GATE 2019

NETWORK ANALYSIS

ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING





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GATE-2019: Network Analysis | Detailed theory with GATE & ESE previous year papers and detailed solu ons.

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NETWORK ANALYSIS

CHAPTER - 1 BASIC CONCEPTS

1.1INTRODUCTION

1.1.1 Charge

Charge can be classified as: 1. Stationary Charge

2. Dynamic Charge

1. Stationary Charge

Stationary charge does not result into electric current because the flow of current means charge moving with net rate across any cross section.

(i) Any electric circuit should always follow law of conservation of charge and law of conservation of energy.

(ii) Circuit theory is analysed always at low frequency and field theory always at high frequency.(iii) Transit time effect is always neglected at low frequency because

 $T >> t_r$

Where T is time period of sinosdual signal

tr is Transit Time (time taken by signal effect to travel from one point to another point).

(iv) Elemental law is obeyed only at low frequency such as ohm's law. It is not applicable at high frequency because of distributed nature of element.

(v) Elemental law always depend upon the nature of element



For different Element, Different Form of Ohm's Law is present

(i) In time domain, the ohm's law are applicable and also in frequency domain.



Current flowing out of this body is given by equation of continuity as below

$$I = \oint \vec{J} \cdot \vec{ds} = -\frac{dQ_{in}}{dt} \qquad \dots (i)$$

This equation gives the law of conservation of charge.

If $\frac{dQ_{in}}{dt} = 0$; means no rate of charge of charge within body then eq.(i) become



GATE QUESTIONS

as shown below. The circuits extend infinitely in the direction shown. Which one of the (c) Current controlled current source statements is TRUE?



2. In the circuit shown in the figure, the magnitude of the current (in amperes) through R₂ is



3. An incandescent lamp is marked 40W, 240V. If resistance at room temperature (26°C) is 120Ω , and temperature coefficient of resistance is $4.8 \times 10^{-3/\circ}$ C, then its 'ON' state filament temperature in °C is approximately

[GATE - 2014]

4. The circuit shown in the figure represents a



1. R_A and R_B are the input resistances of circuits (a) Voltage controlled voltage source (b) Voltage controlled current source (d) Current controlled voltage source

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5. A fully charged mobile phone with a 12V battery is good for a 10 minute talk-time. Assume that during the talk - time the battery delivers a constant current of 2A and its voltage drops linearly from 12V to 10V as shown in the figure. How much energy does the battery deliver during the talk - time?



Common data for Q. 6 & Q. 7

The current i(t) sketched in the figure flows through a initially uncharged 0.3 nF capacitor.



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CHAPTER - 2 NETWORK LAWS

2.1 KIRCHOFF'S VOLTAGE LAW (KVL)

It states that algebraic sum of all voltages in a closed path or loop is zero

$$\sum_{\text{loop}} \mathbf{V} = \mathbf{0}$$

For writing KVL start from any point in the loop and come to the same point via transversing the path of closed loop. While doing so take voltage rises as positive and voltage drops as negative then

 Σ voltage rise + Σ voltage drops = 0



Example. KVL in this loop starting from a in clockwise direction is $-V_7 - V_8 - V_5 + V_6 = 0$ $\Rightarrow V_6 = V_7 + V_8 + V_5$



The basis of the law is that if we start from a particular junction and go round the mesh till we come back to the starting point, then we must be at the same potential with which we started. Hence it means that all the sources of e.m.f. met on the way must necessarily be equal to the voltage drops in the resistances, every voltage being given its proper sign, plus or minus.



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CHAPTER - 3 A.C ANALYSIS 3.1 AC THROUGH PURE OHMIC RESISTANCE ALONE $V = v_m \sin wt$ $1 = t_m \sin wt$ $v = N_m \sin wt = 1$ i.e. $I_m = \frac{V_m}{R}$ $\therefore i = I_m \sin wt$

3.2 AC THROUGH PURE INDUCTANCE ALONE

Whenever an alternating voltage is applied to a purely inductive coil, a back emf is produced due to the self-inductance of the coil





1. The current flowing through a circuitcontaining passive elements like R, L or C is $I = 15.5 \sin (2500t - 145^{\circ})$ with voltage source $V = 311 \sin (2500t + 170^{\circ})$. The impedance Z is (a) $20 \angle -25^{\circ} \Omega$ (b) $20 \angle 25^{\circ} \Omega$ (c) $20 + j20\Omega$ (d) $14.14 - j14.14 \Omega$

2. There is a pure element in series with R = 25Ω which causes the current to lag the voltage by 20° . It is if frequency is 400 Hz.

(a) 35 µF capacitor (b) 3.6 mH inductor (d) 2 mH inductor (c) 25µF capacitor

3. There is a pure element in series with R = 50Ω which causes the current to lead the voltage by 30°. It is if frequency is 500 Hz.

(a) 11 µF capacitor (b) 22 µF capacitor (c) 1.2mH (d) 2.4mH inductor









(b)
$$2\frac{d^{2}i}{dt^{2}} + 3\frac{di}{dt} + i(t) = \sin t$$

(c) $2\frac{d^{2}i}{dt^{2}} + 3\frac{di}{dt} + i(t) = \cos t$
(d) $2\frac{d^{2}i}{dt^{2}} + 3\frac{di}{dt} + i(t) = -\cos t$

Common Data for O.6 & O.7

Given below is the current and applied voltage in a series connection of two pure circuit elements.

 $V = 150 \sin (314 t + 10^{\circ})$ volts $i = 15 \sin (314 t - 53.4^{\circ})$ amperes

6. The circuit contains a

(a) Resistance of 5Ω and capacitor of 1μ F

(b) Resistance of 4.47 Ω and inductor of 0.028 H

(c) Resistance of 6.7Ω and capacitor of $0.01 \ \mu F$

(d) Resistance of 10Ω and inductor of 0.021 H

7. Consider the circuit shown in the figure



In the circuit $4R^2$ С = 3L, the resonance frequency ω_0 is

(a)
$$\sqrt{LC}$$
 (b) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$
(c) $\frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$ (d) $\frac{1}{2\sqrt{LC}}$

8. A voltage V is represented as $V = 50 \sin(\omega t +$ 30°) - 25 sin(3 ω t - 60°) + 16 sin (5 ω t + 45°)V R.M.S. value of the voltage is (a) 41 volt (b) 41.11 volt

(c) 91 volt (d) 58.14 volt

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CHAPTER - 4 *MAGNETICALLY COUPLED CIRCUIT*

4.1 INTRODUCTION

When two circuits are so placed that a portion of the magnetic flux produced by one links with the turns of both, they are said to be mutually coupled magnetically. This effect is characterized by mutually inductance (M)

Mutual Inductance (M) is the property of magnetic coupling showing an induction of voltage in one coil/winding by a change of current in other coil/winding.



