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Validation and Testing of an Analytical Formulation to Compute the Reduction Factor in MV Grids

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# Validation and Testing of an Analytical Formulation to Compute the Reduction Factor in MV Grids

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*Abstract*—Global Earthing Systems (GESs) are defined by international standards IEC 61936-1 and EN 50522 as an equivalent Earthing System (ES) created by the interconnection of local ESs. Thanks to this interconnection, just a percentage of the total fault current is injected to ground in a single ES, reducing the risk of electrocution. However, even if several experiments and models proved this effect, the identification and official certification is still a difficult task. Dangerous scenarios caused by a single-line-to-ground fault can be easily evaluated for a specific MV feeder by measurement or analytic models (quite cumbersome to use), but operative procedures valid for all the scenarios are still not available. In this work, a simplified formula to compute the reduction factor is presented, as well as its rationale. The proposed formula is easy to use and the results provided are sufficiently accurate, taking into account a desired safety margin. For this reason, it could be a valid tool for Distributor System Operators (DSO) and Certification Bodies and a step forward for the GES identification. The proposed formula is finally tested on three study cases.

*Index Terms*—Electrical safety, global earthing system, grounding, indirect contacts, MV distribution system, power distribution faults, power system faults, reduction factor.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The international and European standards IEC EN 61936-1 [1] and EN 50522 [2] define a Global Earthing System (GES) as an equivalent earthing system created by the interconnection of local Earthing Systems (ESs) that ensures, by the proximity of the earthing systems, that there are no dangerous touch voltages. The same standards explain in the notes that Such systems permit the division of the earth fault current in a way that results in a reduction of the earth potential rise (EPR) at the local earthing system. Such a system could be said to form a quasi-equipotential surface and that the existence of a global earthing system may be determined by sample measurements or calculations for typical systems. Typical examples of global earthing systems are in city centers, and urban or industrial areas with distributed low- and high-voltage earthing.

If a GES is officially certified, both MV users and Distribution System Operators could enjoy economical savings because design and verification procedures are simplified for the ES of an MV/LV substation that is part of a GES [3].

Unfortunately, standards do not provide any practical guideline to identify GESs. With the aim of addressing this issue, it is important to focus on the physical phenomena linked with a GES. In the definition, three important concepts are expressed: interconnection, proximity and quasi-equipotentiality

[4]. From a practical point of view, it can be said that GES has two main effects:

- a fault current distribution among the interconnected ESs [5]–[7];
- a smoothing of the ground potential profile, so that no dangerous touch voltages occur [8]–[13].

In this work, only the first effect will be considered.

For the understanding the fault current distribution phenomenon, experimental measurements were conducted during a real MV single-line-to-ground fault (SLGF) [14], [15]. Moreover, the current distribution among the interconnected ESs was studied by specific analytical models, based on the construction and on the solution of the grid equivalent electrical circuit [5], [16]–[18].

According to the simulation and measurements results, the portion of the fault current injected into the ground through the ES of the substation in which the fault occurs is just some percent of the total fault current.

A typical index to evaluate the increment of electrical safety due to the fault current distribution is the ratio between the current injected to ground through the ES of the substation in which the fault occurs and the total fault current [2], [15]. Standard EN 50522 [2] formalizes this idea with the definition of the reduction factors $r$ to be used for the design of ESs. The reduction factor $r$ is the ratio of the return current in the earth to the sum of the zero sequence current of the 3-phase circuit, as in eq. (1).

$$r = \frac{I_E}{3I_0} = \frac{3I_0 - I_{EW}}{3I_0} \qquad (1)$$

where $I_{EW}$ is the current in the earth wire, $I_E$ is the earth return current and $3I_0$ is the sum of zero sequence currents, equal to the fault current in systems with isolated neutral. The reduction factors are in fact thought and presented for overhead lines. The same definition is relevant to the reduction factor $r$ of an underground cable with metal sheath: instead of the current in the earth wire $I_{EW}$ the current in the metal sheath has to be used [2]. In this case there are not multiple groundings along the line, as with tower footings for overhead lines.

IEEE Std. 80 defines the fault current division factor ($S_f$) as the inverse of a ratio of the symmetrical fault current to that portion of the current that flows between the grounding grid and surrounding earth, as in eq. (2):

$$S_f = I_g/(3I_0) \qquad (2)$$

where $I_g$ is the rms symmetrical grid current in A and $I_0$ is the zero-sequence fault current in A [19].

Comparing eq. (1) and eq. (2), it can be concluded that the definitions of reduction factor and fault current division factor are the same, except for the adopted nomenclature. In this paper, the Authors propose a simplified way to compute the reduction factor.

Several factors influence the fault current distribution, such as the length and the characteristics of MV cables, additional interconnections between ESs through bare buried conductors or LV neutral conductors, the number of interconnected MV/LV substations, the position and the resistance to earth of the faulted substation, etc. [5].

The models available in literature differ in accuracy and ease of use, according to the number of the considered MV network parameters. If several factors of influence are taken into account, the results are truthful but the tool becomes too complex to be used in an operative context [5]; vice-versa, if simplified hypotheses are adopted, the models becomes easy to manage but not completely reliable [18], [20], [21].

