



# POWER SYSTEM ANALYSIS

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A DYNAMIC PERSPECTIVE

 Pearson

K. N. SHUBHANGA  
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# Power System Analysis

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A Dynamic Perspective

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*To My Parents,  
Teachers and Students*

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# Brief Contents

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*Foreword* xvii

*Preface* xix

*About the Author* xxiii

<b>Chapter 1</b>	Introduction to Power System Analysis	1
<b>Chapter 2</b>	Basics of Power Systems	22
<b>Chapter 3</b>	Park-Based Transformations	113
<b>Chapter 4</b>	Synchronous Machine Modelling Using Primitive Parameters	143
<b>Chapter 5</b>	The Standard Parameters of Synchronous Machine	199
<b>Chapter 6</b>	Numerical Integration of ODEs	288
<b>Chapter 7</b>	Numerical Iterative Methods	334
<b>Chapter 8</b>	Fault Analysis of Power Systems	350
<b>Chapter 9</b>	Introduction to Sub-synchronous Resonance	419
<b>Chapter 10</b>	SSR Analysis of the IEEE First Benchmark Model	437
<b>Chapter 11</b>	Controllers for Synchronous Generator	476
<b>Chapter 12</b>	Power System Angle Stability	506
<b>Chapter 13</b>	Modal Analysis of Power Systems with Interconnected Generators	557
<b>Chapter 14</b>	Transient Stability Analysis of Power Systems with Interconnected Generators	632
<b>Chapter 15</b>	Dynamic Modelling of Some Electrical Machines and their Power-flow Analysis	702

*Index* 779



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# Contents

*Foreword* xvii  
*Preface* xix  
*About the Author* xxiii

## 1. Introduction to Power System Analysis 1

1.1 Performance of Large Power Systems and their Analysis 1  
1.2 Classification of Power System Stability Problems 2  
1.3 Power System Stability Analysis—Computational Issues 4  
1.4 Power System Stability—Modelling Issues 5  
1.4.1 Modelling of Dynamical Systems 6  
1.5 Electromechanical Energy Conversion 9  
1.5.1 Behaviour of an Inductor with Fixed Armature Core 9  
1.5.2 Behaviour of an Inductor with Movable Armature Core 10  
1.5.3 Primitive Machine with Rotating Armature without Rotor Coil 12  
1.5.4 Primitive Machine with Rotating Armature with a Rotor Coil 14  
*References* 20  
*Review Questions* 21

## 2. Basics of Power Systems 22

2.1 Sinor Waveform for Conventional Power Generation 22  
2.2 Choice of Frequency for Power Generation 23  
2.3 Concept of Phasor Analysis in AC Sinusoidal Systems 24  
2.3.1 Phasor Representation 25  
2.4 Power in Single-phase Circuits 33  
2.4.1 Instantaneous Power in a Pure Resistor Circuit 33  
2.4.2 Nature of Powers in a RL-series Circuit 34  
2.4.3 Nature of Powers in a RC-series Circuit 40  
2.4.4 Real Power Supply—Importance of Reactive Powers 46  
2.4.5 Complex Number Representation of Real and Reactive Powers 54  
2.4.6 Power Balance in Single-phase Circuits 57  
2.5 Power in Three-phase Systems 64  
2.5.1 Interconnection of Two Sources—Three-phase Systems 65  
2.5.2 Analysis of Real and Reactive Powers in Three-phase Systems 70  
2.5.3 Interpretation of Synchronous Operation in Terms of Power Angle 73  
2.5.4 Complex Power Calculations in Three-phase Balanced Systems 74  
2.5.5 Single-Line Diagrams of Three-phase Systems 75  
2.6 Per-unit Representation 76  
2.6.1 Procedure Employed for Per-unit Representation 76  
2.6.2 Per-unit Model of Transformers 80

2.6.3	Example: A Sample Power System to Demonstrate Per-unit Calculations	83
2.6.4	Per-unit Model of Transformers with Off-nominal Voltage Ratings	89
2.7	Characteristics of a Typical Power System	92
2.7.1	Characteristics of Generator and Primemover Systems	92
2.7.2	Characteristics of Transmission and Distribution Systems	97
2.7.3	Interconnected Operation of Power Systems	102
2.7.4	Characteristics of Loads	103
	<i>References</i>	108
	<i>Review Questions</i>	110

### 3. Park-Based Transformations 113

3.1	Time-varying Parameters of a Synchronous Machine	113
3.1.1	Derivation of a Time-varying Transformation	114
3.1.2	Transformation Matrices in Different Reference-frames	118
3.1.3	Some Properties of the Transformation Matrices	119
3.1.4	A Change of Reference for Angle Measurement	123
3.1.5	An Alternate Form of Park Transformation	123
3.1.6	An Example with Park Transformation	125
3.1.7	Power-variant Park Transformation	126
3.2	Three-Phase-Based Phase-Locked Loop	129
3.2.1	Transformation from abc-frame to Synchronous-frame	129
3.2.2	Harmonic Oscillator	130
3.2.3	Some Results	131
3.3	Representation of a Transmission Line in Machine-Frame	132
3.3.1	Derivation of Capacitor Voltages in $0dq$ -frame	137
3.3.2	Summary of Equations in $dq$ -frame	137
3.3.3	Summary of Equations in $DQ$ -frame	138
	<i>References</i>	139
	<i>Review Questions</i>	139

### 4. Synchronous Machine Modelling Using Primitive Parameters 143

4.1	Modelling of a Non-salient Pole Synchronous Machine	143
4.1.1	Inductance Matrix for a Non-salient Pole Synchronous Machine	145
4.2	Modelling of a Salient Pole Synchronous Machine	146
4.2.1	Determination of Inductances of Stator Coils	147
4.2.2	Determination of Mutual-inductances Between Stator and Rotor Coils	150
4.2.3	Determination of Self- and Mutual-inductances of Rotor Coils	151
4.2.4	Voltage Equation Using the Generator Convention	152
4.2.5	Elements of Resistance Matrix	153
4.3	Flux Linkage-current Equations in Rotor-reference Frame	153
4.3.1	Determination of $[L_B]$ Matrix	155
4.4	Voltage Equations in Rotor-reference Frame	158
4.5	Expression for Torque in Rotor-reference Frame	161
4.6	Case Studies	162
4.6.1	Voltage Build-up on Open-circuit	162
4.6.2	Steady-state Short-circuit	164

