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# Nonlinear Parameter Estimation of Excitation Systems

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**Abstract**—This paper details the nonlinear parameter estimation process of an IEEE AC1A type exciter using time-domain system identification techniques. This paper discusses nonlinear parameter estimation techniques, systematic and random noise mitigation strategies, and system validation. This study establishes a strong basis for excitation system parameter estimation.

**Index Terms**—Excitation systems, parameter estimation, system identification.

## I. INTRODUCTION

POWER system small signal, transient, and dynamic stability studies are only as accurate as the underlying models used in the computer analysis. The validity of the results of these studies depends heavily on the accuracy of the model parameters of the system components. In practice, the parameters commonly used in stability studies are manufacturer specified values, or “typical” values. These typical values may be grossly inaccurate, as various parameters may drift over time or with operating condition. Thus, it is desirable to develop methods for estimating component parameters. While parameter estimation of synchronous machines has been well documented, parameter estimation of excitation systems has only begun to receive thorough attention. This paper reports the results of an on-going project to develop parameter estimation techniques for Ameren Corporation’s (formerly Union Electric Co.) Rush Island Plant.

The objective of this study is to establish a procedure to perform parameter estimation of an AC1A type excitation system using on-line data measurements. This requires that any perturbation signal used to excite the dynamics of the excitation system must have an insignificant effect on the overall operation and output of the system. Most previous work on excitation system parameter estimation is not applicable for on-line time-domain system identification. In [1], the parameters of the excitation system were estimated using a conjugate gradient averaging stochastic approximation method. This method utilizes data signals in the time domain and is used to estimate the parameters of IEEE DC1 and AC1A type excitation systems. The data used for the estimation process was collected during a lightning strike, which provided a very significant, and unwanted,

perturbation to the system. The difficulty from using such large perturbation signals on which to base parameter estimation is that i) the estimation procedure cannot typically be validated by a second trial, and ii) large perturbations frequently cause limiters within the system to be hit which may mask some of the dynamics essential to estimate all of the system parameters.

The majority of the previous work in this area have typically employed frequency response techniques to estimate the parameters of specific exciters that were not representative of standard excitation systems. In [2], the authors use frequency response techniques to estimate the parameters of a pumped storage excitation system. The system is perturbed by white noise fed into the system from two different points. In [3], parameter estimation is performed utilizing the FFT and complex curve fitting techniques in the frequency domain. The excitation system under test is that same as that in [2], and the same input perturbations were used. In [4], parameter estimation was performed by using an FFT to convert sampled data to the frequency domain. In the frequency domain, the Wiener–Hopf formula and dynamic curve fitting techniques were used for system identification. The system was excited through the use of a pseudo random binary signal (PRBS) input into the mixing amplifier of the automatic voltage regulator.

In [5], the authors applied a pseudo random binary signal into the reference voltage setting of the pilot exciter. In [5], only the linear parameters of the pilot and main exciter of the AC1A excitation system were estimated. This paper extends the work in [5] to include the nonlinear saturation function and the nonlinear regulating rectifier function of the main exciter.

## II. THE EXCITATION SYSTEM MODEL

The excitation system under consideration is a Westinghouse brushless excitation system (also known as the IEEE AC1A type excitation system). This is a field controlled alternator rectifier exciter. This system consists of an alternator main exciter with noncontrolled rectifiers to convert the AC current into the DC current needed by the generator. Several control devices are also included in the excitation system. These include a damping module, a V/Hz limiter, a voltage error detector, minimum and maximum excitation limiters, a load compensator, a signal mixer, a trinitat three phase firing circuit, and a trinitat three phase power amplifier (thyristors). Each of the modules, separately, have a specific function within the exciter. The main exciter’s output is determined by the trinitat three phase power amplifier, whose firing angle is determined by the trinitat firing circuit. The signal mixer generates an error signal which is fed into this firing circuit, which, in turn, determines

