



## Generation of Electricity from River Water Flow using Turbines

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### Abstract

On the continent of North America, steam-electric or hydroelectric generating units provide the bulk of the energy used by electric utility systems. It sometimes happens that one type predominates in certain utilities while it may be virtually entirely absent in others. As a result, the system engineer and power plant designer may get fully acquainted with the issues related to the location, design, and system interconnection for one type of plant while becoming less acquainted with those related to the other. Although it is believed that the readers of this site are well aware of the issues with steam-electric plants, they might find it interesting to learn more about some of the design differences that can occur with hydroelectric plants. This paper gives the information of converting hydro energy into electrical energy.

### Keywords

Rivers, power plants, economics, and hydraulic turbines

### 1. Introduction

When considering the fundamental design elements of the hydroelectric It is possible to suppose that if a steam-electric plant is being added to an existing system, the system it is being added to is one that is already entirely supplied by sources that are identical to them. The first scenario is the only one covered in this piece. The design of steam stations and hydroelectric plants are fundamentally different from one another of the urban type. The development sites are predetermined by nature and may be close to or far from the main load centres concerned. Such facilities typically do not operate at very different load factors on a daily, seasonal, or annual basis. Different connections issues with the system may arise, typically Long high-voltage transmission

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lines with synchronous condensers, load and voltage management, and receiving stations to the load centre are available (Energy, 2022a). Many times, more than one site is available. In this situation, an overall programme encompassing all sites may be used to control the order of development, each plant's specified features, and the associated transmission system.

### 1.1. Flow of water in rivers:

Each component segment of a power distribution system should be designed with a solid understanding of the principles. The water supply or river flow is the key factor in a hydroelectric power plant. Government agencies in the US and Canada gather data on the river and stream flow near proposed hydroelectric plants, and these agencies then give the information to design engineers. These data are often gathered over a considerable amount of time, operating conditions. The hydroelectric power plant's architecture is more dependable the longer this recording period is. The majority of rivers have significantly variable flows, at least in the northern United States and Canada. For instance, the minimum natural flow of the Tennessee River near the junction of the Mississippi and Tennessee rivers is around 4,500 cubic feet per second, whereas its more likely uncontrolled flooding is closer to 1,000,000 cubic feet per second. An adjustment was made from 9,000 cubic feet per second at the Chats Falls location on the Ottawa River, which marks the boundary between the Canadian provinces of Ontario and Quebec (Energy, 2022b). There are various restrictions on the flow of this river, however they range from feet/second to 176,000 cubic feet/second. The St. Lawrence, on the other hand, paints an odd image of natural management, with flows varying between around 160,000 and 310,000 cubic feet per second due to the Great Lakes' regulatory impacts. Because of this, a financially sound hydroelectric development usually includes some sort of river flow or flood control, either at the facility's site or at other suitable places within the basin. Grand Coulee and Boulder Dam projects are two examples of dams that directly control river flow at the development site; Tennessee Valley Authority's subsidiary river projects serve as examples of controlling river flow at a distance (Fontana and Apalachia, for example).

