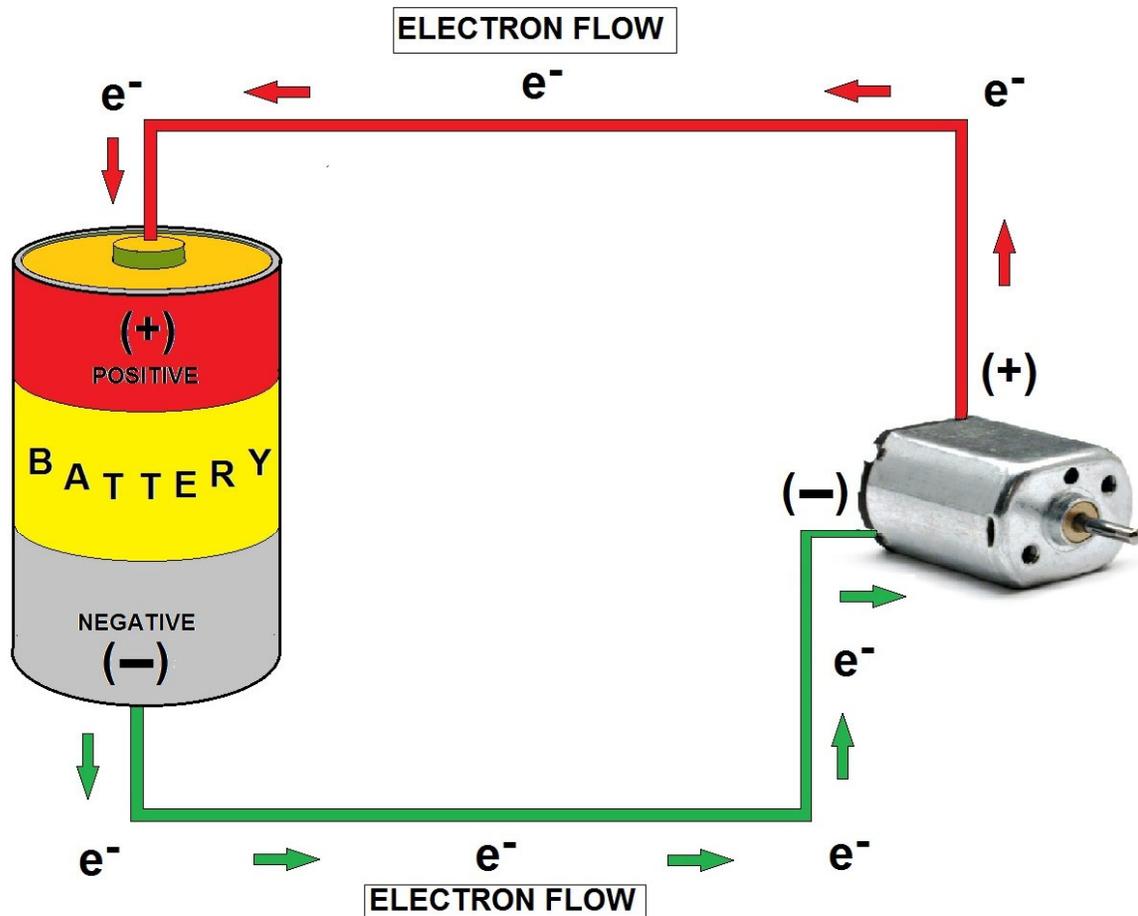


PUMP PRIMER III

CONTINUING EDUCATION
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT COURSE



EXAMPLE OF DIRECT CURRENT

Printing and Saving Instructions

It is recommended that you download this pdf document and assignment to your computer desktop and open it with Adobe Acrobat DC reader.

Adobe Acrobat DC reader is a free computer software program and you can find it at Adobe Acrobat's website.

You can complete the course by viewing the course on your computer or you can print it out. This course booklet does not have the assignment (the test). Please visit our website and download the assignment (the test).

Printing Instructions: Once you have purchased the program, we will give you permission to print this document. If you are going to print this document, it was designed to be printed double-sided or duplexed but can be printed single-sided.

Hyperlink to Assignment...

<http://www.abctlc.com/downloads/PDF/PumpPrimer3Ass.pdf>

State Approval Listing Link, check to see if your State accepts or has pre-approved this course. Not all States are listed. Not all courses are listed. Do not solely trust our list for it may be outdated. It is your sole responsibility to ensure this course is accepted for credit. No refunds.

Professional Engineers; Most states will accept our courses for credit but we do not officially list the States or Agencies.

State Approval Listing URL...

<http://www.abctlc.com/downloads/PDF/CEU%20State%20Approvals.pdf>

You can obtain a printed version from TLC for an additional \$129.95 plus shipping charges.

All downloads are electronically tracked and monitored for security purposes.



Some States and many employers require the final exam to be proctored.

Do not solely depend on TLC's Approval list for it may be outdated.

A second certificate of completion for a second State Agency \$25 processing fee.

Most of our students prefer to do the assignment in Word and e-mail or fax the assignment back to us. We also teach this course in a conventional hands-on class. Call us and schedule a class today.

Responsibility

This course contains EPA's federal rule requirements. Please be aware that each state implements drinking water/wastewater/safety regulations may be more stringent than EPA's or OSHA's regulations. Check with your state environmental agency for more information. You are solely responsible in ensuring that you abide with your jurisdiction or agency's rules and regulations.

Copyright Notice

1999-2020 Technical Learning College (TLC) No part of this work may be reproduced or distributed in any form or by any means without TLC's prior written approval. Permission has been sought for all images and text where we believe copyright exists and where the copyright holder is traceable and contactable. Other materials including text and artwork are in the public domain or fair use (the state of belonging or being available to the public as a whole, and therefore not subject to copyright.) All material that is not credited or acknowledged or referenced in the rear of this course is the copyright of Technical Learning College. All other unacknowledged references are in the Water/ Wastewater Sampling and Water Chemistry Courses. Most unaccredited photographs have been taken by TLC instructors or TLC students. All written, graphic, photographic or other material is provided for educational information only. We will be pleased to hear from any copyright holder and will make good on your work if any unintentional copyright infringements were made as soon as these issues are brought to the editor's attention. This educational training course and assignment is intended for educational purposes only. Every possible effort was made to ensure that all information provided in this course is accurate. Therefore, Technical Learning College accepts no responsibility or liability whatsoever for the application or misuse of any information included herein.

Requests for acknowledgements or permission to make copies shall be made to the following address: TLC, P.O. Box 3060, Chino Valley, AZ 86323

Information in this document is subject to change without notice. TLC is not liable for errors or omissions appearing in this document.

Contributing Editors

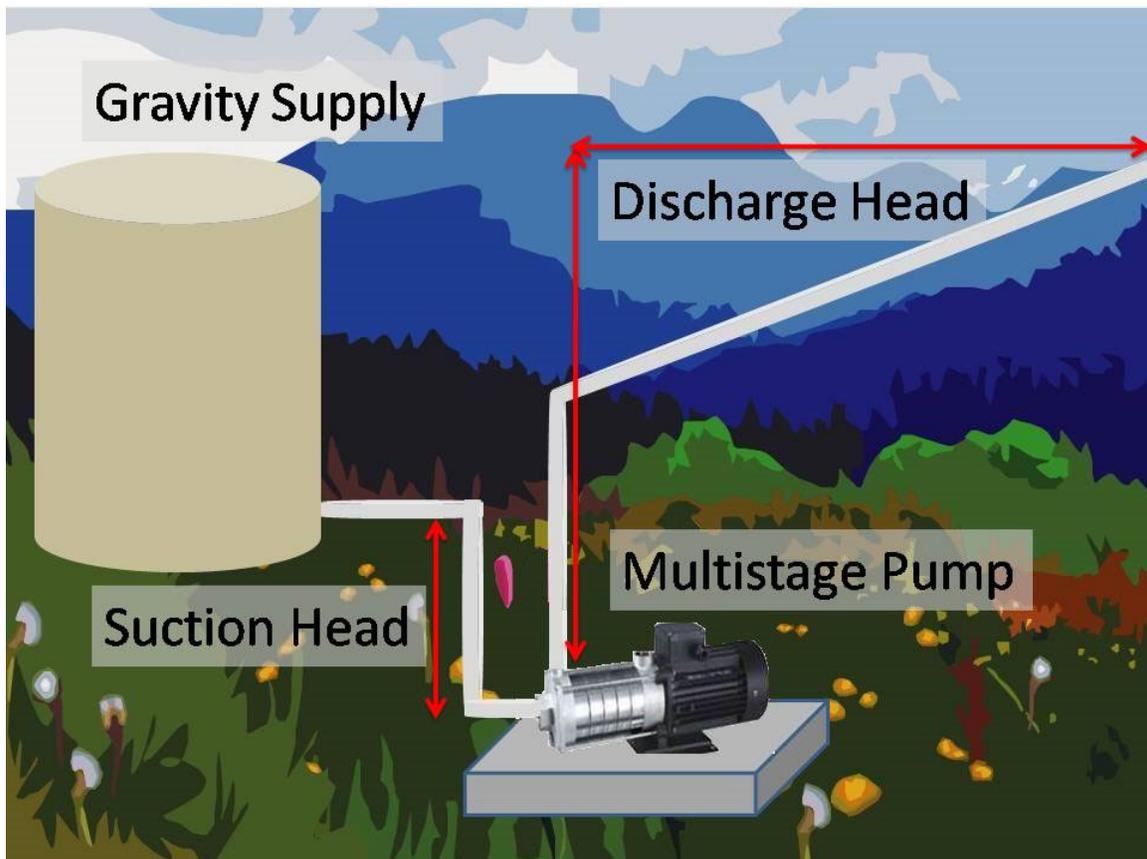
James L. Six Received a Bachelor of Science Degree in Civil Engineering from the University of Akron in June of 1976, Registered Professional Engineer in the State of Ohio, Number 45031 (Retired), Class IV Water Supply Operator issued by Ohio EPA, Number WS4-1012914-08, Class II Wastewater Collection System Operator issued by Ohio EPA, Number WC2-1012914-94

Joseph Camerata has a BS in Management with honors (magna cum laude). He retired as a Chemist in 2006 having worked in the field of chemical, environmental, and industrial hygiene sampling and analysis for 40 years.

James Bevan, Water Quality Inspector S.M.E. Twenty years of experience in the environmental field dealing with all aspects of water regulations on the federal, state, and local levels. Teacher and Proctor in Charge for Backflow Certification Testing at the ASETT Center in Tucson for the past 15 years and possess an Arizona Community College, Special Teaching Certificate in Environmental Studies.

Dr. Pete Greer S.M.E., Retired biology instructor, chemistry and biological review.

Jack White, Environmental, Health, Safety expert, City of Phoenix. Art Credits.



Important Information about this Manual

This manual has been prepared to educate operators in the general education of pumping, pumps, motors, and hydraulic principles including basic water training and different pump applications. For most students, the study of pumping and hydraulics is quite large, requiring a major effort to bring it under control.

This manual should not be used as a guidance document for employees who are involved with cross-connection control. It is not designed to meet the requirements of the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the Department of Labor-Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), or your state environmental or health agency. Technical Learning College or Technical Learning Consultants, Inc. makes no warranty, guarantee or representation as to the absolute correctness or appropriateness of the information in this manual and assumes no responsibility in connection with the implementation of this information.

It cannot be assumed that this manual contains all measures and concepts required for specific conditions or circumstances. This document should be used for educational purposes and is not considered a legal document. Individuals who are responsible for hydraulic equipment, cross-connection control, backflow prevention or water distribution should obtain and comply with the most recent federal, state, and local regulations relevant to these sites and are urged to consult with OSHA, the EPA and other appropriate federal, state and local agencies.

Technical Learning College's Scope and Function

Welcome to the Program,

Technical Learning College (TLC) offers affordable continuing education for today's working professionals who need to maintain licenses or certifications. TLC holds several different governmental agency approvals for granting of continuing education credit.

TLC's delivery method of continuing education can include traditional types of classroom lectures and distance-based courses or independent study. TLC's distance based or independent study courses are offered in a print - based distance educational format. We will beat any other training competitor's price for the same CEU material or classroom training.

Our courses are designed to be flexible and for you to finish the material at your convenience. Students can also receive course materials through the mail. The CEU course or e-manual will contain all your lessons, activities and instruction to obtain the assignments. All of TLC's CEU courses allow students to submit assignments using e-mail or fax, or by postal mail. (See the course description for more information.)

Students have direct contact with their instructor—primarily by e-mail or telephone. TLC's CEU courses may use such technologies as the World Wide Web, e-mail, CD-ROMs, videotapes and hard copies. (See the course description.) Make sure you have access to the necessary equipment before enrolling; i.e., printer, Microsoft Word and/or Adobe Acrobat Reader. Some courses may require proctored closed-book exams, depending upon your state or employer requirements.

Flexible Learning

At TLC there are no scheduled online sessions or passwords you need contend with, nor are you required to participate in learning teams or groups designed for the "typical" younger campus based student. You will work at your own pace, completing assignments in time frames that work best for you. TLC's method of flexible individualized instruction is designed to provide each student the guidance and support needed for successful course completion.

Course Structure

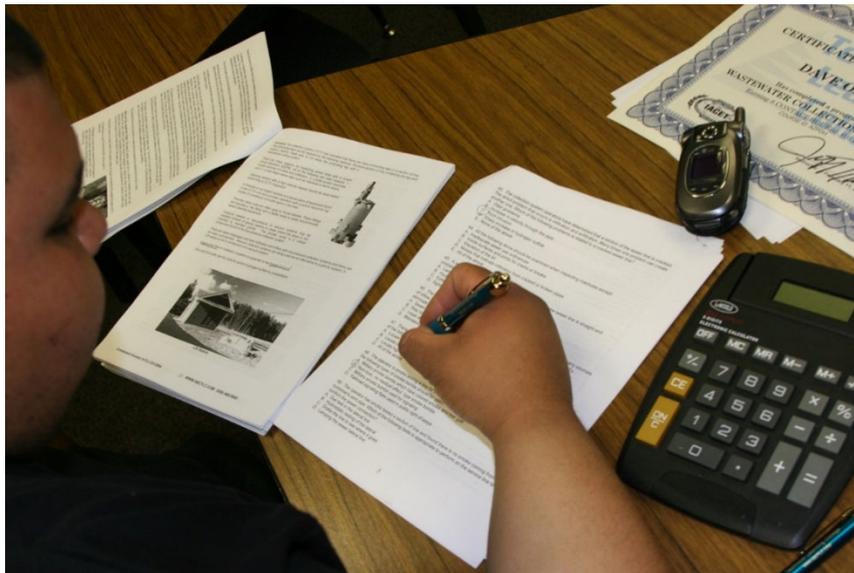
TLC's online courses combine the best of online delivery and traditional university textbooks. You can easily find the course syllabus, course content, assignments, and the post-exam (Assignment). This student-friendly course design allows you the most flexibility in choosing when and where you will study.

Classroom of One

TLC offers you the best of both worlds. You learn on your own terms, on your own time, but you are never on your own. Once enrolled, you will be assigned a personal Student Service Representative who works with you on an individualized basis throughout your program of study. Course specific faculty members (S.M.E.) are assigned at the beginning of each course providing the academic support you need to successfully complete each course. Please call or email us for assistance.

Satisfaction Guaranteed

We have many years of experience, dealing with thousands of students. We assure you, our customer satisfaction is second to none. This is one reason we have taught more than 20,000 students.



We welcome you to do the electronic version of the assignment and submit the answer key and registration to us either by fax or e-mail. If you need this assignment graded and a certificate of completion within a 48-hour turn around, prepare to pay an additional rush charge of \$50.

Contact Numbers
Fax (928) 468-0675
Email Info@tlch2o.com
Telephone (866) 557-1746

Course Description

Pump Primer III CEU Training Course

This short CEU course will review various hydraulic principles and basic pumping foundations to properly understand the operation and function of primary water/wastewater related pumps and equipment. ***You will not need any other materials for this course.***

Water Distribution, Well Drillers, Pump Installers, Water Treatment Operators, Wastewater Treatment Operators, Wastewater Collection Operators, Industrial Wastewater Operators and General Backflow Assembly Testers. The target audience for this course is the person interested in working in a water or wastewater treatment or distribution/collection facility and/or wishing to maintain CEUs for certification license or to learn how to do the job safely and effectively, and/or to meet education needs for promotion.

Final Examination for Credit

Opportunity to pass the final comprehensive examination is limited to three attempts per course enrollment.

Course Procedures for Registration and Support

All of Technical Learning College's correspondence courses have complete registration and support services offered. Delivery of services will include, e-mail, web site, telephone, fax and mail support. TLC will attempt immediate and prompt service.

When a student registers for a distance or correspondence course, he/she is assigned a start date and an end date. It is the student's responsibility to note dates for assignments and keep up with the course work.

If a student falls behind, he/she must contact TLC and request an end date extension in order to complete the course. It is the prerogative of TLC to decide whether to grant the request. All students will be tracked by a unique number will be assigned to the student.

Instructions for Assignment

The Pump Primer III - 0.6 CEU training course training course uses a multiple choice type answer key. You can find a copy of the answer key r in Word format on TLC's website under the Assignment Page. You can also find complete course support under the Assignment Page.

You can write your answers in this manual or type out your own answer key. TLC would prefer that you type out and fax or e-mail the final exam to TLC, but it is not required.

Feedback Mechanism (Examination Procedures)

Each student will receive a feedback form as part of their study packet. You will be able to find this form in the rear of the course or lesson.

Security and Integrity

All students are required to do their own work. All lesson sheets and final exams are not returned to the student to discourage sharing of answers. Any fraud or deceit and the student will forfeit all fees and the appropriate agency will be notified.

Grading Criteria

TLC will offer the student either pass/fail or a standard letter grading assignment. If TLC is not notified, you will only receive a pass/fail notice.

Required Texts

The Pump Primer III - 0.6 CEU training course will not require any other materials. This course comes complete. No other materials are needed.

Recordkeeping and Reporting Practices

TLC will keep all student records for a minimum of seven years. It is your responsibility to give the completion certificate to the appropriate agencies.

ADA Compliance

TLC will make reasonable accommodations for persons with documented disabilities. Students should notify TLC and their instructors of any special needs. Course content may vary from this outline to meet the needs of this particular group. Please check with your State for special instructions.

You will have 90 days from receipt of this manual to complete it in order to receive your Continuing Education Units (CEUs) or Professional Development Hours (PDHs). A score of 70% or better is necessary to pass this course. If you should need any assistance, please email all concerns and the final test to: info@tlch2o.com.

When the Student finishes this course...**At the conclusion of this course:**

At the finish of this course, the student should be able to explain and describe the various pumps, motors, and pumping methods. Upon completion of this course, the student will obtain 6 hours of continuing education relating to pump, motor and pumping principles.

Educational Mission**The educational mission of TLC is:**

To provide TLC students with comprehensive and ongoing training in the theory and skills needed for the environmental education field,

To provide TLC students opportunities to apply and understand the theory and skills needed for operator certification and environmental education,

To provide opportunities for TLC students to learn and practice environmental educational skills with members of the community for the purpose of sharing diverse perspectives and experience,

To provide a forum in which students can exchange experiences and ideas related to environmental education,

To provide a forum for the collection and dissemination of current information related to environmental education, and to maintain an environment that nurtures academic and personal growth.

Table of Contents

Topic Guide.....	12
Section 1- ELECTRICAL MOTORS.....	13
Motor Starter.....	17
Two Types of Enclosed Motors-PE & TECH & O&M & GP.....	19
Motor Lubrication- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	20
Understanding Motors- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	23
AC Motors- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	27
DC Motors- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	29
Rotary Motors- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	39
Motor Maintenance-PE & TECH & O&M & GP.....	43
Understanding Three Phase- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	49
Transformers- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	57
Calculating Voltage- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	65
Polyphase- O&M & TECH & SPARK.....	73
Post Quiz.....	77
Section 2- SCADA	79
SCADA Explained-SCADA & TECH.....	81
SCADA Concepts-SCADA & TECH	83
SCADA Considerations-SCADA & TECH	85
SCADA Benefits-SCADA & TECH	85
Human Machine Interface Introduction-SCADA & TECH	86
Remote Terminal Unit-SCADA & TECH	87
Operational Philosophy-SCADA & TECH	89
PLC/RTV Programming-SCADA & TECH	90
SCADA Architectures-SCADA & TECH	91
Community Infrastructures-SCADA & TECH	92
SCADA Security Issues-SCADA & TECH	93
References.....	96
Post Quiz.....	97
Electrical Glossary.....	99
Glossary.....	105

Topic Legend

This CEU course covers several educational topics/functions/purposes/objectives of hydraulic and pumping principles including groundwater production, engineering, physics laws, hydraulic theories and pump operation. Educational topic (objectives assessment) categories were determined by Task Analysis and Training Needs Assessments. The topic categories listed below are to assist in determining which educational objective or goal to be covered in a specific topic area:

CROSS-CONNECTION (CC): Having to do with cross-connection control and backflow prevention. Simple hydraulic principles. This may be considered O&M training for many operators.

ELECTRICAL (SPARK): This section has to do with electrical principles and difficult math calculations. Maybe good for credit for those who hold an electrician or instrumentation certification. This may be considered O&M training for many operators.

FLUID MECHANICS (FM): Having to do with hydraulic or fluid mechanics. A highly technical and specialized engineering field. This may be considered O&M training for many operators or credit for pump engineers or well drillers.

GROUNDWATER MINING OR PRODUCTION (GP): This may be considered O&M training for many operators or credit for pump engineers or well drillers.

MOTOR: Having to do with the electrical-mechanical portion of moving water. This may be considered O&M training for many operators. Maybe good for credit for those who hold an electrician or instrumentation certification.

OPERATIONS AND MAINTENANCE O&M: This area is for normal operation and/or maintenance of the distribution system. Part of O&M training requirement for many operators.

PUMP ENGINEERING (PE): The technical science of pumping and pump performance principles. May be a law or theory or calculation related to pumping. Information that a pump engineer or well operator may need.

SCADA: Having to do with data acquisition and control methods. Remote operation of pumps and motors from a distant location or cell phone. Maybe good for credit for those who hold an electrician or instrumentation certification.

SCIENCE (SCI): Having to do with scientific principles, laws or theories. A principle that can be observed or repeated in the Laboratory. May be good for laboratory or engineering credit.

TECHNICAL (TECH): The engineering or administrative, mechanical or physical pumping related process/component. The applications, engineering, history or theory that is critical to the pump operation or composition of water (pH). May include advanced groundwater treatment methods or centrifugal pump operation. This may be considered O&M training for many operators or credit for pump engineers or well drillers.

Section 1- Electrical Motors

Section Focus: You will learn the basics of an electric motor. At the end of this section, you the student will be able to describe commonly found electrical motors used in water production. There is a post quiz at the end of this section to review your comprehension and a final examination in the Assignment for your contact hours.

Scope/Background: Electrical motors are common throughout the water/wastewater field. These motors require repair work from highly trained and skilled technicians.



An **electric motor** is an electrical machine that converts electrical energy into mechanical energy. Most electric motors operate through the interaction between the motor's magnetic field and electric current in a wire winding to generate force in the form of rotation of a shaft.

Electric motors can be powered by direct current (DC) sources, such as from batteries, motor vehicles or rectifiers, or by alternating current (AC) sources, such as a power grid, inverters or electrical generators.

An electric generator is mechanically identical to an electric motor, but operates in the reverse direction, converting mechanical energy into electrical energy.

Electric motors may be classified by considerations such as power source type, internal construction, application and type of motion output. In addition to AC versus DC types, motors may be brushed or brushless, may be of various phase (see single-phase, two-phase, or three-phase), and may be either air-cooled or liquid-cooled.

General-purpose motors with standard dimensions and characteristics provide convenient mechanical power for industrial use. The largest electric motors are used for ship propulsion, pipeline compression and pumped-storage applications with ratings reaching 100 megawatts.

Electric motors are found in industrial fans, blowers and pumps, machine tools, household appliances, power tools and disk drives. Small motors may be found in electric watches.

Electric motors produce linear or rotary force (torque) and can be distinguished from devices such as magnetic solenoids and loudspeakers that convert electricity into motion but do not generate usable mechanical force, which are respectively referred to as actuators and transducers.

Electrical Motor Section - Introduction

The power source of the pump is usually an electric motor. The motor is connected by a coupling to the pump shaft. The purpose of the bearings is to hold the shaft firmly in place, yet allow it to rotate. The bearing house supports the bearings and provides a reservoir for the lubricant. An impeller is connected to the shaft. The pump assembly can be a vertical or horizontal set-up; the components for both are basically the same.

Motors

The purpose of this discussion on pump motors is to identify and describe the main types of motors, starters, enclosures and motor controls, as well as to provide you with some basic maintenance and troubleshooting information. Although pumps may be driven by diesel or gasoline engines, pumps driven by electric motors are commonly used in our industry.

There are two general categories of electric motors:

- ✿ D-C motors, or direct current
- ✿ A-C motors, or alternating current

You can expect most motors at facilities to be A-C type.

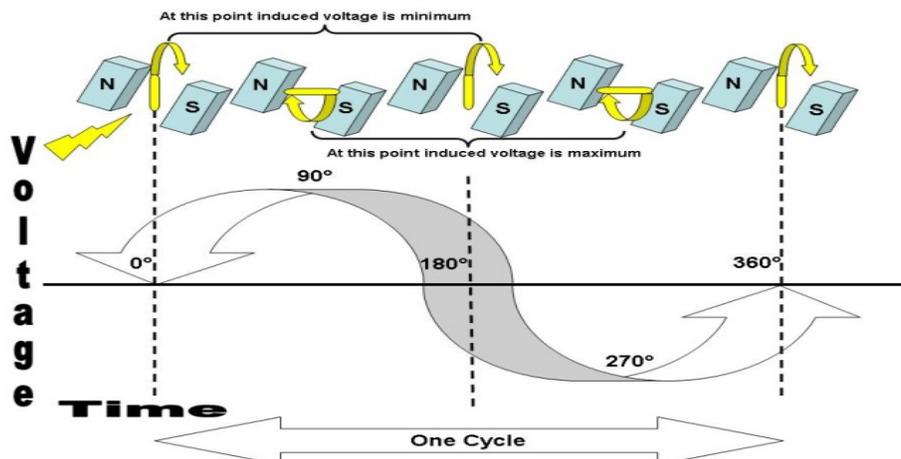
D-C Motors

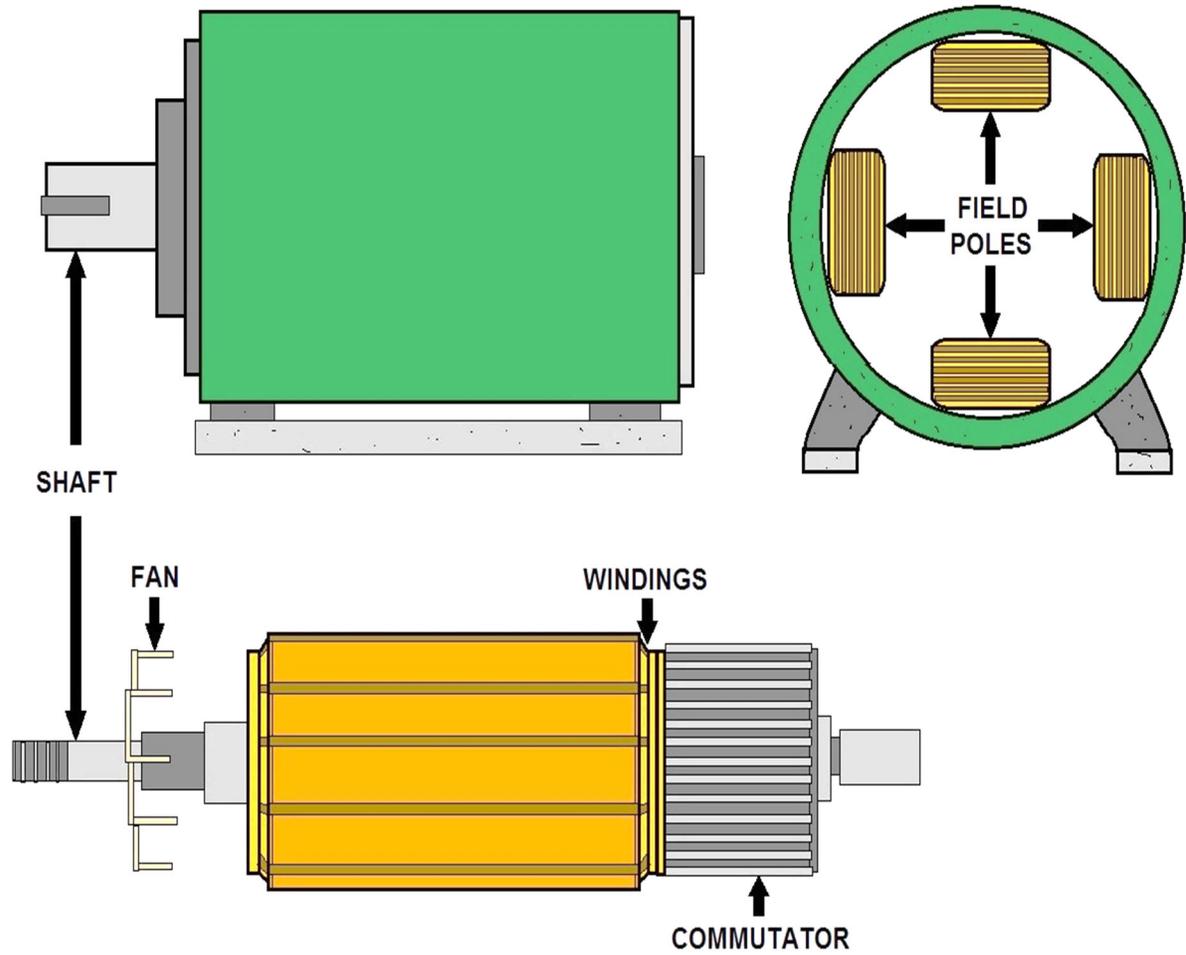
The important characteristic of the D-C motor is that its speed will vary with the amount of voltage used. There are many different kinds of D-C motors, depending on how they are wound and their speed/torque characteristics.



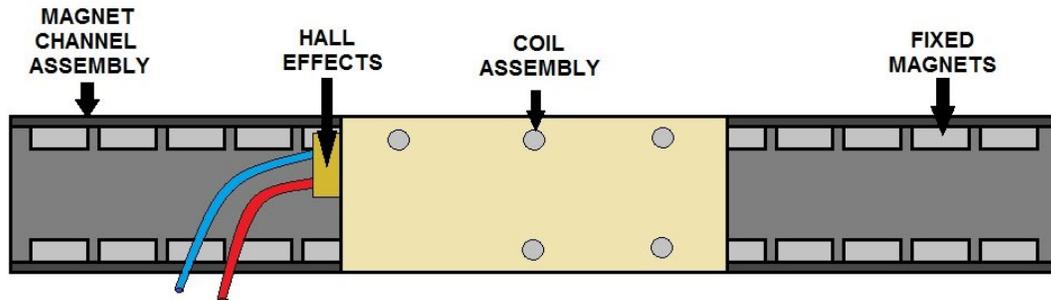
A-C Motors

There are a number of different types of alternating current motors, such as Synchronous, Induction, wound rotor, and squirrel cage. The synchronous type of A-C motor requires complex control equipment, since they use a combination of A-C and D-C. This also means that the synchronous type of A-C motor is used in large horsepower sizes, usually above 250 HP. The induction type motor uses only alternating current. The squirrel cage motor provides a relatively constant speed. The wound rotor type could be used as a variable speed motor.





DC ELECTRIC MOTOR DIAGRAM EXAMPLE



LINEAR MOTOR

Electric Induction Motor that produces Straight-Line motion by means of a Linear Stator and Rotor placed in Parallel

Define the Following Terms:

Voltage:

EMF:

Power:

Current:

Resistance:

Conductor:

Phase:

Single Phase:

Three Phase:

Hertz:

Motor Starters

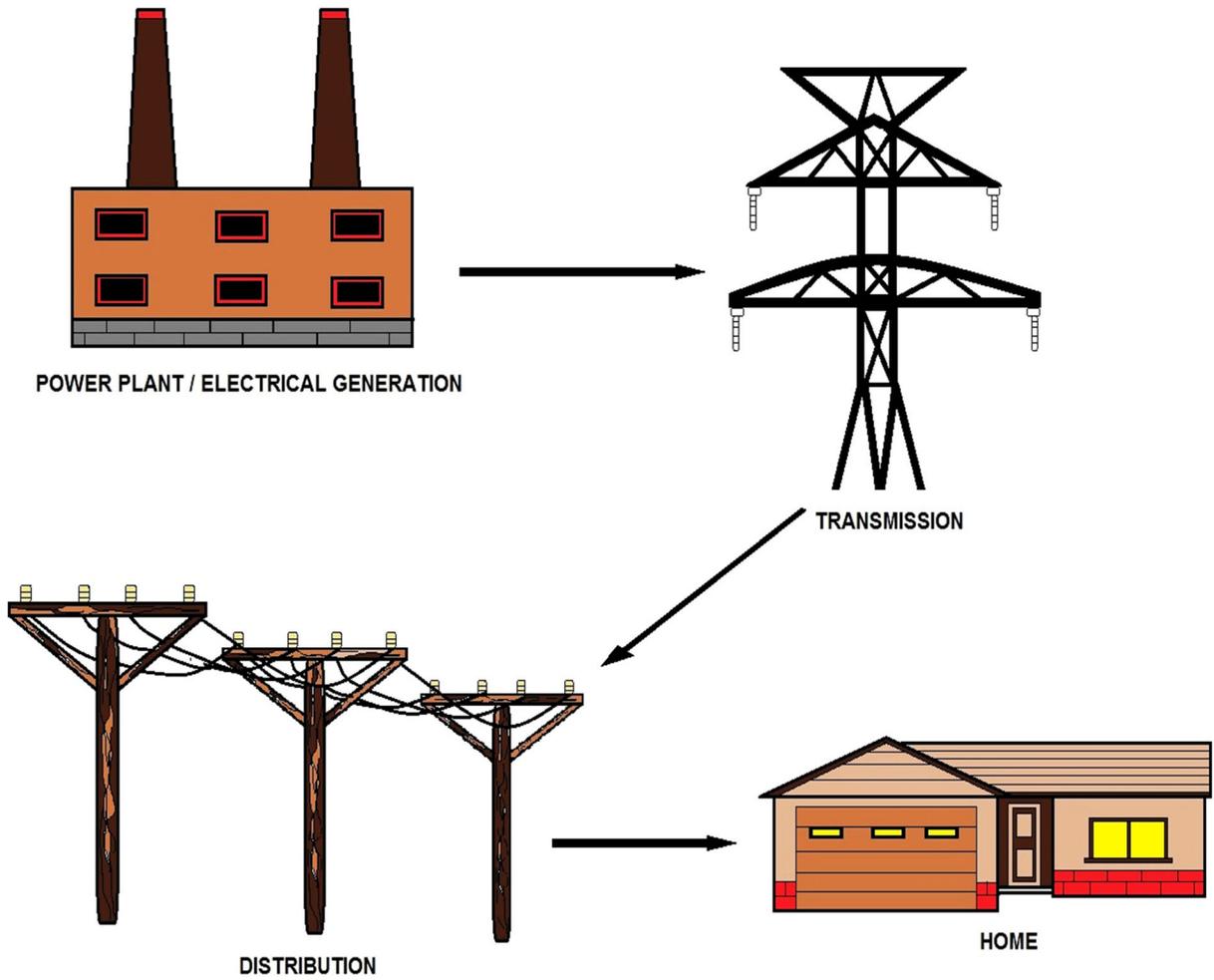
All electric motors, except very small ones such as chemical feed pumps, are equipped with starters, either full voltage or reduced voltage. This is because motors draw a much higher current when they are starting and gaining speed. The purpose of the reduced voltage starter is to prevent the load from coming on until the amperage is low enough.

Motor Enclosures

Depending on the application, motors may need special protection. Some motors are referred to as open motors. They allow air to pass through to remove heat generated when current passes through the windings. Other motors use specific enclosures for special environments or safety protection.

Can you think of any locations within your facility that requires special enclosures?





HOW ELECTRICITY GETS TO CONSUMERS (USERS)

Two Types of Totally Enclosed Motors Commonly Used

- ☞ **TENV**, or totally enclosed non-ventilated motor
- ☞ **TEFC**, or totally enclosed fan cooled motor

Totally enclosed motors include dust-proof, water-proof and explosion-proof motors. An explosion proof enclosure must be provided on any motor where dangerous gases might accumulate.

Motor Controls

All pump motors are provided with some method of control, typically a combination of manual and automatic. Manual pump controls can be located at the central control panel, at the pump, or at the suction or discharge points of the liquid being pumped.

There are a number of ways in which automatic control of a pump motor can be regulated:

- ☞ Pressure and vacuum sensors
- ☞ Preset time intervals
- ☞ Flow sensors
- ☞ Level sensors

Two typical level sensors are the float sensor and the bubbler regulator. The float sensor is pear-shaped and hangs in the wet well.

As the height increases, the float tilts, and the mercury in the glass tube flows toward the end of the tube that has two wires attached to it. When the mercury covers the wires, it closes the circuit.



For a bubbler level sensor, a low pressure air supply is allowed to escape from a bubbler pipe in the wet well. The back-pressure on the air supply will vary with the liquid level over the pipe. Sensitive air pressure switches will detect this change and use this information to control pump operation.

Motor Maintenance

Motors should be kept clean, free of moisture, and lubricated properly. Dirt, dust, and grime will plug the ventilating spaces and can actually form an insulating layer over the metal surface of the motor.

What condition would occur if the ventilation becomes blocked?



Moisture

Moisture harms the insulation on the windings to the point where they may no longer provide the required insulation for the voltage applied to the motor. In addition, moisture on windings tend to absorb acid and alkali fumes, causing damage to both insulation and metals. To reduce problems caused by moisture, the most suitable motor enclosure for the existing environment will normally be used. It is recommended to run stand by motors to dry up any condensation which accumulates in the motor.

Motor Lubrication

Friction will cause wear in all moving parts, and lubrication is needed to reduce this friction. It is very important that all your manufacturer's recommended lubrication procedures are strictly followed. You have to be careful not to add too much grease or oil, as this could cause more friction and generate heat.

To grease the motor bearings, this is the usual approach:

1. Remove the protective plugs and caps from the grease inlet and relief holes.
2. Pump grease in until fresh starts coming from the relief hole.

If fresh grease does not come out of the relief hole, this could mean that the grease has been pumped into the motor windings. The motor must then be taken apart and cleaned by a qualified service representative.

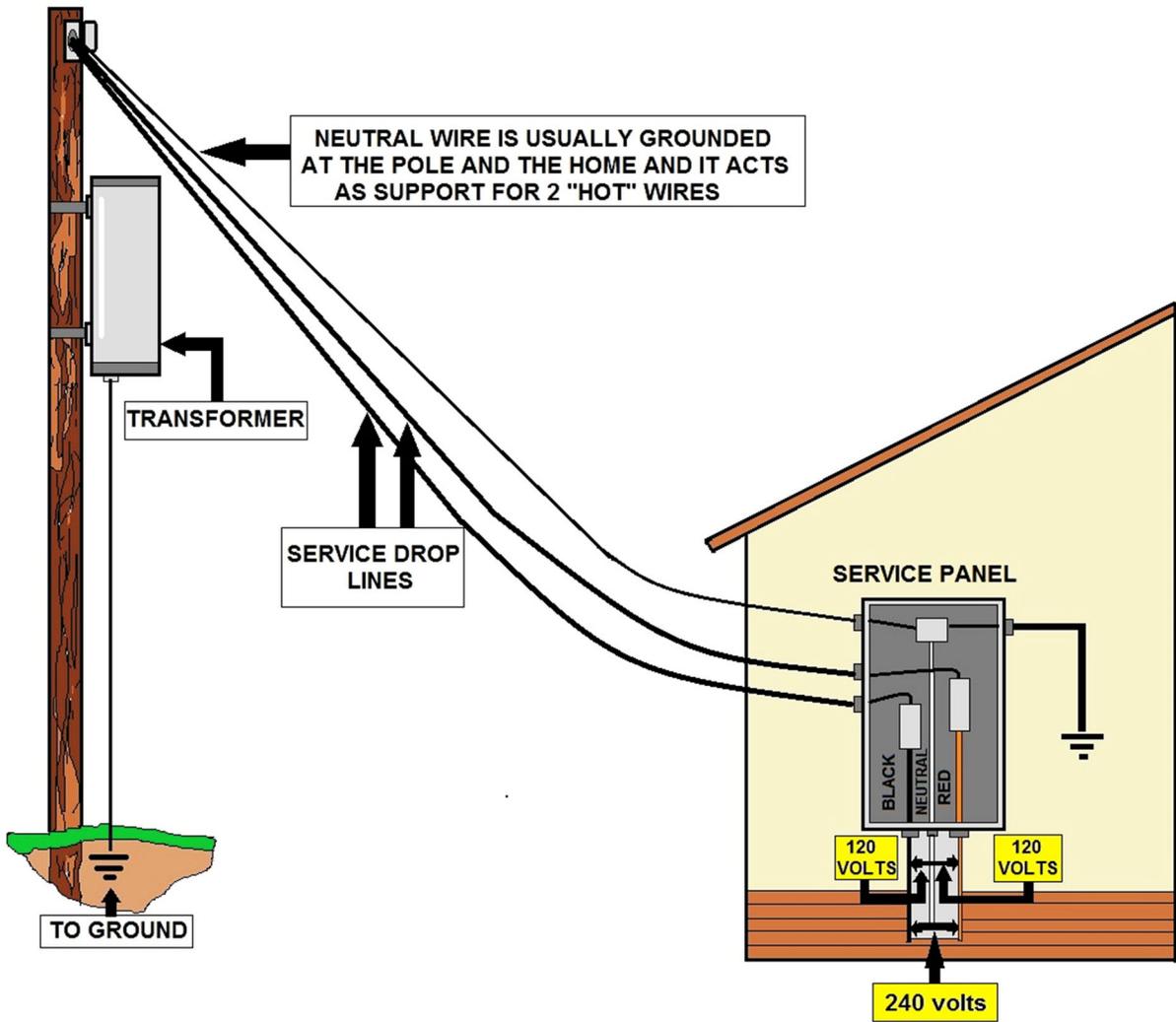
To change the oil in an oil lubricated motor, this is the usual approach:

1. Remove all plugs and let the oil drain.
2. Check for metal shearing (pieces of metal in the oil.)
3. Replace the oil drain.
4. Add new oil until it is up to the oil level plug.
5. Replace the oil level and filter plug.

Never mix oils, since the additives of different oils when combined can cause breakdown of the oil.

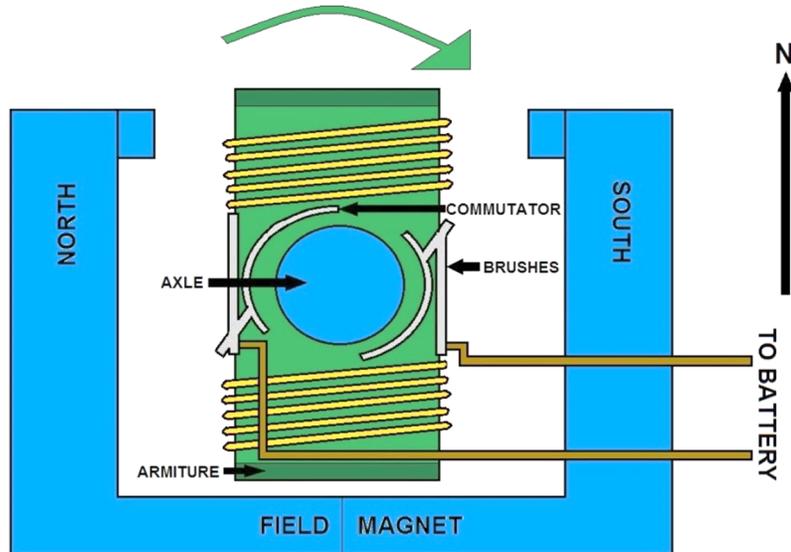
Type of Motor Commutation

Self-Commutated		Externally Commutated		
Mechanical-Commutator Motors		Electronic-Commutator (EC) Motors	Asynchronous Machines	Synchronous Machines
AC	DC	AC	AC	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Universal motor (AC commutator series motor or AC/DC motor) • Repulsion motor 	<p>Electrically excited DC motor:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Separately excited • Series • Shunt • Compound <p>PM DC motor</p>	<p>With PM rotor:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • BLDC motor <p>With ferromagnetic rotor:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SRM 	<p>Three-phase motors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • SCIM • WRIM <p>AC motors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacitor • Resistance • Split • Shaded-pole 	<p>Three-phase motors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WRSM • PMSM or BLAC motor <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ IPMSM ○ SPMSM • Hybrid <p>AC motors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Permanent-split capacitor • Hysteresis • Stepper • SyRM • SyRM-PM hybrid
Simple electronics	Rectifier, linear transistor(s) or DC chopper	More elaborate electronics	Most elaborate electronics (VFD), when provided	



**BASIC HOME ELECTRICITY
(120/240 VOLTS)**

Understanding Motors



The classic division of electric motors has been that of Direct Current (DC) types vs. Alternating Current (AC) types. This is more a de facto convention, rather than a rigid distinction. For example, many classic DC motors run happily on AC power.

The ongoing trend toward electronic control further muddles the distinction; as modern drivers have moved the commutator out of the motor shell. For this new breed of motor, driver circuits are relied upon to generate sinusoidal AC drive currents, or some approximation of. The two best examples are: the brushless DC motor and the stepping motor, both being polyphase AC motors requiring external electronic control.

There is a clearer distinction between a synchronous motor and asynchronous types. In the synchronous types, the rotor rotates in synchrony with the oscillating field or current (e.g. permanent magnet motors). In contrast, an asynchronous motor is designed to slip; the most ubiquitous example being the common AC induction motor which must slip in order to generate torque.

A DC motor is designed to run on DC electric power. Two examples of pure DC designs are Michael Faraday's homopolar motor (which is uncommon), and the ball bearing motor, which is (so far) a novelty. By far the most common DC motor types are the brushed and brushless types, which use internal and external commutation respectively to create an oscillating AC current from the DC source -- so they are not purely DC machines in a strict sense.

Brushed DC motors

The classic DC motor design generates an oscillating current in a wound rotor with a split ring commutator, and either a wound or permanent magnet stator. A rotor consists of a coil wound around a rotor which is then powered by any type of battery. Many of the limitations of the classic commutator DC motor are due to the need for brushes to press against the commutator. This creates friction.

At higher speeds, brushes have increasing difficulty in maintaining contact. Brushes may bounce off the irregularities in the commutator surface, creating sparks. This limits the maximum speed of the machine.

