

# MALLAREDDY COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY

(Autonomous Institution-UGC, Govt. of India)

(Affiliated to JNTUH, Hyderabad, Approved by AICTE-Accredited by NBA & NAAC-'A' Grade-ISO 9001:2015 Certified)

Maisammaguda, Dhulapally (Post Via. Hakimpet), Secunderabad-500100, Telangana State, INDIA.



## DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL & ELECTRONICS ENGINEERING

### DIGITAL NOTES

ON

### POWER SYSTEMS-I

For

**B.TECH**  
**II YEAR-I**  
**SEM (2024-25)**

**prerequisite: Basic Electrical Engineering, Electrical Machines -I, Electrical Machines -II**  
**COURSE OBJECTIVES:**

- 1. To understand the different types of power generating stations.**
- 2. To understand the concepts of overhead line insulators.**
- 3. To illustrate the economic aspects of power generation and tariff methods.**
- 4. To evaluate the transmission line parameters calculations**
- 5. To understand the concept of corona**

### **UNIT-I**

**GENERATION OF ELECTRIC POWER: Conventional Sources: Hydro station, Steam Power Plant, Nuclear Power Plant. Non-Conventional Sources (Qualitative Treatment only): Ocean Energy, Tidal Energy, Wind Energy, Fuel Cells, & Solar Energy, Cogeneration -- Energy conservation and storage.**

### **UNIT-II**

**ECONOMICS OF GENERATION: Introduction, definitions of connected load, maximum demand, demand factor, load factor, diversity factor, Load duration curve, number and size of generator units. Base load and peak load plants. Cost of electrical energy - fixed cost, running cost . types of Tariff Simple, flat rate, block-rate, two-part , power factor tariff methods and numerical problems.**

### **UNIT-III**

**OVERHEAD TRANSMISSION LINES: line conductors, inductance and capacitance of single phase and three phase line with symmetrical and unsymmetrical spacing, composite conductor transposition, bundled conductors, and skin and proximity effects.**

### **UNIT-IV**

**PERFORMANCE OF TRANSMISSION LINES: Representation of lines, short transmission lines, medium length lines, nominal T and PI-representations, and long transmission lines (Rigorous Solution Method). The equivalent circuit representation of a long Line A, B, C, D constants, Ferranti Effect, Skin and Proximity effects, concept of Surge Impedance, Numerical Problems.**

## **UNIT-V**

**NDCDISRTIBUTION:** Classification of distribution systems-comparison of DC vs AC and underground vs over-head distribution systems. Voltage drop calculations (numerical problems ) in D.C distributors for the following cases : radial D.C distributor fed at one end and at the both the ends (equal/unequal voltages ) and ring main distributor.

### **TEXTBOOKS:**

1. **W.D.Stevenson Elements of Power System Analysis, Fourth Edition, McGraw Hill, 1984.**
2. **C.L.Wadhwa Generation, Distribution and Utilization of Electrical Energy, Second Edition, New Age International, 2009.**

### **REFERENCE BOOKS::**

1. **C.L.Wadhwa Electrical Power Systems, Fifth Edition, New Age International, 2009**
2. **M.V.Deshpande Elements of Electrical Power Station Design, Third Edition, Wheeler Pub. 1998**
3. **H.Cotton & H.Barber- The Transmission and Distribution of Electrical Energy by V. K. Mehta and Rohit Mehta**

### **COURSE OUTCOMES:**

**At the end of this course, students will demonstrate the ability to**

1. **Assess the functioning of conventional and Non-Conventional generating stations.**
2. **Understand the concepts of economics of generation like power tariff methods.**
3. **Analyze and evaluate the transmission line parameters.**
4. **Determine the performance of transmission lines using various solution methods**
5. **Understand the concepts of overhead line insulators and corona.**

S.NO	TITLE	PAGE.NO
<b>UNIT – I</b> <b>GENERATION OF ELECTRIC POWER</b>		
1.	Introduction	
2.	Major Components of a Thermal Power Plant	
3.	Steam Turbines & Condensers	
4.	Nuclear Power Station	
5.	Nuclear Fission	
6.	Nuclear Fusion	
.	Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR)	
8.	Boiling Water Reactors (BWR)	
9.	Fast Breeder Reactors	
10.	Comparison of PWR and BWR	
<b>HYDROELECTRIC POWER STATION</b>		
1.	Introduction	
2.	Classification of Hydropower Plants	
3.	Schematic Layout & Components of a HPP of a Hydropower Plant	

4.	PumpStorageScheme	
5.	Masscurve	
6.	VarioustermsrelatedtoHydrology	
<b>NUCLEARPOWERSTATION</b>		
1.	NuclearFissionandChainreaction	
2.	Nuclearfuels.-PrincipleofoperationofNuclearReactor	
3.	ReactorComponents:Moderators,Controlrods,Reflectorsand Coolants	
4.	Radiationhazards:ShieldingandSafetyprecautions	
5.	TypesofNuclearreactorsandbriefdescriptionofPWR,BWR and FBR	
6.	<b>Non-Conventional Sources(Qualitative Treatmentonly)</b>	
7.	OceanEnergy&TidalEnergy	
8.	GenerationofElectricPowerbyWindEnergy	
9.	FuelCells,&SolarEnergy,Cogeneration--Energyconservationand storage	
<b>UNIT II ECONOMICSOFGENERATION</b>		
1.	Introduction,definitionsofconnectedload	
2.	maximumdemand,demandfactor,loadfactor,diversityfactor, Loaddurationcurve	
3.	numberandsizeofgeneratorunits	
4.	Baseloadandpeakloadplants	
5.	Costofelectricalenergy-fixedcost,runningcost,Tariffon chargetocustomer	

<b>UNIT III</b> <b>TRANSMISSIONLINEPARAMETERS</b>		
1.	Introduction	
2.	TypesofConductors	
3.	StrandedConductors&BundledConductors	
4.	InductanceofASingle-PhaseLine	
5.	InductanceofThree-PhaseLinesWithSymmetrical Spacing	
6.	InductanceofThree-PhaseLinesWith AsymmetricalSpacingbutTransposed	
7.	CapacitanceofaSingle-PhaseLine	
8.	CapacitanceofaThree-PhaseTransposedLine	
9.	EffectofEarthonCapacitance	
10.	ParametersofSingleandThreePhaseTransmissionLinesWith Single and Double Circuits	
11.	ResistanceofATransmissionLine	
12.	InductanceofaSinglePhaseTwo-WireLine	
13.	Inductanceofa3-PhaseOverheadLine	
14.	SpiralingandBundleConductorEffect	
15.	ConceptofSELF-GMDandMUTUAL-GMD	
16.	CapacitanceofaSinglePhaseTwo-WireLine	
17.	CapacitanceofaThreePhaseOHLine	
18.	InductiveInterferencewithNeighboringCommunication Circuits	

UNIT IV PERFORMANCE OF SHORT, MEDIUM AND LONG TRANSMISSION LINES		
1.	Classification of Lines-Introduction	
2.	Performance of Single-Phase Short Transmission Lines	
3.	Performance of Three Phase Short Transmission Lines ABCD Parameters	

4.	Performance of Short Transmission Lines Using ABCD Parameters	
5.	Medium Transmission Lines	
6.	End Condenser Method	
7.	Nominal T Method	
8.	Nominal $\pi$ Method	
9.	Medium Transmission Line Using ABCD Constants	
10.	Long Transmission Lines	
11.	Analysis of Long Transmission Line (Rigorous Method)	
12.	Long Transmission Line (ABCD Parameters)	

UNIT-IV FACTORS GOVERNING THE PERFORMANCE OF TRANSMISSION LINES		
1.	Introduction	

2.	Surge Impedance	
3.	Surge Impedance Loading	
4.	Corona	
5.	Factors Affecting Corona	
6.	Critical disruptive voltage	

7.	AdvantagesandDisadvantagesofCorona	
8.	CoronaPower Loss	
9.	SkinEffect	
10.	ProximityEffect	
11.	FerrantiEffect	
12.	ChargingCurrentInTransmissionLine	
13.	InductiveInterferencewithNeighboringCommunication Circuits	
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>UNIT V</b> <b>OVERHEADLINE INSULATORS</b></p>		
1.	Introduction to types of insulators	
2.	Potential distribution over a string of suspension insulators	
3.	String Efficiency, Methods of equalizing the potential	
4.	Grading of insulators- Capacitance grading and Static Shielding	
5.	Numerical Problems on insulators	



**UNIT-1****THERMAL POWER STATIONS****INTRODUCTION:**

- Thermal energy is the major source of power generation in India. More than 60% of electric power is produced by steam plants in India. India has large deposit of coal (about 170 billion tonnes), 5<sup>th</sup> largest in world. Indian coals are classified as A-G grade coals.
- In Steam power plants, the heat of combustion of fossil fuels is utilized by the boilers to raise steam at high pressure and temperature. The steam so produced is used in driving the steam turbines or sometimes steam engines coupled to generators and thus in generating electrical energy.
- Steam turbines or steam engines used in steam power plants not only act as prime movers but also as drives for auxiliary equipment, such as pumps, stokers, fans etc.
- Steam power plants may be installed either to generate electrical energy only or generate electrical energy along with generation of steam for industrial purposes such as in paper mills, textile mills, sugar mills and refineries, chemical works, plastic manufacture, food manufacture etc.
- The steam for process purposes is extracted from a certain section of turbine and the remaining steam is allowed to expand in the turbine. Alternatively the exhaust steam may be used for process purposes.
- Thermal stations can be private industrial plants and central station.

**Coal Classification**

Coal Type	kJ/kg	kWh/kg	kCal/kg
Peat	8000	28800000	1912
Lignite	20000	72000000	4780
Bituminous	27000	97200000	6453
Anthracite	30000	108000000	7170

**Advantages and Disadvantages of a Thermal Power Plant Advantages:**

- Less initial cost as compared to other generating stations.
- It requires less land as compared to hydro power plant.
- The fuel (i.e. coal) is cheaper.

- The cost of generation is lesser than that of diesel power plants.

**Disadvantages:**

- It pollutes the atmosphere due to the production of large amount of smoke. This is one of the causes of global warming.
- The overall efficiency of a thermal power station is low (less than 30%).
- Requires long time for erection and put into action.
- Costlier in operating in comparison with that of Hydro and Nuclear power plants.
- Requirement of water in huge quantity.

**Selection of site for thermal power plant**

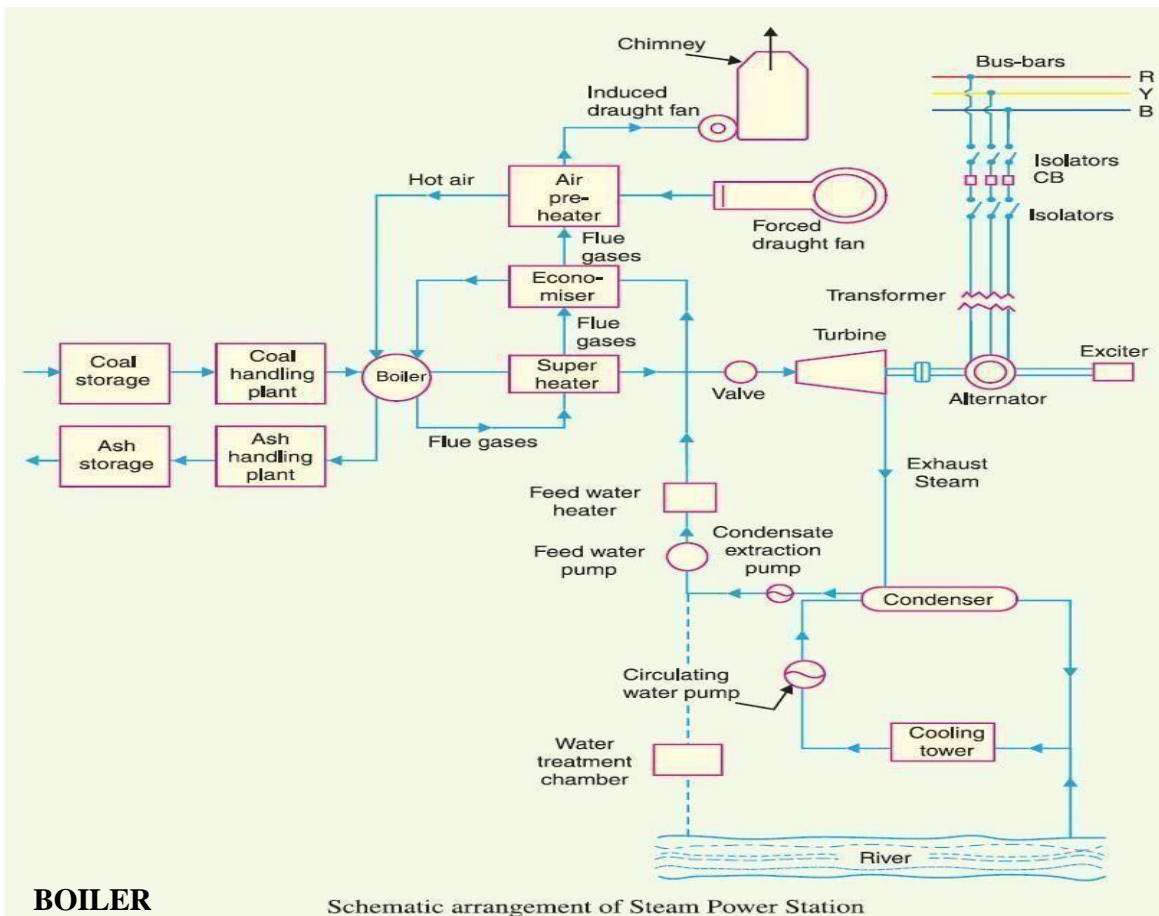
- **Nearness to the load centre:** The power plants should be as near as possible to the load centre to the centre of load. So that the transmission cost and losses are minimum. This factor is most important when DC supply system is adopted. However in the case of AC supply when transformation of energy from lower voltage to higher voltage and vice versa is possible power plants can be erected at places other than that of load provided other conditions are favorable.
  - **Water resources:** For the construction and operating of power plant large volumes of water are required for the following reasons
    - To raise the steam in boiler.
    - For cooling purposes such as in condensers
    - As a carrying medium such as disposal of ash.
    - For drinking purposes.
    - This could be supplied from either rivers or underground water resources.Therefore having enough water supplies in defined vicinity can be a factor in the selection of the site.
  - **Availability of Coal:** Huge amount of coal is required for raising the steam. Since the government policy is to use the only low grade coal with 30 to 40 % ash content for power generation purposes, the steam power plants should be located near the coal mines to avoid the transport of coal & ash.
  - **Land Requirement:** The land is required not only for setting up the plant but for other purposes also such as staff colony, coal storage, ash disposal etc.
-

- **Eg:** For 2000 MW plant, the land requirement may be of the order of 200-250 acres. As the cost of the land adds up to the final cost of the plant, it should be available at a reasonable price. Land should be available for future extension.
- **Transportation Facilities:** The facilities must be available for transportation of heavy equipment and fuels e.g. near railway station.
- **Labour supplies:** Skilled and unskilled laborers should be available at reasonable rates near the site of the plant.
- **Ash Disposal:** Ash is the main waste product of the steam power plant and with low grade coal, it may be 3.5 tones per day, some suitable means for disposal of ash should be thought of. It may be purchased by building contractors, or it can be used for brickmaking near the plant site. If the site is near the coal mine it can be dumped into the disused mines. In case of site located near a river, sea or lake ash can be dumped into it.
- **Distance from populated area:** The continuous burning of coal at the power station produces smoke, fumes and ash which pollute the surrounding area. Such a pollution due to smoke is dangerous for the people living around the area. Hence, the site of a plant should be at a considerable distance from the populated area.

### **Major Components of a Thermal Power Plant**

- ❖ **Coal Handling Plant**
  - ❖ **Pulverizing Plant**
  - ❖ **Draught or Draught fan**
  - ❖ **Boiler**
  - ❖ **Ash Handling Plant**
  - ❖ **Turbine and Generator**
  - ❖ **Condenser**
  - ❖ **Cooling Tower and Ponds**
  - ❖ **Feed Water Heater**
  - ❖ **Economiser**
-

- ❖ SuperheaterandReheater
- ❖ Airpreheater
- ❖ AlternatorwithExciter
- ❖ Protectionandcontrolequipment
- ❖ Instrumentation

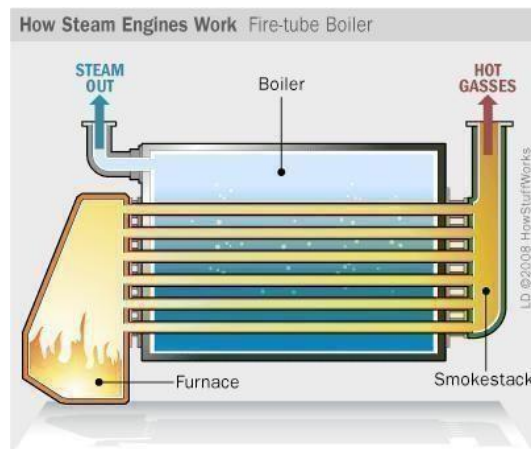


- ❖ A boiler (or steam generator) is a closed vessel in which water, under pressure, is converted into steam. The heat is transferred to the boiler by all three modes of heat transfer i.e. conduction, convection and radiation.
- ❖ Major types of boilers are: (i) fire tube boiler and (ii) water tube boiler

- ❖ Generally watertube boilers are used for electric power stations.

### **Fire Tube Boiler**

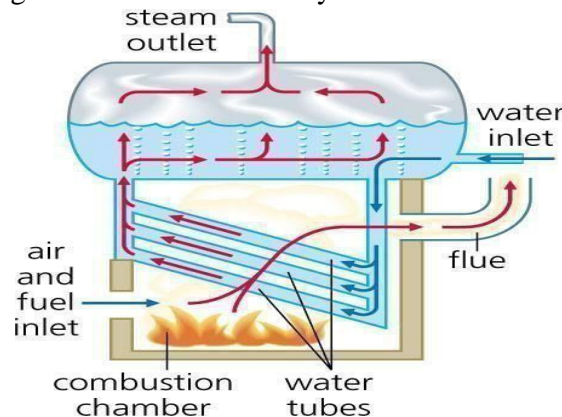
- ❖ The boiler is named so because the products of combustion pass through the tubes which are surrounded by water.
- ❖ Depending on whether the tube is vertical or horizontal, the fire tube boiler is divided into two types
  - Vertical tube boiler
  - Horizontal tube boiler
- ❖ A fire tube boiler is simple, compact and rugged in construction. Its initial cost is low.
- ❖ Water being more and circulation being poor, they cannot meet quickly to changes in steam demand.
- ❖ As water and steam, both are in the same shell, higher pressure of steam are not possible, the maximum pressure which can be had is  $17.5 \text{ kg/cm}^2$  with a capacity of 15,000 kg of steam per hour.
- ❖ For the same output, the outer shell of a fire tube boiler is much larger than that of a water tube boiler.
- ❖ In the event of a sudden and major tube failure, steam explosions may be caused in the furnace due to rush of high pressure water into the hot combustion chamber which may generate large quantities of steam in the furnace.
- ❖ Fire tube boilers use is therefore limited to low cost, small size and low pressure plants.



**Figure: Fire Tube Boiler**

### Water Tube Boilers

- ❖ In this boiler, the water flows inside the tubes and hot gases flow outside the tube.
- ❖ Water tube boilers are classified as
  - ❖ Vertical tube boiler
  - ❖ Horizontal tube boiler
  - ❖ Inclined tube boiler
- ❖ The circulation of water in the boiler may be natural or forced.
- ❖ For central steam power plants large capacity of water tube boilers are used.
- ❖ The tubes are always external to the drum; they can be built in smaller size and therefore withstand high pressure.
- ❖ The boiler drum contains both steam and water, the former being trapped from the top of the drum where the highest concentration of dry steam exists.



**Figure: Water tube boiler SUPERHEATER**

### **ANDREHEATERS**

- ❖ The function of the superheater is to remove the last trace of moisture from the saturated steam leaving the boiler tubes and also to increase its temperature above the saturation temperature.
- ❖ For this purpose the heat of the combustion gases from the furnace is utilized.
- ❖ Superheated steam is that steam which contains more heat than the saturated steam at the same pressure. The additional heat provides more energy to the turbine hence

power output is more.

- ❖ Superheated steam causes lesser erosion of the turbine blades and can be transmitted for longer distance with little heat loss
- ❖ A superheater may be conventional type, radiant type or combination. However, conventional superheaters are more commonly used.



**Figure: Superheaters**

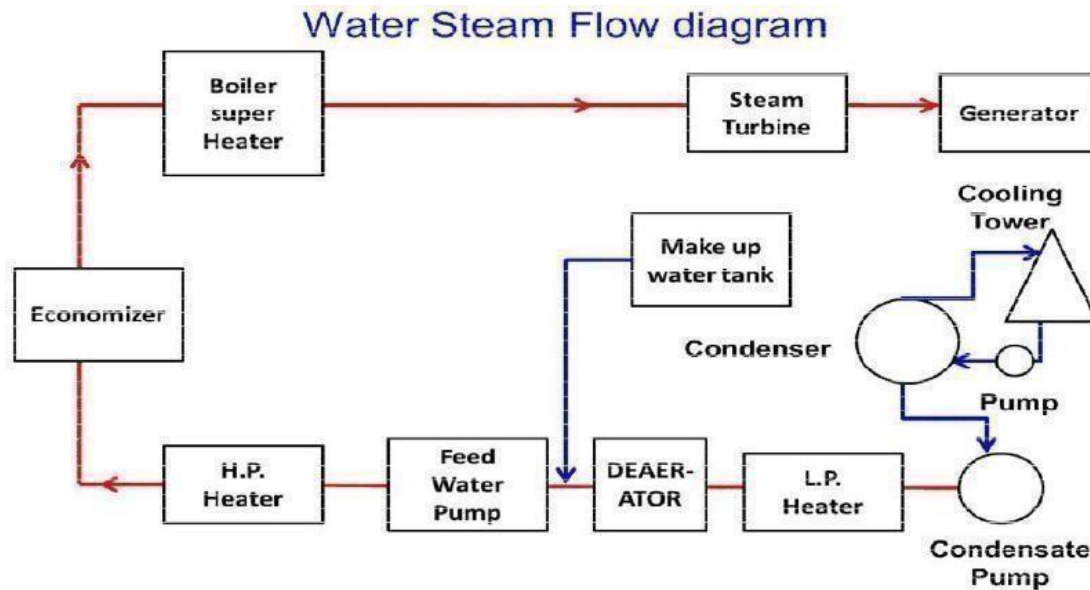
### **REHEATER**

- ❖ In addition to superheater, modern boiler has a reheater also. The function of the reheater is to superheat the partly expanded steam from the turbine, this ensures that the steam remains dry through the last stage of the turbine.
- ❖ A reheater may be conventional type, radiant type or combination.

**Feed Water Heaters:** These heaters are used to heat the feed water by means of bleed steam before it is supplied to the boiler. Necessity of heating feed water before feeding it back to the boiler arises due to the following reasons.

- ❖ Feed water heating improves overall efficiency.
- ❖ The dissolved oxygen which would otherwise cause boiler corrosion is removed in the feed water heater.
- ❖ Thermal stresses due to cold water entering the boiler drum are avoided.
- ❖ Quantity of steam produced by the boiler is increased.

- ❖ Some other impurities carried by steam and condensate, due to corrosion in boiler and condenser, are precipitated outside the boiler.



**Figure: Water steam flow diagram**

### **ECONOMIZER**

- ❖ Boilers are provided with economizer and air pre-heaters to recover heat from the flue gases. An increase of about 20% in boiler efficiency is achieved by providing both economizer and air pre-heaters.
- ❖ Economizer alone gives only 10-12% efficiency increase, causes saving in fuel consumption 5-15 %. The feed water from the high pressure heaters enters the economizer and picks up heat from the flue gases after the low temperature superheater.
- ❖ Economizer can be classified as an inline or staggered arrangement based on the type of tube arrangement.
- ❖ For pressure of  $70 \text{ Kg/cm}^2$  or more, economizer becomes a necessity.
- ❖ The tubes are arranged in parallel continuous loops.



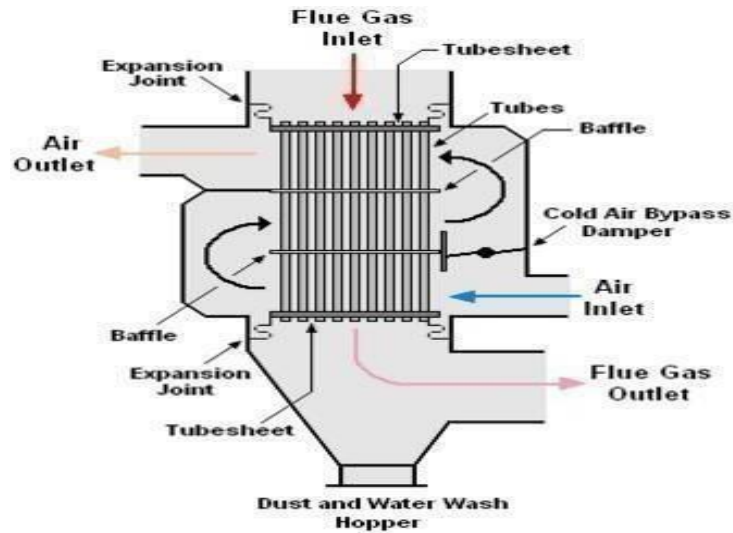
- ❖ Feedwaterflowsthroughthetubesandthefluegasesoutsidethetubesacrossthem.

The feedwater should be sufficiently pure not to cause forming of scales and cause internal corrosion and under boiler pressure.

- ❖ The temperature of the feedwater entering the economizer should be high enough so that moisture from the flue gases does not condense on the economizer tubes.

### AIR PREHEATERS

- ❖ After the flue gases leave the economizer, some further heat can be extracted from them and is used to heat the incoming air for combustion.
- ❖ Air preheaters may be of following types:
  - Plate type
  - Tubular type
  - Regenerative type
- ❖ Cooling of flue gases by  $20^{\circ}$  increases the efficiency of the plant by 1%.
- ❖ The use of air preheaters is more economical with pulverized fuel boilers because the temperature of flue gases going out is sufficiently large and high air temperatures (250 to  $350^{\circ}$  C) is always desirable for better combustion.
- ❖ Air preheaters should have high thermal efficiency, reliability of operation, less maintenance charges, should occupy small space, should be reasonable in initial cost and should be accessible.
- ❖ In order to avoid corrosion of the air preheaters, the flue gases should not be cooled below the dew point.



**Figure: Air Preheater**

## STEAM TURBINES

- ❖ Steam entering from a small opening attains a very high velocity.
- ❖ The velocity attained during expansion depends on the initial and final content of the steam.
- ❖ The difference in initial and final heat content represents the heat energy to be converted to kinetic energy.

There are two types of steam turbines:

1) Impulse turbine and 2) Reaction Turbine

### Impulse Turbine:

- In this turbine there are alternate rows of moving and fixed blades. The moving blades are mounted on the shaft and fixed blades are fixed to the casing of the turbine.
- A set of fixed nozzle is provided and steam is passed through these nozzles. The in steam due to pressure and internal energy is converted to K.E. The steam comes out of the nozzles with very high velocity and impinges on the rotor blades.
- The direction of steam flow changes without changing its pressure.
- Thus due to the change in momentum the turbine rotor starts rotating.

**Reaction Turbine:**

- Reaction turbine have no nozzles. These two have alternate rows of moving and fixed blades. The moving blades are mounted on shaft, while fixed blades are fixed in casing of turbine.
- When high pressure steam passes through fixed blades, then steam pressure drops down and velocity of steam increases.
- As steam passes over moving blades, the steam expands and imparts energy, resulting in reduction in pressure and velocity of steam.

**Note:** Turbines used in thermal power stations are Impulse, Reaction or combined.

Generally multi stage turbines are used. H.P steam after doing work in the H.P stage passes over stage. more work is extracted thereby, with consequent increase in thermal efficiency.

**Compounding of steam turbines:**

Single stage turbines are of low efficiency.

In compounding, a number of rotors are connected or keyed to the same shaft

Two types of compounding are used: velocity compounding and pressure compounding

**Governing of steam turbines:**

Governing signifies the process of controlling the volume of steam to meet the load fluctuation.



**Figure: Steam Turbines**

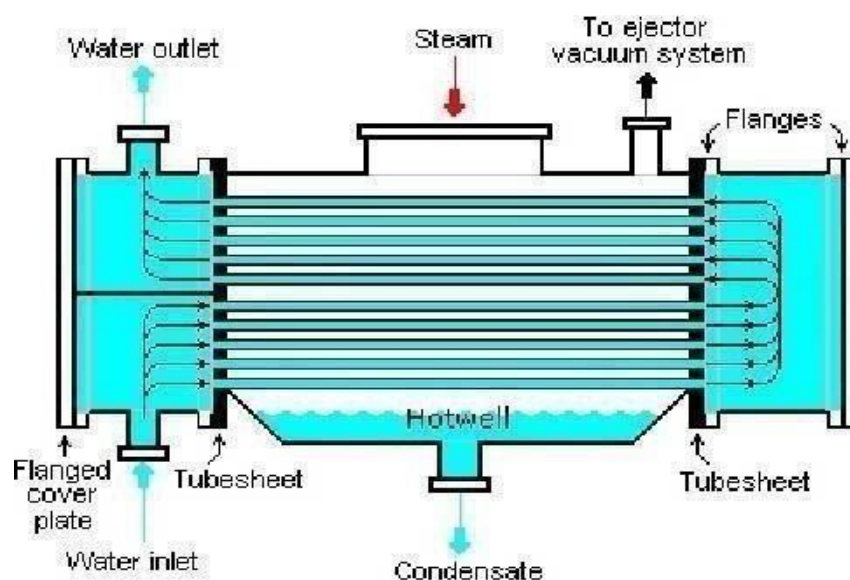
**CONDENSERS**

The function of the condenser is to condense the steam exiting the turbine. The

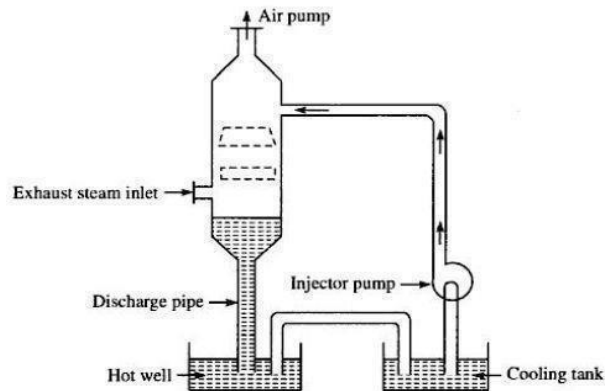
condenser helps maintain low pressure at the exhaust. Two types of condensers are used.

**Table: Jet and Surface Condensers**

Jet condenser (contact type)	Surface condenser (non-contact type)
Exhaust steam mixes with cooling water.	Steam and water do not mix.
Temperature of the condensate and cooling water is same while leaving the condenser.	Condensate temperature higher than the cooling water temperature at outlet.
Condensate cannot be recovered.	Condensate recovered is fed back to the boiler.
Heat exchanged by direct conduction	Heat transfer through convection.
Low initial cost	High initial cost.
High power required for pumping water.	Condensate is not wasted so pumping power is less.



**Figure: Surface Condenser**



## DEAERATORS

- A deaerator is a device that is widely used for the removal of oxygen and other dissolved gases from the feed water to steam-generating boilers.
- In particular, dissolved oxygen in boiler feed waters will cause serious corrosion damage in steam systems by attaching to the walls of metal piping and other metallic equipment and forming oxides (rust).
- There are two basic types of deaerators,
  1. the tray-type
  2. the spray-type
- The tray-type (also called the cascade-type) includes a vertical domed deaeration section mounted on top of a horizontal cylindrical vessel which serves as the deaerated boiler feedwater storage tank.
- The spray-type consists only of a horizontal (or vertical) cylindrical vessel which serves as both the deaeration section and the boiler feedwater storage tank.

## COOLING TOWERS AND SPRAY PONDS

- Condensers need huge quantity of water to condense the steam.
- Water is led into the plants by means of circulating water pumps and after passing through the condenser is discharged back into the river.
- If such a source is not available, a closed cooling water circuit is used where the

warm water coming out of the condenser is cooled and reused.

- In such cases ponds and cooling towers are used where the water loses heat to the atmosphere.

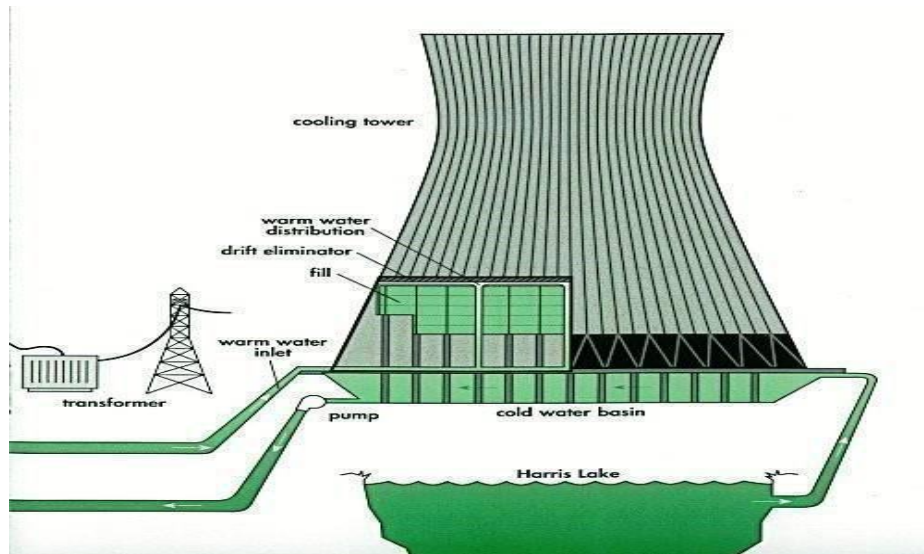
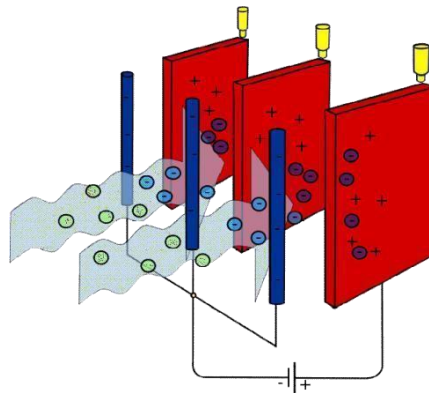


Figure: Cooling Tower ELECTROSTATI

## C PRECIPITATORS

- ❖ An electrostatic precipitator (ESP), or electrostatic air cleaner, is a particulate collection device that removes particles from a flowing gas (such as air) using the force of an induced electrostatic charge.



- ❖ the basic idea of an ESP:
- ❖ *Charging*
- ❖ *collecting*
- ❖ *removing*

- ❖ Every particle either has or can be given a charge—positive or negative.
- ❖ We impart a negative charge to all the particles in a gas stream in ESP.
- ❖ Then a grounded plate having a positive charge is set up.
- ❖ Then the negatively charged particle would migrate to the grounded collection plate and be captured.
- ❖ The particles would quickly collect on the plate, creating a dust layer. The dust layer would accumulate until we removed it.
- ❖ The structural design and operation of the discharge electrodes (rigid-frame, wires or plate) and collection electrodes.
  - ❖ tubular type ESP
  - ❖ plate type ESP
- ❖ The method of charging
  - ❖ single-stage ESP
  - ❖ two-stage ESP
- ❖ The temperature of operation
  - ❖ cold-side ESP
  - ❖ hot-side ESP
- ❖ The method of particle removal from collection surfaces
  - ❖ wet ESP
  - ❖ Dry ESP

## Ash Handling Plant

In Thermal Power Plant's coal is generally used as fuel and hence the ash is produced as the byproduct of Combustion. Ash generated in power plant is about 30-40% of total coal consumption and hence the system is required to handle Ash for its proper utilization or disposal. The steam power plant produces 5000 tons of ash daily (2000 MW)



The ash may be

- ❖ Fly Ash (Around 80% is the value of fly ash generated)
- ❖ Bottom ash (Bottom ash is 20% of the ash generated in coal based power stations).

### **Fly Ash**

Ash generated in the ESP which got carried out with the flue gas is generally called Fly ash. It also consists of Air pre heater ash & Economizer ash (it is about 2 % of the total ash content).

### **Bottom ash**

Ash generated below furnace of the steam generator is called the bottom ash.

### **The operation of ash handling plants is.....**

- ❖ Removal of ash from the furnace ash hoppers
- ❖ Transfer of the ash to a filler or storage
- ❖ and disposal of stored ash

### **The ash may be disposed in the following way.....**

- ☐ Wasteland site may be reserved for the disposal of ash.
- ☐ Building contractor may utilize it to fill the low lying area.
- ☐ Deep ponds may be made and ash can be dumped into these ponds to fill them completely
- ☐ When seaborn coal is used, barrages may take the ash to sea for disposal into water grave.

### **The modern ash handling systems usually used in large steam power plants are.....**

- ☐ Belt conveyor system
- ☐ Pneumatic system
- ☐ Hydraulic system
- ☐ Steam jet system

### **Belt conveyor system**

- ☐ In this system the ash is made to flow through a water seal over the belt conveyor in order to cool it down and then carried out to a dumping site over the belt.
- ☐ It can deliver 3 tonnes of ash per hour with a speed of 0.3m/minute.

- ☐ The life of belt is 5 years. It is used in small power plant.

### Pneumatics system

- ☐ In this system air is employed as a medium to drive the ash through a pipe over a long distance.
- ☐ This system can handle 5-30 tonnes of ash per hour.
- ☐ This is used for disposal of fly ash.

### Hydraulics system

- ☐ In this system a stream of water carries ash along with it in a closed channel and disposes it off to the proper site.
- ☐ It is of two types: high pressure system and low pressure system.

### Steam jets system

- ☐ This system employs jets of high pressure blowing in the direction of ash travel through a conveying pipe in which ash from the boiler ash hopper is fed.
- ☐ It is employed in small and medium size plants.
- ☐ Steam consumption is 110 kg per tonne of material conveyed.

## NUCLEAR POWER STATION

### Basics

- Atoms consist of nucleus and electrons.
- The nucleus is composed of protons and neutrons.
- Protons are positively charged whereas neutrons are electrically neutral.
- Atoms with nuclei having the same number of protons but difference in their masses are called isotopes. They are identical in terms of their chemical properties but differ with respect to nuclear properties.
- Natural Uranium consists of  ${}_{92}\text{U}^{238}$  (99.282%),  ${}_{92}\text{U}^{235}$  (0.712%) and  ${}_{92}\text{U}^{234}$ .
- ${}_{92}\text{U}^{235}$  is used as fuel in nuclear power plants.

### Energy from Nuclear Reactions

- The sum of masses of protons and neutrons exceeds the mass of the atomic nucleus.

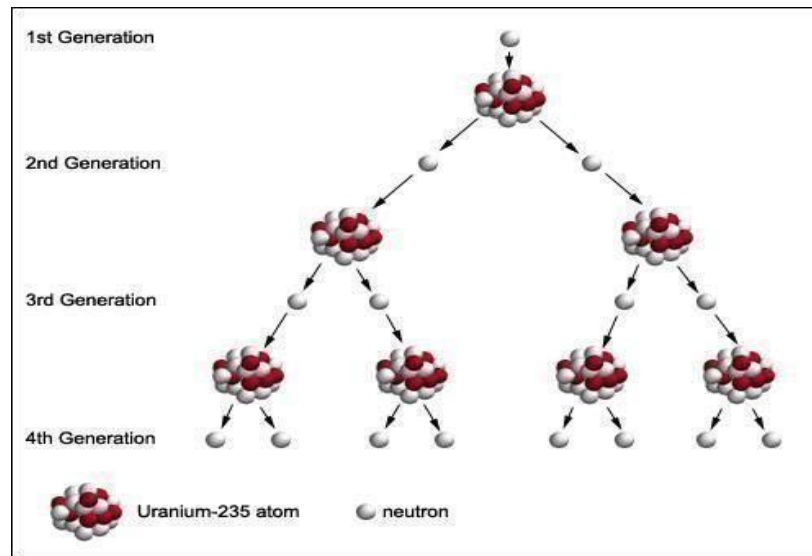
and this difference is called mass defect  $\Delta m$ .

- In a nuclear reaction the mass defect is converted into energy known as binding energy according to Einstein's equation ( $E = \Delta m c^2$ ).
- Fissioning of one atom of mass results in release of 931 MeV of energy.
- It has been found that elements having higher and lower mass numbers are unstable. Thus the lower mass numbers can be fused or the higher mass numbers can be fissioned to produce more stable elements.
- This results in two types of nuclear reactions known as fusion and fission.
- The total energy per fission reaction of  $U^{235}$  is about 200 MeV.
- Fuel burn-up rate is the amount of energy in MW/days produced by each metric ton of fuel.

### Nuclear Fission

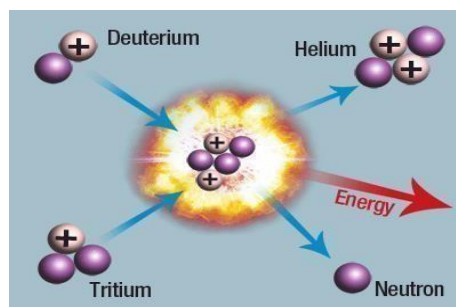
Nuclear fission is the reaction by which a heavy nucleus (that is one with a high value of  $Z$ ) is hit with a small particle, as a result of which it splits into two (occasionally more) smaller nuclei.

Before the reaction		After the reaction	
${}^1_0n$	1.008665	${}^{140}_{54}Xe$	139.9216
${}^{235}_{92}U$	235.0439	${}^{94}_{38}Sr$	93.9154
		$2 {}^1_0n$	2.0173
Total mass	236.0526	Total mass	235.8543



## NuclearFusion

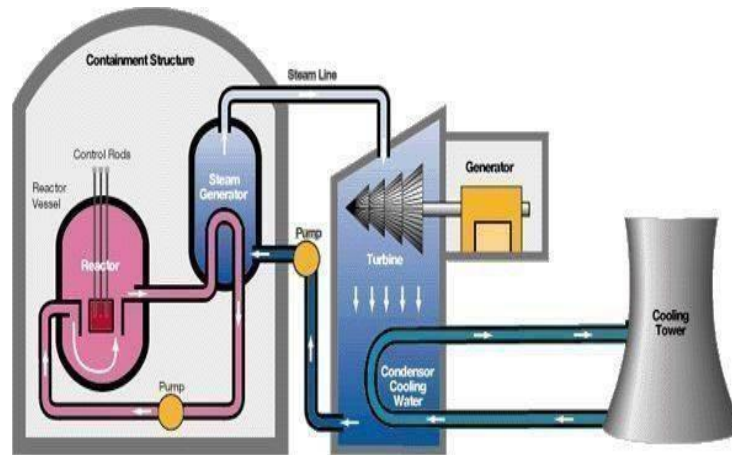
Fusion is the opposite of fission, it is the joining together of two light nuclei to form a heavier one (plus a small fragment). For example, if two  $^2\text{H}$  nuclei (two deuterons) can be made to come together they can form He and a neutron.



## NuclearFusion

## NuclearPowerPlant

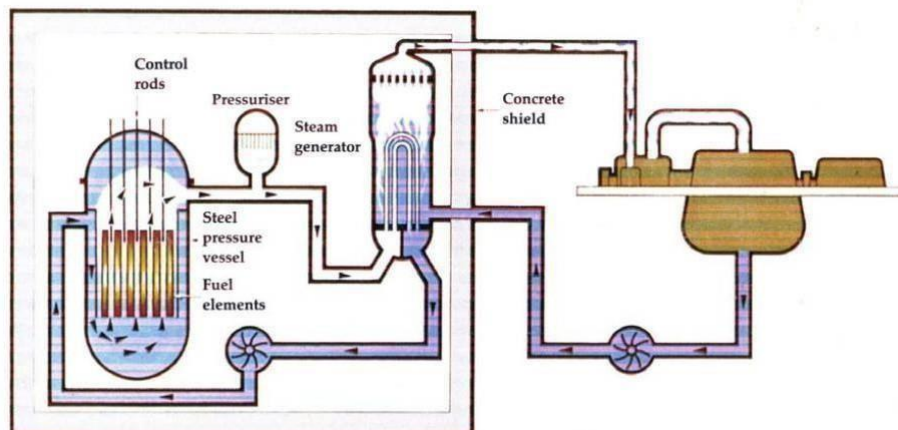
- A nuclear power plant is a thermal power station in which the heat source is one or more nuclear reactors. As in a conventional thermal power station, the heat is used to generate steam which drives a steam turbine connected to a generator which produces electricity.



Schematic of a Nuclear Power Plant

### Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR)

- The most widely used reactor type in the world is the Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR) which uses enriched (about 3.2%  $^{235}\text{U}$ ) uranium dioxide as a fuel in zirconium alloy cans.
- The fuel, which is arranged in arrays of fuel "pins" and interspersed with the movable control rods, is held in a steel vessel through which water at high pressure (to suppress boiling) is pumped to act as both a coolant and a moderator.
- The high-pressure water is then passed through a steam generator, which raises steam in the usual way.

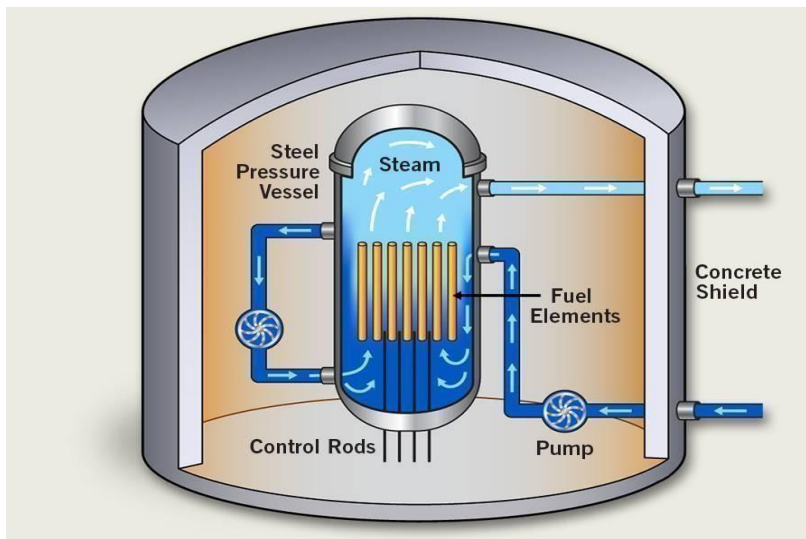


Pressurized Water Reactor

### BoilingWaterReactors(BWR)

- The second type of water cooled and moderated reactor does away with the steam generator and, by allowing the water within the reactor circuit to boil, it raises steam directly for electrical power generation. Such reactors, known as Boiling Water Reactors (BWRs), are used throughout the world.

BoilingWaterReactor



- This, however, leads to some radioactive contamination of the steam circuit and turbine, which then requires shielding of these components in addition to that surrounding the reactor.

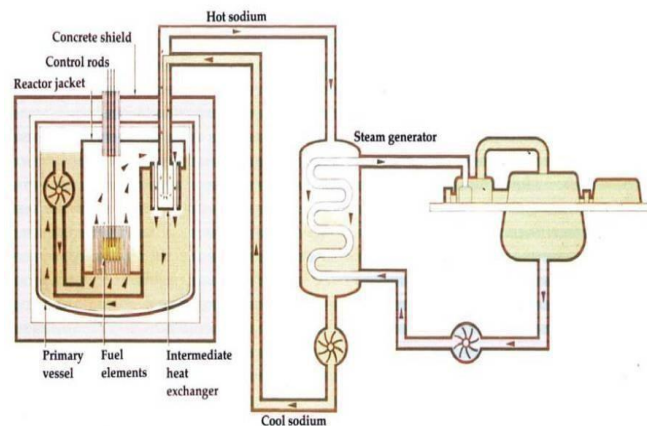
### FastBreederReactors

- All of today's commercially successful reactor systems are "thermal" reactors, using slow or thermal neutrons to maintain the fission chain reaction in the  $U^{235}$  fuel. Even with the enrichment levels used in the fuel for such reactors, however, by far the largest numbers of atoms present are  $U^{238}$ , which are not fissile.
- Consequently, when these atoms absorb an extra neutron, their nuclei do not split but are converted into another element, Plutonium. Plutonium is fissile and some of it is consumed in situ, while some remains in the spent fuel together with unused  $U^{235}$ . These fissile components can be separated from the fission

product wastes and recycled to reduce the consumption of uranium in thermal reactors by up to 40%, although clearly thermal reactors still require a substantial net feed of natural uranium.

