Distributed Cooperative Secondary Control of Microgrids Using Feedback Linearization

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***Abstract*—This paper proposes a secondary voltage control of microgrids based on the distributed cooperative control of multi-agent systems. The proposed secondary control is fully distributed; each distributed generator only requires its own information and the information of some neighbors. The distributed structure obviates the requirements for a central controller and complex communication network which, in turn, improves the system reliability. Input–output feedback linearization is used to convert the secondary voltage control to a linear second-order tracker synchronization problem. The control parameters can be tuned to obtain a desired response speed. The effectiveness of the proposed control methodology is verified by the simulation of a microgrid test system.**

***Index Terms*—Distributed cooperative control, distributed generator (DG), feedback linearization, microgrid, multi-agent systems, secondary control.**

I. Introduction

THE electric power system is experiencing a rapid transformation to an intelligent electric network, the so-called smart gird. Microgrids, as the building blocks of smart grids, are small-scale power systems that facilitate the effective integration of distributed generators (DGs) [1]–[3]. Proper control of microgrids is a prerequisite for stable and economically efficient operations of smart grids [5], [6]. Microgrids can operate in both grid-connected and islanded operating modes.

In normal operation, the microgrid is connected to the main grid. In the event of a disturbance, the microgrid disconnects from the main grid and enters the islanded operation. Once a microgrid is islanded, the so-called primary control maintains the voltage and frequency stability [6]–[10]. However, even in the presence of primary control, voltage and frequency can still deviate from their nominal values. To restore the voltage and frequency of DGs to their nominal values, the so-called secondary control is also required [6], [7], [11]–[18].

Conventional secondary controls of microgrids assume a centralized control structure that requires a complex communication network [6], [7], [12], in some cases, with two-way communication links [11]. This can adversely affect the system reliability. Alternatively, distributed cooperative control structures, with sparse communication network, are suitable alternatives for the secondary control of microgrids. Distributed cooperative control is recently introduced in power systems [19], to regulate the output power of multiple photovoltaic generators.

Over the last two decades, networked multi-agent systems have earned much attention due to their flexibility and computational efficiency. These systems are inspired by the natural phenomena such as swarming in insects, flocking in birds, thermodynamics laws, and synchronization and phase transitions in physical and chemical systems. In these phenomena, the coordination and synchronization process necessitates that each agent exchange information with other agents according to some restricted communication protocols [20]–[23].

In this paper, distributed cooperative control of multi-agent systems is adopted to implement the secondary control of microgirds. The term "distributed" means that the controller requires a communication network by which each agent only receives the information of its neighboring agents. The term "cooperative" means that, in contrast to the competitive control, all agents act as one group towards a common synchronization goal and follow cooperative decisions [20]–[24]. Distributed cooperative control of multi-agent systems is mainly categorized into the regulator synchronization problem and the tracking synchronization problem. In regulator synchronization problem, also called leaderless consensus, all agents synchronize to a common value that is not prescribed or controllable. In tracking synchronization problem, all agents synchronize to a leader node that acts as a command generator [25]–[27]. Neighboring agents can communicate with each other. The leader is only connected to a small portion of the agents [25].

Distributed cooperative control for multi-agent systems with nonlinear or nonidentical dynamics has been recently introduced in the literature [26]–[28]. Considering DGs in a microgrid as agents in a networked multi-agent system, the secondary control design resembles a tracking synchronization problem. The dynamics of DGs in microgrids are nonlinear and nonidentical; input–output feedback linearization is used to transform the nonlinear heterogeneous dynamics of DGs to linear dynamics. Thus, the secondary voltage control is transformed to a second-order tracking synchronization problem.

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The Lyapunov technique is then adopted to derive fully distributed control protocols for each DG.

In this paper, the distributed cooperative control of multi-agent systems is used to design the secondary voltage control of a microgrid system. The salient features of the proposed control methodology are given here.

- The secondary voltage control of microgrids is implemented using the concept of distributed cooperative control of multi-agent systems.
- Input–output feedback linearization is used to solve the tracking synchronization problem for nonlinear and heterogeneous multi-agent systems.
- The proposed secondary voltage control obviates the requirement for a central controller and requires only a sparse communication structure with one-way communication links which is cheaper and can be more reliable.
- Desired response speeds can be obtained by tuning the control parameters.

This paper is organized as follows. Section II discusses the primary and secondary control levels. In Section III, the dynamical model of inverter-based DGs is presented. In Section IV, input–output feedback linearization is adopted to design a secondary voltage control based on distributed cooperative control. The proposed secondary control is verified in Section V using a microgrid test system. Section VI concludes the paper.

II. Microgrid Primary and Secondary Control Levels

A microgrid is able to operate in both grid-connected and islanded modes. The voltage and frequency of the microgrid in the grid-connected mode are dictated by the main grid [6], [7]. The microgrid can switch to the islanded mode due to the preplanned scheduling or unplanned disturbances. Subsequent to the islanding process, the primary control [6]–[10] maintains the voltage and frequency stability of the microgrid. Primary control avoids voltage and frequency instability by keeping these values in pre-specified ranges. However, it might not return the microgrid to the normal operating conditions, and an additional control level is required to restore the voltage and frequency. This functionality is provided by the secondary control, which compensates for the voltage and frequency deviations caused by the primary control [6], [7]. The secondary control operates with a longer time frame than primary control [12]. This facilitates the decoupled operation and design of primary and secondary control levels.

