Offshore Wind Farm-Grid Integration: A Review on Infrastructure, Challenges, and Grid Solutions

Ali, Syed Wajahat; Sadiq, Muhammad; Terriche, Yacine; Naqvi, Syed Ahmad Raza; Hoang, Le Quang Nhat; Mutarraf, Muhammad Umair; Hassan, Mustafa Alrayah; Yang, Guangya; Su, Chun Lien; Guerrero, Josep M.

Published in:
IEEE Access

Link to article, DOI:
10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3098705

Publication date:
2021

Document Version
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Link back to DTU Orbit

Citation (APA):

General rights
Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.
Offshore Wind Farm-Grid Integration: A Review on Infrastructure, Challenges, and Grid Solutions

SYED WAJAHAT ALI\(^\ddagger\)\(^1\), MUHAMMAD SADIQ\(^\ddagger\)\(^1\), YACINE TERRICHE\(^\ddagger\)\(^2\), SYED AHMAD RAZA NAQVI\(^\ddagger\)\(^3\), (Member, IEEE), LE QUANG Nhat HOANG\(^4\), MUHAMMAD UMAIR MUTARRAF\(^\ddagger\)\(^2\), (Student Member, IEEE), MUSTAFA ALRAYAH HASSAN\(^\ddagger\)\(^1\), (Senior Member, IEEE), GUANGYA YANG\(^\ddagger\)\(^5\), (Senior Member, IEEE), CHUN-LIEN SU\(^\ddagger\)\(^1\), (Senior Member, IEEE), AND JOSEP M. GUERRERO\(^\ddagger\)\(^2\), (Fellow, IEEE)

\(^1\)Electrical Engineering Department, National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology, Kaohsiung City 807618, Taiwan
\(^2\)Center for Research on Microgrids, Department of Energy Technology, Aalborg University, 9220 Aalborg East, Denmark
\(^3\)Distributed Generation Laboratory, The University of Western Ontario, London, ON K0E 9Z9, Canada
\(^4\)Department of Microelectronics Engineering, National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology, Kaohsiung City 81157, Taiwan
\(^5\)Electrical Engineering Department, Technical University of Denmark, 2800 Kgs. Lyngby, Denmark

Corresponding author: Chun-Lien Su (cls@nkust.edu.tw)

This work was funded in part by the Ministry of Science and Technology of Taiwan under Grant MOST 110-2221-E-992-044-MY3.

**ABSTRACT** Recently, the penetration of renewable energy sources (RESs) into electrical power systems is witnessing a large attention due to their inexhaustibility, environmental benefits, storage capabilities, lower maintenance and stronger economy, etc. Among these RESs, offshore wind power plants (OWPP) are ones of the most widespread power plants that have emerged with regard to being competitive with other energy technologies. However, the application of power electronic converters (PECs), offshore transmission lines and large substation transformers result in considerable power quality (PQ) issues in grid connected OWPP. Moreover, due to the installation of filters for each OWPP, some other challenges such as voltage and frequency stability arise. In this regard, various customs power devices along with integration control methodologies have been implemented to deal with stated issues. Furthermore, for a smooth and reliable operation of the system, each country established various grid codes. Although various mitigation schemes and related standards for OWPP are documented separately, a comprehensive review covering these aspects has not yet addressed in the literature. The objective of this study is to compare and relate prior as well as latest developments on PQ and stability challenges and their solutions. Low voltage ride through (LVRT) schemes and associated grid codes prevalent for the interconnection of OWPP based power grid have been deliberated. In addition, various PQ issues and mitigation options such as FACTS based filters, DFIG based adaptive and conventional control algorithms, ESS based methods and LVRT requirements have been summarized and compared. Finally, recommendations and future trends for PQ improvement are highlighted at the end.

**INDEX TERMS** Frequency control, grid codes, harmonics, LVRT, offshore wind energy, power quality, stability, voltage control.

**I. INTRODUCTION**

Wind energy generation is increasingly becoming one of the key sources of electric energy for industrial as well as domestic use, due to its several advantages over fossil fuel counterparts [1]. This growth in wind energy can be seen from its installed capacity figures, where China is leading with a 237 GW of wind power available followed by US at around 105 GW [2]. Wind energy growth across Europe shows a remarkable improvement with installed capacity of 1.48 GW in 2008 to 25 GW in 2020. The UK and Germany having the largest installed capacity with a total of thirteen countries contributed in wind energy to achieve these numbers [3]–[5]. When it comes to offshore wind energy, the main advantage over its onshore counterpart is the consistency in generating power at a steady rate due to stronger and more consistent wind gusts. Offshore wind farms are distributed in various countries around the world, mostly in Europe,
TABLE 1. Offshore wind energy growth (Mw) in recent years [6].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>United-Kingdom</td>
<td>5,094</td>
<td>5,340</td>
<td>5,772</td>
<td>7,892</td>
<td>8,480</td>
<td>8,480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>3,310</td>
<td>3,305</td>
<td>5,395</td>
<td>5,843</td>
<td>7,372</td>
<td>7,770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>713</td>
<td>713</td>
<td>878</td>
<td>1,556</td>
<td>1,556</td>
<td>2,262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>1,118</td>
<td>1,118</td>
<td>1,118</td>
<td>1,118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>1,269</td>
<td>1,269</td>
<td>1,264</td>
<td>1,294</td>
<td>1,701</td>
<td>1,701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>937</td>
<td>2,038</td>
<td>2,238</td>
<td>3,330</td>
<td>4,685</td>
<td>10000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>America</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

followed by Asia and America. Amongst these regions, Europe has largest installed capacity of 20.22 GW while Asia and America have 4.93 GW and 0.03 GW respectively as summarized in Table I [6]. It is noteworthy that offshore wind industry in the world has succeeded to add 6.1 GW of new capacity in 2019, which is considered the best year in history so far. An average annual increase of 18.6% until 2024 and 8.2% till the decade ends, whereas new annual offshore installations are expected to cruise up to achieve a milestone of around 20 GW in 2025 and 30 GW by 2030 [7]. Furthermore, the US government had announced a shared milestone of around 20 GW in 2025 and 30 GW by 2030 [7].

Wind energy being a zero CO\(_2\) emitting source, has a remarkable energy balance. According to a report delivered by The Global Wind Energy Council [8], with over 140,000 wind turbines operating in nearly 70 countries, an annual CO\(_2\) saving of 1.5 billion tons has been achieved in 2020. This figure would ramp up to 3.2 billion tons/annum of emission reduction by 2030. Although deployment of offshore wind farms managed to solve the issues of climate change by bringing about a significant reduction, the penetration of such large scale OWPP in power system results in increased PQ and system stability issues. These system challenges originate due to operational mode (standalone or grid connected) as well as structural and performance constraints by OWPP. Some of these PQ issues include flickers, harmonics, voltage fluctuations, voltage sag and swells [9]–[11]. In several works, it is reported to address the issues of PQ in OWPP using simulation studies [12], [13] as well as through hardware approaches [14], [15]. With regards to stability of OWPP connected to the grid, different aspects that are reported in studies include; steady state frequency control [16], damping control [17], voltage control [18] as well as transient stability control [19].