4.6.3	Natural Response Under Short-circuit	167
4.7	Rotor Mechanical Equation	184
4.8	Analysis of Linear Systems	185
4.8.1	Eigenvalue Analysis	185
4.8.2	Modal Analysis of Linear Systems	187
4.8.3	Solution of an LTI System	190
	<i>References</i>	195
	<i>Review Questions</i>	196

## 5. The Standard Parameters of Synchronous Machine 199

5.1	Requirement of Generator Modelling Neglecting Stator Transients	200
5.1.1	Short-circuit Analysis with Stator Transients Neglected	200
5.1.2	Type of Standardised Synchronous Machine Models	202
5.2	Operational Inductance Approach	202
5.2.1	Natural Response Under Short-circuit Condition Using OI Model	205
5.3	Per-unit Representation of Generator Quantities	207
5.3.1	Base Quantities	208
5.3.2	Per-unit Stator Voltage Equations	209
5.3.3	Flux-linkage Expressions in per-unit for 1.1 Model	209
5.3.4	Derivation of a State-space Model for d-axis Rotor Circuits without Damper Winding	210
5.3.5	Derivation of State-space Model for q-axis Rotor Circuit	216
5.4	Summary of Equations Pertaining to 1.1 Model	218
5.5	A Case Study: Voltage Build-up on No-load	220
5.6	Operational Impedance for 2.2 Model	221
5.6.1	Operational Impedance for $d$ -axis	222
5.6.2	Operational Impedance for $q$ -axis	227
5.7	Summary of Equations Pertaining to 2.2 Model	230
5.8	Swing Equation	232
5.8.1	Swing Equation in Form-1	233
5.8.2	Swing Equation in Form-2	235
5.8.3	Swing Equation in Form-3	235
5.8.4	Summary of Different Forms of Swing Equations	236
5.9	Steady-state Operation of Synchronous Generator	237
5.9.1	Graphical Approach to Determine the Rotor-angle in Salient-pole Machines	240
5.9.2	Example: Computation of Field Voltage $E_{fd0}$ in a Salient-pole Machine	242
5.9.3	Expression for Developed Torque Under Steady-state	242
5.10	Steady-state Analysis: Space-phasor Approach	244
5.10.1	Space-phasor Due to Armature Currents-Revolving Field	245
5.10.2	Space-phasor Diagram for Round Rotor Synchronous Machine	248
5.10.3	Space-phasor Diagram for Salient-pole Synchronous Machine	250
5.11	Modification of 2.2 Model and Equivalent Circuits	251
5.11.1	Observations with Reduced-order Models	252
5.11.2	Dynamic Equivalent Circuits for Generators	253
5.12	Initial Condition Calculations	255
5.12.1	Example: Initial Condition Evaluation in an SMIB System	257

- 5.13 Example: Eigenvalue Analysis of a Generator Under Short-circuit Condition 259
  - 5.13.1 Short-circuit Analysis Considering Stator Transients 260
  - 5.13.2 Short-circuit Analysis Neglecting Stator Transients 267
- 5.14 Example: Synchronisation of a Standalone Generator to Mains 272
- 5.15 Example: Transient Stability Simulation of an SMIB System 275
  - 5.15.1 SMIB System without AVR 276
  - 5.15.2 SMIB System with AVR 278
- References* 283
- Review Questions* 284

## 6. Numerical Integration of ODEs288

- 6.1 System of Differential Equations: Some Observations 288
- 6.2 Classification of Numerical Integration Algorithms 290
  - 6.2.1 Taylor Series-based Methods 290
  - 6.2.2 Single-step and Multi-step Methods 291
  - 6.2.3 Self Starting and Non-self Starting Methods 291
- 6.3 Accuracy and Stability of Numerical Integration Methods 292
  - 6.3.1 Accuracy of Numerical Integration Methods 292
  - 6.3.2 Stability of Numerical Integration Methods Through Eigenvalue Analysis 293
- 6.4 Demonstration of Some Numerical Integration Methods 293
  - 6.4.1 Forward Euler Method 293
  - 6.4.2 Backward Euler Method 299
  - 6.4.3 Trapezoidal Method 303
  - 6.4.4 Runge-Kutta (RK) Fourth Order Method 304
  - 6.4.5 Variable-step Methods 308
- 6.5 Example: Solution of Swing Equation 311
  - 6.5.1 Initial Condition Calculation for the Machine Variables and System Equations 314
  - 6.5.2 Solution of Swing Equations by Using Forward Euler Technique 316
  - 6.5.3 Solution of Swing Equations by Backward Euler and RK-4 Techniques 320
  - 6.5.4 Evaluation of Critical Clearing-angle Using Equal-area Criteria 324
  - 6.5.5 Large-signal Stability Evaluation Using Energy Function Method 326
- References* 331
- Review Questions* 332

## 7. Numerical Iterative Methods334

- 7.1 Features of Non-linear Algebraic System of Equations 334
- 7.2 Fixed-Point Iteration Method 335
  - 7.2.1 Example: A Scalar Function 335
  - 7.2.2 Example: Power Flow in a Simple Power System-1 337
  - 7.2.3 Example: Power Flow in a Simple Power System-2 338
  - 7.2.4 Example: Simultaneous Non-linear Equation 340
- 7.3 Gauss Seidel Iteration Method 341
- 7.4 Newton-Raphson Iteration Method 341
  - 7.4.1 Iterative Function for a Scalar System 341
  - 7.4.2 Iterative Function for a System with  $n$  Variables 342

7.4.3	Example: Simultaneous Non-linear Equation with Newton-Raphson Method	343
7.4.4	Example: Power Flow in a Simple Power System-1 (Newton-Raphson Method)	344
7.4.5	Example: Power Flow in a Simple Power System-2 (Newton-Raphson Method)	346
	<i>References</i>	348
	<i>Review Questions</i>	348

## **8. Fault Analysis of Power Systems 350**

8.1	Introduction to Fault Analysis	350
8.2	Symmetrical Three-phase Short-Circuit Analysis	351
8.2.1	Two-machine, Five-bus Power System	352
8.2.2	Analysis of Fault Current Using Thevenin's Theorem	355
8.2.3	Calculation of Bus Voltages in a Faulted System	360
8.2.4	Bus Voltage Calculation without the Knowledge of the Fault Current	364
8.2.5	Calculation of System Quantities During a Fault	365
8.2.6	Effect of Synchronous Machine Models on the Fault Current	367
8.2.7	Symmetrical Fault Calculations Accounting Pre-fault Load Currents	368
8.2.8	Short Circuit Capacity at a Bus	371
8.3	Analysis of Unsymmetrical Faults	373
8.3.1	Calculation of Sequence Voltages and Currents	375
8.3.2	Sequence Impedances of Y- and $\Delta$ -connected Passive Elements	379
8.3.3	Sequence Impedances of Synchronous Machines	384
8.3.4	Sequence Impedance of Transmission Lines	385
8.3.5	Sequence Impedance of Transformers	390
8.3.6	Example: Sequence Networks for a 2-machine 5-bus Power Systems	394
8.3.7	Analysis of Unsymmetrical Short-circuit Faults	397
8.3.8	Transient Stability Analysis for Unsymmetrical Shunt Faults	410
	<i>References</i>	416
	<i>Review Questions</i>	416

