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INTELLIGENT FAULT DIAGNOSIS OF POWER TRANSMISSION LINE USING FUZZY LOGIC AND ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORK

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Abstract

In the industrial sector, transmission lines are an important part of the electrical grid. Thus it is important to protect it from all the different faults that may occur as soon as possible to supply the electric power continuously. This paper presents a modern solutions and a comparative study of fault detection and identification in electrical transmission lines using artificial neural network (ANN) compare to the fuzzy logic. Faults in transmission line of various types have been created using simulation model. An intelligent monitoring system (IFD: Intelligent Fault Diagnosis) was used at both ends of a 230 kV overhead transmission line, voltage and current measurements exploited as indicator data for this system. Both approaches were found to be robust, accurate and reliable to detect the fault when it occurs, to determine the fault type short circuit or opening of a power line (open circuit), to locate the fault and to determine which phase was faulted.

Keywords: power system diagnosis, fault detection, electrical transmission line, ANN, fuzzy logic.

ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS

 i_{abc} : Three-phase currents; v_{abc} : Three-phase voltages; OC: Open Circuit; SC: Short Circuit; ANN: Artificial Neural Network; IFD: Intelligent Fault Diagnosis; L: Inductance, C: Capacitor, R: Resistance; G: Ground, l: Line length; Ph_i and i=a,b,c Electrical phase; X: Variable; V_a : Electrical voltage amplitude of phase (a); I_a : Electrical current amplitude of phase (a); m: measurement, S_b : Base power; Q_{k} , H_k , L_k , VL_k (and k=1,2,3...): Linguistic variables.

1. INTRODUCTION

In power systems, transmission lines play an important role that is transferring electric power from the generating station to load centers, the occurrence of different types of faults on the transmission line is a fact in daily life, although such faults rarely occur and occur at random locations Therefore, a well-coordinated protection system must be provided to quickly detect and isolate faults, thus minimizing damage to the power system. These faults can be categorized to shunt faults (shortcircuit) and series faults (open-circuit) [1], various possible short circuit faults can be a single phaseground short-circuit L-G (Pha-gnd, Phb-gnd, Phcgnd), double phases-ground short-circuit 2L-Gnd (Phab-gnd, Phbc-gnd, Phac-gnd), double phaseground short-circuit 2L without the ground (Pha-b, Phb-c, Pha-c) and three phases short-circuit 3L (Phab-c) with or without the ground [2, 3]. Similarly open circuit faults can be at one phase, two phases or all three phases.

Until now, numerous methods have been conducted to diagnose the transmission lines, these methods can be divided into several categories based on impedance measurement, traveling wave techniques, time domain current & voltage measurements and artificial intelligence.

Several diagnostic techniques are investigated in previous works, as following: Impedance-based methods are mostly divided into two ends methods [4, 5] and one end methods [6, 7], which are considered to be accurate and complete. However, they bring complexity and high computational cost, as some asynchronous methods may have two different results, thus requiring а telecommunications system between the two diagnostic stations and an accurate model of the faulted transmission line. The travelling waves methods based on the high-frequency forward and backward fault signals propagating to both ends along the transmission line, knowing the propagation velocity of waves, the fault location can be calculated after determining the time when these

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signals arrive to the ends, these methods can be classified into two ends methods [8, 9], one end methods [10, 11] or both, in [12] a combination of one-end and two-ends techniques is used, although this algorithm accurate and useful to determine the simultaneous faults locations however the obtained accuracy depends on precise synchronization between the two ends which is not economical. In [13], the authors introduced a traveling-wave-based algorithm, this method aims to improve the fault location accuracy by eliminating the synchronization error, yet, in order to realize this method, many measurement devices and satellites are required. A combination of TW and machine learning was introduced in [14], this method has some disadvantages not only it requires a large data and thousands of samples but also the accuracy decreases when the fault is further, in general, these methods have many advantages to summarize: They have a high accuracy, speed and reliability, in addition they are unaffected by load variations or high ground resistance however, the disadvantage of these methods is that they are costly and require high sampling frequencies ,some of two ends methods require additional devices or an implemented Global Positioning System (GPS)for synchronizing the signals at both ends [13, 15].

Time domain methods depends on voltages and currents measurements [16, 17]. exploitation of these measurements it varies, in [18] the authors introduce an instantaneous phase angles basedmethod, that works satisfactorily for high impedance fault and is robust to harmonics however requires a high samplings rate. Another method based on positive sequence superimposed network during auto-reclosing presented in [19] which is reliable and accurate yet the execution time of the proposed method is up to 3 minutes. In [20] Ensemble Kalman Filter presented which is simple method and effective, some other methods rely on transforming signals from time domain to frequency domain such as Wavelet transform [21], FFT [11], S-transform [22] for features extraction from signals that are insufficient and require additional algorithms. However, while achieving satisfactory results, these methods require in-depth knowledge specific to the system configuration.

In recent years, the application of intelligent algorithms has attracted many researchers due to their advantages, in which data are collected under various fault conditions and used to create database and train the algorithms. Comparing the test results with the data base to determine the location and type of fault. In [23] the authors proposed a method based on convolutional neural network (CNN), which is worth investigating due to the large amount of data required and the use of image processing to obtain mainly fault classifications. In the study [24] a neural network model is proposed and used by an automatic learning algorithm. A multi-stage algorithm based on unsupervised feature learning and convolutional sparse Auto encoder was introduced in [25]. A combinations of support vector machines (SVMs) finite impulse response (FIR) filter and artificial neural network ANN has been proposed in [26]. Fuzzy logic-based methods presented in [27, 28], a combination of fuzzy logic with S-transform [3] and K-Nearest Neighbor Algorithm in [29]. All these algorithms require a large data and some of them reliable for just fault classification.

