

Optimized Fault Detector Based Pattern Recognition Technique to Classify and Localize Electrical Faults in Modern Distribution Systems

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ABSTRACT

This research presents a method that integrates artificial neural networks (ANN) and discrete wavelet transform (DWT) to identify and classify faults in large power networks, as well as to pinpoint the zones where these faults occur. The objective is to enhance reliability and safety by accurately detecting and categorizing electrical faults. To manage the computational demands of processing the extensive and complex data from the power system, the network is divided into optimal zones, each made visible for fault detection. Niche Binary particle swarm optimization (NBPSO) is employed to place the fault detectors (FD) in each zone. This allows for precise measurement of fault voltage and current phasors without significant cost. The ANN module is tasked with identifying the fault area and locating the exact fault within that zone, as well as classifying the specific type of fault. Discrete Wavelet Transform is used for feature extraction, and a phase locked loop (PLL) is used for load angle computation. The proposed method's validity has been tested on the IEEE-33 bus distribution network.

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1. Introduction

In modern power distribution systems, the prompt and accurate detection and localization of electrical faults are critical for maintaining system reliability and safety. Electrical faults, which can be caused by various factors such as equipment failures, weather conditions, or operational errors,

pose significant challenges. They can lead to power outages, equipment damage, and safety hazards [1]-[4]. Therefore, developing advanced techniques for fault detection and classification is essential for efficient power system management. Traditional fault detection methods often struggle with the complexities and scale of modern power networks. They may involve significant computational overhead and may not provide the desired accuracy or speed in identifying and localizing faults. To address these challenges, this research proposes an innovative approach that leverages artificial neural networks (ANN) and discrete wavelet transform (DWT) to improve the detection, classification, and localization of faults in power distribution systems [5]-[7].

Transmission lines are vital components of electrical power systems, connecting generation centers to load centers. An electrical fault, a malfunction in wiring or appliances, can lead to power outages, damaged electronics, and even pose safety risks to humans, birds, and animals. Rapid detection and isolation of such faults are crucial to minimizing disruption [8]-[11]. Several methods for fault detection and localization in transmission lines have been explored and reviewed in various studies. Traditional methods often involve mathematical and predictive models enabled by advancements in computing technology. For instance, an ANN-based defect detector has been proposed for fault classification, though it did not address fault location accurately. Hybrid strategies combining techniques like support vector machine (SVM), genetic algorithm (GA), and DWT-extreme learning machine (DWT-ELM) have also been surveyed and compared [12]-[15]. In one study, a case using ANN to detect faults in a protective zone reported an accuracy of 78.82%. Researchers have also employed mathematical modeling and optimization techniques, such as teaching learning based optimization (TLBO) and harmony search (HS), to locate faults in a two-end transmission line model. Moreover, nonlinear loads injecting harmonics into the system can distort voltage and current waveforms, necessitating techniques to identify harmonic current sources for reliable power delivery [16]-[18]. Innovative methods, such as using ANN with directed relay systems for smart grid protection, have been proposed. These systems employ either a centralized controller receiving data from all protection devices or a zone controller facilitating communication between peer protection devices along the line. This approach eliminates the need to reconfigure protection settings when grid layouts change [19]. Another study utilized MATLAB to test a 14-bus system, using ANN trained with back-propagation to detect and classify faults, achieving a mean square error (MSE) within acceptable ranges and high precision. Various techniques, including the hubbard-stanovich (HS) transform and radial basis function-ANN (RBFANN), have been mentioned for FD and localization [20]. Time Frequency Analysis plays a key role in feature extraction, calculating standard deviations and energy changes over configurable windows. RBFANNs classify faults using energy delta and standard deviation as inputs. Additionally, a combination of DWT and back propagation-ANN (BPANN) has been developed to locate faults in underground supply networks, utilizing high-frequency fault signal components for precise detection [21]-[23].

For fault distance estimation, decision tree regression (DTR) has been employed due to its resilience and faster training compared to other techniques like ANNs and SVMs. This method uses fault data to estimate fault location, showing robustness against various fault conditions and system characteristics. Digital relaying with fast discrete orthogonal S-transform (FDOST) and SVMs has been used to accurately locate faults under different conditions, even with noisy signals [24], [25]. SVM have also been utilized for fault detection and classification, requiring a database of detail coefficients from DWT-decomposed current and voltage signals for model training. The resulting models can effectively identify and classify faults along transmission lines. Additionally, methodologies involving phasor measurement units (PMUs) and Clark components have been developed to enhance fault detection and localization indices, reducing system noise and measurement errors [26]-[28]. In power systems, devices like STATCOM are essential for maintaining voltage stability and power quality. Techniques involving DWT analyze signals to detect faults, particularly in relation to STATCOM's role in reactive power control. Collecting and processing data from multiple points in the system helps identify fault conditions accurately, ensuring reliable power transmission [29]-[35].

The proposed method divides the power network into optimal zones to manage the extensive data efficiently. Within each zone, a fault detector (FD) utilizing niche binary particle swarm optimization (NBPSO) is employed. This approach allows for precise measurement of fault-related parameters, such as voltage and current phasors, while minimizing costs. The ANN module plays a crucial role in identifying the fault area and pinpointing the exact fault location within that area. Additionally, the ANN is capable of classifying the specific type of fault, providing valuable information for swift corrective actions. For feature extraction, DWT is applied, which effectively captures the transient characteristics of faults. Furthermore, a phase locked loop (PLL) is used for load angle computation, enhancing the accuracy of the fault detection process. The proposed method has been validated using the IEEE-33 bus distribution network is presented in Fig. 1, demonstrating its effectiveness and reliability in real-world scenarios. This paper outlines the methodology, implementation, and validation of this advanced fault detection technique. The following sections will discuss the literature review, methodology, experimental setup, results, and conclusions, providing a comprehensive overview of the research and its implications for power distribution systems.

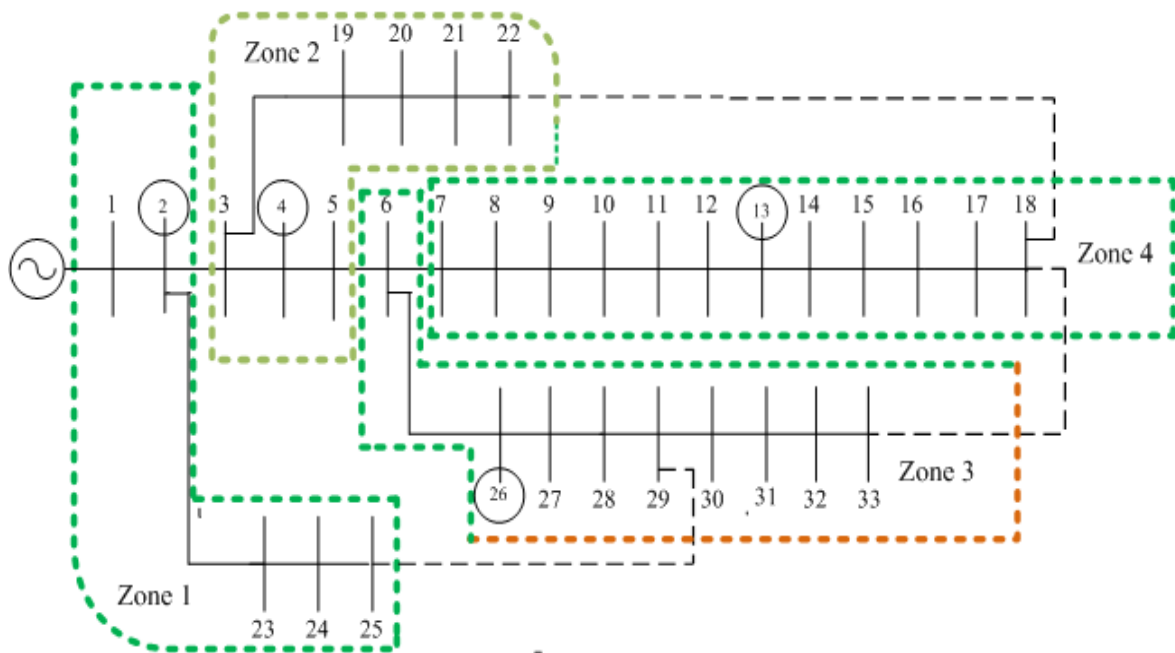


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of zones divisions in IEEE 33 bus system

2. Power System FD and Classification Methodology

The proposed algorithm is divided into two primary sections: fault zone detection and fault classification. The flowchart of this algorithm is depicted in Fig. 2. The process begins with the initialization phase, where the power system is divided into zones, and FDs are strategically placed within these zones using the NBPSO algorithm. These FDs continuously monitor and record three-phase voltages, currents, and load angles. DWT is then applied to these recorded measurements to extract specific coefficients from the voltage and current waveforms. Additionally, the ANN pattern recognition technique is employed to detect and categorize fault zones within the power system [36], [37]. A detailed description of the FD and classification procedure is provided below [38].

