

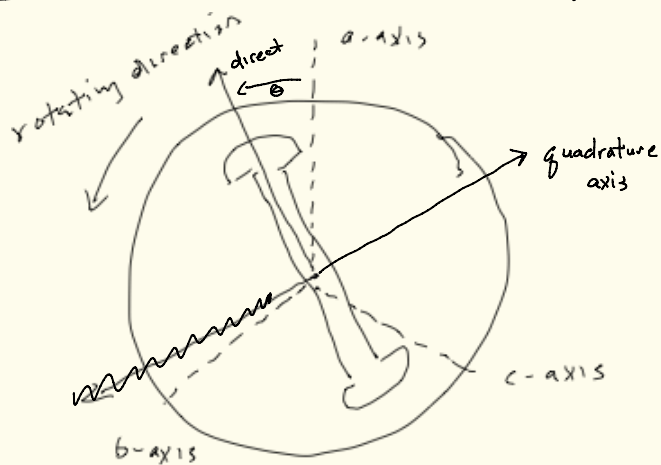
21st Century Power System Dynamics

EECS 290

Spring 2019

Feb 11 2019 Lecture notes,

Park's transformation, a.k.a. dq transform



Example currents

$$i_a = I_{a,\max} \cos \theta$$

$$i_b = I_{b,\max} \cos(\theta + \pi/3)$$

$$i_c = I_{c,\max} \cos(\theta + 2\pi/3)$$

$$i_o = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (i_a + i_b + i_c)$$

$$i_d = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \left[i_a \cos \theta + i_b \cos(\theta - 2\pi/3) + i_c \cos(\theta + 2\pi/3) \right]$$

$$i_q = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \left[i_a \sin \theta + i_b \sin(\theta - 2\pi/3) + i_c \sin(\theta + 2\pi/3) \right]$$

note, $\theta = \omega t + \theta_0 \Rightarrow$ transformation is time dependent.

Park's transformation, cont.

$$\text{Let } X_{abc} = \begin{bmatrix} X_a \\ X_b \\ X_c \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad X_{odq} = \begin{bmatrix} X_o \\ X_d \\ X_q \end{bmatrix}$$

These are any quantity (voltage, current, magnetic flux)

Then Park's transformation (a.k.a the dq-transformation) is

$$X_{abc} = P X_{odq}$$

$$P = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \cos \theta & \cos(\theta - 2\pi/3) & \cos(\theta + 2\pi/3) \\ +\sin \theta & +\sin(\theta - 2\pi/3) & +\sin(\theta + 2\pi/3) \end{bmatrix}$$

Park's transformation, ct-2

A nice feature! (here u is terminal voltage)

$$p(t) = u_a i_a + u_b i_b + u_c i_c = u_o i_o + u_d i_d + u_q i_q$$

Note: The transformation is not unique - different papers and books might point d and q in different directions, so check.

As with pos-neg-zero sequence, the zero component is negligible in balanced conditions.

Why use the dq transform?

- The dq coordinates rotate with the rotor.

⇒ sinusoidal quantities transform to constant values in dq-frame.

- This simplifies the analysis in many situations.

Ch2 - Power system components.

I'll focus on

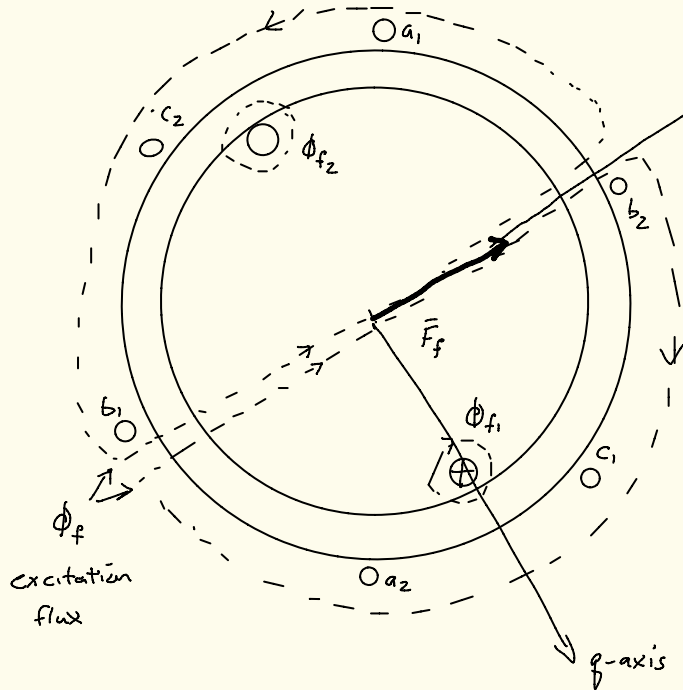
- Basic generator components
 - rotor
 - armature
 - dumper
 - exciter + voltage regulator
 - turbine governors

Basic Generator Components

Fig 2.2.

Synchronous Generators

MBB Fig 3.9



(non-rotating -
so only rotor
field shown.)

\vec{F}_f = magnetomotive
force: magnetic
equivalent to
voltage

- Rotor flux ϕ_f induced by field windings
- When the rotor rotates, emf induced in armature
- This leads to current flow, which also produces a magnetic field (not shown)
- Also not shown - damper windings. More on these in a moment.

Damper windings

- If a synchronous machine "falls out of step" with grid frequency, oscillations in the relative speed of the machine could ensue
- Damper windings are short circuited loops in the stator.
- Currents induced here produce magnetic fields that oppose the asynchrony
 - ⇒ helps restore synchrony.
- Very important for dynamic modelling
- Won't be considered in today's static discussions

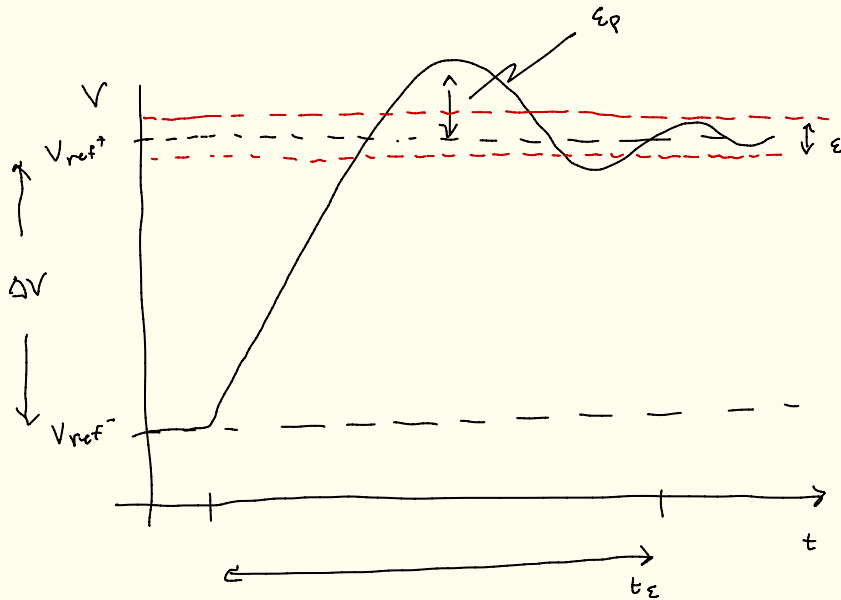
Exciter systems

Fig 2.3e.

SR = slip ring ; SG = synch generator ;
ET = excitation xfrmr ; AVR = thyristor
controlled voltage regulator.

- The exciter induces a magnetic field in the rotor.
- Many means of doing this. Key features
 - Produce a dc current
 - Adjustable voltage \rightarrow vary field strength and in turn vary SG output voltage.
- Different configurations \Rightarrow different output voltage dynamics!
- This one, w/ thyristor control AVR, is common,

Automatic Voltage regulators



t_r = time to go from

$$V_{ref-} + 0.1 \Delta V$$

to

$$V_{ref-} + 0.9 \Delta V.$$

ϵ_p = overshoot

t_ϵ = time to arrive to
within ϵ of V_{ref+}

If $\epsilon = \pm 0.5\%$ and $\Delta V = 10\%$ of original

$\Rightarrow t_\epsilon \leq 0.3s$ for static (thyristor-controlled) AVR

Steam turbines

- Many forms in MBB

- Steam
- Combustion
- combined cycle

- Key point: Each has its own control and process flow.

- These lead to different dynamics
- Important to get these details right. We will explore as interest and time permits.

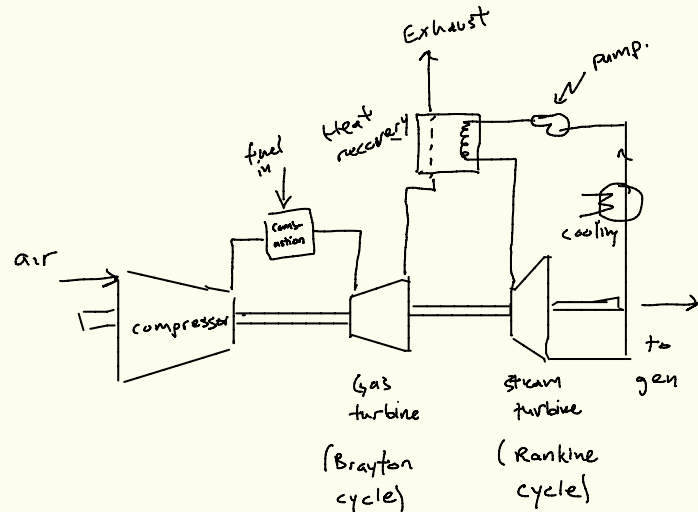
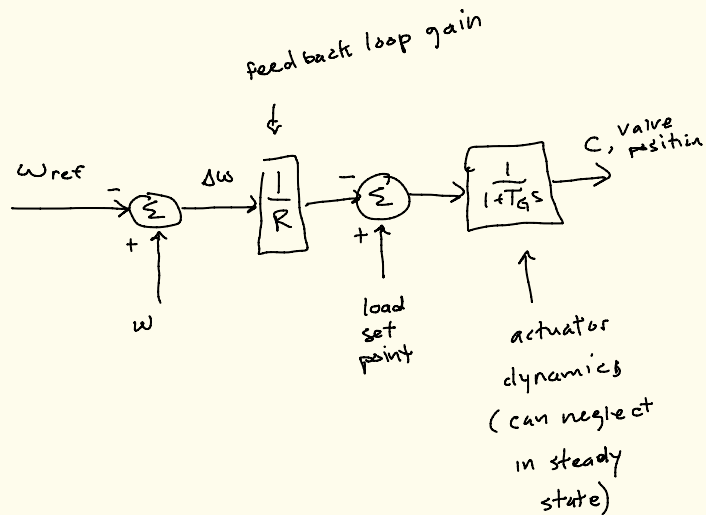


Fig 2.9

Turbine governing

$$\rho = \frac{R}{\omega_n}$$

$$K = \frac{\omega_n}{R}$$

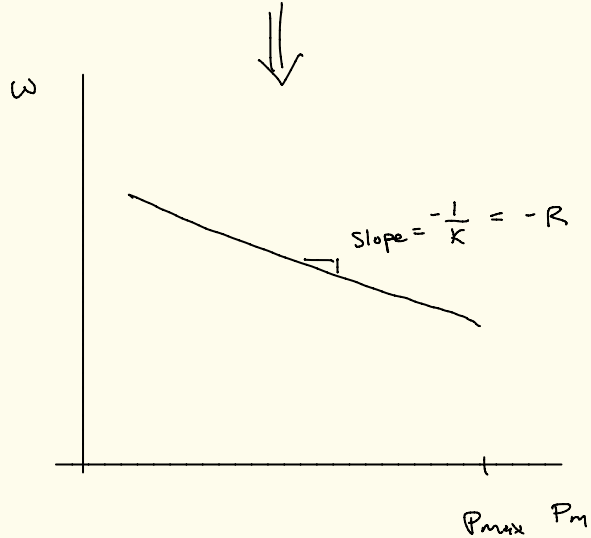


T_G : not sure what this is,
not listed in MBB.
Look in Kundur?

