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# Single-ended DC Fault Location Method For MMC-Based HVDC Power System Using Adaptive Multi-step Levenberg-Marquardt Algorithm

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**Abstract**—This article presents an accurate DC fault location method that applies parameter fitting. This technique first discusses the traveling wave (TW) propagation process in the decoupled line-mode network. We obtain the exact fault distance equation based on the analytical expressions for the wavefront of backward line-mode voltage TW. The adaptive multi-step Levenberg-Marquardt's (AMLM) algorithm is used for parameter fitting due to its fast processing speed and accuracy. The exact fault location can then be estimated using the parameter fitting results. The proposed fault location method is validated using a three-terminal HVDC system modeled on a real-time digital simulator (RTDS) platform. Based on the experimental results, the proposed method accurately detects the fault location, with all estimated errors smaller than 1%, and can withstand 40 dB noise interference. Moreover, the proposed method does not need a high sampling frequency and communication device. Its accuracy is independent of fault resistance and type compared to existing methods.

**Index Terms**—HVDC, VSC, backward traveling wave, DC fault location, parameter fitting, Levenberg-Marquardt, RTDS.

## I. INTRODUCTION

**D**UE to the merits of bulk power transmission capacity and flexible active/reactive power regulation, the modular multilevel converter (MMC)-based HVDC system is recognized as the preferred option for power transmission, integrating renewable generations and asynchronous power grids [1], [2]. Generally, HVDC transmission lines are long-distance lines passing along wicket corridors, which makes DC faults unpredictable. Thus, it is crucial to implement DC fault detection, fault clearance, fault location, and post-fault recovery schemes to maintain the stability of the HVDC system. An accurate fault location method would significantly reduce the fault impact and accelerate system restoration processes within these aspects.

Currently, substantive research has been conducted on DC transmission line fault location, including the natural frequency method, fault analysis method, active signal injection method, and traveling wave method. The natural frequency methods are proposed in [3]–[5]. These methods mainly rely on the characteristics of the natural frequency components presented in the post-fault voltage/current. Generally, these methods require an extremely high sampling frequency and fail to discriminate the fault location if the fault point is

close to the line terminal. The fault analysis methods calculate the voltage/current expressions at any point and then locate the fault based on the fault characteristics of measured voltages/currents. The frequency analyzing methods in [6]–[9] do not require a high sampling frequency to identify the TW front. However, the accuracy of the fault analysis method is vulnerable to the transmission line parameters [10]. The fault location methods of active signal injection are proposed in [11]–[13], which actively inject a specific detecting signal and thus identify the fault location via the features of the response signals. However, additional equipment or a control loop for signal injection is required. Besides, the injected signal may also affect the stable operation of other healthy lines. The traveling-wave based-methods are featured high precision and reliability and are not influenced by fault resistance. The general principle is to establish the mathematical relationship between the TW's propagation time, velocity, and fault distance based on the TW's law. However, the performance of these methods have inherent drawbacks. For example, the double-ended methods in [14], [15] can only be applied in systems with accurate signal measurements and high-fidelity synchronized communication channels, which increase the overall investments and the risk of data damage during data synchronization. The single-ended methods in [16], [17] require an extremely high-sampling frequency to estimate the TW's precise velocity and are also susceptible to noise intervention.

According to the superposition theorem, the fault point can be seen as a Thévenin voltage source. The fault-induced voltage TW at the fault point is a step wave, which can be split up into backward and forward traveling waves. The wavefront of backward voltage traveling waves can be approximated as an exponential function, whose time constant is highly associated with fault distance [18]. To this end, the fault location can be realized by parameter fitting of the backward voltage TW's wavefront.

