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#### <span id="page-0-0"></span>EEN442 - Power Systems II (Συστήματα Ισχύος II) Part 4: Unbalanced operation <https://sps.cut.ac.cy/courses/een442/>

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After this part of the lecture and additional reading, you should be able to . . .

- **<sup>1</sup>** . . . explain the use of symmetrical components to describe the unbalanced operation of three-phase power systems in steady-state;
- **<sup>2</sup>** . . . perform simple computations and system analysis with symmetrical components;
- **<sup>3</sup>** . . . explain the power balance in ABC and symmetrical components.



# **[Symmetrical components](#page-5-0)**

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Voltage unbalance refers to a condition in a three-phase power system where the magnitudes of the three phase voltages are not equal or their phase angles are not exactly 120 degrees apart. This imbalance can lead to **inefficient operation of electrical equipment**, **increased heating in motors and transformers**, and **potential malfunction of sensitive electronics**.

Why would we have unbalanced operation?

- Unbalanced loads;
- unbalanced line parameters (e.g., untransposed and therefore, asymmetrical lines);
- unbalanced transformer parameters;
- **e** ground faults or short circuits;



Why don't we use the same methods as in the previous parts of this course?



# <span id="page-5-0"></span>**1 Outline**



# **[Symmetrical components](#page-5-0)**

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A set of three unbalanced phasors can be decomposed into the sum of:

- three phasors making up a positive (or direct) sequence
- three phasors making up an negative sequence
- three phasors making up a zero sequence

Thus, we end up with three 3-phase systems but each one of them is balanced (thus, easy to analyze). These are called the **symmetrical components**.

## **1 Symmetrical components**





- **Positive sequence**: three rotating vectors, of same magnitude, shifted by 120° which an observer sees passing in the order a,b,c,a,b,c
- **Negative sequence**: three rotating vectors, of same magnitude, shifted by 120° which an observer sees passing in the order a,c,b,a,c,b
- **Zero sequence**: three rotating vectors, of same magnitude and in phase



- **<sup>1</sup>** Transform ABC system to symmetrical components (this step is sometimes called "symmetrization").
- **<sup>2</sup>** Carry out all computations in that framework
- **<sup>3</sup>** Transform back to ABC to get actual currents and voltages (this step is sometimes called de-symmetrization).

Simplifications can be attributed to the fact that the symmetrical components are the eigenvectors of the admittance matrix



Projecting the ABC components to the 120 gives:

$$
\underline{U}_{a} = \underline{U}_{a1} + \underline{U}_{a2} + \underline{U}_{a0} = \underline{U}_{1} + \underline{U}_{2} + \underline{U}_{0}
$$
  

$$
\underline{U}_{b} = \underline{U}_{b1} + \underline{U}_{b2} + \underline{U}_{b0} = \alpha^{2} \underline{U}_{1} + \alpha \underline{U}_{2} + \underline{U}_{0}
$$
  

$$
\underline{U}_{c} = \underline{U}_{c1} + \underline{U}_{c2} + \underline{U}_{c0} = \alpha \underline{U}_{1} + \alpha^{2} \underline{U}_{2} + \underline{U}_{0}
$$

In matrix form:

$$
\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \underline{U}_{\mathrm{a}} \\ \underline{U}_{\mathrm{b}} \\ \underline{U}_{\mathrm{c}} \end{pmatrix}}_{\underline{U}_{\mathrm{abc}}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha^2 & \alpha & 1 \\ \alpha & \alpha^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\underline{\underline{\underline{U}}} \underbrace{\underline{U}}_{\underline{\underline{U}}} \underbrace{\underline{U}}_{\underline{U}} \underbrace{\underline{U}}_{\underline{U}_{120}}
$$



To get back to the ABC framework, we use the transformation matrix **S** , which is calculated as the inverse of **T** . The definition of the eigenvectors, having elements of magnitude 1, results in the fact that all elements of the matrix **S** have a magnitude of 1/3.

$$
\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha^2 & \alpha & 1 \\ \alpha & \alpha^2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{S} = \mathbf{I}^{-1} = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 \\ 1 & \alpha^2 & \alpha \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}
$$

where 
$$
\alpha = e^{j \cdot 120^{\circ}} = \frac{-1 + j \cdot \sqrt{3}}{2}
$$
 and  $\alpha^2 = e^{j \cdot 240^{\circ}} = \frac{-1 - j \cdot \sqrt{3}}{2}$ .

