# Harmonics Modeling in OpenDSS

OpenDSS is mostly considered a tool for power flow analysis these days, but it evolved from series of power system harmonics analysis programs that were originally developed in the late 1970’s. These harmonic solvers used very detailed multiphase, multi-voltage circuit models because many of the more significant harmonics problems were in medium- and low-voltage industrial and utility systems. It is necessary to model these systems in detail to accurately represent the system response to harmonic sources on the power system. In 1997 this capability was exploited to give the Distribution System Simulator (DSS) extraordinary modeling capabilities for power flow analysis of the typical unbalanced North American distribution system with distributed generation.

C:\Users\prdu001\OpenDSS\Training\Oncor2014\Network Model.wmf

Figure 1. Overall Circuit Model in OpenDSS

Figure 1 shows the basic circuit model concept that OpenDSS uses for both harmonics analysis and power flow analysis. In fact, it uses this circuit model for all of the solution modes. A nodal admittance matrix, YSYSTEM, is constructed to represent all the linear elements in the circuit. These are called the *power delivery* elements of the circuit. The nonlinear elements are modeled as current sources. For power flow analysis, *power conversion* elements such as loads and generators usually have a nonlinear characteristic with respect to voltage and are represented as current sources (Norton equivalent). For harmonics analysis, the nonlinear circuit elements are the sources of the distortion and are likewise represented by current sources of multiple frequencies, i.e., harmonic current sources.

In OpenDSS, you will find circuit elements that carry current segregated into two classes: Power Delivery (PD) elements and Power Conversion (PC) elements. PD elements are completely defined by their primitive Y matrix. PC elements may be represented by various formulations where the current injected into the network is a function of the voltage.

Harmonic analysis of distribution systems is often very labor intensive. We wanted a tool that could seamlessly incorporate harmonics analysis into the power flow analysis without requiring the user to laboriously enter nonlinear device models.

We also recognized that we would need at least a simple dynamics analysis for DG interconnection evaluation. Simple dynamics models are presently built into the program and this feature continues to be developed.

***Set Mode=Harmonics:***

This command sets the solution mode to Harmonics solution and initializes any required variables. Must be preceded by a successful power flow solution so that the machines and harmonics sources can be initialized. Loads are converted to harmonic current sources and initialized based on the power flow solution according to the Spectrum object associated with each Load. Generators are converted to a voltage source behind subtransient reactance with the voltage spectrum specified for each generator.

A Direct solution is performed for each harmonic frequency (more precisely, non-power frequency). The system Y matrix is built for each frequency and solved with the defined injections from all harmonic sources. A solution is performed for each frequency found to be defined in all the spectra being used in the circuit. Note that to perform a *frequency scan* of a network, you would define a Spectrum object with a small frequency increment and assign it to either an Isource or Vsource object, as appropriate.

## Spectrum Objects

Each PC element has a link to a harmonic spectrum object that is used for harmonics analysis.

## Frequency Scans

Once a power flow solution is achieved, the user simply issues the command:

**Solve mode=harmonics**

The OpenDSS then solves for each frequency presently defined for any of the harmonic-producing circuit elements (these are all presently Power Conversion-class elements – PC Elements). Users may also specify which harmonics are to be computed. Monitors are placed around the circuit to capture the results.

Frequency sweeps are performed similarly. The user defines spectra containing values for the frequencies (expressed as harmonics of the fundamental) of interest and assigns them to appropriate voltage or current sources. These sources may be defined to perform the sweeps in three different ways:

1. Positive Sequence: Phasors in 3-phase sources maintain a positive-sequence relationship at all frequencies. That is, all three voltages and currents are equal in magnitude and displaced by 120 degrees in normal ABC, or 123, rotation.

2. Zero Sequence: All three voltages or currents are equal in magnitude and in phase.

3. No sequence: Phasors are initialized with the power flow solution and are permitted to rotate independently with frequency. If they are in a positive sequence relationship at fundamental frequency, they will be in a negative sequence relationship at the 2nd harmonic, and a zero-sequence relationship at the 3rd harmonic, etc. In between integer harmonics, the phasors will be somewhere in between (the difficulty will be deciding what that means!).

***Set Harmonics = […]***

This command tells the program which harmonics of the base power frequency are to be solved. You can specify ALL or a list of harmonics in OpenDSS array format. For example

Set Harmonics=(1 5 7 11 13)

Set Harmonics = ALL (this is the default)

If you specify ALL, the program will go to each power conversion element and tabulate all the harmonics defined. These will be sorted and a solution performed at each frequency.

**Spectrum=** Name of harmonic spectrum for this source. Default is "defaultvsource", which is defined when the DSS starts.

**Spectrum=** Inherited Property for all PCElements. Name of harmonic spectrum for this source. Default is "defaultvsource", which is defined when the DSS starts. Not used for GIC analysis.

Scan Spectrum

Spectrum object

Example Script for Frequency Scan

**// CHANGE THIS PATH TO MATCH WHERE YOU HAVE THE 123 BUS IEEE TEST FEEEDER**

**Redirect "\OpenDSS\Distrib\IEEETestCases\123Bus\IEEE123Master.dss"**

**// THIS SCRIPT WILL RUN A FREQUENCY SCAN ON THE IEEE 123 BUS TEST CASE**

**! Solve executes the solution for the present solution mode, which is "snapshot".**

**solve**

**Buscoords Buscoords.dat ! load in bus coordinates (must be local file)**

**Spectrum.DefaultLoad.NumHarm=1 ! This effectively gets rid of LOAD harmonics**

**// Define a spectrum for the scan source**

**New spectrum.Scanspec numharm=1000 csvfile=ScanSpectrum.csv**

**// Put a Monitor to capture the results**

**New Monitor.Mscan Line.l84 1**

**// Define a positive-sequence (the default) 1-A 3-ph current source**

**New Isource.scansource bus1=83 amps=1 spectrum=scanspec**

**solve ! solve the power flow**

**// add a marker to the circuit plot to show the Isource location**

**ClearBusMarkers !...Clears any previous bus markers**

**AddBusMarker Bus=83 code=15 color=Red size=4**

**// Create the circuit plot**

**Plot Circuit Power Max=1000 dots=n labels=n C1=Blue 1ph=3**

**solve mode=harmonics ! do the harmonic solutions**

**show mon mscan ! show the results**

**Export monitors mscan**

**// You can plot the Monitor, but Excel or Matlab might be better**

**Plot monitor object= mscan channels=(1 3 5 )**

Snippet from ScanSpectrum.CSV (5 Hz increments)

<Harmonic> <pct magnitude> <Phase angle>

**1.083333333,100,0**

**1.166666667,100,0**

**1.25,100,0**

**1.333333333,100,0**

**1.416666667,100,0**

**1.5,100,0**

**1.583333333,100,0**

**1.666666667,100,0**

**1.75,100,0**

**1.833333333,100,0**

**1.916666667,100,0**

**2,100,0**

**2.083333333,100,0**

**2.166666667,100,0**

**2.25,100,0**

**2.333333333,100,0**

**2.416666667,100,0**

**2.5,100,0**

**2.583333333,100,0**

**2.666666667,100,0**

**2.75,100,0**

**2.833333333,100,0**

**2.916666667,100,0**

**3,100,0**

**3.083333333,100,0**

**3.166666667,100,0**

**3.25,100,0**

**3.333333333,100,0**

**3.416666667,100,0**



Figure 2. Results of a frequency scan from 65 Hz to 1000 Hz in 5 Hz increments

## Introduction

A good assumption for most utilities in the United States is that the sine-wave voltage generated in central power stations is very good. In most areas, the voltage found on transmission systems typically has much less than 1.0 percent distortion. However, the distortion increases closer to the load. At some loads, the current waveform barely resembles a sine wave. Electronic power converters can chop the current into seemingly arbitrary waveforms.

While there are a few cases where the distortion is random, most distortion is *periodic*, and results in a harmonic profile that is an integer multiple of the power system fundamental frequency. That is, the current waveform is nearly the same cycle after cycle, changing very slowly, if at all. This has given rise to the widespread use of the term harmonics to describe distortion of the waveform.

To some, harmonic distortion is still the most significant power quality problem. It is not hard to understand how a distribution engineer faced with a difficult harmonics problem can come to hold that opinion. Harmonics problems run counter to many of the conventional rules of distribution system design and operation that consider only the fundamental frequency. Therefore, the distribution planner is faced with unfamiliar phenomena that require unfamiliar tools to analyze and unfamiliar equipment to solve.

