Performance Optimization of Microgrids with Power Management

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ABSTRACT

Microgrids serve as a vital solution for the successful implementation of Smart Grid systems, facilitating the seamless integration of renewable and distributed energy resources. Considerable efforts have been undertaken to develop demonstration projects and explore effective energy management strategies in order to enhance the performance of renewable resources with intermittent features and promote responsible citizenship. In contemporary literature, the hierarchical structure with either three or two layers has emerged as the prevailing traditional control structure. In typical practice, a central controller is employed to uphold the equilibrium of frequency and voltage, whereas a local controller facilitates equitable distribution of power among diverse energy supplies. A microgrid refers to a collection of decentralized power generators, such as wind turbines, solar systems, thermal units, and micro hydro power plants, along with controlled or uncontrollable demands. **Keywords:** Microgrids, Power Management

I. INTRODUCTION

Microgrids have arisen as a possible alternative method of solving the issues posed by conventional centralized electricity distribution systems. This is because microgrids can distribute and store electricity more efficiently than traditional systems. Traditional power networks have a larger carbon footprint, while microgrids have a smaller one since they are decentralized and localized. Microgrids also have a higher energy efficiency and greater tolerance to interruptions than traditional power networks. Power management is one of the core components that is needed for the effective operation of microgrids. It involves the intelligent coordination and control of various distributed energy resources (DERs) that are contained inside the microgrid network [1-2]. This is one of the variables that is absolutely necessary for the microgrid to be able to function up to its full capacity. A reliable and cost-effective operation, in addition to maintaining a healthy equilibrium between the generation, consumption, and storage of energy, can only be achieved with the implementation of appropriate power management systems. This study researches and offers innovations in power management strategy for the purpose of optimizing the performance of microgrids, with a special emphasis on enhancing their ability to deliver energy services that are sustainable, dependable, and effective. In this context, this research examines and offers innovations in power management strategy for the purpose of optimizing the performance of microgrids, with a special emphasis on enhancing the performance of microgrids [3].

The goal of this project is to improve the overall performance of microgrids as well as their operational capabilities. This will be accomplished by tailoring various power management strategies to the specific qualities and prerequisites of microgrids. Specifically, the initiative will focus on enhancing operational skills and bettering the overall performance of the business, demand response mechanisms, and advanced control algorithms are all important components for optimizing the way power is controlled in microgrids. This may be accomplished by combining all of these elements [4].

Solar that contributes significantly to the microgrid's overall generation capacity. Despite the fact that these sources have a positive impact on the surrounding area, their behavior is fundamentally unpredictable and inconsistent. In order to maintain a consistent and uninterrupted power supply, power management systems that are effective need to be able to dynamically balance the intermittent nature of the various sources with the energy demand that exists inside the microgrid. This is essential in order to ensure that there is a constant and uninterrupted supply of power [4-5].

Energy storage devices are also essential for lowering the degree to which renewable energy sources are subject to natural variation and for streamlining the process of load shifting. Energy storage devices make this possible since they permit the changing of loads. These systems are able to store any excess energy that is produced during periods of high energy production and then release it during periods of high energy demand when it is most needed. The grid is so rendered more stable, and its reliance on resources originating in distant regions is diminished. Complex algorithms are used in the microgrid in order to optimize the performance of the energy

storage units that are housed inside it [6]. These algorithms take into consideration a wide range of characteristics, such as the current amount of charge on the battery, the rate at which it is degrading, and the real-time demand patterns.

When demand response techniques are introduced, the management of electricity on a microgrid attains still another degree of flexibility. The entire load on the system may be regulated, and the strain on the grid can be reduced, if users are incentivized to alter their energy use during times of high demand or when renewable output is low. In order to keep demand response activities running efficiently while simultaneously ensuring the comfort and contentment of clients, sophisticated communication and control systems are necessary [7].

There is the potential for major improvements to be made to the efficiency of microgrids with the implementation of modern ways to control. Some examples of such approaches are machine learning and predictive analytics. Because of these algorithms, it is now feasible to make proactive decisions in order to guarantee that energy is allocated and utilized efficiently. They are able to accomplish this by forecasting future energy generation, consumption trends, and even malfunctions in equipment [8].