Primary control is usually implemented as a local controller at each DG. This control level always exists and takes action in the event of disturbances. Coordinated control of the primary local controllers can be achieved by the active and reactive-power droop techniques [6], [7]. Droop technique prescribes a desired relation between the frequency and active power P, and between the voltage amplitude and reactive power Q. The frequency and voltage droop characteristics for the ith DG are given by

$$\omega_i = \omega_{ni} - m_{P_i} P_i \tag{1}$$

$$v^*_{o,\mathrm{magi}} = V_{ni} - n_{Q_i} Q_i \tag{2}$$

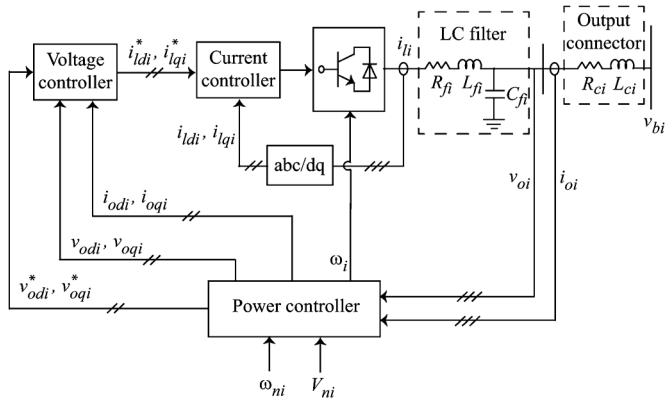

Fig. 1. Block diagram of an inverter-based DG.

where $v^*_{o,\mathrm{magi}}$ is the reference value for the output voltage magnitude that is provided for the internal voltage control loop of DG, ω_i is the angular frequency of the DG dictated by the primary control, P_i and Q_i are the measured active and reactive power at the DG's terminal, m_{P_i} and n_{Q_i} are the droop coefficients, and V_{ni} and ω_{ni} are the primary control references [6], [7]. The droop coefficients are selected based on the active and reactive power ratings of each DG.

The secondary control sets the references for the primary control V_{ni} and ω_{ni} in (1) so as to regulate the frequency and voltage amplitude to their prescribed nominal values. Conventionally, the secondary control is implemented for each DG using a centralized controller having the proportional-plus-integral (PI) structure [6], [7]. This secondary control is centralized and requires a star communication structure. In a star communication structure, it is necessary to have a communication link between all DGs and the central controller. Due to the centralized structure of this controller, this control scheme can potentially be unreliable. Alternatively, a distributed cooperative control structure is proposed in this paper.

III. Large-Signal Dynamical Model of Inverter-Based DGs

The proposed secondary voltage control is designed based on the large-signal nonlinear dynamical model of the DG. The block diagram of an inverter-based DG is shown in Fig. 1. It contains an inverter bridge, connected to a primary dc power source (e.g., photovoltaic panels or fuel cells). The control loops, including the power, voltage, and current controllers, adjust the output voltage and frequency of the inverter bridge [29]–[31]. Given the relatively high switching frequency of the inverter bridge, the switching artifacts can be safely neglected via average-value modeling. As stated in [29], dc-bus dynamics can be safely neglected, assuming an ideal source from the DG side.

It should be noted that the nonlinear dynamics of each DG are formulated in its own $d-q$ (direct-quadrature) reference frame. It is assumed that the reference frame of the ith DG is rotating at the frequency of ω_i. The reference frame of one DG is considered as the common reference frame with the rotating frequency of ω_{com}. The angle of the ith DG reference frame,

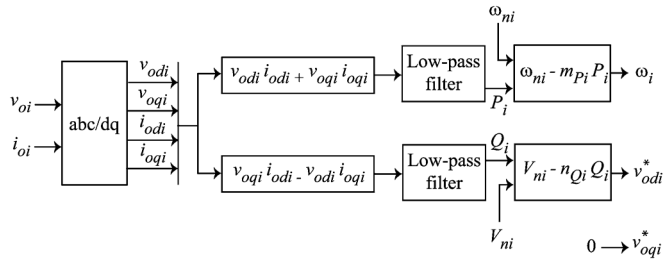

Fig. 2. Block diagram of the power controller.

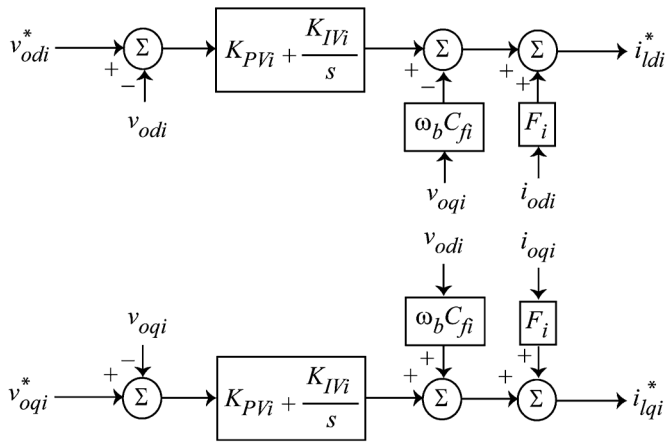

Fig. 3. Block diagram of the voltage controller.

with respect to the common reference frame, is denoted as δ_i and satisfies the following differential equation:

$$\dot{\delta}_i = \omega_i - \omega_{\rm com}. \tag{3}$$

Although different angular frequencies are considered for reference frames, all of the reference frames rotate synchronously at a common angular frequency due to the presence of the frequency-droop characteristic in (1).

