Electrical installation handbook Volume 2

4th edition

Electrical devices

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ABB SACE

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Volume 2

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Introduction

Scope and objectives

The scope of this electrical installation handbook is to provide the designer and user of electrical plants with a quick reference, immediate-use working tool. This is not intended to be a theoretical document, nor a technical catalogue, but, in addition to the latter, aims to be of help in the correct definition of equipment, in numerous practical installation situations.

The dimensioning of an electrical plant requires knowledge of different factors relating to, for example, installation utilities, the electrical conductors and other components; this knowledge leads the design engineer to consult numerous documents and technical catalogues. This electrical installation handbook, however, aims to supply, in a single document, tables for the quick definition of the main parameters of the components of an electrical plant and for the selection of the protection devices for a wide range of installations. Some application examples are included to aid comprehension of the selection tables.

Electrical installation handbook users

The electrical installation handbook is a tool which is suitable for all those who are interested in electrical plants: useful for installers and maintenance technicians through brief yet important electrotechnical references, and for sales engineers through quick reference selection tables.

Validity of the electrical installation handbook

Some tables show approximate values due to the generalization of the selection process, for example those regarding the constructional characteristics of electrical machinery. In every case, where possible, correction factors are given for actual conditions which may differ from the assumed ones. The tables are always drawn up conservatively, in favour of safety; for more accurate calculations, the use of DOCWin software is recommended for the dimensioning of electrical installations.

1.1 General aspects

In each technical field, and in particular in the electrical sector, a condition sufficient (even if not necessary) for the realization of plants according to the **"status of the art"** and a requirement essential to properly meet the demands of customers and of the community, is the respect of all the relevant laws and technical standards.

Therefore, a precise knowledge of the standards is the fundamental premise for a correct approach to the problems of the electrical plants which shall be designed in order to guarantee that **"acceptable safety level"** which is never absolute.

Juridical Standards

These are all the standards from which derive rules of behavior for the juridical persons who are under the sovereignty of that State.

Technical Standards

These standards are the whole of the prescriptions on the basis of which machines, apparatus, materials and the installations should be designed, manufactured and tested so that efficiency and function safety are ensured. The technical standards, published by national and international bodies, are circumstantially drawn up and can have legal force when this is attributed by a legislative measure.

This technical collection takes into consideration only the bodies dealing with electrical and electronic technologies.

IEC International Electrotechnical Commission

The *International Electrotechnical Commission* (IEC) was officially founded in 1906, with the aim of securing the international co-operation as regards standardization and certification in electrical and electronic technologies. This association is formed by the International Committees of over 40 countries all over the world.

The IEC publishes international standards, technical guides and reports which are the bases or, in any case, a reference of utmost importance for any national and European standardization activity.

IEC Standards are generally issued in two languages: English and French. In 1991 the IEC has ratified co-operation agreements with CENELEC (European standardization body), for a common planning of new standardization activities and for parallel voting on standard drafts.

CENELEC European Committee for Electrotechnical Standardization

The *European Committee for Electrotechnical Standardization* (CENELEC) was set up in 1973. Presently it comprises 29 countries (Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom) and cooperates with 8 affiliates (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro, Turkey, Ukraine) which have first maintained the national documents side by side with the CENELEC ones and then replaced them with the Harmonized Documents (HD).

There is a difference between EN Standards and Harmonization Documents (HD): while the first ones have to be accepted at any level and without additions or modifications in the different countries, the second ones can be amended to meet particular national requirements.

EN Standards are generally issued in three languages: English, French and German.

From 1991 CENELEC cooperates with the IEC to accelerate the standards preparation process of International Standards.

CENELEC deals with specific subjects, for which standardization is urgently required.

When the study of a specific subject has already been started by the IEC, the European standardization body (CENELEC) can decide to accept or, whenever necessary, to amend the works already approved by the International standardization body.

EC DIRECTIVES FOR ELECTRICAL EQUIPMENT

Among its institutional roles, the European Community has the task of promulgating directives which must be adopted by the different member states and then transposed into national law.

Once adopted, these directives come into juridical force and become a reference for manufacturers, installers, and dealers who must fulfill the duties prescribed by law.

Directives are based on the following principles:

- harmonization is limited to essential requirements;
- only the products which comply with the essential requirements specified by the directives can be marketed and put into service;
- the harmonized standards, whose reference numbers are published in the Official Journal of the European Communities and which are transposed into the national standards, are considered in compliance with the essential requirements;
- the applicability of the harmonized standards or of other technical specifications is facultative and manufacturers are free to choose other technical solutions which ensure compliance with the essential requirements;
- a manufacturer can choose among the different conformity evaluation procedure provided by the applicable directive.

The scope of each directive is to make manufacturers take all the necessary steps and measures so that the product does not affect the safety and health of persons, animals and property.

"Low Voltage" Directive 73/23/CEE – 93/68/CEE

The Low Voltage Directive refers to any electrical equipment designed for use at a rated voltage from 50 to 1000 V for alternating current and from 75 to 1500 V for direct current.

In particular, it is applicable to any apparatus used for production, conversion, transmission, distribution and use of electrical power, such as machines, transformers, devices, measuring instruments, protection devices and wiring materials.

The following categories are outside the scope of this Directive:

- electrical equipment for use in an explosive atmosphere:
- electrical equipment for radiology and medical purposes;
- electrical parts for goods and passenger lifts;
- electrical energy meters;
- plugs and socket outlets for domestic use:
- electric fence controllers;
- radio-electrical interference;
- specialized electrical equipment, for use on ships, aircraft or railways, which complies with the safety provisions drawn up by international bodies in which the Member States participate.

Directive EMC 89/336/EEC ("Electromagnetic Compatibility")

The Directive on electromagnetic compatibility regards all the electrical and electronic apparatus as well as systems and installations containing electrical and/or electronic components. In particular, the apparatus covered by this Directive are divided into the following categories according to their characteristics:

- domestic radio and TV receivers;
- industrial manufacturing equipment;
- mobile radio equipment;
- mobile radio and commercial radio telephone equipment;
- medical and scientific apparatus:
- information technology equipment (ITE);
- domestic appliances and household electronic equipment;
- aeronautical and marine radio apparatus;
- educational electronic equipment;
- telecommunications networks and apparatus;
- radio and television broadcast transmitters;
- lights and fluorescent lamps.

The apparatus shall be so constructed that:

- a) the electromagnetic disturbance it generates does not exceed a level allowing radio and telecommunications equipment and other apparatus to operate as intended;
- b) the apparatus has an adequate level of intrinsic immunity to electromagnetic disturbance to enable it to operate as intended.

An apparatus is declared in conformity to the provisions at points a) and b) when the apparatus complies with the harmonized standards relevant to its product family or, in case there aren't any, with the general standards.

CE conformity marking

The CE conformity marking shall indicate conformity to all the obligations imposed on the manufacturer, as regards his products, by virtue of the European Community directives providing for the affixing of the CE marking.

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When the CE marking is affixed on a product, it represents a declaration of the manufacturer or of his authorized representative that the product in question conforms to all the applicable provisions including the conformity assessment procedures. This prevents the Member States from limiting the marketing and putting into service of products bearing the CE marking, unless this measure is justified by the proved non-conformity of the product.

Flow diagram for the conformity assessment procedures established by the Directive 73/23/EEC on electrical equipment designed for use within particular voltage range:

Technical file

Manufacturer

The manufacturer draw up the technical documentation covering the design, manufacture and operation of the product

EC declaration of conformity

The manufacturer guarantees and declares that his products are in conformity to the technical documentation and to the directive requirements

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Naval type approval

The environmental conditions which characterize the use of circuit breakers for on-board installations can be different from the service conditions in standard industrial environments; as a matter of fact, marine applications can require installation under particular conditions, such as:

- environments characterized by high temperature and humidity, including saltmist atmosphere (damp-heat, salt-mist environment);

- on board environments (engine room) where the apparatus operate in the presence of vibrations characterized by considerable amplitude and duration.

In order to ensure the proper function in such environments, the shipping registers require that the apparatus has to be tested according to specific type approval tests, the most significant of which are vibration, dynamic inclination, humidity and dry-heat tests.

ABB SACE circuit-breakers (Isomax-Tmax-Emax) are approved by the following shipping registers:

It is always advisable to ask ABB SACE as regards the typologies and the performances of the certified circuit-breakers or to consult the section certificates in the website **http://bol.it.abb.com.**

Marks of conformity to the relevant national and international Standards

The international and national marks of conformity are reported in the following table, for information only:

EC - Declaration of Conformity

The EC Declaration of Conformity is the statement of the manufacturer, who declares under his own responsibility that all the equipment, procedures or services refer and comply with specific standards (directives) or other normative documents.

The EC Declaration of Conformity should contain the following information:

- name and address of the manufacturer or by its European representative;
- description of the product;
- reference to the harmonized standards and directives involved;
- any reference to the technical specifications of conformity;
- the two last digits of the year of affixing of the CE marking;
- identification of the signer.

A copy of the EC Declaration of Conformity shall be kept by the manufacturer or by his representative together with the technical documentation.

1.2 IEC Standards for electrical installation

2.1 Introduction

The following definitions regarding electrical installations are derived from the Standard IFC 60050

Characteristics of installations

Electrical installation (of a building) An assembly of associated electrical equipment to fulfil a specific purpose and having coordinated characteristics.

Origin of an electrical installation The point at which electrical energy is delivered to an installation.

Neutral conductor (symbol N) A conductor connected to the neutral point of a system and capable of contributing to the transmission of electrical energy.

Protective conductor PE A conductor required by some measures for protection against electric shock for electrically connecting any of the following parts:

- exposed conductive parts;
- extraneous conductive parts;
- main earthing terminal;
- earth electrode;
- earthed point of the source or artificial neutral.

PEN conductor An earthed conductor combining the functions of both protective conductor and neutral conductor

Ambient temperature The temperature of the air or other medium where the equipment is to be used.

Voltages

Nominal voltage (of an installation) Voltage by which an installation or part of an installation is designated.

Note: the actual voltage may differ from the nominal voltage by a quantity within permitted tolerances.

Currents

Design current (of a circuit) The current intended to be carried by a circuit in normal service.

Current-carrying capacity (of a conductor) The maximum current which can be carried continuously by a conductor under specified conditions without its steady-state temperature exceeding a specified value.

Overcurrent Any current exceeding the rated value. For conductors, the rated value is the current-carrying capacity.

Overload current (of a circuit) An overcurrent occurring in a circuit in the absence of an electrical fault.

Short-circuit current An overcurrent resulting from a fault of negligible impedance between live conductors having a difference in potential under normal operating conditions.

Conventional operating current (of a protective device) A specified value of the current which cause the protective device to operate within a specified time, designated conventional time.

Overcurrent detection A function establishing that the value of current in a circuit exceeds a predetermined value for a specified length of time.

Leakage current Electrical current in an unwanted conductive path other than a short circuit.

Fault current The current flowing at a given point of a network resulting from a fault at another point of this network.

Wiring systems

Wiring system An assembly made up of a cable or cables or busbars and the parts which secure and, if necessary, enclose the cable(s) or busbars.

Electrical circuits

Electrical circuit (of an installation) An assembly of electrical equipment of the installation supplied from the same origin and protected against overcurrents by the same protective device(s).

Distribution circuit (of buildings) A circuit supplying a distribution board.

Final circuit (of building) A circuit connected directly to current using equipment or to socket-outlets.

Other equipment

Electrical equipment Any item used for such purposes as generation, conversion, transmission, distribution or utilization of electrical energy, such as machines, transformers, apparatus, measuring instruments, protective devices, equipment for wiring systems, appliances.

Current-using equipment Equipment intended to convert electrical energy into another form of energy, for example light, heat, and motive power

Switchgear and controlgear Equipment provided to be connected to an electrical circuit for the purpose of carrying out one or more of the following functions: protection, control, isolation, switching.

Portable equipment Equipment which is moved while in operation or which can easily be moved from one place to another while connected to the supply.

Hand-held equipment Portable equipment intended to be held in the hand during normal use, in which the motor, if any, forms an integral part of the equipment.

Stationary equipment Either fixed equipment or equipment not provided with a carrying handle and having such a mass that it cannot easily be moved.

Fixed equipment Equipment fastened to a support or otherwise secured in a specific location.

Installation dimensioning

The flow chart below suggests the procedure to follow for the correct dimensioning of a plant.

2.2 Installation and dimensioning of cables

For a correct dimensioning of a cable, it is necessary to:

- choose the type of cable and installation according to the environment;
- choose the cross section according to the load current;
- verify the voltage drop.

Selection of the cable 2.2.1 Current carrying capacity and methods of installation

The international reference Standard ruling the installation and calculation of the current carrying capacity of cables in residential and industrial buildings is IEC 60364-5-52 *"Electrical installations of buildings – Part 5-52 Selection and Erection of Electrical Equipment- Wiring systems".*

The following parameters are used to select the cable type:

- conductive material (copper or aluminium): the choice depends on cost, dimension and weight requirements, resistance to corrosive environments (chemical reagents or oxidizing elements). In general, the carrying capacity of a copper conductor is about 30% greater than the carrying capacity of an aluminium conductor of the same cross section. An aluminium conductor of the same cross section has an electrical resistance about 60% higher and a weight half to one third lower than a copper conductor.
- insulation material (none, PVC, XLPE-EPR): the insulation material affects the maximum temperature under normal and short-circuit conditions and therefore the exploitation of the conductor cross section [see Chapter 2.4 "Protection against short-circuit"].
- the type of conductor (bare conductor, single-core cable without sheath, singlecore cable with sheath, multi-core cable) is selected according to mechanical resistance, degree of insulation and difficulty of installation (bends, joints along the route, barriers...) required by the method of installation.

Table 1 shows the types of conductors permitted by the different methods of installation.

Table 1: Selection of wiring systems

+ Permitted.

– Not permitted.

0 Not applicable, or not normally used in practice.

 \overline{B} $\overline{\mathsf{In}}$ s

For industrial installations, multi-core cables are rarely used with cross section greater than 95 mm2.

Methods of installation

To define the current carrying capacity of the conductor and therefore to identify the correct cross section for the load current, the standardized method of installation that better suits the actual installation situation must be identified among those described in the mentioned reference Standard.

From Tables 2 and 3 it is possible to identify the installation identification number, the method of installation (A1, A2, B1, B2, C, D, E, F, G) and the tables to define the theoretical current carrying capacity of the conductor and any correction factors required to allow for particular environmental and installation situations.

Table 2: Method of installation

The number in each box indicates the item number in Table 3.

- Not permitted.

0 Not applicable or not normally used in practice.

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¹D_e is the external diameter of a multi-core cable:

 $-$ 2.2 x the cable diameter when three single core cables are bound in trefoil, or

 -3 x the cable diameter when three single core cables are laid in flat formation.

 2 D_e is the external diameter of conduit or vertical depth of cable ducting.

V is the smaller dimension or diameter of a masonry duct or void, or the vertical depth of a rectangular duct, floor or ceiling void. The depth of the channel is more important than the width.

Installation not buried in the ground: choice of the cross section according to cable carrying capacity and type of installation

The cable carrying capacity of a cable that is not buried in the ground is obtained by using this formula:

$$
I_z = I_0 K_1 K_2 = I_0 K_{\text{tot}}
$$

where:

- \bullet I₀ is the current carrying capacity of the single conductor at 30 °C reference ambient temperature;
- \bullet k₁ is the correction factor if the ambient temperature is other than 30 °C:
- \bullet k₂ is the correction factor for cables installed bunched or in layers or for cables installed in a layer on several supports.

Correction factor k

The current carrying capacity of the cables that are not buried in the ground refers to 30 °C ambient temperature. If the ambient temperature of the place of installation is different from this reference temperature, the correction factor k1 on Table 4 shall be used, according to the insulation material.

Table 4: Correction factor for ambient air temperature other than 30 °**C**

(a) For higher ambient temperatures, consult manufacturer.

Correction factor k_c

The cable current carrying capacity is influenced by the presence of other cables installed nearby. The heat dissipation of a single cable is different from that of the same cable when installed next to the other ones. The factor $k₂$ is tabled according to the installation of cables laid close together in layers or bunches.

Definition of layer or bunch

layer: several circuits constituted by cables installed one next to another, spaced or not, arranged horizontally or vertically. The cables on a layer are installed on a wall, tray, ceiling, floor or on a cable ladder;

Cables in layers: a) spaced; b) not spaced; c) double layer

bunch: several circuits constituted by cables that are not spaced and are not installed in a layer; several layers superimposed on a single support (e.g. tray) are considered to be a bunch.

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Bunched cables: a) in trunking; b) in conduit; c) on perforated tray

The value of correction factor k_2 is 1 when:

- the cables are spaced:
	- two single-core cables belonging to different circuits are spaced when the distance between them is more than twice the external diameter of the cable with the larger cross section;
	- two multi-core cables are spaced when the distance between them is at least the same as the external diameter of the larger cable;
- the adjacent cables are loaded less than 30 % of their current carrying capacity.

The correction factors for bunched cables or cables in layers are calculated by assuming that the bunches consist of similar cables that are equally loaded. A group of cables is considered to consist of similar cables when the calculation of the current carrying capacity is based on the same maximum allowed operating temperature and when the cross sections of the conductors is in the range of three adjacent standard cross sections (e.g. from 10 to 25 mm2). The calculation of the reduction factors for bunched cables with different cross sections depends on the number of cables and on their cross sections. These factors have not been tabled, but must be calculated for each bunch or layer.
The reduction factor for a group containing different cross sections of insulated conductors or cables in conduits, cable trunking or cable ducting is:

$$
k_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}
$$

where:

 \bullet k₂ is the group reduction factor;

• n is the number of circuits of the bunch.

The reduction factor obtained by this equation reduces the danger of overloading of cables with a smaller cross section, but may lead to under utilization of cables with a larger cross section. Such under utilization can be avoided if large and small cables are not mixed in the same group.

The following tables show the reduction factor $(k₂)$.

Table 5: Reduction factor for grouped cables

NOTE 1 These factors are applicable to uniform groups of cables, equally loaded.

NOTE 2 Where horizontal clearances between adjacent cables exceeds twice their overall diameter, no reduction factor need be applied.

NOTE 3 The same factors are applied to:

– groups of two or three single-core cables;

– multi-core cables.

- NOTE 4 If a system consists of both two- and three-core cables, the total number of cables is taken as the number of circuits, and the corresponding factor is applied to the tables for two loaded conductors for the two-core cables, and to the tables for three loaded conductors for the three-core cables.
- NOTE 5 If a group consists of n single-core cables it may either be considered as n/2 circuits of two loaded conductors or n/3 circuits of three loaded conductors.

NOTE 1 Factors are given for single layers of cables (or trefoil groups) as shown in the table and do not apply when cables are installed in more than one layer touching each other. Values for such installations may be significantly lower and must be determined by an appropriate method.

NOTE 2 Values are given for vertical spacings between trays of 300 mm. For closer spacing the factors should be reduced.

NOTE 3 Values are given for horizontal spacing between trays of 225 mm with trays mounted back to back and at least 20 mm between the tray and any wall. For closer spacing the factors should be reduced.

NOTE 4 For circuits having more than one cable in parallel per phase, each three phase set of conductors should be considered as a circuit for the purpose of this table.

NOTE 1 Factors apply to single layer groups of cables as shown above and do not apply when cables are installed in more than one layer touching each other. Values for such installations may be significantly lower and must be determined by an appropriate method.

NOTE 2 Values are given for vertical spacings between trays of 300 mm and at least 20 mm between trays and wall. For closer spacing the factors should be reduced.

NOTE 3 Values are given for horizontal spacing between trays of 225 mm with trays mounted back to back. For closer spacing the factors should be reduced.

To summarize:

The following procedure shall be used to determine the cross section of the cable:

- 1. from Table 3 identify the method of installation;
- 2. from Table 4 determine the correction factor k_1 according to insulation material and ambient temperature;
- 3. use Table 5 for cables installed in layer or bunch, Table 6 for singlecore cables in a layer on several supports, Table 7 for multi-core cables in a layer on several supports or the formula shown in the case of groups of cables with different sections to determine the correction factor k₂ appropriate for the numbers of circuits or multicore cables;
- 4. calculate the value of current Γ_b by dividing the load current I_b (or the rated current of the protective device) by the product of the correction factors calculated:

$$
\Gamma_{\rm b} = \frac{I_{\rm b}}{K_1 K_2} = \frac{I_{\rm b}}{K_{\rm tot}}
$$

- 5. from Table 8 or from Table 9, depending on the method of installation, on insulation and conductive material and on the number of live conductors, determine the cross section of the cable with capacity $I_0 \geq I'_0$;
- 6. the actual cable current carrying capacity is calculated by $|z| = \ln k_1 k_2$.

Table 8: Current carrying capacity of cables with PVC or EPR/XLPE insulation (method E-F-G)

Table 9: Current carrying capacity of cables with mineral insulation

Note 1 For single-core cables the sheaths of the cables of the circuit are connected together at both ends.
Note 2 For bare cables exposed to touch, values should be multiplied by 0.9.

Note 2 For bare cables exposed to touch, values should be multiplied by 0.9.
Note 3 D. is the external diameter of the cable.

Note 3 D_e is the external diameter of the cable.
Note 4 For metallic sheath temperature 105 °C

For metallic sheath temperature 105 °C no correction for grouping need to be applied.

Installation in ground: choice of the cross section according to cable carrying capacity and type of installation

The current carrying capacity of a cable buried in the ground is calculated by using this formula:

$$
I_z = I_0 K_1 K_2 K_3 = I_0 K_{\text{tot}}
$$

where:

- \bullet I_0 is the current carrying capacity of the single conductor for installation in the ground at 20°C reference temperature;
- \bullet k₁ is the correction factor if the temperature of the ground is other than 20 \degree C;
- k₂ is the correction factor for adjacent cables:
- \bullet k₃ is the correction factor if the soil thermal resistivity is different from the reference value, 2.5 Km/W.

Correction factor k₁

The current carrying capacity of buried cables refers to a ground temperature of 20 $^{\circ}$ C. If the ground temperature is different, use the correction factor k_1 shown in Table 10 according to the insulation material.

Table 10: Correction factors for ambient ground temperatures other than 20 °**C**

Correction factor k₂

The cable current carrying capacity is influenced by the presence of other cables installed nearby. The heat dissipation of a single cable is different from that of the same cable installed next to the other ones.

The correction factor k_2 is obtained by the formula:

$$
\mathbf{k}_2 = \mathbf{k}_2^{\top} \cdot \mathbf{k}_2^{\top}
$$

Tables 11, 12, and 13 show the factor k_2 ' values for single-core and multi-core cables that are laid directly in the ground or which are installed in buried ducts, according to their distance from other cables or the distance between the ducts.

Table 11: Reduction factors for cables laid directly in the ground

Multi-core cables

NOTE The given values apply to an installation depth of 0.7 m and a soil thermal resistivity of 2.5 Km/W.

Table 12: Reduction factors for multi-core cables laid in single way ducts in the ground

Multi-core cables

NOTE The given values apply to an installation depth of 0.7 m and a soil thermal resistivity of 2.5 Km/W.

Table 13: Reduction factors for single-core cables laid in single way ducts in the ground

Single-core cables

NOTE The given values apply to an installation depth of 0.7 m and a soil thermal resistivity of 2.5 Km/W.

For correction factor k_2 ":

- for cables laid directly in the ground or if there are not other conductors within the same duct, the value of k_2 " is 1:
- if several conductors of similar sizes are present in the same duct (for the meaning of "group of similar conductors", see the paragraphs above), k₂" is obtained from the first row of Table 5;
- if the conductors are not of similar size, the correction factor is calculated by using this formula:

$$
k_{_2}^{''}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}
$$

where:

n is the number of circuits in the duct.

Correction factor k₃

Soil thermal resistivity influences the heat dissipation of the cable. Soil with low thermal resistivity facilitates heat dissipation, whereas soil with high thermal resistivity limits heat dissipation. IEC 60364-5-52 states as reference value for the soil thermal resistivity 2.5 Km/W.

Table 14: Correction factors for soil thermal resistivities other than 2.5 Km/W

Note 1: the overall accuracy of correction factors is within ±5%.

Note 2: the correction factors are applicable to cables drawn into buried ducts; for cables laid direct in the ground the correction factors for thermal resistivities less than 2.5 Km/W will be higher. Where more precise values are required they may be calculated by methods given in IEC 60287.

Note 3: the correction factors are applicable to ducts buried at depths of up to 0.8 m.

To summarize:

Use this procedure to determine the cross section of the cable:

- 1. from Table 10, determine the correction factor k_1 according to the insulation material and the ground temperature;
- 2. use Table 11, Table 12, Table 13 or the formula for groups of non-similar cables to determine the correction factor k_2 according to the distance between cables or ducts;
- 3. from Table 14 determine factor k_3 corresponding to the soil thermal resistivity;
- 4. calculate the value of the current \mathbf{l}_b by dividing the load current \mathbf{l}_b (or the rated current of the protective device) by the product of the correction factors calculated:

$$
I_{b}^{'} = \frac{I_{b}}{k_1 k_2 k_3} = \frac{I_{b}}{k_{tot}}
$$

- 5. from Table 15, determine the cross section of the cable with $I_0 \geq I'_b$, according to the method of installation, the insulation and conductive material and the number of live conductors;
- 6. the actual cable current carrying capacity is calculated by.

$$
I_z = I_0 k_1 k_2 k_3
$$

Table 15: Current carrying capacity of cables buried in the ground

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Note on current carrying capacity tables and loaded conductors

Tables 8, 9 and 15 provide the current carrying capacity of loaded conductors (current carrying conductors) under normal service conditions. In single-phase circuits, the number of loaded conductors is two. In balanced or slightly unbalanced three-phase circuits the number of loaded conductors is three, since the current in the neutral conductor is negligible. In three-phase systems with high unbalance, where the neutral conductor in a multi-core cable carries current as a result of an unbalance in the phase currents the temperature rise due to the neutral current is offset by the reduction in the heat generated by one or more of the phase conductors. In this case the conductor size shall be chosen on the basis of the highest phase current. In all cases the neutral conductor shall have an adequate cross section.