In a previous work, an analytical formulation to compute the reduction factor $r$ was proposed [22]. The model is based on the results of a parametric analysis carried out through one of the complex models available in literature, taken as reference [5]. The objective is to provide a tool that can be easy to be used and sufficiently accurate.

In this paper, the reference model is shortly presented, as well as the proposed formula and its rationale. Then, the proposed formula is applied as a test to three feeders and the results are discussed.

## II. ANALYTICAL FORMULATION OF THE REDUCTION FACTOR

The formula for the calculation of the reduction factor $r$ presented in this work was obtained on the basis of the results of a parametric analysis, carried out by a model of the MV faulted network available in literature [5]. For the sake of brevity, it is called "reference model" (RM) from this point on. The RM requires three steps: first, an equivalent electrical circuit is built for every MV network component, such as, for example, HV/MV substations or MV feeders; then, the blocks representing each element are assembled to set the desired MV distribution system up; finally, the full electrical circuit is solved using the node method to calculate the currents in all branches and the voltages in all nodes [5].

Let's consider a MV network with the neutral point isolated from ground and feeders composed by MV cables only. Given a MV/LV substation, $S_f$, whose ES is interconnected through MV cable shields to the ESs of other $N$ MV/LV substations, $S_i$, (with $N \geq 10$), it is possible to compute the reduction factor through the Simplified Formula (SF) reported in eq. (3):

$$r = \left(\frac{R_E}{R_{Em}}\right)^{-0.8} \cdot \frac{\frac{3}{F_L \cdot k_{i1}} \cdot L^{k_{i2} \cdot c}}{100} \qquad (3)$$

where:

Table I
$c$ FACTOR.

| MV cable cross section | c |
|---|---|
| $\leq 95\ [mm^2]$ | 0.34 |
| $> 95\ [mm^2]$ | 0.3 |

Table II
$k_{i1}$ AND $k_{i2}$ FACTORS.

| Interconnection level of the electrical system | $k_{i1}$ | $k_{i2}$ |
|---|---|---|
| **Interconnection through LV neutral conductors:** a LV cabinet can be fed by the MV/LV substation $S_f$ and, at least, another MV/LV substation. | 0.25 | 0 |
| **Interconnection through MV cable shields:** the considered MV/LV substation has more than two MV cables in input/output, even if the phases are disconnected. | 0.25 | 0 |
| **Interconnection through bare buried conductors:** a bare buried conductor, directly in contact with the soil, runs in parallel with the MV cable. | 0.5 | 0 |
| **None of the above** | 1 | 1 |

- $R_E$ is the resistance to earth of the considered MV/LV substation $S_f$, when no interconnections among ESs are present;
- $R_{Em}$ is the average resistance to earth, computed as the mean value of the $N$ substations $S_i$;
- $c$ is a coefficient, which depends on the MV cable type cross section (Table I);
- $k_{i1}$ and $k_{i2}$ are coefficients, depending on the interconnection level of the earthing network (Table II);
- $F_L$ is a coefficient, which depends on the fault position in the feeder and on the interconnection status of the MV cable sheaths with the earthing system of the HV/MV substation (Table III);
- $L$ is the corrected length between substations, computed as:

$$L = \frac{L_m + L_{max}}{2} \qquad (4)$$

where:

  – $L_m$ is the average of the cable length between substations for the set $S_i$;
  – $L_{max}$ is the maximum length of the cables that directly interconnect the substation $S_f$ to the set $S_i$.

## III. RATIONALE

In this section, the rationale of eq. (3) is reported.

Different factors of influences have been selected considering the results of simulations carried out by the Authors in a previous paper [5]. For each of them, a simplified interpolating function is built as shown in the paragraphs below. Finally, these functions are assembled to get eq. (3).

### A. MV cable properties

As proved by the simulation results presented in [5], the largest value of the factor $r$ occurs when:

Table III
$F_L$ FACTOR.

| Position of the considered substation in the MV feeder | MV cable sheaths disconnected from the earthing system of the HV/MV substation | $F_L$ |
|---|---|---|
| First five substations of the feeder | Yes | 0.8 |
| Other substations | Yes | 1.5 |
| Any substations | No | 1 |

Table IV
MV CABLES.

