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Dynamic Performance Evaluation of Inverter Feeding a Weak Grid Considering Variable System Parameters

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\textbf{ABSTRACT} Interfacing a weak grid imposes challenges on distributed generators (DGs). These challenges include transient frequency and voltage dynamics that can destabilize the system. Accordingly, this paper investigates the grid stiffness based on different scenarios and the dynamics of a grid feeding DG connected to a weak grid. Moreover, the dynamic effects of the physical and control parameters on the system’s stability are deeply analyzed and evaluated. Specifically, complete mathematical models and graphical representation are carried out to precisely examine the impact of the system parameters on the stability and performance of the DG. Therefore, stable deployment of renewable energy resources into power networks can be achieved as well as an efficient and robust performance of DGs can be ensured when connected to weak grids. The obtained results show the importance of the performed study in optimal sizing and designing the output filter of the inverter and the impact of tuning the control parameters on the system dynamics. As a result, a proper design of system physical and control parameters can be accurately achieved considering all factors affect the system performance. The paper also conducts detailed and elaborated analyses and simulations to evaluate the performance of a PI-controlled RC damped inverter connected to a weak grid. The proposed filter design of the interfacing inverter can significantly extend the integration of DGs into microgrids without requiring complex control schemes or oversized components.

\textbf{INDEX TERMS} Distributed generator, dynamic performance, frequency, stability, transient, weak grid.

\section{I. INTRODUCTION}
A weak grid usually describes a power network with a voltage distortion present at the point of connection (POC) \cite{1}. The distortion occurs due to the highly inductive and resistive characteristics of the POC. The determination and classification of a grid stiffness are performed essentially based on the grid short circuit ratio (SCR) calculated using the grid impedance values. However, different indices have also been employed to describe and quantify the grid stiffness. Small grid impedance values result in a stiff grid with a high SCR. Large values of grid impedance seen at the POC result in a low SCR due to the increased voltage drop at the transmission lines \cite{2}--\cite{4}. This, in turn, deteriorates the voltage quality and the power transfer capability of the grid. Accordingly, the low SCR problem can be mitigated by connecting reactive power injectors; however, this solution increases the complexity and cost of the system \cite{5}, \cite{6}. While the grid resistance impacts the magnitude of the POC voltage, a large variation in the grid inductance not only affects the voltage magnitude but also creates a phase shift that affects the active power flow at the POC. Moreover, increasing grid impedance value significantly affects the performance of the DG control that is
tuned according to the known impedance value incorporated in the current control loop.

Practically, weak grid connection restricts active and reactive power injection. This restriction is also affected by the voltage stability limits of the system (which governs the flow of the reactive power) that is inversely proportional to the $X/R$ ratio. The control of reactive power is associated with the characteristics of POC as reactive power injection depends on short-circuit capacity of the system, the equivalent impedance seen by the DG, and the type of the connected DG.

It is important to mention that both active and reactive power play essential roles in weak grid. The voltage profile in such weak connection is prone to instability under small disturbances where the voltage fluctuations are increased due to the enlarged transient energy transacted between the high grid impedance and the system components. The active power that is controlled through the phase angle of the voltage bus experiences severe dynamics when the phase swings due to the transient energy stored in the high impedance of the weak grid. In turn, the reactive power dynamics that affect the voltage magnitude and thereby voltage regulation of the connected bus are increased and exhibits poor management in weak grids. Furthermore, the natural coupling between the active and reactive power would affect both profiles under any disturbance due to their inherent interaction [6]–[8].

To improve the power quality of a grid-feeding DG, it is essential to know the real value of grid impedance. In many studies, the value of grid impedance is either fixed or estimated using different offline methods. Determining the grid impedance can be difficult since it is not constant and changes depending on the number of sources connected to the grid. To have a reliable control with a decent power quality profile, online determination of grid impedance in real-time can improve the performance of grid feeding DGs [9], [10].