Effect of harmonic currents on balanced three-phase systems: reduction factors for harmonic currents in fourcore and five-core cables with four cores carrying current

Where the neutral conductor carries current without a corresponding reduction in load of the phase conductors, the current flowing in the neutral conductor shall be taken into account in ascertaining the current-carrying capacity of the circuit.

This neutral current is due to the phase currents having a harmonic content which does not cancel in the neutral. The most significant harmonic which does not cancel in the neutral is usually the third harmonic. The magnitude of the neutral current due to the third harmonic may exceed the magnitude of the power frequency phase current. In such a case the neutral current will have a significant effect on the current-carrying capacity of the cables in the circuit.

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Equipment likely to cause significant harmonic currents are, for example, fluorescent lighting banks and dc power supplies such as those found in computers (for further information on harmonic disturbances see the IEC 61000). The reduction factors given in Table 16 only apply in the balanced three-phase circuits (the current in the fourth conductor is due to harmonics only) to cables where the neutral conductor is within a four-core or five-core cable and is of the same material and cross-sectional area as the phase conductors. These reduction factors have been calculated based on third harmonic currents. If significant, i.e. more than 10 %, higher harmonics (e.g. 9th, 12th, etc.) are expected or there is an unbalance between phases of more than 50 %, then lower reduction factors may be applicable: these factors can be calculated only by taking into account the real shape of the current in the loaded phases.

Where the neutral current is expected to be higher than the phase current then the cable size should be selected on the basis of the neutral current.

Where the cable size selection is based on a neutral current which is not significantly higher than the phase current, it is necessary to reduce the tabulated current carrying capacity for three loaded conductors.

If the neutral current is more than 135 % of the phase current and the cable size is selected on the basis of the neutral current, then the three phase conductors will not be fully loaded. The reduction in heat generated by the phase conductors offsets the heat generated by the neutral conductor to the extent that it is not necessary to apply any reduction factor to the current carrying capacity for three loaded conductors.

Table 16: Reduction factors for harmonic currents in four-core and five-core cables

 $\frac{1}{100}$ tot Where I_N is the current flowing in the neutral calculated as follows: $1_{N} = \frac{1_{b}}{K_{tot}} \cdot 3 \cdot k$

I_b is the load current;

 k_{i+1} is the total correction factor;

Third harmonic content

 k_{in} is the third harmonic content of phase current;

Example of cable dimensioning in a balanced threephase circuit without harmonics

Dimensioning of a cable with the following characteristics:

- conductor material: : : copper
- insulation material: $\qquad \qquad : \qquad \text{PVC}$
- type of cable: $\qquad \qquad$: multi-core
- installation: : cables bunched on horizontal perforated tray
- load current: : : : : 100 A

Installation conditions:

- ambient temperature: \cdot 40 °C
-
-
- adjacent circuits with a) three-phase circuit consisting of 4 single-core cables, 4x50 mm2;
	- b) three-phase circuit consisting of one multi-core cable, 1x(3x50) mm2;
	- c) three-phase circuit consisting of 9 single-core (3 per phase) cables, 9x95 mm2;
	- d) single-phase circuit consisting of 2 single-core cables, 2x70 mm2.

Procedure:

Type of installation

In Table 3, it is possible to find the reference number of the installation and the method of installation to be used for the calculations. In this example, the reference number is 31, which corresponds to method E (multi-core cable on tray).

Correction factor of temperature k₁

From Table 4, for a temperature of 40 °C and PVC insulation material, k_1 = 0.87.

$$
k_1=0.87
$$

Correction factor for adjacent cables k2

For the multi-core cables grouped on the perforated tray see Table 5. As a first step, the number of circuits or multi-core cables present shall be determined; given that:

- each circuit a), b) and d) constitute a separate circuit;
- circuit c) consists of three circuits, since it is composed by three cables in parallel per phase;
- the cable to be dimensioned is a multi-core cable and therefore constitutes a single circuit;

the total number of circuits is 7.

Referring to the row for the arrangement (cables bunched) and to the column for the number of circuits (7)

$$
k_2=0.54
$$

After k_1 and k_2 have been determined, l'_b is calculated by:

$$
I'_{\rm b} = \frac{I_{\rm b}}{k_1 k_2} = \frac{100}{0.87 \cdot 0.54} = 212.85 \text{A}
$$

From Table 8, for a multi-core copper cable with PVC insulation, method of installation E, with three loaded conductors, a cross section with current carrying capacity of $I_0 \geq I_D^* = 212.85$ A, is obtained. A 95 mm² cross section cable can carry, under Standard reference conditions, 238 A.

The current carrying capacity, according to the actual conditions of installation, is $I_7 = 238 \cdot 0.87 \cdot 0.54 = 111.81$ A

Example of dimensioning a cable in a balanced threephase circuit with a significant third-harmonic content

Dimensioning of a cable with the following characteristics:

• no adiacent circuits.

Procedure:

Type of installation

On Table 3, it is possible to find the reference number of the installation and the method of installation to be used for the calculations. In this example, the reference number is 31, which corresponds to method E (multi-core cable on tray).

Temperature correction factor k.

From Table 4, for a temperature of 30 °C and PVC insulation material

 $k_1 = 1$

Correction factor for adjacent cables k2

As there are no adjacent cables, so

$$
k_2=1
$$

After k_1 and k_2 have been determined, l'_b is calculated by:

$$
I_b = \frac{I_b}{k_1 k_2} = 115A
$$

If no harmonics are present, from Table 8, for a multi-core copper cable with PVC insulation, method of installation E, with three loaded conductors, a cross section with current carrying capacity of $I_0 \geq I'_b = 115$ A, is obtained. A 35 mm² cross section cable can carry, under Standard reference conditions, 126 A. The current carrying capacity, according to the actual conditions of installation, is still 126 A, since the value of factors k_1 and k_2 is 1.

The third harmonic content is assumed to be 28%.

Table 16 shows that for a third harmonic content of 28% the cable must be dimensioned for the current that flows through the phase conductors, but a reduction factor of 0.86 must be applied. The current \mathbf{l}_b becomes:

$$
I_{\rm b} = \frac{I_{\rm b}}{k_1 \cdot k_2 \cdot 0.86} = \frac{115}{0.86} = 133.7 \text{A}
$$

From Table 8, a 50 mm2 cable with carrying capacity of 153 A shall be selected.

If the third harmonic content is 40 %, Table 16 shows that the cable shall be dimensioned according to the current of the neutral conductor and a reduction factor of 0.86 must be applied.

The current in the neutral conductor is:

$$
I_{N} = \frac{I_{b}}{K_{\text{tot}}} \cdot 3 \cdot k_{\text{III}} = 115 \cdot 3 \cdot 0.4 = 138 \text{A}
$$

and the value of current \mathbf{l}'_b is:

$$
I_{\rm b} = \frac{I_{\rm N}}{0.86} = \frac{138}{0.86} = 160.5 \text{A}
$$

From Table 8, a 70 mm2 cable with 196 A current carrying capacity shall be selected.

If the third harmonic content is 60 %, Table 16 shows that the cable shall be dimensioned according to the current of the neutral conductor, but a reduction factor of 1 must be applied.

The current in the neutral conductor is:

$$
I_{N} = \frac{I_{b}}{k_{\text{tot}}} \cdot 3 \cdot k_{\text{III}} = 115 \cdot 3 \cdot 0.6 = 207A
$$

and current \mathbf{l}'_b is:

$$
I_b = I_N = 207A
$$

From Table 8, a 95 mm2 cable with current carrying capacity of 238 A must be selected.

2.2.2 Voltage drop

In an electrical installation it is important to evaluate voltage drops from the point of supply to the load.

The performance of a device may be impaired if supplied with a voltage different from its rated voltage. For example:

- *motors*: the torque is proportional to the square of the supply voltage; therefore, if the voltage drops, the starting torque shall also decrease, making it more difficult to start up motors; the maximum torque shall also decrease;
- *incandescent lamps:* the more the voltage drops the weaker the beam becomes and the light takes on a reddish tone;
- *discharge lamps*: in general, they are not very sensitive to small variations in voltage, but in certain cases, great variation may cause them to switch off;
- *electronic appliances*: they are very sensitive to variations in voltage and that is why they are fitted with stabilizers;
- *electromechanical devices:* the reference Standard states that devices such as contactors and auxiliary releases have a minimum voltage below which their performances cannot be guaranteed. For a contactor, for example, the holding of the contacts becomes unreliable below 85% of the rated voltage.

To limit these problems the Standards set the following limits:

- IEC 60364-5-52 *"Electrical installations of buildings. Selection and erection of electrical equipment - Wiring systems"* Clause 525 states that *"in the absence of other considerations it is recommended that in practice the voltage drop between the origin of consumer's installation and the equipment should not be greater than 4% of the rated voltage of the installation. Other considerations include start-up time for motors and equipment with high inrush current. Temporary conditions such as voltage transients and voltage variation due to abnormal operation may be disregarded".*
- IEC 60204-1*"Safety of machinery Electrical equipment of machines General requirements"* Clause 13.5 recommends that: *"the voltage drop from the point of supply to the load shall not exceed 5% of the rated voltage under normal operating conditions".*
- IEC 60364-7-714 *"Electrical installations of buildings Requirements for special installations or locations - External lighting installations"* Clause 714.512 requires that *"the voltage drop in normal service shall be compatible with the conditions arising from the starting current of the lamps".*

Voltage drop calculation

For an electrical conductor with impedance Z, the voltage drop is calculated by the following formula:

$$
\Delta U = kZI_b = kl_b \frac{L}{n} (r \cos \varphi + x \sin \varphi) [V] \qquad (1)
$$

where

- k is a coefficient equal to:
	- 2 for single-phase and two-phase systems;
	- $\sqrt{3}$ for three-phase systems:
- \bullet I_b [A] is the load current; if no information are available, the cable carrying capacity I_z shall be considered;
- L [km] is the length of the conductor;
- n is the number of conductors in parallel per phase;
- r [Ω /km] is the resistance of the single cable per kilometre;
- \bullet x $[\Omega/km]$ is the reactance of the single cable per kilometre;

• cos φ is the power factor of the load: sin $\varphi = \sqrt{1-\cos^2 \varphi}$.

Normally, the percentage value in relation to the rated value U_r is calculated by:

$$
\Delta u\% = \frac{\Delta U}{U_r} 100 \tag{2}
$$

Resistance and reactance values per unit of length are set out on the following table by cross-sectional area and cable formation, for 50 Hz; in case of 60 Hz, the reactance value shall be multiplied by 1.2.

Table 1: Resistance and reactance per unit of length of copper cables

Table 2: Resistance and reactance per unit of length of aluminium cables

The following tables show the ΔU_x [V/(A⋅km)] values by cross section and formation of the cable according to the most common coso values.

Table 4: Specific voltage drop at cosϕ **= 0.9 for copper cables**

Table 5: Specific voltage drop at cosϕ **= 0.85 for copper cables**

Table 6: Specific voltage drop at cosϕ **= 0.8 for copper cables**

Table 8: Specific voltage drop at cosϕ **= 1 for aluminium cables**

Table 9: Specific voltage drop at cosϕ **= 0.9 for aluminium cables**

Table 10: Specific voltage drop at cosϕ **= 0.85 for aluminium cables**

Table 12: Specific voltage drop at cosϕ **= 0.75 for aluminium cables**

Example 1

To calculate a voltage drop on a three-phase cable with the following specifications:

- rated voltage: 400 V:
- cable length: 25 m;
- cable formation: single-core copper cable, 3x50 mm2;
- load current I_b: 100 A;
- power factor cosϕ: 0.9.

From Table 4, for a 50 mm² single-core cable it is possible to read that a ΔU_x voltage drop corresponds to 0.81 V/(A⋅km). By multiplying this value by the length in km and by the current in A, it results:

$$
\Delta U = \Delta U_x \cdot I_b \cdot L = 0.81 \cdot 100 \cdot 0.025 = 2.03 \text{ V}
$$

which corresponds to this percentage value:

$$
\Delta u\% = \frac{\Delta U}{U_r} \cdot 100 = \frac{2.03}{400} \cdot 100 = 0.51\%
$$

Example 2

To calculate a voltage drop on a three-phase cable with the following specifications:

- rated voltage: 690 V:
- cable length: 50 m;
- cable formation: multi-core copper cable, 2x(3x10) mm2;
- \bullet load current I_{b} : 50 A;
- power factor cosϕ: 0.85.

From Table 5, for a multi-core 10 mm² cable it is possible to read that ΔU_x voltage drop corresponds to 3.42 V/(A⋅km). By multiplying this value by the length in km and by the current in A, and by dividing it by the number of cables in parallel, it results:

$$
\Delta U = \Delta U_x \cdot I_b \cdot \frac{L}{2} = 3.42.50 \cdot \frac{0.05}{2} = 4.28 \text{ V}
$$

which corresponds to this percentage value:

$$
\Delta u\% = \frac{\Delta U}{U_r} \cdot 100 = \frac{4.28}{690} \cdot 100 = 0.62\%
$$

Method for defining the cross section of the conductor according to voltage drop in the case of long cables

In the case of long cables, or if particular design specifications impose low limits for maximum voltage drops, the verification using as reference the cross section calculated on the basis of thermal considerations (calculation according to chapter 2.2.1 "Current carrying capacity and methods of installation") may have a negative result.

To define the correct cross section, the maximum ΔU_{xmax} value calculated by using the formula:

$$
\Delta U_{\text{xmax}} = \frac{\Delta u \% \cdot U_r}{100 \cdot I_b \cdot L} \quad (3)
$$

is compared with the corresponding values on Tables 4÷12 by choosing the smallest cross section with a ΔU_x value lower than ΔU_{xmax} .

Example:

Supply of a three-phase load with $P_{\text{u}} = 35$ kW (U_r=400 V, f_r= 50 Hz, cos φ =0.9) with a 140 m cable installed on a perforated tray, consisting of a multi-core copper cable with EPR insulation.

Maximum permitted voltage drop 2%.

Load current I_h is:

$$
I_{\text{b}} = \frac{P_{\text{u}}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_{\text{r}} \cdot \cos \varphi} = \frac{35000}{\sqrt{3} \cdot 400 \cdot 0.9} = 56 \text{ A}
$$

The Table 8 of Chapter 2.2.1 shows $S = 10$ mm².

From Table 4, for the multi-core 10 mm2 cable it is possible to read that the voltage drop per A and per km is 3.60 V/(A⋅km). By multiplying this value by the length in km and by the current in A, it results:

$$
\Delta U = 3.60 \cdot I_{\rm b} \cdot L = 3.6 \cdot 56 \cdot 0.14 = 28.2 \text{ V}
$$

which corresponds to this percentage value:

$$
\Delta u\% = \frac{\Delta U}{U_r} \cdot 100 = \frac{28.2}{400} \cdot 100 = 7.05\%
$$

This value is too high. Formula (3) shows:

$$
\Delta U_{\text{xmax}} = \frac{\Delta u\% \cdot U_r}{100 \cdot I_b \cdot L} = \frac{2\% \cdot 400}{100 \cdot 56 \cdot 0.14} = 1.02 \text{ V/(A} \cdot \text{km})
$$

From Table 4 a cross section of 50 mm2 can be chosen. For this cross section $\Delta U_x = 0.81 < 1.02$ V/(A⋅km). By using this value it results:

$$
\Delta U = \Delta U_x \cdot I_b \cdot L = 0.81.56 \cdot 0.14 = 6.35 V
$$

This corresponds to a percentage value of:

$$
\Delta u\% = \frac{\Delta U}{U_r} \cdot 100 = \frac{6.35}{400} \cdot 100 = 1.6\%
$$

2.2.3 Joule-effect losses

Joule-effect losses are due to the electrical resistance of the cable. The lost energy is dissipated in heat and contributes to the heating of the conductor and of the environment.

A first estimate of three-phase losses is:

$$
P_j = \frac{3 \cdot r \cdot I_b^2 \cdot L}{1000} \, [W]
$$

whereas single-phase losses are:

$$
P_{j} = \frac{2 \cdot r \cdot I_{b}^{2} \cdot L}{1000} \text{ [W]}
$$

where:

- \bullet I_b is the load current [A];
- r is the phase resistance per unit of length of the cable at 80 °C [Ω/km] (see Table 1);

• L is the cable length [m].

Table 1: Resistance values [Ω**/km] of single-core and multi-core cables in copper and aluminium at 80** °**C**

2.3 Protection against overload

The Standard IEC 60364-4-43 *"Electrical installation of buildings - Protection against overcurrent"* specifies coordination between conductors and overload protective devices (normally placed at the beginning of the conductor to be protected) so that it shall satisfy the two following conditions:

Where:

- I_b is the current for which the circuit is dimensioned:
- I_z is the continuous current carrying capacity of the cable;
- I_n is the rated current of the protective device; for adjustable protective releases, the rated current I_n is the set current;
- \bullet I_2 is the current ensuring effective operation in the conventional time of the protective device.

According to condition (1) to correctly choose the protective device, it is necessary to check that the circuit-breaker has a rated (or set) current that is: • higher than the load current, to prevent unwanted tripping;

• lower than the current carrying capacity of the cable, to prevent cable overload.

The Standard allows an overload current that may be up to 45% greater than the current carrying capacity of the cable but only for a limited period (conventional trip time of the protective device).

The verification of condition (2) is not necessary in the case of circuit-breakers because the protective device is automatically tripped if:

- $I_2 = 1.3 \cdot I_n$ for circuit-breakers complying with IEC 60947-2 (circuit-breakers for industrial use);
- \bullet I_2 = 1.45 \cdot I_n for circuit-breakers complying with IEC 60898 (circuit-breakers for household and similar installations).

Therefore, for circuit-breakers, if $I_n \leq I_{z}$, the formula $I_2 \leq 1.45 \cdot I_{z}$ will also be verified.

When the protective device is a fuse, it is also essential to check formula (2) because IEC 60269-2-1 on "Low-voltage fuses" states that a 1.6⋅I_n current must automatically melt the fuse. In this case, formula (2) becomes 1.6⋅l_n ≤ 1.45⋅l_z or I_n ≤ 0.9⋅ I_z .

To summarize: to carry out by a fuse protection against overload, the following must be achieved:

$$
I_b \leq I_n \leq 0.9 \cdot I_z
$$

and this means that the cable is not fully exploited.

Where the use of a single conductor per phase is not feasible, and the currents in the parallel conductors are unequal, the design current and requirements for overload protection for each conductor shall be considered individually.

Examples

Example 1

Load specifications

 $P_r = 70$ kW; $U_r = 400$ V; $cos\varphi = 0.9$; three-phase load so $I_b = 112$ A

Cable specifications

 $I_z = 134$ A

Protective device specifications

T1B160 TMD I_n 125; set current I1 = 125 A

Example 2

Load specifications

 $P_r = 80$ kW; $cos\varphi = 0.9$; $U_r = 400$ V; three-phase load so $I_b = 128$ A

Cable specifications

 I_7 = 171 A

Protective device specifications

T2N160 PR221DS-LS I_n 160; set current $I1 = 0.88$ x $I_n = 140.8$ A

Example 3

Load specifications

 $P_r = 100$ kW; $\cos\varphi = 0.9$; $U_r = 400$ V ; three-phase load so $I_b = 160$ A

Cable specifications

 $I_7 = 190 A$

Protective device specifications

T3N250 TMD I_n 200; set current $11 = 0.9 \times I_n = 180$ A

Example 4

Load specifications $P_r = 25$ kW; cos $\varphi = 0.9$; U_r = 230 V ; single-phase load so $I_b = 121$ A

Cable specifications I_7 = 134 A

Protective device specifications T1B160 1P TMF In125
2.4 Protection against short-circuit

A cable is protected against short-circuit if the specific let-through energy of the protective device ($|2t\rangle$ is lower or equal to the withstood energy of the cable (k2S2):

$$
I^2t\leq k^2S^2\left(1\right)
$$

where

- I2t is the specific let-through energy of the protective device which can be read on the curves supplied by the manufacturer (see *Electrical installation handbook*, Vol. 1, Chapter 3.4 "Specific let-through energy curves") or from a direct calculation in the case of devices that are not limiting and delaying;
- S is the cable cross section [mm2]; in the case of conductors in parallel it is the cross section of the single conductor;
- k is a factor that depends on the cable insulating and conducting material. The values of the most common installations are shown in Table 1; for a more detailed calculation, see Annex D.

	Conductor insulation							
	PVC	PVC	EPR	Rubber	Mineral			
	< 300 mm ²	>300 mm ²	XLPE	60 °C	PVC	Bare		
Initial temperature °C	70	70	90	60	70	105		
Final temperature °C	160	140	250	200	160	250		
Material of conductor:								
Copper	115	103	143	141	115	$135/115$ ^a		
Aluminium	76	68	94	93	-			
tin-soldered joints in copper conductors	115		-					
^a This value shall be used for bare cables exposed to touch.								

Table 1: Values of k for phase conductor

NOTE 1 Other values of k are under consideration for.

- small conductors (particularly for cross section less than 10 mm²);

- duration of short-circuit exceeding 5 s;

- other types of joints in conductors;

- bare conductors.

NOTE 2 The nominal current of the short-circuit protective device may be greater than the current carrying capacity of the cable.

NOTE 3 The above factors are based on IEC 60724.

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Table 2 shows the maximum withstood energy for cables according to the cross section, the conductor material and the type of insulation, which are calculated by using the parameters of Table 1.

Table 2: Maximum withstood energy for cables $k^2 S^2$ [(kA)² s]

The formula (1) must be verified along the whole length of the cable. Due to the shape of the specific let-through energy curve of a circuit breaker, it is generally sufficient to verify formula (1) only for the maximum and minimum short-circuit current that may affect the cable. The maximum value is normally the value of the three-phase short-circuit current at the beginning of the line, while the minimum value is the value of the phase to neutral short-circuit current (phase to phase if the neutral conductor is not distributed) or phase to earth at the end of the cable.

This verification can be simplified by comparing only the let-through energy value of the circuit-breaker at the maximum short-circuit current with the withstood energy of the cable and by ensuring that the circuit breaker trips instantaneously at the minimum short-circuit current: the threshold of the shortcircuit protection (taking into consideration also the tolerances) shall therefore be lower than the minimum short-circuit current at the end of the conductor.

Calculation of short-circuit current at end of the conductor

Minimum short-circuit current can be calculated by the following approximate formulas:

$$
I_{kmin} = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_r \cdot k_{\text{sec}} \cdot k_{\text{par}}}{1.5 \cdot \rho \cdot \frac{2L}{S}}
$$
 with non-distributed neutral conductor (2.1)

$$
I_{kmin} = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_0 \cdot k_{\text{sec}} \cdot k_{\text{par}}}{1.5 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m) \cdot \frac{L}{S}}
$$
 with distributed neutral conductor (2.2)

where:

- I_{kmin} is the minimum value of the prospective short-circuit current [kA];
- \bullet U_r is the supply voltage [V];
- \bullet U₀ is the phase to earth supply voltage $[M]$;
- ρ is the resistivity at 20 °C of the material of the conductors in Ωmm²/m and is:
	- 0.018 for copper;
	- 0.027 for aluminium;
- L is the length of the protected conductor [m];
- S is the cross section of the conductor [mm2];
- ksec is the correction factor which takes into account the reactance of the cables with cross section larger than 95 mm2:

 \bullet k_{par} is the correcting coefficient for conductors in parallel:

* $k_{\text{par}} = 4$ (n-1)/n where: n = number of conductors in parallel per phase

• m is the ratio between the resistances of the neutral conductor and the phase conductor (if they are made of the same material m is the ratio between the cross section of the phase conductor and the cross section of the neutral conductor).

After calculating the minimum short-circuit current, verify that

$$
I_{kmin} > 1.2 \cdot I_3 \text{ (3)}
$$

where:

- I₃ is the current that trips the magnetic protection of the circuit-breaker:
- 1.2 is the tolerance at the trip threshold.

Protection against short-circuit at the beginning of the conductor

T1N160 In160 (breaking capacity 36 kA@400 V)

 $I²t$ (@30 kA) = 7.5 10⁻¹ (kA)²s (for the curves of specific let-through energy, see Volume 1, Chapter 3.4)

 $k^{2}S^{2} = 115^{2} \cdot 50^{2} = 3.31 \cdot 10^{1}$ (kA)²s

The cable is therefore protected against short-circuit at the beginning of the conductor.

Protection against short-circuit at end of the conductor

The minimum short-circuit current at end of the conductor (k_{sec} =1 and k_{par} =1) is:

$$
I_{kmin} = \frac{0.8 \cdot U \cdot k_{sec} \cdot k_{par}}{1.5 \cdot \rho \cdot \frac{2L}{S}} = 1.98 \text{ kA}
$$

The magnetic threshold of the circuit breaker T1N160 In160 is set at 1600 A. If tolerance is 20%, the circuit breaker shall definitely trip if the values exceed 1920 A; the cable is therefore fully protected against short-circuit.