All of methods above focused on short-circuit faults with no considerations to open-circuit faults. In this work, two advanced algorithms of transmission line fault diagnosis using artificial neural network and fuzzy logic were proposed for the location and classification of short circuit faults, open-circuit faults and the combination of short circuit faults-open circuit faults simultaneously.

Another contribution of this paper is analyzing the implementation of intelligent monotoring methods then comparing their performance, based on fast response times with acceptable delays compared to the opening time of the breaker. The originality and the basic idea of this study is introduced by the detection and identification of all faults types occurring in the electrical transmission network, also the demonstration of the diagnosis robustness for impudent faults or enormous load variations.

2. SYSTEM DESCRIPTION

The figure 1 shows a single line diagram of the power system under study which is used to test the intelligent surveillance system. It consists of two electrical sources connected with 200km AC overhead transmission line.



Fig. 1. Power system single line diagram

Figure 2 shows the power system's structure, it consists of a 230kV /50hz source with $\angle 0^{\circ}$ phase angel connected to a 230kv/50hz source with $\angle 27^{\circ}$ phase angel through an AC overhead transmission line. The distance between the sources is 200 km, it is divided into 4 zones, and each zone is 50 km. The intelligent surveillance system was placed in beginning of the transmission line to measure the currents and voltages (I_{123}, V_{123}) after taking the measurements the intelligent system willshows the fault type (short circuit or line drop), the fault zone (1, 2, 3, 4) and the fault phase (1001 means phase A-Ground, 0101 phase B-Ground, 0011....) the full faulted phases will represent later.

The transmission line is represented by a simple circuit (π model) [30], which is composed of a resistor (*R*) and an inductance (*L*) connected in series and a capacitor (*C*) at both ends, as shown in the figure 3.



Fig. 2. Diagram of the diagnostic system



Fig. 3. Line equivalent schematic

From the modeling we obtain:

$$I = I_0 + I_1 \quad \text{and} \quad V - V' = RI_1 + L \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$
(1)

From (1), after Laplace Transformation the equations become:

$$I_1 = \frac{V - V'}{R + LS}$$
 and $I_0 = \frac{C}{2} \cdot \frac{dV}{dt} \xrightarrow{LT} I_0 = \frac{C}{2} \cdot S \cdot V$
(2)

The cyclic inductance:

$$L = \frac{\mu_0}{2\pi} \left(\frac{\mu_r}{4} + \ln(\frac{d_m}{r}) \right)$$
(3)
The cyclic capacity:

$$C = \frac{2\pi\varepsilon_0}{\ln(\frac{dm\cdot 2.\hbar m}{r.D_m})} \tag{4}$$

Where:

 d_m : Geometric mean distance between phases.

 h_{m} : Geometric mean height of the phases.

 D_m : Geometric mean distance between phases and phase images .

r: Conductor diameter, ε_0 : Vacuum dielectric permittivity, μ_0 : Vacuum magnetic permeability, μ_r : Relative magnetic permeability.

The transmission-line parameters: Length =200km, R=0.103 Ω for 1km, L=0.0013H for 1km, S_b =500MVA, C=8.2e-9 for 1km, U_b = 230 kV.

3. FAULTS TYPES

There are different types of faults in the electrical power system. Our focus in this study is the most common ones: (Short circuit and Open circuit) in transmission line. Figure 4 shows the schematic representation of the faults.



Fig. 4. Faults types

(a) Short circuit to source 1 and open circuit to source 2, (b) Short circuit to both sides, (c) short circuit to source 2 and open circuit to source 1 and (d) open circuit. In all 4 cases the fault type can be a single phase to ground (L-G), two phases (L-L), two phases to ground (2L-G), three phases (3L-G).

In case of an interconnected system we will face a problem which is how to determine if it is a short circuit or open circuit to resolve it we need to use two IFD one at each side like shown in figure 5.



4. DIAGNOSIS SYSTEM OUTPUT

Figure 6 represents the Diagnosis system outputs, the first output shows the fault type $[1 \ 0]$ indicates the short circuit (SC), $[0 \ 1]$ indicates an open circuit (OC) and $[0 \ 0]$ means there is no fault. The second output shows the location of the fault at which zone (1 to 4). The third output shows which phase is faulted.



Fig. 6. Diagnosis system output

Table 1 represents all the cases of the fault type (short circuit SC or open circuit OC) to each side's point of view of the intelligent system.

Table 1. Fault type outputs by IFD's

Display	SC	SC	OC	OC		
	side1	side2	side1	side2		
sc 1	1	0	0	1		
sc 1 & sc2	1	1	0	0		
sc 2	0	1	1	0		
oc 1 & oc 2	0	0	1	1		

5. DIAGNOSTIC BY THE ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORK ANN

Figure 7 shows the synoptic diagram of diagnostics by ANN.



Fig. 7. ANN Diagnosis

Artificial Neural Network (ANN) is a network that uses complex mathematical models for information processing. They are based on functional models of neurons and synapses in the human brain. Similar to the human brain, neural networks connect simple nodes, also called neurons. The collection of these nodes forms a node network, hence the name "neural network". These neurons receive data input and then generates an output by combining the input with its internal activation state and threshold activation function.

A neural network consists of connections, where each connection carries out the output of one neuron, which becomes the input of another neuron in the network. Each connection is assigned a weight, which represents its importance on the neural network. Any neuron can have a relationship with multiple input and output connections [31].

5.1. Neural network structure

Neural network has a complex structure composed of artificial neurons, which can receive multiple inputs to generate output, in this study the input layer has six neurons for six inputs the currents magnitudes I_1, I_2, I_3 and the voltages magnitudes V_1, V_2, V_3 . The number of the neurons in the hidden layer and the output layer changes due to outputs as we show next. This network is illustrated in figure 10.

To generate the output signal, the value of V must be activated with the activation function.