## **9. Introduction to Sub-synchronous Resonance 419**

9.1	Sub-synchronous Resonance	419
9.2	SSR Study of a Simplified System	420
9.2.1	Turbine-generator Mechanical Systems	420
9.2.2	Electrical Systems	422
9.2.3	System Parameters and Operating Conditions	424
9.2.4	Analysis of Only Electrical Systems	424
9.2.5	Analysis of Partial Systems	425
9.2.6	Analysis of the Complete Systems	426
9.2.7	Eigenvalue Analysis of the Complete System	430
	<i>References</i>	435
	<i>Review Questions</i>	436

## **10. SSR Analysis of the IEEE First Benchmark Model 437**

10.1	Turbine-Generator Mechanical System Equations	437
------	---	-----

10.1.1	The IEEE First Benchmark System and Modal Frequencies	439
10.1.2	Linearisation of Mechanical System of Equations	440
10.2	Generator Modelling	444
10.2.1	Stator and Rotor Equations	444
10.2.2	Linearisation of $T_e$	445
10.2.3	Linearisation of Electrical Equations	446
10.3	Exciter Modelling	449
10.3.1	Single-time Constant Static Exciter	449
10.3.2	Derivation of $\Delta V_g$ in terms of $v_{Og}$ and $v_{Dg}$ Components	450
10.4	Transmission Network Modelling	451
10.4.1	Derivation of Capacitor Voltage Equations	452
10.4.2	Derivation of Line Voltage Equations	455
10.5	Listing of Linearised State Equations	457
10.5.1	Interfacing of the Network to the Generator	458
10.6	Machine-frame-based Time-domain Simulation of SSR	461
10.6.1	Computation of $v_{gd}$ and $v_{gq}$ in Simulation	461
10.6.2	Initial Condition Calculations	464
10.6.3	Case Studies and Modal-speed Calculations	467
	<i>References</i>	474
	<i>Review Questions</i>	475

## 11. Controllers for Synchronous Generator

476

11.1	Real and Reactive Power Controllers for a Synchronous Generator	476
11.2	Functions and Types of Excitation Systems	477
11.2.1	DC Excitation Systems	479
11.2.2	AC Excitation Systems	481
11.2.3	Static Excitation Systems	484
11.2.4	State-space Model of Some System Functions	487
11.2.5	Initial Condition Calculations for Exciters	490
11.3	Prime Mover Controllers	492
11.3.1	Influence of Prime Mover Controllers on Load Sharing	493
11.3.2	Model of Hydraulic Turbines	495
11.3.3	Model of Steam Turbines	497
11.3.4	Modelling of Speed-Governing Systems	498
11.4	Windup and Non-windup Type Limiters on Integrator Blocks	500
11.4.1	Windup Type Limiter on Integrator Blocks	501
11.4.2	Non-windup Type Limiter on Integrator Blocks	501
	<i>References</i>	502
	<i>Review Questions</i>	503

## 12. Power System Angle Stability

506

12.1	Relative-Angular Stability Analysis	506
12.1.1	Small-signal Stability Analysis of SMIB System	507
12.1.2	A Mechanical Analogy	510
12.2	Synchronising and Damping Torque Analysis	512

12.3	Effect of a Fast-acting High-gain Static Exciter on SMIB System	514
12.3.1	PSS Location and its Design	515
12.4	Small-signal Stability Analysis of an SMIB System	521
12.4.1	Example: Small-signal Stability of SMIB System with 0.0 Model for Generator	521
12.4.2	Example: Small-signal Stability of SMIB System with 1.0 Model for Generator	524
12.4.3	Example: Small-signal Stability of SMIB System with 2.2 Model for Generator	528
12.4.4	Modal Performance with AVR and PSS	546
	<i>References</i>	553
	<i>Review Questions</i>	554

### 13. Modal Analysis of Power Systems with Interconnected Generators

557

13.1	Importance of Modal Analysis of Power Systems	557
13.2	Power System Oscillations	558
13.2.1	Classification of Power System Oscillation	559
13.2.2	Analysis of Small-signal Stability	560
13.3	Spring-mass System Example	561
13.3.1	Removal of Redundancy of a State	564
13.3.2	Case-1: With External $F_1$ Without Any Damping	565
13.3.3	Case-2: With External $F_3$ Without Any Damping	567
13.3.4	Case-3: With External $F_3$ With Damping $B_1$	568
13.3.5	Case-4: With External $F_3$ as a Step-signal Without Any Damping	570
13.3.6	Case-5: With External $F_3$ as a Step-signal With Damping $B_1$	571
13.3.7	Performance Analysis in the COI-reference-frame	572
13.4	Linearisation of Power System Modelling Equations	578
13.4.1	Current-Injection Approach	580
13.5	Participation Matrix	602
13.5.1	Determination of Nature of Oscillatory Modes	604
13.6	Modal Analysis of a Two-machine Power System	605
13.6.1	Base Case-Without Turbine	605
13.6.2	A Reheat Turbine Enabled on Machine-1	610
13.7	Modal Analysis of Four-machine Modified Power System	612
13.7.1	Base Case Loading Condition	613
13.7.2	Base Case without Excitation Controllers	617
13.7.3	Base Case with Reduced Loading Condition	617
13.7.4	Base Case with Power System Stabiliser	621
	<i>References</i>	627
	<i>Review Questions</i>	629

### 14. Transient Stability Analysis of Power Systems with Interconnected Generators

632

14.1	Interfacing Generator to Network	632
14.1.1	Influence of Dynamic Saliency of Generator	633
14.1.2	Dummy-coil Approach	636
14.1.3	Generator Source Current Calculations	637
14.1.4	Modelling of Network Elements	640



