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Specification of Smart Grids high level functional architecture for frequency and voltage control

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This deliverable proposes a new control architecture for reserves activation that better addresses the changes of the future power system. In the proposal, the power grid is decomposed into a webof-cells structure, each cell is managed by a Cell System Operator, who takes responsibility for the reserves activation and dispatching in his cell.

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Executive Summary

In this deliverable a high level functional architecture for frequency and voltage control for the future (2030+) power system is proposed.

The need for a transition towards a new functional architecture is based on a number of scenario assumptions regarding the 2030+ power system. It is assumed that in the future power system, generation will shift from classical dispatchable units to more intermittent renewables, and related to this. A significant part of the generation will shift from central transmission system connected generation to decentralized distribution system connected generation. As a consequence, a significant part of the generation will shift from few large units to many smaller units. However, they will continue existing some big and centralized power plants, mainly composed by RES generation and placed in both onshore and offshore locations. At the load side it is assumed that electricity consumption will increase significantly. Electrical storage is assumed to be a cost-effective solution for offering reserve services. In addition to this, the large amounts of fast reacting distributed resources (production as well as loads and storage) will be able to offer reserves capacity. Next to this, it is assumed that the power system's observability will increase due to more ubiquitous sensors.

This deliverable proposes a new control architecture for reserves activation that better, technically as well as economically, addresses the fundamental changes of the future power system. The document focuses on reserve activation to correct real-time imbalances –frequency deviations- caused by residual imbalances left over by the BRPs, forecast errors or incidents, as well as to regulate voltages.

In the proposal, the EU power grid is decomposed into a **Web-of-Cells** structure, where the "cells" are defined as a group of interconnected loads, concentrated generation plants and/or distributed energy resources and storage units within well-defined grid boundaries corresponding to a physical portion of the grid and corresponding to a confined geographical area. Cells have adequate monitoring infrastructure installed, as well as local reserves capacity enabling them to resolve voltage and cell balancing problems locally. Each cell is managed by a single system operator, who takes responsibility for the real-time reserves activation and dispatching in his cell. Inter-cell reserve exchanges and coordination is included for optimal system-wide management. In each cell, the Cell System Operator maintains an accurate view on the overall cell state, and dispatches reserves located in the cell in a secure manner based on his knowledge of the cell state. In principle, no global system state information is required for this. In this way, a 'divide and conquer' way of tackling voltage and balancing issues is implemented. Thus, local problems are resolved in the cell in a fast and secure manner, limiting complexity and communication overhead. There is no need to expose local problems at global system level. Still, inter-cell coordination is possible to support global optimization if needed.

In the proposed cell-based architecture, the main principles of Load-Frequency Control still apply. These principles are however applied at cell level instead of at control area level, requiring novel observables and a novel control architecture. A Cell System Operator is responsible for the balance within his own cell. For maintaining that balance he can procure reserves from within his cell but also 'cross cell border' reserves from neighbouring cells. The proposed mechanism for frequency control in a Web-of-Cells based system consists of the

following parts: inertia steering control, frequency containment, Balance Restoration and balance steering control.

Voltage stability is a local issue, therefore it is appropriate to solve these issues using resources located as close as possible to the occurring problem, i.e. using as many resource providers as possible within each cell. To maintain the voltages in the nodes within allowable limits, Cell System Operators will need to procure services from units connected within its cell or from neighbouring cells by coordination with the neighbouring Cell System Operators. Two control layers are identified within voltage control: primary voltage control and post-primary voltage control.

This proposed high level functional architecture lays the foundation for the development of innovative monitoring systems that will be developed in WP5, and dynamic autonomous distributed control function that will be developed in WP6. A subset of these will subsequently be implemented for lab integration and testing in WP7.

Terminologies

Definitions

See ELECTRA Glossary

Abbreviations

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1. Introduction

1.1 Scope of the document

This deliverable proposes a high level functional architecture for frequency and voltage control for the future (2030+) power system. Based on a number of scenario assumptions regarding the 2030+ power system, a new control architecture for reserves activation that better address the fundamental changes of the future power system is proposed.

Hence, this document focuses on the high-level functional control architecture related to the **real-time reserves activation** by the system operator. Both to correct for real-time imbalances –and thus frequency deviations- caused by residual imbalances left over by the BRPs, forecast errors or incidents, as well as to regulate voltages. To emphasize: the scope of the ELECTRA IRP is the control that takes place AFTER the market parties ended their balancing activities (t_0) , and it addresses real-time deviations compared to the scheduled balance resulting from forecast errors (in load or generation) or incidents (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Timeline of Balancing Procedure

It is expected that due to the forthcoming changes, the future frequency and voltage control can no longer be effectively managed in a TSO-central manner. Instead, a radical new approach is required, that leverages innovative monitoring systems based on a fully instrumented network, and dynamic autonomous distributed control functions.

In order to regain reliable control over the power grid, also distributed generators and loads should be controlled in a way that increases the predictability of the maximum power imbalance as perceived system-wide by the TSO's.

One could view the real time operation of future power systems as composed of "vertical integration" of control schemes reinforced by "horizontal integration" of distributed control schemes. This is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Vertical as well as horizontal integration of distributed control schemes

These vertically-integrated control schemes reinforced with horizontally-distributed control schemes are expected to provide for a dynamic power balance that is closer to its equilibrium value than a conventional central control scheme. This enables grid operators to regain control in a future power system with a high share of decentralized generators.

This high level functional architecture lays the foundation for the development of innovative monitoring systems that will be developed in WP5, and dynamic autonomous distributed control functions that will be developed in WP6. In WP6 control cycles are defined with flexible resources, based on so-called "Control Triples" developed in WP5 which in essence define basic control loops. The proper set-points of the basic control loops also need to be defined in WP6. A subset of the developed control loops will subsequently be implemented for lab integration and testing in WP7.

The focus of this deliverable is on the functional architecture. Reserves must be contracted through a market party (BSP) taking into account (regulatory) requirements related to amounts, types, characteristics, location,… but this procurement itself is out of scope for this deliverable.

1.2 Structure of the document

This document is organized as follows. In chapter 2, an overview of the ELECTRA scenario assumptions related to the 2030+ power system –and the consequences- is given.

Based on this, a cell-based architecture for frequency and voltage control is introduced in chapter 3. After a description of the cell concept, the main impact of the proposed architecture on the frequency and voltage control operation is shortly outlined.

At the end, a high-level Use Case description of the proposed Frequency and voltage controls is given. This constitutes the foundations for the subsequent detailing of these use cases, as well as the definition of needed observables and control loops that will be later developed in WP4, WP5 and WP6.

2. ELECTRA scenario assumptions for the 2030+ power system

2.1 Introduction

Development of scenarios in energy domain is a fairly new approach for predicting, exploring and anticipating the future energy perspectives. Today a great number of energy scenarios is developed and presented every year. These are developed with different purposes, by different institutions (Governmental and Non-governmental Organizations, Energy Companies etc.) using various techniques and concentrating on various segments of the energy sector. Therefore it becomes very challenging to analyse/compare various scenarios and derive meaningful conclusions. Scenarios are basically tools for taking a long view in a world of great uncertainty, which usually describe hypothetical possible futures and corresponding pathways that may lead from the present to that particular future [1]. Scenario approach has been frequently applied in the energy sector due to necessity for a long term planning mostly caused by capital-intensive and lengthy investment cycle for energy infrastructure.

Traditional scenario approaches have demonstrated several shortcomings caused by various reasons, where the most common is lack of transparency and the alignment with the predictions with overall goals of a company or organization developing the scenario.

ELECTRA has tried to find the traceability from the well-known scenario analysis performed in the eHighway2050 project (www.e-highway2050.eu/e-highway2050/). This is not an arbitrary decision. There are several reasons for using the selection of e-Highway scenarios as a starting point in ELECTRA project. The first and main reason is the high overall quality of the study, based on the following factors:

- E-Highway 2050 analysis is one of the few publically available bottom-up scenario studies, which are available at the moment. The scenario is not a black-box type of study, but a fairly transparent analysis; with very few exceptions (results from one of ENTSO-E questionnaires are confidential).
- The fact that study has been developed by a broad international consortium under FP7 umbrella considerably reduces possibility of being biased, compared to studies developed by specific energy companies, interest organizations or other NGOs.
- The study resides on a comprehensive review of numerous existing scenarios and received an input from the key stakeholders via two questionnaire iterations with ENTSO-E.
- Applying the bottom-up approach, the study is built on multitude of uncertainty and opportunity parameters, which are carefully evaluated and structured into a comprehensive set of boundary conditions, setting the scope of the analysis.

The second reason is the wide scope of the results. Unlike several other studies, generating one or several single predictions, the e-Highway 2050 project develops a field of scenarios. The field is enveloped by the five equally probable scenarios, where each of these meets the 2050 goals of the European Union.

2.2 e-Highway project scenario analysis

The e-Highway 2050 study started with a detailed review of national studies and policies within the EC, which was based on results of two questionnaires distributed among ENTSO-E members. The first referred to national data related to load, generation and transmission development. The second one was related to national policies and studies and was divided into the following major parts:

- Energy demand and efficiency.
- Generation.
- Storage.
- General framework.

Further the study did a review of the existing scenario studies, comprising 16 studies, which resulted in more than 40 scenarios. Based on this a set of recommendations to the further work was developed.

The next step was setting of boundary conditions, by definition of a set uncertainties and options, where:

- Uncertainties are factors, which cannot be directly influenced by decision-makers. Combinations of uncertainties constitute futures.
- Options introduce controllable factors (choices) into the scenario. Combination of the options in a scenario creates a strategy.

The identified uncertainties and options were ranked from most important to less important, based on their relevance. Combination of Futures and Strategies create a number of Scenarios as it is shown in Figure 3.

Based on this methodology the study identified altogether five possible futures, which can be achieved by pursuing six relevant strategies. Combination of these generates in total 30 scenarios as it is presented in Figure 4.

Futures	Strategies	Strategy 1		Strategy 3	Strategy 4	Strategy 5	Strategy 6
		MARKET LED	LARGE SCALE RES SOLUTIONS	LOCAL SOLUTIONS	100% RES	NUCLEAR & CCS	WITHOUT NUCLEAR
Future 1	Green Globe	7888 C//	$X-1$	$X - 2$	$X-3$	1888 CM	$X - 4$
Future 2	Green EU	<u>MASAN</u>	$X-5$	$X-6$	$X - 7$	<u>KES</u>	<u> KES</u>
Future 3	EU-Market	$X - 8$	NO POLICY	$X - 9$	NO POLICY	NO POWEY	NO POWEY
Future 4	Big is beautiful	$X-10$	V RISK),	Wogrea	$X-12$	$X-13$	$X-14$
Future 5	Small things matter	NISCACCES UMMUMMUM	Hiogical	$X-16$	$X-17$	<i>ASSE</i>	<u>Miller</u>

Figure 4: Generation of scenarios [2]

The next step was elimination of spurious scenarios that involve contradictions between the defined futures and strategies. This reduced the number of scenarios from 30 to 15 (these are marked with green in Figure 4.

The following step was to identify representative scenarios, which will be challenging enough in order to cover a wide scope of possible futures in a set of limited cases to study for the Pan-European transmission grid. The following 5 scenarios were selected:

- \bullet Big and market (x-10).
- Large fossil fuel with CCS and nuclear (x-13).
- Large scale RES & no emission (x-5).
- 100%RES (x-7).
- Small and local (x-16).

Figure 5 shows a summary of the five selected scenarios, presented as radar diagrams.

Figure 5: Summary of the selected scenarios [2]

It was specifically stated in e-Highway 2050 project that the selected scenarios are neither predictions nor forecasts about the future. It was not concluded that one single scenario will be more likely to happen than another, nor that one scenario is more preferred or "better" than another. Rather each e-Highway2050 scenario is one alternative image of how the future of

European Electricity Highways (EHS) could unfold.

For this purpose the study kept scenarios, which had contrasted impacts i.e. differ from each other, assessed the impacts of the different scenarios on the transmission grid and pinpointed the most impacting trends which the pan-European transmission system may face up to 2050.

It is necessary to mention that the chosen scenarios in practice set an envelope for all equally possible ways to achieve the 2050 targets (see Figure 6). Based on the previous, it is reasonable to assume that any scenario achieving the 2050 goals, like the one assumed in ELECTRA, will land within the stipulated envelope of the eHighway analysis.

