



Order of Engineers and Architects – Beirut Lebanon





Short Circuit Calculations, Based on Methods Outlined in the IEC

A More Practical Method to Adopt



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Risks Associated With Short Circuit Currents

- The reliability and safety of electric power distribution systems depend on accurate and thorough knowledge of short-circuit fault currents that can be present, and on the ability of protective devices to satisfactorily interrupt these currents.
- Knowledge of the computational methods of power system analysis is essential to engineers responsible for planning, design, operation, and troubleshooting of distribution systems.

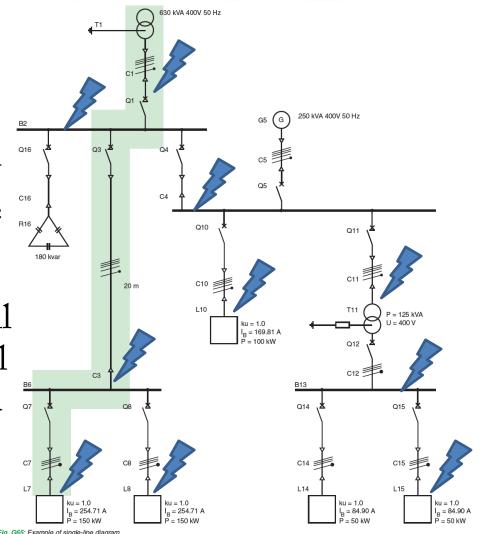




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Why Do I Need a Short Circuit Analysis?

- To ensure that existing and new equipment ratings are adequate to withstand the available short circuit energy available at each point in the electrical system
- A Short Circuit Analysis will help to ensure that personnel and equipment are protected by establishing proper **interrupting ratings of protective devices** (circuit breaker and fuses)



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Why Do I Need a Short Circuit Analysis?

- The short circuit calculations must be maintained and **periodically updated** to protect the equipment and the lives.
- It is not safe to **assume** that new equipment is properly rated.





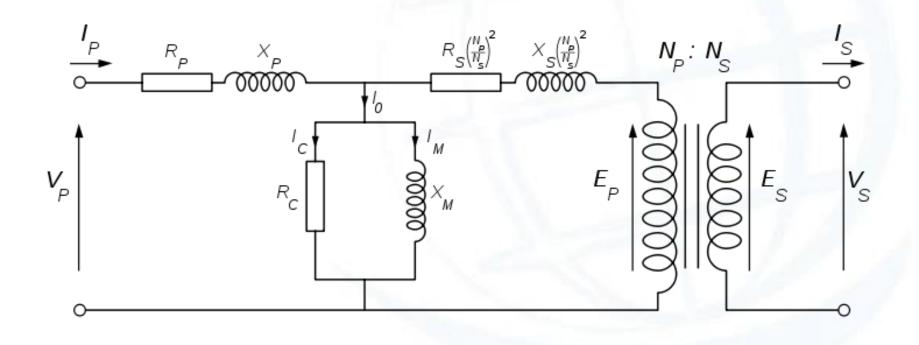
Benefits of Running a Short Circuit Analysis

- Reduces the risk a facility could face and help avoid catastrophic losses.
- Increases the safety and reliability of the power system and related equipment.
- Evaluates the application of protective devices and equipment.
- Identifies problem areas in the system.
- Identifies recommended solutions to existing problems.





