

Medium Voltage High-Power Converter Topology for 10MW Wind Generation with the Large Permanent Magnet Wind Generator Systems by using FUZZY Controller

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Abstract

This paper proposes a modular, medium voltage, high- power converter topology for the large permanent magnet wind generator system, eliminating the grid-side step-up transformer, which is desirable for both onshore and offshore wind turbines. The power conversion systems for large wind turbines are facing a great challenge as today's wind turbine power outputs approach 5 MW and above. The conventional low voltage power conversion system will suffer from a high transmission current, which significantly increases losses and cost of the cables as well as voltage drop. The converter modules are cascaded to achieve medium voltage output. Each converter module is fed by a pair of generator coils with 90 phase shift to get the stable dc-link power. At the grid-side, H-bridge inverters are connected in series to generate multilevel medium voltage output and the voltage- oriented vector control scheme is adopted to regulate the converter active and reactive power transferred to the grid. The power factor correction (PFC) circuit enables the generator to achieve unity power factor operation and the generator armature inductance is used as ac-side PFC boost inductance. Simulation results with a 2-MW wind turbine system and experimental results with a down-scaled 3-kW system validate the proposed topology and control methods. The proposed system can successfully deliver power from the wind generator to the grid.

I. Introduction

Today, the most popular large variable-speed wind turbines are rated around 1.5–3 MW. Nevertheless, 7-MW wind turbines have recently appeared and even larger wind turbines, e.g., 10 MW, are under development in order to reduce the unit cost of wind power generation [1, 2]. Wind turbines equipped with direct-drive permanent magnet generators (PMGs) and full power converters are generally favored due to simplified drive train structure and thus higher reliability, especially for offshore applications, compared with the doubly fed induction generator-based system. Most of the present wind generator and power converter systems are based on the 690 V and two-level voltage–source or current–source converters are normally used [3, 4]. The continuous increase in wind turbine power ratings will generate larger current, e.g., from 1673 A for 2-MW system to 8810 A for 10-MW system. Power converters are therefore connected in parallel to handle the increasing current [5, 6]. Meanwhile, large current transfer results in a parallel connection of multiple power cables going down through the tower and causes substantial losses, voltage drop, as well as high cost of cables, switchgears, and terminal connections [7]. These disadvantages can be offset by placing the step-up transformer (e.g., 690 V/33 kV) into the nacelle. However, the bulky and heavy transformer occupies the limited space of the nacelle and increases the mechanical stress of the tower. Therefore, a medium-voltage power conversion system (e.g., 10 kV) would be more desirable for large wind power conversion by reducing the current level and associated cable cost and losses, as well as improving the system power density. The benefits of adopting medium-voltage power conversion technology have been proved in motor drive applications, where medium-voltage (3–33 kV) configuration is generally used when the system power rating is higher than 1 MW [8]. Table I shows the current rating of an exemplar 5- and 10-MW systems with 690-V and 10-kV voltage level for comparison. As seen, transferring from low voltage (690 V) to medium

voltage (10 kV) can significantly reduce the current level. Further, considering the high maintenance cost and fault-tolerant requirement especially for offshore wind applications, a modular converter and generator structure is even preferable.

Regarding medium-voltage multilevel converter topologies for wind power applications, papers [9–12] investigate the suitability of three-level neutral-point-clamped converters. Although a higher voltage rating and reduced output harmonics are achieved, the ac-side voltage is limited to 4.0 kV if using 4.5-kV integrated gate-commutated thyristors (IGCTs) [11]. The voltage rating may be further increased if using 6-kV IGCT; however, the cost and availability becomes a major concern. A five-level hybrid converter topology with increasing number of devices is presented to further increase the converter voltage and power capability [13]. However, the reliability restricts its application. If one device fails, the whole converter system operation may be interrupted. A more applicable way to achieve 6- or 10-kV medium-voltage power conversion is through the cascaded modular converter structure [2, 8]. The voltage level can be easily scaled up by cascading more converter cells. Papers [14–18] have proposed various converter topologies based on this concept. However, the fundamental connections between these topologies are not analyzed. The cascaded converter topology has intrinsic fault-tolerant operation capability. If one cell fails, it can be bypassed and the rest healthy cells can keep operation [17]. One of the main disadvantages of the cascaded converter topology is the large dc-link capacitor required to filter the dc-link voltage ripple from the H-bridge side in each cell [14–19]. The dc-link capacitor is unreliable and is not favored in wind power applications where maintenance cost is very high. There are no effective solutions to significantly reduce the dc-link capacitor. In motor drive applications, diode rectifiers are normally used, which cannot be actively controlled to compensate the ripple power thus reducing the dc-link capacitor.

Table I: Wind turbine current rating for different voltage levels

Wind turbine power (MW)	Voltage (kV)	Current (A)
5.0	0.69	4400
	10	303
10	0.69	8810
	10	607

In this paper, a fundamental rule to construct multi-level modular high power converters for large wind turbine power conversion is proposed. Based on this, three potential multi-level modular wind power converter topologies have been derived using a generalized approach for an exemplar 10-kV, 10-MW wind turbine. A special focus has been given to the topology comprising a 10-kV generator, a multilevel modular converter, and a multi-winding grid-side transformer. A solution to reduce the dc-link capacitor is proposed by compensating the ripple power from the three-

phase grid-side inverter. A resonant controller is presented to achieve this purpose. The current harmonics induced in the inverter and transformer secondary windings by the proposed control scheme and their impact are also investigated analytically. The converter topology and dc-link capacitor reduction strategy has been simulated and validated with a 10-kV, 10-MW wind power conversion system, where the dc-link voltage ripple is effectively attenuated without affecting the grid power quality.

II. 10-kV, 10-MW Wind Power Modular Converter Topologies

As mentioned, one of the most applicable and economic way to achieve a 10-kV power conversion system is through series connection of modular converter cells. In particular, 3.3-kV insulated-gate bipolar transistor (IGBT) device is considered in this application due to their better availability and lower cost, compared with 4.5- and 6-kV devices. Figure 1 shows a generalized phase leg of a cascaded modular converter structure. The outputs of several converter cells (ac/dc/ac) are connected in series to achieve high-voltage output. With 3.3-kV IGBTs, 10-kV line voltage output can be achieved with five stages, where each module dc-link voltage

is regulated at around 1800 V, thus 3.3-kV devices can be used. It should be noted that the converter modules in Figure 1 cannot be directly connected in series at both ends without isolation. A galvanic isolation is needed in each converter module in order to cascade the outputs at either end. There are three possible locations to place the isolation, viz., at the generator side (I), in the dc link (II), or at the grid side (III), as shown in Figure 1. The isolation can be achieved through either generator isolated windings, high-frequency transformer in the dc-link or multi-winding grid-side transformer. Based on this, three potential high-power, medium-voltage modular wind converter topologies are given in Figures 2–4, respectively.

