

SHRI RAMDEOBABA COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING AND MANAGEMENT, NAGPUR

BASIC CONCEPT AND LINE PARAMETER OF POWER SYSTEM



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BASIC CONCEPTS

What is an Electric Power System?

“An **electrical power system** is a network of electrical component deployed to **generate, transfer and use electric power.**”

OR

“An **electric power system** or electric grid is known as a **large network of power generating plants which connected to the consumer loads.**”

The main task of Power System:

➤ Generation of Electricity

- Conventional and Non-Conventional Energy sources

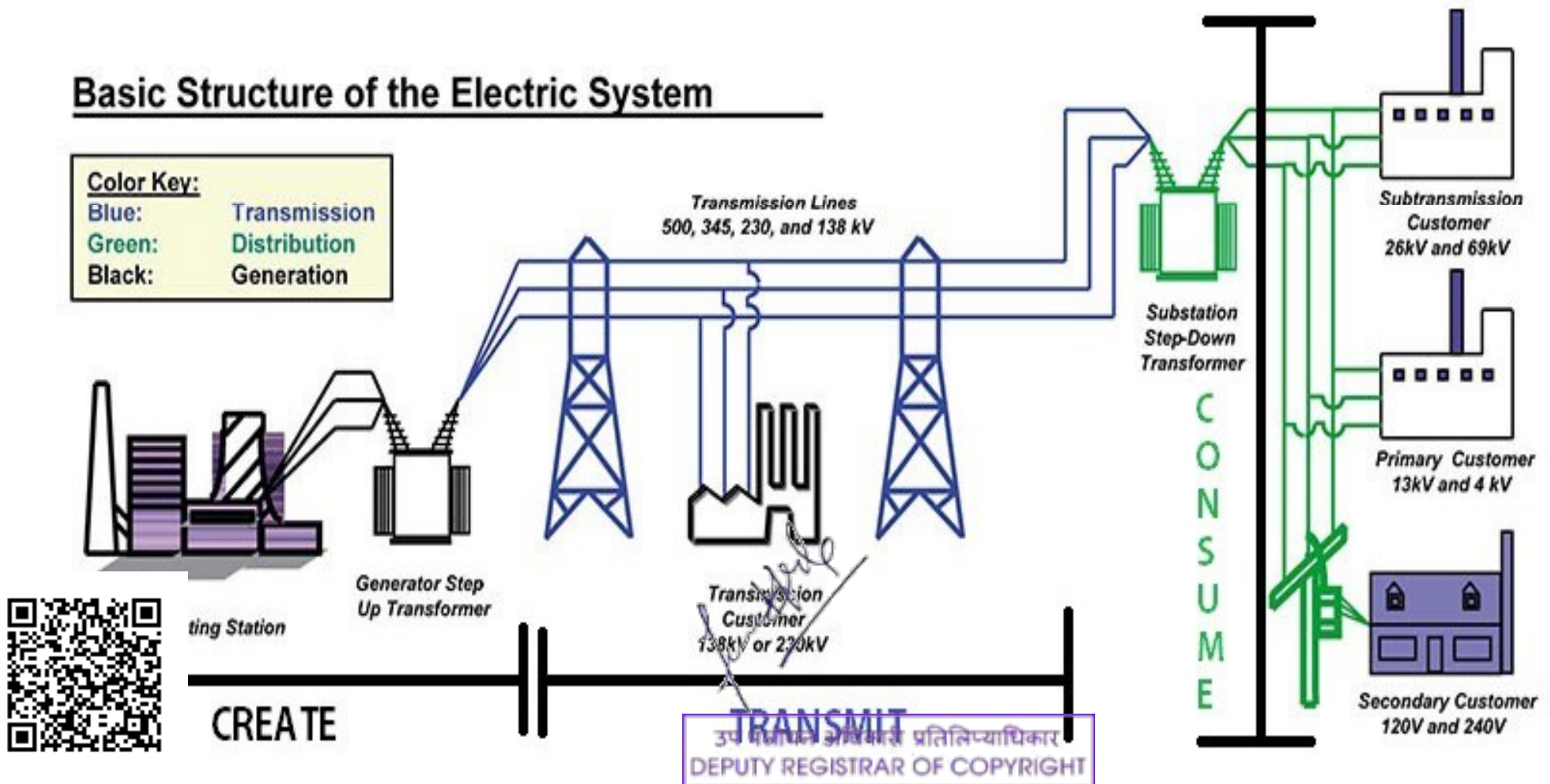
➤ Transmission of Electric Power

➤ Distribution of Transmitted Power.



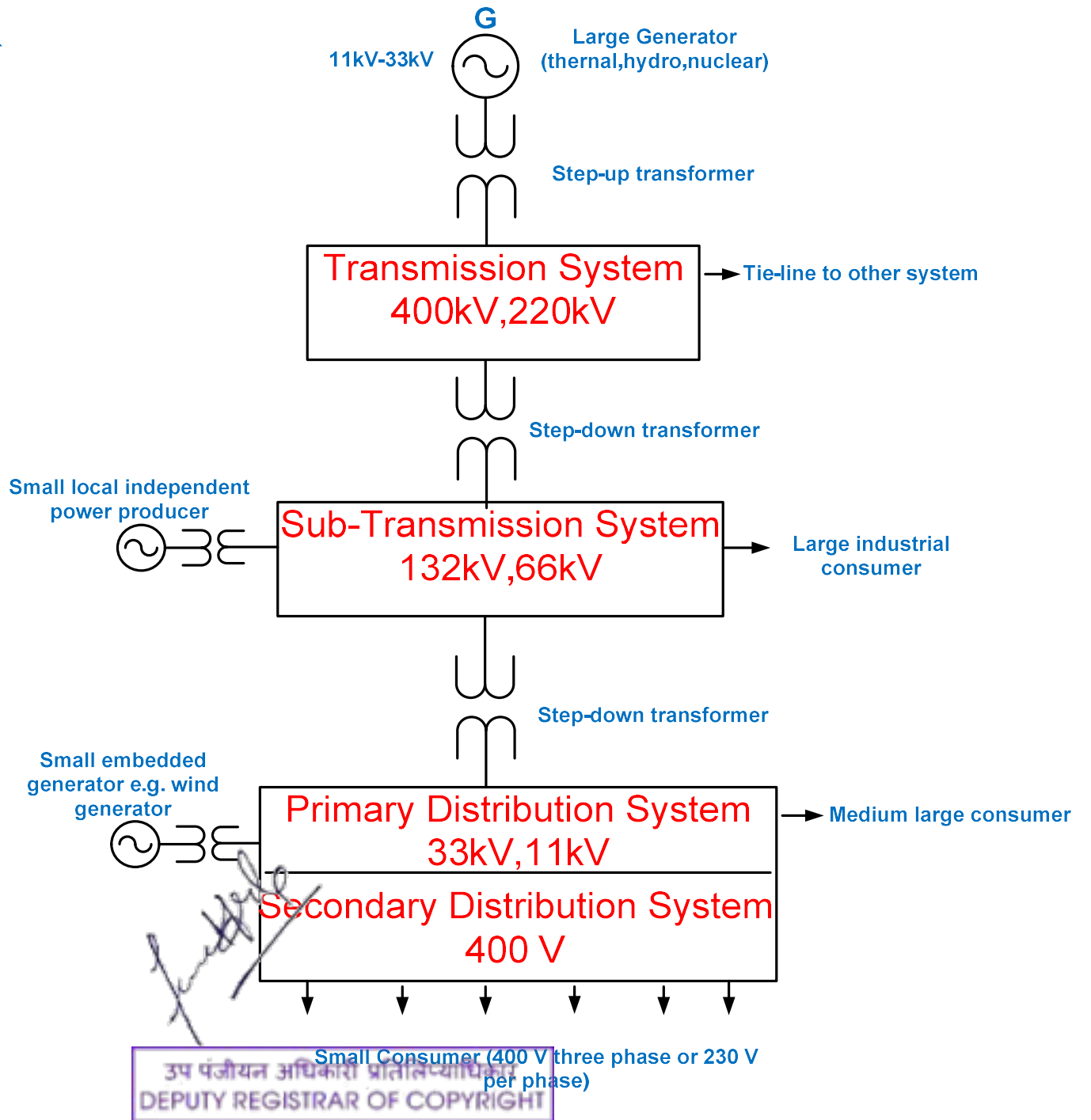
STRUCTURE OF POWER SYSTEM

- Generation, transmission and distribution system are the main components of Electric Power System.

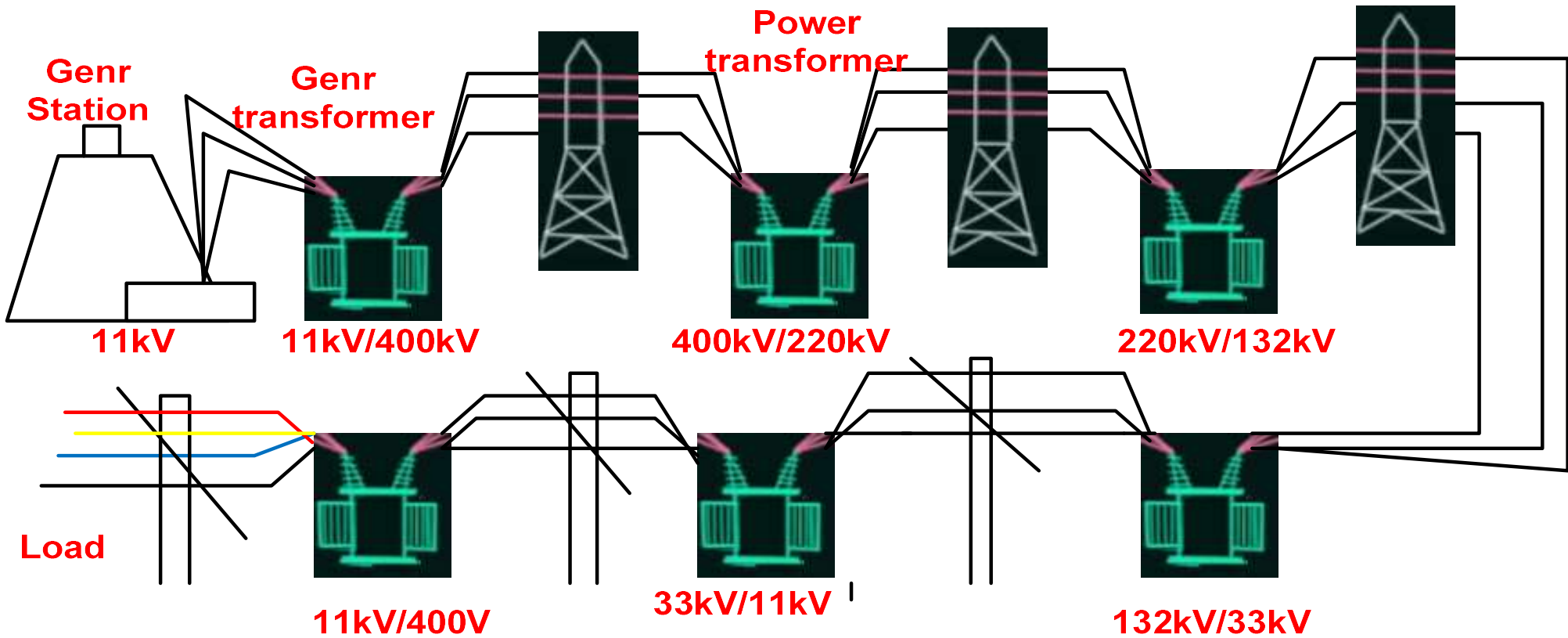


ANGLE LINE DIAGRAM POWER SUPPLY SYSTEM

ngle line diagram is a simplified
tion of power system in which
ponents are represented by their
ymbols and the interconnection between
n is shown by straight line”



WORKING OF AC POWER SYSTEM



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BRIEF DESCRIPTION

Generation or Generating station

The place where electric power produced by the parallel connected three phase alternators/generators is called **Generating Station** (i.e. power plant).

The maximum number of generators generate the power at voltage level around **11kV-33kV**. The increased voltage level leads to greater size of generator required and hence the cost involved.

The generator and the transformer are the main components of the generating station. The generator converts the mechanical energy into electrical energy.

The transformer transfers the power with very high efficiency from one level to another. But economically, it is good to step up the produced voltage to **132kV, 220kV or 400kV** or more by Step up transformer (power Transformer) which will reduce losses in the line and makes the transmission of power over long distances.

Generating stations employed mainly all over the world are as follows:

Thermal power plant

Hydel power plant(Hydro-electric)

Nuclear power plant

Diesel power plant

Gas power plant



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Transmission System

The electric supply (in **132kV, 220 kV, 400kV** or greater) is transmitted to load center by three phase three wire (3

Phase – 3 Wires also known as **Delta connection**) overhead transmission system.

It transports the energy from generating stations to bulk receiving stations.

It also interconnects the two or more generating stations. The neighbouring substations are also interconnected through the transmission lines.

Sub-Transmission System

The portion of the transmission system that connects the receiving substations through the step-down transformer to the distribution substations is called the sub-transmission system.

At receiving station, the **level of voltage reduced by step-down transformers** up to **132kV, 66 or 33 kV**, and

electricity is transferred by three phase three wire (**3 Phase – 3 Wires**) overhead system to different **sub stations**.

A sub-transmission system has a higher voltage level than a distribution system and it supplies only bigger loads.



Distribution System

component of an electrical power system connecting all the consumers in an area to the bulk power sources is called a distribution system.

Primary Distribution System

At a sub station, the level of **secondary transmission voltage (132kV, 66 or 33 kV)** reduced to **11kV** by **step down transformers**.

Electric supply is provided to those heavy load consumer (commercial power supply for industries) where the demands is 11 kV.

These substations deliver power to smaller units called '**Feeders**'. This is done by either '**Overhead lines**' or '**Underground cables**'.

