

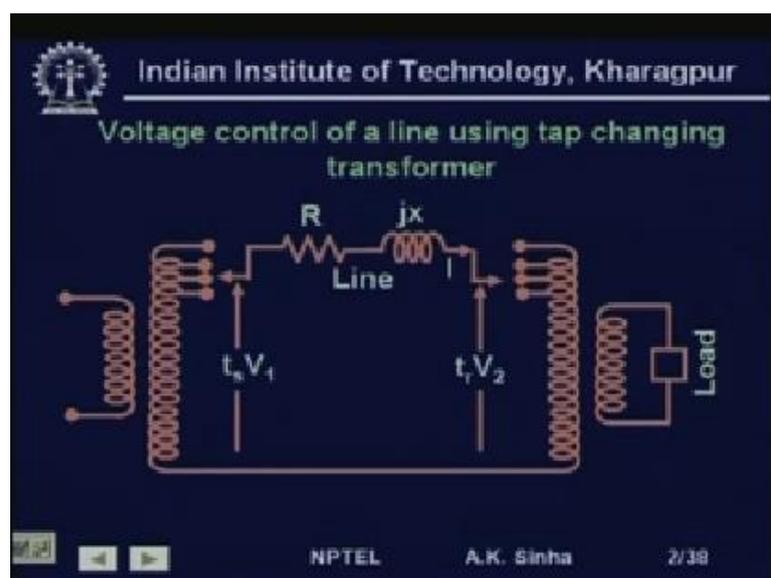
Power System Analysis
Prof. A. K. Sinha
Department of Electrical Engineering
Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Lecture - 10
Transmission Line Steady State Operation
Voltage Control (Contd.)

Welcome to lesson 10, on Power System Analysis. In this lesson, we will be continuing from what we did in lesson 9. That is Transmission Line Steady State Operation. In lesson 9, we talked about the power flow equations on transmission line, under steady state operating conditions. We also discussed how we can compensate for the reactive power flow on the line. And thereby, maintain the voltage profile on the line.

We discussed there static compensation equipment. We also discussed about the rotating compensation equipment. And this lesson, we will talk about the transformer taps and the combination of these equipments. We will also discussed, something about the regulating transformers, how we can control the voltage and power flow on the line, using these regulating transformers. And after this, we will try to solve some problems, which will clarify most of the ideas, that we discussed in lesson 9. And what we will be discussing in lesson 10, today.

(Refer Slide Time: 02:23)



So, we will start with voltage control of a line using tap changing transformers. Here, we have this transmission line, given by its simple short line model of $R + jx$. We have neglected the shunt capacitance for the line in this model. And we have a step up transformer, at the sending end. And we are assuming that we have a generator on this side and we have a step up transformer here.

On this transformer, we have a number of taps on the high voltage side. There by, changing the taps we change the turn's ratio and therefore, the output voltage of the transformer or the voltage of the transformer on the high voltage side. Then, on the receiving end, we again have a step down transformer, where we have again taps on the high voltage side. And by changing the tap on this side, we can get the change in voltage at a load.

Therefore, for any given voltage at the supply end, we can by managing the taps on the two sides of the transmission line. That is on the two transformers on the two sides of the transmission line, we can control the voltage to the load. Now, these taps are what we call as off nominal tap. That is, if it is placed in a position, where it is the nominal turns ratio of the transformer.

Suppose, this is a 11 kV to 220 kV transformer. Then, when we are putting 11 kV on this side and the low voltage side and if we put the tap at the nominal position, then we will get 220 kV on the high voltage side. And if we place the tap on the upper side of the nominal tap or on the lower side of the nominal tap, we will get different voltage. If you put it on the upper side, we will get higher voltages, if we put it on the lower side, we will get lower voltages.

Normally, the transformers may have taps, which can be in terms of variation of plus minus 5 to 10 percent, with variation at each tap of the order of 2 percent or 2.5 percent or so. Similar thing, we have on the low voltage side. Here, also we can place the taps at the nominal position and then we will get the nominal voltage ratios. If we place the tap above or below, then we will get different voltage is like, if we put it above the nominal position.

Then, the load voltage is going to be somewhat lower than, what it will be, if it is placed at the nominal position. Because, high voltage side number of turns will increase, where as the low voltage side the number of turns being same, the ratio will get reduced. So,

similarly if we put it on the lower side of the nominal, we will get somewhat higher voltage on the low voltage side.

Now, normally these taps are always placed on the high voltage winding. One reason is, the high voltage winding will be carrying much less current. And therefore, when we are changing this tap especially, if we have on load tap changing transformer, that is OLTC. Then, the current will be much lower here. Also it has been found, that if we place the taps on the high voltage side, we get a much better voltage control, then if we place it on the low voltage side.

So, here, I am showing in this diagram, that we have a voltage t_s into V_1 , at the sending end, where t_s is the off nominal tap ratio. It can be in terms of say, if it is at 100, 10 percent, 10 percent above the normal, then the value of t_s is 1.1. If it is say at 5 percent below the nominal, then the value of t_s will be 0.95. Similarly, on the receiving end side, we have the off nominal tap ratio as t_r . And therefore, the voltage here will be t_r into V_2 .

(Refer Slide Time: 07:30)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

$$t_s V_1 = t_r V_2 + IZ = t_r V_2 + IR \cos \theta + IX \sin \theta$$

since, $I \cos \theta = \frac{P}{t_r V_2}$ and $I \sin \theta = \frac{Q}{t_r V_2}$, we get

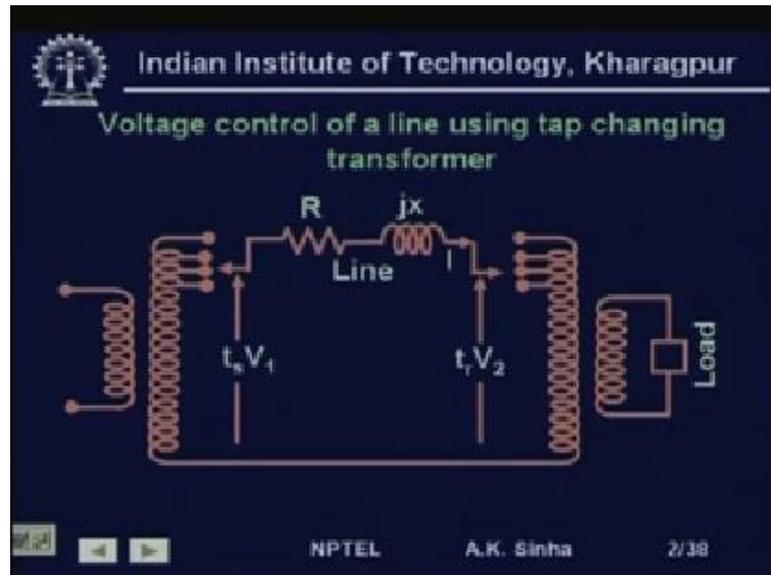
$$t_s V_1 = t_r V_2 + \frac{RP}{t_r V_2} + \frac{XQ}{t_r V_2}$$

Normally $t_s t_r = 1.0$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 3/38

Now, writing the circuit equation for this. We have t_s into V_1 .

(Refer Slide Time: 07:35)



That is, if we go here t_s into V_1 will be equal to t_r into V_2 plus the drop, which takes place here. If the current flowing in this line is I , then it will be I into Z , Z is equal to R plus jX .

(Refer Slide Time: 07:51)

The slide shows the following equations and text:

$$t_s V_1 = t_r V_2 + IZ = t_r V_2 + IR \cos \theta + IX \sin \theta$$

since, $I \cos \theta = \frac{P}{t_r V_2}$ and $I \sin \theta = \frac{Q}{t_r V_2}$, we get

$$t_s V_1 = t_r V_2 + \frac{RP}{t_r V_2} + \frac{XQ}{t_r V_2}$$

Normally $t_s t_r = 1.0$

Therefore, we have t_s into V_1 is equal to t_r , V_2 plus I into Z . Now, this will be approximately equal to t_r into V_2 plus I into Z is I into R plus jX , which we can write as approximately equal to I into $R \cos \theta$ plus I into $X \sin \theta$. Now, we also know that, $I \cos \theta$ will be equal to P by t_r into V_2 , because t_r into V_2 is the voltage. So,

$V_1 I \cos \theta$ is equal to the real power P , therefore $I \cos \theta$ is equal to $\frac{P}{V_1}$.

And similarly, we have the reactive power Q is equal to $V_2 I \sin \theta$. This is the voltage into $I \sin \theta$ is equal to Q . So, $I \sin \theta$ is equal to $\frac{Q}{V_2}$. Therefore, substituting these we will get $t_s V_1$ is equal to $t_r V_2 + I R$ into $I \cos \theta$. So, $I R \cos \theta$ we are replacing by $\frac{P}{V_1}$. So, $I R \cos \theta = \frac{P}{V_1}$. So, $I R = \frac{P}{V_1 \cos \theta}$. So, $X I \sin \theta = \frac{Q}{V_2}$. This is $I \sin \theta$, we have substituted here. Normally, what we do is, we want to keep t_s into t_r as equal to 1. Because, this is what will make the voltages proper on both sides, so the product $t_s t_r$ is generally kept as 1.

(Refer Slide Time: 09:39)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

$$t_s = \frac{1}{V_1} \left[\frac{V_2}{t_s} + \frac{t_s (RP + XQ)}{V_2} \right]$$

or $t_s^2 = \frac{V_2}{V_1} + \frac{t_s^2 (RP + XQ)}{V_2}$

or $t_s^2 \left[1 - \frac{RP + XQ}{V_1 V_2} \right] = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 4/38

Then, if we do that, then we can write t_r is equal to $\frac{1}{t_s}$. And therefore, substituting that, we get t_s is equal to $\frac{V_2}{V_1}$. That is $V_1 t_s$ is equal to V_2 by t .

(Refer Slide Time: 10:02)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

$$t_s V_1 = t_r V_2 + IZ = t_r V_2 + IR \cos \theta + IX \sin \theta$$

since, $I \cos \theta = \frac{P}{t_r V_2}$ and $I \sin \theta = \frac{Q}{t_r V_2}$, we get

$$t_s V_1 = t_r V_2 + \frac{RP}{t_r V_2} + \frac{XQ}{t_r V_2}$$

Normally $t_s t_r = 1.0$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 3/38

Here t_r into V_2 . So, t_r into V_2 , I am writing t_r as 1 by t_s .

