

An Inverter Model Simulating Accurate Harmonics With Low Computational Burden for Electromagnetic Transient Simulations

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Abstract—The electromagnetic transient (EMT) simulation of a power system involving power-electronics converters requires a fairly small time-step size to consider switching of the converters, thus leading to a heavy computational burden. To accelerate such simulations, this article generalizes the time average method (TAM), originally developed for real-time simulations, so that it becomes suitable to offline EMT simulations. For obtaining accurate current waveforms with a large time step, the TAM and the proposed method represent each leg of an inverter by voltage sources, and its output voltage is modified by interpolation at an instance of switching. The original TAM was intended for the primitive backward Euler method. This article contributes to generalize it for the trapezoidal integration method, which is widely used in offline simulation programs. In addition, the proposed method uses a simple formula to identify the switching instance for the implementation on off-the-shelf PCs, rather than a hardware counter in an field programmable gate array as used in the TAM. This article shows that the proposed method enables to extend the time step by a factor of five without deteriorating the accuracy. A case study demonstrates reduction of computational time by a factor of three for the offline simulation of a single-phase grid-connected inverter with reasonable reproduction of harmonics.

Index Terms—Electromagnetic transient (EMT) simulation, grid-connected inverter, harmonic analysis, voltage interpolation (VI).

I. INTRODUCTION

THE widespread use of photovoltaic (PV) and wind power generation has increased grid-connected inverters in power

systems. Such inverters interact with the power system and sometimes cause power quality issues related to harmonics [1]–[3]. Since the dynamic characteristics of inverters can be dealt with time-domain circuit simulations such as EMTP or EMTDC, they have been used as a major tool to investigate such interactions involving harmonics. The circuit simulation is also referred to as an electromagnetic transient (EMT) simulation to distinguish it from phasor domain simulations or electromagnetic field simulations.

In EMT simulations, the inverter is often modeled by ideal switches replicating switching operations of its power devices. The model which is called a switching (SW) model in this article can accurately simulate the harmonics produced by the switching operation. However, the SW model needs a fairly small simulation time step (around 1/100 of the switching cycle). Even if a single inverter is connected to the power system, all the system has to be calculated with the same small time step. Thus, the simulation takes considerable computation time. One of the technical challenges in applying the EMT simulations to power system analysis is satisfying both adequate simulation accuracy and acceptable computation time.

Linear interpolation methods [4]–[11] and variable/multiple time-step simulations [12]–[14] are typical methods for the SW model to simulate the dynamics of inverters accurately with a relatively large simulation time step. However, the linear interpolation methods require multiple interpolation processes if the system includes multiple inverters. The variable/multiple time-step simulations require a reformulation of the admittance matrix each time the time step changes. These may increase a computational burden when simulating a large-scale power system with multiple inverters. The averaging method [15] was extended for the modeling of grid-connected inverters so as to achieve fast EMT simulations [16]–[19], which is called a circuit average (CA) model. Although the model is able to operate with a large time-step (as large as the switching cycle), it cannot reproduce the harmonics produced by switching operations. This is because the model is based on averaged values over one switching cycle.

The time average method (TAM) [20], [21] was originally developed for real-time simulations in order to reproduce the behavior of inverters including harmonics with a large simulation time step. The method represents each leg of an inverter by voltage sources that apply the pulsewidth modulation (PWM)

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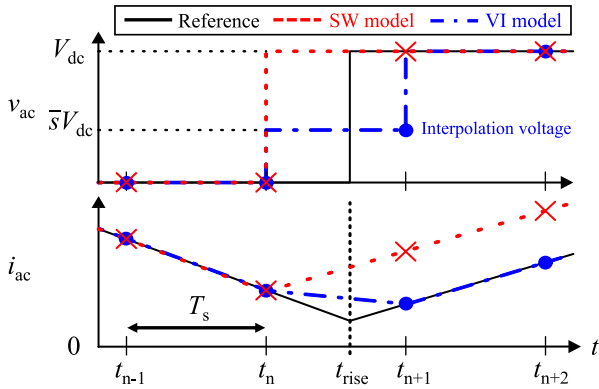


Fig. 1. AC voltage and current waveforms in the inverter.

voltage waveform to the ac side. At an instance of switching, the voltage is modified by interpolation to reduce the error in the ac current waveform. The original TAM was intended for the primitive backward Euler method of integration and implemented on a field programmable gate array (FPGA).

This article generalizes the TAM so that it becomes suitable to offline EMT simulations [22]. The proposed voltage interpolation (VI) method is applicable to the trapezoidal method of integration, which is widely used in offline EMT simulation programs. In addition, the proposed method uses a simple formula to identify the switching instance for the implementation on off-the-shelf PCs, rather than hardware counters implemented on an FPGA as used in the TAM. As a result, the proposed method realizes fast and accurate offline EMT simulations on general PCs. This article compares the simulation results of a single-phase grid-connected inverter obtained by the conventional SW model and the proposed method. The comparison verifies that the proposed method enables to extend the time step by a factor of five without deteriorating the accuracy, resulting in reduction of computation time by a factor of three with reasonable reproduction of harmonics.

