Control Design and Voltage Stability Analysis of a Droop-Controlled Electrical Power System for More Electric Aircraft

Fei Gao, Serhiy Bozhko, IEEE Member, Alessandro Costabeber, IEEE Member, Greg Asher, IEEE Fellow, and Pat Wheeler, IEEE Senior Member

Abstract-- This paper focuses on the analysis of a single DC bus multi-generator Electrical Power System (EPS) for future More Electric Aircrafts (MEA). Within such a single bus paradigm, the paper proposes a detailed control design procedure and provides a stability analysis based on the derivation of the output impedance of the source subsystem and input impedance of the load subsystem, including control dynamics. The single bus characteristic is analyzed and the stability properties of the EPS are investigated when supplying constant power loads. In addition, the paper highlights the impact on stability of the number of parallel sources and of the power sharing ratio. The theoretical analysis is instrumental in designing an optimally stable single DC bus EPS. The key findings are validated by experimental results.

Index Terms-- More Electric Aircraft, droop control, single bus, DC power system, multiple sources, constant power load, voltage stability.

I. INTRODUCTION

The more-electric aircraft (MEA) concept is one of the major trends in modern aerospace engineering aiming for reduction of the overall aircraft weight, operation cost and environmental impact. Electrical systems are employed to replace existing hydraulic, pneumatic and mechanical actuators. As a consequence, the onboard installed electrical power increases significantly and this results in challenges in the design of the aircraft electrical power systems (EPS). The tendency is to replace traditional AC distribution with high-voltage DC distribution. This can increase efficiency, reduce weight and remove the need for reactive power compensation devices [1], [2].

In literature, the primary power distribution in aircrafts has been traditionally based on the single-generator-per-bus paradigm with switched distribution providing the connectivity and system integrity. Instead, the proposed “single-bus” concept uses the micro-grid approach in which all the generators and loads are connected to a single distribution bus. This single bus configuration has been widely used in other applications such as residential microgrids [3]. Such a system has the potential to considerably reduce the EPS weight since bus mass is reduced and load and generator fault isolation function can be integrated in power converters; in addition the controlled power sharing between generators has the potential to reduce generator capacity and operate at maximum efficiency levels.

As the parallel operation of multiple generators is a promising solution for the MEA EPS, appropriate power sharing among the different power sources needs to be carefully considered. From the communication point of view, overall control of DC systems can be divided into three categories: distributed control, centralized control and decentralized control [4]. In terms of centralized control, not only a centralized controller is required to send commands to individual modules but also communication links from each parallel module to the centralized controller are needed [5], [6]. Under this circumstance, system failure can occur if communication fails. Distributed control does not need a central controller but communication links among the parallel units are essential [7], [8]. It overcomes the disadvantage of centralized control: single point failure (central controller, communication links), but the performance is still degraded by the communication delays. Alternatively, appropriate power sharing can also be achieved by employing droop control, a decentralized control method which relies on local measurements and control [9]-[11]. If the outage of one module occurs, the remaining modules can still contribute to power sharing according to their local droop settings. Thus, the system reliability is increased. Since communication links among the sources and additional centralized controller are not needed, each parallel module can work independently relying on the local measurements and controllers. Therefore, higher system modularity and lower cost can be achieved as well under droop control. Due to the abovementioned advantages, a droop-based solution is an attractive choice for the DC EPS.

Typical loads within the EPS are tightly controlled by power converters and can often behave like constant-power loads (CPLs). The negative input resistance characteristic of the CPL may result in a reduction of the stability margins of the EPS [12], [13]. The candidate EPS control architecture
should be carefully examined for stability in order to guarantee safe and predictable EPS operation for a wide range of operation scenarios.

To evaluate voltage stability properties and design a robust EPS, two approaches can be highlighted here. The first option is to consider the stability problem with a general state space model, design the control and evaluate the impact of different parameters by studying the eigenvalues [14]-[16]. A more practical approach is the impedance method, which is based on the ratio of the output impedance of the source subsystem and input impedance of the load system [17]-[20]. Thus, the contribution of each component to the system stability can be assessed in the frequency domain. In addition, the output impedance of the components or subsystems can be reshaped to stabilize the overall power system and the impact of the connection of new converters can be assessed.