(Refer Slide Time: 10:10)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

$$t_s = \frac{1}{V_1} \left[\frac{V_2}{t_s} + \frac{t_s (RP + XQ)}{V_2} \right]$$

or $t_s^2 = \frac{V_2}{V_1} + \frac{t_s^2 (RP + XQ)}{V_2}$

or $t_s^2 \left[1 - \frac{RP + XQ}{V_1 V_2} \right] = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 4/38

So, this becomes V_2 by t_s plus t_s into $R P$ plus $X Q$ by V_2 , which if we multiply the both sides by t_s . Then, we get t_s squared is equal to V_2 by V_1 , because this t_s will cancel out plus t_s squared, because it is multiplied by t_s . So, t_s squared $R P$ plus $X Q$ divided by V_2 , I am sorry, this should be V_1, V_2 . And therefore, if we take this taking on this side, then we will get t_s squared one minus $R P$ plus $X Q$ divide by V_1, V_2 .

Because, this here is V_1 , V_2 , so $1 - R/P + X/Q$, V_1 divided by V_2 is equal to this term V_2 by V_1 .

(Refer Slide Time: 11:13)

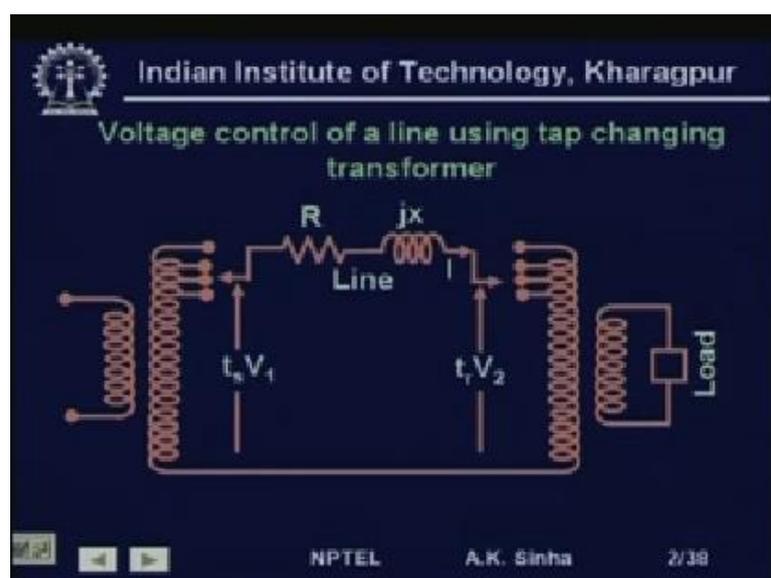
Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

For complete compensation $V_1 = V_2$ and t_s can be found and as $t_r = 1 / t_s$; t_r can also be found

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 5/38

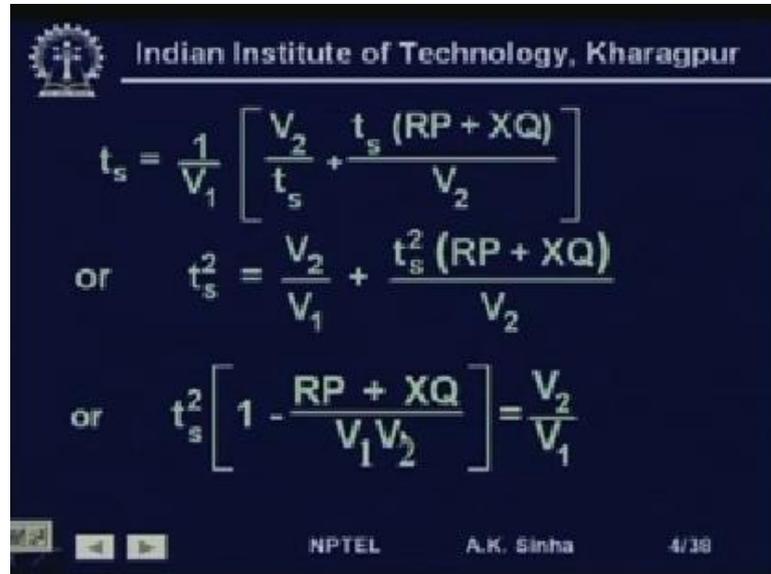
So, from this, we can find out the value of t_s for a complete compensation. That is, when V_1 is equal to V_2 . Mind it, we are writing all these values V_1 , V_2 as per unit values. So, if we want both of them to be 1 per unit, then we can write this as V_1 is equal to V_2 or both side voltages, becoming equal.

(Refer Slide Time: 11:45)



In this case here and here, both the voltages on the transmission line, two ends being equal.

(Refer Slide Time: 11:50)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

$$t_s = \frac{1}{V_1} \left[\frac{V_2}{t_s} + \frac{t_s (RP + XQ)}{V_2} \right]$$

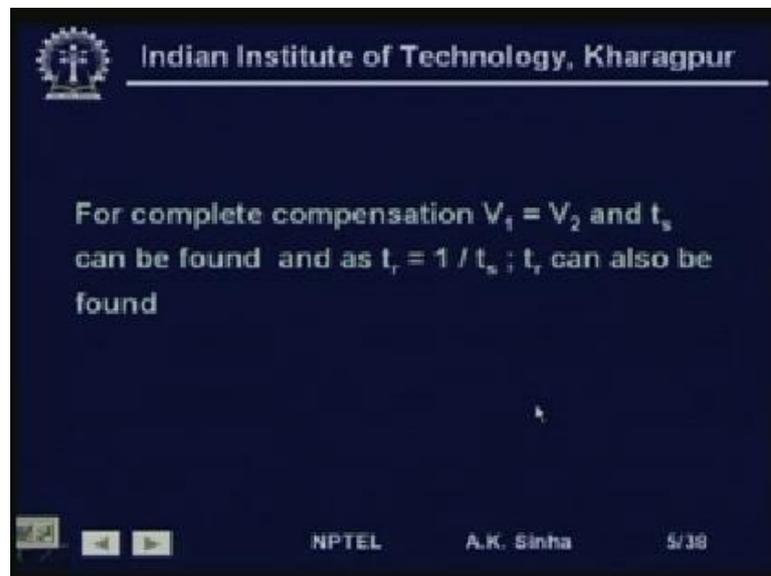
or $t_s^2 = \frac{V_2}{V_1} + \frac{t_s^2 (RP + XQ)}{V_2}$

or $t_s^2 \left[1 - \frac{RP + XQ}{V_1 V_2} \right] = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 4/38

That is the line is fully compensated.

(Refer Slide Time: 11:52)



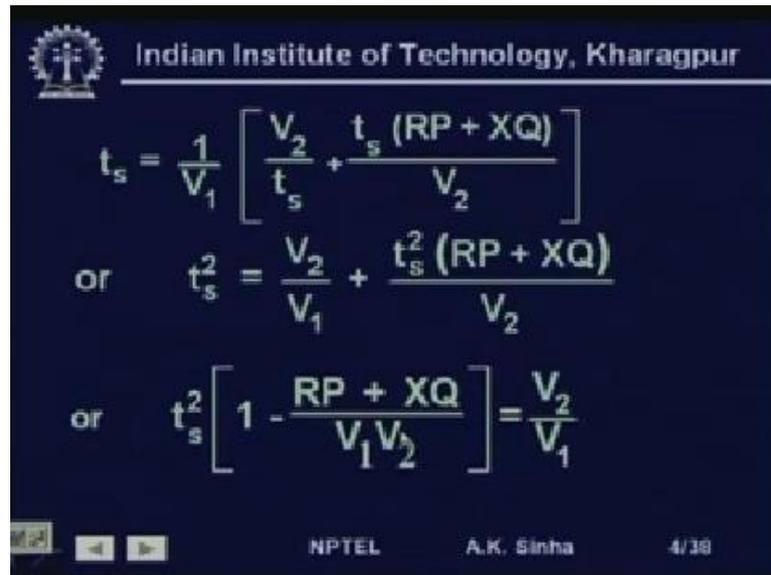
Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

For complete compensation $V_1 = V_2$ and t_s can be found and as $t_r = 1 / t_s$; t_r can also be found

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 5/38

Then, V_1 is equal to V_2 and t_s can be found out from this relationship.

(Refer Slide Time: 12:00)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

$$t_s = \frac{1}{V_1} \left[\frac{V_2}{t_s} + \frac{t_s (RP + XQ)}{V_2} \right]$$

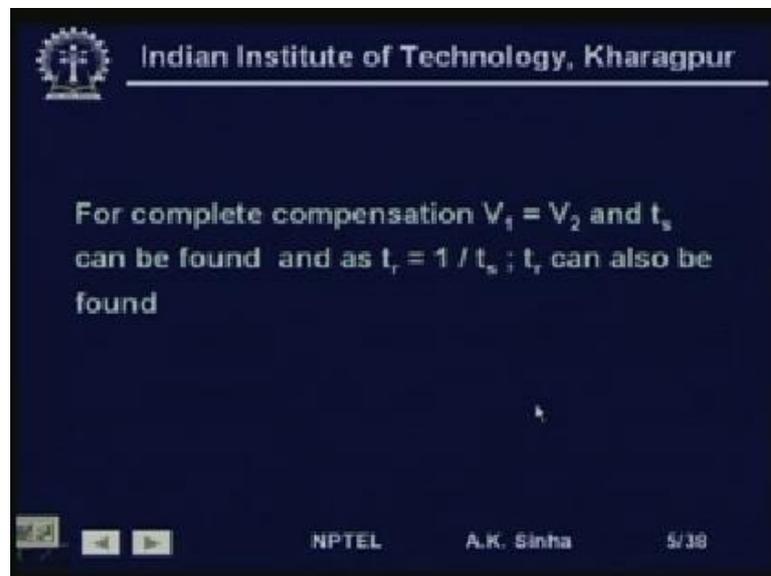
or $t_s^2 = \frac{V_2}{V_1} + \frac{t_s^2 (RP + XQ)}{V_2}$

or $t_s^2 \left[1 - \frac{RP + XQ}{V_1 V_2} \right] = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 4/38

From here, because V_2 by V_1 will be equal to 1 and solving this, we will get the value of t_s .

