

*ELEC0047 - Power system dynamics, control and stability*

## Long-term voltage stability : load aspects

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*Voltage instability results from the inability of the combined transmission and generation system to provide the power requested by loads*

- Transmission aspects
- Generation aspects
- ▶ **Load aspects**

# Load power restoration

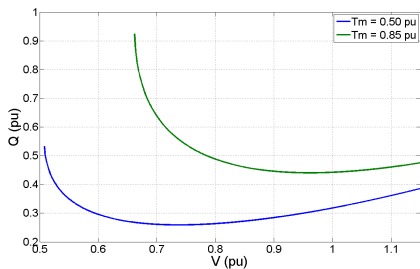
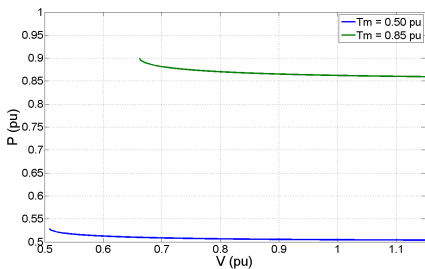
- If loads behaved as constant admittances, no voltage instability would occur (low but steady voltages would be experienced in severe cases)
- voltage instability is largely caused by the trend of loads to restore their pre-disturbance power after a disturbance
- this may take place in several time scales :

component	time scale	internal variable	equilibrium condition
induction motor	$\simeq 1$ second	motor speed	mechan. torque = electrom. torque
load tap changer	$\simeq$ few minutes	transformer ratio	controlled voltage within deadband
thermostatically controlled load	$\simeq$ few minutes - tens of min.	amount of connected load	temperature within deadband

- other devices/processes:  
distribution voltage regulators, consumer reaction to voltage drop

# Load power restoration in induction motor

## Steady-state characteristics of motor

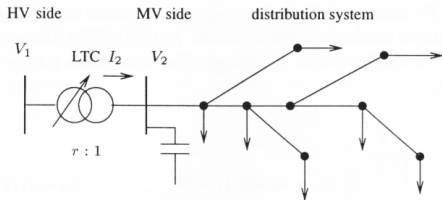


large industrial motor

$$X_s = 0.067, X_m = 3.800, X_r = 0.17, R_s = 0.013, R_r = 0.009 \text{ pu}$$

# Load Tap Changers (LTCs)

Also referred to as *on-load tap changers* or *under-load tap changers*.



The LTC adjusts  $r$  to keep  $V_2$  into a *deadband*  $[V_2^o - \epsilon \ V_2^o + \epsilon]$

$$r \simeq [0.85 - 0.90 \ 1.10 - 1.15] \quad \Delta r \simeq 0.5 - 1.5 \% \quad \Delta r < 2\epsilon$$

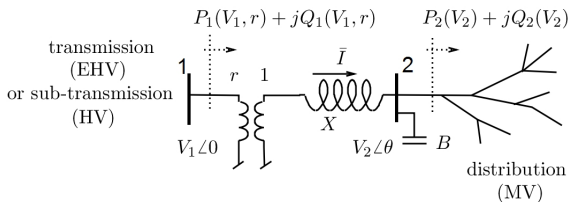
- Widely used to control voltages in networks of lower nominal voltage
  - HV sub-transmission and MV distribution networks
  - where no longer power plants are connected (replaced by more powerful ones connected to transmission network)
  - to compensate for voltage deviations in the EHV transmission network.
- Main way of controlling voltages in MV distribution grids.
  - but dispersed generation connected at MV level will play an increasing role.

The time response of LTCs is typical of *long-term dynamics*.

Delay between two tap changes:

- minimum delay  $T_m$  of mechanical origin  $\simeq 5$  seconds
- intentional additional delay: from a few seconds up to 1 – 2 minutes
  - to let network transients die out before reacting (avoid unnecessary wear)
  - fixed or variable
    - e.g. inverse-time characteristic: the larger the deviation  $|V_2 - V_2^o|$ , the faster the reaction
  - delay before first tap change ( $\simeq 30 - 60$  seconds) usually larger than delay between subsequent tap changes ( $\simeq 10$  seconds)
- if several levels of tap changers in cascade: the higher the voltage level, the faster the reaction (otherwise risk of oscillations between tap changers)

# Load power restoration through LTCs



Assume the load is represented by an exponential model:

$$P_2(V_2) = P^o \left( \frac{V_2}{V_2^o} \right)^\alpha \quad Q_2(V_2) = Q^o \left( \frac{V_2}{V_2^o} \right)^\beta$$

For simplicity, the reference voltage  $V_2^o$  is taken equal to the LTC set-point.

