Improved Power Factor Controller for Wind Generator and Applications

Jude K. Obichere, Member, IAENG, Milutin Jovanovic and Sul Ademi

Abstract – This journal paper presents a vector control (VC) of an emerging brushless doubly-fed reluctance (BDFRG) technology for large wind turbine applications. The BDFRG has been receiving increasing attention due to its low operation and maintenance costs afforded by the use of partially-rated power electronics, and the high reliability of brushless assembly, while offering performance competitive to its traditional slip-ring counterpart, the doubly-fed induction generator (DFIG). A robust VC strategy has been developed for a custom-designed BDFRG fed from a conventional ‘back-to-back’ IGBT converter. Preliminary studies have evaluated the algorithm under the optimum power factor control (OPFC) conditions which allow the improved efficiency of the generator-converter set and the entire wind energy conversion systems (WECS).

Keywords – Wind Energy, Vector Control, Optimum Power Factor Control, Brushless, Doubly-Fed Generators.

I. INTRODUCTION

The brushless doubly-fed generator (BDFG) has been considered as a viable replacement to the traditional DFIG for wind turbines [1]-[7]. In these applications, where only a limited variable speed capability is required (e.g. typically, in a 2:1 range or so [1], [4], [8]), the BDFG should retain the DFIG economic benefits of using a relatively smaller inverter (e.g. around 25% of the machine rating), but with higher reliability and maintenance-free operation afforded by the absence of brush gear [9], [10].

The BDFG has two standard stator windings of different applied frequencies and pole numbers, unlike the DFIG. The primary (power) winding is grid-connected, and the secondary (control) winding is normally supplied from a bi-directional power converter. A BDFG reluctance type (Fig. 1), the brushless doubly-fed reluctance generator (BDFRG) [1]–[4], appears to be more attractive than its ‘nested’ cage rotor form, the brushless doubly-fed induction generator (BDFIG) [5]–[7], [11], [12]. This preference has been mainly attributed to the prospect for higher efficiency [2] and simpler control associated with the cage-less reluctance rotor [14]. However, the BDFG rotor must have half the total number of stator poles to provide the rotor position dependent magnetic coupling between the stator windings required for the machine torque production [3].

With the recent introduction of the grid codes [15], another important BDFG merit is the superior low-voltage-fault-ride-through (LVFRT) capability to the DFIG [16]–[18]. It has been shown that owing to the larger leakage inductances and lower fault current levels, the LVFRT of the BDFG may be accomplished safely without a crowbar circuitry [15], [19]. These potential LVFRT performance advantages over the DFIG can be carried over to the BDFRG featuring the leakage reactance values of the same order as the BDFIG.

Various control algorithms have been developed for the BDFRG including scalar control [1], [21], vector control (VC) [1], [13], [21], [28], direct torque control [21], [22], torque and reactive power control [23], direct power control [24], sliding mode power control [25], field-oriented control [28], and even non-linear Lyapunov control theory [8]. Although a comparative analysis of some of these control methods has been partly made in [21], [28] (and more detailed for the DFIG in [16], [20]), it is interesting that there is very little reported specifically on Power Factor Control (PFC) of the BDFRG being of utmost importance for generator applications [19]. In the BDFRG, the ‘VC’ term is commonly referred to as the primary winding voltage control, by analogy to the stator voltage control of the DFIG. With a proper selection of the reference frames and careful tuning of the dedicated PI controllers, a very good potential and dynamic response of the VC scheme has been demonstrated without knowledge of any machine parameters. The VC performance is examined using the optimum power factor control (OPFC) strategy [23], [24] on a large, custom-built 2 MW BDFRG [4]. This control objective has been considered because of the achievable efficiency gain at unity line power factor. Extensive realistic simulation results taking into account the usual practical effects (e.g. transducers’ DC offset, noise in measurements,
and a PWM power converter model) are presented to support the discussions in this paper.