(Refer Slide Time: 12:07)



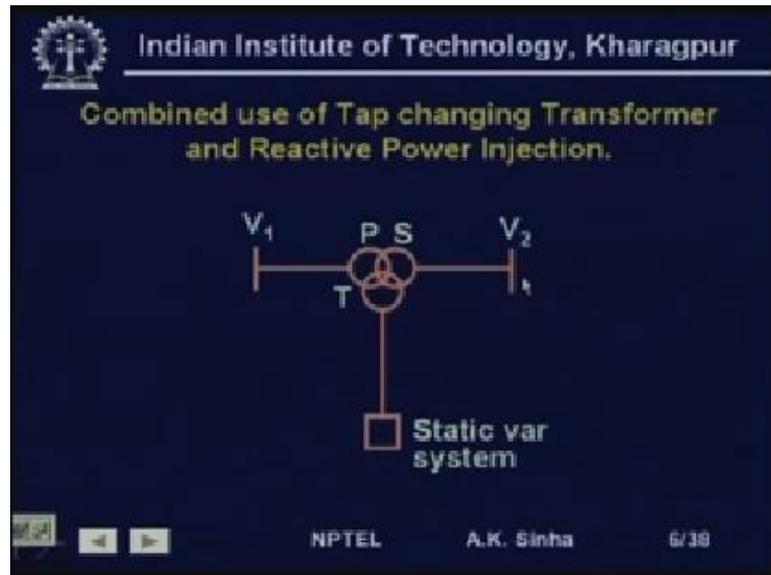
Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

For complete compensation $V_1 = V_2$ and t_s can be found and as $t_r = 1 / t_s$; t_r can also be found

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 5/38

Once, we get t_s we know t_r is equal to $1 / t_s$. So, we can also solve for t_r . In fact, for any ratio of V_1, V_2 we solve this for t_s and then t_r .

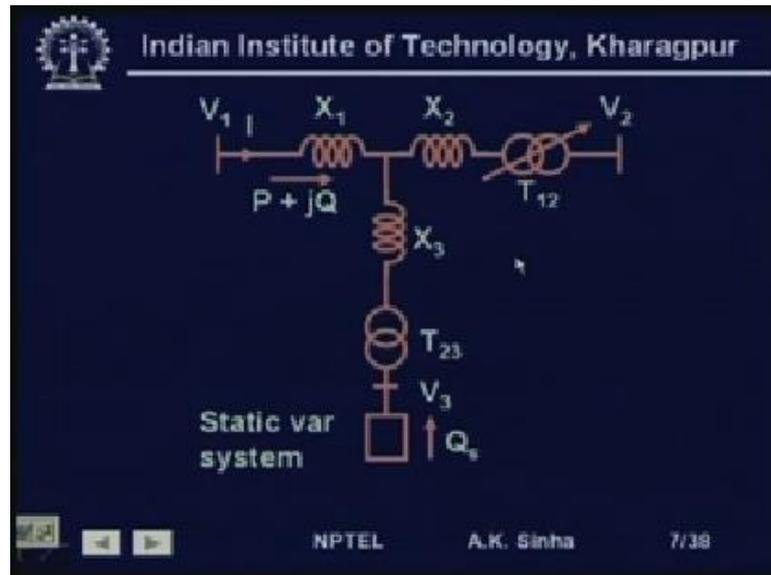
(Refer Slide Time: 12:23)



Now, sometimes, we would like to use a combination of the transformer taps as well as the reactive power injection devices. Such as, static power systems or static compensation, any static compensation device, like may be stat com, another devices. So, here I am showing this, there is between these two buses voltage V_1 is at a sending end and voltage V_2 as at the receiving end. We have a transmission line and may be a three winding transformer, which is connected near the receiving end.

And the tertiary of the transformer, we connect the static var system or static compensation device. The primary side we have this transmission line, connected to the sending end. And secondary side, we have the load connected. That is, it is the receiving end bus.

(Refer Slide Time: 13:31)



The whole diagram an electrical circuit can be represented by this, where, we have V_1 the sending end, the current I is following through this. X_1 is the reactance of the transmission line, we have neglected the resistance. So, it is the reactance of the transmission line, plus the reactance of the primary side of the transformer winding. X_2 is the reactance of the secondary side of the transformer winding. And X_3 is the reactance of the tertiary winding.

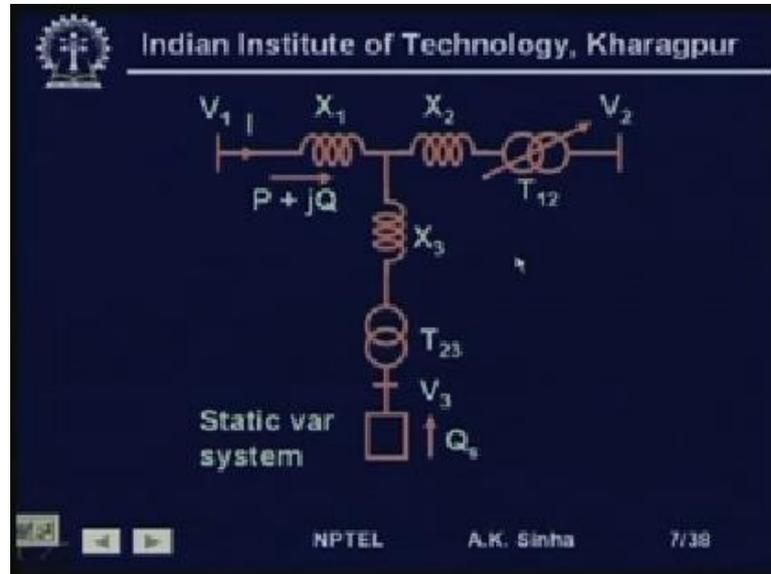
And we have this as the transformation ratio the transformer is shown here. Here, we have the transformation ratio. And we have a variable tap. That is T_{12} is showing a variable tap between primary and secondary. So, by changing this T_{12} , we are basically changing the tap on the secondary side of this. Similarly, we have here on the tertiary; we have connected the static var system or the stat com, which is a static compensation device.

Normally, all these compensating devices, we connect to the tertiary. Also, it is always connected to the low voltage side. For simple reason, because developing or making these devices with low voltage is much cheaper compare to making these devices for very high voltage system. So, therefore, we normally connect these devices at the low voltage end.

So, this is connected on the tertiary. Now, if you see if $P + jQ$ is the power, which is coming from the sending end. We will have at the receiving end, the power $P_R + jQ$

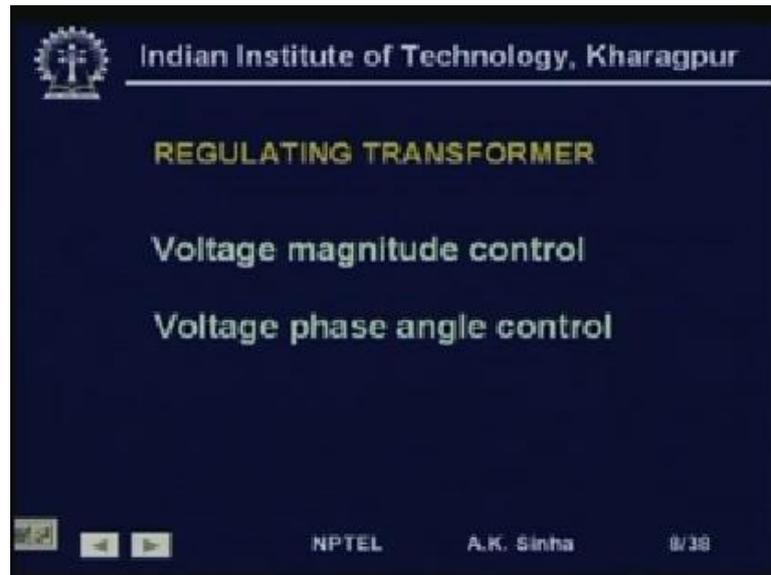
R. And if we want that the voltage of the system to be maintained, then what we need is to transfer less amount of reactive power from here.

(Refer Slide Time: 15:57)



Less amount of reactive power from here, because we know that, if we transfer less amount of reactive power, the voltage at this point will be much higher or much nearer to the voltage here. And therefore, by trying to inject the amount of reactive power, through this compensating device, we can reduce or make this reactive power flow on the line and in the primary of the transformer to very low value or even 0. Sometimes, we can even make it leading and thereby, we can control the voltage here. The other option is by changing that transformer taps; we can again regulate the voltage at V_2 . So, a combination of these two, will give me a much larger variation over a larger load variation in the system.

(Refer Slide Time: 16:59)

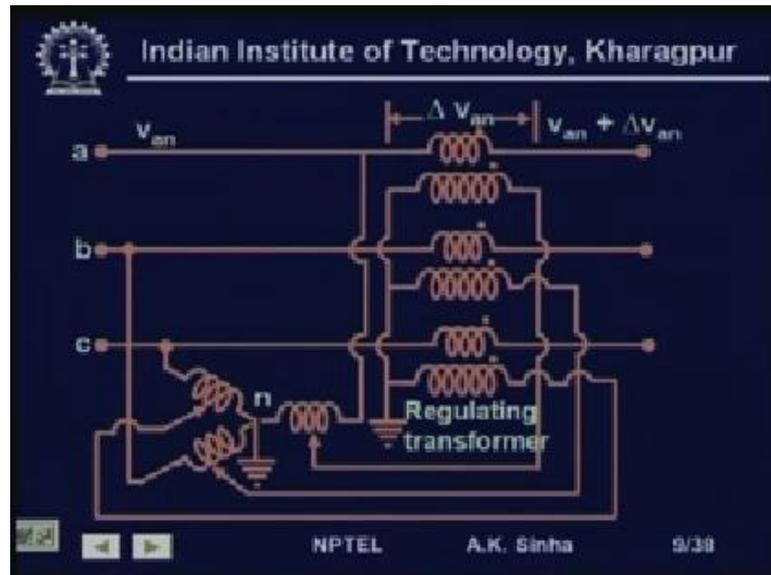


Now, many times we use regulating transformers. Basically, these transformers are used for injecting voltage into the transmission system. If we inject the voltage in the same phase as the voltage on the transmission system, then what we will be doing is, either we can add the voltage. And therefore, boost the voltage or if we want we can inject the voltage in opposite phase. Then, we will be reducing the voltage or bucking the voltage.