The current density per unit area of the brushes limits the output of the motor. The imperfect electric contact also causes electrical noise. Brushes eventually wear out and require replacement, and the commutator itself is subject to wear and maintenance. The commutator assembly on a large machine is a costly element, requiring precision assembly of many parts.

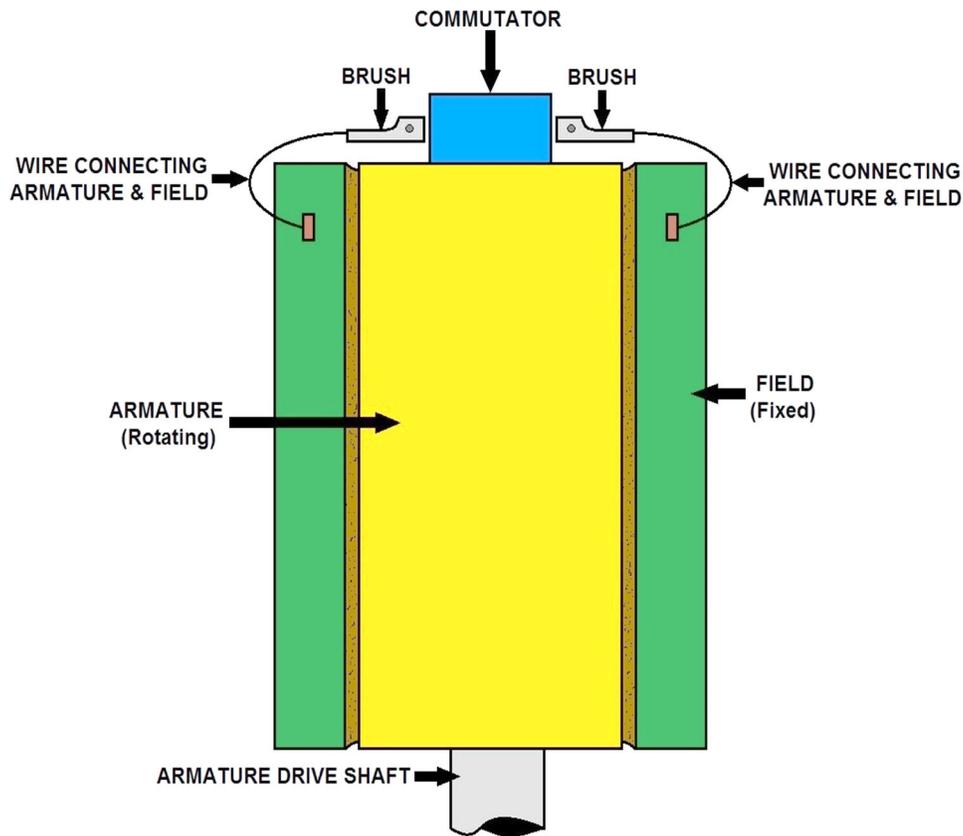


DIAGRAM SHOWING MECHANICAL CONSTRUCTION OF A DC SERIES WOUND MOTOR

Brushless DC Motors

Some of the problems of the brushed DC motor are eliminated in the brushless design. In this motor, the mechanical "rotating switch" or commutator/brush gear assembly is replaced by an external electronic switch synchronized to the rotor's position. Brushless motors are typically 85-90% efficient, whereas DC motors with brush gear are typically 75-80% efficient.

Midway between ordinary DC motors and stepper motors lies the realm of the brushless DC motor. Built in a fashion very similar to stepper motors, these often use a permanent magnet external rotor, three phases of driving coils, one or more Hall Effect sensors to sense the position of the rotor, and the associated drive electronics.

The coils are activated one phase after the other by the drive electronics, as cued by the signals from the Hall effect sensors. In effect, they act as three-phase synchronous motors containing their own variable-frequency drive electronics. Brushless DC motors are commonly used where precise speed control is necessary, as in computer disk drives or in video cassette recorders, the spindles within CD, CD-ROM (etc.) drives, and mechanisms within office products such as fans, laser printers, and photocopiers.

They have several advantages over conventional motors:

- * Compared to AC fans using shaded-pole motors, they are very efficient, running much cooler than the equivalent AC motors. This cool operation leads to much-improved life of the fan's bearings.
- * Without a commutator to wear out, the life of a DC brushless motor can be significantly longer compared to a DC motor using brushes and a commutator. Commutation also tends to cause a great deal of electrical and RF noise; without a commutator or brushes, a brushless motor may be used in electrically sensitive devices like audio equipment or computers.
- * The same Hall Effect sensors that provide the commutation can also provide a convenient tachometer signal for closed-loop control (servo-controlled) applications. In fans, the tachometer signal can be used to derive a "fan OK" signal.
- * The motor can be easily synchronized to an internal or external clock, leading to precise speed control.
- * Brushless motors have no chance of sparking, unlike brushed motors, making them better suited to environments with volatile chemicals and fuels.
- * Brushless motors are usually used in small equipment such as computers, and are generally used to get rid of unwanted heat.
- * They are also very quiet motors, which is an advantage if being used in equipment that is affected by vibrations.

Modern DC brushless motors range in power from a fraction of a watt to many kilowatts. Larger brushless motors up to about 100 kW rating are used in electric vehicles. They also find significant use in high-performance electric model aircraft.

Coreless DC Motors

Nothing in the design of any of the motors described above requires that the iron (steel) portions of the rotor actually rotate; torque is exerted only on the windings of the electromagnets. Taking advantage of this fact is the coreless DC motor, a specialized form of a brush or brushless DC motor. Optimized for rapid acceleration, these motors have a rotor that is constructed without any iron core. The rotor can take the form of a winding-filled cylinder inside the stator magnets, a basket surrounding the stator magnets, or a flat pancake (possibly formed on a printed wiring board) running between upper and lower stator magnets.

The windings are typically stabilized by being impregnated with electrical epoxy potting systems. Filled epoxies that have moderate mixed viscosity and a long gel time. These systems are highlighted by low shrinkage and low exotherm.

Because the rotor is much lighter in weight (mass) than a conventional rotor formed from copper windings on steel laminations, the rotor can accelerate much more rapidly, often achieving a mechanical time constant under 1 ms. This is especially true if the windings use aluminum rather than the heavier copper. But because there is no metal mass in the rotor to act as a heat sink, even small coreless motors must often be cooled by forced air.

These motors were commonly used to drive the capstan(s) of magnetic tape drives and are still widely used in high-performance servo-controlled systems, like radio-controlled vehicles/aircraft, humanoid robotic systems, industrial automation, medical devices, etc.

Universal Motors

A variant of the wound field DC motor is the universal motor. The name derives from the fact that it may use AC or DC supply current, although in practice they are nearly always used with AC supplies.

The principle is that in a wound field DC motor the current in both the field and the armature (and hence the resultant magnetic fields) will alternate (reverse polarity) at the same time, and hence the mechanical force generated is always in the same direction. In practice, the motor must be specially designed to cope with the AC current (impedance must be taken into account, as must the pulsating force), and the resultant motor is generally less efficient than an equivalent pure DC motor.

Operating at normal power line frequencies, the maximum output of universal motors is limited and motors exceeding one kilowatt are rare. But universal motors also form the basis of the traditional railway traction motor in electric railways. In this application, to keep their electrical efficiency high, they were operated from very low frequency AC supplies, with 25 Hz and 16 2/3 hertz operation being common. Because they are universal motors, locomotives using this design were also commonly capable of operating from a third rail powered by DC.

The advantage of the universal motor is that AC supplies may be used on motors which have the typical characteristics of DC motors, specifically high starting torque and very compact design if high running speeds are used. The negative aspect is the maintenance and short life problems caused by the commutator. As a result, such motors are usually used in AC devices such as food mixers and power tools which are used only intermittently.

Continuous speed control of a universal motor running on AC is very easily accomplished using a thyristor circuit, while stepped speed control can be accomplished using multiple taps on the field coil. Household blenders that advertise many speeds frequently combine a field coil with several taps and a diode that can be inserted in series with the motor (causing the motor to run on half-wave rectified AC).

AC Motor Sub-Section

In 1882, Nicola Tesla identified the rotating magnetic field principle, and pioneered the use of a rotary field of force to operate machines. He exploited the principle to design a unique two-phase induction motor in 1883. In 1885, Galileo Ferraris independently researched the concept. In 1888, Ferraris published his research in a paper to the Royal Academy of Sciences in Turin.

Introduction of Tesla's motor from 1888 onwards initiated what is sometimes referred to as the Second Industrial Revolution, making possible the efficient generation and long distance distribution of electrical energy using the alternating current transmission system, also of Tesla's invention (1888). Before the invention of the rotating magnetic field, motors operated by continually passing a conductor through a stationary magnetic field (as in homopolar motors). Tesla had suggested that the commutators from a machine could be removed and the device could operate on a rotary field of force. Professor Poeschel, his teacher, stated that would be akin to building a perpetual motion machine.

Components

A typical AC motor consists of two parts:

1. An outside stationary stator having coils supplied with AC current to produce a rotating magnetic field, and;
2. An inside rotor attached to the output shaft that is given a torque by the rotating field.

Torque motors

A torque motor is a specialized form of induction motor which is capable of operating indefinitely at stall (with the rotor blocked from turning) without damage. In this mode, the motor will apply a steady stall torque to the load (hence the name).

A common application of a torque motor would be the supply- and take-up reel motors in a tape drive. In this application, driven from a low voltage, the characteristics of these motors allow a relatively-constant light tension to be applied to the tape whether or not the capstan is feeding tape past the tape heads.

Driven from a higher voltage, (and so delivering a higher torque), the torque motors can also achieve fast-forward and rewind operation without requiring any additional mechanics such as gears or clutches. In the computer world, torque motors are used with force feedback steering wheels.

Slip Ring

The slip ring or wound rotor motor is an induction machine where the rotor comprises a set of coils that are terminated in slip rings to which external impedances can be connected. The stator is the same as is used with a standard squirrel cage motor. By changing the impedance connected to the rotor circuit, the speed/current and speed/torque curves can be altered.

The slip ring motor is used primarily to start a high inertia load or a load that requires a very high starting torque across the full speed range. By correctly selecting the resistors used in the secondary resistance or slip ring starter, the motor is able to produce maximum torque at a relatively low current from zero speed to full speed. A secondary use of the slip ring motor is to provide a means of speed control.

Because the torque curve of the motor is effectively modified by the resistance connected to the rotor circuit, the speed of the motor can be altered. Increasing the value of resistance on the rotor circuit will move the speed of maximum torque down.

If the resistance connected to the rotor is increased beyond the point where the maximum torque occurs at zero speed, the torque will be further reduced. When used with a load that has a torque curve that increases with speed, the motor will operate at the speed where the torque developed by the motor is equal to the load torque.

Reducing the load will cause the motor to speed up, and increasing the load will cause the motor to slow down until the load and motor torque are equal. Operated in this manner, the slip losses are dissipated in the secondary resistors and can be very significant. The speed regulation is also very poor.

Stepper Motors

Closely related in design to three-phase AC synchronous motors are stepper motors, where an internal rotor containing permanent magnets or a large iron core with salient poles is controlled by a set of external magnets that are switched electronically.

A stepper motor may also be thought of as a cross between a DC electric motor and a solenoid. As each coil is energized in turn, the rotor aligns itself with the magnetic field produced by the energized field winding.

Unlike a synchronous motor, in its application, the motor may not rotate continuously; instead, it "steps" from one position to the next as field windings are energized and de-energized in sequence. Depending on the sequence, the rotor may turn forwards or backwards.

Simple stepper motor drivers entirely energize or entirely de-energize the field windings, leading the rotor to "cog" to a limited number of positions; more sophisticated drivers can proportionally control the power to the field windings, allowing the rotors to position between the cog points and thereby rotate extremely smoothly.

Computer controlled stepper motors are one of the most versatile forms of positioning systems, particularly when part of a digital servo-controlled system.

Stepper motors can be rotated to a specific angle with ease, and hence stepper motors are used in pre-gigabyte era computer disk drives, where the precision they offered was adequate for the correct positioning of the read/write head of a hard disk drive. As drive density increased, the precision limitations of stepper motors made them obsolete for hard drives, thus newer hard disk drives use read/write head control systems based on voice coils. Stepper motors were upscaled to be used in electric vehicles under the term SRM (switched reluctance machine).

Motor Review

Reviewing D-C Motors

DC motors have been available for nearly 100 years. In fact, the first electric motors were designed and built for operation from direct current power. AC motors are the basic prime movers for the fixed speed requirements of industry. Their basic simplicity, dependability and ruggedness make AC motors the natural choice for the vast majority of industrial drive applications.

An electric motor can be configured as a solenoid, a stepper motor or a rotational machine. This article covers the DC rotational machine. In all DC rotational machines, there are six components that comprise the electric motor: axle, rotor or armature, stator, commutator, field magnets and brushes.

In order to understand how a direct current (DC) electric motor operates, a few basic principles must be understood. Just as in Faraday's experiment, the DC motor works with magnetic fields and electrical current. Centuries ago it was discovered that a stone found in Asia, referred to as a lodestone, and had an unusual property that would transfer an invisible force to an iron object when the stone was rubbed against it. These lodestones were found to align with the earth's north-south axis when freely hanging on a string or floated on water, and this property aided early explorers in navigating around the earth.

It was understood later that this stone was a permanent magnet with a field that had two poles of opposite effect, referred to as north and south. The magnetic fields, just like electric charges, have forces that are opposite in their effects.

Electric charges are either positive or negative, whereas magnetic fields have a north-south orientation. When magnetic fields are aligned at opposite or dissimilar poles, they'll exert considerable forces of attraction with one another, and when aligned at like or similar poles, they'll strongly repel one another.

The magnetic field will pull or put a force upon a ferrous (magnetic) material. If iron particles are sprinkled on a paper sheet over a permanent magnet, the alignment of the iron particles maps the magnetic field, which shows that this field leaves one pole and enters the other pole with the force field being unbroken. As with any kind of field (electric, magnetic or gravitational), the total quantity, or effect, of the field is referred to as the flux, while the push causing the flux to form in space is called a force. This magnetic force field is comprised of many lines of flux, all starting at one pole and returning to the other pole.

Modern Theory of Magnetism

The modern theory of magnetism states that a magnetic field is produced by an electric charge in motion. When an electric charge is in motion, the electrons orbiting the atom are forced to align and uniformly spin in the same direction. The more atoms uniformly spinning in the same direction, the stronger the force of the magnetic field. When billions of atoms have orbits spinning in the same direction and the material is capable of holding the atoms' orbits, a permanent magnet is created.

When two powerful permanent magnets are moved in close proximity to one another, it's evident that a very real force is exerted that can provide the potential for work to be done. For work to be accomplished, the relationship between the magnetic fields must be controlled properly.

The trick here is to control the magnetic fields by a means other than just using the permanent magnet. This can be accomplished by producing a magnetic field with an electrical conductor that has current flowing through it.

Nearly all electric motors exploit the use of a current-carrying conductor to create mechanical work. When current is flowing through a conductor and the electric charge is in motion, the electrons orbiting the atoms are forced to align and uniformly spin in the same direction. This creates a magnetic field that forms around the conductor. The larger the current flowing through the conductor, the more atoms are forced to align and rotate in a uniform direction.

This rotational alignment of the atoms increases the strength of the magnetic field. However, if one were to place a conductor with current flowing through it near a permanent magnet, he would be disappointed by how feeble this force is. What's needed is a way to amplify the magnetic force field. This is accomplished by taking the conductor wire and making many turns or wraps to produce a winding. Converting the conductor from a single, isolated straight wire to one that contains many turns forming a winding amplifies the magnetic force many times. The amount of magnetic field amplification is based on the number of turns in the winding and the amount of current flowing through the conductor.

In this configuration, the magnetic flux is moving through air, which is a poor conductor of magnetic energy, thus allowing the magnetic flux to spread out over a very wide area. Therefore, the reluctance from the magnetic field when moving through air is quite high. Reluctance is a measure of how difficult it is for the magnetic flux to complete its circuit—that is, to leave one pole and enter the opposite pole. If the magnetic flux is kept close to the magnet, it has less resistance or opposition to flow.

Magnetic Principles and Motor Theory

All machine designs involving rotating equipment ultimately rely on theory to guide the engineer's application choices. Hence, a very brief review of magnetic principles and motor theory is always a convenient starting point for any discussion of DC motor applications. The laws of physics have blessed the world of machine design with the existence of magnetism, which is the foundation of motor theory. In essence, magnets, permanent or electromagnetic, produce fields of magnetic flux. These magnetic fields can produce an induced EMF through a coil of wire when relative movement between the field and a current carrying conductor occurs; and if this movement is reversed, so is the direction of the magnetic field, according to Faraday's Law. Thus, in theory, motor action or torque is produced when electrical energy is applied to conductor in a changing magnetic field, causing current flow in the conductor, generating both an induced EMF and a CEMF (Lenz's Law) resulting in rotational or mechanical energy.

DC Motors: Physical and Functional Descriptions

DC motors are commonly used in industrial machinery because of their inherent advantages—good speed control, high starting torque, reliable control methodology—which generally outweigh the increased maintenance costs associated with them.

Construction

The generic DC motor is constructed with armature and field windings, interpoles, a frame or stator, a segmented commutator, a brush assembly and end bells. The rotating armature winding is wound on a laminated core, mounted on a steel shaft, supported by shaft bearings, and is connected to the segmented commutator that receives external DC power through the brush assembly.

Brushes conduct the current from external DC power circuit to the commutator and finally to the armature windings. The frame or stator supports the field windings and interpoles. The end bells encase all the parts of the motor into one unit.

Operation

DC motors produce torque and mechanical motion due to the interaction of the magnetic fields of the rotating armature coil and the stationary field coil mounted on the frame. The changing magnetic field of the armature is possible through the use of electrically conductive carbon brushes, which ride on the segmented, commutator ring; external DC power is applied to the brushes through the commutator to the armature windings. As current flows through the armature coil, a magnetic field results. The field windings mounted on the frame, also set up a magnetic field. After the rotating armature passes through half of a complete rotation, the commutator switches the direction of the current flow, thereby changing the direction of the magnetic field in the armature winding. This change produces opposing magnetic fields and sustains torque and rotation through the next half cycle of rotation until the commutator changes the direction of current flow and the magnetic field again.

Types

The field and armature windings of DC motors can be connected in series, shunt (parallel) or series-shunt to achieve different kinds of speed-torque characteristics. Hence, the three general categories of wound field DC motors are shunt-wound, series-wound and compound-wound. In series-wound motors, the armature is connected in series with the field to provide high starting torque; however, they do not operate at no-load: when speed decreases, torque increases, which can create a possibly unsafe runaway condition. In shunt wound motors, the armature and field are connected in parallel. This wiring arrangement produces an inverse speed-torque relationship: as speed increases, torque decreases. The compound-wound is a combination of a series- and shunt-wound motor by placing the field winding in series with the armature in addition to a shunt field. This type offers a combination of good starting torque and speed control.

Brushless motors are a hybrid type of DC motor that does not use a commutator. Rather, it is constructed with a permanent magnet rotor, optical shaft encoder that gives positional feedback information, a DC controller that excites the phase of stator windings required to develop torque based upon the encoder's feedback. Brushless motors characteristically have high maximum operating speeds, high torque to weight ratios and are compact in design (fractional horsepower). They are typically used in robotic arm applications.

Associated Solid State Controls

In order to supply the answer, it is necessary to examine some of the basic characteristics obtainable from DC motors and their associated solid state controls.

1. Wide speed range.
2. Good speed regulation.
3. Compact size and light weight (relative to mechanical variable speed).
4. Ease of control.
5. Low maintenance.
6. Low cost.

In order to realize how a DC drive has the capability to provide the above characteristics, the DC drive has to be analyzed as two elements that make up the package. These two elements are of course the motor and the control. (The "control" is more accurately called the "regulator").

Basic DC motors as used on nearly all packaged drives have a very simple performance characteristic the shaft turns at a speed almost directly proportional to the voltage applied to the armature.

External Adjustment

In addition to the normal external adjustment such as the speed potentiometer. there are a number of common internal adjustments that are used on simple small analog type SCR Drives (Silicon Controlled Rectifier Drive). Some of these adjustments are as follows:

- ✓ Minimum Speed
- ✓ Maximum Speed
- ✓ Current Limit (Torque Limit) . IR Compensation
- ✓ Acceleration Time . Deceleration Time

The following is a description of the function that these individual adjustments serve and their typical use.

Minimum Speed

In most cases when the control is initially installed the speed potentiometer can be turned down to its lowest point and the output voltage from the control will go to zero causing the motor to stop. There are many situations where this is not desirable. For example, there are some machines that want to be kept running at a minimum speed and accelerated up to operating speed as necessary. There is also a possibility that an operator may use the speed potentiometer to stop the motor to work on the machine.

This can be a dangerous situation since the motor has only been brought to a stop by zeroing the input signal voltage. A more desirable situation is when the motor is stopped by opening the circuit to the motor or power to the control using the on/off switch. By adjusting the minimum speed up to some point where the motor continues to run even with the speed potentiometer set to its lowest point, the operator must shut the control off to stop the motor. This adds a little safety into the system. The typical minimum speed adjustment is from 0 to 30% of motor base speed.

Maximum Speed

The maximum speed adjustment sets the maximum speed attainable either by raising the input signal to its maximum point or turning the potentiometer to the maximum point. For example, on a typical DC motor the rated speed of the motor might 1750 RPM but the control might be capable of running it up to 1850 or 1900 RPM.

In some cases, it's desirable to limit the motor (and machine speed) to something less than would be available at this maximum setting. The maximum adjustment allows this to be done. By turning the internal potentiometer to a lower point the maximum output voltage from the control is limited. This limits the maximum speed available from the motor. In typical controls such as our BC140 the range of adjustment on the maximum speed is from 50 to 110% of motor base speed.

Current Limit

One very nice feature of electronic speed controls is that the current going to the motor is constantly monitored by the control. As mentioned previously, the current drawn by the armature of the DC motor is related to the torque that is required by the load.

Since this monitoring and control is available an adjustment is provided in the control that limits the output current to a maximum value.

This function can be used to set a threshold point that will cause the motor to stall rather than putting out an excessive amount of torque. This capability gives the motor/control combination the ability to prevent damage that might otherwise occur if higher values of torque were available. This is handy on machines that might become jammed or otherwise stalled. It can also be used where the control is operating a device such as the center winder where the important thing becomes torque rather than the speed. In this case the current limit is set and the speed goes up or down to hold the tension of the material being wound. The current limit is normally factory set at 150% of the motor's rated current. This allows the motor to produce enough torque to start and accelerate the load and yet will not let the current (and torque) exceed 150% of its rated value when running. The range of adjustment is typically from 0 to 200% of the motor rated current.

IR Compensation

IR compensation is a method used to adjust for the droop in a motor's speed due to armature resistance. As mentioned previously, IR compensation is positive feedback that causes the control output voltage to rise slightly with increasing output current. This will help stabilize the motor's speed from a no load to full load condition. If the motor happens to be driving a load where the torque is constant or nearly so, then this adjustment is usually unnecessary. However, if the motor is driving a load with a widely fluctuating torque requirement, and speed regulation is critical, then IR compensation can be adjusted to stabilize the speed from the light load to full load condition. One caution is that when IR compensation is adjusted too high it results in an increasing speed characteristic. This means that as the load is applied the motor is actually going to be forced to run faster. When this happens it increases the voltage and current to the motor which in turn increases the motor speed further. If this adjustment is set too high an unstable "hunting" or oscillating condition occurs that is undesirable.

Acceleration Time Adjustment

The Acceleration Time adjustment performs the function that is indicated by its name. It will extend or shorten the amount of time for the motor to go from zero speed up to the set speed. It also regulates the time it takes to change speeds from one setting (say 50%) to another setting (perhaps 100%). So this setting has the ability to moderate the acceleration rate on the drive.

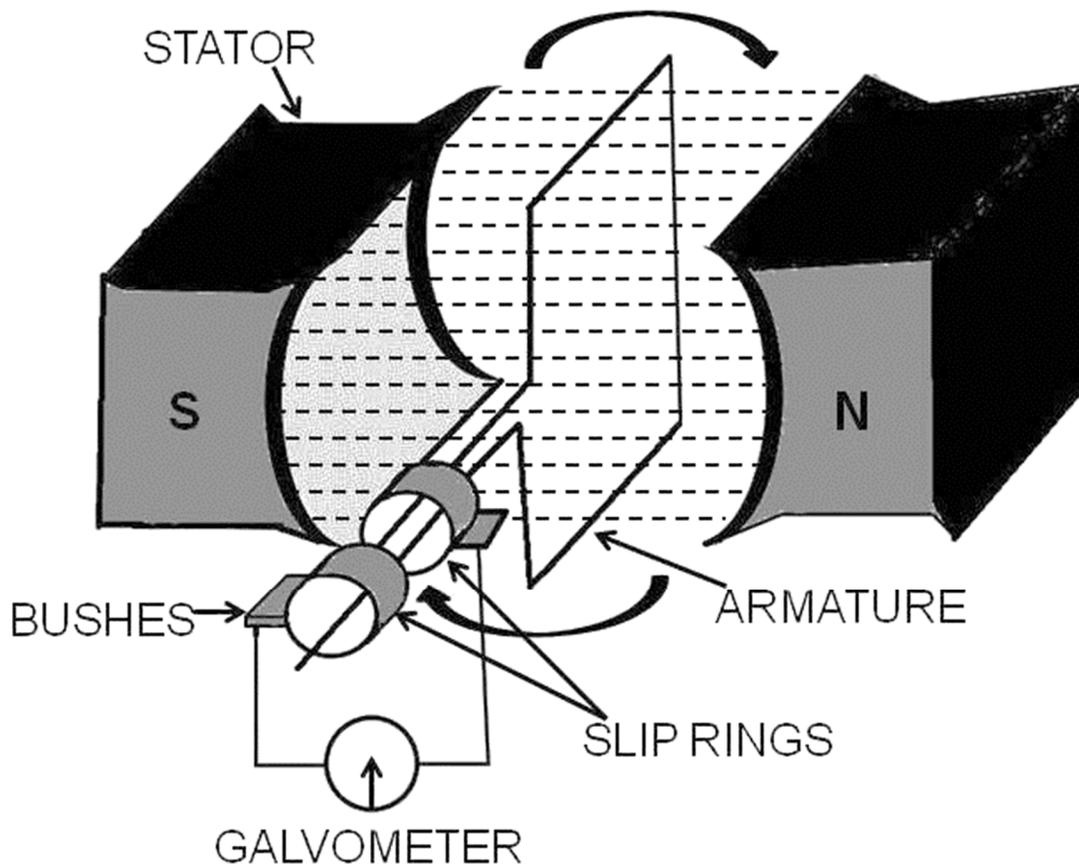
A couple notes are important: if an acceleration time that is too rapid is called for "acceleration time" will be overridden by the current limit. Acceleration will only occur at a rate that is allowed by the amount of current the control passes through to the motor. Also important to note is that on most small controls the acceleration time is not linear. What this means is that a change of 50 RPM may occur more rapidly when the motor is at low speed than it does when the motor is approaching the set point speed. This is important to know but usually not critical on simple applications where these drives are used.

Deceleration Time

This is an adjustment that allows loads to be slowed over an extended period of time. For example, if power is removed from the motor and the load stops in 3 seconds, then the decel time adjustment would allow you "to increase that time and "power down" the load over a period of 4, 5, 6 or more seconds. Note: On a conventional simple DC drive it will not allow for the shortening of the time below the "coast to rest" time.

Adjustment Summary

The ability to adjust these six adjustments gives great flexibility to the typical inexpensive DC drive. In most cases the factory preset settings are adequate and need not be changed, but on other applications it may be desirable to tailor the characteristics of the control to the specific application. Many of these adjustments are available in other types of controls, such as variable frequency drives.



PRODUCTION OF AC CURRENT DIAGRAM

Reviewing A-C Motors

AC Motor History

In 1882, Nikola Tesla discovered the rotating magnetic field, and pioneered the use of a rotary field of force to operate machines. He exploited the principle to design a unique two-phase induction motor in 1883. In 1885, Galileo Ferraris independently researched the concept. In 1888, Ferraris published his research in a paper to the Royal Academy of Sciences in Turin. Tesla had suggested that the commutators from a machine could be removed and the device could operate on a rotary field of force. Professor Poeschel, his teacher, stated that would be akin to building a perpetual motion machine.

Michail Osipovich Dolivo-Dobrovolsky later developed a three-phase "cage-rotor" in 1890. This type of motor is now used for the vast majority of commercial applications.

An AC motor has two parts: a stationary stator having coils supplied with alternating current to produce a rotating magnetic field, and a rotor attached to the output shaft that is given a torque by the rotating field.

AC Motor with Sliding Rotor

A conical-rotor brake motor incorporates the brake as an integral part of the conical sliding rotor. When the motor is at rest, a spring acts on the sliding rotor and forces the brake ring against the brake cap in the motor, holding the rotor stationary. When the motor is energized, its magnetic field generates both an axial and a radial component. The axial component overcomes the spring force, releasing the brake; while the radial component causes the rotor to turn. There is no additional brake control required.

Synchronous Electric Motor

A synchronous electric motor is an AC motor distinguished by a rotor spinning with coils passing magnets at the same rate as the alternating current and resulting magnetic field which drives it. Another way of saying this is that it has zero slip under usual operating conditions. Contrast this with an induction motor, which must slip to produce torque. One type of synchronous motor is like an induction motor except the rotor is excited by a DC field. Slip rings and brushes are used to conduct current to the rotor. The rotor poles connect to each other and move at the same speed hence the name synchronous motor.

Another type, for low load torque, has flats ground onto a conventional squirrel-cage rotor to create discrete poles. Yet another, such as made by Hammond for its pre-World War II clocks, and in the older Hammond organs, has no rotor windings and discrete poles. It is not self-starting. The clock requires manual starting by a small knob on the back, while the older Hammond organs had an auxiliary starting motor connected by a spring-loaded manually operated switch.

Finally, hysteresis synchronous motors typically are (essentially) two-phase motors with a phase-shifting capacitor for one phase. They start like induction motors, but when slip rate decreases sufficiently, the rotor (a smooth cylinder) becomes temporarily magnetized.

Its distributed poles make it act like a permanent-magnet-rotor synchronous motor. The rotor material, like that of a common nail, will stay magnetized, but can also be demagnetized with little difficulty. Once running, the rotor poles stay in place; they do not drift.

Low-power synchronous timing motors (such as those for traditional electric clocks) may have multi-pole permanent-magnet external cup rotors, and use shading coils to provide starting

torque. Telechron clock motors have shaded poles for starting torque, and a two-spoke ring rotor that performs like a discrete two-pole rotor.

Induction Motor

An induction motor is an asynchronous AC motor where power is transferred to the rotor by electromagnetic induction, much like transformer action. An induction motor resembles a rotating transformer, because the stator (stationary part) is essentially the primary side of the transformer and the rotor (rotating part) is the secondary side. Polyphase induction motors are widely used in industry.

Induction motors may be further divided into squirrel-cage motors and wound-rotor motors. Squirrel-cage motors have a heavy winding made up of solid bars, usually aluminum or copper, joined by rings at the ends of the rotor. When one considers only the bars and rings as a whole, they are much like an animal's rotating exercise cage, hence the name.

Currents induced into this winding provide the rotor magnetic field. The shape of the rotor bars determines the speed-torque characteristics. At low speeds, the current induced in the squirrel cage is nearly at line frequency and tends to be in the outer parts of the rotor cage. As the motor accelerates, the slip frequency becomes lower, and more current is in the interior of the winding. By shaping the bars to change the resistance of the winding portions in the interior and outer parts of the cage, effectively a variable resistance is inserted in the rotor circuit. However, the majority of such motors have uniform bars.

In a wound-rotor motor, the rotor winding is made of many turns of insulated wire and is connected to slip rings on the motor shaft. An external resistor or other control devices can be connected in the rotor circuit. Resistors allow control of the motor speed, although significant power is dissipated in the external resistance. A converter can be fed from the rotor circuit and return the slip-frequency power that would otherwise be wasted back into the power system through an inverter or separate motor-generator.

The wound-rotor induction motor is used primarily to start a high inertia load or a load that requires a very high starting torque across the full speed range. By correctly selecting the resistors used in the secondary resistance or slip ring starter, the motor is able to produce maximum torque at a relatively low supply current from zero speed to full speed. This type of motor also offers controllable speed.

Motor speed can be changed because the torque curve of the motor is effectively modified by the amount of resistance connected to the rotor circuit. Increasing the value of resistance will move the speed of maximum torque down. If the resistance connected to the rotor is increased beyond the point where the maximum torque occurs at zero speed, the torque will be further reduced.

When used with a load that has a torque curve that increases with speed, the motor will operate at the speed where the torque developed by the motor is equal to the load torque. Reducing the load will cause the motor to speed up, and increasing the load will cause the motor to slow down until the load and motor torque are equal. Operated in this manner, the slip losses are dissipated in the secondary resistors and can be very significant.

The speed regulation and net efficiency is also very poor. Various regulatory authorities in many countries have introduced and implemented legislation to encourage the manufacture and use of higher efficiency electric motors.

Doubly Fed Electric Motor

Doubly fed electric motors have two independent multiphase winding sets, which contribute active (i.e., working) power to the energy conversion process, with at least one of the winding sets electronically controlled for variable speed operation. Two independent multiphase winding sets (i.e., dual armature) are the maximum provided in a single package without topology duplication. Doubly fed electric motors are machines with an effective constant torque speed range that is twice synchronous speed for a given frequency of excitation. This is twice the constant torque speed range as singly fed electric machines, which have only one active winding set.

A doubly fed motor allows for a smaller electronic converter but the cost of the rotor winding and slip rings may offset the saving in the power electronics components. Difficulties with controlling speed near synchronous speed limit applications.

Singly Fed Electric Motor

Most AC motors are singly fed. Singly fed electric motors have a single multiphase winding set that is connected to a power supply. Singly fed electric machines may be either induction or synchronous. The active winding set can be electronically controlled. Singly fed electric machines have an effective constant torque speed range up to synchronous speed for a given excitation frequency.

Torque Motors

A torque motor (also known as a limited torque motor) is a specialized form of induction motor which is capable of operating indefinitely while stalled, that is, with the rotor blocked from turning, without incurring damage. In this mode of operation, the motor will apply a steady torque to the load (hence the name).

A common application of a torque motor would be the supply- and take-up reel motors in a tape drive. In this application, driven from a low voltage, the characteristics of these motors allow a relatively constant light tension to be applied to the tape whether or not the capstan is feeding tape past the tape heads. Driven from a higher voltage, (and so delivering a higher torque), the torque motors can also achieve fast-forward and rewind operation without requiring any additional mechanics such as gears or clutches. In the computer gaming world, torque motors are used in force feedback steering wheels.

Another common application is the control of the throttle of an internal combustion engine in conjunction with an electronic governor. In this usage, the motor works against a return spring to move the throttle in accordance with the output of the governor. The latter monitors engine speed by counting electrical pulses from the ignition system or from a magnetic pickup and, depending on the speed, makes small adjustments to the amount of current applied to the motor.

If the engine starts to slow down relative to the desired speed, the current will be increased, the motor will develop more torque, pulling against the return spring and opening the throttle. Should the engine run too fast, the governor will reduce the current being applied to the motor, causing the return spring to pull back and close the throttle.

Stepper Motors

Closely related in design to three-phase AC synchronous motors are stepper motors, where an internal rotor containing permanent magnets or a magnetically soft rotor with salient poles is controlled by a set of external magnets that are switched electronically. A stepper motor may also be thought of as a cross between a DC electric motor and a rotary solenoid. As each coil is energized in turn, the rotor aligns itself with the magnetic field produced by the energized field winding. Unlike a synchronous motor, in its application, the stepper motor may not rotate continuously; instead, it "steps"—starts and then quickly stops again—from one position to the next as field windings are energized and de-energized in sequence. Depending on the sequence, the rotor may turn forwards or backwards, and it may change direction, stop, speed up or slow down arbitrarily at any time.

Simple stepper motor drivers entirely energize or entirely de-energize the field windings, leading the rotor to "cog" to a limited number of positions; more sophisticated drivers can proportionally control the power to the field windings, allowing the rotors to position between the cog points and thereby rotate extremely smoothly. This mode of operation is often called microstepping. Computer controlled stepper motors are one of the most versatile forms of positioning systems, particularly when part of a digital servo-controlled system.

Stepper motors can be rotated to a specific angle in discrete steps with ease, and hence stepper motors are used for read/write head positioning in computer floppy diskette drives. They were used for the same purpose in pre-gigabyte era computer disk drives, where the precision and speed they offered was adequate for the correct positioning of the read/write head of a hard disk drive.

As drive density increased, the precision and speed limitations of stepper motors made them obsolete for hard drives—the precision limitation made them unusable, and the speed limitation made them uncompetitive—thus newer hard disk drives use voice coil-based head actuator systems. (The term "voice coil" in this connection is historic; it refers to the structure in a typical (cone type) loudspeaker. This structure was used for a while to position the heads. Modern drives have a pivoted coil mount; the coil swings back and forth, something like a blade of a rotating fan. Nevertheless, like a voice coil, modern actuator coil conductors (the magnet wire) move perpendicular to the magnetic lines of force.)

Stepper motors were and still are often used in computer printers, optical scanners, and digital photocopiers to move the optical scanning element, the print head carriage (of dot matrix and inkjet printers), and the platen or feed rollers. Likewise, many computer plotters (which since the early 1990s have been replaced with large-format inkjet and laser printers) used rotary stepper motors for pen and platen movement; the typical alternatives here were either linear stepper motors or servomotors with closed-loop analog control systems.

So-called quartz analog wristwatches contain the smallest commonplace stepping motors; they have one coil, draw very little power, and have a permanent-magnet rotor. The same kind of motor drives battery-powered quartz clocks. Some of these watches, such as chronographs, contain more than one stepping motor.

Rotary Motor

Uses include rotating machines such as fans, turbines, drills, the wheels on electric cars, locomotives and conveyor belts. Also, in many vibrating or oscillating machines, an electric motor spins an unbalanced mass, causing the motor (and its mounting structure) to vibrate. A familiar application is cell phone vibrating alerts used when the acoustic "ringer" is disabled by the user.

Electric motors are also popular in robotics. They turn the wheels of vehicular robots, and servo motors operate arms in industrial robots; they also move arms and legs in humanoid robots. In flying robots, along with helicopters, a motor rotates a propeller, or aerodynamic rotor blades to create controllable amounts of lift. Electric motors are replacing hydraulic cylinders in airplanes and military equipment.

In industrial and manufacturing businesses, electric motors rotate saws and blades in cutting and slicing processes; they rotate parts being turned in lathes and other machine tools, and spin grinding wheels. Fast, precise servo motors position tools and work in modern CNC machine tools. Motor-driven mixers are very common in food manufacturing. Linear motors are often used to push products into containers horizontally.

Many kitchen appliances also use electric motors. Food processors and grinders spin blades to chop and break up foods. Blenders use electric motors to mix liquids, and microwave ovens use motors to turn the tray that food sits on. Toaster ovens also use electric motors to turn a conveyor to move food over heating elements.

Servo Motor

A servomotor is a motor, very often sold as a complete module, which is used within a position-control or speed-control feedback control system mainly control valves, such as motor operated control valves. Servomotors are used in applications such as machine tools, pen plotters, and other process systems. Motors intended for use in a servomechanism must have well-documented characteristics for speed, torque, and power. The speed vs. torque curve is quite important and is high ratio for a servo motor.

Dynamic response characteristics such as winding inductance and rotor inertia are also important; these factors limit the overall performance of the servomechanism loop. Large, powerful, but slow-responding servo loops may use conventional AC or DC motors and drive systems with position or speed feedback on the motor. As dynamic response requirements increase, more specialized motor designs such as coreless motors are used.

A servo system differs from some stepper motor applications in that the position feedback is continuous while the motor is running; a stepper system relies on the motor not to "miss steps" for short term accuracy, although a stepper system may include a "home" switch or other element to provide long-term stability of control. For instance, when a typical dot matrix computer printer starts up, its controller makes the print head stepper motor drive to its left-hand limit, where a position sensor defines home position and stops stepping. As long as power is on, a bidirectional counter in the printer's microprocessor keeps track of print-head position.

Linear Motor

A linear motor is essentially any electric motor that has been "unrolled" so that, instead of producing a torque (rotation), it produces a straight-line force along its length. Linear motors are most commonly induction motors or stepper motors. Linear motors are commonly found in many roller-coasters where the rapid motion of the motorless railcar is controlled by the rail. They are also used in maglev trains, where the train "flies" over the ground. On a smaller scale, the HP 7225A pen plotter, released in 1978, used two linear stepper motors to move the pen along the X and Y axes.

Torque Capability of Motor Types

When optimally designed within a given core saturation constraint and for a given active current (i.e., torque current), voltage, pole-pair number, excitation frequency (i.e., synchronous speed), and air-gap flux density, all categories of electric motors or generators will exhibit virtually the same maximum continuous shaft torque (i.e., operating torque) within a given air-gap area with winding slots and back-iron depth, which determines the physical size of electromagnetic core. Some applications require bursts of torque beyond the maximum operating torque, such as short bursts of torque to accelerate an electric vehicle from standstill. Always limited by magnetic core saturation or safe operating temperature rise and voltage, the capacity for torque bursts beyond the maximum operating torque differs significantly between categories of electric motors or generators.

Capacity for bursts of torque should not be confused with field weakening capability inherent in fully electromagnetic electric machines (Permanent Magnet (PM) electric machine are excluded). Field weakening, which is not available with PM electric machines, allows an electric machine to operate beyond the designed frequency of excitation.

Electric machines without a transformer circuit topology, such as Field-Wound (i.e., electromagnet) or Permanent Magnet (PM) Synchronous electric machines cannot realize bursts of torque higher than the maximum designed torque without saturating the magnetic core and rendering any increase in current as useless. Furthermore, the permanent magnet assembly of PM synchronous electric machines can be irreparably damaged, if bursts of torque exceeding the maximum operating torque rating are attempted.

Electric machines with a transformer circuit topology, such as Induction (i.e., asynchronous) electric machines, Induction Doubly Fed electric machines, and Induction or Synchronous Wound-Rotor Doubly Fed (WRDF) electric machines, exhibit very high bursts of torque because the active current (i.e., Magneto-Motive-Force or the product of current and winding-turns) induced on either side of the transformer oppose each other and as a result, the active current contributes nothing to the transformer coupled magnetic core flux density, which would otherwise lead to core saturation.

Electric machines that rely on Induction or Asynchronous principles short-circuit one port of the transformer circuit and as a result, the reactive impedance of the transformer circuit becomes dominant as slip increases, which limits the magnitude of active (i.e., real) current. Still, bursts of torque that are two to three times higher than the maximum design torque are realizable.

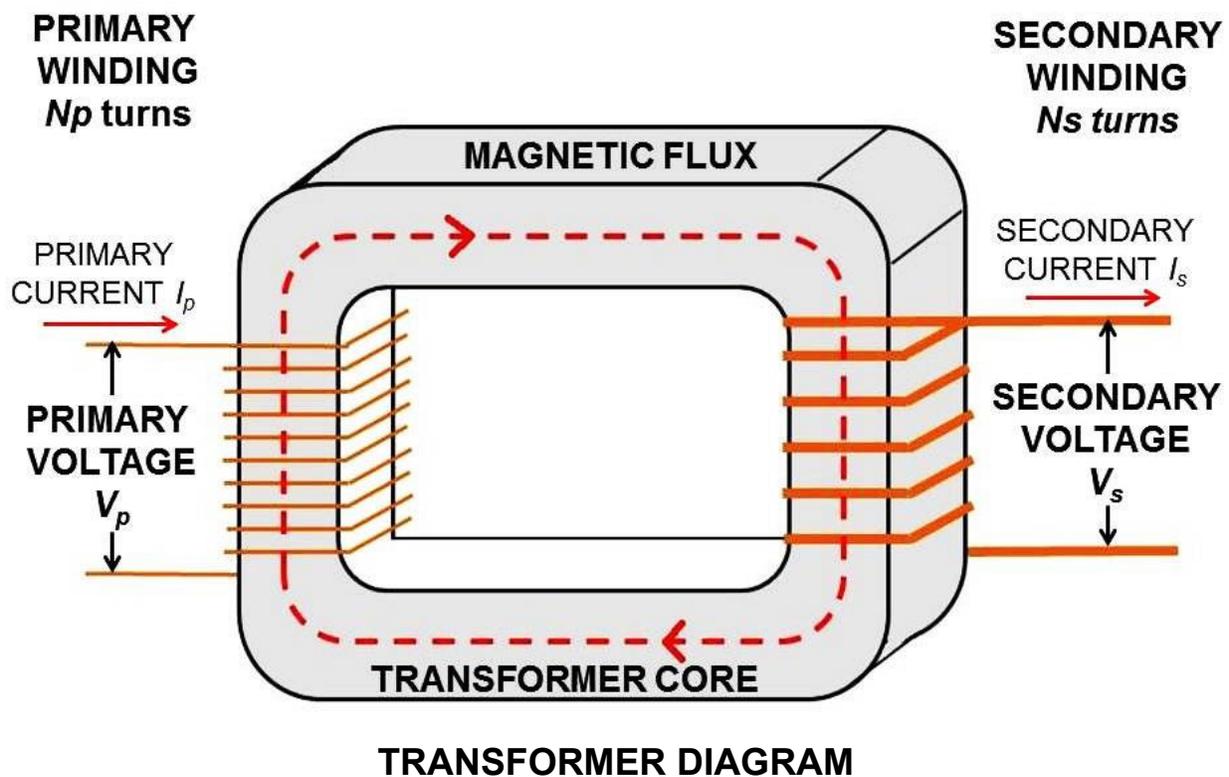
The Synchronous WRDF electric machine is the only electric machine with a truly dual ported transformer circuit topology (i.e., both ports independently excited with no short-circuited port). The dual ported transformer circuit topology is known to be unstable and requires a multiphase slip-ring-brush assembly to propagate limited power to the rotor winding set. If a precision means

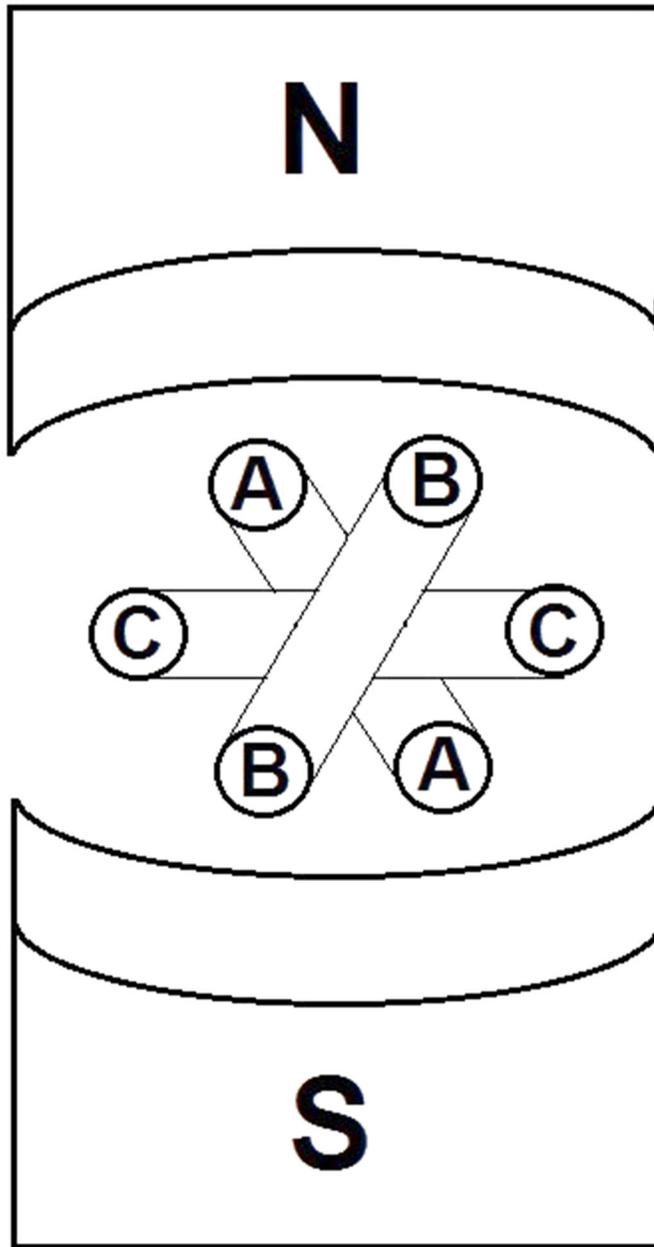
were available to instantaneously control torque angle and slip for synchronous operation during motoring or generating while simultaneously providing brushless power to the rotor winding set (see Brushless wound-rotor doubly fed electric machine), the active current of the Synchronous WRDF electric machine would be independent of the reactive impedance of the transformer circuit and bursts of torque significantly higher than the maximum operating torque and far beyond the practical capability of any other type of electric machine would be realizable. Torque bursts greater than eight times operating torque have been calculated.