II. OVERVIEW OF THE TAM

A. Error Caused by the SW Model

Fig. 1 shows the waveforms of ac voltage v_{ac} and ac current i_{ac} in a half-bridge inverter at a switching event. T_s is a simulation time step, and t_{n-1} , t_n , t_{n+1} , t_{n+2} are calculation points. The reference shows a theoretical waveform when v_{ac} rises at t_{rise} . Because digital simulations can hold the values only at the calculation points, the transition is reflected at t_{n+1} immediately after the switching instant t_{rise} . Because v_{ac} is applied to the ac inductor of the inverter, i_{ac} changes according to the integral of v_{ac} . The numerical integration by the backward Euler method is explained as calculating the area under the dotted line of v_{ac} . Even if the SW model outputs the same voltage as the reference at each time step, the dotted line differs from the reference. It means that the integral of v_{ac} in the SW model differs from that in the reference. The difference causes an error in i_{ac} [23], then it is accumulated in the following calculation points. Because

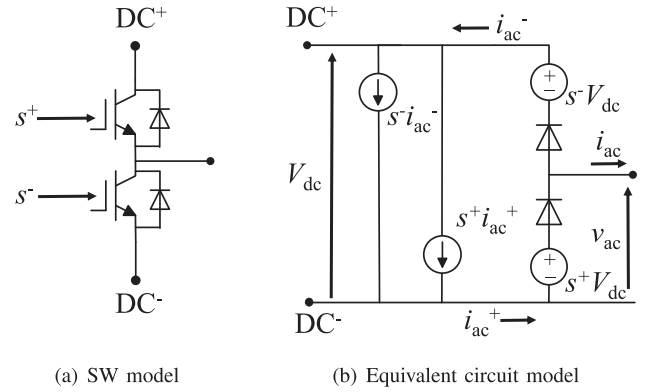


Fig. 2. Equivalent circuit model of an inverter leg used for the TAM and the VI method. (a) SW model. (b) Equivalent circuit model.

the error increases with increasing T_s , the SW model has to be used with a small T_s (around 1/100 of the switching cycle) for accurate simulations.

The basic idea of the TAM [20] is depicted in Fig. 1 as the VI model. It modifies the voltage at t_{n+1} from V_{dc} to $\bar{s}V_{dc}$, that is called “interpolation” of the voltage in this article. Although the dashed line of v_{ac} differs from the reference, the area under the dashed line is equal to that of the reference. It means that the integral of v_{ac} in the VI model coincides with that in the reference. As a result, i_{ac} can be simulated without error even if it is used with a larger T_s . If the inverter’s current is simulated accurately, the voltage and current harmonics in the grid side also become accurate.

B. Equivalent Circuit Model of an Inverter Leg

Fig. 2 shows the equivalent circuit model of an inverter leg for the TAM [21]. It consists of voltage controlled voltage sources s^+V_{dc} , s^-V_{dc} , current controlled current sources $s^+i_{ac}^+$, $s^-i_{ac}^-$, and two ideal diodes. s^+ and s^- correspond to the switching signals for the inverter leg. If a PWM signal (0 or 1) is fed to s^+ and s^- , the model outputs the same voltages and currents as the SW model at each terminal. If an interpolation signal between 0 and 1 is fed to s^+ and s^- , the model outputs intermediate voltage between 0 and V_{dc} at the ac terminal like the CA models. The ideal diodes enable to simulate the appropriate ac voltage v_{ac} according to the polarity of i_{ac} during deadtimes and a blocking state.

In the TAM and the VI method described later in Section III, 0 or 1 is fed to s^+ and s^- between the switching events, and the interpolation signal $0 < \bar{s} < 1$ is fed to s^+ and s^- at the calculation point around the switching events.

The equivalent circuit model operates as an inverter leg. Therefore, the method is applicable to any kinds of converters consisting of the inverter legs [21], [24]. For example, half-bridge, full-bridge, three-phase bridge, and boost converters.

C. Calculation of the Interpolation Value

The TAM originally uses high-speed hardware counters implemented on an FPGA to generate the interpolation value \bar{s} .

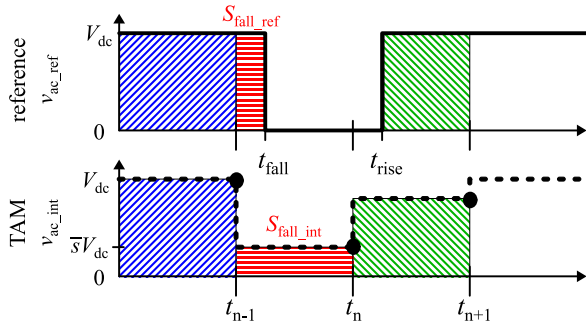


Fig. 3. AC voltage waveforms in the TAM for the backward Euler integration method.

The modulated switching signal s is oversampled at intervals much smaller than the simulation time step. At the end of each time step, the sampled switching signal is averaged over one simulation time step. Then, it is fed to the equivalent circuit model as an interpolation value \bar{s} .

Fig. 3 shows the relation between the reference voltage v_{ac_ref} and the discrete voltage obtained by the TAM. The reference voltage v_{ac_ref} falls at t_{fall} and then it rises at t_{rise} . The area S_{fall_ref} corresponds to the integral of v_{ac_ref} from t_{n-1} to t_n . The TAM outputs the averaged value $\bar{s}V_{dc}$ to the ac voltage v_{ac_int} at t_n . The area S_{fall_int} corresponds to the integral of v_{ac_int} from t_{n-1} to t_n by the backward Euler method. To simulate the ac current accurately, S_{fall_int} has to be equal to S_{fall_ref} in each time step. This is true only with the backward Euler integration. Therefore, the TAM has to be used with a solver applying the backward Euler integration method for accurate simulations.

There are two difficulties to apply the TAM to offline EMT simulations. First, it is not compatible with the solver applying the trapezoidal method, which is applied in many EMT simulation programs. Second, it uses hardware counters for generating the interpolation value, whereas the offline simulations are executed on general PCs. Thus, the interpolation value should be calculated on the processor independently of the hardware configurations.

III. PROPOSED VI METHOD

The proposed method generalizes the TAM in order to be suitable for the offline EMT simulations. The proposed method has an originality in its calculation algorithm of the interpolation value. It calculates the interpolation value based on a simple formula instead of averaging the switching signal by hardware counters. Because the proposed method does not include the ‘‘time averaging’’ process anymore, the proposed method is called as the VI method. Note that it has no relevance of algorithm to the linear interpolation methods [4]–[6].

