



SINGLE-PHASE GRID-CONNECTED PHOTOVOLTAIC SYSTEMS WITH DYNAMIC VOLTAGE SUPPORT FOR LOW-VOLTAGE RIDE-THROUGH OPERATION

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Abstract

The article introduces a dynamic voltage support (DVS) scheme designed to achieve low-voltage ride-through (LVRT) with a grid-connected photovoltaic (PV) inverter during voltage sag faults. The DVS scheme involves the development of an additional reactive active current control mode, derived from a conventional reactive current control approach, to ensure stable system operation and improved effectiveness, particularly in low-voltage networks with lower X/R ratios at the point of common coupling. The performance of the proposed controller is evaluated through simulations of a 4 kW system for voltage sag faults and further validated through real-time simulations and experimental setups. The results demonstrate that the active and reactive power are regulated in compliance with grid code requirements, enabling the controller to achieve LVRT within the time limits of grid standards during symmetrical faults, making it suitable for fast transient events. This allows the PV system to operate under its nominal capacity, thereby avoiding undesirable grid disconnection events.

Index Terms—Dynamic voltage support (DVS), low-voltage ride-through (LVRT), reactive power control, single-phase grid connected photovoltaic (PV) system.

I. INTRODUCTION

With the increase in grid integration of renewable energy over the years, power saturation has been an issue with the grid. The emergence of photovoltaic (PV) power and its intermittent nature is considered to be a major contribution to this issue [1]. Further, the integration of smaller PV generations into the grid brings different challenges affecting the grid stability that need to be tackled, especially at the distribution level [2]. Most impacts of grid integrated PV systems are related to unintentional islanding, overloading of feeders, and power quality issues due to unbalanced voltage, dc injection, and flickering [2].

A set of rules has been developed in response to these PV impacts in order to preserve system stability, keep operations within safe bounds, and guarantee grid security [3], [4]. These technical requirements were first placed on wind power systems linked to high-voltage transmission grids, but in recent years, medium- and low-voltage (LV) units that are being connected to the power network have also been subject to them.

PV systems may trip in grid failure scenarios, such as voltage sags, to shield the PV inverters' power electronics components from harm. Therefore, grid rules include stringent criteria on the immunity of the unit to survive these occurrences in order to prevent grid instability brought on by production units tripping in large quantities during fault circumstances. A power converter's internal oscillator has to be tuned in order to maintain synchronisation with the grid and meet the grid's dynamics [5]. Grid synchronisation techniques can be used to ride the system through grid voltage sags since the parameters often employed to meet this objective are the grid voltage and the frequency. Efficient voltage dip detection and precise synchronisation techniques are critical components that enhance the overall control system's dynamic performance and stability margin.

In order to offer a comprehensive variety of ancillary services, such as grid support for PV inverters during grid failures and low-voltage ride-through (LVRT), tive power injection was suggested. To accomplish fault ride-through (FRT) capabilities, the PV characteristics and positive-negative control systems are also covered in [9]. Furthermore, the overload capacity of grid-tied inverters is employed to further strengthen the FRT scheme's supremacy. Typically, these techniques mix external limiters and saturation units with the voltage and current control loops, causing unwanted oscillations and voltage instability. As stated in [10] and [11],

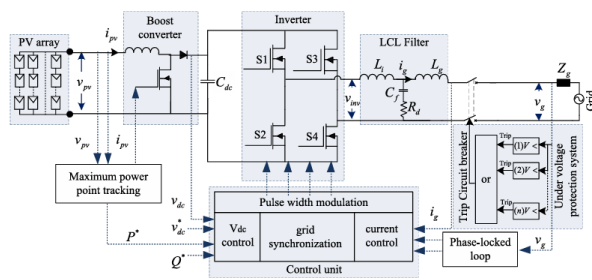


Fig. 1. Two-stage single-phase grid-connected photovoltaic system with control unit.

Given the significance of voltage stability in distributed systems, rooftop PV systems are able to accomplish dynamic voltage support (DVS) and LVRT. Additionally, the authors in [11] determined how inverter design margins affected the voltage stability in the near term and created a novel DVS approach [12]. The devised approach makes use of the PV inverters' maximum permitted current in order to obtain active power support from the PV units. According to [13], local reactive power/voltage and plant-level voltage are coordinated to improve short-term voltage stability and fault-induced delayed voltage recovery in a PV system.