2.1. Selection of Optimal Zones

Transmission lines are critical for transporting electrical energy over long distances, connecting power plants to consumers [39]. In this model of the electrical grid, buses serve as nodes, and power cables serve as branches. The proposed approach for fault localization leverages the NBPSO algorithm and incorporates network topology information. When a bus's observability is enabled, the

controller can take voltage or current readings from the bus and use them as inputs to train an ANN. The fault locator is positioned at bus p,p, making it observable. For a bus to be considered observable, it and all buses it connects to must meet the observability criteria. The topological FD (TFD) matrix for a bus incident is constructed, where node elements are represented as columns and branches as rows. The placement of FDs within the network topology-based TFD is determined as follows [40]-[42]:

“FD(p,p)=1”; for all buses in the power system

“FD(p,q)=1”; “If the buses p and q are connect”

“FD(p,q)=0”; “If the buses p and q are not connected”

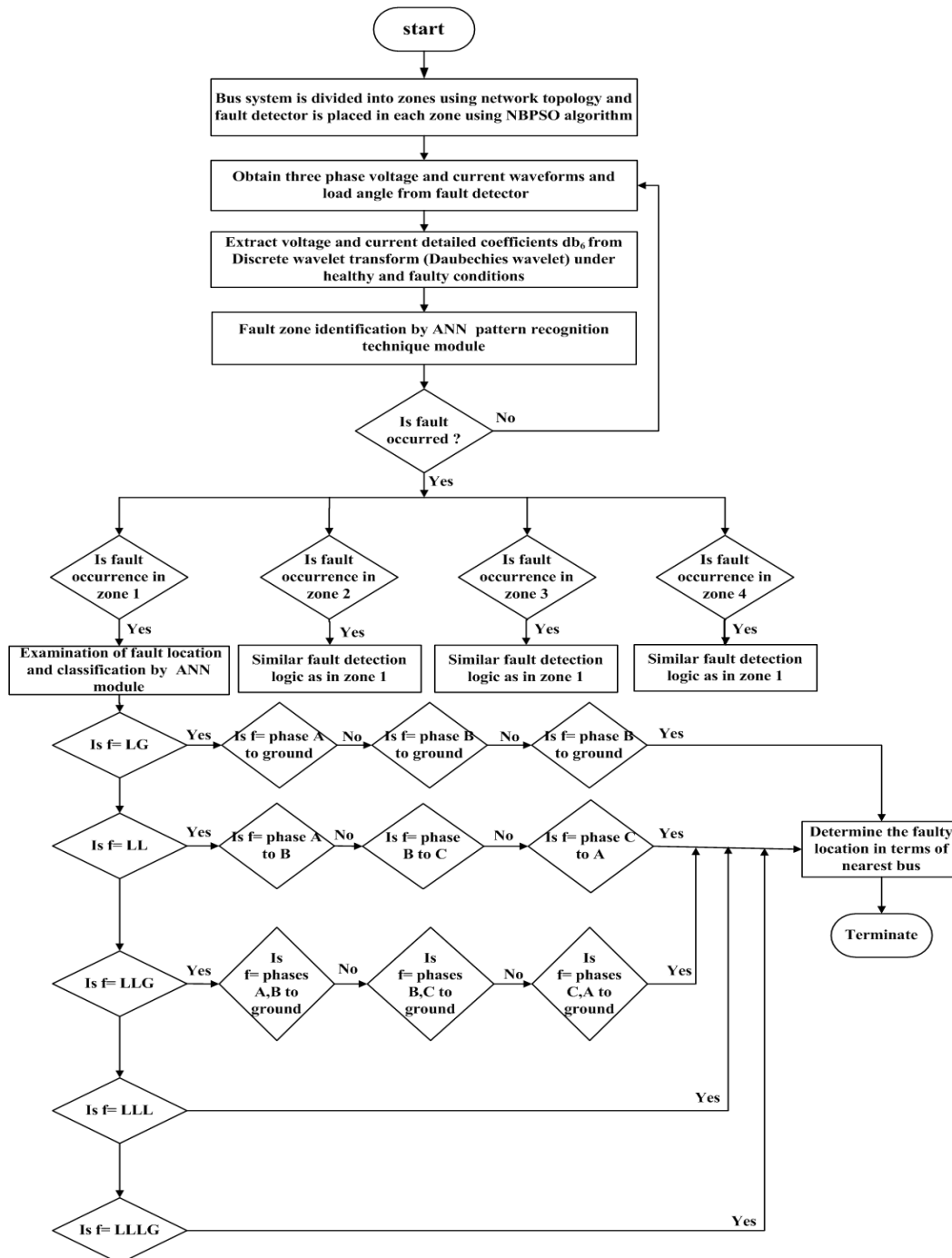


Fig. 2. Complete flowchart for the proposed fault identification and classification

The flowchart in Fig. 3 shown the approach for the optimal selection of zones and makes the system observable. Further, the placement of FD at each zone will be discussed. This flowchart illustrates the approach for optimal zone selection, ensuring system observability. The subsequent placement of FDs within each zone is then discussed in Table 1.

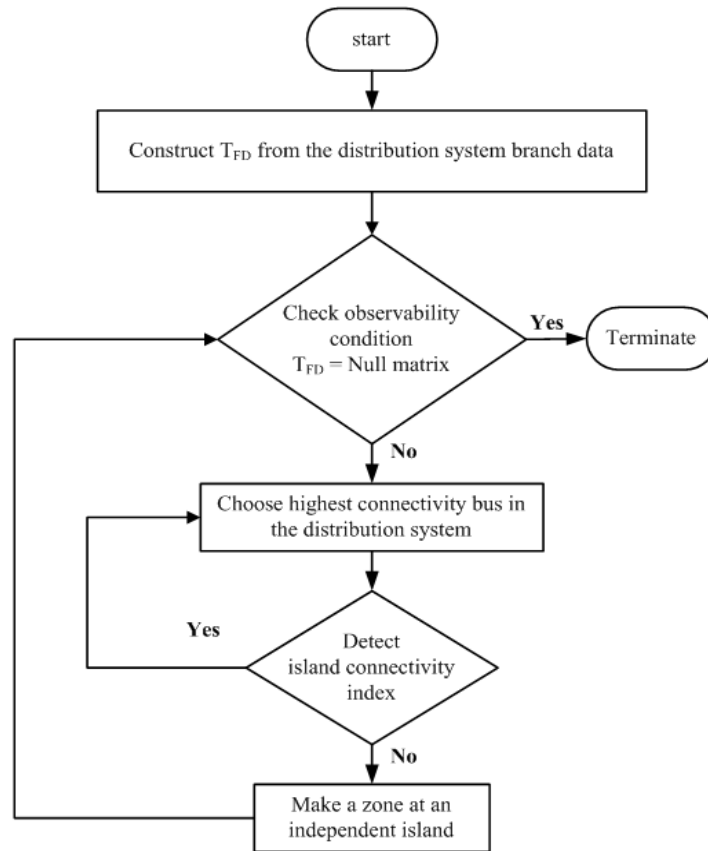


Fig. 3. Flowchart of the Selection of optimal zones approach

Table 1. IEEE 33 bus zone protection

Zone	Bus Numbers IEEE 33 BUS
Zone A	1 , 2 , 3 ,19 , 20 , 21, 22 , 23 , 24 , 25
Zone B	4,5,26,27,28,29,30,31,32,33.
Zone C	7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18

2.2. FD and Categorization Procedure

In [43], the authors have formulated a new approach for the harmonic source identification in the power system framework that deals with the wavelet transform. The approach has been inspired by the active power harmonic analysis based on the analysis of the detail or harmonic active power in the wavelet domain [44]. Based on the DWT, the mathematical representation of the active power P , can be represented as:

$$P = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T v(t).i(t)dt \quad (1)$$

Here P can be segregated into components which are approximate (P_{app}) and detail power (P_{detj}). Thus, P can be represented as:

$$P = P_{app} + P_{detj} \quad (2)$$

where,

$$P_{app} = \frac{1}{T} \sum C_{j0,k} C'_{j0,k} \quad (3)$$

$$P_{detj} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{j \geq j0} \sum_k d'_{j,k} d_{j,k} \quad (4)$$

