Distributed Voltage Unbalance Compensation in Islanded Microgrids by Using Dynamic-Consensus-Algorithm

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Abstract—In islanded microgrids (MGs), distributed generators (DGs) can be employed as distributed compensators for improving the power quality in the consumer side. Two-level hierarchical control can be used for voltage unbalance compensation. Primary level, consisting of droop control and virtual impedance, can be applied to help the positive sequence active and reactive power sharing. Secondary level is used to assist voltage unbalance compensation. However, if distribution line differences are considered, the negative sequence current cannot be well shared among DGs. In order to overcome this problem, this paper proposes a distributed negative sequence current sharing method by using a dynamic consensus algorithm (DCA). In clear contrast with the previously proposed methods, this approach does not require a dedicated central controller and the communication links are only required between neighboring DGs. The method is based on the modeling and analysis of the unbalanced system. Experimental results from an islanded MG system consisting of three 2.2 kVA inverters are shown to demonstrate the effectiveness of the method.

Index Terms—Islanded microgrid, hierarchical control, voltage unbalance compensation, consensus algorithm, current sharing

I. INTRODUCTION

The MicroGrid (MG) concept has been proposed for efficient and flexible utilization of distributed energy resources [1]. According to the US Department of Energy (DOE), as well as Electric Power Research Institute (EPRI), a MG is a group of interconnected loads and distributed energy resources within clearly defined electrical boundaries that acts as a single controllable entity with respect to the grid and that connects and disconnects from such grid to enable it to operate in both grid-connected or “island” mode. In that way, it provides a more flexible and reliable energy system. In order to achieve this ideal, several critical issues have to be properly addressed especially under islanded mode including system stability, power quality, distributed generator (DG) coordination, power sharing, energy management, etc. In case of power quality issues, the existence of single-phase loads may incur voltage unbalance causing instability and additional power losses. Series or shunt active power filters [2]–[9] are conventional solutions for unbalance compensation.

In case of MG system, in order to save the investment for extra compensation equipment, DGs can be employed as distributed active filters or compensators. This capability is enabled by prevalent utilization of interfacing inverters and the advanced sensing, monitoring and communication techniques [10]–[21]. A hierarchical control is proposed in [10] and [11] to compensate voltage unbalance in sensitive load bus of an islanded MG. The hierarchy consists of two levels: primary (local) and secondary (central). A compensating reference is generated by the secondary controller and sent to primary controller. Then, every primary controller follows the compensating reference and controls the DG to compensate unbalances in the point of common coupling. A negative sequence impedance controller has been proposed in [12] for islanded operation of medium voltage MG system realizing negative sequence current minimization so as to reduce the system unbalances. In [13], a central power sharing and voltage regulation method is proposed for achieving both the accurate power sharing and enhanced voltage quality in terms of harmonics, disturbances and unbalances, and the compensation commands are distributed to localized DGs through low bandwidth communication links (LBCL). Similar functions are also realized and discussed in [14]–[21] by properly controlling and coordinating the operation of power converter interfaced DGs. Moreover, in order to make DGs share the total power considering both negative sequence quantities and harmonic currents, several methods have been studied. Centralized control, such as the cases presented in [13], [21], is a conventional way to achieve the accurate total power sharing. However, under distributed generation, storage and consumption paradigm, centralized control is facing obstacles because of the high communication and implementation cost, limited flexibility and low reliability due to its single point of failure feature. In order to achieve better power quality as well as reactive power and harmonic current sharing, a coordinated control strategy based on detecting and limiting the harmonic and reactive conductance and susceptance by using Fryze-Buchholz-Dpenbrock theory is proposed in [14].

In recent years, with the advance of information and communication technologies, distributed control methods have
been more and more studied and applied in MG related research works. Consensus algorithms have been mostly used as they offer effective information sharing among distributed agents, facilitating in that way the distributed coordination and control of DGs. For instance, the authors of [22] propose gossip algorithm based distributed secondary control for voltage and frequency restoration in an islanded MG. Based on consensus algorithm, similar approach is applied in MGs for frequency recovery purposes [23].