In the above figure two coils 1 and 2 with turns N_1 and N_2 are placed close to each other so that part of flux of one coil links with other coil too. The current i_1 in coil 1 produces flux ϕ_1 . Some part of ϕ_1 links only with coil 1 let this is ϕ_{11} this is known as self flux or leakage flux of coil 1. ϕ_{12} is the flux which links with both the coils. ϕ_{12} is called mutual flux. Similarly current i_2 in coil 2 produces ϕ_2 which has ϕ_{22} and ϕ_{21} as its components. ϕ_{22} links only with coil 2 and ϕ_{21} links with both coils.

Now the voltage induced in coil 2 by change in current of coil 1 i₁

$$\mathbf{v}_{21} = \mathbf{M}_{21} \frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{i}_1}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{t}}$$

However by Faraday's Law

$$v_{21} = N_2 \frac{d\phi_{12}}{dt}$$
$$\Rightarrow M_{21} = N_2 \frac{d\phi_{12}}{di_1}$$
$$\Rightarrow M_{21} = N_2 \frac{d\phi_{12}}{di_1}$$

If air is the medium between two coils, then magnetization is linear and

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\phi_{12}}{\mathrm{d}i} = \frac{\phi_{12}}{\mathrm{i}}$$

Hence $M_{21} = \frac{N_2 \phi_{12}}{i_1}$

Similarly $M_{12} = \frac{N_1 \phi_2}{i}$

Since the reluctance of both the fluxes i.e. ϕ_{12} & ϕ_{21} is same M_{12} & M_{21} are equal say $M_{12} = M_{21} = M$.

CHAPTER - 5 NETWORK THEOREMS

5.1 THEVENIN'S THEORM

Any two terminal bilateral linear circuit can be replaced by an equivalent circuit consisting of a voltage source and a series resistor.

5.1.1 Steps for Solving a Network using Thevenin's Theorem

1. Remove the load resistor (R_L) and find the open circuit voltage (V_{oc}) across the open circuited load terminals.

2. Find the Thevenin's resistance (R_{TH})

1. If Circuit contains only Independent Sources

Deactivate the constant sources (for voltage source remove it by short circuit and for the current source remove it by open circuit) and find the internal resistance (R_{TH}) of the source side looking through the open circuited load terminals.

2. For the circuits containing dependent sources in addition to or in absence of independent sources

Find V_{OC} by open circuiting the load terminals. Then short the load terminals and find the short circuit current (I_{SC}) through the shorted terminals.

The venin's resistance is given as: $R_{TH} = \frac{v}{T}$



(i) Obtain the venin's equivalent circuit by placing $R_{\rm TH}$ in series with $V_{\rm OC}$

(ii) Reconnect R_L across the load terminals.

5.1.2 Thevenin's Equivalent Network

 $I(Load current) = \frac{V_{OC}}{R_{TH} + R_{L}}$

If only dependent sources are present in circuit, $R_{Th} = \frac{V_{test}}{l_{test}}$; $I_{test} = 1A$ V_{test} is calculated across the load by short circuiting it, and current of 1A flows through the short circuited branch as I_{test} . Then $R_{TH} = V_{test}$

CHAPTER - 6 TRANSIENT ANALYSIS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

1. Linear differential equation with constant coefficient obey linearity & superposition theorem.

2. The response of a network excited by a initial energy storage and then left undisturbed is a characteristic of network as with the passage of time networks comes to zero response. This is called natural behavior or its transient response or force +ve behavior. The natural behavior is solution of the network's differential equation with all the sources equated to zero.

3. The response of a network to excitation by an impulse source is very similar to natural behavior. After $t = 0^+$

The impulse response \equiv natural behavior.

4. For forced response steady state value will not be zero. Than steady state value are calculated.

Complete solution = natural behavior + forced solution

Or transient + steady state

Or complementary function + particular integer

6.2 NATURAL BEHAVIOR OF R-L CIRCUIT

Let the initial current in the inductor is I_0 and the inductor is connected to resistance in series so that inductor discharges. As shown in the figure





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CHAPTER - 7

LAPLACE TRANSFORMATION AND ITS APPLICATION IN CIRCUIT ANALYSIS

7.1 LAPLACE TRANSFORMATION

The Laplace transformation of a function f(t) is defined as

$$F(s) = Lf(t) = \int_{0}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st}dt$$

Where as in complex frequency s being the intermediate or transformation variable.

7.1.1 Laplace Transform of a Derivative $\left[\frac{df(t)}{dt}\right]$

Lf'(t) = sF(s) - f(0+)

7.1.2 Laplace Transform of an Integral $\int f(t)dt$

 $L\left(\int f(t)dt\right) = \frac{1}{s}\int f(t)dt |_{0+} + \frac{1}{s}F(s)$ $\left[\int f(t)|_{0+} \text{ gives the value of the integral at } t = 0 + 1\right]$

7.1.3 Frequency Shifting

- $L(e^{at}f(t)) = F(s-a)$
- $L(e^{-at}f(t)) = F(s+a)$

7.2 LAPLACE TRANSFORM OF COMMON FORCING FUNCTIONS

	<i>f</i> (t)	F(s)	<i>f</i> (t)	F(s)
	u(t)	$\frac{1}{s}$	$e^{-\alpha t}t^n$	$\frac{\underline{ n }}{(s+\alpha)^{n+1}}$
	e ^{-αt}	$\frac{1}{s+\alpha}$	e ^{−αt} sin∞t	$\frac{\omega}{\left(s+\alpha\right)^2+\omega^2}$
	sinwt	$\frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$	$e^{-\alpha t} \cos \omega t$	$\frac{s+a}{\left(s+\alpha\right)^2+\omega^2}$
0	cosωt	$\frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$	δ(t)	1
	t	$\frac{1}{s^2}$	Sinh θt	$\frac{\theta}{s^2 - \theta^2}$



8.1 RESONANCE

Resonance in electrical circuits consisting of passive and active elements represents a particular state of the circuit when the current or voltage in the circuit is maximum or minimum with respect to the magnitude of excitation at a particular frequency, the circuit impedance being either minimum of maximum at the power factor unity.

The phenomenon of resonance is observed in both series or parallel a.c. circuits comprising of R, L and C and excited by an a.c. source.

