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2 **Simon Heslop**

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4 **Voltage Probability Analysis - PV and Load in Low Voltage Networks**

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6 Simon Heslop<sup>1</sup>, Iain MacGill<sup>1</sup> and John Fletcher<sup>1</sup>

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8 <sup>1</sup>*School of Electrical Engineering and Telecommunications, University of NSW, Sydney,*  
9 *Australia NSW*

10 *E-mail: s.heslop@student.unsw.edu.au*

11  
12 **Abstract**

13 Growing penetrations of distributed PV generation in electrical networks pose new voltage  
14 management challenges for Distribution Network Service Providers across Australia. This  
15 paper uses a year of half hourly load and PV data gathered from 300 residences to perform  
16 voltage probability analysis on a typical residential low voltage feeder with high PV  
17 penetrations. A number of possible voltage management scenarios are considered. These  
18 include the impact of varied levels of demand-side management to reduce peak demand,  
19 PV system tripping on high voltage and storage. Results show that PV system tripping on  
20 high voltages can effectively manage potential high voltage excursions and seemingly  
21 reasonable levels of demand-side management at times of peak demand can effectively  
22 reduce low-voltage excursions. Modest sized storage systems are also shown to be effective  
23 at reducing low-voltage excursions. To achieve a DSM voltage management target, the  
24 probabilistic method presented is considered a deferrable load and/or storage capacity sizing  
25 strategy, and also a method to determine potential impacts on customers due to required PV  
26 and load tripping.

27 **Introduction**

28 The deployment of photovoltaic (PV) generation is increasing around the world (Oosterveer  
29 and Mol, 2006) Australia is no exception with installed PV capacity by 2014 representing  
30 more than 7% of total installed generation capacity (Solar PV map, 2015), having risen from  
31 insignificant levels as recently as 2009. Nearly all of this deployment is small scale (< 5  
32 kW) single phase residential systems connected to the low voltage network (Australian  
33 Photovoltaic Institute, 2013). These systems are raising a number of challenges, notably  
34 with voltage management, for the distribution network service providers (DNSPs) across  
35 Australia. In particular, PV can reduce minimum network flows (or even reverse them)  
36 driving up network voltages.

37 This paper conducts a voltage probability analysis for a typical low voltage residential  
38 feeder hosting both load and PV generation. The data set is a year of actual half-hourly load  
39 and PV data for 300 residences in Sydney, Australia. Voltage probability data is obtained  
40 by running a large number of load flow calculations in DIgSILENT, with load and PV  
41 profiles selected randomly from the 300 PV and load data sets available. The 300 PV and  
42 load datasets are altered to represent different voltage management scenarios including:  
43 demand side management (DSM), PV tripping on high voltage, load tripping on low voltage  
44 and battery storage. Due to the significant data set available, and the large number of load

45 flow calculations conducted, a probability analysis approach to these voltage management  
46 scenarios is possible. Taking a probabilistic approach differs from previous work looking  
47 at the voltage profiles of residential feeders in the presence of PV, which tend to be  
48 deterministic in nature. An example of this is (Tonkoski et al., 2012), where for the voltage  
49 analysis conducted, each house is assigned the same net load value between  $\pm 6.25$  kW.

50 PV inverters can be used to control voltage rise, either through real power curtailment (Lin  
51 et al., 2012) or reactive power absorption (Keane et al., 2011). This paper looks at real  
52 power curtailment only. In (Lin et al., 2012), a financial analysis is conducted. The optimal  
53 PV installation capacity, taking into account the required real power curtailment to ensure  
54 voltage levels are maintained, is calculated using a net present value (NPV) analysis. This  
55 paper, as opposed to a financial analysis, presents an impact analysis, looking at the  
56 probabilistic PV system downtime to ensure an upper voltage limit (253 V) is not breached.

57 Load shifting algorithms, peak load shifting to PV generation periods, are used in (Malik  
58 and Havel, 2014) and (Yao et al., 2013). In (Malik and Havel, 2014) the objective of the  
59 algorithm is to maximize the energy transfer from the PV system to the electric water heater  
60 (EWH), in (Yao et al., 2013) it is to minimise the energy bill for the customer. In (Argiento,  
61 2012), load tripping and microgeneration is controlled to ensure load demand is met during  
62 a “load event”, where load demand exceeds generation. Load tripping and microgeneration  
63 is controlled to balance load through minimisation of a cost of energy function.

