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ЭЛЕКТРОННЫЙ НАУЧНО-ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ ЖУРНАЛ

Деятельность научно-практического журнала «Горные науки и технологии» (Mining Science and Technology (Russia)) направлена на развитие международного научного и профессионального сотрудничества в области горного дела.

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Kislov E. V. et al. Dolomite type nephrite processing wastes and their application

MINING ROCK PROPERTIES. ROCK MECHANICS AND GEOPHYSICS

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Dolomite type nephrite processing wastes and their application

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Abstract

The demand for ornamental stone material has led to an increase in the amount of rock mass being processed. However, the production of lapidary works and jewelry result in a significant amount of waste. This study aims to investigate the material composition and physical and mechanical properties of the solid wastes generated during the processing of dolomite type nephrite in the Vitim region. The accumulation of such waste leads to increased costs of transportation, storage, security, and negative environmental impact. The majority of dolomite type nephrite deposits are located in the Northwest, Northeast, and South of China, in South Korea, Australia, Italy, and Poland, with a large deposit in the Vitim region of Russia. In this study, the waste from the Kavoktinsky deposit, the most productive in Russian, was used. A visual and petrographic examination of nephrite, skarn and amphibolite which are components of the solid waste, was conducted. The macro- and microchemical composition of nephrite of different colors was studied, and X-ray phase analysis was performed. The decorative properties of the waste were determined. A radiation and hygienic certificate was obtained. The waste has a crushability grade of 1200, abrasion grade of I1, and frost resistance of F400. The study has shown that the waste does not contain grains of incompetent rocks, clay, dust, and clay particles. The solid waste form the Vitim nephrite processing is of high quality and meets the requirements of GOST 8267-93, except for an increased content of flagstone (flattened) and large size fragments. It can be used for the production of ordinary, decorative, and mosaic concrete, decorative plates, interior decoration of premises, bathrooms, and saunas, and the manufacture of souvenir products. However, further research is needed to investigate the application of the waste as a raw material for stone casting and a slow-release fertilizer. The utilization of this waste not only solves the problem of waste disposal but also improves economic performance of mineral extraction.

Keywords

nephrite, processing, processing waste, the Vitim region, mineral composition, chemical composition, decorative properties, physical and mechanical properties, utilization

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Kislov E. B. et al. Dolomite type nephrite processing wastes and their application

СВОЙСТВА ГОРНЫХ ПОРОД. ГЕОМЕХАНИКА И ГЕОФИЗИКА

Научная статья

Отходы переработки аподоломитового нефрита и направление их использования

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Аннотация

Камнесамоцветное сырье пользуется повышенным спросом, что приводит к возрастающему объему перерабатываемой горной массы. Обогащение исходного сырья, изготовление камнерезных и ювелирных изделий сопровождаются образованием большого количества отходов. Представленное исследование направлено на изучение вещественного состава и физико-механических свойств твердых отходов переработки аподоломитового нефрита Витимского региона. Образование отходов в значительном количестве приводит к затратам на перевозку, хранение и охрану, ухудшает экологическую обстановку. Месторождения аподоломитового нефрита находятся в Витимском регионе России. Наибольшее их количество сосредоточено на Северо-Западе, Северо-Востоке и Юге Китая, в меньшей мере – в Южной Корее, Австралии, Италии и Польше. В работе использованы отходы переработки наиболее продуктивного российского месторождения аподоломитового нефрита – Кавоктинского. Проведено визуальное и петрографическое изучение нефрита, скарна и амфиболита твердых отходов. Изучен макро- и микрохимический состав нефрита различного цвета, выполнен рентгенофазовый анализ. Определены декоративные свойства. Получен радиационно-гигиенический сертификат. Отходы имеют марки по дробимости 1200, по истираемости – И1, по морозостойкости – F400. Проведенные исследования показали, что в их составе не содержатся зерна слабых пород, а также глина, пылевидные и глинистые частицы. Твердые отходы переработки нефрита Витимского региона имеют высокое качество, соответствуют требованиям ГОСТ 8267-93, за исключением повышенного содержания фрагментов лещадных (уплощенных) и повышенного размера. Они могут использоваться в производстве обычного, декоративного и мозаичного бетонов, декоративных плит, внутренней отделки помещений, бань и саун, для изготовления сувенирной продукции. Использование в качестве сырья для каменного литья и пролонгированного удобрения требует дополнительного рассмотрения. Все это позволит не только решить проблему утилизации отходов, но и улучшить экономические показатели добычи минерального сырья.

Ключевые слова

нефрит, обогащение, отходы переработки, Витимский регион, минеральный состав, химический состав, декоративные свойства, физико-механические свойства, утилизация

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Introduction

The demand for ornamental stone material has led to an increase in the amount of rock mass being processed. This processing, which includes the production of lapidary works and jewelry, results in the generation of two types of waste: hard fragments and scraps of host rock and substandard nephrite, which are produced during the extraction of grade stone and manufacturing of products, as well as the slime formed during cutting and processing. This slime is a mixture of water, abrasive material, and small stone particles. The volume of these wastes can range from 10 to 35 % of the primary stone material. The increasing amount of waste generated has resulted in higher costs associated with transportation, storage, and security. Moreover, it has a negative impact on the



environment and human health [1-4]. Therefore, recycling of such waste to obtain marketable products is essential.

The slime generated from ornamental stone processing is mainly used for the production of cement, concrete, and ceramics, which enhances their performance. Slimes from granite [5], marble [6–8] are utilized in the production of cements. They replace natural sand in cement mortars [9]. The addition of slime to the clay mixture is beneficial for the production of ceramic materials [10–13]. Solid waste from marble processing is mostly used to produce lime [14]. Granite waste is employed for stabilizing loose grounds [15], whereas marble dust is suitable for clay grounds [16]. Additionally, chips and fragments are used in the production of artificial decorative stones for pedestrian sidewalks [17] and floors of residential and industrial buildings [18].

All of the aforementioned examples are related to the processing waste of granite and marble. While some studies have been devoted to the possibility of utilizing substandard serpentinite type nephrite [19, 20], the processing waste of dolomite type nephrite has not yet been considered, despite its intensive use.

As of January, 2022, 26 nephrite deposits were in the register of the State Balance of Reserves of Russia. In 2021, seven deposits in Buryatia were developed, including Kavoktinsky, Nizhne-Ollominsky, Sergeevsky, and Khaitinsky dolomite type nephrite deposits. As for other dolomite type nephrite deposits, the Voymakansky in Buryatia was being prepared for extraction, while the Udokan in the Trans-Baikal Territory, and Buromsky in Buryatia were being explored. There are no deposits of dolomite type nephrite in the non-licensed stock of prospects/areas. All the deposits are located in the Vitim nephrite-bearing region, with the largest deposit being the Kavoktinsky which had 346.81 tons of C2 category reserves as of January 1, 2022. In 2021, 70.36 tons of nephrite were extracted, amounting to 28.58 % of the Russian production.

Most of the dolomite type nephrite deposits abroad are located in China. The largest known deposits are located in the northwestern provinces of Chin, in the Hetian nephrite-bearing belt located in Xinjiang Uygur autonomous region. This region has been being developed for 6,000 years, both for primary nephrite deposits [21–23], among which the best known and studied is Alamas [24–25], and for famous placer nephrite deposits, Yurungkash ("the river of white nephrite") and Karakash ("the river of black nephrite") [26–28]. The Hetian belt is adjoined from the east by the Altyn Tagh [29, 30] and Southern Altyn Tagh [31, 32] nephrite-bearing districts. Further eastward, the Golmud and other deposits in Qinghai Province are located [33, 34]. A number of deposits are located in the northeastern provinces of China such as Tieli in Heilongjiang Province [35–37], Panshi in Girin Province [38], and Xiuyan and Sangpiyu in Liaoning Province [39, 40]. In East China, the Xiaomeiling deposit in Jiangsu Province is known [41, 42]. In South Central China, the Luanchuan deposits in Henan Province [43, 44] and Dahua deposits in the Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region are presented [45–47]. In Soutwest China, the Longxi deposit in Sichuan Province [48] and Luodian deposit in Guizhou Province [49] are known.

In addition, the Chuncheon deposit in South Korea [50, 51], the Cowell area on the Eyre Peninsula in South Australia [52, 53], the Alpe Mastabia deposit (Val Malenco) in Lombardy, Italy [54], and the Zloty Stok deposit in Lower Silesia, Poland [55–57] are noteworthy.

The aim of this study is to investigate the physical and mechanical characteristics of solid wastes generated during dolomite type nephrite processing and determine potential areas of their utilization.

Research Materials and Methods

This research focuses on the solid waste generated during processing of dolomite type nephrite in the Vitim region, specifically the Kavoktinsky. Oriental Way LLC provided the waste for this study.

Sampling for laboratory analysis was conducted using the point method. A square grid was overlaid onto the batch of waste laid out horizontally, and samples were taken from the center of each grid cells. To ensure the maximum representation of all types of nephrite processing waste, a total of 20 sample weights, weighing 200 kg, were collected from the batch. These representative samples were then used for a detailed examination of the materia (Fig. 1).



Fig. 1. Nephrite processing waste



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The study examined the waste generated from the processing of nephrite to assess its conformity with the technical requirements specified in GOST 8267–93 "Crushed stone and gravel of solid rocks for construction works. Technical conditions" and GOST 8269.0–97 "Crushed stone and gravel of solid rocks and industrial waste for construction works. Methods of physical and mechanical tests".

The research methodology comprised of a mineralogical-petrographic analysis, chemical testing, evaluation of decorative properties, physical and mechanical tests of the waste, and a comparison of the obtained results with the stipulated GOST parameters.

A visual petrographic and mineralogical analysis was conducted on the solid waste samples by obtaining representative samples, measuring their size, and describing their shape using a measuring tape. The samples were then weighed using portable electronic scales, and their fracture and Mohs scale were determined. The presence of fractures and carbonate minerals were identified through of fracturing and diagnosis of carbonate minerals 5 % hydrochloric acid solution, respectively. Petrographic analysis of thin sections was carried out using a polarizing microscope POLAM L-213 in the Geological Institute in Ulan-Ude, Russia.

Silicate analysis was conducted at Geospectr TsKP of GIN SB RAS, Ulan-Ude, using a UNICO 1201 spectrophotometer (United Products and Instruments, USA) that operated in the spectral range of 315–1000 nm. Additionally, we employed a SOLAAR-6M atomic-absorption spectrophotometer (Unicam, England) with appropriate software. We utilized various methods including atomic absorption, flame photometric, gravimetric, and titrimetric methods. For weighing, we used VSL-200/0,1A electronic scales (CJSC VES-SERVICE, St. Petersburg, Russia) with a weighing range of 0.01 to 205 g.

The trace elements grades were determined using a high-resolution HR ICP-MS ELEMENT2 (ThermoFinnigan) mass spectrometric system for multi-element analysis of geological material at the TsKP Geoanalitik of the Institute of Geology, Ural Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Yekaterinburg. Quality control of the results was ensured through parallel analyses of internal control samples and standard rock samples, including SG-1A, SGD-1A, BCR-2. Standard samples BCR2 (U.S. Geological Survey) were included in the normal sample flow for analysis at frequency of 1:5–1:10.

Optical properties such as transparency, color, optical effects, and inclusions were investigated using a MBS-10 binocular and a 20x magnification gemological magnifying glass at KFU in Kazan. The GIA color scale and the requirements of TU 117-3-0761-7-00 were utilized for determining color, color hue, tone, and saturation. The studies were carried out by optical absorption spectroscopy method, and a standardized MSFU-K spectrophotometer was used to record optical absorption spectra in the wavelength range of 400-800 nm in increments of 1 nm. The method of calculating chromaticity coordinates according to the XYZ international colorimetric system was used to measure and describe the coloration of samples. The colorimetric results were placed on the standard color triangle of the Commission International d'Eclairage (ICE-1931), and color coordinates were converted into the GIA systems used for color evaluation. The "Spectrum" specialized program was employed to calculate colorimetric parameters of the minerals according to the CIE Lab international system. All experimental studies were carried out at room temperature, and five spectra were taken from each sample.

The physical and mechanical properties were determined in BIP SB RAS, Ulan-Ude, following the requirements of GOST 8267-93 "Crushed stone and gravel of solid rocks for construction works. Technical Specifications" and GOST 8269.0-97 "Crushed stone and gravel of solid rocks and industrial waste for construction works. Methods of physical and mechanical tests". A fraction of 40-70 mm was selected from the waste to determine the grain composition, while the fraction over 70 mm was crushed using a jaw crusher. The samples were brought to a constant weight, and the moisture content was determined using a ShSU-M1 drying cabinet (JSC Electropribor, St. Petersburg, Russia), with a heating temperature ranging from 50 to 300 °C and the time of heating to the maximum temperature not exceeding 120 minutes. Particle size distribution testing was conducted using a standard set of sieves, and weighing was carried out on MK-15.2-A22/10540 electronic scales (CJSC "Massa-K", St. Petersburg, Russia). X-ray phase analysis was performed using a D8 Advance powder automatic diffractometer of BrukerAXS (Germany) with appropriate software at a rate of 2° per minute in the range from 5 to 70° . For mechanical tests, a PGM-500 hydraulic test press (LLC "SKB Stroypribor", Chelyabinsk, Russia) with a load range up to 50 tons and a speed of plate movement of 10±1 mm min⁻¹ was used. To determine abrasion, an abrasion testing machine KP 123 ("Novoe Delo" LLC, St. Petersburg, Russia) with a diameter of 700 mm, length of 500 mm, and a shelf 100 mm wide on the inner surface was employed.

A radiation and sanitary audit was conducted in compliance with the requirements of GOST 30108–2016 "Materials and products for construction. Deter-



mination of specific effective activity of natural radionuclides". The specific effective activity of natural radionuclides found in nephrite processing waste was measured in the Test Laboratory Center of the Federal Public Health Institution "Center for Hygiene and Epidemiology in the Republic of Buryatia" using an integrated universal spectrometer, USK "Gamma-plus".

Findings

The batch of solid waste consists of angular, isometric to flattened fragments, and irregularly shaped pieces of light-colored raw nephrite. The largest dimension of 75 % of the fragments ranges from 4 to 12 cm, while 25 % of the fragments range from 12 to 15 cm. The coloring of the stone varies from uniform to heterogeneous, sometimes spotted or banded, and includes light-green, grayish-white, often with a bluish tint, light gray, dark gray, brown (honey). The fragments may occasionally contain light green patches and brown margins staining on fractures and surfaces. Visually distinguishable isometric grains of tremolite, calcite, epidote, chlorite, black and emerald-green phenocrysts, dendrites of black manganese hydroxides, and flaky aggregates of brown iron hydroxides may be present in some fragments. The fragments are covered with white matte crusts with dendrites of black manganese hydroxides, and dendrites of black manganese hydroxide, white films of calcite, and brown films of iron hydroxides may also be observed along fractures. Some fragments consist of areas of white matte tremolite-calcite skarns and variously colored metasomatized amphibolite., while others are entirely composed of skarn and amphibolite.

Under binocular microscope magnification, the nephrite includes inclusions of individual crystals and aggregates of calcite and broad-prismatic tremolite, dendrites of manganese hydroxides, flaky aggregates of iron hydroxides, and veins of calcite-tremolite skarn. Fresh chips show uneven, splintered, conchoidal fractures.

Under a petrographic microscope, nephrite is observed to be a practically monomineral aggregate of crystals and the finest fibers of mainly tremolite amphibole with a tangled-fibrous (fibroblast) structure characteristic of nephrite, with individual fibers ranging from a few microns to 0.1×0.5 mm. The shape of the aggregates is mostly parallel-fibrous, fanshaped, and felt-like. Inclusions of individual crystals and aggregates of calcite, broad-prismatic tremolite of isometric or elongated shape with grain size up to 1-10 mm may be observed in places in nephrite. The nephrite is heterogeneously polished, with significant

shagreening in places. The areas of nephrite with the inclusions of other minerals and their aggregate clusters do not take a polish; they are matte and rough. Transparency along the edge of a hand specimen is to a depth of 5 cm.

In the skarn, tremolite is represented by several varieties, including solid porcelain-like tremolite, consisting of tiny, shapeless radiated aggregates with slices, fuzzy aggregates of finely dispersed calcite, and traces of prismatic tremolite crystals. Large shapeless aggregates with relics of split prismatic tremolite replaced by thin-fibrous tremolite, and fine-grained multioriented tremolite with grain sizes ranging from 0.01×0.03 to 0.6×1.3 mm are also present. Lenticular aggregates of fine-grained calcite in various proportions with tremolite are found, and in another case, numerous single grains, panicle-like, radial-beam aggregates of tremolite with apatite alternate with nephrite-like areas composed of micro- and fine-grained tremolite. Diopside and plagioclase are also present.

The predominant mineral found in amphibolite is tremolite, with the occasion presence of actinolite. Tremolite is commonly observed in large calcite grains, where it appears as thin, elongate needle-like prisms that penetrate the host mineral parallel to one another. Actinolite is typically inequigranular, forming aggregates with rare calcite and intergrowths of prismatic epidote. These aggregates may form radial fibrous intergrowths, with potassium feldspar occasionally present in small angular interstices. The calcite grains contain inclusions of dolomite, epidote, chlorite, and quartz which can occupy up to 30 % of the host mineral area. Zoisite grains and fine-scaly chlorite, and they can form unusual spotlike aggregates among calcite grains. Xenomorphic quartz grains are often found saturated with rhombic, needle-like crystals of tremolite and/or epidote, which can occupy up to 25 % of the host mineral area. In some cases, plagioclase is more abundant and can be partially replaced by granular aggregates of epidote and clinozoisite, sometimes forming independent interstitial aggregates that may also contain potassium feldspar. Finally, apatite, sphene, and zircon are present as well.

Tables 1 and 2 provide a detailed breakdown of macro- and micro-components found in nephrite of various colors that were extracted from the solid waste.

The solid waste mineral composition is confirmed by the results of X-ray phase analysis (Fig. 2).

The X-ray diffraction pattern revealed that the primary reflexes of the studied samples corresponded to the minerals tremolite, diopside, chlorite, talcum and calcite.



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The visual description of the samples included color characteristics such as primary color, hue, tone, saturation. Based on these characteristics, two main varieties were identified. The first variety is referred to as white nephrite, which ranges from pure white to slightly saturated grayish or yellowish-brown, and may appear brown (honey-colored) due to iron oxidation, as illustrated in Fig. 3. The second variety is known as light-green (greenish) nephrite, which ranges from bluish to yellow-greenish and may ap-

pear brown (honey-colored) due to oxidation, as depicted in Fig. 4.

The primary color types of the nephrite include white as well as gray with a pale green hue, bright light bluish-green, and bluish-green tones occur. The pattern of the nephrite is uniform, with brown staining edges, and may contain inclusions of prismatic tremolite, calcite and white-colored diopside, which are noticeable due to cleavage.