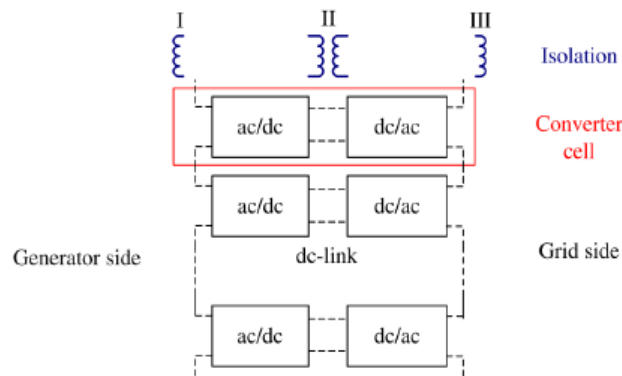


Figure 1: Generalized cascaded multilevel converter topology (one phase leg).

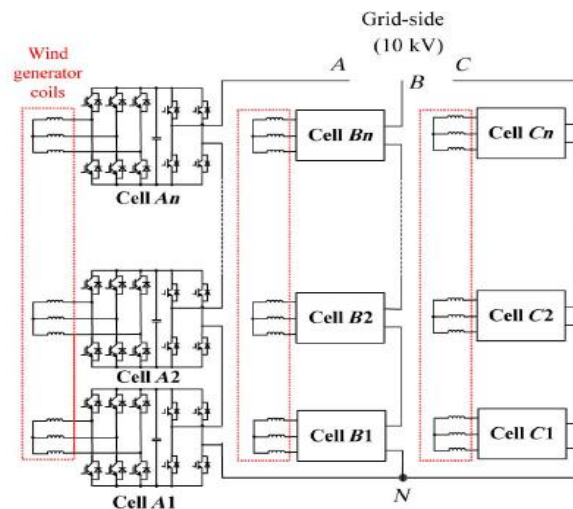


Figure 2: High-power, medium-voltage (10 kV) modular wind converter with generator-side isolation (converter type I).

Figure 2 shows a high-power, medium-voltage (10 kV) wind converter topology (type I) by using the generator-side isolation. The isolated coils in the generator stator windings are connected out separately to provide independent power sources for each converter cell. The input power stage of each cell is a three-phase active rectifier and the output stage is an H-bridge inverter. The outputs of each H-bridge are connected in series to achieve high voltage (e.g., 10 kV) at the grid side. This topology requires the generator to provide multiple three-phase coils. The direct-drive PMGs generally have many pole pairs, where the corresponding three-phase

coils of each pole pair (or several pole pairs connected in series or in parallel, depending on the required voltage rating) can be connected out separately to meet this requirement. Regarding the control, the input three-phase rectifier is responsible for regulating the dc-link voltage of each converter cell and the grid-side cascaded H-bridge converter regulates the active power [e.g., for maximum power point tracking (MPPT)] and reactive power fed into the grid [14-16]. With this topology, the generator and converter are suggested to put on top of the wind tower.

A step-up transformer from 10 kV to the voltage level (e.g., 33 kV) of the collection point of the wind farm may be required and can be placed at the bottom of the tower. Alternatively, a transformer-less structure may be enabled if the number of cascaded stages can be increased to directly

meet the collection point voltage. It should be noted that the increased number of generator terminal connections may add extra labor and maintenance cost. A dedicated generator design and wire connection arrangement may be required.

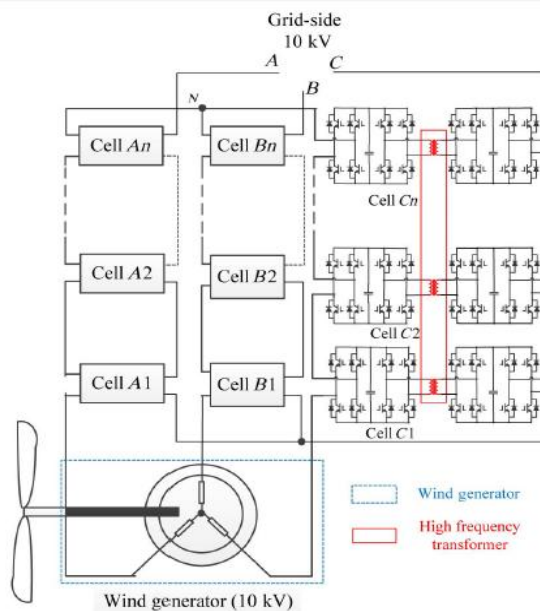
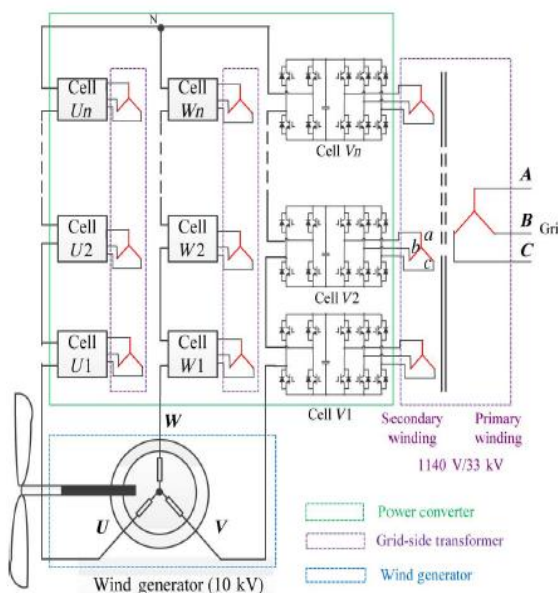


Figure 3: High-power, medium-voltage (10 kV) modular wind converter with high-frequency transformer isolation (converter type II).

Figure 3 shows a second wind converter topology (type II) with a high-frequency transformer as the isolation, which is inserted into the DC link together with a back-to-back H-bridge converter. This high-frequency isolation unit is also called dual active bridge (DAB) converter, where the two H-bridge converters at both sides of the high-frequency transformer operate at a higher frequency (e.g., several kHz), thus the size and weight of the transformer can be significantly reduced compared with the line frequency (50 or 60 Hz) transformer [20, 21]. The input and output stages of each converter cell are H-bridge converters (with the DAB converter in between). A standard three-phase 10-

kV generator is used and the H-bridge converters are cascaded at both the generator side and grid side to achieve 10-kV voltage capability thus regulating the generator and grid power. The turns ratio of the high-frequency isolation transformer can be adjusted (1:1 or 1: n) to achieve the desired voltage level. The power converter can be put flexibly either on top of the tower or at the bottom since 10-kV voltage is achieved at both ends of the converter. The main concern with this topology is the extra losses caused by the inserted DAB converter and high-frequency transformer, which may be mitigated by using advanced magnetic material, soft-switching topologies and new wide-bandgap power devices, e.g., silicon-carbide (SiC) based device.