A. Derivation of the Switching Time

To calculate the interpolation values, we first derive the switching times of the theoretical waveform t_{fall} and t_{rise} . Fig. 4 shows the triangular carrier PWM with synchronous sampling, v^* is a sampled voltage reference; and $v_{carrier}$ is a triangular carrier waveform.

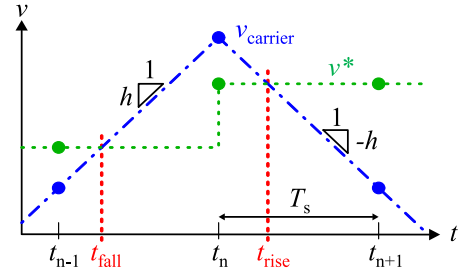


Fig. 4. Triangular carrier PWM with synchronous sampling: v^* is a sampled voltage reference; and $v_{carrier}$ is a triangular carrier waveform.

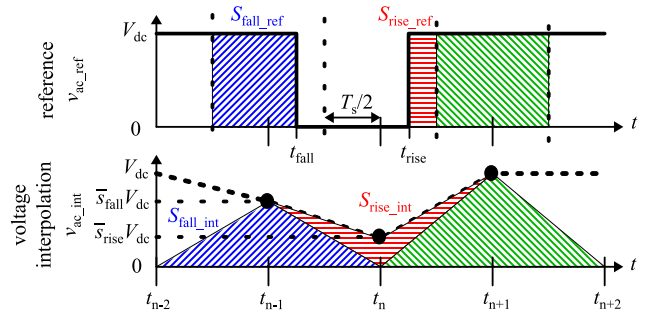


Fig. 5. AC voltage waveforms in the proposed VI method for the trapezoidal integration method.

which is commonly used in digital control. Voltage reference v^* is updated either asymmetrically (top and bottom) or symmetrically (only top) being synchronized with the triangular carrier $v_{carrier}$. The slope of the carrier h is determined by amplitude and frequency of the carrier. According to these parameters, t_{fall} and t_{rise} are obtained based on the following equations:

$$t_{fall} = t_{n-1} + \frac{v^* - v_{carrier}}{h} \quad (1)$$

$$t_{rise} = t_n - \frac{v^* - v_{carrier}}{h} \quad (2)$$

where t_{n-1} and t_n are the calculation points closest to t_{fall} and t_{rise} , respectively.

From (1) and (2), the accurate switching times are obtained by the calculation regardless of the simulation time step. The calculation can be implemented by the control system function in the offline EMT simulation program.

B. Derivation of the Interpolation Value for the Trapezoidal Integration Method

Fig. 5 shows the relation between the reference voltage v_{ac_ref} and the discrete voltage obtained by the VI method v_{ac_int} for the trapezoidal integration method. The VI method outputs the interpolation voltages $\bar{s}_{fall}V_{dc}$ and $\bar{s}_{rise}V_{dc}$ at t_{n-1} and t_n , respectively. The $\bar{s}_{fall}V_{dc}$ and $\bar{s}_{rise}V_{dc}$ are determined to make the hatched areas in v_{ac_int} to be equal to the hatched areas in v_{ac_ref} in each calculation point. Then, the numerical integral of v_{ac_int} by the trapezoidal method becomes equal to the integral of v_{ac_ref} .

The area $S_{\text{fall_ref}}$ corresponds to the integral of $v_{\text{ac_ref}}$ from $t_{n-1} - T_s/2$ to $t_{n-1} + T_s/2$. It is represented by

$$S_{\text{fall_ref}} = V_{\text{dc}} \left\{ \frac{T_s}{2} + (t_{\text{fall}} - t_{n-1}) \right\} \quad (3)$$

where t_{fall} is the switching time of the theoretical waveform, and t_{n-1} is the closest calculation point to t_{fall} . In the same way, the area $S_{\text{rise_ref}}$ is represented by

$$S_{\text{rise_ref}} = V_{\text{dc}} \left\{ \frac{T_s}{2} - (t_{\text{rise}} - t_n) \right\} \quad (4)$$

where t_{rise} is the switching time of the theoretical waveform, and t_n is the closest calculation point to t_{rise} . On the other hand, $S_{\text{fall_int}}$ and $S_{\text{rise_int}}$, which represent, respectively, the hatched areas in $v_{\text{ac_int}}$ are given by the following:

$$S_{\text{fall_int}} = \bar{s}_{\text{fall}} V_{\text{dc}} T_s \quad (5)$$

$$S_{\text{rise_int}} = \bar{s}_{\text{rise}} V_{\text{dc}} T_s. \quad (6)$$

The interpolation values \bar{s}_{fall} at t_{n-1} and \bar{s}_{rise} at t_n are derived to satisfy $S_{\text{fall_ref}} = S_{\text{fall_int}}$ and $S_{\text{rise_ref}} = S_{\text{rise_int}}$ from (3)–(6) as follows:

$$\bar{s}_{\text{fall}} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{t_{\text{fall}} - t_{n-1}}{T_s} \quad (7)$$

$$\bar{s}_{\text{rise}} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{t_{\text{rise}} - t_n}{T_s}. \quad (8)$$

Substituting (1) for (7), and (2) for (8), the interpolation values \bar{s}_{fall} and \bar{s}_{rise} are, respectively, given by the following:

$$\bar{s}_{\text{fall}} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{v^* - v_{\text{carrier}}}{hT_s} \quad (9)$$

$$\bar{s}_{\text{rise}} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{v^* - v_{\text{carrier}}}{hT_s} \quad (10)$$

which are represented by the same formula for both the voltage fall and rise. In the VI method, \bar{s}_{fall} and \bar{s}_{rise} are calculated in the processor according to the formula shown in (9) and (10), respectively. Thus, this method does not require any hardware counters. The obtained interpolation values are handed over to the equivalent circuit model shown in Fig. 2.