It is possible, however, to design a reactor which overall produces more fissile material in the form of Plutonium than it consumes. This is the fast reactor in which the neutrons are unmoderated, hence the term "fast".

- The physics of this type of reactor dictates a core with a high fissile concentration, typically around 20%, and made of Plutonium. In order to make it breed, the active core is surrounded by material (largely U238) left over from the thermal reactor enrichment process. This material is referred to as fertile, because it converts to fissile material when irradiated during operation of the reactor.
- The successful development of fast reactors has considerable appeal in principle. This is because they have the potential to increase the energy available from a given quantity of uranium by a factor of fifty or more, and can utilize the existing stocks of depleted uranium, which would otherwise have no value.



**Fast Breeder Reactors**

### Factors for Site Selection of NPPs

1. Availability of Water: working fluid
2. Distance from Populated Area: danger of radioactivity
3. Nearness to the load centre: reduction in transmission cost
4. Disposal of Waste: radioactive waste

5. Accessibility by Rail and Road: transport of heavy equipment

### Advantages of NPPs

1. Reduces demand for fossil fuels
2. Quantity of nuclear fuel is much less: thus reducing transport and resulting costs
3. Area of land required is less: compared to a conventional plant of similar capacity
4. Production of fissile material
5. Location independent of geographical factors: except water requirement

### Disadvantages of NPPs

1. Not available for variable loads (load factor - 0.8): as the reactors cannot be controlled to respond quickly
2. Economical reasons should be substantial
3. Risk of leakage of radioactive material
4. Further investigation on life cycle assessment and reliability needs to be done
5. Perception problems

### Comparison of PWR and BWR

PWR	BWR
Advantages	Advantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relatively compact in size</li> <li>• Possibility of breeding plutonium by providing a blanket of U-238</li> <li>• High power density</li> <li>• Containment of fission products due to heat exchanger</li> <li>• Inexpensive 'light water' can be used as moderator, coolant and reflector</li> <li>• Positive power demand coefficient i.e. the reactor responds to load increase</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Elimination of heat exchanger circuit results in reduction in cost and gain in thermal efficiency (to about 30%)</li> <li>• Pressure inside in the reactor vessel is considerably lower resulting in lighter and less costly design</li> <li>• BWR cycle is more efficient than PWR as the outlet temperature of steam is much higher</li> <li>• Metal surface temperature is lower since boiling of water is inside the reactor</li> <li>• BWR is more stable than PWR and hence is commonly known as a self-controlled reactor</li> </ul>

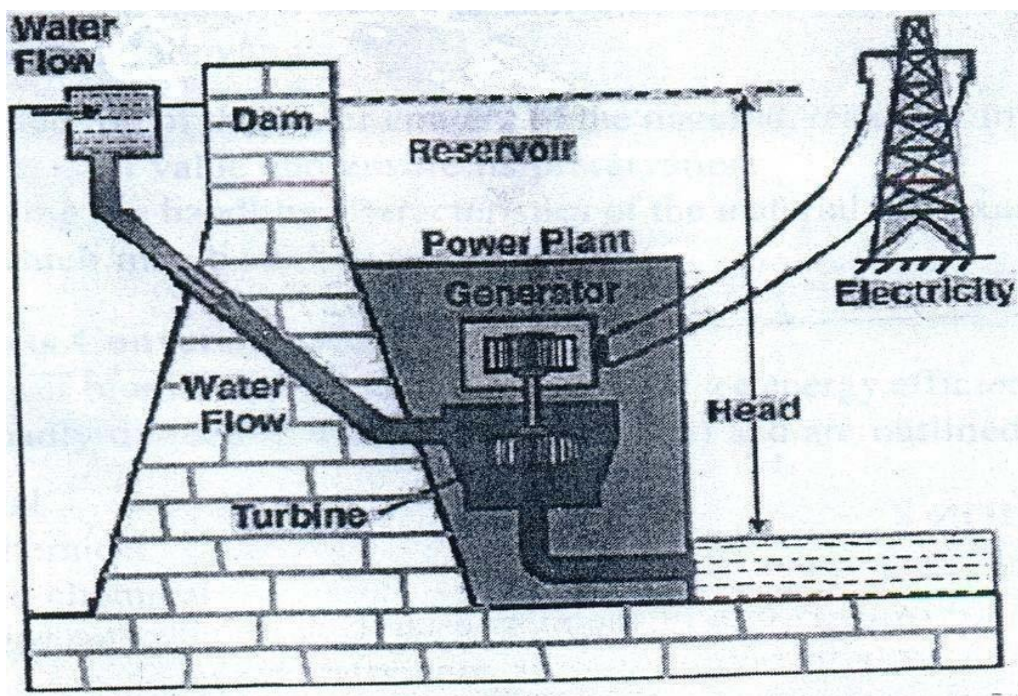


Disadvantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Moderator remains under high pressure and hence a strong pressure vessel is required</li><li>• Expensive cladding material is required to prevent corrosion</li><li>• Heat loss occurs due to heat exchanger</li><li>• Elaborate safety devices are required</li><li>• Lacks flexibility i.e. the reactor needs to be shut down for recharging and there is difficulty in fuel element</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Possibility of radio-active contamination in the turbine mechanism</li><li>• Wastage of steam may result in lowering of thermal efficiency on part load operation</li><li>• Power density of BWR is nearly half that of PWR resulting in large size vessel</li><li>• Possibility of burn-out of fuel as more as water boiling is on the surface of fuel.</li><li>• BWR cannot meet a sudden increase in load</li></ul>

## HYDROELECTRICPOWERSTATION&HYDRAULICTURBINESHYDROPOWER:

Hydro-energy is known as a traditional renewable energy source. It is based on natural circulating water flow and its drop from high to lower land surface that constitutes the potential. In order to convert this potential to applicable electric energy, water flow should be led to and drive a hydraulic turbine, transforming hydro energy into mechanical energy, the latter again drives a connected generator transforming the mechanical energy into electric energy. As hydro energy exploitation and its utilization are completed at the same time. I.e. the exploitation of first energy source and the conversion of secondary energy source occur simultaneously, unlike the coal power generation which should have two orders; first order is exploitation of fuel, second order is generation, so hydro power has head advantages over thermal power generation.

Mankind has used the energy of falling water for many centuries, at first in mechanical form and since the late 19<sup>th</sup> century by further conversion to electrical energy. Historically, hydropower was developed on a small scale to serve localities in the vicinity of the plants. With the expansion and increasing load transfer capability of transmission networks, power generation was concentrated in increasingly larger units and to benefit from the economies resulting from development on a larger scale.



**General Layout of a dam-based hydroelectric plant**

Sites selected for development tended to be the most economically attractive; in this regard, higher heads and proximity to load centers were significant factors. For this reason, development was not restricted to large sites, and hydro stations today range from less than 1 MWe capacity to more than 10,000 MWe. The efficiency of hydroelectric generation is more than twice that of competing thermal power stations.

## TYPES OF PROJECT

Capacity, unit size and selection of equipment, their characteristics and specifications for design of hydropower station depend upon type of hydroelectric development and classification with respect to head and size. There are three main types of hydropower schemes that can be categorized in terms of how the flow at a given site is controlled or modified. These are:

Run-of-river plants (no active storage); and

Plants with significant storage

Pumped storage

In a run-of-river project, the natural flow of the river is relatively uncontrolled. In a storage project, the filling and emptying of the impounded storage along with the pattern of the natural stream flow controls the flow in the river downstream from the storage impoundment.

Run-of-river plants can be located at the downstream end of a canal fall, open flume, or pipeline diverting the stream's flow around a water supply dam or falls. The available flow governs the capacity of the plant. The plant has little or no ability to operate at flow rates higher than that available at the moment.

In a conventional plant, a dam, which stores water in a reservoir or lake impoundment, controls the river flows. Water is released according to electric, irrigation, water supply, or flood control needs. Constructing a dam and storage reservoir can increase the percentage of time that a project can produce a given level of power. Base load plants- those operated at relatively constant output- may have either a small capacity relative to the river flow or may have a significant storage reservoir. Storage reservoirs can be sized for storing water during wet years or wet seasons. Alternatively, they can be sized to provide water for weekly or daily peak generation. A storage reservoir allows using available energy that might otherwise be wasted as spill.

Plants with storage at both head and tail race are pumped storage projects.

## Run of the River Schemes or Diversion Schemes

This type of development aims at utilizing the instantaneous discharge of the stream. So the discharge remains restricted to day to day natural yield from the catchments; characteristics of which will depend on the hydrological features. Diurnal storage is sometimes provided for optimum benefits. Development of a river in several steps where tail race discharges from head race inflows for downstream power plants forms an interesting variation of this case and may require sometimes special control measures.

Small scale power generation also generally falls in the category and may have special control requirements especially if the power is fed into a large grid.

## Storage Schemes

In such schemes annual yield from the catchment is stored in full or partially and then released according to some plan for utilization of storage. Storage may be for single purpose such as power development or may be for multi purpose use which may include irrigation, flood control, etc. therefore, design of storage works and releases from the reservoir will be governed by the intended uses of the stored water. If the scheme is only for power development, then the best use of the water will be by releasing according to the power demand. Schemes with limited storage may be designed as peaking units. If the water project forms a part of the large grid, then the storage is utilized for meeting the peak demands. Such stations could be usefully assigned with the duty of frequency regulation of the system.

## Pump Storage Scheme

### Principle

The basic principle of pumped storage is to convert the surplus electrical energy available in a system in off-peak periods, to hydraulic potential energy, in order to generate power in periods when the peak demand on the system exceeds the total available capacity of the generating stations.

By using the surplus scheme electrical energy available in the network during low-demand periods, water is pumped from a lower pond to an upper pond. In periods of peak demand, the power station is operated in the generating mode i.e. water from the upper pond is drawn through the same water conduit system to the turbine for generating power.

There are two main types of pumped storage plants:

Pumped-storage plants and

Mixed pumped-storage plants.

**Pump-storage plants:** In this type only pumped storage operation is envisaged without any scope for conventional generation of power. These are provided in places where the run-off is poor. Further, they are designed only for operation on a day-to-day basis without room for flexibility in operation.

### Mixed pumped-

**storage plants:** In this type, in addition to the pumped storage operation, some amount of extra energy can be generated by utilizing the additional natural run-off during a year. These can be designed for operation on a weekly cycle or other form of a longer period by providing for additional storage and afford some amount of flexibility in operation.

## CLASSIFICATION OF HYDROPOWER PLANTS

As such there are no hard and fast rules to classify Hydropower plants. Some of the basis is as follows:

Based on Hydraulic Characteristics

Based on Head

Based on Capacity

Based on Turbine Characteristics

Based on Load Characteristics

Based on Interconnection

**Hydropower Project based on Hydraulic Characteristics:**

Runoff river plant (Diversion plant)

Storage plant (Impoundment plant) Pumped storage plant

Tidal plant

**Runoff River Plant (Diversion Plant)**

In some areas of the world, the flow rate and elevation drop of the water are

consistent enough that hydro electric plants can be built directly in the river.

The water is utilized as it comes in the river.

Practically, water is not stored during flood periods as well as during low electricity demand periods, hence water is wasted.

Runoff river plant may be without pondage or with pondage.

The plants with pondage are provided with a barrage to store the water, to take care of daily variation.

During good flow conditions—can supply base load and during low flow conditions—can supply peak load

Seasonal changes in river flow and weather conditions affect the plant's output; hence it is in limited use unless interconnected with grid.

Flows that occur in the stream at the intake and flows downstream of the powerhouse are virtually identical to pre-development flows.

Run-of-river facilities use low dams to provide limited storage of water—at most daily pondage.

In a run-of-river SHP scheme, through diversion structure water is diverted to water conductor system to the powerhouse.

Water impounded in a dam for storage and released in a phased manner to generate power and further used for irrigation is shown in (figure 1.5.1).

**Site Selection for Hydropower Plants**

- **Availability of Water:** Run-off data for many years available
- **Water Storage:** for water availability throughout the year
- **Head of Water:** most economic head, possibility of constructing a dam to get required head
- **Geological Investigations:** strong foundation, earthquake frequency is less
- **Water Pollution:** excessive corrosion and damage to metallic structures
- **Sedimentation:** capacity reduces due to gradual deposition of silt
- **Social and Environmental Effects:** submergence of areas, effect on biodiversity (e.g. western ghat), cultural and historic aspects
- **Access to Site:** for transportation of construction material and heavy machinery new railway lines or roads may be needed
- **Multipurpose:** power generation, irrigation, flood control, navigation, recreation; because initial cost of power plant is high because of civil engineering construction work

**Classification of Hydropower Plants**

According to water flow regulation:

1. Runoff river plants without pondage
2. Runoff river plants with pondage
3. Hydroelectric plants with storage reservoir

According to Load:

1. Base load plants
2. Peak load plants
3. Pumped storage plants

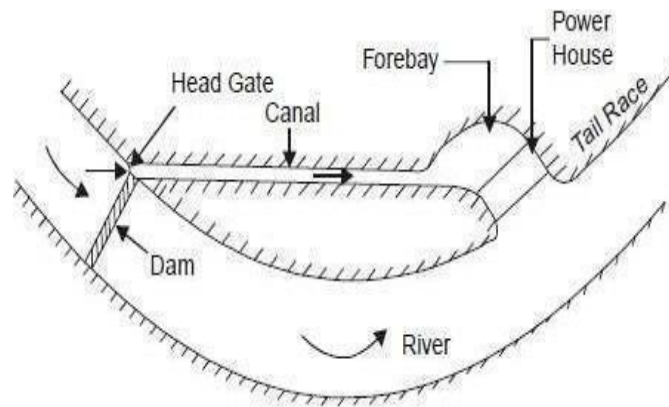
According to head:

1. High head plants (>100m)
2. Medium head plants (30-100m)
3. Low head plants (<30m)

**Low head plant**

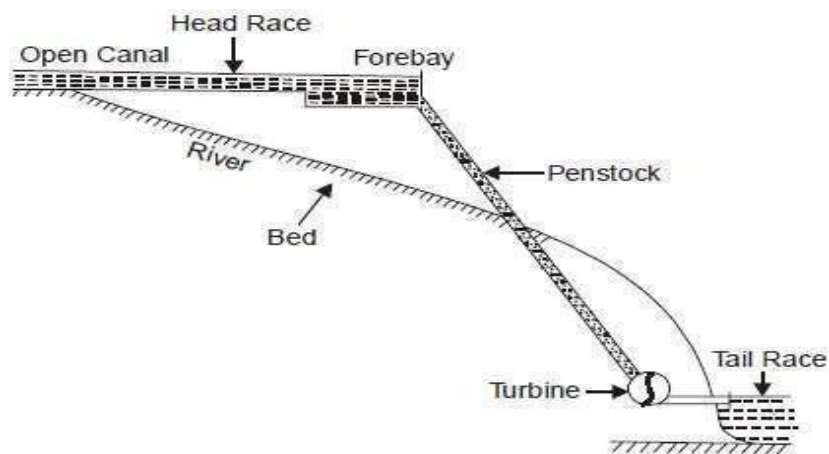
- Operating head is less than 15m.
- Vertical shaft Francis turbine or Kaplan turbine.
- Small dam is required.





### Medium head plant

- Operating head is less than 15 to 50m.
- Francis turbines.
- Forebay is provided at the beginning of the penstock.



### High head plant

- Operating head exceeds 50m.
- Pelton turbines.
- Surge tank is attached to the penstock to reduce water hammer effect on the penstock.

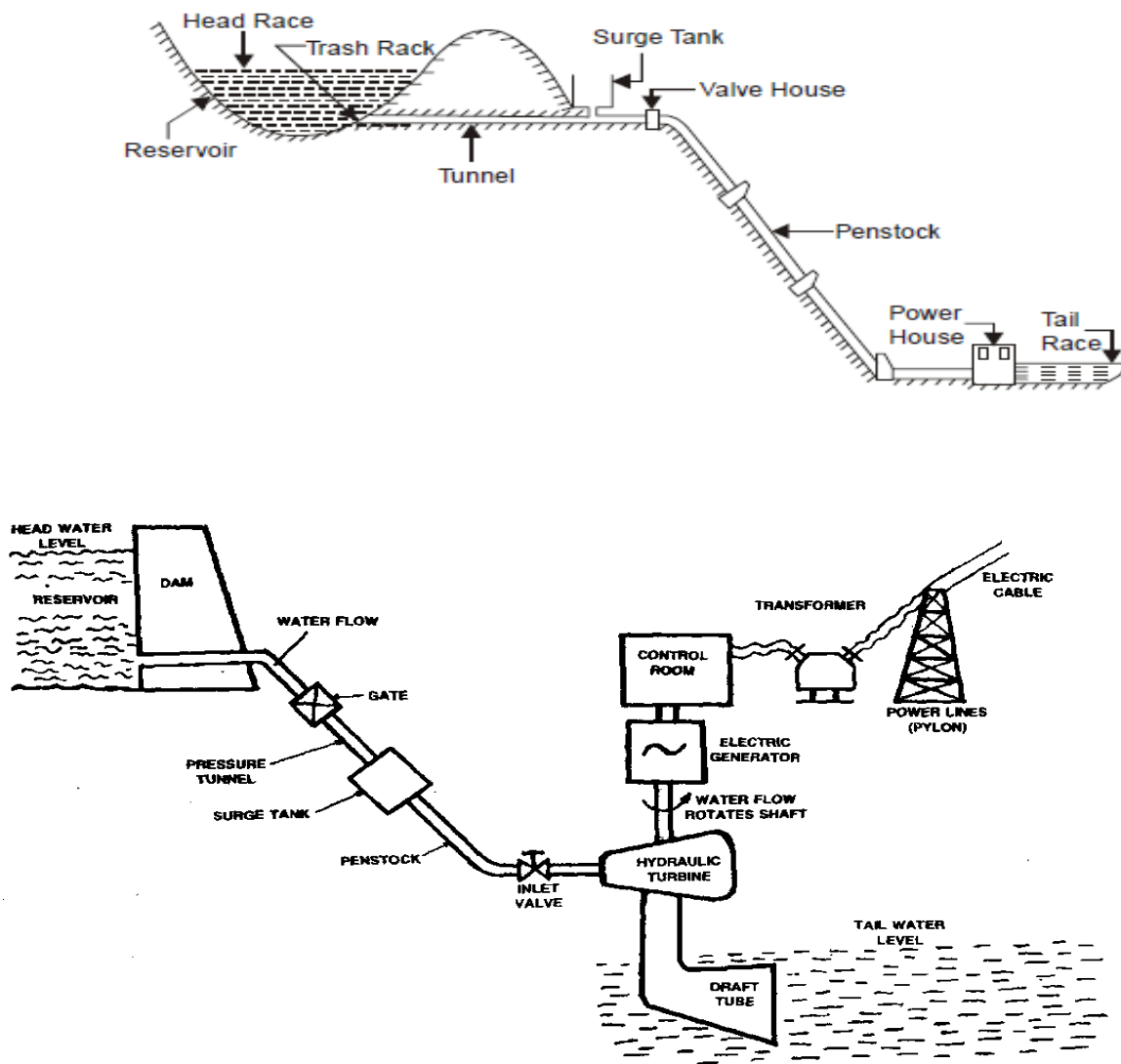


FIG. 3.6: LAYOUT OF HYDRO-ELECTRIC POWER PLANT

### Components of a HPP

#### Schematic of a Hydropower Plant

The various components of HPP are as follows:

1. Catchment area
2. Reservoir
3. Dam
4. Spillways
5. Conduits
6. Surge tanks



7. Draft tubes
8. Powerhouse
9. Switchyard for power evacuation

**Dam**

- Develops a reservoir to store water
- Builds up head for power generation

**Spillway**

- To safeguard the dam when water level in the reservoir rises

**Intake**

- Contains trash racks to filter out debris which may damage the turbine

**Forebay**

- Enlarged body of water just above the intake

**Forebay Conduits**

- Head race is a channel which leads the water to the turbine
- Tail race is a channel which carries water from the turbine
- A canal is an open waterway excavated in natural ground following its contour.
- A flume is an open channel erected on a surface above ground.
- A tunnel is a closed channel excavated through an obstruction.
- A pipeline is a closed conduit supported on the ground.
- **Penstocks** are closed conduits for supplying water “under pressure” from head pond to the turbines.

**Surge Tank**

- A surge tank is a small reservoir in which the water level rises or falls to reduce the pressure swings so that they are not transmitted to the penstock.
- Water Hammer
  - Load on the turbine is suddenly reduced
  - Governor closes turbine gates
  - Sudden increase of pressure in the penstock
- Negative Pressure
  - Load on the generator is suddenly increased
  - Governor opens the turbine gates
  - Tends to cause a vacuum in the penstock
- When the gates are closed, water level rises in the surge tank and when the gates are suddenly opened, surge tank provides the initial water supply.

**Surge Tank Draft Tubes**

The function of the draft tube is to

- To reduce the velocity head losses of the water
- To allow the turbine to be set above the tail race to facilitate inspection and maintenance

**Tail race:**

- A tail race is required to discharge the water leaving the turbine into the river.
- The design of the tail race should be such that water has a free exit.

**Power House**

1. Hydraulic turbines
2. Electric generators
3. Governors
4. Gate valves
5. Relief valves
6. Water circulation pumps
7. Air ducts
8. Switchboard and instruments
9. Storage batteries
10. Cranes

**Switchyard**

1. Step up transformers
2. Instrument transformers
3. Transmission lines

**Advantages of hydropower plant:**

- Water is a renewable energy source.
- Maintenance and operation charges are very low.
- The efficiency of the plant does not change with age.
- In addition to power generation, hydro-electric power plants are also useful for flood control, irrigation purposes, fishery and recreation.
- Have a longer life (100 to 125 years) as they operate at atmospheric temperature.
- Water stored in the hydro-electric power plants can also be used for domestic water supply.
- Since hydro-electric power plants run at low speeds (300 to 400 rpm) there is no requirement of special alloy steel construction materials or specialised mechanical maintenance.

**Disadvantages of hydropower plant:**

- The initial cost of the plant is very high.
- Since they are located far away from the load centre, cost of transmission lines and transmission losses will be more.
- During drought season the power production may be reduced or even stopped due to insufficient water in the reservoir.
- Water in the reservoir is lost by evaporation.

**PUMP STORAGE SCHEME****Principle**

The basic principle of pumped storage is to convert the surplus electrical energy available in a system in off-peak periods, to hydraulic potential energy, in order to generate power in periods when the peak demand on the system exceeds the total available capacity of the generating stations.

By using the surplus scheme electrical energy available in the network during low-demand periods, water is pumped from a lower pond to an upper pond. In periods of peak demand, the power station is operated in the generating mode i.e. water from the upper pond is drawn through the same water conduit system to the turbine for generating power.

There are two main types of pumped storage plants:

Pumped-storage plants and

Mixed pumped-storage plants.

**Pump-storage plants:** In this type only pumped storage operation is envisaged without any scope for conventional generation of power. These are provided in places where the run-off is poor. Further, they are designed only for operation on a day-to-day basis without room for flexibility in operation.

**Mixed pumped-storage plants:** In this type, in addition to the pumped storage operation, some amount of extra energy can be generated by utilizing the additional natural run-off during a year. These can be designed for operation on a weekly cycle or other form of a longer period by providing for additional storage and afford some amount of flexibility in operation.

### **Pumped Storage Plant**

Water is utilized for generation of power during peak demand, while some water is pumped back in the reservoir during off-peak demand period, when excess power is available for this purpose.

If turbine is reversible, it can be used as a pump to supply water back to reservoir, otherwise separate pump can be used.

Based on operating cycle it can be classified as:

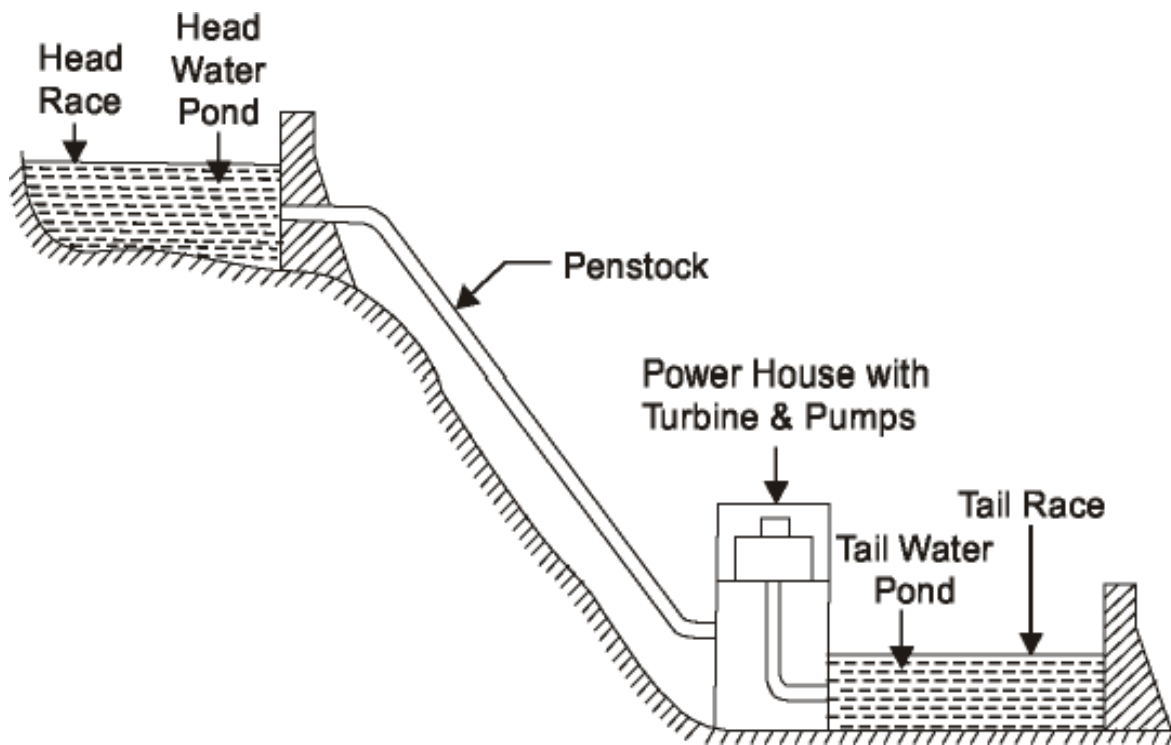
**Plant with a daily cycle:** water is pumped up from midnight to early morning as well as near lunch time.

**Plant with a weekly cycle:** water is pumped up during weekend.

**Plant with a seasonal cycle:** water is pumped up in the winter continuously for several days to be utilized for a continuous power generation in the high demand summer period.

### **PUMPED STORAGE POWER PLANTS**

These plants supply the peak load for the base load power plants and pump all or a portion of their own water supply. The usual construction would be a tail water pond and a head water pond connected through a penstock. The generating pumping plant is at the lower end. During off-peak hours, some of the surplus electric energy being generated by the base load plant is utilized to pump the water from tail water pond into the head water pond and this energy will be stored there. During times of peak load, this energy will be released by allowing the water to flow from the head water pond through the water turbine of the pumped storage plant. These plants can be used with hydro, steam and i.e. engine plants. This plant is nothing but a hydraulic accumulator system and is shown. These plants can have either vertical shaft arrangement or horizontal shaft arrangement. In the older plants, there were separate motor driven pumps and turbine driven generators. The improvement was the pump and turbine on the same shaft with the electrical element acting as either generator or motor. The latest design is to use a Francis turbine which is just the reverse of a centrifugal pump. When the water flows through it from the head water pond it will act as a turbine and rotate the generator. When rotated in the reverse direction by means of an electric motor, it will act as a pump to shunt the water from the tail water pond to the head water pond.



**Pumped Storage Plant**

### Power Estimation

The potential electric power of the water in terms of flow and head can be calculated from the following equation.

$$KW = 9.81 \times Q \times H \times \eta$$

Where,

$kW$  = electric power in  $kW$

$Q$  = quantity of water flowing through the hydraulic turbine in cubic meters per second. Discharge (quantity of water) flowing in a stream and available for power generation has daily and seasonal variation. Optimum discharge for power generation is determined on the basis of energy generation cost.

$H$  = Net available head in meters (gross head – losses)

$\eta$  = overall efficiency of the hydropower plant. For general estimation purposes,  $\eta$  is normally taken as 0.85

### Hydrology

- First requirement—Q(discharge)
- Hydrology deals with occurrence and distribution of water over and under earth's surface.
  - Surface Water Hydrology
  - Ground Water Hydrology
- **Watershed, catchment area or drainage area:** length of the river, size and shape of the area it affects, tributaries, lakes, reservoirs etc.
- Investigation of **run-off** for past few years is required for power potential studies of a HPP.

### Objectives of Hydrology

- To obtain data regarding the stream flow of water that would be available,
- To predict the yearly possible flow
- To calculate the mean annual rainfall in the area under consideration from a record of the annual rainfall for a number of years, say 25 to 30
- To note the frequency of dry years
- To find maximum rainfall and flood frequency

### VarioustermsrelatedtoHydrology

- Rainfall is also known as precipitation and can be measured by rain gauges.
  - Some part of precipitation is lost due to evaporation, interception and transpiration.
  - **Transpiration:** Plants absorbing moisture and giving it off to the atmosphere
  - Stream flow = precipitation – losses
  - Stream flow = surface flow + percolation to ground
  - Surface flow is also known as **run-off**.
  - **Hydrograph:**
    - Shows the variation of stream flow in  $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$  with time for a particular river site. The time may be hour, week, month or a year.
    - The area under hydrograph gives the total volume of flow
  - **Flow duration curve:**
    - Shows the percentage of time during the period when the flow was equal to or greater than the given flow.
    - The area under FDC gives the total quantity of run-off during a period
  - **Mass curve**
    - Indicates the total volume of run-off in cubic meters up to a certain time.
    - The slope of the curve at any point shows the rate of flow at that time
    - Used for estimating the capacity of storage reservoir
  - **Storage:**
    - To ensure water availability during deficient flow and thus increasing the firm capacity
-

- Storage also results in more energy production
- **Pondage:**
  - Storing water in small ponds near the power plant as the storage reservoir is away from plant
  - To meet the power demand fluctuation over a short period of time e.g. 24 hours
- **Primary Power:** power that will be available 90% of the time
- **Secondary Power:** power that will be available 75% of the time
- **Dump Power:** power that will be available 50% of the time.
- **Maximum flow estimation:** gives estimation of floods and helps in design of dam and spillway.

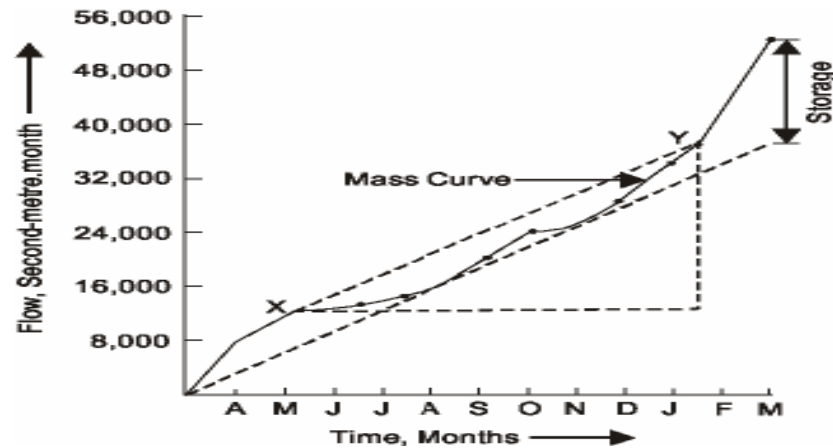
### **HYDROGRAPH & FLOW DURATION CURVE:-**

- A hydrograph indicates the variation of discharge or flow with time. It is plotted with flows as ordinates and time intervals as abscissas. The flow is in  $\text{m}^3/\text{sec}$  and the time may be in hours, days, weeks or months.
- A flow duration curve shows the relation between flows and lengths of time during which they are available. The flows are plotted as the ordinates and lengths of time as abscissas. The flow duration curve can be plotted from a hydrograph.

### **THE MASS CURVE:-**

The use of the mass curve is to compute the capacity of the reservoir for a hydro site. The mass curve indicates the total volume of run-off in second meter-months or other convenient units, during a given period. The mass curve is obtained by plotting cumulative volume of flow as ordinate and time (days, weeks by months) as abscissa. Fig. 11.2 shows a mass curve for a typical river for which flow data is given in Table 11.2. The monthly flow is only the mean flow and is correct only at the beginning and end of the months. The variation of flow during each month is not considered. Cumulative daily flows, instead of monthly flows, will give a more accurate mass curve, but this involves an excessive amount of work. The slope of the curve at any point gives the flow rate in second-meter. Let us join two points X and Y on the curve. The slope of this line gives the average rate of flow during the period between X and Y. This will be  $= (\text{Flow at Y} - \text{Flow at X}) / \text{Time Span}$ . Let the flow demand be, 3000 sec-meter. Then the line X-Y may be called as 'demand line' or 'Useline'. If during a particular period, the slope of the mass curve is greater than that of the demand line, it means more water is flowing into the reservoir than is being utilized, so the level of water in the reservoir will be increasing during that period and vice versa. Up to point X and beyond point Y the reservoir will be overflowing. Being full at both X and Y.

The capacity of the reservoir is given by the maximum ordinate between the mass curve and the demand line. For the portion of mass curve between point X and Y, the storage capacity is about 4600 sec-meter-month. However, considering the entire mass curve, storage capacity will be about 15,400 sec-meter-months.





## UNIT II

### ECONOMICSOFPowerGENERATION

## ECONOMICASPECTSOFPowerGENERATION

### TOPICS

Load curve, load duration curve, integrated load duration curve, mass curve, number and size of generator units, demand factor, Diversity factor, Plant capacity factor, utilization factor, cost of Generation and their division into fixed, semi fixed and running cost.

Tariff Methods: objectives of Tariff, Tariff methods.

### ECONOMICASPECTSOFPowerGENERATION

The capacity of power station mainly depends on **load demand**. The load on the power station **is not constant**, but varies from time to time. Before fixing the size and number of units generated in a power station, it is necessary to study the technical and economic feasibility of the power station.

- **Nature of load.**
- **Future load conditions.**
- **Location of load.**
- **Reliability of supply.**
- **Reserve capacity.**
- **Minimum capital and operating (Running) cost.**

### TYPES OF LOADS

**A device which taps electrical energy from the electrical power system is called a load on the system.**

The load can be resistive (eg. Electric lamp), Inductive (e.g. Induction motor), Capacitive or some combination of them.

- **Domestic load**
- **Commercial load**
- **Industrial load**
- **Municipal load**
- **Irrigation load**
- **Traction load**

## **LOADCURVE**

The curves showing the variations of Load on the Power station with respect to time is known as a “load curve”.

- ❖ The load on the power station is not constant, but varying time to time. The curve obtained by plotting Time in hours (day, month or year) on X-axis and Load (kW or MW) on Y-axis is known as load curve.
- ❖ If the daily variations in load on the power station is drawn, such a curve is known as daily load curve.
- ❖ From the daily load curves of a particular month, the monthly load curve can be obtained by calculating the average values of power at a particular hour on each day.
- ❖ The yearly/annual load curve can be obtained by considering all monthly load curves of a particular year.

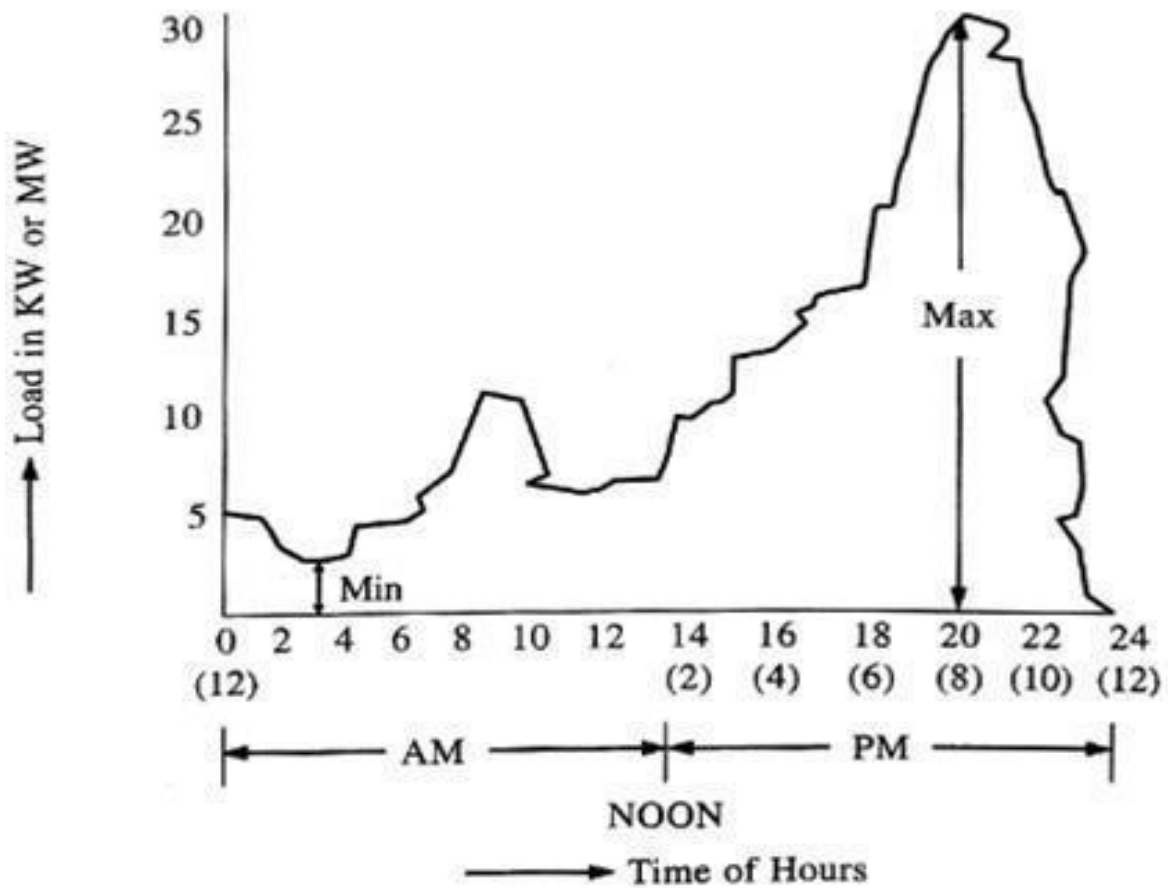


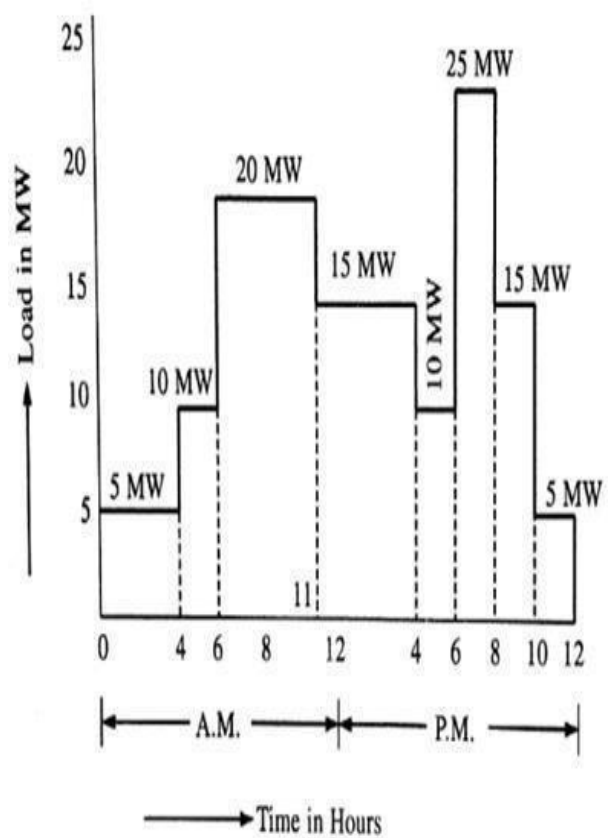
Figure 6.2 Daily Load Curve

### From the load curve we can know the following information.

- ❖ The variation in load during different hours of a day.
- ❖ The area under load curve represents the total number of units generated (in kWh) in a day.
- ❖ The maximum and minimum load in a day.
- ❖ The area under load curve (in kWh) divided by number of hours (24 hours) gives the average load on the power station.

**Average load = Area under daily load curve (Kwh) / 24 hours**

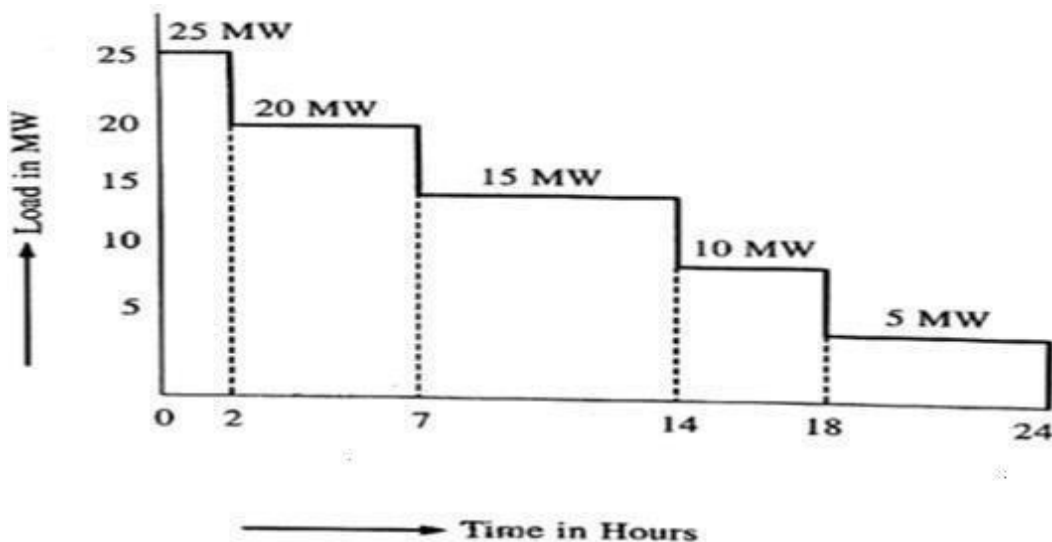
- ❖ The area under load curve divided by area of rectangle in which it is contained gives load factor.
- ❖ The Load curve helps in selecting the size and number of generating units.
- ❖ The load curve helps in preparing the operations schedule of the station.



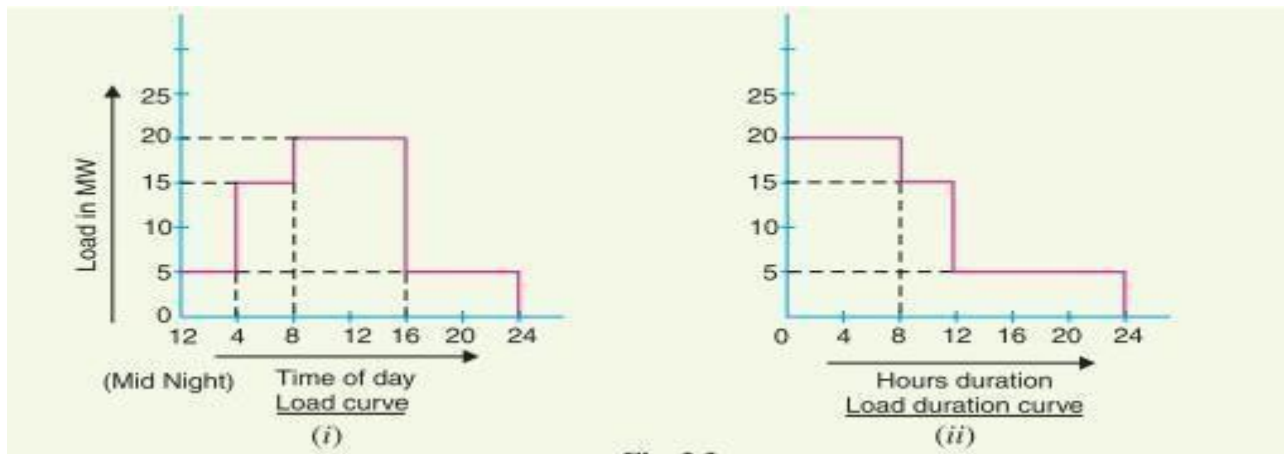
## LOAD DURATION CURVE

When the Load elements of a load curve are rearranged in the order of descending magnitudes, the curve thus obtained is called a "Load Duration curve".

- **The Load Duration Curve** is obtained from the same data as the Load Curve but the ordinates are arranged in the order of descending magnitudes.
- In other words, the maximum Load is represented to the left and decreasing loads are represented to the right in the descending order.
- Load Duration Curve gives the number of hours for which a particular load is on the Power station.
- The area under the Load duration curve is equal to that of the corresponding load curve. The area under this curve gives the number of units generated.



### LOAD AND LOAD DURATION CURVE



## INTEGRATEDLOADDURATIONCURVE(ENERGYLOADDURATIONCURVE)

This curve gives the total number of units generated (KWh) for the given demand.

Integrated load duration curve is drawn between the MW demand and the total energy generated (KWh or MWh) at a given demand.

In Integrated load duration curve on Y-axis, load demand in kW or MW is plotted while on x-axis corresponding number of units generated are obtained. Such a curve corresponding to load duration curve shown in Fig.

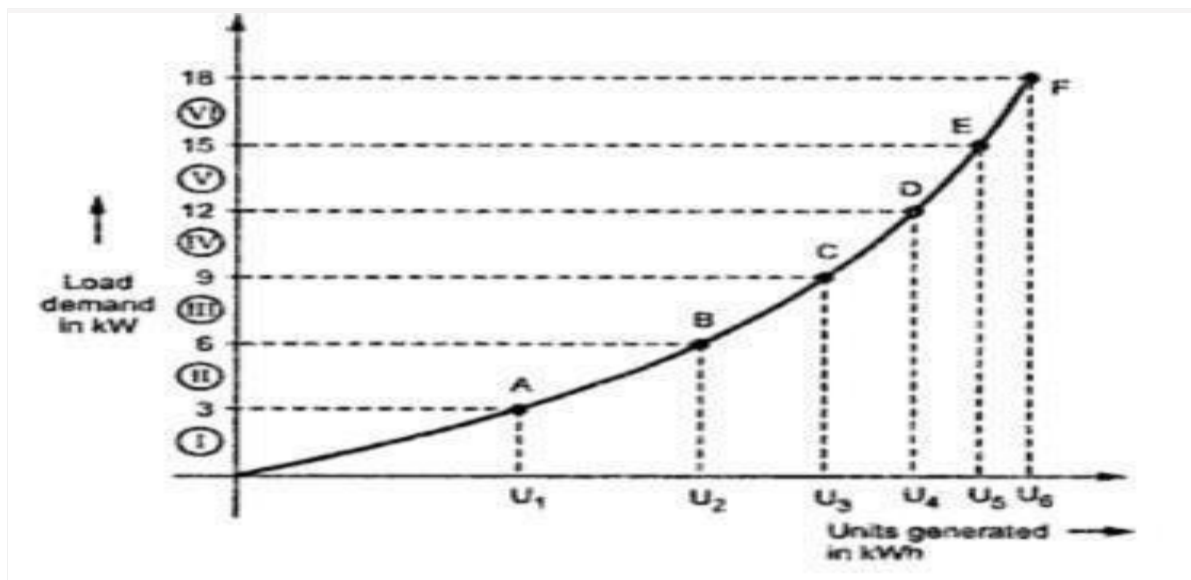


Fig.1 Integrated Load Duration Curve

This curve is obtained from load duration curve. Let the load demand be 3 kW from the load duration curve in section I. The number of units generated corresponding to this demand

will be area under section I which is shown as  $U_1$  in integrated load duration curve. Similarly the other points are also obtained to get a total curve.