Although harmonic problems can be difficult, they are not actually very numerous on utility distribution systems. Only a few percent of utility distribution feeders in the United States have a sufficiently severe harmonics problem to require intervention. In contrast, voltage sags and interruptions are nearly universal to every feeder and represent the most numerous and significant power quality deviations.

The utilization sector suffers more from harmonic problems than does the utility power delivery sector. Industrial users with adjustable-speed, or variable-frequency, drives (ASDs or VFDs), arc furnaces, induction furnaces, and the like are much more susceptible to problems stemming from harmonic distortion.

Harmonic distortion is not a new phenomenon on power systems. Concern over distortion has varied during the history of ac electric power systems. A problem would arise – usually with the introduction of new technology – and then a solution would be implemented by the industry and the concern would wane for a few years. In the 1930s and 1940s, there were many technical papers on power system harmonics. At that time the primary sources of harmonic distortion were the various transformers and the primary problem was inductive interference with open-wire telephone systems. The forerunners of modern arc lighting were also being introduced and were causing quite a stir because of their relatively large harmonic content—not unlike the stir caused by electronic power converters in more recent times.

Fortunately, if the system is properly sized to handle the power demands of the load, there is a low probability that harmonic currents will cause a problem with the power distribution system. They may still cause problems with low power circuits such as telecommunications and computer systems in the vicinity of the power system.

Harmonic problems in the electric power system arise most frequently when the *capacitance* in the system results in *resonance* at a critical harmonic frequency. This dramatically increases the distortion above normal amounts.

While these problems occur on utility power distribution systems, the most severe cases are usually found in industrial power systems because of the higher degree of resonance experienced. There is proportionately less resistance at the point of connection to power factor correction capacitors and the “Q” of the resonant circuit is much greater than is typically found on the utility distribution system.

The standard that governs harmonic distortion on the power system is IEEE Std 519-2014 - *IEEE Recommended Practice and Requirements for Harmonic Control in Electric Power Systems.* The standard breaks the problem into two parts:

* Limiting the amount of harmonic current that a load may inject into the power system.
* Limiting the voltage distortion on the power system.

Distribution planners usually do not have much control over the harmonic currents a consumer may inject into the distribution system other than including references to IEEE Std 519-2014 limits in the interconnection agreement. It is always a good idea for planners to investigate the types of loads that commercial and industrial customers are proposing to connect to the system even if it is not explicitly the planner’s responsibility.

Distribution planners would have more control over the harmonic voltage distortion that results from the harmonic currents originating in consumers’ load equipment. Part of that control comes from designing the system with enough capacity to minimize the impact of the harmonic currents. However, in North America most utilities apply capacitor banks on distribution systems to reduce losses and increase power delivery capacity. The introduction of capacitance into a mostly inductive circuit will always result in a resonance at some frequency. The challenge to the distribution planner is to keep the system out of resonance at a harmonic frequency present in the load currents.

This chapter deals with the essential harmonic analysis a distribution planner should perform to complement capacity planning studies.

## Harmonics Fundamentals

The ideal ac power system service voltage is a perfect sine wave – of one frequency – that has constant magnitude and frequency. The sine-wave voltage measured at central power station generators for most utilities in the United States is very nearly ideal. As the power flows from the generator to the load the voltage gets distorted due to serving loads that produce harmonic currents. The voltage found on transmission systems is often less than 1% distorted. Some areas have higher distortion, but it seldom exceeds 2% on the transmission grid. The distortion increases as the power flows through the distribution system and low-voltage system on its way to the load. At some load points, the current waveform barely resembles a sine wave.

Harmonic distortion is caused by *nonlinear* devices in the power system. A nonlinear device is one in which the current magnitude and shape is not proportional to the magnitude and shape of the applied voltage. This is the source of the most significant harmonic distortion in power system voltages and currents.

The theory of how a distorted waveform is decomposed into harmonics of the fundamentals is well-documented and is outside the scope of this document. The reader is referred to standard textbooks on power system harmonics. Here, we will assume the existence of harmonics and focus on how a distribution planner must deal with them

As Figure 1‑3 shows, voltage distortion is the result of distorted currents passing through the linear, series impedance of the power delivery system. Assuming that the source bus is ultimately a pure sinusoid, there is a nonlinear load that draws a distorted current. The harmonic currents passing through the impedance of the system cause a voltage drop for each harmonic. This results in voltage harmonics appearing at the load bus. The amount of voltage distortion depends on the impedance and the current. Assuming the load bus voltage distortion stays within reasonable limits (e.g., less than 5 percent), the amount of harmonic current produced by the load is nearly constant.

While the load current harmonics ultimately cause the voltage distortion, it should be noted that load has virtually no control over the voltage distortion. That is a function of the power delivery system impedance.



Figure 1‑3. Voltage Distortion is Due to Distorted Current Passing Through the System Impedance

## Sources of Current Distortion

Nonlinear elements on electric power systems that are well-known for producing distorted currents include:

1. Arcing devices such as arc furnaces, welders, and arc lighting.
2. Electronic power converters such as rectifiers, adjustable-speed motor drives, and induction furnaces.
3. Ferromagnetic devices such transformers.

Ferromagnetic devices were quite important harmonic current producers early in the history of US power systems. Transformers produced a significant amount of 3rd and 9th harmonic currents that were notorious for producing telephone interference when the predominant type of telephone line was an open-wire construction. Today, telephone interference is much less of a problem and other sources of harmonic currents swamp out the transformer contribution. Transformers produce harmonic currents at a level of approximately 1% of the rated current of the transformer. This is still significant because there are so many transformers. A typical 10-MVA distribution feeder in the US may have over 20 MVA of distribution service transformers connected, which would be roughly the equivalent of 200 kVA of distorting power.

Historically, the next class of harmonic-producing load to cause problems on the power system was arc lighting. In particular, the application of sodium-vapor arc lighting for street lighting and other area lighting application resulted in a flurry of papers in the AIEE Transactions on harmonics in power distribution systems. **Error! Reference source not found.** Fluorescent lighting has similar harmonic content in the current as do arc furnaces. Of course, arc furnaces are large loads with quite volatile current characteristics and continue to be difficult to handle even today. Arcing loads produce harmonic current magnitudes on the order of 20-30% or rated current – considerably more than what transformers produce.

Power distribution engineers have learned to cope with harmonics from ferromagnetic and arcing devices. Then came electronic power converters with the potential for nearly an order of magnitude higher magnitudes of harmonic currents.

Electronic power converters can chop the current into seemingly arbitrary waveforms. Figure 1‑4 shows the typical “rabbit ear” current waveform from a 3-phase variable-frequency drive, which will have a schematic circuit diagram similar to Figure 1‑5. The “ears” come from current pulses for charging the dc bus capacitor. The magnitude and duration of the pulses will depend on the equivalent source impedance. When the impedance is low, distortion can exceed 100%. One of the difficult issues with serving this type of load is that the *displacement power factor* – the fundamental frequency power factor – is near unity while the *true power factor* including all harmonics is very low. This requires the supply system to be overbuilt with larger conductors and transformers to support this kind of load. Power factor correction capacitors will often not help because they act on the fundamental frequency power factor, which is already near unity. In fact, if the application of capacitors results in harmonic resonance, capacitors will exacerbate the problem.

When such power converters were first installed in large numbers in the late 1970s, utility engineers became quite concerned about the ability of the power system to accommodate the harmonic distortion. Many dire predictions were made about the fate of power systems if these devices were permitted to exist. These concerns have proven to be somewhat overstated and the power delivery system has proven remarkably robust in the presence of this distortion. A statement that is frequently made about this observation is:

*Without resonance, if the power system is built with sufficient kVA capacity to supply the load kVA demand, the harmonic voltage distortion will generally be in the acceptable range.*

This is part of the basis for the harmonic limits stated in IEEE Std. 519-2014. The current limits were established assuming normal power delivery system capacity. Exceptions to this statement are where the system capacity for serving the load is marginal. Then one can get excessively distorted voltages even without resonance.

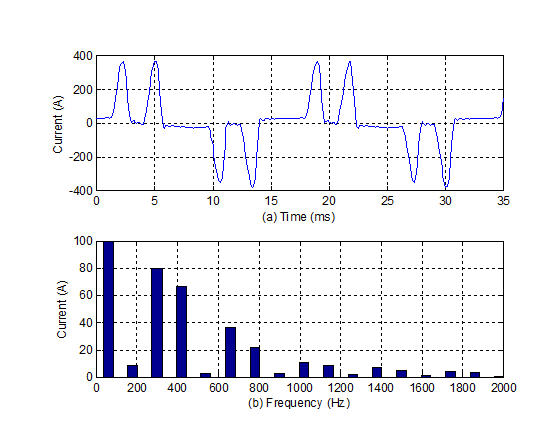


Figure 1‑4. Current waveform from a variable-frequency drive and its corresponding harmonic spectrum.

