A Novel Directional Pilot Protection Method for EHV Transmission Lines Considering Fault Factors

Zhenwei Guo, Yingcai Deng, Ruiqiang Zhao, Tong Zhang

Abstract—The traveling wave directional protection offers the advantage of ultra-high-speed action and high sensitivity, meeting the urgent demand for high-speed protection in extra-high-voltage (EHV) transmission systems. However, conventional traveling wave directional protection exhibits insufficient reliability during weak faults, i.e., large fault resistance and small fault angles, making it challenging to implement in reality. Based on the energy difference between reverse and forward traveling waves, this paper proposes a novel traveling wave directional pilot protection method considering fault factors. The method identifies the fault direction using the Normalised Directional Energy Difference (NED). The NED is greater than the threshold for forward faults and less than the threshold for reverse faults. The NED contains information about the fault resistance and the fault angle, effectively eliminating their influence. Based on the engineering parameters of the Central China Power Grid, a 500 kV transmission system is simulated in EMTP-RV. Extensive test results demonstrate that the proposed method can swiftly and reliably identify fault directions under different fault conditions.

Index Terms— fault factors, normalized energy, pilot protection, traveling wave, ultra-high-speed

I. INTRODUCTION

EXTRA-hight-voltage (EHV) transmission lines are characterized by their significant transmission capacity, high transmission efficiency, and low energy losses, making them widely used for large-scale power transmission and the interconnection of asynchronous power grids. In order to ensure the stable operation of power systems and the safety of electrical facilities, reliable detection and rapid fault isolation are becoming increasingly important. [1], [2], [3].

Protection schemes based on voltage and current power frequency information are widely applied in transmission system. However, to obtain post-fault data, the operational time of these protection methods typically exceeds one cycle, failing to meet the requirements for ultra-high-speed protection. The traveling wave (TW) generated by faults

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contains valuable information, including the type, direction, and location of the fault. The intense demand for ultra-high-speed protection has spurred investigation into TW protection [4]. The propagation speed of TW is comparable to the speed of light, enabling TW protection to achieve the performance of ultra-high-speed action. In addition, unaffected by power system oscillations and current transformer saturation, TW protection is considered an ideal method for safeguarding EHV transmission lines [5], [6], [7], [8]. According to different principles, TW protection is categorized into TW differential protection, TW distance protection, and TW directional protection.

TW direction protection has received a lot of attention because only a small amount of data communication is required to determine the direction of the fault. Reference [9] explored the relationship between voltage increments and current increments, proposing a correlation-based directional relay. The protective method based on this relay avoids the bandwidth limitations of Capacitive Voltage Transformers (CCVTs). Reference [10] utilized the S-transform to extract initial voltage and current TWs and proposed a characteristic impedance directional relay. Based on the differences in transient energy during positive and backward fault occurrences, [11] proposed a novel ultra-high-speed pilot protection. A notable advantage of this protection is its low sampling rate requirement. Using a novel synchronous compressed S-transform to extract fault TW information, [12] investigated the difference in directional TW energy ratios and proposed a transient protection algorithm for AC transmission lines linked to LCC-HVDC inverter stations. Reference [13] proposed a non-unit protection algorithm based on transient current normalization, which extends the protection coverage to twice that of conventional methods. However, a notable drawback of these methods is their failure to consider the impact of fault factors on TW protection. In fact, the reliability of TW protection is often difficult to ensure during faults with high fault resistance and small fault angle, which limits its practical application. To enhance the reliability of TW protection, [14] proposed a distributed unit transient protection method based on machine learning. However, acquiring substantial amounts of data to train Support Vector Machines (SVMs) is still a challenge in practice [15], and this approach does not fundamentally solve the aforementioned problem.

To address the problem of inadequate reliability of TW protection under weak faults conditions, this paper proposes a TW directional pilot protection considering fault factors. Firstly, the difference of forward and backward TW energy after faults is studied, and the basic method for orientation discrimination is derived. Secondly, through extensive

simulation experiments, this paper demonstrates the necessity of considering fault factors in fault discrimination. Thirdly, the protection algorithm considering fault factors is proposed. Finally, we constructed an EMTP-RV simulation model based on the parameters of the Central China Power Grid. Extensive testing results have indicated that this method can reliably determine fault directions under diverse fault conditions, effectively eliminating the influence of fault factors.

II. INVESTIGATION OF TRAVELING WAVE TRANSMISSION PROPERTIES

A. The EHV Transmission System

Fig. 1 depicts a typical EHV transmission system. The protected object is the MN line, with relays R_1 and R_2 installed at both terminals. The lengths of the lines LM, MN, and NR are denoted by l_1 , l_2 , and l_3 , respectively. The forward direction refers to the direction from the bus towards the protected transmission line. F₁, F₂, and F₃ represent faults occurring at various locations, where F₁ and F₃ represent internal faults, and F₂ represents external faults.