The number of units consumed by a load up to a particular time of a day can also be shown on a curve which is called as mass curve.

## **IMPORTANT TERMS AND FACTORS**

**CONNECTED LOAD:** It is the sum of continuous ratings of all the equipments connected to supply system.

It is defined as the sum of the continuous ratings of all load-consuming apparatus connected to the system.

If a consumer has 5 incandescent lamps of 60 watt each and 2 fans of 80 watt each, then the total connected load

$$\begin{aligned} &= 5 \times 60 + 2 \times 80 \\ &= 460 \text{ watt} \end{aligned}$$

### **MAXIMUM DEMAND (FOR PEAK LOAD)**

The Maximum of all demands (loads) on a power station during a given period is known as **Maximum Demand**.

Generally all the consumers never switched on all the devices at full loads simultaneously. If all consumers switched on simultaneously, then the load is equal to **connected load**.

Hence, Maximum Demand is always **less than or equal to connected load**. Maximum demand helps in determining the **size and cost of the installation**.

### **DEMAND FACTOR**

Demand factor is defined as the ratio of Maximum demand on the power station to the connected load.

$$\text{Demand factor} = \frac{\text{Maximum demand}}{\text{Connected load}}$$

The value of demand factor is usually **less than 1**. It is expected because maximum demand on the power station is generally less than the connected load.

Demand factor is used to determine the **capacity of the plant equipment**.

### **AVERAGE LOAD**

*The average of loads occurring on the power station in a given period (day or month or*

year) is known as average load or average demand.

$$\text{Daily average load} = \frac{\text{No. of units (kWh) generated in a day}}{24 \text{ hours}}$$

$$\text{Monthly average load} = \frac{\text{No. of units (kWh) generated in a month}}{\text{No. of hours in a month}}$$

$$\text{Yearly average load} = \frac{\text{No. of units (kWh) generated in a year}}{365 \times 24 \text{ hours}}$$

### LOAD FACTOR.

The ratio of average load to the maximum demand during a given period is known as load factor.

$$\text{Load Factor} = \frac{\text{Average Load}}{\text{Max. Demand}}$$

If the plant is in operation for  $T$  hours,

$$\text{Load Factor} = \frac{\text{Average Load} \times T}{\text{Max. Demand} \times T}$$

$$\text{Load Factor} = \frac{\text{No. of units generated in } T \text{ hours}}{\text{Max. Demand} \times T \text{ hours}}$$

The load factor may be daily load factor, monthly load factor or annual load factor if the time period considered is a day or month or year.

**Load factor is always less than 1** because average load is smaller than the maximum demand. The load factor plays key role in determining **the overall cost per unit generated**. **Higher the load factor of the power station, lesser will be the cost per unit generated.**

### DIVERSITY FACTOR.

**The ratio of the sum of individual maximum demands to the maximum demand on power station is known as diversity factor.**



$$\text{Diversity factor} = \frac{\text{Sum of individual max. demands}}{\text{Max. Demand on Power station}}$$

The sum of individual maximum demands is always greater than the maximum demand of the power station.

Hence, **the diversity factor is always greater than unity (>1)**. The diversity factor reduces the capital cost of the station and rate of generation of electricity.

### PLANT CAPACITY FACTOR.

**It is the ratio of actual energy produced to the maximum possible energy that could have been produced during a given period i.e.,**

$$\text{Plant capacity factor} = \frac{\text{Actual energy produced (KWh)}}{\text{Max. energy that could have been produced}}$$

$$\text{Plant capacity factor} = \frac{\text{Average load} \times T}{\text{Plant capacity} \times T}$$

$$\text{Plant capacity factor} = \frac{\text{Average load}}{\text{Plant capacity}}$$

Thus if the considered period is one year,

$$\text{Annual plant capacity factor} = \frac{\text{Annual kWh output}}{\text{Plant capacity} \times 8760}$$

The plant capacity factor is an indication of the reserve capacity of the plant. A power station is so designed that it has some reserve capacity for meeting the increased load demand in future. Therefore, the installed capacity of the plant is always somewhat greater than the maximum demand on the plant.

$$\text{Reserve capacity} = \text{Plant capacity} - \text{Max. demand}$$

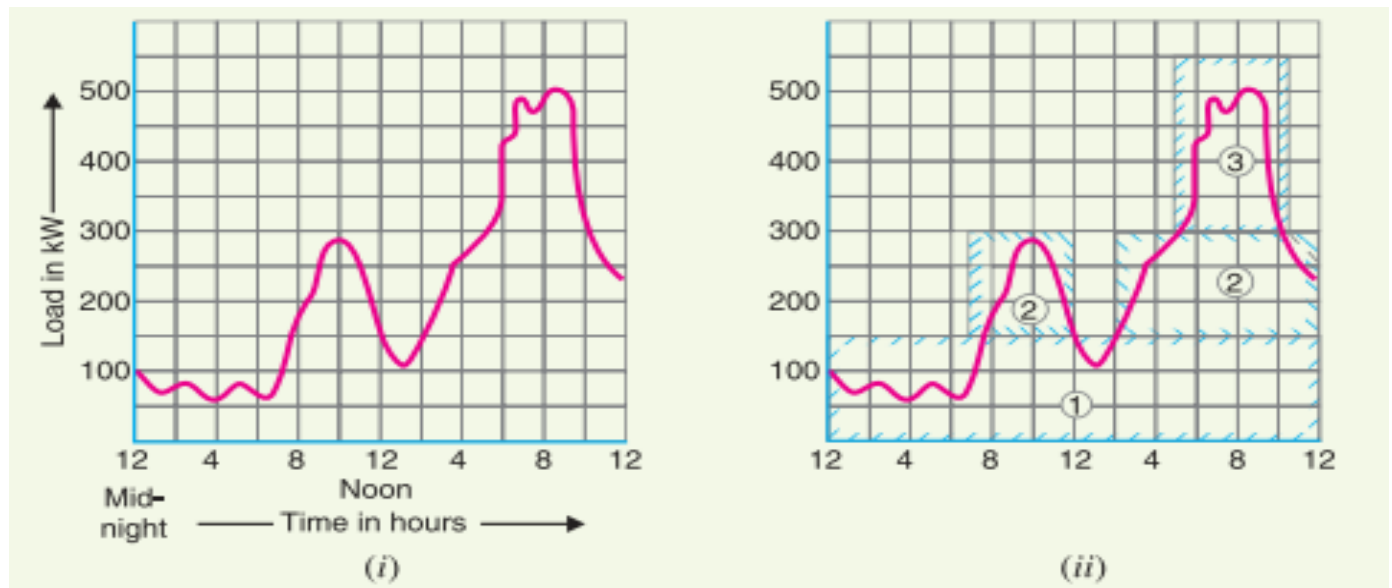
### PLANT USE FACTOR.

It is ratio of kWh generated to the product of plant capacity and the number of hours for which the plant was in operation *i.e.*

$$\text{Plant use factor} = \frac{\text{power Station output in kWh}}{\text{Plant capacity X Hours of use}}$$

Suppose a plant having installed capacity of 20 MW produces annual output of  $7.35 \times 10^6$  kWh and remains in operation for 2190 hours in a year. Then, Plant use factor  $= 0.167 = 16.7\%$ .

### SELECTION OF GENERATING UNITS ( NUMBER AND SIZE OF GENERATING UNITS)



1. The load on a power station is seldom constant; it varies from time to time. Obviously, a single generating unit (*i.e.*, alternator) will not be an economical proposition to meet this varying load.
2. It is because a single unit will have very poor efficiency during the periods of light loads on the power station. Therefore, in actual practice, a number of generating units of different sizes are installed in a power station.

3. The selection of the number and sizes of the units is decided from the annual load curve of the station. *The number and size of the units are selected in such a way that they correctly fit the station load curve.*

Once this underlying principle is adhered to, it becomes possible to operate the generating units at or near the point of maximum efficiency.

**Illustration.** The principle of selection of number and sizes of generating units with the help of load curve is illustrated in Fig. The annual load curve of the station is shown in fig. It is clear from the curve that load on the station has wide variations; the minimum load being somewhat near **50kW** and maximum load reaching the value of **500kW**. It hardly needs any mention that use of a single unit to meet this varying load will be highly uneconomical.

As discussed earlier, the total plant capacity is divided into several generating units of different sizes to fit the load curve. This is illustrated in Fig. Here the plant capacity is divided into three units numbered as 1, 2 and 3. The cyan colour outline shows the units capacity being used. The three units employed have different capacities and are used according to the demand on the station. In this case, the operating schedule can be as under:

<b>Time</b>	<b>Units in operation</b>
From 12 midnight to 7 A.M.	Only unit no. 1 is put in operation.
From 7 A.M. to 12.00 noon	Unit no. 2 is also started so that both units 1 and 2 are in operation.
From 12.00 noon to 2 P.M.	Unit no. 2 is stopped and only unit 1 operates.
From 2 P.M. to 5 P.M.	Unit no. 2 is again started. Now units 1 and 2 are in operation.
From 5 P.M. to 10.30 P.M.	Units 1, 2 and 3 are put in operation.
From 10.30 P.M. to 12.00 midnight	Units 1 and 2 are put in operation.

Thus by selecting the proper number and sizes of units, the generating units can be made to operate near maximum efficiency. This results in the overall reduction in the cost of production of electrical energy.

## Important Points in the Selection of Units

While making the selection of number and sizes of the generating units, the following points should be kept in view:

- (i) The number and sizes of the units should be so selected that they approximately **fit the annual load curve of the station.**
- (ii) The units should be preferably of **different capacities** to meet the load requirements. Although use of identical units (*i.e.*, having same capacity) ensures saving in cost, they often do not meet the load requirement.
- (iii) The capacity of the plants should be made **15% to 20%** more than the **maximum demand** to meet the future load requirements.
- (iv) There should be a **spare generating unit** so that repairs and overhauling of the working units can be carried out.
- (v) The tendency to select a **large number of units of smaller capacity** in order to fit the load curve very accurately should be **avoided**. It is because the investment cost per kW of capacity increases as the size of the units decreases.

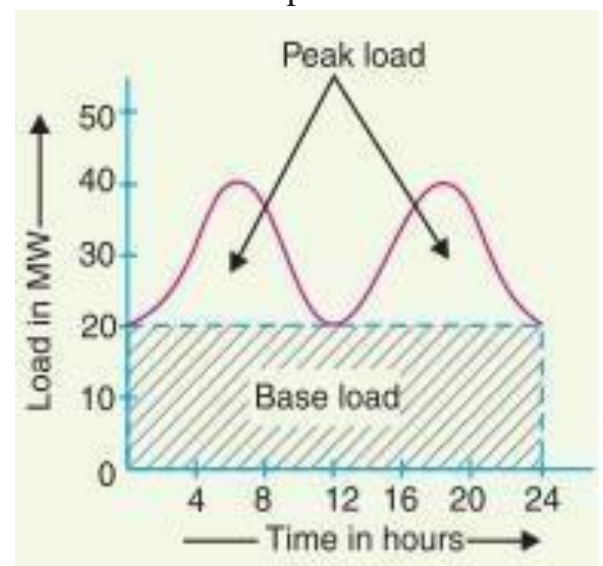
## BASE LOAD AND PEAK LOAD ON POWER STATION

The changing load on the power station makes its load curve of variable nature. Fig shows the typical load curve of a power station. It is clear that load on the power station varies from time to time. However, a close look at the load curve reveals that load on the power station can be considered in two parts, namely;

- (i) Baseload
- (ii) Peakload

### (i) Baseload.

**The unvarying load which occurs almost the whole day on the station is known as base load.** Referring to the load curve of Fig it is clear that **20 MW** of load has to be supplied by the station at all times of day and night *i.e.* throughout 24 hours. Therefore, 20 MW is the baseload of the station. As baseload on the station is almost of constant nature, therefore, it can be suitably supplied without facing the problems of variable load.



(ii) **Peakload.** *The various peak demands of load over and above the base load of the station is known as peakload.*

Referring to the load curve of Fig it is clear that there are peak demands of load excluding base load. These peak demands of the station generally form a small part of the total load and may occur throughout the day.

### Method of Meeting the Load

The total load on a power station consists of two parts viz., base load and peak load. In order to achieve overall economy, *the best method to meet load is to interconnect two different power stations.*

The **more efficient plant** is used to supply the base load and is known as *base load power station*. The **less efficient plant** is used to supply the peak loads and is known as *peak load power station*.

There is no hard and fast rule for selection of base load and peak load stations as it would depend upon the particular situation. For example, both hydro-electric and steam power stations are quite efficient and can be used as base load as well as peak load station to meet a particular load requirement.

**Illustration.** The interconnection of steam and hydro plants is a beautiful illustration to meet the load. When water is available in sufficient quantity as in summer and rainy season, the **hydroelectric plant** is used to carry the **base load** and the **steam plant** supplies the **peak load**.

However, when the water is not available in sufficient quantity as in winter, **the steam plant** carries the **base load**, whereas **the hydro-electric plant carries the peak load** as shown in fig.

# ECONOMICS OF POWER GENERATION

*The art of determining the per unit (i.e., one kWh) cost of production of electrical energy is known as economics of power generation.*

## **(i) Interest.**

*The cost of use of money is known as interest.*

A power station is constructed by investing a huge capital. This money is generally borrowed from banks or other financial institutions and the supply company has to pay the annual interest on this amount.

Therefore, while calculating the cost of production of electrical energy, the interest payable on the capital investment must be included. The rate of interest depends upon market position and other factors, and may vary **from 4% to 8%** per annum.

## **(ii) Depreciation.**

*The decrease in the value of the power plant equipment and building due to constant use is known as depreciation.*

If the power station equipment were to last forever, then interest on the capital investment would have been the only charge to be made. However, in actual practice, every power station has a useful life ranging from **fifty to sixty years**.

From the time the power station is installed, its equipment steadily deteriorates due to **wear and tear** so that there is a gradual reduction in the value of the plant. This reduction in the value of plant every year is known as *annual depreciation*. Due to depreciation, the plant has to be replaced by the new one after its useful life. Therefore, suitable amount must be set aside every year so that by the time the plant retires, the collected amount by way of depreciation equals the cost of replacement.

## COST OF ELECTRICAL ENERGY

The total cost of electrical energy generated can be divided into three parts, namely;

**(i) Fixed cost; (ii) Semi-fixed cost; (iii) Running or operating cost.**

**(i) Fixed cost.** *It is the cost which is independent of maximum demand and number of units generated.*

The fixed cost is due to

- *the annual cost of central organisation,*
- *interest on capital cost of land*
- *salaries of high officials.*

The annual expenditure on the central organisation and salaries of high officials is fixed since it has to be met whether the plant has high or low maximum demand or it generates less or more units. Further, the capital investment on the land is fixed and hence the amount of interest is also fixed.

**(ii) Semi-fixed cost.** *It is the cost which depends upon maximum demand but is independent of units generated.*

This semi-fixed cost is directly proportional to the maximum demand on power station and is on account of

- *annual interest and depreciation on capital investment of building and equipment,*
- *taxes,*
- *salaries of management and clerical staff.*

The maximum demand on the power station determines its size and cost of installation. The greater the maximum demand on a power station, the greater is its size and cost of installation. Further, the taxes and clerical staff depend upon the size of the plant and hence upon maximum demand.

**(iii) Running cost.** *It is the cost which depends only upon the number of units generated.*

The running cost is on account of

- *annual cost of fuel,*
- *lubricating oil,*
- *maintenance, repairs and*
- *salaries of operating staff.*

Since these charges depend upon the energy output, the running cost is directly proportional to the number of units generated by the station. In other words, if the power station generates more units, it will have higher running cost and *vice-versa*.

**Expressions for Cost of Electrical Energy** The overall annual cost of electrical energy generated by a power station can be expressed in two forms *ie. three part form and two part form.*

(i) **Threepartform.** In this method, the overall annual cost of electrical energy generated is divided into three parts *ie.* **fixed cost, semi-fixed cost and running cost**

**Total annual cost of energy = Fixed cost + Semi-fixed cost + Running cost**  
**= Constant + Proportional to max. demand + Proportional to kWh generated.**

$$= Rs(a + b kW + c kWh)$$

where



$a$ =annual fixed cost independent of maximum demand and energy output. It is on account of the costs mentioned.

$b$ =constant which when multiplied by maximum kW demand on the station gives the annual semi-fixed cost.

$c$ =a constant which when multiplied by kWh output per annum gives the annual running cost.

(ii) **Two part form.** It is sometimes convenient to give the annual cost of energy in two part form. In this case, the annual cost of energy is divided into two parts *i.e.*

**a fixed sum per kW of maximum demand plus a running charge per unit of energy.** The expression for the annual cost of energy then becomes:

$$\text{Total annual cost of energy} = \text{Rs.}(AkW + BkWh)$$

where  $A$ =a constant which when multiplied by maximum kW demand on the station gives the annual cost of the first part.

$B$ =a constant which when multiplied by the annual kWh generated gives the annual running cost. It is interesting to see here that two-part form is a simplification of three-part form.

## TARIFF

**The rate or charge at which electrical energy is supplied to a consumer is known as "Tariff".**

The electric supplier produces electrical energy in a power station and is delivered to various consumers. These suppliers invest capital cost on equipment, land, building etc. and they derive income from consumers through electricity bills.

*The different methods of charging consumers are known as Tariff.* Tariff should be such that, it not only recovers the total cost of producing electrical energy, but also earns profit on the capital investment.

## OBJECTIVES OF TARIFF

The main objective of Tariff is to recover various investments on production of electrical energy. Tariff should fulfill the following items.

- Recovery of cost of capital investment in generation, Transmission and distribution of equipment.
- Recovery of cost of operation, supplies, maintenance and losses.
- Recovery of cost of metering, billing collection and miscellaneous services.
- A satisfactory net return on the capital investment.

## FACTORS AFFECTING THE DESIGN OF TARIFF (OR) BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF TARIFF

The electric energy supply is different from other forms of business. Hence, the following factors will be taken into account while fixing the Tariff.

- It is not possible to store electricity in huge amounts. Hence, the tariff should be such that, it ensures proper returns from each consumer.
- Electrical energy must be available whenever needed. Hence, Tariff should earn sufficient money to meet the instant demand.
- The various consumers are encouraged to make effective and efficient use of electricity.
- The suppliers have a control up to the electricity meter. Hence, the use of electricity by consumer cannot be controlled.
- The Tariff should be designed in simple such that an ordinary consumer can easily understand it.
- The tariff should be fair in order to satisfy the different types of consumers.
- It should have a provision of charging a penalty for consumers at low power factor.
- The tariff should be uniform over large population.
- It should provide an incentive for using electrical energy during off-peak hours.
- A big consumer should be charged at a lower rate than a smaller consumer, because an increase in use of electricity decreases the cost of generation per unit.

## TYPES OF TARIFFS

Large number of Tariffs have been proposed time to time, but the following are some of the Tariffs which are in common use.

**1. Simple Tariff (or) Uniform Tariff**

**2. Flat Rate Tariff**

**3. Block Rate Tariff**

**4. Two-part Tariff**

**5. Maximum Demand Tariff**

**6. Power Factor Tariff**

1. Simple Tariff (or) Uniform Tariff If the rate or charge per unit of electrical energy consumed is fixed, such a tariff is known as Simple or Uniform Tariff.

This is the simplest type of tariff in which the cost of energy consumed is charged on the basis of **number of units consumed**. The cost per unit is charged as follows.

$$\text{Cost per unit} = \frac{\text{Annual fixed charges} + \text{Annual running charges}}{\text{Total number of units supplied to the consumer annually}}$$

**Advantages:**

- (a) It is the simplest type of tariff and easy to understand
- (b) Calculation is easy.

**Disadvantages:**

- (a) The cost per unit delivered will be higher.
- (b) No discrimination between domestic (small) consumer and bulk consumers, hence all consumers have to pay equitably for the fixed charges.
- (c) It does not encourage the use of electricity.

**2. Flat Rate Tariff:**

**If the different types of consumers are charged at different rates per unit energy consumed, such a tariff is known as Flat rate Tariff.**

In this type, the consumers are classified into different classes (such as domestic, industrial, public etc) and each class of consumer is charged at different rates. The different class of consumer is made by taking into account their **load factors and diversity factors**. If the consumer has two types of loads, say

(1) Lighting loads (light and fan etc) and

(2) Power loads,

then two meters are to be installed at this premises, one for lighting load and another for power load. The flat rate per kWh (unit) for lighting load may be slightly higher than the power load. Suppose the rate per kWh for lighting load and power load be 60 paise and 55 paise and meter rent may be Rs. 2.50/- per meter per month, then the monthly bill calculation will be as follows.

Type of Load	No. of units Consumed	Rate/Unit	Cost	Meter Rent	Total Bill
Lighting Load	Say 50	60 paise	50 X 60 = 3000 paise = Rs 30/-	Rs 2.50/-	Rs 32.50/-
Power	Say 80	55 paise	80 X 55 = 4400 paise = Rs 44/-	Rs 2.50/-	Rs 46.50/-
The total bill of a consumer per month Rs 79/-					

### Advantages:

- (a) Tariff is fairer and it can be understood by different types of consumers.
- (b) Simple in calculation.

### Disadvantages:

- (a) It is difficult to classify the consumers based on **load factor and diversity factor**.
- (b) Separate meters are required for lighting and power load, will make the system **complex and expensive**.
- (c) Does not encourage the use of electricity.

### 3. Block Rate Tariff:

**If one block of energy is charged at a specified rate and next block of energy is charged at reduced rates, such a tariff is known as Block Rate Tariff.**

In this type of tariff, the energy consumption is divided into blocks. The cost per unit in first block is **high** and the cost per unit in next blocks is progressively reduced. Hence, the consumer who consumes large units has to pay less as compared to the consumer, who consumes fewer units.

For example in a domestic the total number of units is 100, then The first 30 units may be charged @ 60 paise per unit, The next 50 units may be charged @ 50 paise per unit and The remaining 20 units may be charged @ 30 paise per unit.

Then, the total bill will be  $30 \times 60 + 50 \times 50 + 20 \times 30 = 4900$  paise = Rs. 49/-.

#### Advantages:

- (a) The consumer gets an incentive for consuming more units.
- (b) This tariff increases the load factor, thereby decreasing the cost of unit generated.

#### Disadvantages:

- (a) Dividing the units into blocks is a problem.
- (b) Calculating the bill.

### 4. Two-part Tariff:

**If the consumers are charged on the basis of maximum demand and units consumed, such a tariff is known as Two part Tariff.**

In this type of Tariff, the total charges are split into two parts namely **fixed charges and running charges. Fixed charges are proportional to maximum demand (kW) and running charges are proportional to number of units consumed (kWh).**

Generally this tariff is expressed as

$$\text{Total charges} = \text{Rs}(a * kW + b * kWh)$$

Where  $a$  = Charge per kW of maximum demand and  $b$  = Charge per kWh of energy consumed.

#### Advantages:

- (a) It can be easily understood by the consumers.
- (b) It recovers the fixed charges which depend on maximum demand, such as interest and depreciation on capital cost of building and equipment, taxes and insurance etc.

#### Disadvantages:

- (a) The consumer has **to pay his fixed charges**, whether he has consumed electrical energy or not.
- (b) There may be error in calculating **the maximum demand** of the consumer

## 5. Maximum Demand Tariff:

This Tariff is similar to two-part tariff except that, in this case the maximum demand is actually measured by using a **maximum demand meter** installed at the premises of the consumer.

If a consumer does not consume energy for a month the maximum demand meter reads zero, hence, the drawback of two-part tariff can be eliminated.

This tariff is mainly applicable to **large industrial consumers**, but not suitable for small consumer (domestic) as it requires a separate maximum demand meter.

## 6. Power Factor Tariff:

**If the power factor of the consumer's load is taken into consideration such a tariff is known as power factor Tariff.**

The efficiency of plant and equipment depends on power factor. Hence, in order to increase the utility of plant and equipment to maximum possible extent, the plant must be operated at a most economical power factor. So, the supplier has to encourage the consumer to operate the load at high power factor. The following are some types of power factor tariff.

**kVA Maximum Demand Tariff:** It is similar to two-part tariff except that the fixed charges are measured in KVA instead of KW. As KVA is inversely proportional to power factor, at high power factor the fixed charges will be less.

$$kVA = \frac{kW}{\text{Power factor}}$$

Hence, this tariff encourages the consumer to work at high power factor.

**kWh and kVARh Tariff:** In this type both kWh and kVARh supplied are charged separately. As kVARh is inversely proportional to power factor.

$$kVARh = \frac{kW}{\text{Power factor}} \times \sin \theta$$

at high power factor the charge will be less. Hence, it is needed to improve the power factor of a consumer load.

**Sliding Scale or Average Power Factor Tariff:** In this case an average power factor i.e. 0.8 lagging is taken as reference. If the power factor of the consumer is less than this value, additional charges are made and if the power factor is more than this value, a discount may

be allowed. Hence, this results in improve the power factor of the consumer load.

### 2013

1. (a) Explain about characteristics and types of tariffs.  
(b) The following two tariffs are offered
  - (i) Rs 100 plus 15 paise per unit
  - (ii) A flat rate of 30 paise per unitAt what consumption is first tariff economical?
2. (a) Explain about choice of number and size of generation units.  
(b) Calculate annual bill of a consumer whose maximum demand is 100 kW, p.f = 0.8 lagging and load factor = 60%. The tariff used is Rs. 75 per kW of maximum demand plus 15 paise per kWh consumed.

### 2014

3. (a) Write short notes on load curve, load duration and integrated load duration curve.  
(b) Define demand factor, Diversity factor, plant use factor.
4. (a) What do you understand by electrical tariff?  
(b) Discuss two-part tariff, three-part tariff and power factor tariff.

### 2015

5. (a) Explain the following terms as applied to power system
  - (i) Diversity factor
  - (ii) Plant use factor
  - (iii) Demand factor.(b) Write short notes on integrated load duration curve.
6. (a) Name different types of tariffs, explain them briefly.

---

(b) Explain about cost of generation and their division into fixed, semifixed and running cost.

**2016**

7. (a) Explain Load curve and what are the information provided by this curve?  
(b) A 1000 MW power station delivers 1000 MW for 2 hours, 500 MW for 6 hours and is shut-down for the rest of each day. It is also shut-down for maintenance for 50 days annually. Calculate its annual load factor.
8. (a) A Consumer needs one million units per year and his annual load factor is 50%. The tariff is Rs 1,200/- per KW. Estimate the Saving in his energy cost, which would result if he improves his load factor to 95%?  
(b) Define load factor, utilization factor and Plant use factor?



## UNIT III

### OVERHEAD TRANSMISSION LINES

Parameters of single and three phase transmission lines with single and double circuits - Resistance, inductance and capacitance of solid, stranded and bundled conductors, Symmetrical and unsymmetrical spacing and transposition - application of self and mutual GMD; skin and proximity effects - interference with neighboring communication circuits - Typical configurations, conductor types and electrical parameters of EHV lines, corona discharges.

#### TYPES OF CONDUCTORS

Conductors used for electrical systems are those having less resistance, low weight, high tensile strength, low cost and low coefficient of expansion. Normally aluminum and copper are used as conductors. The main advantages of aluminum conductors over copper conductors are:

- Low weight
- Low conductivity (less resistance) and less coronal loss
- Low cost

The main problems with aluminum conductors are:

- Low tensile strength
- High coefficient of expansion
- Large area

#### TYPES OF CONDUCTOR

##### 1. Copper

Copper is an ideal material for overhead lines owing to its high electrical conductivity and great tensile strength. It is always used in the hard drawn form as a stranded conductor. Although hard drawing decreases the electrical conductivity slightly, it increases the tensile strength considerably. Copper has high current density *i.e.*, the current carrying capacity of copper per unit of X-sectional area is quite large. This leads to two advantages. Firstly, smaller X-sectional area of conductor is required and secondly, the area offered by the conductor to wind loads is reduced. Moreover, this metal is quite homogeneous, durable and has high scrap value. There is hardly any doubt that copper is an ideal material for transmission and distribution of electric power. However, due to its high cost and non-availability, it is rarely used for these purposes. Nowadays the trend is to use aluminum in place of copper.

##### 2. Aluminum

Aluminum is cheap and light as compared to copper but it has much smaller conductivity and tensile strength. The relative comparison of the two materials is briefed below:

- (i) The conductivity of aluminum is 60% that of copper. The smaller conductivity of aluminum means that for any particular transmission efficiency, the X-sectional area of conductor must be larger in aluminum than in copper. For the same resistance, the diameter of aluminum conductor is about 1.26 times the diameter of copper conductor. The increased X-section of aluminum exposes a greater surface to wind pressure and, therefore, supporting towers must be designed for greater transverse strength. This often requires the use of higher towers with consequence of

greater sag.

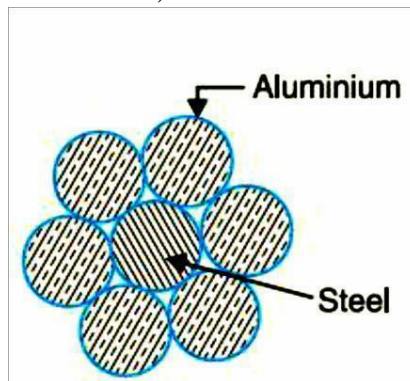
(ii) The specific gravity of aluminum (2.71 gm/cc) is lower than that of copper (8.9 gm/cc). Therefore, an aluminum conductor has almost one-half the weight of equivalent copper conductor. For this reason, the supporting structures for aluminum need not be made so strong as that of copper conductor.

(iii) Aluminum conductor being light is liable to greater swings and hence larger cross-arms are required.

(iv) Due to low tensile strength and higher coefficient of linear expansion of aluminum, the sag is greater in aluminum conductors. Considering the combined properties of cost, conductivity, tensile strength, weight etc., aluminum has an edge over copper. Therefore, it is being widely used as a conductor material. It is particularly profitable to use aluminum for heavy-current transmission where the conductor size is large and its cost forms a major proportion of the total cost of complete installation.

### 3. Steel cored aluminum

Due to low tensile strength, aluminum conductors produce greater sag. This prohibits their use for larger spans and makes them unsuitable for long distance transmission. In order to increase the tensile strength, the aluminum conductor is reinforced with a core of galvanized steel wires. The composite conductor thus obtained is known as *steel cored aluminum* and is abbreviated as A.C.S.R. (aluminum conductor steel reinforced).



Steel-cored aluminum conductor consists of central core of galvanized steel wires surrounded by a number of aluminum strands. Usually, diameter of both steel and aluminum wires is the same. The X-section of the two metals are generally in the ratio of 1 : 6 but can be modified to 1 : 4 in order to get more tensile strength for the conductor. Fig. shows steel cored aluminum conductor having one steel wire surrounded by six wires of aluminum. The result of this composite conductor is that steel core takes greater percentage of mechanical strength while aluminum strands carry the bulk of current. The steel cored aluminum conductors have the following

**Advantages:**

- (i) The reinforcement with steel increases the tensile strength but at the same time keeps the composite conductor light. Therefore, steelcored aluminum conductors will produce smaller sag and hence longer spans can be used.

(ii)Due to small sags with steel cored aluminum conductors, towers of smaller heights can be used.

4. Galvanised steel

Steel has very high tensile strength. Therefore, galvanised steel conductors can be used for extremely long spans or for short line sections exposed to abnormally high stresses due to climatic conditions. They have been found very suitable in rural areas where cheapness is the main consideration. Due to poor conductivity and high resistance of steel, such conductors are not suitable for transmitting large power over a long distance. However, they can be used to advantage for transmitting a small power over a small distance where the size of the copper conductor is desirable from economic considerations would be too small and thus unsuitable for use because of poor mechanical strength.

5. Cadmium copper

The conductor material now being employed in certain cases is copper alloyed with cadmium. An addition of 1% or 2% cadmium to copper increases the tensile strength by about 50% and the conductivity is only reduced by 15% below that of pure copper. Therefore, cadmium copper conductor can be useful for exceptionally long spans. However, due to high cost of cadmium, such conductors will be economical only for lines of small X-section i.e., where the cost of conductor material is comparatively small compared with the cost of supports.

STRANDED CONDUCTORS

For transmission lines operating at high voltages normally stranded conductors are used. These conductors are known as composite conductors as they compose of two or more elements or strands electrically in parallel. The conductors used for transmission lines are stranded copper conductors, hollow copper conductors, ACSR conductors and copper weld conductors.

In modern overhead transmission systems bare aluminum conductors are used which are classified as:

- AAC : all-aluminum conductor
- AAAC : all-aluminum alloy conductor
- ACSR : aluminum conductor steel reinforced
- ACAR : aluminum conductor alloy reinforced

In order to increase the tensile strength, aluminum conductor is reinforced with a core of galvanized steel wire, which is aluminum conductor steel reinforced. ACSR composite conductors are widely used for long distance transmission due to

- Steel cored aluminum conductors are cheaper than copper conductors of equal resistance and this economy is obtained without sacrificing efficiency.
- These conductors are corrosion resistant and are useful under unfavorable conditions.
- The superior mechanical strength of ACSR can be utilized by using spans of larger length results in smaller number of supports.
- Coronal losses are reduced because of larger diameter of the conductors.

BUNDLED CONDUCTORS

For voltages in excess of 230 KV it is in fact not possible to use around single conductor. Instead of going in for a hollow conductor it is preferable to use more than one conductor per phase which is known as bundling of conductors. A bundle conductor is a conductor made up of two or more sub conductors and is used as one phase conductor.

ADVANTAGES IN USING BUNDLE CONDUCTORS

- Reduced reactance
- Reduced voltage gradient
- Reduced coronal loss
- Reduced radio interference
- Reduced surge impedance

The basic difference between a stranded conductor and bundled conductor is that the sub conductors of bundled conductors are separated from each other by a distance of almost 30 cms or more and the wires of composite conductors touch each other.

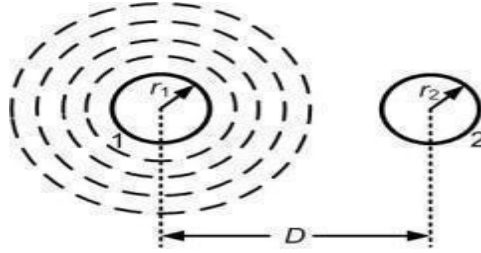
**LINEPARAMETERS**

An AC transmission line has resistance, inductance and capacitance uniformly distributed along its length. These are known as constants or parameters of a line. The performance of a transmission line

depends upon these constants.

### INDUCTANCE OF A SINGLE-PHASE LINE

Consider two solid round conductors with radii of  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  as shown in Fig. 1. One conductor is the return circuit for the other. This implies that if the current in conductor 1 is  $I$  then the current in conductor 2 is  $-I$ . First let us consider conductor 1. The current flowing in the conductor will set up flux lines. However, the flux beyond a distance  $D + r_2$  from the center of the conductor links a net current of zero and therefore does not contribute to the flux linkage of the circuit. Also at a distance less than  $D - r_2$  from the center of conductor 1 the current flowing through this conductor links the flux. Moreover since  $D \gg r_2$  we can make the following approximations



A single-phase line with two conductors.

$$D + r_1 \approx D \text{ and } D - r_1 \approx D$$

We can specify the inductance of conductor 1 due to internal and external flux as

$$\begin{aligned} L_{\text{int}} &= \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m} \\ L_{\text{ext}} &= 2 \times 10^{-7} \ln \frac{D}{r_1} \text{ H/m} \\ L_1 &= \left( \frac{1}{2} + 2 \ln \frac{D}{r_1} \right) \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

We can rearrange  $L_1$  given in (1) as follows

$$L_1 = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \frac{1}{4} + \ln \frac{D}{r_1} \right) = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln e^{1/4} + \ln \frac{D}{r_1} \right) = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D}{r_1 e^{-1/4}} \right)$$

Substituting  $r_1' = r_1 e^{-1/4}$  in the above expression we get

$$L_1 = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D}{r_1'} \right) \text{ H/m} \quad (2)$$

The radius  $r_1'$  can be assumed to be that of a fictitious conductor that has no internal flux but with the same inductance as that of a conductor with radius  $r_1$ .

In a similar way the inductance due to current in the conductor 2 is given by

$$L_2 = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D}{r_2'} \right) \text{ H/m} \quad (3)$$

Therefore the inductance of the complete circuit is

$$\begin{aligned} L &= L_1 + L_2 = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D}{r_1'} \right) + 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D}{r_2'} \right) \\ &= 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D^2}{r_1' r_2'} \right) = 4 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D}{\sqrt{r_1' r_2'}} \right) \text{ H/m} \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

If we assume  $r_1' = r_2' = r'$ , then the total inductance becomes

$$L = 4 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D}{r'} \right) \text{ H/m} \quad (5)$$

Where  $r' = re^{-1/4}$ .

### INDUCTANCE OF THREE-PHASE LINES WITH SYMMETRICAL SPACING

Consider the three-phase line shown in Fig.2. Each of the conductors has a radius of  $r$  and their centers form an equilateral triangle with a distance  $D$  between them. Assuming that the currents are balanced, we have

$$I_a + I_b + I_c = 0 \quad (1)$$

Consider a point  $P$  external to the conductors. The distance of the point from the phases  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are denoted by  $D_{pa}$ ,  $D_{pb}$  and  $D_{pc}$  respectively.

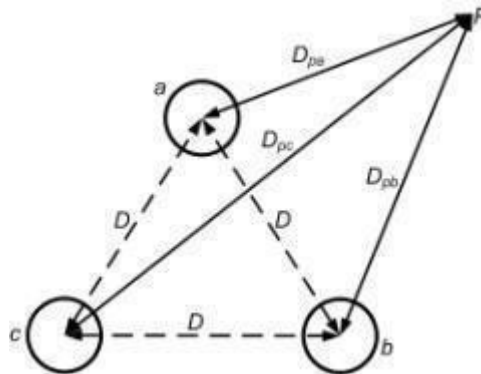


Fig.2 Three-phase symmetrically spaced conductors and an external point  $P$ .

Let us assume that the flux linked by the conductor of phase- $a$  due to a current  $I_a$  includes the internal flux linkages but excludes the flux linkages beyond the point  $P$ . Then from

$$L_1 = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{D}{r'} \right)$$

We get

$$\lambda_{aPa} = \left( \frac{1}{2} + 2 \ln \frac{D_{Pa}}{r} \right) I_a = 2 \times 10^{-7} I_a \ln \frac{D_{Pa}}{r'} \quad (2)$$

The flux linkage with the conductor of phase- $a$  due to the current  $I_b$ , excluding all flux beyond the point  $P$ , is given by as

$$\lambda_{aPb} = 2 \times 10^{-7} I_b \ln \frac{D_{Pb}}{D} \quad (3)$$

Similarly the flux due to the current  $I_c$  is

$$\lambda_{aPc} = 2 \times 10^{-7} I_c \ln \frac{D_{Pc}}{D} \quad (4)$$

Therefore the total flux in the phase- $a$  conductor is

$$\lambda_a = \lambda_{aPa} + \lambda_{aPb} + \lambda_{aPc} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( I_a \ln \frac{D_{Pa}}{r'} + I_b \ln \frac{D_{Pb}}{D} + I_c \ln \frac{D_{Pc}}{D} \right)$$

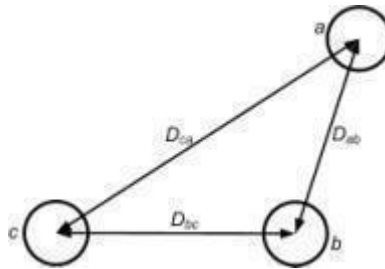
$$\lambda_a = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( I_a \ln \frac{1}{r'} + I_b \ln \frac{1}{D} + I_c \ln \frac{1}{D} + I_a \ln D_{pa} + I_b \ln D_{pb} + I_c \ln D_{pc} \right)$$

$$I_b + I_c = -I_a$$

$$\lambda_a = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( I_a \ln \frac{1}{r'} - I_a \ln \frac{1}{D} + I_b \ln \frac{D_{pb}}{D_{pa}} + I_c \ln \frac{D_{pc}}{D_{pa}} \right)$$

$$\lambda_a = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( I_a \ln \frac{1}{r'} - I_a \ln \frac{1}{D} \right) = 2 \times 10^{-7} I_a \ln \frac{D}{r'}$$

$$L_a = 2 \times 10^{-7} \ln \frac{D}{r'}$$



$$L_a = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{1}{r'} + \alpha^2 \ln \frac{1}{D_{ab}} + \alpha \ln \frac{1}{D_{ca}} \right)$$

$$L_b = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{1}{r'} + \alpha \ln \frac{1}{D_{ab}} + \alpha^2 \ln \frac{1}{D_{bc}} \right)$$

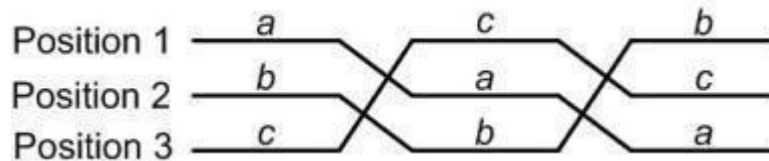
$$L_c = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{1}{r'} + \alpha^2 \ln \frac{1}{D_{ca}} + \alpha \ln \frac{1}{D_{bc}} \right)$$



The inductances that are given in (1) to (3) are undesirable as they result in an unbalanced circuit configuration. One way of restoring the balanced nature of the circuit is to exchange the positions of the conductors at regular intervals. This is called transposition of line and is shown.

In this each segment of the line is divided into three equal sub-segments. The conductors of each of the phases *a*, *b* and *c* are exchanged after every sub-segment such that each of them is placed in each of the three positions once in the entire segment.

For example, the conductor of the phase-*a* occupies positions in the sequence 1, 2 and 3 in the three sub-segments while that of the phase-*b* occupies 2, 3 and 1. The transmission line consists of several such segments.



A segment of a transposed line.

In a transposed line, each phase takes all the three positions. The per phase inductance is the average value of the three inductances calculated in (1) to (3). We therefore have

$$L = \frac{L_a + L_b + L_c}{3} \quad (4)$$

This implies

$$L = \frac{2 \times 10^{-7}}{3} \left[ \ln \frac{3}{r'} + (1 + a + a^2) \left( \ln \frac{1}{D_{ab}} + \ln \frac{1}{D_{bc}} + \ln \frac{1}{D_{ca}} \right) \right]$$

We know

$$a^2 = e^{j240^\circ} = -\frac{1}{2} + j\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \text{ and } 1 + a + a^2 = 0$$

we have  $1 + a + a^2 = 0$ . Substituting this in the above equation we get

$$L = \frac{2 \times 10^{-7}}{3} \left( 3 \ln \frac{1}{r'} - \ln \frac{1}{D_{ab}} - \ln \frac{1}{D_{bc}} - \ln \frac{1}{D_{ca}} \right) \quad (5)$$

The above equation can be simplified as

$$L = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \ln \frac{1}{r'} - \ln \frac{1}{(D_{ab} D_{bc} D_{ca})^{1/3}} \right) = 2 \times 10^{-7} \ln \frac{(D_{ab} D_{bc} D_{ca})^{1/3}}{r'} \quad (6)$$

Defining the geometric mean distance (GMD) as

$$GMD = \sqrt[3]{D_{ab}D_{bc}D_{ca}} \quad (7)$$

equation (7) can be rewritten as

$$L = 2 \times 10^{-7} \ln \frac{GMD}{r'} \quad \text{H/m} \quad (8)$$

Notice that (8) is of the same form as for symmetrically spaced conductors. Comparing these two equations we can conclude that  $GMD$  can be construed as the equivalent conductor spacing. The  $GMD$  is the cube root of the product of conductor spacing.

### CAPACITANCE OF A SINGLE-PHASE LINE

Consider the single-phase line consisting of two round conductors as shown in Fig.5. The separation between the conductors is  $D$ . Let us assume that conductor 1 carries a charge of  $q_1$  C/m while conductor 2 carries a charge  $q_2$  C/m. The presence of the second conductor and the ground will disturb the field of the first conductor.

However we assume that the distance of separation between the conductors is much larger compared to the radius of the conductor and the height of the conductor is much larger than  $D$  for the ground to disturb the flux. Therefore the distortion is small and the charge is uniformly distributed on the surface of the conductor.

Assuming that the conductor 1 alone has the charge  $q_1$ , the voltage between the conductors is

$$V_{12}(q_1) = \frac{q_1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{D}{r_1} \quad \text{V} \quad (1)$$

Similarly if the conductor 2 alone has the charge  $q_2$ , the voltage between the conductors is

$$V_{21}(q_2) = \frac{q_2}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{D}{r_2}$$

The above equation implies that

$$V_{12}(q_2) = \frac{q_2}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{r_2}{D} \quad \text{V} \quad (2)$$

From the principle of superposition we can write

$$V_{12} = V_{12}(q_1) + V_{12}(q_2) = \frac{q_1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{D}{r_1} + \frac{q_2}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{r_2}{D} \quad \text{V} \quad (3)$$

For a single-phase line let us assume that  $q_1 (= -q_2)$  is equal to  $q$ . We therefore have

$$V_{12} = \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{D}{r_1} - \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{r_2}{D} = \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{D^2}{r_1 r_2} \quad \text{V}$$

Assuming  $r_1=r_2=r_3$ , we can rewrite (4) as (4)

$$V_{12} = \frac{q}{\pi \epsilon_0} \ln \frac{D}{r} \qquad \text{V} \tag{5}$$

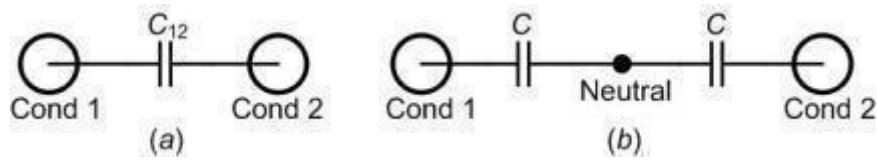
The capacitance between the conductors is given by

$$C_{12} = \frac{\pi \epsilon_0}{\ln (D/r)} \text{F/m} \tag{6}$$

The above equation gives the capacitance between two conductors. For the purpose of transmission line modeling, the capacitance is defined between the conductor and neutral.

Therefore the value of the capacitance is given from Fig.5 as

$$C = 2C_{12} = \frac{2\pi \epsilon_0}{\ln (D/r)}$$



Capacitance between two conductors and (b) equivalent capacitance to ground.

### CAPACITANCE OF A THREE-PHASE TRANSPOSED LINE

Consider the three-phase transposed line shown in Fig. 6. In this the charges on conductors of phases a, b and c are  $q_a$ ,  $q_b$  and  $q_c$  respectively. Since the system is assumed to be balanced we have

$$q_a + q_b + q_c = 0 \quad (1)$$

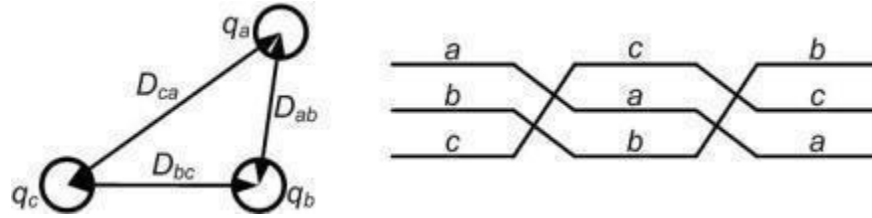


Fig. 6 Charge on a three-phase transposed line.

