

**Low-Voltage dc System Building Blocks  
Integrated Power Flow Control and Short Circuit Protection**

Purgat, Pavel ; Shekhar, Aditya ; Qin, Zian; Bauer, Pavol

**DOI**

[10.1109/MIE.2021.3106275](https://doi.org/10.1109/MIE.2021.3106275)

**Publication date**

2023

**Document Version**

Final published version

**Published in**

IEEE Industrial Electronics Magazine

**Citation (APA)**

Purgat, P., Shekhar, A., Qin, Z., & Bauer, P. (2023). Low-Voltage dc System Building Blocks: Integrated Power Flow Control and Short Circuit Protection. *IEEE Industrial Electronics Magazine*, 17(1), 6-20. <https://doi.org/10.1109/MIE.2021.3106275>

**Important note**

To cite this publication, please use the final published version (if applicable). Please check the document version above.

**Copyright**

Other than for strictly personal use, it is not permitted to download, forward or distribute the text or part of it, without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), unless the work is under an open content license such as Creative Commons.

**Takedown policy**

Please contact us and provide details if you believe this document breaches copyrights. We will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

***Green Open Access added to TU Delft Institutional Repository***

***'You share, we take care!' - Taverne project***

**<https://www.openaccess.nl/en/you-share-we-take-care>**

Otherwise as indicated in the copyright section: the publisher is the copyright holder of this work and the author uses the Dutch legislation to make this work public.

# Low-Voltage dc System Building Blocks

*Integrated Power Flow Control  
and Short Circuit Protection*

PAVEL PURGAT, ADITYA SHEKHAR <sup>ID</sup>,  
ZIAN QIN, and PAVOL BAUER <sup>ID</sup>

**L**ow-voltage direct current (LVdc) systems are a promising technology for systems with a high penetration of renewable sources and storage that operate with bidirectional power flow. In this article, a fundamental building block for LVdc is presented for different applications, such as charge controllers, voltage regulation in street-lighting systems, and current limiters in meshed dc grids. The developed building block integrates a solid-state circuit breaker (SSCB) and partially rated power flow control converter (PFCC) capable of achieving the given control objectives with extremely high system efficiency and full short circuit protection.

## Overview

LVdc systems were the pioneer systems providing public lighting based

on Edison's incandescent electric light. They were more efficient than the first single-phase ac systems. However, they were soon outperformed by Tesla's polyphase ac systems. While, in 1887 in United States, there were five times more LVdc than ac central stations for light, in 1890, there were 30% more ac central stations [1]. The efficiency and ability of ac systems outweighed any concerns about ac safety, which were especially amplified by Edison to help the commercial growth of his systems. Already at the end of 19th century, it was clear that, without a device to arbitrarily control the voltage level, LVdc systems could not outperform ac polyphase systems.

Power electronics in the past two decades brought forth significant changes to electric power distribution. Primarily, the rise in the energy and cost efficiency





©SHUTTERSTOCK.COM/PIXELS HUNTER

specify the power and communication interface as well as the market requirements. FBBs, on the other hand, define how the functions are implemented. That means which technologies and components will implement the functionality of an SBB.

Then, an integrated SBB for LVdc systems is presented with a simple equivalent model. Three of the surveyed markets are chosen as case studies to demonstrate the potential benefits of the proposed building block: streetlight, battery charging, and meshed power distribution systems. The article closes with an experimental section that validates the steady-state operation of the proposed SBB. Moreover, the ability of the building block to withstand bolted short circuits on its terminals is experimentally validated.

## LVdc Promise and Outlook

### *Enabling Benefits in Energy Distribution Technologies*

Several modeling- and demonstration-based studies show potential energy savings when LVdc is adopted instead of LVac [3]–[6]. For example, one of the studies in [3] identifies that an energy storage system (ESS) has a strong influence on improving the efficiency in the range of 2–18% and correlates this tendency with the power mismatch between RESs and the load profile. The discussion highlights that this advantage of LVdc systems in residential and commercial buildings correlates with a minimization of the energy exchange with the ac grid that is interfaced using an active front-end converter.

While operational costs can be reduced by increasing the size of the ESS, the achieved gain in tradeoff with the initial costs of the infrastructure is relevant. This includes the storage element as well as the PEC that interfaces the ESS with the LVdc system. This article suggests a promising method to downsize the interfacing PEC for the given rated power.

A strong dependence arises from the assumed component efficiencies, which usually increase directly in relation to the power rating ( $P_{\text{rated}}$ ) [7], [8]. For

of power electronics contributed to the increase of devices that internally utilize dc, and this trend is expected to continue. The increased economic competitiveness of renewable energy sources (RESs), such as photovoltaics (PVs), led to the extensive use of these sources. PVs and other RESs either internally produce dc or are using power electronic converters (PECs) to control their power output, which has an internal dc link. Moreover, the emergence of prosumers and energy storage is fundamentally reshaping the landscape of both electric energy production and distribution. Under the new conditions, LVdc became a viable option in many energy distribution markets.

In this article, firstly, the benefits and opportunities of using LVdc in secondary and tertiary energy distribution system are presented (Figure 1). The LVdc systems considered have bus

voltages up to 1.5 kV and operating currents up to several hundred amperes. A survey of pilot projects implementing these systems and their potential markets is provided to better demonstrate the LVdc potential.

To work with well-defined interfaces, the concept of building blocks is introduced. A building block is a well-defined functionality block that is well recognizable by domain experts. It evolves with the technology and standards, and it can be assembled from other building blocks; it may be a subassembly of other building blocks and is reusable as well as replaceable.

Two types of building blocks can be distinguished—system building blocks (SBBs) and function building blocks (FBBs). SBBs are the highest level of abstraction; they define what function will be implemented and



instance, it is reported in [8] that a converter with  $P_{rated} < 1$  kW has an average efficiency  $\eta_{ave} \approx 90\%$ ; for converters with a power rating between 1 and 5 kW, the average efficiencies are  $\approx 97.5\%$ .

The converter efficiencies are also dependent on the operating conditions, such as unbalanced load conditions, the chosen voltage level, and the system configuration [7], [9]. The dc nature of key components in ESSs and RESs offers an advantage if LVdc is used instead of LVac as the integrating technology. In this article, the PEC

component rating is dissociated from the actual system size such that it is a small fraction of the actual processed power, thus shifting the associated benefits further to the side of LVdc.

However, at the early stage of LVdc adaptation, the up-front cost is increased due to a lack of economies of scale and the specific protection requirements of LVdc [8], [10]. A significant advantage that is often discussed in the literature is the ability of dc technologies to work synergistically within the existing ac distribution infrastructure. Such

LVdc systems are decoupled from the ac grid, and, thus, they are relatively isolated from the effects of voltage sags or frequency disturbances in the main grid. High resiliency is a key benefit of LVdc in applications that require extremely high availability, such as data centers or some critical production lines.

**Applications, Pilot Projects, and Market Readiness**

Several municipalities in The Netherlands have LVdc-based streetlight

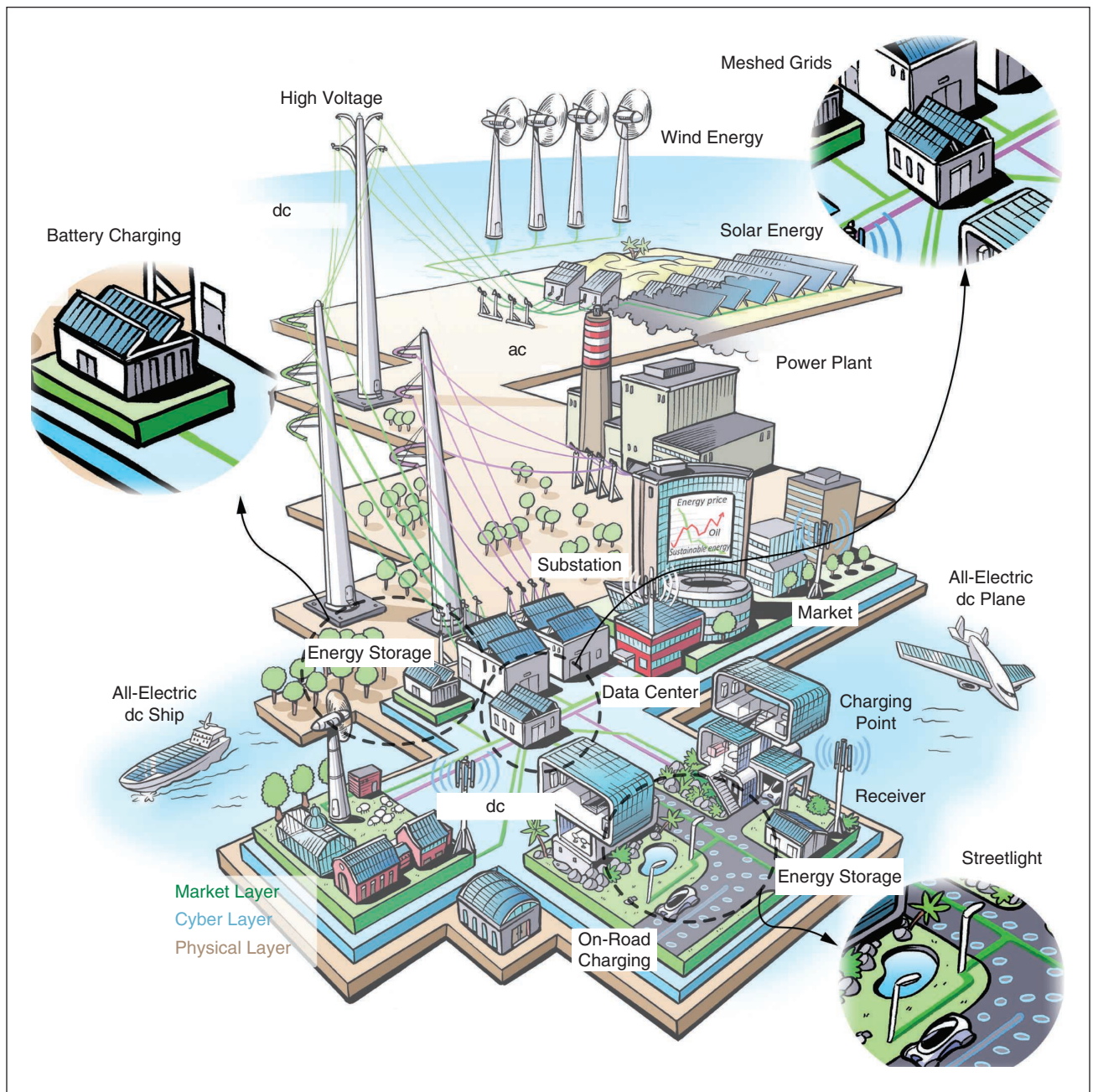


FIGURE 1 – A future smart city based on LVdc distribution microgrids. (Source: [2].)

systems [11]. The port of Amsterdam has also adopted the use of dc technologies [12]. A PV-powered dc test-bed with an office LED lighting system showed a potential electricity savings of up to 5% [13]. Using LVdc in data centers can double the mean time between failures when a single uninterruptible power supply per path is used [14].