Maximum protected length

The formula (3), when solved for the length, enables the maximum length protected by the protective device to be obtained for a precise instantaneous trip threshold. In Table 3, the maximum protected length can be identified for a given cross section of the cable and for the setting threshold of the instantaneous protection of the circuit breaker against short-circuit:

- three-phase system, 400 V rated voltage;

- non-distributed neutral;

- copper conductor with resistivity equal to 0.018 Ωmm2/m.

The values on the table below take into account the 20% tolerance coefficient for the magnetic trip value, the increase in cable resistivity due to heating caused by the short-circuit current and the reduction of voltage due to the fault.

The correction factors shown after the table must be applied if the system conditions are different from the reference conditions.

Table 3: Maximum protected length

Correction factor for voltage other than 400 V: k

Multiply the length value obtained from the table by the correction factor k_{v} :

 (230) V single-phase is the equivalent of a three-phase 400 V system with distributed neutral and with the cross section of the phase conductor the same as the cross section area of the neutral conductor, so that k_{v} is 0.58.

Correction factor for distributed neutral: k_d

Multiply the length value obtained from the table by the correction factor k_d :

$$
k_{d} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{S}{S_{N}}}
$$

where

• S is the phase cross section [mm2];

• S_N is the neutral cross section [mm²].

In particular:

if S = S_N
$$
\rightarrow
$$
 K_d is 0.58;
if S = 2·S_N \rightarrow K_d is 0.39.

Correction factor for aluminium conductors: k

If the cable is in aluminium, multiply the length value obtained from the table above by the correction factor $k_r = 0.67$.

To summarize:

On the table, for the cross section and magnetic trip threshold it is possible to read a maximum protected value L_0 . This length shall then be multiplied, if necessary, by the correction factors in order to obtain a value that is compatible with the installation operating conditions:

$$
L = L_0 k_v k_d k_r
$$

Example 1

Neutral not distributed Rated voltage = 400 V Protective device: T2N160 TMD In100 Magnetic threshold: $I_3 = 1000$ A Phase cross section = Neutral cross section = 70 mm^2 The table shows that at $I_3 = 1000$ A, the 70 mm² cable is protected up to 346 m.

Example 2

Neutral distributed Rated voltage = 400 V Protective device: T3S250 TMD In200 Magnetic threshold: $I_3 = 2000$ A Phase cross section = 300 mm2 Neutral cross section $= 150$ mm² For $I_3 = 2000$ A and S = 300 mm², a protected length equivalent of $L_0 = 533$ m is obtained.

By applying the correction factor k_d required when the neutral is distributed:

$$
k_{d} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{S}{S_{N}}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{300}{150}} = 0.39
$$

L= L₀ \cdot 0.39 = 533 \cdot 0.39 = 207.9 m This is the maximum protected length with neutral distributed.

2.5 Neutral and protective conductors

Neutral conductor

The neutral conductor is a conductor that is connected to the system neutral point (which generally but not necessarily coincides with the star centre of the secondary windings of the transformer or the windings of the generator); it is able to contribute to the transmission of electric power, thereby making available a voltage that is different from the phase to phase voltage. In certain cases and under specific conditions, the functions of neutral conductor and protective conductor can be combined in a single conductor (PEN).

Protection and disconnection of the neutral conductor

If fault conditions arise, a voltage to earth may occur on the neutral conductor. This may be caused by a phase to neutral short-circuit and by the disconnection of the neutral conductor due to accidental breaking or to tripping of single-pole devices (fuses or single-pole circuit breakers).

If the neutral conductor only is disconnected in a four-conductor circuit, the supply voltage to the single-phase loads may be altered so that they are supplied by a voltage different from the U_0 phase to neutral voltage (as shown in Fig. 1). Therefore, all the necessary measures to prevent this type of fault shall be taken, e.g. by not protecting the neutral conductor with single-pole devices.

Figure 1: Disconnection of the neutral conductor

Moreover, in TN-C systems, voltage to earth arising on the neutral conductor constitutes a hazard for people; in fact, since this conductor is also a protective conductor, this voltage reaches the connected exposed conductive parts. For TN-C systems, the Standards specify minimum cross sections (see next clause) for the neutral conductor in order to prevent accidental breaking and they forbid the use of any device (single-pole or multi-pole) that could disconnect the PEN. The need for protection on the neutral conductor and the possibility of disconnecting the circuit depend on the distribution system:

TT or TN systems:

- if the cross section of the neutral conductor is the same or larger than the cross section of the phase conductor, there is neither the need to detect overcurrents on the neutral conductor nor to use a breaking device (neutral conductor is not protected or disconnected); this requirement applies only if there are no harmonics that may, at any instant, cause r.m.s. current values on the neutral conductor higher than the maximum current detected on the phase conductors;
- if the cross section of the neutral conductor is less than the cross section of the phase conductor, overcurrents on the neutral conductor must be detected so as to have the phase conductors, but not necessarily the neutral conductor, disconnected (neutral conductor protected but not disconnected): in this case the overcurrents on the neutral conductor do not need to be detected if the following conditions are simultaneously fulfilled:
	- 1.the neutral conductor is protected against short-circuit by the protective device of the phase conductors;
	- 2.the maximum current that can flow through the neutral conductor during normal service is lower than the neutral current carrying capacity.

In TN-S systems, the neutral need not be disconnected if the supply conditions are such that the neutral conductor can be considered to be reliable at earth potential. As already mentioned, in TN-C systems, the neutral conductor is also a protective conductor and cannot therefore be disconnected. Furthermore, if the neutral conductor is disconnected, the exposed conductive parts of the single-phase equipment could take the system rated voltage to earth. In certain specific cases, the neutral conductor has to be disconnected to prevent currents circulating between parallel supply sources (see Figures 2 and 3).

Figure 2: Three-phase alternative power supply with a 4-pole switch

NOTE - This method prevents electromagnetic fields due to stray currents in the main supply system of an installation. The sum of the currents within one cable must be zero. This ensures that the neutral current will flow only in the neutral conductor of the respective switched on circuit. The 3rd harmonic (150 Hz) current of the line conductors will be added with the same phase angle to the neutral conductor current.

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Figure 3: Three-phase alternative power supply with non-suitable 3-pole switch

NOTE – A three-phase alternative power supply with a non-suitable 3-pole switch, due to unintentional circular stray currents generating electromagnetic fields.

IT system:

The Standard advises against distributing the neutral conductor in IT systems. If the neutral conductor is distributed, the overcurrents must be detected on the neutral conductor of each circuit in order to disconnect all the live conductors on the corresponding circuit, including the neutral one (neutral conductor protected and disconnected).

Overcurrents do not need to be detected on the neutral conductor in any of the following cases:

- the neutral conductor is protected against short-circuit by a protective device fitted upstream;
- the circuit is protected by a residual current device with rated residual current lower than 0.15 times the current carrying capacity of the corresponding neutral conductor. This device must disconnect all the live conductors, the neutral conductor included.

For all distribution systems, whenever necessary, connection and disconnection of the neutral conductor, shall ensure that:

- the neutral conductor is not disconnected before the phase conductor;
- the neutral conductor is connected at the same moment or before the phase conductor.

Determination of the minimum cross section of the neutral conductor

The neutral conductor, if any, shall have the same cross section as the line conductor:

- in single-phase, two-wire circuits whatever the section:
- in polyphase and single-phase three-wire circuits, when the size of the line conductors is less than or equal to 16 mm2 in copper, or 25 mm2 in aluminium.1

The cross section of the neutral conductor can be less than the cross section of the phase conductor when the cross section of the phase conductor is greater than 16 mm2 with a copper cable, or 25 mm2 with an aluminium cable, if both the following conditions are met:

- the cross section of the neutral conductor is at least 16 mm2 for copper conductors and 25 mm2 for aluminium conductors;
- there is no high harmonic distortion of the load current. If there is high harmonic distortion (the harmonic content is greater than 10%), as for example in equipment with discharge lamps, the cross section of the neutral conductor cannot be less than the cross section of the phase conductors.

Table 1: Minimum cross sections of the neutral conductor

for TN-C systems, the Standards specify a minimum cross section of 10 mm² for copper and 16 mm2 for aluminium conductors

1 The cross section of phase conductors shall be dimensioned in compliance with the instructions of the Chapter 2.2.1 "Current carrying capacity and methods of installation"

Protective conductor

Determination of the minimum cross sections

The minimum cross section of the protective conductor can be determined by using the following table:

Table 2: Cross section of the protective conductor

Where

 k_1 is the value of k for the line conductor, selected from Table 1 Chapter 2.4 according to the materials of the conductor and insulation;

 $k₂$ is the value of k for the protective conductor.

For a PEN conductor, the reduction of the cross section is permitted only in accordance with the rules for sizing of the neutral conductor

For a more accurate calculation and if the protective conductor is subjected to adiabatic heating from an initial known temperature to a final specified temperature (applicable for fault extinction time no longer than 5s), the minimum cross section of the protective conductor S_{PF} can be obtained by using the following formula:

$$
S_{PE} = \frac{\sqrt{I^2 t}}{k} \qquad (1)
$$

where:

- \bullet S_{PF} is the cross section of the protective conductor [mm²];
- I is the r.m.s. current flowing through the protective conductor in the event of a fault with low impedance [A];
- t is the trip time of the protective device [s];

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• k is a constant which depends on the material of the protective conductor, on the type of insulation and on initial and final temperature. The most common values can be taken from Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3: Values of *k* **for insulated protective conductors not incorporated in cables and not bunched with other cables**

 $^{\text{a}}$ The lower value applies to PVC insulated conductors of cross section greater than 300 mm².

b Temperature limits for various types of insulation are given in IEC 60724.

Table 4: Values of *k* **for protective conductors as a core incorporated in a cable or bunched with other cables or insulated conductors**

 $^{\text{a}}$ The lower value applies to PVC insulated conductors of cross section greater than 300 mm².

b Temperature limits for various types of insulation are given in IEC 60724.

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Further values of k can be taken from the Tables in Annex D, which provides the formula for accurate calculation of the value of k.

If Table 2 or formula (1) do not provide a standardized cross section, a larger standardized cross section shall be chosen.

Regardless of whether Table 2 or formula (1) are used, the cross section of the protective conductor, which is not part of the supply cable, shall be at least:

- 2.5 mm2 Cu/16 mm2 Al, if a mechanical protection is provided;
- 4 mm2 Cu/16 mm2 Al, if no mechanical protection is provided.

For current using equipment intended for permanent connection and with a protective conductor current exceeding 10 mA, reinforced protective conductors shall be designed as follows:

- either the protective conductor shall have a cross-sectional area of at least 10 mm2 Cu or 16 mm2 Al, through its total run;
- or a second protective conductor of at least the same cross-sectional area as required for protection against indirect contact shall be laid up to a point where the protective conductor has a cross-sectional area not less than 10 mm2 Cu or 16 mm2 Al. This requires that the appliance has a separate terminal for a second protective conductor.

When overcurrent protective devices are used for protection against electric shock, the protective conductor shall be incorporated in the same wiring system as the live conductors or be located in their immediate proximity.

2.6 Busbar trunking systems (BTSs)

In electrical installations for industrial environments, busbar trunking systems (BTSs) optimize the power distribution despite the inevitable modifications that are carried out (additions, displacements, replacement of loads) and to facilitate maintenance work and safety verifications.

They are mainly used for:

- supplying sources of light, safety and low power distribution;
- lighting lines (medium power);
- power supply and distribution (medium and large power);
- supplying moving equipment (bridge cranes).

Busbar trunking systems are subject to the following Standards:

- IEC 60439 1 *"Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies Part 1: Type-tested and partially type-tested assemblies"*
- IEC 60439 2 *"Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies Part 2: Particular requirements for busbar trunking systems (busways)"*.

BTSs consist of:

- *conductors/busbars;*
- *coupling:* electrical and mechanical connecting elements for different elements;
- *straight elements:* base elements of the line for carrying energy from the source to the loads;
- *routing elements:* flexible joints for the creation of curves or overcoming obstacles, horizontal and vertical angles, tee joints and cross elements to create any type of route;
- *pull boxes:* elements that enable lamps or operating machines to be supplied directly with integrated protection (fuses or circuit breakers);
- *suspensions/accessories*: hanging and fixing elements for BTS and for any support required for special loads (lighting components, etc).

Dimensioning of a BTS

To dimension a BTS, the load current must be determined using the following data:

Power supply

- General type of load supply:
	- single-phase
	- three-phase.
- Type of BTS supply:
	- from one end;
	- from both ends;
	- central power supply.
- Rated voltage
- Short-circuit current at the supply point
- Ambient temperature.

Loads

• Number, distribution, power and cosm and type of loads supplied by the same **BTS**

BTS geometry

• Type of installation:

- flat;

- edge-on;
- vertical.
- Length.

NOTE: BTSs shall be placed at a distance from the walls and the ceilings in such a way as to enable visual inspection of connections during assembly and to facilitate insertion of the branch units.

If possible, it is preferable to install the BTS edge-on so as to improve mechanical resistance and reduce any possible deposit of powder and polluting substances that might affect the level of internal insulation.

Load current calculation for three-phase system

Load current I_b for a three-phase system is calculated by the following formula:

$$
I_b = \frac{P_t \cdot b}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r \cdot \cos \varphi_m} \text{ [A]} \qquad (1)
$$

where:

- \bullet P_t is the sum of the active power of all the installed loads [W];
- b is the supply factor, which is:
	- 1 if the BTS is supplied from one side only;
	- 1/2 if the BTS is supplied from the centre or from both ends simultaneously;
- \bullet U_r is the operating voltage [V];
- cos ω_m is the average power factor of the loads.

Choice of BTS current carrying capacity

A BTS shall be chosen so that its current carrying capacity I_z complies with the following formula:

$$
I_b \le I_{Z0} \cdot k_t = I_Z \tag{2}
$$

where:

- \bullet I_{70} is the current that the BTS can carry for an indefinite time at the reference temperature (40 °C);
- \bullet I_h is the load current;
- \bullet k_t is the correction factor for ambient temperature values other than the reference ambient temperature shown on Table 1.

Note: the following tables show typical parameters of the BTS present on the market

*phase resistance at I_{z0}

Table 3: Current carrying capacity I_{zo} of aluminium BTS

*phase resistance at I_{z0}

BTS protection

Protection against overload

BTSs are protected against overload by using the same criterion as that used for the cables. The following formula shall be verified:

$$
\mathsf{I}_\mathsf{b} \leq \mathsf{I}_\mathsf{n} \leq \mathsf{I}_\mathsf{z} \qquad \text{(3)}
$$

where:

- I_b is the current for which the circuit is designed:
- \bullet I_n is the rated current of the protective device; for adjustable protective devices, the rated current I_n is the set current;
- \bullet I_z is the continuous current carrying capacity of the BTS.

Protection against short-circuit

The BTS must be protected against thermal overload and electrodynamic effects due to the short-circuit current.

Protection against thermal overload The following formula shall be fulfilled:

$$
I^2t_{CB}\leq I^2t_{BTS}~~(4)
$$

where:

- \bullet I^{2t}CB is the specific let-through energy of the circuit-breaker at the maximum short-circuit current value at the installation point. This can be extrapolated from the curves shown in Volume 1 Chapter 3.4;
- $2t$ _{RTS} is the withstood energy of the BTS and it is normally given by the manufacturer (see Tables 4 and 5).

Protection against electrodynamic effects The following formula shall be fulfilled:

$I_{\text{KD CB}} \leq I_{\text{KD BTS}}$ (5)

where:

- \bullet I_{kn} CB is the peak limited by the circuit-breaker at the maximum short-circuit current value at the installation point. This can be extrapolated from the limitation curves shown in Volume 1, Chapter 3.3;
- \bullet $\mathsf{l}_{\mathsf{k}\cap\mathsf{BTS}}$ is the maximum peak current value of the BTS (see Tables 4 and 5).

NOTE - The protection against short-circuit does not need to be checked if MCBs up to 63 A are used whenever correctly dimensioned for overload protection. In such cases, in fact, protection against both thermal and electrodynamic effects is certainly adequate because of the energy and peak limitations offered by these protective devices.

Table 4: Values of the withstood energy and peak current of copper BTS

Table 5: Values of the withstood energy and peak current of aluminium BTS

Protection of the outgoing feeders

If the outgoing feeder, which generally consists of cable duct, is not already protected against short-circuit and overload by the device located upstream of the cable, the following measures shall be taken:

- protection against short-circuit:

there is no need to protect the feeder against the short-circuit if simultaneously:

- a. the length does not exceed 3 metres;
- b. the risk of short-circuit is minimized;
- c. there is no inflammable material nearby.

In explosive environments and environments with greater risk of fire, protection against short-circuit is always required;

- protection against overload:

the current carrying capacity of the feeder is generally lower than that of the BTS. It is therefore necessary to protect also the feeder against overload.

The protection device against overload can be placed inside the pull box or on the incoming panel.

In the latter case, protection against overload can also be provided by the circuit-breakers protecting the single outgoing feeder from the panel only if the sum of their rated currents is lower or equal to the current carrying capacity I_z of the outgoing feeder.

In locations with greater risk of fire, the overload protection device shall be installed at the outgoing point, i.e. inside the pull box.

Voltage drop

If a BTS is particularly long, the value of the voltage drop must be verified. For three-phase systems with a power factor ($cos \varphi$ _m) not lower than 0.8, the voltage drop can be calculated by using the following simplified formula:

$$
\Delta u = \frac{a \cdot \sqrt{3} \cdot I_b \cdot L \cdot (r_t \cdot \cos \varphi_m + x \cdot \sin \varphi_m)}{1000} \text{ [V]} \tag{6a}
$$

For single-phase BTS the formula is:

$$
\Delta u = \frac{a \cdot 2 \cdot I_b \cdot L \cdot (r_t \cdot \cos \varphi_m + x \cdot \sin \varphi_m)}{1000} \text{ [V]} \tag{6b}
$$

where:

• a is the current distribution factor, which depends on the circuit supply and the arrangement of the electric loads along the BTS, as shown in Table 6:

Table 6: Current distribution factor

 \bullet I_b is the load current [A];

• L is the BTS length [m];

- \bullet r_t is the phase resistance per unit of length of BTS, measured under thermal steady-state conditions [mΩ/m];
- x is the phase reactance per unit of length of BTS $[m\Omega/m]$;
- cosϕm is average power factor of the loads.

Percentage voltage drop is obtained from:

$$
\Delta u\% = \frac{\Delta u}{U_r} \cdot 100\tag{7}
$$

where U_r is rated voltage.

To reduce the voltage drop in very long BTS the power can be supplied at an intermediate position rather than at the end (see Table 6).

Calculation of voltage drop for unevenly distributed loads

If the loads cannot be considered to be evenly distributed, the voltage drop can be calculated more accurately by using the formulas below.

For the distribution of the three-phase loads shown in the figure, the voltage drop can be calculated by the following formula if the BTS has a constant cross section (as usual):

$$
\Delta u = \sqrt{3} [r_t (l_1 L_1 \cos \varphi_1 + l_2 L_2 \cos \varphi_2 + l_3 L_3 \cos \varphi_3) + x (l_1 L_1 \sin \varphi_1 + l_2 L_2 \sin \varphi_2 + l_3 L_3 \sin \varphi_3)]
$$

Generally speaking, this formula becomes:

$$
\Delta u = \frac{\sqrt{3} \ r_t \cdot \sum l_i \cdot L_i \cdot \cos \varphi_{mi} + x \cdot \sum l_i \cdot L_i \cdot \sin \varphi_{mi}}{1000} \ \ [\text{V}] \tag{8}
$$

where:

- \bullet r_t is the phase resistance per unit of length of BTS, measured under thermal steady-state conditions [mΩ/m];
- x is the phase reactance per unit of length of BTS $[m\Omega/m]$;
- cosφ_m is average power factor of the i-th load;
- \bullet I_i is i-th load current [A];
- \bullet L_i is the distance of the i-th load from the beginning of the BTS [m].

Joule-effect losses

Joule-effect losses are due to the electrical resistance of the BTS. The losses are dissipated in heat and contribute to the heating of the trunking and of the environment. Calculation of power losses is useful for correctly dimensioning the air-conditioning system for the building. Three-phase losses are:

$$
P_j = \frac{3 \cdot r_t \cdot l_b^2 \cdot L}{1000} \text{ [W]} \quad \text{(9a)}
$$

while single-phase losses are:

$$
P_{j} = \frac{2 \cdot r_{i} \cdot l_{b}^{2} \cdot L}{1000} \text{ [W]} (9b)
$$

where:

- \bullet I_b is the current used [A];
- \bullet r_t is the phase resistance per unit of length of BTS measured under thermal steady-state conditions [mΩ/m];
- L is the length of BTS [m].

For accurate calculations, losses must be assessed section by section on the basis of the currents flowing through them; e.g. in the case of distribution of loads shown in the previous figure:

Introduction 3.1 Protection and switching of lighting circuits

Upon supply of a lighting installation, for a brief period an initial current exceeding the rated current (corresponding to the power of the lamps) circulates on the network. This possible peak has a value of approximately 15÷20 times the rated current, and is present for a few milliseconds; there may also be an inrush current with a value of approximately 1.5÷3 times the rated current, lasting up to some minutes. The correct dimensioning of the switching and protection devices must take these problems into account.

The most commonly used lamps are of the following types:

- incandescent;
- halogen;
- fluorescent;
- high intensity discharge: mercury vapour, metal halide and sodium vapour.

Incandescent lamps

Incandescent lamps are made up of a glass bulb containing a vacuum or inert gas and a tungsten filament. The current flows through this filament, heating it until light is emitted.

The electrical behaviour of these lamps involves a high peak current, equal to approximately 15 times the rated current; after a few milliseconds the current returns to the rated value. The peak is caused by the lamp filament which, initially cold, presents a very low electrical resistance. Subsequently, due to the very fast heating of the element, the resistance value increases considerably, causing the decrease in the current absorbed.

Halogen lamps

Halogen lamps are a special type of incandescent lamp in which the gas contained within the bulb prevents the vaporized material of the tungsten filament from depositing on the surface of the bulb and forces re-deposition on the filament. This phenomenon slows the deterioration of the filament, improves the quality of the light emitted and increases the life of the lamp.

The electrical behaviour of these lamps is the same as that of incandescent lamps.

Fluorescent lamps

Fluorescent lamps are a so-called discharge light source. The light is produced by a discharge within a transparent enclosure (glass, quartz, etc. depending on the type of lamp) which contains mercury vapour at low pressure.

Once the discharge has started, the gas within the enclosure emits energy in the ultraviolet range which strikes the fluorescent material; in turn, this material transforms the ultraviolet radiation into radiation which has a wavelength within the visible spectrum. The colour of the light emitted depends upon the fluorescent material used.

The discharge is created by an appropriate peak in voltage, generated by a starter. Once the lamp has been switched on, the gas offers an ever lower resistance, and it is necessary to stabilize the intensity of the current, using a controller (reactor); this lowers the power factor to approximately $0.4 \div 0.6$; normally a capacitor is added to increase the power factor to a value of more than 0.9

There are two types of controllers, magnetic (conventional) and electronic, which absorb from 10% to 20% of the rated power of the lamp. Electronic controllers offer specific advantages such as a saving in the energy absorbed, a lower dissipation of heat, and ensure a stable, flicker-free light. Some types of fluorescent lamps with electronic reactors do not need a starter.

Compact fluorescent lamps are made up of a folded tube and a plastic base which contains, in some cases, a conventional or electronic controller.

The value of the inrush current depends upon the presence of a power factor correction capacitor:

- non PFC lamps have inrush currents equal to approximately twice the rated current and a turn-on time of about ten seconds;
- in PFC lamps, the presence of the capacitor allows the reduction of the turnon time to a few seconds, but requires a high peak current, determined by the charge of the capacitor, which can reach 20 times the rated current.

If the lamp is fitted with an electronic controller, the initial transient current may lead to peak currents equal to, at maximum, 10 times the rated current.

High intensity discharge lamps: mercury vapour, metal halide and sodium vapour

The functioning of high intensity discharge lamps is the same as that of fluorescent lamps with the difference that the discharge occurs in the presence of a gas at high pressure. In this case, the arc is able to vaporize the metallic elements contained in the gas, releasing energy in the form of radiation which is both ultraviolet and within the visible spectrum. The special type of bulb glass blocks the ultraviolet radiation and allows only the visible radiation to pass through. There are three main types of high intensity discharge lamps: mercury vapour, metal halide and sodium vapour. The colour characteristics and the efficiency of the lamp depend upon the different metallic elements present in the gas, which are struck by the arc.

High intensity discharge lamps require a suitably sized controller and a heating period which can last some minutes before the emission of the rated light output. A momentary loss of power makes the restarting of the system and the heating necessary.

Non PFC lamps have inrush currents of up to twice the rated current for approximately 5 minutes.

PFC lamps have a peak current equal to 20 times the rated current, and an inrush current of up to twice the rated current for approximately 5 minutes.

Protection and switching devices

IEC 60947-4-1 identifies two specific utilization categories for lamp control contactors:

- AC-5a switching of electric discharge lamps;
- AC-5b switching of incandescent lamps.

The documentation supplied by the manufacturer includes tables for contactor selection, according to the number of lamps to be controlled, and to their type.

For the selection of a protection device the following verifications shall be carried out:

- the trip characteristic curve shall be above the turning-on characteristic curve of the lighting device to avoid unwanted trips; an approximate example is shown in Figure1;
- coordination shall exist with the contactor under short-circuit conditions (lighting installations are not generally characterized by overloads).

With reference to the above verification criteria, the following tables show the maximum number of lamps per phase which can be controlled by the combination of ABB circuit-breakers and contactors for some types of lamps, according to their power and absorbed current $I_{b}^{(k)}$, for three phase installations with a rated voltage of 400 V and a maximum short-circuit current of 15 kA.