C. Restriction of the Proposed Method

The interpolation voltage was derived under the assumption that the voltage reference v^* and the slope of the carrier h are constant during a half switching cycle. Because of this assumption, this method enables to calculate the interpolation voltage at the calculation point before the switching event. This assumption is satisfied in case of the triangular carrier PWM with synchronous sampling, which is commonly used in digital controllers. However, the proposed method cannot be applied to the simulation of the converters with analog controllers, which process the continuous signal. This is because the voltage reference v^* continuously changes during a half-switching cycle. The overmodulation condition is not investigated in this article because we focus on grid-connected converters. This would be a subject for future investigation, especially for simulating motor drive applications.

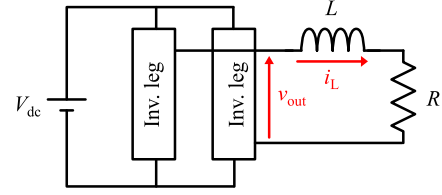


Fig. 6. Simulation circuit of a full-bridge inverter with open-loop control.

TABLE I
CIRCUIT PARAMETERS OF THE FULL-BRIDGE INVERTER WITH OPEN-LOOP CONTROL

Input voltage	V_{dc}	300 V
Output frequency	f_{ac}	50 Hz
AC inductor	L	1 mH
Resistor	R	10 Ω
Switching frequency	f_{sw}	20 kHz
Dead time	T_{d}	1 μs
Modulation index	M	0.9

IV. EVALUATION OF THE SIMULATED INVERTER CURRENT

This section evaluates the accuracy of the simulated inverter current including harmonics. An inverter is modeled using the proposed VI method (referred to as the VI model hereafter). The evaluation is carried out on a full-bridge inverter with simple open-loop control because the main purpose is verification of the VI method.

A. Simulation Conditions

Fig. 6 shows the circuit configuration of the full-bridge inverter used for the verification, and Table I shows its circuit parameters. The SW model and the VI model are implemented on each inverter leg, as shown in Fig. 2 (a) and (b), respectively, and a full-bridge inverter is built with paralleling the two inverter legs. An ac inductor L and a resistor R are connected to the ac terminal. Switching signals are generated by the triangular carrier PWM, and a sinusoidal waveform of constant amplitude and frequency is given as a voltage reference. Bipolar modulation is adopted to reduce the common mode voltage, which is often used in PV generation systems [25], [26]. However, the VI method is applicable to not only the bipolar modulation, but also the unipolar modulation. The dead time of $T_{\text{d}} = 1 \mu\text{s}$ is inserted to confirm the distortion caused by the dead time. Because the main purpose is verification of the VI method, the inverter is operated with simple open-loop control. The inverter is equipped with no current controls and other upper-level controls. Under these conditions, the output current i_{out} and the output voltage v_{out} are evaluated in the waveforms and frequency spectra at the steady state. The reference value for comparison was obtained by the SW model with the sufficiently small simulation time step $T_s = 0.1 \mu\text{s}$. The evaluated output currents were obtained by the SW model and the VI model with $T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$. The accuracy of the current waveforms is evaluated by comparing them to the reference value. XTAP [27], which is an EMT simulation program developed by the CRIEPI, was used for the simulations.

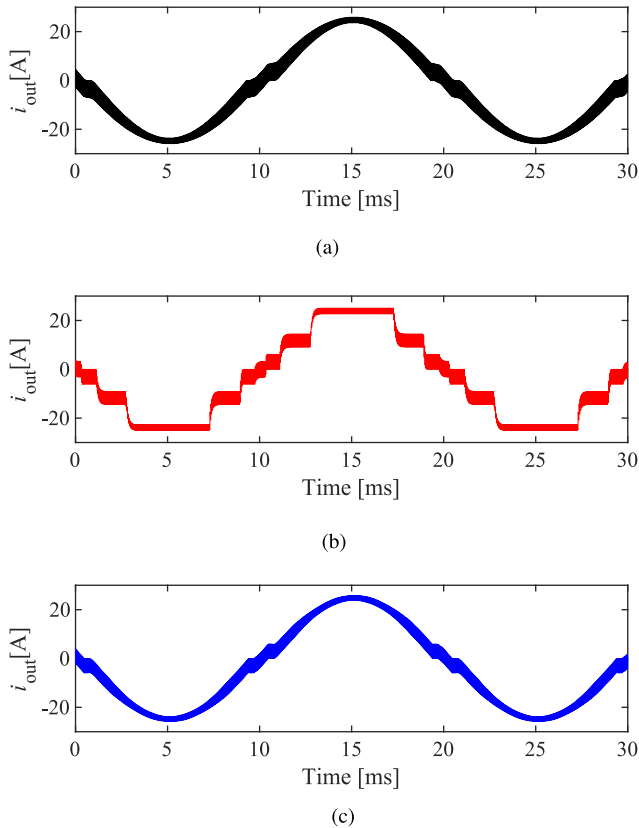


Fig. 7. Simulated waveforms of the output current. (a) Reference. (b) SW model ($T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$). (c) VI model ($T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$).

B. Accuracy of the Inverter Current

Fig. 7 shows the simulated waveforms of the output current of the inverter i_{out} . Fig. 8 shows the frequency spectra of i_{out} , where (a) is the reference value, (b) and (c) are the simulation results by the SW model and the VI model, respectively. The reference value shown in (a) contained not only the third, fifth, and seventh harmonic components caused by the dead time, but also the switching frequency components f_{sw} and $2f_{\text{sw}}$. Fig. 7 (b) obtained by the SW model shows a waveform that changes steeply in steps. This is because the pulse width of the output voltage can take only integer multiples of the simulation time step, as explained with Fig. 1. As a result, the original sinusoidal waveform is changed to the stepwise waveform, which is an inaccurate result. The number of steps becomes $1/2f_{\text{sw}}T_s$ except the operation in the overmodulation range. Thus, the larger time step reduces the available voltage steps, resulting in degrading the simulation accuracy. It is limited to only five voltage steps in this simulation condition, and it was obviously observed in Fig. 7 (b). As a result, its frequency spectrum in Fig. 8 (b) contained higher harmonics than the reference value in all harmonic regions. Fig. 7 (c) obtained by the VI model accurately simulates both the current distortion caused by the dead time and switching ripples. Fig. 8 (c) also demonstrates that the VI model simulates the almost same amount of harmonics to the reference value. It contained some amount of error in the switching frequency

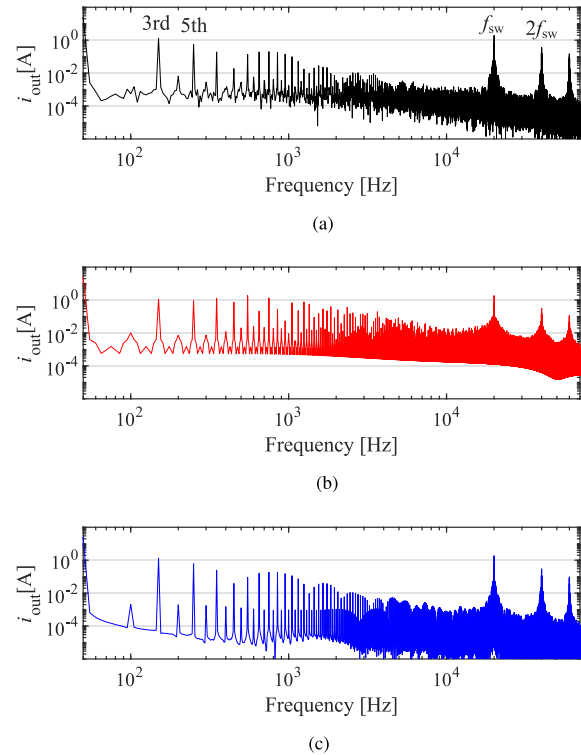


Fig. 8. Frequency spectra of the output current. (a) Reference. (b) SW model ($T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$). (c) VI model ($T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$).

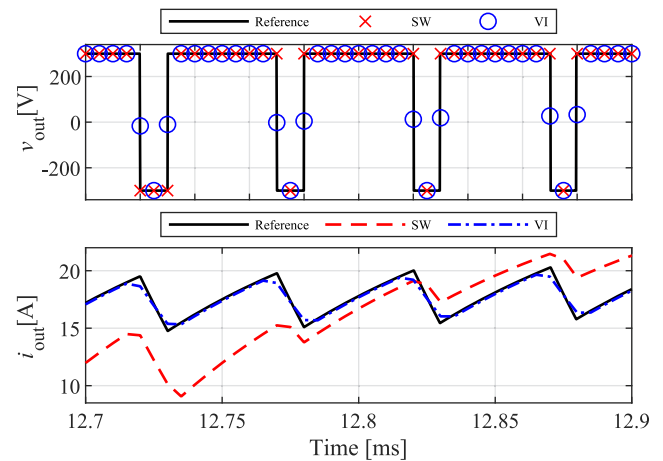


Fig. 9. Enlarged current and voltage waveforms.

components f_{sw} and $2f_{\text{sw}}$, which were 10% smaller than that of the reference value. These results demonstrate that the VI method can simulate the harmonic components in the output current even with a large simulation time step. We discuss the reason why the error occurred at the switching frequency component f_{sw} in the VI model. Fig. 9 is an enlarged waveform of the output voltage v_{out} and the output current i_{out} . In the SW model, v_{out} was either $V_{\text{dc}} = 300 \text{ V}$ or $V_{\text{dc}} = -300 \text{ V}$. This resulted in causing the error in i_{out} . In the VI model, i_{out} was accurately simulated by interpolating the output voltage v_{out} at

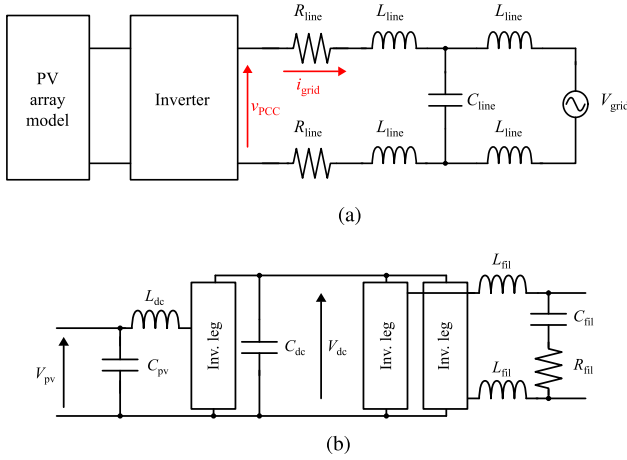


Fig. 10. Simulation circuit of a PV generation system. (a) Overall configuration. (b) Circuit configuration of the inverter.