Here represents the, Here in Equations (3), (4), the DWT coefficients related to the current and voltages are denoted as $C_{j0,k}$, $C'_{j0,k}$ respectively corresponding to the scaling level $j0$ and the level of wavelet decomposition is denoted as j . $d_{j,k}$, $d'_{j,k}$ represented in Equation (4) resembles the DWT coefficient for current and voltage respectively at k^{th} sample. In Equation (5) and Equation (6), The RMS values of the voltage and current signals corresponding to specific frequency band are marked as V_j and I_j which resembled the detailed voltage (V_{det}) and detailed current (I_{det}), respectively.

$$V_{detj} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sqrt{\sum_{j \geq j0} \sum_k d'^2} \quad (5)$$

$$I_{detj} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sqrt{\sum_{j \geq j0} \sum_k d^2} \quad (6)$$

$$C'_{j0,k} = \langle v(t), \varphi_{j0,k} \rangle, d'_{j0,k} = \langle v(t), \psi_{j0,k} \rangle \quad (7)$$

$$C_{j0,k} = \langle i(t), \varphi_{j0,k} \rangle, d_{j0,k} = \langle i(t), \psi_{j0,k} \rangle \quad (8)$$

In Equations (7) and (8), and the scaling function is represented as $\varphi_{j0,k}$, and $\psi_{j,k}$ represents the wavelet basis function respectively [43]. Formula for detail active power at level 1 (P_{det1}) is given as:

$$P_{detj} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{j \geq j0} \sum_k d'_{1,k} d_{1,k} \quad (9)$$

In Equation (9), the DWT coefficient for current is represented as $d_{1,k}$ and for voltage is represented as $d'_{1,k}$ corresponding to the 1^{st} decomposition level and k^{th} sample.

Pdet1 resembles the element energetic electricity at level 1, that is associated to a targeted node that determines whether or not area of the source of harmonic pollutants is located on the downstream or upstream considering the node because the reference. At a particular factor inside the considered device, if the fee of Pdet1 is high-quality, then it signifies that the harmonic energy has been acquired from the upstream facet with respect to the point of measurement. similarly, whilst the price of Pdet1 resembles a negative signal then it's far taken into consideration that the harmonic electricity is obtained from the downstream aspect. In case while there may be a couple of harmonic supply are present then a conflicting state of affairs arises. In such state of affairs, the identification of the stronger harmonic source is done via determining the pollution power (DP) degree of the source. The source that is highlighting higher value of DP is handled as the dominant dealer of harmonics. The dominant source of harmonic pollution region can be determined deliberating the signs of the element electricity for the state of affairs while single nonlinear load or a couple of nonlinear loads are present.

2.3. Specific Harmonic Source Identification Based on the Selection of Signature Harmonic Frequency

In well known principles, the source's characteristic harmonic information is utilized because the fundamental idea of governing the detection of the form of harmonic generating source. Such statistics is without problems handy for usually used distribution device loads. The strength digital hundreds which can be taken into consideration to be the primary producers of harmonics in power

structures framework, normally produce ordinary harmonics. This situation can be almost observed in case of a 6-pulse converter that bears sizable quantity of 5th and 7th harmonic additives and each eleventh and thirteenth additives of the harmonics are dominant for 6 pulse converters in addition to for 12 pulse converters. it's also visible that triple harmonics are present in case of the transformer thrilling present day. consequently, it could be located that based on the characterizing harmonics the identification of a specific traumatic load can finished. The proposed method, the wavelet analysis of the active power signal at detail level 1 has been utilized to search the frequency. The information related to the desired harmonic power is achieved based upon the adjustment performed in the sampling frequency. In this paper, the optimum sampling frequency can be described as the sampling frequency that facilitates the extraction of the information related to the corresponding harmonic information at detail level 1. Obviously, the optimum sampling frequency will depend upon the frequency of the signal to be extracted and also on the central frequency of the mother wavelet chosen which is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparative analysis at 1st level of decomposition between Pseudo and sampling frequency

Specific Harmonic	Captured power frequency (Hz)	Sampling frequency (Hz)
3 rd	300	877
5 th	500	1461.56
7 th	700	2046.185
9 th	900	2630.8
11 th	1100	3215.43
13 th	1300	3800

2.4. Optimum Sampling Frequency for Finding out the Different Types of Harmonics Generating Source

The frequency information from the coefficient extracted at the j^{th} decomposition level in case of the wavelet decomposition can be represented as:

$$F_{psj} = \frac{F_c F_j}{2^j} \quad (10)$$

where, In Equation (10), the pseudo frequency at j^{th} level is given as F_{psj} , F_s resembles the sampling frequency and the frequency of mother wavelet i.e. central frequency related to the selected wavelet is represented as F_c [23]. The mother wavelet db¹⁰ has been used in this study as this has been found to be the most suitable mother wavelet for steady state power system distorted waveform analysis [45]. F_{psj} resembles the frequency band around the frequency F_{psj} even it has a single frequency value. The computation of the sampling frequency can be done considering the information related to the pseudo frequency that have been fetched regarding the signature harmonics of the voltage/current signal. The proposed approach portrays the search of the characterizing frequency bands based on the decomposition of the power signal for the distribution system loads. The voltage and current have 50 Hz as the fundamental frequency, and the active power signal exhibits a 100 Hz frequency. Accordingly, for the third harmonic the frequency of the active power component is 300 Hz. Thus, the determination of sampling frequency in case of the fundamental active power extraction at the level 1 of the discrete wavelet transform can be represented as:

$$F_s = \frac{2 \times F_{psj}}{0.6842} \text{ Hz} \quad (11)$$

The pseudo frequency, and the sampling frequency corresponding to each harmonic level has been shown in Table 1 for Daubesis 10 (db¹⁰) mother wavelet and the decomposition at the first level. The frequency band estimation included in a wavelet analysis with specific frequency F_{psj} of level j , is represented as:

$$F_{psj} = \frac{(m+1)F_s}{2^{j+1}}, j = 1, J-1 \quad (12)$$

where In Equation (12), F_s is denoted as the sampling frequency and J is the last decomposition level. Range of m is denoted as $m=0, 1, \dots, j-1$ and $m=0, 1$ for DWT [46]. An experiment has been conducted for a network energized with a non-sinusoidal voltage source which has all odd harmonics up to 19th order in order to further verify the above condition. Because the network's loads are considered to be linear, the present. Table 3 shows the proportion of harmonic power computed by P_{det1} at sampling frequencies of 877 Hz, 1461 Hz, and 3800 Hz. These frequencies resemble the specific pseudo frequencies of 3rd, 5th, and 13th harmonic powers, respectively. At a sampling frequency of 1461 Hz, which corresponds to the 5th harmonic power, P_{det1} so it can determine the 5th harmonic power. P_{det1} calculates 85.26% of 3rd harmonic power, 83.24% of 7th harmonic power, and 20.46% of 9th harmonic power at this sampling frequency, with the influence of other harmonic powers minimal. Similarly, at 877 Hz sampling frequency, P_{det1} only records 100% of the 3rd harmonic power and 20% of the 5th harmonic power. Table 3 also shows the contributions of the harmonic powers on P_{det1} at 3800 Hz sampling frequency. The above analysis serves as the foundation for the harmonic source detection strategy in our suggested method. The main concept deals with the pseudo frequency selection that aids in the detection of the source. Subsequently, the sampling frequency must be selected so that the extraction of the pseudo frequency component can be done at level 1 of wavelet. The characteristic pseudo frequency must be chosen with care in order to encompass the bulk of the harmonics created by the harmonic generator and gather their contributions to the extracted coefficient for the purpose of detecting the harmonic source. As a result, the sample frequencies must be modified based on the defining harmonics of the targeted harmonic generating sources, as various harmonic sources may have different characteristics frequencies.