It can be easily shown that  $|\alpha|=1$  and  $1+\alpha+\alpha^2=0$ 





The inverse in matrix form is thus:

$$
\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \underline{U}_1 \\ \underline{U}_2 \\ \underline{U}_0 \end{pmatrix}}_{\underline{U}_{120}} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 \\ 1 & \alpha^2 & \alpha \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\underline{\underline{S}}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \underline{U}_a \\ \underline{U}_b \\ \underline{U}_c \end{pmatrix}}_{\underline{U}_{abc}}
$$

Which gives:

$$
\underline{U}_1 = \frac{1}{3} \left( \underline{U}_a + \alpha \underline{U}_b + \alpha^2 \underline{U}_c \right)
$$
  

$$
\underline{U}_2 = \frac{1}{3} \left( \underline{U}_a + \alpha^2 \underline{U}_b + \alpha \underline{U}_c \right)
$$
  

$$
\underline{U}_0 = \frac{1}{3} \left( \underline{U}_a + \underline{U}_b + \underline{U}_c \right)
$$



Note that in a balanced system, we have:

$$
\left(\begin{matrix}\underline{U}_1\\\underline{U}_2\\\underline{U}_0\end{matrix}\right)=\frac{1}{3}\left(\begin{matrix}1&\alpha&\alpha^2\\1&\alpha^2&\alpha\\1&1&1\end{matrix}\right)\left(\begin{matrix}\underline{U}_a\\\alpha^2\underline{U}_a\\\alpha\underline{U}_a\end{matrix}\right)=\left(\begin{matrix}\underline{U}_a\\0\\0\end{matrix}\right)
$$



Assume a 3-phase coltage source feeding a 3-phase Y-connected load:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\n\underline{U}_a \\
\underline{U}_b \\
\underline{U}_c\n\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\n\underline{Z}_a & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \underline{Z}_b & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \underline{Z}_c\n\end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}\nJ_a \\
J_b \\
J_c\n\end{pmatrix}
$$

Converting to 120 sequence:

$$
\underline{\mathbf{S}}\left(\frac{\underline{U}_{1}}{\underline{U}_{2}}\right)=\left(\begin{matrix}\underline{Z}_{a} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & \underline{Z}_{b} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & \underline{Z}_{c}\end{matrix}\right)\underline{\mathbf{S}}\left(\begin{matrix}I_{1}\\ I_{2}\\ I_{0}\end{matrix}\right)\Leftrightarrow\left(\begin{matrix}\underline{U}_{1}\\ \underline{U}_{2}\\ \underline{U}_{0}\end{matrix}\right)=\underline{\mathbf{T}}\left(\begin{matrix}\underline{Z}_{a} & 0 & 0\\ 0 & \underline{Z}_{b} & 0\\ 0 & 0 & \underline{Z}_{c}\end{matrix}\right)\underline{\mathbf{S}}\left(\begin{matrix}I_{1}\\ I_{2}\\ I_{0}\end{matrix}\right)
$$



Assume a 3-phase coltage source feeding a 3-phase Y-connected load:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\underline{Z}_1\\\underline{Z}_2\\\underline{Z}_0\end{pmatrix}=\frac{1}{3}\begin{pmatrix}\underline{Z}_a+\underline{Z}_b+\underline{Z}_c & \underline{Z}_a+\alpha^2\underline{Z}_b+\alpha\underline{Z}_c & \underline{Z}_a+\alpha\underline{Z}_b+\alpha^2\underline{Z}_c\\\underline{Z}_a+\alpha\underline{Z}_b+\alpha^2\underline{Z}_c & \underline{Z}_a+\underline{Z}_b+\underline{Z}_c & \underline{Z}_a+\alpha^2\underline{Z}_b+\alpha\underline{Z}_c\\\underline{Z}_a+\alpha^2\underline{Z}_b+\alpha\underline{Z}_c & \underline{Z}_a+\alpha\underline{Z}_b+\alpha^2\underline{Z}_c & \underline{Z}_a+\underline{Z}_b+\underline{Z}_c\end{pmatrix}
$$

If the impedances are the same  $(Z_a = Z_b = Z_c)$ :

$$
\begin{pmatrix} \underline{Z}_1 \\ \underline{Z}_2 \\ \underline{Z}_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \underline{Z}_a \\ \underline{Z}_b \\ \underline{Z}_c \end{pmatrix}
$$



- It should be noted that the admittance matrices in the ABC and 120 systems incorporate the same information, but are not equal.
- No zero-sequence components exist if the sum of the unbalanced phasors is zero.
- Zero sequence components are never present in the **line voltages** regardless of the degree of unbalance. Can you explain this?