Using superposition, the voltage  $V_{ab}$  for the first, second and third section of the transposition are given respectively as

$$V_{ab}(1) = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left( q_a \ln \frac{D_{ab}}{r} + q_b \ln \frac{r}{D_{ab}} + q_c \ln \frac{D_{bc}}{D_{ca}} \right) \text{ V} \quad (2)$$

$$V_{ab}(2) = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left( q_a \ln \frac{D_{bc}}{r} + q_b \ln \frac{r}{D_{bc}} + q_c \ln \frac{D_{ca}}{D_{ab}} \right) \text{ V} \quad (3)$$

$$V_{ab}(3) = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left( q_a \ln \frac{D_{ca}}{r} + q_b \ln \frac{r}{D_{ca}} + q_c \ln \frac{D_{ab}}{D_{bc}} \right) \text{ V} \quad (4)$$

Then the average value of the voltage is

$$V_{ab} = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left( q_a \ln \frac{D_{ab} D_{bc} D_{ca}}{r^3} + q_b \ln \frac{r^3}{D_{ab} D_{bc} D_{ca}} + q_c \ln \frac{D_{ab} D_{bc} D_{ca}}{D_{ab} D_{bc} D_{ca}} \right) \text{ V} \quad (5)$$

This implies

$$V_{ab} = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left( q_a \ln \frac{\sqrt[3]{D_{ab} D_{bc} D_{ca}}}{r} + q_b \ln \frac{r}{\sqrt[3]{D_{ab} D_{bc} D_{ca}}} \right) \text{ V} \quad (6)$$

From GMD of the conductors. We can therefore write

$$V_{ab} = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left( q_a \ln \frac{GMD}{r} + q_b \ln \frac{r}{GMD} \right) \text{ V} \quad (7)$$

Similarly the voltage  $V_{ac}$  is given as

$$V_{ac} = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left( q_a \ln \frac{GMD}{r} + q_c \ln \frac{r}{GMD} \right) \quad (8)$$

Adding (7) and (8) and using (1) we get

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ab} + V_{ac} &= \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left[ 2q_a \ln \frac{GMD}{r} + (q_b + q_c) \ln \frac{r}{GMD} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left[ 2q_a \ln \frac{GMD}{r} - q_a \ln \frac{r}{GMD} \right] = \frac{3}{2\pi \epsilon_0} q_a \ln \frac{GMD}{r} \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

For a set of balanced three-phase voltages

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ab} &= V_{an} \angle 0^\circ - V_{an} \angle -120^\circ \\ V_{ac} &= V_{an} \angle 0^\circ - V_{an} \angle -240^\circ \end{aligned}$$

Therefore we can write

$$V_{ab} + V_{ac} = 2V_{an} \angle 0^\circ - V_{an} \angle -120^\circ - V_{an} \angle -240^\circ = 2V_{an} \angle 0^\circ \text{ V} \quad (10)$$

Combining (9) and (10) we get

$$V_{an} = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} q_a \ln \frac{GMD}{r} \text{ V} \quad (11)$$

Therefore the capacitance to neutral is given by

$$C = \frac{q_a}{V_{an}} = \frac{2\pi \epsilon_0}{\ln(GMD/r)} \text{ F/m} \quad (12)$$

For bundle conductor

$$C = \frac{2\pi \epsilon_0}{\ln(GMD/r)}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} D_b &= \sqrt{\pi d} \text{ for 2 bundle} \\ &= \sqrt[3]{\pi d^2} \text{ for 3 bundle} \\ &= 1.094 \sqrt[4]{\pi d^3} \text{ for 4 bundle conductors} \end{aligned}$$

## EFFECT OF EARTH ON CAPACITANCE

In calculating the capacitance of transmission lines, the presence of earth was ignored, so far. The effect of earth on capacitance can be conveniently taken into account by the method of images.

## METHOD OF IMAGES

- The electric field of transmission line conductors must conform to the presence of the earth below.
- The earth for this purpose may be assumed to be a perfectly conducting horizontal sheet of infinite extent which therefore acts like an equipotential surface.
- The electric field of two long, parallel conductors charged +q and -q per unit length such that it has a zero potential plane midway between the conductors as shown in Fig. 7.

- If a conducting sheet of infinite dimensions is placed at the zero potential plane, the electric field remains undisturbed.
- Further, if the conductor carrying charge  $+q$  is now removed, the electric field above the conducting sheet stays intact, while that below it vanishes.
- Using these well-known results in reverse, we may equivalently replace the presence of ground below a charged conductor by a fictitious conductor having equal and opposite charge and located as far below the surface of ground as the overhead conductor above it—such a fictitious conductor is the mirror image of the overhead conductor.
- This method of creating the same electric field as in the presence of earth is known as the method of images originally suggested by Lord Kelvin.

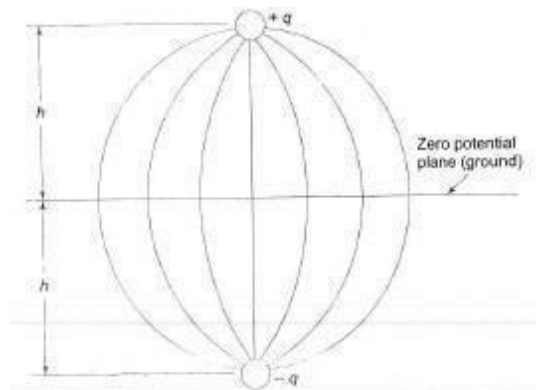
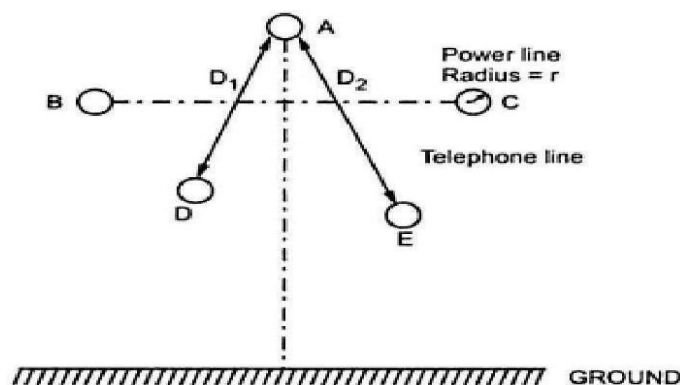


Fig.7 Electric field of two long, parallel, oppositely charged conductors

### EXPRESSION FOR THE VOLTAGE INDUCED IN COMMUNICATION LINES DUE TO THE CURRENT IN POWER LINES



The inductance of this loop is given by,

$$L_{AD} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \ln[D_1/r] \text{ H/m.}$$

The inductance of the loop AE is given by,

$$L_{AE} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \ln[D_2/r] \text{ H/m}$$

The mutual inductance between conductor A and the loop DE is given by,

$$M_A = L_{AE} - L_{AD} = 2 \times 10^{-7} [\ln[D_2/r] - \ln[D_1/r]]$$

Then the effect of the magnetic field will be,

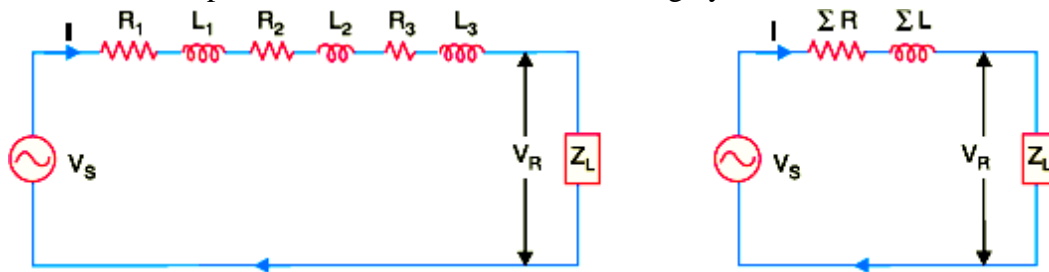
$$M = M_A + M_B + M_C$$

$$V = 2\pi f I M \text{ volts/m.}$$

## PARAMETERS OF SINGLE AND THREE PHASE TRANSMISSION LINES WITH SINGLE AND DOUBLE CIRCUITS

### CONSTANTS OF A TRANSMISSION LINE

A transmission line has resistance, inductance and capacitance uniformly distributed along the whole length of the line. Before we pass on to the methods of finding these constants for a transmission line, it is profitable to understand them thoroughly.



(i) **Resistance.** It is the opposition of line conductors to current flow. The resistance is distributed uniformly along the whole length of the line as shown in Fig. However, the performance of a transmission line can be analysed conveniently if distributed resistance is considered as lumped as shown in Fig.

(ii) **Inductance.** When an alternating current flows through a conductor, a changing flux is set up which links the conductor. Due to these flux linkages, the conductor possesses inductance. Mathematically, inductance is defined as the flux linkages per ampere *i.e.*,

$$\text{Inductance, } L = \frac{\Psi}{I} \text{ henry}$$

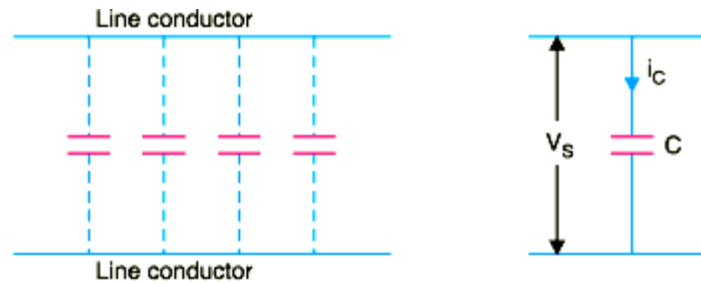
where  $\Psi$  = flux linkages in weber-turns  
 $I$  = current in amperes

The inductance is also uniformly distributed along the length of the line as shown in Fig. Again for the convenience of analysis, it can be taken to be lumped as shown in Fig.

**(iii) Capacitance.** We know that any two conductors separated by an insulating material constitute a capacitor. As any two conductors of an overhead transmission line are separated by air which acts as an insulation, therefore, capacitance exists between any two overhead line conductors. The capacitance between the conductors is the charge per unit potential difference

**(iii) Capacitance.** We know that any two conductors separated by an insulating material constitute a capacitor. As any two conductors of an overhead transmission line are separated by air which acts as an insulation, therefore, capacitance exists between any two overhead line conductors. The capacitance between the conductors is the charge per unit potential difference *i.e.*,

Capacitance,  $C = \frac{q}{v}$  farad



where

$q$  = charge on the line in coulomb

$v$  = p.d. between the conductors in volts

The capacitance is uniformly distributed along the whole length of the line and may be regarded as a uniform series of capacitors connected between the conductors as shown in Fig. 9.2( i). When an alternating voltage is impressed on a transmission line, the charge on the conductors at any point increases and decreases with the increase and decrease of the instantaneous value of the voltage between conductors at that point. The result is that a current (known as *charging current*) flows between the conductors [See Fig. 9.2( ii)]. This charging current flows in the line even when it is open-circuited *i.e.*, supplying no load. It affects the voltage drop along the line as well as the efficiency and power factor of the line.

### Resistance of a Transmission Line

The resistance of transmission line conductors is the most important cause of power loss in a transmission line. The resistance  $R$  of a line conductor having resistivity  $\rho$ , length  $l$  and area of cross-section  $a$  is given by ;

$$R = \rho l / a$$

The variation of resistance of metallic conductors with temperature is practically linear over the normal range of operation. Suppose  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are the resistances of a conductor at  $t_1$  °C and  $t_2$  °C

( $t_2 > t_1$ ) respectively. If  $\alpha_1$  is the temperature coefficient at  $t_1$  °C, then,

$$R_2 = R_1 [1 + \alpha_1 (t_2 - t_1)]$$

$$\text{where } \alpha_1 = \frac{\alpha_0}{1 + \alpha_0 t_1}$$

$$\alpha_0 = \text{temperature coefficient at } 0^\circ \text{C}$$

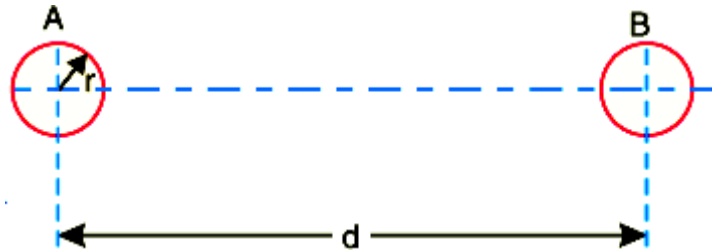
### INDUCTANCE OF A SINGLE PHASE TWO-WIRE LINE

A single phase line consists of two parallel conductors which form a rectangular loop of one turn.

When an alternating current flows through such a loop, a changing magnetic flux is set up. The changing flux links the loop and hence the loop (or single phase line) possesses inductance. It may appear that inductance of a single phase line is negligible because it consists of a loop of one turn and the flux path is through air of high reluctance. But as the X-sectional



area of the loop is very large, even for a small flux density, the total flux linking the loop is quite large and hence the line has appreciable inductance.



Considering a single phase overhead line consisting of two parallel conductors A and B spaced  $d$  metres apart as shown in Fig. 9.7. Conductors A and B carry the same amount of current (i.e.  $I_A = I_B$ ), but in the opposite direction because one forms the return circuit of the other.

$$I_A + I_B = 0$$

In order to find the inductance of conductor A (or conductor B), we shall have to consider the flux linkages with it. There will be flux linkages with conductor A due to its own current  $I_A$  and also A due to the mutual inductance effect of current  $I_B$  in the conductor B. Flux linkages with conductor A due to its own current

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I_A}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{4} + \int_r^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \right)$$

Flux linkages with conductor A due to current  $I_B$

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I_B}{2\pi} \int_d^\infty \frac{dx}{x}$$

Total flux linkages with conductor A is

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_A &= \text{exp. (i)} + \text{exp (ii)} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 I_A}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{4} + \int_r^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \right) + \frac{\mu_0 I_B}{2\pi} \int_d^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} + \int_r^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \right) I_A + I_B \int_d^\infty \frac{dx}{x} \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \infty - \log_e r \right) I_A + (\log_e \infty - \log_e d) I_B \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{I_A}{4} + \log_e \infty (I_A + I_B) - I_A \log_e r - I_B \log_e d \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{I_A}{4} - I_A \log_e r - I_B \log_e d \right] \quad (\because I_A + I_B = 0) \end{aligned}$$

Now,  $I_A + I_B = 0$  or  $-I_B = I_A$

$$\therefore -I_B \log_e d = I_A \log_e d$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \Psi_A &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{I_A}{4} + I_A \log_e d - I_A \log_e r \right] \text{ wb-turns/m} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{I_A}{4} + I_A \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 I_A}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ wb-turns/m} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Inductance of conductor A, } L_A &= \frac{\Psi_A}{I_A} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ H/m} = \frac{4\pi \times 10^{-7}}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ H/m} \end{aligned}$$

$$L_A = 10^{-7} \left[ \frac{1}{2} + 2 \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ H/m}$$

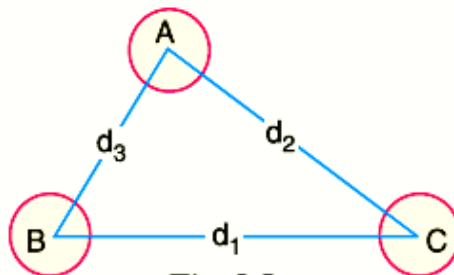
$$\text{Loop inductance} = 2 L_A \text{ H/m} = 10^{-7} \left[ 1 + 4 \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ H/m}$$

$$\text{Loop inductance} = 10^{-7} \left[ 1 + 4 \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ H/m}$$

Note that eq. (ii) is the inductance of the two-wire line and is sometimes called loop inductance. However, inductance given by eq. (i) is the inductance per conductor and is equal to half the loop inductance.

### INDUCTANCE OF A 3-PHASE OVERHEAD LINE

shows the three conductors A, B and C of a 3-phase line carrying currents  $I_A$ ,  $I_B$  and  $I_C$  respectively. Let  $d_1$ ,  $d_2$  and  $d_3$  be the spacings between the conductors as shown. Let us further assume that the loads are balanced i.e.  $I_A + I_B + I_C = 0$ . Consider the flux linkages with conductor A. There will be flux linkages with conductor A due to its own current and also due to the mutual inductance effects of  $I_B$  and  $I_C$ .



FluxlinkageswithconductorAduetoitsowncurrent

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I_A}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{4} + \int_r^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} \right) \quad \dots(i)$$

FluxlinkageswithconductorAduetocurrentI<sub>B</sub>

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I_B}{2\pi} \int_{d_3}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x}$$

FluxlinkageswithconductorAduetocurrentI<sub>C</sub>

$$= \frac{\mu_0 I_C}{2\pi} \int_{d_2}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x}$$

TotalfluxlinkageswithconductorAis

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_A &= (i) + (ii) + (iii) \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 I_A}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{4} + \int_r^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} \right) + \frac{\mu_0 I_B}{2\pi} \int_{d_3}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} + \frac{\mu_0 I_C}{2\pi} \int_{d_2}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} + \int_r^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} \right) I_A + I_B \int_{d_3}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} + I_C \int_{d_2}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} - \log_e r \right) I_A - I_B \log_e d_3 - I_C \log_e d_2 + \log_e \infty (I_A + I_B + I_C) \right] \end{aligned}$$

As  $I_A + I_B + I_C = 0$ ,

$$\therefore \Psi_A = \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} - \log_e r \right) I_A - I_B \log_e d_3 - I_C \log_e d_2 \right]$$

### SYMMETRICALSPACING

If the three conductors A, B and C are placed symmetrically at the corners of an equilateral triangle of side d, then,  $d_1 = d_2 = d_3 = d$ . Under such conditions, the flux derived in a similar way, the expressions for inductance are the same for conductors B and C.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Psi_A &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} - \log_e r \right) I_A - I_B \log_e d - I_C \log_e d \right] \\
 &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} - \log_e r \right) I_A - (I_B + I_C) \log_e d \right] \\
 &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} - \log_e r \right) I_A + I_A \log_e d \right] \quad (\because I_B + I_C = -I_A) \\
 &= \frac{\mu_0 I_A}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ weber-turns/m} \\
 L_A &= \frac{\Psi_A}{I_A} \text{ H/m} = \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ H/m} \\
 &= \frac{4\pi \times 10^{-7}}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ H/m} \\
 L_A &= 10^{-7} \left[ 0.5 + 2 \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right] \text{ H/m}
 \end{aligned}$$

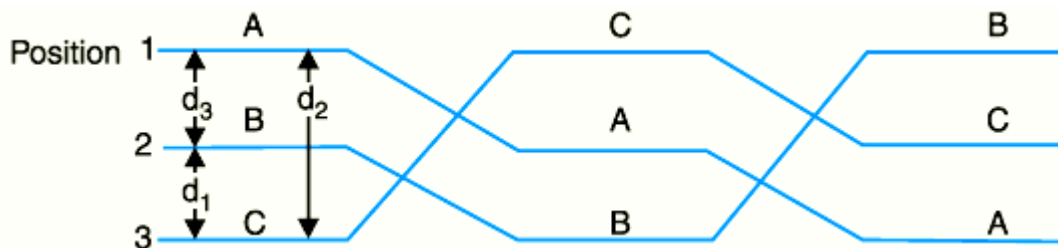
### UNSYMMETRICAL SPACING

When 3-phase line conductors are not equidistant from each other, the conductor spacing is said to be unsymmetrical. Under such conditions, the flux linkages and inductance of each phase are not the same. A different inductance in each phase results in unequal voltage drops in the three phases even if the currents in the conductors are balanced. Therefore, the voltage at the receiving end will not be the same for all phases. In order that voltage drops are equal in all conductors, we generally interchange the positions of the conductors at regular intervals along the line so that each conductor occupies the original position of every other conductor over an equal distance. Such an exchange of positions is known as transposition. The transposed line. The phase conductors are redesignated as A, B and C and the positions occupied are numbered 1, 2 and 3. The effect of transposition is that each conductor has the same average inductance.

Fig. shows a 3-phase transposed line having unsymmetrical spacing. Let us assume that each of the three sections is 1 m in length. Let us further assume balanced conditions i.e.,

$$I_A + I_B + I_C = 0$$

Let the line currents be:



$$\begin{aligned}
 I_A &= I(1 + j0) \\
 I_B &= I(-0.5 - j0.866) \\
 I_C &= I(-0.5 + j0.866)
 \end{aligned}$$

As proved above, the total flux linkages per metre length of conductor A is

$$\Psi_A = \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} - \log_e r \right) I_A - I_B \log_e d_3 - I_C \log_e d_2 \right]$$

Putting the values of  $I_A$ ,  $I_B$  and  $I_C$ , we get,

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_A &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{4} - \log_e r \right) I - I(-0.5 - j0.866) \log_e d_3 - I(-0.5 + j0.866) \log_e d_2 \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} I - I \log_e r + 0.5 I \log_e d_3 + j0.866 \log_e d_3 + 0.5 I \log_e d_2 - j0.866 I \log_e d_2 \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} I - I \log_e r + 0.5 I (\log_e d_3 + \log_e d_2) + j0.866 I (\log_e d_3 - \log_e d_2) \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} I - I \log_e r + I \log_e \sqrt{d_2 d_3} + j0.866 I \log_e \frac{d_3}{d_2} \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} I + I \log_e \frac{\sqrt{d_2 d_3}}{r} + j0.866 I \log_e \frac{d_3}{d_2} \right] \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{\sqrt{d_2 d_3}}{r} + j0.866 \log_e \frac{d_3}{d_2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore$  Inductance of conductor A is

$$\begin{aligned} L_A &= \frac{\Psi_A}{I_A} = \frac{\Psi_A}{I} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{\sqrt{d_2 d_3}}{r} + j0.866 \log_e \frac{d_3}{d_2} \right] \\ &= \frac{4\pi \times 10^{-7}}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{\sqrt{d_2 d_3}}{r} + j0.866 \log_e \frac{d_3}{d_2} \right] \text{ H/m} \\ &= 10^{-7} \left[ \frac{1}{2} + 2 \log_e \frac{\sqrt{d_2 d_3}}{r} + j1.732 \log_e \frac{d_3}{d_2} \right] \text{ H/m} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly inductance of conductors B and C will be:

$$\begin{aligned} L_B &= 10^{-7} \left[ \frac{1}{2} + 2 \log_e \frac{\sqrt{d_3 d_1}}{r} + j1.732 \log_e \frac{d_1}{d_3} \right] \text{ H/m} \\ L_C &= 10^{-7} \left[ \frac{1}{2} + 2 \log_e \frac{\sqrt{d_1 d_2}}{r} + j1.732 \log_e \frac{d_2}{d_1} \right] \text{ H/m} \end{aligned}$$

Inductance of each line conductor

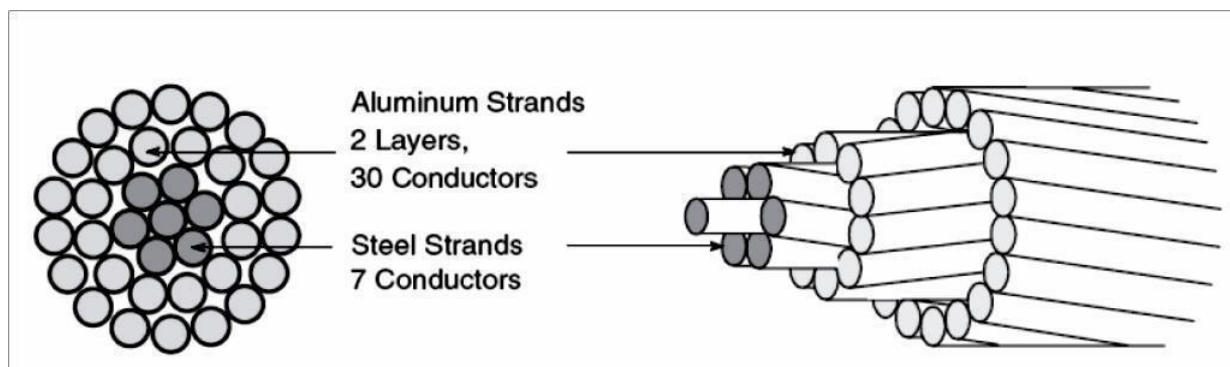
$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{3} (L_A + L_B + L_C) \\
 &= \left[ \frac{1}{2} + 2 \log_e \frac{\sqrt[3]{d_1 d_2 d_3}}{r} \right] \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m} \\
 &= \left[ 0.5 + 2 \log_e \frac{\sqrt[3]{d_1 d_2 d_3}}{r} \right] \times 10^{-7} \text{ H/m}
 \end{aligned}$$

If we compare the formula of inductance of an unsymmetrically spaced transposed line with that of symmetrically spaced line, we find that inductance of each line conductor in the two cases will

be equal if  $d = \sqrt[3]{d_1 d_2 d_3}$ . The distance  $d$  is known as equivalent equilateral spacing for an unsymmetrically transposed line.

### SPIRALING AND BUNDLE CONDUCTOR EFFECT

There are two types of transmission line conductors: overhead and underground. Overhead conductors, made of naked metal and suspended on insulators, are preferred over underground conductors because of the lower cost and easy maintenance. Also, overhead transmission lines use aluminum conductors, because of the lower cost and lighter weight compared to copper conductors, although more cross-sectional area is needed to conduct the same amount of current. There are different types of commercially available aluminum conductors: aluminum-conductor-steel-reinforced (ACSR), aluminum-conductor-alloy-reinforced (ACAR), all-aluminum-conductor (AAC), and all-aluminum alloy-conductor (AAAC).



ACSR is one of the most used conductors in transmission lines. It consists of alternate layers of stranded conductors, spiraled in opposite directions to hold the strands together, surrounding a core of steel strands. Figure 13.4 shows an example of aluminum and steel strands combination. The purpose of introducing a steel core inside the stranded aluminum conductors is to obtain a high strength-to-weight ratio. A stranded conductor offers more flexibility and easier to manufacture than a solid large conductor. However, the total resistance is increased because the outside strands are larger than the inside strands on account of the spiraling. The resistance of each wound conductor at any layer, per unit length, is based on its total length as follows:

$$R_{cond} = \frac{\rho}{A} \sqrt{1 + \left(\pi \frac{1}{P}\right)^2} \Omega/m$$

## CONCEPT OF SELF-GMD AND MUTUAL-GMD

The use of self geometrical mean distance (abbreviated as self-GMD) and mutual geometrical mean distance (mutual-GMD) simplifies the inductance calculations, particularly relating to multiconductor arrangements. The symbols used for these are respectively  $D_s$  and  $D_m$ . We shall briefly discuss these terms.

### (i) Self-GMD ( $D_s$ )

In order to have concept of self-GMD (also sometimes called Geometrical mean radius; GMR), consider the expression for inductance per conductor per metre already derived in Art. Inductance/conductor/m

$$\begin{aligned} &= 2 \times 10^{-7} \left( \frac{1}{4} + \log_e \frac{d}{r} \right) \\ &= 2 \times 10^{-7} \times \frac{1}{4} + 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{d}{r} \end{aligned}$$

In this expression, the term  $2 \times 10^{-7} \times (1/4)$  is the inductance due to flux within the solid conductor. For many purposes, it is desirable to eliminate this term by the introduction of a concept called self-GMD or GMR. If we replace the original solid conductor by an equivalent hollow cylinder with extremely thin walls, the current is confined to the conductor surface and internal conductor flux linkage would be almost zero. Consequently, inductance due to internal flux would be zero and the term  $2 \times 10^{-7} \times (1/4)$  shall be eliminated. The radius of this equivalent hollow cylinder must be sufficiently smaller than the physical radius of the conductor to allow room for enough additional flux to compensate for the absence of internal flux linkage. It can be proved mathematically that for a solid round conductor of radius  $r$ , the self-GMD or GMR =  $0.7788 r$ . Using self-GMD, the eq. (i) becomes:

$$\text{Inductance/conductor/m} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e d / D_s^*$$

Where

$$D_s = \text{GMR or self-GMD} = 0.7788 r$$

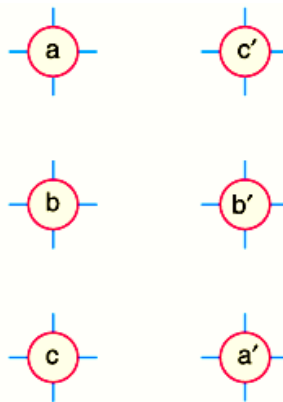
It may be noted that self-GMD of a conductor depends upon the size and shape of the conductor and is independent of the spacing between the conductors.

### (ii) Mutual-GMD

The mutual-GMD is the geometrical mean of the distances from one conductor to the other and, therefore, must be between the largest and smallest such distance. In fact, mutual-GMD simply represents the equivalent geometrical spacing.

(a) The mutual-GMD between two conductors (assuming that spacing between conductors is large compared to the diameter of each conductor) is equal to the distance between their centres i.e.  $D_m = \text{spacing between conductors} = d$

(b) For a single circuit 3- $\phi$  line, the mutual-GMD is equal to the equivalent equilateral spacing i.e.,  $(d_1 d_2 d_3)^{1/3}$ .



(c) The principle of geometrical mean distances can be most profitably employed to 3- $\phi$  double circuit lines. Consider the conductor arrangement of the double circuit shown in Fig. Suppose the radius of each conductor is  $r$ .

Self-GMD of conductor =  $0.7788r$

Self-GMD of combination  $aa'$  is

$$D_{s1} = (D_{aa} \times D_{aa'} \times D_{a'a'} \times D_{a'a})^{1/4}$$

Self-GMD of combination  $bb'$  is

$$D_{s2} = (D_{bb} \times D_{bb'} \times D_{b'b'} \times D_{b'b})^{1/4}$$

Self-GMD of combination  $cc'$  is

$$D_{s3} = (D_{cc} \times D_{cc'} \times D_{c'c'} \times D_{c'c})^{1/4}$$

Equivalent self-GMD of one phase

$$D_s = (D_{s1} \times D_{s2} \times D_{s3})^{1/3}$$

The value of  $D_s$  is the same for all the phases as each conductor has the same radius.

Mutual-GMD between phases A and B is

$$D_{AB} = (D_{ab} \times D_{ab'} \times D_{a'b'} \times D_{a'b})^{1/4}$$

Mutual-GMD between phases B and C is

$$D_{BC} = (D_{bc} \times D_{bc'} \times D_{b'c'} \times D_{b'c})^{1/4}$$

Mutual-GMD between phases C and A is

$$D_{CA} = (D_{ca} \times D_{ca'} \times D_{c'a'} \times D_{c'a})^{1/4}$$

$$\text{Equivalent mutual-GMD, } D_m = (D_{AB} \times D_{BC} \times D_{CA})^{1/3}$$

It is worthwhile to note that mutual GMD depends only upon the spacing and is substantially independent of the exact size, shape and orientation of the conductor.

### Inductance Formulas in Terms of GMD

The inductance formulas developed in the previous articles can be conveniently expressed in terms of geometrical mean distances.



**(i) Single phase line**

$$\text{Inductance/conductor/m} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_s}$$

where  $D_s = 0.7788 r$  and  $D_m = \text{Spacing between conductors} = d$

**(ii) Single circuit 3- $\phi$  line**

$$\text{Inductance/phase/m} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_s}$$

where  $D_s = 0.7788 r$  and  $D_m = (d_1 d_2 d_3)^{1/3}$

**(iii) Double circuit 3- $\phi$  line**

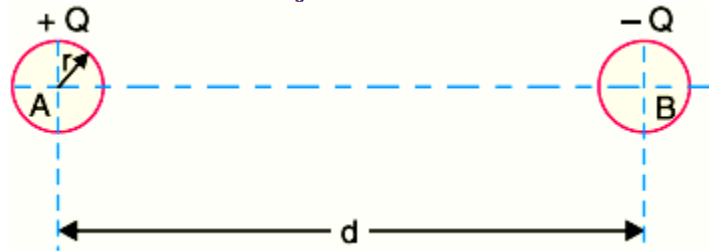
$$\text{Inductance/phase/m} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_s}$$

where  $D_s = (D_{s1} D_{s2} D_{s3})^{1/3}$  and  $D_m = (D_{AB} \times D_{BC} \times D_{CA})^{1/3}$

**CAPACITANCE OF A SINGLE PHASE TWO-WIRE LINE**

Consider a single phase overhead transmission line consisting of two parallel conductors A and B spaced  $d$  metres apart in air. Suppose that radius of each conductor is  $r$  metres. Let their respective charge be  $+Q$  and  $-Q$  coulombs per metre length. The total p.d. between conductor A and neutral "infinite" plane is

$$\begin{aligned} V_A &= \int_r^\infty \frac{Q}{2\pi x \epsilon_0} dx + \int_d^\infty \frac{-Q}{2\pi x \epsilon_0} dx \\ &= \frac{Q}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left[ \log_e \frac{\infty}{r} - \log_e \frac{\infty}{d} \right] \text{volts} = \frac{Q}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r} \text{volts} \end{aligned}$$



Similarly, p.d. between conductor B and neutral "infinite" plane is

$$\begin{aligned} V_B &= \int_r^\infty \frac{-Q}{2\pi x \epsilon_0} dx + \int_d^\infty \frac{Q}{2\pi x \epsilon_0} dx \\ &= \frac{-Q}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left[ \log_e \frac{\infty}{r} - \log_e \frac{\infty}{d} \right] = \frac{-Q}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r} \text{volts} \end{aligned}$$

Both these potentials are w.r.t. the same neutral plane. Since the unlike charges attract each other, the potential difference between the conductors is

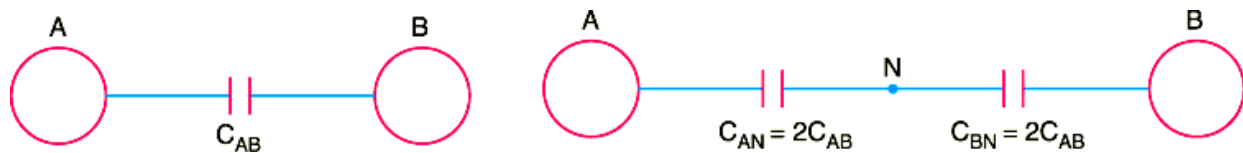
$$V_{AB} = 2V_A = \frac{2Q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r} \text{ volts}$$

Capacitance, 
$$C_{AB} = Q/V_{AB} = \frac{Q}{\frac{2Q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r}} \text{ F/m}$$

$$C_{AB} = \frac{\pi\epsilon_0}{\log_e \frac{d}{r}} \text{ F/m}$$

### Capacitance to neutral

Equation (i) gives the capacitance between the conductors of a two-wire line. Often it is desired to know the capacitance between one of the conductors and a neutral point between them. Since potential of the mid-point between the conductors is zero, the potential difference between each conductor and the ground or neutral is half the potential difference between the conductors. Thus the capacitance to ground or capacitance to neutral for the two-wire line is twice the line-to-line capacitance



Capacitance to neutral,  $C_N = C_{AN} = C_{BN} = 2C_{AB}$

$$C_N = \frac{2\pi\epsilon_0}{\log_e \frac{d}{r}} \text{ F/m}$$

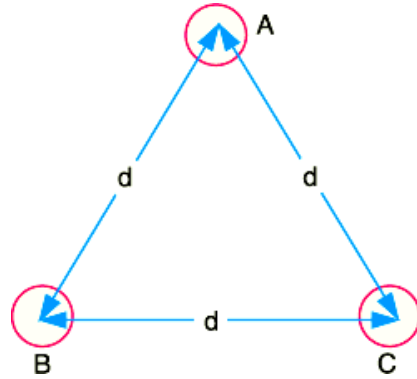
The reader may compare eq. (ii) to the one for inductance. One difference between the equations for capacitance and inductance should be noted carefully. The radius in the equation for capacitance is the actual outside radius of the conductor and not the GMR of the conductor as in the inductance formula. Note that eq. (ii) applies only to a solid round conductor.

### 2.7.1 CAPACITANCE OF A 3-PHASE OVERHEAD LINE

In a 3-phase transmission line, the capacitance of each conductor is considered instead of capacitance from conductor to conductor. Here, again two cases arise viz., symmetrical spacing and unsymmetrical spacing.

#### (i) Symmetrical Spacing

Fig shows the three conductors A, B and C of the 3-phase overhead transmission line having charges  $Q_A$ ,  $Q_B$  and  $Q_C$  per meter length respectively. Let the conductors be equidistant ( $d$  meters) from each other. We shall find the capacitance from line conductor to neutral in this symmetrically spaced line. Referring to Fig,



Overall potential difference between conductor A and infinite neutral plane is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_A &= \int_r^\infty \frac{Q_A}{2\pi x \epsilon_0} dx + \int_d^\infty \frac{Q_B}{2\pi x \epsilon_0} dx + \int_d^\infty \frac{Q_C}{2\pi x \epsilon_0} dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left[ Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{r} + Q_B \log_e \frac{1}{d} + Q_C \log_e \frac{1}{d} \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left[ Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{r} + (Q_B + Q_C) \log_e \frac{1}{d} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Assuming balanced supply, we have,  $Q_A + Q_B + Q_C = 0$

$$\therefore Q_B + Q_C = -Q_A$$

$$\therefore V_A = \frac{1}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \left[ Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{r} - Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{d} \right] = \frac{Q_A}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r} \text{ volts}$$

$\therefore$  Capacitance of conductor A w.r.t. neutral,

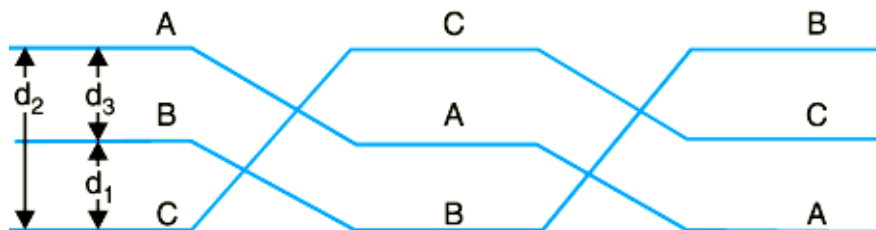
$$C_A = \frac{Q_A}{V_A} = \frac{Q_A}{\frac{Q_A}{2\pi \epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r}} \text{ F/m} = \frac{2\pi \epsilon_0}{\log_e \frac{d}{r}} \text{ F/m}$$

$$C_A = \frac{2\pi \epsilon_0}{\log_e \frac{d}{r}} \text{ F/m}$$

Note that this equation is identical to capacitance to neutral for two-wire line. Derived in a similar manner, the expressions for capacitance are the same for conductors B and C.

## (ii) Unsymmetrical spacing.

Fig. shows a 3-phase transposed line having unsymmetrical spacing. Let us assume balanced conditions i.e.  $Q_A + Q_B + Q_C = 0$ .



Considering all the three sections of the transposed line for phase A,

$$\text{Potential of 1st position, } V_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left( Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{r} + Q_B \log_e \frac{1}{d_3} + Q_C \log_e \frac{1}{d_2} \right)$$

$$\text{Potential of 2nd position, } V_2 = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left( Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{r} + Q_B \log_e \frac{1}{d_1} + Q_C \log_e \frac{1}{d_3} \right)$$

$$\text{Potential of 3rd position, } V_3 = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left( Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{r} + Q_B \log_e \frac{1}{d_2} + Q_C \log_e \frac{1}{d_1} \right)$$

Average voltage on conductor A is

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_A &= \frac{1}{3} (V_1 + V_2 + V_3) \\
 &= \frac{1}{3 \times 2\pi\epsilon_0} * \left[ Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{r^3} + (Q_B + Q_C) \log_e \frac{1}{d_1 d_2 d_3} \right] \\
 \text{As } Q_A + Q_B + Q_C &= 0, \text{ therefore, } Q_B + Q_C = -Q_A \\
 \therefore V_A &= \frac{1}{6\pi\epsilon_0} \left[ Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{r^3} - Q_A \log_e \frac{1}{d_1 d_2 d_3} \right] \\
 &= \frac{Q_A}{6\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d_1 d_2 d_3}{r^3} \\
 &= \frac{1}{3} \times \frac{Q_A}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d_1 d_2 d_3}{r^3} \\
 &= \frac{Q_A}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \left( \frac{d_1 d_2 d_3}{r^3} \right)^{1/3} \\
 &= \frac{Q_A}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{(d_1 d_2 d_3)^{1/3}}{r}
 \end{aligned}$$

Capacitance from conductor to neutral is

$$C_A = \frac{Q_A}{V_A} = \frac{2\pi\epsilon_0}{\log_e \frac{\sqrt[3]{d_1 d_2 d_3}}{r}} \text{ F/m}$$

## INDUCTIVE INTERFERENCE WITH NEIGHBOURING COMMUNICATION CIRCUITS

It is usual practice to run telephone lines along the same route as the power lines. The transmission lines transmit bulk power at relatively high voltages and, therefore, these lines give rise to electro-magnetic and electrostatic fields of sufficient magnitude which induce are superposed on the true speech currents in the neighboring telephone wires and set up distortion while the voltages so induced raise the potential of the communication circuit as a whole. In extreme cases the effect of these may make it impossible to transmit any message faithfully and may raise the potential of the telephone receiver above the ground to such an extent to render the handling of the telephone receiver extremely dangerous and in such cases elaborate precautions are required to be observed to avoid this danger.

In practice it is observed that the power lines and the communication lines run along the same path. Sometimes it can also be seen that both these lines run on same supports along the same route. The transmission lines transmit bulk power with relatively high voltage. Electromagnetic and electrostatic fields are produced by these lines having sufficient magnitude. Because of these fields, voltages and currents are induced in the neighbouring communication lines. Thus it gives rise to interference of power line with communication circuit.

Due to electromagnetic effect, currents are induced which is superimposed on speech current of the neighbouring communication line which results into distortion. The potential of the communication circuit as a whole is raised because of electrostatic effect and the communication apparatus and the equipments may get damaged due to extraneous voltages. In the worst situation, the faithful transmission of message becomes impossible due to effect of these fields. Also the potential of the apparatus is raised above the ground to such an extent that the handling of telephone receiver becomes extremely dangerous.

The electromagnetic and the electrostatic effects mainly depend on what is the distance between power and communication circuits and the length of the route over which they are parallel. Thus it can be noted that if the distortion effect and potential rise effect are within permissible limits then the communication will be proper. The unacceptable disturbance which is produced in the telephone communication because of power lines is called Telephone Interference.

There are various factors influencing the telephone interference. These factors are as follows

- 1) Because of harmonics in power circuit, their frequency range and magnitudes.
- 2) Electromagnetic coupling between power and telephone conductor.

The electric coupling is in the form of capacitive coupling between power and telephone conductor whereas the magnetic coupling is through space and is generally expressed in terms of mutual inductance at harmonic frequencies.

- 3) Due to unbalance in power circuits and telephone circuits.
- 4) Type of return telephone circuit i.e. either metallic or ground return.
- 5) Screening effects.

#### Steps for Reducing Telephone Interference

There are various ways that can reduce the telephone interference. Some of them are as listed below

- i) The harmonics at the source can be reduced with the use of A.C. harmonic filters, D.C. harmonic filters and smoothing rectors.
- ii) Use greater spacing between power and telephone lines.
- iii) The parallel run between telephone line and power line is avoided.
- iv) Instead of using overhead telephone wires, underground telephone cables may be used.
- v) If the telephone circuit is ground return then replace it with metallic return.
- vi) Use microwave or carrier communication instead of telephone communication.
- vii) The balance of AC power line is improved by using transposition. Transposition of lines reduces the induced voltages to a considerable extent. The capacitance of the lines is balanced by transposition leading to balance in electrostatically induced voltages. Using transposition the fluxes due to positive and negative phase sequence currents cancel out so the electromagnetically induced e.m.f.s are diminished. For zero sequence currents the telephone lines are also transposed which is shown in the Fig.

## **INDUCTIVEINTERFERENCEWITHNEIGHBOURINGCIRCUITS**

Thefactorsinfluencingthetelephoneinterferenceare:

- Becauseofharmonicsinpowercircuit,theirfrequencyrangeandmagnitudes
- Electromagneticcoupling
- Duetounbalanceinpowercircuitsandintelephonecircuits
- Typeofreturntelephoneircuit
- Screeningeffects

## **STEPSFORREDUCINGTELEPHONEINTERFERENCE**

- HarmonicscanbereducedwiththeuseofACharmonicfilters,DCharmonic filtersand smoothening reactors
  - Usegreaterspacingbetweenpowerandtelephonelines
  - Parallelrunbetweentelephoneandpowerlineisavoided
  - Iftelephoneircuitisgroundreturn,replacewithmetallicreturn.
-

## UNIT IV

### PERFORMANCE OF LINES: SHORT, MEDIUM AND LONG TRANSMISSION LINES

#### CLASSIFICATION OF LINES-INTRODUCTION

The important considerations in the design and operation of a transmission line are the determination of voltage drop, line losses and efficiency of transmission. These values are greatly influenced by the line constants  $R$ ,  $L$  and  $C$  of the transmission line. For instance the voltage drop in the line depends upon the values of above three line constants. Similarly, the resistance of transmission line conductors is the most important cause of power loss in the line and determines the transmission efficiency. In this chapter, we shall develop formulas by which we can calculate voltage regulation, line losses and efficiency of transmission lines. These formulas are important for two principal reasons. Firstly, they provide an opportunity to understand the effects of the parameters of the line on bus voltages and the flow of power. Secondly, they help in developing an overall understanding of what is occurring on electric power system.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF OVERHEAD TRANSMISSION LINES

A transmission line has three constants  $R$ ,  $L$  and  $C$  distributed uniformly along the whole length of the line. The resistance and inductance form the series impedance. The capacitance existing between conductors for 1-phase line or from a conductor to neutral for a 3-phase line forms a shunt path throughout the length of the line. Therefore, capacitance effects introduce complications in transmission line calculations. Depending upon the manner in which capacitance is taken into account, the overhead transmission lines are classified as :

(i) **Short transmission lines.** When the length of an overhead transmission line is up to about 50 km and the line voltage is comparatively low ( $< 20$  kV), it is usually considered as a short transmission line. Due to smaller length and lower voltage, the capacitance effects are small and hence can be neglected. Therefore, while studying the performance of a short transmission line, only resistance and inductance of the line are taken into account.

(ii) **Medium transmission lines.** When the length of an overhead transmission line is about 50-150 km and the line voltage is moderately high ( $> 20$  kV  $< 100$  kV), it is considered as a medium transmission line. Due to sufficient length and voltage of the line, the capacitance effects are taken into account. For purposes of calculations, the distributed capacitance of the line is divided and lumped in the form of condensers shunted across the line at one or more points.

(iii) **Long transmission lines.** When the length of an overhead transmission line is more than 150 km and line voltage is very high ( $> 100$  kV), it is considered as a long transmission line. For the treatment of such a line, the line constants are considered uniformly distributed over the whole length of the line and rigorous methods are employed for solution.

It may be emphasized here that exact solution of any transmission line must consider the fact that the constants of the line are not lumped but are distributed uniformly throughout the length of the line.



However, reasonable accuracy can be obtained by considering these constants as lumped for short and medium transmission lines.

### Important Terms

While studying the performance of a transmission line, it is desirable to determine its voltage regulation and transmission efficiency. We shall explain these two terms in turn.

(i) **Voltage regulation.** When a transmission line is carrying current, there is a voltage drop in the line due to resistance and inductance of the line. The result is that receiving end voltage ( $V_R$ ) of the line is generally less than the sending end voltage ( $V_S$ ). This voltage drop ( $V_S - V_R$ ) in the line is expressed as a percentage of receiving end voltage  $V$  and is called voltage regulation. The difference in voltage at the receiving end of a transmission line\*\*between conditions of no load and full load is called **voltage regulation** and is expressed as a percentage of the receiving end voltage.

(ii) **Transmission efficiency.** The power obtained at the receiving end of a transmission line is generally less than the sending end power due to losses in the line resistance.

The ratio of receiving end power to the sending end power of a transmission line is known as the **transmission efficiency** of the line.

### PERFORMANCE OF SINGLE PHASE SHORT TRANSMISSION LINES

As stated earlier, the effects of line capacitance are neglected for a short transmission line. Therefore, while studying the performance of such a line, only resistance and inductance of the line are taken into account. The equivalent circuit of a single phase short transmission line is shown in Fig.

Here, the total line resistance and inductance are shown as concentrated or lumped instead of being distributed. The circuit is a simple a.c. series circuit.