Fig. 1. Structure of the EHV transmission system.

B. Characteristics of Forward Faults

For convenience, the EHV system shown in Fig. 1 can be considered as a single-phase system. This principle can be conveniently utilized in three-phase systems by converting single-phase signals into line-mode signals [16]. Relay R_1 is employed to analyze the energy characteristics of directional TW during faults, and R_2 holds the same conclusions as R_1 .

Suppose that the fault occurs at point F_2 in the positive direction of relay R_1 , which is x_2 kilometers away from bus M. The fault-generated TWs propagates in different directions from point F_2 and are refracted and reflected at the discontinuity of characteristic impedance. The fault-attached system and TW lattice diagram are drawn in Fig. 2.



Fig. 2. Fault at point F₂. (a) Fault-attached system; (b) TW lattice diagram.

Within the time interval $[0, d_1]$, where 0 denotes the moment when the first TW arrives at relay R₁, $d_1 = 2l_1/v$, and v represents the speed of the TW, R₁ can detect the reverse TWs u_1^- and u_2^- , as well as the forward TWs u_1^+ and u_2^+ .

This paper utilizes the integral of the square of transient components to represent the energy of the signal [12], defining the energy of the transient component of the fault voltage as in (1).

$$E = \int_{t_0}^{t_0+d} \left[\Delta u(t)\right]^2 \mathrm{d}t \tag{1}$$

where d is the sampling data window.

In this paper, E_{r1} and E_{f1} represent the reverse and forward TW energy detected by R₁, respectively. In contrast, E_{r2} and E_{f2} represent the reverse and forward TW energy detected by R₂. According to (1) and considering the attenuation of the TW on the transmission line, within the time interval [0, d₁], the E_{r1} is as stated in (2).

$$E_{r1} = \int_{0}^{a_{1}} \{ [u_{1}^{-}]^{2} + [u_{2}^{-}]^{2} \} dt$$

= $[\varepsilon^{2} x_{2}^{2} + \varepsilon^{6} x_{2}^{2} (l_{2} - x_{2})^{4} K_{zt2}^{2}] \times \int_{0}^{d_{1}} u_{f}^{2} dt$ (2)

where ε represents the attenuation coefficient per kilometre of the transmission line, and K_{zf2} denotes the voltage reflection coefficient at point F₂.

Within the time interval $[0, d_1]$, the E_{f1} is as stated in (3).

$$E_{f1} = \int_{0}^{a_{1}} \{ [u_{1}^{+}]^{2} + [u_{2}^{+}]^{2} \} dt$$

= $[\varepsilon^{2} x_{2}^{2} K_{rM}^{2} + \varepsilon^{6} x_{2}^{2} (l_{2} - x_{2})^{4} K_{zf2}^{2} K_{rM}^{2}] \times \int_{0}^{d_{1}} u_{f}^{2}$ (3)
= $K_{rM}^{2} \times E_{r1}$

where K_{rM} is the voltage reflection coefficient at bus M.

When a fault arises on the NR line at F_3 , which is x_3 kilometers from bus N, the fault-attached system and TW lattice diagram are drawn in Fig. 3.



Fig. 3. Fault at point F₃. (a) Fault-attached system; (b) TW lattice diagram.

From Fig. 3, it can be observed that when the fault occurs at point F₃, within the time interval $[0, d_1]$, relay R₁ can detect the reverse TWs u_1^- , u_2^- , and u_3^- , as well as the forward TWs u_1^+ , u_2^+ , and u_3^+ .

Within the time interval $[0, d_1]$, the E_{r1} is shown as (4).

$$E_{r1} = \int_{0}^{d_{i}} \{ [u_{1}^{-}]^{2} + [u_{2}^{-}]^{2} + [u_{3}^{-}]^{2} \} dt$$

= $[\varepsilon^{4} x_{3}^{2} l_{2}^{2} K_{zN}^{2} + \varepsilon^{8} x_{3}^{2} (l_{3} - x_{3})^{4} l_{2}^{2} K_{rR}^{2} K_{zf3}^{2} K_{zN}^{2} + \varepsilon^{8} x_{3}^{6} l_{2}^{2} K_{rN}^{2} K_{rf3}^{2} K_{zN}^{2}] \times \int_{0}^{d_{i}} u_{f}^{2} dt$ (4)

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where K_{rR} , K_{rN} , and K_{rf3} denote the voltage reflection coefficients at bus R, bus N, and point F₃, respectively, and K_{zN} and K_{zf3} denote the voltage refraction coefficients at bus N and point F₃, respectively.