(a)

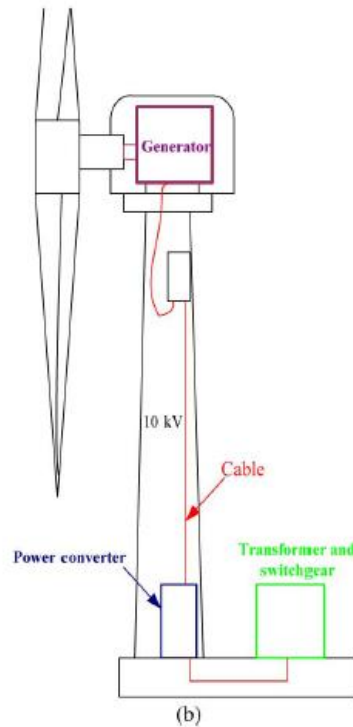


Figure 4: High-power, medium-voltage (10 kV) modular wind converter with grid-side transformer isolation (converter type III): (a) generator and converter structure and (b) wind turbine electrical configuration.

Figure 4(a) shows another high-power, medium-voltage wind converter topology (type III) with a grid-side isolation transformer, which will be further investigated in this paper. As can be seen, this topology adopts a standard 10-kV wind generator and a grid-side step-up transformer with multiple secondary windings (1140 V/33 kV), which provides isolation of each converter cell and also boosts the converter voltage to the grid voltage of 33 kV. The power converter and the transformer can be put at the bottom of the tower as shown in Figure 4(b), which reduces the mechanical stress of the tower and saves the space in the nacelle. The input stage of each converter cell is an H-bridge rectifier which is then connected in series to achieve 10-kV voltage capability to control the generator. The output stage of each converter cell is a three-phase inverter and is connected to the transformer secondary windings, responsible for regulating the dc-link voltage. Similar to the previous two topologies, this modular structure benefits from fault-tolerant capability, when one cell fails, it can be bypassed by a switch connected in parallel to the H-bridge converter output and the remaining health cells can still maintain operation subject to the reduce of power output. In view of the successful applications of the cascaded H-bridge converter in high power motor drive area, this topology may become a strong candidate for future large wind turbine power conversion systems [22].

It should be noted that the low-frequency single-phase fluctuating power at the input stage of each cell (H-bridge) in Figure 4(a) will cause dc-link voltage ripple, which gets larger with lower generator stator frequency and higher power level. For variable speed, direct-drive PMGs, the stator frequency is generally low (e.g., below 15 Hz). Therefore, large dc-link capacitance is required to smooth

out the voltage ripple appeared on the dc-link, which are bulky and significantly increase the system cost as well as cause reliability issues due to the lifetime of electrolytic capacitors. This issue also happens to the other two topologies in Figures 2 and 3. In Section IV, a solution to reduce the dc-link capacitance will be introduced in a later session.

III. 10-MW Wind Turbine Specifications and Converter Control Strategy

III-PI Controller

Proportional – Integral-Derivative controller (PID controller) is a control loop feedback mechanism (controller) widely used in industrial control systems and its block diagram is shown in Figure 6. A PID controller calculates an error value as the difference between a measured process variable and a desired setpoint. The controller attempts to minimize the error by adjusting the process through use of a manipulated variable.

The PID controller algorithm involves three separate constant parameters, and is accordingly sometimes called three-term control: the proportional, the integral and derivative values, denoted P, I, and D.

Some applications may require using only one or two actions to provide the appropriate system control. This is achieved by setting the other parameters to zero. A PID controller will be called a PI, PD, P or I controller in the absence of the respective control actions. PI controllers are fairly common, since derivative action is sensitive to measurement noise, whereas the absence of an integral term may prevent the system from reaching its target value due to the control action.

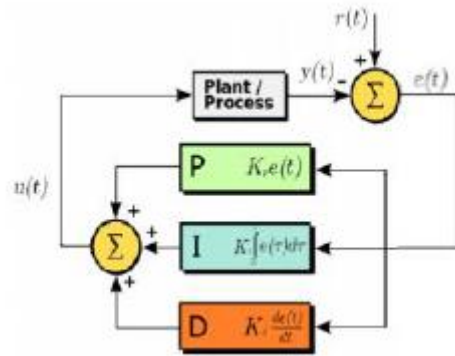


Figure 6: A block diagram of a PID controller in a feedbackloop

Most modern PID controllers in industry are implemented in programmable logic controllers (PLCs) or as a panel-mounted digital controller. Software implementations have the advantages that they are relatively cheap and are flexible with respect to the implementation of the PID algorithm. PID temperature controllers are applied in industrial ovens, plastics injection machinery, hot stamping machines and packing industry.

The PID control scheme is named after its three correcting terms, whose sum constitutes the manipulated variable (MV). The proportional, integral, and derivative terms are summed to calculate the output of the PID controller. Defining $u(t)$ as the controller output, the final form of the PID algorithm is:

$$u(t) = MV(t) = K_p e(t) - K_i \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau + K_d \frac{d}{dt} e(t)$$

Where K_p : Proportional gain, a tuning parameter

K_i : Integral gain, a tuning parameter

K_d : Derivative gain, a tuning parameter

e : Error = SP-PV

t : Time or instantaneous time (the present)

τ : Variable of integration; takes on values from time 0 to the present t .

There are so many methods to calculate the values of Proportional gain (K_p), Integral gain (K_i), Derivative gain (K_d). One among them is described as follows:

Ziegler–Nichols method

Another heuristic tuning method is formally known as the Ziegler–Nichols method, introduced by John G. Ziegler and Nathaniel B. Nichols in the 1940s. As in the method above, the K_i and K_d gains are first set to zero. The proportional gain is increased until it reaches the ultimate gain, K_u , at which the output of the loop starts to oscillate. K_u and the oscillation period P_u are used to set the gains as shown:

Ziegler–Nichols method

Control Type	K_p	K_i	K_d
P	$0.50K_u$	-	-
PI	$0.45K_u$	$1.2K_p/P_u$	-
PID	$0.60K_u$	$2K_p/P_u$	$K_p P_u/8$

These gains apply to the ideal, parallel form of the PID controller. When applied to the standard PID form, the integral and derivative time parameters T_i and T_d are only dependent on the oscillation period P_u .