Continuous Torque Density

The continuous torque density of conventional electric machines is determined by the size of the air-gap area and the back-iron depth, which are determined by the power rating of the armature winding set, the speed of the machine, and the achievable air-gap flux density before core saturation. Despite the high coercivity of neodymium or samarium-cobalt permanent magnets, continuous torque density is virtually the same amongst electric machines with optimally designed armature winding sets.

Continuous torque density should never be confused with peak torque density, which comes with the manufacturer's chosen method of cooling, which is available to all, or period of operation before destruction by overheating of windings or even permanent magnet damage.





THREE PHASE WIRING DIAGRAM

Electric Motor Maintenance Sub-Section

General

Make a habit of checking that the motor is securely bolted to its platform. Mounting bolts can vibrate loose. Check to see that rotating parts aren't rubbing on stationary parts of the motor, causing damage to the motor.

Remember that an electric motor is an air-cooled piece of equipment and needs all the ventilation it can get. Excessive heat is a main cause of reduced motor life.

Motors also like to be dry. Keep motor windings dry by keeping pump packing in good condition. Even if windings are protected from moisture, minerals in the pumped water can attach to the windings and cause early failure. Motors that operate at 3600 rpm experience twice as much wear as motors operating at 1800 rpm. Regular maintenance is especially critical for 3600 rpm motors and pumps.

Maintenance Tasks

At season startup:

- Remove tape on all openings and clean out rodents, insects, or debris.
- Locate the motor drain hole on the base or support for the base, and clean it out so water won't be trapped and held directly under the air intake.
- Change oil in reduced voltage starters, using an oil recommended by the manufacturer. Be sure to clean the oil pan before refilling.
- Use vacuum suction or air pressure to remove dust and debris from moving parts of the motor. (Don't exceed 50 psi of air pressure.)

Periodically:

- Clean grass or debris from air ventilation openings on the motor and from around the motor to allow a full flow of cooling air.
- Check screens on motor ventilation openings. Replace with machine cloth (¼-inch mesh) as necessary.

At end of season shutdown:

- Cover the motor with a breathable water-resistant tarp.

Motor Electrical System

Wide temperature fluctuations during the year can cause electrical connections (especially in aluminum wire) to expand and contract, loosening connectors. Loose electrical connections cause heat buildup and arcing at electrical terminals. The voltage drop across loose connections will cause the motor to operate at less than its rated voltage, increasing internal motor temperature. Increased heat will break down motor winding insulation, resulting in electrical shorts and motor failures. A loose or broken connection can also unbalance the phases of three-phase power and damage the motor windings.

Caution: Before conducting these tasks, be sure power is off at the utility disconnect switch. It may be necessary to have the utility company shut the power off.

Maintenance Tasks

At season startup:

- Inspect insulation of motor windings. If the windings are excessively grease-covered, consult your motor repair shop for direction.
- Check all safety switches according to the manufacturer's directions.

Twice a year:

- Check electrical connections from meter loop to motor for corrosion and clean if necessary.
- Coat the wiring (especially aluminum) and connectors with an antioxidant that meets electrical code requirements.
- Check electrical connections from the meter loop to the motor for tightness.
- Tighten and re-tape if necessary.
- Replace overheated connections or wires with new material. Overheated connections will show heat damage such as burnt insulation on wires.

Motor Bearings

Lubricate the motor according to the manufacturer's instructions. Intervals between lubrication will vary with motor speed, power draw, load, ambient temperatures, exposure to moisture, and seasonal or continuous operation. Electric motors should not be greased daily. Bearings can be ruined by either over- or under-greasing.

Fill a grease gun with electric motor bearing grease and label it so it won't be confused with other types of lubricating grease.

Maintenance Tasks

Change the grease at recommended intervals to remove any accumulated moisture:

- Remove the bottom relief plug and clean hardened grease out of passageway.
- Using a grease gun, fill the housing with approved high temperature electric motor bearing grease (refer to the manufacturer's manual for API number of grease) until old grease is expelled.

Caution: If old grease is not expelled as the new grease is pumped in, stop adding grease and have your motor checked by a qualified repair person. Adding new grease without old grease being removed could blow the seals and push grease into the motor windings, causing the motor to overheat and reducing its service life. Do not over-grease your motor.

- Run motor until all surplus grease is thrown out through the bottom grease port (may require 5 to 10 minutes).
- Shut off the motor and use a screwdriver or similar device to remove a small amount of grease from the grease port to allow for grease expansion during full load operation.
- Replace grease plug.

Control Panel Maintenance**Control Panel Safety Precautions**

Never use the main disconnect to start or stop your motor. It is not intended for this purpose. Using the main disconnect to start and stop the motor will cause excessive wear of the contacts and arcing can occur. Use the start and stop button.

If the overhead lines to your control panel's service are obstructed by tree branches or other items, have the utility company clear the lines.

Have an electrician inspect your panel to ensure that:

- Control circuits are protected with the correct size and type of fuse.
- Lightning arresters are properly installed on the meter and motor side of the buss and breaker. They should also be mounted in a secure box to protect you if they blow up.
- The service panel is properly grounded, independently of the pumping plant.
- Service head grommets are in place and in good condition.

General Maintenance

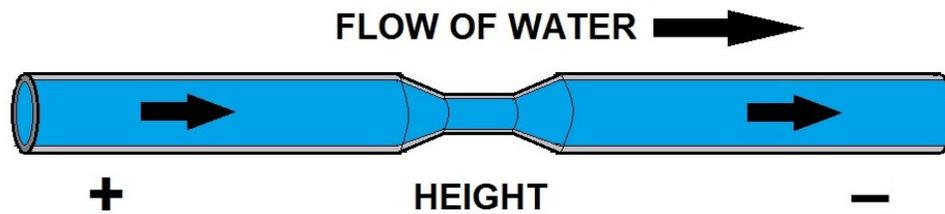
Have your electrician or pump maintenance person do a Megger check on the control panel, motor, conduits, and other electrical connections. The Megger device applies a small amount of voltage to an electrical component and measures the electrical resistance. A Megger test can also detect potentially harmful moisture in windings.

Any time the main disconnect switch has been left open or off, operate it several times before leaving it closed or on. Copper oxide can form in a few hours and result in poor contact and overheating. Any type of corrosion can cause poor contact, poor grounding, and direct or high-resistance shorts.

Caution: After opening the control panel but before touching the controls inside, use a voltmeter to be sure that the incoming power is disconnected or turned off. If necessary, have your utility disconnect the power. If you have any doubts about the safety of your control panel, WALK AWAY AND CALL A QUALIFIED ELECTRICIAN.

Even a current of 15 milliamps (one milliamp is one one-thousandth of an amp) can cause serious injury or death. Always play it safe!

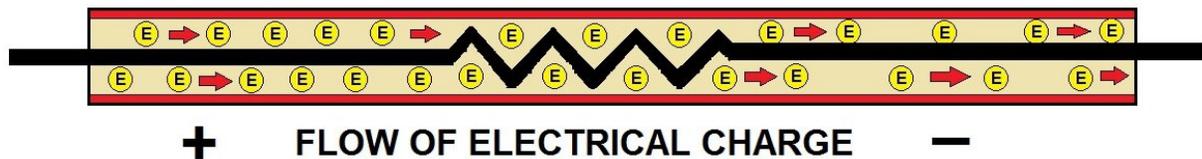
Electrical Understanding Sub-Section



Electricity flow can be compared to flow of water:

- When pressure is applied at one end of a pipe (or wire) then, water (or electricity) will come out the other end.

(Flow of electrons (electricity) along a wire)



BASIC ELECTRICITY FLOW CONCEPT

Understanding Voltage

Voltage, electrical potential difference, electric tension or electric pressure (denoted ΔV) and measured in units of electric potential: volts, or joules per coulomb is the electric potential difference between two points, or the difference in electric potential energy of a unit charge transported between two points.

Voltage is equal to the work done per unit charge against a static electric field to move the charge between two points. A voltage may represent either a source of energy (electromotive force), or lost, used, or stored energy (potential drop). A voltmeter can be used to measure the voltage (or potential difference) between two points in a system; usually a common reference potential such as the ground of the system is used as one of the points. Voltage can be caused by static electric fields, by electric current through a magnetic field, by time-varying magnetic fields, or some combination of these three.

Given two points in the space, called A and B, voltage is the difference of electric potentials between those two points. From the definition of electric potential, it follows that:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta V_{BA} &= V_B - V_A = - \int_{r_0}^B \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} - \left(- \int_{r_0}^A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} \right) \\ &= \int_B^{r_0} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} + \int_{r_0}^A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = \int_B^A \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}\end{aligned}$$

Voltage is electric potential energy per unit charge, measured in joules per coulomb (= volts). It is often referred to as "electric potential", which then must be distinguished from electric potential energy by noting that the "potential" is a "per-unit-charge" quantity.

Like mechanical potential energy, the zero of potential can be chosen at any point, so the difference in voltage is the quantity which is physically meaningful. The difference in voltage measured when moving from point A to point B is equal to the work which would have to be done, per unit charge, against the electric field to move the charge from A to B. The voltage between the two ends of a path is the total energy required to move a small electric charge along that path, divided by the magnitude of the charge.

Mathematically this is expressed as the line integral of the electric field and the time rate of change of magnetic field along that path. In the general case, both a static (unchanging) electric field and a dynamic (time-varying) electromagnetic field must be included in determining the voltage between two points.

Historically this quantity has also been called "tension" and "pressure". Pressure is now obsolete but tension is still used, for example within the phrase "high tension" (HT) which is commonly used in thermionic valve (vacuum tube) based electronics.

Voltage is defined so that negatively charged objects are pulled towards higher voltages, while positively charged objects are pulled towards lower voltages. Therefore, the conventional current in a wire or resistor always flows from higher voltage to lower voltage.

Current can flow from lower voltage to higher voltage, but only when a source of energy is present to "push" it against the opposing electric field. For example, inside a battery, chemical reactions provide the energy needed for current to flow from the negative to the positive terminal.

Technically, in a material the electric field is not the only factor determining charge flow, and different materials naturally develop electric potential differences at equilibrium (Galvani potentials). The electric potential of a material is not even a well-defined quantity, since it varies on the subatomic scale.

A more convenient definition of 'voltage' can be found instead in the concept of Fermi level. In this case the voltage between two bodies is the thermodynamic work required to move a unit of charge between them. This definition is practical since a real voltmeter actually measures this work, not differences in electric potential.

Understanding Three-Phase Power

Three-phase electric power is a common method of alternating-current electric power generation, transmission, and distribution. It is a type of polyphase system and is the most common method used by electrical grids worldwide to transfer power. It is also used to power large motors and other heavy loads. A three-phase system is generally more economical than others because it uses less conductor material to transmit electric power than equivalent single-phase or two-phase systems at the same voltage. The three-phase system was introduced and patented by Nikola Tesla in 1887 and 1888.

In a three-phase system, three circuit conductors carry three alternating currents (of the same frequency) which reach their instantaneous peak values at different times. Taking one conductor as the reference, the other two currents are delayed in time by one-third and two-thirds of one cycle of the electric current. This delay between phases has the effect of giving constant power transfer over each cycle of the current and also makes it possible to produce a rotating magnetic field in an electric motor.

Three-phase systems may have a neutral wire. A neutral wire allows the three-phase system to use a higher voltage while still supporting lower-voltage single-phase appliances. In high-voltage distribution situations, it is common not to have a neutral wire as the loads can simply be connected between phases (phase-phase connection).

Three-phase has properties that make it very desirable in electric power systems:

- ✓ The phase currents tend to cancel out one another, summing to zero in the case of a linear balanced load. This makes it possible to eliminate or reduce the size of the neutral conductor; all the phase conductors carry the same current and so can be the same size, for a balanced load.
- ✓ Power transfer into a linear balanced load is constant, which helps to reduce generator and motor vibrations.
- ✓ Three-phase systems can produce a magnetic field that rotates in a specified direction, which simplifies the design of electric motors.
- ✓ Three is the lowest phase order to exhibit all of these properties.

Most household loads are single-phase. In North America and a few other places, three-phase power generally does not enter homes. Even in areas where it does, it is typically split out at the main distribution board and the individual loads are fed from a single phase. Sometimes it is used to power electric stoves and electric clothes dryers.

3 Or 4 Wire

Three-phase circuits occur in two varieties: three-wire and four-wire. Both types have three energized ("hot" or "live") wires, but the 4-wire circuit also has neutral wire. The three-wire system is used when the loads on the 3 live wires will be balanced, for example in motors or heating elements with 3 identical coils.

The neutral wire is used when there is a chance that the loads are not balanced. A common example of this is local distribution in Europe, where each house will be connected to just one of the live wires, but all connected to the same neutral.

The neutral carries the "imbalance" between the power carried on the 3 live wires. Hence electrical engineers work hard to make sure that the power is shared around equally, so the neutral wire carries as little power as possible and can therefore be made much smaller than the other 3.

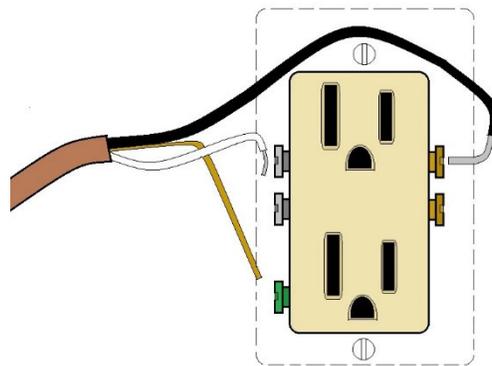
The '3-wire' and '4-wire' designations do not count the ground wire used on many transmission lines, as this is solely for fault and lightning protection and does not serve to deliver electrical power.

The most important class of three-phase load is the electric motor. A three-phase induction motor has a simple design, inherently high starting torque and high efficiency. Such motors are applied in industry for pumps, fans, blowers, compressors, conveyor drives, electric vehicles and many other kinds of motor-driven equipment.

A three-phase motor is more compact and less costly than a single-phase motor of the same voltage class and rating and single-phase AC motors above 10 HP (7.5 kW) are uncommon. Three-phase motors also vibrate less and hence last longer than single-phase motors of the same power used under the same conditions.

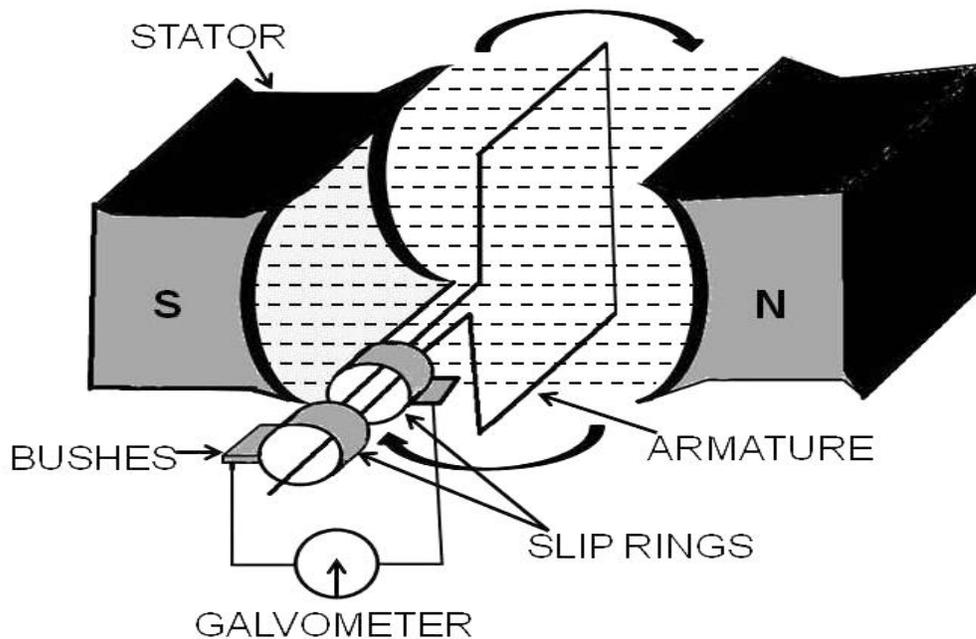
Resistance heating loads such as electric boilers or space heating may be connected to three-phase systems. Electric lighting may also be similarly connected. These types of loads do not require the revolving magnetic field characteristic of three-phase motors but take advantage of the higher voltage and power level usually associated with three-phase distribution. Legacy single-phase fluorescent lighting systems also benefit from reduced flicker in a room if adjacent fixtures are powered from different phases.

Large rectifier systems may have three-phase inputs; the resulting DC is easier to filter (smooth) than the output of a single-phase rectifier. Such rectifiers may be used for battery charging, electrolysis processes such as aluminum production or for operation of DC motors.



**TYPICAL COLOR CODING
FOR 120 VOLT WIRING**

Electromagnet Induction



PRODUCTION OF AC CURRENT

Alternating current is generated through an electrical effect called Electromagnet Induction.

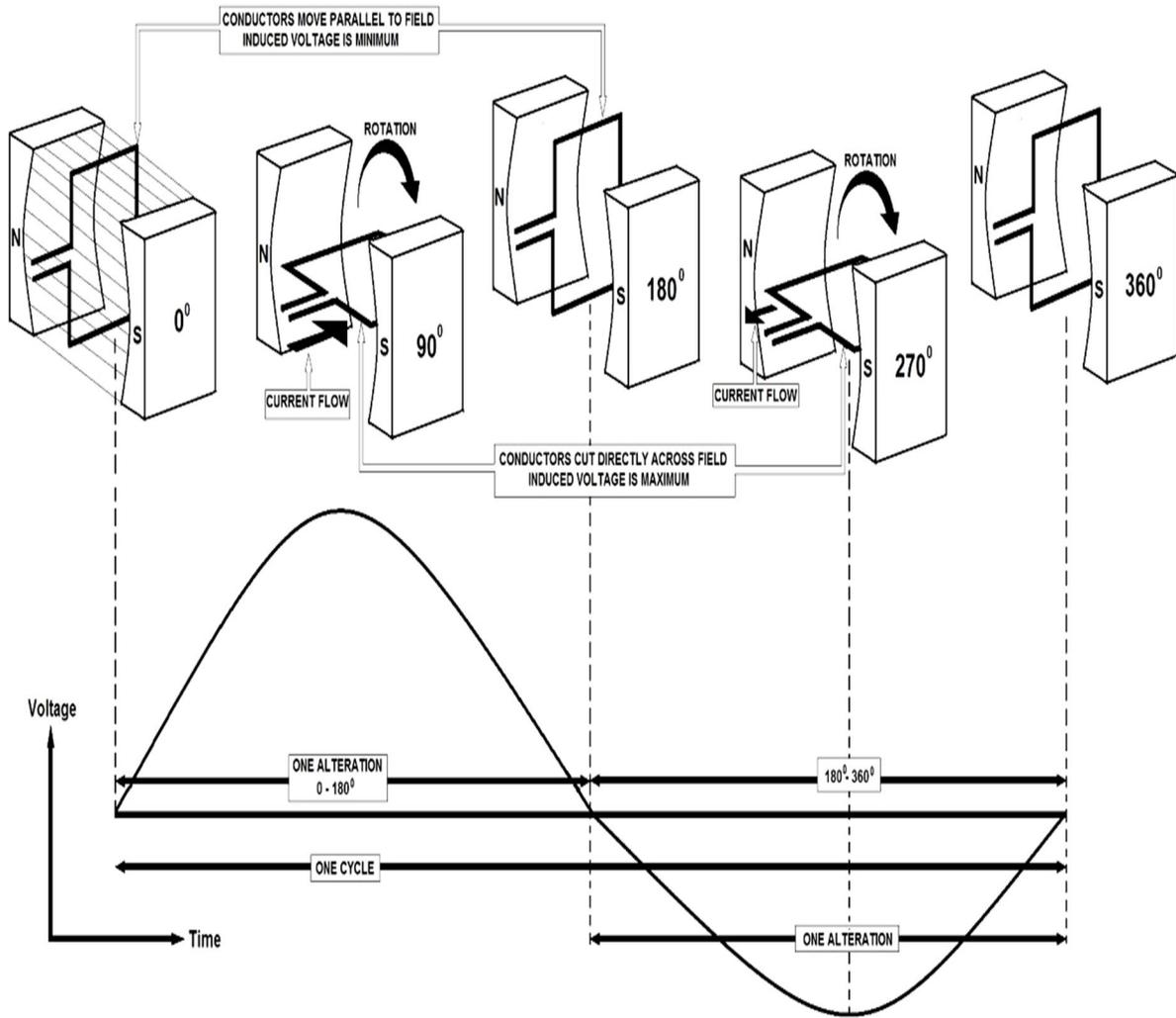
Electromagnetic Induction is the ability of a magnetic field to generate a voltage or current in a conductor without physical contact.

When the conductor becomes part of a circuit, current flows in the circuit.

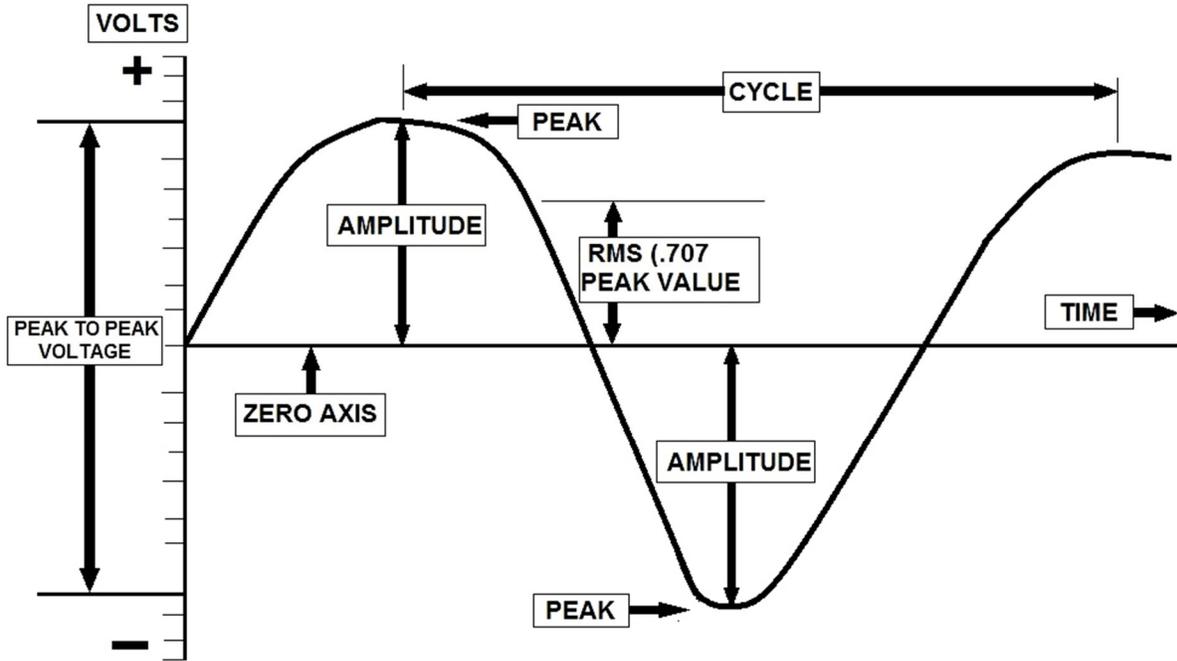
Generators convert rotational motion into current flow. As the coils are turned through a rotational magnetic, voltage is generated.

AC motors also depend upon electromagnetic induction. They convert current flow into rotational motion.

The conductor and the magnetic field are not physically connected, yet a voltage is induced in the conductor when the conductor moves through the magnetic field, or when the magnetic field moves through the conductor.



Sine Wave for AC



Alternating voltage and current generated by rotary motion take the form of a sine wave. It is the most common form of alternating current and voltage.

As the conductor turns through the magnetic field, it cuts through the magnetic lines of force at a varying rate. As a result, voltage varies in a regular, repetitive pattern.

Sine Waves Are Measured and Compared by Certain Features

1. The AMPLITUDE of the sine wave tells you the maximum value of current or voltage; it can be either positive or negative.

2. A CYCLE is one complete repetition of the wave form. It is produced by one complete revolution- 360° -of the conductor through the magnetic field. In each cycle, there are two reversals and two maximums.

The sine wave peaks in the positive direction at 90° , crosses the zero axis at 180° , peaks in the negative direction at 270° , then reaches zero again at 360° .

3. FREQUENCY is the number of cycles per second. The higher the number of cycles per second, the higher the frequency. The higher the frequency the less amount of time for one cycle. Most AC is generated at 60 cycles or 50 cycles per second.

Note: Amplitude and frequency are independent. Two waves can have the same amplitude and frequency, the same amplitude but different frequency, different amplitude but the same frequency, and different amplitude and different frequency.

4. HERTZ is the term used for cycles per (second. 60 Hertz = 60 cycles per second.

5. PEAK to PEAK voltage is the voltage measured between the maximum positive and maximum negative points on the sine wave. It is twice the amplitude.

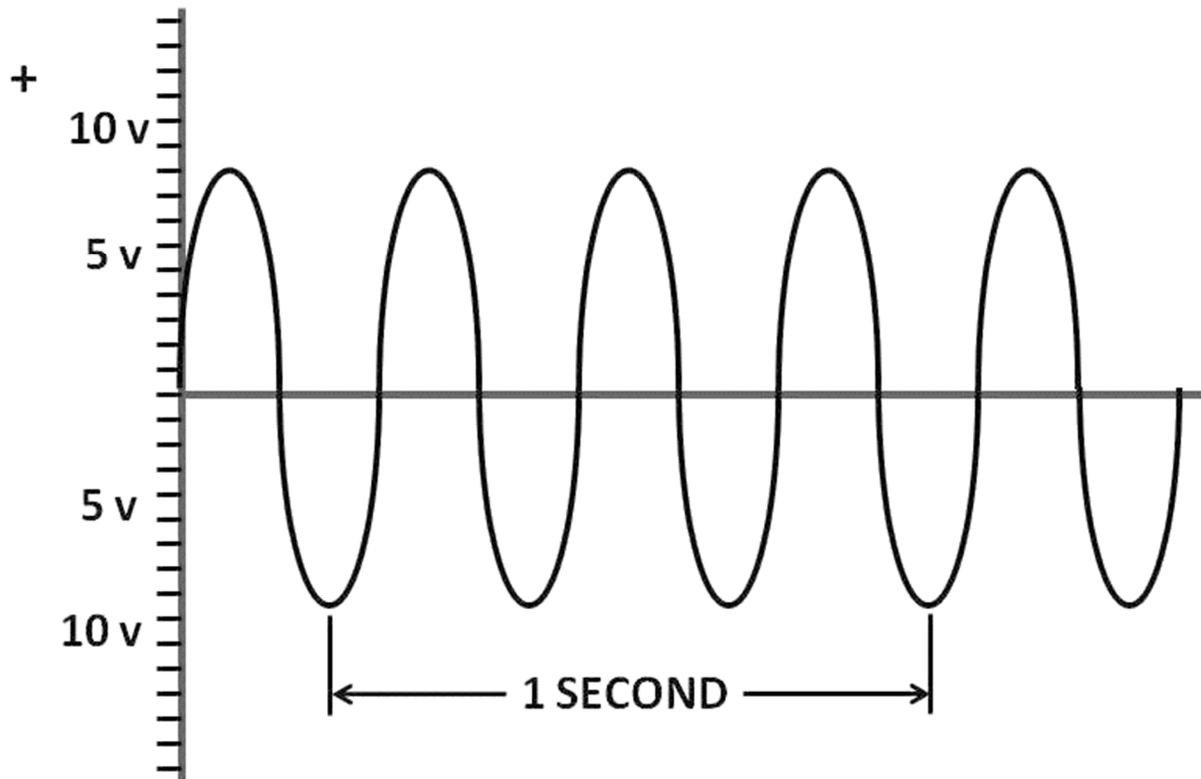
6. RMS (root mean square) voltage or current is a standard means of measuring alternating current or voltage. $RMS = .707 \times \text{peak value}$ (the amplitude of the sine wave).

7. A horizontal line through the center of the sine wave is the ZERO AXIS.

a. All values above the zero axis are POSITIVE values; all values below the zero axis are NEGATIVE values.

b. NEGATIVE current and voltage do just as much work as positive voltage and current. The only difference is that the polarity of the voltage is opposite and current flow is in the opposite direction. They produce exactly the same amount of power as positive current and voltage.

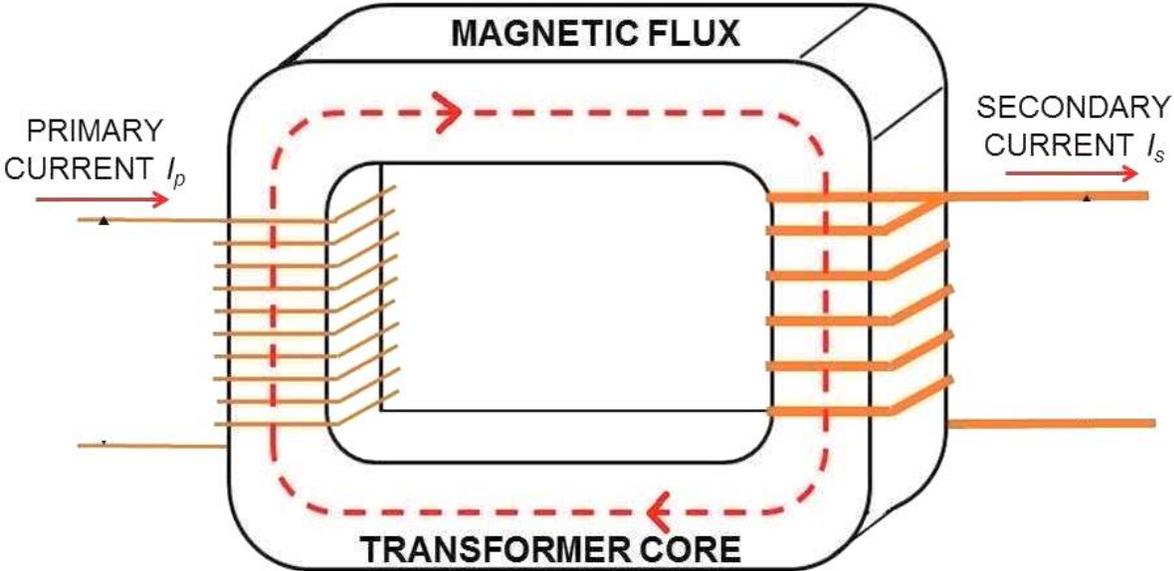
Practice Exercise



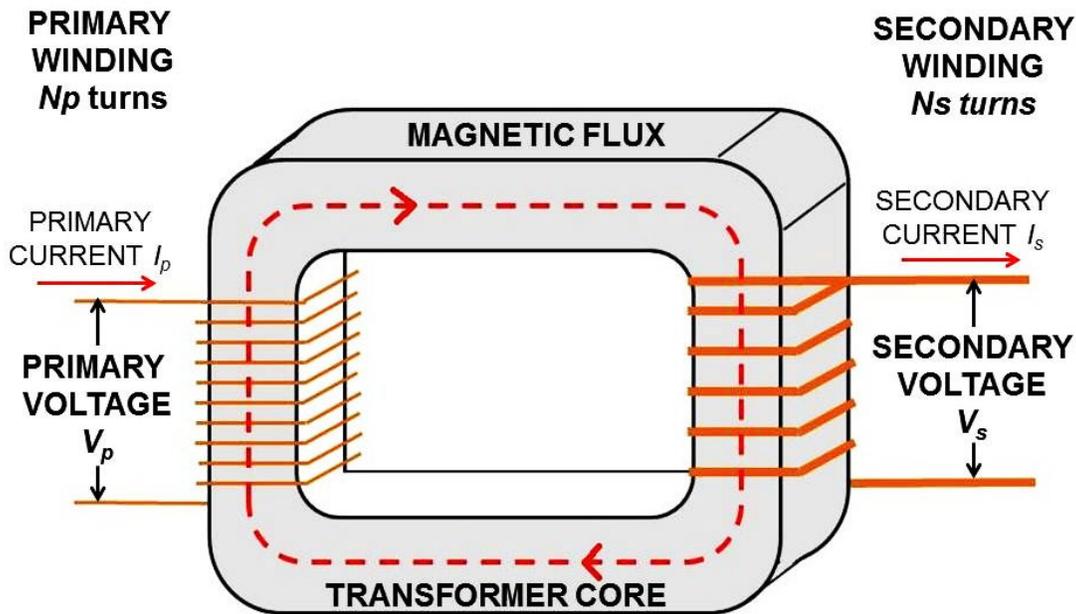
From the above sine wave graph, determine:

- A. the frequency of the AC. _____
- B. the peak voltage. _____
- C. the RMS value of the voltage. _____
- D. how long it takes the voltage to complete one cycle. _____

Practice Exercise



Transformer Sub-Section



TRANSFORMER

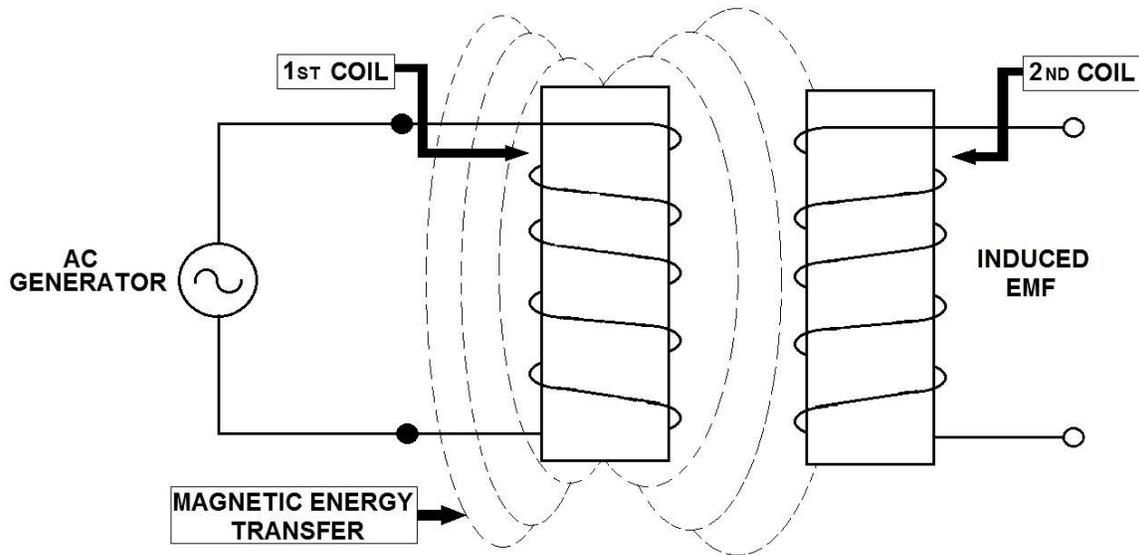
A **transformer** is an electrical device that transfers energy between two circuits through electromagnetic induction. Transformers may be used in voltage conversion to transform an AC voltage from one voltage level on the input of the device to another level at the output terminals, to provide for different requirements of current level as an alternating current source, or it may be used for impedance matching between mismatched electrical circuits to effect maximum power transfer between the circuits.

Transformers are used to increase voltage before transmitting electrical energy over long distances through wires. Wires have resistance which loses energy through joule heating at a rate corresponding to square of the current. By transforming power to a higher voltage transformers enable economical transmission of power and distribution. Consequently, transformers have shaped the electricity supply industry, permitting generation to be located remotely from points of demand. All but a tiny fraction of the world's electrical power has passed through a series of transformers by the time it reaches the consumer.

Transformers are also used extensively in electronic products to step-down the supply voltage to a level suitable for the low voltage circuits they contain. The transformer also electrically isolates the end user from contact with the supply voltage.

Signal and audio transformers are used to couple stages of amplifiers and to match devices such as microphones and record players to the input of amplifiers. Audio transformers allowed telephone circuits to carry on a two-way conversation over a single pair of wires.

A balun transformer converts a signal that is referenced to ground to a signal that has balanced voltages to ground, such as between external cables and internal circuits.



TRANSFORMER

A transformer most commonly consists of two windings of wire wound around a common core to effect tight electromagnetic coupling between the windings. The core material is often a laminated iron core. The coil that receives the electrical input energy is referred to as the primary winding, while the output coil is called the secondary winding.

An alternating electric current flowing through the primary winding (coil) of a transformer generates an electromagnetic field in its surroundings and a varying magnetic flux in the core of the transformer.

By electromagnetic induction this magnetic flux generates a varying electromotive force in the secondary winding, resulting in a voltage across the output terminals.

If a load impedance is connected across the secondary winding, a current flows through the secondary winding drawing power from the primary winding and its power source.

A transformer cannot operate with direct current, but produces a short output pulse as the voltage rises when connected to the DC source.

Transformer Classification Parameters

Transformers can be classified in many ways, such as the following:

- *Power capacity*: From a fraction of a volt-ampere (VA) to over a thousand MVA.
- *Duty of a transformer*: Continuous, short-time, intermittent, periodic, varying.
- *Frequency range*: Power-frequency, audio-frequency, or radio-frequency.
- *Voltage class*: From a few volts to hundreds of kilovolts.
- *Cooling type*: Dry and liquid-immersed - self-cooled, forced air-cooled; liquid-immersed - forced oil-cooled, water-cooled.
- *Circuit application*: Such as power supply, impedance matching, output voltage and current stabilizer or circuit isolation.
- *Utilization*: Pulse, power, distribution, rectifier, arc furnace, amplifier output, etc.
- *Basic magnetic form*: Core form, shell form.
- *Constant-potential transformer descriptor*: Step-up, step-down, isolation.
- *General winding configuration*: By EIC vector group - various possible two-winding combinations of the phase designations delta, wye or star, and zigzag or interconnected star; other - autotransformer, Scott-T, zigzag grounding transformer winding.
- *Rectifier phase-shift winding configuration*: 2-winding, 6-pulse; 3-winding, 12-pulse; . . . n-winding, $[n-1]*6$ -pulse; polygon; etc..

Transformer Types

Various specific electrical application designs require a variety of transformer types. Although they all share the basic characteristic transformer principles, they are customized in construction or electrical properties for certain installation requirements or circuit conditions.

- *Autotransformer*: Transformer in which part of the winding is common to both primary and secondary circuits.
- *Capacitor voltage transformer*: Transformer in which capacitor divider is used to reduce high voltage before application to the primary winding.
- *Distribution transformer, power transformer*: International standards make a distinction in terms of distribution transformers being used to distribute energy from transmission lines and networks for local consumption and power transformers being used to transfer electric energy between the generator and distribution primary circuits.
- *Phase angle regulating transformer*: A specialized transformer used to control the flow of real power on three-phase electricity transmission networks.
- *Scott-T transformer*: Transformer used for phase transformation from three-phase to two-phase and vice versa.
- *Polyphase transformer*: Any transformer with more than one phase.
- *Grounding transformer*: Transformer used for grounding three-phase circuits to create a neutral in a three wire system, using a wye-delta transformer, or more commonly, a zigzag grounding winding.
- *Leakage transformer*: Transformer that has loosely coupled windings.
- *Resonant transformer*: Transformer that uses resonance to generate a high secondary voltage.
- *Audio transformer*: Transformer used in audio equipment.
- *Output transformer*: Transformer used to match the output of a valve amplifier to its load.
- *Instrument transformer*: Potential or current transformer used to accurately and safely represent voltage, current or phase position of high voltage or high power circuits.

Transformer Applications

Transformers perform voltage conversion; isolation protection; and impedance matching. In terms of voltage conversion, transformers can step-up voltage/step-down current from generators to high-voltage transmission lines, and step-down voltage/step-up current to local distribution circuits or industrial customers.

The step-up transformer is used to increase the secondary voltage relative to the primary voltage, whereas the step-down transformer is used to decrease the secondary voltage relative to the primary voltage.

Transformers range in size from thumbnail-sized used in microphones to units weighing hundreds of tons interconnecting the power grid. A broad range of transformer designs are used in electronic and electric power applications, including miniature, audio, isolation, high-frequency, power conversion transformers, etc.

Transformer Basic Principles

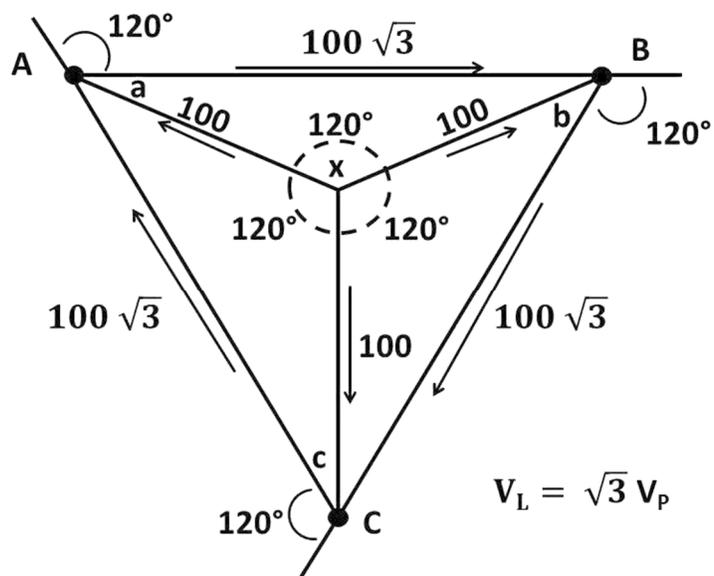
The functioning of a transformer is based on two principles of the laws of electromagnetic induction: An electric current through a conductor, such as a wire, produces a magnetic field surrounding the wire, and a changing magnetic field in the vicinity of a wire induces a voltage across the ends of that wire.

The magnetic field excited in the primary coil gives rise to self-induction as well as mutual induction between coils.

This self-induction counters the excited field to such a degree that the resulting current through the primary winding is very small when no load draws power from the secondary winding.

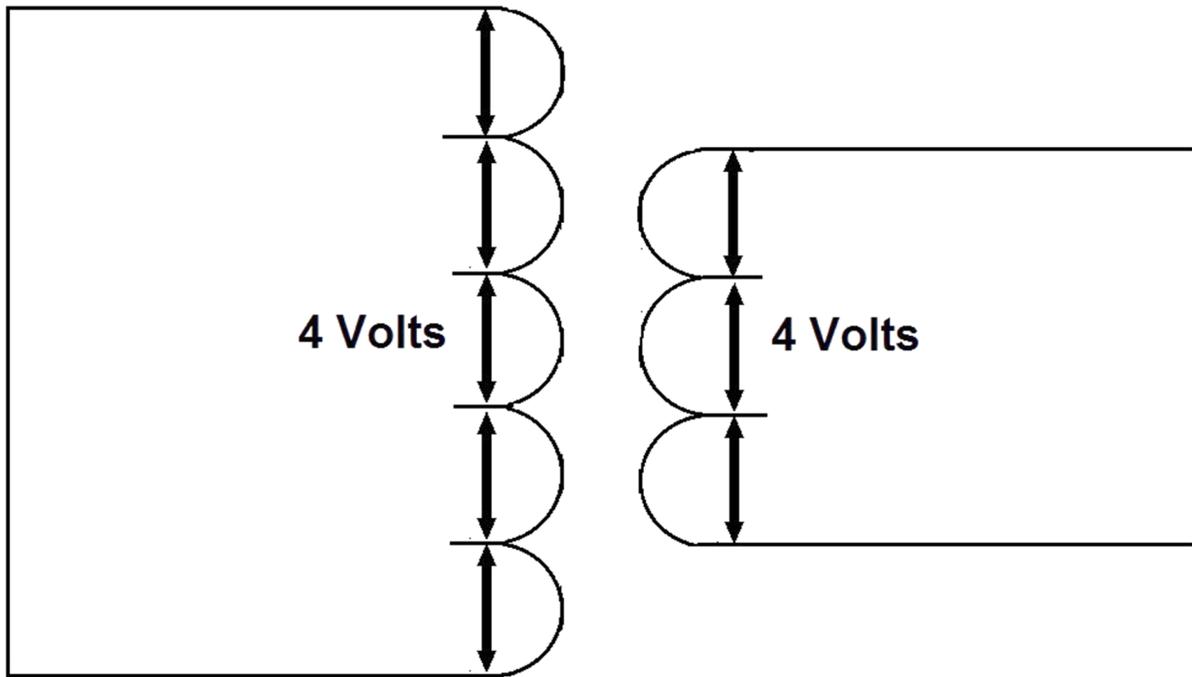
The physical principles of the inductive behavior of the transformer are most readily understood and formalized when making some assumptions to construct a simple model which is called the *ideal transformer*.