The power controller block, shown in Fig. 2, contains the droop technique in (1) and provides the voltage references v^*_{odi} and v^*_{oqi} for the voltage controller, as well as the operating frequency ω_i for the inverter bridge. Two low-pass filters with the cutoff frequency of ω_{ci} are used to extract the fundamental component of the output active and reactive powers, denoted as P_i and Q_i, respectively. The differential equations of the power controller can be written as

$$\dot{P}_i = -\omega_{ci}P_i + \omega_{ci}(v_{odi}i_{odi} + v_{oqi}i_{oqi}), \tag{4}$$
$$\dot{Q}_i = -\omega_{ci}Q_i + \omega_{ci}(v_{oqi}i_{odi} - v_{odi}i_{oqi}) \tag{5}$$

where $v_{odi}, v_{oqi}, i_{odi}$, and i_{oqi} are the direct and quadrature components of v_{oi} and i_{oi} in Fig. 1. As seen in Fig. 2, the primary voltage control strategy for each DG aligns the output voltage magnitude on the d-axis of the corresponding reference frame. Therefore

$$\begin{cases} v^*_{odi} = V_{ni} - n_{Q_i}Q_i \\ v^*_{oqi} = 0. \end{cases} \tag{6}$$

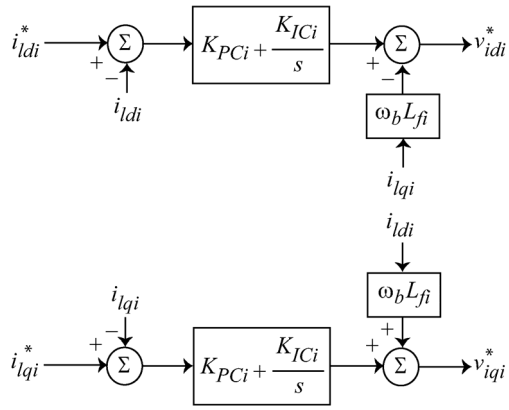

Fig. 4. Block diagram of the current controller.

The block diagram of the voltage controller is shown in Fig. 3 [30], [31]. The differential algebraic equations of the voltage controller are written as

$$\dot{\phi}_{di} = v^*_{odi} - v_{odi} \tag{7}$$
$$\dot{\phi}_{qi} = v^*_{oqi} - v_{oqi} \tag{8}$$
$$i^*_{ldi} = F_i i_{odi} - \omega_b C_{fi} v_{oqi} + K_{PVi}\left(v^*_{odi} - v_{odi}\right) + K_{IVi}\phi_{di} \tag{9}$$
$$i^*_{lqi} = F_i i_{oqi} + \omega_b C_{fi} v_{odi} + K_{PVi}\left(v^*_{oqi} - v_{oqi}\right) + K_{IVi}\phi_{qi} \tag{10}$$

where ϕ_{di} and ϕ_{qi} are the auxiliary state variables defined for PI controllers in Fig. 3. ω_b is the nominal angular frequency. Other parameters are shown in Figs. 1 and 3.

The block diagram of the current controller is shown in Fig. 4 [30], [31]. The differential algebraic equations of the current controller are written as

$$\dot{\gamma}_{di} = i^*_{ldi} - i_{ldi} \tag{11}$$
$$\dot{\gamma}_{qi} = i^*_{lqi} - i_{lqi} \tag{12}$$
$$v^*_{idi} = -\omega_b L_{fi} i_{lqi} + K_{PCi}\left(i^*_{ldi} - i_{ldi}\right) + K_{ICi}\gamma_{di} \tag{13}$$
$$v^*_{iqi} = \omega_b L_{fi} i_{ldi} + K_{PCi}\left(i^*_{lqi} - i_{lqi}\right) + K_{ICi}\gamma_{qi} \tag{14}$$

where γ_{di} and γ_{qi} are the auxiliary state variables defined for the PI controllers in Fig. 4 and i_{ldi} and i_{lqi} are the direct and quadrature components of i_{li} in Fig. 1. Other parameters are shown in Figs. 1 and 4.

The differential equations for the output LC filter and output connector are as follows:

$$\dot{i}_{ldi} = -\frac{R_{fi}}{L_{fi}}i_{ldi} + \omega_i i_{lqi} + \frac{1}{L_{fi}}v_{idi} - \frac{1}{L_{fi}}v_{odi} \tag{15}$$
$$\dot{i}_{lqi} = -\frac{R_{fi}}{L_{fi}}i_{lqi} - \omega_i i_{ldi} + \frac{1}{L_{fi}}v_{iqi} - \frac{1}{L_{fi}}v_{oqi} \tag{16}$$
$$\dot{v}_{odi} = \omega_i v_{oqi} + \frac{1}{C_{fi}}i_{ldi} - \frac{1}{C_{fi}}i_{odi} \tag{17}$$
$$\dot{v}_{oqi} = -\omega_i v_{odi} + \frac{1}{C_{fi}}i_{lqi} - \frac{1}{C_{fi}}i_{oqi} \tag{18}$$
$$\dot{i}_{odi} = -\frac{R_{ci}}{L_{ci}}i_{odi} + \omega_i i_{oqi} + \frac{1}{L_{ci}}v_{odi} - \frac{1}{L_{ci}}v_{bdi} \tag{19}$$

$$\dot{i}_{oqi} = -\frac{R_{ci}}{L_{ci}} i_{oqi} - \omega_i i_{odi} + \frac{1}{L_{ci}} v_{oqi} - \frac{1}{L_{ci}} v_{bqi}. \quad (20)$$

Equations (3)–(20) form the large-signal dynamical model of the ith DG. The large-signal dynamical model can be written in a compact form as

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_i = \mathbf{f}_i(\mathbf{x}_i) + \mathbf{k}_i(\mathbf{x}_i)\mathbf{D}_i + \mathbf{g}_i(\mathbf{x}_i)u_i \\ y_i = h_i(\mathbf{x}_i) \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

where the state vector is

$$\mathbf{x}_i = [\delta_i \; P_i \; Q_i \; \phi_{di} \; \phi_{qi} \; \gamma_{di} \; \gamma_{qi} \; i_{ldi} \; i_{lqi} \; v_{odi} \; v_{oqi} \; i_{odi} \; i_{oqi}]^T. \quad (22)$$

The term $\mathbf{D}_i = [\omega_{\rm com} \; v_{bdi} \; v_{bqi}]^T$ is considered as a known disturbance. The detailed expressions for $\mathbf{f}_i(\mathbf{x}_i)$, $\mathbf{g}_i(\mathbf{x}_i)$, and $\mathbf{k}_i(\mathbf{x}_i)$ can be extracted from (3)to (20).