Within the time interval $[0, d_1]$, the E_{fl} is shown as (5).

$$E_{\rm f1} = \int_0^{u_1} \{ [u_1^+]^2 + [u_2^+]^2 + [u_3^+]^2 \} dt$$

= $\varepsilon^4 x_3^2 l_2^2 K_{\rm zN}^2 K_{\rm rM}^2 + \varepsilon^8 x_3^2 (l_3 - x_3)^4 l_2^2 K_{\rm rQ}^2 K_{\rm zN}^2 K_{\rm rM}^2$ (5)
+ $\varepsilon^8 x_3^6 l_2^2 K_{\rm rN}^2 K_{\rm rf3}^2 K_{\rm zN}^2 K_{\rm rM}^2] \times \int_0^{d_1} u_{\rm f}^2 = K_{\rm rM}^2 \times E_{\rm r1}$

From (2), (3), (4), and (5), it can be derived that when faults occur in the forward direction of R_1 :

$$E_{\rm fl} = K_{\rm rM}^2 \times E_{\rm rl} \tag{6}$$

where $-1 < K_{rM} < 1$, thus $E_{fl} < E_{rl}$.

C. Characteristics of Reverse Fault

When a fault arises on the LM line at F_1 , which is x_1 kilometers from bus M, the fault-attached system and TW lattice diagram are drawn in Fig. 4.

From Fig. 4, it can be observed that when the fault occurs at point F₁, within the time interval [0, d₂], where $d_2=2l_2/v$, relay R₁ can only detect forward TWs u_1^+ , u_2^+ , and u_3^+ .



Fig. 4. Fault at point F_1 . (a) Fault-attached system; (b) TW lattice diagram.

Within the time interval $[0, d_2]$, the E_{fl} is as stated in (7).

$$E_{f1} = \int_{0}^{a_2} \{ [u_1^+]^2 + [u_2^+]^2 + [u_3^+]^2 \} dt$$

= $[\varepsilon^4 x_1^4 K_{zM}^4 + \varepsilon^6 x_1^2 (l_1 - x_1)^4 K_{rL}^2 K_{zf1}^2 K_{zM}^2 + \varepsilon^6 x_1^6 K_{rM}^2 K_{rf1}^2 K_{zM}^2] \times \int_{0}^{d_2} u_f^2 dt$ (7)

where K_{rL} and K_{rf1} respectively denote the voltage reflection coefficients at bus L and point F₁, and K_{zf1} denotes the voltage refraction coefficient at point F₁.

Within the time interval $[0, d_2]$, no reverse TW arrives at R₁. Thus, the E_{r1} is shown as (8).

$$E_{\rm rl} \approx 0 \tag{8}$$

From (7) and (8), when a reverse fault occurs in relay R_1 :

$$E_{\rm fl} > E_{\rm rl} \approx 0 \tag{9}$$

III. BASIC PRINCIPLES AND LIMITATIONS OF DIRECTION DISCRIMINATION

Combining the analyses from Sections 2.2 and 2.3, within the time interval *d*, where $d = [0, \min(2l_1/v, 2l_2/v)]$, the TW energy exhibits the following characteristics.

When a forward fault occurs, R1 simultaneously probes

both forward and reverse TWs, satisfying (6). Since $-1 < K_{rM} < 1$, it follows that $E_{r1} > E_{f1}$, thus $E_{r1} - E_{f1} > 0$.

When a reverse fault occurs, no reverse TW reaches R_1 , satisfying (8). Therefore, $E_{r1} < E_{f1}$, indicating that $E_{r1} - E_{f1} < 0$.

Define ED_1 as in (10), representing the fault characteristic of R_1 . $ED_1 > 0$ indicates a forward fault of R_1 .

$$\mathrm{ED}_{\mathrm{l}} = E_{\mathrm{rl}} - E_{\mathrm{fl}} \tag{10}$$

Based on the same principle, define ED_2 as in (11), representing the fault characteristic of R_2 . $ED_2 > 0$ indicates a forward fault of R_2 , whereas $ED_2 < 0$ indicates a reverse fault of R_2 .

$$ED_2 = E_{r2} - E_{f2} \tag{11}$$

Therefore, the fundamental principle for determining the direction of faults is:

1) If $ED_1 > 0$ and $ED_2 > 0$, both relays R_1 and R_2 detect a forward fault, confirming a fault on the MN line.

2) Otherwise, there is no fault on the MN line.