The Logistic Sigmoid or known as binary sigmoid was employed in this study to be the activation function for Hidden layer and the linear activation function is used for the output layer. The error signal is propagated from the output layer to the hidden layer for the p iteration.

The output value targeted to the k neuron and the real output obtained by the k neuron at the output layer [32]. The logistic sigmoid activation function (Log Sigmoid Transfer Function) is:

$$y_{j}(p) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-V_{j}(p)}}$$
(5)



Fig. 8. Log-Sigmoid transfer function

The linear activation function (Pure line Transfer Function) is:

(6)



Fig. 9. Linear transfer function

In this study, the used MLP architecture has been determined as (6, 40, 7). It means the dimensions of the layers are three (n=6) input variables, (m = 40) nodes in the hidden layer and seven (k=7) output nodes, respectively:



5.2. Training algorithms (Levenberg-Marquardt method)

The Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm was created to approach the second-order training speed without calculating the Hessian matrix. When the performance function has the form of a sum of squares (typical in training feed forward networks).

If X_p is the pth vector comprised of weight value and threshold value, then X_{p+1} is calculated from:

$$X_{p+1} = X_p + \Delta X$$
, $X_{p+1} = W_{p+1} + \Delta X$, $X_{p+1} = W_p$ (7)

According to newton algorithm, ΔX is given by:

$$\Delta X = - \left| \nabla^2 E(x) \right|^{-1} \nabla E(x) \tag{8}$$

Then the Hessian matrix can be approximated as:

$$H = J^T J \tag{9}$$

Where $\nabla^2 E(x)$ is the hessian matrix of error indicator function E(x). $\nabla E(x)$ is the gradient We define E(x) by the following equation:

$$E(x) = (\frac{1}{2}) \sum_{i=1}^{N} e_1^2(x)$$
(10)

Where e(x) is the training error.

 $\nabla E(x)$ and $\nabla^2 E(x)$ are calculated from Eq (11) and (12) respectively:

$$\nabla E(x) = J^T(x)e(x) \tag{11}$$

$$\nabla^2 E(x) = J^T(x)e(x) + S(x) \tag{12}$$

Where $S(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} e_i(x) \nabla^2 e_i(x)$. J(x) is the jacobian matrix given by:

$$J(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial e_1(x)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial e_1(x)}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial e_1(x)}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial e_2(x)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial e_2(x)}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial e_2(x)}{\partial x_n} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial e_n(x)}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial e_n(x)}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial e_n(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$
(13)

According to gauss-newton algorithm, ΔX can be written as follows:

$$\Delta X = -[J^T(x)J(x)]^{-1}J(x)e(x) \tag{14}$$

Meanwhile, according to LM algorithm ΔX can be rewritten as follows:

$$\Delta X = -[J^T(x)J(x) + \mu I]^{(-1)}J(x)e(x)$$
(15)

and the gradient can be computed as:

$$g = J^T e$$
 (16)
s the Jacobian matrix, which contains

Where J is the Jacobian matrix, which contains the first derivative of the network error with respect to the weight and bias, and (e(x)): Training error) is the network error vector. The Jacobian matrix can be calculated by the standard back propagation technique, which is much simpler than calculating the Hessian matrix. The Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm uses this approximation to the Hessian matrix in the following Newton-like updates:

$$X_{p+1} = x_k - [H + \mu I]^{-1} g$$
(17)

$$Xp+1 = xk - [JTJ + \mu I] - 1.JTe$$
(18)

When the scalar μ is zero, this is just Newton's method, using an approximate Hessian matrix. When μ is larger, this becomes a gradient descent with a smaller step size. Newton's method is faster and more accurate near the minimum error, so the goal is to switch to Newton's method as soon as possible. Therefore, after each successful step (decrease of the performance function), μ willdecrease and increase only when the tentative step increases the performance function. In this way, in each iteration of the algorithm the performance function is always reduced [33, 34].

5.3. Training base

5.3.1. Adaptation of measurements with neural network input

To reduce the complexity of the neural network and to process all possible values, we can specify as inputs the numbering of the variation intervals for the quantities to be measured like represented in table 2 (I_a is an example, all the currents I_a , I_b , I_c magnitudes and voltages V_a, V_b, V_c magnitudes were used), this method has the advantage that is covering all the zone from 1km to 50km thus doesn't mix between the zones when the fault occurs on the zone's boundaries and covers a large range of fault resistance.

Table. 2. Variation intervals as ANN inputs

Size	Variation interval	Interval numbering				
measured		(specification of				
		neural network				
		inputs)				
	$I_a \le 0.015$	1				
	0 . 015 <i><i< i=""><i>a</i>≤0.03</i<></i>	2				
$I_a(nu)$	0 . 03 < <i>Ia</i> ≤0.045	3				
ia (pu)	0 . 045 < <i>Ia</i> ≤ 0.1	4				
	0 . 1 < <i>Ia</i> ≤ 0.6	5				
	0 . 6 < <i>Ia</i> ≤ <i>1</i> .27	6				
	1 . 27 < $I_a \le 1.71$	7				
	1 . 71 < <i>Ia</i> ≤2.61	8				
	2 . 61 < <i>I</i> _{<i>a</i>} ≤9	9				
	Va< 0.53	1				
	0 . 53 < <i>Va</i> ≤ 0.7	2				
$V_a(nu)$	0 . 7 < <i>Va</i> ≤ 0.78	3				
· • (r **)	0 .78 <va≤0.85< td=""><td>4</td></va≤0.85<>	4				
	0 . 85 < <i>Va</i> ≤5	5				

5.3.2. Training table

The following table 3 presents all the training data for ANN.

