

Chapter 3 – Fields

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3.1 Introduction

Most electrical analysis uses lumped parameters with current flow restricted to a conductor. Magnetic are distributed through space. Traditional circuits can be correlated to a hydraulic system. Electrical properties scattered through space can be correlated to a gas. Fields includes electric as well as magnetic components.

3.2 Electrostatics

3.2.1 Relationships

Electric fields are the result of a charge. When the charge is measured from a point or node it is called statics. When the charge is dispersed in space like a gas the energy is called a dynamic field.

A capacitor is simply two electrically charged conductors that are separated by a dielectric. Energy relationships are used to convert between electric, magnetic, and mechanical systems.

The fundamental relationships for an electric field are listed.

$$W(\text{energy}) = Fs = Vq = NI\phi \quad \text{energy}$$

conversion

$$s(\text{closed loop}) = 2\pi r$$

$$\mathcal{E}(\text{electric intensity}) = \frac{F}{q} = \frac{V}{s} \quad \text{V/meter}$$

$$\mathcal{D}(\text{electric density}) = \frac{q}{A} = \epsilon\mathcal{E} \quad \text{Coulomb}/m^2$$

q = charge

$$1 \text{ electron} = 1.6021 \times 10^{-19} \text{ Coulomb}$$

3.2.2 Permittivity

Permittivity is the dielectric or charge insulation material property.

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_r \epsilon_o$$

$$\frac{1}{\epsilon_o} = 36\pi \times 10^9 \text{ Farad/m}$$

Force occurs on charge 2 due to charge 1.

$$F = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi\epsilon r^2}$$

Electric field intensity at point 2 is due to point charge at point 1.

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{F}{q} = \frac{q_1}{4\pi\epsilon r^2}$$

A radial electric field comes from a line charge on the z-axis.

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{\rho_L}{2\pi\epsilon r}$$

$$\rho_L - \text{line charge density} - \frac{\text{coulomb}}{\text{m}}$$

A plane electric field arises from a sheet charge in x-y plane.

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{\rho_s}{2\epsilon}$$

$$\rho_s - \text{sheet charge density} - \frac{\text{coulomb}}{\text{m}^2}$$

Energy is dependent on the electric field, which can be converted to voltage.

$$W = q\mathcal{E} \quad s = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \mathcal{D}^2$$

$$W = qV = \frac{1}{2} CV^2$$

3.2 Magnetic Fields

3.3.1 Relationships

Magnetic fields are the result of a pole or flux. When the pole strength is measured from a point or node it is called statics. When the magnetics are dispersed in space like a gas the energy is called a dynamic field.

An inductor is simply is simply a coil of wire that creates a magnetic field. Energy relationships are used to convert between electric, magnetic, and mechanical systems.

The fundamental relationships for magnetic devices are listed.

$$W(\text{energy}) = Fs = Vq = NI\phi \quad \text{energy}$$

conversion

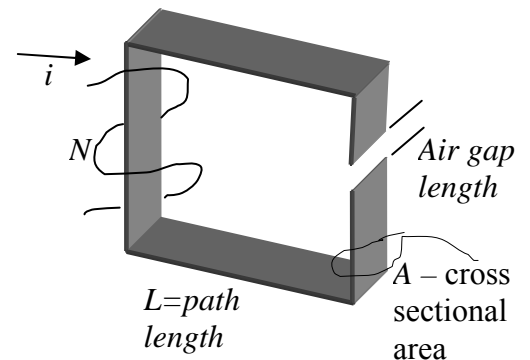
$$s(\text{closed loop}) = 2\pi r$$

$$\mathcal{F}(\text{magneto-motive force}) = NI = \phi \mathcal{R} = H \bullet dl \quad \text{mmf} = \text{Amp-turns}$$

$$\mathcal{H}(\text{magnetic intensity}) = \frac{F}{\phi} = \frac{NI}{s} \quad \text{Amp/m}$$

$$\mathcal{B}(\text{field density}) = \frac{\phi}{A} = \mu H \quad \text{Weber/m}^2$$

$$\mathcal{R}(\text{reluctance}) = \frac{l}{\mu A} = \frac{N^2}{L}$$



3.3.2 Permeability

Permeability is the magnetic property of material.

$$\mu = \mu_r \mu_o$$

$$\mu_o = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ Henry/m}$$

$$\mu_r (\text{copper}) \approx 2$$

$$\mu_r (\text{amorphous steel}) \approx 2000 \quad \mu_r (\text{laminated steel}) \approx 6000$$

Force occurs on pole 2 due to pole 1.

