

I Electric Heating

Ref books: - VEPRIT by G.C. Garg
3/4 course in electric power by S. N. Gupta & Bhattacharya
VEP & Coaction by T. B. Gupta

Electric heating is preferred over other methods of heating i.e. by wood, liquid fuel like kerosene & gas (LPG). There are 3 modes of transmission of heat.
i) Conduction ii) Convection iii) Radiation

Electric heating is based on the principle that when the electric current is passed through a medium, heat is produced.

Let us consider the case of solid material which has res. R & carrying $C = I$ amp. for t sec. then the heat produced is given by,
 $H = I^2 R t$ joules. = $0.24 I^2 R t$ calories

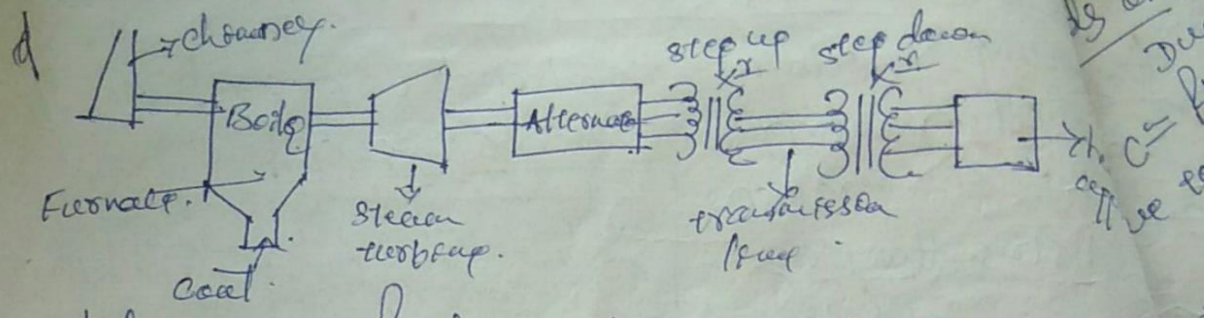
Electric heating is used for domestic as well as for industrial applications.

I) Domestic applications of electric heating: -

- i) Room heater water heating.
- ii) Room heating.
- iii) For cooking.
- iv) Electric iron.
- v) Electric ovens for baking, etc.

II) Industrial applications -

- i) Melting of metals.
- ii) Electric welding.
- iii) Moulding of glasses & plastics.
- iv) Heat treatment of metals like annealing, soldering, hardening, etc.
- v) Enamelling of Cu conductor.



Advantages of electric heating:

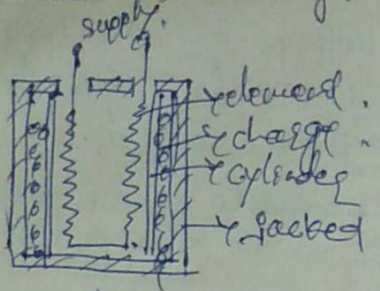
- i) Clean & neat atmosphere :- There is no coal dust or smoke while operating with the electric heating method.
- ii) No pollution :- Absence of flue gases does not result in pollution of area.
- iii) Controlled temp :- The temp can be controlled within the limit of $\pm 5^\circ\text{C}$ which is not possible in non-electrical heating process.
- iv) Ease of control :- The heating can be started & stopped instantaneously.
- v) Localised application :- A workpiece can be heated up to a particular place for heat treatment.
- vi) Low ambient temp :- The temp. around an electrical furnace is much lower as compared to that around non-electrical furnace, which is troublesome for workers.
- vii) Uniform heating :- Uniform heating takes place through induction heating.
- viii) Heating of bad conductors of heat & electricity :-
- ix) Highest η of utilization :-
- x) Cheap furnaces :-

Classification of Heating Methods

Based on the temp. for which the materials are to be heated, there are different heating methods.

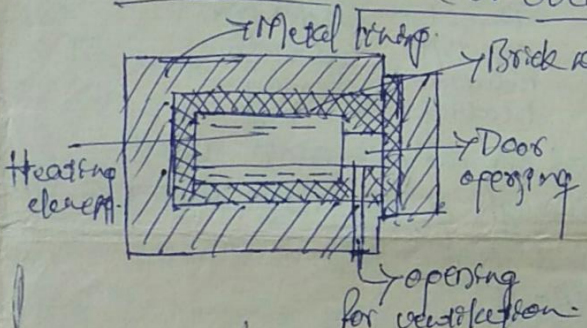
- 1) Low temp upto 400°C
- 2) Medium " $400-1150^\circ\text{C}$
- 3) High temp - Temp above 1150°C

Indirect res. heating:-



eg:- vacuum heater, beer drier
 resistance oven (electro)
 Here, the electric C° is passed through an element of high resist. Passage of electric C° through

through res. produces I^2R loss which appears in the form of heat. Heat is then transferred from heating element to the charge by means of radiation & convection. It also works with DC as well as AC power supply.
 Advantages: i) Automatic temp control is possible. ii) Uniform heating can be done.
 Resistance furnace or oven:



Res. furnaces may be classified according to their operating temp. High temp heating chambers with provision for ventilation is termed as oven. Res. ovens are used for drying & baking of pottery.

commercial & domestic cooking, heat treatment of metals, etc.
 In medium temp ovens, the operating temp is bet 300°C to 1050°C . In high " " " " 1050°C " 1350°C . Temp. upto 1000°C can be attained in ovens using high res. wire elements. The heating elements are generally the alloys of Ni, Cr & Fe. However, by using the element made up of graphite, temp upto 3000°C can be attained. Heating element may be either in the form of wire or rectangular ribbon. The oven is made up of metal frame with the external lining of fire bricks. Depending upon the use, the heating elements may be placed either on the top or bottom or sides of the oven.

element material :- The material of the heating element should have the following properties.

1) High specific res: It should have high sp. res so that by a small quantity of wire is reqd to produce large amount of heat, ($\therefore R = s \frac{l}{a} \Rightarrow s = \frac{Ra}{l}$)

2) High melting pt: Its melting pt. should be well & really higher than its operating temp. Otherwise small rise in temp will destroy the element.

3) High oxidizing temp: Its oxidizing temp should be higher than its operating temp. Otherwise, the oxidised layers on the surface of the element will alter the res. of the material.

4) Low temp. co-eff. of res: Some res. of a conducting element ~~change~~ varies with the temp, it should have low temp co-eff. of res. so that the res. does not change with the temp.

5) High ductility & flexibility. 6) +ve Coeff. of res.

7) should withstand vibration. 8) Anti-corrosive. 9) Mechanical Strength.

Heating alloys: -
 1) Constantan \rightarrow Ni 45%, Cu 55% 400°C
 2) Nichrome \rightarrow Ni 80%, Cr 20%, 1500°C
 3) Kanthal \rightarrow Cr, Al, Cobalt, Iron, 1300°C
 4) Silicon Carbide 1450°C

Causes of failure of heating elements:
 With the passage of time, the heating element will damage. Some factors responsible for failure are,

- 1) Formation of hot spots or oxidation
- 2) Corrosion
- 3) Mechanical failure

1) Formation of hot spots: -
 At some particular place of a heating element will show brighter during the operation. Failure occurs at those points. At those points the operating temp is much higher than rest of the element. The failure occurs at those points.

The formation of hot spots is due to.

of Unequal spacing. If the spacing of different parts of the element is non-uniform, the R_{eff} will be highest where the spacing is maximum. This results in the formation of hot spot. $T_{max} = 5-72 K$

6) Shielding by supporting w/o: - If the supporting structure is a bad conductor of heat & resist heat flow of heat, the temp of the element will remain high near the supports. This will result into the formation of hot spots.

