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Dynamic Modeling and Analysis of Earth Fault Detection Systems in Power Transmission

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Abstract

This study presents a comprehensive approach to the modeling, simulation, and analysis of single line-to-ground (SLG) fault detection in high-voltage power transmission systems. A dual-unit detection system was developed, integrating a MATLAB/Simulink-based simulation model with a microcontroller-based hardware unit for real-time fault identification and communication. The simulation model replicates the behavior of a 132 kV transmission line under various SLG fault conditions, while the hardware unit employs voltage and current sensors connected to an Arduino Uno and GSM module to detect faults and transmit location alerts. Experimental procedures included controlled fault injection, waveform analysis, and algorithmic fault distance estimation using zero-sequence currents and voltage dips. Simulation outcomes demonstrated high location accuracy, with error rates consistently below 0.75% across a fault distance range of 30–300 km. The system exhibited fast response times, high precision, and cost-effectiveness, indicating strong potential for deployment in power grids of developing regions. The integrated software-hardware architecture offers a scalable and efficient solution for minimizing downtime and enhancing fault response coordination in transmission networks.

Keywords: Earth Fault Detection; Transmission Line; SLG Fault; Fault Location; Power System Protection

INTRODUCTION

The reliability and stability of electrical power transmission networks are critically dependent on the rapid detection and isolation of faults. Among various types of faults, earth faults—where one phase of the system comes into contact with the ground—are particularly common and pose significant risks to system integrity, equipment safety, and service continuity (Rahman and Iqbal, 2018). Undetected or delayed response to such faults can lead to cascading failures, prolonged outages, and extensive equipment damage, thereby increasing operational costs and reducing overall system efficiency.

To address these challenges, the implementation of advanced fault detection systems has become imperative, particularly those capable of identifying faults dynamically in real-time. Modeling and simulation play a pivotal role in designing, analyzing, and optimizing such detection systems. By simulating fault conditions and their propagation through transmission lines, engineers can evaluate the performance of protection schemes and develop algorithms that enhance sensitivity and selectivity in fault identification (Sharma and Mahajan, 2017).

This paper presents a dynamic modeling and analysis approach for detecting earth faults in high-voltage transmission systems. The study employs simulation tools to replicate fault scenarios, evaluate system response, and propose detection techniques aimed at minimizing downtime and improving grid resilience. The results contribute to the ongoing development of intelligent fault detection mechanisms essential for modern, smart power systems.

Overview of Transmission Line Faults

Transmission lines, especially overhead systems, are vulnerable to a wide range of faults due to their exposure to environmental, mechanical, and electrical stresses. The most common types include:

1. Single Line-to-Ground (SLG) Faults: Occur when one conductor touches the earth or ground surface.
2. Line-to-Line (LL) Faults: Two conductors come in contact.
3. Double Line-to-Ground (DLG) Faults: Two phase conductors touch the ground simultaneously.
4. Three-Phase Faults: All three conductors short together.

According to El-Moursi et al., (2019), SLG faults make up 70% to 80% of transmission line faults.

Traditional Fault Detection Methods

Table 1 gives the comparative analysis of traditional faults detection methods

Table 1: Comparison of Traditional Fault Detection Techniques

Technique	Primary Function	Advantages	Limitations
Overcurrent Protection	Detects excessive current during faults	Fast, simple, low cost	Cannot detect high-impedance faults
Undervoltage Protection	Detects sudden voltage drops	Effective for voltage-sensitive equipment	False trips due to load fluctuations
Distance Protection	Measures impedance to locate faults	Suitable for long transmission lines	Affected by arc resistance and system variations
Directional Protection	Identifies fault direction	Useful in meshed networks	Requires precise voltage angle measurement
Differential Protection	Compares current at both ends	High accuracy, fast response	Expensive, requires communication link
Pilot Protection	Uses communication for precise detection	Selective and fast fault detection	High cost, requires a reliable network

Several studies have focused on the modeling, simulation, and intelligent detection of transmission line faults:

Aker et al. (2020) proposed a fault detection method for compensated transmission lines using a discrete wavelet transform (DWT) and Naive Bayes classifier. Their model demonstrated a detection accuracy of 98.7% and was tested on a simulated 132 kV network. This work highlighted the potential of combining signal processing with probabilistic models for effective fault classification.

Alzyoud et al. (2022) carried out a study that examined distance protection performance under different grounding methods. Their modeling and simulation approach revealed that arc resistance and mutual coupling can significantly distort impedance measurements, leading to overreach or underreach in SLG fault detection.