Figure 6: "ELECTRA scenario" landing within the envelope formed by the eHighway representative scenarios

2.3 Key trends and assumptions that impact the future (2030+) voltage and frequency control

The e-Highway2050 project has investigated into the different possible scenarios that could meet the objectives put forward by the EU for the reduction of $CO₂$ emissions and the reduction of the energy dependency. It is the main objective of ELECTRA to build solutions to operational problems that will have to be faced by the kind of scenarios described in the e-Highway2050 project and which could be expected to occur in the future.

The Web-of-Cells concept specified in future chapters of this document is flexible enough to cope with the operational problems that presumably will arise in many scenarios. In other words, ELECTRA will propose control solutions not related to a specific scenario, but instead related to **a number of clear and indisputable trends that fit multiple future scenarios**. Main aspects of these trends are described in the following paragraphs, and constitute the set of assumptions for the so-called "ELECTRA scenario". This identified possible future is far from being conservative and reflects the technical challenges to be tackled by ELECTRA.

The European energy strategy, through its Directive 2009/28/EC sets ambitious goals for the energy systems of the future. This strategy implies a substantial increase of the share of renewable electricity production in the EU, which can only be achieved if solutions are found to keep the electricity system stable while having larger shares of renewable energy connected to the network at all voltage levels.

According to the European Commission Energy Roadmap 2050 [3] for long-term plans, by the year 2030, around 25% of the primary energy will come from RES and the percentage will

increase until up to 60% by 2050. If comparing these forecasts with the results by 2005 (Figure 7), it is clear than the commitment of the European Union with a low-carbon energy future is a one-way journey.

Figure 7: Percentage of primary energy by fuel in 2030 and 2050 horizons

From the previously detailed scenarios of the e-Highway2050, some trends have been derived. They will be used as assumptions in ELECTRA for further developments within the project.

2.3.1 Generation will shift from classical dispatchable units to intermittent renewables

Based on various reports and outlooks, it is expected that by 2030, between 52% and 89% of electricity production will stem from RES [4-5]. The scenarios are still more aggressive under the 2050 scope, where the European Commission foresees a 97% of the electricity generation from RES. RES deployment in the electricity sector is well spread across the EU. Countryspecific differences are applicable, mainly as a consequence of the uneven starting point but also reflecting differences in nationally or regionally available RES potential² and regulation.

Consequences:

- Paradigm shift needed from generation following load to load following generation.
- Increased need for balancing reserves activations to correct in real-time the residual imbalances caused by forecast errors of intermittent generation and (flexible) loads.
- Even though on a global system level these forecast errors may partially balance each other, they may cause significant local imbalances resulting in insecure load flows that deviate from the planned and scheduled ones.
- The replacement of a significant portion of large synchronous rotor based generation by RES causes a reduced power system inertia in turn resulting in a much higher rate of

change of frequency (ROCOF) that has to be controlled by means of corrective action.

Due to their intermittent nature and limited dispatchability (because of the weather dependency of their production), RES resources are less adequate for providing balancing reserves services. Therefore such reserves capacity will be provided by peaking power plants (more adequate than large CCGT), flexible loads and/or storage. Storage is expected to be a competitive alternative for peaking power plants for offering ancillary services as early as 2020 [6].

2.3.2 Generation will substantially shift from central transmission system connected generation to decentralized distribution system connected generation

The share production of RES connected to distribution grids will increase. This foreseen increment shows important differences between countries and no average values can be easily obtained since not equivalent comparisons can be accomplished. One important key factor when examining the statistics is the diverse voltage levels grouped under the heading of "distribution". Distribution gathers voltage levels up to 33 kV in France, 60 kV in Portugal, 70 kV in Belgium or 132 kV in the UK. This means that, as an example, greater proportion of fossil fuel power plants are connected to distribution levels in countries with higher distribution voltages. This results in noticeable differences in the 2030 forecast of RES connected to distribution grids, which can vary from 76% in Portugal to 100%, as in Italy or Ireland [7].

The German case is analysed as an example. Germany has a big potential of solar and wind power that will be almost tripled in the long-term horizon (2030). This new RES generation injected at distribution levels will suppose an increase from the current levels (68%) to ~83% by 2030. The trend of displacement the generation to distribution levels started several years ago and important advances have already been accomplished, as shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Example of the explosive growth of distributed RES generation (in Germany) [4]

Consequences:

- More injection at LV distribution grid increases the risk of local voltage problems and congestions (especially given the expected increase in electricity consumption: see scenario assumption 2.4)
- The location of the sources of voltage issues and balancing problems that require reserves activation, will partially shift from central transmission system level (HV) to distribution

system level (MV/LV)

- Also the resources that can help to address voltage and balancing problems, i.e. resources that can provide ancillary reserves support will move, in a high percentage, from central transmission system level (HV) to distribution system level (MV/LV).
- A (HV located) central system operator no longer has the system overview to effectively dispatch reserves so coordination between operators of different voltage levels will be essential, taking into account the full distribution system state.
- The distribution and availability of resources (production as well as storage) may vary significantly from location to location.

2.3.3 Generation will shift from few large units to many smaller units

Electricity production units connected to the distribution grid are typically much smaller than large central power plants. There will be a shift towards more electricity production connected to the distribution grid, since electricity generation will shift from a few large plants to many smaller units. Next to the smaller units, there will still remain large central power generators, be it increasingly more of a RES nature (e.g. large wind-power plants (onshore and offshore), hydroelectric power plants, marine energy parks, etc.)

Moreover, a transition is going on within electricity production investments from an "OPEX" driven model towards a model that is more "CAPEX" driven, leading to an increase in investments in smaller production units as opposed to larger (classic) production plants [8].

Consequences:

- There will be more locations –and chances– where incidents (like generation outages) can happen, but each individual incident will have a smaller –local– impact.
- Local –distribution system level- incidents may have a local impact that goes unnoticed at a system global level
- There will be a shift from synchronous generators to power electronics interfaced generation. Power electronics interfaces lead to specific problems, such as harmonic pollution and lack of inertia response capability, which both influence the electricity system.
- Since the production portfolio within the overall power system will be subjected to changes throughout the day (e.g. renewable generators are weather dependent), the electromechanical time constant (and system response time) of the power system will depend on the time of the day.

2.3.4 Electricity consumption will increase significantly

Due to the GHG emission reduction targets, there is a drive towards the electrification of transport and heating/cooling, resulting in an expected increase of the electricity consumption of around 43% [9]. The EV massive integration into electrical networks is expected to happen between 2030 and 2050. By the year 2050, it is schedule a rate of 80% of hybrid and pure electric vehicles [10]. This will have an impact mainly at distribution level. This increase will be partially compensated by the electricity consumption reduction resulting from energy efficiency measures and targets.

Consequences:

- The load on the grid infrastructure will raise, increasing (the risk for) congestion and local voltage problems.
- This will happen, in particular, in the distribution grid, where the majority of additional load resulting from the electrification of heating (domestic and tertiary sector) and transport will be situated, and where as well the distributed RES generation is located.
- Due to increased share of space heating and EVs, the consumption becomes much more temperature-dependent and thus less predictable and volatile. On the other hand, these loads represent a large potential of flexibility in the grid.
- An increase in consumption, increases the risk for coinciding consumption peaks, in turn causing large power flows. Power peaks are especially expected if consumers will be encouraged to consume electricity following the production pattern of renewable production plants (that are not necessarily connected to the same grid segment).

2.3.5 Electrical storage will be a cost-effective solution for offering ancillary services

Higher penetration of RES into distribution networks will increase the needs of reserves for ensuring system stability. Storage can help to decrease the requirements of back-up conventional energy with security of supply purposes. The excess energy proceeding from RES during high generation periods can be transformed back to electricity for balancing the power system in low-demand periods.

According to the recommendations for a European Energy Storage Technology Development Roadmap [11], prices of (electrical) storage are projected to drop, making distributed storage a competitive solution compared to traditional resources for reserve services. Next to that, the energy storage roadmap claims that distributed storage located at a utility substation on the distribution grid has a much higher value than central storage because it offers distribution upgrade deferral and circuit stability control. The forecast in the 2030 horizon for energy storage by its application is displayed in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Electrical Energy Storage market forecast by application for 2030 [12]

Consequences:

▪ Local Electrical storage will be a common source for reserve services for balancing and voltage control. Storage is well suited to deal with continuous small up and down fluctuations caused by intermittency and forecast errors. Moreover, it has a larger flexibility range in both directions and fast reaction time. Some technologies are commercially available nowadays and its used is extended for its use in power networks. As an example, Figure 10 shows a comparison of the suitability of diverse battery technologies for grid operation applications.

Application	Pb acid	Ni/MH	Na/S	Na/NiCl ₂	Redox Flow	Li/ion	Super capacitor
Time-shift							
Renewable integration							
Network investment defenal							
Primary Regulation							
Secondary Regulation							
Tertiary Regulation							
Power System start-up							
Voltage support							
Power quality							
	Very sultable		Less sultable		Unsultable		

Figure 10: Comparison among different electrochemical storage systems for the key grid applications [11]

Storage at distribution level can provide voltage support control, improve voltage quality or favour the distributed generation insertion thanks to reactive power compensation.

2.3.6 Ubiquitous sensors will vastly increase the power system's observability

With the proliferation of distributed generation, and the price of sensors and solutions set to fall dramatically over the next few years, the inclusion of sensing and monitoring systems is starting to make compelling economic sense. It is essential for providing grid operators with a holistic view of the grid and its critical components [13].

Consequences:

- Many more measurement points at all voltage levels, such as PMU's, smart metering infrastructure, etc.
- In case of many sensors being present, not all information will be relevant to every grid control or other aim. Useful information will have to be extracted by some kind of aggregation algorithm, resulting in new observables and better observability of the power system.
- It must be acknowledged that a challenge with many measurement equipment technologies (such as smart metering) today is its latency and reliability: transfer of data might not always be fast enough for (real-time) control applications, or it may be unavailable or disturbed.

By way of example, in Figure 11 it is displayed a comparison of the increment in the percentages of smart meters installed in different regions of Europe from 2011 with regards to the expected installations in 2015.

Figure 11: Illustration of increase of smart meter installations in Europe [14]

2.3.7 Large amounts of fast reacting distributed resources (can) offer reserves capacity

Vast amounts of flexible loads will be available at all voltage levels (especially at the low voltage levels). The same holds for local storage. Both of these have very fast reaction and ramp times. Additionally, both of these will be connected –through public ICT infrastructure– to grid operators and market parties offering there flex capabilities as a service.

Consequences:

- There will be a large number of distributed resources with a large variety (production as well as consumption and storage resources) that will be able to provide Frequency Containment Reserves (possibly imposed participation through regulation).
- There will be a large number of distributed resources with a large variety (production as well as consumption and storage resources) that will be able to provide Balance Restoration Reserves.

3. Conceptual functional architecture

Based on the ELECTRA scenario assumptions as outlined in the previous section, the present grid management structure and organization for frequency and voltage control, with the TSO being responsible for reserves activation in its Control Area, is no longer effective [15-16].

The approach today, with the TSO as central actor responsible for the management of ancillary services for voltage and frequency control has proven effective because (and as long as) power flows are mainly unidirectionally downstream and the resources for reserves needed to address frequency (or balance) issues and voltage problems, are (mainly) located centrally at the HV level and their activation hence only impacts this unidirectional downstream power flow. But with the shift to the distribution grid of the problem causes, as well as the reserves resources that must be activated to resolve them, a new control architecture may be more appropriate.

Two future architectures are considered:

- 1. A (still) centrally managed future, where frequency and voltage control is managed by the TSO who controls reserves located both at distribution grid level and at transmission grid level:
	- The TSO remains responsible for the real-time reserves activation and dispatching within his Control Area / Control Block.
	- To securely dispatch reserves located at the distribution system, ensuring that this does not cause local voltage or congestion problems, the TSO must be informed about the distribution grid state. This requires increased monitoring of the distribution grid by the DSO, as well as bi-directional communication such that the DSO provides the TSO with the desired information.
	- But local problems, related to the larger share of RES generation located at the distribution grid level, will or may not be noticed by the TSO at system level. For example, voltage issues on the local distribution grid due to increased production of RES remain unnoticed by the TSO.
	- With the increasing amount of intermittent RES generation at distribution grid level, there will be an increasing amount of residual local imbalances that may counterbalance each other at system level. Local imbalances caused by forecasting errors may result in insecure local load flows, i.e. 'additional' power flows compared to the scheduled set-point flows may cause congestions or overloading of tie lines without triggering central –restoration- frequency control. But even in case these would not lead to congestions, they would lead to excessive and avoidable losses in case reserves would be activated in an (geographical) area that is at a large distance from where the imbalance (deviation from the scheduled balance) is located.
- 2. A decentralized managed future, where the power system is divided in grid areas, called Cells, which can provide local balancing and voltage control with the purpose of solving local problems locally.
	- Each cell has assigned a Cell System Operator who takes responsibility for the realtime reserves activation and dispatching in his own cell (i.e. assuming responsibility

similar to former TSO responsibility in its Control Area).

