

Both the Alternator should have same

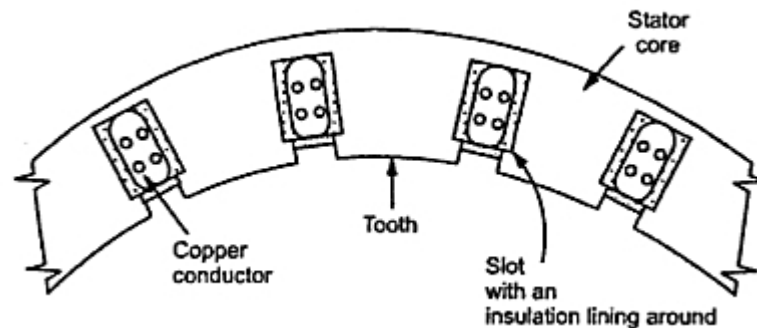
- Voltage
- Frequency
- Phase sequence of three phase supply

Part –B (11 Marks)**1. Write in details about the construction and working of an alternator?**Construction of Synchronous Generator

Most of the alternators prefer rotating field type of the construction. In case of alternator the winding terminology is slightly different than in case of DC generators. In alternator the stationary winding is called 'Stator' while the rotating winding is called 'Rotor'.

Stator

The stator is a stationary armature. This consists of a core and the slots to hold the armature winding similar to the armature of a DC generator. The stator core uses a laminated construction. It is built up of special steel stampings insulated from each other with varnish or paper. The laminated construction is basically to keep down eddy current losses. Generally choice of material is steel to keep down hysteresis losses.

Section of an alternator stator

The entire core is fabricated in a frame made of steel plates. The core has slots on its periphery for housing the armature conductors. The frame does not carry any flux and serves as the support to the core. Ventilation is maintained with the help of holes cast in the frame. This section of an alternator's stator is shown in the above figure.

Rotor:

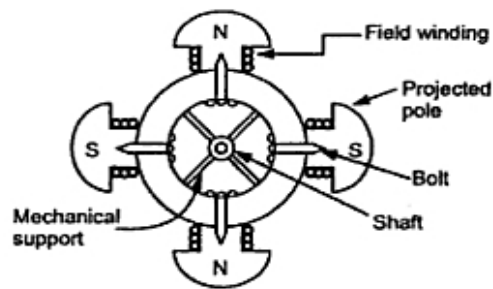
There are two types of rotors used in alternators,

- Salient pole type
- Smooth cylindrical type.

Salient Pole Type

This is also called projected pole type as all the poles are projected out from the surface of the rotor. The poles are built up of thick steel laminations. The poles are bolted to the rotor as shown in the figure. The pole face has been given a specific shape. The field winding is provided on the pole shoe. These rotors have large diameter and small axial length. The limiting factor for the size of the rotor is

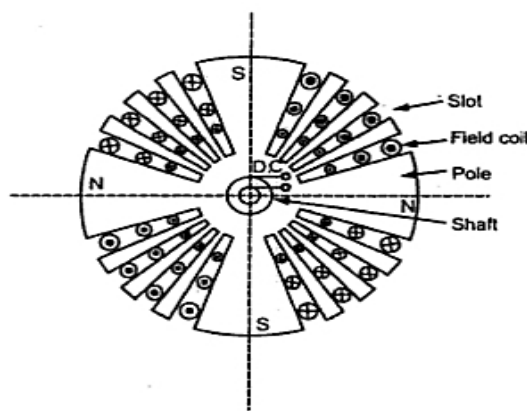
the centrifugal force acting on the rotating member of the machine. As mechanical strength of salient pole type is less, this is preferred for low speed alternators ranging from 125 r.p.m. to 500 r.p.m. The prime movers used to drive such rotor are generally water turbines and I.C. engines.



Salient pole type rotor

Smooth Cylindrical Type

This is also called non-salient type or non-projected pole type or round rotor construction. The below figure shows smooth cylindrical type of rotor.



Smooth cylindrical rotor

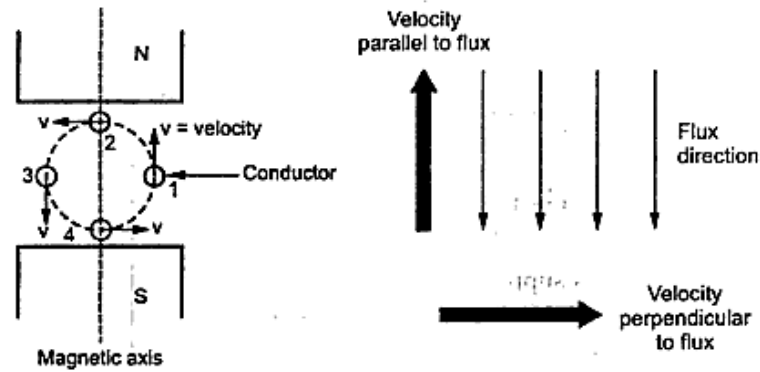
The rotor consists of small solid steel cylinder, having number of slots to accommodate the field coil. The slots are covered at the top with the help of steel or manganese wedges. The unslotted portions of the cylinder itself act as the poles. The poles are not projecting out and the surface of the rotor is smooth which maintains uniform air gap between stator and the rotor. These rotors have small diameters and large axial lengths. This is to keep peripheral speed within limits. The main advantage of this type is that these are mechanically very strong and thus preferred for high speed alternators ranging between 1500 to 3000 r.p.m. Such high speed alternators are called 'turbo alternators'. The prime movers used to drive such type of rotors are generally steam turbines, electric motors.

Working Principle of Synchronous Generator

The alternators work on the principle of electromagnetic induction. When there is a relative motion between the conductors and the flux, e.m.f. gets induced in the conductors. The DC generators also work on the same principle. The only difference in practical alternator and a DC generator is that in an alternator the conductors are stationary and field is rotating. But for understanding purpose we can always consider relative motion of conductors with respect to the flux produced by the field winding.

Consider relative motion of a single conductor under the magnetic field produced by two stationary poles. The magnetic axis of the two poles produced by field is vertical, shown dotted in the below figure.

Let conductor starts rotating from position 1. At this instant, the entire velocity component is parallel to the flux lines. Hence there is no cutting of flux lines by the conductor. So $d\Phi/dt$ at this instant is zero and hence induced e.m.f. in the conductor is also zero.



Two pole alternator

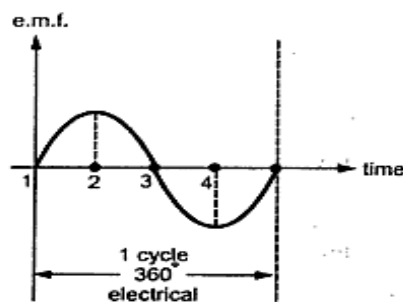
As the conductor moves from position 1 towards position 2, the part of the velocity component becomes perpendicular to the flux lines and proportional to that, e.m.f. gets induced in the conductor. The magnitude of such an induced e.m.f. increases as the conductor moves from position 1 towards 2.

At position 2, the entire velocity component is perpendicular to the flux lines. Hence there exists maximum cutting of the flux lines. And at this instant, the induced e.m.f. in the conductor is at its maximum.

As the position of conductor changes from 2 towards 3, the velocity component perpendicular to the flux starts decreasing and hence induced e.m.f. magnitude also starts decreasing. At position 3, again the entire velocity component is parallel to the flux lines and hence at this instant induced e.m.f. in the conductor is zero.

As the conductor moves from 3 towards 4, the velocity component perpendicular to the flux lines again starts increasing. But the direction of velocity component now is opposite to the direction of velocity component existing during the movement of the conductor from position 1 to 2. Hence an induced e.m.f. in the conductor increases but in the opposite direction.