So, we can have a buck transformer or a boost transformer. Normally, in power system, we will be using boost transformers, most of the time, because with the increase in load, it is always the voltage which drops down. So, we try to inject voltage in phase with the voltage on the transmission line. By that way, we can control or the magnitude of the voltage.

If we inject the voltage, in not in phase, with the transmission line voltage, but in quadrature or at some different angle, then we can be making a phase shift of the voltage as well. Because, the final voltage which is coming at the receiving end will be the some of these two voltages, the sending end voltage plus the voltage, which we are adding by this transformer. And since to these two are phases and they are not in same phase. We will get the resultant voltage having some phase difference, from the voltage at the sending end or at the primary side of these transformers.

(Refer Slide Time: 18:57)

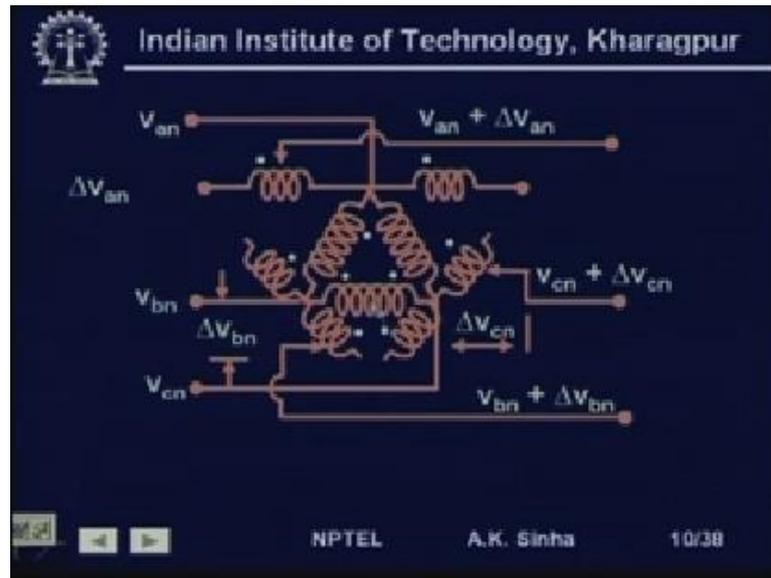


So, here, this is voltage magnitude controller or regulating transformer, which controls the voltage magnitude only. If you look at this, here we have transformer winding, which is a three phase winding, connected to the three phase transformer. And we have taps on this winding. Now, based on all these three taps on the three phases are all ganged. So, they will move together.

So, what we get is, this voltage, whatever voltage we want here, between these two points, will get injected here. So, this voltage can be added to the transmission line voltage in the same phase here. This voltage is in the same phase as this voltage. And therefore, the voltage here is going to be the voltage at this point plus this voltage that we have added.

Because, it is in phase, the same thing happens in all the three phases. And therefore, the secondary voltage gets increased by the amount of the voltage that we have injected. This is the way, how we use the regulating transformer for increasing the magnitude of the voltage at the secondary of this regulating transformer.

(Refer Slide Time: 20:32)

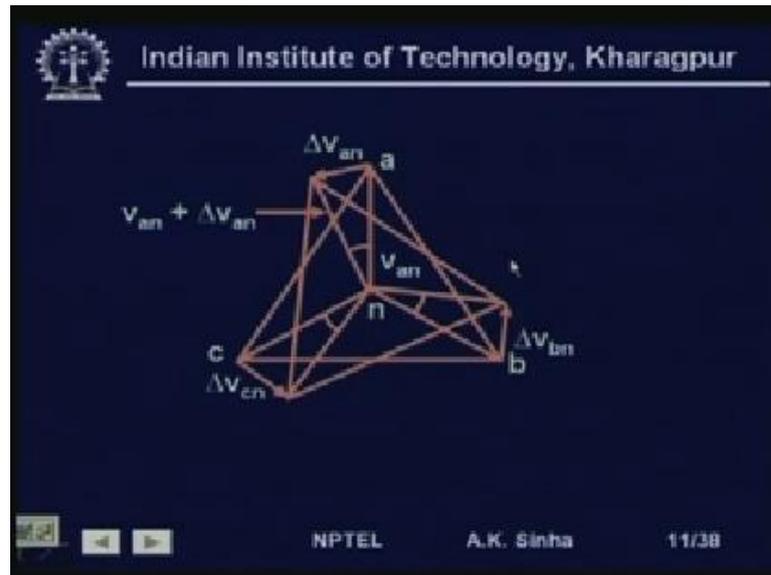


Now, the same thing, if we do by injecting voltage, which is not in phase, but in quadrature. If you look at this transformer, we have a transformer here, like this, which is connected to the primary three phases a n, b n and c n are connected at these points. We have another winding, which has half on this side and half on this side. That is the midpoints is connected to this point a and this winding is having the phase of b c.

Similarly, we have a winding here, which is connected at the midpoint to b and this has a phase which is same as a c. Similarly, we have another winding, which is connected at the midpoint to phase c and this has a phase which is same as a b. In this way, what we do is, if you look at the phase a voltage, phase a voltage will be like this. Phase a voltage will be like this, phase b voltage will be like this and phase c voltage, will be like this.

Therefore, we have seen, we are adding or subtracting the voltage or adding any voltage, which is in quadrature, which phase a in this side or in this side. So, if we see, in this present position, the three taps are place like this. Then, we have a voltage V_a on which, we have this much voltage added, that is ΔV_{an} is added here. Similarly, we have voltage b plus ΔV_{bn} is added here. We have voltage c plus ΔV_{cn} is added here.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:36)



And if we see the phasor, it comes out to be V_a is the voltage plus ΔV_{an} is added here. V_b is the voltage plus ΔV_{bn} is added here. V_c is the voltage and ΔV_{cn} is added here. So, now the new voltage a' , b' and c' will be these points. And we see that, though there may not be large change in the magnitude, the angle of these phases has change. That is a' is now leading a by this angle θ .

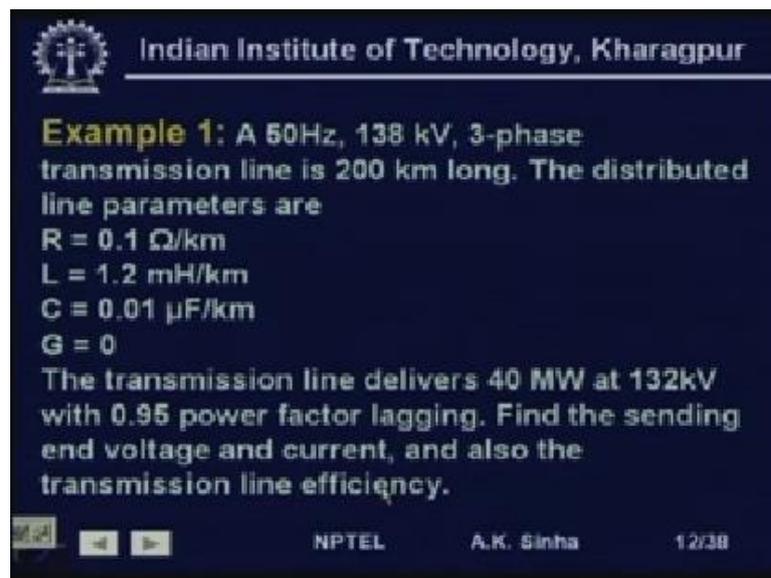
Similarly, c' is leading c by this angle θ and b' is leading b by this angle θ . So, this is, what we call as a phase regulating transformer or phase shifting transformer, this is how it works. And we can change the phase angle of the voltage and what is the consequence of changing this phase angle. As we have seen earlier, the real power P is given by $V_s, V_r, X \sin \delta$.

Since, V_s, V_r are regulated to be very near to 1 per unit and X of the transmission line is a constant, therefore to change the real power of flow on the transmission. The only thing that we can do is, change this angle power angle δ , which is the angle by which V_s leads V_r . And therefore, if you see here by changing this angle, we can change the power flow.

So, by changing the angle of at V_r or at V_s , we can change the power flow on a transmission line and phase shifting transformers are used for this purpose. Of course, nowadays with power electronic devices coming into picture, we have new kinds of controllers, which we use for power system. Transmission line, voltage and power

control. These devices are called flexible ac transmission system devices or facts devices, because they allow you the flexibility of controlling the power flow and the voltage. And thereby, the reactive powers flow on the transmission line. So, both real and reactive power flow in a transmission line can be controlled using these facts devices. Now, we will take up some simple examples, on transmission line operation to understand the concepts. That we learnt in lesson 9 and 10.

(Refer Slide Time: 25:52)

The image shows a slide from an NPTEL presentation. At the top left is the IIT Kharagpur logo. The text on the slide reads: "Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur", "Example 1: A 50Hz, 138 kV, 3-phase transmission line is 200 km long. The distributed line parameters are R = 0.1 Ω/km, L = 1.2 mH/km, C = 0.01 μF/km, G = 0. The transmission line delivers 40 MW at 132kV with 0.95 power factor lagging. Find the sending end voltage and current, and also the transmission line efficiency." At the bottom, it says "NPTEL A.K. Sinha 12/38".

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Example 1: A 50Hz, 138 kV, 3-phase transmission line is 200 km long. The distributed line parameters are

$R = 0.1 \Omega/\text{km}$
 $L = 1.2 \text{ mH}/\text{km}$
 $C = 0.01 \mu\text{F}/\text{km}$
 $G = 0$

The transmission line delivers 40 MW at 132kV with 0.95 power factor lagging. Find the sending end voltage and current, and also the transmission line efficiency.

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 12/38

So, first example is a 50 hertz, 132 kV, 138 kV 3 phase transmission line is 200 kilometer long. The distributed line parameters are R is equal to 0.1 ohm per kilometer, L that is the inductance is equal to 1.2 milli Henry per kilometer. The capacitance c is 0.01 micro farad per kilometer the conductance is 0. The transmission line delivers 40 Mega Watt at 132 kV with 0.95 power factor lagging. Find the sending end voltage and current and also the transmission line efficiency.