Let

$I$  = load current

$R$  = loop resistance i.e., resistance of both conductors  $X_L$  =

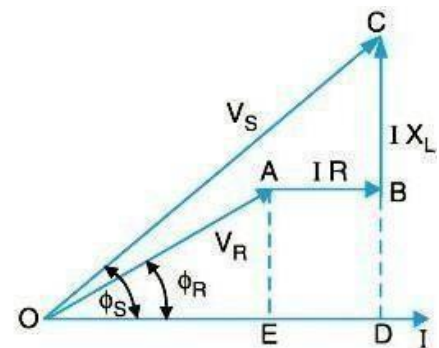
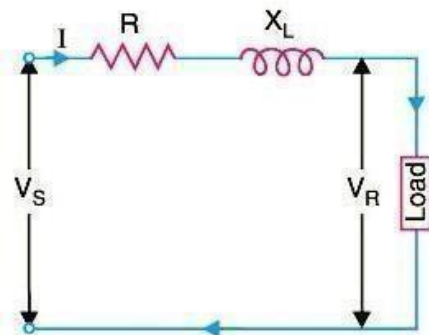
loop reactance

$V_R$  = receiving end voltage

$\cos \phi_R$  = receiving end power factor (lagging)

$V_S$  = sending end voltage

$\cos \phi_S$  = sending end power factor



The\*phasordiagramofthelineforlaggingloadpowerfactorisshowninFig.Fromtherightangled traingle ODC, we get,

$$\begin{aligned}
 (OC)^2 &= (OD)^2 + (DC)^2 \\
 \text{or } V_S^2 &= (OE + ED)^2 + (DB + BC)^2 \\
 &= (V_R \cos \phi_R + IR)^2 + (V_R \sin \phi_R + IX_L)^2 \\
 \therefore V_S &= \sqrt{(V_R \cos \phi_R + IR)^2 + (V_R \sin \phi_R + IX_L)^2} \\
 \text{(i) \%age Voltage regulation} &= \frac{V_S - V_R}{V_R} \times 100 \\
 \text{(ii) Sending end } p.f., \cos \phi_S &= \frac{OD}{OC} = \frac{V_R \cos \phi_R + IR}{V_S} \\
 \text{(iii) Power delivered} &= V_R I_R \cos \phi_R \\
 \text{Line losses} &= I^2 R \\
 \text{Power sent out} &= V_R I_R \cos \phi_R + I^2 R \\
 \text{\%age Transmission efficiency} &= \frac{\text{Power delivered}}{\text{Power sent out}} \times 100 \\
 &= \frac{V_R I_R \cos \phi_R}{V_R I_R \cos \phi_R + I^2 R} \times 100
 \end{aligned}$$

An approximate expression for the sending end voltage  $V_s$  can be obtained as follows. Draw  $S$  perpendicular from  $B$  and  $Con$   $OA$  produced as shown in Fig. Then  $OC$  is nearly equal to  $OF$

$$OC = OF = OA + AF = OA + AG + GF$$

$$= OA + AG + BH$$

$$V_s = V_R + IR \cos \phi_R + IX_L \sin \phi_R$$

### THREE-PHASE SHORT TRANSMISSION LINES

For reasons associated with economy, transmission of electric power is done by 3-phase system. This system may be regarded as consisting of three single phase units, each wire transmitting one-third of the total power. As a matter of convenience, we generally analyze 3-phase system by considering one phase only. Therefore, expression for regulation, efficiency etc. derived for a single phase line can also be applied to a 3-phase system. Since only one phase is considered, phase values of 3-phase system should be taken. Thus,  $V_s$  and  $V_R$  are the phase voltages, whereas  $R$  and  $X_L$  are the resistance  $S$  and inductive reactance per phase respectively.

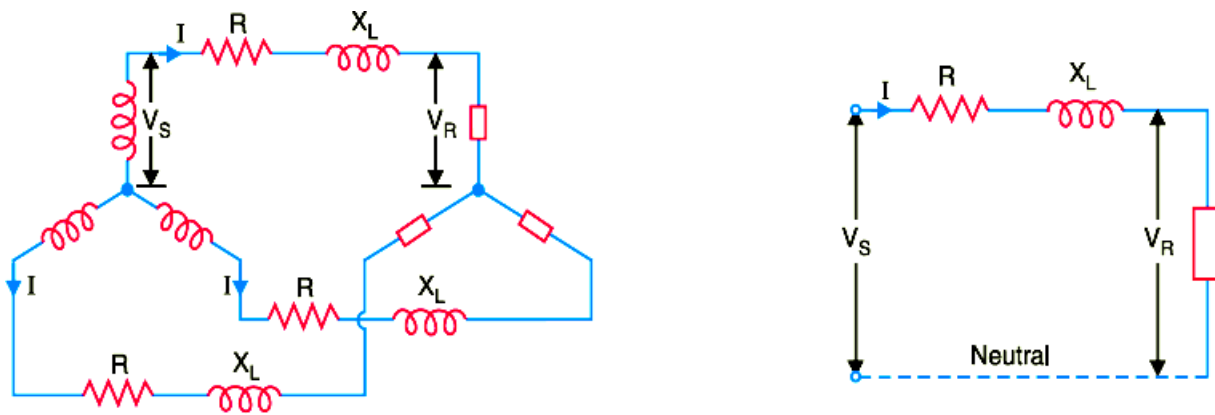


Fig (i) shows a Y-connected generator supplying a balanced Y-connected load through a transmission line. Each conductor has a resistance of  $R\Omega$  and inductive reactance of  $X\Omega$ . Fig. (ii) shows one phase separately. The calculations can now be made in the same way as for a single phase line.

### Effect of Load p.f. On Regulation and Efficiency

The regulation and efficiency of a transmission line depend to a considerable extent upon the power factor of the load.

#### 1. Effect on regulation.

The expression for voltage regulation of a short transmission line is given by:

$$\% \text{age Voltage regulation} = \frac{IR \cos \phi_R + IX_L \sin \phi_R}{V_R} \times 100 \quad (\text{for lagging p.f.})$$

$$\% \text{age Voltage regulation} = \frac{IR \cos \phi_R - IX_L \sin \phi_R}{V_R} \times 100 \quad (\text{for leading p.f.})$$

The following conclusions can be drawn from the above expressions:

- (i) When the load p.f. is lagging or unity or such leading that  $IR \cos \phi_R > IX_L \sin \phi_R$ , then voltage regulation is positive *i.e.*, receiving end voltage  $V_R$  will be less than the sending end voltage  $V_S$ .
- (ii) For a given  $V_R$  and  $I$ , the voltage regulation of the line increases with the decrease in p.f. for lagging loads.
- (i) When the load p.f. is leading to this extent that  $IX_L \sin \phi_R > IR \cos \phi_R$ , then voltage regulation is negative *i.e.* the receiving end voltage  $V_R$  is more than the sending end voltage  $V_S$ .
- (iv) For a given  $V_R$  and  $I$ , the voltage regulation of the line decreases with the decrease in p.f. for leading loads.

## 2. Effect on transmission efficiency.

The power delivered to the load depends upon the power factor.

$$P = V_R * I \cos \phi_R \quad (\text{For 1-phase line})$$

$$I = \frac{P}{V_R \cos \phi_R}$$

$$P = 3 V_R I \cos \phi_R \quad (\text{For 3-phase line})$$

$$I = \frac{P}{3 V_R \cos \phi_R}$$

It is clear that in each case, for a given amount of power to be transmitted (P) and receiving end voltage (V<sub>R</sub>), the load current (I) is inversely proportional to the load p.f. cos φ<sub>R</sub>. Consequently, with the decrease in load p.f., the load current and hence the line losses are increased. This leads to the conclusion that transmission efficiency of a line decreases with the decrease in load Power Factor (p.f.) and vice-versa,

## ABCD PARAMETERS

A major section of power system engineering deals in the transmission of electrical power from one particular place (eg. Generating station) to another like substations or distribution units with maximum efficiency. So it is of substantial importance for power system engineers to be thorough with its mathematical modeling. Thus the entire transmission system can be simplified to a **two port network** for the sake of easier calculations.

The circuit of a 2 port network is shown in the diagram below. As the name suggests, a 2 port network consists of an input port PQ and an output port RS. Each port has 2 terminals to connect itself to the external circuit. Thus it is essentially a 2 port or a 4 terminal circuit, having Supply end voltage = V<sub>S</sub> and Supply end current = I<sub>S</sub> given to the input port P Q.

And there is the Receiving end Voltage = V<sub>R</sub> and Receiving end current = I<sub>R</sub> given to the output port R S. As shown in the diagram below.

Now the **ABCD parameters** or the transmission line parameters provide the link between the supply and receiving end voltages and currents, considering the circuit elements to be linear in nature.

Thus the relation between the sending and receiving end specifications are given using

**ABCD parameters** by the equations below.

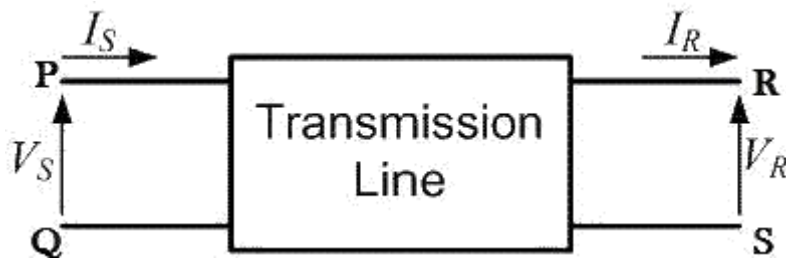
$$V_S = A V_R + B I_R \quad \text{---(1)}$$

$$I_S = C V_R + D I_R \quad \text{---(2)}$$

Now in order to determine the ABCD parameters of transmission line let us impose the required circuit conditions in different cases.

**ABCD parameters, when receiving end is open circuited**

The receiving end is open circuited meaning receiving end current  $I_R = 0$ . Applying this condition to



equation (1) we get.

$$V_S = A V_R + B \cdot 0 \Rightarrow V_S = A V_R + 0$$

$$A = \left. \frac{V_S}{V_R} \right|_{I_R = 0}$$

Thus it implies that on applying open circuit condition to ABCD parameters, we get parameter A as the ratio of sending end voltage to the open circuit receiving end voltage. Since dimension wise A is a ratio of voltage to voltage, A is a dimensionless parameter.

Applying the same open circuit condition i.e.  $I_R = 0$  to equation (2)

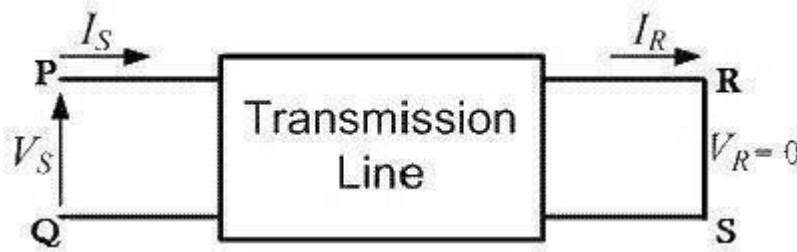
$$I_S = C V_R + D \cdot 0 \Rightarrow I_S = C V_R + 0$$

$$C = \left. \frac{I_S}{V_R} \right|_{I_R = 0}$$

Thus it implies that on applying open circuit condition to ABCD parameters of transmission line, we get parameter C as the ratio of sending end current to the open circuit receiving end voltage. Since dimension wise C is a ratio of current to voltage, its unit is mho.

Thus C is the open circuit conductance and is given by  $C = I_S / V_R$  mho.

### ABCD parameters when receiving end is short circuited



Receiving end is short circuited meaning receiving end voltage  $V_R = 0$ . Applying this condition to equation (1) we get

$$V_S = A \cdot 0 + B I_R \Rightarrow V_S = 0 + B I_R$$

$$B = \left. \frac{V_S}{I_R} \right|_{V_R = 0}$$

Thus it implies that on applying short circuit condition to ABCD parameters, we get parameter B as the ratio of sending end voltage to the short circuit receiving end current. Since dimension wise B is a ratio of voltage to current, its unit is  $\Omega$ . Thus B is the short circuit resistance and is given by

$$B = V_S / I_R \Omega$$

Applying the same short circuit condition i.e.  $V_R = 0$  to equation (2) we get

$$I_S = C \cdot 0 + D I_R \Rightarrow I_S = 0 + D I_R$$

$$D = \left. \frac{I_S}{I_R} \right|_{V_R = 0}$$

Thus it implies that on applying short circuit condition to ABCD parameters, we get parameter D as the ratio of sending end current to the short circuit receiving end current. Since dimension wise D is a ratio of current to current, it's a dimensionless parameter.  $\therefore$  the ABCD parameters of transmission line can be tabulated as:-

#### Parameter Specification

Unit A =  $V_S / V_R$  Voltage ratio

Unitless B =  $V_S / I_R$  Short circuit resistance  $\Omega$

C =  $I_S / V_R$  Open circuit conductance mho

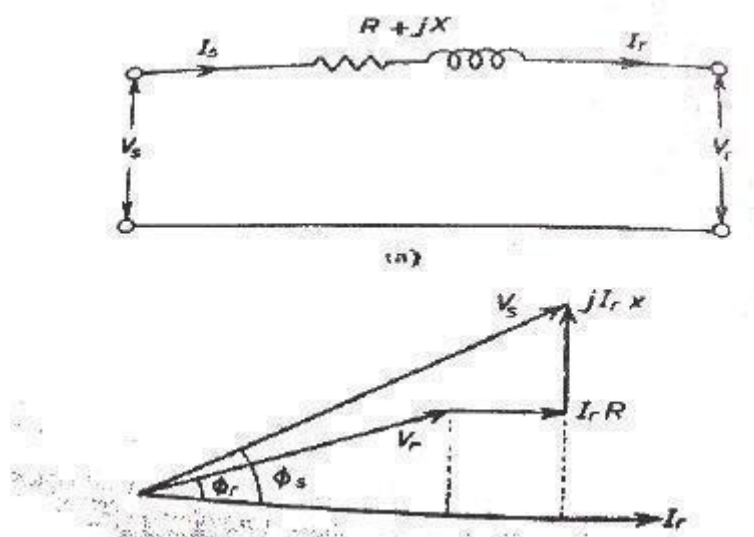
D =  $I_S / I_R$  Current ratio Unitless

### SHORTTRANSMISSIONLINE

The transmission lines which have length less than 80 km are generally referred as short transmission lines.

For short length, the shunt capacitance of this type of line is neglected and other parameters like resistance and inductance of these short lines are lumped, hence the equivalent circuit is represented as given below,

Let's draw the vector diagram for this equivalent circuit, taking receiving end current  $I_r$  as reference. The sending end and receiving end voltages make angle with that reference receiving end current, of  $\phi_s$  and  $\phi_r$ , respectively.



As the shunt capacitance of the line is neglected, hence sending end current and receiving end current is same, i.e.

$$I_s = I_r.$$

Now if we observe the vector diagram carefully, we will get,  $V_s$  is approximately equal to  $V_r +$

$I_r R \cos \phi_r + I_r X \sin \phi_r$  that means,

$$V_s \cong V_r + I_r R \cos \phi_r + I_r X \sin \phi_r \text{ as it is assumed that } \phi_s \cong \phi_r$$

As there is no capacitance, during no load condition the current through the line is considered as zero, hence at no load condition, receiving end voltage is the same as sending end voltage. As per definition of voltage regulation,

$$\% \text{ regulation} = \frac{V_s - V_r}{V_r} \times 100 \%$$

$$= \frac{I_r R \cos \phi_r + I_r X \sin \phi_r}{V_r} \times 100 \%$$

$$\text{per unit regulation} = \frac{I_r R}{V_r} \cos \phi_r + \frac{I_r X}{V_r} \sin \phi_r = v_r \cos \phi_r + v_x \sin \phi_r$$

$$A = \left. \frac{V_s}{V_r} \right|_{I_r = 0}$$

Here,  $v_r$  and  $v_x$  are the per unit resistance and reactance of the short transmission line.

Any electrical network generally has two input terminals and two output terminals. If we consider any complex electrical network in a black box, it will have two input terminals and output terminals. This network is called two – port network. Two port model of a network simplifies the network solving technique. Mathematically a two port network can be solved by 2 by 2 matrixes.

A transmission as it is also an electrical network; line can be represented as two port network. Hence two port network of transmission line can be represented as 2 by 2 matrixes. Here the concept of ABCD parameters comes. Voltage and currents of the network can be represented as ,

$$V_s = AV_r + BI_r \dots \quad (1)$$

$$I_s = CV_r + DI_r \dots \quad (2)$$

Where A, B, C and D are different constants of the network. If we put  $I_r = 0$  at equation (1), we get

Hence, A is the voltage impressed at the sending end per volt at the receiving end when receiving end is open. It is dimensionless.

If we put  $V_r = 0$  at equation (1), we get

$$B = \left. \frac{V_s}{I_r} \right|_{V_r = 0}$$

That indicates it is impedance of the transmission line when the receiving terminals are short circuited. This parameter is referred as transfer impedance.

$$C = \left. \frac{I_s}{V_r} \right|_{I_r = 0}$$

C is the current in amperes into the sending end per volt on open circuited receiving end. It has the dimension of admittance.

$$D = \left. \frac{I_s}{I_r} \right|_{V_r = 0}$$

D is the current in amperes into the sending end per amp on short circuited receiving end. It is dimensionless.



Now from equivalent circuit, it is found that,

$V_s = V_r + I_r Z$  and  $I_s = I_r$  Comparing these equations with equation 1 and 2 we get,

$A=1, B=Z, C=0$  and  $D=1$ . As we know that the constant  $A, B, C$  and  $D$  are related for passive network as

Here,  $A=1, B=Z, C=0$  and  $D=1$   $AD - BC$

$$= 1.$$

$$\Rightarrow 1.1 - Z.0 = 1$$

So the values calculated are correct for short transmission line. From above equation (1),

$$V_s = AV_r + BI_r$$

When  $I_r = 0$  that means receiving end terminal is open circuited and then from the equation 1, we get receiving end voltage at no load

$$V_{r'} = \frac{V_s}{A}$$

and as per definition of voltage regulation,

$$\% \text{ voltage regulation} = \frac{V_s / A - V_r}{V_r} \times 100 \%$$

### Efficiency of Short Transmission Line

The efficiency of short line is same as efficiency equation of any other electrical equipment, that means

$$\begin{aligned} \% \text{ efficiency } (\mu) &= \frac{\text{Power received at receiving end}}{\text{Power delivered at sending end}} \times 100 \% \\ \% \mu &= \frac{\text{Power received at receiving end}}{\text{Power received at receiving end} + 3I_r^2 R} \times 100 \% \end{aligned}$$

### MEDIUM TRANSMISSION LINES

In short transmission line calculations, the effects of the line capacitance are neglected because such lines have smaller lengths and transmit power at relatively low voltages ( $< 20$  kV). However, as the length and voltage of the line increase, the capacitance gradually becomes of greater importance.

Since medium transmission lines have sufficient length (50-150 km) and usually operate at voltages greater than 20 kV, the effects of capacitance cannot be neglected. Therefore, in order to obtain reasonable accuracy in medium transmission line calculations, the line capacitance must be taken into consideration.

The capacitance is uniformly distributed over the entire length of the line. However, in order to make the calculations simple, the line capacitance is assumed to be lumped or concentrated in the form of capacitors shunted across the line at one or more points. Such a treatment of localising the

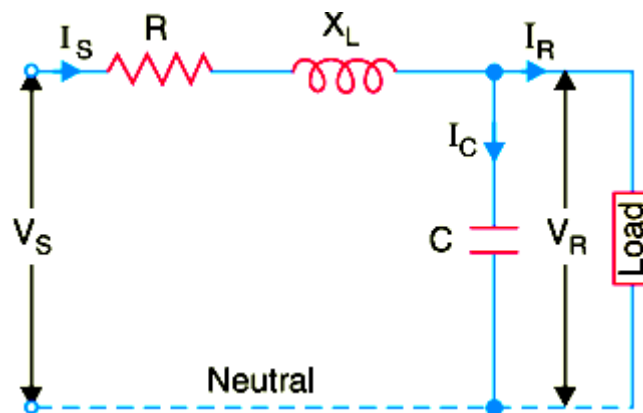
line capacitance gives reasonably accurate results. The most commonly used methods (known as localised capacitance methods) for the solution of medium transmission lines are:

- (i) End condenser method
- (ii) Nominal T method
- (iii) Nominal  $\pi$  method.

Although the above methods are used for obtaining the performance calculations of medium lines, they can also be used for short lines if their line capacitance is given in a particular problem.

### i) End Condenser Method

In this method, the capacitance of the line is lumped or concentrated at the receiving or load end as shown in Fig. This method of localising the line capacitance at the load end overestimates the effects of capacitance. In Fig, one phase of the 3-phase transmission line is shown as it is more convenient to work in phase instead of line-to-line values.



Let

$I_R$  = load current per phase

$R$  = resistance per phase

$X_L$  = inductive reactance per phase

$C$  = capacitance per phase

$\cos \phi_R$  = receiving end power factor (lagging)

$V_s$  = sending end voltage per phase

The phasor diagram for the circuit is shown in Fig. Taking the receiving end voltage  $V_R$  as the reference phasor,

$$\text{we have, } \vec{V}_R = V_R + j0$$

$$\text{Load current, } \vec{I}_R = I_R (\cos \phi_R - j \sin \phi_R)$$

$$\text{Capacitive current, } \vec{I}_C = j \vec{V}_R \omega C = j 2 \pi f C \vec{V}_R$$

The sending end current  $I_s$  is the phasor sum of load current  $I_R$  and capacitive current  $I_C$  i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{I}_S &= \vec{I}_R + \vec{I}_C \\
 &= I_R (\cos \phi_R - j \sin \phi_R) + j 2 \pi f C V_R \\
 &= I_R \cos \phi_R + j (-I_R \sin \phi_R + 2 \pi f C V_R) \\
 &= \vec{I}_S \vec{Z} = \vec{I}_S (R + j X_L)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{V}_S = \vec{V}_R + \vec{I}_S \vec{Z} = \vec{V}_R + \vec{I}_S (R + j X_L)$$

Thus, the magnitude of sending end voltage  $V_S$  can be calculated.

$$\% \text{ Voltage regulation} = \frac{V_S - V_R}{V_R} \times 100$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \% \text{ Voltage transmission efficiency} &= \frac{\text{Power delivered / phase}}{\text{Power delivered / phase} + \text{losses / phase}} \times 100 \\
 &= \frac{V_R I_R \cos \phi_R}{V_R I_R \cos \phi_R + I_S^2 R} \times 100
 \end{aligned}$$

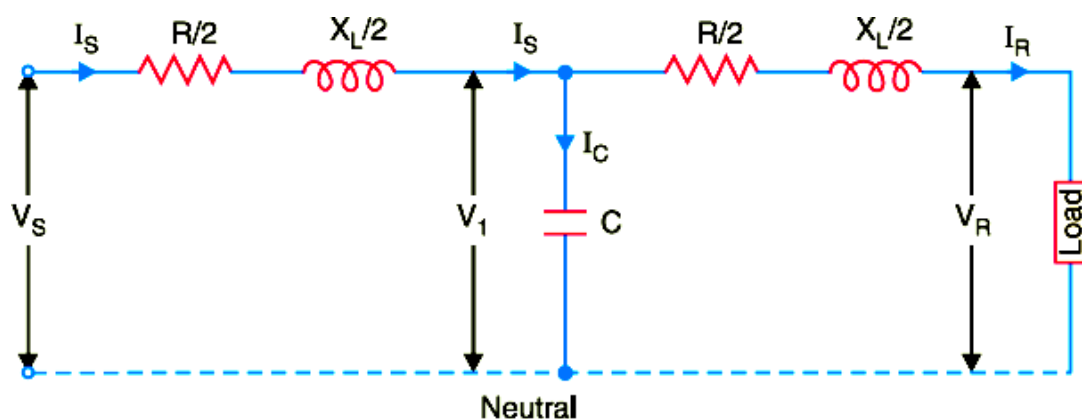
### Limitations

Although the condenser method for the solution of medium lines is simple to work out calculations, yet it has the following drawbacks:

- (i) There is a considerable error (about 10%) in calculations because the distributed capacitance has been assumed to be lumped or concentrated.
- (ii) This method overestimates the effects of line capacitance.

### ii) Nominal T Method

In this method, the whole line capacitance is assumed to be concentrated at the midpoint of the line and half the line resistance and reactance are lumped on its either side as shown in Fig. Therefore, in this arrangement, full charging current flows over half the line. In Fig. one phase of 3-phase transmission line is shown as it is advantageous to work in phase instead of line-to-line values.



Let

$I_R$  = load current per phase;  $R$  =

resistance per phase

$X_L$  = inductive reactance per phase;

$C$  = capacitance per phase

$\cos \phi_R$  = receiving end power factor (lagging);  $V_S$  =

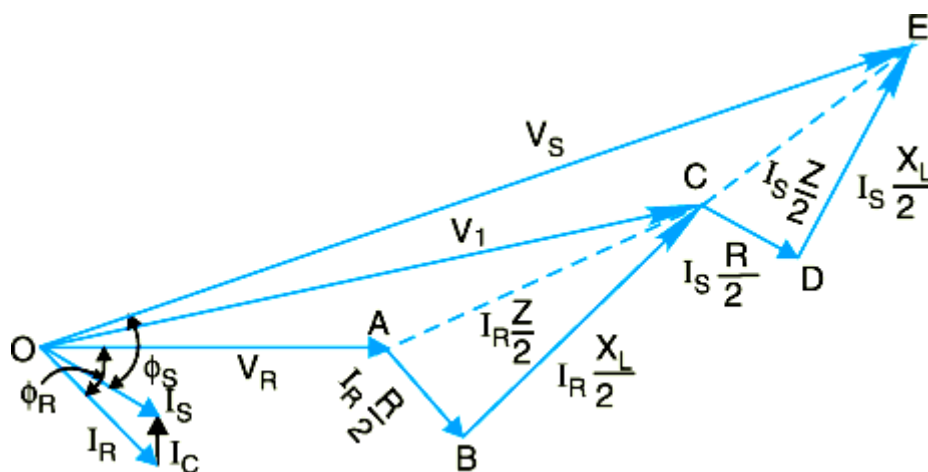
sending end voltage/phase

$V_1$  = voltage across capacitor  $C$

The phasor diagram for the circuit is shown in Fig. Taking the receiving end voltage  $V_R$  as the reference phasor, we have,

$$\text{Receiving end voltage, } \vec{V}_R = V_R + j0$$

$$\text{Load current, } \vec{I}_R = I_R (\cos \phi_R - j \sin \phi_R)$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Voltage across } C, \quad \vec{V}_1 &= \vec{V}_R + \vec{I}_R \vec{Z} / 2 \\ &= V_R + I_R (\cos \phi_R - j \sin \phi_R) \left( \frac{R}{2} + j \frac{X_L}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

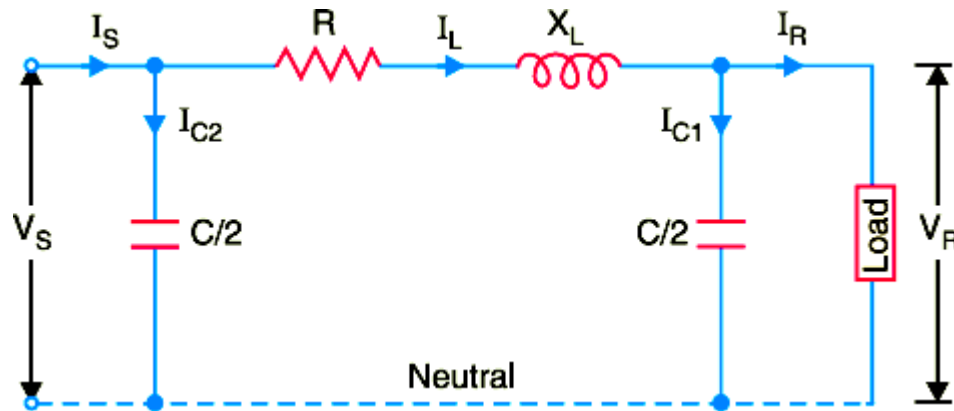
$$\text{Capacitive current, } \vec{I}_C = j \omega C \vec{V}_1 = j 2\pi f C \vec{V}_1$$

$$\text{Sending end current, } \vec{I}_S = \vec{I}_R + \vec{I}_C$$

$$\text{Sending end voltage, } \vec{V}_S = \vec{V}_1 + \vec{I}_S \frac{\vec{Z}}{2} = \vec{V}_1 + \vec{I}_S \left( \frac{R}{2} + j \frac{X_L}{2} \right)$$

### iii) Nominal $\pi$ Method

In this method, capacitance of each conductor (i.e., line to neutral) is divided into two halves; one half being lumped at the sending end and the other half at the receiving end as shown in Fig. It is obvious that capacitance at the sending end has no effect on the line drop. However, its charging current must be added to line current in order to obtain the total sending end current.



Let

$I_R$  = load current per phase  $R$  = resistance per phase

$X_L$  = inductive reactance per phase  $C$  = capacitance per phase

$\cos \phi_R$  = receiving end power factor (lagging)  $V_S$  = sending end voltage per phase

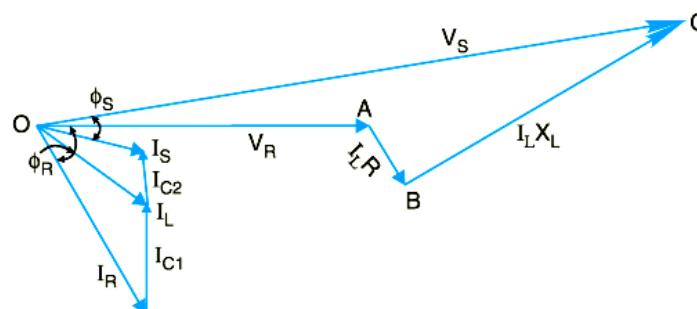
The phasor diagram for the circuit is shown in Fig. Taking the receiving end voltage as the reference phasor, we have,

$$\vec{V}_R = V_R + j0$$

$$\text{Load current, } \vec{I}_R = I_R (\cos \phi_R - j \sin \phi_R)$$

Charging current at load end is

$$\vec{I}_{C1} = j \omega (C/2) \vec{V}_R = j \pi f C \vec{V}_R$$



Line current,  $\vec{I}_L = \vec{I}_R + \vec{I}_{C1}$

Sending end voltage,  $\vec{V}_S = \vec{V}_R + \vec{I}_L \vec{Z} = \vec{V}_R + \vec{I}_L (R + jX_L)$

Charging current at the sending end is

$$\vec{I}_{C2} = j \omega (C/2) \vec{V}_S = j \pi f C \vec{V}_S$$

$\therefore$  Sending end current,  $\vec{I}_S = \vec{I}_L + \vec{I}_{C2}$

## MEDIUM TRANSMISSION LINE

The transmission line having its effective length more than 80 km but less than 250 km is generally referred to as a **medium transmission line**. Due to the line length being considerably high, admittance  $Y$  of the network does play a role in calculating the effective circuit parameters, unlike in the case of short transmission lines. For this reason the modelling of a **medium length transmission line** is done using lumped shunt admittance along with the lumped impedance in series to the circuit. These lumped parameters of a medium length transmission line can be represented using two different models, namely.

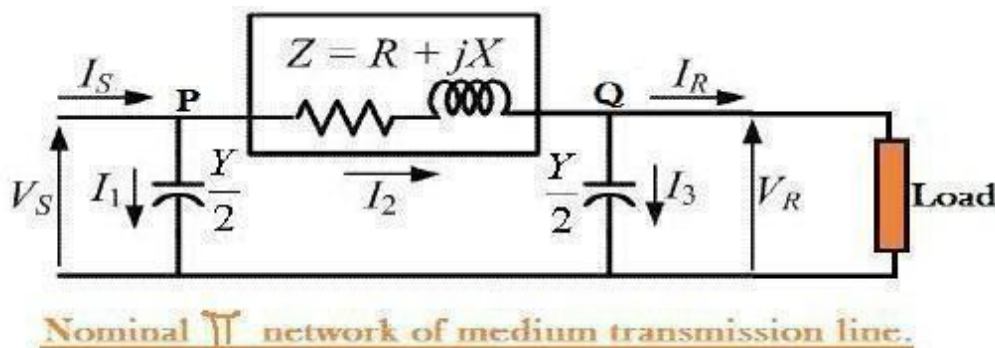
(i) Nominal  $\Pi$  representation.

(ii) Nominal  $T$  representation.

Let's now go into the detailed discussion of these above mentioned models.

### Nominal $\Pi$ representation of a medium transmission line

In case of a nominal  $\Pi$  representation, the lumped series impedance is placed at the middle of the circuit whereas the shunt admittances are at the ends. As we can see from the diagram of the  $\Pi$  network below, the total lumped shunt admittance is divided into 2 equal halves, and each half with value  $Y/2$  is placed at both the sending and the receiving end while the entire circuit impedance is between the two. The shape of the circuit so formed resembles that of a symbol  $\Pi$ , and for this reason it is known as the nominal  $\Pi$  representation of a medium transmission line. It is mainly used for determining the general circuit parameters and performing load flow analysis.



As we can see here,  $V_S$  and  $V_R$  is the supply and receiving end voltages respectively, and  $I_S$  is the current flowing through the supply end.

$I_R$  is the current flowing through the receiving end of the circuit.

$I_1$  and  $I_3$  are the values of currents flowing through the admittances. And  $I_2$  is the current through the impedance  $Z$ .

Now applying KCL, at node P, we get.  $I_S = I_1 + I_2$  ————— (1)

Similarly applying KCL, at node Q,  $I_2 = I_3 + I_R$  ————— (2) Now substituting equation (2) to equation (1)

$$I_S = I_1 + I_3 + I_R$$

$$= \frac{Y}{2} V_S + \frac{Y}{2} V_R + I_R \text{ ————— (3)}$$

Now by applying KVL to the circuit,  $V_S = V_R + Z I_2$

$$\begin{aligned} &= V_R + Z \left( V_R \frac{Y}{2} + I_R \right) \\ &= \left( Z \frac{Y}{2} + 1 \right) V_R + Z I_R \text{ ————— (4)} \end{aligned}$$

Now substituting equation (4) to equation (3), we get.

$$\begin{aligned} I_S &= \frac{Y}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{Y}{2} Z + 1 \right) V_R + Z I_R \right] + \frac{Y}{2} V_R + I_R \\ &= Y \left( \frac{Y}{4} Z + 1 \right) V_R + \left( \frac{Y}{2} Z + 1 \right) I_R \text{ ————— (5)} \end{aligned}$$

Comparing equation (4) and (5) with the standard ABCD parameter equations  $V_S = A$

$$V_R + B I_R$$

$$I_S = C V_R + D I_R$$

We derive the parameters of a medium transmission line as:

$$A = \left( \frac{Y}{2} Z + 1 \right)$$

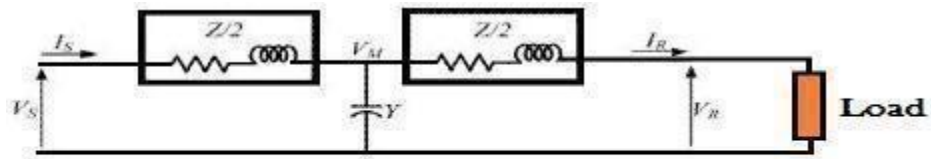
$$B = Z \Omega$$

$$C = Y \left( \frac{Y}{4} Z + 1 \right)$$

$$D = \left( \frac{Y}{2} Z + 1 \right)$$

## NOMINAL T REPRESENTATION OF A MEDIUM TRANSMISSION LINE

In the **nominal T** model of a medium transmission line the lumped shunt admittance is placed in the middle, while the series impedance is divided into two equal halves and placed on either side of the shunt admittance. The circuit so formed resembles the symbol of a capital **T**, and hence is known as the nominal T network of a medium length transmission line and is shown in the diagram below.



Nominal T representation of a medium transmission line.

Here also  $V_S$  and  $V_R$  is the supply and receiving end voltages respectively, and  $I_S$  is the current flowing through the supply end.  $I_R$  is the current flowing through the receiving end of the circuit. Let  $M$  be a node at the midpoint of the circuit, and the drop at  $M$ , be given by  $V_M$ . Applying KVL to the above network we get

$$\frac{V_S - V_M}{Z/2} = Y V_M + \frac{V_M - V_R}{Z/2}$$

$$\text{Or } V_M = \frac{2(V_S + V_R)}{YZ + 4} \quad (6)$$

And the receiving end current

$$\text{Or } I_R = \frac{2(V_M - V_R)}{Z/2} \quad (7)$$

Now substituting  $V_M$  from equation (6) to (7) we get,

$$\text{Or } I_R = \frac{[(2V_S + V_R) / YZ + 4] - V_R}{Z/2}$$

Rearranging the above equation:

$$V_S = \left(\frac{Y}{2}Z + 1\right)V_R + Z\left(\frac{Y}{4}Z + 1\right)I_R \quad (8)$$

Now the sending end current is

$$I_S = Y V_M + I_R \quad (9)$$

Substituting the value of  $V_M$  to equation (9) we get,

$$\text{Or } I_S = Y V_R + \left(\frac{Y}{2}Z + 1\right)I_R \quad (10)$$

Again comparing equation (8) and (10) with the standard ABCD parameter equations

$$V_S = A V_R + B I_R$$

$$I_S = C V_R + D I_R$$

The parameters of the T network of a medium transmission line are



$$A = \left(\frac{Y}{2}Z + 1\right)$$

$$B = Z\left(\frac{Y}{4}Z + 1\right) \Omega$$

$$C = Y \text{ mho}$$

$$D = \left(\frac{Y}{2}Z + 1\right)$$

## LONGTRANSMISSIONLINES

It is well known that line constants of the transmission line are uniformly distributed over the entire length of the line. However, reasonable accuracy can be obtained in line calculations for short and medium lines by considering these constants as lumped. If such an assumption of lumped constants is applied to long transmission lines (having length excess of about 150 km), it is found that serious errors are introduced in the performance calculations. Therefore, in order to obtain fair degree of accuracy in the performance calculations of long lines, the line constants are considered as uniformly distributed throughout the length of the line. Rigorous mathematical treatment is required for the solution of such lines. Fig shows the equivalent circuit of a 3-phase long transmission line on a phase-neutral basis. The whole line length is divided into  $n$  sections, each section having line constants  $1/n$ th of those for the whole line. The following points may be noted :

- (i) The line constants are uniformly distributed over the entire length of line as is actually the case.
- (ii) The resistance and inductive reactance are the series elements.
- (ii) The leakage susceptance ( $B$ ) and leakage conductance ( $G$ ) are shunt elements.
- (iii) The leakage susceptance is due to the fact that capacitance exists between line and neutral. The leakage conductance takes into account the energy losses occurring through leakage over the

$$= \sqrt{G^2 + B^2}.$$

insulators or due to corona effect between conductors. Admittance

- (iv) The leakage current through shunt admittance is maximum at the sending end of the line and decreases continuously as the receiving end of the circuit is approached at which point its value is zero.

## ANALYSIS OF LONG TRANSMISSION LINE (RIGOROUS METHOD)

Fig. shows one phase and neutral connection of a 3-phase line with impedance and shunt admittance of the line uniformly distributed.

Consider a small element in the line of length  $dx$  situated at a distance  $x$  from the receiving end.

Let

$z$  = series impedance of the line per unit length

$y$  = shunt admittance of the line per unit length

$V$  = voltage at the end of element towards receiving end

$V + dV$  = voltage at the end of element towards sending end

$I + dI$  = current entering the element

$I$  = current leaving the element  $dx$  Then  
 for the small element  $dx$ ,  
 $z dx$  = series impedance of  $dx$   
 $=$  shunt admittance

Obviously,  $dV = I z dx$

$$\frac{dV}{dx} = I z$$

Now, the current entering the element is  $I + dI$  whereas the current leaving the element is  $I$ . The difference in the currents flows through shunt admittance of the element i.e.,  
 $dI = \text{Current through shunt admittance of element} = V y dx$

or 
$$\frac{dI}{dx} = V y \quad \dots(ii)$$

Differentiating eq. (i) w.r.t.  $x$ , we get,

$$\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} = z \frac{dI}{dx} = z (V y) \quad \left[ \because \frac{dI}{dx} = V y \text{ from exp. (ii)} \right]$$

or 
$$\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} = y z V \quad \dots(iii)$$

The solution of this differential equation is

$$V = k_1 \cosh(x \sqrt{y z}) + k_2 \sinh(x \sqrt{y z}) \quad \dots(iv)$$

or 
$$\frac{dI}{dx} = V y \quad \dots(ii)$$

Differentiating eq. (i) w.r.t.  $x$ , we get,

$$\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} = z \frac{dI}{dx} = z (V y) \quad \left[ \because \frac{dI}{dx} = V y \text{ from exp. (ii)} \right]$$

or 
$$\frac{d^2 V}{dx^2} = y z V \quad \dots(iii)$$

The solution of this differential equation is

$$V = k_1 \cosh(x \sqrt{y z}) + k_2 \sinh(x \sqrt{y z}) \quad \dots(iv)$$

Equations (iv) and (v) give the expressions for  $V$  and  $I$  in the form of unknown constants  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ . The values of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  can be found by applying end conditions as under

At  $x = 0$ ,  $V = V_R$  and  $I = I_R$

Putting these values in eq. (iv), we have,

$$V_R = k_1 \cosh 0 + k_2 \sinh 0 = k_1 + 0$$

$$\therefore V_R = k_1$$

Similarly, putting  $x = 0$ ,  $V = V_R$  and  $I = I_R$  in eq. (v), we have,

$$I_R = \sqrt{\frac{y}{z}} [k_1 \sinh 0 + k_2 \cosh 0] = \sqrt{\frac{y}{z}} [0 + k_2]$$

$$\therefore k_2 = \sqrt{\frac{z}{y}} I_R$$

Substituting the values of  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  in eqs. (iv) and (v), we get,

$$V = V_R \cosh (x\sqrt{yz}) + \sqrt{\frac{z}{y}} I_R \sinh (x\sqrt{yz})$$

and

$$I = \sqrt{\frac{y}{z}} V_R \sinh (x\sqrt{yz}) + I_R \cosh (x\sqrt{yz})$$

The sending end voltage ( $V_S$ ) and sending end current ( $I_S$ ) are obtained by putting  $x = l$  in the above equations *i.e.*,

$$V_S = V_R \cosh (l \sqrt{y z}) + \sqrt{\frac{z}{y}} I_R \sinh (l \sqrt{y z})$$

$$I_S = \sqrt{\frac{y}{z}} V_R \sinh (l \sqrt{y z}) + I_R \cosh (l \sqrt{y z})$$

Now,

$$l \sqrt{y z} = \sqrt{l y \cdot l z} = \sqrt{Y Z}$$

and

$$\sqrt{\frac{y}{z}} = \sqrt{\frac{y l}{z l}} = \sqrt{\frac{Y}{Z}}$$

where

$Y$  = total shunt admittance of the line

$Z$  = total series impedance of the line

Therefore, expressions for  $V_S$  and  $I_S$  become :

$$V_S = V_R \cosh \sqrt{Y Z} + I_R \sqrt{\frac{Z}{Y}} \sinh \sqrt{Y Z}$$

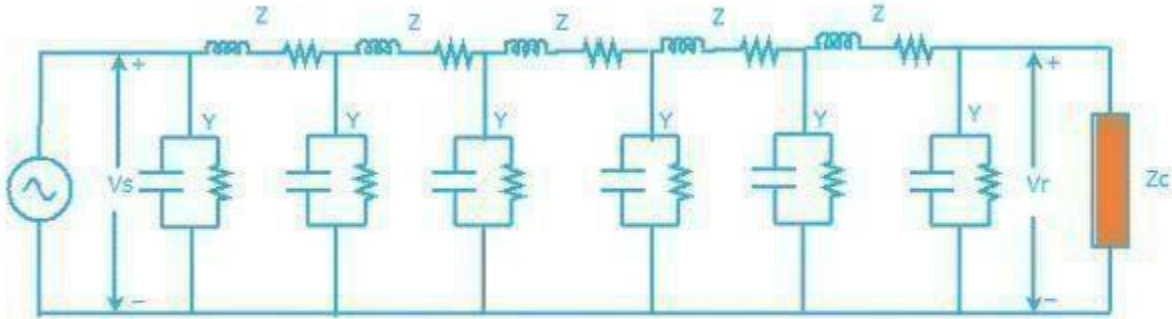
$$I_S = V_R \sqrt{\frac{Y}{Z}} \sinh \sqrt{Y Z} + I_R \cosh \sqrt{Y Z}$$

It is helpful to expand hyperbolic sine and cosine in terms of their power series.

$$\cosh \sqrt{Y Z} = \left( 1 + \frac{Z Y}{2} + \frac{Z^2 Y^2}{24} + \dots \right)$$

$$\sinh \sqrt{Y Z} = \left( \sqrt{Y Z} + \frac{(Y Z)^{3/2}}{6} + \dots \right)$$

### LONGTRANSMISSIONLINE(ABCDPARAMETERS)



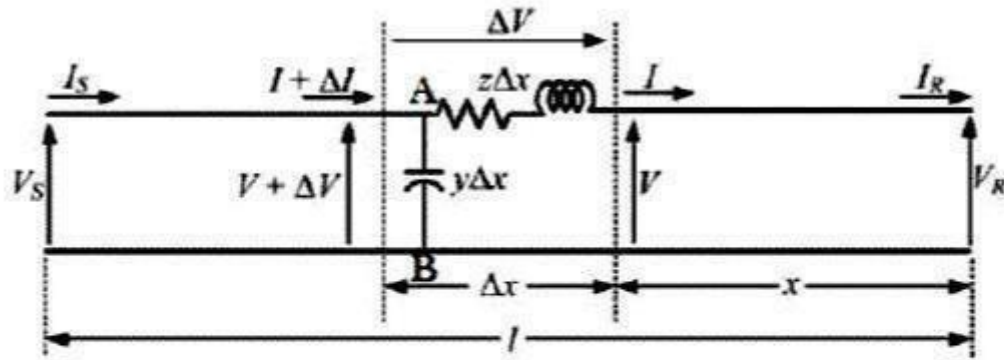
### Long Transmission Line model

A power transmission line with its effective length of around 250 Kms or above is referred to as a **long transmission line**. Calculations related to circuit parameters (ABCD parameters) of such a power transmission is not that simple, as was the case for a short or medium transmission line. The reason being that, the effective circuit length in this case is much higher than what it was for the former models (long and medium line) and, thus ruling out the approximations considered there like.

- Ignoring the shunt admittance of the network, like in a small transmission line model.
- Considering the circuit impedance and admittance to be lumped and concentrated at a point as was the case for the medium line model.

Rather, for all practical reasons we should consider the circuit impedance and admittance to be distributed over the entire circuit length as shown in the figure below.

The calculations of circuit parameters for this reason is going to be slightly more rigorous as we will see here. For accurate modeling to determine circuit parameters let us consider the circuit of the **long transmission line** as shown in the diagram below.



### Long Transmission Line.

Here a line of length  $l > 250\text{km}$  is supplied with a sending end voltage and current of  $V_S$  and  $I_S$  respectively, whereas the  $V_R$  and  $I_R$  are the values of voltage and current obtained from the receiving end. Let us now consider an element of infinitesimally small length  $\Delta x$  at a distance  $x$  from the receiving end as shown in the figure where.

$V$  = value of voltage just before entering the element  $\Delta x$ .  $I$  = value of current just before entering the element  $\Delta x$ .  $V + \Delta V$  = voltage leaving the element  $\Delta x$ .

$I + \Delta I$  = current leaving the element  $\Delta x$ .  $\Delta V$  = voltage drop across element  $\Delta x$ .  $z\Delta x$  = series impedance of element  $\Delta x$ .  $y\Delta x$  = shunt admittance of element  $\Delta x$ .

Where  $Z = z$  and  $Y = y$  are the values of total impedance and admittance of the long transmission line.

$\therefore$  The voltage drop across the infinitesimally small element  $\Delta x$  is given by  $\Delta V$

$$= I z \Delta x$$

$$\text{Or } Iz = \Delta V / \Delta x$$

$$\text{Or } Iz = dV/dx \text{ ————— (1)}$$

Now to determine the current  $\Delta I$ , we apply KCL to node

$$A. \Delta I = (V + \Delta V)y\Delta x = Vy\Delta x + \Delta Vy\Delta x$$

Since the term  $\Delta V \Delta x$  is the product of 2 infinitely small values, we can ignore it for the sake of easier calculation.

$\therefore$  We can write  $I dx = V y$  —————

————(2) Now differentiate both sides of eq

(1) w.r.t.  $x$ ,  $d^2 V / dx^2 = z dI / dx$  Now

substituting  $dI / dx = V y$  from

equation (2)  $d^2 V / dx^2 = zyV$

or  $d^2 V / dx^2 - zyV = 0$  —————(3)

The solution of the above second order differential equation is

given by  $V = A_1 e^{x\sqrt{yz}} + A_2 e^{-x\sqrt{yz}}$  —————(4)

Derivate equation (4) w.r.t.  $x$ .