At position 4, it achieves maximum in the opposite direction, as the entire velocity component becomes perpendicular to the flux lines. Again from position 4 to 1, induced e.m.f. decreased and finally at position 1, again becomes zero. This cycle continues as a conductor rotates at a certain speed. So if we plot the magnitudes of the induced e.m.f. against the time, we get an alternating nature of the induced e.m.f. as shown in the Fig. This is the working principle of an alternator



Alternating nature of the induced e.m.f

2. Explain about the winging terminology used in alternator and brief its types

Armature Winding of Synchronous Generator

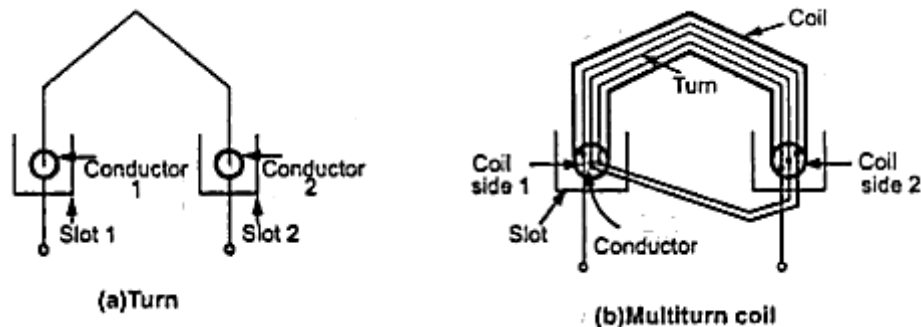
Armature winding of alternators is different from that of DC machines. Basically three phase alternators carry three sets of windings arranged in the slots in such a way that there exists a phase difference of 120° between the induced e.m.f. in them. In a DC machine, winding is brought out. In three phase alternators winding is open i.e. two ends of each of set of winding is brought out. In three phase alternators, the six terminals are brought out which are finally connected in star or delta and then the three terminals are brought out. Each set of windings represents winding per phase and induced e.m.f. in each set is called induced e.m.f. per phase denoted as E_{ph} . All the coils used for one phase

must be connected in such a way that their e.m.f. help each other. And overall design should be in such a way that the waveform of an induced e.m.f. is almost sinusoidal in nature.

Winding Terminology

1) Conductor: The part of the wire, which is under the influence of the magnetic field and responsible for the induced e.m.f. is called active length of the conductor. The conductors are placed in the armature slots.

2) Turn: A conductor in one slot, when connected to a conductor in another slot forms a turn. So two conductors constitute a turn. This is shown in the Fig. (a).



3) Coil: As there are number of turns, for simplicity the number of turns are grouped together to form a coil. Such a coil is called multiturn coil. A coil may consist of single turn coil. The Fig. (b) shows a multiturn coil.

4) Coil side: Coil consists of many turns. Part of the coil in each slot is called coil side of a coil as shown in the Fig. (b).

5) Pole Pitch: It is centre to centre distance between the two adjacent poles. We have seen that for one rotation of the conductors, 2 poles are responsible for 360° electrical of e.m.f., 4 poles are responsible for 720° electrical of e.m.f. and so on. So 1 pole is responsible for 180° electrical of induced e.m.f. So 180° electrical is also called one pole pitch. Practically how many slots are under one pole which are responsible for 180° electrical, are measured to specify the pole pitch. e.g. Consider 2 pole, 18 slots armature of an alternator. Then under 1 pole there are $18/2$ i.e. 9 slots. So pole pitch is 9 slots or 180° electrical. This means 9 slots are responsible to produce a phase difference of 180° between the e.m.f. induced in different conductors.

This number of slots/poles is denoted as 'n'.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pole pitch} &= 180^\circ \text{ electrical} \\ &= \text{slots per pole (no. of slots/P)} = n \end{aligned}$$

6) Slot angle (β): The phase difference contributed by one slot in degrees electrical is called slot angle β .

As slots per pole contributes 180° electrical which is denoted as 'n', we can write,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ slot angle} &= 180^\circ/n \\ \beta &= \frac{180^\circ}{n} \end{aligned}$$

In the above example, $n = 18/2 = 9$, while $\beta = 180^\circ/n = 20^\circ$

Types of Armature Windings:

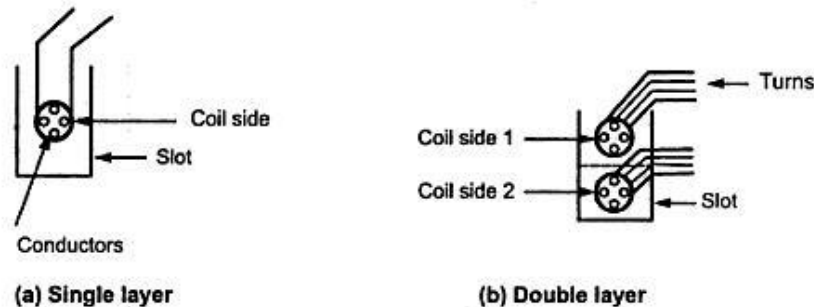
In general armature winding is classified as,

- Single layer and double layer winding.
- Full pitch and short pitch winding.

➤ Concentrated and distributed winding.

1. Single Layer and Double Layer Winding

If a slot consists of only one coil side, winding is said to be single layer. This is shown in the Fig. (a). While there are two coil sides per slot, one at the bottom and one at the top the winding is called double layer as shown in the Fig. (b).



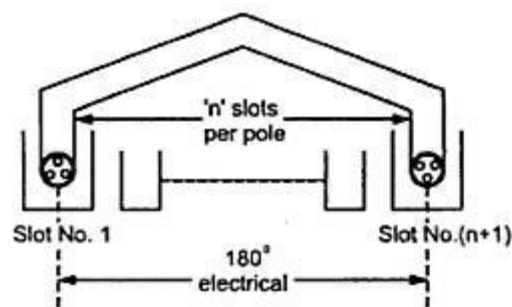
A lot of space gets wasted in single layer hence in practice generally double layer winding is preferred.

2. Full Pitch and Short Pitch Winding

As seen earlier, one pole pitch is electrical. The value of 'n', slots per pole indicates how many slots are contributing electrical phase difference. So if coil side in one slot is connected to a coil side in another slot which is one pole pitch distance away from first slot, the winding is said to be full pitch winding and coil is called full pitch coil.

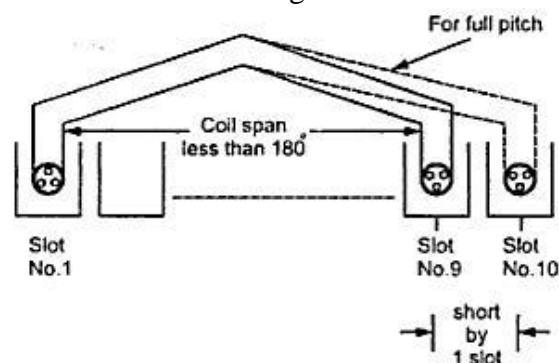
Coil Span

It is the distance on the periphery of the armature between two coil sides of a coil. It is usually expressed in terms of number of slots or degrees electrical. So if coil span is 'n' slots or 180° electrical the coil is called full pitch coil.



Full Pitch Coil

As against this if coils are slightly less than a pole pitch, i.e. less than 180° electrical, the coils are called, short pitched coils or fractional pitched coils. Generally coils are shorted by one or two slots. So in 18 slots, 2 pole alternator instead of connecting a coil side in slot No. 1 to slot No. 10, it is connected to a coil side in slot No. 9 or slot No. 8, coil is said to be short pitched coil and winding is called short pitch winding. This is shown in the below figure.



Short Pitch Coil

Advantages of Short Pitch Coils

In actual practice, short pitch coils are used as they have the following advantages,

- The length required for the end connections of coils is less i.e. inactive length of winding is less. So less copper is required. Hence this is economical.
- Short pitching eliminates high frequency harmonics which distort the sinusoidal nature of e.m.f. Hence waveform of an induced e.m.f. is more sinusoidal due to short pitching.
- As high frequency harmonics get eliminated, eddy current and hysteresis losses which depend on frequency also get minimized. This increases the efficiency.

3. Concentrated and Distributed Winding

In three phase alternators, we have seen that there are three different sets of windings, each for a phase. So depending upon the total number of slots and number of poles, we have certain slots per phase available under each pole. This is denoted as 'm'.

$$m = \text{Slots per pole per phase} = \frac{n}{\text{number of poles}} \\ = \frac{n}{2P} \quad (\text{generally no. of poles is } 2P)$$

For example in 18 slots, 2 pole alternator

$$\text{we have, } n = 18/2 = 9 \quad \text{and} \quad m = 9/2 = 4.5$$

So we have 4.5 slots per pole per phase available. Now let 'x' number of conductors per phase are to be placed under one pole. And we have 4.5 slots per pole per phase available. But if all 'x' conductors per phase are placed in one slot keeping remaining 3.5 slots per pole per phase empty then the winding is called

concentrated winding. So in concentrated winding all conductors or coils belonging to a phase are placed in one slot under every pole.