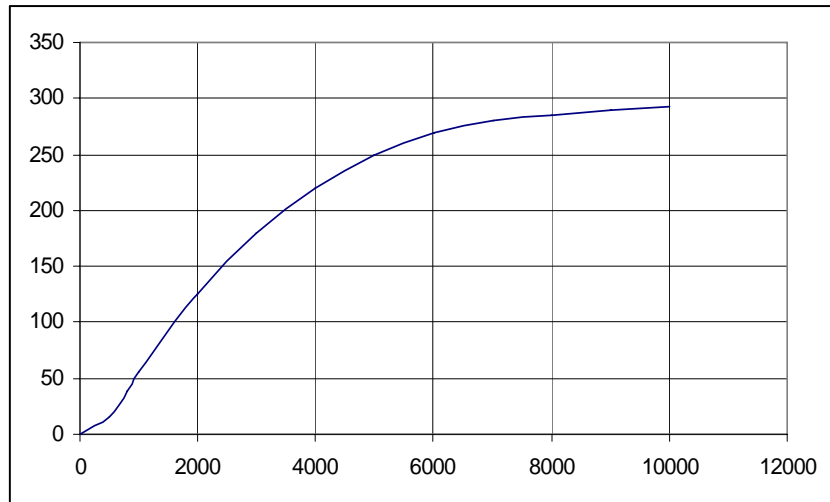
$$F = \frac{\phi_1 \phi_2}{4\pi \mu r^2}$$

$$\lambda (\text{flux linkage}) = n\phi = LI$$

3.3.3 Magnetization curve

The magnetic circuit for a machine includes the current and turns, the ferromagnetic metal, and air gaps.

The magnetization curve shown below is a non-linear relationship for the magnetic circuit, and is typical of all magnetic circuits. It is used to show the conversion between representations of magnetic energy.



The first portion of the curve has a physical anomaly near zero. The portion less than 5000 is in the unsaturated region. There is an approximate proportional change in the vertical axis as the horizontal changes. About 5000 is called the knee. That is the transition region. The top portion of the curve above about 5000 is the saturated region. There is very little change in the vertical parameter as the horizontal is increased.

The values are strictly representative. Different material alloys will yield other range of values. Nevertheless, the general shape and form can be used for a variety of problems.

The curve then can represent a number of different relationships. Some of the more common are shown in the table below.

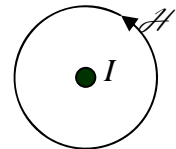
X-axis	name	unit	Y-axis	name	unit	Curve	name	unit
\mathcal{F}	mmf	A-turns	φ	flux	Weber	\mathcal{R}	reluctance	
H	intensity	A-turns/m	B	density	Wb/m ²	μ	permeability	H/m
I	field I	Amps	V	terminal	Volts		synchronous	
\mathcal{F}	field mmf	A-turns	E_a	Internal gen	Volts		dc machine	

3.3.4 Intensity & Density

The location and direction of a magnetic field are determined by the configuration of the conductor. Note that the intensity and density are related by the permeability μ . Therefore, either can be determined from these equations.

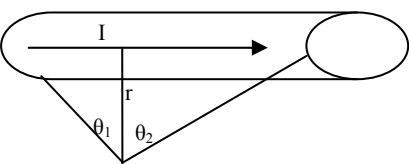
$$\mathcal{B} = \mu H$$

Magnetic flux lines are continuous about a source, and perpendicular at all points to source, in a parallel plane. An arrow shows the direction of a field. When projected on a plane, a 'X' is the tail of the arrow with the field going into the plane. A dot • is the point of the arrow with the field coming out of the page.



The direction is determined by the right hand rule. Curl the right hand with four fingers in the direction of the magnetic field. The thumb points in the direction of the current.

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{I}{2\pi r}$$



A magnetic field is produced by straight conductor carrying current I.

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{\mu I}{4\pi r} (\sin \theta_1 + \sin \theta_2)$$

Energy is dependent on the magnetic field, which can be converted to current.

$$W = \varphi \mathcal{H} s = \frac{1}{2} \mu \mathcal{B}^2$$

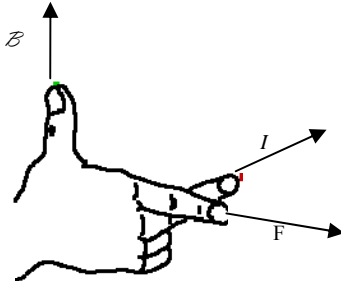
$$W = \varphi I = \frac{1}{2} L I^2$$

Power density in watts per cubic meter is the Poynting vector, the product of the density cross with the intensity.

$$\frac{W}{V} = \mathcal{B} \times \mathcal{H}$$

3.3.5 Motor & Generator

Motors and generators combine electric, magnetic, and mechanical energy. The three-dimensions for mechanical force, electric current, and magnetic field are related by three fingers of the right hand. The field direction follows the right hand rule.



