

Received 16 July 2020; revised 14 September 2020; accepted 15 September 2020. Date of publication 7 October 2020;
date of current version 19 October 2020.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/OJIA.2020.3028647

Aging Effect Analysis of PV Inverter Semiconductors for Ancillary Services Support

YUNTING LIU¹ (Member, IEEE), LEON M. TOLBERT¹ (Fellow, IEEE),
PAYCHUDA KRITPRAJUN¹ (Student Member, IEEE), JIAOJIAO DONG¹ (Member, IEEE),
LIN ZHU¹ (Senior Member, IEEE), JOSHUA HAMBRICK² (Member, IEEE),
KEVIN P. SCHNEIDER^{1,3} (Fellow, IEEE), AND KUMARAGURU PRABAKAR^{1,4} (Senior Member, IEEE)

(Invited Paper)

¹ University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN 37996 USA

² Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 37830 USA

³ Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, Richland, WA 99354 USA

⁴ National Renewable Energy Laboratory, Golden, CO 80401 USA

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: LEON M. TOLBERT (e-mail: tolbert@utk.edu)

This work was primarily supported by U.S. Department of Energy Grid Modernization Lab Consortium. This work also made use of Engineering Research Center shared facilities supported by the Engineering Research Center Program of the National Science Foundation and the Department of Energy under NSF Award Number [EEC-1041877] and the CURENT Industry Partnership Program

ABSTRACT PV inverters can provide reactive power while generating active power. An ongoing microgrid implementation at Duke Energy actively engages non-utility PVs to generate/absorb reactive power in support of ancillary services to increase microgrid resiliency during extreme events. PV systems are requested to provide reactive power support: 1) in response to grid voltage variation to better regulate the local voltage; or 2) in response to utility incentives, such as following Transactive Energy System (TES) incentives. However, providing ancillary services might shorten the lifetime expectation of PV inverter semiconductors. This paper summarizes the potential impacts on a PV inverter semiconductor's lifetime when providing ancillary services. The analysis presented in this research work shows that providing reactive power support will increase the mean junction temperature and the junction temperature variation of the inverter diodes. This increased junction temperature will eventually lead to shorter diode lifetime. The lifetime estimation of semiconductors is briefly reviewed. The power losses of PV inverter semiconductors are derived as a support analysis to the junction temperature calculation. In addition, the impact of the filtering inductor on the semiconductor current distribution is discussed. The theoretical analysis presented in this research work is supported by simulation results.

INDEX TERMS Aging, dc-ac power converters, photovoltaic systems, reactive power, thermal analysis.

I. INTRODUCTION

Solar photovoltaic (PV) integration requires power electronic inverters to interface with the power grid. Many literature have reported that the inverter's power electronic devices and passives (capacitors) have shorter lifetime compared to its associated PV panels [1], [2]. For example in a PV system, the lifetime of the PV panels is normally warrantied at 20–25 years, whereas the PV inverter lifetime is usually less than 15 years [1]. Due to the short lifetime of inverters, more than one half of the maintenance cost of a PV system is consumed by

inverters [3]. In addition, the utility power industry usually expects a long lifetime of the inverters so that the inverters could retire from the power grid at the same time as the whole PV system [4].

An industry-wide survey presented in [4] indicates that semiconductors and capacitors are the most vulnerable components that lead to inverter failure. The power losses of semiconductors and capacitors are dissipated as heat, and this heat dissipation increases the mean junction temperature and the temperature variation of semiconductors and capacitors.

Literature have shown that the thermal stress (both mean junction temperature and junction temperature variation) may drastically reduce the lifetime of electrolytic capacitors [5] and semiconductors [6]–[8].

In addition to active power generation, PV inverters are requested to provide reactive power support in IEEE Standard 1547, as revised in 2018 [9]. Distributed systems and microgrids that adopt transactive energy systems (TES) also request PV inverters to provide ancillary services. The TES is a concept to engage more distributed energy resources (DERs), especially non-utility owned DERs, to participate in the operation of the power grid [10]–[13]. Alam *et al.* [10], [11] proposed a transactive approach to engage DERs to provide ancillary services.

TES can incentivize customers to provide ancillary services from the customer-owned DERs to improve the reliability and quality of the grid's power. The TES controller could publish low reactive power demand level when the utility reactive power generation is sufficient, which would discourage customers from generating reactive power [10], [11], [14]–[16]. The customer DERs could also publish low reactive power generation capability if the reactive power generation would decrease the profit of the customers [17]–[24] because it might require decreasing their real (active) power output.

Some literature have indicated that the engagement of DERs to provide ancillary services may have a negative effect on the lifetime of DER inverters due to increasing thermal stress [25], [26]. However, none of the literature theoretically quantify the increased thermal stress caused by reactive power generation. The reactive power may change the current distribution among inverter semiconductors. In addition, different current distribution may change the power loss distribution among the individual semiconductors. The impact of reactive power on other major components, such as dc capacitors and filtering inductors, is not as significant as that on semiconductors. Therefore, this paper selects inverter semiconductors as the objective of the ancillary services aging effect analysis.

Many power electronic literature have proposed solutions to extend the lifetime of inverters. Andresen *et al.* [27] proposed a maximum-power-point-tracking (MPPT) control for PV systems which limits the maximum junction temperature of the power semiconductors. Yang *et al.* [28], [29] also proposed a MPPT methodology to limit the maximum operating point which will limit the temperature indirectly. Also, PV inverter manufacturers design their products by derating the output power as ambient temperature increases [30]–[32]. However, none of the existing literature systematically study the mechanism of reactive power impact on PV inverter semiconductor aging.

This paper aims to fill these gaps in the literature by systematically analyzing the thermal stress of PV inverter semiconductors when the inverters provide reactive power during support of ancillary services that require the production/absorption of reactive power. A brief review on the lifetime estimation of PV inverter semiconductors is presented followed by the electrothermal model of the semiconductors.

TABLE 1. Parameters of the Lifetime Model of an IGBT Module [34]

Parameter	Value	Experimental condition
A	3.4368×10^{14}	
α	-4.923	$5 \text{ K} \leq \Delta T_{junc} \leq 80 \text{ K}$
β_1	9.012×10^{-3}	
β_0	1.942	$0.19 \leq ar \leq 0.42$
C	1.434	
γ	-1.208	$0.07 \text{ s} \leq t_{on} \leq 63 \text{ s}$
f_d	0.6204	
E_a	0.06606 eV	$32.5 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C} \leq T_{junc} \leq 122 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$
k_b	$8.6173324 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/K}$	

The analysis of the thermal model reveals that the reactive power generation will increase both the mean junction temperature and the junction temperature variation of the inverter diodes. This increased junction temperature will lead to shorter inverter lifetime. The power losses of PV inverter semiconductors derived in this paper provide a support analysis for the calculation of junction temperature. The theoretical analysis is supported by simulation results.

This paper is organized as follows. Section II provides the electrothermal model for typical PV inverter topologies. Section III formulates the power loss of semiconductors. Section IV analyzes the reactive power impact on the PV inverter power loss. Section V provides simulation results as evidence to support theoretical analysis in previous sections. Portions of this paper were presented at the 2020 IEEE PES General Meeting; Sections III, IV, V are new materials that were not included in the conference paper [33].

II. ELECTROTHERMAL MODEL OF PV INVERTER

A. BACKGROUND OF SEMICONDUCTOR LIFETIME EXPECTATION

The lifetime model of semiconductors can be formulated as follows [34],

$$N_f = A \times (\Delta T_j)^{\alpha} \times (ar)^{\beta_1 \Delta T_j + \beta_0} \times \left[\frac{C + (t_{on})^{\gamma}}{C + 1} \right] \times \exp\left(\frac{E_a}{k_b \times \bar{T}_j}\right) \times f_d \quad (1)$$

where N_f is the number of cycles to failure. This parameter indicates that a new semiconductor device is going to fail after N_f cycles of use for a given operating condition. \bar{T}_j is the mean junction temperature of a semiconductor. ΔT_j is the junction temperature variation in time period of t_{on} . t_{on} is the thermal cycle period, which is typically the same as the electrical line period. The other parameters are given in Table 1 [34].

From (1), the semiconductor lifetime is related to the mean junction temperature \bar{T}_j and the junction temperature variation ΔT_j . When \bar{T}_j and/or ΔT_j increase, the number of cycles to failure N_f will decrease.

B. FOSTER THERMAL MODEL

The insulated-gate bipolar transistor (IGBT) type and metal-oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor (MOSFET) type

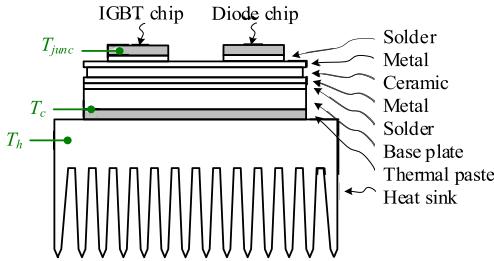


FIGURE 1. Typical IGBT module with thermal management.