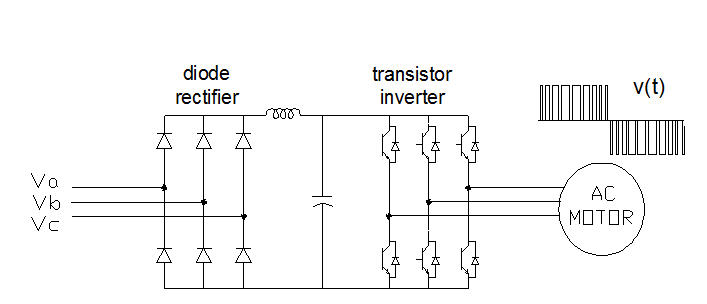


Figure 1‑5. Schematic of a 3-phase pulse-width modulated variable-frequency drive. Error! Reference source not found.

While the extent of the harmonics problem is not as great as many power engineers had feared, all those who now earn their living solving power quality problems owe a great debt of gratitude to those engineers. Their concern over this “new” problem of harmonics sparked the research in the late 1980’s that eventually led to the great increase of knowledge about all aspects of power quality that we now take for granted.

To some, harmonic distortion is still the most significant power quality problem. This is not hard to understand. Finding a solution to a difficult harmonics problem can seem like chasing ghosts and gremlins. Some days it works and then something fails. A fix that works in one location will not work in another. The primary planning tool of distribution engineers is power flow analysis. Harmonics problems run counter to many of the conventional rules of power flow analysis and other planning analysis that consider only the fundamental frequency. Therefore, the engineer is faced with solving an unfamiliar problem with unfamiliar software tools and unfamiliar mitigation equipment to install and maintain.

To perform network analysis at harmonic frequencies, most power system harmonic analysis computer software tools take the approach illustrated in Figure 1‑6. The linear impedances of the system are adjusted for frequency and the nonlinear, harmonic-producing loads are nominally replaced by current sources. Then a separate solution is performed for each frequency of interest. The magnitude and phase angles of the harmonic current source is determined from a fundamental frequency power flow solution. A measured, or assumed, harmonic spectrum is used to determine the magnitude of the current source at harmonic frequencies. Some tools assume that the current source is constant while others iterate and adjust the current for the voltage distortion. Either approach is generally acceptable for planning purposes.



Figure 1‑6. Replace the harmonic-producing device with a current source in the model.

The concept of replacing the nonlinear loads with a current source will work in most cases for computing the harmonic flows in a power distribution system, but not all. The exceptions involve resonance.

Capabilities of an adequate harmonic analysis tool for distribution planning include:

* Solve at frequencies other than fundamental power frequency.
* Perform a solution at individual harmonics or interharmonics with multiple harmonic sources simultaneously to estimate total harmonic distortion.
* Perform a frequency-response scan at a small frequency interval (e.g., 5 Hz) to identify resonances.
* Produce graphs and tables of multi-frequency analyses.
* Automatically adjust the impedances of lines, transformers, capacitors, etc. frequency.
* Adjust phase angles of current sources by the base power flow and by frequency.
* Model all transformer connections because different connections have different responses to each harmonic.
* Multi-phase coupled lines. This is important where there are multiple circuits sharing the same right-of-way and the same neutral conductor. Triplen harmonic currents tend to flow in the neutrals and can couple different circuits.
* Frequency-dependence of line and transformer impedances.
* Models for filters.
* Can model large networks of several hundred nodes
* Allows both current-source and voltage-source models of harmonic sources.

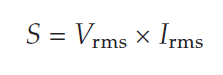
### Rms and Power Values

Much of distribution planning revolves around accounting for the power flow through the circuit elements. It is important to understand how power is computed in the presence of harmonic distortion.

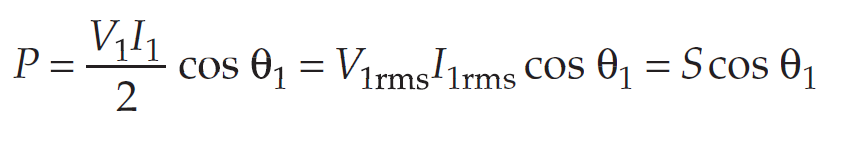
There are three standard quantities associated with power:

1. *Apparent power* S [voltampere (VA)]. The product of the rms voltage and current.
2. *Active power* P [watt (W)]. The average rate of delivery of energy.
3. *Reactive power* Q [var (var)]. The portion of the apparent power that is out of phase, or in quadrature, with the active power.

The apparent power S applies to both sinusoidal and nonsinusoidal conditions. The apparent power can be determined as follows:

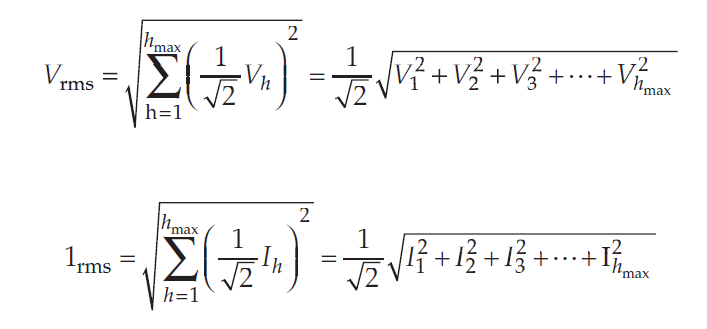


For the sinusoidal condition, P resolves to the familiar form,



Where θ1 is the phase angle between the fundamental-frequency voltage and current.

For the distorted, or non-sinusoidal, condition, the rms quantities are computed by the square-root of the sum of the squares of the individual harmonic components:



## Determining Capacity with Distorted Currents

There is some disagreement among harmonics analysts on how to define Q in the presence of harmonic distortion. If it were not for the fact that many utilities measure Q and compute demand billing from the power factor computed by Q, it might be a moot point. It is more important to determine P and S; P defines how much active power is being consumed, while S defines the capacity of the power system required to deliver P. Q is not actually very useful by itself. However, Q1, the traditional reactive power component at fundamental frequency, may be useful in sizing shunt capacitors.

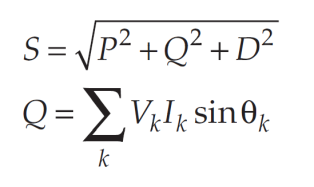
The reactive power when distortion is present has another interesting peculiarity. In fact, it may not be appropriate to call it reactive *power*. The concept of var flow in the power system is deeply ingrained in the minds of most power engineers. What many do not realize is that this concept is valid only in the sinusoidal steady state.

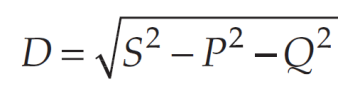
When distortion is present, the component of S that remains after P is taken out is not conserved—that is, it does not sum to zero at a node. Power quantities are presumed to flow around the system in a conservative manner.

This does not imply that P is not conserved or that current is not conserved because the conservation of energy and Kirchoff’s current laws are still applicable for a waveform of any shape. The reactive components actually sum in quadrature (square root of the sum of the squares). This has prompted some analysts to propose that Q be used to denote the reactive components that are conserved and introduce a new quantity for the components that are not.

Some analysts call this quantity D, for distortion power or, perhaps more correctly, distortion voltamperes. It has units of voltamperes, but it may not be strictly appropriate to refer to this quantity as power, because it does not flow through the system as power is assumed to do. In this concept, Q consists of the sum of the traditional reactive power values at each frequency. D represents all cross products of voltage and current at different frequencies, which yield no average power.

P, Q, D, and S are related as follows, using the definitions for S and P given previously as a starting point:



Therefore, D can be determined after S, P, and Q by

Some prefer to use a three-dimensional vector chart to demonstrate the relationships of the components as shown in Figure 1‑7. P and Q contribute the traditional sinusoidal components to S, while D represents the additional contribution to the apparent power by the harmonics.