This study first analyzes the characteristics of the propagation process of backward line-mode voltage traveling wave (BLVTW). Then a novel on parameter fitting using the Adaptive Multi-step Levenberg-Marquardt (AMLM) algorithm for the fault location is proposed. Compared with the existing fault

location methods, the novelty and the main contributions of our research are threefold. Firstly, the proposed fault location method does not require an extremely high sampling frequency (20 kHz in this work) to detect the TW, significantly reducing hardware requirements and investment in practical applications. Secondly, the performance of the proposed method is not affected by fault resistance and fault type, which ensures its accuracy and robustness. Thirdly, the proposed method eliminates the need for additional communication and synchronization device precise estimation of TW velocity compared with traditional methods.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows. Section II gives the analytical expressions of backward line-mode voltage traveling waves. Section III demonstrates the proposed fault location method based on the AMLM algorithm. Section IV provides performance validation of the proposed fault location method via the RTDS platform. Finally, conclusions and future work are provided in Section V.

## II. CHARACTERISTIC OF BACKWARD LINE-MODE VOLTAGE TRAVELING WAVE AFTER DC INTERNAL FAULT

### A. MMC-Based HVDC Power System Set-up

The structure of the studied system is given in Fig. 1. The voltage level is  $\pm 525$  kV, and thus, corresponds to the planned HVDC ratings in the North Sea. The control design for MMCs uses the principles outlined in Cigre B4.57 [19]. Specifically, MMC1 and MMC3 implement grid-following control to maintain the DC grid voltage and regulate the active power flow. The wind farms are configured to generate 2 GW of power and are connected to the system via MMC2 using grid-forming control.

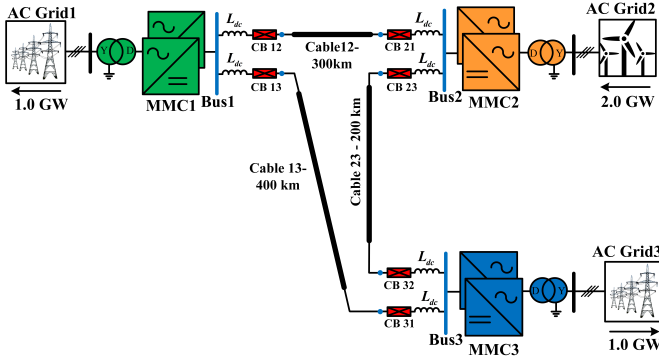


Fig. 1. Configuration of the studied system.

Each cable outlet features the relay units (marked as solid blue circles in Fig. 1) using the SIEMENS traveling wave protection (TWP) method, which is detailed in [20]. Additionally, each cable outlet employs the VSC-assisted resonant current (VARC) DCCB as described in [21]. The parameters of the VARC, originally presented in [21], have been scaled to fit the  $\pm 525$  kV system.

To accurately observe the propagation process of TW, the frequency-dependent (phase) cable model benchmarked by Cigre [19] is adopted. Cable12, cable23, and cable13 have

lengths of 300 km, 200 km, and 400 km, respectively. The complete system parameters are shown in Table. I.

TABLE I  
PARAMETERS OF THE MMC-BASED HVDC POWER SYSTEM

| Parameter                             | MMC1    | MMC2    | MMC3    |
|---------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| Nominal system frequency (Hz)         | 50      | 50      | 50      |
| MMC (one pole) rated capacity (MVA)   | 1000    | 1000    | 1000    |
| Transformer ratio (D/Y <sub>n</sub> ) | 275/380 | 275/220 | 275/400 |
| Transformer leakage inductance (p.u.) | 0.18    | 0.18    | 0.18    |
| Number of arm sub-module (SM)         | 200     | 200     | 200     |
| Arm inductance (mH)                   | 4.97    | 4.97    | 4.97    |
| Capacitance of each SM (mF)           | 15      | 10      | 15      |
| SM capacitor voltage rating (kV)      | 2.0     | 2.0     | 2.0     |
| DC inductor $L_{dc}$ (mH)             | 80      | 80      | 80      |

### B. Initial Values of Voltage At The Fault Point

Through pole-mode transformation, the symmetrical bipolar transmission system can be represented as an independent line- and zero-mode network. The line- and zero-mode voltages  $v_1$ , and  $v_0$ , and currents  $i_1$ , and  $i_0$  can be obtained by applying the following transformation matrix [22]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_0 \\ v_1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_p \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} i_0 \\ i_1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_p \\ i_n \end{bmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

where  $v_p$ ,  $v_n$ ,  $i_p$ , and  $i_n$  denote the voltages and currents monitored at relays of positive and negative poles, respectively.