According to the theory above, most faults on the MN lines can be correctly identified. However, further analysis reveals a limitation in the aforementioned principle: the protection does not consider the influence of fault factors. Research indicates that under weak fault conditions, i.e. small fault angles and large fault resistance, the protection may operate incorrectly [17].

Therefore, it is necessary to further improve the above scheme to eliminate the impact of fault factors and enhance the reliability of fault discrimination. Specific schems will be presented in Section 5.

IV. IMPACT OF FAULT FACTORS

In the system depicted in Fig. 1, when a single-phase ground fault occurs on the MN line, the fault characteristic ED_1 of relay R_1 varies with fault resistance and fault angle as presented in Fig. 5.



Fig. 5. Variation of ED₁ with fault factors.

From the results in Fig. 5, it is evident that fault resistance and fault angle have a significant impact on the fault characteristics. The larger the fault resistance, the smaller the amplitude of ED₁. When the fault angle is 90°, the amplitude of ED₁ is maximum, whereas it is minimum when the fault angle is 0°. In addition, extensive research suggests that ED₁ is a periodic even function of the fault angle, with a symmetry axis at $\theta_f = 90^\circ$, and a period from 0° to 180°.

Under weak fault conditions, the protection will fail. For instance, when the fault angle is close to 0° and the fault resistance is around 500 Ω , the amplitude of ED₁ is nearly 0. Directly using ED₁ to determine the fault direction can lead to incorrect judgments. Therefore, the impact of fault resistance

and fault angle must be considered in fault discrimination to enhance the reliability of fault detection.

V. PROTECTION SCHEME CONSIDERING FAULT FACTORS

A. S-transform

The continuous wavelet transform (CWT) of the signal g(t) is given by (12) [18], [19].

$$C(\tau, d) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)c(\tau - t, d) dt$$
(12)

with $c(\tau-t, d)$ denoting the fundamental wavelet, d representing the scale factor, and τ indicating the translation factor [20].

The S-transform of the signal g(t) is shown in (13).

$$S(\tau, f) = e^{i2\pi f\tau} C(\tau, d) \tag{13}$$

where f represents the frequency and i denotes the imaginary number. By substituting (12) into (13), the S-transform of g(t) is given as follows [21]:

$$S(\tau, f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)c(\tau - t, f)e^{-i2\pi ft} dt$$
(14)

$$c(\tau - t, f) = \frac{|f|}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp^{-\frac{f^2(\tau - t)^2}{2}}$$
(15)

where $c(\tau - t, f)$ is the Gaussian window function [22].

Let g[kT] (k= 0, 1, 2,..., N-1) be the discrete time series of the time-varying signal g(t). Here, N is the sum of sampling points, and T is the sampling interval. The discrete Fourier transform of g[kT] is denoted as X[n/NT], and then the discrete S-transform is shown in (16) and (17).

$$S[kT, \frac{n}{NT}] = \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} G[\frac{m+n}{NT}] e^{-2\pi^2 m^2/n^2 + i2\pi mk/N}, \quad n \neq 0$$
(16)

$$S[kT,0] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} g(\frac{m}{NT}), \quad n = 0$$
(17)

The result of the S-transform of the discrete time series g[kT] is a complex time-frequency matrix, expressed as the S-matrix $S_i[kT, \frac{n}{NT}]$. The S-transform energy at frequency f_i is defined as shown in (18).

$$E_{in} = \sum_{kT} \left(S_i \left[kT, \frac{n}{NT} \right] \right)^2 \tag{18}$$

The total transient energy of the signal at each frequency point is presented in (19).

$$E_n = \sum_{i} \sum_{kT} \left(S_i [kT, \frac{n}{NT}] \right)^2 = \sum_{i} E_{in}$$
(19)

The S-transform avoids the selection of the mother wavelet in the wavelet transform, and provides superior time-frequency localisation capability to extract the characteristics of transient signals at various frequency efficiently. Given that the S-transform energy in (19) effectively characterizes the energy of the TW in each frequency band, the proposed protection algorithm utilizes S-transform energy to extract the energy of fault-generated TW.

B. Proposed Protection Algorithm

In order to eliminate the influence of fault factors, the algorithm in this paper normalizes ED_1 and ED_2 to NED_1 and NED_2 , based on fault resistance and fault angle. The pertinent equations are presented in (20) and (21). Since NED_1 and NED_2 incorporate information about fault resistance and fault angle, using them to establish directional criteria can eliminate the impact of fault resistance and fault angle, thus

improving the reliability of relay directional discrimination.

$$NED_1 = \frac{1}{\lambda}ED_1$$
(20)

$$NED_2 = \frac{1}{\lambda}ED_2$$
 (21)

where λ represents the normalization coefficient, and its mathematical expression is given by (22).

$$\lambda = fit(R_f, \theta_f, ED, 'Biharmonic')$$
(22)

where R_f represents the fault resistance and θ_f represents the fault angle.