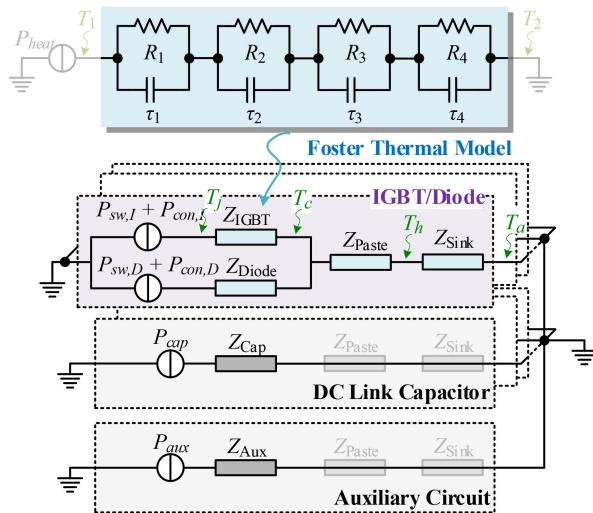


FIGURE 2. Detailed thermal model of PV inverter using discrete IGBT-diode pack.

PV inverter have similar electrothermal models. This paper focuses on IGBT-type PV inverters since IGBT based PV inverters are more common especially for high power ratings ($> 5 \text{ kW}$) [35]. The electrothermal model of a typical discrete IGBT with anti-parallel diode with thermal management is shown in Fig. 1 [36]. IGBT and diode chips are the heat source in the inverter system. The heat generated in the IGBT's junction will flow to the case of the IGBT module through several layers of materials, such as solder, metal, ceramic, etc., and finally results in a case temperature, T_c . The case of an IGBT normally will be attached to a heat sink by thermal paste. The resulting heat sink temperature is T_h . The heat sink dissipates the heat to the ambient by convection. Other types of thermal management systems include fans, cold plate, and water cooling.

The Foster thermal model presented in [26] is used in this research work to estimate the thermal stress of a PV inverter. The Foster thermal model describes the temperature transient of an object by a branch of an RC network. The detailed thermal model of a PV inverter composed of IGBTs with an anti-parallel diode pack is shown in Fig. 2. The switching loss (P_{sw}) and conduction loss (P_{con}) are the heat source for each IGBT and diode. In a two-stage PV inverter, it normally contains 5 (single-phase) to 7 (three-phase) IGBTs depending on the topology.

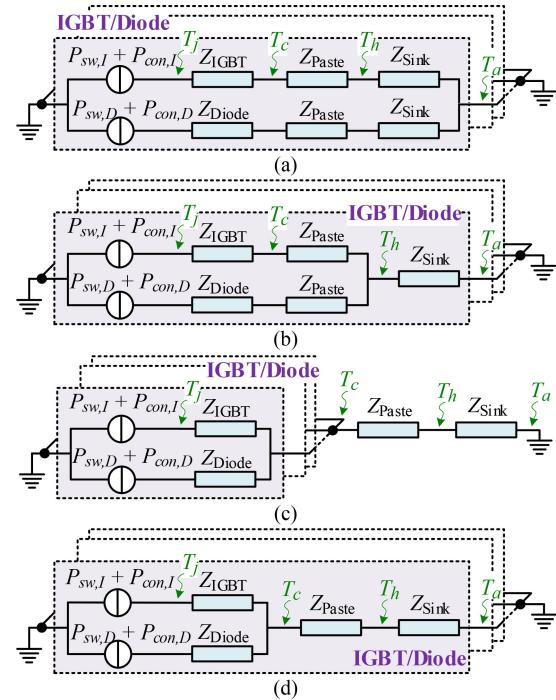


FIGURE 3. Semiconductor thermal model. (a) Independent IGBT and diode package. Each IGBT/diode is attached to independent heatsink. (b) Independent IGBT and diode package. The IGBT and diode are sharing a heatsink. (c) Half/full bridge module that contains more than two IGBT-diode pairs in one package. The bridge module is attached to a heatsink. (d) IGBT packed with anti-parallel diode in single package. Each IGBT-diode module is attached to independent heatsink.

Each IGBT module is attached to a heat sink by thermal paste. The capacitor power loss (due to current flowing through its own parasitic resistance) is the heat source for each capacitor. Each PV inverter normally contains several capacitors on the dc link, and their thermal resistances are thermally in parallel. The capacitors and other auxiliary circuits such as printed circuit boards (PCBs), filtering inductors, and EMI filters may not have active thermal management or dedicated heat sinks depending on inverter design. The common IGBT-diode packages and their thermal models are summarized in Table 2.

Several possible thermal models shown in Fig. 3 can be used to calculate junction temperature. For example, the junction temperature of the IGBT and diode of Fig. 3(a) can be formulated as (2) and (3),

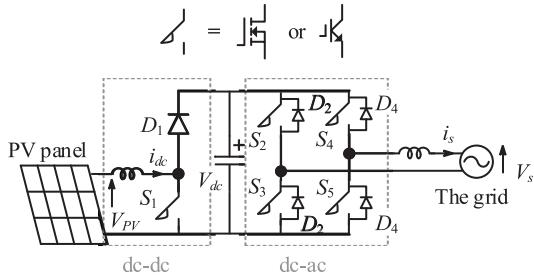
$$T_{j,I} = (P_{sw,I} + P_{con,I}) (Z_{IGBT} + Z_{Paste} + Z_{Sink}) + T_{amb} \quad (2)$$

$$T_{j,D} = (P_{sw,D} + P_{con,D}) (Z_{Diode} + Z_{Paste} + Z_{Sink}) + T_{amb} \quad (3)$$

where subscript D indicates the variable associated with the diode, and subscript I indicates the variable associated with the IGBT. Z_{Paste} is the thermal paste thermal impedance. Z_{Sink} is the heatsink thermal impedance. T_{amb} is the ambient temperature. Other types of thermal models shown in Fig. 3 can also be formulated similar to (2) and (3). The derivation is omitted in this paper.

TABLE 2. Common IGBT-Diode Packages and Thermal Model

Type	IGBT	Diode	Heatsink	Thermal Model
1	Discrete	Discrete	Independent heatsink for each IGBT and diode	Fig. 3(a)
2	Discrete	Discrete	Shared by IGBT and diode	Fig. 3(b)
3	Bridge Module	Built-in IGBT module	Shared by multiple bridge modules	Fig. 3(c)
4	Discrete	Built-in IGBT module	Independent heatsink for each IGBT-diode pair	Fig. 2, Fig. 3(d)

**FIGURE 4.** Typical PV inverter topology.

Each thermal impedance Z can be represented by

$$Z = \sum_n^l R_n \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\tau_n}} \right) \quad (4)$$

where l is the number of terms in the Foster thermal model. R is the thermal resistance, and τ is the thermal time constant.

The Foster thermal model generally neglects the nonlinearities by modeling the thermal properties with a RC network. The superposition theorem can be applied to the semiconductor Foster model to calculate the semiconductor junction temperature. The mean junction temperature \bar{T}_j is determined by the average power loss (\bar{P}_{con} and \bar{P}_{sw}) of the semiconductors. And the thermal cycle ΔT_{junc} is determined by the power loss variation (ΔP_{con} and ΔP_{sw}) of the semiconductors which is due to the switching of the IGBTs and the variation of the ac current provided by the inverter.

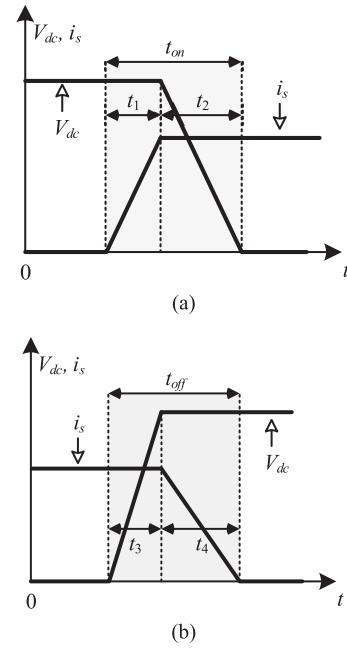
III. SEMICONDUCTOR POWER LOSS FORMULATION

The power losses of semiconductors consist of two parts: 1) switching loss and 2) conduction loss. A typical two-stage single-phase PV inverter topology is shown in Fig. 4. The following power loss evaluation is based on the PV inverter topology shown in Fig. 4. The dc-dc stage operation is only affected by active power generation. The reactive power generation would slightly increase the current stress of dc-dc stage semiconductors due to the increasing power loss of the reactive power generation. Therefore, the semiconductors of the dc-dc stage will not be discussed in this paper.

A. SWITCHING LOSS

For a given IGBT, the switching loss is determined by the turn-on and turn-off energy, and the turn-on loss could be formulated as follows [37],

$$E_{on,I} = V_{dc} I_s \cdot \frac{1}{2} t_{on} \quad (5)$$

**FIGURE 5.** Switching loss during IGBT's (a) turn-on time; and (b) turn-off time.

where t_{on} is the total time of current rising and voltage falling when power switches turn on. t_{on} is a fixed value once a specific switching device and its associated gate drive are selected. V_{dc} is the dc-link voltage; i_s is the load current. The switching loss during the IGBT's turn-on state is shown in Fig. 5(a) [37].

The average value of $E_{on,I}$ for the dc-ac side IGBT ($S_2 - S_5$) during the sinusoidal period of the inverter output current can also be calculated as [38],

$$E_{on,I} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2\pi} V_{dc} I_s \cdot t_{on} \quad (6)$$

where I_s is the rms value of the inverter output current. Similarly, IGBT ($S_2 - S_5$) turn-off loss can be calculated as [38],

$$E_{off,I} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2\pi} V_{dc} I_s \cdot t_{off} \quad (7)$$

The total IGBT ($S_2 - S_5$) switching loss is calculated as,

$$P_{sw,I} = (E_{on,I} + E_{off,I}) \cdot f_{sw} \quad (8)$$

where f_{sw} is the switching frequency.

For a given MOSFET, the switching loss is similar to that for an IGBT and also follows (5)-(8).

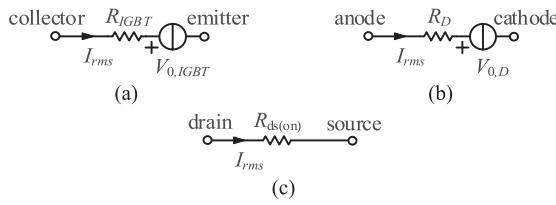


FIGURE 6. Semiconductor conduction loss model. (a) IGBT; and (b) diode; (c) MOSFET.

Diode switching loss is generated by the reverse recovery during the turn-off transition. Normally, diode datasheets provide the value of reverse recovery energy loss $E_{rr,D}$ under the manufacturer's specified test conditions. The actual diode switching loss needs to be rescaled by the actual current and blocking voltage. The diode ($D_2 - D_5$) switching loss during the sinusoidal period of the inverter output current is calculated as [38],

$$P_{sw,D} = \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi} \frac{I_s V_{dc}}{I_{ref} V_{ref}} E_{rr,D} \right) \cdot f_{sw} \quad (9)$$

where I_{ref} and V_{ref} are the tested current and voltage condition provided from the datasheet.

B. CONDUCTION LOSS

The conduction loss of an IGBT can be modeled by two components connected in series, a resistor and a dc voltage source as shown in Fig. 6(a). The dc voltage source represents the built-in voltage of the device p-n junction. The power losses in both the resistor and dc voltage source contribute to the IGBT conduction losses [38].

$$P_{con,IGBT} = I_{rms,IGBT}^2 R_{IGBT} + I_{avg,IGBT} V_{0,IGBT} \quad (10)$$

where $I_{rms,IGBT}$ and $I_{avg,IGBT}$ are the rms value and average value of the current flowing through the IGBT collector to emitter. The details for determining $I_{rms,IGBT}$ and $I_{avg,IGBT}$ are summarized in the Appendix. $V_{0,IGBT}$ and R_{IGBT} are typically given by IGBT datasheets.

The conduction loss of a diode is similar to an IGBT and can be modeled as shown in Fig. 6(b). The power losses in both the resistor and dc voltage source contribute to the diode conduction losses.

$$P_{con,D} = I_{rms,D}^2 R_D + I_{avg,D} V_{0,D} \quad (11)$$

where $I_{rms,D}$ and $I_{avg,D}$ are the rms value and the average value of the current flowing through the diode anode to cathode. The details of $I_{rms,D}$ and $I_{avg,D}$ are summarized in the Appendix. $V_{0,D}$ and R_D are typically given by diode datasheets.

For the MOSFET, the conduction loss could be formulated as follows [38],

$$P_{con,M} = I_{rms,M}^2 R_{ds(on)} \quad (12)$$

where $R_{ds(on)}$ is the drain-source on-resistance of a MOSFET as shown in Fig. 6(c). $I_{rms,MOSFET}$ is the MOSFET current rms

value. The details of the $I_{rms,MOSFET}$ for a MOSFET-based dc-ac inverter is included in the Appendix.

The complete semiconductor switching loss and conduction loss for a PV inverter's possible devices are summarized in Table 3.

IV. REACTIVE POWER IMPACT ON POWER LOSS

To evaluate the reactive power impact on the semiconductor power loss, the IGBT-diode type of PV inverter is selected in the following analysis. Assume that the output voltage and current follow,

$$v_s = \sqrt{2}V_s \sin(\omega t + \varphi) \quad (13)$$

$$i_s = \sqrt{2}I_s \sin \omega t \quad (14)$$

Assuming a fixed apparent output power $S = V_s I_s$ for the PV inverter, then the modulation function follows

$$m = \frac{M \sin(\omega t + \varphi) + 1}{2} \quad (15)$$

The modulation index M is typically 0.8~1 for PV inverters. The current conducted by S_2 IGBT can be formulated as

$$i_{S2} = \begin{cases} \sqrt{2}I_s \sin \omega t \cdot \frac{M \sin(\omega t + \varphi) + 1}{2} & i_s \geq 0 \\ 0 & i_s < 0 \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

The current conducted by D_2 diode can be formulated as

$$i_{D2} = \begin{cases} -\sqrt{2}I_s \sin \omega t \cdot \frac{M \sin(\omega t + \varphi) + 1}{2} & i_s < 0 \\ 0 & i_s \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

A. AVERAGE POWER LOSS

The power loss distribution among inverter semiconductors varies with respect to different output power factor (pf). In general, the reactive power will reduce the conduction loss of IGBTs and increase the conduction loss of diodes. Thus, the reactive power negatively impacts the diode thermal stress. The equivalent current that flows through the diode increases as the pf decreases. Fig. 7 shows the rms current $I_{rms,D}$ from (A.6), average current $I_{avg,D}$ from (A.7) and maximum current $I_{max,D}$ from (17) of the diode.

More current flowing through diodes will increase the conduction loss of the diode. From (11), (A.6) and (A.7), the conduction loss of diode can be formulated as

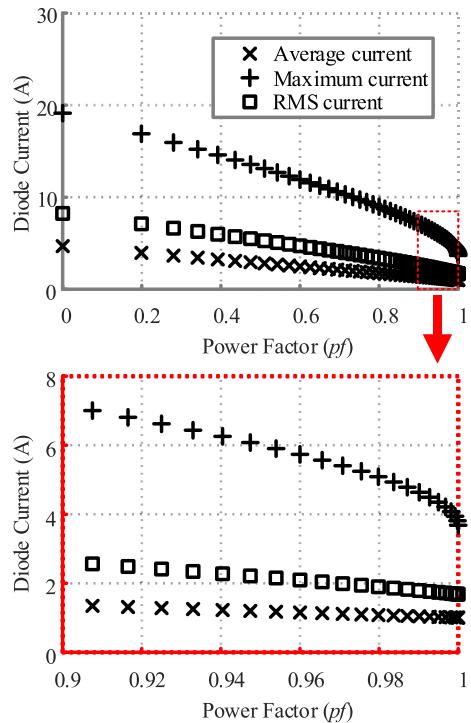
$$P_{con,D} = \left(\frac{I_s^2}{4} R_D + \frac{I_s}{\sqrt{2}\pi} V_{0,D} \right) - \left(\frac{I_s^2}{4} \cdot \frac{8M}{3\pi} R_D + \frac{I_s}{\sqrt{2}\pi} \cdot \frac{\pi M}{4} V_{0,D} \right) pf \quad (18)$$

where pf is the power factor of the PV inverter output power. The diode conduction loss increases as the pf decreases.

As the power factor decreases, more current flows through diodes, and less current flows through the IGBTs (for a fixed apparent power). From (10), (A.4) and (A.5), the conduction

TABLE 3. Semiconductor Power Loss

	Switching Loss		Conduction Loss	
IGBT	$P_{sw,I} = (E_{on,I} + E_{off,I}) \cdot f_{sw}$		$P_{con,IGBT} = I_{rms,IGBT}^2 R_{IGBT} + I_{avg,IGBT} V_{0,IGBT}$	
MOSFET	$P_{sw,M} = (E_{on,M} + E_{off,M}) \cdot f_{sw}$		$P_{con,M} = I_{rms,M}^2 R_{ds(on)}$	
Diode	$P_{sw,D} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi} \frac{I_s V_{dc}}{I_{ref} V_{ref}} E_{rr,D} \cdot f_{sw}$		$P_{con,D} = I_{rms,D}^2 R_D + I_{avg,D} V_{0,D}$	

**FIGURE 7.** Equivalent current rms, average, and maximum value that flows through diodes as power factor changes.

loss of an IGBT can be formulated as

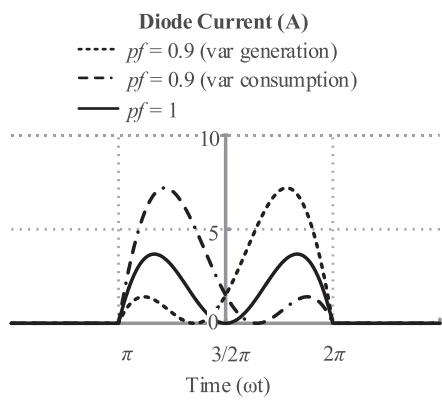
$$P_{con,IGBT} = \left(\frac{I_s^2}{4} R_{IGBT} + \frac{I_s}{\sqrt{2}\pi} V_{0,IGBT} \right) + \left(\frac{I_s^2}{4} \cdot \frac{8M}{3\pi} R_{IGBT} + \frac{I_s}{\sqrt{2}\pi} \cdot \frac{\pi M}{4} V_{0,IGBT} \right) pf \quad (19)$$

The IGBT conduction loss decreases as the pf decreases.

B. POWER LOSS CYCLING

Since the ac current and voltage cycle periodically (60 Hz in this paper), the semiconductor losses are also typically cycling in this fundamental cycle. In addition to the average conduction loss, the power loss variation during a fundamental cycle also varies with power factor. The average losses determine the mean junction temperature (T_j). The power loss variation in a fundamental cycle determines the junction temperature variation (ΔT_j).

Eq. (17) formulates the D_2 diode current. Fig. 8 shows the D_2 diode current for one half of one fundamental cycle (from π to 2π). The D_2 diode current has less variation at unity

**FIGURE 8.** Full-bridge single phase inverter diode current variation in a fundamental cycle.

pf . Compared to the current at unity power factor, the current variation during one of the two half cycles doubles when the pf decreases to 0.9. Other diodes in the inverter will also have similar current variation as D_2 diode.

C. EFFECT OF FILTERING INDUCTOR

The inverter's filtering inductor is normally deemed an integral part of a PV inverter. However, from a semiconductor point of view, the filtering inductor is part of the load. Assume that the PV inverter midpoint voltage vector is \mathbf{V}_c . The PV inverter's midpoint voltage contains a wide spectrum of harmonics, especially the switching frequency harmonics. \mathbf{V}_c denotes the fundamental component of the midpoint voltage. The voltage drop on the filtering inductor is \mathbf{V}_L . The grid voltage vector is \mathbf{V}_s . The voltages should follow

$$\mathbf{V}_c = \mathbf{V}_s + \mathbf{V}_L \quad (20)$$

The polarities of \mathbf{V}_c , \mathbf{V}_s , and \mathbf{V}_L are shown in Fig. 9(a). The phase angle between \mathbf{V}_s and \mathbf{I}_s is θ_s . The phase angle between \mathbf{V}_c and \mathbf{I}_s is θ_c . The pf of the fundamental output current is defined as $\cos\theta_s$. The pf of bridge circuit current is defined as $\cos\theta_c$. $\cos\theta_c$ is the actual power factor that determines the current distribution among the semiconductors.

If the output power is at unity pf as shown in Fig. 9(b), the bridge circuit pf will be lagging because of the filter inductor and has a value of $\cos\theta_c$. The inverter needs to generate a reactive power to compensate the reactive power consumed by the filtering inductor. If the output power is slightly capacitive with a pf of $\cos\theta_s$ as shown in Fig. 9(c), the small reactive power consumed by the filtering inductor may result in the bridge circuit pf being unity.

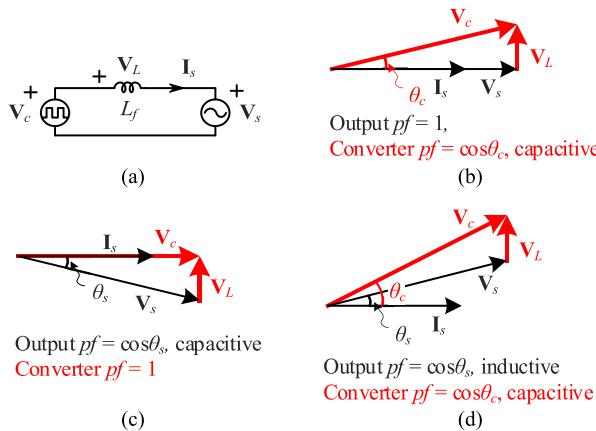


FIGURE 9. (a) Equivalent circuit of PV inverter connected to the grid. Phasor diagram of PV inverter with (b) unity power factor; (c) capacitive output; and (d) inductive output.

If the output power is inductive as shown in Fig. 9(d), the filtering inductor will further reduce the bridge circuit pf . The filtering inductors of PV inverters are typically 0.01 to 0.05 p.u. The filtering inductors do not significantly affect the bridge circuit pf in typical cases. However, some PV inverters may have relatively large filtering inductor/transfomers that are up to 0.15 p.u. In this case, the filtering inductors will significantly affect the bridge circuit pf and hence the amount of current through the individual semiconductors in these cases.

D. TOTAL PV INVERTER POWER LOSS

The current distribution among semiconductors can be influenced by the pf . If the on-resistance and the built-in voltage of the IGBT and diode have significant difference, the current distribution will change the overall conduction loss of the PV inverter. For example, the majority of the current flows through IGBTs rather than diodes at unity pf . If the on-resistance of the IGBT is larger than that of diode, the conduction loss of the PV inverter at unity pf will become larger than that at non-unity pf . If the on-resistance and the built-in voltage of the IGBT is similar to that of diodes in a PV inverter, the conduction loss of the PV inverter at unity pf will be similar to that at non-unity pf .

In typical PV inverter design, the selection of IGBTs and diodes often have similar conduction loss characteristics. Therefore, the total power loss of the inverter normally remains the same regardless of the pf . Thus, the total PV inverter power loss is determined by the apparent power.

Typically, the active power generation has higher priority than the reactive power generation in customer owned PV inverters. PV inverters are unlikely to sacrifice active power generation for reactive power because the compensation for active power greatly exceeds that for reactive power in today's markets. Since the active power and reactive power are in quadrature with each other, the increase of apparent power is not linearly proportional to the increase in reactive power.

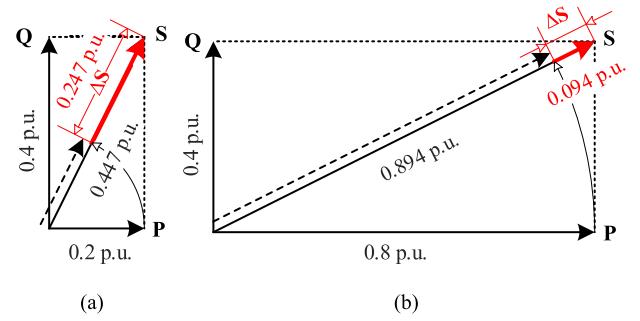


FIGURE 10. Phasor diagram of PV inverters with reactive power generation.

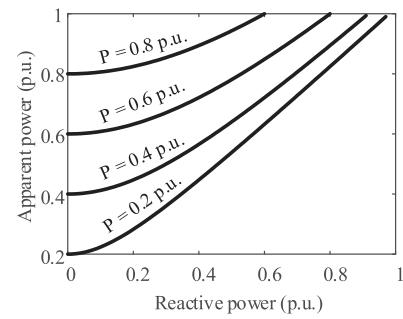


FIGURE 11. Apparent power curve with respect to reactive power.

TABLE 4. PV Inverter Key Parameters

PV voltage, V_{PV}	50-70 V
DC link voltage, V_{dc}	200 V
Grid voltage, V_s	120 V
Power rating, P	2500 W
Switching frequency, f_{sw}	10 kHz
Fundamental frequency, f_0	60 Hz

Fig. 10 shows the phasor diagram of the PV inverter power with reactive power generation. When the active power generation is 0.2 p.u., the apparent power increment is 0.247 p.u. (to 0.447 p.u.) when generating 0.4 p.u. reactive power. When the active power generation is 0.8 p.u., the apparent power increment is 0.094 p.u. (to 0.894 p.u.) to generate 0.4 p.u. reactive power. In these two cases, to generate 0.4 p.u. reactive power, the additional apparent power (ΔS) of the PV inverter is quite different. In general, the ΔS of the PV inverter at larger active power generation level is less than that at smaller active power generation level. Similarly, the increment of power loss of the PV inverter at larger active power generation level is less than that at smaller active power generation level. Fig. 11 illustrates the apparent power with respect to reactive power.

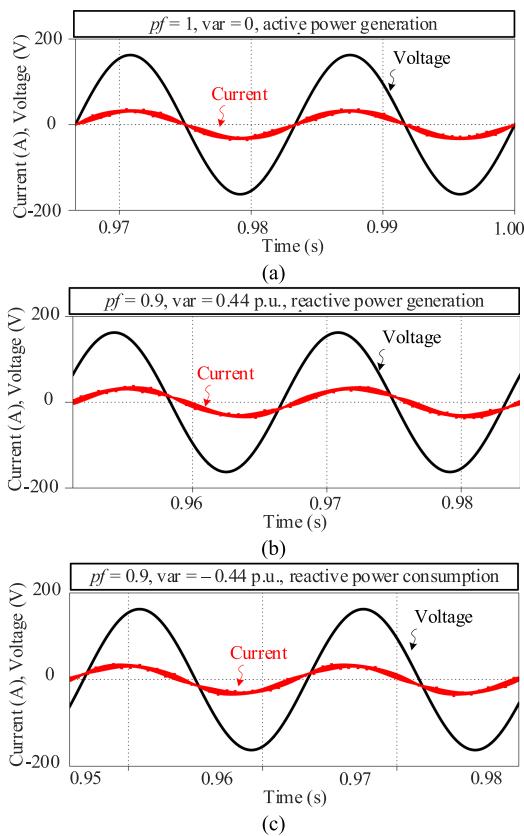
V. SIMULATION RESULTS

A. SCENARIO DEFINITION

The single-phase PV inverter topology shown in Fig. 4 is simulated in PLECS. The key parameters used in the simulation are summarized in Table 4. The semiconductor thermal models used in the simulation are from commercial device