A PI Controller (proportional-integral controller) is a special case of the PID controller in which the derivative (D) of the error is not used as shown in Figure 7.

The controller output is given by

$$K_P \Delta + K_I \int \Delta dt$$

Where Δ is the error or deviation of actual measured value (PV) from the setpoint (SP).

$$\Delta = SP - PV$$

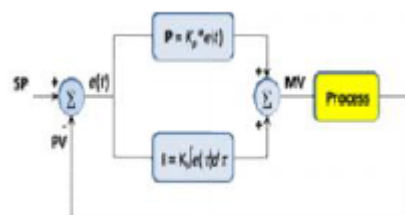


Figure 7: Basic block of a PI controller

A PI controller can be modeled easily in software such as Simulink or Xcos using a "flow chart" box involving Laplace operators:

$$C = \frac{G(1 + \tau s)}{\tau s}$$

Where

$$G = K_P = \text{Proportional gain}$$

$$G/\tau = K_I = \text{Integral gain}$$

Setting a value for G is often a tradeoff between decreasing overshoot and increasing settling time.

The lack of derivative action may make the system more steady in the steady state in the case of noisy data. This is because derivative action is more sensitive to higher frequency terms in the inputs. Hence the PI controller controls the voltage error between the reference voltage and mean voltage of system by controlling the duty cycles of semiconductor device.

IV Fuzzy Logic Controller

The basic concept in FL, which plays a central role in most of its applications, is that of a fuzzy if-then rule or, simply, fuzzy rule. Although rule-based systems have a long history of use in Artificial Intelligence (AI), what is missing in such systems is a mechanism for dealing with fuzzy consequents and fuzzy antecedents. In fuzzy logic, this mechanism is provided by the calculus of fuzzy rules. The calculus of fuzzy rules serves as a basis for what might be called the Fuzzy Dependency and Command Language (FDCL). In most of the applications of fuzzy logic, a fuzzy logic solution is, in reality, a translation of a human solution into FDCL. First-generation simple fuzzy logic controllers can generally be depicted by a block diagram in Figure 8.

The knowledge-based module contains knowledge about all the input and output fuzzy partitions. It will

include the term set and the corresponding membership functions defining the input variables to the fuzzy rule-based system and the output variables, or control actions, to the plant under control.

Type of membership function. In this paper the suggested membership function is triangular and the rules are made. The definition of a membership function: A graph that defines how each point in the input space is mapped to membership value between 0 and 1. Input space is often referred as the universe of discourse or universal set (u), which contains all the possible elements of concern in each particular application.

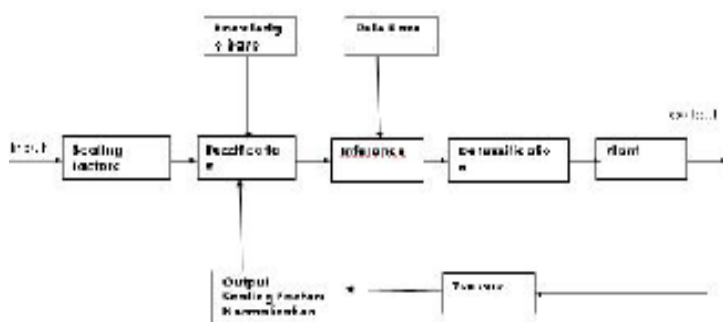


Figure 8: A Simple Fuzzy Logic Control System

Before we start defining different types of membership functions, let us consider a Fuzzy IF-THEN rule for a car:
 IF the speed of a car is high, THEN apply less force to the accelerator
 IF the speed is low, THEN apply more force to the Accelerator

Triangular: This is formed by the combination of straightlines. The function is name as "trimP". We consider

the above case i.e. fuzzy set Z to represent the "number close to zero". So mathematically we can also represent it as
 0 if $x < -1$
 $\mu_Z(x) = x + 1$ if $-1 \leq x < 0$ (1.4)
 $1 - x$ if $0 \leq x < 1$
 0 if $1 \leq x$

Figure (9) called "triangular membership function"

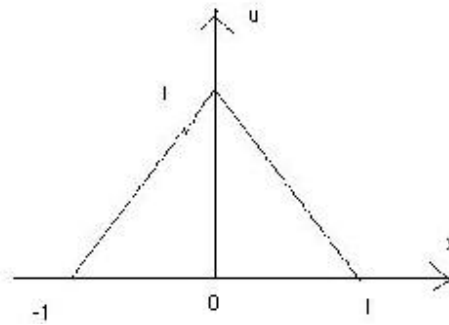
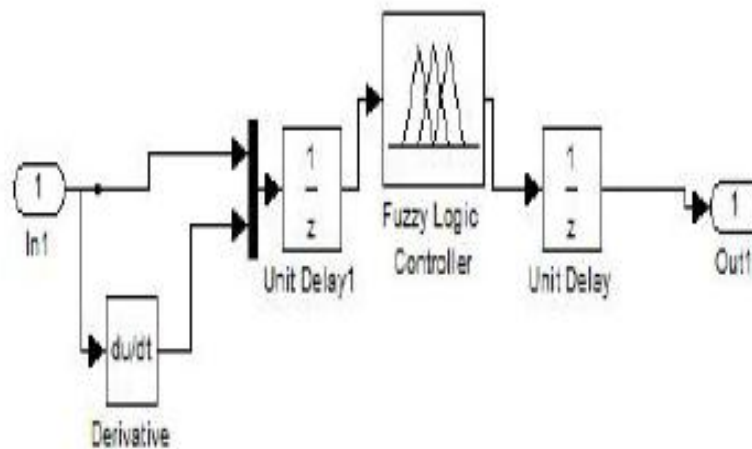


Figure 9: Triangular Membership Function

By using this membership function, a group of rules are obtained according to the inputs. These rules are programmed and stored as a .fis file, which is imported to the workspace to run.



A. FUZZY Controller

A 10-kV, 10-MW wind turbine and its PMG parameters are redesigned. The rated speed of the wind turbine is 10 rpm at wind speed of 12 m/s [23]. The PMG has 90 pole pairs, corresponding to 15-Hz stator frequency at rated speed. Figure 5 shows the captured wind power variation with the generator speed. The wind turbine control should aim to capture maximum wind power by regulating the generator speed/power following MPPT under normal conditions.

B. Generator and Cascaded H-Bridge Converter Control Strategy

The wind generator (PMG) shown in Figure 4(a) can be modeled in a synchronous rotating (\cdot) frame [3], [24]. With rotor flux oriented control, the PMG torque can be controlled by the $-x$ -axis current, while the $-y$ -axis current is controlled to maximize the generator efficiency. In order to achieve MPPT, the generator torque reference is set as the product of the optimal coefficient and the square of generator

speed [25]. The standard phase-shifted pulse width modulation (PWM) is adopted to modulate the cascaded H-bridge converters, thus generating the required voltage according to the voltage reference.