Table 3. Different values of p_{det1} at various sampling frequencies

Harmonic order	$F_s=1461$ Hz	$F_s=877$ Hz	$F_s=3800$ Hz
Fundamental	1.05	3.9	0.12
3 rd order Harmonic	86.5	100	0.76
5 th order Harmonic	100	19.5	1.96
7 th order Harmonic	86.7	-	5.89
9 th order Harmonic	19.78	-	19.89
11 th order Harmonic	-	-	83.6
13 th order Harmonic	-	-	100
15 th order Harmonic	-	-	82.6
17 th order Harmonic	-	-	42.5
19 th order Harmonic	-	-	12.5

3. Proposed Fault Diagnosis and Detection Method at Each Zone

The fault condition test signal changes its amplitude and frequency; eventually, the entropy of the test signal also changes its value. Entropy also determines the type of fault in the distribution system. In the proposed algorithm, phase currents and ground current signals (i_a, i_b, i_c and i_g) are the test signals for FD. The value of ground current is mathematically represented in Equation (13) [47],

$$i_g = i_a + i_b + i_c \quad (13)$$

The proposed method calculates the entropy of each phase current signal before and after the fault condition. The flowchart of the proposed method is shown in Fig. 4. $suma, sumb, sumc$ and $sumg$ represents the entropy values of current signals. The maximum and minimum values of these sum of entropy values are calculated to compare with threshold values [48].

$$\max 1 = \max(suma, sumb, sumc \text{ and } sumg) \quad (14)$$

$$\max 2 = \text{immediate}(\max 1) \quad (15)$$

$$\min 1 = \min(\text{suma}, \text{sumb}, \text{sumcandsumg}) \quad (16)$$

The threshold values TH1, TH2 and TH3 sets according to the system for FD and classification. These threshold values compare min and max values and set rules for fault type classification. The following rules are [48]:

$$\text{No-Fault Condition: } \frac{\min}{\text{sumg} \frac{\max 2}{\min}}$$

$$\text{L-L Fault: } \frac{\min}{\text{sumg} \frac{\max 2}{\min}}$$

$$\text{L-L-L-G Fault: } \frac{\min}{\text{sumg} \frac{\min}{\text{sumg}}}$$

$$\text{L-G Fault: } \frac{\min}{\text{sumg} \frac{\min}{\text{sumg}}}$$

$$\text{L-L-G Fault: } \frac{\min}{\text{sumg} \frac{\min}{\text{sumg}}}$$

Niching technique has evolved by incorporating the interaction of competitive behaviour of animals and other species in a situation where the possessions are partial. Where Niches is identified as partitions of situation (or environment), while species can be interpreted as the division of population contending in the situation. Niching systems is categorized by two diverse methods: “parallel and sequential niching” [49]. “Parallel niching” technique identifies and maintains various “niches” in population simultaneously. “Sequential niching technique implements multiple solutions by iteratively applying niching to a problem space, while marking a potential solution at each iteration to ensure that search efforts are not duplicated”.

“Niching algorithms” present actual substitutes to unimodal optimization techniques in multi model domains. Difficulties with multi model solutions spaces, such as resolving equations of the systems and collaborative neural networks, can be beneficial rather than optimization approaches, which explicitly undertake more than a single solution, and lead to more efficient optimization. NBPSO is popular with its multidimensional search and is capable of developing a range of system equation solutions. It uses a “local search algorithm” to build “sub-swarms” to find the finest Gbest position in the “swarm”. The procedure overlays the “initial partial swarm” with the harming distance. The objective function is distinct by fault detector. The purpose of “NBPSO algorithm” is to obtain best solution redundancy and fulfil the constraints to obtain observability of distribution system.

Let the FD “placement vector” “S” as defined by:

$S(p) = \text{If FD “placed at bus” } p; \text{ otherwise}$

The “NBPSO problem is formulated as follows”

$$\text{“Minimize” } W1M1 + W2M2 \quad (17)$$

Constraints subjected to $TFDST \geq U$ “Where TFD is binary incidence matrix of n bus system and given as unity vector $U = (n \times 1)$. W1 and W2 are weights to compare magnitudes M1 and M2.”

$$\text{“} M1 = STs \text{ represents the total number of FD's in the system”} \quad (18)$$

$$\text{“} M2 = ((N - TFDST) * (N - TFDST)) \text{”} \quad (19)$$

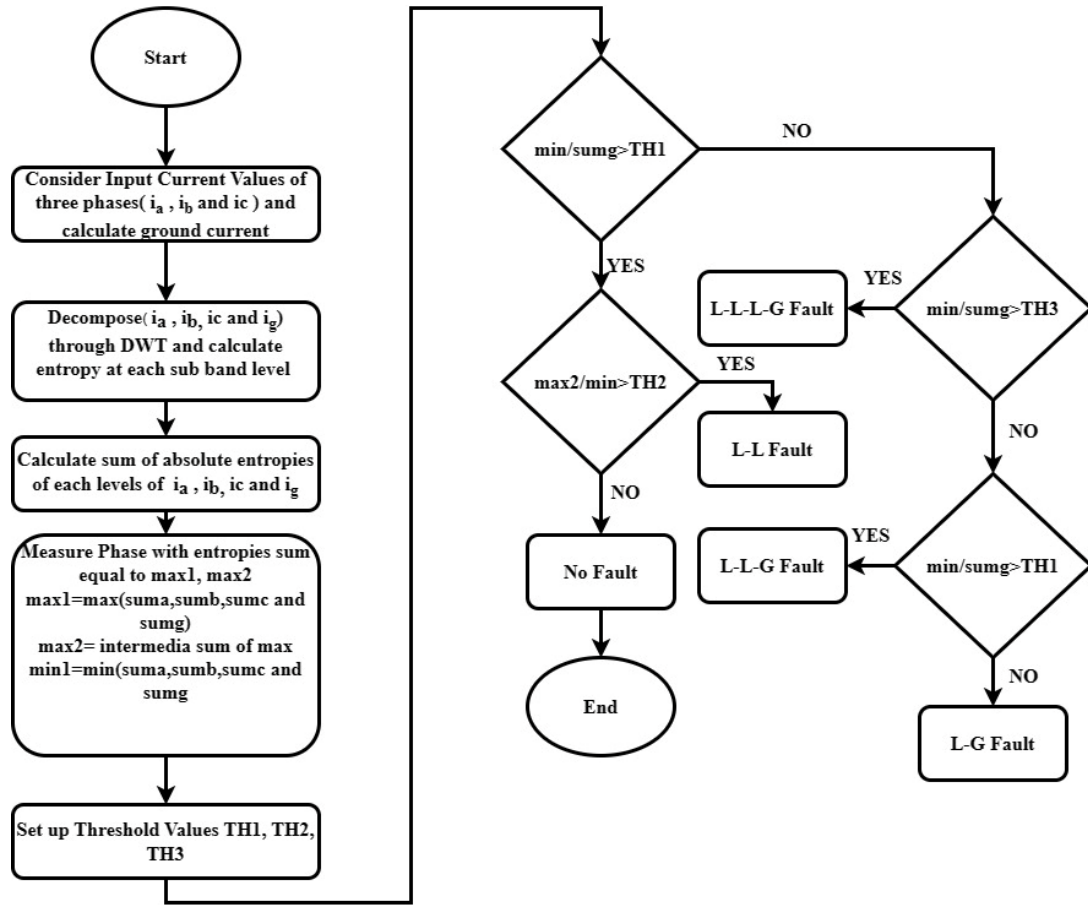


Fig. 4. Flowchart of proposed fault diagnosis method

where N represents redundancy matrix of size $(n \times 1)$, the elements in the N matrix has set to 3 if the redundancy level of the system is 2. TFD S is given by the observability of the bus done by the placement of FD. $(N\text{-TFDS})$ gives the variance of the observed and anticipated number of a bus observed. Therefore, by the FD placement in the system the function $M2$ maximizes the redundancy.

This algorithm has attained the convergence and found the output in the function of fault detector at each zone. Further DWT will be discussed to obtain the approximate coefficient. The flowchart is explained in Fig. 5.

4. ANN for Pattern Recognition Technique

ANN is a computational model, specifically based on structures and features of biological neural networks. An ANN work with a large nonlinear statistical data that can build a complex relationship between inputs and outputs, makes it's robust in nature, because of its high accuracy in prediction where the output is very close to the actual value. Its accuracy of prediction made the ANN to be utilized in various applications such as aerospace, speech telecommunications, protection systems etc. [50]. The training process of ANN involves training of the neurons to update set of weights for mapping the pattern of input to outputs. An ANN structure has an input layer, hidden layer (there can be greater than 1) and the output layer. The hidden layer can extract some of the essential patterns from the inputs and passes it onto the subsequent layer to see. It makes the network faster and efficient [48].

4.1. ANN-FD Module

By employing the pattern-recognition capabilities of ANNs, we can more accurately identify transient and fault states in the power grid. It can also tell the difference between a single-phase and

three-phase power failure. The three-phase voltage and current root-mean-square values, feature extraction from discrete wavelet transform at db6 frequency, and load angle computed from phase-locked loop are among the nine inputs into the ANN module under consideration. Table 4 displays the basic layout of an ANN used for defect identification.