Stability of HVDC based OWPPs is compromised due to oscillatory interactions of power electronic converters with AC grid compensation equipment and dynamic power controllers [20], [21]. Over charging of large subsea cables and inrush currents from the connecting transformers are some of the sources of harmonic resonance oscillations in OWPP. This issue of resonance instability in OWPP is addressed in several studies, where its impact is analyzed by locating peaks (parallel resonance) and valleys (series resonance) obtained from a frequency domain scans, using different methodologies such as impedance-based approach [22] and modal analysis [23].

The grid codes usually state connection requisites of the offshore wind farms with the grid during and after a fault occurs. Several works in the literature discuss grid codes for power wind integration to the grid. For instance, authors in [24], [25] have thoroughly listed these codes for European countries, the grid code requirements of LVRT as well as active and reactive power for a wind farm connected to the grid. Mehrdad et al presented a comprehensive review on fault ride through (FRT) guidelines and corresponding grid codes in various countries [26]. Similarly, a comparative study of US and China standards on integration of wind energy with power grid is discussed in [27], while [28] investigates the technical requirements for Turkish grid.

The advances in flexible AC transmission systems (FACTS) devices used in the electric power network to overcome the PQ issues has also excelled the reliable use of OWPP in the electric grid [29], [30]. These are power electronics based high frequency switching devices combined with passive elements to mitigate PQ issues by controlling the network parameters [31]. Among those devices, static synchronous compensator (STATCOM), static VAR compensators (SVC), dynamic voltage restorer (DVR), and unified power flow controller (UPFC) are effective in resolving PQ issues like harmonics, load unbalancing and to retain voltage regulation [32]–[34]. The DVR, when employed with a proper control scheme, is an efficient device for rectifying power fluctuations occur due to intermittent wind energy. It also improves LVRT ability of a wind turbine generator in case of symmetrical and asymmetrical faults occur on grid [35], [36]. STATCOM is known for its reactive power injection and absorption ability to achieve voltage control and improved stability with fast response time [37]. It enhances the dynamic stability in line commutated HVDC offshore wind systems where conventional passive filtering fails to provide adequate reactive power compensation [29], [38].

Although preceding literature discusses methods on PQ issues and their mitigation in wind energy systems, a comprehensive review encompassing the new challenges of integration, transmission, PQ and stability with regards to offshore wind energy is not presented in an inclusive manner yet. Several studies have reported methods of PQ issue mitigation in conventional wind farms [39], [40]. Furthermore, authors reviewed aspects of stability [41], LVRT standards [42], grid codes [43] in relation to wind energy systems. The aim of this paper is to thoroughly discuss and summarize the contemporary PQ challenges faced due to the penetration of OWPPs in the power grid. Advances in stability aspects
of OWPP connected grid systems have been meticulously analyzed. Updated grid code regulations and standards concerning OWPP are reviewed along with in depth breakdown of reported LVRT schemes applied to achieve a robust power output.

This paper is organized as follows: Section I introduces some latest globally installed capacity figures in wind based energy systems along with literature being published on PQ problems. The OWPP overview and different wind turbine type’s attributes with regard to PQ are addressed in section II. Section III presents various PQ as well as stability challenges occurring in OWPP. Grid code requirements for interconnection of wind energy systems and LVRT requirements are summarized in section IV. Section V presents various mitigation techniques for PQ and stability issues along with LVRT methodologies in OWPP. Section VI concludes the article by pondering upon some recommendations and future trends with regards to offshore wind farm development.

II. OVERVIEW OF OFFSHORE WIND POWER PLANT (OWPP)

In the course of the past few years, various schemes for OWPP-grid interconnection have experienced enormous progress. This is further enhanced by different PECs topologies used in wind turbines for better flexibility of operation. This section reports the OWPPs integration methodologies as well as available wind turbine topologies that are prerequisite to maintain the stability and quality of the energy being supplied.

A. OWPP-GRID TRANSMISSION INTEGRATION

A generic schematic of grid connected wind power system is depicted in Fig. 1. The mechanical system includes tower, drive train, rotor blades, wind sensors and brakes [44]. Components of electrical system include the generator, electronic converters, harmonic filters on grid side, transformers, cables and common coupling point [45]. The control system components usually consist of intelligent devices responsible to maintain efficient and robust operation between electrical as well as mechanical systems [18], [46]–[49].

Nowadays, the existing transmission system technologies for long distance OWPP include, a) AC collection-AC transmission and b) AC collection-DC transmission as shown in Fig. 2. The former high voltage alternating current (HVAC) transmission (Fig. 2(a)) is used extensively in offshore-based farms due to its simple design and mature technology. The generated voltage is usually around 700V, which is then stepped-up to 33 kV (66KV in some cases [50]) medium voltage level [51]. The transmitted power is compensated with suitable shunt reactor to counter over-voltage level and charging current issues of the subsea cable, increasing the overall transmission capacity. To further increase the transmission distance as well as capacity, low frequency AC transmission methodology is reported in literature [52], [53]. In this scheme, power is transmitted at one third of the system frequency to achieve reduced charging power, skin effect and improved real power capacity.

The AC collection – DC transmission makes use of high voltage direct current (HVDC) where turbine is linked through a cable, to a DC converter facility. Transmission is either line commutated converter (LCC) based or voltage source converter (VSC) based [54]. The active and the reactive power flow in VSC-HVDC system depend on the voltages magnitude, the phase angle δ between these voltages and the reactance of the transformer (Fig. 2(b)). The sending end active power and the reactive power can be expressed as

\[
P_{\text{send}} = \frac{V_{\text{send}} V_{\text{cA}}}{X_{TB}} \sin \delta_1 \quad (1)
\]

\[
Q_{\text{send}} = \frac{V_{\text{send}}^2}{X_{TA}} - \frac{V_{\text{cA}} V_{\text{cB}}}{X_{TA}} \cos \delta_1 \quad (2)
\]

Similarly, for the receiving end active and reactive power are calculated by

\[
P_{\text{rec}} = \frac{V_{\text{cB}} V_{\text{cA}}}{X_{TB}} \sin \delta_2 \quad (3)
\]

\[
Q_{\text{rec}} = -\frac{V_{\text{cA}}^2}{X_{TB}} + \frac{V_{\text{cA}} V_{\text{cB}}}{X_{TB}} \cos \delta_2 \quad (4)
\]

where \(V_{\text{cA}}\) and \(V_{\text{cB}}\) are source voltages, \(V_{\text{cA}}\) and \(V_{\text{cB}}\) are converter output voltages, while \(X_{TA}\) and \(X_{TB}\) are transformer reactances at both ends. HVDC interconnection scheme is still in development stages as it involves placement of HV switches and filter bank. This results a high initial cost particularly for large-scale interconnection of offshore and onshore stations [55]. Its advantages include independent control of active and reactive power control without the need of external
B. TURBINE TOPOLOGIES

Based on speed control, there are four types of wind turbines used in OWPP. Type I turbine is a conventional squirrel cage induction generator (SCIG) based structures with fixed-ratio gearbox connected to grid through a step up transformer. The soft starter here limits the inrush current, while reactive power compensation is provided by capacitor banks as depicted in Fig. 3(a).