64 The above papers on load shifting and load tripping present methods which optimise the  
65 DSM control of participating generation and/or load to achieve an objective. This paper  
66 takes advantage of probabilistic analysis to illustrate the key message that a significant  
67 reduction in low voltage excursion is possible without complex DSM control techniques.  
68 The work on battery storage in this paper is equivalent to simulation of load shifting, where  
69 the probabilistic energy capacity (battery size or deferrable load) required to ensure a low  
70 voltage level is not breached is determined. This approach is also considered a novel battery  
71 sizing strategy, compared to what is currently proposed in the literature, (Yang et al., 2014)  
72 for example. A probabilistic analysis on the impact of load tripping on low voltage is also  
73 presented, as opposed to deterministic (Argiento, 2012).

74 Along with battery and/or deferrable load sizing, to achieve a DSM voltage management  
75 target, the probabilistic method presented can also be used to determine the impact of  
76 required PV and load tripping on customers.

77 The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents the method, describing the dataset and  
78 the low voltage feeder model. Section 3 presents the results of the analysis for a range of  
79 different PV penetrations and voltage management options, and Section 4 provides  
80 concluding comments and suggests possible areas of extension.

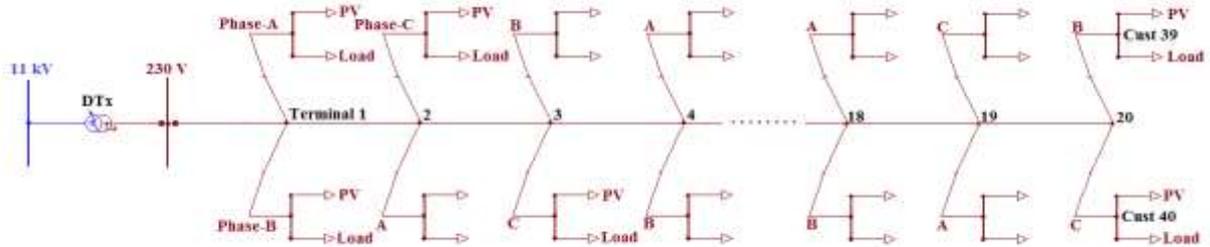
## 81 **Method**

### 82 *Dataset*

83 The dataset used for the voltage analysis is provided by Ausgrid, Australia’s largest (by  
84 customer) distribution network service provider (DNSP). Ausgrid operates an electricity  
85 network in NSW, Australia, including Sydney. The data is sourced from 300 randomly  
86 selected solar customers in Ausgrid’s electricity network between 1 July 2010 and 30 June  
87 2011, a years’ worth of data.

88 *Feeder model – DIgSILENT*

89 The characteristics of the feeder used for analysis are those typically used by Endeavour  
 90 Energy. Endeavour Energy is the DNSP servicing Greater Western Sydney. Voltage  
 91 standards for Endeavour and Ausgrid are 230+10%/-6%. Customers are evenly distributed  
 92 across the phases. Each customer connection consists of a load and PV system. Figure 1  
 93 presents the DIgSILENT schematic of the feeder. A 400 m long feeder with 20 terminals  
 94 hosting 40 customers is used for the study, a typical urban feeder. Overhead (OH) line is  
 95 used for the analysis as the majority of Australia’s residential low voltage network consists  
 96 of OH line. Residential low voltage feeders are designed based on load, to ensure voltage  
 97 remains within regulation limits. Therefore, a low voltage residential feeder with different  
 98 characteristics to the one used in this paper is still expected to experience experiencing  
 99 similar voltage measurements as acquired in this analysis. As a result, the voltage  
 100 probabilities resulting from the analysis of a typical OH line feeder will be representative  
 101 of what is likely to occur for the majority of OH line feeders in a residential low voltage  
 102 network



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**Figure 1. Schematic of DIgSILENT feeder model**

106 *Voltage Probability Analysis*

107 The voltage probability analysis examines the impact of varying load and PV profiles on  
 108 voltage levels when applied to the forty customers connected to the DIgSILENT feeder  
 109 model described in Section 2.2. The analysis is performed for five different scenarios. For  
 110 all scenarios, the load and PV profile for each of the forty connected customers are randomly  
 111 selected from the 300 available. Using DIgSILENT, a load flow calculation is then  
 112 performed at hourly intervals across the year between the times of 10 am and 10 pm. For  
 113 each load flow calculation the voltage for each customer is recorded. The end of the feeder  
 114 is where the lowest voltage occurs during peak load times. The random load and PV profile  
 115 selection is implemented a further nineteen times and the load flow calculations repeated  
 116 for the year. The first of the five scenarios’ for which the voltage analysis is performed  
 117 leaves the load and PV profiles unaltered; this scenario is referred to as the reference  
 118 scenario. For the remaining scenarios, either the dataset is altered or a voltage control  
 119 method simulated.