- In each cell, the Cell System Operator maintains an accurate view on the cell state, and dispatches reserves located in the cell in a secure manner based on his knowledge of the cell state. In principle, no global system state information is required for this. In this way, a 'divide and conquer' way of tackling voltage and balancing issues is implemented.
- In this way, local problems are resolved locally, in the cell (simple and effective control paradigm) in a fast and secure manner, limiting complexity and communication overhead (i.e. no bidirectional communication between DSO and TSO is required for reserve activation). There is no need to expose local problems at global system level.
- Next to the benefits related to solve local problems locally (reducing losses, mitigating congestion risks, limiting communication data volume, cost and time), this as well allows for a more optimal use of the available grid capacity thanks to a divide-andconquer benefit. Due to the smaller dimensions and complexity of a cell, load flow checks and optimizations for instance can be done to an extent that would be computationally not affordable for a complete TSO Control
- A Cell System Operator is responsible for the balance within his own cell. For maintaining that balance he can procure reserves from within his cell but also 'cross cell border' reserves from neighbouring cells.

First steps towards an architecture following the 'centrally managed' philosophy, i.e. option 1 above, were described in the ELECTRA internal report R3.1 [17]. Later was decided, after internal discussions, to opt to develop a control architecture for the second option, mainly because it allows for a more straightforward and flexible control of the power system in the future, as further explained below.

3.1 Cell-based architecture for decentralized frequency and voltage control

In our proposal, the EU power grid is decomposed into a web-of-cells structure, where the cells are defined as follows:

- A group of interconnected loads, concentrated generation plants and/or distributed energy resources and storage units within well-defined grid boundaries corresponding to a physical portion of the grid and corresponding to a confined geographical area.
- A cell is not a micro-grid. In ELECTRA, microgrids are defined as being able to operate in grid-connected as well as "island"-mode [18]. Being able to operate in island mode is not a requirement of a cell. See ANNEX B for a more elaborate comparison.
- A cell is in 'balance' when it is able to follow the scheduled consumption/generation schedule that was agreed between the BRPs and TSO at t_0 .
- Cells have adequate monitoring infrastructure installed, as well as local reserves capacity enabling them to resolve voltage and cell balancing problems locally.
	- But there is no demand that cells must be able to operate in islanded mode, i.e. they can rely on structural imports or exports for their local BRP market-based balancing

(micro-grid capabilities are optional).

- Only for the real-time resolving of local residual imbalances or local voltage regulation, it is expected that sufficient local reserve capacity is available. Cells are dimensioned accordingly (possibly dedicated reserves capacity like local storage is added). The procurement of reserves capacity is out of scope for this document, but it is proposed that guidelines, similar to those currently employed at Control Area level, are used to define the type and amount of reserves capacity required for each cell.
- Cells are connected to neighbouring cells via inter-cell physical tie lines ; there can be multiple physical tie-lines between any two cells. At a given moment of time, any connection can be either open or closed.
- A cell is managed by a Cell System Operator (the TSO or DSO 'Cell Operator').
	- But there may (read: will) be multiple BRPs and aggregators active in a cell.
	- The extension of the responsibilities and role of DSOs in particular is being investigated within other projects as well, such as Grid4EU [www.grid4eu.eu] and evolvDSO [19].
- Examples:
	- The HV part of a TSO Control Area could be a cell
		- The MV and LV parts of the grid belonging to the Control Area may consist of multiple cells

Figure 12: Schematic example of proposed "Web-of-Cells" architecture

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While the cell-based 'solve local problems locally' in the cell approach is simple and effective, it has the consequence that global reserves activation optimization is disregarded. Examples of such system-wide optimizations are:

- Economic optimization, by replacing (automatically activated) restoration reserves by more cost-effective restoration reserves
- Imbalance netting, system-wide reduction of opposite sign activations

Therefore, the proposed control architecture will add an inter-cell coordination control layer to support system-wide optimized reserves activation if the cell state and system state allows. It must be noted though that by allowing inter-cell coordination, the local cell balance will not necessarily be completely restored by activating balancing reserves in an adjacent cell. Still, on a system-wide scale system balance must be reached.

3.2 Cell System Operator role

Each Cell System Operator is responsible for establishing and maintaining automatic control mechanisms as well as procuring sufficient reserves, contributing to a stable and secure system operation. This is done by:

- Contribution to containing and restoring system frequency and a secured power exchange by maintaining the cell balance under operating schedules by timely activation of local reserves.
- Containing and stabilizing local voltage within secure limits.

In real-time, the operating state of a cell and the whole power system has to be monitored to ensure continuous secure operation and the appropriate response to disturbances. Whereas many systems are automatic, some responses may be manual.

A Cell System Operator has the role of monitoring the system and its interconnections, to initiate control actions in response to critical events in order to maintain secure and stable operation. Further, it is the Cell System Operator's responsibility to coordinate with neighbouring operators regarding control actions that affect them as well.

Due to high amounts of fluctuating RES, it may be beneficial for (groups of connected) cells to cooperate in their balancing efforts, so that natural fluctuations (prevailing wind, PV cloud cover or forecast errors) may be minimised across cell boundaries. Also pooling of balancing resource procurement may be an option for cooperation between cells.

On activations, cells can cooperate to remove the system deviation in a more system-optimized manner (e.g. imbalance netting, system-wide reduction of opposite sign activations). This is only allowed if the system is in a safe (normal) state.

3.2.1 System and cell operation modes

To support the decision-making of operators, a standard framework must be provided that distinguishes normal situations from emergency situations in power system, so that different sets of appropriate control actions can be defined. With respect to operation modes, the terms "secure" and "stable" operation define essential limits with reference to definitions in [3].

In general, three main operating modes can be identified:

3.2.1.1 Secure operation = 'green zone'

- "Security the ability of the power system to withstand sudden disturbances such as electric short circuits or unanticipated loss of system components."
- "Security of a power system refers to the degree of risk in its ability to survive imminent disturbances (contingencies) without interruption of customer service. It relates to robustness of the system to imminent disturbances and, hence, depends on the system operating condition as well as the contingent probability of disturbances."
- "Observables" are the 'secure operation margins' as defined by probability & scale of disturbances & stability limits.

3.2.1.2 Stable operation = 'yellow zone'

- The yellow zone refers to situation in which the system is stable, but not secure; i.e. it may not be able to absorb further disturbances
- "Stability of a power system, refers to the continuance of intact operation following a disturbance."
	- Stability (and 'intact operation') is defined in several categories, referring to a number of known mechanisms in which stability may be lost.
	- Stability boundaries depend on the present operating state and must be considered through derived observables.
	- Each instability mechanism has its appropriate observables (it cannot be assumed that in general all possible instability mechanisms are known and observable).
- "Security and stability are time-varying attributes which can be judged by studying the performance of the power system under a particular set of conditions."
	- As security is defined in terms of stability boundaries as well as likely disturbances, also security is a time-varying, non-static concept

3.2.1.3 Emergency operation = 'red zone'

- The red zone refers to conditions under which system stability is about to be lost within a projectable evolution of events.
- Emergency operation warrants control actions that are not in coordination with the market, with the objective of avoiding a violation of stability boundaries and / or returning to a safe and stable operating state.

3.2.1.4 Cell operating mode/state

The cell operating state is defined on the basis of observables relating all relevant observables that characterize the cell operating state, in analogy with a traffic light [19]:

- Normal (green): no limits violated, secure with respect to any single foreseeable contingency: objective is to maintain secure operations
- 27/04/2015 Page 33 of 146 ● Alert (yellow): no limits violated, not secure: return to secure operating state

● Emergency (red): limits violated, immediate action required

Further operating states can be defined to provide higher granularity of observables and control actions.

3.2.2 Cell cooperation and interconnection operating modes

Operators of adjacent cells and of networks of adjacent cells may cooperate with respect to cell responsibility, partially re-organizing the operation responsibility on the basis of their individual responsibility and their collective responsibility to other cells not part of the cooperation network.

Moreover, operators are jointly responsible for identifying the reserve and control requirements for stability problems that have a larger scope than the cell boundary, e.g. in the case of frequency control, all Cell System Operators of a synchronous area are responsible.

Any mechanism to enable inter-cell cooperation must allow for a cell to procure and activate reserves in another cell if this can be done in a safe way and is economically justifiable. The activation of reserves in an adjacent cell must take into account that the position of a BRP in that adjacent cell may be impacted. Also, deviations of power flows within the cell compared to their scheduled values are increased. Increased deviations may not be a problem in itself, but care must be taken that the cell operation mode is still safe.

While activating reserve resources in any adjacent cell, care must be taken not to jeopardize subsequent reserve activation. Procuring reserves from an adjacent cell should not make the adjacent cell incapable of activating a (local) reserve on the next event.

3.2.2.1 Inter-cell transfer of operating mode

The operating mode of one cell can be transferred to that of a neighbouring cell, depending on the type of collaboration that is in place. Observables that relate to the overall system state (frequency, some stability margins) affect all cells correspondingly.

The 'state' of the route (segments and equipment) through which the power will flow between the source in one cell and the sink in another cell needs to be known, as well as how the proposed activation in another cell will change this route. Hence as a result of allowing inter-cell cooperation, the system state may change, and may become less safe. For example, margins will become smaller.

3.2.2.2 Cell interconnection mode

The state of a cell interconnection with respect to operating limits:

- Normal (green): no limits violated, secure with respect to any single foreseeable contingency.
- Alert (yellow): no limits violated, not secure.
- Emergency (red): limits violated, immediate action required

3.3 High level conceptual impact of the cell concept on voltage and frequency control

In the proposed web-of-cell based architecture, Cell System Operators are responsible to contribute to containing and restoring system frequency, as well as containing local voltage within secure and stable limits.

For this purpose, proposals for frequency and voltage control within a Web-of-Cells system are developed, and explained below. It must be noted that by moving to a cell-based architecture, different observables and control aims may be required. Therefore, a sound cell-based architecture is more than the transpose of existing practices from the present TSO to a Cell System Operator.

3.3.1 Frequency/Balance control

Frequency deviations result from imbalances between consumption/load/import and generation/export. Frequency deviations are seen fast and system wide.

Market parties (BRPs in particular) are responsible to keep the balance in their portfolio. Each day is divided in time blocks (e.g. 15') and the portfolio of each BRP must be in balance for each of these time blocks. BRPs keep their portfolio in balance by operating on the market (intraday up to intraday market gate closure t_0). After intraday market gate closure (t_0) BRPs submit their production schedules to the Cell System Operators. After t_0 and during each of the time-blocks the Cell System Operator takes care of real-time balancing of residual imbalances by the activation of reserves that restore the system balance. Residual imbalances may be caused by remaining imbalances at $t₀$, forecast errors causing deviations in the time-window compared to what was scheduled, or incidents.

When there is an imbalance, the frequency starts to deviate from the set point system frequency.

Frequency stability is a fast and global system wide issue. It must be reacted fast upon and is therefore addressed with a cascade (from fast, automatic, expensive to slow, manual and economically optimized) of inertia response (slow down frequency changes), primary control (containment), secondary control (restoration) and tertiary control (optimization).

In the proposed cell-based architecture, the main principles of Load-Frequency Control still apply (not surprisingly, as the physics does not change). These principles are however applied at cell level instead of at Control Area level, requiring novel observables and a novel control architecture.

The proposed mechanism for frequency control in a web-of-cells based system consists of the following parts: inertia steering control, frequency containment, balance restoration and balance steering control. An overview of the proposed mechanism is shown in Figure 13. Each part is explained in depth below.