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TABLE I  
EFFECT OF PRBS MAGNITUDE ON TERMINAL VOLTAGE

| PRBS (V)   | $V_{min}$ (pu) | $V_{max}$ (pu) | pu swing |
|------------|----------------|----------------|----------|
| $\pm 1.0$  | 117.5 (0.979)  | 123.0 (1.025)  | 0.0458   |
| $\pm 0.5$  | 118.7 (0.989)  | 121.5 (1.013)  | 0.0233   |
| $\pm 0.1$  | 119.7 (0.998)  | 120.3 (1.003)  | 0.0049   |
| $\pm 0.05$ | 119.9 (0.999)  | 120.2 (1.002)  | 0.0024   |

may cap one or more signals, a range of dynamics is still observable. Thus, different minimum and maximum voltage swings in Table I occur for PRBS magnitudes greater than 0.05 V. For large perturbations where the limiters acted for longer periods of time, the voltage magnitude maximums should converge to a consistent value.

### B. Data Conditioning

Once the data is obtained, it must be conditioned before it can be used in the system identification. The three primary conditioning steps are: removing the signal bias and initial transients, data set averaging, and low-pass filtering. If the system data contains an offset value, the estimation procedures are forced to apply extra parameters to compensate for the offset level, making the computation more complex and prone to error, thus it is preferable to use zero mean data. The best method of producing a zero mean data sample is to subtract the physical equilibrium value from each sampled data point in the data set [8]. In most cases, however, the system equilibrium point is not available or known with sufficient accuracy, therefore a zero mean signal can be obtained by subtracting the mean of the sampled data from each of the sample data points.

Data set averaging is used to reduce the effect of random noise in the data measurements which typically arise from the data acquisition system. In practice, this implies that several data sets of the same signal, in response to an identical perturbation, have been taken. Data set averaging may be obtained as

$$\hat{x}(t_i) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k x_j(t_i) \quad i = 1, \dots, N \quad (1)$$

where  $k$  is the number of data sets and  $N$  is the number of data points per set. The effects of the random noise tend to cancel as several sets of data are averaged. However, the noise can only be reduced to a certain degree and not totally eliminated. The authors found that only minimal improvements were achieved by averaging together more than ten sets of data. In cases where large perturbation signals, such as lightning strikes, are used, it is not possible to obtain several sets of output data from the same input string, thus data set averaging is not an option.

Data set averaging is only effective in reducing random noise; averaging has minimal effect on systematic noise such as the high-frequency noise produced by the power amplifier. In addition to averaging, the output data sets can be low pass filtered to remove the residual random noise and the systematic noise. Since the systematic noise is of a known frequency (2520 Hz) from the power amplifier, the high-frequency content of the signal can be easily filtered using a low-pass Butterworth filter or even a notch, or bandstop, filter. In this system, the systematic noise is injected into the system through the signal  $V_{FE}$ . The

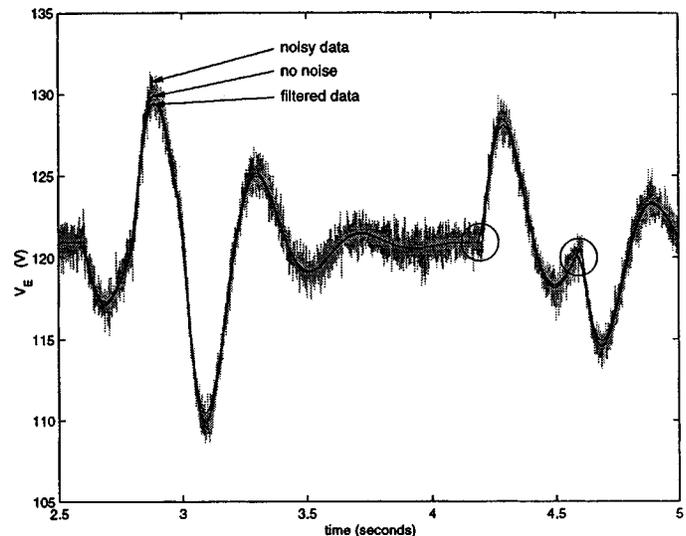


Fig. 2. Effect of filtering.

