

Single- And Multi Level Inverter-Based Renewable Energy Sources For Mitigation of Grid Faults

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Abstract:-- Grid-connected distributed generation sources interfaced with voltage source inverters (VSIs) need to be disconnected from the grid under: 1) excessive dc-link voltage; 2) excessive ac currents; and 3) loss of grid-voltage synchronization. In this paper, the control of single- and two-stage grid-connected VSIs in photovoltaic (PV) power plants is developed to address the issue of inverter disconnecting under various grid faults. Inverter control incorporates reactive power support in the case of voltage sags based on the grid codes' (GCs) requirements to ride-through the faults and support the grid voltages. A case study of a 1-MW system simulated in MATLAB/Simulink software is used to illustrate the proposed control. Problems that may occur during grid faults along with associated remedies are discussed. The results presented illustrate the capability of the system to ride-through different types of grid faults.

Index Terms:—DC–DC converter, fault-ride-through, photovoltaic (PV) systems, power system faults, reactive power support

I. INTRODUCTION

Fault studies are important in large-scale grid connected renewable energy systems and have been reported in the technical literature. However, most of these studies focused on grid-connected wind power plants [1], [2]. In the case of grid-connected photovoltaic (PV) power plants (GCPPPs), research reported thus far focused on fault-ride through (FRT) capability [3], [4]. Specifically, a three-phase current-source inverter (CSI) configuration was investigated under various fault conditions in [5] and [6], in which the output currents remain limited under all types of faults due to the implementation of a current-source model for the inverter. However, this configuration may lead to instability under dynamic conditions [7]. Three-phase voltage source inverters (VSIs) are used in grid-connected power conversion systems. Due to the increasing number of these systems, the control of the VSIs is required to operate and support the grid based on the grid codes (GCs) during voltage disturbances and unbalanced conditions.

Among several studies for unbalanced voltage sags, a method was introduced in [8] to mitigate the peak output currents of a 4.5-kVA PV system in no-fault phases. Another study in [9] presented a proportional-resonant (PR) current controller for the current limiter to ensure sinusoidal output current waveforms and avoid over-current. However, in the mentioned studies, reactive power support was not considered. In [10], a study dealing with the control of the positive and negative sequences was performed. Two parallel

controllers were implemented, one for each sequence. The study demonstrated the dynamic limitations of using this control configuration due to the delays produced in the current control loops. A study was reported in [11] for the control of the dc side of the inverter, which shows the impact of various types of faults on the voltage and current of the PV array.

Considering FRT strategies for grid-connected VSIs, some research has been done on wind turbine applications [12]–[14] and also on VSI-based high-voltage direct current (HVDC) systems [15]–[17]. Some of these studies are based on passive control, e.g., crowbar and chopper resistors [14], [15], whereas others are based on active control schemes [12], [13], [16], [17]. Although both categories can provide FRT capability, the passive methods have the drawbacks of requiring additional components and dissipating significant power during the voltage sag processes. In the application of GCPPPs with the configurations of single-stage conversion (single-stage conversion means direct connection of the PV source to the dc side of the VSI), some research were done in [18] and [19] evaluating the FRT issues of both ac and dc sides of the inverter under unbalanced voltage conditions. However, in the application of a two-stage conversion (meaning a dc–dc conversion or preregulator unit exists between the PV source and VSI), no paper so far has proposed a comprehensive strategy to protect the inverter during voltage sags while providing reactive power support to the grid. All the designs and modifications for the inverter in both the single- and two-stage conversions have to accommodate various types of faults and address

FRT capability based on the GCs [20]. PV inverter disconnection under grid faults occurs due to mainly three factors: 1) excessive dc-link voltage; 2) excessive ac currents; and 3) loss of grid voltage synchronization, which may conflict with the FRT capability. In this paper, the control strategy introduced in [18] for a single-stage conversion is used, although the voltage sag detection and reactive power control is modified based on individual measurements of the grid voltages.

The main objective of this paper is to introduce new control strategies for the twostage conversion in GCPPPs that allow the inverter to remain connected to the grid under various types of faults while injecting reactive power to meet the required GCs. Some selected simulation results for single- and two-stage configurations are presented to confirm the effectiveness of the proposed control strategies.

This paper is organized as follows. A brief introduction to the GCs for GCPPPs connected in the medium-voltage (MV) grids is presented in Section II. A case study for single-stage VSIbased GCPPPs is introduced in Section III. The same section includes discussions on the implemented grid synchronization method as well as the control strategy to avoid excessive ac currents and excessive dc voltage under voltage sags. In the case of two-stage VSI-based GCPPPs, a case study of 1-MVA system is presented in Section IV and three remedies are proposed to ridethrough different types of faults and solar radiation conditions. Finally, Section V summarizes the conclusion of this paper.

