

Photovoltaic Integration in Smart City Power Distribution

A Probabilistic Photovoltaic Hosting Capacity Assessment based on Smart Metering Data

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Abstract: Maximizing the share of renewable resources in the electric energy supply is a major challenge in the design of smart cities. Concerning the smart city power distribution, the main focus is on the Low Voltage (LV) level in which distributed Photovoltaic (PV) units are the mostly met renewable energy systems. This paper demonstrates the usefulness of smart metering (SM) data in determining the maximum photovoltaic (PV) hosting capacity of an LV distribution feeder. Basically, the paper introduces a probabilistic tool that estimates PV hosting capacity by using user-specific energy flow data, recorded by SM devices. The probabilistic evaluation and the use of historical SM data yield a reliable estimation that considers the volatile character of distributed generation and loads as well as technical constraints of the network (voltage magnitude, phase unbalance, congestion risk, line losses). As a case study, an existing LV feeder in Belgium is analysed. The feeder is located in an area with high PV penetration and large deployment of SM devices. The estimated PV hosting capacity is proved to be much higher than the one obtained with a deterministic worst case approach, considering voltage margin (magnitude and unbalance).

Table 1: Abbreviations.

MV/LV	Medium Voltage/Low Voltage
PV	Photovoltaic
DER	Distributed Energy Resource
DSO	Distribution System Operator
SM	Smart Meter
CDF	Cumulative Distribution Function
HC	Hosting Capacity
$P_{\text{overvoltage}}$	Probability of exceeding upper voltage limit
$P_{\text{undervoltage}}$	Probability of exceeding lower voltage limit
$P_{\text{unbalance}}$	Probability of exceeding voltage unbalance limit
$V_{i,j}$	Grid voltage at node i , phase j
V_{nom}	Nominal voltage in the feeder
$P_{\text{rated},l,i}$	Installed PV power at node i , considered in iteration l in case it is a future PV node
$P_{\text{rated,tot}}$	Installed PV power in whole feeder
P_{step}	Increase step of the installed PV power at a node
f_i	Reference factor

1 INTRODUCTION

A major challenge in the design of smart cities is to maximize the share of renewable resources in their electric energy supply. The principal objective is to increase the self-sufficiency of a city, based on local resources, while responding to the climate change. The smart city power distribution mainly concerns the Low Voltage (LV) electric network. Photovoltaic (PV) generation is the mostly met Distributed Energy Resource (DER) in such systems.

So far, the biggest share of distributed PV units came with no strategic design or reinforcement of the network while monitoring data in the small-usage (residential or small business) sector were absent almost everywhere in Europe. Given the lack of controllability in common LV networks, the uncoordinated integration of PV units often leads to distinct power quality issues. Moreover, it slows down the increase of renewable energy share. Thus, the growing volatility of electricity consumption and generation in the distribution network urges the

adoption of a streamlined planning approach for the future smart cities.

In this evolving framework, Distribution System Operators (DSOs) are called to safeguard a stable and secure power supply in all possible demand conditions while fostering the massive integration of DER generation. In cost-efficiency terms, this fact highlights the necessity of leaving behind deterministic worst case planning approach. This traditionally applied approach focuses on the least favourable network operation states, which are very rare. Naturally, it leads to very restrictive decisions in terms of PV hosting capacity or to costly network reinforcements.

Given the current uncertainty of DSO costs and revenues, new planning tools are required for considering the constant variability of the energy network (EDSO, 2015). In a smart city vision, this argument becomes even more solid in view of the upcoming integration of electric vehicles and the development of flexibility services. As a matter of fact, both are seen as basic components of the future smart cities. The large deployment of smart metering (SM) devices in the residential and commercial sector will drastically enlarge the potential of cost-effective planning approach. Indeed, user-specific data will result in a better insight of the smart city power distribution system.

Considering the above facts and the probabilistic character of the EN 50160 technical standard (EN50160, 2012; Antoni Klajn, 2013) (which addresses the LV network) this paper presents a feeder- and user- specific probabilistic methodology that estimates the DER hosting capacity of an LV feeder. Practically it introduces a probabilistic tool that uses user-specific energy flow data recorded by SM devices, installed in the studied feeder. The probabilistic evaluation and the use of historical SM data yield a reliable estimation that considers the volatile character of distributed generation and loads as well as network operational criteria.

Section 2 of this paper presents literature review regarding this subject and the drivers for developing the proposed analysis tool. Section 3 presents the overall structure of the developed algorithm and Section 4 thoroughly describes the important role of user-specific SM measurements in this development. Section 5 explains the computation process of the maximum acceptable PV hosting capacity.