The power balance equations at bus 2 are:

$$P^o \left( \frac{V_2}{V_2^o} \right)^\alpha = -\frac{V_1 V_2}{r X} \sin \theta \quad (1)$$

$$Q^o \left( \frac{V_2}{V_2^o} \right)^\beta - B V_2^2 = -\frac{V_2^2}{X} + \frac{V_1 V_2}{r X} \cos \theta \quad (2)$$

- For given values of  $V_1$  and  $r$ , Eqs. (1,2) can be solved numerically with respect to  $\theta$  and  $V_2$  (using Newton method for instance)
- from which the power leaving the transmission network is obtained as:

$$P_1 = -\frac{V_1 V_2}{r X} \sin \theta \quad (= P_2) \quad Q_1 = \frac{V_1^2}{r^2 X} - \frac{V_1 V_2}{r X} \cos \theta$$

- repeating this operation for various values of  $V_1$  and  $r$  yields the curves shown on the next slide.

### Numerical example

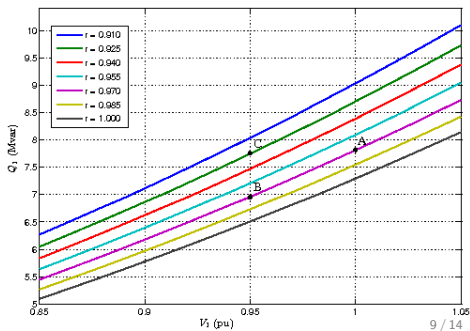
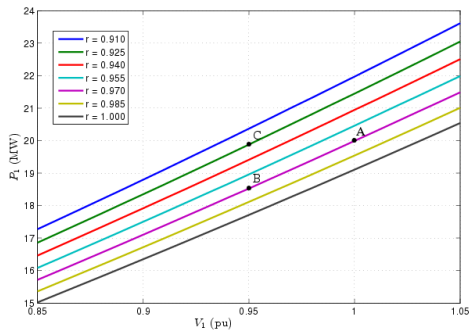
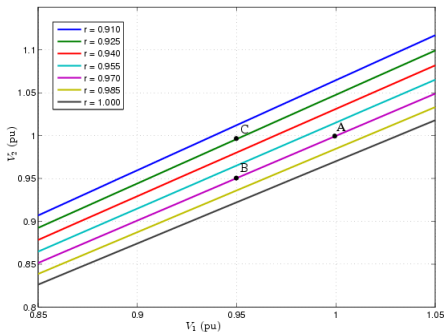
- transformer: 30 MVA,  $X = 0.14$  pu,  $V_2^o = 1$  pu
- load:  $\alpha = 1.5$ ,  $\beta = 2.4$ ,  $P_2 = 20$  MW under  $V_2 = 1$  pu,  
 $\cos \phi_u = 0.90$  (lagging) under  $V_2 = 1$  pu
- with the compensation capacitor:  $\cos \phi_c = 0.96$  (lagging) under  $V_2 = 1$  pu

On the  $S_B = 100$  MVA base:  $X = 0.14(100/30) = 0.467$  pu

$$V_2^o = 1 \text{ pu} \quad P^o = 0.20 \text{ pu} \quad Q^o = P^o \tan \phi_u = 0.20 \times 0.4843 = 0.097 \text{ pu}$$

$$B.1^2 = Q^o - P^o \tan \phi_c \Rightarrow B = 0.097 - 0.20 \times 0.2917 = 0.039 \text{ pu}$$





Initial operating point: A, where  $V_1 = 1$  pu,  $r = 0.97$  pu/pu, and  $V_2 = V_2^o = 1$  pu

Response to a 0.05 pu drop of voltage  $V_1$ :

- in the short term,  $r$  does not change; the oper. point changes from A to B
- at point B,  $V_2 < V_2^o - \epsilon = 0.99$  pu
- hence, the LTC makes the ratio decrease by three positions, until  $V_2 > V_2^o - \epsilon$
- and the operating point changes from B to C.