$$F = i(l \times \mathcal{B})$$

First Finger, x-axis – F

Middle Finger, y-axis – I , length, velocity

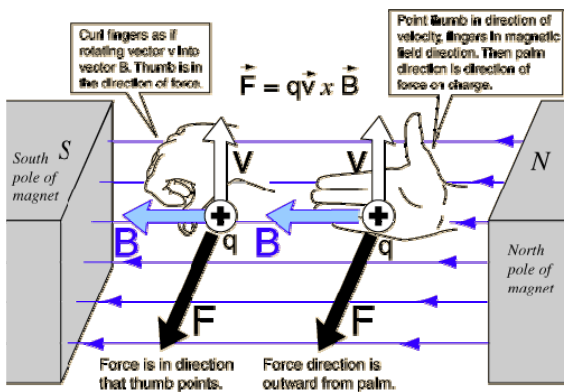
Thumb, z-axis – \mathcal{B}

In another application of the right hand rule, with the fingers curled in the direction of current, the thumb will point in the direction of the magnetic flux, ϕ .

The motor relationship comes from an electric current flow through a magnetic field. This creates a mechanical force.

$$F = i(l \times \mathcal{B})$$

$$F = q(v \times \mathcal{B})$$



The generator relationship comes from a wire moving through a field. This creates an electrical voltage.

$$e(\text{voltage}) = (v \times \mathcal{B}) \cdot l$$

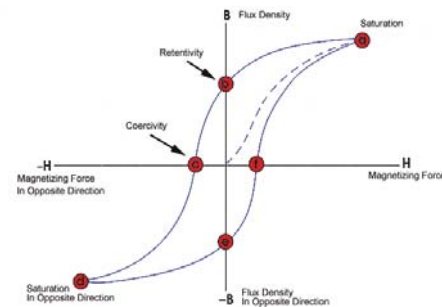
Since voltage and current are not traditionally considered vectors, the length of the line carrying the current is used for the direction.

The cross-product vector directions are determined by the curl of the right hand. Start with the fingers of the hand pointing in the direction of the first vector. With the hand curling from one vector toward the second vector direction, the cross-product result is in the direction of the thumb. The dot product is in the same direction as the two vectors.

3.3.6 Hysteresis and eddy currents

The non-linear nature of magnetic devices creates some rather interesting phenomenon. The non-linear characteristic of a magnet causes it to follow different paths when the magnet is being energized and when it is de-energized. This alternative trace is called hysteresis.

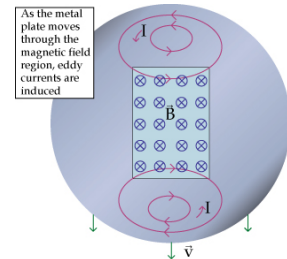
Hysteresis is the lag between cause and effect. The system does not instantly respond to the energy applied to it. Rather the system reacts slowly, or does not return completely to its original state. The system's state depends on the immediate history. For example, when pressed putty will assume a new shape, and when the pressure is removed it will not return to its original shape immediately and entirely.



It is hysteresis or residual magnetism that causes data to be stored on a magnetic tape and hard disks. The residual magnetism is also used to get a generator working. In motors, which repeatedly are energized and de-energized, hysteresis causes loss and reduces efficiency.

Another phenomenon of magnetic systems is eddy current. Like the eddy pools in a flowing stream, these are small swirls of current that oppose change in energy. Eddy currents develop on magnetic materials, such as steel, because of anomalies in the molecular structure. To keep the eddy currents from becoming large, the steel core is made in thin layers. Alternatively in some systems, slits may be cut in the steel core.

Eddy currents are used to create dynamic braking. In motors which are continually energized and de-energized, eddy currents causes loss and reduces efficiency.



3.4 Mechanical motion

3.4.1 Relationships

Mechanical motion is the result of mass. When the mass is measured from a point or node it is called statics. When the mass is in motion it is called dynamics. Energy relationships are used to convert between electric, magnetic, and mechanical systems.

The fundamental relationships for three types of field are listed.

$$W(\text{Energy}) = Fs = Vq = NI\phi \quad \text{energy conversion}$$

3.4.2 Gravity

Gravity constant is the mass property of material.

$$\gamma_o = 8.38 \times 10^{-10} \text{ N} - \text{m}^2 / \text{kg}^2$$

Force occurs on mass 2 due to mass 1.

$$F = \frac{m_1 m_2}{4\pi\gamma r^2}$$

Energy is dependent on the mass field.

$$F = ma$$

$$W = Fs = mas$$

$$W = mgh \quad \text{potential energy}$$

$$W = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \quad \text{average kinetic energy}$$

$$W = mv^2 \quad \text{instantaneous kinetic energy}$$

$$W = mc^2 \quad \text{total energy conversion}$$

3.4.3 Linear v. rotational

The motion of mass has both linear and rotational properties. Because of the rotation of machines, the angular calculations are more common.