In order to realize accurate current sharing among DGs while also ensure voltage unbalance compensation, this paper proposes a dynamic consensus algorithm (DCA) based negative sequence current sharing method forming a distributed hierarchical control scheme. The advantages of the proposed approach include: 1) it does not require a dedicated central controller; 2) communication links are only required between neighboring units; 3) plug-and-play functions can be realized achieving more flexible and reliable operation.

The study case system is introduced in Section II along with analysis of the unbalance compensation and negative sequence current sharing approach. The distributed hierarchical control scheme and detailed control system are presented in Section III. Section IV gives details regarding the DCA and its dynamics. dSPACE system based experimental results are shown in Section V to verify the validity of the proposed approach. Section VI presents the conclusion.

II. UNBALANCED ISLANDED MG ANALYSIS

In a three-phase islanded MG shown in Fig. 1, several DGs are installed to supply a common bus (CB). A power quality control center (PQCC) is established for taking care of power quality issues, such as voltage unbalance and harmonics. If unbalanced loads are connected on CB, voltage unbalance may appear. The PQCC measures the three-phase voltage on CB and calculates the voltage unbalance factor (VUF) [24], [25]. Based on the allowable VUF limits on CB, the PQCC generates unbalance compensation references in d-q reference (UCR<sub>dq</sub>) and sends them through LBCLs to DG units, and employs DGs as distributed compensators [10]. The local control systems (LC) follow the UCR<sub>dq</sub> and provide compensation support to the system. However, if the impedances between DGs and CB are different because of different types and lengths of distribution lines, the same compensation values will cause unequal negative sequence current sharing. In this situation, the DG units located closer to CB will automatically supply more current which may cause overloading of these DGs, especially under heavy load conditions. Therefore, in order to derive a method that is able to realize proper compensation efforts sharing, a model of the unbalanced system needs to be established first.

A. Unbalanced System Analysis

Assuming the presence of unbalanced loads on CB, as that shown in Fig. 2 (a), the symmetrical components of the system can be calculated based on classical methods [25]:

\[
\begin{align*}
Y_{ss} & = A^{-1} \cdot Y_{ph} \cdot A \\
V_{ss} & = A^{-1} \cdot V_{ph} \\
I_{ss} & = Y_{ss} \cdot V_{ss}
\end{align*}
\]

where \( Y_{ss} \), \( V_{ss} \) and \( I_{ss} \) are respectively the admittance matrix, voltage and current in symmetrical system, \( Y_{ph} \) and \( V_{ph} \) are respectively the admittance matrix and ph ase voltage in 3-phase system:

\[
\begin{align*}
Y_{ph} & = \begin{bmatrix} Y + Y_u & -Y_u & 0 \\ -Y_u & Y + Y_u & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & Y \end{bmatrix} \\
V_{ph} & = \begin{bmatrix} V_u - V_{ss} \\ V_u - V_{ss} \\ V_u - V_{ss} \end{bmatrix}
\end{align*}
\]

and \( A \) is the transformation matrix between 3-phase system and symmetrical system (\( a \) used in the following equations is equal to 1/\( \sqrt{3} \)):

\[
A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & a^2 & a \\ 1 & a & a^2 \end{bmatrix}
\]

The positive and negative sequence currents can be obtained by solving (1):