Figure 13: Overview of proposed balancing control structure of a cell¹

3.3.1.1 Inertia Steering Control

The effect of a change in inertia steering power in a power system is quite different from that of a change in balance power. Adding inertia response power smooths both small and large frequency variations, whereas changing balance power changes the stationary value of frequency itself by virtue of the power-frequency droop curve of the generators. This is shown in the next graphs:

 $\frac{1}{1}$ Balance Control will act on local imbalances even if no frequency deviation that would necessitate frequency control is observed. In case of large (central) incidents that do cause a frequency deviation that requires FCC to be activated, the Balance Control will operate in parallel, and by removing all imbalances implicitly have a frequency restoration effect.

Figure 14: Effect of inertia and balance power on frequency: a) Frequency response of an islanded generator due to significant stepwise load changes, b) With the addition of virtual inertia response power²

Inertia response power is needed within the overall power system so that the rate of change of the frequency (ROCOF) after a disturbance and during normal operation is kept within acceptable limits. In today's power system, the ROCOF is limited by inertial response power due to changes in the stored kinetic energy in the synchronous rotating generators, resulting in continuous power exchanges with the grid that counteract frequency changes.

However, in the future power system two challenges will need to be tackled with regard to inertia steering power control:

(1) Increase of converter-coupled generation and load

The installed nominal power of static generators (converters) increases while the installed nominal power of rotating generators decreases. And thus, the direct-coupled inertia response power provided by direct-coupled rotating generators or machines decreases.

 \overline{a}

² In Figure 14b with the addition of virtual inertia response power, the stationary variations become smaller, and the step response decreases with fewer oscillations. Note that the stationary frequency deviations from 50 Hz are not zero, but keep following the frequency-power droop curve of the generator. Courtesy of the European VSYNC Project, www.vsync.eu (Contract No. TRENI07/FP6EniS07.72935/038584)

Figure 15 gives an overview of inertia response power present in the power system. As can be seen, direct-coupled inertia response power can be replaced by synthetic inertia response power. Synthetic inertia response power is a facility provided to replicate the effect of inertia response power of a synchronous generating unit to a prescribed level of performance, for example:

- Indirect-coupled inertia response power provided by converter-coupled rotating devices (generator or loads, with control algorithms responding to frequency rate of change.)
- Synthetic inertia response power provided by converter-coupled generators with energy storage (with control algorithms responding to frequency rate of change.)

Consequently, the challenge for inertia response power control is that the decrease of direct-coupled inertia response power will have to be substituted by indirect-coupled and/or synthetic inertia response power.

Figure 15: Categories of inertia response power: direct coupled inertia, indirect coupled inertia and synthetic inertia [20]

(2) Time-variant generation mix

In the future power system the ratio between rotating and static generators will change over time. For example during a sunny afternoon the electricity consumption could mainly be covered by PV, i.e. static generation, whereas during a windless night conventional power plants, interfaced with rotating generators, dominate almost exclusively.

Figure 16 exemplary shows the power generation in Germany at the 18th of April 2013. During the afternoon up to about half of the power generation is covered only by wind and

PV. These sources are assumed to be mostly converter-coupled without inertial power response. In contrast during the night the conventional generation with inertial power response clearly dominates.

Consequently the challenge for inertia response power control is that the time-variant ratio of rotating to static generation due to more frequent changes in the generation mix results in time-variant direct coupled inertia.

Figure 16: Power generation in Germany at the 18th of April 2013³

The control objectives of inertia response power control are:

- 1. Limitation of rate of change of frequency (df/dt) to a maximum allowed value df_{max}/dt
- 2. Support to assure a dynamic frequency deviation limit ∆f_{dyn.max} during normal operation.

Depending on local frequency and rate of change of frequency, each unit involved in inertia response power control, automatically changes its active power contribution or consumption depending on predefined characteristic. It is assumed that an emulation of direct-coupled inertia response power is not an absolute requirement. The basic requirement to be fulfilled is that inertial response power is proportional to the negative time derivative of frequency. Moreover alternative characteristics, not contradicting the former basic requirement, could be implemented in converter-coupled units/loads which are more suitable for them. The requirements will have to be stated in the grid code. Control is implemented within the unit/load itself and therefore reacts on local measurements.

The inertial response power control functionality of each unit is switched on/off by the Cell

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3 Based on data from www.transparency.eex.com

System Operator. Therefore the Cell System Operator checks on a regular basis if enough inertia response power is present in his system. The parameterization and dimensioning of inertia steering control has to be coordinated with the Frequency Containment process. A schematic overview of the inertia steering control process is shown in Figure 17.

Figure 17: Schematic overview of the inertia control process

3.3.1.2 Frequency Containment Control

The goal of frequency containment control is to stabilize the frequency deviation to a set safe band. The frequency is stabilized by activating the resources providing containment reserves automatically based on local frequency measurements.

Operationally, no fundamental change compared to today's frequency containment control is foreseen, except that the resources providing containment reserves will be different: generating units (in the broadest sense) as well as loads and storage. The reserves will be much more distributed across the power grid (within each cell) and composed of many small contributors instead of few large contributors. Containment reserves will also be delivered by loads and storage solutions which can react very fast and provide very high ramping rates. Consequently,

the dynamics of the containment control process will be influenced.

Note that the activation of frequency containment reserves, especially important at low-voltage level, might need to take into account the local grid status, to avoid causing over- or undervoltages.

In conclusion: the main objective of the frequency containment control layer is to stabilize the system frequency while keeping the power balance, until the restoration control layer takes over.

3.3.1.3 Balance Restoration Control

The goal of Balance Restoration control is to restore cell balance and by doing so: restoring inter-cell load flows to their scheduled secure values.

Based on the difference between scheduled power flow and measured/actual power flow across the cell borders, also referred to as the Balance Restoration control error, Balance Restoration reserves, available within the cell are activated.

Restoration Reserves may be offered by loads, production units as well as storage units. Response of Balance Restoration Reserves activation orders should be sufficiently fast. The exact timing requirements will be examined in WP5 and WP6 of the ELECTRA project. It is assumed that (almost) all prosumers, that are connected through public IP infrastructure, will be able to offer fast Balance Restoration reserve capacity, e.g. through their flexible loads, and possibly local storage. The combination of all those resources will give the Cell System Operator a sufficient amount of restoration reserve capacity.

By the activation of resources providing Balance Restoration reserves, containment reserves are freed up to deal with subsequent incidents.

Each Cell System Operator is responsible for activating Balance Restoration reserves when an imbalance within his cell is detected. Within the Balance Restoration control layer, it is assumed that only resources from within the cell can be procured as Balance Restoration reserves.

Dispatching the reserves by the Cell System Operator is based on an ordered list taking into account economic factors, but potentially others as well (fairness,…). Before activation the local grid status is checked so that activating reserves does not cause congestion or voltage issues within the cell.

In conclusion: the main objective of Balance Restoration control is to initiate the restoration of the cell balance and load flows based on local information. Seeking global optimization is taken care of by the next control layer.

3.3.1.4 Balance Steering Control

The objective of balance steering control is twofold:

- (1) Freeing up the Balance Restoration Reserves:
	- By replacing them by frequency steering control reserves, possibly from other neighbouring cells, and possibly cheaper.
	- By reducing the overall, system wide, amount of Balance Restoration activations by exploiting 'opposite sign' imbalances in other cells (= imbalance netting). This means

that the goal to restore the cell balance (and with that : the tie connection load flows to their scheduled values) is relaxed, and that new load flow values are set as new scheduled baselines.

- (2) Pro-active activation based on short term forecasts:
	- Preventing the activation of frequency containment and restoration reserves. This way, the system becomes more reliable against contingencies and its operating cost is optimized.

As mentioned previously, one major difference between Balance Steering Control and Balance Restoration Control is that the former deploys resources not only within the cell but also from neighbouring cells. The timeframe of activation and operation of frequency steering control will be further examined in WP5 and WP6 of the ELECTRA project. In a first instance it is assumed that the timeframe of activation ranges from 15 min to 1 hour because it is assumed that flexibility and forecasting algorithms used for balance steering control have a granularity on the scale of quarters and hours. Next to that, the assumption is made that (other) market processes will be able to take over any remaining balancing issue after one hour.

The monitoring of power flows across cell tie-lines is an important observable for the frequency steering control effectiveness. Additional indicators such as operating costs of reserves can be used for validation of cost-optimization algorithms deployed by the frequency steering control. Also, similar as with Balance Restoration control, before activation the local grid status is checked so that activating reserves does not cause congestion or voltage issues within the cell or across cell borders.

To obtain a global, system-wide, optimization of the activation of Balance Restoration and balance steering reserves, a (multi-agent) reserve coordination system may be required. This coordination system may be centrally implemented or in a distributed way.

In conclusion: the main objective of balance steering control is to restore the cell balance. Global, system wide, optimization of activation of reserves is aimed for.

3.3.2 Voltage control

The stability of the grid voltage is an absolute requirement for safe and stable operation of the electricity grid. To maintain the voltages in the nodes within allowable limits, Cell System Operators will need to procure services from units connected to its grid or from neighbouring cells by coordination with theirs Cell System Operators.

Voltage stability is a local issue, therefore it is appropriate to solve these issues using resources located as close as possible to the occurring problem, i.e. using as many resource providers as possible within each cell. Furthermore, since it is expected that more generating units will be connected at distribution level, fewer big power plants will be available for voltage control services at transmission level. As a consequence, there will be a displacement of responsibilities from transmission to distribution levels. The obligations concerning voltage control will have to be shared between Cell System Operators at the different voltage levels, since the traditional approach with most of the authority remaining at transmission operators will be no longer valid.

Two control layers are identified within voltage control: primary voltage control and post-primary

voltage control.

3.3.2.1 Primary Voltage Control

Primary Voltage Control (PVC) is an automatic control accomplished by fast-acting devices (such as the automatic voltage controllers of the generation groups). It operates in the range of milliseconds. The goal of PVC is to act over the reactive (or active) power injection in the point of interconnection of the device. Based on the measured voltage at the interconnection of the device, the reactive and/or active power flow of the device is regulated so that the voltage in the node sets close to the set-point. The primary voltage control set-point is received from the postprimary voltage control layer. Operationally, no fundamental change compared to today's primary voltage control is foreseen, except that the resources used for primary voltage control will be different: generating units (in the broadest sense) as well as loads, storage devices and FACTS. These resources will be procured within every cell, and will thus be distributed over different voltage levels.

As mentioned above, it is possible that, particular at LV level, the use of active power will be needed to have an adequate effect on the voltage level. One could argue that the use of active power will cause new/additional imbalances. This, however, is not problematic since we rely on the frequency control to correct imbalances. After all, for frequency control it does not make a difference whether an imbalance is caused by a forecast error, an incident or a voltage control action. Basically, this gives voltage control a 'higher priority' over frequency control: voltage issues are fixed before frequency control makes sure that balance is restored.

3.3.2.2 Post Primary Voltage Control

Post-primary voltage control (PPVC) has the commitment to bring the voltage levels in the nodes of the power system back to nominal values while optimizing the reactive power flows in order to reduce the losses in the network. PPVC should be completed in the time frames of current secondary voltage control.

Actually, secondary voltage control is required to recover the voltage levels after a severe disturbance while the goal of the tertiary voltage control is to reach a global system optimization from an economical perspective. Under ELECTRA project it is proposed a new scheme for future networks that will merge the no-longer valid secondary + tertiary schemes into a more efficient control, PPVC, PPVC will allow the calculation of the suitable set-points for system optimization, according to technical and economic criteria in a single step.

Two main facts will made possible the PPVC control scheme in 2030+ horizon:

- It is foreseen an improvement in observability at MV-LV levels —see section 2.6—, due to advances in measurement and monitoring systems and their price drop.
- The shift from a central and big power system under a TSO responsibility to the web-ofcells structure will decrease the size of the power system to be controlled by the operator.

It is clear that mainly reactive power will be used to restore any voltage issue. The required reactive power may be delivered from generating units (of any kind) as well as storage, or any other unit capable of offering reactive power. However, if active power proves to be more effective, and optimal, to be used to control the voltage level (in particular at LV levels), active

power may be procured as PPVC resource as well. Then the same comment with respect to impact on balance in PVC applies here as well: frequency control is used to restore the balance.