But in practice, an attempt is always made to use all the 'm' slots per pole per phase available for distribution of the winding. So if 'x' conductors per phase are distributed among the 4.5 slots per phase available under every pole, the winding is called **distributed winding.** So in distributed type of winding all the coils belonging to a phase are well distributed over the 'm' slots per phase, under every pole. Distributed winding makes the waveform of the induced e.m.f. more sinusoidal in nature. Also in concentrated winding due to large number of conductors per slot, heat dissipation is poor. So in practice, double layer, short pitched and distributed type of armature winding is preferred for the alternators

3. Derive an expression for the induced EMF of an alternator. (APRIL/2013)

E.M.F. Equation of an Alternator:

- Let Φ = Flux per pole, in Wb
 P = Number of poles
 N_s = Synchronous speed in r.p.m.
 f = Frequency of induced e.m.f. in Hz
 Z = Total number of conductors
 Z_{ph} = Conductors per phase connected in series
 $Z_{ph} = Z/3$ as number of phases = 3.

Consider a single conductor placed in a slot.

$$\text{The average value of emf induced in a conductor} = \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

For one revolution of a conductor,

$$e_{avg \text{ per conductor}} = \frac{\text{flux cut in one revolution}}{\text{time taken for one revolution}}$$

Total flux cut in one revolution = $\phi * P$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Time taken for one revolution} &= \frac{60}{N_s} \text{ seconds} \\ &= \frac{\phi P}{\left(\frac{60}{N_s}\right)} = \frac{\phi P N_s}{60} \end{aligned}$$

But $f = \frac{PN_s}{120}$

Substituting in (1),

$$e_{avg \text{ per conductor}} = 2f \phi \text{ volts}$$

Assume full pitch winding for simplicity i.e. this conductor is connected to a conductor which is 180° electrical apart. So the two e.m.f.s will try to set up a current in the same direction i.e. the two e.m.f.s are helping each other and hence resultant e.m.f. per turn will be twice the e.m.f. induced in a conductor.

$$\therefore \text{e.m.f. per turn} = 2 \times (\text{e.m.f. per conductor})$$

$$= 2 \times (2 f \phi) = 4 f \phi \text{ volts}$$

Let T_{ph} be the total number of turns per phase connected in series. Assuming concentrated winding, we can say that all are placed in single slot per pole per phase. So induced e.m.f. in all turns will be in phase as placed in single slot. Hence net e.m.f. per phase will be algebraic sum of the e.m.f.s per turn.

$$\text{Average } E_{ph} = T_{ph} \times (\text{Average e.m.f. per turn})$$

$$\text{Average } E_{ph} = T_{ph} \times 4 f \phi$$

But in AC circuits R.M.S. value of an alternating quantity is used for the analysis. The form factor is 1.11 of sinusoidal e.m.f.

$$K_f = \frac{\text{R.M.S.}}{\text{Average}} = 1.11 \quad \text{for sinusoidal}$$

$$\therefore \text{R.M.S. value of } E_{ph} = K \times \text{Average value}$$

$$E_{ph} = 1.11 \times 4 f \phi T_{ph} \text{ volts}$$

$$E_{ph} = 4.44 f \phi T_{ph} \text{ volts} \quad \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

This is the basic e.m.f. equation for an induced e.m.f. per phase for full pitch, concentrated type of winding.

Where T_{ph} = Number of turns per phase

$$T_{ph} = Z_{ph} / 2 \quad \dots\dots \text{ as 2 conductors constitute 1 turn}$$

But as mentioned earlier, the winding used for the alternator is distributed and short pitch hence e.m.f. induced slightly gets affected.

Generalized Expression for E.M.F. Equation of an Alternator

Considering full pitch, concentrated winding.

$$E_{ph} = 4.44 f \phi T_{ph} \text{ Volts.}$$

But due to short pitch, distributed winding used in practice, this will reduce by factors and so generalised expression for e.m.f. equation can be written as

$$E_{ph} = 4.44 K_c K_d f \Phi T_{ph} \text{ volts}$$

Where,

$$K_c = \cos\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$$

$$K_d = \frac{\sin\left(\frac{m\beta}{2}\right)}{m \sin\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)}$$

For fullpitch coil, $K_c=1$

For concentrated winding, $K_d=1$

Pitch Factor or Coil Span Factor (K_c)

The factor by which, induced e.m.f. gets reduced due to short pitching is called **pitch factor or coil span factor** denoted by K_c . It is defined as the ratio of resultant e.m.f. when coil is short pitch to the resultant e.m.f. when coil is full pitched. It is always less than one.

$$K_c = \cos\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$$

Where, α = Angle of short pitch

Distribution Factor (K_d)

The factor by which there is a reduction in the e.m.f. due to distribution of coils is called **distribution factor** denoted as K_d .

The distribution factor is defined as the ratio of the resultant e.m.f. when coils are distributed to the resultant e.m.f. when coils are concentrated. It is always less than one.

$$K_d = \frac{\sin\left(\frac{m\beta}{2}\right)}{m \sin\left(\frac{\beta}{2}\right)}$$

Where, m = slots per pole per phase
 β = slot angle
 n = slot per pole

Effect of Chording

The e.m.f. generated in the winding is proportional to $\cos(x/2)$ where x is angle of chording and n is order of harmonic. If proper value of angle of chording is selected then harmonic e.m.f. can be reduced significantly.

4. Explain in detail about armature reaction in alternator and also state voltage regulation?

ARMATURE REACTION AND VOLTAGE REGULATION

The voltage regulation of an alternator is defined as the change in its terminal voltage when full load is removed, keeping field excitation and speed constant, divided by the rated terminal voltage.

So if, V_{ph} = Rated terminal voltage

E_{ph} = No load induced e.m.f.

The voltage regulation is defined as,

$$\text{Regulation \%} = \frac{E_{ph} - V_{ph}}{V_{ph}} \times 100$$

As long as the alternator terminals are open (i.e), no load is connected to an alternator, the induced e.m.f is same as the voltage available at the terminals. Thus terminal voltage per phase V_{ph} and induced e.m.f per phase E_{ph} are same as long as alternator is on no load. But when the alternator is loaded, the armature of an alternator carries current. We know that, any current carrying conductor produces its own flux. Hence on load, armature of an alternator produces its own flux called armature flux. This flux has significant effect on the performance of an alternator on load. The terminal voltage V_{ph} no longer remains same as induced e.m.f E_{ph} on load conditions. The performance of an alternator on load is mathematically expressed by a parameter called voltage regulation.

Parameters of Armature Winding

There are three important parameters of an armature winding of an alternator. These are,

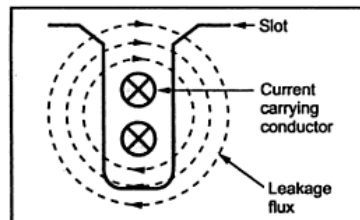
1. Armature resistance R_a
2. Armature leakage reactance X_L
3. Reactance corresponding to armature reaction

1. Armature Resistance

Every armature winding has its own resistance. The effective resistance of an armature winding per phase is denoted as $R_a \Omega/\text{ph}$. Generally the armature resistance is measured by applying the known DC voltage and measuring the D.C. Current through it. The ratio of applied voltage and measured current is the armature resistance. Generally the effective armature resistance under A.C. conditions is taken 1.25 to 1.75 times the D.C. resistance.

2. Armature Leakage Reactance

When armature carries a current, it produces its own flux. Some part of this flux completes its path through the air around the conductors itself. Such a flux is called leakage flux. This is shown in the Fig.



Note: This leakage flux makes the armature winding inductive in nature. So winding possesses a leakage reactance, in addition to the resistance.

If L is the leakage inductance of the armature winding per phase, then the leakage reactance per phase is given by $X_L = 2\pi fL \Omega/\text{ph}$. The value of leakage reactance is much higher than the armature resistance. Similar to the DC machines, the value of armature resistance is very very small.

3. Armature Reaction

When the load is connected to the alternator, the armature winding of the alternator carries a current. Every current carrying conductor produces its own flux so armature of the alternator also produces its own flux, when carrying a current. So there are two fluxes present in the air gap, one due to armature current while second is produced by the field winding called main flux. The flux produced by the armature is called armature flux. So effect of the armature flux on the main flux affecting its value and the distribution is called **armature reaction**.

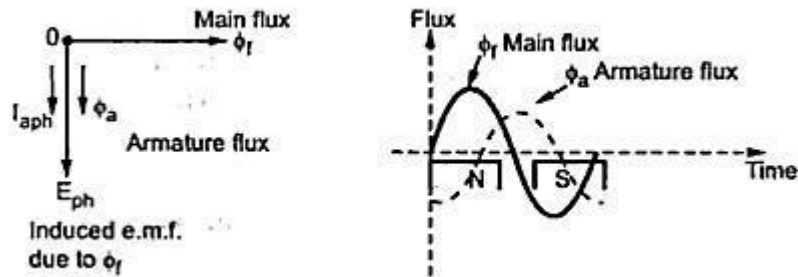
The effect of the armature flux not only depends on the magnitude of the current flowing through the armature winding but also depends on the nature of the power factor of the load connected to the alternator.