Turbine governing, contd.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta P}{P_n} = -K \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_n} = -\frac{1}{R} \Delta \omega$$

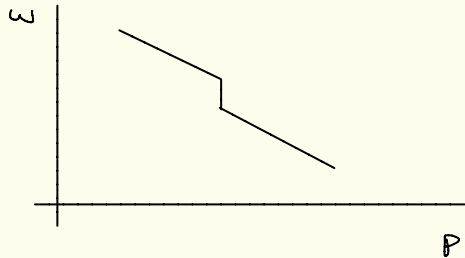
nominal values.



Turbine governing, etc

Note:

Most systems have a deadband



- Mechanical systems can't avoid this
- But even in electrical-hydraulic systems it is desirable
 - recognizes some normal frequency variation ok.
 - avoids wear and tear.
- In U.S., deadband is $\sim 35 \text{ mHz}$.

Ch 3 - Power system in steady state

I'll focus on

- Generator terminal voltage
- Non salient pole rotors
 - i.e. rotors w just one N-S pole pair
 - These have constant airgap flux, so analysis is simpler.
 - salient pole: for slow spinning things (hydro, wind).

Generator - no load

flux through magnetic circuit
rotor windings
rotor current

$$\Phi_f = \frac{N_f i_f}{\mathcal{R}}$$

\mathcal{R} ← magnetic circuit reluctance (mostly due to air gap)

Ψ_{fa} = flux linkage in armature a

$$= N_a \Phi_f \cos \omega t = M_f i_f \cos \omega t$$

↑ # armature windings
← mutual inductance $\frac{N_f N_a}{\mathcal{R}}$

$$e_{fa} = - \frac{d\Psi_{fa}}{dt} = \omega M_f i_f \sin \omega t \quad \leftarrow \text{no load terminal voltage}$$

Generator - with load

Stator phase currents

$$i_A = I_m \cos(\omega t - \delta)$$

↑
peak value of current.

↑
delay relative to rotor.

This generates another field

$$\vec{F}_A = N_A \vec{i}_A e^{j0}$$

The total is

$$\vec{F}_a = \vec{F}_A + \vec{F}_B + \vec{F}_C$$

Now let's refer to how things

add up in fig 3.11

Here the total field is

$$\vec{F}_r = \vec{F}_a + \vec{F}_e$$

Air Gap EMF

(under bar \Rightarrow phasor)

$$\underline{E}_r = \underline{E}_f + \underline{E}_a = \underline{E}_f - jX_a \underline{I}$$

\uparrow
armature reaction
reactance

Terminal Voltage

See Fig 3.12a

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{V_g = \underline{E}_f - jX_a \underline{I} - jX_L \underline{I} - R \underline{I}}$$

\nwarrow armature reactance
 \swarrow leakage flux
 \nearrow armature resistance

Time Constants.

Simple 1st order LTI system!

$$\dot{x} = -ax$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t) = X_0 e^{-at}$$

$$x\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) = X_0 e^{-1} = \frac{X_0}{e} \approx 0.37 X_0$$

$\frac{1}{a}$ is the "time constant"

- Often called τ

- Time when -1 is in the exponential.

Time constants - higher order systems.

- Higher order system time constants harder to characterize
- But if
 - all eigenvalues are negative, and
 - one eigen value for the system is real and much closer to zero
 - then the largest eigenvalue can be thought of as the inverse of the dominant time constant for the system