Each cell is responsible for its own voltage control while a close coordination guarantees the provision of PPVC service between neighbouring cells. Each time a voltage issue is detected, the Cell System Operator determines its necessary PPVC resources by taking into account technical as well as economic constraints. Before activating any PPVC resource, the Cell System Operator determines whether the activation causes congestion issues that could put the cell stability into risk.

Probably many PPVC resources will be located at MV levels, with possibility of service contributions to LV layers as well as HV layers. The PPVC mechanism assures the possibility of supplying Voltage Control resources to e.g. HV cells if there is a lack of self-procured resources within the HV cell.

Figure 18: Overview of proposed voltage control structure of a cell

4. Market implications from the Web-of-Cells concept

4.1 Introduction: changes in e-market environment due to massive integration of renewable energy sources (RES)

Significant amounts of variable renewable capacity have been integrated into the networks during last years. A reliable system operation requires an increment of the balancing capabilities in electric power systems with high amounts of RES. This is because the output of renewable energy generation is intermittent and difficult to be predicted (forecast errors), so its variability is added to the typical fluctuations of the electricity demand. Since renewable production generally has feed-in priority, the remaining capacity has to adjust its output to match total electricity production with demand.

The electricity demand as well as the output from RES can change rapidly and not necessarily in the same direction. For example, the wind power plants are commonly able to produce more energy in low-demand periods (at night). System operators therefore need to have enough capacity to quickly respond to these changes.

The impact of RES deployment on electricity markets is severe. Variable RES generates electricity at very low marginal costs and therefore pushes thermal capacity higher up in, or completely out of the merit order. This means a reduction in the operating hours and the cutback of revenues for thermal capacity. In addition, subsidized RES output depresses electricity prices. This makes the feasibility of thermal plants even more challenging. But, obviously, thermal capacity is still needed in high RES system to balance the system, to be used as backup energy supply, etc. However, the profitability of these assets is jeopardized.

Several EU member states have identified a concern that the market may bring forward insufficient capacity under current market arrangements as a result of plant closures and the lack of investment in new capacity. There is a potential market failure associated with a perceived political risk of allowing prices to reach high levels at peak times. Such high prices would be required to remunerate plant running at lower load factors, so that they are able to recover fixed costs whilst operating for only a small number of hours per year (missing money issue). However, there is another issue that must be addressed since it is not simply "capacity" that is required in high RES system. Consideration must be given to delivering the "right types" of capacity, and in particular, that a sufficiently flexible mix is available. Without appropriate price signals, there is an equally important concern around "missing flexibility".

4.2 Market vision within ELECTRA

The current model for market design at a pan-European level is based on the definition of diverse bidding zones that compete in a wholesale market. Each bidding zone is a large geographical area in which the participants are able to exchange energy without border limitations. The network operators are highly responsible of the enhancement of the market mechanisms.

The new regulations of ENTSO-E set the trend towards the implementation of a new and

integrated market design based on the application of two principles: the orientation to "energy only regional markets" in combination with market coupling mechanisms. The "only energy regional market" is a simplified version of a wholesale electricity market, where the price of the energy is equal to the marginal cost of the last unit that has to supply energy in normal operating conditions. In case of scarcity, the prices will be higher. However, additional capacity payments have to be established in order to attract potential investors by reducing their investment risks. Moreover, the market coupling mechanisms allow a better coordination of the different zonal spot markets ensuring the lowest priced bids to be accepted.

These two principles that must govern the future European electricity market will contribute to get a reliable, efficient and environmentally friendly power supply at affordable prices. It will also be useful to increase the system security by allowing the provision of ancillary services from a wider variety of sources and assisting the massive increase of a high percentage of variable RES generation. The integration of the current market structure into a single internal electricity market (IEM) represents an important challenge due to the diversity of market structures presently in use in the Member States. A detailed state of the art in the structures of electricity markets for some relevant EU countries will be presented in the internal report R3.2.

Concerning to ELECTRA, the market mechanisms and the specific market design for the project will be accomplished in Task 3.3: Market Design. Main results of this work will be part of the deliverable D3.2 (Survey of different options for the EU E-market design, M48). Even the development of the project is still far away from reaching this lead time, the proposal of a new functional architecture in this deliverable D3.1 (The Web-of-cells) justifies a first draft approach to a real-time market vision that could be supported by the architecture. It is also convenient to favour the alignment with the ENTSO-E perspective. The orientation within ELECTRA should be the development of an integrated wholesale market for the provision of ancillary services (AS) in real-time, as it is still in progress for the actual balancing markets too.

As it was previously justified in the Section 1.1 of this deliverable (Scope), the focus of ELECTRA concerning to markets is the provision of AS in real-time, after the balancing markets gate closure, with the purpose of correcting the real-time deviations caused by the differences between the schedule balances and the forecast errors. The time horizon where the market design of ELECTRA will be focused it is shown in Figure 19, in the context and with mutual connections to other types of markets:

Figure 19: Market design and ELECTRA scope

The final definition of the market structure to be accomplished along the project will need to raise answers to multiple issues such as:

- Which will be the services to be provided (frequency control, voltage control, inertia, …)
- If new services must be included in the portfolios (congestion management, system restoration, contribution to power quality improvement...)
- The type of market model (ranging from fully regulated to fully liberalized)
- Market level: Global/local? Wholesale market/retail market?
- Mandatory or optional provision of the service (and depending on the technology, the size…)
- The time horizon for the negotiation of the contracts (hourly, 15 min, peak load, off peak...)

The future developments of financial, day-ahead and intraday markets are out of the scope of this project. This means that the evolution of these market mechanisms will be according economic principles. The trend towards the global AS markets could also be extendable to the future design of the mechanisms applicable to the real-time markets of the Web-of-Cells.

4.3 Roles and responsibilities

Roles and responsibilities are implemented in very different ways among the European Countries. Analyzing the responsibilities of the diverse market participants some key roles can be identified for the future energy market design within ELECTRA. They are listed below:

- **Producers:** the owners of the generation units, responsible for their operation. The producers inject energy to the cell and they receive the price formed in pool .
- **Consumers/end-users:** They are the customers connected to the cell which pay a price for the energy use. This price has been previously agreed, usually, with a retailer.
- **Prosumers:** the prosumers can act as both consumers and/or producers. They can generate a certain amount of energy for self-supply, exporting the difference to the cell. They can, alternatively, take advantage of the market prices to sell the whole energy they produce and buying the required electricity at a lower price.
- **Aggregators**: The distributed generation and renewable energy sources (producers/consumers/prosumers) usually do not have the minimum participation size to enter as individuals in the markets for provision of ancillary services. Sometimes, the DERs units do not even have enough control capabilities to be able to adapt their operating mode according to the needs. The aggregators are the entities, that gather the flexibility by forming Virtual Power Plants (VPPs), that will enable the participation of those smaller units in the AS markets. Other times, these small resources can enter into the market as part of the portfolio of a retail supplier or an energy service company (ESCO)
- **Market operator:** the entity that is responsible to favour the transparent operation of the market and to bring together all the interests of multiple actors buying and selling products in a non-discriminatory way.
- **Retailer:** The final entity that will establish the contracts directly with the end-users. Its main responsibility is to provide the electricity and, in general, the energy services to its customers.
- **Cell System Operator (CSO):** it is the responsible of the safe and reliable operation of every cell and to manage the interconnection tie-lines with neighbouring cells by agreement with adjacent CSOs. The CSO has to deliver the energy to the users. The role of the CSO in the future market structure for the Web-of-Cells is one of the key points to consider in the ongoing process of Task 3.3. Several possibilities can be taken into account: the behaviour of the CSO as the DSOs nowadays (so the CSO would facilitate the market resolution but without direct participation) or other options such as the active involvement of the CSO as retailer or its operation as a single entity (producer/prosumer) to individually bid in the market.

4.4 Ancillary services provision: from present to future

The ancillary services are all those services required by the network operators to enable them to maintain the integrity and stability of the transmission or distribution system as well as the power quality. These services can be mandatory or they can be subject to competition processes. The system services (SS) are all those services provided by some system function (such as a TSO) to the users connected in the system.

The current structure of the traditional system as well as the flows between the different elements for services provision can be observed in Figure 20. The power system is composed by the interconnection of major grid structures, each one under the supervision of a TSO. In a lower layer, at MV level, each DSO is responsible of a smaller part of the grid. Between HV and MV, the provision of SS is a top-down flow while the ancillary services are supplied from the DSO-managed areas located downstream. Among TSOs located in HV the provision of both AS & SS is peer-to-peer. Every TSO can obtain the required ancillary services by coordination with adjacent TSOs or directly through the big plants connected (usually conventional PP but also, nowadays, renewable energy plants, such as wind power parks).At MV, the DSOs behave as demanders of system services but not as providers.

Figure 20: Traditional power system representation and AS/SS providers/consumers

The development of the Web-of-Cells concept as well as the assumptions of the ELECTRA scenario force the redesign of the ancillary services markets for real-time solving of residual imbalances. On the one hand, the inherent fluctuation of the resource has an impact on the requirements for several AS and the prices to be paid for them. On the other hand, the variable characteristics of the system in its different areas, makes troublesome the generalization of requirements across several time scales and systems. Even, the participation of new suppliers in the ancillary services market presents the advantage to enable the competition,it raises challenges related with the specificities linked to every technology.

The traditional power system topology it will necessarily evolve due to the expected trends detailed along this deliverable, so within this project, the Web-of-Cells was proposed as the most promising high-level functional architecture to couple with all these changes. Figure 21 shows a schematic view of the future power system topology (the Web-of-Cells), as well and the flows for AS/SS provision among the different participants.

Figure 21: 2030+ power system representation and AS/SS providers/consumers

From the comparison between the AS/SS flows between the traditional power system and the Web-of-Cells, some immediate results can be derived:

- New participants are involved in the provision of AS/SS (Big RES, Cells, VPPs,...)
- All the cells at a different voltage levels are able to provide AS/SS to neighbouring cells, located at the same level, as well as upstream and/or downstream. This way, the topdown/bottom-up approach of the traditional power system is translated into a bidirectional scheme.

5. Use Cases for future (2030+) frequency control

As explained in Section 3, moving towards a cell-based architecture will result in new mechanisms for frequency control.

In WP4 of the ELECTRA was decided to employ a Use Case Methodology to describe functionalities of new developed mechanisms and control concepts [21]. Therefore all developed frequency control mechanisms, as described in section 3, are written down as High-Level Use Cases in the ELECTRA Use Case template, based on IEC 62559-2.

By employing the Use Case methodology, the role of the different actors involved in a certain functionality are made clear. Also, the interactions, needed observables and control aims are specified in each Use Case document. These high level specifications of observables and control aims will subsequently be considered and used for further development within WP5 and WP6 of the ELECTRA project.

5.1 Future Inertia Steering Control

5.1.1 Description of the Use Case

Narrative of Use Case

Short description

In future power systems the share of converter-coupled generation/load increases. This leads to reduced response power due to changes in stored kinetic energy in the power system since converter-coupled generation/load does not inherently contribute to inertia power response. Comparable active power changes would yield less inertial response power resulting in higher frequency time derivatives and larger dynamic frequency deviations during normal operation. In order to assure that integration and use of converter-coupled generation/load has not to be limited due to frequency stability issues, new concepts for power system control have to be introduced on plant (especially for converter-coupled generation/load) as well as on power system level.

This use case describes the interaction and the general sequence of the inertia steering control.

Complete description

Within the following description synchronism between generators within the power system and rotor angle stability (transient and small signal) is assumed.

With regard to the use case inertia steering control it is assumed that the time derivative of the frequency -- mainly given (in the today's power system) by the inertial response power resulting from changes in stored kinetic energy in the rotating generators -- is kept within predefined limits although the power system characteristic will change.

In future power systems the share of converter-coupled generation/load increases. This leads to reduced inertial response power due to changes in stored kinetic energy in the power system since convertercoupled generation/load does not inherently contribute to inertia response power. Comparable active power changes would result in higher frequency time derivatives. In order to assure that integration and use of converter-coupled generation/load has not to be limited due to frequency stability issues new concepts for power system control have to be introduced on plant (especially for converter-coupled generation/load) as well as on power system level.