TABLE 5. Semiconductor Device Information

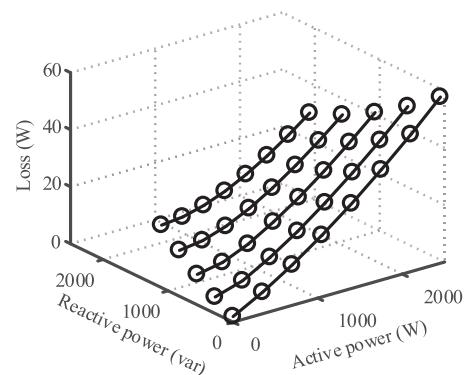
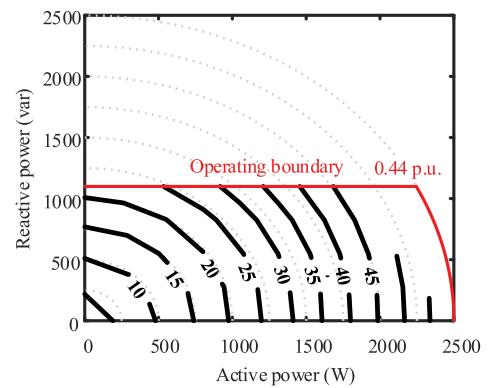
Part No.	Manufacturer Part No.	Manufacturer	Package
S_1	IGP50N60T	Infineon	TO-220
D_1	C4D20120D	Wolfspeed	TO-247
S_2, S_3, S_4, S_5	IKW50N60H3	Infineon	TO-247
D_2, D_3, D_4, D_5	IKW50N60H3	Infineon	TO-247

**FIGURE 12.** Sample waveforms from PV inverter simulation. (a) $pf = 1$, $var = 0$; (b) $pf = 0.9$, $var = 0.44$ p.u.; and (c) $pf = 0.9$, $var = -0.44$ p.u.

datasheets. The information of the devices used in this simulation is summarized in Table 5. The PV inverter is connected to a 120-V ac voltage source. The output current is controlled to follow the power generation reference. The ambient temperature utilized in the simulation is 25 °C. A group of power loss simulations with different active-reactive power combinations are conducted. In this simulation study, the PV inverter is assumed to have the reactive power generation settings follow IEEE Standard 1547 [9] with maximum reactive power support to be 0.44 p.u.

B. BASIC RESULTS

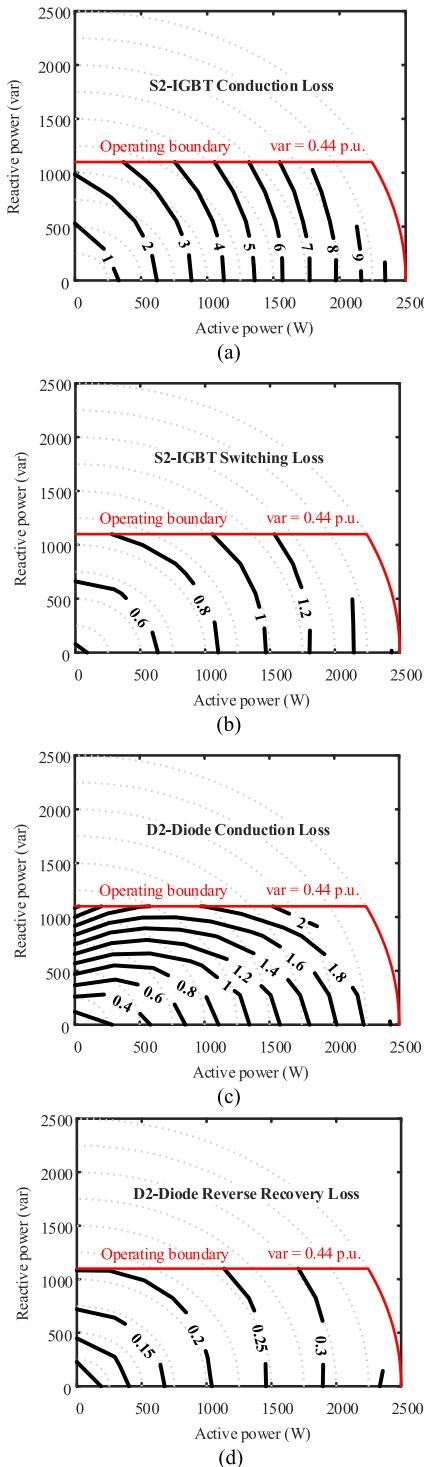
Figure 12 shows the output voltage and current waveforms from the PV inverter simulation. Figs. 12(a), (b), and (c) all have apparent power to be 2500 VA. Several power loss simulations with different active-reactive power combinations are conducted. The total power loss results are summarized in Fig. 13. Fig. 14 is the contour of Fig. 13. Fig. 13 shows

**FIGURE 13.** PV inverter power loss results for different combinations of active and reactive power.**FIGURE 14.** Power loss contour of the PV inverter simulation.

the PV inverter total power loss in a 3-D plot. The x -axis is the active power, y -axis is the reactive power, and z -axis is the power loss. The traces in Fig. 14 are the power loss contours projected on the xy -plane. Fig. 14 shows that the power loss contour is in a circle. The total power loss of the PV inverter remains the same with different power factors.

C. SEMICONDUCTOR POWER LOSS

Fig. 15 shows the individual IGBT and diode power loss results. Note that the second stage of the PV inverter has four IGBTs and four diodes. Each semiconductor has power losses and switching losses. Fig. 15 selects one set of IGBTs and diodes to visualize the power loss contour so that the thermal stress of the diodes and IGBTs can be discriminated. In particular, Fig. 15(c) shows the diode conduction loss. The diode conduction loss increases as the pf decreases because more power flows through the diode instead of the IGBT. 2250-W active power for the converter can generate 1.8-W diode conduction loss, whereas only 1000-var reactive power generation can lead to 1.8-W diode conduction loss. From Fig. 15(a), the conduction loss of the IGBT is slightly decreased as the pf decreases. From Fig. 15(b) and (d), the switching loss of the IGBT and the reverse recovery loss of the diode do not have significant correlation with the power factor.



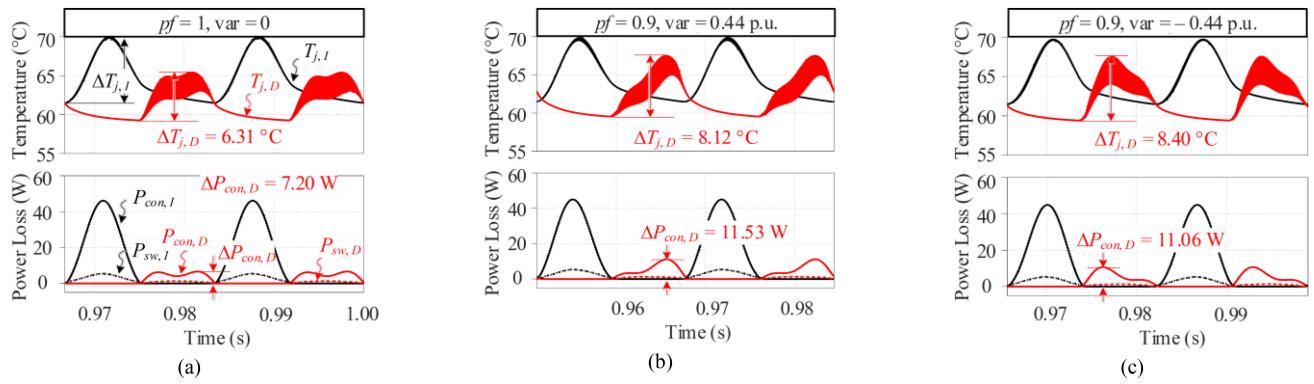


FIGURE 16. Junction temperature of IGBT and diode. (a) $pf = 1, \text{var} = 0$. (b) $pf = 0.9, \text{var} = 0.44 \text{ p.u.}$ (c) $pf = 0.9, \text{var} = -0.44 \text{ p.u.}$

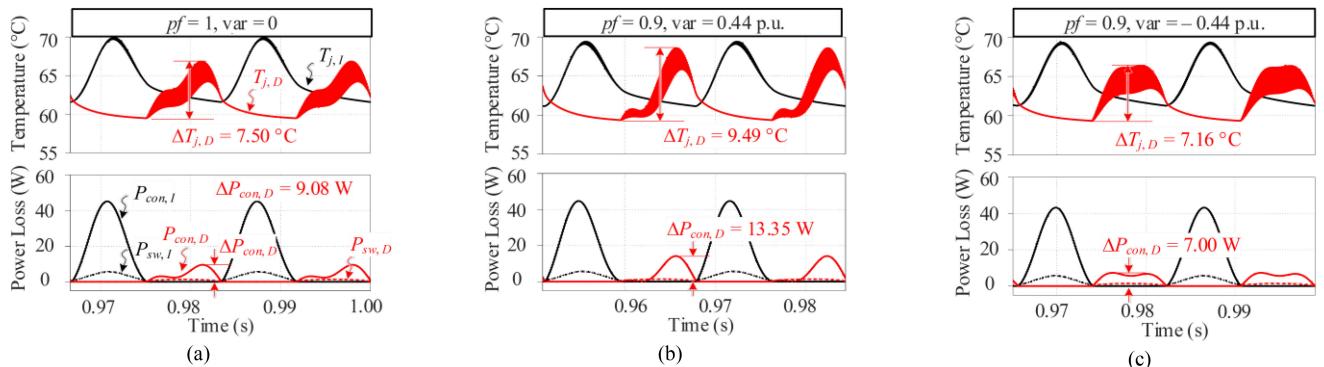


FIGURE 17. Junction temperature of IGBT and diode with 50-mH (32.7% p.u.) filtering inductor. (a) $pf = 1, \text{var} = 0$. (b) $pf = 0.9, \text{var} = 0.44 \text{ p.u.}$ (c) $pf = 0.9, \text{var} = -0.44 \text{ p.u.}$

linearizes the semiconductor power loss model by using a built-in voltage source ($V_{0,D}$ or $V_{0,\text{IGBT}}$) and an on-resistor (R_D or R_{IGBT}). The theoretical models of the diodes and the IGBTs of this paper are linearized from the 175-°C data from the device datasheets.