II. GRID CODES

As the German GCs are the most comprehensive codes for the different power levels of PV installations and integration technologies [21], this paper follows these codes as a basis for the discussions. During voltage sags, the GCPPP should support the grid voltage by injecting reactive current. The amount of reactive current is determined based on the droop control defined as follows:

$$i_{qref} = droop|de_L|I'_n$$

$$\frac{|de_L|}{E_n} \geq 10\% \text{ and } droop \geq 2 \quad (1)$$

Where droop is a constant value, de_L is the amount of voltage drop, and I'_n is the rated current of the PV inverter in dq coordinates, i.e., $I'_n = \sqrt{3}I_n$, where I_n is the rated rms line current of the inverter. The amount of

voltage drop de_L is obtained based on the lowest rms value of the line-to-line voltages of the three phases at the terminal of the GCPPP, i.e., eL min shown in Fig. 1. The rms voltage is obtained using the following expression:

$$eL_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T_w} \int_{t-T_w}^t eL^2} \text{ with } T_w = \frac{T}{2} \quad (2)$$

Where eL is the instantaneous line-to-line voltage, T_w is the window width for the rms value calculation, and T is the grid voltage period, which is equal to 20 ms for a grid frequency of 50 Hz. The resulting control diagram for the reactive current generation is depicted in Fig. 1.

III. CASE STUDY FOR A SINGLE-STAGE CONVERSION:

In this section, a 1-MVA single-stage GCPPP is considered. It is modeled using MATLAB/Simulink and the system main

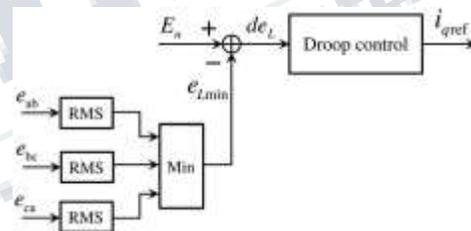


Fig.1.Droop control diagram for the reactive current reference provision.

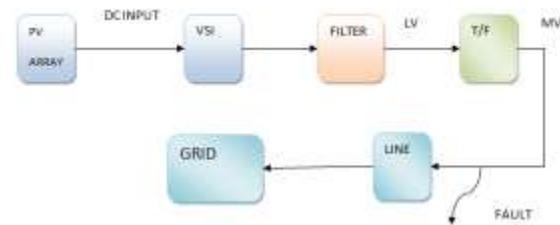


Fig. 2. Block Diagram of a single-stage GCPPP.

A. Grid Voltage Synchronization:

In grid-connected inverters, one important issue is the voltage phase angle detection. This is usually performed by phase locked- loop (PLL) technique based

on a synchronous reference frame PLL (SRF-PLL) [25], known as conventional PLL. The conventional PLL configuration does not perform well under unbalanced voltage sags and consequently may lead to the inverter being disconnected from the grid [24]. Several methods were proposed to extract the voltage phases accurately under unbalanced voltage conditions [26]–[29]. In this paper, the method based on moving average filters (MAFs) introduced in [28] is applied, which was also used in [24] showing very satisfactory performance. In this method, the positive sequence of the voltage is extracted from the grid by means of an ideal low-pass filter. Then, the angle of the positive sequence is detected.

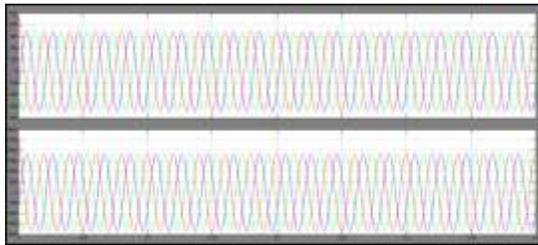


Fig. 3. (a) Grid voltages and (b) grid currents at the LV side under 60% SLG voltage sag produced at MV side of the transformer

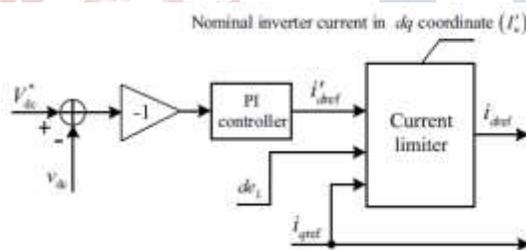


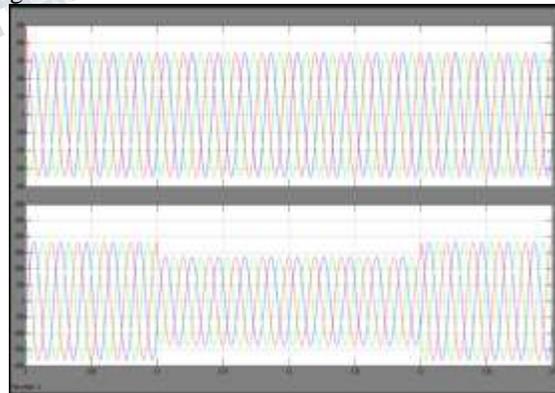
Fig. 4. Control diagram of the current limiter

B. Excessive AC Current:

Commercial grid-connected inverters have a maximum ac current value specified. If any of the currents exceed such value, the inverter is disconnected from the grid. Under a grid voltage sag, the d -component of the current (in the SRF) increases because the controller wants to maintain the active power injected into the grid and grid voltages are temporarily reduced. In addition to the increase of the d current component, the inverter has to inject reactive current during the fault to meet the FRT requirements. The amount of reactive current is assigned according to the droop control given

in (1). Since the d and q current components increase, this may lead the over-current protection to disconnect the inverter from the grid. In this case study, according to the specifications of the PV modules and their numbers of being connected in series and parallel given in Table I, the maximum power injected under standard test conditions (STC) is 1.006 MW. This power gives a rated RMS current value of 1399.5 A (a peak value of 1979 A) at the low-voltage (LV) side of the transformer considering 100% efficiency for the GCPPP.