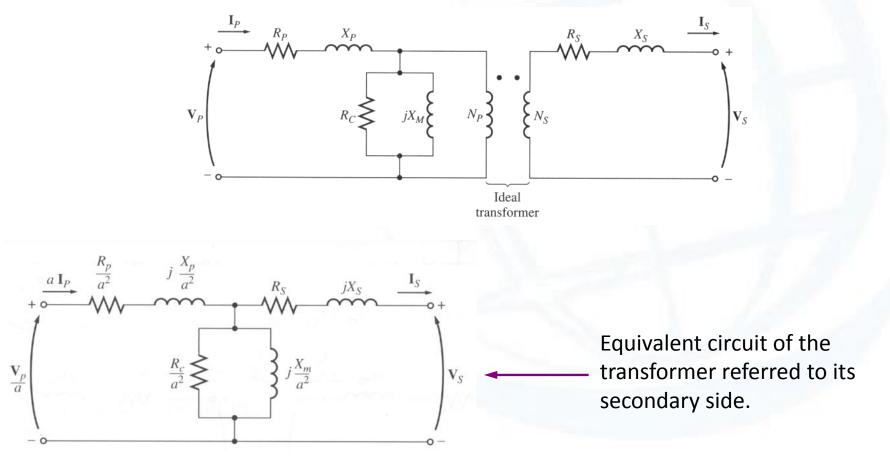
X-fmr Modeling







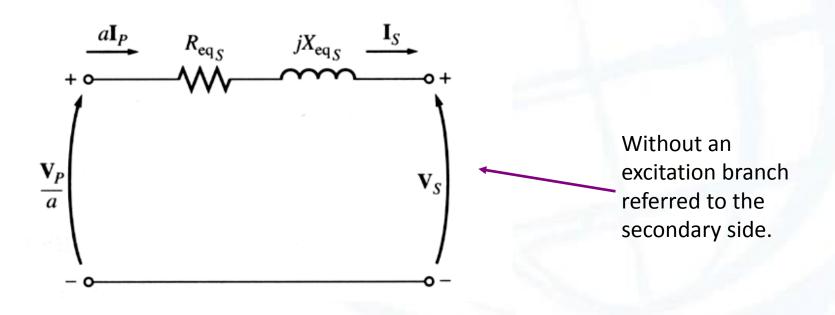
The exact equivalent circuit of a real transformer







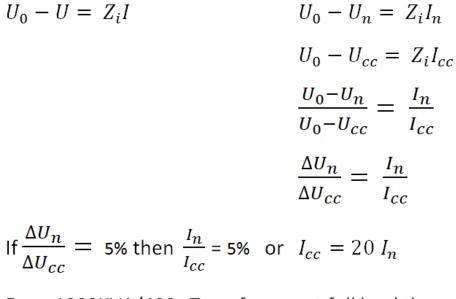
Approximate equivalent circuit of a transformer

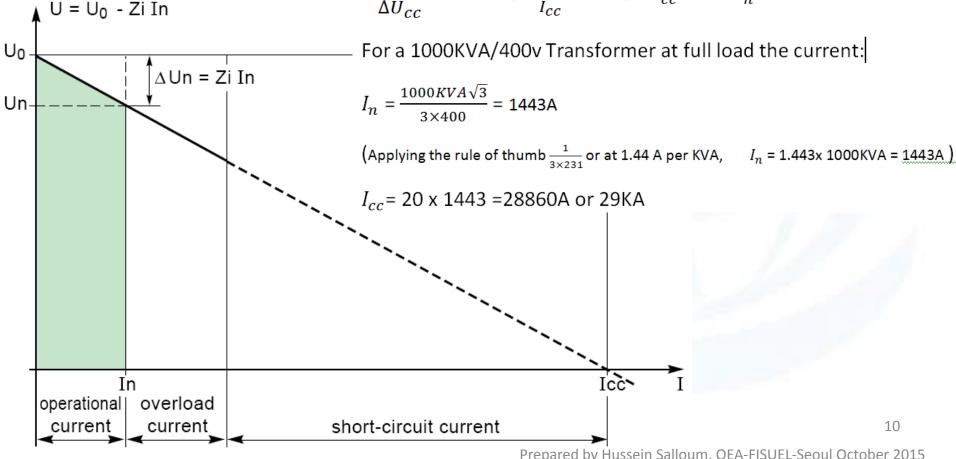


The values of components of the transformer model can be determined experimentally by an opencircuit test or by a short-circuit test.