С

8.2 SERIES RESONANCE



1. For the circuit given in the figure, the voltage V_c (in volts) across the capacitor is V_c (in volts) across



- (c) $2.5\sqrt{2}\sin(5t-0.25\pi)$
- (d) $2.5\sqrt{2}\sin(5t-0.125\pi)$

2. In the balanced 3-phase, 50 Hz, circuit shown below, the value of inductance (L) is 10 mH. The value of the capacitance (C) for which all the line currents are zero, in millifarads, is



3. The circuit below is excited by a sinusoidal source. The value of R, in Ω for which the admittance of the circuit becomes a pure conductance at all frequencies is



4. A series RLC circuit is observed at two frequencies. At $\omega_1 = 1$ krad/s, are note that source voltage $V_1 = 100 \angle 0^\circ V$ result in a current $I_1 = 0.03 \angle 31^\circ A$. At $\omega_2 = 2$ krad/s, the source voltage $V_2 = 100 \angle 0^\circ V$ results in a current $I_2 = 2 \angle 0^\circ A$. The closest values for R, L, C out of the following options are

[GATE - 2014] (a) $R = 50\Omega$; L = 25mH; $C = 10\muF$; (b) $R = 50\Omega$; L = 10mH; $C=25\muF$; (c) $R = 50\Omega$; L = 50mH; $C = 5\muF$; (d) $R = 50\Omega$; L = 5mH; $C = 50\muF$;

5. Two magnetically uncoupled inductive coils have Q factors q_1 and q_2 at the chosen operating frequency. Their respective resistances are R_1 and R_2 . When connected in series, t heir effective Q factor at the same operating frequency is

[GATE - 2013]

(a)
$$q_1 + q_2$$

(b) $(1/q_1) + (1+q_2)$
(c) $(q_1R_1 + q_2R_2)/(R_1 + R_2)$
(d) $(q_1R_2 + q_2R_1)/(R_1 + R_2)$

6. For parallel RLC circuit, which one of the following statements is NOT correct?

[GATE - 2010]

(a)The bandwidth of the circuit decreases if R is increased

(b)The bandwidth of the circuit remains same if L is increased

(c)At resonance, input impedance is a real quantity

(d)At resonance, the magnitude of input impedance attains its minimum value

7. The resonant frequency for the given circuit will be

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CHAPTER - 9 TWO PORT NETWORKS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The terminal pair is called as a "port". If the current entering one terminal of a pair is equal and opposite to the current leaving the other terminal of the pair.



9.2 TWO-PORT NETWORK

A two-port network is shown, by which we observe that a two-port network is represented by a black box with four variables, namely, two voltages (V_1, V_2) and two currents (I_1, I_2) which are available for measurements and are relevant for the analysis of two port networks. Of these four variables which two variable may be considered `independent` and which two `dependent` is generally decided by the probable under consideration

Two Port Parameters				
Name	Express	In terms of	Matrix Equation	
Open circuit impedance [Z]	V ₁ , V ₂	I ₁ ,I ₂	$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}_1 \\ \mathbf{V}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Z}_{11} \ \mathbf{Z}_{12} \\ \mathbf{Z}_{21} \ \mathbf{Z}_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_1 \\ \mathbf{I}_2 \end{bmatrix}$	
Short-circuit admittance [Y]	I ₁ , I ₂	V ₁ , V ₂	$\begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{11} & Y_{12} \\ Y_{21} & Y_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix}$	
Transmission or Chain [T] or [ABCD]	V ₁ , I ₂	V ₂ , I ₂	$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}_1 \\ \mathbf{I}_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}_2 \\ -\mathbf{I}_2 \end{bmatrix}$	
Inverse Transmission [T']	V ₂ , I ₂	$V_1, -I_1$	$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}_2 \\ \mathbf{I}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}'\mathbf{B}' \\ \mathbf{C}'\mathbf{D}' \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}_1 \\ -\mathbf{I}_1 \end{bmatrix}$	
Hybrid (h)	V ₁ , I ₂	I_1, V_2	$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{V}_{1} \\ \mathbf{I}_{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{h}_{11} \ \mathbf{h}_{12} \\ \mathbf{h}_{21} \ \mathbf{h}_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{1} \\ \mathbf{V}_{2} \end{bmatrix}$	
Inverse hybrid (g)	I ₁ , V ₂	V ₁ ,I ₂	$\begin{bmatrix} I_1 \\ V_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} g_{11} h_{12} \\ g_{21} h_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_1 \\ I_2 \end{bmatrix}$	

9.3 OPEN CIRCUIT IMPEDANCE (Z) PARAMETERS Expressing two-port voltages in terms of two-port currents $(V_1, V_2) = f(I_1, I_2)$

CHAPTER - 10 GRAPH THEORY

10.1 IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS

1. Graph: It is the collection of nodes and Branch of a network.



(A) (B) **2. Branch:** Each oriented line segment of the graph is called branch.

3. Node: The end point of a branch is called node.

4. Incident Branch: Branch whose end fall on a node is called incident branch.

5. Connected and Non-Connected Graph

If there exists a path between every pair of nodes of a graph, then the graph is called connected graph, otherwise graph is called non-connected graph.

6. Degree of Node: Degree of Node is the number of branches incident on the node.

7. Subgraph: A portion of graph is called subgraph

8. Path: Path is transverse from one node to another node

9. Loop: Loop is a collection of branches in a graph which form a closed path.

10. Tree: The collection of minimum no. of branches connecting all the nodes of a graph without making a loop.

A single graph can have many no. of trees. The no. of trees for a given graph= n - 1where $n \rightarrow no.$ of nodes

11. Twig: Branch of a tree is called a twig.

12. Cotree: Remaining part of a graph after removal of twigs is called cotree. It is collection of links.

13. Links: are the branches removed from the graph to make a tree. Total no. of branch of a graph are given by b = (n-1) + Ln is no. of nodes L is No. of links



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1. In the following graph, the number of trees (a) The equation $V_1 - V_2 + V_3 = 0$, $V_3 + V_4 - V^5$ $-V_5 = 0$ are KVL equation for the network for (P) and the number of cut - set (Q) are some loops (1)(b) The equations $V_1 - V_s - V_6 = 0$, $V_4 + V_5 - V_6 = 0$, $V_5 - V_6 = 0$, $V_6 = 0$, $V_8 - V_6 = 0$, $V_8 - V_8 - V_8 = 0$, $V_8 - V_8 = 0$, $V_6 = 0$ are KVL equations for the network for (2)(3) some loops (c) E = AV(d) AV = 0 are KVI equations for the network (4)[GATE - 2008] (a) P = 2, Q = 2(b) P = 2, Q = 64. Consider the network graph shown in the (d) P = 4, Q = 10(c) P = 4, Q = 6figure. Which one of ht following is NOT a 'tree' of this graph? 2. The number of chords in the graph of the given circuit will be \overline{m} [GATE - 2008] (a) 3 (b) 4 (a) (b) (c) 5 (d) 6 3. The matrix A given below in the node incidence matrix of a network. The columns correspond to branches of the network while the rows correspond to nodes. Let V = (c) (d) $\begin{bmatrix} V_1 V_2 \dots V_6 \end{bmatrix}^T$ denote the vector of branch voltage while $I = [i_1 i_2 \dots i_6]^T$ that of branch [GATE - 2004] currents. The vector $\mathbf{E} = [\mathbf{e}_1 \ \mathbf{e}_2 \ \mathbf{e}_3 \ \mathbf{e}_4]^T$ denotes (b) b (a) a the vector of node voltage relative to a common (d) d (c) c ground. 0 0 5. The minimum number of equations required -1 0 -1 1 0 to analyze the circuit shown in the figure is 0 0 $^{-1}$ Which of the following statement is true?

