High Impedance Single-Phase Faults Diagnosis in Transmission Lines via Deep Reinforcement Learning of Transfer Functions

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ABSTRACT Accurate and fast fault detection in transmission lines is of high importance to maintain the reliability of power systems. Most of the existing methods suffer from false detection of high-impedance faults. In this paper, the transfer function (TF) method is introduced to evaluate the effect of impedance and location of faults by analyzing the voltage and current signals in the frequency domain. Interpretation of the results of the TF method is considered as a weakness of this method. In order to alleviate this problem, a convolutional neural network (CNN) and the hybrid model of deep reinforcement learning (DRL) are utilized to identify and locate single-phase to ground short circuit faults in transmission lines. Single-phase to ground short circuit faults with various fault impedances are applied on an IEEE standard transmission line system. Then, the TF traces are calculated and are collected as input datasets for the proposed models. The fault location results for each network are evaluated via various statistical performance metrics such as correlation coefficient (R), mean squared error (MSE), and root mean squared error (RMSE). The R-value of the CNN and DRL models in fault identification is presented as 96.12% and 98.04%, respectively. Finally, in the early detection of single-phase to ground short circuit fault location (high impedance), the results revealed the efficiency of the DRL model with \( R = 96.61\% \) compared to CNN with \( R = 95.21\% \).

INDEX TERMS Transmission line faults, single-phase to ground short circuit, transfer function, deep reinforcement learning, convolutional neural network.

I. INTRODUCTION Transmission lines are crucial components in power systems. With recent innovations, conventional electric power systems have been evolving into intelligent power systems, consist of advanced monitoring and control tools [1]. Transmission lines are always prone to faults due to various reasons, including lightning or falling objects. Whenever a fault occurs, the nominal values of voltage and current deviates in the power system, which causes equipment damage and power outages [2]. Reliable, efficient algorithms capable of providing an accurate analysis of the type and location of faults in transmission lines are necessary for the implementation of power transmission protection systems [3].

Within the context of power system protection, detection of high impedance faults is recognized to be extremely challenging [4]. This is due to the fact that these faults do not significantly affect the voltage and current characteristics. Indeed, the effect of these faults might be seen as an additional load [5]. Nonetheless, the detection of these faults is of high importance as they could cause serious safety risks and could adversely affect the quality of power supply. There are practically two types of high impedance faults that can be considered: (i) a broken live conductor directly touching the ground, (ii) a close connection to earth like sweeping the earth through trees or damaged insulation. As power systems are becoming more complicated and with more stringent power quality constraints, detection of high impedance faults has become a major concern for utilities [6]. On the other hand, the involvement of uncertainties in fault information...
has caused some problems in the operation of fault diagnosis methods [7], [8]. These uncertainties are mainly classified into three categories: 1) different faults cases exhibit a complex set of features and diverse behaviors, challenging the implementation of protection schemes based on a single fault feature [9], [10]; 2) the instability of the operating conditions can cause problems for protection schemes adjusted with a pre-defined setting value [11]; 3) due to high fault impedance, the currents produced by the faults are not usually sufficient to be detected by common protection devices [12], [13]. In traditional protection systems, the protection relay trips the system once the operating parameter deviates from a preset threshold. However, the settings of traditional protection relays are computed offline and are not configurable during operation. This adjustment method is unable to adjust to different types of faults, meaning that the relay settings are required to adapt to the new system conditions online. The common protection schemes with a fixed setting strategy have shown to be unreliable for protection of power systems [14]. In fact, fixed relay settings can seriously hinder the development of power system protection technology.