According to the the inverter datasheets, the maximum acceptable output current at the LV side of the transformer is 1532 A (a peak value of 2167 A). In the case of a fault, e.g., a single-line-to-ground (SLG) voltage sag at the MV side of the transformer as the one presented in Fig. 3, the output currents exceed the limits. This will lead to inverter disconnection, although it is not applied in this simulation. Unbalanced and distorted currents are produced because the instantaneous output power and the dc-link voltage have low-frequency ripples, and therefore, the active current reference contains low-frequency ripples as well. The final reference for the d current component (i_{dref}) should be limited considering the need of reactive current injection as shown in Fig. 4. It should be mentioned that all the voltage sag case studies in this paper are applied to the MV side for the time period $t = 0.1$ s to $t = 0.3$ s, whereas the resultant ac voltages and currents shown in the figures are presented with their equivalent magnitudes at the LV side.



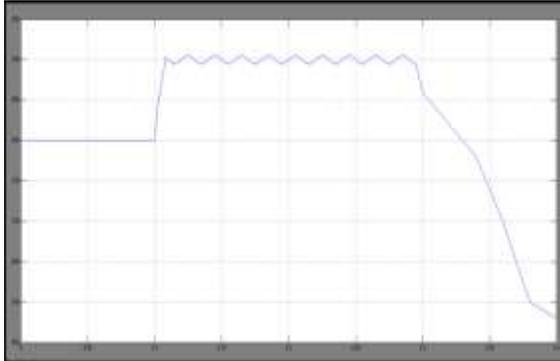


Fig. 5. Adding the current limiter to the VSI control: (a) grid voltages; (b) grid currents; and (c) dc-link voltage under SLG-voltage sag at MV side of the transformer

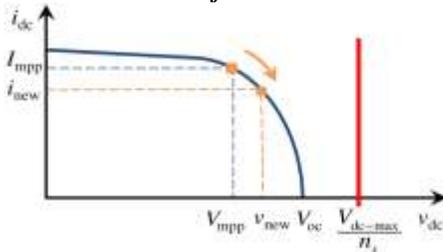


Fig. 6. Change in the PV operating point under voltage sag and maximum acceptable dc-link voltage

Should be mentioned that all the voltage sag case studies in this paper are applied to the MV side for the time period $t = 0.1$ s to $t = 0.3$ s, whereas the resultant ac voltages and currents shown in the figures are presented with their equivalent magnitudes at the LV side. Fig. 5 shows the generated currents after applying the current limiter in this example. One can observe in Fig. 5(b) that the grid currents are balanced. This is because the active current reference (i_{dref}) is limited to an almost constant value during the voltage sag. It should be mentioned that when operating with low solar radiation and/or small voltage sags, the active current reference may not be limited and therefore, it goes through the current limiter without being affected, i.e., $i_{dref} = \hat{i}_{dref}$. As a consequence, if the voltage sag was unbalanced, the active current reference and consequently the output currents would contain some low-frequency harmonics.

C. Excessive DC-Link Voltage:

If the active current reference is limited, i.e., $i_{dref} < \hat{i}_{dref}$, the generated power from the PVs is more

than the injected power into the electrical grid. As a consequence, some energy is initially accumulated into the dc-link capacitor, increasing the dc bus voltage as shown in Fig. 5(c). In a single-stage GCPMP, as the dc-link voltage increases, the operating point on the $I-V$ curve of PV array moves toward the open-circuit voltage point (V_{oc}), which leads the PV current to decrease, as shown in Fig. 6. The power generated by the PV panels is reduced because the operating point is taken away from the maximum power point (MPP) and therefore, less active current is injected into the ac side. This happens until the GCPMP reaches a new steady state where the dc-link voltage stops increasing. Thus, single-stage GCPMPs are self-protected because the generated power is reduced when the dc-link voltage increases under ac faults. It should be mentioned that the inverter has to withstand the worst case of the dc-link voltage, which is produced when the voltage provided by the PV modules reaches the open-circuit value (V_{oc}) under the maximum solar radiation expected on the generation site. Hence, the number of PV modules connected in series (n_s) has to be limited in the design of the GCPMPs so that the dc-link voltage is never higher than the maximum acceptable value of the inverter (V_{dc-max})

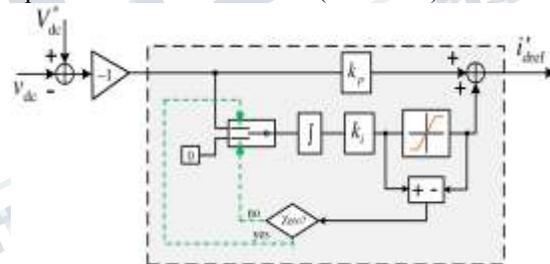


Fig. 7. PI controller with an anti-wind-up technique

$$n_s \leq \frac{V_{dc-max}}{V_{oc}} \tag{3}$$

Fig. 6 shows this concept in the case of a single-stage GCPMP. A problem that may appear because of the deviation of the MPP during the voltage sag is that, after the fault being cleared, the dc-link voltage and ac currents may take a long time to reach the prefault values, as shown in Fig. 5(b) and (c). The reason is that the error in the dc-link voltage produces accumulation of control action to the integral part of the proportional-integral (PI) controller (Fig. 4). This control action is limited by the current limiter and thus it has no effect on the grid currents. However, when the voltage sag ends, the excessive control action accumulated in the integral part of the controller has to be compensated by an input

error in the opposite direction. As a consequence, the dc-link voltage is reduced below the reference value. In this case, a significant decrease of the dc-link voltage may lead to inverter losing control and be disconnected. To overcome this issue, an anti-wind-up technique is applied to stop the PI controller accumulating excessive control action when it exceeds a specified value [30]. The schematic of the anti-wind-up technique is shown in Fig. 7 in which V^*_{dc} and v_{dc} are the reference and actual dc-link voltages, respectively. The improved results when applying the anti-wind-up technique are depicted in Fig. 8. In this case, once the grid fault is cleared, the dclink voltage recovers to the pre-fault value with no perceptible overcompensation.