high-frequency noise is propagated throughout the main exciter and pilot exciter, but is filtered by the long time constants of the generator, yielding a relatively noise-free terminal voltage signal. Filtering is not as effective on mitigating random noise however. The filtering process tends to overly “smooth” the output, which can result in a loss of information, especially at breakpoints in the waveform. Such loss of information is shown in Fig. 2 which shows a filtered waveform versus the noisy data and the same data without noise. Note that at the breakpoints, due to the switching of the PRBS, the filtered waveform does not effectively capture the abrupt change in dynamics.

## IV. MODEL STRUCTURE SELECTION

The general polynomial representation of the parametric model is:

$$A(q)y(t) = \frac{B(q)}{F(q)}u(t - nk) + \frac{C(q)}{D(q)}e(t) \quad (2)$$

where  $q$  is the shift operator and  $A(q)$  through  $F(q)$  are polynomials in  $q$  of varying orders. The order of the polynomials correspond to the number of either the poles or zeros in the transfer function that relates the output to the input or the error. The data is then “best fit” to the system being identified using one of the various model structures. The number of poles and zeros required in each polynomial is dictated by the actual structure of the excitation system. Since the parameters of the standard IEEE AC1A model is to be estimated, the structure, along with the number of poles and zeros of the model to be identified, is already well defined. Given the location of physically available input and output signals, the full excitation system could be modeled as a combination of zero-, first-, and second-order transfer functions.

Each of the algorithms used to correlate the input and output data using one of the parametric model structures minimizes the square of prediction error between the data, where the prediction error is defined as the difference between the actual measured output of the system and the predicted output. A least squares estimation method is employed to identify an ARX model whereas

TABLE II  
COMMON PARAMETRIC MODEL STRUCTURES WITH ASSOCIATED  
POLYNOMIALS

| Model | Polynomials Used |
|-------|------------------|
| AR    | A                |
| ARX   | A, B             |
| ARMAX | A, B, C          |
| ARARX | A, B, D          |
| BJ    | B, C, D, F       |
| OE    | B, F             |
| PEM   | A, B, C, D, F    |

a PEM algorithm using a Gauss–Newton method is utilized to estimate the parameters of ARMAX, BJ, and OE models. See [8, (pp. 81–89)] for more details. Table II lists some of the commonly used parametric model structures and the polynomials from (2) which are used.

The noise contained in the data measurement may cause the system identification using a particular model structure to be inaccurate. This does not mean that the system from which the data was taken cannot be identified. In this case, another model structure or fitting algorithm should be chosen and the identification recalculated. One standard means of assessing parameter accuracy is to substitute the estimated parameters into the derived model and compare the simulated response against the original output data. If the simulated and original responses are within some tolerance of each other (as determined by the user), then the parameters are accepted, otherwise a different model structure should be utilized.

The last step in the parameter estimation process is to convert the estimated discrete time transfer function parameters (in  $q$ ) to continuous time transfer function parameters (in  $s$ ), since the continuous time parameters of the excitation system are desired and the data is, by nature, discrete. A discrete to continuous conversion was accomplished using a pole-zero matching technique which matches the poles and zeros of the transfer function. The result of this conversion is a numerator and denominator of the estimated continuous time transfer function given in descending powers of the continuous time operator  $s$ . In the event where the parameter being identified was a constant, as in the transducer shunt, transformer turns ratio, and a few of the main exciter parameters, a direct pole-zero match could not be obtained. In these instances, the conversion was made using the zero order hold method.

## V. NONLINEAR PARAMETER ESTIMATION

The primary objectives of this paper are to extend the work of [5] to include the estimation of the nonlinear functions. The nonlinear functions in the main exciter are the saturation function and the rectifier regulation function.