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{I}^P & = \hat{V}^P \cdot Y + (\hat{V}^P - a \cdot \hat{V}^N) \cdot Y_u \\
\hat{I}^N & = \hat{V}^N \cdot Y + (\hat{V}^N - a^2 \cdot \hat{V}^P) \cdot Y_u
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \hat{I} \) and \( \hat{V} \) are respectively the current and voltage phasors, the superscripts \( P \) and \( N \) denote the positive- and negative-sequence quantities respectively. \( Y \) and \( Y_u \) are the admittances denoted as Type A and Type B loads, as shown in Fig. 2 (a). In addition, considering the fact that the maximum allowed voltage unbalance in power systems is 3% as defined by ANSI C84.1-1995 [26], the positive sequence voltage is much larger than negative sequence voltage. When VUF value
is within the range 0-5%, the value of the term \( \dot{V}^N \cdot Y + \dot{V}^P \cdot Y_u \) is always less than 5% of the nominal positive sequence current, which can be neglected even under the condition that \( Y \) is much larger than \( Y_u \). Accordingly, (4) can be well approximated as:
\[
\begin{align*}
I^P & \approx \dot{V}^P \cdot Y + \dot{V}^P \cdot Y_u \\
I^N & = -a^2 \cdot \dot{V}^P \cdot Y_u
\end{align*}
(5)
\]

It can be seen from (5) that the negative sequence current is determined by the positive sequence voltage \( \dot{V}^P \) and unbalanced load \( Y_u \). In addition, as the voltage variation is bounded within 5% according to IEEE Std 1547-2003 [27], the unbalanced load can be seen as a constant source (see \( I_{CB}^N \) in Fig. 2 (b)) under a certain load condition.

### B. Voltage Unbalance Compensation and Negative Sequence Current Sharing Approach

Based on exemplary system shown in Fig. 2 (b), the aim of voltage unbalance compensation strategy is actually to reduce the negative sequence voltage on CB (\( V_{CB}^N \)). The ideal compensation process is sketched in Fig. 3 (a). Ohm’s law is also obeyed in the negative sequence equivalent circuit:
\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{V}_{CB}^N &= \dot{V}_S^N + \dot{I}_{CB}^N / Y_u^N \\
\dot{V}_S^N &= \dot{V}_{S1}^N + \dot{I}_{S1}^N / Y_{SS}^N \\
\dot{I}_{S1}^N &= \dot{I}_a^N / Y_{PS}^N
\end{align*}
(6)
\]

where \( \dot{V}_{CB}^N \) and \( \dot{V}_S^N \) are the negative sequence voltage phasors at DG sides, \( \dot{I}_{CB}^N \), \( \dot{I}_a^N \), and \( \dot{I}_{S1}^N \) are the negative sequence current phasors, \( Y_u^N \) and \( Y_{SS}^N \) are the admittances of distribution lines. As \( \dot{I}_{CB}^N \) can be seen as a constant variable if unbalanced load \( Y_u \) remains unchanged, \( \dot{V}_{CB}^N \) can be reduced to \( \dot{V}_S^N \) by decreasing the negative sequence voltage in DG sides (from \( \dot{V}_{S1}^N, \dot{V}_{S2}^N \) to \( \dot{V}_{S1}^N, \dot{V}_{S2}^N \), respectively), as shown in Fig. 3 (a). In addition, if \( \dot{V}_{S1}^N \) and \( \dot{V}_{S2}^N \) are equally adjusted (\( \dot{V}_{S1}^N = \dot{V}_{S2}^N \)), the negative sequence current flow \( \dot{I}_{S1}^N \) and \( \dot{I}_{S2}^N \) will remain unchanged. By applying this approach, the voltage unbalance on CB can be controlled to a relative lower level in order to keep the good power quality. However, it can be also seen from Fig. 3 (a) that the negative sequence current is not well shared if the distribution line admittances are different. With the same compensation references, the DG unit with larger admittance will provide more current which may cause overcurrent fault. Accordingly, it is better to make the DGs share the negative sequence current according to their power ratings so as to ensure the safe operation especially under severe unbalance conditions.

The simplified process of this method is sketched in Fig. 3 (b). It can be seen that by properly adjusting DG compensation references (from \( \dot{V}_{S1}^N, \dot{V}_{S2}^N \) to \( \dot{V}_{S1}^N, \dot{V}_{S2}^N \), respectively), the negative sequence current sharing proportion can be equalized (\( \dot{I}_{S1}^N = \dot{I}_{S2}^N \)) without affecting the desired negative sequence voltage on CB (\( V_{CB}^N \)). Based on this approach, this paper proposes an additional control loop to improve the negative sequence current sharing. The complete hierarchical control scheme is presented in the Section III.