C. Grid-Side Inverter Model and Control Strategy

At the grid side, the three-phase inverter in each converter cell as shown in Figure 4(a) is responsible for regulating the converter cell dc-link voltage, transferring the active power generated from wind generator to the grid. Since the inverter current is actively controlled to be sinusoidal, the topology in Figure 4(a) does not need multiple phase-shifted transformer secondary windings (Zigzag winding) for harmonics reduction as the case in motor drive applications with diode rectifier, leading to a simplified transformer design. The transformer leakage inductance can be further used as the filter inductance. The model of the grid-side three-phase inverter in each cell on frame is given as follows [3, 14]:

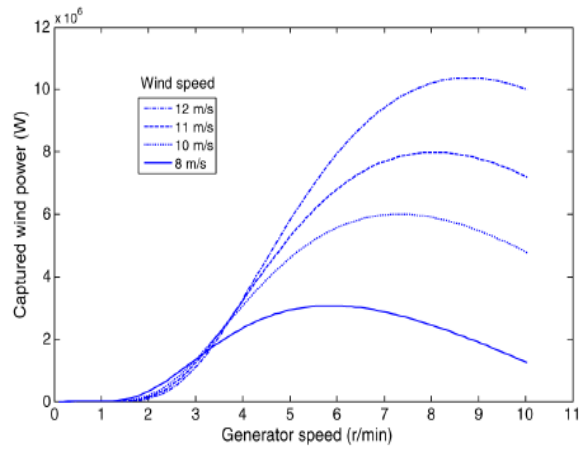


Figure 5: Variation of captured wind power with generator speed under different wind speeds.

$$\begin{cases} L_e \frac{di_d}{dt} = -R_e i_d + \omega_e L_e i_q - S_d + u_d \\ L_e \frac{di_q}{dt} = -R_e i_q - \omega_e L_e i_d - S_q + u_q \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Where L_e and R_e are the transformer leakage inductance and resistance; u_d, u_q, i_d, i_q are the voltages and currents on the transformer secondary side in the d, q frame, respectively; u_d, u_q are the output voltages of the three-phase inverter in the switching average model; and ω_e is the grid line frequency.

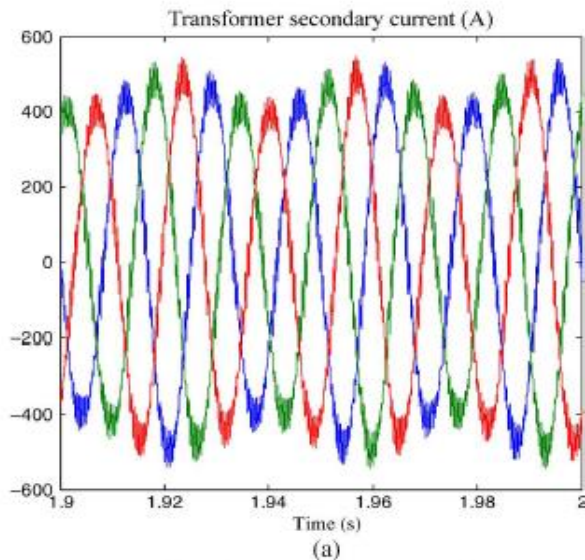
If the d -axis of the rotating frame is aligned to the transformer secondary voltage vector, then $u_q = 0$ and $u_d = E$ where E is the amplitude of the transformer secondary voltage. The converter active power P and reactive power Q can be formulated by

$$\begin{cases} P = \frac{3}{2}(u_d i_d + u_q i_q) = \frac{3}{2} E i_d \\ Q = \frac{3}{2}(u_d i_q - u_q i_d) = \frac{3}{2} E i_q \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

As seen, the active and reactive power flowing into the grid can be controlled by d -axis and q -axis currents independently. The grid-side three-phase inverter control diagram is shown in Figure 6. The outer loop is the dc-link voltage control loop which is kept to be 1800 V and inner

d -axis and q -axis current control loops. The d -axis current can be used to provide reactive power to the grid when required subject to the current capability of the converter.

IV. Converter Dc-Link Voltage Ripple Reduction



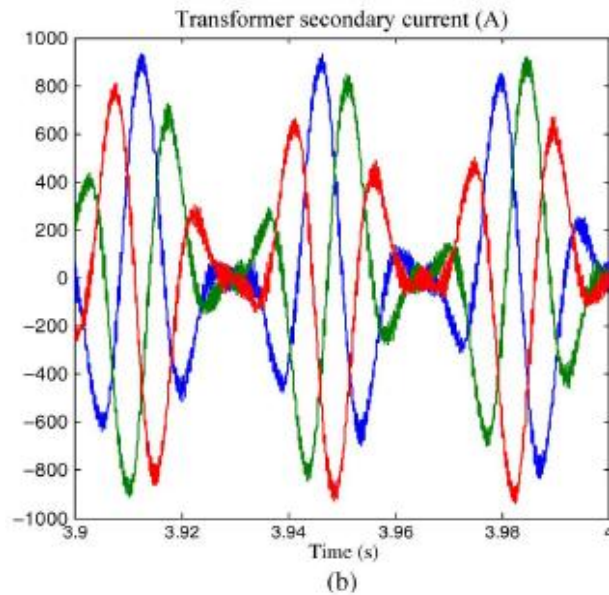


Figure 9: Inverter (transformer secondary) current with and without resonant controller applied: (a) without resonant controller and (b) with resonant controller.

C. Inverter and Transformer Power Losses Analysis

While the low-frequency power ripple from H-bridge side can be effectively compensated from the transformer-side inverter, the harmonic current may cause extra thermal stress to the inverter power devices and the transformer secondary windings. Figure 9 shows the simulated inverter current waveform with and without the dc-link voltage ripple reduction method applied for a 10-MW system at a rated wind speed. As seen, with the dc-link ripple reduction method applied, the peak current (due to the harmonics) of each phase may double the value of the current without compensation. The exact expression of the current waveform is given in (13)–(15) for phase. Therefore,

the power device current rating should be chosen to meet the peak current requirement.