14.2	Centre of Inertia Reference	642
14.2.1	Common-mode Frequency Calculation (Frequency Stability Analysis)	642
14.2.2	Speed and Rotor-angle Calculations with respect to COI	644
14.2.3	Swing Equations in COI-reference	645
14.3	Structure of Power System Equations and its Solution	646
14.3.1	Simultaneous Implicit Solution	647
14.3.2	Partitioned Solution	647
14.4	Load Modelling	648
14.4.1	Load Model Classification	648
14.4.2	Polynomial Load Representation	649
14.4.3	Frequency-dependent Load Models	651
14.5	Load Equivalent Circuit	652
14.5.1	Modification of Constant Power-type Load Characteristics	652
14.5.2	An Approach to Avoid Iterative Solution of Algebraic Equations	653
14.6	A Summary of the Implementation Procedure	654
14.7	Demonstration of System Frequency with Two-machine Power System	656
14.7.1	Three-phase Fault without Frequency-dependent Loads	658
14.7.2	Three-phase Fault with Frequency-dependent Loads	659
14.7.3	Line Trip without Frequency-dependent Loads	659
14.7.4	Line Trip with Frequency-dependent Loads	661
14.7.5	Line Trip, Speed-governor on M-1 Enabled without Frequency-dependent Loads	663
14.7.6	Line Trip, Speed-governor on M-1 Enabled with Frequency-dependent Loads	664
14.7.7	Line Trip, Speed-governors on M-1 and M-2 Enabled with Frequency-dependent Loads	666
14.8	Large Disturbance Performance	670
14.8.1	Two-machine Power System	673
14.8.2	Four-machine, 10-bus Power Systems	681
14.8.3	50-machine, 145-bus the IEEE Power Systems	690
	<i>References</i>	698
	<i>Review Questions</i>	699

## 15. Dynamic Modelling of Some Electrical Machines and their Power-flow Analysis

702

15.1	Induction Motor Model	702
15.1.1	Fifth Order Induction Motor Model	703
15.1.2	Per-unit Representation of the Induction Motor Model	704
15.1.3	Reduced Order Model for the Induction Machine	718
15.2	Modelling of DC Motor-driven Synchronous Generator	727
15.2.1	DC Motor Modelling	728
15.2.2	DC Motor Driving a Synchronous Generator	731
15.2.3	Synchronisation of Two DC Motor-driven Synchronous Generators	743
15.2.4	Synchronisation of a DC Motor-driven Generator to Mains Supply	766
	<i>References</i>	777
	<i>Review Questions</i>	777

# Foreword

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Although electrical power systems have been in existence for more than a century, challenges in this field abound. While the structure of a bulk power system has remained more or less unchanged, the deployment of emerging technologies like wind and solar energy systems, voltage-source (power electronic) converters, and wide-area measurement systems have had a significant impact on the operation and control of power systems. An abiding concern of a power system engineer has been the stability of the electrical grid, that is, its ability to withstand a disturbance and return to an acceptable equilibrium. Although this is stated quite simply, complex modelling, analytical and computational tools are required to analyse, quantify, and improve stability margins.

Given the importance of maintaining stability, a good grounding in this subject is necessary for a power system engineer. In most undergraduate curricula in electrical power engineering, students are generally given only a brief introduction to power system stability in their first course on Electrical Power Systems. This is often their only exposure to power system dynamics and is by itself inadequate to analyse the nuances of the stability problem. Therefore, a follow-up course at the senior undergraduate level or the postgraduate level is necessary. This course should familiarise the student to modelling in the  $d$ - $q$  domain, which is not only required for machine modelling but also for understanding the vector-control of power electronic converters. Small-signal dynamic analysis and numerical integration methods, which are the necessary tools for analysis of power system dynamic phenomena, should also be covered in such a course.

I think that this book, *Power System Analysis: A Dynamic Perspective*, serves precisely as a bridge between the undergraduate course on power systems and the complex modelling and computational tools that are used for the dynamic analysis of practical systems.

Dr Shubhanga has worked in the area of power system dynamics for more than two decades. He has vast experience in teaching various power system subjects, as well as in the development of laboratory experiments and computer programmes to demonstrate concepts related to power system dynamic phenomena. It is appropriate that he has taken on this task of organising his teaching material in the form of this book.

Therefore, I am delighted to write the foreword for this book. I think the book will be a very useful text and reference book for students of electrical power system engineering.

5th July 2017

**A. M. Kulkarni**  
*IIT Bombay*

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# Preface

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Power systems are characterised by a large interconnection of complex dynamic elements such as synchronous machines, transformers, transmission lines, loads, network devices, etc. It is noted that even for a simple one-machine power system, it is not easy to carry out power system analysis without the support of a programming platform. In this regard, this book illustrates various issues related to mathematical modelling of components, interfacing of elements, and assembling of equations to finally solve them efficiently using computational techniques.

The content of the book has evolved as a result of continued teaching of the subject both for undergraduates and postgraduates for a period of more than 15 years. Although many books have been published in this area, it is felt that it is not easy to teach power system dynamics and related topics to students in a class-room environment as the study requires many pre-requisites such as linear systems theory, control theory, numerical methods, basics of power systems, etc. In an attempt to review these areas, many examples and time-domain simulations are presented through dedicated chapters. The main objective of this book is to cover dynamic aspects of power system analysis (in the frequency range below power frequency), giving a thorough insight into their origin and manifestation.

To introduce the system-dynamic aspects, the generalised theory of machines has been presented. A two-coil primitive machine is taken up to illustrate the concept of time-varying parameters in rotating electrical machines.

Both electrical and mechanical equations are given to show the nature of an energy conversion device. These are highlighted both for motor and generator operation, which is generally skipped while introducing the topic. The book presents power systems basics such as sinusoidal generation/operation and control while introducing the phasor-analysis tool as a special case of the state-space analysis. In the second chapter, the state-space modelling of dynamical systems is dealt in a tutorial manner to prepare the students to take-up advanced modelling of power system components. All concepts have been developed from fundamentals so that these topics can be introduced at a lower-semester level.

Before dynamic analysis of a power system is taken up, linear analyses techniques are briefed through many examples including eigenvalue analysis. To appreciate the solution of ordinary differential equations and hence to carry out time-domain simulations, in Chapter 6, a detailed introduction to numerical integration techniques is presented covering most of the popular methods giving their relevance in MATLAB/SIMULINK software. Even the concept of variable-step numerical integration method is discussed. Chapter 7 is dedicated to cover numerical iterative techniques to obtain solution of non-linear algebraic equations. These provide a complete base for handling load flow, fault analysis and complex stability problems.