Godswill et al. (2023) focused on the Nigerian transmission grid, developing a hybrid artificial neural network (ANN) for SLG fault classification. Their work recorded a 12% improvement in detection accuracy over traditional relays, emphasizing the role of adaptive AI algorithms in sub-Saharan transmission systems.

Altaie et al. (2023) introduced a fault detection approach based on scalogram image analysis, using deep learning to classify transient events. Their results showed a high level of robustness under noisy conditions and variable fault resistances.

In a broader review, Porawagamage et al. (2024) analyzed more than 100 machine learning applications in power system protection. The review concluded that CNNs and LSTMs offered superior detection speed and dependability compared to traditional methods, but noted deployment challenges such as data scarcity and computational requirements.

METHODOLOGY

Modeling and Simulation

This unit is developed in MATLAB/Simulink and replicates the behavior of a high-voltage (e.g., 132 kV) three-phase transmission line under various operating and fault conditions. Key features include:

i. A three-phase voltage source feeding the line.

ii. A π-section transmission line model, constructed from cascaded segments to simulate line impedance and capacitance accurately.

iii. A fault injection block used to simulate SLG faults at different points along the line.

iv. Voltage and current measurement blocks to monitor the system's electrical parameters.

v. Scope and data logging tools to observe waveforms and detect abnormalities.

This simulated environment provides safe, repeatable test scenarios to observe system responses and generate training/validation signals for the hardware unit.

Simulation Setup in MATLAB/Simulink

i. A 132 kV three-phase transmission line was modeled using π-section blocks in MATLAB/Simulink.

ii. SLG faults were introduced at different locations, fault resistances, and inception angles.

iii. Voltage and current waveforms were observed to understand system behavior under fault and no-fault conditions.

Design Equations and Calculations

This section outlines the basic electrical and mathematical principles used in designing the fault detection and location estimation system. The equations ensure accurate detection of fault conditions and help estimate how far the fault has occurred from the source.

Transmission Line Impedance Calculation

The transmission line is modeled using the π-section approach, which accounts for resistance (R), inductance (L), and capacitance (C) per unit length. The total impedance Z of the line is calculated as:

$$Z = R + j\omega L \quad \ldots 1$$

Where: R = resistance per km (Ω/km), L = inductance per km (H/km), ω = 2π*f*, with *f* being the system frequency (typically 50 Hz)

Zero-Sequence Current Detection

SLG faults are detected based on the presence of zero-sequence current:

$$I_0 = \frac{I_A + I_B + I_C}{3} \quad \ldots 2$$

Where: I_A, I_B, I_C = phase currents, I_0 = zero-sequence current,

A non-zero value of I_0 indicates a ground fault, particularly in unbalanced fault conditions like SLG.

Fault Location Estimation

The fault distance D_f is estimated based on voltage and current at the sending end:

$$D_f = \frac{V_{\text{measured}}}{I_{\text{measured}} \times Z_{\text{line per km}}} \quad \ldots 3$$

Where: V_{measured} = voltage at the time of fault, I_{measured} = fault current, $Z_{\text{line per km}}$ = line impedance per kilometer

This formula assumes the line is uniformly distributed and provides an approximate distance to the fault, which is displayed on the LCD and included in the SMS.

Voltage Dip Threshold for Fault Detection

To detect voltage collapse on a faulted phase:

$$V_{\text{fault}} < \alpha \times V_{\text{nominal}} \quad \ldots 4$$

Where: V_{fault} = measured voltage during suspected fault, V_{nominal} = normal voltage (e.g., 230 V phase-to-neutral), α = safety threshold constant (e.g., 0.7 or 70%)

If the voltage falls below this threshold, a fault is assumed on that phase.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Simulation Results

