Fault-tolerant Control of a Master Generation Unit in an Islanded Microgrid


* Tecnológico de Monterrey, Campus Monterrey, Monterrey NL México, ismael.minchala@gmail.com, {adriana.vargas.mtz, legarza, rmm}@itesm.mx
** Concordia University, Montréal QC, Canada, ymzhang@encs.concordia.ca
*** Universidad Politécnica Salesiana, Cuenca AZ, Ecuador, ecalle@aps.edu.ec

Abstract: Two model-based fault-tolerant control design strategies are presented for a Diesel Engine Generator (DEG) working as a master generation unit in an islanded microgrid consisting of a hybrid wind-diesel-photovoltaic power system with a Battery Storage System (BSS). A Model Predictive Control (MPC) scheme and a Model Reference Adaptive Control (MRAC) scheme have been selected for precise and stable voltage and frequency regulation in the DEG. A Fault Detection and Diagnosis (FDD) module is added to the MPC structure, in order to reconfigure the control strategy when actuator faults in the DEG are present. MRAC is used in combination with a PID controller tuned by a Genetic Algorithm (GA). Improved performance over a baseline controller, IEEE type 1 Automatic Voltage Regulator (AVR), is achieved in a developed realistic simulation environment based on Matlab/Simulink.

Keywords: Fault-Tolerant Control, Microgrids, Power systems

1. INTRODUCTION

The traditional way of delivering energy to the consumers has been experiencing changes from the topology point of view. Certainly, the most noticeable one is the installation of the smart meters. Additionally, another important concept related with improving energy delivery is the microgrid concept, for whose right integration into the main grid, some challenges need to be studied. One of those is the frequency and voltage regulation in interconnected electrical systems with multiple generation sources. Many different approaches have been studied and proposed for both grid-connected and islanded microgrid operation. Grid-connected operation relies on main grid parameters. On the other hand, islanded microgrid operation needs a frequency leader due to the high integration of Renewable Energy Sources (RES) whose intermittent characteristic due to climate dependability, complicates the use of traditional control schemes. For instance, a Sliding Mode Control for voltage amplitude regulation of a stand-alone synchronous generator connected to a resistive load is presented in Munoz-Aguilar et al. (2011), while in Kumar et al. (2008) a frequency regulator for a hybrid wind-diesel power system through multiple PI controllers is proposed. LPV control strategies have also been used for similar cases, where a DEG is feeding a group of loads He and Yang (2006) and interconnected with RES forming a hybrid power system, Croci et al. (2012). However, the above-mentioned works do not consider important issues on fault-tolerance of hybrid power systems for reliable electricity generation. This fact motivated the current research work to be presented in this paper.

This paper presents and extended discussion and performance comparison of two control approaches for controlling a master generation unit in a microgrid, one of them is deeply discussed as a Fault-tolerant MPC (FMPMC) presented in Minchala-Avila et al. (2013) and the other is a hybrid FTC detailed in this paper as the combination of an MRAC and a PID controller tuned by a GA.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 gives a brief description of the microgrid modeling. Section 3 deals with the controllers design. Section 4 presents simulation results and performance analysis and finally conclusions are drawn in Section 5. Acronyms are summarized at the end of the paper.

2. MODELING OF THE MICROGRID COMPONENTS

The microgrid that will be used as a study case for testing the proposed controllers is shown in Fig. 1, which is composed of different Distributed Generation (DG) units, such as: a DEG, a wind energy conversion system, a PhotoVoltaic (PV) array, two BSS and power converters. Since the main focus of this paper is to design the a fault-tolerant control strategy for the master generation unit, the DEG modeling procedure is to be presented: diesel engine and synchronous generator, while the modeling
procedure of the other components are out of the scope of this paper.

2.1 Diesel engine generator

**Diesel engine.** Figure 2 shows a block diagram of the Diesel Engine (DE). The actuator block is modeled by a first-order system with a gain $K_s$ and a time constant $T_a$. On the other hand, the DE block contains the combustion system and it is responsible for the movement of the pistons and in consequence the crankshaft will generate a torque $T_m$ in the shaft. Some research papers, Lee et al. (2008), use a time delay $e^{-\tau s}$ and a torque constant $K_s$ for modeling this block. The flywheel block is an approximation of the inertia dynamics generated inside the machine, $\eta$ represents the flywheel acceleration constant and the coefficient $\delta$ represents friction. State $x_1(t)$ represents the amount of fuel injected to the DE, which is one of the parameters to be minimized for an optimal integration of this DG unit into a microgrid. The output $x_2(t)$ represents the angular velocity of the shaft of the engine. The input $d(t)$ is used for modeling load changes in the shaft of the rotor. The continuous-time model of the DE is represented in state-space equations, as follows:

\[
\dot{x}(t) = A_0 x(t) + A_1 x(t-\tau) + B_0 u(t) + F d(t) \quad (1)
\]

\[
A_0 = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{\tau} & 0 \\ 0 & -\delta \eta \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \eta K_s & 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
B_0 = \begin{bmatrix} K_s \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad F = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}
\]