Operational Issues and Traditional Responses

When it comes to establishing the overall health of an electric power system, one of the most significant variables to look at is question. The regulation of the voltage in a distribution system is an essential and major operational condition that must be satisfied with the system. If this condition is not met, the voltage cannot be maintained within the acceptable range for the system [9].

Alterations in voltage are one of the most major side effects that may occur from the incorporation of DG into the distribution network. Alterations in voltage are one of the most severe negative effects that may result. The tolerance range that is established by the standards must be adhered to by any voltage restrictions that are put in place. Alterations are brought about in the power flow as well as the voltage profile of the system because of the connection of the DG to the primary network [10].

The integration of DG into the distribution network results in power flow in both directions rather than just one. The difference between the quantity of energy created and the amount of electricity used to power devices is what determines this value. Harmonics and flickering are only two examples of power quality problems that become worse when dispersed generators are incorporated into the power grid [10-11]. There are many more problems as well. As a consequence of the incorporation of DG into the low voltage distribution system, conventional voltage control devices may have a more difficult time functioning, the voltage may become imbalanced at various locations where DGs are coupled, or the voltage may become less stable. All of these outcomes are possible consequences of the integration of DG into the low voltage distribution system. It is possible for all of these issues to arise.

Because of this, the traditional operation of voltage regulation has to be investigated further within the framework of an intelligent distribution system. A description of a few of these typical voltage control tools may be found lower down in this article.

On Load Tap Changer (OLTC):

Tap changing devices are among the most dependable and long-lasting tools for voltage control that have ever been invented. They also have a very long lifespan. Switching procedures for OLTC are still in the process of being designed as of this writing. Tap changers are a major contributor to the wear and strain that eventually leads to the failure of transformers, which is one of the most common reasons for their failure.[8] If the penetration of DG continues to rise, it is entirely conceivable that this will have a significant impact on the level of distribution. Within the context of this scenario, the control mechanism of the OLTC has the potential to end up creating an unusual or one-of-a-kind tap mechanism.

II. OBJEACTIVES

1. To examine the power sharing concept with numerous DG units operating inside a microgrid while utilising a variety of control mechanisms.

2. To put into action the voltage-frequency controller for a system that is isolated.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A Microgrid's Power Sharing Among Many Distributed Generators

Since Distributed Generation and its activity has experienced childhood pair with the Utility lattice, connecting DG with the utility power supply has increased the stress over the microgrid control and power sharing among many DGs. This is due to the fact that Distributed Generation and its activity has experienced childhood pair with the Utility lattice. At the end of the day, a microgrid can function in one of two ways: either in the mode that is associated with the grid or in the mode known as island mode. When utilizing the island mode of operation, it is necessary for one DG unit to transfer its output power age to another DG unit in accordance with the heap.

As a result, authority is preserved in order to keep a strategic distance from the rot of execution [12-13]. A decentralized control system is an absolute necessity for microgrid operations in order to keep a safe distance from massive capital expenditures and a lower level of consistent quality. Under a decentralized system for sharing electricity, the guidelines for the dynamic power output of DGs and the recurrence deviation become fundamentally important. As a consequence, the regulation of the dynamic power-recurrence among the multiple DGs is essential to the operation of a microgrid in an effective manner.

At this point, the sharing technique is carried out with the assistance of two hang techniques, particularly unit power control (UPC) and feeder stream control (FFC), in conjunction with arrangement and equal design. These control approaches' major mission is to successfully achieve genuine and responsive power imparting to managed microgrid recurrence and voltage [14]. With regard to the control of dynamic power, a DG may be designated as either a dispatchable or non-dispatchable unit. The DG known as the Dispatchable DG is the one that generates regulated real power when it is requested. As a consequence of this, these DGs are distributed to the project of managing voltage and recurrence using the island way of activity. Microturbines and fuel cells are the models here. Non-Dispatchable DGs are referred to as such despite the fact that renewable energy-based DGs function in accordance with the greatest power-following notion. This is the case regardless of whether or not the microgrid is connected to the primary network. The production of these DGs is, for the most part, reliant not on interest but rather on climate. Solar and wind power are the model. At this time, the notion of power-sharing is only being developed for dispatchable DGs, while non-dispatchable DGs are being blessed with the opportunity to take on more duties [11].