7) Excess of oxidation: - The portion of the element undergoing excessive oxidation w.r.t. the rest of the element offers high res. to the flow of C. The heat produced in this portion is high, thus resulting into hot spot.

8) Oxidation: - The exposed surface of the element gets oxidised at high temp. Later on, the exposed surface gets flaked off, exposing during the operation thus exposing the inner surface to the atmosphere. In this way, the C/s area of the element will decrease, thus resulting into the formation of hot spots.

9) Corrosion: -

10) Mechanical failure: -

Design of heating element: -

By knowing the electrical i/p power & i.e.s volt, the size & length of the wire of the heating element can be calculated to produce the heat. The wire used may be of circular or rectangular like ribbon. Considering, an ideal heating element on reaching its steady temp. will dissipate the heat which is equal to i/p power. Generally heat ~~will be~~ dissipated from the heating element at high temp is by radiation.

dissipated by radiation according to Stefan's ⁽⁴⁾ law,

$$H = 5.72 \text{ K} \cdot e \left[\left(\frac{T_1}{100} \right)^4 - \left(\frac{T_2}{100} \right)^4 \right] \text{ W/m}^2$$

here, T_1 is temp of the source of heat in $^{\circ}\text{C}$
 T_2 " " " " substance to be heated in $^{\circ}\text{C}$
 k is constant known as radiant 'η'. $k = 1$ for single element & $k = 0.5 - 0.8$ for several elements placed side by side. $e = \text{emissivity}$

$e = 1$ for black body
 $e = 0.9$ for res. heating elements

WKT $P = VI = \frac{V^2}{R}$

where 'V' is the supply volt & 'R' is the res. of the heating element.

WKT, $R = \frac{\rho l}{a} = \frac{\rho l}{\frac{\pi d^2}{4}} = \frac{4\rho l}{\pi d^2}$ for a wire of diameter 'd' & length 'l'.

Now, $P = \frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{V^2}{\frac{4\rho l}{\pi d^2}} = \frac{\pi d^2 V^2}{4\rho l}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{l}{d^2} = \frac{\pi V^2}{4\rho P}$ (1)

surface area, $S = 2\pi r l = \pi d l$

& Heat dissipated = $\pi d l H$

Since, at steady temp, Power in = heat dissipated.

$P = \pi d l H$

$\Rightarrow \frac{\pi d^2 V^2}{4\rho l} = \pi d l H$

$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{l^2} = \frac{4\rho H}{V^2}$ (2)

By solving eq (1) & (2) length & diameter of the wire can be determined.

For ribbon type of conductor, let 'w' be the length-width & 't' be the thickness.

Control of Res. oven: -

(5)

Temp control is necessary in res. oven. Hence, temp may have to be kept constant or varied according to the requirement. Control may be manual or automatic. To control the temp of res. oven we have to vary the C^2 through res. oven.

Methods of control: -

- i) By use of variable no. of heating elements.
- ii) γ Series - II ^{letted} or λ - Δ connection of the heating elements.
- iii) γ External series res.
- iv) γ Transformer tappings: -

Automatic control: - If we want to control the temp of the res. oven automatically, some form of thermostat must be used. When the temp exceeds or falls below some predetermined value, thermostat operates the relay which varies the C^2 through the heating element. Thus by maintaining const. temp.

Special types of res. furnaces: -

- i) Air-circulation furnace.
- ii) Bright annealing "
- iii) Air Circulation furnace: -

The charge may not get uniformly heated in an ordinary furnace in which heat transfer takes place by radiation. If uniform distribution of heat is reqd, air-circulation furnace must be used. Applications are heat treatment of Al & light metals. In such furnace air is passed over the heating element & this heated air is circulated through the charge. This superheated air heat uniformly to all parts of the charge by conduction.

2) Bright annealing furnace: - The process of ^{grain} ~~cooling~~ ^{annealing} a heated material for removing its brittleness known as annealing. In the ~~ordinary~~ ^{ordinary} annealing process, a scale of oxide is formed over the surface of the material. So this oxide scale must be removed in order to have bright finish. The formation of oxide scale can be prevented if annealing process is carried out in an atmosphere free from oxygen, water vapour & CO₂. Such a condition can be achieved by heating the material in an air tight furnace which is known as bright annealing furnace.

$$17. \frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{\pi V^2}{4SP.}$$

$$H = 5.72 K e \left[\left(\frac{T_1}{100} \right)^4 - \left(\frac{T_2}{100} \right)^4 \right] W/m^2$$

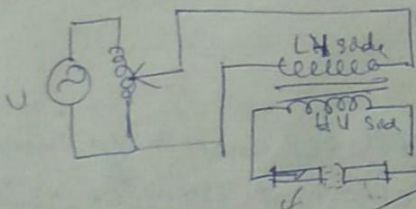
WKT, at steady temp heat dissipated = i/p power
 $\pi d l \times H = P.$

$$d^2 l^2 = \frac{P}{H}$$

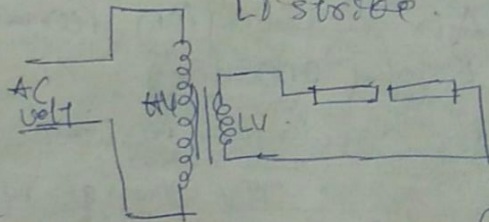
Arc furnaces

The furnaces used for melting.

HT stroke:

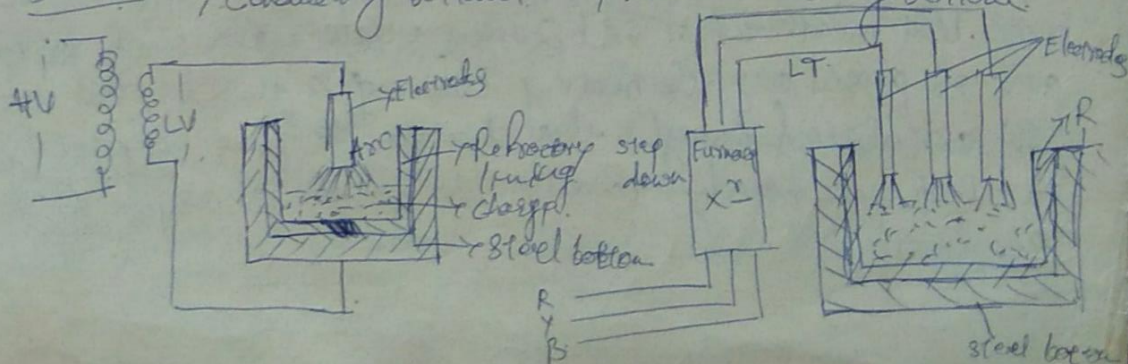


LT stroke:



1) Direct arc furnace & 2) Indirect arc furnace

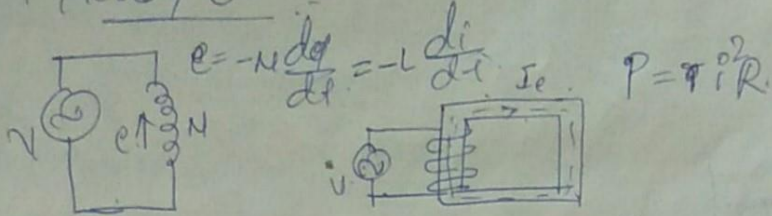
Direct: i) Conducting bottom ii) Non conducting bottom



the electrodes. for which the i/p power furnace is max.