### A. Saturation Function

The saturation function is modeled as an exponential function of the input signal  $V_E$ :

$$S_e(V_E) = ae^{bV_E} \quad (3)$$

where

$$V_{FE} = K_E V_E + S_e(V_E) + K_D I_{fd} \quad (4)$$

In the linear analysis presented in [5], the saturation function was linearized around the equilibrium point  $V_{E0}$  to yield:

$$S_e(V_E) \approx S_e(V_{E0}) + abe^{bV_{E0}}(V_E - V_{E0}) \quad (5)$$

$$= \hat{S}_e V_E + S_{e0} \quad (6)$$

where  $\hat{S}_e = abe^{bV_{E0}}$ . From Fig. 1, the saturation function is combined with the constant block  $K_E$  to form the single input/single output transfer function between the output  $V_{FE}$  and input  $V_E$ :

$$V_{FE} = (K_E + \hat{S}_e)V_E \quad (7)$$

Note that several problems arise when using a linearized model for the estimation process. Not only can the constants  $a$  and  $b$  of the original saturation function  $S_e$  not be extracted from the transfer function since they now appear as a product, but the saturation constant  $\hat{S}_e$  cannot be extracted independently from the gain  $K_E$ . Thus during the linear parameter estimation, the parameters  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $K_E$  are not observable.

In order to independently obtain each parameter, a nonlinear approach to the estimation must be taken. Using a similar approach as before, the saturation function is expanded using a Taylor series expansion about the operating point  $V_{E0}$  yielding:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{FE} = & K_E V_E + ae^{bV_{E0}} + abe^{bV_{E0}}(V_E - V_{E0}) \\ & + \frac{1}{2!} ab^2 e^{bV_{E0}}(V_E - V_{E0})^2 \\ & + \frac{1}{3!} ab^3 e^{bV_{E0}}(V_E - V_{E0})^3 \\ & + \text{higher order terms} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

If the higher order terms are neglected, this can be posed as a fourth-order linear regression with powers of  $(V_E - V_{E0})$  as the inputs and  $V_{FE}$  as the output. Using one of the minimization algorithms to solve the fourth-order linear regression yields the following parameter vector:

$$\theta = \begin{bmatrix} ae^{bV_{E0}} + K_E V_{E0} \\ abe^{bV_{E0}} + K_E \\ \frac{1}{2!} ab^2 e^{bV_{E0}} \\ \frac{1}{3!} ab^3 e^{bV_{E0}} \end{bmatrix} \quad (9)$$

The unknown model parameters may be extracted directly from the parameter vector as:

$$b = 3 \frac{\theta(4)}{\theta(3)} \quad (10)$$

$$K_E = \frac{b\theta(1) - \theta(2)}{bV_{E0} - 1} \quad (11)$$

$$a = \frac{\theta(2) - K_E}{be^{bV_{E0}}} \quad (12)$$

This approach has an advantage over the linearized approach in that each individual parameter can be estimated.

This procedure works well when the signal-to-noise ratio is large. From (8), the difference  $(V_E - V_{E0})$  is intended to capture the dynamic excursions of  $V_E$  from nominal. However, for systems with considerable noise, this term essentially becomes

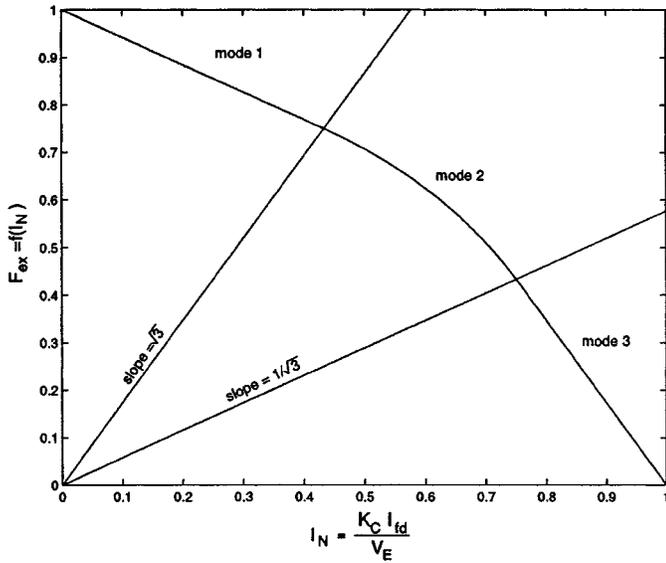


Fig. 3. Rectifier regulation function.