In contrast to zero-mode components ( $v_0$ ,  $i_0$ ), the line-mode components ( $v_1$ ,  $i_1$ ) propagate along polar lines and thus are not influenced by grounding. As a result, the loop parameters of line-mode components remain unchanged. Therefore, line-mode components are the preferred parameters in our work due to their higher propagation velocity and smaller attenuation constant.

The fault-induced initial values of the line-mode voltage at the fault point  $\Delta v_{F1}$  for a typical pole-to-pole fault (PTP), positive pole-to-ground (PTG) fault, and negative pole-to-ground (NTG) fault can be expressed as [23]:

$$\begin{cases} \Delta v_{F1} = \frac{-2\sqrt{2}U_f Z_{c(1)}}{2Z_{c(1)} + R_f}, & \text{(PTP)} \\ \Delta v_{F1} = \frac{-2U_f Z_{c(1)}}{Z_{c(1)} + Z_{c(0)} + 2R_f}, & \text{(PTG or NTG)} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where  $U_f$  refers to the rated DC voltage,  $R_f$  denotes the fault resistance,  $Z_{c(1)}$  and  $Z_{c(0)}$  represent the characteristic impedances in the line- and zero-mode network, respectively.

### C. Expressions of BLVTW Measured At Internal Relay Unit

We assume that an internal fault  $f_{12}$  occurs at the studied faulty cable12. The TW propagation process in the line-mode network is illustrated in Fig. 2. The following contents in this subsection aim to achieve the analytical expressions of BLVTW measured relay units in cable 12.

In case of a fault, the voltage and current TWs propagate from the fault point to cable terminals and will be partly reflected and transmitted to the other grid sections when the



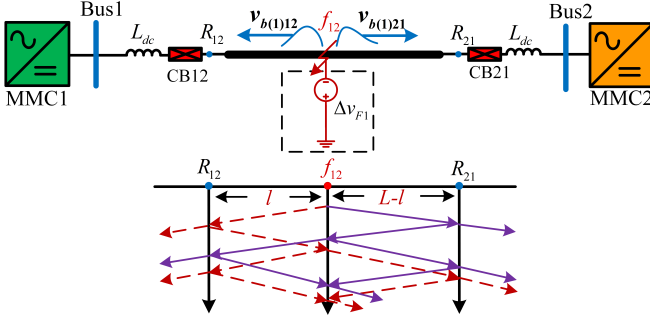


Fig. 2. Diagram of TW propagation process in faulty cable12.

wave impedance changes. According to the TW theory [23], the line-mode voltage  $v_{(1)}(l, t)$  and the current  $i_{(1)}(l, t)$  propagate with the time and space. The expressions for  $v_{(1)}(l, t)$  and  $i_{(1)}(l, t)$  in the line-mode network can be seen as [24]:

$$\begin{cases} v_{(1)}(l, t) = v_{f(1)}\left(t - \frac{l}{v_{(1)}}\right) + v_{b(1)}\left(t + \frac{l}{v_{(1)}}\right), \\ i_{(1)}(l, t) = \left[ v_{f(1)}\left(t - \frac{l}{v_{(1)}}\right) - v_{b(1)}\left(t + \frac{l}{v_{(1)}}\right) \right] / Z_{c(1)}, \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

where  $v_{f(1)}$  represents the voltage of forward traveling wave (FTW), and  $v_{b(1)}$  represents the voltage of backward traveling wave (BTW),  $v_{(1)}$  is the velocity of line-mode TW. The direction of FTW is defined from the DC bus to the cable. In contrast, the direction of BTW is from cable to DC bus.

