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**Single Phase Grid Tie Inverter for Solar PV Panels with Active Power
Decoupling Circuit**

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Decoupling Circuit**

by

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REPORT

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Dedicated to my mother and family

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Abstract

Single Phase Inverter for Solar PV Panels with Active Power Decoupling Circuit

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The University of Texas at Austin, 2012

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Abstract: Distributed energy resources like solar power (PV Panels) are usually connected to the AC grid through a single phase voltage source inverter (VSI). The major drawback associated with single phase grid tie inverters is the double frequency component of the grid that appears on the DC bus link. Large electrolytic capacitors are generally employed in the inverters to eliminate the ripple component. However, their bulkiness and relatively short lifetime are motivational factors to replace them with small film capacitors. This paper presents a synchronous boost/buck based active power decoupling circuit in parallel with the dc-bus link capacitor and discusses the different types of control strategies implemented. Simulation results are presented for each control technique and it is shown that the ripple on the DC bus link is largely reduced due to inclusion of this circuit along with an expected extension of the lifetime due to the reduction in the amount of dc-bus capacitance used.

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Chapter I: Overview of Grid Connected Photovoltaic Systems

In recent times, there has been an increasing interest in renewable energy among power electronics authorities in response to increased concern for the environment. Various types of inverter circuits and their control schemes for photovoltaic (PV) power generation systems have been studied. Especially, in the area of PV power generation system for residential purposes, small power single phase utility interactive inverters have been used continually [1]-[5].

Inverters interfacing the PV module(s) with the grid have two major tasks:

- Ensure that the PV module(s) operate at the maximum power point (MPP)
- Inject a sinusoidal current into the grid.

A schematic of a typical two-stage power converter is shown in Fig.1.1.

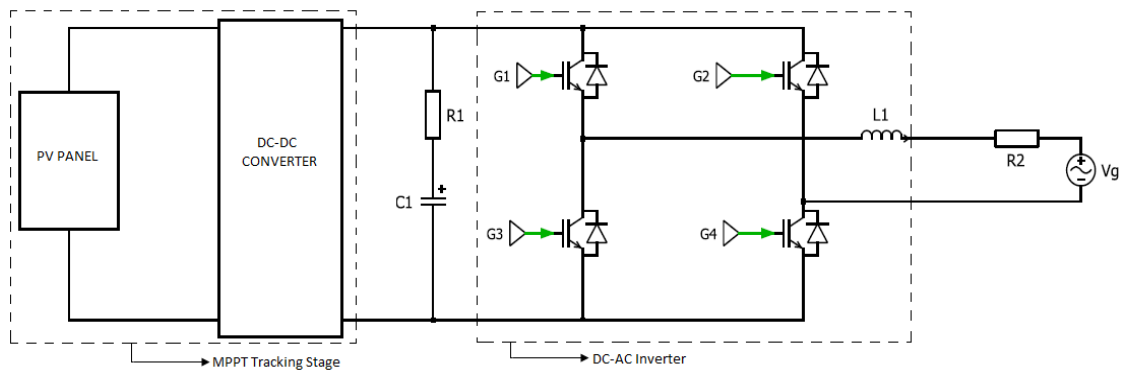


Fig.1.1: Two Stage Single Phase PV-Grid Interface

This project focuses on the second stage, which injects sinusoidal current into the grid with the assumption that the PV module operates at MPP. The following sections will discuss about the different sections of the PV-Grid Interface.

THE BUS LINK CAPACITOR

The bus link capacitor is a very crucial element in single phase DC to AC inverters. They are used to decouple the effects of the source inductance from the DC voltage source to the power bridge [6]. A typical hard switched pulse width modulated (PWM) inverter that converts DC voltage to a single phase AC voltage is shown in Fig.1.2. The bus link capacitor provides a low impedance path for the ripple currents associated with a hard switched inverter, because of the high frequency content. These ripple currents are generated because of the output inductance of the load, the bus voltage and the switching frequency of the inverter. Hence, the ripple currents form the primary factor in deciding the size of the bus link capacitor.

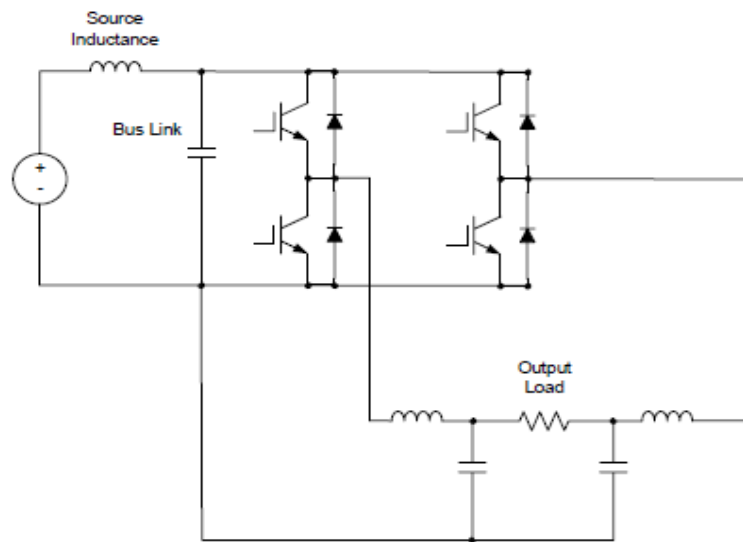


Fig.1.2: Single Phase Inverter

The bus link capacitor also reduces the leakage inductance of the inverter power bridge. When the semiconductor switches are turned on and off at a high switching frequency, the rate of change of current, $\frac{di}{dt}$ shoots up.

As a result of this shoot up, voltage spikes are produced according to the relation

$$V_L = L \frac{di}{dt} \quad (1.1)$$

where,

L is the leakage inductance

V_L is the voltage across the leakage inductance

This effect of the leakage inductance leads to decrease in the efficiency of the inverter power bridge. If the leakage inductance gets too large, the switching frequency of the power switches must be decreased to prevent the voltage spikes from damaging the power devices, and decreasing the switching frequency decreases the turn on and turn off losses in each of the power switches contributing to lower switching losses which manifest themselves in lesser heat dissipation in the switching devices. Thus, a low impedance DC bus is essential for an efficient inverter design. The bus link capacitor's equivalent series inductance (ESL) and external packaging is also, a key to reducing leakage inductance in the inverter power bridge.

Different types of capacitors maybe used including:

- Electrolytic Capacitors
- Film Capacitors
- Ceramic capacitors

The succeeding chapters will discuss the disadvantages and advantages of using the above mentioned types of capacitors. Table 1.1 and Table 1.2 compares the technical, mechanical and economical aspects of an Aluminium electrolytic capacitor and a dry Propylene film capacitor.

Parameter	Electrolytic Capacitor(Al)	Film Capacitor(Dry Propylene)
Temperature range	-25 ⁰ C to 105 ⁰ C	-55 ⁰ C to 105 ⁰ C
Capacitance	5600 μ F \pm 20%	350 μ F \pm 10%
Capacitor Working Voltage	450V DC	500V DC
Capacitor Surge Voltage	500V DC	650V DC
ESR at 10kHz (m Ω)	20 typical	0.8-1 typical
ESL		<27nH
Leakage Current (μ A)	4.76 at 450V DC	0.035 at 500V DC
Ripple Current(45 ⁰ C) Ambient 10kHz (Arms)	35.64	78.10
Power Density Ambient 10kHz, 45 ⁰ C (W/in ³)	303.3	1486.5
Current Density Ambient 10kHz,45 ⁰ C(Arms/in ³)	0.67	2.97
Dissipated Heating Loss(W)	16.5	0.83
Thermal Resistance(⁰ C/W _{dissipated})		4.7
Energy Density Ambient 10kHz,45 ⁰ C(J/in ³)	10.7	1.7

Table 1.1: Comparison between Technical Specifications of an Electrolytic and Film Capacitor

Parameter	Electrolytic Capacitor(Al)	Film Capacitor(Dry Propylene)
Capacitor Dimensions (mm)	Diameter=76.2, Height=190	Diameter=83.3, Height=79
Cubic Volume(in ³)	52.87	26.27
Weight(lbs)	1.5	1.182
Life expectancy at 85 ⁰ C,325V DC Bus voltage, full load current(hrs)	20,000	190,000
End of life	Electrolyte wears out causing a large loss of capacitance >20%	Electrode wear out for loss of capacitance>10%
Cost/μF 25 ⁰ C	0.0045 \$	0.1 \$
Cost/Amp 45 ⁰ C	0.63 \$	0.45\$

Table 1.2: Comparison between Mechanical and Economical Aspects of an Electrolytic and Film Capacitor

PV INVERTERS

PV inverters can be realized using different topologies [7]-[8], which are classified on the basis of

- Number of power processing stages
- Location of power decoupling capacitors
- Types of grid interface

Number of Power Processing Stages:

The processing stages can either be in cascade or in parallel. Fig.1.3 depicts single stage and multiple stage inverters. The PV modules can be interpreted either as a single PV module, or as multiple PV modules in series/parallel connections.

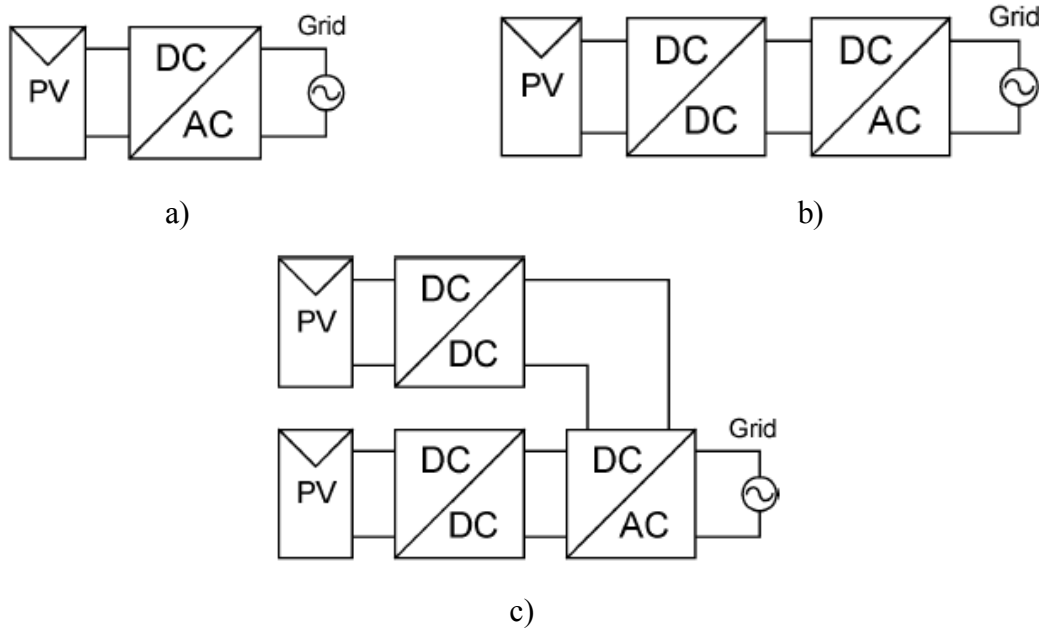


Fig.1.3[7]: Types of PV Inverters- (a) A Single Power Processing Stage (b) Dual Power Processing Inverter (c) Dual-Stage Inverter

Fig.1.3(a) is an example of a single-stage inverter, which performs MPPT, grid current control and, perhaps, voltage amplification. This is an example of a centralized inverter and it must be designed to handle a peak power of twice the nominal power.

Fig.1.3(b) depicts a two stage inverter. The DC-DC converter performs the MPPT and sometimes, the voltage amplification. The control of the DC-AC inverter decides the output of the converter. It could either be a pure DC voltage in which case, it is sufficient enough to design the DC-DC converter to handle nominal power, or the output current of the DC-DC converter is modulated to follow a rectified sine wave in

which case, the converter needs to be designed to handle twice the nominal power. The DC-AC inverter controls the grid current by means of PWM or hysteresis current control in the former solution. In the latter, the inverter switches at line frequency, and converts the rectified current to a full-wave sine. The converter takes care of the current control. For low nominal power, the latter solution is recommended for higher efficiency, whereas in the case of high nominal power the PWM mode is recommended.

Finally, Fig.1.3(c) is the solution for multi-string inverter. The sole task for each DC-DC converter is MPPT and perhaps voltage amplification. The converters are connected to the DC link of an inverter, which takes care of the grid current control. This solution is recommended since better control of each PV module/string is achieved and that inverter may be based on standard variable speed drives. In this project, the inverter topology chosen can be considered to be either a single stage inverter or a two stage inverter, since the focus is on controlling the grid current and DC bus link voltage, and the PV module is assumed to be operating at MPP.

Location of Power Decoupling Capacitors:

Power decoupling can be obtained either by using an electrolytic capacitor or a film capacitor. The capacitor is either placed in parallel with the PV modules for a single stage inverter as shown in Fig.1.4a) or in the DC link between the inverter stages, for a multi-stage inverter as shown in Fig.1.4b). In this project, the decoupling capacitor is placed in parallel with the PV modules.

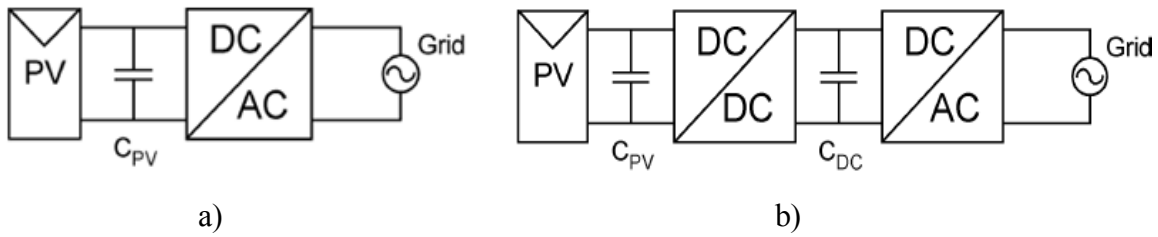


Fig.1.4[7] : Different Locations of the Power Decoupling Capacitor.

Types of Grid Interfaces:

Current source inverters are the main priority in this classification since, injecting a sinusoidal current into the grid is our prime concern. Four kinds of grid-connected inverters are shown in Fig.1.5. The topologies of Fig. 1.5(a) and 1.5(b) are line-frequency-commutated current-source inverters (CSIs). The current into the stage is already modulated to follow a rectified sinusoidal waveform and the task for the circuit is simply to re-create the sine wave and inject it into the grid. The circuits apply zero-voltage switching (ZVS) and zero-current switching (ZCS), and hence switching losses are absent. Since the current is modulated by another stage, the other stage must be designed for a peak power of twice the nominal power, and power decoupling must be achieved with a capacitor in parallel with the PV module(s). The converter feeding the circuit of Fig.1.5(a) can be a push-pull with a single secondary transformer winding, and a flyback with two secondary windings for the circuit of Fig.1.5(b).

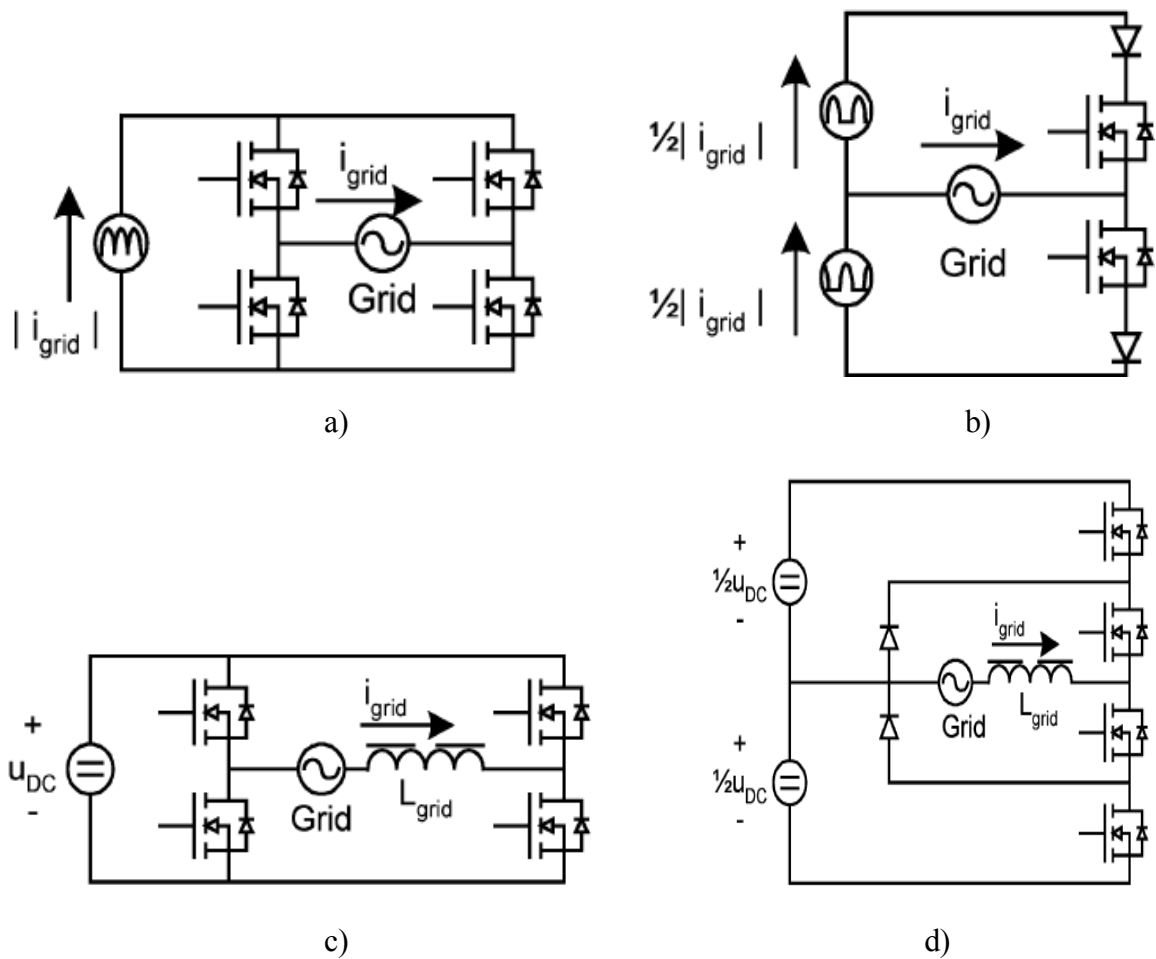


Fig.1.5[7]: Grid-Connected Inverter Stages- a), b)Line-Commutated CSI Switching at Twice the Line Frequency c),d)Self-Commutated Voltage-Source Inverter (VSI) Switching with High Frequency in PWM or Hysteresis Current Control

Fig.1.5(c) represents a typical full-bridge three-level VSI, which can generate a sinusoidal grid current by applying the positive/negative DC link or zero voltage, to the grid plus grid inductor. The voltage across the grid and inductor is often modulated using PWM, but hysteresis current control can also be applied. A variant of the topology in Fig.1.5(c) is the half-bridge two-level VSI, which can only create two distinct voltages across and requires double DC link voltage and double switching frequency in order to obtain the same performance as the full bridge.

Fig.1.5(d) represents a half-bridge diode clamped three-level VSI, which is one of many different multilevel VSIs, which can create 3, 5, 7 distinct voltages across the grid and inductor. This is beneficial since the switching frequency of each transistor can be reduced and, which gives rise to lower losses. The command signals for the transistors in the CSI and the reference for the grid-current waveform are mostly based on measured grid voltage or zero-crossing detection. This may result in severe problems with power quality and unnecessary fault situations. The main reasons for these problems are the background (voltage) harmonics and poor design. The harmonics may initiate series resonance with the capacitors placed around in the grid, due to positive feedback of the inverter current or a noisy signal from the zero-crossing detection. A solution for this problem is to use a phase-locked loop (PLL) for establishing a current waveform reference of high quality.

In this project, the full bridge three-level VSI is chosen as the grid interface.

FINAL SCHEMATIC

A complete structure of the PV-Grid interface is obtained based on the discussions in the previous section. A two stage power processing, full bridge three-level VSI is selected as the interfacing circuit. It is to be noted that the first stage (PV module with MPPT) is replaced by a current source for purposes of simulation. The assumption is valid since a PV module is electrically a current source as shown in Fig.1.6. Also, since injecting a sinusoidal current into the grid being one of the primary concerns, a current source is considered as the inverter input.

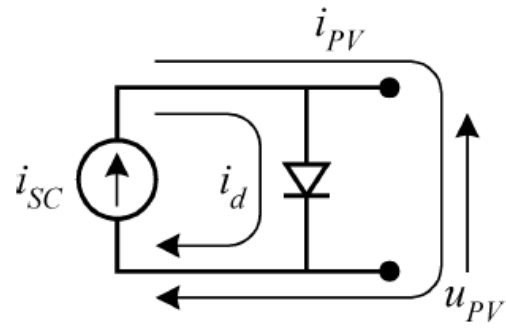


Fig.1.6: Simplified Electrical Model of a PV Cell

The complete final schematic of the circuit diagram employed in the simulation studies is shown in Fig.1.7.

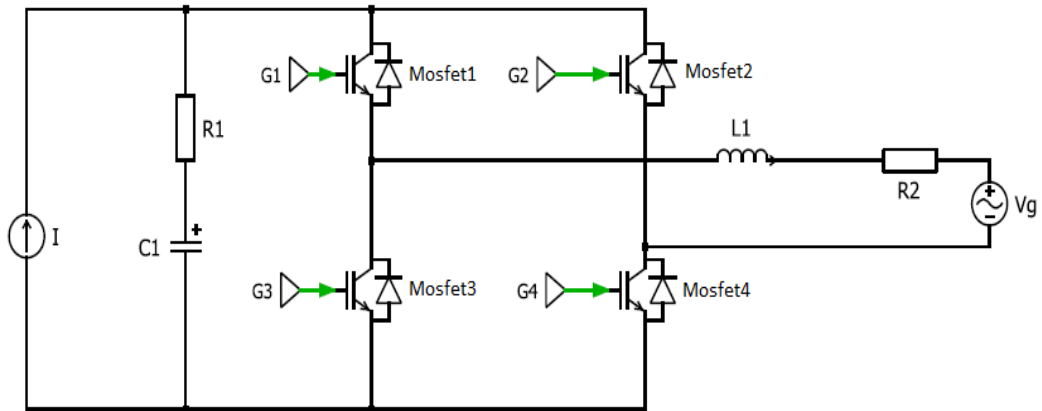


Fig.1.7: Final Schematic of the PV-Grid Interface

Chapter II: *Single Phase Power Pulsation*

Consider the schematic of the grid connected PV system shown in Fig.1.7. Assuming unity power factor operation and neglecting the energy stored in the inductor, the instantaneous power flowing through the inverter can be determined as follows [9].

$$V = \sqrt{2}\widehat{V}_g \sin(\omega t) \quad (2.1)$$

$$I = \sqrt{2}\widehat{I}_g \sin(\omega t) \quad (2.2)$$

$$P_{inv} = \widehat{V}_g \widehat{I}_g \sin^2(\omega t) = \widehat{V}_g \widehat{I}_g - \widehat{V}_g \widehat{I}_g \cos(2\omega t) = P(1 - \cos(2\omega t)) \quad (2.3)$$

where,

\widehat{V}_g is the peak value of the grid voltage

\widehat{I}_g is the peak value of the grid current

P is the average value of the active power injected into the grid

We can also observe that,

$$P_{capacitor} = P - P_{inv} = P \cos(2\omega t) \quad (2.4)$$

Thus the difference between the average and the instantaneous power in the ac side of the inverter produces a voltage ripple at twice the line frequency on the DC bus link capacitor. This is one of the primary problems faced and the methods adopted for resolving this issue is addressed in the upcoming chapters.

Chapter III: Methods Adopted to Resolve Single Phase Power Pulsation

A number of methods have been proposed in literature to tackle the problem of the double frequency component of the grid on the DC bus link. Some of them are explained in the following paragraphs.