In order to evaluate the thermal performance and the impact of the control algorithm on the inverter, the inverter losses and device junction temperature are calculated and simulated. For a 10-MW, 10-kV generator, the rated root mean square (RMS) current is 577 A. With a 1140-V/33-kV grid-side transformer and 15 converter cells, the transformer secondary winding RMS current is 337 A. Note that if the ripple power compensation scheme is activated, the peak of transformer secondary current may increase to 950 A. With these current values, IGBT modules from infineon FZ1000R33HL3 (3300 V, 1000 A) are used for both H-bridge rectifier and the inverter to evaluate the system thermal performance [29, 30]. The switching frequency is selected at 2 kHz.

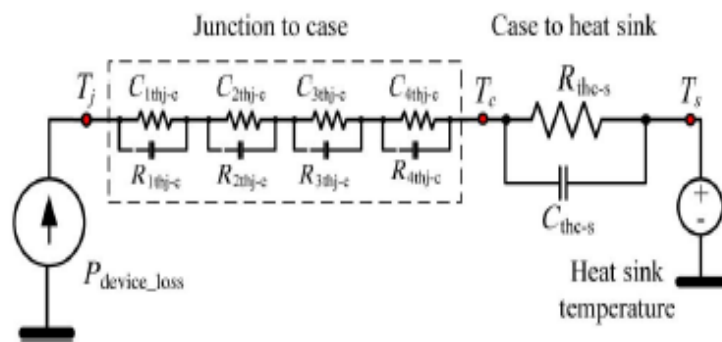


Figure 10: Thermal network to evaluate the device junction temperature.

In the simulation, the heat sink temperature is assumed to be fixed at 80°C due to its large thermal time constant. The thermal network is shown in Figure 10. The thermal network comprises the junction to case and case to heat sink thermal impedance.

Figure 11 shows the inverter device junction temperature variation. Without ripple power compensation, the IGBT temperature varies between 96 and 102°C. The diode junction temperature varies between 94.5 and 104°C. When the ripple power compensation scheme is applied, the inverter current becomes as in Figure 9(b) and the junction temperature variation gets larger as well as the peak

temperature, although the average temperature stays similar with the non-compensated case. Larger junction temperature variation may reduce the lifetime of the power device. The thermal design should also make sure the peak temperature does not exceed the maximum allowable junction temperature.

Another impact of the ripple power compensation scheme is the circulating harmonic current inside the transformer secondary windings and the corresponding extra copper losses it has introduced. From (13), the RMS value of the transformer secondary current with harmonics can be calculated as

$$I'_{a_RMS} = \frac{V_{om} I_{om}}{3E} \cdot \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\right)^2}$$

$$= \frac{V_{om} I_{om}}{3E} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \quad (17)$$

Where I'_{a_RMS} is the RMS value of the current including harmonics. The RMS value of the fundamental current can be calculated as

$$I_{a_RMS} = \frac{V_{om} I_{om}}{3E} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (18)$$

Therefore, the ratio of the transformer secondary copper loss with and without the ripple power compensation scheme can be calculated as

$$\left(\frac{I'_{a_RMS}}{I_{a_RMS}}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\sqrt{6}}{2}\right)^2 = 1.5. \quad (19)$$

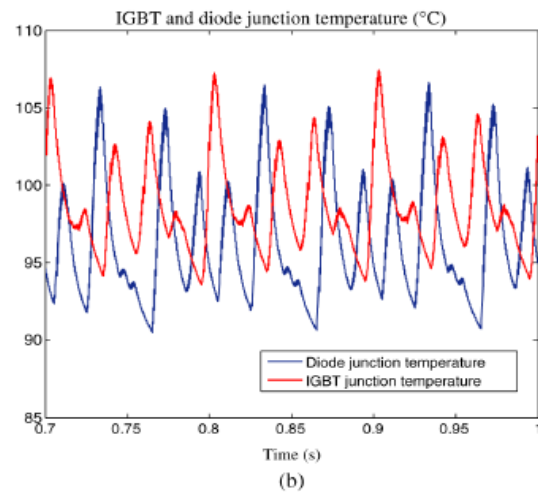
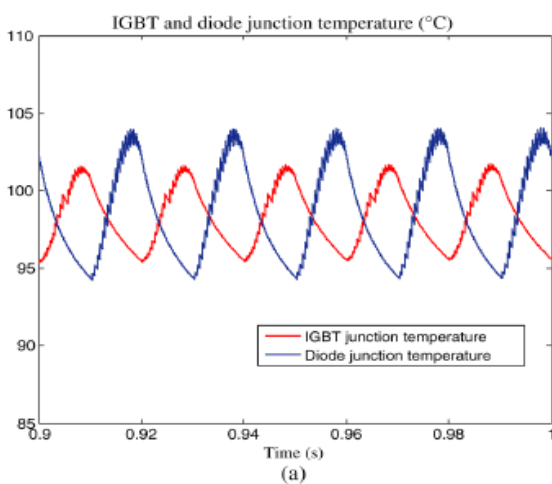


Figure 11: Inverter device (IGBT/diode) junction temperature variation: (a) without resonant controller and (b) with resonant controller.

As seen, the winding copper losses have increased by 50% due to the extra harmonics, which need to be taken into consideration during the transformer and cooling system design.

V. Simulation and Results

A simulation model has been built in MATLAB/Simulink in order to validate the converter topology in Figure 4 and control strategy in Figure 6. The power converter consists of 5 stages (15 cells), with each dc-link voltage of 1800 V. The dc-link capacitance is 44 mF. The wind turbine characteristics are the same as in Figure 5.

Figure 12 shows the steady-state simulation results at the wind speed of 12 m/s with 10-MW wind power generation. Figure 12(a) shows the generator-side converter output voltage, which has 11 levels and the generator current. Figure 12(b) shows the transformer secondary winding (inverter) currents (1140-V side) in one converter cell. The grid (33 kV) phase voltage and current are shown in Figure 12(c). As seen, the grid current is kept sinusoidal and the phase relationship between voltage and current indicates wind power is fed into the grid. Figure 12(d) shows the dc-link voltage regulated at 1800 V. With 44-mF dc-link capacitor, the voltage ripple is around 90 V, which agrees with the calculated results by (4). A detailed waveform is shown at the bottom of this figure and the ripple frequency is 30 Hz, which is twice of the generator frequency of 15 Hz.