The type II, as presented in Fig. 3(b), is another structure of the wind turbine, where it generally comprises a wound rotor induction generator (WRIG), having variable resistors in rotor circuit. Through this variable resistance, rapid rotor current control can be achieved, which helps maintain constant power during adverse wind conditions [58]. Type III turbines make use of doubly fed induction generators (DFIGs) as presented in Fig. 4(a). The possibility of having a constant-frequency AC from a DFIG when operated by a variable-speed rotor enhances the energy efficacy of the system [59]. As this type of turbine applies the power electronics converters to control the active and reactive power, it results in generating the 3rd, 5th and 7th harmonic components [60]. Related pros and cons of DFIG based turbine system are listed in Fig. 4(b).

Type IV or permanent magnetic synchronous generator (PMSG) based turbine are directly driven systems with full-scale AC-DC-AC converters (Fig. 5(a)). The possibility to be directly connected to a wind turbine without using the gearbox is crucial in harsh weather conditions [61], [62]. PMSG based turbine are suitable for offshore installations due to advantages they offer such as high energy density, simple control schemes, no rotor winding, bidirectional power flow and self-excitation structure. Fig. 5(b) compares some aspects of the PMSG based wind turbine. The voltage and frequency from grid side can be controlled with small influence from the wind speed. Various control schemes like Pulse Width Modulation (PWM) for converter control and adaptive system learning for maximum power tracking are described in [63]–[65].

III. CHALLENGES IN OWPP

The aspect of PQ in OWPP cannot be undermined, as a single wind turbine can contribute up to 10 MW of power into the grid and it is also used as standalone DG [66]. In OWPP, due to intermittent nature of wind as well as presence of nonlinear power circuitry, bring about various PQ issues fluctuations in voltage and frequency, and circulation of harmonics that ultimately effect the system stability [67]. This section addresses these challenges, which need to be taken into consideration for continuous supply of stable energy to the customer.

A. POWER QUALITY ISSUES

PQ disturbances at OWPP are regularly monitored to check whether, output complies with the permitted grid regulations. It is worth mentioning that PQ issues include flickers, voltage sags/swell, harmonics, transients as well as voltage and frequency fluctuations. Table 2 shows some PQ issues with respect to severity to the grid [68].

1) FLICKERS

Flickers can be defined as fast variation in supplied voltage that may last for a certain period so that the variation in electric light can be recognized visually [69]–[71]. Voltage fluctuation value $k$ can be estimated by

$$k = \frac{dU}{U_n} \times 100\% = \frac{U_{\text{max}} - U_{\text{min}}}{U_n} \times 100\% \tag{5}$$

where $U_n$ is the nominal voltage while $U_{\text{max}}$ and $U_{\text{min}}$ show voltage peak value of the half period RMS value.

IEC standard 61400-21 establishes codes for defining PQ requirements of wind generation [72]. A portion of the mentioned standard makes use of the time domain readings of current and voltage taken at terminals of the wind turbine to measure flickers due to the switching action. A wind turbine produces more flickers in weak grids because of inverse relationship of flickers emission and short-circuit

---

**TABLE 2. Power quality issues in power system.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PQ Issue</th>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Affect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flicker</td>
<td>Supply Voltage variation</td>
<td>Equipment damage or malfunction</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmonic</td>
<td>Nonlinear loads, cable, Transformer</td>
<td>Power loss, overheating of load</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Sag</td>
<td>Sudden switching, inrush current, poor wiring</td>
<td>Overloading issue, Grabbed signal</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage Swell</td>
<td>Heavy loads on/off, fault at supply side</td>
<td>Equipment damage, data loss, overheating</td>
<td>Mild</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transient</td>
<td>Lightning, snubber circuits</td>
<td>Efficiency loss, disturbance in equipment</td>
<td>Severe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency Instability</td>
<td>High Loading</td>
<td>Motors and sensitive load malfunction</td>
<td>Mild</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
capacity [73]. Another important factor to affect flickers level is grid impedance angle. Flickers emission reduction can be achieved by maintaining 90° angle difference between grid impedance angle and turbine power factor. As variable speed turbines have the ability to manage reactive power, flickers can be alleviated by regulating this reactive power [74].

2) HARMONICS

In an OWPP penetrated grid system, the voltage source inverter stimulates some harmonics while the others harmonics are from grid background, which are reflected back to the turbine farm terminals, and therefore at the point of common coupling (PCC). In addition, the large capacitance in the form of subsea cables and compensating capacitor banks resonant frequencies influences the resonant frequencies of the system. These resonances result in the amplification of the harmonic emission in two ways. Firstly from individual turbines into the power grid i.e. primary emission. Secondly, flow of harmonic currents from the grid into the wind park termed as secondary emission [77]. The harmonic analysis of OWPP connected to the electric-grid can be conducted by an equivalent circuit depicted in Fig. 6 [82].

\[
V_{PCC} = I_{h,p} \left( \frac{Z_p}{Z_p + Z_s} \right) - V_{h,s} \left( \frac{1}{Z_p + Z_s} \right) \tag{6}
\]

\[
I_{PCC} = I_{h,p} \left( \frac{Z_pZ_s}{Z_p + Z_s} \right) + V_{h,s} \left( \frac{Z_p}{Z_p + Z_s} \right) \tag{7}
\]

where \( I_{PCC} \) and \( V_{PCC} \) represent the current and voltage at the PCC, \( Z_p \) and \( Z_s \) respectively show the harmonic impedance of the wind farm side and utility grid, \( I_{h,p} \) and \( V_{h,s} \) are the wind farm harmonic current source and grid harmonic voltage source, respectively. Using these parameters, harmonic contribution from either side can be assessed by means of various methods like active power direction method, IEC voltage phasor method and voltage-current ratio approach [75].

In addition to harmonics, OWPP could also cause supra-harmonics (SP), i.e. distortion in the frequency range above 2 kHz. SP discharges in OWF are closely associated with PWM strategy used for conversion in power inverter of wind turbine. The magnitude of SP at the PCC is usually lower than regular harmonics (3rd, 5th, 7th) [76]. However, lack of standard limits to quantify the effects of these high frequency emissions in OWPPs is the area that needs to be investigated. Ammar et al in [77] propose that in order to measure SP up to 9 kHz, the chosen signal-sampling rate should be in accordance with the rules of signal analysis. Nonetheless, FFT samples need to be fetched by power of two, such that the total sampling becomes 20.48 kHz, according to IEC...
61000-4-7. Lastly, raw components of 5 Hz FFT resolution are distributed into 200 Hz bands, as shown in Fig. 7.

