Electric Power Delivery Systems Tutorial at U.C. Berkeley September 11, 2009

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Inherent complexity of electric grid:

Provide energy from diverse resources to diverse loads through a single large, interconnected infrastructure.

Components of infrastructure are

- numerous
- diverse in type, age, behavior, control options and vulnerabilities
- under different ownership and jurisdictions
- tightly coupled: interactions propagate far, wide, and quickly.

Complex system:

no individual can sensibly and fully account for it.

Yet the system requires control in real-time, with precise balance of inputs and outputs, based on detailed understanding of its function.

Why the grid is structured as it is

Hierarchy of transmission and distribution Alternating current, transformers Scale and connectivity



Rendition of a power system from PG&E's website



My electric service entrance in Sebastopol, California



Transformer connection to local distribution circuit



Power System Structure with typical voltage levels







Power System Structure with typical voltage levels





Lakeville transmission substation



Power System Structure with typical voltage levels











www.trans-elect.com



www.trans-elect.com



Three voltage levels: Subtransmission (60-115kV) Primary distribution (12-21kV) Secondary distribution (120/240V)



Power = Voltage x Current (Energy / Time)









Resistance of conductor increases with length, decreases with cross-sectional area: material & weight constraints for minimizing R_{line}



Voltage = current x resistance

V = I R

 $V_{drop} = I R_{line}$ (on both legs of circuit)



P = **I** V **Power** = **current x** voltage

 $P = I^2 R$ Power = current² x resistance

(these are equivalent because V = I R)



P = **I** V **Power** = **current x** voltage

where V means *local* voltage drop

 $P = I^2 R$ Power = current² x resistance

by substituting I R_{line} for V_{drop} which usually isn't known

Current is the same throughout, but determined mostly by the big resistance (load)



For the load, the same amount of power could be supplied by using either combination of I V:

big current, small voltage

small current, big voltage



But line losses will be much greater with big current and small voltage.

Therefore, high transmission voltage is preferred to minimize line losses.

Problem: 100,000 volts aren't safe (or practical) for end use. Solution: Transformers. Power System Structure with typical voltage levels






Electromagnetic induction:

the basic workings of transformers and generators

Moving electric charge (current) produces a magnetic field.

A *changing* magnetic field in turn moves electric charges (induces current).







Transformer: a device to transmit electric power from one circuit to another across a magnet.

This works only with alternating current, because a constant magnetic field doesn't move electric charge!





Magnetic field from induced current opposes the initial field





Alternating current with frequency 60 Hz



Secondary side: Low voltage High current

The turns ratio determines the voltage on each side of the transformer

$$V_2 / V_1 = n_2 / n_1$$

To satisfy energy conservation, $P_1 = P_2$

thus $I_1V_1 = I_2V_2$ (neglecting losses)





Primary

Secondary



Image: OSHA







Oil circuit breakers



SF₆ circuit breaker



Distribution Systems

Components: conductors transformers switchgear protection voltage regulation loads

Topology: Radial, Loop and Network Designs









Primary Feeder



Air Switch

S&C Type XS Fuse Cutouts





Primary Selective System



Spot Network





Sectionalizing a Loop System: Before







Recloser

Curve Coordination Sheet





Sample Circuit for Coordination Study of Various Overcurrent Protective Devices



Five Devices Coordinated



Power System Structure with typical voltage levels



Network structure at transmission level

Radial structure at distribution level






Historical changes in the electric power industry

Geographic expansion and greater regional interconnectivity to take advantage of:

- Economies of scale
- Load diversity
- Shared reserves



Adapted from Economic Regulatory Administration, 1981



Generators & three-phase transmission Synchronous three-phase generators Why three-phase? Induction generators and inverters













Basic Generator

How one would imagine three circuits, requiring six conductors



Staggered Three-Phase Current











I(t) + I(t) + I(t) = 0 always



Since the sum of currents in Phases A, B, C is zero (*if loads are balanced*) the neutral conductor carries no current and can be eliminated.



High-voltage d.c. line ± 500 kV

Three phases per circuit 500 kV line-to-line

Bundled conductors

Insulators appropriate for voltage level



The familiar 120V a.c. outlet





Three-phase primary distribution circuit and single-phase lateral



Single-phase 120/240 service is obtained by tapping the same transformer in different places.