II. BASIC PRINCIPLE OF THE BDFRG

The dynamic model of the BDFRG in arbitrary rotating reference frames, assuming motoring convention, can be represented using standard complex notation as [3]:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{v}_p &= \mathbf{R}_p i_p + \frac{d\lambda_p}{dt} = \mathbf{R}_p i_p + \frac{d\lambda_p}{dt}\left[\theta_p \text{const} + j\omega_p\lambda_p\right] \\
\mathbf{v}_s &= \mathbf{R}_s i_s + \frac{d\lambda_s}{dt} = \mathbf{R}_s i_s + \frac{d\lambda_s}{dt}\left[\theta_s \text{const} + j\omega_s\lambda_s\right] \\
\lambda_p &= L_p i_p + \frac{L_{ps}}{L_p} \lambda_s + j\left(L_p i_p - L_{ps} i_s\right) \\
\lambda_s &= \lambda_{sd} + j\lambda_{sq} = \sigma L_s i_s + \frac{L_{ps}}{L_p} \lambda_p
\end{align*}
\]

where the primary and secondary winding are denoted by the subscripts ‘p’ and ‘s’ respectively, \(\sigma = 1 - \frac{L_{ps}}{L_p}\) is the leakage factor, and \(\lambda_p\) is the primary flux linking the secondary winding (i.e. the mutual flux linkage).

The fundamental angular velocity and torque relationships for the machine with 2p, r-pole wound rotor synchronous turbo-machine. It is also worth mentioning that all the \(\omega_p\) related components in (1), are in \(\omega_p\) frame, whilst the corresponding secondary counterparts, including the \(\lambda_p\) components in (3), are stationary in \(\omega_p\,\omega_{rm}\) frame [3]. Given that \(\lambda_p\) in (3) are approximately constant by the primary winding grid connection, torque control can obviously be achieved through the secondary \(d\,q\) currents in the \(\omega_p\) rotating frame.

Using (2), one can derive the mechanical power equation indicating individual contributions of each BDFRG winding:

\[
P_m = T_e \omega_{rm} = \frac{T_e \omega_p}{\omega_p} + \frac{T_e \omega_s}{\omega_s} = P_p (1 + \omega_p) \tag{5}
\]

The machine operating mode is determined by the power flow in the primary winding i.e. to the grid for the generating \(T_e < 0\) regime under consideration, while the secondary winding can either take or deliver real power \(P_s\) subject to its phase sequence i.e. the \(\lambda_p\) sign; the BDFRG would absorb (produce) \(P_s > 0\) at sub- or super-synchronous speeds.

III. CONTROLLER SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

The detailed BDFRG system layout with a generic controller design is presented in Fig. 2. A standard phase-locked-loop (PLL) algorithm, readily available in the Simulink library, has been used to retrieve the stationary alpha-beta frame angular positions \((0, \theta_p)\) of the primary voltage/flux vectors from the measured voltages and/or currents. Furthermore, a conventional vector controller with space-vector PWM of the active rectifier has been implemented for control of DC link voltage and unity line power factor [24], [27]-[32]. The primary real (P) and reactive (Q) power calculations are reference frame invariant and have been done using the stationary frame voltages \(v_{ab}\) and currents \(i_{ab}\) to avoid unnecessary conversions into their rotating \(d\,q\) equivalents, and the use of time-consuming trigonometric functions, allowing so the higher control rates and superior performance in practice. The Q reference is often set to zero \((Q^* = 0)\) for the unity primary power factor but can be any other value of interest for a given real power setting \((P^*)\) in power control mode, or the desired angular velocity \(\omega_{rm}\) in variable speed systems. For example, either \(P^*\) or \(\omega_{rm}\) may correspond to the Optimum Power Point Tracking (OPPT) of a wind turbine [1], [8] while \(Q^*\) was chosen to optimize efficiency of the WECS in this paper.