Table 1

	Grade																
Sample	%									g/t							
	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	Al_2O_3	Fe ₂ O ₃	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	$\mathbf{P}_{2}\mathbf{O}_{5}$	LOI	Total	F	Cr	Со	Ni
KS-6	58.2	< 0.02	0.3	<0.1	0.2	0.04	25.77	12.5	0.08	0.06	<0.1	2.72	99.87	0	<5	6	9.5
KS-7	57.5	< 0.02	0.6	<0.1	0.16	0.02	24.98	12.92	0.08	0.04	<0.1	2.9	99.2	0	<5	9.5	8
KS-8	56.8	< 0.02	0.7	<0.1	0.22	0.03	25.36	13.15	0.1	0.07	<0.1	2.28	98.71	0.32	9	9.8	8

Note: hereinafter, the analyses of nephrites refer to: KS-6 - brown, KS-7 - light-green, and KS-8 - white nephrite.

Table 2

Concentration of trace elements in nephrite, g/t									
KS-6	KS-7	KS-8	Element	KS-6	KS-7	KS-8			
4	7	6	Те	< 0.01	< 0.01	0.026			
11	17	9	Cs	1.8	2.1	0.7			
1	1	0.6	Ba	6	5	8			
50	80	18	La	0.2	0.4	0.35			
8	17	8	Ce	0.47	0.8	0.59			
2.4	4.7	15	Pr	0.06	0.1	0.07			
180	80	140	Nd	0.25	0.41	0.3			
4	6	5	Sm	0.06	0.09	0.07			
11	6	9	Eu	0.01	0.02	0.018			
4.1	6	50	Gd	0.065	0.094	0.069			
14	20	14	Tb	0.01	0.014	0.01			
0.8	2.4	0.9	Dy	0.07	0.09	0.06			
0.5	0.5	0.6	Но	0.015	0.02	0.012			
90	86	80	Er	0.043	0.058	0.033			
0.2	0.17	0.15	Tm	0.006	0.009	0.0036			
2.4	2.9	2.3	Yb	0.04	0.05	0.02			
70	60	60	Lu	0.006	0.008	0.0028			
0.4	0.6	0.5	Hf	0.041	0.06	0.06			
2.1	2.7	2.8	Та	0.019	0.06	< 0.001			
0.06	0.37	0.12	W	16	30	40			
0.22	0.16	0.6	Tl	0.013	0.012	0.005			
< 0.0004	0.027	0.079	Pb	4	8	12			
0.05	0.05	0.09	Bi	< 0.0005	0.057	0.065			
0.11	0.2	0.28	Th	0.008	0.14	0.03			
0.08	0.18	0.24	U	0.026	0.6	0.047			
	KS-6 4 11 50 8 2.4 180 4 11 4.1 14 0.8 0.5 90 0.2 2.4 70 0.4 2.1 0.06 0.22 < 0.0004	KS-6 KS-7 4 7 11 17 1 1 50 80 8 17 2.4 4.7 180 80 4 6 11 6 41 6 11 6 4.1 6 14 20 0.8 2.4 0.5 0.5 90 86 0.2 0.17 2.4 2.9 70 60 0.4 0.6 2.1 2.7 0.06 0.37 0.22 0.16 < 0.0004	KS-6 KS-7 KS-8 4 7 6 11 17 9 1 1 0.6 50 80 18 8 17 8 2.4 4.7 15 180 80 140 4 6 5 11 6 9 4.1 6 50 14 20 14 0.8 2.4 0.9 4.1 6 50 14 20 14 0.8 2.4 0.9 0.5 0.5 0.6 90 86 80 0.2 0.17 0.15 2.4 2.9 2.3 70 60 60 0.4 0.6 0.5 2.1 2.7 2.8 0.06 0.37 0.12 0.22 0.16 0.6 <0.004	KS-6 KS-7 KS-8 Element 4 7 6 Te 11 17 9 Cs 1 1 0.6 Ba 50 80 18 La 8 17 8 Ce 2.4 4.7 15 Pr 180 80 140 Nd 4 6 5 Sm 11 6 9 Eu 4.1 6 50 Gd 14 20 14 Tb 0.8 2.4 0.9 Dy 0.5 0.5 0.6 Ho 90 86 80 Er 0.2 0.17 0.15 Tm 2.4 2.9 2.3 Yb 70 60 60 Lu 0.4 0.6 0.5 Hf 2.1 2.7 2.8 Ta 0.06 <t< td=""><td>KS-6 KS-7 KS-8 Element KS-6 4 7 6 Te < 0.01</td> 11 17 9 Cs 1.8 1 1 0.6 Ba 6 50 80 18 La 0.2 8 17 8 Ce 0.47 2.4 4.7 15 Pr 0.06 180 80 140 Nd 0.25 4 6 5 Sm 0.06 11 6 9 Eu 0.01 4.1 6 50 Gd 0.065 14 20 14 Tb 0.01 0.8 2.4 0.9 Dy 0.07 0.5 0.5 0.6 Ho 0.015 90 86 80 Er 0.043 0.2 0.17 0.15 Tm 0.006 0.4 0.6 0.5 Hf</t<>	KS-6 KS-7 KS-8 Element KS-6 4 7 6 Te < 0.01	KS-6 KS-7 KS-8 Element KS-6 KS-7 4 7 6 Te <0.01			



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One common feature observed in the optical absorption spectra of the nephrite is the presence of a broad absorption band in the near-infrared region, located near 990 nm, as shown in Fig. 5. Further investigation into configuration of this line, combined with chemical analyses of the nephrite, suggests that this band is associated with the spin-allowed transitions ${}^{5}T_{2}$ (${}^{5}D$) $\rightarrow {}^{5}E$ (${}^{5}D$) in Fe²⁺ ions that occupy positions M1, M2, M3, replacing Mg²⁺. In addition, the absorption bands observed around 440 nm and 650 nm in the spectrum of the nephrite are attributed to the spin-allowed transitions from the basic state ${}^{4}A_{2g}$ (${}^{4}F$) to higher energy levels, ${}^{4}T_{1g}$ (${}^{4}F$) and ${}^{4}T_{2g}$ (${}^{4}F$), respectively [58, 57].

The specific effective activity of natural radionuclides present in the nephrite processing waste was found to be less than 50 Bq/kg.

As the waste is composed of remnants from sawing larger than 40 mm, only the fraction within the range of 40-70 mm can be used as ballast stone, while the remaining material must undergo crushing. The distribution of grain size in the resulting crushed waste is presented in Fig. 6.

The data obtained indicate that the majority of crushed waste (62 %) ranges from 5 to 15 mm in size, whereas 21.5 % of the waste falls under to the fraction – 5 mm.





Fig. 3. Nephrite H9 white w with brown edges br and weathering crust with black manganese hydroxides



Fig. 4. Nephrite H11 bluish-green bG (light l, moderately strong light saturation mst), brown staining crust Brn (light l to extremely dark exdk with strong light saturation st)

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Fig. 5. Optical spectrum of white nephrite H9. Lab 55.0938: -5.4096: -5.7374 (CIE Lab)



Fig. 6. Crushed stone grain size distribution

Nephrite, due to its tangled-fibrous microstructure and high viscosity, is challenging to crush. Consequently, a significant percentage of needle-shaped and flaky grains are observed, accounting for 23.4 % of the crushed stone from nephrite processing waste. This categorizes the waste into the third group of crushed stone according to GOST 8267–93.

The waste has a crushability grade of 1200, abrasion grade of I1, and frost resistance of F400. The studies reveal that the waste does not contain grains of incompetent rocks, clay, dust, or clay particles. Table 3 summarizes the study results and demonstrate that the solid nephrite processing waste from the Vitim region adheres to the requirements of GOST 8267–93.

Discussion

The investigation of the composition of the nephrite processing waste from the Vitim region revealed the absence of harmful components and impurities, including minerals, macro- and micro- chemical components). The decorative properties, including coloring, pattern, translucency, polishability, and defects, meet the existing standards.

The specific effective activity of natural radionuclides of the waste is below 50 Bq/kg, which complies with the NRB–99/2009, GOST 8267–93, and the 1st safety class norm, allowing its use as ornamental and facing stone for all types of construction work.

The waste material has a crushability grade of 1200, abrasion grade of 11, and frost resistance of F400. The studies revealed that the waste does not contain grains of incompetent rocks or clay particles. The solid waste of Vitim nephrite processing meets the requirements of GOST 8267–93, except for the increased content of flagstone and large fragments, which can be sold as crushed stone is possible by mutual agreement.

After crushing, the nephrite processing waste can be used as crushed (ballast) stone for construction works, including the production of ordinary concrete, decorative and mosaic concrete for finishing and lining walls and floors, as well as decorative floor slabs using cement and polymer binder compositions. The waste material is compliant with the requirements of GOST 9479–2011 "Blocks of rocks for the production of facing, architectural and construction, memorial and other products" and GOST 24099–2013 "Decorative plates based on natural stone. Technical Specifications".

Furthermore, the nephrite processing waste can be utilized as a facing material for interior decoration, such as hallways and bathrooms, owing to its high density (2,900 kg/m³), durability (M1200), low water absorption (0.2 %), resistance to corrosive environments, temperature differences, high melting point (approximately 1,250 °C) and low thermal conductivity.



Item No.

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Bulk density, kg/m3

Moisture content, %

Water absorption, %

https://mst.misis.ru/

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Table 3

Kislov E. V. et al. Dolomite type nephrite processing wastes and their application

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1 0	
Indicator	Nephrite processing waste	Requirements (GOST 8267–93)
Total residue on check sieves, % by weight	98.73	d 90 to 100
	48.34	0.5(d+D) 30 to 60
	6.10	D to 10
	0.32	1.25D to 0.5
Contents of lamellar (flaky) and needle-shaped grains, % by weight	36.6	-
Crushability grade	1,200	-
Abrasion grade	I1	-
Content of grains of incompetent rocks, % by weight	0	Less than 5
Frost resistance	F400	-
Content of dust and clay particles, % by weight	0	Less than 1
Clay content in clumps, % by weight	0	< 0.25
Presence of harmful components and impurities	None	-
Resistance against all types of decay (mass loss on decay, %)	0	Less than 3
True density, g/cm ³	2.8426	-
Average density, g/cm ³	2.8995	-

Physical and mechanical parameters of penbrite processing waste

Nephrite processing waste is a valuable for souvenir production, as a raw material for stone casting and slow-release fertilizer, particularly in areas with low calcium and magnesium due to the predominant development of granite, such as Buryatia.

Conclusion

The processing waste form nephrite has high quality and, with few exceptions, meets Russian standards. This waste can be utilized in the production of crushed stone for various purposes such as ordinary, decorative, and mosaic concrete. It is also

suitable for the production of decorative slabs when corporated into cement and polymer binder compositions. Moreover, as an independent material it has potential for interior decoration and serves a valuable raw material for souvenir production. Furthermore, this waste can be used as a raw material for stone casting and slow-release fertilizer, especially in areas with unsufficient calcium and magnesium due to the predominance of granite, as in Buryatia. These multiple application not only solve the waste disposal problem but also enhance the economic viability of mineral extraction.

1314.29

0.083

0.1937

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MINING ROCK PROPERTIES. ROCK MECHANICS AND GEOPHYSICS

Research paper

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Absolute heat sources as a method to check the accuracy of temperature prediction in underground structures within cryolithozone

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Abstract

Forecasting the thermal regime of mine workings and the surrounding rock mass is a necessary element of the design of underground structures in cryolithic zone. This is particularly necessary when substantiating and selecting reliable methods and means of rock supporting, in order to ensure safe operation of underground structures during the entire standard service life. Changes in the temperature of discontinuous permafrost rocks in the range of negative values (below the ice point in the rock) can lead to a decrease in their strength characteristics, and consequently to a decrease in the stability of workings. The aim of the research was to compare two ways of considering absolute heat sources (point sources and sources uniformly distributed along the length of a mine working) when forecasting the thermal regime in mine workings of underground structures. The dependencies used to determine temperature differences in various methods of considering absolute heat sources were established. For the sake of generality, the dependencies were produced in dimensionless (criterial) form. The variants were calculated, and the results are presented in the form of graphs. The aim is to visually present the influence of the method of heat sources when considering the accuracy of air temperature prediction in an underground facility. Key qualitative and quantitative features of the formation of thermal regime in workings at different methods of considering absolute heat sources were established. It was shown in particular that during the transition from a negative temperature in a working to a positive one, incorrect consideration of the action of absolute heat sources can lead to an almost 30 % (1.26 times) difference (i.e., error) in the calculated depth of thawing of discontinuous rocks.

It was also established that at a positive temperature, when the initial air temperature in a structure is more than 7.5 °C, there is no fundamental difference in engineering calculations results depending on the method of considering of absolute heat sources.

Keywords

underground structure, cryolithozone, safety, thermal regime, forecast, heat source, method of considering, temperature

For citation

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СВОЙСТВА ГОРНЫХ ПОРОД. ГЕОМЕХАНИКА И ГЕОФИЗИКА

Научная статья

Влияние способа учета абсолютных источников тепла на точность прогноза температуры в подземных сооружениях криолитозоны

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Аннотация

Прогноз теплового режима выработок и окружающего их массива горных пород является необходимым элементом проектирования подземных сооружений криолитозоны, в частности, при обосновании и выборе надежных способов и средств крепления породных обнажений, обеспечиваю-



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щих безопасную эксплуатацию подземных сооружений в течение всего нормативного срока. Даже изменение температуры дисперсных мерзлых пород в диапазоне отрицательных значений (ниже температуры плавления льда в породе) приводит к уменьшению их прочностных характеристик, а следовательно, и к снижению устойчивости выработок. Целью исследований было сравнение двух способов учета абсолютных источников тепла (как точечных источников и как равномерно распределенных по длине выработки источников) при прогнозе теплового режима в горных выработках подземных сооружений. Получены расчетные зависимости для определения температурных отклонений при различных способах учета абсолютных источников. Для общности анализа расчётные зависимости получены в безразмерном (критериальном) виде. Проведены вариантные расчеты, результаты которых представлены в виде графиков, позволяющих наглядно оценить влияние способа учета источников тепла на точность прогноза температуры воздуха в подземном сооружении. Установлены основные качественные и количественные особенности формирования теплового режима в выработках при различных способах учета абсолютных источников тепла. В частности, показано, что при переходе от отрицательного теплового режима в выработке к положительному неправильный учет действия абсолютных источников тепла может привести к изменению глубины оттаивания дисперсных пород почти на 30 % (в 1,26 раза). В то же время установлено, что при положительном тепловом режиме для начальной температуры воздуха в сооружении больше 7,5 °С принципиальной разности для инженерных расчетов в способе учета абсолютных источников тепла нет.

Ключевые слова

подземное сооружение, криолитозона, безопасность, тепловой режим, прогноз, источник тепла, способ учета, температура

Для цитирования

Galkin A.F., Pankov V.Yu. Absolute heat sources as a method to check the accuracy of temperature prediction in underground structures within cryolithozone. *Mining Science and Technology* (*Russia*). 2023;8(3):207–214. https://doi.org/10.17073/2500-0632-2023-04-105

Introduction

The reliability and safety of engineering structures in cryolithozone (permafrost zone) are largely determined by climatic conditions, and the variability of the properties of soils and rocks under the influence of external factors, natural [1-3] and anthropogenic [4–6] ones. This applies to both aboveground [7-9] and underground engineering structures [10-12]. The scientific community, engaged in research of the processes of interaction between engineering structures and frozen soils, have already established that the main technical and technological parameters determining the safe operation of underground structures in the cryolithozone (both mining and non-mining related) directly depend on the thermal regime of workings during their construction [13–15] and operation [16–18]. First of all, this can be explained by the temperature dependence of the strength characteristics of most frozen sedimentary host rocks [19–21]. Even changes in the temperature of frozen rocks in the negative value range (below the ice point in the rock, $T \leq T_{melt}$) can lead to a decrease in their strength characteristics. This can consequently lead to a decrease in the stability of workings [22–24]. Many types of discontinuous rocks, such as ice-saturated sandstones, have zero strength at positive temperatures [13, 16, 17]. Therefore, predicting the thermal regime of mine workings and the surrounding rock mass is necessary

for the design of underground structures in cryolithic zone. This is the case, in particular, when substantiating and selecting reliable methods and means of rock supporting, thus ensuring safe operation of underground structures during the entire standard service life [14, 25, 26]. The thermal regime of mines and underground structures is determined by the action of two groups of heat sources: absolute and relative [13, 17, 27]. In this case, it would be appropriate to present a qualitative characterization of the groups of these sources, as given by A.F. Voropaev [17]. "The first group includes absolute heat sources that release heat, and heat and air by the same value at the same amount of released heat regardless of the actual air temperature. The second group includes relative heat sources, heat transfer and heating of air due to temperature difference - temperature head". Relative heat sources include such sources as: the surface of mine workings; pipelines of various purposes; and transported minerals, inter alia. The group of absolute heat sources includes: energy losses in power grids; lighting devices; working machines and mechanisms, among others. A sufficient number of scientific studies consider various aspects of the influence of absolute heat sources [28–30], including diesel vehicles [29, 31, 32], on the formation of the thermal regime in underground structures of various purposes. In the construction of mathematical models for predicting the thermal regime in under-

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ground structures/workings, absolute heat sources as a rule are considered either as point sources, or as evenly distributed along the length of a working.

The aim of the research was to compare two ways of considering absolute heat release sources when predicting the thermal regime of mine workings in underground structures: a) as point sources; b) as sources uniformly distributed along the length of a working.

Research techniques

Taking into account the dependencies [17, 27, 33] previously obtained for the prediction of air temperature in mine workings of various purposes using the concept of unsteady heat transfer coefficient [34–36], the initial formulas for calculations can be written in the following form:

Temperature difference at the end point with different methods of considering absolute heat sources

$$\Delta t = t_{k1} - t_{k2} = Q_2[Z(Kr+1) - 1],$$

$$Z = \exp(-Kr).$$
(1)

Temperature at the end of a working when a heat source is distributed along the whole length

$$t_{k1} = T_e + (t_0 - T_e + Q_1)Z.$$
⁽²⁾

Temperature at the end of a working under the action of a point heat source

$$t_{k2} = T_e + Q_2 + (t_0 - T_e + Q_2)Z.$$
 (3)

The parameters included in formulas (1)-(3) are determined using the following dependencies:

$$Q_1 = \frac{q}{GC_p}; \quad Q_2 = \frac{q}{FK_\tau}; \quad \text{Kr} = \frac{FK_\tau}{GC_p}, \quad (4)$$

where t_{k1} , t_{k2} – air temperature in the end of a mine working at the distributed (1) and point (2) heat source, °C; T_e – natural temperature of rocks, °C; t_0 – initial (at the entrance to a working) air temperature, °C; q – heat source power, W; G – mass flow rate of air in a working, kg/s; C_p – specific heat capacity of moist air, J/kgK; F – a working surface area, m²; K_{τ} – unsteady heat transfer coefficient, W/m²K; Kr – Kremnev criterion.

An unsteady heat transfer coefficient for mine workings of different symmetry can be determined using expressions familiar to mining thermal physics and given in [17, 27].

The formula for calculating the relative error that can arise in temperature prediction is as follows:

$$e = \left(1 - \frac{t_{k1}}{t_{k2}}\right) 100 \%.$$
 (5)

Following the known postulates for engineering calculations, we assume that if the condition $e \le 10 \%$ is met, then the method of considering absolute heat sources in mine workings when predicting thermal regime is not crucial.

Findings Discussion

Analysis of the dependencies shows that, when using the first method (a point source), we formally change the initial temperature of the air supplied into a working. Considering absolute sources as uniformly distributed along the length of a structure (the second method) in the mathematical model is equivalent to a change in the natural temperature of rocks. The objective is to assess the degree of influence of the natural rock temperature and the initial air temperature in the structure on the accuracy of the temperature prediction at the end of a working. A simple comparison of formulas (2) and (3) allows an obvious conclusion to be drawn: the equality of temperature values at the end of a working, using different methods of considering the action of absolute sources, is possible only if the source power is zero. Therefore, the lower the source power, the lower the unknown difference in air temperature at the end of a working. Quantitative analysis should answer the following question: "At what power of absolute sources does the method of considering them in temperature predictions result in an error greater than the acceptable error in engineering practice?" In order to answer this question using the above formulas, variant calculations were carried out. The results are presented as 2D and 3D graphs in Figs. 1-4. Fig. 1 shows the temperature difference at the end of the calculation section of a working. This is taken as a function of Kremnev criterion Kr at different methods of considering absolute heat sources and at different reduced power of a source Q2.

The graphs show that the temperature difference in the considered range of initial data does not exceed 1.5 °C. Note that the following pattern is observed: the lower the source power and the value of Kremnev criterion, the lower the difference in air temperatures at the end of a working. Thus, the dependence of the final result on the method of considering absolute heat sources becomes weaker with lowering the source power.

Fig. 2 presents 3D graphs of the temperature difference at the end of the calculation section of a working. This is a function of Kremnev criterion Kr and reduced power of a source Q2 at different methods of considering absolute heat sources.

The graphs in the Figure show that when we consider a heat source as distributed along the



length, we always underestimate the air temperature at the end of a mine working. Note that this does not depend on the value of power of the sources Q2 operating in a working, or the conditions of heat exchange of air with rocks. Thus, the error cannot be attributed to the calculation features (design margin). The absolute value of the temperature difference (Fig. 3) is relatively low on the whole when considered (typical for underground structures in cryolithozone) range of variation of the initial parameters of the thermal regime simulation. The graphs show that for the characteristic operating conditions of underground structures in cryolithic zone, the temperature difference does not exceed 1.6 °C. This value could be considered quite acceptable, since it is within the accuracy of the engineering forecast. However, it should be notes that this difference may not always be attributed to the calculation features. For example, when selecting the method and means for working supports, one of the key design parameters is the depth of rock thawing. Thawing depth and air temperature are related to



Fig. 1. The temperature difference (°C) at the end of the calculation section of a working as a function of Kremnev criterion Kr at different methods of considering absolute heat sources and at different reduced power of a source Q2: 1 - 0.5; 2 - 1.0; 3 - 2.0; 4 - 3.0; 5 - 5.0



Fig. 2. The difference in air temperature (°C) at the end of the calculation section of a working as a function of Kremnev criterion Kr and reduced power of a source Q2 at different methods of considering absolute heat sources



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each other by a relationship close to a quadratic. For example, when temperature positive-going zero crossing in an underground structure due to the action of absolute heat sources happens, the change in air temperature in the structure by 1.6 °C (all other conditions being equal) will lead to an increase in the thawing depth by 1.26 times. This exceeds the allowable value of 10 % in engineering practice. Therefore, in such cases, it is necessary to rely on the calculated value obtained by modeling absolute sources as point sources. In this case, the choice of the method of considering sources is decisive for obtaining

a correct and reliable final result of the calculation of the design parameter. Naturally, everything referred to above depends on the initial air temperature in an underground structure. Fig. 4 shows the area of initial temperatures, at which the error in calculating the thawing depth will not exceed the permissible value (highlighted in blue in the figure).

If the initial air temperature in a structure is less than or equal to about 7.5 °C, then the method of considering absolute sources is important for the accuracy of the temperature prediction. Otherwise, the method is not important.



Fig. 3. Absolute value of the air temperature difference (°C) at the end of the calculated section of a working as a function of Kremnev criterion Kr and reduced power of a heat source Q2



Fig. 4. Error in determining the depth of thawing of frozen rocks around an underground structure as a function of initial air temperature *t*, °C



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Conclusion

Key conclusions, practical significance of the study, and the area of future research. Qualitative and quantitative assessment was undertaken of the effect of the method of considering absolute heat sources on predicted air temperature in mine workings when forecasting the thermal regime of underground structures in cryolithozone. Two possible ways were considered of taking into account absolute heat sources in the mathematical modeling of heat processes in mine workings: point sources, and sources uniformly distributed along the length of a working. The study presents formulae for determining the air temperature at the end of a mine working depending on the method of considering absolute heat sources. For the sake of generality of the analysis, the calculation formulas are presented in the form of functional dependences on Kremnev criterion and the reduced total power of absolute heat sources. Qualitative analysis of the dependencies obtained showed that using the first method of considering (as a point source) is equivalent to the change in the initial temperature of the air supplied into a working. Considering absolute sources as uniformly distributed along the length of a structure (the second method of considering) in the mathematical model is equivalent to a change in the natural temperature of rocks. Quantitative analysis showed, in particular, that the lower the source power and the value of Kremnev criterion, the smaller the dependence of the final result (air temperature at the

end of a mine working) on the method of taking into account absolute heat sources when predicting thermal regime. As an example, we considered the influence of the method of absolute sources on the accuracy of predicting the depth of thawing of discontinuous frozen rocks around a working. It was shown that during the transition from a negative temperature in a working to a positive one, incorrect consideration of the action of absolute heat sources can lead to an almost 30% (1.26 times) difference (i.e., error) in the calculated depth of thawing of discontinuous rocks. This can produce a significant impact on the selection of support parameters of mine workings driven in discontinuous frozen rocks, which (the selection) directly depends on the temperature regime of the rocks. It was also found that at a positive temperature, when the initial air temperature in a structure is more than 7.5 °C, there is no fundamental difference in engineering calculations results depending on the method of considering absolute heat sources. On the whole, it was found that for the characteristic conditions of construction and operation of underground structures in cryolithozone, such as underground gold mines, there is no fundamental difference in the methods of considering absolute heat sources when predicting the thermal regime. The differences in the values of air temperature at the end of a mine working obtained using different methods of consideration, as a rule, do not exceed the values allowed in engineering practice.

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BENEFICIATION AND PROCESSING OF NATURAL AND TECHNOGENIC RAW MATERIALS

Research paper

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Enrichment of Algerian kaolin using froth flotation method

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Abstract

The objective of this research is to study the removal of coloring impurities from Algerian kaolin ore (Tamazert kaolin, TK) located in the eastern region of Algeria, utilizing froth flotation process. The results obtained from XRF, SEM, and XRD characterization demonstrate that this local material is an alumino-silicate containing kaolinite, along with impurities such as Fe_2O_3 (> 2.7 % by weight) and TiO_2 (0.28 % by weight) which contribute to its coloring. After homogenization, crushing and milling, several froth flotation tests were conducted on TK. The results revealed that Tamazert kaolin exhibits favorable performance with froth flotation, in order to improve its properties. Based on the results obtained, it can be concluded that all fractions can be treated effectively using froth flotation with an optimal mass yield (weight recovery) of 79.84 % in concentrate for the fraction of 20–40 µm. Iron and titanium, the main coloring impurities in Tamazert kaolin, were reduced from 2.7 % to 0.08 % by weight for Fe_2O_3 in the fraction 20-40 µm, and from 0.28 % to 0.04 % by weight for TiO₂ in the same fraction, as determined by the optimum test. The significant reduction in coloring impurities (Fe₂O₃ and TiO₂) achieved through the flotation process confirms that iron is present in a free state in Tamazert kaolin. It can be ultimately confirmed that the froth flotation process can be a potentially effective process to improve the quality of Tamazert kaolin ore by removing Fe_2O_3 and TiO₂ with satisfactory results which meet the requirements of local companies.

Keywords

Tamazert kaolin, froth flotation, coloring impurities, Fe₂O₃, TiO₂

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ОБОГАЩЕНИЕ, ПЕРЕРАБОТКА МИНЕРАЛЬНОГО И ТЕХНОГЕННОГО СЫРЬЯ

Научная статья

Обогащение каолиновой руды месторождения Тамазерт (Алжир) методом пенной флотации

М. Лараба 🔟 🚾 🖂

Аннотация

Целью данного исследования является изучение процесса удаления окрашивающих примесей из каолиновой руды месторождения Тамазерт (тамазертский каолин, ТК), расположенного в восточном регионе Алжира, с использованием процесса пенной флотации. Исследования методами рентгенофлуоресцентной спектрометрии, сканирующей растровой электронной микроскопии и рентгенофазового анализа показали, что данный местный материал представляет собой алюмосиликат, содержащий каолинит, а также примеси Fe_2O_3 (> 2,7 % по весу) и TiO_2 (0,28 % по весу), которые способствуют его окрашиванию. После гомогенизации, дробления и измельчения ТК был подвергнут серии испытаний по пенной флотации. Результаты показали, что тамазертский каолин приобретает благоприятные характеристики после применения пенной флотации для улучшения его свойств. На основании полученных результатов можно сделать вывод, что все фракции могут быть эффективно обогащены методом пенной флотации 20–40 мкм. Содержания железа и титана, являющихся основными окрашивающими примесями в тама-



зертском каолине, были снижены посредством флотационной обработки с 2,7 до 0,08 % по весу для Fe_2O_3 во фракции 20–40 мкм и с 0,28 до 0,04 % по весу для TiO_2 в той же фракции, что было показано в оптимальном испытании. Значительное снижение содержаний окрашивающих примесей (Fe_2O_3 и TiO_2), достигнутое в процессе флотации, подтверждает, что железо присутствует в тамазертском каолине в свободном состоянии. В итоге можно утверждать, что процесс пенной флотации может быть потенциально эффективным способом улучшения качества каолиновой руды Тамазерта путем удаления Fe_2O_3 и TiO_2 с удовлетворительными результатами, отвечающими требованиям местных компаний.

Ключевые слова

тамазертский каолин, пенная флотация, окрашивающие примеси, Fe₂O₃, TiO₂

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Introduction

Kaolin is a finely granulated rock, usually white and chemically inert. It is widely used in many industrial fields [1, 2] due to its favorable properties such as natural whiteness, fine particle size, plasticity, non-abrasiveness and chemical stability. The main impurities associated with commercial kaolin are quartz, feldspar, muscovite, biotite, titanium oxides and iron oxides or hydroxides, such as goethite, hematite and magnetite [3, 4].

There are many techniques for the beneficiation of kaolin ore. These include selective flocculation, magnetic separation, bleaching and flotation to remove colored impurities. The presence of iron oxides in kaolin has a deleterious effect on the color of the clay which declines in brightness with increasing iron content [2, 5, 6].

Flotation is undoubtedly the most important and versatile mineral separation technique, and both its use and application are continually being expanded to treat greater tonnages and to cover new areas [7].

Flotation is a separation process which exploits natural and induced differences in surface properties of the minerals, whether the surface is easily wetted by water, i.e. hydrophilic, or repels water, i.e. hydrophobic. If hydrophobic, the mineral particle can attach to air bubbles and be floated. The system is complex, involving three phases (solids, water, and air) and the interaction of chemical and physical variables [7].

The success of flotation processes is dependent primarily on the tendency of surface-active species to concentrate at the water-fluid interface, and on their capability to make selected non-surface-active materials hydrophobic by means of adsorption or association [8]

Froth flotation is the dominating mineral beneficiation technique and has achieved great commercial success [9]. In froth flotation, first a pulp of crushed and ground particles in water is conditioned with the desired flotation reagents including pH modifiers and surfactants. Then it is agitated in a cell in the presence of air sucked or fed into the impeller zone where the air is well dispersed due to intense agitation in that zone. The air bubbles collide with particles and are attached to those that are hydrophobic or have acquired hydrophobicity. The bubble-particle aggregates rise to the top of the cell and are removed by skimming [8].

In froth flotation, the parameters that can affect the efficiency of the separation are as follows [10]: the nature of the ore, dose of reagents, particle size, pulp density, conditioning time, pH...etc.). The optimum size range of froth flotation varies with the flotation process parameters and flotation machine types. Too coarse or fine sizes are not suitable for flotation, thus, the suitable flotation size is subject to upper and lower limits [11].

Flotation is a process used for the removal of TiO_2 , especially when this mineral is colored by iron [12].

Kaolinite is hydrophilic. Thus with the addition of a small amount of chemical dispersant to negate the edge charges due to broken bonds, it will disperse readily in water. Ionic and/or polar non-ionic surfactants can be applied to the surfaces of the kaolinite to modify them to produce particles which have hydrophobic ororganophilic characteristics [13].

Flotation [13–15] is also used to improve the whiteness of kaolin intended for the paper industry.

The purpose of the present study is to improve (if possible) the quality of kaolin ore from the Tamazert deposit (Fig. 1) using the froth flotation technique based on the recovery of iron. A consequent objective is to improve the whiteness and the brightness level wished by the most industrial applications. МІNING SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (RUSSIA) ГОРНЫЕ НАУКИ И ТЕХНОЛОГИИ 2023;8(3):215-222



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Fig. 1. Kaolin deposit of Tamazert

Materials and experimental methods

Characterization of Tamazert kaolin

In this study, the representative sample of kaolin ore was collected from Tamazert mine situated in Jijel city, East of Algeria and studied using X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF), X Ray Diffraction (XRD) and Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) coupled with EDX.

The X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF) was realized with a Thermo Niton XL3t XRF Analyzer. The Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM-EDX) was performed using JEOL JSM-5600. The surface of the thin section of sample was metallized (Au). The X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed using PHILIPS-X'Pert MPD System diffractometer equipped with Cu-K α (λ = 1.54 Å) radiation which was generated at 40mA. 45kV generator settings were performed to characterize the kaolin sample.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to observe the morphology of Tamazert kaolin. The XRD was used to determine the mineralogical composition, while the XRF was used to determine the chemical composition.

Used Materials

The samples were milled using Retsch RS 100 laboratory miller, and then sieved to obtain five fractions: $(0-20, 20-40, 40-80, 80-100 \text{ and } 100-120 \mu\text{m})$. For the test, the most commonly used materials are:

Flotation cell (KHD HUMBOLDT WEDAG AG) with a volume of the tank is 1.5 liters), pH-meter, Electronic balance, Magnetic agitator and Oven.

Used reagents

Most minerals are not water-repellent in their natural state and flotation reagents must be added to the pulp. The most important reagents are collectors which adsorb on mineral surfaces, rendering them hydrophobic and facilitating bubble attachment. Regulators are used to control the flotation process. These either activate or depress mineral attachment to air bubbles and are also used to control particle dispersion and the pH of the system. Frothers enable producing fine bubbles required to increase collision rates and allow maintaining a reasonably stable froth [7]. The chemical reagents used to carry out the flotation tests are presented in Table 1. All reagents were supplied by the laboratory of mineral processing, polytechnic school on Mieres, university of Oviedo, Spain.

Table 1

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Reagent	Formula	Role						
Oleic acid	$C_{18}H_{34}O_2$	Collector						
Methyl Isobutyl Carbinol (MIBC)	$C_6H_{14}O$	Frother						
Sodium Metasilicate (pentahydrate)	$\begin{array}{c} Na_2SiO_3\cdot 5H_2O\\ Na_2SiO\cdot 5H_2O\end{array}$	Depressor						
Kerosene	$C_{10}H_{22}$	Activator						
Sodium Hydroxide	NaOH	pH regulator						

Used reagents in froth flotation of TK

Experimental procedure of flotation

Each kaolin sample powder (**250** g) was introduced in the flotation cell with 1000 g (1L) of water to form a pulp (slurry) which contains 25% of solid by weight. The diluted Sodium Hydroxide was added prudently to adjust the flotation pulp at 9.5. The machine is left running and 9 ml of Sodium Meta-Silicate added for about 5 minutes, then 4 droplets (\approx 0.84 g) of Kerosene to render our useful mineral (kaolin) hydrophobic for duration of 2 minutes. 13 droplets of Oleic

Acid (≈ 0.338 g) are carefully added to the cell and conditioned for 5 minutes; Oleic Acid plays the role of a collector. Ultimately, 3 droplets of Methyl Isobutyl Carbinol (MIBC) are added and the suspension was conditioned for 2 minutes. Then the air tap is opened to create the foam (air bubbles) required for flotation (Fernando Pita, 2017). This operation is known as bubbling. All tests were performed at room temperature and the flotation machine was adjusted to a rotational speed of 450 rpm for the all tests. Flotation tests were carried out in a KHD HUMBOLDT WEDAG AG flotation machine.

The zeta-potential of kaolinite is negative in a wide range of pH values and kaolin can be floated by amine collectors in acidic and alkaline medium [16–18]. The dried concentrates and tailings were analyzed. The results obtained are used to calculate grade, yields and recovery rates.

The concentrates and tailing obtained after the flotation operations were dried in an oven at 105°C during 24 hours. All these steps are summarized in Fig. 2.



Fig. 2. A flowchart summarizing the steps of the kaolin flotation (TK)

Results and discussions Characterization results

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X-Ray fluorescence (XRF)

The chemical analyses of the kaolin sample are listed in Table 2. The kaolin sample was rich in SiO₂ at 46.70% and Al_2O_3 at 32.67%. The SiO₂/ Al_2O_3 ratio of this sample was equal to 1.43. SiO₂/ Al_2O_3 ratio in kaolinite mineral is usually 1.18¹ (Kaolinite Mineral Data). X-ray fluorescence measurements to determine the oxide composition of kaolin were carried out using Thermo Niton XL3t XRF Analyzer.

Chemical analyzes reveal that Tamazert kaolin has a high content of Fe_2O_3 (2.70 %), SiO_2 (46.70 %) and K_2O (2.58 %). TiO₂ content is low, 0.28 %.

The loss on ignition of TK is relatively low (9.36 %). It is less than the value of the loss on ignition of pure kaolinite [19], indicating the low presence of organic matter. This may be due to the presence of micas.

The value of the SiO_2/Al_2O_3 ratio (1.27) of TK is differs from the corresponding value of ideal kaolinite (1.18). This may be connected with the presence of alumina in this kaolin.

The presence of Fe_2O_3 produces the brownish color and decreases brightness and whiteness. The low content of TiO_2 makes the TK kaolin a very attractive raw material for a number of industries.

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM-EDX)

Figure 3 presents the SEM micrographs of the Tamazert kaolin (TK). The chemical elements proportion of kaolin was established by the Energy Dispersive X-ray (EDX) method. The Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM-EDX) analysis was used to determine the morphology and composition of kaolin using JEOL-JSM 6610-LV coupled with an OXFORD INCA-ENERGY microanalyser.

In general terms, the morphology of kaolin presents hexagonal shaped kaolinite plates. According to the results of scanning electron microscopy (SEM-EDS), Fig. 3, A, the micrograph presented an imperfect structure of kaolinite. It thus shows that the particles have irregular and flat platelet shapes. There are also quartz particles surrounding the kaolinite particles. According to Amigo et al., 1994 [20], Tamazert kaolin has more or less low crystallinity. Fig. 3, B shows the presence of Hematite as impurity (Fe₂O₃) in this kaolin.

X-ray diffraction (XRD)

X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was performed using PHILIPS-X'Pert MPD System diffractometer with CuK α radiation adjusted at 40 mA and 45 kV generators. Fig. 4 shows that the mineral components of Tamazert kaolin were mainly kaolinite, quartz, muscovite and illite.

¹ Kaolinite Mineral Data. Available online: http://www. webmineral.com/data//Kaolinite.shtml#.W1CcIfZuLIU



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Flotation test results

The products obtained from flotation tests (froth and tailing) were dried in an oven at 105 °C for 24 hours. The foam composed of kaolin particles (hydrophobic) is recovered by overflow of the scum on the surface of the flotation cell, while the tailing (hydrophilic) remains in the bottom of the cell and consists of mainly iron and titanium. Controlling the airflow to the flotation cell during the initial flo-

tation period was found to be very crucial both for loading air bubbles with minerals, as well as for detachment. In addition, a foaming time of 5 minutes or more is necessary for the satisfactory formation of the foamy layer.

The results of the material balance and yields of flotation for each test are reported in Table 3. The chemical analysis of the concentrates products of flotation process are reported in Table 4.

Table 2

Sample	SiO ₂	Al_2O_3	Fe ₂ O ₃	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	TiO ₂	$\mathbf{P}_{2}\mathbf{O}_{5}$	LOI	SiO_2/Al_2O_3
ТК	46.70	36.67	2.70	0.02	0.21	0.12	0.19	2.58	0.28	0	9.36	1.27
Kaolin: KGa-1b, (low-defect)	44.20	39.70	0.21	0	0.03	0	0.013	0.05	1.39	0	13.49	1.11
Ideal kaolinite*	46.55	39.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.18

Chemical composition (wt %) of kaolin ore (TK)

LOI: measured at 1000 °C.

ORIGIN: Tuscaloosa formation, County of Washington, State of Georgia, USA

Ideal kaolin: Refers to a high-purity, fine-grained, absence of impurities, high whiteness and brightness, with excellent plasticity, thermal stability, and other specific properties suited to its intended application, such as ceramics, paper, paint, or pharmaceuticals productions.









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Fraction,

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Calculation of technological indicators

Each separation product can be characterized by qualitative and quantitative indices. For this reason, several equations were used [21]:

– material balance equation for separation products:

$$Q_f = Q_c + Q_t; \tag{1}$$

- balance equation for yields, %:

$$\gamma_f = \gamma_c + \gamma_t; \tag{2}$$

- yield of concentrate, %

$$\gamma_c = \frac{Q_c}{Q_f} \cdot 100; \tag{3}$$

- yield of tailings, %:

$$\gamma_t = \frac{Q_t}{Q_f} \cdot 100, \tag{4}$$

 Q_f – masse of feed, t; Q_c – masse of concentrate, t; Q_t – masse of tails, t; γ_f – yield of feed, %; γ_c – yield of concentrate, %; γ_t – yield of tailings, %.

Tamazert kaolin shows a good flotation performance. The yields and the contents results of the concentrates and tails of Tamazert kaolin (TK) after flotation process are illustrated in Figs. 5 and 6. The optimum yield value is in the fraction between 20 and 40 µm with 79.84 wt. % and 19.92 % by wt.% for the concentrate and the tailing respectively.



Fig. 4. XRD pattern of Tamazert kaolin (TK)

Table 3

Material balance and yields of the flotation tests Test N° 5 1 2 3 4 Fraction, µm 0 - 2020 - 4040-80 80-100 100-120 Q_{c3} Q_{c1} Q_{t1} Q_{c2} Q_{t2} Q_{t3} Q_{c4} Q_{t4} Q_{c5} Q_{t5} Material balance, g 190.5 162.5 58.9 199.6 49.8 185.6 63.7 85.7 148.6 100.5 249.4 249.6 249.5 249.2 249.5 Q_F , g γ_{c1} γ_{t1} γ_{c2} γ_{t2} γ_{c3} γ_{t3} γ_{c4} γ_{t4} γ_{c5} γ_{t5} Yields, % 76.25 23.30 19.92 25.26 59.44 40.20 79.84 74.24 65 34.28

Table 4

Oxide, wt.%

Material balance and yields of the flotation tests

μm	SiO ₂	Al_2O_3	Fe ₂ O ₃	TiO ₂	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	MnO	$\mathbf{P}_{2}\mathbf{O}_{5}$	LOI	SiO_2/Al_2O_3
0-20	49.13	38.81	0.15	0.05	0.10	0.06	0.07	1.05	00	00	10.58	1.26
20-40	49.38	38.97	0.08	0.04	0.11	0.06	0.09	1.11	00	00	10.19	1.27
40-80	48.95	38.79	0.13	0.09	0.12	0.08	0.11	1.23	00	00	10.42	1.26
80-100	48.14	36.85	0.19	0.12	0.15	0.10	0.12	1.28	00	00	12.98	1.30
100-120	47.31	36.72	0.28	0.20	0.19	0.10	0.16	1.41	00	00	13.59	1.29

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It can be seen from Table 3, Figs. 5 and 6 that, on the whole, the yield of concentrate decreases with increasing kaolin particle sizes. There is general agreement: flotation efficiency decreases with increasing particle size [22].

The content of K_2O decreased from 2.58 to 1.05 wt. % in the fraction < 20 µm; this indicate a significant removal of illite and/or muscovite.



Fe₂O₃ in concentrated kaolin TiO₂ in concentrated kaolin

Fig. 6. Fe₂O₃ and TiO₂ contents in concentrated Tamazert kaolin after flotation process





The chemical results (Table 1 and Table 4) and Figure 7 show that the SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 contents of the analyzed sample increased from 46.70 to 49.38 wt.% and 36.67 to 38.97 wt.%, respectively, in the fraction of 20–40 µm. This means logically that the kaolinite content will increase and the whiteness also will be increased.

All these analyses show that the dimensions of particles have a significant influence on the enrichment of Tamazert kaolin (TK) situated between 0 to 40μ m.

Comparing the chemical analysis of ideal and Georgian kaolin (KGa-1b) and chemical analysis of processed Tamazert kaolin (TK) can confirm that the flotation beneficiation gives satisfactory results.

Conclusion

Most commonly, the presence of Fe_2O_3 and TiO_2 are the first impurities that cause the coloring of kaolin and reduce its commercial value and industrial utilization. Several tests were performed on the Tamazert kaolin sample using froth flotation process, in order to meet commercial specifications.

The chemical analysis showed that Tamazert kaolin (TK) is an alumino-silicate with contents of 46.70 % SiO₂ and 36.67% Al₂O₃. The impurities as Fe_2O_3 and TiO_2 with 2.7% and 0.28%, respectively, give the brownish color to Tamazert kaolin (low quality) which is not suitable for many industries.

The results obtained using froth flotation are very encouraging. The test results showed that after the enrichment of samples, iron and titanium (the main coloring impurities in Tamazert kaolin) were removed from 2.7 to 0.08 wt.% for Fe₂O₃ in the fraction of 20–40 μ m and from 0.28 to 0.04 wt.% for TiO₂ in the same fraction as the optimum test. These results confirm that iron is not substituted in the structure of kaolin and that it is in the free-state.

The contents of SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 after froth flotation of the samples analyzed were increased from 46.70 to 49.38 wt.% and 36.67 to 38.97 wt.%, respectively, in the fraction of 20–40 µm. This means logically that the kaolinite content will increase and the whiteness and brightness will also increase.

Moreover, this study highlighted the importance of dimensional distribution, and has a significant influence on beneficiation of Tamazert kaolin (TK) using froth flotation process. The best results were obtained in the fraction from 0 to 40µm.

Comparing the chemical analysis of Georgian kaolin (KGa-1b) and ideal and treated Tamazert kaolin (TK) confirmed that the froth flotation process can be a potentially effective process to remove Fe_2O_3 and TiO_2 with satisfactory results.

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Lusis A. V. et al. Establishment of an erosion-control plant cover in a sand pit.

SAFETY IN MINING AND PROCESSING INDUSTRY AND ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

Research paper

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Establishment of an erosion-control plant cover in a sand pit under Arctic conditions using sewage sludge

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Abstract

This paper presents the findings of a prolonged field studies that aimed to assess the feasibility of using the sewage sludges (SS) form a regional water and wastewater services enterprise to expedite the establishment of a resilient erosion-control plant cover in sand pits located in the Arctic region of the Russian Federation. The study confirms the beneficial impact of the SS on the seed germination, subsequent growth, and development of plants. The study shows that SS can be used in two ways: first, by applying a continuous layer measuring 5 to 10 cm thick on the soil surface or by fragmentarily applying a layer 2-3 cm thick. Second, through early-winter sowing of seeds directly on the soil surface (under the SS layer) or on top of the sewage sludge. In both cases, an annual enhancement of the qualitative and quantitative parameters of the artificially formed stand of grass was observed. This included a significant increase in its height and density, biomass, foliage cover, and thickness of the formed sod, in contrast to the reference sample. The present study investigates the characteristics of the floristic composition of the phytocenoses formed in a sand pit. The findings demonstrate that the use of sewage sludge (SS), regardless of the quantity and application method, accelerates the restorative succession in the sand pit. The thick stand in the experimental variants, resulting from the attraction of pioneer vegetation, promotes the complexity of its structure and species composition, rapid vegetation of inner bare areas, and the emergence of natural phytocenoses elements that are specific to the zonal type of vegetation. Additionally, the use of SS stabilizes erosion processes in the study area. Consequently, the plant community formed in the experiment using SS can be classified as ecologically sustainable, with the potential for independent existence and further development. These results can serve as a foundation for monitoring efforts and the development of measures to optimize the vegetation of such ecotopes.

Keywords

sand pit, phytoremediation, sewage sludge (SS), ameliorant, grass mixture, plant cover

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Lusis A. V. et al. Establishment of an erosion-control plant cover in a sand pit..

ТЕХНОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ БЕЗОПАСНОСТЬ В МИНЕРАЛЬНО-СЫРЬЕВОМ КОМПЛЕКСЕ И ОХРАНА ОКРУЖАЮЩЕЙ СРЕДЫ

Научная статья

Формирование противоэрозионного растительного покрова на песчаном карьере в условиях Арктики с помощью осадка сточных вод

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Аннотация

В настоящей работе представлены результаты многолетних полевых исследований по оценке возможности применения ОСВ регионального предприятия водопроводно-канализационного хозяйства для ускоренного формирования устойчивого противоэрозионного растительного покрова на песчаных карьерах в Арктической зоне РФ с подтверждением оказания им стимулирующего эффекта на прорастание семян, дальнейший рост и развитие растений. Показано, что ОСВ может применяться двумя способами: нанесением на поверхность грунта сплошным слоем высотой от 5 до 10 см, и фрагментарно – слоем 2–3 см, а подзимний посев семян – непосредственно по поверхности грунта (под слой ОСВ) либо поверх осадка сточных вод. В обоих случаях отмечено ежегодное улучшение качественных и количественных показателей искусственно созданного травостоя – многократное, по сравнению с контролем, увеличение его высоты и плотности, биомассы, проективного покрытия и мощности сформированной дернины. Исследованы особенности формирования флористического состава созданных в песчаном карьере фитоценозов. Установлено, что независимо от количества и способа нанесения применение ОСВ способствует ускорению восстановительной сукцессии на песчаном карьере, а мощный травостой опытных вариантов путем привлечения пионерной растительности – усложнению его структуры и видового состава, быстрому зарастанию внутренних оголенных участков и возникновению элементов естественных фитоценозов, свойственных зональному типу растительности, а также стабилизации процессов эрозии на объекте исследования. Все это позволяет характеризовать сформированное в эксперименте с помощью ОСВ растительное сообщество как экологически устойчивое, имеющее перспективы к самостоятельному существованию и дальнейшему развитию. Результаты таких исследований могут послужить основой для организации мониторинга и разработки мероприятий по оптимизации растительности подобных экотопов.

Ключевые слова

песчаный карьер, фиторекультивация, осадок сточных вод (ОСВ), мелиорант, травосмесь, растительный покров

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Introduction

The annual increase in mineral resource utilization, exploration and construction activities by mining companies for oil, gas and ore, as well as the construction of roads, power lines and other works, has resulted in the disturbance of natural ecosystems. These activities lead to the destruction of soil, plant cover and reduction of biodiversity, resulting in the emergence of new man-made forms of the landscape [1].

In the Murmansk Region, one of the most common forms of man-made change in the Arctic landscapes are pits that emerge after the removal of sand for construction and other purposes. Restoration of these areas requires measures to transform the disturbed lands into a state suitable for further use and prevent adverse impact on the environment [2].

One of way to rehabilitate such areas is to allocate a portion of them for self-organized vegetation [3]. However, due to the unfavorable forecast for natural vegetation and the complexity of revegetation on sand deposits due to individual and regional specifics, reclamation works are necessary to restore the productivity of disturbed lands by creating new, purposefully synthesized, artificial biogeocenoses [4]¹.

When implementing reclamation measures to form a plant cover on sandy soil, one of the determining factors is the nutritive conditions of its surface layer. The structurelessness of such substrate, low water-holding capacity, lack of organic matter of biogenic origin (humus), and insufficient nutrient provision make it necessary to invest in expensive mineral fertilizers annually [5]. Sewage sludge (SS) treatment, a byproduct of regional municipal wastewater, can play a positive role in solving the problem of the low NPK status of sandy soils, creating a plant cover on them, and maintaining its stability [6-8]. SS has potentially useful properties due to its high content of easily accessible organic matter for microbiota [9], as well as the lability of nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium, which determines their rapid assimilation by plants [10, 11]. Although SS has a positive effect on the physical properties of sandy soils, optimizing the density and aggregation, it may contain a set of heavy metals and pathogens. Therefore, it is necessary to study each sediment in specific conditions of reclaimed areas [12].

The purpose of the study is to assess the feasibility of utilizing SS from a regional water and wastewater services (WWS) enterprise Apatity-

vodokanal JSC to expedite the development of a sustainable and effective erosion-control plant cover in sand pits located in the Arctic zone of the Russian Federation.

Research objectives:

1. To investigate the effects of SS on plant growth and quality of artificially formed seeded phytocenoses.

2. To evaluate the effectiveness of different methods of applying SS onto the surface of the sand pit soil during reclamation activities.

Objects and methods of research

The research was conducted between October 7, 2017, and October 10, 2020, in the Murmansk Region (Kola Peninsula, Russian Federation) on a local disturbed territory, which is a sand pit owned by Apatityvodokanal JSC.

The pit's depth ranges from 3 to 5 meters and is located in the northern taiga coniferous forests subzone, which has about 250 species of vascular plants [13]. Based on the research findings, the model site was identified as a secondary ecotope with a little number of plant germs in the soil surface layer. Examination of the plant communities growing in the pit area revealed the presence of small microgroups consisting of one, two and perennial pioneer plant species with a low degree of surface coverage. Surrounding the pit, the plant cover comprises natural forest communities, primarily birch, lichen-grass and lichen-grass-moss fir wood, and meadow plants in open areas. In total, 56 species characteristics of dry and barren soils were recorded within the pit and its immediate vicinity. Under favorable growing conditions, these species could contribute to the natural vegetation of the pit's sandy soil, promoting biodiversity and the formation of a much more sustainable artificial phytocenosis [14].

The pit area shows clear indications of wind and water erosion, including soil sliding and rounded hill-tops. The model site itself is was a 30° sandy slope facing northwest, with an area of 200 m² that has been cleared of vegetation, and prepared with surface flattening, terracing and levelling².

The objective of this study was to investigate sandy pit soil with an admixture of gravel and small boulders, which is classified as medium-grained according to State Standard 25100–2011³, with a low proportion of clay particles.

¹ GOST R 57446–2017. Best available techniques. Disturbed lands reclamation. Restoration of biological diversity. Moscow: Standartinform; 2017.

² GOST 17.5.3.0483 (ST SEV 5302–85). Nature protection. Lands. Reclamation general requirements. Moscow: Standardinform; 1984.

³ GOST 25100–2011. Interstate standard. Soils. Classification. 2013-01-01. Moscow: Standartinform; 2011.

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SS application technique

Lusis A. V. et al. Establishment of an erosion-control plant cover in a sand pit... The grass mixture comprised three species of grasses (red fescue (*Festuca rubra* L.), European dune wild ruttishness (*Leymus arenarius Hochst.*), and couch (*Elymus repens* (L.) *Gould*) and two species of legumes (*Washington lupine (Lupinus polyphyllus Lindl.*) and sweet vetch (Hedysarum alpinum L.) taken in the ratio of 5:1:1:0.1:0.1 (vol.), with a seed rate of 27.5 g/m². In variant 1, seeds were sown directly on the soil surface (under the sludge layer), and in variant 2, they were sown on top of a continuous layer of sludge. Additionally, six seeds of Scots pine

(Pinus sylvestris L.) were sown separately from the

grass mixture in the lower right corner of each plot. Subsequent fieldwork involved regular monitoring of plant growth and development, as well as the formation of the grass stand. The effect of the ameliorant on the quality of the resulting phytocenosis was evaluated based on various parameters, such as plant height in the grass stand (cm), foliage cover (%) on the plots, changes in the structure and species composition of the phytocenosis [15, 16], and, at the end of the experiment, the sod thickness (cm), grass stand density (number of shoots per 1 m²), and accumulation of raw biomass (g/m²). Biometric measurements were taken simultaneously in all replications, and the biomass was determined in the laboratory using analytical scales.

The Latin names of plants are given according to the common international names of World Flora Online⁶.

The collected data were processed using one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) in Excel.

Research results

2018. The first sprouts of seeded plants were observed in all three variants of the experiment simultaneously after the snow cover melted in May. However, the most vigorous and high-quality sprouts were noted in the variants with the use of SS (Table 2), which led to the assumption of a stimulating effect of this ameliorant on the seed germination process.