120 *Demand side management*

121 In this scenario a demand side management control is modelled. The load datasets are  
 122 altered such that the top 5% of customer load samples are decreased by 50% to model the  
 123 effect of demand side management measures targeting peak demand.

124 *PV inverter tripping on high voltage*

125 In this scenario PV inverter tripping on high voltage is modelled. After each load flow  
126 calculation, the voltage at each customer is examined, moving sequentially from the end of  
127 the feeder towards the DTx. If over-voltage is detected at a customer then their PV system  
128 is tripped off and the load flow calculation repeated. This process is repeated until no over-  
129 voltage is detected; a tripped PV system will remain tripped. Once no more over-voltages  
130 are detected the PV downtime due to tripping is then calculated. This process is repeated  
131 for increases in PV system size, 1pu to 1.5pu in 0.1pu steps.

132 *Load tripping on low voltage*

133 In this scenario load tripping on low voltage is modelled. The load tripping process is the  
134 same as for PV inverter tripping, the only difference being that the tripping of load occurs  
135 when a voltage less than 216 V is detected. The average PV system size is 1.7 kW, so a  
136 reasonable comparison in the downtime between load and PV can be made, 1.7 kW is the  
137 amount of load “tripped” when a voltage lower than 216 V is detected.

138 *Battery storage*

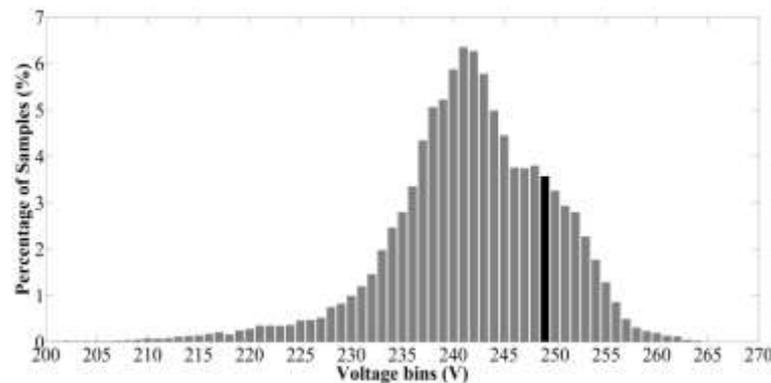
139 In this final scenario, households own battery storage to ensure voltages are maintained  
140 above a lower voltage limit. After each load flow calculation, the voltage of the two  
141 customers at the end of the feeder is recorded. If the voltage for either customer is under the  
142 lower voltage limit (230 V, 220 V or 216 V) then the load of every customer is incrementally  
143 reduced until the voltage is within the limit. For each day, the amount of energy required to  
144 ensure the voltage remains above the limit is recorded. This analysis produces probabilistic  
145 battery storage capacity requirements to keep voltages above a set limit.

146 **Results**

147 *Reference scenario*

148 For the reference scenario, the voltages recorded for the customers at the end of the feeder  
149 are arranged into a voltage histogram, Figure 2, showing the impact of PV generation and  
150 load on voltage spread. The DTx no-load voltage is 250 V. Examining Figure 2, load  
151 produces a voltage spread of 49 V, over three times that of PV at 14 V. Also, the total  
152 percentage of voltage recordings below 216 V is only 0.7%, showing how a small number  
153 of high load periods have a large impact on voltage spread.

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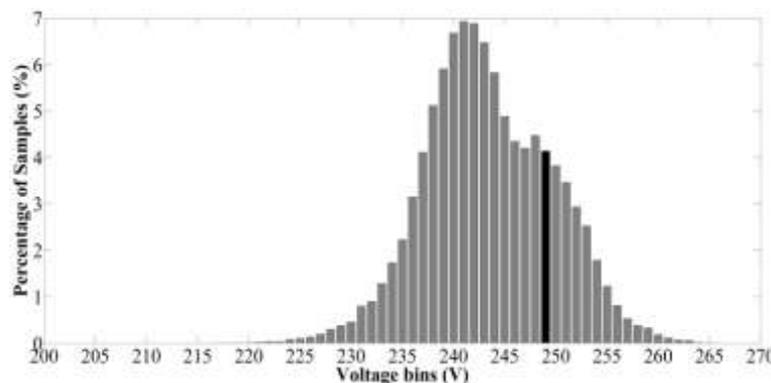
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**Figure 2. Voltage histogram – reference scenario. The highlighted bar indicates the DTx voltage tap setting.**