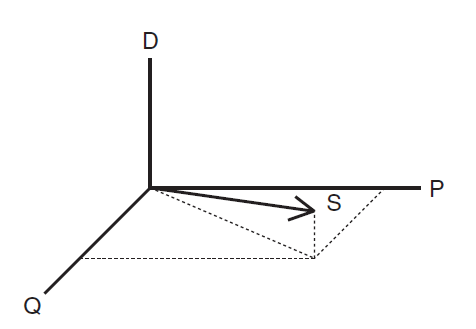
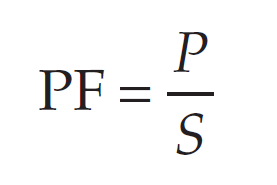


Figure 1‑7. The Components Of Power For Non-Sinusoidal Currents

Power factor (PF) is a ratio of useful power to perform real work (active power) to the power supplied by a utility (apparent power), i.e.,



Many devices such as switch-mode power supplies and PWM VFDs have a near-unity *displacement power factor –* the power factor at fundamental frequency due to the phase angle displacement between the voltage and current. However, the *true power factor* may be 0.5 to 0.6. The poor power factor is almost entirely due to the *D* term.

A power factor correction capacitor will do little to improve the true power factor in this case because *Q1* is nearly zero. In fact, if it results in harmonic resonance, the distortion may increase, causing the true power factor to decrease. The true power factor indicates how large the power delivery system must be built to supply a given load. In this example, using only the displacement power factor would give a false sense of security that all is well.

The bottom line is that distortion results in additional current components flowing in the system that do not yield any net energy except that they cause losses in the power system elements they pass through. This requires the system to be built to a slightly larger capacity to deliver the power to the load than if no distortion were present. To supply a load with significantly distorted load current, the system current-carrying capacity must be larger than for a sinusoidal current.

## Resonance

The impedance of power delivery systems generally appears to be inductive, at least at power frequency. Distribution engineers don’t worry too much about resonance when performing basic capacity analysis such as power flow and short circuit. However, capacitances exist on power systems either from being intentionally added to correct power factor of motor loads or they naturally exist in lines and cables. When capacitors are added to inductive power lines and transformers there will be at least one frequency at which the circuit is *resonant.* There may be several resonant frequencies, as we shall see later.

If the resonant frequencies line up with frequencies that are being produced by harmonic-producing devices on the power system, there can be severe consequences. Resonance can yield persistent overvoltages or overcurrents or both. Figure 1‑8 shows a calculated capacitor current waveform for an industrial power system in which the power factor correction capacitors tune the system near the 11th harmonic. The harmonic current in this case has approximately the same rms magnitude as the fundamental, or power frequency, current. Thus the total rms current in the capacitor is approximately 140% of rated current. Capacitor failure can result when such currents are allowed to exist.

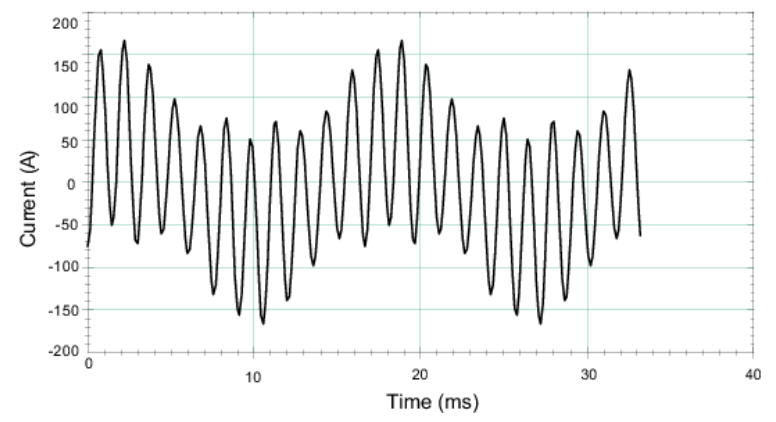


Figure 1‑8. Simulation of current in a Capacitor Bank in an Industrial Power System that is in 11th-Harmonic Resonance

This waveform can be created from either series or parallel resonance depending on the location of the capacitor with respect to the main 11th-harmonic source.

It is common to find situations in the power systems where the power factor capacitors have tuned the system to near the 5th harmonic. These situations often result in the failure of some component and the 5th harmonic resonance problem is often discovered in the failure investigation. This phenomenon was first noted by Dugan when performing an arc furnace study in 1975. **Error! Reference source not found.** Investigation showed that manufacturers’ capacitor selection chart for correcting common load power factors frequently resulted in the selection of capacitors with a kvar rating equal to approximately 1/25th of the inductive short circuit kVA at the bus at which it was to be applied. This results in a 5th-harmonic resonance. Figure 1‑9 shows a simulation of energizing a capacitor bank in such a situation.

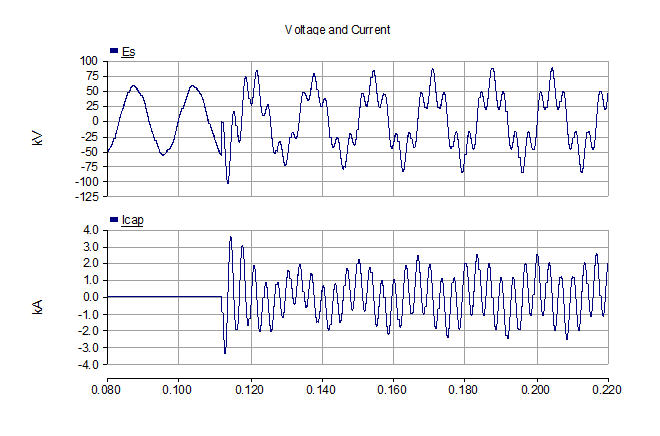


Figure 1‑9. Simulation of a System Going into 5th-Harmonic Resonance when a Capacitor Bank is Energized; Voltage across Capacitor and Current in the Capacitor.

This simulation shows voltages in which the crest is much higher than normal as well as currents that exceed the capacitor rated current. If this condition is allowed to persist, the breakdown of the insulation between the plates in the capacitor can be accelerated, significantly shortening the life of the capacitors. The high currents may also cause capacitor failure from thermal causes or result in capacitor fuse blowing. If the current also passes through a heavily-loaded transformer, the transformer may overheat from the increased stray losses.

Thus, it is important to understand harmonic resonance and learn how to identify it so that measures may be taken to prevent it. Before leaving the discussion of these two figures, notice that the capacitor currents during resonant conditions generally contain just two key frequencies: the harmonic at which the system is resonant riding on top of the fundamental frequency current. There are no harmonic-producing loads in the power system that produce such a current waveform. It will only appear in the capacitor that is participating in the resonant circuit. This observation leads to one key rule for investigating power quality problems such as capacitor failures when resonance is suspected:

*Measure the power factor correction capacitor bank current!*

Experience has shown that power engineers tend to focus on line currents in the main feed. There may be existing current transformers so that it is relatively easy to measure the line currents and it may take extra effort to measure capacitor currents safely. Unfortunately, line current measurements can obscure the harmonic distortion problem if the harmonic currents are swamped by power frequency currents from motors and resistive loads that are relatively clean. If the capacitor current waveforms can be obtained safely, make it a high priority to measure them.

There are two basic kinds of resonant circuits:

1. Series resonance in which the inductance and capacitance are in series (see Figure 1‑10)
2. Parallel resonance in which the inductance and capacitance are in parallel (see Figure 1‑11)

These are described in greater detail in the next sections.

## Series Resonance

In series resonance (Figure 1‑10), the apparent impedance across the resonant branch reaches a minimum at the resonant frequency – the frequency at which the reactance of the inductor equals the reactance of the capacitor. The net impedance of the branch is then the value of the resistor.

If one were to set the injection current, *I()*, equal to 1.0 + j0 (1.0 at 0 degrees) at all frequencies, the voltage, *V()*, across the entire circuit will be equal to the total branch impedance, *Z()*, and will have a frequency response characteristic similar to the shape shown in Figure 1‑10. This is a common way that power engineers perform frequency scans of networks, examples of which will appear repeatedly in this document.

At the resonant frequency, the voltage across the capacitor reaches a maximum value. Likewise, the voltage across the inductor also reaches a maximum and is nominally180 degrees out of phase with the capacitor voltage. This is an important concept to remember for power system harmonics: when this condition occurs it is frequently the voltage across the capacitor that is the source of the harmonic distortion problems that are being experienced.



Figure 1‑10. Series Resonant Circuit

Because the impedance of the branch is low at resonance, the current in the branch for series resonance can be high at the resonant frequency when there is enough harmonic source strength to supply the current. One symptom of this condition can be capacitor failure by overcurrent.

The low impedance of series resonance is often exploited to purposely create a series-tuned branch to filter off harmonic currents from the rest of the power delivery circuit. This is the essence of the series-tuned filter, which must be designed with care to minimize the risk that the capacitors will see excessive current or voltage. This filter is also referred to as a “notch” filter due the dip, or notch, in the impedance characteristic at the tuned frequency. It may also be called a “shunt” or “resonant shunt” filter because it is generally placed in shunt with power system loads to shunt away harmonic currents near the tuned frequency. However, this term can be confusing because “shunt” often refers to devices in parallel and it is certainly not parallel resonance, which is the next topic.