Secondary Distribution System

Electric power is transferred by (from primary distribution line i.e.11kV) to distribution sub station is known as secondary distribution.

This sub station is located near by domestic & consumers areas where the level of **voltage reduced to 400V** by **step down transformers**.

These transformers called **Distribution transformers**, **three phase four wire system** (3 Phase – 4 Wires also known as **Star connection**). So there is **400 Volts** (Three Phase Supply System) **between any two phases** and **230 Volts** (Single Phase Supply) **between a neutral and phase (live) wires**.



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ELECTRIC SUPPLY SYSTEM

- The electric supply system can be broadly classified into:
 - AC and DC System
 - Overhead and Underground System
- Electric power can be transmitted in both AC and DC for short and long transmission and distribution systems.

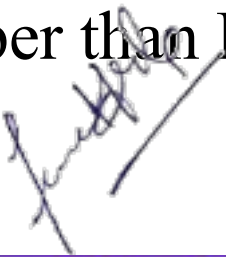
AC Transmission

Generation, transmission and distribution of electric power has mostly been carried out in AC.

Advantage:

1. The level of AC voltage may be increased or decreased by using step up and Step down transformers.
2. Maintenance of AC substation is easier and cheaper than DC substation.
3. AC Circuit breakers are cheaper than DC Circuit breakers.




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Disadvantages:

An AC line requires more copper than DC line

Due to skin effect, effective resistance of line is increased and hence the losses in AC system are more.

Due to the capacitance in AC transmission lines, a continuous power loss occurs because of charging current.

There are some additional line losses due to inductance.

More insulation are required in AC transmission system.

The corona losses occur in an AC transmission line system.

There are stability and synchronizing problems in AC System.

The cost of AC transmission lines is greater than DC Transmission lines.



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DC Transmission

The electric power transmission was done in DC due to the following advantages over AC :

Advantage:

Two conductors are used in DC transmission while three conductors are required in AC transmission.

Due to the absence of inductance, there are very low voltage drop in DC transmission lines and no surge problem.

There is no concept of Skin effect in DC transmission lines.

Less corona loss and no interference with communication lines.

There is no stability and synchronising difficulties.

DC system is more efficient than AC, therefore, the rate of price of Towers, Poles, Insulators, and conductor are low so the system is economical.

Disadvantages:

Electric power cannot be generated at high DC voltage due to commutation problem.

There is a limitation of DC switches and circuit breakers.

It cannot be step up for transmission.



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OVERHEAD AND UNDERGROUND TRANSMISSION

Point	Underground System	Overhead System
Public Safety	It is more safe	It is less safe
Initial Cost	It is more expensive	It is less expensive
Flexibility	It is not flexible	It is flexible
Working Voltage	It can work upto 66kV due to insulation problem	It can work upto 400 kV or higher voltage
Fault location and repair	Difficult to locate the fault and repair is difficult and expensive.	Fault can be easily located and can be easily repair
Damage due to lightning and surges	More chances of being subjected to lightning	Free from interruption
Interference with Communication system	No interference	It interfere with communication system
Frequency of accident	Less chances of accident	More chances of accident
Frequency of fault	Very rare chances of fault	Fault occurs frequently.
Appearance	It appears good as wires are not visible	It gives shabby look
Inductance	Less spacing between conductors, inductance is low therefore voltage drop is low	
Capacitance	Less spacing between conductors, more capacitance, therefore high charging current.	



ADVANTAGES OF HIGH VOLTAGE TRANSMISSION

Following are the advantages of high voltage transmission:

Reduces volume of conductor material:

Consider the transmission of electric power by a three-phase line.

Let P = power transmitted in watts, V = line voltage in volts, $\cos \Phi$ = power factor of the load, l = length of the line in metres, R = resistance per conductor in ohms, ρ = resistivity of conductor material, a = area of cross-section of conductor

$$\text{Load current } I = \frac{P}{\sqrt{3}V\cos\phi}, \quad \text{Resistance/conductor} = \frac{\rho l}{a}$$

$$\text{Total Power loss } W = 3I^2R = \frac{P^2\rho l}{v^2\cos^2\phi a}, \quad \text{Area of cross section } a = \frac{P^2\rho l}{Wv^2\cos^2\phi}$$

$$\text{Total volume of material required is } = 3al = 3\left(\frac{P^2\rho l}{Wv^2\cos^2\phi}\right)l$$

It is clear from above expression that for given values of P , l , ρ and W , the volume of conductor material required is directly proportional to the square of transmission voltage and power factor. In other words, for a given transmission voltage, the lesser is the conductor material required.



2. Increases transmission efficiency

Input Power = P + Total loss

$$P + \frac{P^2 \rho l}{V^2 \cos^2 \phi a}$$

Assuming J to be current density

$$a = l/J$$

$$\text{Input Power} = P + \frac{P^2 \rho l J}{V^2 \cos^2 \phi} \frac{1}{l} = P + \frac{P^2 \rho l J}{V^2 \cos^2 \phi} \frac{\sqrt{3} V \cos \phi}{P}$$

Transmission Efficiency = Output Power / Input Power

$$\left[1 - \frac{\sqrt{3} \rho l J}{V \cos \phi} \right] \text{Approx.}$$

As J, ρ and l are constants, therefore transmission efficiency increases
if line voltage is increased



3. Decreases percentage line drop

$$\text{Line Drop} = I \times R = I \times \frac{\rho l}{a} = I \times \frac{\rho l J}{V}$$

$$\% \text{ line drop} = \frac{\rho l J}{V} \times 100$$

As J , ρ and l are constants, therefore, percentage line drop decreases when the transmission voltage increases.

Hence it is advisable to use the highest possible voltage for transmission of power in a bid to save conductor material. However, it must be realised that high transmission voltage results in

- **the increased cost of insulating the conductors**
- **the increased cost of transformers, switchgear and other terminal apparatus.**

Therefore, there is a limit to the higher transmission voltage which can be economically employed in a transmission line.



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PER UNIT SYSTEM

- The per unit(PU) system is used to analyse the three phase power system network.
- As you know that the entire power system network is all about the analysis of faults and stability that occurred through out from the generation and transmission to distribution.
- It involves the different voltage levels through out the system because of transformers.
- So it could be so inconvenient for any one to deal with ever changing voltage levels
- So to analyse this complex system to a common frame of reference, we need to convert different parameters of this system such as voltage, current on a common reference which can be referred as voltage and hence the system is called per unit(PU) system.



DEFINITION AND FORMULA

per unit is a scaling system to make calculation process in analysing an electrical network system easier, because quantities expressed as per-unit do not change when they are referred from one side of a transformer to the other. Power system quantities such as current, voltage, impedance and power are often expressed in per unit values. Per unit system is the ratio between the actual value in any unit and the base or reference value in the same unit.

$$\text{per unit value of any quantity} = \frac{\text{Actual value of quantity (in any quantity)}}{\text{base or reference value of quantity (in same unit)}}$$

It is customary to select two base quantities to define a given per unit system. The ones usually selected are voltage and power.

..... The rating of equipment in a power system are given in terms of operating voltage and capacity in kVA.



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FORMULA

Let:

V_b = base voltage (rated voltage)

kVA_b = base kilo volt ampere (rated power)

$$\text{therefore } V_{p.u.} = \frac{\text{Actual voltage}}{\text{Base voltage}} = \frac{V_{actual}}{V_b}$$

$$\text{Base Current } I_b = \frac{kVA_b}{V_b}$$

$$\text{Per unit value of current } I_{p.u.} = \frac{\text{Actual Current}}{\text{Base current}} = \frac{\text{Actual Current} \times V_b}{kVA_b}$$

$$\text{Base Impedance } Z_b = \frac{\text{Base voltage}}{\text{Base current}} = \frac{V_b^2}{kVA_b}$$

$$\text{Per unit value of impedance } Z_{p.u.} = \frac{\text{Actual Impedance}}{\text{Base Impedance}}$$



Per unit value of impedance $Z_{p.u.} = \frac{\text{Actual Impedance}}{\text{Base Impedance}}$

$$Z_{p.u.} = Z(\Omega) \times \frac{kVA_b}{V_b^2}$$

OR

$$Z_{p.u.} = Z(\Omega) \times \frac{MVA_b}{(kV_b)^2}$$

When MVA_b is changed from $MVA_b(\text{old})$ to $MVA_b(\text{N})$ and $kV_b(\text{old})$ to $kV_b(\text{N})$ then the new p.u. impedance will be

$$Z_{p.u.}(\text{O}) = Z(\Omega) \times \frac{MVA_b(\text{O})}{(kV_b(\text{O}))^2} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$Z_{p.u.}(\text{N}) = Z(\Omega) \times \frac{MVA_b(\text{N})}{(kV_b(\text{N}))^2} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Divide equation (2) by (1)

$$Z_{p.u.}(\text{N}) = Z_{p.u.}(\text{O}) \times \frac{MVA_b(\text{N})}{MVA_b(\text{O})} \times \frac{(kV_b(\text{O}))^2}{(kV_b(\text{N}))^2}$$

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ADVANTAGES OF P.U. REPRESENTATION

- While performing calculations, referring quantities from one side of the transformer to the other side serious errors may be committed. This can be avoided by using per unit system.
- Voltages, currents and impedances expressed in per unit do not change when they are referred from one side of transformer to the other side. This is a great advantage.
- For transformers the p.u. of impedances are same for primary and secondary sides.
- Transformer connections do not affect the per unit values.
- Manufacturers usually specify the impedances of machines and transformers in per unit or percent of name plate ratings.
- Reduced calculations in three-phase systems.
- More usefully for digital computation.



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STEPS TO SOLVE PER UNIT NUMERICAL

1. Choose an appropriate common MVA_b for the system.

It is selected on following basis:

Either it is specified in the numerical OR

Take generator MVA as base value OR

Take max MVA of the given system or take any round figure.

2. Choose an approximate reference kV_b for the system. Consider the system to be divided into number of sections by transformer. Choose an appropriate kV_b for one section. Calculate the kV_b of all section with the help of transformation ratio.

3. Calculate per unit values of voltages and impedances in each section and connect them as per topology of single line diagram. The result is single phase per unit impedance diagram or reactance diagram.

4. MVA_b will be same for whole section i.e. for generator, transformer, transmission line and load and

V_b according to power system

5. X and R are neglected so that it is represented as series reactance.

6.

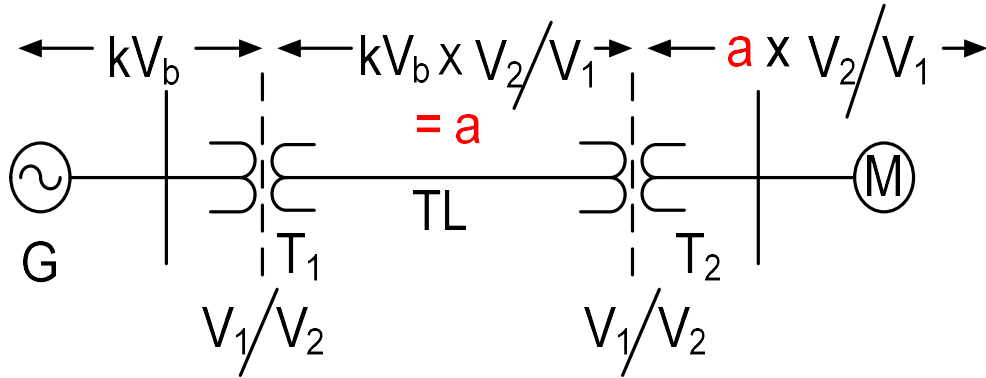


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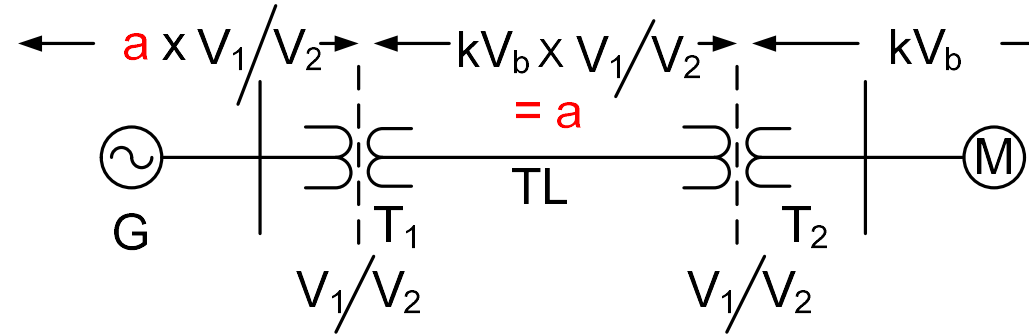
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STEPS TO FIND kV_b FOR EACH SECTION

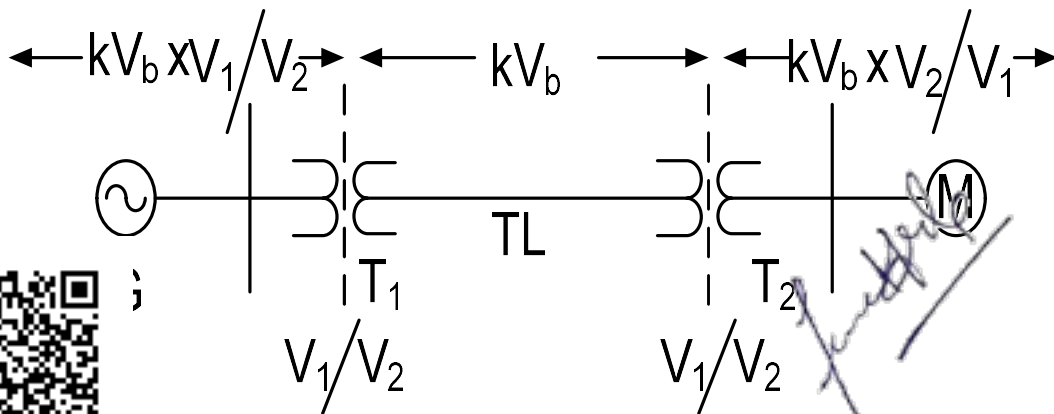
Case I : Generator rating is selected as base value



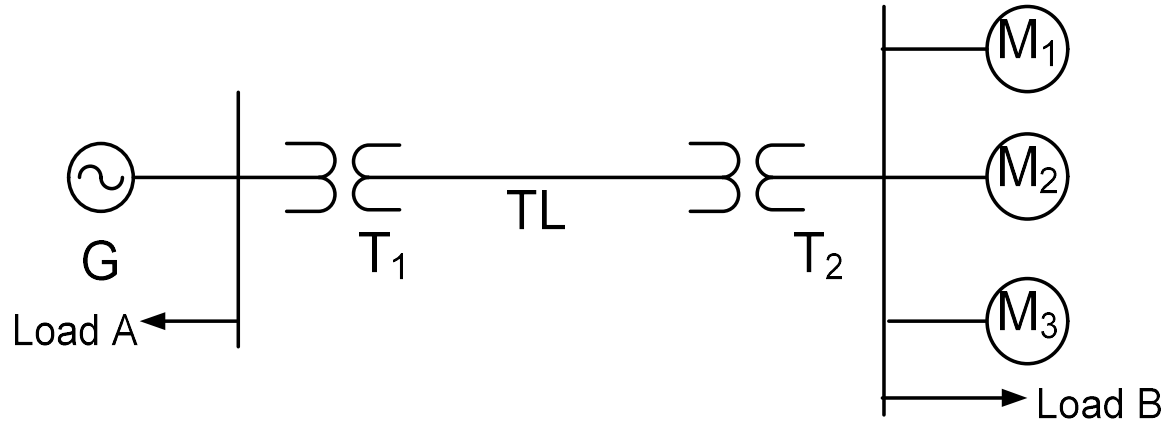
Case III : Selecting motor rating as base value



Case II : Selecting transmission line rating as base value



STEPS TO DRAW IMPEDANCE DIAGRAM



Step I: The generator and motor are represented as voltage source with series resistance and inductive reactance .