Flexible ac transmission system (FACTS) devices can provide potential solutions for power quality and grid voltage-related issues especially in weak grid cases [5], [8]. In particular, to enhance the controllability of reactive power sharing and stabilize the grid voltage dynamics, different FACTS devices such as static Var compensator (SVC), unified power flow controller (UPFC), in addition to on-load tap changer mechanism are utilized to effectively regulate the reactive power sharing in a weak grid connection [5]. Among diverse FACTS variants, dynamic voltage restorers are the most prominent mechanisms used to alleviate power quality issues, that help maximizing the deployment of renewable DGs into power networks [7], [8].

Renewable DGs connected to weak grids have been studied in literature under different stiffness boundaries and aspects, especially in wind energy systems connected to high voltage networks [9]. Weak grids have been characterized for their low inertia [11], [12], low short circuit ratio [2], [3], high impedance value [9]–[12], and poor reactive power support [1], [2]. The existence of one or more criterion is enough to consider the grid as a weak grid. Therefore, attention needs to be paid when interfacing power electronic-based DGs that have complex controllers with a weak grid. DGs are sensitive to disturbances and the consequences of these disturbances have higher impacts on voltage and frequency stability profiles than conventional synchronous generators. Therefore, any load change or source switching may significantly affect system dynamics [17]. The sensitivity becomes of more concern when DGs are interfaced with weak grids. The voltage and frequency dynamics may lead to unstable operation if no proper control schemes and damping mechanisms are employed [17]–[19]. Efficient and high bandwidth controllers have to be designed to accommodate the dynamics and disturbances. Since the control actions depend on the system parameters, proper grid parameters’ measurement is always required to ensure stabilized operation of the system under variable loading conditions and variable system configuration that influence impedance shape of the equivalent circuit. For these reasons, DGs require accurate controller tuning with sufficient bandwidth to ensure a stable grid-feeding source [20]–[23].

According to IEEE-1574 (interconnecting distributed resources with electric power systems standard) [24]–[26], the permissible frequency variation for grid-connected inverters is 1% for under-frequency and 0.8% for over-frequency deviations [26].

The stiffness classification discussed in the literature does not have a unified definition in terms of the stiffness range. This is attributed to the different criteria and assumptions involved in analyzing the system from stability and controllers’ design point of view. Parameters required to identify the stiffness of POC should be obtained to judge the stiffness level of the system. However, in most cases, it difficult to obtain the right values under all operating conditions. Fig. 1 shows an illustrative flowchart that includes the classification reported in the literature and helps to summarize several general aspects involved in investigating the stiffness level of the POC. The flowchart considers the primary criteria that affect the stiffness of the system and explains the associated dynamics in steady-state and transient operating modes.

The authors in [21] showed that the grid distortion increases the challenge of stabilizing the system even with...
small disturbance when the grid’s inductive performance shifts the resonance frequency toward a lower frequency range. This is because the harmonic interactions induce the system instability and minimize the stability margins. Mitigating the impact of harmonic resonance interaction is associated with shifting the impedance intersection point to a higher possible frequency value where the harmonics have significantly low amplitudes. This point is found when the output impedance of the inverter (\(Z_{inv}\)) equals the grid impedance (\(Z_g\)) at the resonance frequency (\(\omega_{res}\)). The work done in [27] showed that if the phase margin at the intersection point of a weak system is not large enough, the harmonic at this frequency will be amplified. Therefore, to ensure better resonance damping, the phase margin needs to be at least 30° (which is considered a high enough margin). The work reported in [28] showed that as the controller bandwidth is restricted for stability and noise purposes, one way to shift the resonance frequency is to employ an outer current loop with a multiple proportional resonance (PR) controller based on the predetermined resonance frequencies. This technique shapes the impedance of the output filter at the target frequencies through selective harmonic elimination. In [29], the authors proposed a proper optimal design for passive damping filter topology to mitigate the resonance problem that appears in the system. Many other works found in the literature characterized the weak-grid term by adding a relatively large inductance in series with the grid voltage in either renewable sources stability studies or in low voltage ride-through capability calculation for stability studies.