Since the wavefront of backward TW monitored at relay units are not refracted or reflected by the line boundaries, they are the preferred components to study the initial fault characteristics than forward traveling waves. The general BLVTW in spectral  $S$ -domain  $v_{b(1)}(s)$  can be calculated as:

$$v_{b(1)}(s) = \frac{v_{(1)}(s) - Z_{c(1)}(s)i_{(1)}(s)}{2}. \quad (4)$$

To describe the attenuation effect of TWs with various fault location  $l$ , the wavefront of BLVTW  $v_{b(1)12}(s)$  measured at relay unit  $R_{12}$  can be expressed as [18], [25]:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{b(1)12}(s) &= \frac{\Delta v_{F1}}{s} e^{-\Gamma(s)l} \approx \frac{\Delta v_{F1}}{s} P(s) \\ &= \frac{\Delta v_{F1}}{s} \left( \frac{1 - kl}{1 + s \cdot \tau l} e^{-s \cdot \frac{l}{v_{(1)}}} \right) \\ &= A_0 \left( \frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{s + 1/\tau_0} \right) e^{-s \cdot T_{d0}}, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where  $\Gamma(s)l$  is the TW propagation coefficient representing the attenuation effect and phase shift along with  $l$ , which can be further approximated to a propagation function  $P(s)$  [18]. The constant  $k$  denotes the amplitude attenuation effect per unit length, representing the real part of  $\sqrt{(r_0 + j\omega L_0)(g_0 + j\omega C_0)}$ . Here  $r_0, L_0$  are the per-unit line resistance and inductance, and  $g_0, C_0$  are the per-unit conductance and capacitance, respectively. The constant  $\tau$  denotes the waveform distortion effect per unit length.

The coefficients in (5) can be calculated by:

$$A_0 = \Delta v_{F1}(1 - kl), \quad \tau_0 = \tau l, \quad T_{d0} = l/v_{(1)}. \quad (6)$$

Applying the inverse Laplace transform, we obtain the expressions for the BLVTW and the corresponding time derivative in the time-domain at relay unit  $R_{12}$  as:

$$\begin{cases} v_{b(1)12}(t) = A_0 \left( 1 - e^{-\frac{t-T_{d0}}{\tau_0}} \right) u(t - T_{d0}), \\ v'_{b(1)12}(t) = \frac{A_0}{\tau_0} e^{-\frac{t-T_{d0}}{\tau_0}} u(t - T_{d0}). \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

The expressions for  $v_{b(1)21}(t)$  monitored at  $R_{21}$  can be obtained by replacing the  $l$  into  $(L - l)$  in (6) and (7).

The fault location aims to estimate the fault location  $l$  in the faulty cable. According to (6) and (7), the parameter  $\tau_0$  contained in  $v_{b(1)12}(t)$  is highly associated with the fault location  $l$ . Since  $\tau$  is a known parameter determined by cable parameters, the fault location  $l$  can be determined by estimating the parameter  $\tau_0$  in the sampled signal  $v'_{b(1)12}(t)$  using parameter fitting.

### III. PROPOSED HVDC FAULT LOCATION METHOD USING AMLM-PARAMETER FITTING

This section introduces the principle of parameter fitting using the Adaptive Multi-step Levenberg–Marquardt (AMLM) algorithm for fault location.

#### A. AMLM-Based Parameter Fitting Algorithm

We consider a basic error function for parameter fitting as

$$F(A_0, \tau_0) = v'_{b(1)12} - \frac{A_0}{\tau_0} e^{-\left(\frac{t-T_{d0}}{\tau_0}\right)} = 0. \quad (8)$$

We define  $x$  as a two-dimensional matrix  $x = [A_0, \tau_0]_{1 \times 2}$ . Then, the merit function of (8) is

$$\min_{x \in R^n} \|F(x)\|^2. \quad (9)$$

The AMLM algorithm [26] computes the trial step  $d_k$  at the  $k$ -th iteration by solving

$$(G_k^T G_k + \alpha_k I) d_k = -G_k^T F_k, \quad (10)$$

where  $G_k$  is the Jacobian.  $I$  is an identity matrix.

We define the ratio of the actual changes  $R_k$  to the predicted changes  $P_k$  of the merit function  $\|F(x)\|^2$  as:

$$r_k = \frac{R_k}{P_k} = \frac{\|F_k\|^2 - \|F(x_k + d_k)\|^2}{\|F_k\|^2 - \|F_k + G_k d_k\|^2}. \quad (11)$$

The trial step  $x_k$  is updated by

$$x_{k+1} = \begin{cases} x_k + d_k, & \text{if } r_k \geq p_0, \\ x_k, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

where  $p_0$  is a small positive constant.