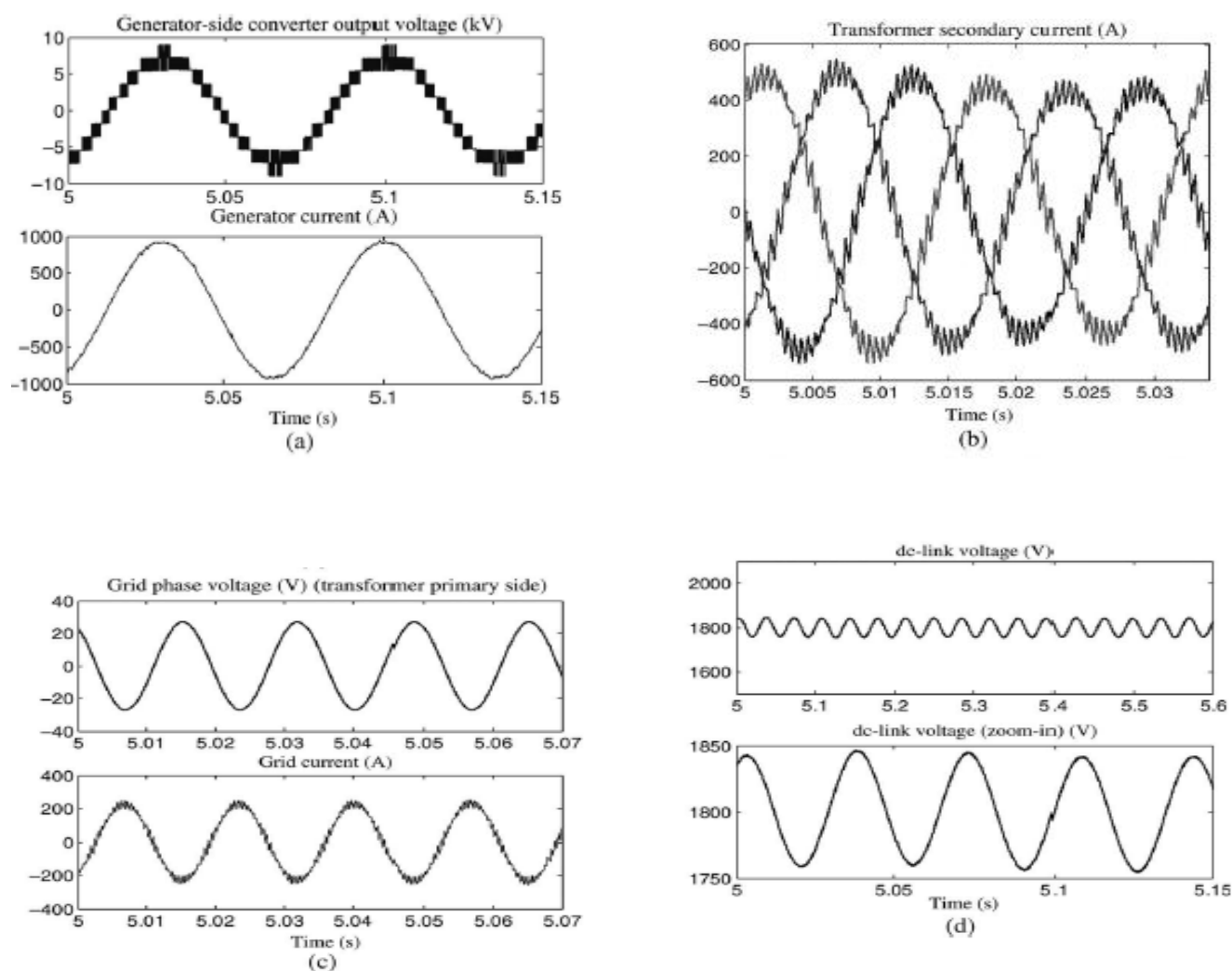


Figure 12: Steady-state simulation results at wind speed of 12 m/s: (a) generator side converter output voltage and generator current, (b) transformer secondary winding current in a converter cell, (c) grid phase voltage and current, and (d) dc-link voltage and detailed trace.

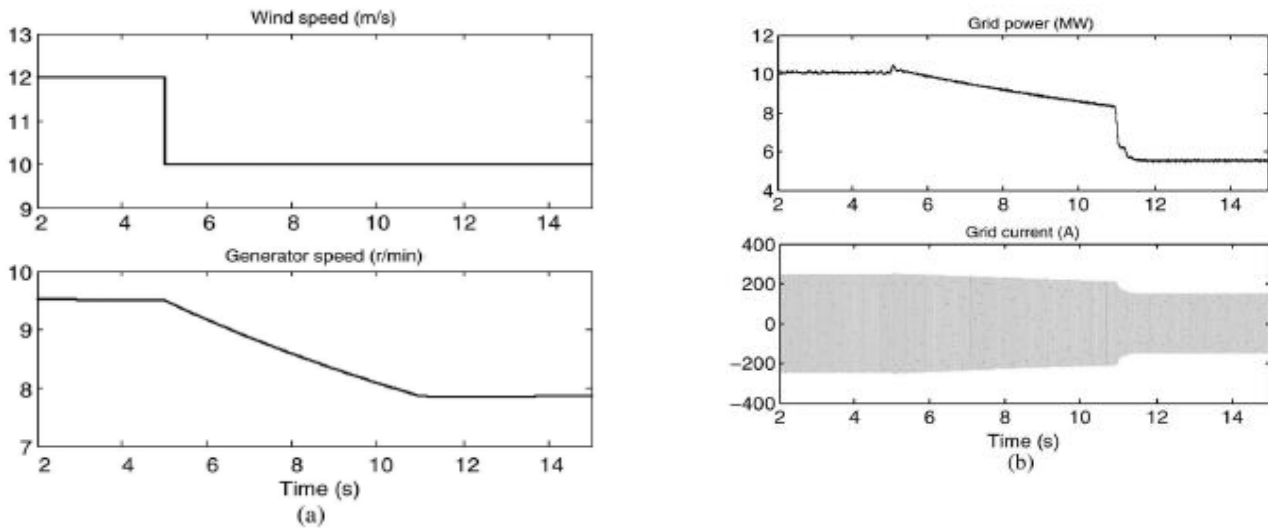
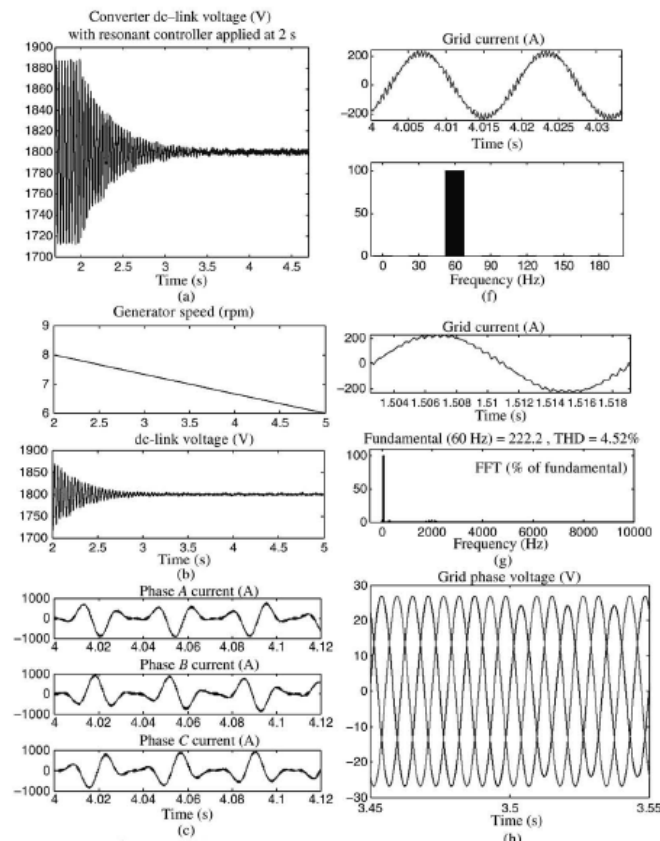


