



Technical collection

Electrical installation guide 2010

According to
IEC international
standards



Schneider
 **Electric**

This guide has been written for electrical Engineers who have to design, realize, inspect or maintain electrical installations in compliance with international Standards of the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC).

“Which technical solution will guarantee that all relevant safety rules are met?” This question has been a permanent guideline for the elaboration of this document.

An international Standard such as the IEC 60364 “Electrical Installation in Buildings” specifies extensively the rules to comply with to ensure safety and predicted operational characteristics for all types of electrical installations. As the Standard must be extensive, and has to be applicable to all types of products and the technical solutions in use worldwide, the text of the IEC rules is complex, and not presented in a ready-to-use order. The Standard cannot therefore be considered as a working handbook, but only as a reference document.

The aim of the present guide is to provide a clear, practical and step-by-step explanation for the complete study of an electrical installation, according to IEC 60364 and other relevant IEC Standards. Therefore, the first chapter (B) presents the methodology to be used, and each chapter deals with one out of the eight steps of the study. The two last chapters are devoted to particular supply sources, loads and locations, and appendix provides additional information. Special attention must be paid to the EMC appendix, which is based on the broad and practical experience on electromagnetic compatibility problems.

We all hope that you, the user, will find this handbook genuinely helpful.

Schneider Electric S.A.

This technical guide is the result of a collective effort.

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The Electrical Installation Guide is a single document covering the techniques, regulations and standards related to electrical installations. It is intended for electrical professionals in companies, design offices, inspection organisations, etc.

This Technical Guide is aimed at professional users and is only intended to provide them guidelines for the definition of an industrial, tertiary or domestic electrical installation. Information and guidelines contained in this Guide are provided AS IS. Schneider Electric makes no warranty of any kind, whether express or implied, such as but not limited to the warranties of merchantability and fitness for a particular purpose, nor assumes any legal liability or responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any information, apparatus, product, or process disclosed in this Guide, nor represents that its use would not infringe privately owned rights.

The purpose of this guide is to facilitate the implementation of International installation standards for designers & contractors, but in all cases the original text of International or local standards in force shall prevail.

This new edition has been published to take into account changes in techniques, standards and regulations, in particular electrical installation standard IEC 60364.

We thank all the readers of the previous edition of this guide for their comments that have helped improve the current edition.
We also thank the many people and organisations, too numerous to name here, who have contributed in one way or another to the preparation of this guide.

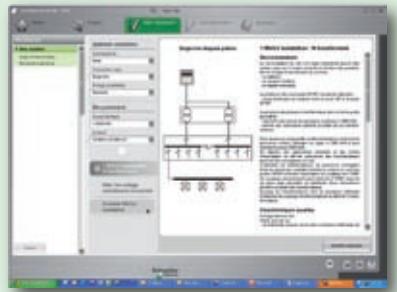
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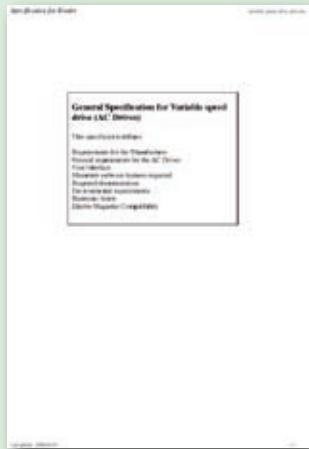
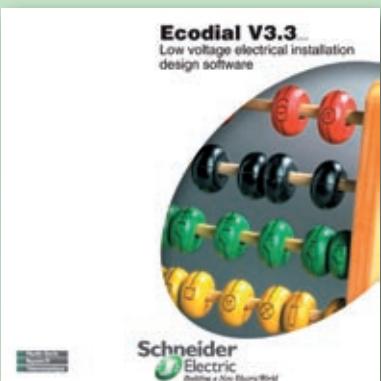
This guide has been realized by a team of experienced international experts, on the base of IEC 60364 standard, and include the latest developments in electrical standardization.

We shall mention particularly the following experts and their area of expertise:

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Matthieu	Guillot	F, H
Michel	Sacotte	B

Guiding tools for more efficiency in electrical distribution design

Technical knowledge	Pre-design help for budget approach
10-30mn eLearning modules for individual training	Selection criterias & method to follow in order to pre-define project specification: <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Architecture guide■ ID-Spec software
	 <p>Solutions and examples with recommended architectures in Solution guides:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ airport■ automotive■ food■ retail■ office■ industrial buildings■ healthcare■ water■ ...

Design support	Specification help	Help in installation, use & maintenance
<p>Practical data & methods through major design guides:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Electrical Installation Guide ■ Protection guide ■ Industrial electrical network design guide ■ ... 	<p>Technical specification on products & solutions for tender request</p> 	<p>Product installation data</p> <p>Product how to use data</p>
<p>Product presentation of technical characteristics in all Schneider Electric product Catalogues</p>		<p>Product maintenance data</p> 
<p>Design Software:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ My Ecodial <p>Ecodial software provides a complete design package for LV installations, in accordance with IEC standards and recommendations.</p> <p>Main features:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Create diagrams □ Optimise circuit breakers curves □ Determine source power □ Follow step by step calculation □ Print the project design file ■ SISPRO building ■ ... 		
<p>Drawing source files for connection, dimension, diagram, mounting & safety: CAD library</p>		

Electrical installation guide 2010

Foreword



Etienne TISON, International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) TC64 Chairman.

The task of the IEC Technical Committee 64 is to develop and keep up-to-date requirements

- for the protection of persons against electrical shock, and
- for the design, verification and implementation of low voltage electrical installations.

Standard such as IEC 60364 developed by IEC TC64 is considered by the international community as the basis of the majority of national low voltage wiring rules.

IEC 60364 is mainly focussed on safety due the use of electricity by people who may not be aware of risk resulting from the use of electricity.

But modern electrical installations are increasingly complex, due to external input such as

- electromagnetic disturbances
- energy efficiency
- ...

Consequently, designers, installers and consumers need guidance on the selection and installation of electrical equipment.

Schneider Electric has developed this Electrical Installation Guide dedicated to low voltage electrical installations. It is based on IEC TC64 standards such as IEC 60364 and provides additional information in order to help designers, contractors and controllers for implementing correct low-voltage electrical installations.

As TC64 Chairman, it is my great pleasure and honour to introduce this guide. I am sure it will be used fruitfully by all persons involved in the implementation of all low-voltage electrical installations.

Etienne TISON

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Etienne TISON".

Etienne TISON has been working with Schneider Electric since 1978. He has been always involved in various activities in low voltage field.

In 2008, Etienne TISON has been appointed Chairman of IEC TC64 as well as Chairman of CENELEC TC64.

General rules of electrical installation design

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B

Connection to the LV utility distribution network

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MV & LV architecture selection guide

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Chapter A

General rules of electrical installation design

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For the best results in electrical installation design it is recommended to read all the chapters of this guide in the order in which they are presented.

A - General rules of electrical installation design**Listing of power demands**

The study of a proposed electrical installation requires an adequate understanding of all governing rules and regulations.

The total power demand can be calculated from the data relative to the location and power of each load, together with the knowledge of the operating modes (steady state demand, starting conditions, non simultaneous operation, etc.)

From these data, the power required from the supply source and (where appropriate) the number of sources necessary for an adequate supply to the installation are readily obtained.

Local information regarding tariff structures is also required to allow the best choice of connection arrangement to the power-supply network, e.g. at medium voltage or low voltage level.

Service connection

This connection can be made at:

- Medium Voltage level

A consumer-type substation will then have to be studied, built and equipped. This substation may be an outdoor or indoor installation conforming to relevant standards and regulations (the low-voltage section may be studied separately if necessary). Metering at medium-voltage or low-voltage is possible in this case.

- Low Voltage level

The installation will be connected to the local power network and will (necessarily) be metered according to LV tariffs.

B - Connection to the MV utility distribution network**C - Connection to the LV utility distribution network****D - MV & LV architecture selection guide****E - LV Distribution****F - Protection against electric shocks****G - Sizing and protection of conductors****H - LV switchgear: functions & selection****Electrical Distribution architecture**

The whole installation distribution network is studied as a complete system.

A selection guide is proposed for determination of the most suitable architecture. MV/LV main distribution and LV power distribution levels are covered.

Neutral earthing arrangements are chosen according to local regulations, constraints related to the power-supply, and to the type of loads.

The distribution equipment (panelboards, switchgears, circuit connections, ...) are determined from building plans and from the location and grouping of loads.

The type of premises and allocation can influence their immunity to external disturbances.

Protection against electric shocks

The earthing system (TT, IT or TN) having been previously determined, then the appropriate protective devices must be implemented in order to achieve protection against hazards of direct or indirect contact.

Circuits and switchgear

Each circuit is then studied in detail. From the rated currents of the loads, the level of short-circuit current, and the type of protective device, the cross-sectional area of circuit conductors can be determined, taking into account the nature of the cableways and their influence on the current rating of conductors.

Before adopting the conductor size indicated above, the following requirements must be satisfied:

- The voltage drop complies with the relevant standard
- Motor starting is satisfactory
- Protection against electric shock is assured

The short-circuit current I_{sc} is then determined, and the thermal and electrodynamic withstand capability of the circuit is checked.

These calculations may indicate that it is necessary to use a conductor size larger than the size originally chosen.

The performance required by the switchgear will determine its type and characteristics.

The use of cascading techniques and the discriminative operation of fuses and tripping of circuit breakers are examined.

J – Protection against voltage surges in LV

Protection against overvoltages

Direct or indirect lightning strokes can damage electrical equipment at a distance of several kilometers. Operating voltage surges, transient and industrial frequency over-voltage can also produce the same consequences. The effects are examined and solutions are proposed.

K – Energy efficiency in electrical distribution

Energy efficiency in electrical distribution

Implementation of measuring devices with an adequate communication system within the electrical installation can produce high benefits for the user or owner: reduced power consumption, reduced cost of energy, better use of electrical equipment.

L - Power factor correction and harmonic filtering

Reactive energy

The power factor correction within electrical installations is carried out locally, globally or as a combination of both methods.

M - Harmonic management

Harmonics

Harmonics in the network affect the quality of energy and are at the origin of many disturbances as overloads, vibrations, ageing of equipment, trouble of sensitive equipment, of local area networks, telephone networks. This chapter deals with the origins and the effects of harmonics and explain how to measure them and present the solutions.

N - Characteristics of particular sources and loads

Particular supply sources and loads

Particular items or equipment are studied:

- Specific sources such as alternators or inverters
- Specific loads with special characteristics, such as induction motors, lighting circuits or LV/LV transformers
- Specific systems, such as direct-current networks

P - Photovoltaic Installations

A green and economical energy

The solar energy development has to respect specific installation rules.

Q - Residential and other special locations

Generic applications

Certain premises and locations are subject to particularly strict regulations: the most common example being residential dwellings.

R - EMC guidelines

EMC Guidelines

Some basic rules must be followed in order to ensure Electromagnetic Compatibility. Non observance of these rules may have serious consequences in the operation of the electrical installation: disturbance of communication systems, nuisance tripping of protection devices, and even destruction of sensitive devices.

A companion tool of the Electrical Installation Guide

Ecodial software

Ecodial software⁽¹⁾ provides a complete design package for LV installations, in accordance with IEC standards and recommendations.

The following features are included:

- Construction of one-line diagrams
- Calculation of short-circuit currents
- Calculation of voltage drops
- Optimization of cable sizes
- Required ratings of switchgear and fusegear
- Discrimination of protective devices
- Recommendations for cascading schemes
- Verification of the protection of people
- Comprehensive print-out of the foregoing calculated design data

(1) Ecodial is a Merlin Gerin product and is available in French and English versions.

Low-voltage installations are governed by a number of regulatory and advisory texts, which may be classified as follows:

- Statutory regulations (decrees, factory acts, etc.)
- Codes of practice, regulations issued by professional institutions, job specifications
- National and international standards for installations
- National and international standards for products

2.1 Definition of voltage ranges

IEC voltage standards and recommendations

Three-phase four-wire or three-wire systems		Single-phase three-wire systems
Nominal voltage (V)	60 Hz	Nominal voltage (V)
50 Hz	60 Hz	60 Hz
—	120/208	120/240
—	240	—
230/400 ⁽¹⁾	277/480	—
400/690 ⁽¹⁾	480	—
—	347/600	—
1000	600	—

(1) The nominal voltage of existing 220/380 V and 240/415 V systems shall evolve toward the recommended value of 230/400 V. The transition period should be as short as possible and should not exceed the year 2003. During this period, as a first step, the electricity supply authorities of countries having 220/380 V systems should bring the voltage within the range 230/400 V +6 %, -10 % and those of countries having 240/415 V systems should bring the voltage within the range 230/400 V +10 %, -6 %. At the end of this transition period, the tolerance of 230/400 V ± 10 % should have been achieved; after this the reduction of this range will be considered. All the above considerations apply also to the present 380/660 V value with respect to the recommended value 400/690 V.

Fig. A1 : Standard voltages between 100 V and 1000 V (IEC 60038 Edition 6.2 2002-07)

Series I Highest voltage for equipment (kV)	Nominal system voltage (kV)		Series II Highest voltage for equipment (kV)	Nominal system voltage (kV)
3.6 ⁽¹⁾	3.3 ⁽¹⁾	3 ⁽¹⁾	4.40 ⁽¹⁾	4.16 ⁽¹⁾
7.2 ⁽¹⁾	6.6 ⁽¹⁾	6 ⁽¹⁾	—	—
12	11	10	—	—
—	—	—	13.2 ⁽²⁾	12.47 ⁽²⁾
—	—	—	13.97 ⁽²⁾	13.2 ⁽²⁾
—	—	—	14.52 ⁽¹⁾	13.8 ⁽¹⁾
(17.5)	—	(15)	—	—
24	22	20	—	—
—	—	—	26.4 ⁽²⁾	24.94 ⁽²⁾
36 ⁽³⁾	33 ⁽³⁾	—	—	—
—	—	—	36.5	34.5
40.5 ⁽³⁾	—	35 ⁽³⁾	—	—

These systems are generally three-wire systems unless otherwise indicated.
The values indicated are voltages between phases.

The values indicated in parentheses should be considered as non-preferred values. It is recommended that these values should not be used for new systems to be constructed in future.

Note 1: It is recommended that in any one country the ratio between two adjacent nominal voltages should be not less than two.

Note 2: In a normal system of Series I, the highest voltage and the lowest voltage do not differ by more than approximately ±10 % from the nominal voltage of the system. In a normal system of Series II, the highest voltage does not differ by more than +5 % and the lowest voltage by more than -10 % from the nominal voltage of the system.

(1) These values should not be used for public distribution systems.

(2) These systems are generally four-wire systems.

(3) The unification of these values is under consideration.

Fig. A2 : Standard voltages above 1 kV and not exceeding 35 kV (IEC 60038 Edition 6.2 2002-07)

2.2 Regulations

In most countries, electrical installations shall comply with more than one set of regulations, issued by National Authorities or by recognized private bodies. It is essential to take into account these local constraints before starting the design.

2.3 Standards

This Guide is based on relevant IEC standards, in particular IEC 60364. IEC 60364 has been established by medical and engineering experts of all countries in the world comparing their experience at an international level. Currently, the safety principles of IEC 60364 and 60479-1 are the fundamentals of most electrical standards in the world (see table below and next page).

IEC 60038	Standard voltages
IEC 60076-2	Power transformers - Temperature rise
IEC 60076-3	Power transformers - Insulation levels, dielectric tests and external clearances in air
IEC 60076-5	Power transformers - Ability to withstand short-circuit
IEC 60076-10	Power transformers - Determination of sound levels
IEC 60146	Semiconductor converters - General requirements and line commutated convertors
IEC 60255	Electrical relays
IEC 60265-1	High-voltage switches - High-voltage switches for rated voltages above 1 kV and less than 52 kV
IEC 60269-1	Low-voltage fuses - General requirements
IEC 60269-2	Low-voltage fuses - Supplementary requirements for fuses for use by unskilled persons (fuses mainly for household and similar applications)
IEC 60282-1	High-voltage fuses - Current-limiting fuses
IEC 60287-1-1	Electric cables - Calculation of the current rating - Current rating equations (100% load factor) and calculation of losses - General
IEC 60364	Electrical installations of buildings
IEC 60364-1	Electrical installations of buildings - Fundamental principles
IEC 60364-4-41	Electrical installations of buildings - Protection for safety - Protection against electric shock
IEC 60364-4-42	Electrical installations of buildings - Protection for safety - Protection against thermal effects
IEC 60364-4-43	Electrical installations of buildings - Protection for safety - Protection against overcurrent
IEC 60364-4-44	Electrical installations of buildings - Protection for safety - Protection against electromagnetic and voltage disturbance
IEC 60364-5-51	Electrical installations of buildings - Selection and erection of electrical equipment - Common rules
IEC 60364-5-52	Electrical installations of buildings - Selection and erection of electrical equipment - Wiring systems
IEC 60364-5-53	Electrical installations of buildings - Selection and erection of electrical equipment - Isolation, switching and control
IEC 60364-5-54	Electrical installations of buildings - Selection and erection of electrical equipment - Earthing arrangements
IEC 60364-5-55	Electrical installations of buildings - Selection and erection of electrical equipment - Other equipments
IEC 60364-6-61	Electrical installations of buildings - Verification and testing - Initial verification
IEC 60364-7-701	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Locations containing a bath tub or shower basin
IEC 60364-7-702	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Swimming pools and other basins
IEC 60364-7-703	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Locations containing sauna heaters
IEC 60364-7-704	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Construction and demolition site installations
IEC 60364-7-705	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Electrical installations of agricultural and horticultural premises
IEC 60364-7-706	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Restrictive conducting locations
IEC 60364-7-707	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Earthing requirements for the installation of data processing equipment
IEC 60364-7-708	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Electrical installations in caravan parks and caravans
IEC 60364-7-709	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Marinas and pleasure craft
IEC 60364-7-710	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Medical locations
IEC 60364-7-711	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Exhibitions, shows and stands
IEC 60364-7-712	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Solar photovoltaic (PV) power supply systems
IEC 60364-7-713	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Furniture
IEC 60364-7-714	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - External lighting installations
IEC 60364-7-715	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Extra-low-voltage lighting installations
IEC 60364-7-717	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Mobile or transportable units
IEC 60364-7-740	Electrical installations of buildings - Requirements for special installations or locations - Temporary electrical installations for structures, amusement devices and booths at fairgrounds, amusement parks and circuses
IEC 60427	High-voltage alternating current circuit-breakers
IEC 60439-1	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies - Type-tested and partially type-tested assemblies
IEC 60439-2	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies - Particular requirements for busbar trunking systems (busways)
IEC 60439-3	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies - Particular requirements for low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies intended to be installed in places where unskilled persons have access for their use - Distribution boards
IEC 60439-4	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies - Particular requirements for assemblies for construction sites (ACS)
IEC 60446	Basic and safety principles for man-machine interface, marking and identification - Identification of conductors by colours or numerals
IEC 60439-5	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies - Particular requirements for assemblies intended to be installed outdoors in public places - Cable distribution cabinets (CDCs)
IEC 60479-1	Effects of current on human beings and livestock - General aspects
IEC 60479-2	Effects of current on human beings and livestock - Special aspects
IEC 60479-3	Effects of current on human beings and livestock - Effects of currents passing through the body of livestock

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IEC 60529	Degrees of protection provided by enclosures (IP code)
IEC 60644	Spécification for high-voltage fuse-links for motor circuit applications
IEC 60664	Insulation coordination for equipment within low-voltage systems
IEC 60715	Dimensions of low-voltage switchgear and controlgear. Standardized mounting on rails for mechanical support of electrical devices in switchgear and controlgear installations.
IEC 60724	Short-circuit temperature limits of electric cables with rated voltages of 1 kV ($U_m = 1.2 \text{ kV}$) and 3 kV ($U_m = 3.6 \text{ kV}$)
IEC 60755	General requirements for residual current operated protective devices
IEC 60787	Application guide for the selection of fuse-links of high-voltage fuses for transformer circuit application
IEC 60831	Shunt power capacitors of the self-healing type for AC systems having a rated voltage up to and including 1000 V - General - Performance, testing and rating - Safety requirements - Guide for installation and operation
IEC 60947-1	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear - General rules
IEC 60947-2	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear - Circuit-breakers
IEC 60947-3	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear - Switches, disconnectors, switch-disconnectors and fuse-combination units
IEC 60947-4-1	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear - Contactors and motor-starters - Electromechanical contactors and motor-starters
IEC 60947-6-1	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear - Multiple function equipment - Automatic transfer switching equipment
IEC 61000	Electromagnetic compatibility (EMC)
IEC 61140	Protection against electric shocks - common aspects for installation and equipment
IEC 61557-1	Electrical safety in low-voltage distribution systems up to 1000 V AC and 1500 V DC - Equipment for testing, measuring or monitoring of protective measures - General requirements
IEC 61557-8	Electrical safety in low-voltage distribution systems up to 1000 V AC and 1500 V DC - Equipment for testing, measuring or monitoring of protective measures
IEC 61557-9	Electrical safety in low-voltage distribution systems up to 1000 V AC and 1500 V DC - Equipment for insulation fault location in IT systems
IEC 61557-12	Electrical safety in low-voltage distribution systems up to 1000 V AC and 1500 V DC - Equipment for testing, measuring or monitoring of protective measures. Performance measuring and monitoring devices (PMD)
IEC 61558-2-6	Safety of power transformers, power supply units and similar - Particular requirements for safety isolating transformers for general use
IEC 62271-1	Common specifications for high-voltage switchgear and controlgear standards
IEC 62271-100	High-voltage switchgear and controlgear - High-voltage alternating-current circuit-breakers
IEC 62271-102	High-voltage switchgear and controlgear - Alternating current disconnectors and earthing switches
IEC 62271-105	High-voltage switchgear and controlgear - Alternating current switch-fuse combinations
IEC 62271-200	High-voltage switchgear and controlgear - Alternating current metal-enclosed switchgear and controlgear for rated voltages above 1 kV and up to and including 52 kV
IEC 62271-202	High-voltage/low voltage prefabricated substations

(Concluded)

2.4 Quality and safety of an electrical installation

In so far as control procedures are respected, quality and safety will be assured only if:

- The initial checking of conformity of the electrical installation with the standard and regulation has been achieved
- The electrical equipment comply with standards
- The periodic checking of the installation recommended by the equipment manufacturer is respected.

2.5 Initial testing of an installation

Before a utility will connect an installation to its supply network, strict pre-commissioning electrical tests and visual inspections by the authority, or by its appointed agent, must be satisfied.

These tests are made according to local (governmental and/or institutional) regulations, which may differ slightly from one country to another. The principles of all such regulations however, are common, and are based on the observance of rigorous safety rules in the design and realization of the installation.

IEC 60364-6-61 and related standards included in this guide are based on an international consensus for such tests, intended to cover all the safety measures and approved installation practices normally required for residential, commercial and (the majority of) industrial buildings. Many industries however have additional regulations related to a particular product (petroleum, coal, natural gas, etc.). Such additional requirements are beyond the scope of this guide.

The pre-commissioning electrical tests and visual-inspection checks for installations in buildings include, typically, all of the following:

- Insulation tests of all cable and wiring conductors of the fixed installation, between phases and between phases and earth
- Continuity and conductivity tests of protective, equipotential and earth-bonding conductors
- Resistance tests of earthing electrodes with respect to remote earth
- Verification of the proper operation of the interlocks, if any
- Check of allowable number of socket-outlets per circuit

- Cross-sectional-area check of all conductors for adequacy at the short-circuit levels prevailing, taking account of the associated protective devices, materials and installation conditions (in air, conduit, etc.)
- Verification that all exposed- and extraneous metallic parts are properly earthed (where appropriate)
- Check of clearance distances in bathrooms, etc.

These tests and checks are basic (but not exhaustive) to the majority of installations, while numerous other tests and rules are included in the regulations to cover particular cases, for example: TN-, TT- or IT-earthed installations, installations based on class 2 insulation, SELV circuits, and special locations, etc.

The aim of this guide is to draw attention to the particular features of different types of installation, and to indicate the essential rules to be observed in order to achieve a satisfactory level of quality, which will ensure safe and trouble-free performance. The methods recommended in this guide, modified if necessary to comply with any possible variation imposed by a utility, are intended to satisfy all precommissioning test and inspection requirements.

2.6 Periodic check-testing of an installation

In many countries, all industrial and commercial-building installations, together with installations in buildings used for public gatherings, must be re-tested periodically by authorized agents.

Figure A3 shows the frequency of testing commonly prescribed according to the kind of installation concerned.

Type of installation	Testing frequency
Installations which require the protection of employees	Annually
	Other cases
Installations in buildings used for public gatherings, where protection against the risks of fire and panic are required	From one to three years
Residential	According to local regulations

Fig A3 : Frequency of check-tests commonly recommended for an electrical installation

Conformity of equipment with the relevant standards can be attested in several ways

2.7 Conformity (with standards and specifications) of equipment used in the installation

Attestation of conformity

The conformity of equipment with the relevant standards can be attested:

- By an official mark of conformity granted by the certification body concerned, or
- By a certificate of conformity issued by a certification body, or
- By a declaration of conformity from the manufacturer

The first two solutions are generally not available for high voltage equipment.

Declaration of conformity

Where the equipment is to be used by skilled or instructed persons, the manufacturer's declaration of conformity (included in the technical documentation), is generally recognized as a valid attestation. Where the competence of the manufacturer is in doubt, a certificate of conformity can reinforce the manufacturer's declaration.

Note: CE marking

In Europe, the European directives require the manufacturer or his authorized representative to affix the CE marking on his own responsibility. It means that:

- The product meets the legal requirements
- It is presumed to be marketable in Europe

The CE marking is neither a mark of origin nor a mark of conformity.

Mark of conformity

Marks of conformity are affixed on appliances and equipment generally used by ordinary non instructed people (e.g in the field of domestic appliances). A mark of conformity is delivered by certification body if the equipment meet the requirements from an applicable standard and after verification of the manufacturer's quality management system.

Certification of Quality

The standards define several methods of quality assurance which correspond to different situations rather than to different levels of quality.

Assurance

A laboratory for testing samples cannot certify the conformity of an entire production run: these tests are called type tests. In some tests for conformity to standards, the samples are destroyed (tests on fuses, for example).

Only the manufacturer can certify that the fabricated products have, in fact, the characteristics stated.

Quality assurance certification is intended to complete the initial declaration or certification of conformity.

As proof that all the necessary measures have been taken for assuring the quality of production, the manufacturer obtains certification of the quality control system which monitors the fabrication of the product concerned. These certificates are issued by organizations specializing in quality control, and are based on the international standard ISO 9001: 2000.

These standards define three model systems of quality assurance control corresponding to different situations rather than to different levels of quality:

- Model 3 defines assurance of quality by inspection and checking of final products.
- Model 2 includes, in addition to checking of the final product, verification of the manufacturing process. For example, this method is applied, to the manufacturer of fuses where performance characteristics cannot be checked without destroying the fuse.
- Model 1 corresponds to model 2, but with the additional requirement that the quality of the design process must be rigorously scrutinized; for example, where it is not intended to fabricate and test a prototype (case of a custom-built product made to specification).

2.8 Environment

Environmental management systems can be certified by an independent body if they meet requirements given in ISO 14001. This type of certification mainly concerns industrial settings but can also be granted to places where products are designed.

A product environmental design sometimes called "eco-design" is an approach of sustainable development with the objective of designing products/services best meeting the customers' requirements while reducing their environmental impact over their whole life cycle. The methodologies used for this purpose lead to choose equipment's architecture together with components and materials taking into account the influence of a product on the environment along its life cycle (from extraction of raw materials to scrap) i.e. production, transport, distribution, end of life etc.

In Europe two Directives have been published, they are called:

- RoHS Directive (Restriction of Hazardous Substances) coming into force on July 2006 (the coming into force was on February 13th, 2003, and the application date is July 1st, 2006) aims to eliminate from products six hazardous substances: lead, mercury, cadmium, hexavalent chromium, polybrominated biphenyls (PBB) or polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE).

■ WEEE Directive (Waste of Electrical and Electronic Equipment) coming into force in August 2005 (the coming into force was on February 13th, 2003, and the application date is August 13th, 2005) in order to master the end of life and treatments for household and non household equipment.

In other parts of the world some new legislation will follow the same objectives.

In addition to manufacturers action in favour of products eco-design, the contribution of the whole electrical installation to sustainable development can be significantly improved through the design of the installation. Actually, it has been shown that an optimised design of the installation, taking into account operation conditions, MV/LV substations location and distribution structure (switchboards, busways, cables), can reduce substantially environmental impacts (raw material depletion, energy depletion, end of life)

See chapter D about location of the substation and the main LV switchboard.

3 Installed power loads - Characteristics

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An examination of the actual apparent-power demands of different loads: a necessary preliminary step in the design of a LV installation

The nominal power in kW (P_n) of a motor indicates its rated equivalent mechanical power output.

The apparent power in kVA (P_a) supplied to the motor is a function of the output, the motor efficiency and the power factor.

$$P_a = \frac{P_n}{\eta \cos \varphi}$$

The examination of actual values of apparent-power required by each load enables the establishment of:

- A declared power demand which determines the contract for the supply of energy
- The rating of the MV/LV transformer, where applicable (allowing for expected increased load)
- Levels of load current at each distribution board

3.1 Induction motors

Current demand

The full-load current I_a supplied to the motor is given by the following formulae:

- 3-phase motor: $I_a = P_n \times 1,000 / (\sqrt{3} \times U \times \eta \times \cos \varphi)$
- 1-phase motor: $I_a = P_n \times 1,000 / (U \times \eta \times \cos \varphi)$

where

I_a : current demand (in amps)

P_n : nominal power (in kW)

U : voltage between phases for 3-phase motors and voltage between the terminals for single-phase motors (in volts). A single-phase motor may be connected phase-to-neutral or phase-to-phase.

η : per-unit efficiency, i.e. output kW / input kW

$\cos \varphi$: power factor, i.e. kW input / kVA input

Subtransient current and protection setting

- Subtransient current peak value can be very high ; typical value is about 12 to 15 times the rms rated value I_{nm} . Sometimes this value can reach 25 times I_{nm} .
- Schneider Electric circuit-breakers, contactors and thermal relays are designed to withstand motor starts with very high subtransient current (subtransient peak value can be up to 19 times the rms rated value I_{nm}).
- If unexpected tripping of the overcurrent protection occurs during starting, this means the starting current exceeds the normal limits. As a result, some maximum switchgear withstands can be reached, life time can be reduced and even some devices can be destroyed. In order to avoid such a situation, oversizing of the switchgear must be considered.
- Schneider Electric switchgears are designed to ensure the protection of motor starters against short-circuits. According to the risk, tables show the combination of circuit-breaker, contactor and thermal relay to obtain type 1 or type 2 coordination (see chapter N).

Motor starting current

Although high efficiency motors can be found on the market, in practice their starting currents are roughly the same as some of standard motors.

The use of start-delta starter, static soft start unit or variable speed drive allows to reduce the value of the starting current (Example : 4 I_a instead of 7.5 I_a).

Compensation of reactive-power (kvar) supplied to induction motors

It is generally advantageous for technical and financial reasons to reduce the current supplied to induction motors. This can be achieved by using capacitors without affecting the power output of the motors.

The application of this principle to the operation of induction motors is generally referred to as "power-factor improvement" or "power-factor correction".

As discussed in chapter L, the apparent power (kVA) supplied to an induction motor can be significantly reduced by the use of shunt-connected capacitors. Reduction of input kVA means a corresponding reduction of input current (since the voltage remains constant).

Compensation of reactive-power is particularly advised for motors that operate for long periods at reduced power.

As noted above $\cos \varphi = \frac{\text{kW input}}{\text{kVA input}}$ so that a kVA input reduction will increase (i.e. improve) the value of $\cos \varphi$.

3 Installed power loads - Characteristics

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The current supplied to the motor, after power-factor correction, is given by:

$$I = I_a \frac{\cos \varphi}{\cos \varphi'}$$

where $\cos \varphi$ is the power factor before compensation and $\cos \varphi'$ is the power factor after compensation, I_a being the original current.

Figure A4 below shows, in function of motor rated power, standard motor current values for several voltage supplies.

kW	hp	230 V	380 - 415 V	400 V	440 - 480 V	500 V	690 V
		A	A	A	A	A	A
0.18	-	1.0	-	0.6	-	0.48	0.35
0.25	-	1.5	-	0.85	-	0.68	0.49
0.37	-	1.9	-	1.1	-	0.88	0.64
-	1/2	-	1.3	-	1.1	-	-
0.55	-	2.6	-	1.5	-	1.2	0.87
-	3/4	-	1.8	-	1.6	-	-
-	1	-	2.3	-	2.1	-	-
0.75	-	3.3	-	1.9	-	1.5	1.1
1.1	-	4.7	-	2.7	-	2.2	1.6
-	1-1/2	-	3.3	-	3.0	-	-
-	2	-	4.3	-	3.4	-	-
1.5	-	6.3	-	3.6	-	2.9	2.1
2.2	-	8.5	-	4.9	-	3.9	2.8
-	3	-	6.1	-	4.8	-	-
3.0	-	11.3	-	6.5	-	5.2	3.8
3.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	-	15	9.7	8.5	7.6	6.8	4.9
5.5	-	20	-	11.5	-	9.2	6.7
-	7-1/2	-	14.0	-	11.0	-	-
-	10	-	18.0	-	14.0	-	-
7.5	-	27	-	15.5	-	12.4	8.9
11	-	38.0	-	22.0	-	17.6	12.8
-	15	-	27.0	-	21.0	-	-
-	20	-	34.0	-	27.0	-	-
15	-	51	-	29	-	23	17
18.5	-	61	-	35	-	28	21
-	25	-	44	-	34	-	-
22	-	72	-	41	-	33	24
-	30	-	51	-	40	-	-
-	40	-	66	-	52	-	-
30	-	96	-	55	-	44	32
37	-	115	-	66	-	53	39
-	50	-	83	-	65	-	-
-	60	-	103	-	77	-	-
45	-	140	-	80	-	64	47
55	-	169	-	97	-	78	57
-	75	-	128	-	96	-	-
-	100	-	165	-	124	-	-
75	-	230	-	132	-	106	77
90	-	278	-	160	-	128	93
-	125	-	208	-	156	-	-
110	-	340	-	195	-	156	113
-	150	-	240	-	180	-	-
132	-	400	-	230	-	184	134
-	200	-	320	-	240	-	-
150	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
160	-	487	-	280	-	224	162
185	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	250	-	403	-	302	-	-
200	-	609	-	350	-	280	203
220	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	300	-	482	-	361	-	-
250	-	748	-	430	-	344	250
280	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
-	350	-	560	-	414	-	-
-	400	-	636	-	474	-	-
300	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Fig. A4 : Rated operational power and currents (continued on next page)

kW	hp	230 V	380 - 415 V	400 V	440 - 480 V	500 V	690 V
		A	A	A	A	A	A
315	-	940	-	540	-	432	313
-	540	-	-	-	515	-	-
335	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
355	-	1061	-	610	-	488	354
-	500	-	786	-	590	-	-
375	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
400	-	1200	-	690	-	552	400
425	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
450	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
475	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
500	-	1478	-	850	-	680	493
530	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
560	-	1652	-	950	-	760	551
600	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
630	-	1844	-	1060	-	848	615
670	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
710	-	2070	-	1190	-	952	690
750	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
800	-	2340	-	1346	-	1076	780
850	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
900	-	2640	-	1518	-	1214	880
950	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1000	-	2910	-	1673	-	1339	970

Fig. A4 : Rated operational power and currents (concluded)

3.2 Resistive-type heating appliances and incandescent lamps (conventional or halogen)

The current demand of a heating appliance or an incandescent lamp is easily obtained from the nominal power P_n quoted by the manufacturer (i.e. $\cos \varphi = 1$) (see **Fig. A5**).

Nominal power (kW)	Current demand (A)			
	1-phase 127 V	1-phase 230 V	3-phase 230 V	3-phase 400 V
0.1	0.79	0.43	0.25	0.14
0.2	1.58	0.87	0.50	0.29
0.5	3.94	2.17	1.26	0.72
1	7.9	4.35	2.51	1.44
1.5	11.8	6.52	3.77	2.17
2	15.8	8.70	5.02	2.89
2.5	19.7	10.9	6.28	3.61
3	23.6	13	7.53	4.33
3.5	27.6	15.2	8.72	5.05
4	31.5	17.4	10	5.77
4.5	35.4	19.6	11.3	6.5
5	39.4	21.7	12.6	7.22
6	47.2	26.1	15.1	8.66
7	55.1	30.4	17.6	10.1
8	63	34.8	20.1	11.5
9	71	39.1	22.6	13
10	79	43.5	25.1	14.4

Fig. A5 : Current demands of resistive heating and incandescent lighting (conventional or halogen) appliances

3 Installed power loads - Characteristics

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The currents are given by:

■ 3-phase case: $I_a = \frac{P_n}{\sqrt{3} U}^{(1)}$

■ 1-phase case: $I_a = \frac{P_n}{U}^{(1)}$

where U is the voltage between the terminals of the equipment.

For an incandescent lamp, the use of halogen gas allows a more concentrated light source. The light output is increased and the lifetime of the lamp is doubled.

Note: At the instant of switching on, the cold filament gives rise to a very brief but intense peak of current.

Fluorescent lamps and related equipment

The power P_n (watts) indicated on the tube of a fluorescent lamp does not include the power dissipated in the ballast.

The current is given by:

$$I_a = \frac{P_{ballast} + P_n}{U \cos \varphi}$$

Where U = the voltage applied to the lamp, complete with its related equipment.
If no power-loss value is indicated for the ballast, a figure of 25% of P_n may be used.

Standard tubular fluorescent lamps

With (unless otherwise indicated):

- $\cos \varphi = 0.6$ with no power factor (PF) correction⁽²⁾ capacitor
- $\cos \varphi = 0.86$ with PF correction⁽²⁾ (single or twin tubes)

- $\cos \varphi = 0.96$ for electronic ballast.

If no power-loss value is indicated for the ballast, a figure of 25% of P_n may be used.

Figure A6 gives these values for different arrangements of ballast.

Arrangement of lamps, starters and ballasts	Tube power (W) ⁽³⁾	Current (A) at 230 V			Tube length (cm)
		Magnetic ballast	Without PF correction capacitor	With PF correction capacitor	
Single tube	18	0.20	0.14	0.10	60
	36	0.33	0.23	0.18	120
	58	0.50	0.36	0.28	150
Twin tubes	2 x 18		0.28	0.18	60
	2 x 36		0.46	0.35	120
	2 x 58		0.72	0.52	150

(3) Power in watts marked on tube

Fig. A6 : Current demands and power consumption of commonly-dimensioned fluorescent lighting tubes (at 230 V-50 Hz)

Compact fluorescent lamps

Compact fluorescent lamps have the same characteristics of economy and long life as classical tubes. They are commonly used in public places which are permanently illuminated (for example: corridors, hallways, bars, etc.) and can be mounted in situations otherwise illuminated by incandescent lamps (see **Fig. A7** next page).

(1) I_a in amps; U in volts. P_n is in watts. If P_n is in kW, then multiply the equation by 1,000

(2) "Power-factor correction" is often referred to as "compensation" in discharge-lighting-tube terminology. $\cos \varphi$ is approximately 0.95 (the zero values of V and I are almost in phase) but the power factor is 0.5 due to the impulsive form of the current, the peak of which occurs "late" in each half cycle

3 Installed power loads - Characteristics

Type of lamp	Lamp power (W)	Current at 230 V (A)
Separated ballast lamp	10	0.080
	18	0.110
	26	0.150
Integrated ballast lamp	8	0.075
	11	0.095
	16	0.125
	21	0.170

Fig. A7 : Current demands and power consumption of compact fluorescent lamps (at 230 V - 50 Hz)

The power in watts indicated on the tube of a discharge lamp does not include the power dissipated in the ballast.

Discharge lamps

Figure A8 gives the current taken by a complete unit, including all associated ancillary equipment.

These lamps depend on the luminous electrical discharge through a gas or vapour of a metallic compound, which is contained in a hermetically-sealed transparent envelope at a pre-determined pressure. These lamps have a long start-up time, during which the current I_a is greater than the nominal current I_n . Power and current demands are given for different types of lamp (typical average values which may differ slightly from one manufacturer to another).

Type of lamp (W)	Power demand (W) at 230 V 400 V	Current In(A)		Starting		Luminous efficiency (lumens per watt)	Average timelife of lamp (h)	Utilization
		PF not corrected 230 V	PF corrected 230 V	Ia/In	Period (mins)			
High-pressure sodium vapour lamps								
50	60	0.76	0.3	1.4 to 1.6	4 to 6	80 to 120	9000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Lighting of large halls ■ Outdoor spaces ■ Public lighting
70	80	1	0.45					
100	115	1.2	0.65					
150	168	1.8	0.85					
250	274	3	1.4					
400	431	4.4	2.2					
1000	1055	10.45	4.9					
Low-pressure sodium vapour lamps								
26	34.5	0.45	0.17	1.1 to 1.3	7 to 15	100 to 200	8000 to 12000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Lighting of autoroutes ■ Security lighting, station ■ Platform, storage areas
36	46.5		0.22					
66	80.5		0.39					
91	105.5		0.49					
131	154		0.69					
Mercury vapour + metal halide (also called metal-iodide)								
70	80.5	1	0.40	1.7	3 to 5	70 to 90	6000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Lighting of very large areas by projectors (for example: sports stadiums, etc.)
150	172	1.80	0.88					
250	276	2.10	1.35					
400	425	3.40	2.15					
1000	1046	8.25	5.30					
2000	2092	2052	16.50					
Mercury vapour + fluorescent substance (fluorescent bulb)								
50	57	0.6	0.30	1.7 to 2	3 to 6	40 to 60	8000 to 12000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Workshops with very high ceilings (halls, hangars) ■ Outdoor lighting ■ Low light output⁽¹⁾
80	90	0.8	0.45					
125	141	1.15	0.70					
250	268	2.15	1.35					
400	421	3.25	2.15					
700	731	5.4	3.85					
1000	1046	8.25	5.30					
2000	2140	2080	15					

(1) Replaced by sodium vapour lamps.

Note: these lamps are sensitive to voltage dips. They extinguish if the voltage falls to less than 50% of their nominal voltage, and will not re-ignite before cooling for approximately 4 minutes.

Note: Sodium vapour low-pressure lamps have a light-output efficiency which is superior to that of all other sources. However, use of these lamps is restricted by the fact that the yellow-orange colour emitted makes colour recognition practically impossible.

Fig. A8 : Current demands of discharge lamps

In order to design an installation, the actual maximum load demand likely to be imposed on the power-supply system must be assessed.

To base the design simply on the arithmetic sum of all the loads existing in the installation would be extravagantly uneconomical, and bad engineering practice.

The aim of this chapter is to show how some factors taking into account the diversity (non simultaneous operation of all appliances of a given group) and utilization (e.g. an electric motor is not generally operated at its full-load capability, etc.) of all existing and projected loads can be assessed. The values given are based on experience and on records taken from actual installations. In addition to providing basic installation-design data on individual circuits, the results will provide a global value for the installation, from which the requirements of a supply system (distribution network, MV/LV transformer, or generating set) can be specified.

4.1 Installed power (kW)

The installed power is the sum of the nominal powers of all power consuming devices in the installation.

This is not the power to be actually supplied in practice.

Most electrical appliances and equipments are marked to indicate their nominal power rating (P_n).

The installed power is the sum of the nominal powers of all power-consuming devices in the installation. This is not the power to be actually supplied in practice. This is the case for electric motors, where the power rating refers to the output power at its driving shaft. The input power consumption will evidently be greater

Fluorescent and discharge lamps associated with stabilizing ballasts, are other cases in which the nominal power indicated on the lamp is less than the power consumed by the lamp and its ballast.

Methods of assessing the actual power consumption of motors and lighting appliances are given in Section 3 of this Chapter.

The power demand (kW) is necessary to choose the rated power of a generating set or battery, and where the requirements of a prime mover have to be considered.

For a power supply from a LV public-supply network, or through a MV/LV transformer, the significant quantity is the apparent power in kVA.

4.2 Installed apparent power (kVA)

The installed apparent power is commonly assumed to be the arithmetical sum of the kVA of individual loads. The maximum estimated kVA to be supplied however is not equal to the total installed kVA.

The installed apparent power is commonly assumed to be the arithmetical sum of the kVA of individual loads. The maximum estimated kVA to be supplied however is not equal to the total installed kVA.

The apparent-power demand of a load (which might be a single appliance) is obtained from its nominal power rating (corrected if necessary, as noted above for motors, etc.) and the application of the following coefficients:

η = the per-unit efficiency = output kW / input kW

$\cos \phi$ = the power factor = kW / kVA

The apparent-power kVA demand of the load

$P_a = P_n / (\eta \times \cos \phi)$

From this value, the full-load current I_a (A)⁽¹⁾ taken by the load will be:

$$\blacksquare I_a = \frac{P_a \times 10^3}{V}$$

for single phase-to-neutral connected load

$$\blacksquare I_a = \frac{P_a \times 10^3}{\sqrt{3} \times U}$$

for three-phase balanced load where:

V = phase-to-neutral voltage (volts)

U = phase-to-phase voltage (volts)

It may be noted that, strictly speaking, the total kVA of apparent power is not the arithmetical sum of the calculated kVA ratings of individual loads (unless all loads are at the same power factor).

It is common practice however, to make a simple arithmetical summation, the result of which will give a kVA value that exceeds the true value by an acceptable "design margin".

When some or all of the load characteristics are not known, the values shown in **Figure A9** next page may be used to give a very approximate estimate of VA demands (individual loads are generally too small to be expressed in kVA or kW).

The estimates for lighting loads are based on floor areas of 500 m².

(1) For greater precision, account must be taken of the factor of maximum utilization as explained below in 4.3

Fluorescent lighting (corrected to $\cos \phi = 0.86$)		
Type of application	Estimated (VA/m ²) fluorescent tube with industrial reflector ⁽¹⁾	Average lighting level (lux = lm/m ²)
Roads and highways storage areas, intermittent work	7	150
Heavy-duty works: fabrication and assembly of very large work pieces	14	300
Day-to-day work: office work	24	500
Fine work: drawing offices high-precision assembly workshops	41	800

Power circuits	
Type of application	Estimated (VA/m ²)
Pumping station compressed air	3 to 6
Ventilation of premises	23
Electrical convection heaters: private houses flats and apartments	115 to 146 90
Offices	25
Dispatching workshop	50
Assembly workshop	70
Machine shop	300
Painting workshop	350
Heat-treatment plant	700

(1) example: 65 W tube (ballast not included), flux 5,100 lumens (lm), luminous efficiency of the tube = 78.5 lm / W.

Fig. A9 : Estimation of installed apparent power

4.3 Estimation of actual maximum kVA demand

All individual loads are not necessarily operating at full rated nominal power nor necessarily at the same time. Factors k_u and k_s allow the determination of the maximum power and apparent-power demands actually required to dimension the installation.

Factor of maximum utilization (k_u)

In normal operating conditions the power consumption of a load is sometimes less than that indicated as its nominal power rating, a fairly common occurrence that justifies the application of an utilization factor (k_u) in the estimation of realistic values. This factor must be applied to each individual load, with particular attention to electric motors, which are very rarely operated at full load.

In an industrial installation this factor may be estimated on an average at 0.75 for motors.

For incandescent-lighting loads, the factor always equals 1.

For socket-outlet circuits, the factors depend entirely on the type of appliances being supplied from the sockets concerned.

Factor of simultaneity (k_s)

It is a matter of common experience that the simultaneous operation of all installed loads of a given installation never occurs in practice, i.e. there is always some degree of diversity and this fact is taken into account for estimating purposes by the use of a simultaneity factor (k_s).

The factor k_s is applied to each group of loads (e.g. being supplied from a distribution or sub-distribution board). The determination of these factors is the responsibility of the designer, since it requires a detailed knowledge of the installation and the conditions in which the individual circuits are to be exploited. For this reason, it is not possible to give precise values for general application.

Factor of simultaneity for an apartment block

Some typical values for this case are given in **Figure A10** opposite page, and are applicable to domestic consumers supplied at 230/400 V (3-phase 4-wires). In the case of consumers using electrical heat-storage units for space heating, a factor of 0.8 is recommended, regardless of the number of consumers.

Number of downstream consumers	Factor of simultaneity (ks)
2 to 4	1
5 to 9	0.78
10 to 14	0.63
15 to 19	0.53
20 to 24	0.49
25 to 29	0.46
30 to 34	0.44
35 to 39	0.42
40 to 49	0.41
50 and more	0.40

Fig. A10 : Simultaneity factors in an apartment block

Example (see Fig. A11):

5 storeys apartment building with 25 consumers, each having 6 kVA of installed load.

The total installed load for the building is: $36 + 24 + 30 + 36 + 24 = 150 \text{ kVA}$

The apparent-power supply required for the building is: $150 \times 0.46 = 69 \text{ kVA}$

From Figure A10, it is possible to determine the magnitude of currents in different sections of the common main feeder supplying all floors. For vertical rising mains fed at ground level, the cross-sectional area of the conductors can evidently be progressively reduced from the lower floors towards the upper floors.

These changes of conductor size are conventionally spaced by at least 3-floor intervals.

In the example, the current entering the rising main at ground level is:

$$\frac{150 \times 0.46 \times 10^3}{400 \sqrt{3}} = 100 \text{ A}$$

the current entering the third floor is:

$$\frac{(36+24) \times 0.63 \times 10^3}{400 \sqrt{3}} = 55 \text{ A}$$

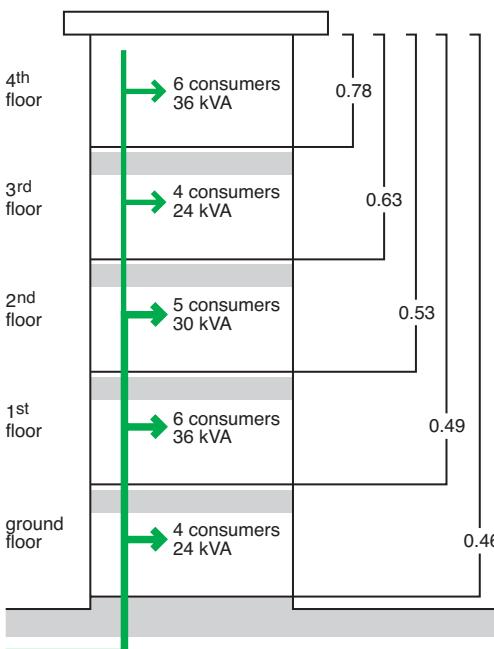


Fig. A11 : Application of the factor of simultaneity (ks) to an apartment block of 5 storeys

Factor of simultaneity for distribution switchboards

Figure A12 shows hypothetical values of ks for a distribution board supplying a number of circuits for which there is no indication of the manner in which the total load divides between them.

If the circuits are mainly for lighting loads, it is prudent to adopt ks values close to unity.

Number of circuits	Factor of simultaneity (ks)
Assemblies entirely tested	0.9
2 and 3	
4 and 5	0.8
6 to 9	0.7
10 and more	0.6
Assemblies partially tested in every case choose	1.0

Fig. A12 : Factor of simultaneity for distribution boards (IEC 60439)

Factor of simultaneity according to circuit function

ks factors which may be used for circuits supplying commonly-occurring loads, are shown in **Figure A13**.

Circuit function	Factor of simultaneity (ks)
Lighting	1
Heating and air conditioning	1
Socket-outlets	0.1 to 0.2 ⁽¹⁾
Lifts and catering hoist ⁽²⁾	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ For the most powerful motor ■ For the second most powerful motor ■ For all motors 0.1 to 0.2 ⁽¹⁾
	1
	0.75
	0.60

(1) In certain cases, notably in industrial installations, this factor can be higher.

(2) The current to take into consideration is equal to the nominal current of the motor, increased by a third of its starting current.

Fig. A13 : Factor of simultaneity according to circuit function

4.4 Example of application of factors ku and ks

An example in the estimation of actual maximum kVA demands at all levels of an installation, from each load position to the point of supply is given **Fig. A14** (opposite page).

In this example, the total installed apparent power is 126.6 kVA, which corresponds to an actual (estimated) maximum value at the LV terminals of the MV/LV transformer of 65 kVA only.

Note: in order to select cable sizes for the distribution circuits of an installation, the current I (in amps) through a circuit is determined from the equation:

$$I = \frac{kVA \times 10^3}{U \sqrt{3}}$$

where kVA is the actual maximum 3-phase apparent-power value shown on the diagram for the circuit concerned, and U is the phase to- phase voltage (in volts).

4.5 Diversity factor

The term diversity factor, as defined in IEC standards, is identical to the factor of simultaneity (ks) used in this guide, as described in 4.3. In some English-speaking countries however (at the time of writing) diversity factor is the inverse of ks i.e. it is always ≥ 1 .

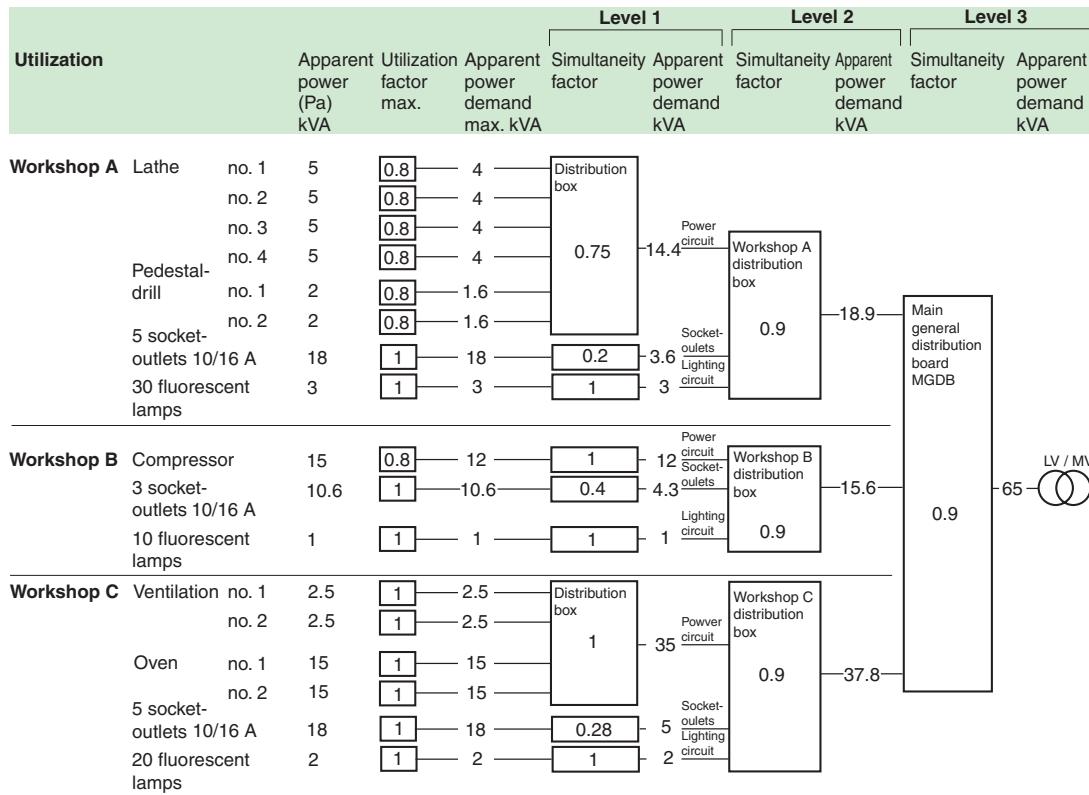


Fig A14 : An example in estimating the maximum predicted loading of an installation (the factor values used are for demonstration purposes only)

4.6 Choice of transformer rating

When an installation is to be supplied directly from a MV/LV transformer and the maximum apparent-power loading of the installation has been determined, a suitable rating for the transformer can be decided, taking into account the following considerations (see **Fig. A15**):

- The possibility of improving the power factor of the installation (see chapter L)
- Anticipated extensions to the installation
- Installation constraints (e.g. temperature)
- Standard transformer ratings

Apparent power kVA	In (A)
	237 V 410 V
100	244 141
160	390 225
250	609 352
315	767 444
400	974 563
500	1218 704
630	1535 887
800	1949 1127
1000	2436 1408
1250	3045 1760
1600	3898 2253
2000	4872 2816
2500	6090 3520
3150	7673 4436

Fig. A15 : Standard apparent powers for MV/LV transformers and related nominal output currents

The nominal full-load current I_n on the LV side of a 3-phase transformer is given by:

$$I_n = \frac{P_a \times 10^3}{U \sqrt{3}}$$

where

- P_a = kVA rating of the transformer
- U = phase-to-phase voltage at no-load in volts (237 V or 410 V)
- I_n is in amperes.

For a single-phase transformer:

$$I_n = \frac{P_a \times 10^3}{V}$$

where

- V = voltage between LV terminals at no-load (in volts)

Simplified equation for 400 V (3-phase load)

- $I_n = kVA \times 1.4$

The IEC standard for power transformers is IEC 60076.

4.7 Choice of power-supply sources

The importance of maintaining a continuous supply raises the question of the use of standby-power plant. The choice and characteristics of these alternative sources are part of the architecture selection, as described in chapter D.

For the main source of supply the choice is generally between a connection to the MV or the LV network of the power-supply utility.

In practice, connection to a MV source may be necessary where the load exceeds (or is planned eventually to exceed) a certain level - generally of the order of 250 kVA, or if the quality of service required is greater than that normally available from a LV network.

Moreover, if the installation is likely to cause disturbance to neighbouring consumers, when connected to a LV network, the supply authorities may propose a MV service.

Supplies at MV can have certain advantages: in fact, a MV consumer:

- Is not disturbed by other consumers, which could be the case at LV
- Is free to choose any type of LV earthing system
- Has a wider choice of economic tariffs
- Can accept very large increases in load

It should be noted, however, that:

- The consumer is the owner of the MV/LV substation and, in some countries, he must build and equip it at his own expense. The power utility can, in certain circumstances, participate in the investment, at the level of the MV line for example
- A part of the connection costs can, for instance, often be recovered if a second consumer is connected to the MV line within a certain time following the original consumer's own connection
- The consumer has access only to the LV part of the installation, access to the MV part being reserved to the utility personnel (meter reading, operations, etc.). However, in certain countries, the MV protective circuit-breaker (or fused load-break switch) can be operated by the consumer
- The type and location of the substation are agreed between the consumer and the utility

Chapter B

Connection to the MV public distribution network

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1 Power supply at medium voltage

B2

The term «medium voltage» is commonly used for distribution systems with voltages above 1 kV and generally applied up to and including 52 kV⁽¹⁾. For technical and economic reasons, the nominal voltage of medium-voltage distribution networks rarely exceeds 35 kV.

In this chapter, networks which operate at 1000 V or less are referred to as low-voltage (LV) networks, whereas networks requiring a step-down transformer to feed LV networks are referred to as medium voltage (MV) networks.

The main characteristics of an MV power supply are:

- The nominal voltage
- The short-circuit current
- The rated current used
- The earthing system

1.1 Power supply characteristics of medium-voltage networks

The characteristics of the MV network determine which switchgear is used in the MV or MV/LV substation and are specific to individual countries. Familiarity with these characteristics is essential when defining and implementing connections.

1.2 Different types of MV power supply

The following power supply methods may be used as appropriate for the type of medium-voltage network.

Connection to an MV radial network: Single-line service

The substation is supplied by a tee-off from the MV radial network (overhead or cable), also known as a spur network. This type of network supports a single supply for loads (see Fig. B1).

The substation usually consists of an incoming panel, and overall protection is provided by a load-break switch and fuses with earthing switches as shown in Figure B1.

In some countries, the “substation” comprises a pole-mounted transformer without a load-break switch or fuses (installed on the pole). This type of distribution is very common in rural areas. Protection and switching devices are located remotely from the transformer. These usually control a main overhead line to which secondary overhead lines are connected.

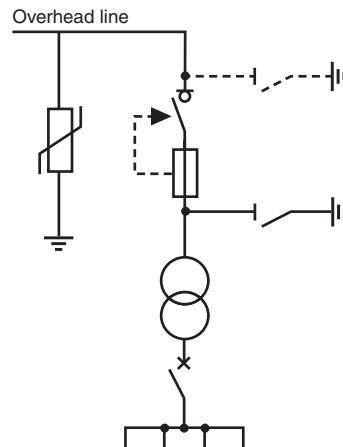


Fig. B1 : Single-line service (single supply)

(1) According to the IEC there is no clear boundary between low and medium voltage; local and historical factors play a part, and limits are usually between 30 and 100 kV (see IEC 601-01-28).

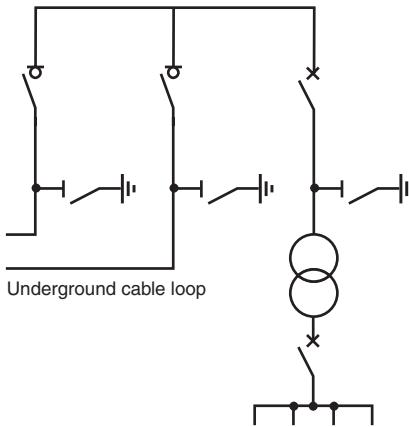


Fig. B2 : Ring-main service (double supply). The transformer is protected, in accordance with the applicable standards, by a circuit breaker or load-break switch as shown in Figure B1.

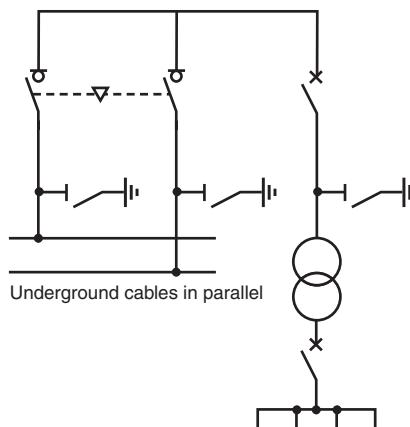


Fig. B3 : Parallel feeders service (double supply). The transformer is protected, in accordance with local standards, by a circuit breaker or load-break switch as shown in Figure B1.

(1) A medium-voltage loop is an underground distribution network based on cables from two MV substation feeders. The two feeders are the two 'ends' of the loop and each is protected by an MV circuit breaker.

The loop is usually open, i.e. divided into two sections (half-loops), each of which is supplied by a feeder. To support this arrangement, the two incoming load-break switches on the substations in the loop are closed, allowing current to circulate around the loop. On one of the stations one switch is normally left open, determining the start of the loop.

A fault on one of the half-loops will trigger the protection device on the associated feeder, de-energising all substations within that half loop. Once the fault on the affected cable segment (between two adjacent substations) has been located, the supply to these substations can be restored from the other feeder.

This requires some reconfiguration of the loop, with the load-break switches being switched in order to move the start of the loop to the substation immediately downstream of the fault and open the switch on the substation immediately upstream of the fault on the loop. These measures isolate the cable segment where the fault has occurred and restore the supply to the whole loop, or to most of it if the switches that have been switched are not on substations on either side of the sole cable segment affected by the fault.

Systems for fault location and loop reconfiguration with remote control switches allow these processes to be automated.

Connection to an MV loop: Ring-main service

The power supply for the substation is connected in series to the power line of the medium-voltage distribution network to form a loop(1). This allows the line current to pass through a busbar, making it possible for loads to have two different power supplies (see Fig. B2).

The substation has three medium-voltage modular units or an integrated ring-main unit supporting the following functions:

- 2 incoming panels, each with a load-break switch. These are part of the loop and are connected to a busbar.
- 1 transformer feeder connected to the busbar. General protection is provided by load-break switches, a combined load-break/isolating switch or a circuit breaker.

All these types of switchgear are fitted with earthing switches.

All switches and earthing switches have a making capacity which enables them to close at the network's short-circuit current. Under this arrangement, the user benefits from a reliable power supply based on two MV feeders, with downtime kept to a minimum in the event of faults or work on the supplier network(1).

This method is used for the underground MV distribution networks found in urban areas.

Connection to two parallel MV cables: Parallel feeders service

If two parallel underground cables can be used to supply a substation, an MV switchboard similar to that of a ring-main station can be used (see Fig. B3).

The main difference to the ring-main station is that both load-break switches are interlocked. This means that only one of them can be closed at any one time (if one is closed, the other must be open).

In the event of the loss of supply, the associated incoming load-break switch must be open and the interlocking system must enable the switch which was open to close.

This sequence can be implemented either manually or automatically.

This method is used for networks in some densely-populated or expanding urban areas supplied by underground cables.

1.3 Some practical issues concerning MV distribution networks

Overhead networks

Weather conditions such as wind and frost may bring wires into contact and cause temporary (as opposed to permanent) short-circuits.

Ceramic or glass insulating materials may be broken by wind-borne debris or carelessly discharged firearms. Shorting to earth may also result when insulating material becomes heavily soiled.

Many of these faults are able to rectify themselves. For example, damaged insulating materials can continue functioning undetected in a dry environment, although heavy rain will probably cause flashover to earth (e.g. via a metallic support structure).

Similarly, heavily soiled insulating material usually causes flashover to earth in damp conditions.

Almost invariably, fault current will take the form of an electric arc, whose intense heat dries the current's path and, to some extent, re-establishes insulating properties. During this time, protection devices will normally have proved effective in eliminating the fault (fuses will blow or the circuit breaker will trip).

Experience has shown that, in the vast majority of cases, the supply can be restored by replacing fuses or reclosing the circuit breaker.

As such, it is possible to improve the service continuity of overhead networks significantly by using circuit breakers with an automated reclosing facility on the relevant feeders.

These automated facilities support a set number of reclosing operations if a first attempt proves unsuccessful. The interval between successive attempts can be adjusted (to allow time for the air near the fault to deionise) before the circuit breaker finally locks out after all the attempts (usually three) have failed.

Remote control switches can be used on cable segments within networks to further improve service continuity. Load-break switches can also be teamed with a reclosing circuit breaker to isolate individual sections.

Underground networks

Cable faults on underground networks can sometimes be caused by poorly arranged cable boxes or badly laid cables. For the most part, however, faults are the result of damage caused by tools such as pickaxes and pneumatic drills or by earthmoving plant used by other public utilities.

Insulation faults sometimes occur in connection boxes as a result of overvoltage, particularly at locations where an MV network is connected to an underground cable network. In such cases, overvoltage is usually caused by atmospheric conditions, and the reflection effects of electromagnetic waves at the junction box (where circuit impedance changes sharply) may generate sufficient strain on the cable box insulation for a fault to occur.

Devices to protect against overvoltages, such as lightning arresters, are often installed at these locations.

Underground cable networks suffer from fewer faults than overhead networks, but those which do occur are invariably permanent and take longer to locate and resolve. In the event of a fault affecting an MV loop cable, the supply can be quickly restored to users once the cable segment where the fault occurred has been located.

Having said this, if the fault occurs at a feeder for a radial supply, it can take several hours to locate and resolve the fault, and all the users connected in a single branch arrangement downstream of the fault will be affected.

In cases where service continuity is essential for all or part of the installation concerned, provision must be made for an auxiliary supply.

The use of centralised remote control and monitoring based on SCADA (Supervisory Control And Data Acquisition) systems and recent developments in digital communication technology is increasingly common in countries where the complexity associated with highly interconnected networks justifies the investment required.

Remote control and monitoring for MV networks

Remote control and monitoring of MV feeders makes it possible to reduce loss of supply resulting from cable faults by supporting fast and effective loop reconfiguration. This facility relies on switches with electric controls which are fitted on a number of substations in the loop and linked to modified remote-control units. All stations containing this equipment can have their supply restored remotely, whereas other stations will require additional manual operations

Values of earth fault currents for MV power supply

The values of earth fault currents on distribution networks depend on the MV substation's earthing system (or neutral earthing system). They must be limited to reduce their impact on the network and restrict possible increased potential on user substation frames caused by the coupling of earth switches (overhead networks), and to reduce flashover with the station's LV circuits capable of generating dangerous levels of potential in the low voltage installation.

Where networks have both overhead and underground elements, an increased cable earthing capacitance value may cause the earth fault current value to rise and require measures to compensate this phenomenon. Earthing impedance will then involve reactance (a resistor in parallel with an inductor) in line with the leakage rate: the neutral earthing system is compensated. Compensatory impedance makes it possible to both:

- Control earth fault current values, regardless of the amount of cabling within the network, and
- Eliminate most temporary and semi-permanent single-phase faults naturally by facilitating self rectification, thereby avoiding many short-term losses

2 Procedure for the establishment of a new substation

B5

Large consumers of electricity are invariably supplied at MV.

On LV systems operating at 120/208 V (3-phase 4-wires), a load of 50 kVA might be considered to be "large", while on a 240/415 V 3-phase system a "large" consumer could have a load in excess of 100 kVA. Both systems of LV distribution are common in many parts of the world.

As a matter of interest, the IEC recommends a "world" standard of 230/400 V for 3-phase 4-wire systems. This is a compromise level and will allow existing systems which operate at 220/380 V and at 240/415 V, or close to these values, to comply with the proposed standard simply by adjusting the off-circuit tapping switches of standard distribution transformers.

The distance over which the energy has to be transmitted is a further factor in considering an MV or LV service. Services to small but isolated rural consumers are obvious examples.

The decision of a MV or LV supply will depend on local circumstances and considerations such as those mentioned above, and will generally be imposed by the utility for the district concerned.

When a decision to supply power at MV has been made, there are two widely-followed methods of proceeding:

1 - The power-supplier constructs a standard substation close to the consumer's premises, but the MV/LV transformer(s) is (are) located in transformer chamber(s) inside the premises, close to the load centre

2 - The consumer constructs and equips his own substation on his own premises, to which the power supplier makes the MV connection

In method no. **1** the power supplier owns the substation, the cable(s) to the transformer(s), the transformer(s) and the transformer chamber(s), to which he has unrestricted access.

The transformer chamber(s) is (are) constructed by the consumer (to plans and regulations provided by the supplier) and include plinths, oil drains, fire walls and ceilings, ventilation, lighting, and earthing systems, all to be approved by the supply authority.

The tariff structure will cover an agreed part of the expenditure required to provide the service.

Whichever procedure is followed, the same principles apply in the conception and realization of the project. The following notes refer to procedure no. **2**.

The consumer must provide certain data to the utility at the earliest stage of the project.

2.1 Preliminary information

Before any negotiations or discussions can be initiated with the supply authorities, the following basic elements must be established:

Maximum anticipated power (kVA) demand

Determination of this parameter is described in Chapter A, and must take into account the possibility of future additional load requirements. Factors to evaluate at this stage are:

- The utilization factor (ku)
- The simultaneity factor (ks)

Layout plans and elevations showing location of proposed substation

Plans should indicate clearly the means of access to the proposed substation, with dimensions of possible restrictions, e.g. entrances corridors and ceiling height, together with possible load (weight) bearing limits, and so on, keeping in mind that:

- The power-supply personnel must have free and unrestricted access to the MV equipment in the substation at all times
- Only qualified and authorized consumer's personnel are allowed access to the substation
- Some supply authorities or regulations require that the part of the installation operated by the authority is located in a separated room from the part operated by the customer.

Degree of supply continuity required

The consumer must estimate the consequences of a supply failure in terms of its duration:

- Loss of production
- Safety of personnel and equipment

2 Procedure for the establishment of a new substation

B6

The utility must give specific information to the prospective consumer.

2.2 Project studies

From the information provided by the consumer, the power-supplier must indicate:

The type of power supply proposed, and define:

- The kind of power-supply system: overheadline or underground-cable network
- Service connection details: single-line service, ring-main installation, or parallel feeders, etc.
- Power (kVA) limit and fault current level

The nominal voltage and rated voltage (Highest voltage for equipment)

Existing or future, depending on the development of the system.

Metering details which define:

- The cost of connection to the power network
- Tariff details (consumption and standing charges)

The utility must give official approval of the equipment to be installed in the substation, and of proposed methods of installation.

2.3 Implementation

Before any installation work is started, the official agreement of the power-supplier must be obtained. The request for approval must include the following information, largely based on the preliminary exchanges noted above:

- Location of the proposed substation
- Single-line diagram of power circuits and connections, together with earthing-circuit proposals
- Full details of electrical equipment to be installed, including performance characteristics
- Layout of equipment and provision for metering components
- Arrangements for power-factor improvement if required
- Arrangements provided for emergency standby power plant (MV or LV) if eventually required

After testing and checking of the installation by an independent test authority, a certificate is granted which permits the substation to be put into service.

2.4 Commissioning

When required by the authority, commissioning tests must be successfully completed before authority is given to energize the installation from the power supply system. Even if no test is required by the authority it is better to do the following verification tests:

- Measurement of earth-electrode resistances
- Continuity of all equipotential earth-and safety bonding conductors
- Inspection and functional testing of all MV components
- Insulation checks of MV equipment
- Dielectric strength test of transformer oil (and switchgear oil if appropriate), if applicable
- Inspection and testing of the LV installation in the substation
- Checks on all interlocks (mechanical key and electrical) and on all automatic sequences
- Checks on correct protective-relay operation and settings

It is also imperative to check that all equipment is provided, such that any properly executed operation can be carried out in complete safety. On receipt of the certificate of conformity (if required):

- Personnel of the power-supply authority will energize the MV equipment and check for correct operation of the metering
- The installation contractor is responsible for testing and connection of the LV installation

When finally the substation is operational:

- The substation and all equipment belongs to the consumer
- The power-supply authority has operational control over all MV switchgear in the substation, e.g. the two incoming load-break switches and the transformer MV switch (or CB) in the case of a RingMainUnit, together with all associated MV earthing switches
- The power-supply personnel has unrestricted access to the MV equipment
- The consumer has independent control of the MV switch (or CB) of the transformer(s) only, the consumer is responsible for the maintenance of all substation equipment, and must request the power-supply authority to isolate and earth the switchgear to allow maintenance work to proceed. The power supplier must issue a signed permit-to-work to the consumers maintenance personnel, together with keys of locked-off isolators, etc. at which the isolation has been carried out.

3 Protection aspect

B7

The subject of protection in the electrical power industry is vast: it covers all aspects of safety for personnel, and protection against damage or destruction of property, plant, and equipment.

These different aspects of protection can be broadly classified according to the following objectives:

- Protection of personnel and animals against the dangers of overvoltages and electric shock, fire, explosions, and toxic gases, etc.
- Protection of the plant, equipment and components of a power system against the stresses of short-circuit faults, atmospheric surges (lightning) and power-system instability (loss of synchronism) etc.
- Protection of personnel and plant from the dangers of incorrect power-system operation, by the use of electrical and mechanical interlocking. All classes of switchgear (including, for example, tap-position selector switches on transformers, and so on...) have well-defined operating limits. This means that the order in which the different kinds of switching device can be safely closed or opened is vitally important. Interlocking keys and analogous electrical control circuits are frequently used to ensure strict compliance with correct operating sequences.

It is beyond the scope of a guide to describe in full technical detail the numerous schemes of protection available to power-systems engineers, but it is hoped that the following sections will prove to be useful through a discussion of general principles. While some of the protective devices mentioned are of universal application, descriptions generally will be confined to those in common use on MV and LV systems only, as defined in Sub-clause 1.1 of this Chapter.

Protection against electric shocks and overvoltages is closely related to the achievement of efficient (low resistance) earthing and effective application of the principles of equipotential environments.

3.1 Protection against electric shocks

Protective measures against electric shock are based on two common dangers:

- Contact with an active conductor, i.e. which is live with respect to earth in normal circumstances. This is referred to as a "direct contact" hazard.
- Contact with a conductive part of an apparatus which is normally dead, but which has become live due to insulation failure in the apparatus. This is referred to as an "indirect contact" hazard.

It may be noted that a third type of shock hazard can exist in the proximity of MV or LV (or mixed) earth electrodes which are passing earth-fault currents. This hazard is due to potential gradients on the surface of the ground and is referred to as a "step-voltage" hazard; shock current enters one foot and leaves by the other foot, and is particularly dangerous for four-legged animals. A variation of this danger, known as a "touch voltage" hazard can occur, for instance, when an earthed metallic part is situated in an area in which potential gradients exist.

Touching the part would cause current to pass through the hand and both feet.

Animals with a relatively long front-to-hind legs span are particularly sensitive to step-voltage hazards and cattle have been killed by the potential gradients caused by a low voltage (230/400 V) neutral earth electrode of insufficiently low resistance.

Potential-gradient problems of the kind mentioned above are not normally encountered in electrical installations of buildings, providing that equipotential conductors properly bond all exposed metal parts of equipment and all extraneous metal (i.e. not part of an electrical apparatus or the installation - for example structural steelwork, etc.) to the protective-earthing conductor.

Direct-contact protection or basic protection

The main form of protection against direct contact hazards is to contain all live parts in housings of insulating material or in metallic earthed housings, by placing out of reach (behind insulated barriers or at the top of poles) or by means of obstacles.

Where insulated live parts are housed in a metal envelope, for example transformers, electric motors and many domestic appliances, the metal envelope is connected to the installation protective earthing system.

For MV switchgear, the IEC standard 62271-200 (Prefabricated Metal Enclosed switchgear and controlgear for voltages up to 52 kV) specifies a minimum Protection Index (IP coding) of IP2X which ensures the direct-contact protection. Furthermore, the metallic enclosure has to demonstrate an electrical continuity, then establishing a good segregation between inside and outside of the enclosure. Proper grounding of the enclosure further participates to the electrical protection of the operators under normal operating conditions.

For LV appliances this is achieved through the third pin of a 3-pin plug and socket. Total or even partial failure of insulation to the metal, can raise the voltage of the envelope to a dangerous level (depending on the ratio of the resistance of the leakage path through the insulation, to the resistance from the metal envelope to earth).

Indirect-contact protection or fault protection

A person touching the metal envelope of an apparatus with a faulty insulation, as described above, is said to be making an indirect contact.

An indirect contact is characterized by the fact that a current path to earth exists (through the protective earthing (PE) conductor) in parallel with the shock current through the person concerned.

Case of fault on L.V. system

Extensive tests have shown that, providing the potential of the metal envelope is not greater than 50 V with respect to earth, or to any conductive material within reaching distance, no danger exists.

Indirect-contact hazard in the case of a MV fault

If the insulation failure in an apparatus is between a MV conductor and the metal envelope, it is not generally possible to limit the rise of voltage of the envelope to 50 V or less, simply by reducing the earthing resistance to a low value. The solution in this case is to create an equipotential situation, as described in Sub-clause 1.1 "Earthing systems".

Earth connection resistance

Insulation faults affecting the MV substation's equipment (internal) or resulting from atmospheric overvoltages (external) may generate earth currents capable of causing physical injury or damage to equipment.

Preventive measures essentially consist of:

- Interconnecting all substation frames and connecting them to the earth bar
- Minimising earth resistance

3.2 Protection of transformer and circuits

General

The electrical equipment and circuits in a substation must be protected in order to avoid or to control damage due to abnormal currents and/or voltages. All equipment normally used in power system installations have standardized short-time withstand ratings for overcurrent and overvoltage. The role of protective scheme is to ensure that these withstand limits can never be exceeded. In general, this means that fault conditions must be cleared as fast as possible without missing to ensure coordination between protective devices upstream and downstream the equipment to be protected. This means, when there is a fault in a network, generally several protective devices see the fault at the same time but only one must act.

These devices may be:

- Fuses which clear the faulty circuit directly or together with a mechanical tripping attachment, which opens an associated three-phase load-break switch
- Relays which act indirectly on the circuit-breaker coil

Transformer protection

Stresses due to the supply network

Some voltage surges can occur on the network such as :

- Atmospheric voltage surges
Atmospheric voltage surges are caused by a stroke of lightning falling on or near an overhead line.
- Operating voltage surges
A sudden change in the established operating conditions in an electrical network causes transient phenomena to occur. This is generally a high frequency or damped oscillation voltage surge wave.

For both voltage surges, the overvoltage protection device generally used is a varistor (Zinc Oxide).

In most cases, voltage surges protection has no action on switchgear.

Stresses due to the load

Overloading is frequently due to the coincidental demand of a number of small loads, or to an increase in the apparent power (kVA) demand of the installation, due to expansion in a factory, with consequent building extensions, and so on. Load increases raise the temperature of the wirings and of the insulation material. As a result, temperature increases involve a reduction of the equipment working life. Overload protection devices can be located on primary or secondary side of the transformer.

3 Protection aspect

B9



Fig. B4 : Transformer with conservator tank



Fig. B5 : Totally filled transformer

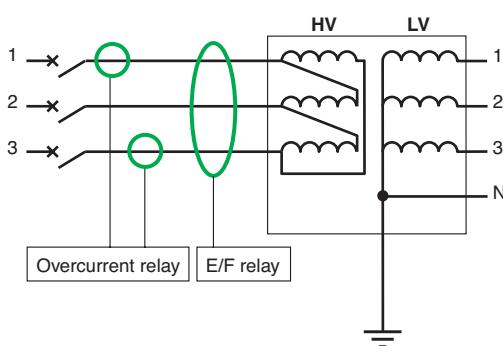


Fig. B6 : Protection against earth fault on the MV winding

The protection against overloading of a transformer is now provided by a digital relay which acts to trip the circuit-breaker on the secondary side of the transformer. Such relay, generally called thermal overload relay, artificially simulates the temperature, taking into account the time constant of the transformer. Some of them are able to take into account the effect of harmonic currents due to non linear loads (rectifiers, computer equipment, variable speed drives...). This type of relay is also able to predict the time before overload tripping and the waiting time after tripping. So, this information is very helpful to control load shedding operation.

In addition, larger oil-immersed transformers frequently have thermostats with two settings, one for alarm purposes and the other for tripping.

Dry-type transformers use heat sensors embedded in the hottest part of the windings insulation for alarm and tripping.

Internal faults

The protection of transformers by transformer-mounted devices, against the effects of internal faults, is provided on transformers which are fitted with airbreathing conservator tanks by the classical Buchholz mechanical relay (see Fig. B4). These relays can detect a slow accumulation of gases which results from the arcing of incipient faults in the winding insulation or from the ingress of air due to an oil leak. This first level of detection generally gives an alarm, but if the condition deteriorates further, a second level of detection will trip the upstream circuit-breaker.

An oil-surge detection feature of the Buchholz relay will trip the upstream circuit-breaker "instantaneously" if a surge of oil occurs in the pipe connecting the main tank with the conservator tank.

Such a surge can only occur due to the displacement of oil caused by a rapidly formed bubble of gas, generated by an arc of short-circuit current in the oil.

By specially designing the cooling-oil radiator elements to perform aconcerting action, "totally filled" types of transformer as large as 10 MVA are now currently available.

Expansion of the oil is accommodated without an excessive rise in pressure by the "bellows" effect of the radiator elements. A full description of these transformers is given in Sub-clause 4.4 (see Fig. B5).

Evidently the Buchholz devices mentioned above cannot be applied to this design; a modern counterpart has been developed however, which measures:

- The accumulation of gas
- Overpressure
- Overtemperature

The first two conditions trip the upstream circuit-breaker, and the third condition trips the downstream circuit-breaker of the transformer.

Internal phase-to-phase short-circuit

Internal phase-to-phase short-circuit must be detected and cleared by:

- 3 fuses on the primary side of the transformer or
- An overcurrent relay that trips a circuit-breaker upstream of the transformer

Internal phase-to-earth short-circuit

This is the most common type of internal fault. It must be detected by an earth fault relay. Earth fault current can be calculated with the sum of the 3 primary phase currents (if 3 current transformers are used) or by a specific core current transformer. If a great sensitivity is needed, specific core current transformer will be preferred. In such a case, a two current transformers set is sufficient (see Fig. B6).

Protection of circuits

The protection of the circuits downstream of the transformer must comply with the IEC 60364 requirements.

Discrimination between the protective devices upstream and downstream of the transformer

The consumer-type substation with LV metering requires discriminative operation between the MV fuses or MV circuit-breaker and the LV circuit-breaker or fuses.

The rating of the MV fuses will be chosen according to the characteristics of the transformer.

The tripping characteristics of the LV circuit-breaker must be such that, for an overload or short-circuit condition downstream of its location, the breaker will trip sufficiently quickly to ensure that the MV fuses or the MV circuit-breaker will not be adversely affected by the passage of overcurrent through them.

The tripping performance curves for MV fuses or MV circuit-breaker and LV circuit-breakers are given by graphs of time-to-operate against current passing through them. Both curves have the general inverse-time/current form (with an abrupt discontinuity in the CB curve at the current value above which "instantaneous" tripping occurs).

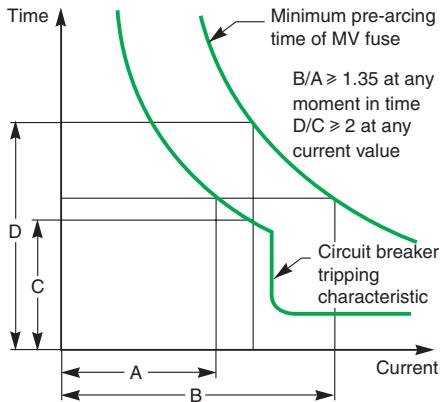


Fig. B7 : Discrimination between MV fuse operation and LV circuit-breaker tripping, for transformer protection

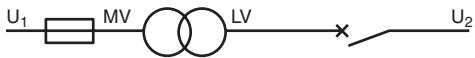


Fig. B8 : MV fuse and LV circuit-breaker configuration

These curves are shown typically in **Figure B7**.

- In order to achieve discrimination (see **Fig. B8**):

All parts of the fuse or MV circuit-breaker curve must be above and to the right of the CB curve.

- In order to leave the fuses unaffected (i.e. undamaged):

All parts of the minimum pre-arc fuse curve must be located to the right of the CB curve by a factor of 1.35 or more (e.g. where, at time T, the CB curve passes through a point corresponding to 100 A, the fuse curve at the same time T must pass through a point corresponding to 135 A, or more, and so on...) and, all parts of the fuse curve must be above the CB curve by a factor of 2 or more (e.g. where, at a current level I the CB curve passes through a point corresponding to 1.5 seconds, the fuse curve at the same current level I must pass through a point corresponding to 3 seconds, or more, etc.).

The factors 1.35 and 2 are based on standard maximum manufacturing tolerances for MV fuses and LV circuit-breakers.

In order to compare the two curves, the MV currents must be converted to the equivalent LV currents, or vice-versa.

Where a LV fuse-switch is used, similar separation of the characteristic curves of the MV and LV fuses must be respected.

- In order to leave the MV circuit-breaker protection untripped:

All parts of the minimum pre-arc fuse curve must be located to the right of the CB curve by a factor of 1.35 or more (e.g. where, at time T, the LV CB curve passes through a point corresponding to 100 A, the MV CB curve at the same time T must pass through a point corresponding to 135 A, or more, and so on...) and, all parts of the MV CB curve must be above the LV CB curve (time of LV CB curve must be less or equal than MV CB curves minus 0.3 s)

The factors 1.35 and 0.3 s are based on standard maximum manufacturing tolerances for MV current transformers, MV protection relay and LV circuit-breakers.

In order to compare the two curves, the MV currents must be converted to the equivalent LV currents, or vice-versa.

Choice of protective device on the primary side of the transformer

As explained before, for low reference current, the protection may be by fuses or by circuit-breaker.

When the reference current is high, the protection will be achieved by circuit-breaker.

Protection by circuit-breaker provides a more sensitive transformer protection compared with fuses. The implementation of additional protections (earth fault protection, thermal overload protection) is easier with circuit-breakers.

3.3 Interlocks and conditioned operations

Mechanical and electrical interlocks are included on mechanisms and in the control circuits of apparatus installed in substations, as a measure of protection against an incorrect sequence of manoeuvres by operating personnel.

Mechanical protection between functions located on separate equipment (e.g. switchboard and transformer) is provided by key-transfer interlocking.

An interlocking scheme is intended to prevent any abnormal operational manoeuvre. Some of such operations would expose operating personnel to danger, some others would only lead to an electrical incident.

Basic interlocking

Basic interlocking functions can be introduced in one given functional unit; some of these functions are made mandatory by the IEC 62271-200, for metal-enclosed MV switchgear, but some others are the result of a choice from the user.

Considering access to a MV panel, it requires a certain number of operations which shall be carried out in a pre-determined order. It is necessary to carry out operations in the reverse order to restore the system to its former condition. Either proper procedures, or dedicated interlocks, can ensure that the required operations are performed in the right sequence. Then such accessible compartment will be classified as "accessible and interlocked" or "accessible by procedure". Even for users with proper rigorous procedures, use of interlocks can provide a further help for safety of the operators.

Key interlocking

Beyond the interlocks available within a given functional unit (see also 4.2), the most widely-used form of locking/interlocking depends on the principle of key transfer.

The principle is based on the possibility of freeing or trapping one or several keys, according to whether or not the required conditions are satisfied.

These conditions can be combined in unique and obligatory sequences, thereby guaranteeing the safety of personnel and installation by the avoidance of an incorrect operational procedure.

Non-observance of the correct sequence of operations in either case may have extremely serious consequences for the operating personnel, as well as for the equipment concerned.

Note: It is important to provide for a scheme of interlocking in the basic design stage of planning a MV/LV substation. In this way, the apparatuses concerned will be equipped during manufacture in a coherent manner, with assured compatibility of keys and locking devices.

Service continuity

For a given MV switchboard, the definition of the accessible compartments as well as their access conditions provide the basis of the "Loss of Service Continuity" classification defined in the standard IEC 62271-200. Use of interlocks or only proper procedure does not have any influence on the service continuity. Only the request for accessing a given part of the switchboard, under normal operation conditions, results in limiting conditions which can be more or less severe regarding the continuity of the electrical distribution process.

Interlocks in substations

In a MV/LV distribution substation which includes:

- A single incoming MV panel or two incoming panels (from parallel feeders) or two incoming/outgoing ring-main panels
- A transformer switchgear-and-protection panel, which can include a load-break/disconnecting switch with MV fuses and an earthing switch, or a circuit-breaker and line disconnecting switch together with an earthing switch
- A transformer compartment

Interlocks allow manoeuvres and access to different panels in the following conditions:

Basic interlocks, embedded in single functional units

- Operation of the load-break/isolating switch
- If the panel door is closed and the associated earthing switch is open
- Operation of the line-disconnecting switch of the transformer switchgear - and - protection panel
 - If the door of the panel is closed, and
 - If the circuit-breaker is open, and the earthing switch(es) is (are) open
- Closure of an earthing switch
 - If the associated isolating switch(es) is (are) open⁽¹⁾
- Access to an accessible compartment of each panel, if interlocks have been specified
 - If the isolating switch for the compartment is open and the earthing switch(es) for the compartment is (are) closed
- Closure of the door of each accessible compartment, if interlocks have been specified
 - If the earthing switch(es) for the compartment is (are) closed

Functional interlocks involving several functional units or separate equipment

- Access to the terminals of a MV/LV transformer
- If the tee-off functional unit has its switch open and its earthing switch closed. According to the possibility of back-feed from the LV side, a condition on the LV main breaker can be necessary.

Practical example

In a consumer-type substation with LV metering, the interlocking scheme most commonly used is MV/LV/TR (high voltage/ low voltage/transformer).

The aim of the interlocking is:

- To prevent access to the transformer compartment if the earthing switch has not been previously closed
- To prevent the closure of the earthing switch in a transformer switchgear-and-protection panel, if the LV circuit-breaker of the transformer has not been previously locked "open" or "withdrawn"

(1) If the earthing switch is on an incoming circuit, the associated isolating switches are those at both ends of the circuit, and these should be suitably interlocked. In such situation, the interlocking function becomes a multi-units key interlock.

3 Protection aspect

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Access to the MV or LV terminals of a transformer, (protected upstream by a MV switchgear-and-protection panel, containing a MV load-break / isolating switch, MV fuses, and a MV earthing switch) must comply with the strict procedure described below, and is illustrated by the diagrams of **Figure B9**.

Note: The transformer in this example is provided with plug-in type MV terminal connectors which can only be removed by unlocking a retaining device common to all three phase connectors⁽¹⁾.

The MV load-break / disconnecting switch is mechanically linked with the MV earthing switch such that only one of the switches can be closed, i.e. closure of one switch automatically locks the closure of the other.

Procedure for the isolation and earthing of the power transformer, and removal of the MV plug-type shrouded terminal connections (or protective cover)

Initial conditions

- MV load-break/disconnection switch and LV circuit-breaker are closed
- MV earthing switch locked in the open position by key "O"
- Key "O" is trapped in the LV circuit-breaker as long as that circuit-breaker is closed

Step 1

- Open LV CB and lock it open with key "O"
- Key "O" is then released

Step 2

- Open the MV switch
- Check that the "voltage presence" indicators extinguish when the MV switch is opened

Step 3

- Unlock the MV earthing switch with key "O" and close the earthing switch
- Key "O" is now trapped

Step 4

The access panel to the MV fuses can now be removed (i.e. is released by closure of the MV earthing switch). Key "S" is located in this panel, and is trapped when the MV switch is closed

- Turn key "S" to lock the MV switch in the open position
- Key "S" is now released

Step 5

Key "S" allows removal of the common locking device of the plug-type MV terminal connectors on the transformer or of the common protective cover over the terminals, as the case may be.

In either case, exposure of one or more terminals will trap key "S" in the interlock.

The result of the foregoing procedure is that:

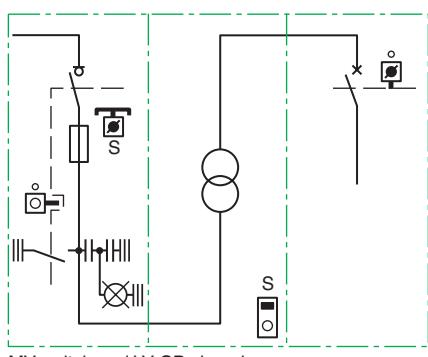
- The MV switch is locked in the open position by key "S".

Key "S" is trapped at the transformer terminals interlock as long as the terminals are exposed.

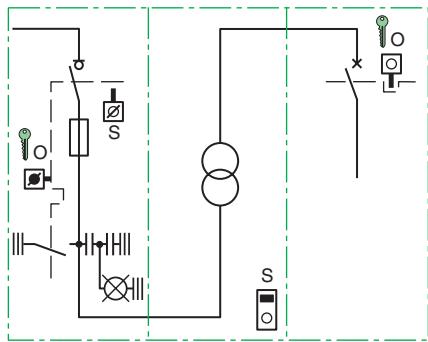
- The MV earthing switch is in the closed position but not locked, i.e. may be opened or closed. When carrying out maintenance work, a padlock is generally used to lock the earthing switch in the closed position, the key of the padlock being held by the engineer supervizing the work.

- The LV CB is locked open by key "O", which is trapped by the closed MV earthing switch. The transformer is therefore safely isolated and earthed.

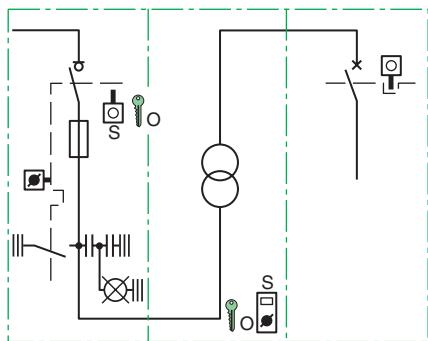
It may be noted that the upstream terminal of the load-break disconnecting switch may remain live in the procedure described as the terminals in question are located in a separate non accessible compartment in the particular switchgear under discussion. Any other technical solution with exposed terminals in the accessed compartment would need further de-energisation and interlocks.



MV switch and LV CB closed



MV fuses accessible



Transformer MV terminals accessible

Legend

	Key absent
	Key free
	Key trapped
	Panel or door

Fig. B9 : Example of MV/LV/TR interlocking

(1) Or may be provided with a common protective cover over the three terminals.

4 The consumer substation with LV metering

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4.1 General

A consumer substation with LV metering is an electrical installation connected to a utility supply system at a nominal voltage of 1 kV - 35 kV, and includes a single MV/LV transformer generally not exceeding 1,250 kVA.

Functions

The substation

All component parts of the substation are located in one room, either in an existing building, or in the form of a prefabricated housing exterior to the building.

Connection to the MV network

Connection at MV can be:

- Either by a single service cable or overhead line, or
- Via two mechanically interlocked load-break switches with two service cables from duplicate supply feeders, or
- Via two load-break switches of a ring-main unit

The transformer

Since the use of PCB⁽¹⁾-filled transformers is prohibited in most countries, the preferred available technologies are:

- Oil-immersed transformers for substations located outside premises
- Dry-type, vacuum-cast-resin transformers for locations inside premises, e.g. multistoreyed buildings, buildings receiving the public, and so on...

Metering

Metering at low voltage allows the use of small metering transformers at modest cost. Most tariff structures take account of MV/LV transformer losses.

LV installation circuits

A low-voltage circuit-breaker, suitable for isolation duty and locking off facilities, to:

- Supply a distribution board
- Protect the transformer against overloading and the downstream circuits against short-circuit faults.

Simplified electrical network diagram

The diagram on the following page (**Figure B10**) shows:

- Methods for connecting to the network (4 options):
 - Spur network or single-line service
 - Provisional network (can be transformed into a loop)
 - Parallel feeders service
 - Loop or ring-main service
- MV protection and MV/LV transformation methods
- LV metering and LV general isolation methods
- LV protection and distribution methods
- Zones accessible to different parties



Fig. B11 : SM6 modular unit

4.2 Choosing MV equipment

Standards and specifications

Switchgear and equipment shall conform to the following international standards: IEC 62271-1, 62271-200, 60265-1, 62271-102, 62271-100, 62271-105

Local regulations may also demand conformance to national standards. These include:

- France: UTE
- United Kingdom: BS
- Germany: VDE
- USA: ANSI

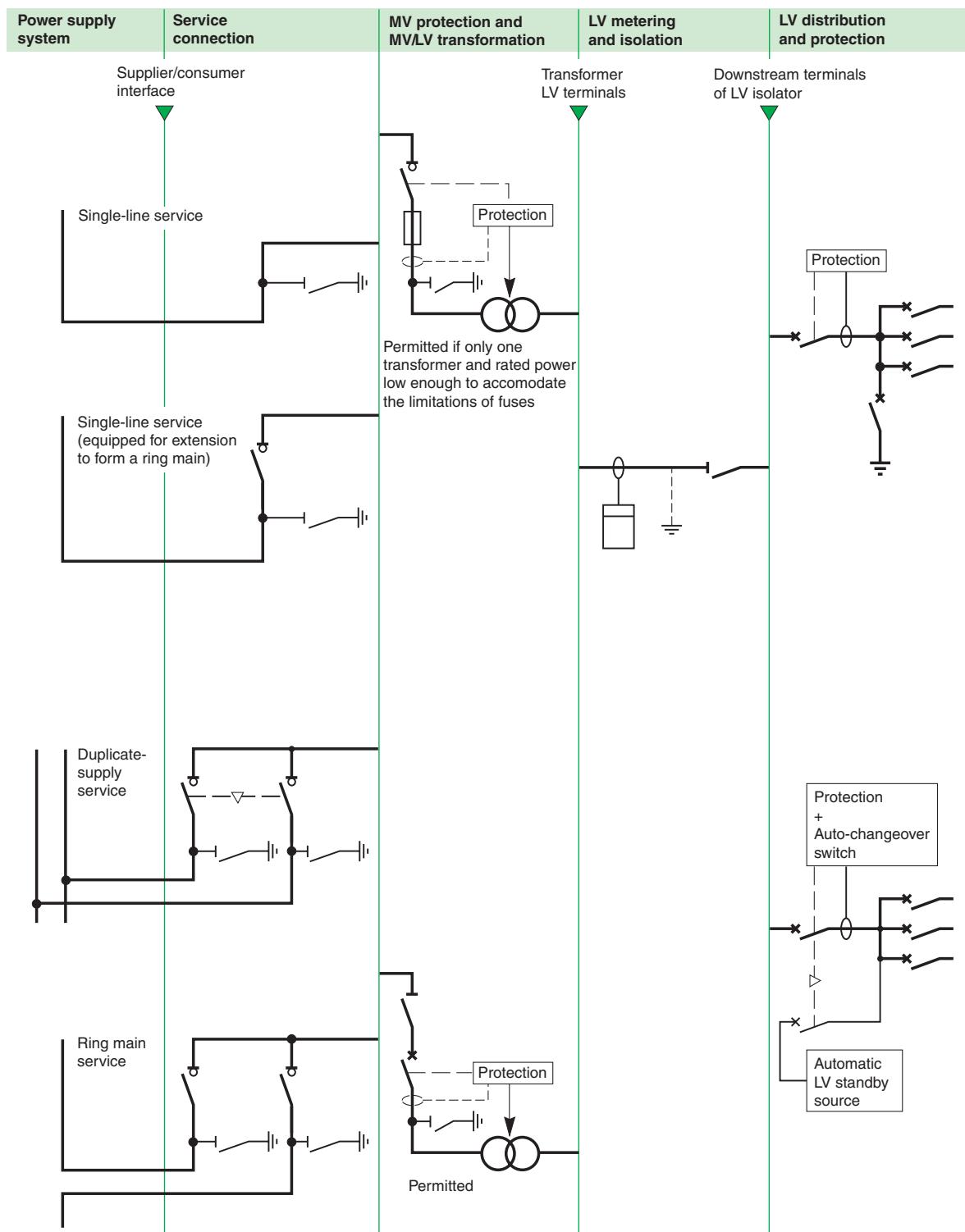


Fig. B10 : Consumer substation with LV metering

4 The consumer substation with LV metering

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Choosing types of equipment

Substations can be implemented in line with local standards and practices using equipment such as:

- Modular units to support all types of layout and any subsequent expansion work (whilst ensuring there is sufficient space)
- Compact arrangements based on the ring-main unit where the supply is provided via a loop (single assembly comprising 3 functions). These are particularly suitable where:
 - Climatic conditions and/or pollution are very bad (integrated insulation)
 - There is not enough space for a modular solution

Compartmentalised modular units in metallic enclosures

IEC 62271-200 standard

The IEC 62271-200 standard specifies «AC metal-enclosed switchgear and controlgear for rated voltages above 1 kV and up to and including 52 kV».

The main precepts of the standard relate to:

- Switchgear types:
 - AIS (Air Insulated Switchgear)
 - GIS (Gas Insulated Switchgear)
- Functional units: «a switchgear component contained in a metallic enclosure and incorporating all the main and auxiliary circuit equipment required to perform a single function» - usually a modular unit
- Compartments: «a switchgear component contained in a closed metallic enclosure (apart from the openings required for interconnection, control or ventilation)». The manufacturer defines the content (e.g. busbar, cables, switchgear, etc.) and the number of compartments able to house the following types of switchgear:
 - Fixed
 - Removable
- Accessibility of individual compartments:
 - Controlled by interlocking or in accordance with procedures; for compartments which can be opened during normal operation
 - Using tools; for compartments which should not be opened during normal operation
 - Zero; for compartments which must not be opened
- The LSC (Loss of Service Continuity) defining the extent to which other compartments can remain energised when one compartment is open
 - LSC1, when opening a compartment requires the other functional units to be de-energised
 - LSC2 A, when the other functional units can remain energised
 - LSC2 B, when the other functional units and all the cable compartments can remain energised
- The partition class between energised components and an open compartment, based on the type of partition: «a switchgear component contained in a metallic enclosure and separating one compartment from another»:
 - PM: metallic partitions
 - PI: insulating partitions

4.3 Choice of MV switchgear panel for a transformer circuit

Three types of MV switchgear panel are generally available:

- Load-break switch and separate MV fuses in the panel
- Load-break switch/MV fuses combination
- Circuit-breaker

Seven parameters influence the optimum choice:

- The primary current of the transformer
- The insulating medium of the transformer
- The position of the substation with respect to the load centre
- The kVA rating of the transformer
- The distance from switchgear to the transformer
- The use of separate protection relays (as opposed to direct-acting trip coils).

Note: The fuses used in the load-break/switch fuses combination have striker-pins which ensure tripping of the 3-pole switch on the operation of one (or more) fuse(s).

4.4 Choice of MV/LV transformer

Characteristic parameters of a transformer

A transformer is characterized in part by its electrical parameters, but also by its technology and its conditions of use.

Electrical characteristics

- Rated power (P_n): the conventional apparent-power in kVA on which other design-parameter values and the construction of the transformer are based. Manufacturing tests and guarantees are referred to this rating
- Frequency: for power distribution systems of the kind discussed in this guide, the frequency will be 50 Hz or 60 Hz
- Rated primary and secondary voltages: For a primary winding capable of operating at more than one voltage level, a kVA rating corresponding to each level must be given. The secondary rated voltage is its open circuit value
- Rated insulation levels are given by overvoltage-withstand test values at power frequency, and by high voltage impulse tests values which simulate lightning discharges. At the voltage levels discussed in this guide, overvoltages caused by MV switching operations are generally less severe than those due to lightning, so that no separate tests for switching-surge withstand capability are made
- Off-circuit tap-selector switch generally allows a choice of up to $\pm 2.5\%$ and $\pm 5\%$ level about the rated voltage of the highest voltage winding. The transformer must be de-energized before this switch is operated
- Winding configurations are indicated in diagrammatic form by standard symbols for star, delta and inter-connected-star windings; (and combinations of these for special duty, e.g. six-or twelve-phase rectifier transformers, etc.) and in an IEC-recommended alphanumeric code. This code is read from left-to-right, the first letter refers to the highest voltage winding, the second letter to the next highest, and so on:
 - Capital letters refer to the highest voltage winding
 - D = delta
 - Y = star
 - Z = inter-connected-star (or zigzag)
 - N = neutral connection brought out to a terminal
 - Lower-case letters are used for tertiary and secondary windings
 - d = delta
 - y = star
 - z = inter-connected-star (or zigzag)
 - n = neutral connection brought out to a terminal
 - A number from 0 to 11, corresponding to those, on a clock dial ("0" is used instead of "12") follows any pair of letters to indicate the phase change (if any) which occurs during the transformation.

A very common winding configuration used for distribution transformers is that of a Dyn 11 transformer, which has a delta MV winding with a star-connected secondary winding the neutral point of which is brought out to a terminal. The phase change through the transformer is +30 degrees, i.e. phase 1 secondary voltage is at "11 o'clock" when phase 1 of the primary voltage is at "12 o'clock", as shown in Figure B31 page B34. All combinations of delta, star and zigzag windings produce a phase change which (if not zero) is either 30 degrees or a multiple of 30 degrees. IEC 60076-4 describes the "clock code" in detail.

Characteristics related to the technology and utilization of the transformer

This list is not exhaustive:

- Choice of technology

The insulating medium is:

- Liquid (mineral oil) or
- Solid (epoxy resin and air)
- For indoor or outdoor installation
- Altitude (<= 1,000 m is standard)
- Temperature (IEC 60076-2)
- Maximum ambient air: 40 °C
- Daily maximum average ambient air: 30 °C
- Annual maximum average ambient air: 20 °C

For non-standard operating conditions, refer to "Influence of the Ambient temperature and altitude on the rated current" on page B7.

Description of insulation techniques

There are two basic classes of distribution transformer presently available:

- Dry type (cast in resin)
- Liquid filled (oil-immersed)

4 The consumer substation with LV metering

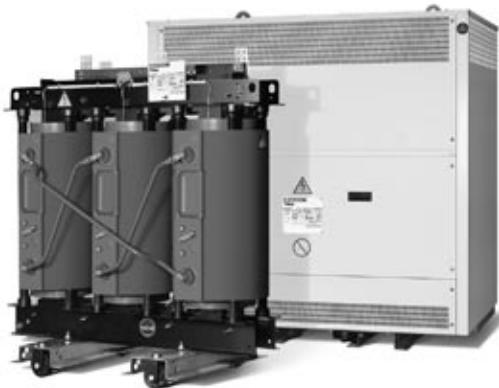


Fig. B12 : Dry-type transformer



Fig. B13 : Hermetically-sealed totally-filled tank



Fig. B14 : Air-breathing conservator-type tank at atmosphere pressure

Dry type transformers

The windings of these transformers are insulated by resin between turns and by resin and air to other windings and to frame. The resin is usually cast under vacuum process (which is patented by major manufacturers).

It is recommended that the transformer be chosen according to the IEC 60076-11, as follows:

- Environment class E2 (frequent condensation and/or high level of pollution)
- Climatic conditions class B2 (utilization, transport and stockage down to -25 °C)
- Fire resistance (transformers exposed to fire risk with low flammability and self-extinguishing in a given time)

The following description refers to the process developed by a leading European manufacturer in this field.

The encapsulation of a winding uses three components:

- Epoxy-resin based on biphenol A with a viscosity that ensures complete impregnation of the windings
- Anhydride hardener modified to introduce a degree of resilience in the moulding, essential to avoid the development of cracks during the temperature cycles occurring in normal operation
- Pulverulent additive composed of trihydrated alumina Al (OH)3 and silica which enhances its mechanical and thermal properties, as well as giving exceptional intrinsic qualities to the insulation in the presence of heat.

This three-component system of encapsulation gives Class F insulation ($\Delta\theta = 100$ K) with excellent fire-resistant qualities and immediate self-extinction. These transformers are therefore classified as nonflammable.

The mouldings of the windings contain no halogen compounds (chlorine, bromine, etc.) or other compounds capable of producing corrosive or toxic pollutants, thereby guaranteeing a high degree of safety to personnel in emergency situations, notably in the event of a fire.

It also performs exceptionally well in hostile industrial atmospheres of dust, humidity, etc. (see Fig. B12).

Liquid-filled transformers

The most common insulating/cooling liquid used in transformers is mineral oil.

Mineral oils are specified in IEC 60296. Being flammable, safety measures are obligatory in many countries, especially for indoor substations. The DGPT unit (Detection of Gas, Pressure and Temperature) ensures the protection of oil-filled transformers. In the event of an anomaly, the DGPT causes the MV supply to the transformer to be cut off very rapidly, before the situation becomes dangerous.

Mineral oil is bio-degradable and does not contain PCB (polychlorinated biphenyl), which was the reason for banning askerel, i.e. Pyralène, Pyrolio, Pyroline...

On request, mineral oil can be replaced by an alternative insulating liquid, by adapting the transformer, as required, and taking appropriate additional precautions if necessary.

The insulating fluid also acts as a cooling medium; it expands as the load and/or the ambient temperature increases, so that all liquid-filled transformers must be designed to accommodate the extra volume of liquid without the pressure in the tank becoming excessive.

There are two ways in which this pressure limitation is commonly achieved:

- Hermetically-sealed totally-filled tank (up to 10 MVA at the present time)
- Developed by a leading French manufacturer in 1963, this method was adopted by the national utility in 1972, and is now in world-wide service (see Fig. B13).

Expansion of the liquid is compensated by the elastic deformation of the oil-cooling passages attached to the tank.

The "total-fill" technique has many important advantages over other methods:

- Oxidation of the dielectric liquid (with atmospheric oxygen) is entirely precluded
- No need for an air-drying device, and so no consequent maintenance (inspection and changing of saturated dessicant)
- No need for dielectric-strength test of the liquid for at least 10 years
- Simplified protection against internal faults by means of a DGPT device is possible
- Simplicity of installation: lighter and lower profile (than tanks with a conservator) and access to the MV and LV terminals is unobstructed
- Immediate detection of (even small) oil leaks; water cannot enter the tank
- Air-breathing conservator-type tank at atmospheric pressure

Expansion of the insulating liquid is taken up by a change in the level of liquid in an expansion (conservator) tank, mounted above the transformer main tank, as shown in Figure B14. The space above the liquid in the conservator may be filled with air which is drawn in when the level of liquid falls, and is partially expelled

when the level rises. When the air is drawn in from the surrounding atmosphere it is admitted through an oil seal, before passing through a dessicating device (generally containing silica-gel crystals) before entering the conservator. In some designs of larger transformers the space above the oil is occupied by an impermeable air bag so that the insulation liquid is never in contact with the atmosphere. The air enters and exits from the deformable bag through an oil seal and dessicator, as previously described. A conservator expansion tank is obligatory for transformers rated above 10 MVA (which is presently the upper limit for "total-fill" type transformers).

Choice of technology

As discussed above, the choice of transformer is between liquid-filled or dry type. For ratings up to 10 MVA, totally-filled units are available as an alternative to conservator-type transformers.

A choice depends on a number of considerations, including:

- Safety of persons in proximity to the transformer. Local regulations and official recommendations may have to be respected
- Economic considerations, taking account of the relative advantages of each technique

The regulations affecting the choice are:

- Dry-type transformer:

□ In some countries a dry-type transformer is obligatory in high apartment blocks

□ Dry-type transformers impose no constraints in other situations

- Transformers with liquid insulation:

□ This type of transformer is generally forbidden in high apartment blocks

□ For different kinds of insulation liquids, installation restrictions, or minimum protection against fire risk, vary according to the class of insulation used

□ Some countries in which the use of liquid dielectrics is highly developed, classify the several categories of liquid according to their fire performance. This latter is assessed according to two criteria: the flash-point temperature, and the minimum calorific power. The principal categories are shown in **Figure B15** in which a classification code is used for convenience.

Code	Dielectric fluid	Flash-point (°C)	Minimum calorific power (MJ/kg)
O1	Mineral oil	< 300	-
K1	High-density hydrocarbons	> 300	48
K2	Esters	> 300	34 - 37
K3	Silicones	> 300	27 - 28
L3	Insulating halogen liquids	-	12

Fig. B15 : Categories of dielectric fluids

The determination of optimal power

Oversizing a transformer

It results in:

- Excessive investment and unnecessarily high no-load losses, but
- Lower on-load losses

Undersizing a transformer

It causes:

- A reduced efficiency when fully loaded, (the highest efficiency is attained in the range 50% - 70% full load) so that the optimum loading is not achieved
- On long-term overload, serious consequences for
 - The transformer, owing to the premature ageing of the windings insulation, and in extreme cases, resulting in failure of insulation and loss of the transformer
 - The installation, if overheating of the transformer causes protective relays to trip the controlling circuit-breaker.

4 The consumer substation with LV metering

B19

Definition of optimal power

In order to select an optimal power (kVA) rating for a transformer, the following factors must be taken into account:

- List the power of installed power-consuming equipment as described in Chapter A
- Decide the utilization (or demand) factor for each individual item of load
- Determine the load cycle of the installation, noting the duration of loads and overloads
- Arrange for power-factor correction, if justified, in order to:
 - Reduce cost penalties in tariffs based, in part, on maximum kVA demand
 - Reduce the value of declared load ($P(\text{kVA}) = P(\text{kW})/\cos \phi$)
- Select, among the range of standard transformer ratings available, taking into account all possible future extensions to the installation.

It is important to ensure that cooling arrangements for the transformer are adequate.

4.5 Instructions for use of MV equipment

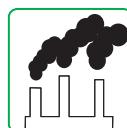


Fig. B15 : SM6 metal enclosed indoor MV equipment

Normal service conditions for indoor MV equipment

All MV equipments comply with specific standards and with the IEC 62271-1 standard "Common specifications for high-voltage switchgear and controlgear", which defines the normal conditions for the installation and use of such equipment. For instance, regarding humidity, the standard mentions:

The conditions of humidity are as follows:

- The average value of the relative humidity, measured over a period of 24 h does not exceed 90%;
- The average value of the water vapour pressure, over a period of 24 h does not exceed 2.2 kPa;
- The average value of the relative humidity, over a period of one month does not exceed 90%;
- The average value of water vapour pressure, over a period of one month does not exceed 1.8 kPa;

Under these conditions, condensation may occasionally occur.

NOTE 1: Condensation can be expected where sudden temperature changes occur in period of high humidity.

NOTE 2: To withstand the effects of high humidity and condensation, such as a breakdown of insulation or corrosion of metallic parts, switchgear designed for such conditions and tested accordingly should be used.

NOTE 3: Condensation may be prevented by special design of the building or housing, by suitable ventilation and heating of the station or by use of dehumidifying equipment.

As indicated in the standard, condensation may occasionally occur even under normal conditions. The standard goes on to indicate special measures concerning the substation premises that can be implemented to prevent condensation.

Use under severe conditions

Under certain severe conditions concerning humidity and pollution, largely beyond the normal conditions of use mentioned above, correctly designed electrical equipment can be subject to damage by rapid corrosion of metal parts and surface degradation of insulating parts.

Remedial measures for condensation problems

- Carefully design or adapt substation ventilation.
- Avoid temperature variations.
- Eliminate sources of humidity in the substation environment.
- Install an air conditioning system.
- Make sure cabling is in accordance with applicable rules.

Remedial measures for pollution problems

- Equip substation ventilation openings with chevron-type baffles to reduce entry of dust and pollution.
- Keep substation ventilation to the minimum required for evacuation of transformer heat to reduce entry of pollution and dust.
- Use MV cubicles with a sufficiently high degree of protection (IP).
- Use air conditioning systems with filters to restrict entry of pollution and dust.
- Regularly clean all traces of pollution from metal and insulating parts.

Ventilation

Substation ventilation is generally required to dissipate the heat produced by transformers and to allow drying after particularly wet or humid periods. However, a number of studies have shown that excessive ventilation can drastically increase condensation. Ventilation should therefore be kept to the minimum level required. Furthermore, ventilation should never generate sudden temperature variations that can cause the dew point to be reached. For this reason:

Natural ventilation should be used whenever possible. If forced ventilation is necessary, the fans should operate continuously to avoid temperature fluctuations. Guidelines for sizing the air entry and exit openings of substations are presented hereafter.

Calculation methods

A number of calculation methods are available to estimate the required size of substation ventilation openings, either for the design of new substations or the adaptation of existing substations for which condensation problems have occurred. The basic method is based on transformer dissipation. The required ventilation opening surface areas S and S' can be estimated using the following formulas:

$$S = \frac{1.8 \times 10^{-4}P}{\sqrt{H}} \text{ and } S' = 1.10 \times S$$

where:

S = Lower (air entry) ventilation opening area [m²] (grid surface deducted)

S' = Upper (air exit) ventilation opening area [m²] (grid surface deducted)

P = Total dissipated power [W]

P is the sum of the power dissipated by:

- The transformer (dissipation at no load and due to load)
- The LV switchgear
- The MV switchgear

H = Height between ventilation opening mid-points [m]

See Fig. B16

Note:

This formula is valid for a yearly average temperature of 20 °C and a maximum altitude of 1,000 m.

It must be noted that these formulae are able to determine only one order of magnitude of the sections S and S', which are qualified as thermal section, i.e. fully open and just necessary to evacuate the thermal energy generated inside the MV/LV substation.

The practical sections are of course larger according to the adopted technological solution.

Indeed, the real air flow is strongly dependant:

- on the openings shape and solutions adopted to ensure the cubicle protection index (IP): metal grid, stamped holes, chevron louvers, ...
- on internal components size and their position compared to the openings: transformer and/or retention oil box position and dimensions, flow channel between the components, ...
- and on some physical and environmental parameters: outside ambient temperature, altitude, magnitude of the resulting temperature rise.

The understanding and the optimization of the attached physical phenomena are subject to precise flow studies, based on the fluid dynamics laws, and realized with specific analytic software.

Example:

Transformer dissipation = 7,970 W

LV switchgear dissipation = 750 W

MV switchgear dissipation = 300 W

The height between ventilation opening mid-points is 1.5 m.

Calculation:

Dissipated Power P = 7,970 + 750 + 300 = 9,020 W

$$S = \frac{1.8 \times 10^{-4}P}{\sqrt{1.5}} = 1.32 \text{ m}^2 \text{ and } S' = 1.1 \times 1.32 = 1.46 \text{ m}^2$$

4 The consumer substation with LV metering

B21

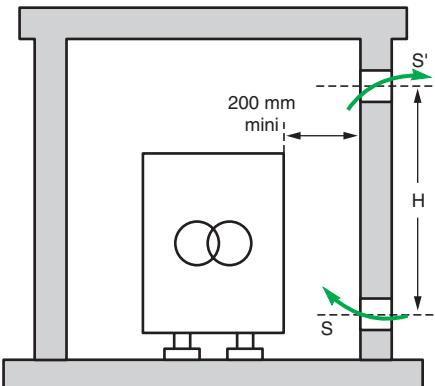


Fig. B16 : Natural ventilation

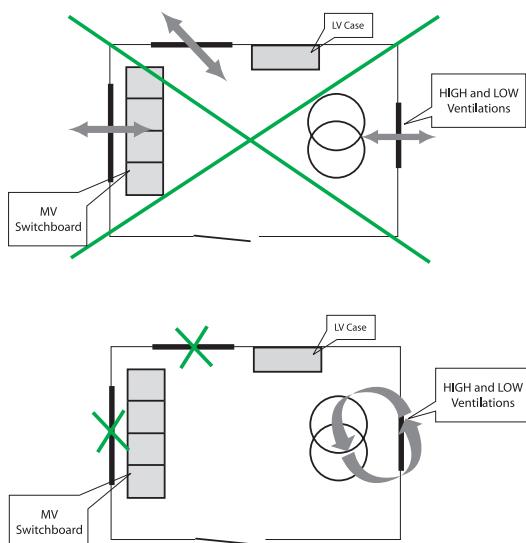


Fig. B17 : Ventilation opening locations

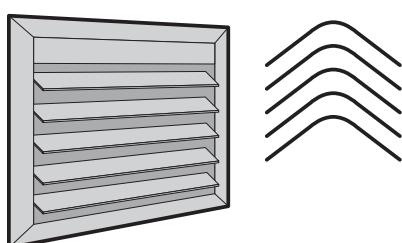


Fig. B18 : Chevron-blade baffles

Ventilation opening locations

To favour evacuation of the heat produced by the transformer via natural convection, ventilation openings should be located at the top and bottom of the wall near the transformer. The heat dissipated by the MV switchboard is negligible.

To avoid condensation problems, the substation ventilation openings should be located as far as possible from the switchboard (see Fig. B 17).

Type of ventilation openings

To reduce the entry of dust, pollution, mist, etc., the substation ventilation openings should be equipped with chevron-blade baffles.

Always make sure the baffles are oriented in the right direction (see Fig. B18).

Temperature variations inside cubicles

To reduce temperature variations, always install anti-condensation heaters inside MV cubicles if the average relative humidity can remain high over a long period of time. The heaters must operate continuously, 24 hours a day all year long.

Never connect them to a temperature control or regulation system as this could lead to temperature variations and condensation as well as a shorter service life for the heating elements. Make sure the heaters offer an adequate service life (standard versions are generally sufficient).

Temperature variations inside the substation

The following measures can be taken to reduce temperature variations inside the substation:

- Improve the thermal insulation of the substation to reduce the effects of outdoor temperature variations on the temperature inside the substation.
- Avoid substation heating if possible. If heating is required, make sure the regulation system and/or thermostat are sufficiently accurate and designed to avoid excessive temperature swings (e.g. no greater than 1 °C). If a sufficiently accurate temperature regulation system is not available, leave the heating on continuously, 24 hours a day all year long.
- Eliminate cold air drafts from cable trenches under cubicles or from openings in the substation (under doors, roof joints, etc.).

Substation environment and humidity

Various factors outside the substation can affect the humidity inside.

- Plants
Avoid excessive plant growth around the substation.
- Substation waterproofing
The substation roof must not leak. Avoid flat roofs for which waterproofing is difficult to implement and maintain.
- Humidity from cable trenches
Make sure cable trenches are dry under all conditions.
A partial solution is to add sand to the bottom of the cable trench.

Pollution protection and cleaning

Excessive pollution favours leakage current, tracking and flashover on insulators. To prevent MV equipment degradation by pollution, it is possible to either protect the equipment against pollution or regularly clean the resulting contamination.

Protection

Indoor MV switchgear can be protected by enclosures providing a sufficiently high degree of protection (IP).

Cleaning

If not fully protected, MV equipment must be cleaned regularly to prevent degradation by contamination from pollution.

Cleaning is a critical process. The use of unsuitable products can irreversibly damage the equipment.

For cleaning procedures, please contact your Schneider Electric correspondent.

5 The consumer substation with MV metering

B22

A consumer substation with MV metering is an electrical installation connected to a utility supply system at a nominal voltage of 1 kV - 35 kV and generally includes a single MV/LV transformer which exceeds 1,250 kVA, or several smaller transformers. The rated current of the MV switchgear does not normally exceed 400 A.

5.1 General

Functions

The substation

According to the complexity of the installation and the manner in which the load is divided, the substation:

- Might include one room containing the MV switchboard and metering panel(s), together with the transformer(s) and low-voltage main distribution board(s),
- Or might supply one or more transformer rooms, which include local LV distribution boards, supplied at MV from switchgear in a main substation, similar to that described above.

These substations may be installed, either:

- Inside a building, or
- Outdoors in prefabricated housings.

Connection to the MV network

Connection at MV can be:

- Either by a single service cable or overhead line, or
- Via two mechanically interlocked load-break switches with two service cables from duplicate supply feeders, or
- Via two load-break switches of a ring-main unit.

Metering

Before the installation project begins, the agreement of the power-supply utility regarding metering arrangements must be obtained.

A metering panel will be incorporated in the MV switchboard. Voltage transformers and current transformers, having the necessary metering accuracy, may be included in the main incoming circuit-breaker panel or (in the case of the voltage transformer) may be installed separately in the metering panel.

Transformer rooms

If the installation includes a number of transformer rooms, MV supplies from the main substation may be by simple radial feeders connected directly to the transformers, or by duplicate feeders to each room, or again, by a ring-main, according to the degree of supply availability desired.

In the two latter cases, 3-panel ring-main units will be required at each transformer room.

Local emergency generators

Emergency standby generators are intended to maintain a power supply to essential loads, in the event of failure of the power supply system.

Capacitors

Capacitors will be installed, according to requirements:

- In stepped MV banks at the main substation, or
- At LV in transformer rooms.

Transformers

For additional supply-security reasons, transformers may be arranged for automatic changeover operation, or for parallel operation.

One-line diagrams

The diagrams shown in **Figure B19** next page represent:

- The different methods of MV service connection, which may be one of four types:
 - Single-line service
 - Single-line service (equipped for extension to form a ring main)
 - Duplicate supply service
 - Ring main service
- General protection at MV, and MV metering functions
- Protection of outgoing MV circuits
- Protection of LV distribution circuits

5 The consumer substation with MV metering

B23

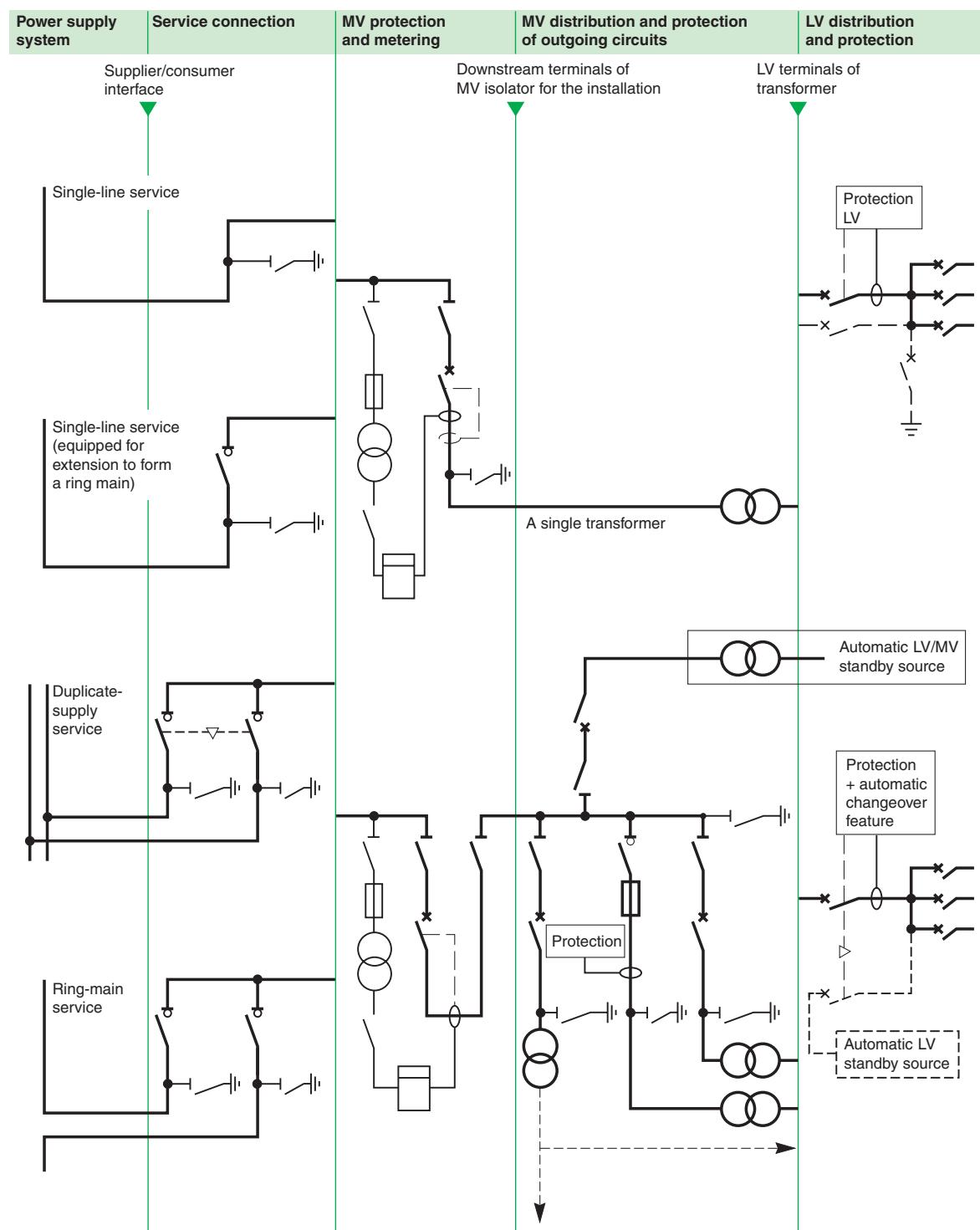


Fig. B19 : Consumer substation with MV metering

5.2 Choice of panels

A substation with MV metering includes, in addition to the panels described in 4.2, panels specifically designed for metering and, if required, for automatic or manual changeover from one source to another.

Metering and general protection

These two functions are achieved by the association of two panels:

- One panel containing the VT
- The main MV circuit-breaker panel containing the CTs for measurement and protection

The general protection is usually against overcurrent (overload and short-circuit) and earth faults. Both schemes use protective relays which are sealed by the power-supply utility.

Substation including generators

Generator in stand alone operation

If the installation needs great power supply availability, a MV standby generator set can be used. In such a case, the installation must include an automatic changeover. In order to avoid any possibility of parallel operation of the generator with the power supply network, a specific panel with automatic changeover is needed (see Fig. B20).

■ Protection

Specific protective devices are intended to protect the generator itself. It must be noted that, due to the very low short-circuit power of the generator comparing with the power supply network, a great attention must be paid to protection discrimination.

■ Control

A voltage regulator controlling an alternator is generally arranged to respond to a reduction of voltage at its terminals by automatically increasing the excitation current of the alternator, until the voltage is restored to normal. When it is intended that the alternator should operate in parallel with others, the AVR (Automatic Voltage Regulator) is switched to "parallel operation" in which the AVR control circuit is slightly modified (compounded) to ensure satisfactory sharing of kvars with the other parallel machines.

When a number of alternators are operating in parallel under AVR control, an increase in the excitation current of one of them (for example, carried out manually after switching its AVR to Manual control) will have practically no effect on the voltage level. In fact, the alternator in question will simply operate at a lower power factor (more kVA, and therefore more current) than before.

The power factor of all the other machines will automatically improve, such that the load power factor requirements are satisfied, as before.

Generator operating in parallel with the utility supply network

To connect a generator set on the network, the agreement of the power supply utility is usually required. Generally the equipment (panels, protection relays) must be approved by the utility.

The following notes indicate some basic consideration to be taken into account for protection and control.

■ Protection

To study the connection of generator set, the power supply utility needs some data as follows :

- Power injected on the network
- Connection mode
- Short-circuit current of the generator set
- Voltage unbalance of the generator
- etc.

Depending on the connection mode, dedicated uncoupling protection functions are required :

- Under-voltage and over-voltage protection
- Under-frequency and over-frequency protection
- Zero sequence overvoltage protection
- Maximum time of coupling (for momentary coupling)
- Reverse real power

For safety reasons, the switchgear used for uncoupling must also be provided with the characteristics of a disconnector (i.e total isolation of all active conductors between the generator set and the power supply network).

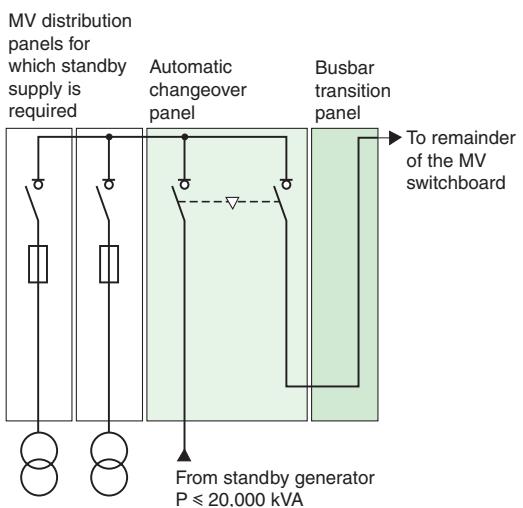


Fig. B20 : Section of MV switchboard including standby supply panel

5 The consumer substation with MV metering

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■ Control

When generators at a consumer's substation operate in parallel with all the generation of the utility power supply system, supposing the power system voltage is reduced for operational reasons (it is common to operate MV systems within a range of $\pm 5\%$ of nominal voltage, or even more, where load-flow patterns require it), an AVR set to maintain the voltage within $\pm 3\%$ (for example) will immediately attempt to raise the voltage by increasing the excitation current of the alternator.

Instead of raising the voltage, the alternator will simply operate at a lower power factor than before, thereby increasing its current output, and will continue to do so, until it is eventually tripped out by its overcurrent protective relays. This is a well-known problem and is usually overcome by the provision of a "constant power-factor" control switch on the AVR unit.

By making this selection, the AVR will automatically adjust the excitation current to match whatever voltage exists on the power system, while at the same time maintaining the power factor of the alternator constant at the pre-set value (selected on the AVR control unit).

In the event that the alternator becomes decoupled from the power system, the AVR must be automatically (rapidly) switched back to "constant-voltage" control.

5.3 Parallel operation of transformers

The need for operation of two or more transformers in parallel often arises due to:

- Load growth, which exceeds the capacity of an existing transformer
- Lack of space (height) for one large transformer
- A measure of security (the probability of two transformers failing at the same time is very small)
- The adoption of a standard size of transformer throughout an installation

Total power (kVA)

The total power (kVA) available when two or more transformers of the same kVA rating are connected in parallel, is equal to the sum of the individual ratings, providing that the percentage impedances are all equal and the voltage ratios are identical.

Transformers of unequal kVA ratings will share a load practically (but not exactly) in proportion to their ratings, providing that the voltage ratios are identical and the percentage impedances (at their own kVA rating) are identical, or very nearly so. In these cases, a total of more than 90% of the sum of the two ratings is normally available.

It is recommended that transformers, the kVA ratings of which differ by more than 2:1, should not be operated permanently in parallel.

Conditions necessary for parallel operation

All paralleled units must be supplied from the same network.

The inevitable circulating currents exchanged between the secondary circuits of paralleled transformers will be negligibly small providing that:

- Secondary cabling from the transformers to the point of paralleling have approximately equal lengths and characteristics
- The transformer manufacturer is fully informed of the duty intended for the transformers, so that:
 - The winding configurations (star, delta, zigzag star) of the several transformers have the same phase change between primary and secondary voltages
 - The short-circuit impedances are equal, or differ by less than 10%
 - Voltage differences between corresponding phases must not exceed 0.4%
 - All possible information on the conditions of use, expected load cycles, etc. should be given to the manufacturer with a view to optimizing load and no-load losses

5 The consumer substation with MV metering

B26

Common winding arrangements

As described in 4.4 "Electrical characteristics-winding configurations" the relationships between primary, secondary, and tertiary windings depend on:

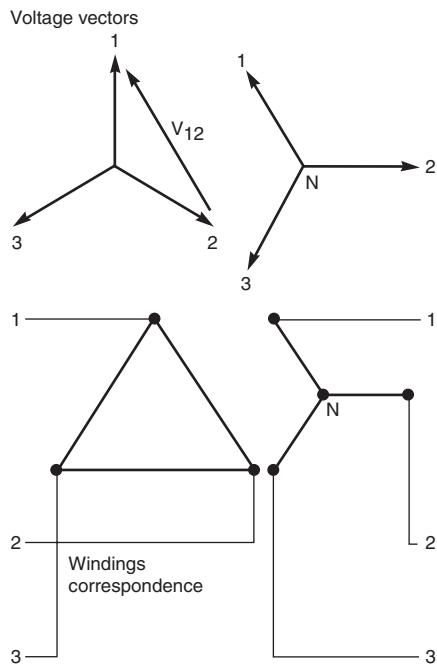
- Type of windings (delta, star, zigzag)
- Connection of the phase windings

Depending on which ends of the windings form the star point (for example), a star winding will produce voltages which are 180° displaced with respect to those produced if the opposite ends had been joined to form the star point. Similar 180° changes occur in the two possible ways of connecting phase-to-phase coils to form delta windings, while four different combinations of zigzag connections are possible.

- The phase displacement of the secondary phase voltages with respect to the corresponding primary phase voltages.

As previously noted, this displacement (if not zero) will always be a multiple of 30° and will depend on the two factors mentioned above, viz type of windings and connection (i.e. polarity) of the phase windings.

By far the most common type of distribution transformer winding configuration is the Dyn 11 connection (see Fig. B21).



V_{12} on the primary winding produces V_{1N} in the secondary winding and so on ...

Fig. B21 : Phase change through a Dyn 11 transformer

6 Constitution of MV/LV distribution substations

B27

MV/LV substations are constructed according to the magnitude of the load and the kind of power system in question.

Substations may be built in public places, such as parks, residential districts, etc. or on private premises, in which case the power supply authority must have unrestricted access. This is normally assured by locating the substation, such that one of its walls, which includes an access door, coincides with the boundary of the consumers premises and the public way.

6.1 Different types of substation

Substations may be classified according to metering arrangements (MV or LV) and type of supply (overhead line or underground cable).

The substations may be installed:

- Either indoors in room specially built for the purpose, within a building, or
- An outdoor installation which could be :
 - Installed in a dedicated enclosure prefabricated or not, with indoor equipment (switchgear and transformer)
 - Ground mounted with outdoor equipment (switchgear and transformers)
 - Pole mounted with dedicated outdoor equipment (switchgear and transformers)

Prefabricated substations provide a particularly simple, rapid and competitive choice.

6.2 Indoor substation

Conception

Figure B22 shows a typical equipment layout recommended for a LV metering substation.

Remark: the use of a cast-resin dry-type transformer does not need a fireprotection oil sump. However, periodic cleaning is needed.

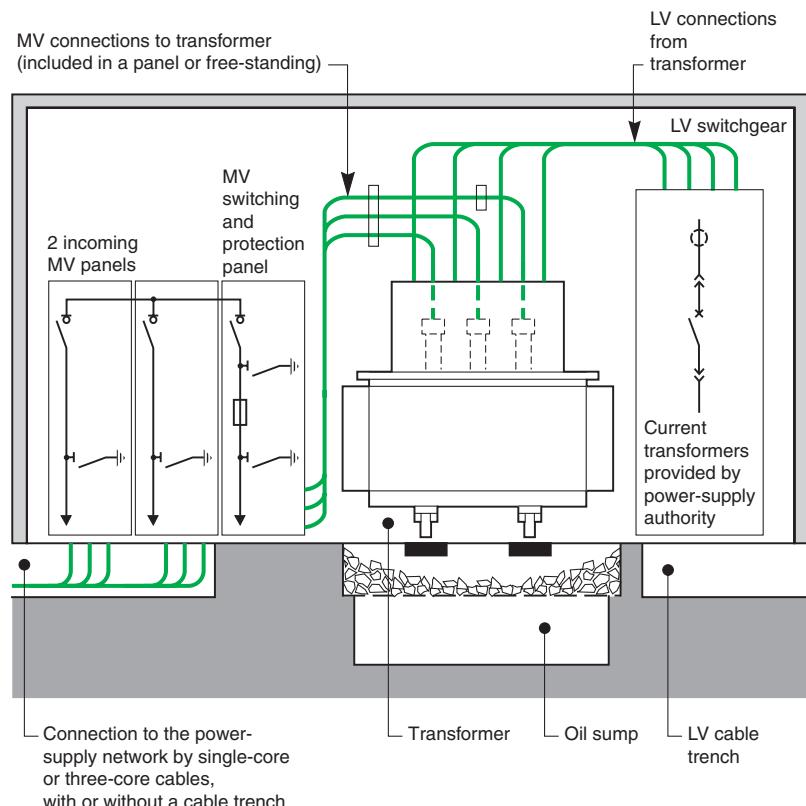


Fig. B22 : Typical arrangement of switchgear panels for LV metering

Service connections and equipment interconnections

At high voltage

- Connections to the MV system are made by, and are the responsibility of the utility
- Connections between the MV switchgear and the transformers may be:
 - By short copper bars where the transformer is housed in a panel forming part of the MV switchboard
 - By single-core screened cables with synthetic insulation, with possible use of plug-in type terminals at the transformer

At low voltage

- Connections between the LV terminals of the transformer and the LV switchgear may be:
 - Single-core cables
 - Solid copper bars (circular or rectangular section) with heat-shrinkable insulation

Metering (see Fig. B23)

- Metering current transformers are generally installed in the protective cover of the power transformer LV terminals, the cover being sealed by the supply utility
- Alternatively, the current transformers are installed in a sealed compartment within the main LV distribution cabinet
- The meters are mounted on a panel which is completely free from vibrations
- Placed as close to the current transformers as possible, and
- Are accessible only to the utility

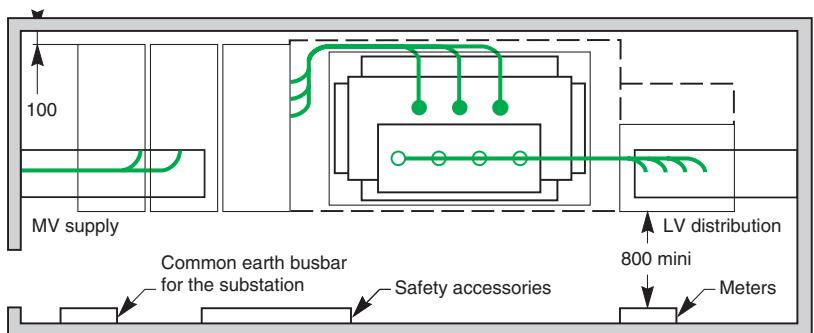


Fig. B23 : Plan view of typical substation with LV metering

Earthing circuits

The substation must include:

- An earth electrode for all exposed conductive parts of electrical equipment in the substation and exposed extraneous metal including:
 - Protective metal screens
 - Reinforcing rods in the concrete base of the substation

Substation lighting

Supply to the lighting circuits can be taken from a point upstream or downstream of the main incoming LV circuit-breaker. In either case, appropriate overcurrent protection must be provided. A separate automatic circuit (or circuits) is (are) recommended for emergency lighting purposes.

Operating switches, pushbuttons, etc. are normally located immediately adjacent to entrances.

Lighting fittings are arranged such that:

- Switchgear operating handles and position indication markings are adequately illuminated
- All metering dials and instruction plaques and so on, can be easily read

6 Constitution of MV/LV distribution substations

B29

Materials for operation and safety

According to local safety rules, generally, the substation is provided with:

- Materials for assuring safe exploitation of the equipment including:
 - Insulating stool and/or an insulating mat (rubber or synthetic)
 - A pair of insulated gloves stored in an envelope provided for the purpose
 - A voltage-detecting device for use on the MV equipment
 - Earthing attachments (according to type of switchgear)
 - Fire-extinguishing devices of the powder or CO₂ type
 - Warning signs, notices and safety alarms:
- On the external face of all access doors, a DANGER warning plaque and prohibition of entry notice, together with instructions for first-aid care for victims of electrical accidents.

6.3 Outdoor substations

Outdoor substation with prefabricated enclosures

A prefabricated MV/LV substation complying with IEC 62271-202 standard includes :

- equipement in accordance with IEC standards
- a type tested enclosure, which means during its design, it has undergone a battery of tests (see Fig. B24):
 - Degree of protection
 - Functional tests
 - Temperature class
 - Non-flammable materials
 - Mechanical resistance of the enclosure
 - Sound level
 - Insulation level
 - Internal arc withstand
 - Earthing circuit test
 - Oil retention,...

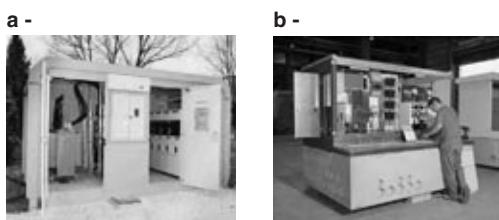
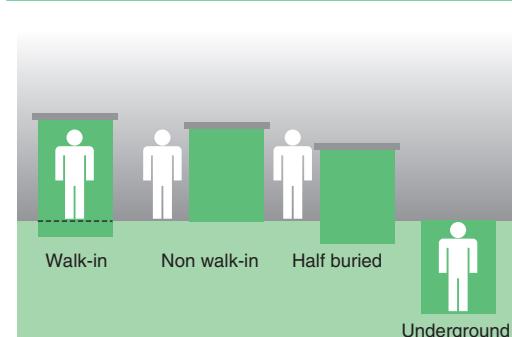


Fig. B25 : The four designs according to IEC 62271-202 standard and two pictures [a] walk-in type MV/LV substation; [b] half buried type MV/LV substation

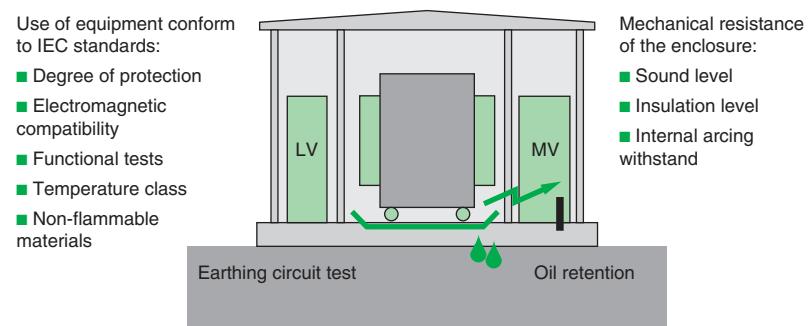


Fig. B24 : Type tested substation according to IEC 62271-202 standard

Main benefits are :

- Safety:
- For public and operators thanks to a high reproducible quality level
- Cost effective:
- Manufactured, equipped and tested in the factory
- Delivery time
- Delivered ready to be connected.

IEC 62271-202 standard includes four main designs (see Fig. B25)

- Walk-in type substation :
- Operation protected from bad weather conditions
- Non walk-in substation
- Ground space savings, and outdoors operations
- Half buried substation
- Limited visual impact
- Underground substation
- Blends completely into the environment.

6 Constitution of MV/LV distribution substations

B30

Outdoor substations without enclosures (see Fig. B26)

These kinds of outdoor substation are common in some countries, based on weatherproof equipment exposed to the elements.

These substations comprise a fenced area in which three or more concrete plinths are installed for:

- A ring-main unit, or one or more switch-fuse or circuit-breaker unit(s)
- One or more transformer(s), and
- One or more LV distribution panel(s).

Pole mounted substations

Field of application

These substations are mainly used to supply isolated rural consumers from MV overhead line distribution systems.

Constitution

In this type of substation, most often, the MV transformer protection is provided by fuses.

Lightning arresters are provided, however, to protect the transformer and consumers as shown in **Figure B27**.

General arrangement of equipment

As previously noted the location of the substation must allow easy access, not only for personnel but for equipment handling (raising the transformer, for example) and the manoeuvring of heavy vehicles.



Fig. B26 : Outdoor substations without enclosures

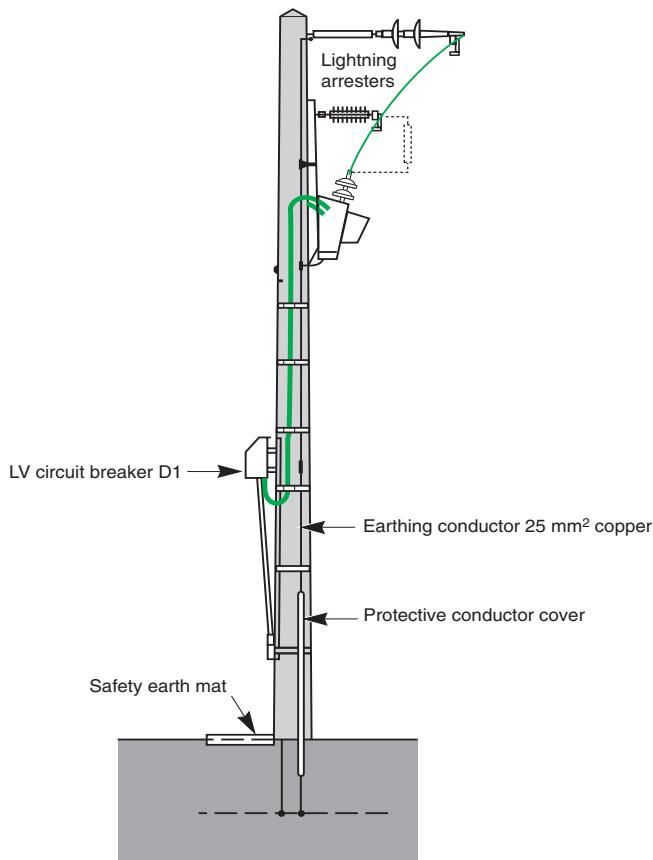


Fig. B27 : Pole-mounted transformer substation

Chapter C

Connection to the LV utility distribution network

Contents

1	Low-voltage utility distribution networks	C2
	1.1 Low-voltage consumers	C2
	1.2 Low-voltage distribution networks	C10
	1.3 The consumer service connection	C11
	1.4 Quality of supply voltage	C15
2	Tariffs and metering	C16

1 Low-voltage utility distribution networks

The most-common LV supplies are within the range 120 V single phase to 240/415 V 3-phase 4-wires.

C2 *Loads up to 250 kVA can be supplied at LV, but power-supply organizations generally propose a MV service at load levels for which their LV networks are marginally adequate. An international voltage standard for 3-phase 4-wire LV systems is recommended by the IEC 60038 to be 230/400 V*

1.1 Low-voltage consumers

In Europe, the transition period on the voltage tolerance to "230V/400V + 10% / - 10%" has been extended for another 5 years up to the year 2008.

Low-voltage consumers are, by definition, those consumers whose loads can be satisfactorily supplied from the low-voltage system in their locality.

The voltage of the local LV network may be 120/208 V or 240/415 V, i.e. the lower or upper extremes of the most common 3-phase levels in general use, or at some intermediate level, as shown in **Figure C1**.

An international voltage standard for 3-phase 4-wire LV systems is recommended by the IEC 60038 to be 230/400 V.

Loads up to 250 kVA can be supplied at LV, but power-supply organizations generally propose a MV service at load levels for which their LV networks are marginally adequate.

Country	Frequency & tolerance (Hz & %)	Domestic (V)	Commercial (V)	Industrial (V)
Afghanistan	50 220 (k)	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)
Algeria	50 ± 1.5	220/127 (e) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220/127 (a)	10,000 5,500 6,600 380/220 (a)
Angola	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)
Antigua and Barbuda	60	240 (k) 120 (k)	400/230 (a) 120/208 (a)	400/230 (a) 120/208 (a)
Argentina	50 ± 2	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	
Armenia	50 ± 5	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Australia	50 ± 0.1	415/240 (a) 240 (k)	415/240 (a) 440/250 (a) 440 (m)	22,000 11,000 6,600 415/240 440/250
Austria	50 ± 0.1	230 (k)	380/230 (a) (b) 230 (k)	5,000 380/220 (a)
Azerbaijan	50 ± 0.1	208/120 (a) 240/120 (k)	208/120 (a) 240/120 (k)	
Bahrain	50 ± 0.1	415/240 (a) 240 (k)	415/240 (a) 240 (k)	11,000 415/240 (a) 240 (k)
Bangladesh	50 ± 2	410/220 (a) 220 (k)	410/220 (a)	11,000 410/220 (a)
Barbados	50 ± 6	230/115 (j) 115 (k)	230/115 (j) 200/115 (a) 220/115 (a)	230/400 (g) 230/155 (j)
Belarus	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k) 220/127 (a) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Belgium	50 ± 5	230 (k) 230 (a) 3N, 400	230 (k) 230 (a) 3N, 400	6,600 10,000 11,000 15,000
Bolivia	50 ± 0.5	230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a)
Botswana	50 ± 3	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)
Brazil	60	220 (k) 127 (k)	220/380 (a) 127/220 (a)	13,800 11,200 220/380 (a) 127/220 (a)
Brunei	50 ± 2	230	230	11,000 68,000
Bulgaria	50 ± 0.1	220	220/240	1,000 690 380

Fig. C1 : Voltage of local LV network and their associated circuit diagrams (continued on next page)

1 Low-voltage utility distribution networks

C3

Country	Frequency & tolerance (Hz & %)	Domestic (V)	Commercial (V)	Industrial (V)
Cambodia	50 ± 1	220 (k)	220/300	220/380
Cameroon	50 ± 1	220/260 (k)	220/260 (k)	220/380 (a)
Canada	60 ± 0.02	120/240 (j)	347/600 (a) 480 (f) 240 (f) 120/240 (j) 120/208 (a)	7,200/12,500 347/600 (a) 120/208 600 (f) 480 (f) 240 (f)
Cape Verde		220	220	380/400
Chad	50 ± 1	220 (k)	220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Chile	50 ± 1	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)
China	50 ± 0.5	220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)
Colombia	60 ± 1	120/240 (g) 120 (k)	120/240 (g) 120 (k)	13,200 120/240 (g)
Congo	50	220 (k)	240/120 (j) 120 (k)	380/220 (a)
Croatia	50	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a)
Cyprus	50 ± 0.1	240 (k)	415/240	11,000 415/240
Czech Republic	50 ± 1	230	500 230/400	400,000 220,000 110,000 35,000 22,000 10,000 6,000 3,000
Denmark	50 ± 1	400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)
Djibouti	50		400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)
Dominica	50	230 (k)	400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)
Egypt	50 ± 0.5	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	66,000 33,000 20,000 11,000 6,600 380/220 (a)
Estonia	50 ± 1	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Ethiopia	50 ± 2.5	220 (k)	380/231 (a)	15 000 380/231 (a)
Falkland Islands	50 ± 3	230 (k)	415/230 (a)	415/230 (a)
Fiji Islands	50 ± 2	415/240 (a) 240 (k)	415/240 (a) 240 (k)	11,000 415/240 (a)
Finland	50 ± 0.1	230 (k)	400/230 (a)	690/400 (a) 400/230 (a)
France	50 ± 1	400/230 (a) 230 (a)	400/230 690/400 590/100	20,000 10,000 230/400
Gambia	50	220 (k)	220/380	380
Georgia	50 ± 0.5	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Germany	50 ± 0.3	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	20,000 10,000 6,000 690/400 400/230
Ghana	50 ± 5	220/240	220/240	415/240 (a)
Gibraltar	50 ± 1	415/240 (a)	415/240 (a)	415/240 (a)
Greece	50	220 (k) 230	6,000 380/220 (a)	22,000 20,000 15,000 6,600
Granada	50	230 (k)	400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)
Hong Kong	50 ± 2	220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	11,000 386/220 (a)
Hungary	50 ± 5	220	220	220/380
Iceland	50 ± 0.1	230	230/400	230/400

Fig. C1 : Voltage of local LV network and their associated circuit diagrams (continued on next page)

Country	Frequency & tolerance (Hz & %)	Domestic (V)	Commercial (V)	Industrial (V)
India	50 ± 1.5	440/250 (a) 230 (k)	440/250 (a) 230 (k)	11,000 400/230 (a) 440/250 (a)
Indonesia	50 ± 2	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	150,000 20,000 380/220 (a)
Iran	50 ± 5	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	20,000 11,000 400/231 (a) 380/220 (a)
Iraq	50	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	11,000 6,600 3,000 380/220 (a)
Ireland	50 ± 2	230 (k)	400/230 (a)	20,000 10,000 400/230 (a)
Israel	50 ± 0.2	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	22,000 12,600 6,300 400/230 (a)
Italy	50 ± 0.4	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a)	20,000 15,000 10,000 400/230 (a)
Jamaica	50 ± 1	220/110 (g) (j)	220/110 (g) (j)	4,000 2,300 220/110 (g)
Japan (east)	+ 0.1 - 0.3	200/100 (h)	200/100 (h) (up to 50 kW)	140,000 60,000 20,000 6,000 200/100 (h)
Jordan	50	380/220 (a) 400/230 (k)	380/220 (a)	400 (a)
Kazakhstan	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k) 220/127 (a) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Kenya	50	240 (k)	415/240 (a)	415/240 (a)
Kirghizia	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k) 220/127 (a) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Korea (North)	60 +0, -5	220 (k)	220/380 (a)	13,600 6,800
Korea (South)	60	100 (k)	100/200 (j)	
Kuwait	50 ± 3	240 (k)	415/240 (a)	415/240 (a)
Laos	50 ± 8	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)
Lesotho		220 (k)	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)
Latvia	50 ± 0.4	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Lebanon	50	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)
Libya	50	230 (k) 127 (k)	400/230 (a) 220/127 (a) 230 (k) 127 (k)	400/230 (a) 220/127 (a)
Lithuania	50 ± 0.5	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Luxembourg	50 ± 0.5	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)	20,000 15,000 5,000
Macedonia	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	10,000 6,600 380/220 (a)
Madagascar	50	220/110 (k)	380/220 (a)	35,000 5,000 380/220

Fig. C1 : Voltage of local LV network and their associated circuit diagrams (continued on next page)

1 Low-voltage utility distribution networks

C5

Country	Frequency & tolerance (Hz & %)	Domestic (V)	Commercial (V)	Industrial (V)
Malaysia	50 ± 1	240 (k) 415 (a)	415/240 (a)	415/240 (a)
Malawi	50 ± 2.5	230 (k)	400 (a) 230 (k)	400 (a)
Mali	50	220 (k) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220/127 (a) 220 (k) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220/127 (a)
Malta	50 ± 2	240 (k)	415/240 (a)	415/240 (a)
Martinique	50	127 (k)	220/127 (a) 127 (k)	220/127 (a)
Mauritania	50 ± 1	230 (k)	400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)
Mexico	60 ± 0.2	127/220 (a) 220 (k) 120 (l)	127/220 (a) 220 (k) 120 (l)	13,800 13,200 277/480 (a) 127/220 (b)
Moldavia	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k) 220/127 (a) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Morocco	50 ± 5	380/220 (a) 220/110 (a)	380/220 (a)	225,000 150,000 60,000 22,000 20,000
Mozambique	50	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)	6,000 10,000
Nepal	50 ± 1	220 (k)	440/220 (a) 220 (k)	11,000 440/220 (a)
Netherlands	50 ± 0.4	230/400 (a) 230 (k)	230/400 (a)	25,000 20,000 12,000 10,000 230/400
New Zealand	50 ± 1.5	400/230 (e) (a) 230 (k) 460/230 (e)	400/230 (e) (a) 230 (k)	11,000 400/230 (a)
Niger	50 ± 1	230 (k)	380/220 (a)	15,000 380/220 (a)
Nigeria	50 ± 1	230 (k) 220 (k)	400/230 (a) 380/220 (a)	15,000 11,000 400/230 (a) 380/220 (a)
Norway	50 ± 2	230/400	230/400	230/400 690
Oman	50	240 (k)	415/240 (a) 240 (k)	415/240 (a)
Pakistan	50	230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a)
Papua New Guinea	50 ± 2	240 (k)	415/240 (a) 240 (k)	22,000 11,000 415/240 (a)
Paraguay	50 ± 0.5	220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	22,000 380/220 (a)
Philippines (Rep of the)	60 ± 0.16	110/220 (j)	13,800 4,160 2,400 110/220 (h)	13,800 4,160 2,400 440 (b) 110/220 (h)
Poland	50 ± 0.1	230 (k)	400/230 (a)	1,000 690/400 400/230 (a)
Portugal	50 ± 1	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	15,000 5,000 380/220 (a) 220 (k)	15,000 5,000 380/220 (a)
Qatar	50 ± 0.1	415/240 (k)	415/240 (a)	11,000 415/240 (a)

Fig. C1 : Voltage of local LV network and their associated circuit diagrams (continued on next page)

Country	Frequency & tolerance (Hz & %)	Domestic (V)	Commercial (V)	Industrial (V)
Romania	50 ± 0.5	220 (k) 220/380 (a)	220/380 (a)	20,000 10,000 6,000 220/380 (a)
Russia	50 ± 0.2	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Rwanda	50 ± 1	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	15,000 6,600 380/220 (a)
Saint Lucia	50 ± 3	240 (k)	415/240 (a)	11,000 415/240 (a)
Samoa		400/230		
San Marino	50 ± 1	230/220	380	15,000 380
Saudi Arabia	60	220/127 (a)	220/127 (a) 380/220 (a)	11,000 7,200 380/220 (a)
The Solomon Islands	50 ± 2	240	415/240	415/240
Senegal	50 ± 5	220 (a) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220/127 (k)	90,000 30,000 6,600
Serbia and Montenegro	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	10,000 6,600 380/220 (a)
Seychelles	50 ± 1	400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)	11,000 400/230 (a)
Sierra Leone	50 ± 5	230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	11,000 400
Singapore	50	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a)	22,000 6,600 400/230 (a)
Slovakia	50 ± 0.5	230	230	230/400
Slovenia	50 ± 0.1	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	10,000 6,600 380/220 (a)
Somalia	50	230 (k) 220 (k) 110 (k)	440/220 (j) 220/110 (j) 230 (k)	440/220 (g) 220/110 (g)
South Africa	50 ± 2.5	433/250 (a) 400/230 (a) 380/220 (a) 220 (k)	11,000 6,600 3,300 433/250 (a) 400/230 (a) 380/220 (a)	11,000 6,600 3,300 500 (b) 380/220 (a)
Spain	50 ± 3	380/220 (a) (e) 220 (k) 220/127 (a) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220/127 (a) (e)	15,000 11,000 380/220 (a)
Sri Lanka	50 ± 2	230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	11,000 400/230 (a)
Sudan	50	240 (k)	415/240 (a) 240 (k)	415/240 (a)
Swaziland	50 ± 2.5	230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	11,000 400/230 (a)
Sweden	50 ± 0.5	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	400/230 (a) 230 (k)	6,000 400/230 (a)
Switzerland	50 ± 2	400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)	20,000 10,000 3,000 1,000 690/500
Syria	50	220 (k) 115 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k) 200/115 (a)	380/220 (a)
Tadzhikistan	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k) 220/127 (a) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)

Fig. C1 : Voltage of local LV network and their associated circuit diagrams (continued on next page)

1 Low-voltage utility distribution networks

C7

Country	Frequency & tolerance (Hz & %)	Domestic (V)	Commercial (V)	Industrial (V)
Tanzania	50	400/230 (a)	400/230 (a)	11,000 400/230 (a)
Thailand	50	220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Togo	50	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	20,000 5,500 380/220 (a)
Tunisia	50 ± 2	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	30,000 15,000
				10,000 380/220 (a)
Turkmenistan	50	380/220 (a) 220 (k) 220/127 (a) 127 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a)
Turkey	50 ± 1	380/220 (a)	380/220 (a)	15,000 6,300 380/220 (a)
Uganda	+ 0.1	240 (k)	415/240 (a)	11,000 415/240 (a)
Ukraine	+ 0.2 / - 1.5	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)	380/220 (a) 220 (k)
United Arab Emirates	50 ± 1	220 (k)	415/240 (a) 380/220 (a) 220 (k)	6,600 415/210 (a) 380/220 (a)
United Kingdom (except Northern Ireland)	50 ± 1	230 (k)	400/230 (a)	22,000 11,000 6,600 3,300 400/230 (a)
United Kingdom (Including Northern Ireland)	50 ± 0.4	230 (k) 220 (k)	400/230 (a) 380/220 (a)	400/230 (a) 380/220 (a)
United States of America Charlotte (North Carolina)	60 ± 0.06	120/240 (j) 120/208 (a)	265/460 (a) 120/240 (j) 120/208 (a)	14,400 7,200 2,400 575 (f) 460 (f) 240 (f) 265/460 (a) 120/240 (j) 120/208 (a)
United States of America Detroit (Michigan)	60 ± 0.2	120/240 (j) 120/208 (a)	480 (f) 120/240 (h) 120/208 (a)	13,200 4,800 4,160 480 (f) 120/240 (h) 120/208 (a)
United States of America Los Angeles (California)	60 ± 0.2	120/240 (j)	4,800 120/240 (g)	4,800 120/240 (g)
United States of America Miami (Florida)	60 ± 0.3	120/240 (j) 120/208 (a)	120/240 (j) 120/240 (h) 120/208 (a)	13,200 2,400 480/277 (a) 120/240 (h)
United States of America New York (New York)	60	120/240 (j) 120/208 (a)	120/240 (j) 120/208 (a) 240 (f)	12,470 4,160 277/480 (a) 480 (f)
United States of America Pittsburg (Pennsylvania)	60 ± 0.03	120/240 (j)	265/460 (a) 120/240 (j) 120/208 (a) 460 (f) 230 (f)	13,200 11,500 2,400 265/460 (a) 120/208 (a) 460 (f) 230 (f)

Fig. C1 : Voltage of local LV network and their associated circuit diagrams (continued on next page)

Country	Frequency & tolerance (Hz & %)	Domestic (V)	Commercial (V)	Industrial (V)
United States of America Portland (Oregon)	60	120/240 (j)	227/480 (a) 120/240 (j) 120/208 (a) 480 (f) 240 (f)	19,900 12,000 7,200 2,400 277/480 (a) 120/208 (a) 480 (f) 240 (f)
United States of America San Francisco (California)	60 ± 0.08	120/240 (j)	277/480 (a) 120/240 (j)	20,800 12,000 4,160 277/480 (a) 120/240 (g)
United States of America Toledo (Ohio)	60 ± 0.08	120/240 (j) 120/208 (a)	277/480 (c) 120/240(h) 120/208 (j)	12,470 7,200 4,800 4,160 480 (f) 277/480 (a) 120/208 (a)
Uruguay	50 ± 1	220 (b) (k)	220 (b) (k)	15,000 6,000 220 (b)
Vietnam	50 ± 0.1	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	35,000 15,000 10,000 6,000
Yemen	50	250 (k)	440/250 (a)	440/250 (a)
Zambia	50 ± 2.5	220 (k)	380/220 (a)	380 (a)
Zimbabwe	50	225 (k)	390/225 (a)	11,000 390/225 (a)

Circuit diagrams

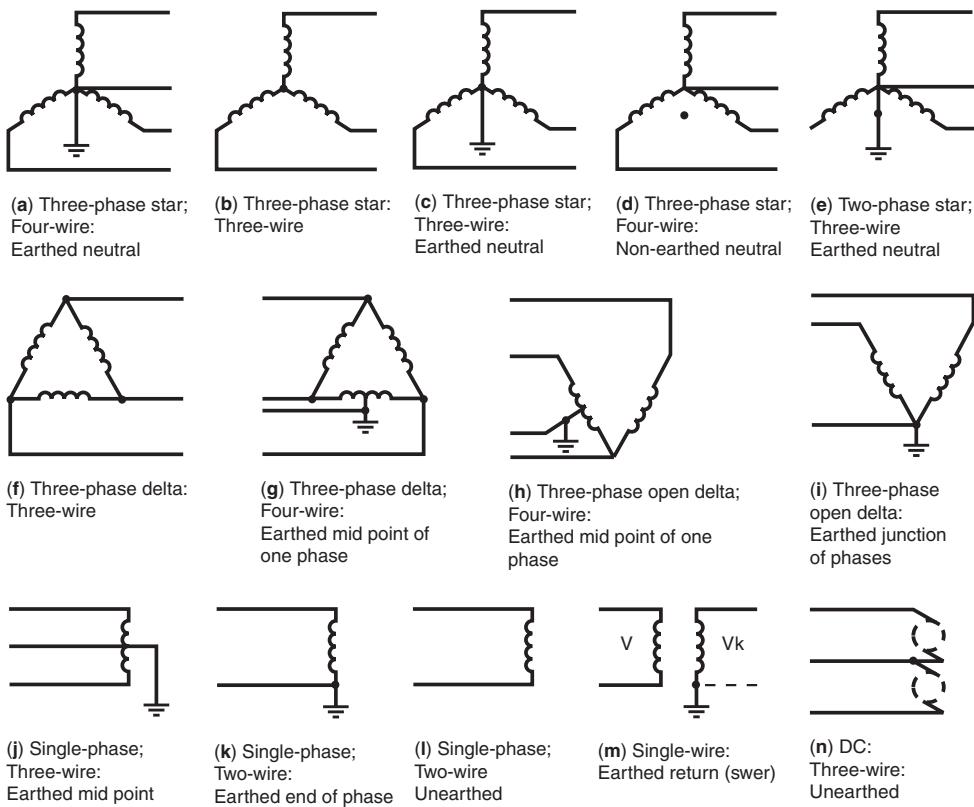


Fig. C1 : Voltage of local LV network and their associated circuit diagrams (concluded)

1 Low-voltage utility distribution networks

C9

Residential and commercial consumers

The function of a LV “mains” distributor is to provide service connections (underground cable or overhead line) to a number of consumers along its route.