The Jacobian  $G_k$  is updated by

$$G_{k+1} = \begin{cases} G_k, & \text{if } r_k \geq p_1 \text{ and } s < t, \\ J_{k+1}, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

where  $0 < p_0 < p_1 < 1$ .

We update the Levenberg–Marquardt parameter  $\alpha_k$  as

$$\alpha_{k+1} = \begin{cases} \alpha_k, & \text{if } r_k \geq p_1 \text{ and } s < t, \\ \beta_{k+1} \|F_{k+1}\|^\delta, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

where

$$\beta_{k+1} = \begin{cases} c_1 \beta_k, & \text{if } r_k < p_2, \\ \beta_k, & \text{if } p_2 \leq r_k \leq p_3, \\ \max\{c_2 \beta_k, \beta_{\min}\}, & \text{if } r_k > p_3. \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

Here stands that  $0 < c_2 < 1 < c_1$ ,  $0 < p_0 < p_2 < p_1 < p_3 < 1$ ,  $1 \leq \delta \leq 2$ , and  $\beta_{\min} > 0$ . Based on (10)-(15), the AMLM algorithm can be established, which can be presented as **Algorithm 1**:

**Algorithm 1** The adaptive multi-step Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm

**Require:**  $x_1 \in R^n, c_1 > 1 > c_2 > 0, 0 < p_0 < p_2 < p_1 < p_3 < 1, 1 \leq \delta \leq 2, t \geq 1, \beta_1 > \beta_{\min}, \beta_{\min} > 0$

**Ensure:** Set  $G_1 = J_1, \alpha_1 = \beta_1 \|F_1\|^\delta, k := 1, s := 1, i := 1, k_i = 1$

**while**  $\|G_{k_i}^T F_{k_i}\| \neq 0$  **do**

  Compute  $d_k$  by solving (10)

  Compute  $r_k = R_k/P_k$  by (11) and set  $x_{k+1}$  by (12).

  Update  $G_{k+1}, \alpha_{k+1}$  and  $\beta_{k+1}$  by (13), (14) and (15), respectively.

  Set  $k = k + 1, .$  If  $G_k$  is the Jacobian  $J_k$  at  $x_k$ , set:  $s = 1, i = i + 1, k_i = k$ , Otherwise, set  $s = s + 1$ .

**end while**

The data window used for parameter fitting starts when the TW arrives at the relay unit and ends when it is reflected at the fault point in the sampled data of  $v_{b(1)12}(t)$ . The parameters in **Algorithm 1** are set as:  $p_0 = 0.0001, p_1 = 0.50, p_2 = 0.25, p_3 = 0.75, c_1 = 4, c_2 = 0.25, \beta_1 = 10^{-5}, \beta_{\min} = 10^{-8}$ , and  $t = 10$ . The values for  $k$  and  $\tau$  in (6) are set to  $k = 5.0 \times 10^{-5}/\text{km}$  and  $\tau = 1.5 \times 10^{-8}\text{s}/\text{km}$  to achieve the optimal parameter fitting results after numerous simulation tests.

### B. Proposed Single-ended Fault Location Method

The coefficients  $A_0$  and  $\tau_0$  can be obtained according to the optimal solution of  $x_k$  generated by **Algorithm 1**. Then, the estimated fault location  $l^*$  can be determined as:

$$l^* = \frac{\tau_0}{\tau}. \quad (16)$$

The proposed AMLM-based fault location method can be illustrated in Fig. 3:

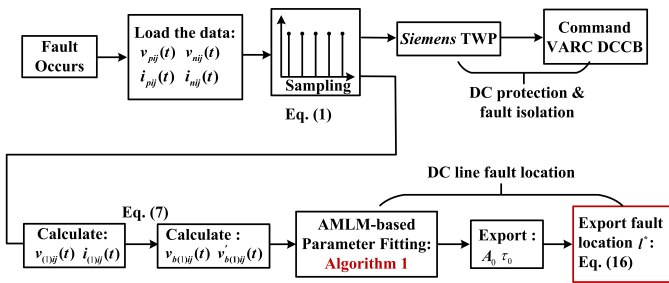


Fig. 3. Illustration of the proposed fault location method.