Voltage Impedance

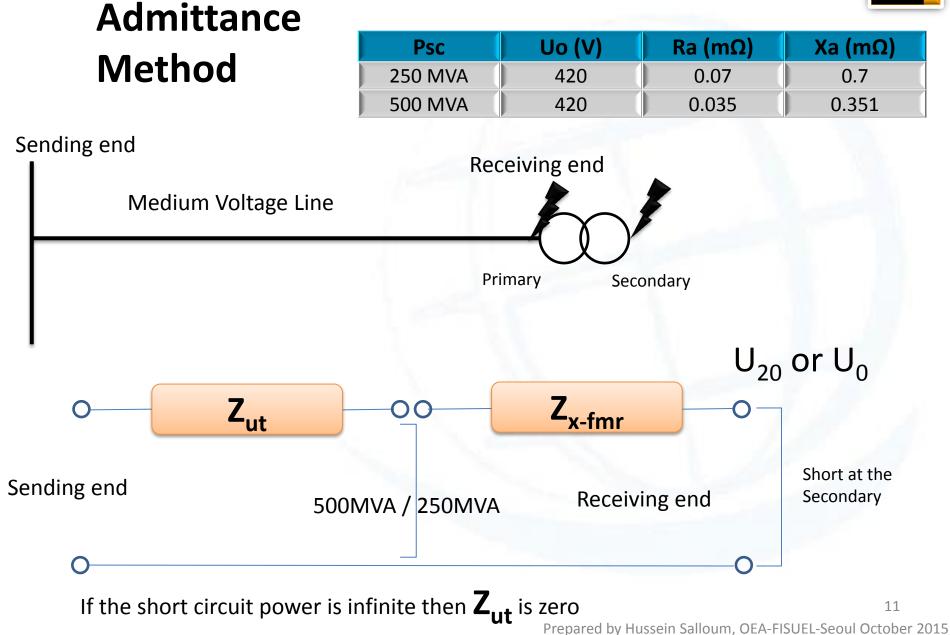




Fisuel Interr $U_0 - U = Z_i I$









Admittance Method

$$S = V^{2}/Z \quad or \quad S = V^{2}.A$$

or
$$A = S/V^{2}$$

$$Z_{eq} = Z_{ut} + Z_{X-fmr}$$

$$1/A_{eq} = 1/A_{ut} + 1/A_{X-fmr}$$

$$V^{2}/S_{eq} = V^{2}/S_{ut} + V^{2}/S_{X-fmr}$$

$1/MVAsc_{eq} = 1/MVA_{Ut} + 1/MVA_{X-fmr}$





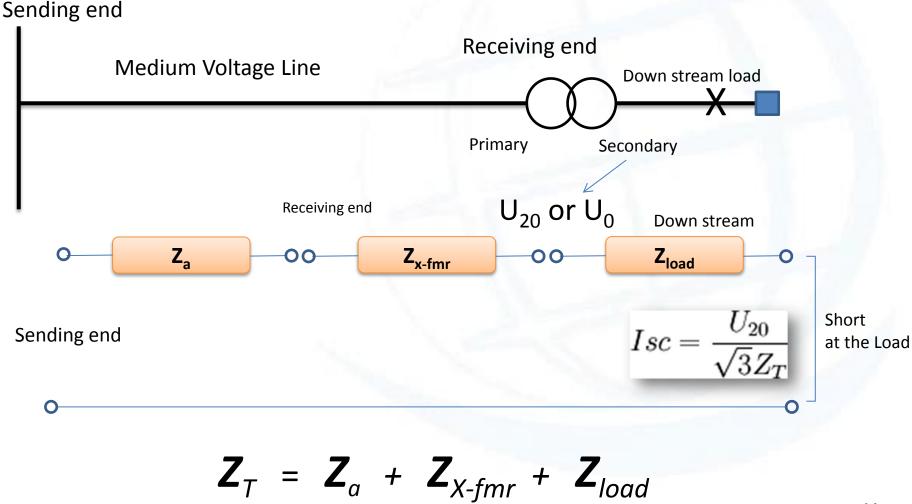
SYSTEM FAULT CURRENT

- ✓ The MVA method is fast and simple as compared to the per unit or ohmic methods.
- ✓ There is no need to convert to an MVA base or worry about voltage levels.
- ✓ This is a useful method to obtain an estimated value of the fault current.
- ✓ The elements have to be converted to an MVA value and then the circuit is converted to admittance values.





The Impedance Method IEC 60909



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Determination of the impedance of each component

Network upstream of the MV/LV transformer

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.

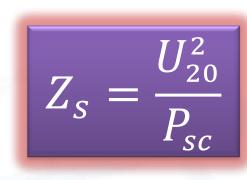
Psc	Uo (V)	R _{ut} (mΩ)	X _{ut} (mΩ)
250 MVA	420	0.07	0.7
500 MVA	420	0.035	0.351

The table gives values for Ra and Xa corresponding to the most common MV⁽²⁾ short-circuit levels in utility powersupply 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.)
- Isc = 3-phase short-circuit current expressed in kA (r.m.s.)

(2) up to 36 kV







Or Analytically

where

- $Z_s = Z_{ut}$ = impedance of the MV voltage network, expessed in milli-ohms
- U₂₀ = 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 Ra is generally found to be negligible compared with the corresponding Xa,
 - the latter then being taken as the ohmic value for Za.
 - If more accurate calculations are necessary, Xa may be taken to be equal to 0.995 Za and Ra equal to 0.1 Xa.