The secondary voltage control selects V_{ni} in (1) such that the terminal voltage amplitude of each DG approaches its nominal value, i.e. $v_{o,magi} \rightarrow v_{\rm ref}$. Since the amplitude of the DG output voltage is

$$v_{o,magi} = \sqrt{v_{odi}^2 + v_{oqi}^2} \quad (23)$$

the synchronization of the voltage amplitude can be achieved by choosing the control input V_{ni} such that $v_{odi} \rightarrow v_{\rm ref}$. Therefore, for the secondary voltage control, the output and control input are set to $y_i = v_{odi}$ and $u_i = V_{ni}$, respectively.

IV. Secondary Voltage Control Based on Distributed Cooperative Control

A microgrid resembles a nonlinear and heterogeneous multi-agent system, where each DG is an agent. The secondary control of microgrids is a tracking synchronization problem, where all DGs try to synchronize their terminal voltage amplitude to prespecified reference values. For this purpose, each DG needs to communicate with its neighbors only. The required communication network can be modeled by a communication graph.

Here, first, a preliminary on the graph theory is presented. Then, the secondary voltage control is implemented through input–output feedback linearization and distributed cooperative control of multi-agent systems. Finally, the communication network requirements for the proposed secondary voltage control are discussed.

A. Preliminary of Graph Theory

The communication network of a multi-agent cooperative system can be modeled by a directed graph (digraph). A digraph is usually expressed as $Gr = (V_G, E_G, A_G)$ with a nonempty finite set of N nodes $V_G = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_N\}$, a set of edges or arcs $E_G \subset V_G \times V_G$, and the associated adjacency matrix $A_G = [a_{ij}] \in R^{N\times N}$. In a microgrid, DGs are considered as the nodes of the communication digraph. The edges of the corresponding digraph of the communication network denote the communication links.

In this paper, the digraph is assumed to be time invariant, i.e., A_G is constant. An edge from node j to node i is denoted by (v_j, v_i), which means that node i receives the information from node j, a_{ij} is the weight of edge (v_j, v_i), and $a_{ij} > 0$ if $(v_j, v_i) \in E_G$,, otherwise $a_{ij} = 0$. Node i is called a neighbor of node j if $(v_i, v_j) \in E_G$. The set of neighbors of node j is denoted as $N_j = \{i|(v_i, v_j) \in E_G\}$. For a digraph, if node i is a neighbor of node j, then node j can get information from node i, but not necessarily *vice versa*. The in-degree matrix is defined as $D = diag\{d_i\} \in R^{N\times N}$ with $\sum_{j\in N_i} a_{ij}$. The Laplacian matrix is defined as $L = D - A_G$. A direct path from node i to node j is a sequence of edges, expressed as $\{(v_i, v_k), (v_k, v_l), \ldots, (v_m, v_j)\}$. A digraph is said to have a spanning tree if there is a root node with a direct path from that node to every other node in the graph [24].

B. Cooperative Secondary Voltage Control Based on Feedback Linearization and Tracking Synchronization Problem

As discussed in Section III, the secondary voltage control chooses appropriate control inputs V_{ni} in to (1) to synchronize the voltage magnitudes of DGs $v_{o,\rm magi}$ to the reference voltage $v_{\rm ref}$. The synchronization of the voltage magnitudes of DGs $v_{o,\rm magi}$ is equivalent to synchronizing the direct term of output voltages v_{odi}. Therefore, the secondary voltage control should choose u_i in (21) such that $y_i \rightarrow y_0, \forall i$, where $y_0 \equiv v_{\rm ref}$.

Since the dynamics of DGs in a microgrid are nonlinear and might not be all identical, input–output feedback linearization can be used to facilitate the secondary voltage control design. In input–output feedback linearization, a direct relationship between the dynamics of the output y_i (or equivalently v_{odi}) and the control input u_i (or equivalently V_{ni}) is generated by repetitively differentiating y_i with respect to time.

For the dynamics of the ith DG in (21), the direct relationship between the y_i and u_i is generated after the second derivative of the output y_i as

$$\ddot{y}_i = L^2_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i + L_{\mathbf{g}_i} L_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i u_i \quad (24)$$

where

$$\mathbf{F}_i(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{f}_i(\mathbf{x}_i) + \mathbf{k}_i(\mathbf{x}_i)\mathbf{D}_i. \quad (25)$$

$L_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i$ is the Lie derivative [32] of h_i with respect to $\mathbf{F}_i$ and is defined by $L_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i = \nabla h_i \mathbf{F}_i = (\partial(h_i)/\partial \mathbf{x}_i)\mathbf{F}_i$. $L^2_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i$ is defined by $L^2_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i = L_{\mathbf{F}_i}(L_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i) = (\partial(L_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i)/\partial \mathbf{x}_i)\mathbf{F}_i$.