EXISTING METHODS

Electrolytic Capacitor:

This is one of the most common and simple ways of eliminating the double frequency component. A large electrolytic capacitor is used at the DC output stage to eliminate lower order components, since it absorbs the harmonics generated both by the source and load side converters, and thus decouples the power pulsation caused by single-phase power generation as shown in Fig.3.1.

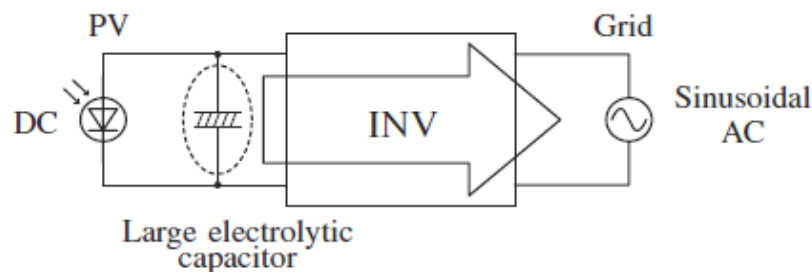


Fig.3.1[1]: Large Electrolytic Capacitor Method

The highest advantage of using electrolytic capacitors has been their cost. However there are a number of disadvantages associated with this method. Electrolytic capacitors have high thermal resistances making it difficult to dissipate heat externally, clumsy packaging and mounting difficulties, excess weight and limited temperature range which decreases the system reliability. Especially during the summer, the inverters have to operate under demanding conditions like very high atmospheric temperature, which shortens the

lifetime of the inverter, since the life of the electrolytic capacitor reduces when used under high temperature. They also suffer from low ripple current capability due to high ESR and ESL and hence they need to be sized for a much higher value than required for the inverter operation. Using large capacitors has its own associated problems such as requirement of a bleed-resistor or discharge circuit to discharge large capacitors on system shutdown.

Ceramic Capacitors:

Ceramic capacitors are an example of passive capacitor filter. They are beneficial from the perspective of increased reliability and being less lossy when compared to electrolytic capacitors due to lower values of ESR. However, they are less preferred due to their large physical size and weight. They also ring with filter inductance along with the injected harmonic current.

Thin Film Capacitors:

Thin film capacitors can be used in the place of electrolytic capacitors. High performance inverters used in electric vehicles and aircraft to name a few are now turning to film capacitors because they do not have the limitations of electrolytic capacitors and have high ripple current capability. The only disadvantage of film capacitors is that of the increased cost per μF and thus provides a very expensive solution.

Fluctuating DC Voltage Method:

This method involves designing a converter which can withstand a larger voltage ripple on the DC bus link, around 25%, rather than 5% [10]. The block diagram of this method is shown in Fig.3.2.

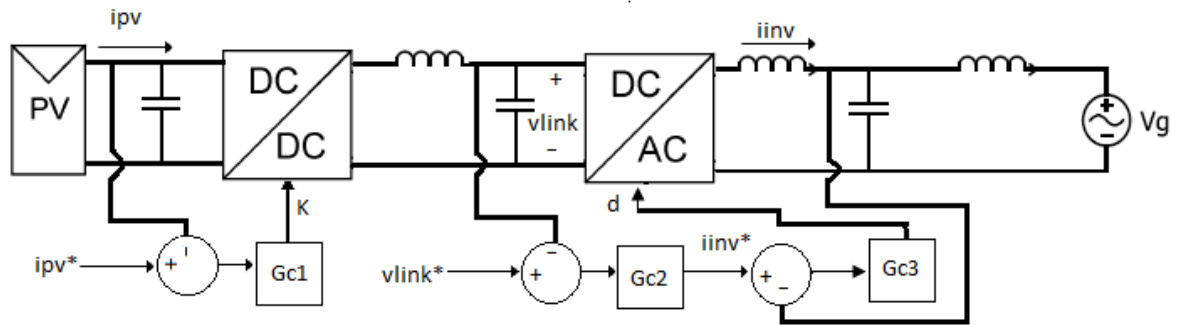


Fig.3.2 [10]: Fluctuating DC Voltage Method

Increasing the voltage ripple on the DC bus link reduces the size of the capacitor that needs to be designed accordingly. The capacitor designed for the increased ripple condition (25%) on the DC link is 500 times smaller than the capacitor used for the lower ripple condition (5%) which is a stronger DC link. However, the drawback of this method is the slower response of the voltage control loop making the DC bus voltage susceptible to large variations due to sudden active power variations in the system. The bandwidth of the voltage control loop is restricted to only 10Hz.

Active Filtering:

A high frequency current-fed type active filter is used instead of the electrolytic capacitor on the DC link of the inverter [11]-[14]. Fig.3.3 depicts the circuitry used in the method. The filter absorbs the harmonic currents generated by the rectifier and the inverter thereby smoothening the DC voltage. The components in the active filter have high reliability and less size and cost compared to an equivalent ac capacitor. The active filter eliminates unnecessary resonance effect in the DC link, and filtering function is programmable providing flexibility of operation.

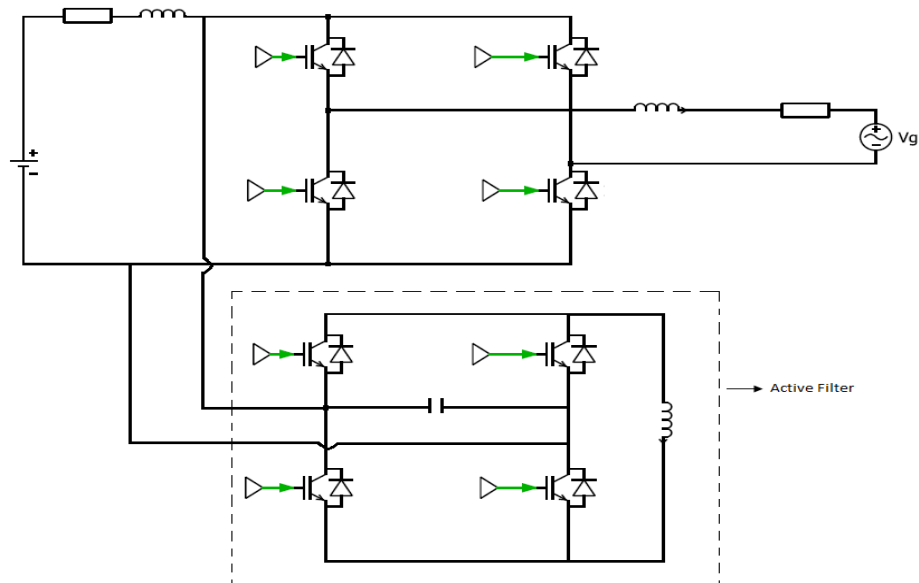


Fig.3.3: Circuit Configuration of the High Frequency Active Filtering Method

Notch Filter:

A tuned notch filter can also be used to eliminate the double-frequency component from the feedback signal [15]. SPWM strategy when applied to the single phase bridge, does not fault in dynamic situations because the pulse widths represent the value of the modulating signal at each sampled period. The disadvantage of the SPWM strategy is that, a $\frac{d^2}{dt^2}$ operation has to be performed on the feedback signal in order to have an extensive stable operating region. The problem of low harmonic AC current waveform distortion also exists. They are generated because of: (1) L-C resonance in the AC circuit,(2) harmonics from the AC supply, and (3) harmonics carried by the feedback channels from the DC link side. Thus, in order to obtain a nearly sinusoidal fundamental waveform, rectifier must also act as an active filter. This is established using a twin-tee notch filter, which performs the following tasks:

- Active filtering to remove the low-order harmonics on the ac side
- Achieving an extensive stable domain without implementing the $\frac{d^2}{dt^2}$ operation

The circuit diagram of a twin tee notch filter is shown in Fig.3.4.

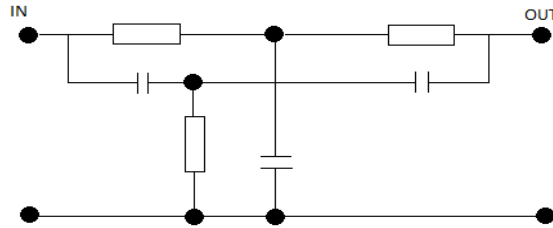


Fig.3.4: Twin Tee Notch Filter

Flyback-Type Utility Interactive Inverter Circuit:

This circuit enables the power decoupling by using only a small DC capacitor. The advantage of flyback operation is that stable injection of current into the utility line can be achieved without using an inter-linkage inductor[16] as shown in Fig.3.5. Furthermore, the DC power smoothing circuit implemented in [16] reduces the volume of the DC input capacitor drastically. Although, this method has the advantages of power decoupling capability and reduction of volume and weight of the inverter setup, it still has the problem of lower conversion efficiency compared to conventional one.

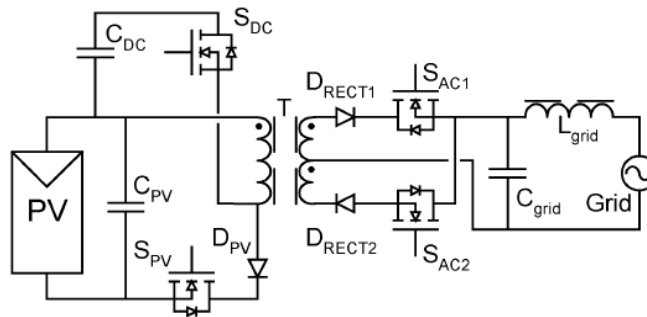


Fig.3.5[7]: Flyback Inverter with High Power Decoupling

PROPOSED METHOD

In this project an active power decoupling circuit is proposed as a suitable solution. The following sub-sections will elaborate on the same.

Active Power Decoupling:

The need for the active power decoupling circuit arises, to account for the large excursions in the DC bus voltage ripple when the active power supplied by the first stage to the DC bus changes. Inherently, it increases the bandwidth of operation. Since the power decoupling circuit is independent of the inverter portion, there is no limitation on decoupling capacitor voltage. The objective of the decoupling circuit is to shift the energy of the 120Hz ripple stored in the DC link capacitor to an auxiliary storage capacitor. This could also, be viewed as the auxiliary converter circuit injecting an equal and opposite current to the 120Hz ripple observed at the output of the dc link capacitor. This is realized using a bidirectional DC-DC converter typically used for energy storage. During charging mode, the ratio of output to input voltage is lower than '1' and during discharging mode the ratio of output to input voltage is greater than '1'. The bidirectional converters can either be having an isolated or a non-isolated topology. The performance comparison of different configurations in both the topologies will be explained in the next section.

Non-Isolated Topologies:

Non-isolated bi-directional DC-DC converters have the following advantages:

- Simple implementation and Low Cost
- High Efficiency
- High reliability

These converters can be classified into two types [17-[18]:

- Basic Topologies –
 - Half-Bridge Converter
 - Cuk Converter
 - SEPIC Converter
- Derived Topologies –
 - Cascaded Half-Bridge Converter
 - Interleaved Half-Bridge Converter

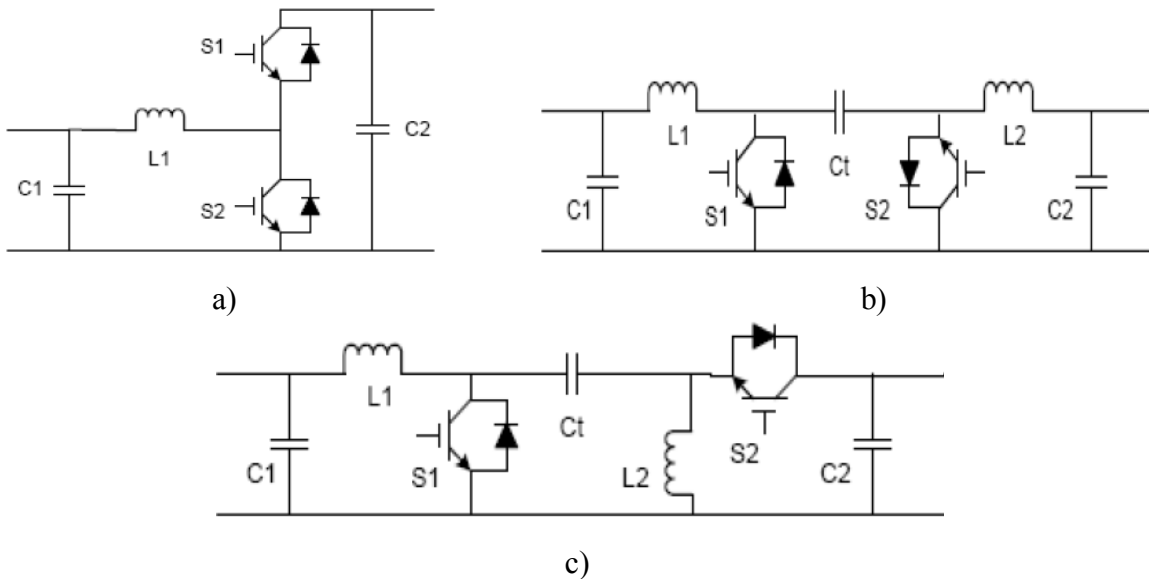


Fig.3.6[17]: Basic Topologies-a) Half-Bridge Converter b) Cuk Converter c) SEPIC Converter

Fig.3.6a) shows the Half-bridge converter, one of the widely used topologies. The converter operates either in Buck or in Boost mode. Fig.3.6b) and Fig.3.6c) shows the Cuk and SEPIC converter respectively which convert power bi-directionally by using two active switches. In all the basic topologies, the battery is connected to C1 through a

common mode choke and ground fault interrupter (GFI) to limit the leakage current. C2 is connected to DC link side.

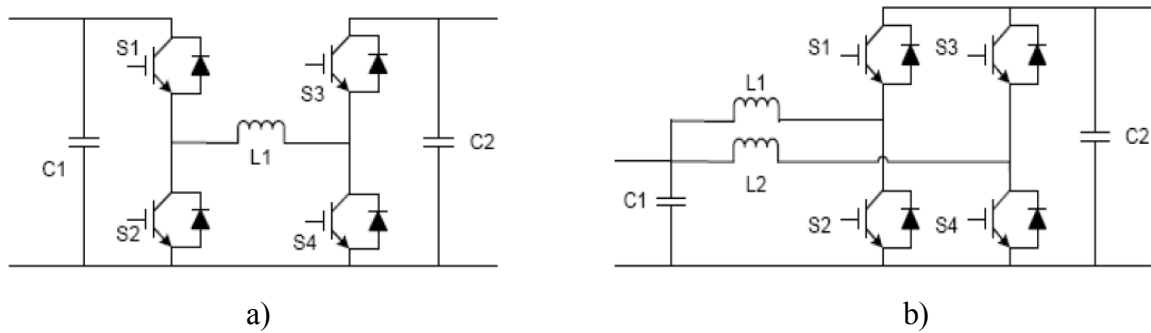


Fig.3.7[17]: Derived Topologies- a) Cascaded Half-Bridge Converter b) Interleaved Half-Bridge Converter

Fig.3.7 shows the derived topologies. The Cascaded Half-Bridge and Interleaved Half-Bridge are derived from the basic Half-Bridge, and their performance is evaluated based on the performance of the Half-Bridge Converter.

As shown in [17] we observe that the Cuk and SEPIC converters use two larger inductors and an extra capacitor compared to the Half-Bridge converter. Inductor L2 in both the Cuk and SEPIC converters consume additional power. In addition to this, the current stress for active switches and diodes in Cuk and SEPIC converters are larger than that in the Half-Bridge converter under same voltage and power conditions. Hence, the Half-Bridge is expected to be more efficient and thus a better candidate for the scenario.

Isolated Topologies:

Isolated bidirectional DC-DC converters can be classified as current-fed, voltage-fed and the combination of them both as shown in Fig.3.8. They typically consist of a high frequency inverter, a high frequency transformer with leakage inductance and a high frequency rectifier[19]. The configuration of these converters can be voltage-fed, wherein

they are directly connected to the voltage source or the DC capacitor bank, or current-fed with an additional DC inductor in between.

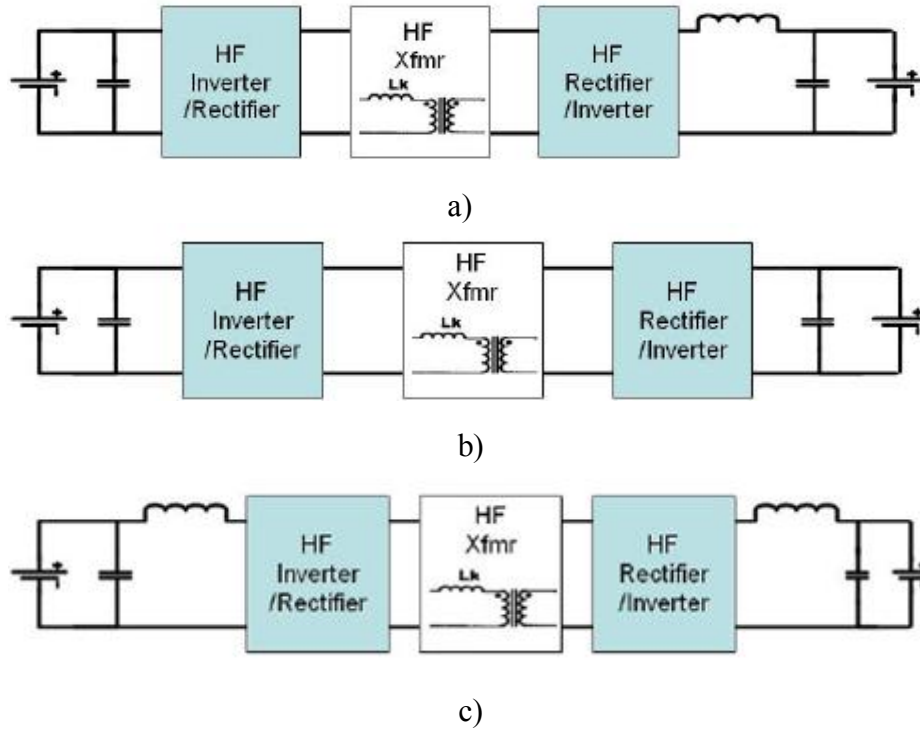


Fig.3.8[19]: Isolated Topologies- a) One Voltage-Fed and One Current-Fed DC Side b) Two Voltage-Fed DC Sides c) Two Current-Fed DC Sides

The major high frequency inverter and the corresponding high frequency rectifier topologies include full-bridge inverter and rectifier, half-bridge inverter and rectifier, push-pull inverter and center-taped rectifier, L-Type half-bridge inverter and current-doubler rectifier. The voltage stress of switches in full bridges are same as that in half bridges, but the current stress of switches is only half of that in half bridges. The rest two inverter/rectifier topologies are more suited for low voltage high current applications due to the low current stress and high voltage stress of switches. Isolated topologies are beneficial in the fact that, high voltage conversion ratios can be obtained.

The main drawback of isolated topologies is the leakage flux, due to the presence of transformers which results in reduced efficiency [20]. In addition to this, there is an increase in the number of components used resulting in increased cost and size.

In this project the auxiliary converter has the configuration of the Half-Bridge topology, for energy storage. The complete schematic of the PV-Grid Interface including the power decoupling circuit is shown in Fig.3.9.

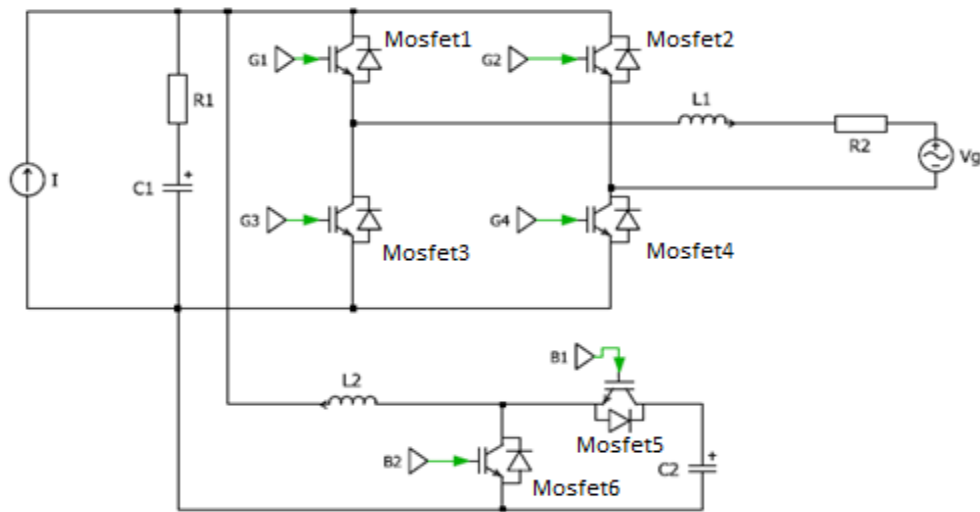


Fig.3.9: PV-Grid Interface with Power Decoupling Circuit

Modes of Operation:

Fig.3.10 in next page, shows the relationship of instantaneous input power (p_{in}) and output power (p_{out}), and the corresponding operation modes on the system. Since the input power should be constant, whereas the output power fluctuates, the surplus or lack of power among those should be stored in the power decoupling circuit.

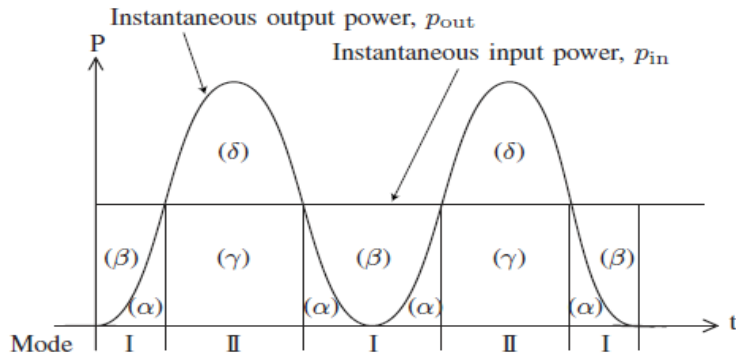


Fig.3.10[1]: Graph of Instantaneous Power versus Mode of Operation

As discussed in [1], there are primarily two modes of operation based on the instantaneous power difference between the input and output stage:

- mode I: Fig.3.11a) shows the power flow at mode I. In this mode, p_{in} is greater than p_{out} . Since the output power p_{out} is directly transferred from the input power p_{in} to the output stage, the remaining power, $p_{in} - p_{out}$ is stored in the decoupling capacitor through the auxiliary converter circuit. In this mode, the auxiliary converter acts like a boost converter.
- mode II: Fig.3.11(b) shows the power flow at mode II. Since the input power, p_{in} , is smaller than the output power, p_{out} , the lacking power, $p_{out} - p_{in}$, should be supplied from stored energy in the decoupling circuit. In this case, the auxiliary converter acts like a buck converter.

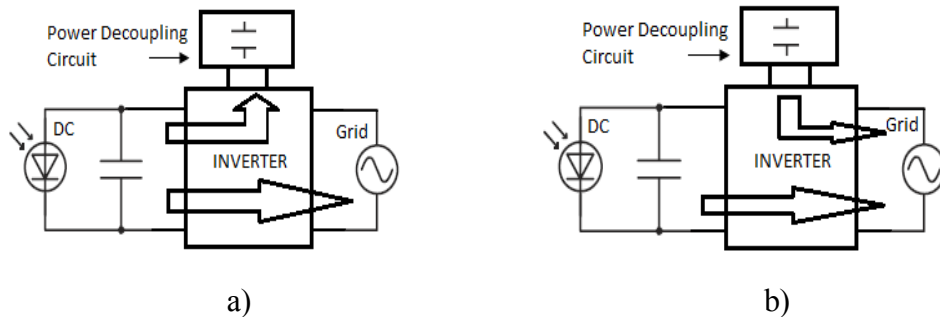


Fig.3.11[1]: Power Flow- a) Mode I of Operation b) Mode II of Operation

Chapter IV: *Design of Power and Control Scheme-1*

This section discusses the design of a 1200W inverter for the specifications as shown in Table 4.1.