The single phase-to-ground fault is the most common fault type in power systems, most of which are accompanied by a fault impedance at the point of failure [15]. High fault impedance values can result in the failure or mal-operation of the power system protection devices, which in turn results in jeopardizing the power system’s reliable operation [16]. Studies on improving the safety of power protection systems against fault impedance are classified into three categories. 1) improving the protection performance against fault impedance through adaptive adjustment of setting value [17]. For example, in [11], the operating threshold is automatically adjusted based on the fault impedance and according to the compensated voltage variation. In [18], the authors proposed a scheme to prevent failures in line protection performance in response to the dominant conditions of the system. 2) compensating the fault impedance such that the measured impedance can more accurately reflect the fault location [19]. For example, to enhance the performance against the fault impedance, in [20] the authors proposed a fault line impedance consideration process. The fault line impedance, additional impedance, and contained impedance are shifted together in the multiple levels until the additional impedance matches with the actual way of the true axis. The fault distance and fault line impedance are calculated following the regular connection between the shifted fault line impedance and the shifted calculated impedance in the multiple levels. Another type of impedance compensation has been done in [21], in which the authors first tried to perform improved ground-type impedance relay by compensating spread capacitive currents then the description of internal high-resistance faults is done while ensuring reliability under external faults. In [22], the impact of fault impedance on the performance of distance relays protecting radial distribution feeders has been studied. In [23], the fault impedance was calculated based on the active power at the relay point. The measured excess impedance was then compensated such that the fault location could be more accurately located by the measured impedance. Based on the fact that the sequence current phase measured at the relay point is almost equal to that at the point of failure, the authors in [24] expressed the measured impedance by decomposing it into two components, namely resistance and a reactance term. Moreover, by combining both terms, the fault impedance is eliminated, and the real fault impedance is calculated. 3) identification of internal and external faults based on the characteristics of the fault impedance. For example, in [25], the criterion for protection against a high-resistance single line-to-ground fault on the transmission lines is based on the differential active power principle which can accurately identify a high-resistance single line-to-ground fault. The authors in [26] propose an intelligent method for fault localization based on the information provided by PMUs. The fault segment is first discovered by analyzing the waveforms of the zero-sequence current on both sides of the fault. A stack auto-encoder (SAE) is then formed to implement an end-to-end strategy to determine the fault point through voltage and current phasors.

Nowadays, data mining and artificial intelligence (AI) play a significant role in modern power systems. Data mining techniques such as artificial neural networks (ANNs), machine learning, deep learning, and fuzzy logic are widely employed for operational tools such as monitoring, management, and fault identification. The AI systems are widely known for their high ability to identify the type and location of faults in power systems.

In [27], the authors used a quality-aware fine-grained categorization model called Fast R-convolutional neural network (CNN) that is suitable for category tips learning. This paper aims to identify the most distinguished image spots for classification of faults.

In [28], for managing the relationship among electrical signals at one side and fault data on transmission lines, authors suggest the purpose of independent neural networks. This technique allows an automated adjustment of the neural models qualified for fault classification, location, and detection. The hidden Markov model (HMM) algorithm is used in [29] for fault classification in power transmission lines. The basis of this method is the direct analysis of electrical signals in the form of multivariate time series. In [30], applications of recurrent neural network (RNN), long short-term memory (LSTM), and support vector machine (SVM) are utilized for data-based line trip fault prediction in power systems. The first one mainly responsible for obtaining the transient characteristics of multi-sourced data and the other one is considered for classification to acquire the ultimate prediction outcomes.

The authors of [31] proposed an anti-heat dynamic assessment approach based on the LSTM technique. In this study, the cluster features of the power-angle path of a generator are received as the input after the fault is eliminated, and the modified LSTM is then employed to learn the nonlinear
relationships between input properties and transient stability. At the same time, the time sliding windows and the antiheat mechanism are utilized to develop a real-time orderly prediction framework capable of effectively using the time series data of PMUs.

One of the major drawbacks in most of the above-mentioned methods is that the diagnosis operation is not performed accurately and the proposed solutions have an error due to the high-dimension of monitored data. To solve this problem, in [32], [33], solutions based on dimension reduction and data processing are presented.

In this paper, single-phase short circuit faults detection, and exact location are identified in two scenarios. The first scenario calculates the transfer function (TF) of each fault to identify the presence of the fault in the system by comparing the calculated TFs. In the second scenario, in order to identify the exact location of single-phase short-circuit faults in transmission lines, the deep reinforcement learning (DRL) method is proposed as one of the hybrid applications of deep learning and reinforcement learning. In addition to its high ability to extract data properties, the proposed method also improves the idea of hybrid models. To the best of the authors’ knowledge, this method has not been used to recognize patterns in TFs of single-phase short circuit faults and diagnose the exact location of transmission line faults. The calculation of the TFs clearly shows all the effects of the faults on the voltage and current signals in a frequency domain. The proposed hybrid model of DRL, by recognizing the patterns and extracting the features in the TFs, it will be able to identify the exact location of the single-phase short-circuit fault in a transmission line.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. The second section describes the TF method. In Section III, the proposed methodologies are introduced. Section IV describes the system under study. In Section V, the results of the assessment and identifying the fault location are presented in two scenarios. Finally, Section VI concludes the paper.