So, what we are given is the transmission line parameters, it is resistance set in, it is inductance and capacitance per kilometer length. And we have the line length given; we also know that the transmission line has to deliver 40 Mega Watt at 132 kV. Means, the receiving end voltage is 132 kV. And the receiving end power is 40 Mega Watt at 0.95 power factor lagging. We have to find the sending end voltage, that is V_s and current that is I_s and also the transmission line efficiency. So, let us see how we work it out.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:36)

The slide is a dark blue presentation slide from the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur. It contains the following text:

Solution: For the given values of R, L and C, we have for $\omega = 2\pi \cdot 50$,

$$z = 0.1 + j0.377 = 0.39 \angle 75.14^\circ \Omega/\text{km}$$
$$y = j3.14 \times 10^{-6} = 3.14 \times 10^{-6} \angle 90^\circ \text{ mho/km}$$

From the above values,

$$Z_c = \sqrt{z/y} = 352.42 \angle -7.43^\circ \Omega$$
$$\gamma l = 200 \sqrt{zy} = 0.2213 \angle 82.57^\circ = 0.0286 + j0.2194$$

At the bottom of the slide, there are navigation icons (back, forward, search), the text 'NPTEL', the name 'A.K. Sinha', and the slide number '13/38'.

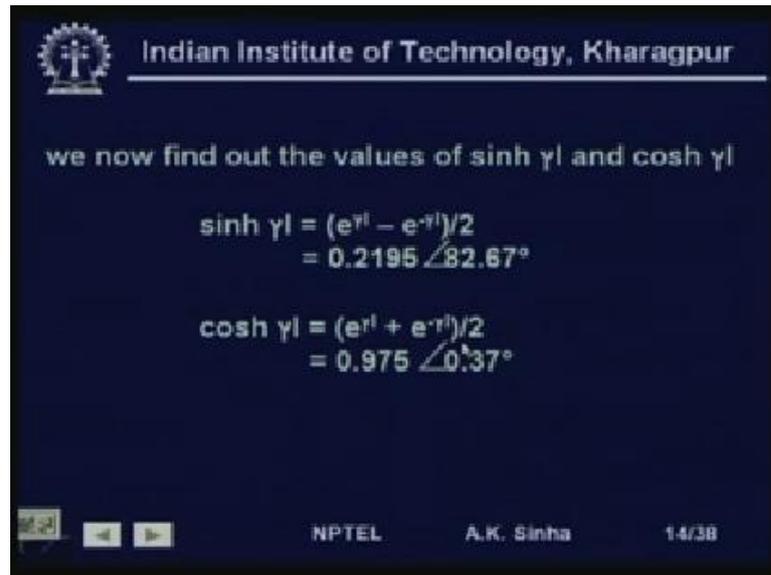
Now, for the given values of R L and C, we have ω . That is the equal to twice pi into f f is 50 hertz, therefore, we can calculate the series impedance per unit length or per kilometer as 0.1, which is the resistance plus j, 0.377. That is twice pi f into L. That is 1.2 milli henry, per kilometers. So, this comes out to be 0.1 plus j 0.377, which is equal to 0.39 with an angle of 75.14 in ohms, per kilometer.

Similarly, the shunt admittance can be computed as j ω c, which comes out to be twice pi into 50 in to 0.1 microfarad per kilometer. So, when we do that multiplication, this is j ω into c and then this comes out to be j 3.14 into 10 to power minus 6. This is equal to 3.14 into 10 to power minus 6, with an angle of 90 degrees; the unit will be mho per kilometer.

Now, using this z and y, we can calculate the characteristic impedance Z_c . Z_c is given by square root of z by y. So, substituting a value of z and y, we get Z_c is equal to 352.42 with an angle of minus 7.43, this will have unit is of ohm, because the length per kilometer, will cancel out and this, will have the unit ohm. Similarly, we can calculate γl , this is l is 200 and γ is given by root z into y.

So, substituting the values, we get this as equal to 0.2213 with an angle of 82.75 degrees, which can be written in rectangular coordinates as 0.0286 plus j 0.2194. So, now that we have calculated γl and Z_c , we can find out also the values of sin hyperbolic γl and cos.

(Refer Slide Time: 30:15)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

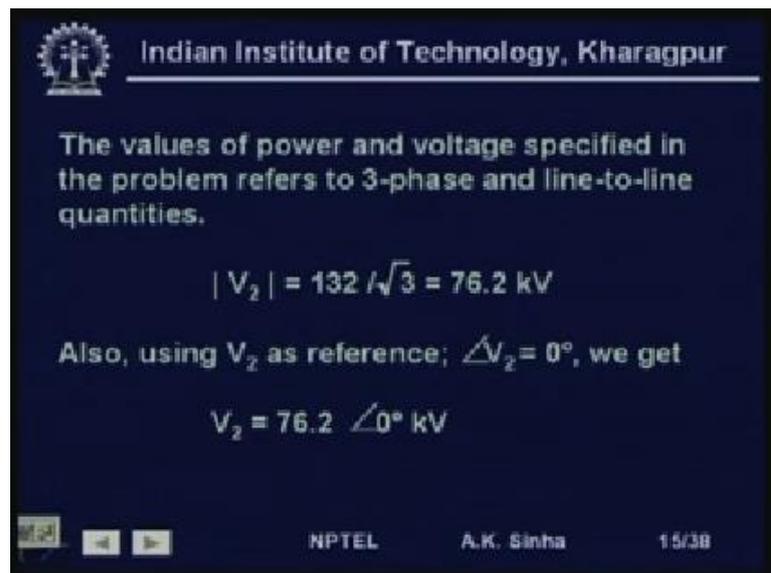
we now find out the values of $\sinh \gamma l$ and $\cosh \gamma l$

$$\sinh \gamma l = \frac{(e^{\gamma l} - e^{-\gamma l})}{2}$$
$$= 0.2195 \angle 82.67^\circ$$
$$\cosh \gamma l = \frac{(e^{\gamma l} + e^{-\gamma l})}{2}$$
$$= 0.975 \angle 0.37^\circ$$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 14/38

Hyperbolic gamma l sign hyperbolic gamma l is equal to e to the power gamma l minus e to the power of minus gamma l divided by 2, which is after substituting the value of gamma l will come out to be 0.2195 with an angle 82.67. Similarly, cos hyperbolic gamma l will be equal to e to the power gamma l plus e to the power minus gamma l. This whole divided by 2, which will come out to be on substituting the values of gamma l. This comes out to be 0.975 with an angle 0.37 degrees.

(Refer Slide Time: 30:57)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

The values of power and voltage specified in the problem refers to 3-phase and line-to-line quantities.

$$|V_2| = 132 / \sqrt{3} = 76.2 \text{ kV}$$

Also, using V_2 as reference; $\angle V_2 = 0^\circ$, we get

$$V_2 = 76.2 \angle 0^\circ \text{ kV}$$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 15/38

So, knowing sign hyperbolic gamma l cos hyperbolic gamma l and Z c. We can calculate a, b, c, d parameters for the transmission line. Now, the value of power and voltage is specified in the problem refers to three phase and line to line quantities. That is the values, that we are given in the problem is in terms of 132 kV, which is a line to line voltage and 40 Mega Watt, which is a three phase power.

Therefore, the V_2 or the receiving and voltage magnitude is equal to 132 by root 3. We are talking of per phase value or phase to neutral value. So, it is 132 divide by root 3, which come out to be 76.2 kV, because we would like to work on a single phase bases. Therefore, we will convert all the line to line voltages into line to neutral voltages and three phase power into single phase power. That is power per phase. Also we will use V_2 , the receiving end voltage as a reference. Therefore, the angle of V_2 , we will take as 0 degree. Therefore, the phasor V_2 is equal to 76.2 angle 0 degree in Kilo Volts.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:23)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Now, per phase power supplied to the load.
 $P_{\text{load}} = 40/3 = 13.33 \text{ MW}$.

Given the value of power factor = 0.95, we can find I_2

$$P_{\text{load}} = 0.95 |V_2| |I_2|$$

Thus, $|I_2| = 184.1$

Also, since I_2 lags V_2 by $\cos^{-1} 0.95 = 18.195^\circ$,
 $I_2 = 184.1 \angle -18.195^\circ$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 16/38

And the per phase power supplied to the load, will be equal to 40, is the three phase powers. So, 40 divided by 3; that is 13.33 Mega Watt. Given the value of power of factor which is 0.95, we can find out the current at the receiving end I_2 . Now, we know P is equal to V I cos 5. So, the receiving end power P load will be equal to this is cos 5, 0.95 into V into I. And therefore, substituting the value of P load and V_2 we get I_2 , as equal to 1 184.1 amperes.

We also know that, the phase angle between V_2 and I_2 , is given by $\cos^{-1} 0.95$, which is the power factor angle. So, also since I_2 lags V_2 by $\cos^{-1} 0.95$, which is 18.195 degrees. Therefore, we can write the phasor I_2 , as I_2 is equal to 184.1 with an angle of minus 18.195. Because, I_2 is going to lag the voltage V_2 , because the power factor is 0.95 lagging.

(Refer Slide Time: 33:46)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Finally, we have

$$V_1 = V_2 \cosh \gamma l + Z_c I_2 \sinh \gamma l$$

Putting the values, we get,

$$V_1 = 82.96 \angle 8.6^\circ \text{ kV}$$

Similarly,

$$I_1 = I_2 \cosh \gamma l + (V_2/Z_c) \sinh \gamma l$$

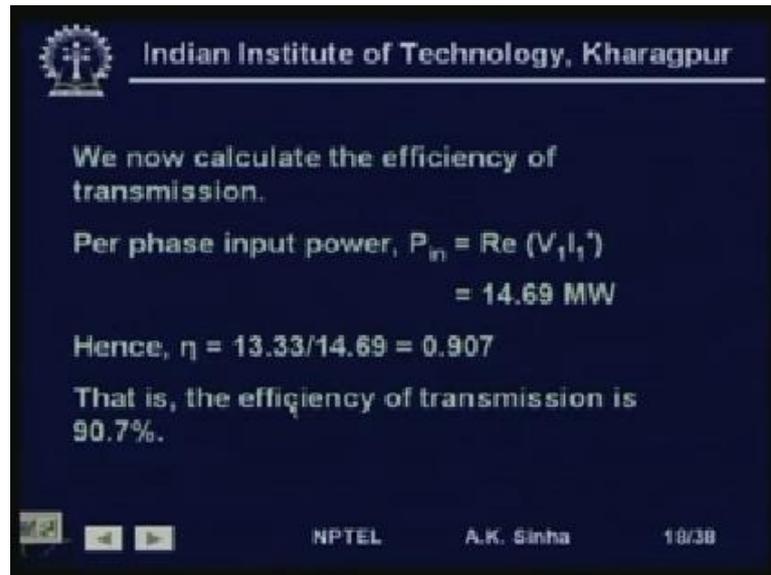
$$= 179.46 \angle 17.79$$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 17/38

Therefore, now we can calculate the sending end voltage V_1 , which will be given by a V_2 plus b, I_2 . And a is \cos hyperbolic γl and V is $Z_c \sin$ hyperbolic γl . Therefore, V_1 is equal to $V_2 \cos$ hyperbolic γl plus I_2 into $Z_c \sin$ hyperbolic γl . Now, if we substitute the value of \cos hyperbolic γl , \sin hyperbolic γl and Z_c . Then, we will get the value of V_1 as equal to 82.96 with an angle, 8.6 degrees in Kilo Volts. So, V_1 is 82.96 Kilo Volts with an angle of 8.6 degrees.