To cover the abovementioned research gap, this paper aims to extend the work done in the literature and investigates the effect of the system’s physical and control parameters to obtain accurate modeling and efficient control design of grid-connected DG. Therefore, the dynamic performance of the system can be enhanced under significant disturbances, and the stability margins can be enlarged to tolerate larger disturbances. The majority of the work reported in the literature dealt with the weak grid challenge by designing complex controllers and nested control loops. In this work, the effect of physical circuit components and control parameters on the performance of (i) active and reactive power-sharing profiles, (ii) voltage stability, and (iii) frequency stability are investigated under different scenarios implementing a well-tuned PI-control. The dynamic performance of the system is examined under grid sag, variable grid impedance, and step-change in the connected load.

By studying and analyzing the system stability and performance under both steady-state and transient operating conditions, the contributions of the proposed work can be summarized as:

- Investigating the effect of the system and controller parameters’ change on system performance for (i) optimal tuning of control parameters, and (ii) optimal filter components sizing,
- Constructing a complete transfer-function-based mathematical model, and block-diagram representation to precisely examine and visualize the impact of the scheme’s parameters on the stability and performance of grid-connected DG.
- Identifying the real and reactive control more precisely and provides a basis for stiffness identification, characterization, and classification.
- Showing the significant impact of filter impedance (\(|Z_f|\)) to grid impedance ratio (i.e., \(|Z_f/Z_g|\)) on the voltage and frequency stability.

The system considered in this study is shown in Fig. 2 where the inverter is fed from any renewable energy source and the output filter is an RC-damped filter. Practically, more than one generator can be connected to the grid even through parallel or distributed configurations. As the distributed lines affect the total impedance, the difference between these configurations is the equivalent impedance seen by the DG. In this work, we focus on a local solution to ensure stable deployment of each inverter-based renewable energy resource individually. Accordingly, the proposed solution can be used with multiple resources in a decentralized control scheme in which each resource works freely utilizing local measurements by the proposed solution.

![FIGURE 2. The equivalent circuit of grid feeding DG.](image-url)

This paper is organized as follows: Section II presents the mathematical modeling of the DG interface to a high impedance grid and the active and reactive power equation depending on the coupling impedance. Section III evaluates the effect of grid stiffness on inverter stability by providing the complete modeling and block diagram representation. Section IV provides equivalent impedance determination and parameters effect analysis based on the modeling performed in section III. Section V shows the system modeling and dynamic simulation results. Section VI concludes the work carried out in the paper.

II. DG INTERFACE TO HIGH IMPEDANCE GRID

This part analyzes the effect of grid and inverter parameters on the system transient performance, including system modeling, grid analysis under different stiffness levels, and study the effect of parameter variation on voltage and frequency stability. Characterizing the grid stiffness should be considered for stable and efficient DG operation.
A. SCR RATIO CRITERION

The first aspect of identifying the grid connection is the SCR which represents the main criterion of grid stiffness. The higher the SCR, the stiffer the grid. A higher SCR value indicates larger currents delivered to the grid with an insignificant voltage drop. In other words, the phase shift between the current and the voltage of the POC is minimized so that significant voltage drop. In other words, the phase shift between the current and the voltage of the POC is minimized so that the grid power delivered to the grid and the transmission efficiency can be maximized.

SCR can be quantified as a function of the grid equivalent circuit by the ratio of the short circuit power to the nominal power of the system (\( \text{VA}_{\text{nom}} \)) (i.e. per unit short circuit capacity) as given in (1).

\[
\text{SCR} (R_g, X_g) = \frac{(V_g)^2}{|Z_g|} = \frac{V_{g}^2}{\text{VA}_{\text{nom}} \left( \frac{R_g^2 + X_g^2}{Z_g^2} \right)}
\]  

where \( V_g \) and \( Z_g \) are grid voltage and impedance, respectively, \( R_g \) and \( X_g \) are the equivalent resistance and reactance of the grid impedance. Therefore, SCR value is inversely proportional to grid impedance. Several power system studies and standards, especially those of high voltage wind energy systems, consider a stiff grid with SCR equals to 10 or above and a weak grid for SCR less than 3 [14], [15], [30]–[32]. In a different research, an SCR equals to 3 or above is sufficient to consider the grid as strong considering the type of the connected inverter and the applied control [16]. Typically, DG connected to remote rural networks has very low SCR that endangers the voltage stability under any step change in the loadings or in generation [33], [34].