The challenges of the future power system with regard to inertia steering control are the following:

- 1. Categories of inertia at plant level: The provision of inertia can be grouped as follows:
	- Direct-coupled inertia
	- Indirect-coupled inertia provided by converter-coupled rotating devices (generator or loads)
	- Synthetic inertia provided by converter-coupled generators with energy storage or by discrete load changes

Figure 22: Categories of inertia: Direct coupled inertia, indirect coupled inertia and synthetic inertia [22]

The category direct-coupled inertia contributes to inertia control inherently. Devices which are grouped in the categories indirect-coupled and synthetic inertia do not inherently contribute to inertia steering control, but due to the power electronic interface their behaviour can be influenced explicitly. Therefore the requirements for inertia steering control provided by indirect-coupled or synthetic inertia have to be described precisely in grid codes. The inertia steering control can be described in general by applying a sufficient fast change in active power contribution or consumption of generating units/plants and/or loads based on the rate of change of frequency, which is measured locally. The activation (switch on/off) of the functionality including parameterisation is done by the cell responsible. The expected -- perhaps different -- behaviour of the devices has to be taken into account during the inertia response power control process on the power system level.

- 2. Increase of converter-coupled generation and load: The installed nominal power of static generators (converters) increases as well as the installed nominal power of rotating generators decreases. By trend the direct-coupled inertia provided by direct-coupled rotating generators or machines decrease. This decrease of direct-coupled inertia has to be substituted by indirectcoupled and/or synthetic inertia in order to guarantee a secure power system operation. Since retro-fit of installed generation and load with inertia steering control should be avoided, an introduction of this grid code requirement has to be realized accurately timed.
- 3. Time-variant generation mix: In future power systems the generation mix expressed mainly by the ratio of rotating and static generators will be more time-variant especially if the trend towards converter-dominated power systems is taken into account. For example during a sunny afternoon the electricity consumption could mainly be covered by PV, in contrast during a windless night conventional power plants, interfaced with rotating generators, dominate almost exclusively. Therefore the responsible actor for power system stability has to assure that enough inertia is available at any time although the generation mix changes faster than nowadays.
- 4. Determination of inertia response power within power system: depending on the actual system state the available inertia response power has to be determined and used as input for the inertia control on power system level. Reliable methods have to be developed and introduced.

These challenges require an introduction of an inertia steering control which affects the unit, plant and power system level. Therefore the use case describes the interaction and the general sequence of the inertia steering control.

General Remarks

5.1.2 Diagrams of Use Case

Diagram(s) of Use Case

Sequence Diagrams: Inertia response power control of Cell

5.1.3 Technical details

Use Case Conditions

Assumption

Synchronism between generators within the power system and rotor angle stability (transient and small signal) is assumed.

Prerequisite

5.1.4 Step by step analysis of Use Case

5.1.5 Misc

5.2 Future Frequency Containment Control

5.2.1 Description of the Use Case

Narrative of Use Case

Short description

In future power systems the share of converter-coupled generation/load increases as well as the generation mix changes more frequently. Therefore a flexible Frequency Containment Control (FCC) is required. The FCC has to be designed in a way every unit can bring in its strengths based on its technology.

The basic requirements for FCC are:

- Be sufficiently fast in order to support Inertia response power Control
- Provide sufficient power reserves to cover power imbalance and ensure $\Delta f_{\text{dyn static}}$
- Provide sufficient energy reserves to ensure $\Delta f_{dyn,static}$ until FRR/RR restore frequency

Complete description

In today's power system Frequency Containment Control is predominantly provided by conventional power plants. This results from existing bidding/market rules. E.g. in Germany primary control has to be provided for a complete week and with a minimum capacity of ± 1 MW power reserve. This is not feasible for units with a primary source depending on the weather or with limited storage capacity. Therefore a transition to a more flexible FCC is required. Especially converter-coupled sources can provide due to their high dynamics and fast response times a valuable contribution to FCC. Of course it has to be taken into account that energy reservoir of converter-coupled units as e.g. battery units are limited compared with conventional power plants. Therefore it is advisable to develop a framework where every unit (generation and load) is able to bring in its strengths based on the characteristics of the used technology. This offers also the possibility for an economic optimisation through the distribution of the FCC on different kind of generators or loads.

Figure 23 exemplary shows how FCC could be designed. The FCC for positive and negative frequency deviations should be split up. Based on information of the participating resources with regard to their dynamics, power and energy contribution, the responsible for FCC can compose an aggregated behaviour which fulfils the requirements derived by the coordination with inertia control and Balance Restoration and Balance Steering Control (see Figure 24). The method how to aggregate and to distribute FCC participating units has to be developed within ELECTRA and is therefore not describe in detail in this use case. In addition methods for the coordination with inertia steering control and Balance Restoration and Balance Steering Control have to be considered.

Classification Information

Relation to Other Use Cases

Balance Restoration Control (F-2), Balance Steering Control (F-3) and inertia steering control (F-1).

Level of Depth

High-Level

Prioritisation

Generic, Regional or National Relation

Generic

Viewpoint

System operation

Further Keywords for Classification

General Remarks

5.2.2 Diagrams of Use Case

Diagram(s) of Use Case

Sequence Diagrams:

The same sequence diagram is valid for negative FCC.

5.2.3 Technical details

5.2.4 Step by step analysis of Use Case

5.2.5 Misc

5.3 Future Balance Restoration Control

5.3.1 Description of the Use Case

Narrative of Use Case

Short description

In the future ELECTRA scenario, the system operator within each 'cell' will contract Balance Restoration Reserves, offered by a Restoration Reserve Provider. Based on the total of the differences between scheduled power flow and measured/actual power flow across the cell borders (= Balance Restoration control error), Balance Restoration reserves (available within the cell) are activated.

Balance Restoration Control process:

- a. Detection of Balance Restoration error
- b. Determination of state of cell
- c. Definition of restoration reserves merit order
- d. Determination of activation orders
- e. Sending of activation orders to restoration reserve providers

General Remarks

5.3.2 Diagrams of Use Case

Diagram(s) of Use Case

5.3.3 Technical details

5.3.4 Step by step analysis of Use Case

5.3.5 Misc

5.4 Future Balance Steering Control

5.4.1 Description of the Use Case

Narrative of Use Case

Short description

The use of BSC can be distinguished into two main modes, all of which ensure a specific system balance and, hence, an indirect frequency containment within predefined boundaries. The future cell-centric Balance Steering Control strategy addresses two major operation issues, such as prevention of potential

contingencies by proactive coverage of residual imbalances and support/substitution of secondary frequency reserves (namely BRRs) by Replacement Reserves (RRs) in order to make the former available to tackle potential future contingencies.

Complete description

 The two operation issues mentioned above can be dealt with the use of one high-level control scheme, named Balance Steering Controller. It is worth mentioning that the proposed control scheme has at its core the utilisation of the cell capabilities in terms of BSRs and RRs provision and its ultimate objective is to control/maintain power flows within and among cells so as to achieve specific balancing and, therefore, indirectly restoring and maintaining frequency at required levels. This general objective can be further analysed into balance (frequency) maintenance to a set-point (in contrast Balance Restoration Control, BRC, pursues the restoration of frequency to that value) via fulfilment of specific power flow set points between cells (either restoration or redistribution according to what the optimal result is). It should also be stressed that in the future cell-centric view of the system, the utilisation of bulk generation connected to transmission system is supplementary to the use of cell's resources in order to cover residual imbalances in the BSR and RR schedules, in other words as emergency resources in case DER cannot meet the operator's request .

More analytically, for each of two problems the operation of the BSC is summarized below:

- Proactive prevention of contingencies: In this case, BSC has the responsibility of supervising the system and based on short-term forecasting tools predict potential incidents that may substantially affect frequency. As soon as such a situation is predicted, the actions of BSC should include the activation and commitment of resources that can instantly respond to the forthcoming incident upon dispatching request. This function of the BSC can prove very important in terms of minimising the risks of the system's operation, reducing the invoking of reactive frequency controllers and their associated reserves, increasing so the reliability and profits of the system. The core element of this proactive operation of BSC is the cell in which the potential incident is predicted. Therefore, the most effective use of BSRs to prevent an upcoming incident should be covered as much as possible by local (within the cell's boundaries) resources (e.g. load shift to prevent a fast ramp of the wind solar production).
- Substitution of Balance Restoration Reserves: Last but not least, Balance Steering Control is nominated with the responsibility of making BRRs available after their activation. This is achieved by replacing BRRs by tertiary reserves, traditionally called as Replacement Reserves. In the future cellcentric approach of the system operation, not only will RRs (and BSRs in general) be provided by resources within cells but also with power exchanges between cells. In any case, the ultimate objective of this operation is to make BRRs available for use in next potential incidents that would require their activation, because otherwise the system may become incapable of dealing with successive fast frequency deviations. It is worth mentioning that any tertiary resources used to support BRRs when the latter cannot fully restore frequency, should be considered as part of and managed by Secondary Frequency Control, achieving so a clear distinction between the objectives of the two control schemes and the portfolios of resources to be used. For example, tertiary resources used to aid BRRs should be located within the cell, contrarily to BSC activation which makes use of resources from adjacent cells as well. In any case the activation of RRs is always reactive because it is based on the system's BRRs state and the ultimate objective is the maintenance of the restored frequency within the desired margin.

In all the above cases, the main and highest priority observable is power balancing within cell or between cells within Control Area and therefore BSC should observe power flows at selected lines, so as to identify and validate the control effectiveness and the overall system's state. Furthermore, as mentioned previously, one major difference between BSC and BRC is that the former deploys resources not only within the cell but also from neighbouring cells in contrast with BRC which only deploys reserves locally and strictly within the cell. Therefore, the monitoring of power imports to and exports from cells is an important observable for the BSC effectiveness. In addition, monitoring of frequency is required as a validation means but not for

activation of the control actions as these are envisaged to be commenced due to different sort of signals, while additional indicators such as operating costs can be used for validation of cost-optimisation algorithms deployed by the BSC. The timeframe of activation and operation of BSC in any of the above cases ranges from 15 min to 1 hour. It is assumed that flexibility and forecasting algorithms used for BSC have a granularity on the scale of quarters and hours. Next to that, the assumption is made that (other) market processes will be able to take over any remaining balancing issue after one hour.

In terms of its internal structure and hierarchy, BSC can be regarded as something similar to the Load-Frequency Control scheme, currently used in Control Blocks and Control Areas at TSO level. Particularly, the hierarchy can be either central with one single BSC located at CA level and responsible for management of all subordinate cells, hierarchical where one BSC at CA level influences individual cell BSCs, or pluralistic where each cell controller regulates its own cell area while there is one CA controller for the regulation of the whole CA towards its neighbouring CAs. The use of these types of hierarchy ensures that BSC effectively manages tertiary reserves not only within cells but also ensures balance within the Control Area in which these cells are located.

General Remarks

5.4.2 Diagrams of Use Case

5.4.3 Technical details

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*** The same steps also apply to the reactive use of BSC after a contingency which has led to BRRs activation. The only exception in the process is step 3 (forecasting is unnecessary in this scenario)

5.4.5 Misc

6. Use Cases for Future (2030+) voltage control

As explained in Section 3, moving towards a cell-based architecture will result in new mechanisms for voltage control: primary voltage control and post-primary voltage control.

In WP4 of the ELECTRA project was decided to employ a Use Case Methodology to describe functionalities of new developed mechanisms and control concepts [21]. Therefore all developed voltage control mechanisms, as described in section 3, are written down as High-Level Use Cases in the ELECTRA Use Case template, based on IEC 62559-2.

By employing the Use Case methodology, the role of the different actors involved in each functionality are made clear. Also, the interactions, needed observables and control aims are specified in each Use Case document. These high level specifications of observables and control aims will subsequently be considered and used for further development within WP5 and WP6 of the ELECTRA project.

6.1 Future Primary Voltage Control

6.1.1 Description of the Use Case

Narrative of Use Case

Short description

Primary voltage control utilizes reactive power capabilities of grid connected generating units to maintain voltage level in an interconnection point. Active power control can also be required to achieve the desired voltage level in a low voltage grids where the line resistance is greater than the line reactance (R>X). The generating unit voltage set point can be set by Cell Operator or it's system that perform post-primary voltage control.

Complete description

The primary voltage control can be performed by the following devices connected to the grid at different voltage levels:

- Synchronous generators in conventional power plants are capable to supply or absorb reactive power depending on the excitation. They are required to operate between 0.85 lagging power factor and 0.95 leading power factor at rated power output.
- Synchronous condensers (rotating machines).