In order to introduce the synchronous machine modelling and power system analysis with synchronous machines, a reduced order model is derived first, in a systematic manner, before an industry-grade model is discussed. These are covered in Chapters 4 and 5. While deriving the dynamic models, the classical transformation theory such as the Park transformation is neatly developed in Chapter 3. The generality of this transformation in establishing all other transformations found in the literature, is briefed. The application of such transformations in building a phase-lock loop (PLL) is also discussed. Many case studies and examples about synchronous generators are included so that students can easily implement the model and reproduce the results. This motivates self-learning, and students can design new tasks based on the understanding.

In some cases, sample plots are also shown which are acquired in the hardware lab. Having covered the dynamic model of a synchronous machine, the steady-state models are easily derived as a special case of the dynamic model. This, in turn, is directed to initial condition calculation, demonstrating the importance of such a computation in dynamic studies.

In Chapter 8, power system fault analysis is presented with better insight to address system-level studies, giving due importance to computational aspects. This coverage not only helps students to learn about conventional topics, but also provides a logical continuity to model network disturbances in the stability studies both for symmetrical and unsymmetrical faults.

Before introducing different aspects of power system stability analyses, especially related to low frequency power oscillations, a dedicated chapter is included on subsynchronous resonance (SSR) to demonstrate its origin in a simple power system. This tutorial chapter clarifies many issues with power system stability analyses, in general. In the following chapter, i.e., in Chapter 10, the SSR analysis in a slightly complicated the IEEE first benchmark system, is presented. This is found to provide a good introduction to the conventional stability analyses as the power swing-related analysis is much more simpler compared to the SSR analysis.

While introducing the power swing stability analyses in Chapter 12, a thorough insight is provided to a beginner about different types of power system stability, like small-signal stability, transient stability and frequency stability. A mechanical analogy is also given to distinguish these types of stability and its implications on the tools and techniques, and their significance. Many examples are presented to demonstrate the analysis method in simple power systems such as the single-machine connected to infinite bus (SMIB) systems. The effect of generator controllers such as primemover and excitation controllers are clearly explained. All relevant equations are listed, and analysis is carried out using vector and matrix manipulations so that students are driven to develop their own programme codes in MATLAB. The expected sample results are also plotted which can be used for verification. In some cases the captured plots on a lab machine are also shown.

In Chapters 13 and 14, small-signal and transient stability analyses are carried out with interconnected generators. A detailed analytical and time-domain simulation analyses are carried out for a linear multi-mass spring system to illustrate relative and common-mode oscillations and their prediction. These observations are used to get better understanding about power systems' modal behaviour. By taking up a two-machine power system, even frequency stability issues are covered which is generally avoided. In this connection, the concept of centre-of-inertia (COI) variables are also explained. Using these variables, the characteristics of different types of system loads are discussed.

Dynamic models of additional rotating machines such as induction machines, DC machine, and DC-motor driven synchronous machines (MG sets) are discussed in Chapter 15 to understand many hardware experiments conducted in a typical machines lab. The chapter illustrates many examples such as loading test on a synchronous generator, synchronisation of two MG sets, synchronisation to mains, etc., through time-domain simulation of modelling equations.

A major strength of the book is that all fundamental concepts have been explained through simple rigorous mathematical analysis with extensive time-domain simulation results. A number of plots have been given along with necessary elaboration in simple language for easy understanding. For most of the examples and exercises, the associated script and model files developed in MATLAB/SIMULINK will be provided (through website) so that they will be useful for the beginners. A multi-machine power system stability analysis programme (developed in-house) will be made available for free-download (along with user manual) so that many examples in the book can be worked out. These programmes cover both the small-signal and large-signal stability analyses. In the programme, many IEEE standard-type exciters, primemovers and power system stabilisers are implemented. Many speaking tutorials have been generated using this package, which are available on Youtube website which will augment the class-room teaching.

The power system engineering related topics covered in the book can be used as a resource material for teachers, UG/PG/research students, as well as utility personnel.

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**K. N. Shubhanga**

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# About the Author

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**K. N. Shubhanga** has been with the Department of Electrical Engineering, National Institute of Technology Karnataka, Surathkal, Mangalore, India, as a faculty member, for more than 22 years. He received the B.E. degree in Electrical Engineering and the M.Tech. degree in power systems from Mangalore University, India, in 1991 and 1994, respectively, and Ph.D. degree from the Indian Institute of Technology Bombay, in 2003. His research interests are in the areas of FACTS and power system dynamics. He has setup a Power System lab in the department where a scale-down model of a 4-machine power system has been built. This lab has provisions to inter-connect four DC-motor driven synchronous generators so as to illustrate two-area power system operation and control and to acquire real-time dynamic signals of machines. In this lab, UG/PG core course-related experiments are conducted to augment the classroom theoretical concepts. Even in hardware lab such as electrical machines, lab weightages are given to simulation and programming exercises. To support this, he has developed many power system analysis and simulation packages, in-house. Details about the lab setup and other resource materials are available on Google-Drive on the web address: <https://goo.gl/l2jnld>. Some speaking tutorials (MatSim phase-1) related to power system dynamics are available in the YouTube website.

He is a senior IEEE member and a life member of the IEE (India). He has guided many UG/PG major and minor projects and has involved in research-level activities as well. This effort has resulted in the publication of more than 40 research articles which are indexed in the IEEE digital library. Further, his Ph.D. and PG students have acquired prestigious POSOCO Power Systems Awards in the recent time. He has been teaching subjects such as electrical machines, power systems, power electronic applications to power systems, numerical methods, linear systems, etc. to both UG and PG students. He has presented guest-lectures at various academic institutes and has been a regular reviewer for the IEEE journals and international conferences. He has also held administrative offices both at the institute and at the department levels.



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# Introduction to Power System Analysis

# 1

## CHAPTER OUTLINE

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1.1 Performance of Large Power Systems and their Analysis | 1.4 Power System Stability—Modelling Issues |
| 1.2 Classification of Power System Stability Problems     | 1.5 Electromechanical Energy Conversions    |
| 1.3 Power System Stability Analysis—Computational Issues  |   |

In this chapter, we highlight various types of power system analysis that are carried out. In addition, we also discuss the computational issues that are to be handled. The discussion enables the reader to choose appropriate tools and techniques to perform such analysis. A brief introduction to state-space modelling of systems is presented.

In order to prepare a reader to take up synchronous machine modelling in the later chapters, the fundamentals of electromechanical energy conversion process are discussed using illustrative examples which offer time-varying parameters.