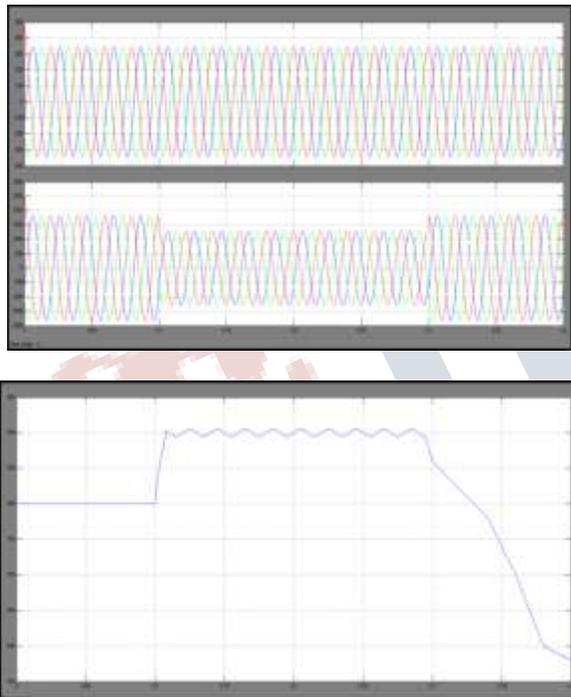


Fig. 8. Application of an anti-wind-up technique to the PI controller: (a) grid voltages; (b) grid currents; and (c) dc-link voltage under 60% SLG voltage sag at MV side of the transformer.

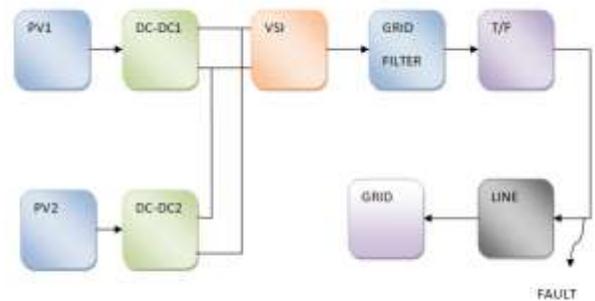


Fig. 9. Block Diagram of the two-stage conversion-based GCPPP.

IV. CASE STUDY FOR A TWO-STAGE CONVERSION

A two-stage GCPPP includes a dc–dc converter between the PV arrays and the inverter. In high-power GCPPPs, more than one dc–dc converter can be included, one per each PV array. Despite having several dc–dc converters, these systems will be referred anyway as two-stage GCPPPs. In two-stage GCPPPs, the MPP tracking (MPPT) is performed by the dc–dc converter and the dc-link voltage is regulated by the inverter. During a voltage sag, if no action is taken in the control of the dc–dc converter, the power from the PV modules is not reduced and therefore, the dc-link voltage keeps rising and may exceed the maximum limit. Hence, the system is not self-protected during grid fault conditions. A specific control action has to be taken to reduce the power generated by the PV modules and provide the two-stage GCPPP with FRT capability.

A simple method to provide dc-link overvoltage protection consists on shutting down the dc–dc converter when the dc voltage rises above a certain limit. The dc–dc converter can be reactivated when the dc-link voltage is below a certain value using a hysteresis controller. In the solutions proposed in this paper, the dc-link voltage is controlled during the voltage sag process and there is no significant increase in the dc-link voltage during this transient. The diagram of the case study for a two-stage GCPPP is shown in Fig. 9. It consists of a 1-MVA inverter and 10 parallel 100-kW dc–dc boost converters. Details of the individual dc–dc converter as well as the PV array characteristics connected to each dc–dc converter are summarized in Table II. The rest of data for this system are provided in Table I.

Table II
PV arrays and dc–dc converter specifications in

two-stage GCPFP:

Input voltage of the dc-dc converter at MPPT, V_{pv}^*	356V	Output voltage of the DC-DC converter, V_{dc}	800V
Number of parallel PV modules in each array, n_p	34	DC-DC converter inductance, L_i	1mH
Number of parallel PV modules in each array, n_p	10	DC-link capacitance, C	31mF

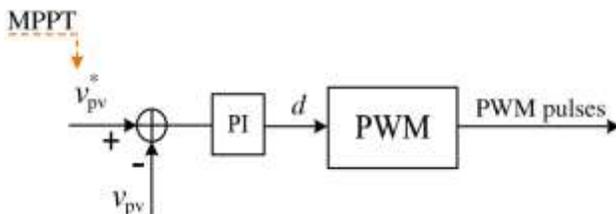


Fig. 10. Control diagram of the dc-dc converter.