the noise content, that is then squared and cubed to form the regression series. One approach that is effective in minimizing the noise effects on the nonlinear parameter estimation is to consider only the first three terms in the regression. The parameters may then be obtained from the three nonlinear equations using an iterative approach such as the Newton–Raphson method.

### B. Rectifier Regulation Function

All ac sources that supply rectifier circuits have an internal inductance. This inductance alters the process of commutation and causes a nonlinear decrease in output voltage as a function of rectifier current [6]. The three-phase, full-wave bridge circuits commonly employed have three distinct modes that are determined by the rectifier load current. The three modes of operation represented by the following piecewise nonlinear equations [6]:

$$F_{ex} = 1 - 0.577I_N \quad I_N < 0.433 \quad (13)$$

$$F_{ex} = \sqrt{0.75 - I_N^2} \quad 0.433 < I_N < 0.75 \quad (14)$$

$$F_{ex} = 1.732(1 - I_N) \quad I_N > 0.75 \quad (15)$$

where

$$I_N = \frac{K_C I_{fd}}{V_E}. \quad (16)$$

The rectifier regulation function, shown in Fig. 3, is a nonlinear function in  $I_N$ , the normalized exciter load current. The load current  $I_N$  is a function of  $I_{fd}$ , the synchronous machine field current,  $V_E$  the exciter voltage, and  $K_C$ , the rectifier loading factor proportional to the commutating reactance.

In the linear analysis in [5], the rectifier regulation function was modeled as a constant single input/single output block relating  $V_E$  to  $E_{fd}$ , where

$$E_{fd} = K_{I_N F_{ex}} V_E. \quad (17)$$

In this case, not only was the mode of operating nondeterminable, but the parameter  $K_C$  was not observable. In the

TABLE III  
MAIN EXCITER ESTIMATION RESULTS USING ARMAX AND PEM

| Parameter | Original Value | Est. Value<br>0.5% noise<br>averg=5 | Est. Value<br>0.5% noise<br>averg=10 | Est. Value<br>1% noise<br>averg=10 |
|-----------|----------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| $K_{thy}$ | 174.472        | 174.461                             | 173.124                              | 174.173                            |
| $T_E$     | 0.755e-1       | 0.755e-1                            | 0.750e-1                             | 0.754e-1                           |
| $K_D$     | 0.077e-1       | 0.073e-1                            | 0.071e-1                             | 0.069e-1                           |
| $K_E$     | 9.685e-2       | 9.692e-2                            | 9.692e-2                             | 9.690e-2                           |
| $a$       | 3.668e-2       | 3.643e-2                            | 3.649e-2                             | 3.713e-2                           |
| $b$       | 6.836e-3       | 6.018e-3                            | 5.945e-3                             | 6.068e-3                           |
| $K_C$     | 1.000e-2       | 1.001e-2                            | 0.099e-2                             | 1.007e-2                           |

nonlinear function, the parameter to be estimated is the rectifier loading factor  $K_C$ . To properly estimate this parameter, however, the operating mode of the rectifier must first be determined. The mode was determined in an iterative approach. At each sample point,  $V_E$  and  $I_{fd}$  are used to calculate  $F_{EX}$  which in turns yields three possible values for  $K_C$ :

$$K_C = \frac{1 - F_{EX}}{0.577 \frac{I_{fd}}{V_E}} \quad \text{mode 1} \quad (18)$$

$$= \frac{V_E}{I_{fd}} \sqrt{0.75 - F_{EX}^2} \quad \text{mode 2} \quad (19)$$

$$= \frac{V_E}{I_{fd}} \left( 1 - \frac{F_{EX}}{1.732} \right) \quad \text{mode 3} \quad (20)$$

These values are then used to calculate  $I_N$  from (16) to determine the mode. The values of  $K_C$  which are determined are then averaged over the sample space to yield the parameter estimate. In most instances, the rectifier predominantly operates in mode 1.