Induction heating:

Introduction: - i) Eddy currents & ii) hysteresis loss
 i) Eddy C^{ts}



a) $e \propto \frac{d\phi}{dt} \Rightarrow i \propto \frac{d\phi}{dt} \propto f \Rightarrow \text{heat} \propto i^2 \propto f^2$

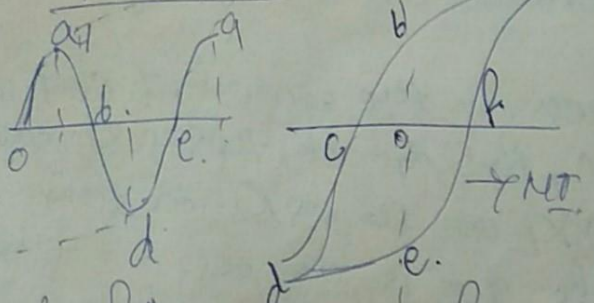
b) $B = \mu_0 \mu_r H$, $H = \frac{NI}{l} \Rightarrow \text{heat} \propto B^2$

c) $\phi \propto N \Rightarrow \text{heating} \propto N^2$ d) $\text{heat} \propto \text{supply } I$

e) Lesser is the resistivity, greater is the C^{ts} \Rightarrow \uparrow heating

1) $W_e = k B_{max}^2 f^2$

ii) Hysteresis:



a) $f \uparrow \Rightarrow$ large no. of loops are produced

b) $W_h = k B_{max}^{1.6} f$ c) $[B = \mu_0 \mu_r H]$

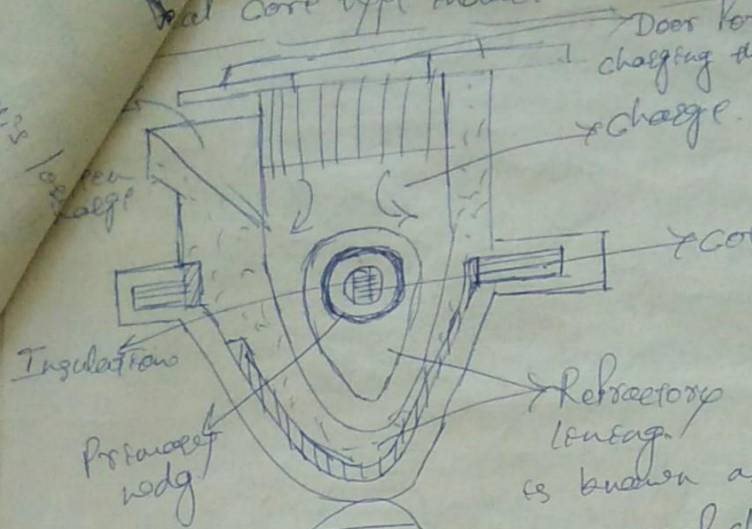
c) Core temp:

Low frequency Induction heating:

For melting & refining of metals

i) Core type: - a) Direct core type b) Vertical core type c) Indirect core type

Vertical core type induction furnace

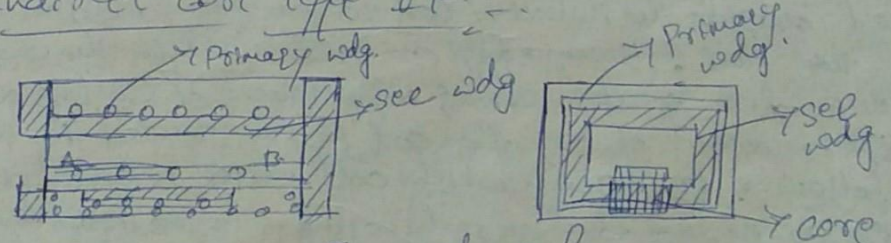


In order to overcome the drawbacks of direct core type induction furnace, an improved type of furnace was found by Ajax Wyatt.

Hence, the furnace is known as Ajax Wyatt vertical core furnace. It has vertical channel for the charge & also the ~~core~~ height is ~~also~~ vertical. When the power supply is given to the primary wdg, due to the mutual induction the $C=$ flows through the annular height which acts as secondary wdg. ~~and~~ thus the charge (metal pieces) ~~is~~ heated. Also, the heat transfer takes place ~~by~~ due to the eddy $C=$ loss & hysteresis loss.

Since, it provides good magnetic coupling it has ~~low~~ ^{low} leakage reactance & high ip factor, so it can operate on normal frequency power supply. When, the molten metal is taken out through the exhaust door & fresh charge (metal pieces) are poured into the hearth through ~~the~~ another door. In this way ~~the~~ continuous operation takes place in this furnace.

Indirect core type I.F.

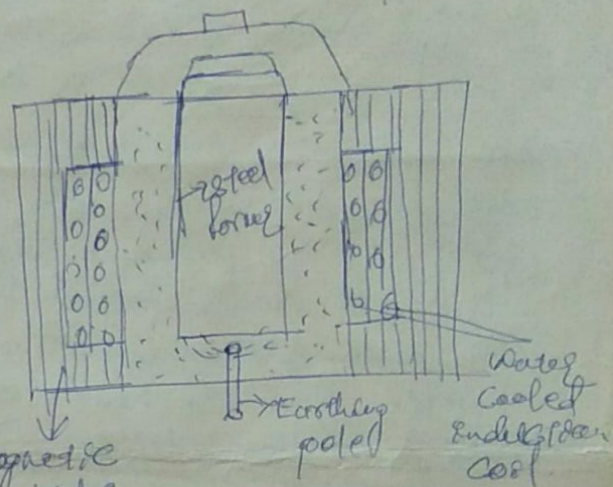
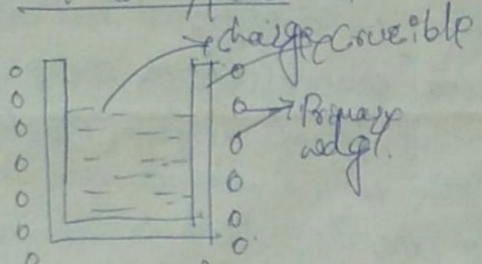


In such a furnace, an inductively heated element is made to transfer the heat by radiation. In this type, the principle of induction has been utilised for providing the heat.

It consists of an iron core having

with the primary as well as sec. wdg. Here, the metal container acts as the sec. wdg. Primary wdg is connected to the AC supply & hence, induces the $E = \frac{d\phi}{dt}$ thus the metal container. Heat is transmitted to charge by radiation. It is advantageous because there is no need of external control equipment. It consists of part AB of the magnetic circuit which is made up of special alloy. It loses its magnetic property at high temp & regains them when cooled to the service temp.

Coreless type DF:-



The flux produced by the primary wdg sets up eddy C_{eddy} in the charge. The eddy C_{eddy} developed is given by, $I \propto B^2 \cdot f^2$ where $B = \frac{\phi}{A}$. These eddy C_{eddy} are sufficient to heat the metal to melting point & also sets up electromagnetic forces which produce stirring action.

The furnace has refractory lining. The primary coils are wound around it. The alternating flux produced by the primary wdg. Laminated magnetic yoke is provided outside the induction coil to provide a definite path for the flux. Hence, eddy C_{eddy} is induced in the charge. At high temp, due to skin effect some amount of C_{eddy} loss occurs in the coil. To avoid this, the coil is constructed in the form of hollow tube through which cold water is circulated.

- Advantages:-
- 1) The time taken to reach melting pt is less in this furnace.
 - 2) Precise control of power into the charge.
 - 3) Conductor of any shape can be used.
 - 4) Charging & pouring is simple.
 - 5) There is no dust, smoke & noise.
 - 6) Automatic stirring in the charge due to eddy C_{eddy} .
 - 7) Erection & operating cost is low.

of this is charge

The choice of frequency of operation is governed by the factors material to be heated & thickness of the cylinder (or suitable) layer. The freq. of the supply can be determined by using penetration formula. Accordingly,

$$L = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{8 \times 10^7}{\mu F}} \text{ m.}$$

where, ρ - is the res. of material metal in $\Omega\text{-m}$.