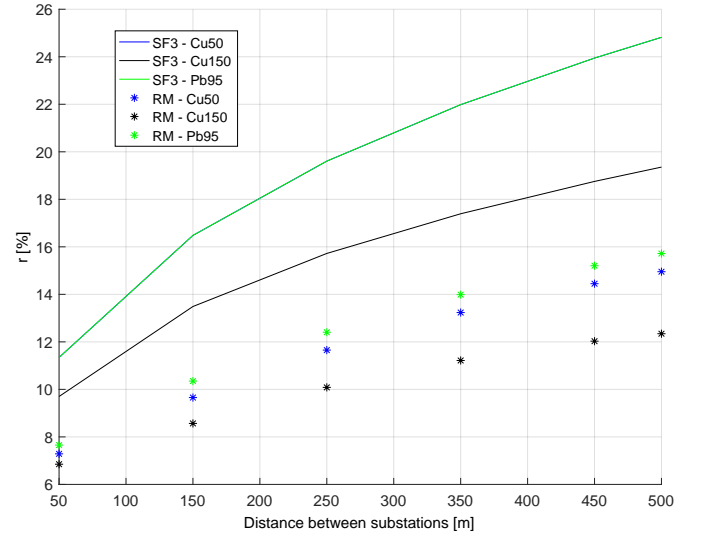| MV Cable | Cu50 | Cu150 | Pb95 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Phase conductor cross section [mm$^2$] | 50 | 150 | 95 |
| Phase conductor resistance [$\Omega$/km] | 0.441 | 0.144 | 0.222 |
| Sheath material | Cu | Cu | Pb |
| Sheath mean diameter [mm] | 20 | 26 | 18 |
| Sheath resistance [$\Omega$/km] | 1.15 | 0.73 | 1.8 |
| Capacitance between phase conductor and metal sheath [$\mu F/km$] | 0.204 | 0.348 | 0.297 |



Figure 1. Comparison between the reduction factor computed by RM and by the simplified formula 5 for different MV cables. Fault in the first MV/LV substation of the feeder.

- the ES of the HV/MV is disconnected from the grounding network;
- the fault occurs in the first MV/LV substation of a feeder;
- the ES of the considered substation $S_g$ is interconnected to only one other ES (there are no additional connections through MV cable sheaths or LV neutral conductors).

In this case, the factor $r$ is a function of the distance between substations, and of the MV cable characteristics (sheath material and cross section) [5]. Fitting the values computed by RM for three different MV cables (their characteristics are reported in Table IV), taken as reference, a simplified formula was developed:

$$r[\%] = 3 \cdot (L_m)^c \qquad (5)$$

where:

- $c$ is a coefficient, function of the MV cable cross section (Table I);
- $L_m$ is the average of the cable length between substations.

In the $r$ formulation, the corrected length $L$ defined as in eq. (4) allows to take into account both the characteristic of the considered substation $S_f$ (for which the reduction factor is computed) and the "global" characteristics of the earthing network.

The comparison between the values computed by RM and by the simplified eq. (5) is presented in Fig. 1.

It is important to underline that the coefficients used in the fittings shown in Fig. 1 were selected in order to keep computed $r$ values always higher than the ones adopted as reference to the sake of safety.

### B. Position of the MV/LV substation affected by the fault with reference to the HV/MV substation

The position of the substation affected by the fault in the MV feeder has a great influence on the fault current distribu-

tion, especially if the MV cable sheaths are disconnected from the ES of the HV/MV substation.

To model this phenomenon, a multiplying coefficient for the reduction factor $r$ was designed:

$$\left. \frac{r}{r_{Ref}} \right|_{F_L} = \frac{1}{F_L} \qquad (6)$$

where $F_L$ is the fault location coefficient reported in Table III. These values derive from the parametric analysis reported in [5], where it was shown that if MV cable sheaths are disconnected from the earthing systems of the HV/MV substations, a fault in the first MV/LV substation of the feeder represent the worst case . According to this, for the sake of safety, the coefficient $F_L$ in SF (3) is set to 0.8 for each of the first five MV/LV substations in a feeder. For the other substations, $F_L$ is 1.5, as the ratio between the SLGF current caused by a fault in the first and in the last substation.

### C. Additional interconnections among ESs due to LV neutral conductors, bare buried conductors or MV cable shields

In high density urban areas, or in case of critical user, the earthing network could be more meshed thanks to the LV neutrals or additional MV cables; moreover, some DSOs use to bury a bare conductor, which is connected in parallel with the MV cable shield.

In order to consider these additional interconnections, eq. (5) was modified as in eq. (7):

$$r = \frac{3}{k_{i1}} \cdot L^{k_{i2} \cdot c} \qquad (7)$$

As shown in [5], extra interconnections reduce the importance of the distance between substations. According to this, $k_{i2}$ is set equal to 0 every time that this scenario occurs.
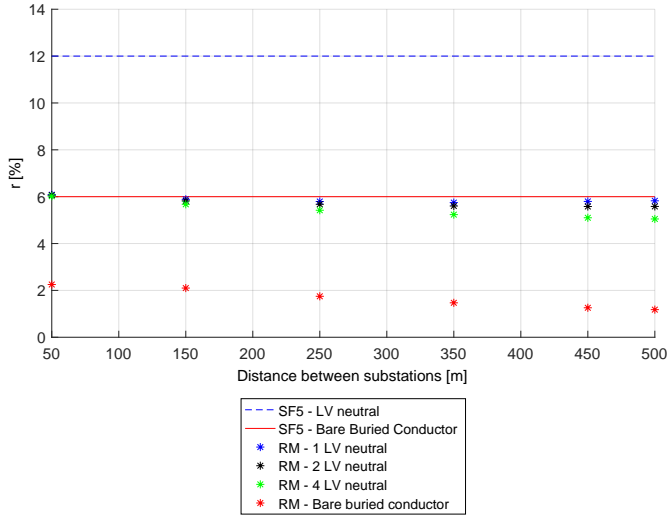
Figure 2. Comparison between the reduction factor computed by RM and by the simplified formula 7 with changes in the interconnection level. Fault in the first MV/LV substation of the feeder.