II. TRANSFER FUNCTION METHOD
The transfer function (TF) method is a comparative test to diagnose defects, especially in transient states. So far, this method has been widely used in power industry, e.g., [34]–[38], including detection of mechanical defects in power transformer windings [34], [39], diagnostic operations in electrical machines [36], and detection of distribution network damages [37], [38], [40]. Since this method examines the changes in a system in the frequency domain, in most literature, this method has been introduced as a frequency response analysis. A comparison of the healthy and damaged states transfer functions of the system is the basis of this method in identifying defects.

In this paper, the TFs related to the system are calculated as following [37]:

$$ TF = \frac{\text{FFT}(V_i)}{\text{FFT}(I_i)} $$  \hspace{1cm} (1)  

where $\text{FFT}(V_i)$ and $\text{FFT}(I_i)$ are the voltage and current of the system, both in the frequency domain using fast Fourier transfer (FFT). The voltage and current signals are extracted in the EMTP software. Then, Fourier Transform of voltage and current signals are calculated.

The TF method can display the slightest effects of the faults, even for very high-impedance faults on the TF trace. Despite all the advantages of this method, the interpretation of the TF traces is challenging and requires experienced specialists. Hence, in this paper, a convolutional neural network (CNN) and the hybrid method of DRL are suggested for interpreting the TF traces and extracting the features of them. The proposed hybrid approach will be able to accurately categorize and localize the single-phase to ground faults via extracting the features of its TFs.

III. METHODOLOGIES
In this section, we first describe the CNN. Then, the DRL is presented.

A. CONVOLUTIONAL NEURAL NETWORK (CNN)
CNN is one of the powerful deep learning architectures, which is mainly used as a tool for feature extraction, pattern recognition, classification problems, and image processing. CNN inherently extracts features or patterns based on the convolution operator. For extracting features, it benefits from ideas such as local connections, shared weight, integration and multi-layered structure [41], [42]. As shown in Fig. 1, convolutional layers, pooling layers, and fully-connected layers are form the CNN structure. Each layer plays a unique role in this structure until the feature extraction operation is performed in the best possible way [43].

Each convolution layer, in its own structure, includes filters that identify the features in the input data. Convolution operation occurs by passing inputs from each filter. Each filter can introduce several features [44]. Basic CNN uses conventional activation functions such as the sigmoid activation function, in which case it needs to calculate an exponent. In dealing with high nonlinear data, this issue will have problems such as increased training and evaluation times.

To prevent this problem, CNN uses a nonlinear activation function $f(x) = \max(0, x)$ called Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) in each convolution layer. The convolutional layer
utilizes a ReLU that is defined in the following [42], [45]:

\[ x_j^l = f \left( \sum_{i \in M_j} x_i^{l-1} \ast k_{ij} + b_j^l \right) \]  

(2)

where \( x_j^l \) shows the product of the \( j \)-th filter in \( l \)-th convolutional layer, \( f \) is a nonlinear activation function, operator \( \ast \) shows convolution, \( k_{ij} \) denotes the convolutional kernel of the \( l \)-th layers between the \( i \)-th input and the \( j \)-th output feature maps, and \( b_j^l \) defines the bias.

After performing the convolution stage in CNN, another important stage is pooling. A pooling operation is a form of sub-sampling of the convolution layer with a summary statistic. Average pooling and Max pooling are two types of pooling operations. The average pooling takes the average value of the extracted features and transfers it to the next convolution layer, so most commonly utilized in CNN is max-pooling. Max Pooling issues the maximum values for each sub-region outputs by dividing the input data into a set of non-overlapping rectangles. The pooling layer has effective advantages for CNN, such as reducing the free variables for reaching the dimensionality reduction and ensure the invariance to shift and distortion. The pooling layer is formulated as the following form [42], [45]:

\[ x_j^l = f \left( \beta_j^l \text{pooling} \left( x_j^{l-1} \right) + b_j^l \right) \]  

(3)

where operator \( \text{pooling}() \) demonstrates the pooling stage and \( \beta \) is the pooling kernel.