Moreover, pilot projects, such as [15] and [16], exhibit efficiencies increased by 7–10%. The LVdc office building in [6] demonstrated up to 5.5% energy savings compared to a comparable ac system. An energy-neutral teaching facility that uses LVdc distribution was also demonstrated [17]. One of the first field demonstrations with a 100-kW LVdc bipolar power distribution system was shown to maintain a continuity of supply despite several medium-voltage ac interruptions [18]. A larger system with 160-kW installed PVs, which integrates LEDs, air conditioning, and electric vehicle (EV) charging, was demonstrated in [19].

Figure 2 shows an overview of the current status of LVdc adaptation in different power distribution applications [20]. The first of the three

## Already at the end of 19th century, it was clear that, without a device to arbitrarily control the voltage level, LVdc systems could not outperform ac polyphase systems.

defined technology readiness levels is the pilot phase, in which the feasibility of LVdc for a given market is experimentally demonstrated on a small scale. Next is the market-ready phase, in which the first commercialized systems start to appear, followed by the maturity stage at a selected threshold level of 10% market share. LVdc, at the present moment, has a strong foothold in niche markets, especially in private-owned energy distribution systems [20], [21]. Furthermore, LVdc market growth is expected, especially in RESs and ESSs, electromobility, data centers, and utility buildings [21].

### Development Challenges and Opportunities

A lack of cost-competitive, market-ready components is one of the major

barriers in accelerating the adoption of LVdc technologies in utility and office buildings because the cost of retrofitting is high. This can be addressed with incentives, such as power over Ethernet and the new USB standards [21]. Another significant drawback is the lack of standards and good practices, which are relevant for the installation, operational know-how, and maintenance of these systems [8], [20], [22].

The solutions offered in this article particularly consider the technological challenges that stem from the specific protection requirements of LVdc systems and bidirectional power flow (PFC). The implementation of both of these operational objectives must maintain adequately high efficiency. Furthermore, short circuit protection must conform to selectivity

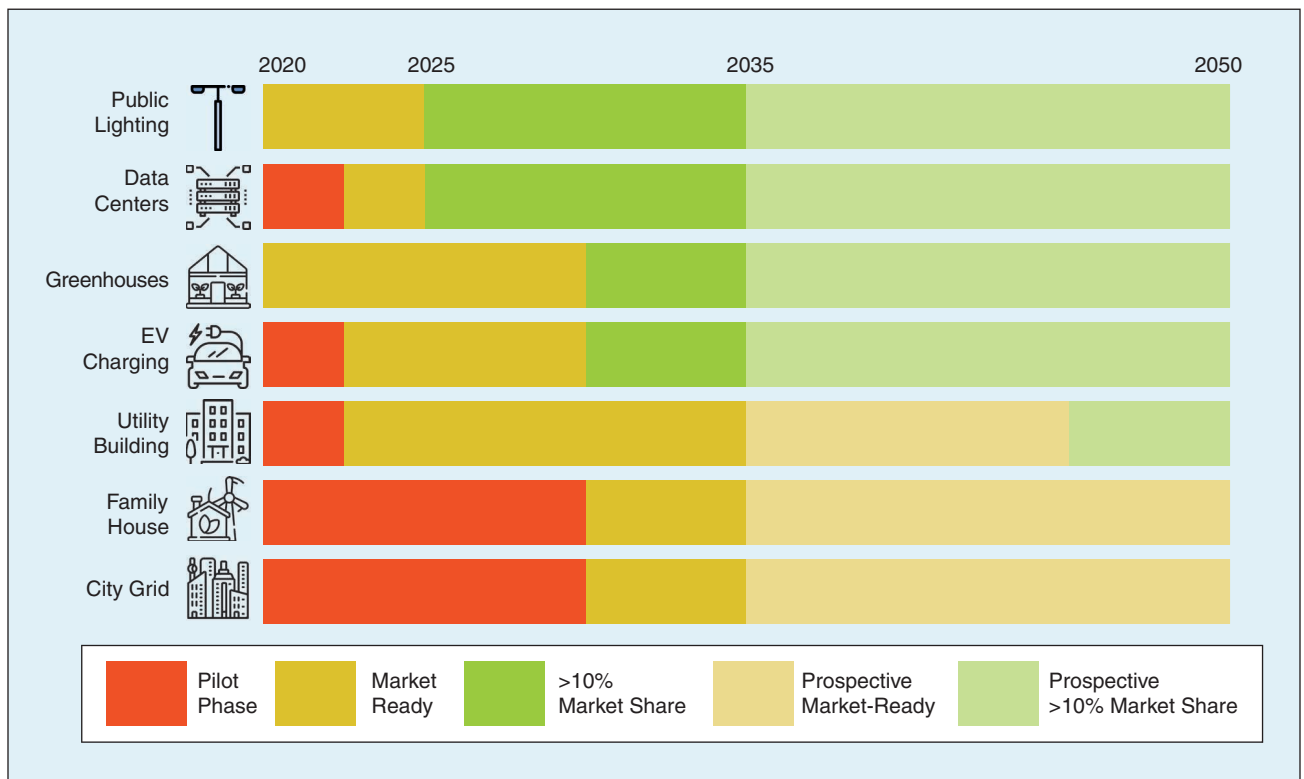


FIGURE 2 – The status of dc applications and outlook on their market readiness.

## The solutions offered in this article particularly consider the technological challenges that stem from the specific protection requirements of LVdc systems and bidirectional power flow.

requirements and have rapid interruption capability to limit the sharp rise in fault currents and the energy supplied in this duration. Therefore, in the following sections, an SBB is presented that offers a solution for both technological challenges.

The power flow in a single nonradial dc microgrid can be controlled by coordinating the operation of the participating nodes [23]. If multiple dc microgrids are connected, then the power flowing between the two microgrids is given by the bus voltages. This is potentially undesirable, e.g., the bus voltages are the same when power transfer is needed. Similarly, when multiple paths exist for the current to flow through, the control over the power flow in some lines is lost. An undesirable consequence can be the overheating of these lines. Even if the electrical spring concept is used, such as in [24], the control over the power flow in the interconnection line is not gained. Therefore, PFC devices are necessary.

The three conceptual solutions for PFC are illustrated in Figure 3. The variable line resistance method shown in Figure 3(a) is inherently inefficient [25]–[27]. A high-potential solution is a dedicated dc–dc converter. In the meantime, several solutions have been proposed. Simpler nonisolated topologies for PFC were proposed in [28] and

[29]. The advantage of these is the reduced number of components; however, the functionality is also reduced.

In [30], a high-ratio, capacitively isolated dc–dc converter was proposed for PFC. A flyback-based topology was proposed in [31]. Thanks to its versatility and robustness, a dual-active-bridge converter showed promise for application in dc microgrids, and its operation was described in [32] and [33]. The disadvantage of a dedicated dc–dc converter, as shown in Figure 3(b), is that it must be rated for the maximum power transferred ( $P_{\text{flow}}$ ) between the two nodes [30], [34]. The cost and losses can be prohibitive for such a fully rated PEC solution.

The solution shown in Figure 3(c) is a compromise between the prior two concepts, wherein a controlled floating voltage ( $V_{\text{series}}$ ) mimics the drop across a variable virtual resistance. The approach to inject series voltage [35] or current [36] avoids the problem of using fully rated components. Since the required PEC components are rated only for a fraction of  $P_{\text{flow}}$ , it is referred to as a *partially rated PFC converter (PFCC)* [27], [35], [37], [38]. Later, the stability of this approach was investigated in [39], and small-signal modeling was performed in [40]. The proposed concept of a PFCC for dc systems is complementary to the so-called unified power flow controller-based flexible ac

transmission systems in traditional ac distribution grids [41]–[43].

Considering short circuits, the consensus for LVdc protection converges to two solutions: hybrid circuit breakers (HCBs) [44] and SSCBs [45], [46]. The main advantage of HCBs is their low on-state losses and ability to interrupt short circuits in the range of milliseconds [44]. However, this fault clearance time can result in short circuit current peaks that are hundreds of thousands of times higher than the nominal currents [47], which necessitates significant oversizing of all of the grid components [48].

Therefore, for small dc nanogrids or microgrids, fast SSCBs are preferred [49]. Two main challenges regarding the use of SSCBs are the on-state losses [50], [51] and overvoltage suppression [45]. A popular choice for SSCBs are silicon (Si) insulated-gate bipolar transistors [45], Si MOSFETs [49], and their Si carbide (SiC) counterparts. Integrated gate-commutated thyristor-based solutions prove to be more efficient in systems with a nominal current in the range of kiloamperes [52].

### SBBs

The schematic of the partially rated PFCC composed of power electronic switch-based high-voltage (HV) and LV sides (HVSs and LVSs, respectively) is shown in Figure 4. The purpose is to regulate the power flow ( $P_{\text{flow}}$ ) between two nodes ( $n_1, n_2$ ) with voltages  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  by injecting a relatively small controlled series voltage  $V_{\text{series}}$ .

It will be shown that the power processed by the PFCC ( $P_{\text{PFCC}}$ ) is a relatively small fraction of  $P_{\text{flow}}$ . Consequently, it can be inferred that components used for composing the HVS and LVS can be derated in accordance with the respective partial current and voltage requirements during full load operation. A more detailed working principle as well as system protection during short circuit faults at  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  is experimentally described in the “Experiments” section.