A smaller SCR value of the point where the DG is connected to the grid leads to several voltage issues. Voltage sag, swelling, spiking, and long-term distortion are among the most occurring issues in such systems with low SCR. These issues deteriorate the power quality of the system and impose extra challenges on the connected DG. At certain levels, voltage fluctuation induces voltage instability and causes undesirable system tripping.

B. X/R RATIO CRITERION

The second important aspect when DG is connected to the grid is X/R ratio. DG controllers can independently control the active and reactive power delivered to the grid. This can be efficiently achieved when the coupling between a DG and a grid is mostly inductive (i.e., the resistance is negligible). Based on the complex power delivered to the grid given in (2), the active and reactive power equations can be given as in (3) and (4), respectively.

\[
S = VI^* = \frac{V_g V_{\text{inv}} \angle \theta - \delta}{|Z|} - \frac{V_{g}^2 \angle \theta}{Z}
\]

\[
P = \frac{V_g V_{\text{inv}} \cos (\theta - \delta) - V_{g}^2 \cos (\theta)}{|Z|}
\]

\[
Q = \frac{V_g V_{\text{inv}} \sin (\theta - \delta) - V_{g}^2 \sin (\theta)}{|Z|}
\]

where \( \delta \) is the voltage angle of the inverter considering the grid voltage angle is taken as a reference. Thus, (3) and (4) can be represented in their simplified forms as in (5.a) and (5.b).

\[
P = \frac{V_{g} V_{\text{inv}}}{R^2 + X^2} - \frac{V_{g}^2 R}{R^2 + X^2}
\]

\[
Q = \frac{V_{g} V_{\text{inv}}}{R^2 + X^2} - \frac{V_{g}^2 X}{R^2 + X^2}
\]

For the power coupling problem appears in (5), any change in active power command of the DG will dictate an undesired change in reactive power output and vice versa. This issue limits the power transfer capacity of the grid-connected system and impedes the control flexibility in achieving independent control of active and reactive power. Thus, this limitation imposes a new grid stiffness aspect that worsen the voltage, control, and power quality of the system. In real systems, higher X/R ratio of distribution lines yields a lower voltage regulation of the distribution feeder as seen in rural electrification. As a result, large voltage variation occurs and poor power quality, as well as, voltage stress problems appears. It is worthy to point out that, X/R ratio is also incorporated in SCR equation presented in (1), where the increased ratio X/R yields a poorer SCR value.

C. INERTIA CONSTANT (H) CRITERION

When a power converter interfaces a grid, the third stiffness criterion that appears during the transient is inertia. The voltage stiffness imposes frequency stiffness since both the magnitude and the phase of the voltage are affected during transients. The well-known swing equation describes this situation based on the inertia constant (H) [35]. The inverter-based DG as a non-inertial source is required to provide virtual inertia to support the frequency stability and improves the frequency profile. Virtual inertia sources and virtual synchronous machines have been proposed to enhance the frequency dynamics of DGs. The biggest challenge appears when a grid impedance increases and the inverter undergoes a transient event. The system experiences larger voltage and frequency oscillation during disturbances, which may quickly hit the stability boundaries. In this case, the dc-link voltage fluctuates significantly due to the disturbance and may become unstable [16], [36].

III. EVALUATING THE EFFECT OF GRID STIFFNESS ON INVERTER STABILITY

Interfacing DG to weak grids is of special concern, as the grid weakness imposes new challenges on inverter operation. Under weak-grid conditions, grid impedance variation will contaminate the voltage waveform by harmonics and augments the resonance, which in turn destabilizes the performance of the inverter and degrade the power quality. In particular, even though the grid harmonics affect the steady-state operation of the system, its impact on the transient is rather complex and severe. This is because the PLL control loop requires more time to chase the fundamental
phase information and the error of its PI control converges to zero after several cycles. As a matter of fact, this delay time would drive the system into unstable operation mode if the harmonic contamination increases or a stronger disturbance occurs. As a result, harmonic existence would turn the power quality into power stability issues.

At the same time, any increase in the filter output inductance would augment the resonance problem and resonate with high grid equivalent inductance at a low-frequency range. Therefore, active damping or harmonic elimination control schemes should be adopted [37], [38].