Output Power	1200W
Grid Voltage(rms)	240V
Grid Frequency	60Hz
DC Bus Voltage	450±5%
Inverter Switching Frequency	20kHz
Rated Input Current	2.7A
Rated Output Current	5A

Table 4.1: Scheme 1-Inverter Specifications

The grid is assumed to be an ideal stiff grid. The pulse width modulation (PWM) scheme adopted is the unipolar sinusoidal PWM (USPWM) scheme.

POWER CIRCUIT DESIGN

The following subsections discuss the design of the AC side inductor and the DC bus link capacitor.

AC Side Inductor:

The inverter output current waveform is similar to the inductor current in a buck converter as shown in Fig.4.1.

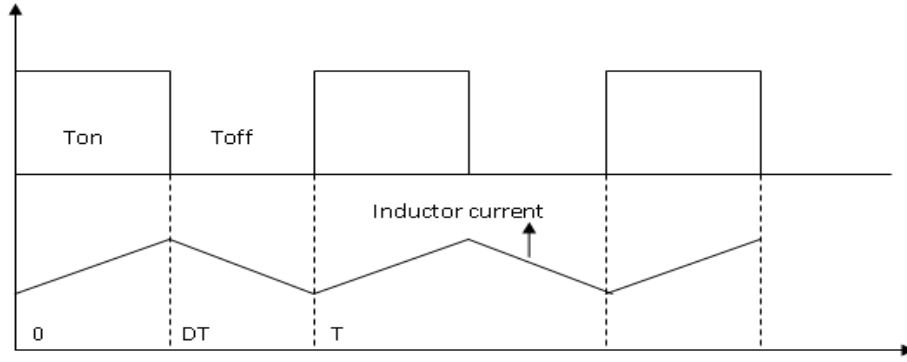


Fig.4.1: Inverter Output Current Waveform

The AC side inductor is selected assuming ideal conditions. The DC bus voltage and the ac grid voltage are ripple free and the modulation signal of the PWM is purely sinusoidal.

The duty ratio is given by:

$$d(t) = m_a \sin \omega t \quad (4.1)$$

where, m_a is the modulation index

The output voltage variation is given by:

$$v_o(t) = m_a V_d \sin \omega t \quad (4.2)$$

where, V_d is the inverter input DC voltage

Thus, the peak to peak ripple can be expressed as:

$$\Delta I_{pk-pk} = \frac{[V_d - v_o(t)]d(t)T_s}{L} = \frac{V_d T_s}{L} (1 - m_a \sin \omega t)(m_a \sin \omega t) \quad (4.3)$$

where, T_s is the switching time period and L is the AC side inductor

From the above equations the rms current ripple over a complete fundamental period can be shown as:

$$\Delta I_{rms} = 0.163 \frac{V_d T_s}{L} m_a \sqrt{(1.178 m_a^2 - 2.666 m_a + 1.571)} \quad (4.4)$$

The value of the modulation index for which the ΔI_{rms} is highest is 0.628 assuming unity power factor operation and high switching frequency [21]. The operating range of the

modulation index is calculated to lie between 0.71- 0.79 for the given variation in DC bus voltage. Hence, 0.71 is selected as the worst case modulation index since ΔI_{rms} is maximum. A total harmonic distortion (THD) of 3% has been considered in the output inductor current as per IEEE 1547 standards. The value of ΔI_{rms} can be found using the equation 4.5 given below [22].

$$THD = \frac{\Delta I_{rms}}{I_1} \quad (4.5)$$

where, I_1 is the fundamental component of the output grid current.

From simulation it is observed that, the USPWM technique introduces harmonics around twice the switching frequency. The Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) analysis is performed on the inverter output for the required modulation index of 0.75 and the magnitude of the dominant voltage harmonic at twice the switching frequency is found to be 160.9V (peak value). The frequency spectrum of the inverter output signal is shown in Fig.4.2.

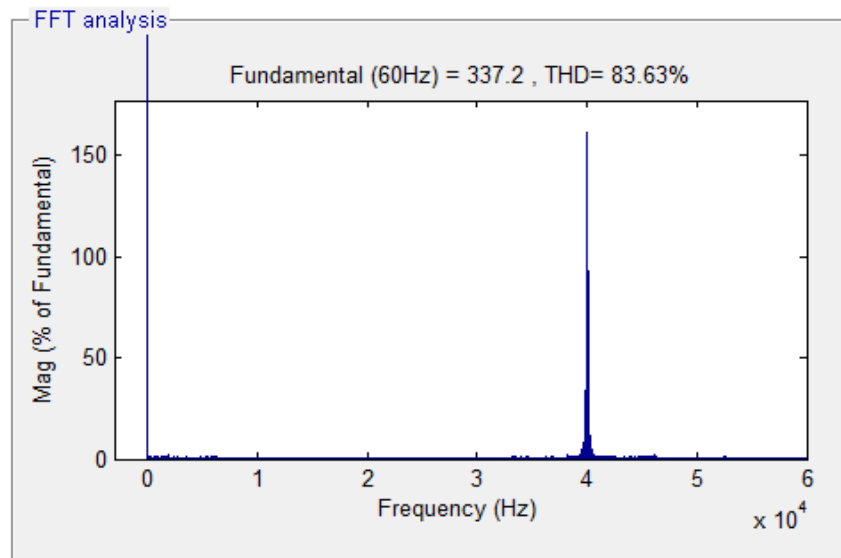


Fig.4.2: Scheme 1- FFT Analysis of the Inverter Output

Considering the above cases, the worst case value of L is computed to be 1.1mH.

DC Side Capacitor

The maximum magnitude of the DC link voltage variation due to the second order harmonic is assumed as 5 %. For unity power factor operation and neglecting the energy stored in the AC side inductor, the instantaneous value of the power stored in the capacitor is given by:

$$P_{capacitor} = P - P_{grid} = P - \widehat{V}_g \widehat{I}_g \sin^2(\omega t) = P \cos(2\omega t) \quad (4.6)$$

where, I_g is the peak value of injected current, V_g is the peak value of the grid voltage and P is the average value of the power injected into the grid.

Equation 4.6, shows that the difference between the instantaneous and average active power in the ac side of inverter produces the voltage ripple at twice the line frequency in the DC bus link capacitor. The capacitance is computed using the power balance concept shown in equation 4.7.

$$\frac{1}{2} C_{dc} (V_{dc_max}^2 - V_{dc_min}^2) = \int_{-\frac{T}{8}}^{\frac{T}{8}} (p_{ac} - P) dt \quad (4.7)$$

where, C_{dc} is the DC bus capacitor, V_{dc_max} is the maximum peak of the voltage ripple and V_{dc_min} is the minimum peak of the voltage ripple.

Thus the expression for the capacitance can be approximated to be:

$$C_{dc} = \frac{P}{2\omega V_{dc} \widehat{V}_{ripple}} \quad (4.8)$$

where, ω is the frequency of the grid in rad/s

The value of capacitance is computed to be 820uF.

DESIGN OF CONTROL LOOPS FOR THE INVERTER

The main process output is the inverter output current that has to be forced into the grid. Since the inverter output current in turn depends on the DC-bus voltage, cascaded control

is employed which consists of an outer voltage loop to regulate the DC bus voltage and an inner current loop to regulate the output current of the inverter. The design is discussed briefly in the following sections.

Inner Current Loop:

The common types of control schemes used for the inner current loop are the PI controller with grid feed-forward and Proportional Resonant (PR) controller. The main advantage of the latter is that it does not need to feedback the grid voltage, only the injected current which is required for regulating the output current [21]. Also, a PI controller results in large steady-state error in current. Although, grid voltage feed-forward greatly reduces the error, it however, has the disadvantages of implementation complexity, noise and harmonics in grid voltage adversely affecting the current, delays in voltage sensor. The PR controller leads to low steady-state magnitude and phase errors without requiring grid voltage feed-forward, since the gain at 60Hz is very large.

The transfer function of the PR controller is given by:

$$G_{PR}(s) = K_p + \frac{K_i s}{s^2 + \omega_o^2} \quad (4.9)$$

where, ω_o is the grid frequency. Since the PR controller regulates the grid current, the control block diagram is given as shown below in Fig.4.3.

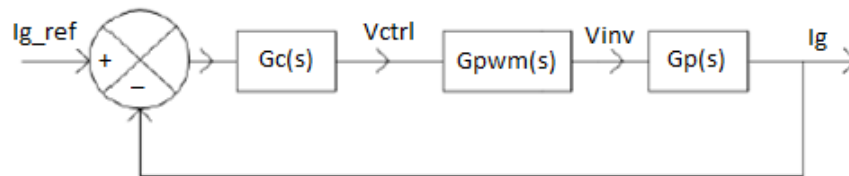


Fig.4.3: Scheme 1-Inner Current Loop

where, $G_c(s) = G_{PR}(s)$ = transfer function of the current loop controller

The PWM block can be represented by a simple gain block since the switching frequency of the inverter is very high. The small signal model of the PWM block is shown below:

$$G_{pwm}(s) = \frac{V_{inv}(s)}{V_{ctrl}(s)} = \frac{V_{dc}}{\widehat{V}_{tri}} \quad (4.10)$$

where, V_{dc} is the DC bus voltage and V_{tri} is the peak value of the triangular signal.

The plant transfer function is the impedance on the load/grid side which is given by:

$$G_p(s) = \frac{I_g(s)}{V_{inv}(s)} = \frac{1}{R + sL} \quad (4.11)$$

where, R and L are the resistive and inductive components of the AC side filter.

Thus the effective transfer function of the system, as seen by the controller is:

$$G_{sys}(s) = \frac{I_g(s)}{V_{inv}(s)} \frac{V_{inv}(s)}{V_{ctrl}(s)} = \frac{1}{R + sL} \frac{V_{dc}}{\widehat{V}_{tri}} \quad (4.12)$$

Selection of Gains for the PR Controller:

The bandwidth or cross over frequency of the current loop is chosen to be 1/10th of the switching frequency i.e. 2 kHz so that, sufficient attenuation is provided for the switching frequency harmonics. The PR controller is designed for a phase margin of 90 degrees as shown in the formula below

$$K_p = \frac{1}{|G_{sys}|_{\omega_c}} \quad (4.13)$$

where, G_{sys} is gain of rest of system at cross over frequency.

The controller parameters where computed to be:

$$K_p = 0.0287$$

$$K_i = 0.5$$

The bode plot of the system is shown below in Fig.4.4 for this operating range

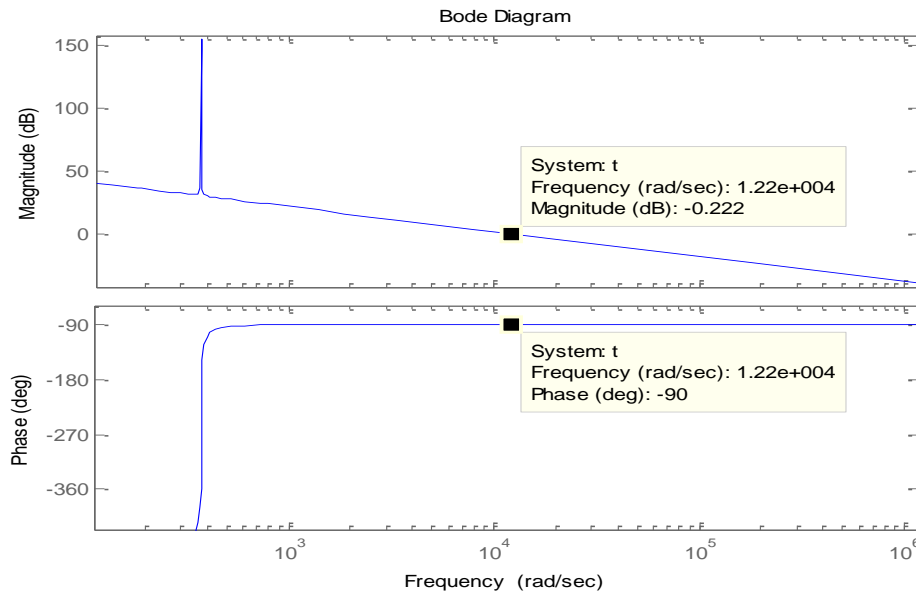


Fig.4.4: Scheme 1-Bode Plot of Inner Current Loop

Outer Voltage Loop:

The DC link voltage must be regulated to a desired average value. A maximum voltage ripple of 5% of the rated DC bus voltage is assumed as the acceptable limit. The dominant frequency component to be attenuated is the 120Hz frequency component. Within the voltage loop, this component is multiplied by the 60Hz component which is generated from the grid using a Phase Locked Loop (PLL). This product gives rise to a 180Hz component which appears at the output of the inverter. In order to keep the magnitude of both the 120Hz and 180Hz component sufficiently low, the bandwidth or cross over frequency of the voltage loop is chosen to be 10Hz. The controller is designed for a phase margin of 60 degrees. Control of the DC link voltage is through changing the amplitude reference of the sinusoidal ac line current and this control results in a simpler controller structure and design.

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{dC_{DClink} V_{DClink}^2}{dt} = P - I_{Li} \cdot v_g \quad (4.14)$$

where, C_{DClink} is the DC link capacitance and V_{DClink} is the voltage across the DC bus link capacitor. Considering only the average or the DC component of the output power equation 4.14 reduces to :

$$\frac{1}{2} C_{DClink} \frac{dV_{DClink}^2}{dt} = P - \frac{1}{2} \hat{I}_{Li} \hat{V}_g \quad (4.15)$$

This is a linear system since V_{DClink}^2 is used as the variable instead of V_{DClink} . Thus the transfer function of the plant is given by the expression shown below:

$$G_p(s) = \frac{V_{DClink}^2(s)}{\hat{I}_{Li}(s)} = -\frac{\hat{V}_g}{sC_{DClink}} \quad (4.16)$$

The block diagram of the outer voltage control loop is given below in Fig.4.5.

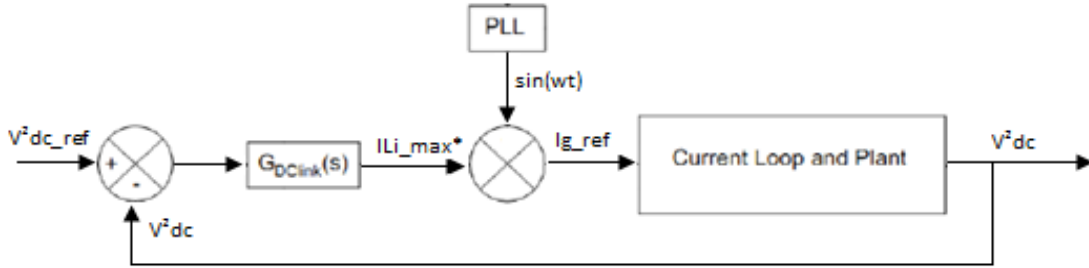


Fig. 4.5: Scheme 1-Outer Voltage Loop

where, $G_{DClink}(s)$ = transfer function of the type II controller

It should be noted that for the frequency range of the voltage loop which is of the order of Hz, the gain of the current loop can be considered to be unity since its frequency operating range is of the order of a few kHz.

Selection of Gains for the Voltage Loop Controller:

A type II controller is used for regulating the DC link voltage. The controller design is based on the K-factor approach [22]. The advantage of this method is that the controller

can be designed accurately for a given phase margin and cross over frequency i.e. optimum placement of poles and zeros for the desired dynamic response. The transfer function of the type II controller used for obtaining a phase margin lesser than 90° is shown below.

$$G_c(s) = \frac{K_c}{s} \frac{(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_z})}{(1 + \frac{s}{\omega_p})}, \text{ where } \omega_z < \omega_p \quad (4.17)$$

Since the controller already has a pole at the origin, it introduces a 90° phase lag. The required phase boost is given by:

$$\phi_{boost} = PM - \phi_{sys} - 90^\circ \quad (4.18)$$

where, ϕ_{sys} is the phase of the system at the cross over frequency and PM is the required Phase Margin. For maximum phase boost at the cross over frequency (ω_c), ω_c should be the geometric mean of ω_z and ω_p , i.e.

$$\omega_z = \omega_c/k \quad (4.19)$$

$$\omega_p = k\omega_c \quad (4.20)$$

It can be established from the above equations that:

$$k = \tan\left(\frac{\phi_{boost}}{2} + 45^\circ\right) \quad (4.21)$$

From the above equations, the parameters were calculated as:

$$\omega_z = 16.835 \text{ rad/s}$$

$$\omega_p = 234.41 \text{ rad/s}$$

$$K_c = -3.115 \cdot 10^{-4}$$

The Bode plot of the system for this operating range of frequency is shown below in Fig.4.6.

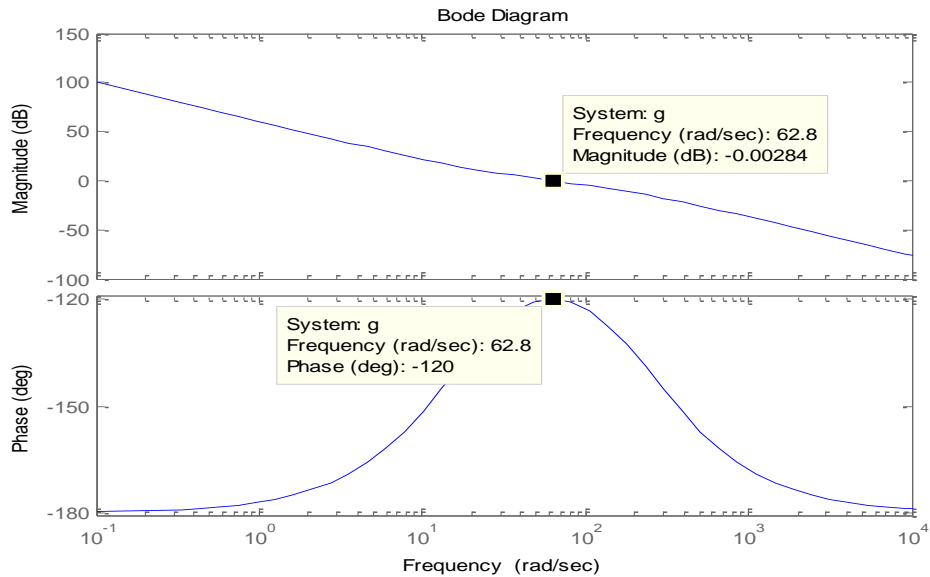


Fig.4.6: Scheme 1-Bode Plot of Outer Voltage Loop

ACTIVE POWER DECOUPLING CIRCUIT

The control loops designed for the inverter circuit are based on the assumption that the input power source is constant, since a smaller value of DC bus capacitance is chosen and hence they do not react to active power variations on the input side. In order to meet out this demand, the active power decoupling circuit is built across the DC bus capacitor in order to absorb the pulsating power as mentioned in the previous chapters.

The inductor in the decoupling circuit is chosen to be around the same value as the inductor in the grid side. Thus an inductance of 1mH is selected. The minimum value of capacitance, that can withstand a 5% ripple current as specified earlier is found to be 100 μ F, along with 100 μ F bus link capacitor, from simulation. Thus, a savings of approximately 75.61% of capacitance that would have been used in the case of an electrolytic capacitor is achieved. The pulsating power is shifted to the storage capacitor in the auxiliary circuit. This could also be viewed as the decoupling circuit trying to

compensate the output current from the DC side and the corresponding control circuit is implemented using a simple PI control as shown in Fig.4.7.

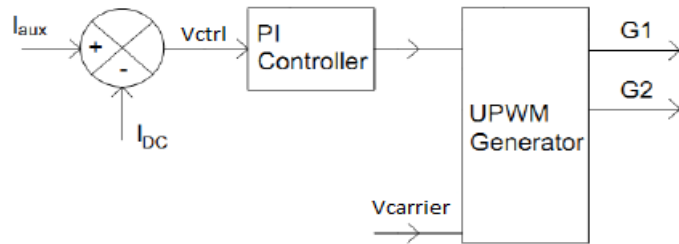


Fig.4.7: Scheme 1- Auxiliary Converter Control Implementation

The active filter is basically a synchronous buck/boost converter. Since the circuit can act either as a buck or boost converter, the plant transfer function can switch between mode-1 and mode-2. The auxiliary inductor current is regulated using a PI controller. The PI controller gains selected based on Ziegler-Nichols tuning method are as shown below:

$$K_p=10^{-4}$$

$$K_i=0.04$$

Overall Control Scheme:

The overall control scheme-1 implementation is shown below in Fig.4.8 which includes the inner current loop and the outer voltage loop.

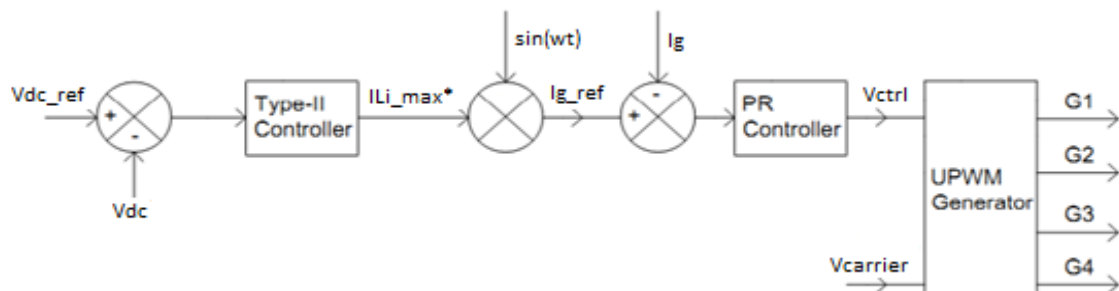


Fig.4.8: Overall Control Scheme-1

Chapter V: *Design of Power and Control Scheme-2*

This section discusses the design of a 120W inverter for the specifications as shown in Table 5.1.

Output Power	120W
Grid Voltage(rms)	25V
Grid Frequency	60Hz
DC Bus Voltage	$35 \pm 5\%$
Inverter Switching Frequency	50kHz
Rated Input Current	3.428A
Rated Output Current	4.8A

Table 5.1: Scheme 2- Inverter Specifications

The grid is assumed to be an ideal stiff grid and the PWM scheme adopted is the USPWM scheme here as in the case of scheme-1.

POWER CIRCUIT DESIGN

The following subsections discuss the design of the AC side inductor and the DC bus link capacitor.

AC Side Inductor:

Considering similar conditions as in scheme-1 i.e ripple free DC bus voltage and AC grid voltage, and purely sinusoidal modulation signal for the PWM, the inductor is selected. The operating range of the modulation index is found to lie between 0.886-0.979 for the given variation in DC bus voltage, and the worst case modulation index is selected as 0.886. From simulation, and performing Fast Fourier Analysis on the inverter output

signal, it is observed that, for the required modulation index of 0.93 the magnitude of the dominant voltage harmonic at twice the switching frequency is 8.71 V (peak). The frequency spectrum of the inverter output signal is shown in Fig.5.1.