- Capacitor or inductor banks, that operate in discrete steps of capacitance or inductance
- Capacitors or inductors that are interfaced by power electronic converters, and operate continuously to provide both inductive and capacitive reactive power (FACTS devices).
- Renewable Energy Sources (wind farms, photovoltaics) are interfaced by power electronics that is capable to operate between 0.95 lagging power factor and 0.95 leading power factor at active power outputs between 50% and 100% of rated power.

Generating unit connected to a cell node, in the interconnection point, is shown below in Figure 25.

Figure 25: Generating unit connected to a cell node

Primary voltage control is related to a generating unit locally. Adjusting of output active and reactive power is a means to achieve a desired working point of a device that is characterized by output voltage (V_o) , active (P_o) and reactive (Q_o) power. Local primary voltage control can be remotely coordinated by a post-primary voltage control that is placed at a cell operator level. Voltage setpoint (V_{setp}) is a crucial information exchanged between both voltage control layers to coordinate operation.

The general schematic diagram of primary voltage control is depicted below in Figure 26.

Figure 26: The primary voltage control schematic diagram

The proposed primary voltage control comprises of two control loops where:

1. The first loop (PI1 controller) is destined to control output voltage through adjusting of generator's reactive power.

shown below:

 V_0 – output voltage

control based on reactive power

assessment

value [V]

None

General Remarks

6.1.2 Diagrams of Use Case

Diagram(s) of Use Case

6.1.3 Technical Details

6.1.4 Step by Step Analysis of Use Case

6.1.5 Misc

6.2 Future Post-Primary Voltage Control

6.2.1 Description of the Use Case

case(s)

Narrative of Use Case

Short description

The post-primary voltage control has the commitment to keep the voltage levels in the nodes of the power system to nominal values while optimizing the reactive power flows in order to reduce the losses in the network. In the future cell-based grid structure, the PPVC is intended to replace the present secondary (local) and tertiary voltage control (global) schemes existing in power grids by a decentralized control, located a cell level. Each cell is responsible for its own voltage control while a close coordination between cells guarantees the provision of PPVC service between neighbouring cells.

Complete description

The power grid is subdivided in three voltage levels: HV, MV and LV. Each level consists of several layers, each of them formed by cells operating in a coordinated way. The resulting structure is made up of a web of cells with multiple interconnections.

Every cell is an independent structure with own capabilities for the voltage control itself. Most will be able to have extra resources to contribute for the restoration of normal voltage levels in close cells. The cell operator (CO) will manage the voltage set-points of the nodes inside and, as a result, also in the border nodes with neighbouring cells. The neighbouring cells will be required to maintain those voltages in the interconnection points, previously agreed with the CO for the establishment of operational security limits in terms of voltage ranges and reactive power exchanges across the borders.

A graphical representation of the cell-based power system is displayed in Figure 29.

Figure 29: Cell-based structure for future power grid and PPVC reserves flows between cells

The provision of PPVC service can be summarized in the following steps:

Reserves are contracted by agreement between PPVC resource providers and the CO

In a PPVC market, the providers offer the bids to the cell operator for the next period (day-ahead market) and their activation price. In order to assure the availability of PPVC in case of unscheduled events, the

reserves providers with extra capacity can participate in an intraday market with the purpose of supplying resources in real-time hourly periods. The resource providers bidding in the market will be the parties connected to the cell —producers, consumers or prosumers—, the aggregators and the neighbouring cells, that can act as an independent entity to bid in the market for PPVC reserves provision.

The CO solves an Optimal Power Flow (OPF) analysis

The CO receives data about capacity of PPVC resources contracted, location of the reserves and responsible operator of the cell they belong to —if they are located in other cell—. This information has to be updated according to the market time frame (once a year, monthly, daily…). It also receives from the monitoring system the data concerning to the grid topology. This dynamic information has to be periodically updated since the cell is a reconfigurable and flexible structure. The CO estimates the state of the cell by using the information acquired together with the static information stored in the database. The CO also gets information about the generation and consumption patterns in the cell and predicts the consumption and generation for following periods using forecast tools.

With all the information, de CO solves an OPF with the technical and market constraints and with the objective function of minimizing losses to avoid cost overruns. As a result, the CO determines the voltage set values for the nodes with capacity for voltage control (nodes with AVRs or same function devices). The voltage set points are sent to the post-primary voltage controllers for optimal reactive power flows management in the cell.

Monitoring system detects a voltage mismatch in any node under the cell operator responsibility.

The monitoring system of the cell registers in real-time the voltage values in the nodes and the reactive power flows in the cell and in the interconnections, to be sure all the limits are satisfied. If the monitoring system detects a voltage value in one of the nodes out of the tolerance band, sends an error signal to activate the process for PPVC provision.

The cell operator checks the availability of its self-procured PPVC reserves, that had previously participated in the PPVC market

The cell operator sends a confirmation signal to its PPVC providers to corroborate the availability of the contracted resources, just in case any failure has left the reserves not ready for being used for the service provision.

The cell operator checks possible congestion issues

The cell operator studies if the provision of the PPVC reserves according to market and to OPF analysis results supposes any constraint due to congestion issues that could put into risk the cell stability.

If there is no congestion, the cell operator restores the required set-point by sending the activation order to the reserves.

If there is no congestion, the contracted PPVC reserves resulting from the application of the market mechanisms and the OPF analysis are activated, to recover the voltage levels in the node with an optimal allocation of the reserves. These reserves will be provided by aggregators and parties connected to the grid in the cell.

If there are congestion problems, the cell operator sends a congestion signal to the neighbouring cell

operator.

If constraints exists that limit the PPVC provision inside the cell by using its reserves, a congestion signal is sent to the neighbour cells, responsible of the management of additional PPVC resources.

● The cell operator re-dispatches to supply the lack of PPVC reserves and sends the activation order to the service providers

The cell control system re-dispatches to drive the system back to the normal state in such a way the congestion is gotten rid of. This can entail the purchase of power from areas with higher costs. The extra resources not available at the cells are supplied by the neighbouring cells through interconnections.

General Remarks

6.2.2 Diagrams of Use Case

6.2.3 Technical details

Use Case Conditions

Assumption

- LV cells will have a high degree of observability due to likely improvements in measurement and communication systems in future power grids, as covered by ELECTRA. Due to this, the cells can be regarded as equal to the ones in MV or LV (e.g. it is possible to realize an OPF at some LV layers).
- It is assumed that, provision of PPVC reserves by providers within the cell is economically more advantageous than importing the PPVC provisions from the other cells (e.g., it has been considered a prioritization of aggregators and parties connected to the cell grid over neighbouring cells). It may happen that the neighbouring cells could provide PPVC service under no congestion scenarios and due to market reasons.

Prerequisite

6.2.4 Step by step analysis of Use Case

6.2.5 Misc

7. Conclusions

In this deliverable a high level functional architecture for frequency and voltage control for the future (2030+) power system is proposed. The need for a transition towards a new functional architecture is based on a number of scenario assumptions regarding the 2030+ power system. It is assumed that in the future power system, generation will shift from classical dispatchable units to intermittent renewables and CHP. As a consequence, a great part of the generation will shift from few large units to many smaller units. It is assumed that electricity consumption and therefore system loads will increase significantly. Electrical energy storage is expected to be a cost-effective solution for offering ancillary services that stabilise the system and fill the momentarily gap between system generation and system load. Next to this, it is presumed that the power system's observability will increase due to more ubiquitous sensors. In addition to this, the large amounts of fast reacting distributed resources will be able to offer reserves capacity.

This deliverable proposes a new control architecture for reserves activation that better addresses the fundamental changes of the future power system. The document focuses on reserve activation to correct for real-time imbalances, as well as to regulate voltages.

In the proposal, the EU power grid is decomposed into a **Web-of-Cells** structure, where the cells are defined as a group of interconnected loads, distributed generators and storage units within well-defined grid boundaries corresponding to a physical portion of the grid and corresponding to a confined geographical area. Cells have adequate monitoring infrastructure installed, as well as local reserves capacity enabling them to (partially) resolve voltage and cell balancing problems locally. Each cell is managed by a single system operator, who takes responsibility for the real-time reserves activation and dispatching in his cell. Inter-cell reserve exchanges and coordination is included for optimal system-wide management. In each cell, the Cell System Operator maintains an accurate view on the overall cell state, and dispatches reserves located in the cell in a secure manner based on his knowledge of the cell state. In principle, no global system state information is required for this. In this way, a 'divide and conquer' way of tackling voltage and balancing issues is implemented, and local problems are resolved locally in the cell in a fast and secure manner, limiting complexity and communication overhead. There is no need to expose local problems at global system level.

In the proposed web-of-cell based architecture, Cell System Operators are responsible to contribute to containing and restoring system frequency, as well as containing local voltage within secure and stable limits. For this purpose, proposals for frequency and voltage control within a web-of-cells system are developed, and given in Table 1 and Table 2 below. It must be noted that by moving to a cell-based architecture, different observables and control aims may be required. The proposed frequency control as well as voltage control mechanisms are written down as High-Level Use Cases in the ELECTRA Use Case template, based on IEC 62559-2.

Table 1: Overview of frequency control use cases

Table 2: Overview of Voltage Control Use Cases

This proposed high level functional architecture underlies the development of innovative monitoring systems that will be developed in WP5, and dynamic autonomous distributed control function that will be developed in WP6. Subsets of these will subsequently be implemented for lab integration and testing in WP7.

Throughout the further progress of the ELECTRA project, the proposed cell-based functional architecture will be further evaluated and fine-tuned, given the outcomes of WP5 as well as WP6. Also feedback from industry will be taken into account while evaluating the proposed concept. By the end of the project, an upgrade of the proposed high-level cell-based functional architecture will be made.

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9. Disclaimer

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The sole responsibility for the content of this publication lies with the authors. It does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the European Commission.

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Annex A: Summary of scenarios from e-Highway 2050 project

Quoted from [2]

According to the eHighway methodology, possible "futures" are created from "uncertainties", and possible "strategies" are created from "options" of decision makers. The following tables summarize this:

Table 3: Summary of the five e-Highway2050 Futures

Table 4: Summary of the six e-Highway2050 Strategies

Table 8.2 Summary of the six e-Highway2050 Strategies

A summary of the 15 scenarios resulting from the elimination of spurious scenarios (involving contradictions between the defined futures and strategies) from the initial set of 30 is presented in the following table:

Table 5: Summary of the characteristics of the 15 scenarios selected in e-Highway2050

Table 8.5 Summary of the Generation/Demand/Exchanges data of the scenarios selected in Step 2. Generation (in green), Demand (in yellow), and Exchange (in blue)

The detailed description of the five scenarios selected by the eHighway2050 project is the following:

A.1 Big and market (x-10)

In this Scenario, a global agreement for climate mitigation is achieved. Thus, CO2 costs are high due to the existence of a global carbon market. Europe is fully committed to meet its 80- 95% GHG reduction orientation by 2050 but it relies mainly on a market based strategy.

Figure 30: Radar diagram of x-10 scenario ("Big & Market")

Moreover, in this scenario, there is a special interest on large scale centralized solutions, especially for RES deployment and storage. Public attitude towards deployment of RES technologies is indifferent in the EU, while acceptance of nuclear and shale gas, as energy sources, is positive since being preferred to decentralize local solutions. CCS technology is also assumed mature in this scenario.

Electrification of transport, heating and industry is considered to occur mainly at centralized (large scale) level. Only a minor shift towards 'greener' behaviours is experienced in this scenario compared to present practices. Therefore, the efficiency level is low. In general, the public is somehow passive, and the players are active in a market-driven energy system.

A.2 Large fossil fuel with CCS and nuclear (x-13)

In this Scenario, a global agreement for climate mitigation is achieved and Europe is fully committed to its target of 80-95% GHG reduction. Thus, CO2 costs are high due to the existence of a global carbon market.

Europe is mainly following a non-RES strategy to reach this target. Acceptance of nuclear and shale gas as energy sources is positive. Nuclear and fossil fuel plants with CCS play pivotal roles in achieving the 80-95% GHG targets without large scale RES deployment. Public attitude towards deployment of RES technologies is indifferent in the EU. There is a low focus on development of RES and storage solutions.

Figure 31: Radar diagram of x-13 scenario ("Large fossil fuel with CCS & Nuc")

Electrification of transport, heating and industry is considered to occur mainly at centralized (large scale) level. Energy efficient options (including DSM and flexibility of EV use) are deployed only at medium level, mainly aiming at reducing energy demand. Indeed a minor shift towards 'greener' behaviours is experienced in this Future compared to present practices. No further flexibility is needed since variable generation from PV and wind is low.