## Parallel Resonance

In parallel resonance (Figure 1‑11) the capacitive and inductive elements participating in the resonance are in parallel with each other. As with series resonance, the capacitive reactances and inductive reactances are equal at the resonant frequency. Instead of a notch in the impedance characteristic at this frequency, the impedance reaches a maximum value as illustrated in Figure 1‑11.

It is more difficult to push current through this circuit at the resonant frequency. The voltage across the capacitor can be very high if the harmonic current source has significant strength. The currents in both branches of this parallel circuit can be much larger than the injected current, *I().* This is an important concept because it results in the apparent “magnification” of harmonic currents in many situations on the power system. That is, the harmonic currents measured at one location are larger than those contributed by any actual harmonic-producing loads.

This can thwart attempts to locate sources of harmonic currents by following only the magnitude of currents. The magnitude of the supposed troublesome harmonic current can drop off dramatically as one moves past the capacitor location and the investigator can “lose the scent” of the source in all the other currents in the system. It is generally better to follow the direction of the active harmonic power if it is sufficiently large to be measured accurately. Harmonic-producing loads on the power system tend to take in active power at fundamental frequency and appear to inject powers at harmonic frequency back into the power supply system. This is simply the result of the natural power balance in a circuit with highly distorted currents and lightly-distorted voltages – the usual case in a distribution system.

Of course, tracing power flows requires simultaneous measurement of the voltage and current waveforms to properly determine the phase angles between the harmonic voltages and current. Many modern power quality meters can perform this task properly.



Figure 1‑11. Parallel Resonant Circuit

Parallel resonance could be exploited to make blocking filters. That is, filters that block the flow of certain harmonics because of the high impedance of a parallel-resonant circuit. This is sometimes employed to block zero-sequence harmonic currents from flowing in the neutral of grounded capacitor banks, but is used infrequently to block line currents. It is difficult to apply a parallel-resonant filter in series with line current and properly account for other power system concerns such as short circuit currents and insulation requirements. Both sides of the filter must be insulated for full system BIL. Parallel filters are used extensively to help extract low-power, high-frequency power line carrier (PLC) signals from power lines.

## Situations with Both Series and Parallel Resonance

Many situations involving harmonic resonance on the distribution system exhibit both series- and parallel-resonant characteristics; it is a matter of perspective of the observer. Figure 1‑12 illustrates one situation that occurs in many places where there is a transformer between two voltage levels with a power factor correction capacitor on the load side. This can occur either at utility substations or at end-use, or customer, service connection locations.

Looking from the left side, the circuit appears to be a series-tuned resonant shunt. The transformer is inductive with a high X/R ratio, so the tuning is relatively sharp and the filter effect will siphon harmonic currents off the supply circuit to the left. Often this is the primary distribution feeder that supplies many loads and collects the distorted currents from them. The transformer-capacitor combination acts as series-tuned filter for the distribution feeder. The result could be that the harmonic currents from so-called “background distortion” overload the capacitor even if there are no significant harmonic-producing loads on the load side in the diagram. Also, since it is a series-resonant circuit, the voltage at the junction of the inductive and capacitive elements can be quite high. The typical case in which this occurs is when an end user with relatively clean loads attempts to abide by utility power factor requirements by applying power factor correction capacitors and finds significant voltage distortion and, perhaps, capacitor failures due to overload or overvoltage.



Figure 1‑12. A Common Power System Configuration that Can Appear Either Series Resonance or Parallel Resonance Depending on Perspective

From the right side of the diagram (load side), the source impedance appears to be a parallel-tuned resonant circuit to any harmonic currents produced by the load. If we assume the distorting source on the left side (primary) are minimal, the primary side of the transformer is effectively shorted to ground at the resonant frequency, which is a non-power frequency. This is simply an application of the principle of superposition, a basic electrical engineering concept. The harmonic currents injected into this circuit at a frequency near the tuned frequency appear in significant quantities in both the transformer and capacitor branches and will appear to be larger on the primary side than can be explained by measurements of the actual load harmonics.

This circuit appears in many places in both transmission and distribution system. Whether or not it will result in problems depends on the location of harmonic sources relative to the circuit and many other factors including the nearby presence of resistive loads that tend to damp out resonance.

## Resonance and Harmonic Distortion Problems

The electric power system is remarkably robust. When it is mostly inductive and planned with sufficient capacity to deliver the fundamental frequency power to the load the harmonic distortion generally remains within bounds. *Problems* in the electric power system with harmonic distortion are most frequently due to *resonance* of some form when the *capacitance* in the system results in resonance at one, or more, critical harmonic frequencies. This dramatically increases the distortion above normal amounts.

Utility distribution planners usually do not have much control over the harmonic currents a consumer may inject into the distribution system other than including references to IEEE Std 519-2014 limits in the interconnection agreement. Distribution planners have more control over the harmonic voltage distortion that results from the harmonic currents originating in consumers’ load equipment. The planners’ basic responsibility is to design the system with sufficient capacity to supply the load kVA demand at fundamental frequency. As mentioned previously, this is sufficient for accommodating most typical harmonic-producing loads. The introduction of capacitance into a mostly inductive circuit will always result in a resonance at some frequency. The challenge to the distribution planner to meet the utility’s responsibility in IEEE Std. 519-2014 is to keep the system out of resonance at a harmonic frequency present in the load currents.

Thus, the responsibilities in meeting IEEE Std. 519-2014 boil down to the follow two:

1. Consumers operate their loads so that the amount of harmonic current injected into the power supply system is less than the current limits in the standard. Filters are applied if necessary.
2. Utilities build the power delivery system with sufficient capacity to supply the load with typical margins and operate the system to keep it out of harmonic resonance. Filters and detuning devices are applied if necessary.

## Sharpness of Resonance on the Power System

While resonance problems can occur anywhere on utility power distribution systems, the most severe cases are usually found in industrial power systems because of the sharper resonance that occurs. Power factor correction capacitors are typically applied at the secondary bus and there is proportionately less equivalent resistance at the point of connection. Capacitors installed in utility substations are subject to the same considerations. Engineers often describe the sharpness of the resonance in terms of the “Q” factor. The *Q* of the resonant circuit is much greater at a transformer location than is typically found when capacitors are placed on the distribution system lines.

Q is typically defined for power systems harmonics resonance problems as:

Where

*XL* = reactance of the equivalent inductance of the circuit at the resonant frequency, and

*R* = resistance in the resonant circuit.

When Q is very high – as it is for a capacitor located on a transformer bus – the harmonic resonance is very sharp and devices in the resonant circuit are more prone to failure. The *X/R* of a substation transformer or a large industrial service transformer might be 20 at fundamental frequency. If the transformer-capacitance combination is resonant at the 5th harmonic – which is common – the Q might be approaching 100.

In contrast, the X/R on a distribution line might be approximately 2-to-4 and Q at the resonant frequency being less than 10. Load damping effects will further reduce the Q. Thus, distribution engineers typically can place feeder capacitor banks anywhere they are needed without concern for harmonic resonance. Resonance problems can arise, but they are generally less extreme than for capacitors connected to transformers.

Figure 1‑13 illustrates this sharpness of the resonance by plotting the magnitude of the impedance of a parallel resonant circuit for different values of Q. Figure 1‑14 shows the same data in another way more pertinent to power system planning – the magnification of the injected current in the inductive element (the transformer) for different values of Q.



Figure 1‑13. Illustrating the effect of increasing the apparent resistance (decreasing the Q) of a resonant circuit.



Figure 1‑14. Magnification factor: Amps through transformer per amp injected.

## Harmonic Current Flow in Distribution Systems

Figure 1‑15 shows the normal flow of harmonic currents in a radial distribution system when resonance is not involved. The direction of the arrows is correct for the nominal case: harmonic-producing loads take in fundamental frequency current and effectively convert some to harmonic currents, the largest portions of which tend to flow back out of the load toward the utility source. The reason is simple: the utility source offers the lowest impedance return path for the current.



Figure 1‑15. Harmonic currents from sources of harmonic distortion tend to flow toward the utility source.

Resonance changes things. Figure 1‑16 shows a case where the power factor capacitor at the substation is in resonance at a harmonic frequency with the substation transformer and source inductance. This resonance is relatively high Q and it only takes a little excitation at the resonant frequency to cause high current flow in both the transformer and capacitor. From the perspective of loads on the feeder the resonance appears to be a parallel resonance. Thus, there are high currents in both branches of the parallel circuit and significant voltage distortion at the bus at the resonant frequency.