Name	Linear	Units		Angular	Units
displacement	s	meter		θ	radian
velocity	$v=s/t$	m/sec		$\omega= \theta/t$	rad/sec
acceleration	$a=v/t$	m/sec ²		$\alpha= \omega/t$	rad/sec ²
mass	m	kilogram	moment of inertia	J	kg-m ²
force	$F=ma$	Newton	torque via angular	$T=J \alpha$	Nt-m
			torque via linear	$T=s \times F$	Nt-m
energy	$W=s \cdot F$	Joule		$W= T \theta$	Joule
power	$P=Fv$	Watt		$P= T \omega$	Watt

3.5 Maxwell

Maxwell's Equations are a summary of all that is electrical and magnetic in a Calculus form. Although they are not easily used, they do provide a mathematically clever summary. The integral form is tedious, but the point form supplies definitions.

$$\nabla \times E = -\partial B / \partial t$$

$$\nabla \times H = J + \partial D / \partial t$$

$$\nabla \cdot D = \rho$$

$$\nabla \cdot E = 0$$

The del is the three-dimensional partial derivative with respect to the x, y, and z axes.

The electric-magnetic energy equation contains all the information in one equation[1]. Note that all the definitions are in the point equation. In addition, all the field information is in the distributed equation. W is energy and V is volume in these equations.

$$W = \phi_z q_y / t$$

$$W = \frac{\phi_z q_y b_{ys} d_t s_y}{t_r V_y}$$

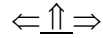
$$s = \text{axial distance}$$

$$b = \text{radial distance}$$

$$d = \text{rotational distance}$$

Realizing the orthogonal nature of the fields, the equations inherently contain the directions and require only vector algebra.

[1] "Applications Engineering Approach to Maxwell and Other Mathematically Intense Problems", Marcus O. Durham, Robert A. Durham, and Karen D. Durham, *Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers PCIC*, September 2002.



3.9 Exemplars

An exemplar is typical or representative of a system. These examples are representative of real world situations.

3.9.1

SITUATION:

A starting circuit is needed that will limit the starting current in a dc motor to two and one half time (2.5pu) the normal full load current.

The switches S_1 and S_2 in the starting circuit shown below are to close sequentially when the current has dropped to normal full load current (1pu)

Both switches are open when the main breaker S_M is closed.

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SOLUTION:

1. Close S_m and I_A raises to 2.5pu, at that instance $V_T = 1.0$ pu

$$I_A = \frac{V_t}{R_1 + R_2 + R_A} = 2.5 \text{ pu} \Rightarrow \frac{V_T}{I_A} = R_1 + R_2 + R_A = 0.4 \text{ pu}$$

With $V_t=1.0$,

$$R_T = R_1 + R_2 + R_A = \frac{V_t}{I_A} = \frac{1}{2.5 \text{ pu}} = 0.4 \text{ pu}$$

$$V_T = E_A + I_A R_T \Rightarrow R_T = \frac{V_T - E_A}{I_A}$$

When I_A drops to 1.0 pu

$$V_T = E_A + 1(0.4 \text{ pu}) \Rightarrow E_A = V_T - 0.4 = 1 - 0.4 = 0.6 \text{ pu}$$

2. Close S_1 and I_A raises to 2.5pu, at that instance $E_A = 0.6$ pu

$$R_T = R_A + R_2 = \frac{V_T - E_A}{I_A} = \frac{1 - 0.6}{2.5} = 0.16 \text{ pu}$$

When I_A again drops to 1.0 pu

$$E_A = V_T - I_A R_T = 1 - 1 * 0.16 = 0.84 \text{ pu}$$

3. Close S_2 and I_A raises to 2.5pu, at that instance $E_A = 0.84$ pu

$$R_T = R_A = \frac{V_T - E_A}{I_A} = \frac{1 - 0.84}{2.5} = 0.064 \text{ pu}$$

When I_A again drops to 1.0 pu

$$E_A = V_T - I_A R_T = 1 - 1 * 0.064 = 0.936 \text{ pu}$$

∴

$$R_A = 0.064 pu$$

$$R_A + R_2 = 0.16 pu \Rightarrow R_2 = 0.096 pu$$

$$R_A + R_2 + R_1 = 0.4 pu \Rightarrow R_1 = 0.24 pu$$

3.10 Applications

Applications are an opportunity to demonstrate familiarity, comfort, and comprehension of the topics.

Application 5-1

SITUATION:

