#### ECEN 667 Power System Stability

#### **Lecture 10: Exciters**

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#### Announcements

- Read Chapter 4
- Homework 3 is due on Thursday Oct 7
- Homework 4 is assigned today, but will not need to be turned in (just done before the first exam)
- Exam 1 will be on Oct 14 in class
  - For the distance learners we usually use Honorlock (though I know for some that won't work)
  - Exams are closed book, closed notes, but you can bring in one
     8.5 by 11 inch note sheet and can use calculators



#### Dynamic Models in the Physical Structure: Exciters





P. Sauer and M. Pai, Power System Dynamics and Stability, Stipes Publishing, 2006.

# Larger Scale Stability Study



- An example of a larger scale stability study we did is available on my website
  - overbye.engr.tamu.edu/publications/
  - See the first paper in 2022 (from HICSS) or the PSERC report (number 18 in 2021)
- The study looked a stability aspects of a synchronous connection of the North American East and WECC grids
- The power flow model had 110,000 buses and 13,700 generators; for stability it had 246 different types of dynamic models, 61,000 model instances and more than 200,000 differential equations
- We also studied an 82,000 bus synthetic grid

# Larger Scale Stability Study



• The below figures are for the 82,000 bus synthetic grid



#### **Exciter Models**



# Exciters, Including AVR



- Exciters are used to control the synchronous machine field voltage and current
  - Usually modeled with automatic voltage regulator included
- A useful reference is IEEE Std 421.5-2016
  - Updated from the 2005 edition
  - Covers the major types of exciters used in transient stability
  - Continuation of standard designs started with "Computer Representation of Excitation Systems," *IEEE Trans. Power App. and Syst.*, vol. pas-87, pp. 1460-1464, June 1968
- Another reference is P. Kundur, *Power System Stability* and Control, EPRI, McGraw-Hill, 1994
  - Exciters are covered in Chapter 8 as are block diagram basics 6

#### **Functional Block Diagram**



Image source: Fig 8.1 of Kundur, Power System Stability and Control

# **Potential Types of Exciters**



- None, which would be the case for a permanent magnet generator
  - primarily used with wind turbines with ac-dc-ac converters
- DC: Utilize a dc generator as the source of the field voltage through slip rings
- AC: Use an ac generator on the generator shaft, with output rectified to produce the dc field voltage; brushless with a rotating rectifier system
- Static: Exciter is static, with field current supplied through slip rings

# **IEEET1 Exciter**

- We'll start with a common exciter model, the IEEET1 based on a dc generator, and develop its structure
  - This model was standardized in a 1968 IEEE Committee Paper with Fig 1. from the paper shown below



Fig. 1. Type 1 excitation system representation, continuously acting regulator and exciter.

# **Block Diagram Basics**



- The following slides will make use of block diagrams to explain some of the models used in power system dynamic analysis. The next few slides cover some of the block diagram basics.
- To simulate a model represented as a block diagram, the equations need to be represented as a set of first order differential equations
- Also the initial state variable and reference values need to be determined

## **Integrator Block**





• Equation for an integrator with u as an input and y as an output is

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = K_I u$$

• In steady-state with an initial output of  $y_0$ , the initial state is  $y_0$  and the initial input is zero

# **First Order Lag Block**

u 
$$\xrightarrow{K}$$
  $\xrightarrow{Input}$  Output of Lag Block

• Equation with u as an input and y as an output is

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{T} \left( Ku - y \right)$$

- In steady-state with an initial output of  $y_0$ , the initial state is  $y_0$  and the initial input is  $y_0/K$
- Commonly used for measurement delay (e.g., T<sub>R</sub> block with IEEE T1)

#### **Derivative Block**



$$\mathbf{u} \longrightarrow \frac{K_D s}{1 + s T_D} \longrightarrow \mathbf{y}$$

- Block takes the derivative of the input, with scaling  $K_D$  and a first order lag with  $T_D$ 
  - Physically we can't take the derivative without some lag
  - An example is the feedback block in the IEEET1 model
- In steady-state the output of the block is zero
- State equations require a more general approach

#### State Equations for More Complicated Functions

• There is not a unique way of obtaining state equations for more complicated functions with a general form

$$\beta_0 u + \beta_1 \frac{du}{dt} + \dots + \beta_m \frac{d^m u}{dt^m} =$$
  
$$\alpha_0 y + \alpha_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + \dots + \alpha_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dt^{n-1}} + \frac{d^n y}{dt^n}$$

• To be physically realizable we need n >= m

# **General Block Diagram Approach**



• One integration approach is illustrated in the below block diagram



Image source: W.L. Brogan, Modern Control Theory, Prentice Hall, 1991, Figure 3.7

## **Derivative Example**





- Hence  $\beta_0 = 0$ ,  $\beta_1 = K_D/T_D$ ,  $\alpha_0 = 1/T_D$
- Define single state variable x, then

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \beta_0 u - \alpha_0 y = -\frac{y}{T_D}$$
$$y = x + \beta_1 u = x + \frac{K_D}{T_D} u$$

Initial value of x is found by recognizing y is zero so  $x = -\beta_1 u$ 

## Lead-Lag Block



- In exciters such as the EXDC1 the lead-lag block is used to model time constants inherent in the exciter; the values are often zero (or equivalently equal)
- In steady-state the input is equal to the output
- To get equations write in form with  $\beta_0 = 1/T_B$ ,  $\beta_1 = T_A/T_B$ ,  $\alpha_0 = 1/T_B$

$$\frac{1}{1+sT_A} = \frac{\frac{1}{T_B} + s\frac{T_A}{T_B}}{\frac{1}{1/T_B} + s}$$

## Lead-Lag Block

• The equations are with  $\beta_0=1/T_B, \beta_1=T_A/T_B, \alpha_0=1/T_B$ then



$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \beta_0 u - \alpha_0 y = \frac{1}{T_B} (u - y)$$
$$y = x + \beta_1 u = x + \frac{T_A}{T_B} u$$

The steady-state requirement that u = y is readily apparent

# Limits: Windup versus Nonwindup

- A M
- When there is integration, how limits are enforced can have a major impact on simulation results
- Two major flavors: windup and non-windup
- Windup limit for an integrator block



The value of v is NOT limited, so its value can "windup" beyond the limits, delaying backing off of the limit

 $\frac{dv}{dt} = K_{I}u \qquad \begin{array}{l} \text{If } L_{\min} \leq v \leq L_{\max} \text{ then } y = v \\ \text{else If } v < L_{\min} \text{ then } y = L_{\min}, \\ \text{else if } v > L_{\max} \text{ then } y = L_{\max} \end{array}$ 

# **Limits on First Order Lag**



• Windup and non-windup limits are handled in a similar manner for a first order lag



$$\frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{1}{T}(Ku - v)$$

If 
$$L_{min} \le v \le L_{max}$$
 then  $y = v$   
else If  $v < L_{min}$  then  $y = L_{min}$ ,  
else if  $v > L_{max}$  then  $y = L_{max}$ 

Again the value of v is NOT limited, so its value can "windup" beyond the limits, delaying backing off of the limit

# **Non-Windup Limit First Order Lag**



• With a non-windup limit, the value of y is prevented from exceeding its limit



# Lead-Lag Non-Windup Limits

- There is not a unique way to implement non-windup limits for a lead-lag. This is the one from IEEE 421.5-1995 (Figure E.6)
  - $T_2 > T_1, T_1 > 0, T_2 > 0$ If y > B, then x = BIf y < A, then x = AIf  $B \ge y \ge A$ , then x = y





# **Ignored States**

- When integrating block diagrams often states are ignored, such as a measurement delay with  $T_R=0$
- In this case the differential equations just become algebraic constraints
- Example: For block at right, as  $T \rightarrow 0$ , v=Ku



• With lead-lag it is quite common for  $T_A = T_B$ , resulting in the block being ignored



# **Brief Review of DC Machines**



- Prior to widespread use of machine drives, dc motors had a important advantage of easy speed control
- On its stator a dc machine has either a permanent magnet or a single concentrated winding
- Rotor (armature) currents are supplied through brushes and the commutator
- Equations are

$$v_f = i_f R_f + L_f \frac{di_f}{dt}$$
$$v_a = i_a R_a + L_a \frac{di_a}{dt} + G\omega_m i_f$$

The f subscript refers to the field, the a to the armature;  $\omega$  is the machine's speed, G is a constant. In a permanent magnet machine the field flux is constant, the field equation goes away, and the field impact is embedded in a equivalent constant to Gi<sub>f</sub>

# **Review of DC Machines**

• The purpose of the next few slides is to provide insight into the source of portions of the block diagrams for various types of exciters



Fig. 1. Type 1 excitation system representation, continuously acting regulator and exciter.

# **Types of DC Machines**



- If there is a field winding (i.e., not a permanent magnet machine) then the machine can be connected in the following ways
  - Separately-excited: Field and armature windings are connected to separate power sources
    - For an exciter, control is provided by varying the field current (which is stationary), which changes the armature voltage
  - Series-excited: Field and armature windings are in series
  - Shunt-excited: Field and armature windings are in parallel

$$\frac{\partial w_{1}}{\partial t} \frac{r_{1}}{r_{1}} \frac{s_{n}}{r_{n}} \frac{f_{1}}{r_{n}} \frac{f_{1}}{r_{n}} \frac{f_{1}}{r_{n}} \frac{r_{n}}{r_{n}} \frac{r_{n}}{r_{n}} \frac{r_{n}}{r_{n}} \frac{f_{1}}{r_{n}} \frac{r_{n}}{r_{n}} \frac{f_{1}}{r_{n}} \frac{f_{1}}{r_{$$

$$e_{in_1} = r_{f1}i_{in_1} + N_{f1}\frac{d\psi_{f1}}{dt}$$

$$\phi_{a1} = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} \phi_{f1}$$

 $\sigma_{1}$  is coefficient of dispersion, modeling the flux leakage

• Relate the input voltage, e<sub>in1</sub>, to v<sub>fd</sub>

$$v_{fd} = K_{a1}\omega_1\phi_{a1} = K_{a1}\omega_1\frac{\phi_{f1}}{\sigma_1}$$

Assuming a constant speed  $\omega_1$ 

$$\phi_{f1} = \frac{\sigma_1}{K_{a1}\omega_1} v_{fd}$$

Solve above for  $\phi_{fl}$  which was used in the previous slide





• If it was a linear magnetic circuit, then v<sub>fd</sub> would be proportional to i<sub>n1</sub>; for a real system we need to account for saturation



$$i_{in_1} = \frac{v_{fd}}{K_{g1}} + f_{sat} \left( v_{fd} \right) v_{fd}$$

Without saturation we can write

$$K_{g1} = \frac{K_{a1}\omega_1}{N_{f1}\sigma_1} L_{f1us}$$

Where  $L_{flus}$  is the

unsaturated field inductance



$$e_{in_{i}} = r_{f1}i_{in1} + N_{f1}\frac{d\phi_{f1}}{dt}$$

Can be written as

$$e_{in_{i}} = \frac{r_{f1}}{K_{g1}} v_{fd} + r_{f1} f_{sat} \left( v_{fd} \right) v_{fd} + \frac{L_{f1us}}{K_{g1}} \frac{dv_{fd}}{dt}$$

This equation is then scaled based on the synchronous machine base values

$$E_{fd} = \frac{X_{md}}{R_{fd}} V_{fd} = \frac{X_{md}}{R_{fd}} \frac{v_{fd}}{V_{BFD}}$$

### **Separately Excited Scaled Values**



$$K_{E_{sep}} \triangleq \frac{r_{f1}}{K_{g1}} \qquad T_{E} \triangleq \frac{L_{f1us}}{K_{g1}}$$
$$V_{R} \triangleq \frac{\frac{X_{md}}{R_{fd}V_{BFD}}e_{in1}}{S_{E}\left(E_{fd}\right) \triangleq r_{f1}f_{sat}} \left(\frac{V_{BFD}R_{fd}}{X_{md}}E_{fd}\right)$$

 $V_R$  is the scaled output of the voltage regulator amplifier

Thus we have

$$T_E \frac{dE_{fd}}{dt} = -\left(K_{E_{sep}} + S_E\left(E_{fd}\right)\right)E_{fd} + V_R$$

## **The Self-Excited Exciter**

When the exciter is self-excited, the amplifier voltage appears in series with the exciter field



Note the additional E<sub>fd</sub> term on the end

## Self and Separated Excited Exciters

• The same model can be used for both by just modifying the value of  $K_E$ 

$$T_{E} \frac{dE_{fd}}{dt} = -\left(K_{E} + S_{E}\left(E_{fd}\right)\right)E_{fd} + V_{R}$$

$$K_{E_{self}} = K_{E_{sep}} - 1 \quad \left( \text{typically } K_{E_{self}} = -.01 \right)$$

# **Exciter Model IEEET1 K<sub>E</sub> Values**



#### Example IEEET1 Values from a large system



The  $K_E$  equal 1 are separately excited, and  $K_E$  close to zero are self excited

# Saturation

- A number of different functions can be used to represent the saturation
- The quadratic approach is now quite common

An alternative model is 
$$S_E(E_{fd}) = \frac{B(E_{fd} - A)^2}{E_{fd}}$$

 $S_{E}(E_{L}) = B(E_{L} - A)^{2}$ 

This is the same function used with the machine models

• Exponential function could also be used

$$S_E(E_{fd}) = A_x e^{B_x E_{fd}}$$



#### **Exponential Saturation**



$$K_E = 1$$
  $S_E(E_{fd}) = 0.1e^{0.5E_{fd}}$ 

In Steady state  $V_R = \left(1 + .1e^{.5E_{fd}}\right)E_{fd}$ 



## **Exponential Saturation Example**

Given: 
$$K_E = -.05$$
  
 $S_E \left( E_{fd}_{max} \right) = 0.27$   
 $S_E \left( .75E_{fd}_{max} \right) = 0.074$   
 $V_{R_{max}} = 1.0$   
Find:  $A_x, B_x$  and  $E_{fd_{max}}$   
 $S_E = A_x e^{B_x E_{fd}}$   
 $E_{fd_{max}} = 4.6$   
 $A_x = .0015$   
 $B_x = 1.14$ 

**A**M

# **Voltage Regulator Model**



Amplifier  $T_A \frac{dV_R}{dt} = -V_R + K_A V_{in}$  $V_R^{\min} \le V_R \le V_R^{\max}$ In steady state  $V_{ref} - V_t = V_{in} = \frac{V_R}{K_A}$ 

Modeled as a first order differential equation

As 
$$K_A$$
 is increased  $K_A \rightarrow V_t \approx V_{ref}$ 

There is often a droop in regulation

## Feedback

- This control system can often exhibit instabilities, so some type of feedback is used
- One approach is a stabilizing transformer



Designed with a large  $L_{t2}$  so  $I_{t2} \approx 0$ 

$$V_F = \frac{N_2}{N_1} L_{tm} \frac{dI_{t1}}{dt}$$



#### Feedback



 $E_{fd} = R_{t1}I_{t1} + (L_{t1} + L_{tm})\frac{dI_{t1}}{dt}$ 



# **IEEET1 Model Evolution**

- A M
- The original IEEET1, from 1968, evolved into the EXDC1 in 1981



Note, K<sub>E</sub> in the feedback is the same in both models

Image Source: Fig 3 of "Excitation System Models for Power Stability Studies," IEEE Trans. Power App. and Syst., vol. PAS-100, pp. 494-509, February 1981

# **IEEEX1**

• This is from 1979, and is the EXDC1 with the potential for a measurement delay and inputs for under or over excitation limiters



# **IEEET1 Evolution**

 In 1992 IEEE Std 421.5-1992 slightly modified the EXDC1, calling it the DC1A (modeled as ESDC1A)





Same model is in 421.5-2005

Image Source: Fig 3 of IEEE Std 421.5-1992

V<sub>UEL</sub> is a signal from an underexcitation limiter, which we'll cover later



# **IEEET1 Evolution**

Slightly modified in Std 421.5-2016



Figure 4—Type DC1C dc commutator exciter

Note the minimum limit on E<sub>FD</sub>

There is also the addition to the input of voltages from a stator current limiters  $(V_{SCL})$  or over excitation limiters  $(V_{OEL})$ 



# **IEEET1 Example**

- Assume previous GENROU case with saturation. Then add a IEEE T1 exciter with  $K_A=50$ ,  $T_A=0.04$ ,  $K_E=-0.06$ ,  $T_E=0.6$ ,  $V_{R,max}=1.0$ ,  $V_{R,min}=-1.0$  For saturation assume  $S_E(2.8) = 0.04$ ,  $S_E(3.73)=0.33$
- Saturation function is  $0.1621(E_{FD}-2.303)^2$  (for  $E_{FD} > 2.303$ ); otherwise zero

VREF

OTHER SIGNALS

- E<sub>FD</sub> is initially 3.22
- $S_E(3.22) * E_{FD} = 0.437$
- $(V_R S_E * E_{FD})/K_E = E_{FD}$
- $V_R = 0.244$  Case **B4\_GENROU\_Sat\_IEEET1**
- $V_{REF} = 0.244/Ka + V_T = 0.0488 + 1.0946 = 1.09948$

EFD

VR MAX

'R MIN

sKF +sTr

# **IEEE T1 Example**

- For 0.1 second fault (from before), plot of  $E_{FD}$  and the terminal voltage is given below
- Initial  $V_4$ =1.0946, final  $V_4$ =1.0973
  - Steady-state error depends on the value of  $K_A$



### **IEEET1 Example**

• Same case, except with  $K_A = 500$  to decrease steadystate error, no  $V_R$  limits; this case is actually unstable



### **IEEET1 Example**

- With  $K_A = 500$  and rate feedback,  $K_F = 0.05$ ,  $T_F = 0.5$
- Initial  $V_4$ =1.0946, final  $V_4$ =1.0957



# WECC Case Type 1 Exciters

- A M
- In a recent WECC case with 3519 exciters, 20 are modeled with the IEEE T1, 156 with the EXDC1 20 with the ESDC1A (and none with IEEEX1)
- Graph shows  $K_E$  value for the EXDC1 exciters in case; about 1/3 are separately excited, and the rest self excited
  - A value of  $K_E$  equal zero indicates code should set  $K_E$  so  $V_r$  initializes to zero; this is used to mimic the operator action of trimming this value

