# **Small Signal Stability**

# Outline

- Description of Small Signal Stability Problems
  - Local problems
  - Global problems
- Methods of analysis
  - Time domain analysis and its limitations
  - Modal analysis using linearized model
- Characteristics of local plant mode oscillations
- Characteristics of inter-area oscillations
- Enhancement of Small Signal Stability

## **Classification Of Power System Stability**



# **Small Signal Stability**

- Small-Signal (or Small Disturbance) Stability is the ability of a power system to maintain synchronism when subjected to small disturbances
  - Such disturbances occur continually on the system due to small variations in loads and generation
  - A disturbance is considered sufficiently small if linearization of system equations is permissible for analysis
- Small-signal analysis using linear analysis techniques provides valuable information about the inherent dynamic characteristics of the power system and assists in its robust design



- Small signal instability may take two forms:
  - aperiodic increase in rotor angle due to lack of sufficient <u>synchronizing torque</u>
  - rotor oscillations of increasing amplitude due to lack of sufficient <u>damping torque</u>

# **Damping and Synchronising Torques**

#### Example:

2

1,5

1

0,5

0

0

0,5 δ<sub>0</sub> 1

1,5

2

Assume a synchronous generator is connected through a transformer by two parallel transmission lines to a receiving-end transformer and a large system



2,5

3

- at time t, one of the two lines is opened
- the power output of the prime-mover assumed to remain constant during a disturbance on the electrical system

## **Synchronising and Damping Torques**



 Synchronism in this scenario is maintained by the electrical power flow

$$P = P_{max} \sin \delta$$

between the generator and the system, resulting in a synchronizing torque being produced on the shaft of the generator.

- Immediately after the disturbance the electric power output of the generator falls to P<sub>t</sub>.
- The net torque acting on the shaft of the generator will cause it to accelerate with respect to the system.
- The rotor angle of the generator, δ<sub>0</sub>, immediately starts to increase.
- Once the electrical power output exceeds the prime-mover power output P<sub>m0</sub> the generator decelerates but, due to the inertia of the rotor, the rotor angle continues to increase until the speed falls to synchronous speed.
- At this time the electric power output and the rotor angle are at their peak values, P<sub>p</sub>
- However, the net decelerating torque continues acting on the shaft to reduce the electrical power flow until zero net accelerating torque once more
- Due to inertia, the electric power output and rotor angle continue to decrease and reach their minimum values at P<sub>t</sub> and at synchronous speed.
- Thereafter the process repeats itself with the electric power output and rotor angle oscillating about P<sub>m0</sub>, between peak and trough values Pp, and Pt, respectively.
- In the absence of damping, these oscillations will continue indefinitely.

# Synchronising torque as a function of operating point



 The level of the synchronising torque depends on the operating point

# Nature of small signal stability problem

- In today's practical systems, small signal stability is usually one of insufficient damping of system oscillations
  - Local problems / global problems
- Local problems involve a small part of the system. They may be associated with
  - rotor angle modes
  - local plant modes
  - inter-machine modes
  - control modes
  - torsional modes
- Global problems have widespread effects
  - They are associated with inter-area oscillations

Local plant mode oscillations

- oscillation of a single generator or plant against the rest of the power system
   Inter-machine or inter-plant mode oscillations
  - oscillation between the rotors of a few generators close to each other

# **Local Rotor Angle Stability Problems**

- Associated with either <u>local plant mode</u> oscillations or <u>inter-machine oscillations</u>
  - frequency of oscillation in the range of 0.7 to 2.0 Hz
- Stability of the local plant mode oscillations is determined by the strength of the transmission as seen by the plant excitation control, plant output and voltage
- Instability may also be associated with a nonoscillatory mode
  - encountered with manual excitation control

# **Global Rotor Angle Stability Problems**

Large interconnected systems usually have two distinct forms of inter-area oscillations:

- A very low frequency mode involving all the generators in the system
  - system is essentially split into two parts
  - generators in one part swing against generators in the other part
  - frequency in the order of 0.1 to 0.3 Hz
- Higher frequency modes involving sub-group of generators swinging against each other
  - frequency typically in the range of 0.4 to 0.7 Hz

# Methods of Small-Signal Stability Analysis

- State Space Representation of the Dynamic System
- Linearization

# **State space representation**

 The behaviour of a dynamic system can be described by a set of first order differential equations in the state-space form:

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u)$$

- x is an n-dimensional state vector
- f is an n-dimensional nonlinear function
- u is an r-dimensional input vector
- The outputs of the system are nonlinear functions of the state and input vectors:

$$y = g(x, u)$$

- y is an m-dimensional output vector
- g is an m-dimensional nonlinear function
- In steady state, the system is at an equilibrium point x<sub>0</sub> satisfying:

$$f(x_0, u_0) = 0$$

# Linearization

• For small perturbation about equilibrium point:

$$x = x_0 + \Delta x$$
,  $u = u_0 + \Delta u$ 

New state equation:

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}} = \dot{\boldsymbol{x}}_{0} + \Delta \dot{\boldsymbol{x}} = \boldsymbol{f}((\boldsymbol{x}_{0} + \Delta \boldsymbol{x}), (\boldsymbol{u}_{0} + \Delta \boldsymbol{u}))$$

- Since perturbations are small:
  - f(x,u) can be expressed in terms of Taylor's series expansion
  - terms involving second and higher order powers of  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta u$  may be neglected

### Linearization

$$\Delta \dot{x} = A \Delta x + B \Delta u$$
$$\Delta y = C \Delta x + D \Delta u$$

 A, B, C, D are the Jacobians of the system. A is also referred to as the <u>state matrix</u> or the <u>plant matrix</u>.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial n}{x_n} \end{bmatrix} \qquad B = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{u_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial n}{u_n} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$C = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1}{x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_1}{x_m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial g_m}{x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_m}{x_m} \end{bmatrix} \qquad D = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1}{u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_1}{u_m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial g_m}{u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial g_m}{u_m} \end{bmatrix}$$

# **Stability**

- Stability is concerned with determination of conditions of an equilibrium point
  - what will happen if the system is perturbed at an equilibrium condition
- Stability of a linear system is independent of the input
- Stability of a nonlinear system depends on
  - the type and magnitude of input
  - the initial state
- In control system theory, it is common practice to classify stability of nonlinear systems into the following categories, depending on the region of state space in which the state vector ranges:
  - local stability or stability in the small
  - finite stability
  - global stability or stability in the large

# **Stability categories**

#### Local stability

- The system is said to be locally stable about an equilibrium point, if when subjected to a small perturbation, it remains within a small region surrounding the equilibrium point
- If, as time increases, the system returns to the original state, it is said to be asymptotically stable in the small
- Finite stability
  - If the state of a system remains within a finite region R, the system is said to be stable within R
  - If, further, the state returns to the original equilibrium point from any point within R, it is said to be asymptotically stable within the finite region R
- Global stability
  - The system is said to be globally stable if R includes the entire finite space

# Analysis of Stability in the Small (Small Signal Stability)

#### **Nonlinear Time Domain Analysis**

Using nonlinear time domain simulations to analyze small signal stability problems has the following limitations:

- Results can be deceptive
  - critical mode may not be sufficiently excited by the chosen disturbance
  - poorly damped modes may not be dominant in the observed response
- This approach does not give insight into the nature of the problem
  - difficult to identify sources of the problem
  - mode shapes not clearly identified
  - corrective measures are not readily indicated
- Computational burden high ; massive amount of data has to be analyzed

# Analysis of Stability in the Small (Small Signal Stability)

#### <u>Modal analysis</u>

- The theoretical foundation for the analysis of stability in the small is based on Liapunov's first method:
  - The stability in the small of a nonlinear system is given by the roots of the characteristic equation of the system of first approximation, i.e., by the eigenvalues of the state matrix A
  - If the eigenvalues have negative real parts, then the original system is asymptotically stable
  - When at least one of the eigenvalues has a positive real part, the original system is unstable

# **Modal Analysis Approach**

- Modal analysis using eigenvalue approach has proven to be the most practical way to analyze small signal stability problems
- Advantages are:
  - individual modes of oscillations are clearly identified
  - relationships between modes and system variables/parameters can be easily determined by computing eigenvectors
- Frequency response, poles, zeros, and residues can be easily computed. Such information is useful in control system design

## **Eigenproperties of the State Matrix**

• Eigenvalues and eigenvectors  $A = \lambda \cdot \phi$ 

$$\psi A = \lambda \psi$$

- A is an n x n matrix (real for a physical system)
- $-\lambda$  is the eigenvalue
- $\ \phi$  is the right eigenvector associated with  $\lambda$
- $-~\psi$  is the left eigenvector associated with  $\lambda$

#### Modal matrices

$$\mathbf{\Phi} = \left[\phi_1 \phi_2 \cdots \phi_n\right]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\psi} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\psi}_1^t \ \boldsymbol{\psi}_2^t \cdots \boldsymbol{\psi}_n^t \end{bmatrix}$$