In Section 6, a real LV feeder in Belgium is analysed. The feeder is located in an area with high PV penetration and large deployment of SM devices. When the probabilistic character of EN 50160 standard's voltage limits is considered, the estimated

PV hosting capacity is proved to be much higher than the one obtained with a deterministic approach, based on worst case energy flow profiles. Moreover, the use of long term SM measurements verifies the computation of technical metrics that can only be considered with a deterministic approach (violation of the maximum current capacity of the lines).

2 CURRENT FRAMEWORK

Slow or over rigid hosting capacity review processes hamper DER integration in many regions worldwide. Very often, users who want to invest and play an active role in managing their energy usage are increasingly unable, in expediency and cost-efficiency terms, to do so. In this context, a streamlined approach together with the expansion of allowable DER integration approvals seem to be a necessity (Solar City Grid Engineering, 2015).

For increasing penetration levels while shortening the application review timeline, DSOs should incorporate automated DER hosting capacity analyses. A process flow for incorporating such analysis into the DER integration review process is outlined in Figure1.

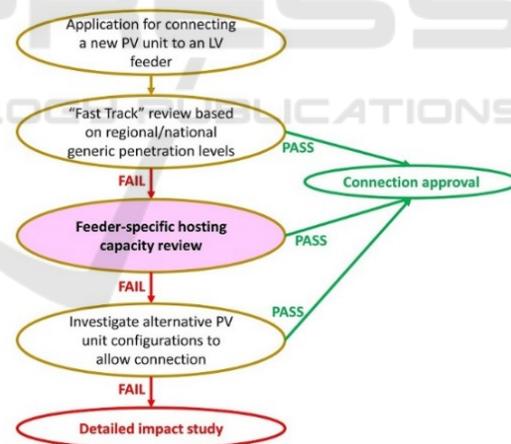


Figure 1: Process flow for incorporating hosting capacity analysis into the DER integration process.

Recently, many energy utilities are adapting their DER hosting capacity review so as to remove or update restrictive maximum allowable limits (Noone, 2013). As far as the fast track analysis part is concerned (second step in Figure 1), the Electric Power Research Institute (EPRI) presents a set of models that could be used by DSOs or electric utilities (Smith, 2015; Electric Power Research Institute, 2012). These feeder-based methodologies are very

solid computation examples that take account of all steady state operational criteria.

Focusing on PV hosting capacity, EPRI recommends stochastic analysis as a highly appropriate tool for determining PV hosting capacity in distribution feeders (Smith, 2015; Electric Power Research Institute, 2012). The stochastic deployment concerns the position and size of future PV units while the steady state estimation of the feeder is done with deterministic approach.

In the same vein, a set of studies addressing the European framework and the EN 50160 standard highlight the efficiency of stochastic and probabilistic analysis in determining hosting capacity or otherwise the impact of PV generation in LV feeders (Bollen and Hassan, 2011; Conti and Raiti, 2007; Conti et al., 2003; Hernandez et al., 2013; Ruiz-Rodriguez et al., 2012; Billinton and Bagen, 2006; Billinton and Karki, 2003). Meanwhile, the European Photovoltaic Industry Association (EPIA) and the technical standard EN 50160 suggest that distribution networks should be designed on a probabilistic basis. For example, EN 50160 standard deals with the voltage characteristics of LV feeders in probabilistic terms. It gives recommendations that, for a percentage of measurements (e.g. 95%) over a given time, the voltage value must be within specified limits.

Most of the existing methodologies deploy the stochastic analysis regarding the size and position of PV units and not the load/generation profiles of users. However, the ongoing integration of SM devices in LV networks enlarges the potential of using feeder-specific or even user-specific data for modelling energy flows. According to (Bollen and Hassan, 2011), deploying long-term measurements in the LV network is highly valuable, not only for estimating the maximum PV hosting capacity, but also for voltage coordination of the network in general.

The EPRI's report (Electric Power Research Institute, 2012) estimates PV hosting capacity using feeder-specific data to create either absolute worst case scenarios (maximum recorded generation-minimum recorded load) or load/PV time-of-day coincident worst case scenarios. As previously mentioned, although feeder-specific data are used, the steady state estimation of the feeder is still done with a deterministic approach. Indeed, this approach does not consider the fact that the time-of-day in which worst case values apply for a specific user does not necessarily coincide with the one of other users connected to the same feeder. Nevertheless, the operational criteria of the feeder are determined both by the individual user's demand and by the simultaneous demands of other network users. Since

the demands of every user and the degree of coincidence between them constantly varies, so does the operation of the feeder (Antoni Klajn, 2013).

The above argument demonstrates that although user-specific SM data are primordial for creating reliable network models, there is another challenge that needs to be addressed. The latter lies in the fact that users follow volume-wise (kWh) or capacity-wise (kW) an almost stable daily pattern. However, this pattern does not necessarily remain the same on the time axis. In long term decision making, profiles should be based on the recorded ones considering all possible deviations. Those deviations could be inserted either as random statistical errors or by making random possible combinations of the recorded values or by combining both approaches.