IV. VOLTAGE CONTROL (VC)

The control form expressions can be derived from the BDFRG space-vector model (1) in the natural reference frames, \(\omega_p\) (i.e. \(d\,q\) for the primary winding) and \(\omega_s\) (i.e. \(d\,q\) for secondary winding) rotating frames (Fig. 3), where the respective vector components appear as DC quantities.

Substituting for \(i_s\) from the \(\lambda_p\) equation of (1) into \(\mathbf{S}_p = \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{v}_p^*\mathbf{i}_p^*\) would lead to the following relationships for the primary mechanical and reactive power:

\[
P_p = \frac{3}{2} \omega_p (\lambda_{ps} i_q - \lambda_{pq} i_d) \tag{6}
\]

\[
Q_p = \frac{3}{2} \omega_p (\lambda_{pq} i_q - \lambda_{ps} i_d) - \lambda_{ps} i_q \tag{7}
\]
Fig. 3. Identification of primary voltage and flux vectors in a stationary α-β reference frame.

A trade-off of the machine parameter independence is that VC of \( P_p \) and \( Q_p \) is coupled as both the \( i_{sd} \) and \( i_{sq} \) secondary current components appear in (6) and (7). The level of this cross-coupling can be reduced by aligning the \( q_p \)-axis of the reference frame to the primary voltage vector as shown in Fig. 3. In this case the primary flux vector \( (\lambda_p) \), would be phase-shifted ahead of the corresponding \( d_p \)-axis depending on the winding resistance values which are getting smaller with larger machines. Therefore, for the frame alignment choice as in Fig. 3, \( \lambda_{psd} \gg \lambda_{psq} \) i.e. \( \lambda_{psd} \approx \lambda_{ps} \) so that the approximations of (6) and (7) become:

\[
P_p \approx \frac{3}{2} \omega_p \lambda_{ps} i_{sq} = \frac{3}{2} \omega_p \lambda_{psd} l_{psd} \tag{8}
\]

\[
Q_p \approx \frac{3}{2} \frac{\omega_p \lambda_p^2}{l_p} i_{sq} - \frac{3}{2} \frac{\omega_p \lambda_p l_{psd}}{l_{psd}} \approx \frac{3}{2} \omega_p \lambda_{psd} l_{psd} = \frac{3}{2} \omega_p \lambda_{psd} l_{psd} \tag{9}
\]

\[
= \frac{3}{2} \omega_p \lambda_{psd} \left( l_p - l_{psd} \right) = \frac{3}{2} \omega_p \lambda_{psd} l_{psd} \tag{10}
\]

The \( P_p \) vs \( i_{sq} \) and \( Q_p \) vs \( i_{sd} \) functions above are nearly linear, which justifies the use of PI controllers in Fig. 2. Therefore, all inductance variations in (8)-(10) can be effectively taken care of by optimal tuning of the PI gains so their prior knowledge is not required for control purposes.

V. OPFC MECHANISM OF BDFRG WIND TURBINE

The preliminary performance of the VC scheme in Fig. 2 has been assessed using the parameters of a large-scale BDFRG [4],[29] in Table I for simulation studies. In order to make the simulations as realistic as possible, the following actions have been taken and/or assumptions made: (i) The power electronic models from the SimPowerSystems toolbox have been implemented; (ii) High-frequency uncorrelated white noise and unknown slowly varying DC offset have been superimposed to the ideal signals to account for practical effects of the measurement noise and current/voltage transducers errors; (iii) Finally, the rotor position and speed information has been provided by a shaft sensor.