6. DIAGNOSTIC BY FUZZY LOGIC METHOD

Figure 11 represents the implantation of the fuzzy logic diagnosis system at the beginning of the transmission line. As we shown earlier that one IFD isn't enough and it has to add another IFD at the other end of the transmission line like in figure 12.



Fig. 11. Fuzzy logic implantation



Fig. 12. Fuzzy logic implantation at both ends.

6.1. Bloc diagram of fuzzy logic

A simple overall organization of a fuzzy scheme consists of fuzzification, fuzzy inference system, fuzzy rule base and defuzzification as displayed in Figure 13 for fault identification and localization: In into a fuzzy set. Then, the fuzzy rule base makes it

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Table 3. Training V	Values

No	i_a	i_b	i_c	V_a	V_b	V_c	SC	OC	Zone	Pha	Ph _b	Ph _c	GND
1	5	5	5	5	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	9	5	5	1	5	5	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
3	5	9	5	5	1	5	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
4	5	5	9	5	5	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1
5	9	9	5	1	1	5	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
6	9	9	5	2	1	5	1	0	1	1	1	0	0
7	5	9	9	5	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1
8	5	9	9	5	2	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0
9	9	5	9	1	5	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
10	9	5	9	1	5	2	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
11	9	9	9	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
12	1	5	5	5	5	5	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
15	5	1	5	5	5	5	0	1	1	0	1	0	0
14	1	1	5	5	5	5	0	1	1	1	1	1	0
16	5	1	1	5	5	5	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
17	1	5	1	5	5	5	0	1	1	1	0	1	0
18	1	1	1	5	5	5	Ő	1	1	1	1	1	Ő
19	8	5	5	2	5	5	1	0	2	1	0	0	1
20	5	8	5	5	2	5	1	Ő	2	0	1	Ő	1
21	5	5	8	5	5	2	1	0	2	0	0	1	1
22	8	8	5	2	2	5	1	0	2	1	1	0	1
23	7	8	5	4	2	5	1	0	2	1	1	0	0
24	5	8	8	5	2	2	1	0	2	0	1	1	1
25	5	7	8	5	4	2	1	0	2	0	1	1	0
26	8	5	8	2	5	2	1	0	2	1	0	1	1
27	8	5	7	2	5	4	1	0	2	1	0	1	0
28	8	8	8	2	2	2	1	0	2	1	1	1	1
29	2	5	5	5	5	5	0	1	2	1	0	0	0
30	5	2	5	5	5	5	0	1	2	0	1	0	0
31	5	5	2	5	5	5	0	1	2	0	0	1	0
32	2	2	5	5	5	5	0	1	2	1	1	0	0
33	5	2	2	5	5	5	0	1	2	0	1	1	0
34	2	5	2	5	5	5	0	1	2	1	0	1	0
35	2	2	2	5	5	5	0	1	2	1	1	1	0
36	7	5	5	3	5	5	1	0	3	1	0	0	1
37	5	7	5	5	3	5	1	0	3	0	1	0	1
38	5	5	/	5	5	5	1	0	3	0	0	1	1
39		/	5	5	3	5	1	0	3	1	1	0	1
40	0	7	כ ד	5	3	2	1	0	3	1	1	0	0
41	5	6	7	5	5	2	1	0	2	0	1	1	1
42	3 7	5	7	3	5	3	1	0	3	1	1	1	1
43	7	5	6	3	5	5	1	0	3	1	0	1	0
45	7	7	7	3	3	3	1	0	3	1	1	1	1
46	3	5	5	5	5	5	0	1	3	1	0	0	0
40	5	3	5	5	5	5	0	1	3	0	1	0	0
48	5	5	3	5	5	5	Ő	1	3	Ő	0	1	Õ
49	3	3	5	5	5	5	Ő	1	3	1	1	0	Ő
50	5	3	3	5	5	5	0	1	3	0	1	1	0
51	3	5	3	5	5	5	0	1	3	1	0	1	0
52	3	3	3	5	5	5	0	1	3	1	1	1	0
53	6	5	5	4	5	5	1	0	4	1	0	0	1
54	5	6	5	5	4	5	1	0	4	0	1	0	1
55	5	5	6	5	5	4	1	0	4	0	0	1	1
56	6	6	5	4	4	5	1	0	4	1	1	0	1
57	6	6	5	5	4	5	1	0	4	1	1	0	0
58	5	6	6	5	4	4	1	0	4	0	1	1	1
59	5	6	6	5	5	4	1	0	4	0	1	1	0
60	6	5	6	4	5	4	1	0	4	1	0	1	1
61	6	5	6	4	5	5	1	0	4	1	0	1	0
62	6	6	6	4	4	4	1	0	4	1	1	1	1
63	4	5	5	5	5	5	0	1	4	1	0	0	0
64	5	4	5	5	5	5	0	1	4	0	1	0	0
65	5	5	4	5	5	5	0	1	4	0	0	1	0
66	4	4	5	5	5	5	0	1	4	1	1	0	0
67	5	4	4	5	5	5	0	1	4	0	1	1	0
68	4	5	4	5	5	5	0	1	4	1	0	1	0
69	4	4	4	5	5	5	0	1	4	1	1	1	0

the fuzzification stage, the input signals are mapped possible to decide the type of defect. Finally, in the defuzzification step, the fuzzy output set is mapped to the defect type [35].



Fig. 13. Block diagram of fuzzy logic

6.2. Fuzzification

It is the process of using the information in the knowledge base to convert crisp input values into fuzzy values. Although various types of curves can be used, Gauss, triangles and trapezoids are the most commonly used in fuzzification process.



Fig. 14. Membership function

The triangular type was used in our case. Where I_a , I_b , I_c , V_a , V_b , V_c values were converted to a fuzzy values (very low, low, high) as represented in figure 15. And, the fuzzification of the outputs is represented in figure 16.