 $\overset{(*)}{\cdot}$ For calculation see Annex B Calculation of load current I_b

	$U = 400 V$	$k = 15 kA$						
	Incandescent/halogen lamps							
Circuit-breaker type Setting PR221 DS Contactor type				S200M D20 S200M D20 S200M D25	S200M D32	S200M D50		

		A26	A26	A26	A26	A30		
	Rated Power [W]	Rated current I _b [A]						
	60	0.27	57	65	70	103	142	
	100	0.45	34	38	42	62	85	
	200	0.91	17	19	20	30	42	
	300	1.37	11	12	13	20	28	
	500	2.28	6	7	8	12	16	
	1000	4.55	3	4	4	6	8	

Table 1: Incandescent and halogen lamps

Figure 1: Approximate diagram for the coordination of lamps with protection and switching devices

Table 2: Fluorescent lamps

Table 3: High intensity discharge lamps

Example:

Switching and protection of a lighting system, supplied by a three phase network at 400 V 15 kA, made up of 55 incandescent lamps, of 200 W each, per phase. In Table 1, on the row corresponding to 200 W, select the cell showing the number of controllable lamps immediately above the number of lamps per phase present in the installation. In the specific case, corresponding to the cell for 65 lamps per phase the following equipment are suggested:

- ABB Tmax T2N160 In63 circuit-breaker with PR221/DS type electronic release, with protection L set at 0.92, curve A and protection S set at 10, curve B; - A50 contactor.

3.2 Protection and switching of generators

The need to guarantee an ever greater continuity of service has led to an increase in the use of emergency supply generators, either as an alternative to, or in parallel with the public utility supply network.

Typical configurations include:

- "Island supply" (independent functioning) of the priority loads in the case of a lack of energy supply through the public network;
- supply to the user installation in parallel with the public supply network.

Unlike the public supply network, which has a constant contribution, in case of a short-circuit, the current supplied by the generator is a function of the parameters of the machine itself, and decreases with time; it is possible to identify the following successive phases:

- 1. a subtransient phase: with a brief duration (10÷50 ms), characterized by the subtransient reactance X''_d (5÷20% of the rated impedance value), and by the subtransient time constant T''_{d} (5÷30 ms);
- 2. a transitory phase: may last up to some seconds $(0.5\div 2.5 \text{ s})$, and is characterized by the transitory reactance X'_d (15÷40% of the rated impedance value), and by the transitory time constant T'_{d} (0.03÷2.5 s);
- 3. a synchronous phase: may persist until the tripping of external protection, and is characterized by the synchronous reactance X_d (80÷300% of the rated impedance value).

As a first approximation, it can be estimated that the maximum value of the short-circuit current of a generator, with rated power S_{ra} , at the rated voltage of the installation U_r , is equal to:

$$
I_{kg} = \frac{I_{rg} \cdot 100}{X_d^{\top}\%}
$$

where

 I_{ra} is the rated current of the generator:

$$
I_{rg} = \frac{S_{rg}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r}
$$

The circuit-breaker for the protection of the generator shall be selected according to the following criteria:

- the set current higher than the rated current of the generator: $I_1 \geq I_{\text{rot}}$;
- breaking capacity I_{cu} or I_{cs} higher than the maximum value of short-circuit current at the installation point:
	- in the case of a single generator: $I_{\text{cu}}(I_{\text{cs}}) \geq I_{\text{ka}}$;
	- in the case of *n* identical generators in parallel: $I_{\text{cu}}(I_{\text{cs}}) \geq I_{\text{kg}}(n-1)$;
	- in the case of operation in parallel with the network: $I_{\text{cu}}(I_{\text{cs}}) \geq I_{\text{kNet}}$ as the short-circuit contribution from the network is normally greater than the contribution from the generator;
- for circuit-breakers with thermomagnetic releases: low magnetic trip threshold: $I_3 = 2.5/3 \cdot I_n$;
- for circuit-breakers with electronic releases:
	- trip threshold of the delayed short-circuit protection function (S), set between 1.5 and 4 times the rated current of the generator, in such a way as to "intercept" the decrement curve of the generator:
		- $I_2 = (1.5 \div 4) \cdot I_{\text{rot}}$; if the function S is not present, function I can be set at the indicated values $I_3 = (1.5 \div 4) \cdot I_{ra}$;
	- trip threshold of the instantaneous short-circuit protection function $(I₃)$ set at a value greater than the rated short-circuit current of the generator, so as to achieve discrimination with the devices installed downstream, and to allow fast tripping in the event of a short-circuit upstream of the device (working in parallel with other generators or with the network):

$$
I_3 \geq I_{kg}
$$

The following tables give ABB SACE suggestions for the protection and switching of generators; the tables refer to 400 V (Table 1), 440 V (Table 2), 500 V (Table 3) and 690 V (Table 4). Molded-case circuit-breakers can be equipped with both thermomagnetic (TMG) as well as electronic releases.

* also Isomax CB type S7 can be used for this application

** also Emax CB type E1 can be used for this application

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* also Isomax CB type S7 can be used for this application ** also Emax CB type E1 can be used for this application

Example:

Protection of a generator with S_{ra} = 100 kVA, in a system with a rated voltage of 440 V. The generator parameters are: $U_r = 440 V$ $S_{rq} = 100$ kVA $f = 50$ Hz $I_{\text{ra}} = 131.2 A$ X_{d}^{T} = 6.5 % (subtransient reactance) $X'_d = 17.6$ % (transient reactance) $X_d = 230$ % (synchronous reactance) T_{d}^{r} = 5.5 ms (subtransient time constant) $T'_d = 39.3$ ms (transient time constant)

From table 2, an ABB SACE T2N160 circuit-breaker is selected, with $I_n = 160$ A, with electronic release PR221-LS. For correct protection of the generator, the following settings are selected:

function L: $0.84 - A$, corresponding to 134.4 A, value greater than I_{r0} function I: 1.5

3.3 Protection and switching of motors

Electromechanical starter

The starter is designed to:

- start motors;
- ensure continuous functioning of motors;
- disconnect motors from the supply line;
- guarantee protection of motors against working overloads.

The starter is typically made up of a switching device (contactor) and an overload protection device (thermal release).

The two devices must be coordinated with equipment capable of providing protection against short-circuit (typically a circuit-breaker with magnetic release only), which is not necessarily part of the starter.

The characteristics of the starter must comply with the international Standard IEC 60947-4-1, which defines the above as follows:

Contactor: a mechanical switching device having only one position of rest, operated otherwise than by hand, capable of making, carrying and breaking currents under normal circuit conditions including operating overload conditions.

Thermal release: thermal overload relay or release which operates in the case of overload and also in case of loss of phase.

Circuit-breaker: defined by IEC 60947-2 as a mechanical switching device, capable of making, carrying and breaking currents under normal circuit conditions and also making, carrying for a specified time and breaking currents under specified abnormal circuit conditions.

The main types of motor which can be operated and which determine the characteristics of the starter are defined by the following utilization categories:

Table 1: Utilization categories and typical applications

 $⁽¹⁾$ AC-3 categories may be used for occasionally inching or plugging for limited time periods</sup> such as machine set-up; during such limited time periods the number of such operations should not exceed five per minutes or more than ten in a 10 minutes period.

The choice of the starting method and also, if necessary, of the type of motor to be used depends on the typical resistant torque of the load and on the shortcircuit power of the motor supplying network.

With alternating current, the most commonly used motor types are as follows:

- asynchronous three-phase squirrel-cage motors (AC-3): the most widespread type due to the fact that they are of simple construction, economical and sturdy; they develop high torque with short acceleration times, but require elevated starting currents;
- slip-ring motors (AC-2): characterized by less demanding starting conditions, and have quite a high starting torque, even with a supply network of low power.

Starting methods

The most common starting methods for asynchronous squirrel-cage motors are detailed below:

Direct starting

With direct starting, the DOL (Direct On Line) starter, with the closing of line contactor KL, the line voltage is applied to the motor terminals in a single operation. Hence a squirrel-cage motor develops a high starting torque with a relatively reduced acceleration time. This method is generally used with small and medium power motors which reach full working speed in a short time. These advantages are, however, accompanied by a series of drawbacks, including, for example:

- high current consumption and associated voltage drop which may cause damages to the other parts of the system connected to the network;
- violent acceleration which has negative effects on mechanical transmission components (belts, chains and mechanical joints), reducing working life.

Other types of starting for squirrel-cage motors are accomplished by reducing the supply voltage of the motor: this leads to a reduction in the starting current and of the motor torque, and an increase in the acceleration time.

Star-Delta starter

The most common reduced voltage starter is the Star-Delta starter (Y-Δ), in which:

- on starting, the stator windings are star-connected, thus achieving the reduction of peak inrush current;
- once the normal speed of the motor is nearly reached, the switchover to delta is carried out.

After the switchover, the current and the torque follow the progress of the curves associated with normal service connections (delta).

As can be easily checked, starting the motor with star-connection gives a voltage reduction of √3, and the current absorbed from the line is reduced by 1/3 compared with that absorbed with delta-connection.

The start-up torque, proportional to the square of the voltage, is reduced by 3 times, compared with the torque that the same motor would supply when delta-connected.

This method is generally applied to motors with power from 15 to 355 kW, but intended to start with a low initial resistant torque.

Starting sequence

By pressing the start button, contactors KL and KY are closed. The timer starts to measure the start time with the motor connected in star. Once the set time has elapsed, the first contact of the timer opens the KY contactor and the second contact, delayed by approximately 50 ms, closes the KΔ contactor. With this new configuration, contactors KL and KΔ closed, the motor becomes delta-connected.

The thermal release TOR, inserted in the delta circuit, can detect any 3rd harmonic currents, which may occur due to saturation of the magnetic pack and by adding to the fundamental current, overload the motor without involving the line.

With reference to the connection diagram, the equipment used for a Star/Delta starter must be able to carry the following currents:

$$
\frac{I_r}{\sqrt{3}}
$$
 KL line contactor and K Δ delta contactor

KY star contactor

3 *r I*

3 *r I*

overload protection release

where I_r is the rated current of the motor.

Starting with autotransformers

Starting with autotransformers is the most functional of the methods used for reduced voltage starting, but is also the most expensive. The reduction of the supply voltage is achieved by using a fixed tap autotransformer or a more expensive multi tap autotransformer.

Applications can be found with squirrel-cage motors which generally have a power from 50 kW to several hundred kilowatts, and higher power doublecage motors.

The autotransformer reduces the network voltage by the factor K (K=1.25 \div 1.8), and as a consequence the start-up torque is reduced by K2 times compared with the value of the full rated voltage.

On starting, the motor is connected to the taps of the autotransformer and the contactors K2 and K1 are closed.

Therefore, the motor starts at a reduced voltage, and when it has reached approximately 80% of its normal speed, contactor K1 is opened and main contactor K3 is closed. Subsequently, contactor K2 is opened, excluding the autotransformer so as to supply the full network voltage.

Starting with inductive reactors or resistors

This type of starting is used for simple or double-cage rotors. The reduction of the supply voltage is achieved by the insertion of inductive reactors or resistors, in series to the stator. On start-up, the current is limited to 2.5÷3.5 times the rated value.

On starting, the motor is supplied via contactor K2; once the normal speed is reached, the reactors are short-circuited by the closing of contactor K1, and are then excluded by the opening of contactor K2.

It is possible to achieve exclusions by step of the resistors or reactors with time-delayed commands, even for motors with power greater than 100 kW.

The use of reactors notably reduces the power factor, while the use of resistors causes the dissipation of a high power (Joule effect), even if limited to the starting phase.

For a reduction K ($0.6\div0.8$) of the motor voltage, the torque is reduced by K² times (0.36÷0.64).

In compliance with the above mentioned Standard, starters can also be classified according to tripping time (trip classes), and according to the type of coordination achieved with the short-circuit protection device (Type 1 and Type 2).

Trip classes

The trip classes differentiate between the thermal releases according to their trip curve.

The trip classes are defined in the following table 2:

Table 2: Trip class

where Tp is the cold trip time of the thermal release at 7.2 times the set current value (for example: a release in class 10 at 7.2 times the set current value must not trip within 4 s, but must trip within 10 s).

It is normal procedure to associate class 10 with a normal start-up type, and class 30 with a heavy duty start-up type.

Coordination type

Type 1

It is acceptable that in the case of short-circuit the contactor and the thermal release may be damaged. The starter may still not be able to function and must be inspected; if necessary, the contactor and/or the thermal release must be replaced, and the breaker release reset.

Type 2

In the case of short-circuit, the thermal release must not be damaged, while the welding of the contactor contacts is allowed, as they can easily be separated (with a screwdriver, for example), without any significant deformation.

In order to clearly determine a coordination type, and therefore the equipment necessary to achieve it, the following must be known:

- power of the motor in kW and type;
- rated system voltage;
- rated motor current;
- short-circuit current at installation point;
- starting type: DOL or Y/Δ normal or heavy duty Type 1 or Type 2.

The requested devices shall be coordinated with each other in accordance with the prescriptions of the Standard.

For the most common voltages and short-circuit values (400 V - 440 V - 500 V - 690 V 35 kA - 50 kA) and for the most frequently used starting types, such as direct starting and Star/Delta starting, for asynchronous squirrel-cage motor (AC-3), ABB supplies solutions with:

- magnetic circuit-breaker contactor thermal release;
- thermomagnetic circuit-breaker contactor;
- thermomagnetic circuit-breaker with PR222 MP electronic release contactor.

The following is an example of the type of tables available:

Table 3: 400 V 50 kA DOL Normal Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)

MA: magnetic only adjustable release MF: fixed magnetic only release

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Table 4: 400 V 50 kA DOL Heavy duty Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)

* Provide a by-pass contactor of the same size during motor start-up
** For type E releases choose tripping class 30
*** Connecting kit not available. To use the connecting kit, replacement with release E800DU800 is necess

MA: magnetic only adjustable release

MF: fixed magnetic only release

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Table 5: 400 V 50 kA Y/Δ **Normal Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)**

MA: magnetic only adjustable release

Table 6: 400 V 50 kA DOL Normal and Heavy duty Type 2 (Tmax with MP release-Contactor)

(*) for heavy-duty start set the electronic release tripping class to class 30

(**) in case of normal start use AF300

Table 7: 440 V 50 kA DOL Normal Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)

* Connection kit not available. To use the connection kit, replace with relay E800DU800.

MA: magnetic only adjustable release MF: fixed magnetic only release

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Table 8: 440 V 50 kA DOL Heavy duty Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)

* Provide a by-pass contactor of the same size during motor start-up
** For type E releases choose tripping class 30
*** Connecting kit not available. To use the connecting kit, replacement with release E800DU800 is necess

MA: magnetic only adjustable release

MF: fixed magnetic only release

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Table 9: 440 V 50 kA Y/Δ **Normal Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)**

MA : Magnetic only adjustable release

(*) for heavy-duty start set the electronic release tripping class to class 30

(**) in case of normal start use AF300

Table 11: 500 V 50 kA DOL Normal Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)

Connection kit not available. To use the connection kit, replace with relay E800DU800. MA: magnetic only adjustable release MF: fixed magnetic only release

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Table 12: 500 V 50 kA DOL Heavy duty Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)

* Provide a by-pass contactor of the same size during motor start-up
** For type E releases choose tripping class 30
*** Connecting kit not available. To use the connecting kit, replacement with release E800DU800 is necess

MA: magnetic only adjustable release

MF: fixed magnetic only release

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Table 13: 500 V 50 kA Y/Δ **Normal Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)**

MA: magnetic only adjustable release

(*) for heavy duty start set the electronic release tripping class to class 30

(**) in case of normal start use AF300

Table 15: 690 V 50kA DOL Normal Type 2 (Tmax-Contactor-CT-TOR)

For further information about the KORK, please see the "brochure KORK 1GB00-04" catalogue.

(*) Type 1 coordination

 $(*")$ Cable cross section equal to 4 mm²

(***) No mounting kit to contactor is available;to use mounting kit provide E800DU800

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Table 16: 690 V 50 kA DOL Heavy duty Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – TOR)

(*) Type 1 coordination

 $(*")$ Cable cross section equal to 4 mm²

(***) No mounting kit to contactor is available;to use mounting kit provide E800DU800

(X) Provide by-pass contactor during motor start-up

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Table 17: 690 V 50 kA Y/Δ **Normal Type 2 (Tmax – Contactor – CT – TOR)**

For further information about the KORK, please see the "brochure KORK 1GB00-04" catalogue.

(*) Cable cross section equal to 4 mm^2

(**) Connect the overload/relay upstream the line-delta node

Table 18: 690 V 50 kA DOL Normal and Heavy duty Type 2 (Tmax with MP release-Contactor)

(*) for heavy duty start set the electronic release tripping class to class 30

Example:

For a Y/Δ Normal starting Type 2, of a three phase asynchronous squirrel-cage motor with the following data:

rated voltage $U_r = 400$ V

short-circuit current $I_k = 50$ kA

rated motor power $P_e = 200$ kW

from Table 5, on the relevant row, the following information can be found:

- I_r (rated current): 349 A;
- short-circuit protection device: circuit-breaker T5S630 PR221-I In630;
- magnetic trip threshold: $I_3 = 4410 \text{ A}$:
- line contactor: A210:
- delta contactor: A210;
- star contactor: A185;
- thermal release E320DU320, setting range 100÷320 A (to be set at $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ = 202 A).

For a DOL heavy-duty starting Type 2 with MP protection of a three phase asynchronous squirrel-cage motor with the following data: rated voltage Ur = 400 V short-circuit current $lk = 50 kA$ rated motor power Pe = 55 kW from Table 6, on the relevant row, the following information can be found:

- Ir (rated current): 98 A;
- short-circuit protection device: circuit breaker T4S250 PR222MP* In160;
- magnetic trip threshold: I3 = 960 A;
- contactor: A145;

* for heavy-duty start set the electronic release tripping class to class 30

3.4 Protection and switching of transformers

General aspects

Transformers are used to achieve a change in the supply voltage, for both medium and low voltage supplies.

The choice of the protection devices must take into account transient insertion phenomena, during which the current may reach values higher than the rated full load current; the phenomenon decays in a few seconds.

The curve which represents these transient phenomena in the time-current diagram, termed "inrush current I0", depends on the size of the transformer and can be evaluated with the following formula (the short-circuit power of the network is assumed to be equal to infinity)

$$
I_0 = \frac{K \cdot I_{r1} \cdot e^{(-t/\tau)}}{\sqrt{2}}
$$

where:

- K ratio between the maximum peak inrush current value (I_0) and the rated current of the transformer (I_{1r}) : $(K = I_0 / I_{1r})$;
- τ time constant of the inrush current;
- I_{1r} rated current of the primary;
t time

time.

The table below shows the indicative values for t and K parameters referred to rated power Sr for oil transformers.

Further to the above consideration, the follwing diagram shows the inrush current curve for a 20/0.4kV of 400kVA transformer. This transformer has an inrush current during the very first moments equal to about 8 times the rated current; this transient phenomenon stops after a few tenths of a second.

The transformer protection devices must also guarantee that the transformer cannot operate above the point of maximum thermal overload under shortcircuit conditions; this point is defined on the time-current diagram by the value of short-circuit current which can pass through the transformer and by a time equal to 2 s, as stated by Standard IEC 60076-5. The short-circuit current (I_k) flowing for a fault with low impedance at the LV terminals of the transformer is calculated by using the following formula:

$$
I_{k} = \frac{U_{r}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot (Z_{\text{Net}} + Z_{t})} [A] \qquad (1)
$$

where:

- \cdot U_r is the rated voltage of the transformer [V];
- Z_{Net} is the short-circuit impedance of the network $[\Omega]$;
- \cdot Z_t is the short-circuit impedance of the transformer; from the rated power of the transformer $(S_r | VA)$ and the percentage short-circuit voltage $(u_k %)$ it is equal to:

$$
Z_{t} = \frac{u_{k} \, \mathcal{C}_{0}}{100} \cdot \frac{U_{r}^{2}}{S_{r}} \, [\Omega] \tag{2}
$$

Considering the upstream short-circuit power of the network to be infinite $(Z_{Net}=0)$, formula (1) becomes:

$$
I_k = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3} \cdot (Z_t)} = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3} \cdot \left(\frac{u_k \%}{100} \cdot \frac{U_r^2}{S_r}\right)} = \frac{100 \text{ S}_r}{\sqrt{3} \cdot u_k \% \cdot U_r} \quad \text{(3)}
$$

The diagram below shows the inrush current curve for a 20/0.4 kV of 400 kVA transformer (u_k % = 4 %) and the point referred to the thermal ability to withstand the short-circuit current (Ik; 2 sec.).

In summary: for the correct protection of the transformer and to avoid unwanted trips, the trip curve of the protection device must be above the inrush current curve and below the overload point.

The diagram below shows a possible position of the time-current curve of an upstream protection device of a 690/400 V, 250 kVA transformer with u_k % = 4 %.

Criteria for the selection of protection devices

For the protection at the LV side of MV/LV transformers, the selection of a circuit-breaker shall take into account:

- the rated current at LV side of the protected transformer (this value is the reference value for the rated current of the circuit-breaker and the setting of the protections);
- the maximum short-circuit current at the point of installation (this value determines the minimum breaking capacity $(I_{\text{cu}}/I_{\text{cs}})$ of the protection device).

MV/LV unit with single transformer

The rated current at the LV side of the transformer (I_r) is determined by the following formula:

$$
I_{r} = \frac{1000 \cdot S_{r}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_{r20}} [A] \qquad (4)
$$

where:

- \cdot S_r is the rated power of the transformer [kVA];
- U_{r20} is the rated LV no-load voltage of the transformer [V].

The full voltage three-phase short-circuit current (I_k) , at the LV terminals of the transformer, can be expressed as (assuming that the short-circuit power of the network is infinite):

$$
I_k = \frac{100 \cdot I_r}{u_k \%} [A] \tag{5}
$$

where:

uk% is the short-circuit voltage of the transformer, in %.

The protection circuit-breaker must have: (*) $\vert n \rangle \geq \vert n \rangle$ $I_{\text{CH}}(I_{\text{CS}}) \geq I_{k}$.

If the short-circuit power of the upstream network is not infinite and cable or busbar connections are present, it is possible to obtain a more precise value for I_k by using formula (1), where Z_{N} is the sum of the impedance of the network and of the impedance of the connection.

MV/LV substation with more than one transformer in parallel For the calculation of the rated current of the transformer, the above applies (formula 4).

The breaking capacity of each protection circuit-breaker on the LV side shall be higher than the short-circuit current equivalent to the short-circuit current of each equal transformer multiplied by the number of them minus one. As can be seen from the diagram below, in the case of a fault downstream of a transformer circuit-breaker (circuit-breaker A), the short-circuit current that flows through the circuit-breaker is equal to the contribution of a single transformer. In the case of a fault upstream of the same circuit-breaker, the short-circuit current that flows is equal to the contribution of the other two transformers in parallel.

(*) To carry out correct protection against overload it is advisable to use thermometric equipment or other protection devices able to monitor temperature inside transformers.

For a correct dimensioning, a circuit-breaker with a breaking capacity higher than twice the short-circuit current of one of the transformers must be chosen (assuming that all the transformers are equal and the loads are passive).

The circuit-breakers positioned on the outgoing feeders (circuit-breakers B) shall have a breaking capacity higher than the sum of the short-circuit currents of the three transformers, according to the hypothesis that the upstream network short-circuit power is 750 MVA and the loads are passive.

Selection of the circuit-breaker

The following tables show some possible choices of ABB SACE circuit-breakers, according to the characteristics of the transformer to be protected.

Table 1: Protection and switching of 230 V transformers

* also Tmax series CBs equipped with elctronic releases can be used for this application

** also Isomax CB type S7 and Emax type E1 can be used for this application

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Table 2: Protection and switching of 400 V transformers

* also Tmax series CBs equipped with elctronic releases can be used for this application

** also Isomax CB type S7 and Emax type E1 can be used for this application

* also Tmax series CBs equipped with elctronic releases can be used for this application

** also Isomax CB type S7 and Emax type E1 can be used for this application

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* also Tmax series CBs equipped with elctronic releases can be used for this application

** also Isomax CB type S7 and Emax type E1 can be used for this application

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NOTE

The tables refer to the previously specified conditions; the information for the selection of circuit-breakers is supplied only with regard to the current in use and the prospective short-circuit current. For a correct selection, other factors such as selectivity, back-up protection, the decision to use limiting circuitbreakers etc. must also be considered. Therefore, it is essential that the design engineers carry out precise checks.

It must also be noted that the short-circuit currents given are determined using the hypothesis of 750 MVA power upstream of the transformers, disregarding the impedances of the busbars or the connections to the circuit-breakers.

Example:

Supposing the need to size breakers A1/A2/A3, on the LV side of the three transformers of 630 kVA 20/0.4 kV with u_k % equal to 4% and outgoing feeder circuit-breakers B1/B2/B3 of 63-400-800 A:

From Table 2, corresponding to the row relevant to 3x630 kVA transformers, it can be read that:

Level A circuit-breakers (LV side of transformer)

- Trafo I_r (909 A) is the current that flows through the transformer circuit-breakers;
- Busbar I_b (2727 A) is the maximum current that the transformers can supply;
- Trafo Feeder I_k (42.8 kA) is the value of the short-circuit current to consider for the choice of the breaking capacity of each of the transformer circuit-breakers;
- T7S1000 or X1N1000 is the size of the transformer circuit-breaker;
- In (1000 A) is the rated current of the transformer circuit-breaker (electronic release chosen by the user);
- The minimum value 0.91 indicate the minimum settings of the L function of the electronic releases for CBs T7S1000 and X1N1000.