Transformer: The impedance Z_{tr} of a transformer,

as viewed from the LV terminals (secondary), is given by the formula: where:

- U_{20} = open-circuit secondary phase-to-phase voltage expressed in volts
- S_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 (expressed in milli-ohms): $R_{tr} = \frac{P_{cu} \times 10^3}{3 I^2}$
 - \checkmark P_{cu} = total losses in watts
 - \checkmark I_n = nominal full-load current in amps
 - \checkmark 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).

For an approximate calculation R_{tr} may be ignored since X \approx Z in standard distribution type ٠ transformers. 17

 $X_{tr} = \sqrt{Z_{tr}^2 - R_{tr}^2}$

 $Z_{tr} = \overline{S}$





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 m Ω 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 m Ω /metre⁽¹⁾ length for LV busbars (doubling the spacing between the bars increases the reactance by about 10% only). (1) For 50 Hz systems, but 0.18 m Ω /m length at 60 Hz

Circuit conductors

The resistance of a conductor is given by the formula: where

$$R_c = \rho \ \frac{L}{S}$$

- 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 aluminum
- L = length of the conductor in m
- S = c.s.a. of conductor in mm2
- 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 m Ω /metre may be used (for 50 Hz systems) or 0.096 m Ω /metre (for 60 Hz systems).

For prefabricated bus-trunking and similar pre-wired ducting systems, the manufacturer should be
consulted.18Prepared by Hussein Salloum, OEA-FISUEL-Seoul October 201518



Recapitulation table

		$\langle \langle \cdot \rangle$
Y	Y	

Parts	s of power-supply s	ystem	R (mΩ)	X (mΩ)
		Supply network Figure G34	$\frac{Ra}{Xa} = 0.1$	Xa = 0.995 Za $Za = rac{U_{20}{}^2}{Psc}$
	Ş	Transformer Figure G35	$Rtr = rac{Pcu imes 10^3}{3In^2}$ Rtr is often negligible compared to Xtr for transformers > 100 kVA	$\sqrt{Ztr^2 - Rtr^2}$ with $Ztr = rac{{U_{20}}^2}{Pn} imes rac{Usc}{100}$
	Ń	Circuit-breaker	Negligible	$X_D = 0.15 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{pole}$
L		Busbars	Negligible for S > 200 mm² in the formula: $R= horac{L}{S}{}^{(1)}$	$X_B = 0.15 \text{ m}\Omega/\text{m}$
•		Circuit conductors ⁽²⁾	$R = \rho \frac{L}{S} {}^{(1)}$	Cables: Xc = 0.08 mΩ/m
	M	Motors	See Sub-clause 4.2 Motors (often negligible at LV)	
	\bowtie	Three-phase short circuit current in kA	$Isc = \frac{U_{20}}{\sqrt{3}\sqrt{R_T^2 + X_T^2}}$	

U20: Phase-to-phase no-load secondary voltage of MV/LV transformer (in volts).

Psc: 3-phase short-circuit power at MV terminals of the MV/LV transformers (in kVA).

Pcu: 3-phase total losses of the MV/LV transformer (in watts).

Pn: Rating of the MV/LV transformer (in kVA).

Usc: Short-circuit impedance voltage of the MV/LV transfomer (in %).

RT : Total resistance. XT: Total reactance

(1) ρ = resistivity at normal temperature of conductors in service

= $\rho = 22.5 \text{ m}\Omega \times \text{mm}^2/\text{m}$ for copper

• $\rho = 36 \text{ m}\Omega \times \text{mm}^2/\text{m}$ 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

LV in	stallation	R (mΩ)	X (mΩ)	RT (mΩ)	XT (mΩ)	
	MV network Psc = 500 MVA	0.035	0.351		Isc = -	$\frac{420}{\sqrt{3}\sqrt{R_T^2 + X_T}}$
8	Transformer 20 kV/420 V Pn = 1000 kVA Usc = 5% Pcu = 13.3 x 10 ³ watts	2.12	8.56	2.15	۷ 8.91	$/3\sqrt{R_T^2 + X_T}$ Isc 1=26.4KA
	Single-core cables 5 m copper $4 \text{ x } 240 \text{ mm}^2/\text{phase}$	$\frac{22.5}{4} \times \frac{5}{240} = 0.12$ x	c = 0.08 x 5 = 0.40	2.27	9.31	lsc2 = 25.3kA
\ *	Main circuit-breaker	RD = 0	XD = 0.15	2.27	9.46	lsc3= 24.9KA
* * *	Busbars 10 m	RB = 0	XB = 1.5	2.27	10.96	lsc4 = 21.67 kA
	$\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Three-core cable} \\ 100 \mbox{ m} \\ \mbox{95 mm}^2 \mbox{ copper} \end{array} \ Rc = \end{array}$	$22.5 \times \frac{100}{95} = 23.68$	Xc = 100 x 0.08 = 8	25.95	18.96	lsc5 = 7.54kA
******	Three-core cable 20 m 10 mm ² copper final circuits Rc =	$22.5 \times \frac{20}{10} = 45$	Xc = 20 x 0.08 = 1.6	70.95	20.56	lsc6 = 3.28 kA