3) VOLTAGE SAG AND SWELL
Temporary reduction of the RMS voltage between 0.9 and 0.1 pu of nominal value from half-cycle to few seconds is termed as a voltage sag, while the voltage swell or over voltage is an increase in the RMS (effective) voltage to between 1.1 and 1.8 pu of normal value from half-cycle to one minute. It is in accordance with European Standard EN 50160 - IEEE 1159 [78]–[80]. A voltage sag due to wind generator penetration may result in disconnection, if voltage drops under a certain value. This voltage dip can also result in a high current through IGBT inverter which connects a PMSG to the grid [81]. Fast removal of sag and swell in such cases events is crucial. Hence, voltage and time duration limits allowed in various countries grid code and regulations are shown in Table 3 [77].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Voltage Sag Rise (sec)</th>
<th>Time (sec) Drop</th>
<th>Voltage Swell</th>
<th>Time (sec)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>120%</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>130%</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>125%</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>140%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. STABILITY ISSUES
As wind power penetration level increases in electric grid, researchers focus more towards the problem of power system stability. Stability issue in OWPP is mostly caused, either by any uncertainty occurring at wind turbine side, or a fault/disruption at the grid side. With an increasing number of wind farms connected, controlling dynamic characteristics of overall power systems is becoming more challenging [82]. A related phenomenon of sub synchronous resonance (SSR) has gained attention in recent years. It has been reported to cause oscillations below system’s rates frequency in grid connected wind farm system in vicinity of series compensated transmission line [83], [84]. To investigate this issue, an impedance-based stability analysis (SA) is usually adopted, which makes use of ratios of analytically derived impedances of OWPP and line converters looking from the PCC side. Nyquist plots of above-mentioned impedances are mostly used to identify potential low frequencies causing SSR [85].

1) SMALL SIGNAL STABILITY
The small signal stability refers as to how a system behaves whenever a minor change occurs in its state variables [86]. This stability issue generally happens due to lack of damping torque, which leads to increase the amplitude of rotor oscillations. Any variation in the operating conditions of the power system can be analyzed through eigenvalues of the system state matrix [87], [88]. The small signal stability studies of the power system variability due to the OWPP have been reported in literature by using different schemes like singular value decomposition based least squares analysis and Prony analysis [89], [90]. Such schemes help in understanding the effects of load change on grid side as well as wind speed inconsistency on small-signal angular stability. Authors in [91] discuss the extension of small-signal stability region to a more robust small-signal stability region via hyperplane approximation, within which the power system retains stability even with perturbations due to uncertain nodal variations from OWPP. Similarly, a DFIG based direct drive control scheme is given in [92] to study small signal stability and dynamic response of the system. Comparative results proved the superiority of the proposed controller under system disturbances while linked with a single as well as four-machine infinite bus system. Small signal stability analysis of a large variable speed wind turbines is presented in [93]. This method used bifurcation analysis to compute the boundaries of small signal stability, when system is subjected to line trip and load variations.

2) TRANSIENT STABILITY
Transient stability is the capability of the power grid to sustain synchronism when experiencing large disturbances [94]. Severe disturbances may contain component
TABLE 4. Summary of various SA techniques in OWPP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stability</th>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small signal stability</td>
<td>State space stability analysis</td>
<td>SA performed on PMSG based systems has shown improved dynamic response and when compared to a DFIG based system with similar parameters</td>
<td>[92]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Least square extended Prony analysis</td>
<td>Wind power variability as result of disturbance introduced in a 1000MW OWPPs considered</td>
<td>[89]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modal state analysis</td>
<td>Analyzed the effects of load change and dynamic interactions, on adding DFIG based WT in to the grid</td>
<td>[90]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State space stability analysis</td>
<td>Perturbations due to intermittent wind have been modeled using state-matrix and a robust stability scheme proposed</td>
<td>[91]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transient stability</td>
<td>H∞</td>
<td>Linear parameter varying control is presented for increased transient stability of interconnected system having four AC-DC lines</td>
<td>[95]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal area criterion</td>
<td>A real time corrected kinetic energy method is proposed, which quickly finds CCT with less comp: burden.</td>
<td>[96]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Approx. dynamic programming</td>
<td>Supplementary power controller applied to DFIG based WF system to mitigate PQ issues at PCC and to retain stability during varying operating conditions</td>
<td>[97]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Approx. dynamic programming</td>
<td>Using reinforced learning of neural network in a DFIG integrated WF, inter-area oscillations damping and improved stability margins of tie-lines achieved</td>
<td>[98]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

outages, reduced inertia, load variations or faults that cause large excursions of generator’s rotor angle. The response of the system is affected by the nonlinear power-angle relationship. The interval of interest while observing transient stability is generally 3 to 5 sec following the disturbance. This time period can extend up to 10–20 sec in case of large system with prevailing inter-area fluctuations [99]. A study presented in [95] applies efficient feedback control scheme by utilizing mechanical power as well as DC channel power of the system as control objective to enhance the transient stability of the interconnected wind farm system. Another scheme in [96], uses an advanced real-time technique relating to corrected kinetic energy to calculate critical clearing time (CCT), to assess the transient stability of an interconnected grid with wind turbines. Schemes related to adaptive control have proved to be effective for augmenting transient stability in DFIG based grids. These methods make use of neural networks based on dynamic programming to control reactive power and improves the closed-loop performance of the wind connected power grids [97], [98]. Table 4 summarizes different SA and their solution methodologies in OWPP.

C. VOLTAGE AND FREQUENCY ISSUES

In an electrical power system, the reactive power flow is related to the voltage variation, while the frequency change corresponds to a change in the active power in the system. In an OWPP, electromechanical devices that are usually used to generate the electricity are the induction generators, which require reactive power for excitation. Therefore, DFIG based wind farm are of lesser help for supporting the grid with reactive power when compared to synchronous machines [42].

1) VOLTAGE CONTROL

With increasing level of offshore wind energy penetrations into the grid, voltage stability is becoming a challenge. PMSG based wind turbines are able to manage reactive power in case of voltage deviation at the PCC. Nevertheless, for induction based wind generators it is not the case as they accelerate during disturbances/faults, which require reactive power consumption [100]. Voltage control of a wind farm need to be designed in such a way that demand of reactive power output to be met is in accordance with the dispatch instructions form grid side to support the voltage of PCC. In this regard, voltage and reactive power control must meet the requirements below [101]:

- Voltage at PCC should be maintained ranging from 97% to 105% of the nominal voltage at grid side.
- Its speed of regulation and control accuracy should meet the demand of voltage control of grid operation.

The reactive power issue in OWPP is addressed by Rather et al. [102], in which voltage stability performance of the system is examined using mixed integer dynamic optimization approach. It is concluded that better system efficiency and reliability can be achieved by optimal allocation of dynamic reactive power sources. Wang et al. [103] show through simulations, the influence of the voltage variation at the PCC by various capacities and underwater cable lengths for large-scale offshore wind farm connected to power grid in Taiwan. In large OWPP systems, the use of hierarchal control to regulate PCC voltage is a viable option. This strategy have two levels viz. centralized control (CC) and local control (LC), as shown in the Fig. 8. The CC manages the voltage at PCC, whereas the LC supervises the power injection from GSI to trail the expected set point from the CC [104].