An auxiliary control v_i is defined as

$$v_i = L^2_{\mathbf{f}_i} h_i + L_{\mathbf{g}_i} L_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i u_i. \quad (26)$$

Equations (24) and (26) result in the second-order linear system

$$\ddot{y}_i = v_i, \; \forall i. \quad (27)$$

By choosing appropriate v_i, the synchronization for y_i is provided. The control input u_i is implemented by v_i as

$$u_i = (L_{\mathbf{g}_i} L_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i)^{-1} \left(-L^2_{\mathbf{F}_i} h_i + v_i\right). \quad (28)$$

In the following, the procedure for designing appropriate v_i is elaborated. First, (27) and the first derivative of y_i are written as

$$\begin{cases} \dot{y}_i \equiv y_{i,1} \\ \dot{y}_{i,1} = v_i, \end{cases} \forall i. \quad (29)$$

or equivalently

$$\dot{\mathbf{y}}_i = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_i + \mathbf{B}v_i,\ \forall i \tag{30}$$

where $\mathbf{y}_i = [y_i\ y_{i,1}]^T$, $\mathbf{B} = [0\ 1]^T$, and $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Using input-output feedback linearization, the nonlinear dynamics of each DG in (21) are transformed to (30) and a set of internal dynamics. The commensurate reformulated dynamics of the reference generator can be expressed as

$$\dot{\mathbf{y}}_0 = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_0 \tag{31}$$

where $\mathbf{y}_0 = [y_0\ \dot{y}_0]^T$. It should be noted that, since $y_0 = v_{\text{ref}}$ is constant, $\dot{y}_0 = 0$.

It is assumed that DGs can communicate with each other through a communication network described by the digraph G_r. Based on the digraph G_r, the ith DG may need to transmit $\mathbf{y}_i$ in (30) through the communication network. It is assumed that only one DG has the access to the reference $\mathbf{y}_0$ in (31) by a weight factor known as the pinning gain g_i. The secondary voltage control problem is to find a distributed v_i in (28) such that $\mathbf{y}_i \to \mathbf{y}_0$, $\forall i$. To solve this problem, the cooperative team objectives are expressed in terms of the local neighborhood tracking error

$$\mathbf{e}_i = \sum_{j \in N_i} a_{ij}(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_j) + g_i(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_0) \tag{32}$$

where a_{ij} denotes the elements of the communication digraph adjacency matrix. The pinning gain g_i is nonzero for one DG.

For a microgrid including N DGs, the global error vector for graph Gr is written from (32) as [24]

$$\mathbf{e} = ((L+G)\otimes I_2)(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{Y}_0) \equiv ((L+G)\otimes I_2)\,\boldsymbol{\delta} \tag{33}$$

where $\mathbf{Y} = [\boldsymbol{y}_1^T\ \boldsymbol{y}_2^T\ \dots\ \boldsymbol{y}_N^T]^T$, $\mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{e}_1^T\ \mathbf{e}_2^T\ \dots\ \mathbf{e}_N^T]^T$, $\mathbf{Y}_0 = \mathbf{1}_N\mathbf{y}_0$ ($\mathbf{1}_N$ is the vector of ones with the length of N.), $G = diag\{g_i\}$, I_2 is the identity matrix with two rows and two columns, and $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ is the global disagreement vector. The Kronecker product is shown as $\otimes$ [33]. $\dot{\mathbf{Y}}$ can be written as

$$\dot{\mathbf{Y}} = (I_N \otimes \mathbf{A})\mathbf{Y} + (I_N \otimes \mathbf{B})\mathbf{v} \tag{34}$$

where $\mathbf{v} = [v_1\ v_2\ \dots\ v_N]^T$ is the global auxiliary control vector. $\dot{\mathbf{Y}}_0$ can be written as

$$\dot{\mathbf{Y}} = (I_N \otimes \mathbf{A})\mathbf{Y}_0. \tag{35}$$

The following definitions and lemmas are required for designing the auxiliary controls v_i.

Definition 1 [34]: $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B})$ are stabilizable if there exists a matrix S such that all eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}S$ have a strictly-negative real part.

Definition 2 [34]: A matrix is Hurwitz if all of its eigenvalues have a strictly-negative real part.

Definition 3 [34]: A symmetric matrix P is positive definite if x^TPx is positive for all non-zero column vector x, and x^TPx is zero only for $x = 0$.

Lemma 1 [22], [35]: Let $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B})$ be stabilizable. Let the digraph Gr have a spanning tree and $g_i \neq 0$ for one DG placed on a root node of the digraph Gr. Let λ_i ($i \in \{1, 2, \dots, \mathrm{N}\}$) be the eigenvalues of $L + G$. The matrix

$$\mathbf{H} = I_N \otimes \mathbf{A} - c(L+G)\otimes \mathbf{B}K \tag{36}$$

with $c \in R$ and $K \in R^{1\times 2}$ is Hurwitz if and only if all of the matrices $\mathbf{A} - c\lambda_i\mathbf{B}K$, $\forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, \mathrm{N}\}$ are Hurwitz.

Lemma 2 [35]: Let $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B})$ be stabilizable and matrices $Q = Q^T$ and $R = R^T$ be positive definite. Let feedback gain K be chosen as

$$K = R^{-1}\mathbf{B}^T P_1 \tag{37}$$

where P_1 is the unique positive definite solution of the control algebraic Riccati equation (ARE) [34]

$$\mathbf{A}^T P_1 + P_1\mathbf{A} + Q - P_1\mathbf{B}R^{-1}\mathbf{B}^T P_1 = 0. \tag{38}$$

Then, all of the matrices $\mathbf{A} - c\lambda_i\mathbf{B}K$, $\forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, \mathrm{N}\}$ are Hurwitz if $c \geq (1/2\lambda_{\min})$, where $\lambda_{\min} = \min_{i\in\mathcal{N}} Re(\lambda_i)$ ($Re(\lambda_i)$ denotes the real part of λ_i).

Theorem: Let the digraph Gr have a spanning tree and $g_i \neq 0$ for one DG placed on a root node of the digraph Gr. It is assumed that the internal dynamics of each DG are asymptotically stable. Let the auxiliary control v_i in (28) be

$$v_i = -cK\mathbf{e}_i \tag{39}$$

where $c \in R$ is the coupling gain and $K \in R^{1\times 2}$ is the feedback control vector. Then, all $\mathbf{y}_i$ in (30) synchronize to $\mathbf{y}_0$ in (31) and, hence, the direct term of DG output voltages v_{odi} synchronizes to v_{ref}, if K is chosen as in (37) and

$$c \geq \frac{1}{2\lambda_{\min}} \tag{40}$$

where $\lambda_{\min} = \min_{i\in\mathcal{N}} Re(\lambda_i)$.