Step 2: Transformers are represented with series resistance and inductive reactance

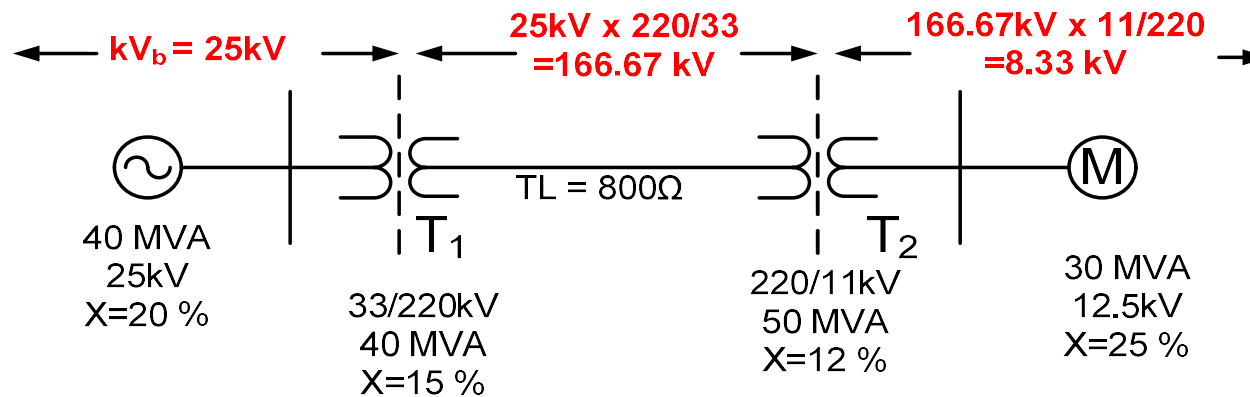
Step 3 : Transmission line is represented by series resistance and inductive reactance

Load A and B are represented by series resistance and inductive reactance.



PROBLEMS

1. Draw pu reactance diagram and assume generator rating as base values?



Step 1: **Selecting Generator rating as base value**

$$MVA_b = 40 \text{ MVA} , KV_b = 25 \text{ kV}$$

$$KV_b \text{ for transmission line} = 25 \times 220/33 = 166.67 \text{ kV}$$

$$KV_b \text{ for motor side} = 166.67 \times 11/220 = 8.33 \text{ kV}$$

Step 2: **pu value of reactance on generator side**

$$X_{g_{p.u.}}(N) = X_{g_{p.u.}}(O) \times \frac{MVA_b(N)}{MVA_b(O)} \times \left(\frac{KV_b(O)}{KV_b(N)} \right)^2$$

$$X_{g_{p.u.}}(N) = 0.2 \text{ p.u.}$$



p.u. value of reactance for T₁

$$X_{T1p.u} = 0.15 \times \frac{40}{60} \times \left(\frac{33}{25}\right)^2 = 0.1742 \text{ p.u.}$$

OR

$$X_{T1p.u} = 0.15 \times \frac{40}{60} \times \left(\frac{220}{166.67}\right)^2 = 0.1742 \text{ p.u.}$$

p.u. value of reactance for TL

$$X_{p.u.} = X (\Omega) \times \frac{MVA_b}{(kV_b)^2}$$

$$X_{TLp.u.} = 800 \times \frac{40}{(166.67)^2} = 1.1519 \text{ p.u.}$$

p.u. value of reactance for T2

$$X_{T2p.u} = 0.12 \times \frac{40}{50} \times \left(\frac{220}{166.67}\right)^2 = 0.167 \text{ p.u.}$$

OR

$$X_{T2p.u} = 0.12 \times \frac{40}{50} \times \left(\frac{11}{8.33}\right)^2 = 0.167 \text{ p.u.}$$



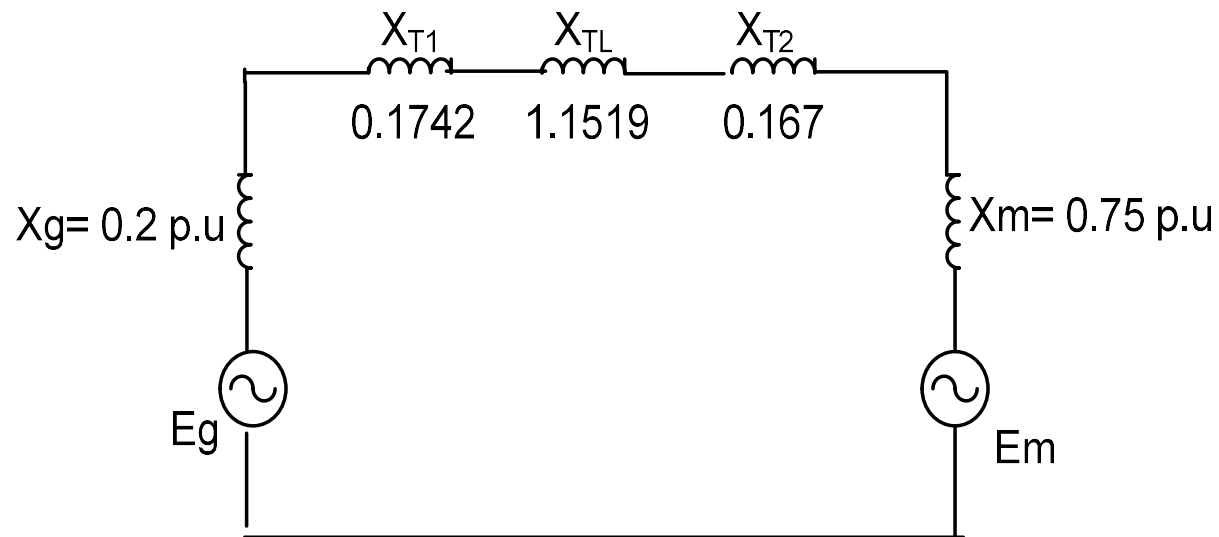
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p.u. value of reactance for Motor

$$X_{mp.u} = 0.25 \times \frac{40}{30} \times \left(\frac{12.5}{8.33}\right)^2 = 0.75 \text{ p.u.}$$

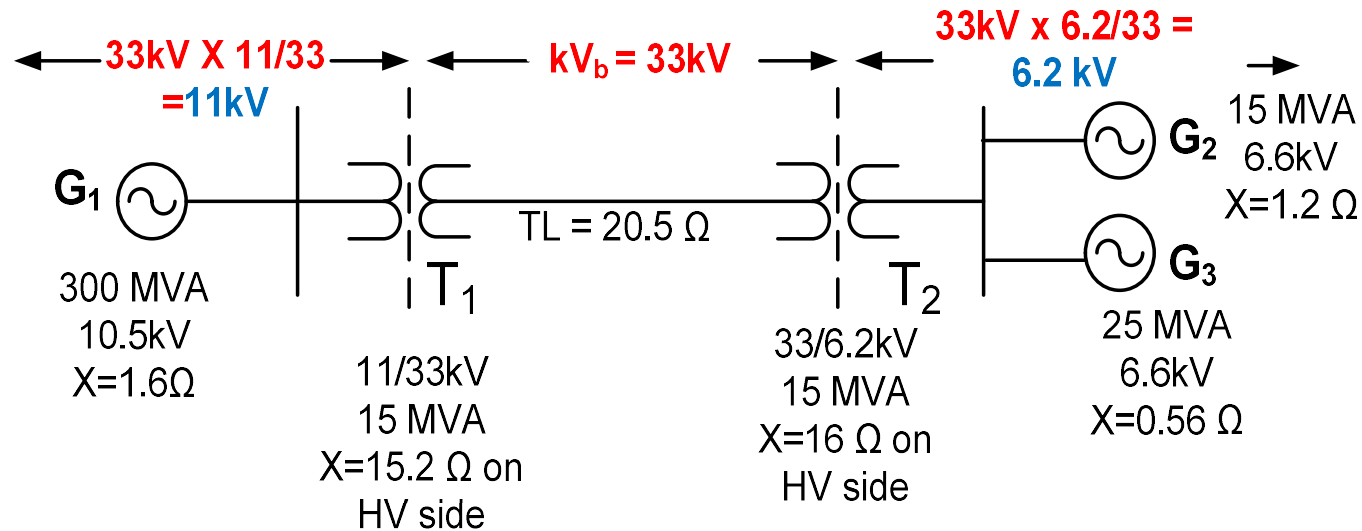
Reactance Diagram:



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2. Draw reactance diagram for given power system .Choose 30 MVA and 33kV as base value for transmission line



Selecting Transmission line rating as base value

$$\text{MVA}_b = 30 \text{ MVA}, \text{KV}_b = 33\text{kV}$$

Step 1: KV_b for Generator (G₁) side = $33 \times \frac{11}{33} = 11 \text{ kV}$

KV_b for Generator (G₁ and G₂) side = $33 \times \frac{6.2}{33} = 6.2 \text{ kV}$

$$X_{\text{I}} \frac{\text{MVA}_b}{(\text{kV}_b)^2}$$



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Step 2: pu value of reactance of generator G_1

$$X_{g1p.u.} = 1.6 \times 30 / (11)^2 = 0.396 \text{ p.u.}$$

pu value of reactance of transformer T1

$$X_{T1p.u.} = 15.2 \times 30 / (33)^2 = 0.418 \text{ p.u.}$$

Why 33? because $X = 15.2$ on HV side so we have to take KV_b from HV side.

pu value of reactance of TL

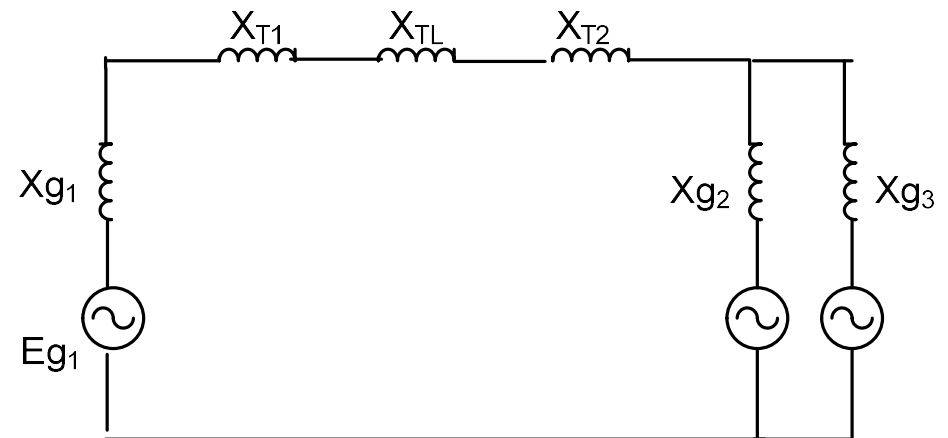
$$X_{TLp.u.} = 20.5 \times \frac{30}{(33)^2} = 0.564 \text{ p.u.}$$

pu value of reactance of T2

$$X_{T2p.u.} = 16 \times \frac{30}{(33)^2} = 0.44 \text{ p.u.}$$

pu value of reactance of generator G_2

$$X_{g2p.u.} = 1.2 \times \frac{30}{(6.2)^2} = 0.936 \text{ p.u.}$$



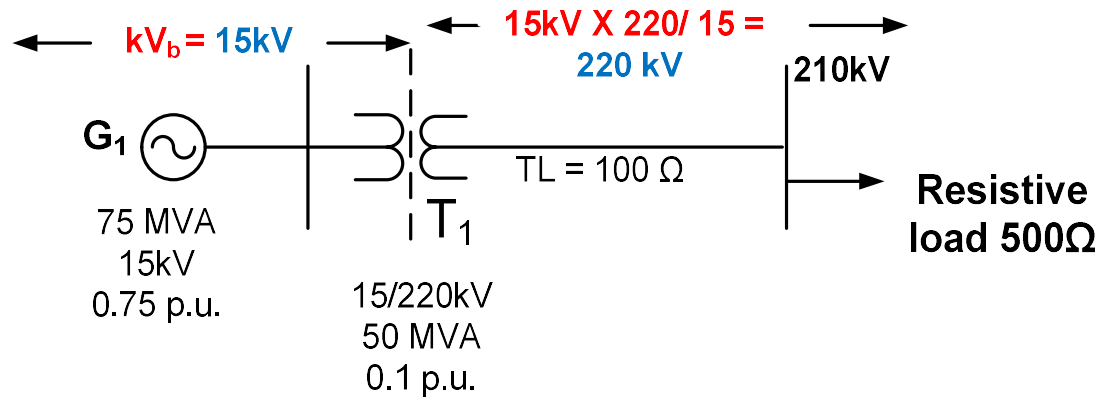
pu value of reactance of generator G_3

$$= 0.56 \times \frac{30}{(6.2)^2} = 0.437 \text{ p.u.}$$

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6. For the power system shown below determine generator voltage. Select generator rating as base value.