Effect of nature of the load power factor on the armature reaction

1. Unity Power Factor Load

Consider a purely resistive load connected to the alternator, having unity power factor. As induced e.m.f. E_{ph} drives a current I_{aph} and load power factor is unity, E_{ph} and I_{aph} are in phase with each other.

If Φ_f is the main flux produced by the field winding responsible for producing E_{ph} then E_{ph} lags Φ_f by 90° . Now current through armature I_a produces the armature flux say Φ_a . So flux Φ_a and I_a are always in the same direction. This relation between Φ_f , Φ_a , E_{ph} and I_{aph} can be shown in the phasor diagram. (See Fig.)



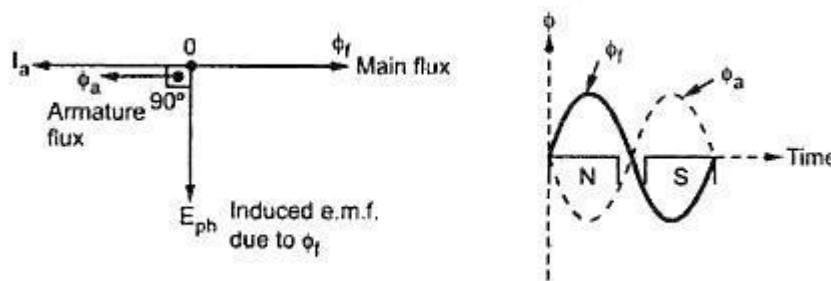
Armature reaction for unity power factor

It can be seen from the phasor diagram that there exists a phase difference of 90° between the armature flux and the main flux. The waveforms for the two fluxes are also shown in the Fig. 1. From the waveforms it can be seen that the two fluxes oppose each other on the left half of each pole while assist each other on the right half of each pole. Hence average flux in the air gap remains constant but its distribution gets distorted. Hence such a distorting effect of armature reaction under unity p.f. condition of the load is called **cross magnetising effect** of armature reaction. Due to such distortion of the flux, there is a small drop in the terminal voltage of the alternator.

2. Zero Lagging Power Factor Load

Consider a purely inductive load connected to the alternator having zero lagging power factor. This indicates that I_{aph} driven by E_{ph} lags E_{ph} by 90° which is the power factor angle Φ . Induced e.m.f. E_{ph} lags main flux Φ_f by 90° while Φ_a is in the same direction as that of I_a . So the phasor diagram and the waveforms are shown in the Fig. It can be seen from the phasor diagram that the armature flux and the main flux are exactly in opposite direction to each other. So armature flux tries to cancel the main flux. Such an effect of armature reaction is called **demagnetising effect** of the armature reaction.

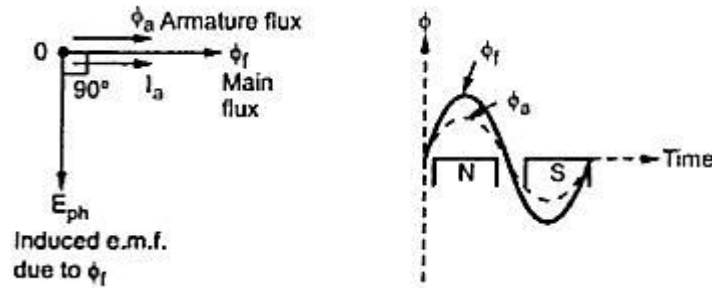
As this effect causes reduction in the main flux, the terminal voltage drops. This drop in the terminal voltage is more than the drop corresponding to the unity p.f. load.



Armature reaction for zero lagging p.f. load

3. Zero Leading Power Factor Load

Consider a purely capacitive load connected to the alternator having zero leading power factor. This means that armature current I_{aph} driven by E_{ph} leads E_{ph} by 90° , which is the power factor angle Φ . Induced e.m.f. E_{ph} lags Φ_f by 90° while I_{aph} and Φ_a are always in the same direction. The phasor diagram and the waveforms are shown in the Fig.



Armature reaction for zero leading p.f.load

It can be seen from the phasor diagram and waveform shown in the Fig, the armature flux and the main field flux are in the same direction i.e. they are helping each other. This results into the addition in main flux. Such an effect of armature reaction due to which armature flux assists field flux is called **magnetising effect** of the armature reaction.

As this effect adds the flux to the main flux, greater e.m.f. gets induced in the armature. Hence there is increase in the terminal voltage for leading power factor loads.

5. Draw and explain the phasor diagram of a loaded alternator. (APRIL/2014)(or) Explain in detail with phasor diagram of an alternator on load. (APRIL/2012)

Phasor Diagram of a Loaded Alternator

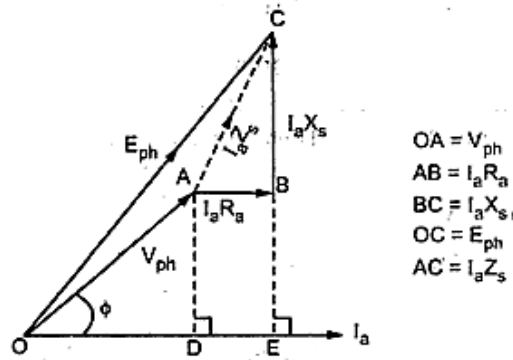
The phasor diagrams for various load power factor conditions are as follows. For drawing the phasor diagram consider all per phase values and remember following steps.

Steps to draw the phasor diagram:

1. Choose current as a reference phasor.
2. Now if load power factor is $\cos \Phi$ it indicates that angle between V_{ph} and I_a is Φ as V_{ph} is the voltage available to the load. So show the phasor V_{ph} in such a way that angle between V_{ph} and I_a is Φ . For lagging ' Φ ', I_a should lag V_{ph} and for leading ' Φ ', I_a should lead V_{ph} . For unity power factor load Φ is zero, so V_{ph} and I_a are in phase.
3. Now the drop $I_a R_a$ is a resistive drop and hence will always be in phase with I_a . So phasor $I_a R_a$ direction will be always same as I_a , i.e. parallel to I_a . But as it is to be added to V_{ph} , $I_a R_a$ phasor must be drawn from the tip of the V_{ph} phasor drawn.
4. The drop $I_a X_s$ is drop across purely inductive reactance. In pure inductance, current lags voltage by 90° . So ' $I_a X_s$ ' phasor direction will be always such that I_a will lag $I_a X_s$ phasor by 90° . But this phasor is to be drawn from the tip of the $I_a R_a$ phasor to complete phasor addition of V_{ph} , $I_a R_a$ and $I_a X_s$.
5. Joining the starting point to the terminating point, we get the phasor E_{ph} . Whatever may be the load power factor, $I_a R_a$ is a resistive drop, will be in phase with I_a while $I_a X_s$ is purely inductive drop and hence will be perpendicular to I_a in such a way that I_a will lag $I_a X_s$ by 90° . By using the above steps, the phasor diagrams for various load power factor conditions can be drawn.

Lagging Power Factor Load

The power factor of the load is $\cos \Phi$ lagging so I_a lags V_{ph} by angle Φ . By using steps discussed above, phasor diagram can be drawn as shown in the Figure.



Phasor diagram for lagging p.f. load

To derive the relationship between E_{ph} and V_{ph} , the perpendiculars are drawn on the current phasor from points A and B. These intersect current phasor at points D and E respectively.

Now,

$$OD = V_{ph} \cos \Phi$$

$$AD = BE = V_{ph} \sin \Phi$$

$$DE = I_a R_a$$

Consider $\triangle OCE$, for which we can write,

$$(OC)^2 = (OE)^2 + (EC)^2$$

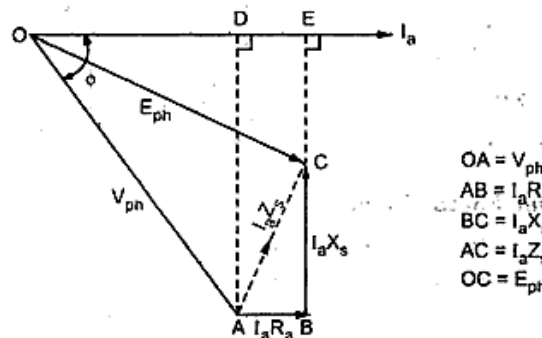
$$(E_{ph})^2 = (OD + DE)^2 + (EB + BC)^2$$

$$(E_{ph})^2 = (V_{ph} \cos \Phi + I_a R_a)^2 + (V_{ph} \sin \Phi + I_a X_s)^2$$

$$E_{ph} = \sqrt{(V_{ph} \cos \Phi + I_a R_a)^2 + (V_{ph} \sin \Phi + I_a X_s)^2}$$

Leading Power Factor Load

The power factor of the load is $\cos \Phi$ leading. So I_a leads V_{ph} by an angle Φ . By using steps discussed, the phasor diagram can be drawn as shown in the Figure.