The equivalent circuit of the grid-connected DG system is shown in Fig. 3, where the equivalent circuit of the grid shows the series grid impedance ($L_g$ and $R_g$). The damped LC filter is optimized based on [29].

\[
I_g = \frac{V_{poc} - V_g}{sL_g} \tag{7}
\]

\[
I_{inv} = \frac{V_{inv} - V_{poc}}{sL_f} \tag{8}
\]

\[
V_{poc} = V_{cf} + V_{Rd} \tag{9}
\]

\[
V_{poc} = \frac{[I_{inv} - I_g](1 + R_d C_f)}{sC_f} \tag{10}
\]

A block diagram model that links the input inverter voltage with the current delivered to the grid is shown in Fig. 5, where the grid voltage is represented as a second input (disturbance).

\[
\begin{align*}
I_{pf} (s) &= \frac{[V_{inv} - D(s)V_g(s)]}{sL_f} \\
I_{pf} (s) &= \frac{K_{inv}}{s^2 L_f + K_{inv} k_p s + K_{inv} k_i} I_{ref} (s) \tag{12}
\end{align*}
\]

To show the impact of the grid impedance on the system stability, the equation describes the relationship between the inverter output current ($I_{pf}$) and equivalent voltage seen at POC, the admittance ($Y(s)$), is derived and given in (11). The equivalent voltage seen at POC is the disturbance ($D(s)$) multiplied by the grid voltage. $Y(s)$ is the transfer function between the inverter current and the grid voltage. This relation can be further simplified as shown in Fig. 6.

\[
Y(s) = \frac{V_{inv} (s) - D(s)V_g(s)}{s^2 C_f L_g + s^2 C_f R_d + 1 + V_{poc}(s)} \tag{11}
\]
IV. EQUIVALENT IMPEDANCE DETERMINATION AND PARAMETERS EFFECT ANALYSIS

The inverter output impedance is affected not only by its output filter type but also by control loop gains [32]. Therefore, the gains of the current control loop shape the inverter impedance/admittance along with the frequency axis. The inverter’s current given in (11) combines both inverter and grid admittance components. In order to determine the inverter output impedance, the block diagram of Fig. 5 is modified and redrawn as in Fig. 7 to segregate the two admittances. The dashed part of Fig. 7 is derived from the current control loop considering $Z_{inv}(s)$ as Thevenin’s impedance of the inverter seen at POC. The inverter output current, $I_{L_f}$, can be expressed in terms of control and physical filter parameters, as shown in (12).

$$Z_{inv}(s) = \frac{R_d C_f + 1}{s C_f (s L_f + K_{inv} (k_p + k_i/s))}$$

Fig. 10 shows the filter parameters’ impact on the weak grid voltage response (disturbance rejection). The response shows that increasing the inverter output filter’s capacitance reduces the voltage overshoot, and the damping resistor can significantly damp the oscillation.

Equation (14), as shown at the bottom of the next page, summarizes the target when interfacing a weak grid where good current tracking and disturbance rejection can be achieved by optimizing the filter parameters and proper controller tuning. The tracking capability of the system under study is judged by observing the difference between the commanded current value of the grid feeding DG type with the measured current value. The dynamic difference between these values indicates the effectiveness level of system tracking capability and control bandwidth. Equation (14) in the manuscript explains the tracking of the system reference current.

The equation has two parts; in the tracking part, for good tracking, the numerator should have a large value in order to equalize the denominator and ignoring the effect of the constant $1$ in the denominator. This can be achieved by having larger gains where $I_{L_f} \approx I_{L_f(ref)}$. In the disturbance rejection part, for good disturbance rejection, the denominator should be much larger than the numerator. This would allow the second term of the equation to approach zero and
minimizes the effect of the disturbance. Increasing the proportional gain \((k_p)\) leads to significantly increase the bandwidth of the control system by increasing the gain margin and thereby the damping of the system. This is because the proportional gain impacts the equivalent impedance shaping at high frequency. However, this may worsen the stability by introducing high-frequency noise to the system if no proper and optimized tuning of the gains is performed.