$dV / dx = \sqrt{(yz)} A_1 e^{x\sqrt{yz}} - \sqrt{(yz)} A_2 e^{-x\sqrt{yz}}$  —————

(5) Now compare equation (1) with equation (5)

$$I = \frac{dV}{dx} = \frac{z A_1 e^{x\sqrt{(yz)}}}{\sqrt{(z/y)}} - \frac{z A_2 e^{-x\sqrt{(yz)}}}{\sqrt{(z/y)}} \text{-----(6)}$$

Now to go further let us define the characteristic impedance  $Z_c$  and propagation constant  $\delta$  of a long transmission line as

$Z_c =$

$\sqrt{(z/y)}$

)  $\Omega$

$\delta =$

$\sqrt{(yz)}$

Then the voltage and current equation can be expressed in terms of characteristic impedance and propagation constant as

$V = A_1 e^{\delta x} + A_2 e^{-\delta x}$  —————(7)

$I = A_1 / Z_c e^{\delta x} + A_2 / Z_c e^{-\delta x}$  —————(8)

Now at  $x=0$ ,  $V = V_R$  and  $I = I_R$ . Substituting these conditions to equation (7) and (8)

respectively.  $V_R = A_1 + A_2$  —————(9)  $I_R = A_1 / Z_c + A_2 / Z_c$  —————

(10)

Solving equation (9)

and (10), We get values

of  $A_1$  and  $A_2$



as,

$$A1 = (VR + ZCIR)$$

$$A2 = (VR - ZCIR)$$

Now applying another extreme condition at  $x=l$ , we have  $V=VS$  and  $I=IS$ .

Now to determine  $VS$  and  $IS$  we substitute  $x$  by  $l$  and put the values of  $A1$  and  $A2$  in equation (7) and (8) we get

$$VS = (VR + ZCIR)e^{\delta l/2} + (VR - ZCIR)e^{-\delta l/2} \quad (11)$$

$$IS = (VR/ZC + IR)e^{\delta l/2} - (VR/ZC - IR)e^{-\delta l/2} \quad (12)$$

By trigonometric and exponential operators we know

$$\sinh \delta l = (e^{\delta l} - e^{-\delta l})/2$$

$$\cosh \delta l = (e^{\delta l} + e^{-\delta l})/2$$

∴ equation (11) and (12) can be re-

written as

$$VS = VR \cosh \delta l + ZCIR \sinh \delta l$$

$$IS = (VR \sinh \delta l)/ZC +$$

$$IR \cosh \delta l$$

Thus comparing with the general circuit parameter sequence, we get the ABCD parameters of a long transmission line as,

$$C = \sinh \delta l / ZC$$

$$A = \cosh \delta l$$

$$D = \cosh \delta l$$

$$B = ZC \sinh \delta l$$

## CIRCLE DIAGRAMS

Transmission line problems often involve manipulations with complex numbers, making the time and effort required for a solution several times greater than that needed for a similar sequence of operations on real numbers. One means of reducing the labor without seriously affecting the accuracy is by using transmission-line charts. Probably the most widely used one is the Smith chart. Basically, this diagram shows curves of constant resistance and constant reactance; these may represent either input impedance or load impedance. The latter, of course, is the input impedance of a zero-length line. An indication of location along the line is also provided, usually in terms of the fraction of a wavelength from a voltage maximum or minimum. Although they are not specifically shown on the chart, the standing-wave ratio and the magnitude and angle of the reflection coefficient are very quickly determined. As a matter of fact, the diagram is constructed within a circle of unit

radius, using polar co-ordinates, the basic relationship upon which the chart is constructed is

$$\Gamma = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0}$$

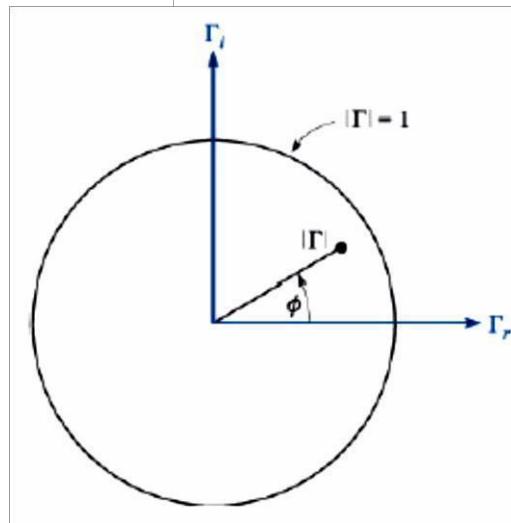
The impedances which we plot on the chart will be normalized with respect to the characteristic impedance.

Let us identify the normalized load impedance as  $z_L$

$$z_L = r + jx = \frac{Z_L}{Z_0} = \frac{R_L + jX_L}{Z_0}$$

$$\Gamma = \frac{z_L - 1}{z_L + 1}$$

$$z_L = \frac{1 + \Gamma}{1 - \Gamma}$$



## FACTORS GOVERNING THE PERFORMANCE OF TRANSMISSION LINES

### SURGE IMPEDANCE:

The characteristic impedance or surge impedance (usually written  $Z_0$ ) of a uniform transmission line is the ratio of the amplitudes of voltage and current of a single wave propagating along the line; that is, a wave travelling in one direction in the absence of reflections in the other direction. Characteristic impedance is determined by the geometry and material of the transmission line and, for a uniform line, is not dependent on its length. The SI unit of characteristic impedance is the ohm.

The characteristic impedance of a lossless transmission line is purely real, with no reactive component. Energy supplied by a source at one end of such a line is transmitted through the line without being dissipated in the line itself. A transmission line of finite length (lossless or lossy) that is terminated at one end with an impedance equal to the characteristic impedance appears to the source like an infinitely long transmission line and produces no reflections.

### THE SURGE IMPEDANCE LOADING:

The surge impedance loading (SIL) of a line is the power load at which the net reactive power is zero. So, if your transmission line wants to "absorb" reactive power, the SIL is the amount of reactive power you would have to produce to balance it out to zero. You can calculate it by dividing the square of the line-to-line voltage by the line's characteristic impedance. Transmission lines can be considered as, a small inductance in series and a small capacitance to earth, - a very large number of these combinations, in series. Whatever voltage drop occurs due to inductance gets compensated by capacitance. If this compensation is exact, you have surge impedance loading and no voltage drop occurs for an infinite length or, a finite length terminated by impedance of this value (SIL load). (Loss-less line assumed!). Impedance of this line ( $Z_s$ ) can be proved to be sq. root ( $L/C$ ). If capacitive compensation is more than required, which may happen on an unloaded EHV line, and then you have voltage rise at the other end, the Ferranti effect. Although given in many books, it continues to remain an interesting discussion always.

The capacitive reactive power associated with a transmission line increases directly as the square of the voltage and is proportional to line capacitance and length.

Capacitance has two effects:

1 Ferranti effect

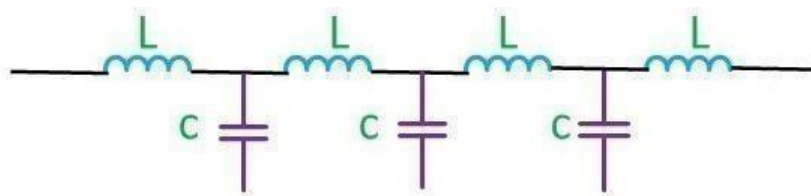
2 Rise in the voltage resulting from capacitive current of the line flowing through the source impedances at the terminations of the line.

SIL is Surge Impedance Loading and is calculated as  $(KV \times KV) / Z$  where their units are megawatts.

Where  $Z$  is the surge impedance....be aware...one thing is the surge impedance and other very different is the surge impedance loading.

## SURGE IMPEDANCE LOADING

Capacitance and reactance are the main parameters of the transmission line. It is distributed uniformly along the line. These parameters are also called distributed parameters. When the voltage drops occur in transmission line due to inductance, it is compensated by the capacitance of the transmission line.



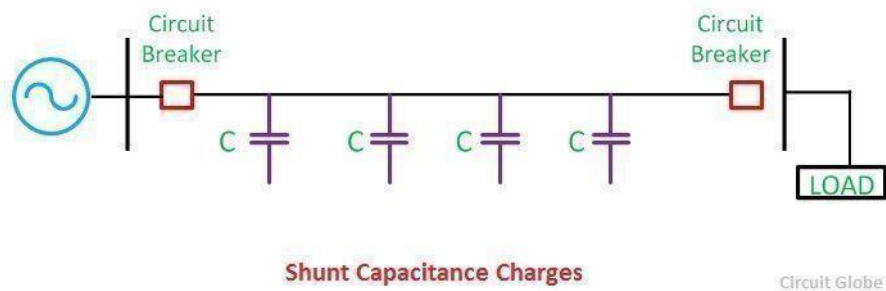
**Distributed Parameters of transmission line**

Circuit Globe

The transmission line generates capacitive reactive volt-amperes in its shunt capacitance and absorbs reactive volt-amperes in its series inductance. The load at which the inductive and capacitive reactive volt-amperes are equal and opposite, such load is called surge impedance load.

It is also called natural load of the transmission line because power is not dissipated in transmission. In surge impedance loading, the voltage and current are in the same phase at all the points of the line. When the surge impedance of the line has terminated the power delivered by it is called surge impedance loading.

Shunt capacitance charges the transmission line when the circuit breaker at the sending end of the line is close. As shown below



Let  $V$  = phase voltage at the receiving end  
 $L$  = series inductance per phase

$X_L$  = series inductance reactance per phase

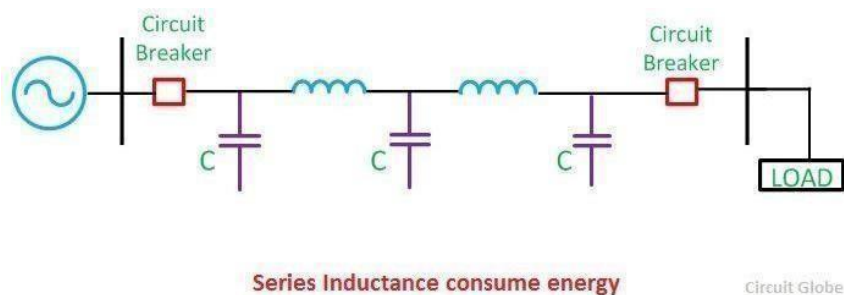
$X_C$  = shunt capacitance reactance per phase

$Z_o$  = surge impedance loading per phase

Capacitive volt-amperes (VAr) generated in the line

$$= \frac{V^2}{X_C} = V^2 \omega c \text{ per phase}$$

The series inductance of the line consumes the electrical energy when the sending and receiving terminals are closed.



Inductive reactive volt-amperes (VAr) absorbed by the line

$$= I^2 X_L = I^2 \omega L$$

Under natural load, the reactive power becomes terminated, and the load becomes purely resistive.



Surge Impedance Loading

Circuit Globe

And it is calculated by the formula given below

$$V^2 \omega C = I^2 \omega L$$

$$\frac{V}{I} = \frac{\sqrt{L}}{\sqrt{C}} = Z_0$$

Surge impedance loading is also defined as the power load in which the total reactive power of the lines becomes zero. The reactive power generated by the shunt capacitance is consumed by the series inductance of the line.

If  $P_o$  is its natural load of the lines,  $(SIL)_{1\phi}$  of the line per phase

$$(SIL)_{1\phi} = P_o = V_p I_p \cos \phi$$

Since the load is purely resistive,

$$\cos \phi = 1$$

$$P_o = V_p I_p = V_p \frac{V_p}{Z_o}$$

$$P_o = \frac{V_p^2}{Z_o} \text{ W/phase}$$

Thus, per phase power transmitted under surge impedance loading is  $(V_p^2)/Z_o$  watts, Where  $V_p$  is the phase voltage.

$$\text{Line voltage } V_L = \sqrt{3}V_P$$

$$(SIL)_{3\phi} = 3P_O = \frac{3V_P^2}{Z_0} = \frac{V_L^2}{Z_0} \text{ W}$$

If  $V_L$  is the receiving end voltage in kV, then

$$(SIL)_{3\phi} = \frac{(kV_L)^2}{Z_0} \text{ MW}$$

Surge impedance loading depends on the voltage of the transmission line. Practically surge impedance loading is always less than the maximum loading capacity of the line.

If the load is less than the SIL, reactive volt-amperes are generated, and the voltage at the receiving end is greater than the sending end voltage. On the other hand, if the SIL is greater than the load, the voltage at the receiving end is smaller because the line absorbs reactive power.

If the shunt conductance and resistance are neglected and SIL is equal to the load, then the voltage at both the ends will be equal.

Surge impedance load is the ideal load because the current and voltage are uniform along the line. The wave of current and voltage is also in phase because the reactive power consumed is equal to the reactive power generated by the transmission line.

## CORONA

Electric-power transmission practically deals in the bulk transfer of electrical energy, from generating stations situated many kilometers away from the main consumption centers or the cities. For this reason the long distance transmission cables are of utmost necessity for effective power transfer, which in-evidently results in huge losses across the system. Minimizing those has been a major challenge for power engineers of late and to do that one should have a clear understanding of the type and nature of losses. One of them being the **corona effect in power system**, which has a predominant role in reducing the efficiency of EHV (extra high voltage lines) which we are going to concentrate on, in this article.

### What is corona effect in power system and why it occurs?

For corona effect to occur effectively, two factors here are of prime importance as mentioned below:-

- 1) Alternating potential difference must be supplied across the line.
- 2) The spacing of the conductors, must be large enough compared to the line diameter.

### **Corona Effect in Transmission Line**

When an alternating current is made to flow across two conductors of the transmission line whose spacing is large compared to their diameters, then air surrounding the conductors (composed of ions) is subjected to dielectric stress. At low values of supply end voltage, nothing really occurs as the stress is too less to ionize the air outside. But when the potential difference is made to increase beyond some threshold value of around 30 kV known as the critical disruptive voltage, then the field strength increases and then the air surrounding it experiences stress high enough to be dissociated into ions making the atmosphere conducting. This results in electric discharge around the conductors due to the flow of these ions, giving rise to a faint luminescent glow, along with the hissing sound accompanied by the liberation of ozone, which is readily identified due to its characteristic odor. This phenomena of electrical discharge occurring in transmission line for high values of voltage is known as the corona effect in power system. If the voltage across the lines is still increased the glow becomes more and more intense along with hissing noise, inducing very high power loss into the system which must be accounted for.

### **Factors Affecting Corona**

The phenomenon of corona is affected by the physical state of the atmosphere as well as by the conditions of the line. The following are the factors upon which corona depends:

- (i) *Atmosphere.* As corona is formed due to ionization of air surrounding the conductors, therefore, it is affected by the physical state of atmosphere. In the stormy weather, the number of ions is more than normal and as such corona occurs at much less voltage as compared with fair weather.
- (ii) *Conductor size.* The corona effect depends upon the shape and conditions of the conductors. The rough and irregular surface will give rise to more corona because unevenness of the surface decreases the value of breakdown voltage. Thus a stranded conductor has irregular surface and hence gives rise to more corona than a solid conductor.
- (iii) *Spacing between conductors.* If the spacing between the conductors is made very



large as compared to their diameters, there may not be any corona effect. It is because

larger distance between conductors reduces the electro-static stresses at the conductor surface, thus avoiding corona formation.

(iv) **Line voltage.** The line voltage greatly affects corona. If it is low, there is no change in the condition of air surrounding the conductors and hence no corona is formed. However, if the line voltage has such a value that electrostatic stresses developed at the conductor surface make the air around the conductor conducting, then corona is formed.

The phenomenon of corona plays an important role in the design of an overhead transmission line. Therefore, it is profitable to consider the following terms much used in the analysis of corona effects:

(i) **Critical disruptive voltage.** It is the minimum phase-neutral voltage at which corona occurs. Consider two conductors of radii  $r$  cm and spaced  $d$  cm apart. If  $V$  is the phase-

$$g = \frac{V}{r \log_e \frac{d}{r}} \text{ volts/cm}$$

neutral potential, then potential gradient at the conductor surface is given by:

In order that corona is formed, the value of  $g$  must be made equal to the breakdown strength of air. The breakdown strength of air at 76 cm pressure and temperature of 25°C is 30 kV/cm (max) or 21.2 kV/cm (r.m.s.) and is denoted by  $g_0$ . If  $V_c$  is the phase-neutral potential required under these conditions, then,

$$g_0 = \frac{V_c}{r \log_e \frac{d}{r}}$$

where

$$g_0 = \text{breakdown strength of air at 76 cm of mercury and 25°C} \\ = 30 \text{ kV/cm (max) or } 21.2 \text{ kV/cm (r.m.s.)}$$

$$\therefore \text{ Critical disruptive voltage, } V_c = g_0 r \log_e \frac{d}{r}$$

The above expression for disruptive voltage is under standard conditions i.e., at 76 cm of Hg and 25°C. However, if these conditions vary, the air density also changes, thus altering the value of  $g_0$ . The value of  $g_0$  is directly proportional to air density. Thus the breakdown strength of air at a barometric pressure of  $b$  cm of mercury and temperature of  $t^\circ\text{C}$  becomes

$g_0^m$  where

$$\delta = \text{air density factor} = \frac{3.92b}{273 + t}$$

Under standard conditions, the value of  $\delta = 1$ .

$$\therefore \text{Critical disruptive voltage, } V_c = g_o \delta r \log_e \frac{d}{r}$$

Correction must also be made for the surface condition of the conductor. This is accounted for by multiplying the above expression by irregularity factor  $m_o$ .

$$\therefore \text{Critical disruptive voltage, } V_c = m_o g_o \delta r \log_e \frac{d}{r} \text{ kV/phase}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} m_o &= 1 \text{ for polished conductors} \\ &= 0.98 \text{ to } 0.92 \text{ for dirty conductors} \\ &= 0.87 \text{ to } 0.8 \text{ for stranded conductors} \end{aligned}$$

**(ii) Visual critical voltage.** It is the minimum phase-neutral voltage at which corona glow appears all along the line conductors.

It has been seen that in case of parallel conductors, the corona glow does not begin at the disruptive voltage  $V_c$  but at a higher voltage  $V_v$ , called **visual critical voltage**. The phase-neutral effective value of visual critical voltage is given by the following empirical formula :

$$V_v = m_v g_o \delta r \left( 1 + \frac{0.3}{\sqrt{\delta r}} \right) \log_e \frac{d}{r} \text{ kV/phase}$$

where  $m_v$  is another irregularity factor having a value of 1.0 for polished conductors and 0.72 to 0.82 for rough conductors.

**(iii) Power loss due to corona.** Formation of corona is always accompanied by energy loss which is dissipated in the form of light, heat, sound and chemical action. When disruptive voltage is exceeded, the power loss due to corona is given by :

$$P = 242.2 \left( \frac{f + 25}{\delta} \right) \sqrt{\frac{r}{d}} (V - V_c)^2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kW / km / phase}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} f &= \text{supply frequency in Hz} \\ V &= \text{phase-neutral voltage (r.m.s.)} \\ V_c &= \text{disruptive voltage (r.m.s.) per phase} \end{aligned}$$

### Advantages and Disadvantages of Corona

Corona has many advantages and disadvantages. In the correct design of a high voltage overhead line, a balance should be struck between the advantages and disadvantages.

#### Advantages

- (i) Due to corona formation, the air surrounding the conductor becomes conducting and hence the virtual diameter of the conductor is increased. The increased diameter reduces the electrostatic stresses between the conductors.
- (ii) Corona reduces the effect of transients produced by surges.

#### Disadvantages

- (i) Corona is accompanied by a loss of energy. This affects the transmission efficiency of the line.
- (ii) Ozone is produced by corona and may cause corrosion of the conductor due to chemical action.
- (iii) The current drawn by the line due to corona is non-sinusoidal and hence non-sinusoidal voltage drop occurs in the line. This may cause inductive interference with neighboring communication lines.

### Methods of Reducing Corona Effect

It has been seen that intense corona effects are observed at a working voltage of 33 kV or above. Therefore, careful design should be made to avoid corona on the sub-stations or bus-bars rated for 33 kV and higher voltages otherwise highly ionized air may cause flash-over in the insulators or between the phases, causing considerable damage to the equipment. The corona effects can be reduced by the following methods:

- (i) *By increasing conductor size.* By increasing conductor size, the voltage at which corona occurs is raised and hence corona effects are considerably reduced. This is one of the reasons that ACSR conductors which have a larger cross-sectional area are used in transmission lines.
- (ii) *By increasing conductor spacing.* By increasing the spacing between conductors, the voltage at which corona occurs is raised and hence corona effects can be eliminated. However, spacing cannot be increased too much otherwise the cost of supporting structure (e.g., bigger cross arms and supports) may increase to a considerable extent.

**DISRUPTIVE CRITICAL VOLTAGE:**

- The critical disruptive voltage is defined as the minimum phase to neutral voltage at which Corona occurs. It is denoted as  $V_d$ .

**VISUAL CRITICAL VOLTAGE:**

- The critical visual disruptive voltage is the minimum phase to neutral voltage at which corona glow appears and is visible along the conductors.
- In parallel conductors, the corona glow does not begin at the disruptive voltage  $V_d$  but at a higher voltage  $V_v$  called visual critical voltage.

**CORONA POWER LOSS:**

The corona effect due to which several losses occur in transmission lines. These losses decrease the efficiency of transmission lines. Out of all the losses, the corona power loss is the one which affects most, the proficiency of lines.

The power dissipated in the system due to corona discharges is called corona loss. Accurate estimation of corona loss is difficult because of its variable nature. It has been found that the corona loss under fair weather conditions is less than under foul weather conditions. The corona loss under appropriate weather conditions is given below by the Peek's formula;

$$P_c = \frac{244}{\delta} (f + 25) (E_n - E_o)^2 \frac{\sqrt{r}}{\sqrt{D}} 10^{-5} \text{ kW/km/phase}$$

Where  $P_c$  – corona power loss

– frequency of supply in Hz  $\delta$

– air density factor

$E_n$  – r.m.s phase voltage in kV

$E_o$  – disruptive critical voltage per phase in kV

$r$  – radius of the conductor in meters

$D$  – spacing between conductors in meters

It is also to be noticed that for a single-phase line,

$$E_n = \frac{1}{2} \times \text{line voltage}$$

and for a three-phase line,  $E_n$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \times \text{line voltage}$$

Peek's formula is applicable for decided visual corona. This formula gives the inaccurate result when the losses are low, and  $E_n/E_o$  is less than 1.8. It is superseded by Peterson's formula given below;

$$P_C = 2.1 f F \frac{E_n^2}{\left(\log_{10} \frac{D}{r}\right)^2} \times 10^{-5}$$

Where,

$P_C$  – corona power loss

$f$  – frequency of supply in Hz  
 $E_n$  – voltage per phase

$r$  – radius of the conductor

$D$  – spacing between conductors in meters

Factor  $F$  is called the coronal loss function. It varies with the ratio  $(E_n/E_o)$ .  $E_o$  is calculated by the formula given below,

$$E_o = G_o m_o r \delta^{\frac{2}{3}} \ln \frac{D_{eq}}{r} V / \text{phase}$$

Where,

$G_o$  – maximum value of disruptive critical voltage gradient in V/m.  $m_o$  = irregularity factor

### Factors Affecting Corona Loss

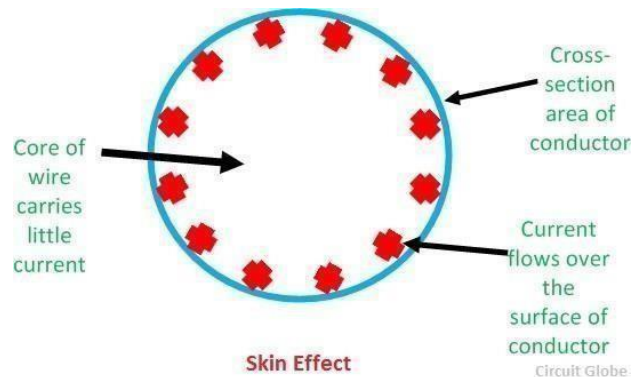
The following are the factors which affect the coronal loss:

- **Effect of system voltage** – The electric field intensity around the conductor depends on the potential difference between the conductors. If the potential difference is high, electric field intensity is also high, and hence corona loss is also high.
- **Effect of Frequency** – The coronal loss is directly proportional to system frequency.
- **Effect of Density of Air** – The coronal loss is inversely proportional to air density factor. The coronal loss increases with the decreases in density of air. The coronal loss of the hilly area is more than that of the plains because plain have low density of air.
- **Effect of Conductor Radius** – If the wire area has high surface area, then the surface field intensity is low, and hence coronal loss is less.

## SKIN EFFECT

Thenon-uniformdistributionofelectriccurrentoverthesurfaceorskinofttheconductorcarrying is called the skin effect. In other words, the concentration of charge is more near the surface as compared to the core of the conductor. The ohmic resistance of the conductor is increased due to the concentration of current on the surface of the conductor.

Skin effect increaseswiththe increaseinfrequency. Atlowfrequency,suchas50Hz,thereisa small increaseinthecurrentdensitynearthesurfaceoftheconductor;but,athighfrequencies,suchasradiofrequency, practically the whole of the currents flows on the surface of the conductor. If d.c current (frequency=0) is passed in a conductor, the current is uniformlydistributed over the cross-section of the conductors



## WHY SKIN EFFECT OCCURS?

Let us consider the conductor is made up of a number of concentric cylinders. When A.C is passed in a conductor, the magnetic flux induces in it. The magnetic flux linking a cylindrical element near the center is greater than that linking another cylindrical element near the surface of the conductor. This is due to the fact that the center cylindrical element is surrounded by both the internal as well as the external flux, while the external cylindrical element is surrounded by the external flux only.

The self-inductance in the inner cylindrical element is more and, therefore, will offer a greater inductive reactance than the outer cylindrical element. This difference in the inductive reactance gives a tendency to the current to concentrate towards the surface or skin of the conductor.

- A conductor carries a steady D.C. current. This current is uniformly distributed over the whole cross-section of the conductor.
- The current distribution is non-uniform if the conductor carries alternating current.
- The current density is higher at the surface than at the center.
- This behavior of alternating current to concentrate near the surface of the conductor is known as skin effect.

## Factors affecting skin effect

1. **Frequency**—Skin effect increases with the increase in frequency.
2. **Diameter**—It increases with the increase in diameter of the conductor.
3. **The shape of the conductor**—Skin effect is more in the solid conductor and less in the stranded conductor because the surface area of the solid conductor is more.
4. **Type of material**—Skin effect increases with the increase in the permeability of the material (Permeability is the ability of material to support the formation of the magnetic field).

**Points-to-remember**

1. The Skin effect is negligible if the frequency is less than the 50 Hz and the diameter of the conductor is less than the 1 cm.
2. In the stranded conductors like ACSR (Aluminium Conductor Steel Reinforced) the current flows mostly in the outer layer made of aluminum, while the steel near the center carries no current and gives high tensile strength to the conductor. The concentration of current near the surface enabled the use of ACSR conductor.

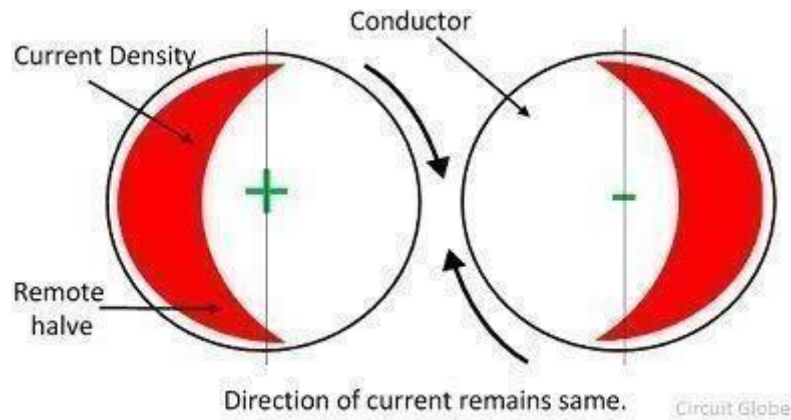
**PROXIMITY EFFECT**

**Definition:** When the conductors carry the high alternating voltage then the currents are non-uniformly distributed on the cross-section area of the conductor. This effect is called proximity effect. The proximity effect results in the increment of the apparent resistance of the conductor due to the presence of the other conductors carrying current in its vicinity.

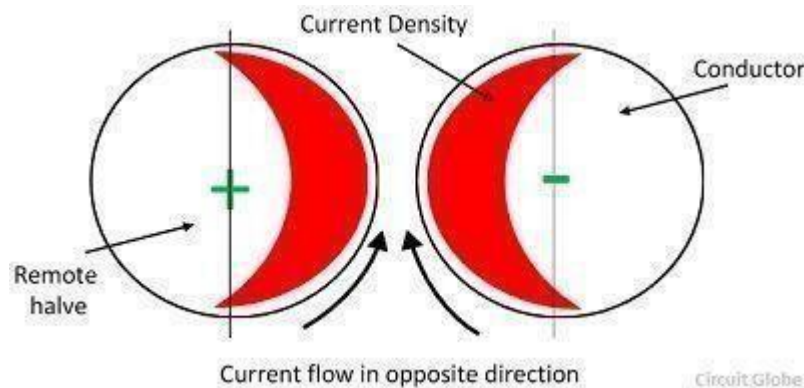
When two or more conductors are placed near to each other, then their electromagnetic fields interact with each other. Due to this interaction, the current in each of them is redistributed such that the greater current density is concentrated in that part of the strand most remote from the interfering conductor.

If the conductors carry the current in the same direction, then the magnetic field of the halves of the conductors which are close to each other is cancelling each other and hence no current flows through that halves portion of the conductor. The current is crowded in the remote half portion of the conductor.





When the conductors carry the current in the opposite direction, then the close part of the conductor carries the more current and the magnetic field of the far off half of the conductor cancels each other. Thus, the current is zero in the remote half of the conductor and crowded at the nearer part of the conductor.



If DC flows on the surface of the conductor, then the current is uniformly distributed around the cross-sectional area of the conductor. Hence, no proximity effect occurs on the surface of the conductor.

The proximity effect is important only for conductor sizes greater than  $125 \text{ mm}^2$ . Correction factors are to be applied to take this fact into account.

If  $R_{dc}$ —uncorrected DC level of the core

$Y_s$ —skin effect factor, i.e., the fractional increment in resistance to allowing for skin effect.

$y_p$ —proximity effect factor, i.e., the fractional increment in resistance to allowing for skin effect.  $R_e$ —effective or corrected ohmic resistance of the core.

The allowance for proximity effect is made, the AC resistance of the conductor becomes

$$R_e = R_{dc}(1 + y_{dc} + y_p)$$

The resistance  $R_{dc}$  is known from stranded tables.

### Factors Affecting the Proximity Effect

The proximity effect mainly depends on the factors like conductor's material, conductor diameter, frequency and conductor structure. The factors are explained below in details

1. **Frequency**—The proximity increases with the increase in the frequency.
2. **Diameter**—The proximity effect increases with the increase in the conductor.
3. **Structure** – This effect is more on the solid conductor as compared to the stranded conductor (i.e., ACSR) because the surface area of the stranded conductor is smaller than the solid conductor.
4. **Material**—If the material is made up of high ferromagnetic material then the proximity effect is more on their surface.

### How to reduce Proximity Effect?

The proximity effect can be reduced by using the ACSR (Aluminum Core Steel Reinforced) conductor. In ACSR conductor the steel is placed at the centre of the conductor and the aluminium conductor is positioned around steel wire.

The steel increased the strength of the conductor but reduced the surface area of the conductor. Thus, the current flow mostly in the outer layer of the conductor and no current is carried in the centre of the conductor. Thus, reduced the proximity effect on the conductor.

- The current distribution may be non-uniform because of another effect known as proximity effect. Consider a two wire line as shown in fig. below



- Let each of the line conductor is assumed to be divided into 3 sections having equal Cross-sectional area. These parallel loops are formed by the pairs  $xx'$ ,  $yy'$  and  $zz'$ .
- The inductance of interloop is less. Thus, the current density is highest at inner edges of the conductor.
- Due to this non-uniform distribution of current, the effective conductor resistance increases.
- The proximity effect also depends on the same factors as that of skin effect.

## **FERRANTI EFFECT**

### **Ferranti Effect in Transmission Lines and Its Calculation**

Generally, we know that the flow of current in every electrical system will be from the higher potential area to lower potential area, to reimburse for the difference that lives in the system. In practical, the voltage at the transmitting end is superior to the voltage at the receiving end due to line losses, so the flow of current will be from the supply to the load. In the year 1989, Sir S.Z. Ferranti came up with a theory, namely astonishing theory. The main concept of this theory is all about “Medium Distance Transmission Line” or Long Distance Transmission Lines proposing that in case of no-load operation of the transmission system. The voltage at the receiving end frequently enhances beyond the transmitting end. This is the Ferranti Effect in power system

### **What is a Ferranti Effect?**

The Ferranti effect definition is, the voltage effect on the collecting end of the transmission line is higher than the transmitting end is called as “Ferranti Effect”. Generally, this sort of effect happens due to an open circuit, light load at the collecting end or charging-current of the transmission line. Here, charging current can be defined as, whenever an exchanging voltage is connected, the current will flow through the capacitor, and it is also called as “capacitive current”. When the voltage at the collecting end of the line is superior to the transmitting end, then the charging current rises in the line.

### **Parameters of Ferranti Effect**

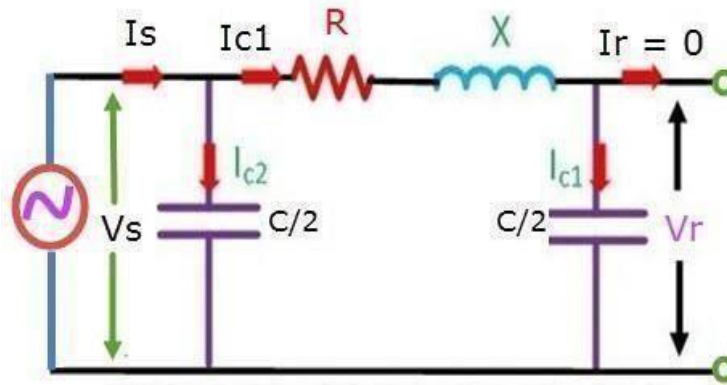
Ferranti effect mainly occurs due to the charging current, and couples with the line capacitance. In addition, the following parameters must be noticed.

Capacitance depends on composition and length of a line. In capacitance, cables have more capacitance than bare conductor per length. Whereas in line length, long lines have higher capacitance than short lines.

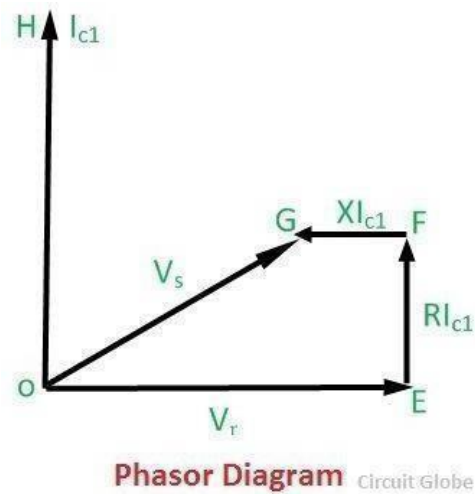
Charging current turns into more important as load current decreases, and it increases with the voltage of the system given the similar capacitive charge. As a result, the Ferranti effect happens only for long lightly loaded or open-circuited energized lines. In addition, the fact becomes clearer with higher applied voltage and underground cables.

### **Ferranti Effect in Transmission Line, Calculation**

Let us think the Ferranti Effect in extensive transmission line where OE-signifies the collecting end voltage, OH-signifies the flow of current in [the capacitor](#) at the collecting end. The FE-phasor signifies a decrease in a voltage across the resistance R. FG-signifies a decrease in a voltage across the (X) inductance. The OG-phasor signifies the transmitting end voltage in a no-load state. The nominal  $\pi$  model of the transmission line at no load condition circuit is shown below.



In the following phasor graphical representation that  $OE$  is greater than  $OG$  ( $OE > OG$ ). In other terms, the voltage at the receiving end is superior to the voltage at the transmitting end when the transmission line is at no load condition. Here the **Ferranti effect phasor diagram** is shown below.



For a nominal  $\pi$  model

$$V_s = \left(1 + \frac{ZY}{2}\right) V_r + ZI_r$$

At no load,  $I_r = 0$

$$V_s = \left(1 + \frac{ZY}{2}\right) V_r$$

$$V_s - V_r = \left(1 + \frac{ZY}{2}\right) V_r - V_r$$

$$V_s - V_r = V_r \left[1 + \frac{YZ}{2} - 1\right]$$

$$V_s - V_r = \frac{YZ}{2} V_r$$

$$Z = (r + j\omega l)S, Y = (j\omega c)S$$

If the resistance of the line is neglected,

$$Z = j\omega lS$$

$$V_s - V_r = \frac{1}{2} (j\omega lS)(j\omega cS) V_r$$

$$V_s - V_r = -\frac{1}{2} (\omega^2 S^2) lc V_r$$

For overhead lines,  $1/\sqrt{lc}$  = velocity of propagation of electromagnetic waves on the transmission lines =  $3 \times 10^8$  m/s.

$$\sqrt{lc} = \frac{1}{3 \times 10^8}$$

$$lc = \frac{1}{(3 \times 10^8)^2}$$

$$V_S - V_R = -\frac{1}{2} \omega^2 S^2 \cdot \frac{1}{(3 \times 10^8)^2} V_r$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$

$$V_S - V_R = -\left(\frac{4\pi^2}{18} \times 10^{-16}\right) f^2 S^2 V_r$$

Above equations show that  $(V_S - V_r)$  is negative. That is  $V_r > V_S$ . This equation also shows that Ferranti effect also depends on frequency and the electrical length of the lines.

In general, for any line

$$V_S = AV_r + BI_r$$

At no load

$$I_r = 0, V_r = V_{rnl}$$

$$V_S = AV_{rnl}$$

$$|V_{rnl}| = \frac{|V_S|}{|A|}$$

For a long line,  $A$  is less than unity, and it decreases with the increase in the length of the line. Hence, the voltage at no load is greater than the voltage at no load ( $V_{rnl} > V_S$ ). As the line length increases, the rise in the voltage at the receiving end at no load becomes more predominant.

#### How to reduce Ferranti effect:

Electrical devices are designed to work at some particular voltage. If the voltages are high at the user end, their equipment gets damaged, and their windings burn because of high voltage. Ferranti effect

on long transmission lines at low load or no load, the receiving end voltage increases. This voltage can be controlled by placing the shunt reactors at the receiving end of the lines.

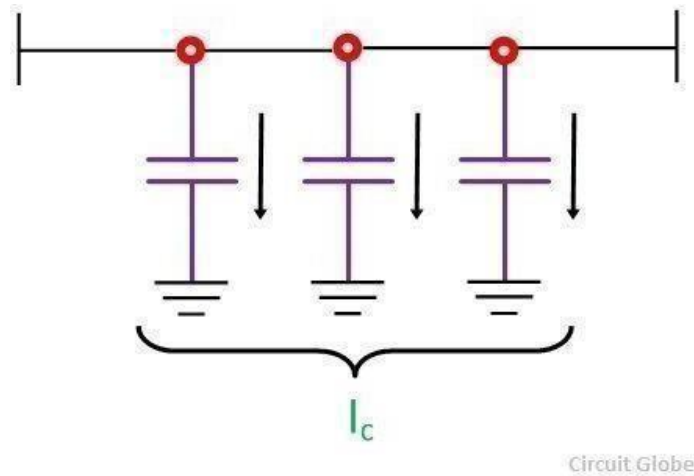
A shunt reactor is an inductive current element connected between the line and neutral to compensate the capacitive current from transmission lines. When this effect occurs in long transmission lines, shunt reactors compensate the capacitive VAR of the lines and therefore the voltage is regulated within the prescribed limits.

**Note:**

- Voltage rise is directly proportional to the square of the length of the line.
- Ferranti effect is more pronounced in short transmission cables because their capacitance is high.

### CHARGING CURRENT IN TRANSMISSION LINE

In a transmission line, air acts as a dielectric medium between the conductors. When the voltage is applied across the sending end of the transmission line, current starts flowing between the conductors (due to imperfections of the dielectric medium). This current is called the **charging current in the transmission line**.



In other words, we can say, the current associated with the capacitance of a line is known as the charging current. The strength of the charging current depends on the voltage, frequency, and capacitance of the line. It is given by the equations shown below.

For a single-phase line, the charging current

$$I_c = \frac{V_n}{-jX_c} = \frac{V}{-j/wC} = j2\pi f C V A$$

Where,

$C$ =line-to-line in farads

$X_c$ =capacitive reactance in ohms  
 $V$ =line voltage in volts

$$\text{Charging voltamperes} = VI_c = \frac{V \cdot V}{X_c} = \frac{V^2}{X_c} \text{ VAr}$$

Also, reactive volt-ampere generated by the line = charging volt-ampere of the lines

$$Q = VI_c = \frac{V^2}{X_c} \text{ VAr}$$

For a three-phase line, the charging current per phase

$$I = \frac{V_n}{-jX_c} = \frac{V_n}{-j/wC} = jwC_n V_n \text{ A}$$

where  $V_n$ =voltage to neutral in volts = phase voltage in volts  
 $C_n$ =capacitance to neutral in farads

$C_n$ =capacitance to neutral in farads

$$\text{Charging voltamperes per phase} = V_n I_c = V_n \times \frac{V_n}{X_c} = \frac{V_n^2}{X_c} \text{ VAr}$$

$$\text{Total three phase charging voltamperes} = 3V_n I_c = \frac{V_n^2}{X_c} \text{ VAr}$$

Reactive volt-ampere generated by the line = charging volt-ampere of the lines

$$Q_c = \frac{3V_n I_n}{X_c} = \frac{3}{X_c} \left( \frac{V_t}{\sqrt{3}} \right)^2 = \frac{V_t^2}{X_c} \text{ VAr}$$

where  $V_t$ =line-to-line voltage in volts.



### Significance of charging current

1. It reduces the load current, due to which line losses decrease, and hence the efficiency of the line is increased.
2. It improves the power factor of the transmission line.
3. Charging current improves the load capacity of the line.
4. It improves the voltage regulation of the line because the voltage drop is quite small.

### INDUCTIVE INTERFERENCE WITH NEIGHBOURING COMMUNICATION CIRCUITS

It is usual practice to run telephonelines along the same route as the powerlines. The transmission lines transmit bulk power at relatively high voltages and, therefore, these lines give rise to electromagnetic and electrostatic fields of sufficient magnitude which induce a superposed current on the true speech currents in the neighboring telephone wires and set up distortion while the voltage so induced raises the potential of the communication circuit as a whole. In extreme cases the effect of these may make it impossible to transmit any message faithfully and may raise the potential of the telephone receiver above the ground to such an extent to render the handling of the telephone receiver extremely dangerous and in such cases elaborate precautions are required to be observed to avoid this danger.

In practice it is observed that the power lines and the communication lines run along the same path. Sometimes it can also be seen that both these lines run on same supports along the same route. The transmission lines transmit bulk power with relatively high voltage. Electromagnetic and electrostatic fields are produced by these lines having sufficient magnitude. Because of these fields, voltages and currents are induced in the neighboring communication lines. Thus it gives rise to interference of power line with communication circuit.

Due to electromagnetic effect, currents are induced which are superimposed on speech current of the neighboring communication line which results in distortion. The potential of the communication circuit as a whole is raised because of electrostatic effect and the communication apparatus and the equipments may get damaged due to extraneous voltages. In the worst situation, the faithful transmission of message becomes impossible due to effect of these fields. Also the potential of the apparatus is raised above the ground to such an extent that the handling of telephone receiver becomes extremely dangerous.

The electromagnetic and the electrostatic effects mainly depend on what is the distance between power and communication circuits and the length of the route over which they are parallel. Thus it can be noted that if the distortion effect and potential rise effect are within permissible limits then the communication will be proper. The unacceptable disturbance which is produced in the telephone communication because of power lines is called Telephone Interference.

There are various factors influencing the telephone interference. These factors are as follows

- 1) Because of harmonics in power circuit, their frequency range and magnitudes.
- 2) Electromagnetic coupling between power and telephone conductor.

The electric coupling is in the form of capacitive coupling between power and telephone conductor whereas the magnetic coupling is through space and is generally expressed in terms of mutual inductance at harmonic frequencies.

- 3) Due to unbalance in power circuits and telephone circuits.
- 4) Type of return telephone circuit i.e. either metallic or ground return.
- 5) Screening effects.

### Steps for Reducing Telephone Interference

There are various ways that can reduce the telephone interference. Some of them are as listed below

- i) The harmonics at the source can be reduced with the use of A.C. harmonic filters, D.C. harmonic filters and smoothing reactors.
- ii) Use greater spacing between power and telephone lines.
- iii) The parallel run between telephone line and power line is avoided.
- iv) Instead of using overhead telephone wires, underground telephone cables may be used.
- v) If the telephone circuit is ground return then replace it with metallic return.
- vi) Use microwave or carrier communication instead of telephone communication.

The balance of AC power line is improved by using transposition. Transposition of lines reduces the induced voltages to a considerable extent. The capacitance of the lines is balanced by transposition leading to balance in electrostatically induced voltages. Using transposition the fluxes due to positive and negative phase sequence currents cancel out so the electromagnetically induced e.m.f is diminished. For zero sequence currents the telephone lines are also transposed

## UNIT- IVDC DISTRIBUTION

### Syllabus:

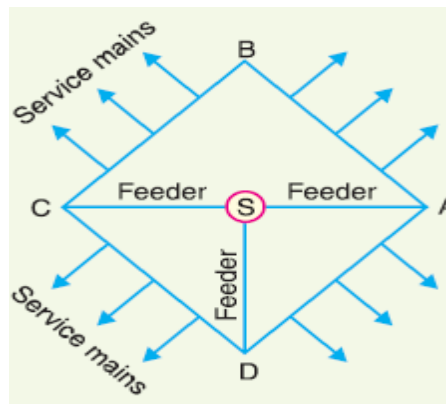
Classification of distribution systems. Comparison of DC vs. AC and underground vs. over- Head distribution systems. - Requirements and Design features of Distribution Systems. - Voltage Drop Calculations (Numerical Problems) in D.C Distributors for the following cases: Radial D.C Distributor fed one end and at both the ends (equal/unequal Voltages) and Ring Main Distributor.

### DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM:

The electrical energy produced at the generating station is conveyed to the consumers through a network of transmission and distribution systems. In general, distribution system is that part of power system which distributes power to the consumers for utilisation.

The part of power system which distributes electric power for local use is known as distribution system.

In general, the distribution system is the electrical system between the sub-station fed by the transmission system and the consumers' meters. It generally consists of feeders, distributors and the service mains. The below fig. shows the single line diagram of a typical low tension distribution system.



#### (i) Feeders:

A feeder is a conductor which connects the sub-station (or localised generating station) to the area where power is to be distributed. Generally, no tapings are taken from the feeders so that current in it remains the same throughout.

The main consideration in the design of a feeder is the current carrying capacity.

#### (ii) Distributor:

A distributor is a conductor from which tapings are taken for supply to the consumers. In above fig. AB, BC, CD and DA are the distributors. The current through a distributor is not constant because tapings are taken at various places along its length. While designing a distributor, voltage drop along its length is the main

considered. The statutory limit of voltage variations is  $\pm 6\%$  of rated value at the consumers' terminals.

---

(iii) **Servicemains:**

A servicemain is generally a small cable which connects the distributor to the consumers' terminals.

**CLASSIFICATION OF DISTRIBUTION SYSTEMS:**

A distribution system may be classified according to,

**POWER SYSTEMS of current.** According to **MAGNET** of current, distribution system may be classified as

- (a) D.C. distribution system
- (b) A.C. distribution system.

Now-a-days, A.C. system is universally adopted for distribution of electric power as it is simpler and more economical than D.C. distribution system

**(ii) Type of construction.** According to type of construction, distribution system may be classified as

- (a) Overhead system
- (b) Underground system.

The overhead system is generally employed for distribution as it is 5 to 10 times cheaper than the equivalent underground system. In general, the underground system is used at places where overhead construction is impracticable or prohibited by the local laws.