To derive the relationship between E_{ph} and V_{ph} , the perpendiculars are drawn on the current phasor from points A and B. These intersect current phasor at points D and E respectively.

From $\triangle OCE$,

$$OD = V_{ph} \cos \Phi$$

$$AD = BE = V_{ph} \sin \Phi$$

$$DE = I_a R_a$$

Consider $\triangle OCE$, for which we can write,

$$(OC)^2 = (OE)^2 + (EC)^2$$

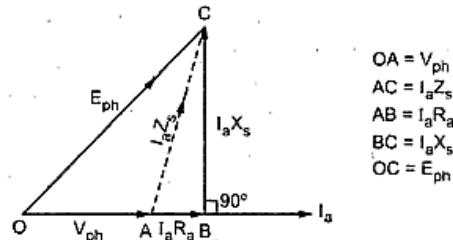
$$(E_{ph})^2 = (OD + DE)^2 + (BE - BC)^2$$

$$(E_{ph})^2 = (V_{ph} \cos \Phi + I_a R_a)^2 + (V_{ph} \sin \Phi - I_a X_s)^2$$

$$E_{ph} = \sqrt{(V_{ph} \cos \Phi + I_a R_a)^2 + (V_{ph} \sin \Phi - I_a X_s)^2}$$

Unity Power Factor Load

The power factor of the load is unity i.e. $\cos\Phi=1$. So $\Phi=0$, which means V_{ph} is in phase with I_a . So phasor diagram can be drawn as shown in the



Consider ΔOBC , for which we can write,

$$(OC)^2 = (OB)^2 + (BC)^2$$

$$(E_{ph})^2 = (OA + AB)^2 + (BC)^2$$

$$(E_{ph})^2 = (V_{ph} + I_a R_a)^2 + (I_a X_s)^2$$

$$E_{ph} = \sqrt{(V_{ph} + I_a R_a)^2 + (I_a X_s)^2}$$

It is clear from the phasor diagram that V_{ph} is less than E_{ph} for lagging and unity p.f. conditions due to demagnetizing and cross magnetizing effects of armature reaction. While V_{ph} is more than E_{ph} for leading p.f. condition due to the magnetizing effect of armature reaction.

Thus in general for any power factor condition,

$$(E_{ph})^2 = (V_{ph} \cos\Phi + I_a R_a)^2 + (V_{ph} \sin\Phi \pm I_a X_s)^2$$

+ sign for lagging p.f. loads

- sign for leading p.f. loads

V_{ph} = per phase rated terminal voltage

I_a = per phase full load armature current

6. Describe any two methods of determining the voltage regulation of three phase alternator (11) (NOV/2014)

VOLTAGE REGULATION OF AN ALTERNATOR

Under the load condition, the terminal voltage of an alternator is less than the induced e.m.f. E_{ph} . So if load is disconnected, V_{ph} will change from V_{ph} to E_{ph} , if flux and speed is maintained constant. This is because when load is disconnected, I_a is zero hence there are no voltage drops and no armature reaction to cause armature reaction. This change in the terminal voltage is significant in defining the voltage regulation.

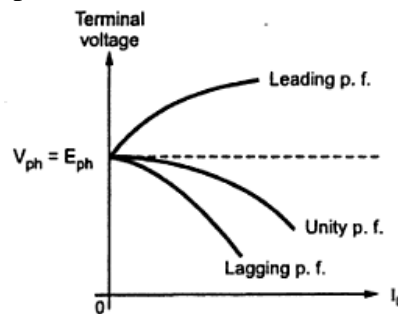
“The voltage regulation of an alternator is defined as the change in its terminal voltage when full load is removed, keeping field excitation and speed constant, divided by the rated terminal voltage.”

So if V_{ph} = Rated terminal voltage

E_{ph} = No load induced e.m.f. The voltage regulation is defined as,

$$\text{Regulation \%} = \frac{E_{ph} - V_{ph}}{V_{ph}} \times 100$$

The value of the regulation not only depends on the load current but also on the power factor of the load. For lagging and unity p.f. conditions there is always a drop in the terminal voltage hence regulation values are always positive. While for leading capacitive load conditions, the terminal voltage increases as load current increases. Hence regulation is negative in such cases. The relationship between load current and the terminal voltage is called load characteristics of an alternator. Such load characteristics for various load power factor conditions are shown in the below figure.



Load characteristics of an alternator

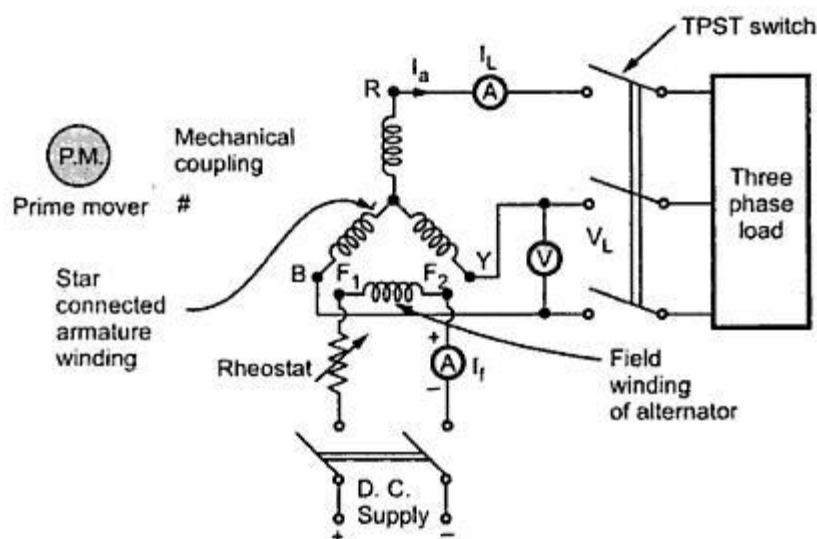
METHODS OF DETERMINING THE REGULATION

The regulation of an alternator can be determined by various methods. In case of small capacity alternators it can be determined by direct loading test while for large capacity alternators it can be determined by synchronous impedancemethod. Thus the following methods are available to determine the voltage regulation of an alternator,

- *Direct loading method*
- *Synchronous impedancemethod or E.M.F. method*
- *Ampere-turns method or M.M.F. method*
- *Zero power factor method or potier triangle method*
- *ASA modified form of M.M.F. method*
- *Two reaction theory*

VOLTAGE REGULATION BY DIRECT LOADING

The below figure shows the circuit diagram for conducting the direct loading test on the three phase alternator. The star connected armature is to be connected to a three phase load with the help of triple pole single throw (TPST) switch. The field winding is excited by separate DC supply. To control the flux i.e. the current through field winding, a rheostat is inserted in series with the field winding. The prime mover is shown which is driving the alternator at its synchronous speed.



Circuit diagram for direct loading test on alternator

The alternator is first driven at its synchronous speed N_s by means of a prime mover. Now

$$E_{ph} \propto \Phi \quad \dots \text{(From e.m.f. equation)}$$

By giving DC supply to the field winding, the field current is adjusted to adjust the flux so that rated voltage

is available across the terminals. This can be observed on the voltmeter connected across the lines. The load is then connected by means of a TPST switch. The load is then increased so that the ammeter reads rated value of current. This is full load condition of the alternator. Again adjust the voltage to its rated value by means of field excitation using a rheostat connected. Then throw off the entire load by opening the TPST switch, without changing the speed and the field excitation. Observe the voltmeter reading. As load is thrown off, there is no armature current and associated drops. So the voltmeter reading in this situation indicates the value of internally induced e.m.f. called no load terminal voltage. Convert both the readings to phase values. The rated voltage on full load is V_{ph} while reading when load is thrown off is E_{ph} . So by using the formula,

$$\text{Regulation \%} = \frac{E_{ph} - V_{ph}}{V_{ph}} \times 100$$

The full load regulation of the alternator can be determined. The value of the regulation obtained by this method is accurate as a particular load at required p.f. is actually connected to the alternator. But for high capacity alternators, that much full load cannot be simulated or directly connected to the alternator. Hence method is restricted only for small capacity alternators.