[GATE - 2007]





CHAPTER - 11 NETWORK FUNCTIONS

11.1 INTRODUCTION

The basic definition of one port and two port network being discussed earlier, here we will discuss about the transform of excitation and response along with their relations. A network function exhibits the relationship between the transform of the source or excitation to the transform of the response for a electrical network. Further to this, we will discuss the stability of the network function mathematically formulating the network function mathematically formulating the network function through "pole-zero" concept.

11.2 DRIVING POINT IMPEDANCE AND ADMITTANCE

The driving point impedance of a one port network is defined as

$$Z(s) = \frac{V(s)}{I(s)}$$

While the driving point admittance is given as

$$Y(s) = \frac{I(s)}{V(s)}$$

For the one port network

Similarly, for the two port network, the driving point impedance and admittance at port 1 is defined as

$$Z_{11}(s) = \frac{V_1(s)}{I_1(s)} \qquad \dots (iii)$$

and $Y_{11}(s) = \frac{I_1(s)}{V_1(s)} \qquad \dots (iv)$

While the driving point impedance and admittance at the port 2 are designated as

$$Z_{22}(s) = \frac{V_2(s)}{I_2(s)}$$

and $Y_{22}(s) = \frac{I_2(s)}{V_2(s)}$

11.3 TRANSFER IMPEDANCE AND ADMITTANCE

Transfer impedance is defined as the ratio of transform voltage at output port to the transformed current at the input port of a two port network.

This gives,
$$Z_{12}(s) = \frac{V_2(s)}{I_1(s)}$$

In a similar way, the transfer admittance is defined as the ratio of current transform at output port to the voltage transform at the input port. It is given as

...(vii)

... (vi)



... (i)

... (ii)

...(iv(a))

... (v)

GATE QUESTIONS

 1. The driving point impedance Z(s) for the circuit shown below is
 The value of the load resistance R_L is

 [GATE - 2009]





GATE 2018

POWER SYSTEM

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GATE-2018: Power System | Detailed theory with GATE & ESE previous year papers and detailed solu ons.

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СНАР **BASIC CON**

1.1 INTRODUCTION

1. In electrical engineering the energy is studied in reference to charge (Q). Voltage and current are basic electrical circuit variables.

Voltage is defined as work done on unit charge i.e. $V = \frac{dW}{dQ} J/C$ or volts. (V).

Current is defined as time rate of change of charge i.e I = $\frac{dQ}{dt}$ c/s or Ampere (A)

Now, $v \times i = \frac{dW}{dQ} \times \frac{dQ}{dt} = \frac{dW}{dt}$

 $\frac{dW}{dt}$ is time rate of charge of energy, which basically means power (p)

 $p(t) = v(t) \times i(t)$ J/s or watts (w)

2. Current is taken positive in the direction of movement of positive charge and vice-versa. The voltage at point A (V_A) is voltage with respect to ground.

The voltage between two points V_{AB} is equal to $(V_A - V_B)$. Voltage V_{AB} is positive if positive charge looses energy in moving from A to B or negative charge gains energy in moving from A to Β.

To calculate V_{AB} start from point B and go towards A, while doing so take voltage rises as positive and voltage drops as negative and add all such voltages.

3. The positive charge will have natural tendency to be repelled by positive charge and attracted by negative charge as shown in the figure (1.1), Q⁺ will naturally move towards B and the direction of current will be from A and B as shown figure (1.2). In this case charge is losing energy and device is getting energy from charge such devices are called passive elements or load. Power in this case in positive.



4. In figure (1.3) as shown below Q^+ will have to be supply energy by external medium to move it from B to and direction of current will be from B to in this case charge is gaining energy and device is supplying energy such device are called active elements source or generator. Power in this case is negative.



POWER SYSTEM

ESE OBJ QUESTIONS

1. The three non-inductive loads of 5 kW, 3 kW 1.Being a temporary remedy when one and 2 kW are connected in a star network transformer forms of Delta-Delta system is between R, Y and B phases and neutral. The damaged, and removed from service. line voltage is 400V. The current in the neutral 2.The Volt Ampere (VA) supplied by each transformer is half of the total VA, and the wire is nearly [ESE - 2017] system is not overloaded. (b) 14A 3.An important precaution is that load shall be (a) 11 A (c) 17 A (d) 21 A reduced by $\sqrt{3}$ times in this case. Which of the above statements are correct? **2.** A three-phase star-connected load is [ESE - 2017] operating at a power factor angle ϕ with ϕ being (a) 1 and 2 only (b) 1 and 3 only the angle between (d) 1, 2 and 3 (c) 2 and 3 only [ESE - 2017] (a) Line voltage and line current 4. In a certain single-phase a.c. circuit the (b) Phase voltage and phase current instantaneous voltage is given by (c) Line voltage and phase current $v - V \sin(\omega t + 30^\circ)$ p.u. and the instantaneous (d) Phase voltage and line current current is given by $i = Isin(\omega t - 30^{\circ})$ p.u. Hence the per unit value of reactive power is 3. Consider the following statements regarding [ESE - 2002] three-phase transformers in Open-Delta (V-V) (a) 1/4(b) 1/2connections; (d) $\sqrt{3}/2$ (c) $\sqrt{3}/4$

CHAPTER - 2 SINGLE LINE DIAGRAM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Power system is the study of generation, transmission and distribution of electric energy at very large scale.



2.2 TRANSMISSION NETWORK

1. Transmission network connect generating plants to consumption point. Transmission is always in $3-\phi$, generally done through over head lines.

2. Transmission network interconnects power pools which are part of grid. Inter connecting power pools has following advantages.

(i) It reduces generation reserve and cost

(ii) It increases reliability

3. Transmission is done at High Voltage (HV). HV transmission has following advantages.

(i) High Voltage for fixed amount of power will have low current which leads to less losses, loss voltage drop.

(ii) Due to reduction in current density conductor cross section area is reduced which leads to less material for same amount of power.

(iii) High voltage also increase power transferable limit and steady state limit.