F - " " supply freq. in Hz

μ - Relative permeability ($\mu=1$ for molten steel)

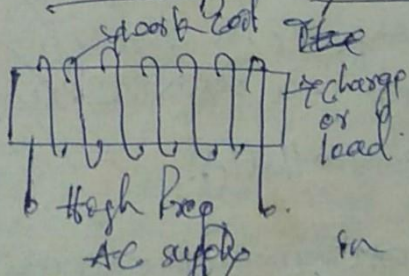
For efficient operation the ratio $\frac{r}{L}$ (i.e., the ratio of radius of pieces of material used as charge to the thickness of suitable) should be greater than 3.

If it is taken as 4, then the expression for the freq. for efficient operation, becomes,

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi^2} \times \frac{8 \times 10^7 \times 16}{\mu \times r^2}$$

In the above expression we can see that by increasing (or) efficient operation can be obtained with lower frequencies. In most of the modern coreless induction furnaces, the frequencies in the range of 500 to 1000 Hz are used. However, for smaller sizes for melting small quantities of finely divided metal frequencies upto 100 kHz @ 1000 kHz are used.

High freq. eddy C^o heating (induction heating)



The material to be heated is placed within a high freq. C^o carrying coil, alternating flux is produced & eddy C^o are induced in the material. Hence, heat is produced.

The high freq. C^o carrying coil is known as heating coil or work coil, the material to be heated is known as the charge or load & the process is known as high freq. eddy C^o heating.

Since, $I \propto B^2 f^2$, by increasing the ^{high} freq. of the supply, we can increase the eddy C_{eddy} & hence heat produced. However, it is observed that, higher freq. of the supply, the greater will be the tendency of the induced eddy C_{eddy} to remain at the surface of the material being heated. This property is called skin effect. (Like skin effect from A.C. Gang)

Induced eddy C_{eddy} is high at the surface of the material to be heated & its value reduces as we go inside the depth of the material. Hence, depth of penetration of eddy C_{eddy} into the material is

$t = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{8 \times 10^7}{\rho f}}$ m, Hence, by using high freq. power supply, we can restore the depth of penetration of eddy C_{eddy} to desired depth.

This effect is being utilized for heat treatment of surfaces of steel parts of m/c tools. Same effect allows the use of hollow conductors to which water cooling is provided.

Characteristics of high freq. eddy C_{eddy} heating:

- i) The heat generated is closer to the outer surface & no heat is produced at the core.
- ii) The depth of penetration is inversely proportional to the square root of the freq. & directly proportional to the square root of the resistivity of the material undergoing heating. It is directly proportional to the sq. root of the resistivity.
- iii) The heat area & depth can be controllable.
- iv) Rate of heating is high.
- v) To prevent oxidation, we can introduce vacuum or inert gases into the heating chamber.
- vi) Initial investment is high.

mechanism of high freq. induction heating: (9)

Surface hardening of steel parts:-

The portion of the steel component to be hardened is covered with induction coil.

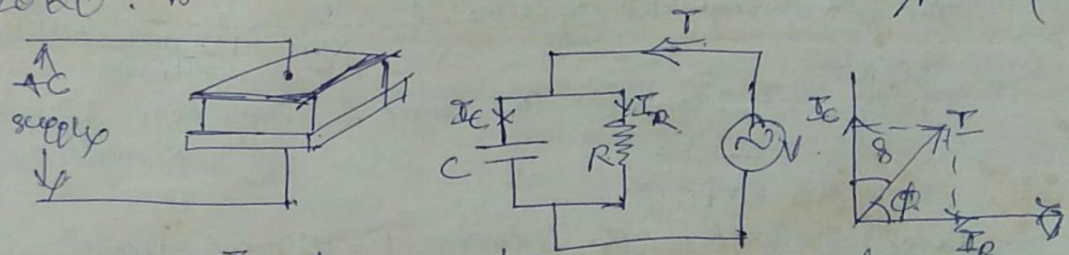
ii) Brazing:- Two pieces of different materials to be soldered ~~are~~ can be soldered by using an alloy.

iii) Annealing:-

- Butt welding
- Sterilisation of medical instruments.
- Drying of metallic painted surfaces.

Dielectric heating:-

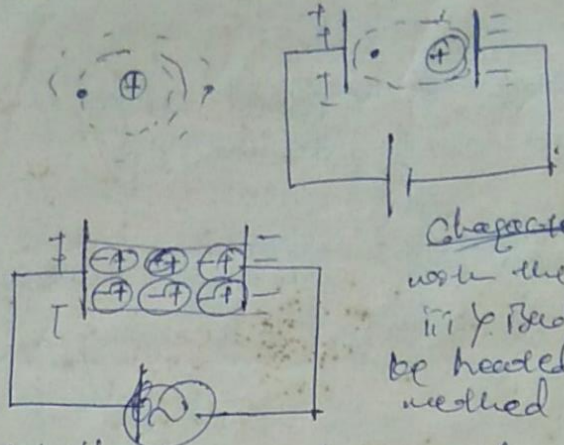
It is also called as high freq. capacitor heating. It is used for the heating of insulating materials like wood, plastic, etc. For producing sufficient heat the supply freq. of about 10-30 MHz is used with the $\frac{1}{2}$ power of 20 kW.



In dielectric heating, the material to be heated is kept in betⁿ two conducting electrodes, which form a capacitor. When AC supply is applied across the plates of a capacitor, the I_C drawn by the capacitor does not lead the volt exactly by 90° . The angle betⁿ volt & I_C is slightly less than 90° i.e. δ ($\delta = 90 - \theta$) which is called as loss angle. It can be seen that there is a small resistive C^e component which is in phase with volt & produces power loss in the dielectric. This power loss appears in the form of heat energy in the dielectric material called as dielectric loss. The dielectric loss is directly proportional to the freq^y of the supply. Also, the heat production in the dielectric material is due to the dipole movement.

Characteristics of dielectric heating:

Dipole Polarization



- i) Heat ~~will~~ is produced in the dielectric material itself. Hence, the uniform heating takes place.
- ii) Heating will be faster with the increase in freq.
- iii) Bad conductors of heat can only be heated by the dielectric heating method only.

∴ Heating can be started & stopped instantaneously. ∴ source, no ~~heat~~ flame appears highly flammable materials can be safely heated. Calculation of amount of heat produced (Change of freq & volt. reqd for dielectric heating)

As shown in the above fig. the material to be heated is placed betⁿ two conducting electrodes of which high freq. ac supply is given. The capacitor thus formed is not a pure capacitor. Hence, as shown in the equivalent circ. diagram let 'R' be the res. of the Capa & 'C' be the capacitance of the capacitor. The phasor diagram is as shown in the fig.

The C through the capacitor, $I_C = \frac{V}{X_C} = \frac{V}{1/2\pi fC} = 2\pi fCV$

WKT, $I = I_C + I_R$ But, since R is very large I_R is very small & neglected. ∴ $I \approx I_C$

∴ $I = 2\pi fCV$

Power consumed in the dielectric = $P = VI \cos \phi = V(2\pi fCV) \cos \phi = 2\pi fCV^2 \cos \phi$

This power consumed is converted into heat. In the above expression, $\cos \phi$ & C are constant for a given dielectric material. Hence, the heat produced is proportional to supply freq & volt. Hence, high freq & high volt is used for dielectric heating.