## 1.1 PERFORMANCE OF LARGE POWER SYSTEMS AND THEIR ANALYSIS

A large power system is generally characterised by the following:

1. Large power transfer over large distance from generation centres to load centres.
2. Lack of power flow controllability due to heavy AC connection where power flow in various lines gets decided by physical AC laws. Hence, transmission systems are unevenly utilised.
3. Heavy AC interconnection with limited high-voltage direct current (HVDC) links between control areas. This leads to unscheduled power flow.
4. Due to limited right-of-way, it is not easy to take up new expansion planning to augment the system.

5. Stability issues largely constrain power transfer. This may require large load margins for equipment, making the system bulky and non economical.
6. While transferring large power over long distance, voltage control becomes a major control problem.
7. The system possesses very poor damping for electromechanical oscillations, thus restricting the loading level.

In order to develop an understanding of such a system, it is necessary to carry out a detailed power system analysis under steady-state and dynamic conditions. This generally involves the following types of analysis:

1. **Reliability analysis:** It involves a probabilistic study and denotes the ability to supply load adequately with as few interruptions as possible. It is a function of time-average performance of the power system over a long period [1].
2. **Security analysis:** It involves the determination of the ability of the power system to meet the load demand without any violation of apparatus-operating limits against possible contingencies. It is to be noted that for the system to be reliable, it must be secure most of the time. Security and stability issues are strongly coupled.
3. **Stability analysis:** It determines the ability of the system to remain intact without losing synchronous operation. For a system to be secure, it must be stable. Security and stability are time-varying attributes and are functions of the operating state and a candidate contingency. Therefore, when security issues are analysed, it is customary to make a distinction between security analysis carried out at an operating point, referred to as *steady-state security*, and those studies in which transition to a new operating condition, is analysed, referred to as *dynamic security analysis* (DSA) [2].

## 1.2 CLASSIFICATION OF POWER SYSTEM STABILITY PROBLEMS

It is well-known that stability of linear systems is neither dependent on the operating point nor on the forcing function, whereas for non-linear systems, like power systems, the stability of the system is decided by the equilibrium point at which it is operating and the magnitude of the forcing function. Therefore, as per [3, 5], a classification is done to perform power system stability studies as shown in Table 1.1 based on the time-scale and driving force of instability.

Some features of the tabulated-type of power systems stability are briefly discussed below [4].

**Table 1.1** Classification of Power System Stability Analysis.

Time range	Generator-driven (Rotor-angle stability)		Load-driven
Short-term	Small-signal stability	Transient stability	Voltage stability
Long-term	Frequency stability		

1. **Rotor-angle stability:** This analysis is mainly concerned with electromechanical oscillations and large angle variation of the generator rotors. Small-signal stability analysis deals with the operating point stability with respect to low-frequency oscillations which can range from 0.1–3 Hz. This stability is the fundamental requirement of any system. In case of transient stability analysis, the system performance is studied for large disturbances. In this short-term time frame, there is no common frequency throughout the system. However, in the long-term time scale when the short-term dynamics are stable, the frequency excursions gain importance since both under- and over-frequency system operations are detrimental to system integrity [6]. This long-term time scale, which typically lasts for several minutes, necessitates modelling of slow dynamical devices such as tap changers, prime-movers controllers, boilers and their controls, etc. Such long-term dynamics largely depend on the generation-load imbalance irrespective of network connectivity within each connected area.

In addition to the above listed synchronous generator rotor-related stability performances, another type of small-signal stability analysis that is studied is the subsynchronous resonance (SSR) problem. This analysis involves modelling of combined steam turbine-generator mechanical systems, including the dynamics of capacitor-compensated electrical transmission network. Here, the frequency of interest lies in the range of 15–45 Hz, i.e., subsynchronous range [7, 8]. With the integration of induction generator- and doubly-fed induction generator-based wind energy conversion systems into the conventional AC grid, it has led to another type of stability problem, referred to as *speed instability* [9].

2. **Load-driven stability:** In contrast to angle stability where we are concerned about *relative* and *common* angle oscillations, here, the analysis mainly involves determination of voltage-maintaining-ability of power systems. This analysis requires full network representation along with modelling of dynamic load components (induction motors, electronically controlled loads, HVDC interconnections), voltage control devices such as exciters, on-load tap-changers' controllers, any reactive power sources, and so on. The time scale of analysis and complexity of modelling is often similar to the short-term rotor-angle stability analysis. Sometimes, in long-term voltage stability studies, for simpler and faster analysis, the possibility of voltage instability is understood by detecting the absence of equilibrium points using a static tool like power flow programmes, even if the voltage stability problem is inherently dynamic in nature.

It should be noted that it is not easy to carry out power system stability analysis without performing a categorisation of stability problems since such a classification facilitates the following:

1. To choose appropriate degree of details for system representation: Time frame of study and time response of components helps us make appropriate approximations in any analysis. For example, while investigating the impact of the control set point of boiler, it is not necessary to solve the complex transmission line wave equations. This is obvious because the boiler response time is in the range of minutes, whereas the wave travel time is in the order of milliseconds. Such *engineering approximation* is very useful in system studies [10].
2. To select an appropriate analytical tool: For example, when small-signal stability analysis is carried out, the non-linear system equations are linearised around an operating point whose stability performance is to be investigated. The linear control theory is then applied, assuming that the system trajectories do not trigger non-linear behaviour. Therefore, one may just perform the eigenvalue analysis and predict the stability without solving the system's differential-algebraic

equations (DAEs). If it is required to obtain the large-signal performance, one is left with no choice but to carry out numerical solution of non-linear DAEs.

3. To identify key factors that contribute to instability and to devise methods for improving stable operation.

### 1.3 POWER SYSTEM STABILITY ANALYSIS – COMPUTATIONAL ISSUES

To perform power system stability analysis, a knowledge of the following topics is desirable.

1. Linear algebra: The theory of vector spaces, basis, the theory of matrices, similarity transformations, time-variant and time-invariant systems, and so on [12].
2. Systems theory: Identification of linear and non-linear systems, state-space modelling, etc [11].
3. Computational techniques: This includes the following system of equations:

(a) Algebraic system of equations:

- (i) Linear algebraic system of equations: Generally, these equations will be in the form,  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ . Solution techniques may employ either elimination techniques such as Gauss or decomposition methods such as  $[L][U]$ ,  $[L][L]^T$ , and so on [13]. In power system analysis, we come across this form of equations in tasks such as (i) steady-state fault analysis, (ii) in each iteration of power flow analysis where deviations are calculated, (iii) in each time step when implicit numerical integration technique is employed to solve linear differential equations, etc.
- (ii) Non-linear algebraic system of equations: Generally, these equations will be in the form,  $F(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ . For such systems, only numerical solution is possible, and solutions are obtained by using *numerical iteration techniques*. Solution techniques may be in form of fixed point iteration (also referred to as Gauss method), Gauss-Seidel, or Newton-based methods. A classical power system analysis task where we use this type equations is power flow analysis.