120/208 service is obtained with a phase-to-ground and a phase-to-phase connection.



Staggered Three-Phase Current





Basic Generator

Three-phase, synchronous generator



Alternating magnetic fields from stator windings sum up to produce a rotating field (stator field) of constant strength



The magnetic fields from currents in each phase are fixed in space but their magnitude varies in time.

Their geometric combination appears as the rotating stator field of constant magnitude.

Types of generating equipment:

Synchronous generator

standard for large-scale utility applicationsaffords maximum control, stabilityrequires external "excitation" source

Induction generator an electric induction motor run backwards

Inverter

produces a.c. from d.c. (PV, fuel cells)

Reactive Power

The "bad cholesterol" of power lines

Types of Loads

Purely resistive loads

Incandescent lamps

Heaters: range, toaster, iron, space heater...

Motors (inductive loads)

Pumps: air conditioner, refrigerator, well

Power tools

Household appliances: washer/dryer, mixer...

Electronics with transformers (inductive loads)

Power supply for computer

Battery chargers, adaptor plugs

Microwave oven

Fluorescent ballast

Inductor



Magnetic field created by current in coil stores energy in magnetic field

preferentially transmits current of lower frequency or d.c.

resists changes in current

causes alternating current to lag voltage

Capacitor



stores electric charge

stores energy in electric field

preferentially transmits alternating current of higher frequency

resists changes in voltage

Electric field across gap between conducting plates

causes alternating current to lead voltage



Instantaneous power for a resistor



Instantaneous and average power for a resistor







Instantaneous power for an inductor



Instantaneous and average power for an inductor



Instantaneous and reactive power for an inductor

Negative portion of P(t) determines reactive power








R, X, Z, θ are determined by physical properties of load

Given a voltage V applied, V = I Z determines current S = I V determines magnitude of power

θ determines ratio of P and Q

Power Source can maintain V only if it provides correct P and Q



Real power P measured in megawatts (MW) Reactive power Q measured in megavolt-amperes reactive (MVAR)

Power generated = Power demanded

"THE LAW OF ENERGY CONSERVATION IS STRICTLY ENFORCED."

Real power imbalance: Loss of frequency control

Reactive power imbalance: Loss of voltage control How to balance supply & demand?

Successive approximations on different time scales:

Scheduling (day ahead, hour ahead)
Generator control
Inherent stability





Peaking Plant



Generator control: operating "on the governor"

Generator Voltage Angle

Generators are spinning at the same frequency, but Gen 1 leads Gen 2 by a voltage angle δ



The voltage angle δ is related to the amount of real power injected into the system by each generator



Power System Performance Measures

Power quality:	voltage a.c. frequency waveform
Reliability:	outage frequency & duration probabilistic measures
Security:	width of operating envelope



V_{DROP} is a function of current (load), line resistance, and settings on voltage control equipment (transformers, voltage regulators, capacitors)



Voltage regulator (on right)





Substation

Distance along Feeder



Capacitors



Capacitor and switch



The a.c. sine wave and power quality: voltage magnitude, frequency, and waveform



Measures of reliability:

Outage frequency Outage duration Loss-of-load probability (LOLP) Loss-of-load expectation (LOLE) Expected unserved energy (EUE) What is reliability worth?

Historical standards: Obligation to serve One-day-in-ten-years criterion

Economic approaches: Value of Service Interruptible tarriffs

Bottom line: widespread outages (still) unacceptable; Demand for power at system level is *very* inelastic

Security: The width of the operating envelope

Contingency Analysis N-1 Criterion



A "contingency"



Security and the N-1 Criterion

Power Flow Analysis

Numerical simulation of grid Required due to mathematical complexity of system Way cool



Not obvious:

how a change at one generator or load will affect line flows



Power flow problem:

Given MW and MVAR injected (or consumed) at each bus, find voltage angle and magnitude at each bus, which will determine line flows







Power flow equations:

$$P_i = \sum_{k=1}^n |V_i| |V_k| [g_{ik} \cos(\theta_i - \theta_k) + b_{ik} \sin(\theta_i - \theta_k)]$$
$$Q_i = \sum_{k=1}^n |V_i| |V_k| [g_{ik} \sin(\theta_i - \theta_k) - b_{ik} \cos(\theta_i - \theta_k)]$$

You can't solve these explicitly for voltage magnitudes & angles given P_i and Q_i



- *i* label for the bus in question
- k label for all the other buses





Stability means that variations of voltage magnitude and angle at each bus are dampened by appropriate changes in real and reactive power which tend to counteract the variations (negative feedback).