In the specific context of aircraft power systems, so far, several publications have discussed the system stability in MEA EPS. The stability of a switched reluctance motor-based 270V DC EPS has been analyzed in [21]. A permanent magnet synchronous generator (PMSG)-based hybrid AC-DC MEA EPS is investigated in [22], [23] and the influence of parameter variation on system stability is presented. In addition, several publications report the stabilization methods which can be generally divided into two categories: passive damping and active damping [24]-[31]. Passive damping methods incorporate a passive damping network (add a resistor in series with the dc-link inductor or capacitor) to stabilize the system [24], [25]. However, the required extra hardware and space can be expensive and system efficiency is reduced. Alternatively active damping methods can stabilize the system by implementing some modifications on the control. So far, the active damping approaches using a high pass filter [26], non-linear feedback control [27], an observer based stabilization [29], virtual capacitor [28], a constraint optimization algorithm [30], a negative input resistance compensator [31] are reported in the literature. Nevertheless, the published works on the context of MEA EPS are mainly focused on the single source system, droop control is not used and the dynamics of the generator is not taken into account. In [32], stability of a single DC bus MEA EPS with multiple generators is investigated. However, the interaction of the parallel sources is not validated experimentally, and the impact on stability of different operating frequencies of the different sources is not addressed.

In alignment with the single bus concept, this paper presents a design oriented analysis of the single DC bus EPS with multiple sources based on Permanent Magnet Synchronous Generators (PMSGs) for future civil aircrafts. As illustrated by Fig. 1, two PMSGs are connected directly to the turbine shafts through active rectifiers (ARs) and can operate in variable speed mode. The two generators take power from the main engine through high pressure (HP) shaft and low pressure (LP) shaft, guaranteeing an efficient exploitation of the power generated by the engine, and operate in parallel to transfer the power to the DC bus. The rated voltage of the main bus in aerospace applications is 270 V, as described in the standard MIL-STD-704F [33]. In this configuration, the two generators can operate at different speeds, typically during climb, cruise, and descent of the aircraft, and as a consequence, the corresponding connected converters operate at different AC input frequencies. As shown later in the analysis, this may lead to voltage instability if the load power is not properly distributed between the two sources. The main contributions of the paper can be highlighted as follows: (1) Detailed control design for the single bus EPS with multi-source and active/passive loads has been performed. (2) The steady-state power sharing performance and main bus characteristic are presented. (3) The interaction between multiple sources (LP/HP generators) has been investigated in terms of voltage stability: the influence of the power sharing ratio between different sources and the increased number of parallel sources on stability are analyzed.

The paper is organized as follows: In Section II, the control strategies for the active rectifier and active load converter are presented and detailed control design procedure is shown. Section III derives the source and load impedances including the control dynamics. The interaction effect between parallel sources on voltage stability as well as on steady-state characteristic are also performed in this Section. Validation of the analysis with experimental results is presented in Section IV.

II. SYSTEM MODELING AND CONTROL DESIGN

The system shown in Fig. 1 can be divided into source and load subsystem with the break point chosen at the DC bus. The definition of the source/load subsystem is based on [34]. The converter which takes part in the bus voltage regulation is defined as the source converter whereas the converter consumes/absorbs the power from the bus is regarded as the load converter. This section will present the detailed control design process for the source and load converter.

Fig. 2 presents the control block diagram of the single PMSG-AR system. By controlling the flux in the \( d \)-axis and the active power in the \( q \)-axis, the PMSG can operate in generation mode. Conventional PI controllers are used to deflux the machine \( (d\text{-axis}) \) and control the output DC current \( (q\text{-axis}) \). Below the base speed (“constant torque” region), the \( d \)-axis current component equal to zero, assuring the maximum torque-to-current ratio. Under high speed operation region, the back electromotive force of the PMSG, which is proportional to the speed, may become higher than the converter ac voltage. The limited value of the reference voltage of the feeding converter \( (V_{\text{max}}) \) defines the constant power region where flux
weakening is implemented [35]. The stator current references in $d$ and $q$ axes are obtained from the output of the flux weakening controller and $i_{dq}$ controller respectively. The reference of the AC voltage ($V_{m}$) is dependent on the DC voltage. The DC current reference ($i_{dc}$) is determined by the desired droop characteristic. It is worth noting that instead of tightly regulating the DC bus voltage, DC current is the control target in this study in order to regulate the proper injected active power into the DC bus. When using this topology, this control structure should be implemented in all generator-converter modules intended for power flow control. 