Level B circuit-breakers (outgoing feeder)

- Busbar I_k (64.2 kA) is the short-circuit current due to the contribution of all three transformers;
- corresponding to 63 A, read circuit-breaker B1 Tmax T2H160;
- corresponding to 400 A, read circuit-breaker B2 Tmax T5H400;
- corresponding to 800 A, read circuit-breaker B3 Tmax T6H800 or Emax X1N800.

The choice made does not take into account discrimination/back-up requirements. Refer to the relevant chapters for selections appropriate to the various cases.

4.1 General aspects

In alternating current circuits, the current absorbed by the user can be represented by two components:

- the active component I_P , in phase with the supply voltage, is directly correlated to the output (and therefore to the part of electrical energy transformed into energy of a different type, usually electrical with different characteristics, mechanical, light and/or thermal);
- the reactive component I_O , in quadrature to the voltage, is used to produce the flow necessary for the conversion of powers through the electric or magnetic field. Without this, there could be no flow of power, such as in the core of a transformer or in the air gap of a motor.

In the most common case, in the presence of ohmic-inductive type loads, the total current (I) lags in comparison with the active component I_R.

In an electrical installation, it is necessary to generate and transmit, other than the active power P, a certain reactive power Q, which is essential for the conversion of electrical energy, but not available to the user. The complex of the power generated and transmitted constitutes the apparent power *S*.

Power factor (cos φ) is defined as the ratio between the active component I_R and the total value of the current \mathfrak{t} ; φ is the phase shifting between the voltage U and the current l. It results:

$$
\cos \varphi = \frac{I_{\rm R}}{I} = \frac{P}{S} \tag{1}
$$

The reactive demand factor (tan φ) is the relationship between the reactive power and the active power:

$$
tan\phi = \frac{Q}{P} (2)
$$

Table 1 shows some typical power factors:

Table 1: Typical power factor

The power factor correction is the action increasing the power factor in a specific section of the installation by locally supplying the necessary reactive power, so as to reduce the current value to the equivalent of the power required, and therefore the total power absorbed from the upstream side. Thus, both the line as well as the supply generator can be sized for a lower apparent power value required by the load.

In detail, as shown by Figure 1 and Figure 2, increasing the power factor of the load:

- decreases the relative voltage drop $u_{\rm ro}$ per unit of active power transmitted;
- increases the transmittable active power and decreases the losses, the other dimensioning parameters remaining equal.

Figure 1: Relative voltage drop

The distribution authority is responsible for the production and transmission of the reactive power required by the user installations, and therefore has a series of further inconveniences which can be summarized as:

- oversizing of the conductors and of the components of the transmission lines;

- higher Joule-effect losses and higher voltage drops in the components and lines.

The same inconveniences are present in the distribution installation of the final user. The power factor is an excellent index of the size of the added costs and is therefore used by the distribution authority to define the purchase price of the energy for the final user.

The ideal situation would be to have a cos_∞ slightly higher than the set reference so as to avoid payment of legal penalties, and at the same time not to risk having, with a cos ω too close to the unit, a leading power factor when the power factor corrected device is working with a low load.

The distribution authority generally does not allow others to supply reactive power to the network, also due to the possibility of unexpected overvoltages.

In the case of a sinusoidal waveform, the reactive power necessary to pass from one power factor $cos\varphi_1$ to a power factor $cos\varphi_2$ is given by the formula:

$$
Q_c = Q_2 - Q_1 = P \cdot (tan \varphi_1 - tan \varphi_2)
$$
 (3)

where:
P

is the active power:

 Q_1, φ_1 are the reactive power and the phase shifting before power factor correction;

 $\mathsf{Q}_{2},\mathsf{\phi}_{2}$ are the reactive power and the phase shifting after power factor correction;

 Q_c is the reactive power for the power factor correction.

Table 2 shows the value of the relationship

$$
K_c = \frac{Q_c}{P} = \tan \varphi_1 - \tan \varphi_2 \ (4)
$$

for different values of the power factor before and after the correction.

Table 2: Factor K_c

Example

Supposing the need to change from 0.8 to 0.93 the power factor of a threephase installation (U_r= 400 V) which absorbs an average power of 300 kW. From Table 2, at the intersection of the column corresponding to the final power factor (0.93), and the row corresponding to the starting power factor (0.8), the value of K_c (0.355) can be read. The reactive power Q_c which must be generated locally shall be:

$$
Q_c = K_c \cdot P = 0.355 \cdot 300 = 106.5 \text{ Kvar}
$$

Due to the effect of power factor correction, the current absorbed decreases from 540 A to 460 A (a reduction of approximately 15%).

Characteristics of power factor correction capacitor banks

The most economical means of increasing the power factor, especially for an installation which already exists, is installing capacitors.

Capacitors have the following advantages:

- low cost compared with synchronous compensators and electronic power converters;
- ease of installation and maintenance;
- reduced losses (less than 0.5 W/kvar in low voltage);
- the possibility of covering a wide range of powers and different load profiles, simply supplying in parallel different combinations of components, each with a relatively small power.

The disadvantages are sensitivity to overvoltages and to the presence of nonlinear loads.

The Standards applicable to power factor correction capacitors are as follows:

- IEC 60831-1 *"Shunt power capacitors of the self-healing type for a.c. systems having a rated voltage up to and including 1000 V - Part 1: General - Performance, testing and rating - Safety requirements - Guide for installation and operation";*
- IEC 60931-1 *"Shunt power capacitors of the non-self-healing type for a.c. systems having a rated voltage up to and including 1000 V - Part 1: General-Performance, testing and rating - Safety requirements - Guide for installation and operation".*

The characteristics of a capacitor, given on its nameplate, are:

- rated voltage U_r, which the capacitor must withstand indefinitely:
- rated frequency f_r (usually equal to that of the network);
- rated power Q_c, generally expressed in kvar (reactive power of the capacitor bank).

From this data it is possible to find the size characteristics of the capacitors by using the following formulae (5):

 U_r = line voltage system

In a three-phase system, to supply the same reactive power, the star connection requires a capacitor with a capacitance three times higher than the deltaconnected capacitor.

In addition, the capacitor with the star connection results to be subjected to a voltage √3 lower and flows through by a current √3 higher than a capacitor inserted and delta connected.

Capacitors are generally supplied with connected discharge resistance, calculated so as to reduce the residual voltage at the terminals to 75 V in 3 minutes, as stated in the reference Standard.

4.2 Power factor correction method

Single PFC

Single or individual power factor correction is carried out by connecting a capacitor of the correct value directly to the terminals of the device which absorbs reactive power.

Installation is simple and economical: capacitors and load can use the same overload and short-circuit protection, and are connected and disconnected simultaneously.

The adjustment of cos φ is systematic and automatic with benefit not only to the energy distribution authority, but also to the whole internal distribution system of the user.

This type of power factor correction is advisable in the case of large users with constant load and power factor and long connection times.

Individual PFC is usually applied to motors and fluorescent lamps. The capacitor units or small lighting capacitors are connected directly to loads.

Individual PFC of motors

The usual connection diagrams are shown in the following figure:

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In the case of direct connection (diagrams 1 and 2) there is a risk that after disconnection of the supply, the motor will continue to rotate (residual kinetic energy) and self-excite with the reactive energy supplied by the capacitor bank, acting as an asynchronous generator. In this case, the voltage is maintained on the load side of the switching and control device, with the risk of dangerous overvoltages of up to twice the rated voltage value.

However, in the case of diagram 3, to avoid the risk detailed above, the normal procedure is to connect the PFC bank to the motor only when it is running, and to disconnect it before the disconnection of the motor supply.

As a general rule, for a motor with power P_r , it is advisable to use a PFC with reactive power Q_c below 90% of the reactive power absorbed by the no-load motor Q_0 , at rated voltage U_r , to avoid a leading power factor.

Considering that under no-load conditions, the current absorbed I_0 [A] is solely reactive, if the voltage is expressed in volts, it results:

$$
Q_c = 0.9 \cdot Q_0 = 0.9 \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r \cdot I_0}{1000}
$$
 [kvar] (6)

The current I_0 is generally given in the documentation supplied by the manufacturer of the motor.

Table 3 shows the values of reactive power for power factor correction of some ABB motors, according to the power and the number of poles.

P_r	$\mathbf{Q}_{\rm c}$	Before PFC		After PFC	
[kW]	[kvar]	$cos \varphi_r$	I, [A]	$\cos\varphi_2$	I_2 [A]
400V / 50 Hz / 2 poles / 3000 r/min					
7.5	2.5	0.89	13.9	0.98	12.7
11	2.5	0.88	20	0.95	18.6
15	5	0.9	26.5	0.98	24.2
18.5	5	0.91	32	0.98	29.7
22	5	0.89	38.5	0.96	35.8
30	10	0.88	53	0.97	47.9
37	10	0.89	64	0.97	58.8
45	12.5	0.88	79	0.96	72.2
55	15	0.89	95	0.97	87.3
75	15	0.88	131	0.94	122.2
90	15	0.9	152	0.95	143.9
110	20	0.86	194	0.92	181.0
132	30	0.88	228	0.95	210.9
160	30	0.89	269	0.95	252.2
200	30	0.9	334	0.95	317.5
250	40	0.92	410	0.96	391.0
315	50	0.92	510	0.96	486.3

Table 3: Reactive power for power factor motor correction

400V / 50 Hz / 4 poles / 1500 r/min

400V / 50 Hz / 8 poles / 750 r/min

Example

For a three-phase asynchronous motor, 110 kW (400 V - 50 Hz - 4 poles), the PFC power suggested in the table is 30 kvar.

Individual power factor correction of three-phase transformers

A transformer is an electrical device of primary importance which, due to the system requirements, is often constantly in service.

In particular, in installations constituted by several transformer substations, it is advisable to carry out power factor correction directly at the transformer.

In general, the PFC power (Q_c) for a transformer with rated power S_r [kVA] should not exceed the reactive power required under minimum reference load conditions.

Reading the data from the transformer nameplate, the percentage value of the no-load current $i_0\%$, the percentage value of the short-circuit voltage $u_k\%$, the iron losses P_{fa} and the copper losses P_{cu} [kW], the PFC power required is approximately:

$$
Q_{c}=\sqrt{\left(\frac{i_{0}\%}{100}\cdot S_{r}\right)^{2}-P_{1e}^{-2}}+K_{L}^{-2}\cdot\sqrt{\left(\frac{u_{k}\%}{100}\cdot S_{r}\right)^{2}-P_{ou}^{-2}}\approx\left(\frac{i_{0}\%}{100}\cdot S_{r}\right)+K_{L}^{-2}\cdot\left(\frac{u_{k}\%}{100}\cdot S_{r}\right)\text{ [kvar]}~(7)
$$

where K_l is the load factor, defined as the relationship between the minimum reference load and the rated power of the transformer.

Example

Supposing the need for PFC of a 630 kVA oil-distribution transformer which supplies a load which is less than 60% of its rated power.

From the data on the transformer nameplate: i $i_0\% = 1.8\%$ $u_k\% = 4\%$ $P_{\text{cut}} = 8.9 \text{ kW}$ $P_{f_{\alpha}} = 1.2 \text{ kW}$ The PFC power of the capacitor bank connected to the transformer is:

$$
Q_c=\sqrt{\left(\frac{i_0\%}{100}\cdot S_r\right)^2-P_{1e}^2}+K_L^2\cdot\sqrt{\left(\frac{u_k\%}{100}\cdot S_r\right)^2-P_{cu}^2}=\sqrt{\left(\frac{1.8\%}{100}\cdot 630\right)^2}1.2^2+0.6^2\cdot\sqrt{\left(\frac{4\%}{100}\cdot 630\right)^2}-8.9^2=19.8\text{ kvar}
$$

while, when using the simplified formula, the result is:

$$
Q_{c} = \left(\frac{i_{0} \text{%}}{100} \cdot S_{r}\right) + K_{L}^{2} \cdot \left(\frac{u_{k} \text{%}}{100} \cdot S_{r}\right) = \left(\frac{1.8\%}{100} \cdot 630\right) + 0.6^{2} \cdot \left(\frac{4\%}{100} \cdot 630\right) = 20.4 \text{ kvar}
$$

Table 4 shows the reactive power of the capacitor bank Q_c [kvar] to be connected on the secondary side of an ABB transformer, according to the different minimum estimated load levels.

Table 4: PFC reactive power for ABB transformers

Cast Resin Distribution Transformer MV-LV

Example

For a 630 kVA oil-distribution transformer with a load factor of 0.5, the necessary PFC power is 17 kvar.

PFC in groups

This consists of local power factor correction of groups of loads with similar functioning characteristics by installing a dedicated capacitor bank. This method achieves a compromise between the economical solution and the correct operation of the installation, since only the line downstream of the installation point of the capacitor bank is not correctly exploited.

Centralized PFC

The daily load profile is of fundamental importance for the choice of the most suitable type of power factor correction.

In installations, in which not all loads function simultaneously and/or in which some loads are connected for only a few hours a day, the solution of using single PFC becomes unsuitable as many of the capacitors installed could stay idle for long periods.

In the case of installations with many loads occasionally functioning, thus having a high installed power and a quite low average power absorption by the loads which function simultaneously, the use of a single PFC system at the installation origin ensures a remarkable decrease in the total power of the capacitors to be installed.

Centralized PFC normally uses automatic units with capacitor banks divided into several steps, directly installed in the main distribution switchboards; the use of a permanently connected capacitor bank is only possible if the absorption of reactive energy is fairly regular throughout the day.

The main disadvantage of centralized PFC is that the distribution lines of the installation, downstream of the PFC device, must be dimensioned taking into account the full reactive power required by the loads.

4.3 Circuit-breakers for the protection and switching of capacitor banks

The circuit-breakers for the protection and switching of capacitor banks in LV shall:

- 1. withstand the transient currents which occur when connecting and disconnecting the banks. In particular, the instantaneous magnetic and electronic releases shall not trip due to these peak currents;
- 2. withstand the periodic or permanent overcurrents due to the voltage harmonics and to the tolerance (+15%) of the rated value of capacity;
- 3. perform a high number of no-load and on-load operations, also with high frequency;
- 4. be coordinated with any external device (contactors).

Furthermore, the making and breaking capacity of the circuit-breaker must be adequate to the short- circuit current values of the installation.

Standards IEC 60831-1 and 60931-1 state that:

- the capacitors shall normally function with an effective current value up to 130% of their rated current I_{rc} (due to the possible presence of voltage harmonics in the network);
- a tolerance of +15% on the value of the capacity is allowed.

The maximum current which can be absorbed by the capacitor bank $l_{\rm cmax}$ is:

$$
I_{\text{cmax}} = 1.3 \cdot 1.15 \cdot \frac{Q_{\text{c}}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_{\text{r}}} \approx 1.5 \cdot I_{\text{rc}} \text{ (8)}
$$

Therefore:

- the rated current of the circuit-breaker shall be greater than 1.5⋅Irc;
- the overload protection setting shall be equal to 1.5⋅Irc.

The connection of a capacitor bank, similar to a closing operation under shortcircuit conditions, associated with transient currents with high frequency (1÷15 kHz), of short duration $(1\div 3 \text{ ms})$, with high peak $(25\div 200 \text{ kg})$. Therefore:

- the circuit-breaker shall have an adequate making capacity;
- the setting of the instantaneous short-circuit protection must not cause unwanted trips.

The second condition is generally respected:

• for thermomagnetic releases, the magnetic protection shall be set at a value not less than 10⋅I_{cmax}

$$
I_3 \ge 10 \cdot I_{\text{cmax}} = 15 \cdot I_{\text{rc}} = 15 \cdot \frac{Q_r}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r} \tag{9}
$$

• for electronic releases, the instantaneous short-circuit protection shall be deactivated $(I_3 = \text{OFF})$.

Hereunder, the selection tables for circuit-breakers: for the definition of the version according to the required breaking capacity, refer to Volume 1, Chapter 3.1 "General characteristics".

The following symbols are used in the tables (they refer to maximum values):

- I_{nCR} = rated current of the protection release [A];
- $-$ I_{rc}= rated current of the connected capacitor bank [A];
- $-$ Q_C= power of the capacitor bank which can be connected [kvar] with reference to the indicated voltage and 50 Hz frequency;
- Nmech = number of mechanical operations;
- $-f_{\text{mech}} =$ frequency of mechanical operations $[op/h]$;
- $-N_{el}$ = number of electrical operations with reference to a voltage of 415 V for Tmax and Isomax moulded-case circuit breakers (Tables 5 and 6), and to a voltage of 440 V for Emax air circuit-breakers (Table 7);
- $-f_{el}$ = frequency of electrical operations $[op/h]$.

Table 5: Selection table for Tmax moulded-case circuit-breakers

*for plug-in version reduce the maximum power of the capacitor bank by 10%

Table 6: Selection table for SACE Isomax S7 moulded-case circuit-breakers

Table 7: Selection table for SACE Emax air circuit-breakers

5.1 General aspects: effects of current on human beings

Danger to persons due to contact with live parts is caused by the flow of the current through the human body. The effects are:

- **tetanization:** the muscles affected by the current flow involuntary contract and letting go of gripped conductive parts is difficult. Note: very high currents do not usually induce muscular tetanization because, when the body touches such currents, the muscular contraction is so sustained that the involuntary muscle movements generally throw the subject away from the conductive part;
- **breathing arrest:** if the current flows through the muscles controlling the lungs, the involuntary contraction of these muscles alters the normal respiratory process and the subject may die due to suffocation or suffer the consequences of traumas caused by asphyxia;
- **ventricular fibrillation:** the most dangerous effect is due to the superposition of the external currents with the physiological ones which, by generating uncontrolled contractions, induce alterations of the cardiac cycle. This anomaly may become an irreversible phenomenon since it persists even when the stimulus has ceased;
- **burns:** they are due to the heating deriving, by Joule effect, from the current passing through the human body.

The Standard IEC 60479-1 *"Effects of current on human being and livestock"* is a guide about the effects of current passing through the human body to be used for the definition of electrical safety requirements. This Standard shows, on a time-current diagram, four zones to which the physiological effects of alternating current (15 ÷100 Hz) passing through the human body have been related.

* For durations of current-flow below 10 ms, the limit for the body current for line b remains constant at a value of 200 mA.

This Standard gives also a related figure for direct current. By applying Ohm's law it is possible to define the safety curve for the allowable voltages, once the human body impedance has been calculated. The electrical impedance of the human body depends on many factors. The above mentioned Standard gives different values of impedance as a function of the touch voltage and of the current path.

The Standard IEC 60479-1 has adopted precautionary values for the impedance reported in the figure so as to get the time-voltage safety curve (Figure 2) related to the total touch voltage U_T (i.e. the voltage which, due to an insulation failure, is present between a conductive part and a point of the ground sufficiently far, with zero potential).

This represents the maximum no-load touch voltage value; thus, the most unfavorable condition is taken into consideration for safety's sake.

From this safety curve it results that for all voltage values below 50 V, the tolerance time is indefinite; at 50 V the tolerance time is 5 s. The curve shown in the figure refers to an ordinary location; in particular locations, the touch resistance of the human body towards earth changes and consequently the tolerable voltage values for an indefinite time shall be lower than 25 V.

Therefore, if the protection against indirect contact is obtained through the disconnection of the circuit, it is necessary to ensure that such breaking is carried out in compliance with the safety curve for any distribution system.

5.2 Distribution systems

The earth fault modalities and the consequences caused by contact with live parts, are strictly related to the neutral conductor arrangement and to the connections of the exposed conductive parts.

For a correct choice of the protective device, it is necessary to know which is the distribution system of the plant.

IEC 60364-1 classifies the distribution systems with two letters.

The first letter represents the relationship of the power system to earth:

- T: direct connection of one point to earth, in alternating current systems, generally the neutral point;
- I: all live parts isolated from earth, or one point, in alternating current systems, generally the neutral point, connected to earth through an impedance.

The second letter represents the relationship of the exposed conductive parts of the installation to earth:

- T: direct electrical connection of the exposed conductive parts to earth;
- N: direct electrical connection of the exposed conductive parts to the earthed point of the power system.

Subsequent letters, if any, represent the arrangement of neutral and protective conductors:

- S: protective function is provided by a conductor separate from the neutral conductor;
- C: neutral and protective functions combined as a single conductor (PEN conductor).

Three types of distribution system are considered:

TT System

TN System

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IT System

In **TT** systems, the neutral conductor and the exposed conductive parts are connected to earth electrodes electrically independent; the fault current flows towards the power supply neutral point through earth (Fig. 1):

Figure 1: Earth fault in TT systems

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In **TT** installations, the neutral conductor is connected to the supply star center, it is usually distributed and has the function of making the phase voltage (e.g. 230 V) available, useful for single-phase load supply. The exposed conductive parts, on the contrary, singularly or collectively, are locally connected to earth. **TT** systems are generally used for civil installations.

TN systems are typically used when the power supply is distributed to loads having their own electrical substation. The neutral conductor is directly earthed in the substation; the exposed conductive parts are connected to the same earthing point of the neutral conductor, and can be locally earthed.

Three types of TN system are considered according to the arrangement of neutral and protective conductors:

- 1. TN-C neutral and protective functions are combined in a single conductor (PEN conductor);
- 2. TN-S neutral and protective conductors are always separated;
- 3. TN-C-S neutral and protective functions are combined in a single conductor in a part of the system (PEN) and are separated in another part (PE $+$ N).

In **TN** systems, the fault current flows towards the power supply neutral point through a solid metallic connection, practically without involving the earth electrode (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Earth fault in TN systems

IT systems have no live parts directly connected to earth, but they can be earthed through a sufficiently high impedance. Exposed conductive parts shall be earthed individually, in groups or collectively to an independent earthing electrode.

The earth fault current flows towards the power supply neutral point through the earthing electrode and the line conductor capacitance (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Earth fault in IT systems

These distribution systems are used for particular plants, where the continuity of supply is a fundamental requirement, where the absence of the supply can cause hazards to people or considerable economical losses, or where a low value of a first earth fault is required. In these cases, an insulation monitoring device shall be provided for optical or acoustic signalling of possible earth faults, or failure of the supplied equipment.

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5.3 Protection against both direct and indirect contact

Contacts of a person with live parts can be divided in two categories:

- direct contacts;
- indirect contacts.

A direct contact occurs when a part of the human body touches a part of the plant, usually live (bare conductors, terminals, etc.).

A contact is indirect when a part of the human body touches an exposed conductive parts, usually not live, but with voltage presence due to a failure or wear of the insulating materials.

The measures of protection against **direct contact** are:

- insulation of live parts with an insulating material which can only be removed by destruction (e.g. cable insulation);
- barriers or enclosures: live parts shall be inside enclosures or behind barriers providing at least the degree of protection IPXXB or IP2X; for horizontal surfaces the degree of protection shall be of at least IPXXD or IP4X (for the meaning of the degree of protection codes please refer to Volume 1, Chapter 6.1 Electrical switchboards);
- obstacles: the interposition of an obstacle between the live parts and the operator prevents unintentional contacts only, but not an intentional contact by the removal of the obstacle without particular tools;
- placing out of reach: simultaneously accessible parts at different potentials shall not be within arm's reach.

An additional protection against direct contact can be obtained by using residual current devices with a rated operating residual current not exceeding 30 mA. It must be remembered that the use of a residual current device as a mean of protection against direct contacts does not obviate the need to apply one of the above specified measures of protection.

The measures of protection against **indirect contact** are:

- automatic disconnection of the supply: a protective device shall automatically disconnect the supply to the circuit so that the touch voltage on the exposed conductive part does not persist for a time sufficient to cause a risk of harmful physiological effect for human beings;
- supplementary insulation or reinforced insulation, e.g. by the use of Class II components;

- non-conducting locations: locations with a particular resistance value of insulating floors and walls (≥ 50 kΩ for Ur ≤ 500 V; ≥ 100 kΩ for Ur > 500 V) and without protective conductors inside
- electrical separation, e.g. by using an isolating transformer to supply the circuit;
- earth-free local equipotential bonding: locations where the exposed conductive parts are connected together but not earthed.

Finally, the following measures provide combined protection against both direct and indirect contact:

- SELV (Safety Extra Low Voltage) system and PELV (Protective Extra Low Voltage) system;
- FELV (Functional Extra Low Voltage) system.

The protection against both direct and indirect contact is ensured if the requirements stated in 411 from IEC 60364-4-41 are fulfilled; particularly:

- the rated voltage shall not exceeds 50 V ac r.m.s. and 120 V ripple-free dc;
- the supply shall be a SELV or PELV source;
- all the installation conditions provided for such types of electrical circuits shall be fulfilled.

A SELV circuit has the following characteristics:

- 1) it is supplied by an independent source or by a safety source. Independent sources are batteries or diesel-driven generators. Safety sources are supplies obtained through an isolating transformer;
- 2) there are no earthed points. The earthing of both the exposed conductive parts as well as of the live parts of a SELV circuit is forbidden;
- 3) it shall be separated from other electrical systems. The separation of a SELV system from other circuits shall be guaranteed for all the components; for this purpose, the conductors of the SELV circuit may be contained in multiconductor cables or may be provided with an additional insulating sheath.

A PELV circuit has the same prescription of a SELV system, except for the prohibition of earthed points; in fact in PELV circuits, at least one point is always earthed.