## VI. PARAMETER ESTIMATION RESULTS

The excitation model developed by Ontario Hydro was used as the basis for the parameter estimation. This model was used to study the effects of various system identification algorithms, noise levels, and perturbation signals on the accuracy of the estimated parameters. The excitation system was simulated using a  $\pm 0.05$  volt pseudo random binary signal perturbation injected into the reference voltage setting of the pilot exciter at 2.6 seconds after initialization. The systematic noise was modeled as a 1 Volt, 2520 Hz signal injected into the rectifier with a firing angle of  $90^\circ$ , which is a “worst case” scenario because the  $90^\circ$  signal contains the highest harmonic content. The input and output signals were sampled every 50 microseconds.

Various combinations of the factors which influence the estimation of the parameters were considered: estimation algorithm (ARX, ARMAX, PEM), random noise magnitude, low-pass filter cutoff frequency, number of averaged data sets, rectifier firing angle, and systematic noise magnitude. The pilot exciter contains only linear blocks and the parameter estimation results for this portion of the exciter are reported in [5]. Using a combination of factors gives the linear and nonlinear parameter estimation results shown in Table III for the main exciter. The “original” parameter values are those values which were estimated in the initial study by Ontario Hydro and were used in the simulation as accurate values.

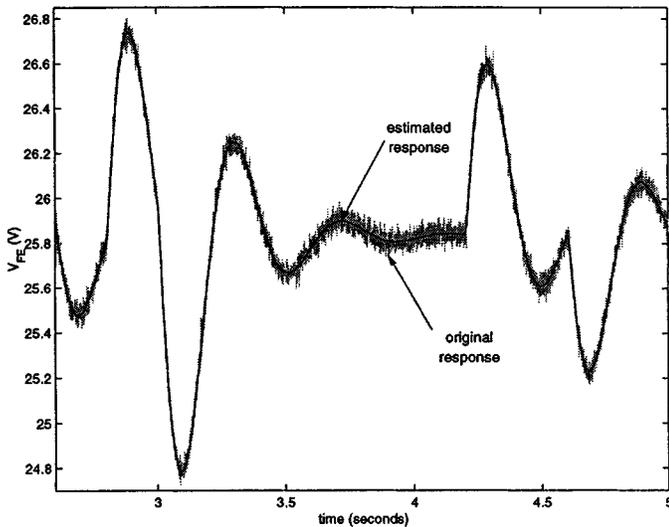


Fig. 4. Estimated versus original response of  $V_{FE}$ .

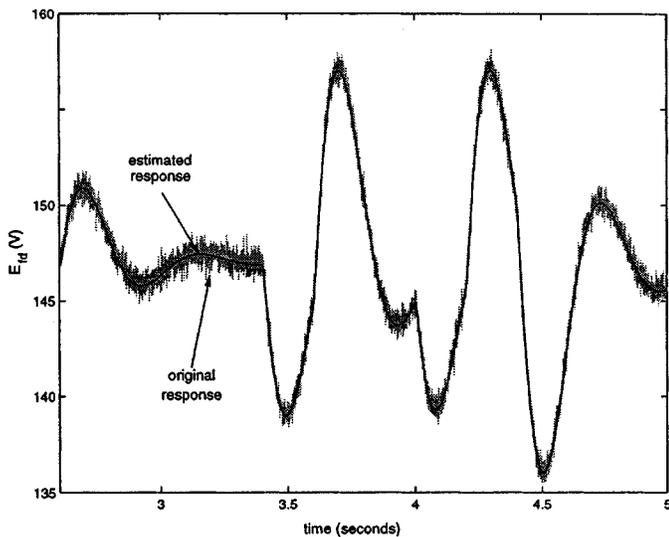


Fig. 5. Estimated versus original response of  $E_{fd}$ .