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**III. HIERARCHICAL CONTROL SCHEME**

In this paper, the islanded MG is considered as several voltage sourced converters (VSC) connected to a common bus through \( LC \) filters and distribution lines (\( Y_u \), as shown in Fig. 4. The energy resources are modeled as DC voltage links input to the VSCs. A hierarchical control is proposed including primary and secondary control levels as well as a communication layer.

#### A. Primary Control Loops

The primary control includes current and voltage control loops, active and reactive power droop control loops and virtual impedance loops. All the control loops are designed in \( q \beta \) frame. Since the DGs and the system are operating in islanded mode, \( P^+f \) and \( Q/V \) based droop control is used for coordinating the operation of those DGs which mimic the behavior of synchronous generators in conventional power system to achieve positive sequence active and reactive power sharing [10], [28]. Accordingly, the voltage and frequency at CB is regulated by the droop control. As shown in Fig. 4, the positive sequence output active and reactive power of the inverter is first calculated based on the instantaneous power theory [29]. Positive sequence active and reactive power (\( P^+ \) and \( Q^+ \)) can be extracted by using low pass filters (LPF). The calculated \( P^+ \) and \( Q^+ \) are then used by droop controller to generate voltage and frequency references.

In addition to droop control, a virtual impedance loop [10], [28] is implemented so as to ensure decoupling of \( P \) and \( Q \), and to make the system more damped without inducing additional losses.

In order to track non-dc variables, proportional-resonant (PR) controllers are used in the voltage and current control
loops [10], [28]. More details about the primary control and inner control loops can be found in [10].

B. Secondary Voltage Unbalance Compensation

The secondary control loop in the power quality control center deals with CB voltage unbalance compensation by sending Unbalance Compensation Reference ($UCR_{dq}$) to local controllers through LBCL. As shown in Fig. 4, the CB voltage is first measured and the positive- and negative sequence components in $d$-$q$ reference are extracted. Voltage unbalance factor ($VUF$) at CB can be calculated as follows [24]:

$$VUF_{CB} = 100 \frac{(V_{dCB}^2 + V_{qCB}^2)}{(V_{dc}^2 + V_{qc}^2)^2} \times 100\%$$  (7)

Then the error between calculated $VUF$ and reference $VUF^*$ is fed to a proportional-integral (PI) controller. The output of PI controller is multiplied by $Ndq^{CBv}$ to generate the common compensation reference $UCR_{dq}$[10].

In each local primary controller, the $UCR_{dq}$ is transformed to $\alpha\beta$ frame where $\phi^*$ is used as the rotation angle as the transformation is executed over negative sequence values.

C. Secondary Negative Sequence Current Sharing Control

In order to improve the negative sequence current sharing, the negative sequence current sharing loop compares the $d$-$q$ components of local negative sequence current ($I_{d,lq}^{Ndq}$) with averaged values of $d$-$q$ components of the negative sequence current from all the DG sides ($I_{d,lq}^{Ndq}$):

$$NCB_{dq} = \left(\frac{k_{dq}^{pi}}{s} + k_{dq}^{PI}\right) \cdot \left(T_{lq}^{Ndq} - I_{lq}^{Ndq}\right)$$  (8)

where $k_{dq}^{pi}$ and $k_{dq}^{PI}$ are the proportional and integral coefficients of the PI control loop for $d$- and $q$-axis currents respectively ($d$- and $q$-axis currents are controlled separately), $I_{lq}^{Ndq}$ is the locally measured negative sequence current in $d$-$q$ reference, and $T_{lq}^{Ndq}$ is the average negative sequence current discovered by using DCA. It needs to be clarified that for DGs with different power ratings, the negative sequence current of each DG can be normalized to obtain the per unit (p.u.) value. Then instead of using real value, the p.u. value can be used in the negative sequence current sharing loop and dynamic consensus algorithm in Fig. 4 so as to make DGs proportionally share the total load current according to their power ratings. But for simplification, the DGs are considered to have the same capacity and real values are used along this paper so as to clearly show the convergence of negative sequence current and accurate sharing of total output current.