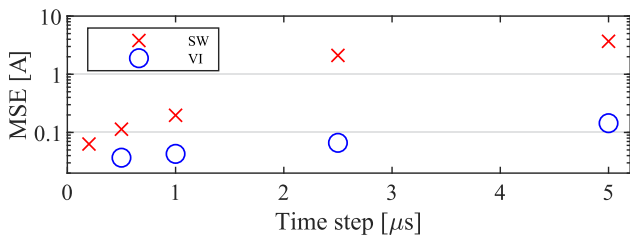


Fig. 11. Relation of simulation time steps and errors.

the switching transitions. Nevertheless, the peaks of the ripple in i_{out} was rounded as compared to the reference value. This is because the number of calculation points in one switching cycle decreases as the simulation time step becomes closer to the switching cycle. Then, the simulated wave had no calculation points around the peaks of the ripple. As a result, the harmonics of the switching frequency component became smaller than the reference value. The error was less than 10% to the reference value in this simulation condition. The error is a factor, which determines the upper limit of the simulation time step in the VI model.

V. MODEL COMPARISON WHEN APPLIED TO A GRID-CONNECTED INVERTER

This section compares computational times and simulation results among the SW model, the VI model, and the CA model. The comparison is carried out by a grid-connected inverter for PV generation systems considering a practical use case.

A. Simulation Conditions

Fig. 10 shows the configuration of the PV generation system used for the comparison. Table II shows its circuit parameters. The configuration is based on the standard model of the Institute of Electrical Engineers of Japan (IEEJ) [28] with modifying some of its parameters and controls. Fig. 10 (a) is the overall configuration. A PV array model is connected to the dc side of the inverter. The ac side of the inverter is connected to a single-phase

TABLE II
CIRCUIT PARAMETERS OF THE PV GENERATION SYSTEM

Line voltage	V_{grid}	200 V
Line frequency	f_{grid}	50 Hz
Line inductance	L_{line}	0.1 mH
Line capacitance	C_{line}	0 μ F (in Fig.11-14) 0.211 μ F(in Fig.15,16)
Line resistance	R_{line}	0.05 Ω
Output voltage of PV array	V_{pv}	235 V
DC-link voltage	V_{dc}	400 V
DC filter capacitor	C_{pv}	0.5 mF
DC inductor	L_{dc}	1 mH
DC-link capacitor	C_{dc}	5 mF
AC filter inductor	L_{fil}	0.4 mH
AC filter capacitor	C_{fil}	5 μ F
AC filter resistance	R_{fil}	12.8 Ω
Switching frequency	f_{sw}	20 kHz
Dead time	T_d	1 μ s

ac grid modeled by L_{line} , R_{line} , C_{line} , and a voltage source V_{grid} . C_{line} is connected only in the section D, and the sections A to C are carried out without C_{line} . Fig. 10 (b) is the circuit configuration of the inverter. It consists of a boost converter, a full-bridge inverter, and switching ripple filters. Switching signals are generated by the triangular carrier PWM with bipolar modulation.

The inverter legs are implemented by the SW model, the VI model, and the CA model. The difference among the three models is only the inverter legs, and the other circuits and control systems have the same configuration among them.

B. Simulation Time Steps and Errors

For comparing the computational time, it is necessary to set appropriate simulation time steps for each model. Therefore, we first clarify the relation between simulation time steps and errors in simulated waveforms. The mean square error (MSE) is used to quantify the error in a simulated waveform. The MSE is obtained by taking the root mean square of the errors in the N calculation points over one cycle of the ac grid, which is expressed as follows:

$$MSE(i_{grid}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \{i_{grid_sim}(n) - i_{grid_ref}(n)\}^2} \quad (11)$$

where $i_{grid_sim}(n)$ is the simulated value of i_{grid} at the n th calculation point and $i_{grid_ref}(n)$ is the reference value at the same time. The reference value is obtained by the SW model with the sufficiently small simulation time step $T_s = 0.1 \mu$ s. The error of the VI model is not influenced whether its simulation time step is synchronous or asynchronous to the switching cycle. However, the error of the SW model randomly fluctuates if its simulation time step is asynchronous to the switching cycle. This makes the quantitative comparison difficult. Therefore, all the simulated values are obtained with the simulation time steps that are equal to the switching cycle divided by integers in order to prevent the effect in the SW model.

Fig. 11 shows the relation between simulation time steps T_s and the MSEs in the simulated waveforms by the SW model and the VI model. The MSE increases as T_s increases in both

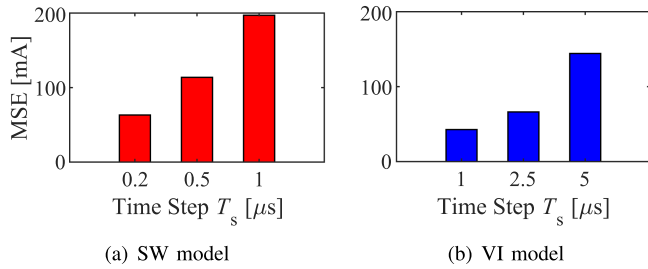


Fig. 12. Comparison of the errors between SW model and VI model. (a) SW model. (b) VI model.

models. Compared with the same T_s , the MSE of the SW model is larger than that of the VI model.

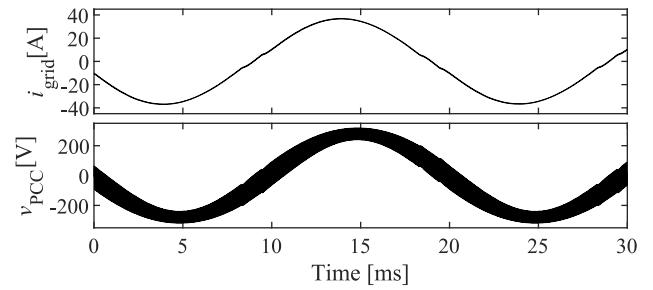
Fig. 12 extracts a part of the values shown in Fig. 11 to compare (a) the SW model and (b) the VI model. The MSEs when the VI model is used with $T_s = 1 \mu\text{s}$, $2.5 \mu\text{s}$, $5 \mu\text{s}$ are smaller than the MSEs when the SW model is used with $T_s = 0.2 \mu\text{s}$, $0.5 \mu\text{s}$, $1 \mu\text{s}$, respectively. Therefore, even if the VI model is used with a simulation time step, which is five times larger than that of the SW model, the VI model can obtain more accurate simulation results. The following comparisons are carried out by setting the simulation time step to $1 \mu\text{s}$ for the SW model and $5 \mu\text{s}$ for the VI model.