Therefore, the principle of improved directional pilot protection is:

1) If NED₁ > λ_{set} and NED₂ > λ_{set} , indicating that relays R₁ and R₂ have detected a forward fault, an internal fault in the MN line is confirmed.

2) Otherwise, there is no fault on the MN line.

To avoid disturbances such as sampling anomalies, the threshold λ_{set} should be set with some margin. Combined with simulation tests, in this algorithm, λ_{set} is set to 1500.

The directional pilot protection scheme considering fault factors is shown in Fig. 6.

The protection is triggered when the protection device detects a fault TW. At first, the fault voltage and current signals are sampled within a short data window. The phase-mode transform is applied to eliminate the coupling relationships among the three-phase signals, as illustrated in (23).

$$\begin{bmatrix} M_0 \\ M_\alpha \\ M_\beta \\ M_\gamma \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M_a \\ M_b \\ M_c \end{bmatrix}$$
(23)

where $M_{\rm a}$, $M_{\rm b}$, and $M_{\rm c}$ represent the three phase voltages or currents. M_{α} , M_{β} , and M_{γ} denote the three line-mode components and M_0 signifies the zero-mode component. The computational equations for forward and reverse TWs are shown in (24) and (25), respectively. Given that the line-mode components possesses the advantages of fast propagation speed and small attenuation, the algorithm calculates the directional TW using the α mode voltage and current components.

$$\Delta u_{\mathbf{f}}(t) = \frac{1}{2} [\Delta u(t) + Z_c \Delta i(t)]$$
(24)

$$\Delta u_{\mathbf{r}}(t) = \frac{1}{2} [\Delta u(t) - Z_c \Delta i(t)]$$
(25)

Secondly, the TW transient information is characterized by the S-transform, and the S-transform energies of the forward and reverse TWs are calculated using (19). Subsequently, ED_1 and ED_2 are calculated separately using (10) and (11).

Finally, based on fault resistance and fault angle, ED₁ and ED₂ are normalized to NED₁ and NED₂ respectively. The relevant formulas are given by (20) and (21). Relays R₁ and R₂ can determine the fault direction based on NED₁ and NED₂, respectively. The results of fault determination are exchanged through communication channels. If both R₁ and R₂ detect a fault in the forward direction, i.e. NED₁ > λ_{set} and NED₂ > λ_{set} , an internal fault on the MN line can be confirmed. Otherwise, it is an external fault.

C. Calculation of Fault Angle

Reference [23] proposed an impedance-based fault



Fig. 6. Scheme of the TW-based directional pilot protection.

location method for transmission lines. The mathematical formula utilizes a generalized equation to calculate the fault distance, and the calculated results are independent of the fault type. The proposed protection algorithm in this paper calculates the fault angle based on fault distance measurement, with a maximum computation error of 0.25%. The accuracy meets the requirements of this algorithm.

D. Calculation of Fault Resistance

In [24], a practical method based on fault record data was proposed for calculating fault resistance on transmission lines. In this paper, we applied this method to calculate the fault resistance with an error of less than 5%, meeting the accuracy requirements of this paper.



Fig. 7. Configuration of the MN line.

VI. SIMULATION AND ANALYSIS

A. Simulation System and Parameters

Based on the engineering parameters of the Pingwu project of Central China Power Grid, the transmission system presented in Fig. 1 was constructed in EMTP-RV. The transmission lines utilize frequency-dependent models. The lengths of lines LM, MN, and NR are 150 kilometers, 180 kilometers, and 120 kilometers, respectively. The parameters of Source 1 are $V_{S1} = 525 \angle 23.8^\circ$, $Z_{S11} = 0.635 + j7.258 \Omega$, $Z_{S10} = 1.674 + j18.565 \Omega$. The parameters of Source 2 are $V_{S2} = 525 \angle -16.2^\circ$, $Z_{S21} = 0.861 + j10.378 \Omega$, $Z_{S20} = 2.563 + j25.526 \Omega$. The parameters of Source 3 are $V_{S3} = 525 \angle 37.4^\circ$, $Z_{S31} = 0.545 + j8.612 \Omega$, $Z_{S30} = 1.973 + j19.462 \Omega$. The equivalent capacitance to ground for all buses is 0.01 µF [25]. The protected object is the MN line, with its parameters depicted in Fig. 7. The signal sampling rate is 200 kHz, and the data window *d* is 0.8 ms ($d < 2l_1/c$, $2l_2/c$, and $2l_3/c$).