Over the next 1.5 months, primitive (one-tier) plant communities were formed on the experimental sites (Table 2), consisting of only two sown species – red fescue and couch as of July 2018. The quality of the grass stand on the experimental plots was significantly different from the reference plots. In both experimental variants, a dense and well-developed grass stand with high foliage cover of bright emerald green color was observed. The foliage cover was 100 % in plots with continuous application of SS

Diagram of field experiment

Variant 1 (<i>n</i> = 6)	SS was applied to the soil surface in a fragmentary manner, with a layer 2–3 cm high. The seeds were then sown directly on the soil surface, underneath the layer of SS
Variant 2 (<i>n</i> = 6)	SS was applied to the soil surface in a continuous layer, with a height of 5–10 cm. The seeds were then sown on top of the layer of SS
Variant 3 (<i>n</i> = 6)	No sludge was applied to the soil surface. The seeds were directly sown on the soil surface
The objective	of this study was to investigate

sandy pit soil with an admixture of gravel and small boulders, which is classified as medium-grained according to State Standard 25100-2011, with a low proportion of clay particles. To enhance the biogenesity of the soil, sludge from wastewater treatment plant (WTP-3) in Apatity (Murmansk Region) was used as an ameliorant. The sludge is a moist, plasticine-like mass with a black-brown color and a pungent specific smell. The sludge is classified as hazardous class V waste according to GOST R 54534–2011, and its total content of heavy metals is well below the standards [12] established by this regulation⁴, At the WTP-3, sludge treatment involves drying and aging on sludge beds for three or more years⁵.

The field experiment was designed with three variants, each with six replications, for a total of 18 experimental plots measuring 1×1 m and spaced 0.5 m apart at the model site. The experimental variants involved the application of sludge to the soil surface in two ways: fragmentarily and as a continuous layer, while the reference site did not receive any sludge application. The diagram of the field experiment is presented in Table 1.

No covering of the sandy surface with a fertile soil layer or additional fertilization of plants with mineral fertilizers was carried out during the experiment.

A complex sowing phytocenosis was formed using the early-winter method of direct sowing of the grass mixture, developed on the basis of biological characteristics of perennial herb species.

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Variant

Table 1

⁶ The WFO Plant List. Snapshots of the taxonomy. URL: https://wfoplantlist.org/plant-list

⁴ GOST R 54534–2011. Resources saving. Sewage sludge. Requirements for recultivation of disturbed lands (official edition). Moscow: Standartinform, 2012.

⁵ GOST R 54534–2011. Resources saving. Sewage sludge. Requirements for recultivation of disturbed lands. Moscow: Standartinform; 2013.





and top sowing of the grass mixture (variant 2), and 87 % in the plots with fragmentary application of SS (variant 1). Seed germination was mainly observed in the areas of experimental plots free of the SS layer, and to a lesser extent in the areas covered with an ameliorant layer. In the reference area (without application of SS), the grass stand formed was sparse, yellow-red in color, covering only 15 % of the plot area. Plants within it were in a depressed state, and by the end of the growing season, they practically did not increase in height.

In the first vegetation period, an increase (up to five species) in the composition of the phytocenoses formed was observed only on the experimental plots (Table 2) due to the introduction of three new species from the nearby territories. These were native pioneer and weed plants – foalfoot (Tussilago farfara L.), fireweed (Epilobium angustifolium L.) and field sorrel (Rumex acetosella L.).

In 2019, the grass stand at the reference sites remained low and sparse with the foliage cover of only 20 %, and the resulting community remained onetiered (Table 2, Figure 1). The experimental plots were characterized by a dense grass stand of complex twotier structure, with a height 4–5 times exceeding the height of plants at the reference site.

While the plants at the reference sites were only in the vegetative stage, the plants at the experimental sites had already entered the flowering phase. All six sown species, including Scots Pine seedlings, were only observed at the experimental plots. During this period, the species composition of the created plant community was augmented with four species from the main sowing grass mixture, namely European dune wild ruttishness (Leymus arenarius Hochst.), Washington lupine (Lupinus polyphyllus Lindl.), sweet vetch (Hedysarum alpinum L.) and Scots pine. Colonization of experimental plots, as well as their

Table 2

Variant and method of SS application 2018 Indicator 2019 2** 2** 1* 3 (reference) 1* 3 (reference) 1 1 2 2 Number of tiers, pcs. 1 1 27.4 ± 1.5 35.3 ± 1.2 8.1 ± 0.3 56.9±1.7 69.7±1.9 Average plant height (by dominant species), cm 12.8 ± 0.5 Average number of species from the number of sown 2 2 2 4.5 5.6 4,0 ones, pcs. 3 3 Average number of invaded species, pcs. 3.8 3.8 2.3Foliage cover, % 87 100 15 100 100 20

Average indicators of artificial phytocenosis in 2018–2019 in the sand pit of Apatityvodokanal JSC

* - fragmentary application of SS;

** - application of SS as a continuous layer.



Variant 1

Variant 2 Fig. 1. Appearance of experimental plots in 2019

Reference variant



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perimeter, continued with six new species of native plants: subarctic astragalus (Astragalus norvegicus Grauer), tufted hair grass (Deschampsia caespitosa (L.), P. Beauv.), marsh cress (Rorippa palustris Besser), fall dandelion (Scorzoneroides autumnalis (L.) Moench), colonial bent grass (Agrostis capillaris L.), and mountain sorrel (Oxyria digyna Hill.). At the reference sites, European dune wild ruttishness or Scots Pine were often not detected in the grass stand, which may be attributed to the quality of seeds collected from natural conditions and their low volume ratio during planting. Although Washington lupine is usually found in habitats with sandy soils and can thrive on nutrient-poor substrates [17], this species was only observed at experimental plots where sewage sludge was present.

2020. Over the course of three vegetation periods, plant communities with vigorous growth and

development were formed on the model slope of the pit that lacked plant and soil cover, without the use of earthing or fertilizers, due to the application of SS. These communities were dominated by two species that determined their height: red fescue and couch.

The height of plants in the experimental variants reached 95.2 ± 1.4 cm (variant 2) and 86.7 ± 3.3 (variant 1), whereas at the reference sites, this measurement was six times lower (Table 3). In contrast to the reference sites, plants in the experimental variants retained an intense green color and a shiny surface of leaves and stems. The grass stand density in the experimental variants 1.7-4.4 times higher than the reference one. Only the experimental variants showed a 100 % foliage cover, whereas the reference site had an indicator of only 10 %, which was 5-10 % lower than the first and second vegetation periods. The roots of plants in the experimental variants effectively utilized the

Table 3

T T	Indicator						
of variation	Height of plants (by dominant species), cm	Density of grass stand, number of stems/1 m ²	Green biomass, g/m²				
1	86.7±3.3	$12\ 830\pm 123.14$	2952 ± 52.5				
2	95.2±1.4	32 589.7±546.7	5632±28.9				
3	13.7±0.9	7431.7±20.9	100 ± 3.2				
SS	120 538	2 105 022 787	76 295 880.9				
df	2	2	2				
MS	60 269	1 052 511 394	38 147 940.5				
F	13 452.6	10 040	39 119.4				
p-value	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001				
F critical*	7.4	3.7	3.9				

Results of variance analysis of the impact of SS application technique on the main qualitative indicators of artificial phytocenosis (2020)

* Critical *F* is a tabular value of the criterion of the adopted level – the reliability of differences between the variants was taken at the values of p < 0.05 (n = 6). Variants were considered unreliable at p > 0.05.

Table 4

Effect of SS application technique on	qualitative indicators of artificial	phytocenosis (2020)
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Tu diastan	Variant				
Indicator	1*	2**	3 (reference)		
Number of tiers, pcs.	2	3	1		
Average number of species from the number of sown ones, pcs.	6,0	6,0	4,5		
Average number of invaded species, pcs.	11.7	12.0	3.0		
Foliage cover, %	100	100	10		
Sod thickness (by core, $n = 3$), cm	3.6 ± 0.03	9.6±0.02	2.6±0.2		

* - fragmentary application of SS;

** – application of SS as a continuous layer.

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sandy substratum and formed a dense grass sod with a thickness of 3.6 ± 0.03 cm (variant 1) and 9.6 ± 0.02 cm (variant 2). In comparison this indicator was 1.4 and 3.7 times lower, respectively, at the reference site (Table 4). The high foliage cover and density of the grass stand in the variants with the use of SS resulted in a significant accumulation of biomass, which is notable for the northwest region of the Russian Federation [18]. The experimental variant 1 accumulated 2952.0 ± 52.5 g/m², and in variant 2, it was 5632.0 ± 28.9 g/m² (29 and 56.3 t/ha), which was 29 and 56 times higher than the reference site, which only accumulated 100.7 ± 3.2 g/m²) (1 t/ha) (Table 3).

The present study investigated the impact of SS on the qualitative indicators of the vegetation cover created over three vegetation periods (Table 3). The results demonstrated statistically significant differences (p < 0.05) in the average values of the three main quality indicators of the artificial phytocenosis. The calculated F statistic was greater than the critical F value, leading us to reject the null hypothesis that height, accumulation of green plant biomass, and grass stand density are not dependent on the use of SS. Instead, we accepted the alternative hypothesis that the main quality indicators are statistically influenced by the use of SS. These findings suggest that there is a 95 % probability that the use of SS has a positive effect on the quality indicators of the plant cover formed in the sand pit during the three vegetation periods.

The grass stand that formed at the experimental plots exhibited a complex two- and three-tiered structure, in contrast to the primitive, sparse, one-tiered structure of the reference site (Table 4). In 2020, two additional native plants, tea-leaved willow (Salix phylicifolia L.) and Kentucky bluegrass (Poa pratensis L.), were incorporated into the plant community; which accelerated the vegetation of bare inter-plot areas and the perimeter of the sites by pioneer plants, hastening the restoration succession of the pit. The total number of species at the model site, adapted to the specific conditions, increased to 21 in 2020, with seven of them completing a full cycle of development. The appearance of natural phytocenoses elements, typical of the zonal type of plant cover, allowed for the artificial plant community to be classified as ecologically sustainable, with potential for independent existence and further development [19].

Practical application

The value of research results for practice is evidenced by the proposal of an innovative and cost-effective method of creating high quality rehabilitative phytocenoses for environmental purposes.

This method is based on the use of a widely available and ow-cost high-absorbency component, which is also an additional source of nutrients from the product of regional municipal wastewater treatment – SS. This approach can play a positive role in addressing the problem of low productivity of sandy man-made soils. The proposed measures in this study could contribute to the growth of profit of wastewater treatment enterprises due to the reduction of penalties for the excessive waste discharge and the possibility of improving processes. Furthermore, it could allow for the involvement of a large volume of waste requiring utilization in the economic turnover, leading to a significant reduction of their adverse impact on the environment. The resulting economic effect of environmental protection is challenging to evaluate [20, 21].

Directions for future research

The results of this study require verification when implemented at the objects of accumulated environmental damage, specifically for fixing dusty surfaces of different types of tailings ponds in the Murmansk Region. This verification aims to recognize the proposed method as an alternative to traditional methods of reclamation of man-made soils.

Conclusion

Long-term field research was conducted to develop practical bases for an innovative method of bioreclamation of sandy soils without peating or earthing, and without use of mineral and organic fertilizers.

This method is based on the field observations of experimental irrigation of the man-made soil in a sand pit with the product of the regional municipal wastewater (SS) treatment, which confirmed the stimulating effect of its use on seed germination, further growth and development of plants, and improvement of the quality of artificially created sowing phytocenoses. This approach could partially contribute to the solution of important environmental problems such as the sound use of SS of regional WWS enterprises in the restoration of objects with accumulated environmental damage and environmental enhancement in the Extreme North.

The study showed that SS can be applied in two ways: as a continuous and fragmentary layer 2 to 10 cm thick on the man-made soil, and early-winter sowing of seeds – directly on the soil surface (under the SS layer) or on top of the sediment.

The method of ameliorant application significantly affects the quality of the sowing phytoceno-



sis formed. Fragmentary application of SS on the soil surface increases the plant height in the created phytocenosis by 6.3 times, the grass stand density by 1.7 times, the biomass by 29.3 times, the foliage cover by 10 times, and the turf thickness by 1.4 times compared to the reference site (the variant without SS application). When applying the sediment as a continuous layer, these indicators increase even more compared to the reference site: the height of plants by 6.9 times, the density of the grass stand by 4.4 times,

the biomass by 55.9 times, and the sod thickness by 3.7 times.

Regardless of the method of application, the application of SS contributes to the acceleration of restoration succession and an increase in biodiversity in a sand pit. A thick grass stand promotes the colonization of pioneer species, rapid vegetation of inner bare areas, the appearance of elements of natural phytocenoses typical of the vegetation zonal type, fixing, as well as stabilization of erosion processes.

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Internal and cross sectional benchmarking of electrical energy use in opencast coal mine

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Abstract

Electrical energy consumption in the opencast coal mine is very high. Electric shovels, pumps and coal handling plants consume 75% of the total electricity consumption of an opencast coal mine. In this paper, a modelling framework has been developed for electrical energy use benchmarking (internal as well as cross-sectional) of the mine. To develop a mine specific model for benchmarking electrical energy use statistical approach (linear regression method) has been applied. Specific power consumption (SPC) is used as a benchmarking index to assess the operating energy performance of a specific mine and multiple coal mines of India based on the field studies. Seasonal analysis of the electrical energy usage has also been analysed. Our results show the benchmark SPC as 0.50 kWh/t and the energy-saving potential as 10.7% for a single mine and the benchmark SPC of multiple coal mines as 0.52 kWh/t. The result concludes that SPC widely depends on its capacity and mining method and the developed model are useful for benchmarking and targeting for efficient electrical energy use in opencast mine.

Keywords

electrical, benchmarking, internal, cross sectional, specific power consumption, energy use, opencast mine

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ЭНЕРГЕТИКА, АВТОМАТИЗАЦИЯ И ЭНЕРГОЭФФЕКТИВНОСТЬ

Научная статья

Внутренний и перекрестный сопоставительный анализ потребления электроэнергии на угольных разрезах

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Аннотация

На угольных разрезах потребляется большое количество электроэнергии. Электрические экскаваторы, насосы и установки для перегрузки угля потребляют 75 % от общего объема электроэнергии. В данной работе представлена схема моделирования для проведения сопоставительного анализа (как внутреннего, так и перекрестного) потребления электроэнергии на предприятии. Для разра-



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ботки модели сопоставительного анализа потребления электроэнергии на конкретном предприятии был применен статистический подход (метод линейной регрессии). Удельное потребление электроэнергии (УПЭ) используется в качестве контрольного показателя оценки энергоэффективности конкретного предприятия и нескольких угольных предприятий в Индии на основе полевых исследований. Также проведен сезонный анализ потребления электроэнергии. Согласно полученным результатам контрольный показатель УПЭ составляет 0,50 кВт-ч/т, а потенциал энергосбережения для одного предприятия – 10,7 %. Для нескольких угольных предприятий контрольный показатель УПЭ составляет 0,52 кВт-ч/т. Сделан вывод о том, что УПЭ в значительной степени зависит от производственной мощности, а разработанные метод и модель горных работ позволяют выполнить сопоставительный анализ и достичь эффективного энергопотребления на разрезах.

Ключевые слова

электрический, сопоставительный анализ, внутренний анализ, перекрестный анализ, удельное энергопотребление, потребление энергии, разрез

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Nomenclature

SPC	Specific power consumption, kWh/t
SPC_{BM}	Benchmark SPC, kWh/t
$SPC_{\min, BM}$	Mine Benchmark SPC, kWh/t
SPC _{min}	Minimum SPC, kWh/t
E_c	Annual energy consumption, kWh
E_s	Energy-saving potential, %
Q_t	Annual composite production, t /y
Q_{coal}	Annual coal production, t/y
Q_{ob}	Overburden handled, t/y
ρ_{ob}	Bulk density of overburden, t/cu.m.
V_{ob}	Volume of overburden, cu.m./y

Subscripts and superscripts

a, *e*, *p* Aggregate, equipment, progressive *i*, *j*, *k*, *r* month, year, equipment, mine

Abbreviations

Tr Transformer

SECL South Eastern Coalfields Ltd

- BCCL Bharat Coking Coal Limited
- WCL Western Coalfields Limited
- CIMFR Central Institute of Mining & Fuel Research
- CSIR Council of Scientific and Industrial Research

Introduction

Coal production is an energy-intensive operation in an opencast mine. Coal production in India accounts for 78 per cent of total mineral sector production. India produced 730.87 MT (million tons) of coal during 2019–2020¹ mined from both underground as well as surface mining methods. In India, about 94 % of the total coal production comes from opencast mining². According to our review of data, it was found that the Specific Energy Consumption (SEC) of best practices opencast positive gradient mine in India is 123 MJ/t [1]. The Specific energy consumption of three large opencast mines of China when compared varies from 90-225 MJ/t [2]. Similarly, SEC for total operation for seven Canadian opencast mines varies from 97–256 MJ/t³. In India, the energy consumption in mining and quarrying consumes about 2.39 % of

¹ Ministry of Coal, Government of India. URL: https://coal. gov.in/index.php/major-statistics/production-and-supplies

² I bid.

³ Canadian Industry Program for Energy Conservation (CIPEC). Benchmarking the energy consumption of Canadian open-pit mine. Report No. 2005. URL: https://www.nrcan.gc.ca/ sites/www.nrcan.gc.ca/files/oee/pdf/publications/industrial/ mining/open-pit/Open-Pit-Mines-1939B-Eng.pdf

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industrial energy usage⁴ and the US mining industry consumes about 12 % of total industrial energy consumption⁵.

As the energy consumption in opencast mines is high involving energy-intensive operations such as drilling, loading, hauling, pumping, coal handling etc., its energy monitoring and performance evaluation is of paramount importance. Energy benchmarking is a powerful tool to assess the energy performance targeted towards a process, plant, commercial buildings etc. Benchmarking can be done by comparing the energy performance of similar plants including best practices in the specific sectors against one another also termed 'cross-sectional benchmarking'. Benchmarking is also feasible internally by time series analysis. The statistical approach has been applied by Boyd et al. for benchmarking energy in industrial sectors [3]. Cooke and Randal used a statistical method to establish an energy use benchmark by calculating energy consumption and production [4]. These approaches are defined as 'statistical energy benchmarking'. Model-based energy benchmarking for glass industries has been discussed by Sardeshpande et al. [5]. Beerkens et al. compared the specific energy consumption of glass furnaces for benchmarking the energy efficiency of glass furnaces [6]. Tan et al. developed an energy efficiency benchmarking methodology for the manufacturing industry [7]. Internal benchmarking of the industry has been done using linear Regression analysis of monthly energy consumption and production. Similarly benchmarking based on the best practices in terms of energy efficiency has been done for shopping centres in Gulf Coast region by Juaidi et al., [8]. From the above-mentioned review, it is learnt that there is a need for internal benchmarking as well as cross-sectional benchmarking to be applied for energy savings and enhancing energy efficiency. This fact has been supported by Wang et al. who revealed that there is no literature available on energy efficiency and benchmarking of mines [9]. Our attempt has been focused on Indian Coal mines. Techniques such as time series analysis, internal and cross-sectional benchmarking have been tried considering 4–5 years of field data.