6.3. Rule base

In this step, the Rule base is formulated as a finite number of rules. The rule base contains the rules that are to be used in making decisions. These rules are generally based on personal experience and intuition. A rule is composed of two main parts: an antecedent block (between the If and Then) and a consequent block (following Then). If (antecedent) Then (consequent) Like in our case if I_a , I_b , I_c , are high and V_a , V_b , V_c are low then the system is clear and there is no fault. All the rules are shown in table 4.

6.4. Inference

Fuzzy decisions are produced in this process using the rules in the rule base. During this process, each rule is evaluated separately and then a decision is made for each individual rule. The result is a set of fuzzy decisions. Logical operators, such as "AND," "OR," and "NOT" define how the fuzzy variables are combined.

6.5. Defuzzification

Compared with the fuzzification process, defuzzification is an inverse transformation, because in this process, the fuzzy output is converted into a crisp value and applied to the system. In our application, we use the centroid method: $U_{out} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} h_{i} u_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_{i}}$ (19)

 u_i is the membership function and h_i is its center.



No	;			V	V	V	50	00	Zona	Dh	Dh	DL	CND
NO	la	lb	l _c	Va	Vb	Vc	SC	UC	Zone	Pha	Phb	Phc	GND
1	HI	HI	HI	LS	LS	LS	Q0	Q0	Q0	Q0	Q0	Q0	Q0
2	H5	HI	H1	LI	L5	L5	QI	Q0	Q1	QI	Q0	Q0	Q1
3	H1	H5	H1	L5	LI	L5	QI	Q0	QI	Q0	QI	Q0	Q1
4	H1	H1	H5	L5	L5	L1	Q1	Q0	Q1	Q0	Q0	Q1	Q1
5	H5	H5	H1	L1	L1	L5	Q1	Q0	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q0	Q1
6	H5	H5	H1	L2	L1	L5	Q1	Q0	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q0	Q0
7	H1	H5	H5	L5	L1	L1	$\tilde{O}1$	$\tilde{O}O$	$\tilde{O}1$	$\tilde{O}O$	$\tilde{O}1$	$\tilde{O}1$	$\tilde{O}1$
8	H1	H_{5}	H_{5}	1.5	12	LI	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{o}0$	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{o}o$	\tilde{o}_1	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{o}o$
9	H5	H1	H5	LI	1.5	LI	õi	\tilde{o}	õi	õi	õ	õi	\tilde{o}_1
10	H5	H1	H5	11	15	12	01		01	õi	00	01	00
10	115 115	111 115	115 115			11		00					01
12	NI 1	115	115		15	15	00	01		01	00		00
12	VLI				15		<i>Q0</i>	QI	QI	\mathcal{Q}_{I}	Q_0	00	Q_0
13	HI	VLI	HI	LS	LS	LS	Q0	QI	QI	Q0	QI	Q0	Q0
14	HI	HI	VLI	LS	LS	LS	Q0	QI	QI	Q0	Q0	QI	Q0
15	VL1	VLI	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	QI	QI	QI	Q0	Q0
16	H1	VL1	VL1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q1	Q0	Q1	Q1	Q0
17	VL1	H1	VL1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q0	Q1	Q0
18	VL1	VL1	VL1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q0
19	H4	H1	H1	L2	L5	L5	Q1	Q0	Q2	Q1	Q0	Q0	Q1
20	H1	H4	H1	L5	L2	L5	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{O}O$	$\tilde{O}2$	$\tilde{O}O$	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{O}O$	\tilde{o}_1
21	H1	H1	H4	1.5	1.5	12	õı	$\tilde{o}0$	\tilde{o}_2	$\tilde{o}o$	$\tilde{o}o$	õi	\tilde{o}_1
22	H4	H4	H1	12	12	15	õi	\tilde{o}	$\tilde{0}$	õi	õi		01
22	H3	H1	H1	14	12	15	01	00	\tilde{O}^2	01	01	00	00
23	115 111	114 114	111 114	15	12	12		00	02	00	01	01	01
24	111	114	114	L5 15		12	01	00	Q2 02	00	01		01
25	HI	НЗ	H4		L4 15		QI	Q_0	$\frac{Q^2}{Q^2}$	Q_0	QI	QI	Q_0
26	H4	HI	H4	L2	LS	L2	QI	Q0	Q_2	QI	Q_0	QI	QI
27	H4	HI	H3	L2	LS	L4	QI	Q0	Q^2	QI	Q0	QI	Q0
28	H4	H4	H4	L2	L2	L2	QI	Q0	Q^2	QI	QI	Q1	Q1
29	VL2	H1	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q^2	Q1	Q0	Q0	Q0
30	H1	VL2	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q^2	Q0	Q1	Q0	Q0
31	H1	H1	VL2	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q^2	Q0	Q0	Q1	Q0
32	VL2	VL2	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q^2	Q1	Q1	Q0	Q0
33	H1	VL2	VL2	L5	L5	L5	00	01	02	00	01	01	00
34	VL2	H1	VL2	L5	L5	L5	$\tilde{O}O$	$\tilde{O}1$	$\tilde{O}2$	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{O}O$	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{O}O$
35	VL2	VL2	VL2	1.5	1.5	1.5	$\tilde{o}o$	õı	\tilde{o}_2	õı	õı	õı	$\tilde{o}o$
36	H3	H1	H1	13	1.5	1.5	\tilde{o}_1	\tilde{o}	03	õi	õ	õ	$\tilde{0}$
37	H1	H3	HI	15	13	15			03				$\tilde{0}$
38	H1	H1	H3	15	15	13	01	00	03	00		01	01
20	111	111	115	12	12	15	01	00	03	01	01		
39	п5 112					15		00	<i>Q</i> 3		Q1	00	\mathcal{Q}^{I}
40	H2	HS	HI	LS			QI	Q_0	Q_{3}	QI	QI	Q_0	Q_0
41	HI	H3	H3	LS	L3	L3	QI	Q0	Q_3	Q0	QI	QI	QI
42	HI	H2	H3	LS	LS	L3	QI	Q0	Q_3	Q0	QI	QI	Q0
43	H3	HI	H3	L3	LS	L3	QI	Q0	Q3	QI	Q0	QI	QI
44	H3	H1	H2	L3	L5	L5	QI	Q0	Q3	QI	Q0	Q1	Q0
45	H3	H3	H3	L3	L3	L3	Q1	Q0	Q3	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q1
46	VL3	H1	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q3	Q1	Q0	Q0	Q0
47	H1	VL3	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q3	Q0	Q1	Q0	Q0
48	H1	H1	VL3	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q3	Q0	Q0	Q1	Q0
49	VL3	VL3	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q3	Q1	Q1	Q0	Q0
50	H1	VL3	VL3	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q3	Q0	Q1	Q1	Q0
51	VL3	H1	VL3	L5	L5	L5	$\tilde{O}O$	01	<i>03</i>	$\tilde{O}1$	$\tilde{O}O$	$\tilde{O}1$	$\tilde{O}O$
52	VL3	VL3	VL3	1.5	1.5	1.5	$\tilde{o}o$	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{O}3$	\tilde{o}_1	\tilde{o}_1	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{o}0$
53	H2	H1	H1	14	1.5	1.5	õi	$\tilde{o}0$	$\tilde{04}$	õi	õ	\tilde{o}	\tilde{o}_1
54	H1	H2	HI	15	14	15	õi		04	00			01
55	HI	H1	H2	15	15	14			04				$\tilde{0}$
56	111 112	111 112	112 111	14	14	15	01	20	Q7 04	01	01	00	01
50	112	112	111	15	L4 1.4	15	01	00	04		01	00	00
51	Π2 111	П2 112			L4 L4			QU	Q4	<i>Q1</i>	Q1	20	01
58	<i>н1</i>	H2	H2		L4	L4	QI	QU	Q4	20	QI	QI QI	Q1
39	HI	H2	H2			L4	QI	Q_0	Q^4	Q0	QI	<u>V</u> I	QU
60	H2	HI	H2	L4	L5	LA	QI	Q0	Q^4	QI	Q0	QI	QI
61	H2	H1	H2	L4	L5	L5	Q1	Q0	Q4	Q1	Q0	Q1	Q0
62	H2	H2	H2	L4	L4	L4	Q1	Q0	Q4	Q1	Q1	Q1	Q1
63	VL4	H1	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q4	Q1	Q0	Q0	Q0
64	H1	VL4	H1	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q4	Q0	Q1	Q0	Q0
65	H1	H1	VL4	L5	L5	L5	Q0	Q1	Q4	Q0	Q0	Q1	Q0
66	VL4	VL4	H1	L5	L5	L5	$\tilde{o}o$	$\tilde{O}1$	$\tilde{O}4$	\tilde{o}_1	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{O}O$	$\tilde{o}o$
67	H1	VIA	VIA	1.5	1.5	1.5	$\tilde{o}o$	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{o}4$	$\tilde{o}o$	õı	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{o}o$
68	VI 4	H1	VI4	1.5	15	1.5	õ	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{O}4$	õi	õ	\tilde{o}_1	$\tilde{O}0$
69	VL4	VL4	VL4	L5	L5	L5	\tilde{Q}^{-}	\tilde{Q}_1	$\tilde{Q}4$	$\tilde{Q}1$	$\tilde{Q}1$	\tilde{Q}_{1}	$\tilde{Q}0$