The approaches that were previously explored mostly focused on provide reactive and active power support during symmetrical faults. A smart LVRT controller is created in [14] by determining the PV power and current characteristics and synchronising the ride-through controller and maximum power point tracking (MPPT) functions. In order to provide active and reactive power injection control during severe failures, a peak current limiter is presented here. Additionally, employing the grid voltage as a feedforward signal, intelligent power injection techniques [16] and learning-based approaches [15] were used to develop smart inverters.

were created by feeding forward signals derived from the grid voltage. Although these expects have shown to enhance the current controller's performance, they may have measurement delays that compromise the stability of the inverter's operation. In addition to the tactics mentioned above, there is literature on sliding mode control [18] and model predictive power control [17] based voltage support capabilities for grid-connected systems. These control strategies conflict with the discrete character of the power electronics converter and respond slowly. They are also less flexible.

Given the aforementioned problems, this study highlights the challenge of managing a high X/R ratio in LV networks and offering DVS to grid-connected PV systems (GCPVS) in order to achieve LVRT/FRT in the literature. An extra reactive active current control (ARACC) mode is developed to accomplish the DVS in order to address the concerns that have been observed. The traditional reactive current control (RCC) technique, which is frequently employed with systems with a low X/R ratio, provides the basis for the development of the ARACC

= v_g , the grid voltage v_g is in the same quadrant as virtual voltage $v_g\beta$, so where grid voltage amplitude is indicated by v_{gm} .

The current controller is based on a proportional-resonant (PR) controller [5], which can follow a sinusoidal reference signal at the resonant frequency without incurring any steady-state error. It is accomplished because there is a large gain in the PR controller around the resonance frequency [5]. The transfer function for the inverter is calculated using the sample and the delay added for the pulsewidth modulation generator [5]. The grid voltage differential between the inverter output and grid voltage is sent into the grid filter transfer function, which produces grid feedback current, an input to the PR controller. In the study that is being reported, harmonic compensation is achieved by combining a repeating controller with a PR controller [25].

The current controller's expression may be expressed as follows: PRcontroller, a basic frequency controller, is represented by $G_{PR}(s)$. GRC is the abbreviation for the repetitive controller (s). The PR controller's resonant control gain is shown by k_{ir} , while k_{pr} presents the proportional control gain. ω_0 represents the fundamental grid frequency; k_{rc} indicates the RC controller gain; and $T_0 = 2\pi/\omega_0$ represents the fundamental period. The low pass filter $Q(s)$ and the phase-lead compensator $G_f(s) = e^{-sT_c}$, which has a compensation time T_c , are parameters that improve the robustness of the controller [26].

$$G_{cc}(s) = G_{PR}(s) + G_{RC}(s) = k_{pr} + \frac{k_{ir}}{s^2 + \omega_0^2} + \frac{k_{rc}Q(s)e^{-sT_0}}{1 - Q(s)e^{-sT_0}}G_f(s) \quad (3)$$

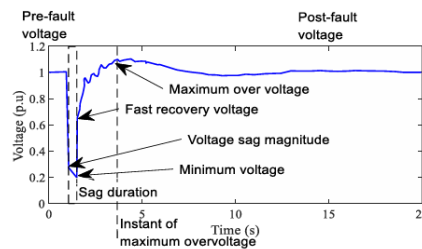


Fig. 3. Characteristics of fault induced voltage sag.

III. FAULT RIDE-THROUGH CONTROL

The pertinent GCPV operating modes that affect power system stability—namely, fault-induced delayed voltage recovery and short-term voltage stability—are listed in this section. These control modes often refer to LVRT and DVS capabilities, which specify cutting-edge specifications and configurations in accordance with global standards and grid codes. The main objective is to take into account control modes, namely voltage control modes that affect short-term voltage dynamics. Three distinct control modes are taken into consideration for the PV system's reaction to grid problems, particularly voltage sag.

No LVRT Capability (No LVRT): This mode makes use of the PV plant's undervoltage safety technology, as seen in Fig.

1. In this scenario, the PV inverter separates from the grid if the voltage fluctuates within $\pm 6\%$ of the nominal voltage for longer than the allotted two seconds [27], [28]. Fig. 1 shows the protective relay under consideration. The voltage restrictions and time delays are specified in the undervoltage protection function using the rms values that are extracted from the momentary values. The OR function receives the tripping signal and uses it to open the circuit breaker and disconnect the PV plant.