Step 1: Selecting generator rating as base value

$$MVA_b = 75 \text{ MVA}$$

$$KV_b = 15 \text{ kV}$$

kVb for transmission line and load is 220kV

Step 2 : p.u. value of reactance

$$X_{g1 \text{ p.u.}} = 0.75 \times \frac{75}{75} \times \left(\frac{15}{15}\right)^2 = j 0.75 \text{ p.u.}$$

$$X_{T1 \text{ p.u.}} = 0.1 \times \frac{75}{50} \times \left(\frac{15}{15}\right)^2 = j 0.15 \text{ p.u.}$$

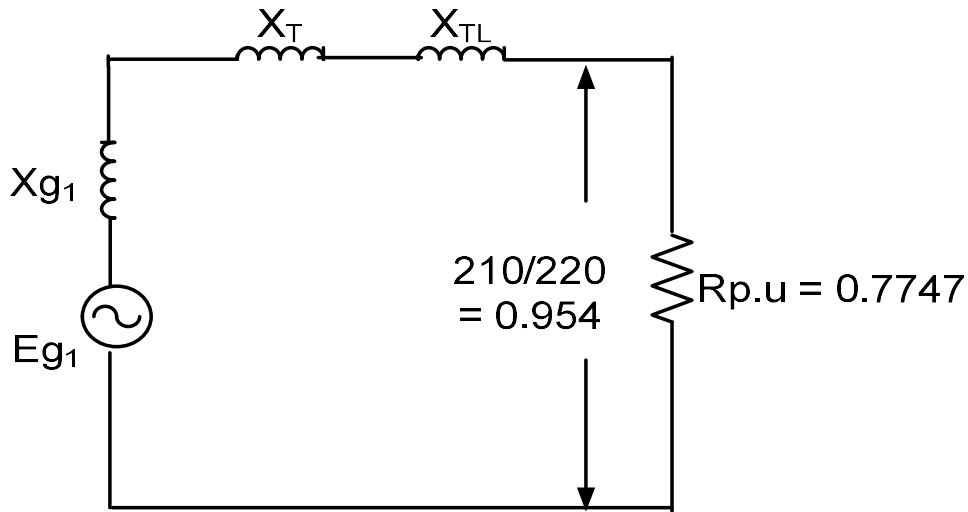
$$X_{TL} = 100 \times \frac{75}{(220)^2} = j0.1549 \text{ p.u.}$$

$$= 500 \times \frac{75}{(220)^2} = j0.7747 \text{ p.u.}$$



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Per unit value of voltage $V_{p.u.} = \text{actual value} / \text{base value}$
 $= 210/220 = 0.9545$

$I_{p.u.} = V_{p.u.} / R_{p.u.} = 0.9545/0.7747 = 1.23 \text{ p.u.}$

Applying KVL in the loop

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_{g1p.u.} &= I_{p.u.} [R_{p.u.} + j(X_{g1} + X_T + X_{TL})] \\
 &= 1.23 [0.7747 + j(0.75 + 0.15 + 0.1544)] \\
 &= 0.9528 + j 1.297 \\
 &= 1.609 \angle 53.73
 \end{aligned}$$

E

$$\begin{aligned}
 &15 \times 1.609 \\
 &= 24.135 \text{ kV}
 \end{aligned}$$

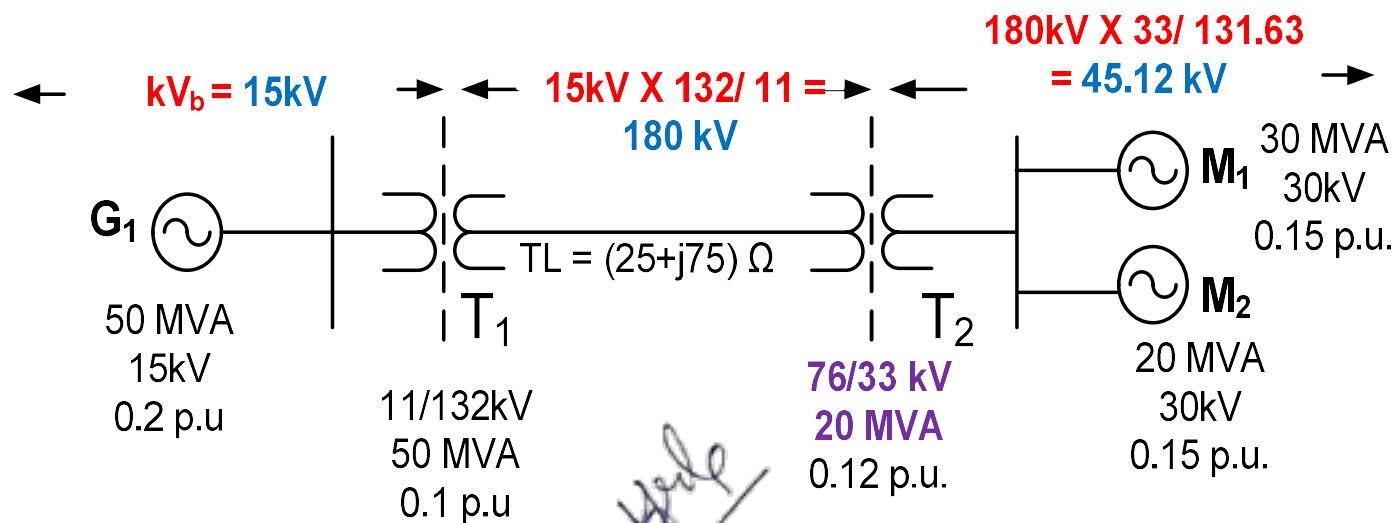


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A 50 MVA, 15kV, 3-ph generator has sub-transient reactance of 0.2 p.u. The generator supplies the two motors over a transmission line having transformers at both end. The motor has rated input of 30 MVA and 20 MVA both 30kV with 0.15 p.u. subtransient reactance. The rating of sending end transformer T1 is 50 MVA, 11/132kV, Δ/Y with leakage reactance of 0.1 pu. The transformer T2 at receiving end has three single phase unit. The rating of each individual transformer is 20 MVA, 76/33 kV with leakage reactance of 0.12 p.u. connected as Y/ Δ . Series impedance of a line is $(25+j75)\Omega$. Draw impedance diagram. Select generator rating as base value.

If the motor have input of 24 MW and 16 MW respectively at 30 kV and both operated at unity power factor, find the voltage at the terminal of generator.



$$X_{g_{p.u.}} = 0.2 \times \frac{50}{50} \times \left(\frac{15}{15}\right)^2 = j 0.2 \text{ p.u.}$$

$$X_{T1_{p.u.}} = 0.1 \times \frac{50}{50} \times \left(\frac{11}{15}\right)^2 = j 0.053 \text{ p.u.}$$

$$Z_{TL} = 25 + j 75 = 79.056 \angle 71.56 \Omega$$

$$= 79.056 \times \frac{50}{(180)^2} = 0.122 \angle 71.56 \text{ p.u.} = (0.038 + j 0.1157)$$

$$X_{T2_{p.u.}} = 0.12 \times \frac{50}{60} \times \left(\frac{131.63}{180}\right)^2 = j 0.053 \text{ p.u.}$$

$$X_{m1_{p.u.}} = 0.15 \times \frac{50}{30} \times \left(\frac{30}{45.13}\right)^2 = j 0.1104 \text{ p.u.}$$

$$X_{m1_{p.u.}} = 0.15 \times \frac{50}{20} \times \left(\frac{30}{45.13}\right)^2 = j 0.165 \text{ p.u.}$$

Total input to the motor = 24+16 = 40MW

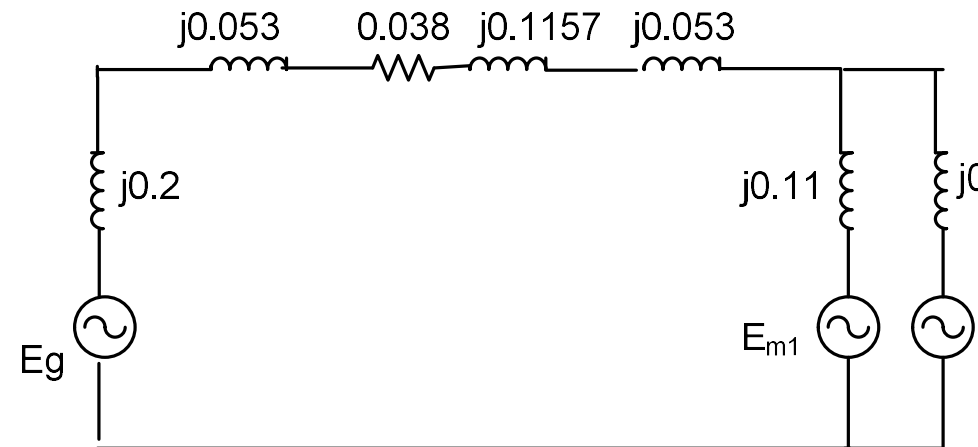
Base MVA = 50 MVA

Per unit value $P_{p.u.} = \text{actual/base} = 40/50 = 0.8$



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For voltage:

Base voltage $kV_b = 45.12 \text{ kV}$

Actual value = 30 kV

$$V_{p.u.} = 30/45.12 = 0.664 \text{ p.u.}$$

Therefore, $P_{pu} = V_{pu} I_{pu}$

$$I_{pu} = 1.204 \text{ p.u.}$$

Applying KVL

$$\begin{aligned} V_{tp.u} &= I_{p.u.}(X_{T1} + Z_{TL} + X_{T2}) + V_{p.u.} \\ &= 1.204[j(0.053 + 0.1157 + 0.053) + 0.038] + 0.664 \\ &= 0.709 + j0.266 = 0.758 \angle 20.61 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{actual} &= V_{tp.u.} \times \text{base value} \\ &= 0.758 \times 15 \end{aligned}$$

1.137 kV



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TRANSMISSION LINE PARAMETERS

(ELECTRICAL DESIGN OF OVERHEAD TRANSMISSION LINE)

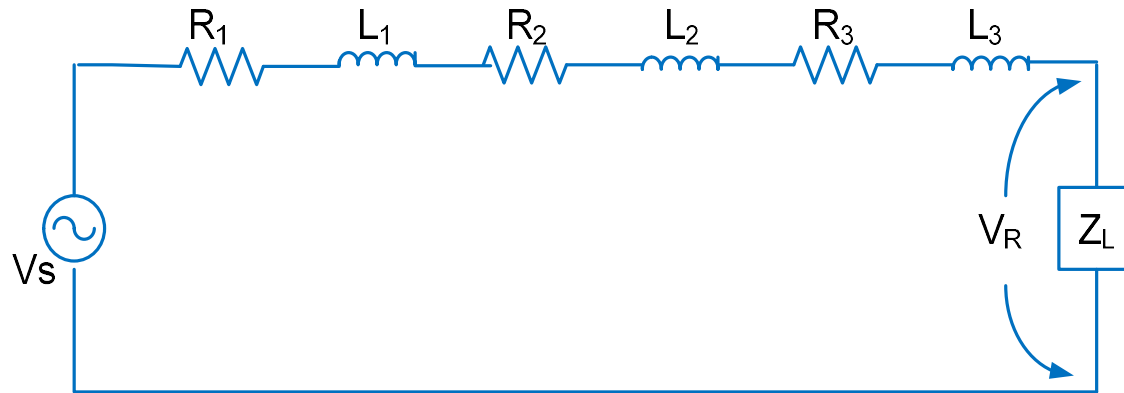
- Transmission of electric power is done by 3-phase 3-wire overhead line.
- An a.c. transmission line has resistance, inductance and capacitance uniformly distributed along its length. These are known as constants and parameter of the line.
- Performance of transmission line depends to the considerable extent upon these parameters.
- This constant determines whether the efficiency and voltage regulation of line is good or poor.
- Concept of these constant is necessary in order to make the electrical design of transmission line
- Out of these three parameters we will pay more attention in finding the value of inductance and capacitance as value of these parameter depends on conductor arrangement.
- Resistance is very simple to calculate.



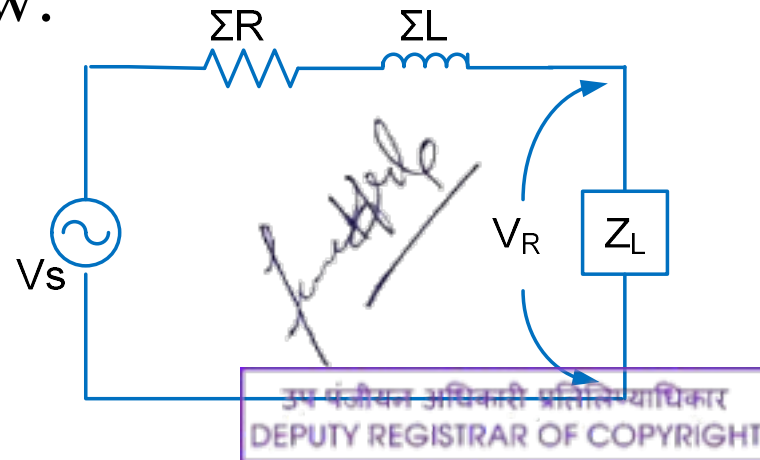
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- A transmission line has resistance, inductance and capacitance distributed along the whole length of transmission line as shown in figure below:



- However performance of transmission line can be analysed conveniently if distributed parameters are considered lumped as shown in figure below:



Resistance:

- It is the opposition of line conductors to current flow.
- It is the most important cause for power loss in transmission line
- The resistance R of a line conductor having resistivity ρ , length l and area of cross section a is given by:

$$R = \frac{\rho l}{a}$$

- ❖ In a single phase or 2-wire dc line, the total resistance (known as loop resistance) is equal to double the resistance of either conductor.
- ❖ In case of 3-phase transmission line, resistance per phase is the resistance of one conductor.