Figure 1‑16. Parallel resonance at the substation magnifies the current injected into the power system

This is a common scenario on utility distribution systems and industrial power systems. Measurements of line currents on the source side of the transformer will often have higher harmonic currents at one frequency than can be justified by the known harmonic currents from the various loads. The currents in the capacitors will be the clearest indication that resonance is occurring.

Another scenario that results in altered harmonic current flow paths due to resonance is depicted in Figure 1‑17. An industrial facility has installed power factor correction capacitor on the load side of its service transformer. As often happens without careful design, the capacitor and transformer combination is tuned to one of the key harmonics produced by other loads on the distribution system. From the perspective of the distribution feeder, the facility appears to be a series-tuned filter. This alters the normal flow pattern for harmonic currents of that frequency. They now flow to the industrial site rather than into the utility source. Even if the industrial customer has no harmonic-producing loads the service bus voltage could be significantly distorted and the capacitor bank seeing severe duty from harmonic currents.



Figure 1‑17. The normal flow of harmonic currents are altered by series resonance from power factor correction capacitors.

## Modeling Nonlinear Loads When Resonance is Present

We have seen previously that it is common for harmonic analysis of power systems in the frequency domain to replace nonlinear harmonic-producing by a current source at each harmonic of interest. This is the default model in most harmonic analysis tools. However, when the system is near resonance, a simple ideal current source model will give an excessively high prediction of voltage distortion.

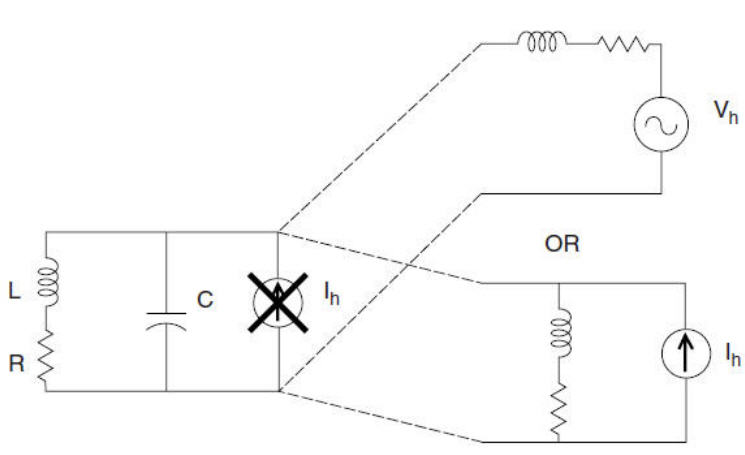


Figure 1‑18. Replacing Simple Current Source Models with Thevenin or Norton Equivalents to Get Better Answers for Simulations at Resonant Frequencies.

As depicted in Figure 1‑18, this kind of model would try to inject a constant current into a parallel resonant circuit which has a high impedance at its resonant frequency, which is not a valid representation of reality. Our experience has shown that once the voltage distortion exceeds approximately 15% the nonlinear load changes and no longer injects a constant current.

Sometimes the simple current source is adequate for planning purposes as long as the planner does not try to justify the predicted voltages. The knowledge that the system is in resonance is often sufficient to justify seeking a remedy. Once the resonance is eliminated by changing a capacitor size or adding a filter, the simple model will give a realistic answer.

For the cases where a more accurate estimate of distortion is required during resonant conditions, a more sophisticated model must be used. For many power system devices, a Thevenin or Norton equivalent as shown in Figure 1‑18. The additional impedance moderates the response of the parallel resonant circuit. This is the default approach of the EPRI OpenDSS program, which serves as the solution engine behind the EPRI Harmonic Evaluation Module. We will explore this model in the next section.

### Norton Equivalent Load Model for Harmonic Analysis

A simple load model commonly used in harmonics analysis is a Norton equivalent as shown in Figure 1‑19. **Error! Reference source not found.** The current source in the model is set to the value of the fundamental current, *Ifund*, determined from a power flow solution times the multiplier for the harmonic spectrum assumed for the load at each frequency. The load equivalent admittance, *G + jB*, may be represented in the model as shown with only the susceptance, *B,* adjusted for frequency.

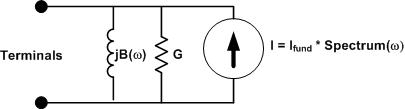


Figure 1‑19. Simple Norton Equivalent Model of a Load for Harmonics Analysis

This model of a load may be derived directly from the typical power flow load model specified by active and reactive load values, P and Q. *G* and *B* would be determined from P and Q typically at rated voltage.

Where

*V* = 100% rated voltage in volts

*P* = Load active power in watts

*Q* = Load reactive power in vars

Admittances for models in harmonics analysis on distribution systems are typically used directly in units of actual siemens. Per-unit values are not commonly used in unbalanced multiphase harmonics analysis due to possibilities for errors.

One side effect of this approach to load modeling is that loads that are highly resistive may provide significant damping of harmonic resonance if they are large enough. Whether or not this is desirable depends on the motivation of the analysis. This will produce lower estimates of the voltages and currents resulting from the resonance.

For frequencies where the system is not in resonance, most of the current produced by the current source in the model flows back into the power system. The short circuit impedance of the typical power system looking into it from a load is usually less than 5% of the load’s equivalent impedance. Therefore, very little current is siphoned off into the shunt admittance branch of the Norton model.

At frequencies where the system is near resonance, the driving-point impedance looking into the system can be very high. A significant portion of the harmonic current is bled off into the shunt admittance branch of the model. This keeps the predicted voltage distortion more reasonable than an ideal current source, but it may also provide excessive damping.

### A More Detailed Load Model

This section describes the present load model in the EPRI OpenDSS program as modified per user requests to have more control over the amount of damping caused by the load model at resonant frequencies. **Error! Reference source not found.** Figure 1‑20 shows the revised model schematic diagram.

A series R-X branch was added to the existing parallel G-B branch. The program’s user can specify the percentage split between the two. The default split is 50/50. The impedance of the series branch behaves considerably different than the parallel branch. It becomes more inductive and provides less damping to resonance as frequency increases. It also tends to shift the resonant frequency slightly higher. The inductive part of the parallel branch becomes a high impedance at the higher frequencies, resulting in the branch appearing more resistive.

Many analysts prefer to represent motor load as a series branch for harmonic analysis and the OpenDSS program provides a special model for motor load as do other harmonic analysis tools. Instead of determining R and X from the load P and Q, it is estimated from the equivalent blocked rotor impedance. This results in a lower impedance at lower harmonics that rises with frequency to be mostly inductive at the higher harmonics.

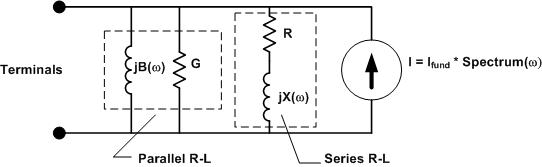


Figure 1‑20. Load model with both series and parallel branches

### Modeling Transformer Impedance Variation with Frequency

Generally, the resistance in a power system has a minor effect on the flow of harmonic currents when the system is not in resonance. However, the damping of harmonic resonance by resistance of loads, lines, and transformers can have a significant effect. Loads are not the only elements in the power system that have significant impedance variation with frequency. Substation transformers and larger transformers supplying industrial consumers have a relatively high X/R ratio of 10 or greater at fundamental power frequency and this contributes to sharp resonances. Distribution service transformers such as those that serve residential loads can have a much lower X/R. A 25 kVA transformer would have an X/R ratio only slightly greater than 1.0. In either case, there is a question about what to assume for the variation of the equivalent resistance for harmonic frequencies.

If no adjustment to the winding resistance for frequency is made, the equivalent X/R will increase in proportion to the harmonic. Such a model predicts very little damping at harmonic frequencies and excessively sharp resonances. For example, if a substation transformer has an X/R ratio of 10 at fundamental, the model will have an X/R of 50 at the 5th harmonic, which generally results in an unrealistically high-Q circuit model with highly exaggerated predictions of voltage distortion.

The apparent resistance of transformers increases with frequency at a rate that is dependent on its design. The chief component of the increase comes from the *stray eddy current losses* and can be quite significant in transformers that have conductors with large cross-sectional areas. Also, designs with conductors in parallel can have circulating currents within the windings that yield an effective increase in resistance.