The current-rating requirements of distributors are estimated from the number of consumers to be connected and an average demand per consumer.

The two principal limiting parameters of a distributor are:

- The maximum current which it is capable of carrying indefinitely, and
- The maximum length of cable which, when carrying its maximum current, will not exceed the statutory voltage-drop limit

These constraints mean that the magnitude of loads which utilities are willing to connect to their LV distribution mains, is necessarily restricted.

For the range of LV systems mentioned in the second paragraph of this sub-clause (1.1) viz: 120 V single phase to 240/415 V 3-phase, typical maximum permitted loads connected to a LV distributor might⁽¹⁾ be (see Fig. C2):

System	Assumed max. permitted current per consumer service	kVA
120 V 1-phase 2-wire	60 A	7.2
120/240 V 1-phase 3-wire	60 A	14.4
120/208 V 3-phase 4-wire	60 A	22
220/380 V 3-phase 4-wire	120 A	80
230/400 V 3-phase 4-wire	120 A	83
240/415 V 3-phase 4-wire	120 A	86

Fig. C2 : Typical maximum permitted loads connected to a LV distributor

Practices vary considerably from one power supply organization to another, and no “standardized” values can be given.

Factors to be considered include:

- The size of an existing distribution network to which the new load is to be connected
- The total load already connected to the distribution network
- The location along the distribution network of the proposed new load, i.e. close to the substation, or near the remote end of the distribution network, etc

In short, each case must be examined individually.

The load levels listed above are adequate for all normal residential consumers, and will be sufficient for the installations of many administrative, commercial and similar buildings.

Medium-size and small industrial consumers (with dedicated LV lines direct from a utility supply MV/LV substation)

Medium and small industrial consumers can also be satisfactorily supplied at low-voltage.

For loads which exceed the maximum permitted limit for a service from a distributor, a dedicated cable can usually be provided from the LV distribution fuse- (or switch-) board, in the power utility substation.

Generally, the upper load limit which can be supplied by this means is restricted only by the available spare transformer capacity in the substation.

In practice, however:

- Large loads (e.g. > 300 kVA) require correspondingly large cables, so that, unless the load centre is close to the substation, this method can be economically unfavourable
- Many utilities prefer to supply loads exceeding 200 kVA (this figure varies with different suppliers) at medium voltage

For these reasons, dedicated supply lines at LV are generally applied (at 220/380 V to 240/415 V) to a load range of 80 kVA to 250 kVA.

Consumers normally supplied at low voltage include:

- Residential dwellings
- Shops and commercial buildings
- Small factories, workshops and filling stations
- Restaurants
- Farms, etc

(1) The Figure C2 values shown are indicative only, being (arbitrarily) based on 60 A maximum service currents for the first three systems, since smaller voltage drops are allowed at these lower voltages, for a given percentage statutory limit. The second group of systems is (again, arbitrarily) based on a maximum permitted service current of 120 A.

In cities and large towns, standardized LV distribution cables form a network through link boxes. Some links are removed, so that each (fused) distributor leaving a substation forms a branched open-ended radial system, as shown in **Figure C3**

1.2 LV distribution networks

In European countries the standard 3-phase 4-wire distribution voltage level is 230/400 V. Many countries are currently converting their LV systems to the latest IEC standard of 230/400 V nominal (IEC 60038). Medium to large-sized towns and cities have underground cable distribution systems. MV/LV distribution substations, mutually spaced at approximately 500-600 metres, are typically equipped with:

- A 3- or 4-way MV switchboard, often made up of incoming and outgoing load-break switches forming part of a ring main, and one or two MV circuit-breakers or combined fuse/ load-break switches for the transformer circuits
- One or two 1,000 kVA MV/LV transformers
- One or two (coupled) 6- or 8-way LV 3-phase 4-wire distribution fuse boards, or moulded-case circuit-breaker boards, control and protect outgoing 4-core distribution cables, generally referred to as "distributors"

The output from a transformer is connected to the LV busbars via a load-break switch, or simply through isolating links.

In densely-loaded areas, a standard size of distributor is laid to form a network, with (generally) one cable along each pavement and 4-way link boxes located in manholes at street corners, where two cables cross.

Recent trends are towards weather-proof cabinets above ground level, either against a wall, or where possible, flush-mounted in the wall.

Links are inserted in such a way that distributors form radial circuits from the substation with open-ended branches (see Fig. C3). Where a link box unites a distributor from one substation with that from a neighbouring substation, the phase links are omitted or replaced by fuses, but the neutral link remains in place.

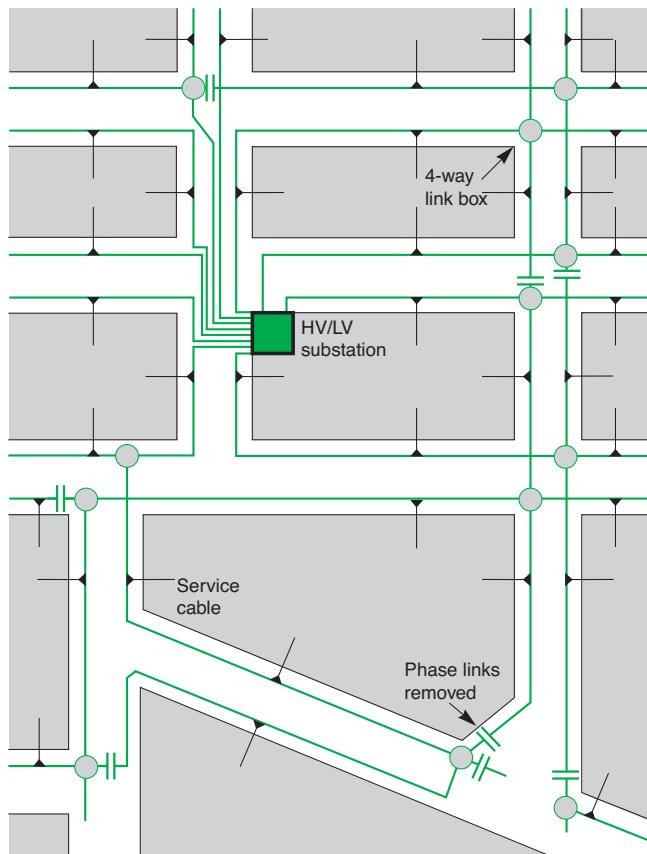


Fig. C3 : Showing one of several ways in which a LV distribution network may be arranged for radial branched-distributor operation, by removing (phase) links

1 Low-voltage utility distribution networks

C11

In less-densely loaded urban areas a more-economic system of tapered radial distribution is commonly used, in which conductors of reduced size are installed as the distance from a substation increases

Improved methods using insulated twisted conductors to form a pole mounted aerial cable are now standard practice in many countries

In Europe, each utility-supply distribution substation is able to supply at LV an area corresponding to a radius of approximately 300 metres from the substation.

North and Central American systems of distribution consist of a MV network from which numerous (small) MV/LV transformers each supply one or several consumers, by direct service cable (or line) from the transformer location

Service components and metering equipment were formerly installed inside a consumer's building. The modern tendency is to locate these items outside in a weatherproof cabinet

This arrangement provides a very flexible system in which a complete substation can be taken out of service, while the area normally supplied from it is fed from link boxes of the surrounding substations.

Moreover, short lengths of distributor (between two link boxes) can be isolated for fault-location and repair.

Where the load density requires it, the substations are more closely spaced, and transformers up to 1,500 kVA are sometimes necessary.

Other forms of urban LV network, based on free-standing LV distribution pillars, placed above ground at strategic points in the network, are widely used in areas of lower load density. This scheme exploits the principle of tapered radial distributors in which the distribution cable conductor size is reduced as the number of consumers downstream diminish with distance from the substation.

In this scheme a number of large-sectioned LV radial feeders from the distribution board in the substation supply the busbars of a distribution pillar, from which smaller distributors supply consumers immediately surrounding the pillar.

Distribution in market towns, villages and rural areas generally has, for many years, been based on bare copper conductors supported on wooden, concrete or steel poles, and supplied from pole-mounted or ground-mounted transformers.

In recent years, LV insulated conductors, twisted to form a two-core or 4-core self supporting cable for overhead use, have been developed, and are considered to be safer and visually more acceptable than bare copper lines.

This is particularly so when the conductors are fixed to walls (e.g. under-eaves wiring) where they are hardly noticeable.

As a matter of interest, similar principles have been applied at higher voltages, and self supporting "bundled" insulated conductors for MV overhead installations are now available for operation at 24 kV.

Where more than one substation supplies a village, arrangements are made at poles on which the LV lines from different substations meet, to interconnect corresponding phases.

North and Central American practice differs fundamentally from that in Europe, in that LV networks are practically nonexistent, and 3-phase supplies to premises in residential areas are rare.

The distribution is effectively carried out at medium voltage in a way, which again differs from standard European practices. The MV system is, in fact, a 3-phase 4-wire system from which single-phase distribution networks (phase and neutral conductors) supply numerous single-phase transformers, the secondary windings of which are centre-tapped to produce 120/240 V single-phase 3-wire supplies. The central conductors provide the LV neutrals, which, together with the MV neutral conductors, are solidly earthed at intervals along their lengths.

Each MV/LV transformer normally supplies one or several premises directly from the transformer position by radial service cable(s) or by overhead line(s).

Many other systems exist in these countries, but the one described appears to be the most common.

Figure C4 (next page) shows the main features of the two systems.

1.3 The consumer-service connection

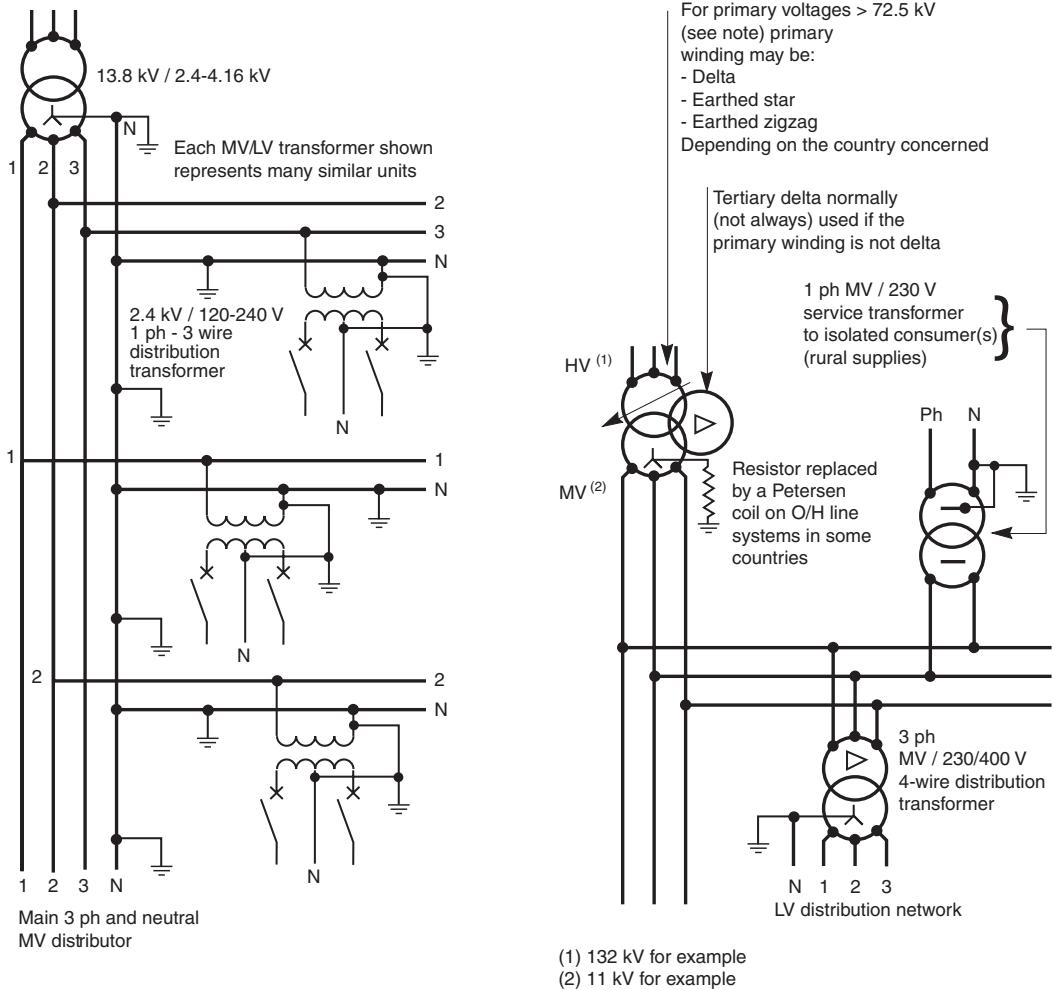
In the past, an underground cable service or the wall-mounted insulated conductors from an overhead line service, invariably terminated inside the consumer's premises, where the cable-end sealing box, the utility fuses (inaccessible to the consumer) and meters were installed.

A more recent trend is (as far as possible) to locate these service components in a weatherproof housing outside the building.

The utility/consumer interface is often at the outgoing terminals of the meter(s) or, in some cases, at the outgoing terminals of the installation main circuit-breaker (depending on local practices) to which connection is made by utility staff, following a satisfactory test and inspection of the installation.

A typical arrangement is shown in **Figure C5** (next page).

C12



Note: At primary voltages greater than 72.5 kV in bulk-supply substations, it is common practice in some European countries to use an earthed-star primary winding and a delta secondary winding. The neutral point on the secondary side is then provided by a zigzag earthing reactor, the star point of which is connected to earth through a resistor. Frequently, the earthing reactor has a secondary winding to provide LV 3-phase supplies for the substation. It is then referred to as an "earthing transformer".

Fig. C4 : Widely-used American and European-type systems

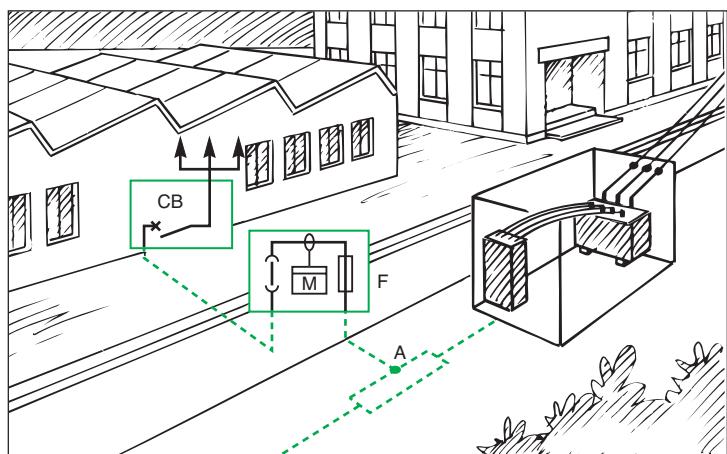


Fig. C5 : Typical service arrangement for TT-earthed systems

1 Low-voltage utility distribution networks

C13

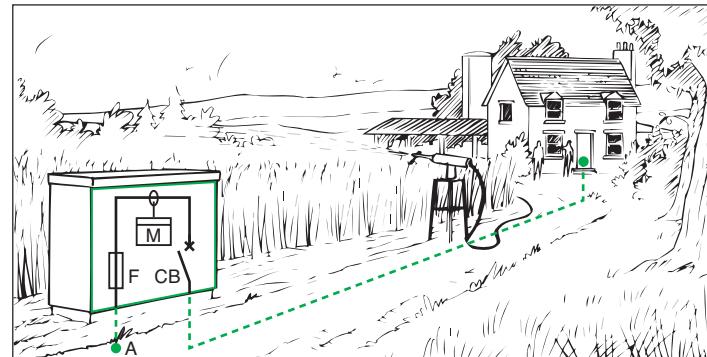
LV consumers are normally supplied according to the TN or TT system, as described in chapters F and G. The installation main circuit-breaker for a TT supply must include a residual current earth-leakage protective device. For a TN service, overcurrent protection by circuit-breaker or switch-fuse is required

A MCCB -moulded case circuit-breaker- which incorporates a sensitive residual-current earth-fault protective feature is mandatory at the origin of any LV installation forming part of a TT earthing system. The reason for this feature and related leakage-current tripping levels are discussed in Clause 3 of Chapter G.

A further reason for this MCCB is that the consumer cannot exceed his (contractual) declared maximum load, since the overload trip setting, which is sealed by the supply authority, will cut off supply above the declared value. Closing and tripping of the MCCB is freely available to the consumer, so that if the MCCB is inadvertently tripped on overload, or due to an appliance fault, supplies can be quickly restored following correction of the anomaly.

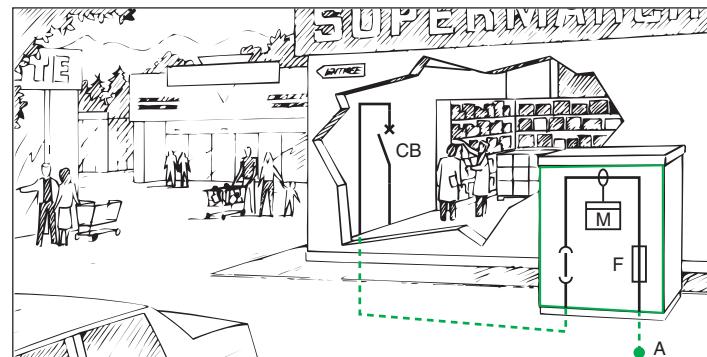
In view of the inconvenience to both the meter reader and consumer, the location of meters is nowadays generally outside the premises, either:

- In a free-standing pillar-type housing as shown in **Figures C6 and C7**
- In a space inside a building, but with cable termination and supply authority's fuses located in a flush-mounted weatherproof cabinet accessible from the public way, as shown in **Figure C8** next page
- For private residential consumers, the equipment shown in the cabinet in **Figure C5** is installed in a weatherproof cabinet mounted vertically on a metal frame in the front garden, or flush-mounted in the boundary wall, and accessible to authorized personnel from the pavement. **Figure C9** (next page) shows the general arrangement, in which removable fuse links provide the means of isolation



In this kind of installation it is often necessary to place the main installation circuit-breaker some distance from the point of utilization, e.g. saw-mills, pumping stations, etc.

Fig. C6 : Typical rural-type installation



The main installation CB is located in the consumer's premises in cases where it is set to trip if the declared kVA load demand is exceeded.

Fig. C7 : Semi-urban installations (shopping precincts, etc.)

C14



The service cable terminates in a flushmounted wall cabinet which contains the isolating fuse links, accessible from the public way. This method is preferred for esthetic reasons, when the consumer can provide a suitable metering and main-switch location.

Fig. C8 : Town centre installations

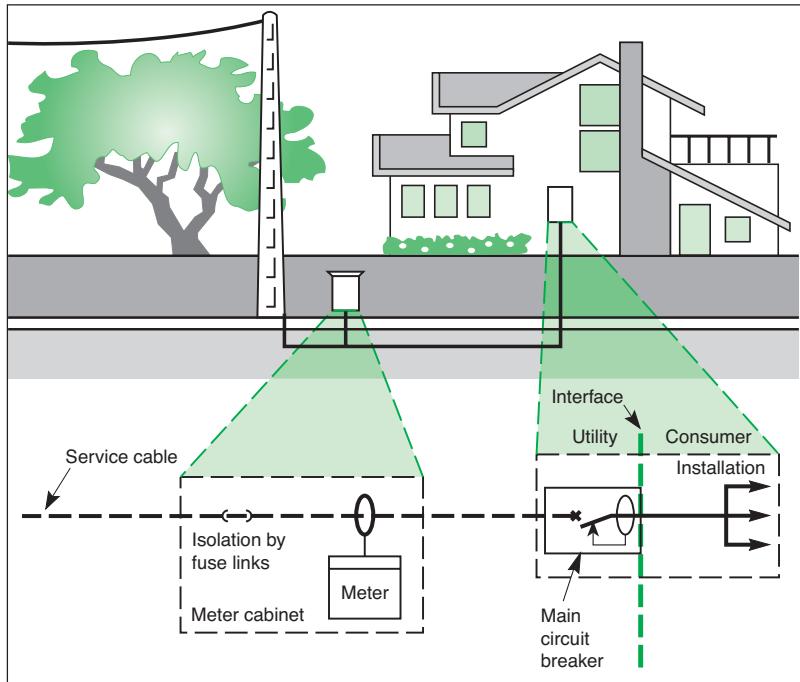


Fig. C9 : Typical LV service arrangement for residential consumers

In the field of electronic metering, techniques have developed which make their use attractive by utilities either for electricity metering and for billing purposes, the liberalisation of the electricity market having increased the needs for more data collection to be returned from the meters. For example electronic metering can also help utilities to understand their customers' consumption profiles. In the same way, they will be useful for more and more power line communication and radio-frequency applications as well.

In this area, prepayment systems are also more and more employed when economically justified. They are based on the fact that for instance consumers having made their payment at vending stations, generate tokens to pass the information concerning this payment on to the meters. For these systems the key issues are security and inter-operability which seem to have been addressed successfully now. The attractiveness of these systems is due to the fact they not only replace the meters but also the billing systems, the reading of meters and the administration of the revenue collection.

1 Low-voltage utility distribution networks

An adequate level of voltage at the consumers supply-service terminals is essential for satisfactory operation of equipment and appliances. Practical values of current, and resulting voltage drops in a typical LV system, show the importance of maintaining a high Power Factor as a means of reducing voltage drop.

C15

1.4 Quality of supply voltage

The quality of the LV network supply voltage in its widest sense implies:

- Compliance with statutory limits of magnitude and frequency
- Freedom from continual fluctuation within those limits
- Uninterrupted power supply, except for scheduled maintenance shutdowns, or as a result of system faults or other emergencies
- Preservation of a near-sinusoidal wave form

In this Sub-clause the maintenance of voltage magnitude only will be discussed.

In most countries, power-supply authorities have a statutory obligation to maintain the level of voltage at the service position of consumers within the limits of $\pm 5\%$ (or in some cases $\pm 6\%$ or more—see table C1) of the declared nominal value.

Again, IEC and most national standards recommend that LV appliances be designed and tested to perform satisfactorily within the limits of $\pm 10\%$ of nominal voltage. This leaves a margin, under the worst conditions (of minus 5% at the service position, for example) of 5% allowable voltage drop in the installation wiring.

The voltage drops in a typical distribution system occur as follows: the voltage at the MV terminals of a MV/LV transformer is normally maintained within a $\pm 2\%$ band by the action of automatic onload tapchangers of the transformers at bulk-supply substations, which feed the MV network from a higher-voltage subtransmission system.

If the MV/LV transformer is in a location close to a bulk-supply substation, the $\pm 2\%$ voltage band may be centered on a voltage level which is higher than the nominal MV value. For example, the voltage could be $20.5 \text{ kV} \pm 2\%$ on a 20 kV system. In this case, the MV/LV distribution transformer should have its MV off-circuit tapping switch selected to the + 2.5% tap position.

Conversely, at locations remote from bulk supply substations a value of $19.5 \text{ kV} \pm 2\%$ is possible, in which case the off-circuit tapping switch should be selected to the - 5% position.

The different levels of voltage in a system are normal, and depend on the system powerflow pattern. Moreover, these voltage differences are the reason for the term "nominal" when referring to the system voltage.

Practical application

With the MV/LV transformer correctly selected at its off-circuit tapping switch, an unloaded transformer output voltage will be held within a band of $\pm 2\%$ of its no-load voltage output.

To ensure that the transformer can maintain the necessary voltage level when fully loaded, the output voltage at no-load must be as high as possible without exceeding the upper + 5% limit (adopted for this example). In present-day practice, the winding ratios generally give an output voltage of about 104% at no-load⁽¹⁾, when nominal voltage is applied at MV, or is corrected by the tapping switch, as described above. This would result in a voltage band of 102% to 106% in the present case.

A typical LV distribution transformer has a short-circuit reactance voltage of 5%. If it is assumed that its resistance voltage is one tenth of this value, then the voltage drop within the transformer when supplying full load at 0.8 power factor lagging, will be:

$$\begin{aligned} V\% \text{ drop} &= R\% \cos \varphi + X\% \sin \varphi \\ &= 0.5 \times 0.8 + 5 \times 0.6 \\ &= 0.4 + 3 = 3.4\% \end{aligned}$$

The voltage band at the output terminals of the fully-loaded transformer will therefore be $(102 - 3.4) = 98.6\%$ to $(106 - 3.4) = 102.6\%$.

The maximum allowable voltage drop along a distributor is therefore $98.6 - 95 = 3.6\%$.

This means, in practical terms, that a medium-sized 230/400 V 3-phase 4-wire distribution cable of 240 mm^2 copper conductors would be able to supply a total load of 292 kVA at 0.8 PF lagging, distributed evenly over 306 metres of the distributor.

Alternatively, the same load at the premises of a single consumer could be supplied at a distance of 153 metres from the transformer, for the same volt-drop, and so on...

As a matter of interest, the maximum rating of the cable, based on calculations derived from IEC 60287 (1982) is 290 kVA, and so the 3.6% voltage margin is not unduly restrictive, i.e. the cable can be fully loaded for distances normally required in LV distribution systems.

Furthermore, 0.8 PF lagging is appropriate to industrial loads. In mixed semi-industrial areas 0.85 is a more common value, while 0.9 is generally used for calculations concerning residential areas, so that the volt-drop noted above may be considered as a "worst case" example.

(1) Transformers designed for the 230/400 V IEC standard will have a no-load output of 420 V, i.e. 105% of the nominal voltage

2 Tariffs and metering

C16

No attempt will be made in this guide to discuss particular tariffs, since there appears to be as many different tariff structures around the world as there are utilities.

Some tariffs are very complicated in detail but certain elements are basic to all of them and are aimed at encouraging consumers to manage their power consumption in a way which reduces the cost of generation, transmission and distribution.

The two predominant ways in which the cost of supplying power to consumers can be reduced, are:

- Reduction of power losses in the generation, transmission and distribution of electrical energy. In principle the lowest losses in a power system are attained when all parts of the system operate at unity power factor
- Reduction of the peak power demand, while increasing the demand at low-load periods, thereby exploiting the generating plant more fully, and minimizing plant redundancy

Reduction of losses

Although the ideal condition noted in the first possibility mentioned above cannot be realized in practice, many tariff structures are based partly on kVA demand, as well as on kWh consumed. Since, for a given kW loading, the minimum value of kVA occurs at unity power factor, the consumer can minimize billing costs by taking steps to improve the power factor of the load (as discussed in Chapter L). The kVA demand generally used for tariff purposes is the maximum average kVA demand occurring during each billing period, and is based on average kVA demands, over fixed periods (generally 10, 30 or 60 minute periods) and selecting the highest of these values. The principle is described below in "principle of kVA maximum-demand metering".

Reduction of peak power demand

The second aim, i.e. that of reducing peak power demands, while increasing demand at low-load periods, has resulted in tariffs which offer substantial reduction in the cost of energy at:

- Certain hours during the 24-hour day
- Certain periods of the year

The simplest example is that of a residential consumer with a storage-type water heater (or storage-type space heater, etc.). The meter has two digital registers, one of which operates during the day and the other (switched over by a timing device) operates during the night. A contactor, operated by the same timing device, closes the circuit of the water heater, the consumption of which is then indicated on the register to which the cheaper rate applies. The heater can be switched on and off at any time during the day if required, but will then be metered at the normal rate. Large industrial consumers may have 3 or 4 rates which apply at different periods during a 24-hour interval, and a similar number for different periods of the year. In such schemes the ratio of cost per kWh during a period of peak demand for the year, and that for the lowest-load period of the year, may be as much as 10: 1.

Meters

It will be appreciated that high-quality instruments and devices are necessary to implement this kind of metering, when using classical electro-mechanical equipment. Recent developments in electronic metering and micro-processors, together with remote ripple-control⁽¹⁾ from an utility control centre (to change peak-period timing throughout the year, etc.) are now operational, and facilitate considerably the application of the principles discussed.

In most countries, some tariffs, as noted above, are partly based on kVA demand, in addition to the kWh consumption, during the billing periods (often 3-monthly intervals). The maximum demand registered by the meter to be described, is, in fact, a maximum (i.e. the highest) average kVA demand registered for succeeding periods during the billing interval.

(1) Ripple control is a system of signalling in which a voice frequency current (commonly at 175 Hz) is injected into the LV mains at appropriate substations. The signal is injected as coded impulses, and relays which are tuned to the signal frequency and which recognize the particular code will operate to initiate a required function. In this way, up to 960 discrete control signals are available.

Figure C10 shows a typical kVA demand curve over a period of two hours divided into succeeding periods of 10 minutes. The meter measures the average value of kVA during each of these 10 minute periods.

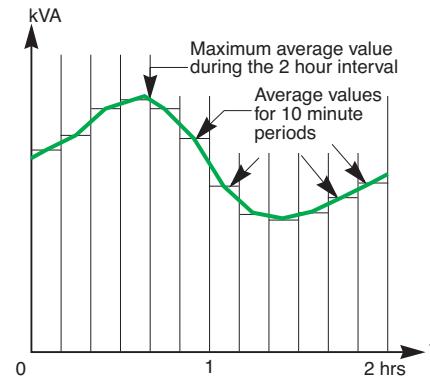


Fig. C10 : Maximum average value of kVA over an interval of 2 hours

Principle of kVA maximum demand metering

A kVAh meter is similar in all essentials to a kWh meter but the current and voltage phase relationship has been modified so that it effectively measures kVAh (kilo-volt-ampere-hours). Furthermore, instead of having a set of decade counter dials, as in the case of a conventional kWh meter, this instrument has a rotating pointer. When the pointer turns it is measuring kVAh and pushing a red indicator before it. At the end of 10 minutes the pointer will have moved part way round the dial (it is designed so that it can never complete one revolution in 10 minutes) and is then electrically reset to the zero position, to start another 10 minute period. The red indicator remains at the position reached by the measuring pointer, and that position corresponds to the number of kVAh (kilo-volt-ampere-hours) taken by the load in 10 minutes. Instead of the dial being marked in kVAh at that point however it can be marked in units of average kVA. The following figures will clarify the matter.

Supposing the point at which the red indicator reached corresponds to 5 kVAh. It is known that a varying amount of kVA of apparent power has been flowing for 10 minutes, i.e. 1/6 hour.

If now, the 5 kVAh is divided by the number of hours, then the average kVA for the period is obtained.

In this case the average kVA for the period will be:

$$5 \times \frac{1}{6} = 5 \times \frac{1}{6} = 30 \text{ kVA}$$

Every point around the dial will be similarly marked i.e. the figure for average kVA will be 6 times greater than the kVAh value at any given point. Similar reasoning can be applied to any other reset-time interval.

At the end of the billing period, the red indicator will be at the maximum of all the average values occurring in the billing period.

The red indicator will be reset to zero at the beginning of each billing period. Electro-mechanical meters of the kind described are rapidly being replaced by electronic instruments. The basic measuring principles on which these electronic meters depend however, are the same as those described above.

Chapter D

MV & LV architecture selection guide

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1 Stakes for the user

D3

Choice of distribution architecture

The choice of distribution architecture has a decisive impact on installation performance throughout its lifecycle:

- right from the construction phase, choices can greatly influence the installation time, possibilities of work rate, required competencies of installation teams, etc.
- there will also be an impact on performance during the operation phase in terms of quality and continuity of power supply to sensitive loads, power losses in power supply circuits,
- and lastly, there will be an impact on the proportion of the installation that can be recycled in the end-of-life phase.

The Electrical Distribution architecture of an installation involves the spatial configuration, the choice of power sources, the definition of different distribution levels, the single-line diagram and the choice of equipment.

The choice of the best architecture is often expressed in terms of seeking a compromise between the various performance criteria that interest the customer who will use the installation at different phases in its lifecycle. The earlier we search for solutions, the more optimization possibilities exist (see Fig. D1).

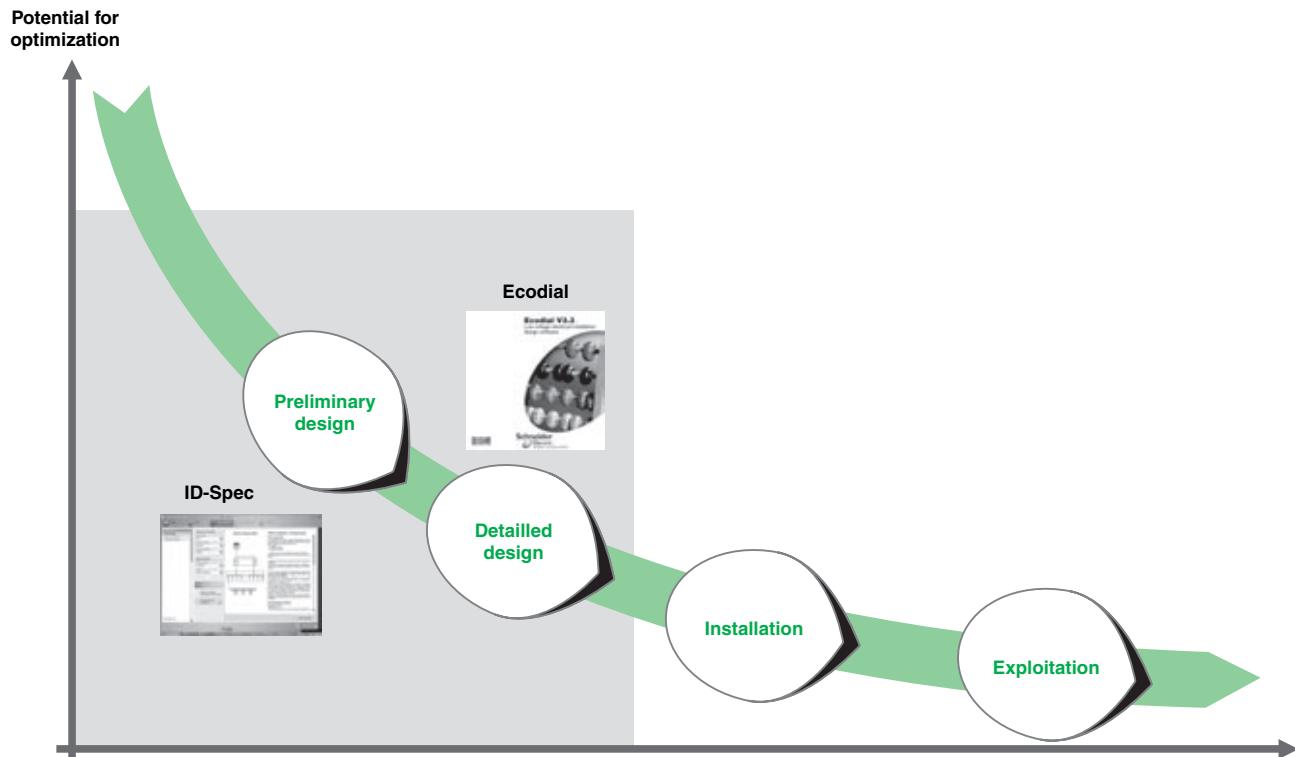


Fig. D1 : Optimization potential

A successful search for an optimal solution is also strongly linked to the ability for exchange between the various players involved in designing the various sections of a project:

- the architect who defines the organization of the building according to user requirements,
- the designers of different technical sections (lighting, heating, air conditioning, fluids, etc.),
- the user's representatives e.g. defining the process.

The following paragraphs present the selection criteria as well as the architecture design process to meet the project performance criteria in the context of industrial and tertiary buildings (excluding large sites).

2 Simplified architecture design process

2.1 The architecture design

The architecture design considered in this document is positioned at the Draft Design stage. It generally covers the levels of MV/LV main distribution, LV power distribution, and exceptionally the terminal distribution level. (see **Fig. D2**).

D4

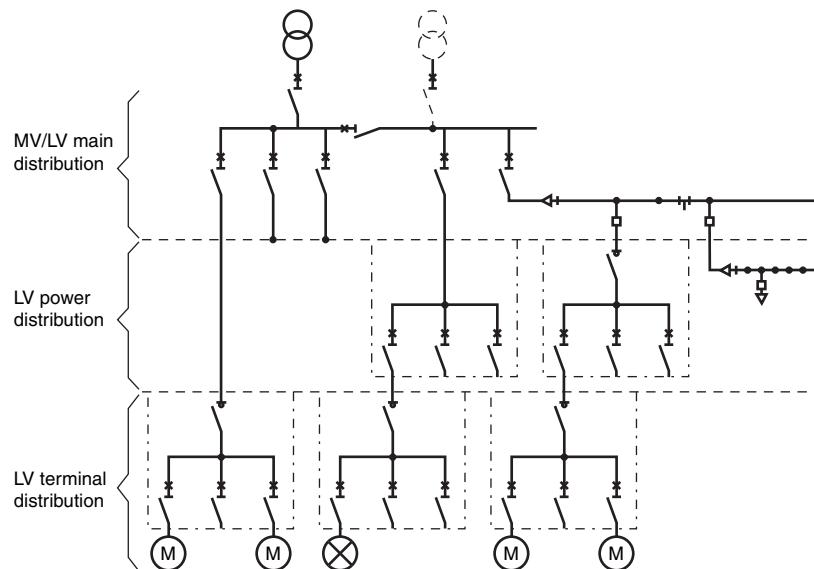


Fig. D2 : Example of single-line diagram

The design of an electrical distribution architecture can be described by a 3-stage process, with iterative possibilities. This process is based on taking account of the installation characteristics and criteria to be satisfied.

2 Simplified architecture design process

2.2 The whole process

The whole process is described briefly in the following paragraphs and illustrated on **Figure D3**.

The process described in this document is not intended as the only solution. This document is a guide intended for the use of electrical installation designers.

D5

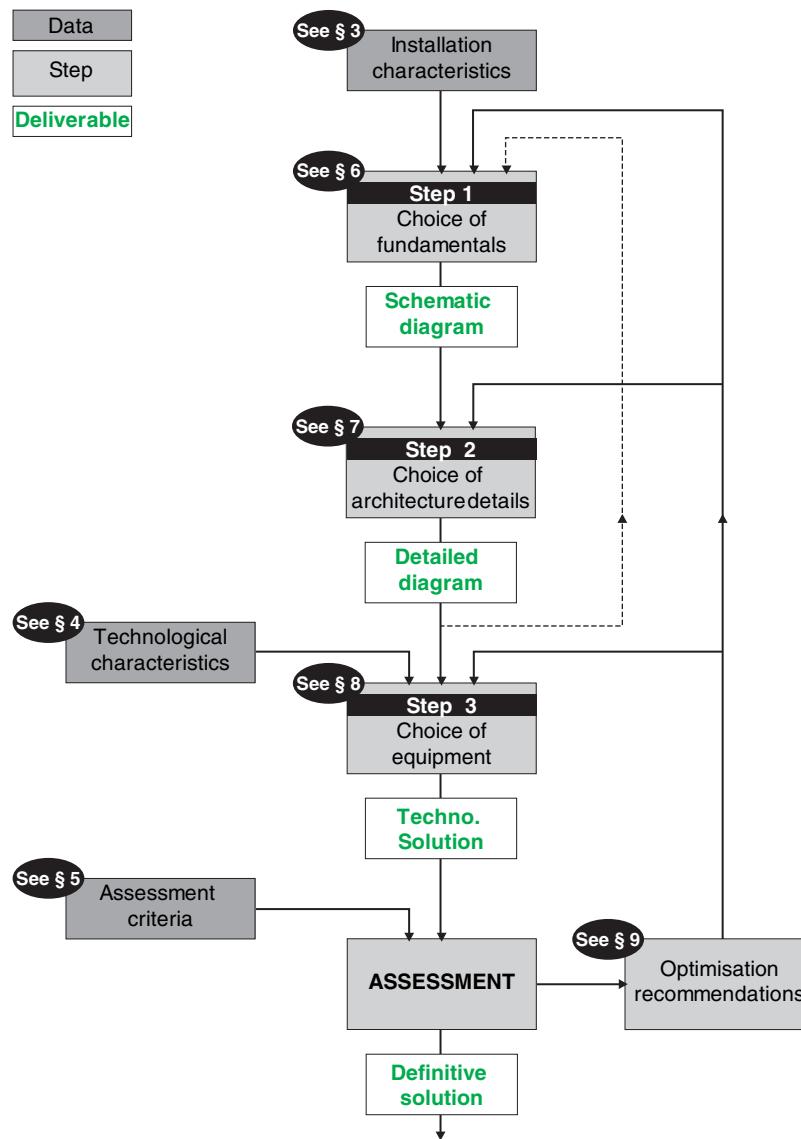


Fig. D3 : Flow diagram for choosing the electrical distribution architecture

Step 1: Choice of distribution architecture fundamentals

This involves defining the general features of the electrical installation. It is based on taking account of macroscopic characteristics concerning the installation and its usage.

These characteristics have an impact on the connection to the upstream network, MV circuits, the number of transformer substations, etc.

At the end of this step, we have several distribution schematic diagram solutions, which are used as a starting point for the single-line diagram. The definitive choice is confirmed at the end of the step 2.

2 Simplified architecture design process

Step 2: choice of architecture details

This involves defining the electrical installation in more detail. It is based on the results of the previous step, as well as on satisfying criteria relative to implementation and operation of the installation.

The process loops back into step 1 if the criteria are not satisfied. An iterative process allows several assessment criteria combinations to be analyzed.

At the end of this step, we have a detailed single-line diagram.

D6

Step 3: choice of equipment

The choice of equipment to be implemented is carried out in this stage, and results from the choice of architecture. The choices are made from the manufacturer catalogues, in order to satisfy certain criteria.

This stage is looped back into step 2 if the characteristics are not satisfied.

Assessment

This assessment step allows the Engineering Office to have figures as a basis for discussions with the customer and other players.

According to the result of these discussions, it may be possible to loop back into step 1.

3 Electrical installation characteristics

D7

These are the main installation characteristics enabling the defining of the fundamentals and details of the electrical distribution architecture. For each of these characteristics, we supply a definition and the different categories or possible values.

3.1 Activity

Definition:

Main economic activity carried out on the site.

Indicative list of sectors considered for industrial buildings:

- Manufacturing
- Food & Beverage
- Logistics

Indicative list of sectors considered for tertiary buildings:

- Offices buildings
- Hypermarkets
- Shopping malls

3.2 Site topology

Definition:

Architectural characteristic of the building(s), taking account of the number of buildings, number of floors, and of the surface area of each floor.

Different categories:

- Single storey building,
- Multi-storey building,
- Multi-building site,
- High-rise building.

3.3 Layout latitude

Definition:

Characteristic taking account of constraints in terms of the layout of the electrical equipment in the building:

- aesthetics,
- accessibility,
- presence of dedicated locations,
- use of technical corridors (per floor),
- use of technical ducts (vertical).

Different categories:

- Low: the position of the electrical equipment is virtually imposed
- Medium: the position of the electrical equipment is partially imposed, to the detriment of the criteria to be satisfied
- High: no constraints. The position of the electrical equipment can be defined to best satisfy the criteria.

3.4 Service reliability

Definition:

The ability of a power system to meet its supply function under stated conditions for a specified period of time.

Different categories:

- Minimum: this level of service reliability implies risk of interruptions related to constraints that are geographical (separate network, area distant from power production centers), technical (overhead line, poorly meshed system), or economic (insufficient maintenance, under-dimensioned generation).
- Standard
- Enhanced: this level of service reliability can be obtained by special measures taken to reduce the probability of interruption (underground network, strong meshing, etc.)

3.5 Maintainability

Definition:

Features input during design to limit the impact of maintenance actions on the operation of the whole or part of the installation.

Different categories:

- Minimum: the installation must be stopped to carry out maintenance operations.
- Standard: maintenance operations can be carried out during installation operations, but with deteriorated performance. These operations must be preferably scheduled during periods of low activity. Example: several transformers with partial redundancy and load shedding.
- Enhanced: special measures are taken to allow maintenance operations without disturbing the installation operations. Example: double-ended configuration.

3.6 Installation flexibility

Definition:

Possibility of easily moving electricity delivery points within the installation, or to easily increase the power supplied at certain points. Flexibility is a criterion which also appears due to the uncertainty of the building during the pre-project summary stage.

Different categories:

- No flexibility: the position of loads is fixed throughout the lifecycle, due to the high constraints related to the building construction or the high weight of the supplied process. E.g.: smelting works.
- Flexibility of design: the number of delivery points, the power of loads or their location are not precisely known.
- Implementation flexibility: the loads can be installed after the installation is commissioned.
- Operating flexibility: the position of loads will fluctuate, according to process re-organization.

Examples:

- industrial building: extension, splitting and changing usage
- office building: splitting

3 Electrical installation characteristics

D9

3.7 Power demand

Definition:

The sum of the apparent load power (in kVA), to which is applied a usage coefficient. This represents the maximum power which can be consumed at a given time for the installation, with the possibility of limited overloads that are of short duration.

Significant power ranges correspond to the transformer power limits most commonly used:

- < 630kVA
- from 630 to 1250kVA
- from 1250 to 2500kVA
- > 2500kVA

3.8 Load distribution

Definition:

A characteristic related to the uniformity of load distribution (in kVA / m²) over an area or throughout the building.

Different categories:

■ Uniform distribution: the loads are generally of an average or low unit power and spread throughout the surface area or over a large area of the building (uniform density).

E.g.: lighting, individual workstations

■ intermediate distribution: the loads are generally of medium power, placed in groups over the whole building surface area

E.g.: machines for assembly, conveying, workstations, modular logistics "sites"

■ localized loads: the loads are generally high power and localized in several areas of the building (non-uniform density).

E.g.: HVAC

3.9 Power Interruption Sensitivity

Definition:

The aptitude of a circuit to accept a power interruption.

Different categories:

■ "Sheddable" circuit: possible to shut down at any time for an indefinite duration

■ Long interruption acceptable: interruption time > 3 minutes *

■ Short interruption acceptable: interruption time < 3 minutes *

■ No interruption acceptable.

We can distinguish various levels of severity of an electrical power interruption, according to the possible consequences:

■ No notable consequence,

■ Loss of production,

■ Deterioration of the production facilities or loss of sensitive data,

■ Causing mortal danger.

This is expressed in terms of the criticality of supplying of loads or circuits.

■ Non-critical:

The load or the circuit can be "shed" at any time. E.g.: sanitary water heating circuit.

■ Low criticality:

A power interruption causes temporary discomfort for the occupants of a building, without any financial consequences. Prolonging of the interruption beyond the critical time can cause a loss of production or lower productivity. E.g.: heating, ventilation and air conditioning circuits (HVAC).

■ Medium criticality

A power interruption causes a short break in process or service. Prolonging of the interruption beyond a critical time can cause a deterioration of the production facilities or a cost of starting for starting back up.

E.g.: refrigerated units, lifts.

■ High criticality

Any power interruption causes mortal danger or unacceptable financial losses.

E.g.: operating theatre, IT department, security department.

* indicative value, supplied by standard EN50160:

"Characteristics of the voltage supplied by public distribution networks".

3 Electrical installation characteristics

D10

3.10 Disturbance sensitivity

Definition

The ability of a circuit to work correctly in presence of an electrical power disturbance.

A disturbance can lead to varying degrees of malfunctioning. E.g.: stopping working, incorrect working, accelerated ageing, increase of losses, etc

Types of disturbances with an impact on circuit operations:

- brown-outs,
- overvoltages
- voltage distortion,
- voltage fluctuation,
- voltage imbalance.

Different categories:

■ low sensitivity: disturbances in supply voltages have very little effect on operations.
E.g.: heating device.

■ medium sensitivity: voltage disturbances cause a notable deterioration in operations.
E.g.: motors, lighting.

■ high sensitivity: voltage disturbances can cause operation stoppages or even the deterioration of the supplied equipment.
E.g.: IT equipment.

The sensitivity of circuits to disturbances determines the design of shared or dedicated power circuits. Indeed it is better to separate "sensitive" loads from "disturbing" loads. E.g.: separating lighting circuits from motor supply circuits. This choice also depends on operating features. E.g.: separate power supply of lighting circuits to enable measurement of power consumption.

3.11 Disturbance capability of circuits

Definition

The ability of a circuit to disturb the operation of surrounding circuits due to phenomena such as: harmonics, in-rush current, imbalance, High Frequency currents, electromagnetic radiation, etc.

Different categories

- Non disturbing: no specific precaution to take
- moderate or occasional disturbance: separate power supply may be necessary in the presence of medium or high sensitivity circuits. E.g.: lighting circuit generating harmonic currents.
- Very disturbing: a dedicated power circuit or ways of attenuating disturbances are essential for the correct functioning of the installation. E.g.: electrical motor with a strong start-up current, welding equipment with fluctuating current.

3.12 Other considerations or constraints

■ Environment

E.g.: lightning classification, sun exposure

■ Specific rules

E.g.: hospitals, high rise buildings, etc.

■ Rule of the Energy Distributor

Example: limits of connection power for LV, access to MV substation, etc

■ Attachment loads

Loads attached to 2 independent circuits for reasons of redundancy.

■ Designer experience

Consistency with previous designs or partial usage of previous designs, standardization of sub-assemblies, existence of an installed equipment base.

■ Load power supply constraints

Voltage level (230V, 400V, 690V), voltage system (single-phase, three-phase with or without neutral, etc)

4 Technological characteristics

D11

The technological solutions considered concern the various types of MV and LV equipment, as well as Busbar Trunking Systems .

The choice of technological solutions is made following the choice of single-line diagram and according to characteristics given below.

4.1 Environment, atmosphere

A notion taking account of all of the environmental constraints (average ambient temperature, altitude, humidity, corrosion, dust, impact, etc.) and bringing together protection indexes IP and IK.

Different categories:

- Standard: no particular environmental constraints
- Enhanced: severe environment, several environmental parameters generate important constraints for the installed equipment
- Specific: atypical environment, requiring special enhancements

4.2 Service Index

The service index (IS) is a value that allows us to characterize an LV switchboard according to user requirements in terms of operation, maintenance, and scalability. The different index values are indicated in the following table (**Fig D4**):

	Operation (setting, measurement, locking, padlocking)	Maintenance (cleaning, checking, testing, repainting)	Upgrade (addition, modification, site expansion)z
Level 1	IS = 1 •• Operation may lead to complete stoppage of the switchboard	IS = • 1 • Operation may lead to complete stoppage of the switchboard	IS = •• 1 Operation may lead to complete stoppage of the switchboard
Level 2	IS = 2 •• Operation may lead to stoppage of only the functional unit	IS = • 2 • Operation may lead to stoppage of only the functional unit, with work on connections	IS = •• 2 Operation may lead to stoppage of only the functional unit, with functional units provided for back-up
Level 3	IS = 3 •• Operation may lead to stoppage of the power of the functional unit only	IS = • 3 • Operation may lead to stoppage of only the functional unit, without work on connections	IS = •• 3 Operation may lead to stoppage of only the functional unit, with total freedom in terms of upgrade

Fig. D4 : Different index values

There are a limited number of relevant service indices (see **Fig. D5**)

The types of electrical connections of functional units can be denoted by a three-letter code:

- The first letter denotes the type of electrical connection of the main incoming circuit,
- The second letter denotes the type of electrical connection of the main outgoing circuit,
- The third letter denotes the type of electrical connection of the auxiliary circuits.

The following letters are used:

- F for fixed connections,
- D for disconnectable connections,
- W for withdrawable connections.

Service ratings are related to other mechanical parameters, such as the Protection Index (IP), form of internal separations, the type of connection of functional units or switchgear (**Fig. D6**):

Technological examples are given in **chapter E2**.

- Definition of the protection index: see IEC 60529: "Degree of protection given by enclosures (IP code)" ,
- Definitions of the form and withdrawability: see IEC 60439-1: "Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear assemblies; part 1: type-tested and partially type-tested assemblies".

D12	Service rating IS	111	211	212	223	232	233	332	333
	Protection Index IP	2XX	2XB		2XB	2XB	2XB	2XB	2XB
	Form	1	1	3b 2b 4a	3b	3b	3b	3b	3b
	Functional Unit Withdrawability	FFF	FFF	WFW	WFD	WFW	WWW	WWW	WWW
	Operation	Switching off the whole switchboard	Individually switching off the functional unit and re-commissioning < 1H					Individually switching off the functional unit and re-commissioning < 1/4h	
	Maintenance	Working time > 1 h with total unavailability			Working time between 1/4 h and 1h, with work on connections				
	Upgrade	Extention not planned		Possible adding of functional units with stopping the switchboard	Possible adding of functional units without stopping the switchboard	Possible adding of functional units with stopping the switchboard	Possible adding of functional units without stopping the switchboard	Possible adding of functional units with stopping the switchboard	Possible adding of functional units without stopping the switchboard

Fig. D5 : correspondance between service index and other mechanical parameters and relevant service index

4.3 Other considerations

Other considerations have an impact on the choice of technological solutions:

- Designer experience,
- Consistency with past designs or the partial use of past designs,
- Standardization of sub-assemblies,
- The existence of an installed equipment base,
- Utilities requirements,
- Technical criteria: target power factor, backed-up load power, presence of harmonic generators...

These considerations should be taken into account during the detailed electrical definition phase following the draft design stage.

Certain decisive criteria are assessed at the end of the 3 stages in defining architecture, in order to validate the architecture choice. These criteria are listed below with the different allocated levels of priority.

5.1 On-site work time

Time for implementing the electrical equipment on the site.

Different levels of priority:

- Secondary: the on-site work time can be extended, if this gives a reduction in overall installation costs,
- Special: the on-site work time must be minimized, without generating any significant excess cost,
- Critical: the on-site work time must be reduced as far as possible, imperatively, even if this generates a higher total installation cost,

5.2 Environmental impact

Taking into consideration environmental constraints in the installation design. This takes account of: consumption of natural resources, Joule losses (related to CO₂ emission), "recyclability" potential, throughout the installation's lifecycle.

Different levels of priority:

- Non significant: environmental constraints are not given any special consideration,
- Minimal: the installation is designed with minimum regulatory requirements,
- Proactive: the installation is designed with a specific concern for protecting the environment. Excess cost is allowed in this situation. E.g.: using low-loss transformers.

The environmental impact of an installation will be determined according to the method carrying out an installation lifecycle analysis, in which we distinguish between the following 3 phases:

- manufacture,
- operation,
- end of life (dismantling, recycling).

In terms of environmental impact, 3 indicators (at least) can be taken into account and influenced by the design of an electrical installation. Although each lifecycle phase contributes to the three indicators, each of these indicators is mainly related to one phase in particular:

- consumption of natural resources mainly has an impact on the manufacturing phase,
- consumption of energy has an impact on the operation phase,
- "recyclability" potential has an impact on the end of life.

The following table details the contributing factors to the 3 environmental indicators (**Fig D7**).

Indicators	Contributors
Natural resources consumption	Mass and type of materials used
Power consumption	Joule losses at full load and no load
«Recyclability» potential	Mass and type of material used

Fig D7 : Contributing factors to the 3 environmental indicators

5.3 Preventive maintenance level

Definition:

Number of hours and sophistication of maintenance carried out during operations in conformity with manufacturer recommendations to ensure dependable operation of the installation and the maintaining of performance levels (avoiding failure: tripping, down time, etc).

Different categories:

- Standard: according to manufacturer recommendations.
- Enhanced: according to manufacturer recommendations, with a severe environment,
- Specific: specific maintenance plan, meeting high requirements for continuity of service, and requiring a high level of maintenance staff competency.

5.4 Availability of electrical power supply

Definition:

This is the probability that an electrical installation be capable of supplying quality power in conformity with the specifications of the equipment it is supplying. This is expressed by an availability level:

$$\text{Availability} (\%) = (1 - \text{MTTR} / \text{MTBF}) \times 100$$

MTTR (Mean Time To Repair): the average time to make the electrical system once again operational following a failure (this includes detection of the reason for failure, its repair and re-commissioning),

MTBF (Mean Time Between Failure): measurement of the average time for which the electrical system is operational and therefore enables correct operation of the application.

The different availability categories can only be defined for a given type of installation. E.g.: hospitals, data centers.

Example of classification used in data centers:

Tier 1: the power supply and air conditioning are provided by one single channel, without redundancy, which allows availability of 99.671%,

Tier 2: the power supply and air conditioning are provided by one single channel, with redundancy, which allows availability of 99.741%,

Tier 3: the power supply and air conditioning are provided by several channels, with one single redundant channel, which allows availability of 99.982%,

Tier 4: the power supply and air conditioning are provided by several channels, with redundancy, which allows availability of 99.995%.

6 Choice of architecture fundamentals

D15

The single-line diagram can be broken down into different key parts, which are determined throughout a process in 2 successive stages. During the first stage we make the following choices:

- connection to the utilities network,
- configuration of MV circuits,
- number of power transformers,
- number and distribution of transformation substations,
- MV back-up generator

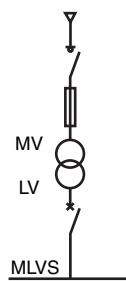
6.1 Connection to the upstream network

The main configurations for possible connection are as follows (see Fig. D8 for MV service):

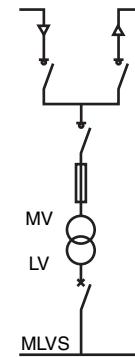
- LV service,
- MV single-line service,
- MV ring-main service,
- MV duplicate supply service,
- MV duplicate supply service with double busbar.

Metering, protection, disconnection devices, located in the delivery substations are not represented on the following diagrams. They are often specific to each utilities company and do not have an influence on the choice of installation architecture. For each connection, one single transformer is shown for simplification purposes, but in the practice, several transformers can be connected. (MLVS: Main Low Voltage Switchboard)

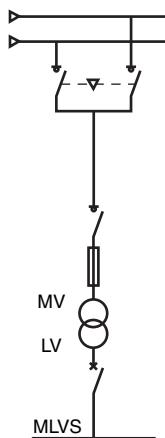
a) Single-line:



b) Ring-main:



c) Duplicate supply:



d) Double busbar with duplicate supply:

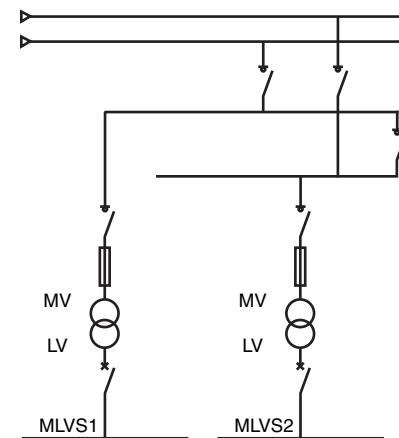


Fig. D8 : MV connection to the utilities network

For the different possible configurations, the most probable and usual set of characteristics is given in the following table:

D16

Characteristic to consider	Configuration					
	LV	MV	Simple-line	Ring-main	Duplicate supply	Duplicate supply with double busbars
Activity	Any	Any	Any	Hi-tech, sensitive office, health-care	Any	
Site topology	Single building	Single building	Single building	Single building	Several buildings	
Service reliability	Minimal	Minimal	Standard	Enhanced	Enhanced	
Power demand	< 630kVA	≤ 1250kVA	≤ 2500kVA	> 2500kVA	> 2500kVA	
Other connection constraints	Any	Isolated site	Low density urban area	High density urban area	Urban area with utility constraint	

6.2 MV circuit configuration

The main possible connection configurations are as follows (Fig. D9):

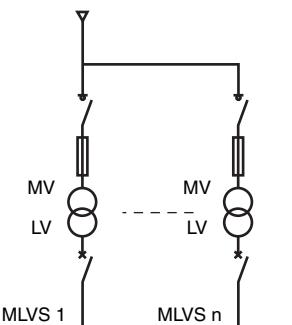
- single feeder, one or several transformers
- open ring, one MV incommers
- open ring, 2 MV incommers

The basic configuration is a radial single-feeder architecture, with one single transformer.

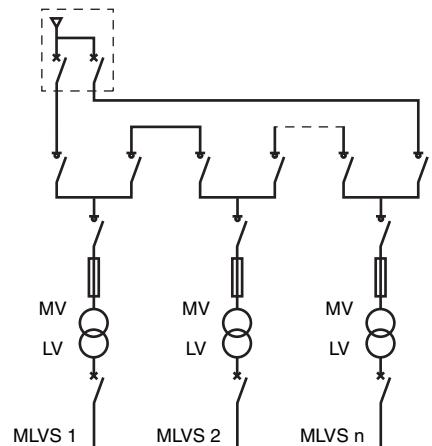
In the case of using several transformers, no ring is realised unless all of the transformers are located in a same substation.

Closed-ring configuration is not taken into account.

a) Single feeder:



b) Open ring, 1 MV substation:



c) Open ring, 2 MV substations:

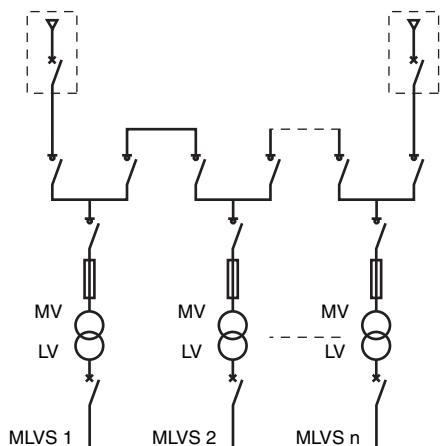


Fig. D9 : MV circuit configuration

6 Choice of architecture fundamentals

For the different possible configurations, the most probable and usual set of characteristics is given in the table on **Fig D10**.

Characteristic to consider	MV circuit configuration		
	Single feeder	Open ring 1 MV substation	Open ring 2 MV substations
Site topology	Any < 25000m ²	Building with one level or several buildings ≤ 25000m ²	Several buildings ≥ 25000m ²
Maintainability	Minimal or standard	Enhanced	Enhanced
Power demand	Any	> 1250kVA	> 2500kVA
Disturbance sensitivity	Long interruption acceptable	Short interruption acceptable	Short interruption acceptable

Fig. D10 : Typical values of the installation characteristics

D17

Another exceptional configuration: power supply by 2 MV substations and connection of the transformers to each of these 2 substations (MV “double ended” connection).

6.3 Number and distribution of MV/LV transformation substations

Main characteristics to consider to determine the transformation substations:

- Surface area of building or site
- Power demand, (to be compared with standardized transformer power),
- Load distribution

The preferred basic configuration comprises one single substation. Certain factors contribute to increasing the number of substations (> 1):

- A large surface area (> 25000m²),
- The site configuration: several buildings,
- Total power > 2500kVA,
- Sensitivity to interruption: need for redundancy in the case of a fire.

Characteristic to consider	Configuration		
	1 substation with N transformers	N substations N transformers (identical substations)	N substations M transformers (different powers)
Building configuration	< 25000m ²	≥ 25000m ² 1 building with several floors	≥ 25000m ² several buildings
Power demand	< 2500kVA	≥ 2500kVA	≥ 2500kVA
Load distribution	Localized loads	Uniform distribution	Medium density

Fig. D11 : Typical characteristics of the different configurations

6 Choice of architecture fundamentals

D18

6.4 Number of MV/LV transformers

Main characteristics to consider to determine the number of transformers:

- Surface of building or site
- Total power of the installed loads
- Sensitivity of circuits to power interruptions
- Sensitivity of circuits to disturbances
- Installation scalability

The basic preferred configuration comprises a single transformer supplying the total power of the installed loads. Certain factors contribute to increasing the number of transformers (> 1), preferably of equal power:

- A high total installed power ($> 1250\text{kVA}$): practical limit of unit power (standardization, ease of replacement, space requirement, etc),
- A large surface area ($> 5000\text{m}^2$): the setting up of several transformers as close as possible to the distributed loads allows the length of LV trunking to be reduced
- A need for partial redundancy (down-graded operation possible in the case of a transformer failure) or total redundancy (normal operation ensured in the case a transformer failure)
- Separating of sensitive and disturbing loads (e.g.: IT, motors)

6.5 MV back-up generator

Main characteristics to consider for the implementation of an MV back-up generator:

- Site activity
- Total power of the installed loads
- Sensitivity of circuits to power interruptions
- Availability of the public distribution network

The preferred basic configuration does not include an MV generator. Certain factors contribute to installing an MV generator:

- Site activity: process with co-generation, optimizing the energy bill,
- Low availability of the public distribution network.

Installation of a back-up generator can also be carried out at LV level.

This is the second stage in designing of the electrical installation. During this stage we carry out the following choices are carried out:

- Layout,
- Centralized or decentralized distribution,
- Presence of back-up generators,
- Presence of uninterrupted power supplies,
- Configuration of LV circuits,
- Architecture combinations.

D19

7.1 Layout

Position of the main MV and LV equipment on the site or in the building.
This layout choice is applied to the results of stage 1.

Selection guide:

- Place power sources as close as possible to the barycenter of power consumers,
- Reduce atmospheric constraints: building dedicated premises if the layout in the workshop is too restrictive (temperature, vibrations, dust, etc.),
- Placing heavy equipment (transformers, generators, etc) close to walls or main exists for ease of maintenance,

A layout example is given in the following diagram (**Fig. D12**):

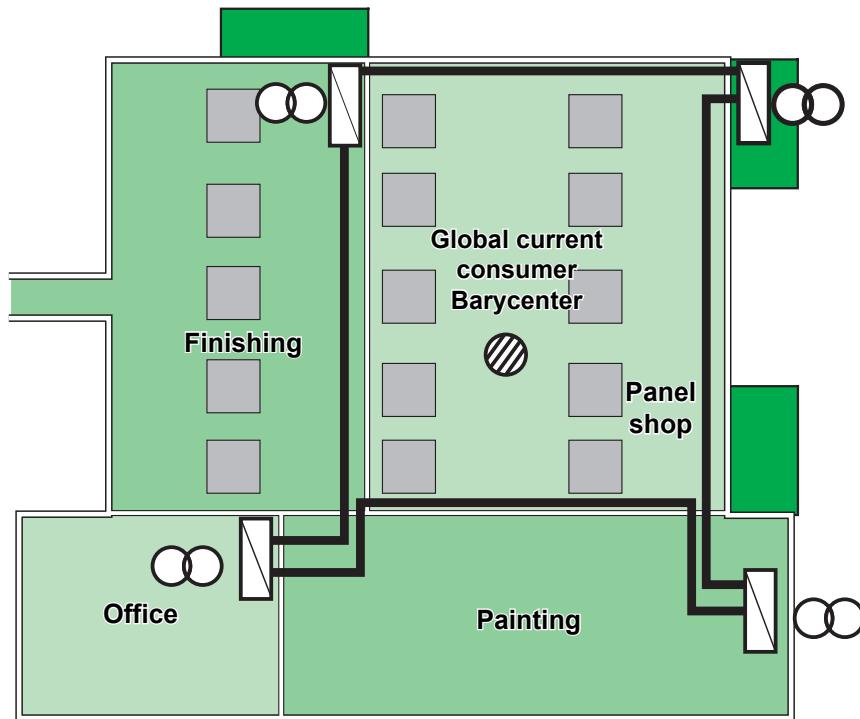


Fig. D12 : The position of the global current consumer barycenter guides the positioning of power sources

7.2 Centralized or distributed layout

In **centralized layout**, current consumers are connected to the power sources by a star-connection. Cables are suitable for centralized layout, with point to point links between the MLVS and current consumers or sub-distribution boards (radial distribution, star- distribution) (**Fig. D13**):

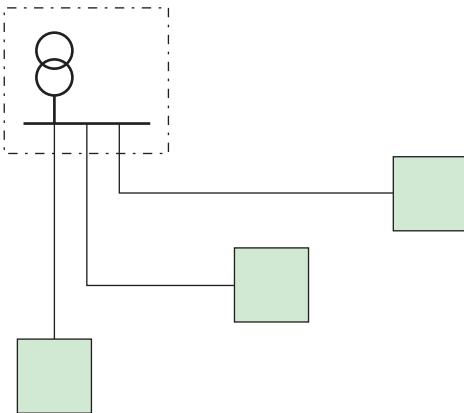


Fig. D13: Example of centralized layout with point to point links

In **decentralized layout**, current consumers are connected to sources via a busway. Busbar trunking systems are well suited to decentralized layout, to supply many loads that are spread out, making it easy to change, move or add connections (**Fig D14**):

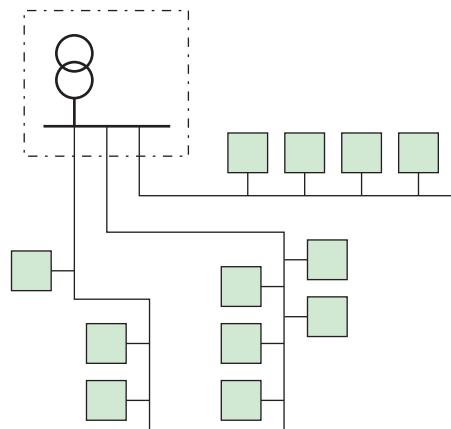


Fig. D14 : Example of decentralized layout, with busbar trunking links

Factors in favour of centralized layout (see summary table in **Fig. D15**):

- Installation flexibility: no,
- Load distribution: localized loads (high unit power loads).

Factors in favor of decentralized layout:

- Installation flexibility: "Implementation" flexibility (moving of workstations, etc...),
- Load distribution: uniform distribution of low unit power loads

7 Choice of architecture details

D21

Flexibility	Load distribution		
	Localized loads	Intermediate distribution	Uniform distributed
No flexibility	Centralized	Centralized	Decentralized
Design flexibility			
Implementation flexibility		Decentralized	
Operation flexibility			

Fig. D15 : Recommendations for centralized or decentralized layout

Power supply by cables gives greater independence of circuits (lighting, power sockets, HVAC, motors, auxiliaries, security, etc), reducing the consequences of a fault from the point of view of power availability.

The use of busbar trunking systems allows load power circuits to be combined and saves on conductors by taking advantage of a clustering coefficient. The choice between cable and busbar trunking, according to the clustering coefficient, allows us to find an economic optimum between investment costs, implementation costs and operating costs.

These two distribution modes are often combined.

Presence of back-up generators (Fig. D16)

Here we only consider LV back-up generators.

The electrical power supply supplied by a back-up generator is produced by an alternator, driven by a thermal engine.

No power can be produced until the generator has reached its rated speed. This type of device is therefore not suitable for an uninterrupted power supply.

According to the generator's capacity to supply power to all or only part of the installation, there is either total or partial redundancy.

A back-up generator functions generally disconnected from the network. A source switching system is therefore necessary.

The generator can function permanently or intermittently. Its back-up time depends on the quantity of available fuel.

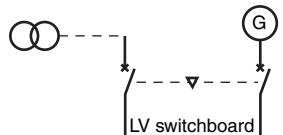


Fig. D16 : Connection of a back-up generator

The main characteristics to consider for implementing LV back-up generator:

- Sensitivity of loads to power interruption,
- Availability of the public distribution network,
- Other constraints (e.g.: generators compulsory in hospitals or high-vise buildings)

The presence of generators can be decided to reduce the energy bill or due to the opportunity for co-generation. These two aspects are not taken into account in this guide.

The presence of a back-up generator is essential if the loads cannot be shed for an indefinite duration (long interruption only acceptable) or if the utility network availability is low.

Determining the number of back-up generator units is in line with the same criteria as determining the number of transformers, as well as taking account of economic and availability considerations (redundancy, start-up reliability, maintenance facility).

7.3 Presence of an Uninterruptible Power Supply (UPS)

The electrical power from a UPS is supplied from a storage unit: batteries or inertia wheel. This system allows us to avoid any power failure. The back-up time of the system is limited: from several minutes to several hours.

The simultaneous presence of a back-up generator and a UPS unit is used for permanently supply loads for which no failure is acceptable (**Fig. D17**). The back-up time of the battery or the inertia wheel must be compatible with the maximum time for the generator to start up and be brought on-line.

A UPS unit is also used for supply power to loads that are sensitive to disturbances (generating a "clean" voltage that is independent of the network).

Main characteristics to be considered for implementing a UPS:

- Sensitivity of loads to power interruptions,
- Sensitivity of loads to disturbances.

The presence of a UPS unit is essential if and only if no failure is acceptable.

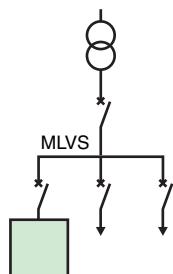


Fig. D18 : Radial single feeder configuration

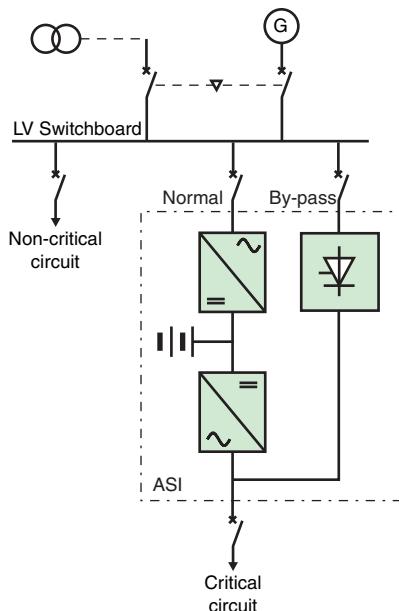


Fig. D17 : Example of connection for a UPS

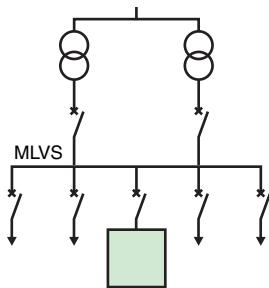


Fig. D19 : Two-pole configuration

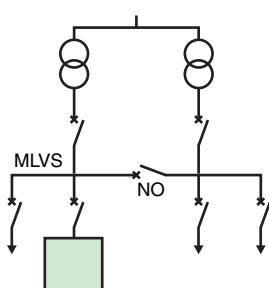


Fig. D20 : Two-pole configuration with two ½ MLVS and NO link

7.4 Configuration of LV circuits

Main possible configurations (see figures D18 to D25):

- **Radial single feeder configuration:** This is the reference configuration and the most simple. A load is connected to only one single source. This configuration provides a minimum level of availability, since there is no redundancy in case of power source failure.
- **Two-pole configuration:** The power supply is provided by 2 transformers, connected to the same MV line. When the transformers are close, they are generally connected in parallel to the same MLVS.
- **Variant: two-pole with two ½ MLVS:** In order to increase the availability in case of failure of the busbars or authorize maintenance on one of the transformers, it is possible to split the MLVS into 2 parts, with a normally open link (NO). This configuration generally requires an Automatic Transfer Switch, (ATS).
- **Shedable switchboard (simple disconnectable attachment):** A series of shedable circuits can be connected to a dedicated switchboard. The connection to the MLVS is interrupted when needed (overload, generator operation, etc)
- **Interconnected switchboards:** If transformers are physically distant from one another, they may be connected by a busbar trunking. A critical load can be supplied by one or other of the transformers. The availability of power is therefore improved, since the load can always be supplied in the case of failure of one of the sources. The redundancy can be:
 - Total: each transformer being capable of supplying all of the installation,
 - Partial: each transformer only being able to supply part of the installation. In this case, part of the loads must be disconnected (load-shedding) in the case of one of the transformers failing.

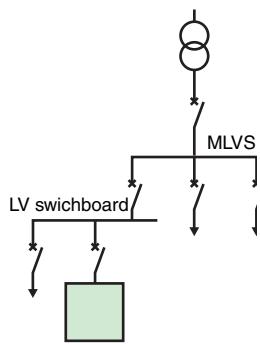


Fig. D21 : Shedable switchboard

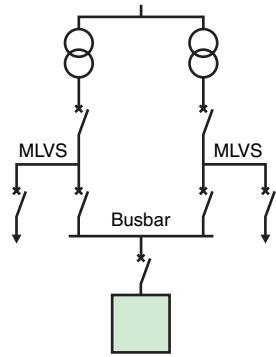


Fig. D22 : Interconnected switchboards

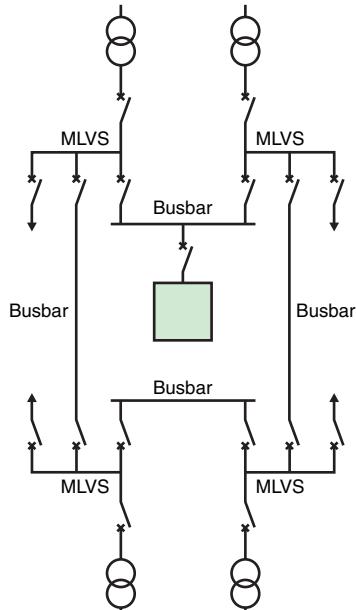


Fig. D23 : Ring configuration

■ **Ring configuration:** This configuration can be considered as an extension of the configuration with interconnection between switchboards. Typically, 4 transformers connected to the same MV line, supply a ring using busbar trunking. A given load is then supplied power by several clustered transformers. This configuration is well suited to extended installations, with a high load density (in kVA/m²). If all of the loads can be supplied by 3 transformers, there is total redundancy in the case of failure of one of the transformers. In fact, each busbar can be fed power by one or other of its ends. Otherwise, downgraded operation must be considered (with partial load shedding). This configuration requires special design of the protection plan in order to ensure discrimination in all of the fault circumstances.

■ **Double-ended power supply:** This configuration is implemented in cases where maximum availability is required. The principle involves having 2 independent power sources, e.g.:

- 2 transformers supplied by different MV lines,
- 1 transformer and 1 generator,
- 1 transformer and 1 UPS.

An automatic transfer switch (ATS) is used to avoid the sources being parallel connected. This configuration allows preventive and curative maintenance to be carried out on all of the electrical distribution system upstream without interrupting the power supply.

■ **Configuration combinations:** An installation can be made up of several sub-assemblies with different configurations, according to requirements for the availability of the different types of load. E.g.: generator unit and UPS, choice by sectors (some sectors supplied by cables and others by busbar trunking).

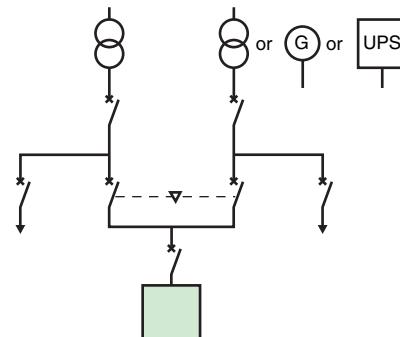


Fig. D24 : Double-ended configuration with automatic transfer switch

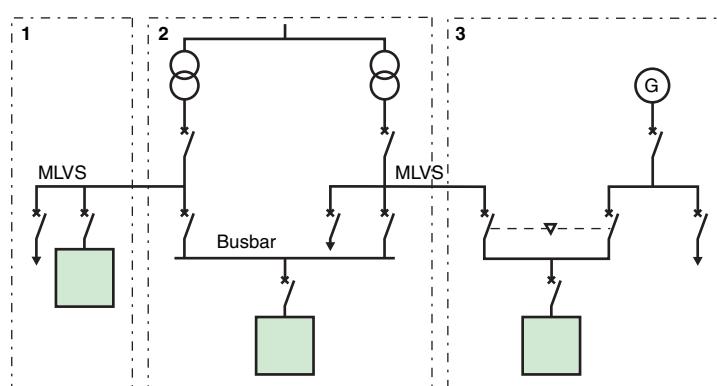


Fig. D25 : Example of a configuration combination

1: Single feeder, 2: Switchboard interconnection, 3: Double-ended

For the different possible configurations, the most probable and usual set of characteristics is given in the following table:

Characteristic to be considered	Configuration					
	Radial	Two-pole	Shedtable load	Interconnected switchboards	Ring	Double-ended
Site topology	Any	Any	Any	1 level 5 to 25000m ²	1 level 5 to 25000m ²	Any
Location latitude	Any	Any	Any	Medium or high	Medium or high	Any
Maintainability	Minimal	Standard	Minimal	Standard	Standard	Enhanced
Power demand	< 2500kVA	Any	Any	≥ 1250kVA	> 2500kVA	Any
Load distribution	Localized loads	Localized loads	Localized load	Intermediate or uniforme distribution	Uniform distribution	Localized loads
Interruptions sensitivity	Long interruption acceptable	Long interruption acceptable	Shedtable	Long interruption acceptable	Long interruption acceptable	Short or no interruption
Disturbances sensitivity	Low sensitivity	High sensitivity	Low sensitivity	High sensitivity	High sensitivity	High sensitivity
Other constraints	/	/	/	/	/	Double-ended loads

8 Choice of equipment

The choice of equipment is step 3 in the design of an electrical installation. The aim of this step is to select equipment from the manufacturers' catalogues. The choice of technological solutions results from the choice of architecture.

D25

List of equipment to consider:

- MV/LV substation,
- MV switchboards,
- Transformers,
- LV switchboards,
- Busbar trunking,
- UPS units,
- Power factor correction and filtering equipment.

Criteria to consider:

- Atmosphere, environment,
- Service index,
- Offer availability per country,
- Utilities requirements,
- Previous architecture choices.

The choice of equipment is basically linked to the offer availability in the country. This criterion takes into account the availability of certain ranges of equipment or local technical support.

The detailed selection of equipment is out of the scope of this document.

9 Recommendations for architecture optimization

These recommendations are intended to guide the designer towards architecture upgrades which allow him to improve assessment criteria.

D26

9.1 On-site work

To be compatible with the “special” or “critical” work-site time, it is recommended to limit uncertainties by applying the following recommendations:

- Use of proven solutions and equipment that has been validated and tested by manufacturers (“functional” switchboard or “manufacturer” switchboard according to the application criticality),
- Prefer the implementation of equipment for which there is a reliable distribution network and for which it is possible to have local support (supplier well established),
- Prefer the use of factory-built equipment (MV/LV substation, busbar trunking), allowing the volume of operations on site to be limited,
- Limit the variety of equipment implemented (e.g. the power of transformers),
- Avoid mixing equipment from different manufacturers.

9.2 Environmental impact

The optimization of the environmental assessment of an installation will involve reducing:

- Power losses at full load and no load during installation operation,
- Overall, the mass of materials used to produce the installation.

Taken separately and when looking at only one piece of equipment, these 2 objectives may seem contradictory. However, when applied to whole installation, it is possible to design the architecture to contribute to both objectives. The optimal installation will therefore not be the sum of the optimal equipment taken separately, but the result of an optimization of the overall installation.

Figure D26 gives an example of the contribution per equipment category to the weight and energy dissipation for a 3500 kVA installation spread over 10000m².

- Installation is operating at 50% load on average, with 0,8 power factor
- Site is operating 6500 hours per years : 3 shifts + week ends with reduced activity at night and week ends and full stop 1 month per year for site maintenance and employees holidays.
- Power consumption is 9,1 GWh
- Reactive power is 6,8 GVARh. This reactive power will be invoiced in addition to power consumption according to local energy contract.

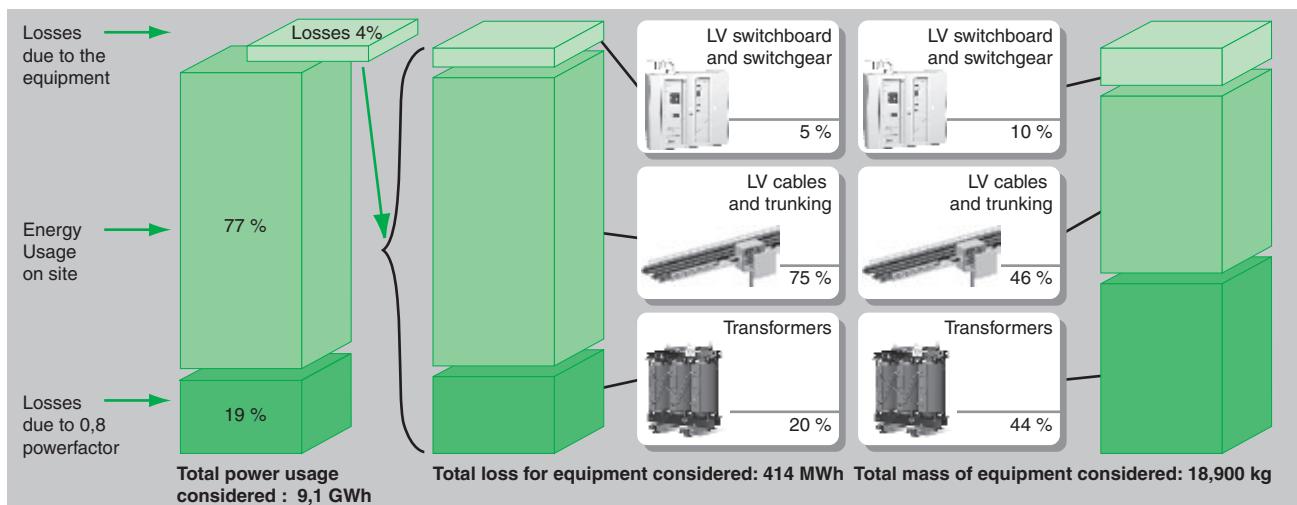


Fig. D26 : Example of the spread of losses and the weight of material for each equipment category

These data helps to understand and prioritize energy consumption and costs factors.

- Very first factor of power consumption is... energy usage. This can be optimized with appropriate metering and analysis of loads actual consumption.

9 Recommendations for architecture optimization

D27

Second is reactive energy. This lead to additional load on electrical network, and additional energy invoicing. This can be optimized with power factor correction solutions.

- Third is cables. Cable losses can be reduced by appropriate organisation and design of site and use of busbar trunking instead of cables wherever accurate.
- MV to LV transformers are fourth with approx. 1% of losses.
- MV and LV switchboards come last with approximately 0,25% of losses. Generally speaking, LV cables and trunking as well as the MV/LV transformers are the main contributors to operating losses and the weight of equipment used.

Environmental optimization of the installation by the architecture will therefore involve:

- reducing the length of LV circuits in the installation,
- clustering LV circuits wherever possible to take advantage of the factor of simultaneity k_s (see chapter A: General rules of electrical installation design, Chapter – Power loading of an installation, 4.3 “Estimation of actual maximum kVA demand”)

Objectives	Resources
Reducing the length of LV circuits	Placing MV/LV substations as close as possible to the barycenter of all of the LV loads to be supplied
Clustering LV circuits	<p>When the simultaneity factor of a group of loads to be supplied is less than 0.7, the clustering of circuits allows us to limit the volume of conductors supplying power to these loads.</p> <p>In real terms this involves:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">■ setting up sub-distribution switchboards as close as possible to the barycenter of the groups of loads if they are localized,■ setting up busbar trunking systems as close as possible to the barycenter of the groups of loads if they are distributed. <p>The search for an optimal solution may lead to consider several clustering scenarios.</p> <p>In all cases, reducing the distance between the barycenter of a group of loads and the equipment that supplies them power allows to reduce environmental impact.</p>

Fig. D27 : Environmental optimization : Objectives and Ressources.

As an example **figure D28** shows the impact of clustering circuits on reducing the distance between the barycenter of the loads of an installation and that of the sources considered (MLVS whose position is imposed). This example concerns a mineral water bottling plant for which:

- the position of electrical equipment (MLVS) is imposed in the premises outside of the process area for reasons of accessibility and atmosphere constraints,
- the installed power is around 4 MVA.

In solution No.1, the circuits are distributed for each workshop.

In solution No. 2, the circuits are distributed by process functions (production lines).

D28

Solution	Barycenter position
N°1	<p>MLVS area</p> <p>Workshop 1</p> <p>Workshop 2</p> <p>Workshop 3</p> <p>Storage</p> <p>Workshop 1 Barycenter</p> <p>Workshop 2 Barycenter</p> <p>Workshop 3 Barycenter</p>
N°2	<p>MLVS area</p> <p>Workshop 1</p> <p>Workshop 2</p> <p>Workshop 3</p> <p>Storage</p> <p>Barycenter line 1</p> <p>Barycenter line 2</p> <p>Barycenter line 3</p> <p>Barycenter line 3</p>

Fig. D28 : Example of barycenter positioning

Without changing the layout of electrical equipment, the second solution allows us to achieve gains of around 15% on the weight of LV cables to be installed (gain on lengths) and a better uniformity of transformer power.

To supplement the optimizations carried out in terms of architecture, the following points also contribute to the optimization:

- the setting up of LV power factor correction to limit losses in the transformers and LV circuits if this compensation is distributed,
- the use of low loss transformers,
- the use of aluminum LV busbar trunking when possible, since natural resources of this metal are greater.

9.3 Preventive maintenance volume

Recommendations for reducing the volume of preventive maintenance:

- Use the same recommendations as for reducing the work site time,
- Focus maintenance work on critical circuits,
- Standardize the choice of equipment,
- Use equipment designed for severe atmospheres (requires less maintenance).

9 Recommendations for architecture optimization

9.4 Electrical power availability

Recommendations for improving the electrical power availability:

- Reduce the number of feeders per switchboard, in order to limit the effects of a possible failure of a switchboard,
- Distributing circuits according to availability requirements,
- Using equipment that is in line with requirements (see Service Index, 4.2),
- Follow the selection guides proposed for steps 1 & 2 (see **Fig. D3 page D5**).

Recommendations to increase the level of availability:

- Change from a radial single feeder configuration to a two-pole configuration,
- Change from a two-pole configuration to a double-ended configuration,
- Change from a double-ended configuration to a uninterruptible configuration with a UPS unit and a Static Transfer Switch
- Increase the level of maintenance (reducing the MTTR, increasing the MTBF)

D29

Architecture: choice of a single-line diagram and technological solutions, from connection to the utility network through to load power supply circuits.

Main MV/LV distribution: Level upstream of the architecture, from connection to the network utility through to LV distribution equipment on the site (MLVS – or equivalent).

MLVS – Main Low Voltage Switchboard: Main switchboard downstream of the MV/LV transformer, starting point of power distribution circuits in the installation

LV power distribution: intermediate level in the architecture, downstream of the main level through to the sub-distribution switchboards (spatial and functional distribution of electrical power in the circuits).

LV terminal distribution: Downstream level of the architecture, downstream of the sub-distribution switchboards through to the loads. This level of distribution is not dealt with in this guide.

Single-line diagram: general electrical schematic diagram to represent the main electrical equipment and their interconnection.

MV substation, transformation substation: Enclosures grouping together MV equipment and/or MV/LV transformers. These enclosures can be shared or separate, according to the site layout, or the equipment technology. In certain countries, the MV substation is assimilated with the delivery substation.

Technological solution: Resulting from the choice of technology for an installation sub-assembly, from among the different products and equipment proposed by the manufacturer.

Characteristics: Technical or environmental data relative to the installation, enabling the best-suited architecture to be selected.

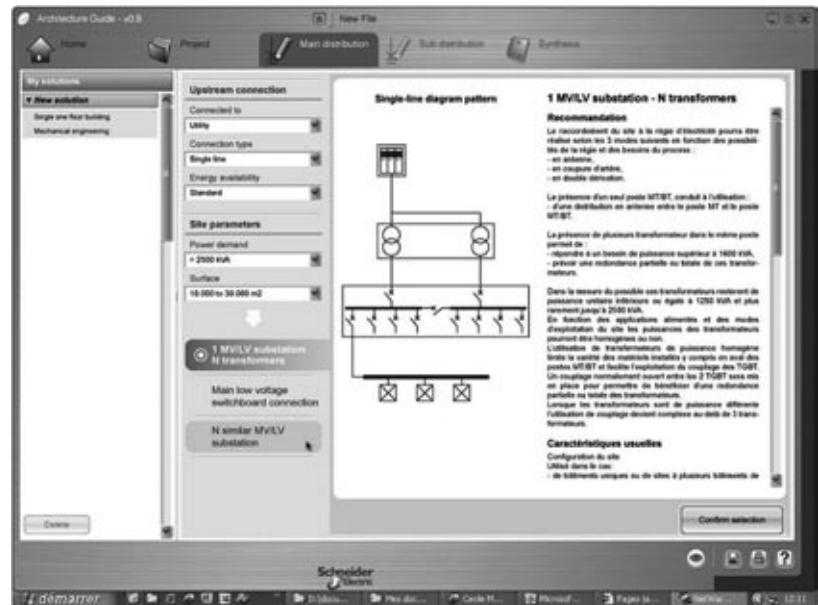
Criteria: Parameters for assessing the installation, enabling selection of the architecture that is the best-suited to the needs of the customer.

11 ID-Spec software

D31

ID-Spec is a new software which aims at helping the designer to be more productive in draft design phase and argue easily his design decisions.

It supports the designer in selecting the relevant single line diagram patterns for main distribution and sub distribution and in adapting these patterns to his project. It also supports the designer in equipment technology and rating selection. Its generates automatically the corresponding design specification documentation including single line diagram and its argument, list and specification of the corresponding equipment.



12 Example: electrical installation in a printworks

D32

12.1 Brief description

Printing of personalized mailshots intended for mail order sales.

12.2 Installation characteristics

Characteristic	Category
Activity	Mechanical
Site topology	single storey building, 10000m ² (8000m ² dedicated to the process, 2000m ² for ancillary areas)
Layout latitude	High
Service reliability	Standard
Maintainability	Standard
Installation flexibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ No flexibility planned: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ HVAC □ Process utilities □ Office power supply ■ Possible flexibility: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ finishing, putting in envelopes □ special machines, installed at a later date □ rotary machines (uncertainty at the draft design stage)
Power demand	3500kVA
Load distribution	Intermediate distribution
Power interruptions sensitivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sheddable circuits: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ offices (apart from PC power sockets) □ air conditioning, office heating □ social premises □ maintenance premises ■ long interruptions acceptable: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ printing machines □ workshop HVAC (hygrometric control) □ Finishing, envelope filling □ Process utilities (compressor, recycling of cooled water) ■ No interruptions acceptable: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ servers, office PCs
Disturbance sensitivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Average sensitivity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ motors, lighting ■ High sensitivity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ IT <p>No special precaution to be taken due to the connection to the EdF network (low level of disturbance)</p>
Disturbance capability	Non disturbing
Other constraints	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Building with lightning classification: lightning surge arresters installed ■ Power supply by overhead single feeder line

12.3 Technological characteristics

Criteria	Category
Atmosphere, environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ IP: standard (no dust, no water protection) ■ IK: standard (use of technical pits, dedicated premises) ■ °C: standard (temperature regulation)
Service index	211
Offer availability by country	No problem (project carried out in France)
Other criteria	Nothing particular

12 Example: electrical installation in a printworks

12.4 Architecture assessment criteria

Criteria	Category
On-site work time	Secondary
Environmental impact	Minimal: compliance with European standard regulations
Preventive maintenance costs	Standard
Power supply availability	Level I

D33

Step 1: Architecture fundamentals

Choice	Main criteria	Solution
Connection to upstream network	Isolated site	single branch circuit
MV Circuits	Layout + criticality	single feeder
Number of transformers	Power > 2500kVA	2 x 2000kVA
Number and distribution of substations	Surface area and power distribution	2 possible solutions: 1 substation or 2 substations ■ if 1 substations: NO link between MLVS ■ if 2 substations: interconnected switchboards
MV Generator	Site activity	No

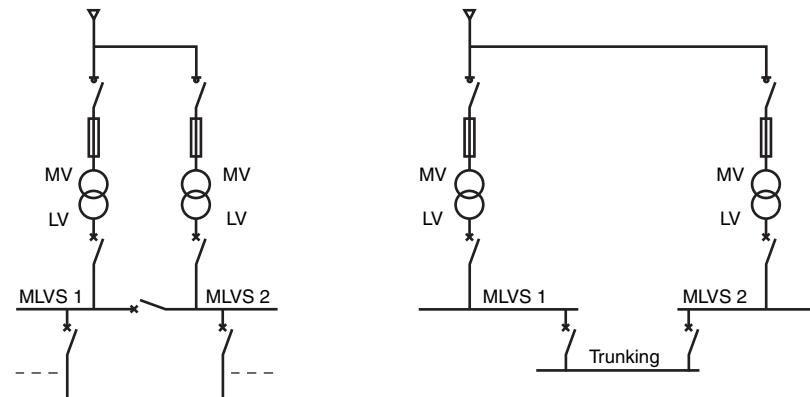


Fig. D29 : Two possible single-line diagrams

Step 2: Architecture details

"1 substation" solution

Choice	Main criteria	Solution
Layout	Atmospheric constraint	Dedicated premises
Centralized or decentralized layout	Uniform loads, distributed power, scalability possibilities Non-uniform loads, direct link from MLVS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Decentralized with busbar trunking: □ finishing sector, envelope filling ■ Centralized with cables: □ special machines, rotary machines, HVAC, process utilities, offices (2 switchboards), office air conditioning, social premises, maintenance
Presence of back-up generator	Criticality \leq low Network availability: standard	No back-up generator
Presence of UPS	Criticality	UPS unit for servers and office PCs
LV circuit configuration	2 transformers, possible partial redundancy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Two-pole, variant 2 1/2 MLVS + NO link (reduction of the Isc by MLVS, no redundancy) ■ process (\leq weak) ■ sheddable circuit for non-critical loads

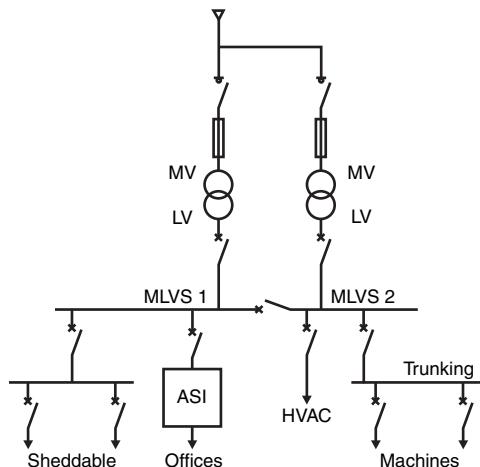


Fig. D30 : Detailed single-line diagram (1 substation)

12 Example: electrical installation in a printworks

12.5 Choice of technological solutions:

Choice	Main criteria	Solution
MV/LV substation	Atmosphere, environment	indoor (dedicated premises)
MV switchboard	Offer availability by country	SM6 (installation produced in France)
Transformers	Atmosphere, environment	cast resin transfo (avoids constraints related to oil)
LV switchboard	Atmosphere, IS	MLVS: Prisma + P Sub-distribution: Prisma +
Busbar trunking	Installed power to be supplied	Canalis KS
UPS units	Installed power to be supplied, back-up time	Galaxy PW
Power factor correction	Installed power, presence of harmonics	LV, standard, automatic (Average Q, ease of installation)

D35

“2 substation” solution

Ditto apart from:
LV circuit: 2 remote MLVS connected via busbar trunking

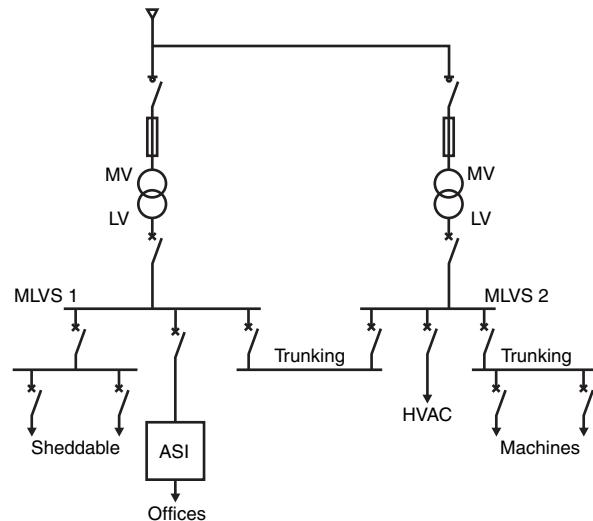


Fig. D31 : Detailed single-line diagram (2 substations)

Chapter E

LV Distribution

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E1

1 Earthing schemes

In a building, the connection of all metal parts of the building and all exposed conductive parts of electrical equipment to an earth electrode prevents the appearance of dangerously high voltages between any two simultaneously accessible metal parts

E2

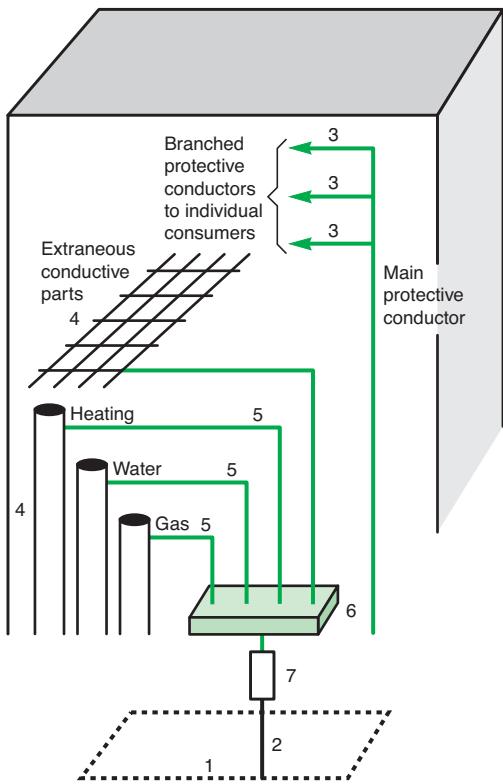


Fig. E1 : An example of a block of flats in which the main earthing terminal (6) provides the main equipotential connection; the removable link (7) allows an earth-electrode-resistance check

1.1 Earthing connections

Definitions

National and international standards (IEC 60364) clearly define the various elements of earthing connections. The following terms are commonly used in industry and in the literature. Bracketed numbers refer to **Figure E1**:

- Earth electrode (1): A conductor or group of conductors in intimate contact with, and providing an electrical connection with Earth (cf details in section 1.6 of Chapter E.)
- Earth: The conductive mass of the Earth, whose electric potential at any point is conventionally taken as zero
- Electrically independent earth electrodes: Earth electrodes located at such a distance from one another that the maximum current likely to flow through one of them does not significantly affect the potential of the other(s)
- Earth electrode resistance: The contact resistance of an earth electrode with the Earth
- Earthing conductor (2): A protective conductor connecting the main earthing terminal (6) of an installation to an earth electrode (1) or to other means of earthing (e.g. TN systems);
- Exposed-conductive-part: A conductive part of equipment which can be touched and which is not a live part, but which may become live under fault conditions
- Protective conductor (3): A conductor used for some measures of protection against electric shock and intended for connecting together any of the following parts:
 - Exposed-conductive-parts
 - Extraneous-conductive-parts
 - The main earthing terminal
 - Earth electrode(s)
 - The earthed point of the source or an artificial neutral
- Extraneous-conductive-part: A conductive part liable to introduce a potential, generally earth potential, and not forming part of the electrical installation (4).
- For example:
 - Non-insulated floors or walls, metal framework of buildings
 - Metal conduits and pipework (not part of the electrical installation) for water, gas, heating, compressed-air, etc. and metal materials associated with them
- Bonding conductor (5): A protective conductor providing equipotential bonding
- Main earthing terminal (6): The terminal or bar provided for the connection of protective conductors, including equipotential bonding conductors, and conductors for functional earthing, if any, to the means of earthing.

Connections

The main equipotential bonding system

The bonding is carried out by protective conductors and the aim is to ensure that, in the event of an incoming extraneous conductor (such as a gas pipe, etc.) being raised to some potential due to a fault external to the building, no difference of potential can occur between extraneous-conductive-parts within the installation.

The bonding must be effected as close as possible to the point(s) of entry into the building, and be connected to the main earthing terminal (6).

However, connections to earth of metallic sheaths of communications cables require the authorisation of the owners of the cables.

Supplementary equipotential connections

These connections are intended to connect all exposed-conductive-parts and all extraneous-conductive-parts simultaneously accessible, when correct conditions for protection have not been met, i.e. the original bonding conductors present an unacceptably high resistance.

Connection of exposed-conductive-parts to the earth electrode(s)

The connection is made by protective conductors with the object of providing a low-resistance path for fault currents flowing to earth.

1 Earthing schemes

E3

Components (see Fig. E2)

Effective connection of all accessible metal fixtures and all exposed-conductive-parts of electrical appliances and equipment, is essential for effective protection against electric shocks.

Component parts to consider: as exposed-conductive-parts	as extraneous-conductive-parts
Cableways	Elements used in building construction
■ Conduits	■ Metal or reinforced concrete (RC):
■ Impregnated-paper-insulated lead-covered cable, armoured or unarmoured	□ Steel-framed structure
■ Mineral insulated metal-sheathed cable (pyrotexax, etc.)	□ Reinforcement rods
Switchgear	□ Prefabricated RC panels
■ cradle of withdrawable switchgear	■ Surface finishes:
Appliances	□ Floors and walls in reinforced concrete without further surface treatment
■ Exposed metal parts of class 1 insulated appliances	■ Tiled surface
Non-electrical elements	■ Metallic covering:
■ metallic fittings associated with cableways (cable trays, cable ladders, etc.)	□ Metallic wall covering
■ Metal objects:	
■ Close to aerial conductors or to busbars	
■ In contact with electrical equipment.	
	Building services elements other than electrical
	■ Metal pipes, conduits, trunking, etc. for gas, water and heating systems, etc.
	■ Related metal components (furnaces, tanks, reservoirs, radiators)
	■ Metallic fittings in wash rooms, bathrooms, toilets, etc.
	■ Metallised papers
Component parts not to be considered: as exposed-conductive-parts	as extraneous-conductive-parts
Diverse service channels, ducts, etc.	
■ Conduits made of insulating material	■ Wooden-block floors
■ Mouldings in wood or other insulating material	■ Rubber-covered or linoleum-covered floors
■ Conductors and cables without metallic sheaths	■ Dry plaster-block partition
Switchgear	■ Brick walls
■ Enclosures made of insulating material	■ Carpets and wall-to-wall carpeting
Appliances	
■ All appliances having class II insulation regardless of the type of exterior envelope	

Fig. E2 : List of exposed-conductive-parts and extraneous-conductive-parts

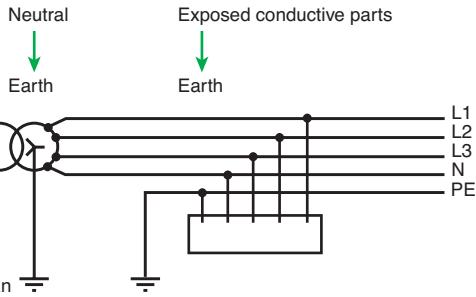
The different earthing schemes (often referred to as the type of power system or system earthing arrangements) described characterise the method of earthing the installation downstream of the secondary winding of a MV/LV transformer and the means used for earthing the exposed conductive-parts of the LV installation supplied from it

1.2 Definition of standardised earthing schemes

The choice of these methods governs the measures necessary for protection against indirect-contact hazards.

The earthing system qualifies three originally independent choices made by the designer of an electrical distribution system or installation:

- The type of connection of the electrical system (that is generally of the neutral conductor) and of the exposed parts to earth electrode(s)
 - A separate protective conductor or protective conductor and neutral conductor being a single conductor
 - The use of earth fault protection of overcurrent protective switchgear which clear only relatively high fault currents or the use of additional relays able to detect and clear small insulation fault currents to earth
- In practice, these choices have been grouped and standardised as explained below. Each of these choices provides standardised earthing systems with three advantages and drawbacks:
- Connection of the exposed conductive parts of the equipment and of the neutral conductor to the PE conductor results in equipotentiality and lower overvoltages but increases earth fault currents
 - A separate protective conductor is costly even if it has a small cross-sectional area but it is much more unlikely to be polluted by voltage drops and harmonics, etc. than a neutral conductor is. Leakage currents are also avoided in extraneous conductive parts
 - Installation of residual current protective relays or insulation monitoring devices are much more sensitive and permits in many circumstances to clear faults before heavy damage occurs (motors, fires, electrocution). The protection offered is in addition independent with respect to changes in an existing installation

**TT system (earthed neutral) (see Fig. E3)**

One point at the supply source is connected directly to earth. All exposed- and extraneous-conductive-parts are connected to a separate earth electrode at the installation. This electrode may or may not be electrically independent of the source electrode. The two zones of influence may overlap without affecting the operation of protective devices.

TN systems (exposed conductive parts connected to the neutral)

The source is earthed as for the TT system (above). In the installation, all exposed- and extraneous-conductive-parts are connected to the neutral conductor. The several versions of TN systems are shown below.

TN-C system (see Fig. E4)

The neutral conductor is also used as a protective conductor and is referred to as a PEN (Protective Earth and Neutral) conductor. This system is not permitted for conductors of less than 10 mm² or for portable equipment.

The TN-C system requires an effective equipotential environment within the installation with dispersed earth electrodes spaced as regularly as possible since the PEN conductor is both the neutral conductor and at the same time carries phase unbalance currents as well as 3rd order harmonic currents (and their multiples).

The PEN conductor must therefore be connected to a number of earth electrodes in the installation.

Caution: In the TN-C system, the "protective conductor" function has priority over the "neutral function". In particular, a PEN conductor must always be connected to the earthing terminal of a load and a jumper is used to connect this terminal to the neutral terminal.

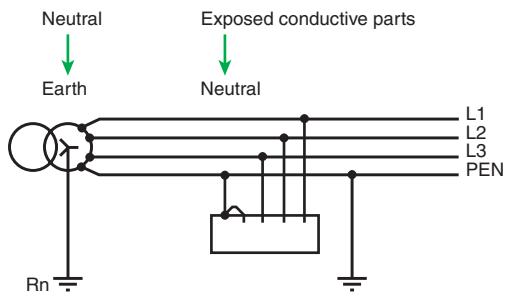
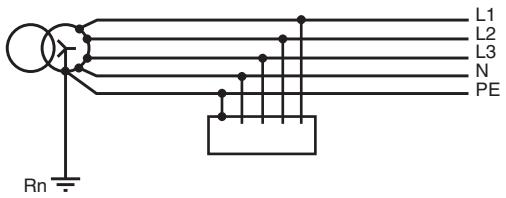
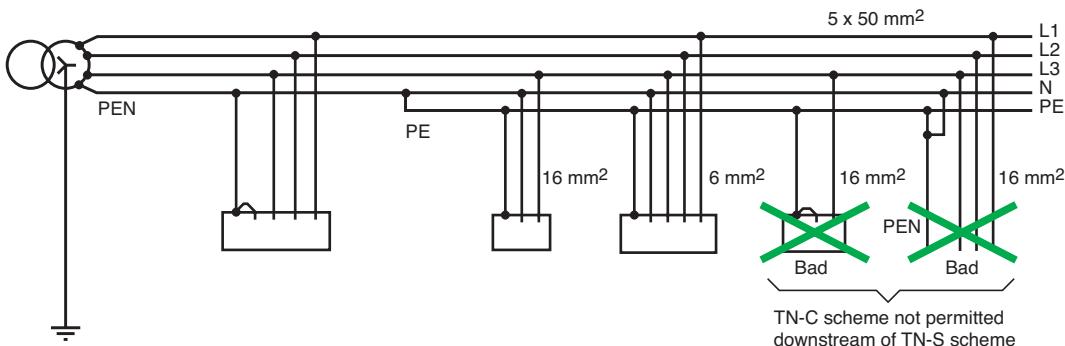
TN-S system (see Fig. E5)

The TN-S system (5 wires) is obligatory for circuits with cross-sectional areas less than 10 mm² for portable equipment.

The protective conductor and the neutral conductor are separate. On underground cable systems where lead-sheathed cables exist, the protective conductor is generally the lead sheath. The use of separate PE and N conductors (5 wires) is obligatory for circuits with cross-sectional areas less than 10 mm² for portable equipment.

TN-C-S system (see Fig. E6 below and Fig. E7 next page)

The TN-C and TN-S systems can be used in the same installation. In the TN-C-S system, the TN-C (4 wires) system must never be used downstream of the TN-S (5 wires) system, since any accidental interruption in the neutral on the upstream part would lead to an interruption in the protective conductor in the downstream part and therefore a danger.

**Fig. E4 : TN-C system****Fig. E5 : TN-S system****Fig. E6 : TN-C-S system**

1 Earthing schemes

E5

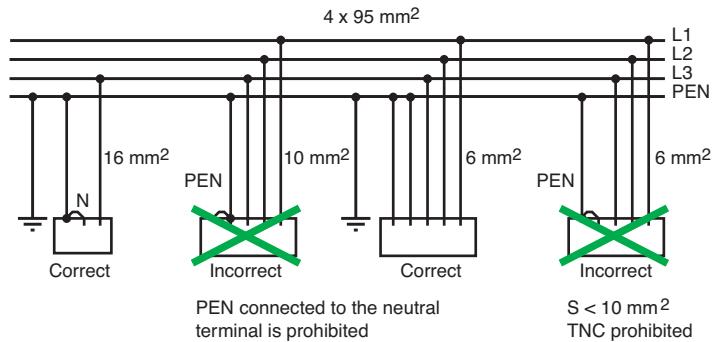


Fig. E7 : Connection of the PEN conductor in the TN-C system

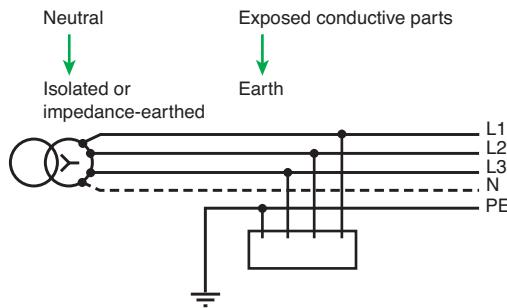


Fig. E8 : IT system (isolated neutral)

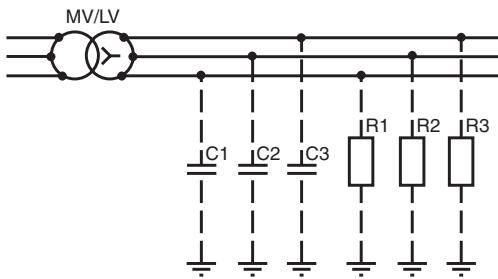


Fig. E9 : IT system (isolated neutral)

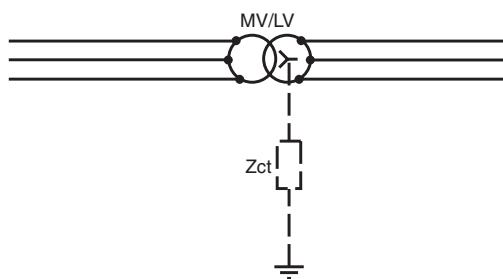


Fig. E10 : Impedance equivalent to leakage impedances in an IT system

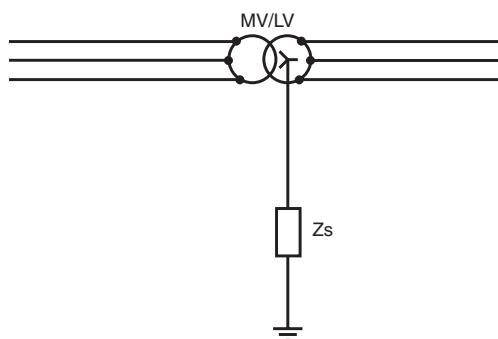
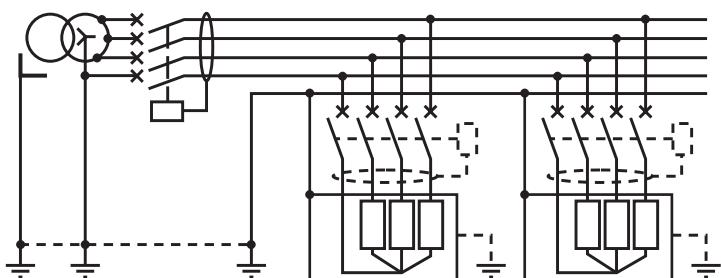


Fig. E11 : IT system (impedance-earthed neutral)

The TT system:

- Technique for the protection of persons: the exposed conductive parts are earthed and residual current devices (RCDs) are used
- Operating technique: interruption for the first insulation fault

1.3 Characteristics of TT, TN and IT systems

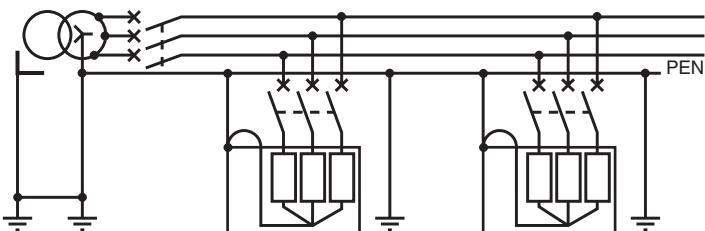
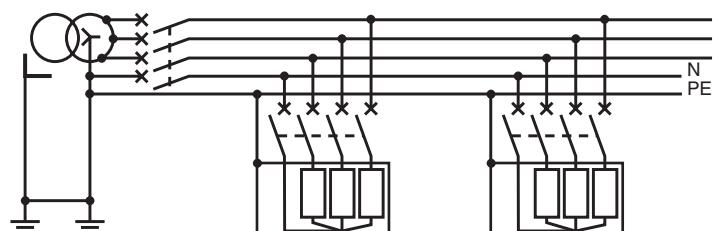
TT system (see Fig. E12)**Fig. E12 : TT system**

Note: If the exposed conductive parts are earthed at a number of points, an RCD must be installed for each set of circuits connected to a given earth electrode.

Main characteristics**The TN system:**

- Technique for the protection of persons:
 - Interconnection and earthing of exposed conductive parts and the neutral are mandatory
 - Interruption for the first fault using overcurrent protection (circuit-breakers or fuses)
- Operating technique: interruption for the first insulation fault

- Simplest solution to design and install. Used in installations supplied directly by the public LV distribution network.
- Does not require continuous monitoring during operation (a periodic check on the RCDs may be necessary).
- Protection is ensured by special devices, the residual current devices (RCD), which also prevent the risk of fire when they are set to ≤ 500 mA.
- Each insulation fault results in an interruption in the supply of power, however the outage is limited to the faulty circuit by installing the RCDs in series (selective RCDs) or in parallel (circuit selection).
- Loads or parts of the installation which, during normal operation, cause high leakage currents, require special measures to avoid nuisance tripping, i.e. supply the loads with a separation transformer or use specific RCDs (see section 5.1 in chapter F).

TN system (see Fig. E13 and Fig. E14)**Fig. E13 : TN-C system****Fig. E14 : TN-S system**

1 Earthing schemes

E7

Main characteristics

- Generally speaking, the TN system:
 - requires the installation of earth electrodes at regular intervals throughout the installation
 - Requires that the initial check on effective tripping for the first insulation fault be carried out by calculations during the design stage, followed by mandatory measurements to confirm tripping during commissioning
 - Requires that any modification or extension be designed and carried out by a qualified electrician
 - May result, in the case of insulation faults, in greater damage to the windings of rotating machines
 - May, on premises with a risk of fire, represent a greater danger due to the higher fault currents
- In addition, the TN-C system:
 - At first glance, would appear to be less expensive (elimination of a device pole and of a conductor)
 - Requires the use of fixed and rigid conductors
 - Is forbidden in certain cases:
 - Premises with a risk of fire
 - For computer equipment (presence of harmonic currents in the neutral)
- In addition, the TN-S system:
 - May be used even with flexible conductors and small conduits
 - Due to the separation of the neutral and the protection conductor, provides a clean PE (computer systems and premises with special risks)

IT system:

- Protection technique:
 - Interconnection and earthing of exposed conductive parts
 - Indication of the first fault by an insulation monitoring device (IMD)
 - Interruption for the second fault using overcurrent protection (circuit-breakers or fuses)
- Operating technique:
 - Monitoring of the first insulation fault
 - Mandatory location and clearing of the fault
 - Interruption for two simultaneous insulation faults

IT system (see Fig. E15)

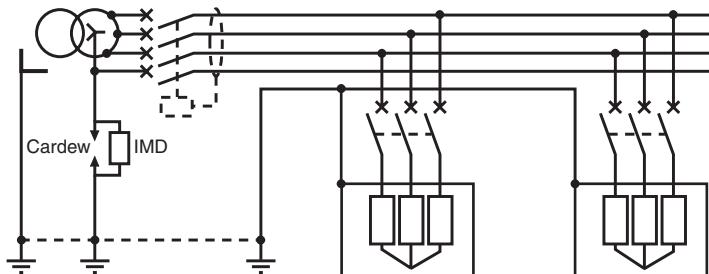


Fig. E15 : IT system

Main characteristics

- Solution offering the best continuity of service during operation
- Indication of the first insulation fault, followed by mandatory location and clearing, ensures systematic prevention of supply outages
- Generally used in installations supplied by a private MV/LV or LV/LV transformer
- Requires maintenance personnel for monitoring and operation
- Requires a high level of insulation in the network (implies breaking up the network if it is very large and the use of circuit-separation transformers to supply loads with high leakage currents)
- The check on effective tripping for two simultaneous faults must be carried out by calculations during the design stage, followed by mandatory measurements during commissioning on each group of interconnected exposed conductive parts
- Protection of the neutral conductor must be ensured as indicated in section 7.2 of Chapter G

*Selection does not depend on safety criteria.
The three systems are equivalent in terms of protection of persons if all installation and operating rules are correctly followed.
The selection criteria for the best system(s) depend on the regulatory requirements, the required continuity of service, operating conditions and the types of network and loads.*

1.4 Selection criteria for the TT, TN and IT systems

In terms of the protection of persons, the three system earthing arrangements (SEA) are equivalent if all installation and operating rules are correctly followed. Consequently, selection does not depend on safety criteria.

It is by combining all requirements in terms of regulations, continuity of service, operating conditions and the types of network and loads that it is possible to determine the best system(s) (see Fig. E16).

Selection is determined by the following factors:

- Above all, the applicable regulations which in some cases impose certain types of SEA
- Secondly, the decision of the owner if supply is via a private MV/LV transformer (MV subscription) or the owner has a private energy source (or a separate-winding transformer)

If the owner effectively has a choice, the decision on the SEA is taken following discussions with the network designer (design office, contractor)

The discussions must cover:

- First of all, the operating requirements (the required level of continuity of service) and the operating conditions (maintenance ensured by electrical personnel or not, in-house personnel or outsourced, etc.)
- Secondly, the particular characteristics of the network and the loads (see Fig. E17 next page)

	TT	TN-S	TN-C	IT1	IT2	Comments
Electrical characteristics						
Fault current	-	--	--	+	--	Only the IT system offers virtually negligible first-fault currents
Fault voltage	-	-	-	+	-	In the IT system, the touch voltage is very low for the first fault, but is considerable for the second
Touch voltage	+/-	-	-	+	-	In the TT system, the touch voltage is very low if system is equipotential, otherwise it is high
Protection						
Protection of persons against indirect contact	+	+	+	+	+	All SEAs (system earthing arrangement) are equivalent, if the rules are followed
Protection of persons with emergency generating sets	+	-	-	+	-	Systems where protection is ensured by RCDs are not sensitive to a change in the internal impedance of the source
Protection against fire (with an RCD)	+	+	Not allowed	+	+	All SEAs in which RCDs can be used are equivalent. The TN-C system is forbidden on premises where there is a risk of fire
Overtvoltages						
Continuous overvoltage	+	+	+	-	+	A phase-to-earth overvoltage is continuous in the IT system if there is a first insulation fault
Transient overvoltage	+	-	-	+	-	Systems with high fault currents may cause transient overvoltages
Overvoltage if transformer breakdown (primary/secondary)	-	+	+	+	+	In the TT system, there is a voltage imbalance between the different earth electrodes. The other systems are interconnected to a single earth electrode
Electromagnetic compatibility						
Immunity to nearby lightning strikes	-	+	+	+	+	In the TT system, there may be voltage imbalances between the earth electrodes. In the TT system, there is a significant current loop between the two separate earth electrodes
Immunity to lightning strikes on MV lines	-	-	-	-	-	All SEAs are equivalent when a MV line takes a direct lightning strike
Continuous emission of an electromagnetic field	+	+	-	+	+	Connection of the PEN to the metal structures of the building is conducive to the continuous generation of electromagnetic fields
Transient non-equipotentiality of the PE	+	-	-	+	-	The PE is no longer equipotential if there is a high fault current
Continuity of service						
Interruption for first fault	-	-	-	+	+	Only the IT system avoids tripping for the first insulation fault
Voltage dip during insulation fault	+	-	-	+	-	The TN-S, TNC and IT (2 nd fault) systems generate high fault currents which may cause phase voltage dips
Installation						
Special devices	-	+	+	-	-	The TT system requires the use of RCDs. The IT system requires the use of IMDs
Number of earth electrodes	-	+	+	-/+	-/+	The TT system requires two distinct earth electrodes. The IT system offers a choice between one or two earth electrodes
Number of cables	-	-	+	-	-	Only the TN-C system offers, in certain cases, a reduction in the number of cables
Maintenance						
Cost of repairs	-	--	--	-	--	The cost of repairs depends on the damage caused by the amplitude of the fault currents
Installation damage	+	-	-	++	-	Systems causing high fault currents require a check on the installation after clearing the fault

Fig. E16 : Comparison of system earthing arrangements

1 Earthing schemes

Type of network	Advised	Possible	Not advised
Very large network with high-quality earth electrodes for exposed conductive parts ($10\ \Omega$ max.)		TT, TN, IT ⁽¹⁾ or mixed	
Very large network with low-quality earth electrodes for exposed conductive parts ($> 30\ \Omega$)		TN	TN-S IT ⁽¹⁾ TN-C
Disturbed area (storms) (e.g. television or radio transmitter)		TN	TT IT ⁽²⁾
Network with high leakage currents ($> 500\ mA$)		TN ⁽⁴⁾	IT ⁽⁴⁾ TT ⁽³⁾ ⁽⁴⁾
Network with outdoor overhead lines		TT ⁽⁵⁾	TN ⁽⁵⁾ ⁽⁶⁾ IT ⁽⁶⁾
Emergency standby generator set		IT	TT TN ⁽⁷⁾
Type of loads			
Loads sensitive to high fault currents (motors, etc.)		IT	TT TN ⁽⁸⁾
Loads with a low insulation level (electric furnaces, welding machines, heating elements, immersion heaters, equipment in large kitchens)		TN ⁽⁹⁾	TT ⁽⁹⁾ IT
Numerous phase-neutral single-phase loads (mobile, semi-fixed, portable)		TT ⁽¹⁰⁾ TN-S	IT ⁽¹⁰⁾ TN-C ⁽¹⁰⁾
Loads with sizeable risks (hoists, conveyers, etc.)		TN ⁽¹¹⁾	TT ⁽¹¹⁾ IT ⁽¹¹⁾
Numerous auxiliaries (machine tools)		TN-S	TN-C IT ^(12 bis) TT ⁽¹²⁾
Miscellaneous			
Supply via star-star connected power transformer ⁽¹³⁾		TT	IT without neutral IT ⁽¹³⁾ with neutral
Premises with risk of fire		IT ⁽¹⁵⁾	TN-S ⁽¹⁵⁾ TT ⁽¹⁵⁾ TN-C ⁽¹⁴⁾
Increase in power level of LV utility subscription, requiring a private substation		TT ⁽¹⁶⁾	
Installation with frequent modifications		TT ⁽¹⁷⁾	TN ⁽¹⁸⁾ IT ⁽¹⁸⁾
Installation where the continuity of earth circuits is uncertain (work sites, old installations)		TT ⁽¹⁹⁾	TN-S TN-C IT ⁽¹⁹⁾
Electronic equipment (computers, PLCs)		TN-S	TT TN-C
Machine control-monitoring network, PLC sensors and actuators		IT ⁽²⁰⁾	TN-S, TT

(1) When the SEA is not imposed by regulations, it is selected according to the level of operating characteristics (continuity of service that is mandatory for safety reasons or desired to enhance productivity, etc.)

Whatever the SEA, the probability of an insulation failure increases with the length of the network. It may be a good idea to break up the network, which facilitates fault location and makes it possible to implement the system advised above for each type of application.

(2) The risk of flashover on the surge limiter turns the isolated neutral into an earthed neutral. These risks are high for regions with frequent thunder storms or installations supplied by overhead lines. If the IT system is selected to ensure a higher level of continuity of service, the system designer must precisely calculate the tripping conditions for a second fault.

(3) Risk of RCD nuisance tripping.

(4) Whatever the SEA, the ideal solution is to isolate the disturbing section if it can be easily identified.

(5) Risks of phase-to-earth faults affecting equipotentiality.

(6) Insulation is uncertain due to humidity and conducting dust.

(7) The TN system is not advised due to the risk of damage to the generator in the case of an internal fault. What is more, when generator sets supply safety equipment, the system must not trip for the first fault.

(8) The phase-to-earth current may be several times higher than I_n , with the risk of damaging or accelerating the ageing of motor windings, or of destroying magnetic circuits.

(9) To combine continuity of service and safety, it is necessary and highly advised, whatever the SEA, to separate these loads from the rest of the installation (transformers with local neutral connection).

(10) When load equipment quality is not a design priority, there is a risk that the insulation resistance will fall rapidly. The TT system with RCDs is the best means to avoid problems.

(11) The mobility of this type of load causes frequent faults (sliding contact for bonding of exposed conductive parts) that must be countered.

Whatever the SEA, it is advised to supply these circuits using transformers with a local neutral connection.

(12) Requires the use of transformers with a local TN system to avoid operating risks and nuisance tripping at the first fault (TT) or a double fault (IT).

(12 bis) With a double break in the control circuit.

(13) Excessive limitation of the phase-to-neutral current due to the high value of the zero-phase impedance (at least 4 to 5 times the direct impedance). This system must be replaced by a star-delta arrangement.

(14) The high fault currents make the TN system dangerous. The TN-C system is forbidden.

(15) Whatever the system, the RCD must be set to $\Delta n \leq 500\ mA$.

(16) An installation supplied with LV energy must use the TT system. Maintaining this SEA means the least amount of modifications on the existing network (no cables to be run, no protection devices to be modified).

(17) Possible without highly competent maintenance personnel.

(18) This type of installation requires particular attention in maintaining safety. The absence of preventive measures in the TN system means highly qualified personnel are required to ensure safety over time.

(19) The risks of breaks in conductors (supply, protection) may cause the loss of equipotentiality for exposed conductive parts. A TT system or a TN-S system with 30 mA RCDs is advised and is often mandatory. The IT system may be used in very specific cases.

(20) This solution avoids nuisance tripping for unexpected earth leakage.

Fig. E17 : Influence of networks and loads on the selection of system earthing arrangements

E9

1.5 Choice of earthing method - implementation

After consulting applicable regulations, Figures E16 and E17 can be used as an aid in deciding on divisions and possible galvanic isolation of appropriate sections of a proposed installation.

Division of source

This technique concerns the use of several transformers instead of employing one high-rated unit. In this way, a load that is a source of network disturbances (large motors, furnaces, etc.) can be supplied by its own transformer. The quality and continuity of supply to the whole installation are thereby improved. The cost of switchgear is reduced (short-circuit current level is lower). The cost-effectiveness of separate transformers must be determined on a case by case basis.

Network islands

The creation of galvanically-separated “islands” by means of LV/LV transformers makes it possible to optimise the choice of earthing methods to meet specific requirements (see Fig. E18 and Fig. E19).

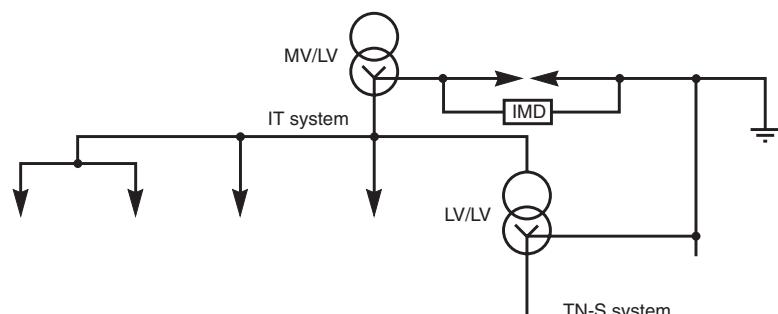


Fig. E18 : TN-S island within an IT system

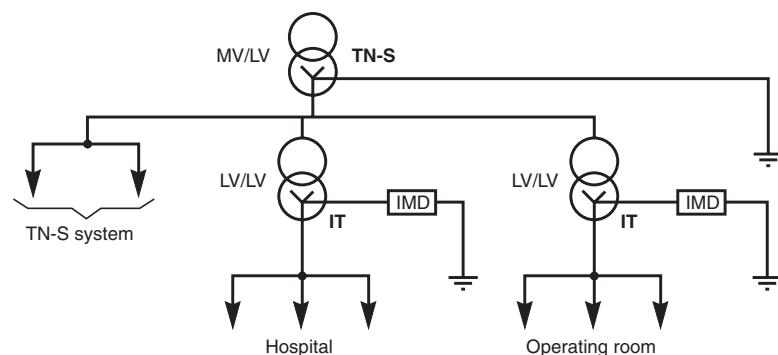


Fig. E19 : IT islands within a TN-S system

Conclusion

The optimisation of the performance of the whole installation governs the choice of earthing system.

Including:

- Initial investments, and
- Future operational expenditures, hard to assess, that can arise from insufficient reliability, quality of equipment, safety, continuity of service, etc.

An ideal structure would comprise normal power supply sources, local reserve power supply sources (see section 1.4 of Chapter E) and the appropriate earthing arrangements.

A very effective method of obtaining a low-resistance earth connection is to bury a conductor in the form of a closed loop in the soil at the bottom of the excavation for building foundations.

The resistance R of such an electrode (in homogeneous soil) is given (approximately) in ohms by: $R = \frac{2\rho}{L}$ where

L = length of the buried conductor in metres
 ρ = soil resistivity in ohm-metres

$$\text{For } n \text{ rods: } R = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\rho}{L}$$

1.6 Installation and measurements of earth electrodes

The quality of an earth electrode (resistance as low as possible) depends essentially on two factors:

- Installation method
- Type of soil

Installation methods

Three common types of installation will be discussed:

Buried ring (see Fig. E20)

This solution is strongly recommended, particularly in the case of a new building. The electrode should be buried around the perimeter of the excavation made for the foundations. It is important that the bare conductor be in intimate contact with the soil (and not placed in the gravel or aggregate hard-core, often forming a base for concrete). At least four (widely-spaced) vertically arranged conductors from the electrode should be provided for the installation connections and, where possible, any reinforcing rods in concrete work should be connected to the electrode.

The conductor forming the earth electrode, particularly when it is laid in an excavation for foundations, must be in the earth, at least 50 cm below the hard-core or aggregate base for the concrete foundation. Neither the electrode nor the vertical rising conductors to the ground floor, should ever be in contact with the foundation concrete.

For existing buildings, the electrode conductor should be buried around the outside wall of the premises to a depth of at least 1 metre. As a general rule, all vertical connections from an electrode to above-ground level should be insulated for the nominal LV voltage (600-1,000 V).

The conductors may be:

- Copper: Bare cable ($\geq 25 \text{ mm}^2$) or multiple-strip ($\geq 25 \text{ mm}^2$ and $\geq 2 \text{ mm}$ thick)
- Aluminium with lead jacket: Cable ($\geq 35 \text{ mm}^2$)
- Galvanised-steel cable: Bare cable ($\geq 95 \text{ mm}^2$) or multiple-strip ($\geq 100 \text{ mm}^2$ and $\geq 3 \text{ mm}$ thick)

The approximate resistance R of the electrode in ohms:

$$R = \frac{2\rho}{L}$$

where

L = length of conductor in metres

ρ = resistivity of the soil in ohm-metres (see "Influence of the type of soil" next page)

Earthing rods (see Fig. E21)

Vertically driven earthing rods are often used for existing buildings, and for improving (i.e. reducing the resistance of) existing earth electrodes.

The rods may be:

- Copper or (more commonly) copper-clad steel. The latter are generally 1 or 2 metres long and provided with screwed ends and sockets in order to reach considerable depths, if necessary (for instance, the water-table level in areas of high soil resistivity)
- Galvanised (see note (1) next page) steel pipe $\geq 25 \text{ mm}$ diameter or rod $\geq 15 \text{ mm}$ diameter, ≥ 2 metres long in each case.

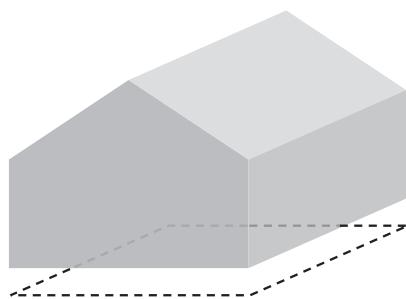


Fig. E20 : Conductor buried below the level of the foundations, i.e. not in the concrete

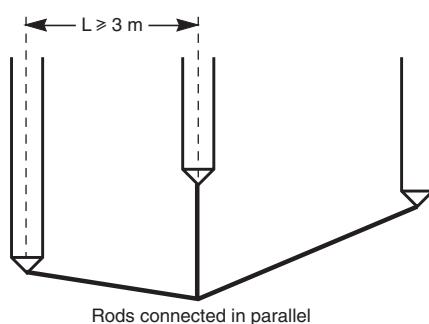


Fig. E21 : Earthing rods

E12

$$\text{For a vertical plate electrode: } R = \frac{0.8 \rho}{L}$$

Measurements on earth electrodes in similar soils are useful to determine the resistivity value to be applied for the design of an earth-electrode system

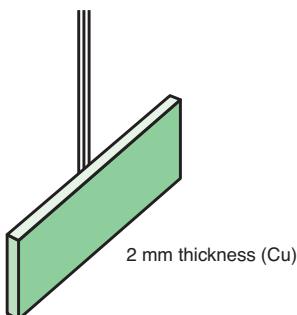


Fig. E22 : Vertical plate

(1) Where galvanised conducting materials are used for earth electrodes, sacrificial cathodic protection anodes may be necessary to avoid rapid corrosion of the electrodes where the soil is aggressive. Specially prepared magnesium anodes (in a porous sack filled with a suitable "soil") are available for direct connection to the electrodes. In such circumstances, a specialist should be consulted

It is often necessary to use more than one rod, in which case the spacing between them should exceed the depth to which they are driven, by a factor of 2 to 3.

The total resistance (in homogeneous soil) is then equal to the resistance of one rod, divided by the number of rods in question. The approximate resistance R obtained is:

$$R = \frac{1 \rho}{n L} \quad \text{if the distance separating the rods} > 4L$$

where

L = the length of the rod in metres

ρ = resistivity of the soil in ohm-metres (see "Influence of the type of soil" below)

n = the number of rods

Vertical plates (see Fig. E22)

Rectangular plates, each side of which must be ≥ 0.5 metres, are commonly used as earth electrodes, being buried in a vertical plane such that the centre of the plate is at least 1 metre below the surface of the soil.

The plates may be:

- Copper of 2 mm thickness
- Galvanised ⁽¹⁾ steel of 3 mm thickness

The resistance R in ohms is given (approximately), by:

$$R = \frac{0.8 \rho}{L}$$

L = the perimeter of the plate in metres

ρ = resistivity of the soil in ohm-metres (see "Influence of the type of soil" below)

Influence of the type of soil

Type of soil	Mean value of resistivity in Ωm
Swampy soil, bogs	1 - 30
Silt alluvium	20 - 100
Humus, leaf mould	10 - 150
Peat, turf	5 - 100
Soft clay	50
Marl and compacted clay	100 - 200
Jurassic marl	30 - 40
Clayey sand	50 - 500
Siliceous sand	200 - 300
Stoney ground	1,500 - 3,000
Grass-covered-stoney sub-soil	300 - 500
Chalky soil	100 - 300
Limestone	1,000 - 5,000
Fissured limestone	500 - 1,000
Schist, shale	50 - 300
Mica schist	800
Granite and sandstone	1,500 - 10,000
Modified granite and sandstone	100 - 600

Fig. E23 : Resistivity (Ωm) for different types of soil

Type of soil	Average value of resistivity in Ωm
Fertile soil, compacted damp fill	50
Arid soil, gravel, uncompacted non-uniform fill	500
Stoney soil, bare, dry sand, fissured rocks	3,000

Fig. E24 : Average resistivity (Ωm) values for approximate earth-elect

Measurement and constancy of the resistance between an earth electrode and the earth

The resistance of the electrode/earth interface rarely remains constant

Among the principal factors affecting this resistance are the following:

- Humidity of the soil

The seasonal changes in the moisture content of the soil can be significant at depths of up to 2 meters.

At a depth of 1 metre the resistivity and therefore the resistance can vary by a ratio of 1 to 3 between a wet winter and a dry summer in temperate regions

- Frost

Frozen earth can increase the resistivity of the soil by several orders of magnitude.

This is one reason for recommending the installation of deep electrodes, in particular in cold climates

- Ageing

The materials used for electrodes will generally deteriorate to some extent for various reasons, for example:

- Chemical reactions (in acidic or alkaline soils)

□ Galvanic: due to stray DC currents in the earth, for example from electric railways, etc. or due to dissimilar metals forming primary cells. Different soils acting on sections of the same conductor can also form cathodic and anodic areas with consequent loss of surface metal from the latter areas. Unfortunately, the most favourable conditions for low earth-electrode resistance (i.e. low soil resistivity) are also those in which galvanic currents can most easily flow.

- Oxidation

Brazed and welded joints and connections are the points most sensitive to oxidation. Thorough cleaning of a newly made joint or connection and wrapping with a suitable greased-tape binding is a commonly used preventive measure.

Measurement of the earth-electrode resistance

There must always be one or more removable links to isolate an earth electrode so that it can be tested.

There must always be removable links which allow the earth electrode to be isolated from the installation, so that periodic tests of the earthing resistance can be carried out. To make such tests, two auxiliary electrodes are required, each consisting of a vertically driven rod.

- Ammeter method (see Fig. E25)

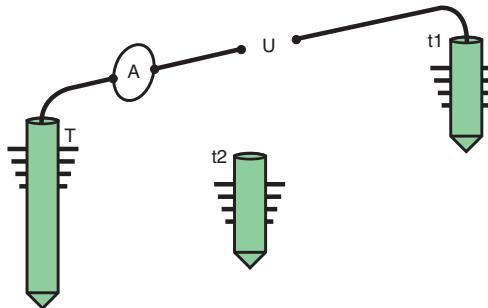


Fig. E25 : Measurement of the resistance to earth of the earth electrode of an installation by means of an ammeter

$$A = R_T + R_{t1} = \frac{U_{t1T}}{i_1}$$

$$B = R_{t1} + R_{t2} = \frac{U_{t1t2}}{i_2}$$

$$C = R_{t2} + R_T = \frac{U_{t2T}}{i_3}$$

When the source voltage U is constant (adjusted to be the same value for each test) then:

$$R_T = \frac{U}{2} \left(\frac{1}{i_1} + \frac{1}{i_3} - \frac{1}{i_2} \right)$$

1 Earthing schemes

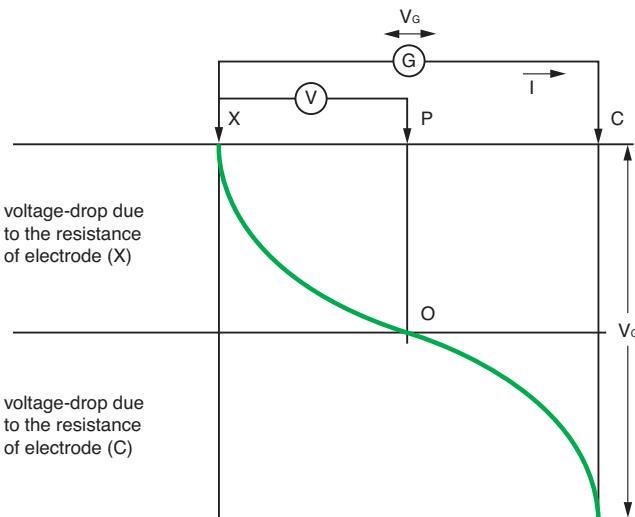
In order to avoid errors due to stray earth currents (galvanic -DC- or leakage currents from power and communication networks and so on) the test current should be AC, but at a different frequency to that of the power system or any of its harmonics. Instruments using hand-driven generators to make these measurements usually produce an AC voltage at a frequency of between 85 Hz and 135 Hz.

The distances between the electrodes are not critical and may be in different directions from the electrode being tested, according to site conditions. A number of tests at different spacings and directions are generally made to cross-check the test results.

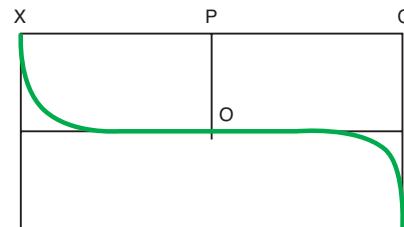
■ Use of a direct-reading earthing-resistance ohmmeter

These instruments use a hand-driven or electronic-type AC generator, together with two auxiliary electrodes, the spacing of which must be such that the zone of influence of the electrode being tested should not overlap that of the test electrode (C). The test electrode (C) furthest from the electrode (X) under test, passes a current through the earth and the electrode under test, while the second test electrode (P) picks up a voltage. This voltage, measured between (X) and (P), is due to the test current and is a measure of the contact resistance (of the electrode under test) with earth. It is clear that the distance (X) to (P) must be carefully chosen to give accurate results. If the distance (X) to (C) is increased, however, the zones of resistance of electrodes (X) and (C) become more remote, one from the other, and the curve of potential (voltage) becomes more nearly horizontal about the point (O).

In practical tests, therefore, the distance (X) to (C) is increased until readings taken with electrode (P) at three different points, i.e. at (P) and at approximately 5 metres on either side of (P), give similar values. The distance (X) to (P) is generally about 0.68 of the distance (X) to (C).



a) the principle of measurement is based on assumed homogeneous soil conditions. Where the zones of influence of electrodes C and X overlap, the location of test electrode P is difficult to determine for satisfactory results.



b) showing the effect on the potential gradient when (X) and (C) are widely spaced. The location of test electrode P is not critical and can be easily determined.

Fig. E26 : Measurement of the resistance of the mass of earth of electrode (X) using an earth-electrode-testing ohmmeter.

2 The installation system

Distribution switchboards, including the main LV switchboard (MLVS), are critical to the dependability of an electrical installation. They must comply with well-defined standards governing the design and construction of LV switchgear assemblies

The load requirements dictate the type of distribution switchboard to be installed

2.1 Distribution switchboards

A distribution switchboard is the point at which an incoming-power supply divides into separate circuits, each of which is controlled and protected by the fuses or switchgear of the switchboard. A distribution switchboard is divided into a number of functional units, each comprising all the electrical and mechanical elements that contribute to the fulfilment of a given function. It represents a key link in the dependability chain.

Consequently, the type of distribution switchboard must be perfectly adapted to its application. Its design and construction must comply with applicable standards and working practises.

The distribution switchboard enclosure provides dual protection:

- Protection of switchgear, indicating instruments, relays, fusegear, etc. against mechanical impacts, vibrations and other external influences likely to interfere with operational integrity (EMI, dust, moisture, vermin, etc.)
- The protection of human life against the possibility of direct and indirect electric shock (see degree of protection IP and the IK index in section 3.3 of Chapter E).

Types of distribution switchboards

Distribution switchboards may differ according to the kind of application and the design principle adopted (notably in the arrangement of the busbars).

Distribution switchboards according to specific applications

The principal types of distribution switchboards are:

- The main LV switchboard - MLVS - (see Fig. E27a)
- Motor control centres - MCC - (see Fig. E27b)
- Sub-distribution switchboards (see Fig. E28)
- Final distribution switchboards (see Fig. E29)

Distribution switchboards for specific applications (e.g. heating, lifts, industrial processes) can be located:

- Adjacent to the main LV switchboard, or
- Near the application concerned

Sub-distribution and final distribution switchboards are generally distributed throughout the site.



Fig. E27 : [a] A main LV switchboard - MLVS - (Prisma Plus P) with incoming circuits in the form of busways - [b] A LV motor control centre - MCC - (Okken)



Fig. E28 : A sub-distribution switchboard (Prisma Plus G)

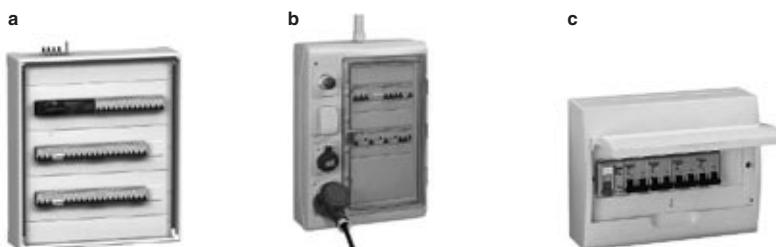


Fig. E29 : Final distribution switchboards [a] Prisma Plus G Pack; [b] Kaedra; [c] mini-Prisma

A distinction is made between:

- *Traditional distribution switchboards in which switchgear and fusegear, etc. are fixed to a chassis at the rear of an enclosure*
- *Functional distribution switchboards for specific applications, based on modular and standardised design.*

E16

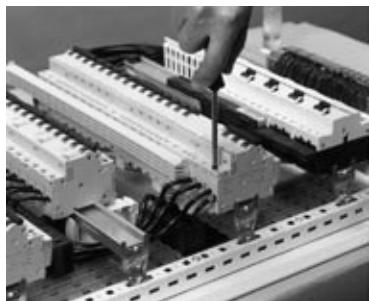


Fig. E30 : Assembly of a final distribution switchboard with fixed functional units (Prisma Plus G)

Two technologies of distribution switchboards

Traditional distribution switchboards

Switchgear and fusegear, etc. are normally located on a chassis at the rear of the enclosure. Indications and control devices (meters, lamps, pushbuttons, etc.) are mounted on the front face of the switchboard.

The placement of the components within the enclosure requires very careful study, taking into account the dimensions of each item, the connections to be made to it, and the clearances necessary to ensure safe and trouble-free operation. .

Functional distribution switchboards

Generally dedicated to specific applications, these distribution switchboards are made up of functional modules that include switchgear devices together with standardised accessories for mounting and connections, ensuring a high level of reliability and a great capacity for last-minute and future changes.

■ Many advantages

The use of functional distribution switchboards has spread to all levels of LV electrical distribution, from the main LV switchboard (MLVS) to final distribution switchboards, due to their many advantages:

- System modularity that makes it possible to integrate numerous functions in a single distribution switchboard, including protection, control, technical management and monitoring of electrical installations. Modular design also enhances distribution switchboard maintenance, operation and upgrades
- Distribution switchboard design is fast because it simply involves adding functional modules
- Prefabricated components can be mounted faster
- Finally, these distribution switchboards are subjected to type tests that ensure a high degree of dependability.

The new Prisma Plus G and P ranges of functional distribution switchboards from Schneider Electric cover needs up to 3200 A and offer:

- Flexibility and ease in building distribution switchboards
- Certification of a distribution switchboard complying with standard IEC 60439 and the assurance of servicing under safe conditions
- Time savings at all stages, from design to installation, operation and modifications or upgrades
- Easy adaptation, for example to meet the specific work habits and standards in different countries

Figures E27a, E28 and E29 show examples of functional distribution switchboards ranging for all power ratings and figure E27b shows a high-power industrial functional distribution switchboard.

■ Main types of functional units

Three basic technologies are used in functional distribution switchboards.

□ Fixed functional units (see Fig. E30)

These units cannot be isolated from the supply so that any intervention for maintenance, modifications and so on, requires the shutdown of the entire distribution switchboard. Plug-in or withdrawable devices can however be used to minimise shutdown times and improve the availability of the rest of the installation.

□ Disconnectable functional units (see Fig. E31)

Each functional unit is mounted on a removable mounting plate and provided with a means of isolation on the upstream side (busbars) and disconnecting facilities on the downstream (outgoing circuit) side. The complete unit can therefore be removed for servicing, without requiring a general shutdown.

□ Drawer-type withdrawable functional units (see Fig. E32)

The switchgear and associated accessories for a complete function are mounted on a drawer-type horizontally withdrawable chassis. The function is generally complex and often concerns motor control.

Isolation is possible on both the upstream and downstream sides by the complete withdrawal of the drawer, allowing fast replacement of a faulty unit without de-energising the rest of the distribution switchboard.



Fig. E31 : Distribution switchboard with disconnectable functional units



Fig. E32 : Distribution switchboard with withdrawable functional units in drawers

2 The installation system

Compliance with applicable standards is essential in order to ensure an adequate degree of dependability

Three elements of standard IEC 60439-1 contribute significantly to dependability:

- Clear definition of functional units
- Forms of separation between adjacent functional units in accordance with user requirements
- Clearly defined routine tests and type tests

Standards

Different standards

Certain types of distribution switchboards (in particular, functional distribution switchboards) must comply with specific standards according to the application or environment involved.

The reference international standard is IEC 60439-1 type-tested and partially type-tested assemblies

Standard IEC 60439-1

■ Categories of assemblies

Standard IEC 60439-1 distinguishes between two categories of assemblies:

- Type-tested LV switchgear and controlgear assemblies (TTA), which do not diverge significantly from an established type or system for which conformity is ensured by the type tests provided in the standard
- Partially type-tested LV switchgear and controlgear assemblies (PTTA), which may contain non-type-tested arrangements provided that the latter are derived from type-tested arrangements

When implemented in compliance with professional work standards and manufacturer instructions by qualified personnel, they offer the same level of safety and quality.

■ Functional units

The same standard defines functional units:

- Part of an assembly comprising all the electrical and mechanical elements that contribute to the fulfilment of the same function
- The distribution switchboard includes an incoming functional unit and one or more functional units for outgoing circuits, depending on the operating requirements of the installation

What is more, distribution switchboard technologies use functional units that may be fixed, disconnectable or withdrawable (see section 3.1 of Chapter E).

■ Forms (see Fig. E33)

Separation of functional units within the assembly is provided by forms that are specified for different types of operation.

The various forms are numbered from 1 to 4 with variations labelled "a" or "b". Each step up (from 1 to 4) is cumulative, i.e. a form with a higher number includes the characteristics of forms with lower numbers. The standard distinguishes:

- Form 1: No separation
- Form 2: Separation of busbars from the functional units
- Form 3: Separation of busbars from the functional units and separation of all functional units, one from another, except at their output terminals
- Form 4: As for Form 3, but including separation of the outgoing terminals of all functional units, one from another

The decision on which form to implement results from an agreement between the manufacturer and the user.

The Prima Plus functional range offers solutions for forms 1, 2b, 3b, 4a, 4b.

E17

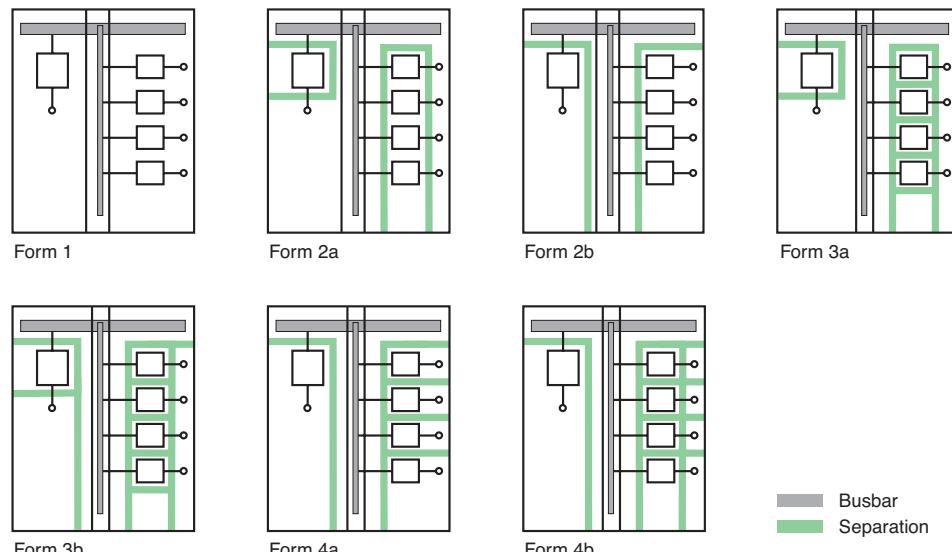


Fig. E33 : Representation of different forms of LV functional distribution switchboards

Total accessibility of electrical information and intelligent distribution switchboards are now a reality

■ Type tests and routine tests

They ensure compliance of each distribution switchboard with the standard. The availability of test documents certified by independent organisations is a guarantee for users.

Remote monitoring and control of the electrical installation

Remote monitoring and control are no longer limited to large installations. These functions are increasingly used and provide considerable cost savings.

The main potential advantages are:

- Reductions in energy bills
- Reductions in structural costs to maintain the installation in running order
- Better use of the investment, notably concerning optimisation of the installation life cycle
- Greater satisfaction for energy users (in a building or in process industries) due to improved power availability and/or quality

The above possibilities are all the more an option given the current deregulation of the electrical-energy sector.

Modbus is increasingly used as the open standard for communication within the distribution switchboard and between the distribution switchboard and customer power monitoring and control applications. Modbus exists in two forms, twisted pair (RS 485) and Ethernet-TCP/IP (IEEE 802.3).

The www.modbus.org site presents all bus specifications and constantly updates the list of products and companies using the open industrial standard.

The use of web technologies has largely contributed to wider use by drastically reducing the cost of accessing these functions through the use of an interface that is now universal (web pages) and a degree of openness and upgradeability that simply did not exist just a few years ago.

Two types of distribution are possible:
 ■ By insulated wires and cables
 ■ By busbar trunking (busways)

2.2 Cables and busway trunking

Distribution by insulated conductors and cables

Definitions

- Conductor



A conductor comprises a single metallic core with or without an insulating envelope.

- Cable



A cable is made up of a number of conductors, electrically separated, but joined mechanically, generally enclosed in a protective flexible sheath.

- Cableway



The term cableway refers to conductors and/or cables together with the means of support and protection, etc. for example : cable trays, ladders, ducts, trenches, and so on... are all "cableways".

Conductor marking

Conductor identification must always respect the following three rules:

- Rule 1

The double colour green and yellow is strictly reserved for the PE and PEN protection conductors.

- Rule 2

When a circuit comprises a neutral conductor, it must be light blue or marked "1" for cables with more than five conductors

When a circuit does not have a neutral conductor, the light blue conductor may be used as a phase conductor if it is part of a cable with more than one conductor

- Rule 3

Phase conductors may be any colour except:

- Green and yellow
- Green
- Yellow
- Light blue (see rule 2)

2 The installation system

Conductors in a cable are identified either by their colour or by numbers (see Fig. E34).

Number of conductors in circuit	Circuit	Fixed cableways									
		Insulated conductors					Rigid and flexible multi-conductor cables				
		Ph	Ph	Pn	N	PE	Ph	Ph	Ph	N	PE
1	Protection or earth					G/Y					
2	Single-phase between phases	■	■				BL	LB			
	Single-phase between phase and neutral	■			LB		BL			LB	
	Single-phase between phase and neutral + protection conductor	■			G/Y		BL			G/Y	
3	Three-phase without neutral	■	■	■			BL	B	LB		
	2 phases + neutral	■	■		LB		BL	B		LB	
	2 phases + protection conductor	■	■			G/Y	BL	LB			G/Y
	Single-phase between phase and neutral + protection conductor	■			LB	G/Y	BL			LB	G/Y
4	Three-phase with neutral	■	■	■	LB		BL	B	BL	LB	
	Three-phase with neutral + protection conductor	■	■	■		G/Y	BL	B	LB		G/Y
	2 phases + neutral + protection conductor	■	■		LB	G/Y	BL	B		LB	G/Y
	Three-phase with PEN conductor	■	■	■	G/Y		BL	B	LB	G/Y	
5	Three-phase + neutral + protection conductor	■	■	■	LB	G/Y	BL	B	BL	LB	G/Y
> 5		Protection conductor: G/Y - Other conductors: BL: with numbering The number "1" is reserved for the neutral conductor if it exists									

G/Y: Green and yellow

BL: Black

■ : As indicated in rule 3

LB: Light blue

B: Brown

Fig. E34 : Conductor identification according to the type of circuit

E19

Note: If the circuit includes a protection conductor and if the available cable does not have a green and yellow conductor, the protection conductor may be:

- A separate green and yellow conductor
- The blue conductor if the circuit does not have a neutral conductor
- A black conductor if the circuit has a neutral conductor

In the last two cases, the conductor used must be marked by green and yellow bands or markings at the ends and on all visible lengths of the conductor.

Equipment power cords are marked similar to multi-conductor cables (see Fig. E35).

Distribution and installation methods (see Fig. E36)

Distribution takes place via cableways that carry single insulated conductors or cables and include a fixing system and mechanical protection.

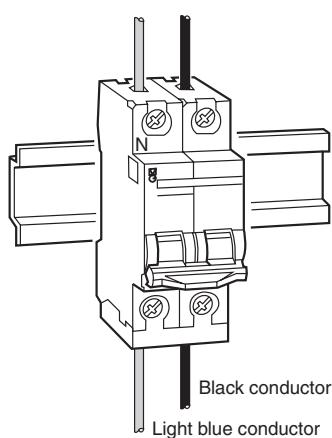


Fig. E35 : Conductor identification on a circuit-breaker with a phase and a neutral

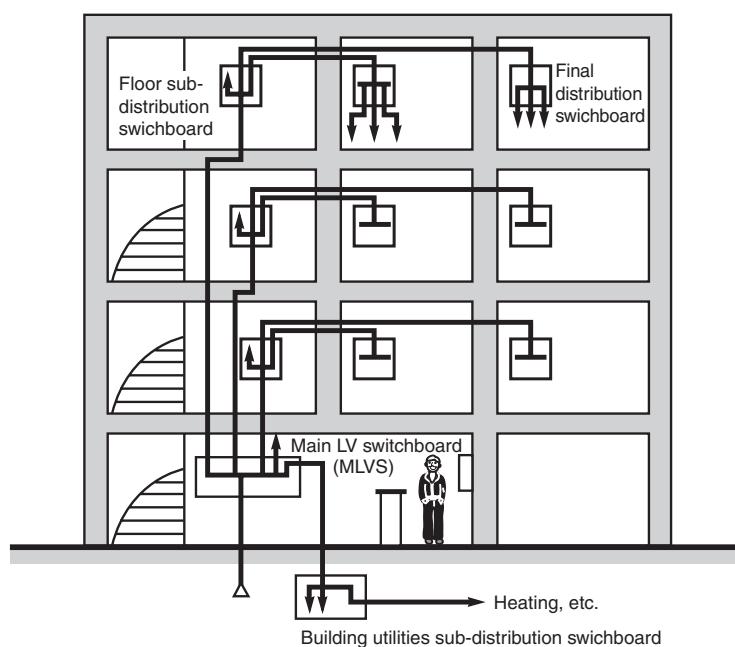


Fig. E36 : Radial distribution using cables in a hotel

Busways, also referred to as busbar trunking systems, stand out for their ease of installation, flexibility and number of possible connection points

Busbar trunking (busways)

Busbar trunking is intended to distribute power (from 20 A to 5000 A) and lighting (in this application, the busbar trunking may play a dual role of supplying electrical power and physically holding the lights).

Busbar trunking system components

A **busbar trunking** system comprises a set of conductors protected by an enclosure (see Fig. E37). Used for the transmission and distribution of electrical power, busbar trunking systems have all the necessary features for fitting: connectors, straights, angles, fixings, etc. The tap-off points placed at regular intervals make power available at every point in the installation.

E20

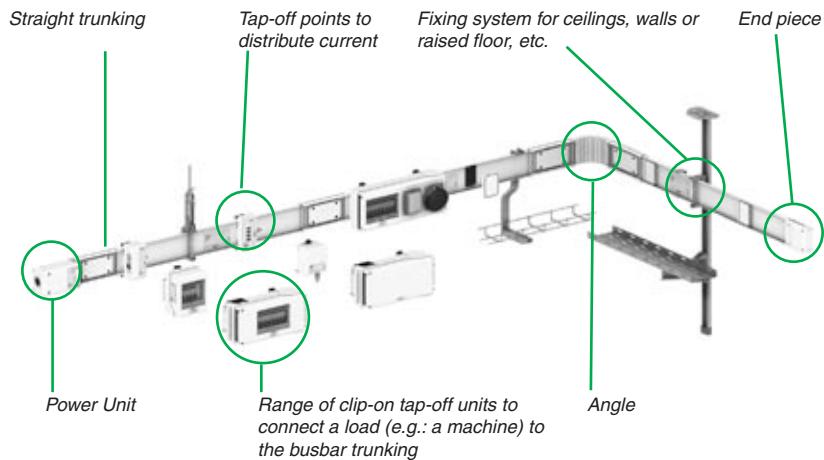


Fig. E37 : Busbar trunking system design for distribution of currents from 25 to 4000 A.

The various types of busbar trunking:

Busbar trunking systems are present at every level in electrical distribution: from the link between the transformer and the low voltage switch switchboard (MLVS) to the distribution of power sockets and lighting to offices, or power distribution to workshops.

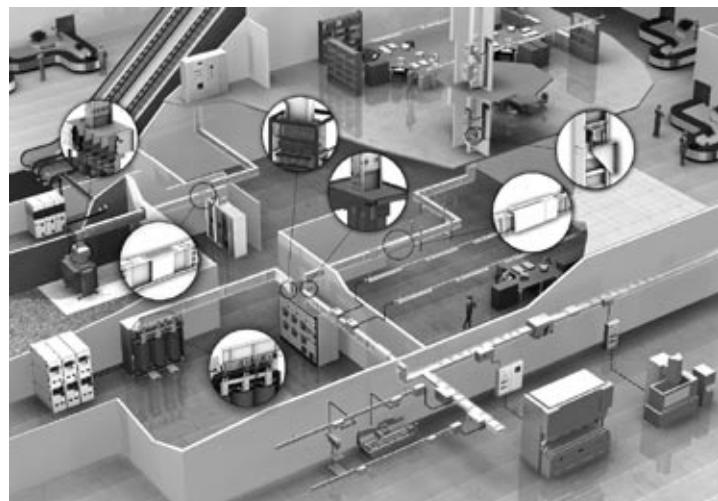


Fig. E38 : Radial distribution using busways

We talk about a distributed network architecture.

There are essentially three categories of busways.

■ Transformer to MLVS busbar trunking

Installation of the busway may be considered as permanent and will most likely never be modified. There are no tap-off points.

Frequently used for short runs, it is almost always used for ratings above 1,600 / 2,000 A, i.e. when the use of parallel cables makes installation impossible. Busways are also used between the MLVS and downstream distribution switchboards.

The characteristics of main-distribution busways authorize operational currents from 1,000 to 5,000 A and short-circuit withstands up to 150 kA.

■ Sub-distribution busbar trunking with low or high tap-off densities

Downstream of main-distribution busbar trunking, two types of applications must be supplied:

□ Mid-sized premises (industrial workshops with injection presses and metalwork machines or large supermarkets with heavy loads). The short-circuit and current levels can be fairly high (respectively 20 to 70 kA and 100 to 1,000 A)

□ Small sites (workshops with machine-tools, textile factories with small machines, supermarkets with small loads). The short-circuit and current levels are lower (respectively 10 to 40 kA and 40 to 400 A)

Sub-distribution using busbar trunking meets user needs in terms of:

□ Modifications and upgrades given the high number of tap-off points

□ Dependability and continuity of service because tap-off units can be connected under energized conditions in complete safety

The sub-distribution concept is also valid for vertical distribution in the form of 100 to 5,000 A risers in tall buildings.

■ Lighting distribution busbar trunking

Lighting circuits can be distributed using two types of busbar trunking according to whether the lighting fixtures are suspended from the busbar trunking or not.

□ busbar trunking designed for the suspension of lighting fixtures

These busways supply and support light fixtures (industrial reflectors, discharge lamps, etc.). They are used in industrial buildings, supermarkets, department stores and warehouses. The busbar trunkings are very rigid and are designed for one or two 25 A or 40 A circuits. They have tap-off outlets every 0.5 to 1 m.

□ busbar trunking not designed for the suspension of lighting fixtures

Similar to prefabricated cable systems, these busways are used to supply all types of lighting fixtures secured to the building structure. They are used in commercial buildings (offices, shops, restaurants, hotels, etc.), especially in false ceilings. The busbar trunking is flexible and designed for one 20 A circuit. It has tap-off outlets every 1.2 m to 3 m.

Busbar trunking systems are suited to the requirements of a large number of buildings.

■ Industrial buildings: garages, workshops, farm buildings, logistic centers, etc.

■ Commercial areas: stores, shopping malls, supermarkets, hotels, etc.

■ Tertiary buildings: offices, schools, hospitals, sports rooms, cruise liners, etc.

Standards

Busbar trunking systems must meet all rules stated in IEC 439-2.

This defines the manufacturing arrangements to be complied with in the design of busbar trunking systems (e.g.: temperature rise characteristics, short-circuit withstand, mechanical strength, etc.) as well as test methods to check them.

Standard IEC 439-2 defines 13 compulsory type-tests on configurations or system components..

By assembling the system components on the site according to the assembly instructions, the contractor benefits from conformity with the standard.

The advantages of busbar trunking systems

Flexibility

■ Easy to change configuration (on-site modification to change production line configuration or extend production areas).

■ Reusing components (components are kept intact): when an installation is subject to major modifications, the busbar trunking is easy to dismantle and reuse.

■ Power availability throughout the installation (possibility of having a tap-off point every meter).

■ Wide choice of tap-off units.

Simplicity

- Design can be carried out independently from the distribution and layout of current consumers.
- Performances are independent of implementation: the use of cables requires a lot of derating coefficients.
- Clear distribution layout
- Reduction of fitting time: the trunking system allows fitting times to be reduced by up to 50% compared with a traditional cable installation.
- Manufacturer's guarantee.
- Controlled execution times: the trunking system concept guarantees that there are no unexpected surprises when fitting. The fitting time is clearly known in advance and a quick solution can be provided to any problems on site with this adaptable and scalable equipment.
- Easy to implement: modular components that are easy to handle, simple and quick to connect.