Table 4. Inferences Rules

7. SIMULATION RESULTS

This section presents the tests results of different faults on the transmission line to illustrate the reliability, the robustness and the response time of the IFD's systems, using ANN and FL algorithms. The diagnostic systems used are capable of detecting (69 x 2 = 138) types of faults. Considering the tripping time of the protection equal to 200 msec.

7.1. Diagnostic performances

To test the performance of both diagnostic approaches, several types of fault are presented (SC: Short-Circuit or OC: Open Circuit). For each case, the variation of the three-phase currents and voltages in the two sides of the electrical line, the indication of the fault zone in the two sides of IFD, the fault type indication (SC or OC) and the fault phase identification (pha, phb, phc, GND) are studied. Every fault for all cases occurs at 0,1sec.

In the 1st case, the appearance of a single-phase fault in the 1st Zone is applied in 4 different types:

- SC Phase a GND (both sides),
- SC Phase a GND (Side 1),
- SC Phase a GND (Side 2),
- OC Phase a.

Figures 17-24 show the results and the response of each IFD in the event of a single-phase short circuit fault SC Ph_a-GND occurring in the electrical line. Figures 17 and 18 show the transient behavior of three-phase currents and voltages in both sides.

Can be notice:

- A large decrease in voltage and a large increase in current (of phase a) on side 1.
- A slight decrease in voltage and a large increase in current (of phase a) on side 2.

According to fuzzy logic, the fault zone represented as zone 1 to the IFD1 point of view and zone 4 to the IFD2 (Fig. 19). To both IFD systems this fault is a short-circuit (SC) as shown (Fig. 20). In Figure 21, fuzzy logic identifies the fault in phase (a) shorted to ground in both IFD systems. Figures 22-24 show the performance of fault signalization by artificial neural networks. The same representation as the fuzzy logic earlier starting with fault zone (location) then the fault type to both IFD systems (short-circuit or open circuit) and the fault classification (the faulted phases).

By using both intelligent diagnostic methods, the same signature of detection, identification and location of the fault is obtained. In both cases, fault signalization has been shown to be correct after small shifts and considerable transitional regime due to the random evolution of currents and voltages in both sides of the line.