The next Section is dedicated to the fundamentals of DCA and details of its application to the proposed control scheme.

IV. DYNAMIC CONSENSUS ALGORITHM

A. Consensus Algorithm Fundamentals

Consensus problems have their roots in the computer science area [30]. In recent years, they have been more and more applied in multi-agent and multi-vehicle systems with aim of facilitating the coordination among large number of distributed agents/vehicles [23], [31]–[34]. The general purpose of consensus algorithm is to allow a set of distributed agents to reach an agreement on a quantity of interest by
exchanging information through communication network. In case of MG systems, these algorithms can achieve the information sharing and coordination among distributed generators, consumers and storage systems. Graph Laplacians [35] describe the underlying communication structure in these kinds of systems and play a pivotal role in their convergence and dynamic analysis.

Considering the discrete nature of communication data transmission, the discrete form of consensus algorithm is considered in this paper. The fundamental can be presented as [31], [36]:

\[ x_i(k+1) = x_i(k) + \varepsilon \sum_{j \in N_i} a_{ij} \cdot (x_j(k) - x_i(k)) \quad (9) \]

where \( x_i(k) \) is the information status of agent \( i \) at iteration \( k \), and \( a_{ij} \) is the connection status between node \( i \) and node \( j \). In that sense, if the nodes \( i \) and \( j \) are not neighboring, then \( a_{ij} = 0 \). \( N_i \) is the set of indices of the agents that are connected with agent \( i \), \( \varepsilon \) is the constant edge weight used for tuning the dynamic of DCA.

In addition, in order to ensure the convergence of consensus to accurate value in dynamically changing environment, a modified version of the algorithm, referred to as dynamic consensus algorithm [37], is applied in this paper (see Fig. 5).

\[ x_i(k+1) = x_i(0) + \varepsilon \sum_{j \in N_i} \delta_{ij}(k+1) \quad (10) \]

\[ \delta_{ij}(k+1) = \delta_{ij}(k) + a_{ij} \cdot (x_j(k) - x_i(k)) \quad (11) \]

where \( \delta_{ij}(k) \) stores the cumulative difference between two agents, and \( \delta_{ij}(0) = 0 \). Based on (10) and (11), it is explicit that the final consensus value will be reached regardless of any changes to \( x_i(0) \).

From a system point of view, the vector form of the iteration algorithm can be expressed as [31]:

\[ \mathbf{x}(k+1) = \mathbf{W} \cdot \mathbf{x}(k) \quad (12) \]

with \( \mathbf{x}(k) = [x_1(k), x_2(k), \ldots, x_n(k)]^T \) and \( \mathbf{W} \) is the weight matrix of the communication network. If constant edge weight \( \varepsilon \) is considered, \( \mathbf{W} \) can be described as:

\[ \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{I} - \varepsilon \cdot \mathbf{L} \quad (13) \]

\[ \mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{j \in N_i} a_{ij} & \cdots & -a_{i1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ -a_{in} & \cdots & \sum_{j \in N_n} a_{nj} \end{bmatrix} \quad (14) \]

where \( \mathbf{L} \) is the Laplacian matrix of the communication network [38], [39], \( n_T \) is the total number of agents. The final consensus equilibrium \( \mathbf{x}_{eq} \) is:

\[ \mathbf{x}_{eq} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \mathbf{x}(k) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \mathbf{W}^k \mathbf{x}(0) = \left( \frac{1}{n_T} \mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{1}^T \right) \mathbf{x}(0) \quad (15) \]

where \( \mathbf{x}(0) = [x_1(0), x_2(0), \ldots, x_n(0)] \) is the vector of the initial values held by each agent, \( \mathbf{I} \) denotes the vector with the values of all the elements being 1. The detailed proof of the convergence can be found in [31].