Convolutional and max-pooling layers are known as the center of the CNN. After extracting the features of the input data via several end-to-end convolutional and pooling operations, the upper-layers are consisting of fully-connected layers same as a multilayer perceptron (MLP) neural network in order to calculate the weight and scores of the inputs or extracted features [41], [45]. Finally, the classification of the features is done using a Softmax function after fully-connected layers in the last part of the CNN structure as follows [41]:

\[
O_j = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^{c} \exp(\theta^c x)} \begin{bmatrix} P(y=1|x;\theta) \\ P(y=2|x;\theta) \\ \vdots \\ P(y=c|x;\theta) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \exp(\theta^1 x) \\ \exp(\theta^2 x) \\ \vdots \\ \exp(\theta^c x) \end{bmatrix}
\]  

(4)

where \( \theta^c x \) denotes the factors of the classification layer and \( c \) represent the number of classes.

### B. DEEP REINFORCEMENT LEARNING (DRL)

RL is an important application of machine learning. The task of RL can usually be described as a Markov decision process (MDP). As shown in Fig. 2, RL has four important components such as agent, environment, action (At), and reward (Rt). Gaining ideal experience through the interaction between the environment and the agent can be described as the main idea of RL [46], [47].

RL operates based on the sustainable environment knowledge with a feedback loop for quality and appropriate decisions. It should be noted that RL is a well-known learning algorithm based on the agent so that the agent behaves by performing work and achieving results in the environment. Trial-and-error search and delayed reward are two main features of RL [47]. Trial-and-error search indicates the occurrence of a trade-off between exploration and exploitation. Preferably, the agent wants to use the effective actions taken in the past to generate the reward, however, the agent must discover better new actions that may have a higher reward in the future. By trying different actions, the agent should gradually support those who receive the most rewards [48], [49]. Recently, solving RL problems has been improved by adding multilayer neural networks to their structure, which is known as DRL. The powerful ability of the deep neural network in pattern recognition, feature extraction, image processing has increased the efficiency of RL. Deep Q-networks (DQNs) are one of the powerful DLRs algorithms proposed in 2013. High accuracy, stability and high speed of the training process are the most important advantages of this model [50], [51]. Identifying and correctly diagnosing samples in the training data is the principal idea of the classification agent. The classification agent with accurate and high-precision diagnoses includes positive rewards. Therefore, it will be able to achieve its goal by maximizing the cumulative rewards at [52]:

\[ g_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k r_{t+k} \]  

(5)

where, \( \gamma \) is the discount factor to balance the immediate and future reward, \( r_t \) is the reward at time \( t \) and shows the feedback from the environment.

Through it, the success or failure of the agent’s actions can be measured. In DQN, a function called the Q function is as follows, which calculates the quality of a mode-action combination [52]:

\[ Q^\pi(s,a) = E_{\pi} \left[ g_t \mid s_t = s, a_t = a \right] \]  

(6)

where \( s \) demonstrates the current state and \( a \) represents the action. During the DQN training process, in order to reflect the result of the agent-environment interaction in the action value function (AVF) \( (s,a) \), an update of the action value of the function is performed by collecting the experience data set by the agent. Using the following Bellman equation, a duplicate update process is formed from the AVF [51].

\[ Q_{t+1}(s,a) = \max_{a'} E \left[ r + \gamma P_{a'} Q_t(s',a') \mid s, a \right] \]  

(7)
where \( s' \) is the next time-step of \( s \) and \( a' \) depicts the action accomplished by the agent at the next time-step.

In DQN, designating an action is performed with the optimal AVF \( Q^* (s, a) \) as the following equation that determines the optimal action.

\[
Q^* (s, a) = \max_a E \left[ r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 r_{t+2} + \ldots \right]
\]

where \( \pi \) as a classification policy is a function that receives a sample and returns probabilities of all labels.