## IV. EXPERIMENTAL SIMULATION RESULTS

### A. RTDS Set-up

RTDS is utilized for simulating the model depicted in Fig. 1. MMC1 to MMC3 are all modeled using the valve model 'rt ds\_vsc\_FPGA\_GM' in RSCAD/RTDS. The MMCs' capacitor voltage balancing and firing pulse control are realized using the Xilinx Virtex-7 FPGA board (GTFPGA) for its high computation ability [27]. An interface transformer connects the small time step subsystem to the main system with a large time step, which allows using a  $2 \mu\text{s}$  solution-time step for VARC DCCB and MMCs components. The other system components adopt a  $50 \mu\text{s}$  main solution step. In addition, two NovaCor racks are used to model the testing system. The cross-rack communication is conducted via a global bus hub and an IRC switch [27]. The signal exchanges between GTFPGA units and RTDS NovaCor racks are performed via fiber optic cables with the IEC 61850-9-2 standard.

### B. Fault Location Results

To validate the proposed DC fault location method, the internal fault  $f_{12}$  described in Section II is applied at  $t = 0.2 \text{ s}$ . The fault resistance  $R_f$  is set as  $0.001 \Omega$  and  $1.0 \Omega$  as the cable faults are mostly metallic or small-impedance faults in reality [28]. The TWs data in RTDS is sampled with a sampling frequency of  $20 \text{ kHz}$ . The AMLM-based fault location algorithm is coded in Matlab to analyze the data collected from RTDS platform.

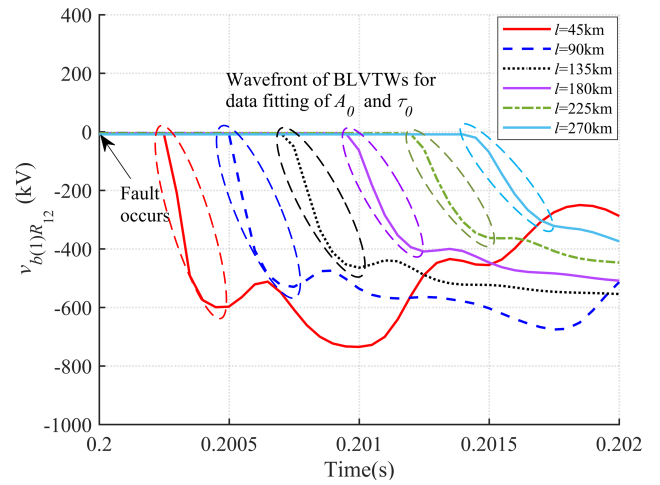


Fig. 4. Monitored  $v_{b(1)12}(t)$  at relay  $R_{12}$  with different fault distance  $l$ .

The results of  $v_{b(1)12}(t)$  under PTP fault is shown in Fig. 4. In the steady-state, the amplitude of  $v_{b(1)12}(t)$  is zero. After DC fault occurrence, the fault-induced voltage  $\Delta v_{F1}$  propagates along the faulty cable, as described in (5). The wavefront of BLVTW  $v_{b(1)12}(t)$  approximates to an exponential function as expressed with equation (7). Its arriving time and attenuation level are related to the fault location  $l$ .

