

Figure 2. Power Triangle

Figure 2 shows the typical power triangle. It can be observed that with a little over-rating of the solar inverter to 110%, the inverter can generate 100% real power and also generate/absorb upto 45% reactive power. Since the maximum real power from the solar plants happens for a short duration of the day, it can be clearly seen that even with nominal (100%) rated inverters, significant reactive power can be generated.

The reactive power is limited by the current carrying capacity of the switches of the inverter and not by the real power generated. Hence, the reactive power Q can also be generated at night even when the real power is not generated. Most of the utility scale solar plants have some sort of auxiliary power (typically battery or Diesel generator) for keeping the transformer or electronic equipment or miscellaneous loads like lights, HVACs etc energized at night. Losses during the reactive compensation at night can be powered by this auxiliary power supply.

Using this feature built into the solar inverters enables the reduction of line losses without having any additional infrastructure requirement. Furthermore, the life time of the existing capacitor banks or tap changing transformers can be increased [1], due to lesser usage of those. Due to the finer control of Q when compared to “step-wise” change as in capacitor bank, the overall network would be operating in an optimum condition. However, presently the Q controls in most of the solar plants are either disabled or maintained at fixed “ Q ” setpoint. The Q is not varied in accordance with the grid conditions.

Keeping in consideration this potential, and the changing grid regulations, many solar inverter manufacturers have started to incorporate this feature in their products. Table 1 shows an example representative comparison of some solar inverters. With the changing regulations worldwide, it is clear that in future, more number of features like these would be added into the inverter functionalities [4].

Table 1. Representative Comparison of Some Solar Inverters

Manufacturer	Model Number	Var setpoint	Var ramp rate	Full range (Lag-Lead) pf
Eaton	Power Xpert 1670	Y	Y	0-0
SMA	SC 800CP	Y	Y	0.8– 0.8
Bonfiglioli	RPS TL-UL 1000	Y	Y	0.85– 0.85
Schneider	XC 680-NA	Y	N	0.8– 0.8
Solectria	SGI 750XTM	Y	Y	0.8– 0.8
ABB	Ultra 750-1500	Y	Y	0.9– 0.9

III. ARCHITECTURE AND SIMULATION ANALYSIS

Figure 3 shows basic high level architecture of the proposed concept of dynamic reactive power compensation using solar inverters.

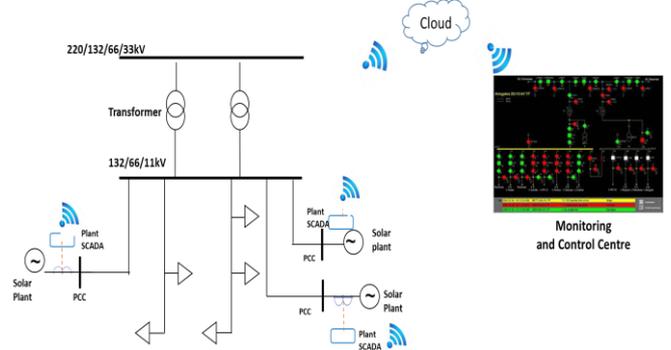


Figure 3. Basic Architecture

Apart from the network level voltage, current and power (real and reactive) information, the substation SCADA typically receives this data of the utility scale solar plants connected at the bus. Depending on the network conditions (which the grid keeps analyzing in real time), dynamic setpoints are sent to the SCADA of the solar plants to dynamically generate/absorb reactive power without affecting the real power generation. As the solar power penetration increases in the grid, it becomes necessary to coordinate the reactive power contribution of each of these plants.

While developing a full-fledged optimization algorithm is out of the scope of this paper, the algorithm should be essentially doing the following steps:

1. Analyze the network power flow every 15 mins and determine the buses where the voltage profile is weak or ones which have high reactive loads and reactive compensation is needed
2. Determine the closest possible solar plants that can generate the reactive power.
3. Run continuation power flow and determine the extent of reactive compensation (Q setpoint) is needed at that possible, and how much can be supplied by that plant.
4. Analyze the impact of the reactive compensation on the other buses, and change Q setpoints at other plants accordingly.

In order to demonstrate the performance improvement with dynamic reactive power supply through solar inverters, simulation analysis is performed using power world [6] tool. Figure 4 shows a simple 2 – bus (33kV, 11kV) system with a 5MW solar plant connected at the 11kV bus. It is assumed that the solar is operating at its peak power point. For the sake of simplicity, the load is taken as a constant at 25MW, 5Mvar.

Table 2 shows the power flow simulation results under different operating scenarios. It can be seen that with the

solar supplying Mvars, the voltage profile in both the buses have improved when compared to the base case. This is because, the local supply of reactive power has more impact on the voltage profile.