### Equivalent Circuits

The full PFCC circuit is shown in Figure 4. The PFCC injects a stable dc voltage in

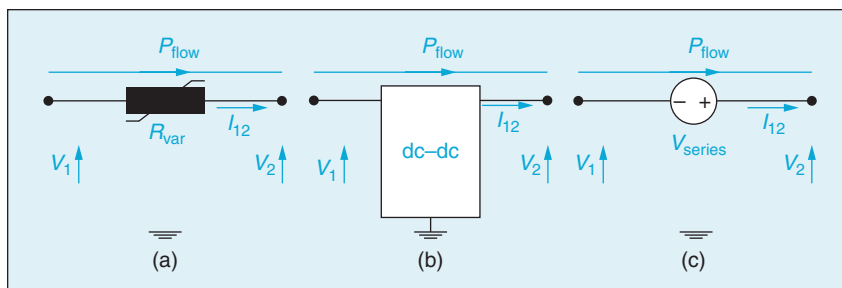


FIGURE 3 – The LVdc microgrid basic PFC options showing the (a) variable resistor, (b) fully rated dc–dc converter, and (c) floating voltage source.

series with the line. Therefore, the LVS can be represented by a voltage source. The power that the PFCC injects in the form of series voltage is taken from the system by the HVS. The HVS does not regulate the bus voltage; however, it behaves as a current source that sinks power. The two sources are coupled. The power that is taken from the dc system by the HVS is reinjected by the LVS, and part of it is dissipated.

The equivalent circuit of the PFCC is shown in Figure 5. The presented abstraction is used as the key building block for different system-level applications proposed in this article.

The current  $I_{PFCC}$  drawn by the building block is given by

$$I_{PFCC} = \frac{P_{PFCC}}{V_t} = \frac{P_{flow} V_{series}}{\eta V_t V_t'}, \quad (1)$$

where  $V_{series}$  is the control action that results in the desired  $P_{flow}$  between terminals with voltages  $V_t$  and  $V_t'$ . It must be noted that  $P_{flow}$  and  $V_t'$  are intimately related and govern the current flow  $I_{flow}$  between the two terminals. Therefore, the PFCC block can be used in different applications that require the functionality to regulate these three operating parameters in the system as a function of  $V_{series}$ .

### Operating Efficiency and Loss Breakdown

The factor  $\eta$  in (1) is the efficiency of the PFCC building block that relates the block power loss  $P_{loss}$  to the processed PFCC power, including the component losses in HVS, LVS, and SSCB, as described by

$$P_{loss} = (1 - \eta) P_{PFCC}. \quad (2)$$

For the defined system-level efficiency  $\eta_{sys}$ , neglecting the losses due to the line impedances, the equality described by (3) must be followed:

$$(1 - \eta_{sys}) P_{flow} = (1 - \eta) P_{PFCC}. \quad (3)$$

Since  $P_{PFCC} \ll P_{flow}$ , it is inferred that  $\eta_{sys} \gg \eta$  as can be observed from the simulated efficiency curve shown in Figure 6.

The presented results are based on a detailed switch model developed in the Power Electronics Simulation Platform. The HV switches used in the PFCC are C3M0030090K and IPB017N10N5 for the LV part of the PFCC.

While the shown results are representative and can be different depending on the design considerations, the highlighted principle is that the system-level efficiency for achieving the desired control objective is high even if

the actual converter efficiency itself is relatively lower. The loss breakdown for different block components is shown in Figure 6(c). In addition to the potential system-level efficiency improvement, the material usage, size, and—invariably—cost of the PFCC building block is lower compared to a fully rated dc-dc converter, considering that the passive as well as active components in the HVS and LVS are derated.

### Scalability

In the next section, a wide spectrum of applications is discussed that spans across power levels. The PFCC building block has a HVS and LVS where different requirements are placed on the semiconductor. On the HVS, the semiconductor switch has to be rated for the system voltage. In this article, only systems with

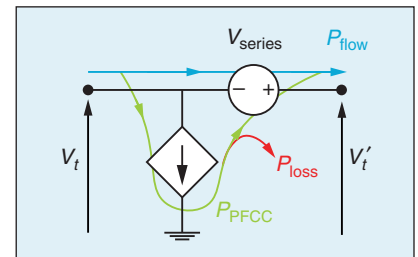


FIGURE 5 – An equivalent circuit of the proposed building block.

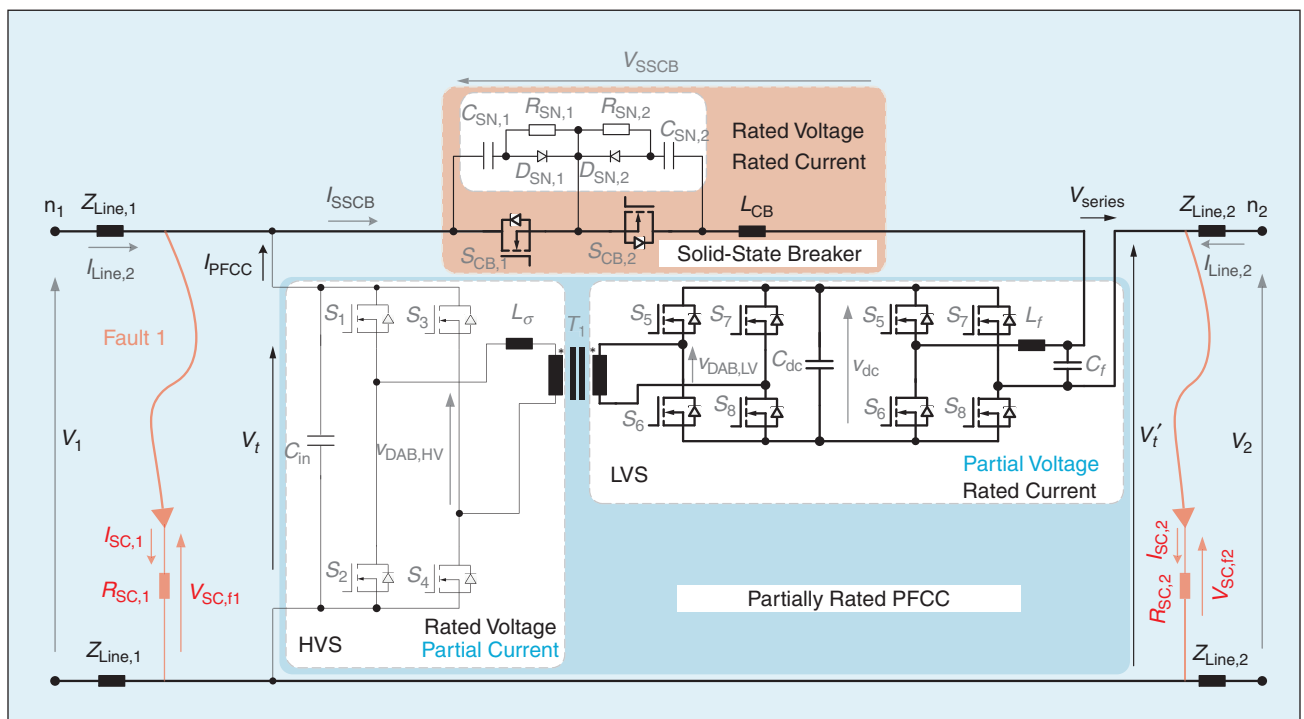


FIGURE 4 – The PFCC for LVdc grids with integrated short circuit protection.



## Considering short circuits, the consensus for LVdc protection converges to two solutions: hybrid circuit breakers and SSCBs.

voltages under 1.5 kV are assumed. The HVS in the proposed concept can be scaled to these system voltages with emerging SiC MOSFETs that go beyond the 1.7-kV rating. Since the current flowing through the HVS is only a fraction of the system current, higher-voltage SiC MOSFETs are ideal candidates.

On the LVS, semiconductors conduct the system current; however, the operating voltage is in the range of tens of volts for the considered systems. The state-of-the-art Si MOSFETs rated under

100 V have very low on-resistance and are easy to parallel. Therefore, the semiconductor components used in the PFCC do not prohibit scaling the building block for systems with operating currents up to 500 A. Moreover, the PFCCs can be easily paralleled to increase the power rating, as shown in [35].

The passive components are high-frequency transformers and capacitors used within the dual active bridge (DAB) converter. As discussed previously, the voltage ratio is relatively high; however,

the operating requirements placed on the passive components within the DAB are well within the operating areas described in the literature. The block has a filter on the output that consists of an inductor and a capacitor. The voltage rating is relatively small. However, the current flowing through the filter is the full system current. The inductor size rises with the current peak, and a careful design is needed to avoid saturation. The capacitor, on the other hand, benefits from a very small operating voltage, and standard multilayer ceramic capacitors can be used.

Based on the discussion, the system is scalable within the scope of LVdc systems. However, works such as [53] show that similar concepts can find applications even in medium-voltage dc or HVdc systems.

The SSCBs must be rated for the full system voltage and currents. An exhaustive discussion on the limitations of SSCBs is out of the scope of this article. However, the SSCB prototypes reviewed in the “LVdc Promise and Outlook” section show the feasibility of their application in LVdc systems.

### Applications

In the previous section, the key benefits and operation principle of the developed building block were presented. Now, the equivalent circuit is used in three different applications, which are at different market adaptation levels. They were chosen such that they represent three different control roles and have different sizing requirements. Thus, each example reveals new insights about the proposed building block.