Example of short-circuit current calculations for a LV installation supplied at 400 V (nominal) from a 1,000 kVA MV/LV transformer

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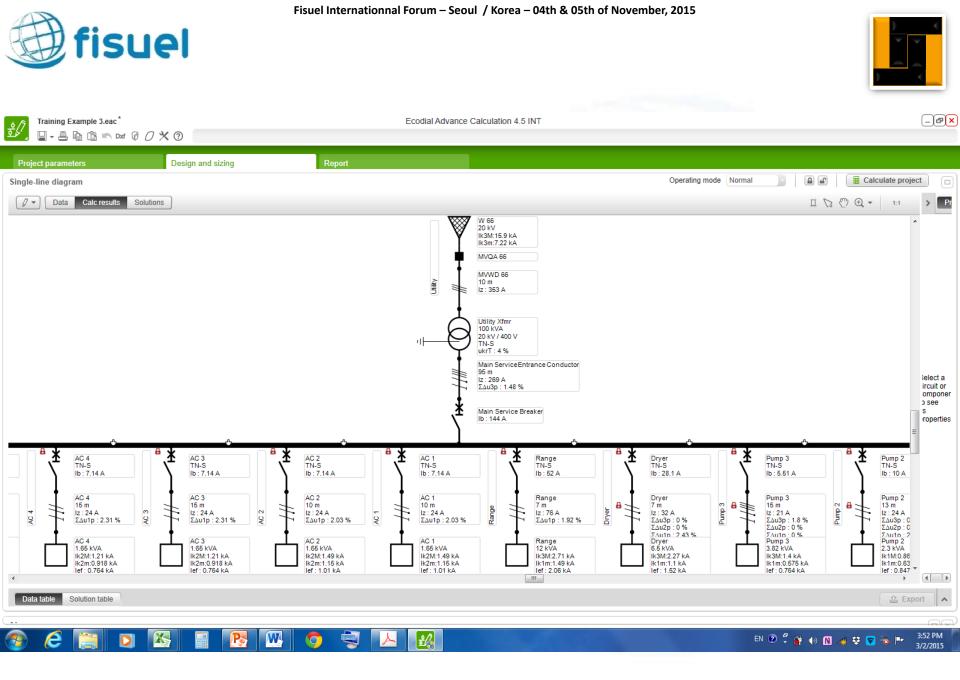
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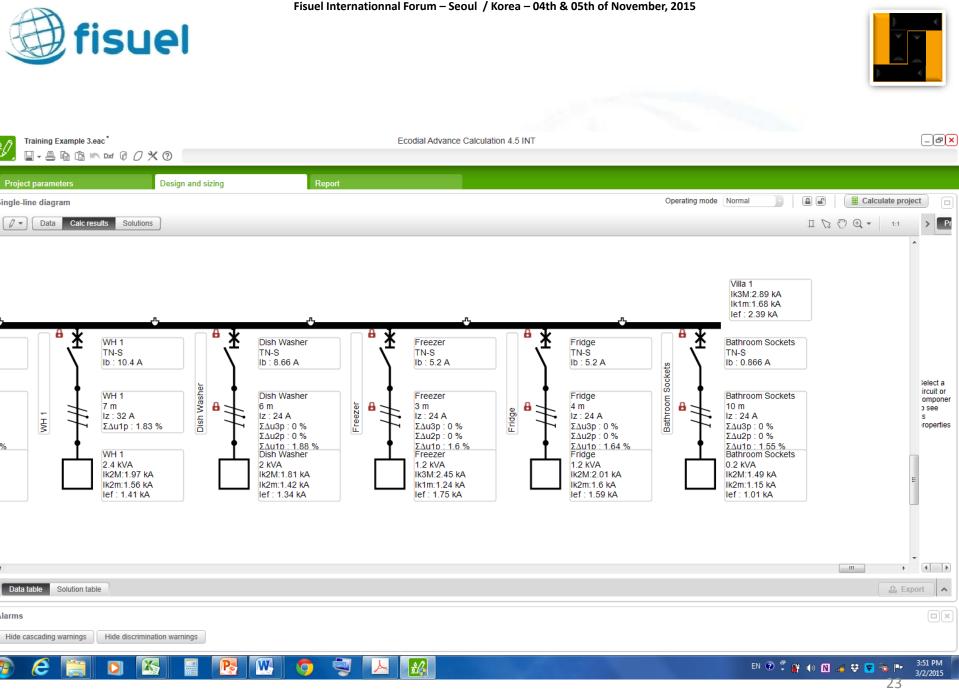