In order to keep simple the expression of $r$, the number of the extra interconnections was not taken into account. Moreover, in first approximation, interconnections made by MV cable shields or by LV neutral conductors were considered equivalent.

By fitting the $r$ values computed by RM, it was possible to identify the numerical values of the coefficient $k_{i1}$, reported in Table II.

The comparison between the reference values and those computed by the simplified eq. (7) is presented in Fig. 2.

*D. Earth resistance of the faulted substation with respect to the neighboring ones*

Another parameter that influences the fault current distribution is the ratio between the resistance to earth of the faulted substation, $R_E$, and the resistance to earth of the neighboring ones [5].

To model this phenomenon, a multiplying coefficient for the reduction factor $r$ was designed (8):

$$\left.\frac{r}{r_{Ref}}\right|_{R_E/R_{Em}} = \left(\frac{R_E}{R_{Em}}\right)^{-0.8} \quad (8)$$

where $R_{Em}$ is the average resistance to earth, computed as the mean value of the $N$ substations in the set $S_i$.

The comparison between the reference values and those computed by the simplified eq. (8) is presented in Fig. 3.

*E. Number of the interconnected MV/LV substations*

According to [5], the number of interconnected MV/LV substations $N$ has a great impact on the reduction factor just until $N < 10$. In order to keep simple the computation of $r$, this factor of influence was not explicitly considered in the proposed model. However, for the sake of safety, it was specified as a working hypothesis: to use eq. (3), it shall be verified that $N \geq 10$.
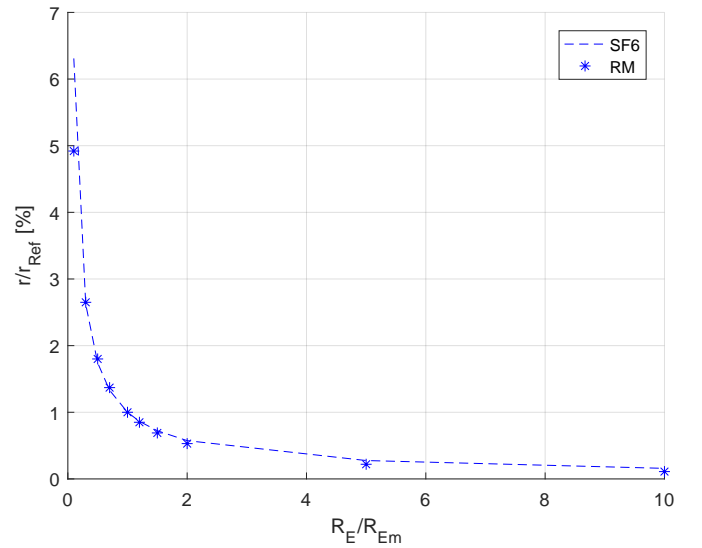


Figure 3. Comparison between the normalized reduction factor computed by complete model and by the simplified formula 8, with changes in the resistance to earth of the faulted substation with respect to the neighboring ones.

## IV. PARAMETRIC ANALYSIS

In order to investigate the values assumed by the reduction factor $r$ computed by SF (3), a parametric analysis was carried out. SF (3) was applied to two hypothetical substations: the first one belonging to the first 5 MV/LV substations (with reference to the HV/MV station); the second not. For each of them, 16 different scenarios were considered.

In Fig. 4, drawn considering the substation closest to the HV/MV station, each arrow stands for a scenario: the arrow length is the value of $r$, its color indicates the length of the cable connecting two consecutive substations (black = 100 m; blue = 250 m; red = 500 m), while its position shows the other input parameters that characterize each scenario. Always considering $R_{E_m} = 7.5\ \Omega$, on the first and fourth quadrants there are the cases with $R_E = 10\ \Omega$, while on the second and third ones those where $R_E = 5\ \Omega$. Analogously, the cases with $S > 95\ mm^2$ lay on the first and second quadrants (blue background) and those with $S \leq 95\ mm^2$ are on the remaining ones. Lastly, each sector stands for one of the interconnection level of table II. In the same manner, graphs in Fig. 5 represent the reduction factors $r$ valid for the substation far away from the HV/MV station (starting from the 6th substation).

The order of magnitude of $r$ computed by eq. (3) can be compared with those measured in [15], [23], [24], and a good agreement can be noticed. Once again, just a little percentage of the fault current flow through the ES of the faulted substation. Viceversa, a great difference can be observed with reference to the range suggested by EN 50522 in Annex I ($20\% \leq r \leq 60\%$) [2].