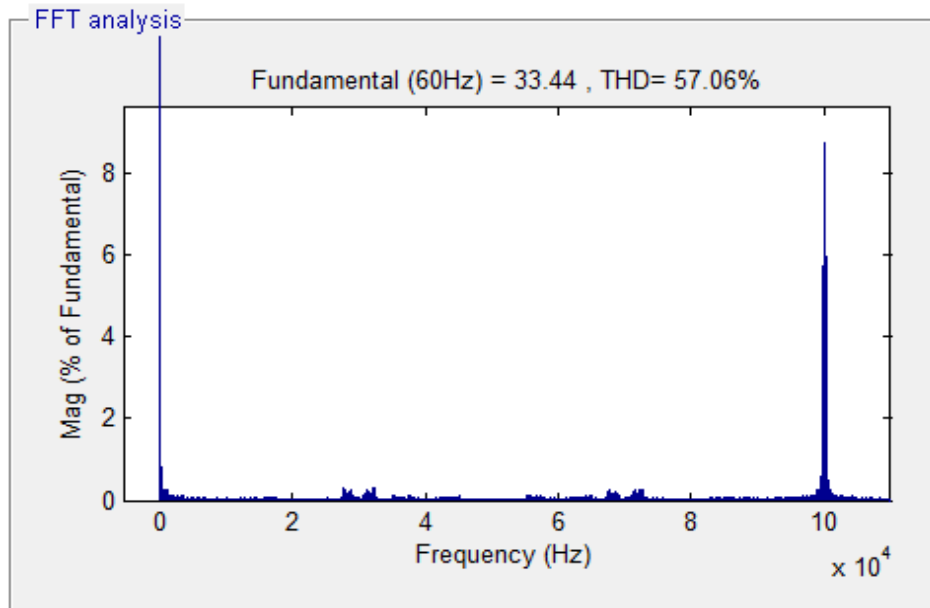


Fig.5.1 Scheme 2-FFT Analysis of the Inverter Output

Considering the above cases, the worst case value of L is computed to be 2mH.

DC Side Capacitor:

The maximum magnitude of the dc link voltage variation due to the second order harmonic is assumed as 5 %. Under the assumptions of unity power factor operation and neglecting the energy stored in the ac side inductor, using Eq.(4.8) the capacitance is computed to be 8mF.

DESIGN OF CONTROL LOOPS FOR THE INVERTER

The cascaded PI control scheme with feed-forward is used here. The grid feed-forward reduces the disturbance input and decreases the steady state error. The design and performance of this control scheme will be studied in the following sections:

Inner Current Loop:

The schematic of the current control loop with grid feed forward is shown in Fig.5.2.

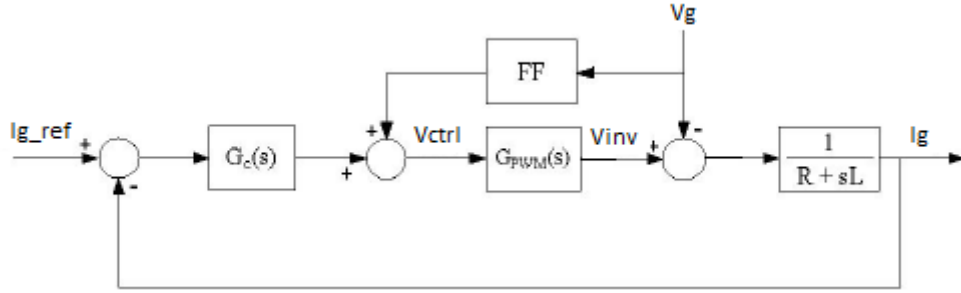


Fig.5.2: Scheme 2-Inner Current Loop

where,

$$G_{PWM} = V_{dc}/V_{tri}, G_c(s) = G_{PI}(s) \text{ and } G_p(s) = 1/(R+sL)$$

The feed-forward gain is given by:

$$FF = \frac{\widehat{V}_{tri}}{V_{dc}} V_g \quad (5.1)$$

Therefore, the effective system transfer function as seen by the controller is given by:

$$G_p(s) = \frac{I_g(s) V_{inv}(s)}{V_{inv}(s) V_{ctrl}(s)} = \frac{1}{R+sL} \frac{V_{dc}}{\widehat{V}_{tri}} \quad (5.2)$$

where, R and L are the resistive and inductive components of the AC side filter.

Selection of Gains for the PI Controller:

The cross over frequency of the current loop is chosen to be 1/10th of the switching frequency i.e. 5 kHz and the PI controller is designed for a phase margin of 90 degrees.

The controller parameters are computed to be:

$$K_p=0.5$$

$$K_i=10$$

The bode plot of the system is shown below in Fig.5.3 for this operating range

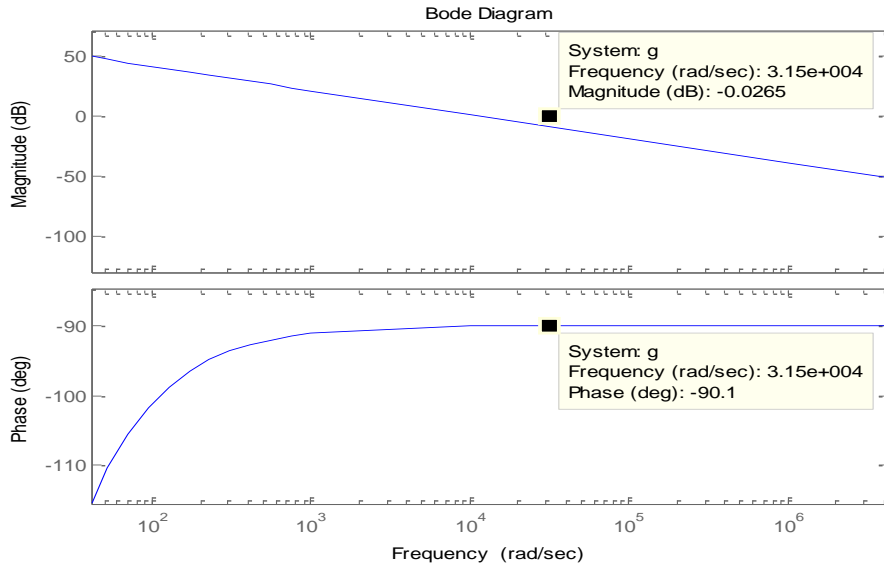


Fig.5.3: Scheme 2-Bode Plot of Inner Current Loop

Outer Voltage Loop:

The DC link voltage is regulated to the desired average value using a PI controller with an allowable voltage ripple of 5% of the rated DC bus. Similar to control scheme-1, the dominant frequency component to be attenuated is the 120Hz frequency component and the multiplier gives rise to a 180Hz component. The controller is designed for a bandwidth of 10Hz to attenuate both the 180Hz and 120Hz component, and a phase margin of 60 degrees. The relationship between variations in the magnitude of the fundamental component of the output current of the inverter and the average value of the

DC bus voltage can be calculated using the power balance equations and assuming that the converter is lossless as given in equation 5.3.

$$P_{dc} = P_c + P_{ac} \quad (5.3)$$

For determining the impact of the variation of the magnitude of the reference current on the average value of the dc bus voltage, one neglects P_{dc} . Thus, equation 5.3 reduces to,

$$P_c = -P_{ac} \quad (5.4)$$

Finally,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} C_{dc} V_{dc}^2 \right) = \frac{-\widehat{V}_g \widehat{I}_g}{2} \quad (5.5)$$

Applying small perturbations about the operating point, equation 5.5 becomes:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{1}{2} C_{dc} (V_{dc} + v_{dc})^2 \right] = \frac{-\widehat{V}_g (\widehat{I}_g + \widehat{i}_g)}{2} \quad (5.6)$$

Neglecting steady state values and square of small perturbations and after some manipulations, finally we get

$$\frac{V_{dc}(s)}{I_g(s)} = \frac{-\widehat{V}_g}{2sC_{dc}V_{dc}} \quad (5.7)$$

The block diagram of the outer voltage control loop is given below in Fig.5.4.

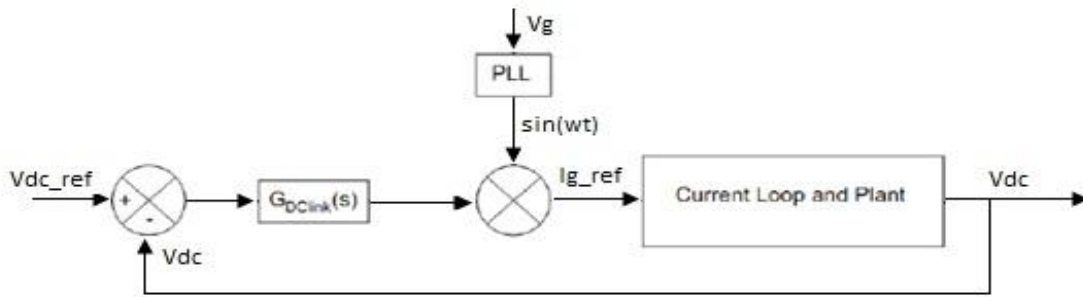


Fig. 5.4: Scheme 2- Outer Voltage Loop

where, $G_{DClink}(s)$ = transfer function of the voltage loop controller

It should be noted that for the frequency range of the voltage loop which is of the order of Hz, the gain of the current loop can be considered to be unity since its frequency operating range is of the order of a few kHz.

Selection of Gains for the Voltage Loop Controller:

The controller as mentioned earlier is designed for a cross over frequency of 10Hz and a phase margin of 60 degrees. Since, the controller is a simple PI controller, the parameters are calculated and found to be:

$$K_p = -15$$

$$K_i = 10$$

The Bode plot of the system for this operating range of frequency is shown below in Fig.4.6.

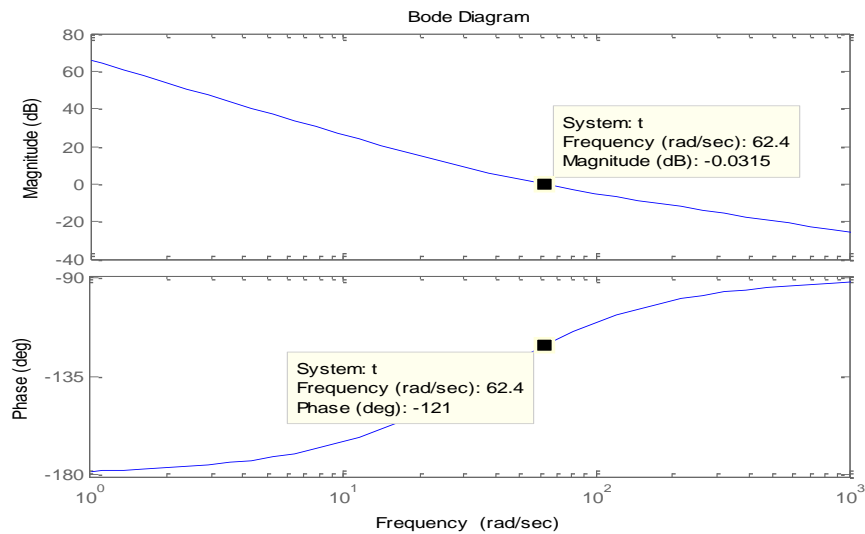


Fig.5.5: Scheme 2- Bode Plot of Outer Voltage Loop

Active Power Decoupling Circuit:

In order to absorb the power pulsation, the active power decoupling circuit is implemented as a Half-Bridge topology, similar to control scheme-1. The inductor in the decoupling circuit is chosen to be around the same value as the inductor in the grid side i.e 2mH. The minimum value of capacitance, that can withstand a 5% ripple current was found to be 850uF along with 1mF in the DC bus link capacitor from simulation. Thus, a savings of approximately 77.5% of capacitance that would have been used in the case of an electrolytic capacitor is achieved. The auxiliary inductor current is regulated using a PI controller. The PI controller gains selected based on Ziegler-Nichols tuning method are as shown below:

$$K_p=5*10^{-5}$$

$$K_i=5*10^{-4}$$

When the power decoupling circuit is used, the value of the PI controller parameters used in the Outer voltage control loop of the inverter is modified as:

$$K_p= -5.3$$

$$K_i=10$$

Overall Control Scheme:

The overall control scheme-2 implementation is shown below in Fig.5.6 which includes both the inner current loop and the outer voltage loop.

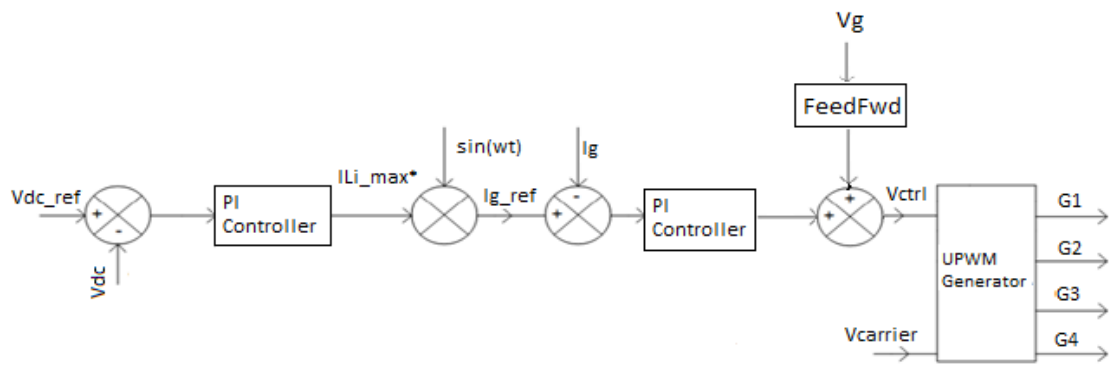


Fig.5.6: Overall Control Scheme-2

Chapter VI: *MATLAB Simulation Results*

CONTROL SCHEME-1

Scenario:

The inverter circuit, auxiliary circuit and the control circuits were simulated using MATLAB-Simulink. A step change is given in the PV input current from 0A to 2.7A at 0.2s and from 2.7 to 0 A again at 0.4 s. The simulations were performed for 3 scenarios:

- Inverter with large size electrolytic capacitor- without auxiliary converter
- Inverter with small non-electrolytic capacitor – without auxiliary converter.
- Inverter with small non-electrolytic capacitor and auxiliary converter.

Inverter without Active Filter-Using Large Electrolytic Capacitor:

Simulation studies are performed using a 820uF electrolytic capacitor. The results observed are shown from Fig.6.1 to Fig.6.4.

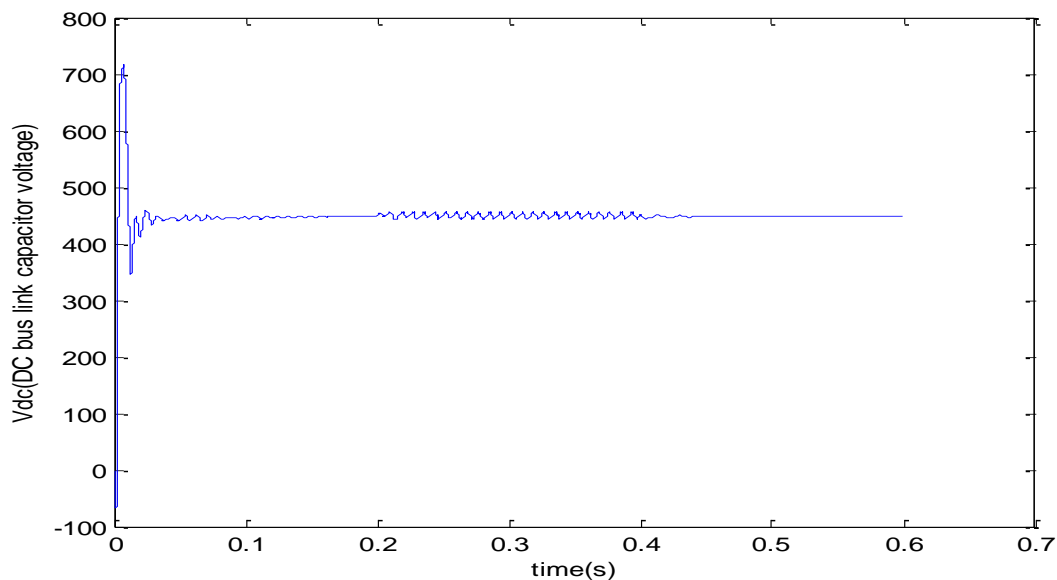


Fig.6.1: Scheme 1 & Scenario 1- DC Bus Link Capacitor Voltage

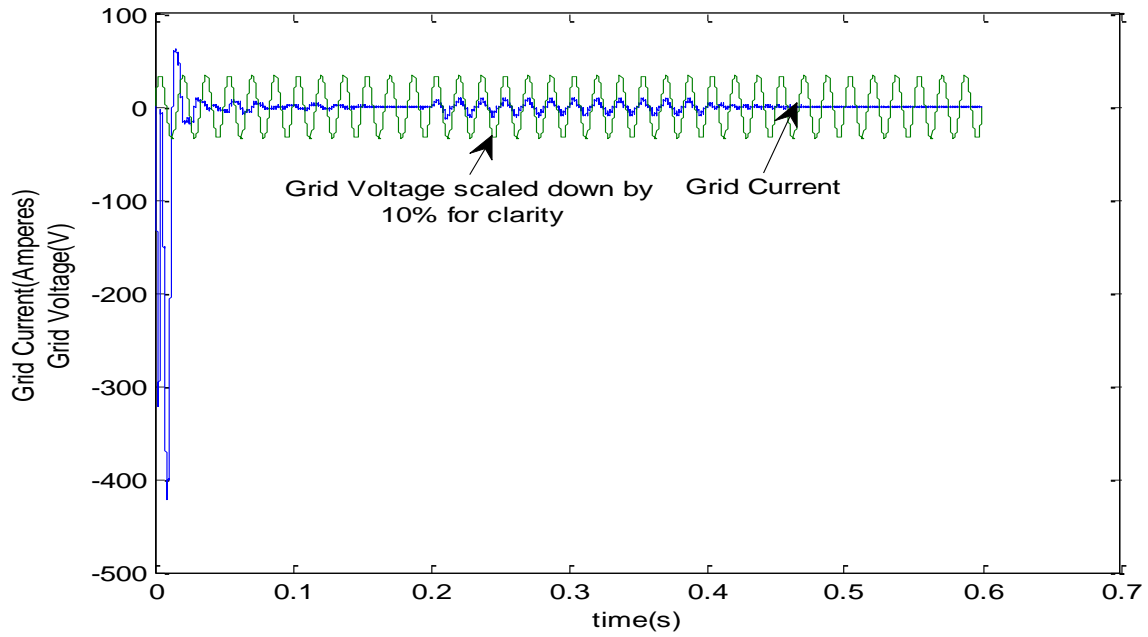


Fig.6.2: Scheme 1 & Scenario 1- Grid Current Superimposed on Grid Voltage

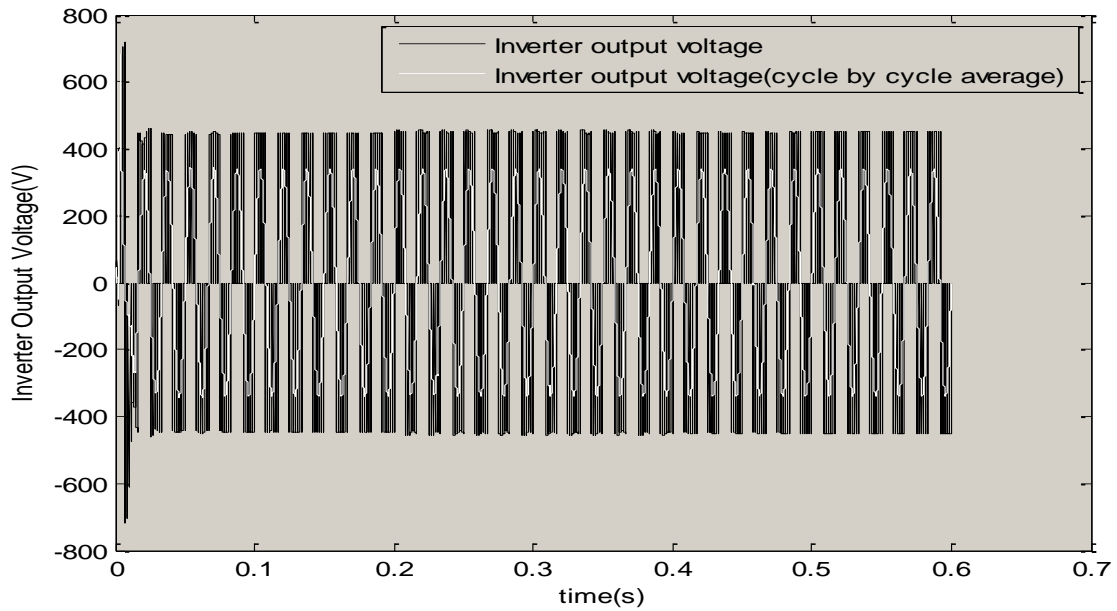


Fig.6.3: Scheme 1 & Scenario 1- Inverter Output Voltage

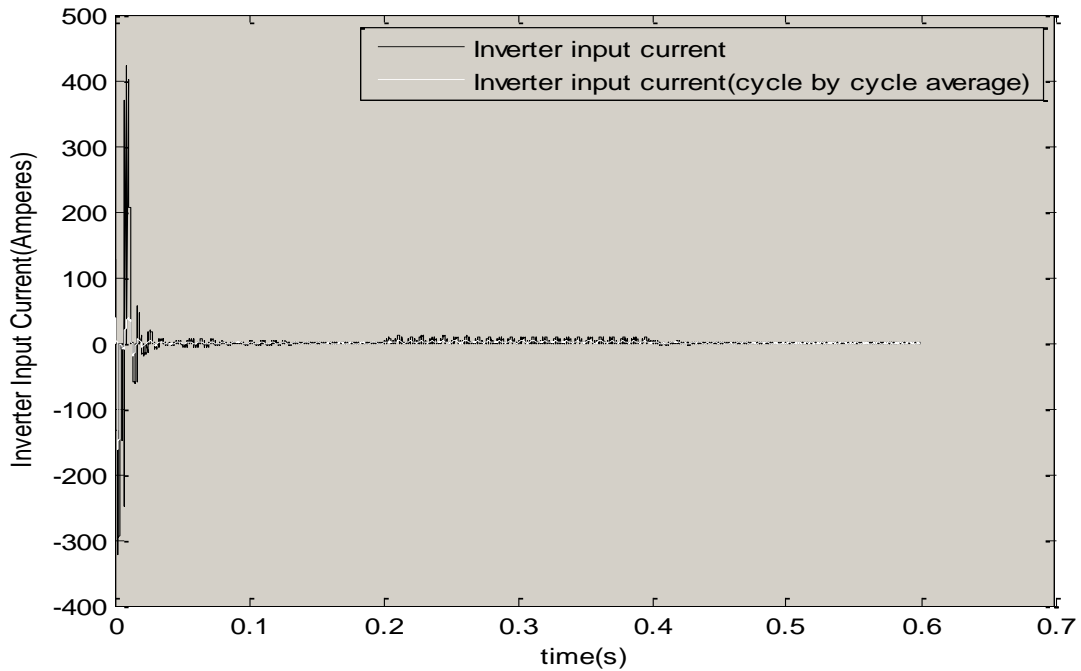


Fig.6.4: Scheme 1 & Scenario 1- Inverter Input Current

As seen in Fig.6.1, the peak to peak ripple in the DC link voltage waveform is observed to be around 11.6 V i.e. around 1.3% ripple, which is well within the 5% defined limit of operation. The grid current is also observed to be closely synchronized with the grid voltage and has less distortion.

Inverter without Active Filter-Using Small Non-Electrolytic Capacitor:

A small non-electrolytic 100uF capacitor is used in the following simulation. The observed waveforms are shown from Fig.6.5 to Fig.6.8.