In this study case, \( \mathbf{x}(k) \) includes the discovered average value of negative sequence current in \( d-q \) references (\( I_{d-q}^{h} \)), and \( \mathbf{x}(0) \) is the local measured negative sequence current (\( I_{d-q}^{l} \)). Accordingly, DCA helps each local unit to discover the global average of negative sequence current.

B. Consensus Algorithm Dynamics

As the constant weight \( \varepsilon \) defines the dynamics of the algorithm, it has to be properly chosen to ensure the fast and stable convergence of the algorithm. It is demonstrated in [40] that the fastest convergence can be obtained when the spectral radius \( (\rho) \) of matrix \( \mathbf{W} = (1/n_T) \cdot \mathbf{1} \cdot \mathbf{1}^T \) is minimized. The optimal \( \varepsilon \) that offers the fastest convergence speed can be calculated as:

\[ \varepsilon = \frac{2}{\lambda_2(\mathbf{L}) + \lambda_{n-1}(\mathbf{L})} \quad (16) \]

where \( \lambda_j(\cdot) \) denotes the \( j \)th largest eigenvalue of a symmetric matrix. In the study case MG, a bidirectional communication network is established in which the three local control systems communicate with their neighboring systems.

Taking ring-shape communication topology as an example, the Laplacian matrix is defined as:

\[ \mathbf{L} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (17) \]

the eigenvalues of which are \([0 3 3]^T\). According to \( \mathbf{L} \) and its eigenvalues, the optimal \( \varepsilon = 1/3 \). A convergence speed comparison is shown in Fig. 6 (a), where the constant edge weight \( \varepsilon \) is changed from 0.02 to 0.6. It can be seen from the four figures in Fig. 6 (a) that when \( \varepsilon = 1/3 \) the distributed agents obtain fastest convergence speed.

Moreover, one of the most important objectives of applying DCA is to realize plug-and-play capability. The performance of DCA with online including/excluding units is shown in Fig. 6 (b). The three units start with initial value \([0 2 7]\) and first converge to average value. At 1s, one of the units stops communicating with the other two. The other two units are able to find a new averaging value between them while the excluded one restores to its initial value. At 2s, the communication links are recovered and the three units converge to the averaging value again.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The proposed MG power stage and control scheme is implemented at the intelligent Microgrid Lab of Aalborg University [41], as the experimental setup shown in Fig. 7. The
MG platform consists of three Danfoss inverters (three-leg three-phase 2.2kVA inverters with LCL filters) which are operating in parallel to emulate DGs. The detailed electrical configuration of each inverter and its output filter is shown in Fig. 4. Resistive loads are connected to CB to simulate different loading conditions. Control algorithm is developed in Simulink and compiled to dSPACE system to switch inverters. Detailed power stage and control system parameters can be found in Table I, II and III. In Table II, \( m_P \) and \( m_D \) are the proportional and derivative coefficients of active power droop controller, \( n_P \) is the proportional coefficient of reactive power droop controller, \( E_0 \) and \( \omega_0 \) are the nominal voltage amplitude and angular frequency, \( R_v \) and \( L_v \) are the virtual resistance and inductance, \( k_{pV} \), \( k_{rV} \), \( k_{pI} \) and \( k_{rI} \) are the proportional and resonant coefficients, and \( \omega_{CV} \) and \( \omega_{CI} \) are the cut-off angular frequencies of the voltage and current controllers, respectively. In Table III, \( k_{psv} \) and \( k_{isv} \) are the proportional and integral
coefficients of the voltage unbalance control loop, $VUF^*$ is the reference.

During the starting phase, one of DGs first starts. Then the other DGs are connected to the CB by using typical PLL based synchronization control [28], where each DG measures and synchronizes with CB voltage before connecting to the CB. After all the DGs are connected to the CB, the following experiments are executed to test the performance of the system.

### A. Activation and Loading Process

In order to test the performance of the system, a loading and control activation process is conducted as described in Table IV. The results are shown in Fig. 8 (a) and (b). Fig. 8 (a) shows the performance of the system, and Fig. 8 (b) compares the phase current of the three DGs (phase A, B and C are compared separately with green, red and blue curves denoting the three DGs).