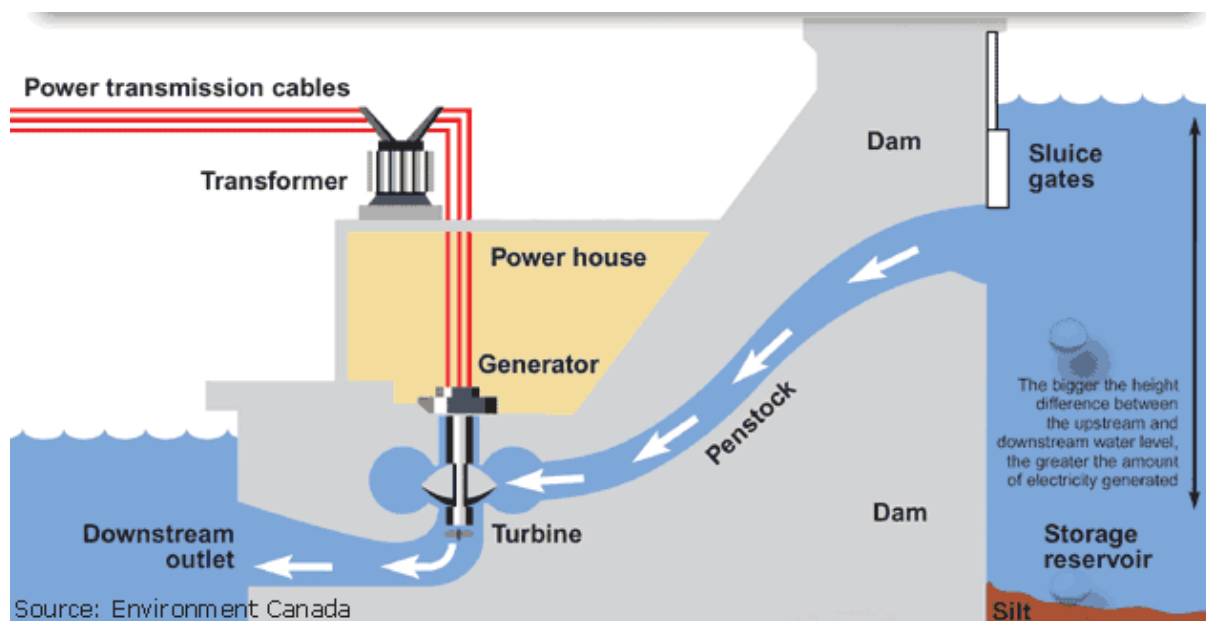


Figure 1: Hydropower generation (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2022a)

## 2. River Current

Due to its effect on plant flow, the hydraulic designer will seek for the best regulated river flow, which will result in the highest storage capacity. Rarely, though, do storage solutions provide the river's flow total control. The Grand Coulee provides an illustration of this, but in a normal scenario,

it is important to make a financial comparison between the expense of building up the storage sites and the cash earned from the increased output as a result of this storage supplied ([Encyclopedia Britannica, 2022b](#)). The Tennessee Valley Authority system has intriguing instances of both styles of growth, including some branch projects that offer total control and others (river development). significant) where a key concern is the spillway's ability to handle extremely high flood flows that development cannot directly regulate.

The hydroelectric plant's static head will be equal to the difference in elevation between the headwater and tailwater. As the head water is reduced or the tail water is raised during operation, the operating head will change. Effective water delivery to the plant and effective water removal from the plant are obviously both essential. The tailrace problem is therefore comparable to the head water problem when the two are considered together installed capacity overall. Because the system's capacity to generate, the overall installed capacity at a particular site is frequently not fully determined by the hydraulic engineer since transmit and absorb plant output must also be taken into account. The greatest load factors for which an efficient design may be estimated are of importance to the hydraulic engineer. Operating as a "top" plant, however, may be possible if adequate containment area (rather than permanent storage) can be supplied directly above the plant. This is particularly true if the cost of expanding capacity is inexpensive and merely requires the installation of the required hardware and raising the peak water flow.

One exception is the so-called "run-of-river" plant, which has virtually little storage capacity. The hydraulic engineer is able to provide a number of potential configurations for any particular power plant for further consideration as a consequence of these detailed and often very preliminary research. Among these will be alternatives for operating load factor and rated capacity [5]. They will also have different arrangements, special facilities for things like water, fishways, flood prevention, and navigation transit for irrigation, as well as provisions for electrical and operational needs, the sites of transformer and switchyards, and an operators' colony.