Further, an analysis about mines indicates that Sahoo et. al [10, 11] has evaluated the energy efficiency of dump trucks in opencast mine. SEC have been used as an energy efficiency indicator for assessing the energy performance of mine dewatering systems [12], and for benchmarking energy efficiency of energy intensive industries in Taiwan [13]. Topno et al. used SPC as a performance indicator for benchmarking electrical energy consumption in a coal mine [14, 15]. In the present paper, benchmarking electrical energy use of opencast coal mine has been attempted by comparison method to know the performance of mine in different periods (yearly). The principal objective is to evaluate its best operational practices and set targets for the coming year. Energy performance during different operational conditions, round the year, has also been studied to get the practical benchmark for the opencast mine. A modelling framework has been developed for benchmarking using a statistical approach that remains applicable for mine. The model is extended further for electric energy usage in similar opencast mines in India. The model is tested in a large opencast coal mine of India using time series data by a statistical approach. Aggregate annualized data, as well as equipment wise data, have been analyzed to predict the benchmark SPC. The benchmark so obtained gave us the minimum power required for the mining process, which is the best practice followed within the mine during the past years. Energy-saving potential (plant) has been assessed that leads to continuous improvement and increased efficiency. The present paper is an extended work of energy efficiency benchmarking of power consumption in opencast mine by Topno et al. [14]. Apart from benchmarking in a mine, cross sectional benchmarking has been included.

1. Mining processes and energy usage

The mining process in an opencast mine includes drilling, blasting, excavation, transportation, crushing and sizing of the coal (Fig. 1). The coal extraction process from the mine could be either conventional, manual or mechanized. The major operating equipment in large opencast mine include high capacity electric rope shovels for loading operations, high capacity dump trucks for transportation of ore, diesel excavators, dozers and electric pumps for dewatering. The coal handling plant in opencast mine use crushers and vibrating screens to get sized coal as per the requirement of user. It is evident that to perform all major unit operations, input energy is needed. For bulky and heavy-duty mining operations in opencast coal mines, electrical power and diesel power (used as fuel in machines) are the major energy sources. The electricity consumption in shoveldumper operated opencast mine accounts for 52 % of total energy supplied to the mine.

⁴ Government of India, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Energy statistics 2018: Central statistics office. URL: http://mospi.nic.in/publication/energystatistics-2018

⁵ US Energy information and administration, US Industrial sector energy consumption by type of Industry. URL: https://www.eia.gov/energyexplained/use-of-energy/industry.php

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Fig. 1. Mining process of an opencast mine [14]

1.1. Electrical energy usage in opencast mine

As said above, energy input to the mine is diesel and electricity. Because of mobility, most or all HEMM's has Diesel as energy input mainly for operation whereas the electrical equipment, to which we targeted our study, are cables shovels, drills, crushers and coal handling plant (CHP) pumps and mine lighting. The energy consumption profile of an opencast coal mine (shovel-dumper combination) having a Coal Handling Plant (CHP) in terms of percentage has been depicted in Fig. 2. The share of electric operated shovels and CHPs is highest (more than 50 % of the total electrical energy input of the mine). Pumps contribute to 18 % of energy share, thus affecting the specific power consumption of the mine. This energy consumption is further linked with the rainfall that occurred in the mine area and pump usage i.e. running hours of the pump (s).



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1.2. Electrical energy distribution

Like the energy usages, the distribution of electrical energy has equal importance. 'High voltage' and 'Medium voltage transmission systems, are the two most important electrical distribution systems in nearly all the surface mines (an openpit mine). High-voltage distribution line feeds most quarries since the electrical loads are generally located far from distribution mains. In the present case electrical power is supplied from 132/33 kV grid substation through step-down transformers (2 Nos. @ 36 MVA each). Primary voltage of 33 kV is common for mining equipment like electric shovels and drills. Coal handling plant, pumps and lightings are fed through medium/low lines of 6.6 kV/3.3 kV/440 V. The single line diagram of the electrical distribution is shown in Fig. 3.

2. Methodology

Benchmarking for power consumption of opencast coal mines has been done using a 'statistical approach'. Following two methods have been used:

1. Internal benchmarking (within the mine).

2. Cross-sectional benchmarking.

2.1. Internal Benchmarking

A statistical model is developed for specific power consumption (SPC) benchmarking from past data of power consumption and composite production. A flow diagram of the methodology (Fig. 4) shows the steps involved and the stages of model is described in Fig. 5. This is significant to note here that the energy has been used for handling both overburden and coal (a mineral). A composite production is considered for energy performance assessment and internal benchmarking i.e. within the mine.

The formula used for the specific power consumption (SPC) and monthly/yearly progressive consumption of process, equipment or a mine is described in the following paragraphs using equations 1 to 8 for detailed understanding further.

Progressive SPC of each process/equipment

The specific power consumption (SPC) for each progressive year (j = 1, 2...4) of all equipment/processes (drills, electric shovels, coal handling (CHP), pumps) is calculated using Eq. (1)

$$SPC_{j,k} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n} E_{c,j,k}}{Q_{t,j}} \quad (j = 1, 2, 3...),$$
(1)

where each equipment (*k*) is noted for shovels (k = 1), drills (k = 2), CHP (k = 3), Silo pumps and other miscellaneous equipment and E_c is the total yearly energy consumption for each equipment/process $k = 1, 2; ..., n; Q_t$ is total composite production (the sum of coal production (Q_{coal}) and overburden handled (Q_{ob})) for j = 1, 2...4 and (Q_t):

$$Q_t = Q_{coal} + Q_{ob},\tag{2}$$

where

$$Q_{ob} = \rho_{ob} V_{ob}.$$
 (3)



Fig. 3. Electrical distribution of an opencast coal mine

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Fig. 5. Steps and the stages of the statistical model



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Monthly and Yearly Progressive SPC of mine

SPC in kWh/t is defined as the ratio of total electrical consumption (E_c) to the composite production (Q_t) of a specific month/year. It has been evaluated using aggregated data of monthly/yearly energy consumption and composite production. Both, monthly as well as annual progressive SPC i.e. $SPC_i \& SPC_j$ has been studied to analyze the variations.

The monthly SPC is given as:

$$SPC_i = \frac{E_{c,i}}{Q_{t,i}}$$
 (i = 1, 2, 3, ..., 12), (4)

where $E_{c,i}$ – the energy consumption for ith month of the year and $Q_{t,i}$ – the composite production for the corresponding month.

The yearly progressive SPC (SPC_j) of j^{th} year is given as:

$$SPC_{j} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{12} E_{c,ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{12} Q_{t,ij}} \quad (j = 1, 2...4).$$
(5)

Mine Benchmark

The benchmark SPC of the mine $(SPC_{\min e, BM})$ for the upcoming year is calculated from the average of the benchmark obtained from the Progressive SPC of each process/equipment and that obtained from the yearly progressive SPC of the mine.

The progressive SPC benchmark of equipment/process $(SPC_{e,BM})$ is estimated as

$$SPC_{e,BM} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} SPC_{\min,jk} \quad (j = 1, 2...4).$$
 (6)

Yearly benchmark SPC for the mine is obtained by comparing progressive SPC of past 4 years and is obtained as:

$$SPC_{a, BM} = SPC_{\min, i} \ (j = 1, 2, 3, 4).$$
 (7)

Hence, the overall benchmark of the mine is given as Eq. (9).

$$SPC_{mine, BM} = Avg(SPC_{e, BM}, SPC_{a, BM}).$$
(8)

2.2. Cross-sectional benchmarking

The cross-sectional benchmarking, for SPC, can be calculated or modelled using Eq. (9). This remains applicable for similar coal mines having shovel-dumper combination only and gets affected with the methodology of extraction (mining), equipment used, coal/ore/material handled and operational practices of the electric equipment:

$$SPC_{BM} = SPC_{\min, r} \ (r = 1, 2, 3, ..., m).$$
 (9)

3. Case study

The statistical approach of benchmarking has been applied for evaluating a large opencast coal mine named, Dipka Opencast Coal Mine, located at Korba in the Chhattisgarh state of India. The mine is owned by M/s South Eastern Coalfields Ltd (SECL) -A Government Public Sector Company and is considered as an important and productive colliery of India. The input data of energy consumption, production (material handled by the mining equipment and utilities) was collected as primary data from the field visit of the Dipka mine during different periods of this study. The connected electric load of the mine is 38.49 MW that includes, 6.6 kV electric shovels of 42 m³ & 10 m³ bucket capacity; 3.3 kV/440 V pumps; Coal handling plant; Silos, and other electrical loads. The annual power consumption of the mine is 49 GWh (2014-2015). The installed production capacity of the mine is 25 MTPA and has an average stripping ratio of 1 : 1 which means one cubic meter volume of coal extraction will require 1 cubic meter overburden removal.

3.1. Energy performance

Dipka mine deploy different equipment in coal production. The equipment-wise SPC has been calculated from the electrical energy consumption of individual equipment operating in the mine using Eq. 1. given in the previous section. Fig. 6 shows the yearly variation of average SPC for each equipment. The average SPC has been considered for benchmarking due to the seasonal variation of electrical load. The minimum, maximum and average SPC of shovel, drill, pumps and CHP for the mine is analysed and the SPC band for mine equipment is shown in Fig. 7. The equipment operating and its energy characteristics is given as Table 1.



Fig. 6. Equipment-wise analysis of progressive SPC

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Fig. 7. SPC Band for mining equipment

Table 1

Equipment and energy characteristics of opencast mine (Case study	Equipment and	l energy charac	cteristics of (opencast mine	(Case study)
---	---------------	-----------------	-----------------	---------------	--------------

Name of equipment	Process	Capacity	Make	Energy input	Energy usage, MUs/Kl/year*
Electric rope shovels	Everyntian	42 cu.m	P &H and	Electricity	1(
Electric shovel	Excavation	5–10 cu.m	Bucyrus	(6.6 kV)	10
Hydraulic shovels	Evenuation	4,3 cu.m	DEML DE 1000	Discol	1005
Payloader	Excavation	0.96–10 cu.m	DEML DE 1000	Diesei	1005
Electric Rock drills	Drilling	_	_	Electricity (6.6 kV)	3
Hydraulic Rock drills	Drilling	6.3 inch dia, 8 m depth	IDM 30	Diesel	380
Large mining dump trucks	Transportation	240 t, 120 t, 100 t	BEML / Caterpillar / Terex	Diesel	6715
Large Dozers	Transportation	320 hp / 410 hp / 850hp	BH-35-II CAT834B Komatsu	Diesel	2899
Coal handling plant (CHP) and Silos	Crushing and sizing of coal	_	_	Electricity	20
Pumps	Pumping of mine water	2775 LPS	_	Electricity	10
Total energy consumption		_	_	_	49 MU

* MU = kWh in case of electricity consumption); Kl/year – in case of diesel consumption).

Table 2



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Year	Total Units consumed, kWh · 10°	Coal, Mt	OB, Mt	Composite Production, Mt	SPC Composite, kWh/t
2011-2012	34.87	25.00	31.10	56.10	0.62
2012-2013	37.49	29.13	33.59	62.72	0.60
2013-2014	40.24	29.18	49.10	78.28	0.51
2014-2015	49.30	31.00	63.73	94.73	0.52
Average	40.48	28.58	44.38	72.96	0.56

Analysis of annual progressive SPC of coal mine

Table 3

Analy	sis of annual	l progressive	e SPC of coal i	nine

Mines studied*	Annual energy, kWh · 10 ⁶	Coal production, Mt	OB production, Mt	Composite production, Mt	SPC Composite, kWh/t
A	49	31	63.73	94.73	0.517
В	118	41	61.085	102.09	1.156
С	50	18.75	61.46	80.21	0.623
D	16.5	2.51	11.81	14.32	1.15
E	18	2.59	4.0145	6.60	2.727
F	8	1.34	2.077	3.42	2.339

* Means: Operating mines, Similar to the mine studied with different production capacity.

From Fig.7 it is clear that the minimum SPC of an electric shovel is 0.16 kWh/t and that of CHP is 0.12 kWh/t; for the pump is 0.10 kWh/t. The benchmark SPC of the mine based on the mining equipment and other utilities is 0.49 kWh/t. The SPC band for CHP is very wide due to variations in flow of coal input to the crushers and conveyors. For shovels, the SPC band is also high due to variations in operational practices and materials handled in the mine. The benchmark SPC by equipment-wise analysis is calculated as 0.49 kWh/t by comparing specific energy consumption data of all equipment.

3.2. Benchmark SPC within the mine

Progressive SPC of the mine is calculated from the annualized electrical energy consumption in the mine and the corresponding composite production. Analysis of annual progressive SPC of coal mining is given in Table 2. The average progressive SPC is 0.56 kWh/t of composite production whereas the minimum SPC is 0.51 kWh/t. Using Eq. (9) the benchmark SPC of the mine is estimated as 0.50 kWh/t.

3.3. Benchmark SPC for similar mines

The cross-sectional benchmarking of six operating mines (Mine – A, B, C, D, E, F) has been done by comparing the specific power consumption (Table 3)⁶. All these opencast mines of different capacities are the coal mines having similar features comparable with the mine, studied here.

4. Results and discussions

The estimated benchmark SPC for the case study is 0.50 kWh/t. However, the monthly SPC has wide variation throughout the year due to monsoon and the average minimum SPC for the off-rainy season is 0.43 kWh/t and for the rainy season, it is 0.52 kWh/t. The average progressive SPC is 0.56 kWh/t. Comparing the benchmark SPC and average SPC, the electrical energy saving potential is calculated as 10.7 %. The energy-saving areas can be identified by a detailed investigation based on a field trial of equipment operating in the mine using sophisticated energy audit instruments. A performance trial was conducted on P&H electric shovel operating in Dipka opencast mine and the SPC was calculated from the actual material handled and energy consumption for validation of the result. The SPC of an electric shovel alone is calculated as 0.18 kWh/t and accounts for 36 % of the total electricity consumption.

⁶ CIMFR studies and technical communications on energy efficiency and benchmarking in Opencast mines. 2015.



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4.1. Mine-specific energy performance model

The linear regression method has been used to obtain the correlation between specific power consumption (*SPC*) and composite production (*Q*) and the analysis results are summarized (Fig. 8). The variations of SPC with the composite production have been plotted. The scatter plot shows the relationship between the yearly aggregated progressive specific power consumption (*SPC*_a) and composite production (Q_t) and is given as Eq. (10) (the R^2 value of linear regression is 0.791):

$$SPC_a = -0.002Q_t + 0.771.$$
(10)

The linear trend has a negative slope and indicates that SPC decreases with an increase in composite production. The above linear model can be used for the prediction of SPC with an increase or decrease in production rate. From Fig. 9 it is clear that energy consumption increases with the increase in composite production whereas SPC decreases due



to optimum utilization of the mining equipment deployed at the mine. The model can be used to predict the SPC of the mine for varying material handling rates. A modelling framework was developed by Topno et al. [15] for assessing energy performance of electric shovel operating in the same opencast mine and the results obtained for *SPC* is 0.12 kWh/cu.m.

For another mine specific model given as Eq (11); a linear regression model from the actual aggregated past data of specific power consumption and composite production for a mine of different topography, equipment and energy characteristics as given in Table 4.

$$SPC_a = -6 \times 10^{-8}Q_t + 1.8995. \tag{11}$$

Fig. 10 shows the linear model with different x-coefficient and constant. The constant and x-co-efficient changes from mine to mine depending on both mine topography, equipment and their energy characteristics.



Fig. 9. Variation of electrical energy consumption

Mi	ne equipment and er	nergy characteristi	cs of Mine D	

Table	4
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Name of equipment	Process	Capacity	Energy input	Energy usage (MUs)/Kl/year	
Electric shovel	Excavation	2.4 Cu.m / 5 Cu.m / 10 Cu.m			
Electric Rock drills	Drilling	160 mm	Electricity (3.3 kV & 6.6 kV)		
Coal handling plant (CHP) and Silos	Crushing and sizing of coal	- (5.5 KV (2 0.0 KV)		> 16.5 MU	
Pumps	Pumping of mine water	732 lps.	Electricity 3.3 kV / 415 V	J	
Hydraulic shovels Payloader)	Excavation	3.5 Cu.m	Diesel	1557.6	
Hydraulic Rock drills	Drilling	160 mm	Diesel	871.6	
Medium mining dump trucks Scania dumpers	Transportation	(60 t, 50 t, 35 t)	Diesel	3106.6	
Dozers	Transportation	320 hp/BD155 410 HP/BD355	Diesel	978.1	

* MU = Million units (Million kWh in case of electricity consumption); Kl/year = kilo litres/year (in case of diesel consumption).

rnal and cross sectional benchmarking of electrical energy use in opencast coal mine

The specific power consumption in the present models given in Eq (10) and Eq (11) shows its variation at different composite production for two opencast mines of different capacity, equipment characteristics as well as their energy consumption profiles. The equipment and energy characteristics affect the energy performance of the mine.

4.2. Seasonal analysis of SPC

A time-series data of monthly SPC has been plotted in Fig. 11. The analysis shows that the specific power consumption is higher during the month of July-October than the period between November-June. The composite production during these months is lower due to the effect of monsoon on mining operation and poor capacity utilization of electric shovels, drills etc. Further, the SPC is higher due to the increased load of pumps used for dewatering. The monthly minimum SPC of the off-rainy season and the rainy season plot (Fig. 12) shows that the average SPC varies from 0.43 kWh/t to 0.52 kWh/t. The seasonal analysis of SPC helps the mine management to prepare a monsoon plan to reduce energy consumption by optimizing the pump and machine operation schedule.



Fig. 10. The linear model with different x-coefficient and constant



Fig. 11. Seasonal analysis of SPC

4.3. Benchmarking of similar coal mines

The results obtained by comparison of different opencast coal mines, studied by CSIR-CIMFR7 for different energy efficiency projects are presented in Table 3, Fig. 13.

The aggregated SPC of similar coal mines varies between 0.52 kWh/t to 1.15 kWh/t, minimum being 0.52 kWh/t. As large mines (production capacity more than 30 Mt) makes use of high capacity electric shovel which are the major electrical consuming equipment (36 %). In smaller mines, producing 1.3 Mt to 2.6 Mt of coal, the SPC varies between 1.15 to 2.72 kWh/t.

4.4. Energy-saving potential

Estimation of the electrical energy saving potential, by comparing the progressive benchmark SPC $(SPC_{n, BM})$ and annualized average $(SPC_{a, Avg})$ is possible for a coal mine and this calculation is done using Eq. 12 given below.

⁷ CIMFR studies and technical communications on energy efficiency and benchmarking in Opencast mines. 2015.



Fig. 12. Monthly SPC for the off-rainy and rainy season



Fig. 13. The results obtained by comparison of different opencast coal mines



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$$E_{s} = \frac{(SPC_{a,Avg} - SPC_{p,BM}) \cdot 100}{SPC_{a,Avg}},$$
 (12)

where $(SPC_{a, Avg})$ is the average of annual progressive SPC and is given by Eq. (13)

$$SPC_{a,Avg} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} SPC_j}{4}$$
 (13)

As per Eq. (12), the energy-saving potential of the mine is 10.7 % for the studied mine, which vary on each progressive year, based on the analysis of four years of data and the actual operating condition of the mine.