A state-space model using dynamic equations in the dq reference frame, through a Park’s transformation for a pure resistive load $R_L$ connected into the synchronous machine is presented in Munoz-Aguilar et al. (2011) and is summarized as follows:

\[
L \frac{dx}{dt} = Ax + Bu_F \quad (2)
\]

\[
A = \begin{bmatrix} -(R_s + R_L) & \omega L_s & 0 \\ -\omega L_s & -(R_s + R_L) - \omega M_s & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -R_F \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
x = \begin{bmatrix} i_d \\ i_q \\ i_F \end{bmatrix}, \quad L = \begin{bmatrix} L_s & 0 & M_s \\ 0 & L_s & 0 \\ M_s & 0 & L_F \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}
\]

where $[i_d, i_q, i_F]^T$ are the dq stator and field currents, respectively; $R_s$ and $R_F$ are the stator and field resistances; $L_s, L_m,$ and $L_F$ are the stator, magnetizing, and field inductances; $M_s$ represents mutual inductance; $\omega = 2\pi f$ is the electrical angular speed; $v_d$ and $v_q$ are the dq stator voltages; and $v_F$ is the field voltage.

3. CONTROLLER DESIGN

Figure 1 depicts the hybrid power system architecture to be controlled, where DC stands for Distributed Controller and CB stands for Circuit Breaker. The microgrid was designed with Homer software. HOMER is a computer model that simplifies the task of designing DG systems - both on and off-grid, Homer Energy LLC (2013). An
Fig. 3. Fault-tolerant MPC structure for the DEG control.

optimal microgrid architecture for RES integration is obtained with this software, although assumptions of perfect controllers for microgeneration units are considered in the optimization process and neither transient behavior nor stability issues of the microgrid are taken into account in this design. To overcome these drawbacks, the DC characteristics developed for this hybrid power system are:

1. $DC_1$ implements two non-decoupled MPCs as a first approach and two MRACs as a second approach, which are in charge of regulating grid frequency and voltage amplitude. A $DE$ is used as a prime mover, which drags a synchronous generator at a constant speed. It is well known that the frequency of an islanded microgrid is determined by the mechanical speed $\omega_m$, which is provided by the $DE$, while the voltage amplitude is set by the synchronous generator field voltage.

2. $DC_2$ is regarded to power generation control of the Wind Turbine Generator (WTG), which works in the power rated zone. An MPC for a limited range of the blade pitch angle, $0 < \beta < 15$, is implemented. The WTG is tested in power-rated region of operation under a variable wind speed profile.

3. $DC_3$ controls a bi-directional AC-to-DC converter to manage battery charge and discharge. A three-phase, full-wave and phase-controlled rectifier is used for AC-to-DC conversion, while for DC-to-AC conversion a bridge type IGBT Voltage Source Inverter (VSI) controlled through Space Vector Pulse Width Modulation (SVPWM) Abu-Rub et al. (2012), has been implemented.

4. $DC_4$ represents an MPPT circuit implemented in a DC-to-DC boost converter for power extraction from the PV array. Switching duty cycle for the boost converter is optimized by the MPPT controller with the incremental conductance technique, Kish et al. (2012) and the addition of an integral regulator.

5. $DC_5$ represents a bi-directional DC-to-DC converter and also is in charge of controlling power conversion of the DC-to-AC converter which links the DC bus with node 3. Therefore, the PV array is connected to the utility grid by a boost converter ($DC_4$) and a VSI. Meanwhile, the battery is connected to the common DC bus via a bi-directional DC-to-DC converter. A buck-boost converter is used, whose purpose is to charge the battery when there is enough generating power and to support load perturbations and lower power generation from the PV array due to climate changes, e.g. sun occlusions.