Applications of dielectric heating: $C = \frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 A}{t}$

- 1) Plywood industry
- 2) Sand core baking
- 3) Plastic industry
- 4) Tobacco industry
- 5) Baking
- 6) Electronic solder
- 7) Dehydration of food
- 8) Removal of moisture from oil emulsions
- 9) Electro-medical applications
- 10) Book binding

10
 A piece of plywood is to be heated by dielectric heating. The area of the piece is 0.5 m^2 & the thickness is 2.5 cm . If a freq. of $25 \text{ mega cycle per sec}$ is used & the power absorbed is 1000 watt . The volt. employed, necessary for heating. The relative permittivity of wood is 2.5 & ~~for~~ s.p.f. is 0.46 .

Given: $\epsilon_r = 2.5$, $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F/m}$, $A = 0.5 \text{ m}^2$, $l = 0.025 \text{ m}$

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_r \epsilon_0 A}{l} = \frac{2.5 \times 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \times 0.5}{0.025} = 442.7 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F}$$

* $\cos \phi = 0.46$, $f = 25 \text{ MHz} = 25 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$

$$P = 2\pi f C V^2 \cos \phi \Rightarrow V = \sqrt{\frac{P}{2\pi f C \cos \phi}} = 465.93 \text{ V} \approx 559.12 \text{ V}$$

2) The power req^d for dielectric heating of a slab of resin 150 cm^2 in area & 2 cm thick is 200 W , freq. of 30 MHz . The material has ϵ_r of 5 & s.p.f. of 0.05 . Determine the volt. necessary & C flowing through the material. If the volt. is limited to 600 V , what will be the value of freq. to obtain the same heating.

Given: $A = 150 \text{ cm}^2 = 150 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$ & $l = 2 \text{ cm} = 0.02 \text{ m}$

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r A}{l} = 33.2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F}$$

$$V = \sqrt{\frac{P}{2\pi f C \cos \phi}} = 800 \text{ V} \quad \& \quad I = \frac{P}{V \cos \phi} = \frac{200}{800 \times 0.05} = 5 \text{ A}$$

Now, heat produced $\propto f_1 V_1^2$

Also, $\propto f_2 V_2^2$

$$\Rightarrow f_1 V_1^2 = f_2 V_2^2 \Rightarrow f_2 = f_1 \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right)^2 = 30 \times 10^6 \times \left(\frac{800}{600}\right)^2 = 53.33 \text{ MHz}$$

3) A cubic water tank has surface area of 6 m^2 & is filled to ~~60~~ 90% capacity six times daily. The water is heated from 20°C to 65°C . The losses per square meter of tank surface per 1°C temp difference is 6.3 watts . Find the loading in kW & the η of the tank. Assume sp. heat of water = $4200 \text{ J/kg}^\circ \text{C}$ & $1 \text{ kWh} = 3.6 \text{ MJ}$

Let, one side of the tank be $l \text{ m}$

surface area of the tank $6l^2 = 6 \text{ m}^2 \Rightarrow l = 1 \text{ m}$

Volume of the tank = $l^3 = 1 \text{ m}^3$

Water to be heated daily = $6 \times 0.9 \times 1 \text{ m}^3 = 5.4 \text{ m}^3 = 5400 \text{ kg}$

Heat req^d to raise the temp. of water = $m S (t_2 - t_1) = 5400 \times 4200 \times (65 - 20) = 1020 \text{ MJ}$

Losses from the surface of the tank = $6.3 \times 6 \times 45 \times 24 = 283.5 \text{ kWh}$

Energy supplied = $283.5 + 1020 = 1303.5 \text{ kWh}$

Loading in kW = $\frac{1303.5}{24} = 54.31 \text{ kW}$

$\eta = \frac{1020}{1303.5} = 78.26\%$



4) A 3- ϕ electric arc furnace has the following

C[∞] drawn = 5000 A

Arc volt = 50 V

Res. of X[∞] referred to sec = 0.002 Ω

Reactance " " " " " " = 0.004 Ω

Calculate the p.f. & kW drawn from the supply.

ii) If the overall η of the furnace is 65%. Find the time reqd to melt 2 tonnes of steel when latent heat of steel = 8.89 kcal/kg, sp. heat of steel = 0.12, melting pt. of steel = 1370°C & initial temp. of steel = 20°C

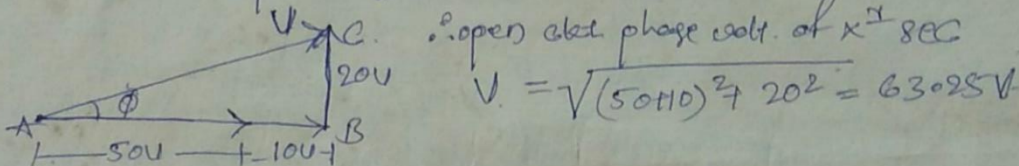
Solⁿ Given: Arc volt = 50 V

C[∞] drawn = I = 5000 A

Volt. drop due to res. of X[∞] = 5000 \times 0.002 = 10 V

" " " " reactance " " = 5000 \times 0.004 = 20 V

WKT, arc drop is resistance in arc.



\therefore P.f. = $\cos \phi = \frac{AB}{AC} = \frac{50+10}{63.25} = 0.9487$

Power drawn per phase = $V I \cos \phi$

= 63.25 \times 5000 \times 0.9487 = 300 kW

Total power drawn from the supply = 3 \times 300 = 900 kW

iii) Energy reqd to melt 2 tonnes of steel = $mS(t_2 - t_1) + mL$

(1 cal = 4.18 J)

(1 kWh = 3.6 $\times 10^6$ J)

= $m[S(t_2 - t_1) + L]$

= 2000 [0.12 \times (1370 - 20) + 8.89]

= 3,41,780 kcal

= 14,28,640 $\times 10^3$ J = 14,28.64 MJ

= 397.42 kWh

Now,

$\eta = \frac{o/p}{i/p} \times 100 = 0.65 \times 900 = 585$ kW = Power reqd

Time reqd for melting = $\frac{\text{Energy reqd for melting}}{\text{Power " " " " " "}} = \frac{397.42}{585}$

\rightarrow (1 hr = 60 min)

0.6793 hr ?

= 0.6793 hr

= 40.758 min

1 min = 60 sec

0.758 min ?

= 46 sec

Mica
imp
to
mg 5 kWh
sp. heat of
Melting pt
Latent heat

Find the η of a high freq. induction furnace which is used to melt 1.8 kg of aluminium. The e/p to the furnace is 5 kW & initial temp. 15°C .

s.p. heat of Al = $880 \text{ J/kg}^\circ\text{C}$.

Melting pt. of Al = 660°C

Latent heat of fusion of Al = 32 kJ/kg & $1 \text{ J} = 2.78 \times 10^{-7} \text{ kWh}$.

Solⁿ: $m = 1.8 \text{ kg}$, $t_1 = 15^\circ\text{C}$, $t_2 = 660^\circ\text{C}$, $s = 880 \text{ J/kg}^\circ\text{C}$

$L = 32000 \text{ J/kg}$

Heat req^d to melt 1.8 kg of Al = $m[s(t_2 - t_1) + mL]$

$$= m[s(t_2 - t_1) + L]$$

$$= 1.8 [880(660 - 15) + 32000]$$

$$= 10,79,280 \text{ J}$$

$$= 1079280 \times 2.78 \times 10^{-7} \text{ kWh} = 0.3 \text{ kWh}$$

Energy e/p = $5 \times \frac{10}{60} = 0.833 \text{ kWh}$.

$$\eta = \frac{\text{e/p}}{\text{i/p}} \times 100 = \frac{0.3}{0.833} = 36\%$$

Heating of Buildings.

In cold countries (the European countries), it is very essential to heat the buildings. They used to produce heat by burning fuels like wood in their houses. In ~~old~~ ^{city} houses, there are some chimney like structures through which smoke is ~~emitted~~ ^{released} liberated to atmosphere.