Conclusions

Benchmarking energy consumption is an effective tool to assess and compare the energy performance of the mines. Opencast surface mines, producing coal (or other minerals) are the industrial beneficiaries of the benchmarking. Both, internal benchmarking and cross-sectional benchmarking can be used by the mine management to identify the key areas that require performance improvement to reduce energy consumption and set up targets for the mining sector, to reduce industrial energy consumption. In this research paper, benchmarking work of the electrical energy usage for a large opencast mine of India has been done and the progressive benchmark SPC is estimated as 0.50kWh/t.

A new method of comparison and modelling using past operating data for each process as well as aggregated data of composite production and energy consumption, have been applied for various surface coal mines of both small size and large size. Linear regression methods have been used for solving the present mine specific data. Especially, coal mines of the Indian mining industry are targeted to predict the benchmark SPC. The benchmark obtained by internal benchmarking is useful to assess the energy efficiency of a specific mine and the SPC obtained by cross-sectional benchmarking is useful to assess the best performing mines with the best practices. The energy-saving potential of the mine has also been assessed.

In brief, it is concluded that the energy performance evaluation of a specific mine or a group of mine is feasible by benchmarking models suggested in this paper for mining sector and benefits by assessing and implementing the energy saving potential.

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Omitrieva V. V., Khammatov A. B. Simulation of protection against unbalanced high-voltage asynchronous drive

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Simulation of protection against unbalanced high-voltage asynchronous drive of recycle compressor in fuel hydrotreating unit

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Abstract

In the oil and gas industry, continuous processes such as oil and gas refining play a great role and are sensitive to many external factors. Such processes require special procedures for stopping and restarting. In order to maintain a sustainable process, the entire system needs to be cleaned by removing of unreacted components. Rejected raw materials are often dumped into a flare leading to tangible environmental problems and significant economic disadvantages. Electrotechnical systems (ETS) play an important role in ensuring continuous technological processes in oil and gas industry. Electric motors are one of the key elements of ETS. The majority of the electrical machines used in industry today are Asynchronous motors (AM) – no less than 80 %. Ensuring their trouble-free operation is one of the key factors in the design, simulation, and analysis of asynchronous motor relay protection systems, including unbalanced conditions of their operation. These conditions can occur due to unbalanced AM connection circuits, supply voltage unbalance, or as any faults in a machine itself. Operating a motor under these conditions will result in shorter motor life, reduced power, wear and aging of the insulation. The study subject was an Asynchronous motor drive of a recycle compressor of a gasoline hydrotreating unit at the fuel hydrotreating integrated unit at the Astrakhan Gas Refining Plant (AGRP). The authors used Matlab simulations to study the facility and its protection systems/devices operation. The method of symmetrical components was selected as the main theoretical method. The authors developed a model of an asynchronous motor drive of a recycle compressor. This involved establishing a set of relay protections (RP) and developing the models of the following protections: sequence filter (symmetrical component filter) (SF), negative sequence (nps) O/C protection, and overload protection. It was demonstrated that the specified relay protection complex fully protects the motor from unbalanced operation conditions. The authors conducted a study of the protection complex operation under different supply voltage unbalances, with different motor loads. They formed a conclusion about the performance of the developed protection complex, and gave recommendations for its technical implementation in a business environment. The study findings can be used as a basis for the development and testing of relay protection components of the entire electrical system of the fuel hydrotreating unit at the Astrakhan Gas Refining Plant.

Keywords

asynchronous motor, unbalanced conditions of operation, unbalanced supply voltage, relay protection, structural simulation, sequence filter, negative sequence O/C protection, overload protection, Sepam1000+, Matlab, Simulink

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ЭНЕРГЕТИКА, АВТОМАТИЗАЦИЯ И ЭНЕРГОЭФФЕКТИВНОСТЬ

Научная статья

Моделирование защиты от несимметричных режимов работы высоковольтного асинхронного привода циркуляционного компрессора в установке гидроочистки топлив

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Аннотация

В нефтегазовой промышленности большую роль играют непрерывные технологические процессы, например, нефте- и газопереработка, которые чувствительны к многим внешним факторам. Такие процессы требуют реализации специальных процедур для остановки и повторного пуска. Для на-



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ладки технологического процесса необходимы очистка всей системы от непрореагировавших компонентов и их удаление. Забракованное сырьё зачастую сбрасывается на факел, что влечет за собой ощутимые экологические проблемы и значительный экономический ущерб. Важную роль в обеспечении непрерывных технологических процессов в нефтегазовой промышленности играют электротехнические системы (ЭТС), одним из ключевых элементов которых являются электродвигатели. Большую часть, не менее 80 %, используемых сегодня в промышленности электрических машин, составляют асинхронные двигатели (АД). Безаварийная их работа является одной из ключевых задач, что обеспечивает актуальность проектирования, моделирования и анализа действия систем релейных защит асинхронного двигателя, включая несимметричные режимы их работы. Эти режимы могут возникнуть при несимметричных схемах включения АД, несимметрии питающего напряжения, а также в результате каких-либо неисправностей в самой машине. Работа двигателя в таких условиях приведет к сокращению срока его службы, снижению мощности, износу и старению изоляции. В качестве исследуемого объекта выбран асинхронный электропривод циркуляционного компрессора блока гидроочистки бензина в комбинированной установке гидроочистки топлив, расположенного на Астраханском газоперерабатывающем заводе (АГПЗ). Для исследования работы и его защит авторы использовали моделирование в программе Matlab. В качестве основного теоретического метода выбран метод симметричных составляющих. Авторы разработали модель асинхронного электропривода циркуляционного компрессора; сформировали комплекс релейных защит (РЗ) и разработали модели следующих защит: «фильтр симметричных составляющих» (ФСС), максимальная токовая защита обратной последовательности «МТЗ $I_{\text{max ofp}}$ », защита от перегрузки. Продемонстрировано, что указанный комплекс релейной защиты полностью защищает двигатель от несимметричных режимов работы. Авторами было проведено исследование работы комплекса защит при различных несимметриях питающего напряжения, при различной загрузке двигателя, сделан вывод о работоспособности разработанной защиты, а также даны рекомендации по его технической реализации на производстве. Выполненная работа может быть положена в основу разработки и тестирования релейной защиты элементов всей электротехнической системы установки гидроочистки топлив на Астраханском ГПЗ.

Ключевые слова

асинхронный двигатель, несимметричные режимы работы, несимметрия питающего напряжения, релейная защита, структурное моделирование, фильтр симметричных составляющих, максимальная токовая защита, защита от перегрузки, Sepam1000+, Matlab, Simulink

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Introduction. Statement of problem

In the oil and gas industry, continuous processes such as oil and gas refining play a great role and are sensitive to many external factors. Such processes require special procedures for stopping and restarting. In order to maintain a sustainable process, the entire system needs to be cleaned by removing unreacted components. The rejected raw materials are often dumped into a flare leading to tangible environmental problems and significant economic disadvantages. Electrotechnical systems (ETS) play an important role in ensuring continuous technological processes in oil and gas industry. Electric motors are one of the key elements of ETSs. The majority of the electrical machines used in industry today are Asynchronous motors (AM) - no less than 80 %. Ensuring their trouble-free operation is one of the key factors in the design, simulation, and analysis of asynchronous motor relay protection systems, including unbalanced conditions of their operation.

This paper discusses the design and simulation of a number of relay protections against unbalanced conditions of operation of an asynchronous motor [1]. The causes of such conditions can be both external, such as unbalance in the voltage supplied to the motor [2], and defects in the machine itself. If unbalance occurs due to imperfections in the rotor circuit of the motor, the torque is the sum of the torques of the positive-phase-sequence M_1 and negative-phase-sequence M_2 :

$$M(s) = M_1 + M_2, (1)$$

and this dependence curve will have a dip at torque creep $s \approx 0.5$. Since a negative-phase-sequence field is stationary with respect to the stator, it does not create currents in the stator. Therefore, the torque due to this field will be zero. If $0 \le s \le 0.5$. The magnetic field will rotate relative to the stator in the negative direction, and the torque M_2 will act on the rotor in the direction of rotation. If $0.5 \le s \le 1$, the field rotates relative to the stator in the rotor against the direction of rotation. If there is significant resistance unbalance in the secondary circuit, the motor will not reach normal R.p.m. This effect is maximal when one rotor phase fails.

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Fig. 1. Basic process flow diagram of gasoline fraction hydrotreating unit

If the cause of unbalanced AM operation conditions is the unbalance of voltages supplied to the stator winding $(U_{AB} \neq U_{BC} \neq U_{CA})$, the phase voltages will not be equal to each other $(U_A \neq U_B \neq U_C)$. The influence of unbalance [3] on the operation of an asynchronous motor is investigated by the method of symmetrical components. In the case of an unbalanced power supply, the maximum M_{max} and starting M_{start} torques of the motor are reduced and the torque creep increases, while the loading torque remains unchanged due to the influence of the negative-phase-sequence. In addition, when the motor is supplied with unbalanced voltage, its efficiency decreases, the losses increase, and consequently motor heating also increases. This can affect the life of the winding insulation. For example, with a voltage unbalance of 2 %, the service life of a motor is reduced by 10 % due to additional losses of active power. For this reason, if there is a strong voltage unbalance, the motor power has to be reduced. Thus, the work of an asynchronous motor at unbalanced supply voltage is undesirable, and the study of asynchronous motor protection systems is an urgent task.

Currently, in Russia, the quality indicators of electrical energy according to the national technical standard GOST 32144-2013 are standardized in terms of the negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor K_{2U} and zero-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor K_{0U} . The maximum permissible values for these quality indicators are 2% and 4% respectively, which are averaged in the time interval of 10 minutes for 95% and 100% of the time for a week¹.

Description of the research subject

The study subject was an asynchronous motor drive of a recycle compressor of a gasoline hydrotreating unit of the fuel hydrotreating integrated unit at the Astrakhan Gas Refining Plant (AGRP). It is a more rational choice to study unbalanced motor operation conditions on powerful motors, as the effect of unbalance in this case will be better expressed.

The hydrotreating unit is designed for hydrotreating of 2 million tons/year of straight-run broad gasoline fraction NK-180°C (with possible weighting of the boiling point to 230°C) produced from Astrakhan gas condensate, broad fraction of light hydrocarbons, and distillate gasoline from a diesel hydrotreating unit. The working hours of the hydrotreating unit are 8000 hours per year. The operating regime of the unit is continuous. The process flow sheet of the gasoline hydrotreating is shown in Fig. 1. The process flow sheet of the gasoline hydrotreating unit includes:

 hydrotreating of raw feedstock with aluminacobalt-molybdenum catalyst;

- cold separation of the gas-feedstock mixture;

hydrotreated feed stabilization;

gas-air regeneration of the catalyst;

 purification of hydrogen-containing gas and hydrocarbon gas with diethanolamine;

- corrosion inhibitor protection.

Fig. 1 shows the main unit components: a reactor, column-stabilizers, mechanical filters, pumps, heat exchangers, separators, and storage tanks (E-306). The direction of movement of NK-180 gasoline fraction is indicated by arrows. The facility under study is a **re-cycle compressor**, which pressurizes hydrogen-containing gas to produce a gas-feedstock mixture, which

¹ GOST 32144–2013. Quality standards of electrical energy in power supply systems of general purpose. Moscow: Standards Publishers; 2014. 15 p.

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then goes through various process cycles: heating, hydrogenation, stabilization, cooling, and the resulting hydrogenate is taken out of the unit.

Control of the technological processes of the gasoline hydrotreating unit and the facilities of the gasoline hydrotreating unit with a pumping station is managed from an automated control system (APCS) from a single workplace of a process control operator. The APCS is a hierarchical multifunctional commercial design-composable software and hardware complex based on microprocessor hardware with modular architecture [4]. The system provides on-line monitoring and control of all process operations of the unit, collection, accumulation, processing and displaying of information on the technological process, stabilization of key parameters, alarming of equipment operation and valve positions, blocking and protection of the unit from emergency situations, emergency alarms, and equipment fault detection.

The power supply system of the gasoline hydrotreating unit includes a distribution point. The scheme is shown in Fig. 2:

- TsK-1, TsK-2 are VSG 2GC2-47/35-44M UHL4 recycle compressors (complete with 1000/TF/LB/D00908 dry gas seals control panel). Asynchronous electric motors 4 AZMP-2000/6000 UHL4 ($U_{rated} = 6000$ V; $P_{rated} = 2000$ kW; n = 3000 rpm; explosion protection IExdIIBT4) are installed as drives;

- N-1/1, N-1/2, N-1/3 - 1NPS-E200/700 centrifugal vertical split casing oil pumps (with flat body connector). IBAO-560S-4Y2,5-T asynchronous motors are installed as drives. The product to be refined is a

gasoline fraction. These pumps are used to feed gasoline fraction to the hydrotreating unit;

- UK-1 is capacitor unit ($U_{rated} = 6000$ V; Q = 450 kVAr (reactive kilovolt-ampere)) included in the scheme for compensation of reactive power, released on the electric motors TsK-1 (TsK-2);

– 1T, 2T are double-winding three-phase power transformers TSZL-1600/6/0.4 for powering transformer substation low-voltage load.

Research techniques

In order to study the operation of an asynchronous motor under unbalanced conditions, we used mathematical simulation. *Matlab* software package was used [5, 6] as a simulation program. We traditionally used the method of symmetrical components [7] in compiling the mathematical model of an AM.

The most suitable way of protecting electric motors is the development of protection equipment [8]. The complexity of its design, cost-effectiveness, accuracy of operation, and reliability are considered when evaluating the equipment. In order to avoid technological losses associated with asynchronous motor unbalanced operation conditions, a range of protection methods are applied [9, 10]. Since abnormal operation conditions will affect not just the motor, but also the protection itself, the protection equipment must have a high level of reliability [10, 11]. The methods of protection of electric motors from damage at unbalanced conditions of operation can be divided into preventive and technical. This requires the development and implementation of up-to-date protective means made on a microprocessor base [12, 13].



Fig. 2. Power supply diagram for gasoline hydrotreating unit

Devices of indirect type, tripping when stator windings temperature exceeds a preset level (devices of built-in temperature protection, phase-sensitive protection) and those of direct action, reacting to occurrence of negative- or zero-phase-sequence of voltage or current can be used to protect electric motors from unbalanced and single-phase conditions [14, 15].

Because these protections correspond not to the unbalance itself, but to its consequences, their operation is characterized by a large error of tripping, low reliability and response speed. Other disadvantages of these protections are complicated circuits, large mass and dimensions, and a high cost. In this regard, direct action devices are more promising, namely, special protection devices based on sequence filters.

Devices for AM protection against supply voltage unbalance can be based on zero and negative sequence filters and react to current or voltage unbalances.

Let us consider the advantages and disadvantages of relay protection based on current relays. Current protections with negative and zero sequence filters respond to all unbalanced conditions. These devices monitor the current as it flows through the stator phase circuits. Tripping of protections based on them does not depend on the point of connection. However, the use of current transformers decreases the protection reliability, increases power consumption and mass and dimensions of the devices. In addition, due to transformer core saturation, the protection has insufficient tripping accuracy [16]. Biased protections are used to increase the sensitivity of current filter protections.

If a protection is implemented on a voltage relay, it should be borne in mind that voltage relays do not have versatility, because they detect only one failure. The most suitable type of AM protection is the use of so-called voltage monitors which monitor several types of accidents (failures). Such monitors are bases on microprocessor devices. They are versatile, highly reliable, simple, inexpensive, and ensure timely shutdown of an electric motor in the event of unbalanced and single-phase conditions [12, 17].

At present, series 80 Sepam 1000+ microprocessor protection is being implemented at the facility in question, in order to ensure the protection of electrical equipment.

Let us consider the capabilities of Sepam 1000+ in the area of unbalanced power supply protection. In order to protect an asynchronous motor from overloads caused by unbalanced line voltage, a positive-phase-sequence minimum voltage protection $U^{(1)}$ is used. This protection trips when the component $U^{(1)}$ of a three-phase voltage system falls below the design tripping set-point of the protection U_{trip} . Protection against phase imbalance is implemented by measuring $U^{(2)}$. The time delay of both protections is independent.

Sepam 1000+ for implementing these protections operates on line or phase voltage and allows tuning out based on negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor [14]

$$K_{2U} = \frac{U^{(2)}}{U^{(1)}} 100\%.$$

Negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor and time delay set-points are set, in order to provide the protection against unbalance: $K_{2U} = 20 \%$ and t = 10 s. Current protections which identify unbalanced operation conditions include negative sequence overcurrent (O/C) protection, overload protection, and thermal protection. Negative sequence overcurrent protection produces a value of unbalance factor based on the negative-phase-sequence current. The protection has a dependent and independent time delay. Overload protection and thermal protection are designed to protect a motor against the overloads caused by unbalanced loads in operating conditions or abnormal grid regimes. They also detect the consequences of unbalance rather than unbalance itself, and are therefore less accurate.

The range of set-points of these protections is shown in Table 1^2 .

Table 1

Time delay Setting **Protection function** range range, s Protection against unbalanced 0.05 - 300 $K_{2U} = 0 \div 50 \%$ supply voltage Negative sequence O/C 0.1-300 22.3-1130 A protection with independent Δt Negative sequence O/C 22.3-1130 A 0.1 - 1protection with dependent Δt Overload protection with 0.05 - 3001-6250 A independent Δt Overload protection with 0.1 - 12.51-6250 A dependent Δt for 2260 A Thermal protection 60-200°C 1-600 min

Range of set-points of Series 80 Sepam 1000+ protections

 $^{^{\}scriptscriptstyle 2}$ Sepam 1000+ (Series 80) Installation and Application Manual.

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Development of an asynchronous motor model and models of devices for relay protection against unbalanced operation conditions in Matlab Simulink

We will use the Asynchronous Machine block in the Matlab Simulink software package [18] to simulate an AM. 4AZM-2000/6000 UHL4 motor nameplate data are given in Table 2.

4AZM-2000/6000 UHL4 motor nameplate data			
Power, kW	2000		
Rotation velocity, rpm	2973		
Weight, kg	5600		
Stator current, A	226		
Slip, %	0,9		
КРІ	96.7		
Power factor, p.u.	0.88		
Peak torque brevity	1.9		
Starting torque brevity	0.77		
Starting current brevity	4.7		

Based on the motor nameplate data, let us calculate the values of the motor model parameters in Matlab Simulink by the method described in [19]. The obtained parameters required for simulation are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Parameters of 4AZM-2000/6000 UHL4 motor in Simulink

Reduced rotor active resistance, Ohm	0.419724
Active stator resistance, Ohm	0.888812
Reduced stator and rotor leakage inductance, henry	0.003531
Excitation circuit inductance, henry	0.127834
Moment of inertia, kg·m ²	187.07

The model of asynchronous motor protection against unbalanced supply voltage modes is based on the existing Sepam 1000+ protection. The protection set-points to be reflected in the model are given in Table 4. In order to simulate the unbalanced operation conditions of a motor and the means of its protection against unbalance, a scheme was constructed using the Matlab Simulink software package. It is shown in Fig. 3.