2) IMPACTS OF FREQUENCY VARIATION

OWPP penetration in the grid proportionally increases the unpredictability and frequency variation of the power output. The operating conditions change due to these deviations in frequency, because it alters the frequency related parameters like reactance and the slip of the wind turbines. Furthermore, modern variable speed wind turbines such as type III and IV are connected to the grid with end-to-end power converters. The intermediate DC voltage in this AC-DC-AC interface creates electrical decoupling between OWPP and the grid. Consequently, the system inertia reduces, as the generator
rotor does not see the changes in frequency [105]. Additionally the interconnected conventional power units are overburdened to regulate the frequency variations. This phenomenon deteriorates frequency and inertia regulation, especially in islanded systems with no grid support [106].

In European power grids, frequency regulation is maintained within limits using three-way control strategy as depicted in Fig. 9. In case of any deviation, primary control keeps the balance between power generation and consumption. Secondary control triggers automatically when there is active power deficit on the line. This stage lasts for about 15 minutes, and if the frequency deviation of frequency persists, tertiary control comes inline. The tertiary control mitigates the persistent frequency deviations after the production outages or long-lasting load variations. Time control makes sure that discrepancy between synchronous time and universal coordinated time of the system must be avoided, which happens due to frequency deviation [107].

3) RAMP RATE REQUIREMENTS

Wind power changes continuously and as a result, an important issue related to grid integration is upholding the economic cost of wind energy and the system resiliency. This intermittency of wind energy is countered by calling fast ramping or peak-load units, so that balance of supply and demand must be kept. Such events threaten the benefits of wind energy-low fuel cost and reduced CO\textsubscript{2} footprint [108]. An OWPP need to have the ability to limit increased and decreased power rates. By and large, the ramp-rate limit (RRL) for a short duration of 1-minute addresses system regulation capability. A longer duration of 10-minute typically is applied on grid load-following capability [43].

In this regard, active RRL by Denmark specifies the commencement of constraint to be accomplished with in 2 to 10 seconds, whenever an order to change the parameter is received. The maximum RRL constraint is 100 kW/sec [109]. The grid code standards of China stipulates the power dispatch facility to deliver the power RRL within 1 to 10 minutes [110]. According to ISO-NE department in US, response rate to a peak or valley in power output OWPP should not overdo Δ10 % /sec.

IV. GRID CODE REQUIREMENTS

Grid codes mainly contain standards and guidelines for active and reactive power control of the system. The interruption of OWPP under PQ issues is undesirable when a substantial share of the total network generation comes from wind power. Hence, grid codes need OWPP to continue their uninterrupted operation under several fault situations. This ability of wind turbine to stay in connection with the power grid in case of any fault or voltage imbalance for specified amount of time is termed as LVRT. LVRT capability is instantly needed as it takes into the account fault percentage and interval during which wind farms need to be able to withstand the fault [111]. Electrical network operators have grid code requirements that vary from one country to another depending on the organization and characteristic features of the system. Although that needs to comply with international standards like IEC and IEEE. In Table 5, a comparative description of different IEEE and IEC standards is provided related to LVRT techniques as well as harmonic limits for wind generation systems.

In the context of OWPP, IEC has formulated standards for measurement and assessment of PQ characteristics of grid connected wind turbines i.e. IEC 61400-21 [120]. As a result of connecting wind farms to a transmission system instead of a distribution system [72], modern wind turbines acquire the ability to control both active and reactive power in steady as well as in transient conditions. A detailed study of grid code requirements to enhance the participation of OWPP in frequency stability and virtual inertia is presented in [121].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Provisions of the standard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IEEE 1648 - 2014</td>
<td>This standard methods for examining equipment’s LVRT ability when connected to the grids with voltage networks with voltage dips persisting for a minute [112]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE 1547.4-2013</td>
<td>This standard talks about the aspects of integrating distribution generation sources with main grid [113]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE 519</td>
<td>This standard defines the harmonic current and voltage limits at PCC [114]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEC 61000-3-2</td>
<td>It defines limits of equipment’s harmonic current with input current &gt; 16A [115]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEC 61400-27</td>
<td>This code states dynamic models of different wind turbines to enhance power system stability [116]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEC 61508</td>
<td>This standard defines the operational safety for electronic converters [117]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEC 60050-415</td>
<td>This standard focuses on safety regulations and protection of wind generation systems under various operating conditions [118]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEC 61400-21</td>
<td>This standard states assessments and measurements for power quality of wind turbines and LVRT ability of OWPP [119]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 5. IEEE and IEC grid code requirements for PQ in OWPP.
TABLE 6. Frequency bounds in global grid standards.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Frequency limits (Hz)</th>
<th>Duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>49.5 - 50.0</td>
<td>continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F0 = 50)</td>
<td>49.0 - 51.0</td>
<td>10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48.0 - 51.0</td>
<td>2 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47.5 - 52.0</td>
<td>9 sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>59.4 - 60.6</td>
<td>continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F0 = 60)</td>
<td>58.5 - 60.5</td>
<td>11 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>57.5 - 61.7</td>
<td>1.5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>57.0 - 61.7</td>
<td>10 sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>48.5 - 51.0</td>
<td>continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F0 = 50)</td>
<td>48.0 - 51.0</td>
<td>25 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47.5 - 52.0</td>
<td>5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47.0 - 52.0</td>
<td>10 sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>49.0 - 50.5</td>
<td>continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F0 = 50)</td>
<td>48.5 - 51.5</td>
<td>30 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47.5 - 51.5</td>
<td>10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46.5 - 53.5</td>
<td>10 sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>49.5 - 50.5</td>
<td>continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F0 = 50)</td>
<td>47.5 - 52.0</td>
<td>60 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47.0 - 52.0</td>
<td>20 sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47.5 - 52.0</td>
<td>continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>47.0 - 52.0</td>
<td>20 sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>59.5 - 60.0</td>
<td>continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(F0 = 60)</td>
<td>59.3 - 59.5</td>
<td>10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>58.7 - 59.3</td>
<td>10 sec</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 7. Power factor requirements in international grid codes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Power Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

in Table 6 [122]. Frequency variation between the OWPP and power grid can cause synchronization imbalance as well as disturbance in active power output. Unlike conventional generators, wind turbine generators usually do not have the ability of giving frequency regulation to the network due to the absence of inertia [123]. This results in decreased frequency nadir in DFIG based OWPPs with lacking inertia [124].

Active and reactive power requirements should be met in all grid codes to maintain load voltage and power factor levels at the PCC. Under nominal power generation, recommended practice is to operate the wind turbines in a way to retain 0.95 power factor leading or lagging. In UK grid codes, gradual reduction in reactive power is required, as the plant achieves 20% to 50% of rated power. However, the German grid codes demand a continuous reactive power at different power plant generations. With the Danish grid codes, it is requisite to reach a power factor set point with a tenacity of 0.01. Table 7 compares operating limits of power factor in global grid codes for which OWPP are required to remain connected to grid [125].