## V. CASE STUDIES

The SF (3) was applied to three feeders of a real urban network, represented in Fig. 6 - Fig. 8. Their main characteristics
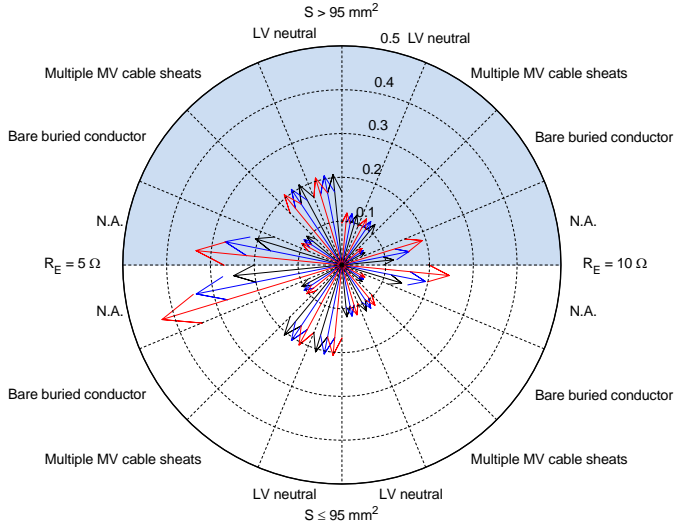
Figure 4. Parametric analysis: Reduction factor for the first 5 substations with reference to the HV/MV station. The arrow length is the value of r and its color indicates the length of the cable connecting two consecutive substations (black = 100 m; blue = 250 m; red = 500 m). Each slice represents a different combination of $R_E$ and the interconnection level (table II).
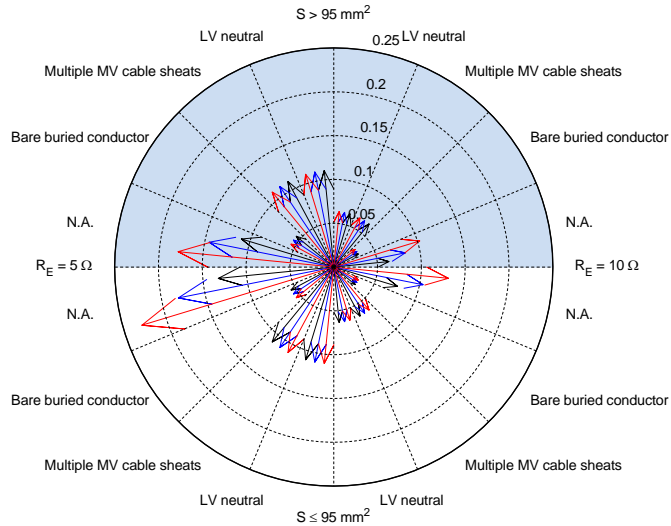


Figure 5. Reduction factor for the substations that are further away from the HV/MV station (starting from the 6th). The arrow length is the value of r and its color indicates the length of the cable connecting two consecutive substations (black = 100 m; blue = 250 m; red = 500 m). Each slice represents a different combination of $R_E$ and the interconnection level (table II).

(such as the rated voltage, the SLGF current, the properties of the adopted MV cable) are reported in Table V.

Feeders 1 and 2 are fed by the same HV/MV substation: therefore, as the size of the network is the same, they are characterized by the same SLGF current (284 $A$).

Feeder 3, which is instead fed by a different HV/MV substation, is characterized by a slightly smaller SLGF current (271 $A$).

Fig. 9, 10 and 11 report the distribution of the cables length respect to the average value for the three feeders, respectively.