Utility distribution planning engineers do not have time to measure the frequency response of each transformer, but they should know that the apparent resistance of the transformer increases with frequency and helps to hold system resonances in check. A typical assumption of harmonics analysts when no other data are available is to assume that the X/R ratio at fundamental frequency remains constant over the frequency range of interest. This approximates what happens in larger power transformers. It is not a good fit for some transformers, but at least it adds some damping to the model to compensate for the exaggerated high voltages and impedances that would otherwise be predicted.

Adjusting the resistance model of small utility distribution transformers in the frequency range up to the 13th harmonic is generally not critical. The windings are constructed with wire having a small cross section and the stray eddy losses do not generally increase as rapidly as for large power transformers. The typical low X/R of these transformers tends to contribute to the damping of resonance in any case, yielding results that are only moderately conservative.

## Combined Effect of Load and Transformer Modeling

Figure 1‑21 shows the effect of the various load and transformer modeling assumptions we’ve discussed on the magnitude of the impedance looking into a typical parallel resonant circuit. The all-parallel simple Norton equivalent yields the greatest damping and will be overdamped for some cases. It is interesting to note that this model often matches well with measurements when the capacitor banks are mostly on distribution lines rather than in substations. The likely explanation is that the low X/R of distribution feeders damps resonance similarly.

Figure 1‑21. Comparing the impact of different load and transformer modeling assumptions on resonance

Assuming the X/R of the transformer is constant drops the magnitude of the driving point impedance at the capacitor location by approximately 20% compared to the model that has no load and no extra damping. This can be important in many cases where there is a sharp resonance in a substation.

Assuming the impedance branch in the load model is all series RL shifts the frequency higher and provides a little damping at the resonant frequency. Note that if this model is incorrect it could shift the resonance either into or out of a troublesome harmonic frequency. This is sometimes the reason that models predict a high resonance that is not observed in measurements.

The default 50/50 split in the load model admittance branch often a good compromise when no better data are available. It will clearly show the resonance and will generally not overly exaggerate the voltage distortion that would occur.

Figure 1‑22 shows a one-line diagram of the OpenDSS REACTOR model. The model is nominally a series, multiphase R-L branch with user-defined properties of R and X. In addition to scalar values, R and X may also be defined as matrices. A feature of the model that, perhaps, is seldom used is the parallel resistance, *Rp*, that is around the entire branch. Its default value is infinite (open) so that it doesn’t enter into the calculations. However, it can be employed to model frequency dependence of R-L elements, including transformers. This would require a separate REACTOR to be added in series with the transformer and defined with an appropriate value so that the total through impedance of the transformer is correct. Users may also define curves for the resistance, R, and inductance, L, as a function of frequency when *Rp* is not defined.

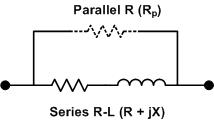


Figure 1‑22. One-Line Diagram of the OpenDSS REACTOR Object

## Avoiding Resonance

The simplest way to solve problems with harmonic resonance is to make a determined effort to avoid resonance at any of the critical harmonics such as 5, 7, 11, and 13. When planning for the addition of a capacitor bank one should always check the resonant frequency that will result when it is installed. One quick way for most power engineers to estimate the resonant frequency when installing a capacitor immediately downline from a transformer is to use the available short circuit kVA (*kVASC*) and the capacitor kvar rating:

If *kVASC*is not supplied by any other means such as a short circuit study, it can be estimated from the transformer kVA rating and percent reactance, %*X*, at the base kVA rating, *kVATR*:

The actual value will be lower than given by this formula because there will be impedance in the power supply to the transformer. One common approach is to use 90% of this value when more accurate information is not available.

While special computer programs are generally required due to the complexity of many distribution system circuit models, one circuit appears frequently in simple industrial systems that is tractable by manual calculations (Figure 1‑23). It is basically a one-bus circuit with one capacitor. Two things may be done relatively easily:

1. *Determine the resonant frequency.* If the resonant frequency is near a potentially damaging harmonic such as the 5th or 7th, either the capacitor must be changed or a filter designed.
2. *Estimate the Voltage distortion at each frequency.* The voltage across the potentially parallel resonant circuit can be computed by a relatively simple formula.

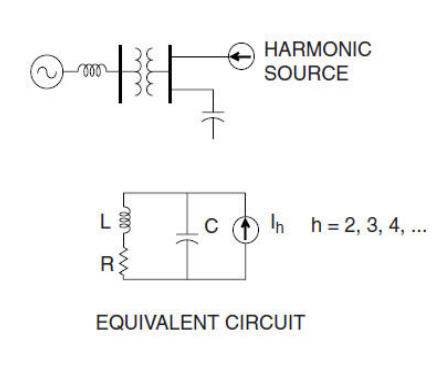
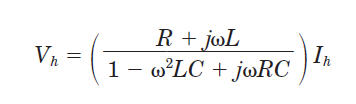


Figure 1‑23. A simple circuit that can be analyzed by manual calculations

The formula for estimating the voltage magnitude at each harmonic, *h*, is given below. Note that this formula includes the effect of the resistance, *R*.



If the resonant frequency is not near a significant harmonic and the projected voltage distortion is low, the application will probably operate successfully. Planners should avoid applications where the resonant frequency is near the 5th or 7th harmonic especially. Tuning near even harmonics like the 8th are often successful unless there are significant amounts of *interharmonics.* Tuning at the 6th runs a greater risk of accentuating both the 5th and the 7th, so this application should be designed with great care.

Adding just one more L-C loop to this circuit makes is difficult to do by manual calculations. Typical distribution systems with power factor correction capacitor banks may have dozens or even hundreds of such loops and require software for network harmonic analysis. There will be not just one resonant frequency but several. Figure 1‑24 shows the results of frequency scans of a distribution circuit for all possible capacitor bank configurations using the EPRI Grid-IQ Harmonics Evaluation Module. A number of configurations yield resonances in the 7th-9th harmonic range with a relatively broad tuning that suggests that there will be accentuation of these common harmonics even if the system is not tuned precisely to the 7th or 9th. The vertical axis on this plot suggests that one should expect about 12 V per amp of injected harmonic current in this range.



Figure 1‑24. Positive-Sequence frequency scan of all possible capacitor configurations with the EPRI Grid-IQ Harmonics Evaluation Module.

When there are this many possibilities for resonance, how can resonance be avoided? This is where harmonic distortion studies come in. Engineers will want capable tools for this job so that they can quickly investigate possible solutions.

## Harmonic Studies

Harmonic studies in combination with measurements play an important role in characterizing and understanding the extent of harmonic problems in power systems. Harmonic studies are performed for the following purposes: **Error! Reference source not found.**

1. Finding a solution to an existing harmonic problem
2. Installing large capacitor banks on utility distribution systems or industrial power systems
3. Installing large nonlinear devices or loads
4. Designing a harmonic filter
5. Converting a power factor capacitor bank to a harmonic filter

Harmonic studies are very important when the conditions exist for harmonic resonance. Without resonance, most power systems with sufficient capacity to serve the load demand can also handle typical distorting loads without excessive harmonic distortion. Harmonic studies are often neglected because distribution engineers, in particular, can usually apply capacitor banks where needed for loss reduction, voltage profile improvement, or power factor correction without concern for resonance. The main reason is that capacitor banks distributed on distribution lines are in locations where the X/R ratio of the equivalent short-circuit impedance is relatively low. Thus, resonance is heavily damped for the majority of the installations. However, harmonic studies should always be performed when applying large capacitor banks at or near transformers. The transformer X/R is much higher than power lines and dangerous harmonic resonance can easily occur.

Harmonic studies range from relatively simply resonant frequency calculations to quite complicated simulations of large networks requiring sophisticated computer models. The studies provide a means to evaluate various possible solutions and their effectiveness under a wide range of conditions before implementing a final solution.

## Harmonic Study Procedure

The ideal procedure for performing a power systems harmonics study can be summarized as follows: **Error! Reference source not found.**

1. Determine the objectives of the study. This is important to keep the investigation on track. Objectives could include identifying resonances and correcting the system frequency response.
2. Make a preliminary computer model to identify likely resonance situation.
3. Make measurements of the existing harmonic conditions, characterizing sources of harmonic currents and system bus voltage distortion.
4. Calibrate the computer model using the measurements.
5. Study the new circuit condition or existing problem.
6. Develop solutions (filter, detuning options, etc.) and investigate possible adverse system interactions. Also, check the sensitivity of the results to important variables.
7. After the installation of proposed solutions, perform monitoring to verify the correct operation of the system.