FELV circuits are used when for functional reasons the requirements for SELV or PELV circuits cannot be fulfilled; they require compliance with the following rules: a) protection against direct contact shall be provided by either:

- barriers or enclosures with degree of protection in accordance with what stated above (measures of protection against direct contact);
- insulation corresponding to the minimum test voltage specified for the primary circuit. If this test is not passed, the insulation of accessible nonconductive parts of the equipment shall be reinforced during erection so that it can withstand a test voltage of 1500 V ac r.m.s. for 1 min.;
- b) protection against indirect contact shall be provided by:
	- connection of the exposed conductive parts of the equipment of the FELV circuit to the protective conductor of the primary circuit, provided that the latter is subject to one of the measures of protection against direct contact;
	- connection of a live conductor of the FELV circuit to the protective conductor of the primary circuit provided that an automatic disconnection of the supply is applied as measure of protection;
- c) plugs of FELV systems shall not be able to enter socket-outlets of other voltage systems, and plugs of other voltage systems shall not be able to enter socket-outlets of FELV systems.

Figure 1 shows the main features of SELV, PELV and FELV systems.

Figure 1: SELV, PELV, FELV systems

Note 1: Overcurrent protective devices are not shown in this figure.

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5 Protection of human beings

5.4 TT System

An earth fault in a TT system involves the circuit represented in Figure 1:

Figure 1: Earth fault in TT system

The fault current involves the secondary winding of the transformer, the phase conductor, the fault resistance, the protective conductor and the earth electrode resistance (plant earthing system (R_A) and earthing system which the neutral is connected to (RB)).

According to IEC 60364-4 requirements, the protective devices must be coordinated with the earthing system in order to rapidly disconnect the supply, if the touch voltage reaches harmful values for the human body.

Assuming 50 V (25 V for particular locations) as limit voltage value, the condition to be fulfilled in order to limit the touch voltage on the exposed conductive parts under this limit value is:

$$
R_t \le \frac{50}{I_a} \qquad \text{or} \qquad R_t \le \frac{50}{I_{\text{an}}}
$$

where:

 R_t is the total resistance, equal to the sum of the earth electrode (R_A) and the protective conductor for the exposed conductive parts $[Ω]$;

n

∆

- I_a is the current causing the automatic operation within 5 s of the overcurrent protective device, read from the tripping curve of the device [A];
- I∆ⁿ is the rated residual operating current, within one second, of the circuit-breaker [A].

From the above, it is clear that R_t value is considerably different when using automatic circuit-breakers instead of residual current devices.

In fact, with the former, it is necessary to obtain very low earth resistance values (usually less than 1 Ω) since the 5 s tripping current is generally high, whereas, with the latter, it is possible to realize earthing systems with resistance value of thousands of ohms, which are easier to be carried out.

Table 1 reports the maximum earth resistance values which can be obtained using residual current devices, with reference to an ordinary location (50 V):

Table 1: Earth resistance values

Example:

Assuming to provide protection by using an automatic circuit-breaker Tmax T1B160 In125, the trip current value in less than 5 s, read from the tripping characteristic curve, is about 750 A, when starting from cold conditions (the worst case for thermomagnetic releases).

So:

$$
R_t \le \frac{50}{750} = 0.06 \ \Omega
$$

In order to provide the required protection, it must be necessary to carry out an earthing system with an earth resistance R_t \leq 0.06 Ω , which is not an easily obtainable value.

On the contrary, by using the same circuit-breaker mounting ABB SACE RC221 residual current release, with rated residual operating current $I_{\Delta n} = 0.03$ A, the required value of earth resistance is:

$$
R_t \le \frac{50}{0.03} = 1666.6 \,\Omega
$$

which can be easily obtained in practice.

In an electrical installation with a common earthing system and loads protected by devices with different tripping currents, for the achievement of the coordination of all the loads with the earthing system, the worst case - represented by the device with the highest tripping current - shall be considered.

As a consequence, when some feeders are protected by overcurrent devices and some others by residual current devices, all the advantages deriving from the use of residual current releases are nullified, since the R_t shall be calculated on the basis of the I_{5s} of the overcurrent device and since it is the highest tripping current between these two kind of devices.

Therefore, it is advisable to protect all the loads of a TT system by means of residual current circuit-breakers coordinated with the earthing system to obtain the advantages of both a quick disconnection of the circuit when the fault occurs as well as an earthing system which can be easily accomplished.
5.5 TN System

An earth fault in a TN system involves the circuit represented in Figure 1:

Figure 1: Earth fault in TN system

The fault loop does not affect the earthing system and is basically formed by the connection in series of the phase conductor and of the protective conductor. To provide a protection with automatic disconnection of the circuit, according to IEC 60364-4 prescriptions, the following condition shall be fulfilled:

$$
Z_{s} \cdot I_{a} \leq U_{0}
$$

where:

- Z_s is the impedance of the fault loop comprising the source, the live conductor up to the point of the fault and the protective conductor between the point of the fault and the source $[\Omega]$;
- U_0 is the nominal ac r.m.s. voltage to earth [V];
 I_a is the current causing the automatic operation
- is the current causing the automatic operation of the disconnecting protective device within the time stated in Table 1, as a function of the rated voltage U_0 or, for distribution circuits, a conventional disconnecting time not exceeding 5 s is permitted [A]; if the protection is provided by means of a residual current device, I_a is the rated residual operating current I∆n.

Table 1: Maximum disconnecting times for TN system

In TN installations, an earth fault with low impedance occurring on the LV side causes a short circuit current with quite high value, due to the low value of the impedance of the fault loop. The protection against indirect contact can be provided by automatic circuit-breakers: it is necessary to verify that the operating current within the stated times is lower than the short-circuit current.

The use of residual current devices improves the conditions for protection in particular when the fault impedance doesn't have a low value, thus limiting the short-circuit current; this current can persist for quite long time causing overheating of the conductors and fire risks.

Finally, it is important to highlight the fact that the residual current devices cannot be used in TN-C system, since the neutral and protective functions are provided by a unique conductor: this configuration prevents the residual current device from working.

Example:

In the plant represented in Figure 2, the earth fault current is:

$$
I_{\text{kLG}}=3\text{ kA}
$$

The rated voltage to earth is 230 V, therefore, according to Table 1, it shall be verified that:

$$
I_{\rm a} (0.4 \rm s) \le \frac{U_{\rm 0}}{Z_{\rm s}} = I_{\rm kLG} = 3 \rm kA
$$

Figure 2

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From the tripping curve (Figure 3), it is clear that the circuit-breaker trips in 0.4 s for a current value lower than 950 A. As a consequence, the protection against indirect contact is provided by the same circuit-breaker which protects the cable against short-circuit and overload, without the necessity of using an additional residual current device.

5.6 IT System

As represented in Figure 1, the earth fault current in an IT system flows through the line conductor capacitance to the power supply neutral point. For this reason, the first earth fault is characterized by such an extremely low current value to prevent the overcurrent protections from disconnecting; the deriving touch voltage is very low.

Figure1: Earth fault in IT system

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According to IEC 60364-4, the automatic disconnection of the circuit in case of the first earth fault is not necessary only if the following condition is fulfilled:

$$
\mathsf{R}_{\mathrm{t}}\cdot\mathsf{I}_{\mathrm{d}}\leq\mathsf{U}_{\mathrm{L}}
$$

where:

- R_t is the resistance of the earth electrode for exposed conductive parts $[\Omega]$;
- I_d is the fault current, of the first fault of negligible impedance between a phase conductor and an exposed conductive part [A];
- U_L is 50 V for ordinary locations (25 V for particular locations).

If this condition is fulfilled, after the first fault, the touch voltage value on the exposed conductive parts is lower than 50 V, tolerable by the human body for an indefinite time, as shown in the safety curve (see Chapter 5.1 "General aspects: effects of current on human beings").

In IT system installations, an insulation monitoring device shall be provided to

indicate the occurrence of a first earth fault; in the event of a second fault, the supply shall be disconnected according to the following modalities:

- a) where exposed conductive parts are earthed in groups or individually, the conditions for protection are the same as for TT systems (see Chapter 5.4 "TT system");
- b) where exposed conductive parts are interconnected by a protective conductor collectively earthed, the conditions of a TN system apply; in particular, the following conditions shall be fulfilled: if the neutral is not distributed:

$$
Z_{\rm s} \le \frac{\mathsf{U}_{\rm r}}{2\cdot\mathsf{l}_{\rm a}}
$$

if the neutral is distributed:

$$
Z'_s \leq \frac{U_0}{2 \cdot I_a}
$$

where

- \bullet U₀ is the rated voltage between phase and neutral $[M]$;
- \bullet U_r is the rated voltage between phases [V];
- Z_s is the impedance of the fault loop comprising the phase conductor and the protective conductor of the circuit [Ω];
- Z'_s is the impedance of the fault loop comprising the neutral conductor and the protective conductor of the circuit $[Ω]$;
- I_a is the operating current of the protection device in the disconnecting time specified in Table 1, or within 5 s for distribution circuits.

Table 1: Maximum disconnecting time in IT systems

IEC 60364-4 states that, if the requirements mentioned at point b) cannot be fulfilled by using an overcurrent protective device, the protection of every supplied load shall be provided by means of a residual current device.

The residual current device threshold shall be carefully chosen in order to avoid unwanted tripping, due also to the particular path followed by the first fault current through the line conductor capacitance to the power supply neutral point (instead of the faulted line, another sound line with higher capacitance could be affected by a higher fault current value).

5.7 Residual current devices (RCDs)

Generalities on residual current circuit-breakers

The operating principle of the residual current release is basically the detection of an earth fault current, by means of a toroid transformer which embraces all the live conductors, included the neutral if distributed.

Figure 1: Operating principle of the residual current device

In absence of an earth fault, the vectorial sum of the currents I∆ is equal to zero; in case of an earth fault if the I[∆] value exceeds the rated residual operating current I∆n, the circuit at the secondary side of the toroid sends a command signal to a dedicated opening coil causing the tripping of the circuit-breaker. A first classification of RCDs can be made according to the type of the fault current they can detect:

- AC type: the tripping is ensured for residual sinusoidal alternating currents, whether suddenly applied or slowly rising;
- A type: tripping is ensured for residual sinusoidal alternating currents and residual pulsating direct currents, whether suddenly applied or slowly rising;
- B type: tripping is ensured for residual direct currents, for residual sinusoidal alternating currents and residual pulsating direct currents, whether suddenly applied or slowly rising.

Another classification referred to the operating time delay is:

- undelayed type;
- time delayed S-type.

RCDs can be coupled, or not, with other devices; it is possible to distinguish among:

- pure residual current circuit-breakers (RCCBs): they have only the residual current release and can protect only against earth fault. They must be coupled with thermomagnetic circuit-breakers or fuses, for the protection against thermal and dynamical stresses;
- residual current circuit-breakers with overcurrent protection (RCBOs): they are the combination of a thermomagnetic circuit-breaker and a RCD; for this reason, they provide the protection against both overcurrents as well as earth fault current;
- residual current circuit-breakers with external toroid: they are used in industrial plants with high currents. They are composed by a release connected to an external toroid with a winding for the detection of the residual current; in case of earth fault, a signal commands the opening mechanism of a circuit-breaker or a line contactor.

Given I∆n the operating residual current, a very important parameter for residual current devices is the residual non-operating current, which represents the maximum value of the residual current which does not cause the circuit-breaker trip; it is equal to 0.5 I_{An} . Therefore, it is possible to conclude that:

- for I∆ < 0.5⋅I∆n the RCD shall not operate;
- for $0.5 \cdot I_{\Delta n} < I_{\Delta n}$ the RCD could operate;
- $\frac{1}{2}$ for $I_A > I_{\Delta D}$ the RCD shall operate.

For the choice of the rated operating residual current, it is necessary to consider, in addition to the coordination with the earthing system, also the whole of the leakage currents in the plant; their vectorial sums on each phase shall not be greater than 0.5⋅I∆n. in order to avoid unwanted tripping.

Discrimination between RCDs

The Standard IEC 60364-5-53 states that discrimination between residual current protective devices installed in series may be required for service reasons, particularly when safety is involved, to provide continuity of supply to the parts of the installation not involved by the fault, if any. This discrimination can be achieved by selecting and installing RCDs in order to provide the disconnection from the supply by the RCD closest to the fault.

There are two types of discrimination between RCDs:

- horizontal discrimination: it provides the protection of each line by using a dedicated residual current circuit-breaker; in this way, in case of earth fault, only the faulted line is disconnected, since the other RCDs do not detect any fault current. However, it is necessary to provide protective measures against indirect contacts in the part of the switchboard and of the plant upstream the RCD;
- vertical discrimination: it is realized by using RCDs connected in series.

Figure 2: Horizontal discrimination between RCDs

Figure 3: Vertical discrimination between RCDs

According to IEC 60364-5-53, to ensure discrimination between two residual current protective devices in series, these devices shall satisfy both the following conditions:

- the non-actuating time-current characteristic of the residual current protective device located on the supply side (upstream) shall lie above the total operating time-current characteristic of the residual current protective device located on the load side (downstream);
- the rated residual operating current on the device located on the supply side shall be higher than that of the residual current protective device located on the load side.

The non-actuating time-current characteristic is the curve reporting the maximum time value during which a residual current greater than the residual non-operating current (equal to 0.5 \cdot I_{An}) involves the residual current circuitbreaker without causing the tripping.

As a conclusion, discrimination between two RCDs connected in series can be achieved:

- for S type residual current circuit-breakers, located on the supply side, (complying with IEC 61008-1 and IEC 61009), time-delayed type, by choosing general type circuit-breakers located downstream with I∆n equal to one third of I∆n of the upstream ones;
- for electronic residual current releases (RC221/222/223, RCQ) by choosing the upstream device with time and current thresholds directly greater than the downstream device, keeping carefully into consideration the tolerances (see Vol. 1, Chapter 2.3: Type of release).

For the protection against indirect contacts in distribution circuits in TT system, the maximum disconnecting time at I_{^p} shall not exceed 1 s (IEC 60364-4-41,§ 413.1)

5.8 Maximum protected length for the protection of human beings

As described in the previous chapters, the Standards give indications about the maximum disconnecting time for the protective devices, in order to avoid pathophysiological effects for people touching live parts.

For the protection against indirect contact, it shall be verified that the circuitbreaker trips within a time lower than the maximum time stated by the Standard; this verification is carried out by comparing the minimum short-circuit current of the exposed conductive part to be protected with the operating current corresponding to the time stated by the Standard.

The minimum short-circuit current occurs when there is a short-circuit between the phase and the protective conductors at the farthest point on the protected conductor.

For the calculation of the minimum short-circuit current, an approximate method can be used, assuming that:

- a 50 % increasing of the conductors resistance, with respect to the 20 °C value, is accepted, due to the overheating caused by the short-circuit current;
- a 80 % reduction of the supply voltage is considered as effect of the short-circuit current;
- the conductor reactance is considered only for cross sections larger than 95 mm2.

The formula below is obtained by applying Ohm's law between the protective device and the fault point.

Legend of the symbols and constants of the formula:

- 0.8 is the coefficient representing the reduction of the voltage;
- 1.5 is the coefficient representing the increasing in the resistance;
- $-$ U_r is the rated voltage between phases;
- U₀ is the rated voltage between phase and ground:
- S is the phase conductor cross section;
- S_N is the neutral conductor cross section;
- $-$ S_{PF} is the protection conductor cross section;
- ρ is the conductor resistivity at 20 °C;
- L is the length of the cable;
- $m = \frac{S \cdot n}{S_{PE}}$ is the ratio between the total phase conductor cross section

(single phase conductor cross section S multiplied by n, number of conductors in parallel) and the protective conductor cross section S_{PF} assuming they are made of the same conductor material;

- $m_1 = \frac{S_N}{S_{PE}}$ $m_1 = \frac{S_{N} \cdot n}{S_{\rho_F}}$ is the ratio between the total neutral conductor cross section

(single neutral conductor cross section S_N multiplied by n, number of conductors in parallel) and the protective conductor cross section S_{PE} assuming they are made of the same conductor material;

 $-k₁$ is the correction factor which takes into account the reactance of cables with cross section larger than 95 mm2, obtainable from the following table:

 $-k₂$ is the correction factor for conductors in parallel, obtainable by the following formula:

$$
k_2 = 4\frac{n-1}{n}
$$

where n is the number of conductor in parallel per phase;

- 1.2 is the magnetic threshold tolerance allowed by the Standard.

TN system

The formula for the evaluation of the minimum short circuit current is:

$$
I_{kmin} = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_0 \cdot S}{1.5 \cdot 1.2 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m) \cdot L} \cdot k_1 \cdot k_2
$$

and consequently:

$$
L = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_0 \cdot S}{1.5 \cdot 1.2 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m) \cdot I_{kmin}} \cdot k_1 \cdot k_2
$$

IT system

The formulas below are valid when a second fault turns the IT system into a TN system.

It is necessary to separately examine installations with neutral not distributed and neutral distributed.

Neutral not distributed

When a second fault occurs, the formula becomes:

$$
I_{kmin} = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_r \cdot S}{2 \cdot 1.5 \cdot 1.2 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m) \cdot L} \cdot k_1 \cdot k_2
$$

and consequently:

$$
L = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_r \cdot S}{2 \cdot 1.5 \cdot 1.2 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m) \cdot I_{kmin}} \cdot k_1 \cdot k_2
$$

Neutral distributed

Case A: three-phase circuits in IT system with neutral distributed The formula is:

$$
I_{kmin} = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_0 \cdot S}{2 \cdot 1.5 \cdot 1.2 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m) \cdot L} \cdot k_1 \cdot k_2
$$

and consequently:

$$
L = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_0 \cdot S}{2 \cdot 1.5 \cdot 1.2 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m) \cdot I_{kmin}} \cdot k_1 \cdot k_2
$$

Case B: three-phase + neutral circuits in IT system with neutral distributed

The formula is:

$$
I_{kmin} = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_0 \cdot S_N}{2 \cdot 1.5 \cdot 1.2 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m_1) \cdot L} \cdot k_1 \cdot k_2
$$

and consequently:

$$
L = \frac{0.8 \cdot U_0 \cdot S_N}{2 \cdot 1.5 \cdot 1.2 \cdot \rho \cdot (1 + m_1) \cdot I_{kmin}} \cdot k_1 \cdot k_2
$$

Note for the use of the tables

The tables showing the maximum protected length (MPL) have been defined considering the following conditions:

- one cable per phase;
- rated voltage equal to 400 V (three-phase system);
- copper cables;
- neutral not distributed, for IT system only;
- protective conductor cross section according to Table 1:

Table 1: Protective conductor cross section

Note: phase and protective conductors having the same isolation and conductive materials

Whenever the S function (delayed short-circuit) of electronic releases is used for the definition of the maximum protected length, it is necessary to verify that the tripping time is lower than the time value reported in Chapter 5.5 Table 1 for TN systems and in Chapter 5.6 Table 1 for IT systems.

For conditions different from the reference ones, the following correction factors shall be applied.

Correction factors

Correction factor for cable in parallel per phase: the value of the maximum protected length read in Table 2 (TN system) or Table 3 (IT system) shall be multiplied by the following factor:

n is the number of conductors in parallel per phase.

Correction factor for three-phase voltage different from 400 V: the value of the maximum protected length read in Table 2 (TN system) or Table 3 (IT system) shall be multiplied by the following factor:

For 230 V single-phase systems, no correction factor is necessary.

Correction factor for aluminium cables: the value of the maximum protected length read in Table 2 (TN system) or Table 3 (IT system) shall be multiplied by the following factor:

Correction factor for protective conductor cross section S_{PF} different **from the cross sections stated in Table 1:** the value of the maximum protected length shall be multiplied by the coefficient corresponding to the phase conductor cross section and to the ratio between the protective conductor (PE) and the phase cross sections:

Correction factor for neutral distributed in IT systems (for Table 3 only): the value of the maximum protected length shall be multiplied by 0.58.

Table 2.2: Curve B

Table 2.3: Curve C

TN system MPL

Table 2.5: Curve D

CURVE		D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	D
In		≤2	3	4	6	8	10	13	16	20	25	32	40	50	63	80	100
13		40	60	80	120	160	200	260	320	400	500	640		800 1000 1260 1600 2000			
s	S_{PE}																
1.5	15	130	86	65	43	32	26	20	16	13	10	8	6				
2.5	25	216	144	108	72	54	43	33	27	22	17	14	11	9	7		
4	4	346	231	173	115	86	69	53	43	35	28	22	17	14	11	9	7
6	6	519	346	259	173	130	104	80	65	52	42	32	26	21	16	13	10
10	10	865	577	432	288	216	173	133	108	86	69	54	43	35	27	22	17
16	16.	1384	923	692	461	346	277	213	173	138	111	86	69	55	44	35	28
25	16		1688 1125	844	563	422	338	260	211	169	135	105	84	68	54	42	34
35	16															47	38

TN system MPL

by MCCB Table 2.6: TmaxT1 TMD

		T1	Τ1	Τ1	Τ1	Τ1	Τ1	Τ1
	In	≤50	≤50	63	80	100	125	160
	l3	500 A	630 A	10 In				
s	S_{PE}							
1.5	1.5	6						
2.5	2.5	10						
$\overline{4}$	$\overline{4}$	15	12	12	10	8	6	
6	6	23	18	18	14	12	9	7
10	10	38	31	31	24	19	15	12
16	16	62	49	49	38	31	25	19
25	16	75	60	60	47	38	30	23
35	16	84	67	67	53	42	34	26
50	25	128	102	102	80	64	51	40
70	35	179	142	142	112	90	72	56
95	50	252	200	200	157	126	101	79

Table 2.7: Tmax T2 TMD

Table 2.9: Tmax T4 TMD/TMA

TN system MPL

by MCCB Table 2.10: Tmax T5-T6 TMA

Table 2.11: Tmax T2 with PR221 DS-LS

Note: if the setting of function I is different from the reference value (5.5), the value of the MPL shall be multiplied by the ratio between the reference value and the set value.

Note: if the setting of function I is different from the reference value (6.5), the value of the MPL shall be multiplied by the ratio between the reference value and the set value.

Table 2.13: SACE Isomax S7 with PR211- PR212

Note: if the setting of function S or I is different from the reference value (6), the MPL value shall be multiplied by the ratio between the reference value and the set value. Besides, using function S the MPL shall be multiplied by 1.1.

Table 3.2: Curve B

Table 3.3: Curve C

Table 3.5: Curve D

Table 3.7: Tmax T2 TMD

Table 3.9: Tmax T4 TMD/TMA

IT system MPL

IT system MPL by MCCB

Table 3.10: Tmax T5-T6 TMA

Table 3.11: Tmax T2 with PR221 DS-LS

Note: if the setting of function I is different from the reference value (5.5), the MPL value shall be multiplied by the ratio between the reference value and the set value.

Table 3.12: Tmax T4-T5-T6 with PR221 - PR222 - PR223 Tmax T7 with PR231-PR232-PR331-PR332 IT system MPL by MCCB

Note: if the setting of function I is different from the reference value (6.5), the value of the MPL shall be multiplied by the ratio between the reference value and the set value.

IT system MPL by MCCB

Table 3.13: SACE Isomax S7 with PR211-212

Note: if the setting of function S or I is different from the reference value (6), the MPL value shall be multiplied by the ratio between the reference value and the set value. Besides, using function S, the MPL shall be multiplied by 1.1.

6.1 General aspects

A short-circuit is a fault of negligible impedance between live conductors having a difference in potential under normal operating conditions.

6.2 Fault typologies

In a three-phase circuit the following types of fault may occur:

- three-phase fault;
- two-phase fault;
- phase to neutral fault;
- phase to PE fault.

In the formulas, the following symbols are used:

- \bullet I_k short-circuit current;
- U_r rated voltage;
- Z_l phase conductor impedance;
- \bullet Z_N neutral conductor impedance;
- \bullet Z_{PF} protective conductor impedance.

The following table briefly shows the type of fault and the relationships between the value of the short-circuit current for a symmetrical fault (three phase) and the short-circuit current for asymmetrical faults (two phase and single phase) in case of faults far from generators.

Three-phase fault

Two-phase fault

3 Z L

$$
V_{kLPE} = \frac{V_{R} - V_{PE}}{\sqrt{3(Z_L + Z_{PE})}}
$$

If Z_L = Z_{PE} (cross section of protective conductor equal
to the phase conductor one):

$$
V_{kLPE} = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3(Z_L + Z_{PE})}} = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3(2Z_L)}} = 0.5I_{kLL}
$$

If Z_{PE} = 2Z_L (cross section of protective conductor
half to the phase conductor one):

$$
V_{kLPE} = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3(Z_L + Z_{PE})}} = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3(3Z_L)}} = 0.33I_{kLL}
$$

r

r

 U_r

U

If
$$
Z_{PE} = 0
$$
 limit condition:
\n
$$
I_{kLPE} = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3}(Z_L + Z_{PE})} = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3}(Z_L)} = I_{kLLL}
$$

The following table allows the approximate value of a short-circuit current to be found quickly.

6.3 Determination of the short-circuit current: "short-circuit power method"

The short-circuit current can be determined by using the "short-circuit power method". This method allows the determination of the approximate short-circuit current at a point in an installation in a simple way; the resultant value is generally acceptable. However, this method is not conservative and gives more accurate values, the more similar the power factors of the considered components are (network, generators, transformers, motors and large section cables etc.). The "short-circuit power method" calculates the short-circuit current I_k based on the formula:

Three-phase short-circuit

$$
I_k = \frac{S_k}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r}
$$

Two-phase short-circuit

$$
I_k = \frac{S_k}{2 \cdot U_r}
$$

where:

- \bullet S_k is the short-circuit apparent power seen at the point of the fault:
- U_r is the rated voltage.