Similarly, the simulated waveforms by the CA model are also evaluated by the MSE. The simulation time step of the CA model is generally set to match the sampling period of voltages and currents in order to simulate the influence of a time delay in digital control. The sampling period is $25 \mu\text{s}$, since the values are sampled at both the upper and lower peaks of the 20 kHz carrier waves. Thus, the simulation time step of the CA model is set to $25 \mu\text{s}$. In that case, The MSE of the CA model is 839 mA.

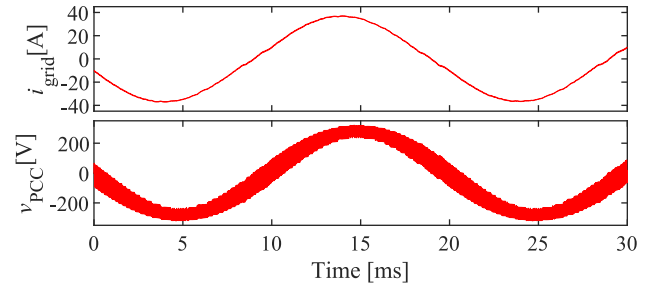
C. Simulated Waveforms Without Resonance

In accordance with the previous section, the simulations were performed with $1 \mu\text{s}$ (MSE = 197 mA) for the SW model, $5 \mu\text{s}$ (MSE = 144 mA) for the VI model, and $25 \mu\text{s}$ (MSE = 839 mA) for the CA model.

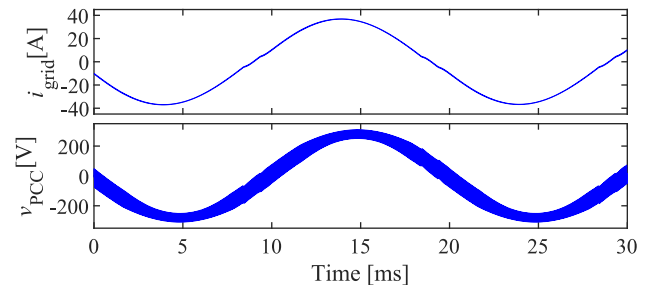
Fig. 13 shows the simulated waveforms of the ac current i_{grid} and the ac voltage v_{PCC} at the point of common coupling (PCC) where (a) is the reference value, and (b)–(d) are the waveforms obtained by the SW model, the VI model, and the CA model, respectively. All the models simulated the sinusoidal current waveform very well. The switching ripple in the voltage waveform is also reproduced by the SW model and the VI model. Fig. 14 shows the enlarged waveforms. The SW model and the VI model reproduce the ripple of the switching frequency, whereas the CA model cannot deal with this ripple. The envelope of the v_{PCC} in the VI model seems slightly smaller than the reference. This results from the fewer calculation points by using the large simulation time step, which is not caused by the algorithm of the VI model.



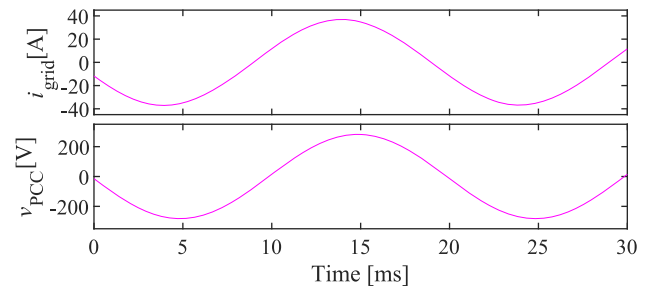
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Fig. 13. Simulated waveforms without resonance ($C_{\text{line}} = 0$). (a) Reference. (b) SW model ($T_s = 1 \mu\text{s}$). (c) VI model ($T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$). (d) CA model ($T_s = 25 \mu\text{s}$).

TABLE III
COMPUTATIONAL TIMES OF EACH MODEL

Models	Computational time
SW model ($T_s = 1 \mu\text{s}$)	86 s
VI model ($T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$)	33 s
CA model ($T_s = 25 \mu\text{s}$)	7 s

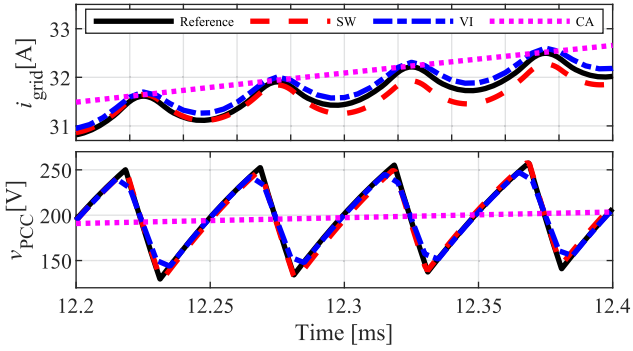


Fig. 14. Enlarged waveforms without resonance ($C_{\text{line}} = 0$).