From Fig. 19, the average temperatures of inverter diodes and IGBTs from the theoretical model are slightly smaller than that of the PLECS simulation. The average temperature is largely determined by the sum of the IGBT and diode power losses. The overall power loss from the theoretical model is less than that of the PLECS simulation. This leads to the small differences in average junction temperatures between the theoretical model and PLECS simulation. Despite the discrepancies in absolute values between the theoretical model and the PLECS simulation, the theoretical model can properly track the trends of junction temperature given different levels of PV generation.

The junction temperature profiles of PV inverter semiconductors are used for calculating the cycle-to-failure (N_f) from (1). The aging analysis of this paper is based on the theoretical model. Fig. 20 shows the N_f of PV inverter diodes and IGBTs with respect to different PV generation. When the active power generation is small (less than 1.5 kW), a small amount of reactive power generation/absorption will drastically reduce the semiconductor N_f . When the active power generation is large (more than 1.5 kW), extra reactive power

generation/absorption will only slightly reduce the semiconductor N_f . In general, the additional reactive power generation/absorption reduces the semiconductor N_f . However, the N_f reduction effect depends on the PV inverter active power production. The reduction of N_f at small active power generation levels is more than that at large active power generation levels.

Fig. 21 shows the N_f of PV inverter diodes and IGBTs with respect to different power factors. As discussed in Sections V-C and D, the power loss of diodes increases as the pf decreases. Also, the junction temperature variation for diodes increases as the pf decreases. Larger thermal cycle will accelerate the failure of diodes. The diode N_f decreases as the pf decreases. This can be seen from Fig. 21. Similarly, the power loss of IGBTs decreases as the pf decreases. Also, the junction temperature variation for IGBTs decreases as the pf decreases. Smaller thermal cycle (ΔT_j) will lead to longer IGBT lifetime. The IGBT N_f increases as the pf decreases. Low pf will help extend the IGBT lifetime. This can be seen from Fig. 21.

Fig. 22 shows the N_f of PV inverter diodes and IGBTs with respect to different reactive power generation levels. In the ancillary services market, the PV inverter is typically requested to provide reactive power in addition to the maximum active power point, thus extra reactive power generation leads to extra power loss. Both the diodes and IGBTs will suffer from the extra heat. This can be seen from Fig. 22. Both diode N_f and

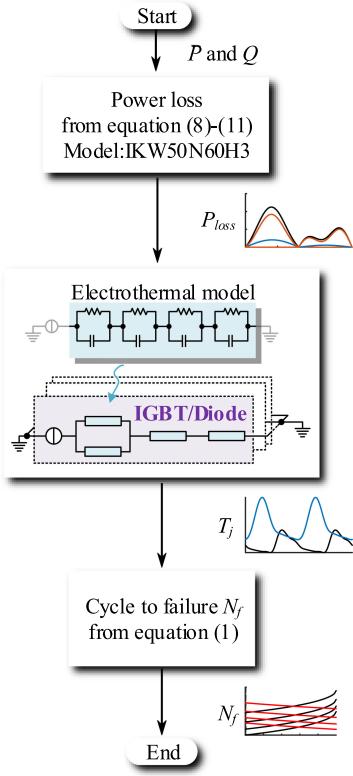


FIGURE 18. Workflow of semiconductor aging effect assessment platform.

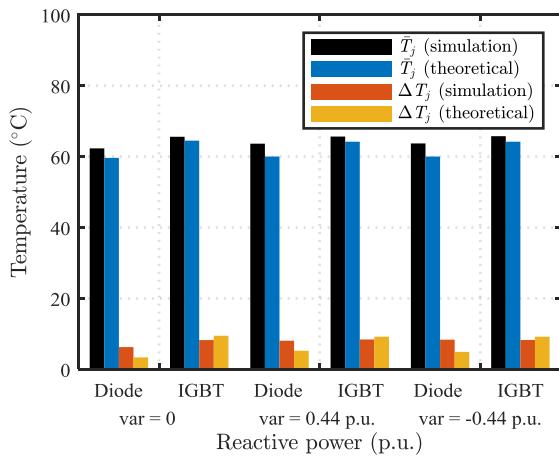


FIGURE 19. Junction temperature results from the theoretical models in comparison with that from the PLECS simulation.

IGBT N_f decrease as the reactive power increases. However, the reactive power aging effects on the IGBTs and diodes are slightly different. The diode N_f is much more sensitive to the reactive power than the IGBT N_f . Diode N_f decreases more than 100 times when the reactive power increases from 0 to 0.44 p.u., whereas the IGBT N_f decreases less than 10 times when the reactive power increases from 0 to 0.44 p.u..

Fig. 23 shows the N_f of PV inverter diodes and IGBTs with respect to different filter inductances. In general, the filtering inductor will accelerate the semiconductor aging for both diodes and IGBTs. However, the filter inductor aging effects

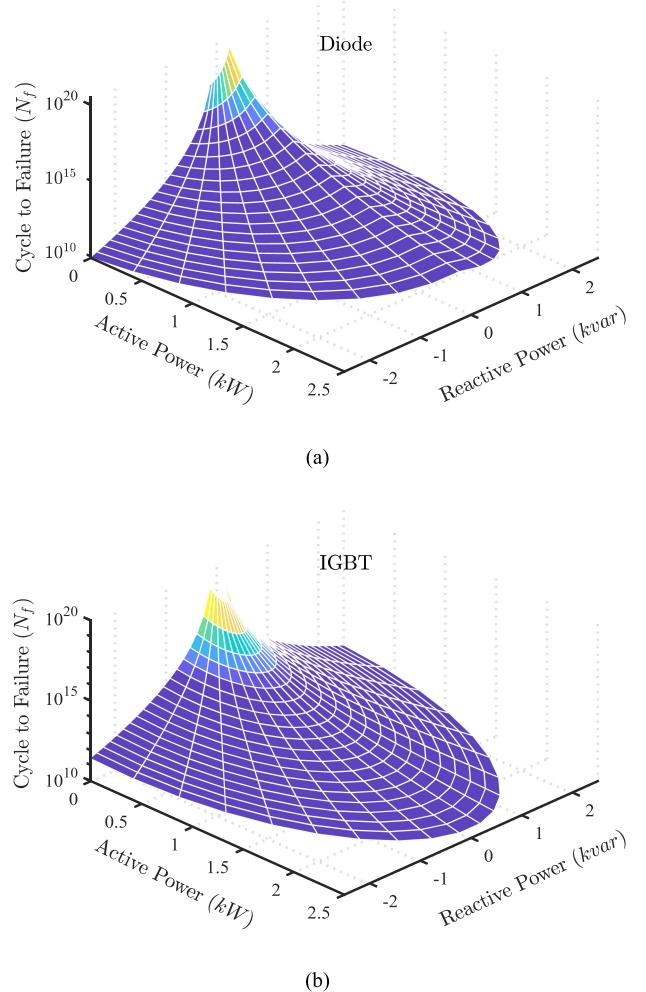


FIGURE 20. (a) Number of cycles to failure for the PV inverter diodes. (b) Number of cycles to failure for the PV inverter IGBTs.

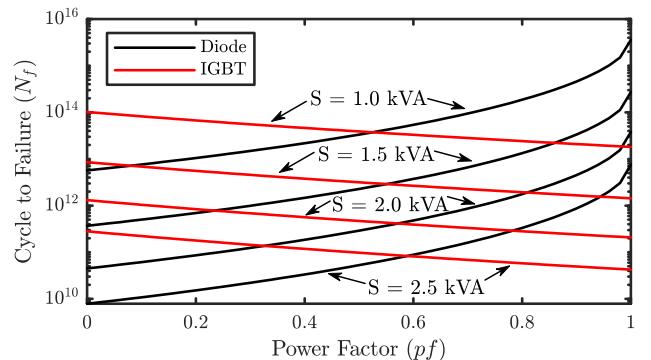


FIGURE 21. N_f of PV inverter diodes and IGBTs with respect to power factors.

on the IGBTs and diodes are slightly different. The diode N_f is much more sensitive to the filter inductor value than the IGBT N_f . Diode N_f decreases more than 10 times when the filter inductance increases from 0 to 0.3 p.u., whereas the IGBT N_f decreases less than 10 times when the reactive power increases from 0 to 0.3 p.u..