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The energy strategy is deployed from a top-down approach at EU level with coordinated transnational approaches based on a strong framework for policy and incentives, supporting market operation. In general, the public is somehow passive and everything has to be coordinated at high level, following a top-down vision.

In this case, electricity exchanges with outside Europe are low.

A.3 Large scale RES & no emission (x-5)

In this Scenario, a European agreement for climate mitigation is achieved and fossil fuel consumption is generally low worldwide. Therefore, fuel costs are relatively low. On the other hand, the CO2 costs are high due to the existence of a global carbon market. The EU's ambition for GHG emission reductions is achieved: 80-95% GHG reduction.

The strategy focuses on the deployment of large-scale RES technologies, e.g. large scale offshore wind parks in the North Sea and Baltic Seas as well as the DESERTEC project in North Africa. A lower priority is given to the deployment of decentralized RES (including CHP and Biomass) solutions.

Similarly, a high priority is given to the development of centralized storage solutions (pumped hydro storage, compressed air, etc.) which accompanies the large-scale RES deployment. Decentralized storage solutions are considered to be insufficient to support the large-scale RES deployment: they are not given priority.

Figure 32: Radar diagram of x-5 scenario ("Large Scale RES & No Emissions")

Nuclear technology as a centralized technology is included in this Scenario. Yet, no development in new nuclear technologies is assumed: the current level of deployment is maintained according to standard decommissioning rates for present nuclear plants up to 2050. Since only Europe has a strong policy for the reduction of GHG emissions, CCS technologies are not mature enough (high cost): they are not among the options to reach GHG reduction targets.

Electrification of Transport, Heating and Industry is considered to occur both at centralized

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(large scale) and decentralized (domestic) level. However, the political focus is mainly on the supply side: large amount of fossil-free generation will make investments in energy efficiency solutions less attractive. A low increase in energy efficient solutions is foreseen (including DSM and flexibility of EV use). Moreover, a clear shift towards 'greener' behaviours is experienced compared to e.g. present practices (focused and active involvement towards more energy efficiency, focused and active involvement towards more use of sustainable energy by the European citizen).

A convergent and strong policy framework for the whole European Member States is in place: the deployment of the available RES potential is possible everywhere. Common agreements/rules for transnational initiatives regarding the functioning of an internal EU market, EU wide security of supply and coordinated use of interconnectors for transnational energy exchanges exist.

Little attention paid to large-scale solutions which lowers the priority for imports of fossil fuels at EU level. As a consequence, Europe's energy dependence is low. However, a high import of RES from North Africa – DESERTEC project is included.

A.4 100%RES (x-7)

In this Scenario, the global community has not succeeded in reaching a global agreement for climate mitigation. Yet, Europe is fully committed to its target of 80-95% GHG reduction and the CO2 costs in EU are high due to these strict climate mitigation targets. The strategy to achieve this target has a higher ambition than the other scenarios: it bases Europe's energy system entirely (100%) on renewable energy. To reach this target, both large scale and small-scale options are used: offshore wind parks in the North Sea and Baltic Seas and the DESERTEC project in North Africa, combined with EU-wide deployment of de-centralized RES (including CHP and biomass) solutions.

Public attitude towards the deployment of RES technologies is very positive in the whole Europe, while attitude towards nuclear and shale gas is negative.

Figure 33: Radar diagram of x-7 scenario ("100% RES")

27/04/2015 Page 138 of 146 Neither nuclear nor fossil fuels with CCS are used in this Scenario. Thus, both centralized

storage solutions (pumped hydro storage, compressed air, etc.) and de-centralized solutions are needed to balance the variability in terms of renewable energy generation

On the consumer side, a marked increase in energy efficiency (including DSM and flexibility of EV use) is also needed. Electrification of transport, heating and industry is considered to occur both at centralized (large scale) and de-centralized (domestic) level and these solutions will reduce resulting energy demand as well as provide complementary flexibility and storage to account for variability of RES production from PV and wind. There is a strong drive towards 'greener' behaviours in the population with active involvement towards more energy efficiency, more use of sustainable energy and clean transport etc.

As part of the 100% RES strategy, no import of fossil fuels occurs. Only renewable sources (solar energy from Africa, biomass from FSU region etc.) are imported from outside EU.

A.5 Small and local (x-16)

In this Scenario, the global community has not succeeded in reaching an agreement for climate mitigation. Yet, Europe is fully committed to meet its target of 80-95% GHG reduction. Compared to the other scenarios, the European member states have chosen a bottom-up strategy mainly based on small-scale/local solutions to reach this target. Common agreements/rules for transnational initiatives regarding the operation of an internal EU market, EU wide security of supply and coordinated use of interconnectors for transnational energy exchanges do not exist. The focus is rather on local solutions dealing with de-centralized generation and storage and smart grid solutions at transmission and mainly on a distribution level

In this Scenario, there is a high focus on deployment of de-centralized storage and RES solutions (including CHP and biomass), while nuclear and CCS are not considered as options to reach the GHG emission reduction target. The public attitude towards the deployment of local de-centralized RES technologies is positive in the EU.

Figure 34: Radar diagram of x-16 scenario ("Small and local")

A high degree of electrification of transport, heating and industry is considered to occur mainly

at de-centralized (small scale) level; there is a corresponding high focus on the deployment of energy efficient solutions (including DSM and flexibility of EV use).

GDP growth in EU is assumed low, mainly due an inhomogeneous economic activity landscape among Member States. Demographic change towards 2050 is assumed to be migration only at EU level. A major shift towards 'greener' behaviours is experienced in this scenario compared to present practices. In general, the public is very active and most of the development occurs at a local de-centralized level.

The European permitting framework (including nature legislation) is also inhomogeneous/decentralized at member state level. Some countries will still require energy imports from outside the EU.

Annex B: Comparison of Microgrids versus Cells as defined in the Web-of-Cell concept

	to which the microgrid belongs (both the scheduled balance as well as the real-time corrections). In islanded mode, the microgrid controller (MGCC) central is responsible for guaranteeing the balances (both the power scheduled balance as well as the real-time corrections).	for the scheduled balance (set-point at t_0). The Cell System Operator is responsible for the real-time corrections.
Operation mode	Both interconnected and islanded modes are possible. Switching can be quite frequent even under normal operation but it certainly takes when place frequency/voltage stability incidents happen as to SO. the uninterruptible maintain power supply of the consumers regardless of the upstream system state.	Usually interconnected, as the goal is to contribute to the global system stability in a decentralized but coordinated Of if. manner. course, required, a cell could be dimensioned and technically equipped to operate as а microgrid, for instance in. response to an incident or emergency situation to either contain or isolate the faulted area from the mains.
Power level	Typically from KW to MW	From MW to GW
Voltage level	Usually LV. MV microgrids can be exceptional scenario an depending on their size.	Any voltage level (LV/MV/HV) combination of voltage or levels (LV/MV).
Grid architecture	Radial only.	Radial meshed grids. or Distribution system level radial grids could be connected to create a mesh ⁴ , enabling, for example, direct exchanges at level LV. between neigh- bouring cells avoiding the multilevel conversions $(LV -$ MV-HV), reducing the losses and the congestion risk.
	Microgrids can be nested within larger microgrids	Cells cannot be nested.

 $\frac{1}{4}$ Due to the insertion of DERs at distribution level, radial grids could be progressively been connected, by forming a meshed structure.

Annex C: Handling of concentrated RES generation by the Web-of-Cells

The aim of this annex is to illustrate how the web-of-cells handles concentrated generation connected at transmission level, and to show how the concept does not ignore nor is incompatible with this type of generation. The concentrated generation can be RES or not; the case of off-shore wind parks is selected here since it incorporates potential difficulties like connection distances and intermittencies, but the approach can be extended to many other situations.

C.1 Integration of Offshore Wind Parks into Web-of-Cells

Construction of offshore wind parks is one of the key actions, which will reduce the overall CO2 emissions from power generation in Europe and reduce the energy imports. Based on preliminary conclusions from the eHigway 2050 project, which were presented in Internal Report R3.1 [17], big scale offshore wind is a consistent part of at least two scenarios, setting border conditions for development of the European future power system. Already during the last decade the overall capacity of offshore wind has quadrupled a growth that is expected to continue.

In principle integrating offshore wind into the web-of-cell concept is straight forward. However, there are different ways this may be implemented. The reason for this is due to the fact that it is not yet known how the concept of offshore wind will evolve in the future. In today's system offshore wind is connected to the main grid through point to point connections, and can thus be treated as any other intermittent production within a cell. The question becomes more interesting when one looks at how offshore wind might be connected to the mainland in the future. It is envisioned that one in the North Sea will have a meshed offshore grid connecting the North Sea countries and offshore wind farms. There are different ways this future meshed offshore grid can be integrated into the web-of-cell concept mostly dependent on how this system will be operated legally. The most likely possibilities are as follows:

- The offshore grid will be defined as a cell and operated as any other cell. This alternative requires that the North Sea countries appoint one legal entity as the cell operator. From a legal perspective this may be difficult given that the wind farms and end users (oil rigs) in the North Sea are operated under different legislations enforced by the different countries.
- The offshore grid will just be an extension of the mainland cells. In this alternative each of the North Sea countries operate their respective part of the North Sea grid as a part of their mainland cell.

Among one of the strengths of the web-of-cell concepts is the rather general notion of cell, which facilitates the inclusion of new concepts. Due to this, one can easily identify two ways of integrating offshore wind and an offshore grid into the concept. Although, there are obstacles in implementing such an offshore grid, they are mostly regulatory and technological.

C.2 Dealing with the intermittencies

The main and the most obvious challenge is the inherited intermittency of the wind power. However, as it was stated in Section 3.1, a cell does not have to reset to zero exchange of power on its tie-lines with other cells, but merely should be able to follow its power exchange schedule, which was submitted to the day-ahead market. The residual unforeseen imbalances will be traded on the Intraday market, which is highly operational in several European countries already now. It is anticipated that the Intraday will take the main burden of the intermittent generation. The Nordic Intraday market (Elbas) trades imbalances until one hour to the operation. It is complicated to discuss how to address these sudden imbalances because in the real life it is likely to be a trade-off between costs and effectiveness of the solution.

C2.1 Alternative 1: resolving imbalances offshore

The imbalances can be resolved already offshore, for example by using big capacity storages. Considering that procurement of balancing reserves for frequency regulation is quite costly, this solution can be vital. Basically this would mean that the offshore generation will be able to stay balanced after closure of the Intraday market.

C2.2 Alternative 2: resolving imbalances onshore

The alternative way will be addressing these imbalances onshore within the web-of-cells. Referring to Figure 12 the present web-of-cell concept presumes that a HV-part of a TSO control area can be a cell, comprising both offshore wind and consumption connected to HV. Big scale industrial consumption has proved to be an efficient DR resources, for example at the Nordic Regulating Power Market. This provides an opportunity to compensate deviations in offshore generation⁵.

C.3 Web-of-Cells in action

The Web-of-Cell concept does not neglect a large increase in offshore wind cells. The Web-of-Cells concept only proposes that cells need to take care of balancing out the residual imbalances that are caused in their cell. Since a cell does not need to be self-reliant, it can import energy from offshore wind parks. To depict this more clearly a simplified example is presented:

- Let us suppose an LV cell is fed top-down from an offshore wind park because it does not have sufficient (or cheaper) own generation: this is clear and decided at t_0 as a result of the BRP (and TSO) day-ahead and intraday demand-supply matching process.
- As a result of this, a scheduled import into the LV cell is determined (the cell does not even care where it comes from, but let us assume it comes (mostly) from the offshore wind park.
- If now in the real-time period the load in the cell is lower than planned (or the local generation is higher than planned) the cell will try to either increase its local load (e.g. by charging a battery or starting an additional load) or decrease its local generation in an attempt to not change/impact the import (that is provided by the offshore wind park for instance).

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• Similarly, if now in the real-time period the load in the cell is higher than planned (or the local generation is lower than planned) the cell will try to either reduce its local load or increase its local generation in an attempt to not change/impact the import (that is provided by the offshore wind park for instance).

 So basically, the cell concept is 'protecting' the offshore wind farm from variances in demand when compared to what was planned.