\[ i_{dc} = \frac{V_v - V_{dc}}{k_i} \]  \hfill (4)

where $k_i$ is the droop coefficient, $V_v$ is the nominal voltage (270 V in this study) and $V_{dc}$ is the local DC output voltage of the converter. Fig. 3 shows the control block diagram of the source converter. As discussed in Section II-A, the inner current loop is simplified by a first-order delay block. In order to simplify the control design, DC terminal voltage $V_{dc}$ is assumed to be constant $V_{dc0}$.

\[ G_{p,c} = \frac{3V_v}{2V_{dc0}(\tau s + 1)} \]  \hfill (5)

Given a PI controller of the DC current $G_{p,c}$, the expression for DC current dynamics can be derived as follows:

\[ G_{p,c} = \frac{i_{dc}(s)}{i_{dc0}(s)} = \frac{G_{p,c} G_{dc}}{1 + G_{p,c} G_{dc}} \]  \hfill (6)

Substituting (5) into (6), the DC current dynamics can be derived as:

\[ G_{p,c} = \frac{3V_v(k_{pdc} s + k_{kdc})}{2V_{dc0}(s^2 + \frac{2V_{dc0} + 3V_v k_{pdc}}{2V_{dc0}} s + \frac{3V_v k_{kdc}}{2V_{dc0}})} \]  \hfill (7)

where $k_{pdc}$ and $k_{kdc}$ are the proportional gain and integral gain of the $I_{dc}$ controller. Given the damping ratio $\zeta_{dc}$ and natural frequency $\omega_{dc}$, the following equations can be obtained:

\[ 2\zeta_{dc} \omega_{dc} = \frac{2V_{dc0} + 3V_v k_{pdc}}{2V_{dc0} \tau}, \quad \omega_{dc} = \frac{3V_v k_{kdc}}{2V_{dc0}} \]  \hfill (8)

From (8), the DC current controller parameters can be derived as follows:

\[ k_{p_{dc}} = \frac{2(2\zeta_{dc} \omega_{dc} \tau - 1)V_{dc0}}{3V_v}, \quad k_{k_{dc}} = \frac{2\omega_{dc}^2 V_{dc0}}{3V_v} \]  \hfill (9)

In order to keep a good performance of such a cascaded control loop structure, the bandwidth of the outer loop is chosen as 1/10 of the inner current loop.

\section*{C. Load Subsystem}

In the load subsystem, apart from the passive loads like resistive loads (RLs), many active loads in EPS such as motor drives and power converters behave as CPLs. In this paper, a buck converter is selected as a representative of CPLs connected to the DC bus, as shown in Fig. 4. The load of the buck converter is a resistor $R_{\text{buck}}$ and the buck converter is controlled as a CPL. Different from the conventional control
strategies for the buck converter, a current-mode control strategy is presented to achieve the CPL operation, as shown in Fig. 5. \( V_b \) represents the bus voltage. As one can see, the inductor current is regulated via a PI controller. The inductor current reference is given according to the load power demand as follows:

\[
I_{LDC}^* = \sqrt{\frac{P_{CPL}}{R_{buck}}} \tag{10}
\]

Fig. 4. Power circuit of the load subsystem (resistive load + buck converter).

From Fig. 5, the closed loop transfer function of the inductor current \( I_{LDC} \) can be expressed as

\[
\frac{I_{LDC}(s)}{U_{\text{BUCK}}(s)} = \frac{1}{(k_p + \frac{k_i}{s})(L_{\text{DC}}s + 1)} \frac{k_p V_b}{L_{\text{DC}}} s + \frac{k_i V_b}{L_{\text{DC}}} \tag{11}
\]

where \( k_p \) and \( k_i \) are the proportional gain and integral gain of the PI controller. Given the damping ratio \( \zeta_L \) and natural frequency \( \omega_L \), the PI control parameters can be derived as follows:

\[
k_p = \frac{2\zeta_L \omega_L L_{\text{DC}}}{V_b}, \quad k_i = \frac{\omega_L^2 L_{\text{DC}}}{V_b} \tag{12}
\]

To summarize, this section presented the control design for the source converter and load converter, which lays the foundation of the subsequent impedance analysis.