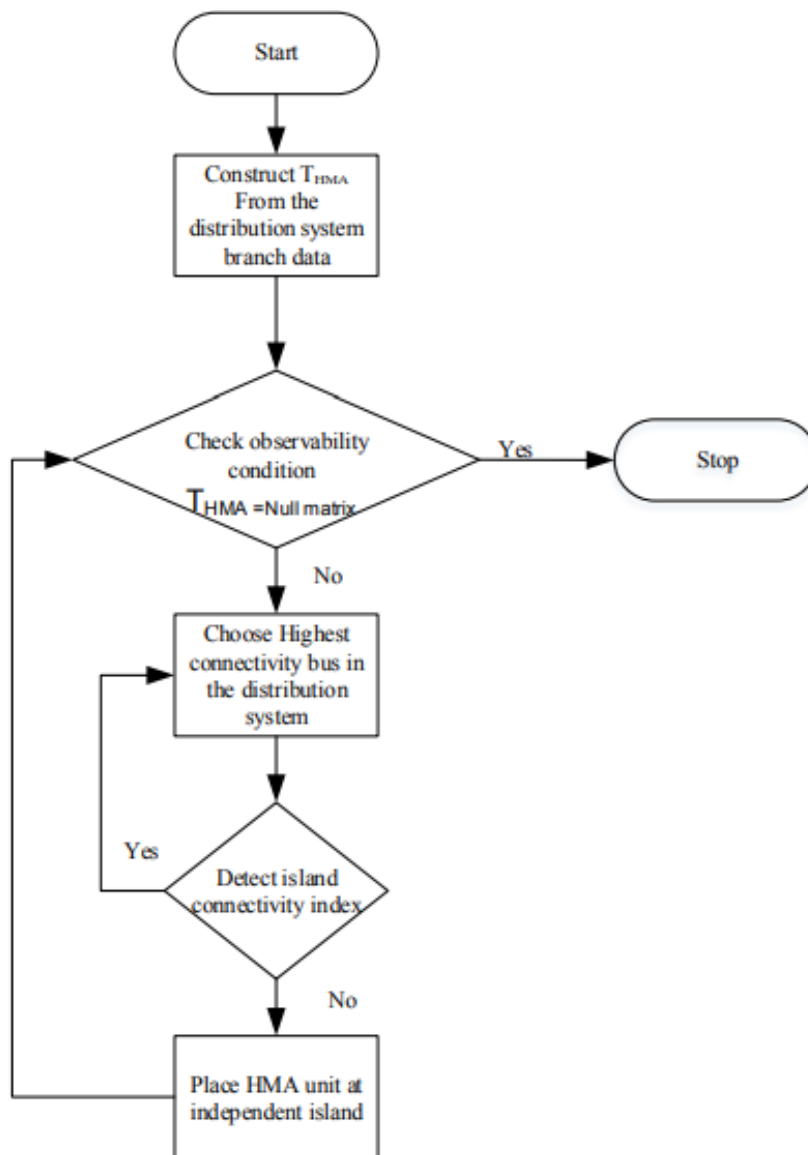


Fig. 5. Flowchart of NBPSO method

Table 4. ANN configuration network for zone detection

No. of Inputs	No. of Hidden Layers	No. of Outputs	ANN Model
9 (“VR, VY, VB, IR, IY, IB, Vco, Ico, ϕ ”)	10	No. of zones in the distribution system	Two-layer feed forward neural network with sigmoid hidden and softmax output neurons

The output of the ANN module 1 intended to specify which fault occurrence zone. This module has developed to provide the output in the case of fault occurrence in the distribution system. The outputs have characterized by the binary coding of zone 1-4 to the correct input pattern [49]. Table 5 has represented the way of binary coding with the logic (1) and logic (0). The binary coding has assigned with each fault occurred zone as logic (1) or if not with logic (0). By using this approach, the ANN module 1 has provided training in accuracy for classifying the correct fault zone.

Table 5. Binary outputs coding of the ANN module 1

Fault occurrence zone	Result 1	Result 2	Result 3	Result 4
Zone no.1	1	0	0	0
Zone no. 2	0	1	0	0
Zone no. 3	0	0	1	0
Zone no. 4	0	0	0	1

4.2. ANN Fault Classification Module

The ANN module 2 is utilized for fault classification and uses the 9 inputs. The ANN utilizes back propagation algorithm with 10 hidden layers shown in Table 6. The output class is contained of five outputs as power system short circuit faults “L-G, L-L, L-L-L, L-L-G and L-L-L-G”.

Table 6. 10 hidden layers of ANN

No. of Inputs	No. of Hidden Layers	No. of Outputs	ANN Model
9 (“VR, VY, VB,IR, IY, IB,Vco, Ico , ø”)	10	5 (“L-G, L-L, L-L-L, L-L-G & L-L-L-G”)	The network is a two-layer feedforward neural network with sigmoid hidden and softmax output neurons.

The ANN module 2 outputs indicate the fault classification, which is linked to the correct input pattern. The outputs are characterized as logic (1) or (0) as in the form of binary coding given in Table 7. The output indicates either logic (1) if particular fault has occurred or it gives logic (0). In this way, the ANN module 2 has carried out the correct logic on each fault classification.

Table 7. Binary coding outputs of ANN module 2

Fault occurrence zone	Output 1	Output 2	Output 3	Output 4	Output 5
L-G	1	0	0	0	0
L-L	0	1	0	0	0
L-L-L	0	0	1	0	0
L-L-G	0	0	0	1	0
L-L-L-G	0	0	0	0	1

5. Results and Discussion

5.1. Investigations on the Studied System

In this section, IEEE 33 bus system is examined with the recommended technique. The proposed technique is studied in the context of the IEEE 33 bus system. The characteristics of the system are based on a 100 MVA rating and a 25 kV voltage. Fig. 1 depicts the updated IEEE 33 bus system with zoned division and FD location. Table 8 is shown for IEEE 33 distribution system simulation variables data set.

Table 8. IEEE 33 distribution system simulation variables data set

Variable parameter	Configurations
Fault Type	(LG, LL, LLL, LLG & LLLG)
Fault resistance	0.01Ω- 300Ω
Fault location(km)	(50,100,150,200,250,300,350,400) Zone1- Zone 4
Sampling Frequency	1200 Hz
Distribution system	Radial

The Proposed methodology works as following steps:

- The observability condition has checked in the system divided into 4 zones. The selection of buses by NBPSO from 2, 4, 13 and 26 in the respective zones (1- 4).
- The rms values of the phase voltages and phase currents, load angle from phase voltages have been collected from the fault detectors respectively under various fault occurrences.
- The voltage and current coefficients have extracted from DWT feature extraction at dB6 sampling frequency 1200 Hz.
- The input samples dimensions in 3,411 have been collected from each line in the IEEE 33 bus system. The FD provides 4 outputs of 1516 samples for a zone selection from zone 1-zone 4 are shown in Fig. 6.
- A two-layer feedforward network has been employed with a Line fault hidden layer of sigmoid transfer function, and the output layer take in softmax transfer function. The Preferred hidden neuron is set to 10. The number of target vector i.e. 4 has fault decided the number of output neurons.
- The ANN has used back propagation algorithm with 9 inputs, 10 hidden layers and 5 outputs as shown in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8. The ANN has been trained with supervised learning by the adjustment of weights of different fault conditions occurrence in the IEEE 33 distribution network.