This model differs from *real transformers* by assuming that the transformer is perfectly constructed and by neglecting that electrical or magnetic losses occur in the materials used to construct the device.



Transformers

- Make AC power transmission and distribution possible.
- Transform values of voltage and current.
- Operate on the principle of electromagnetic induction.
- Usually transfer AC voltages from one circuit to another.



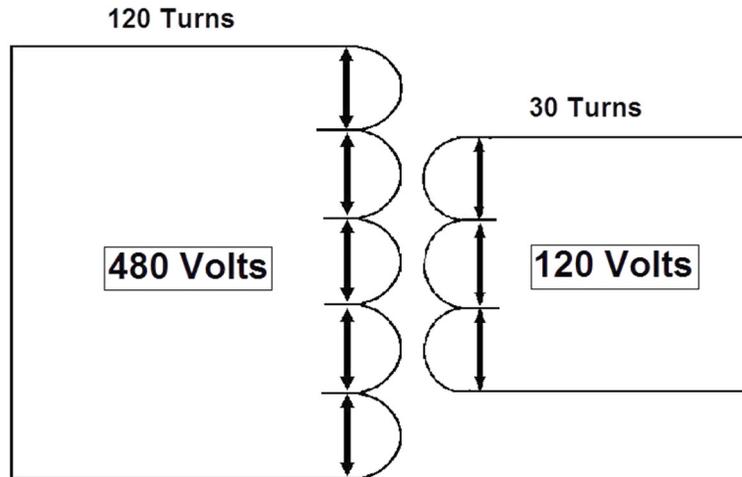
Most transformers are designed either to step voltage up or to step it down, although some are used only to isolate one voltage from another.

Transformers work because electric current generates a magnetic field around its conductor. If the current flow is steady, as in DC, the magnetic field is constant. But in AC, as the current changes direction the magnetic field keeps expanding and collapsing.

Transformers consist of a primary winding or coil connected to the source circuit and a secondary winding connected to the load circuit. When AC flows through the primary, its collapsing and expanding magnetic field induces a voltage and current in the secondary as the lines of force keep cutting through the secondary coil windings.

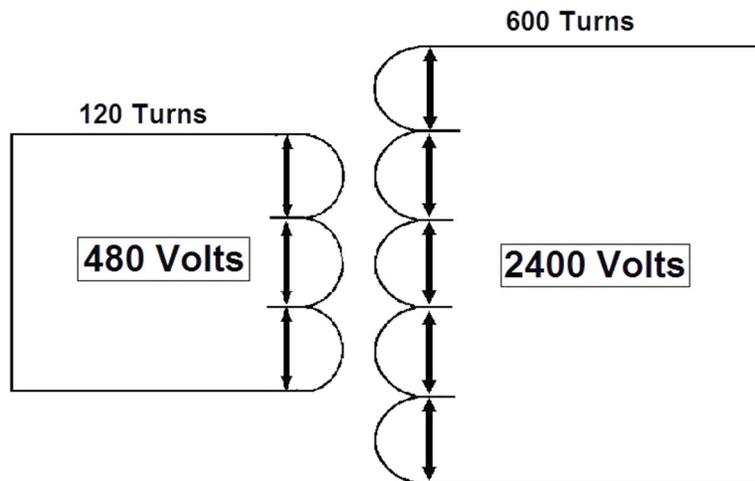
Each turn of wire in the, primary coil has an equal share at the primary voltage across it.

The same voltage is induced in each turn of the secondary coil. So if each turn in the primary coil has 4 volts across it, each turn in the secondary will also have 4 volts across it.



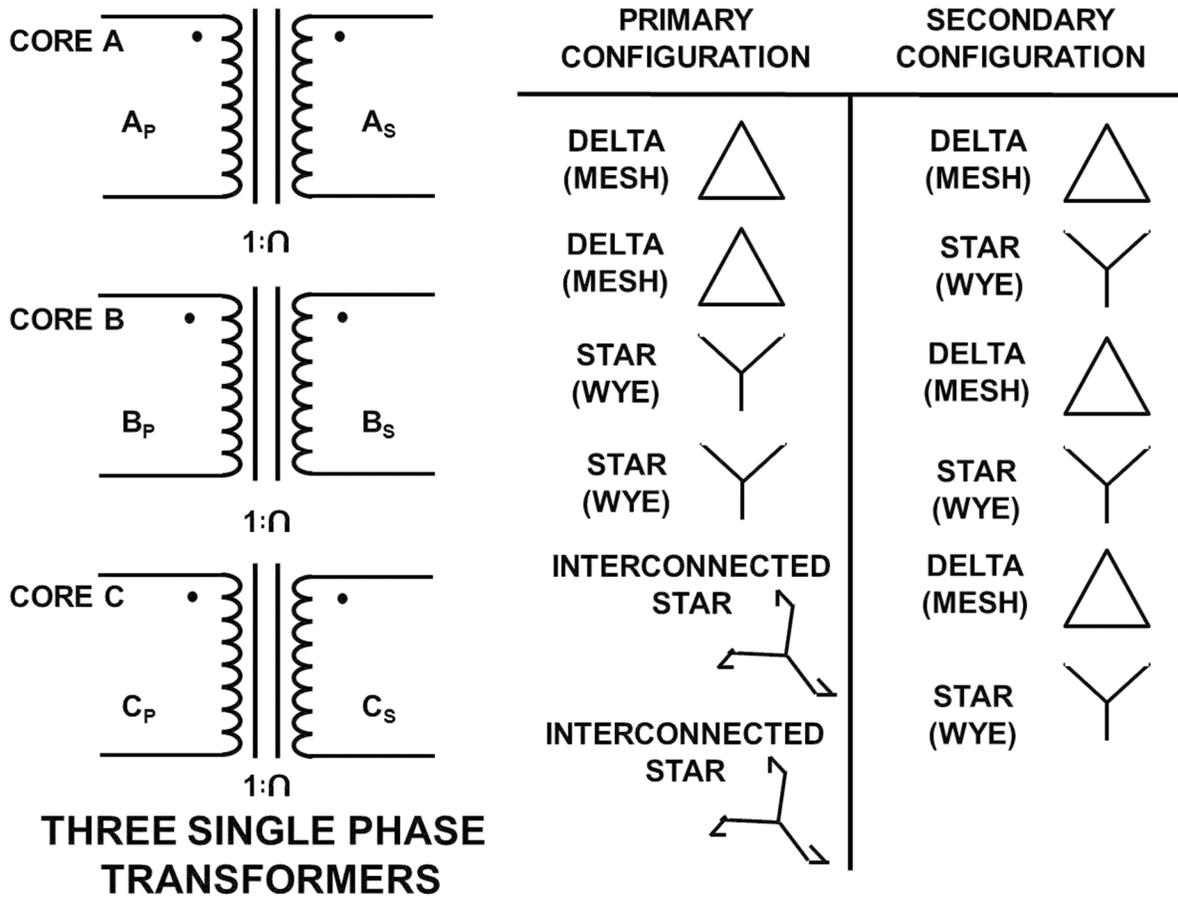
Step-Down Transformers

If there are fewer turns in the secondary, the secondary voltage will be lower than the primary.



Step-Up Transformers

If there are more turns in the secondary coil than in the primary, voltage will be higher on the secondary circuit.

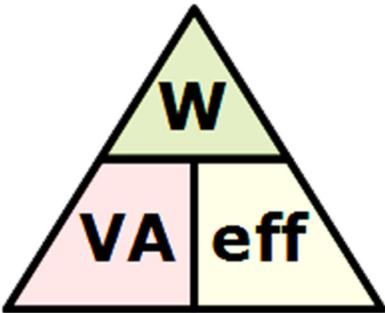


The primary and secondary windings of a transformer can be connected in different configuration as shown to meet practically any requirement. In the case of *three phase transformer* windings, three forms of connection are possible: “star” (wye), “delta” (mesh) and “interconnected-star” (zig-zag).

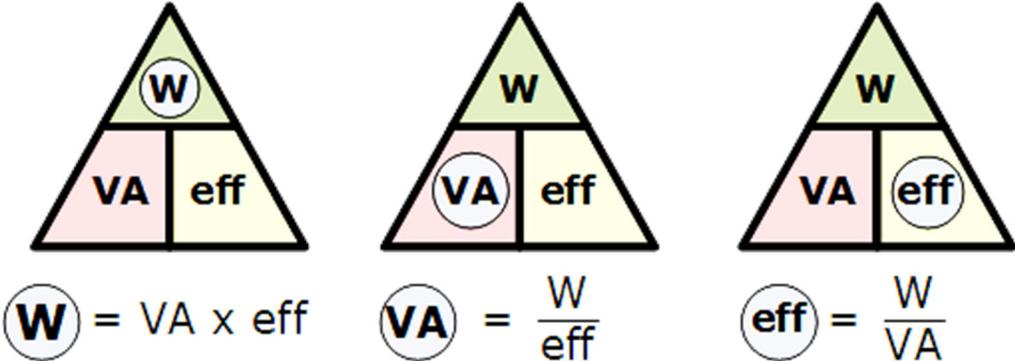
The combinations of the three windings may be with the primary delta-connected and the secondary star-connected, or star-delta, star-star or delta-delta, depending on the transformers use.

When transformers are used to provide three or more phases they are generally referred to as a **Polyphase Transformer**.

Transformer Efficiency Triangle



Transposing the above triangle quantities gives us the following combinations of the same equation:



Then, to find Watts (output) = VA x eff., or to find VA (input) = W/eff., or to find Efficiency, eff. = W/VA, etc.

Calculating Voltage

The relationship between the number of turns in the secondary and primary is called the turns ratio. This formula lets you calculate secondary voltage when you know primary voltage and the turns ratio.

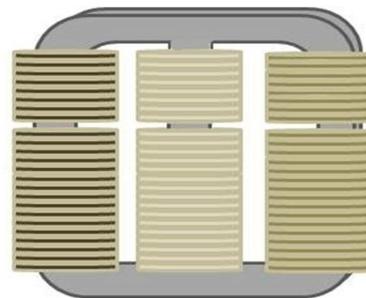
$$V_s = V_p \times \frac{\text{secondary turns}}{\text{primary turns}}$$

For our step-up transformer

$$V_s = 480v \times \frac{600}{120} \text{ or simplify } \frac{5}{1}$$

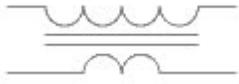
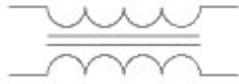
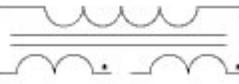
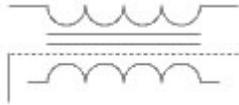
$$V_s = 480v \times 5$$

$$V_s = 2400 v$$



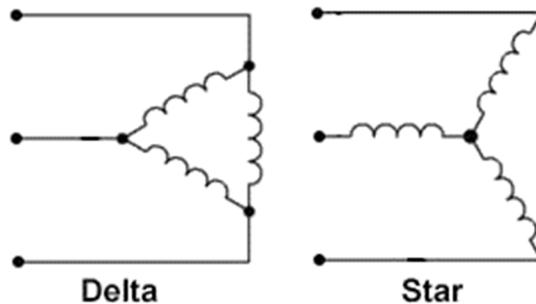
THREE PHASE TRANSFORMER

Circuit Symbols

	<p>Two windings and an iron core, step-up or step-down as windings are different ratios.</p>
	<p>Transformer with two windings and an iron core.</p>
	<p>Transformer with three windings, two secondary windings.</p>
	<p>Transformer with an earth screen.</p>

Three Phase Circuit Symbols

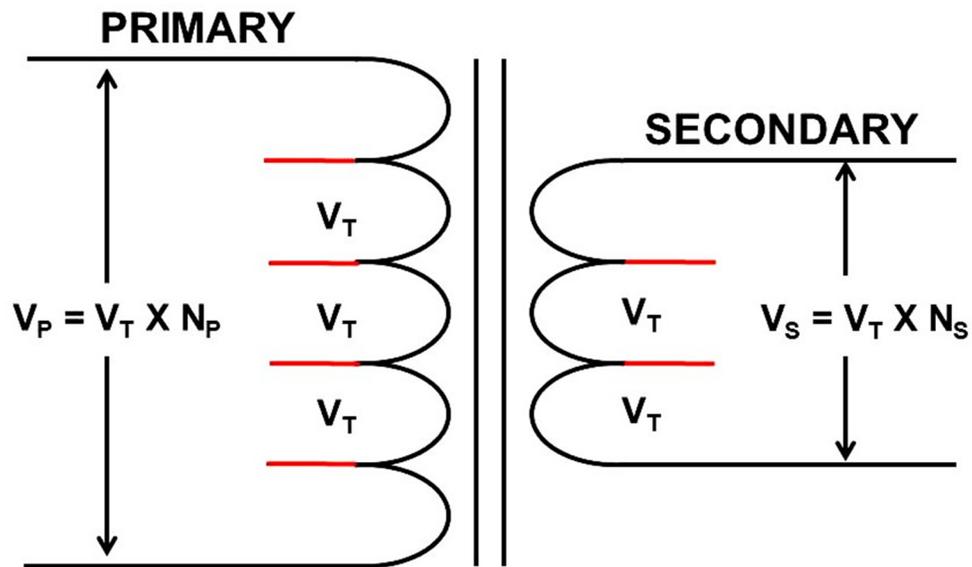
The three primary windings are connected together and the three secondary windings are connected together. This is also sometimes referred to as a polyphase transformer.



The most common connections are Y-A, A-Y, A-A and Y-Y.

There are many possible configurations that may involve more or fewer than six windings and various tap connections

Connecting transformers requires knowing how to calculate voltage, current, and power.



N = number of turns in winding

The voltage across the primary will be the voltage on each turn times the number of turns. The voltage across the secondary will be the voltage on each turn times the number of turns in the secondary.

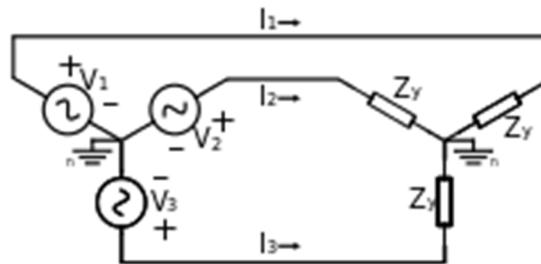
The ratio of the voltage across one winding to the voltage across the other winding is the same as the ratio of turns between windings:

The turns ratio of a transformer is often specified as the number of turns in the secondary divided by the number of turns in the primary.

$$\frac{V_S}{V_L} = \frac{T_S}{T_P} = \text{TURNS RATIO}$$

- 1) If the turns ratio and the primary voltage are known, the secondary voltage is simply the primary voltage times the turns ratio.
- 2) Secondary current, however, is primary current divided by the turns ratio.
- 3) Transformers are usually rated in KVA (Kilovolt amperes). Current times voltage delivered to a load is very nearly equal to current times voltage into the primary, although there is some loss as heat.

Wye



Three phase AC generator connected as a wye source to a wye connected load.

For the wye case, all loads see their respective line voltages, and so:

$$I_1 = \frac{V_1}{|Z_{total}|} \angle(-\theta)$$

$$I_2 = \frac{V_2}{|Z_{total}|} \angle(-120^\circ - \theta)$$

$$I_3 = \frac{V_3}{|Z_{total}|} \angle(120^\circ - \theta)$$

where Z_{total} is the sum of line and load impedances ($Z_{total} = Z_{LN} + Z_Y$), and θ is the phase of the total impedance (Z_{total}).

The phase angle difference between voltage and current of each phase is not necessarily 0 and is dependent on the type of load impedance, Z_Y . Inductive and capacitive loads will cause current to either lag or lead the voltage. However, the relative phase angle between each pair of lines (1 to 2, 2 to 3, and 3 to 1) will still be -120 degrees.

By performing Kirchhoff's Current Law (KCL) on the neutral node, the three phase currents sum up to the total current in the neutral line.

In the balanced case:

$$I_1 + I_2 + I_3 = I_n = 0$$

Delta

In the delta circuit loads are connected across the lines and so loads see line-to-line voltages:

$$\begin{aligned}V_{12} &= V_1 - V_2 = (V_{LN}\angle 0^\circ) - (V_{LN}\angle -120^\circ) \\ &= \sqrt{3}V_{LN}\angle 30^\circ = \sqrt{3}V_1\angle(\text{phase}_{V_1} + 30^\circ)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}V_{23} &= V_2 - V_3 = (V_{LN}\angle -120^\circ) - (V_{LN}\angle 120^\circ) \\ &= \sqrt{3}V_{LN}\angle -90^\circ = \sqrt{3}V_2\angle(\text{phase}_{V_2} + 30^\circ)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}V_{31} &= V_3 - V_1 = (V_{LN}\angle 120^\circ) - (V_{LN}\angle 0^\circ) \\ &= \sqrt{3}V_{LN}\angle 150^\circ = \sqrt{3}V_3\angle(\text{phase}_{V_3} + 30^\circ)\end{aligned}$$

Further:

$$\begin{aligned}I_{12} &= \frac{V_{12}}{|Z_\Delta|}\angle(30^\circ - \theta) \\ I_{23} &= \frac{V_{23}}{|Z_\Delta|}\angle(-90^\circ - \theta) \\ I_{31} &= \frac{V_{31}}{|Z_\Delta|}\angle(150^\circ - \theta)\end{aligned}$$

where θ is the phase of delta impedance (Z_Δ).

Relative angles are preserved, so I_{31} lags I_{23} lags I_{12} by 120 degrees. Calculating line currents by using KCL at each delta node gives:

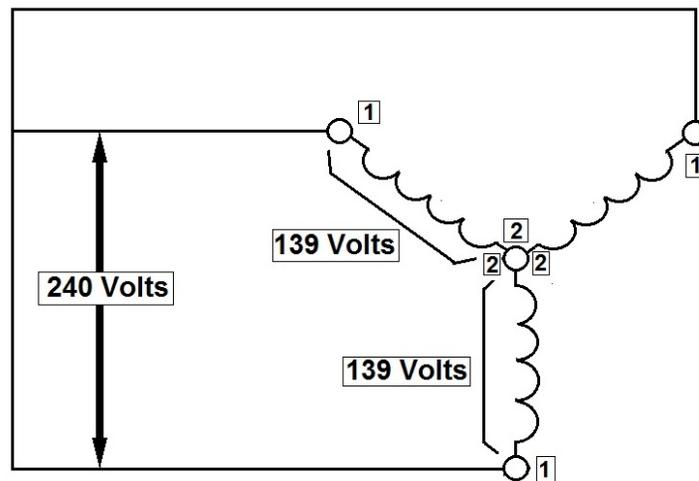
$$\begin{aligned}I_1 &= I_{12} - I_{31} = I_{12} - I_{12}\angle 120^\circ \\ &= \sqrt{3}I_{12}\angle(\text{phase}_{I_{12}} - 30^\circ) = \sqrt{3}I_{12}\angle(-\theta)\end{aligned}$$

And similarly for each other line:

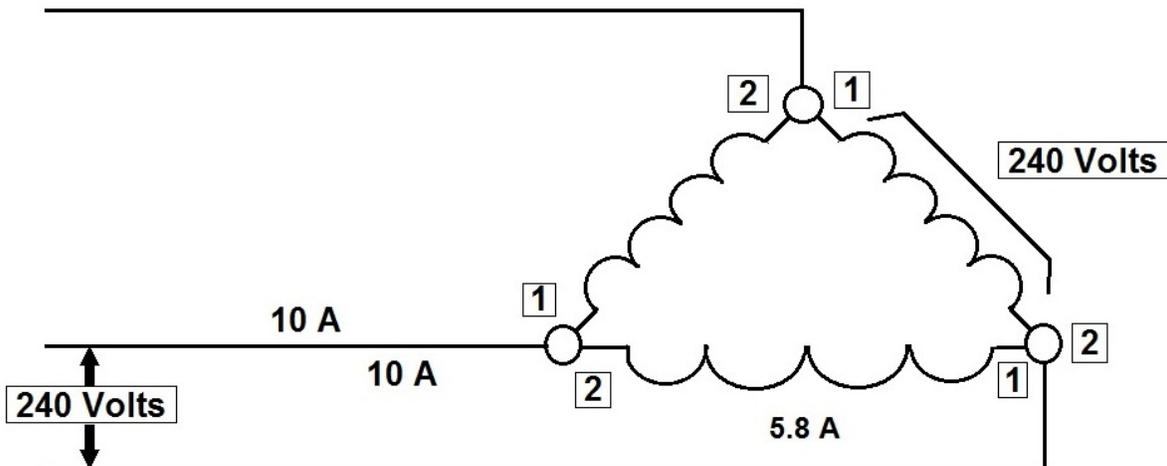
$$\begin{aligned}I_2 &= \sqrt{3}I_{23}\angle(\text{phase}_{I_{23}} - 30^\circ) = \sqrt{3}I_{23}\angle(-120^\circ - \theta) \\ I_3 &= \sqrt{3}I_{31}\angle(\text{phase}_{I_{31}} - 30^\circ) = \sqrt{3}I_{31}\angle(120^\circ - \theta)\end{aligned}$$

again, θ is the phase of delta impedance (Z_Δ).

Three Phase Wyes and Deltas

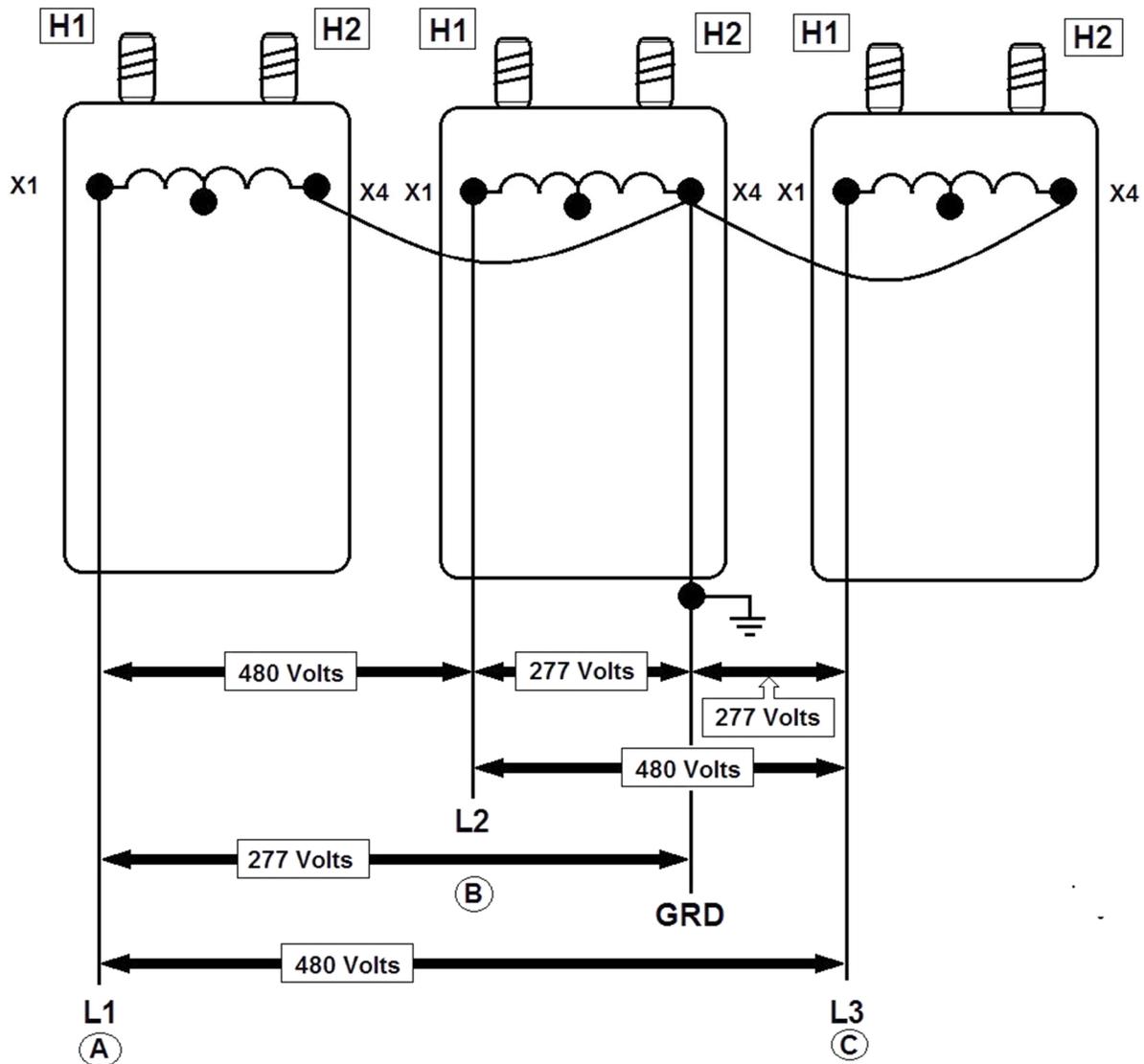


Three phase voltages can be generated and transformed as either a Wye or a Delta. Wye and Delta refer to the connections between the single phase windings which connect to create three phase voltages. Notice the polarity of each winding at the connection points. In a Wye all the ends or 2's are connected together while the beginnings or 1's are connected to the three phase power source, L1, L2, and L3. In a Delta the end (2) of one winding is connected to the beginning (1) of another winding. Three phase power is connected to each of these 1,2 junction points.



Each system, Wye and Delta, has a useful purpose. Voltage flow affects each system differently due to polarity and the physical relationship of each winding to another.

In a Wye system voltage phase to phase is 1.73 times greater than the phase-to-ground voltage. The 1.73 is derived from the square root of three. This accounts for the relationship of the three different single phase voltages. In a Delta system the phase-to-phase current is 1.73 times greater than the current in each individual phase or winding.



The Wye system is quite popular for newer and larger commercial and industrial buildings.

Wye systems must always be grounded to stabilize the voltage levels. 480 Volts is one of the best voltages to operate three phase motors. 277 Volts is one of the best voltages to operate High Intensity Discharge lighting. A Wye system can deliver both of these voltages. Phase-to-phase the voltage is 480. Phase-to-ground the voltage is 277.

For any three phase system to operate efficiently the single phase loads must be balanced.

The current delivered on Phase A should equal the current delivered on Phase B.

The current delivered on Phase B should equal the current delivered on Phase C.

Of course no system will be perfectly balanced due to varying single phase loads. However, the goal is to balance the loads as close as possible.

Polyphase System

A **polyphase system** is a means of distributing alternating-current electrical power. Polyphase systems have three or more energized electrical conductors carrying alternating currents with a definite time offset between the voltage waves in each conductor. Polyphase systems are particularly useful for transmitting power to electric motors.

The most common example is the three-phase power system used for industrial applications and for power transmission. The most obvious advantage of three-phase power transmission using three wires, as compared to single-phase power transmission over two wires, is that the power transmitted in the three-phase system is the voltage multiplied by the current in each wire times the square root of three (approximately 1.73). The power transmitted by the single-phase system is simply the voltage multiplied by the current. Thus the three-phase system transmits 73% more power but uses only 50% more wire.

Phases

In the very early days of commercial electric power, some installations used two-phase four-wire systems for motors. The chief advantage of these was that the winding configuration was the same as for a single-phase capacitor-start motor and, by using a four-wire system, conceptually the phases were independent and easy to analyze with mathematical tools available at the time.

Two-phase systems can also be implemented using three wires (two "hot" plus a common neutral). However, this introduces asymmetry; the voltage drop in the neutral makes the phases not exactly 90 degrees apart.

Two-phase systems have been replaced with three-phase systems. A two-phase supply with 90 degrees between phases can be derived from a three-phase system using a Scott-connected transformer.

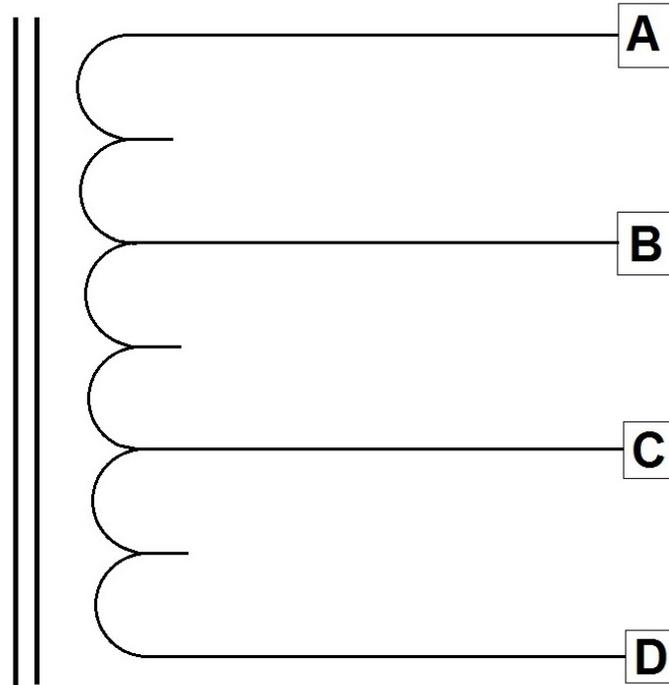
A polyphase system must provide a defined direction of phase rotation, so mirror image voltages do not count towards the phase order. A 3-wire system with two phase conductors 180 degrees apart is still only single phase. Such systems are sometimes described as split-phase.

Motors

Polyphase power is particularly useful in AC motors, such as the induction motor, where it generates a rotating magnetic field. When a three-or-more-phase supply completes one full cycle, the magnetic field of a two-poles-per-phase motor has rotated through 360° in physical space; motors with more than two poles per phase require more power supply cycles to complete one physical revolution of the magnetic field and so these motors run slower. Induction motors using a rotating magnetic field were independently invented by Galileo Ferraris and Nikola Tesla (1885 - 1887) and developed in a three-phase form by Mikhail Dolivo-Dobrovolsky in 1889.

Previously all commercial motors were DC, with expensive commutators, high-maintenance brushes and characteristics unsuitable for operation on an alternating current network. Polyphase motors are simple to construct, are self-starting and have little vibration compared with single-phase motors.

Practice Exercise

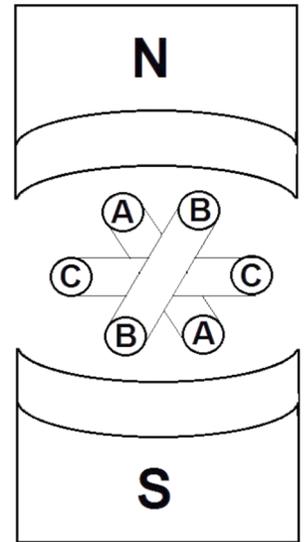
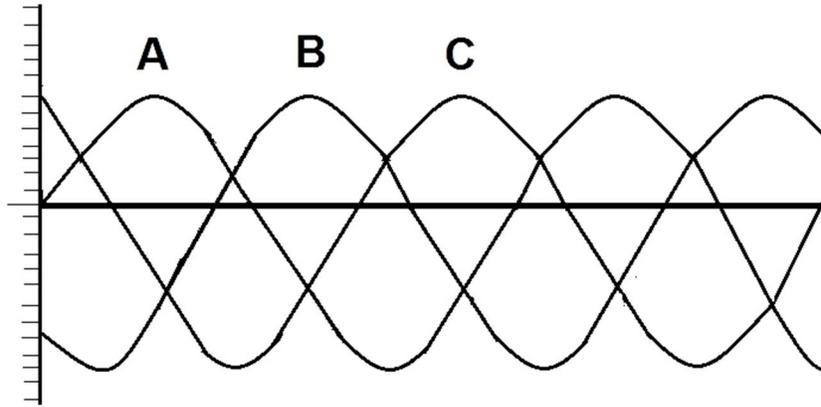


The autotransformer shown above has two taps, equally spaced on the winding. At which points should the primary and secondary connections be made to:

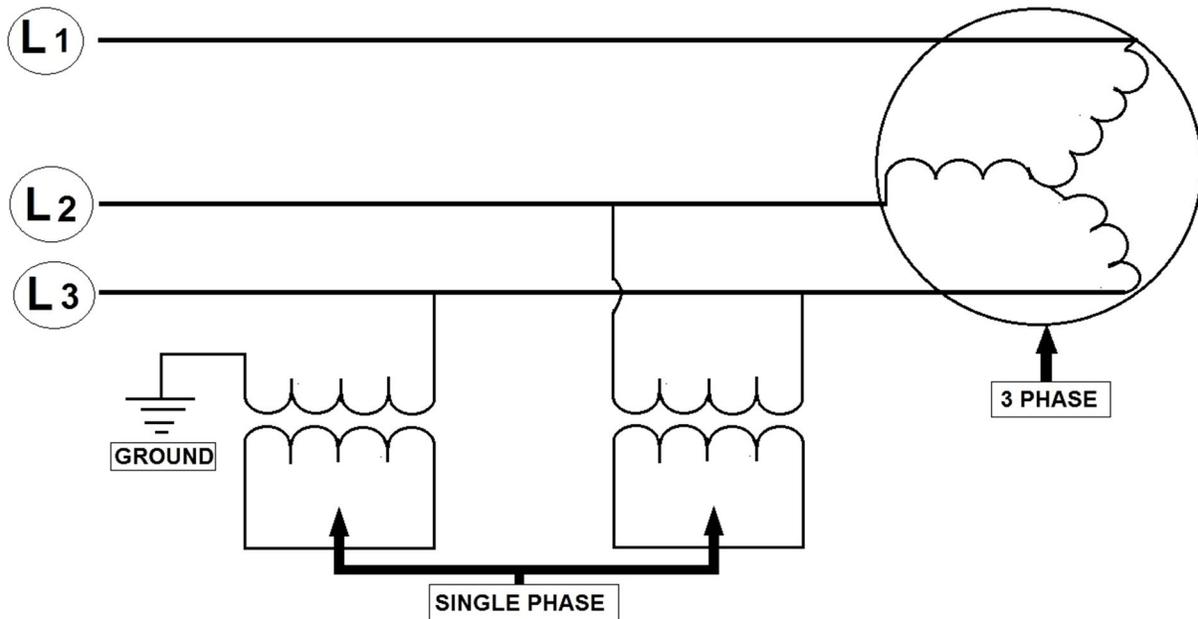
	Primary	Secondary
1. step 240 volts up to 480 volts.	_____	_____
2. step 240 volts down to 160 volts.	_____	_____
3. provide 30 amperes out with 10 amperes in.	_____	_____

3-Phase Power

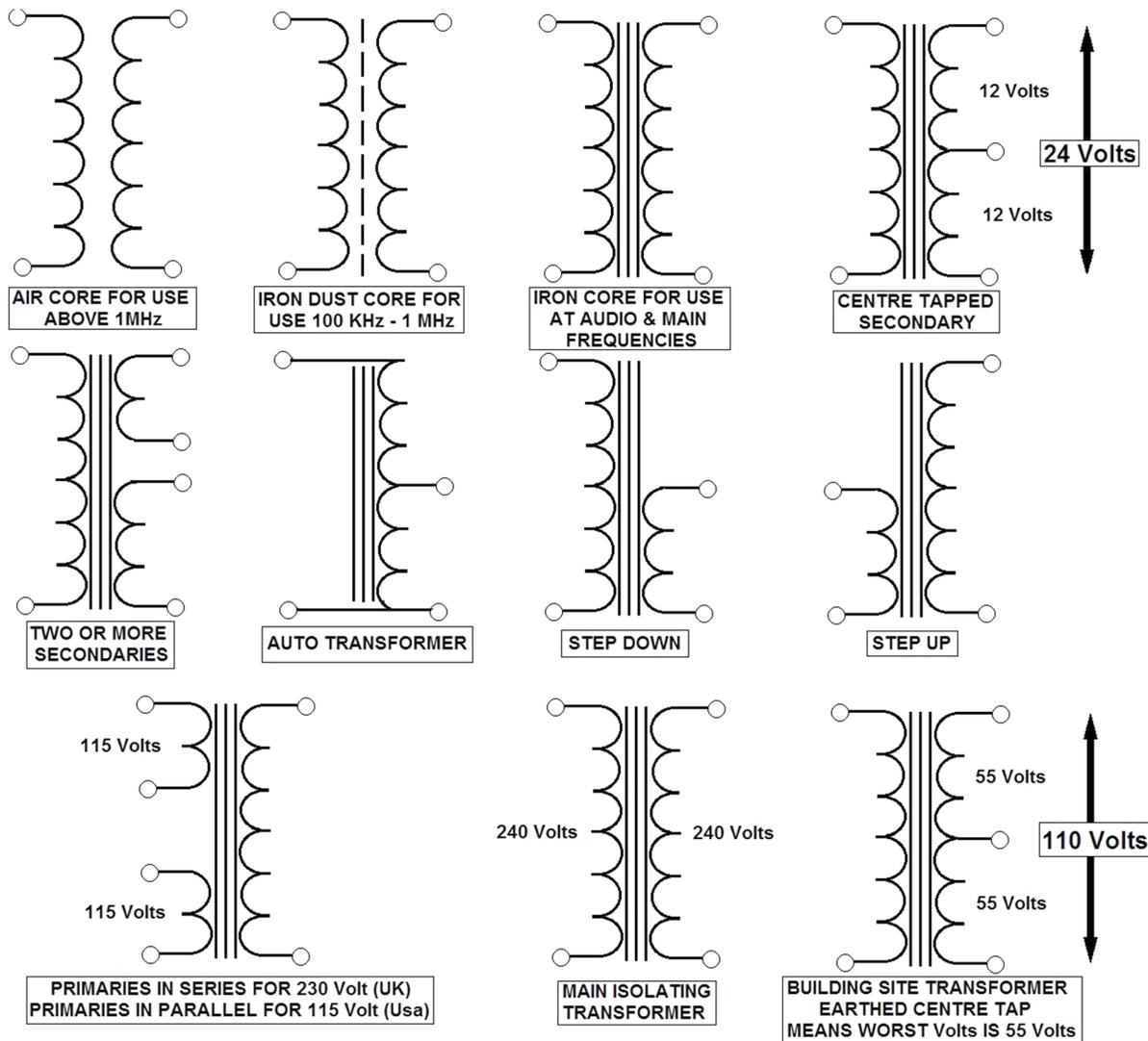
Most power is distributed in the form of 3-phase AC. Basically, instead of just one coil turning in a generator, there are three coils, spaced 120 degrees apart.



As the coils turn through the magnetic field, power is sent out on three lines. Three current and voltage sine waves are generated, 120 degrees out of phase with each other. Each sine wave represents the current or voltage on one of the phases.



Three-phase electricity powers large industrial loads more efficiently than single phase electricity. When- single-phase electricity is needed, it is available between any two phases, or, in some systems, between one of the phases and ground.



TYPES OF TRANSFORMERS

Higher Phase Order

Higher phase numbers than three have been used. A common practice for rectifier installations and in HVDC converters is to provide six phases, with 60-degree phase spacing, to reduce harmonic generation in the AC supply system and to provide smoother direct current.

Experimental high-phase-order transmission lines have been built with up to 12 phases. These allow application of Extra High Voltage (EHV) design rules at lower voltages and would permit increased power transfer in the same transmission line corridor width.

Electrical Motors Section Post Quiz

Hyperlink to Assignment...

<http://www.abctlc.com/downloads/PDF/PumpPrimer3Ass.pdf>

1. An AC motor has two parts: a stationary stator having coils supplied with alternating current to produce a _____, and a rotor attached to the output shaft that is given a torque by the rotating field.
2. A synchronous electric motor is an AC motor distinguished by a rotor spinning with coils passing magnets at the same rate as the alternating current and resulting _____ which drives it.
3. Slip rings and brushes are used to conduct current to the rotor. The rotor poles connect to each other and move at the same speed hence the name-_____.
4. Low-power synchronous timing motors (such as those for traditional electric clocks) may have multi-pole permanent-magnet external cup rotors, and use shading coils to provide starting_____.
5. _____ is an asynchronous AC motor where power is transferred to the rotor by electromagnetic induction, much like transformer action.
6. An induction motor resembles a _____, because the stator (stationary part) is essentially the primary side of the transformer and the rotor (rotating part) is the secondary side.
7. Induction motors may be further divided into _____ and wound-rotor motors.
8. Squirrel-cage motors have a heavy winding made up of solid bars, usually aluminum or copper, joined by rings at the _____. When one considers only the bars and rings as a whole, they are much like an animal's rotating exercise cage, hence the name.
9. Currents induced into this winding provide the rotor magnetic field. The shape of the rotor bars determines the _____ characteristics.
10. At low speeds, the current induced in the squirrel cage is nearly at line frequency and tends to be in the outer parts of _____.

11. As the motor accelerates, the slip frequency becomes lower, and more current is in the interior of the winding.

A. True B. False

12. In a wound-rotor motor, the rotor winding is made of many turns of insulated wire and is connected to slip rings on the motor shaft.

A. True B. False

13. An external resistor or other control devices can be connected in the rotor circuit. Resistors allow control of the motor speed, although significant power is dissipated in the external resistance.

A. True B. False

14. A transformer can be fed from the rotor circuit and return the slip-frequency power that would otherwise be wasted back into the power system through an inverter or separate motor-generator.

A. True B. False

15. _____ can be changed because the torque curve of the motor is effectively modified by the amount of resistance connected to the rotor circuit. Increasing the value of resistance will move the speed of maximum torque down.

16. _____ have two independent multiphase winding sets, which contribute active (i.e., working) power to the energy conversion process, with at least one of the winding sets electronically controlled for variable speed operation.

17. Two independent multiphase winding sets (i.e., dual armature) are the minimum provided in a single package without topology duplication.

A. True B. False

18. A torque motor (also known as a limited torque motor) is a specialized form of induction motor which is capable of operating indefinitely while stalled, that is, with the rotor blocked from turning, without incurring damage. In this mode of operation, the motor will apply a steady torque to the load (hence the name).

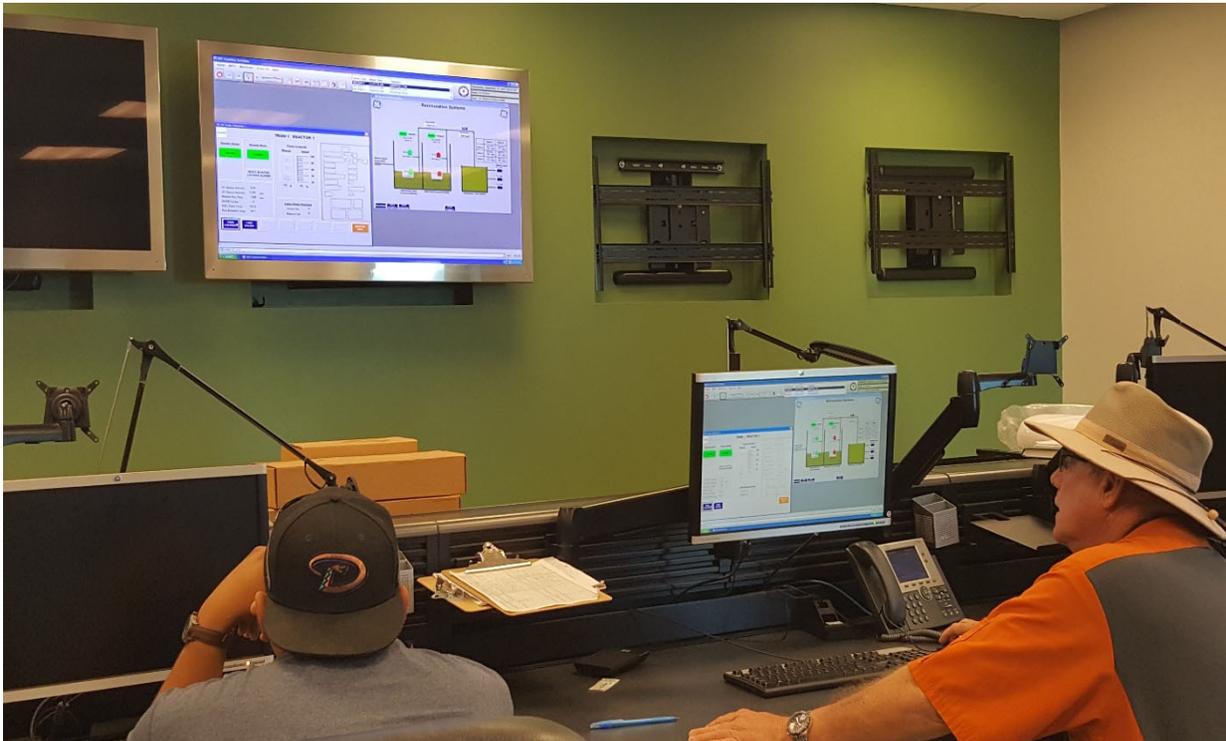
A. True B. False

Answers: 1. Rotating magnetic field, 2. Magnetic field, 3. Synchronous motor, 4. Torque, 5. An induction motor, 6. Rotating transformer, 7. Squirrel-cage motors, 8. Ends of the rotor, 9. Speed-torque 10. The rotor cage, 11. True, 12. True, 13. True, 14. False, 15. Motor speed, 16. Doubly fed electric motors, 17. False, 18. True

Section 2 – SCADA Introduction

Section Focus: You will learn the basics of the SCADA (or supervisory control and data acquisition) system. The student will be able to describe the purpose of SCADA and the basic operation of SCADA systems. There is a post quiz at the end of this section to review your comprehension and a final examination in the Assignment for your contact hours.

Scope/Background: Industrial organizations and companies in the public and private sectors to control and maintain efficiency, distribute data for smarter decisions, and communicate system issues to help mitigate downtime use SCADA systems.



What is SCADA and Who Uses It?

Supervisory control and data acquisition (SCADA) is a system of software and hardware elements that allows industrial organizations to:

- Control industrial processes locally or at remote locations
- Monitor, gather, and process real-time data
- Directly interact with devices such as sensors, valves, pumps, motors, and more through human-machine interface (HMI) software
- Record events into a log file

SCADA systems are crucial for industrial organizations since they help to maintain efficiency, process data for smarter decisions, and communicate system issues to help mitigate downtime.

The basic SCADA architecture begins with programmable logic controllers (PLCs) or remote terminal units (RTUs). PLCs and RTUs are microcomputers that communicate with an array of objects such as factory machines, HMIs, sensors, and end devices, and then route the information from those objects to computers with SCADA software. The SCADA software processes, distributes, and displays the data, helping operators and other employees analyze the data and make important decisions.

For example, the SCADA system quickly notifies an operator that a batch of product is showing a high incidence of errors. The operator pauses the operation and views the SCADA system data via an HMI to determine the cause of the issue. The operator reviews the data and discovers that Machine 4 was malfunctioning. The SCADA system's ability to notify the operator of an issue helps him to resolve it and prevent further loss of product.

SCADA systems are used by industrial organizations and companies in the public and private sectors to control and maintain efficiency, distribute data for smarter decisions, and communicate system issues to help mitigate downtime.