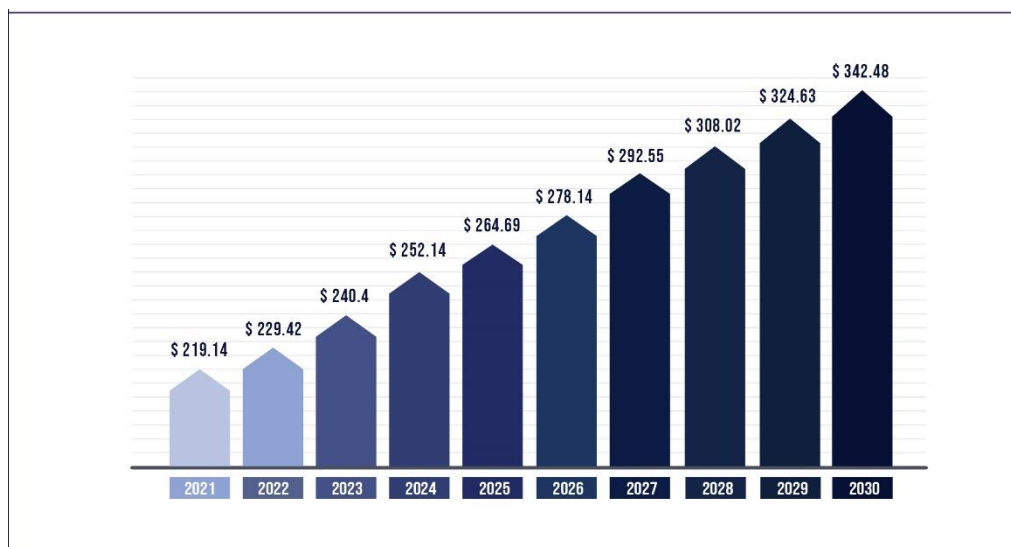


Figure 2: Scope Genetic testing market size ([Energy 2010](#))

### 2.1. *Essential research on system requirements*

The larger cities have the highest load concentrations on the typical utility system. These cities are frequently situated so that the load centres are close to the cooling water sources needed by the steam-electric generating facilities. Even if this assessment is oversimplified, the Metropolitan Steam Power Plant may be set up to accommodate the load needs because any peak power and operational load factor are appropriate for the industry. It may be constructed using the system's overall economics. Most of the time, hydroelectric developments do not fall within this category. The second phase in increasing hydropower generation capacity is to adapt the available sites to the system's anticipated future demands. The planning division of the utility will keep track of daily, seasonal, and yearly loads, peak requirements and energy are two examples. They will pay special attention to variations between the seasons or between the year's high and low points, as well as changes in the daily load curve's form over time. They will be familiar with the limitations on current storage facilities, the operation of the plants, and the long-term variations in precipitation on the numerous watersheds across the system. Future load demand predictions will be recorded in this division's records as precisely as the economy permits. In general, it may be claimed that precise estimates of the time required to increase the system's capacity, which is frequently in the range of two years, should be made available. Future load forecasts are only a guide to potential conditions. after that point because they are rarely deemed reliable ([Water Encyclopedia, 2019](#)). These different variables will be segmented in the same way that the system logically can be divided into major load zones so that the available generating capacity and the load needs of each area can be analysed separately. The peak and energy transfer requirements are met in this way. It is feasible to research the capacity of the already available interconnecting facilities across locations, both under regular conditions and potential emergency situations.

| Power Generation Capacity<br>(Watts) | Type of Hydro Power Plant |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <100 kW                              | Micro                     |
| 100-1000 kW                          | Mini                      |
| 1MW-10 MW                            | Small                     |
| 10MW-300 MW                          | Medium                    |
| >300 MW                              | Large                     |

A more critical Kilobar distribution analysis will often be needed in the system that is primarily powered by hydroelectric resources through long-distance transmission lines than in the system that is powered by more compact steam. Due to this, data on kilobar distribution will be kept in the system records, along with records on kilowatt capacity and demand. These diverse data give the planning division the tools it needs to perform system studies, the goal of which will be to identify the most advantageous point of connection to the current system and the specifications for the new generating requirements at any given time.

### 2.3. Characteristics of hydraulic turbines

The number of producing units and their capacity, as well as the rotational speed of any specific plant and kind of turbine, are fixed within extremely rigid parameters by the developed head and overall operating capacity. When the capacity (or, at a given capacity, the speed) is increased past a set of clearly defined limits at a certain speed, the problem of runner cavitation is raised. This is fundamentally different from the design of a steam-electric plant, where the capacity and speed are totally determined by the designer. The propeller type unit achieves an operating speed that is roughly 50% greater than the Francis type when head and capacity conditions allow a choice, however the overspeed that the generator must be designed for Kaplan units may operate at about 300 percent of their specified efficiency, compared to fixed-blade propellers at around 200 percent and Francis type turbines at about 180 percent efficiency when operating at normal rated head (Adhikary et al., 2013).