The saturation function parameters  $a$  and  $b$  are very susceptible to noise, in part because they are very small and the overall saturation is only a small part of the response of  $V_{FE}$ . The dynamic response of  $V_{FE}$  is dominated by the linear gain  $K_E$ , thus  $K_E$  is able to be accurately estimated, even in the presence of considerable noise.

The parameters were validated in two ways. First, the parameters were compared against the original values. This gives a quantitative comparison. However, in most cases, the “actual” values of parameters are not known. In this situation, the validation must be more qualitative than quantitative. One means of ascertaining the accuracy of the estimated parameters is to compare the calculated response of the system using the estimated parameters against the actual response of the system. If the two responses are similar to the desired degree of accuracy, then the estimated parameters are accepted. Several signal comparisons are shown in Figs. 4 and 5.

## VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The main goal of this paper is to present the results of the nonlinear parameter estimation of an excitation system using time domain signals. The feasibility of estimating the parameters of Ameren/UE’s Rush Island excitation system, a representation of an IEEE AC1A type exciter, was determined. The pilot exciter of the excitation system contains primarily linear blocks, which can be estimated using linear techniques which were previously discussed in [5]. The main exciter, however, contains several nonlinear blocks, which cannot be accurately estimated with linear techniques. Several nonlinear estimation algorithms were presented which were shown to accurately estimate the parameters of these nonlinear blocks.

Several features of the systems were shown to have varying degrees of impact on the accuracy of the estimated parameters. The two steps in the identification process which have the most impact on the accuracy of the parameters are the signal conditioning and the choice of algorithm.

Signal conditioning primarily consisted of noise handling and bias term removal. The bias term removal was typically straightforward in that each data sample was averaged to obtain the average bias term, which was then subtracted from the entire sample to yield zero mean bias. Noise conditioning proved to be more problematic however. The magnitude of the systematic rectifier noise had negligible effect on the accuracy of the estimations (due to the low pass filtering of the signals). The magnitude of the random noise, however, did effect the accuracy of the saturation parameters significantly. Because the magnitude of the saturation parameters,  $a$  and  $b$  is very small, the nonlinear saturation function is highly susceptible to random noise. This effect can be mitigated to some degree by averaging sets of data together. The number and choice of sets can greatly affect the accuracy as well. In general, the more sets of data which are averaged, the more accurate the results. However, it is not practical to obtain and average large numbers of sets of data. Also, it was found in practice, that for large noise levels, a third order linear regression approach (requiring a nonlinear iterative numerical solution) yielded superior results to the fourth-order linear regression given in (9).

The output  $E_{fd}$  of the main exciter is a nonlinear function of the inputs  $V_E$  and  $I_{fd}$  which are related through the constant parameter  $K_C$  and the nonlinear rectifier regulation functional block. Under normal operation, the rectifier will operate primarily in mode 1. Using the proposed method, it is possible to iteratively ascertain the operating mode of the rectifier at each data sample point and then extract the desired parameter  $K_C$ . The estimation of the parameter  $K_C$  was relatively impervious to noise levels and accurate results were obtained.

The choice of estimation algorithm, such as the least squares estimator (ARX) or the Gauss–Newton minimization (ARMAX and PEM), used in the identification of the parameters did not have much impact on the results. Each algorithm produced similar results when performing the estimations under the same conditions. This was not unexpected, however, since the ARMAX and PEM algorithms utilize two polynomials to model noise. These algorithms are thus better able to handle the noise in the system than the ARX algorithm which only uses

one polynomial. However, since data conditioning was used to mitigate the noise effects prior to applying the algorithms, the difference in the parameter estimations was not large. If one model structure is found to produce inaccurate results, another model can be selected.

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