V. POWER QUALITY IMPROVEMENTS TECHNIQUES IN OWPP

Mitigation of PQ and stability issues attracted the researchers or operators attention due to the increased penetration of OWPP in the grid. Various devices and control techniques have been developed recently to improve the PQ of the interconnected power grid in general.

A. DFIG CONVERTERS BASED CONTROL TECHNIQUES

PQ improvement and harmonic current mitigation have been reported in the literature to be achieved by applying control algorithms on DFIG converters [39]. In [126], the grid side control (GSC) of the wind energy system has been adjusted to regulate the dc link voltage by using d-q transformation method. In addition to DC link voltage modification through active filtering, mitigation of harmonic currents is achieved. A DFIG-based wind energy system with nonlinear loads at PCC is shown in Fig. 10 [127]. This DFIG based system works as an active filter as well as source of real power generation. The harmonic current caused by the nonlinear loads is mitigated by GSC control. The rotor side control (RSC) is based on voltage-oriented reference frame for achieving unity power factor at the stator side as well as MPPT.

A sensorless stator field oriented technique is used to control the RSC, which eventually reduces the harmonics levels at the grid [128]. In [127], the control of GSC is implemented such that the signal fed to power switches is bounded by a hysteresis current method. The experimental results show significant improvement of total harmonic distortion (THD) at the grid after filtering. Nian and Pang [129] proposed an impedance reshaping control method for a 2MW DFIG system. This control strategy enables the system to suppress the high frequency resonance thereby avoiding the unstable condition. Furthermore an active damping strategy that can compensate for the matrix converter LC filter under different operating conditions is presented in [130]. Here, a small signal stability analysis has been performed and it is shown that the input filter resonance issue becomes severe as the DFIG operates at sub-synchronous speed with unity power factor.

B. FACTS BASED ACTIVE POWER FILTER TECHNIQUES

Flexible Alternating Current Transmission Systems or FACTS are power electronic based devices that can control
TABLE 8. FACTS devices effect on PQ parameters (higher * is better).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>SVC</th>
<th>STATCOM</th>
<th>TCSC</th>
<th>UPFC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reactive Power control</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>****</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>*****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Power control</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltage stability</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>****</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flicker reduction</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>****</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>*****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmonics</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>*****</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and regulate the active and reactive power in a power network. These compensating devices can be coupled in series, or in combined topology, contingent on specific requirements when connecting to the power system grid [131]. FACTS based on series connection include thyristor controlled series capacitors (TCSC) as well as static synchronous series compensator (SSSC) [132], while Shunt based FACTS comprise of static VAR compensator (SVC) and static synchronous compensator (STATCOM). Unified power flow controller (UPFC) are hybrid FACTS i.e. series-shunt devices are capable to control voltage and power flow simultaneously [133]. Table 8 specifies comparison of various FACTS effects on PQ parameters in electric power grid [134].

The principle of the STATCOM is to either consume or deliver the reactive power based on the estimated RMS value at the PCC. Consequently, it mitigates voltage drops and improves the active and reactive power flow in the transmission line. A scheme of modified STATCOM controller with synchronous frame reference controller for minimizing some of the PQ issues of a hybrid wind and PV based system is proposed in [135]. The proposed controller manages to achieve 25.35% improvement in system’s THD. Voltage variations have been reduced and active power flow significantly improves using the proposed scheme. Sayahi et al. [37] studied two cases for improving the PQ in OWPP connected to power grid. That include sharing of the STATCOM reactive power with the electric grid as well as regulating the voltage at the PCC, as shown in Fig. 11.

Another STATCOM compensation based PQ improvement study on a OWPP and PV hybrid power system has been presented in [136]. The simulation results show that load bus voltage is regulated at about 1.0 p.u. while THD in voltages and currents are maintained at 1%. The UPFC consists of series as well as shunt converters, coupled to a dc link capacitor as shown in Fig. 12. The series part provides the regulation of active and reactive powers while shunt part ensures the voltage support at PCC by regulating voltage at DC link of UPFC [137]. Dynamic performance of a DFIG based OWPP under wind gusts and disturbances is proposed in [138] using an adaptive model-free controller for UPFC. Uncertainties like voltage sag, voltage swell, wind gust and LVRT capability of the system significantly improved when suggested UPFC based adaptive controller is compared to conventional PI controller. The UPFC show promising results, while damping the SSR oscillations occur mostly in systems with series-capacitor compensated lines. One such hybrid steam turbine generator (STG) - DFIG based OWPP uses UPFC with its damping controller to mitigate SSR oscillations by improving transient stability of the system [139].

C. ENERGY STORAGE SYSTEM BASED SOLUTIONS

The energy storage systems (ESS) play a significant role in PQ improvement of the generated power by regulating output voltage of the OWPP. The electrical power produced by the wind turbines is dependent upon the wind speed and affects both the PQ as well as system planning [140]. The ESS generally includes battery, flywheel, superconducting magnetic energy storage system SMES, super capacitor, compressed air system, pump hydro and hydrogen production. Usually the ESS connected to the intermediate DC link capacitor of back to back power electronic converters for power conversion as illustrated in Fig. 13. The battery energy storage system (BESS) in addition to storing the power, also regulates the active and reactive power at PCC, and maintains system stability [141].

The control and stabilization scheme for grid connected wind farm with reactive power compensation by SMES is proposed in [142]. This multilevel control method enhances the transient stability by fast controllability of the SMES four-quadrant operation. Similarly, a fuzzy logic based controlled SMES in [143] shows an improved transients response and voltage regulation. In [144], authors presented a system of DFIG with fuel cell connected to the power grid. The proposed scheme used vector control on two back-to-back power electronic converters to regulate the power flow to the grid, fuel cell, and generator. Beside SMES, the flywheel
energy storage (FES) systems are also effective in alleviating power surges occurs during faults in OWPP connected to grid [145]. Another study reported in [146], exploits the ability of FES system to smooth out power fluctuation, where it is interfaced with 80 MW DFIG based OWPP. Super capacitor is another ESS based solution for voltage flicker issue in weak grid having wind energy integration. With appropriate filtering control algorithm, these systems achieve superior flicker mitigation as compared to the reactive power control techniques [147].

D. METHODOLOGIES FOR LVRT IN OWPP
Various schemes have been reported in literature for efficient fault ride through in offshore wind based generations [26]. The commonly used methods include simple protective circuits such as crowbar, stator damping resistor (SDR) and rotor current limiter (RCL). These schemes are mostly used in DFIG based systems. Other methods include V ARs injection through FACTS based devices and the implementation of robust control strategies to enable system to ride through during fault conditions. Organization of different LVRT strategies in OWPP is illustrated in Fig. 14.