Fig. 17. vabc1 and iabc1 with SC fault of Pha-GND

Figures 25-32 show the diagnosis performance of each IFD when applying a single-phase short circuit fault SC Ph_a -GND – Side 1.

In figures 25 and 26, can be notice:

- A significant increase in current and a decrease in voltage in phase a (side 1) during the fault.
- Also, a low current and a slight transient voltage variation (in phase a) on side 2.







Fig. 21. Fault phase identification Pha-GND (by fuzzy logic)



Fig. 22. Fault zone detection for SC Pha-GND (by neural networks)









Using fuzzy logic makes it possible to obtain the performances like shown in figures 27, 28 and 29 below: The results prove the correct signalization of the fault zone with a small delay at IFD2 (side 2) and a small transient regime at IFD1 (side 1) due to the transient evolution lasting time 20msec which is much less than 200 msec (the protection tripping

time). In the same way, Figures 27 and 28 successively show the identification of the fault type and the fault phase: A short circuit with respect to IFD1 (Side 1), an opening of circuit with respect to IFD2 (Side 2) and a fault signaling on phase a.

Using the neural network, also the determination of the fault location is correct, type identification and fault phase identically with fuzzy logic (Figs. 30, 31 and 32). Always there are fast shifts or transients due to random disturbance of current and voltage in both sides of the power line.







Figures 33-40 show the diagnosis performance of each IFD when applying a single-phase short circuit fault SC Ph_a -GND – Side 2.

In this case, a short circuit fault to side 2 of the power line. There is a small transient voltage disturbance and a cancellation of the current on phase (a) at side 01. And, a significant increase in current with a slight decrease in voltage on phase (a) at side 02 (Figs. 33 and 34).





Fig. 30. Fault zone detection for SC pha-GND-Side1 (by neural networks)







Fig. 32. Fault phase identification Pha-GND-Side1 (by neural networks)

The implementation of two diagnostic methods (fuzzy logic and neural network) makes it possible to locate and identify the fault correctly with small fast transient variations: The fault in zone 1 compared to IFD1 and is a short-circuit on phase (a) at side 2 (Figs 35, 36, 37, 38, 39 and 40).



Fig. 34. vabc2and iabc2 with SC fault of Pha-GND-Side2



Fig. 35. Fault zone detection for SC pha-GND-Side2 (by fuzzy logic)





Fig. 38. Fault zone detection for SC ph_a-GND-Side2 (by neural networks)



Fig. 39. Fault type identification for OC-Side1 and SC-Side2 (by neural networks)



Fig. 40. Fault phase identification Pha-GND-Side2 (by neural networks)

Figures 41-48 show the diagnosis results of each IFD when applying a single-phase open circuit fault OC in Ph_a . Figures 41 and 42 indicate simple disturbances of voltages followed by a stability towards the initial values and a cancellation of the currents of phase (a) in both sides due to the opening of the power line.

The fuzzy logic was able to signal a fault in zone 1 with respect to side 1 (Fig. 43) and to identify the opening of phase a (Fig. 44 and 45).

The neural network also was able to signal and identify the same characteristics as fuzzy logic (Figs 46, 47 and 48): A line opening fault on zone 1 and on phase (a).



Fig. 41. vabcl and iabcl with OC fault of Pha



Fig. 42. vabc2 and iabc2 with OC fault of Pha



Fig. 43. Fault zone detection for OC Pha (by fuzzy logic)



Fig. 44. Fault type identification for OC-Side1 and OC-Side2 (by fuzzy logic)



Fig. 45. Fault phase identification Pha (by fuzzy logic)



(by neural networks)



and OC-Side2 (by neural networks)



(by neural networks)

In this case a two phase short circuit to ground fault (LL-G) is applied in zone 2 on both sides: Figures 49 and 50 show a decrease in voltage of two phases (a) and (b) in the two sides of the test network (line), and consequently the increase in current in the two phases (a) and (b) because of SC.

The fuzzy logic was able to identify the correct fault zone; such as zone 2 in point of view of side 1 system and zone 3 in point of view of side 2 system. The fault type identification is also found in both sides as a SC short circuit on both phases (a) and (b). Always transient conditions after the fault has been introduced but within very short delays (20 ms) compared to the tripping time of the protection circuit breaker 200 ms (Figs. 51, 52, 53).

In the same way as fuzzy logic, the neural network was capable to obtain approximately the same performance of localization and identification. The important transient regimes are remarkable in comparison with fuzzy logic, after the occurrence of the fault.



Fig. 49. vabcl and iabcl with SC fault of Pha-Phb-GND



Fig. 50. vabc2 and iabc2 with SC fault of Pha-Phb-GND



Fig. 51. Fault zone detection for SC Pha-Phb-GND (by fuzzy logic)



Fig. 53. Fault phase identification Pha-Phb-GND (by fuzzy logic)



Fig. 56. Fault phase identification Ph_a-Ph_b-GND (by neural networks)

As the same as previous case (two-phase ground (LL-G) fault), applying the same type of fault with a displacement by 15 km towards side 2 (zone2). The characteristics show practically the same electrical signal variations with slight decrease in currents (in SC fault phases). Regarding the detection, localization and fault identification performance for both diagnostic strategies (fuzzy logic and the neural network) the same results are obtained compared to the previous case (Figs. 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63 and 64).



Fig. 57. *vabc1* and *iabc1* with SC fault of Pha-Phb-GND (Fault displacement at 15 km)



Fig. 58. *v*_{abc2} and *i*_{abc2} with SC fault of Ph_a-Ph_b-GND (Fault displacement at 15 km)



Fig. 59. Fault zone detection for SC Pha-Phb-GND (by fuzzy logic) : Fault displacement at 15 km



and SC-Side2 (by fuzzy logic): Fault displacement at 15 km



Fig. 61. Fault phase identification for Pha-Phb-GND: Fault displacement at 15 km (by fuzzy logic)



Fig. 62. Fault zone detection for SC Ph_a - Ph_b -GND (by neural networks): Fault displacement at 15 km



Fig. 63. Fault type identification for SC-Side1 and SC-Side2 (by neural networks): Fault displacement at 15 km.