In two-stage GCPFPs, the PV voltage (v_{pv}) is controlled by the duty cycle (d) of the dc-dc converter. The reference for the PV voltage is given by the MPPT, as shown in Fig. 10. A feed-forward strategy is applied to improve the dynamics of the dc-link voltage. The strategy is based on the assumption that the PV generated power is equal to the injected power into the grid, i.e.,

$$i_{pv} v_{pv} = e_d i_d + e_q i_q \quad (4)$$

where i_{pv} and v_{pv} are the PV current and voltage, respectively, and e_d and e_q are the d and q grid voltage components extracted by the PLL. Since the PLL forces the e_q component to be zero, the estimated d current component is obtained as.

$$i_d = \frac{i_{pv} v_{pv}}{e_d} \quad (5)$$

In two-stage GCPFPs, three different ways to limit the dc-link voltage under fault conditions are proposed: 1) short-circuiting the PV array by turning ON the switch of the dc-dc converter throughout the voltage sag duration; 2) leaving the PV array open by turning OFF the switch of the dc-dc converter; and 3) changing the control of the dc-dc converter to inject less power from

the PV arrays when compared with the pre-fault operating conditions. It should be mentioned that in all the configurations including single-stage conversion, the MPPT is disabled during the voltage sag condition and the voltage reference of pre-fault condition (v_{mpp}) is considered. Once the fault ends, the MPPT is reactivated. In the two-stage topology, the first two solutions explained next stop transferring energy from the PV arrays to the dc bus, whereas the dc bus keeps regulated at the reference value by the voltage control loop. In the third method, the MPPT is disconnected and the PV operating point moves to a lower power level to avoid overvoltage in the dc-link. Therefore, no matter the MPPT technique is voltage or current controlled and the algorithms implemented for the MPPT, the performance of the proposed methods during the voltage sag condition remains the same because the MPPT is disconnected during the voltage sag.

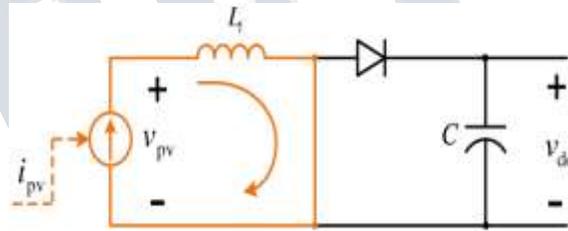


Fig. 11. Current path when short-circuiting the PV panels

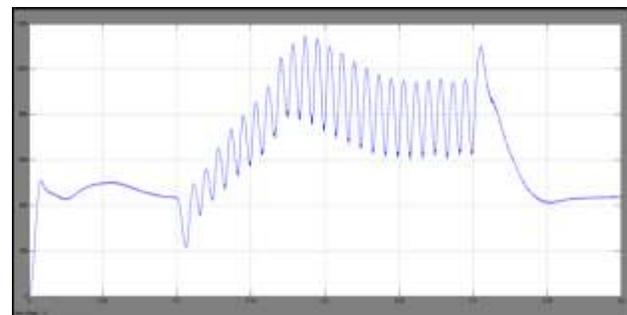
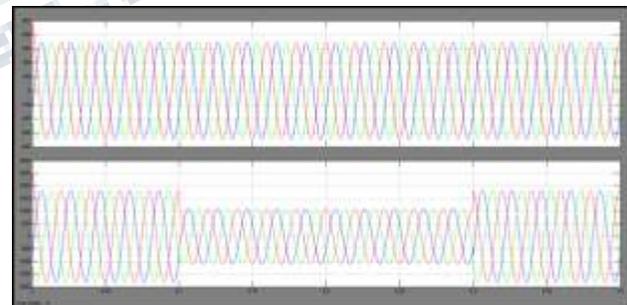


Fig. 12. Short-circuiting the PV panels: (a) grid voltages; (b) grid currents; and (c) dc-link voltage when applying a 60% SLG voltage sag at MV side of the Transformer

A. Short-Circuiting the PV Panels.

In this method, the dc–dc converter switch is ON ($d = 1$) throughout the voltage sag, as shown in Fig. 11. Consequently, no power is transferred from the PV modules to the dc-link. Since v_{pv} is zero, the feed-forward term id_{est} in (5) defines a fast transition to zero at the beginning of the voltage sag, accelerating the overall dynamic of the controller. Fig. 12 shows some results for an SLG voltage sag with a 60% voltage drop at MV side occurred from $t = 0.1s$ to $t = 0.3 s$. The generated power of the PV arrays and also the injected active and reactive power into the grid are shown in Fig. 13. During the voltage sag, the dc-link voltage remains relatively constant, i_{dref} becomes almost zero with some ripples, and only i_{qref} is injected during the fault period. Consequently, the current limiter does not have to be activated in this case. Under unbalanced voltage sags, the output power contains a second-order harmonic [31], which will produce dc-link voltage ripples at the same frequency.

B. Opening the Circuit of the PV Panels

Another option to avoid transferring power from the PV modules to the dc-link is to keep the dc–dc converter switch OFF throughout the voltage sag ($d = 0$), as shown in Fig. 14. Since, the inverter is not transferring active power into the grid during the voltage sag, the PV voltage v_{pv} increases until the dc–dc converter inductor is completely discharged ($i_{pv} = 0$). Then, the diode turns OFF and the PV modules stop providing energy into the dc-link [Fig. 14(b)]. This case is similar to the previous one where the diode was continuously ON and no current from the PV was provided to the dc-link. The main difference with the previous case is the transition process, as depicted in Fig. 15.