**(iii) Scheme of connection.** According to scheme of connection, the distribution system may be classified as

- (a) Radial system
- (b) Ring main system
- (c) Inter-connected system.

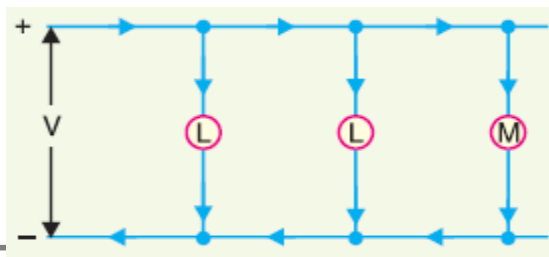
### **D.C. Distribution**

It is a common knowledge that electric power is almost exclusively generated, transmitted and distributed as A.C. However, for certain applications, D.C. supply is absolutely necessary. For instance, d.c. supply is required for the operation of variable speed machinery (i.e., D.C. motors), for electrochemical work and for congested areas where storage battery reserves are necessary.

For this purpose, A.C. power is converted into D.C. power at the substation by using converting machinery e.g., mercury arc rectifiers, rotary converters and motor-generator sets. The D.C. supply from the substation may be obtained in the form of (i) 2-wire (ii) 3-wire for distribution.

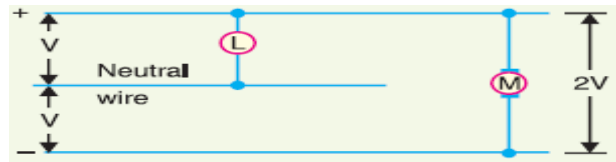
#### **(i) 2-wire D.C. system:**

As the name implies, this system of distribution consists of two wires. One is the outgoing or positive wire and the other is the return or negative wire. The loads such as lamps, motor etc. are connected in parallel between the two wires as shown in below fig. This system is never used for transmission purposes due to low efficiency but may be employed for distribution of D.C. power.



#### **(ii) 3-wire D.C. system:**

between the outers is twice the voltage between either outer and neutral wire as shown in below fig. The principal advantage of this system is that it makes available two voltages at the consumer terminals viz.,  $V$  between any outer and the neutral and  $2V$  between the outers. Loads requiring high voltage (e.g., motors) are connected across the outers, whereas lamps and heating circuits requiring less voltage are connected between either outer and the neutral.

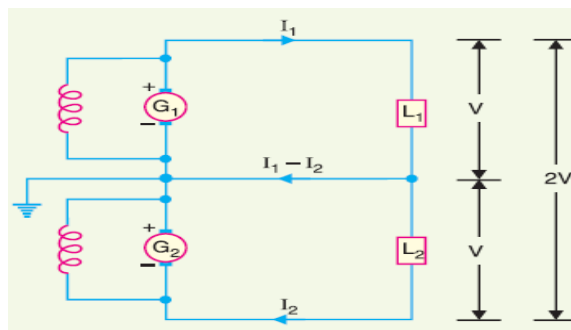


### **Methods of obtaining 3-wire D.C. System:**

There are several methods of obtaining 3-wire D.C. system. However, the most important ones are:

#### **(i) Two generator method:**

In this method, two shunt wound D.C. generators  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are connected in series and the neutral is obtained from the common point between generators as shown in below fig. Each generator supplies the load on its own side. Thus generator  $G_1$  supplies a load current of  $I_1$ , whereas generator  $G_2$  supplies a load current of  $I_2$ . The difference of load currents on the two sides, known as out of balance current ( $I_1 - I_2$ ) flows through the neutral wire. The principal disadvantage of this method is that two separate generators are required



#### **(ii) 3-wire D.C. generator:**

The above method is costly on account of the necessity of two generators. For this reason, 3-wire d.c. generator was developed as shown in below fig. It consists of a standard 2-wire machine with one or two coils of high reactance and low resistance, connected permanently to diametrically opposite points of the armature winding. The neutral wire is obtained from the common point as shown.

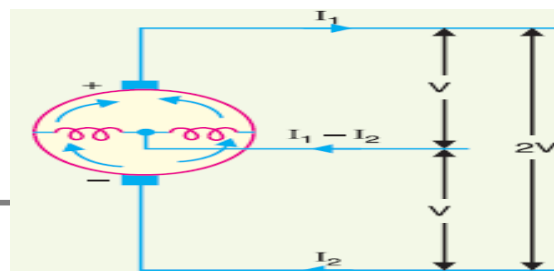
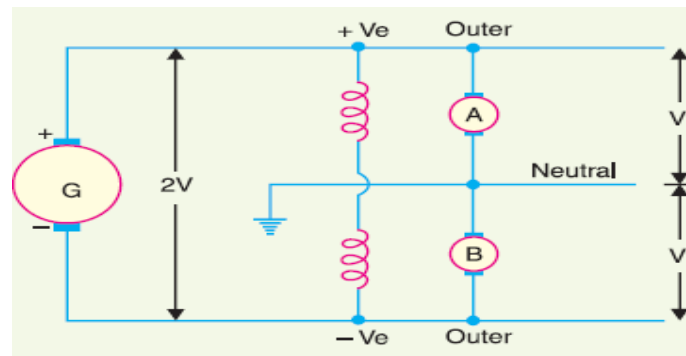




fig. Gisthemain 2-wire D.C. generator and supplies power to the whole system. The balancer set consists of two identical D.C. shunt machines A and B coupled mechanically with their armatures and field windings joined in series across the outers. The junction of their armatures is earthed and neutral wire is taken out from here. The balancer set has the additional advantage that it maintains the potential difference on two sides of neutral equal to each other.



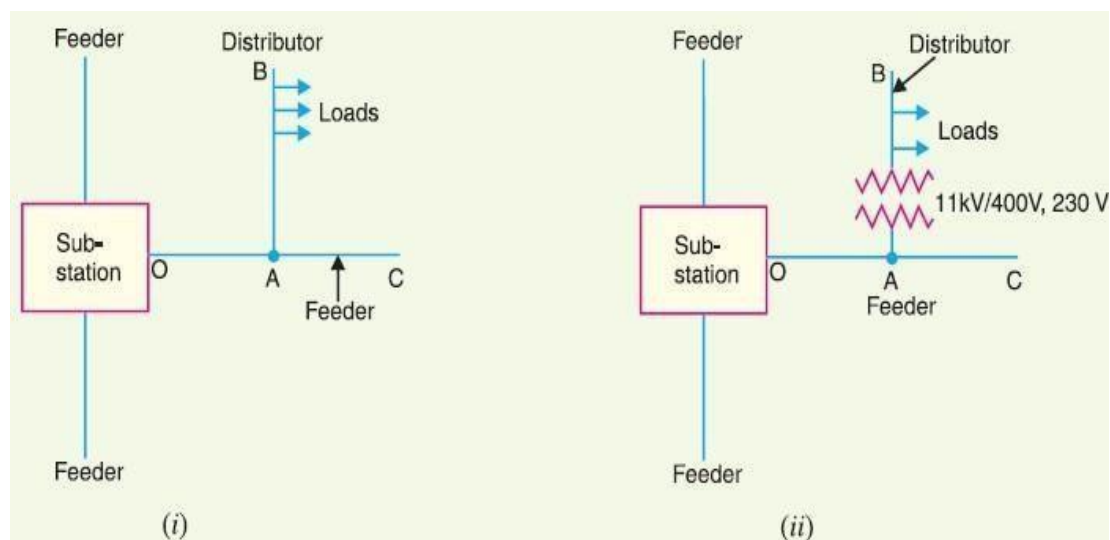
## **CONNECTION SCHEMES OF DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM:**

All distribution of electrical energy is done by constant voltage system. In practice, the following distribution circuits are generally used

### **(i) Radial System:**

In this system, separate feeders radiate from a single substation and feed the distributors at one end only. The below fig(i) shows a single line diagram of a radial system for d.c. distribution where a feeder OC supplies a distributor AB at point A. Obviously, the distributor is fed at one end only i.e., point A.

The below fig(ii) shows a single line diagram of a radial system for a.c. distribution. The radial system is employed only when power is generated at low voltage and the substation is located at the centre of the load.



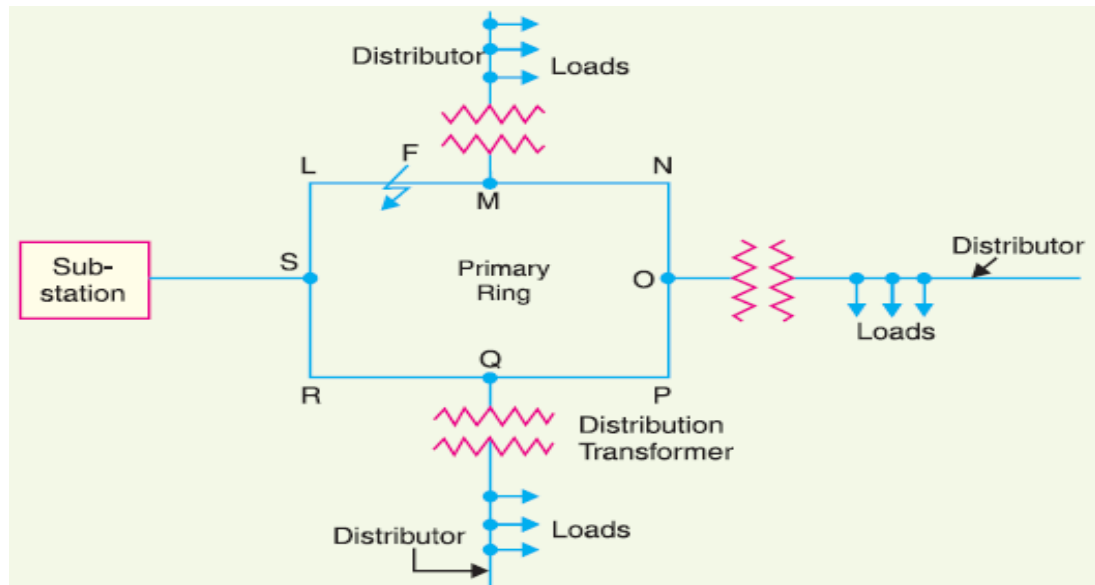




- (b) The consumers are dependent on a single feeder and single distributor. Therefore, any fault on the feeder or distributor cuts off supply to the consumers who are on the side of the fault away from the substation.
- (c) The consumers at the distant end of the distributor would be subjected to serious voltage fluctuations when the load on the distributor changes. Due to these limitations, this system is used for short distances only.

### (ii) Ring main system:

In this system, the primaries of distribution transformers form a loop. The loop circuit starts from the substation bus-bars, makes a loop through the area to be served, and returns to the substation. The below fig. shows the single line diagram of ring main system for a.c. distribution where substation supplies to the closed feeder LMNOPQRS. The distributors are tapped from different points M, O and Q of the feeder through distribution transformers.

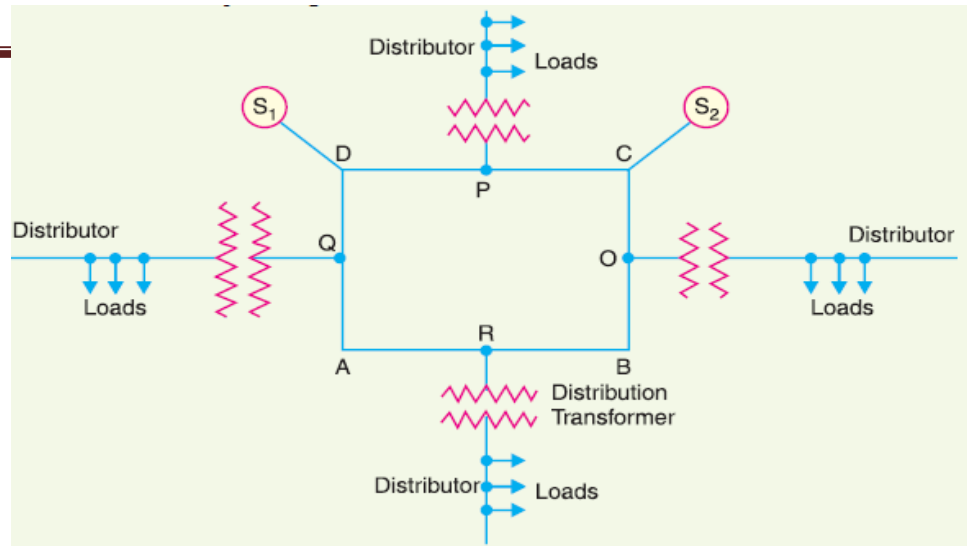


The ring main system has the following advantages:

- (a) There are less voltage fluctuations at consumer's terminals.
- (b) The system is very reliable as each distributor is fed via two feeders. In the event of a fault on any section of the feeder, the continuity of supply is maintained. For example, suppose that a fault occurs at any point F of section SLM of the feeder. Then section SLM of the feeder can be isolated for repairs and at the same time continuity of supply is maintained to all the consumers via the feeder SRQPONM.

### (iii) Interconnected system:

When the feeder ring is energised by two or more than two generating stations or substations, it is called an interconnected system. The below fig. shows the single line diagram of an interconnected system where the closed feeder ring ABCD is supplied by two substations  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  at points D and C respectively. Distributors are connected to points O, P, Q and R of the feeder ring through distribution transformers.



The interconnected system has the following advantages:

- (a) It increases the service reliability.
- (b) Any area fed from one generating station during peak load hours can be fed from the other generating station. This reduces reserve power capacity and increases efficiency of the system.

### **COMPARISON OF D.C. AND A.C. DISTRIBUTION:**

The electric power can be distributed either by means of D.C. or A.C. Each system has its own merits and demerits

#### **D.C. DISTRIBUTION:**

##### **Advantages:**

- It requires only two conductors as compared to three for A.C. distribution.
- There is no inductance, capacitance, phase displacement and surge problems in D.C. distribution.
- Due to the absence of inductance, the voltage drop in a D.C. distribution line is less than the A.C. line for the same load and sending end voltage. For this reason, a D.C. distribution line has better voltage regulation.
- There is no skin effect in a D.C. system. Therefore, entire cross-section of the line conductor is utilized.
- For the same working voltage, the potential stress on the insulation is less in case of D.C. system than that in A.C. system. Therefore, a D.C. line requires less insulation.
- A D.C. line has less coronal loss and reduced interference with communication circuits.
  - The high voltage D.C. distribution is free from the dielectric losses.
  - In D.C. distribution, there are no stability problems and synchronizing difficulties.

##### **Disadvantages**

- Electric power cannot be generated at high D.C. voltage due to commutation problems.
- The D.C. voltage cannot be stepped up for distribution of power at high voltages.
- The D.C. switches and circuit breakers have their own limitations.

**Advantages:**

- The power can be generated at high voltages.
- The maintenance of A.C. sub-stations is easy and cheaper.
- The A.C. voltage can be stepped up or stepped down by transformers with ease and efficiency. This permits to transmit power at high voltages and distribute it at safe potentials.

**Disadvantages:**

- The construction of A.C. distribution line is more complicated than a D.C. distribution line.
- Due to skin effect in the A.C. system, the effective resistance of the line is increased.
- An A.C. line has capacitance. Therefore, there is a continuous loss of power due to charging current even when the line is open.
- An A.C. line requires more copper than a D.C. line

## **COMPARISON OF OVERHEAD VERSUS UNDERGROUND DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM:**

The distribution system can be overhead or underground.

- Overhead lines are generally mounted on wooden, concrete or steel poles which are arranged to carry distribution transformers in addition to the conductors.
- The underground system uses conduits, cables and manholes under the surface of streets and sidewalks. The choice between overhead and underground system depends upon a number of widely differing factors. Therefore, it is desirable to make a comparison between the two.

- (i) **Public safety:** The underground system is safer than overhead system because all distribution wiring is placed underground and there are little chances of any hazard.
- (ii) **Initial cost:** The underground system is more expensive due to the high cost of trenching, conduits, cables, manholes and other special equipment. The initial cost of an underground system may be five to ten times than that of an overhead system.
- (iii) **Flexibility:** The overhead system is much more flexible than the underground system. In the latter case, manholes, duct lines etc., are permanently placed once installed and the load expansion can only be met by laying new lines. However, on an overhead system, poles, wires, transformers etc., can be easily shifted to meet the changes in load conditions.
- (iv) **Faults:** The chances of faults in underground system are very rare as the cables are laid underground and are generally provided with better insulation.
- (v) **Appearance:** The general appearance of an underground system is better as all the distribution lines are invisible. This factor is exerting considerable public pressure on electric supply companies to switch over to underground system.

**(vi) POWER SYSTEMS / REPAIRS:** In general, the chances of faults in an underground system. However, if a fault does occur, it is difficult to locate and repair on this system.

On an overhead system, the conductors are visible and easily accessible so that fault locations and repairs can be easily made.

**(vii) Current carrying capacity and voltage drop:** An overhead distribution conductor has a considerably higher current carrying capacity than an underground cable conductor of the same material and cross-section. On the other hand, underground cable conductor has much lower inductive reactance than that of an overhead conductor because of closer spacing of conductors.

**(viii) Useful life:** The useful life of underground system is much longer than that of an overhead system. An overhead system may have a useful life of 25 years, whereas an underground system may have a useful life of more than 50 years.

**(ix) Maintenance cost:** The maintenance cost of underground system is very low as compared with that of overhead system because of fewer chances of faults and service interruptions from wind, ice, and lightning as well as from traffic hazards.

**(x) Interference with communication circuits:** An overhead system causes electromagnetic interference with the telephonelines. The power line currents are superimposed on speech currents, resulting in the potential of the communication channel being raised to an undesirable level. However, there is no such interference with the underground system.

It is clear from the above comparison that each system has its own advantages and disadvantages. However, comparative economics (i.e., annual cost of operation) is the most powerful factor influencing the choice between underground and overhead system.

The greater capital cost of underground system prohibits its use for distribution. But sometimes non-economic factors (e.g., general appearance, public safety etc.) exert considerable influence on choosing underground system. In general, overhead system is adopted for distribution and the use of underground system is made only where overhead construction is impracticable or prohibited by local laws.

### **REQUIREMENTS OF A DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM:**

A considerable amount of effort is necessary to maintain an electric power supply within the requirements of various types of consumers. Some of the requirements of a good distribution system are proper voltage, availability of power on demand and reliability.

#### **(i) Proper voltage:**

One important requirement of a distribution system is that voltage variations at consumer's terminals should be as low as possible. The changes in voltage are generally caused due to the variation of load on the system. Low voltage causes loss of revenue, inefficient lighting and possible burning out of motors. High voltage causes lamp to burn out permanently and may cause failure of other appliances.

are within permissible limits. The statutory limit of voltage variations is  $\pm 6\%$  of the rated value at the consumer's terminals. Thus, if the declared voltage is 230 V, then the highest voltage of the consumers should not exceed 244 V while the lowest voltage of the consumer should not be less than 216 V.

(ii) **Availability of power on demand:**

Power must be available to the consumers in any amount that they may require from time to time. For example, motors may be started or shut down, lights may be turned on or off, without advance warning to the electric supply company. As electrical energy cannot be stored, therefore, the distribution system must be capable of supplying load demands of the consumers.

This necessitates that operating staff must continuously study load patterns to predict in advance those major load changes that follow the known schedules.

(iii) **Reliability:**

Modern industry is almost dependent on electric power for its operation. Homes and office buildings are lighted, heated, cooled and ventilated by electric power. This calls for reliable service. Unfortunately, electric power, like everything else that is man-made, can never be absolutely reliable. However, the reliability can be improved to a considerable extent by (a) interconnected system (b) reliable automatic control system (c) providing additional reserve facilities.

**DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS IN DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM:**

Good voltage regulation of a distribution network is probably the most important factor responsible for delivering good service to the consumers. For this purpose, design of feeders and distributors requires careful consideration.

(i) **Feeders:**

A feeder is designed from the point of view of its current carrying capacity while the voltage drop consideration is relatively unimportant. It is because voltage drop in a feeder can be compensated by means of voltage regulating equipment at the substation.

(ii) **Distributors:**

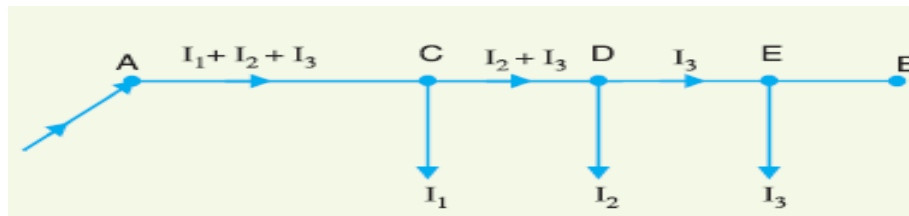
A distributor is designed from the point of view of the voltage drop in it. It is because a distributor supplies power to the consumers and there is a statutory limit of voltage variations at the consumer's terminals ( $\pm 6\%$  of rated value). The size and length of the distributor should be such that voltage at the consumer's terminals is within the permissible limits.

The most general method of classifying d.c. distributors is the way they are fed by the feeders. On this basis, d.c. distributors are reclassified as:

1. Distributor fed at one end
2. Distributor fed at both ends
3. Distributor fed at the centre
4. Ring distributor.

### 1. Distributor fed at one end:

In this type of feeding, the distributor is connected to the supply at one end and loads are taken at different points along the length of the distributor. The below fig. shows the single line diagram of a D.C. distributor AB fed at the end A and loads  $I_1$ ,  $I_2$  and  $I_3$  tapped off at points C, D and E respectively.

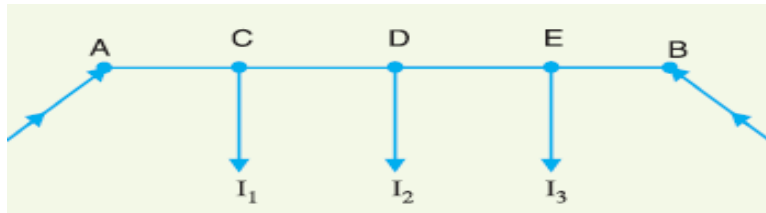


The following points are worth noting in a singly fed distributor:

- (a) The current in the various sections of the distributor away from the feeding point goes on decreasing. Thus current in section AC is more than the current in section CD and current in section CD is more than the current in section DE.
- (b) The voltage across the loads away from the feeding point goes on decreasing. Thus in the above Fig. the minimum voltage occurs at the load point E.
- (c) In case a fault occurs on any section of the distributor, the whole distributor will have to be disconnected from the supply mains. Therefore, continuity of supply is interrupted.

### 2. Distributor fed at both ends:

In this type of feeding, the distributor is connected to the supply mains at both ends and loads are tapped off at different points along the length of the distributor. The voltage at the feeding points may or may not be equal. The below fig. shows a distributor AB fed at the ends A and B and loads of  $I_1$ ,  $I_2$  and  $I_3$  tapped off at points C, D and E respectively. Here, the load voltage goes on decreasing as we move away from one feeding point say A, reaches minimum value and then again starts rising and reaches maximum value when we reach the other feeding point B. The minimum voltage occurs at some load point and is never fixed. It is shifted with the variation of load on different sections of the distributor.

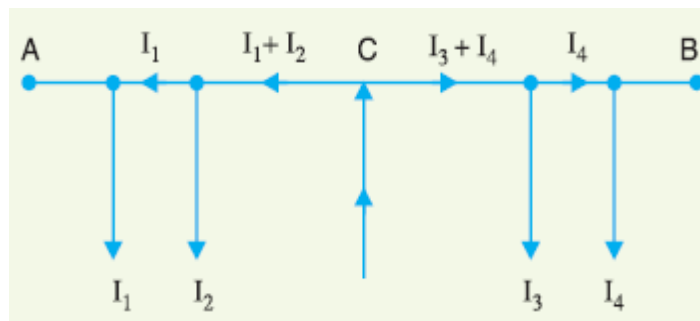


### Advantages:

- (a) If a fault occurs on any feeding point of the distributor, the continuity of supply is maintained from the other feeding point.
- (b) In case of a fault on any section of the distributor, the continuity of supply is maintained from the other feeding point.
- (c) The area of X-section required for a doubly fed distributor is much less than that of a singly fed distributor.

### 3. Distributor fed at the centre:

In this type of feeding, the centre of the distributor is connected to the supply mains as shown in the below fig. It is equivalent to two singly fed distributors, each distributor having a common feeding point and length equal to half of the total length.



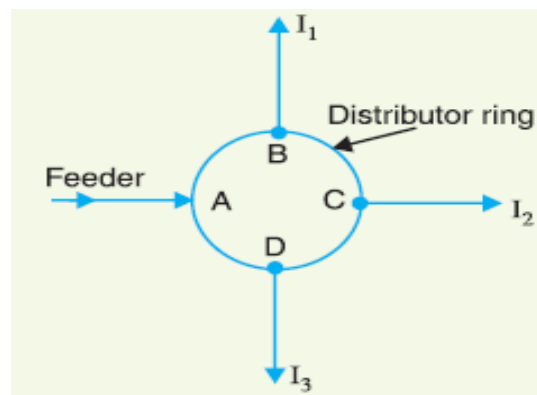


#### 4. Ringmain distributor:

In this type, the distributor is in the form of a closed ring as shown in below Fig. It is equivalent to a straight distributor fed at both ends with equal voltages, the two ends being brought together to form a closed ring. The distributor ring may be fed at one or more than one point.

#### VOLTAGE DROP CALCULATIONS D.C. DISTRIBUTION:

In addition to the methods of feeding discussed above, a distributor may have (i) concentrated loading (ii) uniform loading (iii) both concentrated and uniform loading. The concentrated loads are those which act on particular points of the distributor. A common example of such loads is that tapped off for domestic use. On the other hand, distributed loads are those which act uniformly on all points of the distributor. Ideally, there are no distributed loads. However, a nearest example of distributed load is a large number of loads of same wattage connected to the distributor at equal distances.

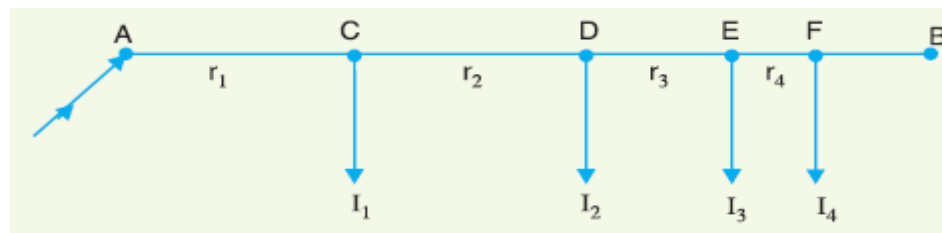


In d.c. distribution calculations, one important point of interest is the determination of point of minimum potential on the distributor. The point where it occurs depends upon the loading conditions and the method of feeding the distributor. The distributor is so designed that the minimum potential on it is not less than 6% of rated voltage at the consumer's terminals. In the next sections, we shall discuss some important cases of d.c. distributors separately.

## **D.C. DISTRIBUTOR FED AT ONE END:**

### **CONCENTRATED LOADING:**

The below fig. shows the single line diagram of a 2-wired c.distributor AB fed at one end A and having concentrated loads  $I_1, I_2, I_3$  and  $I_4$  tapped off at points C, D, E and F respectively.



Let  $r_1, r_2, r_3$  and  $r_4$  be the resistances of both wires (go and return) of the sections AC, CD, DE and EF of the distributor respectively.

Current fed from point A =  $I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4$  Current

in section AC =  $I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4$  Current in

section CD =  $I_2 + I_3 + I_4$  Current in section DE

$$= I_3 + I_4$$

Current in section EF =  $I_4$

Voltage drop in section AC =  $r_1(I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4)$  Voltage drop

in section CD =  $r_2(I_2 + I_3 + I_4)$  Voltage drop in section DE

$$= r_3(I_3 + I_4)$$

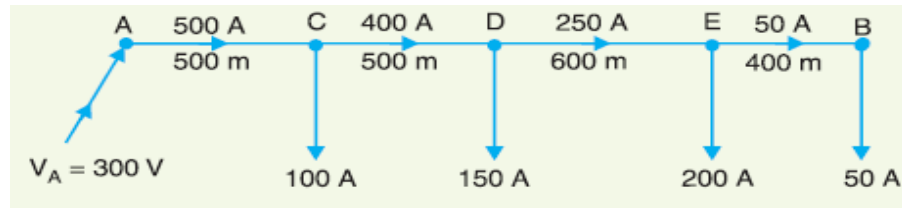
Voltage drop in section EF =  $r_4 I_4$

∴ Total voltage

drop in the distributor =  $r_1(I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4) + r_2(I_2 + I_3 + I_4) + r_3(I_3 + I_4) + r_4 I_4$  It is easy to see that the minimum potential will occur at point F which is farthest from the feeding point A.

## PROBLEMS:

1. 2-wired.c.distributor cable AB is 2 km long and supplies loads of 100 A, 150 A, 200 A and 50 A situated 500 m, 1000 m, 1600 m and 2000 m from the feeding point A. Each conductor has a resistance of  $0.01 \Omega$  per 1000 m. Calculate the p.d. at each load point if a p.d. of 300 V is maintained at point A.



The above fig. shows the single line diagram of the distributor with its tapped currents.

Resistance per 1000 m of distributor =  $2 \times 0.01 = 0.02 \Omega$  Resistance

of section AC,  $R_{AC} = 0.02 \times 500/1000 = 0.01 \Omega$  Resistance of section CD,

$R_{CD} = 0.02 \times 500/1000 = 0.01 \Omega$  Resistance of section DE,

$R_{DE} = 0.02 \times 600/1000 = 0.012 \Omega$  Resistance of section EB,  $R_{EB} =$

$0.02 \times 400/1000 = 0.008 \Omega$

Referring to the above fig. the currents in the various sections of the distributor are:  $I_{EB} = 50 \text{ A}$ ,  $I_{DE} =$

$50 + 200 = 250 \text{ A}$ ,  $I_{CD} = 250 + 150 = 400 \text{ A}$ ,  $I_{AC} = 400 + 100 = 500 \text{ A}$

P.D. at load point C,  $V_C = \text{Voltage at A} - \text{Voltage drop in AC}$

$$= V_A - I_{AC} R_{AC}$$

$$= 300 - 500 \times 0.01 = 295 \text{ V}$$

P.D. at load point D,  $V_D = V_C - I_{CD} R_{CD}$

$$= 295 - 400 \times 0.01 = 291 \text{ V}$$

P.D. at load point E,  $V_E = V_D - I_{DE} R_{DE}$

$$= 291 - 250 \times 0.012 = 288 \text{ V}$$

P.D. at load point B,  $V_B = V_E - I_{EB} R_{EB}$

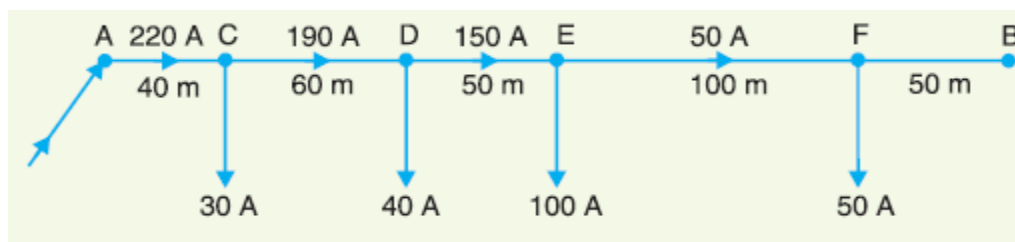
$$= 288 - 50 \times 0.008 = 287.6 \text{ V}$$

2. 2-wired.c.distributor AB is 300 metres long. It is fed at point A. The various loads and their positions are given below:

At point	distance from A in metres	concentrated load in amperes
C	40	30
D	100	40
E	150	100
F	250	50

If the maximum permissible voltage drop is not to exceed 10V, find the cross-sectional area of the distributor. Take  $\rho = 1.78 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \text{m}$ .

The single line diagram of the distributor along with its tapped currents is shown in below fig.



Suppose that resistance of 100m length of the distributor is  $r \Omega$ . Then resistance of various sections of the distributor is

$$R_{AC} = 0.4r \Omega, R_{CD} = 0.6r \Omega, R_{DE} = 0.5r \Omega, R_{EF} = r \Omega$$

$$I_{AC}=220\text{A}, I_{CD}=190\text{A}, I_{DE}=150\text{A}, I_{EF}=50\text{A}$$

Total voltage drop over the distributor

$$\begin{aligned} &= I_{AC}R_{AC} + I_{CD}R_{CD} + I_{DE}R_{DE} + I_{EF}R_{EF} \\ &= 220 \times 0.4r + 190 \times 0.6r + 150 \times 0.5r + 50 \times r \\ &= 327r \end{aligned}$$

As the maximum permissible drop in the distributor is 10V,

$$\therefore 10 = 327r$$

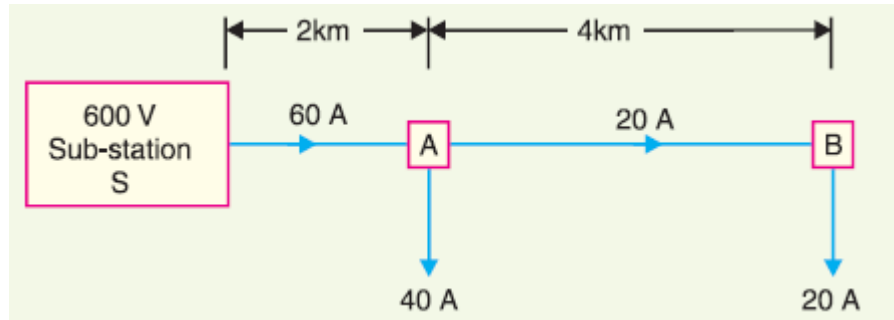
$$= 10/327$$

$$= 0.03058\Omega$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{X-sectional area of conductor} &= \frac{\rho l}{r/2} = \frac{1.78 \times 10^{-8} \times 100}{0.03058/2} = 116.4 \times 10^{-6} \text{m}^2 = 1.164 \text{cm}^2 \end{aligned}$$

3. Two tramcars (A & B) 2 km and 6 km away from a sub-station return 40 A and 20 A respectively to the rails. The sub-station voltage is 600 V d.c. The resistance of trolley wire is  $0.25 \Omega/\text{km}$  and that of track is  $0.03 \Omega/\text{km}$ . Calculate the voltage across each tramcar.

The tramcar operates on d.c. supply. The positive wire is placed overhead while the rail track acts as the negative wire. Fig. 13.8 shows the single line diagram of the arrangement.



$$\text{Resistance of trolley wire and track/km} = 0.25 + 0.03 = 0.28 \Omega$$

$$\text{Current in section SA} = 40 + 20 = 60 \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Current in section AB} = 20 \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Voltage drop in section SA} = 60 \times 0.28 \times 2 = 33.6 \text{ V}$$

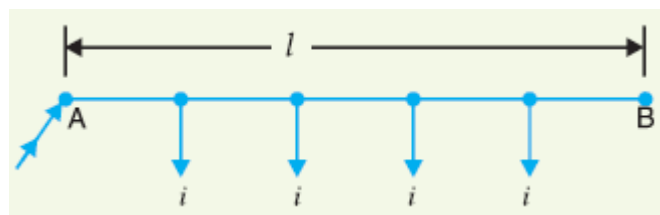
$$\text{Voltage drop in section AB} = 20 \times 0.28 \times 4 = 22.4 \text{ V}$$

$$\therefore \text{Voltage across tram A} = 600 - 33.6 = 566.4 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{Voltage across tram B} = 566.4 - 22.4 = 544 \text{ V}$$

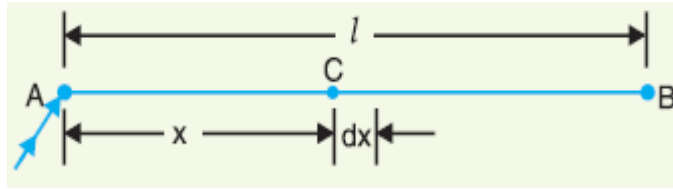
### UNIFORMLY LOADED DISTRIBUTOR:

The below fig shows the single line diagram of a 2-wire d.c. distributor AB fed at one end A and loaded uniformly with  $i$  amperes per metre length. It means that at every 1 m length of the distributor, the load tapped is  $i$  amperes. Let  $l$  metres be the length of the distributor and  $r$  ohm be the resistance per metre run.



Consider a point C on the distributor at a distance  $x$  metres from the feeding point A as shown in the below fig.

$$\text{Then current at point C is } i(l-x) \text{ amperes} = i(l-x) \text{ amperes}$$



Now, consider a small length  $dx$  near point C. Its resistance is  $r dx$  and the voltage drop over length  $dx$  is

$$dv = i(l-x)r \quad dx = ir(l-x)dx$$

Total voltage drop in the distributor up to point C is

$$V = \int_0^x ir(l-x)dx$$

$$= ir \left( lx - \frac{x^2}{2} \right)$$

The voltage drop up to point B (i.e. over the whole distributor) can be obtained by putting  $x=l$  in the above expression.

$$\therefore \text{Voltage drop over the distributor } AB = ir \left( l \times l - \frac{l^2}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} i r l^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (il)(rl)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} IR$$

Where,

$il = I$ , the total current entering at point A

$rl = R$ , the total resistance of the distributor

Thus, in a uniformly loaded distributor fed at one end, the total voltage drop is equal to that produced by the whole of the load assumed to be concentrated at the middle point.

### **PROBLEMS:**

1. A 2-wire d.c. distributor 200 metres long is uniformly loaded with 2 A/metre. Resistance of single wire is  $0.3 \Omega/\text{km}$ . If the distributor is fed at one end, calculate (i) the voltage drop up to a distance of 150 m from the feeding point (ii) the maximum voltage drop.

Current loading,  $i = 2 \text{ A/m}$

Resistance of distributor per metre run,

$$r = 2 \times 0.3/1000 = 0.0006 \Omega$$

Length of distributor,  $l = 200 \text{ m}$





$$(i) \text{ Voltage drop upto distance } x \text{ metres from feeding point} = i \left( lx - \frac{x^2}{2} \right)$$

Here,  $x = 150 \text{ m}$

$$\therefore \text{Desired voltage drop} = 2 \times 0.0006 \left( 200 \times 150 - \frac{150^2}{2} \right) = 22.5 \text{ V}$$

(ii) Total current entering the distributor,

$$I = i \times l = 2 \times 200 = 400 \text{ A}$$

Total resistance of the distributor,

$$R = r \times l = 0.0006 \times 200 = 0.12 \Omega$$

$$\text{Total drop over the distributor} = \frac{1}{2} IR$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 400 \times 0.12 = 24 \text{ V}$$

2. A uniform 2-wired.c. distributor 500 metres long is loaded with 0.4 ampere/ metre and is fed at one end. If the maximum permissible voltage drop is not to exceed 10 V, find the cross-sectional area of the distributor conductor. Take  $\rho = 1.7 \times 10^{-6} \Omega \text{ cm}$ .

Current entering the distributor,  $I = i \times l = 0.4 \times 500 = 200 \text{ A Max.}$

permissible voltage drop = 10 V

Let  $r$  be the resistance per metre length of the distributor (both wires).

$$\text{Max. voltage drop} = \frac{1}{2} IR$$

$$10 = \frac{1}{2} I r l$$

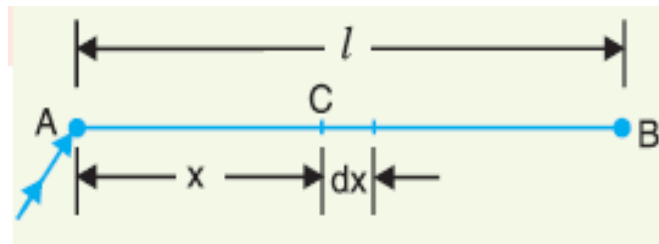
$$r = \frac{20}{l} = \frac{20}{200 \times 500} = 0.2 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$$

$\therefore$  Area of cross-section of the distributor conductor is  $= \rho l$

$$= \frac{1.7 \times 10^{-6} \times 500}{0.2 \times 10^{-3} / 2} = 8.5 \text{ cm}^2$$

### Power loss in a uniformly loaded distributor fed at one end:

The below fig. shows the single line diagram of a 2-wired.c.distributor AB fed at end A and loaded uniformly with  $i$  amperes per metre length.



Let,

$l$  = length of the distributor in metres and

$r$  = resistance of distributor (both conductors) per metre run.

Consider a small length  $dx$  of the distributor at point C at distance  $x$  from the feeding end A. The small length  $dx$  will carry current which is tapped in the length CB.

$$\therefore \text{Current in } dx = il - ix = i(l-x)$$

$$\text{Power loss in length } dx = (\text{current in length } dx)^2 \times \text{Resistance of length } dx = [i(l-x)]^2 \times r dx$$

Total power loss  $P$  in the whole distributor is

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \int_0^l [i(l-x)]^2 r dx \\ &= i^2 r \int_0^l (l^2 - 2lx + x^2) dx \\ &= i^2 r \left[ l^2 x - lx^2 + \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^l \\ &= i^2 r \left[ l^3 - \frac{l^3}{2} + \frac{l^3}{3} \right] \\ &= i^2 r \left[ l^3 - \frac{l^3}{6} \right] \\ &= i^2 r \left[ \frac{5l^3}{6} \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$P = \frac{i^2 r l^3}{3}$$

Calculate the voltage at distance of 200m from a 300m long distributor uniformly loaded at the rate of 0.75 A per metre. The distributor is fed at one end at 250V. The resistance of the distributor (go and return) per metre is  $0.00018 \Omega$ . Also find the power loss in the distributor.

$$\text{Voltage drop at distance } x \text{ from supply end} = ir \left( \frac{x^2}{2} \right) \quad \text{---}$$

$$\text{Here } i = 0.75 \text{ A/m, } l = 300 \text{ m, } x = 200 \text{ m, } r = 0.00018 \Omega/\text{m}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Voltage drop} &= \frac{0.75 \times 0.00018 (300 \times 200 - 200^2)}{2} \\ &= 5.4 \text{ V} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Voltage at a distance of 200m from supply end} \\ &= 250 - 5.4 = 244.6 \text{ V} \end{aligned}$$

Total power loss  $P$  in the whole distributor is

$$\begin{aligned} P &= \frac{i^2 r l^3}{3} \\ &= \frac{0.75^2 \times 0.00018 \times 300^3}{3} = 911.25 \text{ W} \end{aligned}$$

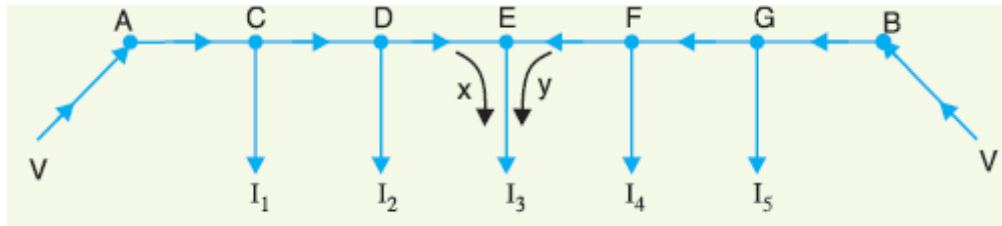
## **DISTRIBUTOR FED AT BOTH ENDS:**

### **CONCENTRATED LOADING:**

Whenever possible, it is desirable that a long distributor should be fed at both ends instead of at one end since total voltage drop can be considerably reduced without increasing the cross-section of the conductor. The two ends of the distributor may be supplied with (i) equal voltages (ii) unequal voltages.

**(ii) Two ends fed with equal voltages:**

Consider a distributor  $AB$  fed at both ends with equal voltages  $V$  volts and having concentrated loads  $I_1, I_2, I_3, I_4$  and  $I_5$  at points  $C, D, E, F$  and  $G$  respectively as shown in below fig. As we move away from one of the feeding points, say  $A$ , p.d. goes on decreasing till it reaches the minimum value at some load point, say  $E$ , and then again



starts rising and becomes  $V$  volts as we reach the other feeding point  $B$ .

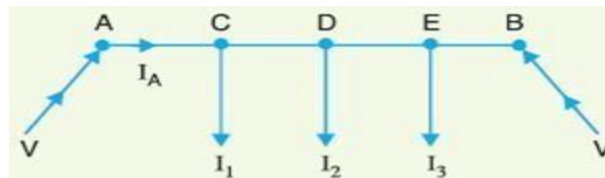
All the current tapped off between points  $A$  and  $E$  will be supplied from the feeding point  $A$  while those tapped off between  $B$  and  $E$  will be supplied from the feeding point  $B$ . The current tapped off at point  $E$  itself will be partly supplied from  $A$  and partly from  $B$ . If these currents are  $x$  and  $y$  respectively, then,  $I_3 = x + y$ . Therefore, we arrive at a very important conclusion that at the point of minimum potential, current comes from both ends of the distributor.

**Point of minimum potential:**

It is generally desired to locate the point of minimum potential. There is a simple method for it. Consider a distributor  $AB$  having three concentrated loads  $I_1, I_2$  and  $I_3$  at points  $C, D$  and  $E$  respectively. Suppose that current supplied by feeding end  $A$  is  $I_A$ . Then the current distribution in the various sections of the distributor can be worked out as shown in below fig. Thus

$$I_{AC} = I_A, I_{CD} = I_A - I_1$$

$$I_{DE} = I_A - I_1 - I_2; I_{EB} = I_A - I_1 - I_2 - I_3$$



Voltage drop between  $A$  and  $B$  = Voltage drop over  $AB$

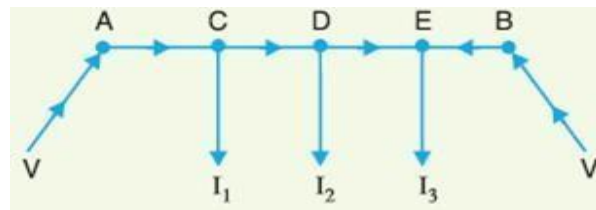
$$V - V = I_A R_{AC} + (I_A - I_1) R_{CD} + (I_A - I_1 - I_2) R_{DE} + (I_A - I_1 - I_2 - I_3) R_{EB}$$

From this equation, the unknown  $I_A$  can be calculated as the values of other quantities are generally given.

Suppose actual directions of currents in the various sections of the distributor are indicated as shown in below fig.