SCADA systems work well in many different types of enterprises because they can range from simple configurations to large, complex installations. SCADA systems are the backbone of many modern industries, including:

- Energy
- Food and beverage
- Manufacturing
- Oil and gas
- Power
- Recycling
- Transportation
- Water and wastewater
- And many more

Virtually anywhere you look in today's world, there is some type of SCADA system running behind the scenes: maintaining the refrigeration systems at the local supermarket, ensuring production and safety at a refinery, achieving quality standards at a waste water treatment plant, or even tracking your energy use at home, to give a few examples.

Effective SCADA systems can result in significant savings of time and money. Numerous case studies have been published highlighting the benefits and savings of using a modern SCADA software solution such as Ignition.

SCADA Simply Explained



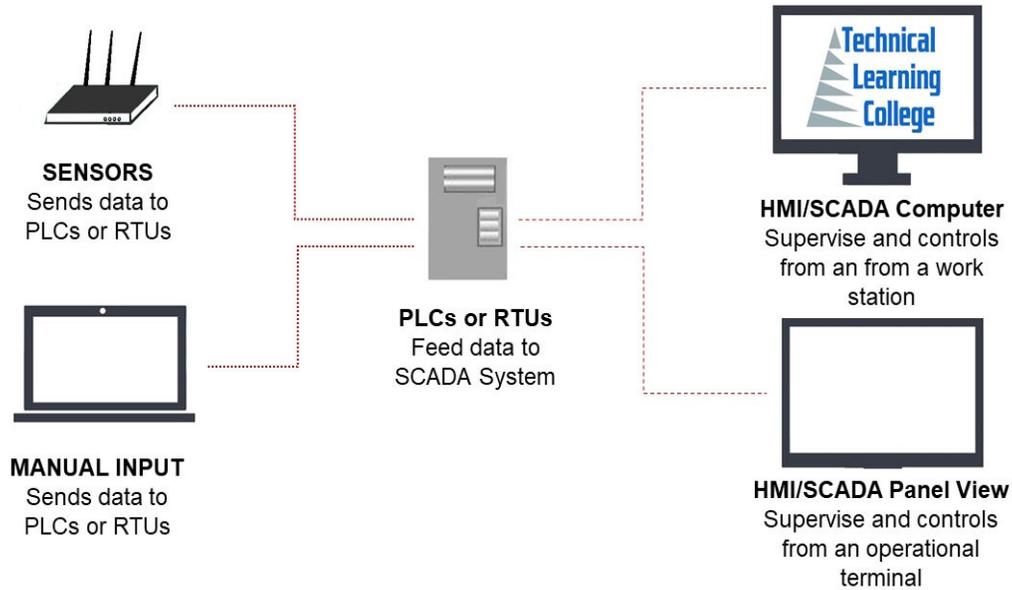
Supervisory control and data acquisition – SCADA refers to ICS (industrial control systems) used to control infrastructure processes (water treatment, wastewater treatment, gas pipelines, wind farms, etc.), facility-based processes (airports, space stations, ships, etc.), or industrial processes (production, manufacturing, refining, power generation, etc.).

Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) is a control system architecture that uses computers, networked data communications and graphical user interfaces for high-level process supervisory management, but uses other peripheral devices such as programmable logic controller (PLC) and discrete PID controllers to interface with the process plant or machinery. The use of SCADA has been also considered for management and operations of project-driven-process in construction.

The following subsystems are usually present in SCADA systems:

- The apparatus used by a human operator; all the processed data are presented to the operator
- A supervisory system that gathers all the required data about the process
- Remote Terminal Units (RTUs) connected to the sensors of the process, which helps to convert the sensor signals to the digital data and send the data to supervisory stream.
- Programmable Logic Controller (PLCs) used as field devices
- Communication infrastructure connects the Remote Terminal Units to supervisory system.

Generally, a SCADA system does not control the processes in real time – it usually refers to the system that coordinates the processes in real time.



BASIC SCADA DIAGRAM

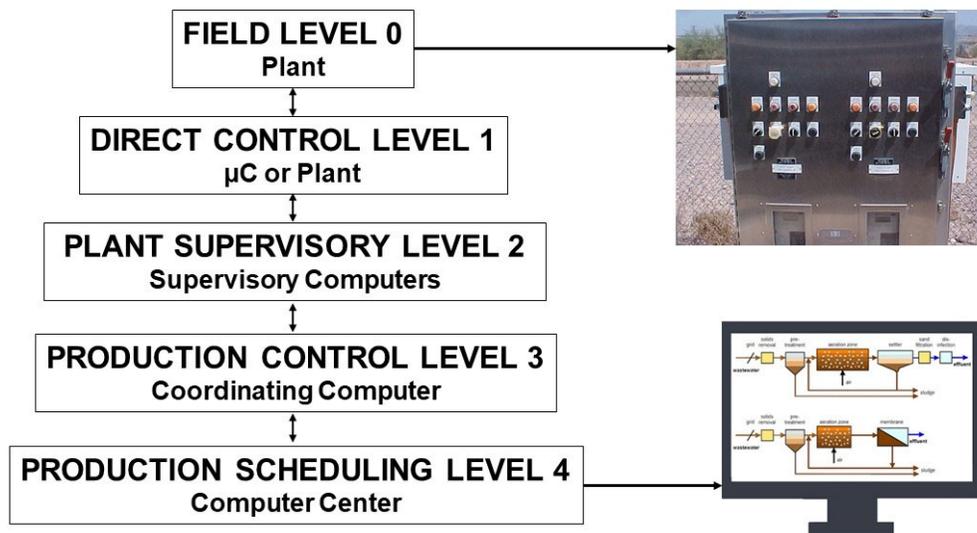
Remote Operation

SCADA is a real time control tool. It is not supposed to be a tool for detailed analysis of past performance but you the operator are able to research past performance to be able to react to current conditions. Thus, some form of trending is included with SCADA. The trending function is as close to analysis as most SCADA software get.

Let us say a water treatment operator wants to examine chemical usage in GAC filters and determine how each filter behaved over the past six weeks. In this case, SCADA is your tool of choice.

Some SCADA let you look at these three filters and compare their performance with some time period in the past.

SCADA Systems Concepts



FUNCTION LEVELS OF CONTROL OPERATION

SCADA refers to the centralized systems that control and monitor the entire sites, or they are the complex systems spread out over large areas. Nearly all the control actions are automatically performed by the remote terminal units (RTUs) or by the programmable logic controllers (PLCs). The restrictions to the host control functions are supervisory level intervention or basic overriding.

For example, the PLC (in an industrial process) controls the flow of cooling water, the SCADA system allows any changes related to the alarm conditions and set points for the flow (such as high temperature, loss of flow, etc.) to be recorded and displayed.

Data acquisition starts at the PLC or RTU level, which includes the equipment status reports, and meter readings. Data is then formatted in such way that the operator of the control room can make the supervisory decisions to override or adjust normal PLC (RTU) controls, by using the HMI.

SCADA systems mostly implement the distributed databases known as tag databases, containing data elements called points or tags. A point is a single output or input value controlled or monitored by the system. Points are either 'soft' or 'hard'.

The actual output or input of a system is represented by a hard point, whereas the soft point is a result of different math and logic operations applied to other points. These points are usually stored as timestamp-value pairs.

Series of the timestamp-value pairs gives history of the particular point. Storing additional metadata with the tags is common (these additional data can include comments on the design time, alarm information, path to the field device or the PLC register).

The key attribute of a SCADA system is its ability to perform a supervisory operation over a variety of other proprietary devices.

The accompanying diagram is a general model which shows functional manufacturing levels using computerised control.

SCADA systems typically use a tag database, which contains data elements called tags or points, which relate to specific instrumentation or actuators within the process system according to such as the Piping and instrumentation diagram.

Data is accumulated against these unique process control equipment tag references.

Referring to the diagram,

Level 0 contains the field devices such as flow and temperature sensors, and final control elements, such as control valves.

Level 1 contains the industrialised input/output (I/O) modules, and their associated distributed electronic processors.

Level 2 contains the supervisory computers, which collate information from processor nodes on the system, and provide the operator control screens.

Level 3 is the production control level, which does not directly control the process, but is concerned with monitoring production and targets.

Level 4 is the production scheduling level.

Level 1 contains the programmable logic controllers (PLCs) or remote terminal units (RTUs).

Level 2 contains the SCADA software and computing platform. The SCADA software exists only at this supervisory level as control actions are performed automatically by RTUs or PLCs. SCADA control functions are usually restricted to basic overriding or supervisory level intervention.

For example, a PLC may control the flow of cooling water through part of an industrial process to a set point level, but the SCADA system software will allow operators to change the set points for the flow.

The SCADA also enables alarm conditions, such as loss of flow or high temperature, to be displayed and recorded. A feedback control loop is directly controlled by the RTU or PLC, but the SCADA software monitors the overall performance of the loop.

Levels 3 and 4 are not strictly process control in the traditional sense, but are where production control and scheduling takes place.

Data acquisition begins at the RTU or PLC level and includes instrumentation readings and equipment status reports that are communicated to level 2 SCADA as required.

Data is then compiled and formatted in such a way that a control room operator using the HMI (Human Machine Interface) can make supervisory decisions to adjust or override normal RTU (PLC) controls. Data may also be fed to a historian, often built on a commodity database management system, to allow trending and other analytical auditing.

Considerations of SCADA System

Typical considerations when putting a SCADA system together are:

- Overall control requirements
- Sequence logic
- Analog loop control
- Ratio and number of analog to digital points
- Speed of control and data acquisition
- Master/operator control stations
- Type of displays required
- Historical archiving requirements
- System consideration
- Reliability/availability
- Speed of communications/update time/system scan rates
- System redundancy
- Expansion capability
- Application software and modeling

Benefits of a SCADA System

Obviously, a SCADA system's initial cost has to be justified.

A few typical reasons for implementing a SCADA system are:

1. Improved operation of the plant or process resulting in savings due to optimization of the system
2. Increased productivity of the personnel
3. Improved safety of the system due to better information and improved control
4. Protection of the plant equipment
5. Safeguarding the environment from a failure of the system
6. Improved energy savings due to optimization of the plant
7. Improved and quicker receipt of data so that clients can be invoiced more quickly and accurately
8. Government regulations for safety and metering of gas (for royalties etc.)

Human Machine Interface Introduction

The HMI, or Human Machine Interface, is an apparatus that gives the processed data to the human operator. A human operator uses HMI to control processes.

The HMI is linked to the SCADA system's databases, to provide the diagnostic data, management information and trending information such as logistic information, detailed schematics for a certain machine or sensor, maintenance procedures and troubleshooting guides.

The information provided by the HMI to the operating personnel is graphical, in the form of mimic diagrams. This means the schematic representation of the plant that is being controlled is available to the operator.

For example, a photograph of the pump that is connected to the pipe shows that this pump is running and it also shows the amount of fluid pumping through the pipe at the particular moment. The pump can then be switched off by the operator.

The software of the HMI shows the decrease in the flow rate of fluid in the pipe in the real time. Mimic diagrams either consist of digital photographs of process equipment with animated symbols, or schematic symbols and line graphics that represent various process elements.

HMI package of the SCADA systems consist of a drawing program used by the system maintenance personnel or operators to change the representation of these points in the interface.

These representations can be as simple as on-screen traffic light that represents the state of the actual traffic light in the area, or complex, like the multi-projector display that represents the position of all the trains on railway or elevators in skyscraper.

SCADA systems are commonly used in alarm systems. The alarm has only two digital status points with values ALARM or NORMAL.

When the requirements of the Alarm are met, the activation will start. For example, when the fuel tank of a car is empty, the alarm is activated and the light signal is on. To alert the SCADA operators and managers, text messages and emails are sent along with alarm activation.

Supervisory Station Introduction

A 'supervisory Station' refers to the software and servers responsible for communication with the field equipment (PLCs, RTUs etc.), and after that, to HMI software running on the workstations in the control room, or somewhere else.

A master station can be composed of only one PC (in small SCADA systems). Master station can have multiple servers, disaster recovery sites and distributed software applications in larger SCADA systems. For increasing the system integrity, multiple servers are occasionally configured in hot standby or dual-redundant formation, providing monitoring and continuous control during server failures.

SCADA Hardware

SCADA system may have the components of the Distributed Control System. Execution of easy logic processes without involving the master computer is possible because 'smart' PLCs or RTUs. IEC61131-3(Ladder Logic) is used, (this is a functional block programming language, commonly used in creating programs running on PLCs and RTUs.) IEC 61131-3 has very few training requirements, unlike procedural languages like FORTRAN and C programming language.

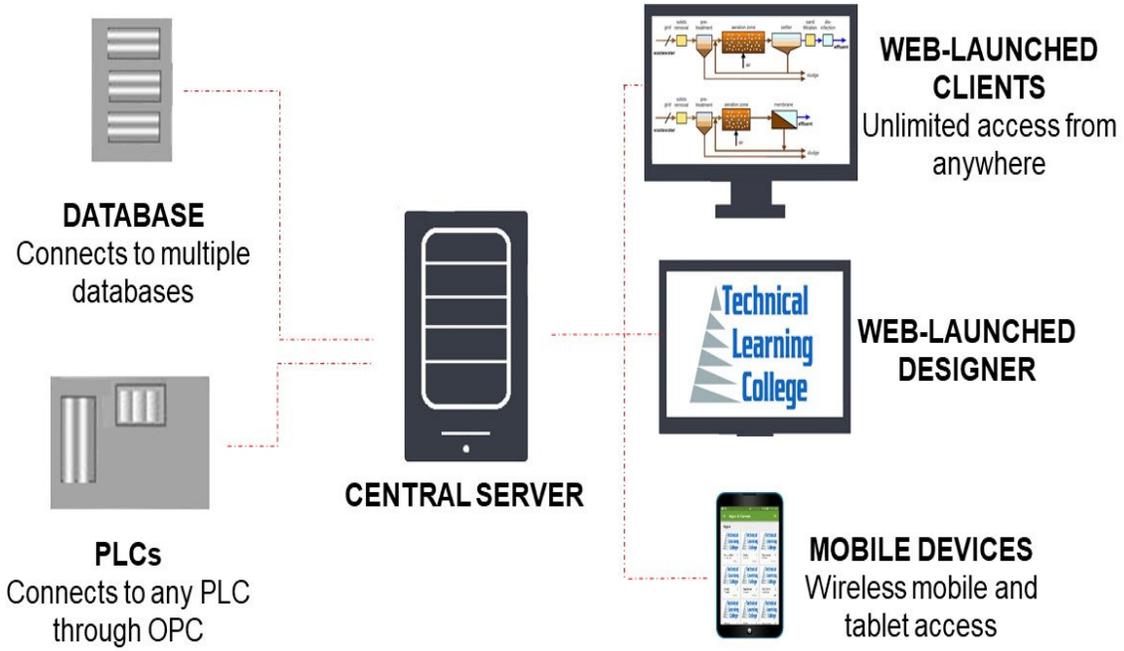
The SCADA system engineers can perform implementation and design of programs being executed on PLC or RTU. The compact controller, Programmable automation controller (PAC), combines the capabilities and features of a PC-based control system with a typical PLC.

'Distributed RTUs', in various electrical substation SCADA applications, use station computers or information processors for communicating with PACs, protective relays, and other I/O devices. Almost all big PLC manufacturers offer integrated HMI/SCADA systems, since 1998. Many of them are using non-proprietary and open communication protocols.

Many skilled third party HMI/SCADA packages have stepped into the market, offering in-built compatibility with several major PLCs, which allows electrical engineers, mechanical engineers or technicians to configure HMIs on their own, without requiring software-developer-written custom-made program.

Remote Terminal Unit (RTU)

The RTU is connected to the physical equipment. Often, the RTU converts all electrical signals coming from the equipment into digital values like the status- open/closed – from a valve or switch, or the measurements like flow, pressure, current or voltage. By converting and sending the electrical signals to the equipment, RTU may control the equipment, like closing or opening a valve or a switch, or setting the speed of the pump.



MODERN SCADA DIAGRAM

SCADA Operational Philosophy

The costs resulting from control system failures are very high. Even lives may be lost. For a few SCADA systems, hardware is ruggedized, to withstand temperature, voltage and vibration extremes, and reliability is increased, in many critical installations, by including communications channels and redundant hardware. A part which is failing can be identified and the functionality taken over automatically through backup hardware. It can be replaced without any interruption of the process.

Communication Methods and Infrastructure

SCADA systems initially used modem connections or combinations of direct and radio serial to meet communication requirements, even though IP and Ethernet over SONET/SDH can also be used at larger sites like power stations and railways. The monitoring function or remote management of the SCADA system is called telemetry.

SCADA protocols have been designed to be extremely compact and to send information to the master station only when the RTU is polled by the master station. Typically, the legacy of SCADA protocols consists of Conitel, Profibus, Modbus RTU and RP-570. These protocols of communication are specifically SCADA-vendor. Standard protocols are IEC 61850, DNP3 and IEC 60870-5-101 or 104. These protocols are recognized and standardized by all big SCADA vendors. Several of these protocols have extensions for operating through the TCP/IP.

The development of many automatic controller devices and RTUs had started before the advent of industry standards for the interoperability.

For better communication between different software and hardware, PLE for Process Control is a widely accepted solution that allows communication between the devices that originally weren't intended to be part of the industrial network.

Alarm Management Introduction

An important part of most SCADA implementations is alarm handling. The system monitors whether certain alarm conditions are satisfied, to determine when an alarm event has occurred. Once an alarm event has been detected, one or more actions are taken (such as the activation of one or more alarm indicators, and perhaps the generation of email or text messages so that management or remote SCADA operators are informed).

In many cases, a SCADA operator may have to acknowledge the alarm event; this may deactivate some alarm indicators, whereas other indicators remain active until the alarm conditions are cleared.

Alarm conditions can be explicit—for example, an alarm point is a digital status point that has either the value NORMAL or ALARM that is calculated by a formula based on the values in other analogue and digital points—or implicit: the SCADA system might automatically monitor whether the value in an analogue point lies outside high and low- limit values associated with that point.

Examples of alarm indicators include a siren, a pop-up box on a screen, or a colored or flashing area on a screen (that might act in a similar way to the "fuel tank empty" light in a car); in each case, the role of the alarm indicator is to draw the operator's attention to the part of the system 'in alarm' so that appropriate action can be taken.

PLC/RTU Programming

"Smart" RTUs, or standard PLCs, are capable of autonomously executing simple logic processes without involving the supervisory computer. They employ standardized control programming languages such as under, IEC 61131-3 (a suite of 5 programming languages including function block, ladder, structured text, sequence function charts and instruction list), is frequently used to create programs which run on these RTUs and PLCs.

Unlike a procedural language such as the C programming language or FORTRAN, IEC 61131-3 has minimal training requirements by virtue of resembling historic physical control arrays. This allows SCADA system engineers to perform both the design and implementation of a program to be executed on an RTU or PLC.

A programmable automation controller (PAC) is a compact controller that combines the features and capabilities of a PC-based control system with that of a typical PLC. PACs are deployed in SCADA systems to provide RTU and PLC functions.

In many electrical substation SCADA applications, "distributed RTUs" use information processors or station computers to communicate with digital protective relays, PACs, and other devices for I/O, and communicate with the SCADA master in lieu of a traditional RTU.

PLC Commercial Integration

Since about 1998, virtually all major PLC manufacturers have offered integrated HMI/SCADA systems, many of them using open and non-proprietary communications protocols.

Numerous specialized third-party HMI/SCADA packages, offering built-in compatibility with most major PLCs, have also entered the market, allowing mechanical engineers, electrical engineers and technicians to configure HMIs themselves, without the need for a custom-made program written by a software programmer.

The Remote Terminal Unit (RTU) connects to physical equipment. Typically, an RTU converts the electrical signals from the equipment to digital values such as the open/closed status from a switch or a valve, or measurements such as pressure, flow, voltage or current. By converting and sending these electrical signals out to equipment the RTU can control equipment, such as opening or closing a switch or a valve, or setting the speed of a pump.

SCADA Architectures

Monolithic: The First Generation

In the first generation, mainframe systems were used for computing. At the time SCADA was developed, networks did not exist. Therefore, the SCADA systems did not have any connectivity to other systems, meaning they were independent systems. Later on, RTU vendors designed the Wide Area Networks that helped in communication with RTU. The usage of communication protocols at that time was proprietary. If the mainframe system failed, there was a back-up mainframe, connected at the bus level.

Distributed: The Second Generation

The information between multiple stations was shared in real time through LAN and the processing was distributed between various multiple stations. The cost and size of the stations were reduced in comparison to the ones used in the first generation. The protocols used for the networks were still proprietary, which caused many security issues for SCADA systems. Due to the proprietary nature of the protocols, very few people actually knew how secure the SCADA installation was.

Networked: The Third Generation

The SCADA system used today belong to this generation. The communication between the system and the master station is done through the WAN protocols like the Internet Protocols (IP). Since the standard protocols used and the networked SCADA systems can be accessed through the internet, the vulnerability of the system is increased. However, the usage of security techniques and standard protocols means that security improvements can be applied in SCADA systems.

The Evolution of SCADA

The first iteration of SCADA started off with mainframe computers. Networks as we know them today were not available and each SCADA system stood on its own. These systems were what would now be referred to as monolithic SCADA systems.

In the 80s and 90s, SCADA continued to evolve thanks to smaller computer systems, Local Area Networking (LAN) technology, and PC-based HMI software. SCADA systems soon were able to be connected to other similar systems. Many of the LAN protocols used in these systems were proprietary, which gave vendors control of how to optimize data transfer. Unfortunately, these systems were incapable of communicating with systems from other vendors. These systems were called distributed SCADA systems.

In the 1990s and early 2000s, building upon the distributed system model, SCADA adopted an incremental change by embracing an open system architecture and communications protocols that were not vendor-specific. This iteration of SCADA, called a networked SCADA system, took advantage of communications technologies such as Ethernet. Networked SCADA systems allowed systems from other vendors to communicate with each other, alleviating the limitations imposed by older SCADA systems, and allowed organizations to connect more devices to the network.

While SCADA systems have undergone substantial evolutionary changes, many industrial organizations continued to struggle with industrial data access from the enterprise level.

By the late 1990s to the early 2000s, a technological boom occurred and personal computing and IT technologies accelerated in development. Structured query language (SQL) databases became the standard for IT databases but were not adopted by SCADA developers. This resulted in a rift between the fields of controls and IT, and SCADA technology became antiquated over time.

Traditional SCADA systems still use proprietary technology to handle data. Whether it is a data historian, a data connector, or other means of data transfer, the solution is messy and incredibly expensive. Modern SCADA systems aim to solve this problem by leveraging the best of controls and IT technology.

Communication Infrastructure and Methods

SCADA systems have traditionally used combinations of radio and direct wired connections, although SONET/SDH is also frequently used for large systems such as railways and power stations. The remote management or monitoring function of a SCADA system is often referred to as telemetry. Some users want SCADA data to travel over their pre-established corporate networks or to share the network with other applications. The legacy of the early low-bandwidth protocols remains, though.

SCADA protocols are designed to be very compact. Many are designed to send information only when the master station polls the RTU. Typical legacy SCADA protocols include Modbus RTU, RP-570, Profibus and Conitel. These communication protocols, with the exception of Modbus (Modbus has been made open by Schneider Electric), are all SCADA-vendor specific but are widely adopted and used. Standard protocols are IEC 60870-5-101 or 104, IEC 61850 and DNP3. These communication protocols are standardized and recognized by all major SCADA vendors. Many of these protocols now contain extensions to operate over TCP/IP. Although the use of conventional networking specifications, such as TCP/IP, blurs the line between traditional and industrial networking, they each fulfill fundamentally differing requirements. Network simulation can be used in conjunction with SCADA simulators to perform various 'what-if' analyses.

With increasing security demands (such as North American Electric Reliability Corporation (NERC) and critical infrastructure protection (CIP) in the US), there is increasing use of satellite-based communication. This has the key advantages that the infrastructure can be self-contained (not using circuits from the public telephone system), can have built-in encryption, and can be engineered to the availability and reliability required by the SCADA system operator. Earlier experiences using consumer-grade VSAT were poor. Modern carrier-class systems provide the quality of service required for SCADA.

RTUs and other automatic controller devices were developed before the advent of industry wide standards for interoperability. The result is that developers and their management created a multitude of control protocols. Among the larger vendors, there was also the incentive to create their own protocol to "lock in" their customer base. A list of automation protocols is compiled here.

OLE for process control (OPC) can connect different hardware and software, allowing communication even between devices originally not intended to be part of an industrial network. Standardisation in the field of mySCADA protocols resulted into the vendor independent protocol called OPC UA (Unified Architecture). OPC UA is starting to be widely adopted among multiple SCADA vendors.

SCADA Trends

In the late 1990s instead of using the RS-485, manufacturers used open message structures like Modbus ASCII and Modbus RTU (both developed by Modicon). By 2000, almost all I/O makers offered fully open interfacing like Modbus TCP instead of the IP and Ethernet.

SCADA systems are now in line with the standard networking technologies. The old proprietary standards are being replaced by the TCP/IP and Ethernet protocols. However, due to certain characteristics of frame-based network communication technology, Ethernet networks have been accepted by the majority of markets for HMI SCADA.

The 'Next Generation' protocols using XML web services and other modern web technologies, make themselves more IT supportable. A few examples of these protocols include Wonderware's SuiteLink, GE Fanuc's Proficy, I Gear's Data Transport Utility, Rockwell Automation's FactoryTalk and OPC-UA.

Some vendors have started offering application-specific SCADA systems that are hosted on remote platforms all over the Internet. Hence, there is no need to install systems at the user-end facility. Major concerns are related to the Internet connection reliability, security and latency. The SCADA systems are becoming omnipresent day by day. However, there are still some security issues.

SCADA Security Issues

Security of SCADA-based systems is being questioned, as they are potential targets to cyberterrorism/cyberwarfare attacks.

There is an erroneous belief that SCADA networks are safe enough because they are secured physically. It is also wrongly believed that SCADA networks are safe enough because they are disconnected from the Internet.

SCADA systems also are used for monitoring and controlling physical processes, like distribution of water, traffic lights, electricity transmissions, gas transportation and oil pipelines and other systems used in the modern society. Security is extremely important because destruction of the systems would have very bad consequences.

There are two major threats. The first one is unauthorized access to software, be it human access or intentionally induced changes, virus infections or other problems that can affect the control host machine. The second threat is related to the packet access to network segments that host SCADA devices. In numerous cases, there remains less or no security on actual packet control protocol; therefore, any person sending packets to SCADA device is in position to control it. Often, SCADA users infer that VPN is sufficient protection, and remain oblivious to the fact that physical access to network switches and jacks related to SCADA provides the capacity to bypass the security on control software and control SCADA networks.

SCADA vendors are addressing these risks by developing specialized industrial VPN and firewall solutions for SCADA networks that are based on TCP/IP. In addition, white-listing solutions have been implemented due to their ability to prevent unauthorized application changes.

SCADA systems that tie together decentralized facilities such as power, oil, gas pipelines, water distribution and wastewater collection systems were designed to be open, robust, and easily operated and repaired, but not necessarily secure.

The move from proprietary technologies to more standardized and open solutions together with the increased number of connections between SCADA systems, office networks and the Internet has made them more vulnerable to types of network attacks that are relatively common in computer security. For example, United States Computer Emergency Readiness Team (US-CERT) released a vulnerability advisory warning that unauthenticated users could download sensitive configuration information including password hashes from an Inductive Automation Ignition system utilizing a standard attack type leveraging access to the Tomcat Embedded Web server. Security researcher Jerry Brown submitted a similar advisory regarding a buffer overflow vulnerability in a Wonderware InBatchClient ActiveX control. Both vendors made updates available prior to public vulnerability release. Mitigation recommendations were standard patching practices and requiring VPN access for secure connectivity. Consequently, the security of some SCADA-based systems has come into question as they are seen as potentially vulnerable to cyber attacks.

In particular, security researchers are concerned about

- the lack of concern about security and authentication in the design, deployment and operation of some existing SCADA networks
- the belief that SCADA systems have the benefit of security through obscurity through the use of specialized protocols and proprietary interfaces
- the belief that SCADA networks are secure because they are physically secured
- the belief that SCADA networks are secure because they are disconnected from the Internet

SCADA systems are used to control and monitor physical processes, examples of which are transmission of electricity, transportation of gas and oil in pipelines, water distribution, traffic lights, and other systems used as the basis of modern society. The security of these SCADA systems is important because compromise or destruction of these systems would impact multiple areas of society far removed from the original compromise. For example, a blackout caused by a compromised electrical SCADA system would cause financial losses to all the customers that received electricity from that source. How security will affect legacy SCADA and new deployments remains to be seen.

There are many threat vectors to a modern SCADA system. One is the threat of unauthorized access to the control software, whether it is human access or changes induced intentionally or accidentally by virus infections and other software threats residing on the control host machine. Another is the threat of packet access to the network segments hosting SCADA devices. In many cases, the control protocol lacks any form of cryptographic security, allowing an attacker to control a SCADA device by sending commands over a network.

In many cases, SCADA users have assumed that having a VPN offered sufficient protection, unaware that security can be trivially bypassed with physical access to SCADA-related network jacks and switches. Industrial control vendors suggest approaching SCADA security like Information Security with a defense in depth strategy that leverages common IT practices

The reliable function of SCADA systems in our modern infrastructure may be crucial to public health and safety. As such, attacks on these systems may directly or indirectly threaten public health and safety. Such an attack has already occurred, carried out on Maroochy Shire Council's sewage control system in Queensland, Australia. Shortly after a contractor installed a SCADA system in January 2000, system components began to function erratically. Pumps did not run when needed and alarms were not reported.

More critically, sewage flooded a nearby park and contaminated an open surface-water drainage ditch and flowed 500 meters to a tidal canal. The SCADA system was directing sewage valves to open when the design protocol should have kept them closed. Initially this was believed to be a system bug.

Monitoring of the system logs revealed the malfunctions were the result of cyber attacks. Investigators reported 46 separate instances of malicious outside interference before the culprit was identified. The attacks were made by a disgruntled ex-employee of the company that had installed the SCADA system. The ex-employee was hoping to be hired by the utility full-time to maintain the system.

In April 2008, the Commission to Assess the Threat to the United States from Electromagnetic Pulse (EMP) Attack issued a Critical Infrastructures Report which discussed the extreme vulnerability of SCADA systems to an electromagnetic pulse (EMP) event. After testing and analysis, the Commission concluded: "SCADA systems are vulnerable to an EMP event."

The large numbers and widespread reliance on such systems by all of the Nation's critical infrastructures represent a systemic threat to their continued operation following an EMP event. Additionally, the necessity to reboot, repair, or replace large numbers of geographically widely dispersed systems will considerably impede the Nation's recovery from such an assault."

Summary

SCADA System

A SCADA (or supervisory control and data acquisition) system means a system consisting of a number of remote terminal units (or RTUs) collecting field data connected back to a master station via a communications system.

The master station displays the acquired data and allows the operator to perform remote control tasks.

The accurate and timely data (normally real-time) allows for optimization of the operation of the plant and process. A further benefit is more efficient, reliable and most importantly, safer operations. This all results in a lower cost of operation compared to earlier non-automated systems.

There is a fair degree of confusion between the definition of SCADA systems and process control system. SCADA has the connotation of remote or distant operation.

SCADA References

- Antunes, Ricardo; Poshdar, Mani (2018). "Envision of an integrated information system for project-driven production in construction". Proc. 26th Annual Conference of the International Group for Lean Construction (IGLC): 134–143. doi:10.24928/2018/0511. Retrieved 27 December 2018.
- Boys, Walt (18 August 2009). "Back to Basics: SCADA". Automation TV: Control Global - Control Design.
- "Cyberthreats, Vulnerabilities and Attacks on SCADA Networks" (PDF). Rosa Tang, berkeley.edu. Archived from the original (PDF) on 13 August 2012. Retrieved 1 August 2012.
- Boyer, Stuart A. (2010). SCADA Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition. USA: ISA - International Society of Automation. p. 179. ISBN 978-1-936007-09-7.
- Jeff Hieb (2008). Security Hardened Remote Terminal Units for SCADA Networks. University of Louisville.
- Aquino-Santos, Raul (30 November 2010). Emerging Technologies in Wireless Ad-hoc Networks: Applications and Future Development: Applications and Future Development. IGI Global. pp. 43–. ISBN 978-1-60960-029-7.
- "Introduction to Industrial Control Networks" (PDF). IEEE Communications Surveys and Tutorials. 2012.
- Bergan, Christian (August 2011). "Demystifying Satellite for the Smart Grid: Four Common Misconceptions". Electric Light & Powers. Utility Automation & Engineering T&D. Tulsa, OK: PennWell. 16 (8). Four. Retrieved 2 May 2012. satellite is a cost-effective and secure solution that can provide backup communications and easily support core smart grid applications like SCADA, telemetry, AMI backhaul and distribution automation
- OFFICE OF THE MANAGER NATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS SYSTEM October 2004. "Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) Systems" (PDF). NATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS SYSTEM.
- J. Russel. "A Brief History of SCADA/EMS (2015)". Archived from the original on 11 August 2015. Security Hardened Remote Terminal Units for SCADA Networks. ProQuest. 2008. pp. 12–. ISBN 978-0-549-54831-7.
- "SCADA as a service approach for interoperability of micro-grid platforms". Sustainable Energy, Grids and Network. 2016. doi:10.1016/j.segan.2016.08.001.
- "SCADA as a service approach for interoperability of micro-grid platforms", Sustainable Energy, Grids and Network, 2016, doi:10.1016/j.segan.2016.08.001
- "ICSA-11-231-01—INDUCTIVE AUTOMATION IGNITION INFORMATION DISCLOSURE VULNERABILITY" (PDF). 19 Aug 2011. Retrieved 21 Jan 2013.
- "ICSA-11-094-01—WONDERWARE INBATCH CLIENT ACTIVEX BUFFER OVERFLOW" (PDF). 13 Apr 2011. Retrieved 26 Mar 2013.
- D. Maynor and R. Graham (2006). "SCADA Security and Terrorism: We're Not Crying Wolf" (PDF).
- Robert Lemos (26 July 2006). "SCADA system makers pushed toward security". Security Focus. Retrieved 9 May 2007.
- "Industrial Security Best Practices" (PDF). Rockwell Automation. Retrieved 26 Mar 2013.
- Slay, J.; Miller, M. (November 2007). "Chpt 6: Lessons Learned from the Maroochy Water Breach". Critical infrastructure protection (Online-Ausg. ed.). Springer Boston. pp. 73–82. ISBN 978-0-387-75461-1. Retrieved 2 May 2012.
- http://www.empcommission.org/docs/A2473-EMP_Commission-7MB.pdf
- "Security for all". InTech. June 2008. Retrieved 2 May 2012.

SCADA Post Quiz

SCADA Acronyms and Abbreviations

Identify the following terms

1. FTP

2. HMI

3. ICS

4. LAN

True or False

5. A "historian", is a software service within the HMI which accumulates time-stamped data, events, and alarms in a database which can be queried or used to populate graphic trends in the HMI. True or False

6. The historian is a client that controls PLCs from a data acquisition server.
True or False

7. PLCs are often used in place of RTUs as field devices because they are more economical, versatile, flexible and configurable. True or False

8. SCADA systems are crucial for industrial organizations since they help to maintain efficiency, process data for smarter decisions, and communicate system issues to help mitigate downtime. True or False

Fill-in-the Blank

9. The basic SCADA _____ begins with programmable logic controllers (PLCs) or remote terminal units (RTUs). PLCs and RTUs are microcomputers that communicate with an array of objects such as factory machines, HMIs, sensors, and end devices, and then route the information from those objects to computers with SCADA software.

10. What missing term starts at the PLC or RTU level, which includes the equipment status reports, and meter readings?

11. SCADA systems are commonly used in alarm systems. The alarm has only two digital status points with values_____.
12. To alert the SCADA operators and managers, text messages and emails are sent along with_____.
13. By converting and sending the electrical signals to the equipment, _____may control the equipment, like closing or opening a valve or a switch, or setting the speed of the pump.
14. For increasing the system integrity, multiple servers are occasionally configured in_____, providing monitoring and continuous control during server failures.
15. "Smart" RTUs, or standard PLCs, are capable of autonomously executing simple logic processes without involving the_____.

Answers – 1. File Transfer Protocol, 2. Human-Machine Interface, 3. Industrial Control System, 4. Local Area Network, 5. True, 6. False, 7. True, 8. True, 9. Architecture, 10. Data acquisition, 11. ALARM or NORMAL, 12. Alarm activation, 13. RTU, 14. Hot standby or dual-redundant formation, 15. Supervisory computer

Electrical Motor Glossary

ALTERNATING CURRENT (AC) - A current which reverses in regularly recurring intervals of time and which has alternative positive and negative values, and occurring a specified number of times per second. The number is expressed in cycles per second or Hertz (Hz).

ALARM LIGHT - A light which is used to attract attention when a problem occurs in the system.

ALTERNATOR - A relay device designed for alternating the run cycle or duplexing action of two or more motors automatically. There are two basic types; one mechanically changes its contacts each time the operating coil is de-energized, and the second is a solid state unit with an output relay. The alternator is used in the automatic control circuit to the motor starters to rotate the duty cycle of each motor.

AMBIENT TEMPERATURE - Temperature of the surroundings in which the equipment is used or operated.

AMMETER - Meter for measuring the current in an electrical circuit, measured in amperes.

AMPERE - The unit of electric current flow. One ampere will flow when one volt is applied across a resistance of one ohm.

AUDIBLE ALARM - Horn, siren, bell, or buzzer which is used to attract the attention of the operator when a problem occurs in the system.

AUXILIARY CONTACTS - Contacts of a switching device in addition to the main current contacts that operate with the movement of the latter. They can be normally open (NO) or normally closed (NC) and change state when operated.

CAPACITOR - A device which introduces capacitance into an electrical circuit. The capacitor, when connected in an alternating current circuit, causes the current to lead the voltage in time phase. The peak of the current wave is reached ahead of the peak of the voltage wave. This is the result of the successive storage and discharge of electric energy.

CIRCUIT BREAKER - A mechanical switching device capable of making, carrying, and breaking currents under normal conditions. Also making, carrying for a specific time, and automatically breaking currents under specified abnormal circuit conditions, such as those of short circuit. Circuit breakers have an ampere trip rating for normal overload protection and a maximum magnetic ampere interrupting capacity (AIC) for short circuit protection.

COMMERCIAL POWER - The power furnished by an electric power utility.

CONDENSATION HEATER - A device that warms the air within an enclosure and prevents condensation of moisture during shut-down periods. Also known as a space heater.

CONDUCTOR - A wire, cable or bus bar designed for the passage of electrical current.

CONTACTOR - An electro-mechanical device that is operated by an electric coil and allows automatic or remote operation to repeatedly establish or interrupt an electrical power circuit. A contactor provides no overload protection as required for motor loads. Sometimes called a power relay.

CONTACTS - Devices for making and breaking electrical circuits, which are a part of all electrical switching devices.

CURRENT - The amount of electricity measured in amperes which is flowing in a circuit.

CYCLE - A given length of time (See Alternating Current). In the U.S., most electric current is 60 cycle (60 Hz).

CYCLE TIMER - A timer that repeatedly opens and closes contacts according to pre-set time cycles.

DELTA CONNECTION - A common three phase connection shaped schematically like the Greek Delta. The end of one phase is connected to the beginning of the next phase, or vice versa.

DESIGN LETTER - A letter that is shown on the motor nameplate indicating NEMA's classification of that motor. Classification encompasses characteristics such as full-voltage starting, locked rotor torque, breakdown torque, and others that determine electrical type.

DISCONNECTING MEANS (DISCONNECT) - A device or group of devices, or other means whereby all the ungrounded conductors of a circuit can be disconnected simultaneously from their source of supply.

ELAPSED TIME METER - An instrument used to record the amount of time each pump runs. One elapsed time meter is used per pump.

ELECTRIC UTILITIES - All enterprises engaged in the production and/or distribution of electricity for use by the public.

EMERGENCY POWER (ALTERNATE SOURCE OF POWER) - An independent reserve source of electric power which, upon failure or outage of the normal power source, provides stand-by electric power.

ENCLOSURE - The cabinet or specially designed box in which electrical controls and apparatus are housed. It is required by the National Electrical Code (NEC) to protect persons from live electrical parts and limit access to authorized personnel. It also provides mechanical and environmental protection. An enclosure should be designed to provide the required protection and sized to provide good, safe wire access and replacement of components. It can be manufactured of steel, galvanized or stainless steel, aluminum, or suitable non-metallic materials including fiberglass.

EXPLOSION-PROOF MOTOR - A motor in a special enclosure. The purpose of the enclosure is twofold:

- 1) If an explosive vapor (gas) should explode inside the motor, the frame of the motor will not be affected.
- 2) The enclosure is so constructed that no such explosion will ignite vapors outside the motor.

FACTORY MUTUAL (FM) - Independent U.S. agency associated with the insurance industry which tests for safety.

FREQUENCY - The number of complete cycles of an alternating voltage or current per unit of time and usually expressed in cycles per second or Hertz (Hz).

FULL LOAD CURRENT - The greatest current that a motor or other device is designed to carry under specific conditions; any additional is an overload.

FULL LOAD AMPS (FULL LOAD CURRENT) - The current flowing through a line terminal of a winding when rated voltage is applied at rated frequency with rated horsepower.

FUSE - An over-current protective device which consists of a conductor that melts and breaks when current exceeds rated value beyond a predetermined time.

GENERAL PURPOSE RELAY - A relay that is adaptable to a wide variety of applications as opposed to a relay designed for a specific purpose or specific application.

GENERATOR - A machine for converting mechanical energy into electrical energy or power.

GENERATOR RECEPTACLE - A contact device installed for the connection of a plug and flexible cord to supply emergency power from a portable generator or other alternate source of power. Receptacles are rated in voltage, amps, number of wires, and by enclosure type.

GROUND - A connection, either intentional or accidental, between an electric circuit and the earth or some conducting body serving in place of the earth.

GROUND FAULT INTERRUPTION (GFI) - A unit or combination of units which provides protection against ground fault currents below the trip levels of the breakers of a circuit. The system must be carefully designed and installed to sense low magnitude insulation breakdowns and other faults that cause a fault ground current path. The GFI system must be capable of sensing the ground fault current and disconnecting the faulted circuit from the source voltage.

GROUND NEUTRAL - The common neutral conductor of an electrical system which is intentionally connected to ground to provide a current carrying path for the line to neutral load

devices.

GROUNDING CONDUCTOR - The conductor that is used to establish a ground and that connects equipment, a device, a wiring system, or another conductor (usually the neutral conductor) with the grounding electrode.

HAND-OFF-AUTOMATIC (HOA) - Selector switch determining the mode of system operation. H is the hand mode only. 0 is system Off. A is automatic operation, normally with pump alternation.

HAZARDOUS LOCATIONS - Those areas as defined in the NEC where a potential for explosion and fire exist because of flammable gasses, vapors, or finely pulverized dusts in the atmosphere, or because of the presence of easily ignitable fibers or flyings.

HERTZ (Hz) - A unit of frequency equal to one cycle per second.

HIGH POTENTIAL TEST - A test which consists of the application of a voltage higher than the rated voltage between windings and frame, or between two or more windings, for the purpose of determining the adequacy of insulating materials and spacing against breakdown under normal conditions. It is not the test of the conductor insulation of any one winding.

HORSEPOWER - A method of rating motors whereby values are determined by factors including rotational speed and torque producing capability as well as other factors.

IN-RUSH CURRENT - See Locked Rotor Current.

INTERLOCK - Interrelates with other controllers. An auxiliary contact. A device connected in such a way that the motion of one part is held back by another part.

INTRINSICALLY SAFE - A term used to define a level of safety associated with the electrical controls used in some lift stations. Intrinsically safe equipment and wiring is incapable of releasing sufficient electrical or thermal energy under normal or abnormal conditions to cause ignition of a hazardous atmospheric mixture - without the need for explosion-proof enclosures in the hazardous area. Any associated devices must be outside the hazardous area with an approved seal-off fitting used as an isolating barrier.

KILOWATT (KW) - A unit of measure of electrical power. One kilowatt equals 1000 watts. Used where larger units of electrical power are measured.

LOCKED ROTOR CURRENT - (See Starting Amps).

LOCKOUT - A mechanical device which may be set to prevent the operation of a push-button or other device.

MANUAL TRANSFER SWITCH - A switch designed so that it will disconnect the load from one power source and reconnect it to another source while at no time allowing both sources to be connected to the load simultaneously.

MEGGER OR MEGOHMETER - A high resistance range ohmmeter utilizing a power source for measuring insulation resistance.

MEGOHM - A unit of resistance equal to one million ohms.

MOTOR CIRCUIT PROTECTOR - A molded case disconnect switch specifically designed for motor circuits. It has a trip unit that operates on the magnetic principle only, sensing current in each of the three poles with an adjustable trip point. It provides short circuit protection, required by the National Electrical Code (NEC). It differs from a standard breaker in that it does not have a thermal overload unit.

MOTOR EFFICIENCY - A measure of how effectively a motor converts electrical energy into mechanical energy. Motor efficiency is never 100 percent. It is a variable that depends on a given motor's performance. Tabulated at 100, 75 and 50 percent load, it is the ratio of power output to power input.

MOTOR, ELECTRIC - A rotating device which converts electrical power into mechanical power.

MOTOR HORSEPOWER RATING - The motor horsepower nameplate rating fully-loaded at the ambient temperature.

NEC - The National Electrical Code (NEC) is the standard of the National Board of Fire Underwriters for electric wiring and apparatus, as recommended by the National Fire Protection

Association.

NEC CODE LETTER - Motors with 60 and 50 Hertz ratings shall be marked with a code letter designating the locked-rotor KVA per horsepower on 60 Hertz.

NEMA - National Electrical Manufacturers Association, a non-profit trade association supported by the manufacturers of electrical apparatus and supplies. NEMA promulgates standards to facilitate understanding between the manufacturers and users of electrical products.

NFPA - National Fire Protection Association. Sponsors and publishes the National Electrical Code (NEC).

NEUTRAL - The point common to all phases of a polyphase circuit, a conductor to that point, or the return conductor in a single phase circuit. The neutral in most systems is grounded at or near the point of service entrance only and becomes the grounded neutral.

NORMALLY OPEN and NORMALLY CLOSED - The terms "Normally Open" and "Normally Closed" when applied to a magnetically operated switching device - such as a contactor or relay, or to the contacts thereof - signify the position taken when the operating magnet is de-energized. These terms pertain to all switches.

OHM - Unit of electrical resistance. One volt will cause a current of one ampere to flow through a resistance of one ohm.

OHMMETER - A device for measuring electrical resistance expressed in ohms.