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	A	В	С	D	EF	G	H			K L	М	N	0	Р	Q	R	S	T	U	V W	Х
	X-fmr Sn	1000				Row Cu	-	mΩ.mn							_				Isc Infinite	28.940 KA	
	U20		volts			Row Al	36	mΩ.mn	n2/m		Zs		β mΩ	$Zs = \frac{l}{d}$	J_o^2				MVA Tr.	20.00 MVA	
	VL-L n	399.00									Xa		mΩ	Zs = -	Psc				MVA @250		
4	VL-P n	230	volts								Ra	0.035	imΩ	T					lsc 250	26.4355 KA	
5	In	1447.0	Amps						Rtr =		10 ³ Za	0.353	βmΩ	$Z_{tr} = 0$	$\frac{U_{20}{}^2}{Pn} \times \frac{U}{10}$	sc					
							# of		hir =	3In	2			1	$Pn \cap 10$	00			-		
_							Cables			1									$I_{SC} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}}$		
6							/Phase	Size		<u> </u>	R (m Ω)	X (mΩ)	Ζ (m Ω)	<u> </u>	XT(mΩ)	ZT (mΩ)	lsc			21	
7	Psc	500	MVA			Network					0.03510	0.35104		From Tabl	e						
8	Pcu	13300	Watts	Zimp %	<mark>-5%</mark>	X-fmr		I	$Rc = \rho$	L N	2.1174	8.5621		2.1525	8.9131	9.1693	26.4462	2 KA			
9									P	$S_{\mathbf{k}}$		Xtr =	$Ztr^2 - Rt$	r^2							
10	Cable X	0.08	mΩ/m	length	<mark>5</mark> m	Main Cable	e <mark>4</mark>	240	mm2		0.1172	0.4000	0.4168	2.2697	9.3131	9.5857	25.2975	5 KA			
11																					
	CB X	0.15				Main CB					0.0000	0.1500	0.1500	2.2697	9.4631	9.7315	24.9185	5 KA		U_{20}	
	BB X	0.15	mΩ/m	BB length	<mark>10</mark> m						0.0000	1.5000	1.5000	2.2697	10.9631	11.1956	21.6598	3 KA	Isc =	$=\frac{U_{20}}{\sqrt{3}Z_T}$	
14		0				OGCB					0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	2.2697	10.9631	11.1956	21.6598	3 KA		$\sqrt{3Z_T}$	
15 16	Cable X	0.08	m∩/m	length	100 m	Feeder	1	05	mm2		23.68	8	25.00	25.95	18.96	32.14	7.54	KA			
17		0.00	112/111	longui		recuci		- 55			20.00	0	20.00	20.00	10.50	02.14	1.54	101			
	СВХ	0	mΩ			СВ					0	0	0.00	25.95	18.96	32.14	7.54	KA			
	BB X	0	mΩ/m	BB length	0	BB															
20					-	OGCB					0	0	0.00	25.95	18.96	32.14	7.54	KA			
21																					
	Cable X	0.08	mΩ/m	length	<mark>20</mark> m	Feeder	1	10	mm2		45.00	1.6	45.03	70.95	20.56	73.87	3.28	KA			
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Conclusions

- All electrical systems are susceptible to short circuits and the abnormal current levels they create. These currents can produce considerable thermal and mechanical stresses in electrical distribution equipment.
- Therefore, it's important to protect against fire, personnel and equipment by calculating short-circuit currents during system upgrade and design.
- Because these calculations are life-safety related, they should be mandated in the National Electrical Codes.





Theoretical or Standards method?