Power Control Modes and Its Description

The dynamic power of DGs may be controlled in one of two unique ways: 1) through the CERTS microgrid model, Lasseter detailed these two different control modes for the user. When considering these two approaches to action, the ensuing contextual studies investigate the power distribution standard among the several DGs:

- Grid associated method of activity.
- Load variety under lattice associated mode.
- Island mode (i.e disconnected from principle matrix).
- Load variety under island mode.

The qualities and portrayal of these two modes are talked about beneath.

Modality for Unit Output Power Control (UPC)

The amount of power that is injected by a DG unit is maintained at an optimum worth (Pref) while the device is operating in UPC mode. Because of this, both the voltage (V) at the PCC and the current flowing from the DG's output are subject to estimation. The calculated value of the infused power from the DG is sent back to the generator after being derived from careful assessments of voltage and current [12]. The controller is shown in Figure.1.



Figure .1 Unit Output Power Control Mode

In lattice related mode, the DG maintains a stable power greatly during load variation because the basic matrix itself compensates for the confusion in the power; nevertheless, in island mode, all DGs are expected to perfectly follow the heap variation. Active power-recurrence (P-f) hang controller is used in order to analyze the distributed generation (DG) power sharing. Microgrid recurrence is used as a standard indicator among DGs in hang control in order to regulate the dynamic power age. This P-f hang control has been shown to be effective under a variety of power system operating situations, including recurrence/voltage subordinate loads and system disasters [13].

The hang condition establishes a connection between the recurrence and the DG output power in the following manner (3.1 and 3.2).

$$f' = f_0 - k_m (P' - P_0)$$

(3.1)

The UPC droop is represented by the symbol Km, were

$$K_m = -\frac{\Delta f}{P' - P_0} \tag{3.2}$$

where

$$\Delta f = f' - f_0$$

f'= DG has shifted their frequency to a new band.

 f_0 = cycle normal de fonctionnement de la DG

P'= A new operating point with increased power output

 P_0 = Rating for the power output in nominal units

 K_m = Using a tilt to manage drooping effectively

V⁰= The Typical Voltage

Q⁰= a setting for the reactive power value

Based on the conditions described above, when the heap becomes larger while the When switched to island mode, the DG raises its maximum output power while simultaneously lowering its operating frequency. 3.2 Illustration depicts the hang normal for Equation 2, which may be found in the previous figure.



Figure .2 P-f Droop Characteristics

Mode of Feeder Flow Control

The most important purpose of this mode is to direct the appropriate amount of power from the feeder flow to the point where the unit is first introduced (FLref).Therefore, the voltage at the point where normal coupling is anticipated to occur, as well as the line current (I), Feeder) are predicted to be 3.3.When the heap grows in size while the framework is in associated mode, the DG increases their output in order to maintain a consistent flow of feeders. After then, the amount of electricity that is supplied by the network will remain constant despite the different loads being placed on it. From the point of view of the utility, the microgrid therefore seems to be a burden that can be managed [14].

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Power Quality Enhancement

The rapid advancement of power hardware interfaced DG in microgrid systems means that enhancing the nature of power supply is a big issue that has to be attended to even in island mode. This is something that should be prioritized. This island operation might be due to a problem, or it could be due to a shift in the weight being carried. Voltage and frequency, which are two of the most important performance criteria, are thrown out of whack as a result of this switch, and here is a possibility of power infusion or assimilation between DGs. This is the case whether the power is real or receptive. Because of this, there is an imbalance in the distribution of power among DGs. These are some of the most common characteristics of power quality problems [15]. The aforementioned concerns will have a discernible impact on the hardware of the end client. To put this into perspective, it is essential for the microgrid to maintain the same level of power supply even within the most remote place.