Inductance:

- When an alternating current flows through a conductor, a changing flux is set up which links with conductor.
- Due to these flux linkage, the conductor possesses inductance.
- Mathematically, inductance is defined as the flux linkages per ampere i.e.

ψ

where ψ = flux linkage in weber-turn

I = current in amperes



Capacitance:

- Any two conductor separated by an insulating material constitute capacitor.
- As any two conductors of an overhead line are separated by air which acts as an insulation ,therefore capacitance exists between any two overhead line conductors.
- The capacitance between the conductor is the charge per unit potential difference.

i.e $C = \frac{q}{v}$ where q = charge on the line per column

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 series of capacitors connected between the conductors as shown in Fig.1 below:

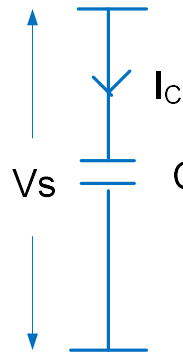
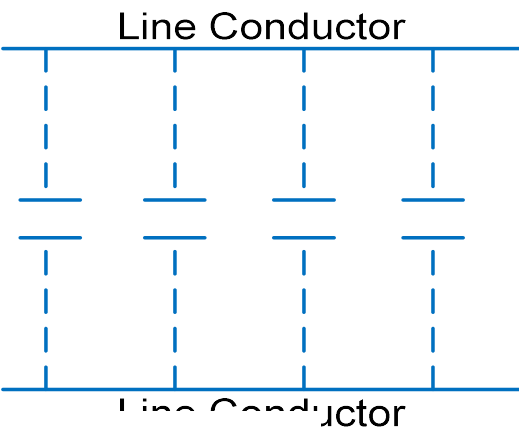


Fig.2

- When an alternating voltage is impressed on a transmission line ,the charge on the conductors at any point increases or decreases with increase or decrease of instantaneous value of the voltage between the conductors.
- The result is that the current known as charging current flows between conductors as shown in Fig.2 .
- This charging current flows in the line even it is open circuited supplying no load.



SKIN EFFECT

The distribution of electric current over the entire cross section of the conductor is quite uniform in case of a DC system

When an alternating current passes through a conductor it does not flow uniformly all over the conductor. The concentration of current is higher on the surface of the conductor than at the centre, thus increasing the effective resistance. This effect is called the skin effect.

The tendency of alternating current to concentrate near the surface of a conductor is known as skin effect.”

Cause of Skin Effect:

The solid conductor considered can be thought of having a number of strands one over the other, each carrying some portion of the current.

Inductance of each strand will vary according to its position.

Thus, the strands near the centre are surrounded by a greater magnetic flux and hence have larger inductance than those near the surface.

The high reactance of inner strands causes the alternating current to flow near the surface of conductor.

This crowding of current near the conductor surface is the skin effect.

Effect:

Due to skin effect, the effective area of cross section of the conductor through which current flows is reduced.

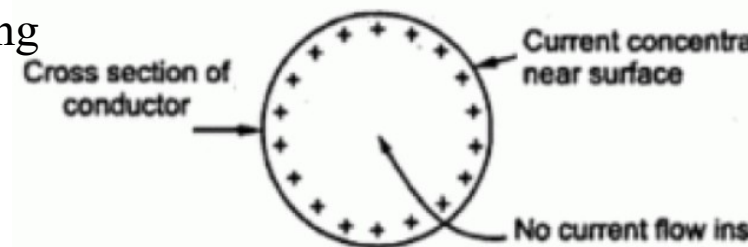
Consequently the resistance of the conductor is slightly increased when carrying

an alternating current.



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Factors affecting it:

- Nature of material.
- It is directly proportional to diameter of conductor.
- It is proportional to frequency of supply. skin effect increases with the increase in frequency.
- It depends on the shape of the conductor. Skin effect less for stranded conductor than the solid conductor.

Skin effect is negligible when supply frequency is low(< 50 Hz) and conductor diameter is small (< 1 cm)



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PROXIMITY EFFECT

Definition:

Proximity Effect is the phenomena of non-uniform current distribution on the surface of adjacent current carrying conductor due to the effect of another current carrying conductor in its proximity.

in cables, the conductors are very near to each other, this effect is dominant.

Whereas in overhead lines as lines are far apart when compared with cable, this effect can be neglected.

Cause of Proximity Effect:


The main reason for proximity effect is production of magnetic field in the surrounding of a current carrying conductor.

When this magnetic field links with the adjacent conductor, it gives rise to a circulating or eddy current in it.

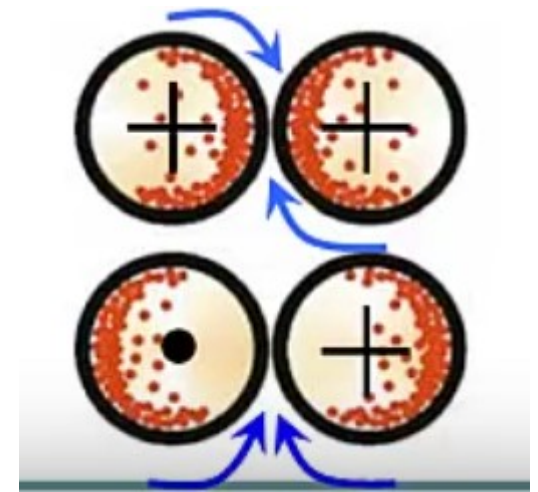
Because of this eddy current, the current distribution on the nearby becomes non-uniform.

This leads to additional resistance to the flow of current in the nearby conductor. Hence due to proximity effect, the net ac resistance of conductor increases.




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- If each conductor carries a current in **same direction**, the halves of the conductor in close proximity are cut by more magnetic flux than the remote halves.
- Consequently the current distribution is not even throughout the cross section, a **least portion** is carried out by the remote halves.
- If currents are in **opposite direction**, the halves in close proximity will carry **low density current**.



Factors Affecting Proximity Effect

- **Frequency** – The proximity effect increases with the increase in the frequency.
- **Diameter** – The proximity effect increases with the increase in the diameter of the conductor.
- **Structure** – This effect is more on the solid conductor as compared to the stranded conductor (i.e., ASCR) because the surface area of the stranded conductor is smaller than the solid conductor.
- If the material is made up of high permeability material, the proximity effect is more on their surface.



FLUX LINKAGES

1. Flux linkage due to a single current carrying conductor:

Consider a long straight cylindrical conductor of radius 'r' meters and carrying a current I amperes as shown in Fig(i)

This current will set up magnetic field.

This magnetic lines of force will exist inside the conductor as well as outside the conductor.

Both these fluxes will contribute to the inductance of the conductor.

i) Flux linkages due to internal flux:

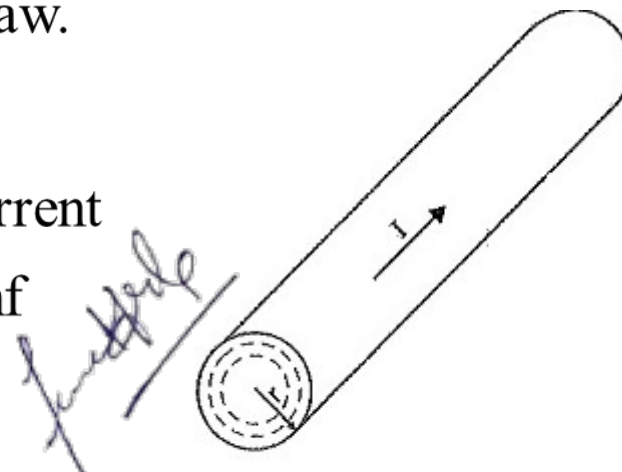
Referring to Fig(ii) below, the magnetic field intensity at a point x meters from the centre is given by:

$$H_x = \frac{I_x}{2\pi x} \dots \text{According to the amperes law.}$$

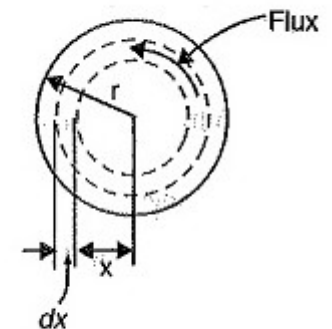
mmf around any closed path equals

the current enclosed by the path. The current

enclosed by the path is I_x and hence mmf



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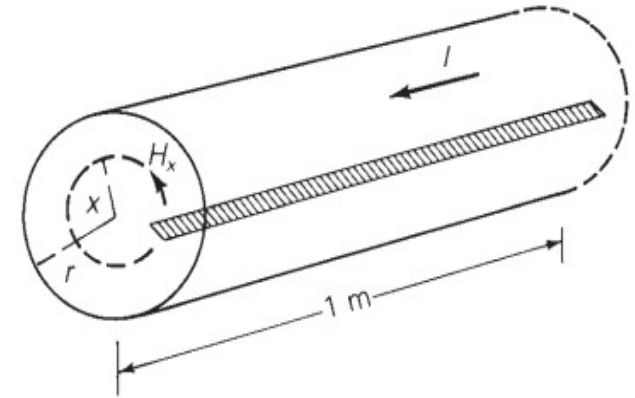


(ii)

Assuming current density to be uniform

$$I_x = \frac{\pi x^2}{\pi r^2} I = \frac{x^2}{r^2} I$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore, } H_x &= \frac{x^2}{r^2} \times I \times \frac{1}{2\pi x} \\ &= \frac{x}{2\pi r^2} I \text{ AT/m} \end{aligned}$$



If μ ($= \mu_0 \mu_r$) is the permeability of conductor, then flux density at considered point is given by:

$$B_x = \frac{\mu_0 \mu_r x}{2\pi r^2} I = \frac{\mu_0 x}{2\pi r^2} I \text{ wb/m}^2 \quad (\mu_r = 1 \text{ for non-magnetic material})$$

For the finite element having thickness dx, area is equal to dx times the axial length.

Assuming axial length = 1 m

Flux per meter of the length is

$$\begin{aligned} d\phi &= B_x * 1 * dx \text{ weber} \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 x I}{2\pi r^2} dx \end{aligned}$$

links with the current I_x only. Lying within the circle of radius x.



Wire cross sectional area of the conductor does not enclose the above expressed flux. The ratio of cross sectional area inside the circle of radius to the total cross section can be thought as fractional turns the links the flux.

Therefore the flux linkage per meter length of the conductor is

$$\begin{aligned} d\psi &= \frac{x^2}{r^2} d\phi \\ &= \frac{x^2}{r^2} \frac{\mu_0 x I}{2\pi r^2} dx \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 I x^3}{2\pi r^4} dx \end{aligned}$$

Therefore total flux linkage from centre of the conductor upto the surface of the conductor is

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_{int} &= \int_0^r \frac{\mu_0 I x^3}{2\pi r^4} dx \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 I}{8\pi} \text{wb-T/m} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $L_{int} = \psi_{int} / I = \frac{1}{2} * 10^{-7} \text{ H/m}$

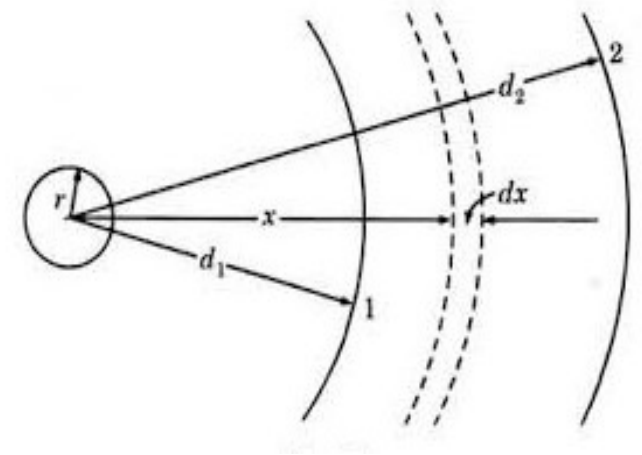


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Flux linkages due to external flux:

Consider two points 1 and 2 at a distance of d_1 and d_2 from the centre of the conductor. Since the flux paths are concentric circles around the conductor, the whole of the flux between 1 and 2 lies within the concentric cylindrical surface passing through these points.