Fig. 64. Fault phase identification Ph_a-Ph_b-GND (by neural networks): Fault displacement at 15 km

To test the effectiveness of the diagnostic system in several fault variants, a two-phase short-circuit fault isolated from ground on zone 3 is studied in this case: The short circuit fault between the two phases (a) and (b): (The drop phase (a) on phase (b)). This type of fault allows an imbalance between the three phase's voltage and the three phase's current in the two sides of networks (Figs. 65, 66). The fuzzy logic algorithm was able to locate the SC fault correctly in zone 3 with respect to side 1 and zone 2 with respect to side 2. This method also is able to signal the fault on both phases (a) and (b). Likewise, the neural network is capable of detecting the SC fault on the two phases (a) and (b) in zone 3 compared to side 1 as shown in figures 70, 71 and 72.



Fig. 65. *v*_{abc1} and *i*_{abc1} with SC fault of Ph_a-Ph_b



Fig. 66. vabc2 and iabc2 with SC fault of Pha-Phb



Fig. 67. Fault zone detection for SC Pha-Phb (by fuzzy logic)





Fig. 72. Fault phase identification Pha-Phb (by neural networks)

7.2. Robustness test

To test the two strategies (fuzzy logic and the neural network) robustness, two tests are applied: - Fault resistance variation (from 0Ω to 15Ω); - Load variation: Variation of the voltage phase shift angle of source 2 (from 27° to 10°).

A single phase (LG) resistive SC ground fault is applied in zone 2 on side 1 (the same type of fault in section "7.1" but with a resistance of 15Ω). Figures 73 and 74 describe the variation in the electrical transient behavior (voltage-current) in the two sides of the test network: Practically, the same situation is obtained with the case of section "7.1": Where the fault resistance is zero. Despite the variation of the fault resistance from 0Ω to 15Ω , the fuzzy logic algorithm was able to signal the fault zone (Fig. 75), the type of fault (Fig. 76) and the identification of the phase of the fault (Fig. 77) correctly. The only difference is the considerable increase in the transient signaling and identification time after the fault occurrence. Also the neural network capable of reaching high signaling performance comparable to fuzzy logic with much lower transient delays compared to the breaker trip time (See Figures 78, 79 and 80).



Fig. 73. v_{abc1} and i_{abc1} with SC fault of Pha-GND-Side1: Fault resistance at 15 Ω



Fig. 74. v_{abc2} and i_{abc2} with SC fault of Pha-GND-Side1: Fault resistance at 15 Ω



Fig. 75. Fault zone detection for SC Ph_a-GND-Side1 (by fuzzy logic): Fault resistance at 15 Ω



Fig. 76. Fault type identification for SC-Side1 and OC-Side2 (by fuzzy logic): Fault resistance at 15 Ω



Fig. 77. Fault phase identification Ph_a-GND-Side1 (by fuzzy logic): Fault resistance at 15 Ω .







Fig. 80. Fault phase identification Ph_a -GND-Side1 (by neural networks): Fault resistance at 15 Ω

In this part an application of other disturbance in form of load variation or a variation in the power transmitted by the transmission line (by varying the voltage phase angle in source 2 from 27° to 10°) is analyzed. This disturbance causes the current increase and the voltage drop of phase (a) at side 1, and also the cancellation of the current of phase (a) without voltage change due to of the opening of the line at the fault point in side 2 (See figures 81 and 82).

Always fuzzy logic is able to identify all the fault characteristics with a significant increase in the transient signaling duration: This is the largest compared to all the previous cases, as shown in figures 83, 84 and 85. Neural network signatures describe the same performances at the same transient durations compare to the fuzzy logic (See figures 86, 87 and 88).



Fig. 81. *vabc1* and *iabc1* with SC fault of Pha-GND-Side1: For load variation



Fig. 82. *v*_{abc2} and *i*_{abc2} with SC fault of Ph_a-GND-Side1: For load variation



Fig. 83. Fault zone detection for SC Ph_a-GND-Side1 (by fuzzy logic): For load variation







Fig. 85. Fault phase identification Pha-GND-Side1 (by fuzzy logic): For load variation



Fig. 86. Fault zone detection for SC Pha-GND-Side1 (by neural networks): For load variation







Fig. 88. Fault phase identification Pha-GND-Side1 (by neural networks): For load variation

8. CONCLUSION

This work proves the intelligent diagnosis by fuzzy logic and by the artificial neural network is a very efficient and very powerful solution for the monitoring of electrical transmission lines. Threephase voltage and current signals were extracted from the measurements devices at both ends of the transmission line are used to synthesize these diagnostic systems, in which that the proposed methods eliminate the necessity of complex features extraction process and work directly on these signals amplitudes, this technique and the novel training strategy which uses a few training samples in form of intervals, thus having a great advantage of reducing the computational time and improving the performance.

The accuracy of both methods was evaluated by simulating a three-phase (230 kV, 50 Hz) transmission line with the length of 200 km. both methods were tested in different scenario such as different fault types, variations in fault resistance and in load phase angle.

In the execution of three tasks of detection, classification and localization of faults, the results were very promising indicating that both methods of them are reliable, fast (response time 20 ms which is shorter than the protection tripping time 200ms) and accurate (The fault zone is well determined when the fault occurs on the zone's boundaries and covers a large range of fault resistance) in addition.

This contribution also explains the technical obligation to integrate two diagnostic stations on the two power line terminals.

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