Now, this is a line to neutral voltage at the sending end. Similarly, we can calculate the sending end current I_1 , which will be equal to c , sorry which will be equal to $C V_2$ plus $D I_2$. D is equal to A , which is equal to \cos hyperbolic γl and C is \sin hyperbolic γl by Z_c . Therefore, I_1 is equal to $I_2 \cos$ hyperbolic γl plus V_2 by $Z_c \sin$ hyperbolic γl . Substituting, the value of V_2 , $Z_c \sin$ hyperbolic γl , \cos hyperbolic γl and I_2 , we will get I_1 as equal to 179.46 with an angle of 17.79 degrees.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:39)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

We now calculate the efficiency of transmission.

Per phase input power, $P_{in} = \text{Re}(V_1 I_1^*)$
 $= 14.69 \text{ MW}$

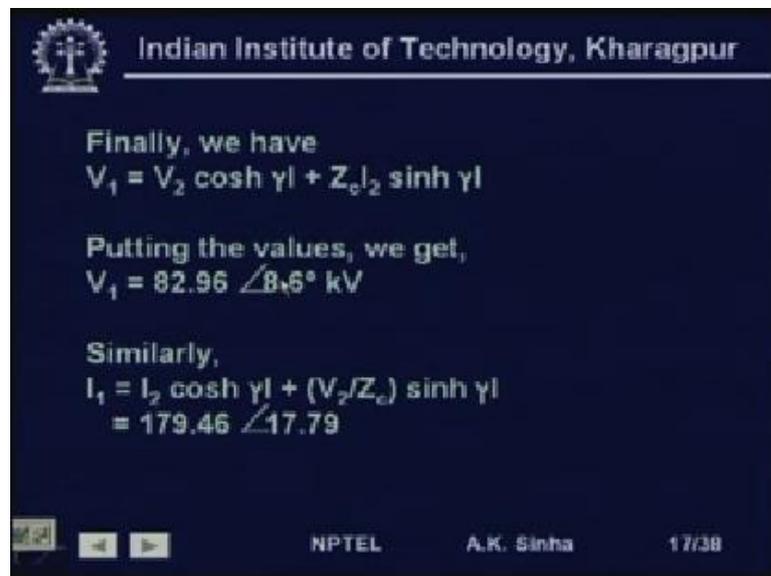
Hence, $\eta = 13.33/14.69 = 0.907$

That is, the efficiency of transmission is 90.7%.

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 18/38

Now, we can calculate the efficiency of the transmission, so per phase, input power will be given by real part of $V_1 I_1$ conjugate.

(Refer Slide Time: 35:56)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Finally, we have
 $V_1 = V_2 \cosh \gamma l + Z_0 I_2 \sinh \gamma l$

Putting the values, we get,
 $V_1 = 82.96 \angle 8.6^\circ \text{ kV}$

Similarly,
 $I_1 = I_2 \cosh \gamma l + (V_2/Z_0) \sinh \gamma l$
 $= 179.46 \angle 17.79$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 17/38

If we do this multiplication, because we know, V_1 is this and I_1 is this. We will take a conjugate, which means, we will put a negative sign to this angle.

(Refer Slide Time: 36:08)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

We now calculate the efficiency of transmission.

Per phase input power, $P_{in} = \text{Re}(V_1 I_1^*)$
 $= 14.69 \text{ MW}$

Hence, $\eta = 13.33/14.69 = 0.907$

That is, the efficiency of transmission is 90.7%.

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 18/38

And then we multiply these two, then we are going to get and we take only the real part of that, then we get this as equal to 14.69 Mega Watt. Now, per phase power, which is received, is 40 by 3, which is 13.33. Therefore, efficiency of transmission is output divided by input, which comes out to be 13.33 divided by 14.69. That is 0.907 or the efficiency is 90.7 percent. So, this is one simple problem, that we solved.

(Refer Slide Time: 36:50)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Example 2:

A 3 phase 132 kV overhead line delivers 60 MVA at 132 kV and power factor 0.8 lagging at its receiving end. The constants of the line are $A = 0.98 \angle 3^\circ$ and $B = 100 \angle 75^\circ$ ohms per phase. Find

(a) sending end voltage and power angle
(b) sending end active and reactive power
(c) line losses and vars absorbed by the line

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 19/38

Now, we will take up another problem. Now, this problem states a three phase 132 kV overhead line delivers 60 MVA. Mind it, this is 60 MVA not Mega Watt, 60 MVA at

132 kV and power factor 0.8 lagging at its receiving end. That is V_r or V_2 is given as 132 kV and the P S R is the MVA value is given as 60, MVA at 0.8 power factor lagging. The constants of the line are given as A is equal to 0.98 with an angle 3 degrees and B is equal to 100 with an angle 75 degrees ohms per phase. Now, we need to find for this system, sending end voltage and power angle, B sending and active and reactive power, C line losses and vars absorbed by the line.

(Refer Slide Time: 37:59)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

(d) capacity of static compensation equipment at the receiving end to reduce the sending end voltage to 145 kV for the same load conditions

(e) The unity power factor load which can be supplied at the receiving end with 132 kV as the line voltage at both the ends.

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 20/38

Also we would like to find out the capacity of static compensation equipment at the receiving end to reduce the sending end voltage to 145 kV for the same load conditions.

(Refer Slide Time: 38:19)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Example 2:

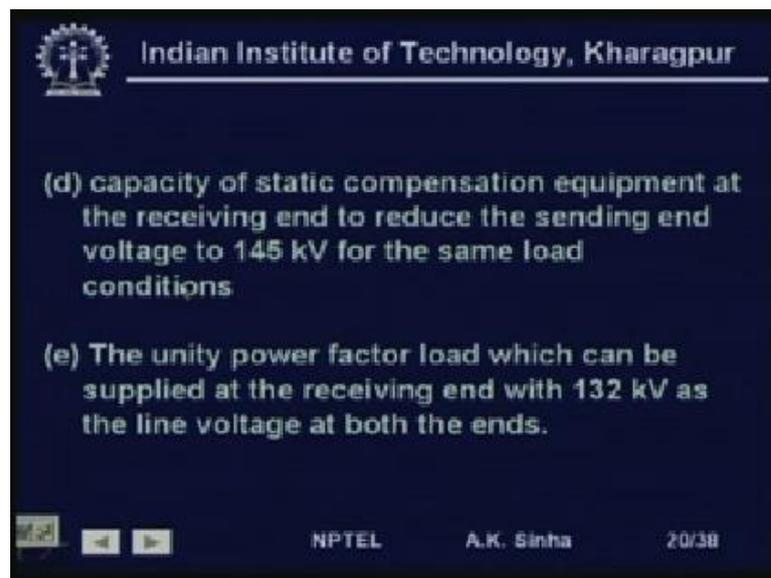
A 3 phase 132 kV overhead line delivers 60 MVA at 132 kV and power factor 0.8 lagging at its receiving end. The constants of the line are $A = 0.98 \angle 3^\circ$ and $B = 100 \angle 75^\circ$ ohms per phase. Find

(a) sending end voltage and power angle
 (b) sending end active and reactive power
 (c) line losses and vars absorbed by the line

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 19/38

That is whatever voltage, we have found out in A will be somewhat higher. And if you want to reduce this voltage by keeping the receiving end voltages kept at 132. And now, we want to keep the sending end voltage also at 145 only. That is, we do not want the voltage at the sending end to go beyond 145 kV. And therefore, we will require some compensation, reactive power compensation at the receiving end. So, we need to find out, what is the rating of the compensating equipment for such a condition.

(Refer Slide Time: 38:59)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

(d) capacity of static compensation equipment at the receiving end to reduce the sending end voltage to 145 kV for the same load conditions

(e) The unity power factor load which can be supplied at the receiving end with 132 kV as the line voltage at both the ends.

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 20/38

Also we need to find, the unity power factor load, which can be supplied at the receiving end with 132 kV as the line voltage at both the ends. Now, if we want to keep the voltage at both the ends at 132 kV, then what is the amount of unity power factor load?

(Refer Slide Time: 39:23)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Solution:

(a) $V_r = 132000 / 3^{0.5} = 76210 \angle 0^\circ$

$$I_r = (60 \times 10^6) / (3^{0.5} \times 132000) \angle -\cos^{-1} 0.8$$
$$= 262.43 \angle -36.87^\circ \text{ A}$$
$$V_s = A \cdot V_r + B \cdot I_r$$
$$= (0.98 \angle 3^\circ)(76210) + (100 \angle 75^\circ)(262.43 \angle -36.87^\circ)$$
$$= 74685.8 \angle 3^\circ + 26243 \angle 38.13^\circ$$
$$= (74.59 + j 3.909 + 20.64 + j 16.20) \times 10^3$$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 21/38

That is purely resistive load, which can be supplied by this transmission line, when we are working with three phase system, especially when we are calculating voltages and current. It is always better to work with the phase to neutral voltages and the currents flowing in each phase. So, what we do is, first we calculate the phase voltage, now for the receiving end, we have been given the voltage as 132 kV line to line.

So, we divided by root 3 to get the phase voltage, which comes out to be 76210, volts. That is 76.21 kV and we are choosing this receiving end voltage as a reference voltage. So, we fix it is angle as 0 degree. Now, next, what we have to do is, we need to find out the current, at the receiving end. We know that the power at the receiving end is given as 60 and the a, at a power factor of 0.8 power lagging.