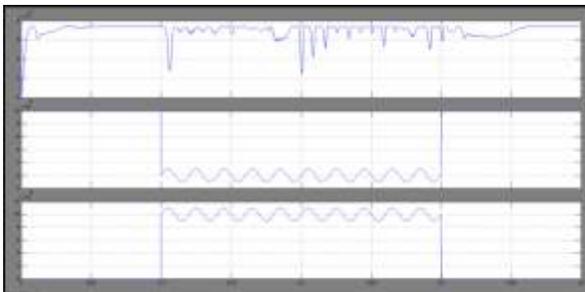


Fig. 13. Short-circuiting the PV panels: (a) overall generated power; (b) injected active power; and (c) reactive power to the grid.

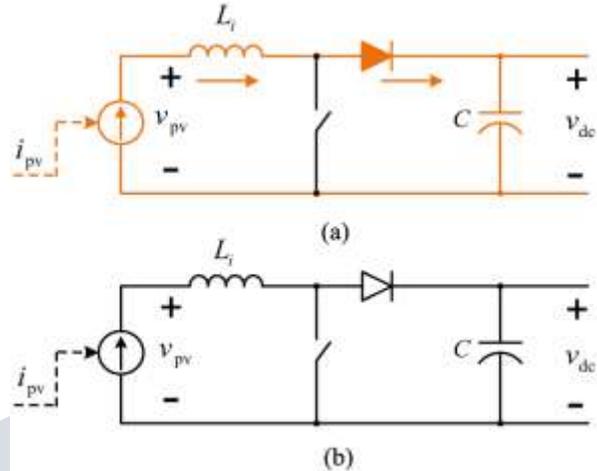


Fig. 14. Current paths in dc–dc converter when turning ON the switch: (a) transition mode and (b) locked in state.

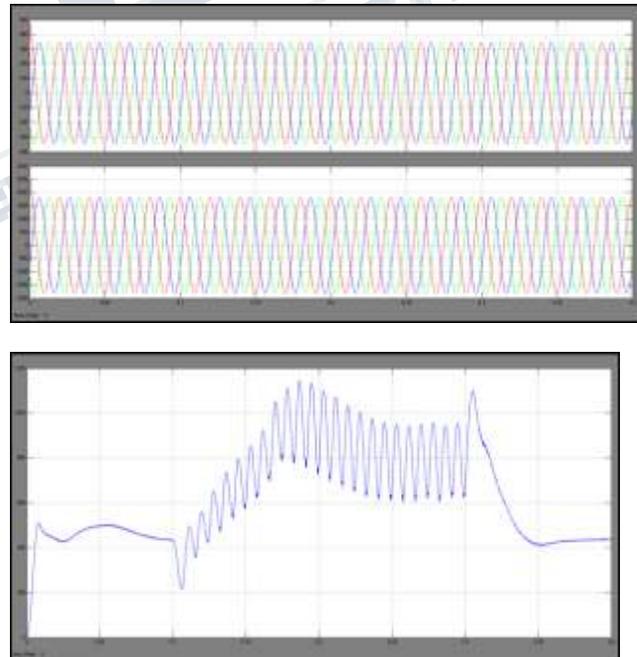


Fig. 15. Turning the dc–dc converter switch ON: (a) grid voltages; (b) grid currents; and (c) dc-link voltage when applying a 60% SLG voltage sag at the MV side

C. Injecting Less Power from the PV Panels.

In the two previous cases, during the voltage sags, there is no power generated by the PV panels and therefore, only reactive current is injected into the grid. However, as mentioned in [21],

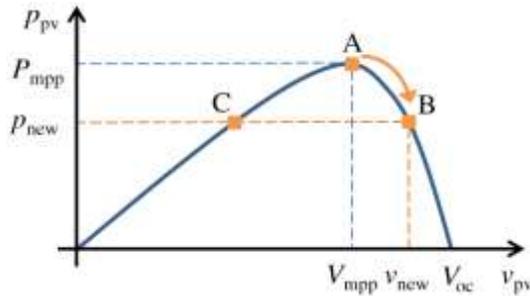


Fig. 16. P–V curve and new power point under voltage sags

The network operator is allowed to feed the grid through the generating power plant during the voltage sags. For this purpose, the GCPFP is controlled to inject less power into the grid during the voltage sag compared with the pre-fault case, while avoiding overvoltage in the dc-link. In normal operation, the MPPT function is performed by the dc–dc converter, whereas the dc-link voltage is regulated by the inverter. However, under a voltage sag, some modifications should be implemented in order to keep the GCPFP grid-connected. The proposed method tries to match the power generated by the PV modules with the power injected into the grid while trying to keep the dc-link voltage constant. Unlike the previous cases of keeping the switch ON or OFF during the voltage sag, in this case, power balance is achieved for a value different from zero. Therefore, both active and reactive currents will be injected into the grid.