Therefore, reliable models that take into account load/PV time- and user-variability are necessary for a less conservative and more cost-effective hosting capacity review. Probabilistic and particularly Monte Carlo approach are very suitable to address this modelling challenge.

3 THE PV HOSTING CAPACITY COMPUTATION TOOL

This paper presents a tool that uses probabilistic state estimation (Vallee et al., 2013; Klonari et al., 2015), 15-min user-specific SM data and feeder-specific technical parameters to estimate the PV hosting capacity of a given LV feeder. Hosting capacity is defined as the maximum amount of PV that can be accommodated in the feeder without impacting system operation (reliability, power quality, etc.) under existing control and infrastructure configurations (Electric Power Research Institute, 2012).

The proposed methodology aims to address the central block of Figure 1 by providing a detailed feeder- and user-specific DER hosting capacity analysis. The analysis takes into account the EN 50160 standard operational criteria (EN 50160, 2012; Antoni Klajn, 2013). The focus is on voltage magnitude and unbalance which are the primary technical concerns in LV feeders with distributed PV generation. The maximum line capacity is also considered so as to address important reverse power flows due to high PV injection.

Apart from steady state constraint management, there are other considerations that could be accounted for, such as transformer aging factor, grid losses, etc. Such criteria are included in cost-benefit analysis

(CBA) but they are not addressed by the EN 50160 standard. Depending on the country and the applied DSO tariff methodology (“cost-plus”, “revenue cap”, etc.), DSOs are incentivised to reduce certain operation costs that can or cannot be integrated in their tariffs. Thus, the impact of such criteria on decision making, varies in function of the distribution utility. Consequently, this paper determines PV hosting capacity based on commonly adopted EN 50160 standard criteria and line capacity issues, however line losses are also determined by the probabilistic analysis.

3.1 Overview of the Simulation Tool

As previously said, this chapter presents a probabilistic algorithm that determines the PV hosting capacity of an LV feeder by elaborating feeder-specific SM measurements. The SM measurements are the necessary input for performing a reliable steady-state analysis of various possible energy flow scenarios in the studied feeder. The flowchart in Figure 2 presents the structure of the simulation algorithm, which is entirely developed in MATLAB®.

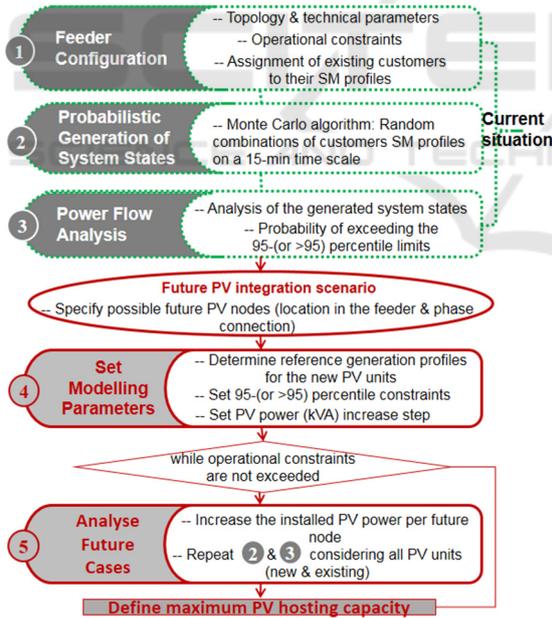


Figure 2: Flowchart of the PV hosting capacity computation tool.

The energy exchange scenarios are generated by a Monte Carlo algorithm sampling from the historic SM data of the feeder (Vallee et al., 2013; Klonari et al., 2015). The power flow analysis is performed with the three-phase algorithm that is presented in

Appendix A. Both balanced and unbalanced situations can be considered in this study.

3.2 Feeder Model

The feeder model is constructed based on the technical parameters of the lines, the position of the users, the installed PV power per node, the voltage at the MV/LV transformer secondary output and the respective set points and bandwidths in case voltage control algorithms are integrated. The feeder model also assigns the load/PV generation SM datasets to the respective users. This necessary information is directly available to the DSO.

Regarding the PV hosting capacity computation, the possible future locations of the PV units have to be specified in the feeder model. This analysis is not based on stochastic random distribution of PV units along the feeder. A set of scenarios regarding the positions of future PV nodes is specified and each one of them is studied separately so as to focus on its specific impact on the feeder.