LVRT and Blocking Mode: This control mode takes into account the PV's blocking ability as well as its LVRT. The PV system's capacity to stay connected to the grid during voltage sag is facilitated by its LVRT capabilities, or more broadly, its FRT capability. Fig. 3 displays the LVRT feature that is being investigated.

The PV system must remain connected to the grid and ride through the fault if the voltage throughout the fault-on time is within the no-trip region. However, if the voltage falls below the LVRT characteristic, the PV system could disconnect. As seen in Fig. 1, a stepwise under-voltage protection system with n functions may be used in practice to provide the LVRT capabilities. The way that active and reactive current behaves during the fault-on

time is the second feature of this control method. Blocking, in this regard, indicates that the PV system does not function in grid feeding or supporting mode throughout the fault-on duration. In the literature, this is also referred to as the zero power mode or the brief cessation mode and is used with several inverters [29].

DVS: Also referred to as dynamic reactive power support or dynamic voltage control, this control mode feature provides voltage support during a disturbance. As seen in Fig. 4, the DVS capability defines an extra reactive current injection that is proportionate to the voltage deviation. The themes that connect with RCC are as follows:

$$I_{Flt} = \bar{I}_0 + \Delta I(\Delta V) = I_{d,Flt} + jI_{q,Flt} \quad (4)$$

Fig.4. Dynamic voltage support through reactive current control mode.

where I_d, Flt , and I_q, Flt are the direct and quadratic axis current phasor magnitudes during fault mode, respectively; ΔI is additional current injection during fault mode; ΔV is voltage deviation from prefault value; and I_0 is the prefaults current phasor magnitude.

Further,

$$\Delta I(\Delta V) = e^{j(\phi_0 + \frac{\pi}{2})} \cdot \begin{cases} 0, & |\Delta V| \leq V_{DB} \\ k_{RCC} \cdot [\Delta V \mp V_{DB}], & |\Delta V| > V_{DB} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where V_{DB} is voltage-gated edge band for quick voltage control, ϕ_0 is the voltage angle of grid equivalent, and k_{RCC} is the controller gain for RCC

$$\Delta V = V - \bar{V}_0 \quad (6)$$

where V_0 is the average voltage phasor value and V is the voltage.

$$\bar{I}_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_{t-T}^t I(t') dt' \quad (7)$$

where ϕ is the current phase and with current restriction, and τ is the time constant, time in [s], and time in p.u.

$$\bar{V}_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_{t-T}^t V(t') dt' \quad (8)$$

$$I_{q,Flt} = \bar{I}_{q,0} + \Delta I_q = \min \left(\bar{I}_{q,0} + k_{RCC} \cdot [(\Delta V) \mp V_{DB}], I_{max} \right) \quad (9)$$

where I_{max} is the maximum current, ΔI_q is the change in the value of the quadratic axis current component, and I_q is the quadratic axis current phase or magnitude during the prefault mode.

$$I_{max}^0 = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } i_{FRT_CI_PRIO_MOD} = 0 \\ \min(I_{max} - I_{q,Flt}), & \text{for } i_{FRT_CI_PRIO_MOD} = 1 \\ \min \left(\sqrt{(I_{max})^2 - (I_{q,Flt})^2} \right), & \text{for } i_{FRT_CI_PRIO_MOD} = 2 \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

where the current priority mode is $i_{FRT_CI_PRIO_MOD}$: where v_{pv} is the PV system's voltage output and $i_{FRT_CI_STAB}$ is enhanced stability during fault by voltage dependant ID reduction: 0=no; 1=yes. 1=arithmetic(abs), 2=geometric(sqrt), and other setother value to zero.

$$I_{max}^0 = \begin{cases} I_{max}, & \text{for } i_{FRT_CI_STAB} = 0 \\ \bar{I}_{d,0} \cdot (v_{pv})^2, & \text{for } i_{FRT_CI_STAB} = 1 \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

Fig.5. Dynamic voltage support through additional reactive and active current control mode.

Adjusting the impedance angle at the PCC allows the PV inverter to inject extra reactive and active current (ARAC), which is the last fault control option. Fig. 5 shows the block representation for the suggested method of operation. Thematics relating to reactive and active current control are provided in (11).

$$I_{Filt}^0 = \bar{I}_0 + \Delta I (\Delta V) = I_{d,Filt}^0 + jI_{q,Filt}^0 \quad (12)$$

$$I_{Filt} = I_{Filt}^0 \cdot F_{max} = I_{d,Filt} + jI_{q,Filt} \quad (13)$$

0 in the superscript indicates an unbounded amount, and Fmax is the current limits scaling factor in the fault control mode.

$$\Delta I (\Delta V) = e^{j(\phi_q + \Psi_{ARACC})} \cdot \begin{cases} 0, & |\Delta V| \leq V_{DB} \\ k_{RACC} \cdot [\Delta V \mp V_{DB}], & |\Delta V| > V_{DB} \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

where RCC is the controller for both RCC and active. Additionally, with the current limitation.

$$I_{q,Filt} = I_{q,Filt}^0 \cdot F_{max} \quad (15)$$

$$I_{d,Filt} = I_{d,Filt}^0 \cdot F_{max} \quad (16)$$

$$I_{q,Filt}^0 = I_{q,0} + \Delta I_q = I_{q,0} + [k_{RACC} \cdot [\Delta V \mp V_{DB}] \cdot \sin(\Psi_{ARACC})] \quad (17)$$

$$I_{d,Filt}^0 = I_{d,0} + \Delta I_d = I_{d,0} + [k_{RACC} \cdot [\Delta V \mp V_{DB}] \cdot \cos(\Psi_{ARACC})] \quad (18)$$

where

$$I_{d,0} = \begin{cases} I_{d,0}, & \text{for } i_{PRE_CL_STAB} = 0 \\ I_{d,0} \cdot (V_{DC})^2, & \text{for } i_{PRE_CL_STAB} = 1 \end{cases} \quad (19)$$

$$F_{max} = \min \left(\frac{I_{max}}{I_{Filt}^0} \right) \quad (20)$$

For the injected ARAC, the direct and quadrature axes are shown in Fig. 6. Figure shows that when active current is injected during a voltage decrease, the active power does not always rise. Moreover, positive active power injection ($S = V \angle \phi \cdot I^* = P + jQ = (V \angle \phi) \cdot (I_d - jI_q)$) is indicated by the active sign convection. Negative reactive power exchange ($I_q > 0$) results in voltage decreases during the pre-fault current. Positive reactive power exchange ($I_q < 0$) results in voltage increases during full dynamic network support.

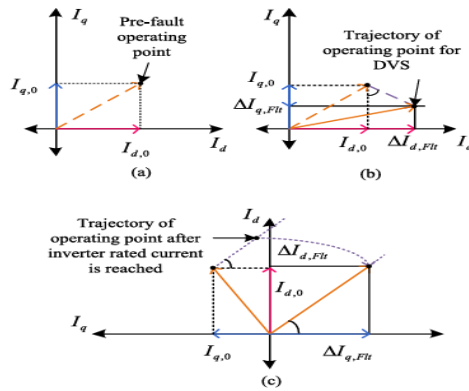


Fig. 6. Scaling of direct and quadrature axis current in additional reactive and active current control mode.

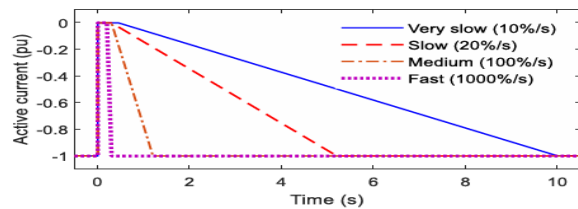


Fig. 7. Active current recovery rate during the postfault period.

In addition, the duration until the PV system's active power is recovered following a disturbance is ascertained by measuring the active current recovery rate during the postfault period. The recovery rates under consideration are categorised as extremely slow, moderate, medium, and quick recovery, as seen in Fig. 7. To restore the PV plant's active current during the extremely slow and recovery modes, the recovery rate should be 10%/s and 20%/s, respectively [29].

However, the recovery rate is 100%/s for the medium recovery mode and 1000%/s for the rapid recovery option. These figures represent the lowest bounds established for faults lasting longer than 140 ms [30].