(b) Differential system of equations: The following are the two major kinds of differential equations depending on the nature of equations:

- (i) Linear differential equations: Here, differential equations govern the dynamics of linear systems. Linear systems are those which contain linear elements which exhibit a linear relationship between its excitation and response. Such system of differential equations is amenable for closed form of *analytical solutions*. They need not be solved using numerical integration techniques. Such differential equations are easily recognisable as linear if they are written in *state-space* form [14]. For example, in an RL-series circuit, if the inductor is air-core type, its inductance value remains constant independent of flux, hence the current. In other words, the flux-current relationship is linear, resulting in a constant inductance or we state that the inductor remains *unsaturated*. Therefore, the differential equation governing the dynamics of such a circuit remains linear.
- (ii) Non-linear differential equations: Here, differential equations govern the dynamics of non-linear systems. In the above example of a series RL circuit, if the inductor saturates, we can see that the flux-current relationship is not linear. This leads to a non-linear differential equation. An important difficulty in solving such differential equations is that

their solution cannot be obtained analytically, or in other words, the solution cannot be written in a closed form of expression. The solution values of variables can only be determined at discrete time-instants by applying numerical integration techniques. Therefore, through a *numerical* processing, the sampled-version of the solution flow is obtained.

- (c) Differential-algebraic equations (DAEs): Here, coupled differential and algebraic equations are solved *simultaneously*. Such requirement arises when systems such as power systems, weather systems, chemical systems, and so on, are modelled. The following approaches may be employed [10]:
- (i) Partitioned solution approach: Here, the differential and algebraic equations are solved separately in an alternate fashion. To solve differential equations, one may employ either explicit or implicit technique.
  - (ii) Simultaneous implicit solution approach: In this case, the differential equations are *algebraiced* using an implicit integration technique and are augmented to the algebraic equations. The resulting algebraic equations are collectively solved using Newton-based iterative schemes.

The above methods will be further briefed in later sections.

- (d) Evaluation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors: It is known that eigenvalue analysis is one of the widely followed methods to understand the operating point stability of power systems. In addition, eigenvectors facilitate easy prediction of dominance of a frequency component in a state-variable, thus guiding the placement and tuning of controllers. The eigenvalues are the roots of the characteristic polynomial of a system. It is well-understood that beyond the fourth order, it is not easy to determine the roots of the polynomial. Hence, one is forced to use numerical techniques to estimate eigenvalues and eigenvectors. In this regard, QR technique [13] and modified Arnoldi methods (MAM) [15] are more widely used.

## 1.4 POWER SYSTEM STABILITY—MODELLING ISSUES

Developing an accurate mathematical model for a system and its constituent components is an important step in power system analysis. A model is said to be suitable if it can faithfully reproduce the real-world observations adequately, i.e., to a desired level of human satisfaction, in the computational domain. A mathematical model development for a component starts by applying known physical laws which govern the operation of the component. However, the final usage of a model for a component depends on some of the following factors:

1. The possibility of determining the parameters involved in the model.
2. The human effort required to implement the model.
3. The availability of a suitable computational tool.
4. The computational effort to obtain the solution.
5. The time-response of the performance desired.
6. The computational accuracy required.

Therefore, there is always a trade-off between all these factors, which decide to what detailed level a component model is used in system analysis. In any such studies, suitable *engineering approximations* are made to obtain a response (in the mathematical domain) which *adequately* match the real-world

physical response. A good example for demonstrating the importance of approximations in modelling is the methodology employed for modelling of synchronous machines. To support this, Prof. M. A. Pai acknowledges in his book [10] by stating ‘There is probably more literature on synchronous machines than on any other device in electrical engineering. Unfortunately, this vast amount of material often makes the subject complex and confusing.’

As per literature, it is noted that no experimental test can be conducted on a synchronous machine in the laboratory to determine the preliminary parameters desired by the basic model. In such a case, one is required to obtain hybrid parameters of a machine. These parameters are commonly referred to as *the standard parameters* of a synchronous machine. To make the basic model usable, it is modified in terms of the standard parameters. Therefore, obtainability or availability of machine data often constrains one from using a detailed model for the synchronous machine. In some cases, depending on the acceptable level of accuracy, we can use reduced order model as well.

In power system analysis, the following two modelling approaches are generally employed:

1. **Distributed parameter representation:** Here, time and space are treated as independent variables. For example, while modelling high-frequency transients such as lightning or switching surges, it is desirable to consider the spacial distribution of basic parameters  $R$ ,  $L$ , and  $C$  because, in this case, the length of the line is comparable to the electromagnetic wave-length [16] leading to considerable wave-travel time. While modelling such components, we invariably use partial differential equations (PDE) and they require dedicated numerical methods to capture the wave-travel effect. Bergeron’s method [10] is one such method employed in electromagnetic transient packages such as PSCAD/EMTDC and EMTP RV [17].
2. **Lumped parameter representation:** Here, only time is treated as an independent variable. The distributed influence of the basic effects, such as resistance, inductance and capacitance, are assumed to be lumped at a place leading to a circuit model for the component. This enables us to write ordinary differential equations (ODEs) to describe their dynamics as the wave-travel time is negligible. The power system stability analysis uses such representation for components.

### 1.4.1 Modelling of Dynamical Systems

Generally, there are two kinds of modelling approaches:

1. **System function-based approach:** In this approach, a given ODE is *algebraiced* and written in the form of a function involving the ratio of polynomials. Such representation is applicable only to linear systems. While algebraicing, the initial values on the variables are set to zero. This representation is generally employed for ease of depiction of dynamics of a system. A typical system function is given by

$$\frac{X(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{Np(s)}{Dp(s)}$$

where  $s$  is an operator which represents  $\frac{d}{dt}$  with zero initial conditions.

For example, a simple single-time constant delay circuit is depicted as

$$H(s) = \frac{X(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{1}{(1 + sT)} \quad (1.1)$$

where  $T$  is in seconds.

2. **State-space-based approach:** In this approach, a given  $n$ th order differential equation is written as a set of  $n$  numbers of first order differential equations by appropriately choosing a *state-variable* vector [12]. An important advantage of this approach is that this representation can be used for either linear or non-linear systems with desired initial value on states.