In order to have a comfortness, the normal atmosphere temp should be 21°C & inside temp in our houses should not be less than 17.2°C .

For this purpose, buildings are heated by electric heating. There are various methods of electric heating of buildings.

- 1) High temp. radiators.
- 2) Low temp. convectors.
- 3) Panel heating.
- 4) Air conditioning
- 5) Thermal storage.

High temp radiators:
In this method, there are electric radiators in which resistance element is present. When the supply is given, these radiators are heated to red hot. In this way, by keeping these radiators in houses, the surrounding air will get heated. But the drawback is the heat is produced only at a localized region.

2) Low temp convectors: - In this method, there are metal tubes having smaller dia, inside which res. wire is mounted. And, this set up is mounted around the starting room. Hence, the heat transfer takes place by conduction to the walls & also by radiation. These elements operate at 93°C .

3) Panel heating: - In this method, there are large panels are present in which res. wire is incorporated. Such panels are mounted on the walls or ceiling of the building. This will tend to give very uniform distribution of heat & the heat is transferred through radiation.

4) Thermal storage: - In this method hot water is circulated through pipes & radiators which are fixed on the walls. The water is heated electrically.

5) Air conditioning: - In this method, the air is preheated that means, the air is allowed to pass through the res. heater & this heated air is circulated throughout the building by ventilating equipment. This method ensures cooling in summer & heating in winter. By this method humidity, purity of air as well as temp. is controlled.

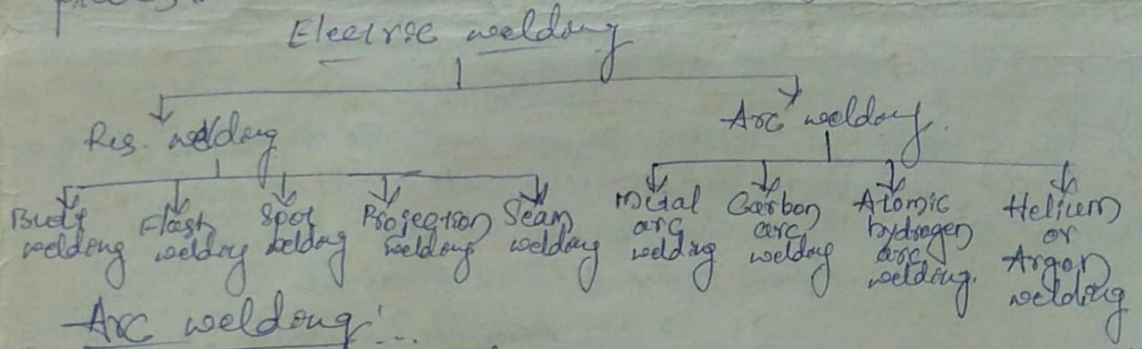
Welding - Welding is a process in which two metal pieces joined by heating.

Welding is broadly classified into two types. i) Plastic welding & ii) Fusion welding (or pressure or non-pressure).

In plastic welding, the pieces of metal to be joined are heated to a plastic state & are fused together by external pressure. It is subdivided into - i) Forge welding ii) Res. welding iii) Thermit welding, in which pressure is not.

In fusion welding, the two metal pieces are heated to molten state, then joined & allowed to solidify. It may be subdivided into i) Gas welding ii) Arc welding iii) Thermit welding, without external pressure.

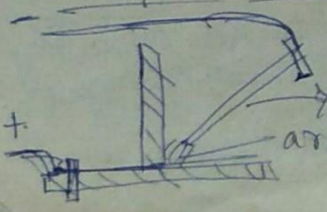
Electric welding - Electric welding is defined as that branch of welding in which electric c^t is used to produce large amount of heat req^d for joining the two metal pieces.



Arc welding

In arc welding an electric arc is produced by bringing the two conductors in contact momentarily which are connected to a suitable source of electric c^t. & then by separating them by small distance the c^t continues to flow at a small air gap & gives intense heat. The heat developed is utilised to melt the parts of work pieces which are to be joined.

Principle of arc welding



As shown in the fig. we can use AC source or DC source to produce c^t. One terminal of the supply is connected to the electrode & another terminal is connected to the work piece to be welded.

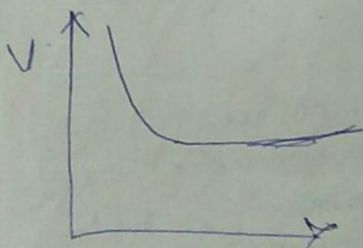
When the electrode is brought near to the workpiece, it will strike & then the electrode is separated by a distance. The proper gap is maintained betⁿ the tip of electrode & the surface of the work piece of about 3 mm. In this gap, the electrical energy is converted into energy of about 3000°C. This heat is utilised to join the metal pieces.

Conditions for successful welding

For successful welding either AC or DC supply may be used, even though Al & certain alloys can only be welded with DC. The sparking volt. should be roughly in the range of 80-100V in case of AC & 60-80V in case of DC. The arc volt. depends upon the type of the metal & the flux of the electrode. It is affected by the length of the arc being maintained, a long arc requires a higher volt. than a short arc, but a good operator will maintain constant length of arc & hence correct arc volt. The C² is also dependent upon the type of the metal being welded & the type of the electrode & is from 15-600A. For hand welding & upto 1200A for automatic welding.

Electric properties of an Arc

1) Arc stability :- Electric arc has -ve neg. characteristics. With the increase in the C², the volt. of the arc will decrease & as well as the res. of the arc decreases. This is shown by the V-I char. as below.



It is not possible manually to hold the arc length constant. The decrease in arc length will result in decrease in the arc res. & hence, increase the arc ~~res.~~ This will further reduce the arc ~~res.~~ In this way ~~cause & effect~~ will go on helping each other. III) Increase in arc length will increase its res. This will reduce the intensity of the arc. This will result again in the increase in the res. In this way arc will extend.

Arc stability is achieved in AC by putting a choke in the supply line. This choke will maintain constant phase difference betⁿ C² & arc volt.

blow
DC supply
Methods
14/11

For this type of welding only DC can be used. When the arc is struck between the electrode and the workpiece, a large amount of heat is produced which is used to melt the metal pieces. The extra heat required to make the weld is supplied by filler rod. The same composition as that of the metal ~~rod~~ molten metal. Two methods of carbon arc welding are used. In one method, no flux is used & in other method, flux either in the form of powder or paste is used to prevent the weld from oxidation.

3) Atomic hydrogen arc welding:

In this type of welding, the arc is struck between two tungsten electrodes connected either AC or DC supply. The arc is struck between these two tungsten electrodes. Then, the molecular hydrogen is blown through this arc. Due to the high temp developed is 4000°C the hydrogen molecules change to its atomic state. When the atomic H_2 travels to cathode regions in the vicinity of the arc it regains its molecular form. In this process, it gives up the energy which it had received from the arc. Thus, very intense heat is generated which is used to melt the workpiece to be welded. After cooling, the two pieces will get welded. A filler rod may be used if additional metal is reqd for making the joint.

This method is used for welding stainless steel & non-ferrous metals.

To strike & maintain the arc open circ. volt of 200V is reqd. & for hand welding C = range up to 50A is reqd.

4) Helium or argon welding or Inert gas metal arc welding:

In this method, an arc is struck between an electrode of tungsten & the metal work piece to be welded. In this case ~~no~~ filler rod is used since, the electrode is consumable. Large amount of heat produced is utilized to weld the work piece. In this case, both helium or argon gas is blown through the arc on to the joint to give an inert atmosphere. Hence, oxidation of the welding joint does not take place.

This process of welding is used for welding of (14)
Al alloys, stainless steel, Cu alloys, etc.

weight & reverse polarity in DC welding.