Q functions cannot be solved in high-dimensional continuous mode space. It is essential to present a deep Q-learning algorithm that fits the Q function with a deep neural network. As demonstrated in Fig. 3, there are two 230kV transmission lines. The first one, which connects B1 to B2 is a double-circuit line and the second one is a single-circuit line between B2 and B3. Each transmission line distance is 45 miles, and both of the lines are divided into six parts. Constant and lumped parameter line models are utilized in modeling of double and single-circuit lines, respectively. Table 1 and 2 represent the parameters of tower configuration for 230kV double-circuit line and the tower configuration for 230kV single-circuit line, respectively.

More details on the network information are accessible at [54]. The system is simulated in ATP/EMTP environment.

**V. SIMULATION RESULTS**

In this study, single-phase to ground faults are investigated in various segments of a transmission line by applying the faults with different impedances. To apply the fault, the transmission line is divided into six equal parts, each segment (seg) containing 16.66% of the line. In each seg of this line, single-phase to ground fault are created in each phase with the fault impedance of 1, 50, 100, 500, 1000, 3000, and 5000 Ohms. Then, the voltage and current signals for each faulty state are measured and recorded. The stochastic nonlinear current caused by arcing and nonlinear characteristics of high impedance faults have different effects on transient and steady-state responses of the power system. Thus, these effects are used as a criterion for the fault detection. Hence, appropriate models of fault impedance need to be considered that are able to represent nonlinearity, asymmetry, and the
low frequency of high impedance fault currents. In this paper, an Emanuel arc model [55] has been used. In Fig. 4, the EMTP-based simulation model for a high impedance fault is presented. All parameters for 6 arcs are shown in Table 3. Fig. 5 shows the line segments and faults in each seg of the transmission line. After applying various faults, their identification and location are performed in two different steps using the TF method and deep learning applications. Each of the steps is introduced in the following.

### A. STEP 1: IDENTIFYING SINGLE-PHASE TO GROUND SHORT CIRCUIT FAULT VIA THE TF METHOD

In this step, the TF method is used to identify and analyze existing faults. To this end, the equation (1) is utilized to calculate the TF related to the intact and damaged states to illustrate the effects of the fault on the voltage and current signals on the TF traces. Note that the sampling frequency in all steps based on the Nyquist - Shannon Theorem is equal to 28 kHz. Fig. 6 shows the TF related to the intact state of the studied system. Fig. 7 illustrates the TF traces for single-phase to ground short-circuit faults with 1-Ohm resistance in all segments of the transmission line. The TFs related to single-phase to ground short circuit faults are presented in the second seg of the transmission line with the all types of mentioned fault impedances in Fig. 8.

Figs. 7 and 8 show the effect of the location and impedance of the fault on the TF traces, respectively. Comparing the TFs and observing the variations in their amplitude and frequency ranges indicates that there is a fault in the system. According to Fig. 8, it can be observed that with increasing the impedance of fault, changes in the TFs tend to be similar to the intact state TF, making it difficult to detect high impedance faults. Identifying faults in early stages (high impedance faults) can ensure system stability and prevent serious damages to transmission lines and other equipment. Achieving this goal and locating and accurately identifying high-impedance faults requires a precise and robust method for interpreting the TF traces. In this paper, the interpretation of TF traces and the achievement of this important diagnosis method is made using deep learning applications called CNN and DRL in step 2.

### B. STEP 2: LOCALIZATION AND CATEGORIZATION OF SINGLE PHASE TO GROUND SHORT CIRCUIT FAULTS BY DEEP LEARNING APPLICATIONS

In this step, deep learning applications are used to interpret the TF traces. Interpreting the TFs and extracting their features will ensure accurate classification and localization of faults. For this purpose and based on the idea of hybrid models, the hybrid method of DRL is presented in this paper. In addition, the CNN method is applied to the same data to compare the results of both methods. Fig. 9 shows the flowchart of the proposed method for diagnosis transmission line faults. Using learning methods in the first step requires a dataset. TF traces are collected and utilized as a data matrix.