OVERLOAD PROTECTION - The effect of a device operative on excessive current, but not necessarily on short circuit, to cause and maintain the interruption of current flow to the device being governed. Re-set may be manual or automatic.

OVERLOAD RELAY - A relay that responds to electric load and operates at a pre-set value of overload. The unit senses the current in each line to the motor and is either bimetallic, melting alloy or solid state actuated. It may be of the non-compensated or ambient-compensated type, and of a standard or fast-trip design.

PHASE (THREE PHASE CIRCUIT) - A combination of circuits energized by alternating electromotive forces which differ in phase by one-third of a cycle (120 degrees). In practice, the phases may vary several degrees from the specified angle.

PHASE MONITOR - A device in the control circuit of motors which monitors the three phase voltage and protects against a phase loss (single phasing), under voltage (brown outs) and phase reversal (improper phase sequence). Most are adjustable to set the nominal voltage and some have a LED indicator to indicate acceptable voltage and phase conditions. The output contacts are used to control the motor starters and provide signaling for telemetering.

PILOT LIGHT - A lamp available with various colored lenses designed to operate on a control voltage. They are each turned On and Off to provide the required indication for specific functions or alarm conditions. They are available in various sizes and voltage ratings. They are each designed for a specific bulb style and base configuration and some have an integral transformer to allow the use of low voltage bulbs. Full voltage incandescent bulbs are most common, but neon bulbs are also used.

POWER FACTOR - The ratio of the true power to the volt-amperes in an alternating current circuit. Power factor is expressed in a percent of unity either lagging for inductive loads or leading for capacitive loads. Resistive loads produce a unity power factor.

PUSHBUTTON - Part of an electrical device, consisting of a button that must be pressed to effect an operation.

RATED VOLTAGE - The voltage of electrical apparatus at which it is designed to operate.

REDUCED VOLTAGE AUTO-TRANSFORMER STARTER - A starter that includes an auto-transformer to furnish reduced voltage for starting an alternating current motor. It includes the necessary switching mechanism. This is the most widely used reduced voltage starter because of its efficiency and flexibility.

RELAY - An electric device that is designed to interpret input conditions in a prescribed manner and, after specified conditions are met, to respond and cause contact operation or similar abrupt

changes in associated electric control circuits.

RELAY, ELECTROMAGNETIC - A relay controlled by electromagnetic means, to open and close electric contacts.

RELAY, SOLID STATE - A completely electronic switching device with no moving parts or contacts.

RPM - Revolutions per minute of the motor/pump rotating assembly.

REMOTE CONTROL - Control function initiation or change of electrical device from a remote point.

RESISTANCE - The non-reactive opposition which a device or material offers to the flow of direct or alternating current. Usually measured in ohms.

SAFETY SWITCH - An enclosed, manually-operated disconnecting switch, which is horsepower and current rated. Disconnects all power lines simultaneously.

SEAL FAILURE ALARM - The sensing and indication of the intrusion of water into the oil-filled seal chamber between the inner and outer shaft seal of a submersible pump.

SELECTOR SWITCH - A multi-position switch which can be set to the desired mode of operation.

SERVICE FACTOR - A safety factor designed and built into some motors which allows the motor, when necessary, to deliver greater than its rated horsepower.

SINGLE PHASE - A circuit that differs in phase by 180 degrees. Single phase circuits have two conductors, one of which may be a neutral, or three conductors, one of which is neutral.

STANDBY POWER SUPPLY - The power supply that is available to furnish electric power when the normal power supply is not available.

STAR CONNECTION - Same as a "Y" or "Wye" connection. This three-phase connection is so called because, schematically, the joint of the "Y" points looks like a star.

STARTER - A device used to control the electrical power to motors and provide overload protection as required by the NEC. The starter can be operated manually, electrically, or by automatic pilot devices. A starter has two basic parts - a contactor for power switching and an overload relay for protection.

STARTING AMPS (LOCKED ROTOR) - The maximum current drawn by the motor during the starting period.

STARTING RELAY - A relay - actuated by current, voltage or the combined effect of current and voltage - which is used to perform a circuit-changing function in the primary winding of single phase induction motor within a pre-determined range of speed as the motor accelerates; and to perform the reverse circuit-changing operation when the motor is disconnected from the supply line. One of the circuit changes that is usually performed is to open or disconnect the auxiliary winding (starting) circuit.

SUBMERSIBLE MOTOR - A motor whose housing and terminal box is so designed that the motor can run underwater - completely submerged at an allowable temperature.

SURGE ARRESTER - A protective device for limiting surge voltages on equipment by discharging or bypassing surge current; it prevents continued flow of follow current to ground, and is capable of repeating these functions as specified.

SWITCH - A device for making, breaking, or changing connections in a circuit.

TELEMETERING - The transmitting of alarm and control signals to and from remote lift station controls and a central monitoring location.

TERMINAL BLOCK - An insulating base equipped with terminals for connecting wires.

THERMAL OVERLOAD PROTECTOR - Device, either a bimetal element or electric circuit, which protects motor windings from excessive temperature by opening a set of contacts. This device may reach its' pre-set trip point as a result of ambient temperature, current, or both. May be automatic or manually set.

THREE PHASE CIRCUIT - A combination of circuits energized by alternating electromotive sources which differ in phase by one third of a cycle - that is, 120 degrees. A three phase circuit may be three wires or four wires with the fourth wire being connected to the neutral point of the circuit which may be grounded.

TIME CLOCK - A device used to schedule electrical On/Off cycling operations. The device may be solid state or mechanical designed using a synchronous motor. The cycling operation must be programmed manually. The time clocks may operate in any increments of days, weeks, minutes, or hours.

TIME DELAY RELAY (TDR) - A device with either mechanical or solid state output contacts that performs a timing function upon energization or control signal.

TRANSDUCER - A device to condition and transform an analog signal to a specific variable output electrical signal proportional to the input signal. Typical inputs include variable pressure, level, voltage or current. Some common outputs are 0 to 1ma, 4 to 20 ma, and various MVDC signals. A transducer must be specifically designed to be compatible with the input/output requirements of the total system.

TRANSFORMER - A static electric device consisting of a single winding, or two or more coupled windings, used to transfer power by electromagnetic induction between circuits at the same frequency, usually with changed values of voltage and current.

UNDERWRITERS LABORATORIES, INC. (UL) - An independent, non-profit U.S. organization that tests products for safety.

VFD - Variable frequency drive.

VOLTAGE (NOMINAL A) - A nominal value assigned to a circuit or system for the purpose of conveniently designating its voltage class (as 120/240, 480/240, 600, etc.). The actual voltage at which a circuit operates can vary from the nominal within a range that permits satisfactory operation of equipment.

VOLTMETER - An instrument for measuring voltage.

WATT - A unit of measure of electrical power.

WYE CONNECTION - See Star Connection.

Hydraulic Glossary

A

Absolute Pressure: The pressure above zone absolute, i.e. the sum of atmospheric and gauge pressure. In vacuum related work it is usually expressed in millimeters of mercury. (mmHg).

Aerodynamics: The study of the flow of gases. The Ideal Gas Law - For a perfect or ideal gas the change in density is directly related to the change in temperature and pressure as expressed in the Ideal Gas Law.

Aeronautics: The mathematics and mechanics of flying objects, in particular airplanes.

Air Break: A physical separation which may be a low inlet into the indirect waste receptor from the fixture, or device that is indirectly connected. You will most likely find an air break on waste fixtures or on non-potable lines. You should never allow an air break on an ice machine.

Air Gap Separation: A physical separation space that is present between the discharge vessel and the receiving vessel, for an example, a kitchen faucet.

Altitude-Control Valve: If an overflow occurs on a storage tank, the operator should first check the altitude-control valve. Altitude-Control Valve is designed to, 1. Prevent overflows from the storage tank or reservoir, or 2. Maintain a constant water level as long as water pressure in the distribution system is adequate.

Angular Motion Formulas: Angular velocity can be expressed as (angular velocity = constant):

$$\omega = \theta / t \text{ (2a)}$$

where

ω = angular velocity (rad/s)

θ = angular displacement (rad)

t = time (s)

Angular velocity can be expressed as (angular acceleration = constant):

$$\omega = \omega_o + \alpha t \text{ (2b)}$$

where

ω_o = angular velocity at time zero (rad/s)

α = angular acceleration (rad/s²)

Angular displacement can be expressed as (angular acceleration = constant):

$$\theta = \omega_o t + 1/2 \alpha t^2 \text{ (2c)}$$

Combining 2a and 2c:

$$\omega = (\omega_o^2 + 2 \alpha \theta)^{1/2}$$

Angular acceleration can be expressed as:

$$\alpha = d\omega / dt = d^2\theta / dt^2 \text{ (2d)}$$

where

$d\theta$ = change of angular displacement (rad)

dt = change in time (s)

Atmospheric Pressure: Pressure exerted by the atmosphere at any specific location. (Sea level pressure is approximately 14.7 pounds per square inch absolute, 1 bar = 14.5psi.)

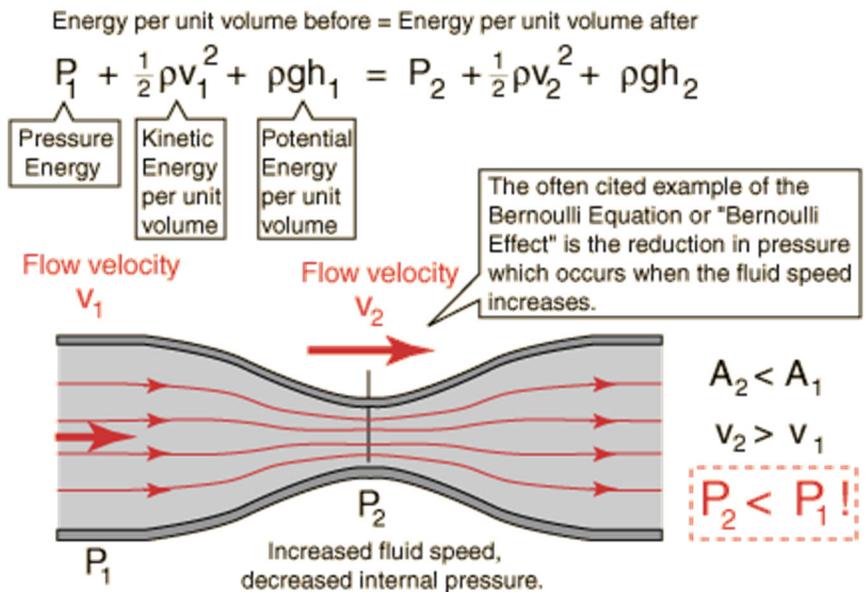
B

Backflow Prevention: To stop or prevent the occurrence of, the unnatural act of reversing the normal direction of the flow of liquid, gases, or solid substances back in to the public potable (drinking) water supply. See Cross-connection control.

Backflow: To reverse the natural and normal directional flow of a liquid, gases, or solid substances back in to the public potable (drinking) water supply. This is normally an undesirable effect.

Backsiphonage: A liquid substance that is carried over a higher point. It is the method by which the liquid substance may be forced by excess pressure over or into a higher point. Is a condition in which the pressure in the distribution system is less than atmospheric pressure. In other words, something is “sucked” into the system because the main is under a vacuum.

Bernoulli's Equation: Describes the behavior of moving fluids along a streamline. The Bernoulli Equation can be considered to be a statement of the conservation of energy principle appropriate for flowing fluids. The qualitative behavior that is usually labeled with the term "**Bernoulli effect**" is the lowering of fluid pressure in regions where the flow velocity is increased. This lowering of pressure in a constriction of a flow path may seem counterintuitive, but seems less so when you consider pressure to be energy density. In the high velocity flow through the constriction, kinetic energy must increase at the expense of pressure energy.



A special form of the Euler's equation derived along a fluid flow streamline is often called the **Bernoulli Equation**.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s} \left(\frac{v^2}{2} + \frac{p}{\rho} + g \cdot h \right) = 0 \quad (1)$$

where

v = flow speed

p = pressure

ρ = density

g = gravity

h = height

$$\frac{v^2}{2} + \frac{p}{\rho} + g \cdot h = \text{Constant} \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{v^2}{2 \cdot g} + \frac{p}{\gamma} + h = \text{Constant} \quad (3)$$

where

$$\gamma = \rho \cdot g$$

$$\frac{\rho \cdot v^2}{2} + p = \text{Constant} \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{\rho \cdot v^2}{2} = p_d \quad (5)$$

$$\frac{\rho \cdot v_1^2}{2} + p_1 = \frac{\rho \cdot v_2^2}{2} + p_2 = \text{Constant} \quad (6)$$

www.engineeringtoolbox.com

For steady state incompressible flow the Euler equation becomes (1). If we integrate (1) along the streamline it becomes (2). (2) can further be modified to (3) by dividing by gravity.

Head of Flow: Equation (3) is often referred to as the **head** because all elements have the unit of length.

Bernoulli's Equation Continued:

Dynamic Pressure

(2) and (3) are two forms of the Bernoulli Equation for steady state incompressible flow. If we assume that the gravitational body force is negligible, (3) can be written as (4). Both elements in the equation have the unit of pressure and it's common to refer the flow velocity component as the **dynamic pressure** of the fluid flow (5).

Since energy is conserved along the streamline, (4) can be expressed as (6). Using the equation we see that increasing the velocity of the flow will reduce the pressure, decreasing the velocity will increase the pressure.

This phenomena can be observed in a **venturi meter** where the pressure is reduced in the constriction area and regained after. It can also be observed in a **pitot tube** where the **stagnation** pressure is measured. The stagnation pressure is where the velocity component is zero.

Bernoulli's Equation Continued:

Pressurized Tank

If the tanks are pressurized so that product of gravity and height ($g h$) is much less than the pressure difference divided by the density, (e4) can be transformed to (e6). The velocity out from the tanks depends mostly on the pressure difference.

Example - outlet velocity from a pressurized tank

The outlet velocity of a pressurized tank where

$$p_1 = 0.2 \text{ MN/m}^2, p_2 = 0.1 \text{ MN/m}^2, A_2/A_1 = 0.01, h = 10 \text{ m}$$

can be calculated as

$$V_2 = [(2/(1-(0.01)^2) ((0.2 - 0.1) \times 10^6 / 1 \times 10^3 + 9.81 \times 10))]^{1/2} = \underline{19.9 \text{ m/s}}$$

Coefficient of Discharge - Friction Coefficient

Due to friction the real velocity will be somewhat lower than this theoretical example. If we introduce a **friction coefficient** c (coefficient of discharge), (e5) can be expressed as (e5b). The coefficient of discharge can be determined experimentally. For a sharp edged opening it may be as low as 0.6. For smooth orifices it may be between 0.95 and 1.

Bingham Plastic Fluids: Bingham Plastic Fluids have a yield value which must be exceeded before it will start to flow like a fluid. From that point the viscosity will decrease with increase of agitation. Toothpaste, mayonnaise and tomato catsup are examples of such products.

Boundary Layer: The layer of fluid in the immediate vicinity of a bounding surface.

Bulk Modulus and Fluid Elasticity: An introduction to and a definition of the Bulk Modulus Elasticity commonly used to characterize the compressibility of fluids.

The Bulk Modulus Elasticity can be expressed as

$$E = - dp / (dV / V) \quad (1)$$

where

E = bulk modulus elasticity

dp = differential change in pressure on the object

dV = differential change in volume of the object

V = initial volume of the object

The Bulk Modulus Elasticity can be alternatively expressed as

$$E = - dp / (dp / \rho) \quad (2)$$

where

dp = differential change in density of the object

ρ = initial density of the object

An increase in the pressure will decrease the volume (1). A decrease in the volume will increase the density (2).

- The SI unit of the bulk modulus elasticity is N/m^2 (Pa)
- The imperial (BG) unit is lb_f/in^2 (psi)
- $1 \text{ lb}_f/\text{in}^2$ (psi) = $6.894 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^2$ (Pa)

A large Bulk Modulus indicates a relatively incompressible fluid.

Bulk Modulus for some common fluids can be found in the table below:

Bulk Modulus - E	Imperial Units - BG (psi, lb _f /in ²) x 10 ⁵	SI Units (Pa, N/m ²) x 10 ⁹
Carbon Tetrachloride	1.91	1.31
Ethyl Alcohol	1.54	1.06
Gasoline	1.9	1.3
Glycerin	6.56	4.52
Mercury	4.14	2.85
SAE 30 Oil	2.2	1.5
Seawater	3.39	2.35
Water	3.12	2.15

C

Capillarity: (or capillary action) The ability of a narrow tube to draw a liquid upwards against the force of gravity.

The height of liquid in a tube due to capillarity can be expressed as

$$h = 2 \sigma \cos\theta / (\rho g r) \quad (1)$$

where

h = height of liquid (ft, m)

σ = surface tension (lb/ft, N/m)

θ = contact angle

ρ = density of liquid (lb/ft³, kg/m³)

g = acceleration due to gravity (32.174 ft/s², 9.81 m/s²)

r = radius of tube (ft, m)

Cauchy Number: A dimensionless value useful for analyzing fluid flow dynamics problems where compressibility is a significant factor.

The Cauchy Number is the ratio between inertial and the compressibility force in a flow and can be expressed as

$$C = \rho v^2 / E \quad (1)$$

where

ρ = density (kg/m³)

v = flow velocity (m/s)

E = bulk modulus elasticity (N/m²)

The bulk modulus elasticity has the dimension pressure and is commonly used to characterize the compressibility of a fluid.

The Cauchy Number is the square root of the Mach Number

$$M^2 = Ca \quad (3)$$

where

$C = \text{Mach Number}$

Cavitation: Under the wrong condition, cavitation will reduce the components life time dramatically. Cavitation may occur when the local static pressure in a fluid reach a level below the vapor pressure of the liquid at the actual temperature. According to the Bernoulli Equation this may happen when the fluid accelerates in a control valve or around a pump impeller. The vaporization itself does not cause the damage - the damage happens when the vapor almost immediately collapses after evaporation when the velocity is decreased and pressure increased. Cavitation means that cavities are forming in the liquid that we are pumping. When these cavities form at the suction of the pump several things happen all at once: We experience a loss in capacity. We can no longer build the same head (pressure). The efficiency drops. The cavities or bubbles will collapse when they pass into the higher regions of pressure causing noise, vibration, and damage to many of the components. The cavities form for five basic reasons and it is common practice to lump all of them into the general classification of cavitation.

This is an error because we will learn that to correct each of these conditions we must understand why they occur and how to fix them. Here they are in no particular order: Vaporization, Air ingestion, Internal recirculation, Flow turbulence and finally the Vane Passing Syndrome.

Avoiding Cavitation

Cavitation can in general be avoided by:

- increasing the distance between the actual local static pressure in the fluid - and the vapor pressure of the fluid at the actual temperature

This can be done by:

- reengineering components initiating high speed velocities and low static pressures
- increasing the total or local static pressure in the system
- reducing the temperature of the fluid

Reengineering of Components Initiating High Speed Velocity and Low Static Pressure

Cavitation and damage can be avoided by using special components designed for the actual rough conditions.

- Conditions such as huge pressure drops can - with limitations - be handled by Multi Stage Control Valves
- Difficult pumping conditions - with fluid temperatures close to the vaporization temperature - can be handled with a special pump - working after another principle than the centrifugal pump.

Cavitation Continued: Increasing the Total or Local Pressure in the System

By increasing the total or local pressure in the system, the distance between the static pressure and the vaporization pressure is increased and vaporization and cavitation may be avoided.

The ratio between static pressure and the vaporization pressure, an indication of the possibility of vaporization, is often expressed by the Cavitation Number. Unfortunately it may not always be possible to increase the total static pressure due to system classifications or other limitations. Local static pressure in the component may then be increased by lowering the component in the system. Control valves and pumps should in general be positioned in the lowest part of the system to maximize the static head. This is common for boiler feeding pumps receiving hot condensate (water close to 100 °C) from a condensate receiver.

Cavitation Continued: Reducing the Temperature of the Fluid

The vaporization pressure is highly dependent on the fluid temperature. Water, our most common fluid, is an example:

Temperature (°C)	Vapor Pressure (kN/m ²)
0	0.6
5	0.9
10	1.2
15	1.7
20	2.3
25	3.2
30	4.3
35	5.6
40	7.7
45	9.6
50	12.5
55	15.7
60	20
65	25
70	32.1
75	38.6
80	47.5
85	57.8
90	70
95	84.5
100	101.33

As we can see - the possibility of evaporation and cavitation increases dramatically with the water temperature.

Cavitation can be avoided by locating the components in the coldest part of the system. For example, it is common to locate the pumps in heating systems at the "cold" return lines. The situation is the same for control valves. Where it is possible they should be located on the cold side of heat exchangers.

Cavitations Number: A "special edition" of the dimensionless Euler Number.

The Cavitations Number is useful for analyzing fluid flow dynamics problems where cavitations may occur. The Cavitations Number can be expressed as

$$Ca = (p_r - p_v) / 1/2 \rho v^2 \quad (1)$$

where

Ca = Cavitations number

p_r = reference pressure

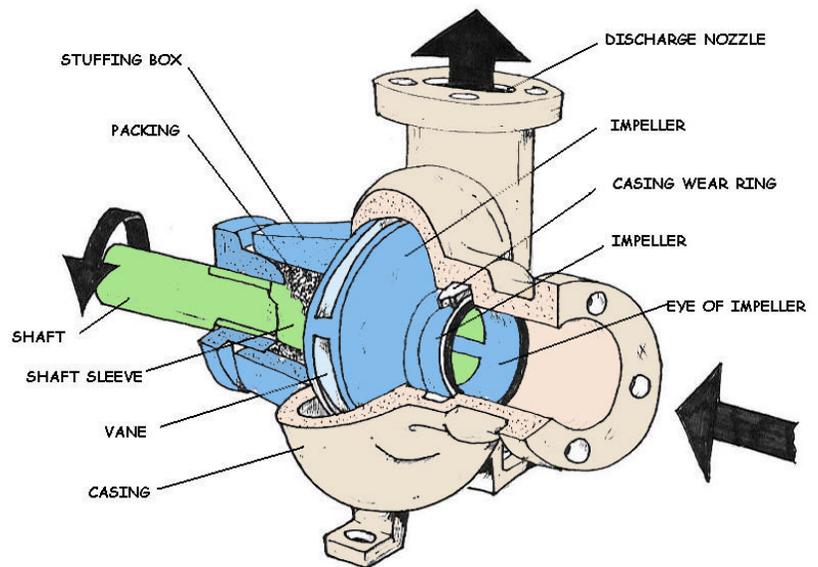
(Pa)

p_v = vapor pressure of the fluid (Pa)

ρ = density of the fluid (kg/m^3)

v = velocity of fluid (m/s)

Centrifugal Pump: A pump consisting of an impeller fixed on a rotating shaft and enclosed in a casing, having an inlet and a discharge connection. The rotating impeller creates pressure in the liquid by the velocity derived from centrifugal force.



Chezy Formula: Conduits flow and mean velocity. The Chezy formula can be used to calculate mean flow velocity in conduits and is expressed as

$$v = c (R S)^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

where

v = mean velocity (m/s, ft/s)

c = the Chezy roughness and conduit coefficient

R = hydraulic radius of the conduit (m, ft)

S = slope of the conduit (m/m, ft/ft)

In general the Chezy coefficient - c - is a function of the flow Reynolds Number - Re - and the relative roughness - ϵ/R - of the channel.

ϵ is the characteristic height of the roughness elements on the channel boundary.

Coanda Effect: The tendency of a stream of fluid to stay attached to a convex surface, rather than follow a straight line in its original direction.

Colebrook Equation: The friction coefficients used to calculate pressure loss (or major loss) in ducts, tubes and pipes can be calculated with the Colebrook equation.

$$1 / \lambda^{1/2} = -2 \log ((2.51 / (Re \lambda^{1/2})) + (k / d_h) / 3.72) \quad (1)$$

where

λ = D'Arcy-Weisbach friction coefficient

Re = Reynolds Number

k = roughness of duct, pipe or tube surface (m, ft)

d_h = hydraulic diameter (m, ft)

The Colebrook equation is only valid at turbulent flow conditions.

Note that the friction coefficient is involved on both sides of the equation and that the equation must be solved by iteration.

The Colebrook equation is generic and can be used to calculate the friction coefficients in different kinds of fluid flows - air ventilation ducts, pipes and tubes with water or oil, compressed air and much more.

Common Pressure Measuring Devices: The Strain Gauge is a common measuring device used for a variety of changes such as head. As the pressure in the system changes, the diaphragm expands which changes the length of the wire attached. This change of length of the wire changes the Resistance of the wire, which is then converted to head. Float mechanisms, diaphragm elements, bubbler tubes, and direct electronic sensors are common types of level sensors.

Compressible Flow: We know that fluids are classified as Incompressible and Compressible fluids. Incompressible fluids do not undergo significant changes in density as they flow. In general, liquids are incompressible; water being an excellent example. In contrast compressible fluids do undergo density changes. Gases are generally compressible; air being the most common compressible fluid we can find. Compressibility of gases leads to many interesting features such as shocks, which are absent for incompressible fluids. Gas dynamics is the discipline that studies the flow of compressible fluids and forms an important branch of Fluid Mechanics. In this book we give a broad introduction to the basics of compressible fluid flow.

In a compressible flow the compressibility of the fluid must be taken into account. The Ideal Gas Law - For a perfect or ideal gas the change in density is directly related to the change in temperature and pressure as expressed in the Ideal Gas Law. Properties of **Gas Mixtures** - Special care must be taken for gas mixtures when using the ideal gas law, calculating the mass, the individual gas constant or the density. The Individual and **Universal Gas Constant** - The Individual and Universal Gas Constant is common in fluid mechanics and thermodynamics.

Compression and Expansion of Gases: If the compression or expansion takes place under constant temperature conditions - the process is called **isothermal**. The isothermal process can on the basis of the Ideal Gas Law be expressed as:

$$p / \rho = \text{constant} \quad (1)$$

where

D

Darcy-Weisbach Equation: The **pressure loss** (or major loss) in a pipe, tube or duct can be expressed with the D'Arcy-Weisbach equation:

$$\Delta p = \lambda (l / d_h) (\rho v^2 / 2) (1)$$

where

Δp = pressure loss (Pa, N/m², lb_f/ft²)

λ = D'Arcy-Weisbach friction coefficient

l = length of duct or pipe (m, ft)

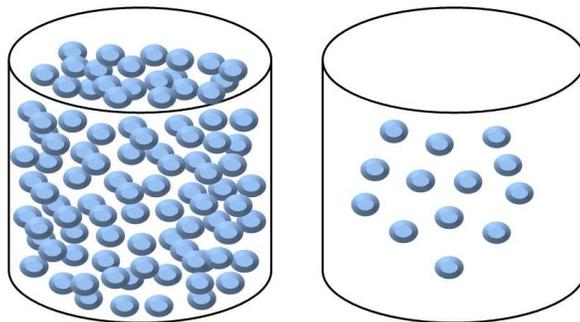
d_h = hydraulic diameter (m, ft)

ρ = density (kg/m³, lb/ft³)

Note! Be aware that there are two alternative friction coefficients present in the literature. One is 1/4 of the other and (1) must be multiplied with four to achieve the correct result. This is important to verify when selecting friction coefficients from Moody diagrams.

Density: Is a physical property of matter, as each element and compound has a unique density associated with it.

Density defined in a qualitative manner as the measure of the relative "heaviness" of objects with a constant volume. For example: A rock is obviously more dense than a crumpled piece of paper of the same size. A Styrofoam cup is less dense than a ceramic cup. Density may also refer to how closely "packed" or "crowded" the material appears to be - again refer to the Styrofoam vs. ceramic cup. Take a look at the two boxes below.



Each box has the same volume. **If each ball has the same mass, which box would weigh more? Why?**

The box that has more balls has more mass per unit of volume. This property of matter is called density. The density of a material helps to distinguish it from other materials. Since mass is usually expressed in grams and volume in cubic centimeters, density is expressed in grams/cubic centimeter. We can calculate density using the formula:

Density= Mass/Volume

The density can be expressed as

$$\rho = m / V = 1 / v_g (1)$$

where

$$\rho = \text{density (kg/m}^3\text{)}$$

$$m = \text{mass (kg)}$$

$$V = \text{volume (m}^3\text{)}$$

$$v_g = \text{specific volume (m}^3\text{/kg)}$$

The SI units for density are kg/m³. The imperial (BG) units are lb/ft³ (slugs/ft³). While people often use pounds per cubic foot as a measure of density in the U.S., pounds are really a measure of force, not mass. Slugs are the correct measure of mass. You can multiply slugs by 32.2 for a rough value in pounds. The higher the density, the tighter the particles are packed inside the substance. Density is a physical property constant at a given temperature and density can help to identify a substance.

Example - Use the Density to Identify the Material:

An unknown liquid substance has a mass of 18.5 g and occupies a volume of 23.4 ml. (milliliter).

The density can be calculated as

$$\rho = [18.5 \text{ (g)} / 1000 \text{ (g/kg)}] / [23.4 \text{ (ml)} / 1000 \text{ (ml/l)} 1000 \text{ (l/m}^3\text{)}]$$

$$= 18.5 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ (kg)} / 23.4 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ (m}^3\text{)}$$

$$= \underline{790 \text{ kg/m}^3}$$

If we look up densities of some common substances, we can find that ethyl alcohol, or ethanol, has a density of 790 kg/m³. Our unknown liquid may likely be ethyl alcohol!

Example - Use Density to Calculate the Mass of a Volume

The density of titanium is 4507 kg/m³. Calculate the mass of 0.17 m³ titanium!

$$m = 0.17 \text{ (m}^3\text{)} 4507 \text{ (kg/m}^3\text{)}$$

$$= \underline{766.2 \text{ kg}}$$

Dilatant Fluids: Shear Thickening Fluids **or** Dilatant Fluids increase their viscosity with agitation. Some of these liquids can become almost solid within a pump or pipe line. With agitation, cream becomes butter and Candy compounds, clay slurries and similar heavily filled liquids do the same thing.

Disinfect: To kill and inhibit growth of harmful bacterial and viruses in drinking water.

Disinfection: The treatment of water to inactivate, destroy, and/or remove pathogenic bacteria, viruses, protozoa, and other parasites.

Distribution System Water Quality: Can be adversely affected by improperly constructed or poorly located blowoffs of vacuum/air relief valves. Air relief valves in the distribution system lines must be placed in locations that cannot be flooded. This is to prevent water contamination. The common customer complaint of Milky Water or Entrained Air is sometimes solved by the installation of air relief valves. The venting of air is not a major concern when checking water levels in a storage tank. If the vent line on a ground level storage tank is closed or clogged up, a vacuum will develop in the tank may happen to the tank when the water level begins to lower.

Drag Coefficient: Used to express the drag of an object in moving fluid. Any object moving through a fluid will experience a drag - the net force in direction of flow due to the pressure and shear stress forces on the surface of the object.

The drag force can be expressed as:

$$F_d = c_d \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 A \quad (1)$$

where

F_d = drag force (N)

c_d = drag coefficient

ρ = density of fluid

v = flow velocity

A = characteristic frontal area of the body

The drag coefficient is a function of several parameters as shape of the body, Reynolds Number for the flow, Froude number, Mach Number and Roughness of the Surface.

The characteristic frontal area - A - depends on the body.

Dynamic or Absolute Viscosity: The viscosity of a fluid is an important property in the analysis of liquid behavior and fluid motion near solid boundaries. The viscosity of a fluid is its resistance to shear or flow and is a measure of the adhesive/cohesive or frictional properties of a fluid. The resistance is caused by intermolecular friction exerted when layers of fluids attempts to slide by another.

Dynamic Pressure: Dynamic pressure is the component of fluid pressure that represents a fluids kinetic energy. The dynamic pressure is a defined property of a moving flow of gas or liquid and can be expressed as

$$p_d = \frac{1}{2} \rho v^2 \quad (1)$$

where

p_d = dynamic pressure (Pa)

ρ = density of fluid (kg/m^3)

v = velocity (m/s)

Dynamic, Absolute and Kinematic Viscosity: The viscosity of a fluid is an important property in the analysis of liquid behavior and fluid motion near solid boundaries. The viscosity is the fluid resistance to shear or flow and is a measure of the adhesive/cohesive or frictional fluid property. The resistance is caused by intermolecular friction exerted when layers of fluids attempts to slide by another.

Viscosity is a measure of a fluid's resistance to flow.

The knowledge of viscosity is needed for proper design of required temperatures for storage, pumping or injection of fluids.

Common used units for viscosity are

- CentiPoises (cp) = CentiStokes (cSt) \times Density
- SSU¹ = Centistokes (cSt) \times 4.55
- Degree Engler¹ \times 7.45 = Centistokes (cSt)
- Seconds Redwood¹ \times 0.2469 = Centistokes (cSt)

¹centistokes greater than 50

There are two related measures of fluid viscosity - known as **dynamic (or absolute)** and **kinematic** viscosity.

Dynamic (absolute) Viscosity: The tangential force per unit area required to move one horizontal plane with respect to the other at unit velocity when maintained a unit distance apart by the fluid. The shearing stress between the layers of non-turbulent fluid moving in straight parallel lines can be defined for a Newtonian fluid as:

The dynamic or absolute viscosity can be expressed like

$$\tau = \mu \, dc/dy \quad (1)$$

where

τ = shearing stress

μ = dynamic viscosity

Equation (1) is known as the **Newton's Law of Friction**.

In the SI system the dynamic viscosity units are **N s/m²**, **Pa s** or **kg/m s** where

- $1 \text{ Pa s} = 1 \text{ N s/m}^2 = 1 \text{ kg/m s}$

The dynamic viscosity is also often expressed in the metric CGS (centimeter-gram-second) system as **g/cm.s**, **dyne.s/cm²** or **poise (p)** where

- $1 \text{ poise} = \text{dyne s/cm}^2 = \text{g/cm s} = 1/10 \text{ Pa s}$

For practical use the Poise is too large and its usual divided by 100 into the smaller unit called the **centiPoise (cP)** where

- $1 \text{ p} = 100 \text{ cP}$

Water at 68.4°F (20.2°C) has an absolute viscosity of one - 1 - centiPoise.

E

E. Coli, *Escherichia coli*: A bacterium commonly found in the human intestine. For water quality analyses purposes, it is considered an indicator organism. These are considered evidence of water contamination. Indicator organisms may be accompanied by pathogens, but do not necessarily cause disease themselves.

Elevation Head: The energy possessed per unit weight of a fluid because of its elevation. 1 foot of water will produce .433 pounds of pressure head.

Energy: The ability to do work. Energy can exist in one of several forms, such as heat, light, mechanical, electrical, or chemical. Energy can be transferred to different forms. It also can exist in one of two states, either potential or kinetic.

Energy and Hydraulic Grade Line: The hydraulic grade and the energy line are graphical forms of the Bernoulli equation. For steady, in viscid, incompressible flow the total energy remains constant along a stream line as expressed through the Bernoulli

Equation:

$$p + 1/2 \rho v^2 + \gamma h = \text{constant along a streamline (1)}$$

where

p = static pressure (relative to the moving fluid)
 ρ = density
 γ = specific weight
 v = flow velocity
 g = acceleration of gravity
 h = elevation height

Each term of this equation has the dimension *force per unit area* - psi, lb/ft² or N/m².

The Head

By dividing each term with the specific weight - $\gamma = \rho g$ - (1) can be transformed to express the "head":

$$p / \gamma + v^2 / 2 g + h = \text{constant along a streamline} = H \quad (2)$$

where

H = the total head

Each term of this equation has the dimension length - ft, m.

The Total Head

(2) states that the sum of **pressure head** - p / γ -, **velocity head** - $v^2 / 2 g$ - and **elevation head** - h - is constant along the stream line. This constant can be called **the total head** - H -.

The total head in a flow can be measured by the stagnation pressure using a pitot tube.

Energy and Hydraulic Grade Line Continued:

The Piezometric Head

The sum of pressure head - p / γ - and elevation head - h - is called **the piezometric head**. The piezometric head in a flow can be measured through an flat opening parallel to the flow.

Energy and Hydraulic Grade Line Continued:

The Energy Line

The Energy Line is a line that represents the total head available to the fluid and can be expressed as:

$$EL = H = p / \gamma + v^2 / 2 g + h = \text{constant along a streamline} \quad (3)$$

where

EL = Energy Line

For a fluid flow without any losses due to friction (major losses) or components (minor losses) the energy line would be at a constant level. In the practical world the energy line decreases along the flow due to the losses.

A turbine in the flow will reduce the energy line and a pump or fan will increase the energy line.

The Hydraulic Grade Line

The Hydraulic Grade Line is a line that represent the total head available to the fluid minus the velocity head and can be expressed as:

$$HGL = p / \gamma + h \quad (4)$$

where

HGL = Hydraulic Grade Line

The hydraulic grade line lies one velocity head below the energy line.

Entrance Length and Developed Flow: Fluids need some length to develop the velocity profile after entering the pipe or after passing through components such as bends, valves, pumps, and turbines or similar.

The Entrance Length: The entrance length can be expressed with the dimensionless Entrance Length Number:

$$El = l_e / d \quad (1)$$

where

El = Entrance Length Number

l_e = length to fully developed velocity profile

d = tube or duct diameter

The Entrance Length Number for Laminar Flow

The Entrance length number correlation with the Reynolds Number for laminar flow can be expressed as:

$$El_{laminar} = 0.06 Re \quad (2)$$

where

Re = Reynolds Number

The Entrance Length Number for Turbulent Flow

The Entrance length number correlation with the Reynolds Number for turbulent flow can be expressed as:

$$El_{turbulent} = 4.4 Re^{1/6} \quad (3)$$

Entropy in Compressible Gas Flow: Calculating entropy in compressible gas flow
Entropy change in compressible gas flow can be expressed as

$$ds = c_v \ln(T_2 / T_1) + R \ln(\rho_1 / \rho_2) \quad (1)$$

or

$$ds = c_p \ln(T_2 / T_1) - R \ln(\rho_2 / \rho_1) \quad (2)$$

where

ds = entropy change

c_v = specific heat capacity at a constant volume process

c_p = specific heat capacity at a constant pressure process

T = absolute temperature

R = individual gas constant

ρ = density of gas

p = absolute pressure

Equation of Continuity: The Law of Conservation of Mass states that mass can be neither created nor destroyed. Using the Mass Conservation Law on a **steady flow** process - flow where the flow rate doesn't change over time - through a control volume where the stored mass in the

control volume doesn't change - implements that inflow equals outflow. This statement is called **the Equation of Continuity**. Common application where **the Equation of Continuity** can be used are pipes, tubes and ducts with flowing fluids and gases, rivers, overall processes as power plants, dairies, logistics in general, roads, computer networks and semiconductor technology and more.

The Equation of Continuity and can be expressed as:

$$m = \rho_{i1} v_{i1} A_{i1} + \rho_{i2} v_{i2} A_{i2} + \dots + \rho_{in} v_{in} A_{im}$$

$$= \rho_{o1} v_{o1} A_{o1} + \rho_{o2} v_{o2} A_{o2} + \dots + \rho_{om} v_{om} A_{om} \quad (1)$$

where

m = mass flow rate (kg/s)

ρ = density (kg/m³)

v = speed (m/s)

A = area (m²)

With uniform density equation (1) can be modified to

$$q = v_{i1} A_{i1} + v_{i2} A_{i2} + \dots + v_{in} A_{im}$$

$$= v_{o1} A_{o1} + v_{o2} A_{o2} + \dots + v_{om} A_{om} \quad (2)$$

where

q = flow rate (m³/s)

$\rho_{i1} = \rho_{i2} = \dots = \rho_{in} = \rho_{o1} = \rho_{o2} = \dots = \rho_{om}$

Example - Equation of Continuity

10 m³/h of water flows through a pipe of 100 mm inside diameter. The pipe is reduced to an inside dimension of 80 mm. Using equation (2) the velocity in the 100 mm pipe can be calculated as

$$(10 \text{ m}^3/\text{h})(1 / 3600 \text{ h/s}) = v_{100} (3.14 \times 0.1 \text{ (m)} \times 0.1 \text{ (m)} / 4)$$

or

$$v_{100} = (10 \text{ m}^3/\text{h})(1 / 3600 \text{ h/s}) / (3.14 \times 0.1 \text{ (m)} \times 0.1 \text{ (m)} / 4)$$

$$= \underline{0.35 \text{ m/s}}$$

Using equation (2) the velocity in the 80 mm pipe can be calculated

$$(10 \text{ m}^3/\text{h})(1 / 3600 \text{ h/s}) = v_{80} (3.14 \times 0.08 \text{ (m)} \times 0.08 \text{ (m)} / 4)$$

or

$$v_{80} = (10 \text{ m}^3/\text{h})(1 / 3600 \text{ h/s}) / (3.14 \times 0.08 \text{ (m)} \times 0.08 \text{ (m)} / 4)$$

$$= \underline{0.55 \text{ m/s}}$$

Equation of Mechanical Energy: The Energy Equation is a statement of the first law of thermodynamics. The energy equation involves energy, heat transfer and work. With certain limitations the mechanical energy equation can be compared to the Bernoulli Equation and transferred to the Mechanical Energy Equation in Terms of Energy per Unit Mass.

The mechanical energy equation for a **pump or a fan** can be written in terms of **energy per unit mass**:

$$p_{in} / \rho + v_{in}^2 / 2 + g h_{in} + w_{shaft} = p_{out} / \rho + v_{out}^2 / 2 + g h_{out} + w_{loss} \quad (1)$$

where

p = static pressure

ρ = density

v = flow velocity

g = acceleration of gravity

h = elevation height

w_{shaft} = net shaft energy inn per unit mass for a pump, fan or similar

w_{loss} = loss due to friction

The energy equation is often used for incompressible flow problems and is called the **Mechanical Energy Equation** or the **Extended Bernoulli Equation**.

The mechanical energy equation for a **turbine** can be written as:

$$p_{in} / \rho + v_{in}^2 / 2 + g h_{in} = p_{out} / \rho + v_{out}^2 / 2 + g h_{out} + w_{shaft} + w_{loss} \quad (2)$$

where

w_{shaft} = net shaft energy out per unit mass for a turbine or similar

Equation (1) and (2) dimensions are

energy per unit mass ($ft^2/s^2 = ft \text{ lb}/slug$ or $m^2/s^2 = N \text{ m}/kg$)

Efficiency

According to (1) a larger amount of loss - w_{loss} - result in more shaft work required for the same rise of output energy. The efficiency of a **pump or fan process** can be expressed as:

$$\eta = (w_{shaft} - w_{loss}) / w_{shaft} \quad (3)$$

The efficiency of a **turbine process** can be expressed as:

$$\eta = w_{shaft} / (w_{shaft} + w_{loss}) \quad (4)$$

The Mechanical Energy Equation in Terms of Energy per Unit Volume

The mechanical energy equation for a **pump or a fan** (1) can also be written in terms of **energy per unit volume** by multiplying (1) with fluid density - ρ :

$$p_{in} + \rho v_{in}^2 / 2 + \gamma h_{in} + \rho w_{shaft} = p_{out} + \rho v_{out}^2 / 2 + \gamma h_{out} + w_{loss} \quad (5)$$

where

$\gamma = \rho g$ = specific weight

The dimensions of equation (5) are

energy per unit volume ($ft \cdot lb/ft^3 = lb/ft^2$ or $N \cdot m/m^3 = N/m^2$)

The Mechanical Energy Equation in Terms of Energy per Unit Weight involves Heads

The mechanical energy equation for a **pump or a fan** (1) can also be written in terms of **energy per unit weight** by dividing with gravity - g :

$$p_{in} / \gamma + v_{in}^2 / 2 g + h_{in} + h_{shaft} = p_{out} / \gamma + v_{out}^2 / 2 g + h_{out} + h_{loss} \quad (6)$$

where

$\gamma = \rho g$ = specific weight

$h_{shaft} = w_{shaft} / g$ = net shaft energy head inn per unit mass for a pump, fan or similar

$h_{loss} = w_{loss} / g$ = loss head due to friction

The dimensions of equation (6) are

energy per unit weight ($ft.lb/lb = ft$ or $N.m/N = m$)

Head is the energy per unit weight.

h_{shaft} can also be expressed as:

$$h_{shaft} = W_{shaft} / g = W_{shaft} / m g = W_{shaft} / \gamma Q \quad (7)$$

where

W_{shaft} = shaft power

m = mass flow rate

Q = volume flow rate

Example - Pumping Water

Water is pumped from an open tank at level zero to an open tank at level 10 ft. The pump adds four horsepowers to the water when pumping $2 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}$.

Since $v_{in} = v_{out} = 0$, $p_{in} = p_{out} = 0$ and $h_{in} = 0$ - equation (6) can be modified to:

$$h_{shaft} = h_{out} + h_{loss}$$

or

$$h_{loss} = h_{shaft} - h_{out} \quad (8)$$

Equation (7) gives:

$$h_{shaft} = W_{shaft} / \gamma Q = (4 \text{ hp})(550 \text{ ft.lb/s/hp}) / (62.4 \text{ lb/ft}^3)(2 \text{ ft}^3/\text{s}) = 17.6 \text{ ft}$$

- specific weight of water 62.4 lb/ft^3
- 1 hp (English horse power) = 550 ft. lb/s

Combined with (8):

$$h_{loss} = (17.6 \text{ ft}) - (10 \text{ ft}) = 7.6 \text{ ft}$$

The pump efficiency can be calculated from (3) modified for head:

$$\eta = ((17.6 \text{ ft}) - (7.6 \text{ ft})) / (17.6 \text{ ft}) = 0.58$$

Equations in Fluid Mechanics: Common fluid mechanics equations - Bernoulli, conservation of energy, conservation of mass, pressure, Navier-Stokes, ideal gas law, Euler equations, Laplace equations, Darcy-Weisbach Equation and the following:

The Bernoulli Equation

- The Bernoulli Equation - A statement of the conservation of energy in a form useful for solving problems involving fluids. For a non-viscous, incompressible fluid in steady flow, the sum of pressure, potential and kinetic energies per unit volume is constant at any point.

Conservation laws

- The conservation laws states that particular measurable properties of an isolated physical system does not change as the system evolves.
- Conservation of energy (including mass)
- Fluid Mechanics and Conservation of Mass - The law of conservation of mass states that mass can neither be created nor destroyed.
- The Continuity Equation - The Continuity Equation is a statement that mass is conserved.

Darcy-Weisbach Equation

- Pressure Loss and Head Loss due to Friction in Ducts and Tubes - Major loss - head loss or pressure loss - due to friction in pipes and ducts.

Euler Equations

- In fluid dynamics, the Euler equations govern the motion of a compressible, inviscid fluid. They correspond to the Navier-Stokes equations with zero viscosity, although they are usually written in the form shown here because this emphasizes the fact that they directly represent conservation of mass, momentum, and energy.

Laplace's Equation

- The Laplace Equation describes the behavior of gravitational, electric, and fluid potentials.