### 1.4.1.1 State-space Modelling of a System

Every physical system is causal. Causal or non-anticipatory system is one in which the present output depends on the past and the present inputs and not on future inputs. Defining a *state* for such a system overcomes the problem of tracking the input  $u(t)$  from  $t = -\infty$ , for determining the present output. The state  $x$  of a system is that variable whose value is known at time  $t_0$  is the information at  $t = t_0$  that, along with the input, for  $t \geq t_0$ , *uniquely* determines the output  $y(t)$  for all  $t \geq t_0$ . Here,  $x$  is referred to as a *state-variable* and it possess the following properties:

1. State-variables are continuous in time, i.e.,  $x(t_0^-) = x(t_0^+)$ .
2. The selection of state-variables is not unique.
3. The number of state-variables chosen for a system indicates the *degrees-of-freedom* associated with the system. It also represents the *order* of a system.

Let us examine another classification of lumped systems which is given below [18]:

1. Time-invariant systems: If the initial state and the input are the same, no matter at what time they are applied, the output waveform will be the same. For such systems, the parameters of the systems are constant and independent of time.
2. Time-varying systems: Here, parameters of the systems are not constants and are functions of time. Examples are change of parameters due to aging, primitive inductance of rotating machines, etc.

*Note:* Most physical systems are modelled as *time-invariant* systems as it is not easy to handle time-varying systems in terms of solution of systems of equations.

The state-space description of a lumped linear time-invariant (LTI) systems is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\underline{x}} &= A\underline{x} + B\underline{u} \\ \underline{y} &= C\underline{x} + D\underline{u}\end{aligned}\tag{1.2}$$

For a  $p$ -input and  $q$ -output system,  $\underline{u}$  is  $p \times 1$  vector and  $\underline{y}$  is a  $q \times 1$  vector. If the system has  $n$  state-variables, then  $\underline{x}$  is an  $n \times 1$  vector.

- $A \rightarrow n \times n$ : state-feedback matrix
- $B \rightarrow n \times p$ : input matrix
- $C \rightarrow q \times n$ : output matrix
- $D \rightarrow q \times p$ : direct-feed matrix

It should be noted that the  $A$  matrix is constant and is independent of time for LTI systems. Also, note that the state-space description involves a set of  $n$  first-order linear differential equations and  $q$  algebraic equations.



The above description of the state-space model, i.e., in the matrix notation see eq. (1.2), is feasible only for linear systems. For non-linear systems, the state model cannot be written in *matrix* form. Then, it can only be written in the following form:

$$\dot{\underline{x}} = F(\underline{x}, \underline{u}, t) \tag{1.3}$$

where  $\underline{x}$  denotes the stat-variable vector,  $\underline{u}$  -represents the input vector.

If the time derivative of the state is not an explicit function of time  $t$ , such a system is referred to as an *autonomous system*. As stated earlier, for non-linear systems, the solution cannot be obtained by analytical means. Only a numerical solution is possible. It is also important to note that to apply any numerical integration technique, the system should be modelled only in state-space form.

**Example 1.1**

For the system function shown in eq. (1.1), a state-space model can be written as

$$\dot{x} = -\frac{1}{T}x + \frac{1}{T}u(t) \tag{1.4}$$

For a unit-step input, the zero-state response is given by

$$y(t) = x(t) = 1 - e^{\left(-\frac{t}{T}\right)}$$

Let  $z = \frac{1}{T}x$ , then  $\dot{x} = T\dot{z}$ . Making this substitution in eq. (1.4) we get,

$$\dot{z} = -\frac{1}{T}z + \frac{1}{T^2}u(t) \tag{1.5}$$

and the desired output is given by

$$x(t) = Tz(t) \tag{1.6}$$

From eq. (1.5), if the system function is obtained, then we get

$$H_1(s) = \frac{Z(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{\frac{1}{T}}{(1 + sT)}$$

Now using eq. (1.6) in the above equation, we get

$$\frac{\frac{1}{T}X(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{\frac{1}{T}}{(1 + sT)} \tag{1.7}$$

The above equation, clearly demonstrates that for a given system function there is no unique state-model. This is because  $H(s)$  given in eq. (1.1) can be obtained from either eq. (1.4) or eq. (1.5).

**Example 1.2**

Consider another system function given by

$$H(s) = \frac{X(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{sT}{(1 + sT)} \tag{1.8}$$

In the above case, if we simply cross-multiply LHS and RHS terms to get a state-model, then it results in taking a derivative of the input  $u$  which should be strictly avoided in building a state-model. A procedure to avoid this is given below.

The above function is rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} X(s) &= \frac{sT \times U(s)}{(1 + sT)} \\ &= sT \times Z(s) \end{aligned} \quad (1.9)$$

where

$$Z(s) = \frac{U(s)}{(1 + sT)}$$

A state-model for the above system function can be easily written as

$$\dot{z} = -\frac{1}{T}z + \frac{1}{T}u(t) \quad (1.10)$$

From eq. (1.9), the output equation can be written as

$$x(t) = T\dot{z} \quad (1.11)$$

Using eq. (1.10) in the above equation, we get the desired output equation as

$$x(t) = -z + u(t) \quad (1.12)$$

Therefore, for the system function given in eq. (1.8), the complete state-model is given by eqs. (1.10) and (1.12).

## 1.5 ELECTROMECHANICAL ENERGY CONVERSION

The process of electromechanical energy conversion involves two forms of energy conversion:

1. Conversion from electrical to mechanical which is referred to as motor operation.
2. Conversion from mechanical to electrical which is referred to as generator operation.

In both the processes, there exists a magnetic field which acts as a media between electrical and mechanical systems. This media should be *filled* with energy to facilitate the conversion<sup>1</sup>. This implies that electrical circuit is dominantly inductive, and its inductance may be time-varying. To understand this complex energy exchange and interaction, a few examples are presented [19, 20].

### 1.5.1 Behaviour of an Inductor with Fixed Armature Core

Consider a coil as shown in Figure 1.1, where the armature core is fixed and is assumed to be unsaturated.

Applying Kirchoff's Voltage Law (KVL), we can write the circuit equation as

$$v = Ri + \frac{d\psi}{dt} \quad (1.13)$$

<sup>1</sup>This clarifies the concept of reactive power loss at fundamental frequency under sinor steady-state. An analogy to this concept is the water in a pipe. In order to have water discharge at a constant rate at the other end of the pipe, the pipe should be filled with water all the time as long as we need water delivery. This amount of water is not available for utilisation. This is equivalent to a loss. This represents the reactive power and the water discharge at a given rate denotes the real power transferred.