\[
I_{L_f}(s) = \frac{K_{\text{inv}}(k_p + k_i/s)Y(s)}{1 + K_{\text{inv}}(k_p + k_i/s)Y(s)} I_{L_f(\text{ref})}(s) + \frac{D(s)Y(s)}{1 + K_{\text{inv}}(k_p + k_i/s)Y(s)} V_g(s)
\]

\[
K(s) = \left. \frac{V_{\text{pos}}(s)}{V_{\text{inv}}(s)} \right|_{V_g=0} = \left. \frac{s^2(L_g R_d C_f) + s(L_g + C_f R_g) + R_g}{s^3(L_f L_g C_f) + s^2 \left( L_f C_f (R_d + R_g) + L_g C_f R_d \right) + s \left[ L_f + L_g + R_g C_f (R_d + 1) \right] + R_g} \right|
\]
To determine the loop, transfer function which expresses the admittance of the equivalent circuit, the same procedure is performed. Knowing that the dynamic voltage gain, $K(s)$, is given in (15), as shown at the bottom of the previous page.

To find the equivalent admittance, $V_g(s)$ is set to be zero i.e., $I_g(s) = \frac{V_{poc}(s)}{(sL_g + R_g)}$ and the transfer function of the grid current and the inverter voltage can be written as in (16).

$$\left. \frac{I_g(s)}{V_{inv}(s)} \right|_{V_g=0} = \frac{K(s)}{(sL_g + R_g)} \quad (16)$$

V. RESULTS AND CASE STUDIES

The system shown in Fig. 12 has been simulated in Matlab/Simulink. The parameters of the system are given in Table 1. Fig. 13 shows the problem of low-frequency resonance where high grid inductance shifts the impedance intersection point ($Z_g/Z_{inv}$) around ten times to the lower frequency range. This, in turn, augments the system stability problem and increases the probability of instability occurrence under smaller system dynamics.

The adverse effect of increasing $L_g$ on the admittance shape and how the filter damping resistor ($R_d$) can mitigate its effect is shown in Fig. 14. It is important to show how larger
inverter output inductance helps in mitigating the effect of low stiffness levels.

Fig. 15 shows an increase in $L_f$, which in turn reduces the impact of the grid weakness, Fig. 15(a) shows the magnitude plots of different $L_f$ values. Fig. 15(b) shows the root mapping of the system and how increasing the filter impedance reduces the damping but shift the resonance to a lower frequency range which means increasing $L_f$ only is not enough to stabilize the system effectively and the control part should take a role in the damping.

Different cases have been considered to evaluate the change in system parameters on the output waveforms. Fig. 16 (a) through Fig. 16 (f) compare the waveforms of the system measured value when a step load change occurs under small ($L_g = 0.5 \text{ mH}$) and large ($L_g = 3 \text{ mH}$) grid inductance cases. The results show that the frequency and voltage dynamics are considerably affected due to the increase in grid inductance. Further, the active and reactive power sharing undergoes a large transient deviation due to the large grid inductance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DC link voltage</td>
<td>$V_{dc}$</td>
<td>400 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DC link capacitor</td>
<td>$C_{dc}$</td>
<td>5.6 mF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Damping resistor</td>
<td>$R_d$</td>
<td>1.21 \text{ ohm}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filter capacitance</td>
<td>$C_f$</td>
<td>1 mF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filter inductor</td>
<td>$L_f$</td>
<td>1.9 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switching frequency</td>
<td>$f_{sw}$</td>
<td>20 kHz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grid inductance</td>
<td>$L_g$</td>
<td>0.2 \text{ uH} - 4.14 \text{ mH}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grid resistance</td>
<td>$R_q$</td>
<td>1 Ohm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rated frequency</td>
<td>$f$</td>
<td>60 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rated line voltage</td>
<td>$V$</td>
<td>208 V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DG rating</td>
<td>$VA$</td>
<td>7 kVA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X/R ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\approx 0.075 - 1.7$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(L_g=0.2 \text{ uH} - 4.14 \text{ mH})</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCR ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td>$\approx 43 - 1.3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(L_g=0.2 \text{ uH} - 4.14 \text{ mH})</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 17. The waveforms of the system measured value under voltage sag when the output filter parameters are changed ($K_i = 0.3 \rightarrow 0.9$, $K_p = 1400 \rightarrow 3000$).
FIGURE 18. The waveforms of the system measured value under voltage sag when the output filter parameters are changed ($C_f = 1\text{mF} \rightarrow 3\text{mF}$) and ($R_d = 0.5 \rightarrow 10\Omega$).