The technical constraints that must be respected for the current situation and for future scenarios are the ones specified in local, regional or national directives. However, these operational constraints can be determined in a more restrictive manner, depending on the case. In the EU framework, the steady-state constraints are set by the EN 50160 standard. Regarding voltage magnitude and unbalance, 95-percentile limits are suggested. Based on this standard, the simulation tool verifies that the following criteria apply for the whole system (in current and future installed PV power scenarios):

$$P_{\text{overvoltage}}(V_{i,j} > 1.10 \cdot V_{\text{nom}}) < 0.05 \quad (1.a)$$

$$P_{\text{undervoltage}}(V_{i,j} < 0.90 \cdot V_{\text{nom}}) < 0.05 \quad (1.b)$$

$$P_{\text{unbalance}}(VUF_i > 2\%) < 0.05 \quad (1.c)$$

where $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$, $P_{\text{undervoltage}}$ and $P_{\text{unbalance}}$ represent respectively the probability of having an overvoltage, an undervoltage or exceeding the phase voltage unbalance limit at any node over a number M of simulated network states. In $V_{i,j}$, i stands for nodes 1 to N (total number of nodes in the feeder) and j stands for phase a, b or c.

The thermal limits of the cables are also considered in the computation. The current carrying capacities of the lines should not exceed the DSO requirements or the recommended values in technical standards such as (IEC).

The load flow analysis of each system state is performed with the three-phase algorithm that is

presented in (Klonari et al., 2016).

4 THE USE OF SM MEASUREMENTS

4.1 User Profiles and Feeder State Modelling based on Historic SM Datasets

The load/ PV profiles of existing users are created by using their respective SM recorded datasets. The generation of the system states is practically based on a very large number of random combinations of users' energy flow values. The methodology for creating the energy flow profiles and for generating the system states under analysis are thoroughly explained in (Vallee et al., 2013; Klonari et al., 2015). Longer recording periods of SM readings result in more reliable estimation of the PV impact on the feeder.

The probabilistic deployment of this simulation tool relies on the principle that load/PV generation profiles of users are highly time-varying. This time-variability induces another variability that concerns the time coincidence of the load profiles of various users. Both arguments are very important when assessing the impact of PV generation on a LV network. Indeed, the consideration of this variability, both in the time axis and regarding users coincidence, makes more realistic the simulation of the network operation. Such an approach can lead to less restrictive and more cost-effective decisions that do not rely on rare extreme cases but on the most frequent ones.

4.2 Generation Profiles of Future PV Nodes

A key component in accurately assessing the impact of future PV units is reliably representing their generation profiles. Based on the findings of several studies, geographically close customers are entirely correlated as far as their PV generation profiles are concerned (Shedd et al., 2012; Vallée et al., 2015). For this reason, this study considers that the generation profiles of future PV customers will be very similar, along the time axis, to the ones of the existing PV units.

As previously explained, the load/PV generation profiles of customers with SM devices are made of 96 Cumulative Distribution Functions (CDFs) of probability built with the 15-min recorded datasets.

Concerning PV generation, such CDFs are apparently not available for the future PV units. For this reason, the available SM datasets are used in this case to create a reference CDF, based on the 15-min generation SM datasets of the existing PV owners (Lefebvre, 2015), which is used to simulate the time-variability of PV generation at the future PV nodes.

In reality, customers that are connected to the same LV feeder can have different PV units' sizes. Assuming an equivalent statistical distribution of their PV power profiles due to geographical proximity, the principle is to create a standardized reference CDF for PV generation in the specific feeder, based on the measurements of the available SM devices (Rousseaux et al., 2015). Initially, the CDF for the 15-min PV energy generation $E_{inj,pv,j,q}$ of each existing PV node j is normalized by applying the following relation, for each time step q :

$$\overline{E_{inj,pv,j,q}} = \frac{E_{inj,pv,j,q}}{E_{tot,j}}, \text{ for } j = 1:N_{SM} \quad (2)$$

where N_{SM} is the number of users in the feeder that are equipped with an SM device, $\overline{E_{inj,pv,j,q}}$ values are the normalized 15-min energy generation values of customer j during time step q , $E_{inj,pv,j,q}$ values are the recorded 15-min energy generation values of customer j during time step q and $E_{tot,j}$ is the total yearly PV energy generation of customer j .

Once this is done, the 15-min CDFs of every user are aggregated in order to create one reference CDF that can represent all PV owners in the specific feeder. For creating the CDF of each particular future PV owner, this reference CDF should be normalised in function of his annual PV generation. For existing PV owners, such information is usually available to the DSO even if the customer is not monitored by an SM device. In case of future PV nodes, such information is apparently not available since no PV unit is connected. Consequently, the reference CDF is normalised with the annual PV generation of an existing PV unit (in the feeder or in proximity) multiplied by a reference factor f , as explained in the following section.