III. ANALYSIS OF THE SINGLE BUS MULTI-GENERATOR SYSTEM

In the EPS configuration shown in Fig. 1, multiple sources provide electrical power to feed the common DC bus. This section describes the steady-state performance and derives the output impedance of the source subsystem and input impedance of the load subsystem. The voltage stability is then investigated using the impedance-based approach.

A. Steady-State Analysis

The DC-side equivalent circuit of Fig. 1 is presented in Fig. 6. Droop characteristic is implemented by means of an additional current source which is controlled by the local voltage \( V_{\text{dc}} \). Since the parasitic capacitance of the cable is much smaller than bus capacitor \( (C_b) \) and local capacitor \( (C_i) \), it can be included in the converter DC side capacitors and as a consequence, the cable is represented as the \( R-L \) branch.

Using droop control, the current sharing ratio among the parallel sources is inversely proportional to the droop gain which can be written as

\[
I_{d1} : I_{d2} : \cdots : I_{dN} = \frac{1}{k_1} : \frac{1}{k_2} : \cdots : \frac{1}{k_N} \tag{13}
\]

Instead of changing the droop slope, the power sharing can be also achieved by adjusting the reference voltage. Under this circumstance, an additional control loop is required to change the reference voltage in order to obtain the desired sharing ratio. In this paper, power sharing control is still implemented by changing the droop gains.

If the system is loaded with CPLs and resistive loads (see Fig. 4), similar to the single source system, the bus voltage \( V_b \) and total output current \( I_o \) match the following equation:

\[
V_b I_o = P_{\text{CPL}} + \frac{V_b^2}{R_{\text{res}}} \tag{14}
\]

Similar to the individual droop line in each parallel source, the steady state V-I characteristic at the DC bus can be expressed as a function of a global equivalent droop coefficient which can be written as below

\[
V_b = V_o - I_o k_i \tag{15}
\]

Based on (15), the DC bus voltage \( V_b \) is determined by the global droop coefficient \( k_i \) and load current \( I_o \). The global droop gain can be expressed as a function of individual droop gains [32]:

\[
k_i = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{k_i + R_i}}, \quad k_i = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{k_i}} (\text{if } k_i \gg R_i) \tag{16}
\]
where $R_i$ is the $i^{th}$ branch cable resistance and the droop coefficient is assumed to be much larger than the cable resistance ($k_i \gg R_i$).

It can be inferred from (16) that the main bus voltage-current characteristic is still a droop curve which is stiffer than the individual droop characteristic. It indicates that with more number of parallel sources, the voltage deviation at the main bus will be reduced at the same load condition. It also be inferred from (16) that even if the individual droop coefficient settings are different, the bus voltage can be invariant as long as the individual droop coefficients yield the fixed global droop coefficient $k$ in (16).

By solving the above equations (14) and (15), the main bus voltage and total current can be derived as follows:

$$V_c = \frac{V_c(1+\frac{k}{R_{res}}) - \sqrt{V_c^2 - 4kP_S(1+\frac{k}{R_{res}})}}{2(1+\frac{k}{R_{res}})} , I_L = \frac{V_c(1+\frac{k}{R_{res}}) - \sqrt{V_c^2 - 4kP_S(1+\frac{k}{R_{res}})}}{2k(1+\frac{k}{R_{res}})}$$

(17)

To guarantee existence of a solution for DC voltage and current (17), global droop gain should satisfy

$$k_i < \frac{R_{res} + \sqrt{R_{res}^2 + 4R_{res}^2 - V_c^2}}{2}$$

(18)

Physically this can be explained as follows. A larger droop constant will cause larger voltage deviation at the main DC bus and can even result in no intersection point between the source curve and CPL curve. The upper limit shown in (18) is the critical condition to ensure existence of an equilibrium point.