Neglecting the deadband  $2\epsilon$ :

- the  $V_2$  voltage is restored to the setpoint value  $V_2^o$
- hence, the  $P_2$  and  $Q_2$  powers are restored to their pre-disturbance values
- the same holds true for the  $P_1$  and  $Q_1$  powers. This was to be expected since:

$$P_1 = P_2(V_2)$$

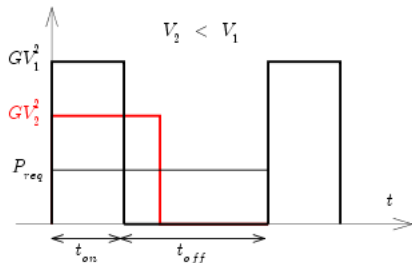
$$Q_1 = Q_2(V_2) - BV_2^2 + XI_2^2 = Q_2(V_2) - BV_2^2 + X \frac{P_2^2(V_2) + Q_2^2(V_2)}{V_2^2}$$

- hence, the load seen by the transmission system behaves *in the long-term* (i.e. after the tap changer has acted) as a *constant power*.
- This is true as long as the tap changer does not hit a limit.

# Power recovery of thermostatic loads

Heating resistors are switched on/off by thermostats so that the mean power consumed over a cycle = power required to keep the temperature =  $P_{req}$

$$\frac{t_{on}}{t_{on} + t_{off}} GV^2 = P_{req} \quad (3)$$



If  $V$  drops,  $P = GV^2$  drops  $\Rightarrow t_{on}$  increases until (3) is satisfied

For a large number  $n$  of identical thermostatically-controlled resistors:

$$P(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(t) GV^2 = n \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(t) \right) GV^2 \simeq n \frac{t_{on}}{t_{on} + t_{off}} GV^2$$

where  $f_i(t) = 1$  if the  $i$ -th resistor is on at time  $t$   
 $f_i(t) = 0$  if it is off.

$$P(t) \simeq n \frac{t_{on}}{t_{on} + t_{off}} GV^2$$

- following a voltage drop,  $nGV^2$  decreases  
but after some time,  $\frac{t_{on}}{t_{on} + t_{off}}$  increases until  $P(t)$  recovers to  $nP_{req}$
- thus, the load behaves as constant admittance in the short term and as constant power in steady state
- thermostatically controlled loads are also referred to as “constant-energy” loads.
- However, if the voltage drop is too pronounced, all resistors stay connected ( $t_{off} = 0$ ) but  $P_{req}$  cannot be obtained. Then, the load behaves as constant admittance.

# Generic model of load power restoration

Power consumed by the load at any time  $t$ :

$$P(t) = z_P P_o \left( \frac{V}{V_o} \right)^{\alpha_t} \quad Q(t) = z_Q Q_o \left( \frac{V}{V_o} \right)^{\beta_t} \quad (4)$$

$z_P, z_Q$ : dimensionless state variables associated with load dynamics

$\alpha_t, \beta_t$ : short-term (or transient) load exponents

In steady-state, the load obeys:

$$P_s = P_o \left( \frac{V}{V_o} \right)^{\alpha_s} \quad Q_s = Q_o \left( \frac{V}{V_o} \right)^{\beta_s} \quad (5)$$

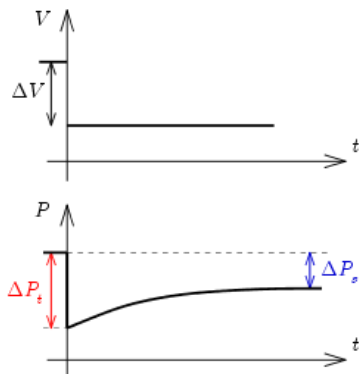
$\alpha_s, \beta_s$ : steady-state (or long-term) load exponents; usually  $\alpha_s < \alpha_t, \beta_s < \beta_t$ .

The load dynamics are given by:

$$T \dot{z}_P = \left( \frac{V}{V_o} \right)^{\alpha_s} - z_P \left( \frac{V}{V_o} \right)^{\alpha_t} \quad T \dot{z}_Q = \left( \frac{V}{V_o} \right)^{\beta_s} - z_Q \left( \frac{V}{V_o} \right)^{\beta_t} \quad (6)$$

with  $z_P^{\min} \leq z_P \leq z_P^{\max}$  and  $z_Q^{\min} \leq z_Q \leq z_Q^{\max}$ .  $T \simeq$  several minutes

Response of active power  $P$  to a step decrease of voltage  $V$



$$\alpha_t \simeq \frac{\Delta P_t / P_o}{\Delta V / V_o} \quad \alpha_s \simeq \frac{\Delta P_s / P_o}{\Delta V / V_o}$$

Similar expressions hold true for reactive power