- »  $\Phi$  is the right eigenvector matrix
- »  $\psi$  is the left eigenvector matrix

## **Eigenproperties of the State Matrix**

Relationships

$$A \cdot \Phi = \Phi \cdot \Lambda \qquad \qquad \psi \cdot \Phi = I$$
$$\Phi^{-1} \cdot A \cdot \Phi = \Lambda$$

- I is the unit matrix
- $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix:  $\Lambda = \text{diag} [\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n]$

# Free Motion of a Linear Dynamic System

- Free motion of a linear dynamic system is described by  $\dot{x} = A \cdot x$
- In order to eliminate the cross coupling between the state variables consider the <u>state transformation</u>

$$x = \phi . z$$

- State space equations in z is a set of <u>decoupled</u>  $\dot{z} = \phi^{-1} \cdot A \cdot \phi \cdot z = \Lambda \cdot z$
- The above represents uncoupled first order (scalar) differential equations:

$$\dot{z_i} = \lambda_i . z_i$$
 , i = 1,2,...,n

Time domain response

$$z_i(t) = z_i(0).e^{\lambda_i t}$$

Where  $z_i(0) = \psi_i \cdot x(0)$  is the initial condition

# **Time Response of System Variables**

Response in terms of the original state vector

$$x(t) = \phi . z(t)$$

The time response of the state variable x<sub>i</sub> is given by

$$x_{i}(t) = \phi_{i1}.C_{1}.e^{\lambda_{1}t} + \phi_{i2}.C_{2}.e^{\lambda_{2}t} + \dots + \phi_{in}.C_{n}.e^{\lambda_{n}t}$$

- a linear combination of <u>n dynamic modes</u> corresponding to the n eigenvalues of the state matrix
- $c_i = \psi_I x(0)$  represents the magnitude of the <u>excitation</u> of the i<sup>th</sup> mode due to the initial conditions
- if the initial condition lies along the j<sup>th</sup> eigenvector, only the j<sup>th</sup> mode will be excited (since ψ<sub>I</sub> φ<sub>j</sub> = 0 for all i ≠ j)
- if the vector representing the initial condition is not an eigenvector, it can be represented by a linear combination of the n eigenvectors. The response of the system will be the sum of n responses
  - if a component along an eigenvector of the initial conditions is zero, the corresponding mode will not be excited.

# **Eigenvalue and stability**

- A real eigenvalue corresponds to a non-oscillatory mode
- A pair of complex eigenvalues  $\lambda = \sigma \pm j \ \omega$  correspond to an oscillatory mode
- Frequency of the mode:

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi}$$

• Damping ratio of the mode:

$$arsigma = rac{-\sigma}{\sqrt{\sigma^2 + \omega^2}}$$

A real eigenvalue, or a pair of complex eigenvalues, is usually referred to as a mode

To ensure an acceptable performance, a **damping margin**  $\varsigma$  in the range of 3% - 5% is normally required



imes Eigenvalue of the system

# **Modal characteristics**

- While an eigenvalue indicates the stability, its right and left eigenvectors give much more information on the characteristics of the mode
- The right eigenvector shows the mode shape, i.e., the observability of the mode
- A mode should be observable from generator rotor oscillations if the generator is high in its mode shape
- A weighted left eigenvector shows the <u>participation factors</u>, i.e., the controllability of the mode
- A mode should be controllable from a generator if the generator is high in its participation factors
- A generator which is high in the mode shape of a mode is not necessarily high in the participation factor of the same mode

## **Controllability and Observability**

For a linear dynamic system

$$\dot{x} = A x + B u$$
$$y = C x + D u$$

- Apply state transformation  $\mathbf{x} = \phi \mathbf{z}$  $\dot{z} = \phi^{-1} \cdot A \cdot \phi \cdot z = \Lambda \cdot z$  $y = C \phi z + D u$
- If the i<sup>th</sup> row of matrix  $\phi^{-1} B$  is zero, the i<sup>th</sup> mode is said to be <u>uncontrollable</u>

# Characteristics of Local Plant Mode Oscillations

- Local mode oscillation problems most commonly encountered
  - dates back to the 1950s and 1960s
  - associated with units of a plant swinging against the rest of the system
- Characteristics well understood
  - analysis using block diagram approach (K-constants); gives physical insight
- Encountered by a plant with high output feeding into weak transmission network (K<sub>5</sub> negative)
  - more pronounced with high response exciters/AVR
- Adequate damping readily achieved using Power System Stabilizers (PSS)
  - excitation control