Types of electrodes

- i) Bare wire rods
- ii) Dipped or lightly covered electrode
- iii) Heavy coated

Resistance welding

In 1885 by prof. Elihu Thompson.

Resistance welding is that process in which a sufficiently strong electric C^{\ominus} is sent through the two metal pieces in contact to be welded which melts the metals by the res. they offer to the flow of electric C^{\ominus} .

Principle of res. welding is that when very high density of C^{\ominus} is passed through the metal pieces to be welded. Then, due to the res. offered by the metal pieces to the flow of large amount of C^{\ominus} large amount of heat is produced. Then, the metal pieces melt to their plastic state. The pieces are then pressed together by applying external mechanical pressure. Now, the metal pieces are said to be welded.

WRT, the heat generated, H is given by $H = I^2 R t$ where, R is the total res. of the metal parts pieces to be welded. This res. includes, the res. of the metal pieces which offers opposition to the flow of electric C^{\ominus} through it, & the res. of the joint to be welded.

Alternating C^{\ominus} is found to be most suitable for the res. welding as it can provide any desired value of C^{\ominus} & volt. by using suitable $\times I$.

The amount of C^{\ominus} reqd. is about 400 to 5000 A/cm² of the area to be welded & the pressure reqd. is 280-565 kg/cm².

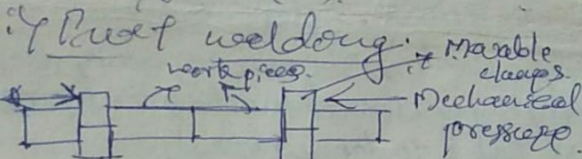
Advantages of res. welding:

- i) It is quick method of joining two pieces.
- ii) There is very little wastage of metal.
- iii) The process can be very accurately controlled.
- iv) The welding is uniform.

Limitations:

- i) Initial cost of the equipment used is high.
- ii) In some materials, special surface preparation.
- iii) Skilled persons are reqd for the maintenance of the equipment & res control.

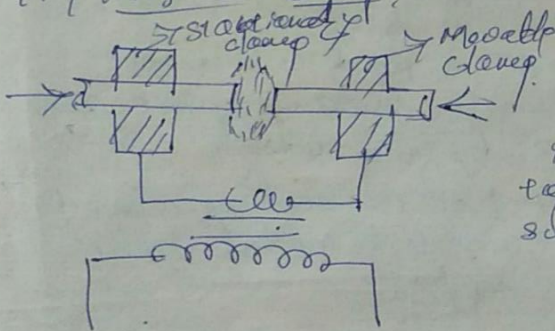
- i) Butt welding
- ii) Flash "
- iii) Spot "
- iv) Seam "
- v) Projection "



Applications:

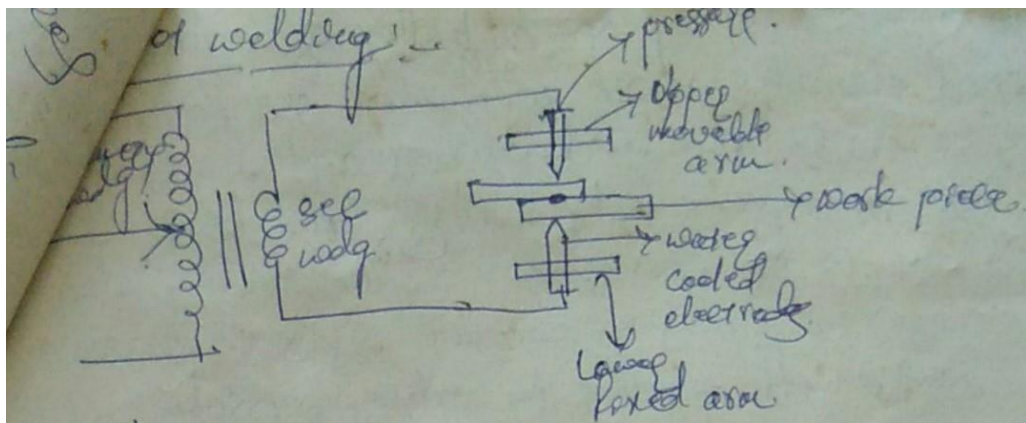
- i) For welding pipes, wires & rods.
- ii) Where the pieces are joined end-to-end or edge to edge.

ii) Flash welding:



Applications:

This method of welding is used in production work in welding rods & pipes together. This method is superseded over butt weld method.



$C = 5000 \text{ A}$.

volt betⁿ electrodes $< 3 \text{ V}$

" " osc. $< 12 \text{ V}$

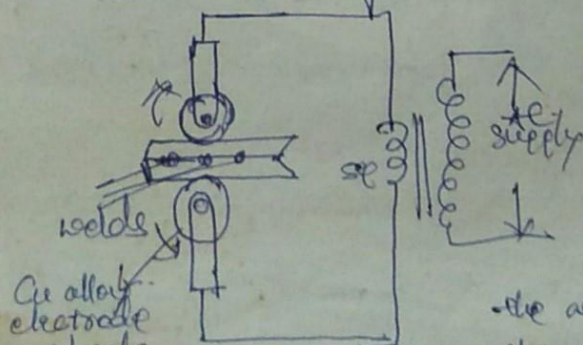
This is the simplest & most universally adapted method of making lap welds in thin sheets. In its simplest form the spot welding m/c consists of a x², the electrodes & the electrical control switch.

In the process, the materials to be welded are overlapped & pressed betⁿ two water cooled electrodes & a impulse of C is passed through the assembly. The metals in the zone of pressure gets heated up to fusion & joint thus made gets cooled under pressure.

For spot welding 5000 A of C is req^d. & volt betⁿ electrodes is usually less than 3 V . The open circ volt. is less than 12 V . The quality of spot welding depends upon the value of welding C , the time for which the C flows & the pressure betⁿ the electrode tips.

Applications: - i) It is applied to welding of sheets.
ii) It may be applied to all types of boxes, cases & enclosing cases, etc.

Seam Welding:-

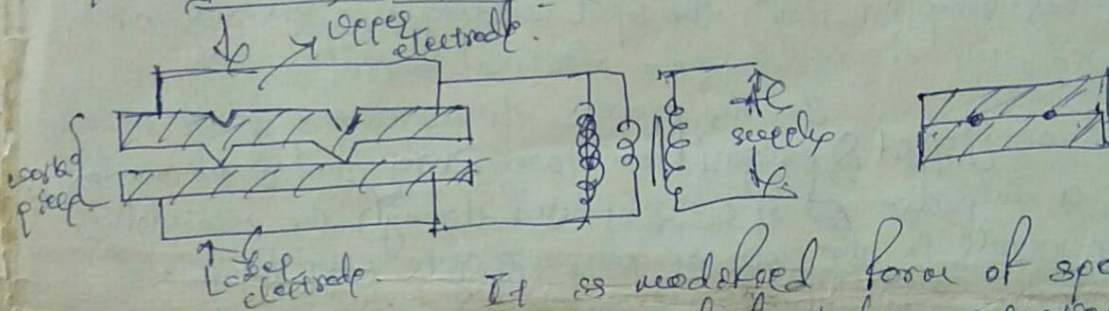


Seam welding can be defined as series of continuous spot welding. This process is employed for making a continuous joint betⁿ two overlapping pieces of sheet metal. In this process the work to be welded is placed betⁿ

electrodes are made up of copper alloy & are water-cooled. These wheel electrodes carry sufficient C^{∞} for producing continuous welds. The mech. pressure applied is kept constant & C^{∞} is regulated by time. The heat is generated due to the flow of C^{∞} in the welding strip. Hence, the metal pieces in contact melt to plastic state & they are joined together by applying pressure.