So, what we do is 60 into 10 to power 6, gives us the 60 MVA with divided by the phase voltage. So, root 3 into, sorry, root 3 into the line voltage. So, this is 3 into 0.5, 3 to the power 0.5. That is root 3 into the line voltage, which is 132 kV. And the angle is given as cos inverse 0.8 with a minus sign to take care of the lagging power factor. When, we do this mathematics, we will get the receiving end current as 262.43 amperes, with an angle of minus 36.87 degrees.

Next is, we need to calculate the sending end voltage V_s . We know is equal to A into V_r plus B into I_r . Since, we have already calculated V_r as shown here and I_r as shown here. So, we substitute these values. So, A is given as $0.98 \angle 3^\circ$, V_r is 76210

volts plus B is given as 100 angle 75 degrees. And I r is given as 262.43 with an angle of minus 36.87 degrees.

Now, here we have not taken any angle here, because the angle of V r is 0 degree, which is the reference angle, with respect to which we are calculating all angles. So, when we do this calculation, we find this as 74685.8, with an angle of 3 degrees plus 26243, with an angle of 38.13 degrees. And finally, when we calculate this, we get this, out as 74.59 plus j 3.909, which we are this polar coordinate value is converted into rectangular coordinate values.

And this polar coordinate values is put in to rectangular coordinate values, then it comes out to be 20.64 plus j 16.20 and since these are in 1000's. So, we are multiplying this into 10 to the power 3. So, here instead of writing this 1000's, we have taken this 1000's here.

(Refer Slide Time: 43:05)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

$$= (95.23 + j20.11) \times 10^3$$
$$= 97.33 \times 10^3 \angle 11.92^\circ \text{ V}$$

Sending end line voltage = $(3^{0.5} \times 97.33) \text{ kV}$
= 168.58 kV

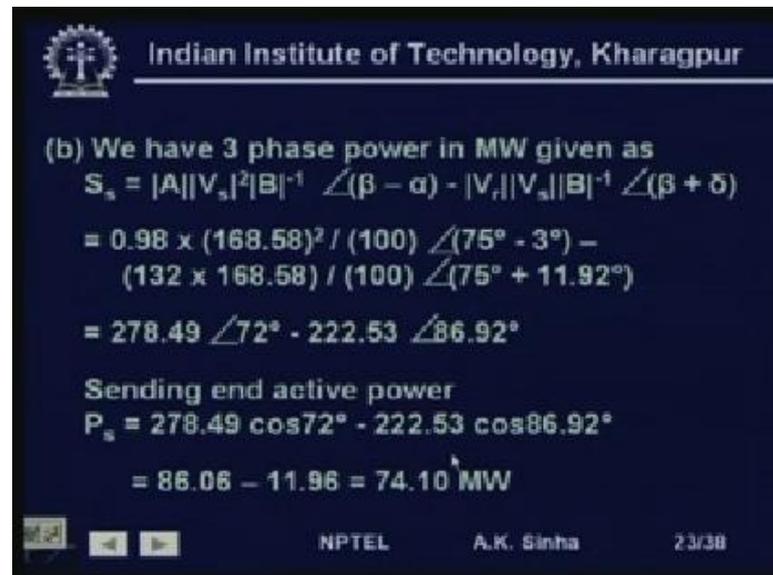
Power angle(δ) = 11.92°

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 22/38

So, when we do this calculation, this comes out to be 95.23 plus j 20.11 into 10 to the power 3. That is equal to 97.33 into 10 to the power 3, volts with an angle of 11.92, which tells us that the sending end voltage phase to neutral voltage is 97.33 kV. And the power angle is 11.92 volts, because this is the angle of the sending end with respect to the reference.

If you want to find out the line to line voltage at the sending end, then we multiply this by root 3. So, when we do this, we get this as 168.58 kV and the power angle as we have seen is equal to 11.92 degrees.

(Refer Slide Time: 43:54)




Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

(b) We have 3 phase power in MW given as

$$S_s = |A||V_s|^2|B|^{-1} \angle(\beta - \alpha) - |V_r||V_s||B|^{-1} \angle(\beta + \delta)$$

$$= 0.98 \times (168.58)^2 / (100) \angle(75^\circ - 3^\circ) - (132 \times 168.58) / (100) \angle(75^\circ + 11.92^\circ)$$

$$= 278.49 \angle 72^\circ - 222.53 \angle 86.92^\circ$$

Sending end active power

$$P_s = 278.49 \cos 72^\circ - 222.53 \cos 86.92^\circ$$

$$= 86.06 - 11.96 = 74.10 \text{ MW}$$

NPTEL
A.K. Sinha
23/38

Now, for the b part, where we need to find out the sending end real and reactive power. We have three phase power in Mega Watt given as S_s is equal to $A V_s$ squared divided by B , with an angle of β minus α for division by B . We are writing B inverse, that is 1 by B minus V_r , V_s divided by B with an angle β plus δ . Now, here, mind it, when we are writing this as three phase power, then we are writing V_s , V_r all as line to line voltages.

Therefore, substituting the values we have A is 0.98 , V_s is 168.58 . So, into 168.58 square divided by B which is 100 at an angle of β is 75 and α is 3 degrees. Minus V_r into V_s , that is 132 into 168.58 divided by 100 , which is B in here. So, with an angle of β plus δ , that is 75 degrees is β plus δ is 11.92 , as we have calculated in the previous part.

So, putting all these values and solving, we have got this S_s is equal to 278.49 at an angles of 72 degrees minus 222.53 at an angle of 86.92 . We do this calculation for calculating the real part, what we need to is, take the \cos of these angles. And for reactive power, we take the \sin of these angles. So, P_s is equal to $278.49 \cos 72$ minus

$222.53 \cos 86.92$, which comes out to be 86.06 minus 11.96. That is the sending end real power is 74.10 Mega Watt.

Now, since we have used these kilovolt values here, the power will be in Mega Watt, because multiplication of 10 to the power 3 and 10 to the power 3, will give me 10 to the power 6. So, the power here is directly in Mega Watt. When we are using the voltages as Kilo Volts and if we are using line to line voltages, then the power is a three phase power. So, this is a three phase power sending end power is equal to 74.10 Mega Watt.

(Refer Slide Time: 46:53)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Sending end reactive power
 $Q_s = 278.49 \sin 72^\circ - 222.53 \sin 86.92^\circ$
 $= 264.89 - 222.21$
 $= 42.65 \text{ MVar lagging}$

(c) Line losses $= P_s - P_r = 74.10 - 60 \times 0.8$
 $= 26.10 \text{ MW}$

MVar absorbed by line $= Q_s - Q_r$
 $= 42.65 - 60 \times 0.6$
 $= 6.65 \text{ MVar}$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 24/38

Similarly, we can calculate the sending end reactive power Q_s , which will be 278.49 into sin of 72 degrees minus 222.53 into sin of 86.92 degrees. That is, we have to take the sin of the angles, what we had got for S_s . Therefore, this comes out to be 264.89 minus 222.21 which is equal to 42.65 Mega Vars lagging. So, this way, we have calculated the sending end real and reactive power.

Now, in part c, we need to calculate the line losses and the Mega Var absorbed by the line. So, line losses will be nothing but, whatever sending end power is there and whatever power is received. If we take the difference of the two, that much amount of real power is lost in the line or lost in the resistance of the line or dissipated by the resistance of the line.

Therefore, line losses is equal to P_s minus P_r , which is equal to 74.10 minus the receiving end real power will be 60 into 0.8. So, MVA into $\cos 5$, so 60 into 0.8, that is 48. So, therefore, line losses comes out to be 26.10 Mega Watt, which is quite a large amount us loss, almost one-third power is getting lost in the lag. Similarly, MVar absorbed by the line, will be whatever is then we are at the sending end, whatever is being sent on the line and whatever is being received at the receiving end.

So, Q_s minus Q_r , which is coming out to be 42.65 minus 60 into 0.6, that is \sin of the power factor angle. So, this is 60 into 0.6, which comes out to be 6.65, MVar, that is this much 6.65 and MVar is being absorbed by the line itself.

(Refer Slide Time: 49:11)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

(d) $P_r = 60 \times 0.8 = 48$
 $|V_s| = 145$
 $|V_r| = 132$

$$P_r = |V_s||V_r||B|^{-1} \cos(\beta - \delta) - |A||V_r|^2 |B|^{-1} \cos(\beta - \alpha)$$

or $48 = \frac{145 \times 132}{100} \cos(\beta - \delta) - \frac{0.98 \times (132)^2}{100} \cos(75^\circ - 3^\circ)$

or $48 = 191.4 \cos(\beta - \delta) - 170.75 \cos 72^\circ$

or $\cos(\beta - \delta) = 0.5275$ or $\angle(\beta - \delta) = 58.16^\circ$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 25/38

Next, we say that, we want to keep the sending end voltage at 145 kV and the receiving end voltage is kept at 132 kV, then what is the amount of compensation, that is required. Now, the since we are transmitting 60 MVA at 0.8 power factor lagging, which comes out be 48 Mega Watt. Therefore, for this P_r is equal to 48 V_s is equal to 145 kV, V_r is equal to 132 kV.

Since, this is in Mega Watt and these are in K v. So, we need not write those 10 to power 3 and 10 to power 6. So, P_r is equal to V_s , V_r divide by B into \cos beta minus delta minus A into V_r square by B into \cos beta minus alpha. Now, here we know P_r value as 48. So, we substituting all the values we will get 48 is equal to 145 into 132 V_s into V_r divided by 100 into \cos of beta minus delta.

Now, here we do not know, we know beta, but we do not know delta, for this particular operating condition. Therefore, I have not substituted any value here and for these terms A is 0.98 V r is 132. So, A V r square divided by b into cos beta minus alpha, that is 75 minus 3. Now, from this, again if we solve this, we will get cos beta minus delta is equal to 0.5275 or angle beta minus delta is equal to 58.16 degrees. Now, we know beta as 75. So, we can calculate delta very easily, but we do not need the delta value as such, what we need is angle beta minus delta.