4. HVAC is called synchronous link

5. HVDC is asynchronous link

6. Voltage levels for HVAC are 765 kv, 400kv, 220 kv and 132kv. Voltage level > 220 kV are extra High voltage (EHV) and voltage levels \geq 760kv are ultra high voltage (UHV).

7. HVDC up to 500kv is available in India.

8. High voltage needs expenditure on insulating equipments. Hence there is a limit of increasing voltage. High voltage also causes corona interference.

9. In transmission there are problems of corona loss, radio interference, voltage control, load frequency and problem of stability etc.

10. Transmission equipment are

(i) Step up power transformers

(ii) Step down power transformer

(iii) Power transformers are designed with high value of leakage reactance so as to reduce fault current.

(iv) Voltage regulators

(v) Phase shifters to control real power flow

(vi) Transmission lines

(vii) Shunt compensation to maintain voltage profile.

CHAPTER - 3 POWER GENERATION CONCEPT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

1. Load curve

Load curve is the variation of load during different hour of the day, shown on curve.



2. Maximum Demand

The peak load on system is called maximum demand.

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3. Connected Load

The sum of the continuous rating of all electrical equipment connected to the supply system is know as connect load.

4. Average Load

Daily average load $= \frac{KWh \text{ supplied in day}}{KWh}$

5. Load Factor

 $Load factor = \frac{A verage load}{max imum demand}$

6. Demand Factor

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

7. Diversity Factor

Diversity factor = $\frac{\text{Sum of individual max demand}}{\text{max demand of power system}}$

8. Plant Capacity Factor

Capcity or plant factor= Averge demand Ratge capacity of plant

9. Plant Use Factor

Plant operating or use factor = _____ Total kwh generated

Rated capacity ×number of operating hrs

CHAPTER - 4 *TRANSMISSION LINE PARAMETERS*

4.1 INTRODUCTION

4.1.1 Resistance

 $R = \frac{\rho \ell}{A}$

Where ρ is the resistivity of conductor

 ℓ is length of conductor

A is cross sectional area Resistance changes with temperature

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{T}_{2}} = \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{T}_{1}} \left[1 + \alpha \left(\mathrm{T}_{2} - \mathrm{T}_{1} \right) \right]$$

 $T_1 \& T_2$ are temperature is °C

 R_{T_1} is resistance at temperature T_1

 R_{T_2} is resistance at temperature T_2

 α is temperature coefficient of resistance in $\Omega/^{\circ}C$

4.1.2 Inductance of line

AC flux linkages $\lambda = N\phi = L I$ Where $\lambda \& I$ are in rms $d\lambda = Nd\phi$ Voltage inducted due to alternating flux linkages $V(t) = \frac{d\lambda}{dt}$ In frequency domain $V = j\omega\lambda = j\omega LI$

The mutual inductance M_{12} is defined as flux linkages of 1 due to current of 2 as follows

$$M_{12} = \frac{\lambda_{12}}{I_2}$$

Voltage drop in circuit 1 due to current in circuits $V_1 = j\omega\lambda_{12} = j\omega M_{12}I_2$

4.1.3 Flux linkages and Inductance of Current carrying Conductor



CHAPTER - 5 CHARACTERISTICS AND PERFORMANCE OF POWER TRANSMISSION LINE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Transmission line can be studies on phase basis under balanced conditions, in this case transmission line can be regarded as two port network. Input port is sending and output port is receiving end.



POWER SYSTEM

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CHAPTER - 6 INSULATED CABLES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

6.1.1 Electric Cables Consist

- 1. Conductor for transmitting power
- 2. Insulation to insulate conductor from direct contact with earth.
- 3. External protection from mechanical damage etc.

6.1.2 Various Insulting Materials used For Cables

- 1. Vulcanized Rubber: used for wiring of houses etc for low power usage.
- 2. Butyl Rubber: More tough can be used for cables without sheath.
- 3. Neoprene: Used for sheathing material.
- 4. Poly vinyle chloride PVC:
- 5. Polythene used for high frequency
- 6. Impregnated paper

(i) Protective Coverings

These are to protect cable like lead alloy sheath, steel tapes, steel wires etc.

(ii) Electrostatic Stress in Single Core Cable



CHAPTER - 7 *OVERHEAD LINE INSULATORS*

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The insulators for overhead lines provide insulation to the power conductor from ground mainly made by glazed porcelain or toughened glass.

7.1.1 Types

1. Pin type

It is used up to 33kv

2. Suspension type

(i) Each insulator is designed for say 11kv and for higher operating voltages string of insulator disc is used.

(ii) In case of failure of one disc (string) only that need to be replaced.

3. Strain type

These are placed horizontally. These are used to take tension of conductors at line terminals, road crossings etc. They are also known as tension insulators.

4. Shackle type

Used for voltage < 11 kV

7.2 VOLTAGE DISTRIBUTION OVER A STRING OF SUSPENSION INSULATOR

Capacitances are formed between insulator strings and between string and metal parts of structure which causes unequal voltage distribution across strings.





CHAPTER - 8 CORONA

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Corona phenomenon is defined as self sustained electric discharge in which the field intensified ionization is localized over a portion of distance between electrodes.

When potential between conductors is increased the gradient around the surface of conductor increases above a voltage higher than critical voltage the nearby air is ionized and there is bluish white glow around the surface of conductor. A hissing noise is also heard along with formation of ozone gas.

8.2 CRITICAL DISRUPTIVE VOLTAGE



Gradient at x

$$E_{x} = \frac{q}{2\pi \in_{0}} \left[\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{d-x} \right] \text{ and } V_{ab} = \frac{q}{\pi \in_{0}} \ln \frac{d}{r}$$

After solving

$$E_x = \frac{Vd}{x(d-x)\ln d/r}$$
 where v in line to neutral voltage V = -

Gradient is max when x = r

$$g_{max} = E_r = E_{max} = \frac{\sqrt{d}}{r(d-r)\ln(d/r)}$$

 $r \ln d/r$

or $V = r g_{max} \ln d/r$

Critical disruptive voltage is the voltage at which disruption or break down of dielectric occurs. This voltage corresponds to the gradient at the surface of conductor equal to strength of air. The deflective strength of air at 25°C and 76 cm of Hg pressure is

 $g_0 = 30 kV / cm Peak$

At other temperature or pressure

$$g_0 = g_0 \delta$$

 $\delta = \frac{3.92b}{273 + \theta}$, where δ is called air density factor.

Where b is pressure in cm of Hg and
$$\theta$$
 is temperature in °C

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CHAPTER - 9 DISTRIBUTION SYSTEMS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The conductor system by means of which electrical energy is converted from bulk power source to consumers is known as distribution system. Primary distribution is at voltage levels of 11kV, 6.6 kV and 3.3 kV and gives power to bulk consumers like industries.