1) LVRT PROTECTIVE CIRCUITS
Most common LVRT method for type III wind turbine is using crowbar (CB) protective circuit. Crowbar is a resistive circuit which is connected across rotor winding terminals [148]. In case a fault occurs, a large rotor current generates due to DFIG rotor and stator magnetic coupling. To counter this high current, resistor crowbar bank is installed to disable the rotor side converter during the fault, so that power flow can be controlled independently. For optimal value of crowbar resistance, $R_{C,\text{opt}}$, the following relation is applied [149]:

$$R_{C,\text{opt}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}(V_{\text{max}} \omega_s L_s)}{\sqrt{3.2V^2 - 2V_{\text{max}}^2}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

where $\omega_s$ is the synchronous speed, $V$ is the stator voltage; $V_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum rotor voltage while $L_s$ is the stator inductance. An upgraded scheme make use of bidirectional switches connected to stator or rotor resistors is discussed in [42]. Whenever a fault occurs, switch turned OFF, connecting the resistors of RCL and SDR in series with rotor and stator as shown in Fig. 15. The advantage of these (RCL, SDR) circuits over crowbar implementation is the ability to limit high transient current while retaining the connection with GSC.

2) LVRT BY VARS INJECTION
The dynamic voltage restorer (DVR) is a series connected device usually linked with DFIG based wind generation systems at PCC to counter voltage sag or swell and PQ issues. In addition, it enhances the LVRT ability by injecting volt-age and provides power compensation to the grid to clear faults [150], [151]. An onsite FRT testing methodology for OWPP prior to grid integration is presented in [152] combining with DVR control to maintain voltage swells for testing requirements. A flexible AC transmission system (FACTS) based device i.e. STATCOM is a shunt-connected, reactive power compensation scheme. It can mitigate harmonic resonance issues and provides load compensation to the grid [31]. Heydari-Doostabad et al. [153] suggested an updated STATCOM based control method to improve LVRT ability of wind turbine in case of voltage fault. There proposed STATCOM compensator model enables the system to clear the maximum fault duration swiftly thereby improving the stability margin.

3) CONTROL SCHEMES FOR LVRT
Control techniques are crucial to the robust operation of OWPP in case, PQ issues happen. Proper tuned controllers stabilize the system by improving its LVRT capability. A fuzzy control technique is implemented in DFIG based OWPP to limit fault current by improving LVRT ability of the system [154]. A similar scheme with integrated terminal sliding mode control is proposed in [155] to enable DFIG to ride through deep voltage sag under different operating conditions. Direct-model predictive control (DMPC) technique developed in [156] optimize the LVRT ability of DFIG energy conversion systems by optimizing the switching states of the embedded power converter.

VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
The unprecedented growth of offshore wind generation has paved an accelerated path towards a global decarbonized
future with clean renewable energy. Nevertheless, the intermittent nature of wind power poses various challenges related to the integration and transmission systems of the wind turbine such as PQ and system stability challenges. Although AC transmission is most commonly used in OWPPs nowadays, the transmission voltage level constraints will encourage the use of HVDC transmission in near future. This paper reviewed PQ issues of OWPP integration into electric grid and discussed various solution methodologies. Statistics regarding OWPP installed capacity and future growth have been listed. Different types of wind turbine topologies with their distinguishing features, control algorithms and variability have been discussed. The mentioned challenges focused on PQ issues like flickers, harmonics, voltage sag and swells as well as voltage and frequency stability problems and recent control schemes with regard to OWPP. This article also sheds light on crucial aspects like LVRT methods and grid code requirements in different parts of the world. These grid codes are essentially intended for grid support in case of steady-state as well as grid faults conditions. In addition, this paper reviewed available solution approaches including DFIG controllers systems, filters, energy storage systems and customs power devices to deal with the challenges of PQ problems in OWPP. A performance comparison of these FACTS devices shows UPFC and STATCOM to be better and customs power devices to deal with the challenges of PQ problems in OWPP. A performance comparison of these FACTS devices shows UPFC and STATCOM to be better options for solving PQ issues, followed by SVC and TCSC. A continuous renewal of grid standards in different countries depending upon wind variability, generation portfolio and LVRT requirements and schemes have been discussed thoroughly.

For the review topic under consideration, some recommendations with regard to PQ challenges, standards and solution methods for future improvements in the prevailing system are:

1. The need of a fast communication system to exchange and manage data between far-flung offshore and onshore stations. Latest protocols like internet of things (IoT) can help in this regard to mitigate any communication delays that may affect system stability.
2. Online impedance assessment analysis for OWPPs networks can be achieved by installing advanced synchronized waveform monitoring devices.
3. PQ issues like harmonics and flickers need to have precise grid codes for measurements and contribution of different stakeholders involved in the radial OWPPs.
4. SH mitigation with regards to OWPP is the area which still need researcher’s attention with well-established grid regulations are required to solve this issue.
5. LVRT capability requirements need to contain information that is more detailed, because the FRT ability vary with wind farm rating as well as type of faults.
6. Detailed grid codes need to be implemented for integration of various ESS technologies, which can provide smooth output and system flexibility from wind generation for a specific duration in case of any fault.
7. A standardized and regulated policy from various countries to enhance OWPP development, while at the same time providing economic, environmental as well as social growth to those nations.

The above recommendations may be helpful in achieving improved PQ with regards to OWPP, which is fast growing power provider market and will dominate its peers in the near future. This review could be extended to further studies to enhance PQ and stability in OWPP by overcoming various system drawbacks.

REFERENCES


Lecturer. His research interests include power quality, power system analysis and control, offshore wind energy systems, and their energy management.


SYED WAJAHAT ALI received the bachelor’s degree in electronics engineering from the University of Engineering and Technology Peshawar, Pakistan, in 2008, and the master’s degree in electrical engineering from COMSATS University Islamabad, Pakistan, in 2012. He is currently pursuing the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering with the National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology (NKUST), Taiwan. In 2013, he joined COMSATS University Islamabad as a Lecturer. His research interests include power quality, power system analysis and control, offshore wind energy systems, and their energy management.

MUHAMMAD SADIQ received the B.S. degree in textile engineering from Balochistan University of Information Technology, Engineering and Management Sciences, Quetta, Pakistan, in 2013, and the M.S. degree in industrial engineering and management from the University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan, in 2019. He is currently pursuing the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering with the National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology, Taiwan. He joined Nishat Mills as the Deputy Manager for two years. His research interests include harbor microgrids, energy management, and modeling of DC EV charging station for harbor applications.

YACINE TERRICHE received the B.S. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Science and Technology, Constantine, Algeria, in 2011, the M.S. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Constantine 1, Constantine, and the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from Aalborg University, Aalborg, Denmark, in 2020. During his Ph.D. degree, he has been working as a Research Assistant at Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology, Kaohsiung City, Taiwan, from December 2019 to September 2020. Since November 2020, he has been working as a Research Assistant at Aalborg University. His research interests include power electronics modeling and control, signal processing, power quality issues, microgrids, cyber security, active and passive power filters, static VAR compensators, and maritime microgrids.