Dependability

- Reliability guaranteed by being factory-built
- Fool-proof units
- Sequential assembly of straight components and tap-off units making it impossible to make any mistakes

Continuity of service

- The large number of tap-off points makes it easy to supply power to any new current consumer. Connecting and disconnecting is quick and can be carried out in complete safety even when energized. These two operations (adding or modifying) take place without having to stop operations.
- Quick and easy fault location since current consumers are near to the line
- Maintenance is non-existent or greatly reduced

Major contribution to sustainable development

- Busbar trunking systems allow circuits to be combined. Compared with a traditional cable distribution system, consumption of copper raw materials and insulators is divided by 3 due to the busbar trunking distributed network concept (see Fig. E39).

Distribution type	Conductors	Insulators	Consumption
Branched			
	Alu: 128 mm² Copper equivalent: 86 mm²	4 kg	1 000 Joules
ks: clustering coefficient= 0.6			
Centralized			
	Copper: 250 mm²	12 kg	1 600 Joules
ks: clustering coefficient= 0.6			

Fig. E39 : Example: 30 m of Canalis KS 250A equipped with 10 25 A, four-pole feeders

- Reusable device and all of its components are fully recyclable.
- Does not contain PVC and does not generate toxic gases or waste.
- Reduction of risks due to exposure to electromagnetic fields.

New functional features for Canalis

Busbar trunking systems are getting even better. Among the new features we can mention:

- Increased performance with a IP55 protection index and new ratings of 160 A through to 1000 A (Ks).
- New lighting offers with pre-cabled lights and new light ducts.
- New fixing accessories. Quick fixing system, cable ducts, shared support with "VDI" (voice, data, images) circuits.

2 The installation system

Busbar trunking systems are perfectly integrated with the environment:

- white color to enhance the working environment, naturally integrated in a range of electrical distribution products.
- conformity with European regulations on reducing hazardous materials (RoHS).

Examples of Canalis busbar trunking systems



E23

Fig. E40 : Flexible busbar trunking not capable of supporting light fittings : Canalis KDP (20 A)



Fig. E41 : Rigid busbar trunking able to support light fittings : Canalis KBA or KBB (25 and 40 A)

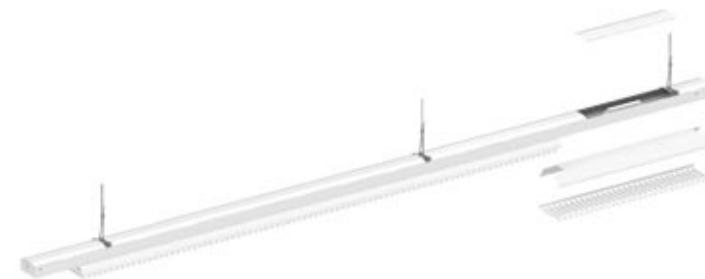


Fig. E42 : Lighting duct : Canalis KBX (25 A)



Fig. E43 : A busway for medium power distribution : Canalis KN (40 up to 160 A)



Fig. E44 : A busway for medium power distribution : Canalis KS (100 up to 1000 A)

E24

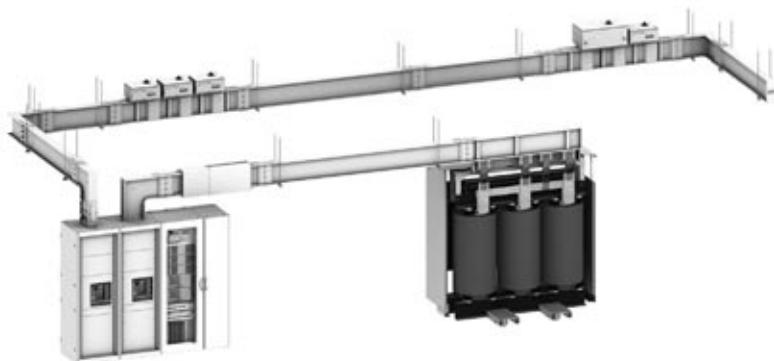


Fig. E45 : A busway for high power distribution : Canalis KT (800 up to 1000 A)

3 External influences (IEC 60364-5-51)

External influences shall be taken into account when choosing:

- *The appropriate measures to ensure the safety of persons (in particular in special locations or electrical installations)*
- *The characteristics of electrical equipment, such as degree of protection (IP), mechanical withstand (IK), etc.*

If several external influences appear at the same time, they can have independent or mutual effects and the degree of protection must be chosen accordingly

3.1 Definition and reference standards

Every electrical installation occupies an environment that presents a variable degree of risk:

- For people
- For the equipment constituting the installation

Consequently, environmental conditions influence the definition and choice of appropriate installation equipment and the choice of protective measures for the safety of persons.

The environmental conditions are referred to collectively as "external influences". Many national standards concerned with external influences include a classification scheme which is based on, or which closely resembles, that of international standard IEC 60364-5-51.

E25

3.2 Classification

Each condition of external influence is designated by a code comprising a group of two capital letters and a number as follows:

First letter (A, B or C)

The first letter relates to the general category of external influence :

- A = environment
- B = utilisation
- C = construction of buildings

Second letter

The second letter relates to the nature of the external influence.

Number

The number relates to the class within each external influence.

Additional letter (optional)

Used only if the effective protection of persons is greater than that indicated by the first IP digit.

When only the protection of persons is to be specified, the two digits of the IP code are replaced by the X's.

Example: IP XXB.

Example

For example the code AC2 signifies:

A = environment

AC = environment-altitude

AC2 = environment-altitude > 2,000 m

3.3 List of external influences

Figure E46 below is from IEC 60364-5-51, which should be referred to if further details are required.

Code	External influences		Characteristics required for equipment
A - Environment			
AA	Ambient temperature (°C)		
	Low	High	
AA1	- 60 °C	+ 5 °C	Specially designed equipment or appropriate arrangements
AA2	- 40 °C	+ 5 °C	
AA3	- 25 °C	+ 5 °C	
AA4	- 5 °C	+ 40 °C	Normal (special precautions in certain cases)
AA5	+ 5 °C	+ 40 °C	Normal
AA6	+ 5 °C	+ 60 °C	Specially designed equipment or appropriate arrangements
AA7	- 25 °C	+ 55 °C	
AA8	- 50 °C	+ 40 °C	

Fig. E46 : List of external influences (taken from Appendix A of IEC 60364-5-51) (continued on next page)

Code	External influences						Characteristics required for equipment						
A - Environment													
AB Atmospheric humidity													
	Air temperature °C		Relative humidity %		Absolute humidity g/m ³								
	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High							
AB1	- 60 °C	+ 5 °C	3	100	0.003	7	Appropriate arrangements shall be made						
AB2	- 40 °C	+ 5 °C	10	100	0.1	7							
AB3	- 25 °C	+ 5 °C	10	100	0.5	7							
AB4	- 5 °C	+ 40 °C	5	95	1	29	Normal						
AB5	+ 5 °C	+ 40 °C	5	85	1	25	Normal						
AB6	+ 5 °C	+ 60 °C	10	100	1	35	Appropriate arrangements shall be made						
AB7	- 25 °C	+ 55 °C	10	100	0.5	29							
AB8	- 50 °C	+ 40 °C	15	100	0.04	36							
AC Altitude													
AC1	≤ 2000 m			Normal									
AC2	> 2000 m			May necessitate precaution (derating factors)									
AD Presence of water													
AD1	Negligible	Outdoor or non-weather protected locations			IPX0								
AD2	Free-falling drops				IPX1 or IPX2								
AD3	Sprays				IPX3								
AD4	Splashes				IPX4								
AD5	Jets	Locations where hose water is used regularly			IPX5								
AD6	Waves	Seashore locations (piers, beaches, quays...)			IPX6								
AD7	Immersion	Water 150 mm above the highest point and equipment not more than 1m below the surface			IPX7								
AD8	Submersion	Equipment is permanently and totally covered			IPX8								
AE Presence of foreign solid bodies													
		Smallest dimension	Example										
AE1	Negligible			IP0X									
AE2	Small objects	2.5 mm	Tools	IP3X									
AE3	Very small objects	1 mm	Wire	IP4X									
AE4	Light dust			IP5X if dust penetration is not harmful to functioning									
AE5	Moderate dust			IP6X if dust should not penetrate									
AE6	Heavy dust			IP6X									
AF Presence of corrosive or polluting substances													
AF1	Negligible			Normal									
AF2	Atmospheric			According to the nature of the substance									
AF3	Intermittent, accidental			Protection against corrosion									
AF4	Continuous			Equipment specially designed									
AG Mechanical stress impact													
AG1	Low severity			Normal									
AG2	Medium severity			Standard where applicable or reinforced material									
AG3	High severity			Reinforced protection									
AH Vibrations													
AH1	Low severity	Household or similar			Normal								
AH2	Medium severity	Usual industrial conditions			Specially designed equipment or special arrangements								
AH3	High severity	Severe industrial conditions											
AJ Other mechanical stresses													
AK Presence of flora and/or mould growth													
AH1	No hazard			Normal									
AH2	Hazard												
AL Presence of fauna													
AH1	No hazard			Normal									
AH2	Hazard												
AM Electromagnetic, electrostatic or ionising influences / Low frequency electromagnetic phenomena / Harmonics													
AM1	Harmonics, interharmonics			Refer to applicable IEC standards									
AM2	Signalling voltage												
AM3	Voltage amplitude variations												
AM4	Voltage unbalance												
AM5	Power frequency variations												
AM6	Induced low-frequency voltages												
AM7	Direct current in a.c. networks												
AM8	Radiated magnetic fields												
AM9	Electric field												
AM21	Induced oscillatory voltages or currents												

Fig. E46 : List of external influences (taken from Appendix A of IEC 60364-5-51) (continued on next page)

3 External influences (IEC 60364-5-51)

Code	External influences	Characteristics required for equipment
A - Environment		
AM22	Conducted unidirectional transients of the nanosecond time scale	Refer to applicable IEC standards
AM23	Conducted unidirectional transients of the microsecond to the millisecond time scale	
AM24	Conducted oscillatory transients	
AM25	Radiated high frequency phenomena	
AM31	Electrostatic discharges	
AM41	Ionisation	
AN	Solar radiation	
AN1	Low	Normal
AN2	Medium	
AN3	High	
AP	Seismic effect	
AP1	Negligible	Normal
AP2	Low severity	
AP3	Medium severity	
AP4	High severity	
AQ	Lightning	
AQ1	Negligible	Normal
AQ2	Indirect exposure	
AQ3	Direct exposure	
AR	Movement of air	
AQ1	Low	Normal
AQ2	Medium	
AQ3	High	
AS	Wind	
AQ1	Low	Normal
AQ2	Medium	
AQ3	High	
B - Utilization		
BA	Capability of persons	
BA1	Ordinary	Normal
BA2	Children	
BA3	Handicapped	
BA4	Instructed	
BA5	Skilled	
BB	Electrical resistance of human body	
BC	Contact of persons with earth potential	
BC1	None	Class of equipment according to IEC61140
BC2	Low	
BC3	Frequent	
BC4	Continuous	
BD	Condition of evacuation in case of emergency	
BD1	Low density / easy exit	Normal
BD2	Low density / difficult exit	
BD3	High density / easy exit	
BD4	High density / difficult exit	
BE	Nature of processed or stored materials	
BE1	No significant risks	Normal
BE2	Fire risks	
BE3	Explosion risks	
BE4	Contamination risks	
C - Construction of building		
CA	Construction materials	
CA1	Non combustible	Normal
CA2	Combustible	
CB	Building design	
CB1	Negligible risks	Normal
CB2	Propagation of fire	
CB3	Movement	
CB4	Flexible or unstable	

Fig. E46 : List of external influences (taken from Appendix A of IEC 60364-5-51) (concluded)

E27

3.4 Protection provided for enclosed equipment: codes IP and IK

IP code definition (see Fig. E47)

The degree of protection provided by an enclosure is indicated in the IP code, recommended in IEC 60529.

Protection is afforded against the following external influences:

- Penetration by solid bodies
- Protection of persons against access to live parts
- Protection against the ingress of dust
- Protection against the ingress of liquids

Note: the IP code applies to electrical equipment for voltages up to and including 72.5 kV.

Elements of the IP Code and their meanings

A brief description of the IP Code elements is given in the following chart (see Fig. E48).

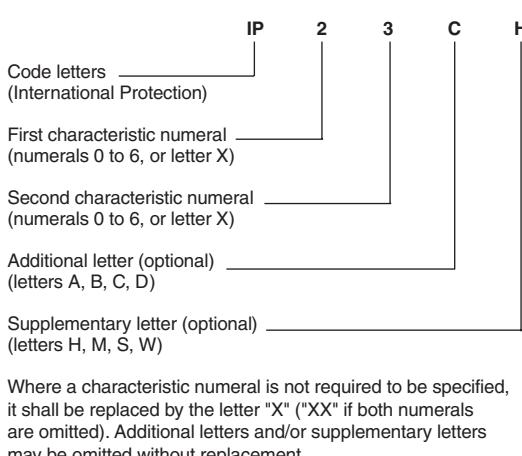


Fig. E47 : IP Code arrangement

Element	Numerals or letters	Meaning for the protection of equipment	Meaning for the protection of persons
Code letters	IP		
First characteristic numeral	0 1 2 3 4 5 6	Against ingress of solid foreign objects (non-protected) ≥ 50 mm diameter ≥ 12.5 mm diameter ≥ 2.5 mm diameter ≥ 1.0 mm diameter Dust-protected Dust-tight	Against access to hazardous parts with (non-protected) Back of hand Finger Tool Wire Wire Wire
Second characteristic numeral	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Against ingress of water with harmful effects (non-protected) Vertically dripping Dripping (15° tilted) Spraying Splashing Jetting Powerful jetting Temporary immersion Continuous immersion	
Additional letter (optional)	A B C D		Against access to hazardous parts with back of hand Finger Tool Wire
Supplementary letter (optional)	H M S W	Supplementary information specific to: High-voltage apparatus Motion during water test Stationary during water test Weather conditions	

Fig. E48 : Elements of the IP Code

3 External influences (IEC 60364-5-51)

E29

IK Code definition

Standard IEC 62262 defines an IK code that characterises the aptitude of equipment to resist mechanical impacts on all sides (see **Fig. E49**).

IK code	Impact energy (in Joules)	AG code
00	0	
01	≤ 0.14	
02	≤ 0.20	AG1
03	≤ 0.35	
04	≤ 0.50	
05	≤ 0.70	
06	≤ 1	
07	≤ 2	AG2
08	≤ 5	AG3
09	≤ 10	
10	≤ 20	AG4

Fig. E49 : Elements of the IK Code

IP and IK code specifications for distribution switchboards

The degrees of protection IP and IK of an enclosure must be specified as a function of the different external influences defined by standard IEC 60364-5-51, in particular:

- Presence of solid bodies (code AE)
- Presence of water (code AD)
- Mechanical stresses (no code)
- Capability of persons (code BA)
- ...

Prisma Plus switchboards are designed for indoor installation.

Unless the rules, standards and regulations of a specific country stipulate otherwise, Schneider Electric recommends the following IP and IK values (see **Fig. E50** and **Fig. E51**)

IP recommendations

IP codes according to conditions		
Normal without risk of vertically falling water	Technical rooms	30
Normal with risk of vertically falling water	Hallways	31
Very severe with risk of splashing water from all directions	Workshops	54/55

Fig. E50 : IP recommendations

IK recommendations

IK codes according to conditions		
No risk of major impact	Technical rooms	07
Significant risk of major impact that could damage devices	Hallways	08 (enclosure with door)
Maximum risk of impact that could damage the enclosure	Workshops	10

Fig. E51 : IK recommendations

Chapter F

Protection against electric shocks

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When a current exceeding 30 mA passes through a part of a human body, the person concerned is in serious danger if the current is not interrupted in a very short time.

The protection of persons against electric shock in LV installations must be provided in conformity with appropriate national standards statutory regulations, codes of practice, official guides and circulars etc.

Relevant IEC standards include: IEC 60364, IEC 60479 series, IEC 61008, IEC 61009 and IEC 60947-2.

1.1 Electric shock

An electric shock is the pathophysiological effect of an electric current through the human body.

Its passage affects essentially the muscular, circulatory and respiratory functions and sometimes results in serious burns. The degree of danger for the victim is a function of the magnitude of the current, the parts of the body through which the current passes, and the duration of current flow.

IEC publication 60479-1 updated in 2005 defines four zones of current-magnitude/time-duration, in each of which the pathophysiological effects are described (see Fig F1). Any person coming into contact with live metal risks an electric shock.

Curve C1 shows that when a current greater than 30 mA passes through a human being from one hand to feet, the person concerned is likely to be killed, unless the current is interrupted in a relatively short time.

The point 500 ms/100 mA close to the curve C1 corresponds to a probability of heart fibrillation of the order of 0.14%.

The protection of persons against electric shock in LV installations must be provided in conformity with appropriate national standards and statutory regulations, codes of practice, official guides and circulars, etc. Relevant IEC standards include: IEC 60364 series, IEC 60479 series, IEC 60755, IEC 61008 series, IEC 61009 series and IEC 60947-2.

F2

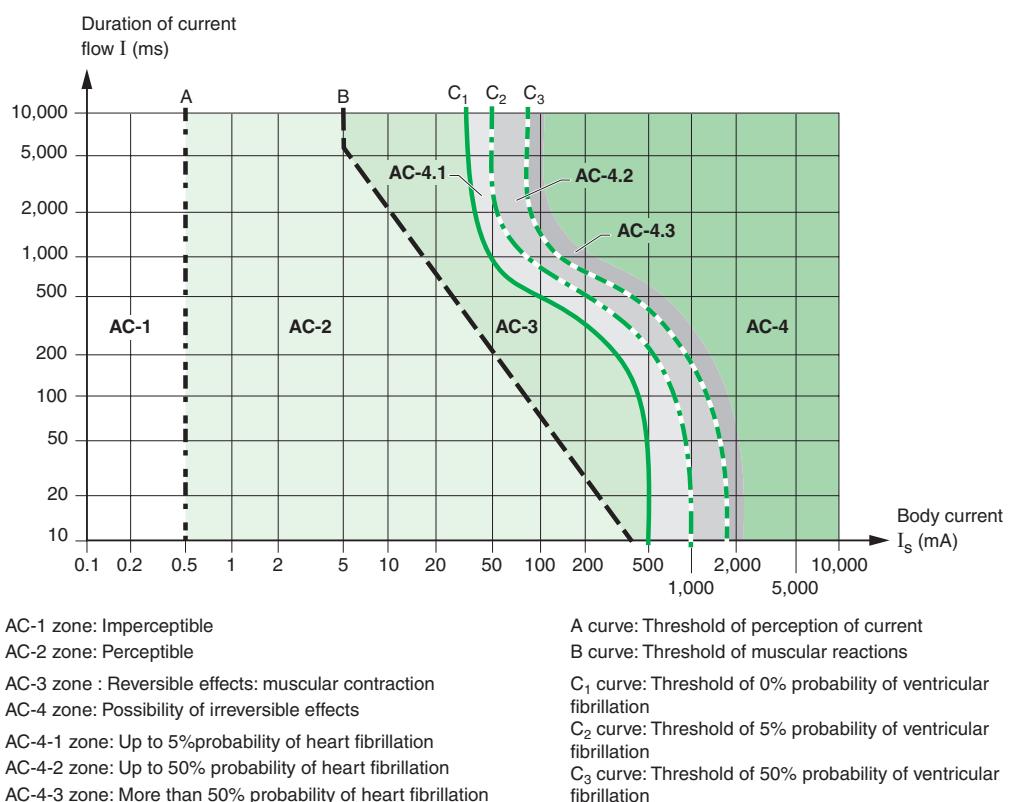


Fig. F1 : Zones time/current of effects of AC current on human body when passing from left hand to foot

1.2 Protection against electric shock

The fundamental rule of protection against electric shock is provided by the document IEC 61140 which covers both electrical installations and electrical equipment.

Hazardous-live-parts shall not be accessible and accessible conductive parts shall not be hazardous.

This requirement needs to apply under:

- Normal conditions, and
- Under a single fault condition

Various measures are adopted to protect against this hazard, and include:

- Automatic disconnection of the power supply to the connected electrical equipment
- Special arrangements such as:
 - The use of class II insulation materials, or an equivalent level of insulation
 - Non-conducting location, out of arm's reach or interposition of barriers
 - Equipotential bonding
 - Electrical separation by means of isolating transformers

F3

1.3 Direct and indirect contact

Two measures of protection against direct contact hazards are often required, since, in practice, the first measure may not be infallible

*Standards and regulations distinguish two kinds of dangerous contact,
■ Direct contact
■ Indirect contact
and corresponding protective measures*

Direct contact

A direct contact refers to a person coming into contact with a conductor which is live in normal circumstances (see Fig. F2).

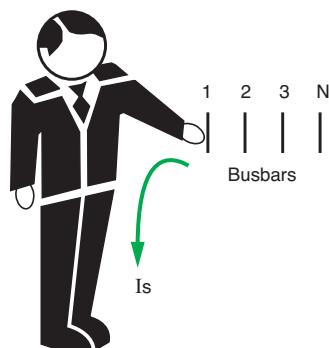
IEC 61140 standard has renamed “protection against direct contact” with the term “basic protection”. The former name is at least kept for information.

Indirect contact

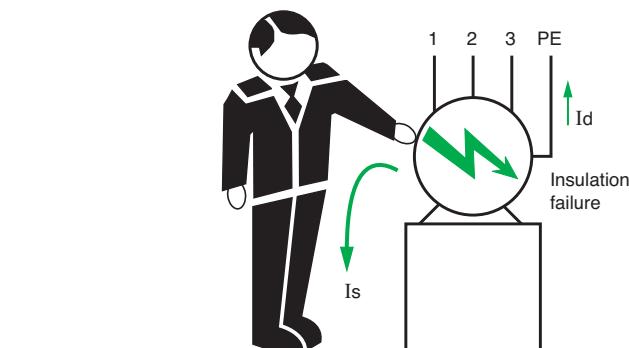
An indirect contact refers to a person coming into contact with an exposed-conductive-part which is not normally alive, but has become alive accidentally (due to insulation failure or some other cause).

The fault current raise the exposed-conductive-part to a voltage liable to be hazardous which could be at the origin of a touch current through a person coming into contact with this exposed-conductive-part (see Fig. F3).

IEC 61140 standard has renamed “protection against indirect contact” with the term “fault protection”. The former name is at least kept for information.



Is: Touch current



Id: Insulation fault current

Fig. F2 : Direct contact

Fig F3 : Indirect contact

2 Protection against direct contact

Two complementary measures are commonly used as protection against the dangers of direct contact:

- The physical prevention of contact with live parts by barriers, insulation, inaccessibility, etc.
- Additional protection in the event that a direct contact occurs, despite or due to failure of the above measures. This protection is based on residual-current operating device with a high sensitivity ($I_{\Delta n} \leq 30 \text{ mA}$) and a low operating time. These devices are highly effective in the majority of case of direct contact.

IEC and national standards frequently distinguish two protections:

- Complete (insulation, enclosures)
- Partial or particular

2.1 Measures of protection against direct contact

Protection by the insulation of live parts

This protection consists of an insulation which complies with the relevant standards (see Fig. F4). Paints, lacquers and varnishes do not provide an adequate protection.

F4

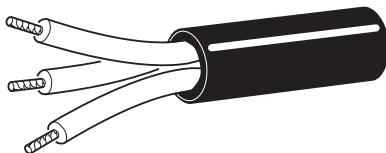


Fig. F4 : Inherent protection against direct contact by insulation of a 3-phase cable with outer sheath

Protection by means of barriers or enclosures

This measure is in widespread use, since many components and materials are installed in cabinets, assemblies, control panels and distribution boards (see Fig. F5).

To be considered as providing effective protection against direct contact hazards, these equipment must possess a degree of protection equal to at least IP 2X or IP XXB (see chapter E sub-clause 3.4).

Moreover, an opening in an enclosure (door, front panel, drawer, etc.) must only be removable, open or withdrawn:

- By means of a key or tool provided for this purpose, or
- After complete isolation of the live parts in the enclosure, or
- With the automatic interposition of another screen removable only with a key or a tool. The metal enclosure and all metal removable screen must be bonded to the protective earthing conductor of the installation.



Fig. F5 : Example of isolation by envelope

Partial measures of protection

- Protection by means of obstacles, or by placing out of arm's reach

This protection is reserved only to locations to which skilled or instructed persons only have access. The erection of this protective measure is detailed in IEC 60364-4-41.

Particular measures of protection

- Protection by use of extra-low voltage SELV (Safety Extra-Low Voltage) or by limitation of the energy of discharge.

These measures are used only in low-power circuits, and in particular circumstances, as described in section 3.5.

An additional measure of protection against the hazards of direct contact is provided by the use of residual current operating device, which operate at 30 mA or less, and are referred to as RCDs of high sensitivity



Fig. F6 : High sensitivity RCD

2.2 Additional measure of protection against direct contact

All the preceding protective measures are preventive, but experience has shown that for various reasons they cannot be regarded as being infallible. Among these reasons may be cited:

- Lack of proper maintenance
- Imprudence, carelessness
- Normal (or abnormal) wear and tear of insulation; for instance flexure and abrasion of connecting leads
- Accidental contact
- Immersion in water, etc. A situation in which insulation is no longer effective

In order to protect users in such circumstances, highly sensitive fast tripping devices, based on the detection of residual currents to earth (which may or may not be through a human being or animal) are used to disconnect the power supply automatically, and with sufficient rapidity to prevent injury to, or death by electrocution, of a normally healthy human being (see **Fig. F6**).

These devices operate on the principle of differential current measurement, in which any difference between the current entering a circuit and that leaving it (on a system supplied from an earthed source) be flowing to earth, either through faulty insulation or through contact of an earthed part, such as a person, with a live conductor.

Standardised residual-current devices, referred to as RCDs, sufficiently sensitive for protection against direct contact are rated at 30 mA of differential current.

According to IEC 60364-4-41, additional protection by means of high sensitivity RCDs ($I_n \leq 30 \text{ mA}$) must be provided for circuits supplying socket-outlets with a rated current $\leq 20 \text{ A}$ in all locations, and for circuits supplying mobile equipment with a rated current $\leq 32 \text{ A}$ for use outdoors.

This additional protection is required in certain countries for circuits supplying socket-outlets rated up to 32 A, and even higher if the location is wet and/or temporary (such as work sites for instance).

It is also recommended to limit the number of socket-outlets protected by a RCD (e.g. 10 socket-outlets for one RCD).

Chapter P section 3 itemises various common locations in which RCDs of high sensitivity are obligatory (in some countries), but in any case, are highly recommended as an effective protection against both direct and indirect contact hazards.

3 Protection against indirect contact

Exposed-conductive-parts used in the manufacturing process of an electrical equipment is separated from the live parts of the equipment by the "basic insulation". Failure of the basic insulation will result in the exposed-conductive-parts being alive.

Touching a normally dead part of an electrical equipment which has become live due to the failure of its insulation, is referred to as an indirect contact.

3.1 Measures of protection: two levels

Protection against indirect contact hazards can be achieved by automatic disconnection of the supply if the exposed-conductive-parts of equipment are properly earthed

Two levels of protective measures exist:

■ 1st level: The earthing of all exposed-conductive-parts of electrical equipment in the installation and the constitution of an equipotential bonding network (see chapter G section 6).

■ 2nd level: Automatic disconnection of the supply of the section of the installation concerned, in such a way that the touch-voltage/time safety requirements are respected for any level of touch voltage $U_c^{(1)}$ (see Fig. F7).

F6

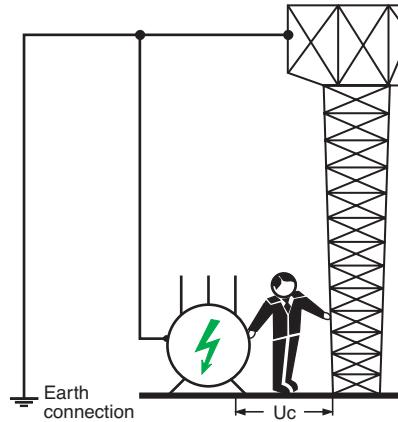


Fig. F7 : Illustration of the dangerous touch voltage U_c

The greater the value of U_c , the greater the rapidity of supply disconnection required to provide protection (see Fig. F8). The highest value of U_c that can be tolerated indefinitely without danger to human beings is 50 V CA.

Reminder of the theoretical disconnecting-time limits

U_o (V)	$50 < U_o \leq 120$	$120 < U_o \leq 230$	$230 < U_o \leq 400$	$U_o > 400$
System TN or IT	0.8	0.4	0.2	0.1
TT	0.3	0.2	0.07	0.04

Fig. F8 : Maximum safe duration of the assumed values of AC touch voltage (in seconds)

(1) Touch voltage U_c is the voltage existing (as the result of insulation failure) between an exposed-conductive-part and any conductive element within reach which is at a different (generally earth) potential.

3 Protection against indirect contact

3.2 Automatic disconnection for TT system

Automatic disconnection for TT system is achieved by RCD having a sensitivity of

$$I_{\Delta n} \leq \frac{50}{R_A} \text{ where } R_A \text{ is the resistance of the installation earth electrode}$$

Principle

In this system all exposed-conductive-parts and extraneous-conductive-parts of the installation must be connected to a common earth electrode. The neutral point of the supply system is normally earthed at a point outside the influence area of the installation earth electrode, but need not be so. The impedance of the earth-fault loop therefore consists mainly in the two earth electrodes (i.e. the source and installation electrodes) in series, so that the magnitude of the earth fault current is generally too small to operate overcurrent relay or fuses, and the use of a residual current operated device is essential.

This principle of protection is also valid if one common earth electrode only is used, notably in the case of a consumer-type substation within the installation area, where space limitation may impose the adoption of a TN system earthing, but where all other conditions required by the TN system cannot be fulfilled.

Protection by automatic disconnection of the supply used in TT system is by RCD of

$$\text{sensitivity: } I_{\Delta n} \leq \frac{50}{R_A}$$

where

R_A is the resistance of the earth electrode for the installation

$I_{\Delta n}$ is the rated residual operating current of the RCD

For temporary supplies (to work sites, ...) and agricultural and horticultural premises, the value of 50 V is replaced by 25 V.

Example (see Fig. F9)

- The resistance of the earth electrode of substation neutral R_n is 10 Ω .
- The resistance of the earth electrode of the installation R_A is 20 Ω .
- The earth-fault loop current $I_d = 7.7$ A.
- The fault voltage $U_f = I_d \times R_A = 154$ V and therefore dangerous, but $I_{\Delta n} = 50/20 = 2.5$ A so that a standard 300 mA RCD will operate in about 30 ms without intentional time delay and will clear the fault where a fault voltage exceeding appears on an exposed-conductive-part.

F7

$U_o^{(1)}$ (V)	T (s)
$50 < U_o \leq 120$	0.3
$120 < U_o \leq 230$	0.2
$230 < U_o \leq 400$	0.07
$U_o > 400$	0.04

(1) U_o is the nominal phase to earth voltage

Fig. F10 : Maximum disconnecting time for AC final circuits not exceeding 32 A

Specified maximum disconnection time

The tripping times of RCDs are generally lower than those required in the majority of national standards; this feature facilitates their use and allows the adoption of an effective discriminative protection.

The IEC 60364-4-41 specifies the maximum operating time of protective devices used in TT system for the protection against indirect contact:

- For all final circuits with a rated current not exceeding 32 A, the maximum disconnecting time will not exceed the values indicated in Figure F10
- For all other circuits, the maximum disconnecting time is fixed to 1s. This limit enables discrimination between RCDs when installed on distribution circuits. RCD is a general term for all devices operating on the residual-current principle. RCCB (Residual Current Circuit-Breaker) as defined in IEC 61008 series is a specific class of RCD.

Type G (general) and type S (Selective) of IEC 61008 have a tripping time/current characteristics as shown in Figure F11 next page. These characteristics allow a certain degree of selective tripping between the several combination of ratings and types, as shown later in sub-clause 4.3. Industrial type RCD according to IEC 60947-2 provide more possibilities of discrimination due to their flexibility of time-delays.

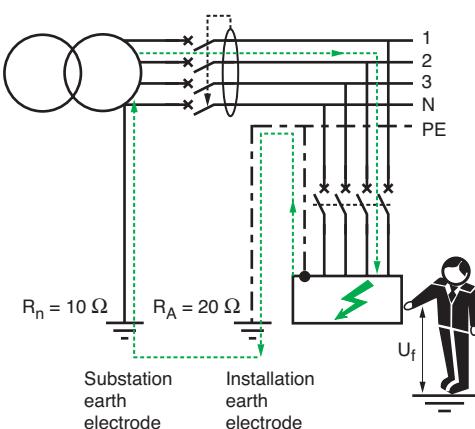


Fig. F9 : Automatic disconnection of supply for TT system

$\times I_{\Delta n}$		1	2	5	> 5
Domestic	Instantaneous	0.3	0.15	0.04	0.04
	Type S	0.5	0.2	0.15	0.15
Industrial	Instantaneous	0.3	0.15	0.04	0.04
	Time-delay (0.06)	0.5	0.2	0.15	0.15
	Time-delay (other)	According to manufacturer			

Fig. F11 : Maximum operating time of RCD's (in seconds)

3.3 Automatic disconnection for TN systems

F8

The automatic disconnection for TN system is achieved by overcurrent protective devices or RCD's

Principle

In this system all exposed and extraneous-conductive-parts of the installation are connected directly to the earthed point of the power supply by protective conductors.

As noted in Chapter E Sub-clause 1.2, the way in which this direct connection is carried out depends on whether the TN-C, TN-S, or TN-C-S method of implementing the TN principle is used. In figure F12 the method TN-C is shown, in which the neutral conductor acts as both the Protective-Earth and Neutral (PEN) conductor. In all TN systems, any insulation fault to earth results in a phase to neutral short-circuit. High fault current levels allow to use overcurrent protection but can give rise to touch voltages exceeding 50% of the phase to neutral voltage at the fault position during the short disconnection time.

In practice for utility distribution network, earth electrodes are normally installed at regular intervals along the protective conductor (PE or PEN) of the network, while the consumer is often required to install an earth electrode at the service entrance.

On large installations additional earth electrodes dispersed around the premises are often provided, in order to reduce the touch voltage as much as possible. In high-rise apartment blocks, all extraneous conductive parts are connected to the protective conductor at each level. In order to ensure adequate protection, the earth-fault current

$$I_d = \frac{U_0}{Z_s} \text{ or } 0.8 \frac{U_0}{Z_c} \text{ must be higher or equal to } I_a, \text{ where:}$$

- U_0 = nominal phase to neutral voltage
- I_d = the fault current
- I_a = current equal to the value required to operate the protective device in the time specified
- Z_s = earth-fault current loop impedance, equal to the sum of the impedances of the source, the live phase conductors to the fault position, the protective conductors from the fault position back to the source
- Z_c = the faulty-circuit loop impedance (see "conventional method" Sub-clause 6.2)

Note: The path through earth electrodes back to the source will have (generally) much higher impedance values than those listed above, and need not be considered.

Example (see Fig. F12)

The fault voltage $U_f = \frac{230}{2} = 115 \text{ V}$ and is hazardous;

The fault loop impedance $Z_s = Z_{AB} + Z_{BC} + Z_{DE} + Z_{EN} + Z_{NA}$.

If Z_{BC} and Z_{DE} are predominant, then:

$$Z_s = 2p \frac{L}{S} = 64.3 \text{ m}\Omega, \text{ so that}$$

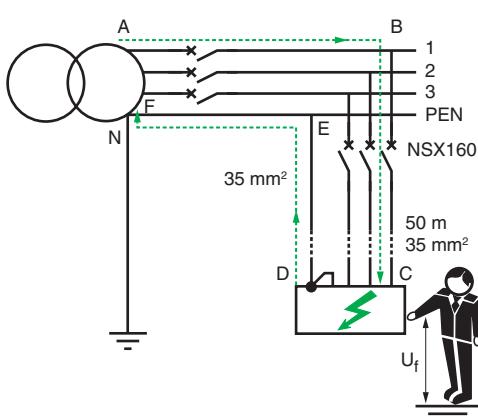
$$I_d = \frac{230}{64.3 \times 10^{-3}} = 3,576 \text{ A} (\approx 22 \text{ In based on a NSX160 circuit-breaker}).$$

The "instantaneous" magnetic trip unit adjustment of the circuit-breaker is many times less than this short-circuit value, so that positive operation in the shortest possible time is assured.

Note: Some authorities base such calculations on the assumption that a voltage drop of 20% occurs in the part of the impedance loop BANE.

This method, which is recommended, is explained in chapter F sub-clause 6.2

"conventional method" and in this example will give an estimated fault current of $\frac{230 \times 0.8 \times 10^3}{64.3} = 2,816 \text{ A} (\approx 18 \text{ In})$.

**Fig. F12** : Automatic disconnection in TN system

3 Protection against indirect contact

Specified maximum disconnection time

The IEC 60364-4-41 specifies the maximum operating time of protective devices used in TN system for the protection against indirect contact:

- For all final circuits with a rated current not exceeding 32 A, the maximum disconnecting time will not exceed the values indicated in **Figure F13**
- For all other circuits, the maximum disconnecting time is fixed to 5s. This limit enables discrimination between protective devices installed on distribution circuits

Note: The use of RCDs may be necessary on TN-earthed systems. Use of RCDs on TN-C-S systems means that the protective conductor and the neutral conductor must (evidently) be separated upstream of the RCD. This separation is commonly made at the service entrance.

$U_o^{(1)}$ (V)	T (s)
50 < $U_o \leq 120$	0.8
120 < $U_o \leq 230$	0.4
230 < $U_o \leq 400$	0.2
$U_o > 400$	0.1

(1) U_o is the nominal phase to earth voltage

F9

Fig. F13 : Maximum disconnection time for AC final circuits not exceeding 32 A

If the protection is to be provided by a circuit-breaker, it is sufficient to verify that the fault current will always exceed the current-setting level of the instantaneous or short-time delay tripping unit (I_m)

I_a can be determined from the fuse performance curve. In any case, protection cannot be achieved if the loop impedance Z_s or Z_c exceeds a certain value

Protection by means of circuit-breaker (see Fig. F14)

The instantaneous trip unit of a circuit-breaker will eliminate a short-circuit to earth in less than 0.1 second.

In consequence, automatic disconnection within the maximum allowable time will always be assured, since all types of trip unit, magnetic or electronic, instantaneous or slightly retarded, are suitable: $I_a = I_m$. The maximum tolerance authorised by the relevant standard, however, must always be taken into consideration. It is sufficient therefore that the fault current $\frac{U_o}{Z_s}$ or $0.8 \frac{U_o}{Z_c}$ determined by calculation (or estimated on site) be greater than the instantaneous trip-setting current, or than the very short-time tripping threshold level, to be sure of tripping within the permitted time limit.

Protection by means of fuses (see Fig. F15)

The value of current which assures the correct operation of a fuse can be ascertained from a current/time performance graph for the fuse concerned.

The fault current $\frac{U_o}{Z_s}$ or $0.8 \frac{U_o}{Z_c}$ as determined above, must largely exceed that necessary to ensure positive operation of the fuse. The condition to observe

therefore is that $I_a < \frac{U_o}{Z_s}$ or $0.8 \frac{U_o}{Z_c}$ as indicated in Figure F15.

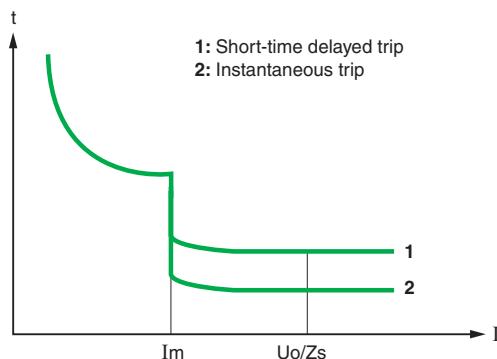


Fig. F14 : Disconnection by circuit-breaker for a TN system

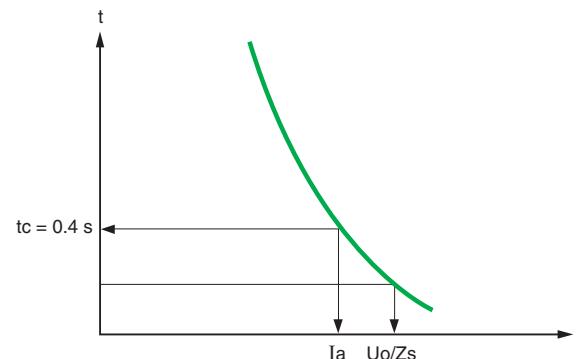


Fig. F15 : Disconnection by fuses for a TN system

Example: The nominal phase to neutral voltage of the network is 230 V and the maximum disconnection time given by the graph in Figure F15 is 0.4 s. The corresponding value of I_a can be read from the graph. Using the voltage (230 V) and the current I_a , the complete loop impedance or the circuit loop impedance can be calculated from $Z_s = \frac{230}{I_a}$ or $Z_c = 0.8 \frac{230}{I_a}$. This impedance value must never be exceeded and should preferably be substantially less to ensure satisfactory fuse operation.

Protection by means of Residual Current Devices for TN-S circuits

Residual Current Devices must be used where:

- The loop impedance cannot be determined precisely (lengths difficult to estimate, presence of metallic material close to the wiring)
- The fault current is so low that the disconnecting time cannot be met by using overcurrent protective devices

The rated tripping current of RCDs being in the order of a few amps, it is well below the fault current level. RCDs are consequently well adapted to this situation.

In practice, they are often installed in the LV sub distribution and in many countries, the automatic disconnection of final circuits shall be achieved by Residual Current Devices.

3.4 Automatic disconnection on a second fault in an IT system

In this type of system:

- The installation is isolated from earth, or the neutral point of its power-supply source is connected to earth through a high impedance
- All exposed and extraneous-conductive-parts are earthed via an installation earth electrode.

First fault situation

On the occurrence of a true fault to earth, referred to as a "first fault", the fault current is very low, such that the rule $I_d \times R_A \leq 50$ V (see F3.2) is fulfilled and no dangerous fault voltages can occur.

In practice the current I_d is low, a condition that is neither dangerous to personnel, nor harmful to the installation.

However, in this system:

- A permanent monitoring of the insulation to earth must be provided, coupled with an alarm signal (audio and/or flashing lights, etc.) operating in the event of a first earth fault (see Fig. F16)
- The rapid location and repair of a first fault is imperative if the full benefits of the IT system are to be realised. Continuity of service is the great advantage afforded by the system.

For a network formed from 1 km of new conductors, the leakage (capacitive) impedance to earth Z_f is of the order of $3,500 \Omega$ per phase. In normal operation, the capacitive current⁽¹⁾ to earth is therefore:

$$\frac{U_0}{Z_f} = \frac{230}{3,500} = 66 \text{ mA per phase.}$$

During a phase to earth fault, as indicated in Figure F17 opposite page, the current passing through the electrode resistance R_nA is the vector sum of the capacitive currents in the two healthy phases. The voltages of the healthy phases have (because of the fault) increased to $\sqrt{3}$ the normal phase voltage, so that the capacitive currents increase by the same amount. These currents are displaced, one from the other by 60° , so that when added vectorially, this amounts to $3 \times 66 \text{ mA} = 198 \text{ mA}$, in the present example.

The fault voltage U_f is therefore equal to $198 \times 5 \times 10^{-3} = 0.99 \text{ V}$, which is obviously harmless.

The current through the short-circuit to earth is given by the vector sum of the neutral-resistor current I_{d1} ($= 153 \text{ mA}$) and the capacitive current I_{d2} (198 mA).

Since the exposed-conductive-parts of the installation are connected directly to earth, the neutral impedance Z_{ct} plays practically no part in the production of touch voltages to earth.

In IT system the first fault to earth should not cause any disconnection



Fig. F16 : Phases to earth insulation monitoring device
obligatory in IT system

(1) Resistive leakage current to earth through the insulation is assumed to be negligibly small in the example.

3 Protection against indirect contact

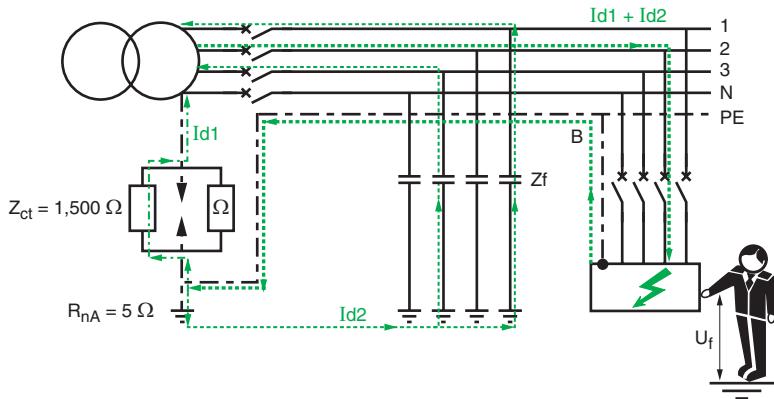


Fig. F17 : Fault current path for a first fault in IT system

F11

Second fault situation

On the appearance of a second fault, on a different phase, or on a neutral conductor, a rapid disconnection becomes imperative. Fault clearance is carried out differently in each of the following cases:

1st case

It concerns an installation in which all exposed conductive parts are bonded to a common PE conductor, as shown in Figure F18.

In this case no earth electrodes are included in the fault current path, so that a high level of fault current is assured, and conventional overcurrent protective devices are used, i.e. circuit-breakers and fuses.

The first fault could occur at the end of a circuit in a remote part of the installation, while the second fault could feasibly be located at the opposite end of the installation.

For this reason, it is conventional to double the loop impedance of a circuit, when calculating the anticipated fault setting level for its overcurrent protective device(s).

Where the system includes a neutral conductor in addition to the 3 phase conductors, the lowest short-circuit fault currents will occur if one of the (two) faults is from the neutral conductor to earth (all four conductors are insulated from earth in an IT scheme). In four-wire IT installations, therefore, the phase-to-neutral voltage must be used to calculate short-circuit protective levels i.e. $0.8 \frac{U_0}{2 Z_c} \geq I_a^{(1)}$ where

U_0 = phase to neutral voltage

Z_c = impedance of the circuit fault-current loop (see F3.3)

I_a = current level for trip setting

If no neutral conductor is distributed, then the voltage to use for the fault-current calculation is the phase-to-phase value, i.e. $0.8 \frac{\sqrt{3} U_0}{2 Z_c} \geq I_a^{(1)}$

■ Maximum tripping times

Disconnecting times for IT system depends on how the different installation and substation earth electrodes are interconnected.

For final circuits supplying electrical equipment with a rated current not exceeding 32 A and having their exposed-conductive-parts bonded with the substation earth electrode, the maximum tripping time is given in table F8. For the other circuits within the same group of interconnected exposed-conductive-parts, the maximum disconnecting time is 5 s. This is due to the fact that any double fault situation within this group will result in a short-circuit current as in TN system.

For final circuits supplying electrical equipment with a rated current not exceeding 32 A and having their exposed-conductive-parts connected to an independent earth electrode electrically separated from the substation earth electrode, the maximum tripping time is given in Figure F13. For the other circuits within the same group of non interconnected exposed-conductive-parts, the maximum disconnecting time is 1s. This is due to the fact that any double fault situation resulting from one insulation fault within this group and another insulation fault from another group will generate a fault current limited by the different earth electrode resistances as in TT system.

The simultaneous existence of two earth faults (if not both on the same phase) is dangerous, and rapid clearance by fuses or automatic circuit-breaker tripping depends on the type of earth-bonding scheme, and whether separate earthing electrodes are used or not, in the installation concerned

(1) Based on the “conventional method” noted in the first example of Sub-clause 3.3.

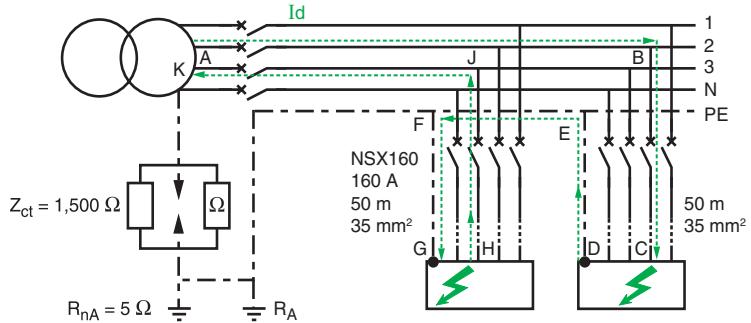


Fig. F18 : Circuit-breaker tripping on double fault situation when exposed-conductive-parts are connected to a common protective conductor

■ Protection by circuit-breaker

In the case shown in Figure F18, the adjustments of instantaneous and short-time delay overcurrent trip unit must be decided. The times recommended here above can be readily complied with. The short-circuit protection provided by the NSX160 circuit-breaker is suitable to clear a phase to phase short-circuit occurring at the load ends of the circuits concerned.

Reminder: In an IT system, the two circuits involved in a phase to phase short-circuit are assumed to be of equal length, with the same cross sectional area conductors, the PE conductors being the same cross sectional area as the phase conductors. In such a case, the impedance of the circuit loop when using the “conventional method” (sub clause 6.2) will be twice that calculated for one of the circuits in the TN case, shown in Chapter F sub clause 3.3.

The resistance of circuit loop FGHJ = $2R_{JH} = 2\rho \frac{L}{a}$ in mΩ where:
 ρ = resistance of copper rod 1 meter long of cross sectional area 1 mm², in mΩ
 L = length of the circuit in meters
 a = cross sectional area of the conductor in mm²

$$FGHJ = 2 \times 22.5 \times 50/35 = 64.3 \text{ mΩ}$$

and the loop resistance B, C, D, E, F, G, H, J will be $2 \times 64.3 = 129 \text{ mΩ}$.

The fault current will therefore be $0.8 \times \sqrt{3} \times 230 \times 10^3/129 = 2,470 \text{ A}$.

■ Protection by fuses

The current I_a for which fuse operation must be assured in a time specified according to here above can be found from fuse operating curves, as described in figure F15.

The current indicated should be significantly lower than the fault currents calculated for the circuit concerned.

■ Protection by Residual current circuit-breakers (RCCBs)

For low values of short-circuit current, RCCBs are necessary. Protection against indirect contact hazards can be achieved then by using one RCCB for each circuit.

2nd case

■ It concerns exposed conductive parts which are earthed either individually (each part having its own earth electrode) or in separate groups (one electrode for each group). If all exposed conductive parts are not bonded to a common electrode system, then it is possible for the second earth fault to occur in a different group or in a separately earthed individual apparatus. Additional protection to that described above for case 1, is required, and consists of a RCD placed at the circuit-breaker controlling each group and each individually-earthed apparatus.

3 Protection against indirect contact

The reason for this requirement is that the separate-group electrodes are “bonded” through the earth so that the phase to phase short-circuit current will generally be limited when passing through the earth bond by the electrode contact resistances with the earth, thereby making protection by overcurrent devices unreliable. The more sensitive RCDs are therefore necessary, but the operating current of the RCDs must evidently exceed that which occurs for a first fault (see Fig. F19).

Leakage capacitance (μF)	First fault current (A)
1	0.07
5	0.36
30	2.17

Note: 1 μF is the 1 km typical leakage capacitance for 4-conductor cable.

F13

Fig. F19 : Correspondence between the earth leakage capacitance and the first fault current

For a second fault occurring within a group having a common earth-electrode system, the overcurrent protection operates, as described above for case 1.

Note 1: See also Chapter G Sub-clause 7.2, protection of the neutral conductor.

Note 2: In 3-phase 4-wire installations, protection against overcurrent in the neutral conductor is sometimes more conveniently achieved by using a ring-type current transformer over the single-core neutral conductor (see Fig. F20).

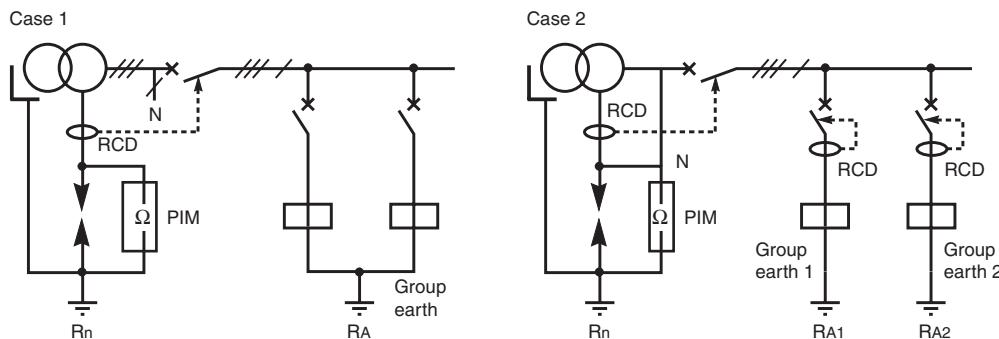


Fig. F20 : Application of RCDs when exposed-conductive-parts are earthed individually or by group on IT system

3.5 Measures of protection against direct or indirect contact without automatic disconnection of supply

The use of SELV (Safety Extra-Low Voltage)

Safety by extra low voltage SELV is used in situations where the operation of electrical equipment presents a serious hazard (swimming pools, amusement parks, etc.). This measure depends on supplying power at extra-low voltage from the secondary windings of isolating transformers especially designed according to national or to international (IEC 60742) standard. The impulse withstand level of insulation between the primary and secondary windings is very high, and/or an earthed metal screen is sometimes incorporated between the windings. The secondary voltage never exceeds 50 V rms.

Three conditions of exploitation must be respected in order to provide satisfactory protection against indirect contact:

- No live conductor at SELV must be connected to earth
- Exposed-conductive-parts of SELV supplied equipment must not be connected to earth, to other exposed conductive parts, or to extraneous-conductive-parts
- All live parts of SELV circuits and of other circuits of higher voltage must be separated by a distance at least equal to that between the primary and secondary windings of a safety isolating transformer.

Extra-low voltage is used where the risks are great: swimming pools, wandering-lead hand lamps, and other portable appliances for outdoor use, etc.

These measures require that:

- SELV circuits must use conduits exclusively provided for them, unless cables which are insulated for the highest voltage of the other circuits are used for the SELV circuits
- Socket outlets for the SELV system must not have an earth-pin contact. The SELV circuit plugs and sockets must be special, so that inadvertent connection to a different voltage level is not possible.

Note: In normal conditions, when the SELV voltage is less than 25 V, there is no need to provide protection against direct contact hazards. Particular requirements are indicated in Chapter P, Clause 3: "special locations".

The use of PELV (Protection by Extra Low Voltage) (see Fig. F21)

This system is for general use where low voltage is required, or preferred for safety reasons, other than in the high-risk locations noted above. The conception is similar to that of the SELV system, but the secondary circuit is earthed at one point.

IEC 60364-4-41 defines precisely the significance of the reference PELV. Protection against direct contact hazards is generally necessary, except when the equipment is in the zone of equipotential bonding, and the nominal voltage does not exceed 25 V rms, and the equipment is used in normally dry locations only, and large-area contact with the human body is not expected. In all other cases, 6 V rms is the maximum permitted voltage, where no direct contact protection is provided.

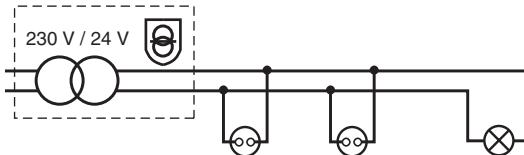


Fig. F21 : Low-voltage supplies from a safety isolating transformer

FELV system (Functional Extra-Low Voltage)

Where, for functional reasons, a voltage of 50 V or less is used, but not all of the requirements relating to SELV or PELV are fulfilled, appropriate measures described in IEC 60364-4-41 must be taken to ensure protection against both direct and indirect contact hazards, according to the location and use of these circuits.

Note: Such conditions may, for example, be encountered when the circuit contains equipment (such as transformers, relays, remote-control switches, contactors) insufficiently insulated with respect to circuits at higher voltages.

The electrical separation of circuits (see Fig. F22)

The principle of the electrical separation of circuits (generally single-phase circuits) for safety purposes is based on the following rationale.

The two conductors from the unearthed single-phase secondary winding of a separation transformer are insulated from earth.

If a direct contact is made with one conductor, a very small current only will flow into the person making contact, through the earth and back to the other conductor, via the inherent capacitance of that conductor with respect to earth. Since the conductor capacitance to earth is very small, the current is generally below the level of perception. As the length of circuit cable increases, the direct contact current will progressively increase to a point where a dangerous electric shock will be experienced.

Even if a short length of cable precludes any danger from capacitive current, a low value of insulation resistance with respect to earth can result in danger, since the current path is then via the person making contact, through the earth and back to the other conductor through the low conductor-to-earth insulation resistance.

For these reasons, relatively short lengths of well insulated cables are essential in separation systems.

Transformers are specially designed for this duty, with a high degree of insulation between primary and secondary windings, or with equivalent protection, such as an earthed metal screen between the windings. Construction of the transformer is to class II insulation standards.

The electrical separation of circuits is suitable for relatively short cable lengths and high levels of insulation resistance. It is preferably used for an individual appliance

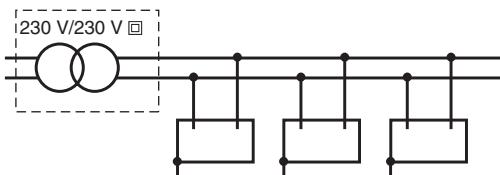


Fig. F22 : Safety supply from a class II separation transformer

3 Protection against indirect contact

As indicated before, successful exploitation of the principle requires that:

- No conductor or exposed conductive part of the secondary circuit must be connected to earth,
 - The length of secondary cabling must be limited to avoid large capacitance values⁽¹⁾,
 - A high insulation-resistance value must be maintained for the cabling and appliances.
- These conditions generally limit the application of this safety measure to an individual appliance.

In the case where several appliances are supplied from a separation transformer, it is necessary to observe the following requirements:

- The exposed conductive parts of all appliances must be connected together by an insulated protective conductor, but not connected to earth,
- The socket outlets must be provided with an earth-pin connection. The earth-pin connection is used in this case only to ensure the interconnection (bonding) of all exposed conductive parts.

In the case of a second fault, overcurrent protection must provide automatic disconnection in the same conditions as those required for an IT system of power system earthing.

F15

Class II equipment symbol:



Class II equipment

These appliances are also referred to as having "double insulation" since in class II appliances a supplementary insulation is added to the basic insulation (see Fig. F23).

No conductive parts of a class II appliance must be connected to a protective conductor:

- Most portable or semi-fixed equipment, certain lamps, and some types of transformer are designed to have double insulation. It is important to take particular care in the exploitation of class II equipment and to verify regularly and often that the class II standard is maintained (no broken outer envelope, etc.). Electronic devices, radio and television sets have safety levels equivalent to class II, but are not formally class II appliances
- Supplementary insulation in an electrical installation: IEC 60364-4-41(Sub-clause 413-2) and some national standards such as NF C 15-100 (France) describe in more detail the necessary measures to achieve the supplementary insulation during installation work.

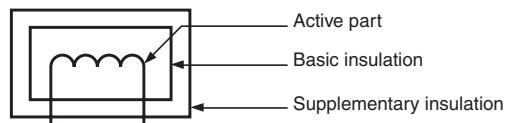


Fig. F23 : Principle of class II insulation level

A simple example is that of drawing a cable into a PVC conduit. Methods are also described for distribution switchboards.

- For distribution switchboards and similar equipment, IEC 60439-1 describes a set of requirements, for what is referred to as "total insulation", equivalent to class II
- Some cables are recognised as being equivalent to class II by many national standards

In principle, safety by placing simultaneously-accessible conductive parts out-of-reach, or by interposing obstacles, requires also a non-conducting floor, and so is not an easily applied principle

Out-of-arm's reach or interposition of obstacles

By these means, the probability of touching a live exposed-conductive-part, while at the same time touching an extraneous-conductive-part at earth potential, is extremely low (see Fig. F24 next page). In practice, this measure can only be applied in a dry location, and is implemented according to the following conditions:

- The floor and the wall of the chamber must be non-conducting, i.e. the resistance to earth at any point must be:
 - > 50 kΩ (installation voltage ≤ 500 V)
 - > 100 kΩ (500 V < installation voltage ≤ 1000 V)

Resistance is measured by means of "MEGGER" type instruments (hand-operated generator or battery-operated electronic model) between an electrode placed on the floor or against the wall, and earth (i.e. the nearest protective earth conductor). The electrode contact area pressure must be evidently be the same for all tests.

Different instruments suppliers provide electrodes specific to their own product, so that care should be taken to ensure that the electrodes used are those supplied with the instrument.

(1) It is recommended in IEC 364-4-41 that the product of the nominal voltage of the circuit in volts and length in metres of the wiring system should not exceed 100,000, and that the length of the wiring system should not exceed 500 m.

3 Protection against indirect contact

- The placing of equipment and obstacles must be such that simultaneous contact with two exposed-conductive-parts or with an exposed conductive-part and an extraneous-conductive-part by an individual person is not possible.
- No exposed protective conductor must be introduced into the chamber concerned.
- Entrances to the chamber must be arranged so that persons entering are not at risk, e.g. a person standing on a conducting floor outside the chamber must not be able to reach through the doorway to touch an exposed-conductive-part, such as a lighting switch mounted in an industrial-type cast-iron conduit box, for example.

F16

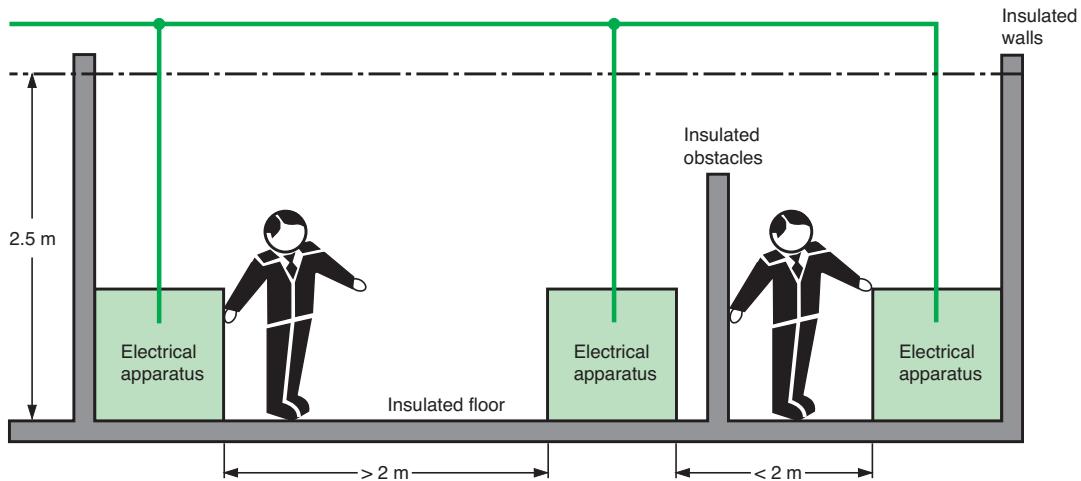


Fig. F24 : Protection by out-of arm's reach arrangements and the interposition of non-conducting obstacles

Earth-free equipotential chambers
Earth-free equipotential chambers are associated with particular installations (laboratories, etc.) and give rise to a number of practical installation difficulties

Earth-free equipotential chambers

In this scheme, all exposed-conductive-parts, including the floor⁽¹⁾ are bonded by suitably large conductors, such that no significant difference of potential can exist between any two points. A failure of insulation between a live conductor and the metal envelope of an appliance will result in the whole "cage" being raised to phase-to-earth voltage, but no fault current will flow. In such conditions, a person entering the chamber would be at risk (since he/she would be stepping on to a live floor). Suitable precautions must be taken to protect personnel from this danger (e.g. non-conducting floor at entrances, etc.). Special protective devices are also necessary to detect insulation failure, in the absence of significant fault current.

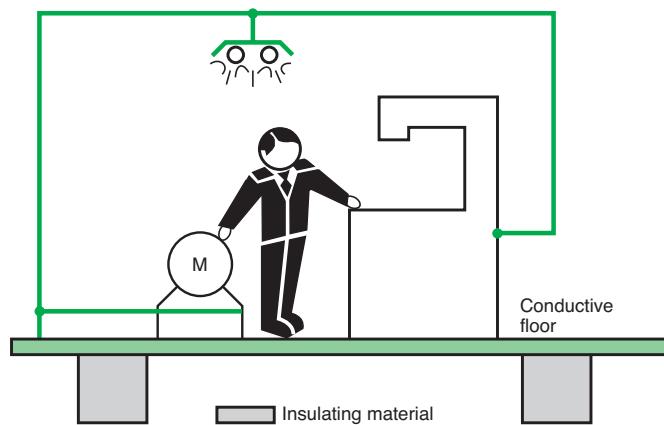


Fig. F25 : Equipotential bonding of all exposed-conductive-parts simultaneously accessible

(1) Extraneous conductive parts entering (or leaving) the equipotential space (such as water pipes, etc.) must be encased in suitable insulating material and excluded from the equipotential network, since such parts are likely to be bonded to protective (earthed) conductors elsewhere in the installation.

4 Protection of goods in case of insulation fault

The standards consider the damage (mainly fire) of goods due to insulation faults to be high. Therefore, for location with high risk of fire, 300 mA Residual Current Devices must be used. For the other locations, some standards relies on technique called « Ground Fault Protection » (GFP).

4.1 Measures of protection against fire risk with RCDs

RCDs are very effective devices to provide protection against fire risk due to insulation fault because they can detect leakage current (ex : 300 mA) which are too low for the other protections, but sufficient to cause a fire

RCDs are very effective devices to provide protection against fire risk due to insulation fault. This type of fault current is actually too low to be detected by the other protection (overcurrent, reverse time).

For TT, IT TN-S systems in which leakage current can appear, the use of 300 mA sensitivity RCDs provides a good protection against fire risk due to this type of fault.

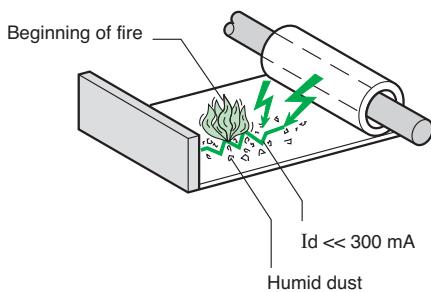
An investigation has shown that the cost of the fires in industrial and tertiary buildings can be very great.

The analysis of the phenomena shows that fire risk due to electricity is linked to overheating due to a bad coordination between the maximum rated current of the cable (or isolated conductor) and the overcurrent protection setting.

Overheating can also be due to the modification of the initial method of installation (addition of cables on the same support).

This overheating can be the origin of electrical arc in humid environment. These electrical arcs evolve when the fault current-loop impedance is greater than 0.6Ω and exist only when an insulation fault occurs. Some tests have shown that a 300 mA fault current can induce a real risk of fire (see Fig. F26).

F17



Some tests have shown that a very low leakage current (a few mA) can evolve and, from 300 mA, induce a fire in humid and dusty environment.

Fig. F26 : Origin of fires in buildings

4.2 Ground Fault Protection (GFP)

Different type of ground fault protections (see Fig. F27)

Three types of GFP are possible depending on the measuring device installed :

- “Residual Sensing” RS

The “insulation fault” current is calculated using the vectorial sum of currents of current transformers secondaries. The current transformer on the neutral conductor is often outside the circuit-breaker.

- “Source Ground Return” SGR

The “insulation fault current” is measured in the neutral – earth link of the LV transformer. The current transformer is outside the circuit-breaker.

- “Zero Sequence” ZS

The “insulation fault” is directly measured at the secondary of the current transformer using the sum of currents in live conductors. This type of GFP is only used with low fault current values.

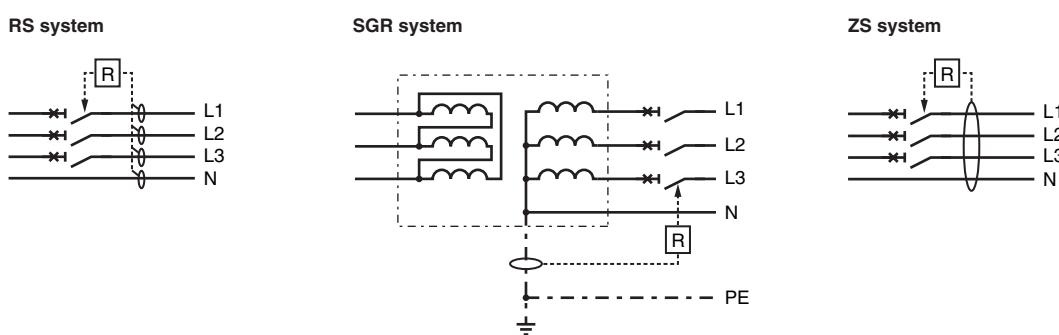


Fig. F27 : Different types of ground fault protections

4 Protection of goods in case of insulation fault

Positioning GFP devices in the installation

Type / installation level	Main-distribution	Sub-distribution	Comments
Source Ground Return (SGR)	<input type="checkbox"/>		Used
Residual Sensing (RS) (SGR)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Often used
Zero Sequence (SGR)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Rarely used

Possible

Recommended or required

F18

5 Implementation of the TT system

5.1 Protective measures

Protection against indirect contact

General case

Protection against indirect contact is assured by RCDs, the sensitivity $I_{\Delta n}$ of which complies with the condition $I_{\Delta n} \leq \frac{50 \text{ V}}{R_A}$ (1)

The choice of sensitivity of the residual current device is a function of the resistance R_A of the earth electrode for the installation, and is given in **Figure F28**.

F19

$I_{\Delta n}$	Maximum resistance of the earth electrode (50 V)	(25 V)
3 A	16 Ω	8 Ω
1 A	50 Ω	25 Ω
500 mA	100 Ω	50 Ω
300 mA	166 Ω	83 Ω
30 mA	1666 Ω	833 Ω

Fig. F28 : The upper limit of resistance for an installation earthing electrode which must not be exceeded, for given sensitivity levels of RCDs at U_L voltage limits of 50 V and 25 V

Case of distribution circuits (see Fig. F29)

IEC 60364-4-41 and a number of national standards recognize a maximum tripping time of 1 second in installation distribution circuits (as opposed to final circuits). This allows a degree of selective discrimination to be achieved:

- At level A: RCD time-delayed, e.g. "S" type
- At level B: RCD instantaneous

Case where the exposed conductive parts of an appliance, or group of appliances, are connected to a separate earth electrode (see Fig. F30)

Protection against indirect contact by a RCD at the circuit-breaker level protecting each group or separately-earthed individual appliance.

In each case, the sensitivity must be compatible with the resistance of the earth electrode concerned.

High-sensitivity RCDs (see Fig. F31)

According to IEC 60364-4-41, high sensitivity RCDs ($\leq 30 \text{ mA}$) must be used for protection of socket outlets with rated current $\leq 20 \text{ A}$ in all locations. The use of such RCDs is also recommended in the following cases:

- Socket-outlet circuits in wet locations at all current ratings
 - Socket-outlet circuits in temporary installations
 - Circuits supplying laundry rooms and swimming pools
 - Supply circuits to work-sites, caravans, pleasure boats, and travelling fairs
- See 2.2 and chapter P, section 3

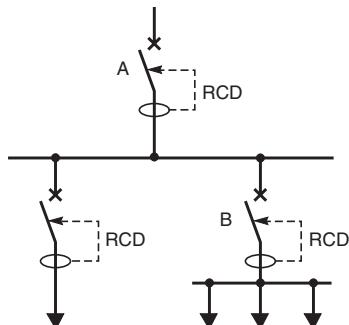


Fig. F29 : Distribution circuits

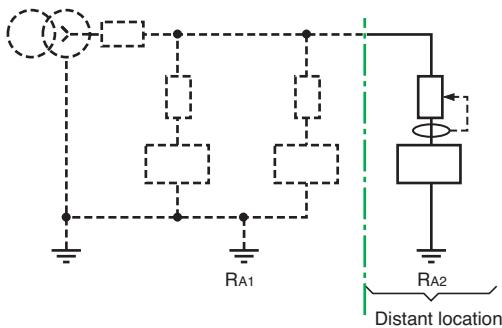


Fig. F30 : Separate earth electrode

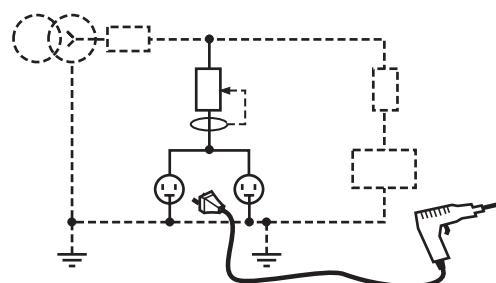


Fig. F31 : Circuit supplying socket-outlets

(1) 25 V for work-site installations, agricultural establishments, etc.

In high fire risk locations (see Fig. F32)

RCD protection at the circuit-breaker controlling all supplies to the area at risk is necessary in some locations, and mandatory in many countries.

The sensitivity of the RCD must be ≤ 500 mA, but a 300 mA sensitivity is recommended.

Protection when exposed conductive parts are not connected to earth (see Fig. F33)

(In the case of an existing installation where the location is dry and provision of an earthing connection is not possible, or in the event that a protective earth wire becomes broken).

RCDs of high sensitivity (≤ 30 mA) will afford both protection against indirect-contact hazards, and the additional protection against the dangers of direct-contact.

F20

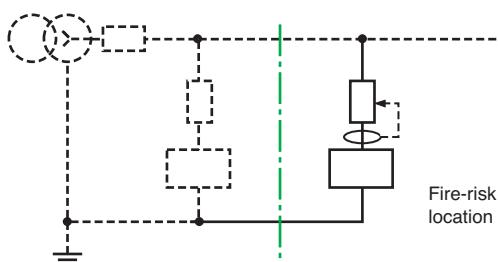


Fig. F32 : Fire-risk location

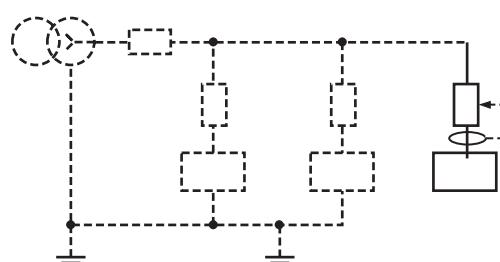


Fig. F33 : Unearthed exposed conductive parts (A)

5.2 Coordination of residual current protective devices

Discriminative-tripping coordination is achieved either by time-delay or by subdivision of circuits, which are then protected individually or by groups, or by a combination of both methods.

Such discrimination avoids the tripping of any RCD, other than that immediately upstream of a fault position:

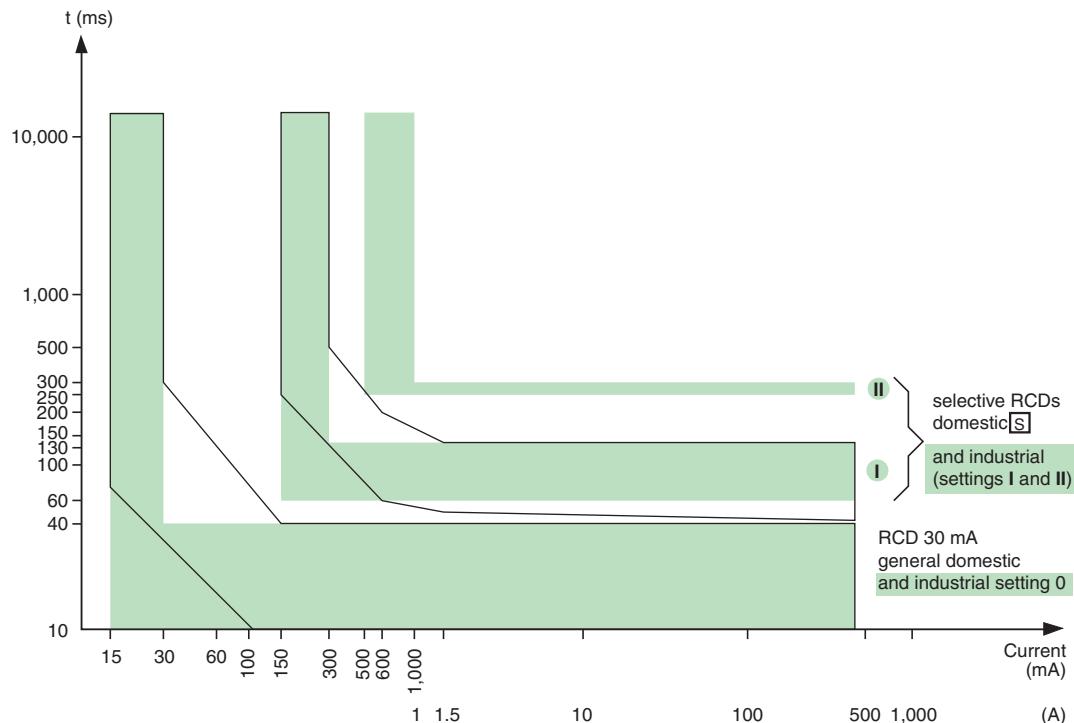
- With equipment currently available, discrimination is possible at three or four different levels of distribution :
 - At the main general distribution board
 - At local general distribution boards
 - At sub-distribution boards
 - At socket outlets for individual appliance protection
- In general, at distribution boards (and sub-distribution boards, if existing) and on individual-appliance protection, devices for automatic disconnection in the event of an indirect-contact hazard occurring are installed together with additional protection against direct-contact hazards.

Discrimination between RCDs

The general specification for achieving total discrimination between two RCDs is as follow:

- The ratio between the rated residual operating currents must be > 2
- Time delaying the upstream RCD

Discrimination is achieved by exploiting the several levels of standardized sensitivity: 30 mA, 100 mA, 300 mA and 1 A and the corresponding tripping times, as shown opposite page in **Figure F34**.



F21

Fig. F34 : Total discrimination at 2 levels

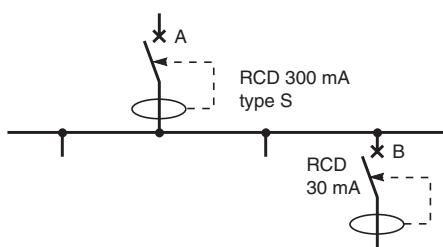


Fig. F35 : Total discrimination at 2 levels

Discrimination at 2 levels (see Fig. F35)

Protection

- Level A: RCD time-delayed setting I (for industrial device) or type S (for domestic device) for protection against indirect contacts
- Level B: RCD instantaneous, with high sensitivity on circuits supplying socket-outlets or appliances at high risk (washing machines, etc.) See also Chapter P Clause 3

Schneider Electric solutions

- Level A: Compact or Multi 9 circuit-breaker with adaptable RCD module (Vigi NSX160 or Vigi NC100), setting I or S type
- Level B: Circuit-breaker with integrated RCD module (DPN Vigi) or adaptable RCD module (e.g. Vigi C60 or Vigi NC100) or Vigicompact

Note: The setting of upstream RCCB must comply with selectivity rules and take into account all the downstream earth leakage currents.

Discrimination at 3 or 4 levels (see Fig. F36)

Protection

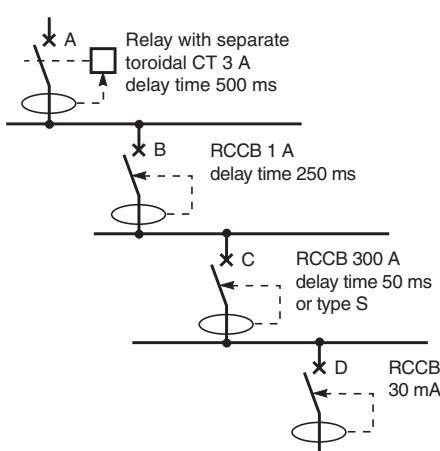
- Level A: RCD time-delayed (setting III)
- Level B: RCD time-delayed (setting II)
- Level C: RCD time-delayed (setting I) or type S
- Level D: RCD instantaneous

Schneider Electric solutions

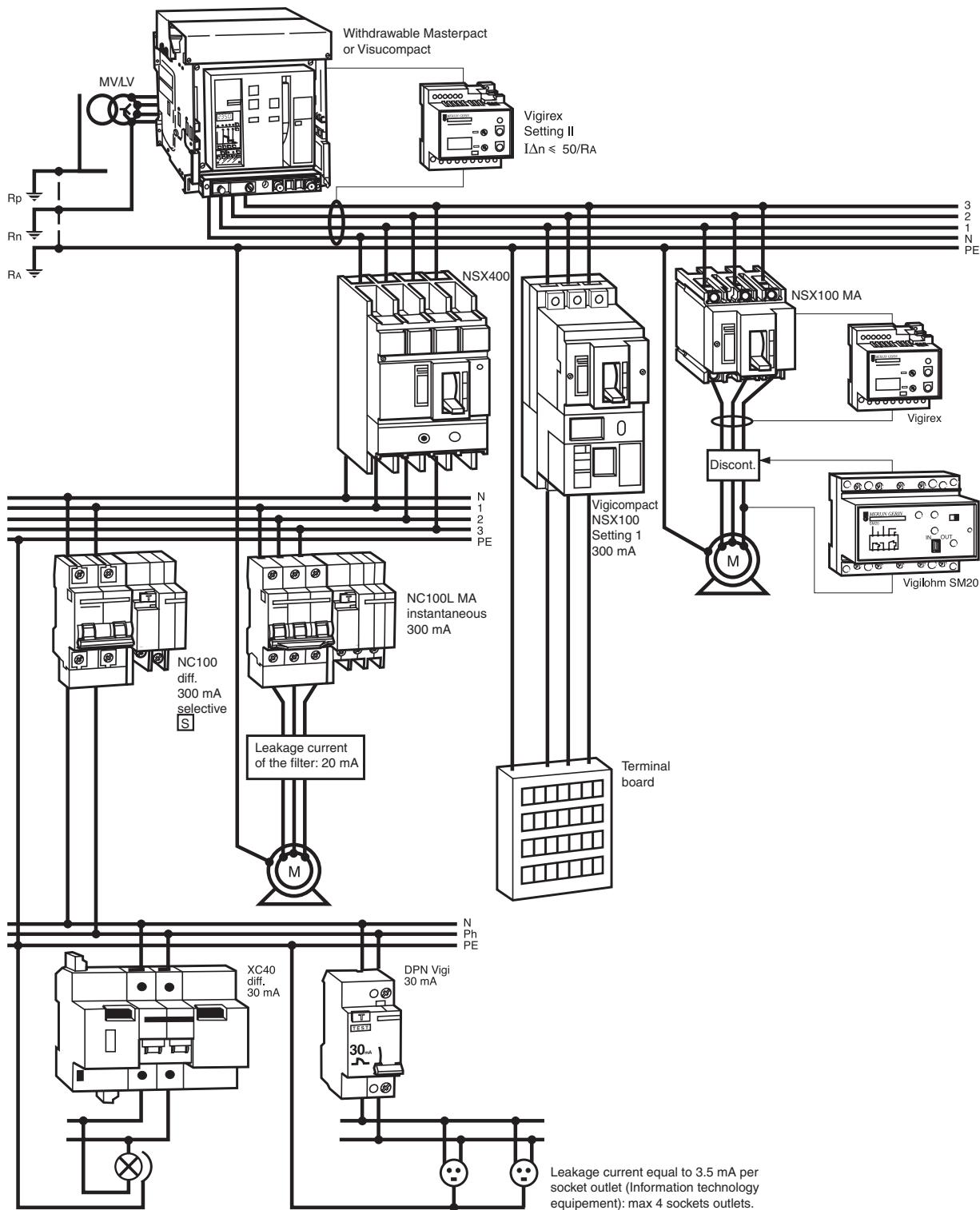
- Level A: Circuit-breaker associated with RCD and separate toroidal transformer (Vigirex RH328AP)
- Level B: Vigicompact or Vigirex
- Level C: Vigirex, Vigicompact or Vigi NC100 or Vigi C60
- Level D:
 - Vigicompact or
 - Vigirex or
 - Multi 9 with integrated or adaptable RCD module : Vigi C60 or DPN Vigi

Note: The setting of upstream RCCB must comply with selectivity rules and take into account all the downstream earth leakage currents

Fig. F36 : Total discrimination at 3 or 4 levels



Discriminative protection at three levels (see Fig. F37)

**Fig. F37 :** Typical 3-level installation, showing the protection of distribution circuits in a TT-earthing system. One motor is provided with specific protection

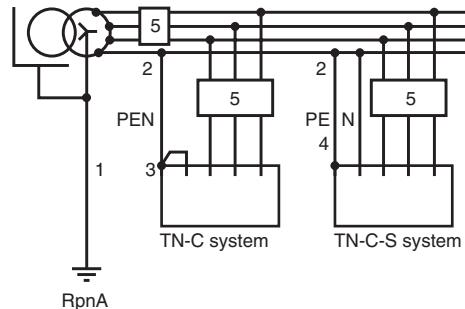
6.1 Preliminary conditions

At the design stage, the maximum permitted lengths of cable downstream of a protective circuit-breaker (or set of fuses) must be calculated, while during the installation work certain rules must be fully respected.

Certain conditions must be observed, as listed below and illustrated in **Figure F38**.

1. PE conductor must be regularly connected to earth as much as possible.
2. The PE conductor must not pass through ferro-magnetic conduit, ducts, etc. or be mounted on steel work, since inductive and/or proximity effects can increase the effective impedance of the conductor.
3. In the case of a PEN conductor (a neutral conductor which is also used as a protective conductor), connection must be made directly to the earth terminal of an appliance (see 3 in Figure F38) before being looped to the neutral terminal of the same appliance.
4. Where the conductor $\leq 6 \text{ mm}^2$ for copper or 10 mm^2 for aluminium, or where a cable is movable, the neutral and protective conductors should be separated (i.e. a TN-S system should be adopted within the installation).
5. Earth faults may be cleared by overcurrent-protection devices, i.e. by fuses and circuit-breakers.

The foregoing list indicates the conditions to be respected in the implementation of a TN scheme for the protection against indirect contacts.



Notes:

- The TN scheme requires that the LV neutral of the MV/LV transformer, the exposed conductive parts of the substation and of the installation, and the extraneous conductive parts in the substation and installation, all be earthed to a common earthing system.
- For a substation in which the metering is at low-voltage, a means of isolation is required at the origin of the LV installation, and the isolation must be clearly visible.
- A PEN conductor must never be interrupted under any circumstances. Control and protective switchgear for the several TN arrangements will be:
 - 3-pole when the circuit includes a PEN conductor,
 - Preferably 4-pole (3 phases + neutral) when the circuit includes a neutral with a separate PE conductor.

Fig. F38 : Implementation of the TN system of earthing

6.2 Protection against indirect contact

Methods of determining levels of short-circuit current

In TN-earthed systems, a short-circuit to earth will, in principle, always provide sufficient current to operate an overcurrent device.

The source and supply mains impedances are much lower than those of the installation circuits, so that any restriction in the magnitude of earth-fault currents will be mainly caused by the installation conductors (long flexible leads to appliances greatly increase the "fault-loop" impedance, with a corresponding reduction of short-circuit current).

The most recent IEC recommendations for indirect-contact protection on TN earthing systems only relates maximum allowable tripping times to the nominal system voltage (see Figure F12 in Sub-clause 3.3).

Three methods of calculation are commonly used:

- The method of impedances, based on the trigonometric addition of the system resistances and inductive reactances
- The method of composition
- The conventional method, based on an assumed voltage drop and the use of prepared tables

For calculations, modern practice is to use software agreed by National Authorities, and based on the method of impedances, such as Ecodial 3. National Authorities generally also publish Guides, which include typical values, conductor lengths, etc.

The reasoning behind these recommendations is that, for TN systems, the current which must flow in order to raise the potential of an exposed conductive part to 50 V or more is so high that one of two possibilities will occur:

- Either the fault path will blow itself clear, practically instantaneously, or
- The conductor will weld itself into a solid fault and provide adequate current to operate overcurrent devices

To ensure correct operation of overcurrent devices in the latter case, a reasonably accurate assessment of short-circuit earth-fault current levels must be determined at the design stage of a project.

A rigorous analysis requires the use of phase-sequence-component techniques applied to every circuit in turn. The principle is straightforward, but the amount of computation is not considered justifiable, especially since the zero-phase-sequence impedances are extremely difficult to determine with any reasonable degree of accuracy in an average LV installation.

Other simpler methods of adequate accuracy are preferred. Three practical methods are:

- The “**method of impedances**”, based on the summation of all the impedances (positive-phase-sequence only) around the fault loop, for each circuit
- The “**method of composition**”, which is an estimation of short-circuit current at the remote end of a loop, when the short-circuit current level at the near end of the loop is known
- The “**conventional method**” of calculating the minimum levels of earth-fault currents, together with the use of tables of values for obtaining rapid results

These methods are only reliable for the case in which the cables that make up the earth-fault-current loop are in close proximity (to each other) and not separated by ferro-magnetic materials.

Method of impedances

This method summates the positive-sequence impedances of each item (cable, PE conductor, transformer, etc.) included in the earth-fault loop circuit from which the short-circuit earth-fault current is calculated, using the formula:

$$I = \frac{U_0}{\sqrt{(\sum R)^2 + (\sum X)^2}}$$

where

$(\sum R)^2$ = (the sum of all resistances in the loop)² at the design stage of a project.

and $(\sum X)^2$ = (the sum of all inductive reactances in the loop)²

and U_0 = nominal system phase-to-neutral voltage.

The application of the method is not always easy, because it supposes a knowledge of all parameter values and characteristics of the elements in the loop. In many cases, a national guide can supply typical values for estimation purposes.

Method of composition

This method permits the determination of the short-circuit current at the end of a loop from the known value of short-circuit at the sending end, by means of the approximate formula:

$$I_{sc} = I \frac{U_0}{U + Z_s I_{sc}}$$

where

I_{sc} = upstream short-circuit current

I = end-of-loop short-circuit current

U_0 = nominal system phase voltage

Z_s = impedance of loop

Note: in this method the individual impedances are added arithmetically⁽¹⁾ as opposed to the previous “method of impedances” procedure.

Conventional method

This method is generally considered to be sufficiently accurate to fix the upper limit of cable lengths.

Principle

The principle bases the short-circuit current calculation on the assumption that the voltage at the origin of the circuit concerned (i.e. at the point at which the circuit protective device is located) remains at 80% or more of the nominal phase to neutral voltage. The 80% value is used, together with the circuit loop impedance, to compute the short-circuit current.

(1) This results in a calculated current value which is less than that it would actually flow. If the overcurrent settings are based on this calculated value, then operation of the relay, or fuse, is assured.

6 Implementation of the TN system

The maximum length of any circuit of a TN-earthed installation is: $\frac{0.8 U_0 Sph}{\rho(1+m)I_a}$

This coefficient takes account of all voltage drops upstream of the point considered. In LV cables, when all conductors of a 3-phase 4-wire circuit are in close proximity (which is the normal case), the inductive reactance internal to and between conductors is negligibly small compared to the cable resistance.

This approximation is considered to be valid for cable sizes up to 120 mm².

Above that size, the resistance value R is increased as follows:

Core size (mm ²)	Value of resistance
S = 150 mm ²	R+15%
S = 185 mm ²	R+20%
S = 240 mm ²	R+25%

The maximum length of a circuit in a TN-earthed installation is given by the formula:

$$L_{max} = \frac{0.8 U_0 Sph}{\rho(1+m)I_a}$$

where:

L_{max} = maximum length in metres

U₀ = phase volts = 230 V for a 230/400 V system

ρ = resistivity at normal working temperature in ohm-mm²/metre
(= 22.5 10⁻³ for copper; = 36 10⁻³ for aluminium)

I_a = trip current setting for the instantaneous operation of a circuit-breaker, or
I_a = the current which assures operation of the protective fuse concerned, in the specified time.

$$m = \frac{Sph}{SPE}$$

Sph = cross-sectional area of the phase conductors of the circuit concerned in mm²

SPE = cross-sectional area of the protective conductor concerned in mm².

(see Fig. F39)

F25

The following tables give the length of circuit which must not be exceeded, in order that persons be protected against indirect contact hazards by protective devices

Tables

The following tables, applicable to TN systems, have been established according to the "conventional method" described above.

The tables give maximum circuit lengths, beyond which the ohmic resistance of the conductors will limit the magnitude of the short-circuit current to a level below that required to trip the circuit-breaker (or to blow the fuse) protecting the circuit, with sufficient rapidity to ensure safety against indirect contact.

Correction factor m

Figure F40 indicates the correction factor to apply to the values given in Figures F41 to F44 next pages, according to the ratio Sph/SPE, the type of circuit, and the conductor materials.

The tables take into account:

- The type of protection: circuit-breakers or fuses
- Operating-current settings
- Cross-sectional area of phase conductors and protective conductors
- Type of system earthing (see Fig. F45 page F27)
- Type of circuit-breaker (i.e. B, C or D)⁽¹⁾

The tables may be used for 230/400 V systems.

Equivalent tables for protection by Compact and Multi 9 circuit-breakers (Merlin Gerin) are included in the relevant catalogues.

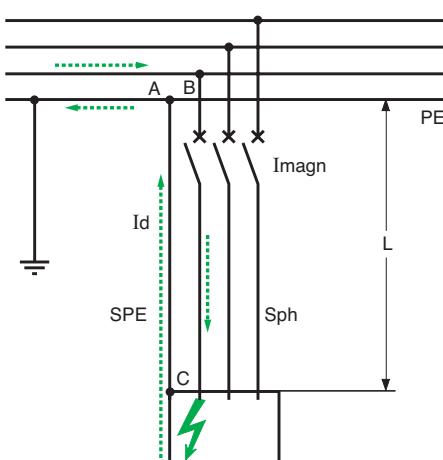


Fig. F39 : Calculation of L_{max} for a TN-earthed system, using the conventional method

Circuit	Conductor material	m = Sph/SPE (or PEN)			
		m = 1	m = 2	m = 3	m = 4
3P + N or P + N	Copper	1	0.67	0.50	0.40
	Aluminium	0.62	0.42	0.31	0.25

Fig. F40 : Correction factor to apply to the lengths given in tables F41 to F44 for TN systems

(1) For the definition of type B, C, D circuit-breakers, refer to chapter H, clause 4.2

Circuits protected by general purpose circuit-breakers (Fig. F41)

Nominal cross-sectional area of conductors	Instantaneous or short-time-delayed tripping current I_m (amperes)																												
mm ²	50	63	80	100	125	160	200	250	320	400	500	560	630	700	800	875	1000	1120	1250	1600	2000	2500	3200	4000	5000	6300	8000	10000	12500
1.5	100	79	63	50	40	31	25	20	16	13	10	9	8	7	6	6	5	4	4										
2.5	167	133	104	83	67	52	42	33	26	21	17	15	13	12	10	10	8	7	7	5	4								
4	267	212	167	133	107	83	67	53	42	33	27	24	21	19	17	15	13	12	11	8	7	5	4						
6	400	317	250	200	160	125	100	80	63	50	40	36	32	29	25	23	20	18	16	13	10	8	6	5	4				
10		417	333	267	208	167	133	104	83	67	60	53	48	42	38	33	30	27	21	17	13	10	8	7	5	4			
16			427	333	267	213	167	133	107	95	85	76	67	61	53	48	43	33	27	21	17	13	11	8	7	5	4		
25				417	333	260	208	167	149	132	119	104	95	83	74	67	52	42	33	26	21	17	13	10	8	7			
35					467	365	292	233	208	185	167	146	133	117	104	93	73	58	47	36	29	23	19	15	12	9			
50						495	396	317	283	251	226	198	181	158	141	127	99	79	63	49	40	32	25	20	16	13			
70							417	370	333	292	267	233	208	187	146	117	93	73	58	47	37	29	23	19					
95								452	396	362	317	283	263	198	158	127	99	79	63	50	40	32	25						
120									457	400	357	320	250	200	160	125	100	80	63	50	40	32							
150										435	388	348	272	217	174	136	109	87	69	54	43	35							
185											459	411	321	257	206	161	128	103	82	64	51	41							
240												400	320	256	200	160	128	102	80	64	51								

Fig. F41 : Maximum circuit lengths (in metres) for different sizes of copper conductor and instantaneous-tripping-current settings for general-purpose circuit-breakers in 230/400 V TN system with $m = 1$

Circuits protected by Compact or Multi 9 circuit-breakers for industrial or domestic use (Fig. F42 to Fig. F44)

Sph	Rated current (A)															
mm ²	1	2	3	4	6	10	16	20	25	32	40	50	63	80	100	125
1.5	1200	600	400	300	200	120	75	60	48	37	30	24	19	15	12	10
2.5		1000	666	500	333	200	125	100	80	62	50	40	32	25	20	16
4			1066	800	533	320	200	160	128	100	80	64	51	40	32	26
6				1200	800	480	300	240	192	150	120	96	76	60	48	38
10					800	500	400	320	250	200	160	127	100	80	64	
16						800	640	512	400	320	256	203	160	128	102	
25							800	625	500	400	317	250	200	160		
35								875	700	560	444	350	280	224		
50									760	603	475	380	304			

Fig. F42 : Maximum circuit lengths (in meters) for different sizes of copper conductor and rated currents for type B⁽¹⁾ circuit-breakers in a 230/400 V single-phase or three-phase TN system with $m = 1$

Sph	Rated current (A)																
mm ²	1	2	3	4	6	10	16	20	25	32	40	50	63	80	100	125	
1.5	600	300	200	150	100	60	37	30	24	18	15	12	9	7	6	5	
2.5		500	333	250	167	100	62	50	40	31	25	20	16	12	10	8	
4			533	400	267	160	100	80	64	50	40	32	25	20	16	13	
6				600	400	240	150	120	96	75	60	48	38	30	24	19	
10					667	400	250	200	160	125	100	80	63	50	40	32	
16						640	400	320	256	200	160	128	101	80	64	51	
25							625	500	400	312	250	200	159	125	100	80	
35								875	700	560	437	350	280	222	175	140	112
50									760	594	475	380	301	237	190	152	

Fig. F43 : Maximum circuit lengths (in metres) for different sizes of copper conductor and rated currents for type C⁽¹⁾ circuit-breakers in a 230/400 V single-phase or three-phase TN system with $m = 1$

(1) For the definition of type B and C circuit-breakers refer to chapter H clause 4.2.

6 Implementation of the TN system

Sph	Rated current (A)															
mm ²	1	2	3	4	6	10	16	20	25	32	40	50	63	80	100	125
1.5	429	214	143	107	71	43	27	21	17	13	11	9	7	5	4	3
2.5	714	357	238	179	119	71	45	36	29	22	18	14	11	9	7	6
4	571	381	286	190	114	71	80	46	36	29	23	18	14	11	9	9
6	857	571	429	286	171	107	120	69	54	43	34	27	21	17	14	14
10	952	714	476	286	179	200	114	89	71	57	45	36	29	23	23	23
16					762	457	286	320	183	143	114	91	73	57	46	37
25						714	446	500	286	223	179	143	113	89	71	57
35							625	700	400	313	250	200	159	125	80	100
50								848	543	424	339	271	215	170	136	109

Fig. F44 : Maximum circuit lengths (in metres) for different sizes of copper conductor and rated currents for type D⁽¹⁾ circuit-breakers in a 230/400 V single-phase or three-phase TN system with $m = 1$

F27

Example

A 3-phase 4-wire (230/400 V) installation is TN-C earthed. A circuit is protected by a type B circuit-breaker rated at 63 A, and consists of an aluminium cored cable with 50 mm² phase conductors and a neutral conductor (PEN) of 25 mm².

What is the maximum length of circuit, below which protection of persons against indirect-contact hazards is assured by the instantaneous magnetic tripping relay of the circuit-breaker?

Figure F42 gives, for 50 mm² and a 63 A type B circuit-breaker, 603 metres, to which must be applied a factor of 0.42 (Figure F40 for $m = \frac{\text{Sph}}{\text{SPE}} = 2$).

The maximum length of circuit is therefore:

$$603 \times 0.42 = 253 \text{ metres.}$$

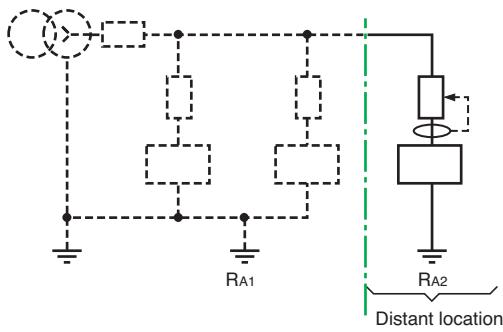


Fig. F45 : Separate earth electrode

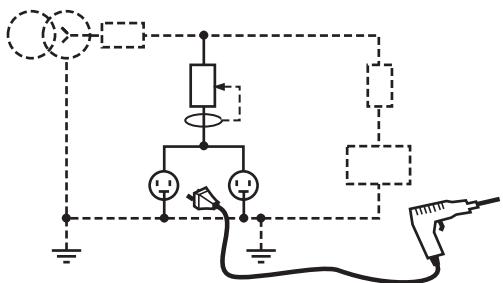


Fig. F46 : Circuit supplying socket-outlets

Particular case where one or more exposed conductive part(s) is (are) earthed to a separate earth electrode

Protection must be provided against indirect contact by a RCD at the origin of any circuit supplying an appliance or group of appliances, the exposed conductive parts of which are connected to an independent earth electrode.

The sensitivity of the RCD must be adapted to the earth electrode resistance (RA2 in Figure F45). See specifications applicable to TT system.

6.3 High-sensitivity RCDs (see Fig. F31)

According to IEC 60364-4-41, high sensitivity RCDs ($\leq 30 \text{ mA}$) must be used for protection of socket outlets with rated current $\leq 20 \text{ A}$ in all locations. The use of such RCDs is also recommended in the following cases:

- Socket-outlet circuits in wet locations at all current ratings
 - Socket-outlet circuits in temporary installations
 - Circuits supplying laundry rooms and swimming pools
 - Supply circuits to work-sites, caravans, pleasure boats, and travelling fairs
- See 2.2 and chapter P, al section 3.

(1) For the definition of type D circuit-breaker refer to chapter H Sub-clause 4.2.

6.4 Protection in high fire-risk location

According to IEC 60364-422-3.10, circuits in high fire-risk locations must be protected by RCDs of sensitivity ≤ 500 mA. This excludes the TN-C arrangement and TN-S must be adopted.

A preferred sensitivity of 300 mA is mandatory in some countries (see Fig. F47).

6.5 When the fault current-loop impedance is particularly high

When the earth-fault current is limited due to an inevitably high fault-loop impedance, so that the overcurrent protection cannot be relied upon to trip the circuit within the prescribed time, the following possibilities should be considered:

Suggestion 1 (see Fig. F48)

- Install a circuit-breaker which has a lower instantaneous magnetic tripping level, for example:

$$2I_n \leq I_{rm} \leq 4I_n$$

This affords protection for persons on circuits which are abnormally long. It must be checked, however, that high transient currents such as the starting currents of motors will not cause nuisance trip-outs.

- Schneider Electric solutions
- Type G Compact ($2I_m \leq I_{rm} \leq 4I_m$)
- Type B Multi 9 circuit-breaker

Suggestion 2 (see Fig. F49)

- Install a RCD on the circuit. The device does not need to be highly-sensitive (HS) (several amps to a few tens of amps). Where socket-outlets are involved, the particular circuits must, in any case, be protected by HS (≤ 30 mA) RCDs; generally one RCD for a number of socket outlets on a common circuit.

- Schneider Electric solutions
- RCD Multi 9 NG125 : $I_{\Delta n} = 1$ or 3 A
- Vigicompact REH or REM: $I_{\Delta n} = 3$ to 30 A
- Type B Multi 9 circuit-breaker

Suggestion 3

Increase the size of the PE or PEN conductors and/or the phase conductors, to reduce the loop impedance.

Suggestion 4

Add supplementary equipotential conductors. This will have a similar effect to that of suggestion 3, i.e. a reduction in the earth-fault-loop resistance, while at the same time improving the existing touch-voltage protection measures. The effectiveness of this improvement may be checked by a resistance test between each exposed conductive part and the local main protective conductor.

For TN-C installations, bonding as shown in Figure F50 is not allowed, and suggestion 3 should be adopted.

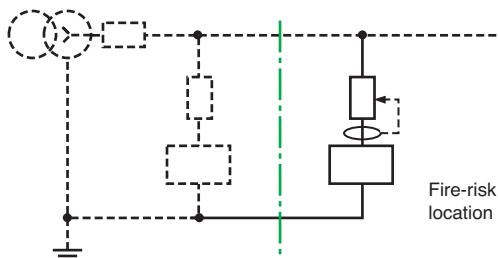


Fig. F47 : Fire-risk location

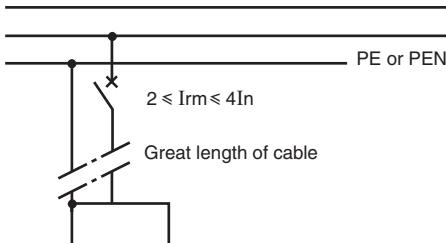


Fig. F48 : Circuit-breaker with low-set instantaneous magnetic tripping

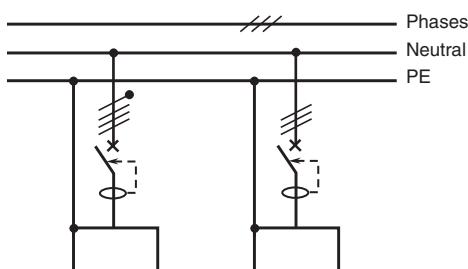


Fig. F49 : RCD protection on TN systems with high earth-fault-loop impedance

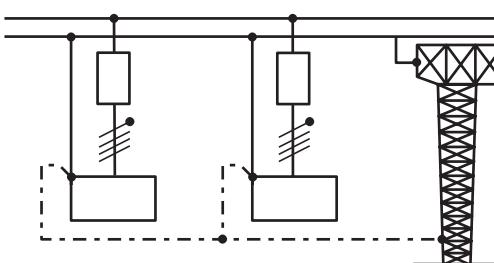


Fig. F50 : Improved equipotential bonding

The basic feature of the IT earthing system is that, in the event of a short-circuit to earth fault, the system can continue to operate without interruption. Such a fault is referred to as a “first fault”.

In this system, all exposed conductive parts of an installation are connected via PE conductors to an earth electrode at the installation, while the neutral point of the supply transformer is:

- Either isolated from earth
- Or connected to earth through a high resistance (commonly 1,000 ohms or more)

This means that the current through an earth fault will be measured in milli-amps, which will not cause serious damage at the fault position, or give rise to dangerous touch voltages, or present a fire hazard. The system may therefore be allowed to operate normally until it is convenient to isolate the faulty section for repair work. This enhances continuity of service.

In practice, the system earthing requires certain specific measures for its satisfactory exploitation:

- Permanent monitoring of the insulation with respect to earth, which must signal (audibly or visually) the occurrence of the first fault
- A device for limiting the voltage which the neutral point of the supply transformer can reach with respect to earth
- A “first-fault” location routine by an efficient maintenance staff. Fault location is greatly facilitated by automatic devices which are currently available
- Automatic high-speed tripping of appropriate circuit-breakers must take place in the event of a “second fault” occurring before the first fault is repaired. The second fault (by definition) is an earth fault affecting a different live conductor than that of the first fault (can be a phase or neutral conductor)⁽¹⁾.

The second fault results in a short-circuit through the earth and/or through PE bonding conductors.

F29

7.1 Preliminary conditions (see Fig. F51 and Fig. F52)

Minimum functions required	Components and devices	Examples
Protection against overvoltages at power frequency	(1) Voltage limiter	Cardew C
Neutral earthing resistor (for impedance earthing variation)	(2) Resistor	Impedance Zx
Overall earth-fault monitor with alarm for first fault condition	(3) Permanent insulation monitor PIM with alarm feature	Vigilohm TR22A or XM 200
Automatic fault clearance on second fault and protection of the neutral conductor against overcurrent	(4) Four-pole circuit-breakers (if the neutral is distributed) all 4 poles trip	Compact circuit-breaker or RCD-MS
Location of first fault	(5) With device for fault-location on live system, or by successive opening of circuits	Vigilohm system

Fig. F51 : Essential functions in IT schemes and examples with Merlin Gerin products

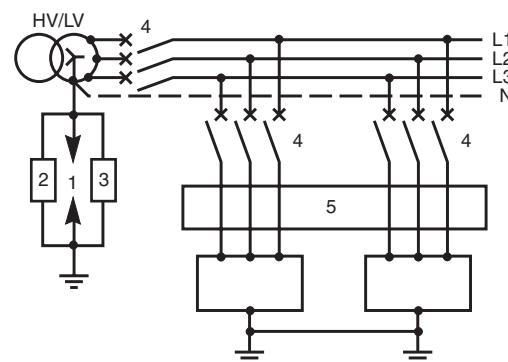


Fig. F52 : Positions of essential functions in 3-phase 3-wire IT-earthing system

(1) On systems where the neutral is distributed, as shown in Figure F56.

Modern monitoring systems greatly facilitate first-fault location and repair

Fault-location systems comply with IEC 61157-9 standard

7.2 Protection against indirect contact

First-fault condition

The earth-fault current which flows under a first-fault condition is measured in milliamps.

The fault voltage with respect to earth is the product of this current and the resistance of the installation earth electrode and PE conductor (from the faulted component to the electrode). This value of voltage is clearly harmless and could amount to several volts only in the worst case (1,000 Ω earthing resistor will pass 230 mA⁽¹⁾ and a poor installation earth-electrode of 50 ohms, would give 11.5 V, for example).

An alarm is given by the permanent insulation monitoring device.

Principle of earth-fault monitoring

A generator of very low frequency a.c. current, or of d.c. current, (to reduce the effects of cable capacitance to negligible levels) applies a voltage between the neutral point of the supply transformer and earth. This voltage causes a small current to flow according to the insulation resistance to earth of the whole installation, plus that of any connected appliance.

Low-frequency instruments can be used on a.c. systems which generate transient d.c. components under fault conditions. Certain versions can distinguish between resistive and capacitive components of the leakage current.

Modern equipment allow the measurement of leakage-current evolution, so that prevention of a first fault can be achieved.

Examples of equipment

■ Manual fault-location (see Fig. F53)

The generator may be fixed (example: XM100) or portable (example: GR10X permitting the checking of dead circuits) and the receiver, together with the magnetic clamp-type pick-up sensor, are portable.

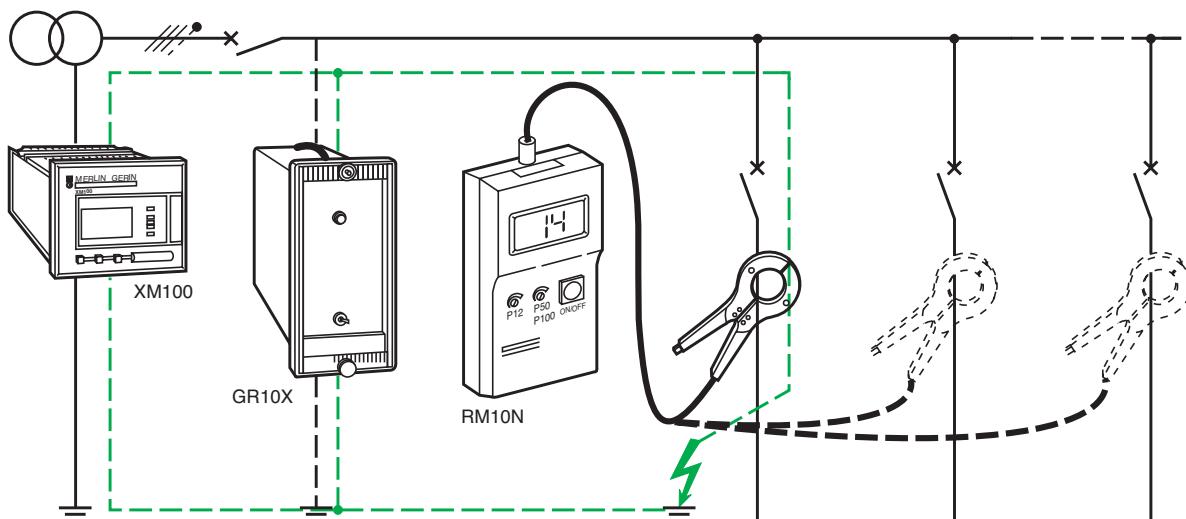


Fig. F53 : Non-automatic (manual) fault location

■ Fixed automatic fault location (see Fig. F54 next page)

The monitoring relay XM100, together with the fixed detectors XD1 or XD12 (each connected to a toroidal CT embracing the conductors of the circuit concerned) provide a system of automatic fault location on a live installation.

Moreover, the level of insulation is indicated for each monitored circuit, and two levels are checked: the first level warns of unusually low insulation resistance so that preventive measures may be taken, while the second level indicates a fault condition and gives an alarm.

(1) On a 230/400 V 3-phase system.

7 Implementation of the IT system

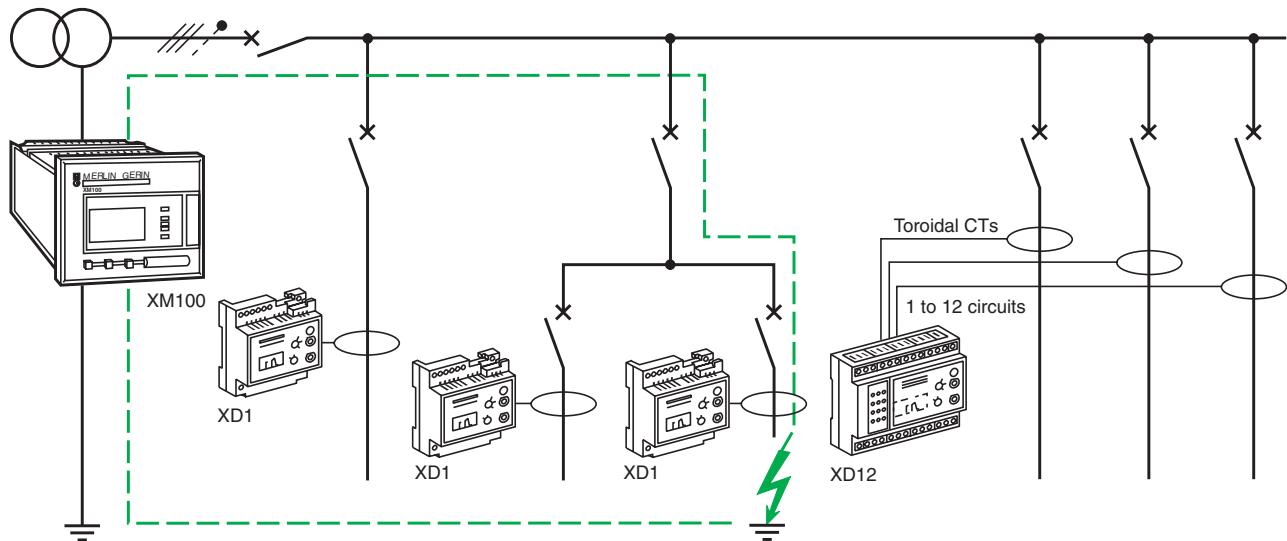


Fig. F54 : Fixed automatic fault location

■ Automatic monitoring, logging, and fault location (see Fig. F55)

The Vigilohm System also allows access to a printer and/or a PC which provides a global review of the insulation level of an entire installation, and records the chronological evolution of the insulation level of each circuit.

The central monitor XM100, together with the localization detectors XD08 and XD16, associated with toroidal CTs from several circuits, as shown below in Figure F55, provide the means for this automatic exploitation.

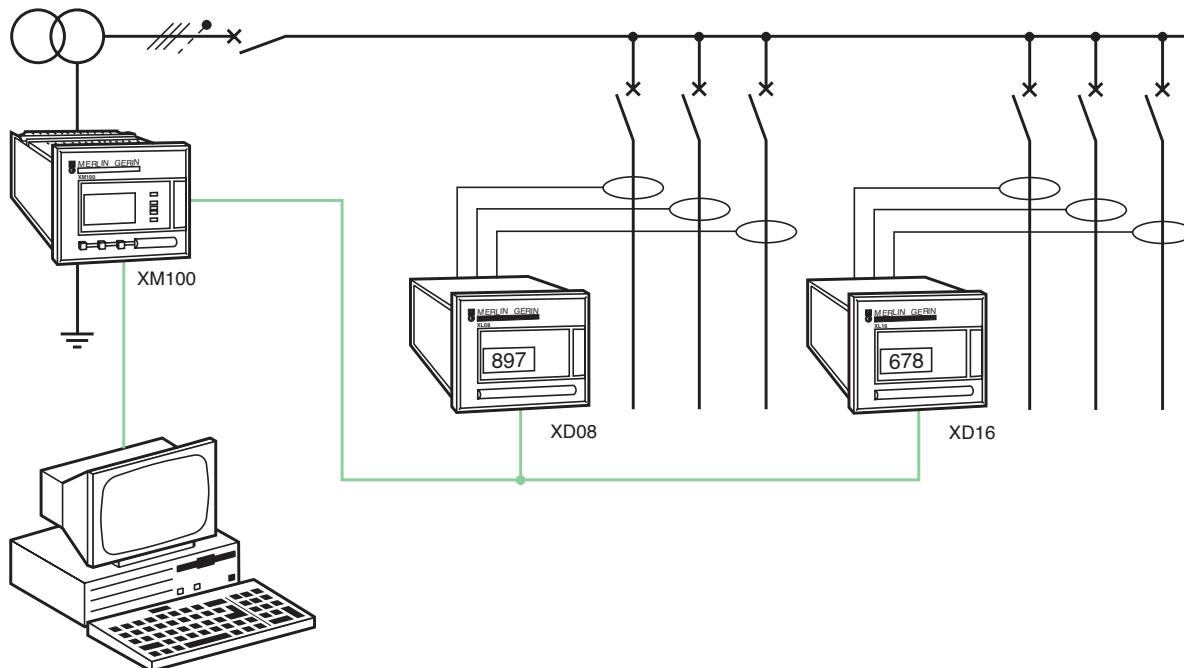


Fig. F55 : Automatic fault location and insulation-resistance data logging

Implementation of permanent insulation-monitoring (PIM) devices

■ Connection

The PIM device is normally connected between the neutral (or artificial neutral) point of the power-supply transformer and its earth electrode.

■ Supply

Power supply to the PIM device should be taken from a highly reliable source. In practice, this is generally directly from the installation being monitored, through overcurrent protective devices of suitable short-circuit current rating.

■ Level settings

Certain national standards recommend a first setting at 20% below the insulation level of the new installation. This value allows the detection of a reduction of the insulation quality, necessitating preventive maintenance measures in a situation of incipient failure.

The detection level for earth-fault alarm will be set at a much lower level.

By way of an example, the two levels might be:

□ New installation insulation level: 100 kΩ

□ Leakage current without danger: 500 mA (fire risk at > 500 mA)

□ Indication levels set by the consumer:

- Threshold for preventive maintenance: $0.8 \times 100 = 80$ kΩ

- Threshold for short-circuit alarm: 500 Ω

Notes:

□ Following a long period of shutdown, during which the whole, or part of the installation remains de-energized, humidity can reduce the general level of insulation resistance. This situation, which is mainly due to leakage current over the damp surface of healthy insulation, does not constitute a fault condition, and will improve rapidly as the normal temperature rise of current-carrying conductors reduces the surface humidity.

□ The PIM device (XM) can measure separately the resistive and the capacitive current components of the leakage current to earth, thereby deriving the true insulation resistance from the total permanent leakage current.

The case of a second fault

A second earth fault on an IT system (unless occurring on the same conductor as the first fault) constitutes a phase-phase or phase-to-neutral fault, and whether occurring on the same circuit as the first fault, or on a different circuit, overcurrent protective devices (fuses or circuit-breakers) would normally operate an automatic fault clearance.

The settings of overcurrent tripping relays and the ratings of fuses are the basic parameters that decide the maximum practical length of circuit that can be satisfactorily protected, as discussed in Sub-clause 6.2.

Note: In normal circumstances, the fault current path is through common PE conductors, bonding all exposed conductive parts of an installation, and so the fault loop impedance is sufficiently low to ensure an adequate level of fault current.

Where circuit lengths are unavoidably long, and especially if the appliances of a circuit are earthed separately (so that the fault current passes through two earth electrodes), reliable tripping on overcurrent may not be possible.

In this case, an RCD is recommended on each circuit of the installation.

Where an IT system is resistance earthed, however, care must be taken to ensure that the RCD is not too sensitive, or a first fault may cause an unwanted trip-out. Tripping of residual current devices which satisfy IEC standards may occur at values of $0.5 I_{\Delta n}$ to $I_{\Delta n}$, where $I_{\Delta n}$ is the nominal residual-current setting level.

Methods of determining levels of short-circuit current

A reasonably accurate assessment of short-circuit current levels must be carried out at the design stage of a project.

A rigorous analysis is not necessary, since current magnitudes only are important for the protective devices concerned (i.e. phase angles need not be determined) so that simplified conservatively approximate methods are normally used. Three practical methods are:

■ The **method of impedances**, based on the vectorial summation of all the (positive-phase-sequence) impedances around a fault-current loop

■ The **method of composition**, which is an approximate estimation of short-circuit current at the remote end of a loop, when the level of short-circuit current at the near end of the loop is known. Complex impedances are combined arithmetically in this method

■ The **conventional method**, in which the minimum value of voltage at the origin of a faulty circuit is assumed to be 80% of the nominal circuit voltage, and tables are used based on this assumption, to give direct readings of circuit lengths.

Three methods of calculation are commonly used:

- The method of impedances, based on the trigonometric addition of the system resistances and inductive reactances
- The method of composition
- The conventional method, based on an assumed voltage drop and the use of prepared tables

The software Ecodial is based on the “method of impedance”

The maximum length of an IT earthed circuit is:

- For a 3-phase 3-wire scheme

$$L_{\max} = \frac{0.8 U_o \sqrt{3} \text{ Sph}}{2 \rho I_a(1+m)}$$

- For a 3-phase 4-wire scheme

$$L_{\max} = \frac{0.8 U_o S_1}{2 \rho I_a(1+m)}$$

These methods are reliable only for the cases in which wiring and cables which make up the fault-current loop are in close proximity (to each other) and are not separated by ferro-magnetic materials.

Methods of impedances

This method as described in Sub-clause 6.2, is identical for both the IT and TN systems of earthing.

Methods of composition

This method as described in Sub-clause 6.2, is identical for both the IT and TN systems of earthing.

Conventional method (see Fig. F56)

The principle is the same for an IT system as that described in Sub-clause 6.2 for a TN system : the calculation of maximum circuit lengths which should not be exceeded downstream of a circuit-breaker or fuses, to ensure protection by overcurrent devices.

It is clearly impossible to check circuit lengths for every feasible combination of two concurrent faults.

All cases are covered, however, if the overcurrent trip setting is based on the assumption that a first fault occurs at the remote end of the circuit concerned, while the second fault occurs at the remote end of an identical circuit, as already mentioned in Sub-clause 3.4. This may result, in general, in one trip-out only occurring (on the circuit with the lower trip-setting level), thereby leaving the system in a first-fault situation, but with one faulty circuit switched out of service.

- For the case of a 3-phase 3-wire installation the second fault can only cause a phase/phase short-circuit, so that the voltage to use in the formula for maximum circuit length is $\sqrt{3}$ U_o .

The maximum circuit length is given by:

$$L_{\max} = \frac{0.8 U_o \sqrt{3} \text{ Sph}}{2 \rho I_a(1+m)} \text{ metres}$$

- For the case of a 3-phase 4-wire installation the lowest value of fault current will occur if one of the faults is on a neutral conductor. In this case, U_o is the value to use for computing the maximum cable length, and

$$L_{\max} = \frac{0.8 U_o S_1}{2 \rho I_a(1+m)} \text{ metres}$$

i.e. 50% only of the length permitted for a TN scheme ⁽¹⁾

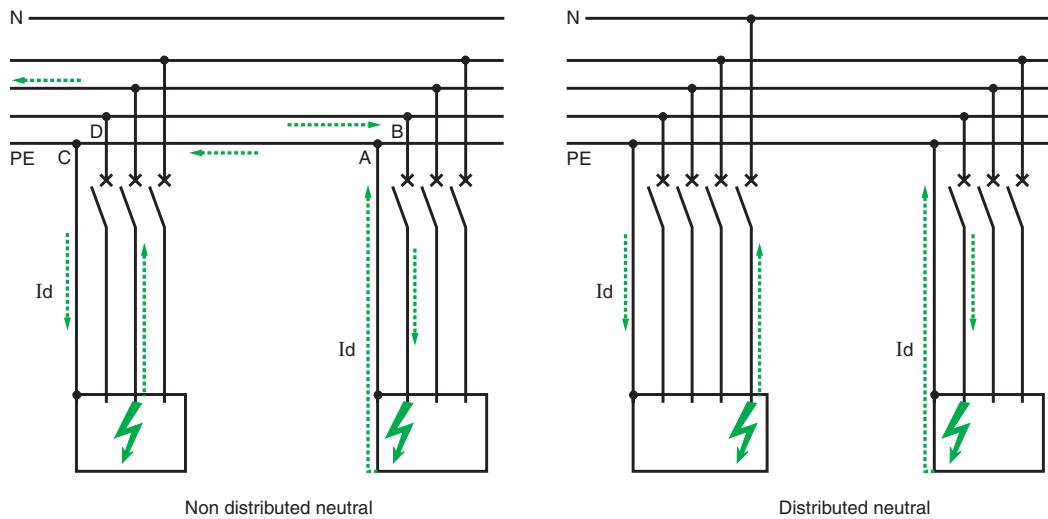


Fig. F56 : Calculation of L_{\max} . for an IT-earthed system, showing fault-current path for a double-fault condition

(1) Reminder: There is no length limit for earth-fault protection on a TT scheme, since protection is provided by RCDs of high sensitivity.

The following tables⁽¹⁾ give the length of circuit which must not be exceeded, in order that persons be protected against indirect contact hazards by protective devices

In the preceding formulae:

L_{max} = longest circuit in metres

U_o = phase-to-neutral voltage (230 V on a 230/400 V system)

ρ = resistivity at normal operating temperature (22.5×10^{-3} ohms-mm 2 /m for copper, 36×10^{-3} ohms-mm 2 /m for aluminium)

I_a = overcurrent trip-setting level in amps, or I_a = current in amps required to clear the fuse in the specified time

$$m = \frac{S_{ph}}{SPE}$$

SPE = cross-sectional area of PE conductor in mm 2

S_1 = S neutral if the circuit includes a neutral conductor

S_1 = S_{ph} if the circuit does not include a neutral conductor

Tables

The following tables have been established according to the "conventional method" described above.

The tables give maximum circuit lengths, beyond which the ohmic resistance of the conductors will limit the magnitude of the short-circuit current to a level below that required to trip the circuit-breaker (or to blow the fuse) protecting the circuit, with sufficient rapidity to ensure safety against indirect contact. The tables take into account:

- The type of protection: circuit-breakers or fuses, operating-current settings
- Cross-sectional area of phase conductors and protective conductors
- Type of earthing scheme
- Correction factor: **Figure F57** indicates the correction factor to apply to the lengths given in tables F40 to F43, when considering an IT system

Circuit	Conductor material	$m = S_{ph}/SPE$ (or PEN)			
		$m = 1$	$m = 2$	$m = 3$	$m = 4$
3 phases	Copper	0.86	0.57	0.43	0.34
	Aluminium	0.54	0.36	0.27	0.21
3ph + N or 1ph + N	Copper	0.50	0.33	0.25	0.20
	Aluminium	0.31	0.21	0.16	0.12

Fig. F57 : Correction factor to apply to the lengths given in tables F41 to F44 for TN systems

Example

A 3-phase 3-wire 230/400 V installation is IT-earthed.

One of its circuits is protected by a circuit-breaker rated at 63 A, and consists of an aluminium-cored cable with 50 mm 2 phase conductors. The 25 mm 2 PE conductor is also aluminum. What is the maximum length of circuit, below which protection of persons against indirect-contact hazards is assured by the instantaneous magnetic tripping relay of the circuit-breaker?

Figure F42 indicates 603 metres, to which must be applied a correction factor of 0.36 ($m = 2$ for aluminium cable).

The maximum length is therefore 217 metres.

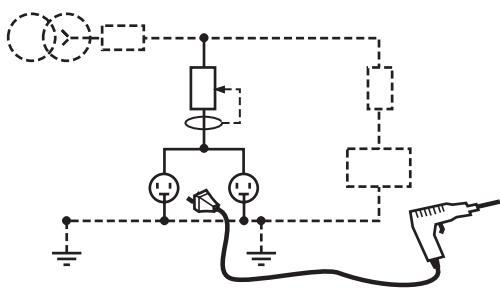


Fig. F62 : Circuit supplying socket-outlets

7.3 High-sensitivity RCDs

According to IEC 60364-4-41, high sensitivity RCDs (≤ 30 mA) must be used for protection of socket-outlets with rated current ≤ 20 A in all locations. The use of such RCDs is also recommended in the following cases:

- Socket-outlet circuits in wet locations at all current ratings
 - Socket-outlet circuits in temporary installations
 - Circuits supplying laundry rooms and swimming pools
 - Supply circuits to work-sites, caravans, pleasure boats, and travelling fairs
- See 2.2 and chapter P, al section 3

(1) The tables are those shown in Sub-clause 6.2 (Figures F41 to F44). However, the table of correction factors (Figure F57) which takes into account the ratio S_{ph}/SPE , and of the type of circuit (3-ph 3-wire; 3-ph 4-wire; 1-ph 2-wire) as well as conductor material, is specific to the IT system, and differs from that for TN.

7.4 Protection in high fire-risk locations

Protection by a RCD of sensitivity $\leq 500 \text{ mA}$ at the origin of the circuit supplying the fire-risk locations is mandatory in some countries (see **Fig. F59**).

A preferred sensitivity of 300 mA may be adopted.

F35

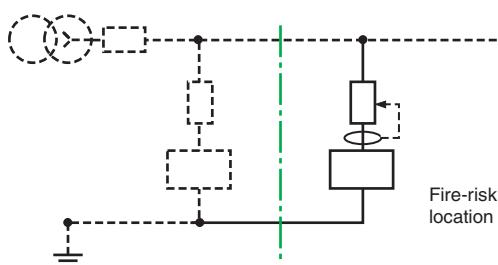


Fig. F59 : Fire-risk location

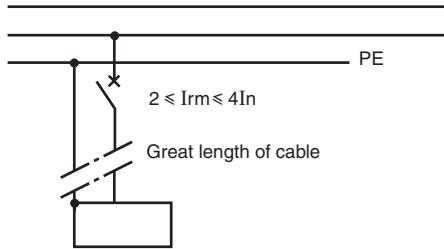


Fig. F60 : A circuit-breaker with low-set instantaneous magnetic trip

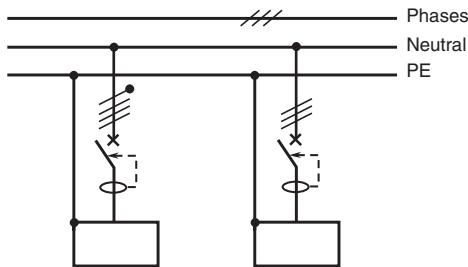


Fig. F61 : RCD protection

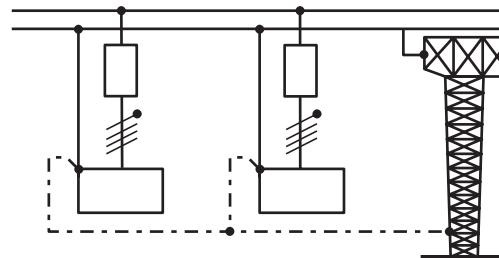


Fig. F62 : Improved equipotential bonding

8 Residual current devices (RCDs)

8.1 Types of RCDs

Residual current devices (RCD) are commonly incorporated in or associated with the following components:

- Industrial-type moulded-case circuit-breakers (MCCB) and air circuit-breakers (ACB) conforming to IEC 60947-2 and its appendix B and M
- Industrial type miniature circuit-breakers (MCB) conforming to IEC 60947-2 and its appendix B and M
- Household and similar miniature circuit-breakers (MCB) complying with IEC 60898, IEC 61008, IEC 61009
- Residual load switch conforming to particular national standards
- Relays with separate toroidal (ring-type) current transformers, conforming to IEC 60947-2 Appendix M

RCDs are mandatorily used at the origin of TT-earthed installations, where their ability to discriminate with other RCDs allows selective tripping, thereby ensuring the level of service continuity required.

F36

Industrial circuit-breakers with an integrated RCD are covered in IEC 60947-2 and its appendix B

Industrial type circuit-breakers with integrated or adaptable RCD module (see Fig. F63)



Industrial type circuit-breaker
Vigi Compact



Multi 9 DIN-rail industrial
Circuit-breaker with adaptable Vigi RCD module



Fig. F63 : Industrial-type CB with RCD module

Adaptable residual current circuit-breakers, including DIN-rail mounted units (e.g. Compact or Multi 9), are available, to which may be associated an auxiliary RCD module (e.g. Vigi).

The ensemble provides a comprehensive range of protective functions (isolation, protection against short-circuit, overload, and earth-fault).

Household or domestic circuit-breakers with an integrated RCD are covered in IEC 60898, IEC 61008 and IEC 61009

Household and similar miniature circuit-breakers with RCD (see Fig. F64)



The incoming-supply circuit-breaker can also have time-delayed characteristics and integrate a RCD (type S).



"Monobloc" Déclic Vigi residual current circuit-breakers intended for protection of terminal socket-outlet circuits in domestic and tertiary sector applications.

Fig. F64 : Domestic residual current circuit-breakers (RCCBs) for earth leakage protection

Residual current load break switches are covered by particular national standards. RCDs with separate toroidal current transformers are standardized in IEC 60947-2 appendix M

Residual current circuit-breakers and RCDs with separate toroidal current transformer (see Fig. F65)

RCDs with separate toroidal CTs can be used in association with circuit-breakers or contactors.

F37



Fig. F65 : RCDs with separate toroidal current transformers (Vigirex)

8.2 Description

Principle

The essential features are shown schematically in **Figure F66** below.

A magnetic core encompasses all the current-carrying conductors of an electric circuit and the magnetic flux generated in the core will depend at every instant on the arithmetical sum of the currents; the currents passing in one direction being considered as positive (I_1), while those passing in the opposite direction will be negative (I_2).

In a normally healthy circuit $I_1 + I_2 = 0$ and there will be no flux in the magnetic core, and zero e.m.f. in its coil.

An earth-fault current I_d will pass through the core to the fault, but will return to the source via the earth, or via protective conductors in a TN-earthed system.

The current balance in the conductors passing through the magnetic core therefore no longer exists, and the difference gives rise to a magnetic flux in the core.

The difference current is known as the “residual” current and the principle is referred to as the “residual current” principle.

The resultant alternating flux in the core induces an e.m.f. in its coil, so that a current I_3 flows in the tripping-device operating coil. If the residual current exceeds the value required to operate the tripping device either directly or via an electronic relay, then the associated circuit-breaker will trip.

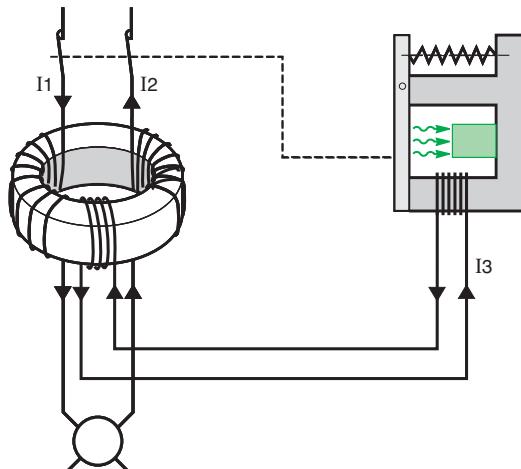


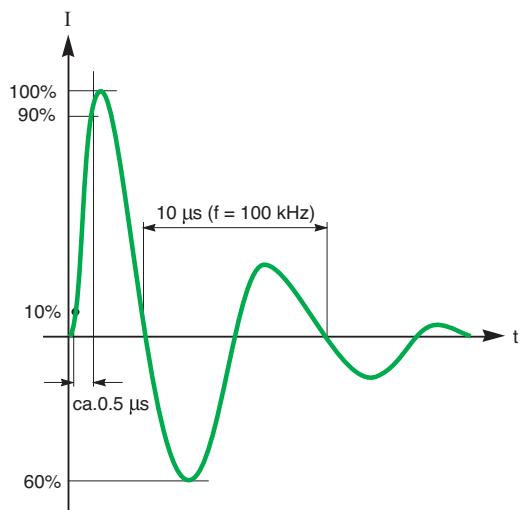
Fig. F66 : The principle of RCD operation

8.3 Sensitivity of RDCs to disturbances

In certain cases, aspects of the environment can disturb the correct operation of RCDs:

- **“nuisance” tripping:** Break in power supply without the situation being really hazardous. This type of tripping is often repetitive, causing major inconvenience and detrimental to the quality of the user's electrical power supply.
- **non-tripping, in the event of a hazard.** Less perceptible than nuisance tripping, these malfunctions must still be examined carefully since they undermine user safety. This is why international standards define 3 categories of RCDs according to their immunity to this type of disturbance (see below).

F38

Fig. F67 : Standardized 0.5 μ s/100 kHz current transient wave

Main disturbance types

Permanent earth leakage currents

Every LV installation has a permanent leakage current to earth, which is either due to:

- Unbalance of the intrinsic capacitance between live conductors and earth for three-phase circuits or
- Capacitance between live conductors and earth for single-phase circuits

The larger the installation the greater its capacitance with consequently increased leakage current.

The capacitive current to earth is sometimes increased significantly by filtering capacitors associated with electronic equipment (automation, IT and computer-based systems, etc.).

In the absence of more precise data, permanent leakage current in a given installation can be estimated from the following values, measured at 230 V 50 Hz:

Single-phase or three-phase line: 1.5 mA /100m

- Heating floor: 1mA / kW
- Fax terminal, printer: 1 mA
- Microcomputer, workstation: 2 mA
- Copy machine: 1.5 mA

Since RCDs complying with IEC and many national standards may operate under, the limitation of permanent leakage current to 0.25 I_n, by sub-division of circuits will, in practice, eliminate any unwanted tripping.

For very particular cases, such as the extension, or partial renovation of extended IT-earthed installations, the manufacturers must be consulted.

High frequency components (harmonics, transients, etc.), are generated by computer equipment power supplies, converters, motors with speed regulators, fluorescent lighting systems and in the vicinity of high power switching devices and reactive energy compensation banks.

Part of these high frequency currents may flow to earth through parasitic capacitances. Although not hazardous for the user, these currents can still cause the tripping of differential devices.

Energization

The initial energization of the capacitances mentioned above gives rise to high frequency transient currents of very short duration, similar to that shown in **Figure F67**.

The sudden occurrence of a first-fault on an IT-earthed system also causes transient earth-leakage currents at high frequency, due to the sudden rise of the two healthy phases to phase/voltage above earth.

Common mode overvoltages

Electrical networks are subjected to overvoltages due to lightning strikes or to abrupt changes of system operating conditions (faults, fuse operation, switching, etc.).

These sudden changes often cause large transient voltages and currents in inductive and capacitive circuits. Records have established that, on LV systems, overvoltages remain generally below 6 kV, and that they can be adequately represented by the conventional 1.2/50 μs impulse wave (see **Fig. F68**).

These overvoltages give rise to transient currents represented by a current impulse wave of the conventional 8/20 μs form, having a peak value of several tens of amperes (see **Fig. F69**).

The transient currents flow to earth via the capacitances of the installation.

Non-sinusoidal fault currents

Type AC, A, B

Standard IEC 60755 (General requirements for residual current operated protective devices) defines three types of RCD depending on the characteristics of the fault current:

- Type AC

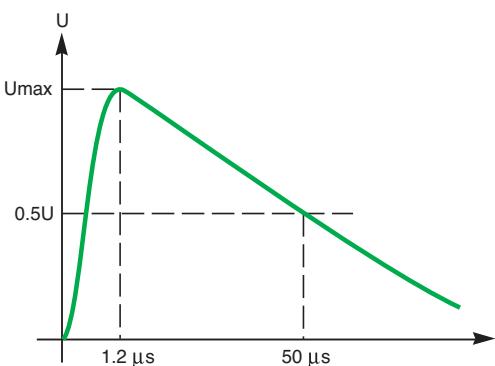
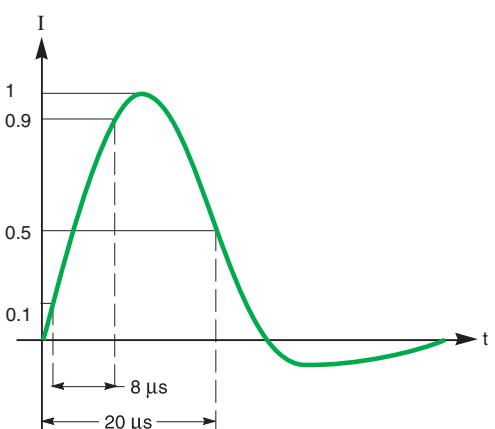
RCD for which tripping is ensured for residual sinusoidal alternating currents.

- Type A

RCD for which tripping is ensured:

- for residual sinusoidal alternating currents,

- for residual pulsating direct currents,

Fig. F68 : Standardized 1.2/50 μ s voltage transient waveFig. F69 : Standardized current-impulse wave 8/20 μ s

8 Residual current devices (RCDs)

■ Type B

RCD for which tripping is ensured:

- as for type A,
- for pure direct residual currents which may result from three-phase rectifying circuits.

Cold: in the cases of temperatures under - 5 °C, very high sensitivity electromechanical relays in the RCD may be “welded” by the condensation – freezing action.

Type “Si” devices can operate under temperatures down to - 25 °C.

Atmospheres with high concentrations of chemicals or dust: the special alloys used to make the RCDs can be notably damaged by corrosion. Dust can also block the movement of mechanical parts.

See the measures to be taken according to the levels of severity defined by standards in **Fig. F70**.

Regulations define the choice of earth leakage protection and its implementation. The main reference texts are as follows:

■ Standard IEC 60364-3:

- This gives a classification (AFx) for external influences in the presence of corrosive or polluting substances.
- It defines the choice of materials to be used according to extreme influences.

F39

	Disturbed network	Super-immunized residual current protections Type A if:	SiE residual current protections	SiE residual current protections	SiE residual current protections
Influence of the electrical network				+ Appropriate additional protection (sealed cabinet or unit)	+ Appropriate additional protection (sealed cabinet or unit + overpressure)
Clean network		Standard immunized residual current protections Type AC			
		AF1	AF2	AF3	AF4
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ External influences: negligible, ■ Equipment characteristics: normal. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ External influences: presence of corrosive or polluting atmospheric agents, ■ Equipment characteristics: e.g. conformity with salt mist or atmospheric pollution tests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ External influences: intermittent or accidental action of certain common chemicals, ■ Equipment characteristics: corrosion protection. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ External influences: permanent action of corrosive or polluting chemicals ■ Equipment characteristics: specifically studied according to the type of products.

Examples of exposed sites	External influences
Iron and steel works.	Presence of sulfur, sulfur vapor, hydrogen sulfide.
Marinas, trading ports, boats, sea edges, naval shipyards.	Salt atmospheres, humid outside, low temperatures.
Swimming pools, hospitals, food & beverage.	Chlorinated compounds.
Petrochemicals.	Hydrogen, combustion gases, nitrogen oxides.
Breeding facilities, tips.	Hydrogen sulfide.

Fig. F70 : External influence classification according to IEC 60364-3 standard

Immunity level for Merlin Gerin residual current devices

The Merlin Gerin range comprises various types of RCDs allowing earth leakage protection to be adapted to each application. The table below indicates the choices to be made according to the type of probable disturbances at the point of installation.

Device type	Nuisance trippings High frequency leakage current	Non-trippings			
		Fault current		Low temperatures (down to - 25 °C)	Corrosion Dust
		Rectified alternating	Pure direct		
AC	■				
A	■	■		■	
SI	■ ■ ■	■		■	
SiE	■ ■ ■	■		■	■
B	■ ■ ■	■	■	■	

Fig. F71 : Immunity level of Merlin Gerin RCDs**Immunity to nuisance tripping**

Type Si/SIE RCDs have been designed to avoid nuisance tripping or non-tripping in case of polluted network, lightning effect, high frequency currents, RF waves, etc.

Figure F72 below indicates the levels of tests undergone by this type of RCDs.

Disturbance type	Rated test wave	Immunity Multi9 : ID-RCCB, DPN Vigi, Vigi C60, Vigi C120, Vigi NG125 SI / SiE type
Continuous disturbances		
Harmonics	1 kHz	Earth leakage current = 8 x I n
Transient disturbances		
Lightning induced overvoltage	1.2 / 50 µs pulse (IEC/EN 61000-4-5)	4.5 kV between conductors 5.5 kV / earth
Lightning induced current	8 / 20 µs pulse (IEC/EN 61008)	5 kA peak
Switching transient, indirect lightning currents	0.5 µs / 100 kHz "ring wave" (IEC/EN 61008)	400 A peak
Downstream surge arrester operation, capacitance loading	10 ms pulse	500 A
Electromagnetic compatibility		
Inductive load switchings fluorescent lights, motors, etc.)	Repeated bursts (IEC 61000-4-4)	4 kV / 400 kHz
Fluorescent lights, thyristor controlled circuits, etc.	RF conducted waves (IEC 61000-4-6)	66 mA (15 kHz to 150 kHz) 30 V (150 kHz to 230 MHz)
RF waves (TV& radio, broadcast, telecommunications,etc.)	RF radiated waves 80 MHz to 1 GHz (IEC 61000-4-3)	30 V / m

Fig. F72 : Immunity to nuisance tripping tests undergone by Merlin Gerin RCDs

Recommendations concerning the installation of RCDs with separate toroidal current transformers

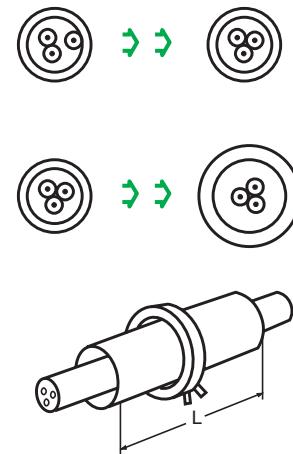
The detector of residual current is a closed magnetic circuit (usually circular) of very high magnetic permeability, on which is wound a coil of wire, the ensemble constituting a toroidal (or ring-type) current transformer.

Because of its high permeability, any small deviation from perfect symmetry of the conductors encompassed by the core, and the proximity of ferrous material (steel enclosure, chassis members, etc.) can affect the balance of magnetic forces sufficiently, at times of large load currents (motor-starting current, transformer energizing current surge, etc.) to cause unwanted tripping of the RCD.

Unless particular measures are taken, the ratio of operating current $I_{\Delta n}$ to maximum phase current I_{ph} (max.) is generally less than 1/1,000.

This limit can be increased substantially (i.e. the response can be desensitized) by adopting the measures shown in **Figure F73**, and summarized in **Figure F74**.

F41



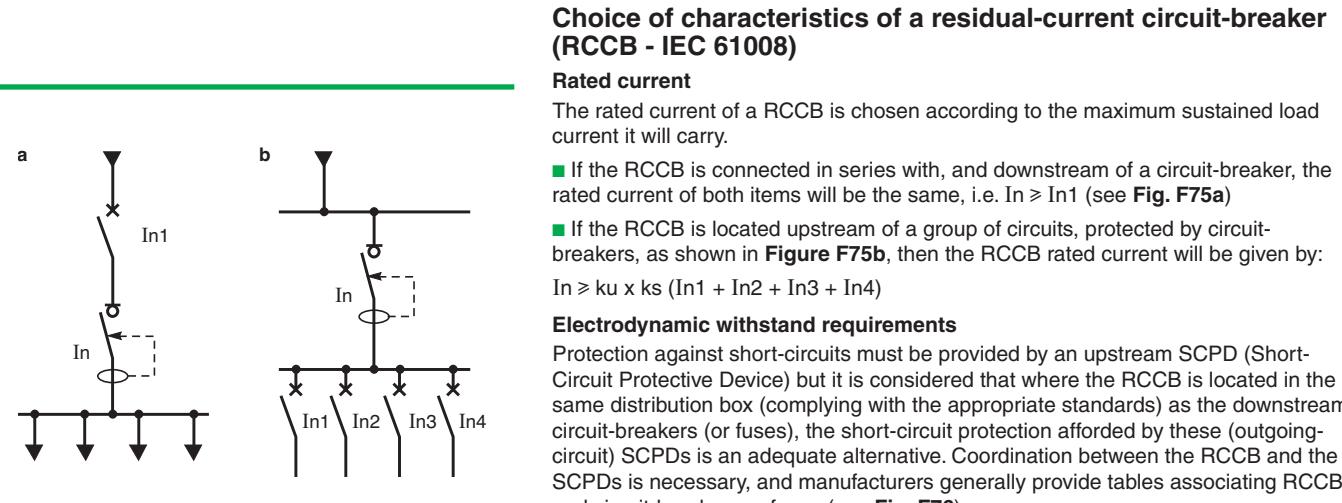
$L = \text{twice the diameter of the magnetic ring core}$

Fig. F73 : Three measures to reduce the ratio $I_{\Delta n}/I_{ph}$ (max.)

Measures	Diameter (mm)	Sensitivity diminution factor
Careful centralizing of cables through the ring core		3
Oversizing of the ring core	$\varnothing 50 \rightarrow \varnothing 100$	2
	$\varnothing 80 \rightarrow \varnothing 200$	2
	$\varnothing 120 \rightarrow \varnothing 300$	6
Use of a steel or soft-iron shielding sleeve	$\varnothing 50$	4
■ Of wall thickness 0.5 mm	$\varnothing 80$	3
■ Of length 2 x inside diameter of ring core	$\varnothing 120$	3
■ Completely surrounding the conductors and overlapping the circular core equally at both ends	$\varnothing 200$	2

These measures can be combined. By carefully centralizing the cables in a ring core of 200 mm diameter, where a 50 mm core would be large enough, and using a sleeve, the ratio 1/1,000 could become 1/30,000.

Fig. F74 : Means of reducing the ratio $I_{\Delta n}/I_{ph}$ (max.)

**Fig. F75** : Residual current circuit-breakers (RCCBs)**Circuit-breaker and RCCB association – maxi I_{sc} (r.m.s) value in kA**

Upstream circuit-breaker		DT40	DT40N	C60N	C60H	C60L	C120N	C120H	NG125N	NG125H
Downstream RCCB	2P 230V	I 20A IN-A 40A	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	3	4.5	4.5	4.5
		IN-A 63A	6	10	20	30	10	10	15	15
		I 100A					15	15	15	15
	4P 400V	I 20A IN-A 40A IN-A 63A	4.5 6 6	4.5 10 10	4.5 15 15	4.5 15 15	2 7 7	3 7 7	3 15 15	3 15 15
		NG 125NA					10	16	25	50

Fuses and RCCB association – maxi I_{sc} (r.m.s) value in kA

gG upstream fuse		20A	63A	100A	125A
Downstream RCCB	2P 230V	I 20A IN-A 40A IN-A 63A I 100A	8 30 30 6	20 20	
	4P 400V	I 20A IN-A 40A IN-A 63A NG 125NA	8 30 30	20 20	50

Fig. F76 : Typical manufacturers coordination table for RCCBs, circuit-breakers, and fuses (Merlin Gerin products)

Chapter G

Sizing and protection of conductors

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Component parts of an electric circuit and its protection are determined such that all normal and abnormal operating conditions are satisfied

G2

1.1 Methodology and definition

Methodology (see Fig. G1)

Following a preliminary analysis of the power requirements of the installation, as described in Chapter B Clause 4, a study of cabling⁽¹⁾ and its electrical protection is undertaken, starting at the origin of the installation, through the intermediate stages to the final circuits.

The cabling and its protection at each level must satisfy several conditions at the same time, in order to ensure a safe and reliable installation, e.g. it must:

- Carry the permanent full load current, and normal short-time overcurrents
- Not cause voltage drops likely to result in an inferior performance of certain loads, for example: an excessively long acceleration period when starting a motor, etc.

Moreover, the protective devices (circuit-breakers or fuses) must:

- Protect the cabling and busbars for all levels of overcurrent, up to and including short-circuit currents
- Ensure protection of persons against indirect contact hazards, particularly in TN- and IT- earthed systems, where the length of circuits may limit the magnitude of short-circuit currents, thereby delaying automatic disconnection (it may be remembered that TT- earthed installations are necessarily protected at the origin by a RCD, generally rated at 300 mA).

The cross-sectional areas of conductors are determined by the general method described in Sub-clause 2 of this Chapter. Apart from this method some national standards may prescribe a minimum cross-sectional area to be observed for reasons of mechanical endurance. Particular loads (as noted in Chapter N) require that the cable supplying them be oversized, and that the protection of the circuit be likewise modified.

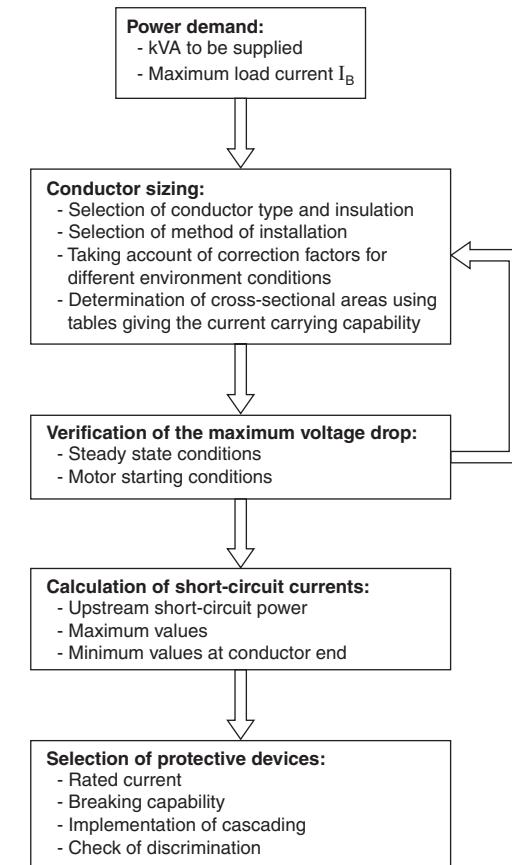


Fig. G1 : Flow-chart for the selection of cable size and protective device rating for a given circuit

(1) The term "cabling" in this chapter, covers all insulated conductors, including multi-core and single-core cables and insulated wires drawn into conduits, etc.

1 General

Definitions

Maximum load current: I_B

- At the final circuits level, this current corresponds to the rated kVA of the load. In the case of motor-starting, or other loads which take a high in-rush current, particularly where frequent starting is concerned (e.g. lift motors, resistance-type spot welding, and so on) the cumulative thermal effects of the overcurrents must be taken into account. Both cables and thermal type relays are affected.
- At all upstream circuit levels this current corresponds to the kVA to be supplied, which takes account of the factors of simultaneity (diversity) and utilization, k_s and k_u respectively, as shown in **Figure G2**.

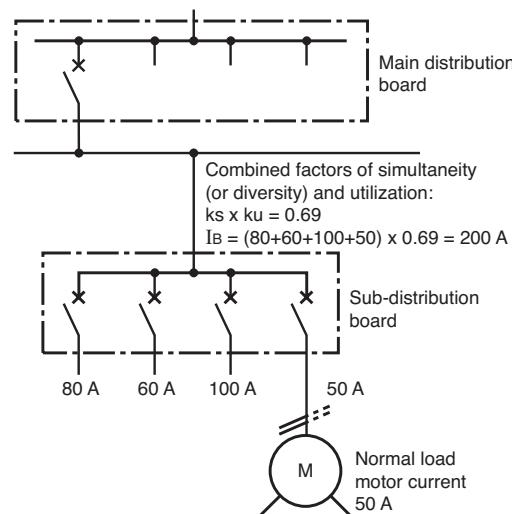


Fig. G2 : Calculation of maximum load current I_B

G3

Maximum permissible current: I_z

This is the maximum value of current that the cabling for the circuit can carry indefinitely, without reducing its normal life expectancy.

The current depends, for a given cross sectional area of conductors, on several parameters:

- Constitution of the cable and cable-way (Cu or Alu conductors; PVC or EPR etc. insulation; number of active conductors)
- Ambient temperature
- Method of installation
- Influence of neighbouring circuits

Overcurrents

An overcurrent occurs each time the value of current exceeds the maximum load current I_B for the load concerned.

This current must be cut off with a rapidity that depends upon its magnitude, if permanent damage to the cabling (and appliance if the overcurrent is due to a defective load component) is to be avoided.

Overcurrents of relatively short duration can however, occur in normal operation; two types of overcurrent are distinguished:

- Overloads
These overcurrents can occur in healthy electric circuits, for example, due to a number of small short-duration loads which occasionally occur co-incidentally: motor starting loads, and so on. If either of these conditions persists however beyond a given period (depending on protective-relay settings or fuse ratings) the circuit will be automatically cut off.
- Short-circuit currents
These currents result from the failure of insulation between live conductors or/and between live conductors and earth (on systems having low-impedance-earthed neutrals) in any combination, viz:
 - 3 phases short-circuited (and to neutral and/or earth, or not)
 - 2 phases short-circuited (and to neutral and/or earth, or not)
 - 1 phase short-circuited to neutral (and/or to earth)

1.2 Overcurrent protection principles

A protective device is provided at the origin of the circuit concerned (see Fig. G3 and Fig. G4).

- Acting to cut-off the current in a time shorter than that given by the I^2t characteristic of the circuit cabling
- But allowing the maximum load current I_B to flow indefinitely

The characteristics of insulated conductors when carrying short-circuit currents can, for periods up to 5 seconds following short-circuit initiation, be determined approximately by the formula:

$I^2t = k^2 S^2$ which shows that the allowable heat generated is proportional to the squared cross-sectional-area of the conductor.

where

t: Duration of short-circuit current (seconds)

S: Cross sectional area of insulated conductor (mm^2)

I: Short-circuit current (A r.m.s.)

k: Insulated conductor constant (values of k^2 are given in Figure G52)

For a given insulated conductor, the maximum permissible current varies according to the environment. For instance, for a high ambient temperature ($\theta_{a1} > \theta_{a2}$), I_z1 is less than I_z2 (see Fig. G5). θ means "temperature".

Note:

- I_{sc} : 3-phase short-circuit current
- I_{scb} : rated 3-ph. short-circuit breaking current of the circuit-breaker
- I_r (or I_{rh})⁽¹⁾: regulated "nominal" current level; e.g. a 50 A nominal circuit-breaker can be regulated to have a protective range, i.e. a conventional overcurrent tripping level (see Fig. G6 opposite page) similar to that of a 30 A circuit-breaker.

G4

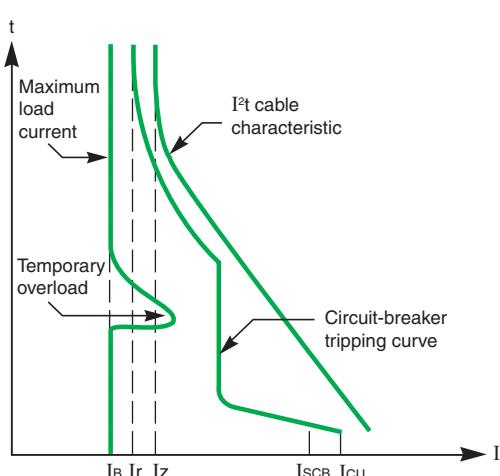


Fig. G3 : Circuit protection by circuit-breaker

1.3 Practical values for a protective scheme

The following methods are based on rules laid down in the IEC standards, and are representative of the practices in many countries.

General rules

A protective device (circuit-breaker or fuse) functions correctly if:

- Its nominal current or its setting current I_n is greater than the maximum load current I_B but less than the maximum permissible current I_z for the circuit, i.e. $I_B < I_n < I_z$ corresponding to zone "a" in Figure G6
- Its tripping current I_2 "conventional" setting is less than 1.45 I_z which corresponds to zone "b" in Figure G6

The "conventional" setting tripping time may be 1 hour or 2 hours according to local standards and the actual value selected for I_2 . For fuses, I_2 is the current (denoted If) which will operate the fuse in the conventional time.

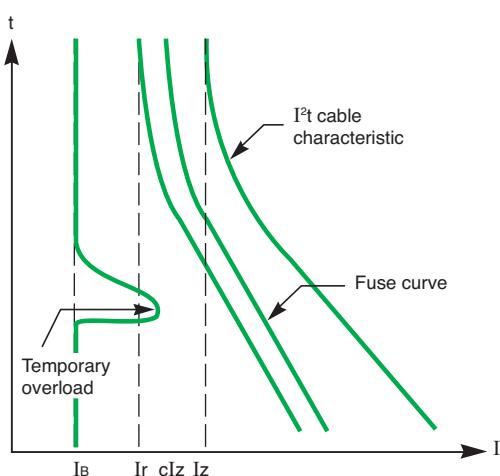
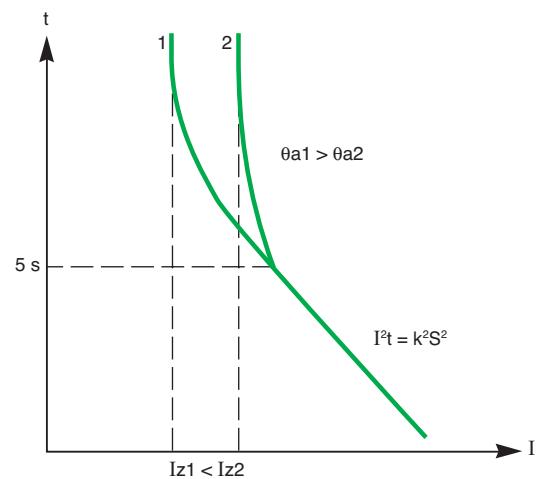


Fig. G4 : Circuit protection by fuses

Fig. G5 : I^2t characteristic of an insulated conductor at two different ambient temperatures

(1) Both designations are commonly used in different standards.

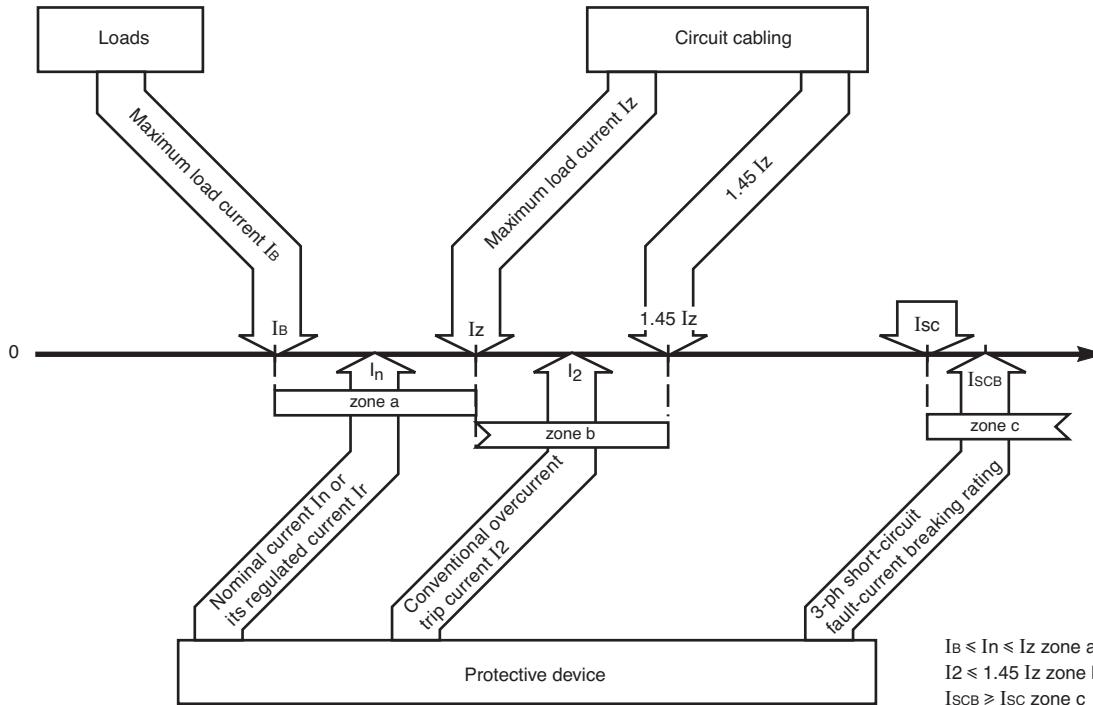


Fig. G6 : Current levels for determining circuit breaker or fuse characteristics

- Its 3-phase short-circuit fault-current breaking rating is greater than the 3-phase short-circuit current existing at its point of installation. This corresponds to zone "c" in Figure G6.

Applications

■ Protection by circuit-breaker

By virtue of its high level of precision the current I_2 is always less than $1.45 I_n$ (or $1.45 I_r$) so that the condition $I_2 \leq 1.45 I_z$ (as noted in the "general rules" above) will always be respected.

□ Particular case

If the circuit-breaker itself does not protect against overloads, it is necessary to ensure that, at a time of lowest value of short-circuit current, the overcurrent device protecting the circuit will operate correctly. This particular case is examined in Sub-clause 5.1.

■ Protection by fuses

The condition $I_2 \leq 1.45 I_z$ must be taken into account, where I_2 is the fusing (melting level) current, equal to $k_2 \times I_n$ (k_2 ranges from 1.6 to 1.9) depending on the particular fuse concerned.

A further factor k_3 has been introduced ($k_3 = \frac{k_2}{1.45}$) such that $I_2 \leq 1.45 I_z$ will be valid if $I_n \leq I_z/k_3$.

For fuses type gG:

$I_n < 16 \text{ A} \rightarrow k_3 = 1.31$

$I_n \geq 16 \text{ A} \rightarrow k_3 = 1.10$

Moreover, the short-circuit current breaking capacity of the fuse I_{scf} must exceed the level of 3-phase short-circuit current at the point of installation of the fuse(s).

■ Association of different protective devices

The use of protective devices which have fault-current ratings lower than the fault level existing at their point of installation are permitted by IEC and many national standards in the following conditions:

- There exists upstream, another protective device which has the necessary short-circuit rating, and
- The amount of energy allowed to pass through the upstream device is less than that which can be withstood without damage by the downstream device and all associated cabling and appliances.

Criteria for circuit-breakers:
 $I_B \leq I_n \leq I_z$ and $I_{SCB} \geq Isc$.

Criteria for fuses:
 $I_B \leq I_n \leq I_z/k_3$ and $I_{scf} \geq Isc$.

In practice this arrangement is generally exploited in:

- The association of circuit-breakers/fuses
- The technique known as "cascading" or "series rating" in which the strong current-limiting performance of certain circuit-breakers effectively reduces the severity of downstream short-circuits

Possible combinations which have been tested in laboratories are indicated in certain manufacturers catalogues.

1.4 Location of protective devices

A protective device is, in general, required at the origin of each circuit

G6

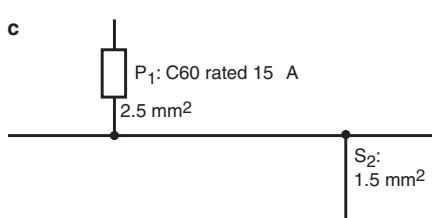
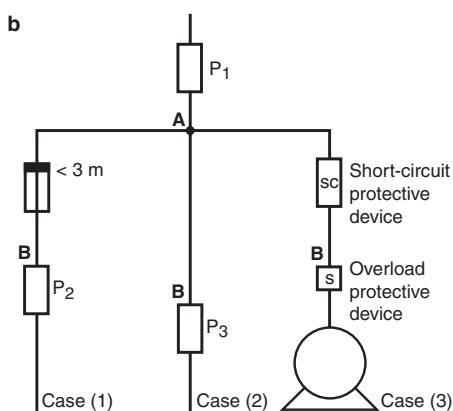
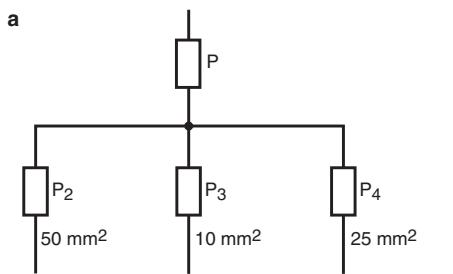


Fig. G7 : Location of protective devices

Possible alternative locations in certain circumstances (see Fig. G7b)

The protective device may be placed part way along the circuit:

- If AB is not in proximity to combustible material, and
- If no socket-outlets or branch connections are taken from AB

Three cases may be useful in practice:

- Consider case (1) in the diagram
- AB ≤ 3 metres, and
- AB has been installed to reduce to a practical minimum the risk of a short-circuit (wires in heavy steel conduit for example)
- Consider case (2)
- The upstream device P1 protects the length AB against short-circuits in accordance with Sub-clause 5.1
- Consider case (3)
- The overload device (S) is located adjacent to the load. This arrangement is convenient for motor circuits. The device (S) constitutes the control (start/stop) and overload protection of the motor while (SC) is: either a circuit-breaker (designed for motor protection) or fuses type aM
- The short-circuit protection (SC) located at the origin of the circuit conforms with the principles of Sub-clause 5.1

Circuits with no protection (see Fig. G7c)

Either

- The protective device P1 is calibrated to protect the cable S2 against overloads and short-circuits

Or

- Where the breaking of a circuit constitutes a risk, e.g.
- Excitation circuits of rotating machines
- Circuits of large lifting electromagnets
- the secondary circuits of current transformers

No circuit interruption can be tolerated, and the protection of the cabling is of secondary importance.

1.5 Conductors in parallel

Conductors of the same cross-sectional-area, the same length, and of the same material, can be connected in parallel.