Secondary distribution supply power to households at 400V, $3-\phi$ and 230V, single phase. The main criteria for designing of conductors for distribution are voltage drop and current carrying capacity.

9.1.1 Classification

Distribution systems are classified as per following



9.1.2 Uniform Loading

Load in considered uniformly distributed along the length of feeder. For feeder having equal voltage at both ends point of minimum voltage is centre of the feeder.



CHAPTER - 10 HIGH VOLTAGE DC TRANSMISSION (HVDC)

10.1 INTRODUCTION

HVDC transmission consists of two converter stations rectifier and inverter connected to each other by DC cable or overhead line. Main components and arrangement of HVDC transmission is shown below.



Transformer provides suitable voltage ratio to achieve the desired direct voltage, transformer also provide electrical separation between DC and AC systems.

DC line inductor also called smoothing inductor is used to reduce harmonics in current on DC side.

The control of converters introduces phase shift between current and voltage. Thus reactive power is consumed by converters; converter transformers two consume reactive power. This reactive power demand is almost 50-60% of transmitted reactive power. This reactive power at converter stations is supplied by shunt capacitor.





CHAPTER - 11 BASICS OF SYNCHRONOUS MACHINE & R-L CIRCUIT TRANSIENT

11.1 INTRODUCTION

1. When three windings are placed at 120° to each other in space and supply of $3-\phi$, displaced 120° in time to each other is given to such windings than a rotating magnetic field is produced which rotates with synchronous speed in the direction of positive sequence. The synchronous speed.

$$N_s = \frac{120 f}{P}$$

Where f is frequency of supply and P is no of poles



2. If a conductor moves in a magnetic field than emf is induced in the conductor and if closed path is provided than due to emf current will start to flow in the conductor. The direction of current can be found by Fleming's Right Hand Rule.

According to Fleming's Right Hand Rule. Put the thumb of Right Hand in the direction of Force on conductor. The index figure shall be in the direction of magnetic field then middle figure will show direction of current induced.



The synchronous generator has $3-\phi$ winding uniformly distributed in slots of stator. The winding are displaced in space 120° to each other.

The rotor is either cylindrical or salient pole type. The rotor is excited By D.C current. The rotor is made to run by prime mover.

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LOAD FLOW

12.1 INTRODUCTION

Load flow is steady state solution of power system network. Load is considered as complex power and not as impedance. The variables are P, Q, $|V| \& \delta$ at various buses as per nature of bus. Load flow is useful for monitoring power system and for future planning.

Power injection at i^{th} bus $S_i = S_{Gi} - S_{Di}$ Where S_{Gi} is generation at ith bus and S_{Di} is demand at that bus. In general current injection at ith bus is

datum bus

$$I_i = \sum_{k=1}^n Y_{ik} V_k i$$

Where $Y_{ik} = -y_{ik}$ (i \neq k); where y_{ik} is admittance between ith & kth bus

When i = k And y_{ii} is admittance between bus and ground or

 $Y_{ik} = \sum\limits_{k=1}^n y_{ik}$ $I_{Bus} = Y_{Bus} V_{Bus}$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} Y_{11} & Y_{11} & \dots & Y_{1n} \\ Y_{21} & Y_{22} & \dots & Y_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \\ Y_{n1} & Y_{n2} & \dots & Y_{nn} \end{array}$$

 Y_{BUS} is a symmetric matrix hence only $\frac{n^2 - n}{2} + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ terms are to be saved.

Y_{BUS} is generally a sparse matrix i.e. having very few non-zero terms.

12.2 BUS INCIDENCE MATRIX

 Y_{Bus} = admittance bus matrix =

Bus incidence matrix is formed by graph theory and by singular transformation of primitive Y_p matrix if A is Bus incidence matrix then. $Y_{BUS} = A^T Y_p A$

12.2.1 Effect of Adding or Removing Extra Lines in YBUS

Assuming no mutual coupling between transmission lines addition of admittance y effects four element if connected between ith & jth bus

 $Y_{ii} new = y_{ii old} + y$ $Y_{jj} \; new = y_{jj \; old} + y$ $Y_{ij new}^{b} = y_{ji new} = y_{ij old} - y$ and y_{ji} old - yAddition of element between ith bus and ground effect only Y_{ii} i.e.

 $y_{iinew} = y_{iiold} + y$

CHAPTER - 13 VOLTAGE CONTROL

13.1 INTRODUCTION

As we have seen that

$$Q_r = \frac{\mid V_r \mid}{X} \Delta V$$

Voltage drop ΔV increases if reactive power demand is increased. Increase in ΔV means that for fixed supply voltage receiving end voltage is decreased.

As we have seen in previous chapter that if loading of line is equal to surge impedance loading (SIL) than voltage remains constant over the line if loading is more than SIL than $V_r < V_s$ and for loading less than SIL, $V_r > V_s$.

Basically the voltage at any node in power system can be controlled by controlling reactive power at that node. If lagging reactive power is supplied at the node by local generator than reactive power taken through line can be maintained at specified value and thus receiving end voltage can be maintained constant.

13.2 METHOD OF VOLTAGE CONTROL

1. By Changing Excitation of Generator

Sending end voltage V_s can be increased by increasing excitation of alternator.

2. By Static VAR Generators or Shunt Compensation

Capacitors known as shunt capacitors are connected at the receiving end. Capacitor is supplier of reactive power.



 $Q_r^s + Q_e = Q_D^s$; when Q_D varies as per load Q_e can be adjusted to maintain Q_r^s constant. For capacitor bank in Δ

$$Q_{C3-\phi} = \frac{3 |V_r|^2}{x} MVAR$$

Where V_r is line voltage in kV When capacitor bank in Y

$$Q_{c3-\phi} = \frac{|V_r|^2}{X_o} MVAR$$

Some times at light loads V_r becomes greater then V_s in such situations to keep V_r constant. Inductors are connected at receiving end to lower V_r

$$Q_{L3-\phi} = \frac{3 |V_r|^2}{x_L} MVAR \text{ for } \Delta$$

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CHAPTER - 14 POWER FACTOR CORRECTION

14.1 INTRODUCTION

Almost 70% load on power system is inductive. The more the load is inductive the poorer the power factor becomes. Low power factor means high current for same amount of real power, High current causes over heating of conductors, large ohmic losers and considerable voltage drop. Hence it is desired to improve the power factor of load.

Inductive load absorbs reactive power. If required reactive power can be supplied locally to the load than power factor of such load will remain same but the power factor of current supplied will change because of less reactive power flow from supply to load.

In terms of powers the power factor angle is shown in power triangle below.