The magnetic field strength at a distance x from the centre of conductor

$$\frac{I}{2\pi x} \text{ AT/m}$$

density is equal to $B_x = \mu_0 \mu_r H_x$ ($\mu_r = 1$ for non magnetic material)

$$\frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi x}$$

Therefore the flux through cylindrical shell of radial thickness dx and axial length of 1 m is

$$B_x * 1 * dx \text{ weber} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi x} dx$$

Therefore the flux external to the conductor is equal to $d\phi$. Since flux external to the conductor links all the current in the conductor



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Therefore, the total flux linkage ψ between points 1 and 2 = $\int_{d_1}^{d_2} d\psi$

$$\Psi_{ext} = 2 * 10^{-7} * I * \ln (d_2/d_1)$$

$$\text{Therefore } L_{ext} = 2 * 10^{-7} \ln (d_2/d_1) \quad [L = \psi/I]$$

therefore ,total inductance of a conductor $L = L_{int} + L_{ext}$

$$= \frac{1}{2} * 10^{-7} + 2 * 10^{-7} \ln (d_2/d_1)$$

Substituting $d_1 = r$ and $d_2 = d$

$$L = 2 * 10^{-7} \ln \frac{d}{r e^{-1/4}}$$

Therefore $L = 2 * 10^{-7} \ln \frac{d}{r'}$ [$r' = 0.7788 * r$]



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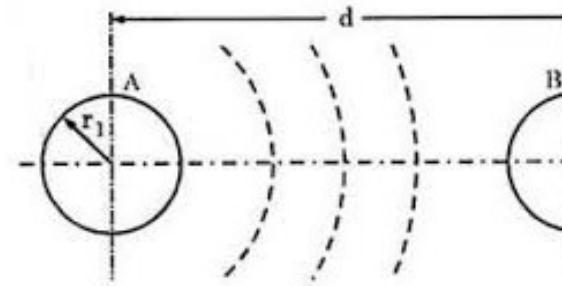
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INDUCTANCE OF SINGLE PHASE TWO WIRE LINE

A single phase line consist 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, and hence a loop possess inductance.

Consider a single phase overhead line consisting of two parallel conductors A and B spaced 'd' meters apart as shown in fig.



Conductor A and B carries same amount of current($I_A = I_B$) but in opposite direction because one forms the return circuit of the other.

i.e. $I_A + I_B = 0$

There will be flux linkage with conductor A due to its own current I_A and due to mutual inductance effect current I_B in conductor B.

Assuming that the flux produced by current in conductor A links all the current upto the centre of conductor B and that flux beyond the centre of conductor B does not links any current.

$$2 * 10^{-7} \ln \frac{d}{r_1'} \quad L_B = 2 * 10^{-7} \ln \frac{d}{r_2'}$$

Substituting $r_1' = r_2' = r'$

$$* 10^{-7} \ln \frac{d}{r'}$$

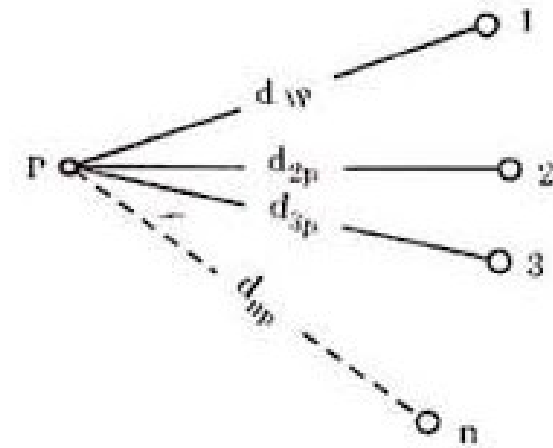
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FLUX LINKAGE OF ONE CONDUCTOR IN A GROUP OF CONDUCTORS

Consider a group of parallel conductors 1, 2, 3, ... n carrying currents $I_1, I_2, I_3 \dots I_n$ respectively, as illustrated in Fig. 4.4. Let it be assumed that the sum of the currents in various conductors is zero i.e. $I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + \dots + I_n = 0$

Theoretically, the flux due to a conductor extends from the centre of the conductor right up to infinity but let us assume that the flux linkages extend up to a remote point P and the respective distances are as marked in Figure.



The current in each conductor sets up a certain flux due its own current. The sum of all these fluxes is the total flux of the system and the total flux linkages of any one conductor is the sum of its linkages with all the individual fluxes set up by the conductors of the system.

The flux linkages of conductor 1 due to its own current I_1 (internal and external), up to point P,

$$\Psi_{1p1} = 2 \times 10^{-7} I_1 \log_e \frac{d_{1p}}{r_1'} \text{ Wb-turns/metre}$$

of conductor 1 due to current in conductor 2,

$$\times 10^{-7} I_2 \log_e \frac{d_{2p}}{d_{12}}$$



Thus the expression for flux linkages of conductor 1 due to currents in all conductors can be written as:

$$\psi_{1p} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[I_1 \log_e \frac{d_{1p}}{r_1'} + I_2 \log_e \frac{d_{2p}}{d_{12}} + I_3 \log_e \frac{d_{3p}}{d_{13}} + \dots I_n \log_e \frac{d_{np}}{d_{1n}} \right] \text{ Wb-turns/m}$$

The above equation may be written as:

$$\psi_{1p} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[I_1 \log_e \frac{1}{r_1'} + I_2 \log_e \frac{1}{d_{12}} + I_3 \log_e \frac{1}{d_{13}} + \dots I_n \log_e \frac{1}{d_{1n}} \right] \\ + 2 \times 10^{-7} [I_1 \log_e d_{1p} + I_2 \log_e d_{2p} + I_3 \log_e d_{3p} + \dots I_n \log_e d_{np}] \text{ Wb-turns/m}$$

To account for the total flux linkages to conductor 1, the point P must approach infinity and in this condition,

$$\begin{aligned} & d_{1p} \simeq d_{2p} \simeq d_{3p} \simeq d_{4p} \dots d_{np} \simeq d \text{ (say)} \\ \text{Then} \quad & \lim_{d \rightarrow \infty} (I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + \dots + I_n) \log_e d = 0 \quad \because I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + \dots + I_n = 0 \end{aligned}$$

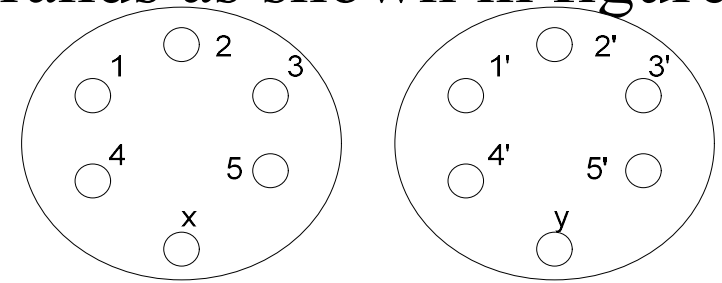
The equation for the flux linkages to conductor 1 becomes,



$$2 \times 10^{-7} \left[I_1 \log_e \frac{1}{r_1'} + I_2 \log_e \frac{1}{d_{12}} + I_3 \log_e \frac{1}{d_{13}} + \dots I_n \log_e \frac{1}{d_{1n}} \right] \text{ Wb-turns/m}$$

INDUCTANCE OF COMPOSITE CONDUCTOR LINES

Consider a single phase line consisting of two parallel conductors A and B, conductor A consisting of x and conductor B of y strands as shown in figure. the conductors A and B carry currents I and $-I$ respectively (since conductors of a 2-wire line carry the same current but in opposite directions).



Assuming uniform current density in both the conductors the current carried by each strand of conductor A will be I/x while that carried by each strand of conductor B will be $-I/y$.

Therefore, the flux linkages of strand 1 in conductor A can be written as:

$$\psi_1 = 2 \times 10^{-7} \frac{I}{x} \left[\log_e \frac{1}{r_1'} + \log_e \frac{1}{d_{12}} + \log_e \frac{1}{d_{13}} + \dots + \log_e \frac{1}{d_{1x}} \right] - 2 \times 10^{-7} \frac{I}{y} \left[\log_e \frac{1}{d_{11'}} + \log_e \frac{1}{d_{12'}} + \log_e \frac{1}{d_{13'}} + \dots + \log_e \frac{1}{d_{1y}} \right]$$



$$\Psi_1 = 2 \times 10^{-7} I \log_e \frac{\sqrt[y]{(d_{11}' d_{12}' d_{13}' \dots d_{1y})}}{\sqrt[x]{r_1' d_{12} d_{13} \dots d_{1x}}} \text{ Wb-turns/m}$$

Therefore, Inductance of strand 1 of conductor A,

$$L_1 = \frac{\Psi_1}{I/x} = 2 \times 10^{-7} x \log_e \frac{\sqrt[y]{(d_{11}' d_{12}' d_{13}' d_{14}' \dots d_{1y})}}{\sqrt[x]{r_1' d_{12} d_{13} d_{14} \dots d_{1x}}}$$

Similarly Inductance of strand 2 of conductor A,

$$L_2 = 2 \times 10^{-7} x \log_e \frac{y \sqrt{d_{21}' d_{22}' d_{23}' d_{24}' \dots d_{2y}}}{x \sqrt{d_{21} d_{22} d_{23} d_{24} \dots d_{2x}}} \text{ H/m}$$

Different strands of a conductor have different inductances. Therefore, average inductance of strands of conductor

$$L_{\text{avg}} = \frac{L_1 + L_2 + \dots + L_x}{x}$$

Since x such strands of conductor A are electrically in parallel, therefore inductance of conductor A,

$$L_A = \frac{L_{\text{avg}}}{x} = \frac{L_1 + L_2 + L_3 + \dots + L_x}{x^2}$$



$$10^{-7} \log_e \left[\frac{\sqrt[xy]{(d_{11}' d_{12}' d_{13}' d_{14}' \dots d_{1y}) (d_{21}' d_{22}' d_{23}' \dots d_{2y}) \dots (d_{x1}' d_{x2}' d_{x3}' \dots d_{xy})}}{x^2 \sqrt{(d_{11} d_{12} d_{13} d_{14} \dots d_{1x}) (d_{21} d_{22} d_{23} \dots d_{2x}) (d_{x1} d_{x2} d_{x3} \dots d_{xx})}} \right]$$

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In the above expression the numerator of argument of \log_e is called the **GMD** (often called the mutual GMD) between conductors A and B and the denominator of argument \log_e is called **GMR** (often called self GMD). GMD (Geometric Mean Distance) and GMR (Geometric Mean Radius) are denoted by D_m and D_s respectively.

$$\therefore L_A = 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_{sA}} \text{H/m}$$

$$\text{Similarly } L_B = 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_{sB}} \text{H/m}$$

If conductors A and B are identical

$$\therefore D_{sA} = D_{sB} = D_s \text{ (say)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Loop inductance, } L = L_A + L_B &= 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_s} + 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_s} \\ &= 4 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_s} \text{H/m} \quad \text{or } 0.4 \log_e \frac{D_m}{D_s} \text{ mH/km} \end{aligned}$$



INDUCTANCE OF THREE PHASE OVERHEAD LINE

A: With Unsymmetrical Spacing

- Consider a 3- ϕ line with conductors A, B, and C; each of radius r metres. Let the spacing between them be d_1 , d_2 and d_3 and the current flowing through them be I_A , I_B and I_C respectively.
- The flux linkages of conductor A due to its own current I_A and other conductor currents I_B and I_C is

$$\psi_A = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[I_A \log_e \frac{1}{r'} + I_B \log_e \frac{1}{d_1} + I_C \log_e \frac{1}{d_3} \right] \text{ Wb-turns/m}$$

Similarly

$$\psi_B = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[I_B \log_e \frac{1}{r'} + I_A \log_e \frac{1}{d_1} + I_C \log_e \frac{1}{d_2} \right] \text{ Wb-turns/m}$$

$$\text{and } \psi_C = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[I_C \log_e \frac{1}{r'} + I_A \log_e \frac{1}{d_3} + I_B \log_e \frac{1}{d_2} \right] \text{ Wb-turns/m}$$

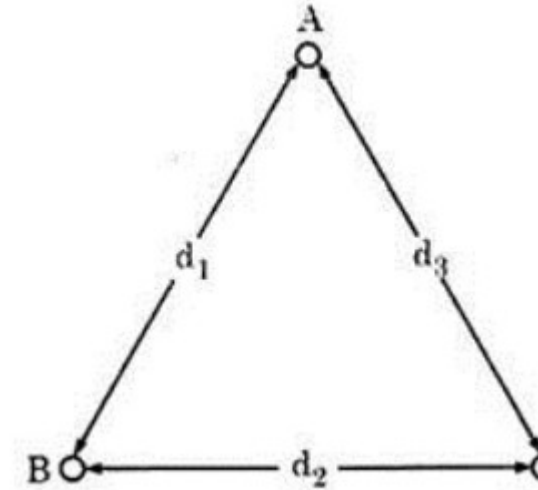
If the system is balanced,

$I_A = I_B = I_C = I$ (say) in magnitude

Taking I_A as a reference phasor, the currents are represented, in symbolic form



$(-0.5 - j 0.866)$ and $I_C = I (-0.5 + j 0.866)$



Substituting these values of I_B and I_C in the expression for Ψ_A we get,

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi_A &= 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[I \log_e \frac{1}{r'} + I(-0.5 - j0.866) \log_e \frac{1}{d_1} + I(-0.5 + j0.866) \log_e \frac{1}{d_3} \right] \\ &= 2 \times 10^{-7} I \left[\log_e \frac{1}{r'} + \log_e \sqrt{d_1 d_3} + j\sqrt{3} \log_e \sqrt{\frac{d_1}{d_3}} \right]\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } L_A = \frac{\Psi_A}{I_A} = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[\log_e \frac{1}{r'} + \log_e \sqrt{d_1 d_3} + j\sqrt{3} \log_e \sqrt{\frac{d_1}{d_3}} \right] \text{ H/m} \quad \dots$$

$$\text{Similarly } L_B = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[\log_e \frac{1}{r'} + \log_e \sqrt{d_1 d_2} + j\sqrt{3} \log_e \sqrt{\frac{d_2}{d_1}} \right] \text{ H/m} \quad \dots$$

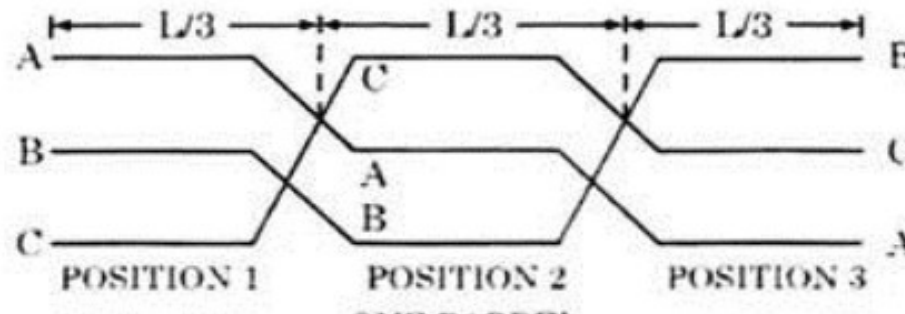
$$\text{and } L_C = 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[\log_e \frac{1}{r'} + \log_e \sqrt{d_2 d_3} + j\sqrt{3} \log_e \sqrt{\frac{d_3}{d_2}} \right] \text{ H/m} \quad \dots$$

Thus it is observed that when the conductors of a 3-phase transmission line are not equidistant from each other, i.e., unsymmetrically spaced, the flux linkages and inductances of various phases are different which results in unequal voltage drops in the three phases and transfer of power between phases due to unbalanced fluxes even if the currents in the conductors are balanced.