In the proposed method, the target of the dc–dc converter is no longer achieving MPP operation but regulating the power generated by the PVs to match the maximum active power that can be injected into the grid. The dc–dc converter is controlled to find a proper value for the PV voltage (v_{pv}) that achieves such power balance. As a result, the operating point should move from point A in Fig. 16 to a lower power point, e.g., either the points B or C. In this paper, moving the operating point in the direction from A to B is applied and analyzed. For this purpose, a positive voltage value Δv_{pv} should be added to the V_{mpp} value that was on hold from the pre-fault situation, as follows:

$$v_{new} = V_{mpp} + \Delta v_{pv} \tag{6}$$

This displacement of the operating point Δv_{pv} is achieved by means of a PI controller that regulates the dc-link voltage to the rated value. In order to achieve a faster dynamic, the energy in the dc-link capacitor (1/2 C v_{dc}²) is regulated instead of the dclink voltage (v_{dc}). The schematic of this controller is shown in Fig. 17 in which the limiter is used to ensure only positive values for Δv_{pv}, in order to force the PV voltage to increase move to the right-side of the MPP, i.e., from A to B in Fig. 16). It should be mentioned that Δv_{pv} is added to the pre fault value only under voltage sags and it is disconnected during normal operation of the GCPFP. To ensure a fast dynamic response and maintaining the stability of the GCPFP, a feed-forward control strategy is proposed and applied to the dc-link control loop. For this purpose, a linear estimation is made based on the P–V curve shown in Fig. 16. Let us suppose the triangle represented by the vertices (p_{mpp}, V_{mpp}), (0, V_{mpp}), and (0, V_{oc}), as depicted in Fig. 18.

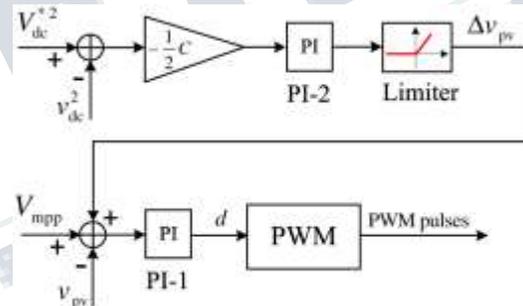


Fig. 17. Adding a controller to the dc–dc converter to force the operating point to move from the MPP to a lower power point

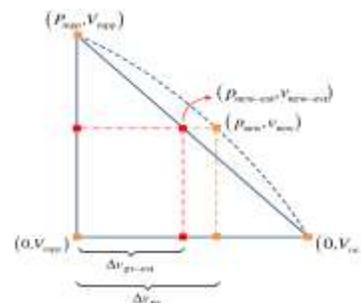


Fig. 18. Triangle used to estimate the new operating point.

The new point (p_{new}, v_{new}) can be estimated by (p_{new-in}, v_{new-in}) on the triangle hypotenuse. According to the Side-Splitter theorem and using interpolation, the estimation of v_{new-in} is

$$v_{new-in} = \frac{p_{new-in}}{p_{mpp}} (V_{mpp} - V_{oc}) + V_{oc} \quad (7)$$

in which p_{mpp} and v_{mpp} represent the pre fault values at the MPP. The p_{new-in} , can be calculated from the power injected into the grid.

$$p_{new-in} \cong p_{out} = e_d i_{dref} \quad (8)$$

Substituting (8) into (7)

$$v_{new-in} = \frac{e_d i_{dref}}{p_{mpp}} (V_{mpp} - V_{oc}) + V_{oc} \quad (9)$$

$$\Delta v_{pv-in} = v_{new-in} - V_{mpp} \quad (10)$$

The value in (10) is added to the controller as a feed-forward term before the limiter in Fig. 17, as shown in Fig. 19. In order to enhance the dynamics of the proposed controller further, another estimation can be derived using (9), which is the estimation of the duty cycle as a feed-forward term, d_{in} . Based on

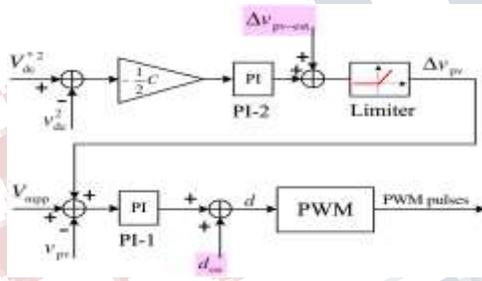


Fig. 19. Updated controller with feed-forward terms to enhance the dynamics of the proposed controller The relationship between the input and the output voltage of the boost dc–dc converter under continuous conduction operating conditions

$$\frac{v_{dc}}{v_{pv}} = \frac{1}{1-d} \quad (11)$$

the estimated duty cycle is

$$d_{in} = 1 - \frac{v_{new-in}}{v_{dc}^*} \quad (12)$$

The updated version of the controller in Fig. 17 is illustrated in Fig. 19, which contains the two feed-forward terms to enhance the dynamics of the proposed controller. The PI controllers PI-1 and PI-2 compensate

for the difference between the estimated and the real values of d and Δv_{pv} , respectively.