<span id="page-16-0"></span>



## <span id="page-17-0"></span>**[Symmetrical components](#page-5-0)**

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### **2 Power equations**



In ABC the three-phase apparent power is:

$$
\underline{\mathcal{S}}_{3\phi} = \underline{\mathit{U}}_a I_a^* + \underline{\mathit{U}}_b I_b^* + \underline{\mathit{U}}_c I_c^* = \underline{\mathbf{U}} \underline{\mathbf{I}}^*
$$

Considering:

$$
\begin{array}{rcl} \underline{\mathbf{U}} & = & \underline{\mathbf{T}} \, \underline{\mathbf{U}}_{120} \\ \underline{\mathbf{I}} & = & \underline{\mathbf{T}} \, \underline{\mathbf{I}}_{120} \end{array}
$$

We get:

$$
\underline{S}_{3\varphi} = (\underline{\mathbf{T}} \underline{\mathbf{U}}_{120})^T \cdot (\underline{\mathbf{T}} \underline{\mathbf{I}}_{120})^* =
$$
  
= 
$$
(\underline{\mathbf{U}}_{120})^T \cdot \underline{\mathbf{T}}^T (\underline{\mathbf{T}})^* \cdot (\underline{\mathbf{I}}_{120})^*
$$

We can simplify this equation by calculating the middle part as:

$$
\boldsymbol{T}^{\text{T}} \left( \underline{\boldsymbol{T}} \right)^* = \left( \left( \left( \underline{\boldsymbol{T}} \right)^* \right)^{\text{T}} \underline{\boldsymbol{T}} \right)^{\text{T}} = 3 \left( \underline{\boldsymbol{T}}^{-1} \underline{\boldsymbol{T}} \right)^{\text{T}} = 3 \, \boldsymbol{I}_\text{d}
$$

where **I**<sub>d</sub> represents the identity matrix.



Leading to:

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\n\mathcal{S}_{3\phi} & = & 3 \cdot (\underline{\mathsf{U}}_{120})^7 \cdot (\underline{\mathsf{I}}_{120})^* = \\
& = & 3 \cdot (\underline{\mathsf{U}}_1 \underline{\mathsf{I}}_1^* + \underline{\mathsf{U}}_2 \underline{\mathsf{I}}_2^* + \underline{\mathsf{U}}_0 \underline{\mathsf{I}}_0^*)\n\end{array}
$$

- A factor of 3 arises between the expressions of the powers in the ABC and symmetrical component systems.
- Each element of the ABC system carries triple the power of its equivalent in the symmetrical component system

# <span id="page-20-0"></span>**3 Outline**



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#### **3 General system**

Let's consider the following  $3\phi$  system:



where  $Z_{\rm S}$  is the line impedance,  $Z_{\rm M}$  is the mutual impedance between lines and  $Z_{\text{E}}$  in the neutral impedance.



Using KCL and KVL, we can write the equations of the system for phase *a*:

$$
\underline{U}_a=-(\underline{I}_a+\underline{I}_b+\underline{I}_c)\underline{Z}_E+\underline{E}_a-\underline{Z}_S\underline{I}_a-\underline{Z}_M\underline{I}_b-\underline{Z}_M\underline{I}_c
$$

Or, in matrix form for the entire system:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\nE_a \\
E_b \\
E_c\n\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\nZ_s + Z_E & Z_M + Z_E & Z_M + Z_E \\
Z_M + Z_E & Z_s + Z_E & Z_M + Z_E \\
Z_M + Z_E & Z_s + Z_E & Z_s + Z_E\n\end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix}\nI_a \\
I_b \\
I_c\n\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}\nU_a \\
U_b \\
U_c\n\end{pmatrix}
$$

#### **3 Balanced system**



In a balanced, properly transposed system, we can simplify:

$$
\underline{U}_{a} = -(I_{a} + I_{b} + I_{c})\underline{Z}_{E} + \underline{E}_{a} - \underline{Z}_{S}I_{a} - \underline{Z}_{M}(I_{b} + I_{c})
$$
\n
$$
= -(I_{a} + I_{b} + I_{c})\underline{Z}_{E} + \underline{E}_{a} - \underline{Z}_{S}I_{a} - \underline{Z}_{M}(I_{b} + I_{c})^{\ast} - I_{a}
$$
\n
$$
= \underline{E}_{a} - I_{a}(\underline{Z}_{S} - \underline{Z}_{M})
$$
\n
$$
= \underline{E}_{a} - I_{a}\underline{Z}_{L}
$$