The maximum permissible current is the sum of the individual-core maximum currents, taking into account the mutual heating effects, method of installation, etc. Protection against overload and short-circuits is identical to that for a single-cable circuit.

The following precautions should be taken to avoid the risk of short-circuits on the paralleled cables:

- Additional protection against mechanical damage and against humidity, by the introduction of supplementary protection
- The cable route should be chosen so as to avoid close proximity to combustible materials

2 Practical method for determining the smallest allowable cross-sectional area of circuit conductors

2.1 General

The reference international standard for the study of cabling is IEC 60364-5-52: "Electrical installation of buildings - Part 5-52: Selection and erection of electrical equipment - Wiring system".

A summary of this standard is presented here, with examples of the most commonly used methods of installation. The current-carrying capacities of conductors in all different situations are given in annex A of the standard. A simplified method for use of the tables of annex A is proposed in informative annex B of the standard.

2.2 General method for cables

Possible methods of installation for different types of conductors or cables

The different admissible methods of installation are listed in **Figure G8**, in conjunction with the different types of conductors and cables.

G7

Conductors and cables		Method of installation							
		Without fixings	Clipped direct	Conduit	Cable trunking (including skirting trunking, flush floor trunking)	Cable ducting	Cable ladder Cable tray Cable brackets	On insulators	Support wire
Bare conductors		-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
Insulated conductors		-	-	+	+	+	-	+	-
Sheathed cables (including armoured and mineral insulated)	Multi-core	+	+	+	+	+	+	0	+
	Single-core	0	+	+	+	+	+	0	+

+ Permitted.

- Not permitted.

0 Not applicable, or not normally used in practice.

Fig. G8 : Selection of wiring systems (table 52-1 of IEC 60364-5-52)

Possible methods of installation for different situations:

Different methods of installation can be implemented in different situations. The possible combinations are presented in **Figure G9**.

The number given in this table refer to the different wiring systems considered.
(see also **Fig. G10**)

Situations	Method of installation								
	Without fixings	With fixings	Conduit	Cable trunking (including skirting trunking, flush floor trunking)	Cable ducting	Cable ladder cable tray, cable brackets	On insulators	Support wire	
Building voids	40, 46, 15, 16	0	15, 16, 41, 42	—	43	30, 31, 32, 33, 34	—	—	
Cable channel	56	56	54, 55	0	44, 45	30, 31, 32, 33, 34	—	—	
Buried in ground	72, 73	0	70, 71	—		70, 71	0	—	
Embedded in structure	57, 58	3	1, 2, 59, 60	50, 51, 52, 53	44, 45	0	—	—	
Surface mounted	—	20, 21	4, 5	6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14 22, 23	6, 7, 8, 9	30, 31, 32, 33, 34	36	—	
Overhead	—	—	0	10, 11	—	30, 31, 32 33, 34	36	35	
Immersed	80	80	0	—	0	0	—	—	

— Not permitted.

0 Not applicable, or not normally used in practice.

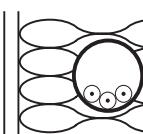
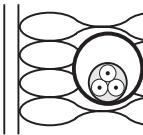
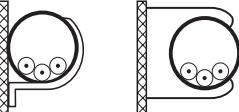
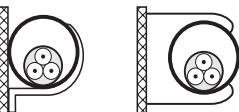
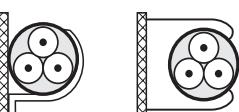
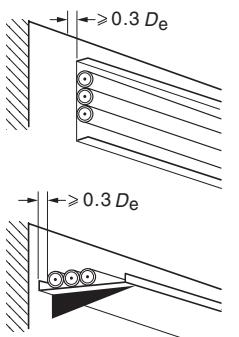
Fig. G9 : Erection of wiring systems (table 52-2 of IEC 60364-5-52)

2 Practical method for determining the smallest allowable cross-sectional area of circuit conductors

Examples of wiring systems and reference methods of installations

An illustration of some of the many different wiring systems and methods of installation is provided in Figure G10.

Several reference methods are defined (with code letters A to G), grouping installation methods having the same characteristics relative to the current-carrying capacities of the wiring systems.

Item No.	Methods of installation	Description	Reference method of installation to be used to obtain current-carrying capacity
1	 Room	Insulated conductors or single-core cables in conduit in a thermally insulated wall	A1
2	 Room	Multi-core cables in conduit in a thermally insulated wall	A2
4		Insulated conductors or single-core cables in conduit on a wooden, or masonry wall or spaced less than 0,3 x conduit diameter from it	B1
5		Multi-core cable in conduit on a wooden, or masonry wall or spaced less than 0,3 x conduit diameter from it	B2
20		Single-core or multi-core cables: - fixed on, or spaced less than 0.3 x cable diameter from a wooden wall	C
30		On unperforated tray	C

G9

Fig. G10 : Examples of methods of installation (part of table 52-3 of IEC 60364-5-52) (continued on next page)

Item No.	Methods of installation	Description	Reference method of installation to be used to obtain current-carrying capacity
31		On perforated tray	E or F
G10		Bare or insulated conductors on insulators	G
36		Multi-core cables in conduit or in cable ducting in the ground	D
70		Single-core cable in conduit or in cable ducting in the ground	D
71			

Fig. G10 : Examples of methods of installation (part of table 52-3 of IEC 60364-5-52)

Maximum operating temperature:

The current-carrying capacities given in the subsequent tables have been determined so that the maximum insulation temperature is not exceeded for sustained periods of time.

For different type of insulation material, the maximum admissible temperature is given in **Figure G11**.

Type of insulation	Temperature limit °C
Polyvinyl-chloride (PVC)	70 at the conductor
Cross-linked polyethylene (XLPE) and ethylene propylene rubber (EPR)	90 at the conductor
Mineral (PVC covered or bare exposed to touch)	70 at the sheath
Mineral (bare not exposed to touch and not in contact with combustible material)	105 at the sheath

Fig. G11 : Maximum operating temperatures for types of insulation (table 52-4 of IEC 60364-5-52)

Correction factors:

In order to take environment or special conditions of installation into account, correction factors have been introduced.

The cross sectional area of cables is determined using the rated load current I_B divided by different correction factors, k_1, k_2, \dots :

$$I'_B = \frac{I_B}{k_1 \cdot k_2 \dots}$$

I'_B is the corrected load current, to be compared to the current-carrying capacity of the considered cable.

2 Practical method for determining the smallest allowable cross-sectional area of circuit conductors

■ Ambient temperature

The current-carrying capacities of cables in the air are based on an average air temperature equal to 30 °C. For other temperatures, the correction factor is given in **Figure G12** for PVC, EPR and XLPE insulation material.

The related correction factor is here noted k_1 .

Ambient temperature °C	Insulation	
	PVC	XLPE and EPR
10	1.22	1.15
15	1.17	1.12
20	1.12	1.08
25	1.06	1.04
35	0.94	0.96
40	0.87	0.91
45	0.79	0.87
50	0.71	0.82
55	0.61	0.76
60	0.50	0.71
65	-	0.65
70	-	0.58
75	-	0.50
80	-	0.41

Fig. G12 : Correction factors for ambient air temperatures other than 30 °C to be applied to the current-carrying capacities for cables in the air (from table A.52-14 of IEC 60364-5-52)

G11

The current-carrying capacities of cables in the ground are based on an average ground temperature equal to 20 °C. For other temperatures, the correction factor is given in **Figure G13** for PVC, EPR and XLPE insulation material.

The related correction factor is here noted k_2 .

Ground temperature °C	Insulation	
	PVC	XLPE and EPR
10	1.10	1.07
15	1.05	1.04
25	0.95	0.96
30	0.89	0.93
35	0.84	0.89
40	0.77	0.85
45	0.71	0.80
50	0.63	0.76
55	0.55	0.71
60	0.45	0.65
65	-	0.60
70	-	0.53
75	-	0.46
80	-	0.38

Fig. G13 : Correction factors for ambient ground temperatures other than 20 °C to be applied to the current-carrying capacities for cables in ducts in the ground (from table A.52-15 of IEC 60364-5-52)

■ Soil thermal resistivity

The current-carrying capacities of cables in the ground are based on a ground resistivity equal to 2.5 K.m/W. For other values, the correction factor is given in **Figure G14**.

The related correction factor is here noted k3.

Thermal resistivity, K.m/W	1	1.5	2	2.5	3
Correction factor	1.18	1.1	1.05	1	0.96

Fig. G14 : Correction factors for cables in buried ducts for soil thermal resistivities other than 2.5 K.m/W to be applied to the current-carrying capacities for reference method D (table A52.16 of IEC 60364-5-52)

Based on experience, a relationship exist between the soil nature and resistivity. Then, empiric values of correction factors k3 are proposed in **Figure G15**, depending on the nature of soil.

Nature of soil	k3
Very wet soil (saturated)	1.21
Wet soil	1.13
Damp soil	1.05
Dry soil	1.00
Very dry soil (sunbaked)	0.86

Fig. G15 : Correction factor k3 depending on the nature of soil

■ Grouping of conductors or cables

The current-carrying capacities given in the subsequent tables relate to single circuits consisting of the following numbers of loaded conductors:

- Two insulated conductors or two single-core cables, or one twin-core cable (applicable to single-phase circuits);
- Three insulated conductors or three single-core cables, or one three-core cable (applicable to three-phase circuits).

Where more insulated conductors or cables are installed in the same group, a group reduction factor (here noted k4) shall be applied.

Examples are given in **Figures G16** to **G18** for different configurations (installation methods, in free air or in the ground).

Figure G16 gives the values of correction factor k4 for different configurations of unburied cables or conductors, grouping of more than one circuit or multi-core cables.

Arrangement (cables touching)	Number of circuits or multi-core cables												Reference methods	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	12	16	20		
Bunched in air, on a surface, embedded or enclosed	1.00	0.80	0.70	0.65	0.60	0.57	0.54	0.52	0.50	0.45	0.41	0.38	Methods A to F	
Single layer on wall, floor or unperforated tray	1.00	0.85	0.79	0.75	0.73	0.72	0.72	0.71	0.70	No further reduction factor for more than nine circuits or multi-core cables				Method C
Single layer fixed directly under a wooden ceiling	0.95	0.81	0.72	0.68	0.66	0.64	0.63	0.62	0.61					
Single layer on a perforated horizontal or vertical tray	1.00	0.88	0.82	0.77	0.75	0.73	0.73	0.72	0.72					
Single layer on ladder support or cleats etc.	1.00	0.87	0.82	0.80	0.80	0.79	0.79	0.78	0.78	Methods E and F				

Fig. G16 : Reduction factors for groups of more than one circuit or of more than one multi-core cable (table A.52-17 of IEC 60364-5-52)

2 Practical method for determining the smallest allowable cross-sectional area of circuit conductors

Figure G17 gives the values of correction factor k_4 for different configurations of unburied cables or conductors, for groups of more than one circuit of single-core cables in free air.

Method of installation			Number of tray	Number of three-phase circuits			Use as a multiplier to rating for
				1	2	3	
Perforated trays	31		1	0.98	0.91	0.87	Three cables in horizontal formation
			2	0.96	0.87	0.81	
			3	0.95	0.85	0.78	
Vertical perforated trays	31		1	0.96	0.86		Three cables in vertical formation
			2	0.95	0.84		
Ladder supports, cleats, etc...	32		1	1.00	0.97	0.96	Three cables in horizontal formation
			2	0.98	0.93	0.89	
			3	0.97	0.90	0.86	
Perforated trays	31		1	1.00	0.98	0.96	Three cables in trefoil formation
			2	0.97	0.93	0.89	
			3	0.96	0.92	0.86	
Vertical perforated trays	31		1	1.00	0.91	0.89	
			2	1.00	0.90	0.86	
Ladder supports, cleats, etc...	32		1	1.00	1.00	1.00	
			2	0.97	0.95	0.93	
			3	0.96	0.94	0.90	

Fig. G17 : Reduction factors for groups of more than one circuit of single-core cables to be applied to reference rating for one circuit of single-core cables in free air
- Method of installation F. (table A.52.21 of IEC 60364-5-52)

G13

Figure G18 gives the values of correction factor k4 for different configurations of cables or conductors laid directly in the ground.

Number of circuits	Cable to cable clearance (a) ^a				
	Nil (cables touching)	One cable diameter	0.125 m	0.25 m	0.5 m
2	0.75	0.80	0.85	0.90	0.90
3	0.65	0.70	0.75	0.80	0.85
4	0.60	0.60	0.70	0.75	0.80
5	0.55	0.55	0.65	0.70	0.80
6	0.50	0.55	0.60	0.70	0.80

^a Multi-core cables



^a Single-core cables

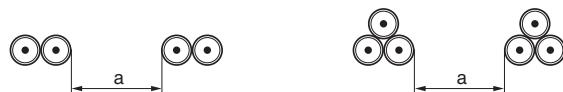


Fig. G18 : Reduction factors for more than one circuit, single-core or multi-core cables laid directly in the ground. Installation method D. (table 52-18 of IEC 60364-5-52)

■ Harmonic current

The current-carrying capacity of three-phase, 4-core or 5-core cables is based on the assumption that only 3 conductors are fully loaded.

However, when harmonic currents are circulating, the neutral current can be significant, and even higher than the phase currents. This is due to the fact that the 3rd harmonic currents of the three phases do not cancel each other, and sum up in the neutral conductor.

This of course affects the current-carrying capacity of the cable, and a correction factor noted here k5 shall be applied.

In addition, if the 3rd harmonic percentage h_3 is greater than 33%, the neutral current is greater than the phase current and the cable size selection is based on the neutral current. The heating effect of harmonic currents in the phase conductors has also to be taken into account.

The values of k5 depending on the 3rd harmonic content are given in **Figure G19**.

Third harmonic content of phase current %	Correction factor	
	Size selection is based on phase current	Size selection is based on neutral current
0 - 15	1.0	
15 - 33	0.86	
33 - 45		0.86
> 45		1.0

Fig. G19 : Correction factors for harmonic currents in four-core and five-core cables (table D.52.1 of IEC 60364-5-52)

Admissible current as a function of nominal cross-sectional area of conductors

IEC standard 60364-5-52 proposes extensive information in the form of tables giving the admissible currents as a function of cross-sectional area of cables. Many parameters are taken into account, such as the method of installation, type of insulation material, type of conductor material, number of loaded conductors.

2 Practical method for determining the smallest allowable cross-sectional area of circuit conductors

As an example, **Figure G20** gives the current-carrying capacities for different methods of installation of PVC insulation, three loaded copper or aluminium conductors, free air or in ground.

Nominal cross-sectional area of conductors (mm ²)	Installation methods					
	A1	A2	B1	B2	C	D
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Copper						
1.5	13.5	13	15.5	15	17.5	18
2.5	18	17.5	21	20	24	24
4	24	23	28	27	32	31
6	31	29	36	34	41	39
10	42	39	50	46	57	52
16	56	52	68	62	76	67
25	73	68	89	80	96	86
35	89	83	110	99	119	103
50	108	99	134	118	144	122
70	136	125	171	149	184	151
95	164	150	207	179	223	179
120	188	172	239	206	259	203
150	216	196	-	-	299	230
185	245	223	-	-	341	258
240	286	261	-	-	403	297
300	328	298	-	-	464	336
Aluminium						
2.5	14	13.5	16.5	15.5	18.5	18.5
4	18.5	17.5	22	21	25	24
6	24	23	28	27	32	30
10	32	31	39	36	44	40
16	43	41	53	48	59	52
25	57	53	70	62	73	66
35	70	65	86	77	90	80
50	84	78	104	92	110	94
70	107	98	133	116	140	117
95	129	118	161	139	170	138
120	149	135	186	160	197	157
150	170	155	-	-	227	178
185	194	176	-	-	259	200
240	227	207	-	-	305	230
300	261	237	-	-	351	260

Fig. G20 : Current-carrying capacities in amperes for different methods of installation, PVC insulation, three loaded conductors, copper or aluminium, conductor temperature: 70 °C, ambient temperature: 30 °C in air, 20 °C in ground (table A.52.4 of IEC 60364-5-52)

G15

2.3 Recommended simplified approach for cables

In order to facilitate the selection of cables, 2 simplified tables are proposed, for unburied and buried cables.

These tables summarize the most commonly used configurations and give easier access to the information.

■ Unburied cables:

Reference methods	Number of loaded conductors and type of insulation											
	2 PVC	3 PVC		3 XLPE	2 XLPE							
A1												
A2	3 PVC	2 PVC		3 XLPE	2 XLPE							
B1			3 PVC	2 PVC		3 XLPE		2 XLPE				
B2			3 PVC	2 PVC		3 XLPE	2 XLPE					
C				3 PVC		2 PVC	3 XLPE		2 XLPE			
E					3 PVC		2 PVC	3 XLPE		2 XLPE		
F						3 PVC		2 PVC	3 XLPE		2 XLPE	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Size (mm ²)												
Copper												
1.5	13	13.5	14.5	15.5	17	18.5	19.5	22	23	24	26	-
2.5	17.5	18	19.5	21	23	25	27	30	31	33	36	-
4	23	24	26	28	31	34	36	40	42	45	49	-
6	29	31	34	36	40	43	46	51	54	58	63	-
10	39	42	46	50	54	60	63	70	75	80	86	-
16	52	56	61	68	73	80	85	94	100	107	115	-
25	68	73	80	89	95	101	110	119	127	135	149	161
35	-	-	-	110	117	126	137	147	158	169	185	200
50	-	-	-	134	141	153	167	179	192	207	225	242
70	-	-	-	171	179	196	213	229	246	268	289	310
95	-	-	-	207	216	238	258	278	298	328	352	377
120	-	-	-	239	249	276	299	322	346	382	410	437
150	-	-	-	-	285	318	344	371	395	441	473	504
185	-	-	-	-	324	362	392	424	450	506	542	575
240	-	-	-	-	380	424	461	500	538	599	641	679
Aluminium												
2.5	13.5	14	15	16.5	18.5	19.5	21	23	24	26	28	-
4	17.5	18.5	20	22	25	26	28	31	32	35	38	-
6	23	24	26	28	32	33	36	39	42	45	49	-
10	31	32	36	39	44	46	49	54	58	62	67	-
16	41	43	48	53	58	61	66	73	77	84	91	-
25	53	57	63	70	73	78	83	90	97	101	108	121
35	-	-	-	86	90	96	103	112	120	126	135	150
50	-	-	-	104	110	117	125	136	146	154	164	184
70	-	-	-	133	140	150	160	174	187	198	211	237
95	-	-	-	161	170	183	195	211	227	241	257	289
120	-	-	-	186	197	212	226	245	263	280	300	337
150	-	-	-	-	226	245	261	283	304	324	346	389
185	-	-	-	-	256	280	298	323	347	371	397	447
240	-	-	-	-	300	330	352	382	409	439	470	530

Fig. G21a : Current-carrying capacity in amperes (table B.52-1 of IEC 60364-5-52)

2 Practical method for determining the smallest allowable cross-sectional area of circuit conductors

Correction factors are given in **Figure G21b** for groups of several circuits or multi-core cables:

Arrangement	Number of circuits or multi-core cables								
	1	2	3	4	6	9	12	16	20
Embedded or enclosed	1.00	0.80	0.70	0.70	0.55	0.50	0.45	0.40	0.40
Single layer on walls, floors or on unperforated trays	1.00	0.85	0.80	0.75	0.70	0.70	-	-	-
Single layer fixed directly under a ceiling	0.95	0.80	0.70	0.70	0.65	0.60	-	-	-
Single layer on perforated horizontal trays or on vertical trays	1.00	0.90	0.80	0.75	0.75	0.70	-	-	-
Single layer on cable ladder supports or cleats, etc...	1.00	0.85	0.80	0.80	0.80	0.80	-	-	-

Fig. G21b : Reduction factors for groups of several circuits or of several multi-core cables (table B.52-3 of IEC 60364-5-52)

G17

■ Buried cables:

Installation method	Size mm ²	Number of loaded conductors and type of insulation			
		Two PVC	Three PVC	Two XLPE	Three XLPE
Copper					
D	1.5	22	18	26	22
	2.5	29	24	34	29
	4	38	31	44	37
	6	47	39	56	46
	10	63	52	73	61
	16	81	67	95	79
	25	104	86	121	101
	35	125	103	146	122
	50	148	122	173	144
	70	183	151	213	178
	95	216	179	252	211
	120	246	203	287	240
	150	278	230	324	271
	185	312	258	363	304
	240	361	297	419	351
	300	408	336	474	396
Aluminium					
D	2.5	22	18.5	26	22
	4	29	24	34	29
	6	36	30	42	36
	10	48	40	56	47
	16	62	52	73	61
	25	80	66	93	78
	35	96	80	112	94
	50	113	94	132	112
	70	140	117	163	138
	95	166	138	193	164
	120	189	157	220	186
	150	213	178	249	210
	185	240	200	279	236
	240	277	230	322	272
	300	313	260	364	308

Fig. G22 : Current-carrying capacity in amperes (table B.52-1 of IEC 60364-5-52)

2.4 Busbar trunking systems

The selection of busbar trunking systems is very straightforward, using the data provided by the manufacturer. Methods of installation, insulation materials, correction factors for grouping are not relevant parameters for this technology.

The cross section area of any given model has been determined by the manufacturer based on:

- The rated current,
- An ambient air temperature equal to 35 °C,
- 3 loaded conductors.

Rated current

The rated current can be calculated taking account of:

- The layout,
- The current absorbed by the different loads connected along the trunking system.

Ambient temperature

A correction factor has to be applied for temperature higher than 35 °C. The correction factor applicable to medium and high power range (up to 4,000 A) is given in **Figure G23a**.

°C	35	40	45	50	55
Correction factor	1	0.97	0.93	0.90	0.86

Fig. G23a : Correction factor for air temperature higher than 35 °C

Neutral current

Where 3rd harmonic currents are circulating, the neutral conductor may be carrying a significant current and the corresponding additional power losses must be taken into account.

Figure G23b represents the maximum admissible phase and neutral currents (per unit) in a high power busbar trunking system as functions of 3rd harmonic level.

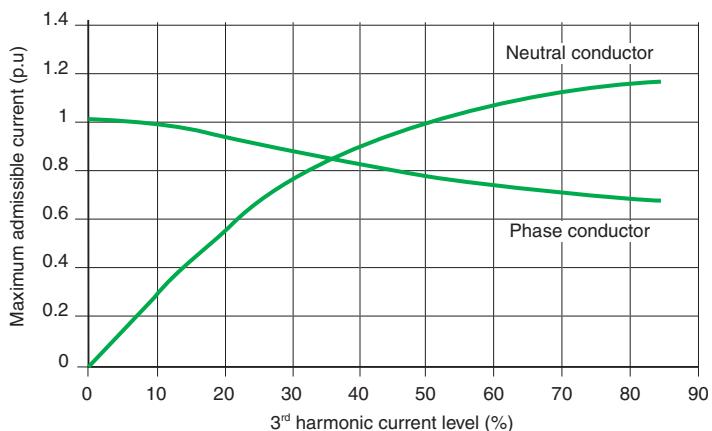


Fig. G23b : Maximum admissible currents (p.u.) in a busbar trunking system as functions of the 3rd harmonic level.

2 Practical method for determining the smallest allowable cross-sectional area of circuit conductors

The layout of the trunking system depends on the position of the current consumers, the location of the power source and the possibilities for fixing the system.

- One single distribution line serves a 4 to 6 meter area
- Protection devices for current consumers are placed in tap-off units, connected directly to usage points.

- One single feeder supplies all current consumers of different powers.

Once the trunking system layout is established, it is possible to calculate the absorbed current I_n on the distribution line.

I_n is equal to the sum of absorbed currents by the current I_n consumers: $I_n = \sum I_B$.
The current consumers do not all work at the same time and are not permanently on full load, so we have to use a clustering coefficient k_s : $I_n = \sum (I_B \cdot k_s)$.

Application	Number of current consumers	k_s Coefficient
Lighting, Heating		1
Distribution (engineering workshop)	2...3	0.9
	4...5	0.8
	6...9	0.7
	10...40	0.6
	40 and over	0.5

*Note : for industrial installations, remember to take account of upgrading of the machine equipment base. As for a switchboard, a 20 % margin is recommended:
 $I_n \leq I_B \times k_s \times 1.2$.*

Fig G24 : Clustering coefficient according to the number of current consumers

G19

3 Determination of voltage drop

The impedance of circuit conductors is low but not negligible: when carrying load current there is a voltage drop between the origin of the circuit and the load terminals. The correct operation of a load (a motor, lighting circuit, etc.) depends on the voltage at its terminals being maintained at a value close to its rated value. It is necessary therefore to determine the circuit conductors such that at full-load current, the load terminal voltage is maintained within the limits required for correct performance.

This section deals with methods of determining voltage drops, in order to check that:

- They comply with the particular standards and regulations in force
- They can be tolerated by the load
- They satisfy the essential operational requirements

3.1 Maximum voltage drop

Maximum allowable voltage-drop vary from one country to another. Typical values for LV installations are given below in **Figure G25**.

G20

Type of installations	Lighting circuits	Other uses (heating and power)
A low-voltage service connection from a LV public power distribution network	3%	5%
Consumers MV/LV substation supplied from a public distribution MV system	6%	8%

Fig. G25 : Maximum voltage-drop between the service-connection point and the point of utilization

These voltage-drop limits refer to normal steady-state operating conditions and do not apply at times of motor starting, simultaneous switching (by chance) of several loads, etc. as mentioned in Chapter A Sub-clause 4.3 (factor of simultaneity, etc.). When voltage drops exceed the values shown in Figure G25, larger cables (wires) must be used to correct the condition.

The value of 8%, while permitted, can lead to problems for motor loads; for example:

- In general, satisfactory motor performance requires a voltage within $\pm 5\%$ of its rated nominal value in steady-state operation,
- Starting current of a motor can be 5 to 7 times its full-load value (or even higher). If an 8% voltage drop occurs at full-load current, then a drop of 40% or more will occur during start-up. In such conditions the motor will either:
 - Stall (i.e. remain stationary due to insufficient torque to overcome the load torque) with consequent over-heating and eventual trip-out
 - Or accelerate very slowly, so that the heavy current loading (with possibly undesirable low-voltage effects on other equipment) will continue beyond the normal start-up period
- Finally an 8% voltage drop represents a continuous power loss, which, for continuous loads will be a significant waste of (metered) energy. For these reasons it is recommended that the maximum value of 8% in steady operating conditions should not be reached on circuits which are sensitive to under-voltage problems (see **Fig. G26**).

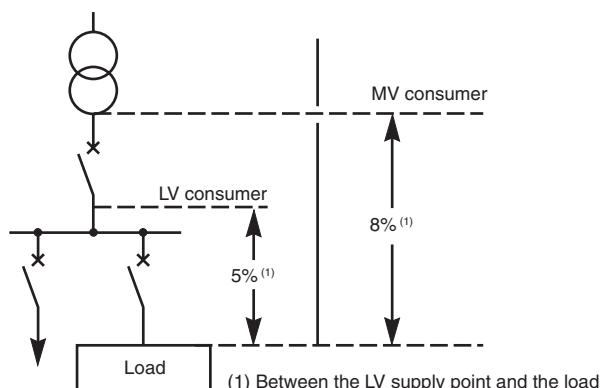


Fig. G26 : Maximum voltage drop

3.2 Calculation of voltage drop in steady load conditions

Use of formulae

Figure G27 below gives formulae commonly used to calculate voltage drop in a given circuit per kilometre of length.

If:

- I_B : The full load current in amps
- L : Length of the cable in kilometres
- R : Resistance of the cable conductor in Ω/km

$$R = \frac{22.5 \Omega \text{ mm}^2 / \text{km}}{S(\text{c.s.a. in mm}^2)} \text{ for copper}$$

$$R = \frac{36 \Omega \text{ mm}^2 / \text{km}}{S(\text{c.s.a. in mm}^2)} \text{ for aluminium}$$

Note: R is negligible above a c.s.a. of 500 mm^2

- X : inductive reactance of a conductor in Ω/km

Note: X is negligible for conductors of c.s.a. less than 50 mm^2 . In the absence of any other information, take X as being equal to 0.08 Ω/km .

- φ : phase angle between voltage and current in the circuit considered, generally:

- Incandescent lighting: $\cos \varphi = 1$

- Motor power:

- At start-up: $\cos \varphi = 0.35$

- In normal service: $\cos \varphi = 0.8$

- U_n : phase-to-phase voltage

- V_n : phase-to-neutral voltage

For prefabricated pre-wired ducts and bustrunking, resistance and inductive reactance values are given by the manufacturer.

Circuit	Voltage drop (ΔU)	
	in volts	in %
Single phase: phase/phase	$\Delta U = 2I_B(R \cos \varphi + X \sin \varphi) L$	$\frac{100 \Delta U}{U_n}$
Single phase: phase/neutral	$\Delta U = 2I_B(R \cos \varphi + X \sin \varphi) L$	$\frac{100 \Delta U}{V_n}$
Balanced 3-phase: 3 phases (with or without neutral)	$\Delta U = \sqrt{3} I_B(R \cos \varphi + X \sin \varphi) L$	$\frac{100 \Delta U}{U_n}$

Fig. G27 : Voltage-drop formulae

Simplified table

Calculations may be avoided by using **Figure G28** next page, which gives, with an adequate approximation, the phase-to-phase voltage drop per km of cable per ampere, in terms of:

- Kinds of circuit use: motor circuits with $\cos \varphi$ close to 0.8, or lighting with a $\cos \varphi$ close to 1.

- Type of cable; single-phase or 3-phase

Voltage drop in a cable is then given by:

$$K \times I_B \times L$$

K is given by the table,

I_B is the full-load current in amps,

L is the length of cable in km.

The column motor power “ $\cos \varphi = 0.35$ ” of Figure G28 may be used to compute the voltage drop occurring during the start-up period of a motor (see example no. 1 after the Figure G28).

G22

c.s.a. in mm ²		Single-phase circuit			Balanced three-phase circuit		
		Motor power		Lighting	Motor power		Lighting
		Normal service	Start-up	$\cos \varphi = 1$	Normal service	Start-up	$\cos \varphi = 1$
Cu	Al	$\cos \varphi = 0.8$	$\cos \varphi = 0.35$	$\cos \varphi = 1$	$\cos \varphi = 0.8$	$\cos \varphi = 0.35$	$\cos \varphi = 1$
1.5		24	10.6	30	20	9.4	25
2.5		14.4	6.4	18	12	5.7	15
4		9.1	4.1	11.2	8	3.6	9.5
6	10	6.1	2.9	7.5	5.3	2.5	6.2
10	16	3.7	1.7	4.5	3.2	1.5	3.6
16	25	2.36	1.15	2.8	2.05	1	2.4
25	35	1.5	0.75	1.8	1.3	0.65	1.5
35	50	1.15	0.6	1.29	1	0.52	1.1
50	70	0.86	0.47	0.95	0.75	0.41	0.77
70	120	0.64	0.37	0.64	0.56	0.32	0.55
95	150	0.48	0.30	0.47	0.42	0.26	0.4
120	185	0.39	0.26	0.37	0.34	0.23	0.31
150	240	0.33	0.24	0.30	0.29	0.21	0.27
185	300	0.29	0.22	0.24	0.25	0.19	0.2
240	400	0.24	0.2	0.19	0.21	0.17	0.16
300	500	0.21	0.19	0.15	0.18	0.16	0.13

Fig. G28 : Phase-to-phase voltage drop ΔU for a circuit, in volts per ampere per km

Examples

Example 1 (see Fig. G29)

A three-phase 35 mm² copper cable 50 metres long supplies a 400 V motor taking:

- 100 A at a $\cos \varphi = 0.8$ on normal permanent load
- 500 A (5 In) at a $\cos \varphi = 0.35$ during start-up

The voltage drop at the origin of the motor cable in normal circumstances (i.e. with the distribution board of Figure G29 distributing a total of 1,000 A) is 10 V phase-to-phase.

What is the voltage drop at the motor terminals:

- In normal service?
- During start-up?

Solution:

- Voltage drop in normal service conditions:

$$\Delta U\% = 100 \frac{\Delta U}{U_n}$$

Table G28 shows 1 V/A/km so that:

ΔU for the cable = $1 \times 100 \times 0.05 = 5$ V

ΔU total = $10 + 5 = 15$ V = i.e.

$$\frac{15}{400} \times 100 = 3.75\%$$

This value is less than that authorized (8%) and is satisfactory.

- Voltage drop during motor start-up:

$$\Delta U_{\text{cable}} = 0.52 \times 500 \times 0.05 = 13$$
 V

Owing to the additional current taken by the motor when starting, the voltage drop at the distribution board will exceed 10 Volts.

Supposing that the infeed to the distribution board during motor starting is $900 + 500 = 1,400$ A then the voltage drop at the distribution board will increase approximately pro rata, i.e.

$$\frac{10 \times 1,400}{1,000} = 14$$
 V

ΔU distribution board = 14 V

ΔU for the motor cable = 13 V

ΔU total = $13 + 14 = 27$ V i.e.

$$\frac{27}{400} \times 100 = 6.75\%$$

a value which is satisfactory during motor starting.

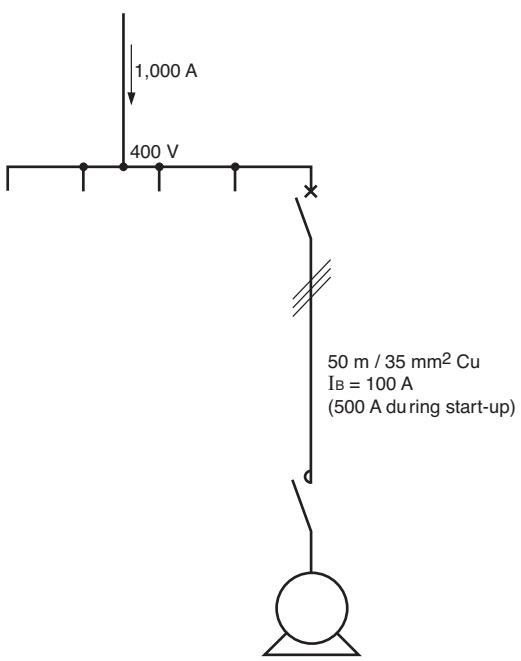


Fig. G29 : Example 1

3 Determination of voltage drop

Example 2 (see Fig. G30)

A 3-phase 4-wire copper line of 70 mm^2 c.s.a. and a length of 50 m passes a current of 150 A. The line supplies, among other loads, 3 single-phase lighting circuits, each of 2.5 mm^2 c.s.a. copper 20 m long, and each passing 20 A.

It is assumed that the currents in the 70 mm^2 line are balanced and that the three lighting circuits are all connected to it at the same point.

What is the voltage drop at the end of the lighting circuits?

Solution:

- Voltage drop in the 4-wire line:

$$\Delta U\% = 100 \frac{\Delta U}{U_n}$$

Figure G28 shows 0.55 V/A/km

$$\Delta U \text{ line} = 0.55 \times 150 \times 0.05 = 4.125 \text{ V phase-to-phase}$$

$$\text{which gives: } \frac{4.125}{\sqrt{3}} = 2.38 \text{ V phase to neutral.}$$

- Voltage drop in any one of the lighting single-phase circuits:

$$\Delta U \text{ for a single-phase circuit} = 18 \times 20 \times 0.02 = 7.2 \text{ V}$$

The total voltage drop is therefore

$$7.2 + 2.38 = 9.6 \text{ V}$$

$$\frac{9.6 \text{ V}}{230 \text{ V}} \times 100 = 4.2\%$$

This value is satisfactory, being less than the maximum permitted voltage drop of 6%.

G23

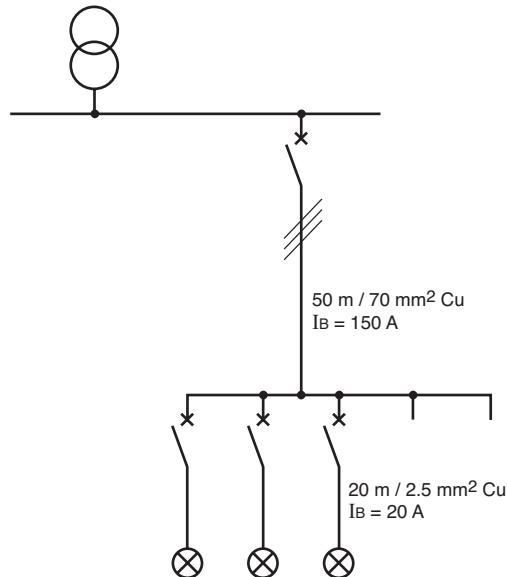


Fig. G30 : Example 2

4 Short-circuit current

Knowing the levels of 3-phase symmetrical short-circuit currents (I_{sc}) at different points in an installation is an essential feature of its design

A knowledge of 3-phase symmetrical short-circuit current values (I_{sc}) at strategic points of an installation is necessary in order to determine switchgear (fault current rating), cables (thermal withstand rating), protective devices (discriminative trip settings) and so on...

In the following notes a 3-phase short-circuit of zero impedance (the so-called bolted short-circuit) fed through a typical MV/LV distribution transformer will be examined. Except in very unusual circumstances, this type of fault is the most severe, and is certainly the simplest to calculate.

Short-circuit currents occurring in a network supplied from a generator and also in DC systems are dealt with in Chapter N.

The simplified calculations and practical rules which follow give conservative results of sufficient accuracy, in the large majority of cases, for installation design purposes.

G24

4.1 Short-circuit current at the secondary terminals of a MV/LV distribution transformer

The case of one transformer

■ In a simplified approach, the impedance of the MV system is assumed to be

$$\text{negligibly small, so that: } I_{sc} = \frac{I_n \times 100}{U_{sc}} \text{ where } I_n = \frac{P \times 10^3}{U_{20} \sqrt{3}} \text{ and:}$$

P = kVA rating of the transformer

U_{20} = phase-to-phase secondary volts on open circuit

I_n = nominal current in amps

I_{sc} = short-circuit fault current in amps

U_{sc} = short-circuit impedance voltage of the transformer in %.

Typical values of U_{sc} for distribution transformers are given in **Figure G31**.

Transformer rating (kVA)	Usc in %	
	Oil-immersed	Cast-resin dry type
50 to 750	4	6
800 to 3,200	6	6

Fig. G31 : Typical values of U_{sc} for different kVA ratings of transformers with MV windings ≤ 20 kV

■ Example

400 kVA transformer, 420 V at no load

$U_{sc} = 4\%$

$$I_n = \frac{400 \times 10^3}{420 \times \sqrt{3}} = 550 \text{ A} \quad I_{sc} = \frac{550 \times 100}{4} = 13.7 \text{ kA}$$

The case of several transformers in parallel feeding a busbar

The value of fault current on an outgoing circuit immediately downstream of the busbars (see **Fig. G32**) can be estimated as the sum of the I_{sc} from each transformer calculated separately.

It is assumed that all transformers are supplied from the same MV network, in which case the values obtained from Figure G31 when added together will give a slightly higher fault-level value than would actually occur.

Other factors which have not been taken into account are the impedance of the busbars and of the circuit-breakers.

The conservative fault-current value obtained however, is sufficiently accurate for basic installation design purposes. The choice of circuit-breakers and incorporated protective devices against short-circuit fault currents is described in Chapter H Sub-clause 4.4.

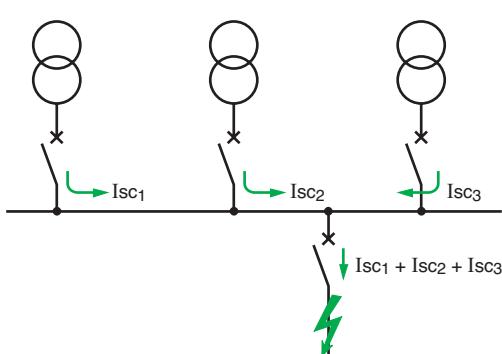


Fig. G32 : Case of several transformers in parallel

4.2 3-phase short-circuit current (I_{sc}) at any point within a LV installation

In a 3-phase installation I_{sc} at any point is given by:

$$I_{sc} = \frac{U_{20}}{\sqrt{3} Z_T} \quad \text{where}$$

U_{20} = phase-to-phase voltage of the open circuited secondary windings of the power supply transformer(s).

Z_T = total impedance per phase of the installation upstream of the fault location (in Ω)

Method of calculating Z_T

Each component of an installation (MV network, transformer, cable, circuit-breaker, busbar, and so on...) is characterized by its impedance Z , comprising an element of resistance (R) and an inductive reactance (X). It may be noted that capacitive reactances are not important in short-circuit current calculations.

The parameters R , X and Z are expressed in ohms, and are related by the sides of a right angled triangle, as shown in the impedance diagram of **Figure G33**.

The method consists in dividing the network into convenient sections, and to calculate the R and X values for each.

Where sections are connected in series in the network, all the resistive elements in the section are added arithmetically; likewise for the reactances, to give R_T and X_T . The impedance (Z_T) for the combined sections concerned is then calculated from

$$Z_T = \sqrt{R_T^2 + X_T^2}$$

Any two sections of the network which are connected in parallel, can, if predominantly both resistive (or both inductive) be combined to give a single equivalent resistance (or reactance) as follows:

Let R_1 and R_2 be the two resistances connected in parallel, then the equivalent resistance R_3 will be given by:

$$R_3 = \frac{R_1 \times R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \quad \text{or for reactances } X_3 = \frac{X_1 \times X_2}{X_1 + X_2}$$

It should be noted that the calculation of X_3 concerns only separated circuit without mutual inductance. If the circuits in parallel are close together the value of X_3 will be notably higher.

Determination of the impedance of each component

■ Network upstream of the MV/LV transformer (see **Fig. G34**)

The 3-phase short-circuit fault level P_{sc} , in kA or in MVA⁽¹⁾ is given by the power supply authority concerned, from which an equivalent impedance can be deduced.

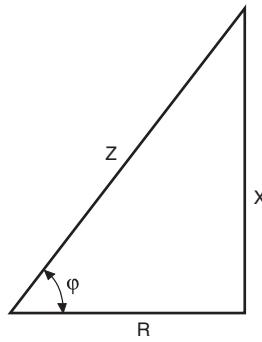


Fig. G33 : Impedance diagram

Psc	Uo (V)	Ra (mΩ)	Xa (mΩ)
250 MVA	420	0.07	0.7
500 MVA	420	0.035	0.351

Fig. G34 : The impedance of the MV network referred to the LV side of the MV/LV transformer

A formula which makes this deduction and at the same time converts the impedance to an equivalent value at LV is given, as follows:

$$Z_s = \frac{U_0^2}{P_{sc}}$$

where

Z_s = impedance of the MV voltage network, expressed in milli-ohms

U_0 = phase-to-phase no-load LV voltage, expressed in volts

P_{sc} = MV 3-phase short-circuit fault level, expressed in kVA

The upstream (MV) resistance R_a is generally found to be negligible compared with the corresponding X_a , the latter then being taken as the ohmic value for Z_a . If more accurate calculations are necessary, X_a may be taken to be equal to 0.995 Z_a and R_a equal to 0.1 X_a .

Figure G36 gives values for R_a and X_a corresponding to the most common MV⁽²⁾ short-circuit levels in utility power-supply networks, namely, 250 MVA and 500 MVA.

(1) Short-circuit MVA: $\sqrt{3} E_L I_{sc}$ where:

■ E_L = phase-to-phase nominal system voltage expressed in kV (r.m.s.)

■ I_{sc} = 3-phase short-circuit current expressed in kA (r.m.s.)

(2) up to 36 kV

■ Transformers (see Fig. G35)

The impedance Z_{tr} of a transformer, viewed from the LV terminals, is given by the formula:

$$Z_{tr} = \frac{U_{20}^2}{P_n} \times \frac{U_{sc}}{100}$$

where:

U_{20} = open-circuit secondary phase-to-phase voltage expressed in volts

P_n = rating of the transformer (in kVA)

U_{sc} = the short-circuit impedance voltage of the transformer expressed in %

The transformer windings resistance R_{tr} can be derived from the total losses as follows:

$$P_{cu} = 3I_{n}^2 \times R_{tr} \text{ so that } R_{tr} = \frac{P_{cu} \times 10^3}{3I_{n}^2} \text{ in milli-ohms}$$

where

P_{cu} = total losses in watts

I_n = nominal full-load current in amps

R_{tr} = resistance of one phase of the transformer in milli-ohms (the LV and corresponding MV winding for one LV phase are included in this resistance value).

$$X_{tr} = \sqrt{Z_{tr}^2 - R_{tr}^2}$$

For an approximate calculation R_{tr} may be ignored since $X \approx Z$ in standard distribution type transformers.

Rated Power (kVA)	Oil-immersed				Cast-resin			
	Usc (%)	Rtr (mΩ)	Xtr (mΩ)	Ztr (mΩ)	Usc (%)	Rtr (mΩ)	Xtr (mΩ)	Ztr (mΩ)
100	4	37.9	59.5	70.6	6	37.0	99.1	105.8
160	4	16.2	41.0	44.1	6	18.6	63.5	66.2
200	4	11.9	33.2	35.3	6	14.1	51.0	52.9
250	4	9.2	26.7	28.2	6	10.7	41.0	42.3
315	4	6.2	21.5	22.4	6	8.0	32.6	33.6
400	4	5.1	16.9	17.6	6	6.1	25.8	26.5
500	4	3.8	13.6	14.1	6	4.6	20.7	21.2
630	4	2.9	10.8	11.2	6	3.5	16.4	16.8
800	6	2.9	12.9	13.2	6	2.6	13.0	13.2
1,000	6	2.3	10.3	10.6	6	1.9	10.4	10.6
1,250	6	1.8	8.3	8.5	6	1.5	8.3	8.5
1,600	6	1.4	6.5	6.6	6	1.1	6.5	6.6
2,000	6	1.1	5.2	5.3	6	0.9	5.2	5.3

Fig. G35 : Resistance, reactance and impedance values for typical distribution 400 V transformers with MV windings ≤ 20 kV

■ Circuit-breakers

In LV circuits, the impedance of circuit-breakers upstream of the fault location must be taken into account. The reactance value conventionally assumed is 0.15 mΩ per CB, while the resistance is neglected.

■ Busbars

The resistance of busbars is generally negligible, so that the impedance is practically all reactive, and amounts to approximately 0.15 mΩ/metre⁽¹⁾ length for LV busbars (doubling the spacing between the bars increases the reactance by about 10% only).

■ Circuit conductors

The resistance of a conductor is given by the formula: $R_c = \rho \frac{L}{S}$
where

ρ = the resistivity constant of the conductor material at the normal operating temperature being:

□ 22.5 mΩ.mm²/m for copper

□ 36 mΩ.mm²/m for aluminium

L = length of the conductor in m

S = c.s.a. of conductor in mm²

4 Short-circuit current

G27

Cable reactance values can be obtained from the manufacturers. For c.s.a. of less than 50 mm² reactance may be ignored. In the absence of other information, a value of 0.08 mΩ/metre may be used (for 50 Hz systems) or 0.096 mΩ/metre (for 60 Hz systems). For prefabricated bus-trunking and similar pre-wired ducting systems, the manufacturer should be consulted.

■ Motors

At the instant of short-circuit, a running motor will act (for a brief period) as a generator, and feed current into the fault.

In general, this fault-current contribution may be ignored. However, if the total power of motors running simultaneously is higher than 25% of the total power of transformers, the influence of motors must be taken into account. Their total contribution can be estimated from the formula:

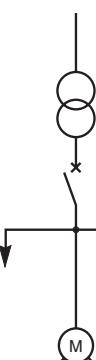
$$I_{scm} = 3.5 \text{ In} \text{ from each motor i.e. } 3.5m\ln \text{ for } m \text{ similar motors operating concurrently.}$$

The motors concerned will be the 3-phase motors only; single-phase-motor contribution being insignificant.

■ Fault-arc resistance

Short-circuit faults generally form an arc which has the properties of a resistance. The resistance is not stable and its average value is low, but at low voltage this resistance is sufficient to reduce the fault-current to some extent. Experience has shown that a reduction of the order of 20% may be expected. This phenomenon will effectively ease the current-breaking duty of a CB, but affords no relief for its fault-current making duty.

■ Recapitulation table (see Fig. G36)



Parts of power-supply system	R (mΩ)	X (mΩ)
Supply network Figure G34	$\frac{R_a}{X_a} = 0.1$	$X_a = 0.995 Z_a; Z_a = \frac{U_{20}^2}{P_{sc}}$
Transformer Figure G35	$R_{tr} = \frac{P_{cu} \times 10^3}{3I_n^2}$ R _{tr} is often negligible compared to X _{tr} for transformers > 100 kVA	$\sqrt{Z_{tr}^2 - R_{tr}^2}$ with $Z_{tr} = \frac{U_{20}^2}{P_n} \times \frac{U_{sc}}{100}$
Circuit-breaker	Negligible	$X_D = 0.15 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{pole}$
Busbars	Negligible for S > 200 mm ² in the formula: $R = \rho \frac{L}{S}$ ⁽¹⁾	$X_B = 0.15 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{m}$
Circuit conductors ⁽²⁾	$R = \rho \frac{L}{S}$ ⁽¹⁾	Cables: X _c = 0.08 mΩ/m
Motors	See Sub-clause 4.2 Motors (often negligible at LV)	
Three-phase short circuit current in kA	$I_{sc} = \frac{U_{20}}{\sqrt{3} \sqrt{R_t^2 + X_t^2}}$	

U₂₀: Phase-to-phase no-load secondary voltage of MV/LV transformer (in volts).

P_{sc}: 3-phase short-circuit power at MV terminals of the MV/LV transformers (in kVA).

P_{cu}: 3-phase total losses of the MV/LV transformer (in watts).

P_n: Rating of the MV/LV transformer (in kVA).

U_{sc}: Short-circuit impedance voltage of the MV/LV transformer (in %).

R_T: Total resistance. X_T: Total reactance

(1) ρ = resistivity at normal temperature of conductors in service

■ ρ = 22.5 mΩ x mm²/m for copper

■ ρ = 36 mΩ x mm²/m for aluminium

(2) If there are several conductors in parallel per phase, then divide the resistance of one conductor by the number of conductors. The reactance remains practically unchanged.

Fig. G36 : Recapitulation table of impedances for different parts of a power-supply system

■ Example of short-circuit calculations (see Fig. G37)

LV installation	R (mΩ)	X (mΩ)	RT (mΩ)	XT (mΩ)	$I_{sc} = \frac{420}{\sqrt{3} \sqrt{R^2 + X^2}}$
MV network Psc = 500 MVA	0.035	0.351			
Transformer 20 kV/420 V Pn = 1000 kVA Usc = 5% Pcu = 13.3×10^3 watts	2.24	8.10			
Single-core cables 5 m copper 4 x 240 mm ² /phase	$R_c = \frac{22.5}{4} \times \frac{5}{240} = 0.12$	Xc = $0.08 \times 5 = 0.40$	2.41	8.85	Isc1 = 26 kA
Main circuit-breaker	RD = 0	XD = 0.15			
Busbars 10 m	RB = 0	XB = 1.5	2.41	10.5	Isc2 = 22 kA
Three-core cable 100 m 95 mm ² copper	$R_c = 22.5 \times \frac{100}{95} = 23.68$	Xc = $100 \times 0.08 = 8$	26.1	18.5	Isc3 = 7.4 kA
Three-core cable 20 m 10 mm ² copper final circuits	$R_c = 22.5 \times \frac{20}{10} = 45$	Xc = $20 \times 0.08 = 1.6$	71.1	20.1	Isc4 = 3.2 kA

Fig. G37 : Example of short-circuit current calculations for a LV installation supplied at 400 V (nominal) from a 1,000 kVA MV/LV transformer

4.3 Isc at the receiving end of a feeder as a function of the Isc at its sending end

The network shown in Figure G38 typifies a case for the application of Figure G39 next page, derived by the «method of composition» (mentioned in Chapter F Sub-clause 6.2). These tables give a rapid and sufficiently accurate value of short-circuit current at a point in a network, knowing:

- The value of short-circuit current upstream of the point considered
 - The length and composition of the circuit between the point at which the short-circuit current level is known, and the point at which the level is to be determined
- It is then sufficient to select a circuit-breaker with an appropriate short-circuit fault rating immediately above that indicated in the tables.

If more precise values are required, it is possible to make a detailed calculation (see Sub-Clause 4.2) or to use a software package, such as Ecodial. In such a case, moreover, the possibility of using the cascading technique should be considered, in which the use of a current limiting circuit-breaker at the upstream position would allow all circuit-breakers downstream of the limiter to have a short-circuit current rating much lower than would otherwise be necessary (See chapter H Sub-Clause 4.5).

Method

Select the c.s.a. of the conductor in the column for copper conductors (in this example the c.s.a. is 47.5 mm²).

Search along the row corresponding to 47.5 mm² for the length of conductor equal to that of the circuit concerned (or the nearest possible on the low side). Descend vertically the column in which the length is located, and stop at a row in the middle section (of the 3 sections of the Figure) corresponding to the known fault-current level (or the nearest to it on the high side).

In this case 30 kA is the nearest to 28 kA on the high side. The value of short-circuit current at the downstream end of the 20 metre circuit is given at the intersection of the vertical column in which the length is located, and the horizontal row corresponding to the upstream Isc (or nearest to it on the high side).

This value in the example is seen to be 14.7 kA.

The procedure for aluminium conductors is similar, but the vertical column must be ascended into the middle section of the table.

In consequence, a DIN-rail-mounted circuit-breaker rated at 63 A and Isc of 25 kA (such as a NG 125N unit) can be used for the 55 A circuit in Figure G38.

A Compact rated at 160 A with an Isc capacity of 25 kA (such as a NS160 unit) can be used to protect the 160 A circuit.

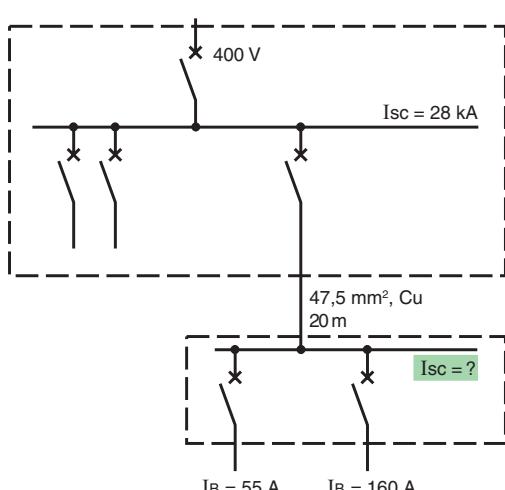


Fig. G38 : Determination of downstream short-circuit current level Isc using Figure G39

4 Short-circuit current

G29

Isc upstream (in kA)	Isc downstream (in kA)																		
100	93	90	87	82	77	70	62	54	45	37	29	22	17.0	12.6	9.3	6.7	4.9	3.5	2.5
90	84	82	79	75	71	65	58	51	43	35	28	22	16.7	12.5	9.2	6.7	4.8	3.5	2.5
80	75	74	71	68	64	59	54	47	40	34	27	21	16.3	12.2	9.1	6.6	4.8	3.5	2.5
70	66	65	63	61	58	54	49	44	38	32	26	20	15.8	12.0	8.9	6.6	4.8	3.4	2.5
60	57	56	55	53	51	48	44	39	35	29	24	20	15.2	11.6	8.7	6.5	4.7	3.4	2.5
50	48	47	46	45	43	41	38	35	31	27	22	18.3	14.5	11.2	8.5	6.3	4.6	3.4	2.4
40	39	38	38	37	36	34	32	30	27	24	20	16.8	13.5	10.6	8.1	6.1	4.5	3.3	2.4
35	34	34	33	33	32	30	29	27	24	22	18.8	15.8	12.9	10.2	7.9	6.0	4.5	3.3	2.4
30	29	29	29	28	27	27	25	24	22	20	17.3	14.7	12.2	9.8	7.6	5.8	4.4	3.2	2.4
25	25	24	24	24	23	23	22	21	19.1	17.4	15.5	13.4	11.2	9.2	7.3	5.6	4.2	3.2	2.3
20	20	20	19.4	19.2	18.8	18.4	17.8	17.0	16.1	14.9	13.4	11.8	10.1	8.4	6.8	5.3	4.1	3.1	2.3
15	14.8	14.8	14.7	14.5	14.3	14.1	13.7	13.3	12.7	11.9	11.0	9.9	8.7	7.4	6.1	4.9	3.8	2.9	2.2
10	9.9	9.9	9.8	9.8	9.7	9.6	9.4	9.2	8.9	8.5	8.0	7.4	6.7	5.9	5.1	4.2	3.4	2.7	2.0
7	7.0	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.7	6.6	6.4	6.2	6.0	5.6	5.2	4.7	4.2	3.6	3.0	2.4	1.9
5	5.0	5.0	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.3	4.0	3.7	3.4	3.0	2.5	2.1	1.7
4	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.5	3.3	3.1	2.9	2.6	2.2	1.9	1.6
3	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.3	2.1	1.9	1.6	1.4	1.1
2	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.0
1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7

Aluminium 230 V / 400 V		Length of circuit (in metres)																			
c.s.a. of phase conductors (mm ²)	Length of circuit (metres)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5
2.5																1.4	1.9	2.7	3.8	5.4	7.6
4																1.1	1.5	2.2	3.1	4.3	6.1
6																1.6	2.3	3.2	4.6	6.5	9.2
10																1.9	2.7	3.8	5.4	7.7	10.8
16																2.2	3.1	4.3	6.1	8.7	12.2
25																1.7	2.4	3.4	4.8	6.8	9.6
35																4.7	6.7	9.5	13.4	18.9	27
47.5																1.7	2.4	3.4	4.7	9.5	13.4
70																1.6	2.3	3.2	4.6	6.4	9.1
95																2.4	3.4	4.7	6.7	9.5	13.4
120																2.3	3.2	4.6	6.4	9.1	12.9
150																2.9	4.1	5.8	8.1	11.5	16.3
185																3.1	4.4	6.3	8.8	12.5	17.7
240																2.6	3.7	5.2	7.4	10.4	14.8
300																1.2	1.6	2.3	3.3	4.6	6.5
2x120																9.2	13.0	18.4	22	31	44
2x150																1.4	2.0	2.8	3.9	5.5	7.8
2x185																4.1	5.8	8.1	11.5	16.3	23
2x240																8.1	11.5	16.3	23	33	46
3x120																1.6	2.2	3.1	4.4	6.3	8.8
3x150																4.1	5.8	8.1	11.5	16.3	23
3x185																8.1	11.5	16.3	23	33	46
3x240																11.1	15.7	22	31	44	63

Note: for a 3-phase system having 230 V between phases, divide the above lengths by $\sqrt{3}$

Fig. G39 : I_{sc} at a point downstream, as a function of a known upstream fault-current value and the length and c.s.a. of the intervening conductors, in a 230/400 V 3-phase system

4.4 Short-circuit current supplied by a generator or an inverter: Please refer to Chapter N

5 Particular cases of short-circuit current

If a protective device in a circuit is intended only to protect against short-circuit faults, it is essential that it will operate with certainty at the lowest possible level of short-circuit current that can occur on the circuit

G30

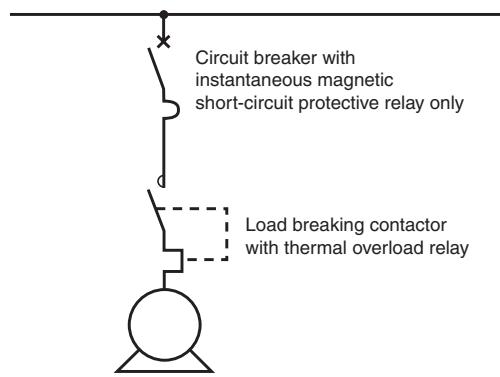


Fig. G41 : Circuit protected by circuit-breaker without thermal overload relay

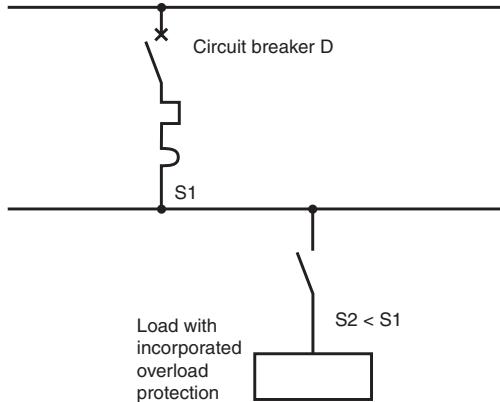


Fig. G42a : Circuit-breaker D provides protection against short-circuit faults as far as and including the load

5.1 Calculation of minimum levels of short-circuit current

In general, on LV circuits, a single protective device protects against all levels of current, from the overload threshold through the maximum rated short-circuit current-breaking capability of the device.

In certain cases, however, overload protective devices and separate short-circuit protective devices are used.

Examples of such arrangements

Figures G40 to G42 show some common arrangements where overload and short-circuit protections are achieved by separate devices.

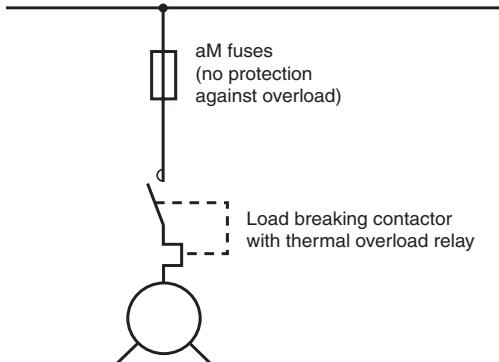


Fig. G40 : Circuit protected by aM fuses

As shown in Figures G40 and G41, the most common circuits using separate devices control and protect motors.

Figure G42a constitutes a derogation in the basic protection rules, and is generally used on circuits of prefabricated bustrunking, lighting rails, etc.

Variable speed drive

Figure G42b shows the functions provided by the variable speed drive, and if necessary some additional functions provided by devices such as circuit-breaker, thermal relay, RCD.

Protection to be provided	Protection generally provided by the variable speed drive	Additional protection
Cable overload	Yes = (1)	Not necessary if (1)
Motor overload	Yes = (2)	Not necessary if (2)
Downstream short-circuit	Yes	
Variable speed drive overload	Yes	
Oversupply	Yes	
Undervoltage	Yes	
Loss of phase	Yes	
Upstream short-circuit		Circuit-breaker (short-circuit tripping)
Internal fault		Circuit-breaker (short-circuit and overload tripping)
Downstream earth fault (indirect contact)	(self protection)	RCD ≥ 300 mA
Direct contact fault		RCD ≤ 30 mA

Figure G42b : Protection to be provided for variable speed drive applications

5 Particular cases of short-circuit current

The protective device must fulfill:

- instantaneous trip setting $I_m < I_{sc\min}$ for a circuit-breaker
- fusion current $I_a < I_{sc\min}$ for a fuse

Conditions to be fulfilled

The protective device must therefore satisfy the two following conditions:

- Its fault-current breaking rating must be greater than I_{sc} , the 3-phase short-circuit current at its point of installation
- Elimination of the minimum short-circuit current possible in the circuit, in a time to compatible with the thermal constraints of the circuit conductors, where:

$$t_c \leq \frac{K^2 S^2}{I_{sc\min}^2} \quad (\text{valid for } t_c < 5 \text{ seconds})$$

Comparison of the tripping or fusing performance curve of protective devices, with the limit curves of thermal constraint for a conductor shows that this condition is satisfied if:

- $I_{sc\min} > I_m$ (instantaneous or short timedelay circuit-breaker trip setting current level), (see Fig. G45)
- $I_{sc\min} > I_a$ for protection by fuses. The value of the current I_a corresponds to the crossing point of the fuse curve and the cable thermal withstand curve (see Fig. G44 and G45)

G31

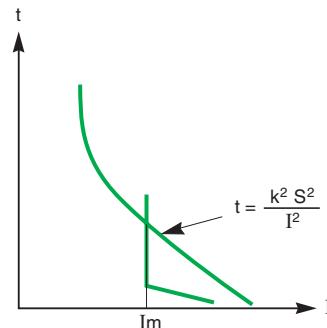


Fig. G45 : Protection by circuit-breaker

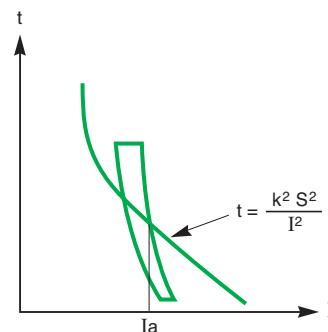


Fig. G46 : Protection by aM-type fuses

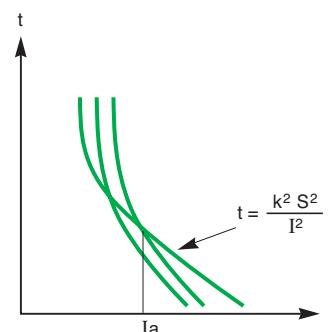


Fig. G47 : Protection by gl-type fuses

In practice this means that the length of circuit downstream of the protective device must not exceed a calculated maximum length:

$$L_{\max} = \frac{0.8 U_{\text{Sph}}}{2\rho I_{\text{m}}}$$

Practical method of calculating L_{max}

The limiting effect of the impedance of long circuit conductors on the value of short-circuit currents must be checked and the length of a circuit must be restricted accordingly.

The method of calculating the maximum permitted length has already been demonstrated in TN- and IT- earthed schemes for single and double earth faults, respectively (see Chapter F Sub-clauses 6.2 and 7.2). Two cases are considered below:

1 - Calculation of L_{max} for a 3-phase 3-wire circuit

The minimum short-circuit current will occur when two phase wires are short-circuited at the remote end of the circuit (see Fig. G46).



Fig G46 : Definition of L for a 3-phase 3-wire circuit

Using the "conventional method", the voltage at the point of protection P is assumed to be 80% of the nominal voltage during a short-circuit fault, so that $0.8 U = I_{\text{sc}} Z_d$, where:

Z_d = impedance of the fault loop

I_{sc} = short-circuit current (ph/ph)

U = phase-to-phase nominal voltage

For cables $\leq 120 \text{ mm}^2$, reactance may be neglected, so that

$$Z_d = \rho \frac{2L}{S_{\text{ph}}} \quad (1)$$

where:

ρ = resistivity of conductor material at the average temperature during a short-circuit,

S_{ph} = c.s.a. of a phase conductor in mm^2

L = length in metres

The condition for the cable protection is $I_{\text{m}} \leq I_{\text{sc}}$ with I_{m} = magnetic trip current setting of the CB.

$$\text{This leads to } I_{\text{m}} \leq \frac{0.8 U}{Z_d} \quad \text{which gives } L \leq \frac{0.8 U S_{\text{ph}}}{2\rho I_{\text{m}}} \quad (2)$$

with $U = 400 \text{ V}$

$\rho = 1.25 \times 0.018 = 0.023 \Omega \cdot \text{mm}^2/\text{m}^{(2)}$ (Cu)

L_{\max} = maximum circuit length in metres

$$L_{\max} = \frac{k S_{\text{ph}}}{I_{\text{m}}} \quad (3)$$

2 - Calculation of L_{max} for a 3-phase 4-wire 230/400 V circuit

The minimum I_{sc} will occur when the short-circuit is between a phase conductor and the neutral.

A calculation similar to that of example 1 above is required, but using the following formulae (for cable $\leq 120 \text{ mm}^2$ ⁽¹⁾).

■ Where S_n for the neutral conductor = S_{ph} for the phase conductor

$$L_{\max} = \frac{3,333 S_{\text{ph}}}{I_{\text{m}}} \quad (4)$$

■ If S_n for the neutral conductor $< S_{\text{ph}}$, then

$$L_{\max} = 6,666 \frac{S_{\text{ph}}}{I_{\text{m}}} \frac{1}{1+m} \quad \text{where } m = \frac{S_{\text{ph}}}{S_n} \quad (5)$$

For larger c.s.a.'s than those listed, reactance values must be combined with those of resistance to give an impedance. Reactance may be taken as $0.08 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{m}$ for cables (at 50 Hz). At 60 Hz the value is $0.096 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{m}$.

(1) For larger c.s.a.'s, the resistance calculated for the conductors must be increased to account for the non-uniform current density in the conductor (due to "skin" and "proximity" effects)

Suitable values are as follows:

150 mm²: R + 15%

185 mm²: R + 20%

240 mm²: R + 25%

300 mm²: R + 30%

(2) The high value for resistivity is due to the elevated temperature of the conductor when passing short-circuit current

5 Particular cases of short-circuit current

Tabulated values for Lmax

Figure G47 below gives maximum circuit lengths (Lmax) in metres, for:

- 3-phase 4-wire 400 V circuits (i.e. with neutral) and

- 1-phase 2-wire 230 V circuits

protected by general-purpose circuit-breakers.

In other cases, apply correction factors (given in Figure G53) to the lengths obtained. The calculations are based on the above methods, and a short-circuit trip level within $\pm 20\%$ of the adjusted value I_m .

For the 50 mm^2 c.s.a., calculation are based on a 47.5 mm^2 real c.s.a.

Operating current level I_m of the instantaneous magnetic tripping element (in A)	c.s.a. (nominal cross-sectional-area) of conductors (in mm^2)													
	1.5	2.5	4	6	10	16	25	35	50	70	95	120	150	185
50	100	167	267	400										
63	79	133	212	317										
80	63	104	167	250	417									
100	50	83	133	200	333									
125	40	67	107	160	267	427								
160	31	52	83	125	208	333								
200	25	42	67	100	167	267	417							
250	20	33	53	80	133	213	333	467						
320	16	26	42	63	104	167	260	365	495					
400	13	21	33	50	83	133	208	292	396					
500	10	17	27	40	67	107	167	233	317					
560	9	15	24	36	60	95	149	208	283	417				
630	8	13	21	32	63	85	132	185	251	370				
700	7	12	19	29	48	76	119	167	226	333	452			
800	6	10	17	25	42	67	104	146	198	292	396			
875	6	10	15	23	38	61	95	133	181	267	362	457		
1000	5	8	13	20	33	53	83	117	158	233	317	400	435	
1120	4	7	12	18	30	48	74	104	141	208	283	357	388	459
1250	4	7	11	16	27	43	67	93	127	187	253	320	348	411
1600	5	8	13	21	33	52	73	99	146	198	250	272	321	400
2000	4	7	10	17	27	42	58	79	117	158	200	217	257	320
2500	5	8	13	21	33	47	63	93	127	160	174	206	256	
3200	4	6	10	17	26	36	49	73	99	125	136	161	200	
4000	5	8	13	21	29	40	58	79	100	109	128	160		
5000	4	7	11	17	23	32	47	63	80	87	103	128		
6300		5	8	13	19	25	37	50	63	69	82	102		
8000		4	7	10	15	20	29	40	50	54	64	80		
10000			5	8	12	16	23	32	40	43	51	64		
12500			4	7	9	13	19	25	32	35	41	51		

Fig. G47 : Maximum circuit lengths in metres for copper conductors (for aluminium, the lengths must be multiplied by 0.62)

G33

Figures G48 to G50 next page give maximum circuit length (Lmax) in metres for:

- 3-phase 4-wire 400 V circuits (i.e. with neutral) and

- 1-phase 2-wire 230 V circuits

protected in both cases by domestic-type circuit-breakers or with circuit-breakers having similar tripping/current characteristics.

In other cases, apply correction factors to the lengths indicated. These factors are given in Figure G51 next page.

Rated current of circuit-breakers (in A)	c.s.a. (nominal cross-sectional-area) of conductors (in mm ²)								
	1.5	2.5	4	6	10	16	25	35	50
6	200	333	533	800					
10	120	200	320	480	800				
16	75	125	200	300	500	800			
20	60	100	160	240	400	640			
25	48	80	128	192	320	512	800		
32	37	62	100	150	250	400	625	875	
40	30	50	80	120	200	320	500	700	
50	24	40	64	96	160	256	400	560	760
63	19	32	51	76	127	203	317	444	603
80	15	25	40	60	100	160	250	350	475
100	12	20	32	48	80	128	200	280	380
125	10	16	26	38	64	102	160	224	304

Fig. G48 : Maximum length of copper-conductor circuits in metres protected by B-type circuit-breakers

G34

Rated current of circuit-breakers (in A)	c.s.a. (nominal cross-sectional-area) of conductors (in mm ²)								
	1.5	2.5	4	6	10	16	25	35	50
6	100	167	267	400	667				
10	60	100	160	240	400	640			
16	37	62	100	150	250	400	625	875	
20	30	50	80	120	200	320	500	700	
25	24	40	64	96	160	256	400	560	760
32	18.0	31	50	75	125	200	313	438	594
40	15.0	25	40	60	100	160	250	350	475
50	12.0	20	32	48	80	128	200	280	380
63	9.5	16.0	26	38	64	102	159	222	302
80	7.5	12.5	20	30	50	80	125	175	238
100	6.0	10.0	16.0	24	40	64	100	140	190
125	5.0	8.0	13.0	19.0	32	51	80	112	152

Fig. G49 : Maximum length of copper-conductor circuits in metres protected by C-type circuit-breakers

Rated current of circuit-breakers (in A)	c.s.a. (nominal cross-sectional-area) of conductors (in mm ²)								
	1.5	2.5	4	6	10	16	25	35	50
1	429	714							
2	214	357	571	857					
3	143	238	381	571	952				
4	107	179	286	429	714				
6	71	119	190	286	476	762			
10	43	71	114	171	286	457	714		
16	27	45	71	107	179	286	446	625	848
20	21	36	57	86	143	229	357	500	679
25	17.0	29	46	69	114	183	286	400	543
32	13.0	22	36	54	89	143	223	313	424
40	11.0	18.0	29	43	71	114	179	250	339
50	9.0	14.0	23	34	57	91	143	200	271
63	7.0	11.0	18.0	27	45	73	113	159	215
80	5.0	9.0	14.0	21	36	57	89	125	170
100	4.0	7.0	11.0	17.0	29	46	71	100	136
125	3.0	6.0	9.0	14.0	23	37	57	80	109

Fig. G50 : Maximum length of copper-conductor circuits in metres protected by D-type circuit-breakers

Circuit detail	
3-phase 3-wire 400 V circuit or 1-phase 2-wire 400 V circuit (no neutral)	1.73
1-phase 2-wire (phase and neutral) 230 V circuit	1
3-phase 4-wire 230/400 V circuit or 2-phase 3-wire 230/400 V circuit (i.e with neutral)	Sph / S neutral = 1 Sph / S neutral = 2
	1 0.67

Fig. G51 : Correction factor to apply to lengths obtained from Figures G47 to G50

Note: IEC 60898 accepts an upper short-circuit-current tripping range of 10-50 In for type D circuit-breakers. European standards, and Figure G50 however, are based on a range of 10-20 In, a range which covers the vast majority of domestic and similar installations.

5 Particular cases of short-circuit current

Examples

Example 1

In a 1-phase 2-wire installation the protection is provided by a 50 A circuit-breaker type NSX80HMA, the instantaneous short-circuit current trip, is set at 500 A (accuracy of $\pm 20\%$), i.e. in the worst case would require $500 \times 1,2 = 600$ A to trip. The cable c.s.a. = 10 mm^2 and the conductor material is copper.

In Figure G47, the row $I_m = 500$ A crosses the column c.s.a. = 10 mm^2 at the value for L_{max} of 67 m. The circuit-breaker protects the cable against short-circuit faults, therefore, provided that its length does not exceed 67 metres.

Example 2

In a 3-phase 3-wire 400 V circuit (without neutral), the protection is provided by a 220 A circuit-breaker type NSX250N with an instantaneous short-circuit current trip unit type MA set at 2,000 A ($\pm 20\%$), i.e. a worst case of 2,400 A to be certain of tripping. The cable c.s.a. = 120 mm^2 and the conductor material is copper.

In Figure G47 the row $I_m = 2,000$ A crosses the column c.s.a. = 120 mm^2 at the value for L_{max} of 200 m. Being a 3-phase 3-wire 400 V circuit (without neutral), a correction factor from Figure G51 must be applied. This factor is seen to be 1.73. The circuit-breaker will therefore protect the cable against short-circuit current, provided that its length does not exceed $200 \times 1.73 = 346$ metres.

G35

5.2 Verification of the withstand capabilities of cables under short-circuit conditions

In general, verification of the thermal-withstand capability of a cable is not necessary, except in cases where cables of small c.s.a. are installed close to, or feeding directly from, the main general distribution board

Thermal constraints

When the duration of short-circuit current is brief (several tenths of a second up to five seconds maximum) all of the heat produced is assumed to remain in the conductor, causing its temperature to rise. The heating process is said to be adiabatic, an assumption that simplifies the calculation and gives a pessimistic result, i.e. a higher conductor temperature than that which would actually occur, since in practice, some heat would leave the conductor and pass into the insulation.

For a period of 5 seconds or less, the relationship $I^2t = k^2S^2$ characterizes the time in seconds during which a conductor of c.s.a. S (in mm^2) can be allowed to carry a current I, before its temperature reaches a level which would damage the surrounding insulation.

The factor k^2 is given in Figure G52 below.

Insulation	Conductor copper (Cu)	Conductor aluminium (Al)
PVC	13,225	5,776
XLPE	20,449	8,836

Fig. G52 : Value of the constant k^2

The method of verification consists in checking that the thermal energy I^2t per ohm of conductor material, allowed to pass by the protecting circuit-breaker (from manufacturers catalogues) is less than that permitted for the particular conductor (as given in Figure G53 below).

S (mm^2)	PVC		XLPE	
	Copper	Aluminium	Copper	Aluminium
1.5	0.0297	0.0130	0.0460	0.0199
2.5	0.0826	0.0361	0.1278	0.0552
4	0.2116	0.0924	0.3272	0.1414
6	0.4761	0.2079	0.7362	0.3181
10	1.3225	0.5776	2.0450	0.8836
16	3.3856	1.4786	5.2350	2.2620
25	8.2656	3.6100	12.7806	5.5225
35	16.2006	7.0756	25.0500	10.8241
50	29.839	13.032	46.133	19.936

Fig. G53 : Maximum allowable thermal stress for cables I^2t (expressed in ampere $^2 \times$ second $\times 10^6$)

5 Particular cases of short-circuit current

Example

Is a copper-cored XLPE cable of 4 mm² c.s.a. adequately protected by a C60N circuit-breaker?

Figure G53 shows that the I^2t value for the cable is 0.3272×10^6 , while the maximum "let-through" value by the circuit-breaker, as given in the manufacturer's catalogue, is considerably less ($< 0.1 \cdot 10^6$ A²s).

The cable is therefore adequately protected by the circuit-breaker up to its full rated breaking capability.

Electrodynamic constraints

For all type of circuit (conductors or bus-trunking), it is necessary to take electrodynamic effects into account.

To withstand the electrodynamic constraints, the conductors must be solidly fixed and the connection must be strongly tightened.

For bus-trunking, rails, etc. it is also necessary to verify that the electrodynamic withstand performance is satisfactory when carrying short-circuit currents. The peak value of current, limited by the circuit-breaker or fuse, must be less than the busbar system rating. Tables of coordination ensuring adequate protection of their products are generally published by the manufacturers and provide a major advantage of such systems.

G36

6 Protective earthing conductor (PE)

6.1 Connection and choice

Protective (PE) conductors provide the bonding connection between all exposed and extraneous conductive parts of an installation, to create the main equipotential bonding system. These conductors conduct fault current due to insulation failure (between a phase conductor and an exposed conductive part) to the earthed neutral of the source. PE conductors are connected to the main earthing terminal of the installation.

The main earthing terminal is connected to the earthing electrode (see Chapter E) by the earthing conductor (grounding electrode conductor in the USA).

PE conductors must be:

- Insulated and coloured yellow and green (stripes)
- Protected against mechanical and chemical damage

In IT and TN-earthed schemes it is strongly recommended that PE conductors should be installed in close proximity (i.e. in the same conduits, on the same cable tray, etc.) as the live cables of the related circuit. This arrangement ensures the minimum possible inductive reactance in the earth-fault current carrying circuits. It should be noted that this arrangement is originally provided by bus-trunking.

G37

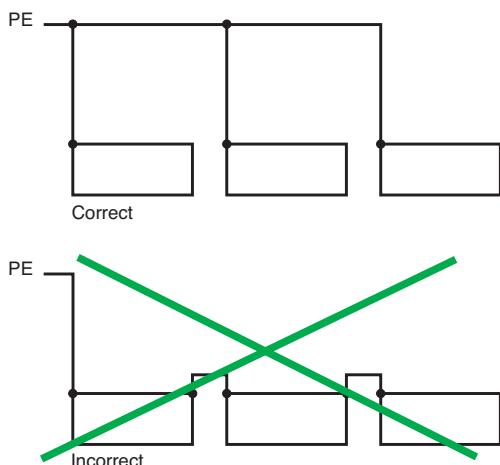


Fig. G54 : A poor connection in a series arrangement will leave all downstream appliances unprotected

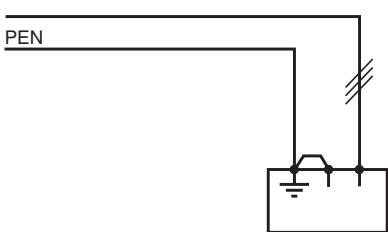


Fig. G55 : Direct connection of the PEN conductor to the earth terminal of an appliance



Fig. G56 : The TN-C-S scheme

G38

Types of materials

Materials of the kinds mentioned below in **Figure G57** can be used for PE conductors, provided that the conditions mentioned in the last column are satisfied.

Type of protective earthing conductor (PE)	IT scheme	TN scheme	TT scheme	Conditions to be respected
Supplementary conductor	In the same cable as the phases, or in the same cable run	Strongly recommended	Strongly recommended	Correct
Independent of the phase conductors	Possible ⁽¹⁾	Possible ^{(1) (2)}	Correct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The PE conductor may be bare or insulated ⁽²⁾
Metallic housing of bus-trunking or of other prefabricated prewired ducting ⁽⁵⁾	Possible ⁽³⁾	PE possible ⁽³⁾ PEN possible ⁽⁸⁾	Correct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ The electrical continuity must be assured by protection against deterioration by mechanical, chemical and electrochemical hazards
External sheath of extruded, mineral-insulated conductors (e.g. «pyrotenax» type systems)	Possible ⁽³⁾	PE possible ⁽³⁾ PEN not recommended ⁽²⁾⁽³⁾	Possible	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Their conductance must be adequate
Certain extraneous conductive elements ⁽⁶⁾ such as: ■ Steel building structures ■ Machine frames ■ Water pipes ⁽⁷⁾	Possible ⁽⁴⁾	PE possible ⁽⁴⁾ PEN forbidden	Possible	
Metallic cable ways, such as, conduits ⁽⁹⁾ , ducts, trunking, trays, ladders, and so on...	Possible ⁽⁴⁾	PE possible ⁽⁴⁾ PEN not recommended ⁽²⁾⁽⁴⁾	Possible	
Forbidden for use as PE conductors, are: metal conduits ⁽⁹⁾ , gas pipes, hot-water pipes, cable-armouring tapes ⁽⁹⁾ or wires ⁽⁹⁾				

(1) In TN and IT schemes, fault clearance is generally achieved by overcurrent devices (fuses or circuit-breakers) so that the impedance of the fault-current loop must be sufficiently low to assure positive protective device operation. The surest means of achieving a low loop impedance is to use a supplementary core in the same cable as the circuit conductors (or taking the same route as the circuit conductors). This solution minimizes the inductive reactance and therefore the impedance of the loop.

(2) The PEN conductor is a neutral conductor that is also used as a protective earth conductor. This means that a current may be flowing through it at any time (in the absence of an earth fault). For this reason an insulated conductor is recommended for PEN operation.

(3) The manufacturer provides the necessary values of R and X components of the impedances (phase/PE, phase/PEN) to include in the calculation of the earth-fault loop impedance.

(4) Possible, but not recommended, since the impedance of the earth-fault loop cannot be known at the design stage. Measurements on the completed installation are the only practical means of assuring adequate protection for persons.

(5) It must allow the connection of other PE conductors. **Note:** these elements must carry an individual green/yellow striped visual indication, 15 to 100 mm long (or the letters PE at less than 15 cm from each extremity).

(6) These elements must be demountable only if other means have been provided to ensure uninterrupted continuity of protection.

(7) With the agreement of the appropriate water authorities.

(8) In the prefabricated pre-wired trunking and similar elements, the metallic housing may be used as a PEN conductor, in parallel with the corresponding bar, or other PE conductor in the housing.

(9) Forbidden in some countries only. Universally allowed to be used for supplementary equipotential conductors.

Fig. G57 : Choice of protective conductors (PE)

6.2 Conductor sizing

Figure G58 below is based on IEC 60364-5-54. This table provides two methods of determining the appropriate c.s.a. for both PE or PEN conductors.

	c.s.a. of phase conductors S_{ph} (mm^2)	Minimum c.s.a. of PE conductor (mm^2)	Minimum c.s.a. of PEN conductor (mm^2)	
			Cu	Al
Simplified method ⁽¹⁾	$S_{ph} \leq 16$	S_{ph} ⁽²⁾	S_{ph} ⁽³⁾	S_{ph} ⁽³⁾
	$16 < S_{ph} \leq 25$	16	16	25
	$25 < S_{ph} \leq 35$			
	$35 < S_{ph} \leq 50$	$S_{ph}/2$	$S_{ph}/2$	$S_{ph}/2$
	$S_{ph} > 50$			
Adiabatic method	Any size	$SPE/PEN = \frac{\sqrt{I^2 \cdot t}}{k}$ ^{(3) (4)}		

(1) Data valid if the prospective conductor is of the same material as the line conductor. Otherwise, a correction factor must be applied.

(2) When the PE conductor is separated from the circuit phase conductors, the following minimum values must be respected:

■ 2.5 mm^2 if the PE is mechanically protected

■ 4 mm^2 if the PE is not mechanically protected

(3) For mechanical reasons, a PEN conductor, shall have a cross-sectional area not less than 10 mm^2 in copper or 16 mm^2 in aluminium.

(4) Refer to table G53 for the application of this formula.

Fig. G58 : Minimum cross section area of protective conductors

6 Protective earthing conductor (PE)

The two methods are:

- Adiabatic (which corresponds with that described in IEC 60724)

This method, while being economical and assuring protection of the conductor against overheating, leads to small c.s.a.'s compared to those of the corresponding circuit phase conductors. The result is sometimes incompatible with the necessity in IT and TN schemes to minimize the impedance of the circuit earth-fault loop, to ensure positive operation by instantaneous overcurrent tripping devices. This method is used in practice, therefore, for TT installations, and for dimensioning an earthing conductor⁽¹⁾.

- Simplified

This method is based on PE conductor sizes being related to those of the corresponding circuit phase conductors, assuming that the same conductor material is used in each case.

Thus, in Figure G58 for:

$$Sph \leq 16 \text{ mm}^2 \quad SPE = Sph$$

$$16 < Sph \leq 35 \text{ mm}^2 \quad SPE = 16 \text{ mm}^2$$

$$Sph > 35 \text{ mm}^2 \quad SPE = \frac{Sph}{2}$$

Note: when, in a TT scheme, the installation earth electrode is beyond the zone of influence of the source earthing electrode, the c.s.a. of the PE conductor can be limited to 25 mm² (for copper) or 35 mm² (for aluminium).

The neutral cannot be used as a PEN conductor unless its c.s.a. is equal to or larger than 10 mm² (copper) or 16 mm² (aluminium).

Moreover, a PEN conductor is not allowed in a flexible cable. Since a PEN conductor functions also as a neutral conductor, its c.s.a. cannot, in any case, be less than that necessary for the neutral, as discussed in Subclause 7.1 of this Chapter.

This c.s.a. cannot be less than that of the phase conductors unless:

- The kVA rating of single-phase loads is less than 10% of the total kVA load, and
- Imax likely to pass through the neutral in normal circumstances, is less than the current permitted for the selected cable size.

Furthermore, protection of the neutral conductor must be assured by the protective devices provided for phase-conductor protection (described in Sub-clause 7.2 of this Chapter).

Values of factor k to be used in the formulae

These values are identical in several national standards, and the temperature rise ranges, together with factor k values and the upper temperature limits for the different classes of insulation, correspond with those published in IEC 60724 (1984).

The data presented in **Figure G59** are those most commonly needed for LV installation design.

G39

k values	Nature of insulation		
	Polyvinylchloride (PVC)	Cross-linked-polyethylene (XLPE)	Ethylene-propylene-rubber (EPR)
Final temperature (°C)	160	250	
Initial temperature (°C)	30	30	
Insulated conductors not incorporated in cables or bare conductors in contact with cable jackets	Copper Aluminium Steel	143 95 52	176 116 64
Conductors of a multi-core-cable	Copper Aluminium	115 76	143 94

Fig. G59 : k factor values for LV PE conductors, commonly used in national standards and complying with IEC 60724

6.3 Protective conductor between MV/LV transformer and the main general distribution board (MGDB)

These conductors must be sized according to national practices

All phase and neutral conductors upstream of the main incoming circuit-breaker controlling and protecting the MGDB are protected by devices at the MV side of the transformer. The conductors in question, together with the PE conductor, must be dimensioned accordingly. Dimensioning of the phase and neutral conductors from the transformer is exemplified in Sub-clause 7.5 of this chapter (for circuit C1 of the system illustrated in Fig. G65).

Recommended conductor sizes for bare and insulated PE conductors from the transformer neutral point, shown in **Figure G60**, are indicated below in **Figure G61**. The kVA rating to consider is the sum of all (if more than one) transformers connected to the MGDB.

G40

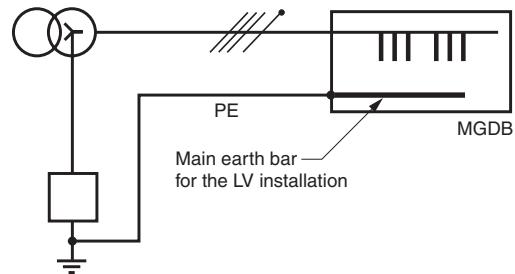


Fig. G60 : PE conductor to the main earth bar in the MGDB

The table indicates the c.s.a. of the conductors in mm^2 according to:

- The nominal rating of the MV/LV transformer(s) in kVA
- The fault-current clearance time by the MV protective devices, in seconds
- The kinds of insulation and conductor materials

If the MV protection is by fuses, then use the 0.2 seconds columns.

In IT schemes, if an overvoltage protection device is installed (between the transformer neutral point and earth) the conductors for connection of the device should also be dimensioned in the same way as that described above for PE conductors.

Transformer rating in kVA (230/400 V output)	Conductor material	Bare conductors			PVC-insulated conductors			XLPE-insulated conductors		
		0.2	0.5	-	0.2	0.5	-	0.2	0.5	-
	Copper t(s)	Aluminium t(s)								
≤100	c.s.a. of PE conductors	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
160	SPE (mm^2)	25	25	35	25	25	50	25	25	35
200		25	35	50	25	35	50	25	25	50
250		25	35	70	35	50	70	25	35	50
315		35	50	70	35	50	95	35	50	70
400		50	70	95	50	70	95	35	50	95
500		50	70	120	70	95	120	50	70	95
630		70	95	150	70	95	150	70	95	120
800		70	120	150	95	120	185	70	95	150
1,000		95	120	185	95	120	185	70	120	150
1,250		95	150	185	120	150	240	95	120	185

Fig. G61 : Recommended c.s.a. of PE conductor between the MV/LV transformer and the MGDB, as a function of transformer ratings and fault-clearance times.

6 Protective earthing conductor (PE)

6.4 Equipotential conductor

The main equipotential conductor

This conductor must, in general, have a c.s.a. at least equal to half of that of the largest PE conductor, but in no case need exceed 25 mm² (copper) or 35 mm² (aluminium) while its minimum c.s.a. is 6 mm² (copper) or 10 mm² (aluminium).

Supplementary equipotential conductor

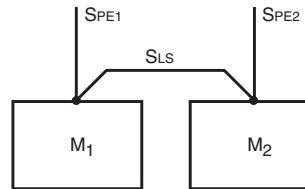
This conductor allows an exposed conductive part which is remote from the nearest main equipotential conductor (PE conductor) to be connected to a local protective conductor. Its c.s.a. must be at least half of that of the protective conductor to which it is connected.

If it connects two exposed conductive parts (M1 and M2 in **Figure G62**) its c.s.a. must be at least equal to that of the smaller of the two PE conductors (for M1 and M2). Equipotential conductors which are not incorporated in a cable, should be protected mechanically by conduits, ducting, etc. wherever possible.

Other important uses for supplementary equipotential conductors concern the reduction of the earth-fault loop impedance, particularly for indirect-contact protection schemes in TN- or IT-earthed installations, and in special locations with increased electrical risk (refer to IEC 60364-4-41).

G41

Between two exposed conductive parts
if $SPE1 \leq SPE2$
then $SLS = SPE1$



Between an exposed conductive part
and a metallic structure

$$SLS = \frac{SPE}{2}$$

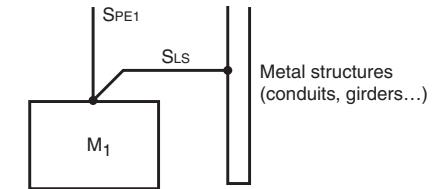


Fig. G62 : Supplementary equipotential conductors

The c.s.a. and the protection of the neutral conductor, apart from its current-carrying requirement, depend on several factors, namely:

- The type of earthing system, TT, TN, etc.
- The harmonic currents
- The method of protection against indirect contact hazards according to the methods described below

The color of the neutral conductor is statutorily blue. PEN conductor, when insulated, shall be marked by one of the following methods :

- Green-and-yellow throughout its length with, in addition, light blue markings at the terminations, or
- Light blue throughout its length with, in addition, green-and-yellow markings at the terminations

7.1 Sizing the neutral conductor

Influence of the type of earthing system

TT and TN-S schemes

- Single-phase circuits or those of c.s.a. $\leq 16 \text{ mm}^2$ (copper) 25 mm^2 (aluminium): the c.s.a. of the neutral conductor must be equal to that of the phases
- Three-phase circuits of c.s.a. $> 16 \text{ mm}^2$ copper or 25 mm^2 aluminium: the c.s.a. of the neutral may be chosen to be:
 - Equal to that of the phase conductors, or
 - Smaller, on condition that:
 - The current likely to flow through the neutral in normal conditions is less than the permitted value I_z . The influence of triplen⁽¹⁾ harmonics must be given particular consideration or
 - The neutral conductor is protected against short-circuit, in accordance with the following Sub-clause G-7.2
 - The size of the neutral conductor is at least equal to 16 mm^2 in copper or 25 mm^2 in aluminium

TN-C scheme

The same conditions apply in theory as those mentioned above, but in practice, the neutral conductor must not be open-circuited under any circumstances since it constitutes a PE as well as a neutral conductor (see Figure G58 "c.s.a. of PEN conductor" column).

IT scheme

In general, it is not recommended to distribute the neutral conductor, i.e. a 3-phase 3-wire scheme is preferred. When a 3-phase 4-wire installation is necessary, however, the conditions described above for TT and TN-S schemes are applicable.

Influence of harmonic currents

Effects of triplen harmonics

Harmonics are generated by the non-linear loads of the installation (computers, fluorescent lighting, rectifiers, power electronic choppers) and can produce high currents in the Neutral. In particular triplen harmonics of the three Phases have a tendency to cumulate in the Neutral as:

- Fundamental currents are out-of-phase by $2\pi/3$ so that their sum is zero
- On the other hand, triplen harmonics of the three Phases are always positioned in the same manner with respect to their own fundamental, and are in phase with each other (see Fig. G63a).

(1) Harmonics of order 3 and multiple of 3

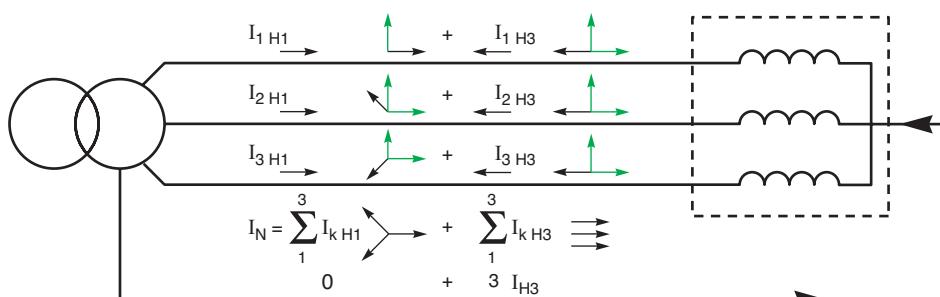


Fig. G63a : Triplen harmonics are in phase and cumulate in the Neutral

7 The neutral conductor

Figure G63b shows the load factor of the neutral conductor as a function of the percentage of 3rd harmonic.

In practice, this maximum load factor cannot exceed $\sqrt{3}$.

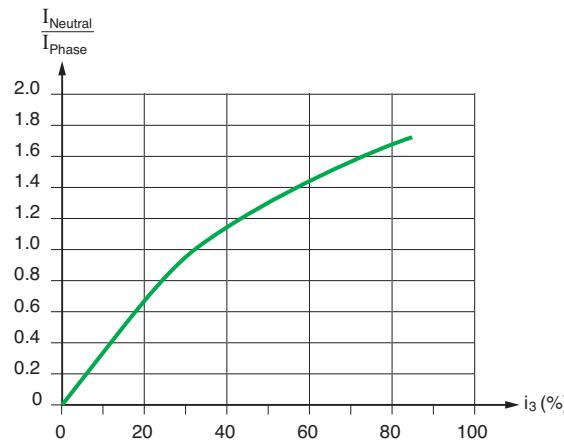


Fig. G63b : Load factor of the neutral conductor vs the percentage of 3rd harmonic

G43

Reduction factors for harmonic currents in four-core and five-core cables with four cores carrying current

The basic calculation of a cable concerns only cables with three loaded conductors i.e there is no current in the neutral conductor. Because of the third harmonic current, there is a current in the neutral. As a result, this neutral current creates an hot environment for the 3 phase conductors and for this reason, a reduction factor for phase conductors is necessary (see Fig. G63).

Reduction factors, applied to the current-carrying capacity of a cable with three loaded conductors, give the current-carrying capacity of a cable with four loaded conductors, where the current in the fourth conductor is due to harmonics. The reduction factors also take the heating effect of the harmonic current in the phase conductors into account.

- Where the neutral current is expected to be higher than the phase current, then the cable size should be selected on the basis of the neutral current
- Where the cable size selection is based on a neutral current which is not significantly higher than the phase current, it is necessary to reduce the tabulated current carrying capacity for three loaded conductors
- If the neutral current is more than 135% of the phase current and the cable size is selected on the basis of the neutral current then the three phase conductors will not be fully loaded. The reduction in heat generated by the phase conductors offsets the heat generated by the neutral conductor to the extent that it is not necessary to apply any reduction factor to the current carrying capacity for three loaded conductors.
- In order to protect cables, the fuse or circuit-breaker has to be sized taking into account the greatest of the values of the line currents (phase or neutral). However, there are special devices (for example the Compact NSX circuit breaker equipped with the OSN tripping unit), that allow the use of a c.s.a. of the phase conductors smaller than the c.s.a. of the neutral conductor. A big economic gain can thus be made.



Compact NSX100 circuit breaker

Third harmonic content of phase current (%)	Reduction factor	
	Size selection is based on phase current	Size selection is based on neutral current
0 - 15	1.0	-
15 - 33	0.86	-
33 - 45	-	0.86
> 45	-	1.0

Fig. G63 : Reduction factors for harmonic currents in four-core and five-core cables (according to IEC 60364-5-52)

Examples

Consider a three-phase circuit with a design load of 37 A to be installed using four-core PVC insulated cable clipped to a wall, installation method C. From Figure G24, a 6 mm² cable with copper conductors has a current-carrying capacity of 40 A and hence is suitable if harmonics are not present in the circuit.

- If 20 % third harmonic is present, then a reduction factor of 0,86 is applied and the design load becomes: $37/0.86 = 43$ A.

For this load a 10 mm² cable is necessary.

In this case, the use of a special protective device (Compact NSX equipped with the OSN trip unit for instance) would allow the use of a 6 mm² cable for the phases and of 10 mm² for the neutral.

- If 40 % third harmonic is present, the cable size selection is based on the neutral current which is: $37 \times 0,4 \times 3 = 44,4$ A and a reduction factor of 0,86 is applied, leading to a design load of: $44,4/0.86 = 51,6$ A.

For this load a 10 mm² cable is suitable.

- If 50 % third harmonic is present, the cable size is again selected on the basis of the neutral current, which is: $37 \times 0,5 \times 3 = 55,5$ A. In this case the rating factor is 1 and a 16 mm² cable is required.

In this case, the use of a special protective device (Compact NSX equipped with the OSN trip for instance) would allow the use of a 6 mm² cable for the phases and of 10 mm² for the neutral.

7.2 Protection of the neutral conductor

(see Fig. G64 next page)

Protection against overload

If the neutral conductor is correctly sized (including harmonics), no specific protection of the neutral conductor is required because it is protected by the phase protection.

However, in practice, if the c.s.a. of the neutral conductor is lower than the phase c.s.a., a neutral overload protection must be installed.

Protection against short-circuit

If the c.s.a. of the neutral conductor is lower than the c.s.a. of the phase conductor, the neutral conductor must be protected against short-circuit.

If the c.s.a. of the neutral conductor is equal or greater than the c.s.a. of the phase conductor, no specific protection of the neutral conductor is required because it is protected by the phase protection.

7.3 Breaking of the neutral conductor

(see Fig. G64 next page)

The need to break or not the neutral conductor is related to the protection against indirect contact.

In TN-C scheme

The neutral conductor must not be open-circuited under any circumstances since it constitutes a PE as well as a neutral conductor.

In TT, TN-S and IT schemes

In the event of a fault, the circuit-breaker will open all poles, including the neutral pole, i.e. the circuit-breaker is omnipolar.

The action can only be achieved with fuses in an indirect way, in which the operation of one or more fuses triggers a mechanical trip-out of all poles of an associated series-connected load-break switch.

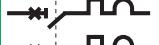
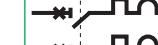
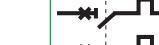
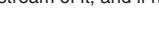
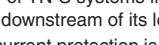
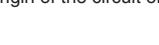
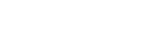
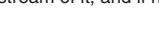
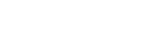
7.4 Isolation of the neutral conductor

(see Fig. G64 next page)

It is considered to be the good practice that every circuit be provided with the means for its isolation.

7 The neutral conductor

G45

	TT	TN-C	TN-S	IT
Single-phase (Phase-Neutral)	 or 			 or 
Single-phase (Phase-Phase)	 or 	 or 	 or 	 or 
Three-phase four wires $S_n \geq S_{ph}$	   	   	   	       
Three-phase four wires $S_n < S_{ph}$	   		   	       

(A) Authorized for TT or TN-S systems if a RCD is installed at the origin of the circuit or upstream of it, and if no artificial neutral is distributed downstream of its location

(B) The neutral overcurrent protection is not necessary:

- If the neutral conductor is protected against short-circuits by a device placed upstream, or,
- If the circuit is protected by a RCD which sensitivity is less than 15% of the neutral admissible current.

Fig. G64 : The various situations in which the neutral conductor may appear

8 Worked example of cable calculation

Worked example of cable calculation (see Fig. G65)

The installation is supplied through a 630 kVA transformer. The process requires a high degree of supply continuity and part of the installation can be supplied by a 250 kVA standby generator. The global earthing system is TN-S, except for the most critical loads supplied by an isolation transformer with a downstream IT configuration.

The single-line diagram is shown in **Figure G65** below. The results of a computer study for the circuit from transformer T1 down to the cable C7 is reproduced on Figure G66. This study was carried out with Ecodial 3.4 software (a Schneider Electric product).

This is followed by the same calculations carried out by the simplified method described in this guide.

G46

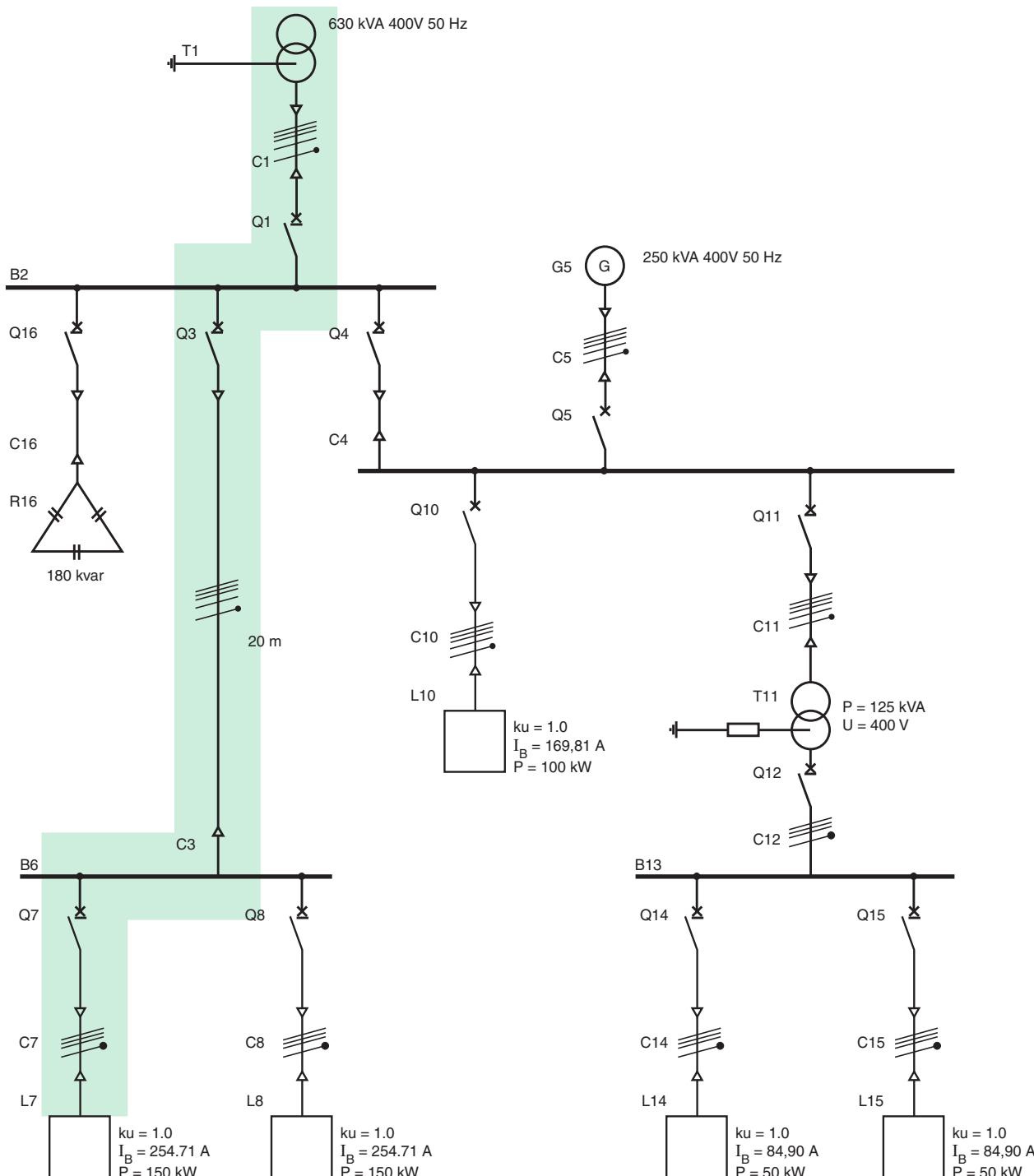


Fig. G65 : Example of single-line diagram

8 Worked example of cable calculation

Calculation using software Ecodial 3.3

General network characteristics		Number of poles and protected poles	4P4d
Earthing system	TN-S	Tripping unit	Micrologic 2.3
Neutral distributed	No	Overload trip Ir (A)	510
Voltage (V)	400	Short-delay trip Im / Isd (A)	5100
Frequency (Hz)	50	Cable C3	
Upstream fault level (MVA)	500	Length	20
Resistance of MV network (mΩ)	0.0351	Maximum load current (A)	509
Reactance of MV network (mΩ)	0.351	Type of insulation	PVC
Transformer T1		Ambient temperature (°C)	30
Rating (kVA)	630	Conductor material	Copper
Short-circuit impedance voltage (%)	4	Single-core or multi-core cable	Single
Transformer resistance RT (mΩ)	3.472	Installation method	F
Transformer reactance XT (mΩ)	10.64	Phase conductor selected csa (mm²)	2 x 95
3-phase short-circuit current Ik ₃ (kA)	21.54	Neutral conductor selected csa (mm²)	2 x 95
Cable C1		PE conductor selected csa (mm²)	1 x 95
Length (m)	5	Cable voltage drop ΔU (%)	0.53
Maximum load current (A)	860	Total voltage drop ΔU (%)	0.65
Type of insulation	PVC	3-phase short-circuit current Ik ₃ (kA)	19.1
Ambient temperature (°C)	30	1-phase-to-earth fault current Id (kA)	11.5
Conductor material	Copper	Switchboard B6	
Single-core or multi-core cable	Single	Reference	Linergy 800
Installation method	F	Rated current (A)	750
Number of layers	1	Circuit-breaker Q7	
Phase conductor selected csa (mm²)	2 x 240	Load current (A)	255
Neutral conductor selected csa (mm²)	2 x 240	Type	Compact
PE conductor selected csa (mm²)	1 x 120	Reference	NSX400F
Voltage drop ΔU (%)	0.122	Rated current (A)	400
3-phase short-circuit current Ik ₃ (kA)	21.5	Number of poles and protected poles	3P3d
Courant de défaut phase-terre Id (kA)	15.9	Tripping unit	Micrologic 2.3
Circuit-breaker Q1		Overload trip Ir (A)	258
Load current (A)	860	Short-delay trip Im / Isd (A)	2576
Type	Compact	Cable C7	
Reference	NS1000N	Length	5
Rated current (A)	1000	Maximum load current (A)	255
Number of poles and protected poles	4P4d	Type of insulation	PVC
Tripping unit	Micrologic 5.0	Ambient temperature (°C)	30
Overload trip Ir (A)	900	Conductor material	Copper
Short-delay trip Im / Isd (A)	9000	Single-core or multi-core cable	Single
Tripping time tm (ms)	50	Installation method	F
Switchboard B2		Phase conductor selected csa (mm²)	1 x 95
Reference	Linergy 1250	Neutral conductor selected csa (mm²)	-
Rated current (A)	1050	PE conductor selected csa (mm²)	1 x 50
Circuit breaker Q3		Cable voltage drop ΔU (%)	0.14
Load current (A)	509	Total voltage drop ΔU (%)	0.79
Type	Compact	3-phase short-circuit current Ik ₃ (kA)	18.0
Reference	NSX630F	1-phase-to-earth fault current Id (kA)	10.0
Rated current (A)	630		

Fig. G66 : Partial results of calculation carried out with Ecodial 3.4 software (Schneider Electric)

G47

The same calculation using the simplified method recommended in this guide

■ Dimensioning circuit C1

The MV/LV 630 kVA transformer has a rated no-load voltage of 420 V. Circuit C1 must be suitable for a current of:

$$I_B = \frac{630 \times 10^3}{\sqrt{3} \times 420} = 866 \text{ A per phase}$$

Two single-core PVC-insulated copper cables in parallel will be used for each phase. These cables will be laid on cable trays according to method F.

Each conductor will therefore carry 433A. Figure G21a indicates that for 3 loaded conductors with PVC insulation, the required c.s.a. is 240mm².

The resistance and the inductive reactance, for the two conductors in parallel, and for a length of 5 metres, are:

$$R = \frac{22.5 \times 5}{240 \times 2} = 0.23 \text{ m}\Omega \quad (\text{cable resistance: } 22.5 \text{ m}\Omega \cdot \text{mm}^2/\text{m})$$

$$X = 0.08 \times 5 = 0.4 \text{ m}\Omega \quad (\text{cable reactance: } 0.08 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{m})$$

■ Dimensioning circuit C3

Circuit C3 supplies two 150kW loads with $\cos \varphi = 0.85$, so the total load current is:

$$I_B = \frac{300 \times 10^3}{\sqrt{3} \times 400 \times 0.85} = 509 \text{ A}$$

Two single-core PVC-insulated copper cables in parallel will be used for each phase. These cables will be laid on cable trays according to method F.

Each conductor will therefore carry 255A. Figure G21a indicates that for 3 loaded conductors with PVC insulation, the required c.s.a. is 95mm².

The resistance and the inductive reactance, for the two conductors in parallel, and for a length of 20 metres, are:

$$R = \frac{22.5 \times 20}{95 \times 2} = 2.37 \text{ m}\Omega \quad (\text{cable resistance: } 22.5 \text{ m}\Omega \cdot \text{mm}^2/\text{m})$$

$$X = 0.08 \times 20 = 1.6 \text{ m}\Omega \quad (\text{cable reactance: } 0.08 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{m})$$

■ Dimensioning circuit C7

Circuit C7 supplies one 150kW load with $\cos \varphi = 0.85$, so the total load current is:

$$I_B = \frac{150 \times 10^3}{\sqrt{3} \times 400 \times 0.85} = 255 \text{ A}$$

One single-core PVC-insulated copper cable will be used for each phase. The cables will be laid on cable trays according to method F.

Each conductor will therefore carry 255A. Figure G21a indicates that for 3 loaded conductors with PVC insulation, the required c.s.a. is 95mm².

The resistance and the inductive reactance for a length of 20 metres is:

$$R = \frac{22.5 \times 5}{95} = 1.18 \text{ m}\Omega \quad (\text{cable resistance: } 22.5 \text{ m}\Omega \cdot \text{mm}^2/\text{m})$$

$$X = 0.08 \times 5 = 0.4 \text{ m}\Omega \quad (\text{cable reactance: } 0.08 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{m})$$

■ Calculation of short-circuit currents for the selection of circuit-breakers Q1, Q3, Q7 (see Fig. G67)

Circuit components	R (mΩ)	X (mΩ)	Z (mΩ)	Ikmax (kA)
Upstream MV network, 500MVA fault level (see Fig. G34)	0,035	0,351		
Transformer 630kVA, 4% (see Fig. G35)	2.9	10.8		
Cable C1	0.23	0.4		
Sub-total	3.16	11.55	11.97	20.2
Cable C3	2.37	1.6		
Sub-total	5.53	13.15	14.26	17
Cable C7	1.18	0.4		
Sub-total	6.71	13.55	15.12	16

Fig. G67 : Example of short-circuit current evaluation

8 Worked example of cable calculation

G49

■ The protective conductor

When using the adiabatic method, the minimum c.s.a. for the protective earth conductor (PE) can be calculated by the formula given in Figure G58:

$$S_{PE} = \frac{\sqrt{I^2 \cdot t}}{k}$$

For circuit C1, $I = 20.2\text{kA}$ and $k = 143$.

t is the maximum operating time of the MV protection, e.g. 0.5s

This gives:

$$S_{PE} = \frac{\sqrt{I^2 \cdot t}}{k} = \frac{20200 \times \sqrt{0.5}}{143} = 100 \text{ mm}^2$$

A single 120 mm² conductor is therefore largely sufficient, provided that it also satisfies the requirements for indirect contact protection (i.e. that its impedance is sufficiently low).

Generally, for circuits with phase conductor c.s.a. $S_{ph} \geq 50 \text{ mm}^2$, the PE conductor minimum c.s.a. will be $S_{ph} / 2$. Then, for circuit C3, the PE conductor will be 95mm², and for circuit C7, the PE conductor will be 50mm².

■ Protection against indirect-contact hazards

For circuit C3 of Figure G65, Figures F41 and F40, or the formula given page F25 may be used for a 3-phase 4-wire circuit.

The maximum permitted length of the circuit is given by:

$$L_{max} = \frac{0.8 \times U_0 \times S_{ph}}{\rho \times (1 + m) \times I_a}$$

$$L_{max} = \frac{0.8 \times 230 \times 95}{22.5 \times 10^3 \times (1+2) \times 630 \times 11} = 75 \text{ m}$$

(The value in the denominator 630×11 is the maximum current level at which the instantaneous short-circuit magnetic trip of the 630 A circuit-breaker operates).

The length of 20 metres is therefore fully protected by "instantaneous" over-current devices.

■ Voltage drop

The voltage drop is calculated using the data given in Figure G28, for balanced three-phase circuits, motor power normal service ($\cos \varphi = 0.8$).

The results are summarized on figure G68:

c.s.a.	C1	C3	C7
ΔU per conductor (V/A/km) see Fig. G28	0.21	0.42	0.42
Load current (A)	866	509	255
Length (m)	5	20	5
Voltage drop (V)	0.45	2.1	0.53
Voltage drop (%)	0.11	0.53	0.13

Fig. G68 : Voltage drop introduced by the different cables

The total voltage drop at the end of cable C7 is then: 0.77%.

Chapter H

LV switchgear: functions & selection

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1 The basic functions of LV switchgear

The role of switchgear is:

- Electrical protection
- Safe isolation from live parts
- Local or remote switching

National and international standards define the manner in which electric circuits of LV installations must be realized, and the capabilities and limitations of the various switching devices which are collectively referred to as switchgear.

The main functions of switchgear are:

- Electrical protection
- Electrical isolation of sections of an installation
- Local or remote switching

These functions are summarized below in **Figure H1**.

Electrical protection at low voltage is (apart from fuses) normally incorporated in circuit-breakers, in the form of thermal-magnetic devices and/or residual-current-operated tripping devices (less-commonly, residual voltage- operated devices - acceptable to, but not recommended by IEC).

In addition to those functions shown in Figure H1, other functions, namely:

- Over-voltage protection
- Under-voltage protection

are provided by specific devices (lightning and various other types of voltage-surge arrester, relays associated with contactors, remotely controlled circuit-breakers, and with combined circuit-breaker/isolators... and so on)

Electrical protection against	Isolation	Control
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Overload currents ■ Short-circuit currents ■ Insulation failure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Isolation clearly indicated by an authorized fail-safe mechanical indicator ■ A gap or interposed insulating barrier between the open contacts, clearly visible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Functional switching ■ Emergency switching ■ Emergency stopping ■ Switching off for mechanical maintenance

Fig. H1 : Basic functions of LV switchgear

1.1 Electrical protection

Electrical protection assures:

- Protection of circuit elements against the thermal and mechanical stresses of short-circuit currents
- Protection of persons in the event of insulation failure
- Protection of appliances and apparatus being supplied (e.g. motors, etc.)

The aim is to avoid or to limit the destructive or dangerous consequences of excessive (short-circuit) currents, or those due to overloading and insulation failure, and to separate the defective circuit from the rest of the installation.

A distinction is made between the protection of:

- The elements of the installation (cables, wires, switchgear...)
- Persons and animals
- Equipment and appliances supplied from the installation

The protection of circuits

- Against over-load; a condition of excessive current being drawn from a healthy (unfaulted) installation
- Against short-circuit currents due to complete failure of insulation between conductors of different phases or (in TN systems) between a phase and neutral (or PE) conductor

Protection in these cases is provided either by fuses or circuit-breaker, in the distribution board at the origin of the final circuit (i.e. the circuit to which the load is connected). Certain derogations to this rule are authorized in some national standards, as noted in chapter H1 sub-clause 1.4.

The protection of persons

- Against insulation failures. According to the system of earthing for the installation (TN, TT or IT) the protection will be provided by fuses or circuit-breakers, residual current devices, and/or permanent monitoring of the insulation resistance of the installation to earth

The protection of electric motors

- Against overheating, due, for example, to long term overloading, stalled rotor, single-phasing, etc. Thermal relays, specially designed to match the particular characteristics of motors are used.

Such relays may, if required, also protect the motor-circuit cable against overload. Short-circuit protection is provided either by type AM fuses or by a circuit-breaker from which the thermal (overload) protective element has been removed, or otherwise made inoperative.

1 The basic functions of LV switchgear

A state of isolation clearly indicated by an approved "fail-proof" indicator, or the visible separation of contacts, are both deemed to satisfy the national standards of many countries

1.2 Isolation

The aim of isolation is to separate a circuit or apparatus (such as a motor, etc.) from the remainder of a system which is energized, in order that personnel may carry out work on the isolated part in perfect safety.

In principle, all circuits of an LV installation shall have means to be isolated. In practice, in order to maintain an optimum continuity of service, it is preferred to provide a means of isolation at the origin of each circuit.

An isolating device must fulfil the following requirements:

- All poles of a circuit, including the neutral (except where the neutral is a PEN conductor) must open⁽¹⁾
- It must be provided with a locking system in open position with a key (e.g. by means of a padlock) in order to avoid an unauthorized reclosure by inadvertence
- It must comply with a recognized national or international standard (e.g. IEC 60947-3) concerning clearance between contacts, creepage distances, overvoltage withstand capability, etc.:

Other requirements apply:

- Verification that the contacts of the isolating device are, in fact, open.

The verification may be:

- Either visual, where the device is suitably designed to allow the contacts to be seen (some national standards impose this condition for an isolating device located at the origin of a LV installation supplied directly from a MV/LV transformer)
- Or mechanical, by means of an indicator solidly welded to the operating shaft of the device. In this case the construction of the device must be such that, in the eventuality that the contacts become welded together in the closed position, the indicator cannot possibly indicate that it is in the open position
- Leakage currents. With the isolating device open, leakage currents between the open contacts of each phase must not exceed:
 - 0.5 mA for a new device
 - 6.0 mA at the end of its useful life
- Voltage-surge withstand capability, across open contacts. The isolating device, when open must withstand a 1.2/50 µs impulse, having a peak value of 6, 8 or 12 kV according to its service voltage, as shown in **Figure H2**. The device must satisfy these conditions for altitudes up to 2,000 metres. Correction factors are given in IEC 60664-1 for altitudes greater than 2,000 metres.

Consequently, if tests are carried out at sea level, the test values must be increased by 23% to take into account the effect of altitude. See standard IEC 60947.

H3

Service (nominal voltage (V))	Impulse withstand peak voltage category (for 2,000 metres) (kV)	
	III	IV
230/400	4	6
400/690	6	8
690/1,000	8	12

Fig. H2 : Peak value of impulse voltage according to normal service voltage of test specimen. The degrees III and IV are degrees of pollution defined in IEC 60664-1

(1) the concurrent opening of all live conductors, while not always obligatory, is however, strongly recommended (for reasons of greater safety and facility of operation). The neutral contact opens after the phase contacts, and closes before them (IEC 60947-1).

1 The basic functions of LV switchgear

Switchgear-control functions allow system operating personnel to modify a loaded system at any moment, according to requirements, and include:

- Functional control (routine switching, etc.)
- Emergency switching
- Maintenance operations on the power system

1.3 Switchgear control

In broad terms “control” signifies any facility for safely modifying a load-carrying power system at all levels of an installation. The operation of switchgear is an important part of power-system control.

Functional control

This control relates to all switching operations in normal service conditions for energizing or de-energizing a part of a system or installation, or an individual piece of equipment, item of plant, etc.

Switchgear intended for such duty must be installed at least:

- At the origin of any installation
- At the final load circuit or circuits (one switch may control several loads)

Marking (of the circuits being controlled) must be clear and unambiguous.

In order to provide the maximum flexibility and continuity of operation, particularly where the switching device also constitutes the protection (e.g. a circuit-breaker or switch-fuse) it is preferable to include a switch at each level of distribution, i.e. on each outgoing way of all distribution and subdistribution boards.

The manoeuvre may be:

- Either manual (by means of an operating lever on the switch) or
- Electric, by push-button on the switch or at a remote location (load-shedding and reconnection, for example)

These switches operate instantaneously (i.e. with no deliberate delay), and those that provide protection are invariably omni-polar⁽¹⁾.

The main circuit-breaker for the entire installation, as well as any circuit-breakers used for change-over (from one source to another) must be omni-polar units.

Emergency switching - emergency stop

An emergency switching is intended to de-energize a live circuit which is, or could become, dangerous (electric shock or fire).

An emergency stop is intended to halt a movement which has become dangerous.

In the two cases:

- The emergency control device or its means of operation (local or at remote location(s)) such as a large red mushroom-headed emergency-stop pushbutton must be recognizable and readily accessible, in proximity to any position at which danger could arise or be seen
- A single action must result in a complete switching-off of all live conductors^{(2) (3)}
- A “break glass” emergency switching initiation device is authorized, but in unmanned installations the re-energizing of the circuit can only be achieved by means of a key held by an authorized person

It should be noted that in certain cases, an emergency system of braking, may require that the auxiliary supply to the braking-system circuits be maintained until final stoppage of the machinery.

Switching-off for mechanical maintenance work

This operation assures the stopping of a machine and its impossibility to be inadvertently restarted while mechanical maintenance work is being carried out on the driven machinery. The shutdown is generally carried out at the functional switching device, with the use of a suitable safety lock and warning notice at the switch mechanism.

(1) One break in each phase and (where appropriate) one break in the neutral.

(2) Taking into account stalled motors.

(3) In a TN schema the PEN conductor must never be opened, since it functions as a protective earthing wire as well as the system neutral conductor.

2.1 Elementary switching devices

Disconnector (or isolator) (see Fig. H5)

This switch is a manually-operated, lockable, two-position device (open/closed) which provides safe isolation of a circuit when locked in the open position. Its characteristics are defined in IEC 60947-3. A disconnector is not designed to make or to break current⁽¹⁾ and no rated values for these functions are given in standards. It must, however, be capable of withstanding the passage of short-circuit currents and is assigned a rated short-time withstand capability, generally for 1 second, unless otherwise agreed between user and manufacturer. This capability is normally more than adequate for longer periods of (lower-valued) operational overcurrents, such as those of motor-starting. Standardized mechanical-endurance, overvoltage, and leakage-current tests, must also be satisfied.

Load-breaking switch (see Fig. H6)

This control switch is generally operated manually (but is sometimes provided with electrical tripping for operator convenience) and is a non-automatic two-position device (open/closed).

It is used to close and open loaded circuits under normal unfaulted circuit conditions. It does not consequently provide any protection for the circuit it controls.

IEC standard 60947-3 defines:

- The frequency of switch operation (600 close/open cycles per hour maximum)
 - Mechanical and electrical endurance (generally less than that of a contactor)
 - Current making and breaking ratings for normal and infrequent situations
- When closing a switch to energize a circuit there is always the possibility that an unsuspected short-circuit exists on the circuit. For this reason, load-break switches are assigned a fault-current making rating, i.e. successful closure against the electrodynamic forces of short-circuit current is assured. Such switches are commonly referred to as "fault-make load-break" switches. Upstream protective devices are relied upon to clear the short-circuit fault

Category AC-23 includes occasional switching of individual motors. The switching of capacitors or of tungsten filament lamps shall be subject to agreement between manufacturer and user.

The utilization categories referred to in **Figure H7** do not apply to an equipment normally used to start, accelerate and/or stop individual motors.

Example

A 100 A load-break switch of category AC-23 (inductive load) must be able:

- To make a current of 10 In (= 1,000 A) at a power factor of 0.35 lagging
- To break a current of 8 In (= 800 A) at a power factor of 0.45 lagging
- To withstand short duration short-circuit currents when closed



Fig. H5 : Symbol for a disconnector (or isolator)

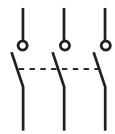


Fig. H6 : Symbol for a load-break switch

Utilization category		Typical applications	$\cos \phi$	Making current x In	Breaking current x In
Frequent operations	Infrequent operations				
AC-20A	AC-20B	Connecting and disconnecting under no-load conditions	-	-	-
AC-21A	AC-21B	Switching of resistive loads including moderate overloads	0.95	1.5	1.5
AC-22A	AC-22B	Switching of mixed resistive and inductive loads, including moderate overloads	0.65	3	3
AC-23A	AC-23B	Switching of motor loads or other highly inductive loads	0.45 for $I \leq 100$ A 0.35 for $I > 100$ A	10	8

Fig. H7 : Utilization categories of LV AC switches according to IEC 60947-3

(1) i.e. a LV disconnector is essentially a dead system switching device to be operated with no voltage on either side of it, particularly when closing, because of the possibility of an unsuspected short-circuit on the downstream side. Interlocking with an upstream switch or circuit-breaker is frequently used.

H6

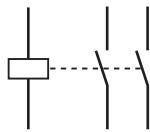


Fig. H8 : Symbol for a bistable remote control switch

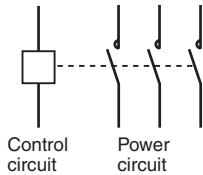


Fig. H9 : Symbol for a contactor

Two classes of LV cartridge fuse are very widely used:

- For domestic and similar installations type gG
- For industrial installations type gG, gM or aM

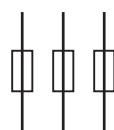


Fig. H10 : Symbol for fuses

Remote control switch (see Fig. H8)

This device is extensively used in the control of lighting circuits where the depression of a pushbutton (at a remote control position) will open an already-closed switch or close an opened switch in a bistable sequence.

Typical applications are:

- Two-way switching on stairways of large buildings
- Stage-lighting schemes
- Factory illumination, etc.

Auxiliary devices are available to provide:

- Remote indication of its state at any instant
- Time-delay functions
- Maintained-contact features

Contactor (see Fig. H9)

The contactor is a solenoid-operated switching device which is generally held closed by (a reduced) current through the closing solenoid (although various mechanically-latched types exist for specific duties). Contactors are designed to carry out numerous close/open cycles and are commonly controlled remotely by on-off pushbuttons. The large number of repetitive operating cycles is standardized in table VIII of IEC 60947-4-1 by:

- The operating duration: 8 hours; uninterrupted; intermittent; temporary of 3, 10, 30, 60 and 90 minutes
- Utilization category: for example, a contactor of category AC3 can be used for the starting and stopping of a cage motor
- The start-stop cycles (1 to 1,200 cycles per hour)
- Mechanical endurance (number of off-load manoeuvres)
- Electrical endurance (number of on-load manoeuvres)
- A rated current making and breaking performance according to the category of utilization concerned

Example:

A 150 A contactor of category AC3 must have a minimum current-breaking capability of 8 In (= 1,200 A) and a minimum current-making rating of 10 In (= 1,500 A) at a power factor (lagging) of 0.35.

Discontactor⁽¹⁾

A contactor equipped with a thermal-type relay for protection against overloading defines a "discontactor". Discontactors are used extensively for remote push-button control of lighting circuits, etc., and may also be considered as an essential element in a motor controller, as noted in sub-clause 2.2. "combined switchgear elements". The discontactor is not the equivalent of a circuit-breaker, since its short-circuit current breaking capability is limited to 8 or 10 In. For short-circuit protection therefore, it is necessary to include either fuses or a circuit-breaker in series with, and upstream of, the discontactor contacts.

Fuses (see Fig. H10)

The first letter indicates the breaking range:

- "g" fuse-links (full-range breaking-capacity fuse-link)
- "a" fuse-links (partial-range breaking-capacity fuse-link)

The second letter indicates the utilization category; this letter defines with accuracy the time-current characteristics, conventional times and currents, gates.

For example

- "gG" indicates fuse-links with a full-range breaking capacity for general application
- "gM" indicates fuse-links with a full-range breaking capacity for the protection of motor circuits
- "aM" indicates fuse-links with a partial range breaking capacity for the protection of motor circuits

Fuses exist with and without "fuse-blown" mechanical indicators. Fuses break a circuit by controlled melting of the fuse element when a current exceeds a given value for a corresponding period of time; the current/time relationship being presented in the form of a performance curve for each type of fuse. Standards define two classes of fuse:

- Those intended for domestic installations, manufactured in the form of a cartridge for rated currents up to 100 A and designated type gG in IEC 60269-1 and 3
- Those for industrial use, with cartridge types designated gG (general use); and gM and aM (for motor-circuits) in IEC 60269-1 and 2

2 The switchgear

H7

The main differences between domestic and industrial fuses are the nominal voltage and current levels (which require much larger physical dimensions) and their fault-current breaking capabilities. Type gG fuse-links are often used for the protection of motor circuits, which is possible when their characteristics are capable of withstanding the motor-starting current without deterioration.

A more recent development has been the adoption by the IEC of a fuse-type gM for motor protection, designed to cover starting, and short-circuit conditions. This type of fuse is more popular in some countries than in others, but at the present time the aM fuse in combination with a thermal overload relay is more-widely used.

A gM fuse-link, which has a dual rating is characterized by two current values. The first value I_n denotes both the rated current of the fuse-link and the rated current of the fuseholder; the second value I_{ch} denotes the time-current characteristic of the fuse-link as defined by the gates in Tables II, III and VI of IEC 60269-1.

These two ratings are separated by a letter which defines the applications.

For example: In M I_{ch} denotes a fuse intended to be used for protection of motor circuits and having the characteristic G. The first value I_n corresponds to the maximum continuous current for the whole fuse and the second value I_{ch} corresponds to the G characteristic of the fuse link. For further details see note at the end of sub-clause 2.1.

An aM fuse-link is characterized by one current value I_n and time-current characteristic as shown in Figure H14 next page.

Important: Some national standards use a gl (industrial) type fuse, similar in all main essentials to type gG fuses.

Type gl fuses should never be used, however, in domestic and similar installations.

gM fuses require a separate overload relay, as described in the note at the end of sub-clause 2.1.

Fusing zones - conventional currents

The conditions of fusing (melting) of a fuse are defined by standards, according to their class.

Class gG fuses

These fuses provide protection against overloads and short-circuits.

Conventional non-fusing and fusing currents are standardized, as shown in Figure H12 and in Figure H13.

- The conventional non-fusing current I_{nf} is the value of current that the fusible element can carry for a specified time without melting.
Example: A 32 A fuse carrying a current of 1.25 I_n (i.e. 40 A) must not melt in less than one hour (table H13)
- The conventional fusing current I_f (= I_2 in Fig. H12) is the value of current which will cause melting of the fusible element before the expiration of the specified time.
Example: A 32 A fuse carrying a current of 1.6 I_n (i.e. 52.1 A) must melt in one hour or less

IEC 60269-1 standardized tests require that a fuse-operating characteristic lies between the two limiting curves (shown in Figure H12) for the particular fuse under test. This means that two fuses which satisfy the test can have significantly different operating times at low levels of overloading.

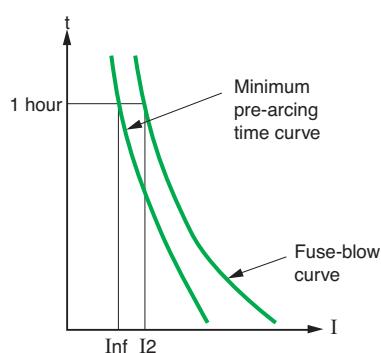


Fig. H12 : Zones of fusing and non-fusing for gG and gM fuses

Rated current ⁽¹⁾ I_n (A)	Conventional non-fusing current I_{nf}	Conventional fusing current I_2	Conventional time (h)
$I_n \leq 4$ A	1.5 I_n	2.1 I_n	1
$4 < I_n < 16$ A	1.5 I_n	1.9 I_n	1
$16 < I_n \leq 63$ A	1.25 I_n	1.6 I_n	1
$63 < I_n \leq 160$ A	1.25 I_n	1.6 I_n	2
$160 < I_n \leq 400$ A	1.25 I_n	1.6 I_n	3
$400 < I_n$	1.25 I_n	1.6 I_n	4

Fig. H13 : Zones of fusing and non-fusing for LV types gG and gM class fuses (IEC 60269-1 and 60269-2-1)

(1) Ich for gM fuses

■ The two examples given above for a 32 A fuse, together with the foregoing notes on standard test requirements, explain why these fuses have a poor performance in the low overload range

■ It is therefore necessary to install a cable larger in ampacity than that normally required for a circuit, in order to avoid the consequences of possible long term overloading (60% overload for up to one hour in the worst case)

By way of comparison, a circuit-breaker of similar current rating:

■ Which passes 1.05 In must not trip in less than one hour; and

■ When passing 1.25 In it must trip in one hour, or less (25% overload for up to one hour in the worst case)

Class aM (motor) fuses

These fuses afford protection against short-circuit currents only and must necessarily be associated with other switchgear (such as discontactors or circuit-breakers) in order to ensure overload protection < 4 In. They are not therefore autonomous. Since aM fuses are not intended to protect against low values of overload current, no levels of conventional non-fusing and fusing currents are fixed. The characteristic curves for testing these fuses are given for values of fault current exceeding approximately 4 In (see Fig. H14), and fuses tested to IEC 60269 must give operating curves which fall within the shaded area.

Note: the small “arrowheads” in the diagram indicate the current/time “gate” values for the different fuses to be tested (IEC 60269).

Rated short-circuit breaking currents

A characteristic of modern cartridge fuses is that, owing to the rapidity of fusion in the case of high short-circuit current levels⁽¹⁾, a current cut-off begins before the occurrence of the first major peak, so that the fault current never reaches its prospective peak value (see Fig. H15).

This limitation of current reduces significantly the thermal and dynamic stresses which would otherwise occur, thereby minimizing danger and damage at the fault position. The rated short-circuit breaking current of the fuse is therefore based on the rms value of the AC component of the prospective fault current.

No short-circuit current-making rating is assigned to fuses.

Reminder

Short-circuit currents initially contain DC components, the magnitude and duration of which depend on the XL/R ratio of the fault current loop.

Close to the source (MV/LV transformer) the relationship I_{peak} / I_{rms} (of AC component) immediately following the instant of fault, can be as high as 2.5 (standardized by IEC, and shown in Figure H16 next page).

At lower levels of distribution in an installation, as previously noted, XL is small compared with R and so for final circuits $I_{peak} / I_{rms} \sim 1.41$, a condition which corresponds with Figure H15.

The peak-current-limitation effect occurs only when the prospective rms AC component of fault current attains a certain level. For example, in the Figure H16 graph, the 100 A fuse will begin to cut off the peak at a prospective fault current (rms) of 2 kA (a). The same fuse for a condition of 20 kA rms prospective current will limit the peak current to 10 kA (b). Without a current-limiting fuse the peak current could attain 50 kA (c) in this particular case. As already mentioned, at lower distribution levels in an installation, R greatly predominates XL , and fault levels are generally low. This means that the level of fault current may not attain values high enough to cause peak current limitation. On the other hand, the DC transients (in this case) have an insignificant effect on the magnitude of the current peak, as previously mentioned.

Note: On gM fuse ratings

A gM type fuse is essentially a gG fuse, the fusible element of which corresponds to the current value I_{ch} ($ch = \text{characteristic}$) which may be, for example, 63 A. This is the IEC testing value, so that its time/ current characteristic is identical to that of a 63 A gG fuse.

This value (63 A) is selected to withstand the high starting currents of a motor, the steady state operating current (In) of which may be in the 10-20 A range.

This means that a physically smaller fuse barrel and metallic parts can be used, since the heat dissipation required in normal service is related to the lower figures (10-20 A). A standard gM fuse, suitable for this situation would be designated 32M63 (i.e. In M I_{ch}).

The first current rating In concerns the steady-load thermal performance of the fuselink, while the second current rating (I_{ch}) relates to its (short-time) starting-current performance. It is evident that, although suitable for short-circuit protection,

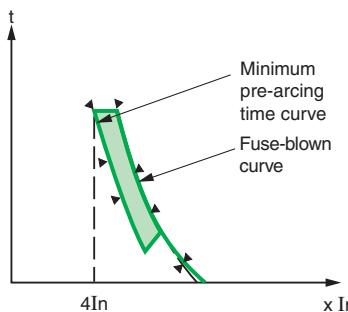


Fig. H14 : Standardized zones of fusing for type aM fuses (all current ratings)

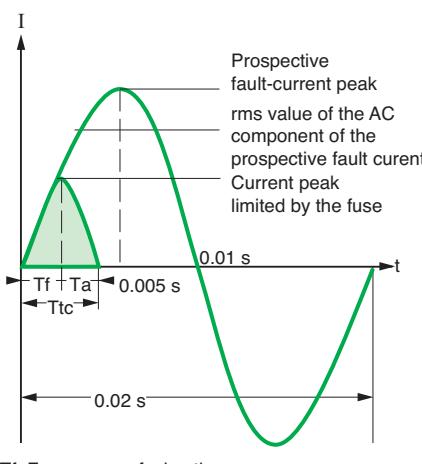


Fig. H15 : Current limitation by a fuse

(1) For currents exceeding a certain level, depending on the fuse nominal current rating, as shown below in Figure H16.

2 The switchgear

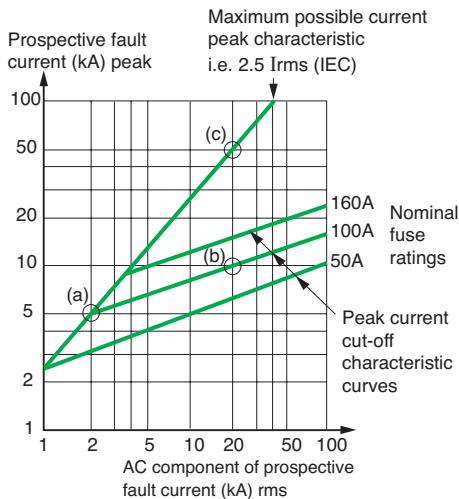


Fig. H16 : Limited peak current versus prospective rms values of the AC component of fault current for LV fuses

overload protection for the motor is not provided by the fuse, and so a separate thermal-type relay is always necessary when using gM fuses. The only advantage offered by gM fuses, therefore, when compared with aM fuses, are reduced physical dimensions and slightly lower cost.

2.2 Combined switchgear elements

Single units of switchgear do not, in general, fulfil all the requirements of the three basic functions, viz: Protection, control and isolation.

Where the installation of a circuit-breaker is not appropriate (notably where the switching rate is high, over extended periods) combinations of units specifically designed for such a performance are employed. The most commonly-used combinations are described below.

Switch and fuse combinations

Two cases are distinguished:

- The type in which the operation of one (or more) fuse(s) causes the switch to open. This is achieved by the use of fuses fitted with striker pins, and a system of switch tripping springs and toggle mechanisms (see **Fig. H17**)
- The type in which a non-automatic switch is associated with a set of fuses in a common enclosure.

In some countries, and in IEC 60947-3, the terms "switch-fuse" and "fuse-switch" have specific meanings, viz:

- A switch-fuse comprises a switch (generally 2 breaks per pole) on the upstream side of three fixed fuse-bases, into which the fuse carriers are inserted (see **Fig. H18**)
- A fuse-switch consists of three switch blades each constituting a double-break per phase.

These blades are not continuous throughout their length, but each has a gap in the centre which is bridged by the fuse cartridge. Some designs have only a single break per phase, as shown in **Figure H19**.

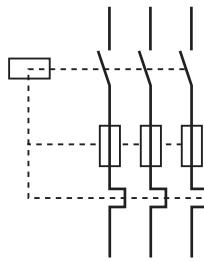


Fig. H17 : Symbol for an automatic tripping switch-fuse

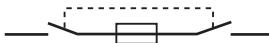


Fig. H18 : Symbol for a non-automatic fuse-switch

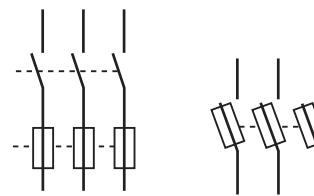


Fig. H19 : Symbol for a non-automatic switch-fuse

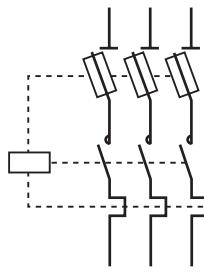


Fig. H20 : Symbol for a fuse disconnector + discontactor

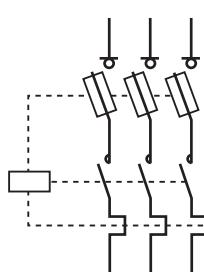


Fig. H21 : Symbol for a fuse-switch disconnector + discontactor

The current range for these devices is limited to 100 A maximum at 400 V 3-phase, while their principal use is in domestic and similar installations. To avoid confusion between the first group (i.e. automatic tripping) and the second group, the term "switch-fuse" should be qualified by the adjectives "automatic" or "non-automatic".

Fuse – disconnector + discontactor

Fuse - switch-disconnector + discontactor

As previously mentioned, a discontactor does not provide protection against short-circuit faults. It is necessary, therefore, to add fuses (generally of type aM) to perform this function. The combination is used mainly for motor control circuits, where the disconnector or switch-disconnector allows safe operations such as:

- The changing of fuse links (with the circuit isolated)
- Work on the circuit downstream of the discontactor (risk of remote closure of the discontactor)

The fuse-disconnector must be interlocked with the discontactor such that no opening or closing manoeuvre of the fuse disconnector is possible unless the discontactor is open (**Figure H20**), since the fuse disconnector has no load-switching capability.

A fuse-switch-disconnector (evidently) requires no interlocking (**Figure H21**).

The switch must be of class AC22 or AC23 if the circuit supplies a motor.

Circuit-breaker + contactor

Circuit-breaker + discontactor

These combinations are used in remotely controlled distribution systems in which the rate of switching is high, or for control and protection of a circuit supplying motors.

3 Choice of switchgear

3.1 Tabulated functional capabilities

After having studied the basic functions of LV switchgear (clause 1, Figure H1) and the different components of switchgear (clause 2), **Figure H22** summarizes the capabilities of the various components to perform the basic functions.

Switchgear item	Isolation	Control					Electrical protection		
		Functional	Emergency switching	Emergency stop (mechanical)	Switching for mechanical maintenance	Overload	Short-circuit	Electric shock	
Isolator (or disconnector) ⁽⁴⁾	■								
Switch ⁽⁵⁾	■	■	■ (1)	■ (1) (2)	■				
Residual device (RCCB) ⁽⁵⁾	■	■	■ (1)	■ (1) (2)	■			■	
Switch-disconnector	■	■	■ (1)	■ (1) (2)	■				
Contactor		■	■ (1)	■ (1) (2)	■	■ (3)			
Remote control switch		■	■ (1)		■				
Fuse	■					■	■		
Circuit breaker		■	■ (1)	■ (1) (2)	■	■	■		
Circuit-breaker disconnector ⁽⁵⁾	■	■	■ (1)	■ (1) (2)	■	■	■		
Residual and overcurrent circuit-breaker (RCBO) ⁽⁵⁾	■	■	■ (1)	■ (1) (2)	■	■	■	■	
Point of installation (general principle)	Origin of each circuit	All points where, for operational reasons it may be necessary to stop the process	In general at the incoming circuit to every distribution board	At the supply point to each machine and/or on the machine concerned	At the supply point to each machine	Origin of each circuit	Origin of each circuit	Origin of circuits where the earthing system is appropriate TN-S, IT, TT	

(1) Where cut-off of all active conductors is provided

(2) It may be necessary to maintain supply to a braking system

(3) If it is associated with a thermal relay (the combination is commonly referred to as a "discontactor")

(4) In certain countries a disconnector with visible contacts is mandatory at the origin of a LV installation supplied directly from a MV/LV transformer

(5) Certain items of switchgear are suitable for isolation duties (e.g. RCCBs according to IEC 61008) without being explicitly marked as such

Fig. H22 : Functions fulfilled by different items of switchgear

3.2 Switchgear selection

Software is being used more and more in the field of optimal selection of switchgear. Each circuit is considered one at a time, and a list is drawn up of the required protection functions and exploitation of the installation, among those mentioned in Figure H22 and summarized in Figure H1.

A number of switchgear combinations are studied and compared with each other against relevant criteria, with the aim of achieving:

- Satisfactory performance
- Compatibility among the individual items; from the rated current I_n to the fault-level rating I_{cu}
- Compatibility with upstream switchgear or taking into account its contribution
- Conformity with all regulations and specifications concerning safe and reliable circuit performance

In order to determine the number of poles for an item of switchgear, reference is made to chapter G, clause 7 Fig. G64. Multifunction switchgear, initially more costly, reduces installation costs and problems of installation or exploitation. It is often found that such switchgear provides the best solution.

4 Circuit-breaker

The circuit-breaker/disconnector fulfills all of the basic switchgear functions, while, by means of accessories, numerous other possibilities exist

As shown in **Figure H23** the circuit-breaker/ disconnector is the only item of switchgear capable of simultaneously satisfying all the basic functions necessary in an electrical installation.

Moreover, it can, by means of auxiliary units, provide a wide range of other functions, for example: indication (on-off - tripped on fault); undervoltage tripping; remote control... etc. These features make a circuit-breaker/ disconnector the basic unit of switchgear for any electrical installation.

Functions		Possible conditions
Isolation		■
Control	Functional Emergency switching Switching-off for mechanical maintenance	■ (With the possibility of a tripping coil for remote control)
Protection	Overload Short-circuit Insulation fault Undervoltage	■ ■ ■ (With differential-current relay) ■ (With undervoltage-trip coil)
Remote control		■ Added or incorporated
Indication and measurement		■ (Generally optional with an electronic tripping device)

Fig. H23 : Functions performed by a circuit-breaker/disconnector

H11

Industrial circuit-breakers must comply with IEC 60947-1 and 60947-2 or other equivalent standards.

Domestic-type circuit-breakers must comply with IEC standard 60898, or an equivalent national standard

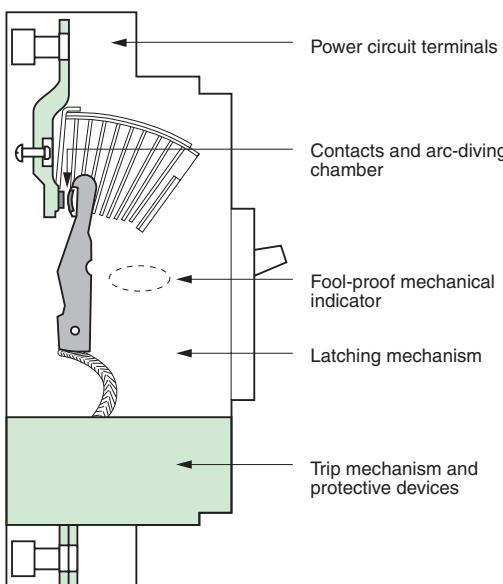


Fig. H24 : Main parts of a circuit-breaker

4.1 Standards and description

Standards

For industrial LV installations the relevant IEC standards are, or are due to be:

- 60947-1: general rules
- 60947-2: part 2: circuit-breakers
- 60947-3: part 3: switches, disconnectors, switch-disconnectors and fuse combination units
- 60947-4: part 4: contactors and motor starters
- 60947-5: part 5: control-circuit devices and switching elements
- 60947-6: part 6: multiple function switching devices
- 60947-7: part 7: ancillary equipment

For domestic and similar LV installations, the appropriate standard is IEC 60898, or an equivalent national standard.

Description

Figure H24 shows schematically the main parts of a LV circuit-breaker and its four essential functions:

- The circuit-breaking components, comprising the fixed and moving contacts and the arc-dividing chamber
- The latching mechanism which becomes unlatched by the tripping device on detection of abnormal current conditions
- This mechanism is also linked to the operation handle of the breaker.
- A trip-mechanism actuating device:
 - Either: a thermal-magnetic device, in which a thermally-operated bi-metal strip detects an overload condition, while an electromagnetic striker pin operates at current levels reached in short-circuit conditions, or
 - An electronic relay operated from current transformers, one of which is installed on each phase
- A space allocated to the several types of terminal currently used for the main power circuit conductors

Domestic circuit-breakers (see **Fig. H25** next page) complying with IEC 60898 and similar national standards perform the basic functions of:

- Isolation
- Protection against overcurrent



Fig. H25 : Domestic-type circuit-breaker providing overcurrent protection and circuit isolation features

H12



Fig. H26 : Domestic-type circuit-breaker as above (Fig. H25) with incorporated protection against electric shocks

Some models can be adapted to provide sensitive detection (30 mA) of earth-leakage current with CB tripping, by the addition of a modular block, while other models (RCBOs, complying with IEC 61009 and CBRs complying with IEC 60947-2 Annex B) have this residual current feature incorporated as shown in **Figure H26**.

Apart from the above-mentioned functions further features can be associated with the basic circuit-breaker by means of additional modules, as shown in **Figure H27**; notably remote control and indication (on-off-fault).

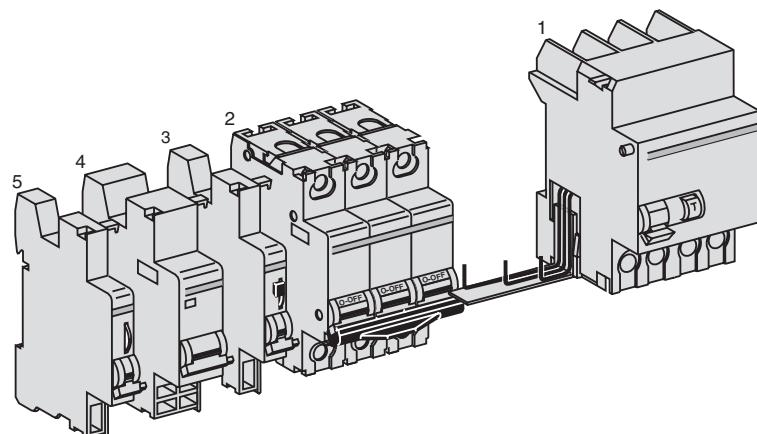


Fig. H27 : "Multi 9" system of LV modular switchgear components

Moulded-case circuit-breakers complying with IEC 60947-2 are available from 100 to 630 A and provide a similar range of auxiliary functions to those described above (see **Figure H28**).

Air circuit-breakers of large current ratings, complying with IEC 60947-2, are generally used in the main switch board and provide protector for currents from 630 A to 6300 A, typically.(see **Figure H29**).

In addition to the protection functions, the Micrologic unit provides optimized functions such as measurement (including power quality functions), diagnosis, communication, control and monitoring.



Fig. H28 : Example of a Compact NSX industrial type of circuit-breaker capable of numerous auxiliary functions

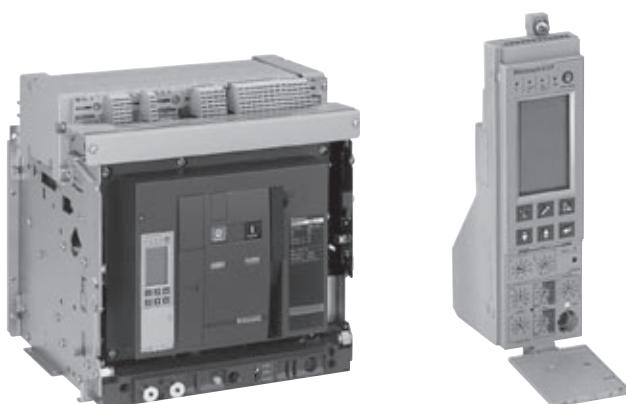


Fig. H29 : Example of air circuit-breakers. Masterpact provides many control features in its "Micrologic" tripping unit

4.2 Fundamental characteristics of a circuit-breaker

The fundamental characteristics of a circuit-breaker are:

- Its rated voltage U_e
- Its rated current I_n
- Its tripping-current-level adjustment ranges for overload protection ($I_r^{(1)}$ or $I_{rth}^{(1)}$) and for short-circuit protection ($I_m^{(1)}$)
- Its short-circuit current breaking rating (I_{cu} for industrial CBs; I_{cn} for domestic-type CBs).

Rated operational voltage (U_e)

This is the voltage at which the circuit-breaker has been designed to operate, in normal (undisturbed) conditions.

Other values of voltage are also assigned to the circuit-breaker, corresponding to disturbed conditions, as noted in sub-clause 4.3.

Rated current (I_n)

This is the maximum value of current that a circuit-breaker, fitted with a specified overcurrent tripping relay, can carry indefinitely at an ambient temperature stated by the manufacturer, without exceeding the specified temperature limits of the current carrying parts.

Example

A circuit-breaker rated at $I_n = 125$ A for an ambient temperature of 40°C will be equipped with a suitably calibrated overcurrent tripping relay (set at 125 A). The same circuit-breaker can be used at higher values of ambient temperature however, if suitably "derated". Thus, the circuit-breaker in an ambient temperature of 50°C could carry only 117 A indefinitely, or again, only 109 A at 60°C , while complying with the specified temperature limit.

Derating a circuit-breaker is achieved therefore, by reducing the trip-current setting of its overload relay, and marking the CB accordingly. The use of an electronic-type of tripping unit, designed to withstand high temperatures, allows circuit-breakers (derated as described) to operate at 60°C (or even at 70°C) ambient.

Note: I_n for circuit-breakers (in IEC 60947-2) is equal to I_u for switchgear generally, I_u being the rated uninterrupted current.

Frame-size rating

A circuit-breaker which can be fitted with overcurrent tripping units of different current level-setting ranges, is assigned a rating which corresponds to the highest current-level-setting tripping unit that can be fitted.

Example

A Compact NSX630N circuit-breaker can be equipped with 11 electronic trip units from 150 A to 630 A. The size of the circuit-breaker is 630 A.

Overload relay trip-current setting (I_{rth} or I_r)

Apart from small circuit-breakers which are very easily replaced, industrial circuit-breakers are equipped with removable, i.e. exchangeable, overcurrent-trip relays. Moreover, in order to adapt a circuit-breaker to the requirements of the circuit it controls, and to avoid the need to install over-sized cables, the trip relays are generally adjustable. The trip-current setting I_r or I_{rth} (both designations are in common use) is the current above which the circuit-breaker will trip. It also represents the maximum current that the circuit-breaker can carry without tripping. That value must be greater than the maximum load current I_b , but less than the maximum current permitted in the circuit I_z (see chapter G, sub-clause 1.3).

The thermal-trip relays are generally adjustable from 0.7 to 1.0 times I_n , but when electronic devices are used for this duty, the adjustment range is greater; typically 0.4 to 1 times I_n .

Example (see Fig. H30)

A NSX630N circuit-breaker equipped with a 400 A Micrologic 6.3E overcurrent trip relay, set at 0.9, will have a trip-current setting:

$$I_r = 400 \times 0.9 = 360 \text{ A}$$

Note: For circuit-breakers equipped with non-adjustable overcurrent-trip relays, $I_r = I_n$. Example: for C60N 20 A circuit-breaker, $I_r = I_n = 20 \text{ A}$.

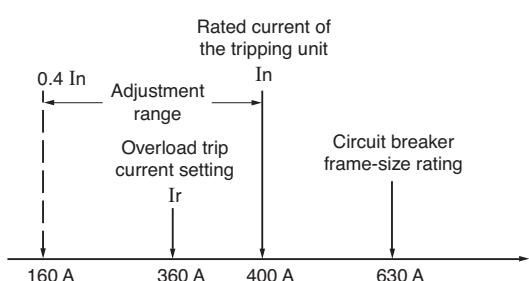


Fig. H30 : Example of a NSX630N circuit-breaker equipped with a Micrologic 6.3E trip unit adjusted to 0.9, to give $I_r = 360 \text{ A}$

(1) Current-level setting values which refer to the current-operated thermal and "instantaneous" magnetic tripping devices for over-load and short-circuit protection.

Short-circuit relay trip-current setting (I_m)

Short-circuit tripping relays (instantaneous or slightly time-delayed) are intended to trip the circuit-breaker rapidly on the occurrence of high values of fault current. Their tripping threshold I_m is:

- Either fixed by standards for domestic type CBs, e.g. IEC 60898, or,
- Indicated by the manufacturer for industrial type CBs according to related standards, notably IEC 60947-2.

For the latter circuit-breakers there exists a wide variety of tripping devices which allow a user to adapt the protective performance of the circuit-breaker to the particular requirements of a load (see Fig. H31, Fig. H32 and Fig. H33).

	Type of protective relay	Overload protection	Short-circuit protection		
Domestic breakers IEC 60898	Thermal-magnetic	$I_r = I_n$	Low setting type B $3 I_n \leq I_m \leq 5 I_n$	Standard setting type C $5 I_n \leq I_m \leq 10 I_n$	High setting circuit type D $10 I_n \leq I_m \leq 20 I_n^{(1)}$
Modular industrial ⁽²⁾ circuit-breakers	Thermal-magnetic	$I_r = I_n$ fixed	Low setting type B or Z $3.2 I_n \leq I_m \leq 4.8 I_n$	Standard setting type C $7 I_n \leq I_m \leq 10 I_n$	High setting type D or K $10 I_n \leq I_m \leq 14 I_n$
Industrial ⁽²⁾ circuit-breakers IEC 60947-2	Thermal-magnetic	$I_r = I_n$ fixed	Fixed: $I_m = 7$ to $10 I_n$		
	Electronic	Adjustable: $0.7 I_n \leq I_m \leq I_n$	Adjustable: - Low setting : 2 to 5 I_n - Standard setting: 5 to $10 I_n$		
		Long delay $0.4 I_n \leq I_m \leq I_n$	Short-delay, adjustable $1.5 I_n \leq I_m \leq 10 I_n$ Instantaneous (I) fixed $I = 12$ to $15 I_n$		

(1) 50 I_n in IEC 60898, which is considered to be unrealistically high by most European manufacturers (Merlin Gerin = 10 to 14 I_n).

(2) For industrial use, IEC standards do not specify values. The above values are given only as being those in common use.

Fig. H31 : Tripping-current ranges of overload and short-circuit protective devices for LV circuit-breakers

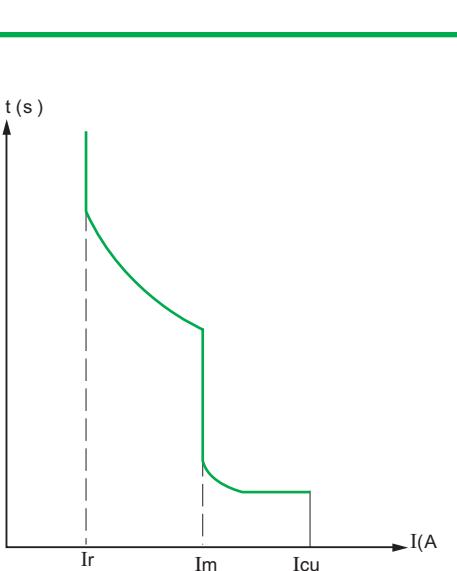
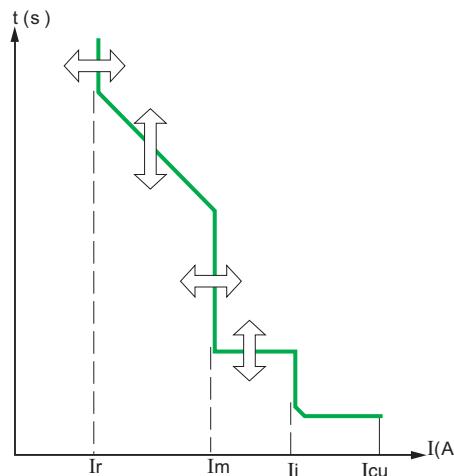


Fig. H32 : Performance curve of a circuit-breaker thermal-magnetic protective scheme



Ir: Overload (thermal or long-delay) relay trip-current setting
 Im: Short-circuit (magnetic or short-delay) relay trip-current setting
 Ii: Short-circuit instantaneous relay trip-current setting.
 Icu: Breaking capacity

Fig. H33 : Performance curve of a circuit-breaker electronic protective scheme

The short-circuit current-breaking performance of a LV circuit-breaker is related (approximately) to the $\cos \varphi$ of the fault-current loop. Standard values for this relationship have been established in some standards

Isolating feature

A circuit-breaker is suitable for isolating a circuit if it fulfills all the conditions prescribed for a disconnector (at its rated voltage) in the relevant standard (see sub-clause 1.2). In such a case it is referred to as a circuit-breaker-disconnector and marked on its front face with the symbol  All Multi 9, Compact NSX and Masterpact LV switchgear of Schneider Electric ranges are in this category.

Rated short-circuit breaking capacity (Icu or Icn)

The short-circuit current-breaking rating of a CB is the highest (prospective) value of current that the CB is capable of breaking without being damaged. The value of current quoted in the standards is the rms value of the AC component of the fault current, i.e. the DC transient component (which is always present in the worst possible case of short-circuit) is assumed to be zero for calculating the standardized value. This rated value (Icu) for industrial CBs and (Icn) for domestic-type CBs is normally given in kA rms.

Icu (rated ultimate s.c. breaking capacity) and Ics (rated service s.c. breaking capacity) are defined in IEC 60947-2 together with a table relating Ics with Icu for different categories of utilization A (instantaneous tripping) and B (time-delayed tripping) as discussed in subclause 4.3.

Tests for proving the rated s.c. breaking capacities of CBs are governed by standards, and include:

- Operating sequences, comprising a succession of operations, i.e. closing and opening on short-circuit
- Current and voltage phase displacement. When the current is in phase with the supply voltage ($\cos \varphi$ for the circuit = 1), interruption of the current is easier than that at any other power factor. Breaking a current at low lagging values of $\cos \varphi$ is considerably more difficult to achieve; a zero power-factor circuit being (theoretically) the most onerous case.

In practice, all power-system short-circuit fault currents are (more or less) at lagging power factors, and standards are based on values commonly considered to be representative of the majority of power systems. In general, the greater the level of fault current (at a given voltage), the lower the power factor of the fault-current loop, for example, close to generators or large transformers.

Figure H34 below extracted from IEC 60947-2 relates standardized values of $\cos \varphi$ to industrial circuit-breakers according to their rated Icu.

- Following an open - time delay - close/open sequence to test the Icu capacity of a CB, further tests are made to ensure that:
 - The dielectric withstand capability
 - The disconnection (isolation) performance and
 - The correct operation of the overload protection have not been impaired by the test.

Icu	$\cos \varphi$
6 kA < Icu ≤ 10 kA	0.5
10 kA < Icu ≤ 20 kA	0.3
20 kA < Icu ≤ 50 kA	0.25
50 kA < Icu	0.2

Fig. H34 : Icu related to power factor ($\cos \varphi$) of fault-current circuit (IEC 60947-2)

Familiarity with the following characteristics of LV circuit-breakers is often necessary when making a final choice.

4.3 Other characteristics of a circuit-breaker

Rated insulation voltage (Ui)

This is the value of voltage to which the dielectric tests voltage (generally greater than 2 Ui) and creepage distances are referred to.

The maximum value of rated operational voltage must never exceed that of the rated insulation voltage, i.e. $U_e \leqslant U_i$.

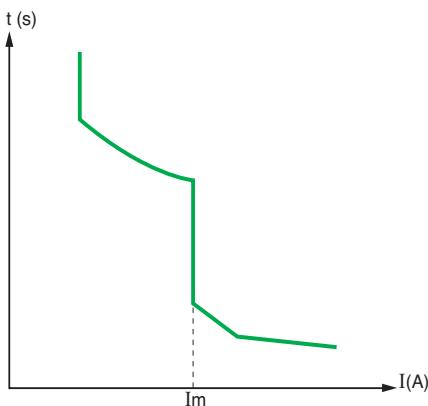


Fig. H35 : Category A circuit-breaker

H16

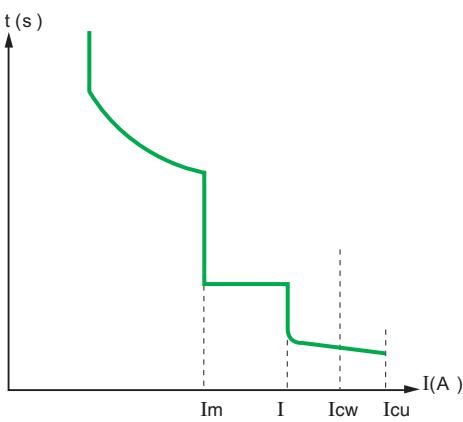


Fig. H36 : Category B circuit-breaker

In a correctly designed installation, a circuit-breaker is never required to operate at its maximum breaking current I_{cu} . For this reason a new characteristic I_{cs} has been introduced. It is expressed in IEC 60947-2 as a percentage of I_{cu} (25, 50, 75, 100%)

Rated impulse-withstand voltage (U_{imp})

This characteristic expresses, in kV peak (of a prescribed form and polarity) the value of voltage which the equipment is capable of withstanding without failure, under test conditions.

Generally, for industrial circuit-breakers, $U_{imp} = 8$ kV and for domestic types, $U_{imp} = 6$ kV.

Category (A or B) and rated short-time withstand current (I_{cw})

As already briefly mentioned (sub-clause 4.2) there are two categories of LV industrial switchgear, A and B, according to IEC 60947-2:

- Those of category A, for which there is no deliberate delay in the operation of the "instantaneous" short-circuit magnetic tripping device (see Fig. H35), are generally moulded-case type circuit-breakers, and
- Those of category B for which, in order to discriminate with other circuit-breakers on a time basis, it is possible to delay the tripping of the CB, where the fault-current level is lower than that of the short-time withstand current rating (I_{cw}) of the CB (see Fig. H36). This is generally applied to large open-type circuit-breakers and to certain heavy-duty moulded-case types. I_{cw} is the maximum current that the B category CB can withstand, thermally and electrodynamically, without sustaining damage, for a period of time given by the manufacturer.

Rated making capacity (I_{cm})

I_{cm} is the highest instantaneous value of current that the circuit-breaker can establish at rated voltage in specified conditions. In AC systems this instantaneous peak value is related to I_{cu} (i.e. to the rated breaking current) by the factor k , which depends on the power factor ($\cos \phi$) of the short-circuit current loop (as shown in Figure H37).

I_{cu}	$\cos \phi$	$I_{cm} = kI_{cu}$
$6 \text{ kA} < I_{cu} \leq 10 \text{ kA}$	0.5	$1.7 \times I_{cu}$
$10 \text{ kA} < I_{cu} \leq 20 \text{ kA}$	0.3	$2 \times I_{cu}$
$20 \text{ kA} < I_{cu} \leq 50 \text{ kA}$	0.25	$2.1 \times I_{cu}$
$50 \text{ kA} \leq I_{cu}$	0.2	$2.2 \times I_{cu}$

Fig. H37 : Relation between rated breaking capacity I_{cu} and rated making capacity I_{cm} at different power-factor values of short-circuit current, as standardized in IEC 60947-2

Example: A Masterpact NW08H2 circuit-breaker has a rated breaking capacity I_{cu} of 100 kA. The peak value of its rated making capacity I_{cm} will be $100 \times 2.2 = 220$ kA.