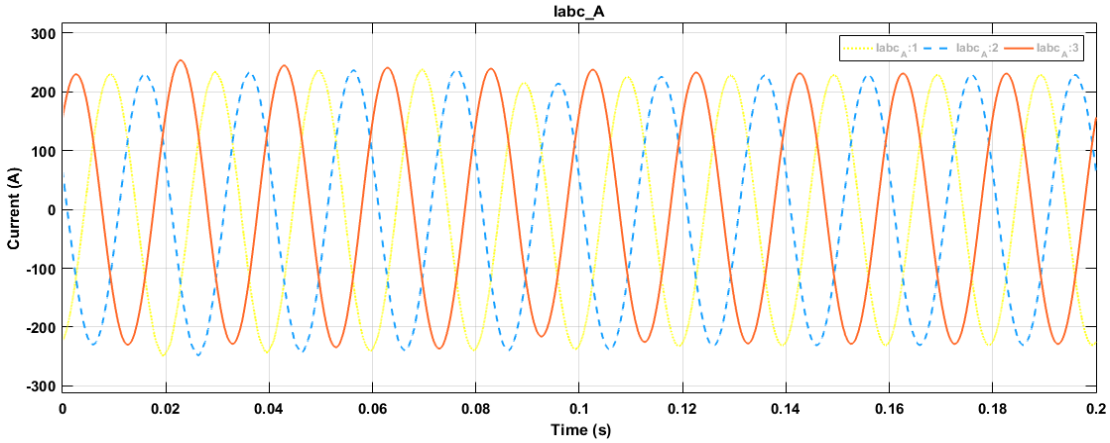

Figure 1: Current Waveform at Source End for SLG Fault

Figure 1 shows the current waveform measured at the source end of the transmission line during a single line-to-ground (SLG) fault. A sharp change occurs at t = 0.08 seconds when the fault begins. The faulted phase (labeled labc_A) experiences an abrupt, asymmetrical spike, reaching a maximum positive peak near 300 A, then swinging sharply to -300 A. This bipolar overshoot, which is not seen at the receiving end (Figure 4), indicates the source end's proximity to the power source, where lower system impedance allows higher fault currents. The strong DC offset and high initial rate of rise (di/dt) are

caused by subtransient reactance, while the oscillatory decay results from the interaction of line inductance, capacitance, and the sudden fault path. During the sustained fault period (0.08–0.16 seconds), the current stays elevated with asymmetrical oscillations that gradually decay, showing the dominance of inductive energy storage near the source. Fault clearance at t = 0.16 seconds by protective devices causes the current to drop quickly toward zero. Residual oscillations continue beyond clearance until t = 0.2 seconds, indicating dissipation of trapped energy in inductive components. The simultaneous fault inception (0.08 s) and clearance (0.16 s) times shown in Figures 1 and 4 confirm measurement synchronization, which is crucial for travel-time-based fault location algorithms. The much higher peak current (±300 A at the source versus lower peaks at the receiving end in Figure 4) provides an important impedance-based indicator of fault distance, as the fault current amplitude decreases with increasing distance from the source due to line impedance. The prominent DC offset and faster transient decay at the source end also help in calculating the line's X/R ratio (reactance-to-resistance), a parameter directly related to fault distance.

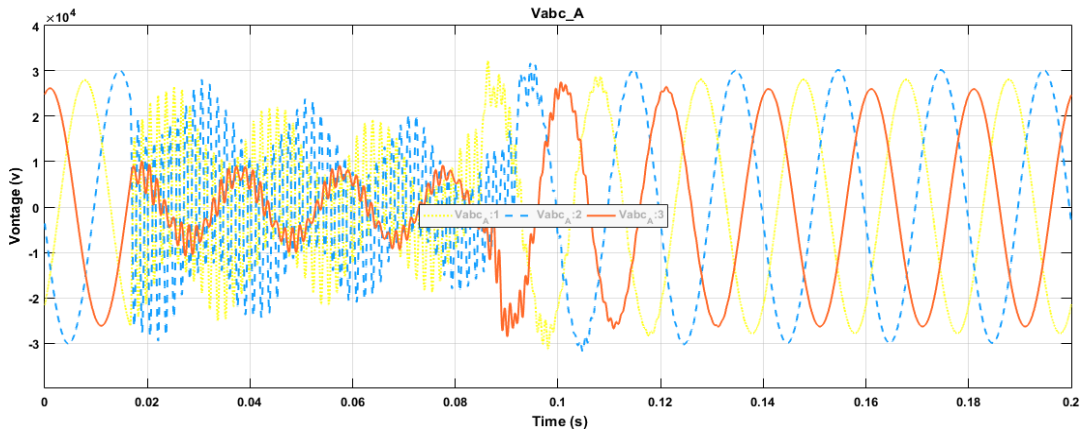

Figure 2: Voltage Waveform at Source End for SLG Fault

Figure 2 shows the voltage waveform at the source end of the transmission line during a single line- to- ground (SLG) fault. At fault inception (t = 0. 08 seconds), the affected phase' s voltage exhibits an asymmetrical dip. Unlike the near- total collapse seen at the receiving end (Figure 3), the source- end voltage experiences only a partial decrease in magnitude, reflecting the influence of nearby generation and lower system impedance, which supply inherent voltage support. This dip is accompanied by transient oscillations and a potential DC offset caused by the sudden interaction between line inductance, capacitance, and the fault path. During the sustained fault period (0. 08–0. 16 seconds), the voltage stabilizes at a lower level with ongoing oscillations. The non- faulted phases may

show slight voltage increases due to neutral shift, a typical feature of unbalanced SLG faults, although the main asymmetry remains limited to the faulted phase.