In this part, we will discuss the power control technique for voltage source inverters, which will depend on the upgrade approach that will be used to ease the power quality difficulties that were previously mentioned [16-17]. The voltage and frequency guideline, load sharing, and all out consonant mutilation are the essential vital factors that are engaged to enhance specifically throughout the progression from grid connected with island mode and furthermore during load adjustments. The process for controlling the power consists of two control loops: 1) An inner loop equipped with current controllers to cancel out high-frequency disturbances.2) An outside power loop equipped with a PI controller to distribute both the real and the apparent power among the DGs. The power controller makes use of two standard satrapies, which are: 1) A control strategy based on P-Q, and 2) a control system based on V-f. In order to fine-tune the settings of the power controller, an intelligent improvement approach known as the Ant Colony Optimization procedure was utilized. The construction of the microgrid that is currently being used is made up of two distributed generators (DG), both of which have an equal connection with the utility grid. The approach that is being offered here is that when using the island way of operation, both DG units get V-f system to direct voltage and frequency; however, during load change, DG1 continues in V-f methodology and DG2 summons PQ control process to ensure maximum power exportation. This is the technique that is being proposed here. [13]

Mathematical Modeling of Vsi

This section provides an analysis of the numerical display of the three-phase VSI. The microgrid model is depicted in Figure (3) as proceeding with two DG units and calculating an average weight. This particular construction of a microgrid is connected to the utility grid by means of a static trade switch.



Figure 3 Microgrid Model

Both of the DG units shown in Figure 3 are connected to the public power supply by means of an inverter-based voltage source. The inner workings of a single DG are which consists of a three-phase inverter linked to the grid by an LC filter. The inverter is connected to the grid.

V. SIMULATION RESULTS

Case 1: Transient strength investigation during shortcoming

At the utility grid, a three-stage fault and a Line to ground deficit have been created with the intention of conducting a strength investigation during the transitory time. In a short amount of time following the discovery of the defect, the microgrid was cut off from both the primary grid and any transient starts in the system [18]. The evaluation of stability is concluded when it is considered that a shortage occurs after one second and is cleared after one and a half seconds by the action of the circuit breaker that is nearest. The accompanying Figures (4 -5 investigate the influence that the P-f and Q-V hang controllers have on the hang position. The voltage at the PCC and the frequency of the microgrid are the two most important execution parameters that are evaluated.



a) Voltage at PCC because of Line to Ground shortcoming



b) PCC voltage as a result of a three-phase failure



Figure 5. Voltage at PCC as a result of a fault in all three phases

c) Frequency of the Microgrid due to Line to Ground fault



Figure 6 Microgrid frequency as a result of a fault in the line to the ground

d) Frequency of the microgrid due to Three phase fault



Figure 7 Frequency of the Microgrid due to Three Phase Fault

The reaction of the system in its transitory time frame is discussed in the graphics that were presented before. As can be seen from the image, the voltage at PCC saw a significant drop in magnitude at the time of the deficient occurrence [15-19].

The controller assists in bringing the voltage of the microgrid at PCC back to a level that is approximately equivalent to its apparent value. The voltage is roughly estimated to be 0.8 p.u, but when the three-stage problem is resolved, the voltage is almost back to where it was initially.

Case 2: Transient Stability Analysis at the hour of turning over Induction engine turns over

In order to finish the inquiry into the robustness of the microgrid at the hour of the engine load turning over, a 0.75-second turn on an induction motor was performed. When the microgrid is first started up, the model of the microgrid has a momentary disturbing effect. After a certain amount of elapsed time, the engine reaches its maximum power output.[16]

It is assumed that the power being drawn from the impedance load is zero. The true, responsive power induction engine, together with its many defects, are depicted in the figures that follow (Figures 8-.11). In addition, the issue current and issue voltage are observed for each of the three phases in their entirety.

- a) Line to Ground Fault
- b) Fault Current



Figure 8 Current flowing via the fault during a Line to Ground interruption Voltage of a Fault



Figure 9 Voltage of the fault at the moment of a line failure to ground connection True Authority







Figure 11 Reactive Power at the time of Line to Ground fault

VI. CONCLUSION

In accordance with the control modes and arrangements, the power sharing instrument among a large number of DGs was investigated. However, despite the fact that the rule of power sharing for FFC mode DGs was more complicated than that of UPC mode DGs, it proved to be more useful than UPC mode DGs. FFC mode DG will automatically coordinate the different loads, regardless of whether they are associated with the grid or operating independently. The UPC control mode and the layout FFC DGs were unable to divide the power in a suitable manner when the progress time frame was in effect. Following that, FFC modes DGs are constructed using an equal game plan in order to offer appropriate power sharing. The results of the reenactment demonstrate that all DGs correctly shared the power by utilizing the method that was carried out, which also maintains the same frequency and voltage levels inside the building to the greatest extent feasible.

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