Figure 13: System response during wind speed drop from 12 to 10 m/s: (a) windspeed and generator speed and (b) power transferred to the grid and grid current.

Figure 13 shows the system response during a wind speed drop from 12 to 10 m/s at 5s. The converter and generator control aim to achieve MPPT under both wind speeds. Figure 13(a) shows the wind speed profile and the corresponding generator speed. As seen, the generator speed reduces from 9.5 (MPPT point for 12 m/s) to 7.7 r/min to reach the MPPT point according to Figure 5. Figure 13(b) shows the power transferred to the grid and the grid current.

Figure 14 shows the results of dc-link voltage ripple reduction by using the PIR controller in the dc-link voltage and current control loops of each converter cell, as illustrated in the diagram in Figure 6. To observe the effect more clearly, the dc-link capacitance has been reduced from 44 to 22 mF. Therefore, without using PIR controller, the dc-link voltage ripple of each cell should be 180 V. Figure 14(a) shows the dc-link voltage, where the resonant controller is applied at 2 s.



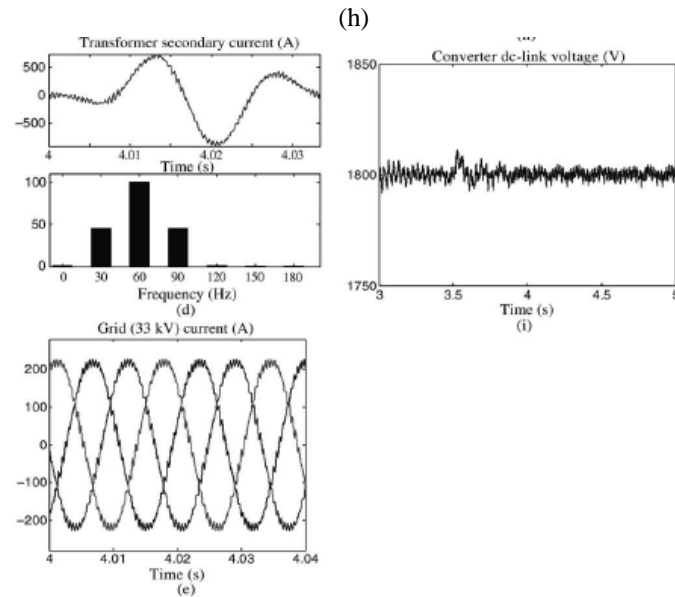


Figure 14: Simulation results with a PIR controller engaged to reduce the dc-link voltage ripple: (a) converter cell dc-link voltage with resonant controller applied at 2 s, (b) dc-link voltage during generator speed variation, (c) transformer secondary winding current, (d) FFT analysis of transformer secondary winding current, (e) transformer primary (grid) current, (f) FFT analysis of transformer primary winding current, (g) THD of the grid current, (h) grid phase voltages with phase A 10% drop at 3.5 s, and (i) converter dc-link voltage under unbalanced grid.

As seen, before the resonant controller is applied, the dc-link voltage ripple is around 180 V. After the resonant controller is applied, the dc-link voltage ripple reduces dramatically to around zero, which validates the proposed dc-link voltage ripple reduction method. As a result, the required dc-link capacitor can be much smaller than that without a resonant controller, which can save the capacitor cost, size, as well as increase the system reliability. Figure 14(b) further shows the performance of the controller during the change of generator speed. The resonant controller is applied at 2 s. During 2–5 s the generator speed varies from 8 to 6 rpm and the controller effectively adjusts the resonant frequency and attenuates the voltage ripple regardless of the generator speed variation. Figure 14(c) shows the corresponding transformer secondary current in each cell when the resonant controller is engaged. As seen, the currents are not sinusoidal due to the compensation of the pulsation power. As analyzed in (13)–(15), the current contains harmonics with frequency of $\omega_e + 2\omega_0$ and $\omega_e - 2\omega_0$. The fast Fourier transform (FFT) analysis of the current is shown in Figure 14(d), where the current contains the grid-frequency (ω_e) component of 60 Hz as well as two other frequency components of 90 Hz ($\omega_e + 2\omega_0$) and 30 Hz ($\omega_e - 2\omega_0$) at the generator stator frequency ($\omega_e - 2\omega_0$) of 15 Hz. Figure 14(e) shows the transformer primary (grid)-side current waveform, which is sinusoidal and does not contain any low-frequency harmonics as indicated by the FFT analysis in Figure 14(f) that only the 60-Hz grid-frequency component appears. It is evident that the proposed dc-link voltage ripple reduction method does not affect the grid-side power quality. Figure 14(g) shows the total harmonic distortion (THD) of the grid current, which is 4.52% in this case, where the grid-interface inductance is 0.5 mH and the

switching frequency is 2 kHz. Figure 14(h) and (i) show the effectiveness of the dc-link voltage ripple reduction scheme under an unbalanced grid condition. At 3.5 s, phase A voltage has a 10% voltage drop. From the converter dc-link voltage, it can be seen that the dc-link voltage ripple is effectively attenuated regardless of the voltage drop in phase A.

VI. Conclusion

In this paper, three high-power medium-voltage (10 kV) modular wind power converter topologies have been derived based on a generalized structure by using different formats of isolation. A method has been proposed to attenuate the dc-link voltage ripple, thus reducing the capacitor requirement, by compensating the low-frequency power ripple. A PIR controller-based control loop has been designed to achieve this purpose. The proposed dc-link voltage reduction scheme will introduce harmonics in the transformer secondary current; however, not degrading the grid power quality (sinusoidal current). The current harmonics will increase the stress of the power devices and the transformer copper loss. Simulation results with a 10-kV, 10-MW system have validated the converter topology and control scheme. The proposed dc-link voltage ripple reduction method may also be used in the other two topologies presented in the paper.

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