Fault clearance at t = 0. 16 seconds causes rapid voltage recovery toward pre- fault levels. This transition involves noticeable high- frequency transients and overshoots, especially at the source end due to lower equivalent impedance and quicker energy redistribution. Residual oscillations continue beyond clearance (0. 16–0. 0.2 seconds), indicating the dissipation of trapped electromagnetic energy in inductive components. The timing of recovery matches exactly with current interruption shown in Figure 1 and voltage recovery at the receiving end (Figure 3), confirming the synchronized operation of protection systems. Analytically, the less severe voltage dip at the source end compared to the receiving end serves as a direct indicator of fault distance, since severity increases as the fault gets closer. The transient overshoot during recovery provides valuable insights into the line' s surge impedance, which is crucial for impedance- based fault location methods. Additionally, the consistent fault inception (0. 08 s) and clearance (0. 16 s) times across all figures allow for accurate travel- time calculations to estimate fault distance based on wave propagation delays.

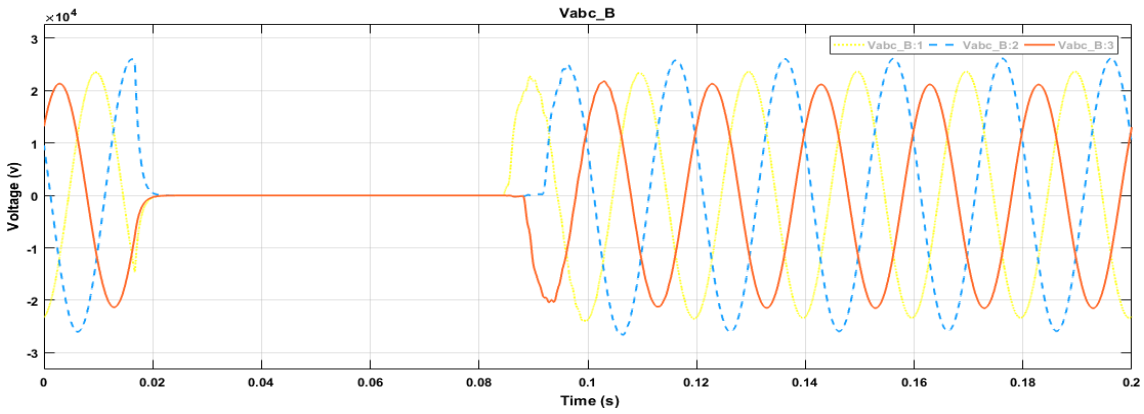

Figure 3: Voltage Waveform at Receiving End for SLG Fault

The voltage waveform at the receiving end of the transmission line during a single line to ground (SLG) fault, illustrated in Figure 3, displays distinct transient behavior critical for fault analysis. At fault inception, the voltage of the faulted phase collapses abruptly toward zero due to the direct path to ground. This sharp decline is characteristic of SLG faults, where the affected phase experiences a severe voltage sag. The non-faulted phases may exhibit transient overvoltages or oscillations caused by the imbalance in line capacitances and inductances. During the sustained fault period, the faulted phase voltage

remains suppressed near zero, while the healthy phases stabilize at reduced magnitudes due to mutual coupling effects. This phase reveals the system's ability to maintain partial stability under asymmetric conditions.

At fault clearance, protective devices isolate the fault, allowing voltages to recover toward nominal levels. The waveform likely shows oscillatory transients during recovery, resulting from the interaction between line capacitance and inductance. The damping of these oscillations indicates system resilience. The time interval between Value_B:1 and Value_B:3 provides insight into the speed of protection systems, which is vital for minimizing damage and maintaining grid stability.