If the global droop gain satisfies the abovementioned requirement, the next step is to decide the injecting current from each parallel source. As one can see from (13), the current sharing ratio is proportional to the inverse of individual droop gain. Combining (13) and (16), the individual droop gain can be designed as follows:

$$k_i = k_i / n_i , \sum_{i=1}^{N} n_i = 1$$

(19)

where $n_i$ represents the desired current sharing proportion of the $i^{th}$ source and $N$ is the total number of parallel sources.

**B. Impedance Analysis**

Using the ratio of open-circuit voltage and short-circuit current of the source subsystem, the output impedance of the droop-controlled source subsystem in Fig. 6 can be derived as

$$Z_{\text{source}} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( \frac{Y_{ib}(C_s + G_{Dc})(1 + \frac{k_i}{k})}{C_s} \right) + C_s}$$

(20)

where the cable admittance is $Y_{ib}$ and $G_{Dc}$ is the DC current tracking performance given in (7).

For the load impedance, the input impedance of the buck converter operated with the control strategy discussed above (see Fig. 5) can be derived as:

$$Z_{\text{load}} = \frac{R_{\text{buck}} + L_{\text{dc}}s + \frac{k_i}{s}V_b}{D_v(1 + \frac{I_{\text{buck},o}(k_i + \frac{k_i}{s})}{s})}$$

(21)

$D_v$ and $I_{\text{buck},o}$ are the operating points for the duty cycle and the output current of the buck converter which can be expressed as below

$$D_v = \frac{\sqrt{P_{\text{cpl}}R_{\text{buck}}}}{V_b}, I_{\text{buck},o} = \frac{P_{\text{cpl}}}{\sqrt{R_{\text{buck}}}}$$

(22)

Substituting (22) into (21) yields

$$Z_{\text{load}} = \frac{V_i^2L_{\text{dc}}}{s^2 + \frac{k_iV_b + R_{\text{buck}}}{L_{\text{dc}}}} + \frac{V_i^2k_i}{L_{\text{dc}}(R_{\text{buck}} + V_i^2k_i)}$$

(23)

After deriving the equivalent source and load impedance, the stability assessment will be evaluated in next subsection.

**C. Voltage Stability Analysis**

As one can infer from (20) and (21), operating parameters (load power, generator speed) and control parameters (droop gain, control bandwidth), which have a direct/indirect effect on $G_{Dc}$, will change the source impedance. It is well-known that an increased power absorbed by CPLs will degrade the system stability [22], [23]. The effect of the control parameters was also discussed in [32]. Thus, this paper focuses on the impact of the number of parallel sources and different power sharing ratios between HP and LP sources on the source/load impedance and voltage stability.

(1) **Effect of number of parallel sources**

If multiple sources work in parallel with the same individual droop coefficient ($k_i = 2$), the global droop coefficient $k_i$ decreases with the increasing number of parallel sources as expected from (16), as listed in Table I. Fig. 7 shows the Bode plot of the source/load impedance of the parallel sources system. As one can see from Fig. 7(a), the source impedance is reduced with the increased number of parallel sources. Meanwhile, it is observable from Fig. 7(b) that the load impedance magnitude increases with the increasing number of parallel sources. This is because the global droop coefficient decreases with increasing the number of parallel sources, yielding less voltage drop at the main bus under the same load condition. As a consequence, the load impedance at the low frequency region will increase, as indicated from (23). Hence, the system stability is improved if parallel sources are working with the same individual droop coefficient ($k_i$).

| Number of Sources | Individual droop $k_i$ | Global droop coefficient ($k_i$) |
|-------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1                 | 2                      | 2                               |
| 2                 | 2                      | 1                               |
| 3                 | 2                      | 2/3                             |

TABLE I

**VARYING GLOBAL DROOP GAINS**
(2) Effect of load sharing ratio

The power sharing among multiple sources can be adjusted by tuning the individual droop gains. This section will investigate the impact of different load sharing ratio on system stability. If the two source is operating at different frequencies (50 Hz for LP source and 400 Hz for HP source), Fig. 8 shows the equivalent source impedance under different power sharing ratios. It can be observed that the peak magnitude of the overall source impedance decreases if the LP system shares more power. Under the prerequisite that the load power does not exceed the ratings of each generation channel (LP or HP), the Bode plot demonstrates that the parallel system will be more stable if the LP system provides more power to feed the load. This finding would facilitate engineers in designing an appropriate power management scheme that would guarantee voltage stability in a sufficiently wide margin.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION

A test rig to validate the theoretical analysis developed for the multi-source MEA EPS architectures was designed and built, as shown in Fig. 9. Fig. 10 shows the schematic of the experimental system. The laboratory prototype contains two active front-end converters Conv 1, interfacing the HP generator, and Conv 2, interfacing the LP generator. For the experimental results shown in subsections IV-A and IV-B the two converters are connected to the same programmable AC source (Chroma QuadTech 31120) through two step-down transformers, to emulate two identical synchronous machines, thus focusing on a simplified scenario where HP and LP generators are identical. This choice has been made with the objective of proving the concept of global droop gain and the generic impact of parallel operation on stability. Instead, a different scenario is considered in subsection IV-C, where Conv 1 (HP) and Conv 2 (LP) are connected to two different generators. The control algorithm for both source converters (Conv 1 and 2) is implemented following the same scheme shown in Fig. 2. A DC/DC (buck) converter is tightly controlled as a CPL using the control strategy shown in Fig. 5. To maintain coherence with the theoretical analysis, the experimental system parameters are listed in Table II.
Fig. 10. Schematic of experimental setup used in the results shown in Section IV-A and IV-B.

| Category (TF1, TF2) | Parameter | Value |
|---------------------|-----------|-------|
| Transformer (TF1, TF2) | Transformer | 415 V/160 V, Y-y |
| AC Side Inductor (Lac, Lac) | AC side inductor | 1.2 mH |
| dc/dc Converter (Buck) | Load | 9.7 Ω |
| PWM Rectifier (Conv 1, Conv 2) | Switching frequency | 12 kHz |
| Cable (Rc, Lc) | Line resistance | 30 mΩ |
| | Line inductance | 5 µH |

### TABLE II

### EXPERIMENTAL SYSTEM PARAMETERS

| Category | Parameter | Value |
|----------|-----------|-------|
| Transformer (TF1, TF2) | Transformer | 415 V/160 V, Y-y |
| AC Side Inductor (Lac, Lac) | AC side inductor | 1.2 mH |
| dc/dc Converter (Buck) | Load | 9.7 Ω |
| PWM Rectifier (Conv 1, Conv 2) | Switching frequency | 12 kHz |
| Cable (Rc, Lc) | Line resistance | 30 mΩ |
| | Line inductance | 5 µH |

### TABLE III

### VARYING GLOBAL DROOP GAINS IN FIG. 11

| $k_1$ | $k_2$ | Global droop gain ($k_c$) |
|-------|-------|--------------------------|
| 2     | 2     | 1                        |
| 3     | 3     | 1.5                      |
| 4     | 4     | 2                        |

A. Case 1: Steady-State Investigation

Under a 2.6 kW CPL, the two converters are operating in parallel with the identical individual droop coefficient as listed in Table III. Fig. 11 shows the experimental result of the main DC bus voltage and the injecting DC current from each source. As one can see, the bus voltage decreases as the global droop coefficient $k_c$ increases and the current injected by Conv 1 and 2 are identical. The individual DC currents agree with the expectations in (4) and the main bus V-I characteristic (bus voltage and total load current) is consistent with the discussion in Section III-A.

### TABLE IV

### VARYING POWER SHARING RATIO IN FIG. 12

| Power sharing ratio ($I_1 : I_2$) | $k_1$ | $k_2$ |
|----------------------------------|-------|-------|
| 1:1                              | 1/0.5 | 1/0.5 |
| 3:2                              | 1/0.6 | 1/0.4 |
| 4:1                              | 1/0.8 | 1/0.2 |
| 2:3                              | 1/0.4 | 1/0.6 |

In the next experimental result depicted in Fig. 12, the global droop coefficient $k_c$ is fixed to 1, however the current sharing ratio between two sources is varied, as shown in Table IV. The individual droop coefficients are set according to (19). As one can observe, the steady state bus voltage is not affected by the step changes in the sharing ratio, but the load current provided by Conv 1 and 2 varies according to the set ratio. As before, the results are consistent with the theoretical analysis in Section III-A.