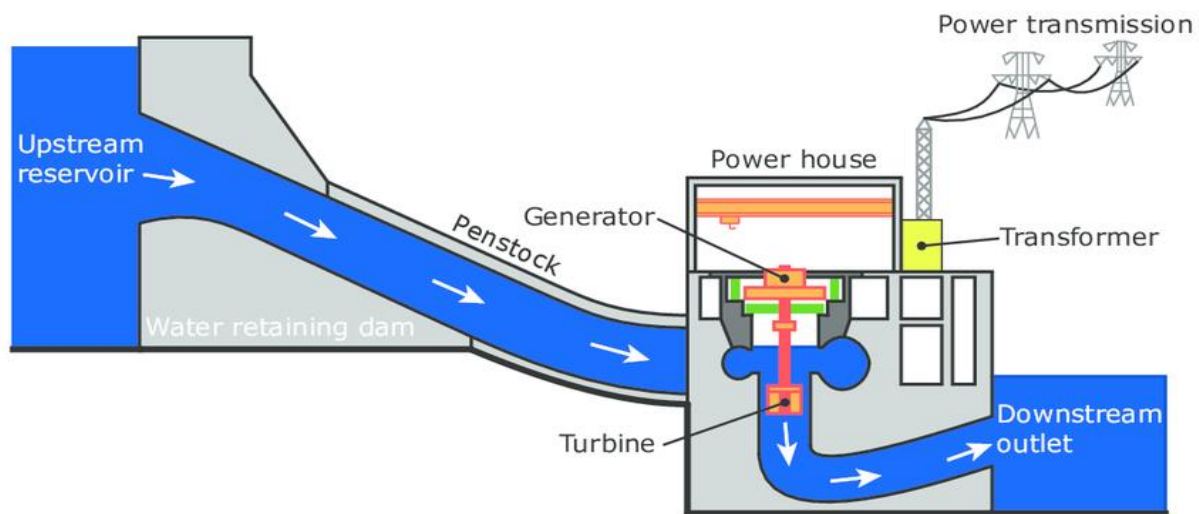


Figure 3: Typical hydropower plant cross section (Adhikary et al., 2013)

The fact that hydraulic factors regulate the turbine speed is of special relevance to the electrical designer. Speed obviously influences generator design and may also influence unit spacing, superstructure design, crane capacity, and the amount of space needed for the erection bay. It's interesting to notice that European practises often involve faster speeds than those employed in North America. Higher water velocity entering and leaving the turbine are permitted by European designs; these are speeding that hydraulic designer in North America currently regard to be at the point where cavitation becomes a significant factor. To enable raising the permitted cavitation factor, the continental designer may use stainless steel extensively, particularly in the runner blades of propeller type devices (Padhy and Senapati, 2015). American fashion designers Utility engineers

must strike a balance between the lower initial costs brought on by faster speeds and the higher maintenance costs associated with runners that suffer from cavitation.

The plant efficiency curve will be interesting to the system engineer as well. The effectiveness of hydraulic designs (water pipelines and turbines) in a hydroelectric plant cannot be anticipated with any degree of accuracy, in contrast to generator designs. Usually, the turbine maker determines the draught tube design and at least one application. Additionally, the design of the intake tubes will be decided by the manufacturer. Model tests are widely used to assess the effectiveness of various contracts or to decide what guarantees to provide in a specific situation. Depending on the particular design and class employed, the efficiency curve of the turbine can have either a sharp peak, as in curve A, or a relatively flat zone at and around peak efficiency, as in curve B. If it is possible to adjust the number of operating units in response to changes in the plant's overall load while still enabling all units to run at their most effective levels, the maximum efficiency curve can be accepted. It is best to get rid of these devices, though, if the factory is obliged to give the system's tuning capability or if there is another justification for doing so. Another reason is that, although while maximum efficiency may be a little bit lower when working over a large load range, a flatter efficiency characteristic may be preferable (Durrand, 1939). Similar to the main river facilities run by the Tennessee Valley Authority, the plant's manager may select efficiency requirements that cover a wide range.