### DC Charging

Interfacing batteries with dc systems is often done via synchronous buck converters when galvanic isolation during

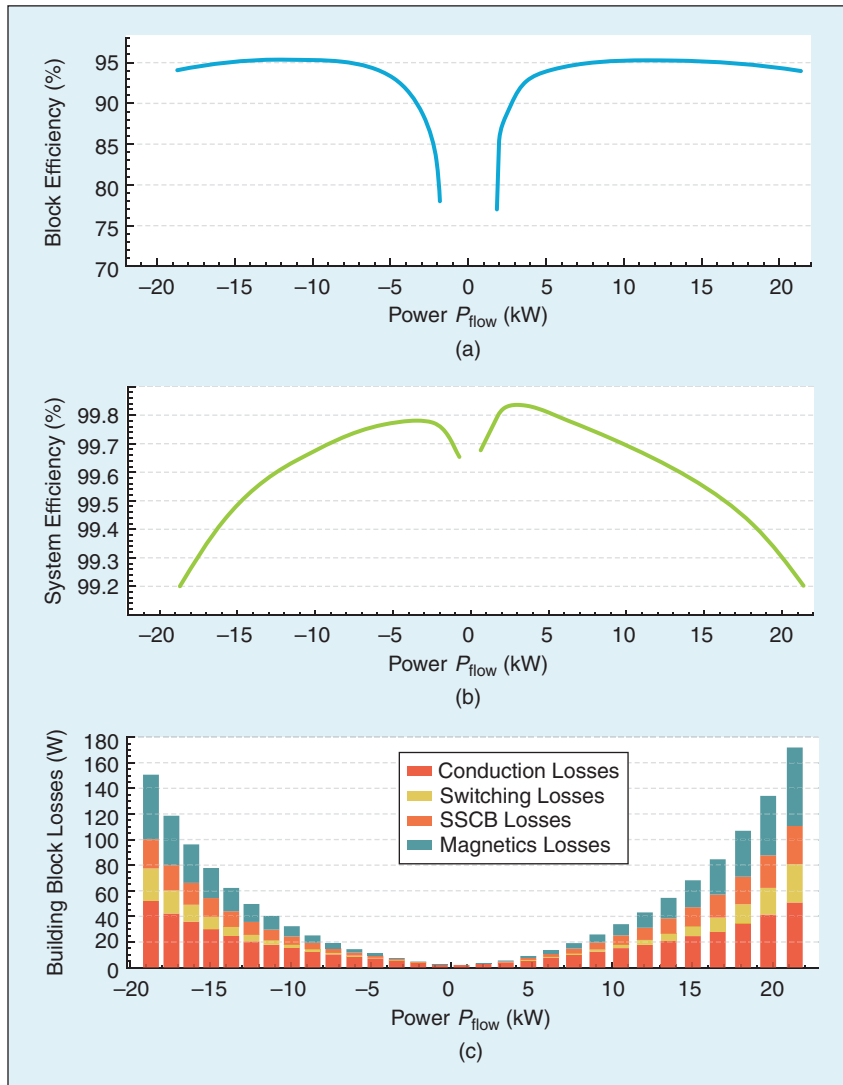


FIGURE 6 – The SBB efficiency: the (a) building block level efficiency  $\eta$ , (b) system efficiency  $\eta_{sys}$ , and (c) loss breakdown.

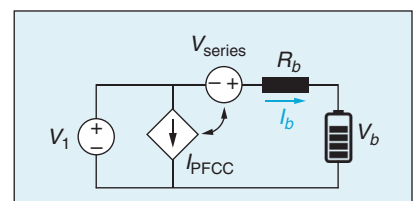


FIGURE 7 – A simplified equivalent circuit representing dc charging with a PFCC.

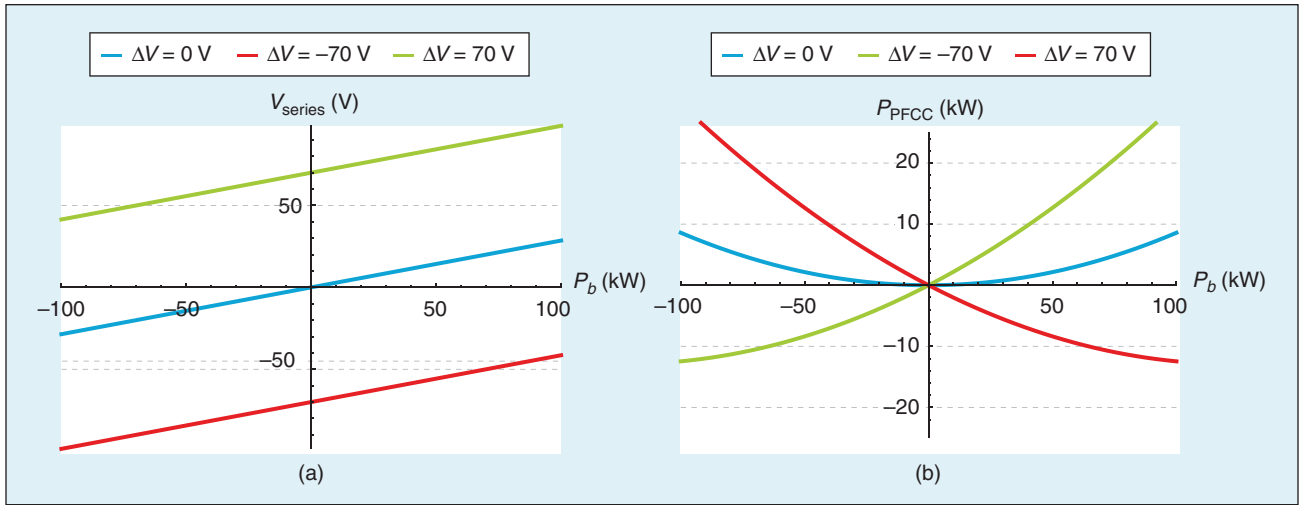


FIGURE 8 – The dc battery charging with PFCC: the (a) series voltage of and (b) power processed by the PFCC as a function of the battery power.

normal operation is not required. The galvanic isolation during faults is provided by external circuit breakers and mechanical contactors. The proposed building block can interrupt faults, and only mechanical contactors are added to ensure galvanic isolation. A simplified circuit of battery charging with a PFCC is shown in Figure 7. For simplicity's sake, the battery is assumed to behave like a voltage source with small internal resistance. Furthermore, no resistance between the source and PFCC is assumed. By analyzing the circuit in Figure 7, the following equations can be written:

$$V_{\text{series}} = \frac{P_b R_b}{V_b} - \frac{(V_1 - V_b)}{\Delta V}, \quad (4)$$

$$P_{\text{PFCC}} = \frac{P_b}{\eta V_b} V_{\text{series}}, \quad (5)$$

where  $P_b$  is the battery power, and  $V_b$  is the battery terminal voltage.

Figure 8 shows the results of the simplified system when the nominal dc voltage is  $V_1 = 350$  V, and the internal battery resistance is  $R_b = 0.1 \Omega$ . Figure 8(a) illustrates the series voltage injected by the PFCC during charging at different voltage drops. The voltage drop range is 40%, which is the maximum operating voltage drop of most batteries.

The first observation from Figure 8(a) is that the maximum required series voltage for the given range of  $P_b$  is smaller than one fifth of the nominal grid voltage. The total range of the series voltage is, therefore, within

one third of the nominal voltage; i.e., for the system used in this example, the operating voltage of the PFCC on the LVS is only  $\pm 100$  V. This small processed voltage translates to small power processed.

Figure 8(b) shows the power processed in the PFCC as a function of the charging power. For the nominal case, when the battery voltage is the same as the source voltage, the power processed is 10-times smaller than the charging power. This ratio is less favorable in extreme cases when the battery voltage is 20% higher or smaller than the grid voltage. However, even in extreme cases, the PFCC processes only one fifth of the total charging power. The PFCC maintains the advantage of partial processing. It should also be noted that, normally, the batteries are operated with smaller voltage drops to prevent fast battery degrading.

### DC Streetlights

Street lighting was, historically, the first major application of electricity

that brought major benefits in terms of increased life quality. Street lighting also seems to be the first major application opened for dc distribution. The motivation to use dc in street lighting stems from the decreased use of incandescent and high-pressure sodium bulbs due to concerns about their negative impact on the environment. Municipalities are seeking to retrofit lights with more energy-efficient LEDs as well as install a remote monitoring and control system. Already-existing dc pilot projects are in the port of Amsterdam and A4 highway in Delft, The Netherlands.

Consider only the shaded gray region of the equivalent circuit shown in Figure 9. This is representative of a street-lighting system of  $N$  poles equally spaced  $d = 20$  m apart without a PFCC. The lumped power drawn by  $N$  lamps in such a system can be represented by a current sink  $I_{\Sigma,1}$  and is given by

$$I_{\Sigma,1} = \frac{NP_{\text{lamp}}}{v_t}. \quad (6)$$

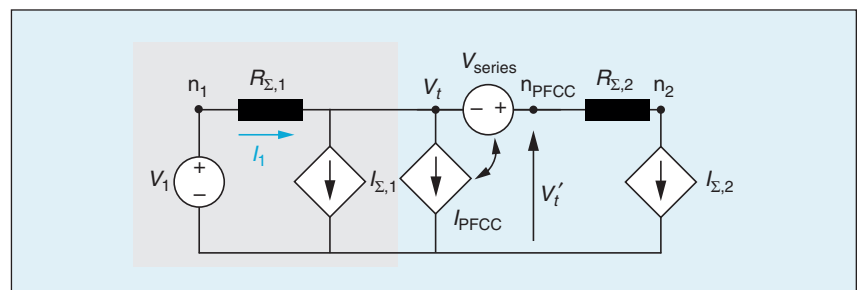


FIGURE 9 – An equivalent circuit of a streetlight system with a PFCC. The shaded gray part can be considered as the equivalent circuit of a streetlight system without a PFCC installed.

## The motivation to use dc in street lighting stems from the decreased use of incandescent and high-pressure sodium bulbs due to concerns about their negative impact on the environment.

Here, the rated power drawn by a single lamp is taken as  $P_{\text{lamp}} = 50 \text{ W}$ . The lumped resistance  $R_{\Sigma,1} = NdR$  is estimated assuming a line resistance  $R = 6.57 \Omega/\text{km}$ . The voltage profile along the feeder line in the absence of PFCC-based voltage regulation is shown with a solid black line in Figure 10(a). It can be observed that the allowable drop in line voltage ( $V_{\text{min}}$  assumed at 10% of  $V_{\text{nom}}$ , shown by the red line) limits the line length to approximately 800 m corresponding to  $N = 40$  for the considered parameters, as given by

$$N \leq \sqrt{\frac{V_{\text{nom}} - V_{\text{min}}}{dR i_{r,\text{max}}}}, \quad (7)$$

where  $i_{r,\text{max}} = P_{\text{lamp}}/V_{\text{min}}$  is the maximum operating current of a single

lamp. In case the PFCC element is added to regulate  $V_i$  to the nominal system voltage ( $V_{\text{nom}}$ ), as shown in Figure 9, the number of series-connected lamps can be extended to  $N_{\text{ext}} = N_{\text{max}} + \Delta N$ . It can be inferred that  $N_{\text{max}}$  lamps can be installed between the output terminal of the PFCC and the end node  $n_2$ .