### *Demand side management*

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The next scenario examines the impact of decreasing peak load demand on low voltage excursion. Figure 3 gives the voltage histogram for when the top 5% of load samples are reduced by 50%, significantly, the number of voltage recordings below 216 V falls to zero. Whilst a 50% decrease in load appears significant, the top 5% of load samples for all customers is, on average, approximately three times that of the customers mean of the evening peak load and in some cases it is over ten times. The peak load demand reduction is therefore relatively not large. Comparing Figure 3 to Figure 2 shows the extent to which low voltage excursion can be reduced for relatively small reductions in peak load demand. This reduction should not require complex control systems and could be achieved through tariffs and in-house displays (Australian Senate Committee Report on Electricity Prices, 2013)



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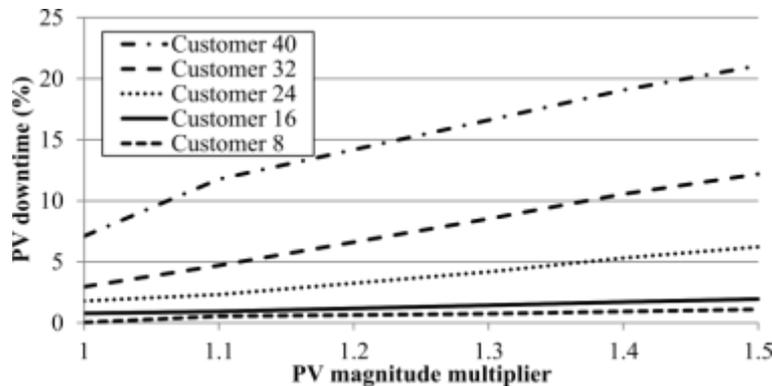
**Figure 3. Voltage histogram 50% reduction in top 5% of samples**

### *PV inverter tripping on high voltage*

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The next scenario models PV inverter tripping on high voltage. For customers 8, 16, 24, 32 and 40, Figure 4 gives the PV downtime as a percentage plotted against a PV multiplier ranging from 1pu to 1.5pu. Figure 4 shows that PV downtime time for each customer increases linearly with PV system size. As expected, it is the customer at the end of the feeder who experiences the most PV downtime. These results show that PV can be

180 accommodated by LV feeders with just an appropriately set trip voltage, complex  
 181 control/communication systems are not necessary. With an increase in PV system size  
 182 though, the PV downtime for customers located towards the end of the feeder becomes  
 183 significant.

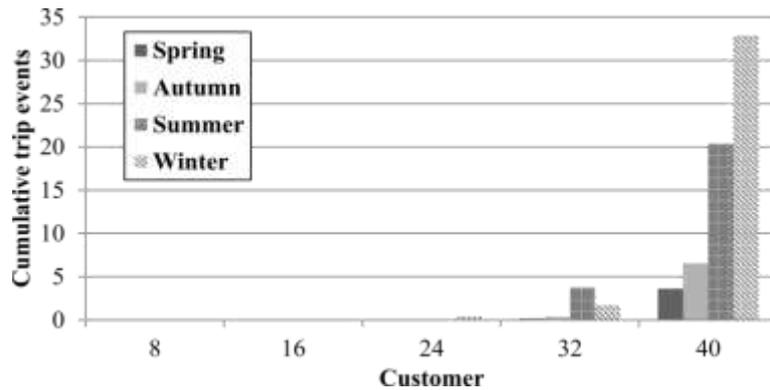


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 185 **Figure 4. PV downtime (%) v increase in PV system size (1pu to 1.5pu)**  
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187 An obvious solution is a reduction in the DTx tap setting. A recent report (Energex Power  
 188 Quality Strategic Plan 2015-20, 2014) by Energex, a network operator servicing South East  
 189 Queensland, Australia, estimated that 75% of their DTx's were tapped too high. The  
 190 consequence of a decrease in the DTx tap setting is more breaches of the lower voltage  
 191 limit, although this can be mitigated with peak load reduction. For a DTx setting of 243 V,  
 192 one tap setting lower, the reduced peak load dataset (Section 3.2) and the PV system tripping  
 193 at the upper voltage limit were combined. The PV downtime is reduced dramatically; for  
 194 PV system size at 1.5pu, Customer 40 only experienced 3.6% downtime, compared to over  
 195 20% at a DTx voltage of 250 V. With peak load reduction, breaches of the lower voltage  
 196 limit are mitigated, there are still recorded voltages below 216 V, but these only constitute  
 197 0.07% of the total. The lowest recorded voltage was 209 V, still 9 V higher than the lowest  
 198 recorded voltage for the reference scenario. To give an idea of the level of PV penetration,  
 199 due to the stochastic nature of the analysis, we need to revert to mean peak load and mean  
 200 rated PV capacity values. The mean peak load for all homes is 1.3 kVA and the mean rated  
 201 PV capacity is 1.7 kW. At 1pu the PV penetration, the ratio of mean PV capacity and mean  
 202 peak load, can be estimated to be 1.3 at 1pu and 1.96 at 1.5pu.