(Refer Slide Time: 51:23)


Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

$$\begin{aligned}
 Q_r &= |V_s||V_r||B|^{-1} \sin(\beta - \delta) - |A||V_r|^2 |B|^{-1} \sin(\beta - \alpha) \\
 &= (145 \times 132) / (100) \sin 58.16^\circ - \\
 &\quad 0.98 \times (132)^2 / (100) \sin 72^\circ \\
 &= 162.60 - 162.40 = 0.20 \text{ MVar}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus for $V_s = 145 \text{ kV}$, $V_r = 132 \text{ kV}$ and $P_r = 48 \text{ MW}$, a lagging MVar of 0.2 will be supplied from the line along with the real power of 48 MW. Since the load requires 36 MVar lagging, the static compensation equipment must

NPTEL
A.K. Sinha
26/38

So, we will use this. Now, we know Q r is equal to V s, V r divided by B into sin beta minus delta minus A V r square divided by B into sin beta minus alpha. So, again substituting the values, we will get Q r is equal to 145 into 132 divided by 100 into sin 58.16. This is beta minus delta into A 0.98 into V r square 132 squared divided by 100 into sin 72 degrees. So, after calculating this comes out to 162.60 minus 162.40, which is equal to 0.2 Mega Var.

Thus for a V s of 145 kV V r and V r of 132 kV with P r 48 Mega Watt a lagging, Mega Var of 0.2 will be supplied from the line along with the real power of 48 Mega Watt. Now, since the load requires 60 into 0.6, that is 36 Mega Vars lagging, the static compensation equipment must supply the rest, because the line will supply only 0.2 Mega Var.

(Refer Slide Time: 52:46)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Deliver 36 - 0.2, i.e., 35.8 MVar lagging (or must absorb 35.8 MVar leading). The capacity of static capacitors is, therefore, 35.8 MVar.

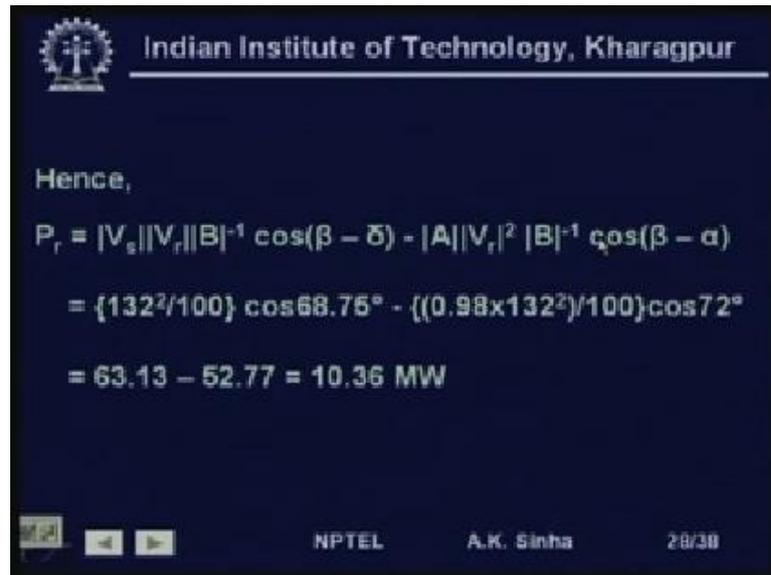
(e) $|V_s| = |V_r| = 132 \text{ kV}$, $Q_r = 0$

$$Q_r = |V_s||V_r||B|^{-1} \sin(\beta - \delta) - |A||V_r|^2 |B|^{-1} \sin(\beta - \alpha)$$
$$\text{or } 0 = \frac{132 \times 132}{100} \sin(\beta - \delta) - \frac{0.98 \times (132)^2}{100} \sin(75^\circ - 3^\circ)$$
$$\text{or } \angle(\beta - \delta) = 68.75^\circ$$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 27/38

So, the static equipment must deliver 36, minus 0.2, that is 35.8 Mega Var lagging or it we can say it must absorb 35.8 Mega Var leading. That means, the static compensation there has to be capacitive to provide this much Mega Var. The capacity of static capacitor is therefore, 35.8 Mega Var. The third part was if we keep both V_s and V_r equal to 132 kV and the load is unity power factor, that is Q_r is equal to 0, then what will be the power, that we can supply. So, using this identity Q_r is equal to 0, we will write Q_r relationship as Q_r is equal to V_s, V_r by B into $\sin \beta$ minus δ , minus $A V_r$ square by B the into $\sin \beta$ minus α . And substituting all the values, here we can calculate the angle β minus δ , which comes out to be 68.75 degrees.

(Refer Slide Time: 53:56)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

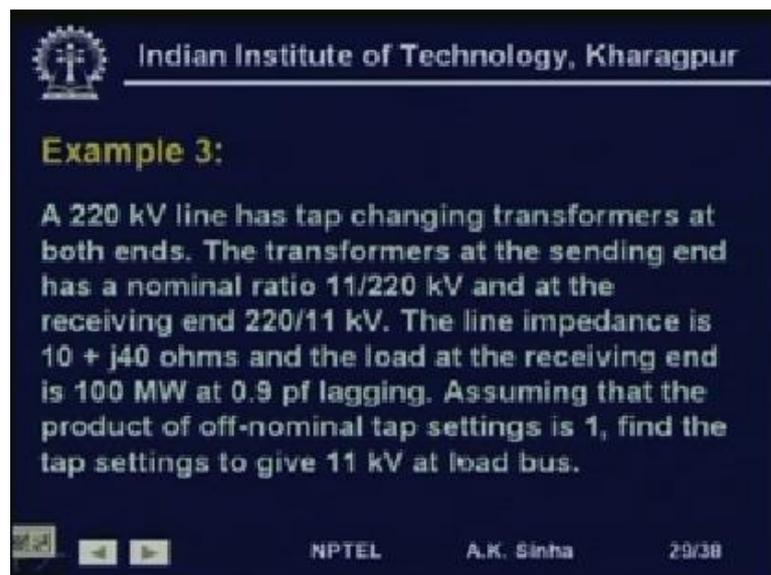
Hence,

$$P_r = |V_s||V_r||B|^{-1} \cos(\beta - \delta) - |A||V_r|^2 |B|^{-1} \cos(\beta - \alpha)$$
$$= \{132^2/100\} \cos 68.75^\circ - \{(0.98 \times 132^2)/100\} \cos 72^\circ$$
$$= 63.13 - 52.77 = 10.36 \text{ MW}$$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 28/38

Now, since we have calculated beta minus delta, we can write down the equation for P_r , V_s , V_r by B into \cos beta minus delta minus $A V_r$ square by B into \cos beta minus alpha substituting all the values, we will get this as 10.36 Mega Watt. That is, if we want to keep the voltage at both ends equal to 132 kV and we want to supply unity power factor load. Then the load that we can supply will be only 10.36 Mega Watt.

(Refer Slide Time: 54:37)



Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Example 3:

A 220 kV line has tap changing transformers at both ends. The transformers at the sending end has a nominal ratio 11/220 kV and at the receiving end 220/11 kV. The line impedance is $10 + j40$ ohms and the load at the receiving end is 100 MW at 0.9 pf lagging. Assuming that the product of off-nominal tap settings is 1, find the tap settings to give 11 kV at load bus.

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 29/38

Now, let us take another example, a 220 kV line has tap changing transformers at both ends. The transformers at the sending end has nominal ratio of 11 to 220 kV and at the

receiving end 220 to 11 kV. So, step up transformer at the sending end step down transformer at the receiving end the line impedance is ten plus j 40, again we are using a short line model. So, 10 plus j 40 ohms and the load at the receiving end is 100 Mega Watt at 0.9 power factor lagging. Assuming that the product of off nominal tap setting is 1, that is T_s into t_r is equal to 1, as we said earlier, find the tap settings to give 11 kV at load bus.

(Refer Slide Time: 55:28)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Solution: We have,

$$S = (100 \times 10^6) / (3 \times 0.9)$$

$$= 37.03 \times 10^6 \text{ VA per phase}$$

And,

$$P = (100 \times 10^6) / 3$$

$$= 33.33 \times 10^6 \text{ W per phase}$$

Hence, we can calculate Q as

$$Q = (S^2 - P^2)^{0.5}$$

$$= 16.15 \times 10^6 \text{ Var per phase}$$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 30/38

So, this is the example, for what we take for tap changing transformer in today's class. So, now S is equal to 100 MVA, let us 100 Mega Watt is being transmitted at 0.9 power factor lagging. So, S per phase will be 100 into 10 to power 6, this is Mega Watt divided by 3. So, that is Mega Watt per phase divided by 0.9 will give me because 0.9 is the power factor, this will give me the MVA.

So, this is Mega Watt divided by the power factor gives me the MVA. So, this comes out to be 37.03 into 10 power 6 volt ampere 37.06 MVA per phase and P is known as hundred Mega Watt. So, per phase is 33.33 Mega Watt. Therefore, we can calculate what is the value of Q, Q will be S square minus P square root of that. So, this comes out to be 16.16 Mega Var per phase.

(Refer Slide Time: 56:43)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Also, we have,

$$V_1 = V_2 = \frac{(220 \times 10^3)}{\sqrt{3}} \text{ V}$$
$$= 127.02 \times 10^3 \text{ V}$$

$R = 10 \ \Omega$
 $X = 40 \ \Omega$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 31/38

Now, we have V_1 is equal to V_2 is equal to 220 kV and since, we want to work out on a per phase basis. So, we divide it by root 3. So, we will get the line to neutral voltage. So, 220 into 10 to power 3, divide by root 3 volts. This is coming out to 127.02 Kilo Volts.

(Refer Slide Time: 57:08)

Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

The tap setting is given as

$$\frac{1}{t_s^2} = \frac{[1 - (R \cdot P + X \cdot Q)]}{(V_1 \cdot V_2)}$$
$$= \frac{[1 - (10 \times 33.33 + 40 \times 16.15)]}{(127.02)^2}$$

Hence, $t_s = 1.0317$
 $t_r = 1/t_s = 0.9692$

NPTEL A.K. Sinha 32/38

Now, R is given as 10 X is given as 40, therefore substituting this on the relationship for the transformer. That we had derived today, $1/t_s^2$ is equal to 1 minus R into P plus X into Q divided by $V_1 \cdot V_2$. So, substituting all these values of R, P, X, Q, V_1 , V_2

2. We get t_s is equal to 1.0317. And therefore, t_r is equal to $1/t_s$, which will be 0.9692.

So, if we keep this of nominal taps t_s as 1.0317 and t_r is equal to 0.9692 both end voltages will be equal to 220 kV line to line. So, with these three examples, we will end today's lesson. And in the next lesson, we will review whatever we have learnt about the transmission line.

So, thank you very much.