B. Case 2: Stability Analysis-Effect of Parallel Generation

The effect of the number of parallel sources on voltage stability is examined in Case 2. Firstly a single converter (Conv 1) is operated with 200 Hz AC input from Chroma and the droop coefficient $k_1$ is set to 1. It shows in Fig. 13(a) that the system consisting of a single converter is oscillating at high power load (6 kW). In contrast, Fig. 13(b) shows the experimental result when Conv 2 is connected to a 50 Hz AC
source and Conv 1 is disconnected. It can be seen that the system with Conv 2 is still stable when the load power reaches 6 kW.

The effect of parallel operation with the same individual droop gain \( (k_i = 1) \) has been also tested. As illustrated in Fig. 10, both converters (Conv 1 and 2) are connected to the system with 200 Hz AC supply and Fig. 14 shows the experimental result. At \( t = 0 \) s, the load is set at 3 kW and only Conv 1 is operating. At \( t = 1.1 \) s, Conv 2 is connected and begins to operate in parallel with Conv 1. As a result, the global droop gain reduces and the bus voltage increases. As discussed in Section III-C, the global droop gain reduces with the increased numbers of parallel modules with the same individual droop constant. The overall source impedance reduces and consequently, stability is improved by parallel operation. It can be seen that the two source system is stable below 7 kW CPL. This result demonstrates that compared with single source operation, parallel operation with the same individual droop gains significantly improves the system stability which is in accordance with the discussion in Section III-C.

![Fig. 13. Experimental results of single source operation: (a) Conv 1 operates at \( k_1 = 1 \) and Conv 2 is disconnected. (b) Conv 2 operates at \( k_2 = 1 \) and Conv 1 is disconnected.](image)

![Fig. 14. Experiment result for parallel sources with identical individual droop gains \( (k_1 = k_2 = 1, k_i = 0.5) \).](image)

### C. Case 3: Stability Analysis—Effect of Different Power Sharing Ratio

The effect of different power sharing ratio among the parallel sources in Case 3. Different from the previous cases, the Chroma and a Variable Autotransformer are connected to transformer TF1 and TF2 respectively. Under this circumstance, Chroma provides a 200 Hz AC input to Conv 1 and the Variable Autotransformer provides a 50 Hz AC input to Conv 2. Both sources are operated at different frequencies to emulate the HP and LP generators. Global droop gain \( k_i \) is fixed at \( k_i = 1 \). The influence of different power sharing ratio on the system stability has been tested and the result is shown in Fig. 15. When the ratio between HP and LP channel is 3:7, it can be seen from Fig. 15(a) that the system is stable over the load power ranging from 0 to 5 kW. When the power is equally shared between HP and LP channel, oscillation occurs in the presence of 5 kW CPL (see Fig. 15(b)). It can be seen from Fig. 15(c) that instability shows even earlier (4 kW CPL) when the current sharing ratio between HP and LP is set to 7:3. This indicates that the overall system stability will be degraded if the HP generation channel shares more power. Under the ratio HP: LP = 7:3, Fig. 15(d) shows the HP channel AC current (230 V/200 Hz) which is generated from CHROMA and LP channel AC current (230 V/50 Hz) which is generated from the Variable Autotransformer at 1 kW load condition.

The experimental result is consistent with the theoretical analysis in Section III-C, demonstrating that the system is more stable if the LP channel shares more power (see Fig. 8).
V. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

The paper presented a detailed control design and voltage stability analysis for one of the most promising power system architectures for the future MEA: a single bus based multi-source DC EPS. This proposed architecture has the potential to considerably reduce the EPS weight in the MEA. Based on a developed mathematical model of the droop-controlled multi-source system, a detailed control design of the source and load converter is presented. Further, the equivalent source and load impedance have been analytically derived and the stability assessment has been carried out to explore the impact of number of parallel sources and power sharing ratio. The main findings that have been experimentally validated can be highlighted as follows:

1. Compared to the single source operation, parallel sources operation will reduce the voltage deviation at the DC bus. As a result, the load impedance magnitude increases, the source impedance decreases and consequently the stability is improved.

2. Different power sharing between HP and LP generators is emulated and it demonstrates that the system is more stable if the LP generator provides more power than the HP generator to feed the bus.

Overall, this paper provides a systematic design and analysis procedure for a future single DC bus EPS.