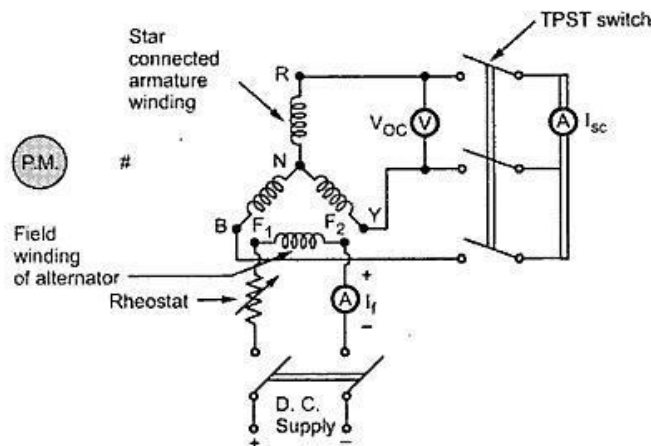
7. Explain the EMF method to determine the voltage regulation of an alternator. (APRIL/2013)

SYNCHRONOUS IMPEDANCE METHOD (OR) E.M.F. METHOD

The method is also called E.M.F. method of determining the regulation. The method requires following data to calculate the regulation.

- The armature resistance per phase (R_a).
- Open circuit characteristic which is the graph of open circuit voltage against the field current. This is possible by conducting open circuit test on the alternator.
- Short circuit characteristics which is the graph of short circuit current against field current. This is possible by conducting short circuit test on the alternator.

The circuit diagram is shown in the below figure.



Open Circuit Test

Procedure to conduct this test is as follows:

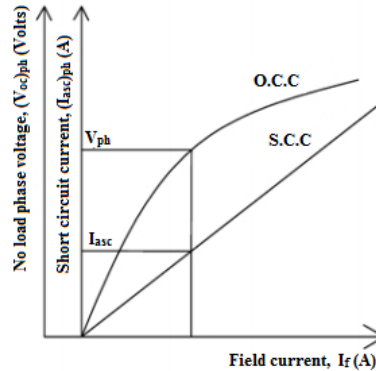
- The switch S across the load is kept open.
- Start the prime mover and adjust the speed to the synchronous speed of the alternator.
- Keeping rheostat in the field circuit (Alternator) maximum, switch on the DC supply.
- The T.P.S.T switch in the armature circuit is kept open.
- With the help of rheostat, field current is varied from its minimum value to the rated value. Due to this, flux increases and the induced e.m.f. Hence voltmeter reading, which is measuring line value of open circuit voltage, increases. For various values of field current, voltmeter readings are observed.

Short Circuit Test

Procedure to conduct this test is as follows:

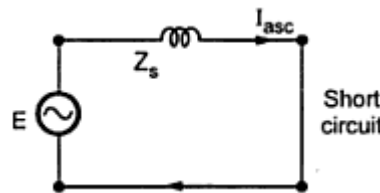
- The T.P.S.T switch is closed so the armature gets short circuited.

- Then the field excitation is gradually increased till full load current is obtained through armature winding.
- This can be observed on the ammeter connected in the armature circuit.
- The graph of short circuit armature current against field current is plotted from the observation table of short circuit test.
- This graph is called short circuit characteristics (S.C.C). This is also shown in the below figure.
- As S.C.C. is straight line graph, only one reading corresponding to full load armature current along with the origin is sufficient to draw the straight line.



Determination of Z_s from O.C.C and S.C.C

The synchronous impedance of the alternator changes as load condition changes. O.C.C. and S.C.C. can be used to determine Z_s for any load and load p.f. conditions. Consider a field current I_f. The O.C. voltage corresponding to this field current is E. When winding is short-circuited, the terminal voltage is zero. Hence, it may be assumed that the whole of this voltage E is being used to circulate the armature short-circuit current I_{asc} against the synchronous impedance Z_s. This can be shown in the equivalent circuit drawn in the below figure.



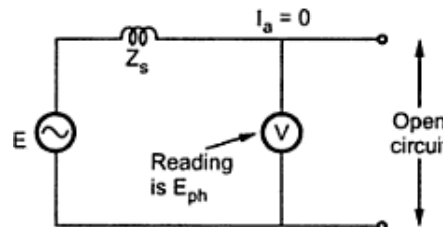
From the equivalent circuit we can write, $Z_s = E / I_{asc}$

Now value of I_{asc} is known, which can be observed on the alternator. To determine Z_s it is necessary to determine value of E which is driving I_{asc} against Z_s.

Now internally induced e.m.f. is proportional to the flux i.e. field current I_f.

$$E \propto \Phi \propto I_f \quad \dots \text{from e.m.f. equation}$$

So if the terminals of the alternator are opened without disturbing I_f which was present at the time of short-circuited condition, internally induced e.m.f. will remain same as E. But now current will be zero. Under this condition equivalent circuit will become as shown in the below figure.



It is clear now from the equivalent circuit that as I_a = 0 the voltmeter reading (V_{oc})_{ph} will be equal to internally induced e.m.f. (E).

This is what we are interested in obtaining to calculate value of Z_s. So expression for Z_s can be modified as,

Thus in general,

$$Z_s = \frac{\text{Phase e.m.f. on open circuit}}{\text{Phase current on short circuit}} \Big|_{\text{For same excitation}}$$

So O.C.C. and S.C.C. can be effectively to calculate Z_s .

The value of Z_s is different for different values of I_f as the graph of O.C.C. is non linear in nature. General steps to determine Z_s at any load condition are:

- Determine the value of $(I_{asc})_{ph}$ for corresponding load condition. This can be determined from known full load current of the alternator. For half load, it is half of the full load value and so on.
- S.C.C. gives relation between $(I_{asc})_{ph}$ and I_f . So for $(I_{asc})_{ph}$ required, determine the corresponding value of I_f from S.C.C.
- Now for this same value of I_f , extend the line on O.C.C. to get the value of $(V_{oc})_{ph}$. This is $(V_{oc})_{ph}$ for same I_f , required to drive the selected $(I_{asc})_{ph}$.
- The ratio of $(V_{oc})_{ph}$ and $(I_{asc})_{ph}$, for the same excitation gives the value of Z_s at any load conditions.

Regulation Calculations

From O.C.C. and S.C.C., Z_s can be determined for any load condition. The armature resistance per phase (R_a) can be measured by different methods. One of the methods is applying DC known voltage across the two terminals and measuring current. So value of R_a per phase is known.

$$\text{Now, } Z_s = \sqrt{(R_a)^2 + (X_s)^2}$$

$$X_s = \sqrt{(Z_s)^2 - (R_a)^2} \Omega/\text{ph}$$

So synchronous reactance per phase can be determined.

No load induced e.m.f. per phase, E_{ph} can be determined by the mathematical expression derived earlier.

$$E_{ph} = \sqrt{(V_{ph} \cos \phi + I_a R_a)^2 + (V_{ph} \sin \phi \pm I_a X_s)^2}$$

Where, V_{ph} = Phase value of rated voltage

$$Z_s = \frac{(V_{oc})_{ph}}{(I_{asc})_{ph}} \Bigg|_{\text{for same } I_f}$$

I_a = Phase value of current depending on the load condition
 $\cos \phi$ = p.f. of load

Positive sign for lagging power factor while negative sign for leading power factor, R_a and X_s values are known from the various tests performed.

The regulation then can be determined by using formula,

$$\text{Regulation \%} = \frac{E_{ph} - V_{ph}}{V_{ph}} \times 100$$

Advantages:

The main advantages of this method are the value of synchronous impedance Z_s for any load condition can be calculated. Hence regulation of the alternator at any load condition and load power factor can be determined. Actual load need not be connected to the alternator and hence method can be used for very high capacity alternators.

Disadvantages:

The main limitation of this method is that the method gives large values of synchronous reactance.

This leads to high values of percentage regulation than the actual results. Hence this method is called **pessimistic method**.