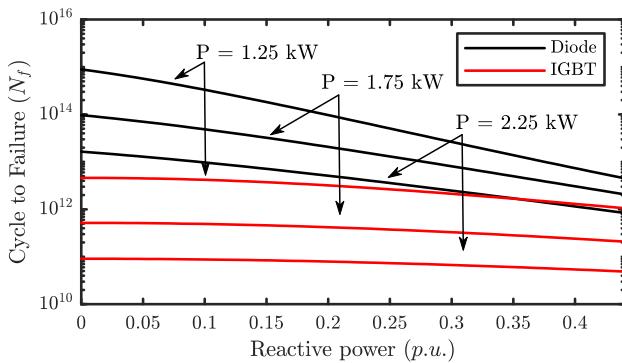


FIGURE 22. *N_f* of PV inverter diodes and IGBTs with respect to different var generation.

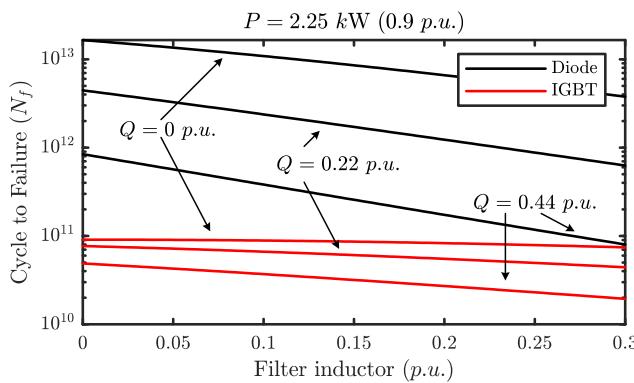


FIGURE 23. *N_f* of PV inverter diodes and IGBTs with respect to different filter inductances.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper develops the lifetime model of the semiconductors in a PV inverter by integrating the semiconductor electrothermal model and the PV inverter modulation. The lifetime model formulates the inverter semiconductors' thermal stress under the scenarios where the PV inverter is engaged in reactive power support. Both the analysis and the simulation results show that the average conduction loss of inverter diodes increases when the output current pf decreases. In addition to the average conduction loss of diodes, the conduction loss variation of the diodes doubles when the pf decreases to 0.9. The aging effect of the extra thermal stress on diodes also shows that the diodes suffer from accelerated aging during the reactive power support.

The filtering inductor impact on the semiconductor current distribution also has to be considered because of its effect on the power factor of the output current and resulting current distribution among the inverter's IGBTs and diodes. The analysis and simulation results show that the filtering inductor can increase the conduction loss variation of diodes when the load is inductive. The extra power losses in diodes lead to shorter lifetime expectation of PV inverter diodes.

PV inverter manufacturers will need to account for the provision of ancillary services, and in particular reactive power

support, in the design of future products in order to ensure that provision of ancillary services does not negatively impact the lifetime of their products. This may include needing to use higher current ratings in the anti-parallel diodes and more closely examining the parasitics in their dc link capacitors and filter inductors.

APPENDIX

Assume that the grid voltage and current are

$$v_s = \sqrt{2}V_s \sin(\omega t + \varphi) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

$$i_s = \sqrt{2}I_s \sin \omega t \quad (\text{A.2})$$

where ω is the fundamental frequency, and φ is the phase difference.

$$I_{rms,MOSFET} = \frac{I_s}{2} \sqrt{1 + \frac{8M \cos \varphi}{3\pi}} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

$$I_{rms,IGBT} = \frac{I_s}{2} \sqrt{1 + \frac{8M \cos \varphi}{3\pi}} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

$$I_{avg,IGBT} = \frac{I_s}{\sqrt{2}\pi} \left(1 + \frac{\pi M \cos \varphi}{4} \right) \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$I_{rms,D} = \frac{I_s}{2} \sqrt{1 - \frac{8M \cos \varphi}{3\pi}} \quad (\text{A.6})$$

$$I_{avg,D} = \frac{I_s}{\sqrt{2}\pi} \left(1 - \frac{\pi M \cos \varphi}{4} \right) \quad (\text{A.7})$$

where M is the modulation index of the inverter. The MOSFET can conduct the reverse current through the main MOSFET or built-in body diode depending on the gate-to-source voltage. Typically, the reverse current is conducted through the main MOSFET rather than body diodes for PV inverters. If that is the case, the diode current (A.6) and (A.7) will also be conducted by MOSFET. The reverse voltage-current characteristics of the MOSFET is similar to the forward voltage-current characteristics of the MOSFET except for different values for reverse $R_{ds(on)}$. The derivation of (A.3)-(A.7) is given in [38].

REFERENCES

- [1] M. Woodhouse *et al.*, "On the path to sun shot: The role of advancements in solar photovoltaic efficiency, reliability, and costs," *Nat. Renew. Energy Lab.*, NREL/TP-6A20-65872, pp. 1–43, May, 2016.
- [2] A. Golans, "PV system reliability: An operator's perspective," *IEEE J. Photovolt.*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 416–421, Jan. 2013.
- [3] L. M. Moore and H. N. Post, "Five years of operating experience at a large, utility-scale photovoltaic generating plant," *Prog. Photovolt. Res. Appl.*, vol. 16, pp. 249–259, 2008.
- [4] S. Yang, A. Bryant, P. Mawby, D. Xiang, L. Ran, and P. Taverner, "An industry-based survey of reliability in power electronic converters," *IEEE Trans. Ind. Appl.*, vol. 47, no. 3, pp. 1441–1451, May/Jun. 2011.
- [5] W. Gunther and S. Aggarwal, "Understanding and managing the effects of battery charger and inverter aging," *Brookhaven Natl. Lab.*, BNL-NUREG-47472, 1992.
- [6] J. W. McPherson, *Reliability Physics and Engineering Time-to-Failure Modeling*. Berlin, Germany: Springer, 2013.
- [7] H. Wang, K. Ma, and F. Blaabjerg, "Design for reliability of power electronic systems," in *Proc. Annu. Conf. IEEE Ind. Electron. Soc.*, 2012, pp. 33–44.