To determine the short-circuit apparent power S_k , all the elements of the network shall be taken into account, which may be:

- elements which contribute to the short-circuit current: network, generators, motors;
- elements which limit the value of the short-circuit current: conductors and transformers.

The procedure for the calculation of the short-circuit current involves the following steps:

- 1. calculation of the short-circuit power for the different elements of the installation;
- 2. calculation of the short-circuit power at the fault point;
- 3. calculation of the short-circuit current.

6.3.1 Calculation of the short-circuit power for the different elements of the installation

The short-circuit apparent power S_k shall be determined for all the components which are part of the installation:

Network

An electrical network is considered to include everything upstream of the point of energy supply.

Generally, the energy distribution authority supplies the short-circuit apparent power (Sknet) value at the point of energy supply. However, if the value of the short-circuit current $I_{k_{net}}$ is known, the value of the power can be obtained by using, for three-phase systems, the following formula:

$$
S_{knet} = \sqrt{3}U_r I_{knet}
$$

where U_r is the rated voltage at the point of energy supply.

If the aforementioned data are not available, the values for $S_{k_{net}}$ given in the following table can be taken as reference values:

Generator

The short-circuit power is obtained from:

$$
S_{kgen}=\frac{S_r\cdot 100}{X^*_{d\%}}
$$

where $\mathsf{X}^*_{\mathsf{d}}$ is the percentage value of the subtransient reactance $(\mathsf{X}_{\mathsf{d}})$ or of the transient reactance (X_d) or of the synchronous reactance (X_d) , according to the instant in which the value of the short-circuit power is to be evaluated. In general, the reactances are expressed in percentages of the rated impedance of the generator (Z_d) given by:

$$
Z_{d} = \frac{U_{r}^{2}}{S_{r}}
$$

where U_r and S_r are the rated voltage and power of the generator. Typical values can be:

- X_d " from 10 % to 20 %;

 $- X_d$ ' from 15 % to 40 %;

 $- X_d$ from 80 % to 300 %.

Normally, the worst case is considered, that being the subtransient reactance. The following table gives the approximate values of the short-circuit power of generators $(X_d^{\prime\prime} = 12.5 \%)$:

Asynchronous three-phase motors

Under short-circuit conditions, electric motors contribute to the fault for a brief period (5-6 periods).

The power can be calculated according to the short-circuit current of the motor (I_k) , by using the following expression:

$$
S_{\text{kmot}} = \sqrt{3} \cdot U_r \cdot I_k
$$

Typical values are:

 $S_{kmot} = 5 ÷ 7 S_{rmot}$

 $(I_k$ is about 5÷7 I_{rmot} : 5 for motors of small size, and 7 for larger motors).

Transformers

The short-circuit power of a transformer $(S_{\kappa trafo})$ can be calculated by using the following formula:

$$
S_{\text{ktrato}} = \frac{100}{u_k\%} \cdot S_r
$$

The following table gives the approximate values of the short-circuit power of transformers:

Cables

A good approximation of the short-circuit power of cables is:

$$
S_{\text{kcalle}} = \frac{U_r^2}{Z_c}
$$

where the impedance of the cable (Z_c) is:

$$
I_{kLLL} = \frac{Ur}{\sqrt{3} z_L}
$$

where

$$
Z_L = \sqrt{R_L^2 + X_L^2}
$$

The following table gives the approximate values of the short-circuit power of cables, at 50 and 60 Hz, according to the supply voltage (cable length = 10 m):

With *n* cables in parallel, it is necessary to multiply the value given in the table by *n*. If the length of the cable (L_{act}) is other than 10 m, it is necessary to multiply the value given in the table by the following coefficient:

Lact 10

6.3.2 Calculation of the short-circuit power at the fault point

The rule for the determination of the short-circuit power at a point in the installation, according to the short-circuit power of the various elements of the circuit, is analogue to that relevant to the calculation of the equivalent admittance. In particular:

• the power of elements in series is equal to the inverse of the sum of the inverses of the single powers (as for the parallel of impedances);

$$
S_k = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} S_i}
$$

• the short-circuit power of elements in parallel is equal to the sum of the single short-circuit powers (as for the series of impedances).

$$
S_k = \sum S_i
$$

The elements of the circuit are considered to be in series or parallel, seeing the circuit from the fault point.

In the case of different branches in parallel, the distribution of the current between the different branches shall be calculated once the short-circuit current at the fault point has been calculated. This must be done to ensure the correct choice of protection devices installed in the branches.

6.3.3 Calculation of the short-circuit current

To determine the short-circuit current in an installation, both the fault point as well as the configuration of the system which maximize the short-circuit current involving the device shall be considered. If appropriate, the contribution of the motors shall be taken into account.

For example, in the case detailed below, for circuit-breaker CB1, the worst condition occurs when the fault is right upstream of the circuit-breaker itself. To determine the breaking capacity of the circuit-breaker, the contribution of two transformers in parallel must be considered.

Fault right downstream of CB1

SDC010051F0001 1SDC010051F0001

1SDC010050F0001

SDC010050F0001

Once the short-circuit power equivalent at the fault point has been determined, the short-circuit current can be calculated by using the following formula:

Three-phase short-circuit

$$
I_k = \frac{S_k}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r}
$$

Two-phase short-circuit

$$
I_k = \frac{S_k}{2 \cdot U_r}
$$

As a first approximation, by using the following graph, it is possible to evaluate the three-phase short-circuit current downstream of an object with short-circuit power (S_{kF}) known; corresponding to this value, knowing the short-circuit power upstream of the object $(S_{kl|P})$, the value of I_k can be read on the y-axis, expressed in kA, at 400 V.

Figure 1: Chart for the calculation of the three-phase short-circuit current at 400 V

ISDC010052F0001 1SDC010052F0001

6.3.4 Examples

The following examples demonstrate the calculation of the short-circuit current in some different types of installation.

Example 1

Calculation of the short-circuit power of different elements

Network: S_{knet}= 500 MVA

 $S_{\text{ktrato}} = \frac{100}{U_k \, \%} \cdot S_r = 26.7 \, \text{MVA}$ Transformer:

 $S_{\text{mot}} = \frac{P_r}{\eta \cdot \cos \varphi_r} = 267 \text{ kVA}$ Motor:

 $S_{kmot} = 6.6·S_{rmot} = 1.76$ MVA for the first 5-6 periods (at 50 Hz about 100 ms)

Calculation of the short-circuit current for the selection of circuit-breakers

Selection of CB1

For circuit-breaker CB1, the worst condition arises when the fault occurs right downstream of the circuit-breaker itself. In the case of a fault right upstream, the circuit-breaker would be involved only by the fault current flowing from the motor, which is remarkably smaller than the network contribution.

The circuit, seen from the fault point, is represented by the series of the network with the transformer. According to the previous rules, the short-circuit power is determined by using the following formula:

$$
S_{kCB1} = \frac{S_{knet} \cdot S_{ktrato}}{S_{knet} + S_{ktrato}} = 25.35 \text{ MVA}
$$

the maximum fault current is:

$$
I_{kCB1} = \frac{S_{kCB1}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r} = 36.6 \text{ kA}
$$

The transformer LV side rated current is equal to 2309 A; therefore the circuitbreaker to select is an Emax E3N 2500.

Using the chart shown in Figure 1, it is possible to find I_{kCB1} from the curve with $S_{kl} = S_{knet} = 500$ MVA corresponding to $S_{kEL} = S_{ktrato} = 26.7$ MVA:

Selection of CB2

For circuit-breaker CB2, the worst condition arises when the fault occurs right downstream of the circuit-breaker itself. The circuit, seen from the fault point, is represented by the series of the network with the transformer. The short-circuit current is the same used for CB1.

$$
I_{kCB1} = \frac{S_{kCB1}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r} = 36.6 \text{ kA}
$$

The rated current of the motor is equal to 385 A; the circuit-breaker to select is a Tmax T5H 400.

Selection of CB3

For CB3 too, the worst condition arises when the fault occurs right downstream of the circuit-breaker itself.

The circuit, seen from the fault point, is represented by two branches in parallel: the motor and the series of the network and transformer. According to the previous rules, the short-circuit power is determined by using the following formula:

Motor // (Network + Transformer)

$$
S_{kCB3} = S_{kmot} + \frac{1}{\frac{1}{S_{kret}} + \frac{1}{S_{ktrato}}} = 27.11 \text{MVA}
$$

$$
I_{kCB3} = \frac{S_{kCB3}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r} = 39.13 \text{ kA}
$$

The rated current of the load L is equal to 1443 A; the circuit-breaker to select is a Tmax T7S1600 or an Emax X1B1600.

Example 2

The circuit shown in the diagram is constituted by the supply, two transformers in parallel and three loads.

CB1 Upstream network: U_{r1}=20000 V $S_{knet} = 500 MVA$ Transformers 1 and 2: $S_r = 1600$ kVA $u_k\% = 6\%$ U_{1r} / U_{2r} =20000/400 Load L1: $S_r = 1500$ kVA; $cos\varphi = 0.9$; Load L2: $S_r = 1000$ kVA; $cos\varphi = 0.9$; Load L3: $S_r = 50$ kVA; $cos\varphi = 0.9$.

Calculation of the short-circuit powers of different elements:

Network

$$
S_{\text{knet}} = 500 \text{ MVA}
$$

Transformers 1 and 2

$$
S_{\text{ktrafo}} = \frac{S_r}{u_k \, \%} \cdot 100 = 26.7 \, \text{MVA}
$$

Selection of CB1 (CB2)

For circuit-breaker CB1 (CB2) the worst condition arises when the fault occurs right downstream of the circuit-breaker itself. According to the previous rules, the circuit seen from the fault point, is equivalent to the parallel of the two transformers in series with the network: Network + (Trafo 1 // Trafo 2).

The short-circuit current obtained in this way corresponds to the short-circuit current at the busbar. This current, given the symmetry of the circuit, is distributed equally between the two branches (half each). The current which flows through CB1 (CB2) is therefore equal to half of that at the busbar.

$$
S_{kbusbar} = \frac{S_{knet} \cdot (S_{rtrafo1} + S_{ktrafo2})}{S_{knet} + (S_{ktrafo1} + S_{ktrafo2})} = 48.2 \text{ MVA}
$$

$$
I_{kbusbar} = \frac{S_{kbusbar}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot U_r} = 69.56 \text{ kA}
$$

$$
I_{kCB1(2)} = \frac{I_{kbusbar}}{2} = 34.78 \text{ kA}
$$

The circuit-breakers CB1(CB2) to select, with reference to the rated current of the transformers, are Emax E3N 2500.

Selection of CB3-CB4-CB5

For these circuit-breakers the worst condition arises when the fault occurs right downstream of the circuit-breakers themselves. Therefore, the short-circuit current to be taken into account is that at the busbar:

$I_{kCR3} = I_{kbest} = 69.56 kA$

The circuit-breakers to select, with reference to the current of the loads, are: CB3: Emax E3S 2500 CB4: Emax E2S 1600 CB5: Tmax T2H 160

6.4 Determination of the short-circuit current I_k downstream of a cable as a **function of the upstream one**

The table below allows the determination, in a conservative way, of the threephase short-circuit current at a point in a 400 V network downstream of a single pole copper cable at a temperature of 20 °C. Known values:

- the three-phase short-circuit current upstream of the cable;
- the length and cross section of the cable.

Cable

6.4 Determination of the short-circuit current I_k downstream of a cable as a function of the upstream one

6 Calculation of short-circuit current

Note:

- \bullet In the case of the I_k upstream and the length of the cable not being included in the table, it is necessary to consider:
- the value right above I_k upstream;
- the value right below for the cable length.

These approximations allow calculations which favour safety.

• In the case of cables in parallel not present in the table, the length must be divided by the number of cables in parallel.

Example

Data

Rated voltage = 400 V Cable section $= 120$ mm² Conductor = copper Length $= 29$ m

Upstream shortcircuit current = 32 kA

Procedure

In the row corresponding to the cable cross section 120 mm2, it is possible to find the column for a length equal to 29 m or right below (in this case 24). In the column of upstream short-circuit current it is possible to identify the row with a value of 32 kA or right above (in this case 35). From the intersection of this last row with the previously identified column, the value of the downstream shortcircuit current can be read as being equal to 26 kA.

6.5 Algebra of sequences

6.5.1 General aspects

It is possible to study a symmetrical, balanced three-phase network in quite a simple way by reducing the three-phase network to a single-phase one having the same value of rated voltage as the three-phase system line-to-line voltage. Asymmetric networks cannot be reduced to the study of a single-phase network just because of this unbalance. In this case, being impossible any simplification, it is necessary to proceed according to the analysis methods typical for the solution of electrical systems.

The modelling technique allowing the calculation of an asymmetric and unbalanced network by converting it to a set of three balanced networks that each can be represented by a single-phase equivalent circuit easily solvable is the method of symmetrical components.

This method derives from mathematical considerations according to which any set of three phasors¹ can be divided into three sets of phasors with the following characteristics:

- a balanced set, called *positive sequence*, formed by three phasors of equal magnitude shifted by 120° and having the same phase sequence as the original system
- a balanced set, called *negative sequence*, formed by three phasors of equal magnitude shifted by 120° and having inverse phase sequence to that of the original system
- a *zero sequence* set formed by three phasors of equal magnitude in phase.

1 The phasor is a vectorial representation of magnitude which varies in time. A signal of type $v(t)=\sqrt{2}\cdot V\cdot\cos(\omega\cdot t+\varphi)$ is represented by the phasor $\bar{v}=V\cdot e^{j\varphi}$

6.5.2 Positive, negative and zero sequence systems

The following relationships* represent the link between the quantities of the three-phase balanced network and the positive, negative and zero sequence systems:

* In the formulas, the subscripts relevant to positive-sequence, negative-sequence and zero-sequence components are indicated by "d", "i" and "0" respectively.

The complex constant $\alpha = -\frac{1}{2} + j\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ is a versor which, multiplied by a vector,

rotates the vector by 120° in a positive direction (counterclockwise).

The complex constant $\alpha^2 = -\frac{1}{2} - j\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ operates a -120° rotation.

Some useful properties of this set of three vectors are:

$$
1 + \alpha + \alpha^2 = 0
$$

\n
$$
|\alpha^2 - \alpha| = \sqrt{3}
$$

\nFigure 2
\n
$$
\alpha^2
$$

Therefore, it is possible to state that a real three-phase network may be replaced by three single-phase networks related to the three positive, negative and zero sequences, by substituting each component with the corresponding equivalent circuit. If generators can be considered symmetrical as it occurs in plant practice, by considering as a positive sequence set the one they generate, the three single-phase networks are defined by the following circuits and equations:

1

- E_d is the line-to-neutral voltage (E_d = $\frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3}}$) of the section upstream the fault
- Z is the system impedance upstream the fault location
- I is the fault current
- V is the voltage measured at the fault location.

6.5.3 Calculation of short-circuit current with the algebra of sequences

Without going into the details of a theoretical treatment, it is possible to show the procedure to semplify and resolve the electrical network under a preestabilished fault condition thruogh an example.

Isolated line-to line fault

The diagram showing this fault typology and the link between currents and voltages, may be represented as follows:

Figure 4

By using the given fault conditions and the formula 1), it follows that:

$$
V_{d} = V_{i}
$$

\n
$$
I_{d} = -I_{i}
$$

\n
$$
I_{o} = 0 \text{ therefore } V_{o} = 0
$$
\n(4)

These relationships applied to the three sequence circuits of Figure 3 allow the definition of the sequence network equivalent to the three-phase network under study and representing the initial fault condition. This network may be represented as follows:

Figure 5

By solving this simple network (constituted by series-connected elements) in relation to the current I_{d} , the following is obtained:

$$
\overline{I_d} = \frac{\overline{E_d}}{\overline{Z_d} + \overline{Z_i}} \tag{5}
$$

By using formulas 2) referred to the current, and formulas 4), it follows that:

$$
\overline{I_2} = (\alpha^2 - \alpha) \cdot \overline{I_d} \qquad \qquad \overline{I_3} = (\alpha - \alpha^2) \cdot \overline{I_d}
$$

Since $|(\alpha^2 - \alpha)|$ results to be equal to $\sqrt{3}$, the value of the line-to-line short-circuit current in the two phases affected by the fault can be expressed as follows:

$$
\left|\overline{I_2}\right| = \left|\overline{I_3}\right| = \left|\overline{I_{k2}}\right| = \sqrt{3} \cdot \left|\frac{\overline{E_d}}{\overline{Z_d} + \overline{Z_i}}\right|
$$

Using formulas 2) referred to the voltage, and formulas 4) previously found, the following is obtained:

$$
\overline{V}_1 = 2 \cdot \overline{V}_i
$$
\n6) for the phase not affected by the fault
\n
$$
\overline{V}_2 = \overline{V}_3 = (\alpha^2 + \alpha) \cdot \overline{V}_d = -\overline{V}_d
$$
\n6) for the phases affected by the fault

Through the negative sequence circuit, relation 6) can be written as $\overline{V}_1 = -2 \cdot \overline{Z}_i \cdot \overline{I}_i$.

Further to the above, and since $\overline{I}_d = -\overline{I}_i$, the phase not affected by the fault shall be:

$$
\overline{V}_1 = \frac{2 \cdot \overline{Z}_i}{\overline{Z}_d + \overline{Z}_i} \cdot \overline{E}_d
$$

For the phases affected by the fault, being $\overline{V}_d = \overline{V}_i = \frac{V_1}{2}$, it results:

$$
\overline{V}_2 = \overline{V}_3 = -\frac{\overline{V}_1}{2} = \frac{\overline{Z}_i \cdot \overline{E}_d}{\overline{Z}_d + \overline{Z}_i}
$$

Making reference to the previous example, it is possible to analyse all fault typologies and to express the fault currents and voltages as a function of the impedances of the sequence components.

A summary is given in Table 1 below:

6.5.4 Positive, negative and zero sequence short-circuit impedances of electrical equipment

Each component of an electrical network (utility – transformer – generator – cable) may be represented by a positive, negative and zero sequence impedance value.

Utility

By utility it is meant the distribution supply network (usually MV) from which the plant is fed. It is characterized by positive and negative sequence elements, whereas the zero sequence impedance is not taken into consideration since the delta-connected windings of the primary circuit of the transformer impede the zero sequence current. As regards the existing impedances, it can be written:

$$
Z_{d} = Z_{i} = Z_{NET} \frac{U_{r}}{\sqrt{3} \cdot I_{k3}}
$$

Transformer

It is characterized by positive and negative sequence elements; besides, as a function of the connection of the windings and of the distribution system on the LV side, the zero sequence component may be present too. Thus, it is possible to say that:

> = $Z_{d} = Z_{i} = Z_{T} = \frac{uk\%}{100} \cdot \frac{U_{r}^{2}}{S_{r}}$ S, uk %

whereas the zero sequence component can be expressed as:

 $Z = Z_T$ when the flow of zero sequence currents in the two windings is possible $Z = ∞$ when the flow of zero sequence currents in the two windings is impossible

Cable

It is characterized by positive, negative and zero sequence elements which vary as a function of the return path of the short-circuit current.

As regards the positive and negative sequence components, it is possible to say that:

 $Z_d = Z_i = Z_c = R_c + i X_c$

To evaluate the zero sequence impedance, it is necessary to know the return path of the current:

Return through the neutral wire (phase-to-neutral fault) $Z_0 = Z_C + j3 \cdot Z_{nC} = (R_C + 3 \cdot R_{nC}) + j (X_C + 3 \cdot X_{nC})$

 $Z_{o} = Z_{C} + j3 \cdot Z_{PEC} = (R_{C} + 3 \cdot R_{PEC}) + j (X_{C} + 3 \cdot X_{PEC})$ Return through PE (phase-to-PE conductor fault in TN-S system)

where: $Z_0 = Z_{\text{FC}} + j3 \cdot Z_{\text{FC}} = (R_C + 3 \cdot R_{\text{FC}}) + j (X_C + 3 \cdot X_{\text{FC}})$ Return through ground (phase-to-ground fault in TT system)

- \bullet Z_C, R_C and X_C refer to the line conductor
- \bullet Z_{nC}, R_{nC} and X_{nC} refer to the neutral conductor
- \bullet Z_{PFC} , R_{PFC} and X_{PFC} refer to the protection conductor PE
- \bullet Z_{FC} , R_{FC} and X_{FC} refer to the ground.

Synchronous generators

Generally speaking, positive, negative and zero sequence reactances of synchronous generators (and also of rotating machines) have different values. For the positive sequence, only the sub transient reactance X_{d}^{n} is used, since, in this case, the calculation of the fault current gives the highest value.

The negative sequence reactance is very variable, ranging between the values of X_{d} and X_{q} . In the initial instants of the short-circuit, X_{d} and X_{q} do not differ very much and therefore we may consider $\mathsf{X}_{\mathsf{i}}\!=\mathsf{X}_{\mathsf{d}}^{*}$. On the contrary if $\mathsf{X}_{\mathsf{d}}^{*}$ and $\mathsf{X}_{\mathsf{q}}^{*}$ are remarkably different, it is possible to use a value equal to the average value of the two reactances; it follows that:

$$
X_i = \frac{X_d^* + X_q^*}{2} \cdot
$$

The zero sequence reactance is very variable too and results to be lower than the other two above mentioned reactances. For this reactance, a value equal to 0.1 to 0.7 times the negative or positive sequence reactances may be assumed and can be calculated as follows:

$$
X_o = \frac{x_o\%}{100} \cdot \frac{U_r^2}{S_r}
$$

where x_0 % is a typical parameter of the machine. Besides, the zero sequence component results to be influenced also by the grounding modality of the generator through the introduction of the parameters R_G and X_G , which represent, respectively, the grounding resistance and the reactance of the generator. If the star point of the generator is inaccessible or anyway non-earthed, the grounding impedance is ∞.

To summarize, the following expressions are to be considered for the sequence impedances:

$$
Z_{d} = (R_{a} + j \cdot X_{d}^{T})
$$

\n
$$
Z_{i} = (R_{a} + j \cdot X_{d}^{T})
$$

\n
$$
Z_{o} = R_{a} + 3 \cdot R_{G} + j \cdot (X_{o} + 3 \cdot X_{G})
$$

where R_a is the stator resistance defined as $R_a = \frac{X_d^2}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot f \cdot T_a}$, with T_a as stator

time constant.

Loads

If the load is passive, the impedance shall be considered as infinite.

If the load is not passive, as it could be for an asynchronous motor, it is possible to consider the machine represented by the impedance Z_M for the positive and negative sequence, whereas for the zero sequence the value Z_{OM} must be given by the manufacturer. Besides, if the motors are not earthed, the zero sequence impedance shall be ∞.

Therefore:

$$
Z_{d} = Z_{i} = Z_{M} = (R_{M} + j \cdot X_{M})
$$

with Z_M equal to

$$
Z_{M} = \frac{U_r^2}{\frac{I_{LR}}{I_r}} \cdot \frac{1}{S_r}
$$

where:

 I_{LR} is the current value when the rotor is blocked by the motor

I. is the rated current of the motor

 $S_r = \frac{P_r}{(\eta \cdot \cos \varphi_r)}$ is the rated apparent power of the motor

The ratio $\frac{\mathsf{R}_{\mathsf{M}}}{\mathsf{X}_{\mathsf{M}}}$ is often known; for LV motors, this ratio can be considered equal

to 0.42 with $X_M = \frac{Z_M}{\sqrt{Z_M}}$ $\frac{Z_M}{1+\left(\frac{R_M}{X_M}\right)^2}$, from which X_M =0.922. Z_M can be determined.

6.5.5 Formulas for the calculation of the fault currents as a function of the electrical parameters of the plant

Through Table 1 and through the formulas given for the sequence impedances expressed as a function of the electrical parameters of the plant components. it is possible to calculate the different short-circuit currents.

In the following example, a network with a MV/LV transformer with delta primary winding and secondary winding with grounded star point is taken into consideration and a line-to-line fault is assumed downstream the cable distribution line.

Applying the algebra of sequences:

$$
I_{k2} = \frac{\sqrt{3} \cdot E_d}{(Z_d + Z_i)}
$$

the impedances relevant to the positive and negative sequences under examination are:

$$
Z_d = Z_i = Z_{NET} + Z_T + Z_L
$$

considering that $E_d = \frac{U_r}{\sqrt{3}}$, the following is obtained:

$$
I_{k2} = \frac{\sqrt{3} \cdot E_d}{(Z_d + Z_i)} = \frac{U_r}{2 \cdot (Z_{NET} + Z_T + Z_L)}
$$

where:

 U_r is the rated voltage on the LV side

 Z_T is the impedance of the transformer

 Z_L is the impedance of the phase conductor

 Z_{NET} is the impedance of the upstream network

By making reference to the previous example, it is possible to obtain Table 2 below, which gives the expressions for the short-circuit currents according to the different typologies of fault.

Where:

 U_r is the rated voltage on the LV side

 Z_r is the impedance of the transformer

 Z_l is the impedance of the phase conductor

 Z_{NET} is the impedance of the upstream network

 Z_{PE} is the impedance of the protection conductor (PE)

 Z_N is the impedance of the neutral conductor

Table 3 below summarizes the relations for the fault currents, taking into account the upstream defined or infinite power network values and the distance of the fault from the transformer.

Table 3

6.6 Calculation of the peak value of the short-circuit current

The electrodynamical effects of the short-circuit currents are particularly dangerous for the bus ducts, but they can also damage cables.

The peak current is important also to evaluate the I_{cm} value of the circuitbreaker.

The I_{cm} value is also bound to the I_{cu} value, according to Table 16 of the Standard IEC 60947-1. With reference to the short-circuit current of the plant, it shall be $I_{cm} > I_{kn}$.