Rated service short-circuit breaking capacity (I_{cs})

The rated breaking capacity (I_{cu}) or (I_{cn}) is the maximum fault-current a circuit-breaker can successfully interrupt without being damaged. The probability of such a current occurring is extremely low, and in normal circumstances the fault-currents are considerably less than the rated breaking capacity (I_{cu}) of the CB. On the other hand it is important that high currents (of low probability) be interrupted under good conditions, so that the CB is immediately available for reclosure, after the faulty circuit has been repaired. It is for these reasons that a new characteristic (I_{cs}) has been created, expressed as a percentage of I_{cu} , viz: 25, 50, 75, 100% for industrial circuit-breakers. The standard test sequence is as follows:

- O - CO - CO⁽¹⁾ (at I_{cs})
- Tests carried out following this sequence are intended to verify that the CB is in a good state and available for normal service

For domestic CBs, $I_{cs} = k I_{cn}$. The factor k values are given in IEC 60898 table XIV. In Europe it is the industrial practice to use a k factor of 100% so that $I_{cs} = I_{cu}$.

(1) O represents an opening operation.
CO represents a closing operation followed by an opening operation.

4 Circuit-breaker

Many designs of LV circuit-breakers feature a short-circuit current limitation capability, whereby the current is reduced and prevented from reaching its (otherwise) maximum peak value (see Fig. H38). The current-limitation performance of these CBs is presented in the form of graphs, typified by that shown in Figure H39, diagram (a)

Fault-current limitation

The fault-current limitation capacity of a CB concerns its ability, more or less effective, in preventing the passage of the maximum prospective fault-current, permitting only a limited amount of current to flow, as shown in Figure H38. The current-limitation performance is given by the CB manufacturer in the form of curves (see Fig. H39).

■ Diagram (a) shows the limited peak value of current plotted against the rms value of the AC component of the prospective fault current ("prospective" fault-current refers to the fault-current which would flow if the CB had no current-limiting capability)

■ Limitation of the current greatly reduces the thermal stresses (proportional I^2t) and this is shown by the curve of diagram (b) of Figure H39, again, versus the rms value of the AC component of the prospective fault current.

LV circuit-breakers for domestic and similar installations are classified in certain standards (notably European Standard EN 60 898). CBs belonging to one class (of current limiters) have standardized limiting I^2t let-through characteristics defined by that class.

In these cases, manufacturers do not normally provide characteristic performance curves.

H17

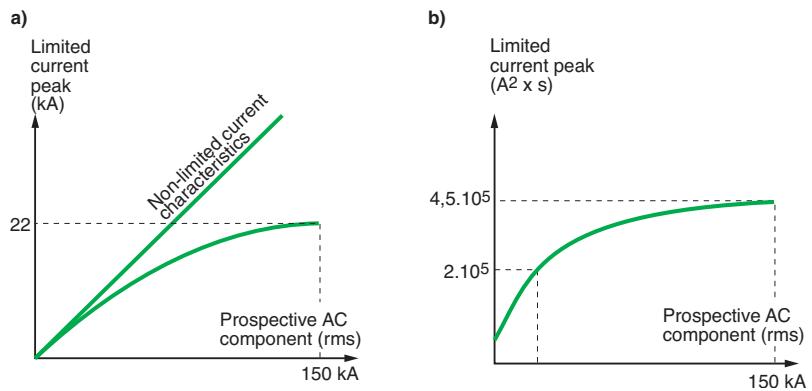


Fig. H39 : Performance curves of a typical LV current-limiting circuit-breaker

Current limitation reduces both thermal and electrodynamic stresses on all circuit elements through which the current passes, thereby prolonging the useful life of these elements. Furthermore, the limitation feature allows "cascading" techniques to be used (see 4.5) thereby significantly reducing design and installation costs

The advantages of current limitation

The use of current-limiting CBs affords numerous advantages:

- Better conservation of installation networks: current-limiting CBs strongly attenuate all harmful effects associated with short-circuit currents
- Reduction of thermal effects: Conductors (and therefore insulation) heating is significantly reduced, so that the life of cables is correspondingly increased
- Reduction of mechanical effects: forces due to electromagnetic repulsion are lower, with less risk of deformation and possible rupture, excessive burning of contacts, etc.
- Reduction of electromagnetic-interference effects:
- Less influence on measuring instruments and associated circuits, telecommunication systems, etc.

These circuit-breakers therefore contribute towards an improved exploitation of:

- Cables and wiring
- Prefabricated cable-trunking systems
- Switchgear, thereby reducing the ageing of the installation

Example

On a system having a prospective shortcircuit current of 150 kA rms, a Compact L circuit-breaker limits the peak current to less than 10% of the calculated prospective peak value, and the thermal effects to less than 1% of those calculated.

Cascading of the several levels of distribution in an installation, downstream of a limiting CB, will also result in important savings.

The technique of cascading, described in sub-clause 4.5 allows, in fact, substantial savings on switchgear (lower performance permissible downstream of the limiting CB(s)) enclosures, and design studies, of up to 20% (overall).

Discriminative protection schemes and cascading are compatible, in the Compact NSX range, up to the full short-circuit breaking capacity of the switchgear.

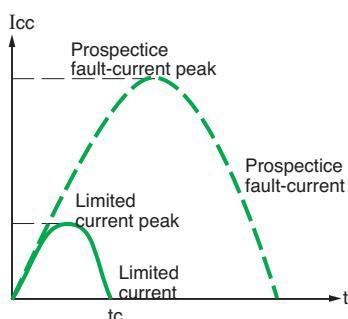


Fig. H38 : Prospective and actual currents

The choice of a range of circuit-breakers is determined by: the electrical characteristics of the installation, the environment, the loads and a need for remote control, together with the type of telecommunications system envisaged

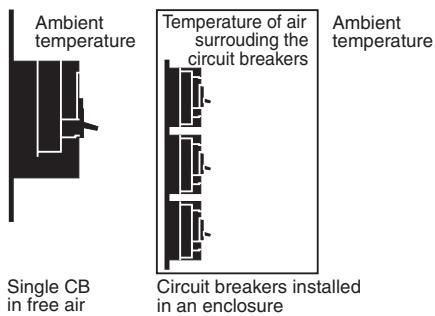


Fig. H40 : Ambient temperature

H18

Circuit-breakers with uncompensated thermal tripping units have a trip current level that depends on the surrounding temperature

4.4 Selection of a circuit-breaker

Choice of a circuit-breaker

The choice of a CB is made in terms of:

- Electrical characteristics of the installation for which the CB is intended
- Its eventual environment: ambient temperature, in a kiosk or switchboard enclosure, climatic conditions, etc.
- Short-circuit current breaking and making requirements
- Operational specifications: discriminative tripping, requirements (or not) for remote control and indication and related auxiliary contacts, auxiliary tripping coils, connection
- Installation regulations; in particular: protection of persons
- Load characteristics, such as motors, fluorescent lighting, LV/LV transformers

The following notes relate to the choice LV circuit-breaker for use in distribution systems.

Choice of rated current in terms of ambient temperature

The rated current of a circuit-breaker is defined for operation at a given ambient temperature, in general:

- 30 °C for domestic-type CBs
- 40 °C for industrial-type CBs

Performance of these CBs in a different ambient temperature depends mainly on the technology of their tripping units (see **Fig. H40**).

Uncompensated thermal magnetic tripping units

Circuit-breakers with uncompensated thermal tripping elements have a tripping-current level that depends on the surrounding temperature. If the CB is installed in an enclosure, or in a hot location (boiler room, etc.), the current required to trip the CB on overload will be sensibly reduced. When the temperature in which the CB is located exceeds its reference temperature, it will therefore be "derated". For this reason, CB manufacturers provide tables which indicate factors to apply at temperatures different to the CB reference temperature. It may be noted from typical examples of such tables (see **Fig. H41**) that a lower temperature than the reference value produces an up-rating of the CB. Moreover, small modular-type CBs mounted in juxtaposition, as shown typically in Figure H27, are usually mounted in a small closed metal case. In this situation, mutual heating, when passing normal load currents, generally requires them to be derated by a factor of 0.8.

Example

What rating (I_{in}) should be selected for a C60 N?

- Protecting a circuit, the maximum load current of which is estimated to be 34 A
- Installed side-by-side with other CBs in a closed distribution box
- In an ambient temperature of 50 °C

A C60N circuit-breaker rated at 40 A would be derated to 35.6 A in ambient air at 50 °C (see **Fig. H41**). To allow for mutual heating in the enclosed space, however, the 0.8 factor noted above must be employed, so that, $35.6 \times 0.8 = 28.5$ A, which is not suitable for the 34 A load.

A 50 A circuit-breaker would therefore be selected, giving a (derated) current rating of $44 \times 0.8 = 35.2$ A.

Compensated thermal-magnetic tripping units

These tripping units include a bi-metal compensating strip which allows the overload trip-current setting (I_r or I_{rth}) to be adjusted, within a specified range, irrespective of the ambient temperature.

For example:

- In certain countries, the TT system is standard on LV distribution systems, and domestic (and similar) installations are protected at the service position by a circuit-breaker provided by the supply authority. This CB, besides affording protection against indirect-contact hazard, will trip on overload; in this case, if the consumer exceeds the current level stated in his supply contract with the power authority. The circuit-breaker (≤ 60 A) is compensated for a temperature range of - 5 °C to + 40 °C.
- LV circuit-breakers at ratings ≤ 630 A are commonly equipped with compensated tripping units for this range (- 5 °C to + 40 °C)

4 Circuit-breaker

H19

C60a, C60H: curve C. C60N: curves B and C (reference temperature: 30 °C)

Rating (A)	20 °C	25 °C	30 °C	35 °C	40 °C	45 °C	50 °C	55 °C	60 °C
1	1.05	1.02	1.00	0.98	0.95	0.93	0.90	0.88	0.85
2	2.08	2.04	2.00	1.96	1.92	1.88	1.84	1.80	1.74
3	3.18	3.09	3.00	2.91	2.82	2.70	2.61	2.49	2.37
4	4.24	4.12	4.00	3.88	3.76	3.64	3.52	3.36	3.24
6	6.24	6.12	6.00	5.88	5.76	5.64	5.52	5.40	5.30
10	10.6	10.3	10.0	9.70	9.30	9.00	8.60	8.20	7.80
16	16.8	16.5	16.0	15.5	15.2	14.7	14.2	13.8	13.5
20	21.0	20.6	20.0	19.4	19.0	18.4	17.8	17.4	16.8
25	26.2	25.7	25.0	24.2	23.7	23.0	22.2	21.5	20.7
32	33.5	32.9	32.0	31.4	30.4	29.8	28.4	28.2	27.5
40	42.0	41.2	40.0	38.8	38.0	36.8	35.6	34.4	33.2
50	52.5	51.5	50.0	48.5	47.4	45.5	44.0	42.5	40.5
63	66.2	64.9	63.0	61.1	58.0	56.7	54.2	51.7	49.2

Compact NSX100-250 N/H/L equipment with TM-D or TM-G trip units

Rating (A)	Temperature (°C)												
	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70
16	18.4	18.7	18	18	17	16.6	16	15.6	15.2	14.8	14.5	14	13.8
25	28.8	28	27.5	25	26.3	25.6	25	24.5	24	23.5	23	22	21
32	36.8	36	35.2	34.4	33.6	32.8	32	31.3	30.5	30	29.5	29	28.5
40	46	45	44	43	42	41	40	39	38	37	36	35	34
50	57.5	56	55	54	52.5	51	50	49	48	47	46	45	44
63	72	71	69	68	66	65	63	61.5	60	58	57	55	54
80	92	90	88	86	84	82	80	78	76	74	72	70	68
100	115	113	110	108	105	103	100	97.5	95	92.5	90	87.5	85
125	144	141	138	134	131	128	125	122	119	116	113	109	106
160	184	180	176	172	168	164	160	156	152	148	144	140	136
200	230	225	220	215	210	205	200	195	190	185	180	175	170
250	288	281	277	269	263	256	250	244	238	231	225	219	213

Fig. H41 : Examples of tables for the determination of derating/uprating factors to apply to CBs with uncompensated thermal tripping units, according to temperature

Electronic tripping units are highly stable in changing temperature levels

Electronic trip units

An important advantage with electronic tripping units is their stable performance in changing temperature conditions. However, the switchgear itself often imposes operational limits in elevated temperatures, so that manufacturers generally provide an operating chart relating the maximum values of permissible trip-current levels to the ambient temperature (see Fig. H42).

Moreover, electronic trip units can provide information that can be used for a better management of the electrical distribution, including energy efficiency and power quality.

Masterpact NW20 version		In (A)	40°C	45°C	50°C	55°C	60°C
H1/H2/H3	Withdrawable with horizontal plugs	In (A)	2,000	2,000	2,000	1,980	1,890
	Maximum adjustment Ir		1	1	1	0.99	0.95
L1	Withdrawable with on-edge plugs	In (A)	2,000	200	1,900	1,850	1,800
		Maximum adjustment Ir	1	1	0.95	0.93	0.90

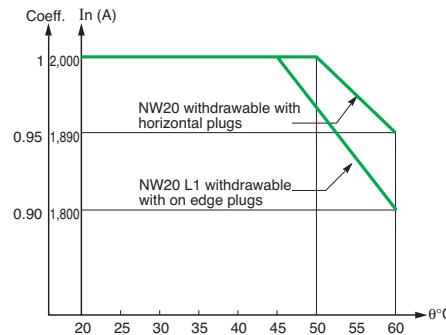


Fig. H42 : Derating of Masterpact NW20 circuit-breaker, according to the temperature

Selection of an instantaneous, or short-time-delay, tripping threshold

Figure H43 below summarizes the main characteristics of the instantaneous or short-time delay trip units.

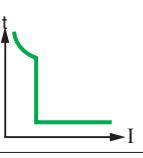
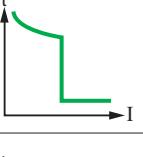
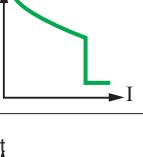
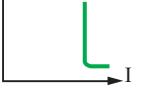
Type	Tripping unit	Applications
	Low setting type B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Sources producing low short-circuit-current levels (standby generators) ■ Long lengths of line or cable
	Standard setting type C	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Protection of circuits: general case
	High setting type D or K	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Protection of circuits having high initial transient current levels (e.g. motors, transformers, resistive loads)
	12 In type MA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Protection of motors in association with disconnectors (contactors with overload protection)

Fig. H43 : Different tripping units, instantaneous or short-time-delayed

The installation of a LV circuit-breaker requires that its short-circuit breaking capacity (or that of the CB together with an associated device) be equal to or exceeds the calculated prospective short-circuit current at its point of installation

The circuit-breaker at the output of the smallest transformer must have a short-circuit capacity adequate for a fault current which is higher than that through any of the other transformer LV circuit-breakers

Selection of a circuit-breaker according to the short-circuit breaking capacity requirements

The installation of a circuit-breaker in a LV installation must fulfil one of the two following conditions:

- Either have a rated short-circuit breaking capacity I_{cu} (or I_{cn}) which is equal to or exceeds the prospective short-circuit current calculated for its point of installation, or
- If this is not the case, be associated with another device which is located upstream, and which has the required short-circuit breaking capacity

In the second case, the characteristics of the two devices must be co-ordinated such that the energy permitted to pass through the upstream device must not exceed that which the downstream device and all associated cables, wires and other components can withstand, without being damaged in any way. This technique is profitably employed in:

- Associations of fuses and circuit-breakers
- Associations of current-limiting circuit-breakers and standard circuit-breakers.

The technique is known as "cascading" (see sub-clause 4.5 of this chapter)

The selection of main and principal circuit-breakers

A single transformer

If the transformer is located in a consumer's substation, certain national standards require a LV circuit-breaker in which the open contacts are clearly visible such as Compact NSX withdrawable circuit-breaker.

Example (see Fig. H44 opposite page)

What type of circuit-breaker is suitable for the main circuit-breaker of an installation supplied through a 250 kVA MV/LV (400 V) 3-phase transformer in a consumer's substation?

In transformer = 360 A

I_{sc} (3-phase) = 8.9 kA

A Compact NSX400N with an adjustable tripping-unit range of 160 A - 400 A and a short-circuit breaking capacity (I_{cu}) of 50 kA would be a suitable choice for this duty.

4 Circuit-breaker

H21

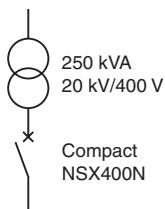


Fig. H44 : Example of a transformer in a consumer's substation

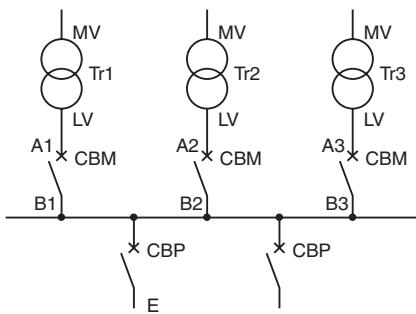


Fig. H45 : Transformers in parallel

Several transformers in parallel (see Fig. H45)

- The circuit-breakers CBP outgoing from the LV distribution board must each be capable of breaking the total fault current from all transformers connected to the busbars, viz: $I_{sc1} + I_{sc2} + I_{sc3}$
 - The circuit-breakers CBM, each controlling the output of a transformer, must be capable of dealing with a maximum short-circuit current of (for example) $I_{sc2} + I_{sc3}$ only, for a short-circuit located on the upstream side of CBM1.
- From these considerations, it will be seen that the circuit-breaker of the smallest transformer will be subjected to the highest level of fault current in these circumstances, while the circuit-breaker of the largest transformer will pass the lowest level of short-circuit current
- The ratings of CBMs must be chosen according to the kVA ratings of the associated transformers

Note: The essential conditions for the successful operation of 3-phase transformers in parallel may be summarized as follows:

1. the phase shift of the voltages, primary to secondary, must be the same in all units to be paralleled.
2. the open-circuit voltage ratios, primary to secondary, must be the same in all units.
3. the short-circuit impedance voltage ($Z_{sc}\%$) must be the same for all units.

For example, a 750 kVA transformer with a $Z_{sc} = 6\%$ will share the load correctly with a 1,000 kVA transformer having a Z_{sc} of 6%, i.e. the transformers will be loaded automatically in proportion to their kVA ratings. For transformers having a ratio of kVA ratings exceeding 2, parallel operation is not recommended.

Figure H46 indicates, for the most usual arrangement (2 or 3 transformers of equal kVA ratings) the maximum short-circuit currents to which main and principal CBs (CBM and CBP respectively, in Figure H45) are subjected. It is based on the following hypotheses:

- The short-circuit 3-phase power on the MV side of the transformer is 500 MVA
- The transformers are standard 20/0.4 kV distribution-type units rated as listed
- The cables from each transformer to its LV circuit-breaker comprise 5 metres of single core conductors
- Between each incoming-circuit CBM and each outgoing-circuit CBP there is 1 metre of busbar
- The switchgear is installed in a floormounted enclosed switchboard, in an ambient air temperature of 30 °C

Moreover, this table shows selected circuit-breakers of M-G manufacture recommended for main and principal circuit-breakers in each case.

Example (see Fig. H47 next page)

Circuit-breaker selection for CBM duty:

For a 800 kVA transformer $I_n = 1.126$ A; I_{cu} (minimum) = 38 kA (from Figure H46), the CBM indicated in the table is a Compact NS1250N ($I_{cu} = 50$ kA)

Circuit-breaker selection for CBP duty:

The s.c. breaking capacity (I_{cu}) required for these circuit-breakers is given in the Figure H46 as 56 kA.

A recommended choice for the three outgoing circuits 1, 2 and 3 would be current-limiting circuit-breakers types NSX400 L, NSX250 L and NSX100 L. The I_{cu} rating in each case = 150 kA.

Number and kVA ratings of 20/0.4 kV transformers	Minimum S.C breaking capacity of main CBs (I_{cu}) kA	Main circuit-breakers (CBM) total discrimination with outgoing circuit-breakers (CBP)	Minimum S.C breaking capacity of principal CBs (I_{cu}) kA	Rated current I_n of principal circuit-breaker (CPB) 250A
2 x 400	14	NW08N1/NS800N	27	NSX250H
3 x 400	28	NW08N1/NS800N	42	NSX250H
2 x 630	22	NW10N1/NS1000N	42	NSX250H
3 x 630	44	NW10N1/NS1000N	67	NSX250H
2 x 800	19	NW12N1/NS1250N	38	NSX250H
3 x 800	38	NW12N1/NS1250N	56	NSX250H
2 x 1,000	23	NW16N1/NS1600N	47	NSX250H
3 x 1,000	47	NW16N1/NS1600N	70	NSX250H
2 x 1,250	29	NW20N1/NS2000N	59	NSX250H
3 x 1,250	59	NW20N1/NS2000N	88	NSX250L
2 x 1,600	38	NW25N1/NS2500N	75	NSX250L
3 x 1,600	75	NW25N1/NS2500N	113	NSX250L
2 x 2,000	47	NW32N1/NS3200N	94	NSX250L
3 x 2,000	94	NW32N1/NS3200N	141	NSX250L

Fig. H46 : Maximum values of short-circuit current to be interrupted by main and principal circuit-breakers (CBM and CBP respectively), for several transformers in parallel

Short-circuit fault-current levels at any point in an installation may be obtained from tables

These circuit-breakers provide the advantages of:

- Absolute discrimination with the upstream (CBM) breakers
- Exploitation of the “cascading” technique, with its associated savings for all downstream components

Choice of outgoing-circuit CBs and final-circuit CBs

Use of table G40

From this table, the value of 3-phase short-circuit current can be determined rapidly for any point in the installation, knowing:

- The value of short-circuit current at a point upstream of that intended for the CB concerned
 - The length, c.s.a., and the composition of the conductors between the two points
- A circuit-breaker rated for a short-circuit breaking capacity exceeding the tabulated value may then be selected.

Detailed calculation of the short-circuit current level

In order to calculate more precisely the short-circuit current, notably, when the short-circuit current-breaking capacity of a CB is slightly less than that derived from the table, it is necessary to use the method indicated in chapter G clause 4.

Two-pole circuit-breakers (for phase and neutral) with one protected pole only

These CBs are generally provided with an overcurrent protective device on the phase pole only, and may be used in TT, TN-S and IT schemes. In an IT scheme, however, the following conditions must be respected:

- Condition (B) of table G67 for the protection of the neutral conductor against overcurrent in the case of a double fault
- Short-circuit current-breaking rating: A 2-pole phase-neutral CB must, by convention, be capable of breaking on one pole (at the phase-to-phase voltage) the current of a double fault equal to 15% of the 3-phase short-circuit current at the point of its installation, if that current is ≤ 10 kA; or 25% of the 3-phase short-circuit current if it exceeds 10 kA
- Protection against indirect contact: this protection is provided according to the rules for IT schemes

Insufficient short-circuit current breaking rating

In low-voltage distribution systems it sometimes happens, especially in heavy-duty networks, that the I_{sc} calculated exceeds the I_{cu} rating of the CBs available for installation, or system changes upstream result in lower level CB ratings being exceeded

- Solution 1: Check whether or not appropriate CBs upstream of the CBs affected are of the current-limiting type, allowing the principle of cascading (described in sub-clause 4.5) to be applied
- Solution 2: Install a range of CBs having a higher rating. This solution is economically interesting only where one or two CBs are affected
- Solution 3: Associate current-limiting fuses (gG or aM) with the CBs concerned, on the upstream side. This arrangement must, however, respect the following rules:
 - The fuse rating must be appropriate
 - No fuse in the neutral conductor, except in certain IT installations where a double fault produces a current in the neutral which exceeds the short-circuit breaking rating of the CB. In this case, the blowing of the neutral fuse must cause the CB to trip on all phases

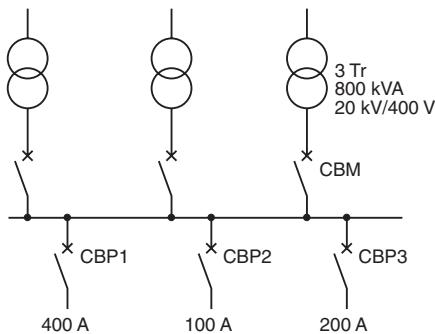


Fig. H47 : Transformers in parallel

The technique of “cascading” uses the properties of current-limiting circuit-breakers to permit the installation of all downstream switchgear, cables and other circuit components of significantly lower performance than would otherwise be necessary, thereby simplifying and reducing the cost of an installation

4.5 Coordination between circuit-breakers

Cascading

Definition of the cascading technique

By limiting the peak value of short-circuit current passing through it, a current-limiting CB permits the use, in all circuits downstream of its location, of switchgear and circuit components having much lower short-circuit breaking capacities, and thermal and electromechanical withstand capabilities than would otherwise be necessary. Reduced physical size and lower performance requirements lead to substantial economy and to the simplification of installation work. It may be noted that, while a current-limiting circuit-breaker has the effect on downstream circuits of (apparently) increasing the source impedance during short-circuit conditions, it has no such effect in any other condition; for example, during the starting of a large motor (where a low source impedance is highly desirable). The range of Compact NSX current-limiting circuit-breakers with powerful limiting performances is particularly interesting.

4 Circuit-breaker

In general, laboratory tests are necessary to ensure that the conditions of implementation required by national standards are met and compatible switchgear combinations must be provided by the manufacturer

Conditions of implementation

Most national standards admit the cascading technique, on condition that the amount of energy "let through" by the limiting CB is less than the energy all downstream CBs and components are able to withstand without damage.

In practice this can only be verified for CBs by tests performed in a laboratory. Such tests are carried out by manufacturers who provide the information in the form of tables, so that users can confidently design a cascading scheme based on the combination of recommended circuit-breaker types. As an example, **Figure H48** indicates the cascading possibilities of circuit-breaker types C60, DT40N, C120 and NG125 when installed downstream of current-limiting CBs Compact NSX 250 N, H or L for a 230/400 V or 240/415 V 3-phase installation.

	kA rms			
Short-circuit breaking capacity of the upstream (limiter) CBs	150			NSX250L
	70			NSX250H
	50	NSX250N		
Possible short-circuit breaking capacity of the downstream CBs (benefiting from the cascading technique)	150			NG125L
	70			NG125L
	36	NG125N	NG125N	
	30	C60N/H<=32A	C60N/H<=32A	C60N/H<=32A
	30	C60L<=25A	C60L<=25A(*)	C60L<=25A
			Quick PRD 40/20/8	
	25	C60H>=40A	C60H>=40A	C60H>=40A
		C120N/H	C120N/H	C120N/H
	20	C60N>=40A	C60N>=40A	C60N>=40A

(*) Quick PRD with integrated circuit-breaker as disconnector see chapter J

Fig. H48 : Example of cascading possibilities on a 230/400 V or 240/415 V 3-phase installation

H23

Advantages of cascading

The current limitation benefits all downstream circuits that are controlled by the current-limiting CB concerned.

The principle is not restrictive, i.e. current-limiting CBs can be installed at any point in an installation where the downstream circuits would otherwise be inadequately rated.

The result is:

- Simplified short-circuit current calculations
- Simplification, i.e. a wider choice of downstream switchgear and appliances
- The use of lighter-duty switchgear and appliances, with consequently lower cost
- Economy of space requirements, since light-duty equipment have generally a smaller volume

Principles of discriminative tripping (selectivity)

Discrimination is achieved by automatic protective devices if a fault condition, occurring at any point in the installation, is cleared by the protective device located immediately upstream of the fault, while all other protective devices remain unaffected (see **Fig. H49**).

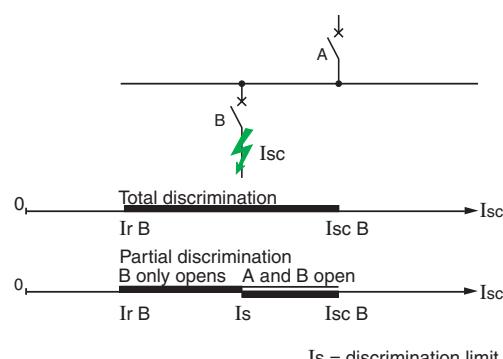


Fig. H49 : Total and partial discrimination

H24

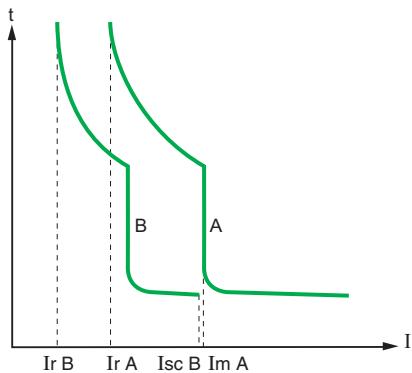


Fig. H50 : Total discrimination between CBs A and B

Discrimination between circuit-breakers A and B is total if the maximum value of short-circuit-current on circuit B ($I_{sc\ B}$) does not exceed the short-circuit trip setting of circuit-breaker A ($I_{m\ A}$). For this condition, B only will trip (see Fig. H50).

Discrimination is partial if the maximum possible short-circuit current on circuit B exceeds the short-circuit trip-current setting of circuit-breaker A. For this maximum condition, both A and B will trip (see Fig. H51).

Protection against overload : discrimination based on current levels (see Fig. H52a)

This method is realized by setting successive tripping thresholds at stepped levels, from downstream relays (lower settings) towards the source (higher settings). Discrimination is total or partial, depending on particular conditions, as noted above. As a rule of thumb, discrimination is achieved when:

- $I_{mA}/I_{rB} > 2$:

Protection against low level short-circuit currents : discrimination based on stepped time delays (see Fig. H52b)

This method is implemented by adjusting the time-delayed tripping units, such that downstream relays have the shortest operating times, with progressively longer delays towards the source.

In the two-level arrangement shown, upstream circuit-breaker A is delayed sufficiently to ensure total discrimination with B (for example: Masterpact with electronic trip unit).

Discrimination based on a combination of the two previous methods (see Fig. H52c)

A time-delay added to a current level scheme can improve the overall discrimination performance.

The upstream CB has two high-speed magnetic tripping thresholds:

- I_{mA} : delayed magnetic trip or short-delay electronic trip
- I_{ii} : instantaneous strip

Discrimination is total if $I_{sc\ B} < I_{ii}$ (instantaneous).

Protection against high level short-circuit currents: discrimination based on arc-energy levels

This technology implemented in the Compact NSX range (current limiting circuit-breaker) is extremely effective for achievement of total discrimination.

Principle: When a very high level short-circuit current is detected by the two circuit-breaker A and B, their contacts open simultaneously. As a result, the current is highly limited.

- The very high arc-energy at level B induces the tripping of circuit-breaker B
- Then, the arc-energy is limited at level A and is not sufficient to induce the tripping of A

As a rule of thumb, the discrimination between Compact NSX is total if the size ratio between A and B is greater than 2.5.

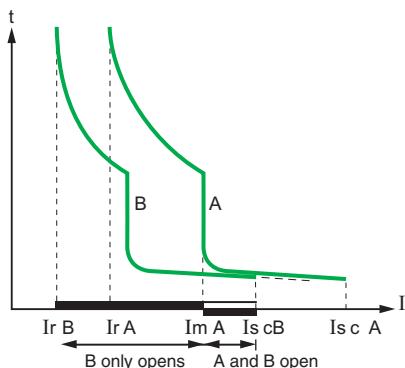


Fig. H51 : Partial discrimination between CBs A and B

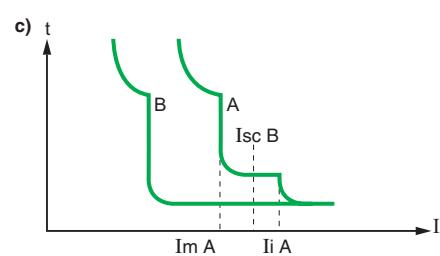
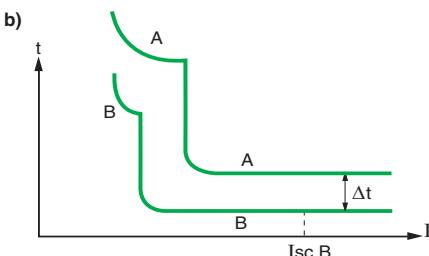
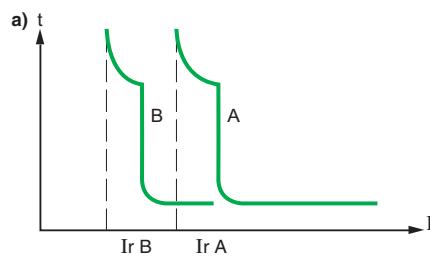


Fig. H52 : Discrimination

4 Circuit-breaker

H25

Current-level discrimination

This technique is directly linked to the staging of the Long Time (LT) tripping curves of two serial-connected circuit-breakers.

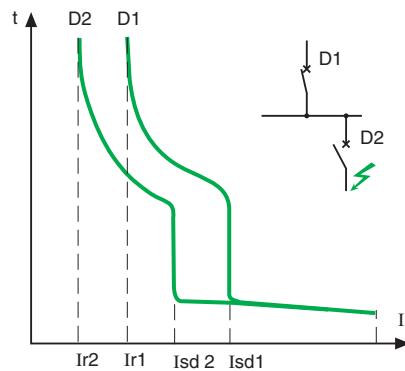


Fig. H53 : Current discrimination

The discrimination limit Is is:

- $Is = Isd_2$ if the thresholds Isd_1 and Isd_2 are too close or merge,
- $Is = Isd_1$ if the thresholds Isd_1 and Isd_2 are sufficiently far apart.

As a rule, current discrimination is achieved when:

- $Ir_1 / Ir_2 < 2$,
- $Isd_1 / Isd_2 > 2$.

The discrimination limit is:

- $Is = Isd_1$.

Discrimination quality

Discrimination is total if $Is > Isc(D2)$, i.e. $Isd_1 > Isc(D2)$.

This normally implies:

- a relatively low level $Isc(D2)$,
- a large difference between the ratings of circuit-breakers D1 and D2.

Current discrimination is normally used in final distribution.

Discrimination based on time-delayed tripping uses CBs referred to as "selective" (in some countries).

Implementation of these CBs is relatively simple and consists in delaying the instant of tripping of the several series-connected circuit-breakers in a stepped time sequence

Time discrimination

This is the extension of current discrimination and is obtained by staging over time of the tripping curves. This technique consists of giving a time delay of t to the Short Time (ST) tripping of D1.

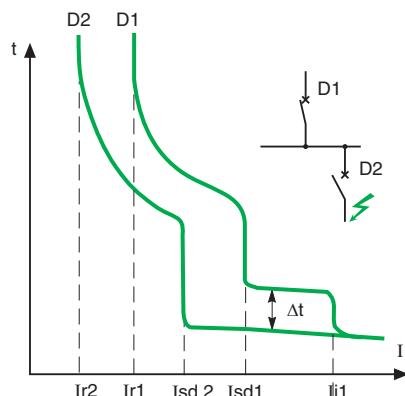
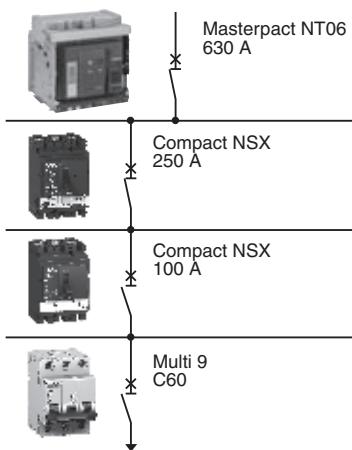


Fig. H54 : Time discrimination



The thresholds (Ir_1 , Isd_1) of D1 and (Ir_2 , Isd_2) comply with the staging rules of current discrimination.

The discrimination limit Is of the association is at least equal to li_1 , the instantaneous threshold of D1.

Discrimination quality

There are two possible applications:

- **on final and/or intermediate feeders**

A category circuit-breakers can be used with time-delayed tripping of the upstream circuit-breaker. This allows extension of current discrimination up to the instantaneous threshold li_1 of the upstream circuit-breaker: $Is = li_1$.

If $Isc(D2)$ is not too high - case of a final feeder - total discrimination can be obtained.

- **on the incomers and feeders of the MSB**

At this level, as continuity of supply takes priority, the installation characteristics allow use of **B category circuit-breakers** designed for time-delayed tripping. These circuit-breakers have a high thermal withstand ($Icw > 50\% Icn$ for $t = 1s$): $Is = Icw$.

Even for high $Isc(D2)$, **time discrimination normally provides total discrimination: $Icw_1 > Icc(D2)$.**

Note: Use of B category circuit-breakers means that the installation must withstand high electrodynamic and thermal stresses.

Consequently, these circuit-breakers have a high instantaneous threshold li that can be adjusted and disabled in order to protect the busbars if necessary.

Practical example of discrimination at several levels with Schneider Electric circuit-breakers (with electronic trip units)

"Masterpact NT is totally selective with any moulded-case Compact NSX circuit breaker, i.e., the downstream circuit-breaker will trip for any short-circuit value up to its breaking capacity. Further, all Compact NSX CBs are totally selective, as long as the ratio between sizes is greater than 1.6 and the ratio between ratings is greater than 2.5. The same rules apply for the total selectivity with the miniature circuit-breakers Multi9 further downstream (see Fig. H55).

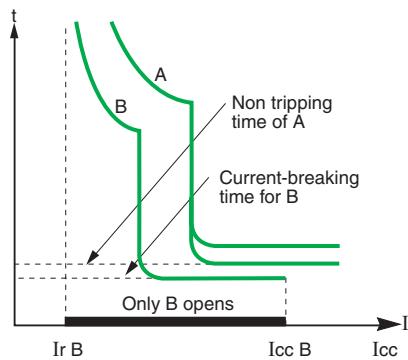


Fig. H55 : 4 level discrimination with Schneider Electric circuit breakers : Masterpact NT Compact NSX and Multi 9

Energy discrimination with current limitation

Cascading between 2 devices is normally achieved by using the tripping of the upstream circuit-breaker A to help the downstream circuit-breaker B to break the current. The discrimination limit I_s is consequently equal to the ultimate breaking current I_{cu} of circuit-breaker B acting alone, as cascading requires the tripping of both devices.

The energy discrimination technology implemented in Compact NSX circuit-breakers allows to improve the discrimination limit to a value higher than the ultimate breaking current I_{cu} of the downstream circuit-breaker. The principle is as follows:

- The downstream limiting circuit-breaker B sees a very high short-circuit current. The tripping is very fast (<1 ms) and then, the current is limited
- The upstream circuit-breaker A sees a limited short-circuit current compared to its breaking capability, but this current induces a repulsion of the contacts. As a result, the arcing voltage increases the current limitation. However, the arc energy is not high enough to induce the tripping of the circuit-breaker. So, the circuit-breaker A helps the circuit-breaker B to trip, without tripping itself. The discrimination limit can be higher than I_{cu} B and the discrimination becomes total with a reduced cost of the devices

Natural total discrimination with Compact NSX

The major advantage of the Compact NSX range is to provide a natural total discrimination between two series-connected devices if:

- The ratio of the two trip-unit current ratings is > 1.6
- The ratio of rated currents of the two circuit-breakers is > 2.5

Logic discrimination or “Zone Sequence Interlocking – ZSI”

This type of discrimination can be achieved with circuit-breakers equipped with specially designed electronic trip units (Compact, Masterpact): only the Short Time Protection (STP) and Ground Fault Protection (GFP) functions of the controlled devices are managed by Logic Discrimination. In particular, the Instantaneous Protection function - inherent protection function - is not concerned.

Settings of controlled circuit-breakers

- time delay: there are no rules, but staging (if any) of the time delays of time discrimination must be applied ($tD1 \geq tD2 \geq tD3$),
- thresholds: there are no threshold rules to be applied, but natural staging of the protection device ratings must be complied with ($I_{crD1} \geq I_{crD2} \geq I_{crD3}$).

Note: This technique ensures discrimination even with circuit-breakers of similar ratings.

Principles

Activation of the Logic Discrimination function is via transmission of information on the pilot wire:

- ZSI input:
 - low level (no downstream faults): the Protection function is on standby with a reduced time delay ($y 0,1 s$),
 - high level (presence of downstream faults): the relevant Protection function moves to the time delay status set on the device.
- ZSI output:
 - low level: the trip unit detects no faults and sends no orders,
 - high level: the trip unit detects a fault and sends an order.

Operation

A pilot wire connects in cascading form the protection devices of an installation (see Fig. H56). When a fault occurs, each circuit-breaker upstream of the fault (detecting a fault) sends an order (high level output) and moves the upstream circuit-breaker to its natural time delay (high level input). The circuit-breaker placed just above the fault does not receive any orders (low level input) and thus trips almost instantaneously.

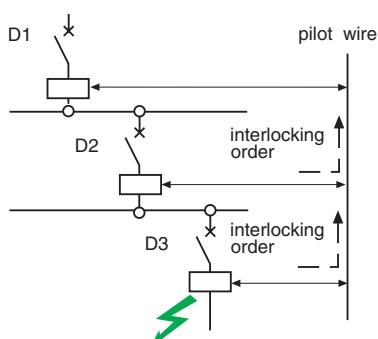


Fig. H56 : Logic discrimination.

Discrimination quality

This technique enables:

- easy achievement as standard of discrimination on 3 levels or more,
- elimination of important stresses on the installation, relating to time-delayed tripping of the protection device, in event of a fault directly on the upstream busbars.

All the protection devices are thus virtually instantaneous,

- easy achievement of downstream discrimination with non-controlled circuit-breakers.

H28

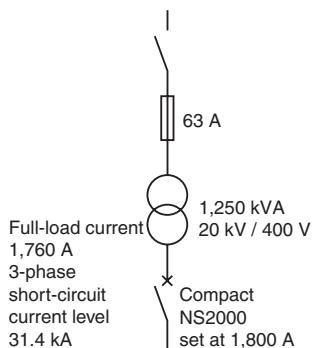


Fig. H57 : Example

4.6 Discrimination MV/LV in a consumer's substation

In general the transformer in a consumer's substation is protected by MV fuses, suitably rated to match the transformer, in accordance with the principles laid down in IEC 60787 and IEC 60420, by following the advice of the fuse manufacturer.

The basic requirement is that a MV fuse will not operate for LV faults occurring downstream of the transformer LV circuit-breaker, so that the tripping characteristic curve of the latter must be to the left of that of the MV fuse pre-arching curve.

This requirement generally fixes the maximum settings for the LV circuit-breaker protection:

- Maximum short-circuit current-level setting of the magnetic tripping element
- Maximum time-delay allowable for the short-circuit current tripping element (see Fig. H57)

Example:

■ Short-circuit level at MV terminals of transformer: 250 MVA

■ Transformer MV/LV: 1,250 kVA 20/0.4 kV

■ MV fuses: 63 A

■ Cabling, transformer - LV circuit-breaker: 10 metres single-core cables

■ LV circuit-breaker: Compact NSX 2000 set at 1,800 A (I_r)

What is the maximum short-circuit trip current setting and its maximum time delay allowable?

The curves of Figure H58 show that discrimination is assured if the short-time delay tripping unit of the CB is set at:

- A level $\leq 6 I_r = 10.8 \text{ kA}$
- A time-delay setting of step 1 or 2

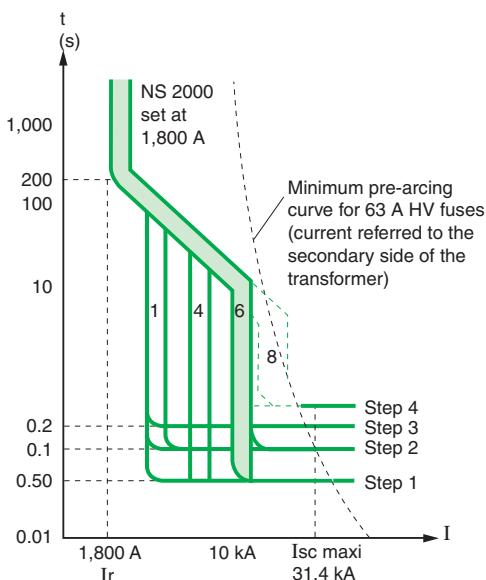


Fig. H58 : Curves of MV fuses and LV circuit-breaker

Chapter J

Overvoltage protection

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1 Overvoltage characteristics of atmospheric origin

1.1 Overvoltage definitions

1.1.1 Various types of overvoltage

An overvoltage is a voltage pulse or wave which is superimposed on the rated voltage of the network (see Fig. J1).

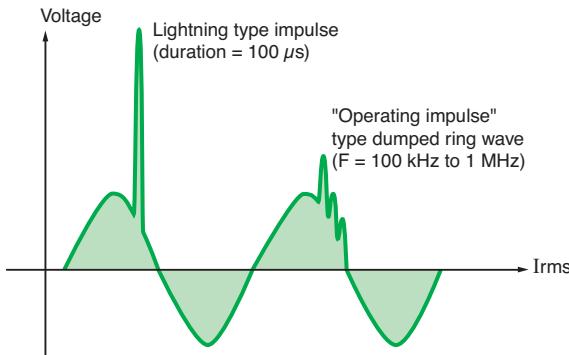


Fig. J1 : Examples of overvoltage

This type of overvoltage is characterized by (see Fig. J2):

- the rise time t_f (in μs);
- the gradient S (in $\text{kV}/\mu\text{s}$).

An overvoltage disturbs equipment and produces electromagnetic radiation. Moreover, the duration of the overvoltage (T) causes an energy peak in the electric circuits which could destroy equipment.

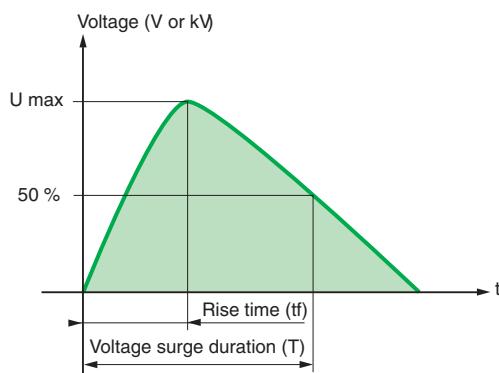


Fig. J2 : Main characteristics of an overvoltage

Four types of overvoltage can disturb electrical installations and loads:

- **Switching surges:**
high-frequency overvoltages or burst disturbance (see Fig. J1) caused by a change in the steady state in an electrical network (during operation of switchgear).
- **Power-frequency overvoltages:**
overvoltages of the same frequency as the network (50, 60 or 400 Hz) caused by a permanent change of state in the network (following a fault: insulation fault, breakdown of neutral conductor, etc.).
- **Overvoltages caused by electrostatic discharge:**
very short overvoltages (a few nanoseconds) of very high frequency caused by the discharge of accumulated electric charges (for example, a person walking on a carpet with insulating soles is electrically charged with a voltage of several kilovolts).
- **Overvoltages of atmospheric origin.**

1 Overvoltage characteristics of atmospheric origin

1.2 Overvoltage characteristics of atmospheric origin

Lightning strokes in a few figures:
Lightning flashes produce an extremely large quantity of pulsed electrical energy (see Fig. J4)
■ of several thousand amperes (and several thousand volts),
■ of high frequency (approximately 1 megahertz),
■ of short duration (from a microsecond to a millisecond).

Between 2000 and 5000 storms are constantly undergoing formation throughout the world. These storms are accompanied by lightning strokes which represent a serious hazard for persons and equipment. Lightning flashes hit the ground at an average of 30 to 100 strokes per second, i.e. 3 billion lightning strokes each year. The table in **Figure J3** shows the characteristic lightning strike values. As can be seen, 50% of lightning strokes have a current exceeding 33 kA and 5% a current exceeding 65 kA. The energy conveyed by the lightning stroke is therefore very high.

Cumulative probability (%)	Peak current (kA)	Gradient (kA/μs)
95	7	9.1
50	33	24
5	65	65
1	140	95
0	270	

Fig. J3 : Lightning discharge values given by the IEC 62305 standard

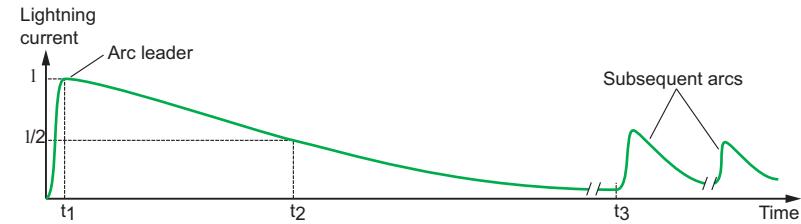


Fig. J4 : Example of lightning current

J3

Lightning also causes a large number of fires, mostly in agricultural areas (destroying houses or making them unfit for use). High-rise buildings are especially prone to lightning strokes.

1.3 Effects on electrical installations

Lightning damages electrical and electronic systems in particular: transformers, electricity meters and electrical appliances on both residential and industrial premises.

The cost of repairing the damage caused by lightning is very high. But it is very hard to assess the consequences of:

- disturbances caused to computers and telecommunication networks;
- faults generated in the running of programmable logic controller programs and control systems.

Moreover, the cost of operating losses may be far higher than the value of the equipment destroyed.

Lightning is a high-frequency electrical phenomenon which causes overvoltages on all conductive items, especially on electrical cabling and equipment.

1.3.1 Lightning stroke impacts

Lightning strokes can affect the electrical (and/or electronic) systems of a building in two ways:

- by direct impact of the lightning stroke on the building (see Fig. J5 a);
- by indirect impact of the lightning stroke on the building:
 - A lightning stroke can fall on an overhead electric power line supplying a building (see Fig. J5 b). The overcurrent and overvoltage can spread several kilometres from the point of impact.
 - A lightning stroke can fall near an electric power line (see Fig. J5 c). It is the electromagnetic radiation of the lightning current that produces a high current and an overvoltage on the electric power supply network.
 - In the latter two cases, the hazardous currents and voltages are transmitted by the power supply network.
 - A lightning stroke can fall near a building (see Fig. J5 d). The earth potential around the point of impact rises dangerously.

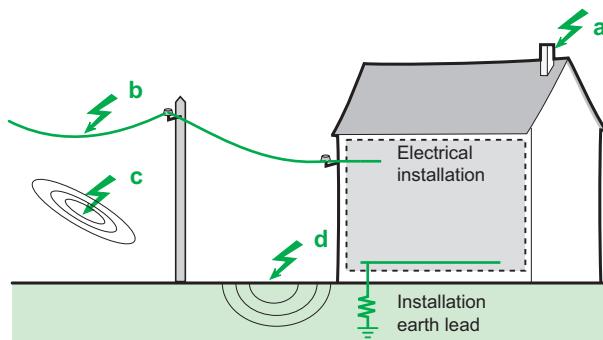


Fig. J5 : Various types of lightning impact

In all cases, the consequences for electrical installations and loads can be dramatic.

Lightning falls on an unprotected building.	Lightning falls near an overhead line.	Lightning falls near a building.
<p>The lightning current flows to earth via the more or less conductive structures of the building with very destructive effects:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ thermal effects: Very violent overheating of materials, causing fire, ■ mechanical effects: Structural deformation, ■ thermal flashover: Extremely dangerous phenomenon in the presence of flammable or explosive materials (hydrocarbons, dust, etc.). <p>The building and the installations inside the building are generally destroyed</p>	<p>The lightning current generates overvoltages through electromagnetic induction in the distribution system. These overvoltages are propagated along the line to the electrical equipment inside the buildings.</p> <p>The electrical installations inside the building are generally destroyed.</p>	<p>The lightning stroke generates the same types of overvoltage as those described opposite. In addition, the lightning current rises back from the earth to the electrical installation, thus causing equipment breakdown.</p>

Fig. J6 : Consequence of a lightning stroke impact

1 Overvoltage characteristics of atmospheric origin

1.3.2 The various modes of propagation

■ Common mode

Common-mode overvoltages appear between live conductors and earth: phase-to-earth or neutral-to-earth (see **Fig. J7**). They are dangerous especially for appliances whose frame is connected to earth due to risks of dielectric breakdown.

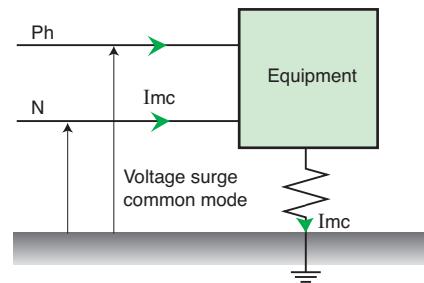


Fig. J7 : Common mode

■ Differential mode

Differential-mode overvoltages appear between live conductors: phase-to-phase or phase-to-neutral (see **Fig. J8**). They are especially dangerous for electronic equipment, sensitive hardware such as computer systems, etc.

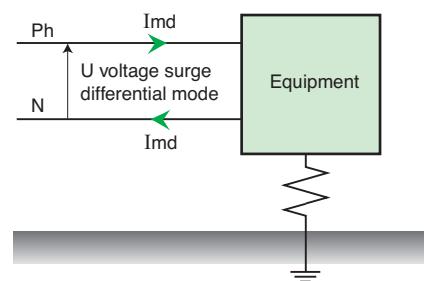


Fig. J8 : Differential mode

1 Overvoltage characteristics of atmospheric origin

1.4 Characterization of the lightning wave

Analysis of the phenomena allows definition of the types of lightning current and voltage waves.

- 2 types of current wave are considered by the IEC standards:
- 10/350 μ s wave: to characterize the current waves from a direct lightning stroke (see Fig. J9);

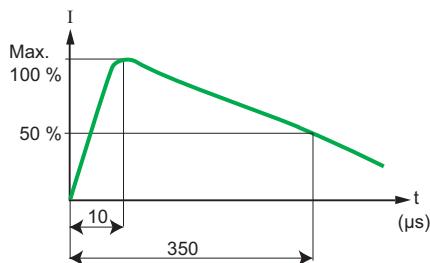


Fig. J9 : 10/350 μ s current wave

- 8/20 μ s wave: to characterize the current waves from an indirect lightning stroke (see Fig. J10).

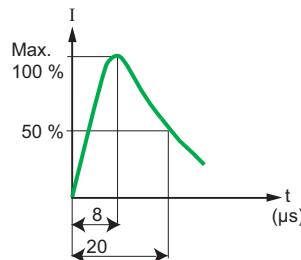


Fig. J10 : 8/20 μ s current wave

These two types of lightning current wave are used to define tests on SPDs (IEC standard 61643-11) and equipment immunity to lightning currents. The peak value of the current wave characterizes the intensity of the lightning stroke.

- **The overvoltages** created by lightning strokes are characterized by a 1.2/50 μ s voltage wave (see Fig. J11).
- This type of voltage wave is used to verify equipment's withstand to overvoltages of atmospheric origin (impulse voltage as per IEC 61000-4-5).

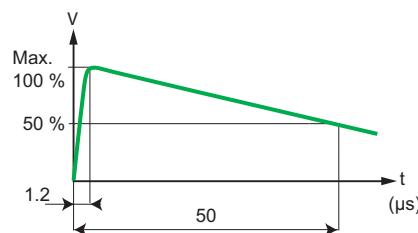


Fig. J11 : 1.2/50 μ s voltage wave

2 Principle of lightning protection

2.1 General rules

The system for protecting a building against the effects of lightning must include:

- protection of structures against direct lightning strokes;
- protection of electrical installations against direct and indirect lightning strokes.

2.1.1 Procedure to prevent risks of lightning strike

The basic principle for protection of an installation against the risk of lightning strikes is to prevent the disturbing energy from reaching sensitive equipment. To achieve this, it is necessary to:

- capture the lightning current and channel it to earth via the most direct path (avoiding the vicinity of sensitive equipment);
- perform equipotential bonding of the installation; This equipotential bonding is implemented by bonding conductors, supplemented by Surge Protection Devices (SPDs) or spark gaps (e.g., antenna mast spark gap).
- minimize induced and indirect effects by installing SPDs and/or filters.

Two protection systems are used to eliminate or limit overvoltages: they are known as the building protection system (for the outside of buildings) and the electrical installation protection system (for the inside of buildings).

2.2 Building protection system

The role of the building protection system is to protect it against direct lightning strokes.

The system consists of:

- the capture device: the lightning protection system;
- down-conductors designed to convey the lightning current to earth;
- "crow's foot" earth leads connected together;
- links between all metallic frames (equipotential bonding) and the earth leads.

When the lightning current flows in a conductor, if potential differences appear between it and the frames connected to earth that are located in the vicinity, the latter can cause destructive flashovers.

J7

2.2.1 The 3 types of lightning protection system

Three types of building protection are used:

■ The simple lightning rod

The lightning rod is a metallic capture tip placed at the top of the building. It is earthed by one or more conductors (often copper strips) (see Fig. J12).

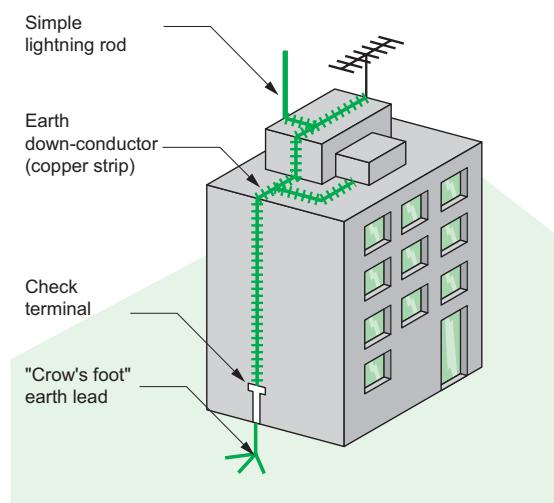


Fig. J12 : Simple lightning rod

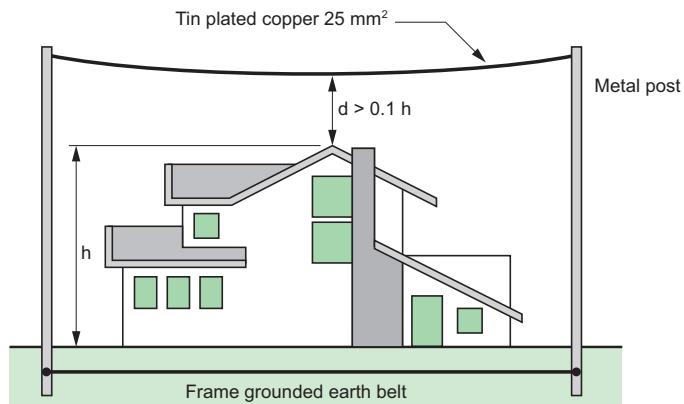


Fig. J13 : Taut wires

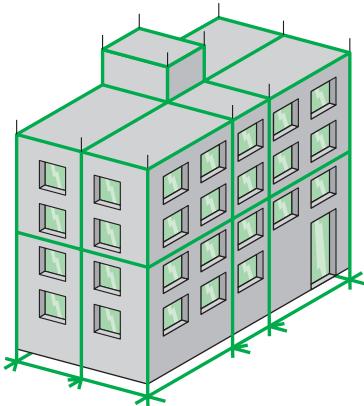


Fig. J14 : Meshed cage (Faraday cage)

J8

As a consequence, the building protection system does not protect the electrical installation: it is therefore compulsory to provide for an electrical installation protection system.

■ The lightning rod with taut wires

These wires are stretched above the structure to be protected. They are used to protect special structures: rocket launching areas, military applications and protection of high-voltage overhead lines (see Fig. J13).

■ The lightning conductor with meshed cage (Faraday cage)

This protection involves placing numerous down conductors/tapes symmetrically all around the building. (see Fig. J14).

This type of lightning protection system is used for highly exposed buildings housing very sensitive installations such as computer rooms.

2.2.2 Consequences of building protection for the electrical installation's equipment

50% of the lightning current discharged by the building protection system rises back into the earthing networks of the electrical installation (see Fig. J15): the potential rise of the frames very frequently exceeds the insulation withstand capability of the conductors in the various networks (LV, telecommunications, video cable, etc.). Moreover, the flow of current through the down-conductors generates induced overvoltages in the electrical installation.

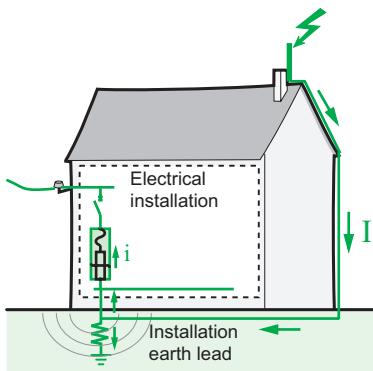


Fig. J15 : Direct lightning back current

2.3 Electrical installation protection system

The main objective of the electrical installation protection system is to limit overvoltages to values that are acceptable for the equipment.

The electrical installation protection system consists of:

- one or more SPDs depending on the building configuration;
- the equipotential bonding: metallic mesh of exposed conductive parts.

2.3.1 Implementation

The procedure to protect the electrical and electronic systems of a building is as follows.

Search for information

- Identify all sensitive loads and their location in the building.
- Identify the electrical and electronic systems and their respective points of entry into the building.
- Check whether a lightning protection system is present on the building or in the vicinity.
- Become acquainted with the regulations applicable to the building's location.
- Assess the risk of lightning strike according to the geographic location, type of power supply, lightning strike density, etc.

Solution implementation

- Install bonding conductors on frames by a mesh.
- Install a SPD in the LV incoming switchboard.
- Install an additional SPD in each subdistribution board located in the vicinity of sensitive equipment (see Fig. J16).

J9

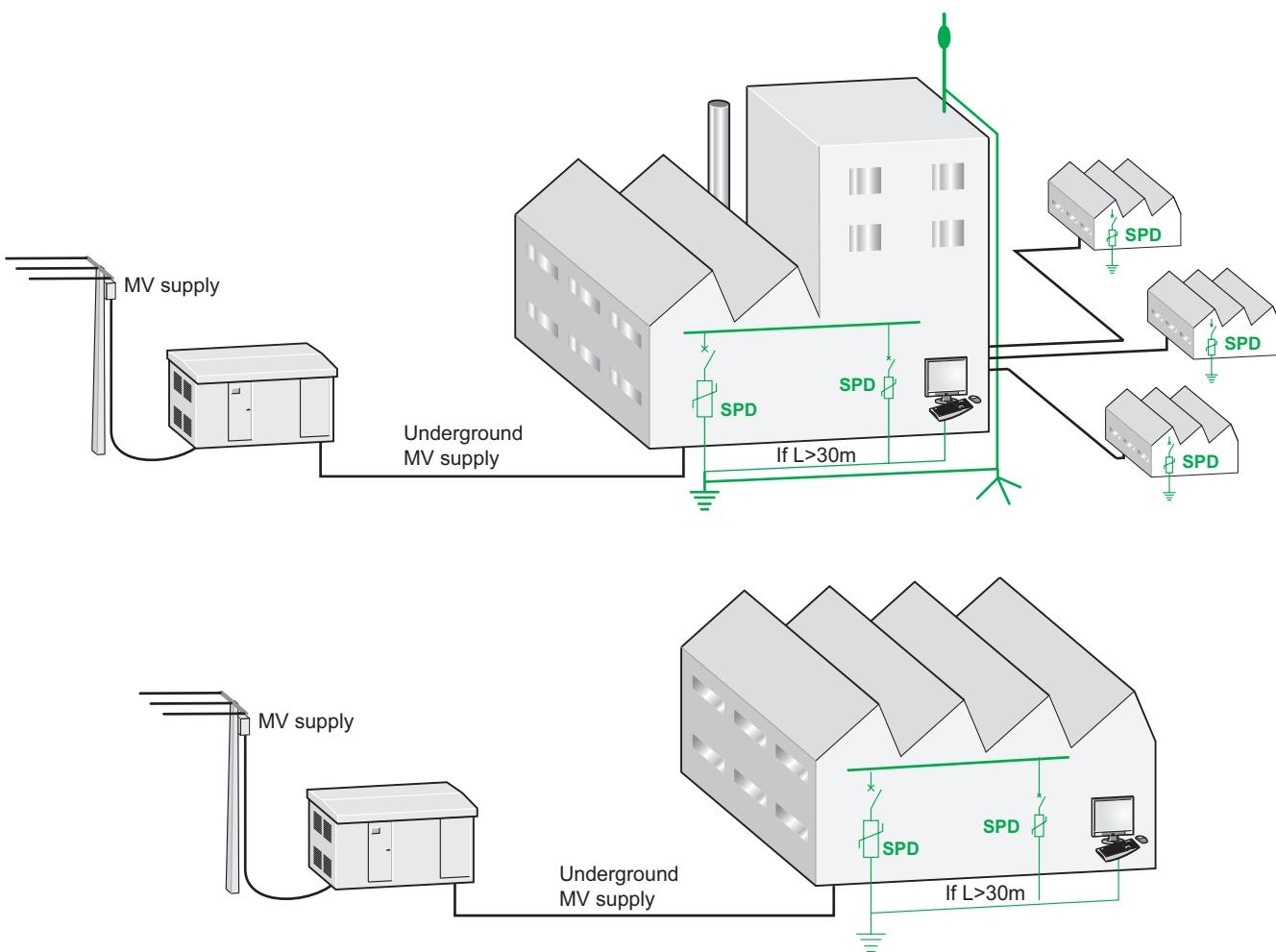


Fig. J16 : Example of protection of a large-scale electrical installation

Surge Protection Devices (SPD) are used for electric power supply networks, telephone networks, and communication and automatic control buses.

2.4 The Surge Protection Device (SPD)

The Surge Protection Device (SPD) is a component of the electrical installation protection system.

This device is connected in parallel on the power supply circuit of the loads that it has to protect (see Fig. J17). It can also be used at all levels of the power supply network.

This is the most commonly used and most efficient type of overvoltage protection.

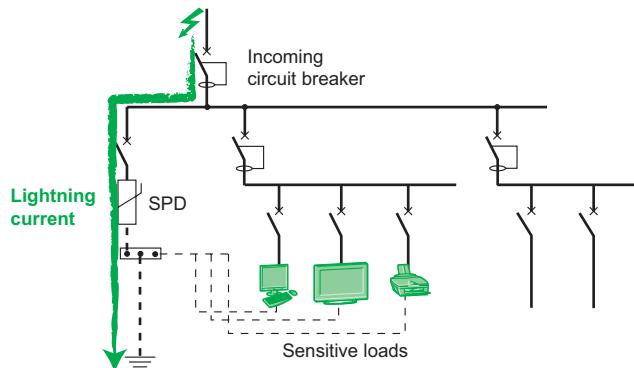


Fig. J17 : Principle of protection system in parallel

J10

Principle

SPD is designed to limit transient overvoltages of atmospheric origin and divert current waves to earth, so as to limit the amplitude of this overvoltage to a value that is not hazardous for the electrical installation and electric switchgear and controlgear.

SPD eliminates overvoltages:

- in common mode, between phase and neutral or earth;
 - in differential mode, between phase and neutral.
- In the event of an overvoltage exceeding the operating threshold, the SPD
- conducts the energy to earth, in common mode;
 - distributes the energy to the other live conductors, in differential mode.

The three types of SPD:

■ Type 1 SPD

The Type 1 SPD is recommended in the specific case of service-sector and industrial buildings, protected by a lightning protection system or a meshed cage.

It protects electrical installations against direct lightning strokes. It can discharge the back-current from lightning spreading from the earth conductor to the network conductors.

Type 1 SPD is characterized by a 10/350 µs current wave.

■ Type 2 SPD

The Type 2 SPD is the main protection system for all low voltage electrical installations. Installed in each electrical switchboard, it prevents the spread of overvoltages in the electrical installations and protects the loads.

Type 2 SPD is characterized by an 8/20 µs current wave.

■ Type 3 SPD

These SPDs have a low discharge capacity. They must therefore mandatorily be installed as a supplement to Type 2 SPD and in the vicinity of sensitive loads.

Type 3 SPD is characterized by a combination of voltage waves (1.2/50 µs) and current waves (8/20 µs).

2 Principle of lightning protection

■ SPD normative definition

	Direct lightning stroke	Indirect lightning stroke	
IEC 61643-1	Class I test	Class II test	Class III test
IEC 61643-11/2007	Type 1 : T1	Type 2 : T2	Type 3 : T3
EN/IEC 61643-11	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3
Former VDE 0675v	B	C	D
Type of test wave	10/350	8/20	1.2/50 + 8/20

Note 1: There exist **T1** + **T2** SPD (or Type 1 + 2 SPD) combining protection of loads against direct and indirect lightning strokes.

Note 2: some **T2** SPD can also be declared as **T3**.

Fig. J18 : Table of SPD normative definition

J11

2.4.1 Characteristics of SPD

International standard IEC 61643-1 Edition 2.0 (03/2005) defines the characteristics of and tests for SPD connected to low voltage distribution systems (see **Fig. J19**).

■ Common characteristics

□ **Uc:** Maximum continuous operating voltage

This is the a.c. or d.c. voltage above which the SPD becomes active. This value is chosen according to the rated voltage and the system earthing arrangement.

□ **Up:** Voltage protection level (at **In**)

This is the maximum voltage across the terminals of the SPD when it is active. This voltage is reached when the current flowing in the SPD is equal to **In**. The voltage protection level chosen must be below the overvoltage withstand capability of the loads (see section 3.2). In the event of lightning strokes, the voltage across the terminals of the SPD generally remains less than **Up**.

□ **In:** Nominal discharge current

This is the peak value of a current of 8/20 µs waveform that the SPD is capable of discharging 15 times.

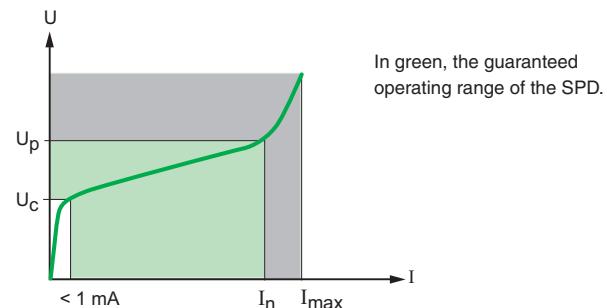


Fig. J19 : Time/current characteristic of a SPD with varistor

■ Type 1 SPD

□ **Iimp:** Impulse current

This is the peak value of a current of 10/350 µs waveform that the SPD is capable of discharging 5 times.

□ **Ifi:** Autoextinguish follow current

Applicable only to the spark gap technology.

This is the current (50 Hz) that the SPD is capable of interrupting by itself after flashover. This current must always be greater than the prospective short-circuit current at the point of installation.

■ Type 2 SPD

□ **Imax:** Maximum discharge current

This is the peak value of a current of 8/20 µs waveform that the SPD is capable of discharging once.

■ Type 3 SPD

□ **Uoc:** Open-circuit voltage applied during class III (Type 3) tests.

2.4.2 Main applications

■ Low Voltage SPD

Very different devices, from both a technological and usage viewpoint, are designated by this term. Low voltage SPDs are modular to be easily installed inside LV switchboards.

There are also SPDs adaptable to power sockets, but these devices have a low discharge capacity.

■ SPD for communication networks

These devices protect telephone networks, switched networks and automatic control networks (bus) against overvoltages coming from outside (lightning) and those internal to the power supply network (polluting equipment, switchgear operation, etc.).

Such SPDs are also installed in RJ11, RJ45, ... connectors or integrated into loads.

3 Design of the electrical installation protection system

To protect an electrical installation in a building, simple rules apply for the choice of

- SPD(s);
- its protection system.

3.1 Design rules

For a power distribution system, the main characteristics used to define the lightning protection system and select a SPD to protect an electrical installation in a building are:

- SPD
- quantity of SPD;
- type;
- level of exposure to define the SPD's maximum discharge current I_{max} .
- Short circuit protection device
- maximum discharge current I_{max} ;
- short-circuit current I_{sc} at the point of installation.

The logic diagram in the **Figure J20** below illustrates this design rule.

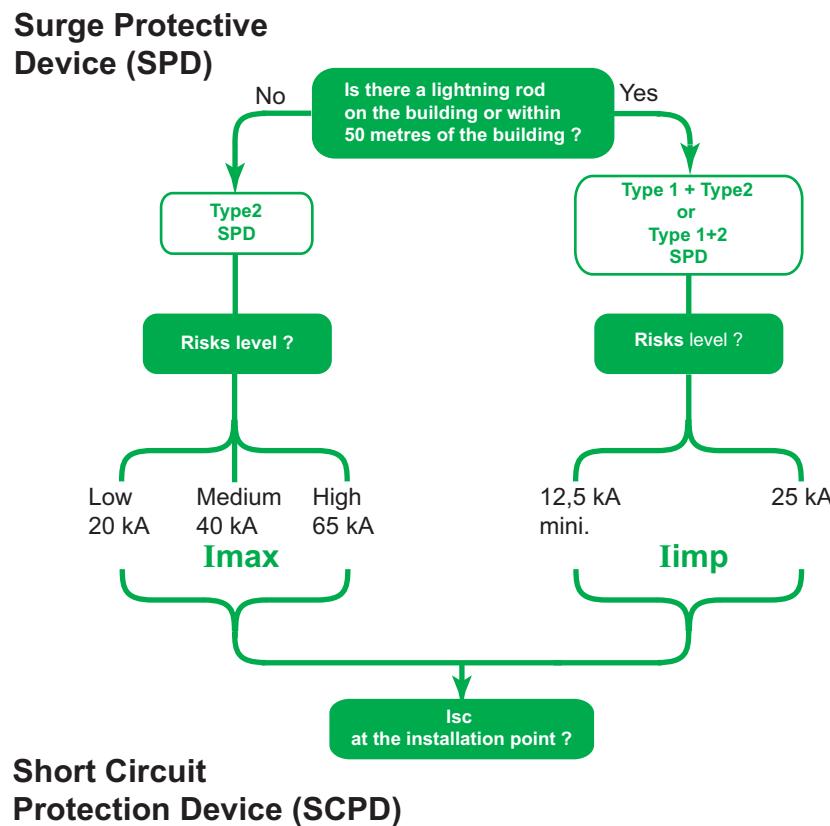


Fig. J20 : Logic diagram for selection of a protection system

The other characteristics for selection of a SPD are predefined for an electrical installation.

- number of poles in SPD;
- voltage protection level U_p ;
- operating voltage U_c .

This sub-section J3 describes in greater detail the criteria for selection of the protection system according to the characteristics of the installation, the equipment to be protected and the environment.

A SPD must always be installed at the origin of the electrical installation.

3.2 Elements of the protection system

3.2.1 Location and type of SPD

The type of SPD to be installed at the origin of the installation depends on whether or not a lightning protection system is present. If the building is fitted with a lightning protection system (as per IEC 62305), a Type 1 SPD should be installed.

For SPD installed at the incoming end of the installation, the IEC 60364 installation standards lay down minimum values for the following 2 characteristics:

- Nominal discharge current $I_{n} = 5 \text{ kA (8/20) } \mu\text{s}$;
- Voltage protection level $U_p (\text{at } I_n) < 2.5 \text{ kV}$.

The number of additional SPDs to be installed is determined by:

- the size of the site and the difficulty of installing bonding conductors. On large sites, it is essential to install a SPD at the incoming end of each subdistribution enclosure.
- the distance separating sensitive loads to be protected from the incoming-end protection device. When the loads are located more than 30 m away from the incoming-end protection device, it is necessary to provide for special fine protection as close as possible to sensitive loads.
- the risk of exposure. In the case of a very exposed site, the incoming-end SPD cannot ensure both a high flow of lightning current and a sufficiently low voltage protection level. In particular, a Type 1 SPD is generally accompanied by a Type 2 SPD.

The table in **Figure J21** below shows the quantity and type of SPD to be set up on the basis of the two factors defined above.

J14

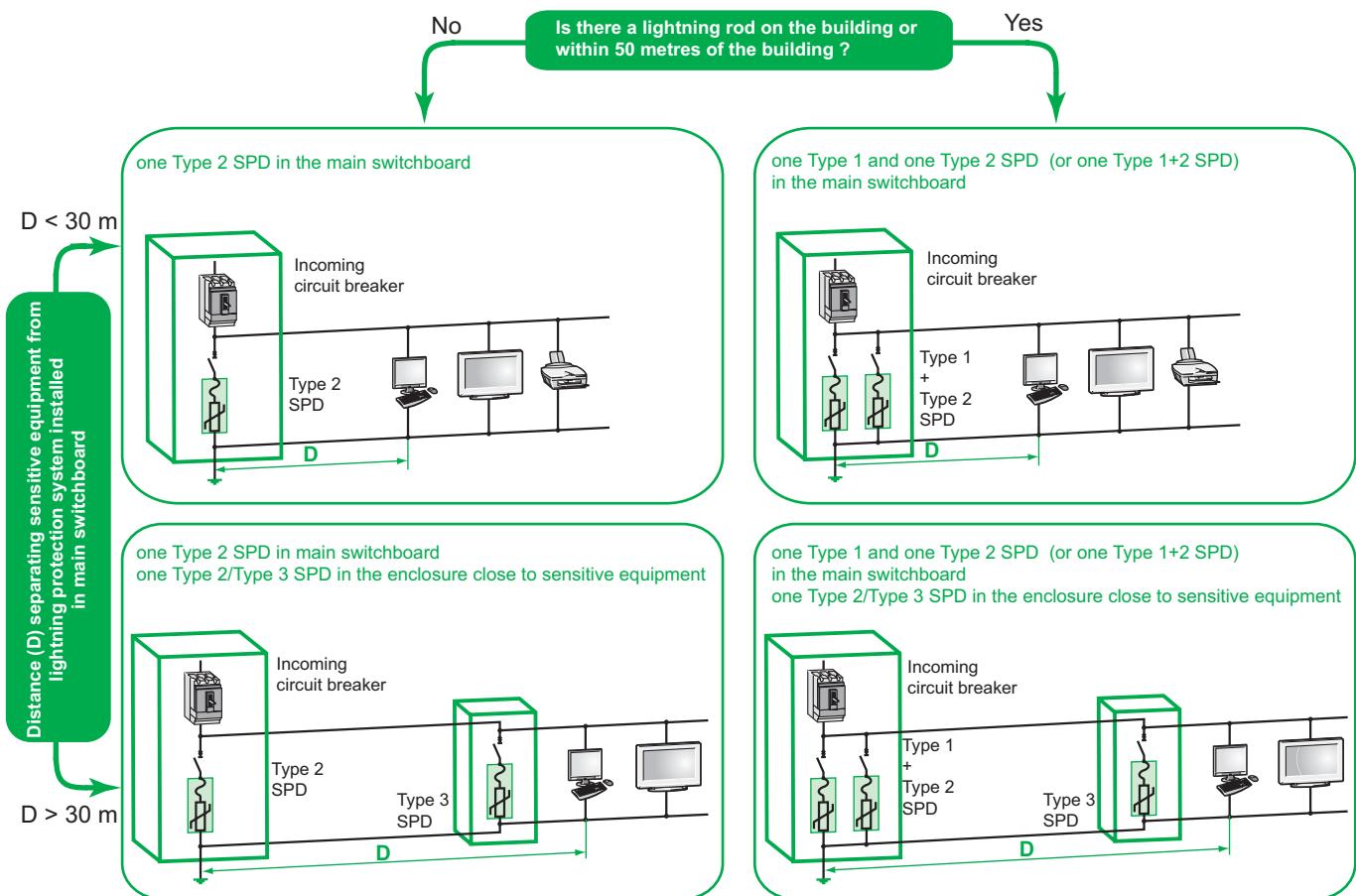


Fig. J21 : The 4 cases of SPD implementation

Note : The Type 1 SPD is installed in the electrical switchboard connected to the earth lead of the lightning protection system.

3 Design of the electrical installation protection system

3.2.2 Protection distributed levels

Several protection levels of SPD allows the energy to be distributed among several SPDs, as shown in **Figure J22** in which the three types of SPD are provided for:

- Type 1: when the building is fitted with a lightning protection system and located at the incoming end of the installation, it absorbs a very large quantity of energy;
- Type 2: absorbs residual overvoltages;
- Type 3: provides "fine" protection if necessary for the most sensitive equipment located very close to the loads.

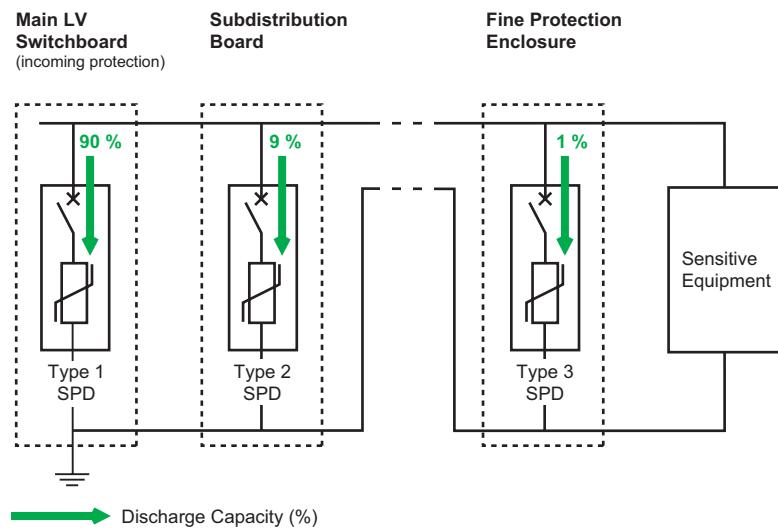
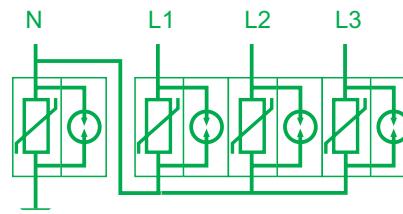


Fig. J22 : Fine protection architecture
Note: The Type 1 and 2 SPD can be combined in a single SPD

J15



PRD1 25 r



PRD1 25 r

Fig. J23 : The PRD1 25r SPD fulfils the two functions of Type 1 and Type 2 (Type 1+2) in the same product

3.3 Common characteristics of SPDs according to the installation characteristics

3.3.1 Operating voltage Uc

Depending on the system earthing arrangement, the maximum continuous operating voltage Uc of SPD must be equal to or greater than the values shown in the table in **Figure J24**.

SPDs connected between	System configuration of distribution network				
	TT	TN-C	TN-S	IT with distributed neutral	IT without distributed neutral
Line conductor and neutral conductor	1.1 Uo	NA	1.1 Uo	1.1 Uo	NA
Each line conductor and PE conductor	1.1 Uo	NA	1.1 Uo	$\sqrt{3}$ Uo	Vo
Neutral conductor and PE conductor	Uo	NA	Uo	Uo	NA
Each line conductor and PEN conductor	NA	1.1 Uo	NA	NA	NA

NA: not applicable

NOTE 1: Uo is the line-to-neutral voltage, Vo is the line-to-line voltage of the low voltage system.

NOTE 2: This table is based on IEC 61643-1 amendment 1.

Fig. J24 : Stipulated minimum value of Uc for SPDs depending on the system earthing arrangement (based on Table 53C of the IEC 60364-5-53 standard)

The most common values of Uc chosen according to the system earthing arrangement.

TT, TN: 260, 320, 340, 350 V

IT: 440, 460 V

3.3.2 Voltage protection level Up (at In)

The 443-4 section of IEC 60364 standard, "Selection of equipment in the installation", helps with the choice of the protection level Up for the SPD in function of the loads to be protected. The table of **Figure J25** indicates the impulse withstand capability of each kind of equipment.

Nominal voltage of the installation ⁽¹⁾ V		Required impulse withstand voltage for			
Three-phase systems ⁽²⁾	Single-phase systems with middle point	Equipment at the origin of the installation (impulse withstand category IV)	Equipment of distribution and final circuits (impulse withstand category III)	Appliances (impulse withstand category II)	Specially protected equipment (impulse withstand category I)
	120-240	4	2.5	1.5	0.8
230/400 ⁽²⁾	-	6	4	2.5	1.5
277/480 ⁽²⁾	-	8	6	4	2.5
400/690	-				
1,000	-	Values subject to system engineers			

(1) As per IEC 60038.

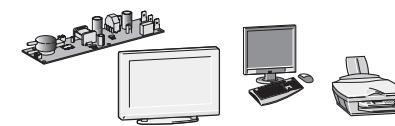
(2) In Canada and the United States, for voltages exceeding 300 V relative to earth, the impulse withstand voltage corresponding to the immediately higher voltage in the column is applicable.

(3) This impulse withstand voltage is applicable between live conductors and the PE conductor

Fig. J25 : Equipment impulse withstand category for an installation in conformity with IEC 60364 (Table 44B).

3 Design of the electrical installation protection system

J17



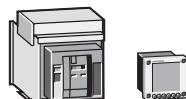
■ Equipment of overvoltage category I is only suitable for use in the fixed installation of buildings where protective means are applied outside the equipment – to limit transient overvoltages to the specified level. Examples of such equipment are those containing electronic circuits like computers, appliances with electronic programmes, etc.



■ Equipment of overvoltage category II is suitable for connection to the fixed electrical installation, providing a normal degree of availability normally required for current-using equipment. Examples of such equipment are household appliances and similar loads.



■ Equipment of overvoltage category III is for use in the fixed installation downstream of, and including the main distribution board, providing a high degree of availability. Examples of such equipment are distribution boards, circuit-breakers, wiring systems including cables, bus-bars, junction boxes, switches, socket-outlets) in the fixed installation, and equipment for industrial use and some other equipment, e.g. stationary motors with permanent connection to the fixed installation.



■ Equipment of overvoltage category IV is suitable for use at, or in the proximity of, the origin of the installation, for example upstream of the main distribution board. Examples of such equipment are electricity meters, primary overcurrent protection devices and ripple control units.

Fig. J26 : Overvoltage category of equipment

The "installed" Up performance should be compared with the impulse withstand capability of the loads.

SPD has a voltage protection level Up that is intrinsic, i.e. defined and tested independently of its installation. In practice, for the choice of Up performance of a SPD, a safety margin must be taken to allow for the overvoltages inherent in the installation of the SPD (see **Fig. J27**).

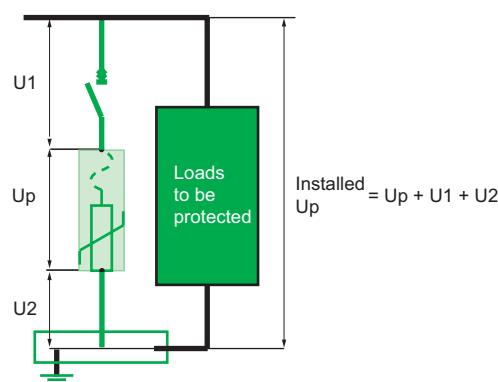


Fig. J27 : "Installed" Up

The "installed" voltage protection level Up generally adopted to protect sensitive equipment in 230/400 V electrical installations is 2.5 kV (overvoltage category II, see **Fig. J28**).

Note:

If the stipulated voltage protection level cannot be achieved by the incoming-end SPD or if sensitive equipment items are remote (see section 3.2.1), additional coordinated SPD must be installed to achieve the required protection level.

3.3.3 Number of poles

- Depending on the system earthing arrangement, it is necessary to provide for a SPD architecture ensuring protection in common mode (CM) and differential mode (DM).

	TT	TN-C	TN-S	IT
Phase-to-neutral (DM)	Recommended ¹	-	Recommended	Not useful
Phase-to-earth (PE or PEN) (CM)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Neutral-to-earth (PE) (CM)	Yes	-	Yes	Yes ²

¹ The protection between phase and neutral can either be incorporated in the SPD placed at the origin of the installation, or be remote close to the equipment to be protected

² If neutral distributed

Fig. J28 : Protection need according to the system earthing arrangement

Note:

Common-mode overvoltage

A basic form of protection is to install a SPD in common mode between phases and the PE (or PEN) conductor, whatever the type of system earthing arrangement used.

Differential-mode overvoltage

In the TT and TN-S systems, earthing of the neutral results in an asymmetry due to earth impedances which leads to the appearance of differential-mode voltages, even though the overvoltage induced by a lightning stroke is common-mode.

2P, 3P and 4P SPDs (see Fig. J29)

These are adapted to the TT and TN-S systems.

They provide protection merely against common-mode overvoltages.

J18

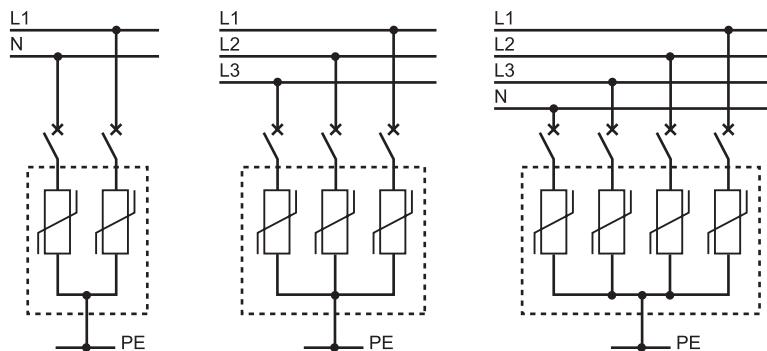


Fig. J29 : 2P, 3P, 4P SPDs

1P + N, 3P + N SPDs (see Fig. J30)

These are adapted to the TT and TN-S systems.

They provide protection against common-mode and differential-mode overvoltages.

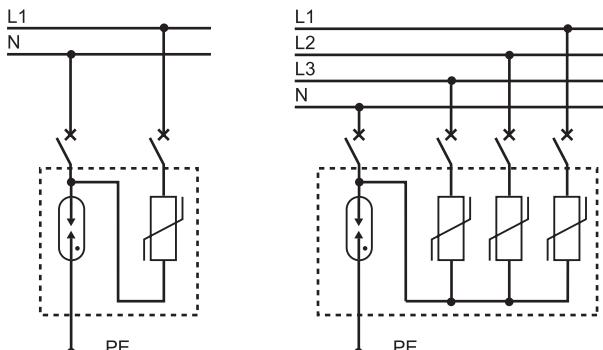


Fig. J30 : 1P + N, 3P + N SPDs

3 Design of the electrical installation protection system

3.4 Selection of a Type 1 SPD

3.4.1 Impulse current I_{imp}

- Where there are no national regulations or specific regulations for the type of building to be protected:
the impulse current limp shall be at least 12.5 kA (10/350 µs wave) per branch in accordance with IEC 60364-5-534.
- Where regulations exist:
standard 62305-2 defines 4 levels: I, II, III and IV
The table in **Figure J31** shows the different levels of limp in the regulatory case.

Protection level as per EN 62305-2	External lightning protection system designed to handle direct flash of:	Minimum required limp for Type 1 SPD for line-neutral network
I	200 kA	25 kA/pole
II	150 kA	18.75 kA/pole
III / IV	100 kA	12.5 kA/pole

Fig. J31 : Table of limp values according to the building's voltage protection level (based on IEC/EN 62305-2)

3.4.2 Autoextinguish follow current Ifi

This characteristic is applicable only for SPDs with spark gap technology. The autoextinguish follow current Ifi must always be greater than the prospective short-circuit current Isc at the point of installation.

J19

3.5 Selection of a Type 2 SPD

3.5.1 Maximum discharge current I_{max}

The maximum discharge current I_{max} is defined according to the estimated exposure level relative to the building's location.

The value of the maximum discharge current (I_{max}) is determined by a risk analysis (see table in **Figure J32**).

Exposure level			
	Low	Medium	High
Building environment	Building located in an urban or suburban area of grouped housing	Building located in a plain	Building where there is a specific risk: pylon, tree, mountainous region, wet area or pond, etc.
Recommended I _{max} value (kA)	20	40	65

Fig. J32 : Recommended maximum discharge current I_{max} according to the exposure level

The protection devices (thermal and short circuit) must be coordinated with the SPD to ensure reliable operation, i.e.

- ensure continuity of service:
 - withstand lightning current waves;
 - not generate excessive residual voltage.
- ensure effective protection against all types of overcurrent:
 - overload following thermal runaway of the varistor;
 - short circuit of low intensity (impedant);
 - short circuit of high intensity.

3.6 Selection of external Short Circuit Protection Device (SCPD)

3.6.1 Risks to be avoided at end of life of the SPDs

■ Due to ageing

In the case of natural end of life due to ageing, protection is of the thermal type. SPD with varistors must have an internal disconnector which disables the SPD.

Note: End of life through thermal runaway does not concern SPD with gas discharge tube or encapsulated spark gap.

■ Due to a fault

The causes of end of life due to a short-circuit fault are:

- Maximum discharge capacity exceeded.
This fault results in a strong short circuit.
- A fault due to the distribution system (neutral/phase switchover, neutral disconnection).
- Gradual deterioration of the varistor.

The latter two faults result in an impedant short circuit.

The installation must be protected from damage resulting from these types of fault: the internal (thermal) disconnector defined above does not have time to warm up, hence to operate.

A special device called "external Short Circuit Protection Device (external SCPD)", capable of eliminating the short circuit, should be installed. It can be implemented by a circuit breaker or fuse device.

3.6.2 Characteristics of the external SCPD

The external SCPD should be coordinated with the SPD. It is designed to meet the following two constraints:

Lightning current withstand

The lightning current withstand is an essential characteristic of the SPD's external Short Circuit Protection Device.

The external SCPD must not trip upon 15 successive impulse currents at In.

Short-circuit current withstand

- **The breaking capacity** is determined by the installation rules (IEC 60364 standard):

The external SCPD should have a breaking capacity equal to or greater than the prospective short-circuit current I_{sc} at the installation point (in accordance with the IEC 60364 standard).

■ Protection of the installation against short circuits

In particular, the impedant short circuit dissipates a lot of energy and should be eliminated very quickly to prevent damage to the installation and to the SPD.

The right association between a SPD and its external SCPD must be given by the manufacturer.

3 Design of the electrical installation protection system

3.6.3 Installation mode for the external SCPD

■ Device "in series"

The SCPD is described as "in series" (see **Fig. J33**) when the protection is performed by the general protection device of the network to be protected (for example, connection circuit breaker upstream of an installation).

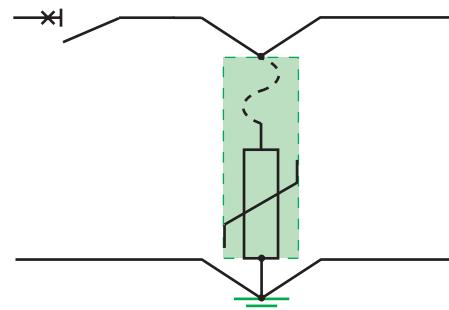


Fig. J33 : SCPD "in series"

■ Device "in parallel"

The SCPD is described as "in parallel" (see **Fig. J34**) when the protection is performed specifically by a protection device associated with the SPD.

- The external SCPD is called a "disconnecting circuit breaker" if the function is performed by a circuit breaker.
- The disconnecting circuit breaker may or may not be integrated into the SPD.

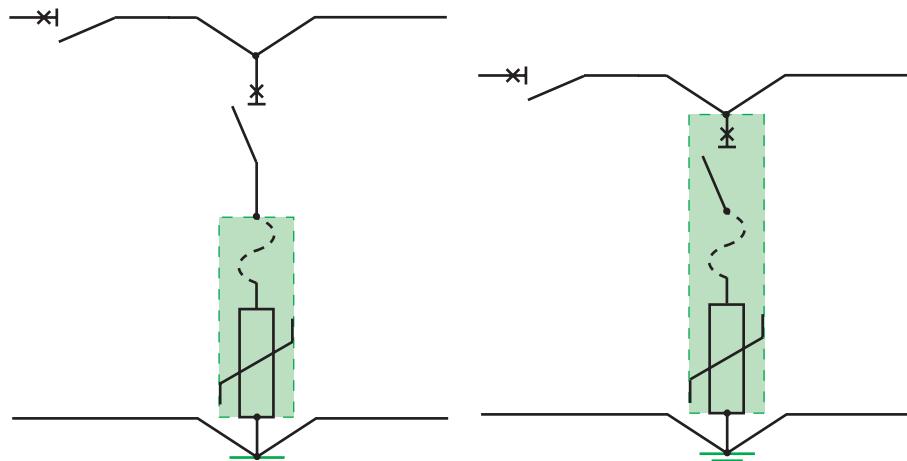


Fig. J34 : SCPD "in parallel"

Note:

In the case of a SPD with gas discharge tube or encapsulated spark gap, the SCPD allows the current to be cut immediately after use.

3.6.4 Guarantee of protection

The external SCPD should be coordinated with the SPD, and tested and guaranteed by the SPD manufacturer in accordance with the recommendations of the IEC 61643-11 standard (NF EN 61643-1) Chap. 7.7.3. It should also be installed in accordance with the manufacturer's recommendations. When this device is integrated, conformity with product standard IEC 61643-11 naturally ensures protection.



Fig. J35 : SPDs with external SCPD, non-integrated (C60N + PRD 40r) and integrated (Quick PRD 40r)

3.6.5 Summary of external SCPDs characteristics

A detailed analysis of the characteristics is given in section 6.4.

The table in **Figure J36** shows, on an example, a summary of the characteristics according to the various types of external SCPD.

J22

Installation mode for the external SCPD	In series	In parallel		
		Fuse protection associated	Circuit breaker protection associated	Circuit breaker protection integrated
Surge protection of equipment	=	=	=	=
	SPDs protect the equipment satisfactorily whatever the kind of associated external SCPD			
Protection of installation at end of life	-	=	+	++
	No guarantee of protection possible	Manufacturer's guarantee		Full guarantee
		Protection from impendat short circuits not well ensured		Protection from short circuits perfectly ensured
Continuity of service at end of life	--	+	+	+
	The complete installation is shut down	Only the SPD circuit is shut down		
Maintenance at end of life	--	=	+	+
	Shutdown of the installation required	Change of fuses	Immediate resetting	

Fig. J36 : Characteristics of end-of-life protection of a Type 2 SPD according to the external SCPDs

3.7 SPD and protection device coordination table

The table in **Figure J37** below shows the coordination of disconnecting circuit breakers (external SCPD) for Type 1 and 2 SPDs of the Schneider Electric brand for all levels of short-circuit currents.

Coordination between SPD and its disconnecting circuit breakers, indicated and guaranteed by Schneider Electric, ensures reliable protection (lightning wave withstand, reinforced protection of impendat short-circuit currents, etc.).

3 Design of the electrical installation protection system

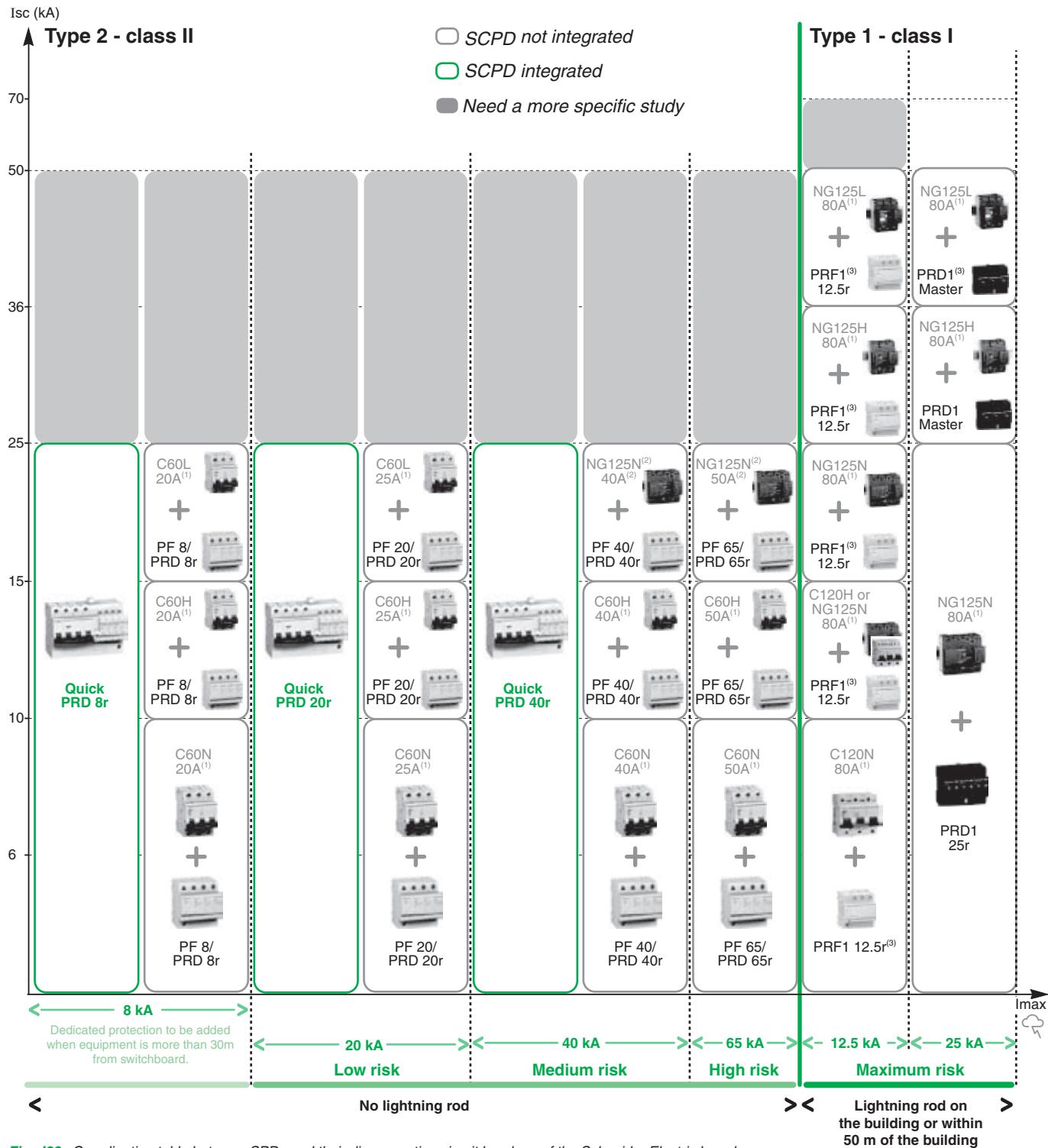


Fig. J22 : Coordination table between SPDs and their disconnecting circuit breakers of the Schneider Electric brand
(1): All circuit breakers are C curve - (2): NG 125 L for 1P & 2P - (3): Also Type 2 (class II) tested

J23

3.7.1 Coordination with upstream protection devices

Coordination with overcurrent protection devices

In an electrical installation, the external SCPD is an apparatus identical to the protection apparatus: this makes it possible to apply **discrimination** and **cascading** techniques for technical and economic optimization of the protection plan.

Coordination with residual current devices

If the SPD is installed downstream of an earth leakage protection device, the latter should be of the "s" or selective type with an immunity to pulse currents of at least 3 kA (8/20 µs current wave).

Note: S type residual current devices in conformity with the IEC 61008 or IEC 61009-1 standards comply with this requirement.

4 Installation of SPDs

4.1 Connection

Connections of a SPD to the loads should be as short as possible in order to reduce the value of the voltage protection level (installed Up) on the terminals of the protected equipment.

The total length of SPD connections to the network and the earth terminal block should not exceed 50 cm.

One of the essential characteristics for the protection of equipment is the maximum voltage protection level (installed Up) that the equipment can withstand at its terminals. Accordingly, a SPD should be chosen with a voltage protection level Up adapted to protection of the equipment (see Fig. J38). The total length of the connection conductors is

$$L = L_1 + L_2 + L_3.$$

For high-frequency currents, the impedance per unit length of this connection is approximately $1 \mu\text{H/m}$.

Hence, applying Lenz's law to this connection: $\Delta U = L \frac{di}{dt}$

The normalized 8/20 μs current wave, with a current amplitude of 8 kA, accordingly creates a voltage rise of 1000 V per metre of cable.

$$\Delta U = 1 \times 10^{-6} \times 8 \times 10^3 / 8 \times 10^{-6} = 1000 \text{ V}$$

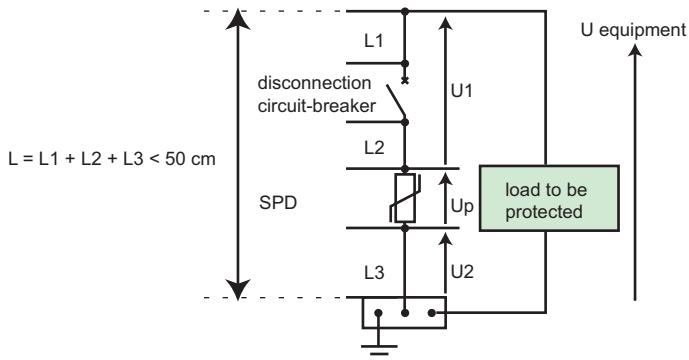


Fig. J38 : Connections of a SPD $L < 50 \text{ cm}$

As a result the voltage across the equipment terminals, installed Up, is:
installed Up = Up + U1 + U2

If $L_1 + L_2 + L_3 = 50 \text{ cm}$, and the wave is 8/20 μs with an amplitude of 8 kA, the voltage across the equipment terminals will be Up + 500 V.

4.1.1 Connection in plastic enclosure

Figure J39a below shows how to connect a SPD in plastic enclosure.

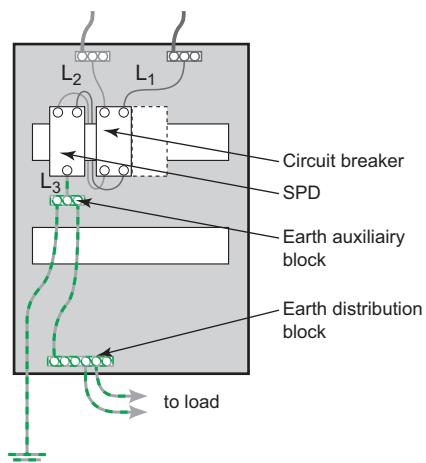


Fig. J39a : Example of connection in plastic enclosure

4.1.2 Connection in metallic enclosure

In the case of a switchgear assembly in a metallic enclosure, it may be wise to connect the SPD directly to the metallic enclosure, with the enclosure being used as a protective conductor (see **Fig. J39b**).

This arrangement complies with standard IEC 60439-1 and the manufacturer of the switchgear assembly must make sure that the characteristics of the enclosure make this use possible.

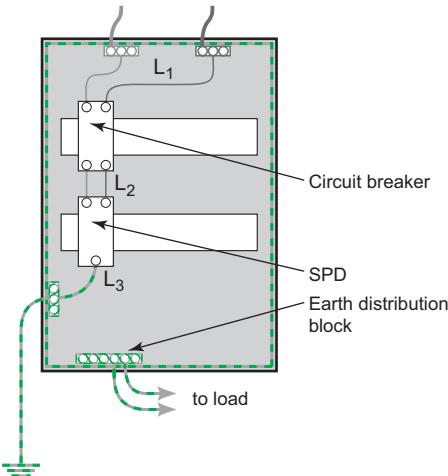


Fig. J39b : Example of connection in metallic enclosure

J25

4.1.3 Conductor cross section

The recommended minimum conductor cross section takes into account:

- The normal service to be provided: Flow of the lightning current wave under a maximum voltage drop (50 cm rule).

Note: Unlike applications at 50 Hz, the phenomenon of lightning being high-frequency, the increase in the conductor cross section does not greatly reduce its high-frequency impedance.

- The conductors' withstand to short-circuit currents: The conductor must resist a short-circuit current during the maximum protection system cutoff time.
IEC 60364 recommends at the installation incoming end a minimum cross section of:
 - 4 mm² (Cu) for connection of Type 2 SPD;
 - 16 mm² (Cu) for connection of Type 1 SPD (presence of lightning protection system).

4.2 Cabling rules

■ Rule 1:

The first rule to comply with is that the length of the SPD connections between the network (via the external SCPD) and the earthing terminal block should not exceed 50 cm.

Figure J40 shows the two possibilities for connection of a SPD.

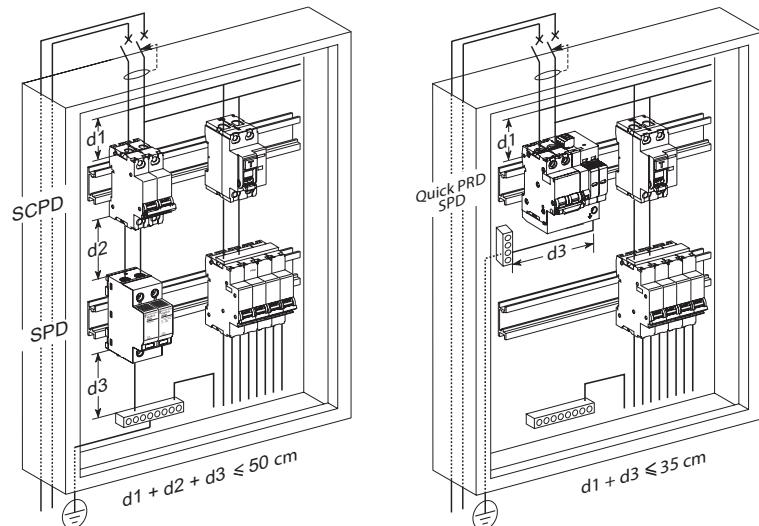


Fig. 40 : SPD with separate or integrated external SCPD

■ Rule 2:

The conductors of protected outgoing feeders:

- should be connected to the terminals of the external SCPD or the SPD;
- should be separated physically from the polluted incoming conductors.

They are located to the right of the terminals of the SPD and the SCPD (see **Fig. J41**).

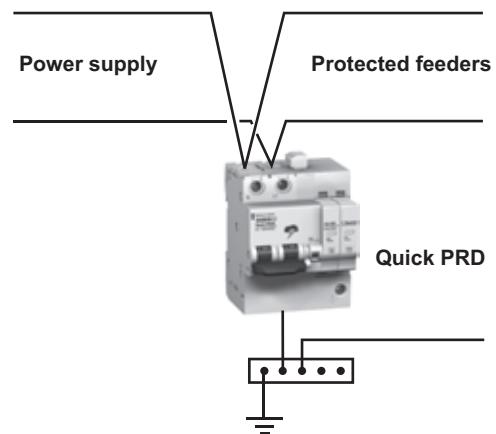


Fig. 41 : The connections of protected outgoing feeders are to the right of the SPD terminals

4 Installation of SPDs

■ Rule 3:

The incoming feeder phase, neutral and protection (PE) conductors should run one beside another in order to reduce the loop surface (see Fig. J42).

■ Rule 4:

The incoming conductors of the SPD should be remote from the protected outgoing conductors to avoid polluting them by coupling (see Fig. J42).

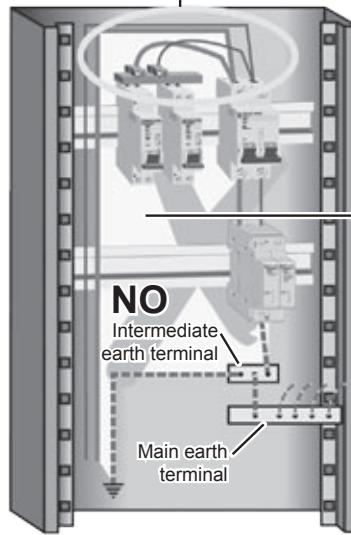
■ Rule 5:

The cables should be pinned against the metallic parts of the enclosure (if any) in order to minimize the surface of the frame loop and hence benefit from a shielding effect against EM disturbances.

In all cases, it must be checked that the frames of switchboards and enclosures are earthed via very short connections.

Finally, if shielded cables are used, big lengths should be avoided, because they reduce the efficiency of shielding (see Fig. J42).

Clean cables polluted by neighbouring polluted cables



Clean cable paths separated from polluted cable paths

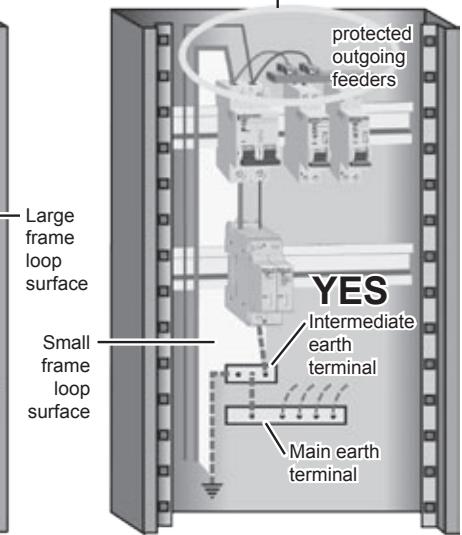


Fig. 42 : Example of improvement of EMC by a reduction in the loop surfaces and common impedance in an electric enclosure

5 Application

5.1 Installation examples

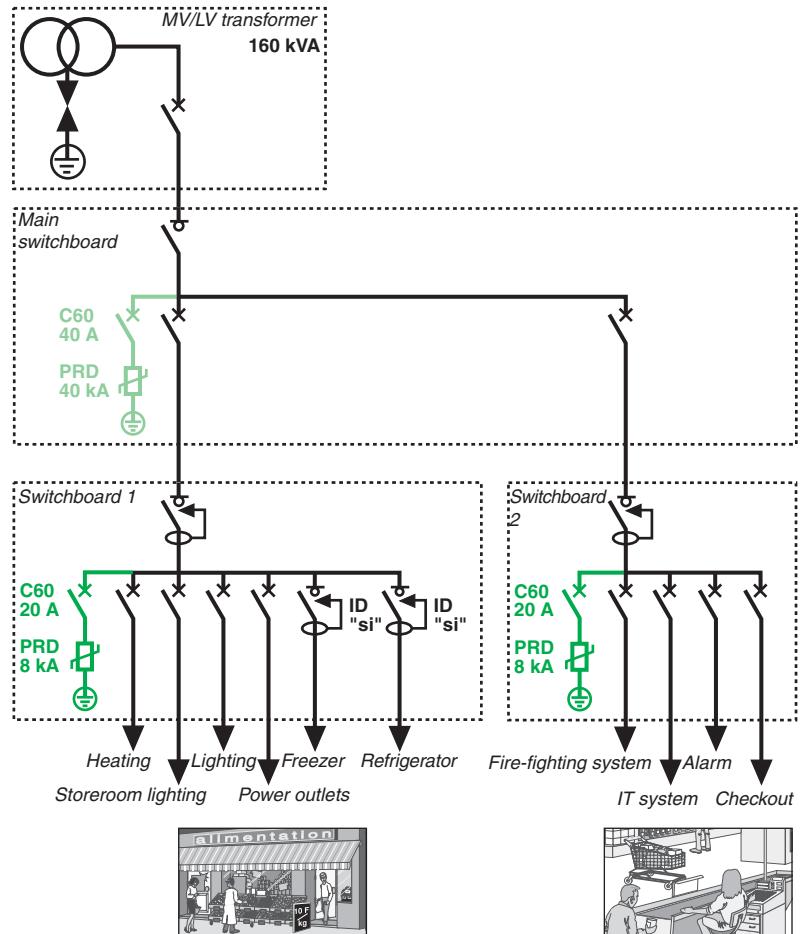


Fig. J43 : Application example: supermarket

Solutions and schematic diagram

- The surge arrester selection guide has made it possible to determine the precise value of the surge arrester at the incoming end of the installation and that of the associated disconnection circuit breaker.
- As the sensitive devices ($U_{imp} < 1.5 \text{ kV}$) are located more than 30 m from the incoming protection device, the fine protection surge arresters must be installed as close as possible to the loads.
- To ensure better continuity of service for cold room areas:
- "si" type residual current circuit breakers will be used to avoid nuisance tripping caused by the rise in earth potential as the lightning wave passes through.
- For protection against atmospheric overvoltages:
- install a surge arrester in the main switchboard
- install a fine protection surge arrester in each switchboard (1 and 2) supplying the sensitive devices situated more than 30 m from the incoming surge arrester
- install a surge arrester on the telecommunications network to protect the devices supplied, for example fire alarms, modems, telephones, faxes.

Cabling recommendations

- Ensure the equipotentiality of the earth terminations of the building.
- Reduce the looped power supply cable areas.

Installation recommendations

- Install a surge arrester, $I_{max} = 40 \text{ kA}$ ($8/20 \mu\text{s}$) and a C60 disconnection circuit breaker rated at 20 A.
- Install fine protection surge arresters, $I_{max} = 8 \text{ kA}$ ($8/20 \mu\text{s}$) and the associated C60 disconnection circuit breakers rated at 20 A.

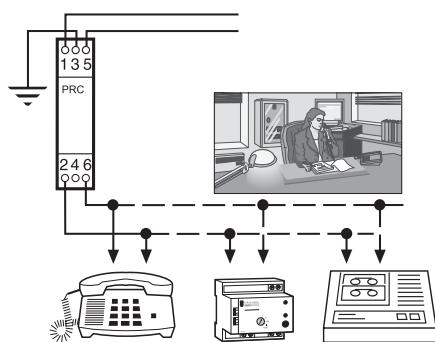


Fig. J44 : Telecommunications network

6 Technical supplements

6.1 Lightning protection standards

The IEC 62305 standard parts 1 to 4 (NF EN 62305 parts 1 to 4) reorganizes and updates the standard publications IEC 61024 (series), IEC 61312 (series) and IEC 61663 (series) on lightning protection systems.

■ Part 1 - General principles:

This part presents general information on lightning and its characteristics and general data, and introduces the other documents.

■ Part 2 - Risk management:

This part presents the analysis making it possible to calculate the risk for a structure and to determine the various protection scenarios in order to permit technical and economic optimization.

■ Part 3 - Physical damage to structures and life hazard:

This part describes protection from direct lightning strokes, including the lightning protection system, down-conductor, earth lead, equipotentiality and hence SPD with equipotential bonding (Type 1 SPD).

■ Part 4 - Electrical and electronic systems within structures:

This part describes protection from the induced effects of lightning, including the protection system by SPD (Types 2 and 3), cable shielding, rules for installation of SPD, etc.

This series of standards is supplemented by:

■ the IEC 61643 series of standards for the definition of surge protection products (see sub-section 2);

■ the IEC 60364-4 and -5 series of standards for application of the products in LV electrical installations (see sub-section 3).

6.2 The components of a SPD

J29

The SPD chiefly consists of (see Fig. J45):

- 1) one or more nonlinear components: the live part (varistor, gas discharge tube, etc.);
- 2) a thermal protective device (internal disconnector) which protects it from thermal runaway at end of life (SPD with varistor);
- 3) an indicator which indicates end of life of the SPD;
Some SPDs allow remote reporting of this indication;
- 4) an external SCPD which provides protection against short circuits (this device can be integrated into the SPD).

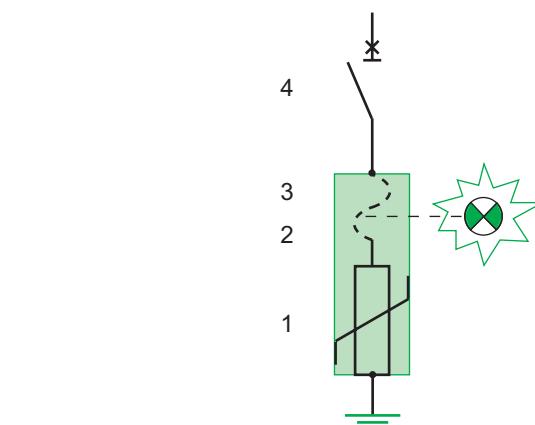


Fig. J45 : Diagram of a SPD

6.2.1 Technology of the live part

Several technologies are available to implement the live part. They each have advantages and disadvantages:

- Zener diodes;
- The gas discharge tube (controlled or not controlled);
- The varistor (zinc oxide varistor).

The table below shows the characteristics and the arrangements of 3 commonly used technologies.

Component	Gas Discharge Tube (GDT)	Encapsulated spark gap	Zinc oxide varistor	GDT and varistor in series	Encapsulated spark gap and varistor in parallel
Characteristics					
Operating mode	Voltage switching	Voltage switching	Voltage limiting	Voltage-switching and -limiting in series	Voltage-switching and -limiting in parallel
Operating curves					
Application	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Telecom network ■ LV network (associated with varistor) 	LV network	LV network	LV network	LV network
SPD Type	Type 2	Type 1	Type 1 ou Type 2	Type 1+ Type 2	Type 1+ Type 2

Fig. J46 : Summary performance table

Note: Two technologies can be installed in the same SPD (see **Fig. J47**)

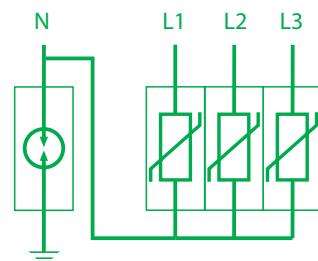


Fig. J47 : The Schneider Electric brand PRD SPD incorporates a gas discharge tube between neutral and earth and varistors between phase and neutral

6 Technical supplements

6.3 End-of-life indication

End-of-life indicators are associated with the internal disconnector and the external SCPD of the SPD to inform the user that the equipment is no longer protected against overvoltages of atmospheric origin.

Local indication

This function is generally required by the installation codes.

The end-of-life indication is given by an indicator (luminous or mechanical) to the internal disconnector and/or the external SCPD.

When the external SCPD is implemented by a fuse device, it is necessary to provide for a fuse with a striker and a base equipped with a tripping system to ensure this function.

Integrated disconnecting circuit breaker

The mechanical indicator and the position of the control handle allow natural end-of-life indication.



Fig. J48 : Quick PRD 3P +N SPD of the Schneider Electric brand

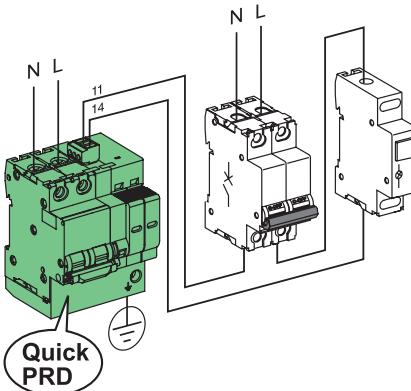


Fig. J49 : Installation of indicator light with a Quick PRD SPD

6.3.1 Local indication and remote reporting

Quick PRD SPD of the Schneider Electric brand is of the "ready to wire" type with an integrated disconnecting circuit breaker.

Local indication

Quick PRD SPD (see Fig. J48) is fitted with local mechanical status indicators:

- the (red) mechanical indicator and the position of the disconnecting circuit breaker handle indicate shutdown of the SPD;
- the (red) mechanical indicator on each cartridge indicates cartridge end of life.

Remote reporting (see Fig. J49)

Quick PRD SPD is fitted with an indication contact which allows remote reporting of:

- cartridge end of life;
- a missing cartridge, and when it has been put back in place;
- a fault on the network (short circuit, disconnection of neutral, phase/neutral reversal);
- local manual switching.

As a result, remote monitoring of the operating condition of the installed SPDs makes it possible to ensure that these protective devices in standby state are always ready to operate.

6.3.2 Maintenance at end of life

When the end-of-life indicator indicates shutdown, the SPD (or the cartridge in question) must be replaced.

In the case of the Quick PRD SPD, maintenance is facilitated:

- The cartridge at end of life (to be replaced) is easily identifiable by the Maintenance Department.
- The cartridge at end of life can be replaced in complete safety, because a safety device prohibits closing of the disconnecting circuit breaker if a cartridge is missing.

6.4 Detailed characteristics of the external SCPD

6.4.1 Current wave withstand

The current wave withstand tests on external SCPDs show as follows:

- For a given rating and technology (NH or cylindrical fuse), the current wave withstand capability is better with an aM type fuse (motor protection) than with a gG type fuse (general use).
- For a given rating, the current wave withstand capability is better with a circuit breaker than with a fuse device.

Figure J50 below shows the results of the voltage wave withstand tests:

- to protect a SPD defined for $I_{max} = 20$ kA, the external SCPD to be chosen is either a MCCB 16 A or a Fuse aM 63 A,
Note: in this case, a Fuse gG 63 A is not suitable.
- to protect a SPD defined for $I_{max} = 40$ kA, the external SCPD to be chosen is either a MCCB 63 A or a Fuse aM 125 A,

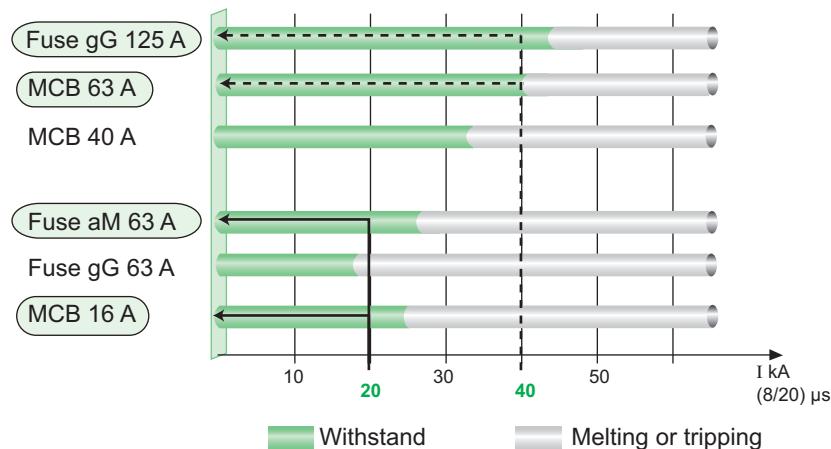


Fig. J50 : Comparison of SCPDs voltage wave withstand capabilities for $I_{max} = 20\text{ kA}$ and $I_{max} = 40\text{ kA}$

6.4.2 Installed Up voltage protection level

In general:

- The voltage drop across the terminals of a circuit breaker is higher than that across the terminals of a fuse device. This is because the impedance of the circuit-breaker components (thermal and magnetic tripping devices) is higher than that of a fuse. However:
- The difference between the voltage drops remains slight for current waves not exceeding 10 kA (95% of cases);
- The installed Up voltage protection level also takes into account the cabling impedance. This can be high in the case of a fuse technology (protection device remote from the SPD) and low in the case of a circuit-breaker technology (circuit breaker close to, and even integrated into the SPD).

Note: The installed Up voltage protection level is the sum of the voltage drops:

- in the SPD;
- in the external SCPD;
- in the equipment cabling.

6.4.3 Protection from impediment short circuits

An impediment short circuit dissipates a lot of energy and should be eliminated very quickly to prevent damage to the installation and to the SPD.

Figure J51 compares the response time and the energy limitation of a protection system by a 63 A am fuse and a 25 A circuit breaker.

These two protection systems have the same 8/20 μs current wave withstand capability (27 kA and 30 kA respectively).

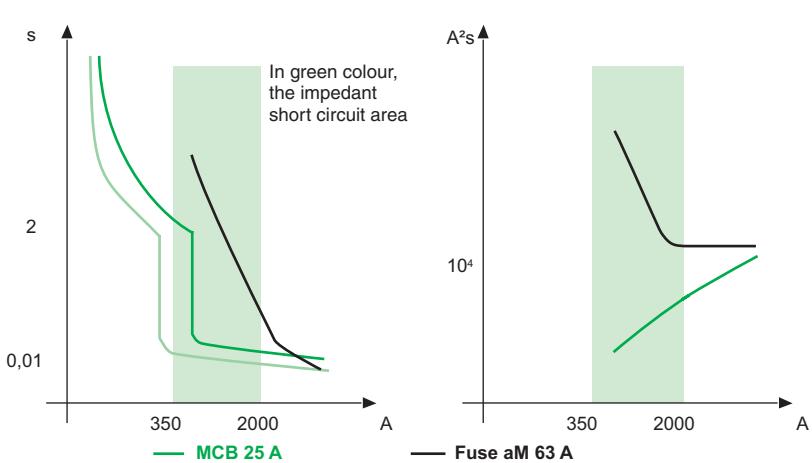


Fig. J51 : Comparison of time/current and energy limitations curves for a circuit breaker and a fuse having the same 8/20 μs current wave withstand capability

6.5 Propagation of a lightning wave

Electrical networks are low-frequency and, as a result, propagation of the voltage wave is instantaneous relative to the frequency of the phenomenon: at any point of a conductor, the instantaneous voltage is the same.

The lightning wave is a high-frequency phenomenon (several hundred kHz to a MHz):

- The lightning wave is propagated along a conductor at a certain speed relative to the frequency of the phenomenon. As a result, at any given time, the voltage does not have the same value at all points on the medium (see **Fig. J52**).

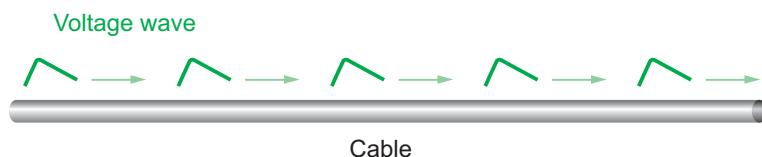


Fig. J52 : Propagation of a lightning wave in a conductor

- A change of medium creates a phenomenon of propagation and/or reflection of the wave depending on:
 - the difference of impedance between the two media;
 - the frequency of the progressive wave (steepness of the rise time in the case of a pulse);
 - the length of the medium.

In the case of total reflection in particular, the voltage value may double.

Example: case of protection by a SPD

Modelling of the phenomenon applied to a lightning wave and tests in laboratory showed that a load powered by 30 m of cable protected upstream by a SPD at voltage U_p sustains, due to reflection phenomena, a maximum voltage of $2 \times U_p$ (see **Fig. J53**). This voltage wave is not energetic.

J33

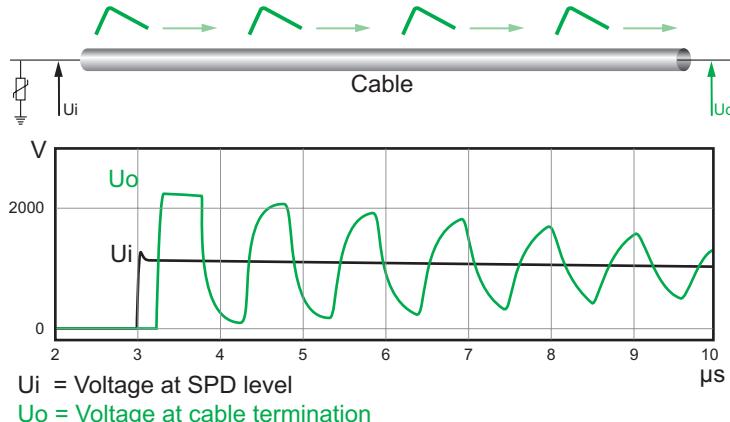


Fig. J53 : Reflection of a lightning wave at the termination of a cable

Corrective action

Of the three factors (difference of impedance, frequency, distance), the only one that can really be controlled is the length of cable between the SPD and the load to be protected. The greater this length, the greater the reflection.

Generally for the overvoltage fronts faced in a building, reflection phenomena are significant from 10 m and can double the voltage from 30 m (see **Fig. J54**).

It is necessary to install a second SPD in fine protection if the cable length exceeds 10 m between the incoming-end SPD and the equipment to be protected.

6 Technical supplements

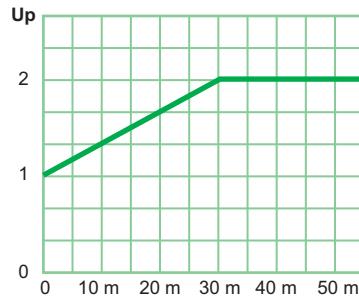


Fig. J54 : Reflection of a lightning wave at the termination of a cable

6.6 Example of lightning current in TT system

Common mode SPD between phase and PE or phase and PEN is installed whatever type of system earthing arrangement (see **Fig. J55**).

The neutral earthing resistor R1 used for the pylons has a lower resistance than the earthing resistor R2 used for the installation.

The lightning current will flow through circuit ABCD to earth via the easiest path. It will pass through varistors V1 and V2 in series, causing a differential voltage equal to twice the Up voltage of the SPD ($Up_1 + Up_2$) to appear at the terminals of A and C at the entrance to the installation in extreme cases.

J34

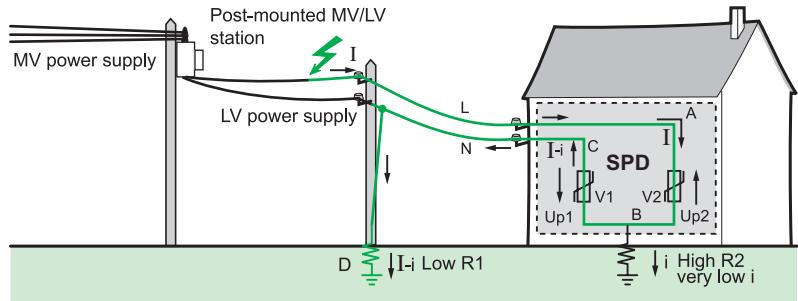


Fig. J55 : Common protection only

To protect the loads between Ph and N effectively, the differential mode voltage (between A and C) must be reduced.

Another SPD architecture is therefore used (see **Fig. J56**)

The lightning current flows through circuit ABH which has a lower impedance than circuit ABCD, as the impedance of the component used between B and H is null (gas filled spark gap). In this case, the differential voltage is equal to the residual voltage of the SPD (Up_2).

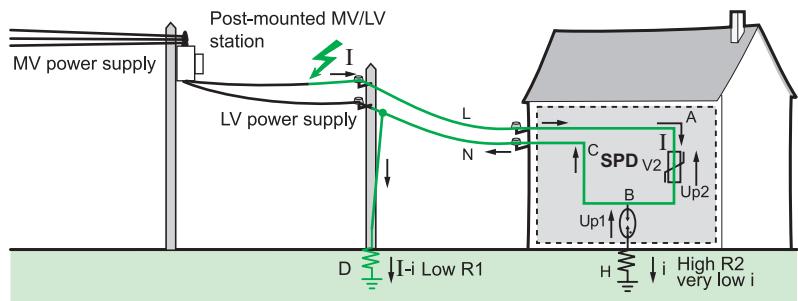


Fig. J56 : Common and differential protection

Chapter K

Energy efficiency in electrical distribution

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The aim of this chapter is to facilitate communication between the designers of electrical installations and the energy consumers who use them. Consumers frequently require advice on how best to reduce consumption and the amount they spend on energy.

While there are a number of factors influencing attitudes and opinions towards energy efficiency, particularly the increasing cost of energy and a growing awareness of our responsibilities towards the environment, legislation probably has the greatest impact on changing behaviour and practices. Various governments across the world are setting themselves energy saving targets and passing regulations to ensure these are met. Reducing greenhouse gas emissions is a global target set at the Kyoto Earth Summit in 1997 and was finally ratified by 169 countries in December 2006.

Under the Kyoto Protocol industrialised countries have agreed to reduce their collective emissions of greenhouse gases by 5.2% compared to the year 1990 between 2008 and 2012 (this represents a 29% reduction in terms of the emissions levels expected for 2012 prior to the Protocol). One of Europe's targets is a 20% reduction in for CO₂ by 2020. Given that 27% of CO₂ emissions originate from transport, 16% from residential buildings, 8% from the service sector and 49% from industry proper, up to 50% of emissions can be attributed to electricity consumption associated with residential and commercial buildings. Moreover, as the use of domestic appliances and other equipment such as ventilation and air conditioning systems increases, electricity consumption is rising at a faster rate than other forms of energy.

Against this background, the following conditions will have to be satisfied in order to achieve a 20% reduction in consumption by 2020:

- All new buildings constructed must consume 50% less energy.
- 1 in 10 existing buildings must reduce consumption by 30% each year.

As far as most countries are concerned, it is clear that 80% of the buildings which will be standing in 2020 have already been constructed. The refurbishment of existing building stock and improving energy management is vital in meeting emission reduction targets. Given that in the western world, most buildings have already undergone thermal performance upgrades such as cavity wall insulation, loft insulation and double-glazing, the only potential for further savings lies in reducing the amount of energy consumed. Action to improve the thermal and energy performance of existing buildings will almost certainly become compulsory in order to meet the targets that have been set out.

Technology exists to help promote energy efficiency on many levels, from reducing electricity consumption to managing other energy sources more efficiently. Ambitious regulatory measures may be required to ensure these technologies are adopted quickly enough to achieve the 2020 targets.

2 Energy efficiency and electricity

Energy saving regulations affect all buildings, both new and existing, as well as their electrical installations.

2.1 Une réglementation volontariste partout dans le monde

The Kyoto Protocol saw governments start to set out clear commitments in terms of quantitative targets and specific agendas for reducing CO₂ emissions.

In addition to their Kyoto obligations, many countries have set themselves fixed, long-term targets in line with the latest EEIG (European Economic Interest Group) recommendations to the UNFCCC (United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change) regarding energy saving and based on stabilising CO₂ levels.

The European Union is setting a good example with its firm commitment, signed by all the national EU leaders in March 2007, to a 20% reduction by 2020. Known as 3x20, this agreement aims to reduce CO₂ emissions by 20%, improve energy efficiency by 20% and increase the contribution made by renewable energies to 20%. Some European Countries are looking at a 50% reduction by 2050. Reaching these targets, however, will require significant changes, with governments stepping up their use of regulations, legislation and standardisation.

Across the world, legislation and regulations are serving to underline stakeholder obligations and put taxation and financial structures in place.

- In the USA
 - The Energy Policy Act of 2005,
 - Construction regulations,
 - Energy regulations (10CFR434),
 - Energy management programmes for various states (10CFR420),
 - Rules for energy conservation for consumer products (10CFR430).
- In China
 - Energy conservation law,
 - Architecture law (energy efficiency and construction),
 - Renewable energy law,
 - 1000 major energy conservation programmes for industry dans l'Union Européenne
- In the European Union
 - The EU Emission Trading Scheme
 - The Energy Performance of Building Directive
 - The Energy Using Product Directive
 - The Energy End-use Efficiency and Energy Services Directive.

K3

2.2 see (Guide de l'installation électrique)

2.3 How to achieve energy efficiency

Whilst it is currently possible to obtain energy savings of up to 30%, this potential reduction can only really be understood in terms of the differences which exist between active and passive forms of energy efficiency.

Active and passive energy efficiency

Passive energy efficiency is achieved by such measures as reducing heat loss and using equipment which requires little energy. Active energy efficiency is achieved by putting in place an infrastructure for measuring, monitoring and controlling energy use with a view to making lasting changes.

It is possible to build on the savings achieved here by performing analyses and introducing more suitable remedial measures. For example, although savings of between 5% and 15% may be obtained by improving how installations are used or by optimising the equipment itself (decommissioning redundant systems, adjusting motors and heating), more significant savings can also be achieved.

- Up to 40% on energy for motors by using control and automation mechanisms to manage motorised systems,
- Up to 30% on lighting by introducing an automated management mechanism based on optimal use.

It is important to remember, however, that savings may be lost through:

- Unplanned/unmanaged downtime affecting equipment and processes
- A lack of automation/adjustment mechanisms (motors, heating)
- A failure to ensure energy saving measures are adopted at all times.

A realistic approach would be to establish the identity of energy consumers and adopt passive followed by active saving measures, before finally implementing inspection and support devices to ensure that any savings made can be sustained over the long term. This involves a four-stage process:

- The first stage is concerned with diagnosis and primarily aims to get a better idea of where and how energy is being consumed. This requires the development of initial measures and a comparative assessment process with a view to evaluating performance, defining the main areas for improvement and estimating achievable energy saving levels. The logic behind this approach is based on the realisation that you can only improve what you can measure.
- The next stage involves establishing basic requirements in terms of passive energy efficiency. These include:
 - Replacing existing equipment/devices with low-consumption alternatives (bulbs, motors, etc.).
 - Improving thermal insulation and ensuring that energy quality supports work in a stable environment where savings can be sustained over time.
- The stage that follows this involves automation and active energy efficiency. Anything responsible for energy consumption must be subjected to a process of active management aimed at achieving permanent savings. Active energy efficiency does not require highly energy-efficient devices and equipment to be already installed, as the approach can be applied to all types of equipment. Good management is essential for maximum efficiency – there is no point in having low-consumption bulbs if you are going to waste energy by leaving them switched on in empty rooms!
- All things considered, energy management is the key to optimising use and eliminating waste.
- The final stage consists of implementing basic changes, introducing automation and putting in place an infrastructure based around monitoring, support and continuous improvement. This infrastructure and the ongoing processes associated with it will underpin the pursuit of energy efficiency over future years (see Fig. K1).

K4

1 Quantifying	2 Implementation of basic measures	3 Automatisation	4 Monitoring and improvement
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Kilowatt hour meters ■ Energy quality meters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Low-consumption devices ■ Thermal insulation materials ■ Energy quality ■ Energy reliability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Building management systems ■ Lighting control systems ■ Motor control systems ■ Variable speed drives ■ Home control systems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Power management software ■ Remote monitoring systems

Fig. K1 : Les 4 conditions de la pérennité des économies

The key to sustainable savings

As Figure K2 illustrates, energy savings amounting to 30% are readily achievable as things stand, although annual losses of 8% must be expected if there is neither proper support nor monitoring of key indicators. It is clear, therefore, that information is crucial to ensuring that energy savings are sustained over the long term.

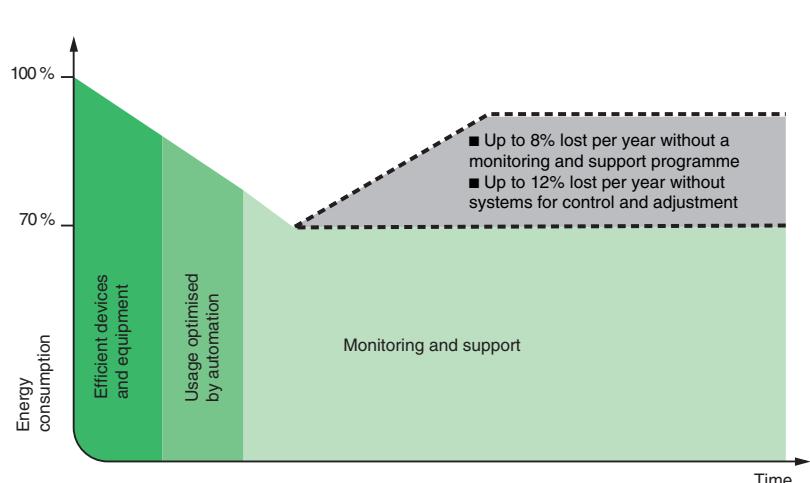


Fig. K2 : and monitoring technology ensures savings are sustained over the long term.

2 Energy efficiency and electricity

Consequently, energy monitoring and information systems are essential and must be put in place to deal with the challenges ahead.

Approaches to energy efficiency must have a proper structure if significant long-term savings are to be achieved, but only those companies with sufficient resources to actively intervene at any stage of a process will be in a position to pass the savings promised on to their customers. This is where Schneider Electric can help with its approach based on managing the life cycle of customer products (see **Fig. K3**).

Ultimately, the objectives set can only be achieved by sharing risks and developing a win-win relationship between those involved in the approach.

The reports provided by the energy monitoring or information systems can be used to formulate suitable energy efficiency projects in line with different strategies acceptable to all those involved.

- Start with a simple project involving relatively little expense and geared towards quick wins, before going on to make more significant investments (this is often the preferred business solution).
- Think in terms of how the investment for a project can and must be recouped when devising a project (this is a popular method for assessing and selecting projects). The advantage of this method is the simplicity of the analysis involved. Its disadvantage is the impossibility of tracking the full impact of a project over the long term.

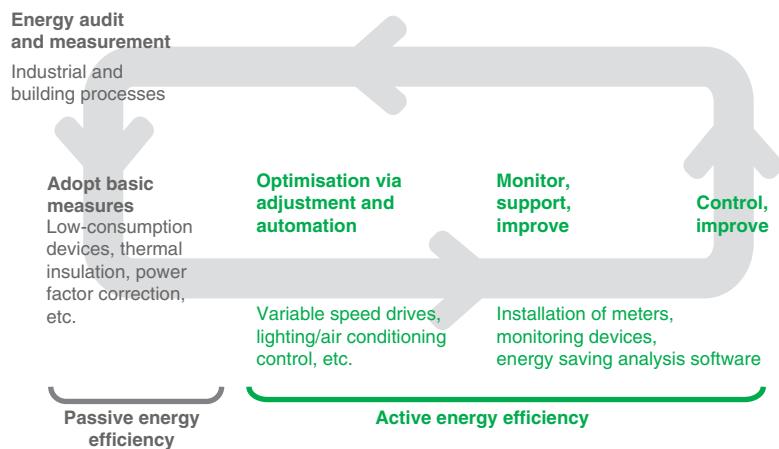


Fig. K3 : Energy efficiency solutions based on the life cycle

- Other, more complex strategies may be selected. These involve an analysis of various management parameters such as the current net value or the internal return-on-investment rate. Whilst the analysis required under these strategies demands more work, they provide a more precise indication of the overall impact of the project.

3 Diagnosis through electrical measurement

3.1 Electrical measurements

Voltage and current, two key values for understanding (almost) everything

As far as electrical measurements are concerned, voltage and current are the two values on which other values are based (power, energy, power factor, etc.). You should have a full range of measuring devices capable of providing the specific measurements required for the application. You can significantly increase the value of your information by obtaining other data from the same measurements:

- Operating positions for devices (start/stop, open/closed, etc.)
- Number of operating hours/switching operations
- Motor load
- Battery charge
- Equipment failures
- etc.

There is no such thing as a “one-size-fits-all” solution. It is a question of finding the best compromise, in technological and financial terms, for the particular needs of the given situation, whilst remembering that measurement accuracy involves costs which have to be compared against the anticipated returns on investment.

In addition, when the operator's electrical network is expected to undergo frequent changes given the activities in which it is involved, these changes should prompt a search for immediate and significant optimisation measures.

Approaches to energy efficiency also need to take other parameters into account (temperature, light, pressure, etc.), since, assuming energy is transformed without any losses, the energy consumed by a piece of equipment may exceed the useful energy it produces. One example of this is a motor, which converts the energy it consumes into heat as well as mechanical energy.

Collating relevant electrical data for specific objectives

As well as contributing towards energy efficiency, the information gleaned from electrical data is commonly used to support a number of other objectives:

- Increasing user understanding and providing opportunities for optimising equipment and procedures
- Optimising functionality and extending the service life of equipment associated with the electrical network
- Playing a pivotal role in increasing the productivity of associated processes (industrial or even administrative/management procedures) by avoiding/reducing periods of lost productivity and guaranteeing the availability of a high-quality energy supply



K6

c = Current measurement
S : with external sensor, D : direct measurement
v = Voltage measurement
S : avec capteur extérieur, D : mesure directe
Temperature class
Active energy accuracy class

PMD / cv / Ktt / p
Unit of measurement PM700 (Schneider Electric)
Code : PMD/SD/K55/1

Fig. K4 : Identifying measuring devices in accordance with IEC 61557-12

3.2 Adapted measuring instruments

Electronic equipment is increasingly replacing analogue equipment in electrical installations. It supports more accurate measurement of new values and is able to make these available to users at both local and remote locations.

All these various measuring devices (referred to as “PMD” for “Performance Measuring and Monitoring Device”) have to meet the requirements of international standard IEC 61557-12. According to this standard, devices have a code denoting their installation options, operating temperature range and accuracy class. As a result, it has become significantly easier to select and identify these devices (see **Fig. K4**).

A number of devices have been designed for inclusion in this category. These include Sepam overload and measuring relays, TeSys U motor controllers, NRC 12 capacitor battery controllers and Galaxy outage-free supply devices. The new Masterpact and Compact circuit breakers with integrated Micrologic measuring devices (see **Fig. K5**) also simplify matters by multiplying measurement points.

It is also now possible to broadcast measurements via digital networks. The table in **Figure K6** shows examples of measurements available via Modbus, RS485 or Ethernet.



Fig. K5 : Compact NSX circuit breaker equipped with a Micrologic trip unit and TeSys U controller (Schneider Electric)

3 Diagnosis through electrical measurement

	Units of measurement	MV measurement and overload relays	LV measurement and overload relays	Capacitor battery controllers	Monitoring and insulation devices
Examples	Circuit monitoring device, kilowatt hour meter	Sepam	Masterpact and Compact Micrologic circuit breakers	Varlogic	Vigilohm system

Control of energy consumption

Energy, inst., max., min.	■	■	■	■	-
Energy, reclosing capability	■	■	■	-	-
Power factor, inst.	■	■	■	-	-
Cos φ inst.	-	-	-	■	-

Improved energy availability

Current, inst., max., min., imbalance	■	■	■	■	-
Current, wave form capture	■	■	■	-	-
Voltage, inst., max., min., imbalance	■	■	■	■	-
Voltage, wave form capture	■	■	■	-	-
Device status	■	■	■	■	-
Fault history	■	■	■	-	-
Frequency, inst., max., min.	■	■	■	-	-
THDu, THDi	■	■	■	■	-

Improved electrical installation management

Load temperature, thermal state of load and device	■	■	-	■	-
Insulation resistance	-	-	-	-	■

K7

	Motor controllers	LV variable speed drives	LV soft starters	MV soft starters	Outage-free supply devices
Examples	TeSys U	ATV.1	ATS.8	Motorpact RVSS	Galaxy

Control of energy consumption

Energy, inst., max., min.	-	■	-	■	■
Energy, reclosing capability	-	■	■	■	-
Power factor, inst.	-	-	■	■	■

Improved energy availability

Current, inst., max., min., imbalance	■	■	■	■	■
Current, wave form capture	-	-	-	■	■
Device status	■	■	■	■	■
Fault history	■	■	■	■	-
THDu, THDi	-	■	-	-	-

Improved electrical installation management

Load temperature, thermal state of load and device	■	■	■	■	■
Motor running hours	-	■	■	■	-
Battery follow up	-	-	-	-	■

Fig. K6 : Examples of measurements available via Modbus, RS485 or Ethernet

4 Energy saving opportunities

A number of different measures can be adopted to save energy (see **Fig. K7**).

- Reduce energy use

These measures try to achieve the same results by consuming less (e.g. installing highly energy-efficient lights which provide the same quality of light but consume less energy) or reduce energy consumption by taking care to use no more energy than is strictly necessary (e.g. another method would be to have fewer lights in a room which is too brightly lit).

- Save energy

These measures reduce costs per unit rather than reducing the total amount of energy used. For example, day-time activities could be performed at night to in order to take advantage of cheaper rates. Similarly, work could be scheduled to avoid peak hours and demand response programmes.

- Energy reliability

As well as contributing to operational efficiency by avoiding lost production, these measures avoid the energy losses associated with frequent restarts and the extra work generated when batches of products go to waste.

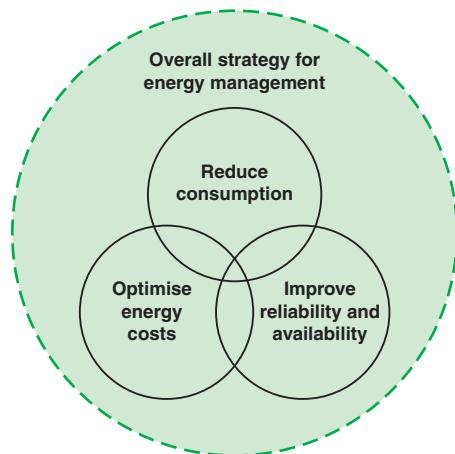


Fig. K7 : An overall strategy for energy management

K8

In industrial applications, motors account for 60% of the energy consumed

Everyone immediately thinks of equipment for transforming energy (motors, lighting/heating devices) when considering areas where savings can be made. Less obvious, perhaps, are the potential savings offered by the various control devices and programmes associated with this type of equipment.

4.1 Motors

Motorised systems are one of the potential areas where energy savings can be made.

Those wishing to improve passive energy efficiency often consider replacing motors as a starting point. There are two reasons for this:

- To benefit from the advantages offered by new high-performance motors (see. **Fig. K8**),

- To rectify oversizing

Motors operating for long periods are obvious candidates for replacement by high-performance motors, particularly if these existing motors are old and require rewinding.

Depending on the power they generate, high-performance motors can improve operational efficiency by up to 10% compared to standard motors. Where motors have undergone rewinding, efficiency is reduced by 3% to 4% compared to the original motor.

By contrast, replacement with high-performance motors will not prove to be cost effective if the existing standard-efficiency motor – particularly if it has not undergone rewinding – experiences low or moderate levels of use (e.g. less than 30,000 hours per year). It is also important to ensure that the new motor's critical performance characteristics (such as speed) are equivalent to those of the existing motor.

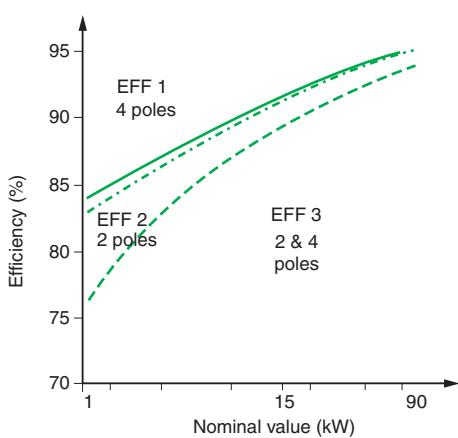


Fig. K8 : Definition of energy efficiency classes for LV motors established by the European Commission and the European Committee of Manufacturers of Electrical Machines and Power Electronics (CEMEP)

As well as being inefficient, oversized motors are more expensive to buy than correctly sized motors. Motors are at their most effective when operating at between 60% and 100% of their nominal load. Efficiency reduces rapidly at loads below 50%. In the past, designers tended to develop oversized motors in order to provide an adequate safety margin and eliminate the risk of failure, even in conditions which were highly unlikely to occur. Studies show that at least a third of motors are clearly oversized and operate at below 50% of their nominal load. The average load for a motor is around 60%.

Larger motors also tend to have lower power factors, which can lead to charges being levied for reactive power. When deciding whether to replace a motor, it is essential to take these factors, as well as the motor's remaining life cycle, into consideration. It is also important to remember that the expense of replacing an admittedly oversized motor may not be justified if its load is very small or it is only used infrequently.

All things considered, every parameter needs to be taken into account before making a decision on replacing a motor.

Other approaches are also possible, as far as motors are concerned:

- Improving active energy efficiency by simply stopping motors when they no longer need to be running. This method may require improvements to be made in terms of automation, training or monitoring, and operator incentives may have to be offered. If an operator is not accountable for energy consumption, he/she may well forget to stop a motor at times when it is not required.
- Monitoring and correcting all the components within the drive chains, starting with those on the larger motors capable of affecting overall efficiency. This may involve, for example, aligning shafts or couplings as required. An angular offset of 0.6 mm in a coupling can result in a power loss of as much as 8%.
- Paying special attention to pumps and fans, because:
 - 63% of the energy used by motors is for fluid propulsion in components such as pumps and fans.
 - Flow control often uses valves, dampers and throttles, all of which cause energy to be lost by blocking ducts whilst motors are operating at full speed.
 - Effective project planning can often recoup investments in less than ten months.

Savings can be made by sizing motors correctly and using speed control and/or a variable speed drive

4.2 Speed variation

A number of technologies can be used to vary flow or pressure within a system (see Fig. K9). The technology chosen will depend on how the pump and fan have been designed. For example, the pump used may be a displacement or centrifugal pump, and the fan used may be a centrifugal or axial-flow fan.

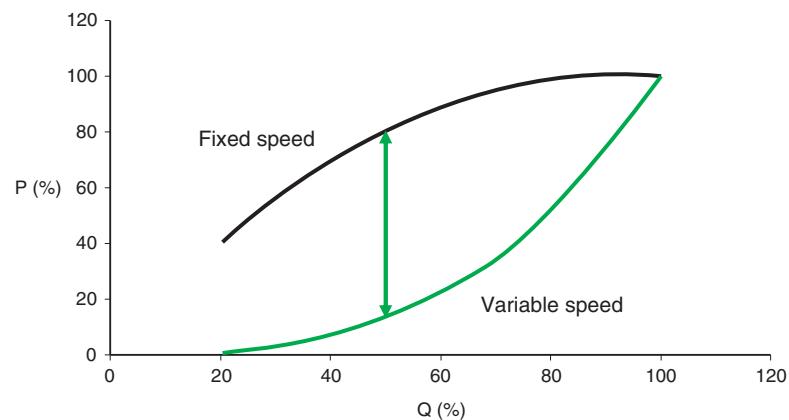


Fig. K9 : Theoretical energy savings based on reducing fan speed by half

Every time a fan or a pump is installed with a view to achieving specific flow or pressure levels, sizing is based on maximum demand. As a result, oversizing is the norm, and the device concerned will not operate efficiently at other speeds. In general, systematic oversizing, combined with the ineffective control methods described above, allows scope for significant energy savings to be made by using control methods aimed at reducing the pump or fan's supply current during periods of reduced demand.

Systems with fans and pumps are governed by certain correlations:

- Flow is proportional to shaft speed, e.g. reducing speed by half reduces flow by the same amount (see **Fig. K10**).

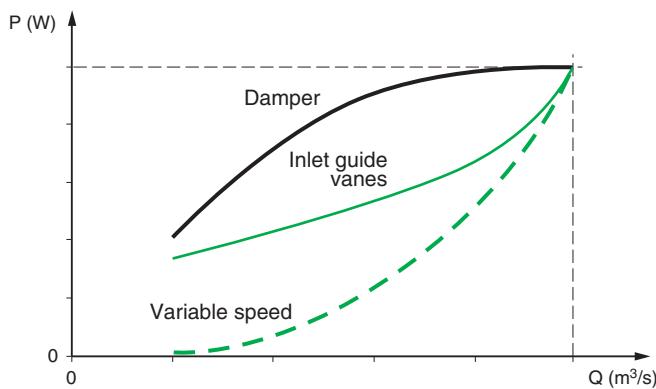


Fig. K10 : Relationship between energy and flow for different methods of fan control (damper, inlet vanes and variable speed)

K10

- Pressure or head is proportional to the square of the shaft speed; halving the shaft speed reduces pressure by a quarter.

- Energy is proportional to the cube of the shaft speed.

Halving the shaft speed reduces energy consumption by an eighth and, by implication, halving the flow reduces energy consumption by an eighth.

In light of this, energy consumption can be reduced in cases where the fan or the pump does not have to generate 100% of the flow or pressure. The savings involved are significant, even where the flow is only reduced by a small amount (see **Fig. K11**). Unfortunately, the efficiency losses incurred by the various components mean that these theoretical values cannot be achieved in practice.

Technology	Disadvantage
Control of stopping and starting	This method is only effective when intermittent flow is acceptable.
Control valve: a valve is used to control flow by increasing frictional resistance at the pump's outlet.	Energy is wasted, as the flow produced by the pump is subsequently reduced by the action of the valve. In addition, pumps have an optimal operating level and increasing resistance by this method may force the pump to operate at a less efficient level (with additional energy loss) where it may be less reliable.
Bypass device: with this method, the pump turns continuously at full speed and excess fluid at the pump's outlet is channelled upstream, causing flow to be reduced without the risk of outlet pressure increasing.	The system is very inefficient, as the energy used to pump excess fluid is completely wasted.
Multiple pumps or fans: these configurations support ad hoc increases by activating extra pumps or fans, making control difficult.	There is usually a loss in efficiency, as the actual need is often somewhere between the different speeds available.
Damper: a similar technology to the control valve in systems with a pump, this reduces flow by partly obstructing the fan's outlet.	Energy is wasted, as the flow generated by the fan is subsequently reduced by the action of the damper.
Overflow valve: a similar technology to the bypass valve in systems with a pump. The fan rotates at full speed continuously and the excess gas flow is evacuated.	The system is very inefficient, as the energy used to propel the air or gas is completely wasted.
Fan with adjustable blades: the flow can be changed by adjusting the blades.	Energy is wasted, as the flow generated by the fan is subsequently reduced by the action of the blades.
Inlet guide blades: fins are used to obstruct or facilitate gas flow inside a fan, thereby determining its efficiency.	The fan does not generate excess flow, but does not operate at maximum efficiency either.

Fig. K11 : Examples of technologies which may benefit from using a variable speed drive

4 Energy saving opportunities

Using a variable speed drive (see Fig. K12), as opposed to the technologies discussed earlier, constitutes an active energy efficiency method and provides the type of variable efficiency required for optimal pump or fan operation.



Fig. 16-12 An electron microscope image of a cell membrane.

Certain scenarios favour simple solutions:

- When changing the dimensions of the pulleys enables fans or pumps to turn at their optimal speed. This solution does not afford the flexibility associated with variable speed drives, but it involves little work and could well be covered by the maintenance budget without the need for any additional investment.
 - When the fan or pump can operate at full speed continuously without the control features referred to above being installed, or with these control features installed but unused (e.g. with dampers and valves fully opened). Under this arrangement, the device will operate at or near optimum efficiency.

In reality, the potential savings will depend on the model of the fan or pump used, its intrinsic efficiency, the size of the motor, annual operating hours and the cost of electricity locally. These savings can be calculated using special software or can be estimated with some accuracy by installing temporary meters and analysing the data obtained.

K11

Speed regulation: Correctly adjusting energy consumption in line with needs

4.3. Control

The previous section showed how pumps and fans can benefit from the use of variable speed drives. Still further advantages can be enjoyed by using these in conjunction with control devices tailored to meet individual requirements.

- Control based on fixed pressure and variable flow: this type of control is often used for water distribution systems (drinking water, irrigation). It is also used to circulate fluids in cooling applications.
 - Control for heating systems: in heating and cooling circuits, flow should vary with temperature.
 - Control based on fixed flow and variable pressure: mainly associated with pumping applications (pressure differences caused by different levels) such as cleaning, watering, cooling and freezing installations. These require a certain amount of water, even where suction and discharge conditions vary.

The immediate advantages are:

- Improved control and greater accuracy in terms of pressure and flow values
 - Significant reduction of transient effects within the electrical network and of mechanical restrictions affecting systems
 - Reduced noise and vibrations, as drives support fine speed adjustments, thereby preventing equipment from operating at the resonance frequency for ducts and pipes
 - Smooth starting and stopping

These in turn bring about further advantages:

- These in turn bring about further advantages:
 - Greater reliability and extended service lives for systems
 - Simpler tubing and pipe systems (by dispensing with dampers, control valves and bypass pipes)
 - Reduced maintenance

The ultimate goal is to reduce energy consumption and its associated costs.

4.4. Lighting

Lighting can account for over 35% of energy consumption in buildings, depending on the types of activities carried out in them. Lighting control is one of the easiest ways to make substantial energy savings for very little investment and is one of the most common energy saving measures.

Lighting systems for commercial buildings are governed by standards, regulations and building codes. Lighting not only needs to be functional, but must also meet occupational health and safety requirements and be fit for purpose.

In many cases office lighting is excessive and there is considerable scope for making passive energy savings. These can be achieved by replacing inefficient luminaires, by replacing obsolete lights with high-performance/low-consumption alternatives and by installing electronic ballasts. These kinds of approach are especially appropriate in areas where lighting is required constantly or for long periods and savings cannot be achieved by simply switching lights off. The time taken to recoup investments varies from case to case, but many projects require a period of around two years.

Lights and electronic ballasts

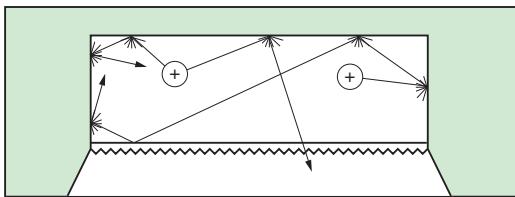
More efficient lights may be a possibility, depending on the needs, type and age of the lighting system. For example, new fluorescent lights are now available, although ballasts also need to be replaced when lights are changed.

New types of ballast are also available, offering significant energy savings compared to the earlier electromagnetic ballasts. For example, T8 lights with electronic ballasts use between 32% and 40% less electricity than T12 lights fitted with electromagnetic ballasts.

Having said this, electronic ballasts do have a number of disadvantages compared with magnetic ballasts. Their operating frequency (between 20,000 and 60,000 Hz) can introduce harmonic noise or distortion into the electrical network and presents the risk of overheating or reducing the service life of transformers, motors and neutral lines. There is even a danger of overvoltage trips being deactivated and electronic components sustaining damage. However, these problems are mainly restricted to facilities with heavy lighting loads and a large number of electronic ballasts. Most current types of electronic ballast feature passive filtering in order to keep harmonic distortion to less than 20 percent of fundamental current, or even 5% for more sensitive facilities (hospitals, sensitive manufacturing environments, and so on).

Other types of lighting may be more appropriate, depending on the conditions involved. An assessment of lighting needs will focus on evaluating the activities performed and the required levels of illumination and colour rendering. Many existing lighting systems were designed to provide more light than required. Designing a new system to closely fit lighting needs makes it easier to calculate and ultimately achieve savings.

Apart from the issue of savings, and without forgetting the importance of complying with the relevant standards and regulations, there are other advantages associated with retrofitting lighting systems. These include lower maintenance costs, the chance to make adjustments based on needs (office areas, "walk-through" areas etc.), greater visual comfort (by eradicating the frequency beat and flickering typically associated with migraine and eye strain) and improved colour rendering.



Above: Around 70% of a fluorescent tube's light is directed sideways and upwards.

Below: The new silver surfaces are designed to reflect the maximum amount of light downwards.

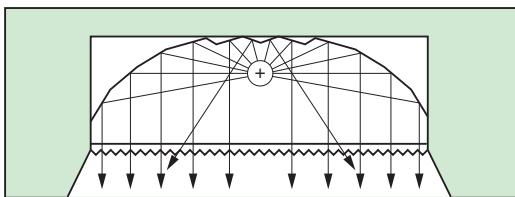


Fig. K13 : Illustration of the general operating principle for high-performance reflectors

Reflectors

A less common passive energy efficiency measure, but one which is worth considering in tandem with the use of lights fitted with ballasts, is to replace the reflectors diverting light to areas where it is needed. Advances in materials and design have resulted in better quality reflectors which can be fitted to existing lights. These reflectors intensify useful light, so that fewer lights may be required in some cases. Energy can be saved without having to compromise on lighting quality. New, high-performance reflectors offer a spectral efficiency of over 90% (see Fig. K13). This means:

- Two lights can be replaced by a single light, with potential savings of 50% or more in terms of the energy costs associated with lighting.
- Existing luminaires can be retrofitted by installing mirror-type reflectors without having to adjust the distance between them. This has the advantage of simplifying the retrofitting process and reducing the work involved, with minimal changes made to the existing ceiling design.

Lighting control

The passive energy saving measures described above leave further scope for making savings. The aim of lighting control programmes is to give users the required levels of convenience and flexibility, whilst supporting active energy savings and cost reduction by switching lights off as soon as they are no longer needed. There are a number of technologies available with various degrees of sophistication, although the time taken to recoup investments is generally short at six to twelve months. A multitude of different devices are currently available too (see Fig. K14).



Fig. K14 : A selection of lighting control devices: timers, light sensors, movement sensors

K13

- Timers to turn off lights after a certain period has passed. These are best used in areas where the typical time spent or period of activity is clearly defined (such as corridors).
- Occupancy/movement sensors to turn off lights when no movement has been detected for a certain period. These are particularly well suited to areas where the time spent or period of activity cannot be accurately predicted (storerooms, stairwells, etc.).
- Photoelectric cells/daylight harvesting sensors to control lights near windows. When sufficient daylight is available, lights are turned off or switched to night-light mode.
- Programmable clocks to switch lights on and off at predetermined times (shop fronts, office lights at nights and weekends)
- Dimmable lights to provide a low level of illumination (night light) at off-peak periods (e.g. a car park requiring full illumination until midnight, but where lower levels will suffice between midnight and dawn)
- Voltage regulators, ballasts or special electronic devices to optimise energy consumption for lights (fluorescent tubes, high-pressure sodium lights, etc.)
- Wireless remote control devices for simple and economical retrofitting of existing applications

These various technologies may be combined and can also be used to create a specific effect or atmosphere. For example, programmable lighting panels in meeting areas (for board meetings, presentations, conferences, etc.) have a number of different light settings which can be changed at the flick of a switch.

Centralised lighting management

Some of the lighting control systems currently available, such as those based on the KNX protocol, have the additional advantage of supporting integration into building management systems (see Fig. K15).

They offer greater flexibility of management and centralised monitoring, and provide more scope for energy savings by enabling lighting controls to be integrated into other systems (e.g. air conditioning). Certain systems enable energy savings of 30%, although efficiency levels will depend on the application involved and this must be chosen with some care.

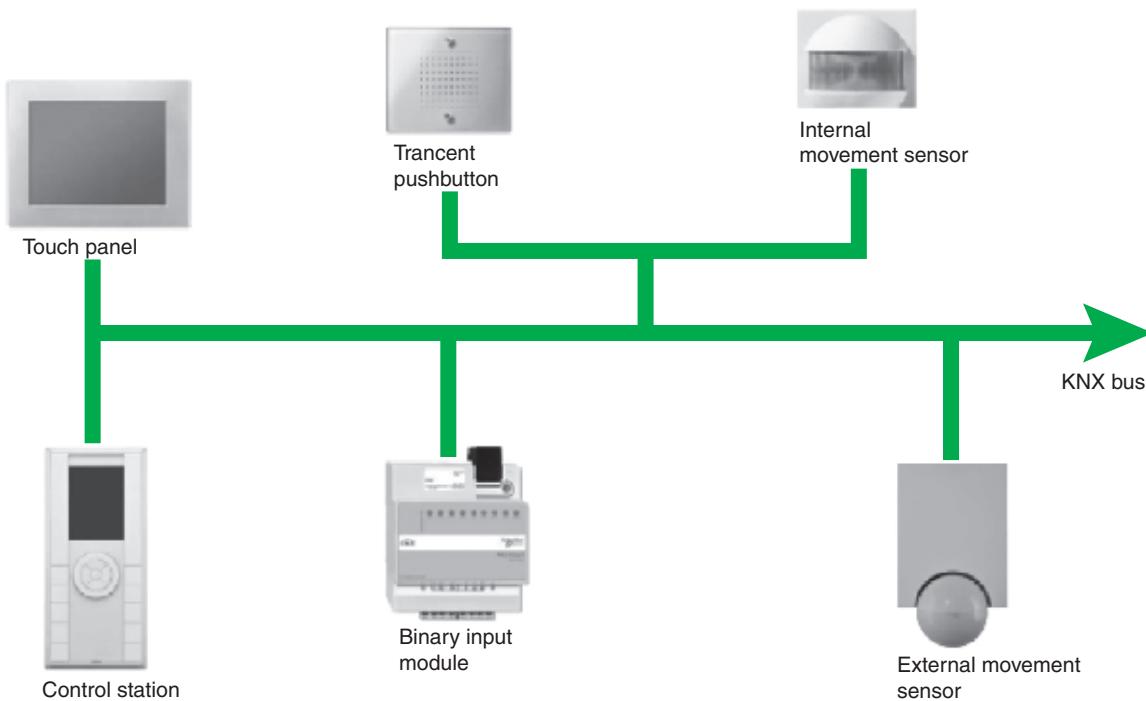


Fig. K15 : An example of links established using Schneider Electric's KNX system

If this type of system is to produce results, the design and implementation stage must begin with an audit of energy consumption and a study of the lighting system with a view to devising the best lighting solution and identifying potential reductions in terms of both costs and energy consumption. As far as this kind of technology is concerned, Schneider Electric also has solutions for offices as well as exterior lighting, car parking facilities, parks and landscaped gardens.