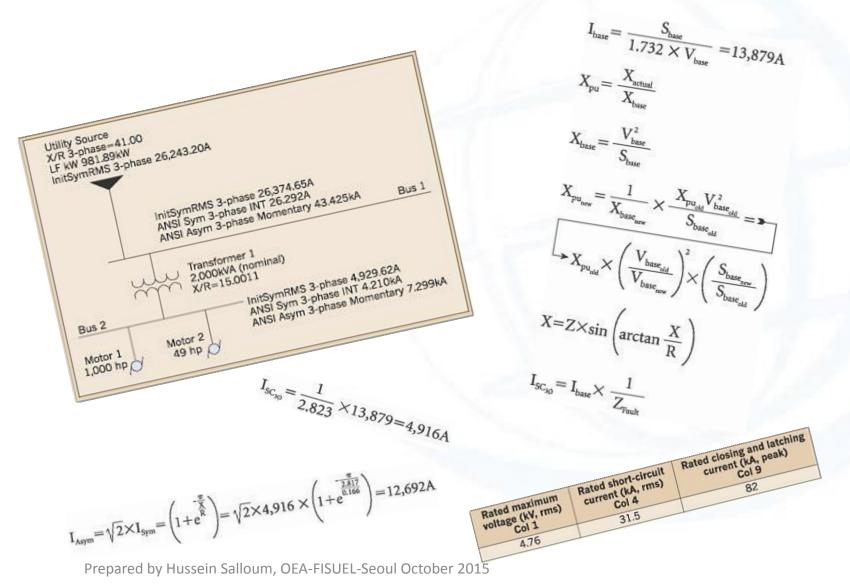
- Rather than using a **theoretical approach** to determine short-circuit currents, **published standards** offer **methods** to compute a symmetrical steady state solution to which you can apply a multiplier in order to obtain the peak value of an asymmetrical current.
- The result is **precise enough** to fall within an acceptable tolerance to meet code requirements.
- The classical approach and the method defined by ANSI/IEEE and IEC are such industry-accepted methods for calculating short circuits.





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Theoretical Approach - Classical







The IEC Method is more practical

- The IEC calculation method is based on the same quantities as used to be calculated before.
- However, it differs from the classical method because it makes it possible to study circuits derived from the original one: one resistive only and one reactive only.
- This is the significant difference between standards methods and the classical calculation procedures.
- The IEC method proved to have offered a much more practical approach than the others.





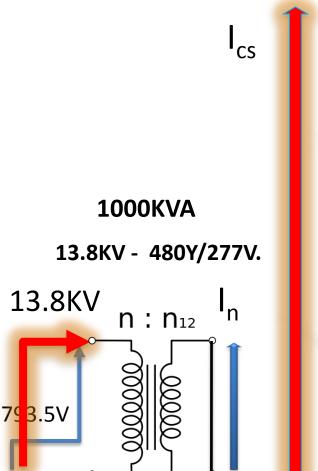
THANK YOU MERCI 감사합니다







Practically



When the secondary ampere meter reads 1,202A

the primary Voltage Meter reads 793.5V.

The percent of impedance value is

793.5 volts / 13800 volts = 0.0575.

Hence, % Z = 5.75%

And the Short Circuit becomes: 17.39 x the FLA = 20,903A

Full Load Ampere

 $I_n = S / \sqrt{3} \times V_{L-L} = 1000 \text{ KVA}/\sqrt{3} \times 480 \text{ V}$

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 $\frac{l_n}{2} = 5\%$

cc





Therefore the main breaker

that is to be installed in the circuit on the **secondary** of the transformer

has to have a **KA Interrupting Rating** greater than **21,000A**.





Utility MVA at the Primary of the Transformer Case of MVAsc = 500MVA

Which Basically means that the short circuit at the primary of the X-fmr would withdraw a short circuit power of 500MVA.

Since X-fmr rating is at: 1000KVA = 1 MVA and Z = 5.75%

Therefore on its own would withdraw:

1MVA x 1/.0575 = **17.39 MVA of short circuit power**

$$\sqrt{3 \times V_{L-L}} I_{cc} = 17.39 \sqrt{3 \times V_{L-L}} I_{n}$$

$$S_{n} = 1MVA$$

$$\frac{\Delta U_{n}}{\Delta U_{cc}} = \frac{I_{n}}{I_{cc}}$$

$$If \frac{\Delta U_{n}}{\Delta U_{cc}} = 5\% \text{ then } \frac{I_{n}}{I_{cc}} = 5\% \text{ or } I_{cc} = 20 I_{n}$$





Same Secondary Voltage

- $1/MVAsc_{eq} = 1/500 + 1/17.39 = 0.002 + 0.06$
 - $MVASC_{eq} = 1 / (0.002 + 0.06) = 16.13MVA$ which is less than 17.39MV (infinite impedance)