Correspondingly, the lumped resistances in such a system are given by  $R_{\Sigma,1} = \Delta NdR$  and  $R_{\Sigma,2} = N_{\text{max}}dR$ . The currents  $I_{\Sigma,1}$  and  $I_{\Sigma,2}$  are related to the lumped power drawn by  $N = \Delta N$  and  $N = N_{\text{max}}$  lamps, respectively, as described by (6). The maximum possible line extension corresponds to the maximum lamps  $\Delta n_{\text{max}}$  between the source node  $n_1$  and input terminal of the PFCC such that the limit  $V_i \leq V_{\text{min}}$  is not breached.

It can be seen from Figure 10(a) (blue line) that the length can be increased by about 50% to approximately 1,260 m, corresponding to  $\Delta n_{\text{max}} = 23$  for the given operating conditions. It should be noted that, in this article, only a single PFCC is considered, and further extension is possible if multiple PFCCs are used.

Assume that the voltage-regulating PFCC is installed such that  $N_{\text{max}}$  lamps exist between its output node  $n'_{\text{pfcc}}$  and the end node  $n_2$ . The operating PFCC voltage ( $V_{\text{series}}$ ) and processed power ( $P_{\text{PFCC}}$ ) as a function of the extended number of lamps ( $\Delta n$ ) in the system is shown in Figure 10(b) and (c), respectively. For example, if the streetlight system is extended to power 10 extra lamps ( $\Delta n = 10$ ), the PFCC needs to inject a small  $V_{\text{series}} \approx 10 \text{ V}$  such that  $V_i = V_{\text{nom}} = 350 \text{ V}$ . The corresponding power processed  $P_{\text{PFCC}} \approx 50 \text{ W}$  is one tenth of the additional load power associated with the extra lamps installed.

Consequently, it can be inferred that benefits in terms of the installation cost and operating efficiency of the system can be attractive as compared

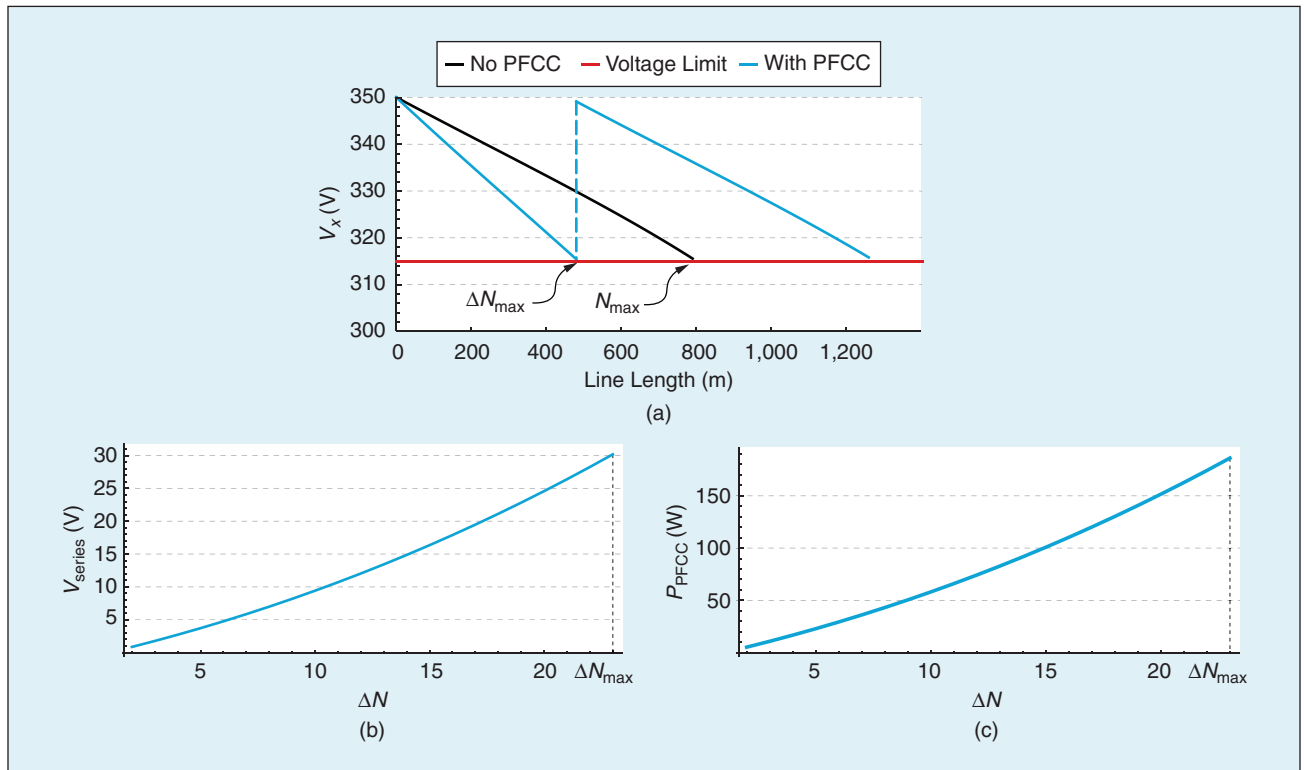


FIGURE 10 – The voltage drop compensation in the street-lighting system: the (a) voltage profile of the system without (black) and with the PFCC (cyan) as well as the (b) series voltage and (c) power processed by the PFCC, both shown as functions of the number of added lamps.

to conventional solutions, such as re-conductoring, multiple parallel paths, or the use of a fully rated converter. The limit for  $\Delta n_{\max}$  can further be increased if  $V_i > V_{\text{nom}}$  is permissible. The discussed use of a PFCC building block specifically for line voltage regulation can be similarly conceptualized for other dc applications, such as power distribution to residential buildings.

Figure 11 shows an outlook on the possible line extension when multiple PFCCs are used in the same system. The trend in the figure shows saturation after several PFCCs are added. However, it is worth underlining that, in theory, it is possible to extend the line length by 400%, see (8) at the bottom of the page.

### Meshed dc Networks

Considering the potential benefits of dc technologies in markets like streetlights, charging stations, data centers, and utility buildings, it is anticipated that interconnecting such systems to form a dc distribution grid is plausible, as illustrated in Figure 1. The possible advantage of this strategy is improved system availability and efficiency, particularly when meshed topology is employed. When several paths for current to flow along exist, extra care must be taken to ensure that no line is overloaded. A PFCC can enhance the power capacity of the meshed system and ensure that the interconnecting lines are not overloaded.

Figure 12 shows a simplified schematic of a basic meshed network. If  $V_1$  is assumed to be the same as  $V_2$ , two paths exist for the current to flow along from the voltage source  $V_1$  to the load, represented by the power source  $I_N = P_N/V_N$ . The power source can both sink and source power.

If the voltage  $V_{\text{series}}$  is zero, the current flow in the two paths is given by the resistance ratio  $k = R_{\text{line},2}/R_{\text{line},1}$ . For the sake of this example, in the following analysis, the ratio is assumed to be equal to two, implying that the current flowing in line 1 will be two times as

## A PFCC can enhance the power capacity of the meshed system and ensure that the interconnecting lines are not overloaded.

high as the current flowing in line 2. If the system further operates at a nominal voltage  $V_1 = V_2 = 350$  V, and the line resistance  $R_{\text{line},x} = 6.57$  ( $\Omega/\text{km}$ ), line 1 is 100 m long. The maximum carrying capability of the line is 35 A. Figure 13(a) shows the currents in a network defined by these parameters and assumptions.

As expected, the current in line 1 in Figure 13(a) has double the amplitude compared to the current in line 2. The current in line 1 also reaches the maximum current-carrying capability faster than the current in line 2 for both scenarios when the power source  $P_N$  is sourcing, i.e.,  $P_N > 0$ , and when it sinks

power, i.e.,  $P_N < 0$ . The voltage of the series source is calculated as shown in (8).

The series voltage can be calculated by solving Kirchhoff's current equations for the maximum line current  $I_{1,\max}$  for the circuit in Figure 12. The series voltage is a function of the line's maximum current-carrying capability, ratio of the path resistances  $k$ , system voltage  $V_1$ , and power transferred  $P_N$ . The series voltage is zero, while the maximum current limit in the line in which it is installed is not breached. The series voltage has a maximum limit that ensures that the current in line 2 is not breached either; the voltage limit is expressed in (9). The maximum

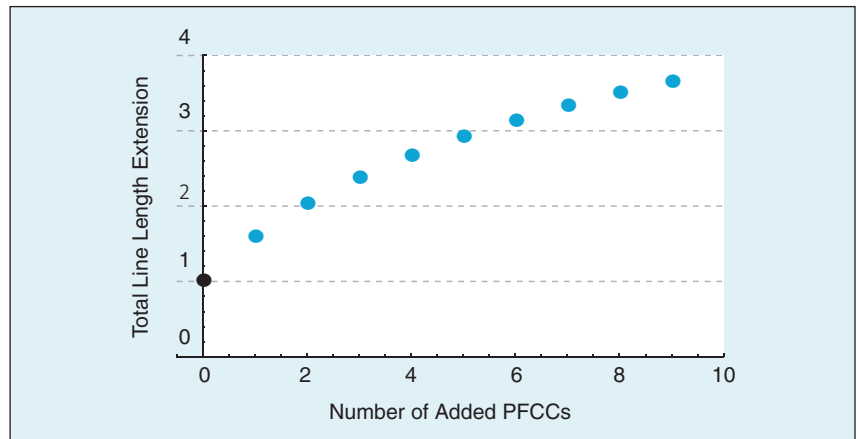


FIGURE 11 – A possible streetlight line extension with multiple PFCCs.