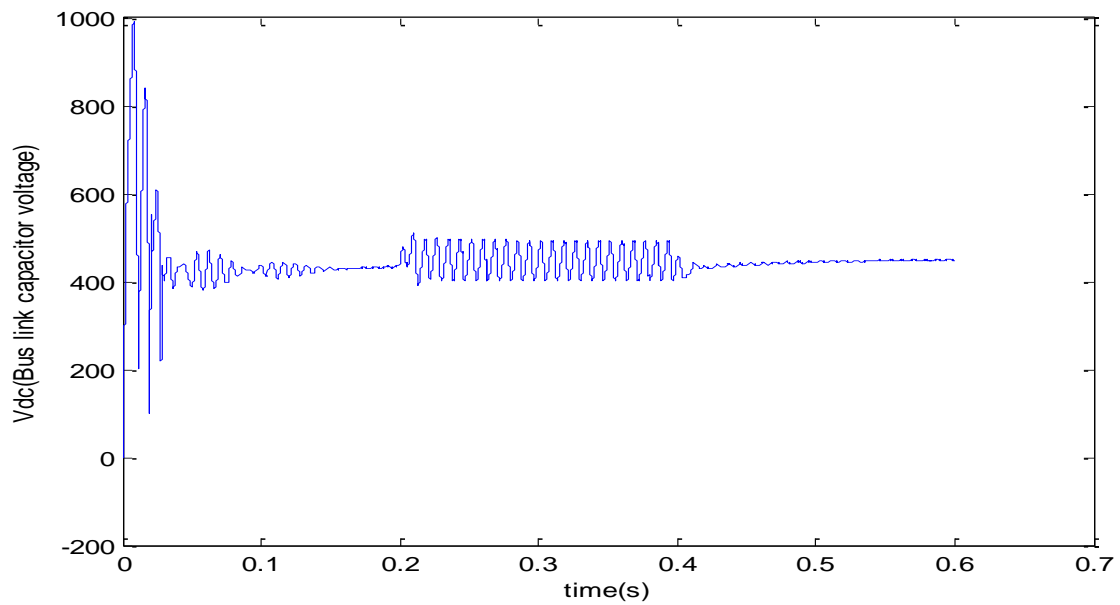


Fig.6.5: Scheme 1 & Scenario 2- DC Bus Link Capacitor Voltage

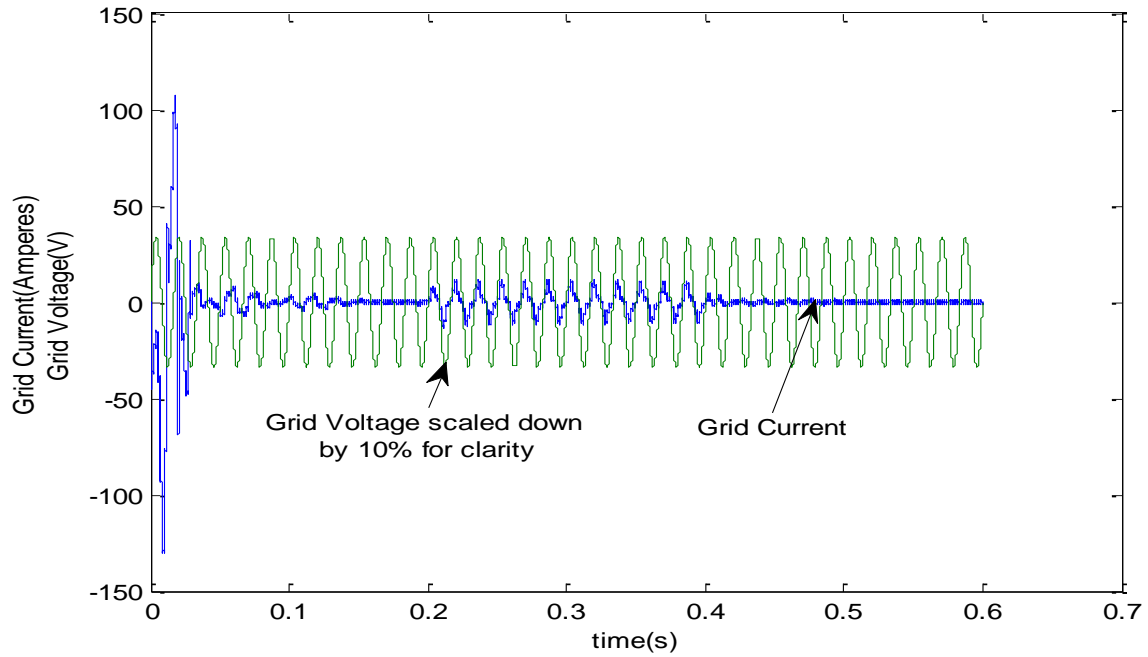


Fig.6.6: Scheme 1 & Scenario 2- Grid Current Superimposed on Grid Voltage

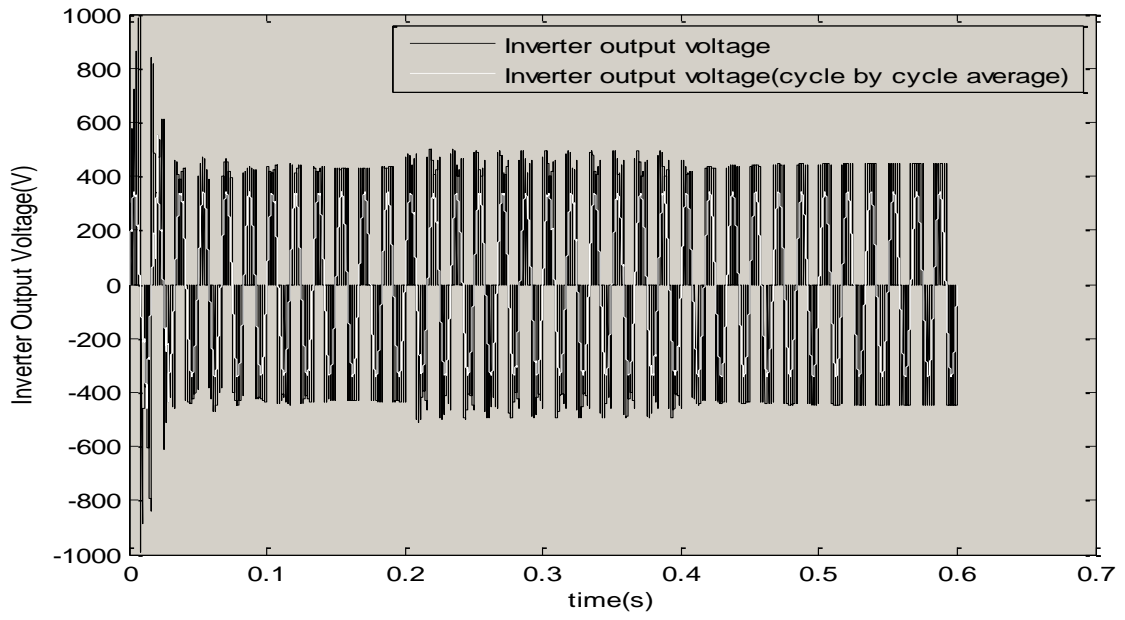


Fig.6.7: Scheme 1 & Scenario 2- Inverter Output Voltage

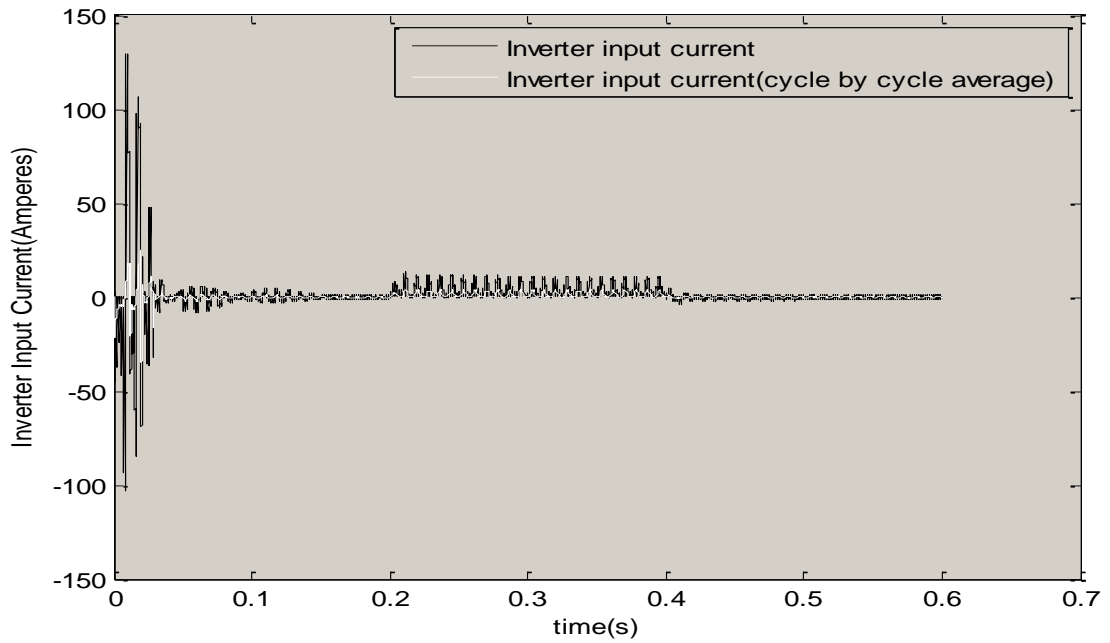


Fig.6.8: Scheme 1 & Scenario 2- Inverter Input Current

As seen in Fig.6.5, the peak to peak ripple in the DC bus link capacitor voltage is around 93 V, i.e. 10.3% ripple, which is very high compared to the prescribed limitations. The grid current, is also observed to be highly distorted though synchronized with the grid voltage.

Inverter with Active Filter-Using Small Non-Electrolytic Capacitor:

The auxiliary converter is a half bridge topology storage circuit as specified in previous chapters. The converter uses a $100\mu\text{F}$ capacitor along with another $100\mu\text{F}$ at the DC bus link. The results obtained are shown from Fig.6.9- 6.14.

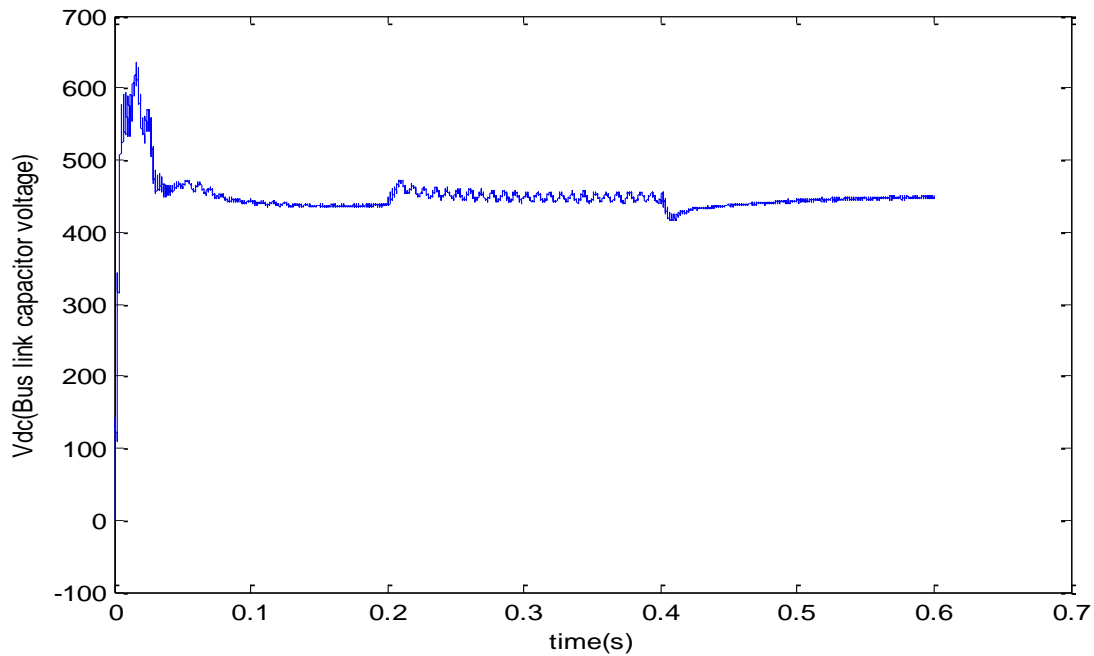


Fig.6.9: Scheme 1 & Scenario 3- DC Bus Link Capacitor Voltage

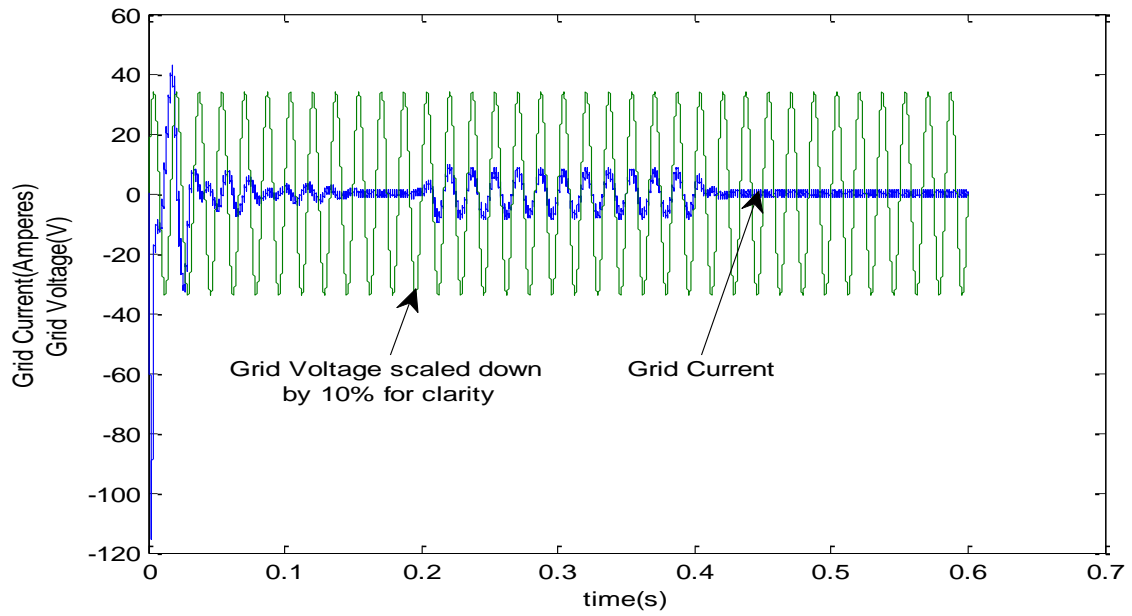


Fig.6.10: Scheme 1 & Scenario 3- Grid Current Superimposed on Grid Voltage

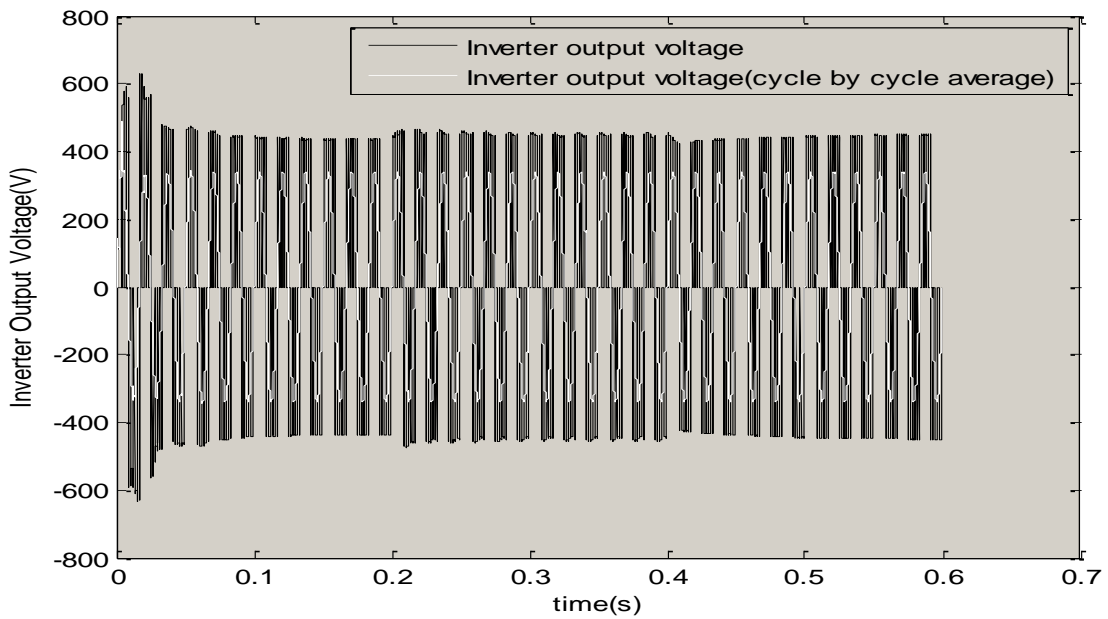


Fig.6.11: Scheme 1 & Scenario 3- Inverter Output Voltage

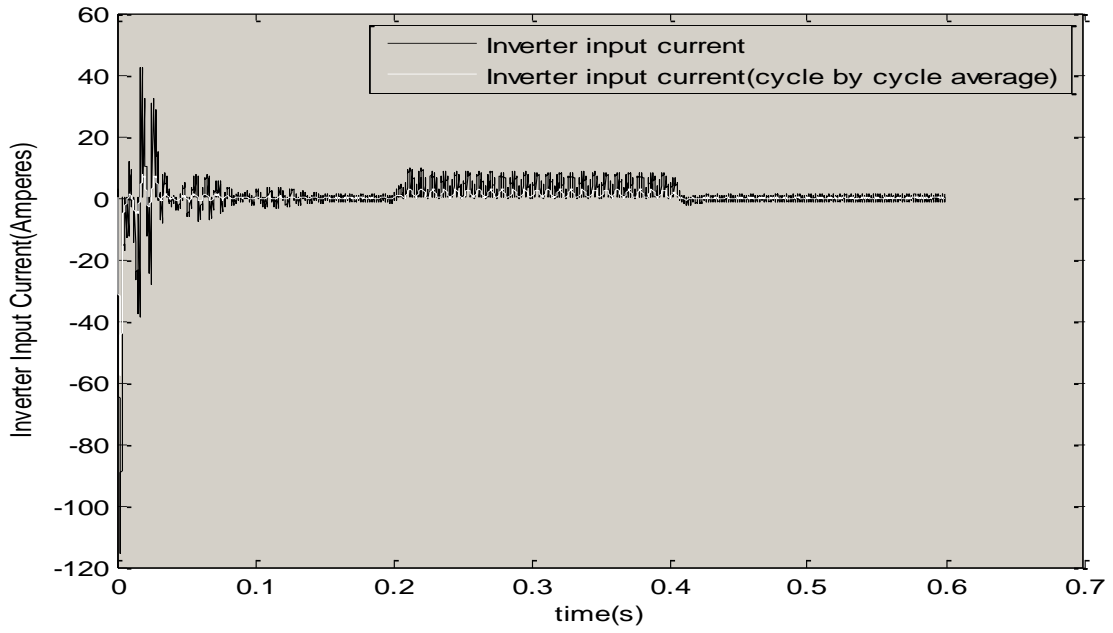


Fig.6.12: Scheme 1 & Scenario 3- Inverter Input Current

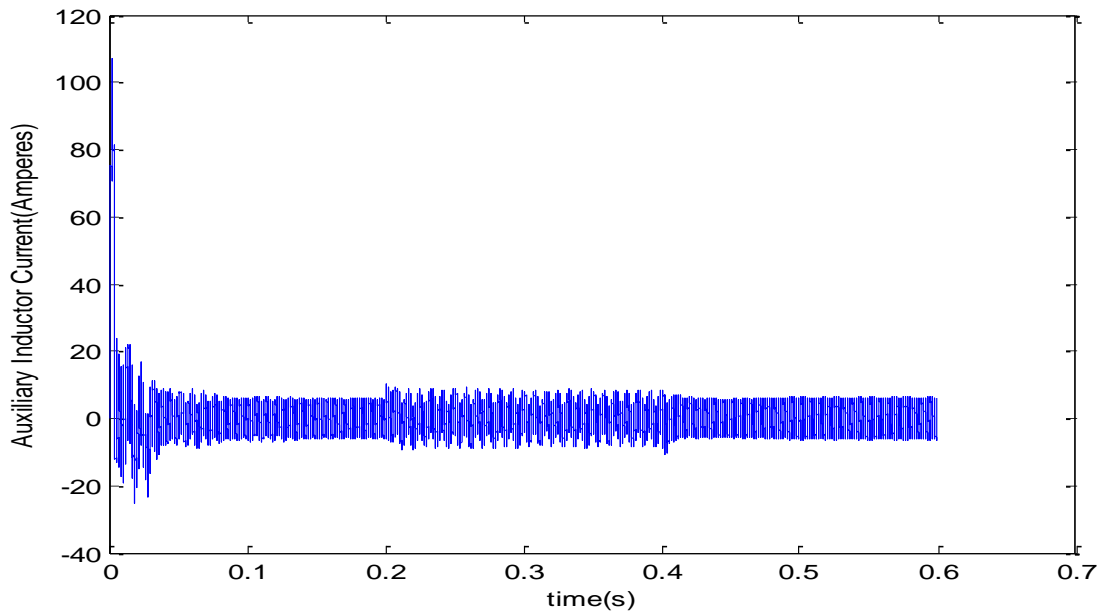


Fig.6.13: Scheme 1 & Scenario 3- Auxiliary Circuit Inductor Current

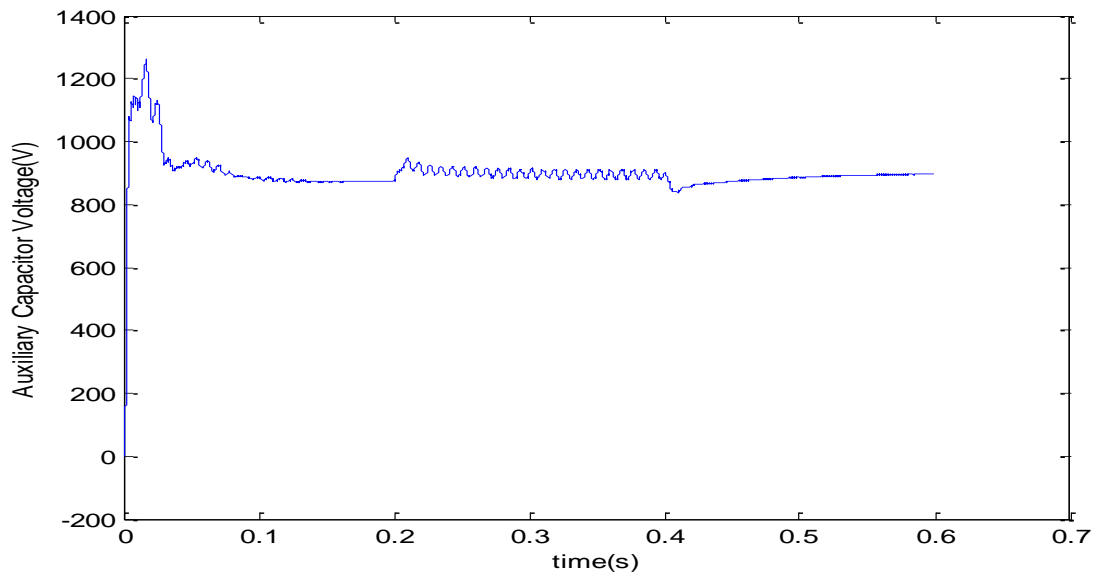


Fig.6.14: Scheme 1 & Scenario 3- Auxiliary Circuit Capacitor Voltage

As seen in Fig.6.9 the peak to peak ripple voltage in the DC link capacitor is around 16V, i.e. 1.78% ripple, which is well within 5%. The grid current also has less distortion and is synchronized with the grid voltage. The voltage waveform across the auxiliary storage capacitor and the auxiliary inductor current waveforms are also plotted.

CONTROL SCHEME-2

Scenario:

The inverter, auxiliary and corresponding control circuits are simulated using MATLAB-Simulink. A step change is given in the PV input current from 3.428A to 1.6A at 0.4s and from 1.6A to 3.428A again at 0.75s. The simulations were performed for 3 scenarios similar to those adopted in control scheme-1:

- Inverter with large size electrolytic capacitor- without auxiliary converter
- Inverter with small non-electrolytic capacitor – without auxiliary converter.
- Inverter with small non-electrolytic capacitor and auxiliary converter.

Inverter without Active Filter-Using Large Electrolytic Capacitor :

Simulation studies are performed using a 8mF electrolytic capacitor. The results observed are shown from Fig.6.15 to Fig.6.18.