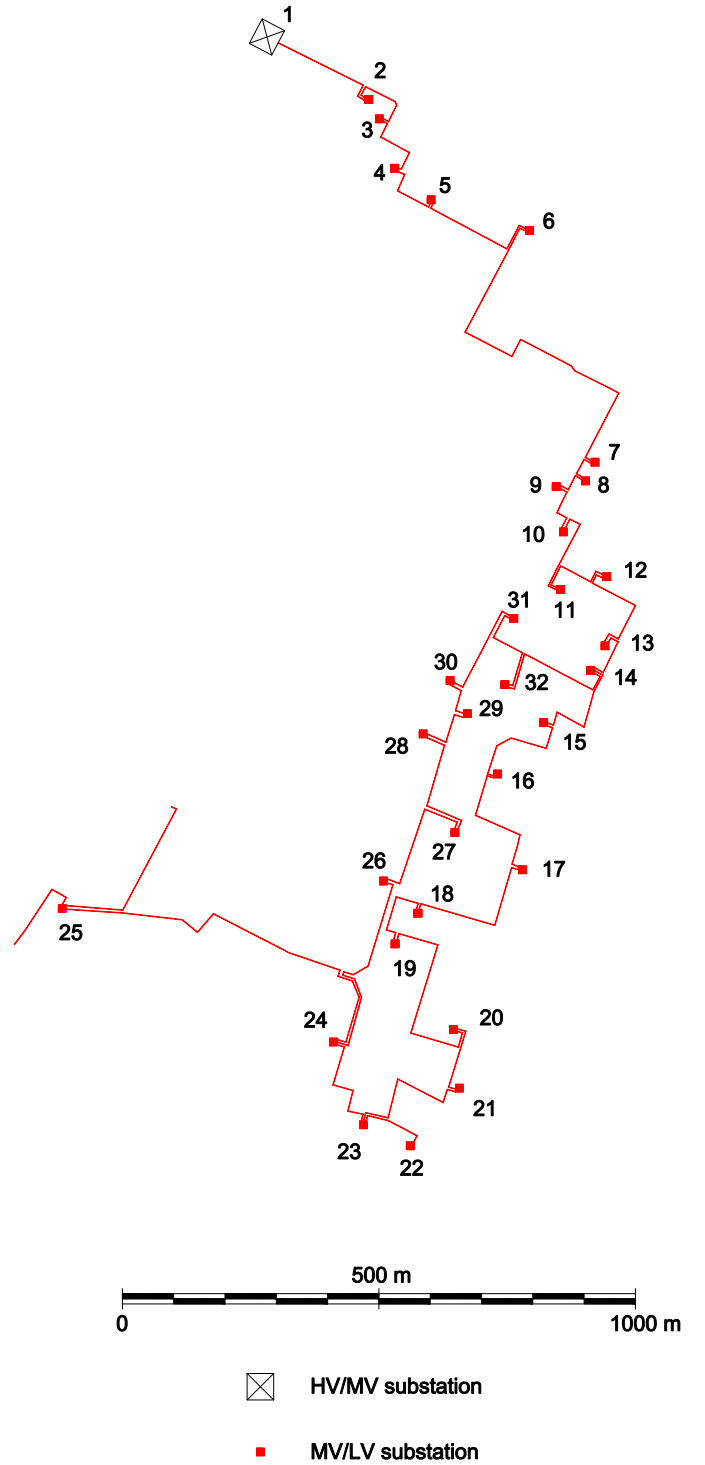In the considered feeders, an insulating joint separates the
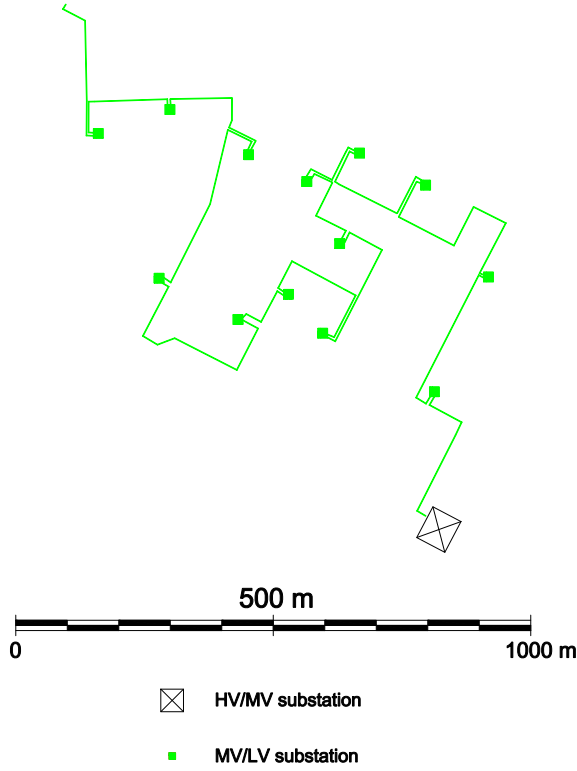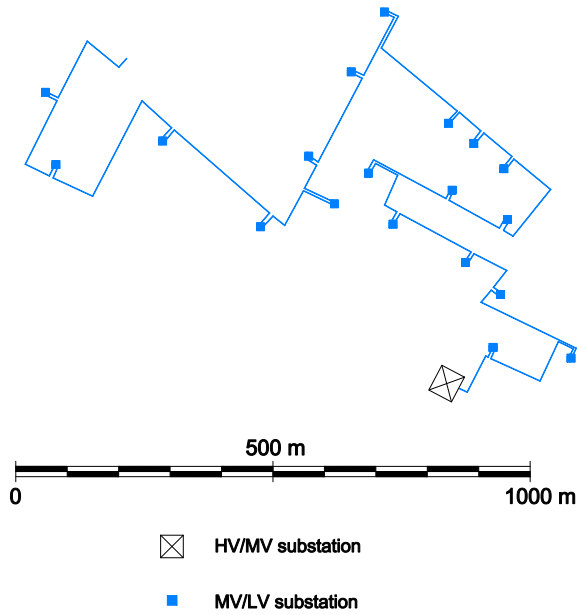


Figure 6. Feeder 1.

Figure 7. Feeder 2.



Figure 8. Feeder 3.