At $T0$, a balanced resistive load is connected to the system. From $T0$ to $T1$, the VUF on CB is in a low level (see Fig. 8 (a) #1), and only small amount of negative sequence voltage and current exist (see Fig. 8 (a) #4 and #5).

At $T1$, an unbalanced resistive load is connected, which causes the increasing of VUF on CB (see Fig. 8 (a) #1), also the positive sequence power and negative sequence current rise (see Fig. 8 (a) #2 and #5). The frequency deviation (see Fig. 8 #3) is caused by the using of droop control ($P+/f$ and $Q+/V$ droop). Droop control helps the automatic positive sequence power sharing. However, with the increasing of positive sequence power, frequency deviates from the nominal value (50Hz). A proper design of droop control parameters can keep the frequency within limited range given by specific grid standard. In addition, centralized or distributed secondary control can be implemented to eliminate the steady state error as was proposed in [22] and can be incorporated into the method proposed in this paper. Since the frequency secondary control is out of the scope of this paper and the proposed method does not have impact on system frequency (as shown}

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**TABLE IV. LOADING AND ACTIVATION PROCESS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>time</th>
<th>CB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T0$</td>
<td>Type A: $Y=0.0022 , S$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T1$</td>
<td>Type B: $Y=0.03 , \Omega$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T2$</td>
<td>Activate secondary unbalance compensation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T3$</td>
<td>Activate negative sequence current sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T4$</td>
<td>Type B: $Y=0.0044 , S$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
in Fig. 8 (a) #3, at T3 the proposed control is activated but does not affect the system frequency, it is not considered in the experiment.

At T2, the secondary unbalance compensation control is activated. By adjusting the negative sequence voltage on DG sides the VUF on CB is reduced to a low level (see Fig. 8 (a) #1 and #4), while the positive sequence power and negative sequence current flow remains unchanged (see Fig. 8 (a) #2 and #5). Also the positive sequence power is well shared because of the using of droop control and virtual impedance loop. However, as the negative sequence current is not well shared, the phase currents of the three DGs have obvious differences, as shown in Fig. 8 (b) #1.a, #2.a and #3.a. This result is in accordance with the analysis in part B of Section III and Fig. 3 (a).

At T3, the negative sharing control is activated. The DCA first helps each local unit to find the averaging of negative sequence current. The dynamic of this process is shown in Fig. 8 (a) #6, the information obtained by each unit ($T_{d1}$, $T_{d2}$ and $T_{d3}$) converges to the same average value in less than 2s. By using this average value as the reference, the negative sequence current sharing loop helps the equalization of the DG currents by adjusting the negative sequence voltage on DG sides, as shown in Fig. 8 (a) #4 and #5. The detailed phase current comparison after activating the control is also shown in Fig. 8 (b) #1.b, #2.b and #3.b, which shows that this control loop helps the accurate sharing of phase currents. As expected, the VUF on CB is kept at a low level during this process.

At T4, an additional unbalanced load is connected to test the performance of the system under dynamic load change. After the loading, the power generation and negative sequence current of all the DGs are increased. The proposed control

![Fig. 9. Evaluation of DCA Effect: (a) ring-shape topology with $\varepsilon = 0.333$; (b) ring-shape topology with $\varepsilon = 0.1$; (c) ring-shape topology with $\varepsilon = 0.05$; (d) ring-shape topology with $\varepsilon = 0.02$; (e) line-shape topology with $\varepsilon = 0.333$; (f) line-shape topology with $\varepsilon = 0.1$.](image-url)
scheme is able to keep the VUF on CB at the desired value while ensuring the accurate sharing of total currents among DGs.

B. Evaluation of DCA Effect

As the negative sequence current sharing is facilitated by using DCA, the communication part certainly has influence over the system dynamics. Communication topology and constant edge weight (ε) are both decisive factors on communication dynamics. The dynamics and convergence of q-axis negative sequence current (I_{q}^{n}) under different communication configurations are taken as example as shown in Fig. 9 with green, red and blue curves denoting the 3 DGs.