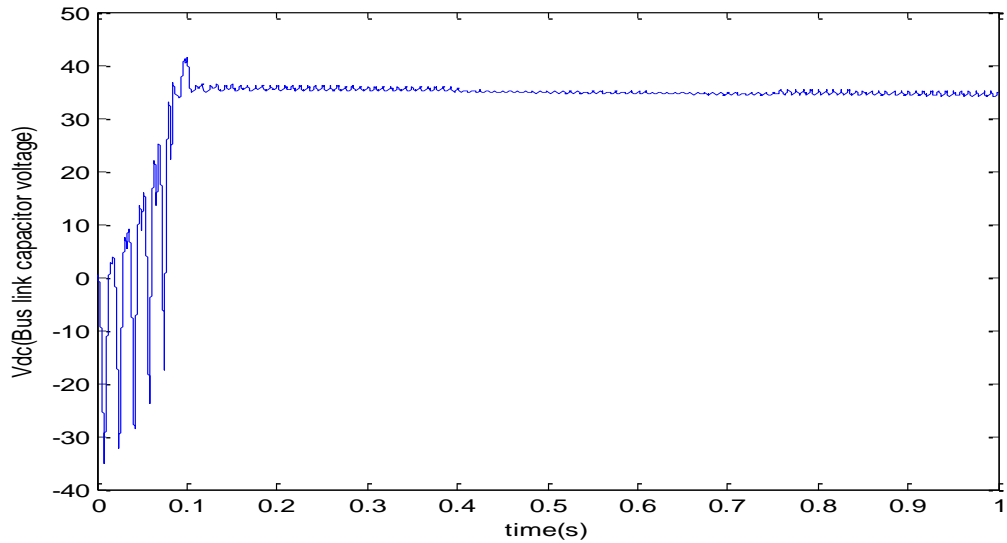


Fig.6.15: Scheme 2 & Scenario 1- DC Bus Link Capacitor Voltage

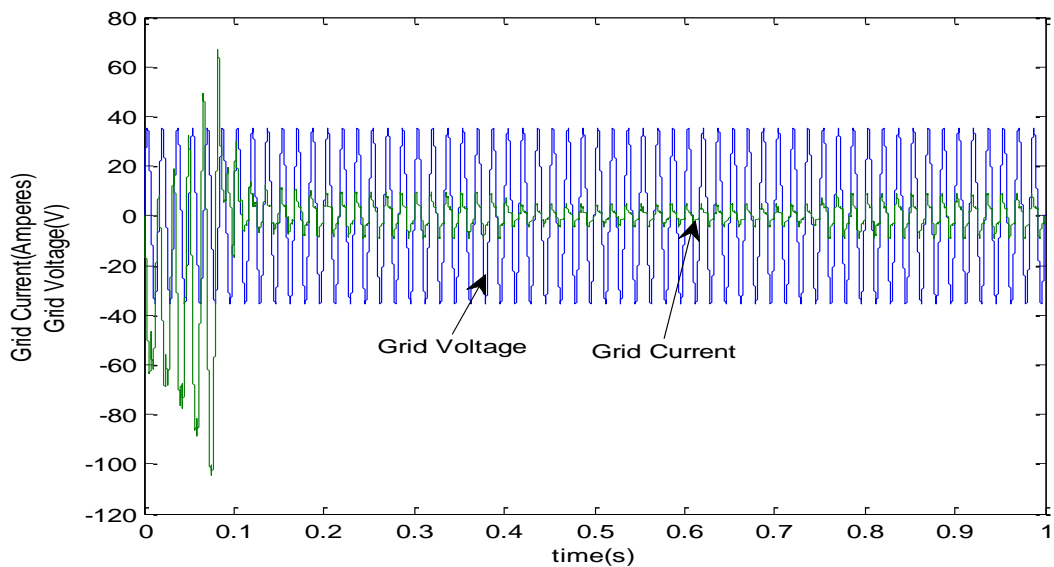


Fig.6.16: Scheme 2 & Scenario 1- Grid Current Superimposed on Grid Voltage

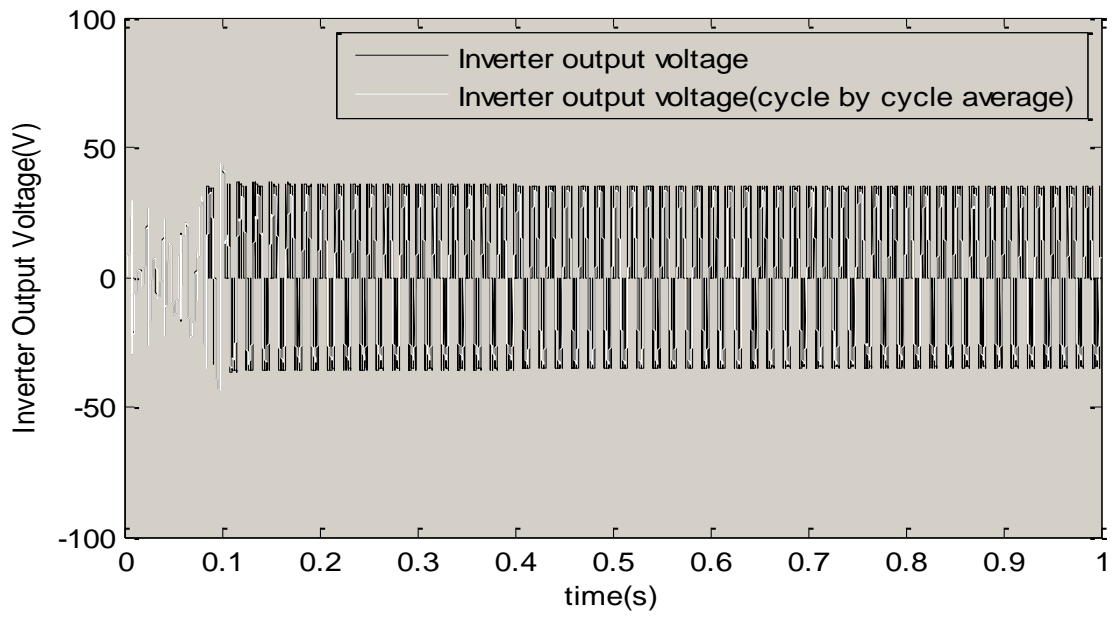


Fig.6.17: Scheme 2 & Scenario 1- Inverter Output Voltage

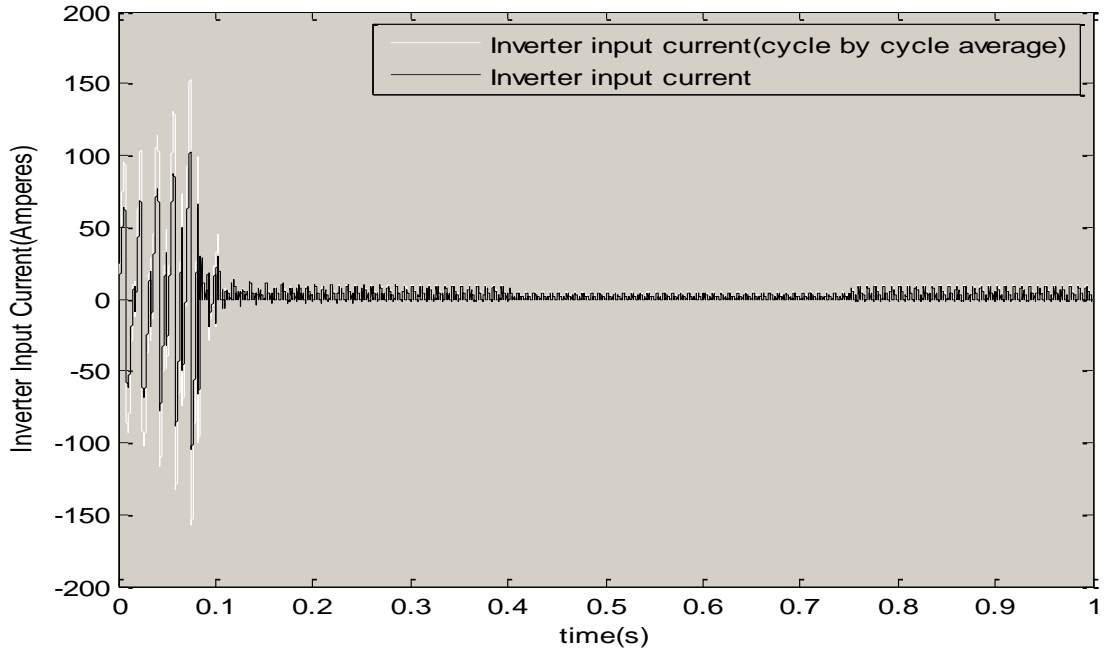


Fig.6.18: Scheme 2 & Scenario 1- Inverter Input Current

As seen in Fig.6.15 the peak to peak ripple voltage in the DC link capacitor is around 1V, i.e. 1.428 % ripple, which is well within 5%. The grid current also has less distortion and is more or less synchronized with the grid voltage.

Inverter without Active Filter-Using Small Non-Electrolytic Capacitor :

A small non-electrolytic 1mF capacitor is used in the following simulation. The observed waveforms are shown from Fig.6.19 to Fig.6.22.

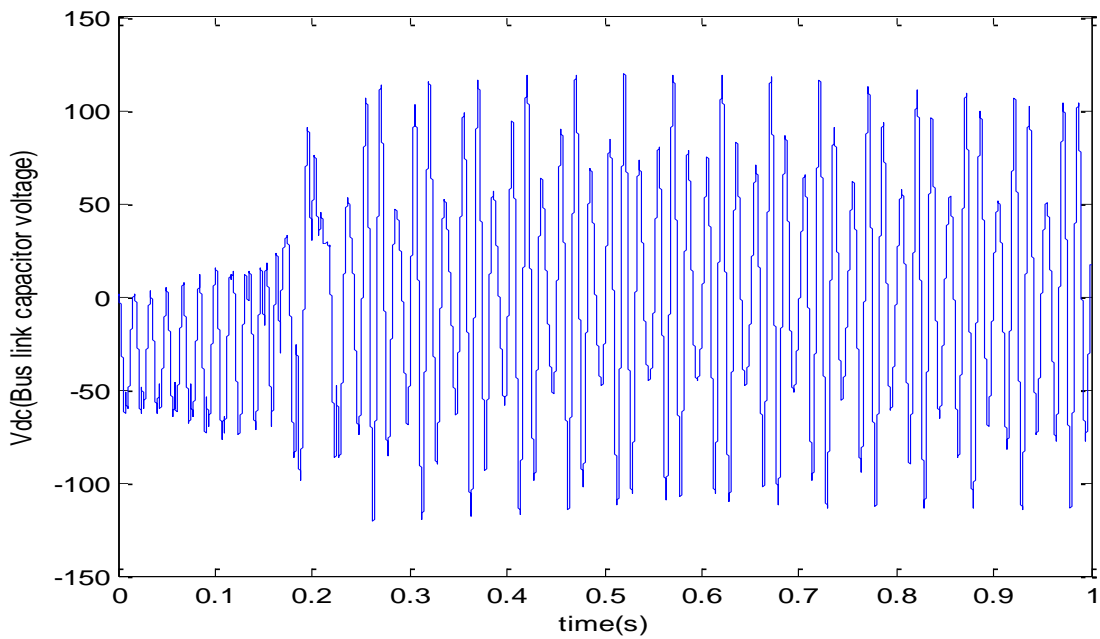


Fig.6.19: Scheme 2 & Scenario 2- DC Bus Link Capacitor Voltage

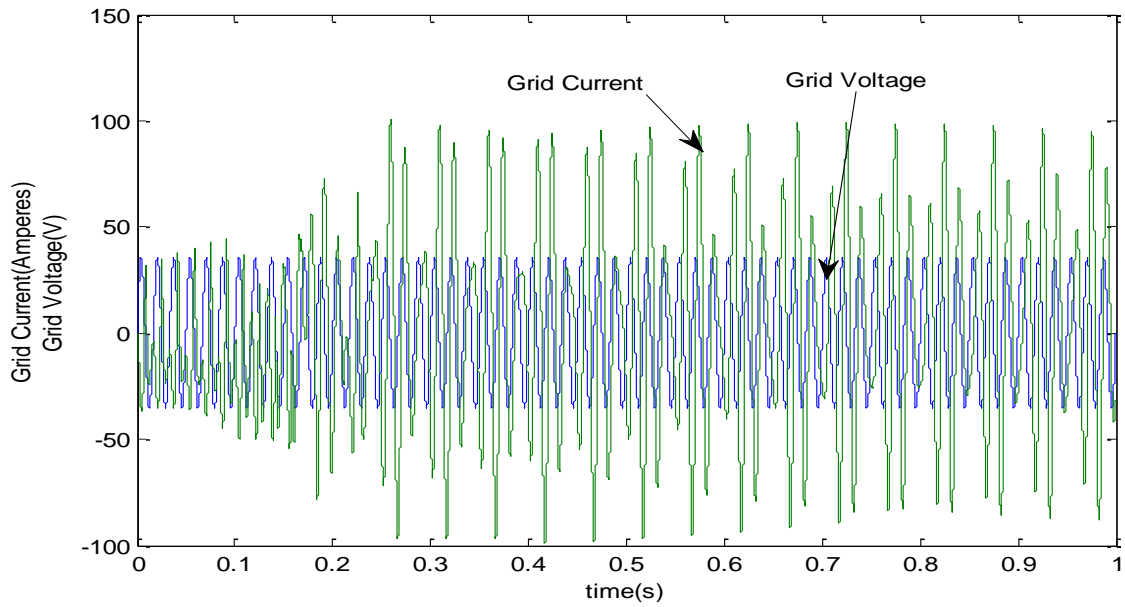


Fig.6.20: Scheme 2 & Scenario 2- Grid Current Superimposed on Grid Voltage

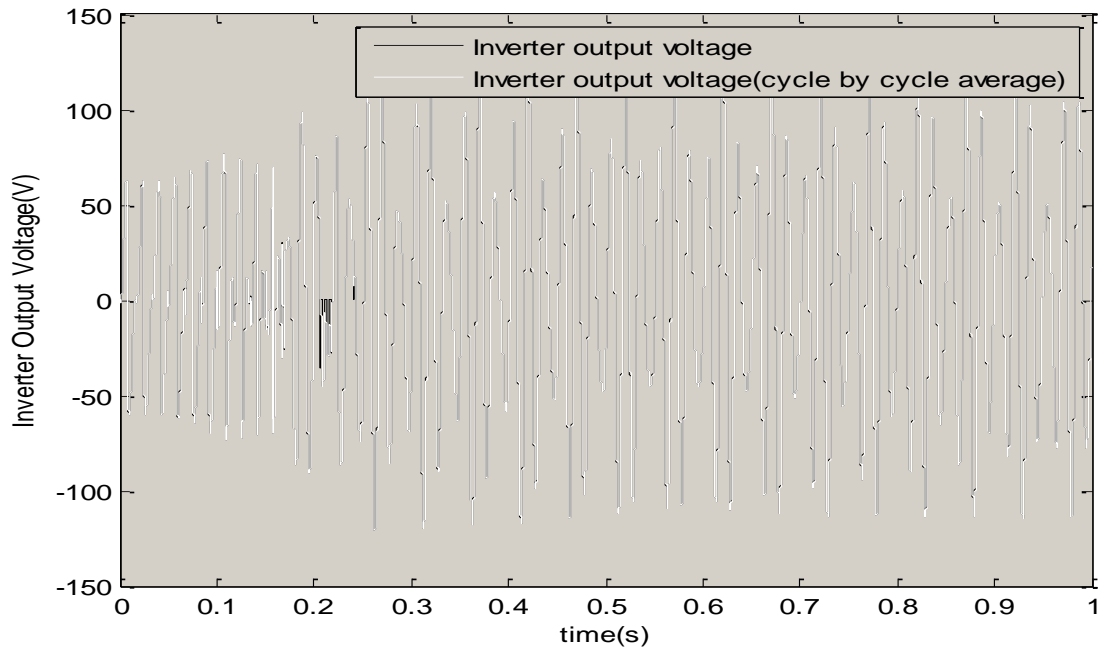


Fig.6.21: Scheme 2 & Scenario 2- Inverter Output Voltage

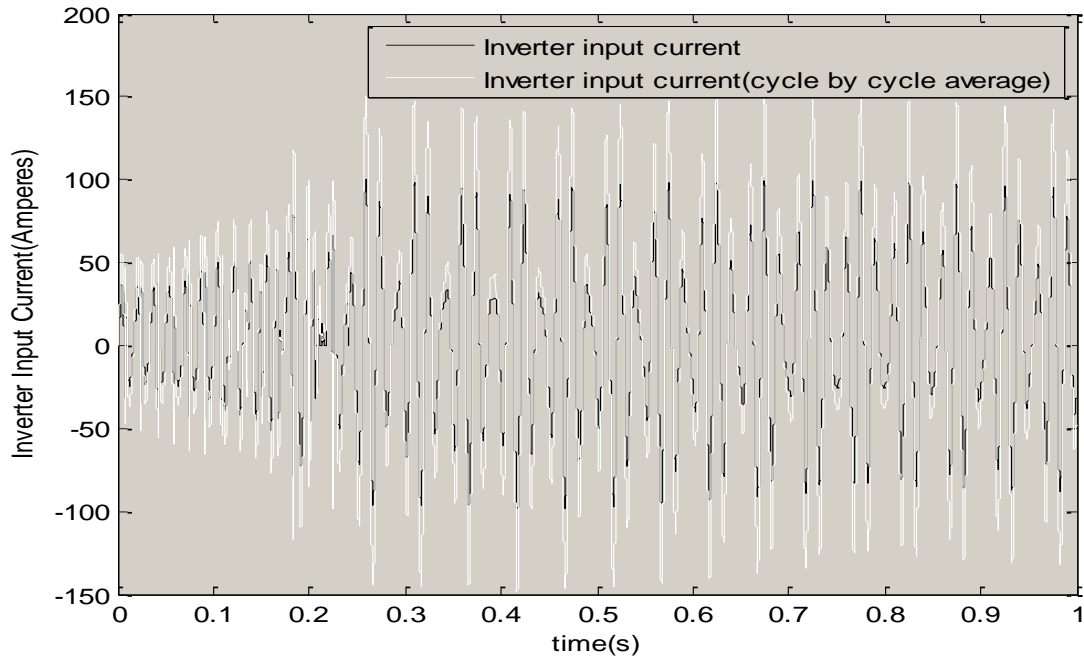


Fig.6.22: Scheme 2 & Scenario 2- Inverter Input Current

As seen above, the waveforms are highly distorted. The peak to peak ripple voltage in the DC link capacitor, as shown in Fig.6.19 is very high and beyond the prescribed limitations. The grid current is also highly distorted.

Inverter with Active Filter-Using Small Non-Electrolytic Capacitor:

The auxiliary converter uses a $850\mu\text{F}$ capacitor along with a 1mF capacitor at the DC bus link. The results obtained are shown from Fig.6.23- 6.28. The peak to peak ripple voltage in the DC link capacitor, as shown in Fig.6.23 is around 3.4V i.e 4.85% ripple which is within the 5% defined limit. The grid current though slightly distorted is well synchronized with the grid voltage.