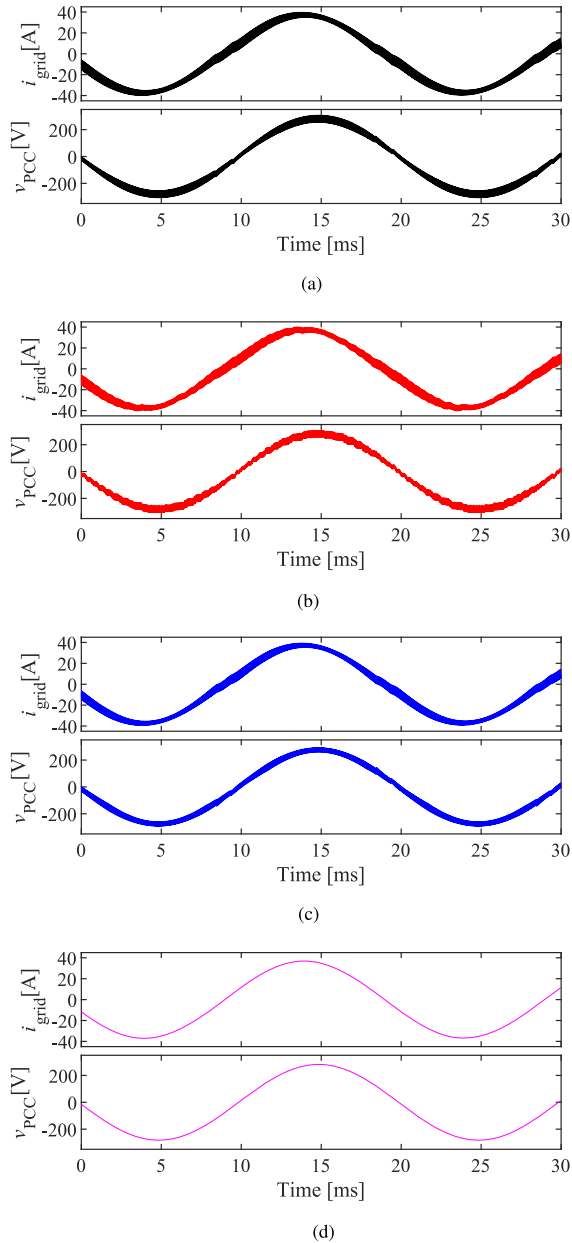


Fig. 15. Simulated waveforms with resonance ($C_{\text{line}} = 0.211 \mu\text{F}$). (a) Reference. (b) SW model ($T_s = 1 \mu\text{s}$). (c) VI model ($T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$). (d) CA model ($T_s = 25 \mu\text{s}$).

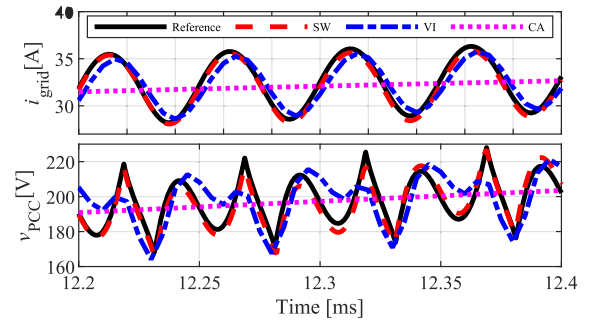


Fig. 16. Enlarged waveforms with resonance ($C_{\text{line}} = 0.211 \mu\text{F}$).

D. Comparison of the Computational Times

Table III shows the computational times required to execute the EMT simulation of 5 s in each model. The VI model ($T_s = 5 \mu\text{s}$) reduced the computational time by a factor of three comparing to the SW model ($T_s = 1 \mu\text{s}$). The CA model reduced the computational time by a factor of 12, whereas it was not able to deal with the switching ripple.

This result demonstrates that the VI model can reduce the computational time than the SW model with reasonable reproduction of harmonics. The CA model can further reduce the computational time if the simulation does not have to deal with the harmonics such as switching ripples.

E. Simulated Waveforms With Resonance

Simulations were carried out with inserting the line capacitance $C_{\text{line}} = 0.211 \mu\text{F}$, as shown in Fig. 10. It corresponds to the parasitic capacitance of the cable to ground, and it causes resonance with the line inductance.

Fig. 15 shows the simulated waveforms of the ac current i_{grid} and the ac voltage v_{PCC} at the PCC under the resonance condition. Fig. 16 shows the enlarged waveforms. The SW model and the VI model reproduced the increase of the harmonic current and the voltage fluctuation due to resonance, whereas the CA model was not able to simulate the phenomena. It has been reported that such kind of resonance in the high-frequency region causes an overheat of equipment or malfunctions of power line carrier communications. Thus, the resonance caused by inverters is one of the important phenomena to be dealt with in the EMT analysis of power systems. The CA model may overlook the failures caused by the harmonics in the high frequency region although the model enables to enlarge the simulation time step and reduces the computational time.

VI. CONCLUSION

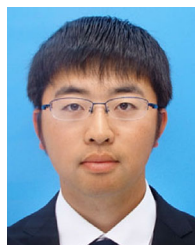
One of the technical challenges in applying the EMT simulations to power system analysis is satisfying both adequate simulation accuracy and acceptable computational time. The simulation involving power-electronics converters, especially requires a fairly small time-step size to consider switching of the converters, thus leading to a heavy computational burden. To solve the tradeoff, this article generalized the TAM, originally

developed for real-time simulations, so that it becomes suitable to offline EMT simulations. The proposed VI method is applicable to the trapezoidal method of integration, which is widely used in offline EMT simulation programs. In addition, the proposed method uses a simple formula to identify the switching instance for the implementation on off-the-shelf PCs, rather than a hardware counter in an FPGA as used in the TAM. The simulation results demonstrated that the proposed method enables to extend the simulation time step by a factor of five without deteriorating the accuracy, resulting in reduction of computational time by a factor of three with reasonable reproduction of harmonics.

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