3.1 MPC Design

MPC is an optimal control algorithm capable of managing constraints in its structure. An accurate model of the system is needed in order to predict the response of the system over a prediction horizon, $N_p$, to an optimal predicted control input $\tilde{u}(k+i|k)$, where $k < i < k+N_c$, $N_c$ represents the control horizon and $\tilde{u}(k+N_c-1|k) = \tilde{u}(k+N_c-1+i|k)$ for $N_c < i < N_p$. Most MPC designs are formulated in discrete-time with a fixed sampling period. A discrete-time state-space representation for the system to be controlled is:

$$x(k+1) = f(x(k), u(k)), \quad k \in \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$$

(3)
where \( \mathbf{x}(k) \) represents the state vector and \( \mathbf{u}(k) \) is the system input. Since MPC allows constraints management, both \( \mathbf{x}(k) \) and \( \mathbf{u}(k) \) are to be restricted according to:

\[
\mathbf{x}(k) \in \mathbb{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \quad \mathbf{u}(k) \in \mathbb{U} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p \tag{4}
\]

A cost function has to be selected for the controller design. The following choice encompasses many alternatives documented in the literature, Cortes et al. (2008):

\[
J(\mathbf{x}(k), \mathbf{u}(k)) = F(\mathbf{x}(k + N_p)) + \sum_{i=k}^{k+N_c-1} L(\mathbf{x}(i), \mathbf{u}(i)) \tag{5}
\]

where \( F(\cdot) \) and \( L(\cdot) \) are weighting functions for penalizing predicted system behavior. MPC is achieved by performing a constrained optimization of (5) for finding an optimal control sequence, \( \mathbf{u}(k) = \{\ddot{u}(k), \ddot{u}(k+1), \ldots, \ddot{u}(k+N_c-1)\} \).

The optimization yields an optimal control sequence where only the first element is used for controlling the system, while the whole optimization procedure is repeated in each sampling step.

To provide fault-tolerance to the classic MPC, an FDD module is added to its structure, and proper decisions regarding the information from this module have to be taken. Therefore, a Fault-Tolerant MPC (FTMPC) is composed of the MPC, FDD module and a reconfiguration mechanism as the general structure of FTC system outlined in Zhang and Jiang (2008), as shown in Fig. 3.

A combination of the parity space technique and a Kalman Filter (KF) is proposed for the FDD module design. Since the reconfiguration mechanism relies on the FDD module, it is important to guarantee an accurate fault detection and diagnosis. The KF recursively estimates the DE’s actuator model, while the parity space residual generator is able to detect an actuator fault with high reliability, avoiding false alarms and unnecessary control system reconfiguration if only the KF would be used.

Using the post-failure model estimated by the KF, the reconfiguration mechanism recalculates the controller gains \( K_{ff} \) and \( K_{fb} \), and the constraint matrices \( M \) and \( \Gamma \) shown in Fig. 3, Minchala-Avila et al. (2013).

### 3.2 MRAC Design

An MRAC performs a closed-loop controller that embraces the parameters that must be optimized in order to change the system response to accomplish the desired or ideal output. The adaptation mechanism modifies the controller parameters to match the real output with the reference model output. The reference model represents the ideal model behavior. Even though there are different schemes to design an MRAC controller, the MRAC used in this paper is based in Lyapunovs methodology in view of its advantage for guaranteeing system stability. This methodology demands finding a Lyapunov’s function, \( V \in \mathbb{R}^n \), positive definite whose time derivative must be negative definite or semidefinite. In Vargas-Martínez et al. (2013), the proposed Lyapunov function is given as follows:

\[
V(e, \theta_1, \theta_2) = \frac{1}{2} \left( a_1 e^2 + \frac{b_r}{\gamma} (\theta_1 - 1)^2 + \frac{b_r}{\gamma} (\theta_2 - 1)^2 \right) \tag{6}
\]

where \( b_r, \gamma \) and \( a_1 \) > 0. Equation (6) will be zero when the error is zero and the controller parameters are equal to the desired values.

The MRAC is combined with a classic PID controller tuned by a GA in order to overcome the limitations of the classic MRAC structure, i.e. limited fault accommodation threshold in comparison with the one of the MRAC combined with other structures. The PID controller is placed in the feedforward loop of the classic MRAC, as it is shown in Fig. 4 where the control structure of the MRAC-PID for regulating DE’s speed (frequency of the grid) is presented. The PID controller parameters were obtained by using a GA search to track the desired system trajectory with the help of Matlab - Optimization Toolbox. In this scheme, the desired closed-loop behavior of the system is established using the model reference trajectory, i.e. no faults in the system.

On the other hand, the voltage regulation is done by manipulating field voltage of the synchronous generator through a classic MRAC. This control scheme is shown in Fig. 5. MRAC provides the advantage of accommodating any deviation of the system, either these deviations are faults or perturbations.