5 PV HOSTING CAPACITY COMPUTATION

Practically, the algorithm starts with the probabilistic analysis of the current situation (existing PV units), by simulating a large number M of possible system states. One should note that although system states are based on 15-min resolution data, each one of them is

considered as a possible instantaneous state of the system. Thus, the accuracy and reliability of the computation increases with the number of treated system states.

The probabilities $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$, $P_{\text{undervoltage}}$ and $P_{\text{unbalance}}$ are computed at every node, based on the analysis results. Compliance with the conditions set by (1.a, 1.b, 1.c) is verified for the whole feeder. In case the conditions are respected, the algorithm increases the installed PV power at the future (specified by the user) PV nodes by the defined increase step. Therefore, an LV feeder is simulated considering a total number N of PV nodes. Some of the simulated N nodes may be currently existing PV nodes while the rest of them are the considered future PV nodes. If the total number of future PV nodes is equal to K ($K \leq N$), the new installed power at each future PV node i is computed as follows:

$$P_{\text{rated},l,i} = P_{\text{rated},l-1,i} + P_{\text{step},i}, i = 1: K \text{ nodes} \quad (3)$$

where $P_{\text{rated},l}$ is the new installed PV power at node i in the current configuration l that will be analysed by the algorithm (in step 5, Figure2), $P_{\text{rated},l-1,i}$ is the installed PV power at node i that was analysed (and accepted in terms of impact on the technical constraints) in configuration $l-1$ and P_{step} is the increase step (defined by the user). A small P_{step} value ($\approx 0.5\text{-}1\text{kVA}$ for residential or small commercial users) is recommended so as to make a more precise computation. In several countries, the maximum admissible installed power per distributed PV unit in the LV network, concerning residential and small-business users, is equal to 10kVA . In such cases, the condition $P_{\text{rated},l,i} \leq 10\text{kVA}$ should be integrated in step 5 of the algorithm.

Once relation (2) is applied, the new installed PV power $P_{\text{rated},l,i}$ is defined at every new PV node before the algorithm performs the next “hosting capacity review” iteration (step 5, Figure2). However, the reference CDF that represents the time-variability of generation at the new PV nodes needs to be scaled in function of $P_{\text{rated},l}$ at each node. As previously highlighted, since the annual PV generation of new PV units cannot be available, the reference CDF is normalised with the annual PV generation of an existing PV unit (in the feeder or in proximity). Then, a reference factor f is introduced for scaling the normalised CDF in function of $P_{\text{rated},l}$. The factor f_i is computed as follows:

$$f_i = P_{\text{rated},l,i} / P_{\text{rated},\text{ref}}, i=1: K \quad (4)$$

where $P_{\text{rated},\text{ref}}$ is the installed PV power of the existing PV unit that has been used to normalize the reference CDF.

Once the generation profiles have been set up for the future PV nodes, the algorithm repeats steps 2 and 3 for analyzing the current configuration l . At this point, it is important to clarify that each “hosting capacity review” iteration l practically performs the power flow analysis of configuration l by applying a full MC simulation, similar to the one of step 2. This means that each “hosting capacity review” iteration l runs the same large number of MC iterations M that was analysed in step 2. Thus, in every iteration l , a very large number of system states is analysed ($=M \cdot 96$) so that the values of $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$, $P_{\text{undervoltage}}$ and $P_{\text{unbalance}}$ converge. Thanks to this procedure, the verification of compliance with equations (1.a, 1.b, 1.c) for each configuration l is assumed to be reliable. If the analysis of M system states, in configuration l , demonstrates that the operational constraints are not violated, the installed PV power is again increased at each future node. Then, the algorithm passes again to steps 4 and 5.

The described iterations stop as soon as the operational constraints are for the first time exceeded at least at one of the nodes. Therefore, the PV size of some units could probably increase even more, given that the operational constraints at their PCC are not violated. However, this study treats the LV feeder as a whole since the violation of limits at one node is always affected by the energy flow at all nodes. The $P_{\text{rated},l,i}$ that is applied in the last iteration l , which led to a violation of acceptable limits, is the one considered as the maximum admissible hosting capacity per node.

The aggregated PV hosting capacity of the feeder is computed by adding $P_{\text{rated},l,i}$ (existing and new) along the feeder:

$$P_{\text{rated},\text{tot}} = \sum_{i=1}^N P_{\text{rated},l,i} \quad (5)$$

where N is the total number of PV nodes in the feeder. In order to make a more detailed computation, different increase steps could be applied per node in function of its position in the feeder. The voltage limits are usually more easily violated at the end of the line. Consequently, the PV power steps could be bigger for the nodes at the head of the line. However, this strategy could eventually result to an earlier (in terms of PV size) violation of the limits at the last nodes, which does not tally with a common welfare among end-users.