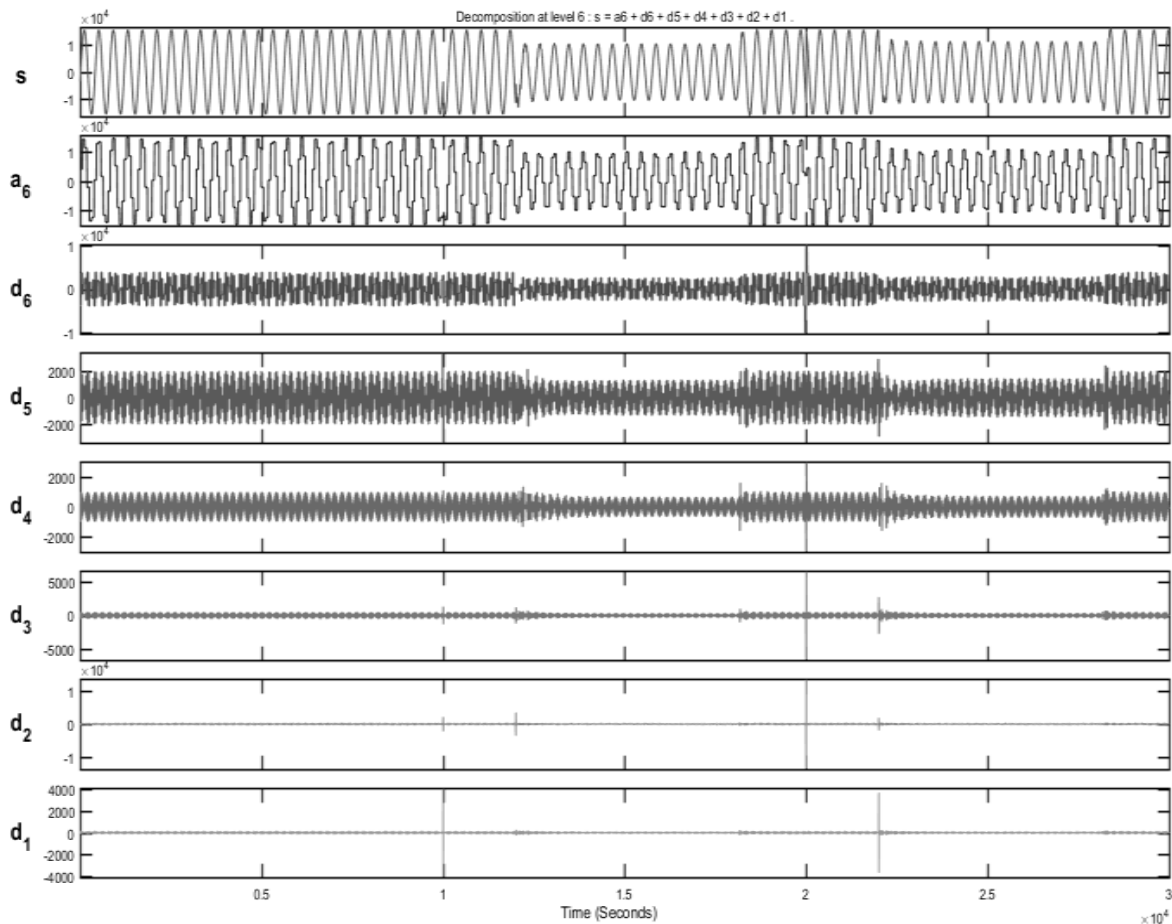


Fig. 6. Detecting an LG defect by DWT analysis of voltage

5.2. Performance Evaluation & Testing

The effectiveness of the proposed methodology has been evaluated for the zone detection and fault classification; the accuracies are calculated from the confusion matrix of the ANN modules 1&

2. The confusion matrix summarizes the ANN performance in classification between inputs and targets [51]. The features of the confusion matrix include training, validation, testing, and all confusion matrixes. The confusion matrix has shown be evidence for the number of mapped in green squares and unmapped samples in red squares to each classification. The individual classification percentage and the overall classification of each confusion matrix also have been specified in lower right blue squares [50]. The training of ANN has accomplished by which the result of the small least means square error as shown in the confusion matrix for fault classification and zone detection shown in Fig. 9 and Fig. 10. The training, validation, test and all confusion matrices have been generated from ANN module 1. Case study on IEEE 33 bus system with L-G fault occurrence at zone 2 shown in Fig. 11.