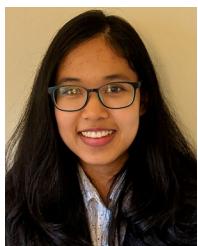
- [8] Q. Yuan, R. Endoh, T. Ima, Y. Kajita, and Y. Luo, "Failure mode verification of power IGBT under different thermal stress application conditions in power cycling test environment," in *Proc. Int. Conf. Electron. Packag. iMAPS All Asia Conf.*, 2018, pp. 367–370.
- [9] IEEE Standard for Interconnection and Interoperability of Distributed Energy Resources with Associated Electric Power Systems Interfaces, in *IEEE Standard 1547-2018 (Revision of IEEE Standard 1547-2003)*, pp. 1–138, Apr. 2018, doi: [10.1109/IEEESTD.2018.8332112](https://doi.org/10.1109/IEEESTD.2018.8332112).
- [10] J. Alam, R. Melton, A. Soman, and T. McDermott, "Transactive approach for engaging distribution network assets for voltage management in Southern California Edison distribution feeders," *Pacific Northwest Nat. Lab.* PNNL-27650, Richland, WA, United States, 2018.
- [11] B. P. Bhattarai *et al.*, "Enhancing distribution system resiliency through a novel transactive energy systems framework," in *IEEE Power Energy Soc. Gen. Meet.*, 2019, pp. 1–5.
- [12] J. Li, C. Zhang, Z. Xu, J. Wang, J. Zhao, and Y. J. A. Zhang, "Distributed transactive energy trading framework in distribution networks," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 33, no. 6, pp. 7215–7227, Nov. 2018.
- [13] Z. Liu, Q. Wu, S. Huang, and H. Zhao, "Transactive energy: A review of state-of-the-art and implementation," in *Proc. IEEE Power Tech*, 2017, pp. 1–6.
- [14] T. Broecker, J. Fuller, F. Tuffner, D. Chassin, and N. Djilali, "Modeling framework and validation of a smart grid and demand response system for wind power integration," *Appl. Energy*, vol. 113, pp. 199–207, 2014.
- [15] S. Widergren, C. Marinovici, T. Berliner, and A. Graves, "Real-time pricing demand response in operations," *IEEE Power Energy Soc. Gen. Meeting*, 2012, pp. 1–5.
- [16] S. Chen *et al.*, "Forming bidding curves for a distribution system operator," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 33, no. 5, pp. 5389–5400, Sep. 2018.
- [17] Z. Liu, Q. Wu, K. Ma, M. Shahidehpour, Y. Xue, and S. Huang, "Two-stage optimal scheduling of electric vehicle charging based on transactive control," *IEEE Trans. Smart Grid*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 2948–2958, May 2019.
- [18] H. Hao, C. D. Corbin, K. Kalsi, and R. G. Pratt, "Transactive control of commercial buildings for demand response," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 774–783, Jan. 2017.
- [19] J. Lian, H. Ren, Y. Sun, and D. Hammerstrom, "Performance evaluation for transactive energy systems using double-auction market," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 34, no. 5, pp. 4128–4137, Sep. 2019.
- [20] J. C. Fuller, K. P. Schneider, and D. Chassin, "Analysis of residential demand response and double-auction markets," in *Proc. IEEE Power Energy Soc. Gen. Meeting*, 2011, pp. 1–7.
- [21] R. Adhikari, M. Pipattanasomporn, M. Kuzlu, and S. R. Bradley, "Simulation study of transactive control strategies for residential HVAC systems," in *Proc. IEEE PES Innov. Smart Grid Technol. Conf. Eur.*, 2017, pp. 1–5.
- [22] D. J. Olsen, M. R. Sarker, and M. A. Ortega-vazquez, "Optimal penetration of home energy management systems in distribution networks considering transformer aging," *IEEE Trans. Smart Grid*, vol. 9, no. 4, pp. 3330–3340, Jul. 2018.
- [23] D. J. Hammerstrom *et al.*, "Pacific Northwest gridwise testbed demonstration projects, Part I Olympic peninsula project," *Pacific Northwest Natl. Lab.* PNNL-17167, Richland, WA, 2007.
- [24] K. P. Schneider, S. Member, J. C. Fuller, D. Chassin, and S. Member, "Analysis of distribution level residential demand response," in *Proc. IEEE/PES Power Syst. Conf. Expo.*, 2011, pp. 1–6.
- [25] A. Anurag, Y. Yang, and F. Blaabjerg, "Reliability analysis of single-phase PV inverters with reactive power injection at night considering mission profiles," in *Proc. IEEE Energy Convers. Congr. Expo.*, 2015, pp. 2132–2139.
- [26] A. Anurag, Y. Yang, and F. Blaabjerg, "Thermal performance and reliability analysis of single-phase PV inverters with reactive power injection outside feed-in operating hours," *IEEE J. Emerg. Sel. Top. Power Electron.*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 870–880, Dec. 2015.
- [27] M. Andresen, G. Buticchi, and M. Liserre, "Thermal stress analysis and MPPT optimization of photovoltaic systems," *IEEE Trans. Ind. Electron.*, vol. 63, no. 8, pp. 4889–4898, Aug. 2016.
- [28] Y. Yang, H. Wang, and F. Blaabjerg, "Improved reliability of single-phase PV inverters by limiting the maximum feed-in power," in *Proc. IEEE Energy Convers. Congr. Expo.*, 2014, pp. 128–135.
- [29] Y. Yang, E. Koutoulis, A. Sangwongwanich, and F. Blaabjerg, "Pursuing photovoltaic cost-effectiveness: Absolute active power control offers hope in single-phase PV systems," *IEEE Ind. Appl. Mag.*, vol. 23, no. 5, pp. 40–49, Oct. 2017.
- [30] Victron Energy, "Technical notes on output rating, operating temperature and efficiency," 2018. [Online]. Available: <https://www.victronenergy.com/upload/documents/Output-rating-operating-temperature-and-efficiency.pdf>
- [31] Guangzhou Sanjing Electric, "Sunfree solar inverter datasheet," [Online]. Available: https://www.lizard.cl/_PDF/invh400048/Sunfree_Hybrid_Solar_Inverter_4K5K.pdf
- [32] SolarEdge, "Temperature de-rating - technical note (Europe & APAC)," 2019. [Online]. Available: <https://www.solaredge.com/sites/default/files/se-temperature-derating-note-na.pdf>
- [33] Y. Liu *et al.*, "Modeling of marginal cost for PV inverter ancillary services considering inverter aging under transactive energy framework," in *Proc. IEEE PES Gen. Meeting*, Aug. 2020.
- [34] A. Sangwongwanich, Y. Yang, D. Sera, and F. Blaabjerg, "Lifetime evaluation of grid-connected PV inverters considering panel degradation rates and installation sites," *IEEE Trans. Power Electron.*, vol. 33, no. 2, pp. 1225–1236, Feb. 2018.
- [35] C. Blake and C. Bull, "IGBT or MOSFET: Choose Wisely," *International Rectifier*. El Segundo, CA, USA, [Online]. Available: https://www.infineon.com/dgdl/Infineon-IGBT_or_MOSFET_ChOOSE_WISELY-Article-v01_00-EN.pdf?fileId=5546d462533600a40153574048b73edc
- [36] Semikron, "Thermal resistance of IGBT modules - specification and modelling," 2014. [Online]. Available: <https://www.semikron.com/dl/service-support/downloads/download/semikron-application-note-thermal-resistances-of-igbt-modules-en-2014-11-30-rev-01/>
- [37] G. Lakkas, "MOSFET power losses and how they affect power-supply efficiency," *Analog Appl. J.*, Texas Instrument, AAJ 1Q 2016, pp. 22–26, 2016. [Online]. Available: <http://www.ti.com/lit/an/slyt664.pdf>
- [38] J. Guo, "Modeling and design of inverters using novel power loss calculation and dc-link current/voltage ripple estimation methods and bus bar analysis," Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. Electr., Comput. Eng., McMaster Univ., 2017.



YUNTING LIU (Member, IEEE) received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, China, in 2013, and the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from Michigan State University, Michigan, USA, in 2019. She joined the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, as a Postdoctoral Research Associate in 2019. Her research interests include renewable energy integration, modular multilevel converter, solid-state variable capacitor, and dual-active-bridge dc-dc converter.



LEON M. TOLBERT (Fellow, IEEE) received the bachelor's, M.S., and Ph.D. degrees in electrical engineering from the Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, in 1989, 1991, and 1999, respectively. He is currently a Chancellor's Professor and the Min H. Kao Professor with the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, The University of Tennessee. He is a founding member for the NSF/DOE Engineering Research Center, CURENT (Center for Ultra-wide-area Resilient Electric Energy Transmission Networks). He is also an Adjunct Participant with Oak Ridge National Laboratory. Dr. Tolbert is a Registered Professional Engineer with the State of Tennessee. His research interests include the utility applications of power electronics, microgrids, electric vehicles, and wide bandgap semiconductors.

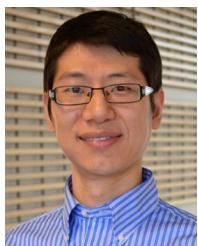


PAYCHUDA KRITPRAJUN (Student Member, IEEE) received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Thailand, in 2014, and the M.S. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN, USA, in 2020. She is currently working toward the Ph.D. degree with the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. She was a Design Engineer with Nissan Motor Asia Pacific Co., Ltd., Thailand, in 2014 and an Electrical Engineer with Provincial Electricity

Authority (PEA), Thailand, in 2015 to 2018. Her research interests include PV systems, renewable energy integration, and microgrids.



JIAOJIAO DONG (Member, IEEE) received the B.S. degree in information engineering from Xi'an Jiaotong University, China, in 2008, and the M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in automation control from the same university, in 2011 and 2016, respectively. She is currently a Postdoctoral Researcher with the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, USA. Her research interests include power system planning and operation, renewable energy integration, and microgrids.



LIN ZHU (Senior Member, IEEE) received the B.S. degree and Ph.D. degree both in electrical engineering from the Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, China, 2005 and 2011, respectively. He is currently a Research Assistant Professor with the department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. His main research interests include power system dynamics, large-scale system simulation, and microgrids.

JOSHUA HAMBRICK (Member, IEEE) received the B.S., M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in electrical engineering from Virginia Tech. He is a R&D Staff Member with Oak Ridge National Laboratory in the Power and Energy Systems group. His research focuses on power systems modeling and simulation, power systems protection, and microgrid design and control. Dr. Hambrick is active in a number of standards activities, including the IEEE 1547 and IEEE 2030 series of standards.



KEVIN P. SCHNEIDER (Fellow, IEEE) received the B.S. degree in physics and the M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in electrical engineering from the University of Washington. He is currently a Chief Engineer with the Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, working at the Seattle Research Center in Seattle Washington. Dr. Schneider is an Adjunct Faculty Member with Washington State University, an Affiliate Associate Professor with the University of Washington, and a Licensed Professional Engineer with the State of Washington. He is the Past

Chair of the Power & Energy Society (PES) Distribution System Analysis (DSA) Sub-Committee and the current Vice-Chair of the Analytic Methods for Power Systems (AMPS) Committee. His main areas of research are distribution system analysis and power system operations.



KUMARAGURU PRABAKAR (Senior Member, IEEE) received the M.S. Degree from Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ, in 2011 and the Ph.D. degree from The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN, in 2016. He is currently working toward the M.B.A. degree with the University of Colorado, Boulder. He is a Senior Research Engineer with Power Systems Engineering center, the National Renewable Energy Laboratory, Golden, Colorado. He leads research projects targeting improvements in distribution system protection, and interoperability of distribution system assets. He is a Technical Contributor in multiple microgrid controller evaluation projects, and advanced distribution management systems evaluation projects. His research work focuses on the controller hardware-in-the-loop, power hardware-in-the-loop, and remote hardware-in-the-loop experiments.