4.5 Power factor correction and harmonic filtering

- If the energy distribution company imposes penalties for reactive power consumption, improving power factor correction is a typically passive energy saving measure. It takes immediate effect after implementation and does not require any changes to procedures or staff behaviour. The investment involved can be recouped in less than a year.

See Chapter L for further details.

- Many types of equipment (variable speed drives, electronic ballasts, etc.) and computers generate harmonics within their line supply. The effects produced can sometimes be significant (transient overvoltages causing protection relays to trip, or heat and vibration potentially reducing the efficiency and service life of such equipment as capacitor banks used for power factor correction). Harmonic filtering is another typical passive energy saving measure to consider.

See Chapter M for further details.

4.6 Load management

As part of their drive towards synchronizing the consumption and production of electrical energy over the long term, energy distribution companies tailor their rates to encourage consumers to reduce their requirements during peak periods. A number of different strategies are possible, depending on consumption levels and operating requirements: restricting demand (see Fig. K16), avoiding peak periods, load scheduling or even generating additional energy on site.

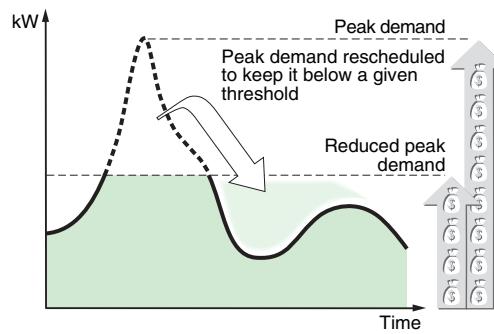


Fig. K16 : An example of a load-management strategy

■ Demand restriction

Energy distribution companies can use this solution in supply contracts containing optional or emergency (involving compulsory limits) restrictive clauses whose application is determined by the consumer (based on special rates). This management policy is typically used during the hottest or coldest months of the year when companies and private customers have very high requirements for ventilation, air conditioning and heating, and when electricity consumption exceeds normal demand considerably. Reducing consumption in this way can prove problematic in residential and service sector environments, as they may considerably inconvenience building occupants. Customers from industry may show more of an interest in this type of scheme and could benefit from contracts reducing unit costs by up to 30% if they have a high number of non-essential loads.

■ Peak demand avoidance

This method involves moving consumption peaks in line with the different rates available. The idea is to reduce bills, even if overall consumption remains the same

■ Load scheduling

This management strategy is an option for companies able to benefit from lower rates by scheduling consumption for all their processes where time of day is neither important nor critical.

■ Additional energy generation on site

The use of generating sets to supply energy improves operational flexibility by providing the energy needed to continue normal operations during periods of peak or restricted demand. An automated control system can be configured to manage this energy production in line with needs and the rates applicable at any given time. When energy supplied from outside becomes more expensive than energy generated internally, the control system automatically switches between the two.

4.7. Communication and information systems

Information systems

Whether it relates to measurements, operating statuses or rate bases, raw data can only be useful when converted into usable information and distributed on a need-to-know basis to all those involved in energy efficiency with a view to improving the expertise of all participants in the energy management process. Data must also be explained, as people can only develop the management and intervention skills integral to any effective energy saving policy if they fully understand the issues involved. Data distribution must produce actions, and these actions will have to continue if energy efficiency is to be sustained (see **Fig. K19**).

However, this cycle of operations requires an effective communication network to be in place.

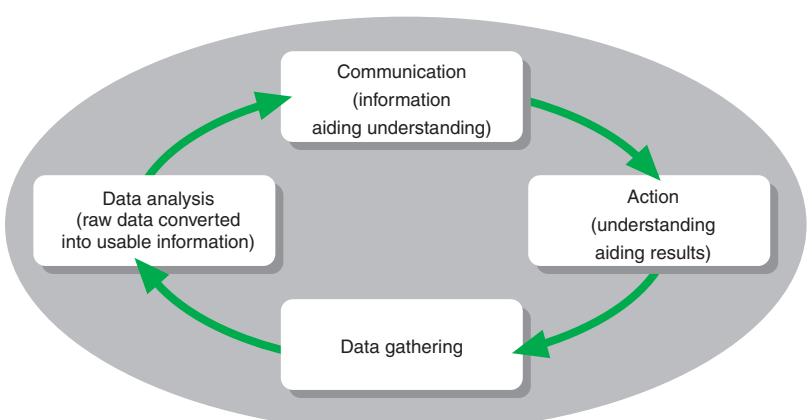


Fig. K17 : Operating cycle for data essential to energy efficiency

The information system can then be used on a daily basis by the operators at the various locations where electricity is consumed (for industrial processes, lighting, air conditioning, and so on) to achieve the energy efficiency objectives specified by company management. It can also ensure these same locations make a positive contribution to company operations (in terms of product volumes, conditions for supermarket shoppers, temperatures in cold rooms, etc.).

Monitoring systems

- For quick audits which can be performed on an ongoing basis.
Encouraging familiarity with data and distributing it can help keep everything up to date, but electrical networks develop rapidly and are permanently raising questions about their ability to cope with such new developments.
With this in mind, a system for monitoring the transfer and consumption of energy is able to provide all the information needed to carry out a full audit of the site. As well as electricity, this audit would cover water, air, gas and steam.
Measurements, comparative analyses and standardised energy consumption data can be used to determine the efficiency of processes and industrial installations.
- For rapid, informed decision making
Suitable action plans can be implemented. These include control and automation systems for lighting and buildings, variable speed drives, process automation, etc. Recording information on effective equipment use makes it possible to determine accurately the available capacity on the network or a transformer and to establish how and when maintenance work should be performed (ensuring measures are taken neither too soon nor too late).

Communication networks

Information and monitoring systems are synonymous with both intranet and Internet communication networks, with exchanges taking place within computer architectures designed on a user-specific basis.

4 Energy saving opportunities

■ Intranet

For the most part, data exchange in the industrial sector uses Web technologies permanently installed on the company's communications network, typically an intranet network for the sole use of the operator.

As far as industrial data exchange between systems connected via a physical transmission link, such as RS485 and modem (GSM, radio, etc.), is concerned, the Modbus protocol is very widely used with metering and protection devices for electrical networks. Initially created by Schneider Electric, this is now a standard protocol.

In practice, electrical data is recorded on industrial Web servers installed in enclosures. The popular TCP/IP standard protocol is used for transmitting this data in order to reduce the ongoing maintenance costs associated with any computer network. This same principle is used by Schneider Electric to communicate data associated with promoting energy efficiency. No additional software is needed – a PC with an Internet browser is all that is required. The fact that enclosures are autonomous removes the need for an additional computer system. As such, all energy efficiency data is recorded and can be communicated in the usual manner via intranet networks, GSM, fixed telephony, etc

■ Internet

Remote monitoring and control improve data availability and accessibility, whilst offering greater flexibility in terms of servicing. Figure K18 shows a diagram of this type of installation. Connection to a server and a standard Web browser makes it much easier to use data and export it to Microsoft Excel™ spreadsheets for the purpose of tracing power curves in real time.

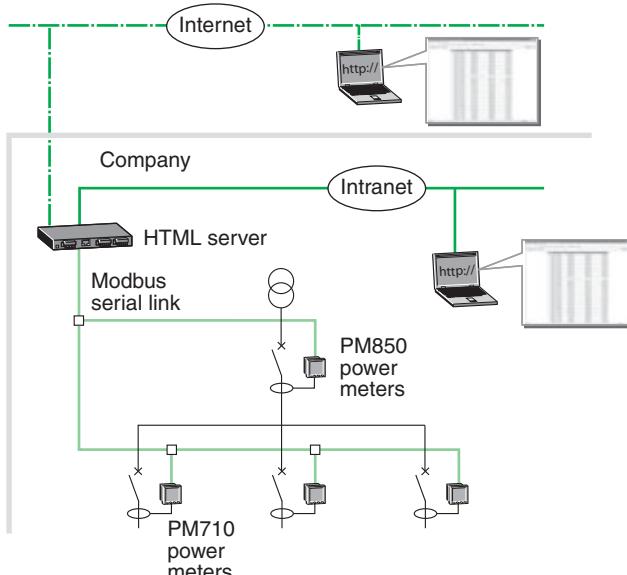


Fig. K18 : Example of an intranet information network protected by a server (EGX400 – Schneider Electric) and monitored from the Internet network

■ Architectures

Historically and for many years, monitoring and control systems were centralised and based on SCADA automation systems (Supervisory Control And Data Acquisition). These days, a distinction is made between three architecture levels (see Fig. 19 on the next page).

□ Level 1 architecture

Thanks to the new capabilities associated with Web technology, recent times have witnessed the development of a new concept for intelligent equipment. This equipment can be used at a basic level within the range of monitoring systems, offering access to information on electricity throughout the site. Internet access can also be arranged for all services outside the site.

□ Level 2 architecture

This system has been specifically designed for electricians and adapted to meet the demands of electrical networks.

This architecture is based on a centralised monitoring system designed to satisfy all the monitoring requirements for the electrical network. As might be expected, installation and maintenance work requires less expertise than for Level 3, since all the electrical distribution devices are already contained in a specialised library. In addition, acquisition costs can be kept to a minimum, as there are few requirements in terms of system integration.

Level 2 and Level 3 can be used side by side at certain sites.

□ Level 3 architecture

Investment in this type of system is usually restricted to top-of-the-range facilities consuming large amounts of energy or using equipment which is highly sensitive to variations in energy quality and has high demands in terms of electricity availability. To ensure these high demands for availability are met, the system often requires responsibility to be taken for installation components as soon as the first fault occurs. This should be done in a transparent manner (any impact should be clear). In view of the substantial front-end costs, the expertise required to implement the system correctly and the update costs generated as the network develops, potential investors may be deterred and they may require highly detailed prior analyses to be conducted.

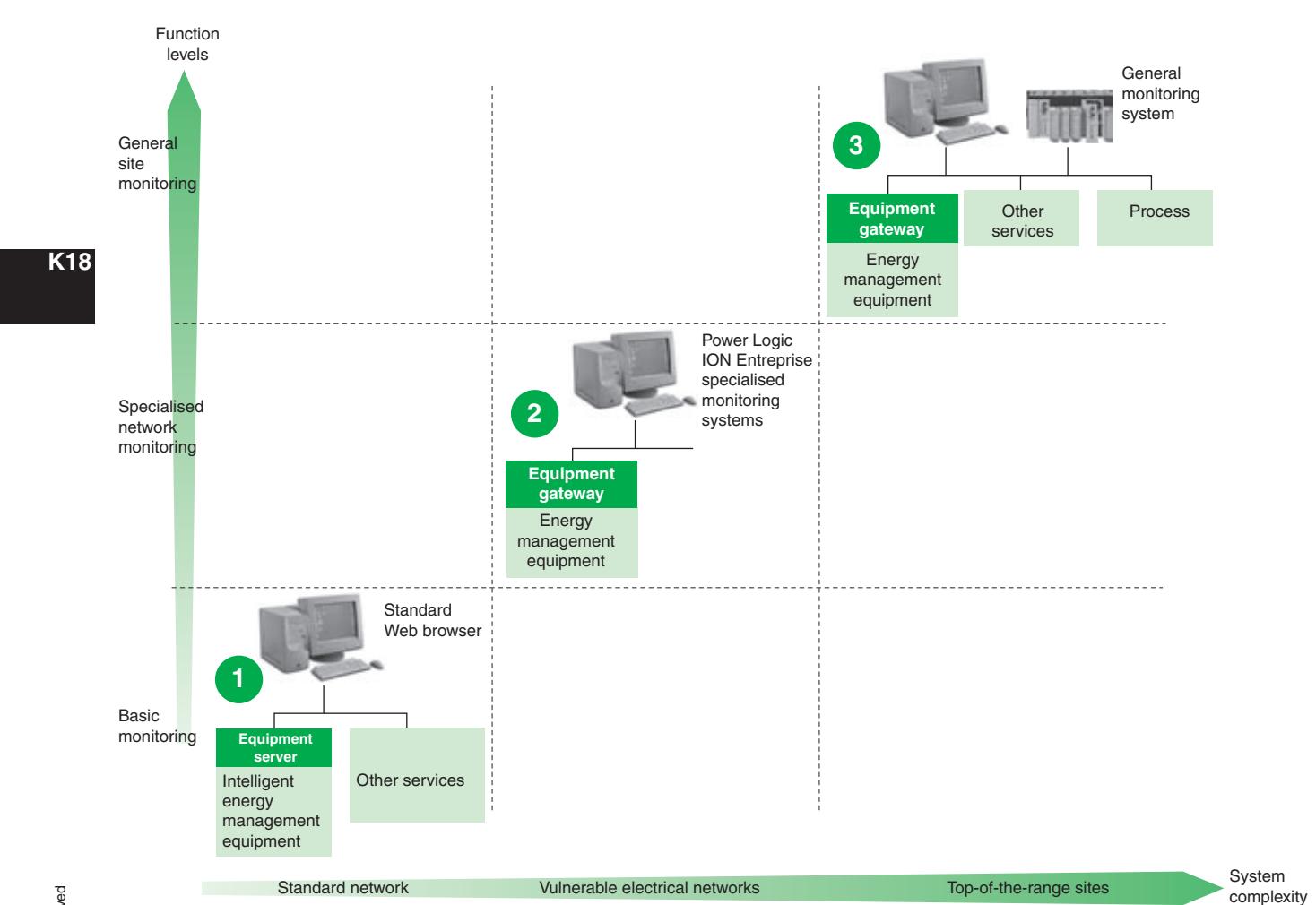


Fig. K19 : Layout of a monitoring system

4.8 Designing information and monitoring systems

In reality, systems for monitoring and energy control are physically very similar and overlap with the electrical distribution architecture whose layout they often replicate. The arrangements shown in **Figure K20** to **Figure K24** represent possible examples and reflect the requirements typically associated with the distribution involved (in terms of feeder numbers, the amount and quality of energy required, digital networks, management mode, etc.). They help to visualise and explain all the various services which can be used to promote energy efficiency.

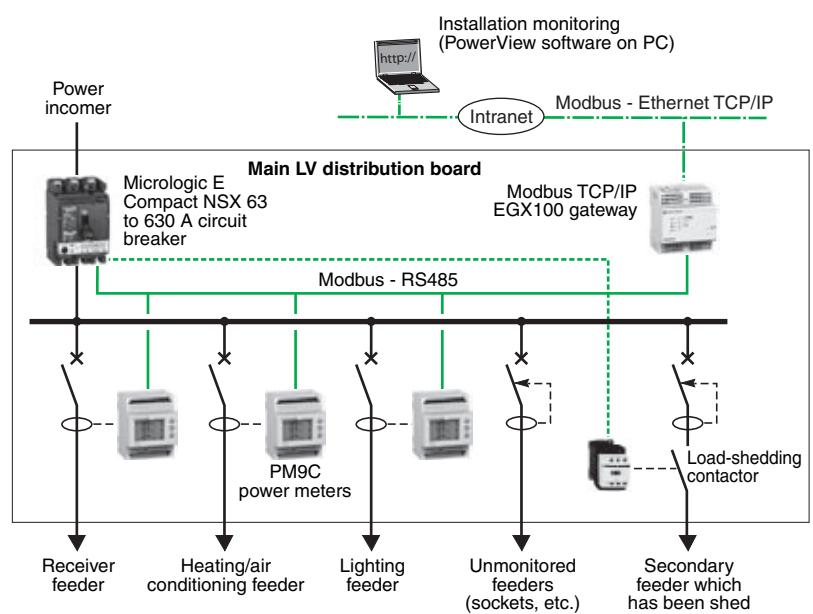


Fig. K20 : Monitoring architecture for a small site which only supports sub-metering

K19

K - Energy efficiency in electrical distribution

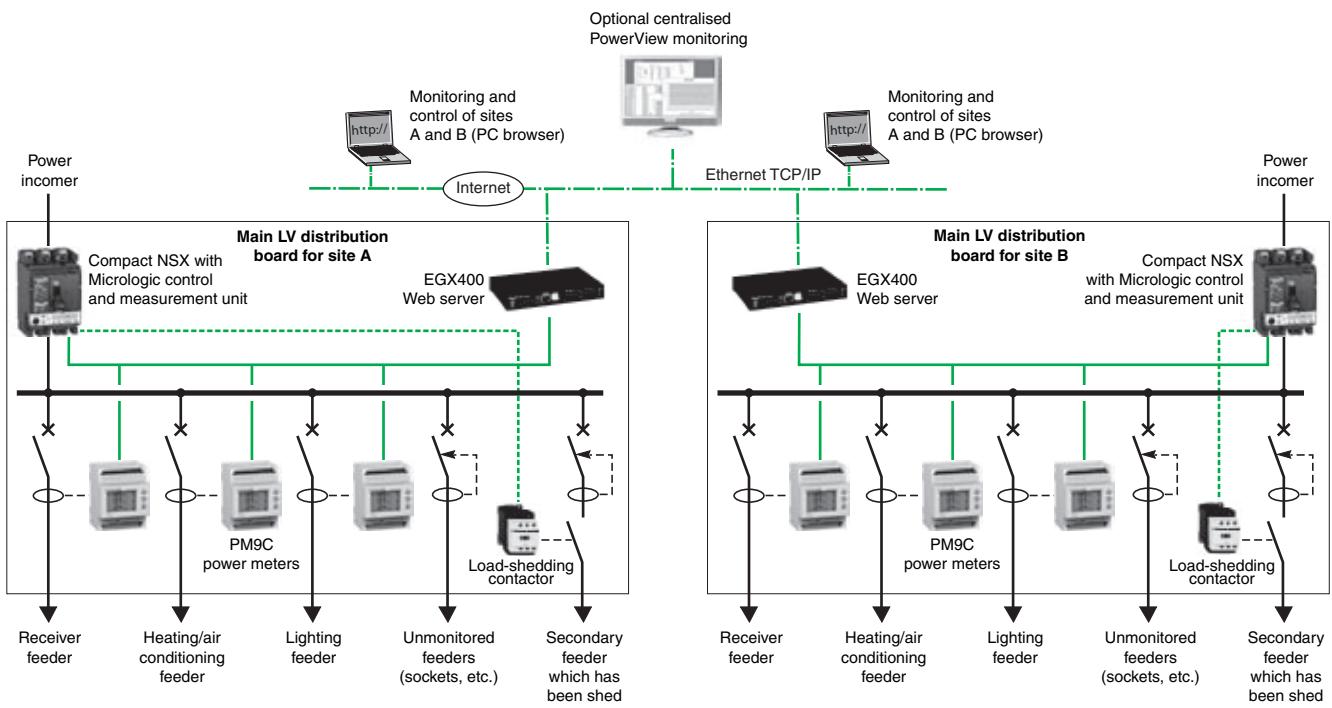


Fig. K21 : Monitoring and control architecture for a company with several small sites

K20

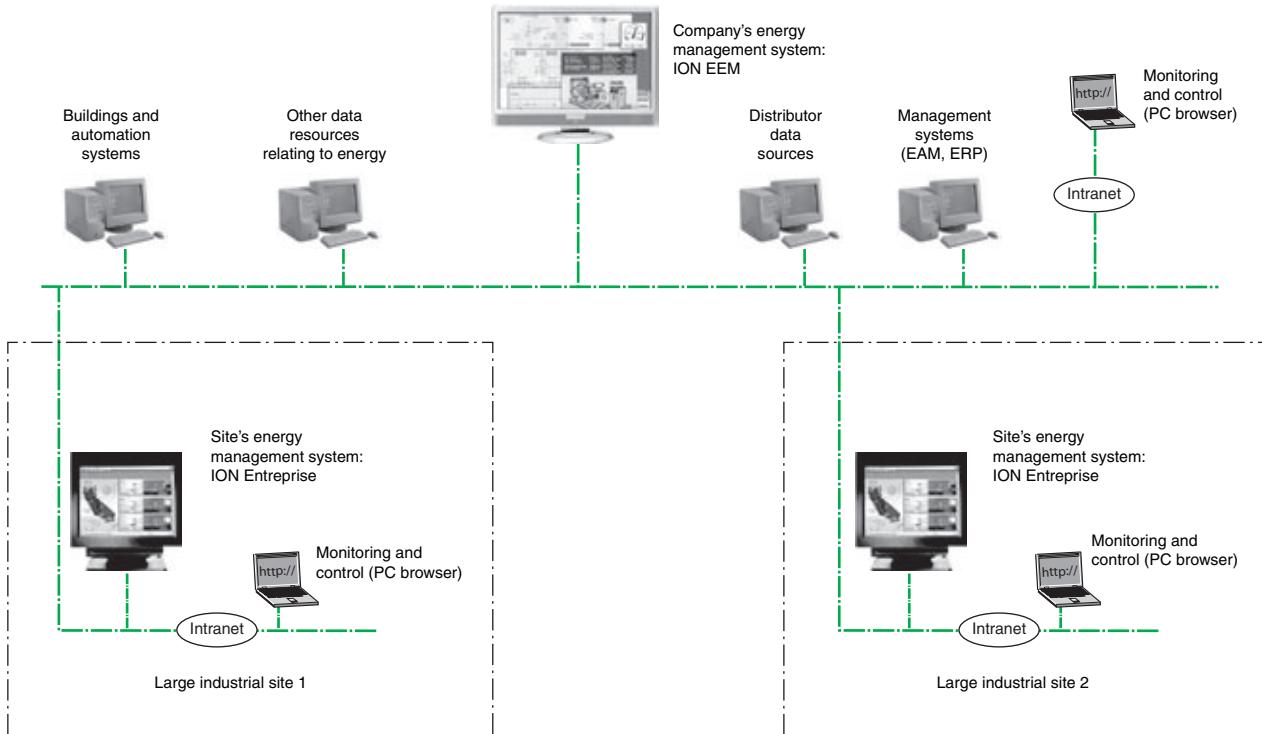


Fig. K22 : Architecture for large multiple-site arrangements

4 Energy saving opportunities

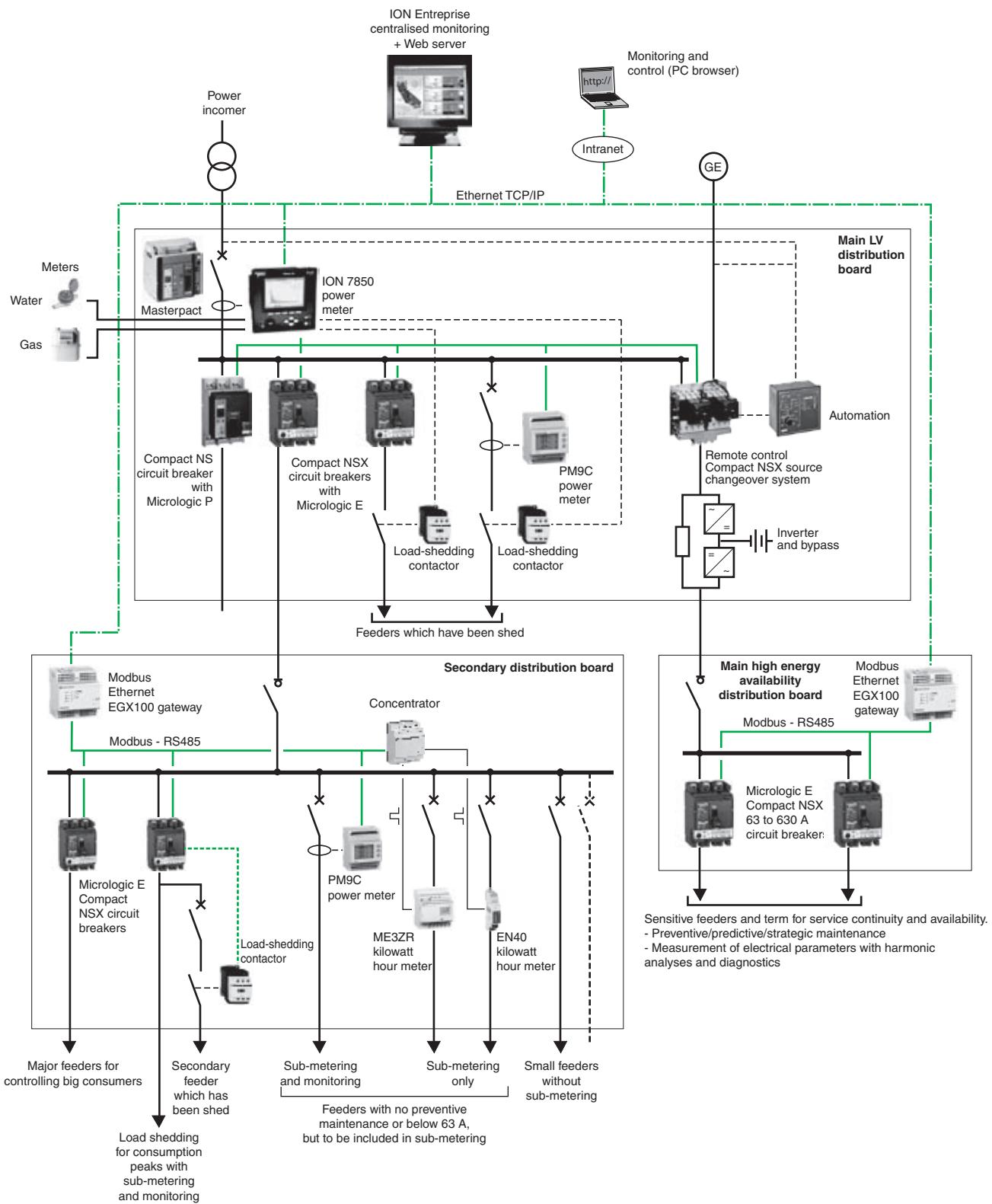


Fig. K23 : Monitoring and control architecture for a large, sensitive industrial site

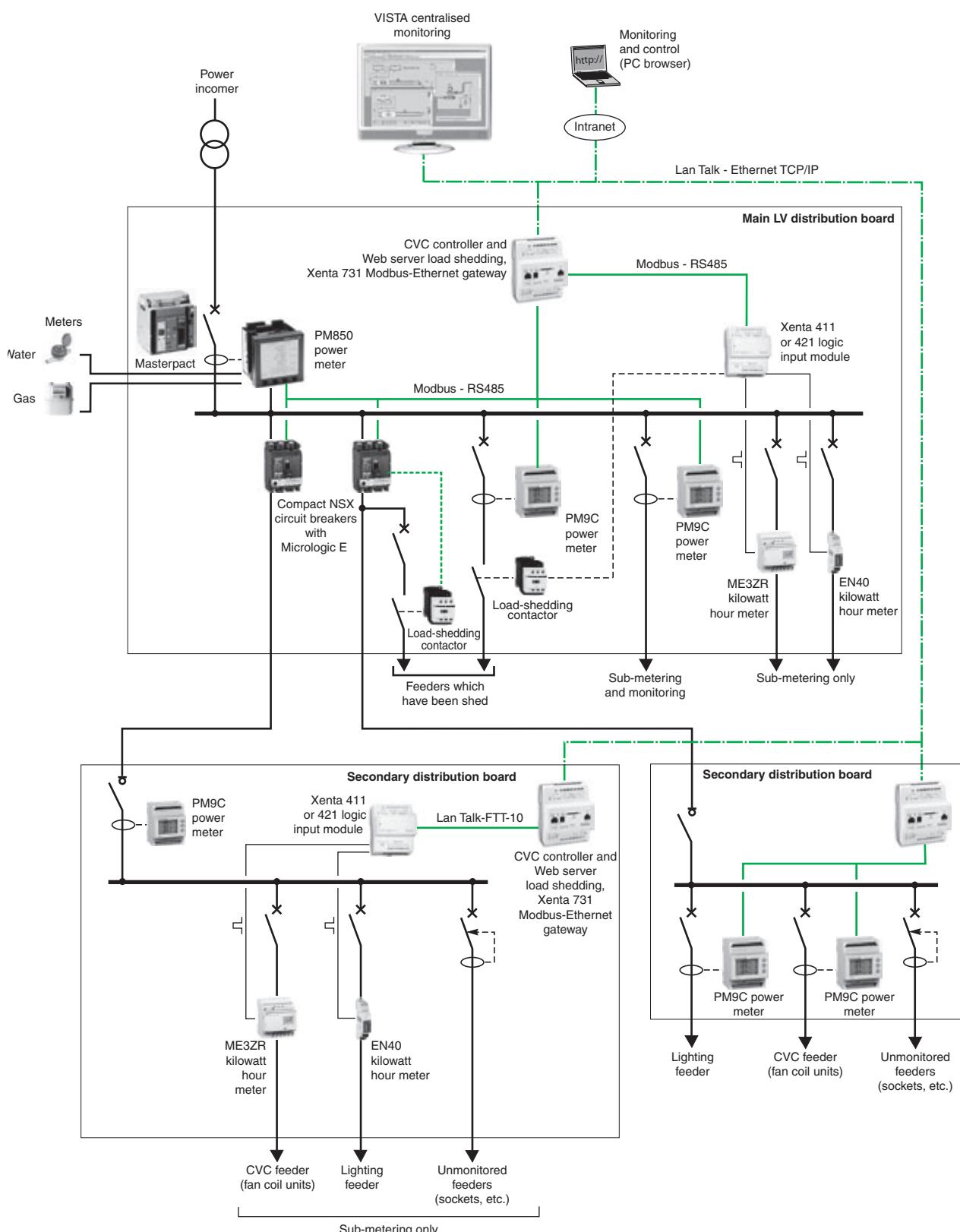


Fig. K24 : Architecture for a large service-industry site

4 Energy saving opportunities

In addition, these diagrams make it clear that the choice of components is determined by the choice of architecture (for example, the sensors must be right for the digital bus). The reverse also applies, however, since the initial choice of architecture may be affected by a technological/economic assessment of component installation and the results sought. In fact, the cost (in terms of purchase and installation) of these components, which sometimes have the same name but different characteristics, may vary widely and produce very variable results:

■ A measuring device can measure one or more parameters with or without using calculations (energy, power, $\cos \varphi$).

■ Replacing a standard circuit breaker with a circuit breaker containing an electronic control unit can provide a great deal of information on a digital bus (effective and instantaneous measurements of currents, phase-to-neutral and phase-to-phase voltages, imbalances of phase currents and phase-to-phase voltages, frequency, total or phase-specific active and reactive power, etc.).

When designing these systems, therefore, it is very important to define objectives for energy efficiency and be familiar with all the technological solutions, including their respective advantages, disadvantages and any restrictions affecting their application (see **Fig. K27**).

To cover all the various scenarios, it may be necessary to search through various hardware catalogues or simply consult a manufacturer offering a wide range of electrical distribution equipment and information systems. Certain manufacturers, including Schneider Electric, offer advisory and research services to assist those looking to select and implement all these various pieces of equipment.

	Energy savings	Cost optimisation	Availability and reliability
Variable speed drives	• • •	•	•
High-performance motors and transformers	• • •		
Supply for MV motors	• • •		
Power factor correction	•	• • •	
Harmonics management	•	• •	•
Circuit configuration			• • •
Auxiliary generators		• •	• • •
Outage-free supply devices (see page N11)			• • •
Smooth starting	•	•	• • •
iMCC		• •	• •
Architecture based on intelligent equipment Level 1	• •	•	
Specialised, centralised architecture for electricians Level 2	• • •	• •	•
General/conventional, centralised architecture Level 3	•	• •	• • •

Fig. K27 : Solutions chart

K23

The information provided in this chapter is taken from Volume 1 of the IPMVP guide published by EVO (see www.evo-world.org)

One of the main obstacles facing those interested in devising and implementing energy efficiency projects is the lack of reliable financial data to provide a convincing business case. The higher the investment, the greater the need for credible proof of the proposed advantages. As such, it is very important to have reliable methods for quantifying results when investing in energy efficiency.

5.1 IPMVP and EVO procedures

To cater for this need, EVO (Efficiency Evaluation Organization), the body responsible for evaluating performance, has published the IPMVP (International Performance Measurement and Verification Protocol). This guide describes the procedures used when measuring, calculating and documenting the savings achieved as a result of various energy efficiency projects. So far, EVO has published three volumes of the IPMVP, the first of which, "Concepts and Options for Determining Energy and Water Savings", outlines methods of varying cost and accuracy for establishing total savings made or those made solely in terms of energy efficiency. Schneider Electric uses this document when putting together energy efficiency projects.

IPMVP principles and features

Before implementing the energy efficiency solution, a study based on IPMVP principles should be carried out over a specific period in order to define the relationship which exists between energy use and operating conditions. During this period, reference values are defined by taking direct measurements or by simply studying the energy bills for the site.

After implementation, this reference data is used to estimate the amount of energy, referred to as "adjusted-baseline energy", which would have been consumed had the solution not been implemented. The energy saved is the difference between this "adjusted-baseline energy" and the energy which was actually measured.

If a verification and measurement plan is put together as part of an IPMVP programme, it needs to be:

■ **Accurate**

Verification and measurement reports should be as accurate as possible for the budget available. The costs involved in verification and measurement should normally be comparatively low in terms of the anticipated savings.

■ **Complete**

The study of energy savings should reflect the full impact of the project.

■ **Conservative**

Where doubts exist in terms of results, verification and measurement procedures should underestimate the savings being considered.

■ **Consistent**

The energy efficiency report should cover the following factors in a consistent manner:

□ The various types of energy efficiency project

□ The various types of experts involved in each project

□ The various periods involved in each project

□ The energy efficiency projects and the new energy supply projects

■ **Relevant**

Identifying savings must involve measuring performance parameters which are relevant or less well known, with estimates being made for less critical or more predictable parameters.

■ **Transparent**

All the measurements involved in the verification and measurement plan must be presented in a clear and detailed manner.

5 How to evaluate energy savings

IPMVP options

Four study levels or “options” have been defined in line with the objectives assigned to this energy efficiency approach:

- Retrofitting isolation systems with measurements of all key parameters = Option A
- Retrofitting isolation systems with measurements of all parameters = Option B
- Whole facility = Option C
- Calibrated simulation = Option D

Figure 28 sets out these options in a table. The algorithm in **Figure 29** shows the process of selecting options for a project.

	Option A	Option B	Option C	Option D
Financial objective	Retrofit isolation systems: key parameter measurement	Retrofit isolation systems: all parameter measurement	Whole facility	Calibrated simulation
Description	Savings are calculated using data from the main performance parameter(s) defining energy consumption for the system involved in the energy efficiency solution. Estimates are used for parameters not chosen for actual measurements.	Savings are calculated using actual energy consumption data for the system involved in the energy efficiency solution.	Savings are established using actual energy consumption data for the facility or a section of it. Data for energy use within the facility as a whole is gathered on an ongoing basis throughout the reporting period.	Savings are established by simulating energy consumption for the facility or a section of it. There must be evidence that the simulation procedures are providing an adequate model of the facility's actual energy performance.
Savings calculation	An engineering calculation is performed for the energy consumed during the baseline period and the reporting period based on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Ongoing or short-term measurements of the main performance parameter(s), ■ And estimated values. 	Ongoing or short-term measurements of the energy consumed during the baseline period and the reporting period	An analysis of data on the energy consumed during the baseline period and the reporting period for the whole facility. Routine adjustments are required, using techniques such as simple comparison or regression analysis.	Energy use simulation, calibrated with hourly or monthly utility billing data
When to use option	On the one hand, the results obtained using this option are rather equivocal given that some parameters are estimated. Having said this, it is a much less expensive method than Option B.	Option B is more expensive than Option A, as all parameters are measured. It is the better option, however, for customers who require a high level of accuracy.	For complex energy management programmes affecting many systems within a facility, Option C supports savings and helps to simplify the processes involved.	Option D is only used when there is no baseline data available. This may be the case where a site did not have a meter before the solution was implemented or where acquiring baseline data would involve too much time or expense.

Fig. K28 : Summary of IPMVP options

K25

K26

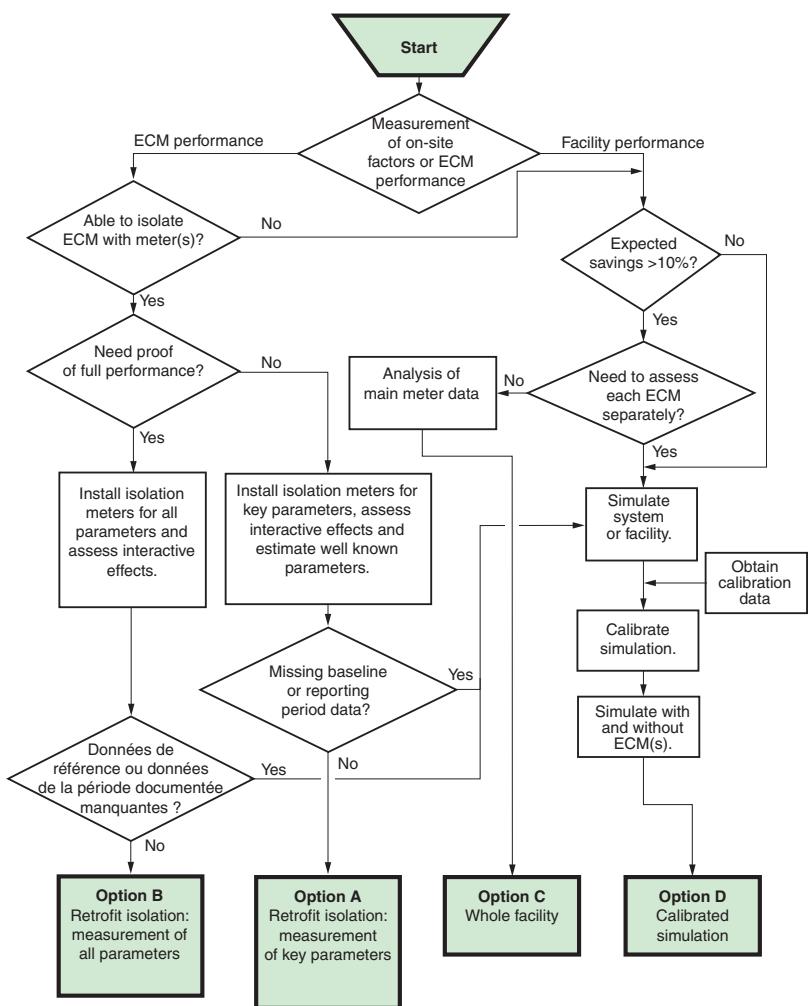


Fig. K29 : Process for selecting an IPMVP option for a project

5.2. Achieving sustainable performance

Once the energy audits have been completed, the energy saving measures have been implemented and the savings have been quantified, it is essential to follow the procedures below to ensure performance can be sustained over time. Performance tends to deteriorate if there is no continuous improvement cycle in place (see Fig. K30).

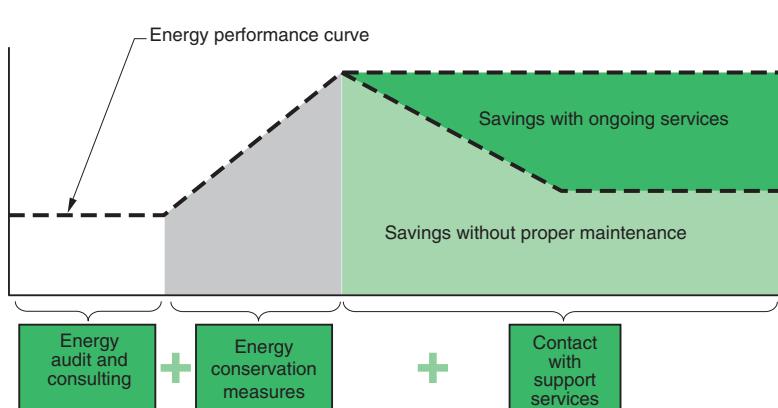


Fig. K30 : Ensuring performance is sustainable over time

5 How to evaluate energy savings

A continuous improvement cycle will only work if there is an energy monitoring system in place, and this system is used effectively and maintained. The system supports a continuous and proactive analysis of energy use at the site, and informs recommendations for improving the electrical distribution system.

Support services, either on site or at a remote location (accessible via telephone, e-mail, VPN (Virtual Private Network) or any other type of long-distance connection), are often required to ensure optimal performance for this type of system and the best use of the collected data. Thanks to their contribution in terms of experience and availability, these services also complement the operator's in-house services. The services available may include:

- Monitoring the performance of measuring devices
- Updating and adapting software
- Managing databases (e.g. archives)
- Continuously adapting the monitoring system in line with changing control requirements.

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Chapter L

Power factor correction and harmonic filtering

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1 Reactive energy and power factor

Alternating current systems supply two forms of energy:

- “Active” energy measured in kilowatt hours (kWh) which is converted into mechanical work, heat, light, etc
- “Reactive” energy, which again takes two forms:
 - “Reactive” energy required by inductive circuits (transformers, motors, etc.),
 - “Reactive” energy supplied by capacitive circuits (cable capacitance, power capacitors, etc)

1.1 The nature of reactive energy

All inductive (i.e. electromagnetic) machines and devices that operate on AC systems convert electrical energy from the power system generators into mechanical work and heat. This energy is measured by kWh meters, and is referred to as “active” or “wattful” energy. In order to perform this conversion, magnetic fields have to be established in the machines, and these fields are associated with another form of energy to be supplied from the power system, known as “reactive” or “wattless” energy.

The reason for this is that inductive circuit cyclically absorbs energy from the system (during the build-up of the magnetic fields) and re-injects that energy into the system (during the collapse of the magnetic fields) twice in every power-frequency cycle.

An exactly similar phenomenon occurs with shunt capacitive elements in a power system, such as cable capacitance or banks of power capacitors, etc. In this case, energy is stored electrostatically. The cyclic charging and discharging of capacitive circuit reacts on the generators of the system in the same manner as that described above for inductive circuit, but the current flow to and from capacitive circuit in exact phase opposition to that of the inductive circuit. This feature is the basis on which power factor correction schemes depend.

It should be noted that while this “wattless” current (more accurately, the “wattless” component of a load current) does not draw power from the system, it does cause power losses in transmission and distribution systems by heating the conductors.

In practical power systems, “wattless” components of load currents are invariably inductive, while the impedances of transmission and distribution systems are predominantly inductively reactive. The combination of inductive current passing through an inductive reactance produces the worst possible conditions of voltage drop (i.e. in direct phase opposition to the system voltage).

For these reasons (transmission power losses and voltage drop), the power-supply authorities reduce the amount of “wattless” (inductive) current as much as possible.

“Wattless” (capacitive) currents have the reverse effect on voltage levels and produce voltage-rises in power systems.

The power (kW) associated with “active” energy is usually represented by the letter P.

The reactive power (kvar) is represented by Q. Inductively-reactive power is conventionally positive (+ Q) while capacitively-reactive power is shown as a negative quantity (- Q).

The apparent power S (kVA) is a combination of P and Q (see Fig. L1).

Sub-clause 1.3 shows the relationship between P, Q, and S.

L2

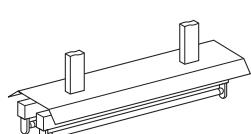
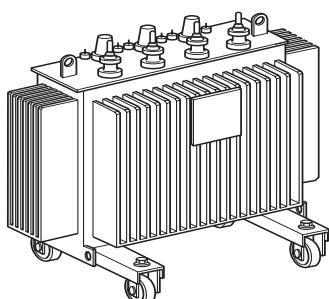


Fig. L2 : Power consuming items that also require reactive energy

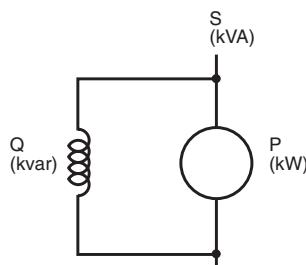


Fig. L1 : An electric motor requires active power P and reactive power Q from the power system

1.2 Equipment and appliances requiring reactive energy

All AC equipment and appliances that include electromagnetic devices, or depend on magnetically-coupled windings, require some degree of reactive current to create magnetic flux.

The most common items in this class are transformers and reactors, motors and discharge lamps (with magnetic ballasts) (see Fig. L2).

The proportion of reactive power (kvar) with respect to active power (kW) when an item of equipment is fully loaded varies according to the item concerned being:

- 65-75% for asynchronous motors
- 5-10% for transformers

1 Reactive energy and power factor

The power factor is the ratio of kW to kVA.
The closer the power factor approaches its maximum possible value of 1, the greater the benefit to consumer and supplier.

$PF = P \text{ (kW)} / S \text{ (kVA)}$

P = Active power
S = Apparent power

1.3 The power factor

Definition of power factor

The power factor of a load, which may be a single power-consuming item, or a number of items (for example an entire installation), is given by the ratio of P/S i.e. kW divided by kVA at any given moment.

The value of a power factor will range from 0 to 1.

If currents and voltages are perfectly sinusoidal signals, power factor equals $\cos \varphi$.

A power factor close to unity means that the reactive energy is small compared with the active energy, while a low value of power factor indicates the opposite condition.

Power vector diagram

- Active power P (in kW)
 - Single phase (1 phase and neutral): $P = V I \cos \varphi$
 - Single phase (phase to phase): $P = U I \cos \varphi$
 - Three phase (3 wires or 3 wires + neutral): $P = \sqrt{3} U I \cos \varphi$
 - Reactive power Q (in kvar)
 - Single phase (1 phase and neutral): $Q = V I \sin \varphi$
 - Single phase (phase to phase): $Q = U I \sin \varphi$
 - Three phase (3 wires or 3 wires + neutral): $Q = \sqrt{3} U I \sin \varphi$
 - Apparent power S (in kVA)
 - Single phase (1 phase and neutral): $S = V I$
 - Single phase (phase to phase): $S = U I$
 - Three phase (3 wires or 3 wires + neutral): $S = \sqrt{3} U I$
- where:
- V = Voltage between phase and neutral
- U = Voltage between phases
- I = Line current
- φ = Phase angle between vectors V and I.
- For balanced and near-balanced loads on 4-wire systems

Current and voltage vectors, and derivation of the power diagram

The power "vector" diagram is a useful artifice, derived directly from the true rotating vector diagram of currents and voltage, as follows:

The power-system voltages are taken as the reference quantities, and one phase only is considered on the assumption of balanced 3-phase loading.

The reference phase voltage (V) is co-incident with the horizontal axis, and the current (I) of that phase will, for practically all power-system loads, lag the voltage by an angle φ .

The component of I which is in phase with V is the "wattful" component of I and is equal to $I \cos \varphi$, while $VI \cos \varphi$ equals the active power (in kW) in the circuit, if V is expressed in kV.

The component of I which lags 90 degrees behind V is the wattless component of I and is equal to $I \sin \varphi$, while $VI \sin \varphi$ equals the reactive power (in kvar) in the circuit, if V is expressed in kV.

If the vector I is multiplied by V, expressed in kV, then VI equals the apparent power (in kVA) for the circuit.

The simple formula is obtained: $S^2 = P^2 + Q^2$

The above kW, kvar and kVA values per phase, when multiplied by 3, can therefore conveniently represent the relationships of kVA, kW, kvar and power factor for a total 3-phase load, as shown in **Figure L3**.

L3

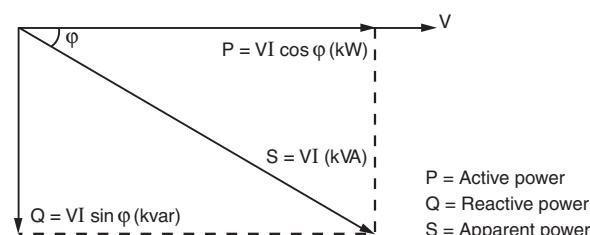


Fig. L3 : Power diagram

1 Reactive energy and power factor

An example of power calculations (see Fig. L4)

Type of circuit	Apparent power S (kVA)	Active power P (kW)	Reactive power Q (kvar)
Single-phase (phase and neutral)	$S = VI$	$P = VI \cos \varphi$	$Q = VI \sin \varphi$
Single-phase (phase to phase)	$S = UI$	$P = UI \cos \varphi$	$Q = UI \sin \varphi$
Example 5 kW of load $\cos \varphi = 0.5$	10 kVA	5 kW	8.7 kvar
Three phase 3-wires or 3-wires + neutral	$S = \sqrt{3} UI$	$P = \sqrt{3} UI \cos \varphi$	$Q = \sqrt{3} UI \sin \varphi$
Example Motor $P_n = 51$ kW $\cos \varphi = 0.86$ $\rho = 0.91$ (motor efficiency)	65 kVA	56 kW	33 kvar

Fig. L4 : Example in the calculation of active and reactive power

1.4 Practical values of power factor

The calculations for the three-phase example above are as follows:

P_n = delivered shaft power = 51 kW

P = active power consumed

$$P = \frac{P_n}{\rho} = \frac{51}{0.91} = 56 \text{ kW}$$

S = apparent power

$$S = \frac{P}{\cos \varphi} = \frac{56}{0.86} = 65 \text{ kVA}$$

So that, on referring to diagram **Figure L5** or using a pocket calculator, the value of $\tan \varphi$ corresponding to a $\cos \varphi$ of 0.86 is found to be 0.59

$$Q = P \tan \varphi = 56 \times 0.59 = 33 \text{ kvar}$$
 (see Figure L15).

Alternatively

$$Q = \sqrt{S^2 - P^2} = \sqrt{65^2 - 56^2} = 33 \text{ kvar}$$

Average power factor values for the most commonly-used equipment and appliances (see Fig. L6)

Equipment and appliances	$\cos \varphi$	$\tan \varphi$
Common induction motor loaded at 0%	0.17	5.80
25%	0.55	1.52
50%	0.73	0.94
75%	0.80	0.75
100%	0.85	0.62
Incandescent lamps	1.0	0
Fluorescent lamps (uncompensated)	0.5	1.73
Fluorescent lamps (compensated)	0.93	0.39
Discharge lamps	0.4 to 0.6	2.29 to 1.33
Ovens using resistance elements	1.0	0
Induction heating ovens (compensated)	0.85	0.62
Dielectric type heating ovens	0.85	0.62
Resistance-type soldering machines	0.8 to 0.9	0.75 to 0.48
Fixed 1-phase arc-welding set	0.5	1.73
Arc-welding motor-generating set	0.7 to 0.9	1.02 to 0.48
Arc-welding transformer-rectifier set	0.7 to 0.8	1.02 to 0.75
Arc furnace	0.8	0.75

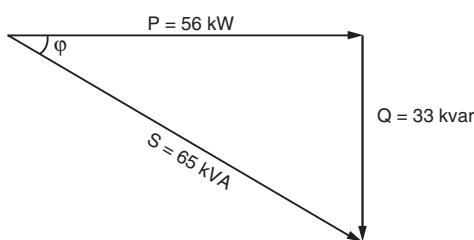


Fig. L5 : Calculation power diagram

Fig. L6 : Values of $\cos \varphi$ and $\tan \varphi$ for commonly-used equipment

2 Why to improve the power factor?

An improvement of the power factor of an installation presents several technical and economic advantages, notably in the reduction of electricity bills

2.1 Reduction in the cost of electricity

Good management in the consumption of reactive energy brings economic advantages.

These notes are based on an actual tariff structure commonly applied in Europe, designed to encourage consumers to minimize their consumption of reactive energy.

The installation of power-factor correction capacitors on installations permits the consumer to reduce his electricity bill by maintaining the level of reactive-power consumption below a value contractually agreed with the power supply authority. In this particular tariff, reactive energy is billed according to the $\tan \varphi$ criterion. As previously noted:

$$\tan \varphi = \frac{Q \text{ (kvarh)}}{P \text{ (kWh)}}$$

The power supply authority delivers reactive energy for free:

■ If the reactive energy represents less than 40% of the active energy ($\tan \varphi < 0.4$) for a maximum period of 16 hours each day (from 06-00 h to 22-00 h) during the most-heavily loaded period (often in winter)

■ Without limitation during light-load periods in winter, and in spring and summer. During the periods of limitation, reactive energy consumption exceeding 40% of the active energy (i.e. $\tan \varphi > 0.4$) is billed monthly at the current rates. Thus, the quantity of reactive energy billed in these periods will be:

kvarh (to be billed) = kWh ($\tan \varphi - 0.4$) where:

□ kWh is the active energy consumed during the periods of limitation

□ kWh $\tan \varphi$ is the total reactive energy during a period of limitation

□ 0.4 kWh is the amount of reactive energy delivered free during a period of limitation

$\tan \varphi = 0.4$ corresponds to a power factor of 0.93 so that, if steps are taken to ensure that during the limitation periods the power factor never falls below 0.93, the consumer will have nothing to pay for the reactive power consumed.

Against the financial advantages of reduced billing, the consumer must balance the cost of purchasing, installing and maintaining the power factor improvement capacitors and controlling switchgear, automatic control equipment (where stepped levels of compensation are required) together with the additional kWh consumed by the dielectric losses of the capacitors, etc. It may be found that it is more economic to provide partial compensation only, and that paying for some of the reactive energy consumed is less expensive than providing 100% compensation.

The question of power-factor correction is a matter of optimization, except in very simple cases.

L5

Power factor improvement allows the use of smaller transformers, switchgear and cables, etc. as well as reducing power losses and voltage drop in an installation

2.2 Technical/economic optimization

A high power factor allows the optimization of the components of an installation. Overating of certain equipment can be avoided, but to achieve the best results, the correction should be effected as close to the individual inductive items as possible.

Reduction of cable size

Figure L7 shows the required increase in the size of cables as the power factor is reduced from unity to 0.4, for the same active power transmitted.

Multiplying factor for the cross-sectional area of the cable core(s)	1	1.25	1.67	2.5
$\cos \varphi$	1	0.8	0.6	0.4

Fig. L7 : Multiplying factor for cable size as a function of $\cos \varphi$

2 Why to improve the power factor?

Reduction of losses (P, kW) in cables

Losses in cables are proportional to the current squared, and are measured by the kWh meter of the installation. Reduction of the total current in a conductor by 10% for example, will reduce the losses by almost 20%.

Reduction of voltage drop

Power factor correction capacitors reduce or even cancel completely the (inductive) reactive current in upstream conductors, thereby reducing or eliminating voltage drops.

Note: Over compensation will produce a voltage rise at the capacitor level.

Increase in available power

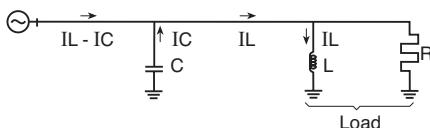
By improving the power factor of a load supplied from a transformer, the current through the transformer will be reduced, thereby allowing more load to be added. In practice, it may be less expensive to improve the power factor⁽¹⁾, than to replace the transformer by a larger unit.

This matter is further elaborated in clause 6.

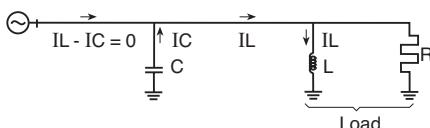
(1) Since other benefits are obtained from a high value of power factor, as previously noted.

Improving the power factor of an installation requires a bank of capacitors which acts as a source of reactive energy. This arrangement is said to provide reactive energy compensation

a) Reactive current components only flow pattern



b) When $IC = IL$, all reactive power is supplied from the capacitor bank



c) With load current added to case (b)

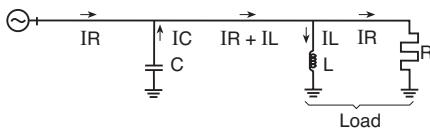


Fig. L8 : Showing the essential features of power-factor correction

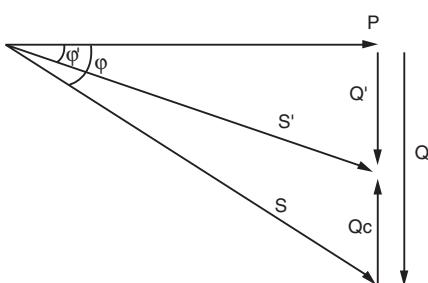


Fig. L9 : Diagram showing the principle of compensation:
 $Qc = P(\tan \phi - \tan \phi')$

3.1 Theoretical principles

An inductive load having a low power factor requires the generators and transmission/distribution systems to pass reactive current (lagging the system voltage by 90 degrees) with associated power losses and exaggerated voltage drops, as noted in sub-clause 1.1. If a bank of shunt capacitors is added to the load, its (capacitive) reactive current will take the same path through the power system as that of the load reactive current. Since, as pointed out in sub-clause 1.1, this capacitive current I_c (which leads the system voltage by 90 degrees) is in direct phase opposition to the load reactive current (I_L), the two components flowing through the same path will cancel each other, such that if the capacitor bank is sufficiently large and $I_c = I_L$ there will be no reactive current flow in the system upstream of the capacitors.

This is indicated in **Figure L8 (a)** and **(b)** which show the flow of the reactive components of current only.

In this figure:

R represents the active-power elements of the load

L represents the (inductive) reactive-power elements of the load

C represents the (capacitive) reactive-power elements of the power-factor correction equipment (i.e. capacitors).

It will be seen from diagram **(b)** of **Figure L9**, that the capacitor bank C appears to be supplying all the reactive current of the load. For this reason, capacitors are sometimes referred to as "generators of lagging vars".

In diagram **(c)** of **Figure L9**, the active-power current component has been added, and shows that the (fully-compensated) load appears to the power system as having a power factor of 1.

In general, it is not economical to fully compensate an installation.

Figure L9 uses the power diagram discussed in sub-clause 1.3 (see Fig. L3) to illustrate the principle of compensation by reducing a large reactive power Q to a smaller value Q' by means of a bank of capacitors having a reactive power Q_c .

In doing so, the magnitude of the apparent power S is seen to reduce to S' .

Example:

A motor consumes 100 kW at a power factor of 0.75 (i.e. $\tan \phi = 0.88$). To improve the power factor to 0.93 (i.e. $\tan \phi = 0.4$), the reactive power of the capacitor bank must be : $Q_c = 100 (0.88 - 0.4) = 48 \text{ kvar}$

The selected level of compensation and the calculation of rating for the capacitor bank depend on the particular installation. The factors requiring attention are explained in a general way in clause 5, and in clauses 6 and 7 for transformers and motors.

Note: Before starting a compensation project, a number of precautions should be observed. In particular, oversizing of motors should be avoided, as well as the no-load running of motors. In this latter condition, the reactive energy consumed by a motor results in a very low power factor (≈ 0.17); this is because the kW taken by the motor (when it is unloaded) are very small.

3.2 By using what equipment?

Compensation at LV

At low voltage, compensation is provided by:

- Fixed-value capacitor
- Equipment providing automatic regulation, or banks which allow continuous adjustment according to requirements, as loading of the installation changes

Note: When the installed reactive power of compensation exceeds 800 kvar, and the load is continuous and stable, it is often found to be economically advantageous to install capacitor banks at the medium voltage level.

Compensation can be carried out by a fixed value of capacitance in favourable circumstances

Fixed capacitors (see Fig. L10)

This arrangement employs one or more capacitor(s) to form a constant level of compensation. Control may be:

- Manual: by circuit-breaker or load-break switch
- Semi-automatic: by contactor
- Direct connection to an appliance and switched with it

These capacitors are applied:

- At the terminals of inductive devices (motors and transformers)
- At busbars supplying numerous small motors and inductive appliance for which individual compensation would be too costly
- In cases where the level of load is reasonably constant



Fig. L10 : Example of fixed-value compensation capacitors

Compensation is more-commonly effected by means of an automatically-controlled stepped bank of capacitors

Automatic capacitor banks (see Fig. L11)

This kind of equipment provides automatic control of compensation, maintaining the power factor within close limits around a selected level. Such equipment is applied at points in an installation where the active-power and/or reactive-power variations are relatively large, for example:

- At the busbars of a general power distribution board
- At the terminals of a heavily-loaded feeder cable



Fig. L11 : Example of automatic-compensation-regulating equipment

3 How to improve the power factor?

Automatically-regulated banks of capacitors allow an immediate adaptation of compensation to match the level of load

The principles of, and reasons, for using automatic compensation

A bank of capacitors is divided into a number of sections, each of which is controlled by a contactor. Closure of a contactor switches its section into parallel operation with other sections already in service. The size of the bank can therefore be increased or decreased in steps, by the closure and opening of the controlling contactors.

A control relay monitors the power factor of the controlled circuit(s) and is arranged to close and open appropriate contactors to maintain a reasonably constant system power factor (within the tolerance imposed by the size of each step of compensation). The current transformer for the monitoring relay must evidently be placed on one phase of the incoming cable which supplies the circuit(s) being controlled, as shown in **Figure L12**.

A Varset Fast capacitor bank is an automatic power factor correction equipment including static contactors (thyristors) instead of usual contactors. Static correction is particularly suitable for a certain number of installations using equipment with fast cycle and/or sensitive to transient surges.

The advantages of static contactors are :

- Immediate response to all power factor fluctuation (response time 2 s or 40 ms according to regulator option)
- Unlimited number of operations
- Elimination of transient phenomena on the network on capacitor switching
- Fully silent operation

By closely matching compensation to that required by the load, the possibility of producing overvoltages at times of low load will be avoided, thereby preventing an overvoltage condition, and possible damage to appliances and equipment.

Overvoltages due to excessive reactive compensation depend partly on the value of source impedance.

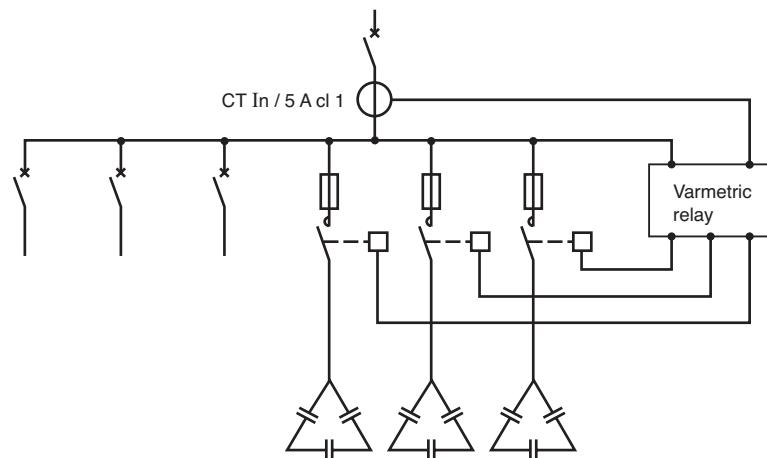


Fig. L12 : The principle of automatic-compensation control

3.3 The choice between a fixed or automatically-regulated bank of capacitors

Commonly-applied rules

Where the kvar rating of the capacitors is less than, or equal to 15% of the supply transformer rating, a fixed value of compensation is appropriate. Above the 15% level, it is advisable to install an automatically-controlled bank of capacitors.

The location of low-voltage capacitors in an installation constitutes the mode of compensation, which may be global (one location for the entire installation), partial (section-by-section), local (at each individual device), or some combination of the latter two. In principle, the ideal compensation is applied at a point of consumption and at the level required at any instant.

In practice, technical and economic factors govern the choice.

4 Where to install correction capacitors?

Where a load is continuous and stable, global compensation can be applied

4.1 Global compensation (see Fig. L13)

Principle

The capacitor bank is connected to the busbars of the main LV distribution board for the installation, and remains in service during the period of normal load.

Advantages

The global type of compensation:

- Reduces the tariff penalties for excessive consumption of kvars
- Reduces the apparent power kVA demand, on which standing charges are usually based
- Relieves the supply transformer, which is then able to accept more load if necessary

Comments

- Reactive current still flows in all conductors of cables leaving (i.e. downstream of) the main LV distribution board
- For the above reason, the sizing of these cables, and power losses in them, are not improved by the global mode of compensation.

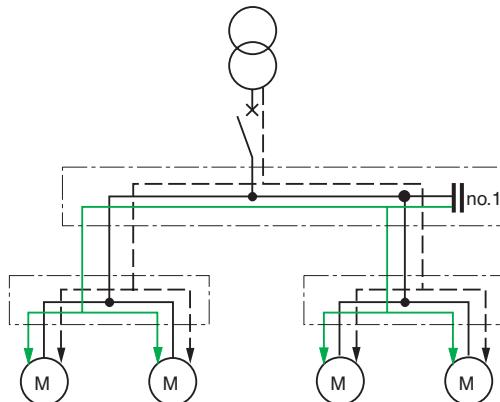


Fig. L13 : Global compensation

Compensation by sector is recommended when the installation is extensive, and where the load/time patterns differ from one part of the installation to another

4.2 Compensation by sector (see Fig. L14)

Principle

Capacitor banks are connected to busbars of each local distribution board, as shown in Figure L14.

A significant part of the installation benefits from this arrangement, notably the feeder cables from the main distribution board to each of the local distribution boards at which the compensation measures are applied.

Advantages

The compensation by sector:

- Reduces the tariff penalties for excessive consumption of kvars
- Reduces the apparent power kVA demand, on which standing charges are usually based
- Relieves the supply transformer, which is then able to accept more load if necessary
- The size of the cables supplying the local distribution boards may be reduced, or will have additional capacity for possible load increases
- Losses in the same cables will be reduced

Comments

- Reactive current still flows in all cables downstream of the local distribution boards
- For the above reason, the sizing of these cables, and the power losses in them, are not improved by compensation by sector
- Where large changes in loads occur, there is always a risk of overcompensation and consequent overvoltage problems

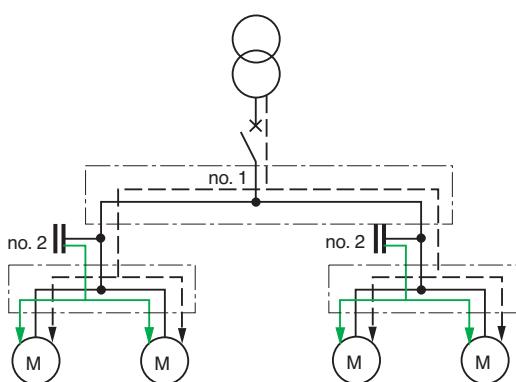


Fig. L14 : Compensation by sector

4 Where to install correction capacitors?

Individual compensation should be considered when the power of motor is significant with respect to power of the installation

4.3 Individual compensation

Principle

Capacitors are connected directly to the terminals of inductive circuit (notably motors, see further in Clause 7). Individual compensation should be considered when the power of the motor is significant with respect to the declared power requirement (kVA) of the installation.

The kvar rating of the capacitor bank is in the order of 25% of the kW rating of the motor. Complementary compensation at the origin of the installation (transformer) may also be beneficial.

Advantages

Individual compensation:

- Reduces the tariff penalties for excessive consumption of kvars
- Reduces the apparent power kVA demand
- Reduces the size of all cables as well as the cable losses

Comments

- Significant reactive currents no longer exist in the installation

L11

5 How to decide the optimum level of compensation?

5.1 General method

Listing of reactive power demands at the design stage

This listing can be made in the same way (and at the same time) as that for the power loading described in chapter A. The levels of active and reactive power loading, at each level of the installation (generally at points of distribution and sub-distribution of circuits) can then be determined.

Technical-economic optimization for an existing installation

The optimum rating of compensation capacitors for an existing installation can be determined from the following principal considerations:

- Electricity bills prior to the installation of capacitors
- Future electricity bills anticipated following the installation of capacitors
- Costs of:
 - Purchase of capacitors and control equipment (contactors, relaying, cabinets, etc.)
 - Installation and maintenance costs
 - Cost of dielectric heating losses in the capacitors, versus reduced losses in cables, transformer, etc., following the installation of capacitors

Several simplified methods applied to typical tariffs (common in Europe) are shown in sub-clauses 5.3 and 5.4.

5.2 Simplified method

General principle

An approximate calculation is generally adequate for most practical cases, and may be based on the assumption of a power factor of 0.8 (lagging) before compensation. In order to improve the power factor to a value sufficient to avoid tariff penalties (this depends on local tariff structures, but is assumed here to be 0.93) and to reduce losses, volt-drops, etc. in the installation, reference can be made to **Figure L15** next page.

From the figure, it can be seen that, to raise the power factor of the installation from 0.8 to 0.93 will require 0.355 kvar per kW of load. The rating of a bank of capacitors at the busbars of the main distribution board of the installation would be

$$Q (\text{kvar}) = 0.355 \times P (\text{kW}).$$

This simple approach allows a rapid determination of the compensation capacitors required, albeit in the global, partial or independent mode.

Example

It is required to improve the power factor of a 666 kVA installation from 0.75 to 0.928. The active power demand is $666 \times 0.75 = 500 \text{ kW}$.

In Figure L15, the intersection of the row $\cos \phi = 0.75$ (before correction) with the column $\cos \phi = 0.93$ (after correction) indicates a value of 0.487 kvar of compensation per kW of load.

For a load of 500 kW, therefore, $500 \times 0.487 = 244 \text{ kvar}$ of capacitive compensation is required.

Note: this method is valid for any voltage level, i.e. is independent of voltage.

5 How to decide the optimum level of compensation?

Before compensation		kvar rating of capacitor bank to install per kW of load, to improve $\cos \phi$ (the power factor) or $\tan \phi$, to a given value												
$\tan \phi$	$\cos \phi$	0.75	0.59	0.48	0.46	0.43	0.40	0.36	0.33	0.29	0.25	0.20	0.14	0.0
2.29	0.40	1.557	1.691	1.805	1.832	1.861	1.895	1.924	1.959	1.998	2.037	2.085	2.146	2.288
2.22	0.41	1.474	1.625	1.742	1.769	1.798	1.831	1.840	1.896	1.935	1.973	2.021	2.082	2.225
2.16	0.42	1.413	1.561	1.681	1.709	1.738	1.771	1.800	1.836	1.874	1.913	1.961	2.022	2.164
2.10	0.43	1.356	1.499	1.624	1.651	1.680	1.713	1.742	1.778	1.816	1.855	1.903	1.964	2.107
2.04	0.44	1.290	1.441	1.558	1.585	1.614	1.647	1.677	1.712	1.751	1.790	1.837	1.899	2.041
1.98	0.45	1.230	1.384	1.501	1.532	1.561	1.592	1.628	1.659	1.695	1.737	1.784	1.846	1.988
1.93	0.46	1.179	1.330	1.446	1.473	1.502	1.533	1.567	1.600	1.636	1.677	1.725	1.786	1.929
1.88	0.47	1.130	1.278	1.397	1.425	1.454	1.485	1.519	1.532	1.588	1.629	1.677	1.758	1.881
1.83	0.48	1.076	1.228	1.343	1.370	1.400	1.430	1.464	1.497	1.534	1.575	1.623	1.684	1.826
1.78	0.49	1.030	1.179	1.297	1.326	1.355	1.386	1.420	1.453	1.489	1.530	1.578	1.639	1.782
1.73	0.50	0.982	1.232	1.248	1.276	1.303	1.337	1.369	1.403	1.441	1.481	1.529	1.590	1.732
1.69	0.51	0.936	1.087	1.202	1.230	1.257	1.291	1.323	1.357	1.395	1.435	1.483	1.544	1.686
1.64	0.52	0.894	1.043	1.160	1.188	1.215	1.249	1.281	1.315	1.353	1.393	1.441	1.502	1.644
1.60	0.53	0.850	1.000	1.116	1.144	1.171	1.205	1.237	1.271	1.309	1.349	1.397	1.458	1.600
1.56	0.54	0.809	0.959	1.075	1.103	1.130	1.164	1.196	1.230	1.268	1.308	1.356	1.417	1.559
1.52	0.55	0.769	0.918	1.035	1.063	1.090	1.124	1.156	1.190	1.228	1.268	1.316	1.377	1.519
1.48	0.56	0.730	0.879	0.996	1.024	1.051	1.085	1.117	1.151	1.189	1.229	1.277	1.338	1.480
1.44	0.57	0.692	0.841	0.958	0.986	1.013	1.047	1.079	1.113	1.151	1.191	1.239	1.300	1.442
1.40	0.58	0.665	0.805	0.921	0.949	0.976	1.010	1.042	1.076	1.114	1.154	1.202	1.263	1.405
1.37	0.59	0.618	0.768	0.884	0.912	0.939	0.973	1.005	1.039	1.077	1.117	1.165	1.226	1.368
1.33	0.60	0.584	0.733	0.849	0.878	0.905	0.939	0.971	1.005	1.043	1.083	1.131	1.192	1.334
1.30	0.61	0.549	0.699	0.815	0.843	0.870	0.904	0.936	0.970	1.008	1.048	1.096	1.157	1.299
1.27	0.62	0.515	0.665	0.781	0.809	0.836	0.870	0.902	0.936	0.974	1.014	1.062	1.123	1.265
1.23	0.63	0.483	0.633	0.749	0.777	0.804	0.838	0.870	0.904	0.942	0.982	1.030	1.091	1.233
1.20	0.64	0.450	0.601	0.716	0.744	0.771	0.805	0.837	0.871	0.909	0.949	0.997	1.058	1.200
1.17	0.65	0.419	0.569	0.685	0.713	0.740	0.774	0.806	0.840	0.878	0.918	0.966	1.007	1.169
1.14	0.66	0.388	0.538	0.654	0.682	0.709	0.743	0.775	0.809	0.847	0.887	0.935	0.996	1.138
1.11	0.67	0.358	0.508	0.624	0.652	0.679	0.713	0.745	0.779	0.817	0.857	0.905	0.966	1.108
1.08	0.68	0.329	0.478	0.595	0.623	0.650	0.684	0.716	0.750	0.788	0.828	0.876	0.937	1.079
1.05	0.69	0.299	0.449	0.565	0.593	0.620	0.654	0.686	0.720	0.758	0.798	0.840	0.907	1.049
1.02	0.70	0.270	0.420	0.536	0.564	0.591	0.625	0.657	0.691	0.729	0.769	0.811	0.878	1.020
0.99	0.71	0.242	0.392	0.508	0.536	0.563	0.597	0.629	0.663	0.701	0.741	0.783	0.850	0.992
0.96	0.72	0.213	0.364	0.479	0.507	0.534	0.568	0.600	0.634	0.672	0.712	0.754	0.821	0.963
0.94	0.73	0.186	0.336	0.452	0.480	0.507	0.541	0.573	0.607	0.645	0.685	0.727	0.794	0.936
0.91	0.74	0.159	0.309	0.425	0.453	0.480	0.514	0.546	0.580	0.618	0.658	0.700	0.767	0.909
0.88	0.75	0.132	0.28	0.398	0.426	0.453	0.487	0.519	0.553	0.591	0.631	0.673	0.740	0.882
0.86	0.76	0.105	0.255	0.371	0.399	0.426	0.460	0.492	0.526	0.564	0.604	0.652	0.713	0.855
0.83	0.77	0.079	0.229	0.345	0.373	0.400	0.434	0.466	0.500	0.538	0.578	0.620	0.687	0.829
0.80	0.78	0.053	0.202	0.319	0.347	0.374	0.408	0.440	0.474	0.512	0.552	0.594	0.661	0.803
0.78	0.79	0.026	0.176	0.292	0.320	0.347	0.381	0.413	0.447	0.485	0.525	0.567	0.634	0.776
0.75	0.80		0.150	0.266	0.294	0.321	0.355	0.387	0.421	0.459	0.499	0.541	0.608	0.750
0.72	0.81		0.124	0.240	0.268	0.295	0.329	0.361	0.395	0.433	0.473	0.515	0.582	0.724
0.70	0.82		0.098	0.214	0.242	0.269	0.303	0.335	0.369	0.407	0.447	0.489	0.556	0.698
0.67	0.83		0.072	0.188	0.216	0.243	0.277	0.309	0.343	0.381	0.421	0.463	0.530	0.672
0.65	0.84		0.046	0.162	0.190	0.217	0.251	0.283	0.317	0.355	0.395	0.437	0.504	0.645
0.62	0.85		0.020	0.136	0.164	0.191	0.225	0.257	0.291	0.329	0.369	0.417	0.478	0.620
0.59	0.86			0.109	0.140	0.167	0.198	0.230	0.264	0.301	0.343	0.390	0.450	0.593
0.57	0.87			0.083	0.114	0.141	0.172	0.204	0.238	0.275	0.317	0.364	0.424	0.567
0.54	0.88			0.054	0.085	0.112	0.143	0.175	0.209	0.246	0.288	0.335	0.395	0.538
0.51	0.89			0.028	0.059	0.086	0.117	0.149	0.183	0.230	0.262	0.309	0.369	0.512
0.48	0.90				0.031	0.058	0.089	0.121	0.155	0.192	0.234	0.281	0.341	0.484

Value selected as an example on section 5.2

Value selected as an example on section 5.4

Fig. L15 : kvar to be installed per kW of load, to improve the power factor of an installation

5 How to decide the optimum level of compensation?

In the case of certain (common) types of tariff, an examination of several bills covering the most heavily-loaded period of the year allows determination of the kvar level of compensation required to avoid kvarh (reactive-energy) charges. The pay-back period of a bank of power-factor-correction capacitors and associated equipment is generally about 18 months

5.3 Method based on the avoidance of tariff penalties

The following method allows calculation of the rating of a proposed capacitor bank, based on billing details, where the tariff structure corresponds with (or is similar to) the one described in sub-clause 2.1 of this chapter.

The method determines the minimum compensation required to avoid these charges which are based on kvarh consumption.

The procedure is as follows:

- Refer to the bills covering consumption for the 5 months of winter (in France these are November to March inclusive).

Note: in tropical climates the summer months may constitute the period of heaviest loading and highest peaks (owing to extensive air conditioning loads) so that a consequent variation of high-tariff periods is necessary in this case. The remainder of this example will assume Winter conditions in France.

- Identify the line on the bills referring to "reactive-energy consumed" and "kvarh to be charged". Choose the bill which shows the highest charge for kvarh (after checking that this was not due to some exceptional situation).

For example: 15,996 kvarh in January.

- Evaluate the total period of loaded operation of the installation for that month, for instance: 220 hours (22 days x 10 hours). The hours which must be counted are those occurring during the heaviest load and the highest peak loads occurring on the power system. These are given in the tariff documents, and are (commonly) during a 16-hour period each day, either from 06.00 h to 22.00 h or from 07.00 h to 23.00 h according to the region. Outside these periods, no charge is made for kvarh consumption.

- The necessary value of compensation in kvar = kvarh billed/number of hours of operation⁽¹⁾ = Q_c

The rating of the installed capacitor bank is generally chosen to be slightly larger than that calculated.

Certain manufacturers can provide "slide rules" especially designed to facilitate these kinds of calculation, according to particular tariffs. These devices and accompanying documentation advice on suitable equipment and control schemes, as well as drawing attention to constraints imposed by harmonic voltages on the power system. Such voltages require either over dimensioned capacitors (in terms of heat-dissipation, voltage and current ratings) and/or harmonic-suppression inductors or filters.

L14

For 2-part tariffs based partly on a declared value of kVA, Figure L17 allows determination of the kvar of compensation required to reduce the value of kVA declared, and to avoid exceeding it

5.4 Method based on reduction of declared maximum apparent power (kVA)

For consumers whose tariffs are based on a fixed charge per kVA declared, plus a charge per kWh consumed, it is evident that a reduction in declared kVA would be beneficial. The diagram of Figure L16 shows that as the power factor improves, the kVA value diminishes for a given value of kW (P). The improvement of the power factor is aimed at (apart from other advantages previously mentioned) reducing the declared level and never exceeding it, thereby avoiding the payment of an excessive price per kVA during the periods of excess, and/or tripping of the main circuit-breaker. Figure L15 (previous page) indicates the value of kvar of compensation per kW of load, required to improve from one value of power factor to another.

Example:

A supermarket has a declared load of 122 kVA at a power factor of 0.7 lagging, i.e. an active-power load of 85.4 kW. The particular contract for this consumer was based on stepped values of declared kVA (in steps of 6 kVA up to 108 kVA, and 12 kVA steps above that value, this is a common feature in many types of two-part tariff). In the case being considered, the consumer was billed on the basis of 132 kVA. Referring to Figure L15, it can be seen that a 60 kvar bank of capacitors will improve the power factor of the load from 0.7 to 0.95 ($0.691 \times 85.4 = 59$ kvar in the figure). The declared value of kVA will then be $\frac{85.4}{0.95} = 90$ kVA, i.e. an improvement of 30%.

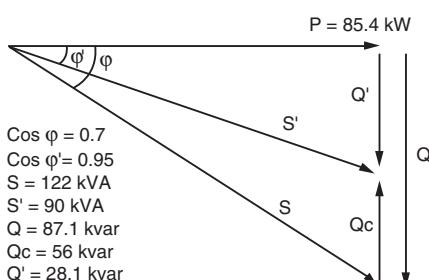


Fig. L16 : Reduction of declared maximum kVA by power-factor improvement

(1) In the billing period, during the hours for which reactive energy is charged for the case considered above:

$$Q_c = \frac{15,996 \text{ kvarh}}{220 \text{ h}} = 73 \text{ kvar}$$

6 Compensation at the terminals of a transformer

The installation of a capacitor bank can avoid the need to change a transformer in the event of a load increase

6.1 Compensation to increase the available active power output

Steps similar to those taken to reduce the declared maximum kVA, i.e. improvement of the load power factor, as discussed in subclause 5.4, will maximise the available transformer capacity, i.e. to supply more active power.

Cases can arise where the replacement of a transformer by a larger unit, to overcome a load growth, may be avoided by this means. Figure L17 shows directly the power (kW) capability of fully-loaded transformers at different load power factors, from which the increase of active-power output can be obtained as the value of power factor increases.

tan φ	cos φ	Nominal rating of transformers (in kVA)											
		100	160	250	315	400	500	630	800	1000	1250	1600	2000
0.00	1	100	160	250	315	400	500	630	800	1000	1250	1600	2000
0.20	0.98	98	157	245	309	392	490	617	784	980	1225	1568	1960
0.29	0.96	96	154	240	302	384	480	605	768	960	1200	1536	1920
0.36	0.94	94	150	235	296	376	470	592	752	940	1175	1504	1880
0.43	0.92	92	147	230	290	368	460	580	736	920	1150	1472	1840
0.48	0.90	90	144	225	284	360	450	567	720	900	1125	1440	1800
0.54	0.88	88	141	220	277	352	440	554	704	880	1100	1408	1760
0.59	0.86	86	138	215	271	344	430	541	688	860	1075	1376	1720
0.65	0.84	84	134	210	265	336	420	529	672	840	1050	1344	1680
0.70	0.82	82	131	205	258	328	410	517	656	820	1025	1312	1640
0.75	0.80	80	128	200	252	320	400	504	640	800	1000	1280	1600
0.80	0.78	78	125	195	246	312	390	491	624	780	975	1248	1560
0.86	0.76	76	122	190	239	304	380	479	608	760	950	1216	1520
0.91	0.74	74	118	185	233	296	370	466	592	740	925	1184	1480
0.96	0.72	72	115	180	227	288	360	454	576	720	900	1152	1440
1.02	0.70	70	112	175	220	280	350	441	560	700	875	1120	1400

Fig. L17 : Active-power capability of fully-loaded transformers, when supplying loads at different values of power factor

L15

Example: (see Fig. L18)

An installation is supplied from a 630 kVA transformer loaded at 450 kW (P1) with a mean power factor of 0.8 lagging. The apparent power $S_1 = \frac{450}{0.8} = 562$ kVA

The corresponding reactive power

$$Q_1 = \sqrt{S_1^2 - P_1^2} = 337 \text{ kvar}$$

The anticipated load increase P2 = 100 kW at a power factor of 0.7 lagging.

$$\text{The apparent power } S_2 = \frac{100}{0.7} = 143 \text{ kVA}$$

The corresponding reactive power

$$Q_2 = \sqrt{S_2^2 - P_2^2} = 102 \text{ kvar}$$

What is the minimum value of capacitive kvar to be installed, in order to avoid a change of transformer?

Total power now to be supplied:

$$P = P_1 + P_2 = 550 \text{ kW}$$

The maximum reactive power capability of the 630 kVA transformer when delivering 550 kW is:

$$Q_m = \sqrt{S^2 - P^2} \quad Q_m = \sqrt{630^2 - 550^2} = 307 \text{ kvar}$$

Total reactive power required by the installation before compensation:

$$Q_1 + Q_2 = 337 + 102 = 439 \text{ kvar}$$

So that the minimum size of capacitor bank to install:

$$Q_{\text{kvar}} = 439 - 307 = 132 \text{ kvar}$$

It should be noted that this calculation has not taken account of load peaks and their duration.

The best possible improvement, i.e. correction which attains a power factor of 1 would permit a power reserve for the transformer of 630 - 550 = 80 kW.

The capacitor bank would then have to be rated at 439 kvar.

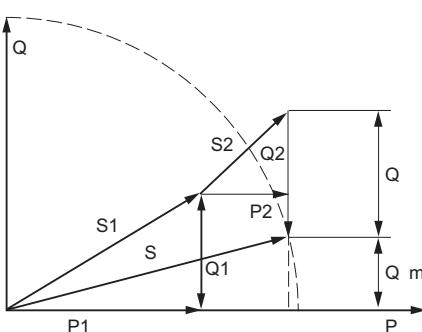


Fig. L18 : Compensation Q allows the installation-load extension S2 to be added, without the need to replace the existing transformer, the output of which is limited to S

Where metering is carried out at the MV side of a transformer, the reactive-energy losses in the transformer may need to be compensated (depending on the tariff)

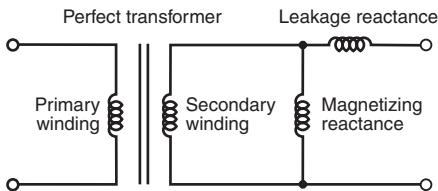


Fig. L19 : Transformer reactances per phase

The reactive power absorbed by a transformer cannot be neglected, and can amount to (about) 5% of the transformer rating when supplying its full load. Compensation can be provided by a bank of capacitors. In transformers, reactive power is absorbed by both shunt (magnetizing) and series (leakage flux) reactances. Complete compensation can be provided by a bank of shunt-connected LV capacitors

6.2 Compensation of reactive energy absorbed by the transformer

The nature of transformer inductive reactances

All previous references have been to shunt connected devices such as those used in normal loads, and power factor-correcting capacitor banks etc. The reason for this is that shunt connected equipment requires (by far) the largest quantities of reactive energy in power systems; however, series-connected reactances, such as the inductive reactances of power lines and the leakage reactance of transformer windings, etc., also absorb reactive energy.

Where metering is carried out at the MV side of a transformer, the reactive-energy losses in the transformer may (depending on the tariff) need to be compensated. As far as reactive-energy losses only are concerned, a transformer may be represented by the elementary diagram of Figure L19. All reactance values are referred to the secondary side of the transformer, where the shunt branch represents the magnetizing-current path. The magnetizing current remains practically constant (at about 1.8% of full-load current) from no load to full load, in normal circumstances, i.e. with a constant primary voltage, so that a shunt capacitor of fixed value can be installed at the MV or LV side, to compensate for the reactive energy absorbed.

Reactive-power absorption in series-connected (leakage flux) reactance X_L

A simple illustration of this phenomenon is given by the vector diagram of Figure L20.

The reactive-current component through the load = $I \sin \varphi$ so that $Q_L = VI \sin \varphi$.

The reactive-current component from the source = $I \sin \varphi'$ so that $Q_E = EI \sin \varphi'$. It can be seen that $E > V$ and $\sin \varphi' > \sin \varphi$.

The difference between $EI \sin \varphi'$ and $VI \sin \varphi$ gives the kvar per phase absorbed by X_L .

It can be shown that this kvar value is equal to $I^2 X_L$ (which is analogous to the $I^2 R$ active power (kW) losses due to the series resistance of power lines, etc.).

From the $I^2 X_L$ formula it is very simple to deduce the kvar absorbed at any load value for a given transformer, as follows:

If per-unit values are used (instead of percentage values) direct multiplication of I and X_L can be carried out.

Example:

A 630 kVA transformer with a short-circuit reactance voltage of 4% is fully loaded.

What is its reactive-power (kvar) loss?

$X_L = 0.04 \text{ pu}$ and $I = 1 \text{ pu}$

$$\text{Loss} = I^2 X_L = 1^2 \times 0.04 = 0.04 \text{ pu kvar}$$

where 1 pu = 630 kVA

The 3-phase kvar losses are $630 \times 0.04 = 25.2 \text{ kvar}$ (or, quite simply, 4% of 630 kVA).

At half load i.e. $I = 0.5 \text{ pu}$ the losses will be

$$0.5^2 \times 0.04 = 0.01 \text{ pu} = 630 \times 0.01 = 6.3 \text{ kvar}$$
 and so on...

This example, and the vector diagram of Figure L20 show that:

- The power factor at the primary side of a loaded transformer is different (normally lower) than that at the secondary side (due to the absorption of vars)
- Full-load kvar losses due to leakage reactance are equal to the transformer percentage reactance (4% reactance means a kvar loss equal to 4% of the kVA rating of the transformer)
- kvar losses due to leakage reactance vary according to the current (or kVA loading) squared

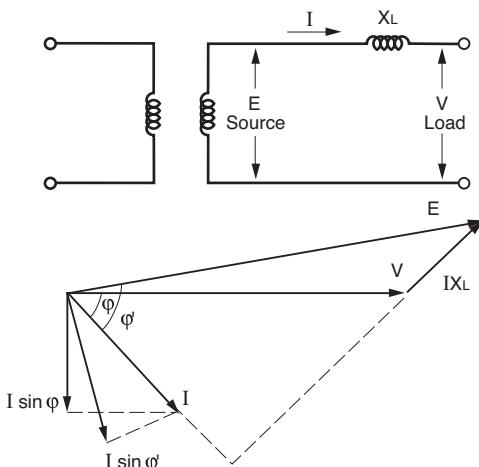


Fig. L20 : Reactive power absorption by series inductance

6 Compensation at the terminals of a transformer

To determine the total kvar losses of a transformer the constant magnetizing-current circuit losses (approx. 1.8% of the transformer kVA rating) must be added to the foregoing "series" losses. **Figure L21** shows the no-load and full-load kvar losses for typical distribution transformers. In principle, series inductances can be compensated by fixed series capacitors (as is commonly the case for long MV transmission lines). This arrangement is operationally difficult, however, so that, at the voltage levels covered by this guide, shunt compensation is always applied.

In the case of MV metering, it is sufficient to raise the power factor to a point where the transformer plus load reactive-power consumption is below the level at which a billing charge is made. This level depends on the tariff, but often corresponds to a $\tan \phi$ value of 0.31 ($\cos \phi$ of 0.955).

Rated power (kVA)	Reactive power (kvar) to be compensated	
	No load	Full load
100	2.5	6.1
160	3.7	9.6
250	5.3	14.7
315	6.3	18.4
400	7.6	22.9
500	9.5	28.7
630	11.3	35.7
800	20	54.5
1000	23.9	72.4
1250	27.4	94.5
1600	31.9	126
2000	37.8	176

Fig. L21 : Reactive power consumption of distribution transformers with 20 kV primary windings

As a matter of interest, the kvar losses in a transformer can be completely compensated by adjusting the capacitor bank to give the load a (slightly) leading power factor. In such a case, all of the kvar of the transformer is being supplied from the capacitor bank, while the input to the MV side of the transformer is at unity power factor, as shown in **Figure L22**.

L17

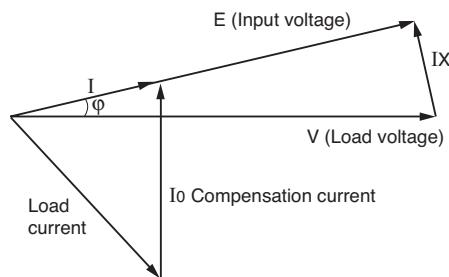


Fig. L22 : Overcompensation of load to completely compensate transformer reactive-power losses

In practical terms, therefore, compensation for transformer-absorbed kvar is included in the capacitors primarily intended for powerfactor correction of the load, either globally, partially, or in the individual mode. Unlike most other kvar-absorbing items, the transformer absorption (i.e. the part due to the leakage reactance) changes significantly with variations of load level, so that, if individual compensation is applied to the transformer, then an average level of loading will have to be assumed.

Fortunately, this kvar consumption generally forms only a relatively small part of the total reactive power of an installation, and so mismatching of compensation at times of load change is not likely to be a problem.

Figure L21 indicates typical kvar loss values for the magnetizing circuit ("no-load kvar" columns), as well as for the total losses at full load, for a standard range of distribution transformers supplied at 20 kV (which include the losses due to the leakage reactance).

7 Power factor correction of induction motors

Individual motor compensation is recommended where the motor power (kVA) is large with respect to the declared power of the installation

7.1 Connection of a capacitor bank and protection settings

General precautions

Because of the small kW consumption, the power factor of a motor is very low at no-load or on light load. The reactive current of the motor remains practically constant at all loads, so that a number of unloaded motors constitute a consumption of reactive power which is generally detrimental to an installation, for reasons explained in preceding sections.

Two good general rules therefore are that unloaded motors should be switched off, and motors should not be oversized (since they will then be lightly loaded).

Connection

The bank of capacitors should be connected directly to the terminals of the motor.

Special motors

It is recommended that special motors (stepping, plugging, inching, reversing motors, etc.) should not be compensated.

Effect on protection settings

After applying compensation to a motor, the current to the motor-capacitor combination will be lower than before, assuming the same motor-driven load conditions. This is because a significant part of the reactive component of the motor current is being supplied from the capacitor, as shown in **Figure L23**.

Where the overcurrent protection devices of the motor are located upstream of the motor capacitor connection (and this will always be the case for terminal-connected capacitors), the overcurrent relay settings must be reduced in the ratio:

$$\cos \varphi \text{ before compensation} / \cos \varphi \text{ after compensation}$$

For motors compensated in accordance with the kvar values indicated in **Figure L24** (maximum values recommended for avoidance of self-excitation of standard induction motors, as discussed in sub-clause 7.2), the above-mentioned ratio will have a value similar to that indicated for the corresponding motor speed in **Figure L25**.

L18

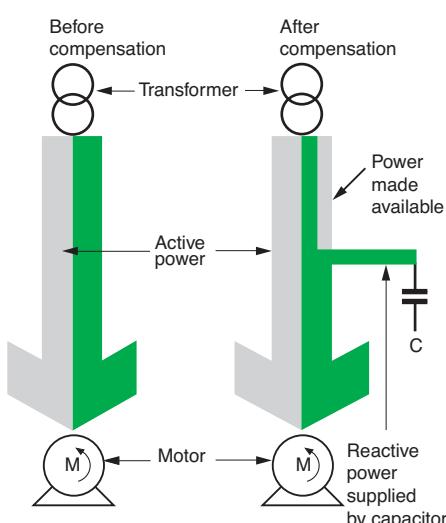


Fig. L23 : Before compensation, the transformer supplies all the reactive power; after compensation, the capacitor supplies a large part of the reactive power

3-phase motors 230/400 V					
Nominal power		kvar to be installed			
		Speed of rotation (rpm)			
kW	hp	3000	1500	1000	750
22	30	6	8	9	10
30	40	7.5	10	11	12.5
37	50	9	11	12.5	16
45	60	11	13	14	17
55	75	13	17	18	21
75	100	17	22	25	28
90	125	20	25	27	30
110	150	24	29	33	37
132	180	31	36	38	43
160	218	35	41	44	52
200	274	43	47	53	61
250	340	52	57	63	71
280	380	57	63	70	79
355	482	67	76	86	98
400	544	78	82	97	106
450	610	87	93	107	117

Figure L24 : Maximum kvar of power factor correction applicable to motor terminals without risk of self excitation

Speed in rpm	Reduction factor
750	0.88
1000	0.90
1500	0.91
3000	0.93

Fig. L25 : Reduction factor for overcurrent protection after compensation

7 Power factor correction of induction motors

When a capacitor bank is connected to the terminals of an induction motor, it is important to check that the size of the bank is less than that at which self-excitation can occur

7.2 How self-excitation of an induction motor can be avoided

When a motor is driving a high-inertia load, the motor will continue to rotate (unless deliberately braked) after the motor supply has been switched off.

The "magnetic inertia" of the rotor circuit means that an emf will be generated in the stator windings for a short period after switching off, and would normally reduce to zero after 1 or 2 cycles, in the case of an uncompensated motor.

Compensation capacitors however, constitute a 3-phase "wattless" load for this decaying emf, which causes capacitive currents to flow through the stator windings. These stator currents will produce a rotating magnetic field in the rotor which acts exactly along the same axis and in the same direction as that of the decaying magnetic field.

The rotor flux consequently increases; the stator currents increase; and the voltage at the terminals of the motor increases; sometimes to dangerously-high levels. This phenomenon is known as self-excitation and is one reason why AC generators are not normally operated at leading power factors, i.e. there is a tendency to spontaneously (and uncontrollably) self excite.

Notes:

1. The characteristics of a motor being driven by the inertia of the load are not rigorously identical to its no-load characteristics. This assumption, however, is sufficiently accurate for practical purposes.
2. With the motor acting as a generator, the currents circulating are largely reactive, so that the braking (retarding) effect on the motor is mainly due only to the load represented by the cooling fan in the motor.
3. The (almost 90° lagging) current taken from the supply in normal circumstances by the unloaded motor, and the (almost 90° leading) current supplied to the capacitors by the motor acting as a generator, both have the same phase relationship to the terminal voltage. It is for this reason that the two characteristics may be superimposed on the graph.

In order to avoid self-excitation as described above, the kvar rating of the capacitor bank must be limited to the following maximum value:

$Q_c \leq 0.9 \times I_0 \times U_n \times \sqrt{3}$ where I_0 = the no-load current of the motor and U_n = phase-to-phase nominal voltage of the motor in kV. Figure L24 previous page gives appropriate values of Q_c corresponding to this criterion.

Example

A 75 kW, 3,000 rpm, 400 V, 3-phase motor may have a capacitor bank no larger than 17 kvar according to Figure L24. The table values are, in general, too small to adequately compensate the motor to the level of $\cos \phi$ normally required. Additional compensation can, however, be applied to the system, for example an overall bank, installed for global compensation of a number of smaller appliances.

High-inertia motors and/or loads

In any installation where high-inertia motor driven loads exist, the circuit-breakers or contactors controlling such motors should, in the event of total loss of power supply, be rapidly tripped.

If this precaution is not taken, then self excitation to very high voltages is likely to occur, since all other banks of capacitors in the installation will effectively be in parallel with those of the high-inertia motors.

The protection scheme for these motors should therefore include an overvoltage tripping relay, together with reverse-power checking contacts (the motor will feed power to the rest of the installation, until the stored inertial energy is dissipated). If the capacitor bank associated with a high inertia motor is larger than that recommended in Figure L24, then it should be separately controlled by a circuit-breaker or contactor, which trips simultaneously with the main motor-controlling circuit-breaker or contactor, as shown in Figure L26.

Closing of the main contactor is commonly subject to the capacitor contactor being previously closed.

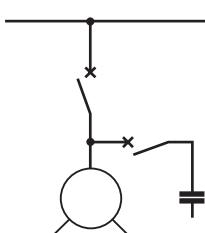
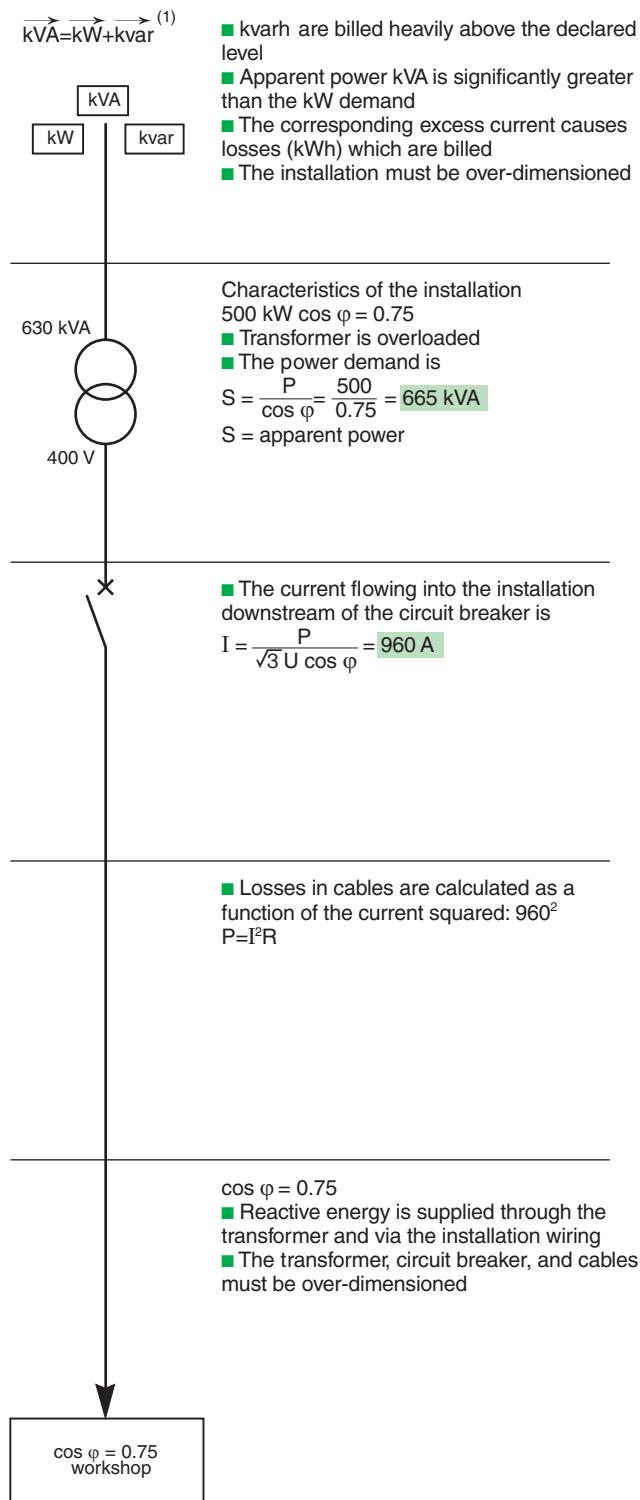


Fig. L26 : Connection of the capacitor bank to the motor

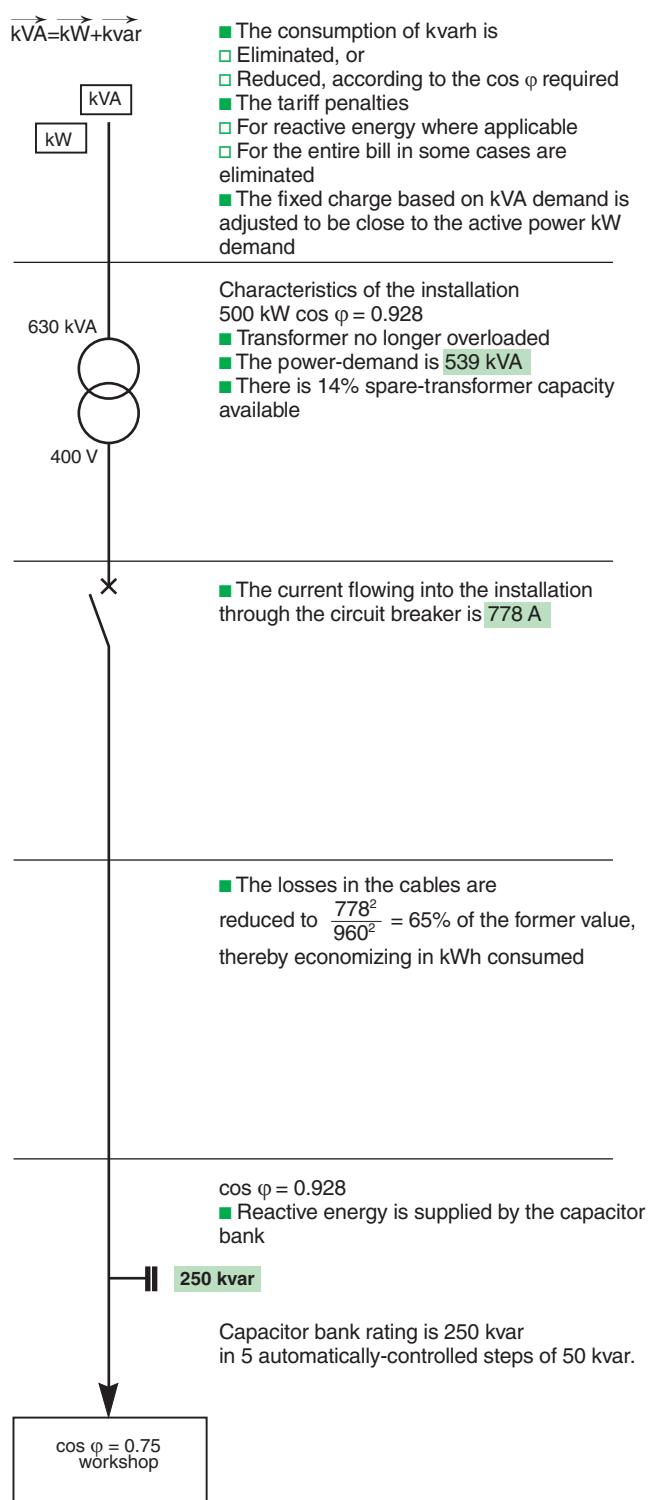
L19

8 Example of an installation before and after power-factor correction

Installation before P.F. correction



Installation after P.F. correction



Note: In fact, the cos φ of the workshop remains at 0.75 but cos φ for all the installation upstream of the capacitor bank to the transformer LV terminals is 0.928.

As mentioned in Sub-clause 6.2 the cos φ at the HV side of the transformer will be slightly lower ⁽²⁾, due to the reactive power losses in the transformer.

Fig. K27 : Technical-economic comparison of an installation before and after power-factor correction

(1) The arrows denote vector quantities.

(2) Particularly in the pre-corrected case.

9.1 Problems arising from power-system harmonics

Equipment which uses power electronics components (variable-speed motor controllers, thyristor-controlled rectifiers, etc.) have considerably increased the problems caused by harmonics in power supply systems.

Harmonics have existed from the earliest days of the industry and were (and still are) caused by the non-linear magnetizing impedances of transformers, reactors, fluorescent lamp ballasts, etc.

Harmonics on symmetrical 3-phase power systems are generally odd-numbered: 3rd, 5th, 7th, 9th..., and the magnitude decreases as the order of the harmonic increases. A number of features may be used in various ways to reduce specific harmonics to negligible values - total elimination is not possible. In this section, practical means of reducing the influence of harmonics are recommended, with particular reference to capacitor banks.

Capacitors are especially sensitive to harmonic components of the supply voltage due to the fact that capacitive reactance decreases as the frequency increases. In practice, this means that a relatively small percentage of harmonic voltage can cause a significant current to flow in the capacitor circuit.

The presence of harmonic components causes the (normally sinusoidal) wave form of voltage or current to be distorted; the greater the harmonic content, the greater the degree of distortion.

If the natural frequency of the capacitor bank/ power-system reactance combination is close to a particular harmonic, then partial resonance will occur, with amplified values of voltage and current at the harmonic frequency concerned. In this particular case, the elevated current will cause overheating of the capacitor, with degradation of the dielectric, which may result in its eventual failure.

Several solutions to these problems are available. This can be accomplished by

- Shunt connected harmonic filter and/or harmonic-suppression reactors or
- Active power filters or
- Hybrid filters

Harmonics are taken into account mainly by oversizing capacitors and including harmonic-suppression reactors in series with them

L21

9.2 Possible solutions

Passive filter (see Fig. L28)

Countering the effects of harmonics

The presence of harmonics in the supply voltage results in abnormally high current levels through the capacitors. An allowance is made for this by designing for an r.m.s. value of current equal to 1.3 times the nominal rated current. All series elements, such as connections, fuses, switches, etc., associated with the capacitors are similarly oversized, between 1.3 to 1.5 times nominal rating.

Harmonic distortion of the voltage wave frequently produces a "peaky" wave form, in which the peak value of the normal sinusoidal wave is increased. This possibility, together with other overvoltage conditions likely to occur when countering the effects of resonance, as described below, are taken into account by increasing the insulation level above that of "standard" capacitors. In many instances, these two counter measures are all that is necessary to achieve satisfactory operation.

Countering the effects of resonance

Capacitors are linear reactive devices, and consequently do not generate harmonics. The installation of capacitors in a power system (in which the impedances are predominantly inductive) can, however, result in total or partial resonance occurring at one of the harmonic frequencies.

The harmonic order h_0 of the natural resonant frequency between the system inductance and the capacitor bank is given by

$$h_0 = \sqrt{\frac{S_{sc}}{Q}}$$

where

S_{sc} = the level of system short-circuit kVA at the point of connection of the capacitor

Q = capacitor bank rating in kvar; and h_0 = the harmonic order of the natural

frequency f_0 i.e. $\frac{f_0}{50}$ for a 50 Hz system, or $\frac{f_0}{60}$ for a 60 Hz system.

50

60

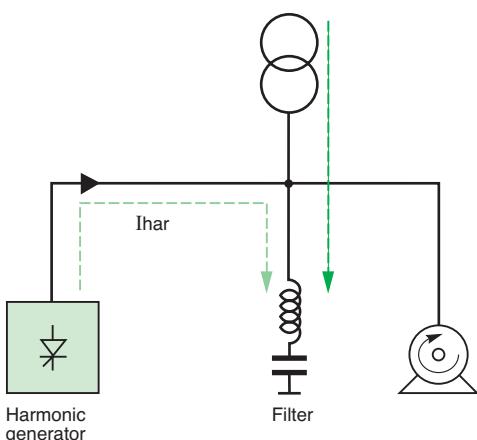


Fig. L28 : Operation principle of passive filter

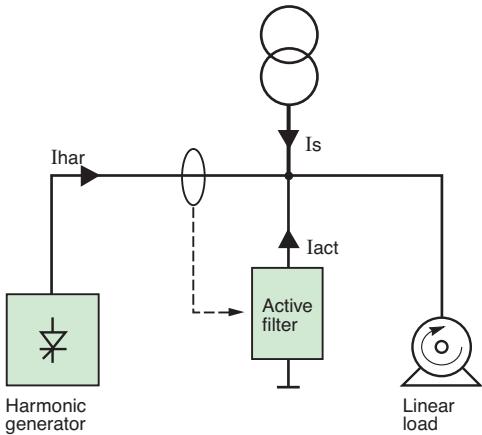


Fig. L29 : Operation principle of active filter

For example: $h_0 = \sqrt{\frac{S_{sc}}{Q}}$ may give a value for h_0 of 2.93 which shows that the

natural frequency of the capacitor/system-inductance combination is close to the 3rd harmonic frequency of the system.

From $h_0 = \frac{f_0}{50}$ it can be seen that $f_0 = 50 h_0 = 50 \times 2.93 = 146.5$ Hz

The closer a natural frequency approaches one of the harmonics present on the system, the greater will be the (undesirable) effect. In the above example, strong resonant conditions with the 3rd harmonic component of a distorted wave would certainly occur.

In such cases, steps are taken to change the natural frequency to a value which will not resonate with any of the harmonics known to be present. This is achieved by the addition of a harmonic-suppression inductor connected in series with the capacitor bank.

On 50 Hz systems, these reactors are often adjusted to bring the resonant frequency of the combination, i.e. the capacitor bank + reactors to 190 Hz. The reactors are adjusted to 228 Hz for a 60 Hz system. These frequencies correspond to a value for h_0 of 3.8 for a 50 Hz system, i.e. approximately mid-way between the 3rd and 5th harmonics.

In this arrangement, the presence of the reactor increases the fundamental frequency (50 Hz or 60 Hz) current by a small amount (7-8%) and therefore the voltage across the capacitor in the same proportion.

This feature is taken into account, for example, by using capacitors which are designed for 440 V operation on 400 V systems.

Active filter (see Fig. L29)

Active filters are based on power electronic technology. They are generally installed in parallel with the non linear load.

Active filters analyse the harmonics drawn by the load and then inject the same harmonic current to the load with the appropriate phase. As a result, the harmonic currents are totally neutralised at the point considered. This means they no longer flow upstream and are no longer supplied by the source.

A main advantage of active conditioners is that they continue to guarantee efficient harmonic compensation even when changes are made to the installation. They are also exceptionally easy to use as they feature:

- Auto-configuration to harmonic loads whatever their order of magnitude
- Elimination of overload risks
- Compatibility with electrical generator sets
- Connection to any point of the electrical network
- Several conditioners can be used in the same installation to increase depollution efficiency (for example when a new machine is installed)

Active filters may provide also power factor correction.

Hybrid filter (see Fig. L30)

This type of filter combines advantages of passive and active filter. One frequency can be filtered by passive filter and all the other frequencies are filtered by active filter.

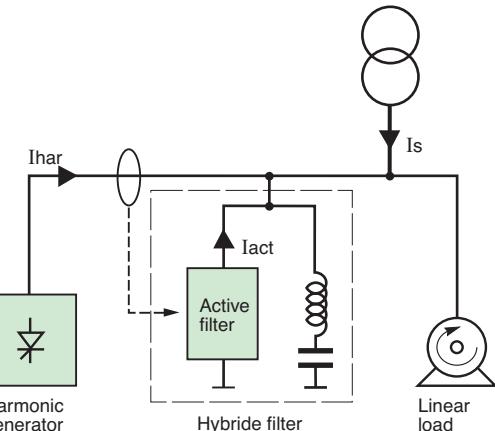


Fig. L30 : Operation principle of hybrid filter

9.3 Choosing the optimum solution

Figure L31 below shows the criteria that can be taken into account to select the most suitable technology depending on the application.

Applications	Passive filter Industrial	Active filter Tertiary	Hybrid filter Industrial
... with total power of non linear loads (variable speed drive, UPS, rectifier...)	greater than 200 kVA	lower than 200 kVA	greater than 200 kVA
Power factor correction		No	
Necessity of reducing the harmonic distortion in voltage for sensitive loads			
Necessity of reducing the harmonic distortion in current to avoid cable overload			
Necessity of being in accordance with strict limits of harmonic rejected	No		

Fig. L31 : Selection of the most suitable technology depending on the application

For passive filter, a choice is made from the following parameters:

- G_h = the sum of the kVA ratings of all harmonic-generating devices (static converters, inverters, speed controllers, etc.) connected to the busbars from which the capacitor bank is supplied. If the ratings of some of these devices are quoted in kW only, assume an average power factor of 0.7 to obtain the kVA ratings
- S_{sc} = the 3-phase short-circuit level in kVA at the terminals of the capacitor bank
- S_n = the sum of the kVA ratings of all transformers supplying (i.e. directly connected to) the system level of which the busbars form a part

If a number of transformers are operating in parallel, the removal from service of one or more, will significantly change the values of S_{sc} and S_n . From these parameters, a choice of capacitor specification which will ensure an acceptable level of operation with the system harmonic voltages and currents, can be made, by reference to **Figure L32**.

- General rule valid for any size of transformer

$G_h \leq \frac{S_{sc}}{120}$	$\frac{S_{sc}}{120} < G_h \leq \frac{S_{sc}}{70}$	$G_h > \frac{S_{sc}}{70}$	
Standard capacitors	Capacitor voltage rating increased by 10% (except 230 V units)	Capacitor voltage rating increased by 10% + harmonic-suppression reactor	
■ Simplified rule if transformer(s) rating $S_n \leq 2$ MVA			
$G_h \leq 0.15 S_n$ Standard capacitors	$0.15 S_n < G_h \leq 0.25 S_n$ Capacitor voltage rating increased by 10% (except 230 V units)	$0.25 S_n < G_h \leq 0.60 S_n$ Capacitor voltage rating increased by 10% + harmonic suppression reactor	$G_h > 0.60 S_n$ Filters

Fig. L32 : Choice of solutions for limiting harmonics associated with a LV capacitor bank supplied via transformer(s)

10 Implementation of capacitor banks

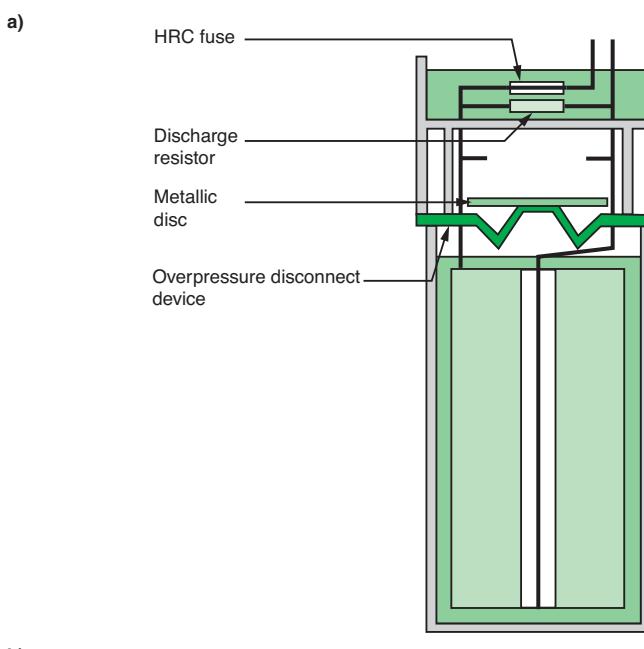
10.1 Capacitor elements

Technology

The capacitors are dry-type units (i.e. are not impregnated by liquid dielectric) comprising metallized polypropylene self-healing film in the form of a two-film roll. They are protected by a high-quality system (overpressure disconnector used with a high breaking capacity fuse) which switches off the capacitor if an internal fault occurs.

The protection scheme operates as follows:

- A short-circuit through the dielectric will blow the fuse
 - Current levels greater than normal, but insufficient to blow the fuse sometimes occur, e.g. due to a microscopic flow in the dielectric film. Such "faults" often re-seal due to local heating caused by the leakage current, i.e. the units are said to be "self-healing"
 - If the leakage current persists, the defect may develop into a short-circuit, and the fuse will blow
 - Gas produced by vaporizing of the metallisation at the faulty location will gradually build up a pressure within the plastic container, and will eventually operate a pressure-sensitive device to short-circuit the unit, thereby causing the fuse to blow
- Capacitors are made of insulating material providing them with double insulation and avoiding the need for a ground connection (see Fig. L33).



b)

Electrical characteristics		
Standard	IEC 60439-1, NFC 54-104, VDE 0560 CSA Standards, UL tests	
Operating range	Rated voltage	400 V
	Rated frequency	50 Hz
Capacitance tolerance	- 5% to + 10%	
Temperature range (up to 65 kvar)	Maximum temperature	55 °C
	Average temperature over 24 h	45 °C
	Average annual temperature	35 °C
	Minimum temperature	- 25 °C
Insulation level	50 Hz 1 min withstand voltage : 6 kV 1.2/50 µs impulse withstand voltage : 25 kV	
Permissible current overload	Classic range ⁽¹⁾	Comfort range ⁽¹⁾
	30%	50%
Permissible voltage overload	10%	20%

Fig. L33 : Capacitor element, (a) cross-section, (b) electrical characteristics

(1) Merlin-Gerin designation

10 Implementation of capacitor banks

10.2 Choice of protection, control devices and connecting cables

The choice of upstream cables and protection and control devices depends on the current loading.

For capacitors, the current is a function of:

- The applied voltage and its harmonics
- The capacitance value

The nominal current I_n of a 3-phase capacitor bank is equal to:

$$I_n = \frac{Q}{U_n \sqrt{3}} \text{ with:}$$

□ Q: kvar rating

□ U_n : Phase-to-phase voltage (kV)

The permitted range of applied voltage at fundamental frequency, plus harmonic components, together with manufacturing tolerances of actual capacitance (for a declared nominal value) can result in a 50% increase above the calculated value of current. Approximately 30% of this increase is due to the voltage increases, while a further 15% is due to the range of manufacturing tolerances, so that
 $1.3 \times 1.15 = 1.5$

All components carrying the capacitor current therefore, must be adequate to cover this "worst-case" condition, in an ambient temperature of 50 °C maximum. In the case where temperatures higher than 50 °C occur in enclosures, etc. derating of the components will be necessary.

Protection

The size of the circuit-breaker can be chosen in order to allow the setting of long time delay at:

- $1.36 \times I_n$ for Classic range⁽¹⁾
- $1.50 \times I_n$ for Comfort range⁽¹⁾
- $1.12 \times I_n$ for Harmony range⁽¹⁾ (tuned at 2.7 f)⁽²⁾
- $1.19 \times I_n$ for Harmony range⁽¹⁾ (tuned at 3.8 f)
- $1.31 \times I_n$ for Harmony range⁽¹⁾ (tuned at 4.3 f)

Short time delay setting (short-circuit protection) must be insensitive to inrush current. The setting will be $10 \times I_n$ for Classic, Comfort and Harmony range⁽¹⁾.

Example 1

50 kvar – 400V – 50 Hz – Classic range

$$I_n = \frac{50,000}{(400 \times 1.732)} = 72 \text{ A}$$

Long time delay setting: $1.36 \times 72 = 98 \text{ A}$

Short time delay setting: $10 \times I_n = 720 \text{ A}$

Example 2

50 kvar – 400V – 50 Hz – Harmony range (tuned at 4.3 f)

$$I_n = 72 \text{ A}$$

Long time delay setting: $1.31 \times 72 = 94 \text{ A}$

Short time delay setting: $10 \times I_n = 720 \text{ A}$

Upstream cables

Figure L34 next page gives the minimum cross section area of the upstream cable for Rectiphase capacitors.

Cables for control

The minimum cross section area of these cables will be 1.5 mm^2 for 230 V.

For the secondary side of the transformer, the recommended cross section area is $\geq 2.5 \text{ mm}^2$.

L25

(1) Merlin-Gerin designation

(2) Harmony capacitor banks are equipped with a harmonic suppression reactor.

10 Implementation of capacitor banks

Bank power (kvar) 230 V	400 V	Copper cross- section (mm ²)	Aluminium cross- section (mm ²)
5	10	2.5	16
10	20	4	16
15	30	6	16
20	40	10	16
25	50	16	25
30	60	25	35
40	80	35	50
50	100	50	70
60	120	70	95
70	140	95	120
90-100	180	120	185
	200	150	240
120	240	185	2 x 95
150	250	240	2 x 120
	300	2 x 95	2 x 150
180-210	360	2 x 120	2 x 185
245	420	2 x 150	2 x 240
280	480	2 x 185	2 x 300
315	540	2 x 240	3 x 185
350	600	2 x 300	3 x 240
385	660	3 x 150	3 x 240
420	720	3 x 185	3 x 300

Fig L34 : Cross-section of cables connecting medium and high power capacitor banks⁽¹⁾

Voltage transients

High-frequency voltage and current transients occur when switching a capacitor bank into service. The maximum voltage peak does not exceed (in the absence of harmonics) twice the peak value of the rated voltage when switching uncharged capacitors.

In the case of a capacitor being already charged at the instant of switch closure, however, the voltage transient can reach a maximum value approaching 3 times the normal rated peak value.

This maximum condition occurs only if:

- The existing voltage at the capacitor is equal to the peak value of rated voltage, and
- The switch contacts close at the instant of peak supply voltage, and
- The polarity of the power-supply voltage is opposite to that of the charged capacitor

In such a situation, the current transient will be at its maximum possible value, viz: Twice that of its maximum when closing on to an initially uncharged capacitor, as previously noted.

For any other values of voltage and polarity on the pre-charged capacitor, the transient peaks of voltage and current will be less than those mentioned above.

In the particular case of peak rated voltage on the capacitor having the same polarity as that of the supply voltage, and closing the switch at the instant of supply-voltage peak, there would be no voltage or current transients.

Where automatic switching of stepped banks of capacitors is considered, therefore, care must be taken to ensure that a section of capacitors about to be energized is fully discharged.

The discharge delay time may be shortened, if necessary, by using discharge resistors of a lower resistance value.

(1) Minimum cross-section not allowing for any correction factors (installation mode, temperature, etc.). The calculations were made for single-pole cables laid in open air at 30 °C.

Chapter M

Harmonic management

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1 The problem: why is it necessary to detect and eliminate harmonics?

Disturbances caused by harmonics

Harmonics flowing in distribution networks downgrade the quality of electrical power. This can have a number of negative effects:

- Overloads on distribution networks due to the increase in rms current
- Overloads in neutral conductors due to the cumulative increase in third-order harmonics created by single-phase loads
- Overloads, vibration and premature ageing of generators, transformers and motors as well as increased transformer hum
- Overloads and premature ageing of power-factor correction capacitors
- Distortion of the supply voltage that can disturb sensitive loads
- Disturbances in communication networks and on telephone lines

Economic impact of disturbances

Harmonics have a major economic impact:

- Premature ageing of equipment means it must be replaced sooner unless oversized right from the start
- Overloads on the distribution network can require higher subscribed power levels and increase losses
- Distortion of current waveforms provokes nuisance tripping that can stop production

Increasingly serious consequences

Only ten years ago, harmonics were not yet considered a real problem because their effects on distribution networks were generally minor. However, the massive introduction of power electronics in equipment has made the phenomenon far more serious in all sectors of economic activity.

In addition, the equipment causing the harmonics is often vital to the company or organisation.

Which harmonics must be measured and eliminated?

The most frequently encountered harmonics in three-phase distribution networks are the odd orders. Harmonic amplitudes normally decrease as the frequency increases. Above order 50, harmonics are negligible and measurements are no longer meaningful. Sufficiently accurate measurements are obtained by measuring harmonics up to order 30.

Utilities monitor harmonic orders 3, 5, 7, 11 and 13. Generally speaking, harmonic conditioning of the lowest orders (up to 13) is sufficient. More comprehensive conditioning takes into account harmonic orders up to 25.

M2

2 Standards

Harmonic emissions are subject to various standards and regulations:

- Compatibility standards for distribution networks
 - Emissions standards applying to the equipment causing harmonics
 - Recommendations issued by utilities and applicable to installations
- In view of rapidly attenuating the effects of harmonics, a triple system of standards and regulations is currently in force based on the documents listed below.

Standards governing compatibility between distribution networks and products

These standards determine the necessary compatibility between distribution networks and products:

- The harmonics caused by a device must not disturb the distribution network beyond certain limits
- Each device must be capable of operating normally in the presence of disturbances up to specific levels
- Standard IEC 61000-2-2 for public low-voltage power supply systems
- Standard IEC 61000-2-4 for LV and MV industrial installations

Standards governing the quality of distribution networks

- Standard EN 50160 stipulates the characteristics of electricity supplied by public distribution networks
- Standard IEEE 519 presents a joint approach between Utilities and customers to limit the impact of non-linear loads. What is more, Utilities encourage preventive action in view of reducing the deterioration of power quality, temperature rise and the reduction of power factor. They will be increasingly inclined to charge customers for major sources of harmonics

Standards governing equipment

- Standard IEC 61000-3-2 or EN 61000-3-2 for low-voltage equipment with rated current under 16 A
- Standard IEC 61000-3-12 for low-voltage equipment with rated current higher than 16 A and lower than 75 A

Maximum permissible harmonic levels

International studies have collected data resulting in an estimation of typical harmonic contents often encountered in electrical distribution networks. **Figure M1** presents the levels that, in the opinion of many utilities, should not be exceeded.

Odd harmonic orders non-multiples of 3				Odd harmonic orders multiples of 3				Even harmonic orders			
Order h	LV	MV	EMV	Order h	LV	MV	EMV	Order h	LV	MV	EMV
5	6	6	2	3	5	2.5	1.5	2	2	1.5	1.5
7	5	5	2	9	1.5	1.5	1	4	1	1	1
11	3.5	3.5	1.5	15	0.3	0.3	0.3	6	0.5	0.5	0.5
13	3	3	1.5	21	0.2	0.2	0.2	8	0.5	0.2	0.2
17	2	2	1	> 21	0.2	0.2	0.2	10	0.5	0.2	0.2
19	1.5	1.5	1					12	0.2	0.2	0.2
23	1.5	1	0.7					> 12	0.2	0.2	0.2
25	1.5	1	0.7								
> 25	0.2 + 25/h	0.2 + 25/h	0.1 + 25/h								

Fig. M1 : Maximum permissible harmonic levels

M3

3 General

The presence of harmonics indicates a distorted current or voltage wave. The distortion of the current or voltage wave means that the distribution of electrical energy is disturbed and power quality is not optimum.

Harmonic currents are caused by non-linear loads connected to the distribution network. The flow of harmonic currents causes harmonic voltages via distribution-network impedances and consequently distortion of the supply voltage.

Origin of harmonics

Devices and systems that cause harmonics are present in all sectors, i.e. industrial, commercial and residential. Harmonics are caused by non-linear loads (i.e. loads that draw current with a waveform that is not the same as that of the supply voltage).

Examples of non-linear loads are:

- Industrial equipment (welding machines, arc furnaces, induction furnaces, rectifiers)
- Variable-speed drives for asynchronous or DC motors
- UPSs
- Office equipment (computers, photocopy machines, fax machines, etc.)
- Home appliances (television sets, micro-wave ovens, fluorescent lighting)
- Certain devices involving magnetic saturation (transformers)

Disturbances caused by non-linear loads: harmonic current and voltage

Non-linear loads draw harmonic currents that flow in the distribution network.

Harmonic voltages are caused by the flow of harmonic currents through the impedances of the supply circuits (transformer and distribution network for situations similar to that shown in **Figure M2**).

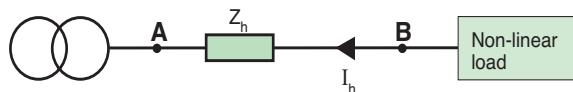


Fig. M2 : Single-line diagram showing the impedance of the supply circuit for a harmonic of order h

The reactance of a conductor increases as a function of the frequency of the current flowing through the conductor. For each harmonic current (order h), there is therefore an impedance Z_h in the supply circuit.

When the harmonic current of order h flows through impedance Z_h , it creates a harmonic voltage U_h , where $U_h = Z_h \times I_h$ (Ohm law). The voltage at point B is therefore distorted. All devices supplied via point B receive a distorted voltage.

For a given harmonic current, the distortion is proportional to the impedance in the distribution network.

Flow of harmonic currents in distribution networks

The non-linear loads can be considered to reinject the harmonic currents upstream into the distribution network, toward the source.

Figures M3 and M4 next page show an installation disturbed by harmonics. Figure M3 shows the flow of the current at 50 Hz in the installation and Figure M4 shows the harmonic current (order h).

3 General

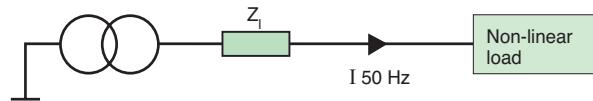


Fig. M3 : Installation supplying a non-linear load, where only the phenomena concerning the 50 Hz frequency (fundamental frequency) are shown

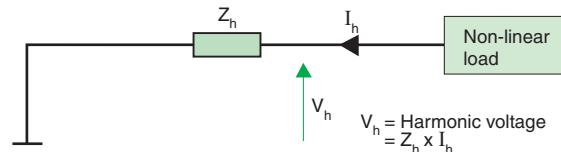
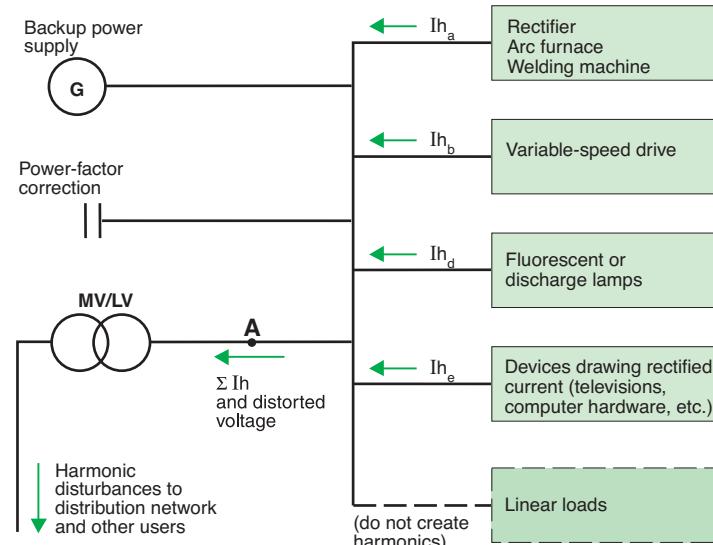


Fig. M4 : Same installation, where only the phenomena concerning the frequency of harmonic order h are shown

Supply of the non-linear load creates the flow of a current $I_{50\text{Hz}}$ (shown in figure M3), to which is added each of the harmonic currents I_h (shown in figure M4), corresponding to each harmonic order h .

Still considering that the loads reinject harmonic current upstream into the distribution network, it is possible to create a diagram showing the harmonic currents in the network (see **Fig. M5**).



M5

Note in the diagram that though certain loads create harmonic currents in the distribution network, other loads can absorb the harmonic currents.

Fig. M5 : Flow of harmonic currents in a distribution network

Harmonics have major economic effects in installations:

- Increases in energy costs
- Premature ageing of equipment
- Production losses

4 Main effects of harmonics in installations

4.1 Resonance

The simultaneous use of capacitive and inductive devices in distribution networks results in parallel or series resonance manifested by very high or very low impedance values respectively. The variations in impedance modify the current and voltage in the distribution network. Here, only parallel resonance phenomena, the most common, will be discussed.

Consider the following simplified diagram (see Fig. M6) representing an installation made up of:

- A supply transformer
- Linear loads
- Non-linear loads drawing harmonic currents
- Power factor correction capacitors

For harmonic analysis, the equivalent diagram (see Fig. M7) is shown below. Impedance Z is calculated by:

$$Z = \frac{jLs\omega}{1-LsC\omega^2}$$

neglecting R and where:

Ls = Supply inductance (upstream network + transformer + line)

C = Capacitance of the power factor correction capacitors

R = Resistance of the linear loads

Ih = Harmonic current

Resonance occurs when the denominator $1-LsC\omega^2$ tends toward zero. The corresponding frequency is called the resonance frequency of the circuit. At that frequency, impedance is at its maximum and high amounts of harmonic voltages appear with the resulting major distortion in the voltage. The voltage distortion is accompanied, in the Ls+C circuit, by the flow of harmonic currents greater than those drawn by the loads.

The distribution network and the power factor correction capacitors are subjected to high harmonic currents and the resulting risk of overloads. To avoid resonance, anti-harmonic coils can be installed in series with the capacitors.

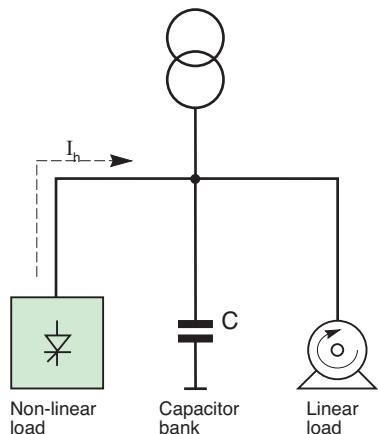


Fig. M6 : Diagram of an installation

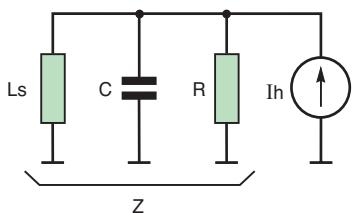


Fig. M7 : Equivalent diagram of the installation shown in Figure M6

4.2 Increased losses

Losses in conductors

The active power transmitted to a load is a function of the fundamental component I1 of the current.

When the current drawn by the load contains harmonics, the rms value of the current, Irms, is greater than the fundamental I1.

The definition of THD being:

$$\text{THD} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{\text{rms}}}{I_1}\right)^2 - 1}$$

it may be deduced that: $I_{\text{rms}} = I_1 \sqrt{1+\text{THD}^2}$

Figure M8 (next page) shows, as a function of the harmonic distortion:

- The increase in the rms current Irms for a load drawing a given fundamental current
 - The increase in Joule losses, not taking into account the skin effect
(The reference point in the graph is 1 for Irms and Joules losses, the case when there are no harmonics)
- The harmonic currents provoke an increase in the Joule losses in all conductors in which they flow and additional temperature rise in transformers, devices, cables, etc.

Losses in asynchronous machines

The harmonic voltages (order h) supplied to asynchronous machines provoke in the rotor the flow of currents with frequencies higher than 50 Hz that are the cause of additional losses.

4 Main effects of harmonics in installations

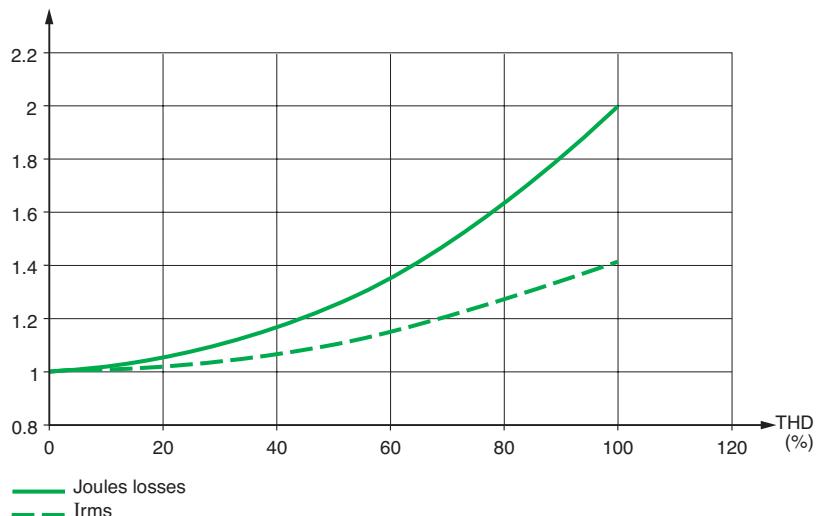


Fig. M8 : Increase in rms current and Joule losses as a function of the THD

Orders of magnitude

- A virtually rectangular supply voltage provokes a **20% increase** in losses
- A supply voltage with harmonics $u_5 = 8\%$ (of U_1 , the fundamental voltage), $u_7 = 5\%$, $u_{11} = 3\%$, $u_{13} = 1\%$, i.e. total harmonic distortion $THDu$ equal to 10%, results in additional losses of 6%

Losses in transformers

Harmonic currents flowing in transformers provoke an increase in the “copper” losses due to the Joule effect and increased “iron” losses due to eddy currents. The harmonic voltages are responsible for “iron” losses due to hysteresis.

It is generally considered that losses in windings increase as the square of the $THDi$ and that core losses increase linearly with the $THDu$.

In utility-distribution transformers, where distortion levels are limited, losses increase between 10 and 15%.

Losses in capacitors

The harmonic voltages applied to capacitors provoke the flow of currents proportional to the frequency of the harmonics. These currents cause additional losses.

Example

A supply voltage has the following harmonics:
Fundamental voltage U_1 , harmonic voltages $u_5 = 8\%$ (of U_1), $u_7 = 5\%$, $u_{11} = 3\%$, $u_{13} = 1\%$, i.e. total harmonic distortion $THDu$ equal to 10%. The amperage of the current is multiplied by 1.19. Joule losses are multiplied by 1.19^2 , i.e. 1.4.

M7

4.3 Overloads on equipment

Generators

Generators supplying non-linear loads must be derated due to the additional losses caused by harmonic currents.

The level of derating is approximately 10% for a generator where the overall load is made up of 30% of non-linear loads. It is therefore necessary to oversize the generator.

Uninterruptible power systems (UPS)

The current drawn by computer systems has a very high crest factor. A UPS sized taking into account exclusively the rms current may not be capable of supplying the necessary peak current and may be overloaded.

Transformers

- The curve presented below (see Fig. M9) shows the typical derating required for a transformer supplying electronic loads

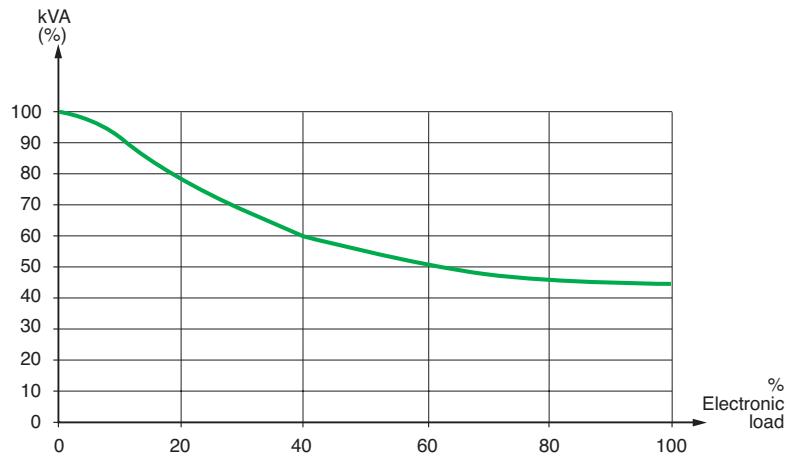


Fig. M9 : Derating required for a transformer supplying electronic loads

Example

If the transformer supplies an overall load comprising 40% of electronic loads, it must be derated by 40%.

- Standard UTE C15-112 provides a derating factor for transformers as a function of the harmonic currents.

$$k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 0.1 \left(\sum_{h=2}^{40} h^{1.6} T_h^2 \right)}}$$

$$T_h = \frac{I_h}{I_1}$$

Typical values:

- Current with a rectangular waveform (1/h spectrum⁽¹⁾): $k = 0.86$
- Frequency-converter current (THD $\approx 50\%$): $k = 0.80$

Asynchronous machines

Standard IEC 60892 defines a weighted harmonic factor (Harmonic voltage factor) for which the equation and maximum value are provided below.

$$HVF = \sqrt{\sum_{h=2}^{13} \frac{U_h}{h^2}} \leq 0.02$$

Example

A supply voltage has a fundamental voltage U_1 and harmonic voltages $u_3 = 2\%$ of U_1 , $u_5 = 3\%$, $u_7 = 1\%$. The THDu is 3.7% and the MVF is 0.018. The MVF value is very close to the maximum value above which the machine must be derated. Practically speaking, for supply to the machine, a THDu of 10% must not be exceeded.

Capacitors

According to IEC 60831-1 standard, the rms current flowing in the capacitors must not exceed 1.3 times the rated current.

Using the example mentioned above, the fundamental voltage U_1 , harmonic voltages $u_5 = 8\%$ (of U_1), $u_7 = 5\%$, $u_{11} = 3\%$, $u_{13} = 1\%$, i.e. total harmonic

distortion THDu equal to 10%, the result is $\frac{I_{rms}}{I_1} = 1.19$, at the rated voltage. For a voltage equal to 1.1 times the rated voltage, the current limit $\frac{I_{rms}}{I_1} = 1.3$ is reached and it is necessary to resize the capacitors.

(1) In fact, the current waveform is similar to a rectangular waveform. This is the case for all current rectifiers (three-phase rectifiers, induction furnaces).

4 Main effects of harmonics in installations

Neutral conductors

Consider a system made up of a balanced three-phase source and three identical single-phase loads connected between the phases and the neutral (see Fig. M10).

Figure M11 shows an example of the currents flowing in the three phases and the resulting current in the neutral conductor.

In this example, the current in the neutral conductor has an rms value that is higher than the rms value of the current in a phase by a factor equal to the square root of 3. The neutral conductor must therefore be sized accordingly.

M9

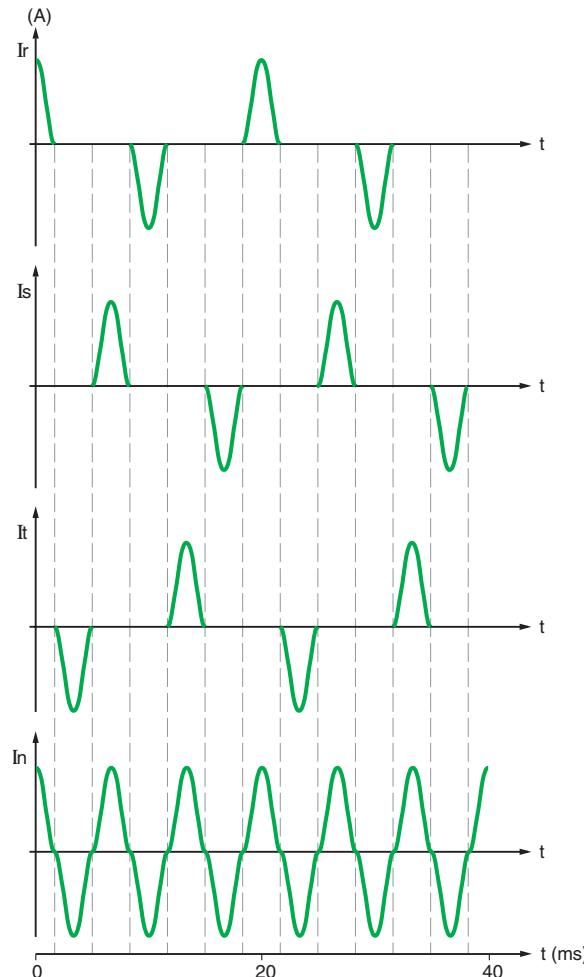


Fig. M11 : Example of the currents flowing in the various conductors connected to a three-phase load ($I_n = I_r + I_s + I_t$)

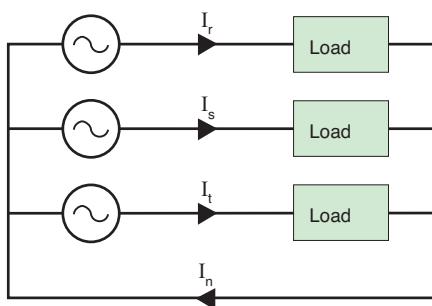


Fig. M10 : Flow of currents in the various conductors connected to a three-phase source

4.4 Disturbances affecting sensitive loads

Effects of distortion in the supply voltage

Distortion of the supply voltage can disturb the operation of sensitive devices:

- Regulation devices (temperature)
- Computer hardware
- Control and monitoring devices (protection relays)

Distortion of telephone signals

Harmonics cause disturbances in control circuits (low current levels). The level of distortion depends on the distance that the power and control cables run in parallel, the distance between the cables and the frequency of the harmonics.

4 Main effects of harmonics in installations

4.5 Economic impact

Energy losses

Harmonics cause additional losses (Joule effect) in conductors and equipment.

Higher subscription costs

The presence of harmonic currents can require a higher subscribed power level and consequently higher costs.

What is more, utilities will be increasingly inclined to charge customers for major sources of harmonics.

Oversizing of equipment

- Derating of power sources (generators, transformers and UPSs) means they must be oversized
- Conductors must be sized taking into account the flow of harmonic currents. In addition, due to the skin effect, the resistance of these conductors increases with frequency. To avoid excessive losses due to the Joule effect, it is necessary to oversize conductors
- Flow of harmonics in the neutral conductor means that it must be oversized as well

Reduced service life of equipment

When the level of distortion in the supply voltage approaches 10%, the duration of the service life of equipment is significantly reduced. The reduction has been estimated at:

- 32.5% for single-phase machines
- 18% for three-phase machines
- 5% for transformers

To maintain the service lives corresponding to the rated load, equipment must be oversized.

Nuisance tripping and installation shutdown

Circuit-breakers in the installation are subjected to current peaks caused by harmonics.

These current peaks cause nuisance tripping with the resulting production losses, as well as the costs corresponding to the time required to start the installation up again.

Examples

Given the economic consequences for the installations mentioned below, it was necessary to install harmonic filters.

Computer centre for an insurance company

In this centre, nuisance tripping of a circuit-breaker was calculated to have cost 100 k€ per hour of down time.

Pharmaceutical laboratory

Harmonics caused the failure of a generator set and the interruption of a long-duration test on a new medication. The consequences were a loss estimated at 17 M€.

Metallurgy factory

A set of induction furnaces caused the overload and destruction of three transformers ranging from 1500 to 2500 kVA over a single year. The cost of the interruptions in production were estimated at 20 k€ per hour.

Factory producing garden furniture

The failure of variable-speed drives resulted in production shutdowns estimated at 10 k€ per hour.

5 Essential indicators of harmonic distortion and measurement principles

A number of indicators are used to quantify and evaluate the harmonic distortion in current and voltage waveforms, namely:

- Power factor
- Crest factor
- Distortion power
- Harmonic spectrum
- Harmonic-distortion values

These indicators are indispensable in determining any necessary corrective action.

5.1 Power factor

Definition

The power factor PF is the ratio between the active power P and the apparent power S.

$$PF = \frac{P}{S}$$

Among electricians, there is often confusion with:

$$\cos \varphi = \frac{P_1}{S_1}$$

Where

P₁ = active power of the fundamental

S₁ = apparent power of the fundamental

The cos φ concerns exclusively the fundamental frequency and therefore differs from the power factor PF when there are harmonics in the installation.

Interpreting the power factor

An initial indication that there are significant amounts of harmonics is a measured power factor PF that is different (lower) than the measured cos φ.

M11

5.2 Crest factor

Definition

The crest factor is the ratio between the value of the peak current or voltage (I_m or U_m) and its rms value.

- For a sinusoidal signal, the crest factor is therefore equal to $\sqrt{2}$.
- For a non-sinusoidal signal, the crest factor can be either greater than or less than $\sqrt{2}$.

In the latter case, the crest factor signals divergent peak values with respect to the rms value.

Interpretation of the crest factor

The typical crest factor for the current drawn by non-linear loads is much higher than $\sqrt{2}$. It is generally between 1.5 and 2 and can even reach 5 in critical cases. A high crest factor signals high transient overcurrents which, when detected by protection devices, can cause nuisance tripping.

5.3 Power values and harmonics

Active power

The active power P of a signal comprising harmonics is the sum of the active powers resulting from the currents and voltages of the same order.

Reactive power

Reactive power is defined exclusively in terms of the fundamental, i.e.

$$Q = U_1 \times I_1 \times \sin \varphi$$

Distortion power

When harmonics are present, the distortion power D is defined as
 $D = (S^2 - P^2 - Q^2)^{1/2}$ where S is the apparent power.

5.4 Harmonic spectrum and harmonic distortion

Principle

Each type of device causing harmonics draws a particular form of harmonic current (amplitude and phase displacement).

These values, notably the amplitude for each harmonic order, are essential for analysis.

Individual harmonic distortion (or harmonic distortion of order h)

The individual harmonic distortion is defined as the percentage of harmonics for order h with respect to the fundamental.

$$u_h(\%) = 100 \frac{U_h}{U_1}$$

or

$$i_h(\%) = 100 \frac{I_h}{I_1}$$

Harmonic spectrum

By representing the amplitude of each harmonic order with respect to its frequency, it is possible to obtain a graph called the harmonic spectrum.

Figure M12 shows an example of the harmonic spectrum for a rectangular signal.

Rms value

The rms value of the voltage and current can be calculated as a function of the rms value of the various harmonic orders.

$$I_{rms} = \sqrt{\sum_{h=1}^{\infty} I_h^2}$$

and

$$U_{rms} = \sqrt{\sum_{h=1}^{\infty} U_h^2}$$

5.5 Total harmonic distortion (THD)

The term THD means Total Harmonic Distortion and is a widely used notion in defining the level of harmonic content in alternating signals.

Definition of THD

For a signal y, the THD is defined as:

$$THD = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{h=2}^{\infty} y_h^2}}{y_1}$$

This complies with the definition given in standard IEC 61000-2-2.

Note that the value can exceed 1.

According to the standard, the variable h can be limited to 50. The THD is the means to express as a single number the distortion affecting a current or voltage flowing at a given point in the installation.

The THD is generally expressed as a percentage.

Current or voltage THD

For current harmonics, the equation is:

$$THD_i = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{h=2}^{\infty} I_h^2}}{I_1}$$

M12

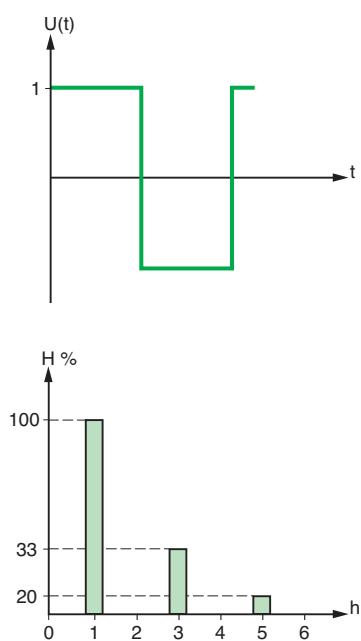


Fig. M12 : Harmonic spectrum of a rectangular signal, for a voltage $U(t)$

5 Essential indicators of harmonic distortion and measurement principles

The equation below is equivalent to the above, but easier and more direct when the total rms value is available:

$$\text{THD}_i = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{\text{rms}}}{I_1}\right)^2 - 1}$$

For voltage harmonics, the equation is:

$$\text{THD}_u = \sqrt{\sum_{h=2}^{\infty} U_h^2} / U_1$$

Relation between power factor and THD (see Fig. M13)

When the voltage is sinusoidal or virtually sinusoidal, it may be said that:

$$P \approx P_1 = U_1 I_1 \cos \varphi_1$$

$$\text{Consequently : } \text{PF} = \frac{P}{S} \approx \frac{U_1 I_1 \cos \varphi_1}{U_1 I_{\text{rms}}} = \frac{\cos \varphi_1}{\sqrt{1 + \text{THD}_i^2}}$$

$$\text{as: } \frac{I_1}{I_{\text{rms}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \text{THD}_i^2}}$$

$$\text{hence: } \text{PF} \approx \frac{\cos \varphi_1}{\sqrt{1 + \text{THD}_i^2}}$$

Figure M13 shows a graph of $\frac{\text{PF}}{\cos \varphi}$ as a function of THD_i .

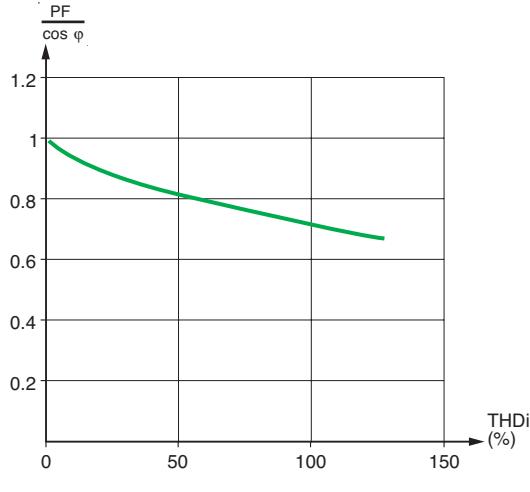


Fig. M13 : Variation in $\frac{\text{PF}}{\cos \varphi}$ as a function of the THD_i , where $\text{THD}_u = 0$

5.6 Usefulness of the various indicators

The THD_u characterises the distortion of the voltage wave.

Below are a number of THD_u values and the corresponding phenomena in the installation:

- THD_u under 5% - normal situation, no risk of malfunctions
- 5 to 8% - significant harmonic pollution, some malfunctions are possible
- Higher than 8% - major harmonic pollution, malfunctions are probable. In-depth analysis and the installation of attenuation devices are required

The THD_i characterises the distortion of the current wave.

The disturbing device is located by measuring the THD_i on the incomer and each outgoer of the various circuits and thus following the harmonic trail.

Below are a number of THD_i values and the corresponding phenomena in the installation:

- THD_i under 10% - normal situation, no risk of malfunctions
- 10 to 50% - significant harmonic pollution with a risk of temperature rise and the resulting need to oversize cables and sources
- Higher than 50% - major harmonic pollution, malfunctions are probable. In-depth analysis and the installation of attenuation devices are required

Power factor PF

Used to evaluate the necessary oversizing for the power source of the installation.

Crest factor

Used to characterise the aptitude of a generator (or UPS) to supply high instantaneous currents. For example, computer equipment draws highly distorted current for which the crest factor can reach 3 to 5.

Spectrum (decomposition of the signal into frequencies)

It provides a different representation of electrical signals and can be used to evaluate their distortion.

M13

6 Measuring the indicators

6.1 Devices used to measure the indicators

Device selection

The traditional observation and measurement methods include:

- Observations using an oscilloscope

An initial indication on the distortion affecting a signal can be obtained by viewing the current or the voltage on an oscilloscope.

The waveform, when it diverges from a sinusoidal, clearly indicates the presence of harmonics. Current and voltage peaks can be viewed.

Note, however, that this method does not offer precise quantification of the harmonic components

- Analogue spectral analysers

They are made up of passband filters coupled with an rms voltmeter. They offer mediocre performance and do not provide information on phase displacement.

Only the recent digital analysers can determine sufficiently precisely the values of all the mentioned indicators.

Functions of digital analysers

The microprocessors in digital analysers:

- Calculate the values of the harmonic indicators (power factor, crest factor, distortion power, THD)

- Carry out various complementary functions (corrections, statistical detection, measurement management, display, communication, etc.)

- In multi-channel analysers, supply virtually in real time the simultaneous spectral decomposition of the currents and voltages

Analyser operation and data processing

The analogue signals are converted into a series of numerical values.

Using this data, an algorithm implementing the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) calculates the amplitudes and the phases of the harmonics over a large number of time windows.

Most digital analysers measure harmonics up to order 20 or 25 when calculating the THD.

Processing of the successive values calculated using the FFT (smoothing, classification, statistics) can be carried out by the measurement device or by external software.

6.2 Procedures for harmonic analysis of distribution networks

Measurements are carried out on industrial or commercial site:

- Preventively, to obtain an overall idea on distribution-network status (network map)
- In view of corrective action:
 - To determine the origin of a disturbance and determine the solutions required to eliminate it
 - To check the validity of a solution (followed by modifications in the distribution network to check the reduction in harmonics)

Operating mode

The current and voltage are studied:

- At the supply source
- On the busbars of the main distribution switchboard (or on the MV busbars)
- On each outgoing circuit in the main distribution switchboard (or on the MV busbars)

For the measurements, it is necessary to know the precise operating conditions of the installation and particularly the status of the capacitor banks (operating, not operating, the number of disconnected steps).

Analysis results

- Determine any necessary derating of equipment in the installation or
- Quantify any necessary harmonic protection and filtering systems to be installed in the distribution network
- Enable comparison between the measured values and the reference values of the utility (maximum harmonic values, acceptable values, reference values)

6 Measuring the indicators

Use of measurement devices

Measurement devices serve to show both the instantaneous and long-term effects of harmonics. Analysis requires values spanning durations ranging from a few seconds to several minutes over observation periods of a number of days.

The required values include:

- The amplitudes of the harmonic currents and voltages
- The individual harmonic content of each harmonic order of the current and voltage
- The THD for the current and voltage
- Where applicable, the phase displacement between the harmonic voltage and current of the same harmonic order and the phase of the harmonics with respect to a common reference (e.g. the fundamental voltage)

6.3 Keeping a close eye on harmonics

The harmonic indicators can be measured:

- Either by devices permanently installed in the distribution network
- Or by an expert present at least a half day on the site (limited perception)

Permanent devices are preferable

For a number of reasons, the installation of permanent measurement devices in the distribution network is preferable.

- The presence of an expert is limited in time. Only a number of measurements at different points in the installation and over a sufficiently long period (one week to a month) provide an overall view of operation and take into account all the situations that can occur following:
 - Fluctuations in the supply source
 - Variations in the operation of the installation
 - The addition of new equipment in the installation
- Measurement devices installed in the distribution network prepare and facilitate the diagnosis of the experts, thus reducing the number and duration of their visits
- Permanent measurement devices detect any new disturbances arising following the installation of new equipment, the implementation of new operating modes or fluctuations in the supply network

Take advantage of built-in measurement and detection devices

Measurement and detection devices built into the electrical distribution equipment:

- For an overall evaluation of network status (preventive analysis), avoid:
 - Renting measurement equipment
 - Calling in experts
 - Having to connect and disconnect the measurement equipment.

For the overall evaluation of network status, the analysis on the main low-voltage distribution switchboards (MLVS) can often be carried out by the incoming device and/or the measurement devices equipping each outgoing circuit

- For corrective action, are the means to:
 - Determine the operating conditions at the time of the incident
 - Draw up a map of the distribution network and evaluate the implemented solution

The diagnosis is improved by the use of equipment intended for the studied problem.

M15

7 Detection devices

PowerLogic System with Power Meter and Circuit Monitor, Micrologic offer a complete range of devices for the detection of harmonic distortion

Measurements are the first step in gaining control over harmonic pollution. Depending on the conditions in each installation, different types of equipment provide the necessary solution.

Power-monitoring units

Power Meter and Circuit Monitor in the PowerLogic System

These products offer high-performance measurement capabilities for low and medium-voltage distribution networks. They are digital units that include power-quality monitoring functions.

PowerLogic System is a complete offer comprising Power Meter (PM) and Circuit Monitor (CM). This highly modular offer covers needs ranging from the most simple (Power Meter) up to highly complex requirements (Circuit Monitor). These products can be used in new or existing installations where the level of power quality must be excellent. The operating mode can be local and/or remote.

Depending on its position in the distribution network, a Power Meter provides an initial indication on power quality. The main measurements carried out by a Power Meter are:

- Current and voltage THD
- Power factor

Depending on the version, these measurements can be combined with time-stamping and alarm functions.

A Circuit Monitor (see Fig. M14) carries out a detailed analysis of power quality and also analyses disturbances on the distribution network. The main functions of a Circuit Monitor are:

- Measurement of over 100 electrical parameters
- Storage in memory and time-stamping of minimum and maximum values for each electrical parameter
- Alarm functions tripped by electrical parameter values
- Recording of event data
- Recording of current and voltage disturbances
- Harmonic analysis
- Waveform capture (disturbance monitoring)

Micrologic - a power-monitoring unit built into the circuit-breaker

For new installations, the Micrologic H control unit (see Fig. M15), an integral part of Masterpact power circuit-breakers, is particularly useful for measurements at the head of an installation or on large outgoing circuits.

The Micrologic H control unit offers precise analysis of power quality and detailed diagnostics on events. It is designed for operation in conjunction with a switchboard display unit or a supervisor. It can:

- Measure current, voltage, active and reactive power
- Measure current and voltage THD
- Display the amplitude and phase of current and voltage harmonics up to the 51st order
- Carry out waveform capture (disturbance monitoring)

The functions offered by the Micrologic H control unit are equivalent to those of a Circuit Monitor.

Operation of power-monitoring units

Software for remote operation and analysis

In the more general framework of a distribution network requiring monitoring, the possibility of interconnecting these various devices can be offered in a communication network, thus making it possible to centralise information and obtain an overall view of disturbances throughout the distribution network.

Depending on the application, the operator can then carry out measurements in real time, calculate demand values, run waveform captures, anticipate on alarms, etc.

The power-monitoring units transmit all the available data over either a Modbus, Digipact or Ethernet network.

The essential goal of this system is to assist in identifying and planning maintenance work. It is an effective means to reduce servicing time and the cost of temporarily installing devices for on-site measurements or the sizing of equipment (filters).

Supervision software SMS

SMS is a very complete software used to analyse distribution networks, in conjunction with the products in the PowerLogic System. Installed on a standard PC, it can:

- Display measurements in real time
- Display historical logs over a given period
- Select the manner in which data is presented (tables, various curves)
- Carry out statistical processing of data (display bar charts)



M16 Fig. M14 : Circuit monitor



Fig. M15 : Micrologic H control unit with harmonic metering for Masterpact NT and NW circuit-breakers

8 Solutions to attenuate harmonics

There are three different types of solutions to attenuate harmonics:

- Modifications in the installation
- Special devices in the supply system
- Filtering

8.1 Basic solutions

To limit the propagation of harmonics in the distribution network, different solutions are available and should be taken into account particularly when designing a new installation.

Position the non-linear loads upstream in the system

Overall harmonic disturbances increase as the short-circuit power decreases. All economic considerations aside, it is preferable to connect the non-linear loads as far upstream as possible (see **Fig. M16**).

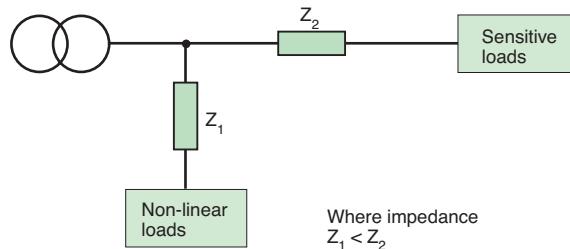


Fig. M16 : Non-linear loads positioned as far upstream as possible (recommended layout)

Group the non-linear loads

When preparing the single-line diagram, the non-linear devices should be separated from the others (see **Fig. M17**). The two groups of devices should be supplied by different sets of busbars.

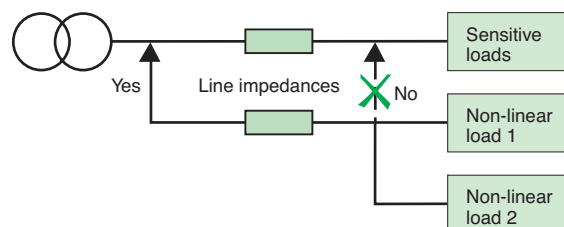


Fig. M17 : Grouping of non-linear loads and connection as far upstream as possible (recommended layout)

Create separate sources

In attempting to limit harmonics, an additional improvement can be obtained by creating a source via a separate transformer as indicated in the **Figure M18** next page.

The disadvantage is the increase in the cost of the installation.

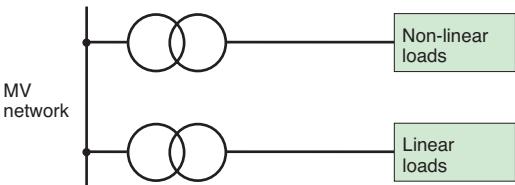


Fig. M18 : Supply of non-linear loads via a separate transformer

Transformers with special connections

Different transformer connections can eliminate certain harmonic orders, as indicated in the examples below:

- A Dyd connection suppresses 5th and 7th harmonics (see **Fig. M19**)
- A Dy connection suppresses the 3rd harmonic
- A DZ 5 connection suppresses the 5th harmonic

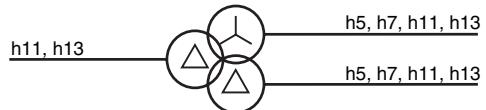


Fig. M19 : A Dyd transformer blocks propagation of the 5th and 7th harmonics to the upstream network

Install reactors

When variable-speed drives are supplied, it is possible to smooth the current by installing line reactors. By increasing the impedance of the supply circuit, the harmonic current is limited.

Installation of harmonic suppression reactors on capacitor banks increases the impedance of the reactor/capacitor combination for high-order harmonics.

This avoids resonance and protects the capacitors.

Select the suitable system earthing arrangement

TNC system

In the TNC system, a single conductor (PEN) provides protection in the event of an earth fault and the flow of unbalance currents.

Under steady-state conditions, the harmonic currents flow in the PEN. The latter, however, has a certain impedance with as a result slight differences in potential (a few volts) between devices that can cause electronic equipment to malfunction.

The TNC system must therefore be reserved for the supply of power circuits at the head of the installation and must not be used to supply sensitive loads.

TNS system

This system is recommended if harmonics are present.

The neutral conductor and the protection conductor PE are completely separate and the potential throughout the distribution network is therefore more uniform.

8.2 Harmonic filtering

In cases where the preventive action presented above is insufficient, it is necessary to equip the installation with filtering systems.

There are three types of filters:

- Passive
- Active
- Hybrid

8 Solutions to attenuate harmonics

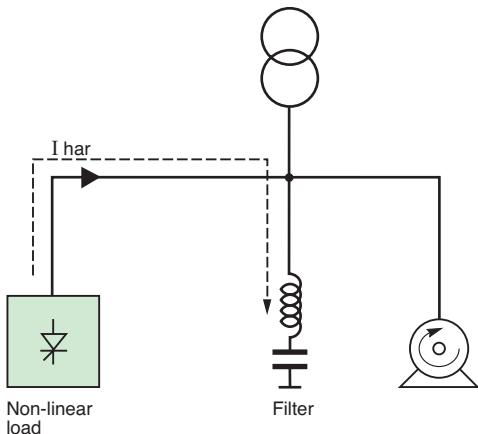


Fig. M20 : Operating principle of a passive filter

Passive filters

Typical applications

- Industrial installations with a set of non-linear loads representing more than 200 kVA (variable-speed drives, UPSs, rectifiers, etc.)
- Installations requiring power-factor correction
- Installations where voltage distortion must be reduced to avoid disturbing sensitive loads
- Installations where current distortion must be reduced to avoid overloads

Operating principle

An LC circuit, tuned to each harmonic order to be filtered, is installed in parallel with the non-linear load (see Fig. M20). This bypass circuit absorbs the harmonics, thus avoiding their flow in the distribution network.

Generally speaking, the passive filter is tuned to a harmonic order close to the order to be eliminated. Several parallel-connected branches of filters can be used if a significant reduction in the distortion of a number of harmonic orders is required.

Active filters (active harmonic conditioner)

Typical applications

- Commercial installations with a set of non-linear loads representing less than 200 kVA (variable-speed drives, UPSs, office equipment, etc.)
- Installations where current distortion must be reduced to avoid overloads.