Ideal Gas Law

- The Ideal Gas Law - For a perfect or ideal gas, the change in density is directly related to the change in temperature and pressure as expressed in the Ideal Gas Law.
- Properties of Gas Mixtures - Special care must be taken for gas mixtures when using the ideal gas law, calculating the mass, the individual gas constant or the density.
- The Individual and Universal Gas Constant - The Individual and Universal Gas Constant is common in fluid mechanics and thermodynamics.

Navier-Stokes Equations

- The motion of a non-turbulent, Newtonian fluid is governed by the Navier-Stokes equations. The equation can be used to model turbulent flow, where the fluid parameters are interpreted as time-averaged values.

Mechanical Energy Equation

- The Mechanical Energy Equation - The mechanical energy equation in Terms of Energy per Unit Mass, in Terms of Energy per Unit Volume and in Terms of Energy per Unit Weight involves Heads.

Pressure

- Static Pressure and Pressure Head in a Fluid - Pressure and pressure head in a static fluid.

Euler Equations: In fluid dynamics, the Euler equations govern the motion of a compressible, inviscid fluid. They correspond to the Navier-Stokes equations with zero viscosity, although they are usually written in the form shown here because this emphasizes the fact that they directly represent conservation of mass, momentum, and energy.

Euler Number: The Euler numbers, also called the secant numbers or zig numbers, are defined for $|x| < \pi/2$ by

$$\operatorname{sech} x - 1 \equiv -\frac{E_1^* x^2}{2!} + \frac{E_2^* x^4}{4!} - \frac{E_3^* x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$\sec x - 1 \equiv \frac{E_1^* x^2}{2!} + \frac{E_2^* x^4}{4!} + \frac{E_3^* x^6}{6!} + \dots,$$

where $\operatorname{sech}(z)$ the hyperbolic secant and \sec is the secant. Euler numbers give the number of odd alternating permutations and are related to Genocchi numbers. The base e of the natural logarithm is sometimes known as Euler's number. A different sort of Euler number, the Euler number of a finite complex K , is defined by

$$\chi(K) = \sum (-1)^p \text{rank}(C_p(K)).$$

This Euler number is a topological invariant. To confuse matters further, the Euler characteristic is sometimes also called the "Euler number," and numbers produced by the prime-generating polynomial $n^2 - n + 41$ are sometimes called "Euler numbers" (Flannery and Flannery 2000, p. 47).

F

Fecal Coliform: A group of bacteria that may indicate the presence of human or animal fecal matter in water.

Filtration: A series of processes that physically remove particles from water.

Flood Rim: The point of an object where the water would run over the edge of something and begin to cause a flood. See Air Break.

Fluids: A fluid is defined as a substance that continually deforms (flows) under an applied shear stress regardless of the magnitude of the applied stress. It is a subset of the phases of matter and includes liquids, gases, plasmas and, to some extent, plastic solids. Fluids are also divided into liquids and gases. Liquids form a free surface (that is, a surface not created by their container) while gases do not.

The distinction between solids and fluids is not so obvious. The distinction is made by evaluating the viscosity of the matter: for example silly putty can be considered either a solid or a fluid, depending on the time period over which it is observed. Fluids share the properties of not resisting deformation and the ability to flow (also described as their ability to take on the shape of their containers).

These properties are typically a function of their inability to support a shear stress in static equilibrium. While in a solid, stress is a function of strain, in a fluid, stress is a function of rate of strain. A consequence of this behavior is Pascal's law which entails the important role of pressure in characterizing a fluid's state. Based on how the stress depends on the rate of strain and its derivatives, fluids can be characterized as: Newtonian fluids: where stress is directly proportional to rate of strain, and Non-Newtonian fluids : where stress is proportional to rate of strain, its higher powers and derivatives (basically everything other than Newtonian fluid).

The behavior of fluids can be described by a set of partial differential equations, which are based on the conservation of mass, linear and angular momentum (Navier-Stokes equations) and energy. The study of fluids is fluid mechanics, which is subdivided into fluid dynamics and fluid statics depending on whether the fluid is in motion or not. Fluid **Related Information:** The Bernoulli Equation - A statement of the conservation of energy in a form useful for solving problems involving fluids. For a non-viscous, incompressible fluid in steady flow, the sum of pressure, potential and kinetic energies per unit volume is constant at any point. Equations in Fluid Mechanics - Continuity, Euler, Bernoulli, Dynamic and Total Pressure. Laminar, Transitional or Turbulent Flow? - It is important to know if the fluid flow is laminar, transitional or turbulent when calculating heat transfer or pressure and head loss.

Friction Head: The head required to overcome the friction at the interior surface of a conductor and between fluid particles in motion. It varies with flow, size, type and conditions of conductors and fittings, and the fluid characteristics.

G

Gas: A gas is one of the four major phases of matter (after solid and liquid, and followed by plasma) that subsequently appear as solid material when they are subjected to increasingly higher temperatures. Thus, as energy in the form of heat is added, a solid (e.g., ice) will first melt to become a liquid (e.g., water), which will then boil or evaporate to become a gas (e.g., water vapor). In some circumstances, a solid (e.g., "dry ice") can directly turn into a gas: this is called sublimation. If the gas is further heated, its atoms or molecules can become (wholly or partially) ionized, turning the gas into a plasma. **Relater Gas Information:** The Ideal Gas Law - For a perfect or ideal gas the change in density is directly related to the change in temperature and pressure as expressed in the Ideal Gas Law. Properties of Gas Mixtures - Special care must be taken for gas mixtures when using the ideal gas law, calculating the mass, the individual gas constant or the density. The Individual and Universal Gas Constant - The Individual and Universal Gas Constant is common in fluid mechanics and thermodynamics.

Gauge Pressure: Pressure differential above or below ambient atmospheric pressure.

H

Hazardous Atmosphere: An atmosphere which by reason of being explosive, flammable, poisonous, corrosive, oxidizing, irritating, oxygen deficient, toxic, or otherwise harmful, may cause death, illness, or injury.

Hazen-Williams Factor: Hazen-Williams factor for some common piping materials. Hazen-Williams coefficients are used in the Hazen-Williams equation for friction loss calculation in ducts and pipes.

Hazen-Williams Equation - Calculating Friction Head Loss in Water Pipes

Friction head loss (ft H₂O per 100 ft pipe) in water pipes can be obtained by using the empirical Hazen-Williams equation. The Darcy-Weisbach equation with the Moody diagram are considered to be the most accurate model for estimating frictional head loss in steady pipe flow. Since the approach requires a not so efficient trial and error solution, an alternative empirical head loss calculation that does not require the trial and error solutions, as the Hazen-Williams equation, may be preferred:

$$f = 0.2083 (100/c)^{1.852} q^{1.852} / d_h^{4.8655} \quad (1)$$

where

f = friction head loss in feet of water per 100 feet of pipe (ft_{h2o}/100 ft pipe)

c = Hazen-Williams roughness constant

q = volume flow (gal/min)

d_h = inside hydraulic diameter (inches)

Note that the Hazen-Williams formula is empirical and lacks physical basis. Be aware that the roughness constants are based on "normal" condition with approximately 1 m/s (3 ft/sec).

The Hazen-Williams formula is not the only empirical formula available. Manning's formula is common for gravity driven flows in open channels.

The flow velocity may be calculated as:

$$v = 0.4087 q / d_n^2$$

where

v = flow velocity (ft/s)

The Hazen-Williams formula can be assumed to be relatively accurate for piping systems where the Reynolds Number is above 10^5 (turbulent flow).

- 1 ft (foot) = 0.3048 m
- 1 in (inch) = 25.4 mm
- 1 gal (US)/min = 6.30888×10^{-5} m³/s = 0.0227 m³/h = 0.0631 dm³(liter)/s = 2.228×10^{-3} ft³/s = 0.1337 ft³/min = 0.8327 Imperial gal (UK)/min

Note! The Hazen-Williams formula gives accurate head loss due to friction for fluids with kinematic viscosity of approximately 1.1 cSt. More about fluids and kinematic viscosity.

The results for the formula are acceptable for cold water at 60° F (15.6° C) with kinematic viscosity 1.13 cSt. For hot water with a lower kinematic viscosity (0.55 cSt at 130° F (54.4° C)) the error will be significant. Since the Hazen Williams method is only valid for water flowing at ordinary temperatures between 40 to 75° F, the Darcy Weisbach method should be used for other liquids or gases.

Head: The height of a column or body of fluid above a given point expressed in linear units. Head is often used to indicate gauge pressure. Pressure is equal to the height times the density of the liquid. The measure of the pressure of water expressed in feet of height of water. 1 psi = 2.31 feet of water. There are various types of heads of water depending upon what is being measured. Static (water at rest) and Residual (water at flow conditions).

Hydraulics: Hydraulics is a branch of science and engineering concerned with the use of liquids to perform mechanical tasks.

Hydrodynamics: Hydrodynamics is the fluid dynamics applied to liquids, such as water, alcohol, and oil.

I

Ideal Gas: The Ideal Gas Law - For a perfect or ideal gas the change in density is directly related to the change in temperature and pressure as expressed in the Ideal Gas Law. Properties of Gas Mixtures - Special care must be taken for gas mixtures when using the ideal gas law, calculating the mass, the individual gas constant or the density. The Individual and Universal Gas Constant - The Individual and Universal Gas Constant is common in fluid mechanics and thermodynamics.

Isentropic Compression/Expansion Process: If the compression or expansion takes place under constant volume conditions - the process is called **isentropic**. The isentropic process on the basis of the Ideal Gas Law can be expressed as:

$$p / \rho^k = \text{constant (2)}$$

where

$k = c_p / c_v$ - the ratio of specific heats - the ratio of specific heat at constant pressure - c_p -

to the specific heat at constant volume - c_v

Irrigation: Water that is especially furnished to help provide and sustain the life of growing plants. It comes from ditches. It is sometimes treated with herbicides and pesticides to prevent the growth of weeds and the development of bugs in a lawn and a garden.

K

Kinematic Viscosity: The ratio of absolute or dynamic viscosity to density - a quantity in which no force is involved. Kinematic viscosity can be obtained by dividing the absolute viscosity of a fluid with its mass density as

$$v = \mu / \rho \quad (2)$$

where

v = kinematic viscosity

μ = absolute or dynamic viscosity

ρ = density

In the SI-system the theoretical unit is m^2/s or commonly used **Stoke (St)** where

- $1 \text{ St} = 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2/s$

Since the Stoke is an unpractical large unit, it is usual divided by 100 to give the unit called **Centistokes (cSt)** where

$$1 \text{ St} = 100 \text{ cSt}$$

$$1 \text{ cSt} = 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/s$$

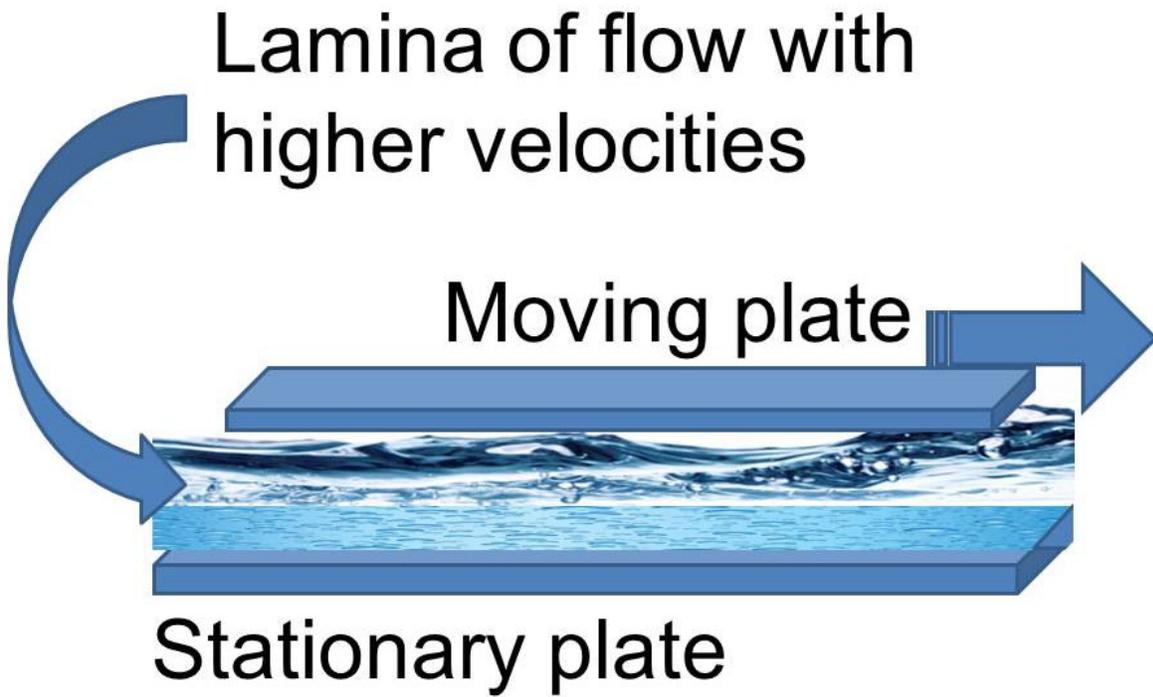
Since the specific gravity of water at 68.4°F (20.2°C) is almost one - 1, the kinematic viscosity of water at 68.4°F is for all practical purposes 1.0 cSt.

Kinetic Energy: The ability of an object to do work by virtue of its motion. The energy terms that are used to describe the operation of a pump are pressure and head.

Knudsen Number: Used by modelers who wish to express a non-dimensionless speed.

L

Laminar Flow: The resistance to flow in a liquid can be characterized in terms of the viscosity of the fluid if the flow is smooth. In the case of a moving plate in a liquid, it is found that there is a layer or lamina which moves with the plate, and a layer which is essentially stationary if it is next to a stationary plate. There is a gradient of velocity as you move from the stationary to the moving plate, and the liquid tends to move in layers with successively higher speed. This is called laminar flow, or sometimes "streamlined" flow. Viscous resistance to flow can be modeled for laminar flow, but if the lamina break up into turbulence, it is very difficult to characterize the fluid flow.



The common application of laminar flow would be in the smooth flow of a viscous liquid through a tube or pipe. In that case, the velocity of flow varies from zero at the walls to a maximum along the centerline of the vessel. The flow profile of laminar flow in a tube can be calculated by dividing the flow into thin cylindrical elements and applying the viscous force to them. Laminar, Transitional or Turbulent Flow? - It is important to know if the fluid flow is laminar, transitional or turbulent when calculating heat transfer or pressure and head loss.

Laplace's Equation: Describes the behavior of gravitational, electric, and fluid potentials.

The scalar form of Laplace's equation is the partial differential equation

$$\nabla^2 \psi = 0, \tag{1}$$

where ∇^2 is the Laplacian.

Note that the operator ∇^2 is commonly written as Δ by mathematicians (Krantz 1999, p. 16).

Laplace's equation is a special case of the Helmholtz differential equation

$$\nabla^2 \psi + k^2 \psi = 0 \tag{2}$$

with $k = 0$, or Poisson's equation

$$\nabla^2 \psi = -4 \pi \rho \tag{3}$$

with $\rho = 0$.

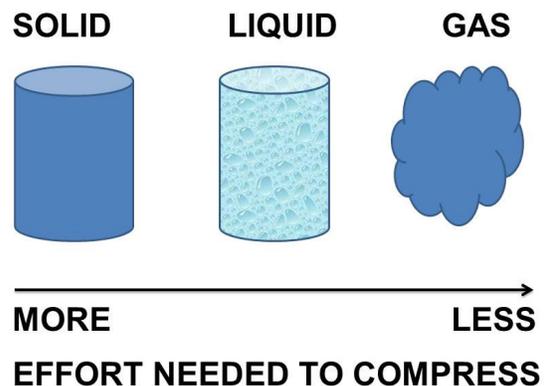
The vector Laplace's equation is given by

$$\nabla^2 \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}. \tag{4}$$

A function ψ which satisfies Laplace's equation is said to be harmonic. A solution to Laplace's equation has the property that the average value over a spherical surface is equal to the value at the center of the sphere (Gauss's harmonic function theorem). Solutions have no local maxima or minima. Because Laplace's equation is linear, the superposition of any two solutions is also a solution.

Lift (Force): Lift consists of the sum of all the aerodynamic forces normal to the direction of the external airflow.

Liquids: An in-between state of matter. They can be found in between the solid and gas states. They don't have to be made up of the same compounds. If you have a variety of materials in a liquid, it is called a solution. One characteristic of a liquid is that it will fill up the shape of a container. If you pour some water in a cup, it will fill up the bottom of the cup first and then fill the rest. The water will also take the shape of the cup. It fills the bottom first because of **gravity**. The top part of a liquid will usually have a flat surface. That flat surface is because of gravity too. Putting an ice cube (solid) into a cup will leave you with a cube in the middle of the cup; the shape won't change until the ice becomes a liquid.



Another trait of liquids is that they are difficult to compress.

When you compress something, you take a certain amount and force it into a smaller space. Solids are very difficult to compress and gases are very easy. Liquids are in the middle but tend to be difficult. When you compress something, you force the atoms closer together. When pressure goes up, substances are compressed. Liquids already have their atoms close together, so they are hard to compress. Many shock absorbers in cars compress liquids in tubes.

A special force keeps liquids together. Solids are stuck together and you have to force them apart. Gases bounce everywhere and they try to spread themselves out. Liquids actually want to stick together. There will always be the occasional evaporation where extra energy gets a molecule excited and the molecule leaves the system. Overall, liquids have **cohesive** (sticky) forces at work that hold the molecules together. Related Liquid Information: Equations in Fluid Mechanics - Continuity, Euler, Bernoulli, Dynamic and Total Pressure

M

Mach Number: When an object travels through a medium, then its Mach number is the ratio of the object's speed to the speed of sound in that medium.

Magnetic Flow Meter: Inspection of magnetic flow meter instrumentation should include checking for corrosion or insulation deterioration.

Manning Formula for Gravity Flow: Manning's equation can be used to calculate cross-sectional average velocity flow in open channels

$$v = k_n/n R^{2/3} S^{1/2} \quad (1)$$

where

v = cross-sectional average velocity (ft/s, m/s)

$k_n = 1.486$ for English units and $k_n = 1.0$ for SI units

A = cross sectional area of flow (ft², m²)

n = Manning coefficient of roughness

R = hydraulic radius (ft, m)

S = slope of pipe (ft/ft, m/m)

The volume flow in the channel can be calculated as

$$q = A v = A k_n/n R^{2/3} S^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

where

q = volume flow (ft³/s, m³/s)

A = cross-sectional area of flow (ft², m²)

Maximum Contamination Levels or (MCLs): The maximum allowable level of a contaminant that federal or state regulations allow in a public water system. If the MCL is exceeded, the water system must treat the water so that it meets the MCL. Or provide adequate backflow protection.

Mechanical Seal: A mechanical device used to control leakage from the stuffing box of a pump. Usually made of two flat surfaces, one of which rotates on the shaft. The two flat surfaces are of such tolerances as to prevent the passage of water between them.

Mg/L: milligrams per liter

Microbe, Microbial: Any minute, simple, single-celled form of life, especially one that causes disease.

Microbial Contaminants: Microscopic organisms present in untreated water that can cause waterborne diseases.

ML: milliliter

N

Navier-Stokes Equations: The motion of a non-turbulent, Newtonian fluid is governed by the Navier-Stokes equation. The equation can be used to model turbulent flow, where the fluid parameters are interpreted as time-averaged values.

Newtonian Fluid: Newtonian fluid (named for Isaac Newton) is a fluid that flows like water—its shear stress is linearly proportional to the velocity gradient in the direction perpendicular to the plane of shear. The constant of proportionality is known as the viscosity. Water is Newtonian, because it continues to exemplify fluid properties no matter how fast it is stirred or mixed.

Contrast this with a non-Newtonian fluid, in which stirring can leave a "hole" behind (that gradually fills up over time - this behavior is seen in materials such as pudding, or to a less rigorous extent, sand), or cause the fluid to become thinner, the drop in viscosity causing it to flow more (this is seen in non-drip paints). For a Newtonian fluid, the viscosity, by definition, depends only on temperature and pressure (and also the chemical composition of the fluid if the fluid is not a pure substance), not on the forces acting upon it. If the fluid is incompressible and viscosity is constant across the fluid, the equation governing the shear stress. Related Newtonian Information: A Fluid is Newtonian if viscosity is constant applied to shear force. Dynamic, Absolute and Kinematic Viscosity - An introduction to dynamic, absolute and kinematic viscosity and how to convert between CentiStokes (cSt), CentiPois (cP), Saybolt Universal Seconds (SSU) and degree Engler.

Newton's Third Law: Newton's third law describes the forces acting on objects interacting with each other. Newton's third law can be expressed as

- *"If one object exerts a force F on another object, then the second object exerts an equal but opposite force F on the first object"*

Force is a convenient abstraction to represent mentally the pushing and pulling interaction between objects.

It is common to express forces as vectors with magnitude, direction and point of application. The net effect of two or more forces acting on the same point is the vector sum of the forces.

Non-Newtonian Fluid: Non-Newtonian fluid viscosity changes with the applied shear force.

O

Oxidizing: The process of breaking down organic wastes into simpler elemental forms or by products. Also used to separate combined chlorine and convert it into free chlorine.

P

Pascal's Law: A pressure applied to a confined fluid at rest is transmitted with equal intensity throughout the fluid.

Pathogens: Disease-causing pathogens; waterborne pathogens. A pathogen is a bacterium, virus or parasite that causes or is capable of causing disease. Pathogens may contaminate water and cause waterborne disease.

pCi/L- picocuries per liter: A curie is the amount of radiation released by a set amount of a certain compound. A picocurie is one quadrillionth of a curie.

pH: A measure of the acidity of water. The pH scale runs from 0 to 14 with 7 being the mid-point or neutral. A pH of less than 7 is on the acid side of the scale with 0 as the point of greatest acid activity. A pH of more than 7 is on the basic (alkaline) side of the scale with 14 as the point of greatest basic activity. pH (Power of Hydroxyl Ion Activity).

Pipeline Appurtenances: Pressure reducers, bends, valves, regulators (which are a type of valve), etc.

Peak Demand: The maximum momentary load placed on a water treatment plant, pumping station or distribution system is the Peak Demand.

Pipe Velocities: For calculating fluid pipe velocity.

Imperial units

A fluids flow velocity in pipes can be calculated with Imperial or American units as

$$v = 0.4085 q / d^2 \quad (1)$$

where

v = velocity (ft/s)

q = volume flow (US gal. /min)

d = pipe inside diameter (inches)

SI units

A fluids flow velocity in pipes can be calculated with SI units as

$$v = 1.274 q / d^2 \quad (2)$$

where

v = velocity (m/s)

q = volume flow (m³/s)

d = pipe inside diameter (m)

Pollution: To make something unclean or impure. Some states will have a definition of pollution that relates to non-health related water problems, like taste and odors. See Contaminated.

Positive Flow Report-back Signal: When a pump receives a signal to start, a light will typically be illuminated on the control panel indicating that the pump is running. In order to be sure that the pump is actually pumping water, a Positive flow report-back signal should be installed on the

control panel.

Potable: Good water which is safe for drinking or cooking purposes. **Non-Potable:** A liquid or water that is not approved for drinking.

Potential Energy: The energy that a body has by virtue of its position or state enabling it to do work.

PPM: Abbreviation for parts per million.

Prandtl Number: The Prandtl Number is a dimensionless number approximating the ratio of momentum diffusivity and thermal diffusivity and can be expressed as

$$Pr = \nu / \alpha \quad (1)$$

where

Pr = Prandtl's number

ν = kinematic viscosity (Pa s)

α = thermal diffusivity (W/m K)

The Prandtl number can alternatively be expressed as

$$Pr = \mu c_p / k \quad (2)$$

where

μ = absolute or dynamic viscosity (kg/m s, cP)

c_p = specific heat capacity (J/kg K, Btu/(lb °F))

k = thermal conductivity (W/m K, Btu/(h ft² °F/ft))

The Prandtl Number is often used in heat transfer and free and forced convection calculations.

Pressure: An introduction to pressure - the definition and presentation of common units as psi and Pa and the relationship between them.

The pressure in a fluid is defined as

"the normal force per unit area exerted on an imaginary or real plane surface in a fluid or a gas"

The equation for pressure can expressed as:

$$p = F / A \quad (1)$$

where

p = pressure [lb/in² (psi) or lb/ft² (psf), N/m² or kg/ms² (Pa)]

F = force [¹, N]

A = area [in² or ft², m²]

¹) In the English Engineering System special care must be taken for the force unit. The basic unit for mass is the pound mass (lb_m) and the unit for the force is the pound (lb) or pound force (lb_f).

Absolute Pressure

The **absolute pressure** - p_a - is measured relative to the **absolute zero pressure** - the pressure that would occur at absolute vacuum.

Gauge Pressure

A **gauge** is often used to measure the pressure difference between a system and the surrounding atmosphere. This pressure is often called the **gauge pressure** and can be expressed as

$$p_g = p_a - p_o \quad (2)$$

where

p_g = gauge pressure

p_o = atmospheric pressure

Atmospheric Pressure

The atmospheric pressure is the pressure in the surrounding air. It varies with temperature and altitude above sea level.

Standard Atmospheric Pressure

The **Standard Atmospheric Pressure** (atm) is used as a reference for gas densities and volumes. The Standard Atmospheric Pressure is defined at sea-level at 273°K (0°C) and is **1.01325 bar** or 101325 Pa (absolute). The temperature of 293°K (20°C) is also used.

In imperial units the Standard Atmospheric Pressure is 14.696 psi.

- $1 \text{ atm} = 1.01325 \text{ bar} = 101.3 \text{ kPa} = 14.696 \text{ psi (lb/in}^2\text{)} = 760 \text{ mmHg} = 10.33 \text{ mH}_2\text{O} = 760 \text{ torr} = 29.92 \text{ in Hg} = 1013 \text{ mbar} = 1.0332 \text{ kg/cm}^2 = 33.90 \text{ ftH}_2\text{O}$

Pressure Head: The height to which liquid can be raised by a given pressure.

Pressure Regulation Valves: Control water pressure and operate by restricting flows. They are used to deliver water from a high pressure to a low-pressure system. The pressure downstream from the valve regulates the amount of flow. Usually, these valves are of the globe design and have a spring-loaded diaphragm that sets the size of the opening.

Pressure Units: Since 1 Pa is a small pressure unit, the unit hectopascal (hPa) is widely used, especially in meteorology. The unit kilopascal (kPa) is commonly used designing technical applications like HVAC systems, piping systems and similar.

- $1 \text{ hectopascal} = 100 \text{ pascal} = 1 \text{ millibar}$
- $1 \text{ kilopascal} = 1000 \text{ pascal}$

Some Pressure Levels

- 10 Pa - The pressure at a depth of 1 mm of water
- 1 kPa - Approximately the pressure exerted by a 10 g mass on a 1 cm² area
- 10 kPa - The pressure at a depth of 1 m of water, or the drop in air pressure when going from sea level to 1000 m elevation
- 10 MPa - A "high pressure" washer forces the water out of the nozzles at this pressure
- 10 GPa - This pressure forms diamonds

Some Alternative Units of Pressure

- $1 \text{ bar} = 100,000 \text{ Pa}$
- $1 \text{ millibar} = 100 \text{ Pa}$
- $1 \text{ atmosphere} = 101,325 \text{ Pa}$
- $1 \text{ mm Hg} = 133 \text{ Pa}$
- $1 \text{ inch Hg} = 3,386 \text{ Pa}$

A **torr** (torr) is named after Torricelli and is the pressure produced by a column of mercury 1 mm high equals to 1/760th of an atmosphere. 1 atm = 760 torr = 14.696 psi

Pounds per square inch (psi) was common in U.K. but has now been replaced in almost every country except in the U.S. by the SI units. The Normal atmospheric pressure is 14.696 psi, meaning that a column of air on one square inch in area rising from the Earth's atmosphere to space weighs 14.696 pounds.

The **bar** (bar) is common in the industry. One bar is 100,000 Pa, and for most practical purposes can be approximated to one atmosphere even if

$$1 \text{ Bar} = 0.9869 \text{ atm}$$

There are 1,000 **millibar** (mbar) in one bar, a unit common in meteorology.

$$1 \text{ millibar} = 0.001 \text{ bar} = 0.750 \text{ torr} = 100 \text{ Pa}$$

R

Residual Disinfection/Protection: A required level of disinfectant that remains in treated water to ensure disinfection protection and prevent recontamination throughout the distribution system (i.e., pipes).

Reynolds Number: The Reynolds number is used to determine whether a flow is laminar or turbulent. The Reynolds Number is a non-dimensional parameter defined by the ratio of dynamic pressure (ρu^2) and shearing stress ($\mu u / L$) - and can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} Re &= (\rho u^2) / (\mu u / L) \\ &= \rho u L / \mu \\ &= u L / \nu \quad (1) \end{aligned}$$

where

Re = Reynolds Number (non-dimensional)

ρ = density (kg/m^3 , lb_m/ft^3)

u = velocity (m/s, ft/s)

μ = dynamic viscosity (Ns/m^2 , $\text{lb}_m/\text{s ft}$)

L = characteristic length (m, ft)

ν = kinematic viscosity (m^2/s , ft^2/s)

Richardson Number: A dimensionless number that expresses the ratio of potential to kinetic energy.

S

Sanitizer: A chemical which disinfects (kills bacteria), kills algae and oxidizes organic matter.

Saybolt Universal Seconds (or SUS, SSU): Saybolt Universal Seconds (or SUS) is used to measure viscosity. The efflux time is Saybolt Universal Seconds (SUS) required for 60 milliliters of a petroleum product to flow through the calibrated orifice of a Saybolt Universal viscometer, under carefully controlled temperature and as prescribed by test method ASTM D 88. This method has largely been replaced by the kinematic viscosity method. Saybolt Universal Seconds is also called the SSU number (Seconds Saybolt Universal) or SSF number (Saybolt Seconds Furol).

Kinematic viscosity versus dynamic or absolute viscosity can be expressed as

$$v = 4.63 \mu / SG \quad (3)$$

where

v = kinematic viscosity (SSU)

μ = dynamic or absolute viscosity (cP)

Scale: Crust of calcium carbonate, the result of unbalanced pool water. Hard insoluble minerals deposited (usually calcium bicarbonate) which forms on pool and spa surfaces and clog filters, heaters and pumps. Scale is caused by high calcium hardness and/or high pH. You will often find major scale deposits inside a backflow prevention assembly.

Shock: Also known as superchlorination or break point chlorination. Ridding a pool of organic waste through oxidization by the addition of significant quantities of a halogen.

Shock Wave: A shock wave is a strong pressure wave produced by explosions or other phenomena that create violent changes in pressure.

Solder: A fusible alloy used to join metallic parts. Solder for potable water pipes shall be lead-free.

Sound Barrier: The sound barrier is the apparent physical boundary stopping large objects from becoming supersonic.

Specific Gravity: The Specific Gravity - SG - is a dimensionless unit defined as the ratio of density of the material to the density of water at a specified temperature. Specific Gravity can be expressed as

$$SG = \rho / \rho_{H_2O} \quad (3)$$

where

SG = specific gravity

ρ = density of fluid or substance (kg/m³)

ρ_{H_2O} = density of water (kg/m³)

It is common to use the density of water at 4° C (39°F) as a reference - at this point the density of water is at the highest. Since Specific Weight is dimensionless it has the same value in the metric SI system as in the imperial English system (BG). At the reference point the Specific Gravity has same numerically value as density.

Example - Specific Gravity

If the density of iron is 7850 kg/m³, 7.85 grams per cubic millimeter, 7.85 kilograms per liter, or 7.85 metric tons per cubic meter - the specific gravity of iron is:

$$SG = 7850 \text{ kg/m}^3 / 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$= 7.85$$

(the density of water is 1000 kg/m³)

Specific Weight: Specific Weight is defined as weight per unit volume. Weight is a **force**.

- Mass and Weight - the difference! - What is weight and what is mass? An explanation of the difference between weight and mass.

Specific Weight can be expressed as

$$\gamma = \rho g \text{ (2)}$$

where

γ = specific weight (kN/m³)

g = acceleration of gravity (m/s²)

The SI-units of specific weight are kN/m³. The imperial units are lb/ft³. The local acceleration g is under normal conditions 9.807 m/s² in SI-units and 32.174 ft/s² in imperial units.

Example - Specific Weight Water

Specific weight for water at 60 °F is 62.4 lb/ft³ in imperial units and 9.80 kN/m³ in SI-units.

Example - Specific Weight Some other Materials

Product	Specific Weight - γ	
	Imperial Units (lb/ft ³)	SI Units (kN/m ³)
Ethyl Alcohol	49.3	7.74
Gasoline	42.5	6.67
Glycerin	78.6	12.4
Mercury	847	133
SAE 20 Oil	57	8.95
Seawater	64	10.1
Water	62.4	9.80

Static Head: The height of a column or body of fluid above a given point

Static Pressure: The pressure in a fluid at rest.

Static Pressure and Pressure Head in Fluids: The pressure indicates the normal force per unit area at a given point acting on a given plane. Since there is no shearing stresses present in a fluid at rest - the pressure in a fluid is independent of direction.

For fluids - liquids or gases - at rest the pressure gradient in the vertical direction depends only on the specific weight of the fluid.

How pressure changes with elevation can be expressed as

$$dp = - \gamma dz \quad (1)$$

where

dp = change in pressure

dz = change in height

γ = specific weight

The pressure gradient in vertical direction is negative - the pressure decrease upwards.

Specific Weight: Specific Weight can be expressed as:

$$\gamma = \rho g \quad (2)$$

where

γ = specific weight

g = acceleration of gravity

In general the specific weight - γ - is constant for fluids. For gases the specific weight - γ - varies with the elevation.

Static Pressure in a Fluid: For an incompressible fluid - as a liquid - the pressure difference between two elevations can be expressed as:

$$p_2 - p_1 = - \gamma (z_2 - z_1) \quad (3)$$

where

p_2 = pressure at level 2

p_1 = pressure at level 1

z_2 = level 2

z_1 = level 1

(3) can be transformed to:

$$p_1 - p_2 = \gamma (z_2 - z_1) \quad (4)$$

or

$$p_1 - p_2 = \gamma h \quad (5)$$

where

$h = z_2 - z_1$ difference in elevation - the depth down from location z_2 .

or

$$p_1 = \gamma h + p_2 \quad (6)$$

Static Pressure and Pressure Head in Fluids Continued:

The Pressure Head

(6) can be transformed to:

$$h = (p_2 - p_1) / \gamma \quad (6)$$

h express **the pressure head** - the height of a column of fluid of specific weight - γ - required to give a pressure difference of $(p_2 - p_1)$.

Example - Pressure Head

A pressure difference of 5 psi (lbf/in²) is equivalent to

$$5 \text{ (lbf/in}^2\text{)} \cdot 12 \text{ (in/ft)} \cdot 12 \text{ (in/ft)} / 62.4 \text{ (lb/ft}^3\text{)} = \underline{11.6 \text{ ft of water}}$$

$$5 \text{ (lbf/in}^2\text{)} \cdot 12 \text{ (in/ft)} \cdot 12 \text{ (in/ft)} / 847 \text{ (lb/ft}^3\text{)} = \underline{0.85 \text{ ft of mercury}}$$

when specific weight of water is 62.4 (lb/ft³) and specific weight of mercury is 847 (lb/ft³).

Streamline - Stream Function: A streamline is the path that an imaginary particle would follow if it was embedded in the flow.

Strouhal Number: A quantity describing oscillating flow mechanisms. The Strouhal Number is a dimensionless value useful for analyzing oscillating, unsteady fluid flow dynamics problems.

The Strouhal Number can be expressed as

$$St = \omega l / v \quad (1)$$

where

St = Strouhal Number

ω = oscillation frequency

l = characteristic length

v = flow velocity

The Strouhal Number represents a measure of the ratio of inertial forces due to the unsteadiness of the flow or local acceleration to the inertial forces due to changes in velocity from one point to another in the flow field.

The vortices observed behind a stone in a river, or measured behind the obstruction in a vortex flow meter, illustrate these principles.

Stuffing Box: That portion of the pump which houses the packing or mechanical seal.

Submerged: To cover with water or liquid substance.

Supersonic Flow: Flow with speed above the speed of sound, 1,225 km/h at sea level, is said to be supersonic.

Surface Tension: Surface tension is a force within the surface layer of a liquid that causes the layer to behave as an elastic sheet. The cohesive forces between liquid molecules are responsible for the phenomenon known as surface tension. The molecules at the surface do not have other like molecules on all sides of them and consequently they cohere more strongly to those directly associated with them on the surface.

This forms a surface "film" which makes it more difficult to move an object through the surface than to move it when it is completely submerged. Surface tension is typically measured in dynes/cm, the force in dynes required to break a film of length 1 cm. Equivalently, it can be stated as surface energy in ergs per square centimeter. Water at 20°C has a surface tension of 72.8 dynes/cm compared to 22.3 for ethyl alcohol and 465 for mercury.

Surface tension is typically measured in *dynes/cm* or *N/m*.

Liquid	Surface Tension	
	N/m	dynes/cm
Ethyl Alcohol	0.0223	22.3
Mercury	0.465	465
Water 20°C	0.0728	72.75
Water 100°C	0.0599	58.9

Surface tension is the energy required to stretch a unit change of a surface area. Surface tension will form a drop of liquid to a sphere since the sphere offers the smallest area for a definite volume.

Surface tension can be defined as

$$\sigma = F_s / l \quad (1)$$

where

σ = surface tension (N/m)

F_s = stretching force (N)

l = unit length (m)

Alternative Units

Alternatively, surface tension is typically measured in dynes/cm, which is

- the force in dynes required to break a film of length 1 cm
- or as surface energy J/m² or alternatively ergs per square centimeter.
- 1 dynes/cm = 0.001 N/m = 0.0000685 lb_f/ft = 0.571 10⁻⁵ lb_f/in = 0.0022 poundal/ft = 0.00018 poundal/in = 1.0 mN/m = 0.001 J/m² = 1.0 erg/cm² = 0.00010197 kg_f/m

Common Imperial units used are lb/ft and lb/in.

Water surface tension at different temperatures can be taken from the table below:

Temperature (°C)	Surface Tension - σ - (N/m)
0	0.0757
10	0.0742
20	0.0728
30	0.0712
40	0.0696
50	0.0679
60	0.0662
70	0.0644
80	0.0626
90	0.0608
100	0.0588

Surface Tension of some common Fluids

- benzene : 0.0289 (N/m)
- diethyl ether : 0.0728 (N/m)

- carbon tetrachloride : 0.027 (N/m)
- chloroform : 0.0271 (N/m)
- ethanol : 0.0221 (N/m)
- ethylene glycol : 0.0477 (N/m)
- glycerol : 0.064 (N/m)
- mercury : 0.425 (N/m)
- methanol : 0.0227 (N/m)
- propanol : 0.0237 (N/m)
- toluene : 0.0284 (N/m)
- water at 20°C : 0.0729 (N/m)

Surge Tanks: Surge tanks can be used to control Water Hammer. A limitation of hydropneumatic tanks is that they do not provide much storage to meet peak demands during power outages and you have very limited time to do repairs on equipment.

T

Telemetry Systems: The following are common pressure sensing devices: Helical Sensor, Bourdon Tube, and Bellows Sensor. The most frequent problem that affects a liquid pressure-sensing device is air accumulation at the sensor. A diaphragm element being used as a level sensor would be used in conjunction with a pressure sensor. Devices must often transmit more than one signal. You can use several types of systems including: Polling, Scanning and Multiplexing. Transmitting equipment requires installation where temperature will not exceed 130 degrees F.

Thixotropic Fluids: Shear Thinning Fluids or Thixotropic Fluids reduce their viscosity as agitation or pressure is increased at a constant temperature. Ketchup and mayonnaise are examples of thixotropic materials. They appear thick or viscous but are possible to pump quite easily.

Transonic: Flow with speed at velocities just below and above the speed of sound is said to be transonic.

Turbidity: A measure of the cloudiness of water caused by suspended particles.

U

U-Tube Manometer: Pressure measuring devices using liquid columns in vertical or inclined tubes are called manometers. One of the most common is the water filled u-tube manometer used to measure pressure difference in pitot or orifices located in the airflow in air handling or ventilation systems.

V

Valve: A device that opens and closes to regulate the flow of liquids. Faucets, hose bibs, and Ball are examples of valves.

Vane: That portion of an impeller which throws the water toward the volute.

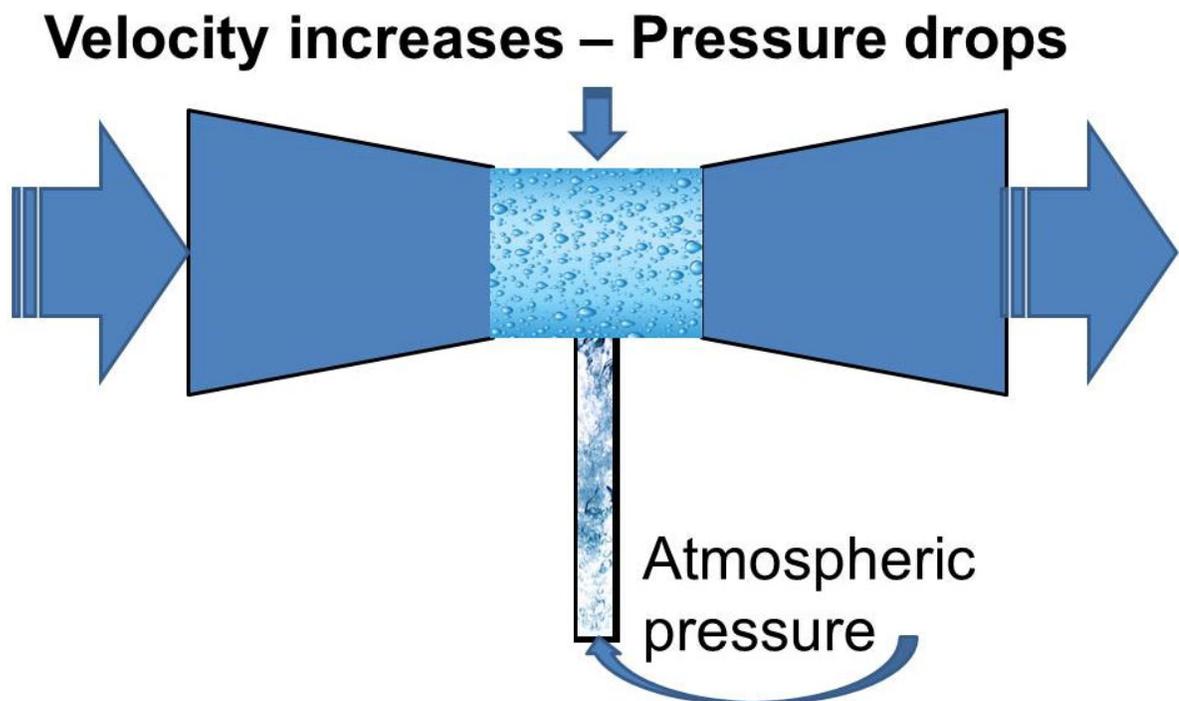
Vapor Pressure: For a particular substance at any given temperature there is a pressure at which the vapor of that substance is in equilibrium with its liquid or solid forms.

Velocity Head: The vertical distance a liquid must fall to acquire the velocity with which it flows

through the piping system. For a given quantity of flow, the velocity head will vary indirectly as the pipe diameter varies.

Venturi: A system for speeding the flow of the fluid, by constricting it in a cone-shaped tube. Venturi are used to measure the speed of a fluid, by measuring the pressure changes from one point to another along the venture. A venturi can also be used to inject a liquid or a gas into another liquid. A pump forces the liquid flow through a tube connected to:

- A venturi to increase the speed of the fluid (restriction of the pipe diameter)
- A short piece of tube connected to the gas source
- A second venturi that decrease the speed of the fluid (the pipe diameter increase again)
- After the first venturi the pressure in the pipe is lower, so the gas is sucked in the pipe. Then the mixture enters the second venturi and slow down. At the end of the system a mixture of gas and liquid appears and the pressure rise again to its normal level in the pipe.
- This technique is used for ozone injection in water.



The newest injector design causes complete mixing of injected materials (air, ozone or chemicals), eliminating the need for other in-line mixers. Venturi injectors have no moving parts and are maintenance free. They operate effectively over a wide range of pressures (from 1 to 250 psi) and require only a minimum pressure difference to initiate the vacuum at the suction part. Venturis are often built in thermoplastics (PVC, PE, PVDF), stainless steel or other metals.

The cavitation effect at the injection chamber provides an instantaneous mixing, creating thousands of very tiny bubbles of gas in the liquid. The small bubbles provide an increased gas exposure to the liquid surface area, increasing the effectiveness of the process (i.e. ozonation).

Vibration: A force that is present on construction sites and must be considered. The vibrations caused by backhoes, dump trucks, compactors and traffic on job sites can be substantial.

Viscosity: Informally, viscosity is the quantity that describes a fluid's resistance to flow. Fluids resist the relative motion of immersed objects through them as well as to the motion of layers with differing velocities within them. Formally, viscosity (represented by the symbol η "eta") is the ratio of the shearing stress (F/A) to the velocity gradient ($\Delta v_x/\Delta z$ or dv_x/dz) in a fluid.

$$\eta = \left(\frac{F}{A} \right) \div \left(\frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta z} \right) \quad \text{or} \quad \eta = \left(\frac{F}{A} \right) \div \left(\frac{dv_x}{dz} \right)$$

The more usual form of this relationship, called Newton's equation, states that the resulting shear of a fluid is directly proportional to the force applied and inversely proportional to its viscosity. The similarity to Newton's second law of motion ($F = ma$) should be apparent.

$$\frac{F}{A} = \eta \frac{\Delta v_x}{\Delta z} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{F}{A} = \eta \frac{dv_x}{dz}$$

$$\Downarrow \qquad \qquad \qquad \Downarrow$$

$$F = m \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} \quad \text{or} \quad F = m \frac{dv}{dt}$$

The SI unit of viscosity is the pascal second [Pa·s], which has no special name. Despite its self-proclaimed title as an international system, the International System of Units has had very little international impact on viscosity. The pascal second is rarely used in scientific and technical publications today. The most common unit of viscosity is the dyne second per square centimeter [dyne·s/cm²], which is given the name poise [P] after the French physiologist Jean Louis Poiseuille (1799-1869). Ten poise equal one pascal second [Pa·s] making the centipoise [cP] and millipascal second [mPa·s] identical.