The load point where the currents are coming from both sides of the distributor is the point of minimum potential

*i.e.* point  $E$  in this case

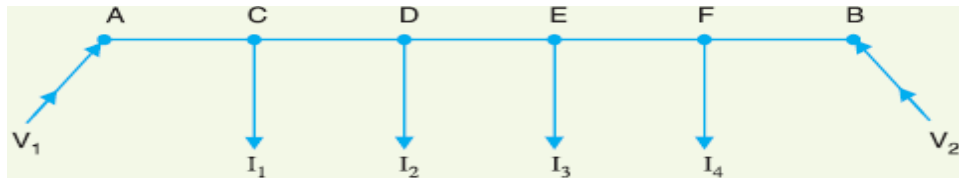


**(iv) Two ends fed with unequal voltages:**

The below fig. shows the distributor AB fed with unequal voltages; end A being fed at  $V_1$  volts and end B at  $V_2$  volts. The point of minimum potential can be found by following the same procedure as discussed above. Thus in this case,

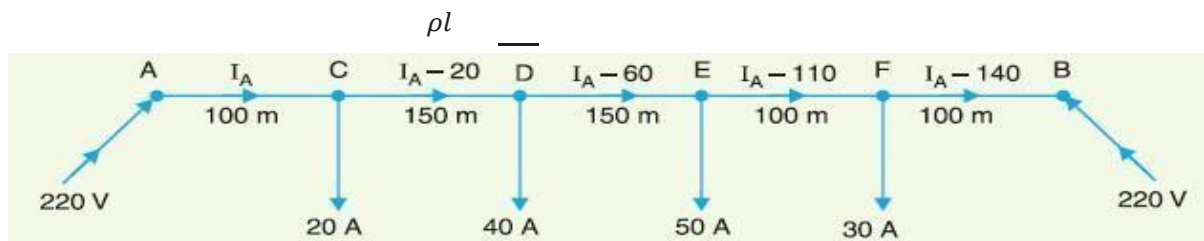
Voltage drop between A and B = Voltage drop over AB

$$V_1 - V_2 = \text{Voltage drop over AB}$$

**PROBLEMS:**

1. A 2-wired c. street mains AB, 600 m long is fed from both ends at 220 V. Loads of 20 A, 40 A, 50 A and 30 A are tapped at distances of 100 m, 250 m, 400 m and 500 m from the end A respectively. If the area of X-section of distributor conductor is  $1 \text{ cm}^2$ , find the minimum consumer voltage. Take  $\rho = 1.7 \times 10^{-6} \Omega \text{ cm}$ . The below fig shows the distributor with its tapped currents. Let  $I_A$  amperes be the current supplied from the feeding end

A. Then the currents in the various sections of the distributor are as shown in below fig.



Resistance of 1 m length of distributor

$a =$

$\frac{r}{2}$

$$r = \frac{2\rho l}{a} = \frac{2 \times 1.7 \times 10^{-6} \times 100}{1} = 3.4 \times 10^{-4}$$

Resistance of section AC,  $R_{AC} = (3.4 \times 10^{-4}) \times 100 = 0.034 \Omega$

Resistance of section CD,  $R_{CD} = (3.4 \times 10^{-4}) \times 150 = 0.051 \Omega$

Resistance of section DE,  $R_{DE} = (3.4 \times 10^{-4}) \times 150 = 0.051 \Omega$

Resistance of section EF,  $R_{EF} = (3.4 \times 10^{-4}) \times 100 = 0.034 \Omega$

Resistance of section FB,  $R_{FB} = (3.4 \times 10^{-4}) \times 100 = 0.034 \Omega$

Voltage at B = Voltage at A - Drop over length AB

$$V_B = V_A - [I_A R_{AC} + (I_A - 20) R_{CD} + (I_A - 60) R_{DE} + (I_A - 110) R_{EF} + (I_A - 140) R_{FB}]$$

$$220 = 220 - [0.034 I_A + 0.051 (I_A - 20) + 0.051 (I_A - 60) + 0.034 (I_A - 110) + 0.034 (I_A - 140)]$$

$$= 220 - [0.204 I_A - 12.58]$$

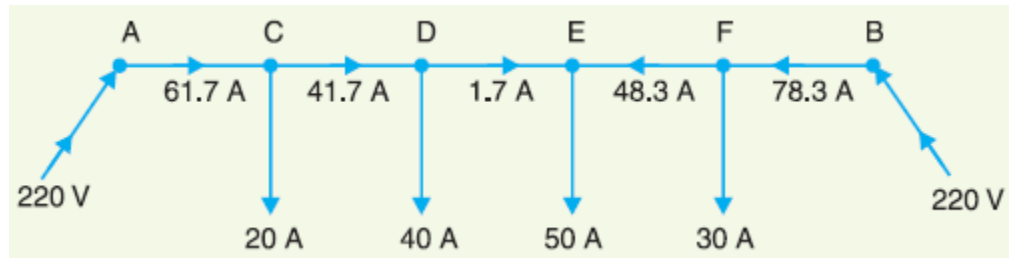
$$\therefore I_A = 12.58 / 0.204 = 61.7 \text{ A}$$



Knowing the value of  $I_A$ , current in any section can be determined. Thus,

Current in section  $CD$ ,  $I_{CD} = I_A - 20 = 61.7 - 20 = 41.7 \text{ A}$  from  $C$  to  $D$

Current in section  $EF$ ,  $I_{EF} = I_A - 110 = 61.7 - 110 = -48.3 \text{ A}$  from  $E$  to  $F$   
 $= 48.3 \text{ A}$  from  $F$  to  $E$



The actual distribution of currents in the various sections of the distributor is shown in the above fig. It is clear that currents are coming to load point  $E$  from both sides *i.e.* from point  $D$  and point  $F$ . Hence,  $E$  is the point of minimum potential.

$\therefore$  Minimum consumer voltage,

$$V_E = V_A - [I_{AC}R_{AC} + I_{CD}R_{CD} + I_{DE}R_{DE}]$$

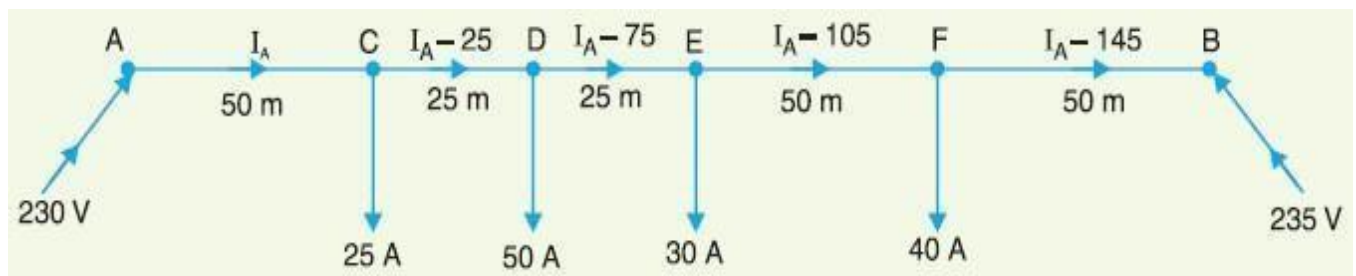
$$= 220 - [61.7 \times 0.034 + 41.7 \times 0.051 + 1.7 \times 0.051]$$

$$= 220 - 4.31 = 215.69 \text{ V}$$

2. A 2-wired c.distributor AB is fed from both ends. At feeding point A, the voltage is maintained as at 230 V and at B 235 V. The total length of the distributor is 200 metres and loads are tapped off as 25 A at 50 metres from A; 50 A at 75 metres from A; 30 A at 100 metres from A; 40 A at 150 metres from A. The resistance per kilometre of one conductor is  $0.3 \Omega$ . Calculate: (i) currents in various sections of the distributor (ii) minimum voltage and the point at which it occurs.

The below fig. shows the distributor with its tapped currents. Let  $I_A$  amperes be the current supplied from the feeding point

A. Then the currents in the various sections of the distributor are as shown in the below Fig.



Resistance of 1000 m length of distributor (both wires)  $= 2 \times 0.3 = 0.6 \Omega$  Resistance

of section  $AC$ ,  $R_{AC} = 0.6 \times 50 / 1000 = 0.03 \Omega$  Resistance of section  $CD$ ,

$R_{CD} = 0.6 \times 25 / 1000 = 0.015 \Omega$  Resistance

of section  $DE$ ,  $R_{DE} = 0.6 \times 25 / 1000 = 0.015 \Omega$  Resistance of section

$$\times 50/1000 = 0.03 \Omega$$

$$\text{Voltage at } B = \text{Voltage at } A - \text{Drop over } AB$$

$$V_B = V_A - [I_A R_{AC} + (I_A - 25) R_{CD} + (I_A - 75) R_{DE} + (I_A - 105) R_{EF} + (I_A - 145) R_{FB}]$$

$$235 = 230 - [0.03 I_A + 0.015 (I_A - 25) + 0.015 (I_A - 75) + 0.03 (I_A - 105) + 0.03 (I_A - 145)]$$

$$235 = 230 - [0.12 I_A - 9]$$

$$0.12 I_A = 230 + 9 - 235$$

$$I_A = 4/0.12 = 33.34 \text{ A}$$

$$(i) \text{ Current in section } AC, I_{AC} = I_A = 33.34 \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Current in section } CD, I_{CD} = I_A - 25 = 33.34 - 25 = 8.34 \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Current in section } DE, I_{DE} = I_A - 75 = 33.34 - 75 = -41.66 \text{ A from D to E}$$

$$= 41.66 \text{ A from E to D}$$

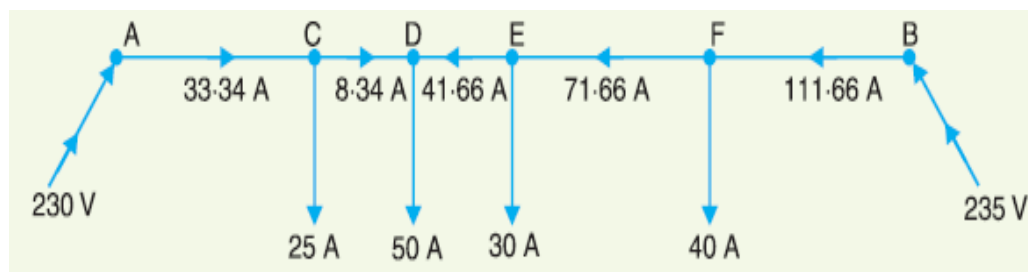
$$\text{section } EF, I_{EF} = I_A - 105 = 33.34 - 105 = -71.66 \text{ A from E to F}$$

$$= 71.66 \text{ A from F to E}$$

$$\text{Current in section } FB, I_{FB} = I_A - 145 = 33.34 - 145 = -111.66 \text{ A from F to B}$$

$$= 111.66 \text{ A from B to F}$$

The actual distribution of currents in the various sections of the distributor is shown in below fig. The currents are coming to load point D from both sides of the distributor. Therefore, load point D is the point of minimum potential.



$$\text{Voltage at } D, V_D = V_A - [I_{AC} R_{AC} + I_{CD} R_{CD}]$$

$$= 230 - [33.34 \times 0.03 + 8.34 \times 0.015]$$

$$= 230 - 1.125 = 228.875 \text{ V}$$

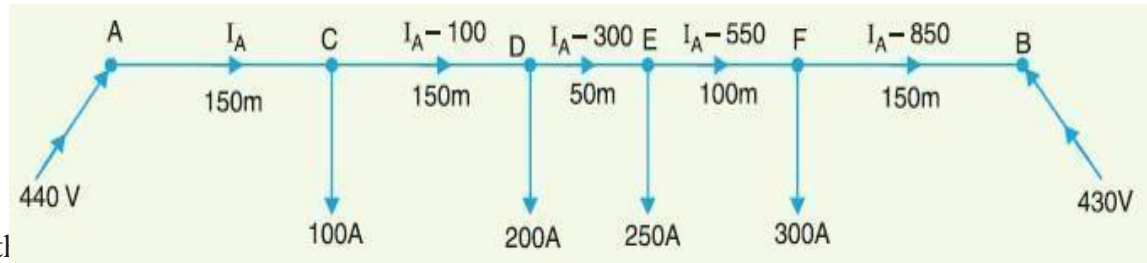
3. A two-wire d.c. distributor AB, 600 metres long is loaded as under,

Distance from A (metres):	150	300	350	450
Loads in Amperes:	100	200	250	300

The feeding point A is maintained at 440 V and that of B at 430 V. If each conductor has a resistance of

0.01 Ω per 100 metres, calculate, (i) the current supplied from A to B, (ii) the power dissipated in the distributor.

The below fig. shows the distributor with its tapped currents. Let  $I_A$  amperes be the current supplied from the feeding point A. Then currents in the various sections of the distributor are as shown in below fig.



Resistance of 100 m length

of section AC,  $R_{AC} = 0.02 \times 150/100 = 0.03 \Omega$  Resistance of section CD,

$R_{CD} = 0.02 \times 150/100 = 0.03 \Omega$  Resistance of

section DE,  $R_{DE} = 0.02 \times 50/100 = 0.01 \Omega$  Resistance of section EF,

$R_{EF} = 0.02 \times 100/100 = 0.02 \Omega$  Resistance of section FB,  $R_{FB} = 0.02 \times 150/100 = 0.03 \Omega$

Voltage at B = Voltage at A — Drop over AB

$$V_B = V_A - [I_A R_{AC} + (I_A - 100) R_{CD} + (I_A - 300) R_{DE} + (I_A - 550) R_{EF} + (I_A - 850) R_{FB}]$$

$$430 = 440 - [0.03 I_A + 0.03 (I_A - 100) + 0.01 (I_A - 300) + 0.02 (I_A - 550) + 0.03 (I_A - 850)]$$

$$430 = 440 - [0.12 I_A - 42.5]$$

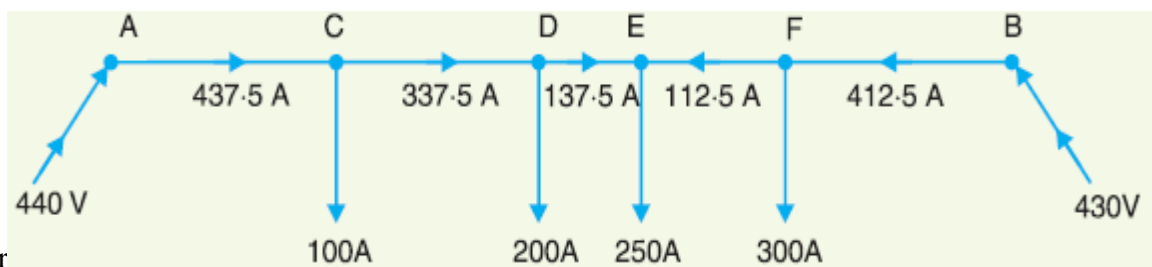
$$0.12 I_A = 440 + 42.5 - 430$$

$$= 52.5 / 0.12$$

$$I_A = 437.5 \text{ A}$$

The actual distribution of currents in the various sections of the distributor is shown in below fig.

Incidentally, E is the point of minimum potential.



i Curr

Currents supplied from end B,  $I_B = 412.5 \text{ A}$

$$\text{ii Power loss in the distributor} = I_{AC}^2 R_{AC} + I_{CD}^2 R_{CD} + I_{DE}^2 R_{DE} + I_{EF}^2 R_{EF} + I_{FB}^2 R_{FB}$$

$$= (437.5)^2 \times 0.03 + (337.5)^2 \times 0.03 + (137.5)^2 \times 0.01 + (112.5)^2 \times 0.02 + (412.5)^2 \times 0.03$$

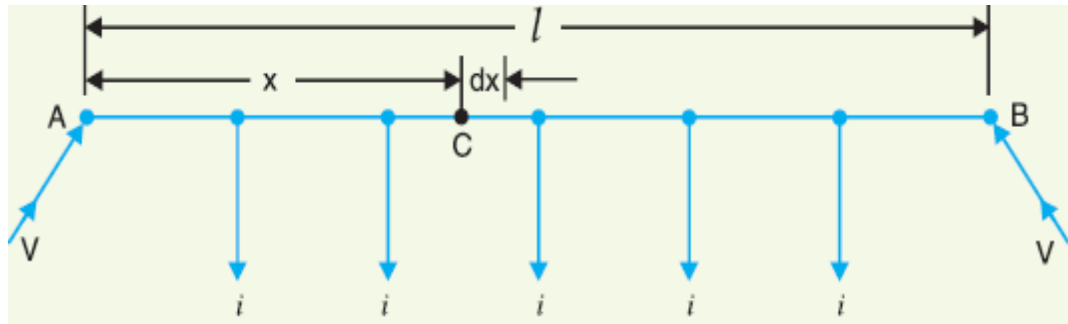
## UNIFORMLY LOADED DISTRIBUTOR:

We shall now determine the voltage drop in a uniformly loaded distributor fed at both ends. There can be two cases viz. the distributor fed at both ends with (i) equal voltages (ii) unequal voltages. The two cases shall be discussed separately.

### Distributor fed at both ends with equal voltages:

Consider a distributor AB of length  $l$  metres, having resistance  $r$  ohms per metre run and with uniform loading of  $i$  amperes per metre run as shown in below fig. Let the distributor be fed at the feeding points A and B at equal voltages, say  $V$  volts. The total current supplied to the distributor is  $il$ . As the two end voltages are equal, therefore, current supplied from each feeding point is  $il/2$ .

$$\text{Current supplied from each feeding point} = \frac{il}{2}$$



Consider a point C at distance  $x$  metres from the feeding point A. Then current at point C is

$$= \frac{il}{2} - ix = i\left(\frac{l}{2} - x\right)$$

Now, consider a small length  $dx$  near point C. Its resistance is  $r dx$  and the voltage drop over length  $dx$  is

$$dV = i\left(\frac{l}{2} - x\right) r dx$$

$$= ir\left(\frac{l}{2} - x\right) dx$$

2

∴ Voltage drop upto point C  $\int$

$$dV = \int_0^x ir\left(\frac{l}{2} - x\right) dx$$

$$V = ir\left(\frac{lx}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2}\right)$$

$$V = \frac{ir}{2}(lx - x^2)$$

Obviously, the point of minimum potential will be the mid-point. Therefore, maximum voltage drop will occur at mid-point i.e. where  $x = l/2$ .

$$\text{Max. Voltage drop} = \frac{ir}{2}(lx - x^2)$$

$$= i(l \times \frac{l^2}{2})$$

$$= \frac{2}{8} \times \frac{2}{8} \times \frac{4}{8}$$

$$= \frac{ir l^2 (il)(rl)IR}{8} = \frac{ir l^2 (il)(rl)IR}{8}$$

Where

$il = I$ , the total current fed to the distributor from both ends

$rl = R$ , the total resistance of the distributor

Minimum voltage =  $V - \frac{IR}{8}$  volts

### **Distributor fed at both ends with unequal voltages:**

Consider a distributor  $AB$  of length  $l$  metres having resistance  $r$  ohms per metre run and with a uniform loading of  $i$  amperes per metre run as shown in below fig. Let the distributor be fed from feeding points  $A$  and  $B$  at voltages  $V_A$  and  $V_B$  respectively. Suppose that the point of minimum potential  $C$  is situated at a distance  $x$  metres from the feeding point  $A$ . Then current supplied by the feeding point  $A$  will be  $i x$ .

Resistance of section  $AC$  is  $= rx$

$$\text{Voltage drop in section } AC = \frac{(ix)(rx)}{2} = \frac{irx^2}{2} \text{ volts}$$

As the distance of  $C$  from feeding point  $B$  is  $(l-x)$ , therefore, current fed from  $B$  is  $i(l-x)$ .

Resistance of section  $CB$  is  $= r(l-x)$

$$\text{Voltage drop in section } BC = \frac{[i(l-x)][r(l-x)]}{2} = \frac{ir(l-x)^2}{2} \text{ volts}$$

Voltage at point  $C$ ,  $V_C = V_A - \text{Drop over } AC$

$$= V_A - \frac{irx^2}{2}$$

Also, voltage at point  $C$ ,  $V_C = V_B - \text{Drop over } BC$

$$= V_B - \frac{ir(l-x)^2}{2}$$

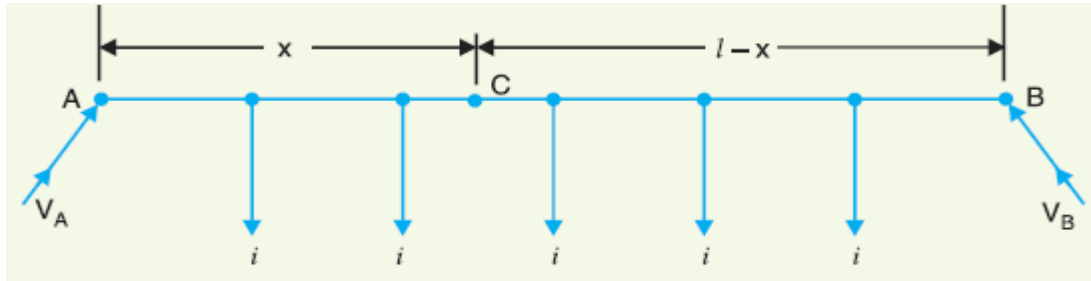
From equations (i) and (ii), we get,

$$V_A - irx = V_B - ir(l-x)$$

Solving the equation for  $x$ , we get,

$$x = \frac{V_A - V_B}{ir} + \frac{l}{2}$$

As all the quantities on the right hand side of the equation are known, therefore, the point on the distributor where minimum potential occurs can be calculated.



1. A two-wire d.c. distributor cable 1000 metres long is loaded with 0.5 A/metre. Resistance of each conductor is  $0.05 \Omega/\text{km}$ . Calculate the maximum voltage drop if the distributor is fed from both ends with equal voltages of 220 V. What is the minimum voltage and where it occurs?

Current loading,  $i = 0.5 \text{ A/m}$

Resistance of distributor/m,  $r = 2 \times 0.05 / 1000 = 0.1 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$

Length of distributor,  $l = 1000 \text{ m}$

Total current supplied by distributor,  $I = il = 0.5 \times 1000 = 500 \text{ A}$

Total resistance of the distributor,  $R = rl = 0.1 \times 10^{-3} \times 1000 = 0.1 \Omega$

$$\text{Max. Voltage drop} = IR = \frac{500 \times 0.1}{2} = 6.25 \text{ V}$$

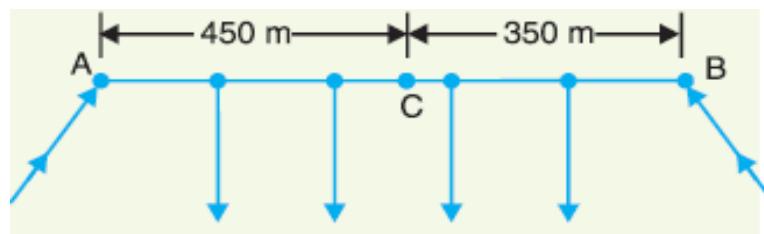
8 8

Minimum voltage will occur at the mid-point of the distributor and its value is

$$= 220 - 6.25 = 213.75 \text{ V}$$

2. A 800 metres 2-wired.c.distributor AB fed from both ends is uniformly loaded at the rate of  $1.25 \text{ A/metre}$  run. Calculate the voltage at the feeding points A and B if the minimum potential of  $220 \text{ V}$  occurs at point C at a distance of  $450 \text{ metres}$  from the end A. Resistance of each conductor is  $0.05 \Omega/\text{km}$ .

The below fig. shows the single line diagram of the distributor.



Current loading,  $i = 1.25 \text{ A/m}$

Resistance of distributor/m,  $r = 2 \times 0.05 / 1000 = 0.0001 \Omega$

Voltage at C,  $V_C = 220 \text{ V}$

Length of distributor,  $l = 800 \text{ m}$

Distance of point C from A,  $x = 450 \text{ m}$

$$\text{Voltage drop in section AC} = \frac{irx^2}{2} = \frac{1.25 \times 0.0001 \times 450^2}{2} = 12.65 \text{ V}$$

$$\therefore \text{Voltage at feeding point A, } V_A = 220 + 12.65 = 232.65 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{Voltage drop in section BC} = \frac{ir(l-x)^2}{2}$$

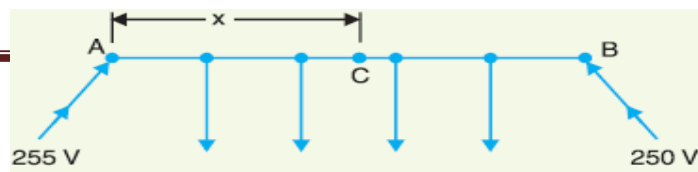
$$= \frac{1.25 \times 0.0001 \times (800 - 450)^2}{2} = 7.65 \text{ V}$$

$$\therefore \text{Voltage at feeding point B, } V_B = 220 + 7.65 = 227.65 \text{ V}$$

3. A 2-wired.c.distributor AB 500 metres long is fed from both ends and is loaded uniformly at the rate of  $1.0 \text{ A/metre}$ . At feeding point A, the voltage is maintained at  $255 \text{ V}$  and at B at  $250 \text{ V}$ . If the resistance of each conductor is  $0.1 \Omega$  per kilometre, determine: (i) the minimum voltage and the point where it occurs (ii) the current supplied from feeding points A and B

The below fig. shows the single line diagram of the distributor.





Voltage at feeding point A,  $V_A = 255 \text{ V}$

Voltage at feeding point B,  $V_B = 250 \text{ V}$

Length of distributor,  $l = 500 \text{ m}$

Current loading,  $i = 1 \text{ A/m}$

Resistance of distributor/m,  $r = 2 \times 0.1/1000 = 0.0002 \Omega$

(i) Let the minimum potential occur at point C distant  $x$  metres from the feeding point A.

$$x = \frac{V_A - V_B + \frac{ir^2 l}{2}}{2r}$$

$$x = 50 + 250 = 300 \text{ m}$$

*i.e.* minimum potential occurs at 300 m from point A.

$$\text{Minimum voltage, } V_C = V_A - \frac{irx^2}{2}$$

$$= 255 - \frac{1 \times 0.0002 \times 300^2}{2}$$

$$= 255 - 9 = 246 \text{ V}$$

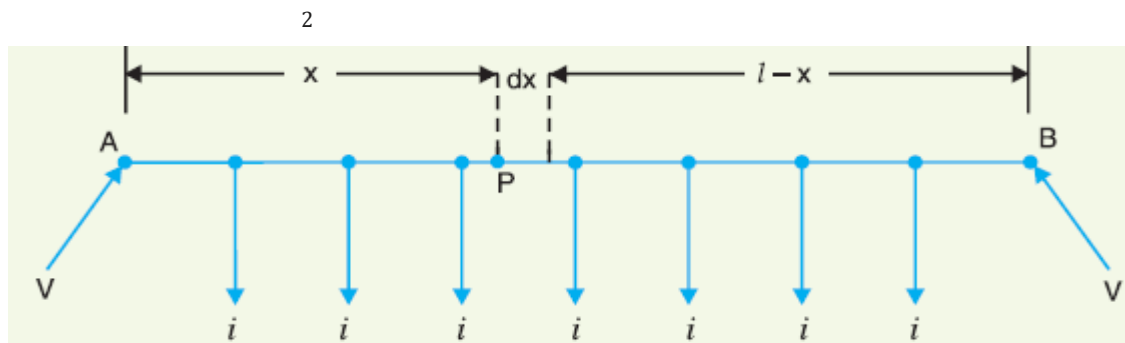
$$(ii) \text{ Current supplied from A} = ix = 1 \times 300 = 300 \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Current supplied from B} = i(l-x) = 1(500-300) = 200 \text{ A}$$

### Power loss in a uniformly loaded distributor fed at both ends with equal voltages:

Consider a distributor AB of length  $l$  metres, having resistance  $r$  ohms per metre run with uniform loading of  $i$  amperes per metre run as shown in below fig. Let the distributor be fed at the feeding points A and B at equal voltages, say  $V$  volts. The total current supplied by the distributor is  $il$ . As the two end voltages are equal, therefore, current supplied from each feeding point is  $i/2$ .

$$\text{Current supplied from each feeding point} = \frac{il}{2}$$



Consider a small length  $dx$  of the distributor at point  $P$  which is at a distance  $x$  from the feeding end A.

$$\text{Resistance of length } dx = r dx$$

$$\text{Current in length } dx = \frac{il}{2} - ix = i(l-x)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Power loss in length } dx &= (\text{current in } dx)^2 \times \text{Resistance of } dx \\ &= [i(l-x)]^2 \times r dx \end{aligned}$$

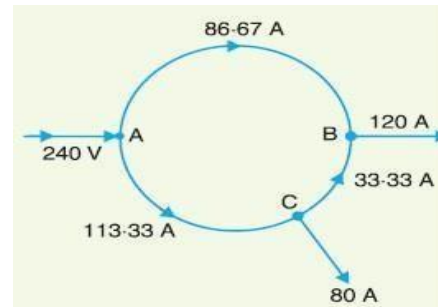
$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Total power loss in the distributor is } P &= \int_0^l i^2 r [i(l-x)]^2 dx \\
 &= i^2 r \int_0^l (l^2 - 2lx + x^2) dx \\
 &= i^2 r \left[ l^2 x - lx^2 + \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^l \\
 &= i^2 r \left[ l^3 - \frac{l^3}{2} + \frac{l^3}{3} \right] \\
 &= i^2 r l^3 \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \right] \\
 &= i^2 r l^3 \left[ \frac{2}{3} \right] \\
 P &= \frac{i^2 r l^3}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

**RING MAIN DISTRIBUTION**

**OR:**

A distributor arranged to form a closed loop and fed at one or more points is called a ring distributor. Such a distributor starts from one point, makes a loop through the area to be served, and returns to the original point. For the purpose of calculating voltage distribution, the distributor can be considered as consisting of a series of open distributors fed at both ends.

The principal advantage of a ring distributor is that by proper choice in the number of feeding points, great economy in copper can be effected. The simplest case of a ring distributor is the one having only one feeding point as shown in below fig. Here A is the feeding point and tapings are taken from points B and C. For the purpose of calculations, it is equivalent to a straight distributor fed at both ends with the equal voltages.



### **PROBLEMS:**

1. A 2-wired c. ring distributor is 300 m long and is fed at 240 V at point A. At point B, 150 m from A, a load of 120 A is taken and at C, 100 m in the opposite direction, a load of 80 A is taken. If the resistance per 100 m of single conductor is  $0.03 \Omega$ , find: (i) current in each section of distributor (ii) voltage at points B and C

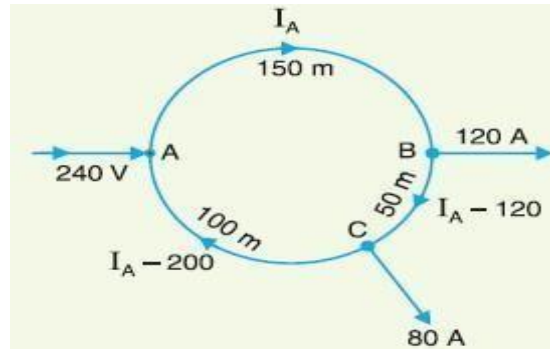
$$\text{Resistance per 100 m of distributor} = 2 \times 0.03 = 0.06 \Omega$$

$$\text{Resistance of section } AB, R_{AB} = 0.06 \times 150/100 = 0.09 \Omega$$

$$\text{Resistance of section } BC, R_{BC} = 0.06 \times 50/100 = 0.03 \Omega$$

Resistance of section CA,  $R_{CA} = 0.06 \times 100/100 = 0.06 \Omega$

- (i) Let us suppose that a current  $I_A$  flows in section AB of the distributor. Then currents in sections BC and CA will be  $(I_A - 120)$  and  $(I_A - 200)$  respectively as shown in below Fig.



According to Kirchhoff's voltage law, the voltage drop in the closed loop ABCA is zero i.e.

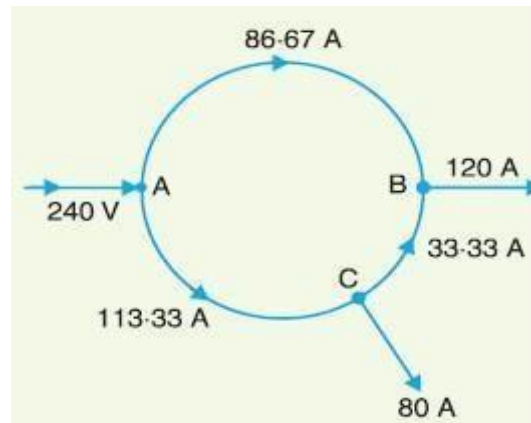
$$I_{AB}R_{AB} + I_{BC}R_{BC} + I_{CA}R_{CA} = 0$$

$$0.09I_A + 0.03(I_A - 120) + 0.06(I_A - 200) = 0$$

$$0.18I_A = 15.6$$

$$\therefore I_A = 15.6/0.18 = 86.67 \text{ A}$$

The actual distribution of currents is as shown in below Fig. from where it is seen that B is the point of minimum potential.



Current in section AB,  $I_{AB} = I_A = 86.67 \text{ A}$  from A to B

Current in section BC,  $I_{BC} = I_A - 120 = 86.67 - 120 = -33.33 \text{ A}$   
 $= 33.33 \text{ A}$  from C to B

Current in section CA,  $I_{CA} = I_A - 200 = 86.67 - 200 = -113.33 \text{ A}$   
 $= 113.33 \text{ A}$  from A to C

- (ii) Voltage at point B,  $V_B = V_A - I_{AB}R_{AB} = 240 - 86.67 \times 0.09 = 232.2 \text{ V}$

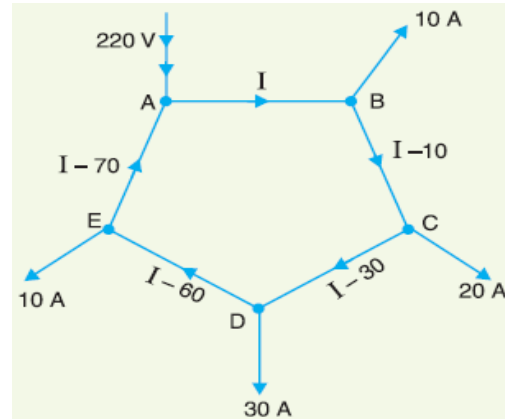
Voltage at point C,  $V_C = V_B + I_{BC}R_{BC}$

$$= 232.2 + 33.33 \times 0.03 = 233.2 \text{ V}$$

under: 10 A at B; 20 A at C; 30 A at D and 10 A at E. The resistances of various sections (go and return) are:  $AB = 0.1 \Omega$ ;  $BC = 0.05 \Omega$ ;  $CD = 0.01 \Omega$ ;  $DE = 0.025 \Omega$  and  $EA = 0.075 \Omega$ . Determine, (i) the point of minimum potential (ii) current in each section of distributor

The below fig shows the main distributor. Let us suppose that current  $I$  flows in section AB of the distributor.

Then currents in the various sections of the distributor are as shown in below fig.



(i) According to Kirchhoff's voltage law, the voltage drop in the closed loop ABCDEA is zero i.e.

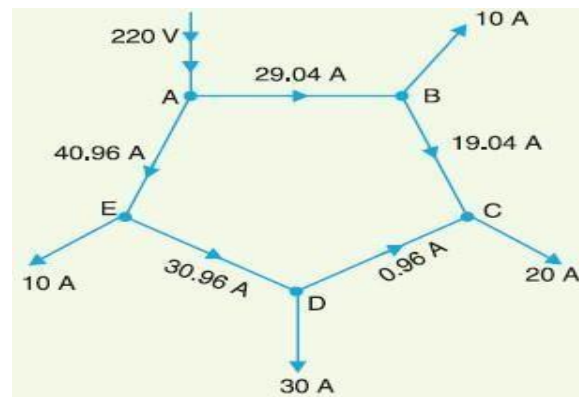
$$I_{AB}R_{AB} + I_{BC}R_{BC} + I_{CD}R_{CD} + I_{DE}R_{DE} + I_{EA}R_{EA} = 0$$

$$0.1I + 0.05(I-10) + 0.01(I-30) + 0.025(I-60) + 0.075(I-70) = 0$$

$$0.26I = 7.55$$

$$\therefore I = 7.55 / 0.26 = 29.04 \text{ A}$$

The actual distribution of currents is as shown in below fig. from where it is clear that C is the point of minimum potential.



$\therefore$  C is the point of minimum potential.

(ii) Current in section AB =  $I = 29.04 \text{ A}$  from A to B

Current in section BC =  $I - 10 = 29.04 - 10 = 19.04 \text{ A}$  from B to C

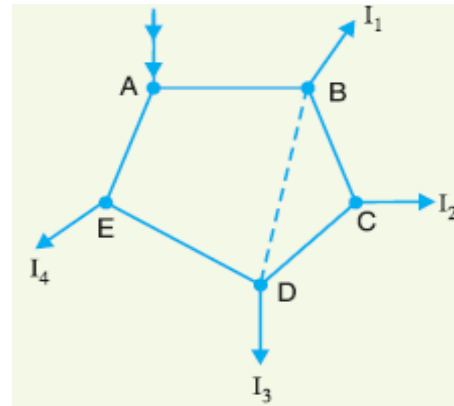
Current in section CD =  $I - 30 = 29.04 - 30 = -0.96 \text{ A} = 0.96 \text{ A}$  from D to C

Current in section DE =  $I - 60 = 29.04 - 60 = -30.96 \text{ A} = 30.96 \text{ A}$  from E to D

Current in section EA =  $I - 70 = 29.04 - 70 = -40.96 \text{ A} = 40.96 \text{ A}$  from A to E

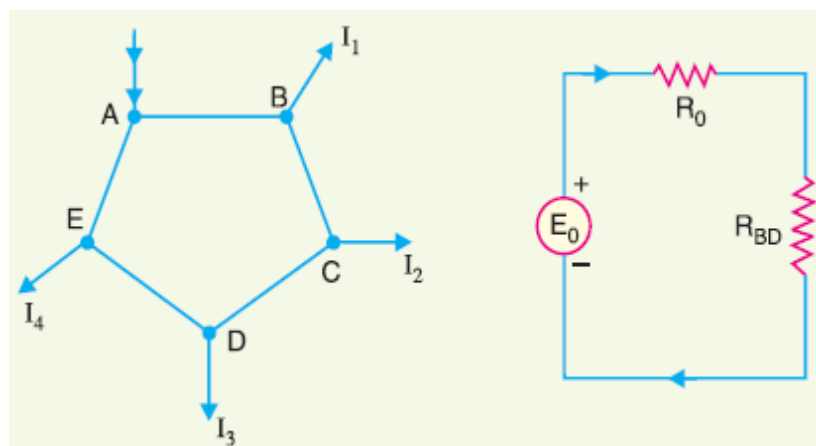
Sometimes a ring distributor has to serve a large area. In such a case, voltage drops in the various sections of the distributor may become excessive. In order to reduce voltage drops in various sections, distant points of the distributor are joined through a conductor called interconnector.

The below fig shows the ring distributor ABCDEA. The points B and D of the ring distributor are joined through an interconnector BD. There are several methods for solving such a network.



However, the solution of such a network can be readily obtained by applying Thevenin's theorem. The steps of procedure are

- (i) Consider the interconnector  $BD$  to be disconnected and find the potential difference between  $B$  and  $D$ . This gives Thevenin's equivalent circuit voltage  $E_0$ .
- (ii) Next, calculate the resistance viewed from points  $B$  and  $D$  of the network composed of distribution lines only. This gives Thevenin's equivalent circuit series resistance  $R_0$ .
- (iii) If  $R_{BD}$  is the resistance of the interconnector  $BD$ , then Thevenin's equivalent circuit will be as shown in below fig.



$$\therefore \text{Current in interconnector } BD = \frac{E_0}{R_0 + R_{BD}}$$

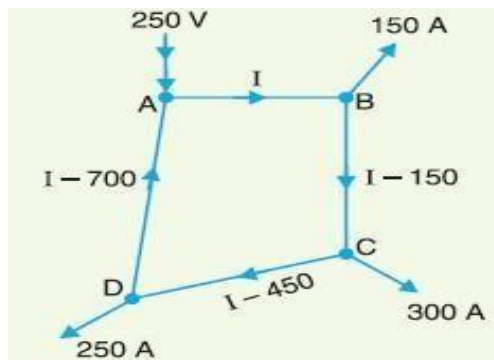
$$R_0 + R_{BD}$$

Therefore, current distribution in each section and the voltage of load points can be calculated.

1. A d.c. ring main ABCDA is fed from point A from a 250 V supply and the resistances (including both lead and return) of various sections are as follows:  $AB = 0.02 \Omega$ ;  $BC = 0.018 \Omega$ ;  $CD = 0.025 \Omega$  and  $DA = 0.02 \Omega$ . The main supplies loads of 150 A at B; 300 A at C and 250 A at D. Determine the voltage at each load point. If the points A and C are linked through an interconnector of resistance  $0.02 \Omega$ , determine the new voltage at each load point.

**Without Interconnector:**

The below fig. shows the ring distributor without interconnector. Let us suppose that a current  $I$  flows in section AB of the distributor. Then currents in various sections of the distributor will be as shown in below fig.



According to Kirchhoff's voltage law, the voltage drop in the closed loop ABCDA is zero, i.e.

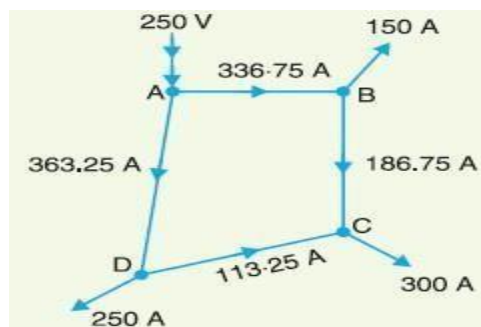
$$I_{AB}R_{AB} + I_{BC}R_{BC} + I_{CD}R_{CD} + I_{DA}R_{DA} = 0$$

$$0.02I + 0.018(I - 150) + 0.025(I - 450) + 0.02(I - 700) = 0$$

$$0.083I = 27.95$$

$$\therefore I = 27.95 / 0.083 = 336.75 \text{ A}$$

The actual distribution of currents is as shown in below fig.



$$\text{Voltage drop in } AB = I_{AB}R_{AB} = 336.75 \times 0.02 = 6.735 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{Voltage drop in } BC = I_{BC}R_{BC} = 186.75 \times 0.018 = 3.361 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{Voltage drop in } CD = I_{CD}R_{CD} = 113.25 \times 0.025 = 2.831 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{drop in } DA = I_{DA}R_{DA} = 363.25 \times 0.02 = 7.265 \text{ V}$$

$$\therefore \text{Voltage at point B} = \text{Voltage at point A} - \text{Voltage drop in AB} = 250 - 6.735 = 243.265 \text{ V}$$

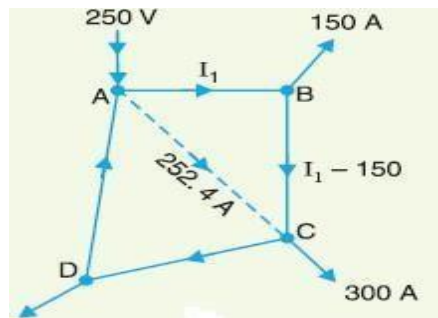
$$\text{Voltage at point C} = \text{Voltage at point B} - \text{Voltage drop in BC} = 243.265 - 3.361 = 239.904 \text{ V}$$



**POWER SYSTEMS**  $= \text{Voltage at point C} - \text{Voltage drop in CD} = 239.904 + 2.831 = 242.735 \text{V}$

---

The below fig. shows the ring distributor with interconnector AC. The current in the interconnector can be found by applying Thevenin's theorem.



$E_0$  = Voltage between points A and C

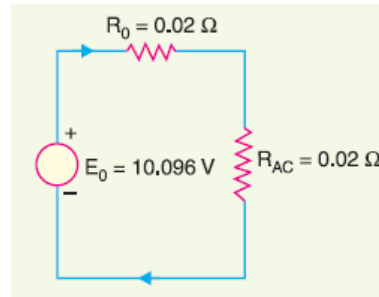
$$= 250 - 239.904 = 10.096 \text{ V}$$

$R_0$  = Resistance viewed from points A and C

$$\frac{(0.02 + 0.018)(0.02 + 0.025)}{(0.02 + 0.018) + (0.02 + 0.025)} = 0.02 \Omega$$

$$R_{AC} = \text{Resistance of interconnector} = 0.02 \Omega \text{ Thevenin's}$$

equivalent circuit is shown in below fig.



$$\therefore \text{Current in interconnector AC} = \frac{E_0}{R_0 + R_{AC}} = \frac{10.096}{0.02 + 0.02} = 252.4 \text{ A from A to C}$$

Let us suppose that current in section AB is  $I_1$ . Then current in section BC will be  $I_1 - 150$ . As the voltage drop around the closed mesh ABCA is zero,

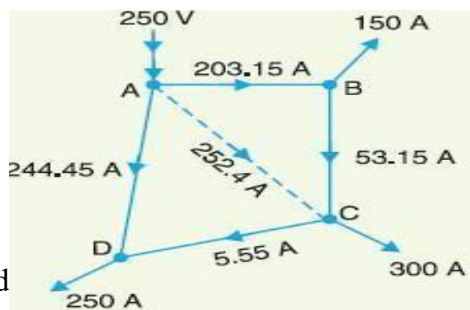
$$\therefore 0.02 I_1 + 0.018 (I_1 - 150) - 0.02 \times 252.4 = 0 \Rightarrow 0.038 I_1 = 7.748$$

$$\therefore I_1 = 7.748 / 0.038 = 203.15 \text{ A}$$

The actual distribution of currents in the ring distributor with interconnector will be as shown in below fig.

$$\text{Drop in AB} = I_{AB} R_{AB} = 203.15 \times 0.02 = 4.063 \text{ V} \quad \text{Drop in BC} = I_{BC} R_{BC} = 53.15 \times 0.018 = 0.960 \text{ V} \quad \text{Drop in AD} = I_{DA} R_{DA} = 244.45 \times 0.02 = 4.9 \text{ V}$$

$$\therefore \text{Potential of B} = \text{Voltage at point A} - \text{Voltage drop in AB} = 250 - 4.063 = 245.93 \text{ V}$$



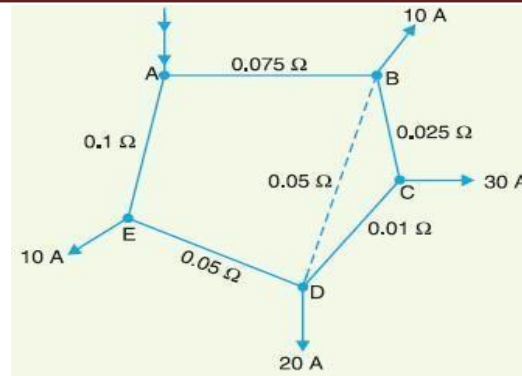
$$\text{Potential of C} = \text{Voltage at point B} - \text{Voltage drop in BC} = 245.93 - 0.960 = 244.97 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{Voltage at point C} - \text{Voltage drop in CD} = 244.97 - 4.9 = 240.07 \text{ V}$$

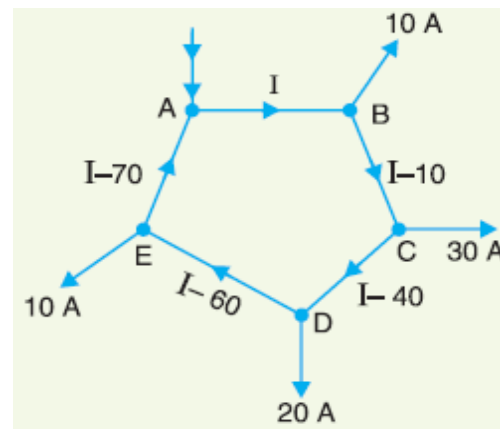
It may be seen that with the use of interconnector, the voltage drops in the various sections of the distributor are reduced.

2. The below fig. shows a ring distributor with interconnector BD. The supply is given at point A. The

resistances of go and return conductors of various sections are indicated in the figure. Calculate:



When interconnector BD is removed, let the current in branch AB be  $I$ . Then the current distribution will be as shown in the below fig

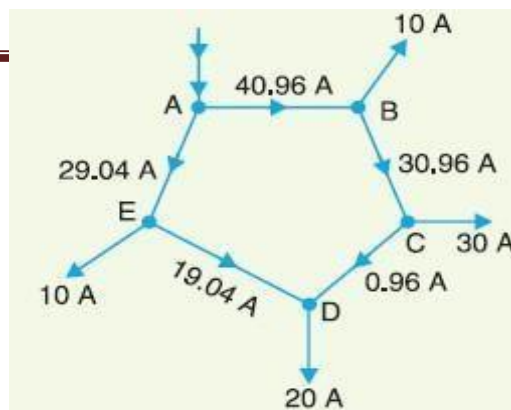


As the total drop around the ring ABCDEA is zero,

$$\therefore 0.075I + 0.025(I - 10) + 0.01(I - 40) + 0.05(I - 60) + 0.1(I - 70) = 0 \quad 0.26I = 10.65$$

$$I = 10.65 / 0.26 = 40.96 \text{ A}$$

The actual distribution of currents will be as shown in the below fig.



$$\begin{aligned}\text{Voltage drop along } BCD &= 30.96 \times 0.025 + 0.96 \times 0.01 \\ &= 0.774 + 0.0096 = 0.7836 \text{ V}\end{aligned}$$

This is equal to Thevenin's open-circuited voltage  $E_0$ , i.e.

$$E_0 = 0.7836 \text{ V}$$

$R_0$  = Resistance viewed from B and D

$$\frac{(0.075 + 0.1 + 0.05)(0.025 + 0.01)}{(0.075 + 0.1 + 0.05) + (0.025 + 0.01)} = \frac{(0.225)(0.035)}{(0.225) + (0.035)} = 0.03 \Omega$$

(i) Current in interconnector BD is

$$I_{BD} = \frac{E_0}{R_0 + R_{BD}}$$

$$= \frac{0.7836}{0.03 + 0.05} = 9.8 \text{ A}$$

$$0.03 + 0.05$$

(ii) Voltage drop along interconnector BD