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Simulation Analysis:

The two-stage single-phase GCPVS simulation in conjunction with to implement the DVS system mentioned in Section III, MATLAB/Simulink 2017b is used. The criteria for design and control of the system connected to the grid are displayed in Table I.

System parameter	Value
PV array nominal power	4 kW
DC-DC Boost converter	5 kHz, 500 V
Boost converter inductance	10 mH
DC link capacitance	2400 μ F
DC link Voltage	400 V
Voltage at PCC	230 V_{rms}
Inverter side filter inductance	2.18 mH
Grid side filter inductance	1 mH
Filter capacitance	2.2 μ F
DC voltage controller gain	-12976
AC voltage controller gain	-0.5
Reactive power control gain	-0.226755
Reactive power control time constant	0.002205 secs
Gain for ARACC	6 p. u.
Impedance angle at PCC	90 ^o

Table I

OVERALL SYSTEM DESCRIPTION FOR 4 KW GCPVS WITH CONTROL PARAMETERS

A balanced V_{rms} 230 V ac is considered as the nominal voltage at V_{pcc} . It is customary to set the dead-band to $\pm 10\%$ of the prefault voltage magnitude [1], [2]. The Bureau of Indian Standards' National Electric Code's grid support restrictions serve as the basis for both the modelling and experimental components of the work [31], [32].

The grid code states that the grid-connected PV system must function continuously even in the face of grid anomalies that result in voltage drops in order to operate within predetermined safety limits. By repairing the voltage drop that happened during the grid irregularity, the grid-connected system should be able to regain active power at a quick pace. The time to recovery of the system is 2 s for abnormal grid circumstances that result in a voltage sag variation between 0.5 and 0.9 p.u., and 0.5 s for abnormal grid conditions that result in a voltage sag that falls below 0.5 p.u. The PV system has to be able to cut itself off from the grid's aberrant activity when it reaches this limit.

Additionally, in order to assess the efficacy of the established ARACC technique in meeting the aforementioned objectives, several modes are evaluated by injecting a line to ground (LG) sag fault using design and control parameters that are covered in Table I on the GCPVS.

scenario 1:

A voltage decrease of more than 6% of the nominal voltage is scenario

1. The influence of the LG-sag fault is seen in Fig. 8 at $t = 0.2$ s, and the V_{PCC} drops from 230 V at steady-state to 200 V. Here, the designed controller causes the current to grow to 18 A and the active power (PPCC) to drop, leading to the rise of reactive power (QPCC). The power at PPCC drops to 2.8 kW as a result of voltage sag, and 1 kV of reactive power is injected to bring the voltage back up.

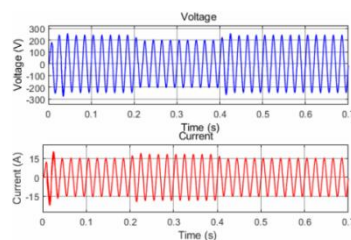


Fig. 8. Voltage and current at the point of common coupling for voltage drop more than 6%.

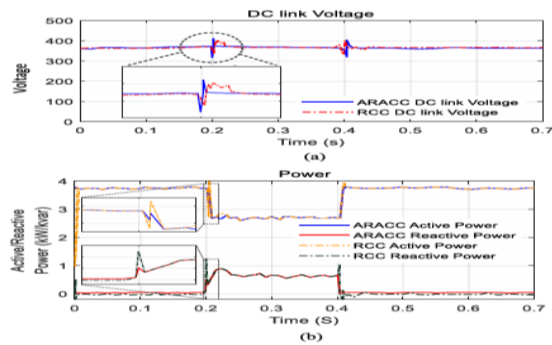


Fig. 9. Characteristics of GCPV with RCC and ARACC for voltage drop more than 6%. (a) DC link voltage during voltage sag fault. (b) Active and reactive power during voltage sag.

The outcomes of RCC and ARACC's combined efforts to attain LVRT are shown in Fig. 9 under simulated conditions. The findings show that there are substantial transients in the dc link voltage, active power, and reactive power during and after the LVRT operation when the system is operated with RCC. These transients lead to the system operating out of balance, which can lead to component or system failure. Furthermore, as needed by FRT regulations, the PV inverter is assisted in riding through the fault by the action of ARACC under the voltage sag circumstances previously discussed. The suggested control strategy acts to clear the issue in 0.2 seconds. Additionally, the active current recovery rate is 100%/s and the dc link voltage is controlled at around 400 Vdc.