TRANSPOSITION OF CONDUCTORS

The unbalancing effect on account of irregular spacing of conductors is avoided by transposition of conductors, as shown in Fig. below. In practice the conductors are so transposed that each of the three possible arrangements of conductors exists for one-third of the total length of the line.



The effect of transposition is that each conductor has the same average inductance, which is given as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 L &= \frac{L_A + L_B + L_C}{3} \\
 &= 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[\log_e \frac{1}{r'} + \frac{1}{3} (\log_e \sqrt{d_1 d_3} + \log_e \sqrt{d_1 d_2} + \log_e \sqrt{d_2 d_3}) \right] \\
 &= 2 \times 10^{-7} \left[\log_e \frac{1}{r'} + \log_e \frac{\sqrt[3]{d_1 d_2 d_3} + 0}{r'} \right] = 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{\sqrt[3]{d_1 d_2 d_3}}{r'} \text{ H/m} \dots
 \end{aligned}$$



If the conductors are equi-spaced (let the spacing be equal to d), the inductance of each conductor will be same and can be obtained by substituting $d_1 = d_2 = d_3$ in above expression

Inductance of each conductor:

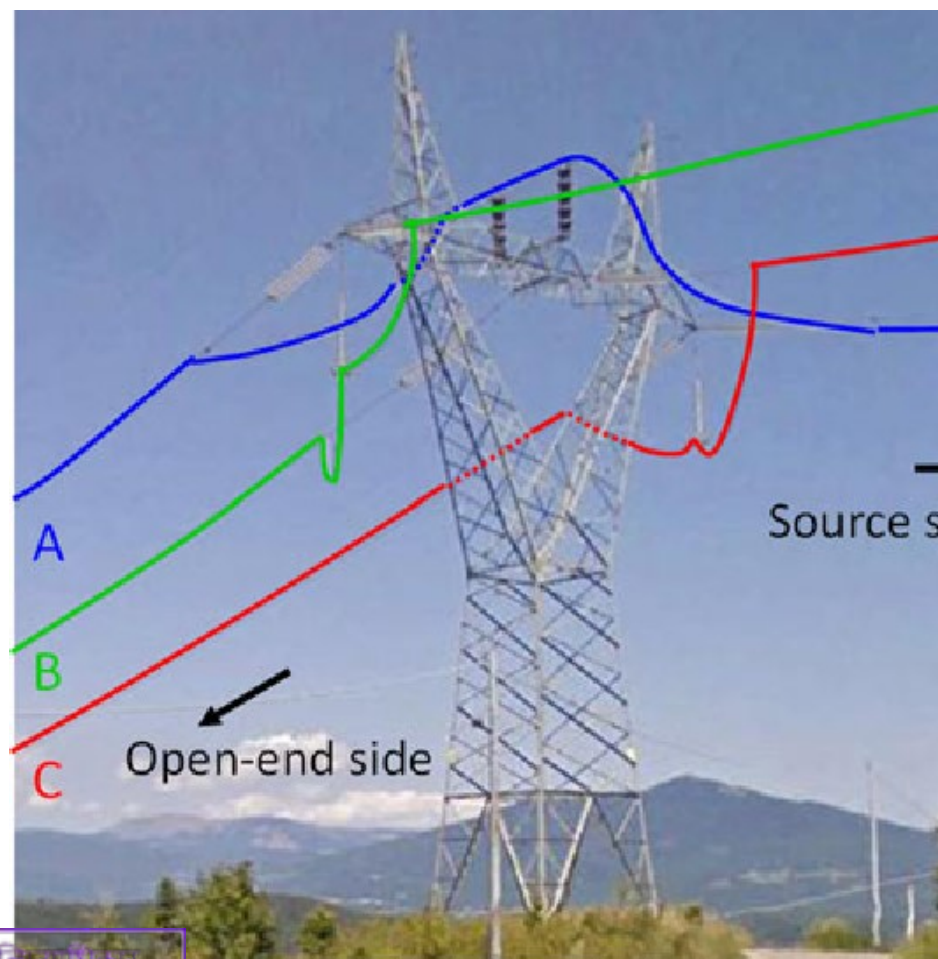
$$L = 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{\sqrt[3]{d \times d \times d}}{r'} \text{ H/m}$$
$$= 2 \times 10^{-7} \log_e \frac{d}{r'} \text{ H/m}$$

For stranded conductor r' will be replaced by D_s (self GMD).



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PROBLEMS

Calculate the loop inductance per km of single phase transmission line comprising of two parallel conductors 1 m apart and 1.25 cm in diameter. Also calculate reactance of transmission line.

Solution:

$$L_{\text{loop}} = 4 * 10^{-7} \ln \frac{d}{r'}$$

$$d = 1 \text{ m}, r = 1.25 \text{ cm}/2$$

$$r' = 0.7788 * r$$

$$L_{\text{loop}} = 2.13 \text{ mH/Km}$$



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In a single phase line as shown below conductor a and a' forms one conductor while b and b' in parallel forms a return path. Calculate the inductance of line per km assuming current is equally shared by two parallel conductors. Conductor diameter is 2 cm.



$$L_{\text{loop}} = 4 * 10^{-7} \ln \frac{D_m}{D_s}$$

both conductors are identical, $D_{SA} = D_{SB} = D_S$

$$D_m = \sqrt[4]{D_{ab} D_{ab'} D_{a'b} D_{a'b'}} \dots \dots p=q=2$$

$$D_m = \sqrt[4]{120 * 140 * 100 * 120} = 119.15 \text{ cm}$$

$$D_s = \sqrt[4]{D_{aa} D_{aa'} D_{a'a} D_{a'a'}}$$

$$D_s = \sqrt[4]{0.7788 * 1 * 20 * 20 * 0.7788 * 1} = 3.94 \text{ cm}$$

$$L_{\text{loop}} = \text{[QR Code]} \text{ Km}$$

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3. A single phase line consisting of bundle of three conductors of 5 m diameter each of outgoing circuit and bundle of two conductors of 10 m diameter each for return path. Find the inductance per km of line.

Solution:

$$L_{\text{loop}} = 4 * 10^{-7} \ln \frac{D_m}{D_s}$$

$$D_m = \sqrt[6]{D_{11}' D_{12}' D_{21}' D_{22}' D_{31}' D_{32}'} \dots \dots p=3, q=2$$

$$= \sqrt[6]{9 * 10.81 * 10.81 * 9 * 15 * 10.81}$$

$$= 10.74 \text{ m}$$

$$D_{SA} = \sqrt[9]{D_{11} D_{12} D_{13} D_{21} D_{22} D_{23} D_{31} D_{32} D_{33}}$$

$$= \sqrt[9]{(0.7788 * 2.5 * 10^{-3}) * 6 * 12 * 6 * (0.7788 * 2.5 * 10^{-3}) * 6 * 12 * 6 * (0.7788 * 2.5 * 10^{-3})}$$

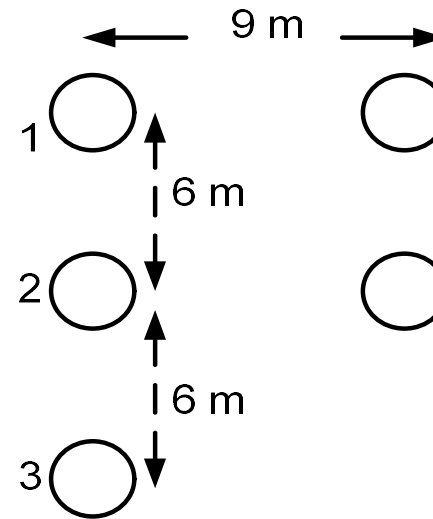
$$= 0.48 \text{ m}$$

$$D_{SB} = \sqrt[4]{D_{1'1'} D_{1'2'} D_{2'1'} D_{2'2'}}$$

$$= \sqrt[4]{(0.7788 * 5 * 10^{-3}) * 6 * 6 * (0.7788 * 5 * 10^{-3})}$$

$$D_s = \dots \dots$$

$$L_{\text{loc}} = 2701 \text{ } \mu\text{H/Km}$$



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CAPACITANCE OF A TRANSMISSION LINE

The capacitance between the conductor is the charge per unit potential.

i.e. $C = \frac{q}{v}$ where q = charge on the line per column

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

Electric potential at any point due to a charge is the work done in bringing unit positive charge from infinity to that point.

Potential at a Charged Single Conductor:

Consider a long straight cylindrical conductor A of radius r metres and having charge of q coulombs per metre of its length.

The electric field intensity at a distance x from

the centre of conductor,

$$E = \frac{q}{2\pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r x} \text{ volts/m}$$

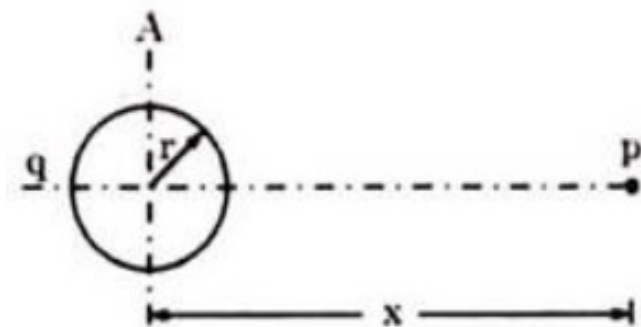
in a medium $\epsilon_r = 1$



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$$E = \frac{q}{2\pi \epsilon_0 x} \text{ volts/m}$$

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potential difference between conductor A and infinity will be equal to work done in bringing a unit positive charge against E from infinity to conductor surface and is given

$$V_A = \int_r^\infty \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0 x} dx = \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \int_r^\infty \frac{dx}{x}$$

Potential at a Charged Conductor in a Group of Charged Conductors:

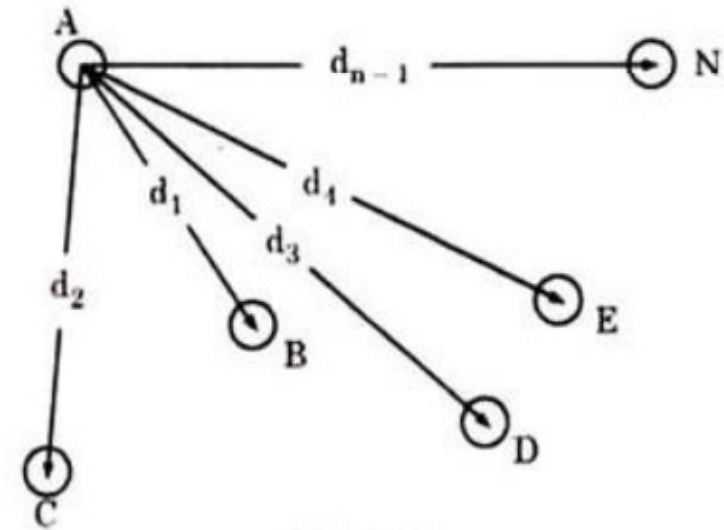
Consider a group of long straight conductors A, B, C, D, E ... N having charges of $q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4, q_5 \dots q_n$ coulombs per length respectively as shown in Fig. below:

Potential of conductor A due to its own charge q_1

$$= \int_r^\infty \frac{q_1}{2\pi\epsilon_0 x} dx \text{ volts}$$

Potential of conductor A due to charge q_2

$$= \int_{d_1}^\infty \frac{q_2}{2\pi\epsilon_0 x} dx \text{ volts}$$



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the charge q_2 extends from infinity up to a distance d_1 from conductor A.



Similarly potential of conductor A, due to charge q_3 of conductor C placed at a distance of d_2 metres from conductor A

$$= \int_{d_2}^{\infty} \frac{q_3}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x} \text{ volts}$$

Potential of conductor A due to charge q_n of conductor N placed at a distance of d_{n-1} metres from conductor A

$$= \int_{d_{n-1}}^{\infty} \frac{q_n}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x} \text{ volts}$$

So overall potential difference between conductor A and infinite

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_{AN} &= \int_r^{\infty} \frac{q_1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_{d_1}^{\infty} \frac{q_2}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_{d_2}^{\infty} \frac{q_3}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x} + \dots + \int_{d_{n-1}}^{\infty} \frac{q_n}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[q_1 (\log_e \infty - \log_e r) + q_2 (\log_e \infty - \log_e d_1) \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + q_3 (\log_e \infty - \log_e d_2) + \dots + q_n (\log_e \infty - \log_e d_{n-1}) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[q_1 \log_e \frac{1}{r} + q_2 \log_e \frac{1}{d_1} + q_3 \log_e \frac{1}{d_2} + \dots + q_n \log_e \frac{1}{d_{n-1}} \right. \\
 &\quad \left. + \log_e \infty (q_1 + q_2 + q_3 + \dots + q_n) \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

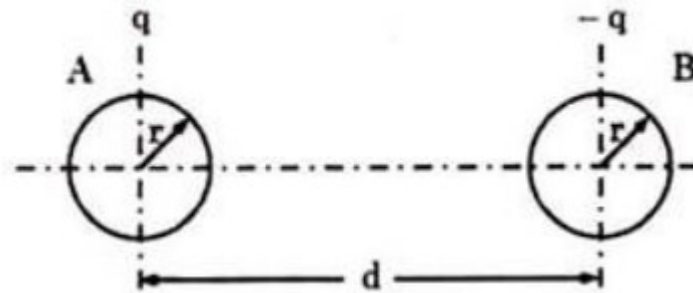


Assuming balanced load i.e. $q_1 + q_2 + q_3 + \dots + q_n = 0$

$$\text{or } V_{AN} = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[q_1 \log_e \frac{1}{r} + q_2 \log_e \frac{1}{d_1} + q_3 \log_e \frac{1}{d_2} + \dots + q_n \log_e \frac{1}{d_{n-1}} \right] \text{ volts}$$

Capacitance of a Single Phase Overhead Line:

Consider a single phase overhead line with two parallel conductors, each of radius r metres placed at a distance of d metres in air as shown in Fig. below. It is assumed that the charge $+q$ coulombs on conductor A and $-q$ coulombs on conductor B are concentrated at the centres of the two conductors which are separated from each other by d metres.