6 CASE STUDY: AN LV FEEDER IN BELGIUM

6.1 Description of the Simulation

This section describes the application of the previously described analysis tool for computing the PV hosting capacity of an LV feeder in Flobecq. Flobecq is a municipal area in Belgium with high penetration of distributed PV generation ($\approx 25\%$ of Flobecq LV grid users) and large deployment of SM devices. Thanks to an official research fellowship between the local DSO and the authors' affiliation, the technical parameters of the feeder and SM datasets of the respective users have been communicated strictly for research purposes. The datasets cover a total period of one year (2013).

The topology of the simulated three-phase feeder is presented in Figure 3. Currently, four PV units are installed in the feeder which supplies a total of 19 residential users. These PV units are located at nodes 4, 5, 12 and 14, by means of single-phase inverters, and their installed PV power is respectively 5kVA, 10kVA, 2.63kVA and 5kVA.

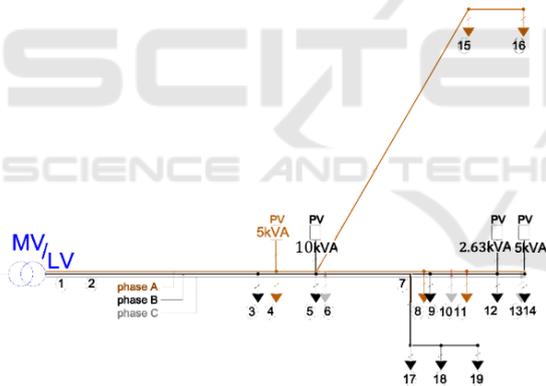


Figure 3: The simulated LV feeder of the power distribution network of Flobecq (conductors colour code as in IEC 60446 standard).

A spatial correlation study had already been performed for the specific feeder and the generation profiles of the users were proved to be entirely correlated (Vallée et al., 2015). This consideration is taken into account in this analysis, regarding also future PV nodes. Practically, this means that for every simulated system state, the randomly sampled probability for defining the respective PV generation value is common for all PV units.

Concerning operational constraints, the ones of EN 50160 standard have been considered in the simulation. Therefore, compliance with the group of

equations (1.a, 1.b, 1.c) has been verified for each system state, as far as voltage magnitude and unbalance are concerned. The maximum current capacity of the lines has been determined based on table (IEC). The PV size increase step is defined equal to 1kVA and the power factor of all PV inverters is considered equal to 1, unless reactive power control is considered in the simulation.

A set of different scenarios have been simulated regarding the position and phase connection of future PV units as well as the action of voltage control schemes. The analysed scenarios are listed in Table 2. Concerning the scenarios A-D, only the on-off control scheme is considered, which is currently implemented by most DSOs in Europe. This control scheme enables a total cut-off of the PV unit (in most cases during 3 minutes) as soon as the voltage limit has been locally exceeded for a period longer than 10 minutes. This analysis considers each simulated state as instantaneous. Therefore each violation of the 95-percentile limit of EN 50160 standard is counted in the probabilities even though in reality it might had lasted less than 10 minutes. This means that the computed maximum PV hosting capacity is possibly slightly lower than the one that the feeder can really support, considering voltage margin.

Table 2: The simulated PV hosting capacity scenarios.

No	Description
A	12 new PV units at nodes 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19. The PV units at nodes 8, 11, 17, 18, 19 are connected to phase A, the PV unit at node 3 is connected to phase B and the PV units at nodes 2, 6, 7, 10, 13, 15 are connected to phase C.
B	12 new PV units at nodes 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19. All new PV units connected to phase B, except from PV unit at node 15 (phase A).
C	12 new PV units at nodes 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18. The PV units at nodes 1, 8, 11, 15, 16 are connected to phase A, the PV units at nodes 3, 17 and 18 are connected to phase B and the PV units at nodes 2, 6, 10, 13 are connected to phase C.
D	1 new PV unit connected to node 16 (phase A).
E	Similarly to scenario A but considering 100-percentile limits. Practically the PV hosting capacity is not increased as soon as voltage and VUF limits are exceeded at least once in the feeder.
F	Similarly to scenario A but considering the action of three-phase damping control integrated in the new PV inverters. In this case, the new PV units need to be connected by means of three-phase PV inverters.
G	Similarly to scenario A but considering the action of reactive power control of (CEI, 2012)

The control scheme applied in scenario F is the three-phase damping control scheme which behaves resistively towards the negative- and zero-sequence voltage component, without modifying the injected power, so as to eliminate phase voltage unbalance (Meersman et al., 2011). This control scheme requires a three-phase PV inverter, it is very promising in terms of voltage magnitude and unbalance mitigation. It is actually implemented in a EU pilot program (FP7 INCREASE Project). The third control scheme is reactive power control in the way it is implemented in the Italian distribution system (CEI, 2012) concerning new PV units in the LV network. These voltage control schemes are integrated in the simulation tool as explained in (Klonari et al., 2016).