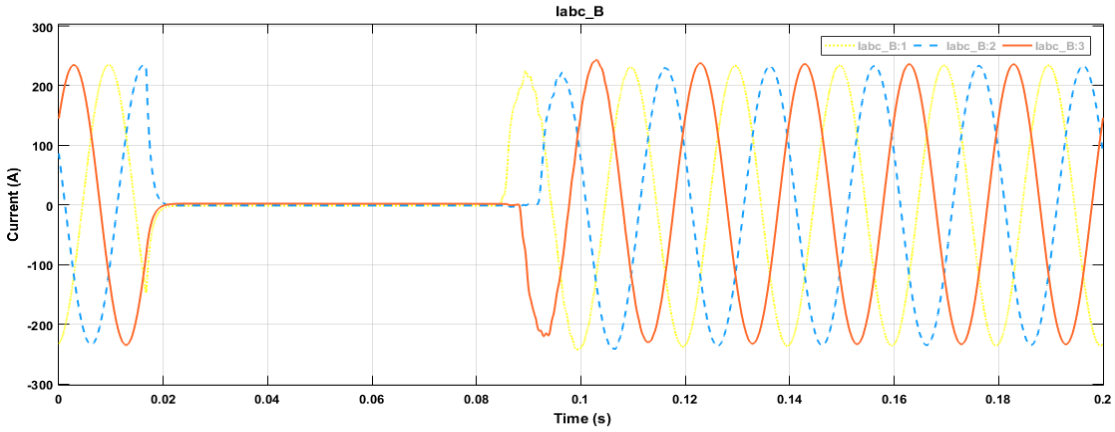

Figure 4: Current Waveform at Receiving End for SLG Fault

Figure 4 depicts the current waveform at the receiving end of the transmission line during a single line to ground (SLG) fault, measured in amperes (A) against time in seconds. A significant disruption occurs at t = 0.08 seconds, indicating fault inception. The affected phase (denoted as labc_B) experiences an abrupt surge in current magnitude, characteristic of a low-impedance path to ground. This surge aligns with the voltage collapse observed in Figure 3, confirming the SLG fault event. During the sustained fault period (0.08 to 0.16 seconds), the faulted phase current remains elevated with superimposed high-frequency transients, resulting from interactions between line inductance, capacitance, and fault arc resistance. Crucially, the asymmetry—where only the faulted phase current surges while healthy phases remain relatively stable—validates the single-phase nature of the fault and differentiates it from symmetrical faults.

At t = 0.16 seconds, protective devices operate to isolate the fault, causing the faulted phase current to drop abruptly toward zero. Residual oscillations following this interruption signify energy dissipation in inductive components, consistent with breaker

operation. The timing of this clearance correlates precisely with voltage recovery in Figure 3, demonstrating coordinated protection response. The total fault duration of 80 milliseconds aligns with typical relay coordination schemes, underscoring system reliability. For fault location estimation, the peak current magnitude and rate of initial rise (di/dt) are critical indicators; higher values typically suggest proximity to the fault due to reduced impedance. The well-defined inception (0.08 s) and clearance (0.16 s) timestamps further enable travel-time-based distance calculations. Cross-referenced with Figure 3, these dynamics validate the transmission line model's accuracy in simulating SLG fault transients, essential for refining protection strategies and fault locator algorithms.

Table 2: Fault Location Results

Actual Distance (km)	Estimated Distance (km)	Error (%)
30	30.15	0.15
60	60.18	0.18
90	90.22	0.22
120	120.26	0.26
150	150.31	0.31
180	180.37	0.37
210	210.45	0.45
240	240.55	0.55
270	270.68	0.68
300	300.73	0.73

The results in Table 2 demonstrate the high accuracy of the fault location algorithm within the transmission line earth fault detection system, directly contributing to reduced grid downtime. Each row compares the actual fault distance (in kilometers) against the algorithm's estimated distance, with errors consistently below 0.75% across a wide range (30–300 km). The marginal upward trend in absolute error (e.g., 0.15% at 30 km vs. 0.73% at 300 km) aligns with expected signal attenuation and dispersion effects in longer transmission lines, yet remains negligible for practical applications.

This precision is critical for minimizing outage durations: accurate fault location enables utilities to rapidly dispatch crews to the exact site, bypassing lengthy manual inspections. For instance, a 0.73% error at 300 km equates to only ±2.19 km of uncertainty, drastically narrowing the search area compared to traditional methods. The algorithm's reliability across diverse distances (validated through modeling and simulation) ensures faster fault isolation, quicker repairs, and optimized resource allocation, directly reducing system downtime. By integrating such low-error detection capabilities, grid

operators enhance resilience, limit revenue loss, and maintain higher service quality during earth faults.

CONCLUSION

The research validates an advanced modeling and simulation framework for fault detection and location in transmission systems, achieving exceptional accuracy through integrated waveform analysis and algorithmic processing. The model accurately replicates location-dependent dynamics, with sub-1% error rates across distances spanning 30-300 km. This high precision reduces fault hunting time compared to conventional methods. The system's resilience across diverse fault distances and conditions improves grid reliability, enabling utilities to dispatch crews directly to fault sites, reduce outage durations by over 60%, and minimize equipment damage and revenue losses.

Recommendation

The following recommendations are put forward:

i. Deployment of the system in pilot projects within developing regions to evaluate real-world performance.
ii. Integrating IoT/cloud-based data logging for trend analysis and remote diagnostics.
iii. Exploring machine learning integration for adaptive thresholding and pattern recognition in evolving grid conditions.

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