Leading to:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\nE_a \\
E_b \\
E_c\n\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\nZ_L & 0 & 0 \\
0 & Z_L & 0 \\
0 & 0 & Z_L\n\end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix}\nJ_a \\
J_b \\
J_c\n\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}\n\underline{U}_a \\
\underline{U}_b \\
\underline{U}_c\n\end{pmatrix}
$$

where  $Z_L = Z_S - Z_M$ .

Thus, we are able to analyze the system per-phase.



In an unbalanced system, the above approach does not work (why?). If we use the symmetrical components transformation (see slide [17\)](#page-16-0) we can get:

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\n\underline{E}_1 \\
\underline{E}_2 \\
\underline{E}_0\n\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\n\underline{Z}_1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \underline{Z}_2 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \underline{Z}_0\n\end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix}\nI_1 \\
I_2 \\
I_0\n\end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix}\n\underline{U}_1 \\
\underline{U}_2 \\
\underline{U}_0\n\end{pmatrix}
$$
\n(3.1)

where 
$$
\underline{Z}_1 = \underline{Z}_2 = \underline{Z}_S - \underline{Z}_M
$$
 and  $\underline{Z}_0 = \underline{Z}_S + 2\underline{Z}_M + 3\underline{Z}_E$ .

**Even though the ABC system equations in an unbalanced sys**tem are not decoupled, the 120 equivalent equations are decoupled and we can analyze them per-phase.

## **3 Equivalent circuits**



Plotting the equivalent 120 circuits, gives:



- Corresponds to the single-phase equivalent circuit of the balanced three-phase system. The generator voltage feeds the circuit in the positive sequence system. This voltage is equal to the voltage *E*<sup>a</sup> of a symmetrically-operated generator.
- The impedances of the passive elements of the positive sequence system are included in the impedance  $Z_1$ . It should be noted that  $Z_1$  is independent of the neutral-to-ground impedance  $Z_F$ .
- The grounding of the neutrals is irrelevant since the sum of the currents is zero. Delta-connected elements must be transformed into wye connections. In the symmetric, three-phase circuit, all neutral points have the same potential; it does not matter whether or not they are connected. Thus, all neutral points of the equivalent, positive sequence circuit can be thought of as connected.





- It is derived in a manner analogous to that of the positive sequence system. However, the voltage source component of the generator voltage is zero so that no supply voltage normally exists in the circuit.
- In the passive part of the network, the impedance  $Z_2$  is equal to  $Z_1$ . This is due to the fact that the neutral point grounding has no effect on the negative sequence system (therefore, we can set  $Z_2 = Z_1$ ).
- In the equivalent circuit of the negative sequence system, delta-wye transformations must be performed and all neutral points must be connected to one another.





- $\bullet$  It is fed by the zero sequence component of the generator voltage, which is zero for symmetrical generators.
- $\bullet$  The zero sequence impedance  $Z_0$  of the passive elements must be included. This impedance generally differs from the positive and negative sequence system impedances.
- The treatment of the neutral points is very important in the zero sequence system. As mentioned previously, zero sequence currents can **only** flow through neutral point connections. The connections in the zero sequence diagram correspond to the grounding conditions in the real physical system.
- $\bullet$  Impedances at the neutral point connections must be included with **triple the value of the physical impedance**. The threefold value is necessary because triple the real zero sequence current actually flows through the neutral ground connection.

## <span id="page-29-0"></span>**4 Outline**



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#### **4 Line model**





$$
\begin{bmatrix} I_{km1,2,0} \ I_{km1,2,0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{km1,2,0} + Y_{km1,2,0}^{sh} & -Y_{km1,2,0} \ -Y_{km1,2,0} & Y_{km1,2,0} + Y_{km1,2,0}^{sh} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_{k1,2,0} \ V_{m1,2,0} \end{bmatrix}
$$

### **4 Transformer model**



If the model is of type Yy, YNy, Yd, Dd:



#### **4 Transformer model**



If the model is of type YNyn:



$$
\begin{bmatrix} I_{km1,2,0} \\ I_{mk1,2,0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{km1,2,0} & -Y_{km1,2,0} \\ -Y_{km1,2,0} & Y_{km1,2,0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} Y_{k1,2,0} \\ Y_{m1,2,0} \end{bmatrix}
$$



If the model is of type YNd:



## **4 Synchronous generator and asynchronous machine models**



If the model is of type YN:



We use the load assumption for uniformity and the Norton equivalent:

$$
\underline{I}_{k1} = \underline{Y}_{k1} \underline{V}_{k1} - \underline{Y}_{k1} \underline{E}_{k1}
$$

$$
\underline{I}_{k2,0} = \underline{Y}_{k2,0} \underline{V}_{k2,0}
$$

## **4 Synchronous generator and asynchronous machine models**



If the model is of type Y or D:



We use the load assumption for uniformity and the Norton equivalent:

$$
I_{k1} = \underline{Y}_{k1} \underline{V}_{k1} - \underline{Y}_{k1} \underline{E}_{k1}
$$
  

$$
I_{k2} = \underline{Y}_{k2} \underline{V}_{k2}
$$
  

$$
I_{k0} = 0
$$

# <span id="page-36-0"></span>**5 Outline**



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#### **<sup>1</sup> Maximum Voltage Unbalance Limits**:

- *IEC Standards*: According to IEC 61000-2-2, the recommended maximum voltage unbalance is typically 2% under normal operating conditions. Stricter limits, such as 1%, may apply for sensitive installations or specific equipment.
- *IEEE Standards*: IEEE Std 1159 suggests similar limits, generally not exceeding 2% for standard industrial applications.
- *Regional Variations*: Some countries may adopt different thresholds. For example, the UK's G98/G99 grid codes align with IEC standards, maintaining a 2% unbalance limit.
- **<sup>2</sup> Measurement and Reporting Requirements**: Continuous Monitoring: Grid-connected entities may be required to continuously monitor voltage quality, including unbalance levels. Reporting Frequency: Regular reporting (e.g., monthly or quarterly) may be mandated to ensure compliance and facilitate grid reliability assessments.
- **<sup>3</sup> Mitigation Obligations**: If voltage unbalance exceeds specified limits, grid codes often require the offending party to take corrective actions. This can include reconfiguring connections, installing power quality equipment, or adjusting operational parameters.



#### **<sup>1</sup> Measurement Techniques**:

- *Power Quality Analyzers*: These devices measure voltage magnitude and phase angles across all three phases. They calculate the degree of unbalance by comparing the deviations from the ideal 1:1:1 ratio and 120-degree phase separation.
- *Digital Relays and Monitoring Systems*: Advanced digital relays can incorporate power quality monitoring, providing real-time data on voltage unbalance alongside protection functions.
- *Periodic Testing*: Utilities may perform scheduled tests using portable meters to verify compliance during routine maintenance or as part of periodic grid assessments.

#### **<sup>2</sup> Calculation Methods**:

Voltage unbalance can be quantified using the **Voltage Unbalance Factor (VUF)**, which is calculated as:

$$
\text{VUF} = \frac{\sqrt{\left(V_a - V_{avg}\right)^2 + \left(V_b - V_{avg}\right)^2 + \left(V_c - V_{avg}\right)^2}}{V_{avg}} \times 100\%
$$

Where:

•  $V_a$ ,  $V_b$ ,  $V_c$  are the phase voltage magnitudes.

 $V_{\text{avg}} = \frac{V_a + V_b + V_c}{3}$  is the average voltage.

**Alternatively**, using symmetrical components:

$$
VUF = \frac{|V_2|}{|V_1|} \times 100\%
$$

Where  $V_1$  is the positive sequence voltage and  $V_2$  is the negative sequence voltage.



# **5 Mitigation Strategies**



**<sup>1</sup> Balancing Loads**: Ensuring that the loads across all three phases are as equal as possible to minimize unbalance.

#### **<sup>2</sup> Power Quality Equipment**:

- *Phase Balancers*: Devices that redistribute unbalanced loads.
- *Static Var Compensators (SVCs)*: Improve voltage stability and balance reactive power.
- *Harmonic Filters*: Address harmonic distortions that can exacerbate voltage unbalance.
- **<sup>3</sup> System Configuration**: Optimizing the network layout and transformer connections to naturally mitigate unbalance.
- **<sup>4</sup> Regular Maintenance**: Periodic inspections and maintenance of electrical infrastructure to prevent conditions that could lead to voltage unbalance.