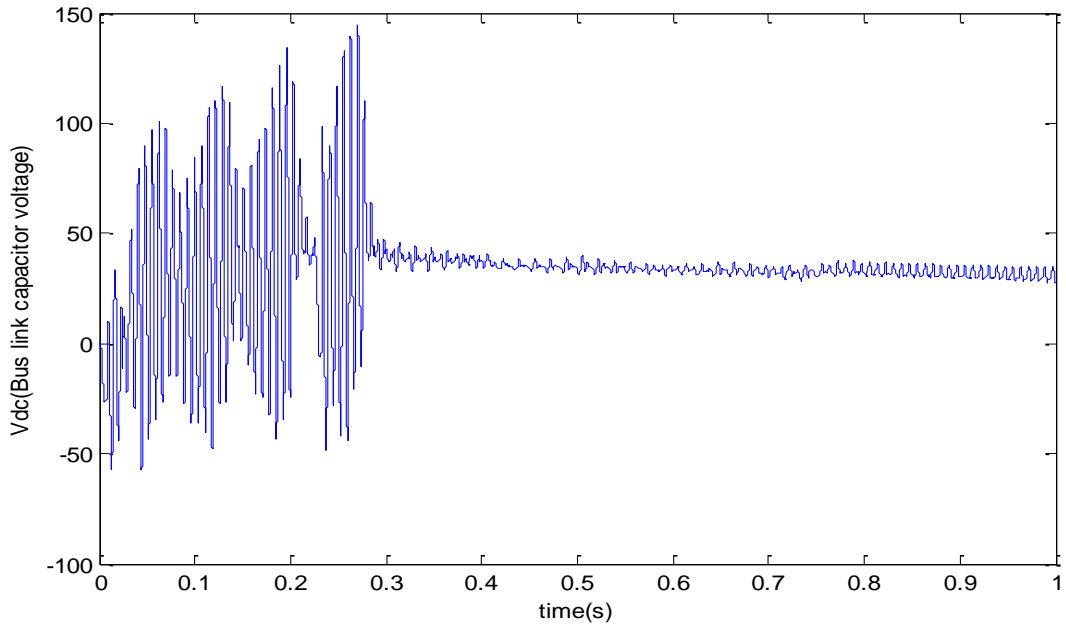


Fig.6.23: Scheme 2 & Scenario 3- DC Bus Link Capacitor Voltage

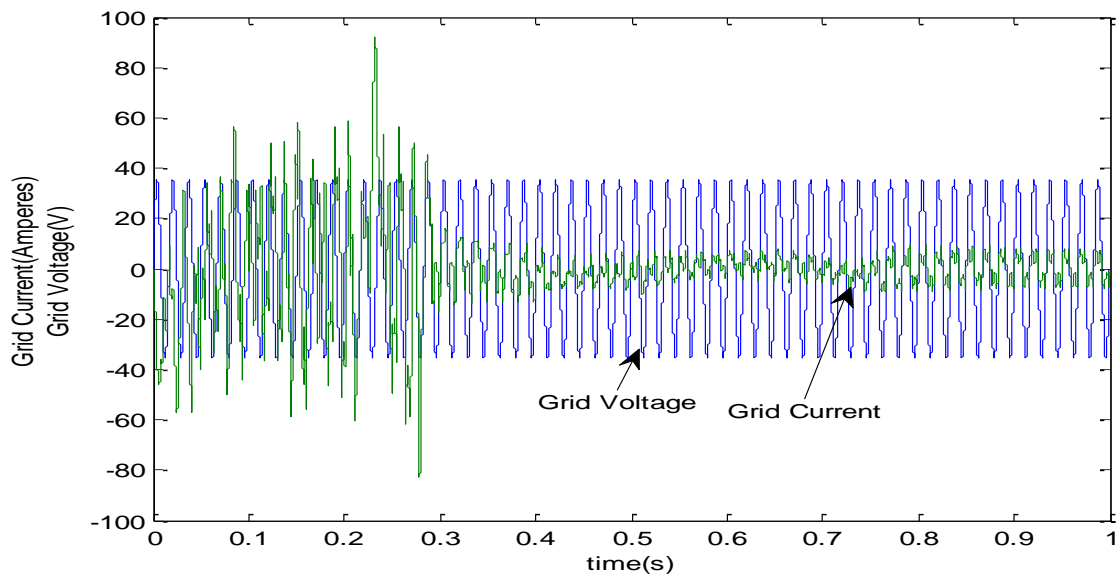


Fig.6.24: Scheme 2 & Scenario 3- Grid Current Superimposed on Grid Voltage

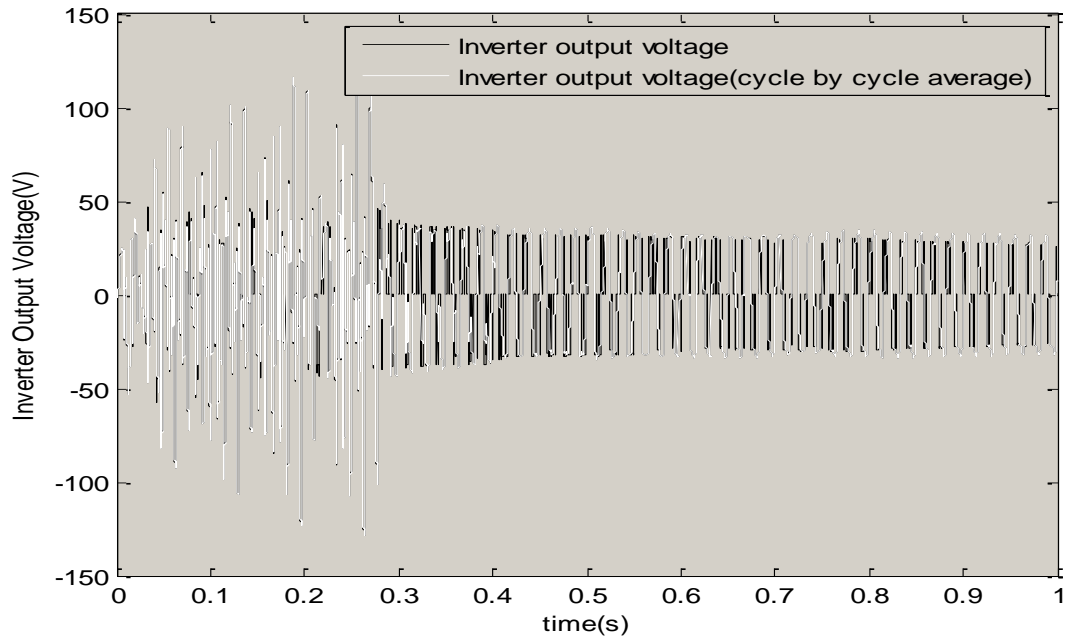


Fig.6.25: Scheme 2 & Scenario 3- Inverter Output Voltage

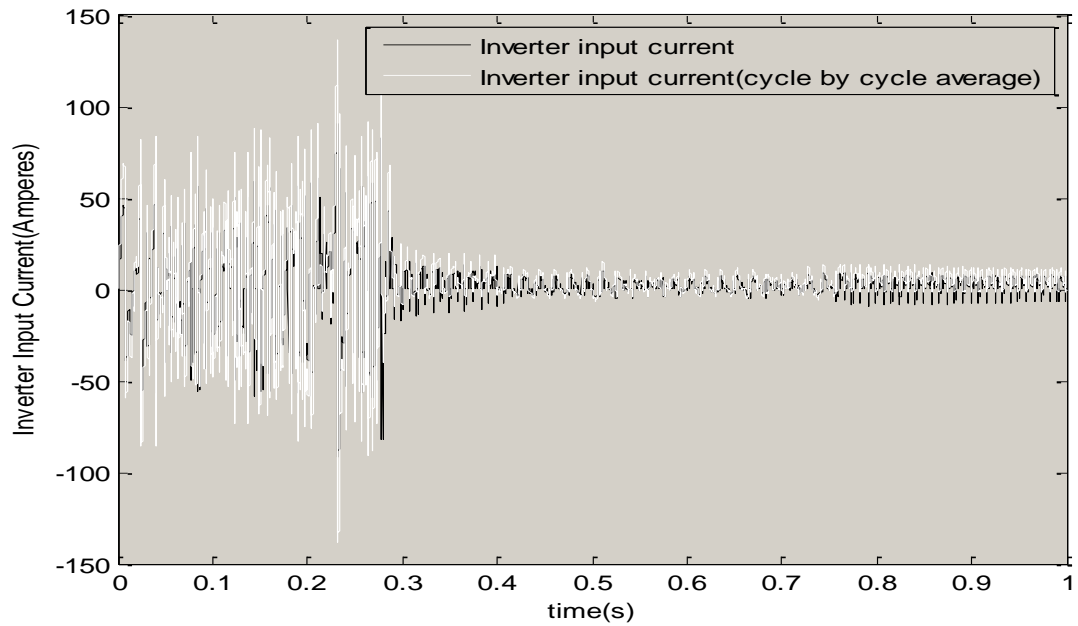


Fig.6.26: Scheme 2 & Scenario 3- Inverter Input Current

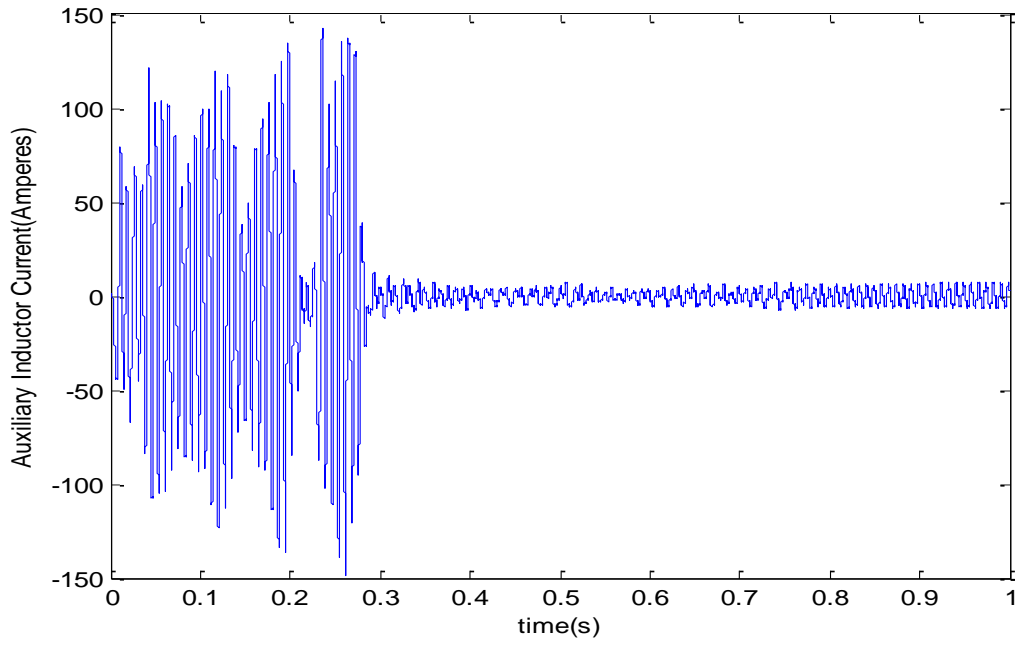


Fig.6.27: Scheme 2 & Scenario 3- Auxiliary Circuit Inductor Current

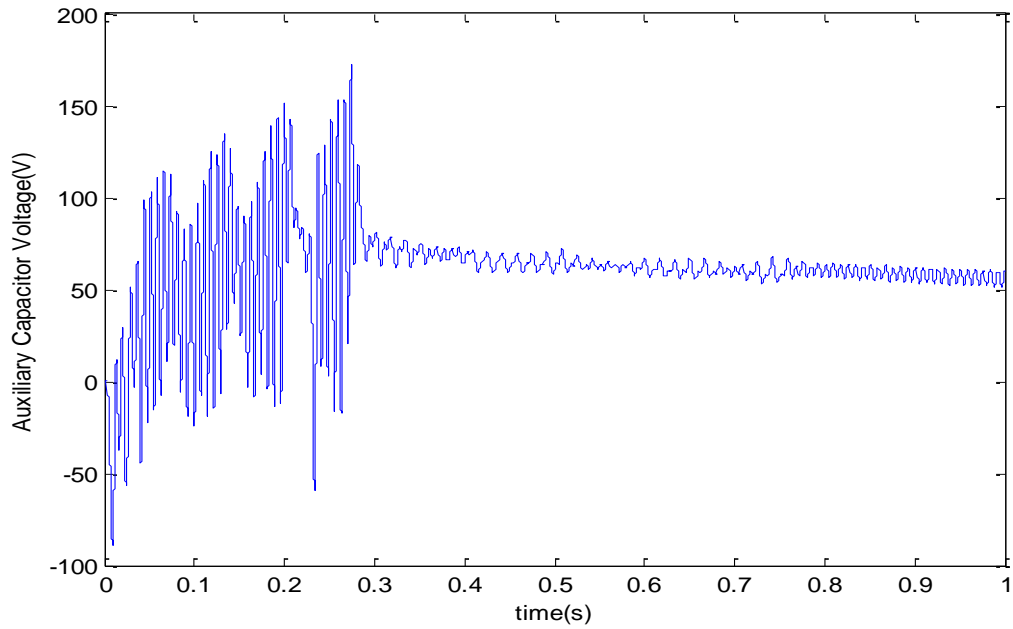


Fig.6.28: Scheme 2 & Scenario 3- Auxiliary Circuit Capacitor Voltage

SIMULINK MODEL

The MATLAB Simulink model of the 2 control schemes is shown below in Fig.6.29.

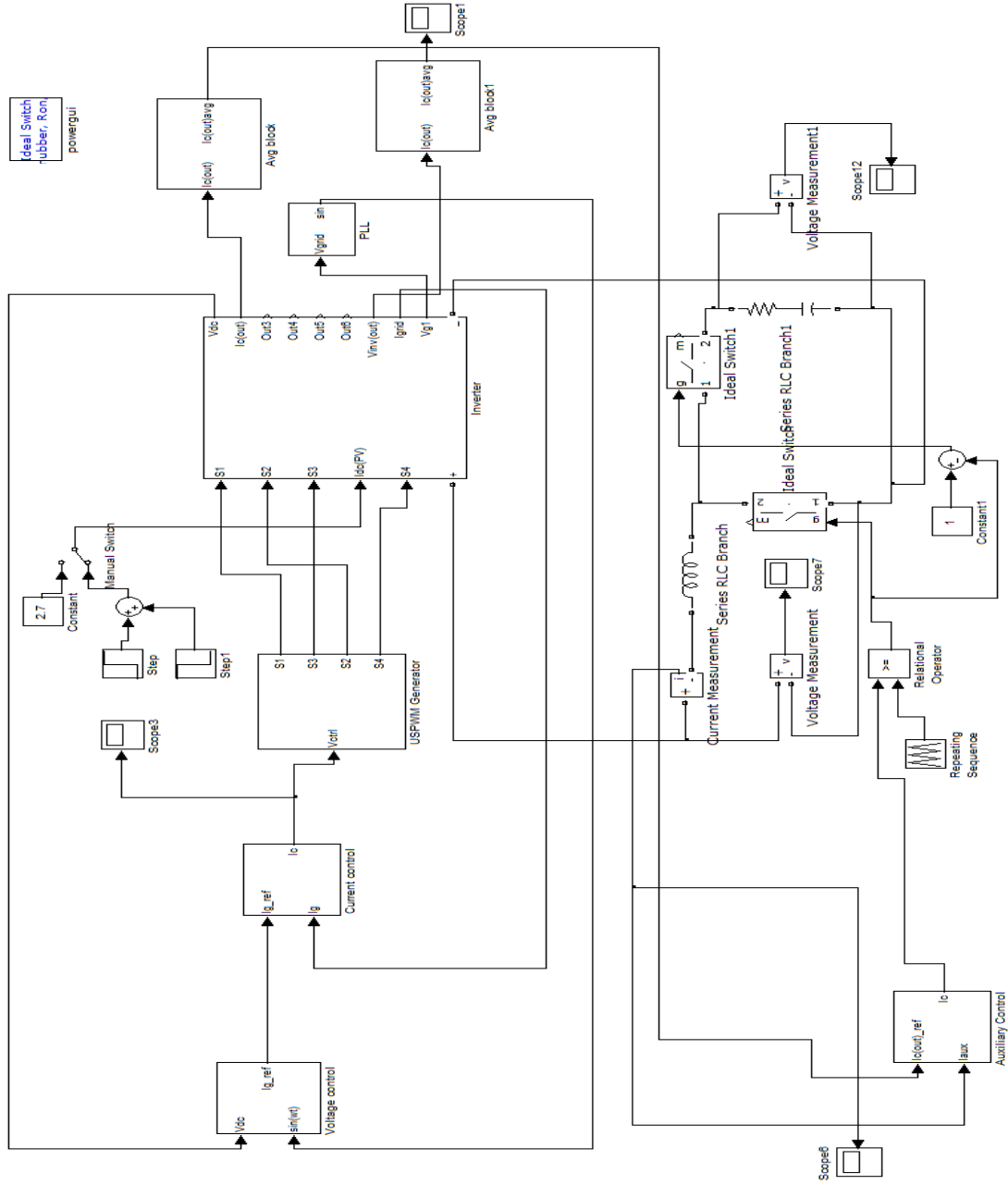


Fig.6.29: MATLAB Simulink Model of the Two Control Schemes

Chapter VII: *Electronic Circuit Design and Simulation*

The non-ideal characteristics of the model has been analyzed and verified by designing the model with the control-scheme 2 and simulating the same in LTSPICE, which is a analog electronics circuit simulator of Linear Technology. The following sections will discuss the design of the different components of the circuit.

INVERTER AND FIRING CIRCUIT

The switches used for the inverter circuit has to be a fast and reliable power electronic switch. Hence, the IRFZ44N, advanced HEXFET Power MOSFET produced by International rectifiers is used. They also have very small on-resistance combined with the fast switching and ruggedness [23].

The USPWM scheme is implemented in the firing circuit, to generate the gating pulses for the switches. The LT1716 μ -power precision rail-rail comparator is used for comparing the modulating waveform generated by the control circuit and the sawtooth waveform that controls the switching frequency[24]. The switching frequency has been limited to 1kHz since the comparator does not respond accurately to very high frequencies. In order to achieve a fairly fast switching of the MOSFETS which is dependent on the input resistance and C_{iss} i.e the input capacitance of 1470pF, the comparator output is amplified by a gain of 50 using an op-amp. The op-amp used is a LT1007A, and it has extremely low noise and high precision and speed performance[25]. In addition, the differential voltage amplication is also very high 20V/ μ V driving a 2k Ω load to ± 12 V. The LT1007A is also used in all the other sections of the complete schematic. The LTSPICE model of the Inverter and corresponding firing circuit is shown below in Fig.7.1.

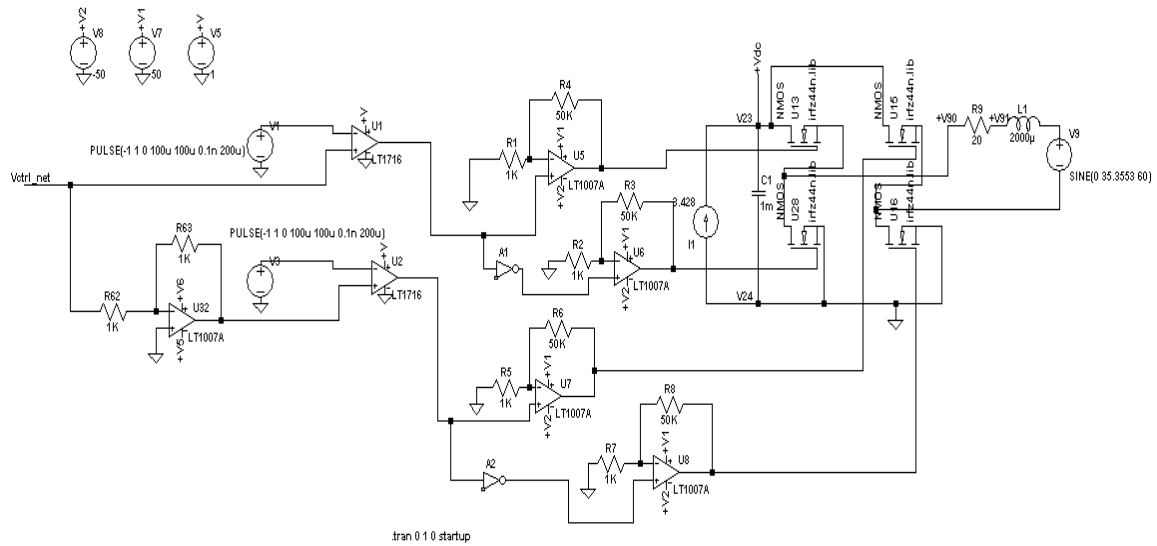


Fig.7.1: LTSPICE Model-Inverter and PWM Firing Circuit

VOLTAGE CONTROL SCHEME

The PI controller is implemented using op-amps. The gain parameters are found to be $K_P=0.05$ and $K_i=0.005$, through trial and error and are variant from the values used in the ideal MATLAB simulation. The LTSPICE model of the voltage control scheme is shown below in Fig.7.2.

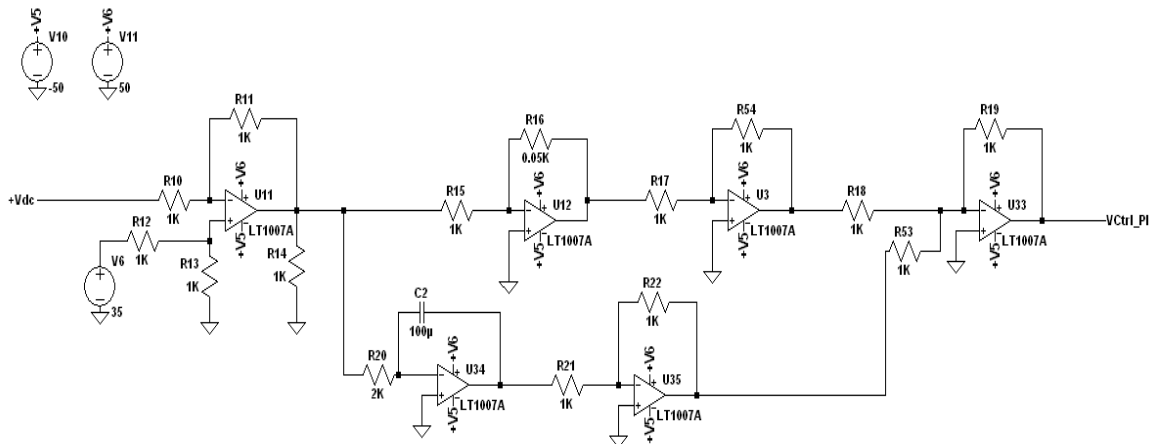


Fig.7.2: LTSPICE Model-Voltage Control Scheme

MULTIPLIER CIRCUIT

The analog multiplier circuit used to generate the current reference for the current control scheme is shown below in Fig.7.4. It is implemented using 2 logarithmic op-amp circuits, a summer circuits and an exponential op-amp circuit [26] as shown in Fig.7.3. The output of the circuit is given by:

$$V_{out} = \frac{V_1 V_2}{I_s R} \quad (7.1)$$

where, V1 and V2 are the two input voltages, I_s is the diode current if it is inverse-polarized and R is the common resistance used in all the op-amps of the multiplier circuit. The most necessary condition with regard this implementation is that both V1 and V2 have to be positive since, the logarithmic function holds good only for positive arguments. Thus, a dc offset of +1 V is given to the sinusoidal 60Hz reference with which the output of the voltage control loop is multiplied and compensated after the multiplication operation. The value of R is selected to be 1k Ω .

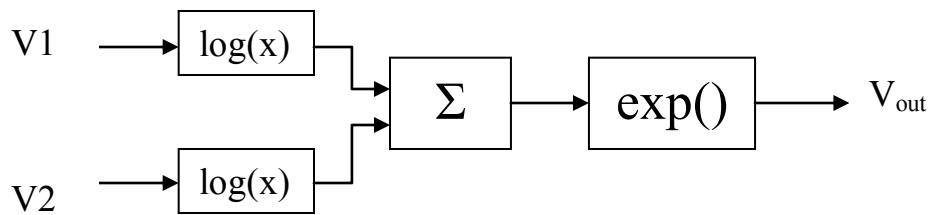


Fig.7.3: Block Diagram of the Analog Multiplier Circuit

The MOSFET implementation of the analog multiplier is less complicated with fewer components, but the diode implementation works for a wider range of inputs and is thus recommended.

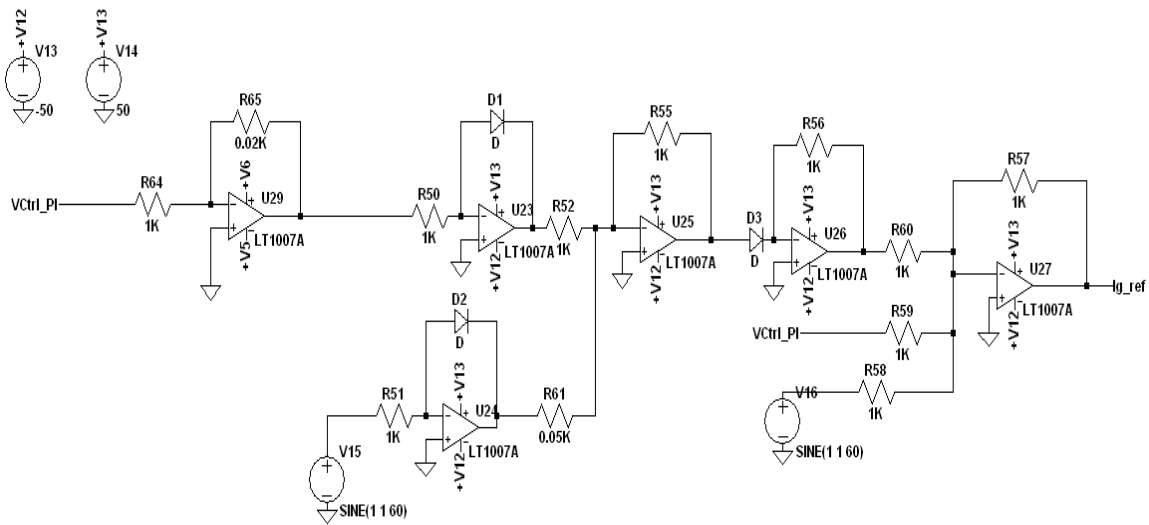


Fig.7.4: LTSPICE Model-Analog Multiplier to Generate Current Reference

CURRENT FEEDBACK

The current through the inductor filter on the grid side needs to be fed-back to the current control loop. This is done by amplifying the voltage across the resistance on the grid side using op-amps. This is shown below in Fig.7.5.

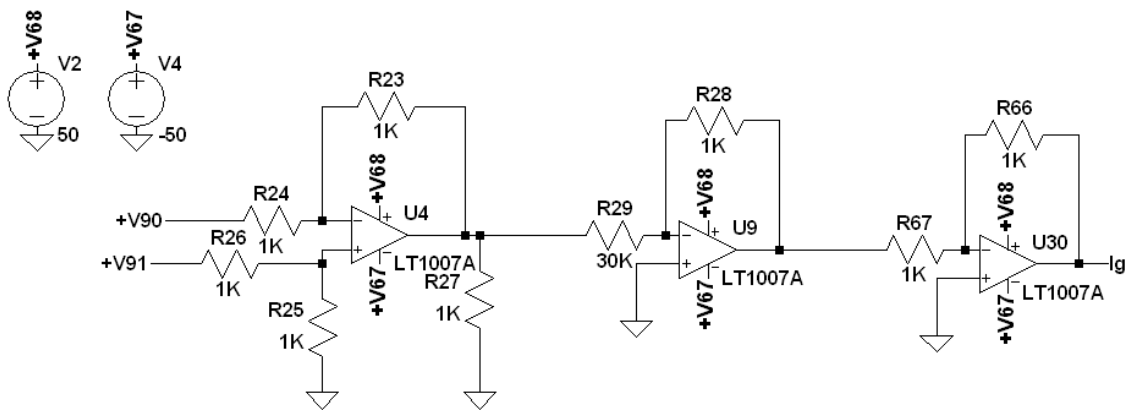


Fig.7.5: LTSPICE Model-Current Feedback to the Current Control Loop

CURRENT CONTROL SCHEME

The PI controller is implemented using op-amps similar to the voltage control scheme as shown in Fig.7.6. The gain parameters are found to be $K_p=1.8$ and $K_i=0.01$, through trial and error and are variant from the values used in the ideal MATLAB simulation.