Transmission lines are divided into 6 segments, and in each phase of each segment, single-phase to ground short-circuit faults is tested with 7 different impedance values. Thus, the data matrix consists of 253 traces (126 faulty traces related to internal faults, 126 faulty traces corresponding to external faults, and one trace related to intact state). For internal faults, the location of each fault is considered as the target number (regardless of the severity of the fault) and is assigned a zero target number for the trace of intact state. For external faults related to segs 1 to 6 of the test system, the numbers of 7 to 12 are considered as target, respectively. In the network training and test stages, each seg of the transmission line is defined as a class. Zero number class is also assigned to the TF of the intact state. After designing the networks and determining the dataset as the input of each network, 70% of the data is determined for training and the rest for the test. In the meantime, the selection of training and test data is made randomly by the network itself. Each of the designed networks is trained with relevant data and uses test data to validate the training. After training and testing, the performance and results for each network are evaluated via statistical performance metrics. In this paper, correlation coefficient (R), mean absolute error (MAE), and root mean squared error (RMSE) are used to evaluate the performance of each network. How to calculate each of these metrics is as follows:

#### TABLE 3. Arcs Parameters of HIF.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>parameter</th>
<th>T(on/off)</th>
<th>(R_p)</th>
<th>(R_n)</th>
<th>(V_p)</th>
<th>(V_n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arc 1</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1505</td>
<td>9000</td>
<td>10000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arc 2</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>9000</td>
<td>9600</td>
<td>8000</td>
<td>9000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arc 3</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>6500</td>
<td>7000</td>
<td>11000</td>
<td>11050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arc 4</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>5800</td>
<td>6500</td>
<td>12000</td>
<td>12500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arc 5</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>10000</td>
<td>11100</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arc 6</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>5300</td>
<td>6200</td>
<td>11000</td>
<td>11500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
follows [56], [57]:

\[
R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - \bar{X})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{N} (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}} \quad (12)
\]

\[
MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - Y_i)^2 \quad (13)
\]

\[
RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (X_i - Y_i)^2} \quad (14)
\]

where \(X_i, \bar{X}, Y_i,\) and \(\bar{Y}\) illustrate the real value, average of real values, predicted value, and average of predicts values, respectively. Figs. 10 and 11 show the results of identifying and categorizing single-phase to ground faults by the DRL model for training and test data, respectively.

The results presented in Fig. 10 show the network training with a high correlation coefficient \((R = 9851)\). When the network is trained with high accuracy, it means that it has been able to extract outstanding features of the data and know their patterns well. It is also observed that the designed network is able to distinguish data related to external faults from the internal single-phase to ground short circuit faults related to the same segment. The results provided for network testing are also acceptable, and the test phase and location detection of single-phase to ground short circuit faults for test data have been performed with a high correlation coefficient \((R \approx 0.9804)\). Fig. 12 shows the MSE and RMSE errors for the testing stage of the DRL network. It should be noted that the error values of MSE and RMSE for the training stage of the DRL were zero. The training and test steps for identifying and classifying single-phase to ground short circuit faults were performed by CNN, and the results of R, MSE, and RMSE of the CNN are presented in Table 4. This table also compares the results of both the CNN and DRL methods in diagnosing single-phase to ground short circuit faults.

The results presented in Table 5 show the accuracy and efficiency of the proposed methods for detecting and locating single-phase to ground short circuit faults in the transmission line. It can be seen that the proposed hybrid method of DRL has been able to pass the training and testing stages more accurately than the CNN method and provide better results.

One of the important parameters of short circuit faults is the fault inception angle (FIA) (ranging from 0 to 90 degrees). In this paper, in order to evaluate the performance of the proposed method against the FIA, single phase to ground short circuit faults with the inception angles of 30, 60, and 90 degrees are also tested in each seg of the test system. The TFs associated with each fault are calculated and used as the test data for trained networks. Figs. 13, 14, and 15 show the detection results for faults with the inception angles of 30, 60, and 90, respectively.

It is observed that the proposed method is able to distinguish faults with different inception angles. The networks were trained with the zero inception angle faults and are able to detect faults with the inception angles of 30, 60, and 90 with the R values of 0.9760, 0.9680, and 0.9600, respectively.

Fault detection during power swing can be very challenging. In order to assess the performance of the proposed method against the power swing, faults with the power swing are generated in the test system and their TFs are calculated and selected as test data for trained networks. Fig. 16 shows the detection results for the power swing faults.

The results presented in Fig. 16 show the accurate performance of the proposed method in identifying single-phase to
ground short circuit faults in the presence of power swing in the test system. It is observed that the trained network is able to provide R value of 0.9680 in this prediction.