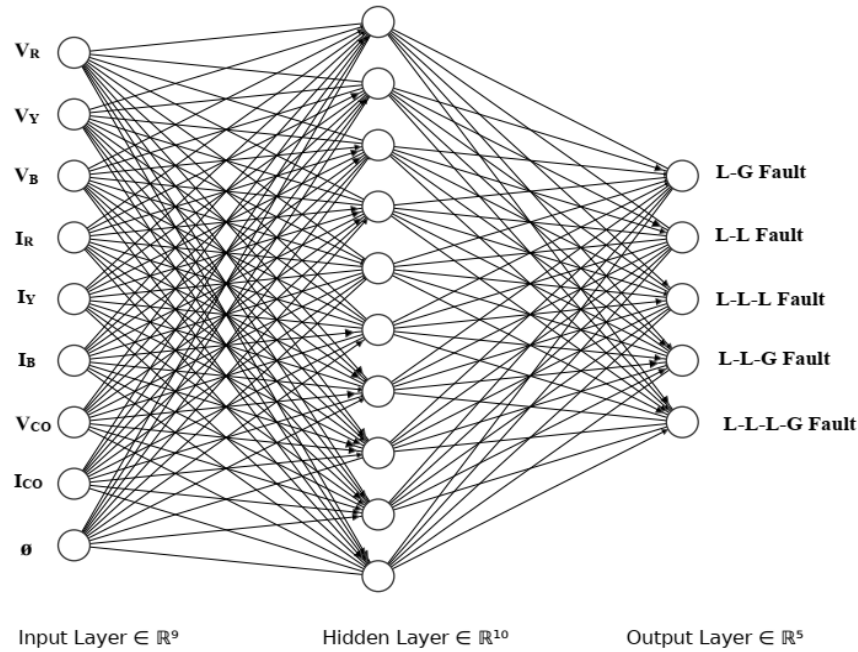


Fig. 7. ANN Module 1 configuration network for fault detection

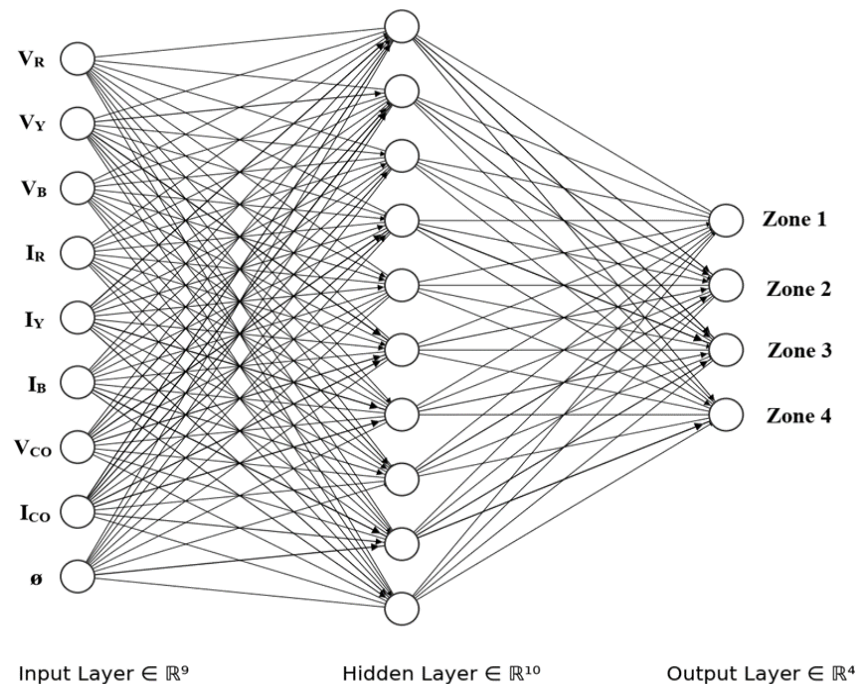


Fig. 8. ANN Module 2 configuration network for fault classification



Fig. 9. Confusion matrix of ANN module 1 for FD

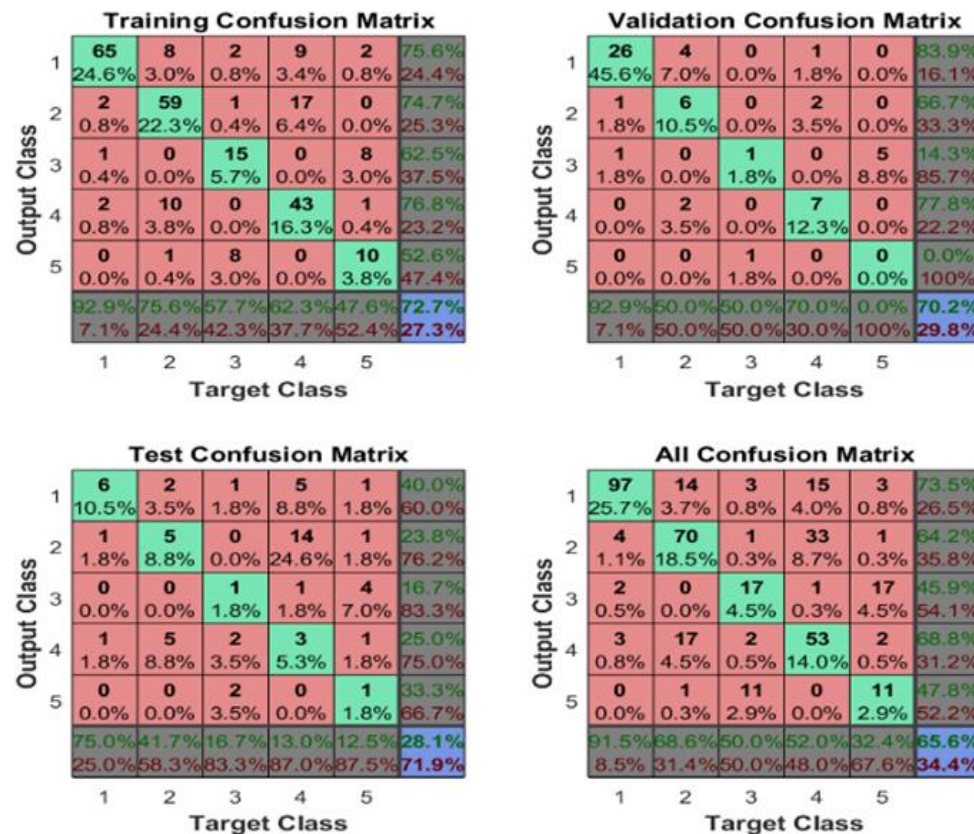


Fig. 10. Confusion matrix of ANN module 1 for zone detection

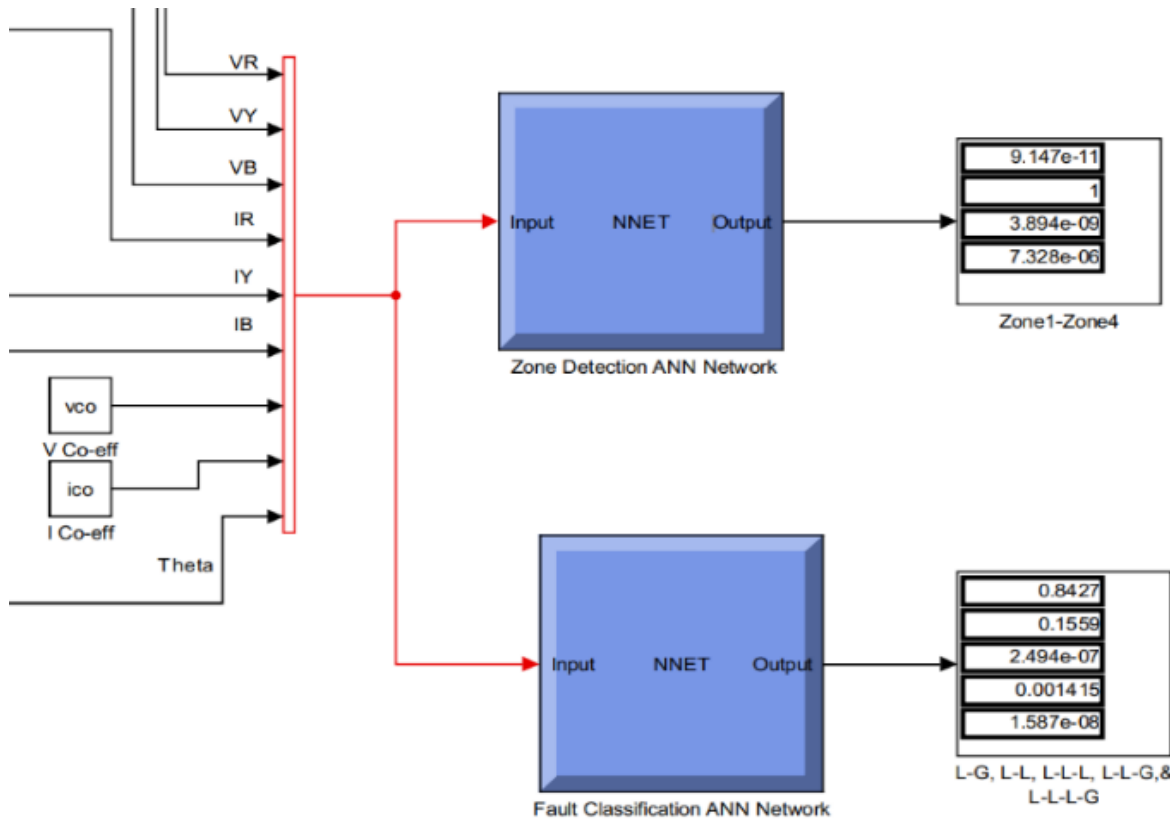


Fig. 11. Case study on IEEE 33 bus system with L-G fault occurrence at zone 2

5.3. Case study: L-G Short Circuit Fault Occurred Between Bus Number 5

The IEEE 33 bus balanced radial distribution test system at the suggested case site is given an L-G fault. The L-G fault is applied at a time interval ranging from 0.5 seconds to 0.7 seconds at the suggested site, and the required simulation work is carried out in MATLAB Simulink. The fault voltage signal has been logged, and it may be found shown in Fig. 12 (a). The fault current signal is shown in Fig. 12 (b). Smart meters positioned at bus numbers 5, 26, and 30 are responsible for the collection of the data for the failure signal. The non-fault signals are gathered at the other measurement devices that are still operational. This signal processing approach, which is based on the wavelet analysis decomposition, is used to deconstruct these signals. To solve this categorization issue, we looked at a total of 400 different samples. The quantity of these gathered data is rather substantial. Within this massive data set, only a select few data provide a more accurate interpretation of the signal. The process of selecting relevant features from a massive amount of data is referred to as feature detection. All the data were compared here with the actual value and the predicted value, and the results showed that the responses were more reliant on the data that had a high chi-square value.

ANNs have significant practical importance in classifying faults in various fields, including power systems. ANNs are adept at identifying complex patterns and relationships within data. In fault classification, ANNs can learn from historical fault data and their corresponding features to recognize patterns associated with different fault types. This enables accurate identification and classification of faults based on the input data. ANNs can adapt and learn from new data, making them suitable for fault classification in dynamic and evolving systems. As the system's behaviour changes over time due to different conditions and loads, ANNs can continuously update their classification capabilities. ANNs can automatically extract relevant features from raw data, reducing the need for manual feature engineering. This is particularly valuable in fault classification, where identifying relevant features can be challenging due to the complexity of the data. Fault patterns often involve nonlinear relationships between variables. ANNs are capable of modelling these nonlinear

relationships, making them well-suited for capturing intricate fault patterns that might not be easily captured by traditional linear methods.

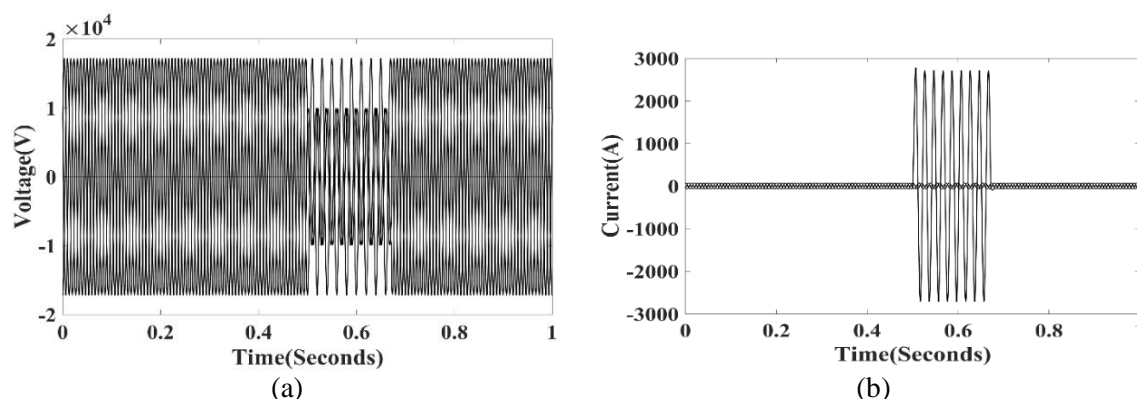


Fig. 12. Voltage and current profile during LG fault

Trained ANNs can generalize their knowledge to classify unseen data accurately. This means that once an ANN has been trained on a sufficiently diverse dataset, it can classify new fault instances that it hasn't encountered during training. **Fault Localization:** ANNs can also be used for fault localization, helping to pinpoint the exact location of a fault within a system based on the observed data patterns. This can be crucial for efficient maintenance and quick restoration of services. While some domain knowledge is necessary for designing and training ANN models, they can still achieve accurate fault classification without an exhaustive understanding of the underlying physical processes. This can be advantageous in cases where domain knowledge is limited or hard to acquire. ANNs can be designed to provide real-time or near-real-time fault classification, allowing for rapid response and mitigation of faults. This is especially important in critical systems like power grids, where timely actions can prevent widespread disruptions.