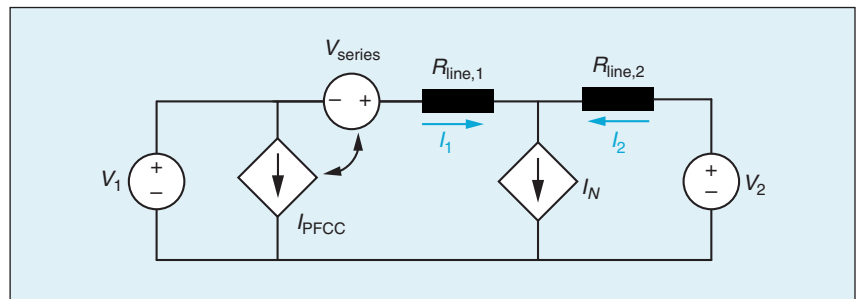


FIGURE 12 – An equivalent circuit of a three-node meshed LVdc grid with a PFCC.

$$|V_{\text{series}}| = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left( (2+k)I_{1,\max}R_{\text{line},1} - V_1 + \sqrt{(kI_{1,\max}R_{\text{line},1} + V_1)^2 - 4kP_N R_{\text{line},1}} \right) & \Leftrightarrow |I_1| \geq I_{1,\max} \\ 0 & \Leftrightarrow I_{1,\min} \geq I_1 \geq I_{1,\max} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$



allowed series voltage is calculated from Kirchhoff's current equations of the circuit in Figure 12 when solved for  $I_{1,\max}$  and  $I_{2,\max}$ :

$$|V_{\text{series,max}}| = R_{\text{line},1} \left( \frac{P_N}{V_1 - kI_{2,\max}R_{\text{line},1}} - (1+k)I_{2,\max} \right). \quad (9)$$

Figure 13(b) shows the voltage  $V_{\text{series}}$  as a function of power  $P_N$ ; clearly, the series voltage needed to ensure the current limit in both lines is less than 10% of the nominal grid voltage. Figure 13(c) shows the power processed by the PFCC, which is less than 1 kW for both directions of power flow. The gain in the power transfer capacity is 2.5 kW and 8 kW for power sinking and sourcing by  $I_N$ , respectively.

The difference in the power enhancement capability, in this particular case, stems from the placement of the controlled current source  $I_{\text{PFCC}}$ . When power node  $P_N$  is sinking power, the current flows from the voltage source

$V_1$ . The current  $I_1$  is a combination of the current supplied to the load and  $I_{\text{PFCC}}$ . If the current is supplied from  $V_1$ , then, in addition to  $I_N$ ,  $I_{\text{PFCC}}$  also has to be supplied, thus reducing the net amount of power that can be supplied to power source  $P_N$  via line 1. In the opposite direction, the effect is reversed. To gain the most power enhancement, the PFCC should be installed in both lines. Given that the very low power rating of the PFCC is sufficient, such installations are feasible.

### Experiments

The goal of the experiment is twofold. The first aim is to demonstrate the operation in a simple two-node connection, similar to a dc charging application. The second is to closely emulate the conditions during a bolted short circuit, i.e., almost zero fault resistance. The short circuit emulation demonstrates the capability of the proposed combination to protect the derated components from failure during grid faults.

The PFCC prototype electrical parameters and those of the SSCB and line are summarized in Table 1. A controllable short circuit is created with a MOSFET with an  $R_{\text{ds,on}}$  of 20 m $\Omega$ , which creates a good approximation of a bolted short circuit. The nodes  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are emulated using the Delta Elektronika SM15K series power supplies. The nominal voltage during all experiments is 350 V on both nodes. A simplified schematic of the experimental setup is shown in Figure 14.

### PFCC Operation

The experimental results obtained during normal operation of the PFCC are shown in Figure 15(a) and (b). The PFCC controls the power flow between two nodes  $n_1$  and  $n_2$ , as illustrated in the schematic in Figure 4. The experiment starts when both nodes  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  reach the nominal voltage, i.e., 350 V. The SSCB is closed and remains in the conducting state during the experiments, i.e., MOSFETs  $S_{\text{CB},1}$  and  $S_{\text{CB},2}$  are turned on.

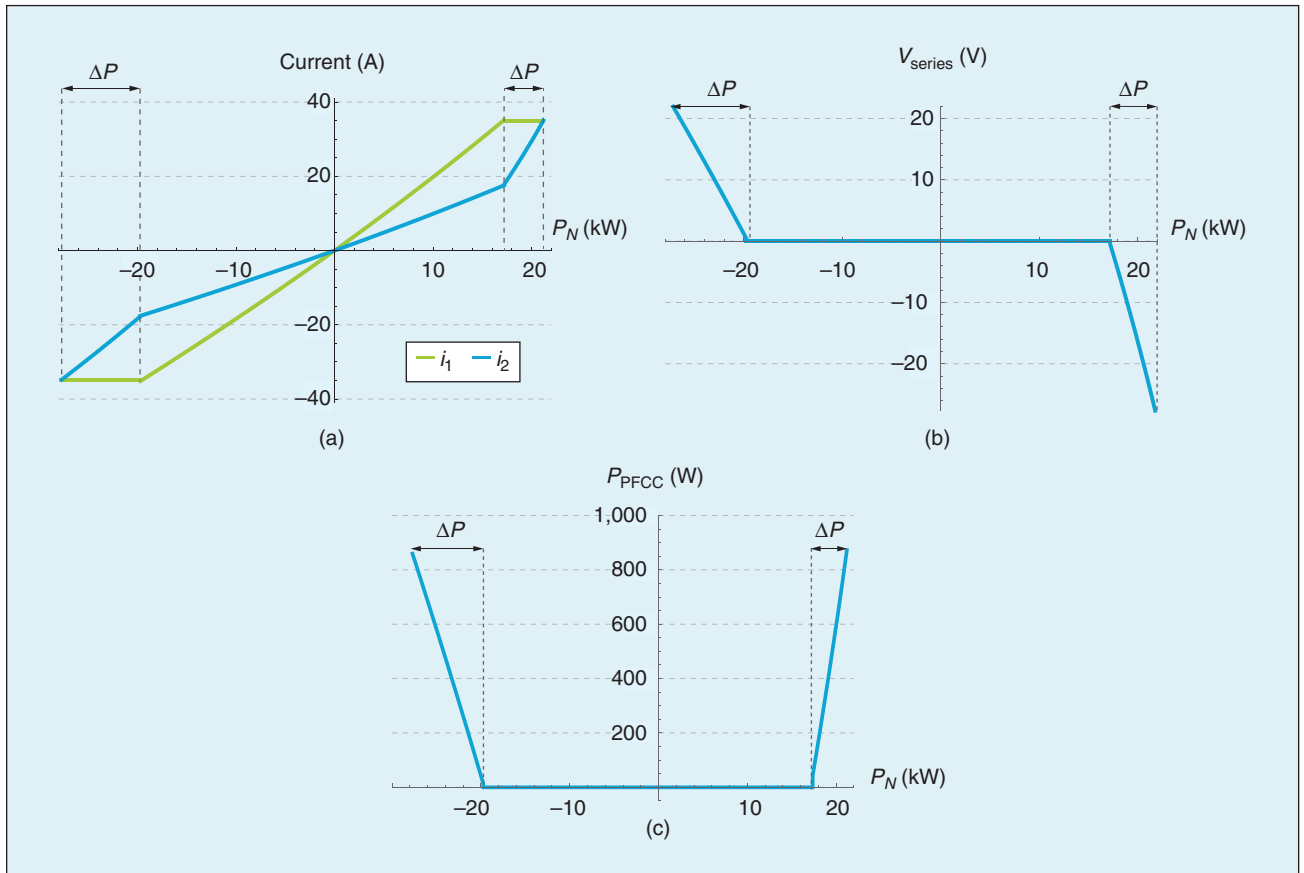


FIGURE 13 – The current rerouting in a meshed LVdc microgrid: the (a) line currents as a function of the transferred power as well as the (b) series voltage of the PFCC and (c) PFCC processed power, both shown as a function of the transferred power  $P_N$ .



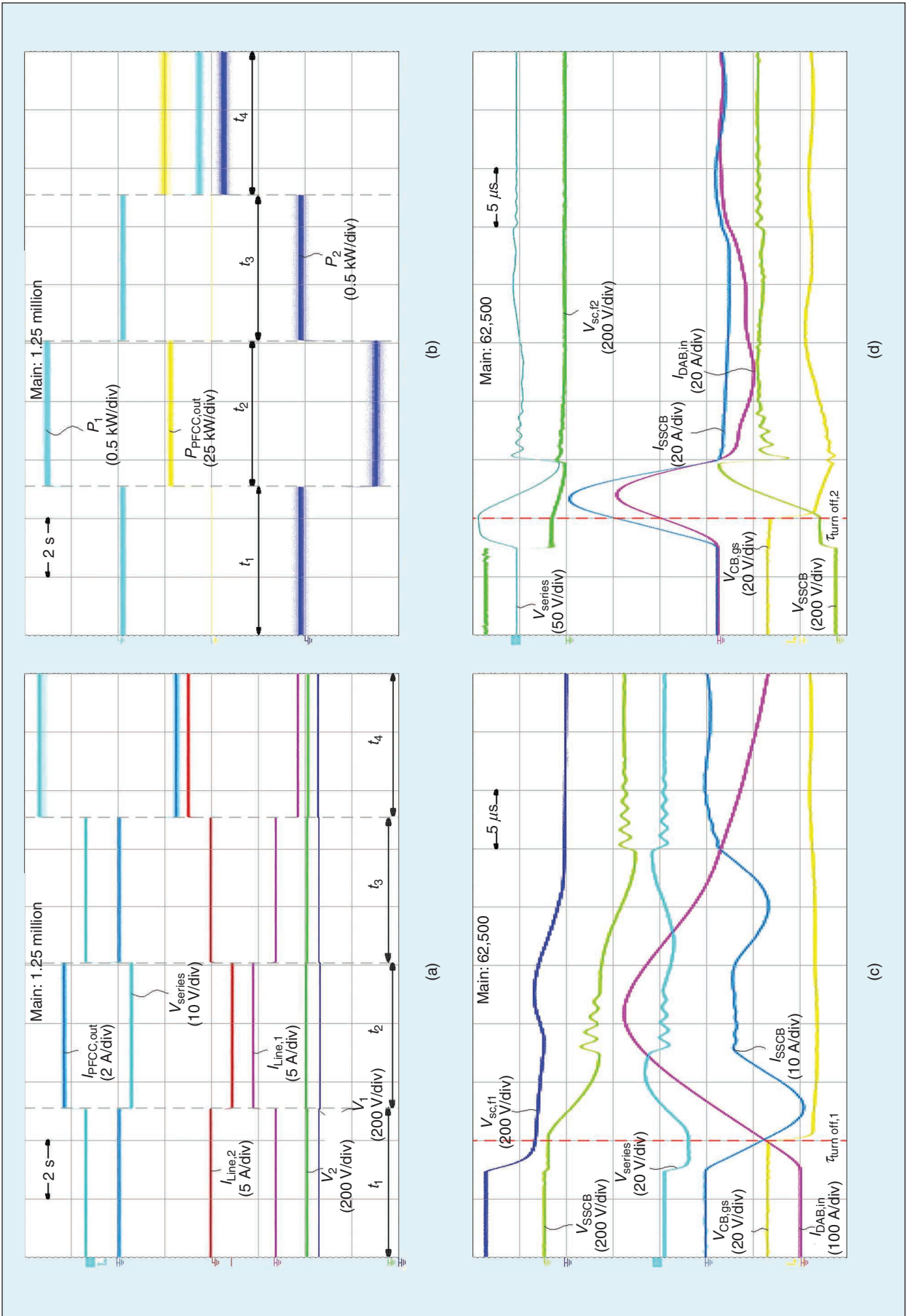


FIGURE 15 – The operational waveforms of the PFCC and SSCB: the (a) waveforms during PFCC by the PFCC and (b) powers. Also shown are the variables during short circuit faults (c) 1 and (d) 2. div: division of the axis.

inductance  $L_{CB}$ . The peak current amplitude reached by the  $I_{SSCB}$  is around 60 A. However, a bulk of short circuit power is supplied from node  $n_2$ , but it does not flow through the building block.