### 4. SIMULATION RESULTS

The system architecture shown in Fig. 1 was implemented in Matlab/Simulink®. Four different controllers were tested in the DEG (DC1), without changing the controllers structure in DC2, DC3, DC4 and DC5. The first scheme implemented is the baseline control system for speed and voltage control that Matlab has in its library, i.e. governor and PI controller for the rotor speed control and the IEEE type 1 AVR for maintaining the
Fig. 5. MRAC scheme for voltage regulation.

voltage amplitude of the microgrid. Afterwards, an MPC without fault-tolerance was implemented. The third controller was the FTMPC. Finally, MRAC-PID is tested. Variable profiles for wind velocity (m/s) and solar irradiance (W/m²) were used during the simulation. Different operating conditions were tested in order to evaluate and compare robustness of the controllers. These events are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Time of occurrence (s)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diesel only generation</td>
<td>0 &lt; t &lt; 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTG ignition</td>
<td>t = 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSS-1 charging process</td>
<td>25 &lt; t &lt; 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSS-2 charging process</td>
<td>25 &lt; t &lt; 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actuator degradation induced of 50%</td>
<td>t &gt; 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 = 0.5 MW connection</td>
<td>t &gt; = 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV array connection</td>
<td>t &gt; = 80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-Ph fault at Node 3</td>
<td>t = 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CB-31 clears fault</td>
<td>t = 100.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stabilization period</td>
<td>100.5 &lt; t &lt; 110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steady-state behavior</td>
<td>110 &lt; t &lt; 130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6 compares the comparison of the performance of the system for the DEG’s output variables. Both frequency and voltage amplitude are shown for the four control strategies. It is noticeable from Fig. 7 the fact that the baseline control system and the MPC without fault-tolerance conduct the system to instability after the actuator fault occurs, while the FTMPC and the MRAC are able to maintain system stability and to achieve satisfactory performance in maintaining desired synchronous generator output voltage and DE rotor speed for all the operating events presented in the simulation. Apart from the important control objectives of voltage and frequency regulation in the microgrid, supply energy for the balanced load is also a very important task that must be satisfied in a microgrid operation,

\[ P_{DEG} = P_{total\ load} - P_{WTG} - P_{PV} \pm P_{BSS} \]  

where ± represents the possibility of a charging and discharging process of the BSS. Figure 7 shows the power generated by the DEG, WTG, PV and BSS. It is noticeable the fact that a correct power balance has been achieved; consequently a stable and reliable islands microgrid operation can be guaranteed.

In this paper a concrete BSS strategy for optimal charge and discharge of the batteries was not considered and it will be part of the near future work. Additionally, since distributed controllers are spread in the microgrid a two-layer control strategy is next step of the research for integrating optimal dispatch of energy and load coverage once the microgrid is operating in islanding mode.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Two fault-tolerant controllers have been tested for controlling a DE working as a master generation unit in an islanded microgrid configuration. Compared with a baseline control system, the developed control strategies: FTMPC and MRAC-PID achieved significantly better performance when regulating voltage and frequency of the microgrid, while guaranteeing energy supply for the demand load. The scenario of simulation included steady state, transient and fault events in order to test robustness of the controllers. The controller reconfiguration used in the FTMPC leads to a simple approach that does not involve any switching operation, which could lead to instability problems. Since MPC recalculates its output at every sampling time, the reconfiguration operation would be another loop calculation per se. On the other hand, MRAC has an inherent capability to accommodate perturbations, faults and model uncertainties. However, the use of only this type of controller has a limited fault accommodation threshold. To overcome this issue, an MRAC was combined with a PID controller in order to guarantee systems stability under actuator faults in the DEG.

REFERENCES


Fig. 6. Comparison of the control systems performance for the DEG.

Fig. 7. Power generated by DEG, WTG, PV and BSS.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronyms</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFTC</td>
<td>Active Fault-tolerant Control</td>
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<tr>
<td>AVR</td>
<td>Automatic Voltage Regulator</td>
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<tr>
<td>BSS</td>
<td>Battery Storage System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>Diesel Engine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DG</td>
<td>Distributed Generation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DGEG</td>
<td>Diesel Engine Generator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDD</td>
<td>Fault Detection and Diagnosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>Genetic Algorithm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPC</td>
<td>Model Predictive Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MRAC</td>
<td>Model Reference Adaptive Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV</td>
<td>PhotoVoltaic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PID</td>
<td>Proportional-Integral-Derivative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RES</td>
<td>Renewable Energy Source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WT</td>
<td>Wind Turbine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTG</td>
<td>Wind Turbine Generator</td>
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