6.2 Comparing with a Deterministic Approach

One of the main purposes of this study is to investigate, up to which extent, a probabilistic method based on user specific data leads to a less restrictive computation of PV hosting capacity, compared to a deterministic approach. For this purpose, a deterministic approach has been implemented simulating worst case energy flow profiles. The load profiles of all users and the PV generation profiles of existing PV units have been also based on SM recorded data. The deterministic steady state analysis has been conducted for scenarios A-D, F, G. Scenario E is not mentioned because, in a deterministic framework, it coincides with deterministic scenario A. The following load/ PV generation profiles have been considered:

- I. Maximum PV power per node (installed PV power) – Minimum recorded load per node; absolute values, irrespective of time coincidence among users
- II. Maximum PV power recorded in the feeder – Coincident PV generation/load values for the other nodes.
- III. Minimum recorded load in the feeder during PV injection hours – Coincident PV generation/load values for the other nodes.

6.3 Results and Discussion

The probabilistic hosting capacity review results are illustrated in Figure 4 and analytically listed in Table 3. The aggregated maximum admissible PV hosting capacity in the feeder, considering only voltage margins (magnitude and unbalance), is presented in the second column for each individual scenario. The

third column presents the violation due to which PV hosting capacity could not be further increased for the respective scenario. The aggregated PV hosting capacity obtained with deterministic analysis is presented in Figure 5 and Table 4 for all scenarios and worst case load/ PV generation profiles (§6.2).

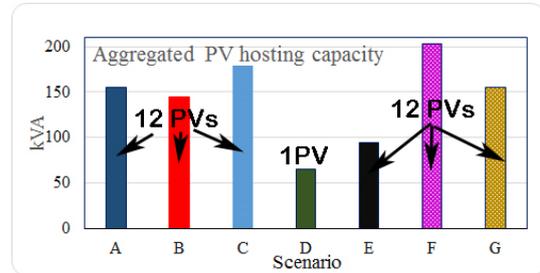


Figure 4: The computed aggregated PV hosting capacity of the feeder for scenarios A-G. The number of new PV units is also indicated.

Table 3: Aggregated maximum PV hosting capacity considering only EN 50160 voltage margins (Probabilistic Simulation).

No	Voltage margin consideration (EN 50160 standard)	
	Aggregated HC	Violation
A	154.63kVA (11kVA per new PV)	-- $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$ at nodes 18 and 19 (phase (B)) resulted 5.7% and 6.4% respectively (> 5%, which is the value accepted by the EN 50160 standard)
B	144.63kVA	-- $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$ at nodes 13,14,15 (phase (C)), resulted 5.4%, 6.16% and 6.18% respectively
C	178.63kVA	-- $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$ at nodes 13, 14 resulted 6.78% and 6.77%
D	65.63kVA	-- $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$ at node 19 (phase (B)) resulted 5.15%
E	94.63kVA	-- $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$ at nodes 13,14, (phase (C)), resulted 0.0001% in both cases (> 0%, which is the condition in scenario E)
F	202.63kVA	-- $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$ at nodes 2-19 (at all three phases) resulted from 5.5% to 28%
G	154.63kVA	-- $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$ at node 19 (phase (B)) resulted 5.17%

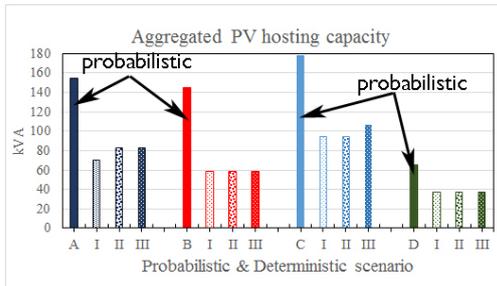


Figure 5: Aggregated PV hosting capacity of the feeder for probabilistic & deterministic scenarios (A to D).

Table 4: Aggregated maximum PV hosting capacity for each simulated scenario (Deterministic Approach).

No	Aggregated PV Hosting Capacity (kVA)			
A	70.63kVA	82.63kVA	82.63kVA	OV at all new PV nodes
B	58.63kVA	58.63kVA	58.63kVA	OV at all new PV new PV nodes
C	94.63kVA	94.63kVA	106.63kVA	OV at all new PV nodes
D	43.63kVA	49.63kVA	52.63kVA	OV at all new PV new PV nodes

Considering only voltage margin as a constraint (both magnitude and unbalance), one should note that the result of scenario E (applying 100-percentile limits) is close to the ones of the deterministic scenarios A.I, A.II and A.III which analyse the same topology as scenario A but with a deterministic approach. Based on this remark, it can be reasonably assumed that the probabilistic computation covers (samples and analyses) almost the whole range of possible system states, including the ones recorded in reality (the combination of coincidentally recorded values) which are treated in the deterministic scenarios A.II and A.III.