During fault 2, the voltage  $V_{series}$  rises sharply to 50 V before the time  $\tau_{turnoff,2}$ , when MOSFETs  $S_{CB,1}$  and  $S_{CB,2}$  are turned off. This sharp rise is also visible on the voltage  $V_{SSCB}$ . After  $\tau_{turnoff}$ , the current  $I_{SSCB}$  continues to rise, as does the voltage  $V_{SSCB}$ . When the current  $I_{SSCB}$  reverses, so does the voltage  $V_{series}$ . It is notable, however, that the voltage  $V_{series}$  stabilizes after 30  $\mu$ s, and the PFCC can return into stable operation.

## Conclusion and Outlook

The technology discussed in this article pertains to a building block that is integrated with LVdc systems to give a scalable, compact, and derated solution for power and voltage regulation. A combination of a PFCC and fully rated SSCB is used for interesting dc applications, such as charge control for batteries, the voltage regulation of dc street-lighting systems, and current flow rerouting in meshed dc grids.

A simple steady-state equivalent model of a PFCC is used to demonstrate the role of the PFCC in three chosen applications, which are in various stages of technology readiness: street lighting, battery charging, and meshed LVdc grids. When used for battery charging, the PFCC acts as a charge controller and has to operate in a relatively large voltage range compared to other applications. However, even when the voltage swing is assumed to be 40% of the nominal grid voltage, the PFCC processes less than one third of the charging power.

The street-lighting system accumulates a voltage drop, which limits the segment length. The PFCC acts as a voltage compensator, which, in the presented scenario, extends the segment length by 50%. The prolonging of lines can bring potential economic benefits through material savings and easier installation.

Meshed grids in which the current follows along the path of least action

## The proposed building block enhances the power capacity of the grid by up to 40% while processing less than one tenth of the system power.

can run into local congestions. The proposed building block enhances the power capacity of the grid by up to 40% while processing less than one tenth of the system power. The building block can thus prevent the local congestion by rerouting the current in meshed LVdc systems or interconnected LVdc grids. In all three applications, the PFCC processes only a fraction of the total system power. This is the key to the economic savings and efficiency gains.

## Acknowledgment

Zian Qin is a corresponding author of this article.

## Biographies

**Pavel Purgat** (pavelpurgat@eaton.com) earned his Ph.D. degree in electrical sustainable engineering from Delft University of Technology, The Netherlands. He is with Eaton Industries in Vienna, 1210, Austria. His research interests include power electronics applications in power distribution, grid edge applications and Industry 4.0. He served as a technical session chair for the IEEE International Conference on dc Microgrids 2020 and an industrial session cochair of the IEEE Energy Conversion Congress and Exposition—Asia 2020.

**Aditya Shekhar** (a.shekhar@tudelft.nl) earned his Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from the Delft University of Technology, The Netherlands. He is an assistant professor at Delft University, Delft, 2628, The Netherlands. His research interests include the reliability of grid-connected power electronic converters. Previously, he was a visiting researcher at the University of Texas at Austin, USA, in 2016, where he studied the partial discharge behavior of cable insulation under high voltage.

**Zian Qin** (z.qin-2@tudelft.nl) earned his Ph.D. degree from Aalborg University, Aalborg, Denmark. He is an

assistant professor at Delft University of Technology, Delft, 2628, The Netherlands. His research interests include wide-bandgap devices, the power electronics-based grid, and power-to-X. He is an associate editor of IEEE Transactions on Industrial Electronics as well as guest associate editor of IEEE Journal of Emerging and Selected Topics and IEEE Transactions on Energy Conversion.

**Pavol Bauer** (p.bauer@ewi.tudelft.nl) earned his Ph.D. degree from Delft University of Technology. He is a full professor with the Department of Electrical Sustainable Energy of Delft University of Technology, Delft, 2628, The Netherlands, and head of the DC Systems, Energy Conversion, and Storage group. His research interests include wind and wave energy; power electronics applications for power systems such as Smarttrafo; high-voltage dc systems; and projects for smart cities, such as the photovoltaic (PV) charging of electric vehicles, PV and storage integration, and contactless charging. He participated in several Leonardo da Vinci and Horizon 2020 European Union projects as partner and coordinator.

## References

- [1] P. Fairley, "Dc versus ac: The second war of currents has already begun [In My View]," *IEEE Power Energy Mag.*, vol. 10, no. 6, pp. 104–103, 2012. doi: 10.1109/MPE.2012.2212617.
- [2] P. Bauer, "Intreeredes: How direct will the future be?" Lecture, TU Delft, Delft, The Netherlands, Nov. 2016.
- [3] D. L. Gerber, V. Vossos, W. Feng, C. Marnay, B. Nordman, and R. Brown, "A simulation-based efficiency comparison of ac and dc power distribution networks in commercial buildings," *Appl. Energy*, vol. 210, pp. 1167–1187, 2018. doi: 10.1016/j.apenergy.2017.05.179.
- [4] M. Noritake, K. Yuasa, T. Takeda, H. Hoshi, and K. Hirose, "Demonstrative research on dc microgrids for office buildings," in *Proc. IEEE 36th Int. Telecommun. Energy Conf. (INTELEC)*, Sept. 2014, pp. 1–5. doi: 10.1109/INTELEC.2014.6972180.
- [5] D. Fregosi et al., "A comparative study of dc and ac microgrids in commercial buildings across different climates and operating profiles," in *Proc. IEEE 1st Int. Conf. DC Microgrids (ICDCM)*, June 2015, pp. 159–164. doi: 10.1109/ICDCM.2015.7152031.