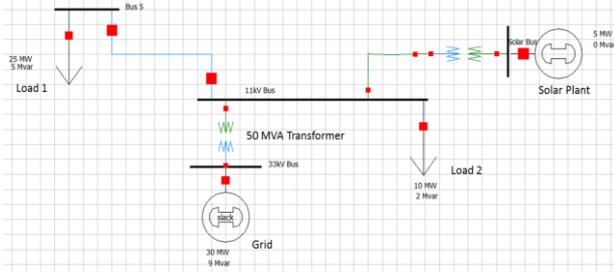


Figure 4. Simple 2 Bus Power Network

Table 2. Power Flow Results

Bus	Without reactive support	With 2.5MVAR support	With 5 MVAR support
33kV	1	1	1
11kV	0.984	0.989	0.992
Load 1	0.982	0.986	0.992
VARs supplied by Grid	9	7	4

Figure 4 shows a multi-bus power network from power world [6] tool. The model represents two solar farms connected at bus 4 and 7 respectively and with an aggregated power of 81 MW, and 180 MW respectively. Table 3 shows the performance results of the network under various operating scenarios.

It can be seen that in the base case, the voltage at bus 3 is less than the allowed limit of +/- 5%, and in other buses it is close to limits. In the first case, with the solar at bus 7 and 4 supplying 60 Mvar and 30 Mvar respectively, the voltages have improved in all the buses, but there is an over voltage in the bus 2. To reduce this over voltage, the capacitor bank at bus 2 is invoked to absorb some reactive power, resulting in bringing back the voltage. However, now the bus 5 is closer to the limits. The last scenario represents a case where after several rounds of optimization, the final values of reactive power supply from different buses are given. It can be seen that the voltage across all the buses are now high and close to optimum.

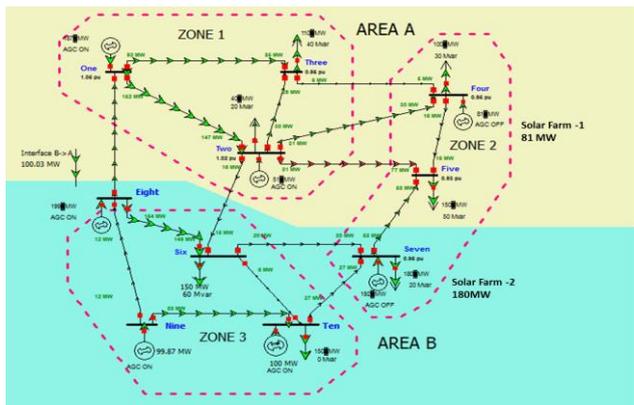


Figure 5. Multi-Bus Power Network

Table 3. Power Flow Results - Multi Bus

Bus	Bus Voltage (in pu)			
	Without reactive support	With 60 MVAR at Bus 7 and 30MVAR at Bus 4	With 60, 30, -40 MVARs at Bus 7,4,2 respectively	With 67, 30, -40 MVARs at Bus 7,4,2 respectively
7	0.95	1	0.99	1
5	0.93	0.98	0.96	0.97
4	0.95	0.99	0.97	0.99
2	1.02	1.05	1.01	1.02

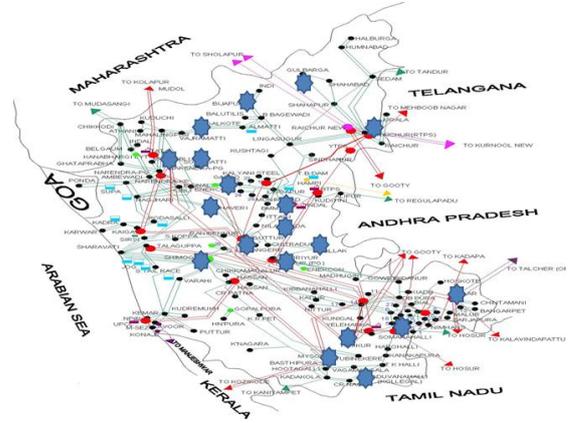


Figure 6. Representational Picture Showing MW Scale Solar Plants in Karnataka

Figure 6 shows a representational picture of the areas within Karnataka, India that has utility scale solar plants as of 2016. It is to be noted that it is not a complete or exhaustive list of all the solar plants. From the earlier discussion, it can be clearly seen that by dynamically controlling the reactive power setpoints of the solar plants spread geographically within the network, the overall power grid can be maintained at efficient voltage levels, thereby reducing significant losses and maintaining voltage stability.

Presently, in India there is no clear regulation for reactive compensation with renewables, though at the time of this paper, it was learnt that a draft regulation is being developed. Features like this can be immensely beneficial to improving the health of the network without adding any extra burden of costs on the financially stressed distribution grid.

IV. CONCLUSION

Solar inverters have the capability to dynamically absorb/generate reactive power depending on the network conditions without requirement for any additional infrastructure costs. Simulation analysis has shown a significant improvement in the voltage profile (hence the losses reduction) by dynamically controlling them.

REFERENCES

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