With the improvement of the system reliability and the potential to reduce the size of main generators, the installation of energy storage system (ESS) is essential in the MEA [36]. ESS can balance the power between sources and loads [37], improve the transient performance and stability [38], and provide the backup electrical power in case of a main power fault [39]. A corresponding coordinated control strategy needs to be developed dealing with the power balance between main generators and ESS. When the load is within the capacity of main generators, main generators will supply power to feed the load while the ESS can work in charging mode or “offline” mode. When the load exceeds the generator capacity under certain scenarios, together with main generators ESS works in discharging mode and provides power to the load. If more than one set of ESS is installed onboard, the ESS with higher state of charge (SoC) should provide more power to the load. In this sense, optimal coordinated control methods using dynamic consensus algorithm, fuzzy logic, or droop principle could be developed in the future.

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Fei Gao received his M.Sc. degree in Electrical Engineering from Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai, China, in 2010. He received his Ph.D. degree in Electrical Engineering for his work on control and stability analysis of more electric aircraft electrical power systems from the PEMC Research Group, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK, in 2016. From Mar. 2010 to Sep. 2012, he has worked in Jiangsu Electric Power Research Institute, Nanjing, State Grid Corporation of China. Since Nov. 2016, he has joined Energy and Power Group, University of Oxford, UK as a postdoctoral researcher. His current research interests include modelling, control, power management and stability of hybrid ac/dc microgrids and more electric transportation systems. Dr. Gao won the European Union Clean Sky Best PhD Award in 2017.
Serhiy Bozhko (M’96) received his M.Sc. and Ph.D. degrees in electromechanical systems from the National Technical University of Ukraine, Kyiv City, Ukraine, in 1987 and 1994, respectively. Since 2000, he has been with the Power Electronics, Machines and Controls Research Group of the University of Nottingham, United Kingdom. He has been a principal research fellow and is currently an Associate Professor in Aircraft Electrical Systems. He has been involved in leading several EU- and industry funded projects in the area of aircraft electric power systems, including control and stability issues, power management, as well as advanced modelling and simulations methods.

Alessandro Costabeber (S’09–M’13) received the M.S. degree with honours in electronic engineering from the University of Padova, Padova, Italy, in 2008 and the Ph.D. degree from the same university in 2012, on energy efficient architectures and control techniques for the development of future residential microgrids. In the same year he started a two-year research fellowship with the same university. In 2014 he joined the PEMC group, Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK as Lecturer in Power Electronics. His current research interests include HVDC converters topologies, high power density converters for aerospace applications, control solutions and stability analysis of AC and DC microgrids, control and modelling of power converters, power electronics and control for distributed and renewable energy sources. Dr. Costabeber received the IEEE Joseph John Suozzi INTELEC Fellowship Award in Power Electronics in 2011.

Greg Asher (SM’02–F’07) obtained a PhD from Bath University, UK in 1979. He undertook research into superconducting levitators in UCNW Bangor, Wales before being appointed Lecturer in Control in the PEMC Research Group at the University of Nottingham in 1984. He was awarded a Chair in Electrical Drives and Control in 2000, was Head of the School of Electrical and Electronic Engineering from 2004 and Associate Dean of the Engineering Faculty from 2008. Professor Asher was a Fellow of the IEEE and amassed nearly 350 publications before his retirement in 2015. His research interests lay in autonomous power system analysis and control, aircraft electrical power systems, AC drive control and sensorless control. In his time has served on the EPE executive council and as Chair for the Power Electronics and Drives Technical Committee for the IEEE Industrial Electronics Society.

Pat Wheeler (SM’11) received his BEng [Hons] degree in 1990 from the University of Bristol, UK. He received his PhD degree in Electrical Engineering for his work on Matrix Converters from the University of Bristol, UK in 1994. In 1993 he moved to the University of Nottingham and worked as a research assistant in the Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering. In 1996 he became a Lecturer in the Power Electronics, Machines and Control Group at the University of Nottingham, UK. Since January 2008 he has been a Full Professor in the same research group. He is currently Head of the Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering at the University of Nottingham. He is an IEEE PELS ‘Member at Large’ and an IEEE PELS Distinguished Lecturer. He has published 400 academic publications in leading international conferences and journals.