TABLE II  
FAULT LOCATION RESULTS

| $R_f=0.001 \Omega$ |            |        |           | $R_f=1.0 \Omega$ |            |        |           |
|--------------------|------------|--------|-----------|------------------|------------|--------|-----------|
| $l$                | Fault type | $l^*$  | Error (%) | $l$              | Fault type | $l^*$  | Error (%) |
| 45km               | PTG        | 45.37  | 0.12      | 45km             | PTG        | 46.16  | 0.39      |
|                    | NTG        | 45.41  | 0.14      |                  | NTG        | 44.63  | 0.12      |
|                    | PTP        | 45.84  | 0.28      |                  | PTP        | 46.40  | 0.47      |
| 90km               | PTG        | 89.40  | 0.20      | 90km             | PTG        | 89.62  | 0.12      |
|                    | NTG        | 89.41  | 0.19      |                  | NTG        | 89.60  | 0.13      |
|                    | PTP        | 88.96  | 0.34      |                  | PTP        | 88.57  | 0.47      |
| 135km              | PTG        | 134.14 | 0.28      | 135km            | PTG        | 134.24 | 0.25      |
|                    | NTG        | 135.13 | 0.05      |                  | NTG        | 134.23 | 0.25      |
|                    | PTP        | 133.89 | 0.36      |                  | PTP        | 133.94 | 0.35      |
| 180km              | PTG        | 179.51 | 0.16      | 180km            | PTG        | 178.99 | 0.33      |
|                    | NTG        | 179.40 | 0.19      |                  | NTG        | 179.10 | 0.29      |
|                    | PTP        | 179.16 | 0.28      |                  | PTP        | 178.52 | 0.49      |
| 225km              | PTG        | 226.05 | 0.35      | 225km            | PTG        | 224.46 | 0.17      |
|                    | NTG        | 226.00 | 0.33      |                  | NTG        | 224.48 | 0.17      |
|                    | PTP        | 224.39 | 0.20      |                  | PTP        | 223.80 | 0.40      |
| 270km              | PTG        | 270.50 | 0.16      | 270km            | PTG        | 271.01 | 0.33      |
|                    | NTG        | 270.61 | 0.20      |                  | NTG        | 270.93 | 0.30      |
|                    | PTP        | 271.23 | 0.41      |                  | PTP        | 271.75 | 0.58      |

The estimation error to evaluate the accuracy of the proposed fault location method can be seen as follows:

$$\text{Error} = \left| \frac{l - l^*}{L_{\text{cable}12}} \right| \% \quad (17)$$

where  $L_{\text{cable}12}$  is 300km.

The fault location results are summarized in Table II. The results are accurate as all the estimated errors are smaller than 1%. The most serious case is the  $f_{12}|(\text{PTP}, x = 270\text{km}, R_f = 1\Omega)$ , where the estimated fault distance  $l^* = 271.75$  km, and the largest difference with the real fault distance is 1.75 km. Besides, it is visible that fault resistance  $R_f$  and the fault type do not significantly impact the accuracy since the  $R_f$  and fault type only affect the initial value of  $\Delta v_{F1}$ , as it is visible from equations (2) and (6). They will not impact the parameters  $A_0$  and  $\tau_0$  of the exponential function  $v'_{b(1)12}(t)$ . Thus, it is concluded that the  $R_f$  and fault type will not affect the accuracy of the parameter fitting process.

### C. Noise Test

In practical HVDC engineering, the presence of noise can have a significant impact on the performance of protection and fault location algorithms. To validate the performance of the proposed method under noise interference, Gaussian white noise (GWN) is added to the sampled TW data with a signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) level of 40 dB.

According to the results in Table. III, it is apparent that the GWN reduces the accuracy compared with the results in Table. II. This is due to the reason that the object of parameter fitting is the time derivative of  $v'_{b(1)12}(t)$ , of which the calculation of the derivative is susceptible to noise. The most serious case is  $f_{12}|(\text{PTP}, x = 270\text{km}, R_f = 1.0\Omega)$ , the largest error with the real fault distance is 2.88 km. Overall,