Operating principle

These systems, comprising power electronics and installed in series or parallel with the non-linear load, compensate the harmonic current or voltage drawn by the load.

Figure M21 shows a parallel-connected active harmonic conditioner (AHC) compensating the harmonic current ($I_{har} = -I_{act}$).

The AHC injects in opposite phase the harmonics drawn by the non-linear load, such that the line current I_s remains sinusoidal.

Hybrid filters

Typical applications

- Industrial installations with a set of non-linear loads representing more than 200 kVA (variable-speed drives, UPSs, rectifiers, etc.)
- Installations requiring power-factor correction
- Installations where voltage distortion must be reduced to avoid disturbing sensitive loads
- Installations where current distortion must be reduced to avoid overloads
- Installations where strict limits on harmonic emissions must be met

Operating principle

Passive and active filters are combined in a single system to constitute a hybrid filter (see Fig. M22). This new filtering solution offers the advantages of both types of filters and covers a wide range of power and performance levels.

M19

Selection criteria

Passive filter

It offers both power-factor correction and high current-filtering capacity. Passive filters also reduce the harmonic voltages in installations where the supply voltage is disturbed. If the level of reactive power supplied is high, it is advised to turn off the passive filter at times when the percent load is low. Preliminary studies for a filter must take into account the possible presence of a power factor correction capacitor bank which may have to be eliminated.

Active harmonic conditioners

They filter harmonics over a wide range of frequencies and can adapt to any type of load.

On the other hand, power ratings are low.

Hybrid filters

They combine the performance of both active and passive filters.

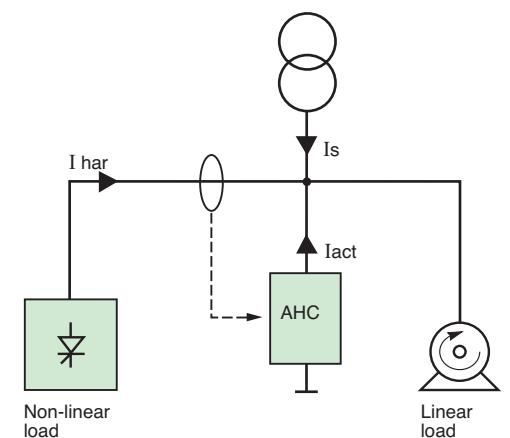


Fig. M21 : Operating principle of an active filter

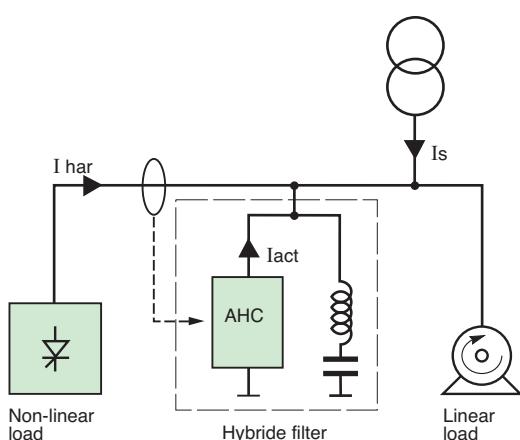


Fig. M22 : Operating principle of a hybrid filter

8 Solutions to attenuate harmonics

A complete set of services can be offered to eliminate harmonics:

- Installation analysis
- Measurement and monitoring systems
- Filtering solutions

8.3 The method

The best solution, in both technical and financial terms, is based on the results of an in-depth study.

Harmonic audit of MV and LV networks

By calling on an expert, you are guaranteed that the proposed solution will produce effective results (e.g. a guaranteed maximum THDu).

A harmonic audit is carried out by an engineer specialised in the disturbances affecting electrical distribution networks and equipped with powerful analysis and simulation equipment and software.

The steps in an audit are the following:

- Measurement of disturbances affecting current and phase-to-phase and phase-to-neutral voltages at the supply source, the disturbed outgoing circuits and the non-linear loads
- Computer modelling of the phenomena to obtain a precise explanation of the causes and determine the best solutions
- A complete audit report presenting:
 - The current levels of disturbances
 - The maximum permissible levels of disturbances (IEC 61000, IEC 34, etc.)
 - A proposal containing solutions with guaranteed levels of performance
 - Finally, implementation of the selected solution, using the necessary means and resources.

The entire audit process is certified ISO 9002.

8.4 Specific products

Passive filters

Passive filters are made up of coils and capacitors set up in resonant circuits tuned to the specific harmonic order that must be eliminated.

A system may comprise a number of filters to eliminate several harmonic orders.

Suitable for 400 V three-phase voltages, the power ratings can reach:

- 265 kvar / 470 A for harmonic order 5
- 145 kvar / 225 A for harmonic order 7
- 105 kvar / 145 A for harmonic order 11

Passive filters can be created for all voltage and current levels.

Active filters

- SineWave active harmonic conditioners
 - Suitable for 400 V three-phase voltages, they can deliver between 20 and 120 A per phase
 - SineWave covers all harmonic orders from 2 to 25. Conditioning can be total or target specific harmonic orders
 - Attenuation: THDi load / THDi upstream greater than 10 at rated capacity
 - Functions include power factor correction, conditioning of zero-sequence harmonics, diagnostics and maintenance system, parallel connection, remote control, Ibus/RS485 communication interface
- Accusine active filters
 - Suitable for 400 and 480 V three-phase voltages, they can filter between 50 and 30 A per phase
 - All harmonic orders up to 50 are filtered
 - Functions include power factor correction, parallel connection, instantaneous response to load variations

Hybrid filters

These filters combine the advantages of both a passive filter and the SineWave active harmonic conditioner in a single system.

Chapter N

Characteristics of particular sources and loads

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N1

1 Protection of a LV generator set and the downstream circuits

Most industrial and large commercial electrical installations include certain important loads for which a power supply must be maintained, in the event that the utility electrical supply fails:

- Either, because safety systems are involved (emergency lighting, automatic fire-protection equipment, smoke dispersal fans, alarms and signalization, and so on...) or
- Because it concerns priority circuits, such as certain equipment, the stoppage of which would entail a loss of production, or the destruction of a machine tool, etc.

One of the current means of maintaining a supply to the so-called "priority" loads, in the event that other sources fail, is to install a diesel generator set connected, via a change-over switch, to an emergency-power standby switchboard, from which the priority services are fed (see **Fig. N1**).

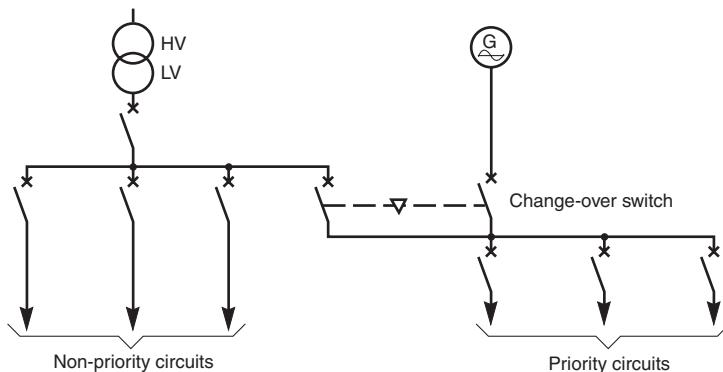


Fig N1 : Example of circuits supplied from a transformer or from an alternator

1.1 Generator protection

Figure N2 below shows the electrical sizing parameters of a Generator Set. P_n , U_n and I_n are, respectively, the power of the thermal motor, the rated voltage and the rated current of the generator.

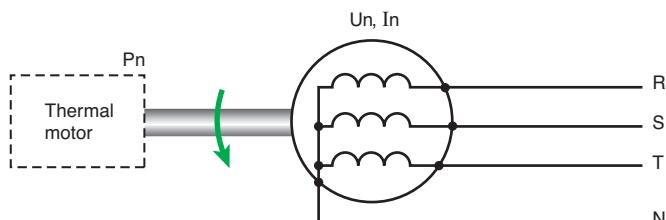


Fig N2 : Block diagram of a generator set

Overload protection

The generator protection curve must be analysed (see **Fig. N3**).

Standards and requirements of applications can also stipulate specific overload conditions. For example:

I/I_n	t
1.1	> 1 h
1.5	30 s

The setting possibilities of the overload protection devices (or Long Time Delay) will closely follow these requirements.

Note on overloads

- For economic reasons, the thermal motor of a replacement set may be strictly sized for its nominal power. If there is an active power overload, the diesel motor will stall. The active power balance of the priority loads must take this into account
- A production set must be able to withstand operating overloads:
 - One hour overload
 - One hour 10% overload every 12 hours (Prime Power)

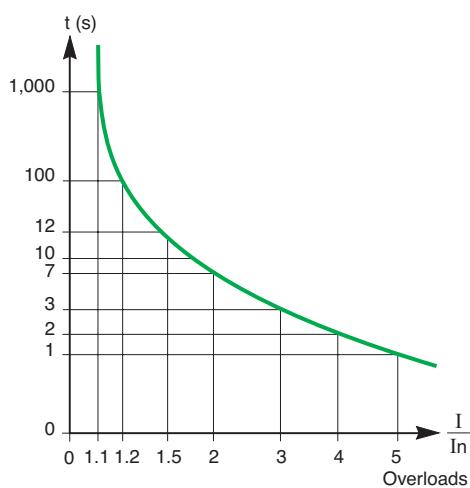


Fig N3 : Example of an overload curve $t = f(I/I_n)$

1 Protection of a LV generator set and the downstream circuits

Short-circuit current protection

Making the short-circuit current

The short-circuit current is the sum:

- Of an aperiodic current
- Of a damped sinusoidal current

The short-circuit current equation shows that it is composed of three successive phases (see Fig. N4).

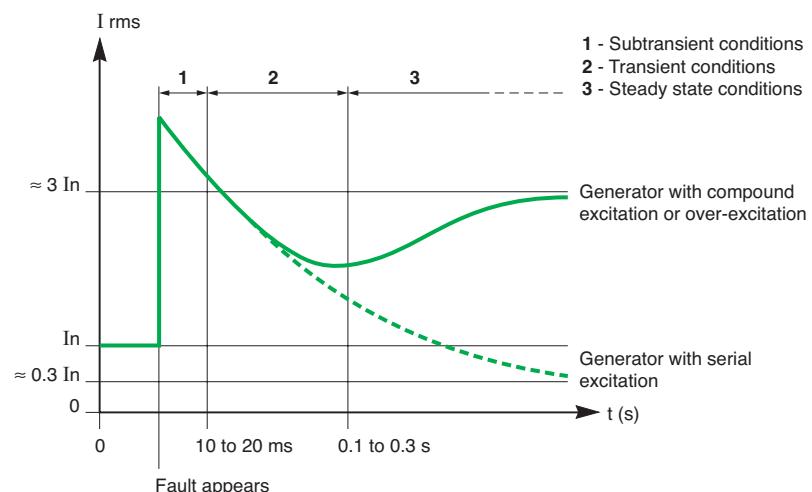


Fig N4 : Short-circuit current level during the 3 phases

■ Subtransient phase

When a short-circuit appears at the terminals of a generator, the current is first made at a relatively high value of around 6 to 12 I_n during the first cycle (0 to 20 ms).

The amplitude of the short-circuit output current is defined by three parameters:

- The subtransient reactance of the generator
- The level of excitation prior to the time of the fault and
- The impedance of the faulty circuit.

The short-circuit impedance of the generator to be considered is the subtransient reactance $x''d$ expressed in % by the manufacturer. The typical value is 10 to 15%. We determine the subtransient short-circuit impedance of the generator:

$$X''d(\text{ohms}) = \frac{U_n^2 x''d}{100 S} \quad \text{where } S = \sqrt{3} U_n I_n$$

■ Transient phase

The transient phase is placed 100 to 500 ms after the time of the fault. Starting from the value of the fault current of the subtransient period, the current drops to 1.5 to 2 times the current I_n .

The short-circuit impedance to be considered for this period is the transient reactance $x'd$ expressed in % by the manufacturer. The typical value is 20 to 30%.

■ Steady state phase

The steady state occurs after 500 ms.

When the fault persists, the output voltage collapses and the exciter regulation seeks to raise this output voltage. The result is a stabilised sustained short-circuit current:

- If generator excitation does not increase during a short-circuit (no field overexcitation) but is maintained at the level preceding the fault, the current stabilises at a value that is given by the synchronous reactance X_d of the generator. The typical value of X_d is greater than 200%. Consequently, the final current will be less than the full-load current of the generator, normally around 0.5 I_n .
- If the generator is equipped with maximum field excitation (field overriding) or with compound excitation, the excitation "surge" voltage will cause the fault current to increase for 10 seconds, normally to 2 to 3 times the full-load current of the generator.

N3

Calculating the short-circuit current

Manufacturers normally specify the impedance values and time constants required for analysis of operation in transient or steady state conditions (see Fig. N5).

(kVA)	75	200	400	800	1,600	2,500
x''d	10.5	10.4	12.9	10.5	18.8	19.1
x'd	21	15.6	19.4	18	33.8	30.2
xd	280	291	358	280	404	292

Fig N5 : Example of impedance table (in %)

Resistances are always negligible compared with reactances. The parameters for the short-circuit current study are:

- Value of the short-circuit current at generator terminals
Short-circuit current amplitude in transient conditions is:

$$I_{sc3} = \frac{In}{X'd} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \quad (X'd \text{ in ohms})$$

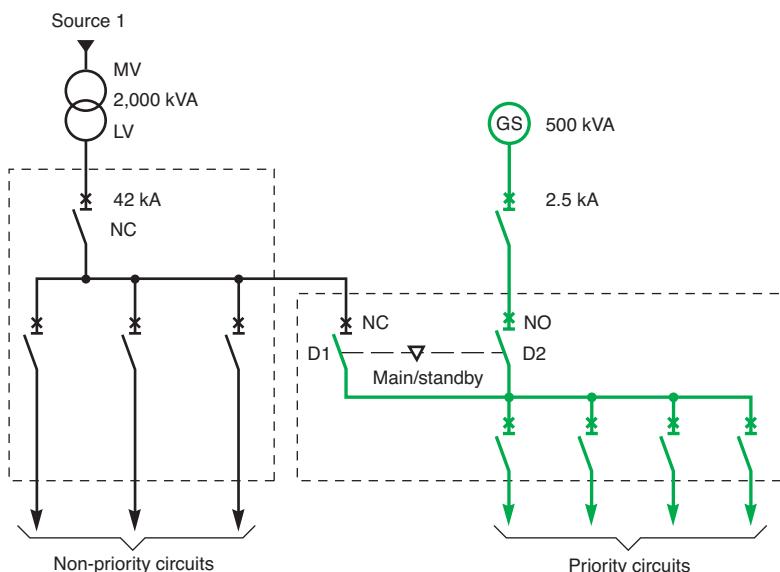
or

$$I_{sc3} = \frac{In}{x'd} 100 \quad (x'd \text{ in \%})$$

Un is the generator phase-to-phase output voltage.

Note: This value can be compared with the short-circuit current at the terminals of a transformer. Thus, for the same power, currents in event of a short-circuit close to a generator will be 5 to 6 times weaker than those that may occur with a transformer (main source).

This difference is accentuated still further by the fact that generator set power is normally less than that of the transformer (see Fig. N6).



NC: Normally closed
NO: Normally open

Fig N6 : Example of a priority services switchboard supplied (in an emergency) from a standby generator set

When the LV network is supplied by the Main source 1 of 2,000 kVA, the short-circuit current is 42 kA at the main LV board busbar. When the LV network is supplied by the Replacement Source 2 of 500 kVA with transient reactance of 30%, the short-circuit current is made at approx. 2.5 kA, i.e. at a value 16 times weaker than with the Main source.

1 Protection of a LV generator set and the downstream circuits

1.2 Downstream LV network protection

Priority circuit protection

Choice of breaking capacity

This must be systematically checked with the characteristics of the main source (MV/LV transformer).

Setting of the Short Time Delay (STD) tripping current

■ Subdistribution boards

The ratings of the protection devices for the subdistribution and final distribution circuits are always lower than the generator rated current. Consequently, except in special cases, conditions are the same as with transformer supply.

■ Main LV switchboard

□ The sizing of the main feeder protection devices is normally similar to that of the generator set. Setting of the STD must allow for the short-circuit characteristic of the generator set (see "Short-circuit current protection" before)

□ Discrimination of protection devices on the priority feeders must be provided in generator set operation (it can even be compulsory for safety feeders). It is necessary to check proper staggering of STD setting of the protection devices of the main feeders with that of the subdistribution protection devices downstream (normally set for distribution circuits at 10 In).

Note: When operating on the generator set, use of a low sensitivity Residual Current Device enables management of the insulation fault and ensures very simple discrimination.

Safety of people

In the IT (2nd fault) and TN grounding systems, protection of people against indirect contacts is provided by the STD protection of circuit-breakers. Their operation on a fault must be ensured, whether the installation is supplied by the main source (Transformer) or by the replacement source (generator set).

Calculating the insulation fault current

Zero-sequence reactance formulated as a% of U_o by the manufacturer x'o.

The typical value is 8%.

The phase-to-neutral single-phase short-circuit current is given by:

$$If = \frac{U_n \sqrt{3}}{2 X'd + X'o}$$

The insulation fault current in the TN system is slightly greater than the three phase fault current. For example, in event of an insulation fault on the system in the previous example, the insulation fault current is equal to 3 kA.

1.3 The monitoring functions

Due to the specific characteristics of the generator and its regulation, the proper operating parameters of the generator set must be monitored when special loads are implemented.

N5

The behaviour of the generator is different from that of the transformer:

- The active power it supplies is optimised for a power factor = 0.8
- At less than power factor 0.8, the generator may, by increased excitation, supply part of the reactive power

Capacitor bank

An off-load generator connected to a capacitor bank may self-excite, consequently increasing its overvoltage.

The capacitor banks used for power factor regulation must therefore be disconnected. This operation can be performed by sending the stopping setpoint to the regulator (if it is connected to the system managing the source switchings) or by opening the circuit-breaker supplying the capacitors.

If capacitors continue to be necessary, do not use regulation of the power factor relay in this case (incorrect and over-slow setting).

Motor restart and re-acceleration

A generator can supply at most in transient period a current of between 3 and 5 times its nominal current.

A motor absorbs roughly 6 In for 2 to 20 s during start-up.

If the sum of the motor power is high, simultaneous start-up of loads generates a high pick-up current that can be damaging. A large voltage drop, due to the high value of the generator transient and subtransient reactances will occur (20% to 30%), with a risk of:

- Non-starting of motors
- Temperature rise linked to the prolonged starting time due to the voltage drop
- Tripping of the thermal protection devices

Moreover, all the network and actuators are disturbed by the voltage drop.

Application (see Fig. N7)

A generator supplies a set of motors.

Generator characteristics: $P_n = 130 \text{ kVA}$ at a power factor of 0.8,

$I_n = 150 \text{ A}$

$x'd = 20\%$ (for example) hence $I_{sc} = 750 \text{ A}$.

- The $\sum P_{motors}$ is 45 kW (45% of generator power)

Calculating voltage drop at start-up:

$\sum P_{Motors} = 45 \text{ kW}$, $I_m = 81 \text{ A}$, hence a starting current $I_d = 480 \text{ A}$ for 2 to 20 s.

Voltage drop on the busbar for simultaneous motor starting:

$$\frac{\Delta U}{U} = \left(\frac{I_d - I_n}{I_{sc} - I_n} \right) \text{ in \%}$$

$$\Delta U = 55\%$$

which is not tolerable for motors (failure to start).

- the $\sum P_{motors}$ is 20 kW (20% of generator power)

Calculating voltage drop at start-up:

$\sum P_{Motors} = 20 \text{ kW}$, $I_m = 35 \text{ A}$, hence a starting current $I_d = 210 \text{ A}$ for 2 to 20 s.

Voltage drop on the busbar:

$$\frac{\Delta U}{U} = \left(\frac{I_d - I_n}{I_{sc} - I_n} \right) \text{ in \%}$$

$$\Delta U = 10\%$$

which is high but tolerable (depending on the type of loads).

N6

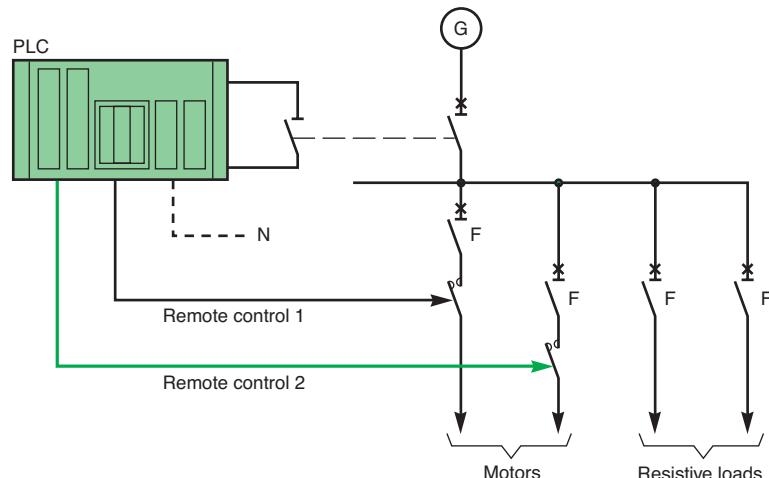


Fig N7 : Restarting of priority motors ($\sum P > 1/3 P_n$)

Restarting tips

■ If the P_{max} of the largest motor $> \frac{1}{3} P_n$, a soft starter must be installed on this motor

■ If $\sum P_{motors} > \frac{1}{3} P_n$, motor cascade restarting must be managed by a PLC

■ If $\sum P_{motors} < \frac{1}{3} P_n$, there are no restarting problems

1 Protection of a LV generator set and the downstream circuits

Non-linear loads – Example of a UPS

Non-linear loads

These are mainly:

- Saturated magnetic circuits
- Discharge lamps, fluorescent lights
- Electronic converters
- Information Technology Equipment: PC, computers, etc.

These loads generate harmonic currents: supplied by a Generator Set, this can create high voltage distortion due to the low short-circuit power of the generator.

Uninterruptible Power Supply (UPS) (see Fig. N8)

The combination of a UPS and generator set is the best solution for ensuring quality power supply with long autonomy for the supply of sensitive loads.

It is also a non-linear load due to the input rectifier. On source switching, the autonomy of the UPS on battery must allow starting and connection of the Generator Set.

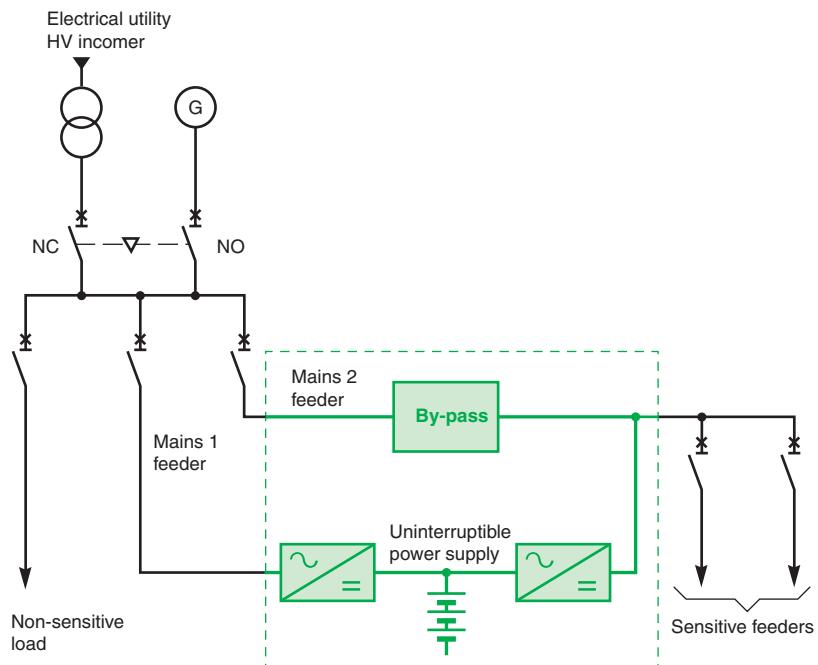


Fig N8 : Generator set- UPS combination for Quality energy

N7

UPS power

UPS inrush power must allow for:

- Nominal power of the downstream loads. This is the sum of the apparent powers Pa absorbed by each application. Furthermore, so as not to oversize the installation, the overload capacities at UPS level must be considered (for example: 1.5 In for 1 minute and 1.25 In for 10 minutes)
- The power required to recharge the battery: This current is proportional to the autonomy required for a given power. The sizing Sr of a UPS is given by:
$$Sr = 1.17 \times Pn$$

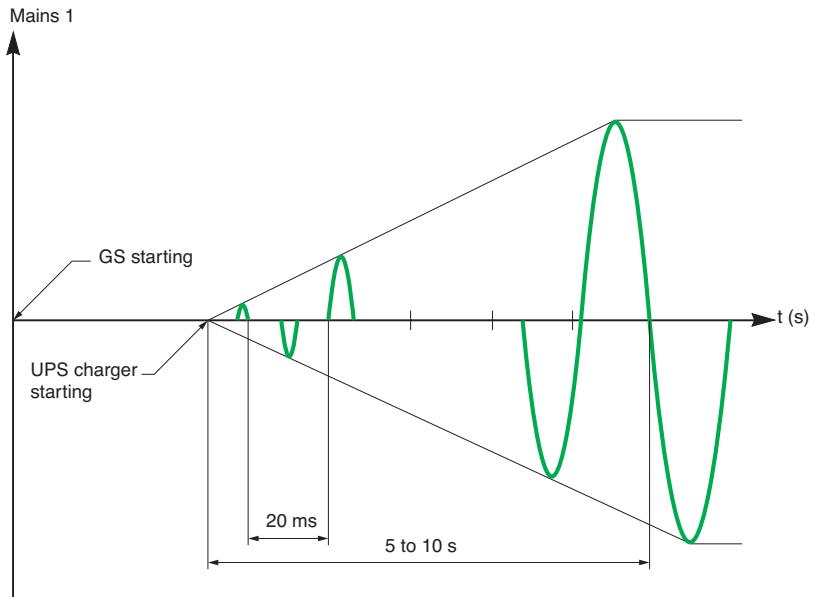
Figure N9 next page defines the pick-up currents and protection devices for supplying the rectifier (Mains 1) and the standby mains (Mains 2).

Nominal power Pn (kVA)	Current value (A) Mains 1 with 3Ph battery 400 V - I1	Mains 2 or 3Ph application 400 V - Iu
40	86	60.5
60	123	91
80	158	121
100	198	151
120	240	182
160	317	243
200	395	304
250	493	360
300	590	456
400	793	608
500	990	760
600	1,180	912
800	1,648	1,215

Fig N9 : Pick-up current for supplying the rectifier and standby mains**Generator Set/UPS combination**

■ Restarting the Rectifier on a Generator Set

The UPS rectifier can be equipped with a progressive starting of the charger to prevent harmful pick-up currents when installation supply switches to the Generator Set (see **Fig. N10**).

**Fig N10 :** Progressive starting of a type 2 UPS rectifier

■ Harmonics and voltage distortion

Total voltage distortion τ is defined by:

$$\tau(\%) = \frac{\sqrt{\sum U_h^2}}{U_1}$$

where U_h is the harmonic voltage of order h .

This value depends on:

- The harmonic currents generated by the rectifier (proportional to the power S_r of the rectifier)
- The longitudinal subtransient reactance $X''d$ of the generator
- The power S_g of the generator

We define $U'R_{cc}(\%) = X''d \frac{S_r}{S_g}$ the generator relative short-circuit voltage, brought to rectifier power, i.e. $t = f(U'R_{cc})$.

1 Protection of a LV generator set and the downstream circuits

Note 1: As subtransient reactance is great, harmonic distortion is normally too high compared with the tolerated value (7 to 8%) for reasonable economic sizing of the generator: use of a suitable filter is an appropriate and cost-effective solution.

Note 2: Harmonic distortion is not harmful for the rectifier but may be harmful for the other loads supplied in parallel with the rectifier.

Application

A chart is used to find the distortion τ as a function of $U'R_{cc}$ (see Fig. N11).

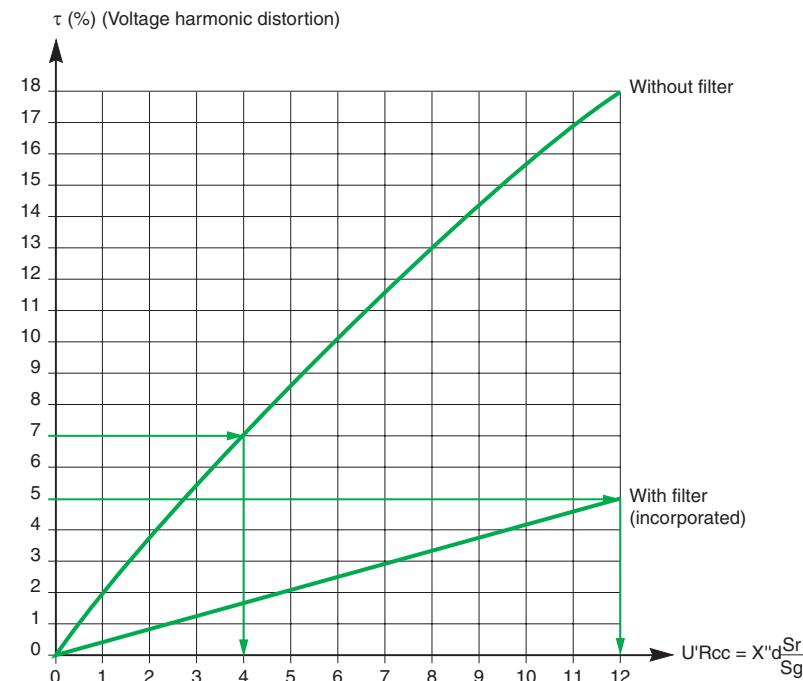


Fig N11 : Chart for calculating harmonic distortion

The chart gives:

- Either τ as a function of $U'R_{cc}$
- Or $U'R_{cc}$ as a function of τ

From which generator set sizing, S_g , is determined.

Example: Generator sizing

- 300 kVA UPS without filter, subtransient reactance of 15%

The power S_r of the rectifier is $S_r = 1.17 \times 300 \text{ kVA} = 351 \text{ kVA}$

For a $\tau < 7\%$, the chart gives $U'R_{cc} = 4\%$, power S_g is:

$$S_g = 351 \times \frac{15}{4} \approx 1,400 \text{ kVA}$$

- 300 kVA UPS with filter, subtransient reactance of 15%

For $\tau = 5\%$, the calculation gives $U'R_{cc} = 12\%$, power S_g is:

$$S_g = 351 \times \frac{15}{12} \approx 500 \text{ kVA}$$

Note: With an upstream transformer of 630 kVA on the 300 kVA UPS without filter, the 5% ratio would be obtained.

The result is that operation on generator set must be continually monitored for harmonic currents.

If voltage harmonic distortion is too great, use of a filter on the network is the most effective solution to bring it back to values that can be tolerated by sensitive loads.

N9

1 Protection of a LV generator set and the downstream circuits

1.4 Generator Set parallel-connection

Parallel-connection of the generator set irrespective of the application type - Safety source, Replacement source or Production source - requires finer management of connection, i.e. additional monitoring functions.

Parallel operation

As generator sets generate energy in parallel on the same load, they must be synchronised properly (voltage, frequency) and load distribution must be balanced properly. This function is performed by the regulator of each Generator Set (thermal and excitation regulation). The parameters (frequency, voltage) are monitored before connection: if the values of these parameters are correct, connection can take place.

Insulation faults (see Fig. N12)

An insulation fault inside the metal casing of a generator set may seriously damage the generator of this set if the latter resembles a phase-to-neutral short-circuit. The fault must be detected and eliminated quickly, else the other generators will generate energy in the fault and trip on overload: installation continuity of supply will no longer be guaranteed. Ground Fault Protection (GFP) built into the generator circuit is used to:

- Quickly disconnect the faulty generator and preserve continuity of supply
- Act at the faulty generator control circuits to stop it and reduce the risk of damage

This GFP is of the "Residual Sensing" type and must be installed as close as possible to the protection device as per a TN-C/TN-S⁽¹⁾ system at each generator set with grounding of frames by a separate PE. This kind of protection is usually called "Restricted Earth Fault".

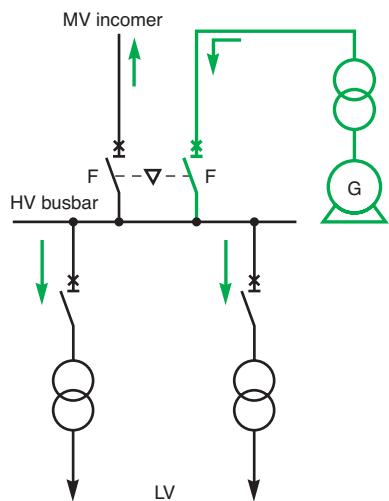


Fig N13 : Energy transfer direction – Generator Set as a generator

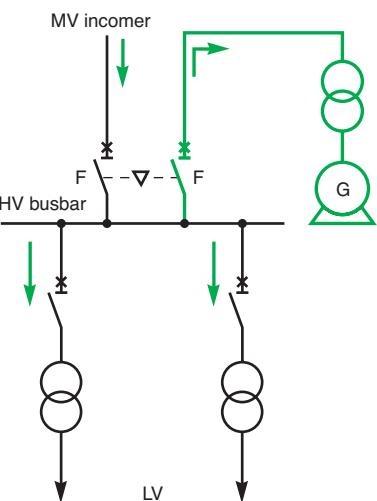


Fig N14 : Energy transfer direction – Generator Set as a load

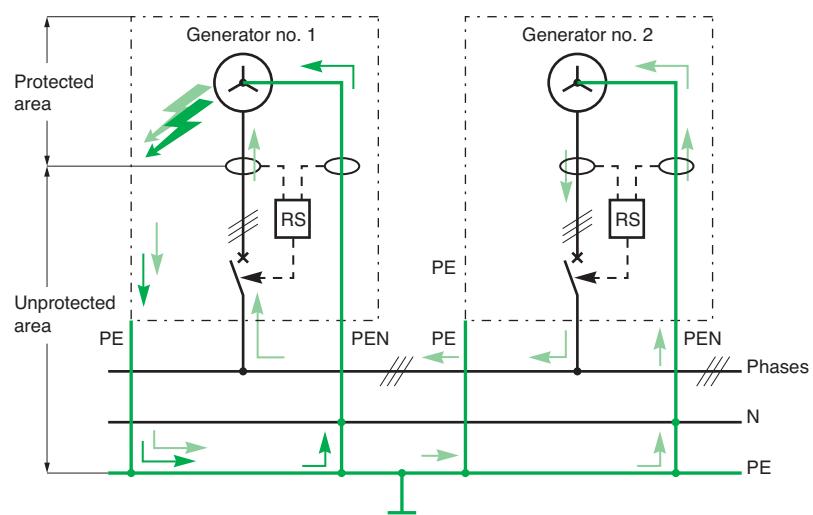


Fig N12 : Insulation fault inside a generator

Generator Set operating as a load (see Fig. N13 and Fig. N14)

One of the parallel-connected generator sets may no longer operate as a generator but as a motor (by loss of its excitation for example). This may generate overloading of the other generator set(s) and thus place the electrical installation out of operation.

To check that the generator set really is supplying the installation with power (operation as a generator), the proper flow direction of energy on the coupling busbar must be checked using a specific "reverse power" check. Should a fault occur, i.e. the set operates as a motor, this function will eliminate the faulty set.

Grounding parallel-connected Generator Sets

Grounding of connected generator sets may lead to circulation of earth fault currents (tripole harmonics) by connection of neutrals for common grounding (grounding system of the TN or TT type). Consequently, to prevent these currents from flowing between the generator sets, we recommend the installation of a decoupling resistance in the grounding circuit.

(1) The system is in TN-C for sets seen as the "generator" and in TN-S for sets seen as "loads"

2 Uninterruptible Power Supply units (UPS)

2.1 Availability and quality of electrical power

The disturbances presented above may affect:

- Safety of human life
- Safety of property
- The economic viability of a company or production process

Disturbances must therefore be eliminated.

A number of technical solutions contribute to this goal, with varying degrees of effectiveness. These solutions may be compared on the basis of two criteria:

- Availability of the power supplied
- Quality of the power supplied

The availability of electrical power can be thought of as the time per year that power is present at the load terminals. Availability is mainly affected by power interruptions due to utility outages or electrical faults.

A number of solutions exist to limit the risk:

- Division of the installation so as to use a number of different sources rather than just one
- Subdivision of the installation into priority and non-priority circuits, where the supply of power to priority circuits can be picked up if necessary by another available source
- Load shedding, as required, so that a reduced available power rating can be used to supply standby power
- Selection of a system earthing arrangement suited to service-continuity goals, e.g. IT system
- Discrimination of protection devices (selective tripping) to limit the consequences of a fault to a part of the installation

Note that the only way of ensuring availability of power with respect to utility outages is to provide, in addition to the above measures, an autonomous alternate source, at least for priority loads (see **Fig. N15**).

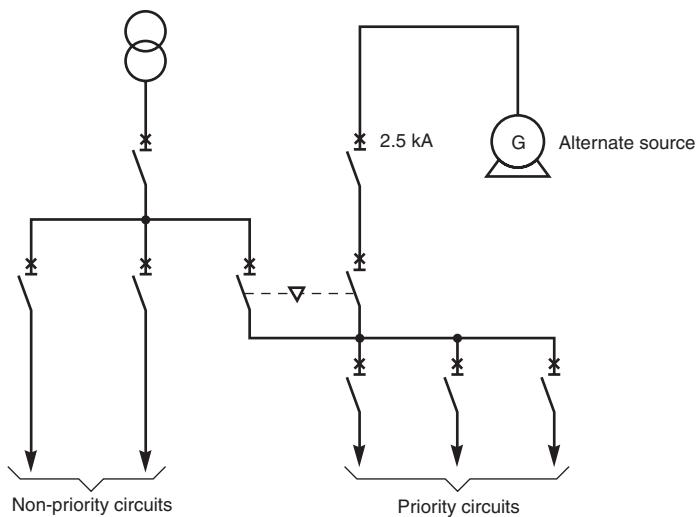


Fig. N15 : Availability of electrical power

N11

This source takes over from the utility in the event of a problem, but two factors must be taken into account:

- The transfer time (time required to take over from the utility) which must be acceptable to the load
- The operating time during which it can supply the load

The quality of electrical power is determined by the elimination of the disturbances at the load terminals.

An alternate source is a means to ensure the availability of power at the load terminals, however, it does not guarantee, in many cases, the quality of the power supplied with respect to the above disturbances.

Today, many sensitive electronic applications require an electrical power supply which is virtually free of these disturbances, to say nothing of outages, with tolerances that are stricter than those of the utility.

This is the case, for example, for computer centers, telephone exchanges and many industrial-process control and monitoring systems.

These applications require solutions that ensure both the availability and quality of electrical power.

The UPS solution

The solution for sensitive applications is to provide a power interface between the utility and the sensitive loads, providing voltage that is:

- Free of all disturbances present in utility power and in compliance with the strict tolerances required by loads
 - Available in the event of a utility outage, within specified tolerances
- UPSs (Uninterruptible Power Supplies) satisfy these requirements in terms of power availability and quality by:
- Supplying loads with voltage complying with strict tolerances, through use of an inverter
 - Providing an autonomous alternate source, through use of a battery
 - Stepping in to replace utility power with no transfer time, i.e. without any interruption in the supply of power to the load, through use of a static switch

These characteristics make UPSs the ideal power supply for all sensitive applications because they ensure power quality and availability, whatever the state of utility power.

A UPS comprises the following main components:

- Rectifier/charger, which produces DC power to charge a battery and supply an inverter
- Inverter, which produces quality electrical power, i.e.
- Free of all utility-power disturbances, notably micro-outages
- Within tolerances compatible with the requirements of sensitive electronic devices (e.g. for Galaxy, tolerances in amplitude $\pm 0.5\%$ and frequency $\pm 1\%$, compared to $\pm 10\%$ and $\pm 5\%$ in utility power systems, which correspond to improvement factors of 20 and 5, respectively)
- Battery, which provides sufficient backup time (8 minutes to 1 hour or more) to ensure the safety of life and property by replacing the utility as required
- Static switch, a semi-conductor based device which transfers the load from the inverter to the utility and back, without any interruption in the supply of power

2.2 Types of static UPSs

Types of static UPSs are defined by standard IEC 62040.

The standard distinguishes three operating modes:

- Passive standby (also called off-line)
- Line interactive
- Double conversion (also called on-line)

These definitions concern UPS operation with respect to the power source including the distribution system upstream of the UPS.

Standard IEC 62040 defines the following terms:

- Primary power: power normally continuously available which is usually supplied by an electrical utility company, but sometimes by the user's own generation
- Standby power: power intended to replace the primary power in the event of primary-power failure
- Bypass power: power supplied via the bypass

Practically speaking, a UPS is equipped with two AC inputs, which are called the normal AC input and bypass AC input in this guide.

- The normal AC input, noted as mains input 1, is supplied by the primary power, i.e. by a cable connected to a feeder on the upstream utility or private distribution system
- The bypass AC input, noted as mains input 2, is generally supplied by standby power, i.e. by a cable connected to an upstream feeder other than the one supplying the normal AC input, backed up by an alternate source (e.g. by an engine-generator set or another UPS, etc.)

When standby power is not available, the bypass AC input is supplied with primary power (second cable parallel to the one connected to the normal AC input).

The bypass AC input is used to supply the bypass line(s) of the UPS, if they exist. Consequently, the bypass line(s) is supplied with primary or standby power, depending on the availability of a standby-power source.

2 Uninterruptible Power Supply units (UPS)

UPS operating in passive-standby (off-line) mode

Operating principle

The inverter is connected in parallel with the AC input in a standby (see Fig. N16).

■ Normal mode

The load is supplied by utility power via a filter which eliminates certain disturbances and provides some degree of voltage regulation (the standard speaks of "additional devices...to provide power conditioning"). The inverter operates in passive standby mode.

■ Battery backup mode

When the AC input voltage is outside specified tolerances for the UPS or the utility power fails, the inverter and the battery step in to ensure a continuous supply of power to the load following a very short (<10 ms) transfer time.

The UPS continues to operate on battery power until the end of battery backup time or the utility power returns to normal, which provokes transfer of the load back to the AC input (normal mode).

Usage

This configuration is in fact a compromise between an acceptable level of protection against disturbances and cost. It can be used only with low power ratings (< 2 kVA). It operates without a real static switch, so a certain time is required to transfer the load to the inverter. This time is acceptable for certain individual applications, but incompatible with the performance required by more sophisticated, sensitive systems (large computer centers, telephone exchanges, etc.).

What is more, the frequency is not regulated and there is no bypass.

Note: In normal mode, the power supplying the load does not flow through the inverter, which explains why this type of UPS is sometimes called "Off-line". This term is misleading, however, because it also suggests "not supplied by utility power", when in fact the load is supplied by the utility via the AC input during normal operation. That is why standard IEC 62040 recommends the term "passive standby".

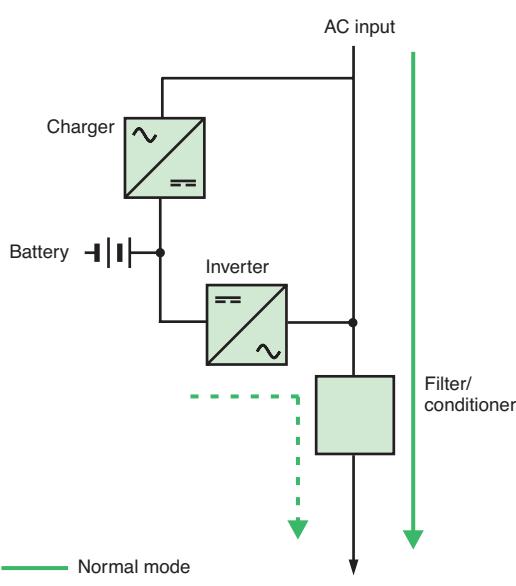


Fig. N16 : UPS operating in passive standby mode

N13

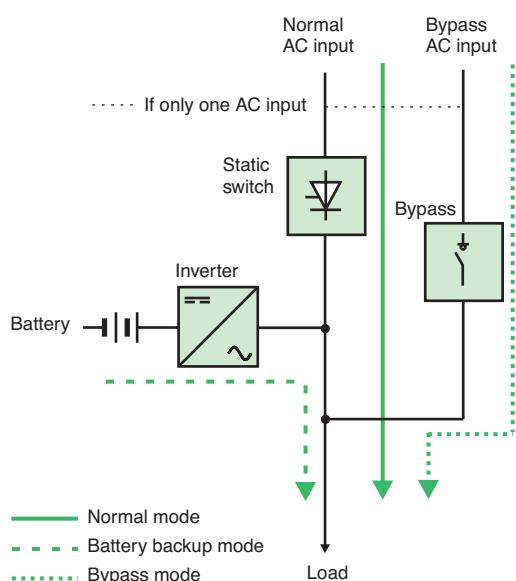


Fig. N17 : UPS operating in line-interactive mode

UPS operating in double-conversion (on-line) mode

Operating principle

The inverter is connected in series between the AC input and the application.

■ Normal mode

During normal operation, all the power supplied to the load passes through the rectifier/charger and inverter which together perform a double conversion (AC-DC-AC), hence the name.

■ Battery backup mode

When the AC input voltage is outside specified tolerances for the UPS or the utility power fails, the inverter and the battery step in to ensure a continuous supply of power to the load following a transfer without interruption using a static switch. The UPS continues to operate on battery power until the end of battery backup time or utility power returns to normal, which provokes transfer of the load back to the AC input (normal mode).

■ Bypass mode

This type of UPS is generally equipped with a static bypass, sometimes referred to as a static switch (see **Fig. N18**).

The load can be transferred without interruption to the bypass AC input (supplied with utility or standby power, depending on the installation), in the event of the following:

- UPS failure
- Load-current transients (inrush or fault currents)
- Load peaks

However, the presence of a bypass assumes that the input and output frequencies are identical and if the voltage levels are not the same, a bypass transformer is required.

For certain loads, the UPS must be synchronized with the bypass power to ensure load-supply continuity. What is more, when the UPS is in bypass mode, a disturbance on the AC input source may be transmitted directly to the load because the inverter no longer steps in.

Note: Another bypass line, often called the maintenance bypass, is available for maintenance purposes. It is closed by a manual switch.

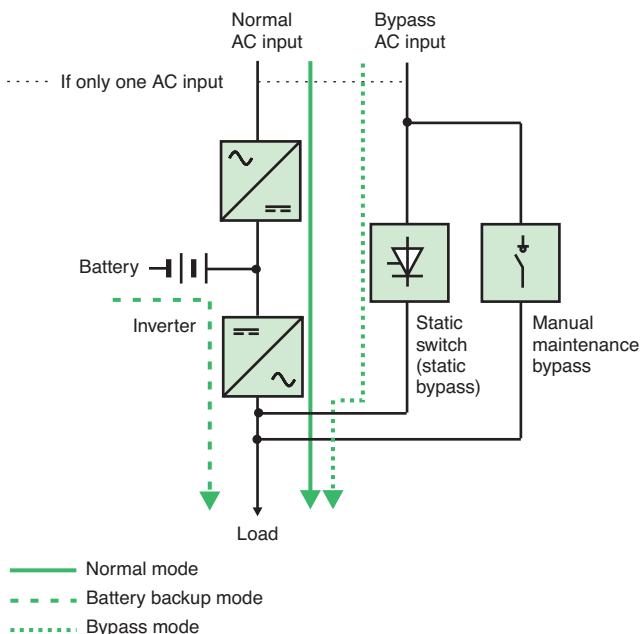


Fig. N18 : UPS operating in double-conversion (on-line) mode

Usage

In this configuration, the time required to transfer the load to the inverter is negligible due to the static switch.

Also, the output voltage and frequency do not depend on the input voltage and frequency conditions. This means that the UPS, when designed for this purpose, can operate as a frequency converter.

Practically speaking, this is the main configuration used for medium and high power ratings (from 10 kVA upwards). The rest of this chapter will consider only this configuration.

Note: This type of UPS is often called “on-line”, meaning that the load is continuously supplied by the inverter, regardless of the conditions on the AC input source. This term is misleading, however, because it also suggests “supplied by utility power”, when in fact the load is supplied by power that has been reconstituted by the double-conversion system. That is why standard IEC 62040 recommends the term “double conversion”.

2 Uninterruptible Power Supply units (UPS)

2.3 Batteries

Selection of battery type

A battery is made up of interconnected cells which may be vented or of the recombination type.

There are two main families of batteries:

- Nickel-cadmium batteries
- Lead-acid batteries
- Vented cells (lead-antimony): They are equipped with ports to release to the atmosphere the oxygen and hydrogen produced during the different chemical reactions
- Top off the electrolyte by adding distilled or demineralized water
- Recombination cells (lead, pure lead, lead-tin batteries): The gas recombination rate is at least 95% and they therefore do not require water to be added during service life

By extension, reference will be made to vented or recombination batteries (recombination batteries are also often called "sealed" batteries).

The main types of batteries used in conjunction with UPSs are:

- Sealed lead-acid batteries, used 95% of the time because they are easy to maintain and do not require a special room
- Vented lead-acid batteries
- Vented nickel-cadmium batteries

The above three types of batteries may be proposed, depending on economic factors and the operating requirements of the installation, with all the available service-life durations.

Capacity levels and backup times may be adapted to suit the user's needs.

The proposed batteries are also perfectly suited to UPS applications in that they are the result of collaboration with leading battery manufacturers.

Selection of back up time

Selection depends on:

- The average duration of power-system failures
- Any available long-lasting standby power (engine-generator set, etc.)
- The type of application

The typical range generally proposed is:

- Standard backup times of 10, 15 or 30 minutes
- Custom backup times

The following general rules apply:

- Computer applications

Battery backup time must be sufficient to cover file-saving and system-shutdown procedures required to ensure a controlled shutdown of the computer system.

Generally speaking, the computer department determines the necessary backup time, depending on its specific requirements.

- Industrial processes

The backup time calculation should take into account the economic cost incurred by an interruption in the process and the time required to restart.

N15

Selection table

Figure N19 next page sums up the main characteristics of the various types of batteries.

Increasingly, recombination batteries would seem to be the market choice for the following reasons:

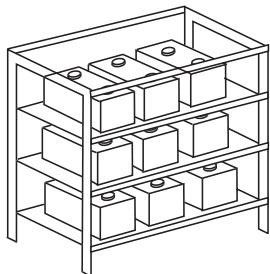
- No maintenance
- Easy implementation
- Installation in all types of rooms (computer rooms, technical rooms not specifically intended for batteries, etc.)

In certain cases, however, vented batteries are preferred, notably for:

- Long service life
- Long backup times
- High power ratings

Vented batteries must be installed in special rooms complying with precise regulations and require appropriate maintenance.

	Service life	Compact	Operating-temperature tolerances	Frequency of maintenance	Special room	Cost
Sealed lead-acid	5 or 10 years	+	+	Low	No	Low medium
Vented lead-acid	5 or 10 years	+	++	Medium	Yes	Low
Nickel-cadmium	5 or 10 years	++	+++	High	no	High

Fig. N19 : Main characteristics of the various types of batteries**Fig. N20** : Shelf mounting

Installation methods

Depending on the UPS range, the battery capacity and backup time, the battery is:

- Sealed type and housed in the UPS cabinet
- Sealed type and housed in one to three cabinets
- Vented or sealed type and rack-mounted. In this case the installation method may be
 - On shelves (see **Fig. N20**)
 - Tier mounting (see **Fig. N21**)
 - In cabinets (see **Fig. N22**)

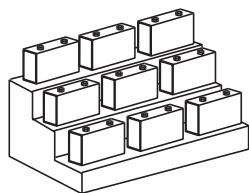
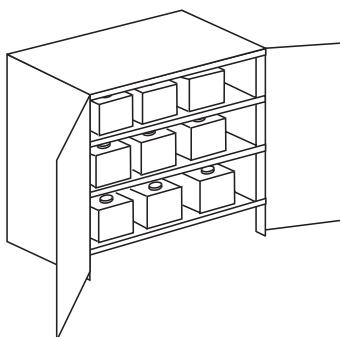
This installation method is possible for sealed batteries or maintenance-free vented batteries which do not require topping up of their electrolyte.

- Tier mounting (see **Fig. N21**)

This installation method is suitable for all types of batteries and for vented batteries in particular, as level checking and filling are made easy.

- In cabinets (see **Fig. N22**)

This installation method is suitable for sealed batteries. It is easy to implement and offers maximum safety.

**Fig. N21** : Tier mounting

N16

Fig. N22 : Cabinet mounting

2.4 System earthing arrangements for installations comprising UPSs

Application of protection systems, stipulated by the standards, in installations comprising a UPS, requires a number of precautions for the following reasons:

- The UPS plays two roles
- A load for the upstream system
- A power source for downstream system
- When the battery is not installed in a cabinet, an insulation fault on the DC system can lead to the flow of a residual DC component

This component can disturb the operation of certain protection devices, notably RCDs used for the protection of persons.

Protection against direct contact (see **Fig. N23**)

All installations satisfy the applicable requirements because the equipment is housed in cabinets providing a degree of protection IP 20. This is true even for the battery when it is housed in a cabinet.

When batteries are not installed in a cabinet, i.e. generally in a special room, the measures presented at the end of this chapter should be implemented.

Note: The TN system (version TN-S or TN-C) is the most commonly recommended system for the supply of computer systems.

Type of arrangement	IT system	TT system	TN system
Operation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Signaling of first insulation fault ■ Locating and elimination of first fault ■ Disconnection for second insulation fault 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Disconnection for first insulation fault 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Disconnection for first insulation fault
Techniques for protection of persons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Interconnection and earthing of conductive parts ■ Surveillance of first fault using an insulation monitoring device (IMD) ■ Second fault results in circuit interruption (circuit-breaker or fuse) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Earthing of conductive parts combined with use of RCDs ■ First insulation fault results in interruption by detecting leakage currents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Interconnection and earthing of conductive parts and neutral imperative ■ First insulation fault results in interruption by detecting overcurrents (circuit-breaker or fuse)
Advantages and disadvantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Solution offering the best continuity of service (first fault is signalled) ■ Requires competent surveillance personnel (location of first fault) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Easiest solution in terms of design and installation ■ No insulation monitoring device (IMD) required ■ However, each fault results in interruption of the concerned circuit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Low-cost solution in terms of installation ■ Difficult design (calculation of loop impedances) ■ Qualified operating personnel required ■ Flow of high fault currents

Fig. N23 : Main characteristics of system earthing arrangements

2 Uninterruptible Power Supply units (UPS)

Essential points to be checked for UPSs

Figure N24 shows all the essential points that must be interconnected as well as the devices to be installed (transformers, RCDs, etc.) to ensure installation conformity with safety standards.

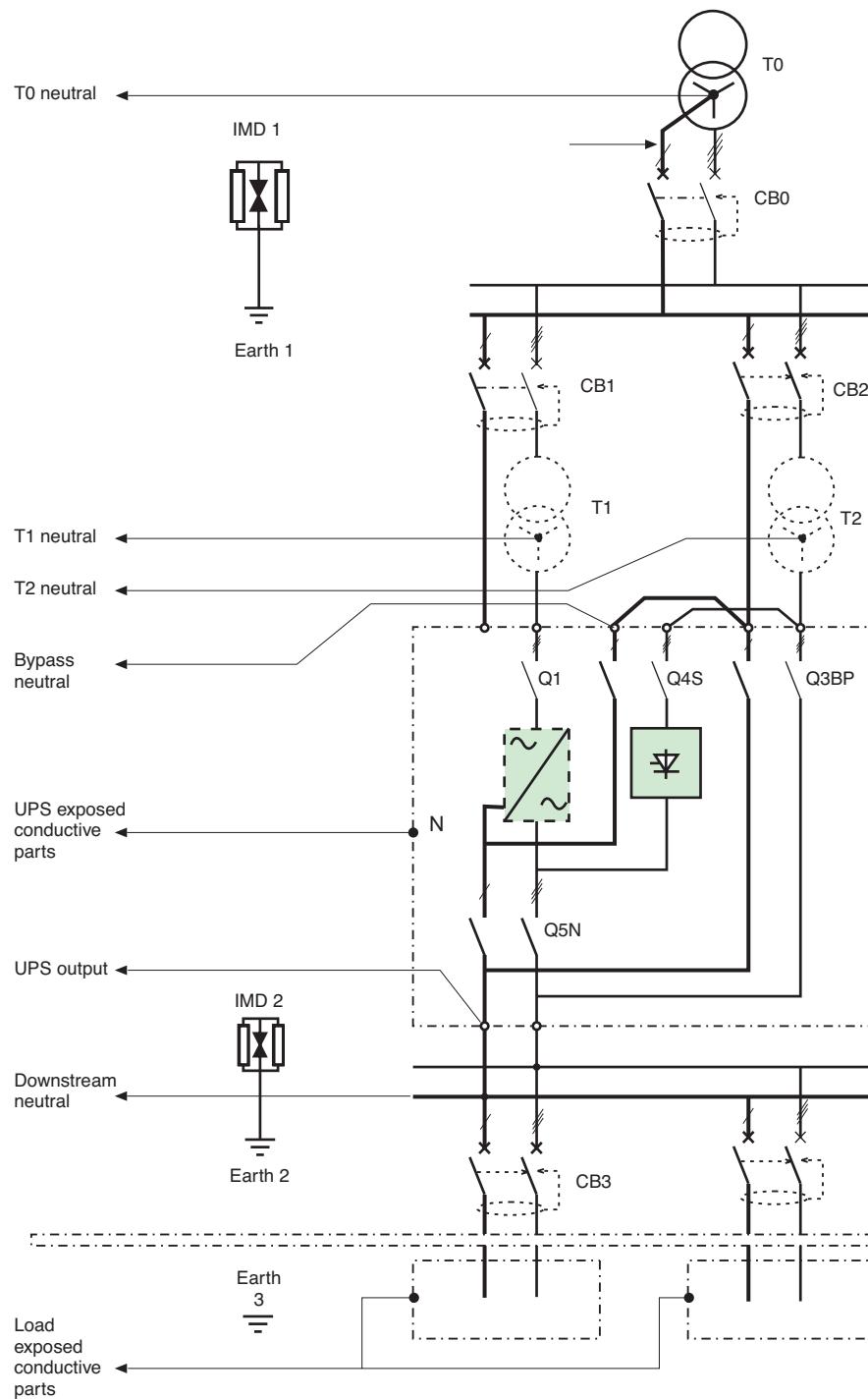


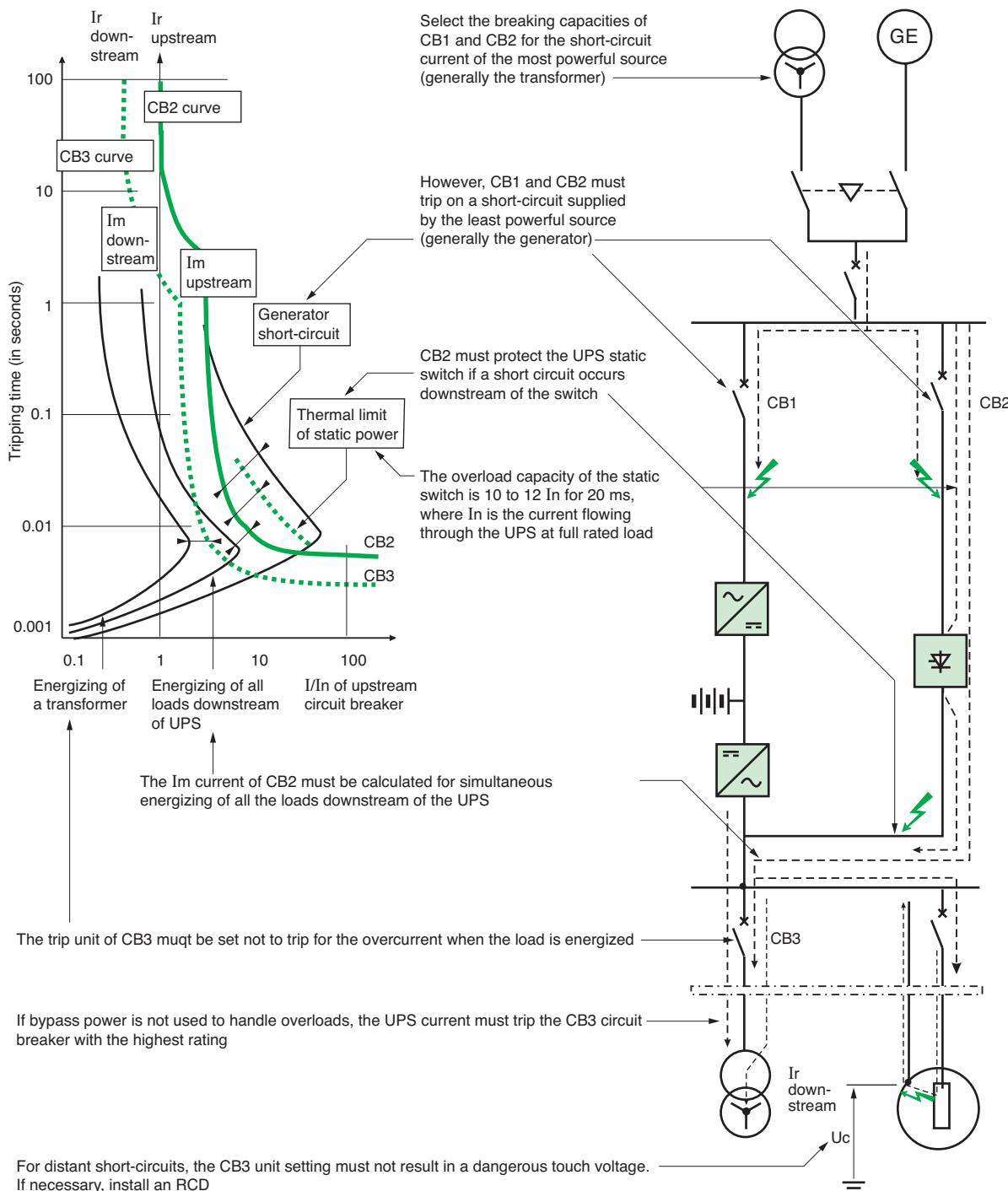
Fig. N24 : The essential points that must be connected in system earthing arrangements

2.5 Choice of protection schemes

The circuit-breakers have a major role in an installation but their importance often appears at the time of accidental events which are not frequent. The best sizing of UPS and the best choice of configuration can be compromised by a wrong choice of only one circuit-breaker.

Circuit-breaker selection

Figure N25 shows how to select the circuit-breakers.



N18

Fig. N25 : Circuit-breakers are submitted to a variety of situations

2 Uninterruptible Power Supply units (UPS)

Rating

The selected rating (rated current) for the circuit-breaker must be the one just above the rated current of the protected downstream cable.

Breaking capacity

The breaking capacity must be selected just above the short-circuit current that can occur at the point of installation.

Ir and Im thresholds

The table below indicates how to determine the Ir (overload ; thermal or longtime) and Im (short-circuit ; magnetic or short time) thresholds to ensure discrimination, depending on the upstream and downstream trip units.

Remark (see Fig. N26)

- Time discrimination must be implemented by qualified personnel because time delays before tripping increase the thermal stress (I^2t) downstream (cables, semiconductors, etc.). Caution is required if tripping of CB2 is delayed using the Im threshold time delay
- Energy discrimination does not depend on the trip unit, only on the circuit-breaker

Type of downstream circuit	Ir upstream / Ir downstream ratio	Im upstream / Im downstream ratio	Im upstream / Im downstream ratio
Downstream trip unit	All types	Magnetic	Electronic
Distribution	> 1.6	>2	>1.5
Asynchronous motor	>3	>2	>1.5

Fig. N26 : Ir and Im thresholds depending on the upstream and downstream trip units

Special case of generator short-circuits

Figure N27 shows the reaction of a generator to a short-circuit.

To avoid any uncertainty concerning the type of excitation, we will trip at the first peak (3 to 5 In as per X" d) using the Im protection setting without a time delay.

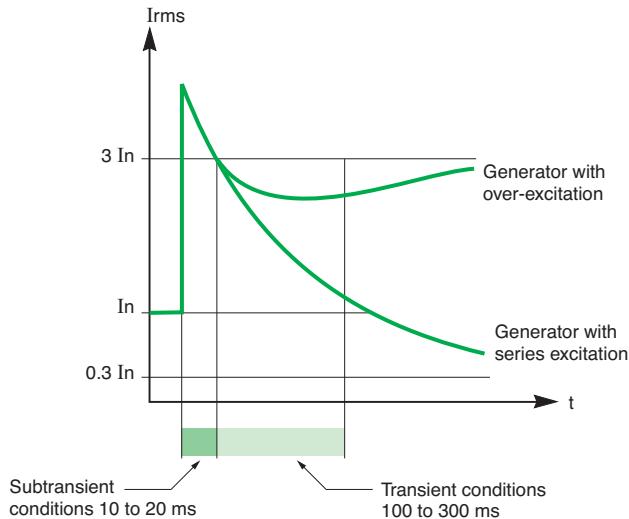


Fig. N27 : Generator during short-circuit

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2.6 Installation, connection and sizing of cables

Ready-to-use UPS units

The low power UPSs, for micro computer systems for example, are compact ready-to-use equipment. The internal wiring is built in the factory and adapted to the characteristics of the devices.

Not ready-to-use UPS units

For the other UPSs, the wire connections to the power supply system, to the battery and to the load are not included.

Wiring connections depend on the current level as indicated in **Figure N28** below.

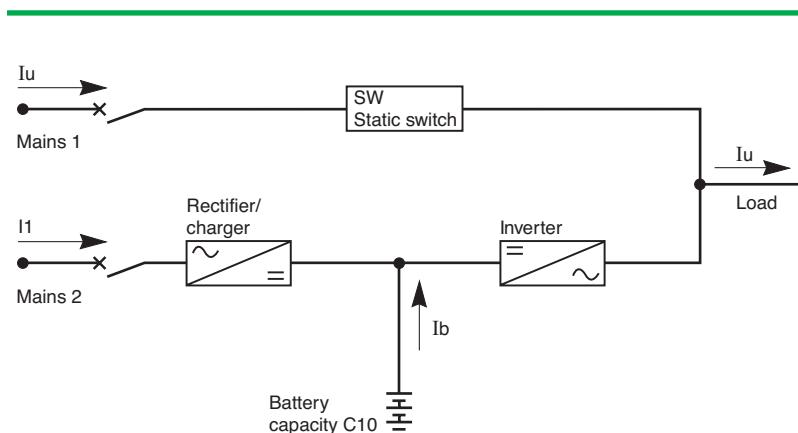


Fig.N28 : Current to be taken into account for the selection of the wire connections

Calculation of currents I1, Iu

- The input current Iu from the power network is the load current
- The input current I1 of the charger/rectifier depends on:
 - The capacity of the battery (C10) and the charging mode (Ib)
 - The characteristics of the charger
 - The efficiency of the inverter
- The current Ib is the current in the connection of the battery

These currents are given by the manufacturers.

Cable temperature rise and voltage drops

The cross section of cables depends on:

- Permissible temperature rise
- Permissible voltage drop

For a given load, each of these parameters results in a minimum permissible cross section. The larger of the two must be used.

When routing cables, care must be taken to maintain the required distances between control circuits and power circuits, to avoid any disturbances caused by HF currents.

Temperature rise

Permissible temperature rise in cables is limited by the withstand capacity of cable insulation.

Temperature rise in cables depends on:

- The type of core (Cu or Al)
- The installation method
- The number of touching cables

Standards stipulate, for each type of cable, the maximum permissible current.

Voltage drops

The maximum permissible voltage drops are:

- 3% for AC circuits (50 or 60 Hz)
- 1% for DC circuits

2 Uninterruptible Power Supply units (UPS)

Selection tables

Figure N29 indicates the voltage drop in percent for a circuit made up of 100 meters of cable. To calculate the voltage drop in a circuit with a length L, multiply the value in the table by L/100.

■ Sph: Cross section of conductors

■ I_n : Rated current of protection devices on circuit

Three-phase circuit

If the voltage drop exceeds 3% (50-60 Hz), increase the cross section of conductors.

DC circuit

If the voltage drop exceeds 1%, increase the cross section of conductors.

a - Three-phase circuits (copper conductors)

50-60 Hz - 380 V / 400 V / 415 V three-phase, $\cos \phi = 0.8$, balanced system three-phase + N

In (A)	Sph (mN ²)											
	10	16	25	35	50	70	95	120	150	185	240	300
10	0.9											
15	1.2											
20	1.6	1.1										
25	2.0	1.3	0.9									
32	2.6	1.7	1.1									
40	3.3	2.1	1.4	1.0								
50	4.1	2.6	1.7	1.3	1.0							
63	5.1	3.3	2.2	1.6	1.2	0.9						
70	5.7	3.7	2.4	1.7	1.3	1.0	0.8					
80	6.5	4.2	2.7	2.1	1.5	1.2	0.9	0.7				
100	8.2	5.3	3.4	2.6	2.0	2.0	1.1	0.9	0.8			
125		6.6	4.3	3.2	2.4	2.4	1.4	1.1	1.0	0.8		
160			5.5	4.3	3.2	3.2	1.8	1.5	1.2	1.1	0.9	
200				5.3	3.9	3.9	2.2	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.2	0.9
250					4.9	4.9	2.8	2.3	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.2
320							3.5	2.9	2.5	2.1	1.9	1.5
400								4.4	3.6	3.1	2.7	2.3
500									4.5	3.9	3.4	2.9
600										4.9	4.2	3.6
800											5.3	4.4
1,000												6.5

For a three-phase 230 V circuit, multiply the result by e

For a single-phase 208/230 V circuit, multiply the result by 2

b - DC circuits (copper conductors)

In (A)	Sph (mN ²)											
	-	-	25	35	50	70	95	120	150	185	240	300
100			5.1	3.6	2.6	1.9	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.4
125				4.5	3.2	2.3	1.6	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.5
160					4.0	2.9	2.2	1.6	1.2	1.1	0.6	0.7
200						3.6	2.7	2.2	1.6	1.3	1.0	0.8
250							3.3	2.7	2.2	1.7	1.3	1.0
320								3.4	2.7	2.1	1.6	1.3
400									3.4	2.8	2.1	1.6
500										3.4	2.6	2.1
600										4.3	3.3	2.7
800											4.2	3.4
1,000											5.3	4.2
1,250												5.3

Fig. N29 : Voltage drop in percent for [a] three-phase circuits and [b] DC circuits

Special case for neutral conductors

In three-phase systems, the third-order harmonics (and their multiples) of single-phase loads add up in the neutral conductor (sum of the currents on the three phases).

For this reason, the following rule may be applied:

neutral cross section = 1.5 x phase cross section

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Example

Consider a 70-meter 400 V three-phase circuit, with copper conductors and a rated current of 600 A.

Standard IEC 60364 indicates, depending on the installation method and the load, a minimum cross section.

We shall assume that the minimum cross section is 95 mm².

It is first necessary to check that the voltage drop does not exceed 3%.

The table for three-phase circuits on the previous page indicates, for a 600 A current flowing in a 300 mm² cable, a voltage drop of 3% for 100 meters of cable, i.e. for 70 meters:

$$3 \times \frac{70}{100} = 2.1 \%$$

Therefore less than 3%

A identical calculation can be run for a DC current of 1,000 A.

In a ten-meter cable, the voltage drop for 100 meters of 240 mN² cable is 5.3%, i.e. for ten meters:

$$5.3 \times \frac{10}{100} = 0.53 \%$$

Therefore less than 3%

2.7 The UPSs and their environment

The UPSs can communicate with electrical and computing environment. They can receive some data and provide information on their operation in order:

- To optimize the protection

For example, the UPS provides essential information on operating status to the computer system (load on inverter, load on static bypass, load on battery, low battery warning)

- To remotely control

The UPS provides measurement and operating status information to inform and allow operators to take specific actions

- To manage the installation

The operator has a building and energy management system which allow to obtain and save information from UPSs, to provide alarms and events and to take actions.

This evolution towards compatibility between computer equipment and UPSs has the effect to incorporate new built-in UPS functions.

2.8 Complementary equipment

Transformers

A two-winding transformer included on the upstream side of the static contactor of circuit 2 allows:

- A change of voltage level when the power network voltage is different to that of the load

- A change of system of earthing between the networks

Moreover, such a transformer :

- Reduces the short-circuit current level on the secondary, (i.e load) side compared with that on the power network side

- Prevents third harmonic currents which may be present on the secondary side from passing into the power-system network, providing that the primary winding is connected in delta.

Anti-harmonic filter

The UPS system includes a battery charger which is controlled by thyristors or transistors. The resulting regularly-chopped current cycles "generate" harmonic components in the power-supply network.

These undesirable components are filtered at the input of the rectifier and for most cases this reduces the harmonic current level sufficiently for all practical purposes.

2 Uninterruptible Power Supply units (UPS)

In certain specific cases however, notably in very large installations, an additional filter circuit may be necessary.

For example when :

- The power rating of the UPS system is large relative to the MV/LV transformer supplying it
- The LV busbars supply loads which are particularly sensitive to harmonics
- A diesel (or gas-turbine, etc,) driven alternator is provided as a standby power supply

In such cases, the manufacturer of the UPS system should be consulted

Communication equipment

Communication with equipment associated with computer systems may entail the need for suitable facilities within the UPS system. Such facilities may be incorporated in an original design (see **Fig. N30a**), or added to existing systems on request (see **Fig. N30b**).



Fig. N30a : Ready-to-use UPS unit (with DIN module)



Fig. N30b : UPS unit achieving disponibility and quality of computer system power supply

3 Protection of LV/LV transformers

These transformers are generally in the range of several hundreds of VA to some hundreds of kVA and are frequently used for:

- Changing the low voltage level for:
- Auxiliary supplies to control and indication circuits
- Lighting circuits (230 V created when the primary system is 400 V 3-phase 3-wires)

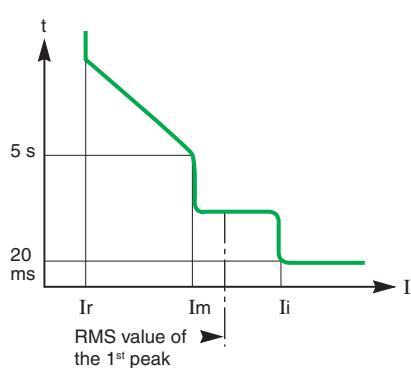
- Changing the method of earthing for certain loads having a relatively high capacitive current to earth (computer equipment) or resistive leakage current (electric ovens, industrial-heating processes, mass-cooking installations, etc.)

LV/LV transformers are generally supplied with protective systems incorporated, and the manufacturers must be consulted for details. Overcurrent protection must, in any case, be provided on the primary side. The exploitation of these transformers requires a knowledge of their particular function, together with a number of points described below.

Note: In the particular cases of LV/LV safety isolating transformers at extra-low voltage, an earthed metal screen between the primary and secondary windings is frequently required, according to circumstances, as recommended in European Standard EN 60742.

3.1 Transformer-energizing inrush current

At the moment of energizing a transformer, high values of transient current (which includes a significant DC component) occur, and must be taken into account when considering protection schemes (see Fig. N31).



N24 **Fig N32 :** Tripping characteristic of a Compact NS type STR (electronic)

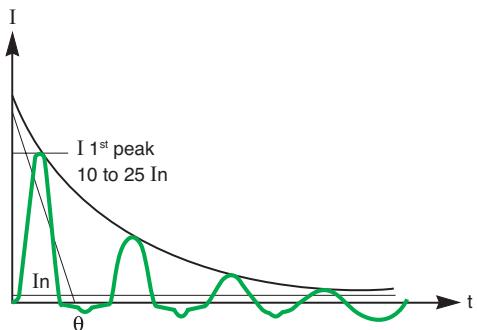


Fig N31 : Transformer-energizing inrush current

The magnitude of the current peak depends on:

- The value of voltage at the instant of energization
- The magnitude and polarity of the residual flux existing in the core of the transformer
- Characteristics of the load connected to the transformer

The first current peak can reach a value equal to 10 to 15 times the full-load r.m.s. current, but for small transformers (< 50 kVA) may reach values of 20 to 25 times the nominal full-load current. This transient current decreases rapidly, with a time constant θ of the order of several ms to severals tens of ms.

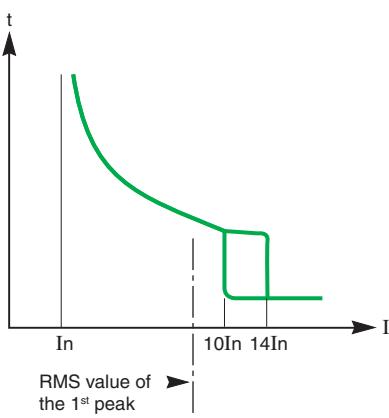


Fig N33 : Tripping characteristic of a Multi 9 curve D

3.2 Protection for the supply circuit of a LV/LV transformer

The protective device on the supply circuit for a LV/LV transformer must avoid the possibility of incorrect operation due to the magnetizing inrush current surge, noted above. It is necessary to use therefore:

- Selective (i.e. slightly time-delayed) circuit-breakers of the type Compact NS STR (see Fig. N32) or
- Circuit-breakers having a very high magnetic-trip setting, of the types Compact NS or Multi 9 curve D (see Fig. N33)

3 Protection of LV/LV transformers

Example

A 400 V 3-phase circuit is supplying a 125 kVA 400/230 V transformer ($I_n = 180 \text{ A}$) for which the first inrush current peak can reach $12 I_n$, i.e. $12 \times 180 = 2,160 \text{ A}$. This current peak corresponds to a rms value of 1,530 A.

A compact NS 250N circuit-breaker with I_r setting of 200 A and I_m setting at $8 \times I_r$ would therefore be a suitable protective device.

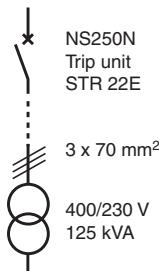


Fig N34 : Example

A particular case: Overload protection installed at the secondary side of the transformer (see Fig. N34)

An advantage of overload protection located on the secondary side is that the short-circuit protection on the primary side can be set at a high value, or alternatively a circuit-breaker type MA (magnetic only) can be used. The primary side short-circuit protection setting must, however, be sufficiently sensitive to ensure its operation in the event of a short-circuit occurring on the secondary side of the transformer.

Note: The primary protection is sometimes provided by fuses, type aM. This practice has two disadvantages:

- The fuses must be largely oversized (at least 4 times the nominal full-load rated current of the transformer)
- In order to provide isolating facilities on the primary side, either a load-break switch or a contactor must be associated with the fuses.

3.3 Typical electrical characteristics of LV/LV 50 Hz transformers

3-phase	5	6.3	8	10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50	63	80	100	125	160	200	250	315	400	500	630	800
kVA rating	5	6.3	8	10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50	63	80	100	125	160	200	250	315	400	500	630	800
No-load losses (W)	100	110	130	150	160	170	270	310	350	350	410	460	520	570	680	680	790	950	1160	1240	1485	1855	2160
Full-load losses (W)	250	320	390	500	600	840	800	1180	1240	1530	1650	2150	2540	3700	3700	5900	5900	6500	7400	9300	9400	11400	13400
Short-circuit voltage (%)	4.5	4.5	4.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5	5	4.5	5	5	5.5	4.5	5.5	5	5	4.5	6	6	5.5	5.5

1-phase	8	10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50	63	80	100	125	160
kVA rating	8	10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50	63	80	100	125	160
No-load losses (W)	105	115	120	140	150	175	200	215	265	305	450	450	525	635
Full-load losses (W)	400	530	635	730	865	1065	1200	1400	1900	2000	2450	3950	3950	4335
Short-circuit voltage (%)	5	5	5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4	4	5	5	4.5	5.5	5	5

3.4 Protection of LV/LV transformers, using Schneider Electric circuit-breakers

Multi 9 circuit-breaker

Transformer power rating (kVA) 230/240 V 1-ph 400/415 V 1-ph	230/240 V 3-ph 400/415 V 3-ph	400/415 V 3-ph	Circuit breaker curve D or K	Size (A)
0.05	0.09	0.16	C60, NG125	0.5
0.11	0.18	0.32	C60, NG125	1
0.21	0.36	0.63	C60, NG125	2
0.33	0.58	1.0	C60, NG125	3
0.67	1.2	2.0	C60, NG125	6
1.1	1.8	3.2	C60, C120, NG125	10
1.7	2.9	5.0	C60, C120, NG125	16
2.1	3.6	6.3	C60, C120, NG125	20
2.7	4.6	8.0	C60, C120, NG125	25
3.3	5.8	10	C60, C120, NG125	32
4.2	7.2	13	C60, C120, NG125	40
5.3	9.2	16	C60, C120, NC100, NG125	50
6.7	12	20	C60, C120, NC100, NG125	63
8.3	14	25	C120, NC100, NG125	80
11	18	32	C120, NC100, NG125	100
13	23	40	C120, NG125	125

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Compact NS100...NS250 circuit-breakers with TM-D trip unit

Transformer power rating (kVA) 230/240 V 1-ph 400/415 V 1-ph	230/240 V 3-ph	400/415 V 3-ph	Circuit-breaker	Trip unit
3	5...6	9...12	NS100N/H/L	TN16D
5	8...9	14...16	NS100N/H/L	TM05D
7...9	13...16	22...28	NS100N/H/L	TN40D
12...15	20...25	35...44	NS100N/H/L	TN63D
16...19	26...32	45...56	NS100N/H/L	TN80D
18...23	32...40	55...69	NS160N/H/L	TN100D
23...29	40...50	69...87	NS160N/H/L	TN125D
29...37	51...64	89...111	NS250N/H/L	TN160D
37...46	64...80	111...139	NS250N/H/L	TN200D

Compact NS100...NS1600 and Masterpact circuit-breakers with STR or Micrologic trip unit

Transformer power rating (kVA) 230/240 V 1-ph 400/415 V 1-ph	230/240 V 3-ph	400/415 V 3-ph	Circuit-breaker	Trip unit	Setting Ir max
4...7	6...13	11...22	NS100N/H/L	STR22SE 40	0.8
9...19	16...30	27...56	NS100N/H/L	STR22SE 100	0.8
15...30	5...50	44...90	NS160N/H/L	STR22SE 160	0.8
23...46	40...80	70...139	NS250N/H/L	STR22SE 250	0.8
37...65	64...112	111...195	NS400N/H	STR23SE / 53UE 400	0.7
37...55	64...95	111...166	NS400L	STR23SE / 53UE 400	0.6
58...83	100...144	175...250	NS630N/H/L	STR23SE / 53UE 630	0.6
58...150	100...250	175...436	NS800N/H - NT08H1	Micrologic 5.0/6.0/7.0	1
74...184	107...319	222...554	NS800N/H - NT08H1 - NW08N1/H1	Micrologic 5.0/6.0/7.0	1
90...230	159...398	277...693	NS1000N/H - NT10H1 - NW10N1/H1	Micrologic 5.0/6.0/7.0	1
115...288	200...498	346...866	NS1250N/H - NT12H1 - NW12N1/H1	Micrologic 5.0/6.0/7.0	1
147...368	256...640	443...1,108	NS1600N/H - NT16H1 - NW16N1/H1	Micrologic 5.0/6.0/7.0	1
184...460	320...800	554...1,385	NW20N1/H1	Micrologic 5.0/6.0/7.0	1
230...575	400...1,000	690...1,730	NW25N2/H3	Micrologic 5.0/6.0/7.0	1
294...736	510...1,280	886...2,217	NW32N2/H3	Micrologic 5.0/6.0/7.0	1

4 Lighting circuits

A source of comfort and productivity, lighting represents 15% of the quantity of electricity consumed in industry and 40% in buildings. The quality of lighting (light stability and continuity of service) depends on the quality of the electrical energy thus consumed. The supply of electrical power to lighting networks has therefore assumed great importance.

To help with their design and simplify the selection of appropriate protection devices, an analysis of the different lamp technologies is presented. The distinctive features of lighting circuits and their impact on control and protection devices are discussed. Recommendations relative to the difficulties of lighting circuit implementation are given.

4.1 The different lamp technologies

Artificial luminous radiation can be produced from electrical energy according to two principles: incandescence and electroluminescence.

Incandescence is the production of light via temperature elevation. The most common example is a filament heated to white state by the circulation of an electrical current. The energy supplied is transformed into heat by the Joule effect and into luminous flux.

Luminescence is the phenomenon of emission by a material of visible or almost visible luminous radiation. A gas (or vapors) subjected to an electrical discharge emits luminous radiation (Electroluminescence of gases).

Since this gas does not conduct at normal temperature and pressure, the discharge is produced by generating charged particles which permit ionization of the gas. The nature, pressure and temperature of the gas determine the light spectrum.

Photoluminescence is the luminescence of a material exposed to visible or almost visible radiation (ultraviolet, infrared).

When the substance absorbs ultraviolet radiation and emits visible radiation which stops a short time after energization, this is fluorescence.

Incandescent lamps

Incandescent lamps are historically the oldest and the most often found in common use.

They are based on the principle of a filament rendered incandescent in a vacuum or neutral atmosphere which prevents combustion.

A distinction is made between:

- Standard bulbs

These contain a tungsten filament and are filled with an inert gas (nitrogen and argon or krypton).

- Halogen bulbs

These also contain a tungsten filament, but are filled with a halogen compound and an inert gas (krypton or xenon). This halogen compound is responsible for the phenomenon of filament regeneration, which increases the service life of the lamps and avoids them blackening. It also enables a higher filament temperature and therefore greater luminosity in smaller-size bulbs.

The main disadvantage of incandescent lamps is their significant heat dissipation, resulting in poor luminous efficiency.

Fluorescent lamps

This family covers fluorescent tubes and compact fluorescent lamps. Their technology is usually known as "low-pressure mercury".

In fluorescent tubes, an electrical discharge causes electrons to collide with ions of mercury vapor, resulting in ultraviolet radiation due to energization of the mercury atoms. The fluorescent material, which covers the inside of the tubes, then transforms this radiation into visible light.

Fluorescent tubes dissipate less heat and have a longer service life than incandescent lamps, but they do need an ignition device called a "starter" and a device to limit the current in the arc after ignition. This device called "ballast" is usually a choke placed in series with the arc.

Compact fluorescent lamps are based on the same principle as a fluorescent tube. The starter and ballast functions are provided by an electronic circuit (integrated in the lamp) which enables the use of smaller tubes folded back on themselves.

Compact fluorescent lamps (see Fig. N35) were developed to replace incandescent lamps: They offer significant energy savings (15 W against 75 W for the same level of brightness) and an increased service life.

Lamps known as "induction" type or "without electrodes" operate on the principle of ionization of the gas present in the tube by a very high frequency electromagnetic field (up to 1 GHz). Their service life can be as long as 100,000 hrs.

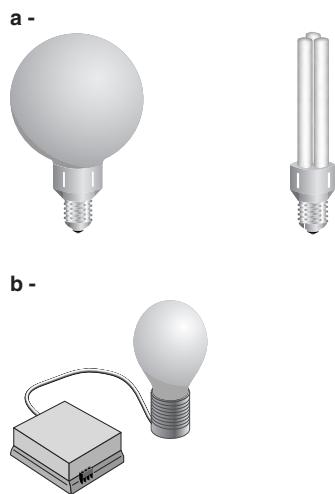


Fig. N35 : Compact fluorescent lamps [a] standard, [b] induction

Discharge lamps (see Fig. N36)

The light is produced by an electrical discharge created between two electrodes within a gas in a quartz bulb. All these lamps therefore require a ballast to limit the current in the arc. A number of technologies have been developed for different applications.

Low-pressure sodium vapor lamps have the best light output, however the color rendering is very poor since they only have a monochromatic orange radiation.

High-pressure sodium vapor lamps produce a white light with an orange tinge.

In high-pressure mercury vapor lamps, the discharge is produced in a quartz or ceramic bulb at high pressure. These lamps are called "fluorescent mercury discharge lamps". They produce a characteristically bluish white light.

Metal halide lamps are the latest technology. They produce a color with a broad color spectrum. The use of a ceramic tube offers better luminous efficiency and better color stability.

Light Emitting Diodes (LED)

The principle of light emitting diodes is the emission of light by a semi-conductor as an electrical current passes through it. LEDs are commonly found in numerous applications, but the recent development of white or blue diodes with a high light output opens new perspectives, especially for signaling (traffic lights, exit signs or emergency lighting).

LEDs are low-voltage and low-current devices, thus suitable for battery-supply. A converter is required for a line power supply.

The advantage of LEDs is their low energy consumption. As a result, they operate at a very low temperature, giving them a very long service life. Conversely, a simple diode has a weak light intensity. A high-power lighting installation therefore requires connection of a large number of units in series and parallel.



Fig. N36 : Discharge lamps

Technology	Application	Advantages	Disadvantages
Standard incandescent	- Domestic use - Localized decorative lighting	- Direct connection without intermediate switchgear - Reasonable purchase price - Compact size - Instantaneous lighting - Good color rendering	- Low luminous efficiency and high electricity consumption - Significant heat dissipation - Short service life
Halogen incandescent	- Spot lighting - Intense lighting	- Direct connection - Instantaneous efficiency - Excellent color rendering	- Average luminous efficiency
Fluorescent tube	- Shops, offices, workshops - Outdoors	- High luminous efficiency - Average color rendering	- Low light intensity of single unit - Sensitive to extreme temperatures
Compact fluorescent lamp	- Domestic use - Offices - Replacement of incandescent lamps	- Good luminous efficiency - Good color rendering	- High initial investment compared to incandescent lamps
HP mercury vapor	- Workshops, halls, hangars - Factory floors	- Good luminous efficiency - Acceptable color rendering - Compact size - Long service life	- Lighting and relighting time of a few minutes
High-pressure sodium	- Outdoors - Large halls	- Very good luminous efficiency	- Lighting and relighting time of a few minutes
Low-pressure sodium	- Outdoors - Emergency lighting	- Good visibility in foggy weather - Economical to use	- Long lighting time (5 min.) - Mediocre color rendering
Metal halide	- Large areas - Halls with high ceilings	- Good luminous efficiency - Good color rendering - Long service life	- Lighting and relighting time of a few minutes
LED	- Signaling (3-color traffic lights, "exit" signs and emergency lighting)	- Insensitive to the number of switching operations - Low energy consumption - Low temperature	- Limited number of colors - Low brightness of single unit

Technology	Power (watt)	Efficiency (lumen/watt)	Service life (hours)
Standard incandescent	3 – 1,000	10 – 15	1,000 – 2,000
Halogen incandescent	5 – 500	15 – 25	2,000 – 4,000
Fluorescent tube	4 – 56	50 – 100	7,500 – 24,000
Compact fluorescent lamp	5 – 40	50 – 80	10,000 – 20,000
HP mercury vapor	40 – 1,000	25 – 55	16,000 – 24,000
High-pressure sodium	35 – 1,000	40 – 140	16,000 – 24,000
Low-pressure sodium	35 – 180	100 – 185	14,000 – 18,000
Metal halide	30 – 2,000	50 – 115	6,000 – 20,000
LED	0.05 – 0.1	10 – 30	40,000 – 100,000

Fig. N37 : Usage and technical characteristics of lighting devices

4.2 Electrical characteristics of lamps

Incandescent lamps with direct power supply

Due to the very high temperature of the filament during operation (up to 2,500 °C), its resistance varies greatly depending on whether the lamp is on or off. As the cold resistance is low, a current peak occurs on ignition that can reach 10 to 15 times the nominal current for a few milliseconds or even several milliseconds.

This constraint affects both ordinary lamps and halogen lamps: it imposes a reduction in the maximum number of lamps that can be powered by devices such as remote-control switches, modular contactors and relays for busbar trunking.

Extra Low Voltage (ELV) halogen lamps

- Some low-power halogen lamps are supplied with ELV 12 or 24 V, via a transformer or an electronic converter. With a transformer, the magnetization phenomenon combines with the filament resistance variation phenomenon at switch-on. The inrush current can reach 50 to 75 times the nominal current for a few milliseconds. The use of dimmer switches placed upstream significantly reduces this constraint.

- Electronic converters, with the same power rating, are more expensive than solutions with a transformer. This commercial handicap is compensated by a greater ease of installation since their low heat dissipation means they can be fixed on a flammable support. Moreover, they usually have built-in thermal protection.

New ELV halogen lamps are now available with a transformer integrated in their base. They can be supplied directly from the LV line supply and can replace normal lamps without any special adaptation.

Dimming for incandescent lamps

This can be obtained by varying the voltage applied to the lampere

This voltage variation is usually performed by a device such as a Triac dimmer switch, by varying its firing angle in the line voltage period. The wave form of the voltage applied to the lamp is illustrated in **Figure N38a**. This technique known as "cut-on control" is suitable for supplying power to resistive or inductive circuits. Another technique suitable for supplying power to capacitive circuits has been developed with MOS or IGBT electronic components. This techniques varies the voltage by blocking the current before the end of the half-period (see **Fig. N38b**) and is known as "cut-off control".

Switching on the lamp gradually can also reduce, or even eliminate, the current peak on ignition.

As the lamp current is distorted by the electronic switching, harmonic currents are produced. The 3rd harmonic order is predominant, and the percentage of 3rd harmonic current related to the maximum fundamental current (at maximum power) is represented on **Figure N39**.

Note that in practice, the power applied to the lamp by a dimmer switch can only vary in the range between 15 and 85% of the maximum power of the lampere

N29

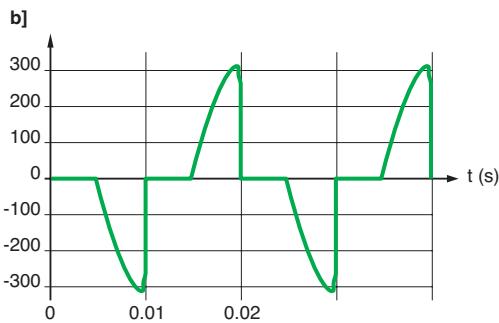
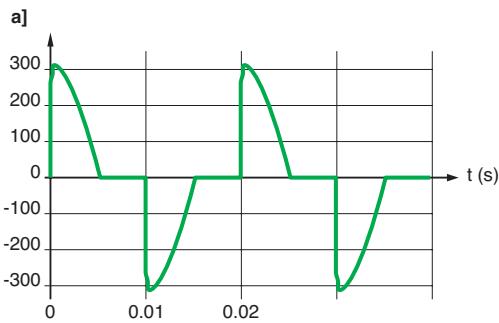


Fig. N38 : Shape of the voltage supplied by a light dimmer at 50% of maximum voltage with the following techniques:

- a] "cut-on control"
- b] "cut-off control"

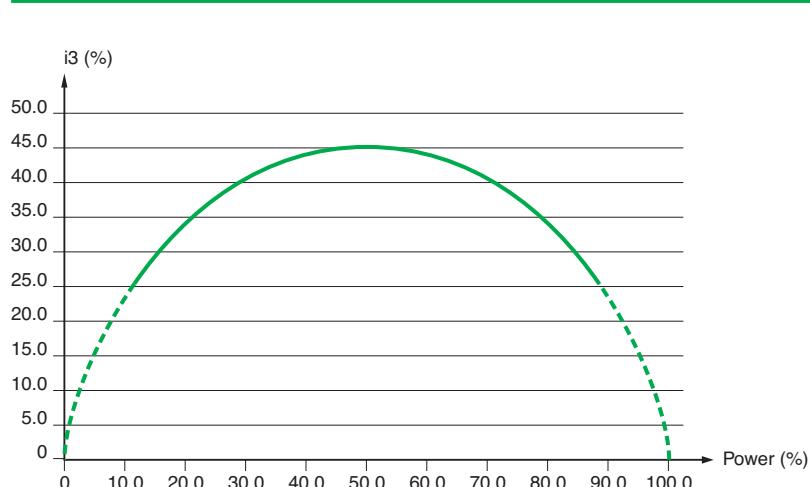


Fig. N39 : Percentage of 3rd harmonic current as a function of the power applied to an incandescent lamp using an electronic dimmer switch

According to IEC standard 61000-3-2 setting harmonic emission limits for electric or electronic systems with current ≤ 16 A, the following arrangements apply:

- Independent dimmers for incandescent lamps with a rated power less than or equal to 1 kW have no limits applied
- Otherwise, or for incandescent lighting equipment with built-in dimmer or dimmer built in an enclosure, the maximum permissible 3rd harmonic current is equal to 2.30 A

Fluorescent lamps with magnetic ballast

Fluorescent tubes and discharge lamps require the intensity of the arc to be limited, and this function is fulfilled by a choke (or magnetic ballast) placed in series with the bulb itself (see Fig. N40).

This arrangement is most commonly used in domestic applications with a limited number of tubes. No particular constraint applies to the switches.

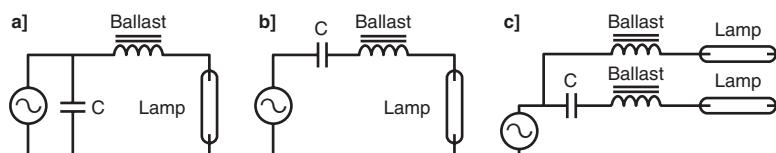
Dimmer switches are not compatible with magnetic ballasts: the cancellation of the voltage for a fraction of the period interrupts the discharge and totally extinguishes the lampere.

The starter has a dual function: preheating the tube electrodes, and then generating an overvoltage to ignite the tube. This overvoltage is generated by the opening of a contact (controlled by a thermal switch) which interrupts the current circulating in the magnetic ballast.

During operation of the starter (approx. 1 s), the current drawn by the luminaire is approximately twice the nominal current.

Since the current drawn by the tube and ballast assembly is essentially inductive, the power factor is very low (on average between 0.4 and 0.5). In installations consisting of a large number of tubes, it is necessary to provide compensation to improve the power factor.

For large lighting installations, centralized compensation with capacitor banks is a possible solution, but more often this compensation is included at the level of each luminaire in a variety of different layouts (see Fig. N41).



Compensation layout	Application	Comments
Without compensation	Domestic	Single connection
Parallel [a]	Offices, workshops, superstores	Risk of overcurrents for control devices
Series [b]		Choose capacitors with high operating voltage (450 to 480 V)
Duo [c]		Avoids flicker

Fig. N41 : The various compensation layouts: a] parallel; b] series; c] dual series also called "duo" and their fields of application

The compensation capacitors are therefore sized so that the global power factor is greater than 0.85. In the most common case of parallel compensation, its capacity is on average 1 μF for 10 W of active power, for any type of lampere. However, this compensation is incompatible with dimmer switches.

Constraints affecting compensation

The layout for parallel compensation creates constraints on ignition of the lampere. Since the capacitor is initially discharged, switch-on produces an overcurrent.

An overvoltage also appears, due to the oscillations in the circuit made up of the capacitor and the power supply inductance.

The following example can be used to determine the orders of magnitude.

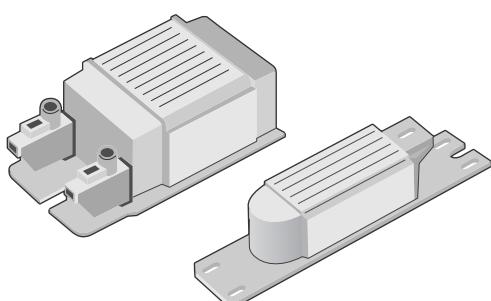


Fig. N40 : Magnetic ballasts

4 Lighting circuits

Assuming an assembly of 50 fluorescent tubes of 36 W each:

- Total active power: 1,800 W
- Apparent power: 2 kVA
- Total rms current: 9 A
- Peak current: 13 A

With:

- A total capacity: $C = 175 \mu\text{F}$
- A line inductance (corresponding to a short-circuit current of 5 kA): $L = 150 \mu\text{H}$

The maximum peak current at switch-on equals:

$$I_c = V_{\max} \sqrt{\frac{C}{L}} = 230\sqrt{2} \sqrt{\frac{175 \times 10^{-6}}{150 \times 10^{-6}}} = 350 \text{ A}$$

The theoretical peak current at switch-on can therefore reach **27 times** the peak current during normal operation.

The shape of the voltage and current at ignition is given in **Figure N42** for switch closing at the line supply voltage peak.

There is therefore a risk of contact welding in electromechanical control devices (remote-control switch, contactor, circuit-breaker) or destruction of solid state switches with semi-conductors.

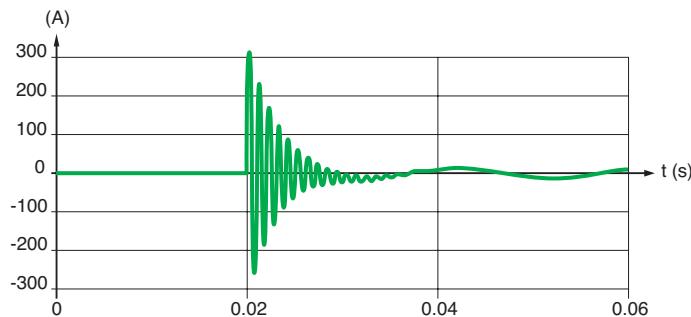
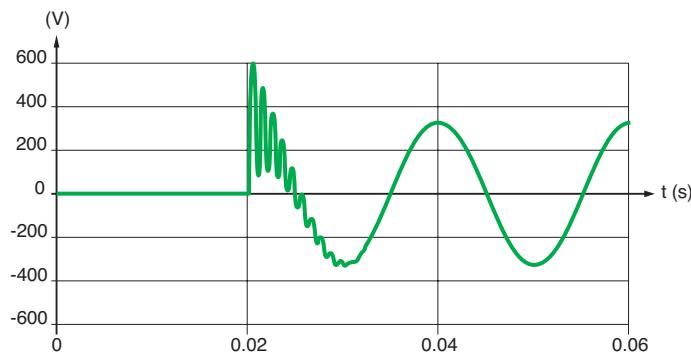


Fig. N42 : Power supply voltage at switch-on and inrush current

N31

In reality, the constraints are usually less severe, due to the impedance of the cables. Ignition of fluorescent tubes in groups implies one specific constraint. When a group of tubes is already switched on, the compensation capacitors in these tubes which are already energized participate in the inrush current at the moment of ignition of a second group of tubes: they "amplify" the current peak in the control switch at the moment of ignition of the second group.

The table in **Figure N43**, resulting from measurements, specifies the magnitude of the first current peak, for different values of prospective short-circuit current I_{sc} . It is seen that the current peak can be multiplied by 2 or 3, depending on the number of tubes already in use at the moment of connection of the last group of tubes.

Number of tubes already in use	Number of tubes connected	Inrush current peak (A)		
		$I_{sc} = 1,500 \text{ A}$	$I_{sc} = 3,000 \text{ A}$	$I_{sc} = 6,000 \text{ A}$
0	14	233	250	320
14	14	558	556	575
28	14	608	607	624
42	14	618	616	632

Fig. N43 : Magnitude of the current peak in the control switch of the moment of ignition of a second group of tubes

Nonetheless, sequential ignition of each group of tubes is recommended so as to reduce the current peak in the main switch.

The most recent magnetic ballasts are known as "low-loss". The magnetic circuit has been optimized, but the operating principle remains the same. This new generation of ballasts is coming into widespread use, under the influence of new regulations (European Directive, Energy Policy Act - USA).

In these conditions, the use of electronic ballasts is likely to increase, to the detriment of magnetic ballasts.

Fluorescent lamps with electronic ballast

Electronic ballasts are used as a replacement for magnetic ballasts to supply power to fluorescent tubes (including compact fluorescent lamps) and discharge lamps.

They also provide the "starter" function and do not need any compensation capacity.

The principle of the electronic ballast (see **Fig. N44**) consists of supplying the lamp arc via an electronic device that generates a rectangular form AC voltage with a frequency between 20 and 60 kHz.

Supplying the arc with a high-frequency voltage can totally eliminate the flicker phenomenon and strobe effects. The electronic ballast is totally silent.

During the preheating period of a discharge lamp, this ballast supplies the lamp with increasing voltage, imposing an almost constant current. In steady state, it regulates the voltage applied to the lamp independently of any fluctuations in the line voltage.

Since the arc is supplied in optimum voltage conditions, this results in energy savings of 5 to 10% and increased lamp service life. Moreover, the efficiency of the electronic ballast can exceed 93%, whereas the average efficiency of a magnetic device is only 85%.

The power factor is high (> 0.9).

The electronic ballast is also used to provide the light dimming function. Varying the frequency in fact varies the current magnitude in the arc and hence the luminous intensity.

Inrush current

The main constraint that electronic ballasts bring to line supplies is the high inrush current on switch-on linked to the initial load of the smoothing capacitors (see **Fig. N45**).

Technology	Max. inrush current	Duration
Rectifier with PFC	30 to 100 In	≤ 1 ms
Rectifier with choke	10 to 30 In	≤ 5 ms
Magnetic ballast	≤ 13 In	5 to 10 ms

Fig. N45 : Orders of magnitude of the inrush current maximum values, depending on the technologies used

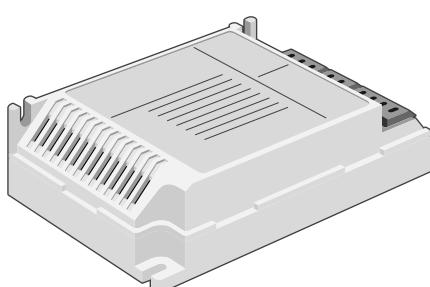


Fig. N44 : Electronic ballast

4 Lighting circuits

In reality, due to the wiring impedances, the inrush currents for an assembly of lamps is much lower than these values, in the order of 5 to 10 In for less than 5 ms. Unlike magnetic ballasts, this inrush current is not accompanied by an overvoltage.

Harmonic currents

For ballasts associated with high-power discharge lamps, the current drawn from the line supply has a low total harmonic distortion (< 20% in general and < 10% for the most sophisticated devices). Conversely, devices associated with low-power lamps, in particular compact fluorescent lamps, draw a very distorted current (see Fig. N46). The total harmonic distortion can be as high as 150%. In these conditions, the rms current drawn from the line supply equals 1.8 times the current corresponding to the lamp active power, which corresponds to a power factor of 0.55.

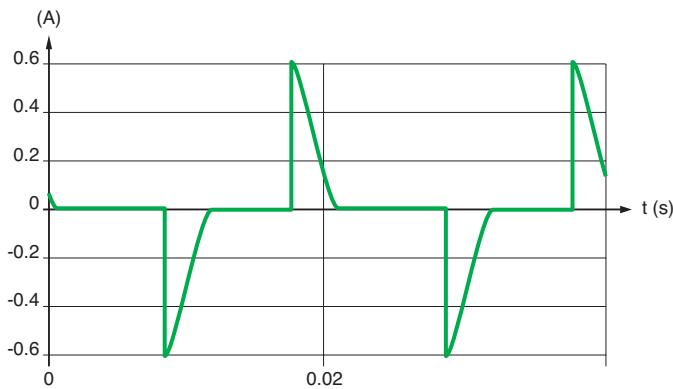


Fig. N46 : Shape of the current drawn by a compact fluorescent lamp

In order to balance the load between the different phases, lighting circuits are usually connected between phases and neutral in a balanced way. In these conditions, the high level of third harmonic and harmonics that are multiple of 3 can cause an overload of the neutral conductor. The least favorable situation leads to a neutral current which may reach $\sqrt{3}$ times the current in each phase.

Harmonic emission limits for electric or electronic systems are set by IEC standard 61000-3-2. For simplification, the limits for lighting equipment are given here only for harmonic orders 3 and 5 which are the most relevant (see Fig. N47).

Harmonic order	Active input power > 25W		Active input power ≤ 25W one of the 2 sets of limits apply:
	% of fundamental current	% of fundamental current	Harmonic current relative to active power
3	30	86	3.4 mA/W
5	10	61	1.9 mA/W

Fig. N47 : Maximum permissible harmonic current

N33

Leakage currents

Electronic ballasts usually have capacitors placed between the power supply conductors and the earth. These interference-suppressing capacitors are responsible for the circulation of a permanent leakage current in the order of 0.5 to 1 mA per ballast. This therefore results in a limit being placed on the number of ballasts that can be supplied by a Residual Current Differential Safety Device (RCD).

At switch-on, the initial load of these capacitors can also cause the circulation of a current peak whose magnitude can reach several amps for 10 μ s. This current peak may cause unwanted tripping of unsuitable devices.

High-frequency emissions

Electronic ballasts are responsible for high-frequency conducted and radiated emissions.

The very steep rising edges applied to the ballast output conductors cause current pulses circulating in the stray capacities to earth. As a result, stray currents circulate in the earth conductor and the power supply conductors. Due to the high frequency of these currents, there is also electromagnetic radiation. To limit these HF emissions, the lamp should be placed in the immediate proximity of the ballast, thus reducing the length of the most strongly radiating conductors.

The different power supply modes (see Fig. N48)

Technology	Power supply mode	Other device
Standard incandescent	Direct power supply	Dimmer switch
Halogen incandescent		
ELV halogen incandescent	Transformer	Electronic converter
Fluorescent tube	Magnetic ballast and starter	Electronic ballast Electronic dimmer + ballast
Compact fluorescent lamp	Built-in electronic ballast	
Mercury vapor	Magnetic ballast	Electronic ballast
High-pressure sodium		
Low-pressure sodium		
Metal halide		

Fig. N48 : Different power supply modes

4.3 Constraints related to lighting devices and recommendations

The current actually drawn by luminaires

The risk

This characteristic is the first one that should be defined when creating an installation, otherwise it is highly probable that overload protection devices will trip and users may often find themselves in the dark.

It is evident that their determination should take into account the consumption of all components, especially for fluorescent lighting installations, since the power consumed by the ballasts has to be added to that of the tubes and bulbs.

The solution

For incandescent lighting, it should be remembered that the line voltage can be more than 10% of its nominal value, which would then cause an increase in the current drawn.

For fluorescent lighting, unless otherwise specified, the power of the magnetic ballasts can be assessed at 25% of that of the bulbs. For electronic ballasts, this power is lower, in the order of 5 to 10%.

The thresholds for the overcurrent protection devices should therefore be calculated as a function of the total power and the power factor, calculated for each circuit.

Overcurrents at switch-on

The risk

The devices used for control and protection of lighting circuits are those such as relays, triac, remote-control switches, contactors or circuit-breakers.

The main constraint applied to these devices is the current peak on energization. This current peak depends on the technology of the lamps used, but also on the installation characteristics (supply transformer power, length of cables, number of lamps) and the moment of energization in the line voltage period. A high current peak, however fleeting, can cause the contacts on an electromechanical control device to weld together or the destruction of a solid state device with semiconductors.

4 Lighting circuits

Two solutions

Because of the inrush current, the majority of ordinary relays are incompatible with lighting device power supply. The following recommendations are therefore usually made:

- Limit the number of lamps to be connected to a single device so that their total power is less than the maximum permissible power for the device
- Check with the manufacturers what operating limits they suggest for the devices. This precaution is particularly important when replacing incandescent lamps with compact fluorescent lamps

By way of example, the table in **Figure N49** indicates the maximum number of compensated fluorescent tubes that can be controlled by different devices with 16 A rating. Note that the number of controlled tubes is well below the number corresponding to the maximum power for the devices.

Tube unit power requirement (W)	Number of tubes corresponding to the power 16 A x 230 V	Maximum number of tubes that can be controlled by Contactors GC16 A CT16 A	Remote control switches TL16 A	Circuit-breakers C60-16 A
18	204	15	50	112
36	102	15	25	56
58	63	10	16	34

Fig. N49 : The number of controlled tubes is well below the number corresponding to the maximum power for the devices

But a technique exists to limit the current peak on energization of circuits with capacitive behavior (magnetic ballasts with parallel compensation and electronic ballasts). It consists of ensuring that activation occurs at the moment when the line voltage passes through zero. Only solid state switches with semi-conductors offer this possibility (see **Fig. N50a**). This technique has proved to be particularly useful when designing new lighting circuits.

More recently, hybrid technology devices have been developed that combine a solid state switch (activation on voltage passage through zero) and an electromechanical contactor short-circuiting the solid state switch (reduction of losses in the semi-conductors) (see **Fig. N50b**).

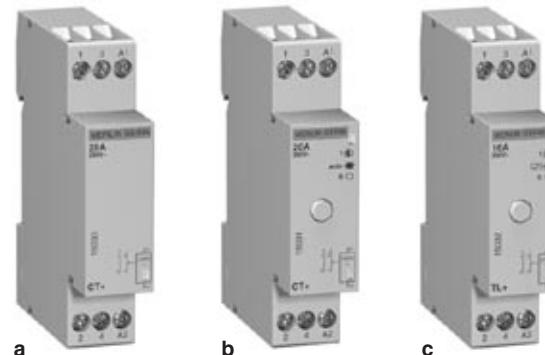


Fig. N50 : "Standard" CT+ contactor [a], CT+ contactor with manual override, pushbutton for selection of operating mode and indicator lamp showing the active operating mode [b], and TL + remote-control switch [c] (Merlin Gerin brand)

N35

Modular contactors and impulse relays do not use the same technologies. Their rating is determined according to different standards. For example, for a given rating, an impulse relay is more efficient than a modular contactor for the control of light fittings with a strong inrush current, or with a low power factor (non-compensated inductive circuit).

Choice of relay rating according to lamp type

- **Figure 51** below shows the maximum number of light fittings for each relay, according to the type, power and configuration of a given lamp. As an indication, the total acceptable power is also mentioned.
- These values are given for a 230 V circuit with 2 active conductors (single-phase phase/neutral or two-phase phase/phase). For 110 V circuits, divide the values in the table by 2.
- To obtain the equivalent values for the whole of a 230 V three-phase circuit, multiply the number of lamps and the total acceptable power:
 - by $\sqrt{3}$ (1.73) for circuits without neutral;
 - by 3 for circuits with neutral.

Note: The power ratings of the lamps most commonly used are shown in bold.

Type of lamp	Unit power and capacitance of power factor correction capacitor	Maximum number of light fittings for a single-phase circuit and maximum power output per circuit																								
		TL impulse relay 16 A 32 A		CT contactor 16 A 25 A		40 A		63 A																		
Basic incandescent lamps																										
LV halogen lamps																										
Replacement mercury vapour lamps (without ballast)																										
40 W		40	1500 W	106	4000 W	38	1550 W	57	2300 W	115	4600 W	172	6900 W													
60 W		25	to 1600 W	66	to 4200 W	30	to 2000 W	45	to 2850 W	85	to 5250 W	125	to 7500 W													
75 W		20		53		25		38		70		100														
100 W		16		42		19		28		50		73														
150 W		10		28		12		18		35		50														
200 W		8		21		10		14		26		37														
300 W		5	1500 W	13	4000 W	7	2100 W	10	3000 W	18	5500 W	25	7500 W													
500 W		3		8		4		6		10		15														
1000 W		1		4		2		3		6		8														
1500 W		1		2		1		2		4		5														
ELV 12 or 24 V halogen lamps																										
With ferromagnetic transformer		20 W	70	1350 W	180	3600 W	15	300 W	23	450 W	42	850 W	63	1250 W												
50 W		28		74		10		15		27		42		2850 W												
75 W		19		50		8		12		23		35														
100 W		14		37		6		8		18		27														
With electronic transformer		20 W	60	1200 W	160	3200 W	62	1250 W	90	1850 W	182	3650 W	275	5500 W												
50 W		25		65		25		39		76		114		6000 W												
75 W		18		44		20		28		53		78														
100 W		14		33		16		22		42		60														
Fluorescent tubes with starter and ferromagnetic ballast																										
1 tube without compensation (1)		15 W	83	1250 W	213	3200 W	22	330 W	30	450 W	70	1050 W	100	1500 W												
18 W		70		186		22		30		70		100		3850 W												
20 W		62		160		22		30		70		100														
36 W		35		93		20		28		60		90														
40 W		31		81		20		28		60		90														
58 W		21		55		13		17		35		56														
65 W		20		50		13		17		35		56														
80 W		16		41		10		15		30		48														
115 W		11		29		7		10		20		32														
1 tube with parallel compensation (2)		15 W	5 μ F	60	900 W	160	2400 W	15	200 W	20	300 W	40	600 W	60	900 W											
18 W		5 μ F	50	133		15		20		40		60		3500 W												
20 W		5 μ F	45	120		15		20		40		60														
36 W		5 μ F	25	66		15		20		40		60														
40 W		5 μ F	22	60		15		20		40		60														
58 W		7 μ F	16	42		10		15		30		43														
65 W		7 μ F	13	37		10		15		30		43														
80 W		7 μ F	11	30		10		15		30		43														
115 W		16 μ F	7	20		5		7		14		20														
2 or 4 tubes with series compensation		2 x 18 W	56	2000 W	148	5300 W	30	1100 W	46	1650 W	80	2900 W	123	4450 W												
4 x 18 W		28		74		16		24		44		68		5900 W												
2 x 36 W		28		74		16		24		44		68														
2 x 58 W		17		45		10		16		27		42														
2 x 65 W		15		40		10		16		27		42														
2 x 80 W		12		33		9		13		22		34														
2 x 115 W		8		23		6		10		16		25														
Fluorescent tubes with electronic ballast																										
1 or 2 tubes		18 W	80	1450 W	212	3800 W	74	1300 W	111	2000 W	222	4000 W	333	6000 W												
36 W		40		106		38		58		74		176		6600 W												
58 W		26	1550 W	69	4000 W	25	1400 W	37	2200 W	111	4400 W	111	166													
2 x 18 W		40		106		36		55		74		166														
2 x 36 W		20		53		20		30		60		90														
2 x 58 W		13		34		12		19		38		57														

Fig. N51 : Maximum number of light fittings for each relay, according to the type, power and configuration of a given lamp (Continued on opposite page)

4 Lighting circuits

Type of lamp	Unit power and capacitance of power factor correction capacitor	Maximum number of light fittings for a single-phase circuit and maximum power output per circuit										
		TL impulse relay 16 A 32 A		CT contactor 16 A 25 A		40 A		63 A				
Compact fluorescent lamps												
With external electronic ballast	5 W	240	1200 W	630	3150 W	210	1050 W	330	1650 W	670	3350 W	
	7 W	171	to 457	366	to 3800 W	150	to 1300 W	222	to 2000 W	478	to 4000 W	
	9 W	138		122		104		194		383		
	11 W	118		202		66		163		327		
	18 W	77				50		105		216		
	26 W	55		146				76		153		
With integral electronic ballast (replacement for incandescent lamps)	5 W	170	850 W	390	1950 W	160	800 W	230	1150 W	470	2350 W	
	7 W	121	to 285	233	to 2400 W	114	to 900 W	164	to 1300 W	335	to 2600 W	
	9 W	100		200		94		133		266		
	11 W	86				78		109		222		
	18 W	55		127		48		69		138		
	26 W	40		92		34		50		100		
High-pressure mercury vapour lamps with ferromagnetic ballast without ignitor												
Replacement high-pressure sodium vapour lamps with ferromagnetic ballast with integral ignitor (3)												
Without compensation (1)	50 W		not tested, infrequent use			15	750 W	20	1000 W	34	1700 W	
	80 W					10	to 1000 W	15	to 1600 W	27	to 2800 W	
	125 / 110 W (3)					8		10		20		
	250 / 220 W (3)					4		6		10		
	400 / 350 W (3)					2		4		6		
	700 W					1		2		4		
With parallel compensation (2)	50 W	7 µF				10	500 W	15	750 W	28	1400 W	
	80 W	8 µF				9	to 1400 W	13	to 1600 W	25	to 3500 W	
	125 / 110 W (3)	10 µF				9		10		20		
	250 / 220 W (3)	18 µF				4		6		11		
	400 / 350 W (3)	25 µF				3		4		8		
	700 W	40 µF				2		2		5		
Low-pressure sodium vapour lamps with ferromagnetic ballast with external ignitor												
Without compensation (1)	35 W		not tested, infrequent use			5	270 W	9	320 W	14	500 W	
	55 W					5	to 360 W	9	to 720 W	14	to 1100 W	
	90 W					3		6		9		
	135 W					2		4		6		
	180 W					2		4		6		
						0		1		3		
With parallel compensation (2)	35 W	20 µF		38	1350 W	102	3600 W	3	100 W	5	175 W	
	55 W	20 µF		24		3	to 180 W	5	to 360 W	10	350 W	
	90 W	26 µF		15		2		4		8		
	135 W	40 µF		10		1		2		5		
	180 W	45 µF		7		1		2		4		
High-pressure sodium vapour lamps												
Metal-iodide lamps												
With ferromagnetic ballast with external ignitor, without compensation (1)	35 W		not tested, infrequent use			16	600 W	24	850 W	42	1450 W	
	70 W					8		12		20		
	150 W					4		7		13		
	250 W					2		4		8		
	400 W					1		3		5		
	1000 W					0		1		2		
With ferromagnetic ballast with external ignitor and parallel compensation (2)	35 W	6 µF		34	1200 W	88	3100 W	12	450 W	18	650 W	
	70 W	12 µF		17	to 1350 W	45	to 3400 W	6	to 1000 W	9	to 2000 W	
	150 W	20 µF		8		22		4		6		
	250 W	32 µF		5		13		3		4		
	400 W	45 µF		3		8		2		3		
	1000 W	60 µF		1		3		1		2		
With electronic ballast	2000 W	85 µF		0		1		0		1		
	35 W		38	1350 W	87	3100 W	24	850 W	38	1350 W	68	
	70 W		29	to 2200 W	77	to 5000 W	18	to 1350 W	29	to 2200 W	51	
	150 W		14		33			9		14	26	

(1) Circuits with non-compensated ferromagnetic ballasts consume twice as much current for a given lamp power output. This explains the small number of lamps in this configuration.

(2) The total capacitance of the power factor correction capacitors in parallel in a circuit limits the number of lamps that can be controlled by a contactor. The total downstream capacitance of a modular contactor of rating 16, 25, 40 or 63 A should not exceed 75, 100, 200 or 300 µF respectively. Allow for these limits to calculate the maximum acceptable number of lamps if the capacitance values are different from those in the table.

(3) High-pressure mercury vapour lamps without ignitor, of power 125, 250 and 400 W, are gradually being replaced by high-pressure sodium vapour lamps with integral ignitor, and respective power of 110, 220 and 350 W.

Fig. N51 : Maximum number of light fittings for each relay, according to the type, power and configuration of a given lamp (Concluded)

Protection of lamp circuits: Maximum number of lamps and MCB rating versus lamp type, unit power and MCB tripping curve

During start up of discharge lamps (with their ballast), the inrush current drawn by each lamp may be in the order of:

- 25 x circuit start current for the first 3 ms
- 7 x circuit start current for the following 2 s

For fluorescent lamps with High Frequency Electronic control ballast, the protective device ratings must cope with 25 x inrush for 250 to 350 μ s.

However due to the circuit resistance the total inrush current seen by the MCB is lower than the summation of all individual lamp inrush current if directly connected to the MCB.

The tables below (see Fig. N52 to NXX) take into account:

- Circuits cables have a length of 20 meters from distribution board to the first lamp and 7 meters between each additional fittings.
- MCB rating is given to protect the lamp circuit in accordance with the cable cross section, and without unwanted tripping upon lamp starting.
- MCB tripping curve (C = instantaneous trip setting 5 to 10 In, D = instantaneous trip setting 10 to 14 In).

Lamp power (W)	Number of lamps per circuit																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	MCB rating C & D tripping curve																			
14/18	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
14 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
14 x3	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10
14 x4	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10
18 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
18 x4	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10
21/24	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
21/24 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
28	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
28 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10
35/36/39	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
35/36 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10
38/39 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
40/42	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
40/42 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	16
49/50	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
49/50 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16
54/55	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10
54/55 x2	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16
60	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10

N38

Fig. N52 : Fluorescent tubes with electronic ballast - Vac = 230 V

Lamp power (W)	Number of lamps per circuit																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	MCB rating C & D tripping curve																			
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
9	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
11	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
13	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
14	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
15	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
16	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
17	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
18	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
20	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
21	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
23	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
25	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10

Fig. N53 : Compact fluorescent lamps - Vac = 230 V

4 Lighting circuits

Lamp power (W)	Number of lamps per circuit																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
MCB rating C tripping curve																				
50	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10
80	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16
125	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	20
250	6	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	20	20	25	25	25	32	32	32	32	40	40	40
400	6	16	20	25	25	32	32	32	32	40	40	40	50	50	50	50	50	63	63	63
1000	16	32	40	50	50	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MCB rating D tripping curve																				
50	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10
80	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16
125	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	20
250	6	6	10	10	10	10	16	16	20	20	25	25	25	32	32	32	32	40	40	40
400	6	10	16	16	20	20	25	25	32	32	40	40	40	50	50	50	50	63	63	63
1000	10	20	25	32	40	40	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Fig. N54 : High pressure mercury vapour (with ferromagnetic ballast and PF correction) - Vac = 230 V

Lamp power (W)	Number of lamps per circuit																			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
MCB rating C tripping curve																				
Ferromagnetic ballast																				
18	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
26	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
35/36	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
55	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10
91	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16
131	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	20
135	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	20
180	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	20	20	20	20	25	25	25	25
Electronic ballast																				
36	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
55	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
66	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10
91	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16
MCB rating D tripping curve																				
Ferromagnetic ballast																				
18	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
26	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
35/36	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
55	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10
91	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16
131	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	20
135	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	20	20
180	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	20	20	20	20	25	25	25	25	25
Electronic ballast																				
36	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
55	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
66	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10
91	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16

Fig. N55 : Low pressure sodium (with PF correction) - Vac = 230 V

Lamp power (W)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Number of lamps per circuit MCB rating C tripping curve													
Ferromagnetic ballast	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
50	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
70	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
100	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	
150	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	6	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	20	20	20	25	
250	6	10	16	16	16	20	20	20	20	20	20	25	25	25	25	32	32	32	32	40	40	
400	10	16	20	25	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	40	40	40	40	50	50	50	50	50	63	
1000	16	32	40	50	50	50	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Electronic ballast	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
35	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
50	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
100	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	
MCB rating D tripping curve																						
Ferromagnetic ballast	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
50	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
70	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	16	
100	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	
150	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	20	20	20	25	
250	6	6	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	20	20	25	25	25	25	32	32	32	32	40	40	
400	6	10	16	16	20	20	25	25	25	32	32	40	40	40	40	50	50	50	50	50	63	
1000	10	20	32	32	40	40	50	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Electronic ballast	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	
35	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
50	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
100	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	

Fig. N56 : High pressure sodium (with PF correction) - Vac = 230 V

Lamp power (W)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Number of lamps per circuit MCB rating C tripping curve													
Ferromagnetic ballast	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
35	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
70	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	16	
150	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	20	20	20	25	
250	6	10	16	16	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	25	25	25	25	32	32	32	32	40	40	
400	6	16	20	25	25	32	32	32	32	32	32	40	40	40	40	50	50	50	50	50	63	
1000	16	32	40	50	50	50	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	63	
1800/2000	25	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Electronic ballast	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
35	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
70	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
150	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	20	20	
MCB rating D tripping curve																						
Ferromagnetic ballast	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
35	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	16	
70	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
150	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	
250	6	10	16	16	20	20	25	25	25	32	32	40	40	40	40	50	50	50	50	50	63	
400	6	16	20	25	25	32	32	32	32	32	32	40	40	40	40	50	50	50	50	50	63	
1000	16	32	40	50	50	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1800	20	40	50	50	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Electronic ballast	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	
35	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
70	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	
150	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	16	16	16	16	16	20	

Fig. N57 : Metal halide (with PF correction) - Vac = 230 V

Lamp power (W)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Number of lamps per circuit MCB rating C tripping curve													
Ferromagnetic ballast	16	32	40	50	50	50	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1800	16	32	40	50	50	50	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
2000	16	32	40	50	50	50	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
MCB rating D tripping curve																						
Ferromagnetic ballast	16	20	32	32	32	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1800	16	20	32	32	32	50	63	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2000	16	25	32	32	32	50	63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Fig. N58 : Metal halide (with ferromagnetic ballast and PF correction) - Vac = 400 V

4 Lighting circuits

Overload of the neutral conductor

The risk

In an installation including, for example, numerous fluorescent tubes with electronic ballasts supplied between phases and neutral, a high percentage of 3rd harmonic current can cause an overload of the neutral conductor. **Figure N59** below gives an overview of typical H3 level created by lighting.

Lamp type	Typical power	Setting mode	Typical H3 level
Incandescend lamp with dimmer	100 W	Light dimmer	5 to 45 %
ELV halogen lamp	25 W	Electronic ELV transformer	5 %
Fluorescent tube	100 W	Magnetic ballast	10 %
	< 25 W	Electronic ballast	85 %
	> 25 W	+ PFC	30 %
Discharge lamp	100 W	Magnetic ballast	10 %
		Electrical ballast	30 %

Fig. N59 : Overview of typical H3 level created by lighting

The solution

Firstly, the use of a neutral conductor with a small cross-section (half) should be prohibited, as requested by Installation standard IEC 60364, section 523–5–3.

As far as overcurrent protection devices are concerned, it is necessary to provide 4-pole circuit-breakers with protected neutral (except with the TN-C system for which the PEN, a combined neutral and protection conductor, should not be cut).

This type of device can also be used for the breaking of all poles necessary to supply luminaires at the phase-to-phase voltage in the event of a fault.

A breaking device should therefore interrupt the phase and Neutral circuit simultaneously.

Leakage currents to earth

The risk

At switch-on, the earth capacitances of the electronic ballasts are responsible for residual current peaks that are likely to cause unintentional tripping of protection devices.

Two solutions

The use of Residual Current Devices providing immunity against this type of impulse current is recommended, even essential, when equipping an existing installation (see **Fig. N60**).

For a new installation, it is sensible to provide solid state or hybrid control devices (contactors and remote-control switches) that reduce these impulse currents (activation on voltage passage through zero).

N41

Overvoltages

The risk

As illustrated in earlier sections, switching on a lighting circuit causes a transient state which is manifested by a significant overcurrent. This overcurrent is accompanied by a strong voltage fluctuation applied to the load terminals connected to the same circuit. These voltage fluctuations can be detrimental to correct operation of sensitive loads (micro-computers, temperature controllers, etc.)

The Solution

It is advisable to separate the power supply for these sensitive loads from the lighting circuit power supply.

Sensitivity of lighting devices to line voltage disturbances

Short interruptions

■ The risk

Discharge lamps require a relighting time of a few minutes after their power supply has been switched off.

■ The solution

Partial lighting with instantaneous relighting (incandescent lamps or fluorescent tubes, or "hot restrike" discharge lamps) should be provided if safety requirements so dictate. Its power supply circuit is, depending on current regulations, usually distinct from the main lighting circuit.

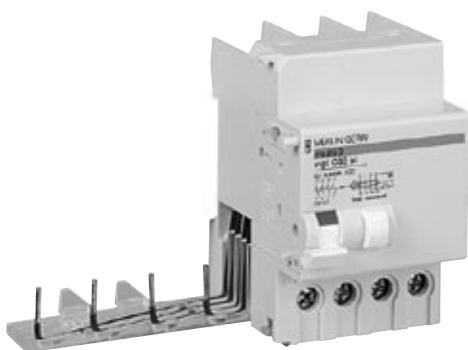


Fig. N60 : s.i. residual current devices with immunity against impulse currents (Merlin Gerin brand)

Voltage fluctuations

■ The risk

The majority of lighting devices (with the exception of lamps supplied by electronic ballasts) are sensitive to rapid fluctuations in the supply voltage. These fluctuations cause a flicker phenomenon which is unpleasant for users and may even cause significant problems. These problems depend on both the frequency of variations and their magnitude.

Standard IEC 61000-2-2 ("compatibility levels for low-frequency conducted disturbances") specifies the maximum permissible magnitude of voltage variations as a function of the number of variations per second or per minute.

These voltage fluctuations are caused mainly by high-power fluctuating loads (arc furnaces, welding machines, starting motors).

■ The solution

Special methods can be used to reduce voltage fluctuations. Nonetheless, it is advisable, wherever possible, to supply lighting circuits via a separate line supply. The use of electronic ballasts is recommended for demanding applications (hospitals, clean rooms, inspection rooms, computer rooms, etc).

Developments in control and protection equipment

The use of light dimmers is more and more common. The constraints on ignition are therefore reduced and derating of control and protection equipment is less important. New protection devices adapted to the constraints on lighting circuits are being introduced, for example Merlin Gerin brand circuit-breakers and modular residual current circuit-breakers with special immunity, such as s.i. type ID switches and Vigi circuit-breakers. As control and protection equipment evolves, some now offer remote control, 24-hour management, lighting control, reduced consumption, etc.

4.4 Lighting of public areas

Normal lighting

Regulations governing the minimum requirements for buildings receiving the public in most European countries are as follows:

- Installations which illuminate areas accessible to the public must be controlled and protected independently from installations providing illumination to other areas
- Loss of supply on a final lighting circuit (i.e. fuse blown or CB tripped) must not result in total loss of illumination in an area which is capable of accommodating more than 50 persons
- Protection by Residual Current Devices (RCD) must be divided amongst several devices (i.e. more than one device must be used)

Emergency lighting and other systems

When we refer to emergency lighting, we mean the auxiliary lighting that is triggered when the standard lighting fails.

Emergency lighting is subdivided as follows (EN-1838):

Safety lighting

It originates from the emergency lighting and is intended to provide lighting for people to evacuate an area safely or for those who try to finish a potentially dangerous operation before leaving the area. It is intended to illuminate the means of evacuation and ensure continuous visibility and ready usage in safety when standard or emergency lighting is needed. Safety lighting may be further subdivided as follows:

Safety lighting for escape routes

It originates from the safety lighting, and is intended to ensure that the escape means can be clearly identified and used safely when the area is busy.

Anti-panic lighting in extended areas

It originates from the safety lighting, and is intended to avoid panic and to provide the necessary lighting to allow people to reach a possible escape route area.

Emergency lighting and safety signs for escape routes

The emergency lighting and safety signs for escape routes are very important for all those who design emergency systems. Their suitable choice helps improve safety levels and allows emergency situations to be handled better.

4 Lighting circuits

Standard EN 1838 ("Lighting applications. Emergency lighting") gives some fundamental concepts concerning what is meant by emergency lighting for escape routes:

"The intention behind lighting escape routes is to allow safe exit by the occupants, providing them with sufficient visibility and directions on the escape route ..."

The concept referred to above is very simple:

The safety signs and escape route lighting must be two separate things.

Functions and operation of the luminaires

The manufacturing specifications are covered by standard EN 60598-2-22, "Particular Requirements - Luminaires for Emergency Lighting", which must be read with EN 60598-1, "Luminaires – Part 1: General Requirements and Tests".

Duration

A basic requirement is to determine the duration required for the emergency lighting. Generally it is 1 hour but some countries may have different duration requirements according to statutory technical standards.

Operation

We should clarify the different types of emergency luminaires:

- Non-maintained luminaires
 - The lamp will only switch on if there is a fault in the standard lighting
 - The lamp will be powered by the battery during failure
 - The battery will be automatically recharged when the mains power supply is restored
- Maintained luminaires
 - The lamp can be switched on in continuous mode
 - A power supply unit is required with the mains, especially for powering the lamp, which can be disconnected when the area is not busy
 - The lamp will be powered by the battery during failure.

Design

The integration of emergency lighting with standard lighting must comply strictly with electrical system standards in the design of a building or particular place.

All regulations and laws must be complied with in order to design a system which is up to standard (see **Fig. N61**).

The main functions of an emergency lighting system when standard lighting fails are the following:

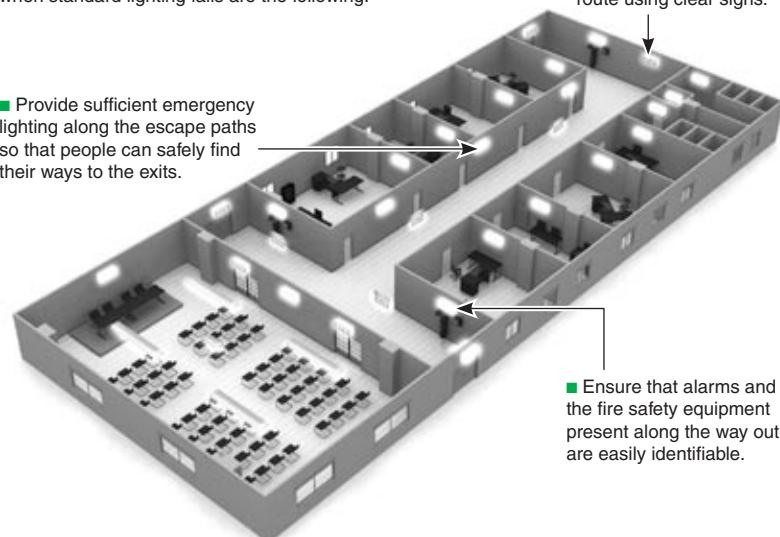


Fig. N61 : The main functions of an emergency lighting system

European standards

The design of emergency lighting systems is regulated by a number of legislative provisions that are updated and implemented from time to time by new documentation published on request by the authorities that deal with European and international technical standards and regulations.

Each country has its own laws and regulations, in addition to technical standards

which govern different sectors. Basically they describe the places that must be provided with emergency lighting as well as its technical specifications. The designer's job is to ensure that the design project complies with these standards.

EN 1838

A very important document on a European level regarding emergency lighting is the Standard EN 1838, "Lighting applications. Emergency lighting".

This standard presents specific requirements and constraints regarding the operation and the function of emergency lighting systems.

CEN and CENELEC standards

With the CEN (Comité Européen de Normalisation) and CENELEC standards (Comité Européen de Normalisation Electrotechnique), we are in a standardised environment of particular interest to the technician and the designer. A number of sections deal with emergencies. An initial distinction should be made between luminaire standards and installation standards.

EN 60598-2-22 and EN-60598-1

Emergency lighting luminaires are subject to European standard EN 60598-2-22, "Particular Requirements - Luminaires for Emergency Lighting", which is an integrative text (of specifications and analysis) of the Standard EN-60598-1, Luminaires – "Part 1: General Requirements and Tests".

5 Asynchronous motors

The asynchronous (i.e. induction) motor is robust and reliable, and very widely used. 95% of motors installed around the world are asynchronous. The protection of these motors is consequently a matter of great importance in numerous applications.

Asynchronous motors are used in a wide variety of applications. Here are some examples of driven machines:

- centrifugal pumps,
- fans and blowers,
- compressors,
- crushers,
- conveyors,
- lifts and cranes,
- ...

The consequence of a motor failure due to an incorrect protection or inability of control circuit to operate can include the following:

- For persons:
 - Asphyxiation due to the blockage of motor ventilation
 - Electrocution due to insulation failure in the motor
 - Accident due to non stopping of the motor following a control circuit failure
- For the driven machine and the process:
 - Shaft couplings, axles, driving belts, ... damaged due to a stalled rotor
 - Lost production
 - Delayed manufacturing
- For the motor itself:
 - Motor windings burnt out due to stalled rotor
 - Cost of repair
 - Cost of replacement

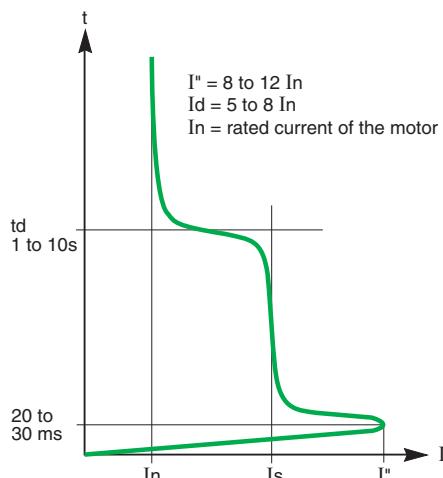
Therefore, safety of persons and goods, as well as reliability and availability levels, are highly dependant on the selection of protective equipment.

In economic terms, the overall cost of failure must be considered. This cost is increasing with the size of the motor and with the difficulties of access and replacement. Loss of production is a further and evidently important factor.

Specific features of motor performance influence the power supply circuits required for satisfactory operation

A motor power-supply circuit presents certain constraints not normally encountered in other (common) distribution circuits. These are owing to the particular characteristics of motors directly connected to the line, such as:

- High start-up current (see Fig. N62) which is mostly reactive, and can therefore be the cause of important voltage drop
- Number and frequency of start-up operations are generally high
- The high start-up current means that motor overload protective devices must have operating characteristics which avoid tripping during the starting period.



5.1 Motor control systems

Different kinds of motor control solution are compared in the following tables.

N45

	I_s / I_n	T_s / T_n	Speed control	Torque control
Direct on line	5-10	5-10	No	No
Star – Delta	2-3	1-2	No	No
Auto-tranformer	2-3	1-2	No	No
Soft starter	3-5	1.5-2.5	No	Yes
Variable speed drive	1.5	1.5-2	Yes	Yes

	Intérêt principal	Inconvénient
Direct on line	Reduced cost High starting torque	High in-rush current
Star – Delta	Reduced in-rush current	Reduced starting torque
Auto-tranformer	Reduced in-rush current	High weight
Soft starter	Reduced in-rush current controlled start and stop	Reduced starting torque
Variable speed drive	Controlled speed Energy saving at reduced speed	Higher cost

Fig. N63a : Comparison of different motor control solution

5.2 Motor protection functions

These are the arrangements implemented in order to avoid operation of motors in abnormal conditions which could result in negative events such as: overheating, premature ageing, destruction of electrical windings, damage to coupling or gear box, ...

Three levels of protection scheme are commonly proposed: "Conventional", "Advanced", "High Performance", which can be adopted depending on the sophistication and power of the driven machine.

- "Conventional" protection functions apply for every type of motor or application,
- "Advanced" protection functions apply to more sophisticated machines requesting special attention,
- "High performance" protection functions are justified for high power motors, high demanding applications, or motors in critical process.

Protection	Conventional	Advanced	High Performance
Short-circuit			
Thermal overload			
Phase current imbalance			
Phase current loss			
Over-current			
Ground fault			
Long start			
Jam			
Under-current			
Phase current reversal			
Motor temperature (by sensors)			
Rapid cycle lock-out			
Load shedding			
Phase voltage imbalance			
Phase voltage loss			
Phase voltage reversal			
Under-voltage			
Over-voltage			
Under-power			
Over-power			
Under power factor			
Over power factor			

Fig. N64 : Classification des fonctions de protection

5 Asynchronous motors

Here is a list of motor protection functions and the result of activation.

Short-circuit: disconnection in case of a short-circuit at the motor terminals or inside the motor windings.

Thermal overload: disconnection of motor in case of sustained operation with a torque exceeding the nominal value. Overload is detected by measurement of excessive stator current or by using PTC probes.

Phase current imbalance: disconnection of the motor in case of high current imbalance, responsible for increased power losses and overheating.

Phase current loss: disconnection of the motor if one phase current is zero, as this is revealing of cable or connection breaking.

Over-current: alarm or disconnection of the motor in case of high phase current, revealing a shaft over-torque.

Ground fault: disconnection in case of a fault between a motor terminal and ground. Even if the fault current is limited, a fast action could avoid a complete destruction of the motor.

Long start (stall): disconnection in case of a starting time longer than normal (due to mechanical problem or voltage sag) in order to avoid overheating of the motor.

Jam: disconnection in order to avoid overheating and mechanical stress if motor is blocked while running because of congestion.

Undercurrent: alarm or disconnection of the motor in case a low current value is detected, revealing a no-load condition (e.g.: pump drain, cavitation, broken shaft, ...)

Phase current reversal: disconnection when a wrong phase current sequence is detected

Motor temperature (by sensors): alarm or disconnection in case of high temperature detected by probes.

Rapid cycle lock-out: prevent connection and avoid overheating due to too frequent start-up.

Load shedding: disconnection of the motor when a voltage drop is detected, in order to reduce the supply load and return to normal voltage.

Phase voltage imbalance: disconnection of the motor in case of high voltage imbalance, responsible for increased power losses and overheating.

Phase voltage loss: disconnection of motor if one phase of the supply voltage is missing. This is necessary in order to avoid a single-phase running of a three-phase motor, which results in a reduced torque, increased stator current, and inability to start.

Phase voltage reversal: prevent the connection and avoid the reverse rotation of the motor in case of a wrong cabling of phases to the motor terminals, which could happen during maintenance for example.

Under-voltage: prevent the connection of the motor or disconnection of the motor, as a reduced voltage could not ensure a correct operation of the motor.

Over-voltage: prevent the connection of the motor or disconnection of the motor, as an increased voltage could not ensure a correct operation of the motor.

Under-power: alarm or disconnection of the motor in case of power lower than normal, as this situation is revealing a pump drain (risk of destruction of the pump) or broken shaft.

Over-power: alarm or disconnection of the motor in case of power higher than normal, as this situation is revealing a machine overload.

Under power factor: can be used for detection of low power with motors having a high no-load current.

Over power factor: can be used for detection of end of the starting phase.

The consequence of abnormal overheating is a reduced isolation capacity of the materials, thus leading to a significant shortening of the motor lifetime. This is illustrated on **Figure N65**, and justifies the importance of overload or over-temperature protection.

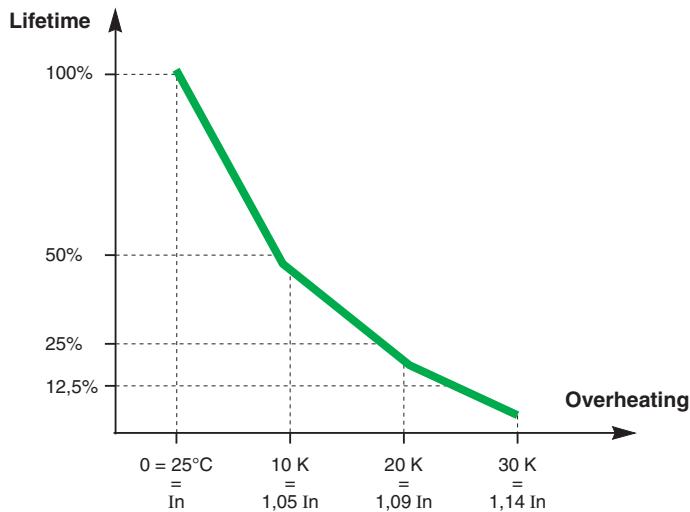


Fig. N65 : Reduced motor lifetime as a consequence of overheating

Overload relays (thermal or electronic) protect motors against overloads, but they must allow the temporary overload caused by starting, and must not trip unless the starting time is abnormally long.

Depending on the application, the motor starting time can vary from a few seconds (for no-load starting, low resistive torque, etc.) to several tens of seconds (for a high resistive torque, high inertia of the driven load, etc.). It is therefore necessary to fit relays appropriate to the starting time.

To meet this requirement, IEC Standard 60947-4-1 defines several classes of overload relays, each characterized by its tripping curve (see Fig. N65a).

The relay rating is to be chosen according to the nominal motor current and the calculated starting time.

Trip class 10 is adapted to normal duty motors.

Trip class 20 is recommended for heavy duty motors

Trip class 30 is necessary for very long motor starting.

N48

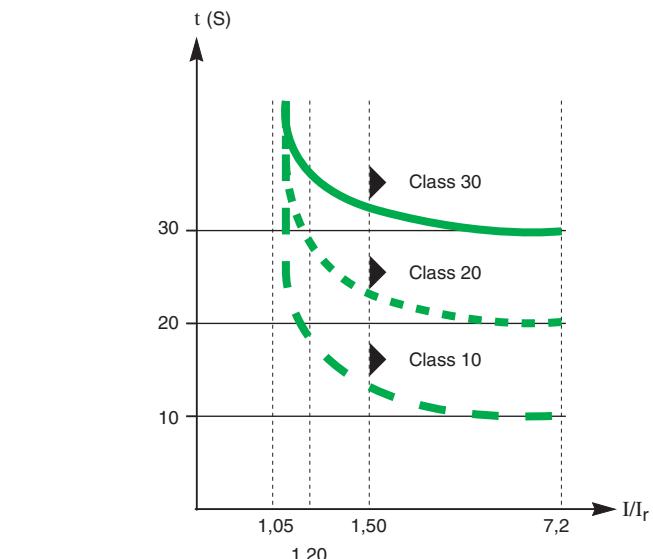


Fig. N65a : Tripping curves of overload relays

5 Asynchronous motors

5.3 Motor monitoring

The objective of implementing measurement devices is to ensure a continuous supervision of operating conditions of motors. The collected data can be used with great benefit for improving Energy Efficiency, extending lifetime of motors, or for programming maintenance operations.

Three levels of sophistication for monitoring scheme are commonly proposed: "Conventional", "Advanced", "High Performance", which can be made accessible, depending on the sophistication and power of the driven machine.

Measurement	Conventional	Advanced	High Performance
Currents			
Average current			
Phase current imbalance			
Thermal capacity level			
Motor temperature (by sensors)			
Phase to phase voltage			
Phase voltage imbalance			
Active power			
Reactive power			
Power factor			
Active energy			
Reactive energy			

Fig. N65b : Classification of protection functions

Here is a list of the most useful variables to be monitored, and the benefit provided by the measurement.

Currents: they are directly responsible for the conductors heating and thus for a possible time life reduction. These are the most important variables to monitor. The current measurement also gives a direct indication on the motor load and stress applied to the driven machine.

Average current: to know the average load of the motor, whether the motor is well adapted to the driven machine or not.

Phase current imbalance: as imbalance is responsible for additional losses in the motor, phase current imbalance is an important variable to monitor.

Thermal capacity level: knowledge of the remaining overload capability and safety margin.

Motor temperature (by sensors): knowledge of the real thermal operating conditions, taking account of motor load, ambient temperature, ventilation efficiency.

Phase to phase voltage: too high or too low phase voltages are responsible of increased motor current for a given load. Voltage monitoring is thus indicating whether the motor is operating in normal conditions or not.

Phase voltage imbalance: as imbalance is responsible for additional losses in the motor, phase voltage imbalance is an important variable to monitor.

Active power: indication of the load level applied to the motor.

Reactive power: indication of the reactive power that could be necessary to compensate by implementation of capacitors.

Power factor: indication of load level of the motor. If Power Factor is > 1 : submit your candidacy for the Physics Nobel Prize.

Active energy: possibility to relate the consumed energy to the operating time or the quantity of goods produced by driven machine.

Reactive energy: possibility to determine the necessity of implementation of capacitors in order to avoid payment of penalties to the Utility.



Fig. N65c : Example of motor management system with "High performance" protection and monitoring functions (TeSys T Schneider Electric)

5.4 Motor starter configurations

Different configurations of switchgear and control-gear are commonly proposed. Some examples are shown on **Figure N66**.

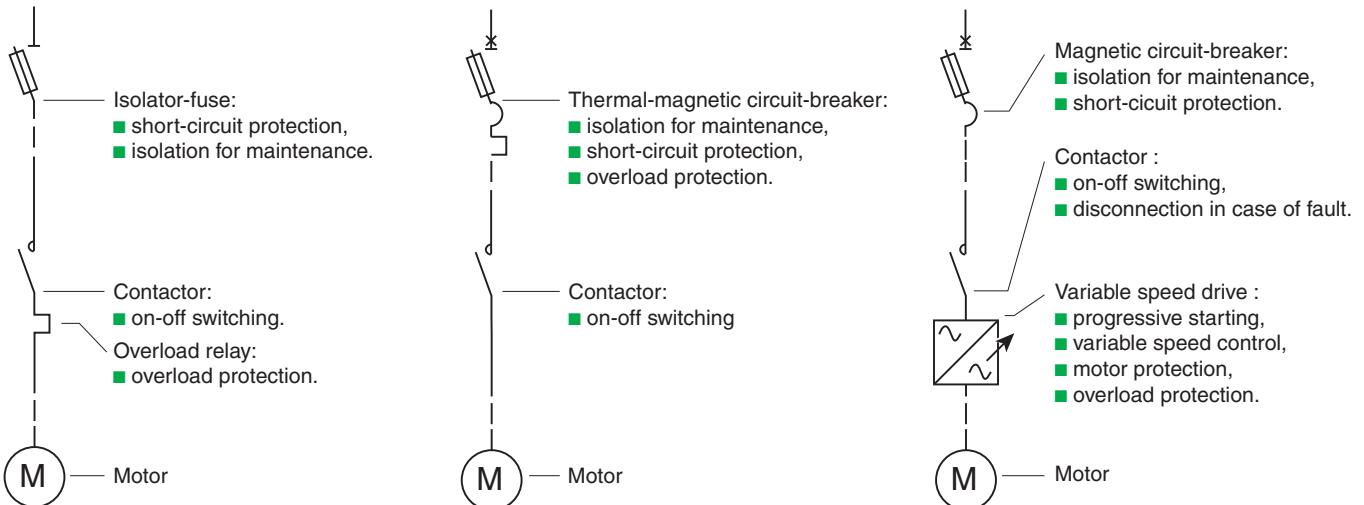


Fig. N66 : The various functions and their combinations forming a motor starter

The different applicable standards are listed on **Figure N67**.

Standard	Title
IEC 60947-1	Low-voltage switchgear and controlgear – General rules
IEC 60947-4-1	Contactors and motor-starters – Electromechanical contactors and motor-starters
IEC 60947-4-2	Contactors and motor-starters – AC semiconductor motor controllers and starters
IEC 60947-6-2	Multiple function equipment – Control and protective switching devices (or equipment) (CPS)
IEC 61800	Adjustable speed electrical power drive systems

N50

Fig. N67 : Applicable standards

Different utilization categories have been defined for contactors in IEC 60947-4-1. The selection relative to asynchronous motor control is given in **Figure N68**.

Category	Typical applications
AC-1	Non-inductive or slightly inductive loads, resistance furnaces
AC-2	Slip-ring motors: starting, switching off
AC-3	Squirrel-cage motors: starting, switching off motors during running
AC-4	Squirrel-cage motors: starting, plugging ⁽¹⁾ , inching ⁽²⁾

1) By plugging is understood stopping or reversing the motor rapidly by reversing motor primary connections while the motor is running.

2) By inching (jogging) is understood energizing a motor once or repeatedly for short periods to obtain small movements of the driven mechanism

Fig. N68 : Different categories of AC contactors used for asynchronous motor control

5.5 Protection coordination

Type 1 and Type 2 coordination are defined in IEC 60947-4-1.
Total coordination is offered by some manufacturers.

Coordination	Consequence of a short circuit	Application field
Type 1	The contactor or starter shall cause no danger to persons and installation and may not be suitable for further service without repair and replacement of parts.	General purpose application. Basic machines.
Type 2	The contactor or starter shall cause no danger to persons or installation and shall be suitable for further use. The risk of contact welding is recognized, in which case the manufacturer shall indicate the measures to be taken as regards the maintenance of the equipment.	Process with availability constraints, e.g.: continuous process, critical industrial machines.
Continuity of service (total coordination)	No damage or maladjustment is permissible. Must be able to restart immediately after fault is corrected No special precaution is required.	

Fig. N69 : Level of acceptable destruction according to the condition types

Among the many possible methods of protecting a motor, the association of a circuit breaker + contactor + thermal relay (1) provides many advantages

5.6 Basic protection scheme: circuit-breaker + contactor + thermal relay

The combination of these devices facilitates installation work, as well as operation and maintenance, by:

- The reduction of the maintenance work load: the circuit-breaker avoids the need to replace blown fuses and the necessity of maintaining a stock (of different sizes and types)
- Better continuity performance: the installation can be re-energized immediately following the elimination of a fault and after checking of the starter
- Additional complementary devices sometimes required on a motor circuit are easily accommodated
- Tripping of all three phases is assured (thereby avoiding the possibility of "single phasing")
- Full load current switching possibility (by circuit-breaker) in the event of contactor failure, e.g. contact welding
- Interlocking
- Diverse remote indications
- Better protection for the starter in case of over-current and in particular for impeded short-circuit (2) corresponding to currents up to about 30 times I_{N} of motor (see Fig. N67)
- Possibility of adding RCD:
- Prevention of risk of fire (sensitivity 500 mA)
- Protection against destruction of the motor (short-circuit of laminations) by the early detection of earth fault currents (sensitivity 300 mA to 30 A).

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(1) The combination of a contactor with a thermal relay is commonly referred to as a «discontactor».

(2) In the majority of cases, short circuit faults occur at the motor, so that the current is limited by the cable and the wiring of starter and are called impeded short-circuits.

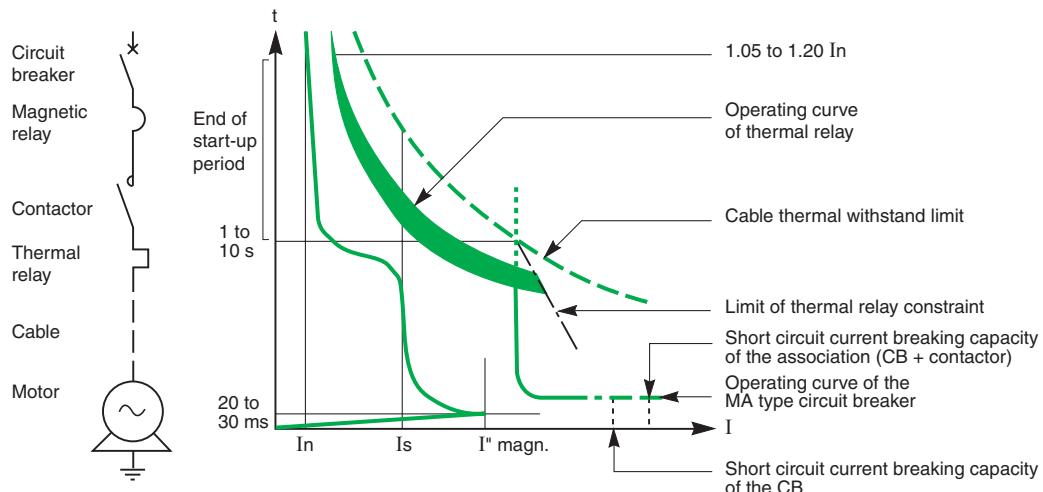


Fig. N70 : Tripping characteristics of a circuit-breaker + contactor + thermal relay

The combination of a circuit-breaker + contactor + thermal relay for the control and protection of motor circuits is eminently appropriate when:

- The maintenance service for an installation is reduced, which is generally the case in tertiary and small and medium sized industrial sites
- The job specification calls for complementary functions
- There is an operational requirement for a load breaking facility in the event of need of maintenance.

5.7 Control and protection switching gear (CPS)

CPS or "starter-controllers" are designed to fulfil control and protection functions simultaneously (overload and short-circuit). In addition, they are designed to carry out control operations in the event of short-circuit.

They can also assure additional functions such as insulation, thereby totally fulfilling the function of "motor starter unit". They comply with standard IEC 60947-6-2, which notably defines the assigned values and utilisation categories of a CPS, as do standards IEC 60947-1 and 60947-4-1. The functions performed by a CPS are combined and coordinated in such a way as to allow for uptime at all currents up to the I_{CS} working short circuit breaking capacity of the CPS. The CPS may or may not consist of one device, but its characteristics are assigned as for a single device. Furthermore, the guarantee of "total" coordination of all the functions ensures the user has a simple choice with optimal protection which is easy to implement.

Although presented as a single unit, a CPS can offer identical or greater modularity than the "three product" motor starter unit solution. This is the case with the Schneider Electric "TeSys U" starter-controller (see **Figure N71**).

5 Asynchronous motors

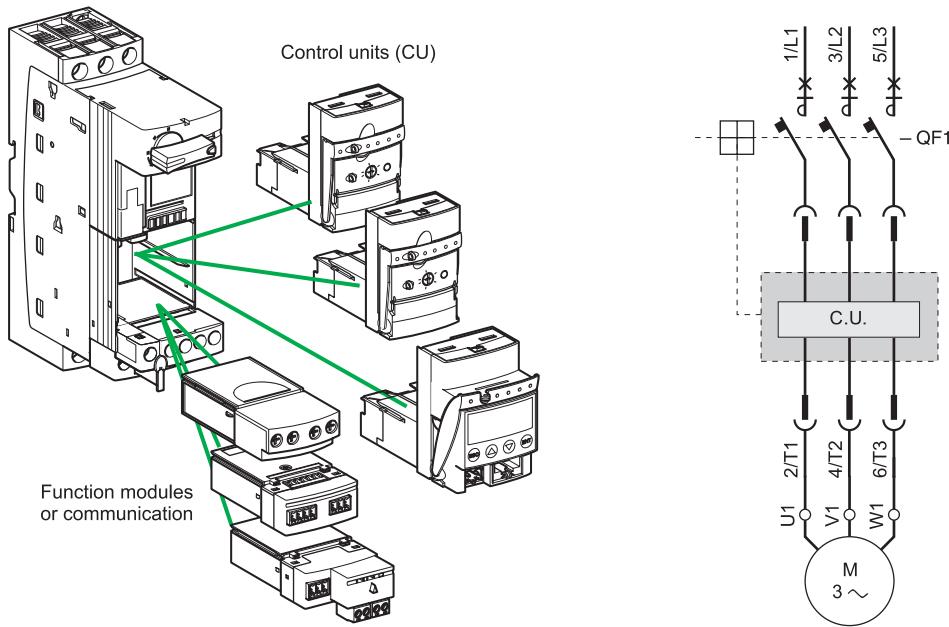


Fig. N71 : Example of a CPS modularity (TeSys U starter controller by Schneider Electric)

Additional functionalities can also be installed with regard to:

- Power: reversing block, current limiter,
- Control:
 - Function modules, alarms, motor load monitoring, automatic resetting, etc,
 - Communication options such as Ethernet, Modbus, Profibus, DeviceNet, CAN-Open, AS-I, etc,
 - Auxiliary contact modules.

Available functions	Standard	Upgradeable	Multifonction
Starter status (ready, running, with default)			
Start and Stop controls			
Thermal alarm			
Remote resetting by bus			
Indication of motor load			
Defaults differentiation			
Alarms (overcurrents...)			
Parameter setting and protection function reference			
"Log file" function			
"Monitoring" function			

Information conveyed by bus (Modbus or any other communication protocols) and functions performed

Fig. N72 : TeSys U Communication functions

N53

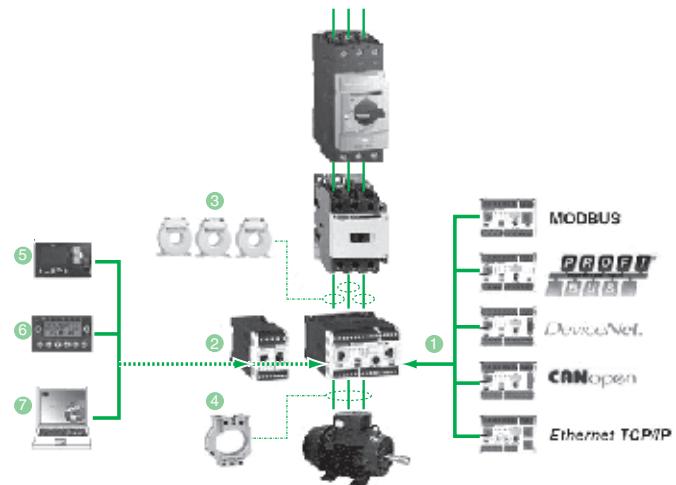
5.8 Intelligent Power and Motor Control Centre (iPMCC)

iPMCC is a system integrating intelligent Motor Protection Relays (IMPR) in a highly dependable Power and Motor Control Centre switchboard. Connectivity to the supervision and control system is provided through an industrial communication network.

This solution is particularly used in large industrial sites and infrastructures, with continuous or hybrid process, and whenever continuity of service is a priority.

intelligent Motor Protection Relay

IMPR is the key component of an iPMCC offer. It is a microprocessor controlled device. Motor monitoring and protection is performed based on measurements from sensors, such as current transformers, voltage transformers (embedded or external), thermal sensor, earth leakage detector,... From these measurements and the settings, it determines fault conditions or potential risks for motors and operators. According to the motor protection model, an IMPR has the capability to detect many kinds of faults. It is a great improvement compared to thermal relay protection. Moreover, many complementary functions can be implemented by an IMPR: monitoring, alarming, fault recording, statistics, communication, etc...



1: TeSys T motor protection relay with communication capability

2: extension module with voltage measurement

3: phase current sensors

4: earth leakage detector

5, 6, 7: Human Machine Interface

Fig. N73: Example of motor control and protection architecture

Motor Control Centre

A Motor Control Centre (MCC) is an electrical switchboard which groups all motor starters of a process, in order to build a centralised installation. Motor starters management centralisation is requested in many industries and infrastructures, in order to facilitate operation and maintenance. Withdrawable MCC functional units (FU) are used in critical applications, as they are more convenient to manage in case of fault. The faulty motor starter can be replaced quickly, without shutting down the whole switchboard.

Fixed or disconnectable FUs can be used in less critical applications.

MCC installation system must be a "Type Tested Assembly" (TTA) to guarantee availability, safety and reliability of the application. In an iPMCC configuration, type test, especially temperature rising test, is essential because the IMPR (electronic device) is more sensitive to heat. Furthermore, MCC should provide a dependable and reliable communication bus connection.

5 Asynchronous motors

A MCC is different from a universal cabinet in the way that a universal cabinet can only be used to accommodate a group of few motor starters. It has lower electrical characteristics requirements, and it does not provide the separation between motor starters in different functional units. Therefore, in an universal cabinet complete shutdown will be necessary before maintenance operations or any reconfiguration of the starters.

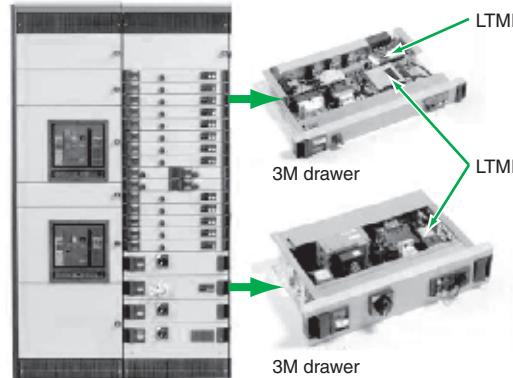


Fig. N74 : Example of iPMCC: Okken switchboard and drawers by Schneider Electric

iPMCC offers great advantages at all the project stages: design, execution as well as operations.

- Improved project efficiency
 - Reduction of engineering as starters are more standardised over a wider power range,
 - Reduction of on-site wiring time thanks to field buses,
 - Reduction of set-up time thanks to download of parameters.
- Reduced commissioning time
 - Better understanding of the process reactions thanks to detailed diagnostics and statistics,
 - Faster error fixing and bug tracking,
 - Easier fixing of process start-up problems.
- Improved Continuity of Service
 - Better protection of motors and loads by using more accurate sensors and more accurate motor protection models,
 - Reduced untimely downtime with alarms giving time to fix the problem before tripping occurs.
- Reduced operating and maintenance cost
 - Less downtime,
 - Faster problem fixing,
 - Less spare parts stock,
 - Preventive maintenance strategy
- Reduced evolution cost and time
 - Simplified engineering,
 - No wiring required,
 - Simplified set-up,
 - Easier Process tuning and commissioning.

A complete iPMCC offer concentrates the knowledge and experience of electrical distribution, motor protection and control, automation and installation. This is why only a few leading companies in electrical distribution and automation can propose this offer.

5.9 Communication

An iPMCC configuration is made of lots of motor starters. In order to supervise the system, it is necessary to send information such as motor status, current values, alarms, etc... The traditional wire-to-wire connection is not an efficient and cost-effective way when there is a lot of data to be transmitted. Today, transmission via a communication network is the preferred way.

The communications need the support of a common language, which is the communication protocol. The following chart shows the protocols commonly used at different levels of an industrial communications networks. At the moment, the most popular device bus protocols are Modbus SL, Profibus-DP and DeviceNet, while Ethernet TCP/IP is growing very fast.

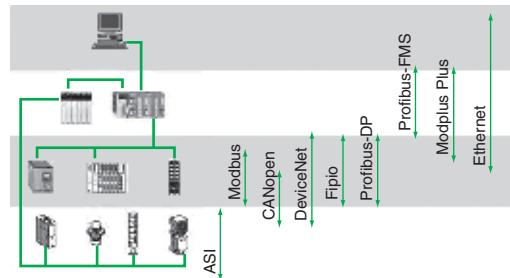


Fig. N75 : Different communication protocols

Modbus

Modbus is a message handling structure introduced by Modicon in 1979. Modbus is an application level protocol based on the OSI model. It is independent of the physical layer.

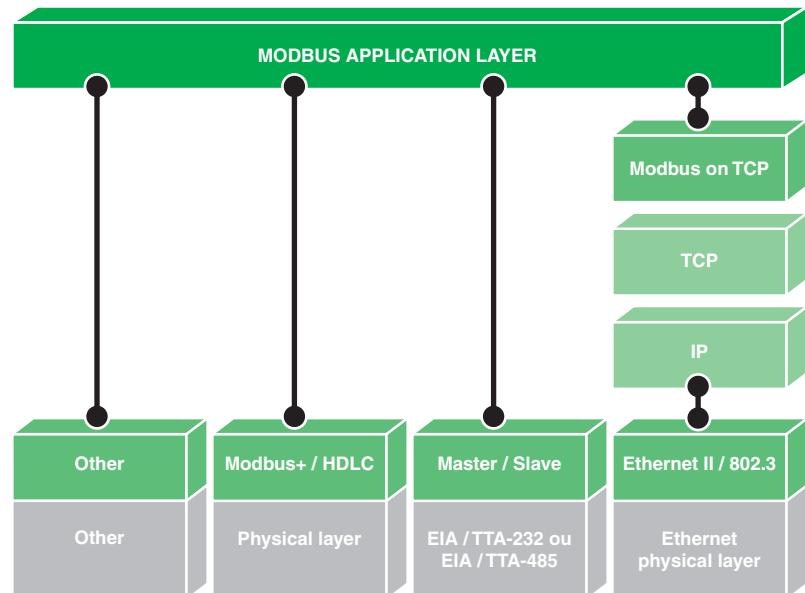


Fig. N76 : Modbus architecture

5 Asynchronous motors

Modbus SL (Serial Line)

Modbus can be implemented on RS232, RS422 or RS485 links as well as other media like Ethernet. Modbus RS485 has been the most common protocol in the world. It supports communications speed up to 115kbps, but most devices support only communication up to 19.2 kbps.