Ladder switching and high voltage switching are constructed inside the plant's superstructure, which is a rare technique in modern times due to topography and other financial considerations. This configuration is more advantageous when there is a lengthy horizontal part of the turbine intake. Sometimes the transition might be carried out upstream of the superstructure. The generator cables in this plant are linked to a step-up transformer and a high voltage switching station; the powerhouse in this plant solely contains the generator voltage switching. The principal electrical circuits from the transformers and high voltage switching to the outbound transmission lines, which are usually extremely inaccessible generators, must frequently be connected with tremendous ingenuity when planning a significant development.

### 3. Hydroelectric generator

Generally, cautious designer in this case is forced to make a decision between the necessity to provide flexibility in the form of more kilovolt-ampere capacity and the potential deterioration in system stability brought on by units operating under excitement. Units with power factors of 85% to 90% are common, and in at least one development the author is aware of units with power factors of 95% were proposed rating. In contrast to conventional steam power plants, hydropower facilities have a distinct connection between turbine and generator capacity. A kilowatt steam turbine is frequently made to have an output equal to a kilovolt-ampere generator with an 80 percent power factor. Capacity and speed of hydroelectric power units are nearly never matched; they are almost always adapted, every expense is the same. As a result, it will be difficult to execute the proposed steam-electric generators in hydroelectric practise. In addition, the operating head is the only element that can alter the maximum turbine output after the hydraulic design has been established. The generator's rated power in kilowatts is chosen in order to match the power of the turbine to a predetermined or customary head. The enhanced power of the turbine can be maintained when the available operating head surpasses this threshold by running at a higher power factor or at temperatures higher than the allowed 60-degree increment while maintaining within the permitted range of class B insulation.



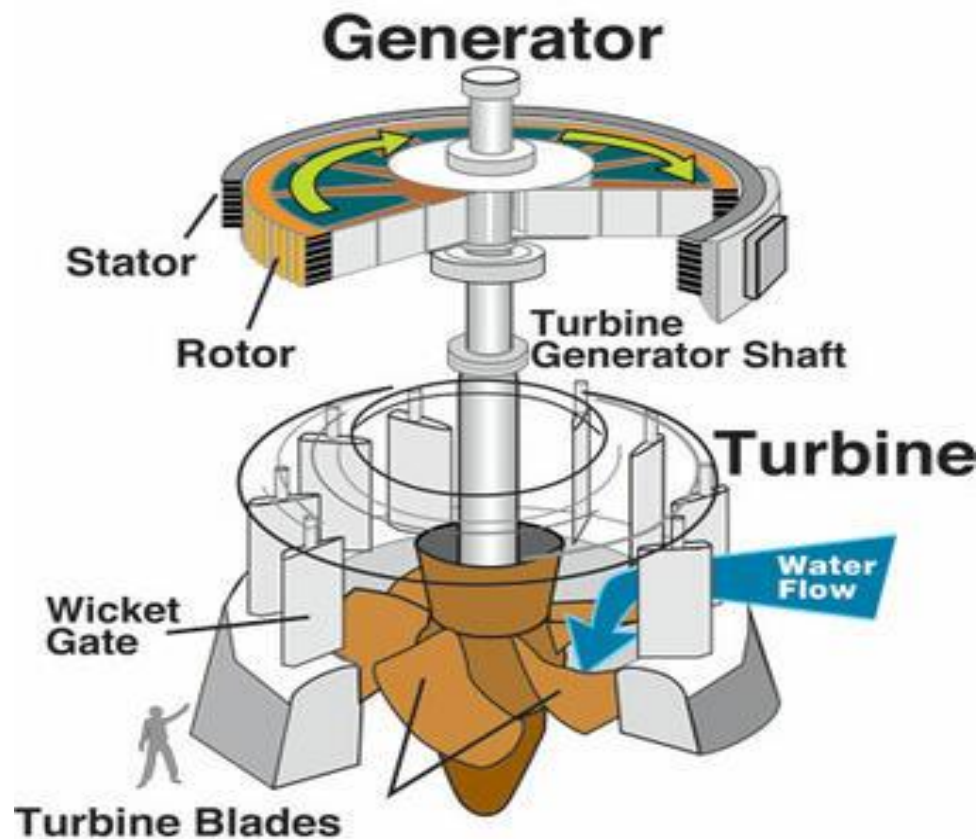


Figure 4: A hydroelectric power plant (Lewis, 1996)