Therefore,

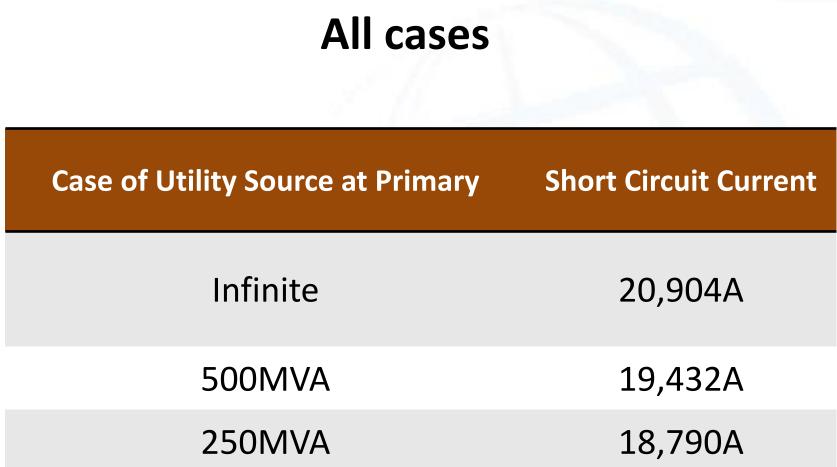
Short circuit current at $480V = MVAsc_{eq} / (1.73 \times 0.48) =$

16.129 / 0.8304 = 19, 423A = **19.4KA** Case of 500MVA

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- When the cable and its length is added to the circuit the fault current will decrease to a smaller value. Cable MVA Value MVAsc = KV² / Z cable.
- Use the cable X & R values to calculate the Z value then add to the Admittance calculation Hussein Salloum, OEA-FISUEL-Seoul October 2015





The impedance of the MV network referred to the LV side of the MV/LV transformer

Rated Power	C	Dil-imr	nerseo	k	Cast-resin						
(kVA)	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			

Resistance, reactance and impedance values for typical distribution 400 V transformers with MV windings ≤2Q kV Prepared by Hussein Salloum, OEA-FISUEL-Seoul October 2015





THE CONTROVERSY OF ICU AND ICS

Definition of Icu & Ics

The key performances and testing methods for Low Voltage Circuit Breakers are defined in IEC60947-2.

Icu is the abbreviation for Rated Ultimate Short-circuit breaking capacity. This is the current for which the prescribe conditions according to a specified tests sequence do not include the capability of the circuit its rated breaker to carry current continuously after the tests. It is the maximum short-circuit current that the circuit breaker can break and it is checked by the following sequence:

0 – t – CO

O - refers to a breaking operation
CO - refers to a making operation
followed by a breaking operation
t - refers to the time separating two
operations, equal to 3 minutes or
the length of time needed to reset
the breaker, whichever is longer

After the tests, the circuit breaker is simply tested to show that it is electrically safe. This is done by a dielectric test under a testing voltage equal to twice the rated service voltage but at least equal to 1000V.

Ics is the abbreviation for Rated Service Short-circuit breaking capacity. This is the current for which the prescribe conditions according to a specified test sequence include the capability of the circuit breaker to carry its normal rated current continuously after the test. The tests are conducted in the





Ics is the abbreviation for Rated Service Short-circuit breaking capacity. This is the current for which the prescribe conditions according to a specified test sequence include the capability of the circuit breaker to carry its normal rated current continuously after the test. The tests are conducted in the following sequence:

O - t - CO - t - CO

Following the tests, the circuit breaker undergoes a temperature rise test, a dielectric test and a tripping test to verify that the breaker is qualified to be returned to service.

Ics is expressed as a percentage of Icu (eg 25%, 50%, 75% or 100% of Icu). In a nutshell, this is the maximum current that the breaker can break for 3 times and yet returned to service with its operational integrity intact.





THE CONTROVERSY OF ICU AND ICS

 I_{cu} is the abbreviation for Rated Ultimate Short-circuit breaking capacity.

It is the maximum short-circuit current that the circuit breaker can break and then gets checked by the following sequence.

• **O** – t – CO

- **O** refers to a breaking operation
- CO refers to a making operation followed by a breaking operation t refers to the time separating two operations, equal to 3 minutes or the length of time needed to reset the breaker, whichever is longer

This is the current for which the circuit breaker is incapable to carry its rated current continuously after the tests

proposed conditions according to a specified tests sequence do