8. Explain the parallel operation of alternators (APRIL/2014)(or) With neat sketch, explain the parallel operation of an alternator.(NOV/2013)(APRIL/2012)

PARALLEL OPERATION AND SYNCHRONIZATION OF ALTERNATORS

INTRODUCTION

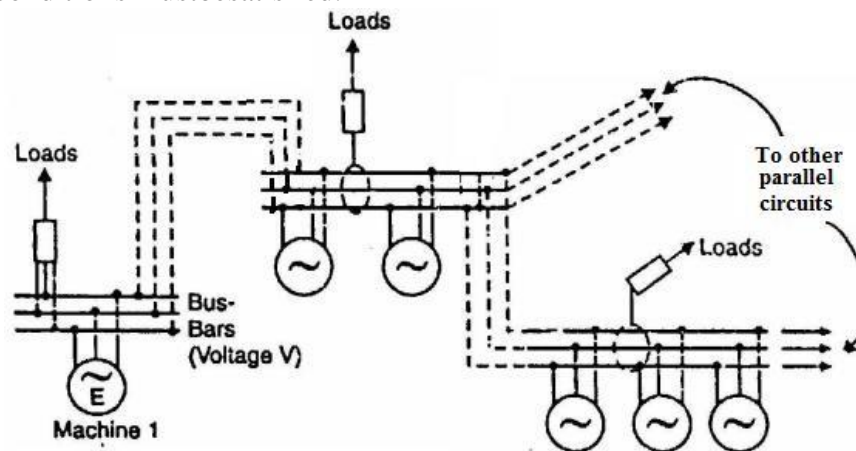
The process of switching of an alternator to another alternator or with a common busbar without any interruption is called **synchronization**. Alternately it can also be defined as the process of connecting the two alternators in parallel without any interruption. The synchronous machine which is to be synchronized is normally called an incoming machine. If any alternator is connected to a busbar which has many other alternators already connected, no matter what power it is supplying the alternator is said to be connected to an infinite busbar. An infinite busbar is one of whose frequency and phase e.m.f. remains unaffected by changes in condition of any one machine connected to it. Thus they are nothing but constant frequency and constant voltage bus bars.

Parallel Operation of Alternators

It is rare to find a 3-phase alternator supplying its own load independently except under test conditions. In practice, a very large number of 3-phase alternators operate in parallel because the various power stations are interconnected through the national grid. Therefore, the output of any single alternator is small compared with the total interconnected capacity.

For example, the total capacity of the interconnected system may be over 40,000 MW while the capacity of the biggest single alternator may be 500 MW. For this reason, the performance of a single alternator is unlikely to affect appreciably the voltage and frequency of the whole system. An alternator connected to such a system is said to be connected to infinite busbars. The outstanding electrical characteristics of such busbars are that they are constant-voltage, constant frequency busbars.

The below figure shows a typical infinite bus system. Loads are tapped from the infinite bus at various load centres. The alternators may be connected to or disconnected from the infinite bus, depending on the power demand on the system. If an alternator is connected to infinite busbars, no matter what power is delivered by the incoming alternator, the voltage and frequency of the system remain the same. The operation of connecting an alternator to the infinite busbars is known as paralleling with the infinite busbars. It may be noted that before an alternator is connected to an infinite busbar, certain conditions must be satisfied.



Advantages

The following are the advantages of operating alternators in parallel:

- **Continuity of service.** The continuity of service is one of the important requirements of any electrical apparatus. If one alternator fails, the continuity of supply can be maintained through the other healthy units. This will ensure uninterrupted supply to the consumers.
- **Efficiency.** The load on the power system varies during the whole day; being minimum during the late night hours. Since alternators operate most efficiently when delivering full-load, units can be added or put off depending upon the load requirement. This permits the efficient operation of the power system.
- **Maintenance and repair.** It is often desirable to carry out routine maintenance and repair of one or more units. For this purpose, the desired unit/units can be shut down and the continuity of supply is maintained through the other units.
- **Load growth.** The load demand is increasing due to the increasing use of electrical energy. The load growth can be met by adding more units without disturbing the original installation.

CONDITIONS FOR PARALLELING ALTERNATOR WITH INFINITE BUSBARS

The proper method of connecting an alternator to the infinite busbars is called synchronizing. A stationary alternator must not be connected to live busbars. It is because the induced e.m.f. is zero at standstill and a short-circuit will result. In order to connect an alternator safely to the infinite busbars, the following conditions are met:

- The terminal voltage (r.m.s value) of the incoming alternator must be the same as busbars voltage.
- The frequency of the generated voltage of the incoming alternator must be equal to the busbars frequency.
- The phase of the incoming alternator voltage must be identical with the phase of the busbars voltage. In other words, the two voltages must be in phase with each other.
- The phase sequence of the voltage of the incoming alternator should be the same as that of the busbars.

The magnitude of the voltage of the incoming alternator can be adjusted by changing its field excitation. The frequency of the incoming alternator can be changed by adjusting the speed of the prime mover driving the alternator.

Condition (i) is indicated by a voltmeter, conditions (ii) and (iii) are indicated by synchronizing lamps or a synchroscope. The condition (iv) is indicated by a phase sequence indicator.

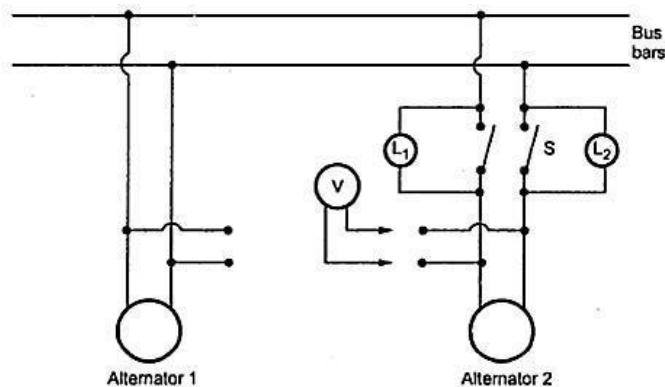
SYNCHRONIZATION OF SINGLE PHASE ALTERNATORS

In case of single phase alternators, synchronization is done generally by lamp methods. It can be done by two ways:

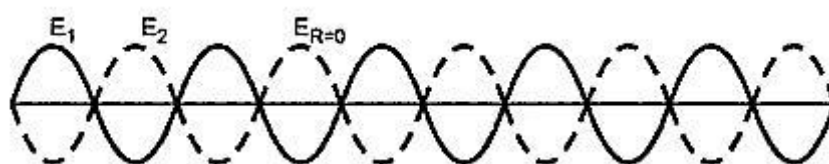
- Lamp dark method
- Lamps bright Method

1. Lamps Dark Method

In this method the lamps are arranged as shown in the below figure. The alternator to be synchronized (which is also called incoming alternator) consists of two lamps connected across the switch terminals of the same phase.

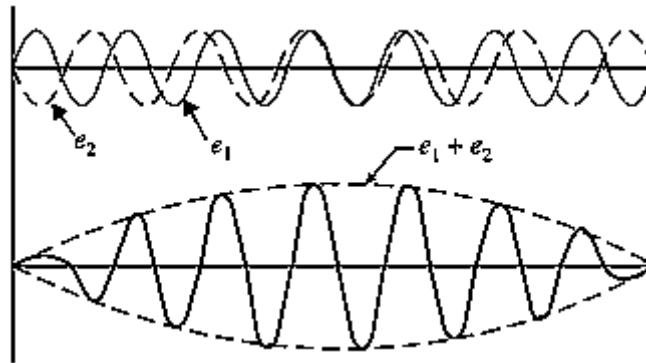


The voltage for the two alternators is measured with the help of a voltmeter. The lamps are connected in such a way that the polarity and the frequency for the two machines can be checked. No resultant voltage will appear across the switch terminals if the frequency of the two alternators is exactly the same as their voltage is in exact phase opposition. Thus under this case lamps will not glow. This is represented in the below figure.



It can be seen that with unequal frequencies of the two alternators, the two lamps will become alternately bright and dark. The light beat will be produced whose number is equal to the difference in frequencies for the two machines.

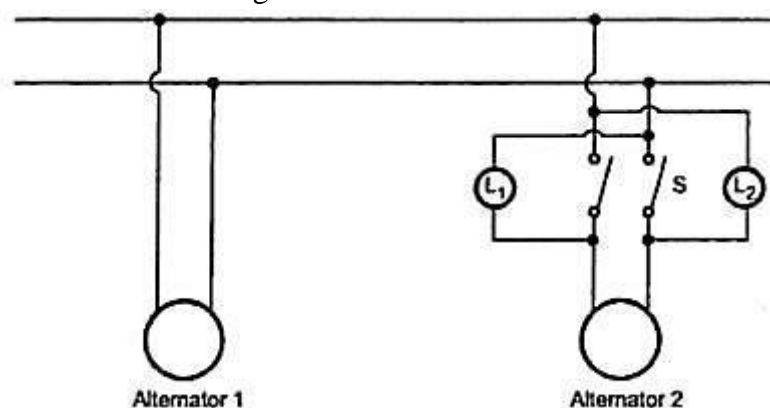
The resultant voltage appearing across the lamp will be difference of the two voltages at any instant resulting in a waveform shown in the below figure. Since number of cycle completed by two machines in any given time are not same the light beat is produced which is shown in the Figure