Situation 2: A drop in voltage of more than 50% of the normal voltage

In line with the previous scenario, the VPCC drops from a steady-state at $t = 0.2$ seconds, and the influence of the LG-sag fault is shown. 230 to 110 V, as seen in Figure 10. A reactive power injection of 2.1 kvar is made to restore the voltage when the power at PPCC drops to 1.2 kW due to voltage sag. As seen in Fig. 11, the LVRT is attained using the RCC and ARACC.

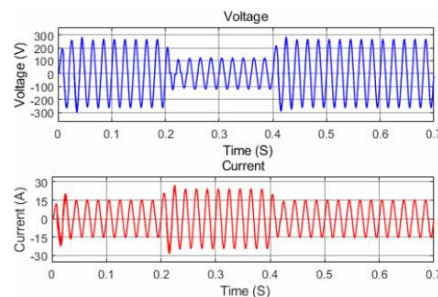


Fig. 10. Voltage and current at the point of common coupling for voltage drop more than 50%.

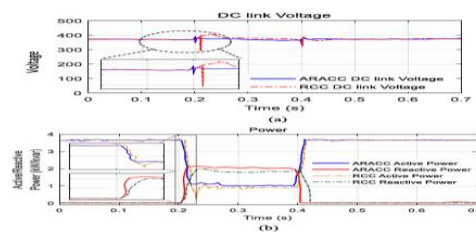


Fig. 11. Characteristics of GCPV with RCC and ARACC for voltage drop more than 50%. (a) DC link voltage during voltage sag fault (b) Active and reactive power during voltage sag.

In this case, the reactive power (QPCC) rises while the active power (PPCC) falls, reaching the RCC at 25 A. From the data, it is found that while operating the system with RCC, there are large transients in the dc link voltage, active, and reactive power both during and following the LVRT operation at the time of the voltage sag fault. Additionally, during RCC operation, there were transients in the dc link voltage, which had an effect on the system's active power. These transients lead to an imbalance in the system's functioning, which can lead to component or system failure. Furthermore, in accordance with FRT standards, the ARACC mode assists the PV inverter to ride through the fault. The suggested control strategy acts to clear the issue in 0.2 seconds.

Moreover, the designed controller operates efficiently since the dc link voltage is controlled at around 400 Vdc and the active current recovery rate is 100%/s.

System	Parameter	Values
PV Array Simulator 4 kW _p using (Topsun solar 250 W Modules)	Module Characteristics	
	Power (P_{max})	250 W
	Short circuit current of the module (I_{sc})	14.6 A
	Open circuit voltage of the module (V_{oc})	22 V
	Maximum power point current (I_{mpp})	13.9 A
	Maximum power point voltage (V_{mpp})	18 V
Inverter Stack (Semikron) [33]	DC bus voltage	1100 V _{dc}
	Maximum continuous output current	600 A to 1200 A _{rms}
	Switching Frequency	5 kHz
	Maximum inverter output voltage	690 V _{Ac}
ST microelectronics STGB30NC60K IGBT	Collector emitter voltage	600 V
	Continuous collector current at 25°C temperature	60 A
Fairchild RURP1560 diodes	DC blocking voltage	600 V
	Average rectified forward current	15 A
	Output power	30 kVA
Grid Simulator	Output voltage	0~300 V
	Output frequency	30 Hz – 100 Hz

TABLE II

DETAILS OF 4 KWSINGLE-PHASE GRID-CONNECTED SOLAR PHOTOVOLTAIC SYSTEMS EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

V. CONCLUSION

In order to accomplish LVRT in single-phase GCPVS, this study designed an extra reactive active power control mode for DVS. Ageneric GCPVS models are developed initially. Additionally, the DVS and the active current recovery rate management modes that affect the power system's dynamic performance—more especially, its short-term dynamics—are identified. When a defect is detected, the DVS is accomplished by adding more active and reactive current components to the PCC voltage within the allotted time frame. The suggested controller maintained the PV system's operation at its nominal capacity by preventing unintentional grid disconnection events, controlled active and reactive power, and achieved LVRT within the time constraints of the grid standard for the different voltage sag levels tested during the research.

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