Proof: Consider the Lyapunov function candidate

$$V + \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\delta}^T P_2\boldsymbol{\delta} \quad P_2 = P_2^T, P_2 > 0 eqno(41)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ is the global disagreement vector in (33). Then

$$\dot{V} = \boldsymbol{\delta}^T P_2\dot{\boldsymbol{\delta}} = \boldsymbol{\delta}^T P_2(\dot{\mathbf{Y}} - \dot{\mathbf{Y}}_0) = \boldsymbol{\delta}^T P_2\left((I_N\otimes\mathbf{A})\boldsymbol{\delta} + (I_N\otimes\mathbf{B})\mathbf{v}\right). \tag{42}$$

The global auxiliary control $\mathbf{v}$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{v} = -c(I_N \otimes K)\left((L+G)\otimes I_2\right)\boldsymbol{\delta}. \tag{43}$$

Placing (43) into (42) yields

$$\dot{V} = \boldsymbol{\delta}^T P_2\left(I_N \otimes \mathbf{A} - c(L+G)\otimes \mathbf{B}K\right)\boldsymbol{\delta} \equiv \boldsymbol{\delta}^T P_2\mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\delta}. \tag{44}$$

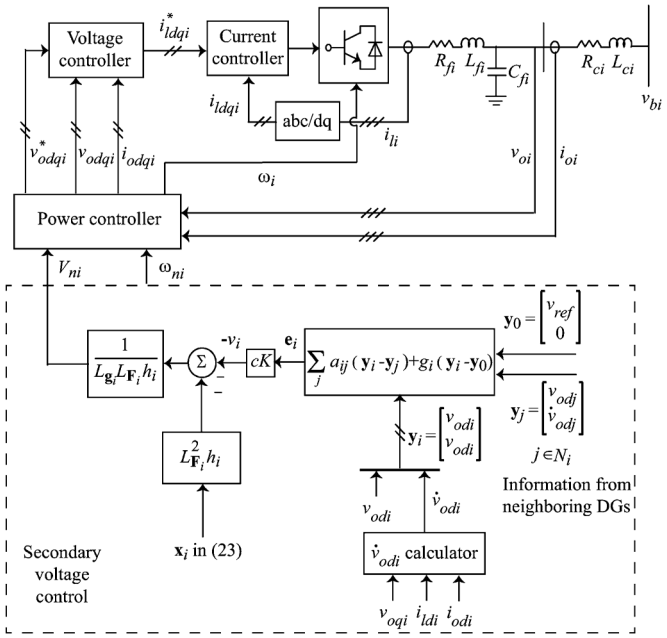

Fig. 5. Block diagram of the proposed secondary voltage control.

From Lemmas 1 and 2, $\mathbf{H}$ is Hurwitz. Therefore, given any positive real number β, the positive definite matrix P_2 can be chosen such that the following Lyapunov equation holds:

$$P_2\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{H}^T P_2 = -\beta I_{2N}. \tag{45}$$

Placing (45) in (44) yields

$$\dot{V} = \boldsymbol{\delta}^T P_2 \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{\delta} = \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\delta}^T(P_2\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{H}^T P_2)\boldsymbol{\delta} = -\frac{\beta}{2}\boldsymbol{\delta}^T I_{2N}\boldsymbol{\delta}. \tag{46}$$

Equation (46) shows that $\dot{V} \leq 0$. Therefore, the global disagreement vector $\boldsymbol{\delta}$, (27), and (39) are asymptotically stable and all $\mathbf{y}_i$ in (30) synchronize to $\mathbf{y}_0$ in (31). Hence, the direct term of DG output voltages v_{odi} synchronizes to $v_{\rm ref}$. If the internal dynamics are asymptotically stable, then they are all bounded. This completes the proof. □

The block diagram of secondary voltage control based on distributed cooperative control is shown in Fig. 5. As seen, the control input V_{ni} is implemented using (28). Each DG has a $\dot{v}_{odi}$ calculator block based on (17).

Choosing the coupling gain c and the feedback control vector K based on (37) and (40) ensures the asymptotic stability of the controller. Moreover, these controller parameters can adjust the response speed of the secondary voltage control.

C. Required Sparse Communication Topology for Secondary Control

The proposed secondary voltage control must be supported by a local communication network that provides its required information flows. This communication graph should be designed to reduce transmission delays and the required information flows between components. Long communication links are not desired [19]. For the microgrids with a small geographical span, the communication network can be implemented by

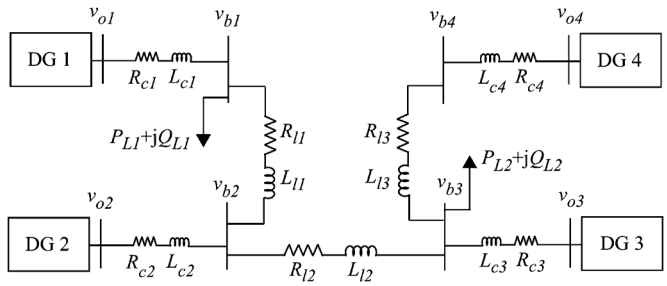

Fig. 6. Single-line diagram of the microgrid test system.

CAN Bus and PROFIBUS communication protocols [12], [36]. It should be noted that communication links contain an intrinsic delay. However, in this paper, the communication link delays are assumed to be zero. Since the time scale of the secondary control is sufficiently large, the aforementioned assumption is valid and the communication link delays do not significantly affect the system performance [12].