Loss of voltage and angle stability = *&%\$#@!!





General Problem:

Line flows are subject to laws of physics, not politics or economics.
Historical changes in the electric power industry

Geographic expansion and greater regional interconnectivity: "Bigger is better"



More recent historical changes

- Restructured market:
 - Redefined economic objectives
 - Increased transaction volume
 - Need for inter-organizational negotiation
- Demand no longer purely independent variable
- Size vs. smarts: Incentive for more refined control



Opportunities for refined control:

- Monitor the operating state at many nodes throughout T&D system
- Control real and reactive output of many small generators based on real-time grid conditions and availability of intermittent resources
- Control demand based on grid conditions (demand response)
- Flexible AC Transmission Systems (FACTS): Change effective transmission link impedance in real-time, using solid state devices









Challenges for control operators in the "New World":

- Lower reserve margins, T&D capacity
- Competing pressures and objectives
- Information and transaction volume
- Cooperation, trust
- High stakes

Human Factors

Engineers and Operators Different responsibilities, different cultures





Regional Distribution Operator Desk & Wall Map













Different Responsibilities

Sample engineering tasks:

- Planning, equipment selection & sizing, innovation.
- Engineers' responsibility:
- Make system perform optimally under design conditions.

Sample operation tasks:

- Switching, maintenance, service restoration.
- Operators' responsibility:
- Make system perform safely and minimize harm under any conceivable condition; avert calamity.

Different Cultures: Cognitive representations of distribution systems

Engineering representation: Abstract Analytical Formal Deterministic

Operator representation: Physical Holistic Empirical Fuzzy

Both are "correct" functional adaptations to work context.

Desirable system properties...

for Engineers:

for Operators:

Efficiency Speed Information Precision Control Safety Robustness Transparency Veracity Stability

Example: Efficiency vs. Robustness

How best to prevent an overload?

Approach I Shift loads to utilize equipment capacity evenly.

Approach II Have ample spare capacity to accommodate load peaks.

Example: Information vs. Transparency

Which is more useful?

Option 1 Real-time data from 100 sensor points

Option 2 Data from 5 key points with changes highlighted

Example: Precision vs. Veracity

Measurement A $100 \pm 10\%$ Absolutely reliable source; if it failed, you'd know.

Measurement B $100 \pm 1\%$ Very small chance the measurement has nothing to do with reality and you'd have no idea.

- Q: Which is better information?
- A: Depends on what you want to use it for.(If the information is wrong, will it kill anyone?)

Example: Control vs. Stability

Scenario (i)

Operators are able to measure and influence a parameter so as to keep it within a narrow ideal range.

Scenario (ii)

The parameter tends to stay within acceptable range by itself. Nobody expects operators to intervene constantly.

Which is preferable?

Slides I thought I might use during Q&A







Distributed and intermittent resources



System benefits of distributed generation

- Reduced line losses
- Local voltage/VAR control
- Avoided or deferred T&D capacity upgrades

• Islanding options

Integration of distributed and intermittent resources: a coordination challenge

Protection coordination: bi-directional power flow in radial distribution systems

Temporal coordination: seasonal, hourly and instantaneous dispatch possible inclusion of energy storage (electrical, thermal)

Geographic coordination:

transmission resources, rights of way, system stability





California ISO

Wind Generation And System Load Have Different Daily Patterns

January 6, 2005 California Wind Generation



Managing an All Renewable System



Pacific Gas & Electric, 1989





Kramer Junction, CA circa 1990

Vestas 1.8 MW 260' height, 135' radius
Doubly-fed induction generator



Advanced wind generator control system

Institute of Energy Technology, Aalborg University, Denmark





SW Minnesota wind data, National Renewable Resource Laboratory:

Wind Power Plant Behaviors: Analyses of Long-Term Wind Power Data (2004)



Short-term variability of power output, NREL study case:
Installed capacity ≈ 100 MW, typical output ≈ 50 MW
1-second variations maximally 320 kW, but typically closer to 100 kW
→ variations around 1-2% of output (not too dramatic)
Short-term variability smoothed by aggregation over large wind farm