B. Testing of Typical Faults

The fault resistance is 5 Ω , and the fault angle is 60°. A phase-to-ground fault of phase A was simulated 60 kilometers from bus M on the MN line. The fault-generated directional TW detected by relays R₁ and R₂ is shown in Fig. 8. As shown in Fig. 8, relays R₁ and R₂ simultaneously detected both forward and reverse TWs. Further calculations show that for relay R₁, NED₁ = 14666 and NED₁ > λ_{set} , indicating that R₁ identifies a forward fault. For relay R₂, NED₂ = 6023 and NED₂ > λ_{set} , indicating that R₂ identifies a forward fault. Combining the discrimination of relays R₁ and R₂, it is confirmed that there is an internal fault on the MN line, and the fault is correctly identified.

The fault resistance is 5 Ω , and the fault angle is 60°. A phase-to-ground fault of phase A was simulated 80 kilometers from bus N on the NR line. The fault-generated directional TW detected by relays R₁ and R₂ is shown in Fig. 9. As shown in Fig. 9, relay R₁ detected both forward and reverse TWs simultaneously, whereas relay R₂ initially detected only the forward TW. Further calculations show that for relay R₁, NED₁ = 4583 and NED₁ > λ_{set} , indicating that R₁ identifies a forward fault. For relay R₂, NED₂ = -10026 and NED₂ < λ_{set} , indicating that R₂ identifies a reverse fault. Therefore, it is correctly identified as an external fault.



Fig. 8. Simulation of an internal fault on MN line. (a) TW detected by $R_1;\,(b)$ TW detected by $R_2.$

C. Performance of the Proposed Method

1) Testing of Internal Faults on MN Line

The fault resistance is 1 Ω , and the fault angle is 2°. At 80 kilometres from bus M, a phase A ground fault occurs at point F₂ on the MN line. The fault characteristics NED₁ for R₁ and NED₂ for R₂ are depicted in Fig. 10.



Fig. 10. Fault at point F_2 , $R_f = 1 \Omega$, $\theta_f = 2^\circ$. (a) NED₁; (b) NED₂.

The maximum values of NED₁ and NED₂ for faults occurring at point F_2 under various fault angles and fault resistances are shown in Table I. Since NED₁ and NED₂ are periodic functions of the fault angle, Table I exclusively presents data for fault angles between 0° and 90° to conserve space.

As presented in Table I, for faults at F_2 with different fault resistances and fault angles, both NED₁ > λ_{set} and NED₂ > λ_{set} . Therefore, both R_1 and R_2 identify the faults in the forward direction, confirming internal faults on the MN line.



Fig. 9. Simulation of an external fault on NR line. (a) TW detected by $R_1;\,(b)$ TW detected by $R_2.$

 $TABLE \ I \\ Test results of point \ F_2 \ under \ various \ fault \ conditions.$

0.00	$R_f(\Omega)$							
$\theta_f(z)$	1	100	200	300	400	500		
NED ₁								
0	11806	15169	17692	19524	20769	25000		
2	13193	18315	21868	24750	28696	23706		
45	14034	19524	22553	24335	25348	25909		
90	14335	20041	23146	24860	25837	26366		
NED_2								
0	6097	7640	8718	9524	10769	12500		
2	6009	7978	9467	10500	12174	13333		
45	5781	7701	8707	9274	9589	9727		
90	5892	7932	9001	9559	9874	10030		

The fault resistance and fault angle are 5 Ω and 60°, respectively. The test results at various fault distances on the MN line are shown in Fig. 11.



Fig. 11. Test results of various fault distances on MN line. (a) $\mbox{NED}_1\mbox{;}$ (b) $\mbox{NED}_2\mbox{.}$

As shown in Fig. 11, both R_1 and R_2 correctly identify faults in the forward direction, i.e., NED₁ > λ_{set} and NED₂ > λ_{set} . Therefore, the relays can accurately detect internal faults on the MN line without being affected by the fault distance.

2) Testing of External Faults on LM Line

The fault resistance is 1 Ω , and the fault angle is 2°. At 60 kilometres from bus L, a phase A ground fault occurs at point F₁ on the LM line. The fault characteristics NED₁ for R₁ and NED₂ for R₂ are shown in Fig. 12.

When faults occur at point F_1 , under various fault resistance and fault angle conditions, the maximum values of NED₁ and NED₂ are depicted in Table II.

As presented in Table II, for faults at F_1 with various fault resistances and fault angles, where NED₁ < λ_{set} and NED₂ > λ_{set} . Therefore, the relay correctly identifies them as external faults.



Fig. 12. Fault at point F_1 , $R_f = 1 \Omega$, $\theta_f = 2^\circ$. (a) NED₁; (b) NED₂.