According to the results of the theorem in Section IV-B, the communication topology should be a graph containing a spanning tree in which the secondary control of each DG only requires information about that DG and its immediate neighbors in the communication graph. Therefore, the communication requirements for implementing the proposed control are rather mild. Given the physical structure of the microgrid, it is not difficult to select a graph with a spanning tree that connects all the DGs in an optimal fashion. Such optimal connecting graphs can be designed using operations research or assignment problem solutions [37], [38]. The optimization criteria can include minimal lengths of the communication links, maximal use of existing communication links, and minimal number of links, and so on.

V. Case Studies

The effectiveness of the proposed secondary voltage control is verified by simulating an islanded microgrid in MATLAB. Fig. 6 illustrates the single-line diagram of the microgrid test system. This microgrid consists of four DGs. The lines between buses are modeled as series RL branches. The specifications of the DGs, lines, and loads are summarized in Table I.

It is assumed that DGs communicate with each other through the communication digraph depicted in Fig. 7. This communication topology is chosen based on the geographical location of DGs. The associated adjacency matrix of the digraph in Fig. 7 is

$$A_G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{47}$$

DG 1 is the only DG that is connected to the leader node with the pinning gain $g_1 = 1$.

In the following, first, the effectiveness of the proposed secondary voltage control is shown for three different reference voltage values. Then, the effects of the ARE parameters on the transient response of the controller are studied.

TABLE I
SPECIFICATIONS OF THE MICROGRID TEST SYSTEM

DGs	DG 1 & 2 (45 kVA rating)			DG 3 & 4 (34 kVA rating)		
	m_P	9.4×10^{-5}		m_P	12.5×10^{-5}	
	n_Q	1.3×10^{-3}		n_Q	1.5×10^{-3}	
	R_c	0.03 Ω		R_c	0.03 Ω	
	L_c	0.35 mH		L_c	0.35 mH	
	R_f	0.1 Ω		R_f	0.1 Ω	
	L_f	1.35 mH		L_f	1.35 mH	
	C_f	50 μF		C_f	50 μF	
	K_{PV}	0.1		K_{PV}	0.05	
	K_{IV}	420		K_{IV}	390	
	K_{PC}	15		K_{PC}	10.5	
	K_{IC}	20000		K_{IC}	16000	
Lines	Line 1		Line 2		Line 3	
	R_{l1}	0.23 Ω	R_{l2}	0.35 Ω	R_{l3}	0.23 Ω
	L_{l1}	318 μH	L_{l2}	1847 μH	L_{l3}	318 μH
Loads	Load 1		Load 2			
	P_{L1} (per phase)	12 kW	P_{L2} (per phase)	15.3 kW		
	Q_{L1} (per phase)	12 kVAr	Q_{L2} (per phase)	7.6 kVAr		

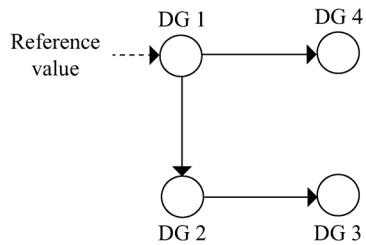

Fig. 7. Topology of the communication digraph.

A. Simulation Results for Different Reference Voltage Values

Here, the coupling gain in (39) is $c = 4$ which satisfies (40). The solution of the ARE in (38) is used to calculate the feedback control vector K in (39). In (38), the ARE parameters are chosen as $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 50000 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $R = 0.01$. The resulting feedback control vector is $K = [2236\ 67.6]$.

In the first case, namely *Case A*, the microgird is islanded from the main grid at $t = 0$, while the secondary control is active. Fig. 8(a)–(c) shows the DG terminal voltage amplitudes when the reference voltage value is set to 1, 0.95, and 1.05 p.u., respectively. As seen in Fig. 8, the secondary control returns all DG terminal voltage amplitudes to the pre-specified reference values after 0.1 s.

It should be noted that the secondary control level always exists as a supervisory control level and take actions in the event of disturbances. However, to highlight the effectiveness of the proposed secondary control, a new case study, namely *Case B*, is considered. It is assumed that the microgrid is islanded from the main grid at $t = 0$, and the secondary control is applied at $t = 0.6$ s. Fig. 9(a)–(c) shows the simulation results when the reference voltage value is set to 1, 0.95, and 1.05 p.u., respectively. As seen in Fig. 9, while the primary control keeps the voltage amplitudes stable, the secondary control returns all terminal voltage amplitudes to the prespecified reference values after 0.1 s.

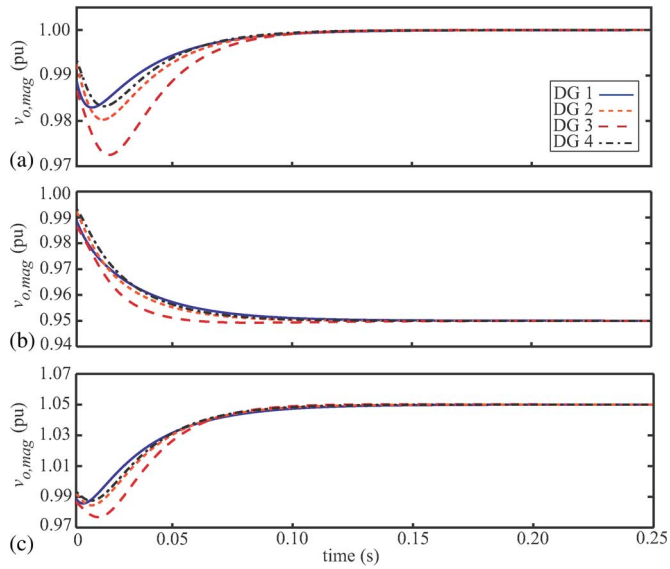

Fig. 8. DG output voltage magnitudes for *Case A*: (a) when $v_{\rm ref} = 1$ p.u., (b) when $v_{\rm ref} = 0.95$ p.u., and (c) when $v_{\rm ref} = 1.05$ p.u..