Under weak grid connection, three cases have been considered where a voltage sag has been introduced to evaluate the effect of the change in control parameters (case-1), filter parameters (case-2), and damping (case-3) on the system measured value.

Case-1: The values of $K_i$ and $K_p$ of the inner current loop have been changed from 0.3 to 0.9 and from 1400 to 3000, respectively. A 20% voltage sag is introduced for 2 seconds to examine the system response under sudden voltage variation. The results are shown in Fig. 17(a) through Fig. 17(f). The results show that under the original control gains, the tracking during steady-state is sufficient. However, during the sag period, the system exhibits more oscillations and deviations due to the limited bandwidth. On the other side, the increased gains help the system to quickly minimize the error and show better tracking due to the larger bandwidth.

Case-2: The values of $C_f$ and $R_d$ of the output filter shunt branch have been changed from 1 mF to 3 mF and from 0.5Ω to 10 Ω, respectively. A 20% voltage sag is introduced for 2 seconds to examine the system response under sudden voltage variation. The results are shown in Fig. 18(a) through Fig. 18(f). It can be seen from the results that increasing the shunt capacitor decreases the natural frequency (See Eq. (6)). Therefore, the system damping and stability can be enhanced. Compared to the result shown in Fig. 17 and referring to Eq. (14) and Eq. (15), it can be concluded that sizing the physical parameters and tuning the controller gains play a significant role in stabilizing the system. However, increasing the controller gains at the expense of the size of the physical parameter leads to introducing switching frequency noise and resonance. This, in turn, makes the system prone to instability.

Case-3: In order to observe the effect of the damping on the performance of the LC filter, the system has been operated under different damping resistance values. A 20% voltage sag is introduced for 2 seconds to examine the system response under sudden voltage variation. The results are
shown in Fig. 19(a) through Fig. 18(c). It can be seen from the results that the damping resistor is important to damp the peak power oscillations that cause protection relay tripping as the peak power hits kW and kVar ranges. Furthermore, increasing the damping resistor from 0 to 25 $\Omega$ agrees with the modelling results shown in Fig. 10. Moreover, the damping rejects the voltage disturbance and reduces the voltage ringing and overshoot that may severely hurt the inverter switches.

VI. CONCLUSION
This work deals with evaluating the dynamic performance of distributed energy resources connected to a weak grid. Stiffness classifications of the point of connection, including the mathematical formulation, are carried out to establish a clear background about weak grid applications. Thorough evaluations have been performed to examine all the factors that affect the performance of distributed generators. Through complete modeling of the system and frequency domain analyses, this work reveals the impact of the control and physical parameters on the tracking capability and disturbance rejection of the model on system dynamics. After that, time-domain simulations have been performed to validate the findings and prove the paper’s modeling. It was found that the grid impedance deteriorates the system stability and augments the low-frequency resonance problem. Furthermore, the results show the impact of the equivalent impedance on the frequency profile and how the proper filter design of the inverter can strengthen the system stability and increase the stability margins by shaping the equivalent impedance. As a result, increasing the integration of DGs into microgrids can be effectively extended without the need for complex control strategies or oversized DG components. Compared to the work reported in [38] which implements a robust $\text{H}_\infty$ cascaded control strategy, this paper demonstrates that under well designed system and control parameters, simple PI control is able to work under sufficient bandwidth that provides satisfied tracking capability and rejects the grid voltage disturbances.

The complexity of the proposed control arises from the complete knowledge of the grid parameters which is difficult most of the time. As the equivalent impedance seen by the connected DG is affected by the number and the location of the other DGs connected to the grid, continuous measurement and estimation of the equivalent impedance is required. This, in turn, complicates the full controllability of grid feeding DG. Developing identification and estimation methodologies helps to accurately identify the values of the grid equivalents seen at the POC under all operating and loading conditions. Currently, the authors are working on this.

REFERENCES


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