TABLE III  
FAULT LOCATION RESULTS WITH 40dB NOISE

| $R_f=0.001 \Omega$ |            |        |           | $R_f=1.0 \Omega$ |            |        |           |
|--------------------|------------|--------|-----------|------------------|------------|--------|-----------|
| $l$                | Fault type | $l^*$  | Error (%) | $l$              | Fault type | $l^*$  | Error (%) |
| 45km               | PTG        | 46.92  | 0.64      | 45km             | PTG        | 47.21  | 0.74      |
|                    | NTG        | 46.09  | 0.36      |                  | NTG        | 46.42  | 0.47      |
|                    | PTP        | 46.27  | 0.42      |                  | PTP        | 47.35  | 0.78      |
| 90km               | PTG        | 88.47  | 0.51      | 90km             | PTG        | 89.75  | 0.08      |
|                    | NTG        | 88.36  | 0.54      |                  | NTG        | 88.74  | 0.41      |
|                    | PTP        | 87.73  | 0.75      |                  | PTP        | 88.97  | 0.34      |
| 135km              | PTG        | 132.41 | 0.86      | 135km            | PTG        | 134.48 | 0.17      |
|                    | NTG        | 136.56 | 0.52      |                  | NTG        | 133.15 | 0.61      |
|                    | PTP        | 133.05 | 0.65      |                  | PTP        | 134.74 | 0.09      |
| 180km              | PTG        | 178.04 | 0.65      | 180km            | PTG        | 178.66 | 0.44      |
|                    | NTG        | 178.23 | 0.59      |                  | NTG        | 178.21 | 0.59      |
|                    | PTP        | 177.83 | 0.72      |                  | PTP        | 178.05 | 0.64      |
| 225km              | PTG        | 227.17 | 0.72      | 225km            | PTG        | 225.60 | 0.20      |
|                    | NTG        | 226.89 | 0.63      |                  | NTG        | 223.98 | 0.33      |
|                    | PTP        | 226.87 | 0.62      |                  | PTP        | 222.98 | 0.67      |
| 270km              | PTG        | 271.97 | 0.66      | 270km            | PTG        | 272.77 | 0.92      |
|                    | NTG        | 268.84 | 0.38      |                  | NTG        | 271.46 | 0.49      |
|                    | PTP        | 272.23 | 0.74      |                  | PTP        | 272.88 | 0.95      |

the fault location results under noise interference are accurate as all the estimated errors are smaller than 1%. Therefore, the results confirm that the proposed method is sufficiently robust and accurate to withstand noise interference.

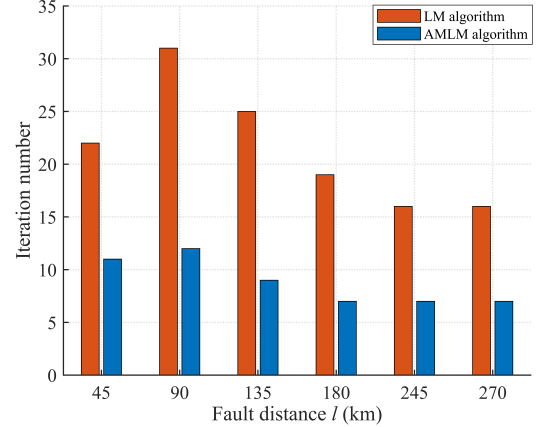


Fig. 5. Comparison of iteration numbers for parameter fitting between AMLM and LM algorithm in [29].

### D. Comparison Study

Although the classical parameter fitting method in [29] has better computational accuracy than the other algorithms, such as the Gradient Descent algorithm, Newton's algorithm, Gaussian Newton's algorithm, etc., it has a long computation time. It requires large memory due to massive iterations for Jacobi matrix. The AMLM algorithm used in our work can solve this problem efficiently. The comparison results are shown in Fig. 5. The iteration number of AMLM algorithm is

much less than that of the location method presented in [29] when fitting the parameters of sampled TW data, effectively reducing computation time and memory size while ensuring fault location accuracy.

## V. CONCLUSION

This study presents a fresh perspective on the fault location method for the MTDC system using backward line-mode voltage TWs. First, it is shown that the wavefront of backward line-mode voltage TWs can be approximated to an exponential function, with the DC fault distance embedded in its parameter. Next, the AMLM algorithm is utilized as the parameter fitting tool, offering high accuracy and iteration speed. The calculating procedure of the AMLM algorithm is also explained in detail. Lastly, the accuracy of the fault location method is validated via RTDS platform.

Based on the results, the proposed method is accurate, with all the errors being less than 1%. Furthermore, its performance is independent of fault resistance and type. The proposed method does not require a high sampling frequency and communication channel, thus significantly reducing the hardware requirements and investment in practical applications. The authors also thoroughly investigated noise tests. The presented results confirm the superior performance in withstanding the 40 dB noise. However, further efforts are still needed to improve the method in withstanding noise interference and fault location accuracy.

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