Sometimes the resultant voltage is maximum and some other times minimum. Hence, the current is alternating maximum and minimum. Due to this changing current through the lamps, a flicker will be produced, the frequency of the flicker being $(f_2 - f_1)$. Lamps will dark out and glow up alternatively. Darkness indicates that the two voltages E_1 and E_2 are in exact phase opposition relative to the local circuit and hence there is no resultant current through the lamps. Synchronizing is done at the middle of the dark period. The word middle is used as the lamp will not glow even though there is sufficient voltage across it. So it becomes difficult to know the correct instant of zero voltage. That is why, sometimes, it is known as 'lamps dark' synchronizing

2. Lamps Bright Method

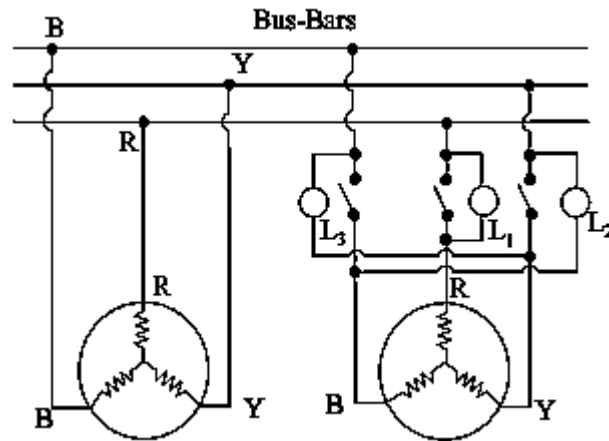
Since it is very difficult to judge the correct instant of zero voltage in Lamps dark method, this method is introduced which is shown in the below figure.



The lamps remain maximum bright when there is no difference in voltages for the two machines. This is more sharp and accurate method of synchronization because the lamps are much more sensitive to changes in voltage at their maximum brightness than when they are dark.

SYNCHRONIZATION OF THREE PHASE ALTERNATORS

The conditions to be satisfied for synchronization of three phase alternators are same as that for single phase alternators. But instead of saying that voltages must act in phase opposition, the phase sequence must be same i.e. phase must be connected in proper order of R, Y, B. Typical setup for synchronization of alternators is shown in the below figure.



Setup for Synchronization of Alternators

In synchronizing three phase alternators, three lamps are reconnected as shown in the Fig. 2, so that it can be used to indicate whether the incoming machine is running slow or fast. With symmetrical connection of lamps, they would dark out or glow up simultaneously provided that phase sequence is same for incoming machine and bus bar.

Consider the two alternators A and B to be synchronized. The alternator A is already running at synchronous speed and its excitation is so adjusted that it builds up the rated voltage. The alternator B is to be connected to busbar i.e. it is to be synchronized with alternator A. The process of synchronization can be explained as below:

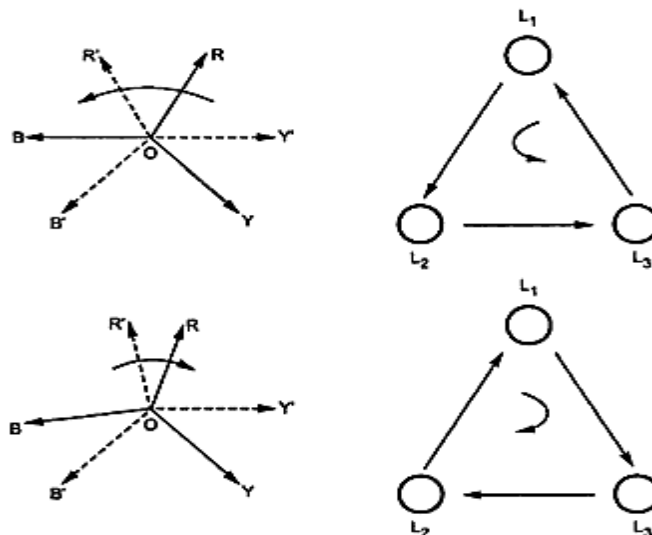
Step 1: Start the prime mover of machine B and adjust its speed to a synchronous speed.

Step 2: By adjusting the rheostat, the excitation to the field is adjusted so that induced e.m.f. of B is equal to the induced e.m.f. of A. This can be verified by voltmeter.

Step 3: To satisfy remaining conditions, the three lamp pairs are used which are L_1, L_2 and L_3 as shown in the above figure. These are reconnected in such a way that pair L_1 is straight connected while the pairs L_2 and L_3 are cross connected. The phasor ERR' , joining the tips R and R' is voltage across lamp pair L_1 . Similarly EYB , and EBY , are voltages across lamps L_2 and L_3 respectively.

If there is difference between the two frequencies due to difference in speeds of the two alternators, the lamps will become dark and bright in a sequence. This sequence tells whether incoming alternator frequency is less or greater than machine A.

The sequence L_1, L_2, L_3 tells that machine B is faster as the voltage star $R'Y'B'$ will appear to rotate anticlockwise with respect to busbar voltage RYB at a speed corresponding to difference between their frequencies shown in the below figure. The sequence L_3, L_2, L_1 tells that the machine B is slower because voltage star $R'Y'B'$ will appear to rotate clockwise with respect to busbar voltage RYB . The prime mover speed can be adjusted accordingly to match the frequencies.



The synchronization is done at the moment when lamp L_1

is in the middle of dark period. If the

lamps pair becoming dark and bright simultaneously, it indicates incorrect phase sequence which can be correct by interchanging any two leads either of the incoming machine or of bus bars. In this method when lamp L_1 is dark the other two lamp pairs L_2 and L_3 are equally bright. So this method of synchronization is called "**Lamps bright and dark**" method.

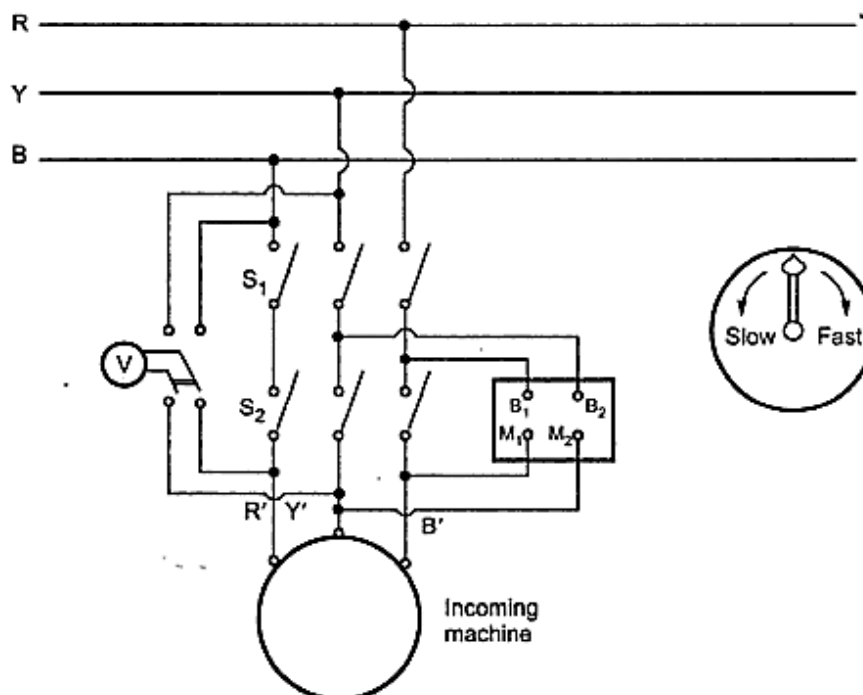
Synchronization by Synchroscope

It can be seen that the previous method is not accurate since it requires correct sense of judgement of the operator. Hence to avoid the personal judgement, the machines are synchronized by accurate device known as synchroscope.

It consists of a rotating pointer which indicates the exact moment of closing the synchronizing switch. If the pointer rotates in anticlockwise direction, it indicates that incoming machine is running slow whereas clockwise rotation of pointer indicates that incoming machine is running faster. The rotation of pointer is proportional to the difference in the two frequencies. The pointers should rotate at a very low speed in the direction of arrow marked fast as shown in the below figure.

When the rotating pointer reaches the vertical position at slow speed, the switch must be closed. The pointer will oscillate about some mean position instead of rotating if difference in frequencies is large. In such cases the speed of incoming machine is adjusted properly.

The connections for synchroscope are shown in Figure any two busbar lines are connected to its terminals while its other terminals are connected to corresponding lines of incoming machine. The phase sequence can be checked with the help of phase sequence indicator. The voltmeter is used to check the equality of voltage of busbars and incoming machine. This synchronization procedure is already explained before.



The use of lamps and synchroscope together is a best method of synchronization.

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