	TABLE II
	Test results of point F_1 under various fault conditions.
_	

0 (0)	$R_f(\Omega)$						
$\theta_f(\mathbf{c})$	1	100	200	300	400	500	
			NED_1				
0	-7258	-8202	-9231	-10000	-10769	-12500	
2	-7460	-8876	-9867	-10750	-12064	-13334	
45	-8256	-9682	-10357	-10706	-10854	-10864	
90	-8697	-10279	-11036	-11389	-11527	-11562	
NED ₂							
0	4516	5056	5641	5714	6923	7500	
2	5010	5669	6085	6404	6479	6809	
45	5009	5542	5753	5868	5882	5880	
90	4848	6168	5988	5554	5921	6036	

The fault resistance and fault angle are 5 Ω and 60°, respectively. The test results at various fault distances on the LM line are presented in Fig. 13. As shown in Fig. 13, for faults occurring at any position on the LM line, NED₁ < λ_{set} and NED₂ > λ_{set} . Therefore, the relays correctly identify them as external faults, unaffected by the fault distance.



Fig. 13. Test results of various fault distances on LM line. (a) $\mbox{NED}_1\mbox{;}$ (b) $\mbox{NED}_2\mbox{.}$

3) Testing of External Faults on NR Line

The fault resistance and the fault angle are 1 Ω and 2°, respectively. At 60 kilometres from bus N, a phase A ground fault occurs at point F₃ on the NR line. The fault characteristics NED₁ for R₁ and NED₂ for R₂ are shown in Fig. 14.





When faults occur at point F₃, under various fault resistance and fault angle conditions, the maximum values of NED₁ and NED₂ are depicted in Table III. As presented in Table III, for faults at F₃ with various fault resistances and fault angles, where NED₁ > λ_{set} and NED₂ < λ_{set} . Therefore, the relay correctly identifies them as external faults.

The fault resistance and fault angle are 5 Ω and 60°, respectively. The test results at various fault distances on the NR line are shown in Fig. 15. As shown in Fig. 15, for faults occurring at any position on the NR line, NED₁ > λ_{set} and NED₂ < λ_{set} . Consequently, the relays correctly recognise external faults, independent of the distance to the fault.

TABLE III TEST RESULTS OF POINT F3 UNDER VARIOUS FAULT CONDITIONS $R_f(\Omega)$ $\theta_f(^\circ)$ 1 100 200 300 400 500 NED₁ 0 2548 3146 3590 3810 4615 5000 2 3295 4551 5467 6000 6957 7333 45 7480 3847 5714 6812 7911 8091 90 4032 6126 7358 8077 8515 8769 NED₂ 0 -3323 -3933 -4615 -5238 -5385 -6250 2 -7200 -4340 -5955 -8000 -9131 -10002-9951 45 -6628 -11962 -13206 -14455 -1395690 -7488 -11490-13922 -15381 -16276 -16817



Fig. 15. Test results of various fault distances on NR line. (a) $\mbox{NED}_1\mbox{;}$ (b) $\mbox{NED}_2\mbox{.}$

4) Effect of Noise

There are various interference signals present in the power grid, and noise is an unavoidable factor in the process of TW transmission. At operational sites, protective devices are susceptible to various types of noise interference, which may lead to erroneous actions or a lack of response from TW-based protections. In order to evaluate the performance of the protection under noisy conditions, white noise interference with a Signal-to-Noise Ratio of 25 dB is added to the sampled signals at different fault points. Fig. 16 illustrates the forward and reverse TWs at F_3 , which is influenced by noise. The simulations for various fault conditions are listed in Table IV.

From the test results presented in Table IV, the amplitudes of NED₁ and NED₂ meet the protection criterion, even in the presence of 25 dB of sampling noise. NED₁ > λ_{set} and NED₂ < λ_{set} , i.e., the faults at point F₃ are correctly identified as external faults. Consequently, it can be demonstrated that the sampling noise will not have an impact on the correctness of the proposed methodology.

5) Effect of Source Impedance

The above simulation establishes the system's source impedance at a fixed value. However, in practice, the operational mode of the power system may change at any



Fig. 16 The sampled signal is contaminated with 25dB of white noise at the F_3 point fault. (a) TW at R_1 ; (b) TW at R_2 .

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Test results at point F_3 under 25 dB white noise interference.