ANNs can handle data from various sources, including sensor readings, SCADA systems, and historical databases. This flexibility enables them to make use of diverse data streams for accurate fault classification. **Reduced Human Intervention:** Once trained, ANNs can operate autonomously, reducing the need for continuous human intervention in fault detection and classification processes. This can lead to improved efficiency and cost savings. These capabilities contribute to more reliable and efficient operation of complex systems, such as power grids, industrial processes, and communication networks. Table 9 shows that out of a total of 140 fault signal data, 137 of those data signals are accurately predicted and identified as belonging to Zone-B with an accuracy of 97.85 percent. It may be said that the categorization issue has an accuracy of 97.75 percent overall.

Table 9. Confusion matrix for case 1

N=400		Predicted			CA (%)
		BUS 5	BUS 26	BUS 30	
Actual	BUS 5	129	1	2	97.75%
	BUS 26	1	137	2	
	BUS 30	1	2	125	

5.4. Evaluation of the Proposed Method Using RTDS

For the experimental verification of the proposed method in the hardware platform, the authors have fed the IEEE 33 bus distribution system in the RTDS system. The considered model is simulated in PSim and the simulation has been carried out by utilizing Opal-RT RTS OP5600 chassis with RT lab form of 11.X. Voltage signals consequently produced by Opal-RT real-time test system, have been sent to IO cards ML605 to gather the required information. The assessment of the proposed

strategy for location of HIF incorporates: i) impact of sampling rates; ii) impact of random noise iii) evaluation under DGs.

Sampling rates are very important for the measurement of voltage/ current signals utilized HIF detection technique. The digitization of voltage and current signals uses sampling rates in such a way that the signature of the signal should be intact. To assess the impact of the sampling rate for detecting HIF, four different sampling frequencies are considered i.e., 4 kHz, 10 kHz, 51.2 kHz, and 89.6 kHz have been chosen. The proposed strategy precisely identifies HIF at all sampling frequencies. The proposed methodology can detect HIF accurately at all sampling frequencies. But here particular to the industrial sampling frequency has been used i.e., 12.5 kHz for this work. The hardware model of the proposed scheme structure was presented in [5]. Fault in IEEE 33 Radial Distribution Under Noisy condition The detection of the HIF zone has been subjected to a noisy environment in hardware platform. Proper analysis of the noise impact is performed to evaluate the effectiveness of the projected approach. The signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) technically denotes noise, which is given by Equation (20).

$$SNR_{db} = 20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{X_{signal}}{X_{Noise}} \right) \quad (20)$$

Here the problem occurred between buses 5 and 16 in the presence of noise levels of 35dB, 25dB, and 10dB. TQWT signal processing technology is used to evaluate the fault signal, and fault data sets are gathered at smart meters positioned on buses 14 and 17. Levels 4 and 5 detail coefficients derived from the fault signal. The non-fault data sets are obtained from the smart meters located throughout the test system. The arc voltage at various noisy conditions is shown in Fig. 13 (a). In Fig. 13 (b), Kurtogram of noisy (10dB) has been shown where up to 13th order harmonics are visible.

Here 260 fault signals are given to the classification task. In 25 dB SNR noisy condition, out of 260 fault signals, 250 signals are categorized as zone 3 as its fault zone, with a classification accuracy of 99.24 %. The confusion matrix under 25 dB SNR noisy condition is shown in Table 10. In 15 dB SNR noisy condition, out of 260 fault signals, 258 signals are categorized as zone 3 as its fault zone with a classification accuracy of 99.23 %. The confusion matrix of case 3 under 10 dB SNR noisy condition is shown in Table 11. In Table 12, the proposed method outperformed all the existed methods in the literature, even though Tellegen's theorem and SWT+ANN have 100 % accuracy. They are limited to FD and no noise condition is considered.

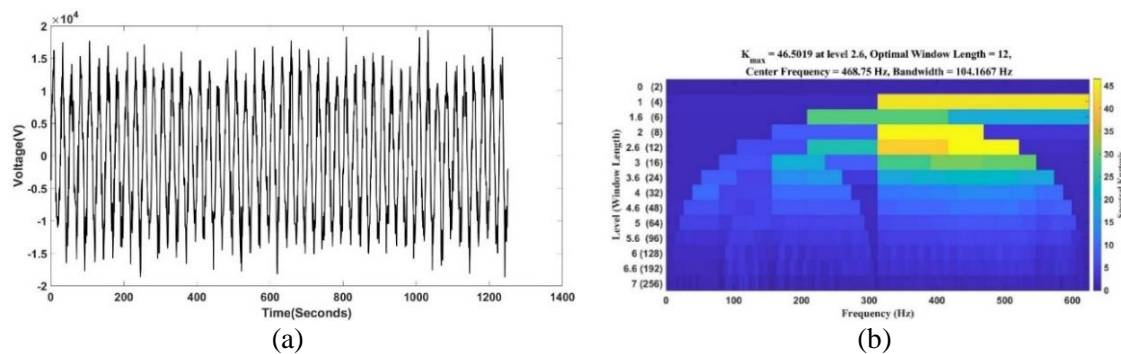


Fig. 13. (a) Arc Voltage at various noisy conditions (10 dB), (b) Arc Kourtogram of Voltage at various noisy conditions (10 dB)

Table 10. Confusion matrix Under 25 dB SNR

		Predicted			Precision	Class index returned by classifier
		Zone 1	Zone2	Zone3		
Actual	Zone1	134	1	0	0.9925	0
	Zone2	0	134	1	0.9925	0
	Zone3	1	1	258	0.9923	3
CA=97.24 %						

Table 11. Confusion matrix under 10 dB SNR

		Predicted			Precision	Class index returned by classifier
		Zone 1	Zone2	Zone3		
Actual	Zone1	134	1	0	0.9924	0
	Zone2	1	134	0	0.9924	0
	Zone3	1	1	258	0.9923	3
CA=98.23%						

Table 12. Performance comparison of the proposed method with previously published works

Method	Detection	Network	Noise (dB)	Accuracy (%)
WASVD+ k-NN [proposed methodology]	FD, classification and location	Radial, Meshed, with DG and Real Time	35dB 25dB 10dB	99.08
Tellegen's theorem [52]	Detection and classification	IEEE13 & 34	Not considered	98.5
Edge computing [53]	FD	Radial	Not considered	-
WT+SVM [54]	FD	Radial	Not considered	97.37
WT+kNN [55]	FD	Radial	Noise considered	99.25
WT+DT [56]	FD	Radial	Not considered	99.25
SWT +ANN [49]	Fault location	Radial	Not considered	100
PSO+ANN [57]	FD	Real time test feeder	Not considered	95.50
Sliding mode observer [51]	FD and classification	parallel multi-cell converter	Noise considered	-

6. Conclusion

For fault and zone classification in large power networks, an ANN built on the DWT has been presented. The network is divided into zones to make the entire power system observable and valuable, reduce computational strain, and save costs. NBPSO is a strategy for deciding the optimal placement of fault detectors in each zone. The ANN module is designed to pinpoint both the fault zone and the exact location within it. Additionally, the ANN is responsible for categorizing the types of faults that occur. In practical application, this method demonstrated its effectiveness by identifying a fault 100 kilometers away from fault detector 4 in zone 2. An L-G fault classification was achieved using data from the second fault detector. The accurate detection and categorization of the fault were made possible by the meticulous placement of fault locators, guided by NBPSO. The integration of ANN and DWT enhances the ability to detect and classify faults by providing detailed signal analysis. This combination allows for the recognition of patterns associated with different types of faults, making the system highly reliable. Dividing the network into zones not only makes the system easier to monitor but also reduces the computational load by processing data in smaller sections. The optimized placement of FDs ensures maximum coverage and efficiency in fault detection. By accurately pinpointing the fault zone and location, the system facilitates quick and effective responses to any issues. This method significantly improves the reliability and stability of the power network, ensuring a consistent and uninterrupted power supply. Through the use of advanced algorithms and precise fault locator placement, the proposed method offers a robust solution for FD and classification in large power networks.

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