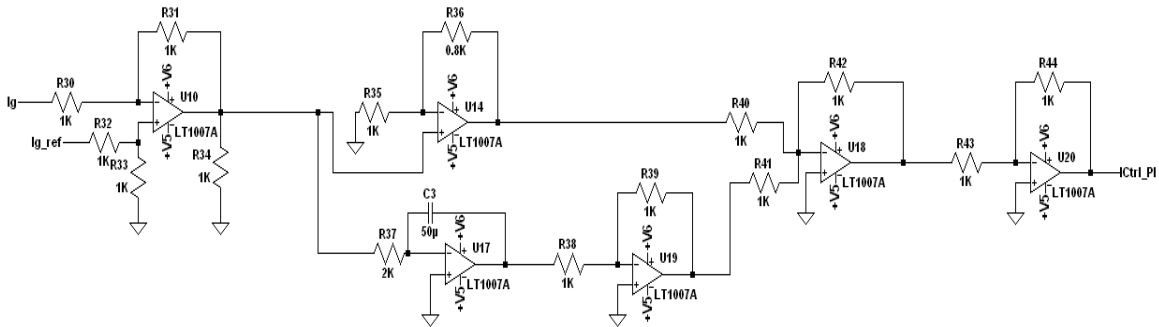


Fig.7.6: LTSPICE Model- Current Control Scheme

FEEDFORWARD TERM

The feedforward term is added to the output of the current control loop in order to decrease the steady state error. In this project, since a stiff grid is assumed, PLL is not used in the LTSPICE Simulations. The implementation is shown in Fig.7.7.

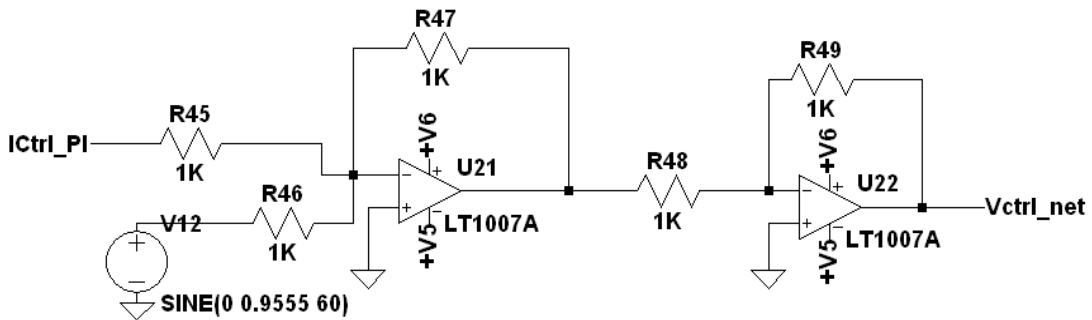


Fig.7.7: LTSPICE Model-Feedforward Term

POWER DECOUPLING CIRCUIT

The feedforward term is added to the output of the current control loop in order to decrease the steady state error. In this project, since a stiff grid is assumed, PLL is not used in the LTSPICE Simulations. The switches used in the auxiliary circuit is the IRFZ44N as used in the grid inverter circuit. The PI controller parameters, K_P and K_i are found to be 0.08 and 0.2 respectively, through trial and error and they are variant from the values used in the MATLAB Simulations. The auxiliary circuit, and the current control and its corresponding firing circuit implementation is shown in Fig.7.8 and Fig.7.9 respectively.

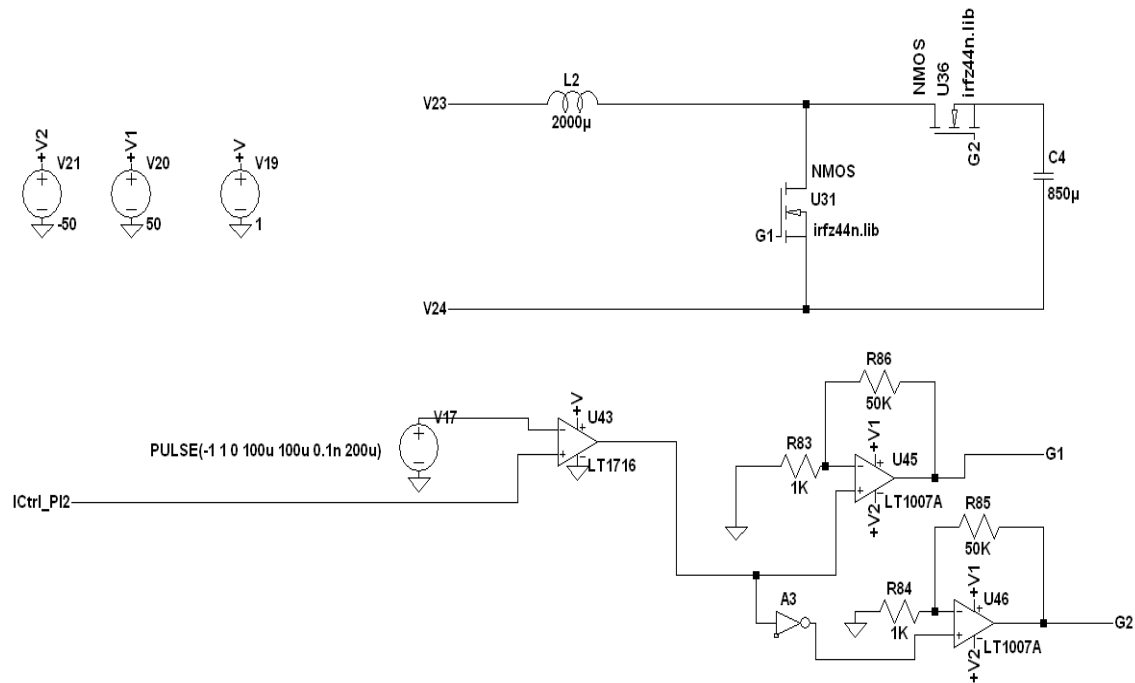


Fig. 7.8: LTSPICE Model-Power Decoupling Circuit

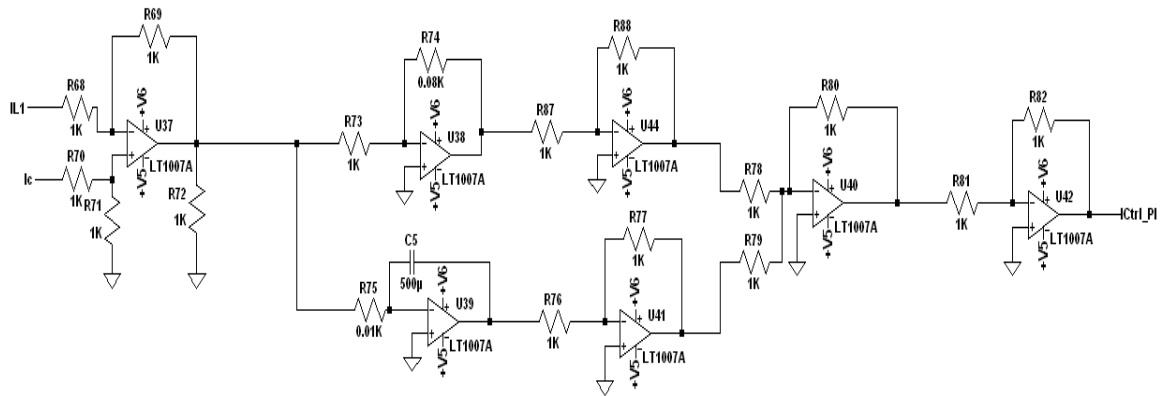


Fig.7.9: LTSPICE Model-Auxiliary Converter Control Scheme

SIMULATION RESULTS

Scenario:

The power and voltage levels adopted in the LTSPICE Simulations are the same as that in Power and Control Scheme-2. A step change is given in the PV input current from -3.428A to 3.428A at 60ms. The simulations were performed for 3 scenarios similar to those adopted in the MATLAB Simulations:

- Inverter with large size electrolytic capacitor- without auxiliary converter
- Inverter with small non-electrolytic capacitor – without auxiliary converter.
- Inverter with small non-electrolytic capacitor and auxiliary converter.

The observed results are shown in the following subsections.

Inverter without Active Filter-Using Large Electrolytic capacitor:

A capacitor of 8mF is used in the DC bus link side. The waveforms obtained are as shown in Fig.7.10. The peak to peak ripple is found to be around 3.36V i.e 4.8% ripple which is within the 5% limit of operation. The grid current also closely follows a sinusoidal wave.

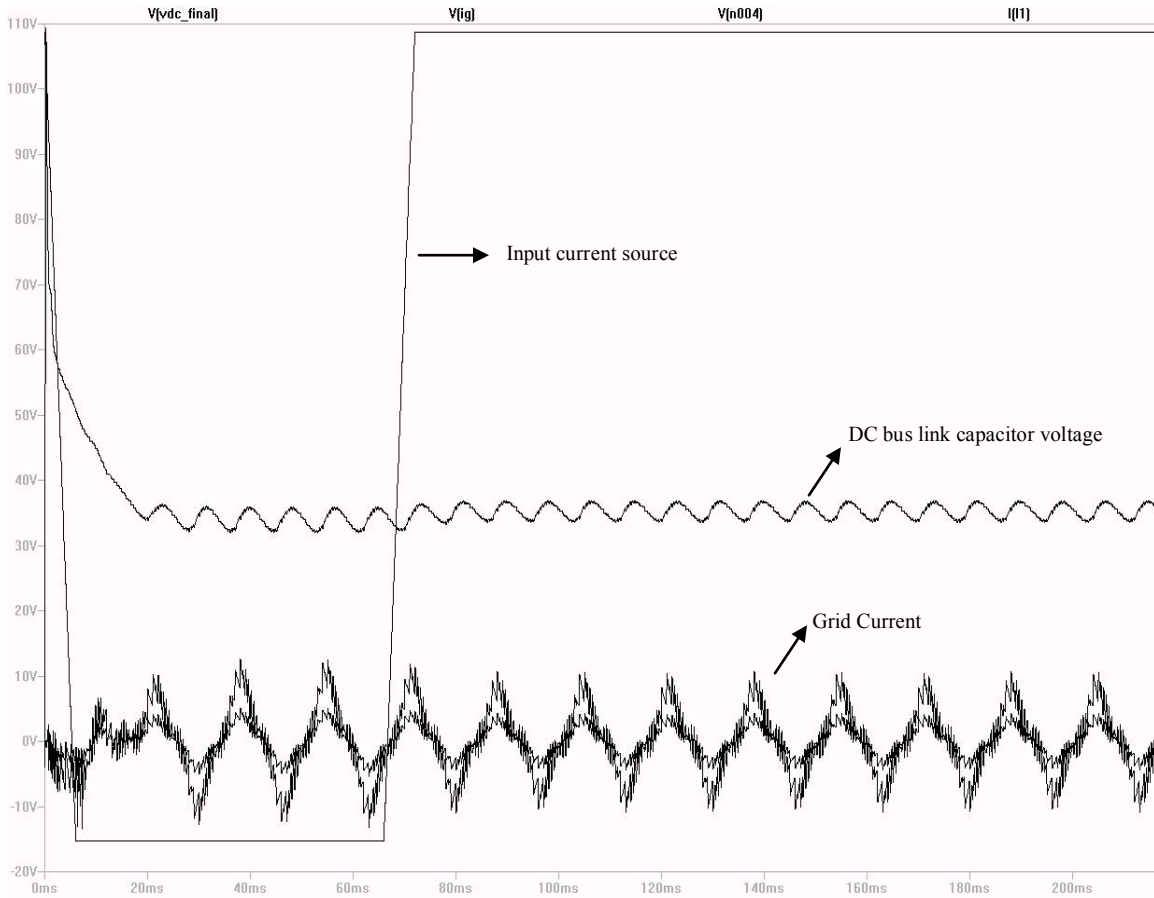


Fig.7.10: LTSPICE Output- Using Large Electrolytic Capacitor

Inverter without Active Filter-Using Small Non-Electrolytic Capacitor:

A capacitor of 1mF is used in the DC bus link side. The waveforms obtained are as shown in Fig.7.11. The peak to peak ripple is found to be around 25.2V i.e 36% ripple which is beyond the prescribed limitations. The grid current is also highly distorted.

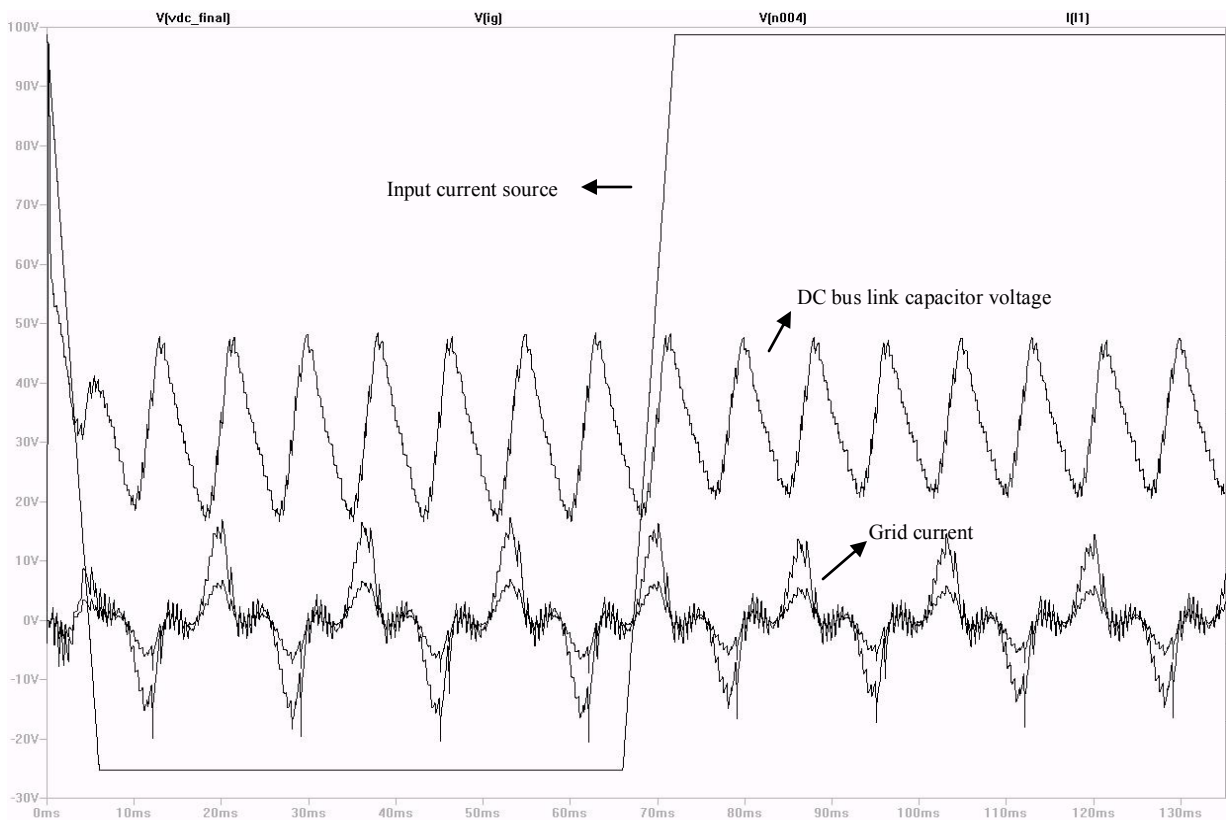


Fig.7.11: LTSPICE Output - Using Small Non-Electrolytic Capacitor

Inverter with Active Filter-Using Small Non-Electrolytic Capacitor:

A capacitor of 1mF is used in the DC bus link side along with 850 μ F in the active power decoupling circuit. The waveforms obtained are as shown in Fig.7.12. The peak to peak ripple is found to be around 5V i.e 7.14% ripple which is pretty close to the defined limit of operation. The grid current also closely follows a sinusoidal wave.

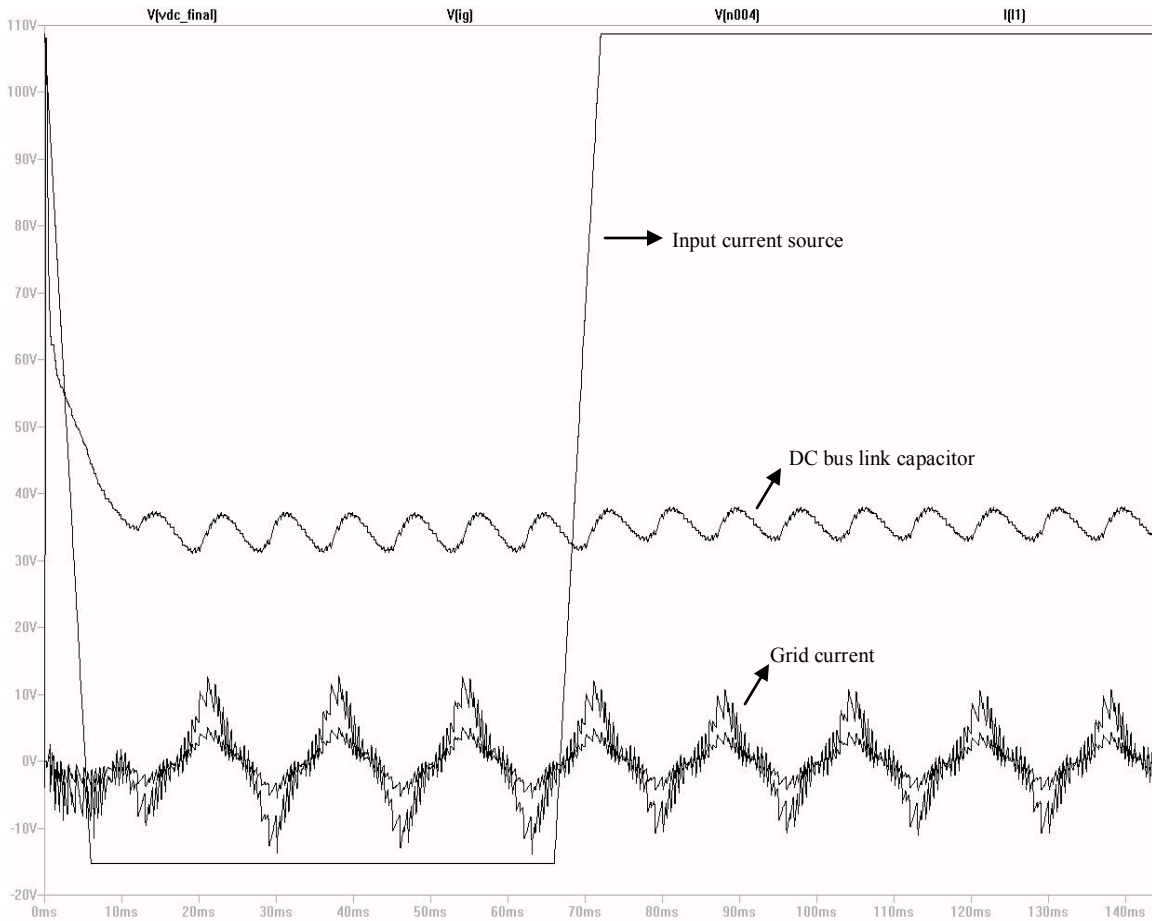


Fig.7.12: LTSPICE Output- Using Active Power Decoupling Circuit

RECOMMENDED CAPACITORS

The different capacitors that could be considered for this specific application complying with the expected voltage and ripple current ratings are specified in Table 7.1-7.3. The tables discuss the aluminium electrolytic capacitor, ALC40 series, the polypropylene metallized film capacitor, C4AE series and the CKH/CKE Lead Aluminium electrolytic capacitors ratings [27]-[29].

Capacitance(μF)	ESR($\text{m}\Omega$) at 20°C ,100 Hz max	Impedance($\text{m}\Omega$) at 20°C ,10kHz(max)	Ripple Current(A) at 105°C	
			100Hz	10kHz
Voltage = 450V				
470	203	138	3.51	6.68
560	175	122	4.32	9.57
820	121	85	5.34	11.05
1200	105	71	5.84	11.64
1500	86	59	6.44	11.85

Table 7.1: Aluminium Electrolytic Capacitor(ALC40) Ratings

Capacitance (μF)	dV/dt (V/ μs)	I _{pkr} (A _{pk})	ESL(nH)	ESR($\text{m}\Omega$)		I _{rms} (A _{rms})	R _{th} ($^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{W}$)
				at 70°C 10kHz	at 70°C 10kHz		
Voltage = 450V							
35	10	355	30	3.5	14	18	
40	10	406	30	3.1	16	17	
50	10	508	30	2.5	18	15	
75	7	503	35	3.4	18	12	
100	7	677	35	2.6	22	10	

Table 7.2: Polypropylene Metallized Film Capacitor(C4AE) Ratings

Capacitance(μF)	ESR($\text{m}\Omega$) at 20°C , 100Hz	Impedance($\text{m}\Omega$) at 20°C , 100Hz	Ripple Current(A) at 105°C	
			100Hz	10kHz
Voltage = 35V				
1000	199	-	0.89	-
1500	154.8	-	1.14	-
2200	120.6	-	1.44	-
3900	202	166	1.87	2.09
5600	171	144	2.08	2.31
6800	145	120	2.55	2.84
8200	129	110	2.53	2.81
10,000	107	91	2.90	3.22

Table 7.3: Lead Aluminium Electrolytic Capacitor(CKH/CKE) Ratings

Chapter VIII: *Conclusions and Future Scope*

PROJECT SUMMARY AND RESULTS

This project discusses the implementation of a Grid-PV interface for transient changes in the input power stage. The interface is basically a single-phase 3-level VSI. The major issue that concerns the installation is the double frequency component that arises at the bus link and prevents a clean and smooth DC from entering the inverter input.

One of the earliest methods suggested is placing a large electrolytic capacitor at the bus link, since it can handle very large ripple currents and is also cost-effective. Nevertheless, the lifetime and reliability of the inverter reduces due to the electrolytic capacitor. Thus, thin film capacitors were suggested as an alternate solution due to their longevity. Despite this advantage, they turn out to be a very expensive solution.

In this project, an active power decoupling circuit has been proposed and implemented in parallel with the bus link capacitor. The power decoupling circuit is basically a bi-directional DC-DC converter with the configuration of the half-bridge topology due to its high efficiency and ease of implementation. The converter acts as a synchronous buck/boost operating in two modes based on power transfer within the circuit. This auxiliary circuit compensates the output current of the bus link capacitor, using typical PI control and nullifies it. The model has been simulated for two different power and control schemes in the Grid-PV interface:

- Control Scheme-1 uses a Type-II controller for regulating the bus link voltage in the outer voltage loop and a PR controller for regulating the grid current in the inner current loop.
- Control Scheme-2 uses PI control in both the voltage and current control loops.

The effect of the increased excursions in the DC link voltage due to transient changes in the input power stage is also resolved by using an active power decoupling circuit. This significantly increases the bandwidth of operation without increasing the output current distortion, playing a major role.

The amount of capacitance required for the DC bus link is drastically reduced using this method under similar power and voltage levels as the electrolytic capacitor method. In scheme-1, the amount of capacitance required has been found to reduce by 75.61% and in scheme-2, the capacitance is reduced by 77.5% , compared to a large electrolytic capacitor.

The simulation studies have been performed using MATLAB Simulink and the waveforms have been analyzed accordingly. The power decoupling method has been found to keep the bus link capacitor voltage within the required 5% ripple limit considered as per IEEE 1547 standards. In addition, the non-ideal characteristics of the model have been studied by conducting electronic circuit simulation using LTSPICE and the design was done appropriately. The observations complied with the results yielded by MATLAB simulation.

FUTURE SCOPE

Complete closed loop control could be achieved by controlling the voltage across the auxiliary storage capacitor and thus resisting excessive voltage levels in the storage capacitor, and preventing dielectric breakdown.

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