SYED AHMAD RAZA NAQVI (Member, IEEE) received the bachelor’s degree in electronics engineering from the National University of Science and Technology-School of Electrical Engineering and Computer Sciences (NUST-SEECS), Pakistan, in 2009, the M.Sc. degree in electrical engineering from King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals, Saudi Arabia, in 2012, and the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from The University of Western Ontario, Canada, in 2021. His main research interests include power management strategies for PV/battery-based residential microgrids, the dynamical control of power systems, and the applications of system identification techniques in nonlinear systems. He was also a recipient of the London Hydro Scholarship, in 2015.

LE QUANG NHAT HOANG received the bachelor’s degree in mechanical engineering from Ho Chi Minh City University of Industry, Vietnam, in 2011. He is currently pursuing the master’s degree with the Department of Microelectronics Engineering, National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology, Taiwan. He is working as a Lecturer and a Teaching Assistant at Dong Nai Technology University, Vietnam. His research interests include machine-learning techniques, shipboard power systems, and control algorithm.
MUHAMMAD UMAIR MUTARRAF (Student Member, IEEE) received the B.Sc. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Engineering and Technology, Lahore, Pakistan, in 2013, and the M.E. degree in control theory and control engineering from Xidian University, Xi’an, China, in 2017. He is currently pursuing the Ph.D. degree with the Department of Energy Technology, Aalborg University, Denmark. His research interests include AC and DC shipboard microgrids, power electronics, modeling, control, and integration of energy storage systems in AC and DC microgrids.

MUSTAFA ALRAYAH HASSAN (Senior Member, IEEE) received the B.Sc. degree in electrical engineering from the University of Blue Nile, Sudan, in 2006, the M.Sc. degree in electrical power engineering from the University of Khartoum, Sudan, in 2013, and the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering from Hebei University of Technology, China, in 2019. He worked as an Assistant Professor and the Head of the Electrical Department with the University of Blue Nile, from 2019 to 2020. He has also worked as a Lecturer with International University of Africa, Khartoum, Sudan. Since 2019, he has been a Visiting Assistant Professor with African Center of Excellence in Energy for Sustainable Development, University of Rwanda, Kigali, Rwanda. He is currently a Postdoctoral Researcher with the National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology, Kaohsiung City, Taiwan. He has authored or coauthored many conferences and IEEE journal articles. His current research interests include power electronic converters, distributed generation systems, renewable energy integration, smart grid, DC microgrids stability and control, shipboard DC microgrids, hybrid-electric ferry, nonlinear control systems, adaptive passivity-based control, and sliding mode control. Dr. Hassan is a member in several IEEE societies, such as IEEE Industrial Electronics Society, IEEE Industry Applications Society, and IEEE Power & Energy Society. He is the Track Chairperson of the Applied Power Electronics Committee at the IEEE 2021 Global Congress on Electrical Engineering, Spain. He reviewed many articles with several IEEE journals, such as the IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON INDUSTRIAL ELECTRONICS, IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON INDUSTRIAL INFORMATICS, IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON TRANSPORTATION ELECTRIFICATION, IEEE JOURNAL OF EMERGING AND SELECTED TOPICS IN POWER ELECTRONICS, IEEE ACCESS, and IET Power Electronics.

GUANGYA YANG (Senior Member, IEEE) received the Ph.D. degree in electrical power systems from The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia, in 2008. He is currently a Senior Power System Engineer with Orsted and a Senior Scientist with Technical University of Denmark, Lyngby, Denmark. Since joining DTU, he has been acting as the principal investigator and a coordinator for several large research and development projects across academic and industrial sectors both at DK and EU level. His current research interests include power system stability and control with respect to the integration of offshore wind. He is an Editorial Board Member of IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON SUSTAINABLE ENERGY, IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON POWER DELIVERY, IEEE ACCESS, and Journal of Modern Power System and Clean Energy.

CHUN-LIEN SU (Senior Member, IEEE) received the Diploma degree in electrical engineering from the National Kaohsiung Institute of Technology (NKUST), Taiwan, in 1992, and the M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in electrical engineering from the National Sun Yat-Sen University, Taiwan, in 1997 and 2001, respectively. In 2002 and 2006, he was an Assistant Professor and an Associate Professor at the Department of Marine Engineering, National Kaohsiung Marine University, Taiwan, respectively. From 2012 to 2017, he was a Full Professor where he was the Director of Energy and Control Research Center. From August 2017 to January 2018, he was a Visiting Professor at the Department of Energy Technology, Aalborg University, Denmark. He was the Director of Maritime Training Center, NKUST, from February 2018 to July 2020. Since August 2020, he has been a Professor at the Department of Electrical Engineering, NKUST, and the Director of the Center for Electrical Power and Energy. His research interests include power system analysis and computing, power quality, maritime microgrids, and offshore energy, recently specially focused on electrical infrastructure for offshore wind farms and maritime microgrids for electrical ships, vessels, ferries, and seaports. He received the Best Paper Prize of the Industrial & Commercial Power Systems Conference at IEEE-IAS for the period 2012 to 2013, and the Best Paper Award of IEEE International Conference on Smart Grid and Clean Energy Technologies, in 2018. He was a Guest Editor of the IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON INDUSTRIAL INFORMATICS Special Issue on Next Generation Intelligent Maritime Grids, in 2017, and IET Renewable Power Generation Special Issues on: Power Quality and Protection in Renewable Energy Systems and Microgrids, in 2019.

JOSEP M. GUERRERO (Fellow, IEEE) received the B.S. degree in telecommunications engineering, the M.S. degree in electronics engineering, and the Ph.D. degree in power electronics from Technical University of Catalonia, Barcelona, in 1997, 2000, and 2003, respectively. Since 2011, he has been a Full Professor with the Department of Energy Technology, Aalborg University, Denmark, where he is responsible for the Microgrid Research Program (www.microgrids.et.aau.dk). He has been the Chair Professor with Shandong University, since 2014; a Distinguished Guest Professor with Hunan University, since 2015; a Visiting Professor Fellow at Aston University, U.K., since 2016; and a Guest Professor at Nanjing University of Posts and Telecommunications. In 2019, he became the Villum Investigator. His research interests include oriented to different microgrid aspects, including power electronics, distributed energy-storage systems, hierarchical and cooperative control, energy management systems, smart metering, and the Internet of Things for AC/DC microgrid clusters and islanded mini-grids, recently specially focused on maritime microgrids for electrical ships, vessels, ferries, and seaports. He has published more than 500 journal papers in the fields of microgrids and renewable energy systems, which are cited more than 30,000 times. He received the Best Paper Award of the IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON ENERGY CONVERSION, for the period 2014 to 2015; the Best Paper Prize of IEEE-PES, in 2015; and the Best Paper Award of the Journal of Power Electronics, in 2016. During five consecutive years, from 2014 to 2018, he was awarded by Clarivate Analytics (former Thomson Reuters) as the Highly Cited Researcher. In 2015, he was elevated as an IEEE Fellow for his contributions on “distributed power systems and microgrids.” He is an associate editor for a number of IEEE TRANSACTIONS.