The peak current of a plant may be calculated by the following formula (see Std. IEC 60909-0):

$$
I_{kp} = I_k^{\dagger} \cdot \sqrt{2} \cdot \left(1.02 + 0.98 \cdot e^{-\frac{3 \cdot R}{X}} \right)
$$

where:

- $-$ I" $_k$ is the short-circuit current (rms value) at the initial instant of the shortcircuit
- R is the resistive component of the short-circuit impedance at the fault location
- X is the reactive component of the short-circuit current at the fault location

When the power factor $cos\varphi_k$ is known, it is possible to write:

$$
I_{kp} = I_k^{\circ} \cdot \sqrt{2} \cdot \left(1.02 + 0.98 \cdot e^{-\frac{3}{\tan \phi_k}} \right)
$$

6.7 Considerations about UPS (Uninterruptible Power Supplies) contribution to short-circuit currents

In the following considerations particular attention is given to a double-conversion or UPS on-line, belonging to the category VFI (Voltage and Frequency Independent), for which the output voltage is independent of the mains voltage variations and frequency variations are controlled by this device within the standard limits prescribed by the Standards; this system is characterised by the following operating modalities:

- under normal operating conditions, in the presence of the network voltage, the load is fed by the network itself through the UPS;
- under emergency conditions (lack of network), power to the load is supplied by the battery and by the inverter ("island supply" with UPS disconnected from the mains);
- in case of temporary overcurrent required by the load (e.g. motor start-up), power supply to the load is guaranteed by the network through the static switch which excludes the UPS;
- in case of maintenance, for example due to a fault on the UPS, the load is fed by the network through a manual bypass switch, by temporarily giving up the availability of emergency power supply.

As regards the dimensioning of the protections on the supply side of the UPS, it is necessary to know the characteristics of the network voltage and of the short-circuit current; for the dimensioning of the protections on the load side, it is necessary to know the current values let through by the UPS.

If power supply of the loads is provided directly from the network through manual bypass, also the circuit-breaker on the load side must have a breaking capacity (Icu) suitable for the short-circuit current of the supply-side network.

Furthermore, if required, an evaluation of the protection co-ordination in relation to the operating conditions is necessary.

However, in order to choose the suitable protections, it is important to distinguish between two operating conditions for UPS:

1) UPS under normal operating conditions

a)Overload condition:

- if due to a possible fault on the battery, this condition affects only the circuitbreaker on the supply-side of the UPS (also likely the intervention of the protections inside the battery);
- if required by the load, this condition might not be supported by the UPS, which is bypassed by the static converter.

b)Short-circuit condition:

The short-circuit current is limited by the dimensioning of the thyristors of the bridge inverter. In the practice, UPS may supply a maximum short-circuit current equal to 150 to 200% of the rated value. In the event of a shortcircuit, the inverter supplies the maximum current for a limited time (some hundreds of milliseconds) and then switches to the network, so that power to the load is supplied by the bypass circuit.

In this case, selectivity between the circuit-breaker on the supply side and the circuit-breaker on the load side is important in order to disconnect only the load affected by the fault.

The bypass circuit, which is also called static switch, and is formed by thyristors protected by extrarapid fuses, can feed the load with a higher current than the inverter; this current results to be limited by the dimensioning of the thyristors used, by the power installed and by the provided protections.

The thyristors of the bypass circuit are usually dimensioned to withstand the following overload conditions:

125% for 600 seconds
150% for 60 seconds

- 150% for 60 seconds
700% for 600 millised
- for 600 milliseconds
- 1000% for 100 milliseconds

Generally, more detailed data can be obtained from the technical information given by the manufacturer.

2) UPS under emergency operating conditions

a)Overload condition:

this condition, involving the load-side circuit-breaker only, is supported by the battery with inverter, which presents an overload condition usually calculable in the following orders of magnitude:

1.15 x In for indefinite time

1.25 x In for 600 seconds

1.5 x In for 60 seconds

2 x In for 1 seconds

Generally, more detailed data can be obtained from the technical information given by the manufacturer.

b)Short-circuit condition:

the maximum current towards the load is limited by the inverter circuit only (with a value from 150 to 200% of the nominal value). The inverter feeds the short-circuit for a certain period of time, usually limited to some milliseconds, after which the UPS unit disconnects the load leaving it without supply. In this operating modality, it is necessary to obtain selectivity between the circuitbreaker on the load side and the inverter, which is quite difficult due to the reduced tripping times of the protection device of the inverter.

UPS on-line with static switch

UPS off-line: loads directly fed by the network

A.1 Slide rules

These slide rules represent a valid instrument for a quick and approximate dimensioning of electrical plants.

All the given information is connected to some general reference conditions: the calculation methods and the data reported are gathered from the IEC Standards in force and from plant engineering practice. The instruction manual enclosed with the slide rules offers different examples and tables showing the correction coefficients necessary to extend the general reference conditions to those actually required.

These two-sided slide rules are available in four different colors, easily identified by subject:

- yellow slide rule: cable sizing;
- orange slide rule: cable verification and protection;
- green slide rule: protection coordination;
- blue slide rule: motor and transformer protection.

Yellow slide rule: cable sizing

Side **O**

Definition of the current carrying capacity, impedance and voltage drop of cables.

Side ••

Calculation of the short-circuit current for three-phase fault on the load side of a cable line with known cross section and length.

In addition, a diagram for the calculation of the short-circuit current on the load side of elements with known impedance.

Orange slide rule: cable verification and protection

Side •

Verification of cable protection against indirect contact and short-circuit with ABB SACE MCCBs (moulded-case circuit-breakers).

Side **o**

Verification of cable protection against indirect contact and short-circuit with ABB MCBs (modular circuit-breakers).

Green slide rule: protection coordination

Side •

Selection of the circuit-breakers when back-up protection is provided.

Side **a**

Definition of the limit selectivity current for the combination of two circuit-breakers in series.

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Blue slide rule: motor and transformer protection

Side **o**

Selection and coordination of the protection devices for the motor starter, DOL start-up (type 2 coordination in compliance with the Standard IEC 60947-4-1).

Side ••

Sizing of a transformer feeder.

In addition, a diagram for the calculation of the short-circuit current on the load side of transformers with known rated power.

A.2 DOCWin

DOCWin is a software for the dimensioning of electrical networks, with low or medium voltage supply.

Networks can be completely calculated through simple operations starting from the definition of the single-line diagram and thanks to the drawing functions provided by an integrated CAD software.

Drawing and definition of networks

Creation of the single-line diagram, with no limits to the network complexity. Meshed networks can also be managed.

- The diagram can be divided into many pages.
- The program controls the coherence of drawings in real time.
- It is possible to enter and modify the data of the objects which form the network by using a table.
- It is possible to define different network configurations by specifying the status (open/closed) of the operating and protective devices.

Supplies

• There are no pre-defined limits: the software manages MV and LV power supplies and generators, MV/LV and LV/LV transformers, with two or three windings, with or without voltage regulator, according to the requirements.

Network calculation

- Load Flow calculation using the Newton-Raphson method. The software can manage networks with multiple slacks and unbalances due to single- or twophase loads. Magnitude and phase shift of the node voltage and of the branch current are completely defined for each point of the network, for both MV as well as LV.
- Calculation of the active and reactive power required by each single power source.

- Management of local (motors) and centralized power factor correction with capacitor banks.
- Management of the demand factor for each single node of the network and of the utilization factor on the loads.
- Short-circuit current calculation for three-phase, phase-to-phase, phase-toneutral, phase-to-ground faults. The calculation is also carried out for MV sections, in compliance with the Standards IEC 60909-1, IEC 61363-1 (naval installations) or with the method of symmetric components, taking into account also the time-variance contribution of rotary machines (generators and motors).
- Calculation of switchboard overtemperature in compliance with Standard IEC 60890. The power dissipated by the single apparatus is automatically derived by the data files of the software, and can be considered as a function of the rated current or of the load current.

Cable line sizing

- Cable line sizing according to thermal criteria in compliance with the following Standards: CEI 64-8 (tables CEI UNEL 35024-35026), IEC 60364, VDE 298- 4, NFC 15-100, IEC 60092 (naval installations) and IEC 60890.
- Possibility of setting, as additional calculation criterion, the economic criteria stated in the Standard IEC 60827-3-2.
- Possibility of setting, as additional calculation criterion, the maximum allowed voltage drop.
- Automatic sizing of busbar trunking system.
- Sizing and check on the dynamic withstand of busbars in compliance with the Standard IEC 60865.

Curves and verifications

- Representation of:
- time / current curves (I-t),
- current / let-through energy curves (I-I2t),
- current limiting curves (peak): visual check of the effects of the settings on the trip characteristics of protection devices.

- Representation of the curves of circuit-breakers, cables, transformers, motors and generators.
- Possibility of entering the curve of the utility and of the MV components point by point, to verify the tripping discrimination of protection devices.
- Verification of the maximum voltage drop at each load.
- Verification of the protection devices, with control over the setting parameters of the adjustable releases (both thermomagnetic as well as electronic).

Selection of operating and protection devices

- Automatic selection of protection devices (circuit-breakers and fuses)
- Automatic selection of operating devices (contactors and switch disconnectors)
- Discrimination and back-up managed as selection criteria, with discrimination level adjustable for each circuit-breaker combination.

• Discrimination and back-up verification also through quick access to coordination tables.

• Motor coordination management through quick access to ABB tables.

Printouts

- Single-line diagram, curves and reports of the single components of the network can be printed by any printer supported by the hardware configuration.
- All information can be exported in the most common formats of data exchange.
- All print modes can be customized.

Annex B: Calculation of load current I_b

Generic loads

The formula for the calculation of the load current of a generic load is:

$$
I_b = \frac{P}{k \cdot U_r \cdot cos\varphi}
$$

where:

- P is the active power [W];
- k is a coefficient which has the value:
	- 1 for single-phase systems or for direct current systems;
- $\sqrt{3}$ for three-phase systems;
- \bullet U_r is the rated voltage [V] (for three-phase systems it is the line voltage, for single-phase systems it is the phase voltage);
- cos φ is the power factor.

Table 1 allows the load current to be determined for some power values according to the rated voltage. The table has been calculated considering cosφ to be equal to 0.9; for different power factors, the value from Table 1 must be multiplied by the coefficient given in Table 2 corresponding to the actual value of the power factor ($cos\varphi_{\text{act}}$).

Table 1: Load current for three-phase systems with $cos\varphi = 0.9$

Annex B: Calculation of load current I

Table 2: Correction factors for load current with cosϕ **other than 0.9**

For cos φ_{act} values not present in the table, $k_{\text{cos}\varphi} = \frac{0.9}{2.25}$

 $k_{cos\varphi} = \frac{0.9}{cos\ \varphi_{act}}$

Table 3 allows the load current to be determined for some power values according to the rated voltage. The table has been calculated considering coso to be equal to 1; for different power factors, the value from Table 3 must be multiplied by the coefficient given in Table 4 corresponding to the actual value of the power factor ($cos\varphi$ _{act}).

Table 3: Load current for single-phase systems with $cos_Φ = 1$ or dc **systems**

Annex B: Calculation of load current I_b

Table 4: Correction factors for load current with cosϕ **other than 1**

For cos φ_{act} values not present in the table, $\mathbf{k}_{\text{cos}\varphi} = \frac{1}{\text{cos}\varphi_{\text{act}}}$

$$
\overline{}\cos\phi_{\rm act}
$$

Lighting circuits

The current absorbed by the lighting system may be deduced from the lighting equipment catalogue, or approximately calculated using the following formula:

> $b = \frac{L_1 L_1 R_B N_N}{U_L \cos \varphi}$ $I_b = \frac{P_1 n_1 k_B k_1}{11.288}$

where:

- \bullet P_L is the power of the lamp [W];
- \bullet n₁ is the number of lamps per phase;
- \bullet k_B is a coefficient which has the value:
	- 1 for lamps which do not need any auxiliary starter;
	- 1.25 for lamps which need auxiliary starters;
- \bullet k_N is a coefficient which has the value:
	- 1 for star-connected lamps;
	- $\sqrt{3}$ for delta-connected lamps;
- \bullet U_{rl} is the rated voltage of the lamps;
- cos ω is the power factor of the lamps which has the value:
	- 0.4 for lamps without compensation;
	- 0.9 for lamps with compensation.

Annex B: Calculation of load current I_b Motors

Table 5 gives the approximate values of the load current for some three-phase squirrel-cage motors, 1500 rpm at 50 Hz, according to the rated voltage. Note: these values are given for information only, and may vary according to the motor manifacturer and depending on the number of poles

Motor power Rated current of the motor at: Table 5: Motor load current

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What are they?

The harmonics allow to represent any periodic waveform; in fact, according to Fourier's theorem, any periodic function of a period T may be represented as a summation of:

- a sinusoid with the same period T;
- some sinusoids with the same frequency as whole multiples of the fundamental;
- a possible continuous component, if the function has an average value not null in the period.

The harmonic with frequency corresponding to the period of the original waveform is called fundamental and the harmonic with frequency equal to "n" times that of the fundamental is called harmonic component of order "n".

A perfectly sinusoidal waveform complying with Fourier's theorem does not present harmonic components of order different from the fundamental one. Therefore, it is understandable how there are no harmonics in an electrical system when the waveforms of current and voltage are sinusoidal. On the contrary, the presence of harmonics in an electrical system is an index of the distortion of the voltage or current waveform and this implies such a distribution of the electric power that malfunctioning of equipment and protective devices can be caused.

To summarize: the harmonics are nothing less than the components of a distorted waveform and their use allows us to analyse any periodic nonsinusoidal waveform through different sinusoidal waveform components.

Figure 1 below shows a graphical representation of this concept.

Caption:

nonsinusoidal waveform

- first harmonic (fundamental)
- third harmonic
- fifth harmonic

How harmonics are generated?

Harmonics are generated by nonlinear loads. When we apply a sinusoidal voltage to a load of this type, we shall obtain a current with non-sinusoidal waveform. The diagram of Figure 2 illustrates an example of nonsinusoidal current waveform due to a nonlinear load:

As already said, this nonsinusoidal waveform can be deconstructed into harmonics. If the network impedances are very low, the voltage distortion resulting from a harmonic current is low too and rarely it is above the pollution level already present in the network. As a consequence, the voltage can remain practically sinusoidal also in the presence of current harmonics.

To function properly, many electronic devices need a definite current waveform and thus they have to 'cut' the sinusoidal waveform so as to change its rms value or to get a direct current from an alternate value; in these cases the current on the line has a nonsinusoidal curve.

The main equipment generating harmonics are:

- personal computer
- fluorescent lamps
- static converters
- continuity groups
- variable speed drives
- welders

In general, waveform distortion is due to the presence, inside of these equipment, of bridge rectifiers, whose semiconductor devices carry the current only for a fraction of the whole period, thus originating discontinuous curves with the consequent introduction of numerous harmonics.

Also transformers can be cause of harmonic pollution; in fact, by applying a perfectly sinusoidal voltage to a transformer, it results into a sinusoidal magnetizing flux, but, due to the phenomenon of the magnetic saturation of iron, the magnetizing current shall not be sinusoidal. Figure 3 shows a graphic representation of this phenomenon:

The resultant waveform of the magnetizing current contains numerous harmonics, the greatest of which is the third one. However, it should be noted that the magnetizing current is generally a little percentage of the rated current of the transformer and the distortion effect becomes more and more negligible the most loaded the transformer results to be.

Effects

The main problems caused by harmonic currents are:

- 1) overloading of neutrals
- 2) increase of losses in the transformers
- 3) increase of skin effect

The main effects of the harmonics voltages are:

- 4) voltage distortion
- 5) disturbances in the torque of induction motors

1) Overloading of neutrals

In a three phase symmetric and balanced system with neutral, the waveforms between the phases are shifted by a 120° phase angle so that, when the phases are equally loaded, the current in the neutral is zero. The presence of unbalanced loads (phase-to-phase, phase-to-neutral etc.) allows the flowing of an unbalanced current in the neutral.

Figure 4 shows an unbalanced system of currents (phase 3 with a load 30% higher than the other two phases), and the current resultant in the neutral is highlighted in red. Under these circumstances, the Standards allow the neutral conductor to be dimensioned with a cross section smaller than the phase conductors. In the presence of distortion loads it is necessary to evaluate correctly the effects of harmonics.

In fact, although the currents at fundamental frequency in the three phases cancel each other out, the components of the third harmonic, having a period equal to a third of the fundamental, that is equal to the phase shift between the phases (see Figure 5), are reciprocally in phase and consequently they sum in the neutral conductor adding themselves to the normal unbalance currents. The same is true also for the harmonics multiple of three (even and odd, although

actually the odd ones are more common).
Figure 5

Phase 1: fundamental harmonic and 3rd harmonic

Phase 2: fundamental harmonic and 3rd harmonic

Phase 3: fundamental harmonic and 3rd harmonic

Resultant of the currents of the three phases

2) Increase of losses in the transformers

The effects of harmonics inside the transformers involve mainly three aspects:

- a) increase of iron losses (or no-load losses)
- b) increase of copper losses
- c) presence of harmonics circulating in the windings
- a) The iron losses are due to the hysteresis phenomenon and to the losses caused by eddy currents; the losses due to hysteresis are proportional to the frequency, whereas the losses due to eddy currents depend on the square of the frequency.
- b) The copper losses correspond to the power dissipated by Joule effect in the transformer windings. As the frequency rises (starting from 350 Hz) the current tends to thicken on the surface of the conductors (skin effect); under these circumstances, the conductors offer a smaller cross section to the current flow, since the losses by Joule effect increase.

These two first aspects affect the overheating which sometimes causes a derating of the transformer.

c) The third aspect is relevant to the effects of the triple-N harmonics (homopolar harmonics) on the transformer windings. In case of delta windings, the harmonics flow through the windings and do not propagate upstream towards the network since they are all in phase; the delta windings therefore represent a barrier for triple-N harmonics, but it is necessary to pay particular attention to this type of harmonic components for a correct dimensioning of the transformer.

3) Increase of skin effect

When the frequency rises, the current tends to flow on the outer surface of a conductor. This phenomenon is known as skin effect and is more pronounced at high frequencies. At 50 Hz power supply frequency, skin effect is negligible, but above 350 Hz, which corresponds to the 7th harmonic, the cross section for the current flow reduces, thus increasing the resistance and causing additional losses and heating.

In the presence of high-order harmonics, it is necessary to take skin effect into account, because it affects the life of cables. In order to overcome this problem, it is possible to use multiple conductor cables or busbar systems formed by more elementary isolated conductors.

4) Voltage distortion

The distorted load current drawn by the nonlinear load causes a distorted voltage drop in the cable impedance. The resultant distorted voltage waveform is applied to all other loads connected to the same circuit, causing harmonic currents to flow in them, even if they are linear loads.

The solution consists in separating the circuits which supply harmonic generating loads from those supplying loads sensitive to harmonics.

5) Disturbances in the torque of induction motors

Harmonic voltage distortion causes increased eddy current losses in the motors, in the same way as seen for transformers. The additional losses are due to the generation of harmonic fields in the stator, each of which is trying to rotate the motor at a different speed, both forwards (1st, 4th, 7th, ...) as well as backwards (2nd, 5th, 8th, ...). High frequency currents induced in the rotor further increase losses.

Main formulas

The definitions of the main quantities typically used in a harmonic analysis are given hereunder.

Frequency spectrum

The frequency spectrum is the classic representation of the harmonic content of a waveform and consists of a histogram reporting the value of each harmonic as a percentage of the fundamental component. For example, for the following waveform:

the frequency spectrum is:

The frequency spectrum provides the size of the existing harmonic components.

Peak factor

The peak factor is defined as the ratio between the peak value and the rms value of the waveform:

$$
k = \frac{I_p}{I_{rms}}
$$

in case of perfectly sinusoidal waveforms, it is worth $\sqrt{2}$, but in the presence of harmonics it can reach higher values.

High peak factors may cause the unwanted tripping of the protection devices.

Rms value

The rms value of a periodical waveform e(t) is defined as:

$$
E_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T e^2(t) dt}
$$

where T is the period.

If the rms values of the harmonic components are known, the total rms value can be easily calculated by the following formula:

$$
E_{\rm rms} = \sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n^2}
$$

Total harmonic distortion THD

The total harmonic distortion is defined as:

$$
THD_i = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} I_n^2}}{I_1}
$$
THD in current

$$
THD_u = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} U_n^2}}{U_1}
$$
 THD in voltage

The harmonic distortion ratio is a very important parameter, which gives information about the harmonic content of the voltage and current waveforms and about the necessary measures to be taken should these values be high. For THD $_{\rm i}$ < 10% and THD $_{\rm u}$ < 5%, the harmonic content is considered negligible and such as not to require any provisions.

Standard references for circuit-breakers

IEC 60947 Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear

Annex F of the Standard IEC 60947-2 (third edition 2003) gives information about the tests to check the immunity of the overcurrent releases against harmonics.

In particular, it describes the waveform of the test current, at which, in correspondence with determinate values of injected current, the release shall have a behaviour complying with the prescriptions of this Standard.

Hereunder, the characteristics of the waveform of the test current are reported, which shall be formed, in alternative, as follows:

1) by the fundamental component and by a 3rd harmonic variable between 72% and 88% of the fundamental, with peak factor equal to 2 or by a 5th harmonic variable between 45% and 55% of the fundamental, with peak factor equal to 1.9

or

2) by the fundamental component and by a 3rd harmonic higher than 60% of the fundamental, by a 5th harmonic higher than 14% of the fundamental and by a 7th harmonic higher than 7% of the fundamental. This test current shall have a peak factor > 2.1 and shall flow for a given time $< 42\%$ of the period for each half period.

By using the formula (1), it is possible to determine the conductor minimum section S, in the hypothesis that the generic conductor is submitted to an adiabatic heating from a known initial temperature up to a specific final temperature (applicable if the fault is removed in less than 5 s):

$$
S = \frac{\sqrt{I^2t}}{k} \quad (1)
$$

where:

- S is the cross section [mm2];
- I is the value (r.m.s) of prospective fault current for a fault of negligible impedance, which can flow through the protective device [A];
- t is the operating time of the protective device for automatic disconnection [s];
- k can be evaluated using the tables 2÷7 or calculated according to the formula (2):

$$
k = \sqrt{\frac{Q_c (B+20)}{\rho_{20}} \ln \left(1 + \frac{\theta_i - \theta_i}{B + \theta_i}\right)}
$$
 (2)

where:

- Q_c is the volumetric heat capacity of conductor material $[J/^{\circ}Cmm^{3}]$ at 20 $^{\circ}C$;
- B is the reciprocal of temperature coefficient of resistivity at 0 °C for the conductor [°C];
- $ρ_{20}$ is the electrical resistivity of conductor material at 20 °C [Ωmm];
- θ_i initial temperature of conductor [°C];
- \bullet θ final temperature of conductor $\lceil \degree \text{Cl} \rceil$.

Table 1 shows the values of the parameters described above.

Material	в r°Cì	Q_c [J/°Cmm ^{3]}	ρ_{20} [Qmm]	/Q。 (B+20) Q_{20}
Copper	234.5	$3.45 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$17.241 \cdot 10^{-6}$	226
Aluminium	228	$2.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$	28.264-10-6	148
ead.	230	$1.45 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$214.10 - 6$	41
Steel	202	$3.8 - 10 - 3$	$138.10 - 6$	78

Table 1: Value of parameters for different materials

Table 2: Values of *k* **for phase conductor**

^a This value shall be used for bare cables exposed to touch.

Table 3: Values of *k* **for insulated protective conductors not incorporated in cables and not bunched with other cables**

^a The lower value applies to PVC insulated conductors of cross section greater than 300 mm2 .

b Temperature limits for various types of insulation are given in IEC 60724.

Table 4: Values of *k* **for bare protective conductors in contact with cable covering but not bunched with other cables**

^a Temperature limits for various types of insulation are given in IEC 60724.

Table 5: Values of *k* **for protective conductors as a core incorporated in a cable or bunched with other cables or insulated conductors**

^a The lower value applies to PVC insulated conductors of cross section greater than 300 mm2 .

b Temperature limits for various types of insulation are given in IEC 60724.

Table 6: Values of *k* **for protective conductors as a metallic layer of a cable e.g. armour, metallic sheath, concentric conductor, etc.**

^a This value shall also be used for bare conductors exposed to touch or in contact with combustible material.

Table 7: Value of *k* **for bare conductors where there is no risk of damage to any neighbouring material by the temperature indicated**

The International System of Units (SI)

SI Base Units

Metric Prefixes for Multiples and Sub-multiples of Units

Main quantities and SI units

Main electrical and magnetic quantities and SI units

Resistivity values, conductivity and temperature coefficient at 20 °**C of the main electrical materials**

Main electrotechnical formulas Impedance

–

Impedances in series

Delta-star and star-delta transformations

Transformers

Two-winding transformer

Three-winding transformer

Voltage drop and power

Caption

- ρ_{20} resistivity at 20 °C
 ℓ total length of con
- ℓ total length of conductor
S cross section of conductor
-
- α_{20} temperature coefficient of conductor at 20 °C
 θ temperature of conductor
- temperature of conductor
- ρθ resistivity against the conductor temperature
- ω angular frequency
f frequency
- frequency
- r resistance of conductor per length unit
- x reactance of conductor per length unit
- u_{k} % short-circuit percentage voltage of the transformer
- S rated apparent power of the transformer
- U_r rated voltage of the transformer
- p_{k} % percentage impedance losses of the transformer under short-circuit conditions

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Due to possible developments of standards as well as of materials, the characteristics and dimensions specified in this document may only be considered binding after

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