Table 4

Protection	model	set-points	in	Matlab	Simulink	
1 I Otteetion	mouci	see points	***	matiab	omannik	

Table 2

	Tripping	Release (reset)	t _{tr} , s
Sequence filter-based protection	$K_{2U} = 8 \%$	$K_{2U0} = 6 \%$	10
Overload protection	$I_{trip} = 350 \text{ A}$	$I_{rel} = 300 \text{ A}$	18
Negative sequence O/C protection	$I_{negative \ sequence \ O/C \ protection \ tripping} = 60 \ A$	$I_{rel} = 20 \text{ A}$	10



Fig. 3. Schematic of an asynchronous motor simulation in Simulink:

in1 – input 1; in2 – input 2; in3 – Input 3; out1 – output 1; out2 – Output 2; out3 – Output 3

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Explanations for the scheme of simulation of an asynchronous motor in Simulink:

1. The input three-phase voltage is formed by three single-phase sources in the form of AC *Voltage Source* elements of *SimPowerToolbox* package: amplitude A = 4898.98 V, frequency f = 50 Hz; initial phase: 0° for phase A, -120° for phase B, and 120° for phase C.

2. Asynchronous motor: set by *Asynchronous Machine* block. The block parameters are selected in accordance with Table 3. The torque is set by *Signal Builder*, *Constant*, *Product*1 blocks for the soft start of a motor.

3. Three-phase breaker: set by *Three-Phase Breaker* block. This block is controlled by a signal, the open and closed key position resistances are stored by default at $10^6 \ 10^{-2}$ ohms, respectively.

4. Current and voltage meters are set by *Current Measurement* and *Voltage Measurement*.

5. RMS1-RMS4 blocks are designed to measure rms current or voltage values.

6. Sequence filter protection: input quantities for the block are effective (rms) phase voltages, while the output quantities are the protection tripping signal and the value of negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor. The measured voltages are converted into balanced (symmetrical) components of the positive- and negative-phase-sequence with the use of *Magnitude-Angle to Complex* block. *Divide* block is used to calculate K_{2U} ; when the set-point set by *Relay* block $K_{2U} = 0.08$ is exceeded, a tripping signal is given with a time delay of 10 s.

7. Negative Sequence O/C protection: the input values are the motor stator rms currents, while the output is a tripping (protection actuating) signal.

Similarly to the sequence filter, based on the measured line currents, negative-phase-sequence current is obtained and compared with a set-point. If the set-point is exceeded ($I_{trip} = 60$ A), the protection system gives a signal for tripping with a time delay of 10 s.

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8. Overload protection: the input values are the motor stator rms currents, while the output is a tripping (protection actuating) signal. Maximum effective current is calculated using MinMax block and then compared with a corresponding set-point. If the set-point $I_{trip} = 350$ A is exceeded, a signal for tripping is given with a time delay of 18 s.

9. "Tripping signal": the input values are signals of tripped sequence filter, Negative Sequence O/C protection, and overload protection, while the output value is a tripping signal. *Logical Operator* 1–3 and Monostable blocks are used to open a breaker, and since this is accompanied by tripping the protections, no signal is given to activate the motor, so there is no looping of the simulation.

The internal structure of the above blocks complies with the protection algorithms. For a more compact and concise presentation, all of the above protections are enclosed in *Subsystem* blocks. As an example, Fig. 4 presents the "Sequence Filter" protection circuit.

The developed motor model and its protection circuit can be verified by simulating its rated operating conditions. Simulation of a motor operation at rated operating conditions presents transients which coincide with the reference processes of an asynchronous motor in terms of phase currents, line voltages, rotor and stator currents, rotor rpm, and electromagnetic torque of a motor.



Fig. 4. Internal structure of the Sequence Filter block

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1. Line currents during start-up (t = 0-8 c) are about 6 times the rated current; this corresponds to the motor nameplate data. When the motor reaches the rated r.p.m., the currents decrease and reach the rated values $I_{rated} = 226$ A.

2. Line voltages corresponding to the rated value throughout the simulation time $U_{l-rated} = 6000$ V.

3. Signals formed by the protections models demonstrate that at the rated operating conditions, the protections do not trip, forming signal 0 on their outputs. These conditions correspond to 1 on the "Tripping Signal" block output, since when such a signal is applied to the circuit breaker, the breaker is closed.

Let us check the functionality of the installed protections by considering their operation under abnormal conditions of motor operation. The tests conducted by the authors have shown that when the load torque increases by 50 %, the overload protection trips. The other protections do not trip, since there are no negative-phase-sequence currents and voltages. The time diagrams show the protection tripping at time t = 18 s.

Let us now consider the operation of the protections when voltage changes in one of phases. When the voltage in phase *A* increases by 20 %, in line with voltage unbalance, current unbalance arises. However, at a given deviation, the level of negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor $K_{2U} = 6.07 \ \% < K_{2Umax} = 8 \ \%$ is not enough for tripping a corresponding protection. The current deviation is sufficient to cause a negative-phase-sequence current exceeding the set-point of the negative sequence O/C protection $I_2 = 80 \ A > I_{2max} = 60 \ A$. The time diagrams show the protection tripping at time t = 10 s. The overload protection does not trip, since the stator currents decrease before reaching the time set-point t = 18 s.

If the voltage in one of the phases is reduced, the currents will decrease. However, a deviation of more than 20 % is necessary for the negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance protection to trip. In this case, $K_{2U} = 8.95 \% > K_{2Umax} = 8 \%$, and therefore the voltage unbalance protection trips, but $I_2 = 50 \text{ A} < I_{2max} = 60 \text{ A}$, so the negative sequence overcurrent protection does not trip.

We can see that the protections operate selectively and protect the motor from unbalanced operation conditions within the preset set-point limits. Consequently, the digital model developed allows not only motor operation at unbalanced supply voltage to be studied, but also conditions with the use of overload protection detected, negative sequence overcurrent protection. It also allows for protection based on a sequence filter.

Performance Results. Simulation of the processes in an asynchronous motor with unbalanced supply voltage

Let us consider model operation when the supply voltage is unbalanced [20]. By varying the voltages in each phase by $\Delta U = \pm 15 \% U_{rated}$, we can consider the deviations (changes) of negative-phase-sequence currents and voltage unbalance factor K_{2U} . Fig. 5 shows these voltage deviations. This diagram shows the values of deviation ΔU , %, in phases in the course of 43 tests. The legend of the diagram explains the display color of each phase. The same diagram shows the deviations in K_{2U} factor.



Fig. 5. Values of deviations in supply voltage phases



Next, Fig. 6 shows the dependence of negativephase-sequence voltage unbalance factor K_{2U} on the deviations of the voltages in the phases.

The third diagram (Fig. 7) presents the currents in the motor phases *Ia*, *Ib*, *Ic* as functions of the voltages unbalance in the phases.

The tripping of simulated protections is also of interest. Table 5 presents the operations of protections operation and shows the results of the most representative part of the tests (those in which the protections trip).

Analysis of research findings

Fig. 8 shows an example of the simulation results in Simulink. The simulation results show that the negative-phase-sequence overcurrent (O/C) protection trips more often when the supply voltage is unbalanced. This can be explained by the fact that when the voltage level changes even in one of the phases of the source, this causes a change in currents in all motor phases. This, in turn, causes the unbalance of currents and arising negative-phase-sequence currents [21]. If the negative-phase-sequence current exceeds the set-point level of the time-delayed protection, the protection trips and the power supply is switched off. The simulation results allow the conclusion that the protection does not always respond equally to the same levels of voltage unbalance. For example, at $K_{2U} = 4,9$ % in one case ($\Delta Ua = 5$ %; $\Delta Ub = 0$ %; $\Delta Uc = -10$ %) the negative sequence overcurrent protection trips, while in another case it does not ($\Delta Ua = 15$ %; $\Delta Ub = 0$ %; $\Delta Uc = 0$ %). In cases where the level of unbalance is $K_{2U} > 5$ %, negative sequence overcurrent protection trips, and when it is $K_{2U} > 8$ %, the sequence filter protection also trips.



Fig. 6. Dependence of negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor K_{2U} on phase voltage deviations ΔU , %



Fig. 7. The currents in a motor phases Ia, Ib, Ic as functions of the negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor K_{2U}

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Analysis of the dependence of currents in phases on the unbalance factor shows that significant current unbalance occurs even at small values of the unbalance factor K_{2U} . This means that for fullfledged motor protection, in addition to sequence filter protection, negative sequence overcurrent protection should be in place, since it is under the action of negative-phase-sequence currents a motor heating occurs, losses increase, and thereby the service life is reduced.

Now let us consider the effect of voltage unbalance on motor phase currents at different shaft loads. For this purpose the load will vary from 0 to 120 %. The examples of the study results for noload, rated conditions, and overload are presented in Tables 6–8. It is important to note that when the load on the motor shaft is 120% of the rated load, and when the voltages in phases A, B, C deviate by -10, -10 and 0% respectively, the overload protection trips. This is because even a small voltage unbalance during overload causes currents in excess of the protection set-point.

The data presented in the tables shows that at the same deviations in phase voltages, the currents have greater unbalance at higher load factors. This is because the more loaded motor produces greater currents, and with an unbalanced supply voltage, the magnitude of these increased currents has a greater effect on the unbalance, thus causing greater negative-phase-sequence (nps) current. Therefore, unbalanced supply voltage conditions are unacceptable at high motor loads.

Table 5

Simulation results for AM o	peration under con	ditions of unbalanced	l supply voltage
Simulation results for All C	peration under con	iuitions of unbalance	i supply voltage

Phase	voltage deviat	ions, %	Currents in motor phases, A			V 0/	Tripping	
ΔUa	ΔUb	ΔUc	Іа	Гb	Ic	κ _{2U} , ⁄ο	Tripping	
10	-10	0	270	136	280	6,1	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
5	-10	-10	296	168	254	4,9	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
10	-5	-10	305	163	230	5,8	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
10	-10	-10	315	137	262	6,7	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
10	10	-10	307	223	144	5,7	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-5	301	153	221	5,9	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-10	323	161	212	7	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-15	347	173	205	8,5	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	
15	5	-5	294	180	186	5,2	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-10	323	161	212	7	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-15	347	173	205	8,5	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	
15	5	-5	294	180	186	5,2	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	5	-10	321	184	178	6,6	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	5	-15	348	198	179	8,4	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	
15	10	-15	350	219	151	8,7	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	
15	10	-10	323	209	154	7	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	10	-5	298	195	166	5,2	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	15	-10	354	245	119	9,4	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	
15	-15	-15	357	106	285	10,5	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	



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Let us now consider the rotor rpm and torque produced by the motor under different unbalanced supply voltage conditions as a function of time. We will investigate the operation of the motor with rated load when the voltage in the phases deviates from the rated value as follows:

1) phase voltage deviations: $\Delta Ua = 15\%$; $\Delta Ub = 10\%$; $\Delta Uc = 0\%$;

2) phase voltage deviations: $\Delta Ua = 10$ %; $\Delta Ub = 5$ %; $\Delta Uc = 0$ %;

3) phase voltage deviations: $\Delta Ua = -15$ %; $\Delta Ub = -5$ %; $\Delta Uc = 0$ %;

4) phase voltage deviations: $\Delta Ua = -10$ %; $\Delta Ub = 0$ %; $\Delta Uc = 0$ %.

In the conditions under consideration, the motor has time to reach steady-state operation conditions before the overload protection trips Thus, the negative sequence overcurrent protection and sequence filter-based protection do not trip. To obtain a more illustrative study, the stator and rotor currents, as



Fig. 8. Timing diagrams: *A* – line rotor currents, stator currents, rotor rpm, and electromagnetic torque of a motor with an increase in phase A voltage by 20 %; *B* – protection signals with an increase in phase A voltage by 20 %

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well as the rotor rpm and the motor torque for 13 s of simulation are considered. The simulation results are presented in Table 9. Fig. 9 shows examples of the graphs of changes in the rotor currents, stator currents, rotation velocity and drive torque of an asynchronous motor at the considered negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor values K_{2U} .

The figures presented show that the supply voltage unbalance causes currents unbalance and, consequently, negative-phase-sequence current. This violates the normal regime of motor operation by changing the shape of stator and rotor current curves, as well as the rotor rpm and the motor torque, that is, by creating oscillations of these parameters. The

Table 6

Simulation of unbalanced motor operation conditions at 100% load										
Voltage deviations in phases, %			V V	Motor phase currents, A			Trinning			
ΔUa	ΔUb	ΔUc	К _{2U} , %	Іа	Ib	Ic	Tripping			
-10	-10	0	4	197.7	244.1	277.2	Protections fall to function			
10	-5	-10	6	304.8	162.8	229.9	Negative Sequence O/C protection			
15	0	-5	6	300.5	153.4	221.4	Negative Sequence O/C protection			
15	0	-10	7	322.6	161.2	211.9	Negative Sequence O/C protection			
15	10	-15	9	350.2	219.1	151.0	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter			
15	-15	-15	11	356.9	106.0	285.2	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter			

Table 7

Simulation of unbalanced operation conditions at 0% load

Voltage deviations in phases, %			V O/	Motor phase currents, A			Tringing	
ΔUa	ΔUb	ΔUc	К _{2U} , %	Іа	Ib	Ic	Tripping	
-10	-10	0	4	81.6	23.5	117.7	Protections fall to function	
10	-5	-10	6	162.6	92.3	70.6	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-5	6	178.4	120.3	58.8	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-10	7	192.8	145.6	56.4	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	10	-15	9	205.2	204.0	60.3	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	
15	-15	-15	11	237.6	148.2	126.2	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	

Table 8

Simulation of unbalanced operation conditions at 120% load

Voltage deviations in phases, %			V 0/	Motor phase currents, A			Traina in a	
ΔUa	ΔUb	ΔUc	К ₂₀ , %	Іа	Ib	Ic	Iripping	
-10	-10	0	4	243.2	300.0	327.6	Overload protection	
10	-5	-10	6	348.8	205.4	275.0	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-5	6	341.6	192.2	261.7	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	0	-10	7	365.1	198.9	250.3	Negative Sequence O/C protection	
15	10	-15	9	383.5	245.4	188.6	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	
15	-15	-15	11	396.2	148.6	333.6	Negative Sequence O/C protection, sequence filter	

Table 9

Motor dynamic characteristics simulation results

Voltage deviations in phases, %			Phase voltages, V			Motor	phase curi	Unbalance factor	
ΔUa	ΔUb	ΔUc	ΔUa	ΔUb	ΔUc	Іа	Ib	Ic	K _{2U} , %
15	10	0	5634	5389	4899	274.1	196.2	181.7	4.1
10	5	0	5389	5144	4899	257.9	196.6	203.4	2.8
-15	-5	0	4164	4654	4899	184.9	292.7	262	4.7
-10	0	0	4409	4899	4899	198	277.5	232.2	3.4



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resulting oscillations have a larger amplitude with a higher negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor. Unbalanced voltage conditions have an adverse impact on motor operation, since it causes fluctuations in the motor torque and rotor rpm, resulting in vibrations that reduce the motor service life. For better visualization let us display graphically the signals of rotor rpm and motor torque from identical circuits working in parallel with different ratios of supply voltages, according to Table 9. Fig. 10 shows such graphs of changes in the effective values of rotation velocity and torque of the asynchronous motor at different negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factors.

The graphs show that the changes in the rotor rpm and motor torque depend mostly on the nature of the voltage change rather than on the unbalance factor. At lowered voltage, it is more difficult to start the motor and the rated rotation velocity is reached more slowly. Let us compare the graphs of the torque changes at $K_{2U} = 0$, 4.7, 3.4 %. Since $K_{2U} = 0$ % at the ra-ted supply voltage conditions, no negative-phase-sequence torque occurs $-M_2 = 0$, and the motor torque is fully determined by positive-phase-sequence torque $-M_{rated} = M_1$. In order to assess the effect of unbalanced voltage on the motor torque, we assume that at $K_{2U} = 4.7$, 3.4 % the positive-phase-sequence

torque is approximately equal to the torque at the rated motor operating conditions. This statement is justified by the fact that the voltage level in the cases under consideration does not differ significantly from the rated voltage. Consequently, the character of the curves depends on this to a lesser extent. Since negative-phase-sequence currents arise when the supply voltage is unbalanced, negative-phase-sequence torque also arises. It has a negative value of $M_2 < 0$: the resulting torque equal to the sum of positive- and negative-phase-sequence torques $-M = M_1 + M_2 = M_{rated} + M_2$ will decrease by increasing the unbalance factor as clearly expressed in the peaks of the curves in question. A similar statement is true for the change in torques at $K_{2U} = 4.1$, 2.48%. However, this is due to the fact that the voltage unbalance was introduced by increasing the voltages in the phases, both positive- and negative-phase-sequence currents increased along with the voltage which caused an increase in the corresponding torques. In this case, with a higher unbalance factor, the torque becomes greater when compared to the rated one. It may thus be concluded that a deviation from voltage balance is accompanied by a decrease in the resulting torque and, consequently, by an increase in losses and a decrease in motor efficiency, as well as by heating of the windings as a result of negative-phase-sequence currents.



Fig. 9. Graphs of changes in rotor currents, stator currents, rotation velocity and drive torque of an asynchronous motor at the considered negative-phase-sequence voltage (unbalance) factor $K_{2U} = 4.1 \%$

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Fig. 10. Graphs of changes in the effective values of rotation velocity and torque of the asynchronous motor at rated operating conditions ($K_{2U} = 0$ %) and at different negative-phase-sequence voltage unbalance factor values $K_{2U} = 4.1, 2.8, 3.4, 4.7$ %

Conclusions

The authors conducted a study of high-voltage asynchronous motor drive protections of a recycle compressor in the fuel hydrotreating unit at the Astrakhan Gas Refining Plant. The studies showed that sequence filter relay protections, negative-phase-sequence protection, and overload protection should be selected in the aims of protecting the motor against supply voltage unbalance. A simulation of the joint operation of the AM and its protections was performed. The study findings allow for quantitative assessment of the effect of supply voltage unbalance on the operation of a high-voltage asynchronous motor. The analysis of the protections operation showed that, in the event of voltage unbalance, the negative sequence overcurrent protection trips more often, because an unbalance of currents arises. The authors conclude that this protection must be implemented. because the consequence of unbalanced voltage supply conditions, namely, the unbalance of currents, creates a negative-phase-sequence torque. This leads to a reduction of motor efficiency and service life. Evaluation of the protections operation at different motor load factors showed that the effect of voltage unbalance has a greater influence on the motor operation at higher load factors. The analysis of the motor characteristics at different unbalances of the supply voltage allowed changes in the effective values of the motor rpm and torque at different unbalance factors to be assessed. The feasibility of implementation of the developed relay protection system on the basis of series 80 Sepam 1000+ microprocessor protection has been confirmed.

In terms of commercial application, the study findings can be used as a basis for relay protection of all components of the fuel hydrotreating unit at the Astrakhan gas refining plant. The authors are currently further developing this system.

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