The nature of the power system and its topology can change by altering the short circuit levels at both ends power systems. However, the protection system must be able to operate accurately despite changes in the short-circuit fault level. In order to assess the performance of the proposed method, single phase to ground short circuit faults are applied in each seg of the test system under two conditions, (i) equal sources and (ii) stronger remote source. The TFs related to the tested faults in each condition were considered as test dataset for the trained network. Figs. 17 and 18 show the fault detection results under two mentioned conditions, respectively.

The results presented in Figs. 17 and 18 show that the proposed method has a satisfactory performance against the change in the nature of the power system and its topology due to changes in the short circuit level. The proposed method was able to detect system faults in terms of equal resources with the R values of 0.9840 and in conditions of stronger remote source with the R values of 0.9520.

It should be noted that due to the fact that the detection and identification of single-phase to ground short circuit faults in the early stages (high impedance) is very valuable and is one of the goals of this paper. High impedance faults are identified in the following of this section. To do this, in each seg of this line, single-phase to ground short circuit fault were tested in each phase with impedance values of 300, 7000, and 9000 Ohms. Then, the voltage and current signals for each
fault were recorded. The TF related to each of these faults were calculated and used as input for each of the trained networks. Tables 5 and 6 show the results of identifying and locating new and unknown faults by CNN and DRL, respectively.

In fault detection operations in power systems, one of the most important issues is the detection time. The use of deep learning and machine learning applications in fault detection operations, in addition to reducing computational complexity, has also significantly reduced fault detection time compared to other conventional and traditional methods. In these methods, due to the difference in the performance of the training
TABLE 5. Diagnosis and locating new single-phase to ground short circuit faults (high impedance) via CNN.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Real value</th>
<th>Impedance</th>
<th>CNN prediction</th>
<th>Real value</th>
<th>Impedance</th>
<th>CNN prediction</th>
<th>Real value</th>
<th>Impedance</th>
<th>CNN prediction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-a-g</td>
<td>R=300 Ω</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2-a-g</td>
<td>R=700 Ω</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-a-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-b-g</td>
<td>R=300 Ω</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2-b-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-b-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-c-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2-c-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-c-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-a-g</td>
<td>R=300 Ω</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5-a-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6-a-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-b-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5-b-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6-b-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-c-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5-c-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6-c-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 6. Diagnosis and locating new single-phase to ground short circuit faults (high impedance) via DRL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Real value</th>
<th>Impedance</th>
<th>DRL prediction</th>
<th>Real value</th>
<th>Impedance</th>
<th>DRL prediction</th>
<th>Real value</th>
<th>Impedance</th>
<th>DRL prediction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-a-g</td>
<td>R=300 Ω</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2-a-g</td>
<td>R=700 Ω</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-a-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-b-g</td>
<td>R=300 Ω</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2-b-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-b-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-c-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2-c-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-c-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-a-g</td>
<td>R=300 Ω</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5-a-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6-a-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-b-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5-b-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6-b-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-c-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5-c-g</td>
<td>R=7000 Ω</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6-c-g</td>
<td>R=9000 Ω</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and test stages, the operating time of each is also different. In this paper, the training time for the CNN and DRL is 62.41s and 37.86s, respectively. The test stage or single phase to ground short circuit detection are performed by each of the CNN and DRL networks in 0.9s and 0.5s, respectively. It should be noted that this time is related to identifying the total fault samples of each dataset at each stage. Each of the CNN and DRL techniques detects each fault sample in 0.014 s and 0.009 s, respectively. The calculations performed and the time obtained for fault detection are performed in a ASUS system with the CPU of Intel Core i7-3630QM, 2.4GHz, and the fault detection time can be various in the use of other systems.

After testing each of the trained and saved networks using new and high-impedance faults, Table 7 shows the results of this step for both CNN and DRL by R, MSE, and RMSE metrics. Also, this table provides a comparative approach to results of single-phase to ground short circuit fault detection.
in transmission line for the methods used in this paper and other solutions presented in other studies.