The only unknown variable in (9) is i_{dref} . The reason is that in the proposed method, during the voltage sag, the dc-link control loop stops adjusting the active current reference and instead regulates the input voltage of the dc–dc converter (v_{pv}). The method proposed in this paper to estimate i_{dref} is the following. Considering Fig. 4, the maximum value for the i_{dref} is i_{dref} . Depending on the voltage sag depth and solar radiation (G), the value of i_{dref} can be lower or equal to i_{dref} . Therefore, if the active current reference i_{dref} can be estimated, i_{dref} can be obtained as well. If P_{in} is the power generated by the PV array

$$P_{input} \cong e_d i'_{dref} + e_q i_{qref} \quad (13)$$

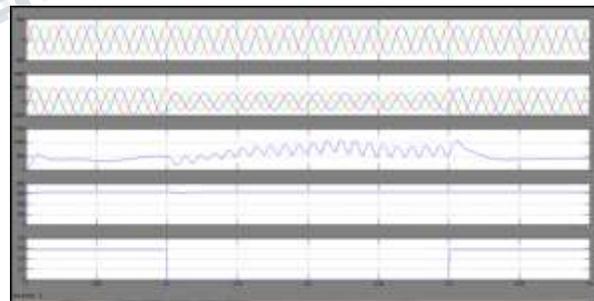
and since e_q is zero, the estimated active current reference is

$$i'_{dref-in} = \frac{P_{input}}{e_d} \quad (14)$$

The maximum acceptable value for the i_{dref} can be obtained based on the pre fault value of P_{in} , i.e., p_{mpp} and e_d as follows

$$i'_{dref-in} = \frac{P_{mpp}}{e_d} \quad (15)$$

The estimated current $i_{dref-in}$ goes through the current limiter and based on the required reactive current reference, i_{dref}



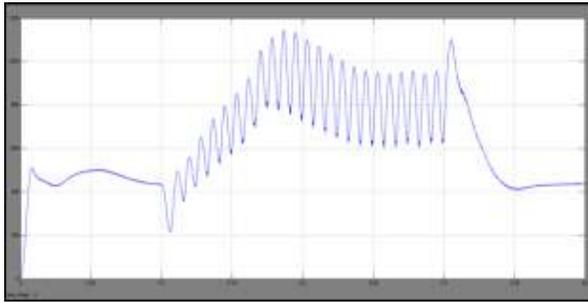


Fig. 20. Control of the dc–dc converter to produce less power under voltage sag: (a) grid voltages; (b) grid currents; (c) dc-link voltage; (d) input voltage of the dc–dc converter; (e) estimated duty cycle; and (f) actual duty cycle under a 3LG with 45% voltage sag at MV side.

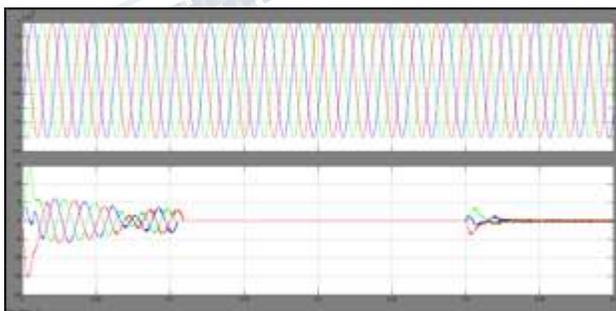
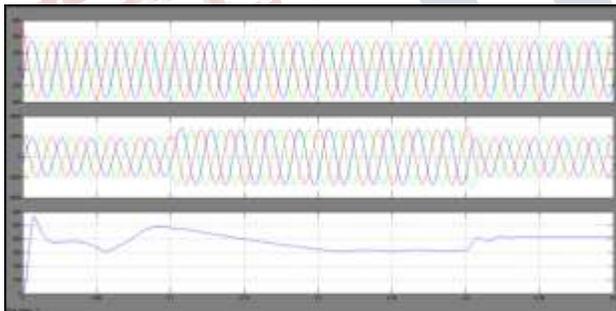
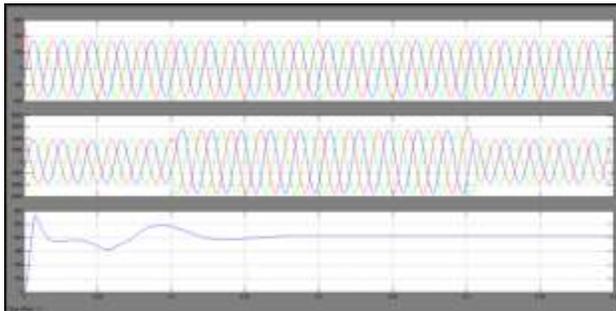


Fig. 21. Control of the dc–dc converter to produce less power under voltage sag: (a) grid voltages under a 3LG with 45% voltage sag at MV side; (b) related grid currents for $G = 300 \text{ W/m}^2$; and (c) related dc-link voltage; (d) grid voltages under an SLG with 65% voltage sag at the MV side; (e) related grid currents for $G = 1000 \text{ W/m}^2$; (f) related dc-link voltage; (g) related grid currents under $G = 300 \text{ W/m}^2$; and (h) related dc-link voltage."

V. CONCLUSION

Performance requirements of GCPPPs under fault conditions for single- and two-stage grid-connected inverters have been addressed in this paper. Some modifications have been proposed for controllers to make the GCPPP ride-through compatible to any type of faults according to the GCs. These modifications include applying current limiters and controlling the dc-link voltage by different methods. It is concluded that for the single-stage configuration, the dc-link voltage is naturally limited and therefore, the GCPPP is self-protected, whereas in the two-stage configuration it is not. Three methods have been proposed for the two-stage configuration to make the GCPPP able to withstand any type of faults according to the GCs without being disconnected. The first two methods are based on not generating any power from the PV arrays during the voltage sags, whereas the third method changes the power point of the PV arrays to inject less power into the grid compared with the pre-fault condition. The validity of all the proposed methods to ride-through voltage sags has been demonstrated by multiple case studies performed by simulations.

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