Fig. 9 (a)-(d) compare the convergence of DCA and the dynamic of the q-axis current (I_{q}^{n}) under the same ring-shape topology but with different constant edge weight (ε). It is demonstrated in Fig. 6 that the DCA obtains fastest convergence when ε = 0.333. In accordance with that, it can be seen from #1 in Fig. 9 (a)-(d) that with the decreasing of ε the convergence time of DCA becomes longer incurring more oscillation in the I_{q}^{n}. Also it can be seen from Fig. 9 (c) that although the DCA has slower convergence speed compared with Fig. 9 (a), the I_{q}^{n} converges faster but with small oscillation.

The above results demonstrate that the dynamic of the communication algorithm has a certain interaction with secondary controller, and a better parameter tuning and matching between the DCA and controller can improve the system dynamics. This conclusion can be further verified by comparing the system dynamic under different secondary parameters as shown in Fig. 9 (a) and (e). In Fig. 10 (e) the ε is kept at 0.333 while the secondary integral term k_{isc} is increased from 2 to 4. It can be seen from Fig. 9 (a) and (e) that the DCA dynamics remain the same (comparing #1 in both figures) while the I_{q}^{n} converges faster under k_{isc}=4 (comparing #2 in both figures).

Apart from parameter influence, Fig. 9 (b) and (f) compare the convergence of DCA and the dynamic of the q-axis current (I_{q}^{n}) under different communication topologies (ring-shape and line-shape). It can be seen from Fig. 9 (f) that under line-shape communication topology, the accurate averaging can be also guaranteed and the I_{q}^{n} can be well controlled and shared among DGs, however, the dynamic of the system occurs to be oscillating because of the relative slower convergence speed of DCA compared with ring-shape case.

The above results give hint that the secondary control speed has to be well tuned according to the communication transmission rate and DCA convergence speed. It can be more safe and stable to slow down the secondary control considering that the real world communication transmission rate can be variable and DCA may, in some cases, need longer time to find the accurate averaging.

C. Validation of Excluding/Including Units

The purpose of using DCA is to enhance the flexibility of the system which includes the capability of online excluding and including units. A process of excluding and including DG to share the negative sequence current is conducted as shown in Fig. 10. At T′0, the negative sequence current is not well shared. At T′1, the negative sequence current sharing is activated. At T′2, DG1 is excluded from the sharing control in case of communication fault or intentional operation. It can be seen from Fig. 10 (during T′2 to T′3) that the DG1 stops sharing the negative sequence current with the other two DGs while the other two DGs find the new averaging between them and continue sharing the negative sequence current. The dynamics during this process is shown in Fig. 10 #2 and #3 for d- and q-axis respectively. At T′3, DG1 is planned to re-join the current sharing. After this process, the total negative sequence current is accurately shared among the DGs again. The dynamics during this process is shown in Fig. 10 #4 and #5 for d- and q-axis respectively.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper proposes a DCA based hierarchical control scheme to realize distributed negative sequence current sharing and voltage unbalance compensation. Although former studies realized voltage unbalance compensation, the negative sequence current cannot be well shared by only applying droop control, which may cause overcurrent condition for DGs located close to the CB. In order to improve the current sharing while considering the distributed fashion of future MG systems, this paper proposes a DCA based control method. An additional negative sequence current sharing loop is included. The unbalanced system is modeled with compensation and additional negative sequence current sharing loop is included. In order to improve the current sharing while considering the distributed fashion of future MG systems, this paper proposes a DCA based control method. An additional negative sequence current sharing loop is included. The unbalanced system is modeled with compensation and additional negative sequence current sharing loop is included.
excluding/including unit processes are tested showing the enhanced system flexibility by applying such a scheme. Note that thanks to the distributed nature of the proposed approach, the controller does not need to be implemented in a centralized fashion, which may be dedicated to other management operations of the MG.

REFERENCES


VII. BIOGRAPHIES

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