Based on the results presented in Table 7, it can be seen that the trained networks were, in most cases, able to detect and locate high impedance faults. Comparing the results of the proposed methods, it was observed that the CNN method with 95.21% accuracy and DRL method with 96.61% accuracy were able to locate new and unknown faults. At this stage, the results confirmed the superiority and efficiency of the proposed hybrid model of DRL in detecting the single-phase to ground short circuit faults. Interpretation of TF traces using learning methods can be the best step in locating transmission line faults and be important in improving condition monitoring issues of the power system. Finally, it should be noted that the suggested methods in this paper are also applicable for real-world data.
short circuit faults indicated the superiority and efficiency of the results of detecting and locating single-phase to ground input datasets for each network. After training and testing, classify the faults. The TF traces were collected and used as CNN and the hybrid model of DRL were utilized to classify features in the TF traces, deep learning applications called line. In order to improve the TF method and extract the fault impedances and fault location on the transmission test impedances and voltage and current signals for each fault. short circuit faults were monitored and saved with different segments so that each part represents one location (class). In all three phases of these segments, single-phase to ground short circuit faults are proposed. This paper aims to identify and accurately locate single-phase to ground short circuit faults in power networks. To this end, the deep learning applications to interpret the TFs related to single-phase to ground short circuit faults are proposed. For this purpose, a standard IEEE transmission line has been used. The transmission line is divided into 6 equal segments so that each part represents one location (class). In all three phases of these segments, single-phase to ground short circuit faults were monitored and saved with different test impedances and voltage and current signals for each fault. The TF method was introduced and used to assess the effects of the fault impedances and fault location on the transmission line. In order to improve the TF method and extract the features in the TF traces, deep learning applications called CNN and the hybrid model of DRL were utilized to classify the faults. The TF traces were collected and used as input datasets for each network. After training and testing, the results of detecting and locating single-phase to ground short circuit faults indicated the superiority and efficiency of the hybrid model of DRL compared to CNN. DRL method passed the training and test stages with a correlation coefficient of \( R = 98.51\% \) and \( R = 98.04\% \), respectively, while these results were observed in the conventional CNN, \( R = 98.16\% \) for training and \( R = 96.12\% \) for test. Then, in order to achieve the goal of early detection of single-phase to ground short circuit fault (high impedance), faults with high impedances (7000 and 9000 ohms) are implemented according to the previous routine in the transmission line. TF traces of new faults were used as inputs for test the saved networks. At this stage, the DRL method was \( R = 96.61\% \) more effective and powerful than the CNN method, which provided \( R = 95.21\% \) correlation coefficient. It should be noted that the use of learning methods can be an important step towards improving condition monitoring issues in power systems. Note that the presented method is non-pilot method and utilizes local data.

**VI. CONCLUSION**

This paper aims to identify and accurately locate single-phase to ground short circuit faults in power networks. To this end, the deep learning applications to interpret the TFs related to single-phase to ground short circuit faults are proposed. For this purpose, a standard IEEE transmission line has been used. The transmission line is divided into 6 equal segments so that each part represents one location (class). In all three phases of these segments, single-phase to ground short circuit faults were monitored and saved with different test impedances and voltage and current signals for each fault. The TF method was introduced and used to assess the effects of the fault impedances and fault location on the transmission line. In order to improve the TF method and extract the features in the TF traces, deep learning applications called CNN and the hybrid model of DRL were utilized to classify the faults. The TF traces were collected and used as input datasets for each network. After training and testing, the results of detecting and locating single-phase to ground short circuit faults indicated the superiority and efficiency of the hybrid model of DRL compared to CNN. DRL method passed the training and test stages with a correlation coefficient of \( R = 98.51\% \) and \( R = 98.04\% \), respectively, while these results were observed in the conventional CNN, \( R = 98.16\% \) for training and \( R = 96.12\% \) for test. Then, in order to achieve the goal of early detection of single-phase to ground short circuit fault (high impedance), faults with high impedances (7000 and 9000 ohms) are implemented according to the previous routine in the transmission line. TF traces of new faults were used as inputs for test the saved networks. At this stage, the DRL method was \( R = 96.61\% \) more effective and powerful than the CNN method, which provided \( R = 95.21\% \) correlation coefficient. It should be noted that the use of learning methods can be an important step towards improving condition monitoring issues in power systems. Note that the presented method is non-pilot method and utilizes local data.

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