Here S is complex power, P is active or real power and Q is reactive power S = p + jQ

The power factor angle $\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{Q}{P}$

For large value of Q the angle θ will be more for same P \Rightarrow Power factor $\cos\theta \downarrow$

Let us consider an inductive load demanding Q_L reactive power. Whole reactive power is supplied through source i.e. $Q_S = Q_L$

$$P_{L}, Q_{L}$$
+
$$L O A D S_{L} = P_{L} + jQ_{L}$$

Now the power factor angle of source current is

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{Q_L}{P_L}$$

Capacitor is generator of reactive power. If capacitor is connected across load and supplies Q_C reactive power than p reactive power supplied from source $Q_S = Q_L - Q_C$ and for same real power of load the power factor angle of source current

$$\theta' = \tan^{-1} \frac{Q_L - Q_C}{P_L}$$

We can see $\theta' < \theta \Rightarrow \cos \theta' > \cos \theta$ and hence power of source current in improved. Reactive power supplied by capacitor C at frequency f is

POWER SYSTEM

CHAPTER - 15 *ECONOMIC LOAD DISPATCH*

15.1 INTRODUCTION

Economic Load dispatch has the aspects

1. Unit commitment

This is pre dispatch issue where in it is required optimal selection of generating units out of pool of generators to meet expected load.

2. Dispatch

where in out of selected generating stations load is distributed in such a way so as reduce overall operating cost.

The cost of generation is not fixed for particular load demand but depend upon the operating constraints of the sources.

15.2 SYSTEM CONSTRAINT

15.2.1 Equality Constraint

$$\begin{split} \Sigma P_{G_i} &= \Sigma P_{D_i} + P_L \\ \Sigma Q_{G_i} &= \Sigma Q_{D_i} + Q_L \\ P_L \text{ and } Q_L \text{ are real reactive power loss} \end{split}$$

15.2.2 Inequality Constraints

1. Generator Constraints $P_i^2 + Q_i^2 \le S_p^2$ Where s_p is prespecipied KVA loadings The max P_i is limited by temperature limits and minimum P_i by flame instability of boiler. $P_{i_{min}} \le P_p \le P_{i_{max}}$ Max Q_i is limited by overheating of rotor winding and min Q_i due to stability limit. $Q_{i_{min}} \le Q_i \le Q_{i_{max}}$

2. Voltage Constraints

$$\begin{split} \mid & \mathbf{V}_{i\min} \mid \leq \mathbf{V}_{i} \leq \mid \mathbf{V}_{i\max} \mid \\ & \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i\min} \leq \boldsymbol{\delta}_{i} \leq \boldsymbol{\delta}_{max} \end{split}$$

3. Running Spare Capacity Constraints Total Generation $G \ge P_i + Ps_0$

4. Transmission Line Constraint $C_i \leq C_{i_{max}}$ where c_i is loading capacity of line

5. Transformer tap settings also are constraints

15.3 GENERATOR OPERATING COST

Only fuel cost for thermal & nuclear is considered. The input energy rate $Fi(P_{G_i})$ in Mkcal/h or

cost of fuel $C_i(P_{G_i})Rs/h$ is function of P_G as sown

CHAPTER - 16 SYMMETRICAL COMPONENTS & SEQUENCE NETWORKS

16.1 FORTESCUE'S THEOREM

An unbalanced set of n phasors may be resolved into (n - 1) balanced n-phase system of different phase sequence and one zero sequence system. As per this theorem the unbalanced three phase may be resolved in 2 balanced 3-phase system one of which is positive sequence (Having same sequence that of unbalanced), Negative sequence (Having sequence positive to that of unbalanced) and zero sequence.



$$\begin{split} V_{a} &= V_{a1} + V_{a2} + V_{a0} \\ V_{b} &= V_{b1} + V_{b2} + V_{b0} \\ V_{c} &= V_{c1} + V_{c2} + V_{c0} \end{split}$$

The voltages V_{a1} , V_{a2} & V_{a0} etc are called symmetrical components. The calculation of symmetrical component phasor is made in terms of 'a' as the symmetric phase.

16.2 λ -OPERATOR

The phasor λ is an operator which when operates upon a phasor rotates it by + 120° without changing magnitude.

 $\lambda=1 \ {\ \ } 120^{\circ}$

16.2.1 Properties of λ

1. $\lambda = 1 \angle 120^\circ = \cos 120 + j \sin 120$ $\Rightarrow \lambda = -0.5 + j \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ 2. $\lambda^2 = 1 \angle 240^\circ = 1 \angle -120^\circ = -0.5 - j \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ 3. $\lambda^3 = 1 \angle 360^\circ = 1 \angle 0^\circ = 1$ 4. $\lambda^3 - 1 = 0$ $\Rightarrow (\lambda - 1) (\lambda^2 + \lambda + 1) = 0$ $\Rightarrow \lambda^2 + \lambda + 1 = 0$ 5. $\lambda^* = \lambda^2$ 6. $\lambda^4 = \lambda$

CHAPTER - 17 SYMMETRICAL FAULT ANALYSIS

17.1 INTRODUCTION

Generally, the power system works is balanced condition. When a $3-\phi$ short circuit occurs, then currents become very high and voltages reduce, still the system remains balanced, such fault are known as symmetrical fault and are severest.

17.1.1 Types of Symmetrical Fault

Symmetrical fault are of the two type.

1. 3-phases coming together or LLL fault.

2. 3-phase touching ground simultaneously or LLLG fault.

The circuit breakers are designed to the limit of short circuit of 3- ϕ .

17.1.2 Purpose of Fault Analysis

The purpose of fault analysis includes:

1. To determine fault voltage and current at different point of power system so that rating of circuit breakers may be determined.

2. Fault analysis helps is selecting appropriate scheme for protective relaying.

Faults may cause severe effects on power system like excessive currents cause heating and rupture of insulation.

In fault analysis certain assumptions are made, which include:

(i) Series resistances of components are neglected.

(ii) Shunt elements of transformers and lines are neglected.

(iii) Normal load currents are neglected i.e. before fault the system is considered open circuited and pre fault voltage at the fault point is taken as $1 \angle 0^\circ$ p.u. This is known as flat profile.

17.2 SHORT CIRCUIT CAPACITY

Short circuit capacity of a network is defined as product of magnitude of pre fault voltage and post fault current.

 $SCC \triangleq V^{\circ} |I_F| VA$.

For three phase

 $\sqrt{3}V_{\rm lb}I_{\rm F} = SSC$ in all three phase

If Z_T is the impedance from voltage source to fault point then

$$Z_{T_{p.u}} = \frac{I_b Z_T}{V_t}$$

Now short circuit current $I_{sc} =$

$$\therefore Z_{T_{p,u}} = \frac{I_b Z_T}{V_b} = \frac{I_b}{I_{sc}} = \frac{V_b I_b}{I_{sc} V_b}$$

$$I_{sc} V_b \text{ is SCC, hence}$$

$$S.C.C = \frac{S_b}{Z_{T_{p,u}}}$$

CHAPTER - 18 UNSYMMETRICAL FAULT ANALYSIS

18.1 INTRODUCTION

In unsymmetrical fault the system becomes unbalanced and symmetrical components are used for analysis.