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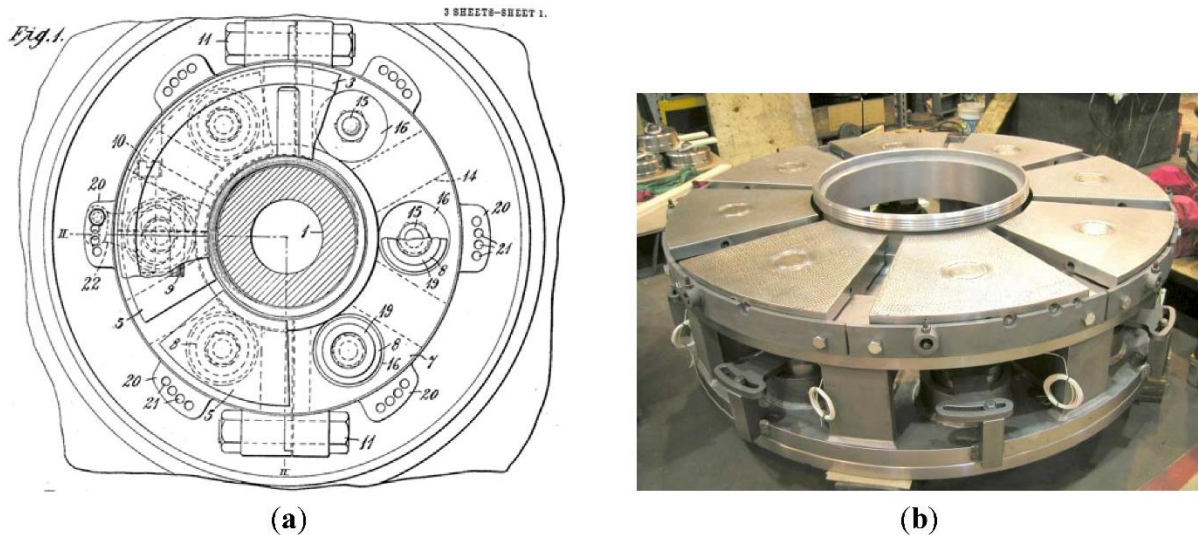


Figure 5: Typically kings burry thrust bearing (Chung, 2002).

The stationary plate in the spring-supported bearing is essentially made of one piece and is simply divided for installation encircling the shaft. A nest of supports holds up this plate. segmentally separated placed in a tray are helical springs. These springs are recompressed, and following precompression, each is fabricated using a precise consistency of length tolerance. Because the contacting area is virtually one unit, this type that bearing's adjustment and alignment must be accomplished by adjusting the entire bearing bracket.