In a typical WECS, the turbine torque on the generator side of the gear-box for the maximum wind energy extraction in the base speed region (i.e. between the minimum ‘cut-in’, \( u_{\text{min}} \) and the rated wind speed, \( u_r \)), can be represented as [1],[8]:

\[
T_{opt} = \frac{A_p C_p (\lambda_{opt}) R^3}{2 g^{\lambda_{opt}}} \approx \omega_{r}^2 \omega_{rm}^2 = \omega_{r}^2 \omega_{rm}^2 \tag{11}
\]

where \( \rho \) is the air density, \( C_p(\lambda, \gamma) \) is the power coefficient (i.e. the maximum turbine efficiency as \( \lambda = \lambda_{opt} \) in this case), \( \lambda_{opt} = \frac{\omega_{rm}}{\omega} \) is the optimum tip speed ratio for a given wind speed \( u_r \), \( \omega \) is the turbine rotor angular velocity, \( \gamma \) is the pitch angle (normally fixed to zero to maximise \( C_p \)), \( R \) the radius of the circular swept area (\( \Lambda = \pi R^2 \)), and \( g = \frac{\omega_{rm}}{\omega} \) is the gear ratio. The shaft torque-speed profile in (4) is of the same form as (11):

\[
T_s = -\frac{P_r}{\omega_r} \left( \frac{n_{rm}}{n_{max}} \right)^2 \approx -19 \left( \frac{n_{rm}}{1000} \right)^2 \text{kNm} \tag{12}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Values &amp; Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Rotor inertia</td>
<td>3.8 kgm²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_p )</td>
<td>Primary resistance</td>
<td>0.0375 Ω</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R_s )</td>
<td>Secondary resistance</td>
<td>0.0575 Ω</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( L_p )</td>
<td>Primary inductance</td>
<td>1.17 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( L_s )</td>
<td>Secondary inductance</td>
<td>2.89 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( L_{ps} )</td>
<td>Mutual inductance</td>
<td>0.98 mH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( p_r )</td>
<td>Rotor poles</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \rho )</td>
<td>Primary power</td>
<td>2 MW</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( n_r )</td>
<td>Rated speed</td>
<td>1000 rev/min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( I_{p,s} )</td>
<td>Stator currents</td>
<td>1.5 kA rms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( V_p )</td>
<td>Primary voltage</td>
<td>690 V rms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( f_p )</td>
<td>Supply frequency</td>
<td>50 Hz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y/Y</td>
<td>Winding connections</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p/q</td>
<td>Stator poles</td>
<td>6/2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VI. SIMULATION RESULTS

The simulation results in Figs. 4-7 have been produced by running the control algorithms in Fig. 2 at 5 kHz switching rate for the IGBT converter. The DC link voltage has been maintained at \( = 1200 \) V by the PWM rectifier (i.e. the lineside bridge) supplied at 690 V, 50 Hz. The reference speed trajectory is set as a steep ramp signal suited for dynamically not very demanding wind power applications even under extreme turbulent wind conditions.

The top plots in Fig. 4 show the excellent speed tracking with no overshoot following the start-up period in both super- and sub-synchronous modes of the BDFRG over the limited speed range of 600-900 rpm. The primary electrical power \( (P) \) and electro-magnetic torque \( (T_e) \) curves reflect (12) for the specific speed settings. Except for a difference in losses, and considering that \( \omega_p \approx \omega \approx \text{const} \), \( P \) and \( T_e \) are directly related as follows from (5) and (6) which explains a close resemblance in their shape. The \( T_e \) deviations from the desired profile during the speed transients refer to the acceleration or deceleration torque term in (4) depending on whether the machine is to speed-up \( (T_a > 0) \) or slow-down.
(T_s < 0). The reasonably accurate and smooth Q_p ≈ 0 control can be observed to be little affected by the variable speed dependent loading disturbances, which means that the optimum power factor control (OPFC) conditions have been largely met. Note that the outer PI speed control loop is required to ensure effective variable speed operation at optimum tip-speed ratio.

Fig. 4. MPF performance of the BDFRG in a limited range around synchronous speed (750 rpm).

Fig. 5. MPF responses of the BDFRG current components in the corresponding rotating reference frames.

Fig. 6. PWM space Sectors, angular (theta) positions and switching times of active voltage vectors of the BDFRG showing a phase sequence reversal during the speed mode transition at unity power factor.