Admittedly, it is not always possible to perform each of these steps ideally. The most often omitted steps are one, or both, measurement steps due to the cost of engineering time, travel, and equipment charges. An experienced analyst may be able to solve a problem without measurements, but it is strongly recommended that the initial measurements be made if at all possible because there are often surprises when performing harmonics analysis of power systems.

If the subject power system is complex, it is often economical to make an initial computer model prior to making measurements using the best information available. Harmonic simulation technology is now sufficiently advanced that models can often make fairly good predictions without measurements. Measurements are very beneficial but are very expensive in terms of labor, equipment, and possible disruption to plant operations. It will generally be economic to have a good idea what the likely problems will be and where to look before beginning the measurements. Then the investigation team can take the monitoring equipment directly to the likely problematic locations.

## Principles for Controlling Harmonics

When a problem occurs, the basic options for controlling harmonics are:

1. Reduce the harmonic currents produced by the load.
2. Add filters to either siphon the harmonic currents off the system, block the currents from entering the system, or supply the harmonic currents locally.
3. Modify the frequency response of the system by filters, inductors, or capacitors.

Of these, the 3rd topic is of most interest with respect to the subject here.

## Modifying System Frequency Response

There are a number of methods to modify system frequency response when resonance occurs at harmonic frequencies: **Error! Reference source not found.**

1. Change the capacitor size. This is often the least expensive options for both utilities and industrial customers. Simply move the resonance frequency away from a harmonic.
2. Add a shunt filter. Not only does this shunt a major troublesome harmonic current off the system, but it completely changes the system response. When properly designed the change is beneficial
3. Add a reactor to detune the system. Harmful resonances generally occur between the system inductance and shunt power factor correction capacitors. The reactor must be added between the capacitor and the supply system source. One method is to simply put a reactor in series with the capacitor to move the system resonance without actually tuning the capacitor to create a filter. Another is to add reactance in the line.
4. Move a capacitor to a location on the system with a different short-circuit impedance or higher losses. This is also an option for utilities when a new bank causes telephone interference—moving the bank to another branch of the feeder may very well resolve the problem. This is frequently not an option for industrial users because the capacitor cannot be moved far enough to make a difference.
5. Remove the capacitor and simply accept the higher losses, lower voltage, and power factor penalty. If technically feasible, this could be an economic choice.

The X/R ratio of a utility distribution feeder is generally low. Therefore, the magnification of harmonics by resonance with feeder banks is usually minor in comparison to what might be found at an industrial facility. Utility distribution engineers are accustomed to placing feeder banks where they are needed without concern for harmonics. When problems do occur, the usual strategy is to first attempt a solution by moving the offending bank or changing the capacitor size or neutral connection.

Harmonic problems on distribution feeders often exist only at light load. The voltage rises, causing the distribution transformers to produce more harmonic currents while at the same time there is less load to damp out resonance. Switching the capacitors off at this time frequently solves the problem.

When harmonic currents from widely dispersed sources require filtering on distribution feeders, one approach is to distribute a few single-tuned filters toward the ends of the feeder. With the ends of the feeder “nailed down” by filters with respect to the voltage distortion, it is more difficult for the voltage distortion to rise above limits elsewhere.

When harmonic resonance is suspected in an industrial facility, the first step is to confirm that the main cause is resonance with power factor capacitors in the facility. This is done by measuring the current in the capacitors and looking for the telltale waveform such as the one in Figure 1‑8. One should first attempt a simple solution by using a different capacitor size.

Some automatic power factor controllers with multi-step capacitors may have control logic that allow them to avoid the capacitance values that causes resonance. In other cases, there will be so many capacitors switched at random with various loads that it will be nearly impossible to avoid resonant conditions. Filtering will be necessary, possibly with broadband filters.

Resonance problems are often less severe in factories when capacitors are located out on the plant floor on motors and in motor control centers. This assumes that the cables are sufficiently long to introduce enough resistance into the circuit to dampen the resonance. In plants with short cables, it may not be possible to achieve significant harmonic reduction benefit by distributing the capacitors.

## Filters

When simple changes are not feasible, harmonic filters can be added to the system to alter the frequency response, either moving or damping the resonance. Figure 1‑25 shows some commonly-applied filter topologies.



Figure 1‑25. Common harmonic filter topologies

The most commonly-applied is the single-tuned resonant shunt. It is generally the least expensive and the most efficient. The main intent with this filter is create a low impedance for a troublesome harmonic current and short-circuit it off the system. This filter also changes the overall system frequency response, which could cause problems at other frequencies. Figure 1‑26 shows what happens when an existing capacitor that was causing a resonance at the 9th harmonic was converted to a 5th harmonic filter. It is usually good practice to design the filter for one of the lower harmonics on the system. The reason is that the filter creates a new, sharp resonance below the notch frequency. This resonance should be moved to a frequency where it is not likely to cause a problem. In this case, the new resonance occurs near the 4th and there is generally little excitation of this resonance unless the system is serving cyclo-converter type loads.

The other two filters in Figure 1‑25 introduce intentional resistance. Resistance helps to damp out resonance so this can be quite useful if the losses are affordable. The 1st-order high pass filter simply inserts a resistance into the resonant circuit sufficient to suppress the resonance. This is of course quite lossy. However, there are applications where the heat off the resistor can be used effectively and this simple filter works effectively. The 2nd-order high pass is a little more sophisticated. It is typically applied in smaller sizes for 11th harmonic and higher where the fundamental frequency voltage across the inductor is relatively low.

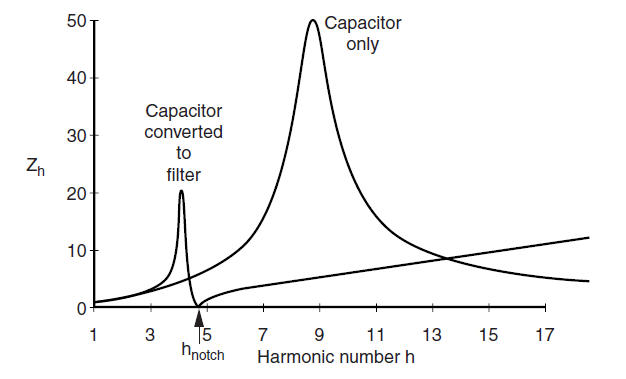


Figure 1‑26. Converting an existing capacitor bank to a single-tuned filter

An increasingly popular filter is the C Filter (Figure 1‑27). This yields a frequency response similar to the 2nd-order filter, but can be tuned to a low harmonic such as the 3rd without suffering the high losses of the 2nd-order filter. It does an excellent job of suppressing all frequency above its main tuning frequency. The key feature is the series-tuned combination of *Lm* and *Ca* tuned to the fundamental frequency that shorts the resistance, *R,* at the fundamental, thus avoiding many of the losses.



Figure 1‑27. C Filter configuration.

The frequency-scan response of a C Filter is illustrated in Figure 1‑28. It is tuned to the 5th harmonic where the notch occurs. It presents a high impedance to fundamental frequency but has a low impedance with resistive damping above the notch frequency. This can be effective in filtering the higher frequency components of harmonic-producing loads.



Figure 1‑28. C-Filter Characteristic

A final type of filter to consider for controlling resonance is the broadband filter (Figure 1‑29). The application for this would be where there are multiple resonances and, perhaps, cyclo-converter type loads that produce varying interharmonics such that it is almost impossible to avoid a resonant condition. The main idea is to use a relatively large inductance to keep all harmonic currents on the right-hand side of the diagram by forcing them through the capacitor. The filter is thus tuned to a low frequency such as near the 2nd or 3rd harmonic. A significant voltage rise at power frequency occurs at the capacitor due to the size of the capacitor relative to the short circuit strength of the system. Therefore, a tap changing transformer is often employed to control the voltage level. Such devices are available for industrial low-voltage applications and are effective in minimizing the distortion over a wide range of frequencies. Such filters could also be constructed on utility distribution systems using transformers for the inductance and voltage regulators to control the overvoltage.



Figure 1‑29. Broadband Filter Schematic

Figure 1‑30 shows a broadband filter current magnification frequency response – the current observed on the source side of the filter per ampere of current on the load side. The harmonic current source sees a typical parallel resonance characteristic with a high impedance at the tuning frequency. However, at higher frequencies the impedance approaches the impedance of the capacitor which shunts the current off the system and strongly attenuates the currents about 300 Hz in this case (the magnification factor is less than one). This is a useful characteristics for loads that produce harmonic and interharmonic currents that are constantly shifting frequencies. Obviously, the tuning frequency must be lower than the lowest harmonic produced by the load.



Figure 1‑30. A Broadband Filter Characteristic