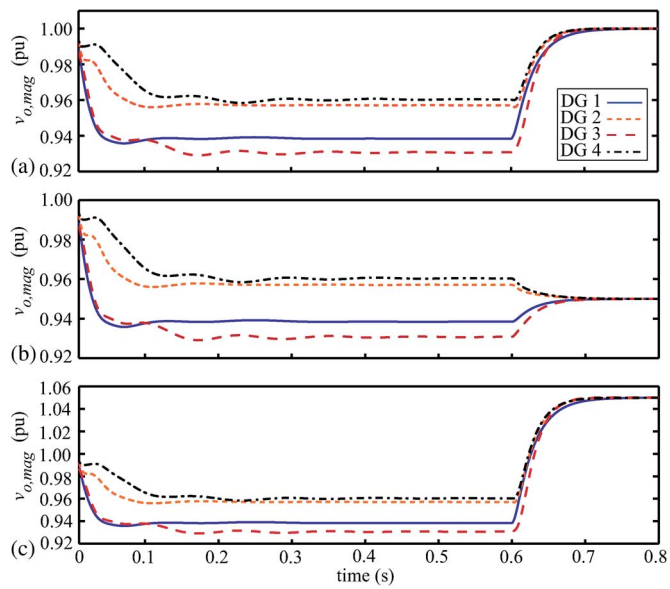

Fig. 9. DG output voltage magnitudes for *Case B*: (a) when $v_{\rm ref} = 1$ p.u., (b) when $v_{\rm ref} = 0.95$ p.u., and (c) when $v_{ref} = 1.05$ p.u..

B. Effect of ARE Parameters on the Transient Response

The ARE parameters have a direct impact on the transient response of the proposed secondary voltage control. The ARE in (38) is extracted by minimizing the following performance index for each DG [34]:

$$J_i = \frac{1}{2}\int_0^\infty \left(\boldsymbol{\delta}_i^T Q \boldsymbol{\delta}_i + v_i^T R v_i\right) dt \tag{48}$$

where the local disagreement vector is

$$\boldsymbol{\delta}_i = \mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{y}_0. \tag{49}$$

The performance index J_i can be interpreted as an energy function and the controller is designed to make it as small as

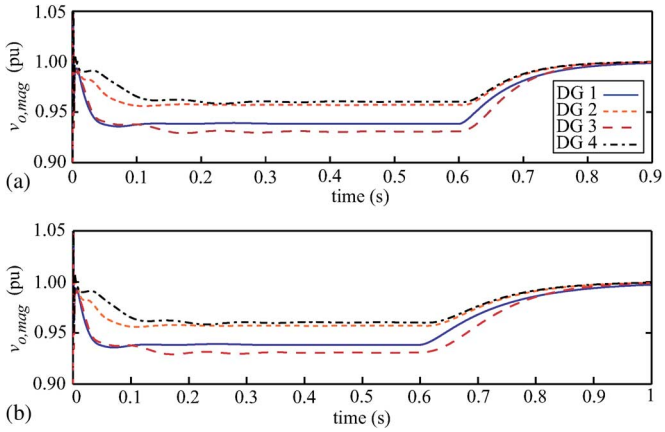

Fig. 10. DG output voltage magnitudes with the following control parameters: (a) $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1000 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $R = 0.01$ and (b) $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 50000 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $R = 5$.

possible. The ARE parameters Q and R directly influence the transient response of the controller. Generally speaking, a larger Q means that $\boldsymbol{\delta}_i$ is kept smaller by the controller for keeping J small. On the other hand, a larger R means that $v_i(t)$ is kept smaller by the controller for keeping J small. Therefore, larger Q or smaller R generally result in the poles of the closed-loop system matrix to move left in the s-plane so that the system response speed increases.

To show the effect of the ARE parameters on the response speed of the secondary voltage control, two different cases are considered. The reference value for the terminal voltage of DGs is set to 1 p.u. In the first case, ARE parameters are set as $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1000 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $R = 0.01$. Compared with the case studied in Fig. 8(a), the element in the first row and column of matrix Q, which directly affects the control of v_{odi}, is smaller. Fig. 10(a) shows the DG output voltage magnitudes before and after applying the secondary control. As seen, the terminal voltage amplitudes synchronize to 1 p.u. after 0.2 s. Therefore, with a smaller Q, the secondary voltage control is slower than the case studied in Fig. 8(a).

In the second case, the ARE parameters are set as $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 50000 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $R = 5$. Compared with the case studied in Fig. 8(a), R is larger. Fig. 10(b) shows the DG output voltage magnitudes before and after applying the secondary control. As seen, the terminal voltage amplitudes converge to 1 p.u. after 0.4 s. Therefore, with a larger R, the secondary voltage control is slower than the case studied in Fig. 8(a).

VI. Conclusion

In this paper, the concept of distributed cooperative control of multi-agent systems is adopted to implement the secondary voltage control of microgrids. Input–output feedback linearization is used to transform the nonlinear dynamics of DGs to linear dynamics. Feedback linearization converts the secondary voltage control to a second-order tracker synchronization problem. The controller for each DG is fully distributed. Each DG only requires its own information and the information of some neighbors. The proposed microgrid secondary control requires a sparse communication network with one-way communication links and is more reliable than centralized secondary controls. It is shown that the controller parameters can effectively tune the controller synchronization speed.

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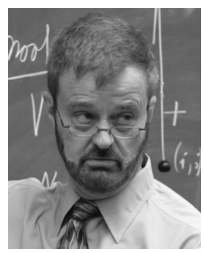

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