CHAPTER - 19 POWER SYSTEM PROTECTION

19.1 INTRODUCTION

1. Protective Relay

A relay is an automatic device which senses an abnormal condition in an electric circuit and closes its contacts, which in turn close the circuit breaker trip coil circuit, thereby, it opens the CB and faulty part of the electric circuit is disconnected from system.

2. Pick up level

The value of actuating quantity above which relay operates.

3. Reset level

The value of actuating quantity below which relay comes in original position.

4. Operating time

The time between the instant when actuating quantity exceeds pick up value to the instant when relay contacts close.

5. Reach

The area of protection is called reach.

19.2 FUNCTIONAL CHARACTERISTIC OF RELAY

1. Reliability

Relay should operate when required.

2. Selectivity

Relay shall sense as to which part is faulty and which is not.

3. Speed

It must operate at required speed.

4. Sensitivity

It Shall be sensitive.

6. Unit system of protection

In this system protection responds to faults within its own zone and does not make note of condition elsewhere for example Protection of Generator, transformers and BUS bars.

7. Non unit system of protection

In this type selectivity is obtained by current and time grading of the relays at different location for example protection of feeders.

8. Universal torque equation

The universal torque equation for various relays is $T = K_1 I^2 + K_2 V^2 + K_3 V I \cos(\theta - \tau) + K_4.$

CHAPTER - 20 CIRCUIT BREAKERS

20.1 INTRODUCTION

During fault protective relay energizes the trip circuit of the circuit breaker causing its moving poles to separate from fixed poles. As poles separate electric arc is formed in the air gap feeding the current. For A.C. arc would extinguish at zero current and if it does not strike, the breaker opens successfully. The voltage across the breaker poles is almost constant during arcing phase and after arc is extinguished the ac system voltage appears across poles of circuit breakers.

The voltage opening across the poles when arc extinguishes is known as recovery voltage. Due to inductance and capacitance between source and fault point, transients appear at the time of interruption of current. The voltage across CB in transient period is called transient recovery voltage (TRV). The peak value of TRV may be doubled that of normal voltage, which may cause are to restrike.



CHAPTER - 21 POWER SYSTEM STABILITY

21.1 INTRODUCTION

Power system stability is the ability of power system to return to normal operating condition after disturbance or in other words ability to remain in synchronism.

1. Steady State Stability

The maximum load which can be supplied when loading is increased gradually is the steady state stability of the system.

2. Dynamic Stability

Dynamic stability is the stability due to small disturbances, amplitude of oscillation is less and die out quickly No fear of loss of synchronism.

3. Transient Stability

Transient stability is under large sudden disturbance like faults. Due to severe disturbance there is fear of loss of synchronism if disturbance not resolved in very short time i.e. with 1 or 2 second.

21.2 DYNAMICS OF SYNCHRONOUS MACHINE

Kinetic energy of rotor

K.E.
$$=\frac{1}{2}J\omega_{\rm srr}^2$$

 ω_{sm} is synchronous speed

 $\omega_{\rm s} = \frac{P}{2}\omega_{\rm sm}$ where $\omega_{\rm s}$ is speed in elect rad/sec

P = number of poles in the machine

$$K.E = \frac{1}{2} \left(J \left(\frac{2}{P} \right)^2 \omega_s \right) \omega_s$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} M \omega_s$$

$$=\frac{1}{2}M\omega_{s}$$

Where $M = J\left(\frac{2}{P}\right)^2 \omega_s = \text{moment of inertia in J-s/elect read}$

Now inertial constant H such that

$$K.E = GH = \frac{1}{2}MW$$

Where G is Machine rating in VA H = inertia constant in J/VA or W -s/VA

$$M = \frac{2GH}{\omega_s} = \frac{GH}{\pi f} J - s / \text{elect rad}$$

$$M = \frac{OH}{180f} J - s / elect degree$$



a power system with a double circuit transmission line. The expression for electrical power is 1.5 sin δ , where δ is the rotor angle. The system is operating at the stable equilibrium point with mechanical power equal to 1 pu. If one of the transmission line circuits is removed, the maximum value of δ , as the rotor swings is 1.221 radian. If the expression for electrical power with one transmission line circuit removed is $P_{max} \sin \delta$, the value of P_{max} , in pu is



2. The single line diagram of a balanced power system is shown in the figure. The voltage magnitude at the generator internal bus is constant and 1.0 p.u. The p.u. reactances of different components in the system are also shown in the figure. The infinite bus voltage magnitude is 1.0 p.u. A three phase fault occurs at the middle of line 2.

The ratio of the maximum real power than can be transferred during the pre-fault condition to the maximum real power that can be transferred under the faulted condition is



3. The synchronous generator shown in the figure is supplying active power to an infinite bus via short, lossless transmission lines, and is initially in steady state. The mechanical power input to generator and the voltage magnitude E

1. The figures shows the single line diagram of opening circuit breakers at the two ends (although there is no fault), then it is seen that the generator undergoes a stable transient. Which one of the following waveforms of the rotor angle δ shows transient correctly?



4. A sustained three phase fault occurs in the power shown in the figure. The current and voltage phasor during the fault (on a common are constant. if one line is tripped at time t_1 by reference), after the natural transients have died

CHAPTER - 22 LOAD FREQUENCY CONTROL

22.1 INTRODUCTION

Due to following reasons system frequency shall remain in striet limits.

- 1. Speed of A.C. motors is directly related to frequency.
- 2. The electric clocks are driven by synchronous motors.
- 3. For frequency outside of range turbine blades may damage.
- 4. For low frequency the flux required in core increases in transformers and core may saturate.

5. In thermal power plant with reduced frequency the blast of fan decreases \Rightarrow generation \downarrow and this again reduced blast of fan which becomes a cumulative process and the power system may shutdown consequently.

22.1.1 With Increase in Load

$$\frac{\mathrm{M}\mathrm{d}^2\delta}{\mathrm{d}\mathrm{t}^2} = \mathrm{P}_\mathrm{m} - \mathrm{P}_\mathrm{e}$$

If $P_e \uparrow$ then acceleration \downarrow and speed reduce thus frequency \downarrow . This is sensed by load frequency controller and steam input is increased by valve control mechanism thus meeting increased load. The control of system frequency and load depends on Governer of prime movers.



Governor Characteristic

Governor Characteristic is also called drop characteristic or droop characteristic.

22.2 LOAD-FREQUENCY PROBLEM