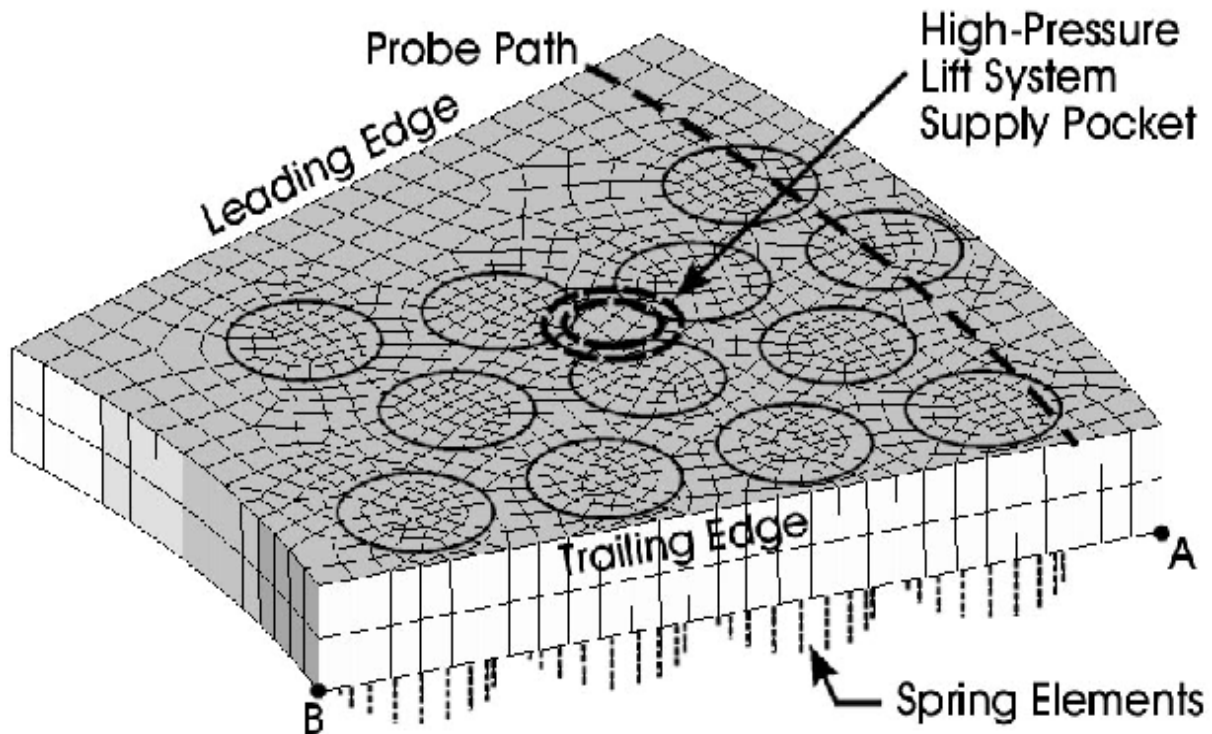


Figure 6: A typical thrust bearing with spring support [15]

Duct systems were included in later designs. In certain instances, air could be drawn from the outside and injected into the powerhouse, and in others, a reverse arrangement was offered. Another air intake and discharge were provided later on by more comprehensive duct systems outside the powerhouse. The operation of the carbon-dioxide protection system and the control of



generator temperature were then both conceivable with damper setups. Modern designs completely enclose the generator stator, following the practise of turbogenerators, and cool it using surface coolers built into this housing. The capacity to manage operating temperatures at a more consistent level, a very effective condition for extending design life, is its biggest advantage. Overall, the reduced cleaning expenses would more than make up for this design's higher price.

### 3.1. Transformers

Hydroelectric generating stations typically use a conventional design for the step-up transformation. Due to the accessibility of cooling water, which is occasionally collected straight beneath natural head from the penstocks, water-cooled units may be employed more frequently than elsewhere. Using the cooling equipment, forced-oil cooling floating in the water's edge is a version that hasn't gained as much popularity as it should have. Solar energy typically conjures up images of heat that can be harnessed from the sun's rays. But solar energy also comes in other forms. Wind power and hydropower are both examples of solar energy. The sun actually causes by heating air masses that rise, cool, and then fall back to earth; the wind can blow. Solar. The sun's rays, air currents, and other sources of energy are all constantly in motion. Leaks wouldn't be a concern if there was positive oil pressure, and maintenance issues related to water supply filtering or thoroughly. The cooling system should be cleaned also be abated. A number of stations have adopted transformers with three windings, which feature two low-voltage windings of one-half capacity and a single high-voltage winding of full capacity. This is especially true one full-capacity high-voltage winding and two half-capacity low-voltage windings. used Each transformer bank is connected to pairs of generating units (Adhikary et al., 2013). This arrangement results from the previously indicated difference between the capacity of the unit and the power of the transformer bank, which is solely constrained through production and transportation restrictions. Such an arrangement results in a significant reduction in the cost of the transformer as well as an additional indirect reduction in the switching at high voltage.



Figure 6: Hydro power transformer (Adhikary et al., 2013)

### 4. Conclusion

Hydro power is an environmentally beneficial and renewable source of electricity. Hydro power plants are more flexible than most other energy sources when it comes to meeting peak demand

and improving the reliability of the power system. due to their intrinsic capacity for instantaneous operation. Regulatory agencies like the CEA and CERC specify numerous metrics for measuring the performance of operating power plants, including capacity utilisation, annual generation, sales, and revenue realisation. The biggest river basin in the world and a potential hub for future hydropower growth, the Amazon area, relies mostly on hydropower for its energy needs. However, a recent research cautions that the Amazon's hydroelectric output may decline in the future decades due to climate change-driven decreases in precipitation and river flow.

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