PD between conductor A and neutral 'infinite' plane,

$$V_{AN} = \int_r^\infty \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} + \int_d^\infty \frac{-q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x}$$

$$= \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\log_e \infty + \log_e \frac{1}{r} - \log_e \infty + \log_e \frac{1}{d} \right]$$

$$= \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r}$$



Similarly p d between conductor B and neutral 'infinite' plane,

$$V_{BN} = \int_r^{\infty} \frac{-q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x} + \int_d^{\infty} \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{dx}{x} = \frac{-q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r} \text{ volts}$$

PD between conductor A and B

$$V_{AB} = V_{AN} - V_{BN} = \frac{q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r} - \frac{-q}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r} = \frac{q}{\pi\epsilon_0} \log_e \frac{d}{r} \text{ volts}$$

Capacitance of the single phase line,

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



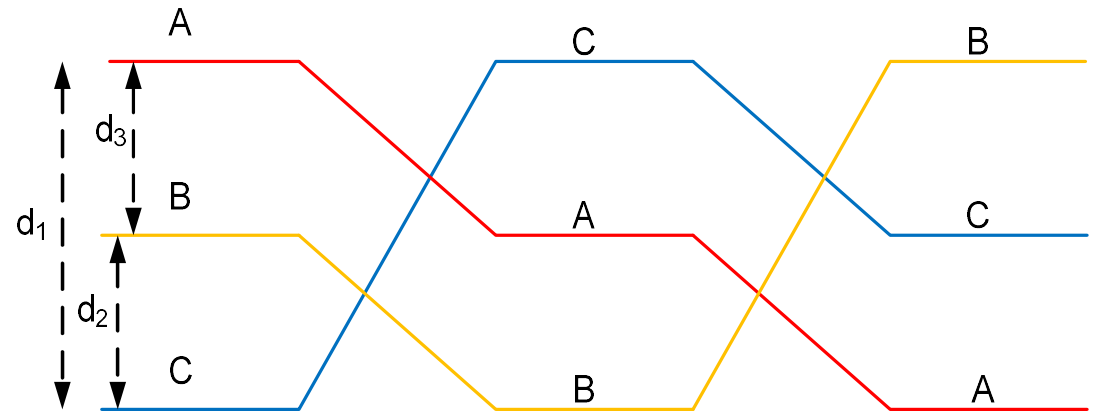
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Capacitance of Three Phase Line

Asymmetrical Spacing

Considering potential of conductor A in 1st section as V_1



$$V_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[q_A \ln \frac{1}{r} + q_B \ln \frac{1}{d_3} + q_C \ln \frac{1}{d_2} \right]$$

Similarly for section II

$$V_2 = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[q_A \ln \frac{1}{r} + q_B \ln \frac{1}{d_1} + q_C \ln \frac{1}{d_3} \right]$$

Similarly for section III

$$V_3 = \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[q_A \ln \frac{1}{r} + q_B \ln \frac{1}{d_2} + q_C \ln \frac{1}{d_1} \right]$$

Therefore, average voltage of conductor A = $(V_1 + V_2 + V_3) / 3$

$$V_A = \frac{1}{3} \left[q_A \ln \frac{1}{r} + q_B \ln \frac{1}{d_3} + q_C \ln \frac{1}{d_2} + q_A \ln \frac{1}{r} + q_B \ln \frac{1}{d_1} + q_C \ln \frac{1}{d_3} + q_A \ln \frac{1}{r} + q_B \ln \frac{1}{d_2} + q_C \ln \frac{1}{d_1} \right]$$



$$V_A = \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \left[3q_A \ln \frac{1}{r} + (q_B + q_C) \ln \frac{1}{d_1 d_2 d_3} \right]$$

Assuming balanced condition

$$q_A + q_B + q_C = 0$$

$$q_B + q_C = -q_A$$

$$V_A = \frac{q_A}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \ln \frac{(d_1 d_2 d_3)^{1/3}}{r}$$

Capacitance per phase

$$C_A = \frac{q_A}{V_A} = \frac{2\pi\epsilon_0}{\ln \frac{(d_1 d_2 d_3)^{1/3}}{r}} \text{ F/m}$$



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Problems:

A three phase 50 Hz, 66kV overhead line conductors are placed in horizontal line. The conductor diameter is 1.25 cm .If the line length is 100 km, calculate:

Capacitance per phase

Charging current per phase

Assume complete transposition of line

$$C = \frac{2\pi\epsilon_0}{\ln \frac{3\sqrt{(d_1 d_2 d_3)}}{r}} \text{ F/m}$$

$$d_1 = 2 \text{ m}, d_2 = 2.5 \text{ m}, d_3 = 4.5 \text{ m}, r = 1.25/2, \epsilon_0 = 8.85 * 10^{-12}$$

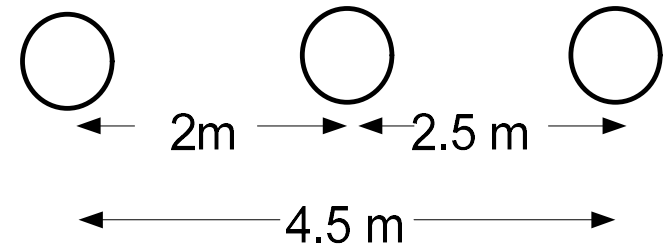
$$C = 9.09 * 10^{-3} \mu\text{F/km}$$

$$\text{100km line } C = 0.909 \mu\text{F}$$

Charging Current per phase $I_c = V/X_c$

Line voltage $V_L = 66\text{kV}$

Therefore phase voltage $V_{ph} = 66/\sqrt{3} = 38.105 \text{ kV}$



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EFFECT OF EARTH ON CAPACITANCE OF TRANSMISSION LINE

The effect of earth on Capacitance of Transmission Line can be conveniently taken into account by the method of images.

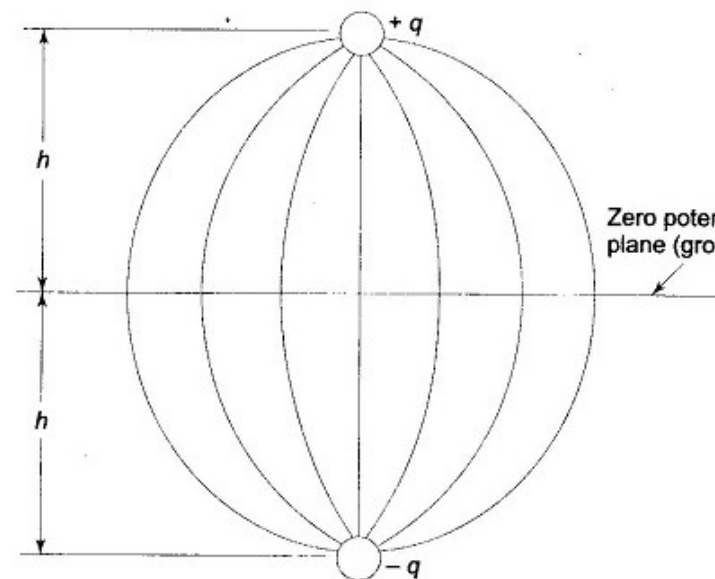
Method of Images:

The earth may be assumed to be a perfectly conducting horizontal sheet of infinite extent which acts like an equipotential surface.

The electric field of two long, parallel conductors charged $+q$ and $-q$ per unit is such that it has a zero potential plane midway between the conductors.

If a conducting sheet of infinite dimensions is placed at the same level as the zero potential plane, the electric field remains undisturbed above the sheet.

Further, if the conductor carrying charge $-q$ is now removed, the electric field above the conducting sheet stays intact, while that below it vanishes.



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ing 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.

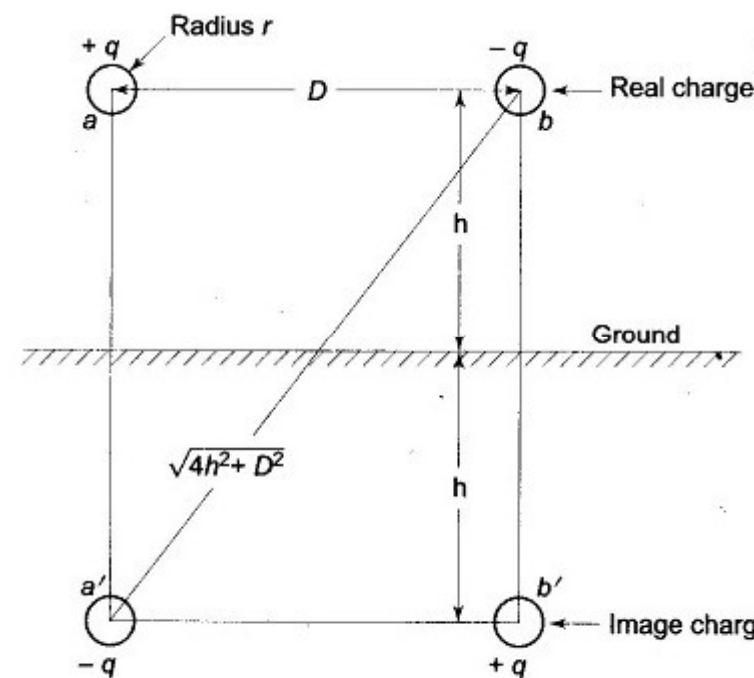
This method of creating the same electric field as in the presence of earth is known as the **method of images**.

Capacitance of a Single-Phase Line:

Consider a single-phase line shown in Fig. below. The equation for the voltage drop V_{ab} as determined by the two charged conductors a and b , and their images a' and b' can be written as follows:

$$V_{ab} = \frac{1}{2\pi k} \left[q_a \ln \frac{D}{r} + q_b \ln \frac{r}{D} + q_{a'} \ln \frac{(4h^2 + D^2)^{1/2}}{2h} + q_{b'} \ln \frac{2h}{(4h^2 + D^2)^{1/2}} \right]$$

$$V_{ab} = \frac{q}{\pi k} \ln \frac{2hD}{r(4h^2 + D^2)^{1/2}}$$



It is observed from the above equation that the presence of earth modifies the radius r to $(D^2/4h^2)^{1/2}$. For h large compared to D (this is the case normally), the effect of earth on line capacitance is of negligible order.

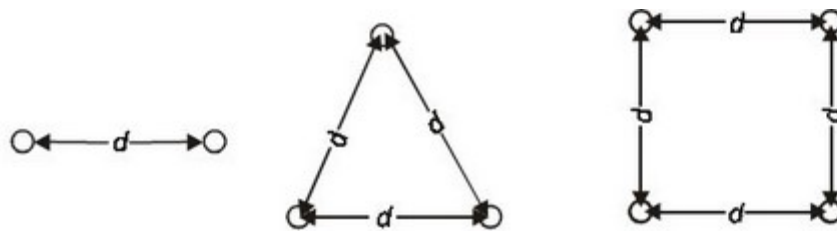
— ln — F/m line-to-line —



$$C_n = \frac{2\pi k}{\ln \frac{D}{r(1 + (D^2/4h^2))^{1/2}}} \text{ F/m to neutral}$$

BUNDLED CONDUCTORS

It is economical to transmit large amount of power over long distances by EHV lines and EHV lines are usually constructed with bundled conductors. Bundled conductors increase the self GMD and line inductance is reduced considerably which increase the power capability of the transmission line. Bundled conductors also reduce the corona loss, surge impedance and radio interference. The bundle usually comprises two, three or four conductors as shown in Fig.



Geometric mean radius of bundled conductors can be obtained in the same manner as that of stranded conductors.

For a two conductor arrangement,

$$D_S = (r' \cdot d)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

For a three conductor arrangement

$$D_S = (r' \cdot d^2)^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

For a four conductor (quadruplex) arrangement

$$D_S = (r' \cdot d \cdot d \cdot \sqrt{2}d)^{\frac{1}{4}} = (r' \sqrt{2} d^3)^{\frac{1}{4}}$$

where r' is the fictitious radius of each subconductor in the bundled.



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 luminous glow, along with the hissing sound accompanied by the liberation of ozone.

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 :

Atmosphere. As corona is formed due to ionisation 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.

Conductor size. The corona effect depends upon the shape and conditions of the conductors. The rough and irregular surface gives rise to more corona because unevenness of the surface decreases the value of breakdown voltage. Thus a conductor has irregular surface and hence gives rise to more corona than a solid conductor.



i) *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 electrostatic stresses at the conductor surface, thus avoiding corona formation.

ii) *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.

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

Due to corona formation, the air surrounding the conductor becomes conducting and hence virtual diameter of the conductor is increased. The increased diameter reduces the electrostatic stresses between the conductors.

ii) Corona reduces the effects of transients produced by surges.

Disadvantages

Corona is accompanied by a loss of energy. This affects the transmission efficiency of the line.

iii) Corona is accompanied by a loss of energy. This affects the transmission efficiency of the line.

iv) Corona is accompanied by a loss of energy. This affects the transmission efficiency of the line.