203 ***Load tripping on low voltage***

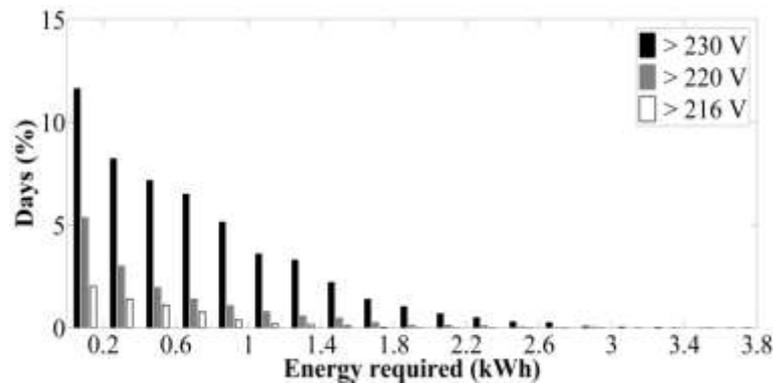
204 The next scenario examined tripping load at the lower voltage limit. At a DTx voltage of  
 205 250 V the number of load trip events is negligible, only six and four trip events in winter  
 206 and summer respectively. For customers 8, 16, 24, 32 and 40, Figure 5 gives the seasonal  
 207 cumulative number of trip events when the DTx voltage is at 243 V. As expected, results  
 208 show that the majority of load tripping occurs for the customer at the end of the feeder,  
 209 customer 40, and drops quickly for customers closer to the DTx. The majority (80%) of  
 210 each trip event are only one hour or less in duration.



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212 **Figure 5. Seasonal average daily load trip duration for customers 8, 16, 24, 32 and**  
213 **40. DTx voltage at 243 V**

214 ***Battery storage***

215 The final scenario simulated households owning battery storage to ensure voltages are  
216 maintained above a lower voltage limit. Also examined is the capability of the household  
217 PV system to charge the battery to ensure energy requirements are met. Figure 6 is a  
218 histogram presenting the probable amount of energy required to ensure voltage levels are  
219 maintained above 230 V, 220 V and 216 V during the peak demand period. Figure 6 shows  
220 how little storage capacity per household is required to ensure voltage levels are maintained.  
221 Probabilistically, 2 kWh of storage will ensure voltage levels remain above 216 V for all  
222 days, above 220 V for 99% of days and above 230 V for 98% of days.



223  
224 **Figure 6. Histogram of energy required to ensure voltage stays above 230, 220 and**  
225 **216 V during the peak demand period**

226 **Conclusion**

227 This paper presents a voltage probability analysis using load and PV data from 300  
228 customers. The analysis consists of a number of different scenarios. The first scenario, with  
229 an unaltered dataset, shows that the impact of load on voltage range is far greater than that  
230 of PV, with the lower voltage being almost three times that of the upper voltage range. The  
231 second scenario decreases the top 5% of load samples by fifty percent; results show the  
232 effectiveness of DSM at reducing voltage excursion as a result of peak load. The next  
233 scenario examines the impact on customer PV system uptime when trip conditions are  
234 applied at the upper voltage limit. Results show PV tripping prevents over-voltage but can  
235 have a significant impact on PV system downtime. The impact of load tripping at the lower  
236 voltage limit was also examined; results show that voltage can be maintained above the

237 lower voltage limit with only customers at the end of the feeder experiencing any noticeable  
238 inconvenience. The final scenario examined the battery storage capacity required to  
239 maintain voltage levels above a lower limit during peak demand period. Results show that  
240 the storage capacity required to ensure voltage levels is around 2 kWh for all voltage levels.

241 The probabilistic analysis presented illustrates that a significant reduction in voltage  
242 excursion is possible without complex DSM control techniques. To achieve a DSM voltage  
243 management target, it also demonstrates its effectiveness as a method for determining the  
244 deferrable load and/or storage capacity required and the potential impact on customers due  
245 to PV and load tripping.

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