Modbus RS485 is a low cost communication implementation, and it has the largest installation base and supplier network. The weak point of Modbus is the transmission speed (since it is limited by serial line speeds) and maximum number of devices. Modbus may face some problems in the application of very large industrial site, but it is still an economical and reasonable choice to the majority of motor protection systems.

Modbus is based on a Master/Slave concept. One device is the master and sends request to read or write data to each slave in turn. Slave answers to requests from the master. Even though you can have many devices connected to one serial line only one device can talk at a time.

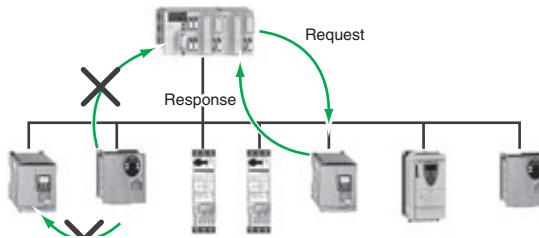


Fig. N77 : Modbus SL architecture

Modbus/TCP

Modbus/TCP is an excellent choice for large sites applications. Modbus/TCP uses the standard 10Mbps Ethernet media in physical layers to carry the Modbus message handling structure. It offers very fast speed and big number of devices in one network; it is easier to integrate MCC into the Local Area Network (LAN) of a company, so it is the choice of more and more customers.

Unlike Modbus SL, Modbus/TCP works on a Client/Server concept:

- A client initiates the requests and a server answers,
- Any device can be a client or a server,
- Many devices are both client and server at the same time,
- A network can consist of many clients.

N57

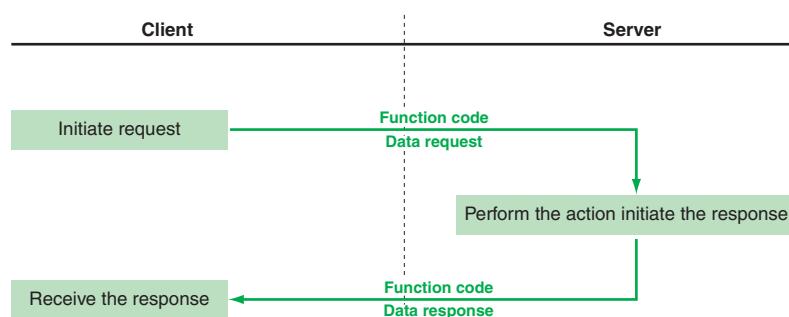


Fig. N77a : Modbus SL architecture

Many clients can send requests at the same time and many servers can answer at the same time:

- A client can talk to multiple servers at the same time,
- A server can answer multiple clients at the same time,
- Ethernet switches take care of packet delivery to all devices at the same time.

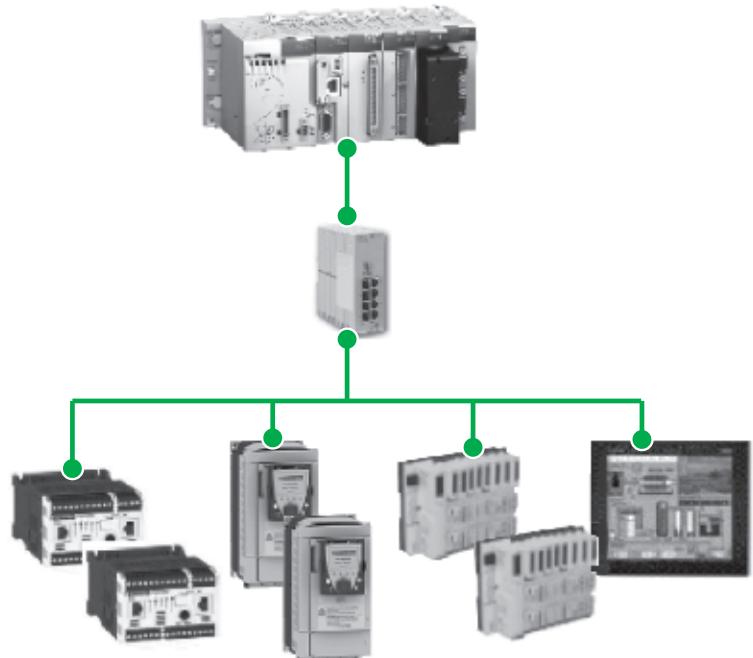


Fig. N78 : Typical communication architecture

Differences between Modbus/TCP and Modbus SL:

- Devices can be a client and a server at the same time.
- Everyone can talk at the same time: multiple devices can initiate communications, not just one. Increases system response time by parallel communications.
- Multiple requests can be sent from one device to another without waiting for the first request to be answered. A new piece of data is added to the Modbus frame called the Modbus Transaction identifier to allow a response to be matched to a specific request.
- The Transmission speed is much increased: 10Mb, 100Mb, 1Gb etc.
- The transmission media is much more flexible and costs are lower: fibre, radio etc.
- The number of nodes on a single network is almost unlimited: maximum recommended is around 300, but routers can be used to join several networks.

Modbus I/O Scanning

Modbus I/O Scanning is a feature in Schneider Electric Programmable Logic Controllers (PLC) which allows simple Modbus transactions with a simple setup screen. It is only requested to set the address, poll time and data to read and/or write.

5 Asynchronous motors

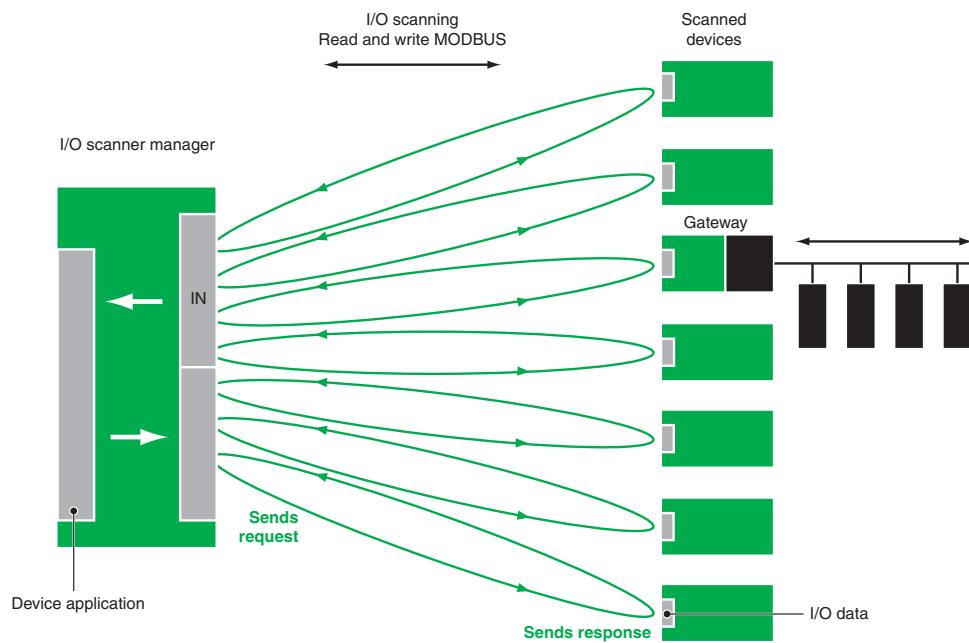


Fig. N79 : Modbus SL architecture

Profibus

Profibus is a protocol introduced by a fieldbus working group in 1987. This group consists of 13 industrial organizations and 5 research institutes. Now, Profibus is managed by a user group which includes manufacturers, users and researchers.

Profibus-DP is the version of Profibus used at device level. It has been a successful protocol in the last decades, especially in Europe. Profibus-DP is a protocol with high transmission speed. It supports the communication up to 12 Mbps, but actually 1.5 Mbps is the most practical maximum value in applications because it may need special transmission media and it should be implemented in a short distance to achieve the transmission speed up to 12 Mbps.

DeviceNet

DeviceNet is a protocol based on CAN, which is a protocol widely used in the automotive industry. ODVA (Open DeviceNet Vendor Association) takes now the responsibility to promote and provide technical support to DeviceNet specification.

ODVA is an international association comprised of members from the world's leading automation companies. Collectively, ODVA and its members support network technologies using the Common Industrial Protocol (CIP™). These currently include DeviceNet™, EtherNet/IP™, CompoNet™ and the major extensions to CIP — CIP Safety™, CIP Sync™, and CIP Motion™. ODVA manages the development of these open technologies and assists manufacturers and users of CIP Networks through tools, training and marketing activities.

DeviceNet provides communication with 3 possible speeds: 125, 250 or 500 kbps, which depends on the bus length and cable as well as product consumption. The maximum number of devices is 64, including master devices. The bus length is limited to 100m at 500 kbps.

Synthetic view

The following table shows a short (non-exhaustive) comparison of these protocols:

	Modbus SL RS485	Profibus-DP	DeviceNet	Modbus/TCP
Speed	up to 115 kbps	9.6 kbps to 1 Mbps	125, 250 or 500 kbps	10 / 100Mbps / 1Gbps
Max. distance without repeaters	1300 m	100m at 12Mbps 1.2km at 10kbps	100m at 500kbps 500m at 125kbps	Twisted pair: 100m Optical fibre: 2000m
Max. number of devices	32: 1 master and 31 slaves	126: mono or multi-masters, 122 slaves max with 3 repeaters	64: 1 master and 63 slaves	64 with I/O scanning; no limit with others
Max. distance with repeaters	Depends on the type of repeater	400 to 4800m according to speed	Depends on the type of repeater	10km optical fibre

Fig. N80 : Comparison of communication protocols

Chapitre P

Photovoltaic installations

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P1

1 Benefits of photovoltaic energy

1.1 Practical benefits

This technology enables the use of renewable energy from the sun. There are two types of solar energy:

- Thermal energy captured through an exchange between circulating fluid exposed to the sun and a load circuit (accumulation tank or heat pump).
- Photovoltaic energy, which uses the principle of the photovoltaic cell discovered by Edmond Becquerel in 1839 to produce electrical power.

It is particularly beneficial to use solar radiation reaching the earth since:

- This radiation remains stable (to within 10%) on average from one year to the next;
- At ground level, it supplies an average of 1000 Wh/m² per day although this depends on the following principal criteria:
 - The latitude
 - The angle of the surface and the direction faced
 - The degree of pollution
 - The time of year
 - The thickness of the cloud layer
 - The time of day
 - The shade

This radiation varies from 870 Wh/m² per day in the North of France to 1890 Wh/m² per day in Corsica (and up to 3125 Wh/m² per day in the Sahara).

1.2 Environmental benefits

By using solar energy, it is possible to reduce consumption of "fossil" fuels which are the likely cause of global warming and atmospheric pollution.

This contributes to sustainable development and is also in keeping with the policies of the European Council, which passed a decree in March 2007 setting the following targets to be met by 2020:

- Reduction of greenhouse emissions by 20%
- Reduction of energy consumption by 20%
- 20% renewable energy as a proportion of total energy consumption

2 Background and technology

2.1 The photovoltaic effect

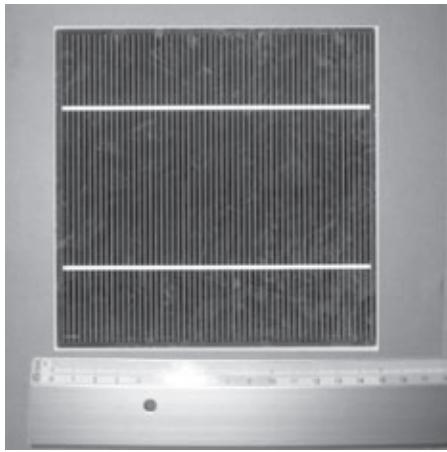


Fig. P1 : Photovoltaic cell manufactured in a silicon plate
(source: Photowatt)

This is the ability to transform solar energy into electricity and is achieved by using photovoltaic (PV) cells.

A PV cell (see Fig. P1) is capable of generating voltage of between 0.5 V and 2 V depending on the materials used and a current directly dependent on the surface area (5 or 6 inch cells).

Its characteristics are shown in a current/voltage graph as shown in Figure 2.

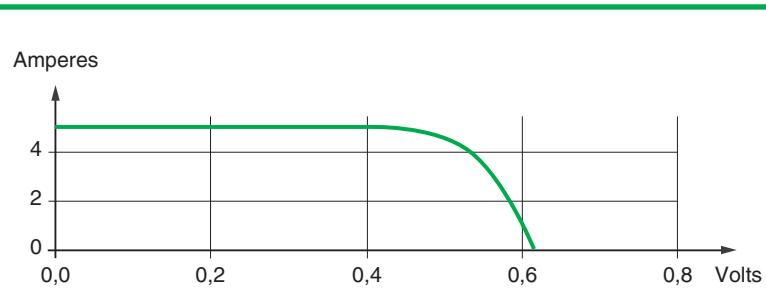


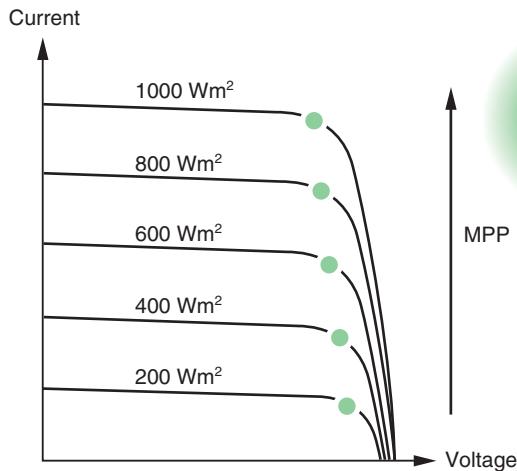
Fig. P2 : Typical characteristic of a photovoltaic cell

The photovoltaic effect is dependent on two physical values (see Fig. P3)

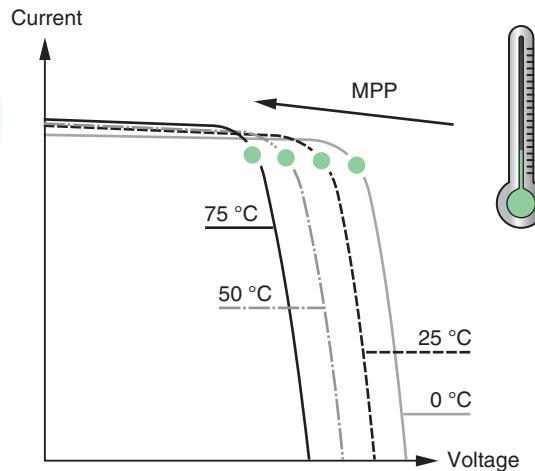
- irradiance and temperature:

- As irradiance E (Wm^2) increases, so does the current produced by the cell
- Conversely, as the temperature (T°) increases, the output voltage decreases.

In order to compare the performance of different cells, the standard has set out Standard Test Conditions (STC) for irradiance of 1000 W/m^2 at 25°C .



► An increase in solar radiation
increases the power generated by the cell



► An increase in temperature
decreases the power generated by the cell

MPP : Maximum Power Point

Fig. P3 : Irradiance and temperature influence the photovoltaic effect

To make it easier to use energy generated by photovoltaic cells, manufacturers offer serial and/or parallel combinations grouped into panels or modules.

2 Background and technology

2.2 Photovoltaic modules

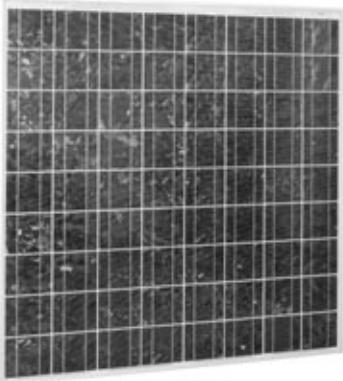


Fig. P4 : PW1400 photovoltaic module dimensions:
1237 x 1082 x 45 mm (source: Photowatt)

These combinations of cells (see **Fig. P4**) enable the voltage and current to be increased. To optimise the characteristics of the modules, these are made up of cells with similar electrical characteristics.

Each module providing a voltage of several tens of volts is classified by its power level measured in Watt peak (Wp). This relates to the power produced by a surface area of one m² exposed to irradiation of 1000 W/m² at 25°C. However, identical modules may produce different levels of power so the common standard variation for power is ±3% (see table in **Figure P5**). Modules with typical power of 160 Wp include all modules with power of between 155 Wp (160 -3%) and 165 Wp (160 +3%).

It is therefore necessary to compare their efficiency which is calculated by dividing their power (W/m²) by 1000 W/m².

For example, for a module of 160 Wp with a surface area of 1.338m² (*), the peak power is 160/1.338 which gives 120 Wp/m².

Therefore the efficiency of this module is: 120/1000 = 12%.

Encapsulation	Glass/Tedlar		
Cell size	125.50 x 125.5 mm		
Number of cells	72		
Voltage	24 V		
Number of bypass diodes	4 bypass diodes		
Typical power	150 Wp	160 Wp	170 Wp
Minimum power	145 Wp	155 Wp	165 Wp
Voltage at typical power	33.8 V	34.1 V	34.7 V
Current at typical power	4.45 A	4.7 A	4.9 A
Short circuit current	4.65 A	4.8 A	5.0 A
Open wire voltage	43 V	43.2 V	43.4 V
Maximum circuit voltage	1 000 V CC		
Temperature coefficient	$\alpha = (dI/I)/dt \# + 0.032 \text{ \%}/\text{°C}$ $\beta = dV/dt \# - 158 \text{ mV}/\text{°C}$ $\xi_{P/P} = -0.43 \text{ \%}/\text{°C}$		
Power specifications at	1000 W/m ² : 25°C: AM 1.5		

Fig. P5 : Electrical characteristics of a PW1400 module (source: Photowatt)

However when photovoltaic cells are connected in series, a destructive phenomenon known as the “hot spot” may occur if one of the cells is partially shaded. This cell will operate as a receiver and the current passing through it may destroy it. To avoid this risk, manufacturers include bypass diodes which bypass damaged cells. Bypass diodes are usually fitted in the junction box behind the module and enable 18 to 22 cells to be shunted depending on the manufacturer.

These modules are then connected in series to achieve the level of voltage required, forming chains of modules or “strings”. Then the strings are arranged in parallel to achieve the required level of power, thus forming a PV array.

Since there are increasing numbers of PV module manufacturers throughout the world, it is important to consider the various options carefully when choosing equipment. Installers should also:

- Ensure the compatibility of the electrical characteristics with the rest of the installation (inverter input voltage).
 - Ensure that they are compliant with the standards.
 - Select suppliers likely to be in business in the long-term to ensure that faulty modules can be replaced as these must be identical to those already installed.
- This final point is important as installers are responsible for the warranty granted to their clients.

2.3 Additional equipment: inverters or chargers

Photovoltaic generators only supply energy as direct current and when there is sunlight.

Therefore, if this energy is to be supplied to the distribution network, the direct current must be converted into alternating current using converters or inverters, and if it is to be supplied permanently, it must be stored in rechargeable batteries using a battery charger.

P4

A faulty module within a string must be replaced by an identical module and therefore it is important to choose a supplier which is likely to be in business in the long-term.

3 Special equipment

3.1 Modules

Different technologies are currently being used to manufacture photovoltaic generators. These are divided into two categories - crystalline modules and thin film modules.

Crystalline modules

There are two main categories of crystalline modules – mono-crystalline modules and multi-crystalline modules.

Mono-crystalline modules are currently best in terms of performance, with efficiency of 16 – 18%. They are also more expensive.

The efficiency of multi-crystalline modules is between 12 and 14%. They are more commonly used, especially in the residential and service sectors.

These modules have a service life of more than 20 years. They lose some of their power over time (< 1% per year) but continue to produce electricity. Depending on the look required, bi-glass modules are available with two plates of glass which make the module semi-transparent, or Tedlar or Teflon glass modules which are less expensive but completely opaque.

Thin film modules

Extensive research is currently being carried out on thin film modules and current efficiency levels of 6 to 8% should increase in coming years. They are cheap and suitable for large areas provided that the surface is not a valuable part of the facility. This category of thin film modules includes a number of technologies of which there are 3 main types:

- a-Si – thin film or amorphous silicon
- CdTe (cadmium telluride)
- CIS (copper indium selenide)

It should be noted that at present we do not yet have 20 years' experience of this type of technology and thus still do not know how these modules will age.

In their technical specifications, reputable manufacturers indicate initial and stabilised values.

The table in **Figure P6** provides a comparative overview of all these technologies.

Technologies	sc-Si mono-crystalline	mc-Si multi-crystalline	a-Si Thin film	CdTe Thin film	CIS Thin film
STC module efficiency					
Maximum	19 %	15 %	8.5 %	11 %	11 %
Average	14 %	13 %	6 %	8 %	8 %
Relative cost (\$/Wp)	3	3	2	1	1
Temperature coefficient at the power peak (%/°C)	-0.3 / -0.5	-0.3 / -0.5	-0.2	-0.2	-0.3

Fig. P6 : Comparison of technologies used in photovoltaic generators

P5

3.2 Connections

Photovoltaic installations require special cables and connectors. Since modules are installed outdoors they are subjected to climatic constraints associated with high voltages caused by the installation of modules in series.

Besides being ingress protected, the equipment used must also be resistant to UV rays and ozone. It must furthermore display a high level of mechanical resistance and a high level of resistance to extreme variations in temperature.

Câbles

The voltage drop between the PV array and the inverter must be calculated and this must not exceed 3% for nominal current (UTE recommendation: 1%).

The DC cables used should be double-insulated single wire cables and since these are not standardised, cables indicated by the manufacturer as being specifically for PV should be used.

Since it is dangerous to handle the cables connecting the modules, they must either first be disconnected or a DC isolator must be activated on the direct current circuit.

Connectors

In general, photovoltaic modules are supplied with two cables equipped with one male and one female connector. Using these cables, it is possible to connect two modules installed side by side, thus creating a series without any difficulties. The male connector connects to the female connector of the following module and so on until the required level of direct current is attained.

These special connectors including the Multi-Contact MC3 or MC4 with locking systems offer protection if touched while they are disconnected. This protection is necessary since as soon as a photovoltaic module is exposed to irradiation, it supplies voltage. If the cables connecting the modules are handled (to alter or extend them) they must either first be disconnected or the DC isolator for the DC circuit must be activated at the input to the connection box.

It is also possible to use different connectors available on the market. These should be chosen carefully for their quality, contact and male-female mating to avoid any poor contact which lead to overheating and destruction.



Fig. P7a : GT 500E inverter specifically designed for photovoltaic power supply (source Xantrex – Schneider Electric Group)

3.3 Inverters

These devices which convert direct current into alternating current are special inverters for photovoltaic power supply (see **Fig. P7a**). Various different types of photovoltaic inverters or “PV inverters” are available. They fulfil three main functions:

- Inverter function: Converts direct current into alternating current in the form required (sinusoidal, square, etc.)
- MPPT function: Calculates the operating point on the photovoltaic surface or array which produces the most power in terms of voltage and current - also known as the Maximum Power Point Tracker (see **Fig. P7b**).

- Automatic disconnection from the network function: Automatically commands the inverter to switch off and the system to disconnect from the network in the absence

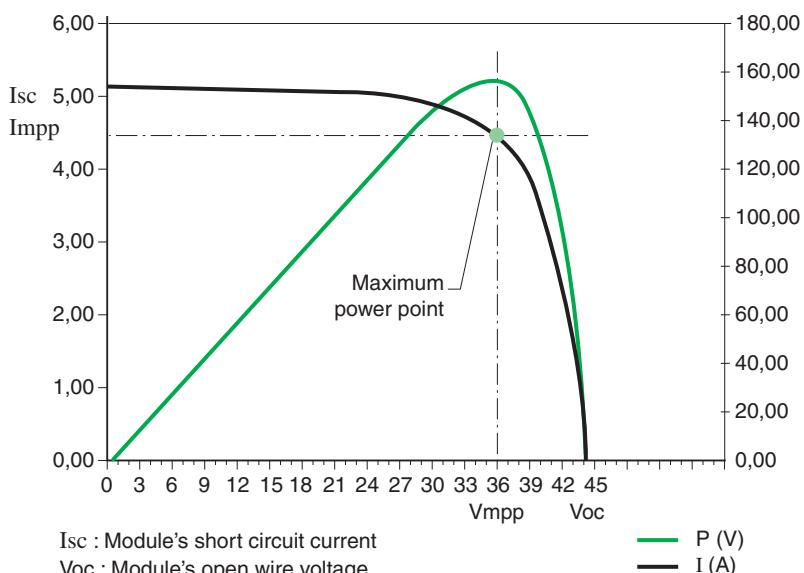


Fig. P7b : Operating point of a photovoltaic array which produces the most power, also known as the Maximum Power Point Tracker

3 Special equipment

of voltage on the electrical network. This protects the inverter and any maintenance staff who may be working on the network.

Therefore, in the event of a network failure, the inverter no longer supplies energy to the network and energy produced by the photovoltaic modules is wasted. "Grid interactive" systems are nevertheless available which function in back-up mode. Batteries need to be installed for these systems as well as an additional control panel to ensure that the network is disconnected before supplying their own energy.

■ Different models

Some "multi-MPPT" inverters have a double (or triple, quadruple, etc.) MPPT function. This function enables PV supply to be optimised when the array includes strings facing in different directions. There is however a risk of total loss of supply if one inverter is faulty.

Nevertheless, it is possible to install one less powerful inverter per string, which is a more expensive solution but increases the overall reliability of the system.

"Multi-string inverters" are also available. These inverters are not necessarily multi-MPPT as described above. The name simply indicates that several strings can be connected to the inverter and that they are paralleled inside the inverter.

European efficiency

In order to compare the various appliances, a level of efficiency has been determined based on different operating points, simulating the average daily performance of an inverter. This "European efficiency" is calculated using the following formula:

$$0.03 \times (\eta\ 5\%) + 0.06 \times (\eta\ 10\%) + 0.13 \times (\eta\ 20\%) + 0.1 \times (\eta\ 30\%) + 0.48 \times (\eta\ 50\%) + 0.2 \times (\eta\ 100\%)$$

IP and operating temperature

Ingress protection and temperature parameters are important when choosing an inverter.

Almost all manufacturers of inverters offer IP65 inverters which can be installed outdoors. However, this does not mean that they should be installed in full sunlight as most inverters operate in degraded mode in temperatures over 40°C (50°C for Xantrex inverters manufactured by Schneider Electric) and thus output power is reduced.

Installing inverters outdoors in full sunlight also incurs the risk of premature aging of some of the inverter's components such as the chemical condensers. This considerably reduces the inverter's service life from 10 years to as few as 5 years!

We strongly advise against installing an inverter in a place exposed to the sun as this will considerably reduce its service life.

3.4 Battery chargers

In remote locations, batteries need to be charged to supply energy after sunset. There are two types of chargers:

- Current chargers – the voltage of the PV array must be the same as the charge voltage of the battery and is regulated in terms of current.
- MPPT chargers – these chargers operate at the maximum power point. They manage the charge of the battery, limit the current and voltage, and control floating. This type of charger is more expensive than the type mentioned above but allows an optimal number of PV modules to be installed and reduces the overall cost of the installation.

P7

4 Installation requirements

4.1 Off grid installation

Historically, these were the first places in which photovoltaic systems were used, supplying telecommunication relay stations or remote settlements which were difficult to access and could not be connected to the network.

They remain one of the only means of supplying electricity to 2 billion people who currently do not have access to it.

In order to size these installations correctly, it is first necessary to identify the load curve required and the number of days where the installation will not be exposed to sunlight in order to identify how much energy needs to be stored in the batteries. This information is used to determine the size and type of batteries required.

Then, the surface area of the photovoltaic sensors must be calculated to ensure that the batteries can be recharged in the worst case scenario (shortest day of the year).

Specific issues

This method entails over-sizing the system to ensure continuity once or twice a year. As a result, this type of installation is very expensive!

It should be noted that according to the EPIA (European Photovoltaic Industry Association) this type of installation will account for 20% of the photovoltaic market in 2012 and 40% in 2030.

Storage

Storage is crucial to this type of installation.

Several types of batteries are available:

- Lead batteries

These batteries operate in cycles (charge/discharge). Open batteries are recommended to prevent inflating which may occur due to excessively rapid charging and large emissions of hydrogen.

Their purchase price is certainly their main advantage although they have short service lives. This is influenced by the depth of discharging but they last no more than 2 or 3 years at a discharging rate of 50% and above. Furthermore, deep discharging may "kill" the battery. Therefore, when operating such equipment at a remote site, the batteries should be changed on a regular basis to maintain their charging performance.

- Ni-Cd or Nickel Cadmium batteries

These batteries have the advantage of being much less sensitive to extreme temperature conditions and deep charging or discharging. They have a much longer service life (5 to 8 years) but are more expensive to purchase. However, the cost of the Wh stored over the service life of the installation is lower than that of lead batteries.

- Li-ion batteries

These are the batteries of the future for these types of operations. They are insensitive to deep discharging and have a service life of up to 20 years. At present, they are prohibitively expensive but prices are set to fall by 2012 with the start of mass production. They will therefore become the most economic variety for this type of usage.

4.2 Connected to the public network

Owners of power generation systems connected to the network have 2 options:

- Sell all the power they produce (option known as "total sale"). For this option, a separate connection must be established to the network, apart from the connection for consumption. This also requires an administrative declaration.

- Use the power they produce locally as required and only sell the excess (option known as "sale of excess") which has two benefits:

- The difference in the rates payable by the producer (purchase) and the consumer (sale)

- It is not necessary to establish a new connection which may be expensive and requires an administrative declaration.

Since different rates are charged, a profitability analysis should be carried out to choose the best option.

Installations connected to the network – 3 important points

The following points are important to note with regard to installations connected to the network:

- In contrast to independent installations, no correlation is required between consumption for the building and output.

For the “total sale” option, the two elements are completely independent.

For the “sale of excess” option, the network will compensate when production does not cover consumption.

- The network must be present in order to supply and sell energy. Furthermore, energy distributors require automatic disconnection systems to be in place in case of incidents on the network. When activated, these stop supply and therefore sales. Reconnection occurs automatically when the network returns to its nominal operating conditions.

- As a general rule, no provision is made for local storage using batteries or other means. This is true for mainland France where there is a high quality network with the capacity to absorb all the energy produced.

However, the system does have one fault. If the network fails, owners of installations who are also generally consumers are left with a power generation facility which they cannot use (see previous point). In countries or towns with frequent network incidents, systems are being developed which include batteries. Xantrex, a subsidiary of Schneider Electric, is the leading provider of these systems worldwide.

4.3 Safety devices

Protecting people and property against electrical hazards

- In terms of direct current, a DC isolator is compulsory as, even though a connector can be disconnected when live, an electric arc may occur and damage the connectors if photovoltaic modules are exposed to light. There are currently two methods for installing these DC isolators. They can either be integrated into the PV inverter or placed in an external enclosure.

If more than three strings need to be paralleled for the same inverter input when installing a PV array, the statutory safety devices are much more complex. Indeed, current reversal may occur in a string which would be destroyed under the combined power of all the other strings.

Schneider Electric also supplies paralleling enclosures for strings as well as protection units which include a general load break switch enabling work to be carried out safely upstream of this unit even in daylight.

- In terms of alternating current, a more standard range of safety devices is available. The cable between the inverter and the network must be protected since any fault in this connection would be exposed to the short circuit power of the network. A safety device protecting against short circuits should therefore be positioned close to the network connection, and the inverter should disconnect automatically in the absence of voltage in the authorised range. Schneider Electric supplies enclosures including upstream and downstream safety devices.

Protecting PV installations against the effects of lightning

Overvoltage may occur in electrical installations for various reasons. This may be caused by:

- The distribution network as a result of lightning or any work carried out
- Lightning bolts (nearby/on buildings and PV installations, or on lightning conductors)
- Variations in the electrical field due to lightning.

Like all outdoor structures, photovoltaic installations are exposed to the risk of lightning which varies from region to region.

- Equipotentiality

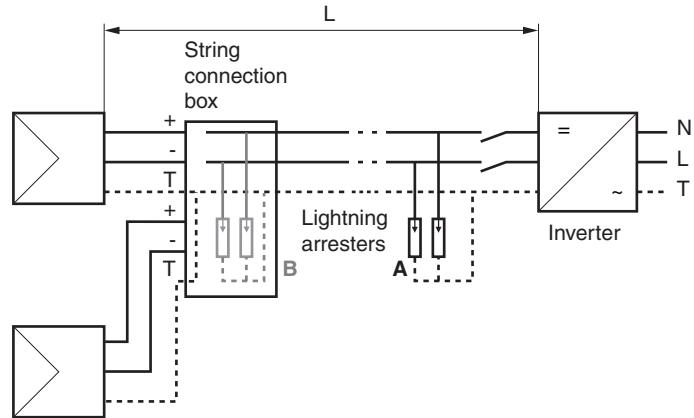
Equipotentiality is the first safeguard to put in place and entails connecting all conductive elements and metal conductive parts in the photovoltaic installation using an equipotential conductor.

The minimum section for this conductor is:

- 4 mm² in the absence of a lightning conductor or if a lightning conductor is in place but not connected to the installation
- 10 mm² if the installation is connected to the building's lightning conductor (this must be connected by a cable of 10 mm² if the lightning conductor is less than 2.5m from the installation)
- Lightning arresters

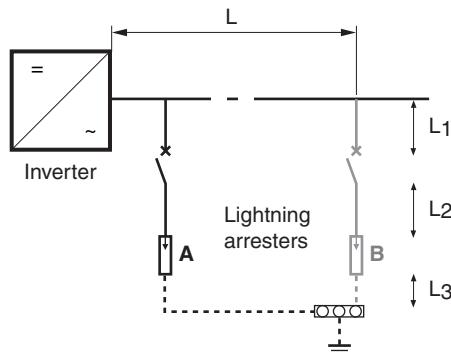
4 Installation requirements

The positions of lightning arresters are explained by **Figures P10** and **P11**.



If $L \leq 30$ m: only lightning arrester **A** is required.
 If $L > 30$ m: Both lightning arresters **A** and **B** are required.

Fig. P10 : Positions of lightning arresters in the DC part stipulated in Guide UTE C 15-712



If $L \leq 10$ m: only lightning arrester **A** is required.
 If $L > 10$ m: Both lightning arresters **A** and **B** are required.
 To increase the effectiveness of the lightning arresters: $L1 + L2 + L3 < 50$ cm

Fig. P11 : Positions of lightning arresters in the AC part stipulated in Guide UTE C 15-712

P10

5.1 Installation precautions

A PV array is made up of a number of modules in series or parallel, corresponding to the input characteristics of the inverter. However, since these modules are interconnected, the array is very sensitive to shade or differences in terms of the direction faced.

By following a few simple cabling rules, supply can be optimised and any operating problems may be avoided.

Position of the panels

If, when installing a PV array on a roof, panels need to face in different directions, it is essential to assemble at least one string per direction and ensure each string is facing in just one direction to ensure optimised supply. Each string must be connected to a specific inverter (or to inputs of a multi-MPPT inverter - see Section 3).

If this instruction is not observed, the array will not be damaged but supply will be reduced, thus increasing the time needed for a return on investment.

Shade

Besides the risk of destruction of shaded modules within a PV array due to the "hot spot phenomenon" as described in Paragraph 2.2 for which manufacturers have devised solutions, research conducted by the Institut National des Energies Solaires (INES – France's national institute for solar energy) suggests that shading of 10% of the surface area of a string may cause more than a 30% reduction in output!

It is therefore important to eliminate direct shading. However, in many cases this is difficult (trees, chimney, neighbouring wall, pylon, etc.).

If a PV array includes several strings:

- If possible, shaded modules should be included in a single string
- Otherwise, a technology should be chosen which responds better to diffuse light than direct light

Eliminating loops

When connecting components, the first precaution to take is to avoid loops in the cabling within strings.

Even though direct lightning strikes on arrays are relatively rare, currents induced by lightning are much more common and these currents are particularly destructive where there are large areas of looping. **Figure P13** shows how to improve an array including a large loop.

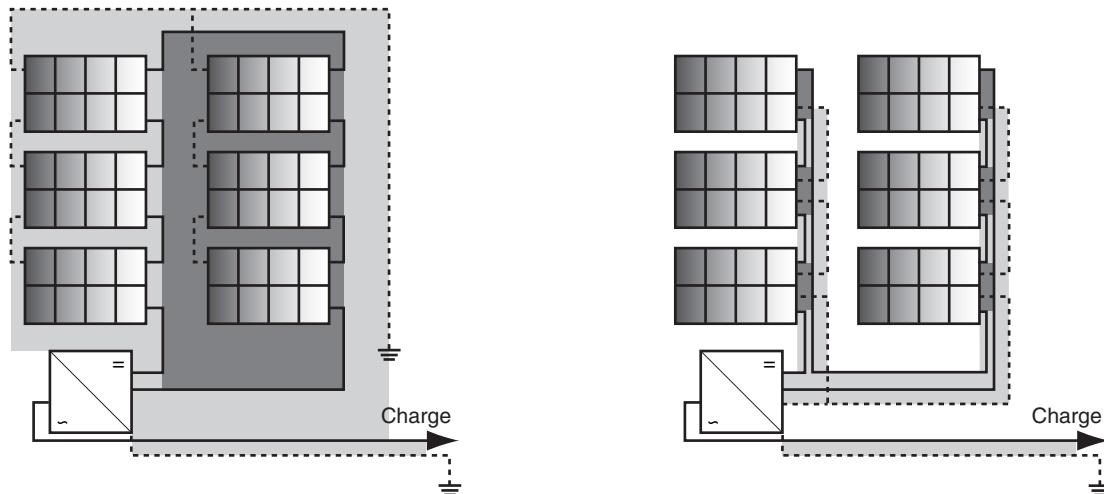


Fig. P13 : Avoiding loops when cabling strings

5.2 Architectures for installations connected to the network

General Rules

Where photovoltaic installations are connected to the network and energy is sold, it is necessary to optimise efficiency and reduce installation costs. With this in mind, a relatively high DC operating voltage of between 200 and 500 V is often used for residential applications, with up to 1000 V being used for applications requiring a higher level of power.

All the modules in a PV array should be identical (same brand and same type) and selected to supply the same level of power. For example, in the PW1700 range, they should all be 180 W, even though there are three power levels (170 W, 180 W and 190 W) in this range manufactured by Photowatt.

In practice, the protection units (DC and AC units) should be positioned close to the inverters for ease of maintenance.

PV array with a single string of modules

This is the simplest configuration (see Fig. P14). It is used for small PV arrays with peak power of up to 3 kWp depending on the modules deployed. In most cases, it is used for residential PV operations.

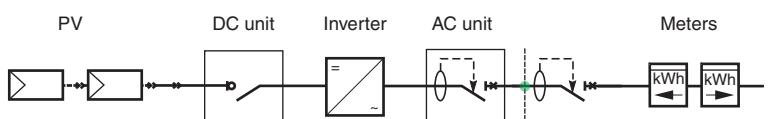


Fig. P14 : Diagram showing a single-string photovoltaic array

Modules are connected in series, supplying direct current of between 200 and 500 VDC in this instance. Optimal efficiency is obtained from the inverter within this voltage range.

A single DC line is fed through to the inverter. The PV array can be isolated from the inverter by means of a load break switch near the inverter.

PV array with several module strings in parallel

This configuration (see Fig. P15), mainly deployed on buildings or in small PV power plants on the ground, is used for PV installations of up to thirty strings in parallel with power output of some 100 kWp. This limit is imposed for technological and financial reasons. If exceeded, the required width of the main DC cable would be impractical. Direct current can be determined based on the number of modules in series per string and in this instance is between 300 and 600 VDC. By paralleling identical strings, the power required for the installation can be attained. The strings are paralleled in a PV array box. This box includes the safety devices required for paralleling the strings and appliances used to measure the strings' current. A single DC cable connects these boxes to the inverter. The PV array can be isolated from the inverter by means a load break switch near the inverter.

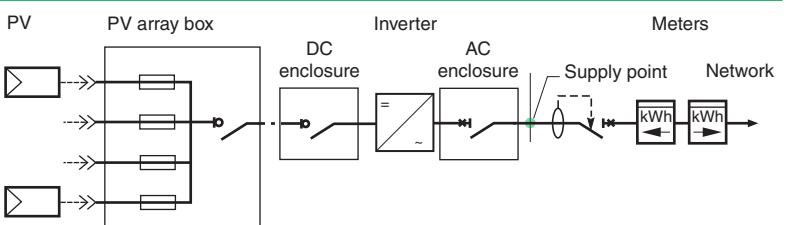


Fig. P15 : Diagram showing a multi-string photovoltaic array with one inverter

5 Installation

As a variation on this diagram, several single-phase inverters can be installed in a three-phase arrangement (see **Fig. P16**).

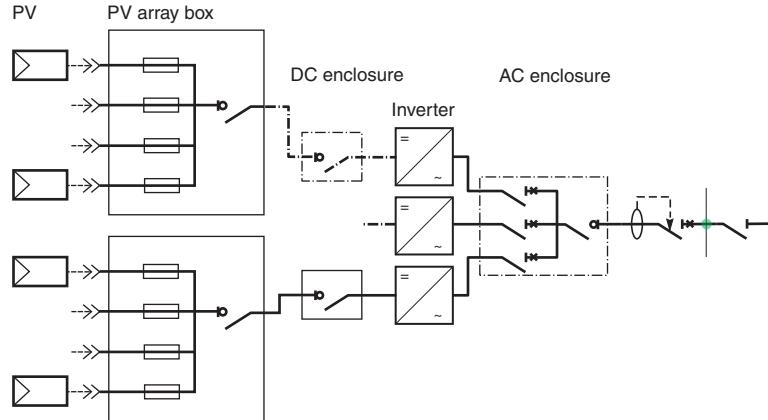


Fig. P16 : Diagram showing a multi-string photovoltaic array with several single-phase inverters connected in a three-phase arrangement

PV array with several strings divided into several groups

When power levels exceed 50 or 100 kW, photovoltaic arrays are split into subgroups (see **Fig. P17**) to make it easier to connect the various components. Strings are paralleled on two levels.

- Strings in each subgroup are paralleled in subgroup PV array boxes. These boxes are fitted with safety devices, the necessary measuring equipment and monitoring devices.
- The outputs of these boxes are paralleled in a PV array box near the inverter. This box is also fitted with the required safety devices as well as the measuring and monitoring equipment necessary for paralleling the subgroups.

The array can be isolated from the inverter using a load block switch which may or may not be fitted in the PV array box. The array's direct current is approximately 1000 VDC.

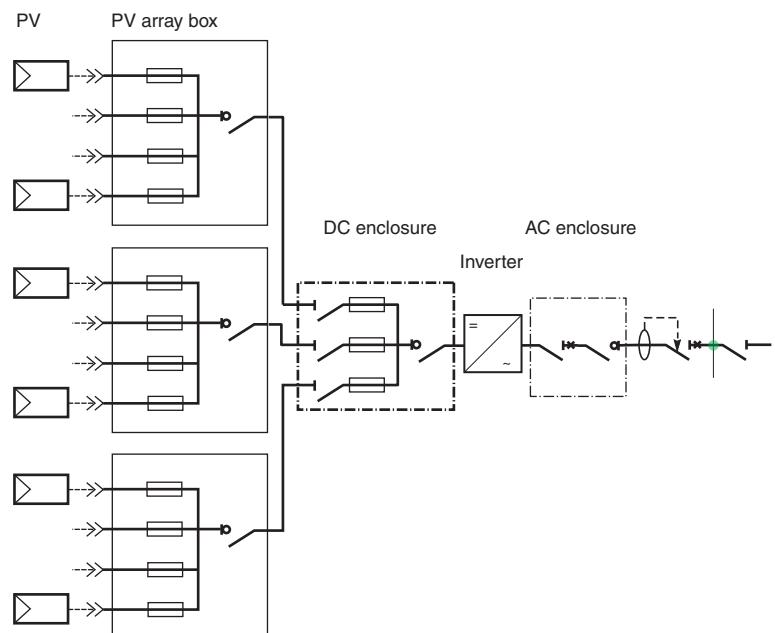


Fig. P17 : Diagram showing a photovoltaic array consisting of several groups

P13

5.3 Sizing

Calculating a photovoltaic array

It is absolutely essential to take account of location (geographic location, latitude, altitude, shade, etc.) and installation factors (direction faced, angle, etc.).

Firstly, the approximate power output may be calculated based on the available surface area:

$$10 \text{ m}^2 = 1 \text{ kWp}$$

$$7140 \text{ m}^2 (\text{=football ground}) = 700 \text{ kWp}$$

The PV array should always be arranged around the inverter. The calculations involved should compare the characteristics of the modules and those of the inverter with a view to identifying the optimal configuration.

- String composition:

NB: Number of modules x Voc (at t° min) < inverter Vmax

The no load voltage of the string (Voc x number of modules in series) at the minimum temperature of the installation location must be lower than the inverter's maximum input voltage.

=> This must be strictly observed. Otherwise the inverter may be destroyed.

Apart from the aforementioned rule for preventing destruction of the inverter Number of modules x Voc (at t° min) < inverter Vmax – two other limits must be observed:

- Number of modules x Vmpp (at t° max) > inverter Vmin

The operating voltage (Vm x number of modules in series at all temperatures at the installation location) should fall within the inverter's MPPT voltage range. Otherwise, the inverter will stall and energy supply will cease.

- Isc strings < inverter I max

The total Isc current for strings in parallel must be lower than the maximum input current for the inverter. Otherwise, the inverter limits the supply of energy delivered to the network.

Inverter specifications

■ In Europe, the power level of the inverter must be between 0.8 and 1 times the power of the array:

$$0.8 < P_{\text{inverter}} / P_{\text{array}} < 1$$

□ Below this (under 0.8 Parray), the inverter limits power significantly. The energy sold to the network will thus be inferior to that which the panels are capable of supplying and therefore it will take longer to secure a return on investment.

□ Above this (over Parray), the inverter is too large for the power level of the array. Again, it will take longer to secure a return on investment.

- Single-phase or three-phase

A decision should be made over these two options in consultation with the local energy distributor based on the devices available in manufacturers' product ranges, often within the following limits:

□ Inverter Pn < 10 kW => single phase inverter

□ 10 kW < Pn < 100 kW => either three-phase inverter(s) or single-phase inverters split between the three phases and neutral. The management of unbalances between phases needs to be checked in this instance.

□ Pn > 100 kW => three-phase inverter(s)

- Configuration software

Manufacturers of inverters help design offices and installers to size strings for residential and service sector installations based on the equipment available by supplying sizing software.

5.4 Installation type

The installation type is a factor which should not be neglected since, in countries including France, the purchase price for power supplied is dependent on this. Along with shading, it should be taken into account when choosing a module.

There are three installation types – building integrated, partially integrated and ground-based:

- Building Integrated PhotoVoltaic (BIPV)

This installation type fulfils a dual role (energy supply and roof waterproofing, shading, etc.).

5 Installation

■ Partially integrated

This is the simplest assembly to install and, most importantly, does not alter the water resistance of a roof. However, its major drawback is that, in France, operators cannot charge the highest rate for it. This installation type is most commonly used in Germany and Switzerland.

■ Ground-based

This installation type is used for power supply plants covering large areas (photovoltaic farms). Again, in France it is not eligible for the highest purchase price.

6 Monitoring

Since the profitability of photovoltaic installations depends mainly on them being operational, it is essential to ensure that they are permanently functional. The best way of ensuring this is to acquire a monitoring system for the installation. This system should notify all faults immediately and be capable of detecting drifts in output.

6.1 Types of monitoring

Several types of monitoring are available for installations:

- Systems which communicate with the inverters and are able to monitor all electrical values relating to output from the installation as well as the condition of the inverters
 - Systems without communication protocols for the inverters but fitted with measurement inputs capable of monitoring photovoltaic output
 - Hybrid systems supplementing information from the inverters with measurements which are external to the installation such as solar radiation and temperature. Information on the modules at the output of the inverters can only be correlated across the installation as a whole by systems capable of measuring solar radiation. Indeed, since output forecasts generally rely on meteorological statistics, it is quite difficult to interpret output data without correlating them to actual solar radiation. An abnormally low level of output may be caused by:
 - A low level of solar radiation over a certain period of time (and which is abnormal based on meteorological statistics)
 - A problem with the modules (clogging, shade, connection fault, etc.)
 - A functional problem with the inverter
- It is only possible to identify these faults by equipping the installation with solar radiation and temperature sensors and comparing the output capacity with actual output.
- Depending on the size of the installation, individual monitoring or monitoring by group of photovoltaic module strings may be possible in order to detect abnormal variations in output between strings.

6.2 Monitoring systems

These systems may be autonomous or include remote monitoring.

- Autonomous systems (see Fig. P18)

Once data is collected locally, the system sends alerts directly to the maintenance operators as soon as they are generated.

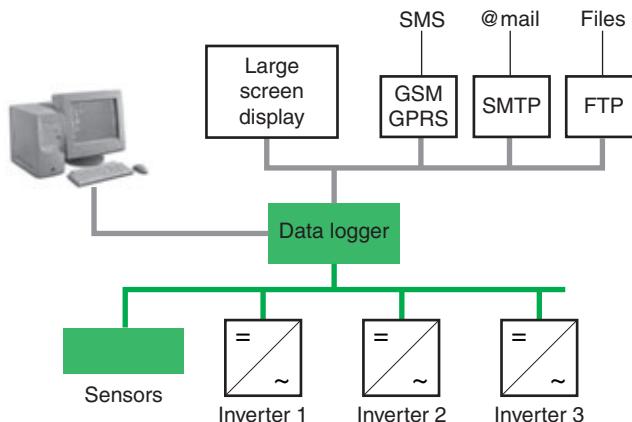
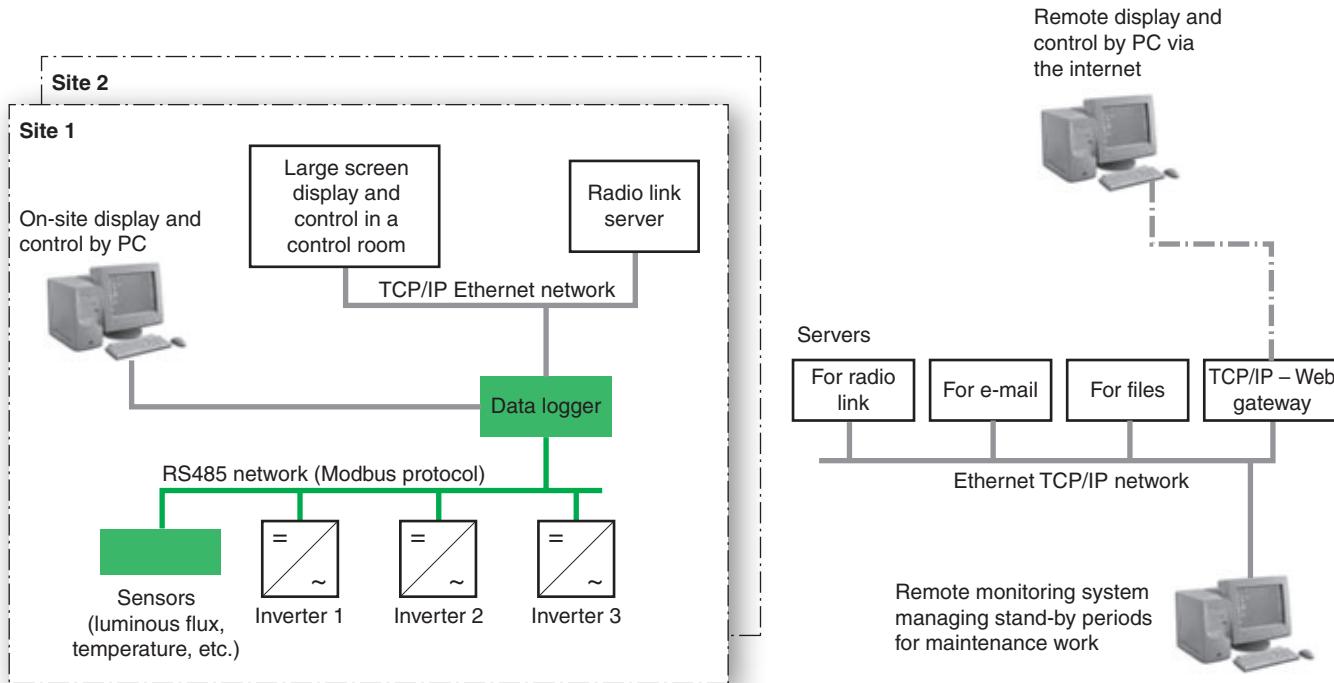


Fig. P18 : Example of an autonomous monitoring system

- With remote monitoring (see Fig. P19)

Once the data is collected locally, the system sends output data and alerts as soon as they are generated to a remote monitoring system capable of managing stand-by periods for maintenance work. This enables the installation to be monitored closely, which is essential for multi-site installations or where operators of photovoltaic installations are not necessarily the site occupants.

6 Monitoring



Servers:

- Data server for the radio link: using the GPRS (*General Packed Radio Service*) protocol – changes in the GSM standard
- E-mail server: using SMTP (*Single Mail Transport Protocol*)
- File server: using FTP (*File Transfer Protocol*)

Fig. P19 : Example of a system for remote monitoring

6.3 Sensors

Sensors provide data to the monitoring systems and include:

■ A sensor for measuring instantaneous luminous flux such as a pyranometer (heat flow sensor used to measure the quantity of solar energy in natural light (W/m²), see **Fig. P20**). This is the standard reference for the installation. It may be used to identify shifts over time and is recommended to all suppliers wishing to conduct comparative analyses and compile statistics for their installations.

■ A temperature sensor – this is an important factor for photovoltaic power supply (see Paragraph 2.1). This sensor either serves as an external probe or is attached to the back of a module.

■ A kilowatt hour meter

When selling power, only the kilowatt hour meter operated by the energy distributor purchasing the electricity may be used as a reference.

The other meters fitted within an installation (in the inverter or next to the official meter) are only indicators with their own specific levels of accuracy. Variations of more than 10% may occur between the values given by an installation's devices and that given by the official meter. However, these variations are not only due to different levels of accuracy. They are also caused by energy lost in the cables and safety devices downstream from the inverter.

It is therefore important to use cables of minimal length and clearly identify:

- The location where the installation will be connected to the network
- The locations where the energy distributor's meters will be connected



Fig. P20 : Pyranometer – Kipp & Zonen

P17

6.4 Monitoring the installation

Since modules are expensive and in some cases openly accessible, sites need to be monitored by security cameras.

NB – although this type of surveillance is authorised for private sites, filming of public highways is prohibited.

7 Additional Information

7.1 Installation costs (2009)

The following table (see Fig. P21) shows average installation costs estimated in 2008 by surface and module type.

Surface type	Module type	P/m ²	No. m ² /kW	Price/Wp for 10 kW	Price/Wp for 100 kW
Pitched roof (integrated)	standard	120 W/m ²	9 m ² /kW	7-8 €	5-6 €
Pitched roof (partially integrated)	standard	120 W/m ²	9 m ² /kW	6-7 €	5-6 €
Pitched roof (integrated)	Standard in a steel rack	65 W/m ² (*)	15 m ² /kW	8-9 €	6-7 €
Pitched roof (integrated)	Thin film	45 W/m ²	22 m ² /kW	5-6 €	4-5 €
Flat roof (non-integrated)	standard	120 W/m ²	22 m ² /kW	5-6 €	4-5 €
Glass roof (integrated)	standard	120 W/m ²	9 m ² /kW	13-15 €	9-10 €
Sun shade (integrated)	standard	120 W/m ²	9 m ² /kW	9-10 €	7-8 €

7.2 see (Guide de l'installation électrique)

7.3 see (Guide de l'installation électrique)

7.4 see (Guide de l'installation électrique)

7.5 True or false

- Solar panels produce less energy than is required to manufacture them.
False: The service life of a solar panel is over 20 years and only 18 to 36 months are required, depending on the direction faced, to generate the energy needed for its manufacture. Therefore, by the end of their service life, solar panels produce ten times the energy used to manufacture them.
- Intermittent supplies of renewable energy disrupt the networks
True: The power networks were set up as part of a three-tier system (distribution, transmission and supply) and are only equipped for the input of large quantities of power at very specific points in the transmission network. Networks are controlled vertically from suppliers to consumers. The connection of energy sources throughout the distribution network is changing current practices. However, since their power levels are relatively low, residential installations have no direct impact on the distribution network on an individual basis. It is due to the large numbers and disparity of these installations that the various networks need to be managed more carefully.
- One of the features of some forms of renewable energy (wind power and photovoltaic power) is the fact that power is supplied intermittently since output is dependent on the sun (or wind) which disappears in cloudy conditions or when night falls. Therefore, they are not reliable sources of energy and are not available on demand.
True – except in remote areas where extensive research has been conducted on charging storage batteries.
True – except when generators are connected to the network as the network supplements shortfalls in renewable energy.

Chapter Q

Residential and other special locations

Contents

1	Residential and similar premises	Q2
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	1.2 Distribution boards components	Q2
	1.3 Protection of people	Q4
	1.4 Circuits	Q6
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	2.2 Equipotential bonding	Q11
	2.3 Requirements prescribed for each zone	Q11
3	Recommendations applicable to special installations and locations	Q12

Electrical installations for residential premises need a high standard of safety and reliability

The power distribution utility connects the LV neutral point to its MV/LV distribution transformer to earth.

All LV installations must be protected by RCDs. All exposed conductive parts must be bonded together and connected to the earth.

The quality of electrical equipment used in residential premises is commonly ensured by a mark of conformity situated on the front of each item

1.1 General

Related standards

Most countries have national regulations and/or standards governing the rules to be strictly observed in the design and realization of electrical installations for residential and similar premises. The relevant international standard is the publication IEC 60364.

The power network

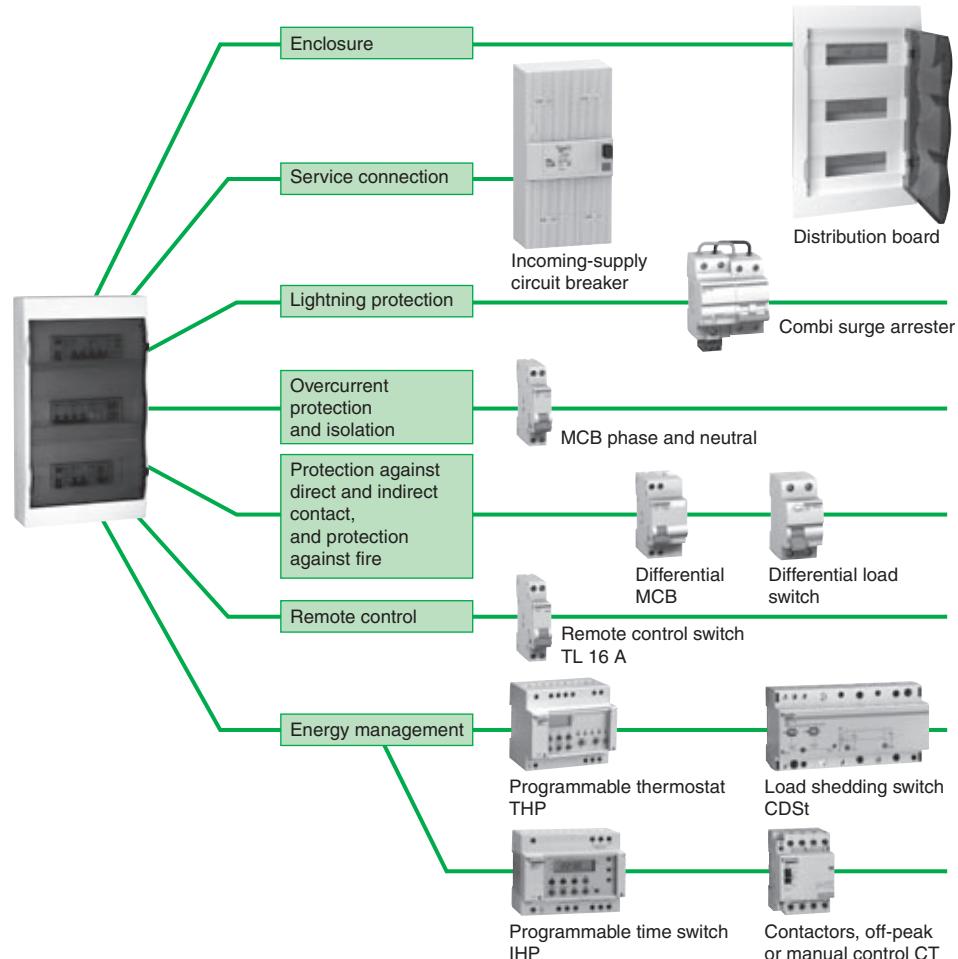
The vast majority of power distribution utilities connect the low voltage neutral point of their MV/LV distribution transformers to earth.

The protection of persons against electric shock therefore depends, in such case, on the principle discussed in chapter F. The measures required depend on whether the TT, TN or IT scheme of earthing is adopted.

RCDs are essential for TT and IT earthed installations. For TN installations, high speed overcurrent devices or RCDs may provide protection against direct contact of the electrical circuits. To extend the protection to flexible leads beyond the fixed socket outlets and to ensure protection against fires of electrical origin RCDs shall be installed.

1.2 Distribution boards components (see Fig. Q1)

Distribution boards (generally only one in residential premises) usually include the meter(s) and in some cases (notably where the supply utilities impose a TT earthing system and/or tariff conditions which limit the maximum permitted current consumption) an incoming supply differential circuit-breaker which includes an overcurrent trip. This circuit-breaker is freely accessible to the consumer.



Q2

Fig. Q1 : Presentation of realizable functions on a consumer unit

1 Residential and similar premises



Fig. Q3 : Incoming-supply circuit-breaker



Fig. Q4 : Control and distribution board

On installations which are TN earthed, the supply utilities usually protect the installation simply by means of sealed fuse cut-outs immediately upstream of the meter(s) (see Fig. Q2). The consumer has no access to these fuses.

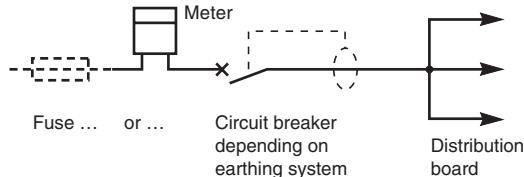


Fig. Q2 : Components of a control and distribution board

The incoming supply circuit-breaker (see Fig. Q3)

The consumer is allowed to operate this CB if necessary (e.g to reclose it if the current consumption has exceeded the authorized limit; to open it in case of emergency or for isolation purposes).

The rated residual current of the incoming circuit-breaker in the earth leakage protection shall be 300 mA.

If the installation is TT, the earth electrode resistance shall be less than

$$R = \frac{50 \text{ V}}{300 \text{ mA}} = 166 \Omega. \text{ In practice, the earth electrode resistance of a new installation shall be less than } 80 \Omega \left(\frac{R}{2} \right).$$

The control and distribution board (consumer unit) (see Fig. Q4)

This board comprises:

- A control panel for mounting (where appropriate) the incoming supply circuit-breaker and other control auxiliaries, as required
- A distribution panel for housing 1, 2 or 3 rows (of 24 multi 9 units) or similar MCBs or fuse units, etc.
- Installation accessories for fixing conductors, and rails for mounting MCBs, fuses bases, etc, neutral busbar and earthing bar, and so on
- Service cable ducts or conduits, surface mounted or in cable chases embedded in the wall

Note: to facilitate future modifications to the installation, it is recommended to keep all relevant documents (photos, diagrams, characteristics, etc.) in a suitable location close to the distribution board.

The board should be installed at a height such that the operating handles, indicating dials (of meters) etc., are between 1 metre and 1.80 metres from the floor (1.30 metres in situations where handicapped or elderly people are concerned).

Lightning arresters

The installation of lightning arresters at the service position of a LV installation is strongly recommended for installations which include sensitive (e.g electronic) equipment.

These devices must automatically disconnect themselves from the installation in case of failure or be protected by a MCB. In the case of residential installations, the use of a 300 mA differential incoming supply circuit-breaker type S (i.e slightly time-delayed) will provide effective earth leakage protection, while, at the same time, will not trip unnecessarily each time a lightning arrester discharges the current (of an overvoltage-surge) to earth.

Resistance value of the earth electrode

In the case where the resistance to earth exceeds 80 Ω , one or several 30 mA RCDs should be used in place of the earth leakage protection of the incoming supply circuit-breaker.

If, in a TT scheme, the value of 80 Ω for the resistance of the electrode can not be met then, 30 mA RCDs must be installed to take over the function of the earth leakage protection of the incoming supply circuit-breaker

Q3

Where utility power supply systems and consumers' installations form a TT earthed system, the governing standards impose the use of RCDs to ensure the protection of persons

1.3 Protection of people

On TT earthed systems, the protection of persons is ensured by the following measures:

- Protection against indirect contact hazards by RCDs (see Fig. Q5) of medium sensitivity (300 mA) at the origin of the installation (incorporated in the incoming supply circuit-breaker or, on the incoming feed to the distribution board). This measure is associated with a consumer installed earth electrode to which must be connected the protective earth conductor (PE) from the exposed conductive parts of all class I insulated appliances and equipment, as well as those from the earthing pins of all socket outlets
- When the CB at the origin of an installation has no RCD protection, the protection of persons shall be ensured by class II level of insulation on all circuits upstream of the first RCDs. In the case where the distribution board is metallic, care shall be taken that all live parts are double insulated (supplementary clearances or insulation, use of covers, etc.) and wiring reliably fixed
- Obligatory protection by 30 mA sensitive RCDs of socket outlet circuits, and circuits feeding bathroom, laundry rooms, and so on (for details of this latter obligation, refer to clause 3 of this chapter)

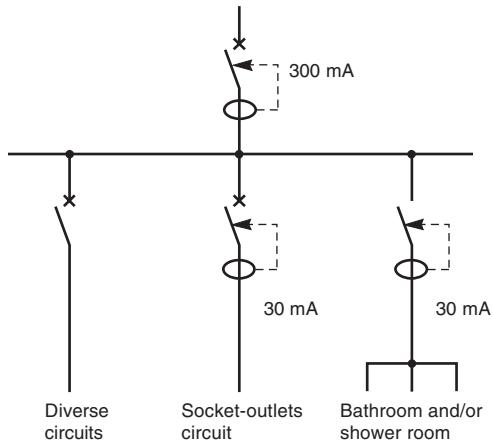


Fig. Q5 : Installation with incoming-supply circuit-breaker having instantaneous differential protection

Incoming supply circuit-breaker with instantaneous differential relay

In this case:

- An insulation fault to earth could result in a shutdown of the entire installation
- Where a lightning arrester is installed, its operation (i.e. discharging a voltage surge to earth) could appear to an RCD as an earth fault, with a consequent shutdown of the installation

Recommendation of suitable Merlin Gerin components

- Incoming supply circuit-breaker with 300 mA differential and
- High sensitivity 30 mA RCD (for example differential circuit-breaker 1P + N type Declic Vigi) on the circuits supplying socket outlets
- High sensitivity 30 mA RCD (for example differential load switch type ID'clic) on circuits to bathrooms, shower rooms, laundry rooms, etc. (lighting, heating, socket outlets)

Incoming supply circuit-breaker with type S time delayed differential relay

This type of CB affords protection against fault to earth, but by virtue of a short time delay, provides a measure of discrimination with downstream instantaneous RCDs. Tripping of the incoming supply CB and its consequences (on deep freezers, for example) is thereby made less probable in the event of lightning, or other causes of voltage surges. The discharge of voltage surge current to earth, through the surge arrester, will leave the type S circuit-breaker unaffected.

1 Residential and similar premises

Recommendation of suitable Merlin Gerin components (see Fig. Q6)

- Incoming supply circuit-breaker with 300 mA differential type S and
- High sensitivity 30 mA RCD (for example differential circuit-breaker 1P + N type Declic Vigi) on the circuits supplying washing machines and dish-washing machine
- High sensitivity 30 mA RCD (for example differential load switch type ID'clic) on circuits to bathrooms, shower rooms, laundry rooms, etc. (lighting, heating, socket outlets)

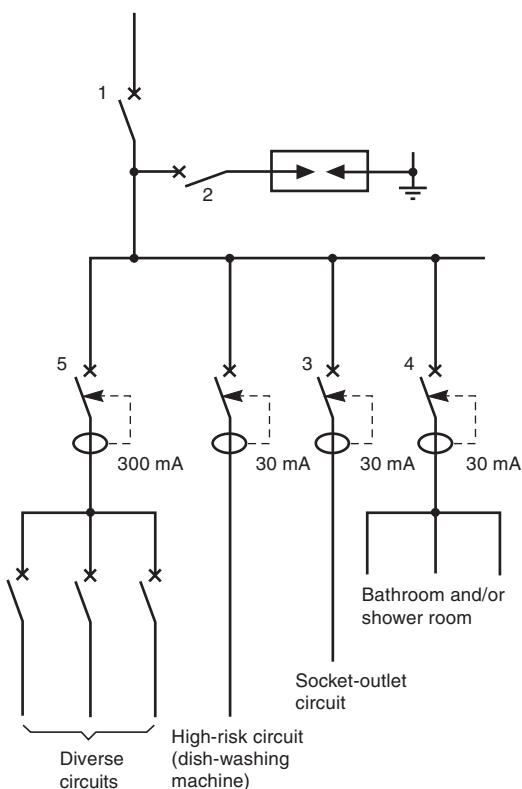


Fig. Q7 : Installation with incoming-supply circuit-breaker having no differential protection

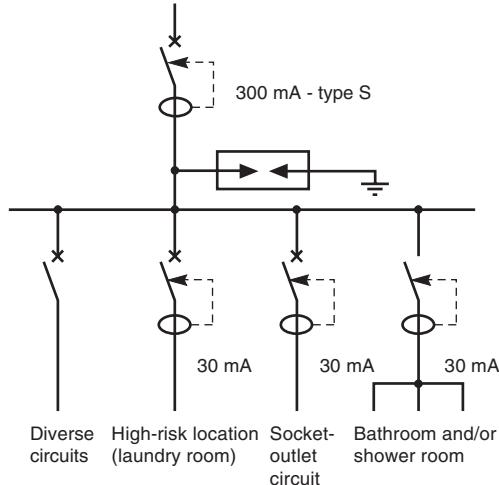


Fig. Q6 : Installation with incoming-supply circuit-breaker having short time delay differential protection, type S

Incoming supply circuit-breaker without differential protection

In this case the protection of persons must be ensured by:

- Class II level of insulation up to the downstream terminals of the RCDs
- All outgoing circuits from the distribution board must be protected by 30 mA or 300 mA RCDs according to the type of circuit concerned as discussed in chapter F. Where a voltage surge arrester is installed upstream of the distribution board (to protect sensitive electronic equipment such as microprocessors, video-cassette recorders, TV sets, electronic cash registers, etc.) it is imperative that the device automatically disconnects itself from the installation following a rare (but always possible) failure. Some devices employ replaceable fusing elements; the recommended method however as shown in **Figure Q7**, is to use a circuit-breaker.

Recommendation of suitable Merlin Gerin components

Figure P7 refers:

1. Incoming-supply circuit-breaker without differential protection
2. Automatic disconnection device (if a lightning arrester is installed)
3. 30 mA RCD (for example differential circuit-breaker 1P + N type Declic Vigi) on each circuit supplying one or more socket-outlets
4. 30 mA RCD (for example differential load switch type ID'clic) on circuits to bathrooms and shower rooms (lighting, heating and socket-outlets) or a 30 mA differential circuit-breaker per circuit
5. 300 mA RCD (for example differential load switch) on all the other circuits

Q5

The distribution and division of circuits provides comfort and facilitates rapid location of fault

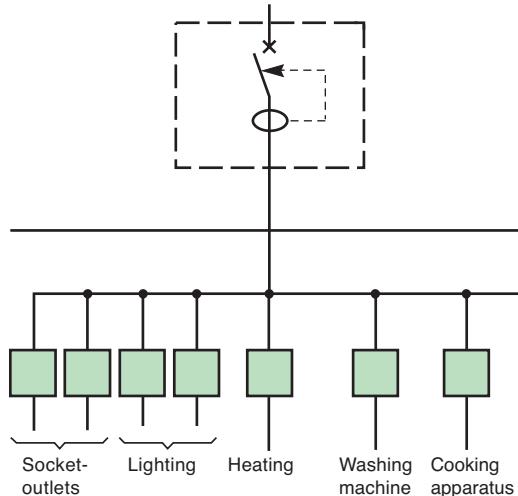


Fig. Q8 : Circuit division according to utilization

The inclusion of a protective conductor in all circuits is required by IEC and most national standards

1.4 Circuits

Subdivision

National standards commonly recommend the subdivision of circuits according to the number of utilization categories in the installation concerned (see **Fig. Q8**):

- At least 1 circuit for lighting. Each circuit supplying a maximum of 8 lighting points
- At least 1 circuit for socket-outlets rated 10/16 A, each circuit supplying a maximum of 8 sockets. These sockets may be single or double units (a double unit is made up of two 10/16 A sockets mounted on a common base in an embedded box, identical to that of a single unit)
- 1 circuit for each appliance such as water heater, washing machine, dish-washing machine, cooker, refrigerator, etc. Recommended numbers of 10/16 A (or similar) socket-outlets and fixed lighting points, according to the use for which the various rooms of a dwelling are intended, are indicated in **Figure Q9**

Room function	Minimum number of fixed lighting points	Minimum number of 10/16 A socket-outlets
Living room	1	5
Bedroom, lounge, bureau, dining room	1	3
Kitchen	2	4 (1)
Bathroom, shower room	2	1 or 2
Entrance hall, box room	1	1
WC, storage space	1	-
Laundry room	-	1

(1) Of which 2 above the working surface and 1 for a specialized circuit: in addition an independent socket-outlet of 16 A or 20 A for a cooker and a junction box or socket-outlet for a 32 A specialized circuit

Fig Q9 : Recommended minimum number of lighting and power points in residential premises

Protective conductors

IEC and most national standards require that each circuit includes a protective conductor. This practice is strongly recommended where class I insulated appliances and equipment are installed, which is the general case.

The protective conductors must connect the earthing-pin contact in each socket-outlet, and the earthing terminal in class I equipment, to the main earthing terminal at the origin of the installation.

Furthermore, 10/16 A (or similarly sized) socket-outlets must be provided with shuttered contact orifices.

Cross-sectional-area (c.s.a.) of conductors (see **Fig. Q10**)

The c.s.a. of conductors and the rated current of the associated protective device depend on the current magnitude of the circuit, the ambient temperature, the kind of installation, and the influence of neighbouring circuits (refer to chapter G).

Moreover, the conductors for the phase wires, the neutral and the protective conductors of a given circuit must all be of equal c.s.a. (assuming the same material for the conductors concerned, i.e. all copper or all aluminium).

Q6



Fig. Q10 : Circuit-breaker 1 phase + N - 2 x 9 mm spaces

1 Residential and similar premises

Figure Q11 indicates the c.s.a. required for commonly-used appliances
 Protective devices 1 phase + N in 2 x 9 mm spaces comply with requirements for isolation, and for marking of circuit current rating and conductor sizes.

Type of circuit single-phase 230 V 1 ph + N or 1 ph + N + PE	c. s. a. of the conductors	Maximum power	Protective device	
Fixed lighting		1.5 mm ² (2.5 mm ²)	2,300 W	Circuit-breaker Fuse 16 A 10 A
10/16 A		2.5 mm ² (4 mm ²)	4,600 W	Circuit-breaker Fuse 25 A 20 A
Individual-load circuits				
Water heater		2.5 mm ² (4 mm ²)	4,600 W	Circuit-breaker Fuse 25 A 20 A
Dish-washing machine		2.5 mm ² (4 mm ²)	4,600 W	Circuit-breaker Fuse 25 A 20 A
Clothes-washing machine		2.5 mm ² (4 mm ²)	4,600 W	Circuit-breaker Fuse 25 A 20 A
Cooker or hotplate ⁽¹⁾		6 mm ² (10 mm ²)	7,300 W	Circuit-breaker Fuse 40 A 32 A
Electric space heater		1.5 mm ² (2.5 mm ²)	2,300 W	Circuit-breaker Fuse 16 A 10 A

(1) In a 230/400 V 3-phase circuit, the c. s. a. is 4 mm² for copper or 6 mm² for aluminium, and protection is provided by a 32 A circuit-breaker or by 25 A fuses.

Fig. Q11 : C. s. a. of conductors and current rating of the protective devices in residential installations (the c. s. a. of aluminium conductors are shown in brackets)

1.5 Protection against overvoltages and lightning

The choice of surge arrester is described in chapter J

Installation rules

Three principal rules must be respected:

1 - It is imperative that the three lengths of cable used for the installation of the surge arrester each be less than 50 cm i.e.:

- the live conductors connected to the isolating switch
- from the isolating switch to the surge arrester
- from the surge arrester to the main distribution board (MDB) earth bar (not to be confused with the main protective-earth (PE) conductor or the main earth terminal for the installation. The MDB earth bar must evidently be located in the same cabinet as the surge arrester).

2 - It is necessary to use an isolating switch of a type recommended by the manufacturer of the surge arrester.

3 - In the interest of a good continuity of supply it is recommended that the circuit-breaker be of the time-delayed or selective type.

Q7

2 Bathrooms and showers

Bathrooms and showers rooms are areas of high risk, because of the very low resistance of the human body when wet or immersed in water.

Precaution to be taken are therefore correspondingly rigorous, and the regulations are more severe than those for most other locations.

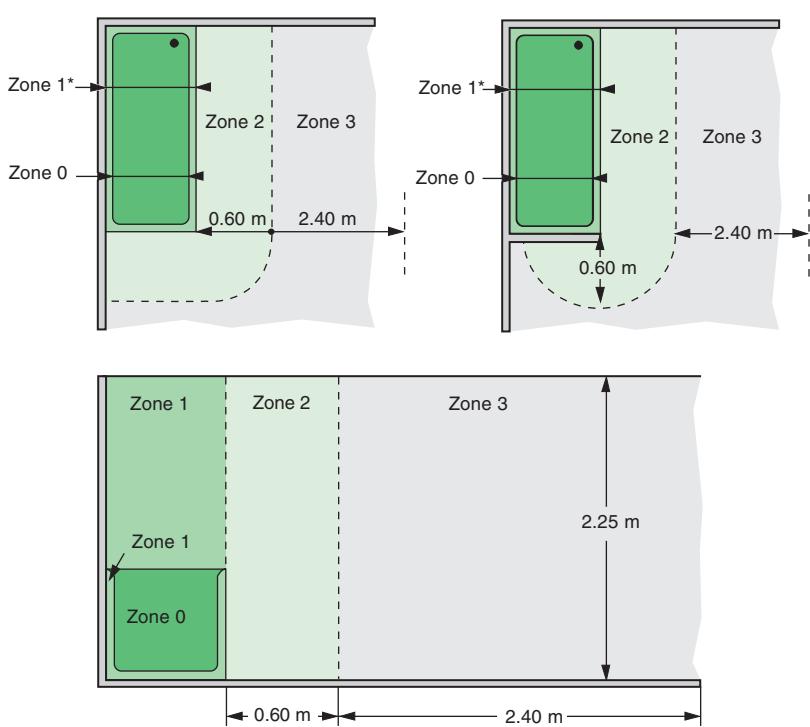
The relevant standard is IEC 60364-7-701.

Precautions to observe are based on three aspects:

- The definition of zones, numbered 0, 1, 2, 3 in which the placement (or exclusion) of any electrical device is strictly limited or forbidden and, where permitted, the electrical and mechanical protection is prescribed
- The establishment of an equipotential bond between all exposed and extraneous metal parts in the zones concerned
- The strict adherence to the requirements prescribed for each particular zones, as tabled in clause 3

2.1 Classification of zones

Sub-clause 701.32 of IEC 60364-7-701 defines the zones 0, 1, 2, 3 as shown in the following diagrams (see **Fig. Q12** below to **Fig Q18** opposite and next pages):



(*) Zone 1 is above the bath as shown in the vertical cross-section

Fig. Q12 : Zones 0, 1, 2 and 3 in proximity to a bath-tub

2 Bathrooms and showers

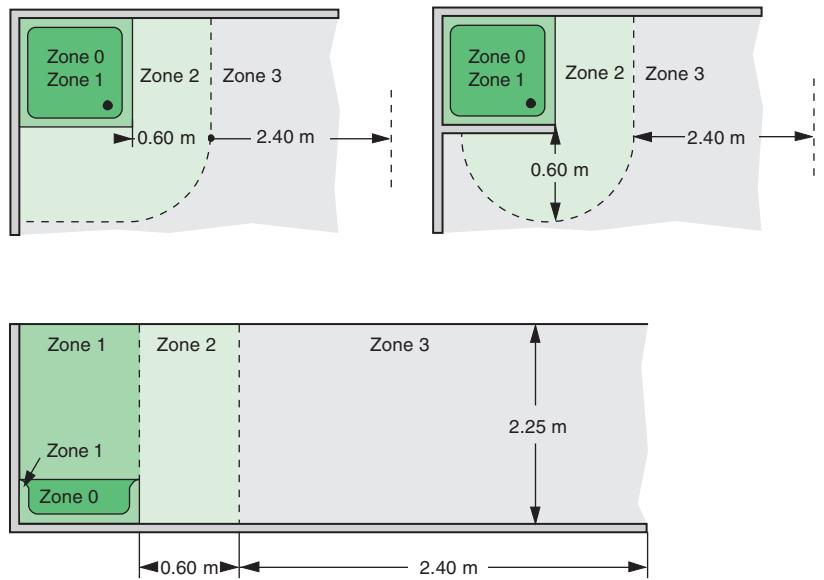
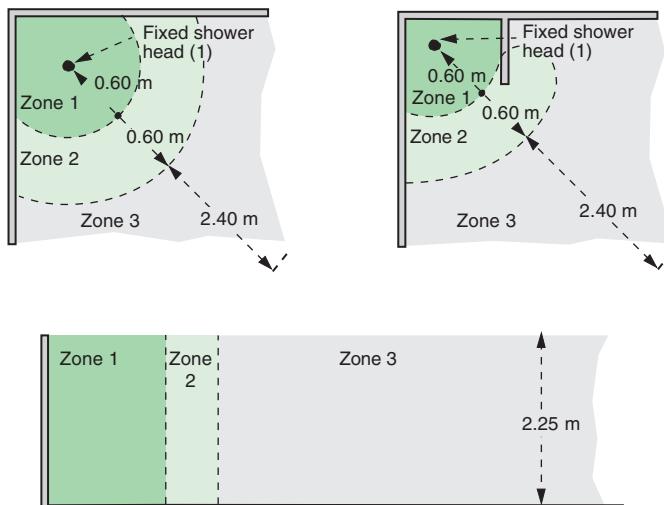


Fig. Q13 : Zones 0, 1, 2 and 3 in proximity of a shower with basin



(1) When the shower head is at the end of a flexible tube, the vertical central axis of a zone passes through the fixed end of the flexible tube

Fig. Q14 : Zones 0, 1, 2 and 3 in proximity of a shower without basin

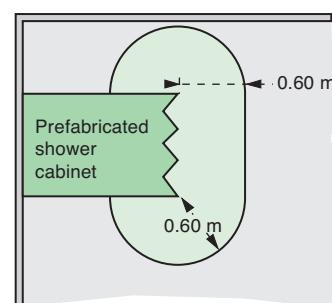


Fig. Q15 : No switch or socket-outlet is permitted within 60 cm of the door opening of a shower cabinet

Q9

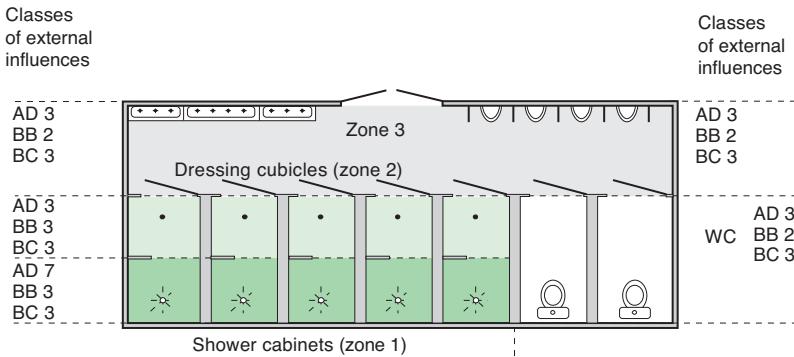


Fig. QP16 : Individual showers with dressing cubicles

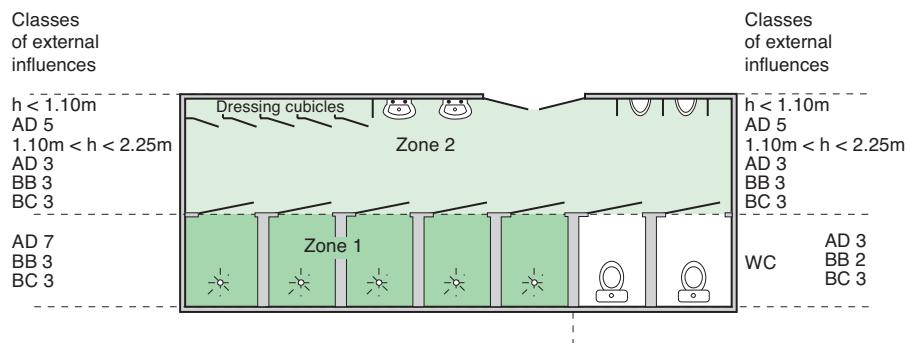


Fig. Q17 : Individual showers with separate individual dressing cubicles

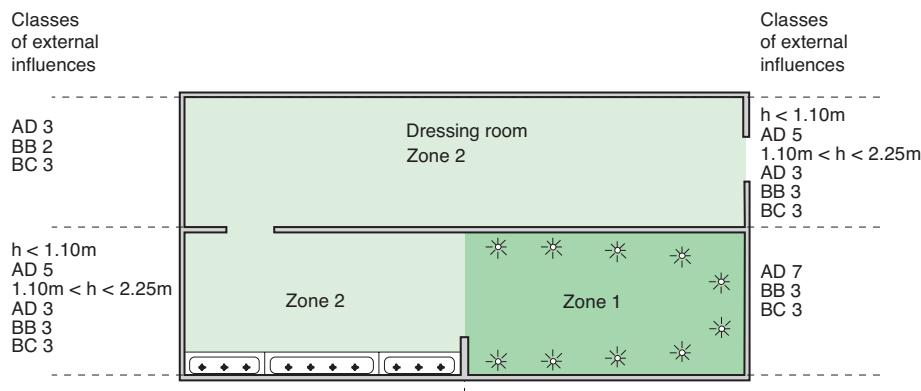


Fig. Q18 : Communal showers and common dressing room

2 Bathrooms and showers

2.2 Equipotential bonding (see Fig. Q19)

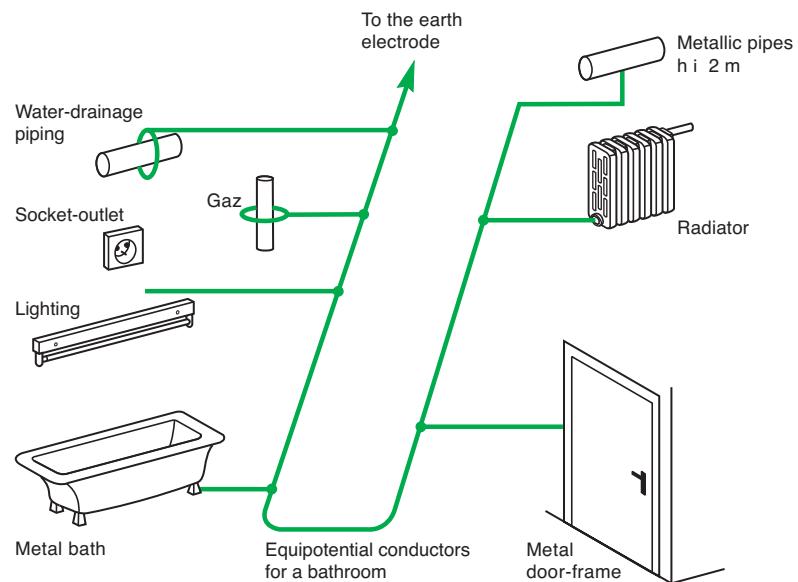


Fig. Q19 : Supplementary equipotential bonding in a bathroom

2.3 Requirements prescribed for each zone

The table of clause 3 describes the application of the principles mentioned in the foregoing text and in other similar or related cases

Q11

3 Recommendations applicable to special installations and locations

Figure Q20 below summarizes the main requirements prescribed in many national and international standards.

Note: Section in brackets refer to sections of IEC 60364-7

Locations	Protection principles	IP level	Wiring and cables	Switchgear	Socket-outlets	Installation materials
Domestic dwellings and other habitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ TT or TN-S systems ■ Differential protection □ 300 mA if the earth electrode resistance is ≤ 80 ohms instantaneous or short time delay (type S) □ 30 mA if the earth electrode resistance is ≥ 500 ohms ■ surge arrester at the origin of the installation if □ supply is from overhead line with bare conductors, and if □ the keraunic level > 25 ■ a protective earth (PE) conductor on all circuits 	20		Switch operating handles and similar devices on distribution panels, to be mounted between 1 metre and 1.80 metre above the floor	Protection by 30 mA RCDs	
Bathrooms or shower rooms (section 701)	Supplementary equipotential bonding in zones 0, 1, 2 and 3					
Zone 0	SELV 12 V only	27	Class II limited to strict minimum			Special appliances
Zone 1	SELV 12 V	25	Class II limited to strict minimum			Special appliances Water heater
Zone 2	SELV 12 V or 30 mA RCD	24	Class II limited to strict minimum			Special appliances Water heater Class II luminaires
Zone 3		21		Only socket-outlets protected by : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 30 mA RCD or ■ Electrical separation or ■ SELV 50 V 		
Swimming baths (section 702)	Supplementary equipotential bonding in zones 0, 1, and 2					
Zone 0	SELV 12 V	28	Class II limited to strict minimum			Special appliances
Zone 1		25	Class II limited to strict minimum			Special appliances
Zone 2		22 (indoor) 24 (outdoor)		Only socket-outlets protected by : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 30 mA RCD or ■ electrical separation or ■ SELV 50 V 		
Saunas (section 703)		24	Class II			Adapted to temperature
Work sites (section 704)	Conventional voltage limit U_L reduced to 25 V	44	Mechanically protected		Protection by 30 mA RCDs	
Agricultural and horticultural establishments (section 705)	Conventional voltage limit U_L reduced to 25 V Protection against fire risks by 500 mA RCDs	35			Protection by 30 mA RCDs	
Restricted conductive locations (section 706)		2x				Protection of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Portable tools by: □ SELV or □ Electrical separation ■ Hand-held lamps □ By SELV ■ Fixed equipment by □ SELV □ Electrical separation □ 30 mA RCDs □ Special supplementary equipotential bonding

Fig. Q20 : Main requirements prescribed in many national and international standards (continued on opposite page)

3 Recommendations applicable to special installations and locations

Locations	Protection principles	IP level	Wiring and cables	Switchgear	Socket-outlets	Installation materials
Fountains (section 702)	Protection by 30 mA RCDs and equipotential bonding of all exposed and extraneous conductive parts					
Data processing (section 707)	TN-S system recommended TT system if leakage current is limited. Protective conductor 10 mm ² minimum in aluminium. Smaller sizes (in copper) must be doubled.					
Caravan park (section 708)		55	Flexible cable of 25 metres length		Socket-outlets shall be placed at a height of 0.80 m to 1.50 m from the ground. Protection of circuits by 30 mA RCDs (one per 6 socket-outlets)	
Marinas and pleasure craft (section 709)	The cable length for connection to pleasure craft must not exceed 25 m				Protection of circuits by 30 mA RCDs (one per 6 socket-outlets)	
Medical locations Group 2 : Operating theatres and similar (section 710)	IT medical system equipotential grounding, limited to one operating theatre and not exceeding 10 kVA			Only magnetic protection for the primary of LV/LV transformer. Monitoring of secondary loads and transformer temperature	Protection of circuits by thermal-magnetic protection only. One to three per circuit.	
Medical locations Group 1 : Hospitalization and similar (section 710)	TT or TNS				Protection by 30 mA RCDs	
Exhibitions, shows and stands (section 711)	TT or TN-S systems	4x			Protection by 30 mA RCDs	
Balneotherapy (cure-centre baths)	Individual: see section 701 (volumes 0 and 1) Collective: see section 702 (volumes 0 and 1)					
Motor-fuel filling stations	Explosion risks in security zones		Limited to the necessary minimum			
Motor vehicles	Protection by RCDs or by electrical separation					
External lighting installations (section 714)		23			Protection by 30 mA RCDs	
Mobile or transportable units (section 717)	The use of TN-C system is not permitted inside any unit				30 mA RCDs must be used for all socket-outlets supplying equipment outside the unit	

Fig. Q20 : Main requirements prescribed in many national and international standards (concluded)

Q13

Chapter R

EMC guidelines

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1 Electrical distribution

The system earthing arrangement must be properly selected to ensure the safety of life and property. The behaviour of the different systems with respect to EMC considerations must be taken into account. **Figure R1** below presents a summary of their main characteristics.

European standards (see EN 50174-2 § 6.4 and EN 50310 § 6.3) recommend the TN-S system which causes the fewest EMC problems for installations comprising information-technology equipment (including telecom equipment).

	TT	TN-S	IT	TN-C
Safety of persons	Good RCD mandatory	Good Continuity of the PE conductor must be ensured throughout the installation		
Safety of property	Good	Poor	Good	Poor
		Medium fault current (< a few dozen amperes)	High fault current (around 1 kA)	Low current for first fault (< a few dozen mA), but high for second fault
Availability of energy	Good	Good	Excellent	Good
EMC behaviour	Good - Risk of overvoltages - Equipotential problems - Need to manage devices with high leakage currents	Excellent - Few equipotential problems - Need to manage devices with high leakage currents - High fault currents (transient disturbances)	Poor (to be avoided) - Risk of overvoltages - Common-mode filters and surge arrestors must handle the phase-to-phase voltages - RCDs subject to nuisance tripping if common-mode capacitors are present - Equivalent to TN system for second fault	Poor (should never be used) - Neutral and PE are the same - Circulation of disturbed currents in exposed conductive parts (high magnetic-field radiation) - High fault currents (transient disturbances)

Fig. R1 : Main characteristics of system earthing

When an installation includes high-power equipment (motors, air-conditioning, lifts, power electronics, etc.), it is advised to install one or more transformers specifically for these systems. Electrical distribution must be organised in a star system and all outgoing circuits must exit the main low-voltage switchboard (MLVS).

Electronic systems (control/monitoring, regulation, measurement instruments, etc.) must be supplied by a dedicated transformer in a TN-S system.

Figure R2 below illustrate these recommendations.

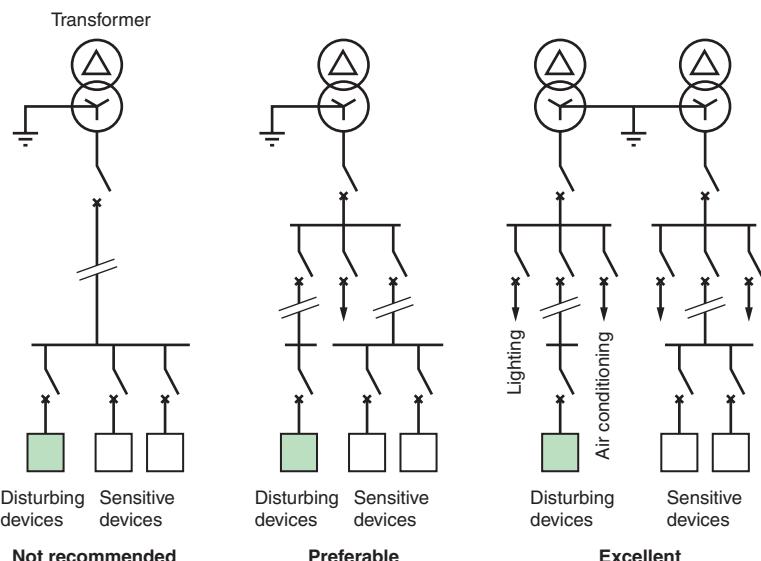


Fig. R2 : Recommendations of separated distributions

2 Earthing principles and structures

This section deals with the earthing and equipotential bonding of information-technology devices and other similar devices requiring interconnections for signalling purposes.

Earthing networks are designed to fulfil a number of functions. They can be independent or operate together to provide one or more of the following:

- Safety of persons with respect to electrical hazards
- Protection of equipment with respect to electrical hazards
- A reference value for reliable, high-quality signals
- Satisfactory EMC performance

The system earthing arrangement is generally designed and installed in view of obtaining a low impedance capable of diverting fault currents and HF currents away from electronic devices and systems. There are different types of system earthing arrangements and some require that specific conditions be met. These conditions are not always met in typical installations. The recommendations presented in this section are intended for such installations.

For professional and industrial installations, a common bonding network (CBN) may be useful to ensure better EMC performance with respect to the following points:

- Digital systems and new technologies
- Compliance with the EMC requirements of EEC 89/336 (emission and immunity)
- The wide number of electrical applications
- A high level of system safety and security, as well as reliability and/or availability

For residential premises, however, where the use of electrical devices is limited, an isolated bonding network (IBN) or, even better, a mesh IBN may be a solution.

It is now recognised that independent, dedicated earth electrodes, each serving a separate earthing network, are a solution that is not acceptable in terms of EMC, but also represent a serious safety hazard. In certain countries, the national building codes forbid such systems.

Use of a separate "clean" earthing network for electronics and a "dirty" earthing network for energy is not recommended in view of obtaining correct EMC, even when a single electrode is used (see **Fig. R3** and **Fig. R4**). In the event of a lightning strike, a fault current or HF disturbances as well as transient currents will flow in the installation. Consequently, transient voltages will be created and result in failures or damage to the installation. If installation and maintenance are carried out properly, this approach may be dependable (at power frequencies), but it is generally not suitable for EMC purposes and is not recommended for general use.

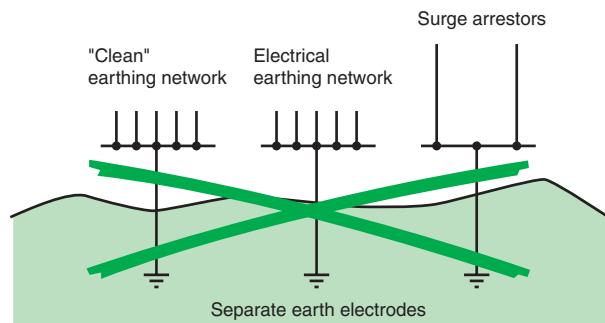


Fig. R3 : Independent earth electrodes, a solution generally not acceptable for safety and EMC reasons

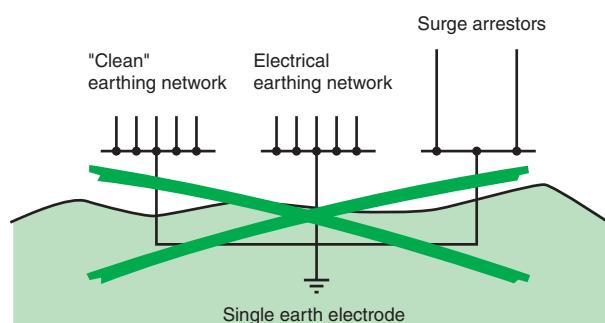


Fig. R4 : Installation with a single earth electrode

R3

2 Earthing principles and structures

The recommended configuration for the earthing network and electrodes is two or three dimensional (see **Fig. R5**). This approach is advised for general use, both in terms of safety and EMC. This recommendation does not exclude other special configurations that, when correctly maintained, are also suitable.

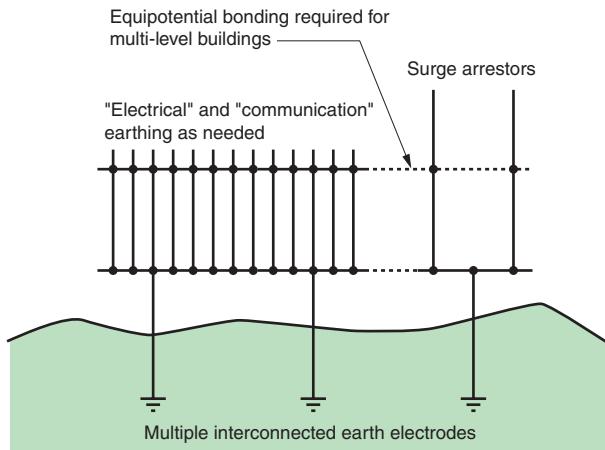


Fig. R5 : Installation with multiple earth electrodes

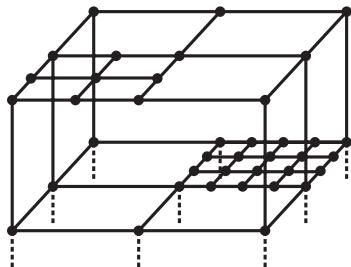


Fig. R6 : Each level has a mesh and the meshes are interconnected at several points between levels. Certain ground-floor meshes are reinforced to meet the needs of certain areas

In a typical installation for a multi-level building, each level should have its own earthing network (generally a mesh) and all the networks must be both interconnected and connected to the earth electrode. At least two connections are required (built in redundancy) to ensure that, if one conductor breaks, no section of the earthing network is isolated.

Practically speaking, more than two connections are made to obtain better symmetry in current flow, thus reducing differences in voltage and the overall impedance between the various levels in the building.

The many parallel paths have different resonance frequencies. If one path has a high impedance, it is most probably shunted by another path with a different resonance frequency. On the whole, over a wide frequency spectrum (dozens of Hz and MHz), a large number of paths results in a low-impedance system (see **Fig. R6**).

Each room in the building should have earthing-network conductors for equipotential bonding of devices and systems, cableways, trunking systems and structures. This system can be reinforced by connecting metal pipes, gutters, supports, frames, etc. In certain special cases, such as control rooms or computers installed on false floors, ground reference plane or earthing strips in areas for electronic systems can be used to improve earthing of sensitive devices and protection interconnection cables.

3 Implementation

3.1 Equipotential bonding inside and outside buildings

The fundamental goals of earthing and bonding are the following:

- Safety

By limiting the touch voltage and the return path of fault currents

- EMC

By avoiding differences in potential and providing a screening effect.

Stray currents are inevitably propagated in an earthing network. It is impossible to eliminate all the sources of disturbances for a site. Earth loops are also inevitable. When a magnetic field affects a site, e.g. the field created by lightning, differences in potential are created in the loops formed by the various conductors and the currents flowing in the earthing system. Consequently, the earthing network is directly affected by any counter-measures taken outside the building.

As long as the currents flow in the earthing system and not in the electronic circuits, they do no damage. However, when earthing networks are not equipotential, e.g. when they are star connected to the earth electrode, the HF stray currents will flow wherever they can, including in control wires. Equipment can be disturbed, damaged or even destroyed.

The only inexpensive means to divide the currents in an earthing system and maintain satisfactory equipotential characteristics is to interconnect the earthing networks. This contributes to better equipotential bonding within the earthing system, but does not remove the need for protective conductors. To meet legal requirements in terms of the safety of persons, sufficiently sized and identified protective conductors must remain in place between each piece of equipment and the earthing terminal. What is more, with the possible exception of a building with a steel structure, a large number of conductors for the surge-arrestor or the lightning-protection network must be directly connected to the earth electrode.

The fundamental difference between a protective conductor (PE) and a surge-arrestor down-lead is that the first conducts internal currents to the neutral of the MV/LV transformer whereas the second carries external current (from outside the installation) to the earth electrode.

In a building, it is advised to connect an earthing network to all accessible conducting structures, namely metal beams and door frames, pipes, etc. It is generally sufficient to connect metal trunking, cable trays and lintels, pipes, ventilation ducts, etc. at as many points as possible. In places where there is a large amount of equipment and the size of the mesh in the bonding network is greater than four metres, an equipotential conductor should be added. The size and type of conductor are not of critical importance.

It is imperative to interconnect the earthing networks of buildings that have shared cable connections. Interconnection of the earthing networks must take place via a number of conductors and all the internal metal structures of the buildings or linking the buildings (on the condition that they are not interrupted).

In a given building, the various earthing networks (electronics, computing, telecom, etc.) must be interconnected to form a single equipotential bonding network.

This earthing-network must be as meshed as possible. If the earthing network is equipotential, the differences in potential between communicating devices will be low and a large number of EMC problems disappear. Differences in potential are also reduced in the event of insulation faults or lightning strikes.

If equipotential conditions between buildings cannot be achieved or if the distance between buildings is greater than ten metres, it is highly recommended to use optical fibre for communication links and galvanic insulators for measurement and communication systems.

These measures are mandatory if the electrical supply system uses the IT or TN-C system.

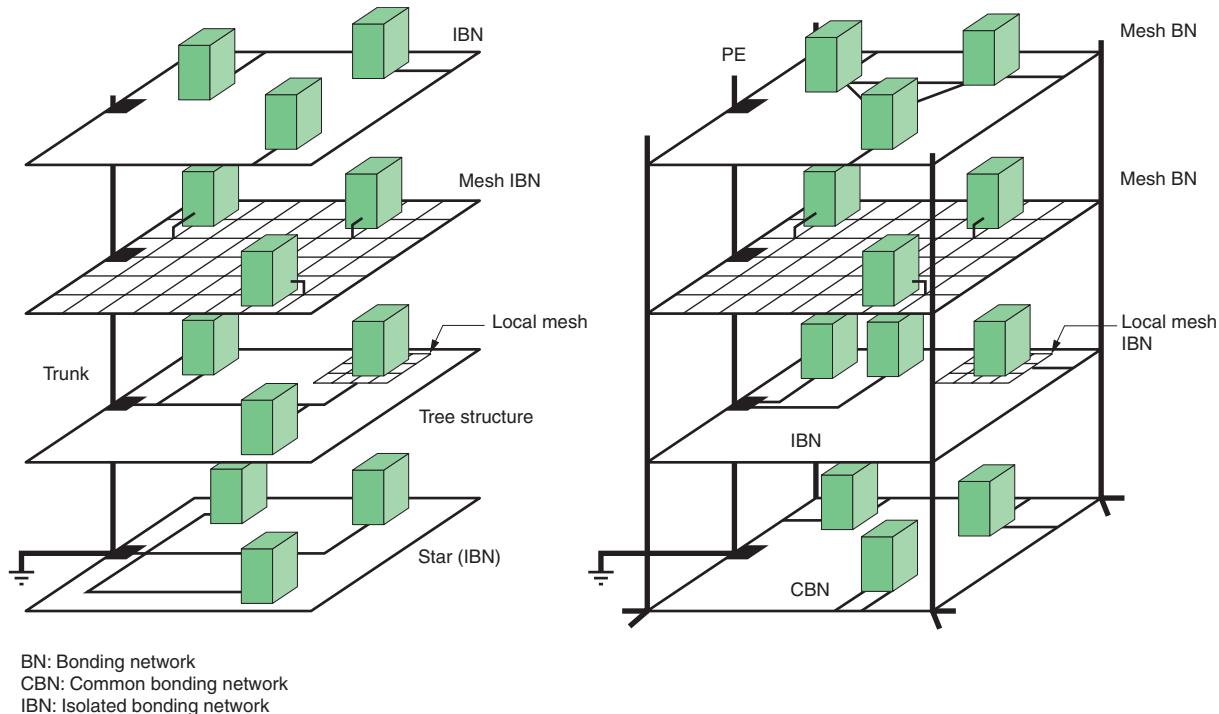
R5

3.2 Improving equipotential conditions

Bonding networks

Even though the ideal bonding network would be made of sheet metal or a fine mesh, experience has shown that for most disturbances, a three-metre mesh size is sufficient to create a mesh bonding network.

Examples of different bonding networks are shown in **Figure R7** next page. The minimum recommended structure comprises a conductor (e.g. copper cable or strip) surrounding the room.

**Fig. R7 : Examples of bonding networks**

The length of connections between a structural element and the bonding network does not exceed 50 centimetres and an additional connection should be installed in parallel at a certain distance from the first. The inductance of the connection between the earthing bar of the electrical enclosure for a set of equipment and the bonding network (see below) should be less than one μ Henry (0.5 μ H, if possible). For example, it is possible to use a single 50 cm conductor or two parallel conductors one meter long, installed at a minimum distance from one another (at least 50 cm) to reduce the mutual inductance between the two conductors.

Where possible, connection to the bonding network should be at an intersection to divide the HF currents by four without lengthening the connection. The profile of the bonding conductors is not important, but a flat profile is preferable. The conductor should also be as short as possible.

Parallel earthing conductor (PEC)

The purpose of a parallel earthing conductor is to reduce the common-mode current flowing in the conductors that also carry the differential-mode signal (the common-mode impedance and the surface area of the loop are reduced).

The parallel earthing conductor must be designed to handle high currents when it is used for protection against lightning or for the return of high fault currents. When cable shielding is used as a parallel earthing conductor, it cannot handle such high currents and the solution is to run the cable along metal structural elements or cableways which then act as other parallel earthing conductors for the entire cable. Another possibility is to run the shielded cable next to a large parallel earthing conductor with both the shielded cable and the parallel earthing conductor connected at each end to the local earthing terminal of the equipment or the device.

For very long distances, additional connections to the network are advised for the parallel earthing conductor, at irregular distances between the devices. These additional connections form a shorter return path for the disturbing currents flowing through the parallel earthing conductor. For U-shaped trays, shielding and tubes, the additional connections should be external to maintain the separation with the interior ("screening" effect).

Bonding conductors

Bonding conductors may be metal strips, flat braids or round conductors. For high-frequency systems, metal strips and flat braids are preferable (skin effect) because a round conductor has a higher impedance than a flat conductor with the same cross section. Where possible, the length to width ratio should not exceed 5.

3.3 Separating cables

The physical separation of high and low-current cables is very important for EMC, particularly if low-current cables are not shielded or the shielding is not connected to the exposed conductive parts (ECPs). The sensitivity of electronic equipment is in large part determined by the accompanying cable system.

If there is no separation (different types of cables in separate cableways, minimum distance between high and low-current cables, types of cableways, etc.), electromagnetic coupling is at its maximum. Under these conditions, electronic equipment is sensitive to EMC disturbances flowing in the affected cables.

Use of busbar trunking systems such as Canalis or busbar ducts for high power ratings is strongly advised. The levels of radiated magnetic fields using these types of trunking systems is 10 to 20 times lower than standard cables or conductors.

The recommendations in the "Cable running" and "Wiring recommendations" sections should be taken into account.

3.4 False floors

The inclusion of the floors in the mesh contributes to equipotentiality of the area and consequently to the distribution and dilution of disturbing LF currents.

The screening effect of a false floor is directly related to its equipotentiality. If the contact between the floor plates is poor (rubber antistatic joints, for example) or if the contact between the support brackets is faulty (pollution, corrosion, mildew, etc. or if there are no support brackets), it is necessary to add an equipotential mesh. In this case, it is sufficient to ensure effective electrical connections between the metal support columns. Small spring clips are available on the market to connect the metal columns to the equipotential mesh. Ideally, each column should be connected, but it is often sufficient to connect every other column in each direction. A mesh 1.5 to 2 metres in size is suitable in most cases. The recommended cross-sectional area of the copper is 10 mm^2 or more. In general, a flat braid is used. To reduce the effects of corrosion, it is advised to use tin-plated copper (see Fig. R8).

Perforated floor plates act like normal floor plates when they have a cellular steel structure.

Preventive maintenance is required for the floor plates approximately every five years (depending on the type of floor plate and the environment, including humidity, dust and corrosion). Rubber or polymer antistatic joints must be maintained, similar to the bearing surfaces of the floor plates (cleaning with a suitable product).

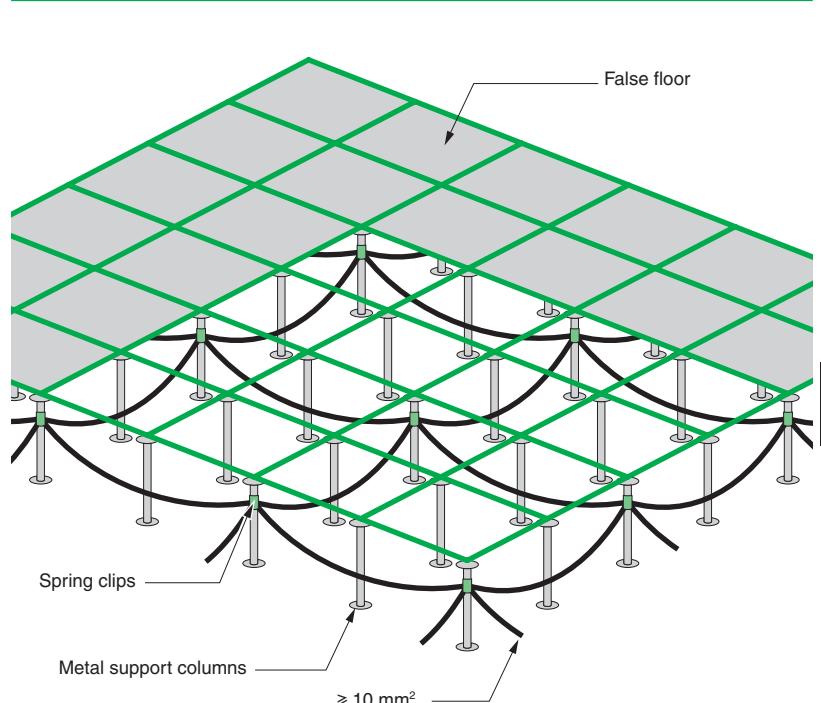


Fig. R8 : False floor implementation

3.5 Cable running

Selection of materials and their shape depends on the following criteria:

- Severity of the EM environment along cableways (proximity of sources of conducted or radiated EM disturbances)
- Authorised level of conducted and radiated emissions
- Type of cables (shielded?, twisted?, optical fibre?)
- EMI withstand capacity of the equipment connected to the wiring system
- Other environmental constraints (chemical, mechanical, climatic, fire, etc.)
- Future extensions planned for the wiring system

Non-metal cableways are suitable in the following cases:

- A continuous, low-level EM environment
- A wiring system with a low emission level
- Situations where metal cableways should be avoided (chemical environment)
- Systems using optical fibres

For metal cableways, it is the shape (flat, U-shape, tube, etc.) rather than the cross-sectional area that determines the characteristic impedance. Closed shapes are better than open shapes because they reduce common-mode coupling. Cableways often have slots for cable straps. The smaller the better. The types of slots causing the fewest problems are those cut parallel and at some distance from the cables. Slots cut perpendicular to the cables are not recommended (see **Fig. R9**).

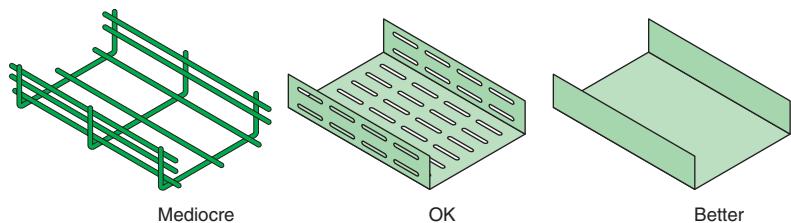


Fig. R9 : CEM performance of various types of metal cableways

In certain cases, a poor cableway in EMI terms may be suitable if the EM environment is low, if shielded cables or optical fibres are employed, or separate cableways are used for the different types of cables (power, data processing, etc.).

It is a good idea to reserve space inside the cableway for a given quantity of additional cables. The height of the cables must be lower than the partitions of the cableway as shown below. Covers also improve the EMC performance of cableways.

In U-shaped cableways, the magnetic field decreases in the two corners. That explains why deep cableways are preferable (see **Fig. R10**).

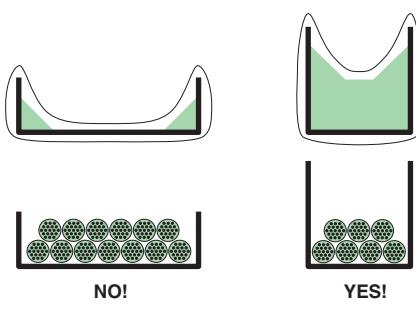


Fig. R10 : Installation of different types of cables

Different types of cables (power and low-level connections) should not be installed in the same bundle or in the same cableway. Cableways should never be filled to more than half capacity.

3 Implementation

It is recommended to electromagnetically separate groups from one another, either using shielding or by installing the cables in different cableways. The quality of the shielding determines the distance between groups. If there is no shielding, sufficient distances must be maintained (see Fig. R11).
The distance between power and control cables must be at least 5 times the radius of the larger power cable.

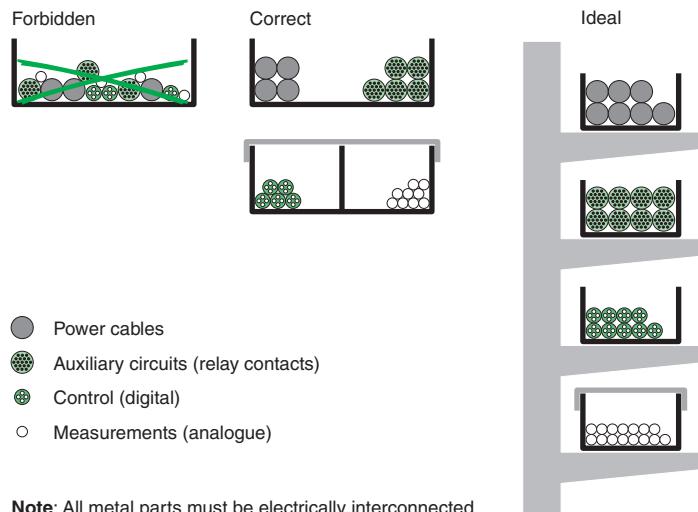


Fig. R11 : Recommendation to install groups of cables in metal cableways

Metal building components can be used for EMC purposes. Steel beams (L, H, U or T shaped) often form an uninterrupted earthed structure with large transversal sections and surfaces with numerous intermediate earthing connections. Cables should if possible be run along such beams. Inside corners are better than the outside surfaces (see Fig. R12).

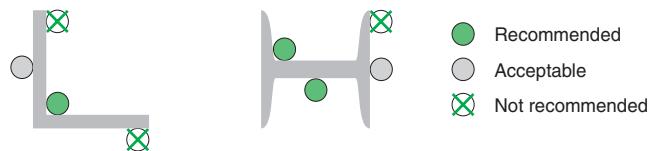


Fig. R12 : Recommendation to install cables in steel beams

Both ends of metal cableways must always be connected to local earth electrodes. For very long cableways, additional connections to the earthing system are recommended between connected devices. Where possible, the distance between these earthing connections should be irregular (for symmetrical wiring systems) to avoid resonance at identical frequencies. All connections to the earthing system should be short.

Metal and non-metal cableways are available. Metal solutions offer better EMC characteristics. A cableway (cable trays, conduits, cable brackets, etc.) must offer a continuous, conducting metal structure from beginning to end.

An aluminium cableway has a lower DC resistance than a steel cableway of the same size, but the transfer impedance (Z_t) of steel drops at a lower frequency, particularly when the steel has a high relative permeability μ_r . Care must be taken when different types of metal are used because direct electrical connection is not authorised in certain cases to avoid corrosion. That could be a disadvantage in terms of EMC.

When devices connected to the wiring system using unshielded cables are not affected by low-frequency disturbances, the EMC of non-metal cableways can be improved by adding a parallel earthing conductor (PEC) inside the cableway. Both ends must be connected to the local earthing system. Connections should be made to a metal part with low impedance (e.g. a large metal panel of the device case). The PEC should be designed to handle high fault and common-mode currents.

R9

Implementation

When a metal cableway is made up of a number of short sections, care is required to ensure continuity by correctly bonding the different parts. The parts should preferably be welded along all edges. Riveted, bolted or screwed connections are authorised as long as the contact surfaces conduct current (no paint or insulating coatings) and are protected against corrosion. Tightening torques must be observed to ensure correct pressure for the electrical contact between two parts.

When a particular shape of cableway is selected, it should be used for the entire length. All interconnections must have a low impedance. A single wire connection between two parts of the cableway produces a high local impedance that cancels its EMC performance.

Starting at a few MHz, a ten-centimetre connection between two parts of the cableway reduces the attenuation factor by more than a factor of ten (see **Fig. R13**).

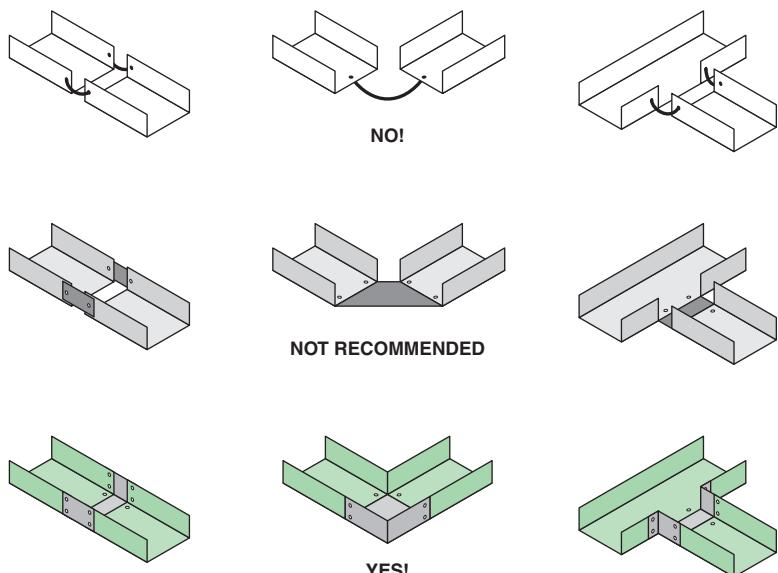


Fig. R13 : Metal cableways assembly

Each time modifications or extensions are made, it is very important to make sure they are carried out according to EMC rules (e.g. never replace a metal cableway by a plastic version!).

Covers for metal cableways must meet the same requirements as those applying to the cableways themselves. A cover should have a large number of contacts along the entire length. If that is not possible, it must be connected to the cableway at least at the two ends using short connections (e.g. braided or meshed connections).

When cableways must be interrupted to pass through a wall (e.g. firewalls), low-impedance connections must be used between the two parts (see **Fig. R14**).

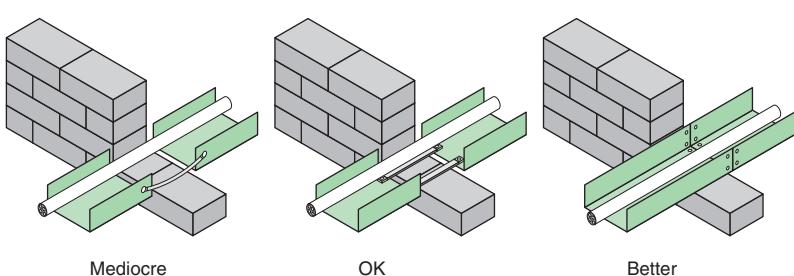


Fig. R14 : Recommendation for metal cableways assembly to pass through a wall

3 Implementation

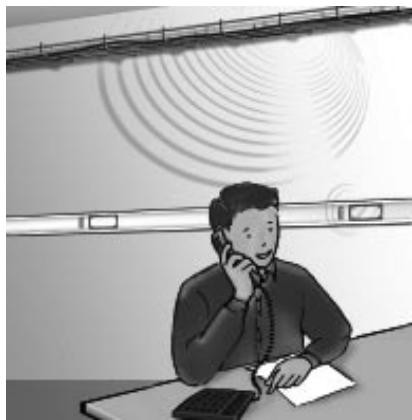


Fig. R14a : XXX

3.6 Busway

Busway reduce the risk of exposure to electromagnetic fields.

According to the WHO (World Health Organisation), exposure to electromagnetic fields can be a health hazard starting at levels as low as 0.2 micro-Teslas and could represent a long-term risk of cancer. Some countries have created standards that stipulate limits (e.g. 0.2 µT at 1 metre in Sweden).

All electrical conductors generate magnetic fields proportional to the distance between them. The design of busbar trunking with tightly spaced conductors in a metal enclosure helps to considerably reduce radiated electromagnetic fields. The electromagnetic field characteristics of busbar trunking are welldefined and measurements show that they are far below potentially dangerous levels (see Fig. R14b).

In specific cases where particularly low values are required (computer rooms, hospitals, some offices), it is important to keep in mind the following: the induction generated around 3-phase distribution.

This is proportional to the current and the distance between the conductors, and inversely proportional to the square of the distance with respect to the busbar trunking and the screening effect of the case, the induction generated around busbar trunking.

This is less than the induction generated around an equivalent cable distribution, busway steel casing.

This attenuates the induction more than an equivalent aluminium casing of the same thickness (screening effect), the induction generated around busbar trunking with sandwiched bars.

This is particularly low because of the short distance between the bars and the additional attenuation provided by the steel casing.

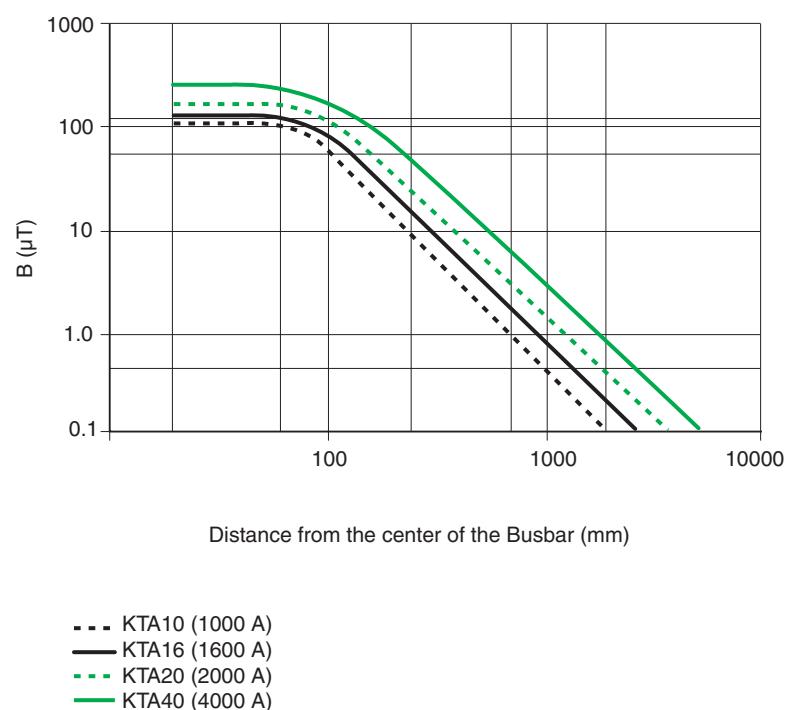


Fig. R14b : Canalis busbar trunking system data

R11

3.7 Implementation of shielded cables

When the decision is made to use shielded cables, it is also necessary to determine how the shielding will be bonded (type of earthing, connector, cable entry, etc.), otherwise the benefits are considerably reduced. To be effective, the shielding should be bonded over 360°. **Figure R15** below show different ways of earthing the cable shielding.

For computer equipment and digital links, the shielding should be connected at each end of the cable.

Connection of the shielding is very important for EMC and the following points should be noted.

If the shielded cable connects equipment located in the same equipotential bonding area, the shielding must be connected to the exposed conductive parts (ECP) at both ends. If the connected equipment is not in the same equipotential bonding area, there are a number of possibilities.

- Connection of only one end to the ECPs is dangerous. If an insulation fault occurs, the voltage in the shielding can be fatal for an operator or destroy equipment. In addition, at high frequencies, the shielding is not effective.

- Connection of both ends to the ECPs can be dangerous if an insulation fault occurs. A high current flows in the shielding and can damage it. To limit this problem, a parallel earthing conductor (PEC) must be run next to the shielded cable. The size of the PEC depends on the short-circuit current in the given part of the installation. It is clear that if the installation has a well meshed earthing network, this problem does not arise.

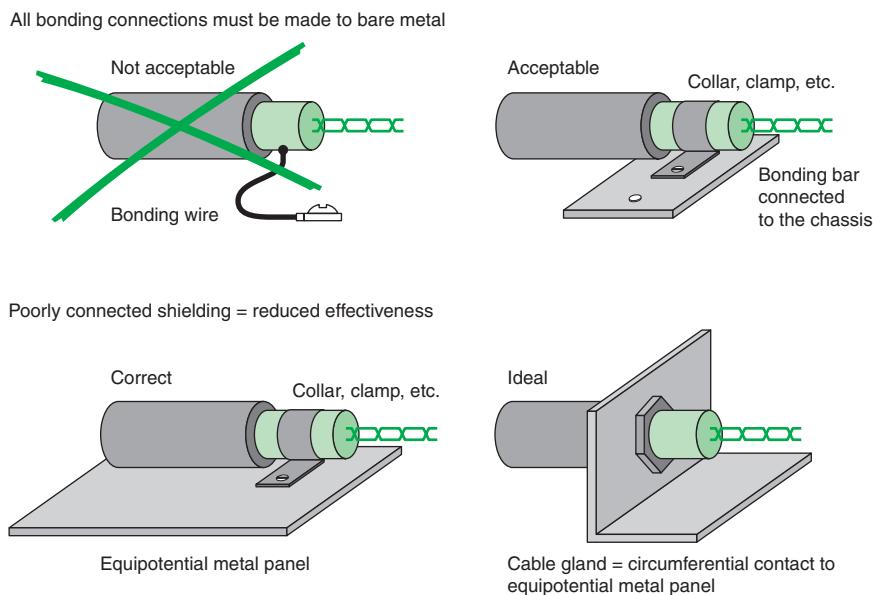


Fig. R15 : Implementation of shielded cables

R12

3.8 Communication networks

Communication networks cover large distances and interconnect equipment installed in rooms that may have distribution systems with different system earthing arrangements. In addition, if the various sites are not equipotential, high transient currents and major differences in potential may occur between the various devices connected to the networks. As noted above, this is the case when insulation faults and lightning strikes occur. The dielectric withstand capacity (between live conductors and exposed conductive parts) of communication cards installed in PCs or PLCs generally does not exceed 500 V. At best, the withstand capacity can reach 1.5 kV. In meshed installations with the TN-S system and relatively small communication networks, this level of withstand capacity is acceptable. In all cases, however, protection against lightning strikes (common and differential modes) is recommended.

3 Implementation

The type of communication cable employed is an important parameter. It must be suited to the type of transmission. To create a reliable communication link, the following parameters must be taken into account:

- Characteristic impedance
- Twisted pairs or other arrangement
- Resistance and capacitance per unit length
- Signal attenuation per unit length
- The type(s) of shielding used

In addition, it is important to use symmetrical (differential) transmission links because they offer higher performance in terms of EMC.

In environments with severe EM conditions, however, or for wide communication networks between installations that are not or are only slightly equipotential, in conjunction with IT, TT or TN-C systems, it is highly recommended to use optical fibre links.

For safety reasons, the optical fibre must not have metal parts (risk of electric shock if the fibre links two areas with different potentials).

3.9 Implementation of surge arrestors

Connections

They must be as short as possible. In fact, one of the essential characteristics for equipment protection is the maximum level of voltage that the equipment can withstand at its terminals. A surge arrester with a protection level suitable for the equipment to be protected should be chosen (see Fig. 16). The total length of the connections is $L = L_1 + L_2 + L_3$. It represents an impedance of roughly $1 \mu\text{H}/\text{m}$ for high frequency currents.

$$\text{Application of the rule } \Delta U = L \frac{di}{dt}$$

with an 8/20 μs wave and a current of 8 kA leads to a voltage of 1,000 V peak per metre of cable.

$$\Delta U = 1.10^{-6} \times \frac{8.10^3}{8.10^{-6}} = 1,000 \text{ V}$$

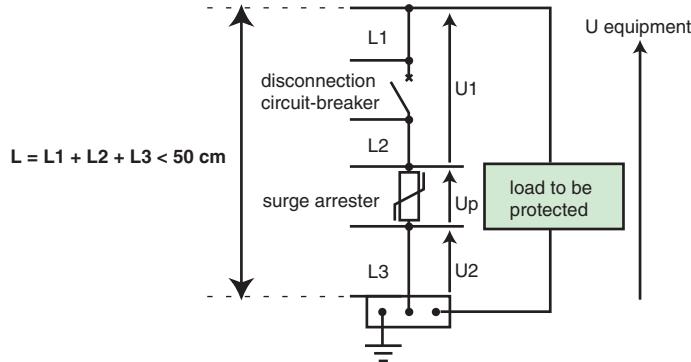


Fig. R16 : Surge arrester connection: $L < 50 \text{ cm}$

This gives $U_{\text{equipment}} = U_{\text{up}} + U_1 + U_2$.

If $L_1 + L_2 + L_3 = 50 \text{ cm}$, this will result in a voltage surge of 500 V for a current of 8 kA.

R13

Wiring rules

■ Rule 1

The first rule to be respected is not to exceed a distance of 50 cm when connecting the surge arrester to its disconnection circuit-breaker. The surge arrester connections are shown in **Figure R17**.

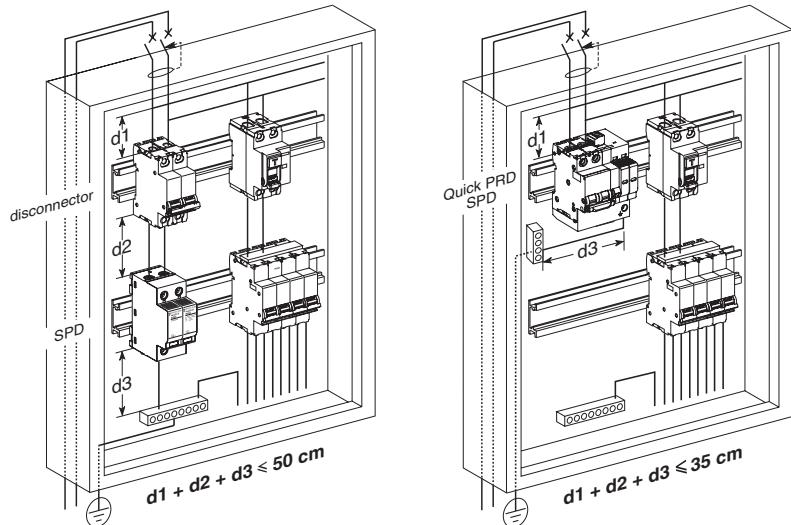


Fig. R17 : SPD with separate or integrated disconnector

■ Rule 2

The outgoing feeders of the protected conductors must be connected right at the terminals of the surge arrester and disconnection circuit-breaker (see **Fig. R18**).

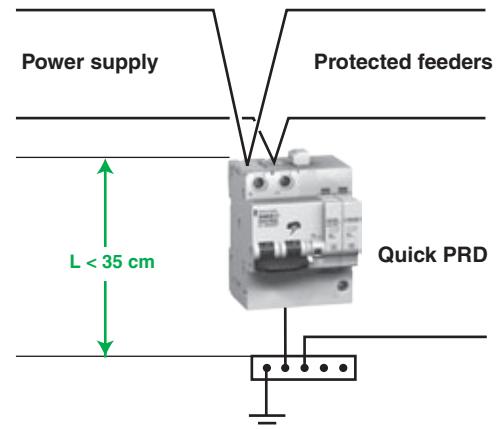


Fig. R18 : Connections are right at the SPD's terminals

3 Implementation

■ Rule 3

The phase, neutral and PE incoming wires must be tightly coupled to reduce the loop surfaces (see Fig. R19).

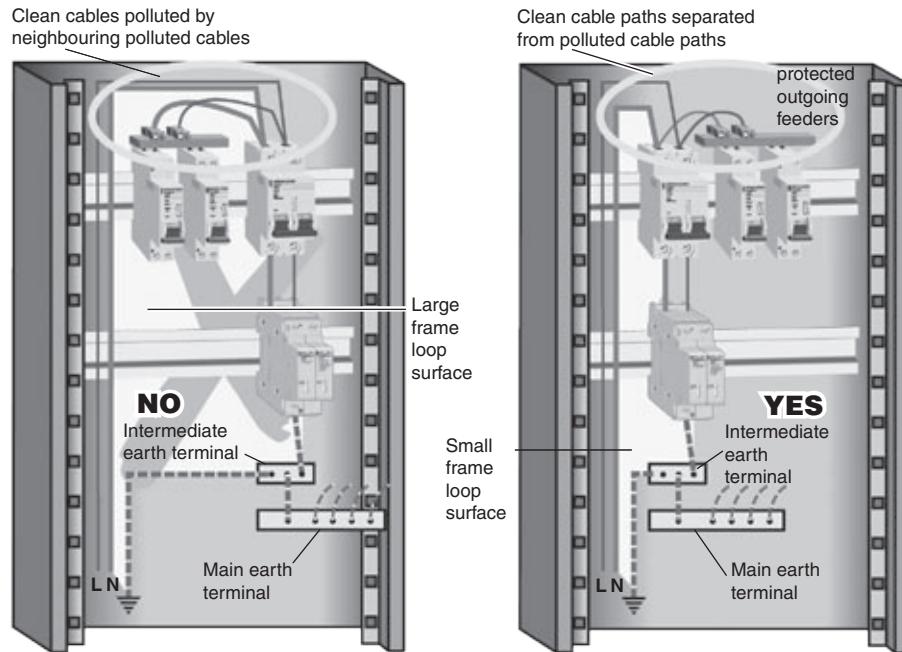


Fig. R19 : Example of wiring precautions to be taken in a box (rules 2, 3, 4, 5)

■ Rule 4

The surge arrester's incoming wires must be moved away from the outgoing wires to avoid mixing the polluted cables with the protected cables (see Fig. R19).

■ Rule 5

The cables must be flattened against the metallic frames of the box in order to minimise the frame loops and thus benefit from a disturbance screening effect. If the box is made of plastic and the loads particularly sensitive, it must be replaced by a metal box.

In all cases, you must check that the metallic frames of the boxes or cabinets are frame grounded by very short connections.

Finally, if screened cables are used, extra lengths which serve no purpose ("pigtails"), must be cut off as they reduce screening effectiveness.

3 Implementation

3.10 Cabinet cabling (Fig. R20)

Each cabinet must be equipped with an earthing bar or a ground reference metal sheet. All shielded cables and external protection circuits must be connected to this point. Anyone of the cabinet metal sheets or the DIN rail can be used as the ground reference.

Plastic cabinets are not recommended. In this case, the DIN rail must be used as ground reference.

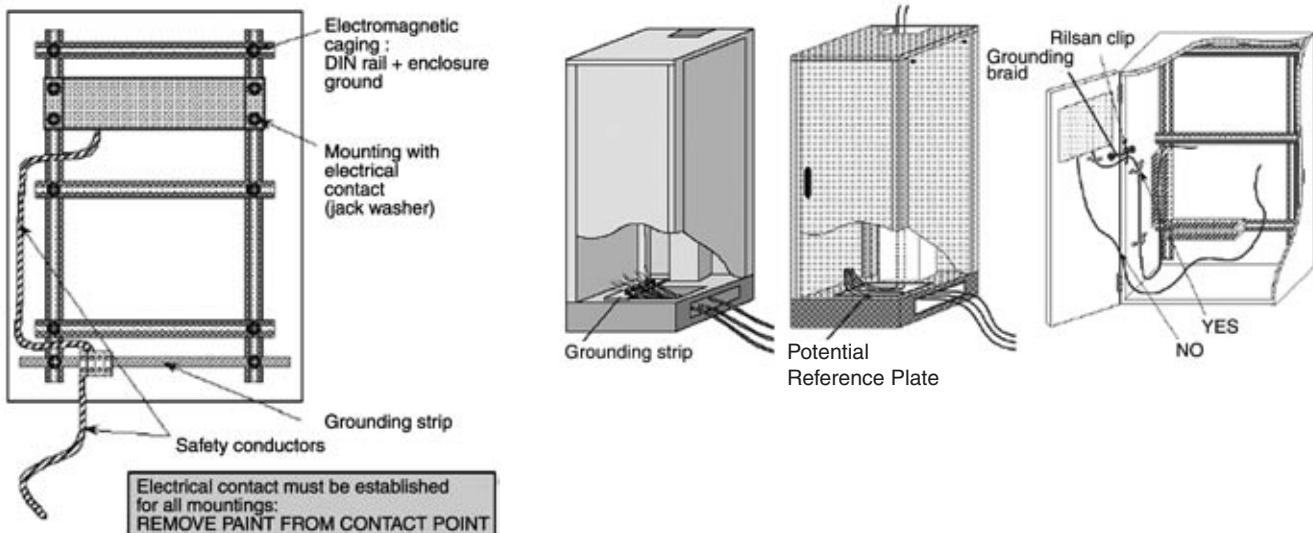


Fig. R20 : The protected device must be connected to the surge-arrestor terminals

3.11 Standards

It is absolutely essential to specify the standards and recommendations that must be taken into account for installations.

Below are several documents that may be used:

- EN 50174-1 Information technology - Cabling installation.
Part 1: Specification and quality assurance
- EN 50174-2 Information technology - Cabling installation.
Part 2: Installation planning and practices inside buildings

4 Coupling mechanisms and counter-measures

4.1 General

An EM interference phenomenon may be summed up in **Figure R21** below.

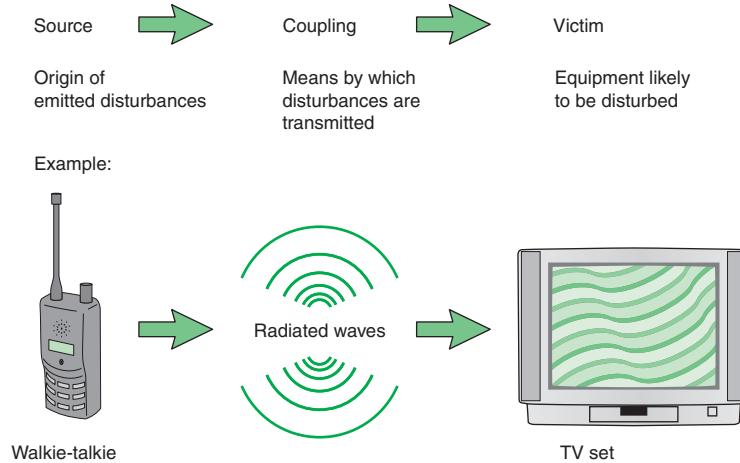


Fig. R21 : EM interference phenomenon

The different sources of disturbances are:

- Radio-frequency emissions
- Wireless communication systems (radio, TV, CB, radio telephones, remote controls)
- Radar
- Electrical equipment
- High-power industrial equipment (induction furnaces, welding machines, stator control systems)
- Office equipment (computers and electronic circuits, photocopy machines, large monitors)
- Discharge lamps (neon, fluorescent, flash, etc.)
- Electromechanical components (relays, contactors, solenoids, current interruption devices)
- Power systems
- Power transmission and distribution systems
- Electrical transportation systems
- Lightning
- Electrostatic discharges (ESD)
- Electromagnetic nuclear pulses (EMNP)

The potential victims are:

- Radio and television receivers, radar, wireless communication systems
- Analogue systems (sensors, measurement acquisition, amplifiers, monitors)
- Digital systems (computers, computer communications, peripheral equipment)

The different types of coupling are:

- Common-mode impedance (galvanic) coupling
- Capacitive coupling
- Inductive coupling
- Radiated coupling (cable to cable, field to cable, antenna to antenna)

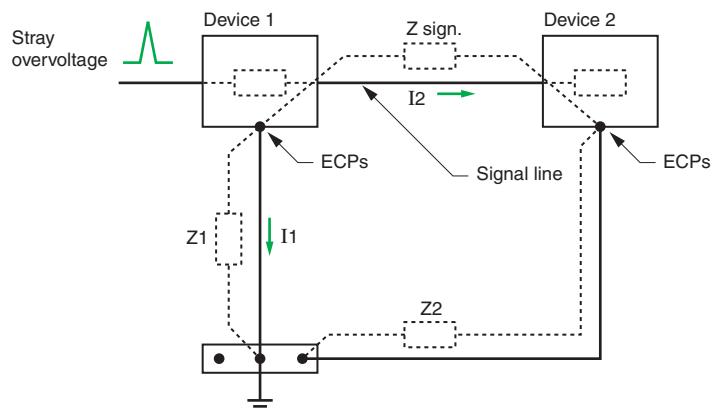
R17

4.2 Common-mode impedance coupling

Definition

Two or more devices are interconnected by the power supply and communication cables (see Fig. R22). When external currents (lightning, fault currents, disturbances) flow via these common-mode impedances, an undesirable voltage appears between points A and B which are supposed to be equipotential. This stray voltage can disturb low-level or fast electronic circuits.

All cables, including the protective conductors, have an impedance, particularly at high frequencies.



The exposed conductive parts (ECP) of devices 1 and 2 are connected to a common earthing terminal via connections with impedances Z_1 and Z_2 .

The stray overvoltage flows to the earth via Z_1 . The potential of device 1 increases to $Z_1 I_1$. The difference in potential with device 2 (initial potential = 0) results in the appearance of current I_2 .

$$Z_1 I_1 = (Z_{\text{sign}} + Z_2) I_2 \Rightarrow I_2 = \frac{Z_1}{(Z_{\text{sign}} + Z_2)} I_1$$

Current I_2 , present on the signal line, disturbs device 2.

Fig. R22 : Definition of common-mode impedance coupling

Examples (see Fig. R23)

- Devices linked by a common reference conductor (e.g. PEN, PE) affected by fast or intense (di/dt) current variations (fault current, lightning strike, short-circuit, load changes, chopping circuits, harmonic currents, power factor correction capacitor banks, etc.)
- A common return path for a number of electrical sources

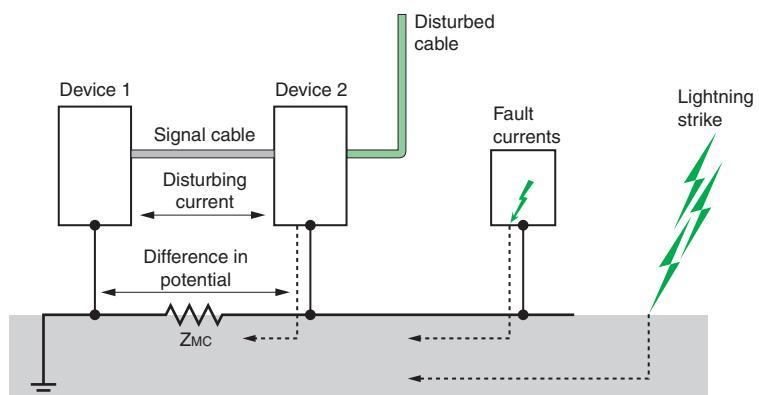


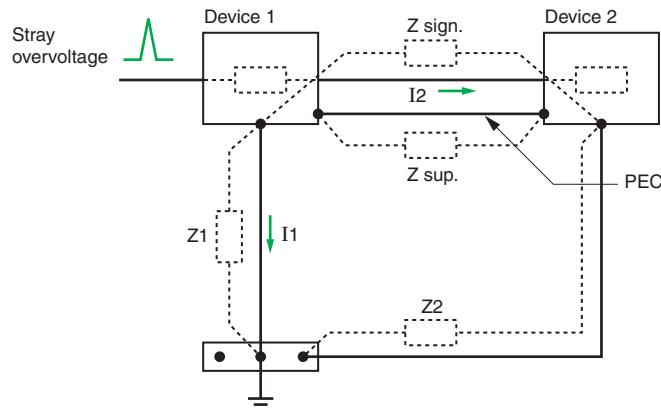
Fig. R23 : Example of common-mode impedance coupling

4 Coupling mechanisms and counter-measures

Counter-measures (see Fig. R24)

If they cannot be eliminated, common-mode impedances must at least be as low as possible. To reduce the effects of common-mode impedances, it is necessary to:

- Reduce impedances:
 - Mesh the common references,
 - Use short cables or flat braids which, for equal sizes, have a lower impedance than round cables,
 - Install functional equipotential bonding between devices.
- Reduce the level of the disturbing currents by adding common-mode filtering and differential-mode inductors



If the impedance of the parallel earthing conductor PEC (Z_{sup}) is very low compared to Z_{sign} , most of the disturbing current flows via the PEC, i.e. not via the signal line as in the previous case.

The difference in potential between devices 1 and 2 becomes very low and the disturbance acceptable.

Fig. R24 : Counter-measures of common-mode impedance coupling

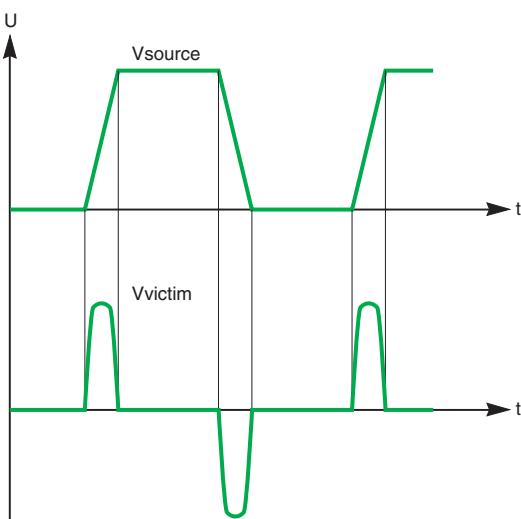


Fig. R25 : Typical result of capacitive coupling (capacitive cross-talk)

4.3 Capacitive coupling

Definition

The level of disturbance depends on the voltage variations (dv/dt) and the value of the coupling capacitance between the disturber and the victim.

Capacitive coupling increases with:

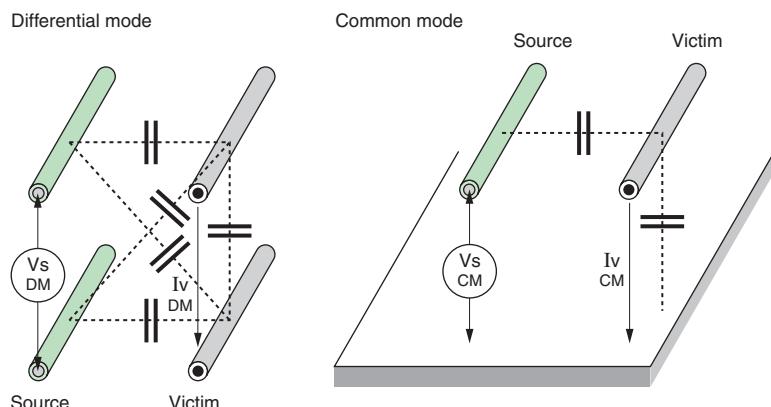
- The frequency
- The proximity of the disturber to the victim and the length of the parallel cables
- The height of the cables with respect to a ground referencing plane
- The input impedance of the victim circuit (circuits with a high input impedance are more vulnerable)
- The insulation of the victim cable (ϵ_r of the cable insulation), particularly for tightly coupled pairs

Figure R25 shows the results of capacitive coupling (cross-talk) between two cables.

Examples (see Fig. R26 opposite page)

- Nearby cables subjected to rapid voltage variations (dv/dt)
- Start-up of fluorescent lamps
- High-voltage switch-mode power supplies (photocopy machines, etc.)
- Coupling capacitance between the primary and secondary windings of transformers
- Cross-talk between cables

R19



Vs DM: Source of the disturbing voltage (differential mode)
 Iv DM: Disturbing current on victim side (differential mode)
 Vs CM: Source of the disturbing voltage (common mode)
 Iv CM: Disturbing current on victim side (common mode)

Fig. R26 : Example of capacitive coupling

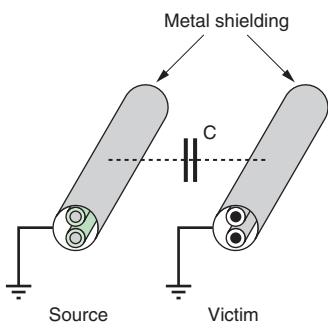


Fig. R27 : Cable shielding with perforations reduces capacitive coupling

Counter-measures (see Fig. R27)

- Limit the length of parallel runs of disturbers and victims to the strict minimum
- Increase the distance between the disturber and the victim
- For two-wire connections, run the two wires as close together as possible
- Position a PEC bonded at both ends and between the disturber and the victim
- Use two or four-wire cables rather than individual conductors
- Use symmetrical transmission systems on correctly implemented, symmetrical wiring systems
- Shield the disturbing cables, the victim cables or both (the shielding must be bonded)
- Reduce the dv/dt of the disturber by increasing the signal rise time where possible

4.4 Inductive coupling

Definition

The disturber and the victim are coupled by a magnetic field. The level of disturbance depends on the current variations (di/dt) and the mutual coupling inductance.

Inductive coupling increases with:

- The frequency
- The proximity of the disturber to the victim and the length of the parallel cables,
- The height of the cables with respect to a ground referencing plane,
- The load impedance of the disturbing circuit.

Examples (see Fig. R28 next page)

- Nearby cables subjected to rapid current variations (di/dt)
- Short-circuits
- Fault currents
- Lightning strikes
- Stator control systems
- Welding machines
- Inductors

4 Coupling mechanisms and counter-measures

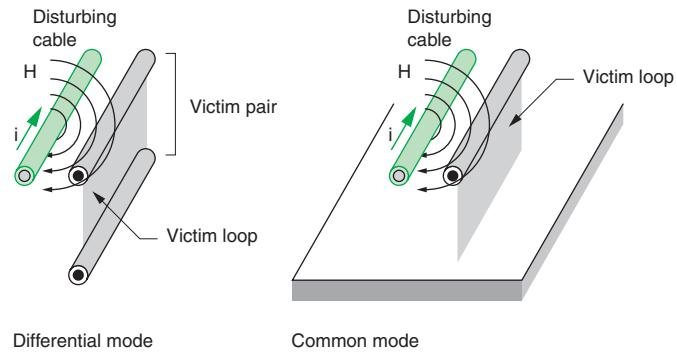


Fig. R28 : Example of inductive coupling

Counter-measures

- Limit the length of parallel runs of disturbers and victims to the strict minimum
- Increase the distance between the disturber and the victim
- For two-wire connections, run the two wires as close together as possible
- Use multi-core or touching single-core cables, preferably in a triangular layout
- Position a PEC bonded at both ends and between the disturber and the victim
- Use symmetrical transmission systems on correctly implemented, symmetrical wiring systems
- Shield the disturbing cables, the victim cables or both (the shielding must be bonded)
- Reduce the dv/dt of the disturber by increasing the signal rise time where possible (series-connected resistors or PTC resistors on the disturbing cable, ferrite rings on the disturbing and/or victim cable)

4.5 Radiated coupling

Definition

The disturber and the victim are coupled by a medium (e.g. air). The level of disturbance depends on the power of the radiating source and the effectiveness of the emitting and receiving antenna. An electromagnetic field comprises both an electrical field and a magnetic field. The two fields are correlated. It is possible to analyse separately the electrical and magnetic components.

The electrical field (E field) and the magnetic field (H field) are coupled in wiring systems via the wires and loops (see Fig. R29).

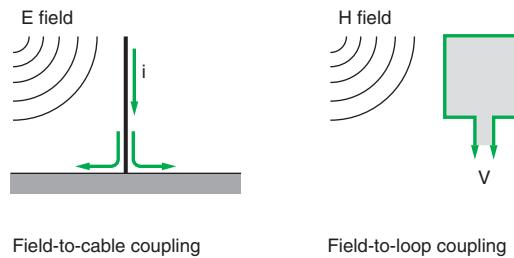


Fig. R29 : Definition of radiated coupling

R21

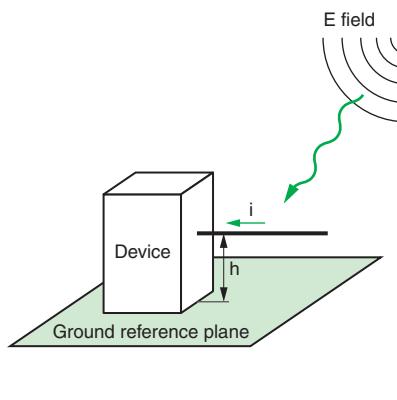
4 Coupling mechanisms and counter-measures

When a cable is subjected to a variable electrical field, a current is generated in the cable. This phenomenon is called field-to-cable coupling.

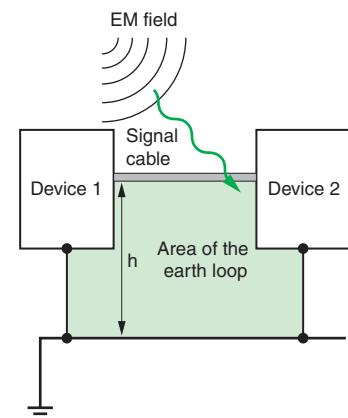
Similarly, when a variable magnetic field flows through a loop, it creates a counter electromotive force that produces a voltage between the two ends of the loop. This phenomenon is called field-to-loop coupling.

Examples (see Fig. R30)

- Radio-transmission equipment (walkie-talkies, radio and TV transmitters, mobile services)
- Radar
- Automobile ignition systems
- Arc-welding machines
- Induction furnaces
- Power switching systems
- Electrostatic discharges (ESD)
- Lighting



Example of field-to-cable coupling



Example of field-to-loop coupling

Fig. R30 : Examples of radiated coupling

Counter-measures

To minimise the effects of radiated coupling, the measures below are required.

For field-to-cable coupling

- Reduce the antenna effect of the victim by reducing the height (h) of the cable with respect to the ground referencing plane
- Place the cable in an uninterrupted, bonded metal cableway (tube, trunking, cable tray)
- Use shielded cables that are correctly installed and bonded
- Add PECs
- Place filters or ferrite rings on the victim cable

For field-to-loop coupling

- Reduce the surface of the victim loop by reducing the height (h) and the length of the cable. Use the solutions for field-to-cable coupling. Use the Faraday cage principle.

Radiated coupling can be eliminated using the Faraday cage principle. A possible solution is a shielded cable with both ends of the shielding connected to the metal case of the device. The exposed conductive parts must be bonded to enhance effectiveness at high frequencies.

Radiated coupling decreases with the distance and when symmetrical transmission links are used.

5 Wiring recommendations

5.1 Signal classes (see Fig. R31)

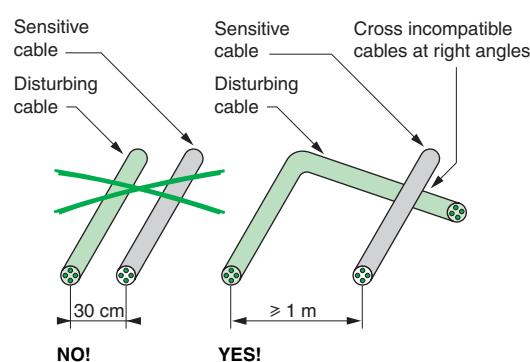
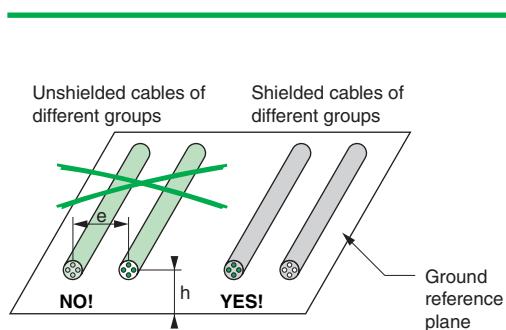


Fig. R32 : Wiring recommendations for cables carrying different types of signals

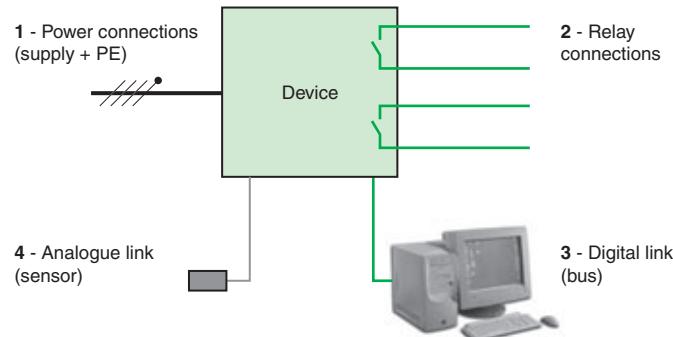


Fig. R31 : Internal signals can be grouped in four classes

Four classes of internal signals are:

■ Class 1

Mains power lines, power circuits with a high di/dt , switch-mode converters, power-regulation control devices.

This class is not very sensitive, but disturbs the other classes (particularly in common mode).

■ Class 2

Relay contacts.

This class is not very sensitive, but disturbs the other classes (switching, arcs when contacts open).

■ Class 3

Digital circuits (HF switching).

This class is sensitive to pulses, but also disturbs the following class.

■ Class 4

Analogue input/output circuits (low-level measurements, active sensor supply circuits). This class is sensitive.

It is a good idea to use conductors with a specific colour for each class to facilitate identification and separate the classes. This is useful during design and troubleshooting.

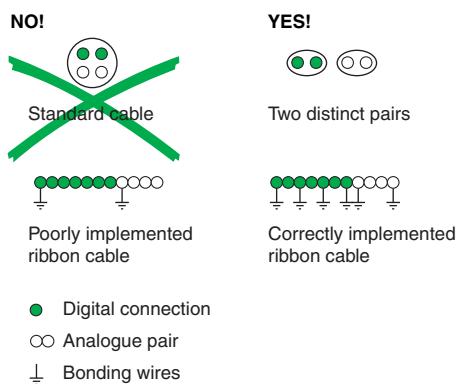


Fig. R33 : Use of cables and ribbon cable

5.2 Wiring recommendations

Cables carrying different types of signals must be physically separated (see Fig. R32 above)

Disturbing cables (classes 1 and 2) must be placed at some distance from the sensitive cables (classes 3 and 4) (see Fig. R32 and Fig. R33)

In general, a 10 cm separation between cables laid flat on sheet metal is sufficient (for both common and differential modes). If there is enough space, a distance of 30 cm is preferable. If cables must be crossed, this should be done at right angles to avoid cross-talk (even if they touch). There are no distance requirements if the cables are separated by a metal partition that is equipotential with respect to the ECPs. However, the height of the partition must be greater than the diameter of the cables.

A cable should carry the signals of a single group (see Fig. R34)

If it is necessary to use a cable to carry the signals of different groups, internal shielding is necessary to limit cross-talk (differential mode). The shielding, preferably braided, must be bonded at each end for groups 1, 2 and 3.

It is advised to overshield disturbing and sensitive cables (see Fig. R35)

The overshielding acts as a HF protection (common and differential modes) if it is bonded at each end using a circumferential connector, a collar or a clampere However, a simple bonding wire is not sufficient.

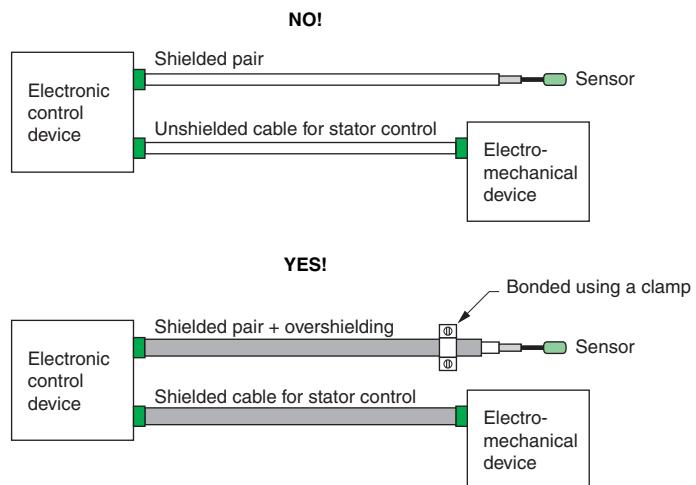
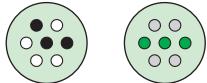


Fig. R35 : Shielding and overshielding for disturbing and/or sensitive cables

NO!

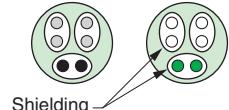
Power +
analogue Digital +
relay contacts



- Power connections
- Relay I/O connections

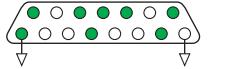
YES!

Power +
relay contacts Digital +
analogue

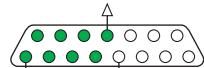


- Digital connections
- Analogue connections

Fig. R34 : Incompatible signals = different cables

NO!

- Digital connections
- Analogue connections

YES!**Avoid using a single connector for different groups (see Fig. R36)**

Except where necessary for groups 1 and 2 (differential mode). If a single connector is used for both analogue and digital signals, the two groups must be separated by at least one set of contacts connected to 0 V used as a barrier.

All free conductors (reserve) must always be bonded at each end (see Fig. R37)

For group 4, these connections are not advised for lines with very low voltage and frequency levels (risk of creating signal noise, by magnetic induction, at the transmission frequencies).

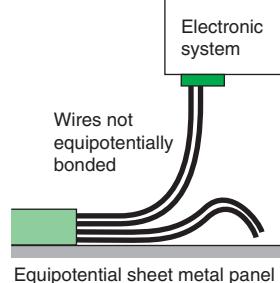
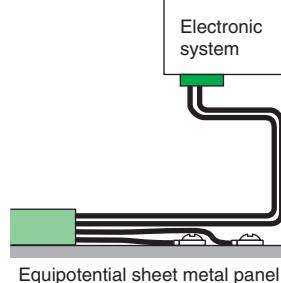
NO!**YES!**

Fig. R36 : Segregation applies to connectors as well!

Fig. R37 : Free wires must be equipotentially bonded

5 Wiring recommendations

The two conductors must be installed as close together as possible (see Fig. R38)

This is particularly important for low-level sensors. Even for relay signals with a common, the active conductors should be accompanied by at least one common conductor per bundle. For analogue and digital signals, twisted pairs are a minimum requirement. A twisted pair (differential mode) guarantees that the two wires remain together along their entire length.

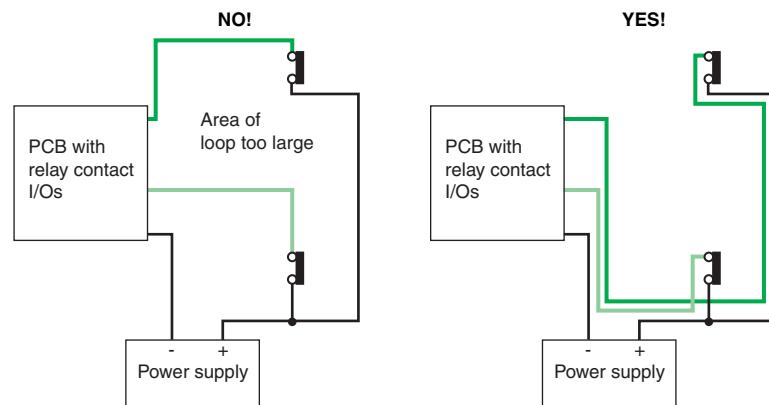


Fig. R38 : The two wires of a pair must always be run close together

Group-1 cables do not need to be shielded if they are filtered

But they should be made of twisted pairs to ensure compliance with the previous section.

Cables must always be positioned along their entire length against the bonded metal parts of devices (see Fig. R39)

For example: Covers, metal trunking, structure, etc. In order to take advantage of the dependable, inexpensive and significant reduction effect (common mode) and anti-cross-talk effect (differential mode).

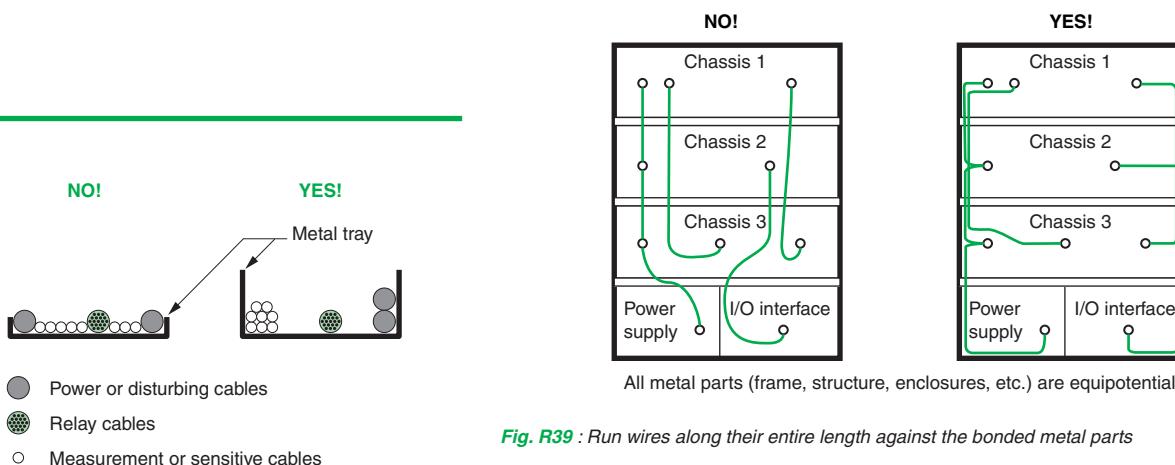


Fig. R39 : Run wires along their entire length against the bonded metal parts

Fig. R40 : Cable distribution in cable trays

The use of correctly bonded metal trunking considerably improves internal EMC (see Fig. R40)

> Make the most of your energy



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