(Advance online publication: 18 May 2016)
The secondary (\(i_{\text{sd},i}\)) and primary (\(i_{\text{pd,q}}\)) current waveforms in Fig. 5 show no transient over-currents as the PI regulators do not need to be saturated to allow accurate tracking of the desired trajectories for the moderate ramp speed variations. A close link between the active q currents and the real power (torque), as well as the magnetizing d currents and Q, is immediately visible from the respective waveforms. The coupling effects of the \(i_{\text{sq}}\) clearly manifest themselves as speed (torque) dependent disturbance (e.g. offsets) in the respective non-controllable \(i_{\text{pd}}\) profiles by analogy to the P and Q scenario in Fig. 4.

Fig. 6 illustrates the step-wise PWM angular positions of the modulated secondary voltage vector (\(v_s\)), and the respective space sector variations, while Fig. 7 shows the respective secondary currents and voltages, during a speed reduction, from 900 rev/min. to 600 rev/min. That is, the speed mode change, from super- to sub-synchronous. In the super-synchronous mode, \(v_s\) rotates anti-clockwise as indicated by the ascending angular steps for the same phase sequence of the windings and \(\omega_s > 0\) in (2). The situation is reversed at sub-synchronous speeds when \(v_s\) rotates clockwise with the angular steps descending, which comes from the opposite phase sequence of the secondary to the primary winding since \(\omega_s < 0\) in (2). Notice that \(v_s\) becomes stationary at synchronous speed as the secondary currents are then DC i.e. \(\omega_s = 0\) in (2).

Fig. 8 shows the respective phase voltage and current waveforms which are \(\pi\)-rad out of phase as expected for unity power factor control (-1 in generating mode) in steady-state period.

As the PI controllers were observed to play significant role in the tuning sequence of the system, further simulation operations were carried out with proper selection of the reference frames. The improved simulation plots in Figs. 9, 10 and 11 are respectively produced by simulating and executing the VC scheme in Fig. 2 on a Simulink® compatible dSPACE® platform at 5 kHz inverter switching rate under similar operating conditions as simulated in Figs. 4, 5 and 7. A commercial DC machine drive has emulated the required variable prime mover (i.e. wind turbine) torque, measured by a Magtrol® torque transducer, as specified by (12) but with 14 Nm loading at 1000 rev/min. in real-time.

Excellent and improved simulation results were generated from the torque, real power, reactive power, primary and secondary dq currents and secondary voltages, thereby eliminating and reducing some noise and disturbances earlier obtained. With this development, it would be clearly deduced that the power factor control has been greatly improved due to the smoothness of the generated signals as depicted in Figs. 9, 10 and 11 in comparison with those of Figs. 4, 5 and 7 respectively.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

A novel optimum power factor control (OPFC) algorithm for maximum operation of the BDFRG – a viable, low cost and robust alternative to its widely-used counterpart, the conventional slip-ring doubly-fed induction generator (DFIG), has been carried out and evaluated by comprehensive simulation studies under typical operating conditions. Such vector control implementation can serve as a platform for further research on this emerging and prominent brushless machine topology for applications in large wind turbines and industries, where the cost advantages of partially-rated power electronics and high reliability of brushless structure can be fully utilized.

The improved simulation works in Matlab®/Simulink® have clearly demonstrated the immense potential and effectiveness of the controller(s) using the optimum power factor control strategy. The presented results are more than encouraging and can serve as basis for further research work on this machine.

(Advance online publication: 18 May 2016)
Fig. 9. Improved MPF performance of the BDFRG torque, real power and reactive power, in a limited range around synchronous speed (750 rpm).

Fig. 10. Improved MPF responses of the BDFRG current components in the corresponding rotating reference frames.

Fig. 11. Improved BDFRG secondary voltage waveforms showing a phase sequence reversal during the speed mode transition at unity power factor.

REFERENCES


(Advance online publication: 18 May 2016)