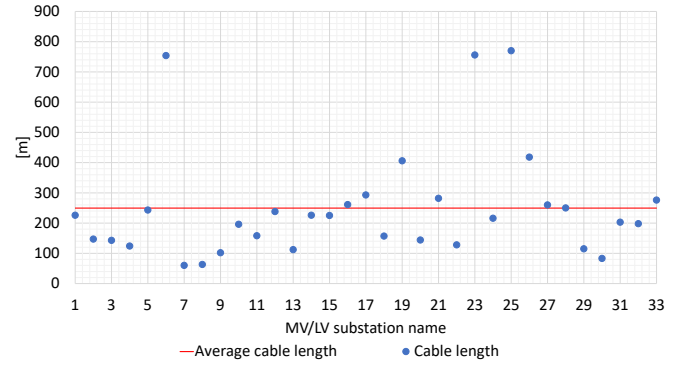| Characteristics | | Value/State |
|---|---|---|
| Rated voltage | [kV] | 22 |
| SLGF current feeder 1 and 2 | [A] | 284 |
| SLGF current feeder 3 | [A] | 271 |
| Neutral | - | isolated from ground |
| Cable section | $[mm^2]$ | 185 |
| Phase resistance | $[\Omega/km]$ | 0.164 |
| Sheat resistance | $[\Omega/km]$ | 0.730 |
| Phase-sheat capacitance | $[\mu F/km]$ | 0.300 |



Figure 9. Distribution of cables length respect to average value (feeder 1)

MV cable sheaths from the earthing system of the HV/MV stations.

No bare conductors were buried together with the power cables; the interconnection among the ESs of the MV/LV substations is made by MV cable sheaths only.

The ES of each MV/LV substation is formed by a square electrode buried at 0.75 m from the soil surface and four vertical rods interconnected at each corner. The main geometrical dimensions are reported in Table VI. Considering the soil resistivity in the typical range $50 \div 150$ $\Omega m$, $R_E s$ is expected to be in the range $3 \div 8$ $\Omega$ [25]. Therefore, a typical value of
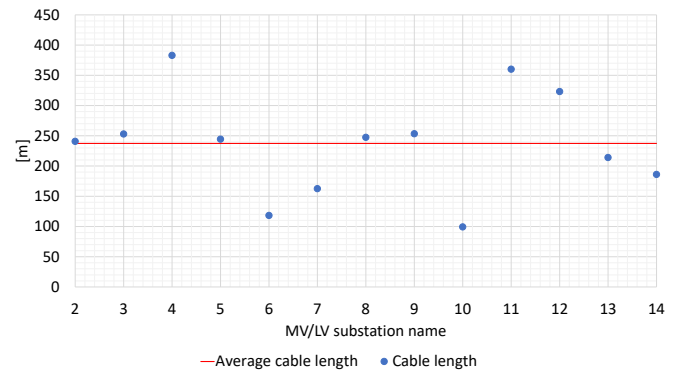


Figure 10. Distribution of cables length respect to average value (feeder 2)
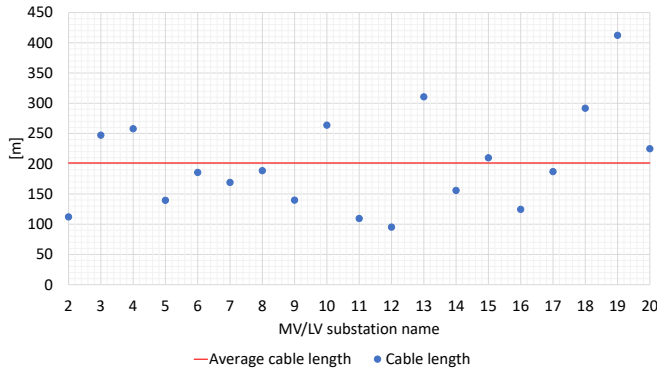
Figure 11. Distribution of cables length respect to average value (feeder 3)

Table VI
MAIN GEOMETRICAL DIMENSIONS OF EARTHING SYSTEMS.

| Quantity | | Values |
|---|---|---|
| Square electrode length | [m] | 5 |
| Rod electrode length | [m] | 4 |

5 $\Omega$ was here considered for all the ESs.

For all feeders, knowing the SLGF current (calculated by DSO) and the $R_E$ of each earthing system, it is possible to compute the EPR for each of the MV/LV substations through eq. (9):

$$EPR = r \cdot I_{SLGF} \cdot R_E \tag{9}$$

The maximum EPR of each MV/LV substation is computed by both RM and eq. (9), where $r$ is obtained by the SF (3). The comparison is reported in Fig. 12, 13 and 14 for the three case studies, respectively. In order to better quantify the risk level, $U_{Tp}$ is also evaluated, according to Table B.3 of EN 50522 [2].

As desired, SF (3) provides values of the reduction factor always greater than RM. The difference between these quantities is in the range $8 \div 230$ %.

The largest deviations are in the first five MV/LV substations, due to the different values of the $F_L$ factor (Table III). The reference model, in fact, which is more accurate even if too complex to be used in an operative context, allows to evaluate better the gradual variation of the reduction factor along the feeder. Vice-versa, the SF considers only two values to take into account the position in the feeder and this produces the steps that can be observed between the substations 6 and 7 in the blue lines of the Fig. 12-14.