A (°)	$R_f(\Omega)$						
$U_f(\cdot)$	1	100	200	300	400	500	
NED ₁							
0	2943	3407	3781	4006	4794	5401	
2	3465	4762	5490	5979	7169	7642	
45	4197	5894	7211	7688	8138	8125	
90	4558	6433	7643	8342	8637	9267	
NED_2							
0	-3742	-4138	-4832	-5691	-5749	-6358	
2	-4628	-6296	-7516	-8364	-9769	-10422	
45	-6837	-11070	-12650	-14656	-14201	-14295	
90	-7655	-13041	-14584	-15477	-17620	-17443	

TABLE V Test results at different source impedances.							
source impedance (S ₂)	Location	NED ₁	NED ₂	Analysis Result			
	F_1	-11279	6517	External			
50%	F ₂	24860	10038	Internal			
	F ₃	6369	-8390	External			
	F_1	-10750	6404	External			
100%	F_2	24750	10500	Internal			
	F ₃	6000	-8000	External			
	\mathbf{F}_1	-9743	6035	External			
200%	F_2	18711	9762	Internal			
	F ₃	5840	-7592	External			
	F_1	-9579	6148	External			
300%	F_2	18420	9439	Internal			
	F ₃	5736	-7622	External			

time. To evaluate the performance of the proposed protection under varying operational modes of the system, simulations were conducted while keeping all other conditions constant and altering the impedance value of the equivalent source S_2 . On the basis of the parameters given in Section 6.1, the value of the source impedance is varied from 50% to 300%. The fault angle and fault resistance are consistently set at 300 Ω and 2°, respectively. The simulation results for phase A ground faults are presented in Table V.

After altering the equivalent source impedance, the simulation data presented in Table V demonstrates that the fault direction can still be correctly identified based on the magnitudes of NED_1 and NED_2 . The results confirms that the proposed method is unaffected by changes in the system's operating mode.

6) Operation Time Analysis

The operating time of the protection is comprehensively influenced by the data window d, the execution time of the algorithm and the communication time. T_a is defined to be the time required from the appearance of the fault to the protection action, as defined in (28).

$$T_a = d + T_1 + T_2 \tag{28}$$

wherer T_1 represents the time required to execute the algorithm, and T_2 denotes the time taken for signal communication. The data window d is equal to $2l_{\min}/v$, and for general EHV transmission systems, d is less than 2.5 ms. The execution time of the algorithm is predominantly consumed by the Karenbauer phase-mode transform (27) and the S-transform (20), which nearly encompass 1497300 equivalent additions. The typical DSP chip has a computing power of more than 100 million instructions per second and can complete the computational task of the algorithm within 1.5 ms. Considering that the delay in an fiber optic communication system is approximately 4.8 microseconds per kilometer, the communication time for the normal EHV systems is less than 2 ms.

In conclusion, the proposed approach can signal the action of the protection device within 6 ms. Consequently, the high-speed TW protection will respond rapidly when a fault is detected in the transmission line.

7) Comparison with Existing Methods

To demonstrate the superiority of the proposed approach, we compared it with several existing methods from multiple perspectives, as shown in Table VI.

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A COMPARISON OF VARIOUS PROTECTION METHODS.						
Indexes	[5]	[7]	[14]	This paper		
Sampling rate (kHz)	1000	1000	400	200		
Rule-based	1	\checkmark	×	1		
fault angle = 0°	×	×	×	1		
Maximum fault resistance (Ω)	200	400	300	500		
Immune to noise	1	Ν	Ν	1		
Immune to source impedance	Ν	Ν	Ν	1		

Note: N denotes not researched or reported.

The conclusions can be drawn from the results presented above: 1) Compared with the methods in [5], [7], and [14], the proposed algorithm requires only a 200 kHz sampling rate, which greatly reduces the hardware costs. 2) Other methods exhibit a lack of reliability and low sensitivity at small fault angles and high fault resistances. In contrast, the method presented in this paper incorporates fault factors into the fault characteristics, making it robust against variations in fault angles and fault resistances. 3) The proposed approach is independent of noise and variations in source impedance, and it demonstrates high reliability.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a TW directional pilot protection considering fault factors is proposed. Firstly, this paper investigates the differences in directional TW energy during faults, establishing the fundamental principles of directional discrimination of relay. Secondly, based on simulation and analysis, this paper demonstrates the necessity for fault factors considering in fault discrimination. Subsequently, the protection algorithm considering fault factors is proposed, which normalizes the fault characteristics to the same fault condition. Finally, based on the engineering parameters of the Central China Power Grid, a simulation system is constructed in EMTP-RV. Extensive test results demonstrate that the proposed method can swiftly and reliably determine fault directions under various fault conditions. Compared to conventional protection schemes, the proposed approach offers the following advantages:

1) The normalized fault characteristic includes fault resistance and fault angle information, eliminating the influence of these two fault factors.

2) The S-transform effectively extracts the information of fault-generated TW.

3) Capable of reliably identifying faults under weak fault conditions.

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