# Block Diagram Approach to the Analysis of Local Mode Problems

 First published by Heffron and Phillips to analyze a single machine (or a plant) connected to a large system (represented by an infinite bus) through a transmission network

$$\bigcirc \begin{array}{c} E_t & E_B \\ \hline \\ Z_{eq} = R_E + jX_E \end{array}$$
 Infinite bus

System is represented by a block diagram (the following slide):



δ	= ROTOR ANGLE (rad	ds) G <sub>ex</sub>	« = EX	CITER TRANSFER F	UNCTION	
ω	= ROTOR SPEED (p.u.)		ss = PS	= PSS TRANSFER FUNCTION		
$\Psi_{fd}$	= FIELD FLUX LINKAGE M		= INE	= INERTIA CONSTANT (2H)		
$K_1 = -$	$\frac{\Delta T_e}{\Delta \delta}\Big _{E'_q = E'_{q0}}$	$K_2 = \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t}$	$\frac{T_e}{E'_q}\Big _{\delta=\delta_0}$	$K_4 = \frac{-1}{K_3}$	$\frac{\Delta E'_{q}}{\Delta \delta}\Big _{E_{FD}=constant}$	

$$K_{5} = \frac{\Delta V_{t}}{\Delta \delta} \bigg|_{E'_{q} = E'_{q0}} \qquad \qquad K_{6} = \frac{\Delta V_{t}}{\Delta E'_{q}} \bigg|_{\delta = \delta_{0}}$$

## Interpretation of the block diagram

Rotor acceleration

$$\frac{d\Delta\omega}{dt} = \frac{1}{M} (\Delta T_m - \Delta T_e)$$
$$\frac{d\Delta\delta}{dt} = \omega_0 \Delta \omega$$

Electrical torque

$$\Delta T_{e} = K_{1}(\Delta \delta) + K_{2}(\Delta \Psi_{fd})$$

Field flux linkage

$$\Delta \Psi_{\rm fd} = \left(\Delta \mathsf{E}_{\rm fd} - \mathsf{K}_4 \Delta \delta\right) \frac{\mathsf{K}_3}{1 + \mathsf{sT}_3}$$

Terminal voltage

$$\Delta E_{t} = K_{s}(\Delta \delta) + K_{s}(\Delta \Psi_{td})$$

# **Power System Stabilizers**

- Small signal stability problem is usually one of insufficient damping of system oscillations
- Power system stabilizers (PSS) are the most cost effective means of solving SSS problems
- The purpose is to add damping to the generator rotor oscillations
- This is achieved by modulating the generator excitation so as to develop a component of electrical torque in phase with rotor speed deviations
- Common input signals include: shaft speed, integral of power and generator terminal frequency

# Characteristics of Low Frequency Interarea Oscillations (LFIO)

- Oscillations between two groups of generators
- Two distinct forms:
  - a) A very low frequency mode involving all generators
    - → entire system split into two parts, with generators in one part swinging against generators in the other part
    - → frequency in the range: 0.1 to 0.3 Hz
  - b) Higher frequency modes involving a subgroup of generators swinging against another subgroup
    - → frequency in the range: 0.4 to 0.7 Hz

# Fundamental Nature of Low Frequency Interarea Oscillations (LFIO)

- Characteristics (mode shape, damping) of LFIO are a complex function of:
  - Inetwork configuration/strength
  - Ioad characteristics
  - types of excitation systems and their locations
- Load characteristics, in particular, have a major effect
  - more pronounced with slow exciters
- In a stressed system, motor or constant power load at
  - receiving end has adverse effect on damping
  - sending end has slightly beneficial effect
- A mode of oscillation in one part of system can excite units in a remote part due to mode coupling
- Analysis requires detailed and same level of representation throughout the system

# Damping of Low Frequency Interarea Oscillations (LFIO) with PSS

- The controllability of LFIO with PSS is a function of:
  - Iocation of units with PSS
  - characteristics and locations of loads
  - types of exciters on other units
- Damping of LFIO wit PSS achieved primarily by modulating loads
- Identification of units on which PSS most effective:
  - a high participation factor is a necessary but not sufficient condition
  - initial screening by participation factors
  - residues and frequency responses can supplement screening

# **Enhancement of small signal stability**

1. Excitation Control: Power System Stabilizers

2. Supplementary Control of HVDC Links, SVCs, and other FACTS devices