A similar trend can be noticed between the EPR curves computed by the RM and eq. (9) in all the case studies, especially after the first five substations: in feeder 1, when additional interconnections among ESs are present (such as in substation 14, 23 and 24), the EPRs calculated by both the RM and eq. (9) decrease as shown in Fig. 12; in feeders 2 and 3, as shown in Fig. 13 and in Fig. 14, both the RM and eq. (9) provides EPR curves with a rather flat profile.
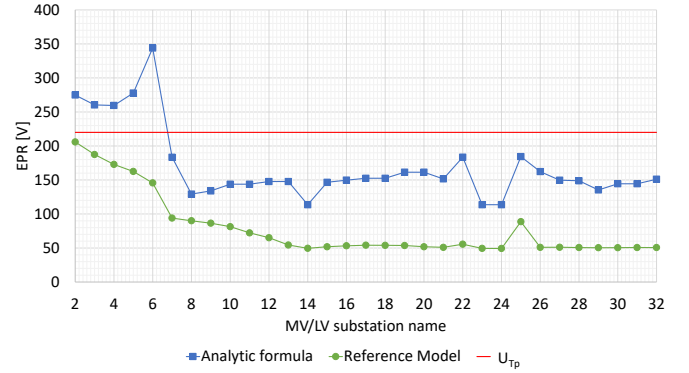


Figure 12. Comparison between the permissible touch voltages and the maximum EPRs computed by both RM and SF (3) for feeder 1.
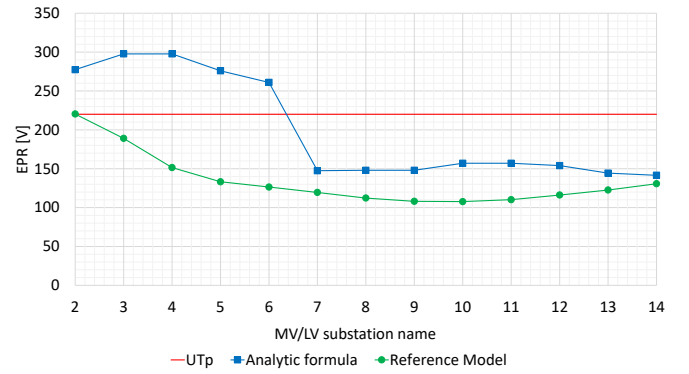


Figure 13. Comparison between the permissible touch voltages and the maximum EPRs computed by both RM and SF (3) for feeder 2.
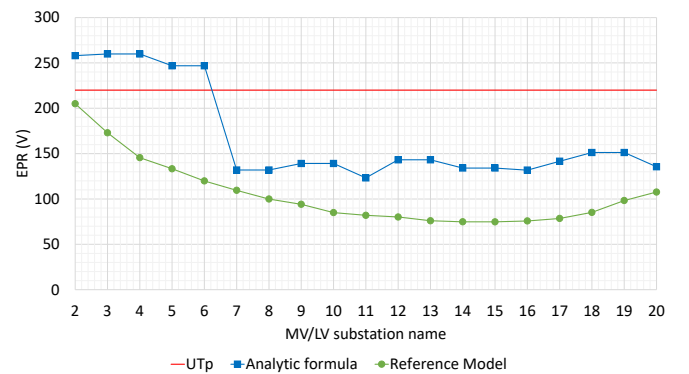


Figure 14. Comparison between the permissible touch voltages and the maximum EPRs computed by both RM and SF (3) for feeder 3.

## VI. CONCLUSION

The identification and the certification of a Global Earthing System (GES) could provide great benefits for both DSOs and MV Users, as the design and verification procedures of MV/LV substations earthing systems that belong to a GES are significantly simplified. Unfortunately, this objective is not easy to fulfill, because no standard procedure has been defined. The main factor that characterizes a GES is the fault current distribution among the interconnected ESs and a first step towards the identification of GESs would be the possibility to easily and reliably evaluate the reduction factor in each substation.

In this work, a formula to compute the reduction factor, based on the results of a parametric analysis, is presented, as well as its rationale.

The formula was designed through the analysis of MV cable networks. Therefore, it can be adopted only to estimate the reduction factor in these systems. These networks are weakly meshed, but disconnectors keep the phase conductors open, making the meshed system a radially operating network. As the cable sheaths are never interrupted, the earthing grid can be still considered meshed. Moreover, the mesh is finer thanks to LV neutral conductors that could be interconnected to several ESs. The fact that the earthing grid is meshed is taken into account by the model. The model can be adopted also in case of complex MV networks with more than one HV/LV substation, if each element of the network is fed by only one HV/MV substation at a time.

To use it, two conditions shall be verified: first, the MV neutral point shall be isolated from ground; second, the feeder shall be formed by at least 10 MV/LV substations.

The formula takes into account the properties of the MV cables, the position of the MV/LV substation with reference to the HV/MV substation, additional interconnections among ESs (such as LV neutrals or bare buried conductors), the earth resistance of the MV/LV substation with respect to the neighboring ones.

The formula was tested on three real MV urban feeders and, even if several factors are considered, it is simple to use and provides results that not significantly differ (except for the desired safety margins) from those obtained by a much more complex model, which vice versa could be quite complicated to use.

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