- [6] R. Weiss, L. Ott, and U. Boeke, "Energy efficient low-voltage dc-grids for commercial buildings," in *Proc. IEEE 1st Int. Conf. DC Microgrids (ICDCM)*, June 2015, pp. 154–158. doi: 10.1109/ICDCM.2015.7152030.
- [7] A. Lana et al., "On low-voltage dc network customer-end inverter energy efficiency," *IEEE Trans. Smart Grid*, vol. 5, no. 6, pp. 2709–2717, Nov 2014. doi: 10.1109/TSG.2014.2345022.
- [8] R. E. Brown, K. Vossos, K. Johnson, M. Khat-tar, and D. Gerber, "Review of dc power distribution in buildings: A technology and market assessment," Lawrence Berkeley National Lab., Rep. LBNL-2001006. [Online]. Available: <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/2dd536p>.
- [9] S. Moussa, M. J.-B. Ghorbal, and I. Slama-Belkhdja, "Bus voltage level choice for stand-alone residential dc nanogrid," *Sustainable Cities Soc.*, vol. 46, p. 101431, 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.scs.2019.101431.
- [10] L. Mackay, N. H. van der Blij, L. Ramirez-Elizondo, and P. Bauer, "Towards the universal DC distribution system," *Electric Power Components Syst., Taylor Francis*, vol. 45, no. 10, pp. 1032–1042, 2017. doi: 10.1080/15325008.2017.1318977.
- [11] "Pilots public lighting in four municipalities," 2016. [Online]. Available: <https://www.dc.systems/projects/8-main/130-pilots-public-lighting-in-four-municipals>
- [12] "Port of Amsterdam chooses for sustainable smart street lighting on dc and power by wind and solar energy," Amsterdam Smart City, 2016. [Online]. Available: <https://amsterdam-smartcity.com/projects/smart-street-lighting-powered-by-direct-current-at-port-of-amsterdam-4t0lug3v>
- [13] U. Boeke and M. Wendt, "Dc power grids for buildings," in *2015 IEEE 1st Int. Conf. on DC Microgrids (ICDCM)*, 2015, pp. 210–214. doi: 10.1109/ICDCM.2015.7152040.
- [14] B. R. Shrestha, U. Tamrakar, T. M. Hansen, B. P. Bhattarai, S. James, and R. Tonkoski, "Efficiency and reliability analyses of ac and 380v dc distribution in data centers," *IEEE Access*, vol. 6, pp. 63,305–63,315, Oct. 2018. doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2018.2877354.
- [15] "The high-voltage direct current(hvdc) power supply system from Sakura internets Ishikari solar power plant," Sakura, 2015. [Online]. Available: <https://www.sakura.ad.jp/en/corporate/datacenter/>
- [16] "Direct current in the data center: Are we there yet?" ABB Ltd., Zurich, Switzerland, 2020. [Online]. Available: [https://www.abb-conversations.com/2020/01/dc-in-the-data-center-are-we-there-yet/?\\_ga=2.10067773.987237760.1583761530-461144638.1581677382](https://www.abb-conversations.com/2020/01/dc-in-the-data-center-are-we-there-yet/?_ga=2.10067773.987237760.1583761530-461144638.1581677382)
- [17] "Pulse," TU Delft, Delft, The Netherlands, 2018. [Online]. Available: <https://campusdevelopment.tudelft.nl/en/project/pulse>
- [18] P. Nuutinen et al., "Research site for low-voltage direct current distribution in a utility network—Structure, functions, and operation," *IEEE Trans. Smart Grid*, vol. 5, no. 5, pp. 2574–2582, Sept. 2014. doi: 10.1109/TSG.2014.2308365.
- [19] F. Zhang et al., "Advantages and challenges of dc microgrid for commercial building a case study from xiamen university dc microgrid," in *Proc. IEEE 1st Int. Conf. DC Microgrids (ICDCM)*, June 2015, pp. 355–358. doi: 10.1109/ICDCM.2015.7152068.
- [20] M. van Werven, J. Warnaars, J. van Aken, and L. van der Laan, "Roadmap gelijkspanning" Top Sector Energie, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 2018. [Online]. Available: <https://www.topsectorenergie.nl/sites/default/files/uploads/Urban%20energy/publicaties/TKI%20Urban%20Energy%20-%20DC%20Roadmap.pdf>
- [21] T. Kaipia et al., "Survey of market prospects and standardisation development needs of hvdc technology," *CIREC—Open Access Proc. J.*, vol. 2017, no. 1, pp. 454–458, 2017. doi: 10.1049/oap-cired.2017.1215.
- [22] M. Vimal et al., LVDC: Electricity for the 21st century," International Electrotechnical Commission, Zurich, Switzerland, 2019. [Online]. Available: <https://www.iec.ch/technology-report/lvdc/>
- [23] V. Nasirian, S. Moayedi, A. Davoudi, and F. L. Lewis, "Distributed cooperative control of dc microgrids," *IEEE Trans. Power Electron.*, vol. 30, no. 4, pp. 2288–2303, 2015. doi: 10.1109/TPEL.2014.2324579.
- [24] D. Zha, Q. Wang, M. Cheng, F. Deng, and G. Buja, "Distributed cooperative control for multiple dc electric springs with novel topologies applied in dc microgrid," in *Proc. IEEE 10th Int. Symp. Power Electron. Distrib. Generation Syst. (PEDG)*, 2019, pp. 648–652. doi: 10.1109/PEDG.2019.8807459.
- [25] M. Hajian, D. Jovicic, G. Asplund, and H. Zhang, "Power flow control in DC transmission grids using mechanical and semiconductor-based DC/DC devices," in *Proc. 10th IET Int. Conf. AC and DC Power Transmiss. (ACDC 2012)*, 2012, p. 43.
- [26] Q. Mu, J. Liang, Y. Li, and X. Zhou, "Power flow control devices in DC grids," in *Proc. IEEE Power and Energy Soc. General Meeting*, 2012, pp. 1–7.
- [27] L. Mackay, T. Hailu, L. Ramirez-Elizondo, and P. Bauer, "Decentralized current limiting in meshed DC distribution grids," in *Proc. IEEE 1st Int. Conf. Direct Current Microgrids (ICDCM 2015)*, 2015, pp. 234–238.
- [28] J. Ma, M. Zhu, X. Cai, and Y. W. Li, "Configuration and operation of dc microgrid cluster linked through dc-dc converter," in *Proc. IEEE 11th Conf. Industr. Electron. Appl. (ICIEA)*, 2016, pp. 2565–2570. doi: 10.1109/ICIEA.2016.7604026.
- [29] K. Natori, H. Obara, K. Yoshikawa, B. C. Hiu, and Y. Sato, "Flexible power flow control for next-generation multi-terminal dc power network," in *Proc. IEEE Energy Conversion Congr. Expo. (ECCE)*, 2014, pp. 778–784. doi: 10.1109/ECCE.2014.6953475.
- [30] D. Jovicic and B. T. Ooi, "Developing DC transmission networks using DC transformers," *IEEE Trans. Power Del.*, vol. 25, no. 4, pp. 2535–2543, 2010. doi: 10.1109/TPWRD.2010.2052074.
- [31] S. Konar and A. Ghosh, "Interconnection of islanded dc microgrids," in *Proc. IEEE PES Asia-Pacific Power Energy Eng. Conf. (APPEEC)*, 2015, pp. 1–5. doi: 10.1109/APPEEC.2015.7380986.
- [32] Q. Xiao, L. Chen, H. Jia, P. W. Wheeler, and T. Dragičević, "Model predictive control for dual active bridge in naval dc microgrids supplying pulsed power loads featuring fast transition and online transformer current minimization," *IEEE Trans. Ind. Electron.*, vol. 67, no. 6, pp. 5197–5203, 2020. doi: 10.1109/TIE.2019.2934070.
- [33] M. Cupelli et al., "Port controlled Hamiltonian modeling and IDA-PBC control of dual active bridge converters for dc microgrids," *IEEE Trans. Ind. Electron.*, vol. 66, no. 11, pp. 9065–9075, 2019. doi: 10.1109/TIE.2019.2901645.
- [34] K. Rouzbehi, J. I. Candela, A. Luna, G. Gharehpetian, and P. Rodriguez, "Flexible control of power flow in multi-terminal DC grids using DC-DC converter," *IEEE J. Emerg. Select. Topics Power Electron.*, vol. 4, no. 3, p. 1, 2016. doi: 10.1109/JESTPE.2016.2574458.
- [35] P. Purgat, L. Mackay, R. A. Prakoso, L. Ramirez-Elizondo, and P. Bauer, "Power flow control converter for meshed hvdc distribution grids," in *Proc. IEEE 2nd Int. Conf. DC Microgrids (ICDCM)*, June 2017, pp. 476–483. doi: 10.1109/ICDCM.2017.8001089.
- [36] A. Mohamed and O. Mohammed, "Power flow control in dc distribution systems," in *Proc. North American Power Symp.*, 2010, pp. 1–7.
- [37] L. Yao, H. Cui, J. Zhuang, G. Li, B. Yang, and Z. Wang, "A dc power flow controller and its control strategy in the dc grid," in *Proc. IEEE 8th Int. Power Electron. Motion Control Conf. (IPEMC-ECCE Asia)*, May 2016, pp. 2609–2614.
- [38] P. Purgat et al., "A partially rated dc-dc converter for power flow control in meshed LVDC distribution grids," in *Proc. IEEE Appl. Power Electron. Conf. Expo. (APEC)*, Mar. 2018, pp. 1591–1596. doi: 10.1109/APEC.2018.8341229.
- [39] U. Vuyuru, S. Maiti, and C. Chakraborty, "Active power flow control between dc microgrids," *IEEE Trans. Smart Grid*, vol. 10, no. 5, pp. 5712–5723, 2019. doi: 10.1109/TSG.2018.2890548.
- [40] P. Purgat, N. van der Blij, Z. Qin, and P. Bauer, "Partially rated power flow control converter modeling for low voltage dc grids," *IEEE J. Emerg. Select. Topics Power Electron.*, vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 2430–2444, 2019. doi: 10.1109/JESTPE.2019.2915166.
- [41] M. Noroozian, L. Angquist, M. Ghandhari, and G. Andersson, "Use of UPFC for optimal power flow control," *IEEE Trans. Power Del.*, vol. 12, no. 4, pp. 1629–1634, 1997. doi: 10.1109/61.634183.
- [42] B. Tamimi, C. Cañizares, and C. Battistelli, "Hybrid power flow controller steady-state modeling, control, and practical application," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 32, no. 2, pp. 1483–1492, 2017.
- [43] B. Chen, W. Fei, C. Tian, and J. Yuan, "Research on an improved hybrid unified power flow controller," *IEEE Trans. Ind. Appl.*, vol. 54, no. 6, pp. 5649–5660, 2018. doi: 10.1109/TIA.2018.2848654.
- [44] R. Lazzari and L. Piegari, "Design and implementation of LVDC hybrid circuit breaker," *IEEE Trans. Power Electron.*, vol. 34, no. 8, pp. 7369–7380, Aug. 2019. doi: 10.1109/TPEL.2018.2878655.
- [45] F. Liu, W. Liu, X. Zha, H. Yang, and K. Feng, "Solid-state circuit breaker snubber design for transient overvoltage suppression at bus fault interruption in low-voltage dc microgrid," *IEEE Trans. Power Electron.*, vol. 32, no. 4, pp. 3007–3021, Apr. 2017. doi: 10.1109/TPEL.2016.2574751.
- [46] Y. Wang, W. Li, X. Wu, and X. Wu, "A novel bidirectional solid-state circuit breaker for dc microgrid," *IEEE Trans. Ind. Electron.*, vol. 66, no. 7, pp. 5707–5714, July 2019. doi: 10.1109/TIE.2018.2878191.
- [47] R. M. Cuzner and G. Venkataramanan, "The status of dc micro-grid protection," in *Proc. IEEE Ind. Appl. Soc. Annu. Meeting*, Oct. 2008, pp. 1–8.
- [48] P. Purgat, L. Mackay, Z. Qin, and P. Bauer, "On the protection of the power flow control converter in meshed low voltage dc networks," in *Proc. IEEE Energy Conversion Congr. Expo. (ECCE)*, Sept. 2018, pp. 478–484. doi: 10.1109/ECCE.2018.8558048.
- [49] P. Purgat, N. H. van der Blij, Z. Qin, and P. Bauer, "Partially rated power flow control converter modeling for low-voltage dc grids," *IEEE Trans. Emerg. Sel. Topics Power Electron.*, vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 2430–2444, Sept. 2020. doi: 10.1109/JESTPE.2019.2915166.
- [50] T. Hakala, T. Lähdeaho, and P. Järventausta, "Low-voltage dc distribution—utilization potential in a large distribution network company," *IEEE Trans. Power Del.*, vol. 30, no. 4, pp. 1694–1701, Aug 2015. doi: 10.1109/TPWRD.2015.2398199.
- [51] D. Salomonsson, L. Soder, and A. Sannino, "Protection of low-voltage dc microgrids," *IEEE Trans. Power Del.*, vol. 24, no. 3, pp. 1045–1053, July 2009. doi: 10.1109/TPWRD.2009.2016622.
- [52] "Ultra-fast high current dc breaker innovates marine applications and beyond," ABB Ltd., Zurich, Switzerland, Feb. 2019. [Online]. Available: <https://new.abb.com/news/detail/26578/ultra-fast-high-current-dc-breaker-innovates-marine-applications-and-beyond>
- [53] K. Rouzbehi, A. Miranjan, J. I. Candela, A. Luna, and P. Rodriguez, "A hybrid power flow controller for flexible operation of multi-terminal dc grids," in *Proc. Int. Conf. Renewable Energy Res. Appl. (ICRERA)*, Oct 2014, pp. 550–555. doi: 10.1109/ICRERA.2014.7016445.