Applications:-
 i) It is used for making lap & butt welds.
 ii) It is quicker than spot welding operation.
 iii) It is used on many types of pressure tight or leak proof tanks for various purposes.

Projection welding:-



It is modified form of spot welding. ~~Project~~ In this method slight projections are made on one workpiece. The edges of these projections are kept on the other workpiece at the position where it is to be welded. The workpieces are clamped with two flat electrodes. Then if the heavy C^{∞} is allowed to flow through the workpiece, then large amount of heat is produced at the dip so the req. offered to the flow of C^{∞} . Hence, the projected contact area melts to plastic state & then if the mechanical pressure is applied it forms a strong welded joint at the points.

Projection welding has certain advantages over spot welding:-

- i) More than one spot welding is done at a time.
- ii) Due to the low C^{∞} density & low pressure the electrode life is increased.
- iii) Good finished appearance is obtained, i.e. the surface remains flat.

Electrolytic Process

(1)

Fundamental Principles

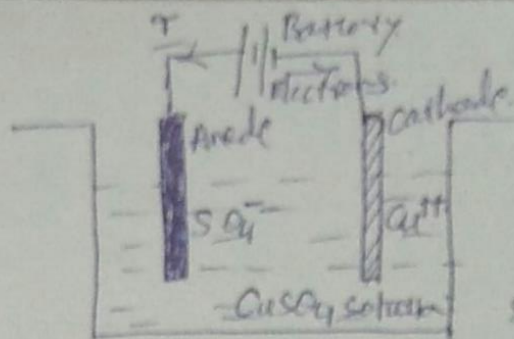
Introduction

The Processes in which electrical energy is used to produce chemical changes are called electrolytic processes, which are used for the following purposes.

- i) Extraction of pure metals like copper, zinc, aluminium, magnesium, etc from their ores.
- ii) Refining of metals such as gold, silver, copper, nickel, etc.
- iii) Manufacturing of various chemicals such as caustic soda, potassium permanganate, chlorine, etc.
- iv) Electro-plating, electro-typing, electro-forming, etc.
- v) Building up of worn parts in chemical, metallurgical & other industries

Electrolysis :-

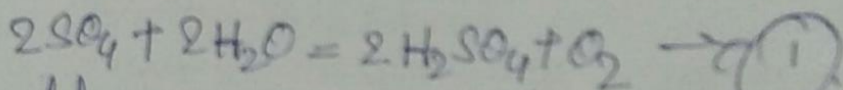
An electrolyte is a chemical compound, whose molecules are closely bound together in its normal state. But, when it is dissolved in water & forms a solution, the molecules split-up into two types of ions, +Ve ions & -Ve ions. And, freely move about in the solution. If two electrodes are dipped into the electrolytic solution and connected to a DC source, +Ve ions move towards the cathode & the -Ve ions move towards the anode.



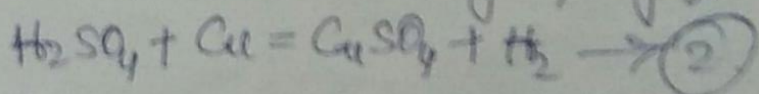
Let us take the example, when copper sulphate (CuSO_4) is dissolved in water, it becomes copper sulphate solution.

The solution dissociates itself into +vely charged copper ions (Cu^{++}) & -vely charged sulphions (SO_4^{--}) moving freely in the solution.

If two electrodes are dipped in the electrolyte as shown above, & connected to a battery, the +vely charged copper ions (Cu^{++}) move towards the cathode & the -vely charged sulphions (SO_4^{--}) move towards the anode. Each of the +vely charged copper ions, on reaching the cathode, take two electrons from it & becomes a metallic atom of copper & gets itself deposited on the cathode in a very pure form. Similarly, the -vely charged sulphions, on reaching the anode, will give up two electrons to it & become a sulfate molecule. The sulfate molecules at the anode react with water liberating oxygen.



In addition to oxygen, sulphuric acid is also formed at the anode. If the anode is made of copper, the sulphuric acid attacks the anode forming copper sulphate & liberating hydrogen.



Hence, during the entire process, copper from ⁽²⁾ anode gets itself deposited on cathode in its pure form & there is no accumulation of charges at any point of time. The entire process described above is known as electrolysis.

Faraday's laws of electrolysis

First Law: The mass of substance liberated during electrolysis is directly proportional to quantity of electricity flowing through the electrolyte.

$$m \propto Q \propto It.$$

$$\Rightarrow m = ZIt \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

where, m - mass of substance liberated in kg.

Z - a constant known as the electro-chemical equivalent of the substance in kg/C.

I - Current flowing in amperes

t - time for which current flows in sec.

From eqⁿ (3),

$$Z = m, \text{ if } I = 1 \text{ A \& } t = 1 \text{ sec.}$$

\therefore The electrochemical equivalent Z of a substance is defined as the amount of the substance deposited, when a current of 1 A flows through the electrolyte for 1 sec.

The unit of Z is kg per coulomb i.e., kg/C

Second Law: When the same quantity of electricity is passed through several electrolytes, the masses of the substances liberated are proportional to their respective chemical equivalents or equivalent weights.

$$\text{Chemical equivalent} = \text{Equivalent weight} = \frac{\text{Atomic weight}}{\text{Valency}}$$

Current Efficiency:

During the process of electrolysis, the quantity of the substance deposited is slightly less than the quantity calculated by Faraday's laws because of the impurities present, which results in secondary reactions. This factor is taken into account by defining current efficiency.

The current efficiency is defined as the ratio of the actual quantity of the substance deposited to the theoretical quantity of the substance deposited as calculated from Faraday's laws.

$$\text{Current efficiency} = \frac{\text{Actual quantity of the substance deposited}}{\text{Theoretical quantity of the substance liberated}}$$

In most of the cases, this value lies between 90-98%.

Energy Efficiency

(3)

Due to the secondary reaction, the actual quantity of the substance deposited is less than the quantity as determined theoretically from Faraday's laws. The actual voltage reqd for depositing a certain quantity of the substance is also more than the theoretical value. Hence, the actual energy consumption is always more than the theoretical value for depositing a certain quantity of the substance. This factor is taken into account by defining energy efficiency.

The energy efficiency is defined as the theoretical energy required for depositing a certain quantity of the substance to the actual value of the energy reqd.

$$\text{Energy efficiency} = \frac{\text{Theoretical energy reqd}}{\text{Actual energy reqd}}$$

Electrode Potential:

The voltage applied to an electrolytic cell is equal to the sum of the voltage drops due to the resistance of the electrodes and the res. of the electrolyte. For the electrolytic process to be more efficient, the res. of the electrolyte must be as small as possible. For achieving this, special conducting agents are added to the electrolyte. For eg. Sulphuric acid is added as a conducting agent to

Copper sulphate solⁿ in copper plating. A P.d. exists betⁿ the anode & the electrolyte & also betⁿ the cathode & the electrolyte. This P.d. is known as the electrode potential & is a measure of the tendency of the metal to go into the solution. The electrode potential depends on the temp. & concentration of the electrolyte. For most of the metal deposition processes, the electrode potential is of the order of 0.5 to 1.0 V., whereas the total voltage req^d to pass the necessary C⁺ through the electrolyte is of the order of 1 or 2 V.

Extraction of metals

Extraction of metals is an electrolytic process in which a metal with commercially acceptable purity can be obtained. There are two different methods of extracting the metal depending on the physical state of the ore.

i) In one of the methods, the ore is treated with a strong acid to obtain a salt of the metal & treated with a strong acid. When the solution of the salt is electrolysed, the metal is liberated.