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ pascal second} &= 10 \text{ poise} = 1,000 \text{ millipascal second} \\ 1 \text{ centipoise} &= 1 \text{ millipascal second} \end{aligned}$$

There are actually two quantities that are called viscosity. The quantity defined above is sometimes called dynamic viscosity, absolute viscosity, or simple viscosity to distinguish it from the other quantity, but is usually just called viscosity. The other quantity called kinematic viscosity (represented by the symbol ν "nu") is the ratio of the viscosity of a fluid to its density.

$$\nu = \frac{\eta}{\rho}$$

Kinematic viscosity is a measure of the resistive flow of a fluid under the influence of gravity. It is frequently measured using a device called a capillary viscometer -- basically a graduated can with a narrow tube at the bottom. When two fluids of equal volume are placed in identical capillary

viscometers and allowed to flow under the influence of gravity, a viscous fluid takes longer than a less viscous fluid to flow through the tube.

Capillary viscometers are discussed in more detail later in this section. The SI unit of kinematic viscosity is the square meter per second [m^2/s], which has no special name. This unit is so large that it is rarely used. A more common unit of kinematic viscosity is the square centimeter per second [cm^2/s], which is given the name stoke [St] after the English scientist George Stoke. This unit is also a bit too large and so the most common unit is probably the square millimeter per second [mm^2/s] or centistoke [cSt].

Viscosity and Reference Temperatures: The viscosity of a fluid is highly temperature dependent and for either dynamic or kinematic viscosity to be meaningful, the **reference temperature** must be quoted. In ISO 8217 the reference temperature for a residual fluid is 100°C. For a distillate fluid the reference temperature is 40°C.

- For a liquid - the kinematic viscosity will **decrease** with higher temperature.
- For a gas - the kinematic viscosity will **increase** with higher temperature.

Volute: The spiral-shaped casing surrounding a pump impeller that collects the liquid discharged by the impeller.

Vorticity: Vorticity is defined as the circulation per unit area at a point in the flow field.

Vortex: A vortex is a whirlpool in the water.

W

Water Freezing: The effects of water freezing in storage tanks can be minimized by alternating water levels in the tank.

Water Storage Facility Inspection: During an inspection of your water storage facility, you should inspect the Cathodic protection system including checking the anode's condition and the connections. The concentration of polyphosphates that is used for corrosion control in storage tanks is typically 5 mg/L or less. External corrosion of steel water storage facilities can be reduced with Zinc or aluminum coatings. All storage facilities should be regularly sampled to determine the quality of water that enters and leaves the facility. One tool or piece of measuring equipment is the Jackson turbidimeter, which is a method to measure cloudiness in water.

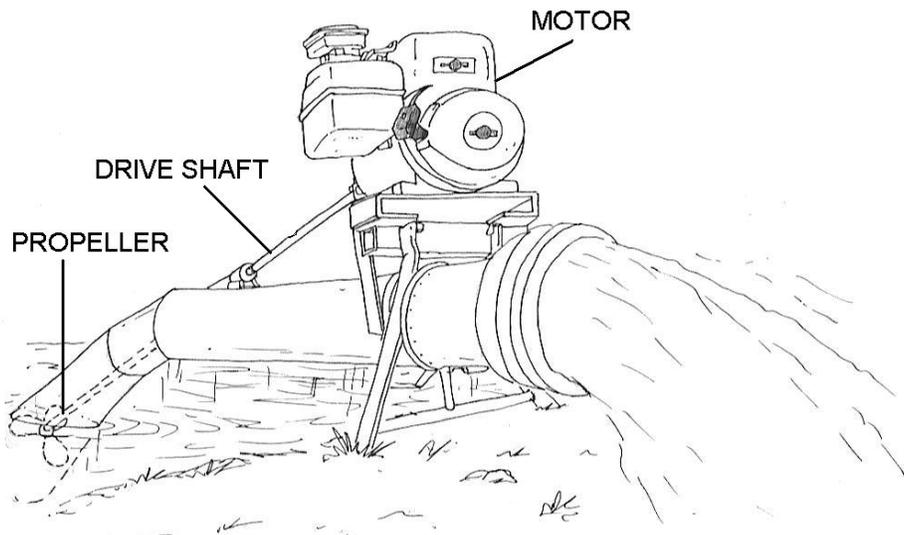
Wave Drag: Wave drag refers to a sudden and very powerful drag that appears on aircrafts flying at high-subsonic speeds.

Water Purveyor: The individuals or organization responsible to help provide, supply, and furnish quality water to a community.

Water Works: All of the pipes, pumps, reservoirs, dams and buildings that make up a water system.

Waterborne Diseases: A disease, caused by a virus, bacterium, protozoan, or other microorganism, capable of being transmitted by water (e.g., typhoid fever, cholera, amoebic dysentery, gastroenteritis).

Weber Number: A dimensionless value useful for analyzing fluid flows where there is an interface between two different fluids. Since the Weber Number represents an index of the inertial force to the surface tension force acting on a fluid element, it can be useful analyzing thin films flows and the formation of droplets and bubbles.



Appendixes and Charts

Density of Common Liquids

The density of some common liquids can be found in the table below:

Liquid	Temperature - <i>t</i> - (°C)	Density - ρ - (kg/m ³)
Acetic Acid	25	1049
Acetone	25	785
Acetonitrile	20	782
Alcohol, ethyl	25	785
Alcohol, methyl	25	787
Alcohol, propyl	25	780
Ammonia (aqua)	25	823
Aniline	25	1019
Automobile oils	15	880 - 940
Beer (varies)	10	1010
Benzene	25	874
Benzyl	15	1230
Brine	15	1230
Bromine	25	3120
Butyric Acid	20	959
Butane	25	599
n-Butyl Acetate	20	880
n-Butyl Alcohol	20	810
n-Butylchloride	20	886
Caproic acid	25	921
Carbolic acid	15	956
Carbon disulfide	25	1261
Carbon tetrachloride	25	1584
Carene	25	857
Castor oil	25	956
Chloride	25	1560
Chlorobenzene	20	1106
Chloroform	20	1489
Chloroform	25	1465
Citric acid	25	1660
Coconut oil	15	924
Cotton seed oil	15	926
Cresol	25	1024
Creosote	15	1067
Crude oil, 48° API	60°F	790
Crude oil, 40° API	60°F	825
Crude oil, 35.6° API	60°F	847

Crude oil, 32.6° API	60°F	862
Crude oil, California	60°F	915
Crude oil, Mexican	60°F	973
Crude oil, Texas	60°F	873
Cumene	25	860
Cyclohexane	20	779
Cyclopentane	20	745
Decane	25	726
Diesel fuel oil 20 to 60	15	820 - 950
Diethyl ether	20	714
o-Dichlorobenzene	20	1306
Dichloromethane	20	1326
Diethylene glycol	15	1120
Dichloromethane	20	1326
Dimethyl Acetamide	20	942
N,N-Dimethylformamide	20	949
Dimethyl Sulfoxide	20	1100
Dodecane	25	755
Ethane	-89	570
Ether	25	73
Ethylamine	16	681
Ethyl Acetate	20	901
Ethyl Alcohol	20	789
Ethyl Ether	20	713
Ethylene Dichloride	20	1253
Ethylene glycol	25	1097
Fluorine refrigerant R-12	25	1311
Formaldehyde	45	812
Formic acid 10%oncentration	20	1025
Formic acid 80%oncentration	20	1221
Freon - 11	21	1490
Freon - 21	21	1370
Fuel oil	60°F	890
Furan	25	1416
Furforol	25	1155
Gasoline, natural	60°F	711
Gasoline, Vehicle	60°F	737
Gas oils	60°F	890
Glucose	60°F	1350 - 1440
Glycerin	25	1259
Glycerol	25	1126
Heptane	25	676
Hexane	25	655
Hexanol	25	811

Hexene	25	671
Hydrazine	25	795
Iodine	25	4927
Ionene	25	932
Isobutyl Alcohol	20	802
Iso-Octane	20	692
Isopropyl Alcohol	20	785
Isopropyl Myristate	20	853
Kerosene	60°F	817
Linolenic Acid	25	897
Linseed oil	25	929
Methane	-164	465
Methanol	20	791
Methyl Isoamyl Ketone	20	888
Methyl Isobutyl Ketone	20	801
Methyl n-Propyl Ketone	20	808
Methyl t-Butyl Ether	20	741
N-Methylpyrrolidone	20	1030
Methyl Ethyl Ketone	20	805
Milk	15	1020 - 1050
Naphtha	15	665
Naphtha, wood	25	960
Napthalene	25	820
Ocimene	25	798
Octane	15	918
Olive oil	20	800 - 920
Oxygen (liquid)	-183	1140
Palmitic Acid	25	851
Pentane	20	626
Pentane	25	625
Petroleum Ether	20	640
Petrol, natural	60°F	711
Petrol, Vehicle	60°F	737
Phenol	25	1072
Phosgene	0	1378
Phytadiene	25	823
Pinene	25	857
Propane	-40	583
Propane, R-290	25	494
Propanol	25	804
Propylenearbonate	20	1201
Propylene	25	514
Propylene glycol	25	965
Pyridine	25	979

Pyrrole	25	966
Rape seed oil	20	920
Resorcinol	25	1269
Rosin oil	15	980
Sea water	25	1025
Silane	25	718
Silicone oil		760
Sodium Hydroxide (caustic soda)	15	1250
Sorbaldehyde	25	895
Soya bean oil	15	924 - 928
Stearic Acid	25	891
Sulfuric Acid 95%onc.	20	1839
Sugar solution 68 brix	15	1338
Sunflower oil	20	920
Styrene	25	903
Terpinene	25	847
Tetrahydrofuran	20	888
Toluene	20	867
Toluene	25	862
Triethylamine	20	728
Trifluoroacetic Acid	20	1489
Turpentine	25	868
Water - pure	4	1000
Water - sea	77°F	1022
Whale oil	15	925
o-Xylene	20	880

$1 \text{ kg/m}^3 = 0.001 \text{ g/cm}^3 = 0.0005780 \text{ oz/in}^3 = 0.16036 \text{ oz/gal (Imperial)} = 0.1335 \text{ oz/gal (U.S.)} = 0.0624 \text{ lb/ft}^3 =$
 $0.000036127 \text{ lb/in}^3 = 1.6856 \text{ lb/yd}^3 = 0.010022 \text{ lb/gal (Imperial)} = 0.008345 \text{ lb/gal (U.S.)} = 0.0007525 \text{ ton/yd}^3$

Dynamic or Absolute Viscosity Units Converting Table

The table below can be used to convert between common dynamic or absolute viscosity units.

Multiply by	Convert to				
Convert from	Poiseuille (Pa s)	Poise (dyne s / cm ² = g / cm s)	centiPoise	kg / m h	kg _f s / m ²
Poiseuille (Pa s)	1	10	10 ³	3.63 10 ³	0.102
Poise (dyne s / cm ² = g / cm s)	0.1	1	100	360	0.0102
centiPoise	0.001	0.01	1	3.6	0.00012
kg / m h	2.78 10 ⁻⁴	0.00278	0.0278	1	2.83 10 ⁻⁵
kg _f s / m ²	9.81	98.1	9.81 10 ³	3.53 10 ⁴	1
lb _f s / inch ²	6.89 10 ³	6.89 10 ⁴	6.89 10 ⁶	2.48 10 ⁷	703
lb _f s / ft ²	47.9	479	4.79 10 ⁴	1.72 10 ⁵	0.0488
lb _f h / ft ²	1.72 10 ⁵	1.72 10 ⁶	1.72 10 ⁸	6.21 10 ⁸	1.76 10 ⁴
lb / ft s	1.49	14.9	1.49 10 ³	5.36 10 ³	0.152
lb / ft h	4.13 10 ⁻⁴	0.00413	0.413	1.49	4.22 10 ⁻⁵
Multiply by	Convert to				
Convert from	lb _f s / inch ²	lb _f s / ft ²	lb _f h / ft ²	lb / ft s	lb / ft h
Poiseuille (Pa s)	1.45 10 ⁻⁴	0.0209	5.8 10 ⁻⁶	0.672	2.42 10 ³
Poise (dyne s / cm ² = g / cm s)	1.45 10 ⁻⁵	0.00209	5.8 10 ⁻⁷	0.0672	242
centiPoise	1.45 10 ⁻⁷	2.9 10 ⁻⁵	5.8 10 ⁻⁹	0.000672	2.42
kg / m h	4.03 10 ⁻⁸	5.8 10 ⁻⁶	1.61 10 ⁻⁹	0.000187	0.672
kg _f s / m ²	0.00142	20.5	5.69 10 ⁻⁵	6.59	2.37 10 ⁴
lb _f s / inch ²	1	144	0.04	4.63 10 ³	1.67 10 ⁷
lb _f s / ft ²	0.00694	1	0.000278	32.2	1.16 10 ⁵
lb _f h / ft ²	25	3.6 10 ³	1	1.16 10 ⁵	4.17 10 ⁸
lb / ft s	0.000216	0.0311	8.63 10 ⁻⁶	1	3.6 10 ³
lb / ft h	6 10 ⁻⁸	1.16 10 ⁵	2.4 10 ⁻⁹	0.000278	1

Friction Loss Chart

The table below can be used to indicate the friction loss - feet of liquid per 100 feet of pipe - in standard schedule 40 steel pipes.

Pipe Size (inches)	Flow Rate		Kinematic Viscosity - SSU					
	(gpm)	(l/s)	31 (Water)	100 (~Cream)	200 (~Vegetable oil)	400 (~SAE 10 oil)	800 (~Tomato juice)	1500 (~SAE 30 oil)
1/2	3	0.19	10.0	25.7	54.4	108.0	218.0	411.0
3/4	3	0.19	2.5	8.5	17.5	35.5	71.0	131.0
	5	0.32	6.3	14.1	29.3	59.0	117.0	219.0
1	3	0.19	0.8	3.2	6.6	13.4	26.6	50.0
	5	0.32	1.9	5.3	11.0	22.4	44.0	83.0
	10	0.63	6.9	11.2	22.4	45.0	89.0	165.0
	15	0.95	14.6	26.0	34.0	67.0	137.0	
	20	1.26	25.1	46	46.0	90.0	180.0	
1 1/4	5	0.32	0.5	1.8	3.7	7.6	14.8	26.0
	10	0.63	1.8	3.6	7.5	14.9	30.0	55.0
	15	0.95	3.7	6.4	11.3	22.4	45.0	84.0
1 1/2	10	0.63	0.8	1.9	4.2	8.1	16.5	31.0
	15	0.95	1.7	2.8	6.2	12.4	25.0	46.0
	20	1.26	2.9	5.3	8.1	16.2	33.0	61.0
	30	1.9	6.3	11.6	12.2	24.3	50.0	91.0
	40	2.5	10.8	19.6	20.8	32.0	65.0	121.0
2	20	1.26	0.9	1.5	3.0	6.0	11.9	22.4
	30	1.9	1.8	3.2	4.4	9.0	17.8	33.0
	40	2.5	3.1	5.8	5.8	11.8	24.0	44.0
	60	3.8	6.6	11.6	13.4	17.8	36.0	67.0
	80	5.0	1.6	3.0	3.2	4.8	9.7	18.3
2 1/2	30	1.9	0.8	1.4	2.2	4.4	8.8	16.6
	40	2.5	1.3	2.5	3.0	5.8	11.8	22.2
	60	3.8	2.7	5.1	5.5	8.8	17.8	34.0
	80	5.0	4.7	8.3	9.7	11.8	24.0	44.0
	100	6.3	7.1	12.2	14.1	14.8	29.0	55.0
3	60	3.8	0.9	1.8	1.8	3.7	7.3	13.8
	100	6.3	2.4	4.4	5.1	6.2	12.1	23.0
	125	7.9	3.6	6.5	7.8	8.1	15.3	29.0
	150	9.5	5.1	9.2	10.4	11.5	18.4	35.0
	175	11.0	6.9	11.7	13.8	15.8	21.4	40.0
	200	12.6	8.9	15.0	17.8	20.3	25.0	46.0
4	80	5.0	0.4	0.8	0.8	1.7	3.3	6.2
	100	6.3	0.6	1.2	1.3	2.1	4.1	7.8
	125	7.9	0.9	1.8	2.1	2.6	5.2	9.8
	150	9.5	1.3	2.4	2.9	3.1	6.2	11.5
	175	11.0	1.8	3.2	4.0	4.0	7.4	13.7

	200	12.6	2.3	4.2	5.1	5.1	8.3	15.5
	250	15.8	3.5	6.0	7.4	8.0	10.2	19.4
6	125	7.9	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.52	1.0	1.9
	150	9.5	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.2	2.3
	175	11.0	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.4	2.6
	200	12.6	0.3	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.6	3.0
	250	15.8	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.0	2.1	3.7
	300	18.9	1.1	8.5	10.0	11.6	12.4	23.0
	400	25.2	1.1	1.9	2.3	2.8	3.2	6.0
8	250	15.8	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.2
	300	18.9	0.3	1.2	1.4	1.5	2.5	4.6
	400	25.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.1	2.0
10	300	18.9	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.8	1.5
	400	25.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.8

Hazen-Williams Coefficients

Hazen-Williams factor for some common piping materials. Hazen-Williams coefficients are used in the Hazen-Williams equation for friction loss calculation in ducts and pipes. Coefficients for some common materials used in ducts and pipes can be found in the table below:

Material	Hazen-Williams Coefficient - C -
Asbestos Cement	140
Brass	130 - 140
Brick sewer	100
Cast-Iron - new unlined (CIP)	130
Cast-Iron 10 years old	107 - 113
Cast-Iron 20 years old	89 - 100
Cast-Iron 30 years old	75 - 90
Cast-Iron 40 years old	64-83
Cast-Iron, asphalt coated	100
Cast-Iron, cement lined	140
Cast-Iron, bituminous lined	140
Cast-Iron, wrought plain	100
Concrete	100 - 140
Copper or Brass	130 - 140
Ductile Iron Pipe (DIP)	140
Fiber	140
Galvanized iron	120
Glass	130
Lead	130 - 140
Plastic	130 - 150
Polyethylene, PE, PEH	150
PVC, CPVC	150
Smooth Pipes	140
Steel new unlined	140 - 150
Steel	
Steel, welded and seamless	100
Steel, interior riveted, no projecting rivets	100
Steel, projecting girth rivets	100
Steel, vitrified, spiral-riveted	90 - 100
Steel, corrugated	60
Tin	130
Vitrified Clays	110
Wood Stave	110 - 120

Pressure Head

A pressure difference of 5 psi (lbf/in²) is equivalent to

$$5 \text{ (lbf/in}^2\text{)} \cdot 12 \text{ (in/ft)} \cdot 12 \text{ (in/ft)} / 62.4 \text{ (lb/ft}^3\text{)} = 11.6 \text{ ft of water}$$

$$5 \text{ (lbf/in}^2\text{)} \cdot 12 \text{ (in/ft)} \cdot 12 \text{ (in/ft)} / 847 \text{ (lb/ft}^3\text{)} = 0.85 \text{ ft of mercury}$$

When specific weight of water is 62.4 (lb/ft³) and specific weight of mercury is 847 (lb/ft³).

Heads at different velocities can be taken from the table below:

Velocity (ft/sec)	Head Water (ft)
0.5	0.004
1.0	0.016
1.5	0.035
2.0	0.062
2.5	0.097
3.0	0.140
3.5	0.190
4.0	0.248
4.5	0.314
5.0	0.389
5.5	0.470
6.0	0.560
6.5	0.657
7.0	0.762
7.5	0.875
8.0	0.995
8.5	1.123
9.0	1.259
9.5	1.403
10.0	1.555
11.0	1.881
12.0	2.239
13.0	2.627
14.0	3.047
15.0	3.498
16.0	3.980
17.0	4.493
18.0	5.037
19.0	5.613
20.0	6.219
21.0	6.856
22.0	7.525

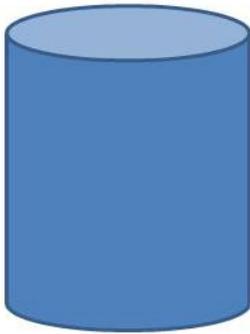
1 ft (foot) = 0.3048 m = 12 in = 0.3333 yd.

Thermal Properties of Water

Temperature - t - (°C)	Absolute pressure - p - (kN/m ²)	Density - ρ - (kg/m ³)	Specific volume - v - (m ³ /kgx10 ⁻³)	Specific Heat - c_p - (kJ/kgK)	Specific entropy - e - (kJ/kgK)
0	0.6	1000	100	4.217	0
5	0.9	1000	100	4.204	0.075
10	1.2	1000	100	4.193	0.150
15	1.7	999	100	4.186	0.223
20	2.3	998	100	4.182	0.296
25	3.2	997	100	4.181	0.367
30	4.3	996	100	4.179	0.438
35	5.6	994	101	4.178	0.505
40	7.7	991	101	4.179	0.581
45	9.6	990	101	4.181	0.637
50	12.5	988	101	4.182	0.707
55	15.7	986	101	4.183	0.767
60	20.0	980	102	4.185	0.832
65	25.0	979	102	4.188	0.893
70	31.3	978	102	4.190	0.966
75	38.6	975	103	4.194	1.016
80	47.5	971	103	4.197	1.076
85	57.8	969	103	4.203	1.134
90	70.0	962	104	4.205	1.192
95	84.5	962	104	4.213	1.250
100	101.33	962	104	4.216	1.307
105	121	955	105	4.226	1.382
110	143	951	105	4.233	1.418
115	169	947	106	4.240	1.473
120	199	943	106	4.240	1.527
125	228	939	106	4.254	1.565
130	270	935	107	4.270	1.635
135	313	931	107	4.280	1.687
140	361	926	108	4.290	1.739
145	416	922	108	4.300	1.790
150	477	918	109	4.310	1.842
155	543	912	110	4.335	1.892
160	618	907	110	4.350	1.942
165	701	902	111	4.364	1.992
170	792	897	111	4.380	2.041
175	890	893	112	4.389	2.090
180	1000	887	113	4.420	2.138
185	1120	882	113	4.444	2.187
190	1260	876	114	4.460	2.236

195	1400	870	115	4.404	2.282
200	1550	863	116	4.497	2.329
220					
225	2550	834	120	4.648	2.569
240					
250	3990	800	125	4.867	2.797
260					
275	5950	756	132	5.202	3.022
300	8600	714	140	5.769	3.256
325	12130	654	153	6.861	3.501
350	16540	575	174	10.10	3.781
360	18680	526	190	14.60	3.921

SOLID



LIQUID



GAS




MORE **LESS**
EFFORT NEEDED TO COMPRESS

Viscosity Converting Chart

The viscosity of a fluid is its resistance to shear or flow, and is a measure of the fluid's adhesive/cohesive or frictional properties. This arises because of the internal molecular friction within the fluid producing the frictional drag effect. There are two related measures of fluid viscosity which are known as **dynamic** and **kinematic** viscosity.

Dynamic viscosity is also termed "**absolute viscosity**" and is the tangential force per unit area required to move one horizontal plane with respect to the other at unit velocity when maintained a unit distance apart by the fluid.

Centipoise (CPS) Millipascal (mPas)	Poise (P)	Centistokes (cSt)	Stokes (S)	Saybolt Seconds Universal (SSU)
1	0.01	1	0.01	31
2	0.02	2	0.02	34
4	0.04	4	0.04	38
7	0.07	7	0.07	47
10	0.1	10	0.1	60
15	0.15	15	0.15	80
20	0.2	20	0.2	100
25	0.24	25	0.24	130
30	0.3	30	0.3	160
40	0.4	40	0.4	210
50	0.5	50	0.5	260
60	0.6	60	0.6	320
70	0.7	70	0.7	370
80	0.8	80	0.8	430
90	0.9	90	0.9	480
100	1	100	1	530
120	1.2	120	1.2	580
140	1.4	140	1.4	690
160	1.6	160	1.6	790
180	1.8	180	1.8	900
200	2	200	2	1000
220	2.2	220	2.2	1100
240	2.4	240	2.4	1200
260	2.6	260	2.6	1280
280	2.8	280	2.8	1380
300	3	300	3	1475
320	3.2	320	3.2	1530
340	3.4	340	3.4	1630
360	3.6	360	3.6	1730

380	3.8	380	3.8	1850
400	4	400	4	1950
420	4.2	420	4.2	2050
440	4.4	440	4.4	2160
460	4.6	460	4.6	2270
480	4.8	480	4.8	2380
500	5	500	5	2480
550	5.5	550	5.5	2660
600	6	600	6	2900
700	7	700	7	3380
800	8	800	8	3880
900	9	900	9	4300
1000	10	1000	10	4600
1100	11	1100	11	5200
1200	12	1200	12	5620
1300	13	1300	13	6100
1400	14	1400	14	6480
1500	15	1500	15	7000
1600	16	1600	16	7500
1700	17	1700	17	8000
1800	18	1800	18	8500
1900	19	1900	19	9000
2000	20	2000	20	9400
2100	21	2100	21	9850
2200	22	2200	22	10300
2300	23	2300	23	10750
2400	24	2400	24	11200

Various Flow Section Channels and their Geometric Relationships:

Area, wetted perimeter and hydraulic diameter for some common geometric sections like

- rectangular channels
- trapezoidal channels
- triangular channels
- circular channels.

Rectangular Channel

Flow Area

Flow area of a rectangular channel can be expressed as

$$A = b h \quad (1)$$

where

A = flow area (m^2 , in^2)

b = width of channel (m , in)

h = height of flow (m , in)

Wetted Perimeter

Wetted perimeter of a rectangular channel can be expressed as

$$P = b + 2 h \quad (1b)$$

where

P = wetted perimeter (m , in)

Hydraulic Radius

Hydraulic radius of a rectangular channel can be expressed as

$$R_h = b h / (b + 2 h) \quad (1c)$$

where

R_h = hydraulic radius (m , in)

Trapezoidal Channel

Flow Area

Flow area of a trapezoidal channel can be expressed as

$$A = (a + z h) h \quad (2)$$

where

z = see figure above (m , in)

Wetted Perimeter

Wetted perimeter of a trapezoidal channel can be expressed as

$$P = a + 2 h (1 + z^2)^{1/2} \quad (2b)$$

Hydraulic Radius

Hydraulic radius of a trapezoidal channel can be expressed as

$$R_h = (a + z h) h / a + 2 h (1 + z^2)^{1/2} \quad (2c)$$

Triangular Channel

Flow Area

Flow area of a triangular channel can be expressed as

$$A = z h^2 \quad (3)$$

where

z = see figure above (m, in)

Wetted Perimeter

Wetted perimeter of a triangular channel can be expressed as

$$P = 2 h (1 + z^2)^{1/2} \quad (3b)$$

Hydraulic Radius

Hydraulic radius of a triangular channel can be expressed as

$$R_h = z h / 2 (1 + z^2)^{1/2} \quad (3c)$$

Circular Channel

Flow Area

Flow area of a circular channel can be expressed as

$$A = D^2/4 (\alpha - \sin(2 \alpha)/2) \quad (4)$$

where

D = diameter of channel

$$\alpha = \cos^{-1}(1 - h/r)$$

Wetted Perimeter

Wetted perimeter of a circular channel can be expressed as

$$P = \alpha D \quad (4b)$$

Hydraulic Radius

Hydraulic radius of a circular channel can be expressed as

$$R_h = D/8 [1 - \sin(2 \alpha) / (2 \alpha)] \quad (4c)$$

Velocity Head: Velocity head can be expressed as

$$h = v^2/2g \quad (1)$$

where

v = velocity (ft, m)

g = acceleration of gravity (32.174 ft/s², 9.81 m/s²)

Heads at different velocities can be taken from the table below:

Velocity - v - (ft/sec)	Velocity Head - $v^2/2g$ - (ft Water)
0.5	0.004
1.0	0.016
1.5	0.035
2.0	0.062
2.5	0.097
3.0	0.140
3.5	0.190
4.0	0.248
4.5	0.314
5.0	0.389
5.5	0.470
6.0	0.560
6.5	0.657
7.0	0.762
7.5	0.875
8.0	0.995
8.5	1.123
9.0	1.259
9.5	1.403
10.0	1.555
11.0	1.881
12.0	2.239
13.0	2.627
14.0	3.047
15.0	3.498
16.0	3.980
17.0	4.493
18.0	5.037
19.0	5.613
20.0	6.219
21.0	6.856
22.0	7.525

Some Commonly used Thermal Properties for Water

- Density at 4 °C - 1,000 kg/m³, 62.43 Lbs./Cu.Ft., 8.33 Lbs./Gal., 0.1337 Cu.Ft./Gal.
- Freezing temperature - 0 °C
- Boiling temperature - 100 °C
- Latent heat of melting - 334 kJ/kg
- Latent heat of evaporation - 2,270 kJ/kg
- Critical temperature - 380 - 386 °C
- Critical pressure - 23.520 kN/m²
- Specific heat capacity water - 4.187 kJ/kgK
- Specific heat capacity ice - 2.108 kJ/kgK
- Specific heat capacity water vapor - 1.996 kJ/kgK
- Thermal expansion from 4 °C to 100 °C - 4.2×10^{-2}
- Bulk modulus elasticity - 2,068,500 kN/m²

Reynolds Number

Turbulent or laminar flow is determined by the dimensionless **Reynolds Number**.

The Reynolds number is important in analyzing any type of flow when there is substantial velocity gradient (i.e., shear.) It indicates the relative significance of the viscous effect compared to the inertia effect. The Reynolds number is proportional to inertial force divided by viscous force.

A definition of the Reynolds' Number:

The flow is

- **laminar** if $Re < 2300$
- **transient** if $2300 < Re < 4000$
- **turbulent** if $4000 < Re$

The table below shows Reynolds Number for one liter of water flowing through pipes of different dimensions:

		Pipe Size								
(inches)	1	1 ?	2	3	4	6	8	10	12	18
(mm)	25	40	50	75	100	150	200	250	300	450
Reynolds number with one (1) liter/min	835	550	420	280	210	140	105	85	70	46
Reynolds number with one (1) gal/min	3800	2500	1900	1270	950	630	475	380	320	210

Linear Motion Formulas

Velocity can be expressed as (velocity = constant):

$$v = s / t \text{ (1a)}$$

where

v = velocity (m/s, ft/s)

s = linear displacement (m, ft)

t = time (s)

Velocity can be expressed as (acceleration = constant):

$$v = V_0 + a t \text{ (1b)}$$

where

V₀ = linear velocity at time zero (m/s, ft/s)

Linear displacement can be expressed as (acceleration = constant):

$$s = V_0 t + 1/2 a t^2 \text{ (1c)}$$

Combining 1a and 1c to express velocity

$$v = (V_0^2 + 2 a s)^{1/2} \text{ (1d)}$$

Velocity can be expressed as (velocity variable)

$$v = ds / dt \text{ (1f)}$$

where

ds = change of displacement (m, ft)

dt = change in time (s)

Acceleration can be expressed as

$$a = dv / dt \text{ (1g)}$$

where

dv = change in velocity (m/s, ft/s)

Water - Dynamic and Kinematic Viscosity

Dynamic and Kinematic Viscosity of Water in Imperial Units (BG units):

Temperature - <i>t</i> - (°F)	Dynamic Viscosity - μ - 10^{-5} (lbs./ft ²)	Kinematic Viscosity - <i>v</i> - 10^{-5} (ft ² /s)
32	3.732	1.924
40	3.228	1.664
50	2.730	1.407
60	2.344	1.210
70	2.034	1.052
80	1.791	0.926
90	1.500	0.823
100	1.423	0.738
120	1.164	0.607
140	0.974	0.511
160	0.832	0.439
180	0.721	0.383
200	0.634	0.339
212	0.589	0.317

Dynamic and Kinematic Viscosity of Water in SI Units:

Temperature - <i>t</i> - (°C)	Dynamic Viscosity - μ - 10^{-3} (N.s/m ²)	Kinematic Viscosity - <i>v</i> - 10^{-6} (m ² /s)
0	1.787	1.787
5	1.519	1.519
10	1.307	1.307
20	1.002	1.004
30	0.798	0.801
40	0.653	0.658
50	0.547	0.553
60	0.467	0.475
70	0.404	0.413
80	0.355	0.365
90	0.315	0.326
100	0.282	0.294

Water and Speed of Sound

Speed of sound in water at temperatures between 32 - 212°F (0-100°C) - imperial and SI units

Speed of Sound in Water - in imperial units (BG units)

Temperature - <i>t</i> - (°F)	Speed of Sound - <i>c</i> - (ft/s)
32	4,603
40	4,672
50	4,748
60	4,814
70	4,871
80	4,919
90	4,960
100	4,995
120	5,049
140	5,091
160	5,101
180	5,095
200	5,089
212	5,062

Speed of Sound in Water - in SI units

Temperature - <i>t</i> - (°C)	Speed of Sound - <i>c</i> - (m/s)
0	1,403
5	1,427
10	1,447
20	1,481
30	1,507
40	1,526
50	1,541
60	1,552
70	1,555
80	1,555
90	1,550
100	1,543

References

- "A High-Quality Digital X-Y Plotter Designed for Reliability, Flexibility and Low Cost". Hewlett-Packard Journal. <http://www.hpl.hp.com/hpjournal/pdfs/IssuePDFs/1979-02.pdf>. Retrieved 9 February 2012.
- "A.O.Smith: The AC's and DC's of Electric Motors" (PDF). <http://www.aosmithmotors.com/uploadedFiles/AC-DC%20manual.pdf>. Retrieved 2009-12-07.
- "Cobham plc :: Aerospace and Security, Aerospace Communications, Annemasse". Cobham.com. 2011-02-13. <http://www.cobham.com/about-cobham/aerospace-and-security/about-us/aerospace-communications/annemasse.aspx>.
- "Encyclopædia Britannica, "Galileo Ferraris"". <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/204963/Galileo-Ferraris>.
- "Frequently Asked Slip Ring Questions". Moog.com. 2009-06-23. <http://www.moog.com/products/slip-rings/slip-rings-faq-s/>. Retrieved 2011-09-02.
- "Galileo Ferraris". <http://profiles.incredible-people.com/galileo-ferraris/>.
- "how slip rings work". Uea-inc.com. <http://www.uea-inc.com/products/slip-rings/how-they-work.aspx>.
- "Slip Ring Connector - SenRing Electronics". Senring.com. <http://www.senring.com/hnr67.html>.
- Alan Hendrickson, Colin Buckhurst Mechanical design for the stage Focal Press, 2008 ISBN 0-240-80631-X, page 379 with an illustration of pancake and drum-type slip rings.
- B. R. Pelly, "Thyristor Phase-Controlled Converters and Cycloconverters: Operation, Control, and Performance" (New York: John Wiley, 1971).
- Bakshi U.A. and Bakshi V.U. Basics of Electrical Engineering. Technical Publications Pune. 2008.
- Bakshi U.A., Godse and Bakshi M.V. Electrical Machines and Electronics. Technical Publications Pune, 2009.
- Bedford, B. D.; Hoft, R. G. et al. (1964). Principles of Inverter Circuits. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.. ISBN 0-471-06134-4. (Inverter circuits are used for variable-frequency motor speed control)
- Bishop, Robert H., Ed. The Mechatronics Handbook, ISA—The Instrumentation, Systems and Automation Society, CRC Press, 2002.
- Briere D. and Traverse, P. (1993) "Airbus A320/A330/A340 Electrical Flight Controls: A Family of Fault-Tolerant Systems" Proc. FTCS, pp. 616–623.
- Brumbach Michael E. Industrial Electricity. Thomason Delmar Learning, 2005.
- Cyril W. Lander, Power Electronics 3rd Edition, McGraw Hill International UK Limited, London 1993 ISBN 0-07-707714-8 Chapter 9–8 Slip Ring Induction Motor Control
- Deshpande, M.V. Electric Motors: Application and Control. PHI Learning Private Ltd., 2010.
- Deshpande, M.V. Electric Motors: Application and Control. PHI Learning Private Ltd., 2010.
- Donald G. Fink and H. Wayne Beaty, Standard Handbook for Electrical Engineers, Eleventh Edition, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1978, ISBN 0-07-020974-X.
- Edwin J. Houston and Arthur Kennelly, Recent Types of Dynamo-Electric Machinery, copyright American Technical Book Company 1897, published by P.F. Collier and Sons New York, 1902
- Electric motors use 60% of china's electric energy, for example
- Electricity and magnetism, translated from the French of Amédée Guillemin. Rev. and ed. by Silvanus P. Thompson. London, MacMillan, 1891
- Faraday, Michael (1844). Experimental Researches in Electricity. 2. See plate 4.
- Fitzgerald/Kingsley/Kusko (Fitzgerald/Kingsley/Umans in later years), Electric Machinery, classic text for junior and senior electrical engineering students. Originally published in 1952, 6th edition published in 2002.
- Ganot's Physics, 14th Edition, N.Y., 1893 translated by Atkinson, pp. 907 and 908. (Section 899, and Figure 888).

Garrison, Ervan G., "A history of engineering and technology". CRC Press, 1998. ISBN 0-8493-9810-X, 9780849398100. Retrieved May 7, 2009.

Gee, William (2004). "Sturgeon, William (1783–1850)". Oxford Dictionary of National Biography. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/ref:odnb/26748.

Gill, Paul. Electrical Power Equipment Maintenance and Testing. CRC Press: Taylor & Francis Group, 2009.

Herman, Stephen L. Electric Motor Control. 9th ed. Delmar Cengage Learning, 2010.

Herman, Stephen L. Industrial Motor Control. 6th ed. Delmar Cengage Learning, 2010.

http://books.google.it/books?id=CxQdC6xPFSwC&pg=PA45&lpg=PA45&dq=GALILEO+FERRARIS+AC+MOTOR+INVENTION&source=web&ots=jjeS-hcv2T&sig=cYbNfNNeVwvMIhR-JCP8uReedRU&hl=it&sa=X&oi=book_result&resnum=1&ct=result#v=onepage&q&f=false.

<http://www.circuitcellar.com/> Motor Comparison, Circuit Cellar Magazine, July 2008, Issue 216, Bachiochi, p.78 (Table edited in Wikipedia, May 2011)

<http://www.daytronic.com/products/trans/t-magpickup.htm>

<http://www.electronicweekly.com/Articles/2010/08/13/46377/dyson-vacuums-104000rpm-brushless-dc-technology.htm>

<http://www.frankfurt.matav.hu/angol/magyatud.htm>

<http://www.mpoweruk.com/history.htm>

<http://www.mpoweruk.com/timeline.htm>

<http://www.physics.umd.edu/lecdem/services/demos/demosk4/k4-21.gif>

<http://www.traveltohungary.com/english/articles/article.php?id=135>

Hughes, Austin. Electric Motors and Drives: fundamentals, types and applications. 3rd ed. Linacre House, 2006.

Irwin, David J., Ed. The Industrial Electronics Handbook. CRC Press: IEEE Press, 1997.

Jiles, David. Introduction to Magnetism and Magnetic Materials. CRC Press: Taylor Francis Group, 1998.

John N. Chiasson, Modeling and High Performance Control of Electric Machines, Wiley-IEEE Press, New York, 2005, ISBN 0-471-68449-X.

Kuphaldt, Tony R. (2000–2006). "Chapter 13 AC MOTORS". Lessons In Electric Circuits—Volume II. http://www.ibiblio.org/obp/electricCircuits/AC/AC_13.html. Retrieved 2006-04-11.

Laughton M.A. and Warne, D.F., Eds. Electrical Engineer's Reference Book. 16th ed. Elsevier Science, 2003.

linear Electric Machines- A Personal View - Eric R. Laithwaite, Proceedings of the IEEE, Vol. 63, No. 2, February 1975 page 250

Miller, Rex and Mark R. Miller, Industrial Electricity and Motor Controls. McGraw Hill, 2008. Nature 53. (printed in 1896) page: 516

Neidhöfer, Gerhard. [<http://www.ieee.org/organizations/pes/public/2007/sep/peshistory.html>] "Early Three-Phase Power Winner in the development of polyphase ac". <http://www.ieee.org/organizations/pes/public/2007/sep/peshistory.html>.

North, David. (2000) "Finding Common Ground in Envelope Protection Systems". Aviation Week & Space Technology, Aug 28, pp. 66–68.

Pansini, Anthony, J (1989). Basic of Electric Motors. Pennwell Publishing Company. p. 45. ISBN 0-13-060070-9.

Patrick, Dale R. and Fardo, Stephen W. Electrical Distribution Systems. 2nd ed. The Fairmont Press, 2009.

Patrick, Dale R. and Stephen W. Fardo. Rotating Electrical Machines and Power Systems. 2nd ed. The Fairmont Press, 1997.

Patrick, Dale R; Fardo, Stephen W., Rotating Electrical Machines and Power Systems (2nd Edition)1997 Fairmont Press, Inc. ISBN 978-0-88173-239-9 chapter 11

Peter W. Fortescue, John Stark, Graham Swinerd Spacecraft systems engineering John Wiley and Sons, 2003 ISBN 0-470-85102-3

Rajput R.K. Basic Electrical and Electronics Engineering. Laxmi Publications Ltd., 2007.
Resenblat & Frienman DC and AC machinery
Schoenherr, Steven F. (2001), "Loudspeaker History". Recording Technology History. Retrieved 2010-03-13.
Shanefield D. J., Industrial Electronics for Engineers, Chemists, and Technicians, William Andrew Publishing, Norwich, NY, 2001.
Singh, Yaduvir Dr. and Verma M. Fundamentals of Electrical Engineering. University Science Press, 2010.
Sivanagaraju S., Reddy and Prasad. Power Semiconductor Drives. PHI Learning Private Ltd., 2009.
Slow Speed Torque Drive Units
Subrahmanyam, V., Electric Drives: Concepts and Applications. 2nd ed. Tata McGraw Hill, 2011.
The "Goodness" of Small Contemporary Permanent Magnet Electric Machines - D J Patterson, C W Brice, R A Dougal, D Kovuri
Tokai University Unveils 100W DC Motor with 96% Efficiency
http://techon.nikkeibp.co.jp/english/NEWS_EN/20090403/168295/
Toliyat, Hamid A. and Kliman G.B. Handbook of Electric Motors. Marcel Dekker, Inc., 2004.
US Department of Energy indicates over half US electricity generation is used by electric motors
Wayne Saslow. Electricity, Magnetism and Light. Thomson Learning Inc., 2002.

Math Conversion Factors and Practical Exercise

1 PSI = 2.31 Feet of Water
 1 Foot of Water = .433 PSI
 1.13 Feet of Water = 1 Inch of Mercury
 454 Grams = 1 Pound
 2.54 CM = Inch
 1 Gallon of Water = 8.34 Pounds
 1 mg/L = 1 PPM
 17.1 mg/L = 1 Grain/Gallon
 1% = 10,000 mg/L
 694 Gallons per Minute = MGD
 1.55 Cubic Feet per Second = 1 MGD
 60 Seconds = 1 Minute
 1440 Minutes = 1 Day
 .746 kW = 1 Horsepower

LENGTH

12 Inches = 1 Foot
 3 Feet = 1 Yard
 5,280 Feet = 1 Mile

AREA

144 Square Inches = 1 Square Foot
 43,560 Square Feet = 1 Acre

VOLUME

1000 Milliliters = 1 Liter
 3.785 Liters = 1 Gallon
 231 Cubic Inches = 1 Gallon
 7.48 Gallons = 1 Cubic Foot of Water
 62.38 Pounds = 1 Cubic Foot of Water

Dimensions

SQUARE: Area (sq. ft) = Length X Width
 Volume (cu.ft.) = Length (ft) X Width (ft) X Height (ft)

CIRCLE: Area (sq.ft.) = 3.14 X Radius (ft) X Radius (ft)

CYLINDER: Volume (Cu. ft) = 3.14 X Radius (ft) X Radius (ft) X Depth (ft)

PIPE VOLUME: .785 X Diameter ² X Length = ? To obtain gallons multiply by 7.48

SPHERE: $\frac{(3.14) (\text{Diameter})^3}{(6)}$ Circumference = 3.14 X Diameter

General Conversions

Multiply	→	to get
to get	←	Divide
cc/min	1	mL/min
cfm (ft ³ /min)	28.31	L/min
cfm (ft ³ /min)	1.699	m ³ /hr
cfh (ft ³ /hr)	472	mL/min
cfh (ft ³ /hr)	0.125	GPM
GPH	63.1	mL/min
GPH	0.134	cfh
GPM	0.227	m ³ /hr
GPM	3.785	L/min
oz/min	29.57	mL/min

POUNDS PER DAY = Flow (MG) X Concentration (mg/L) X 8.34
AKA Solids Applied Formula = Flow X Dose X 8.34

PERCENT EFFICIENCY = $\frac{\text{In} - \text{Out}}{\text{In}} \times 100$

$$\text{SLOPE} = \frac{\text{Rise (ft)}}{\text{Run (ft)}}$$

$$\text{SLOPE (\%)} = \frac{\text{Rise (ft)} \times 100}{\text{Run (ft)}}$$

POPULATION EQUIVALENT (PE):

- 1 PE = .17 Pounds of BOD per Day
- 1 PE = .20 Pounds of Solids per Day
- 1 PE = 100 Gallons per Day

$$\text{LEAKAGE (GPD/inch)} = \frac{\text{Leakage of Water per Day (GPD)}}{\text{Sewer Diameter (inch)}}$$

$$\text{CHLORINE DEMAND (mg/L)} = \text{Chlorine Dose (mg/L)} - \text{Chlorine Residual (mg/L)}$$

MANNING'S EQUATION

τQ = Allowable time for decrease in pressure from 3.5 PSI to 2.5 PSI

τq = As below

$$\tau Q = (0.022) (d_1^2 L_1) / Q \quad \tau q = \frac{[0.085] [(d_1^2 L_1) / (d_1 L_1)]}{q}$$

Q = 2.0 cfm air loss

θ = .0030 cfm air loss per square foot of internal pipe surface

δ = Pipe diameter (inches)

L = Pipe Length (feet)

$$V = \frac{1.486 R^{2/3} S^{1/2}}{v}$$

V = Velocity (ft./sec.)

v = Pipe Roughness

R = Hydraulic Radius (ft)

S = Slope (ft/ft)

$$\text{HYDRAULIC RADIUS (ft)} = \frac{\text{Flow Area (ft. }^2\text{)}}{\text{Wetted Perimeter (ft.)}}$$

$$\text{WIDTH OF TRENCH (ft)} = \text{Base (ft)} + (2 \text{ Sides}) \times \frac{\text{Depth (ft }^2\text{)}}{\text{Slope}}$$



We welcome you to complete the assignment in Microsoft Word. You can easily find the assignment at www.abctlc.com.

Once complete, just simply fax or e-mail the answer key along with the registration page to us and allow two weeks for grading.

Once we grade it, we will e-mail a certificate of completion to you. Call us if you need any help.

If you need your certificate back within 48 hours, you may be asked to pay a rush service fee of \$50.00.

You can download the assignment in Microsoft Word from TLC's website under the Assignment Page. www.abctlc.com

You will have 90 days in order to successfully complete this assignment with a score of 70% or better. If you need any assistance, please contact TLC's Student Services. Once you are finished, please mail, e-mail or fax your answer sheet along with your registration form.