However, accounting for voltage margins, the restrictive condition of scenario E according to which voltage limits must never be exceeded (in none of the simulated states), results in a quite lower admissible PV hosting capacity compared to scenario A (same topology as scenario E). Basically, in scenario E, PV hosting capacity could not further increase because the computed $P_{\text{overvoltage}}$ resulted equal to 99.99% (>95% is the condition in EN 50160). Therefore, if the admissible PV hosting capacity does not exceed 94.63kVA, the operational limits will most probably never be violated in the feeder, based on the

elaboration of the available historic data. Otherwise, if the admissible PV hosting capacity increases up to 154.63kVA, as in scenario A, voltage limits' violation will only take place in less than 5% of total system states. Even with such an increase of the aggregated PV hosting capacity, the temporary cut-offs of the PV units due to overvoltage will be very rare. Scenario A takes advantage of the probabilistic character of EN 50160 standard (limits violation allowed during 5% of week time), which is not the case in scenario E or in the deterministic approach.

Investigating congestion risk for all scenarios, PV hosting capacity results much lower than in case only voltage margins are considered. For a more rigorous view, statistical distributions of current values of all line segments have been constructed based on the total number of simulated states. In all cases, the violation of maximum line capacity took place in segment 6-7 (Table 5). For this reason, the configuration in scenario A was reordered in order to address this remark by examining scenario C.

Table 5: Aggregated maximum PV hosting capacity considering both EN 50160 voltage margins and maximum line capacity.

No	Maximum current capacity and voltage margins consideration	
	Aggregated HC	Violation
A	70.63kVA (4kVA/ per new PV)	I_{max} of line 6-7: 13% deviation (13% higher than the maximum current capacity of the lines)
B	58.63kVA (3kVA/ per new PV)	I_{max} of line 6-7: 50% deviation (50% higher than the maximum current capacity of the lines)
C	94.63kVA (6kVA/ per new PV)	I_{max} of line 6-7: 0.18% deviation (10.5% higher than the maximum current capacity of the lines)
D	37.63kVA (15kVA/ per new PV)	I_{max} of line 6-7: 6.2% deviation (6.2% higher than the maximum current capacity of the lines)
E	70.63kVA (4kVA/ per new PV)	I_{max} of line 6-7: 13% deviation
F	70.63kVA (4kVA/ per new PV)	I_{max} of line 6-7: 11% deviation
G	70.63kVA (4kVA/ per new PV)	I_{max} of line 6-7: 11% deviation

Practically, scenario C considers the same number and phase configuration of scenario A but new PV units are distributed at different nodes aiming to reduce current flows in line segment 6-7. Indeed, the analysis of scenario C, taking into account congestion risk, resulted in an improved hosting capacity compared to scenario A (94.63kVA > 70.63kVA). Considering voltage margin, scenario C also led to higher hosting capacity (178,63kVA > 154.63kVA).

In Figure 6 the probabilistic consideration of overvoltage is illustrated with the evolution of the CDF of probability of phase voltage (B) at node 19 while the total installed PV power increases (scenario A). If total installed PV power increases by 144kVA (12kVA per new PV unit), phase voltage (B) at node 19 respects the defined limits in 94.6% of the simulated states (< 95% is the EN 50160 limit). Thus, the maximum PV power that can be added to the feeder, considering this configuration, is 132kVA (11kVA per new PV unit).

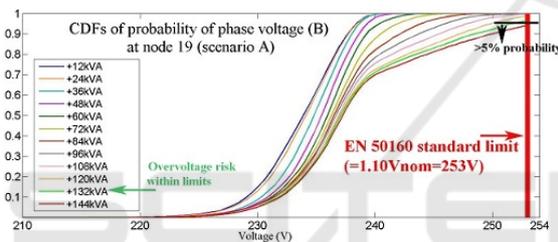


Figure 6: CDFs of probability for phase voltage (B) at node 19, for each increase step of the total installed PV power in the feeder (scenario A).

The above arguments should be considered in a cost-benefit analysis (CBA) that compares network operational costs, eventual penalties for low DER integration, and potential revenue loss for users and energy utilities. For highlighting the cost-effectiveness of deploying long-term measurements in the LV network and analysing it with a probabilistic approach, a more detailed computation of line losses in the feeder was performed. Assuming that the computed maximum admissible PV power is installed (=154,63kVA if one considers only voltage margin in scenario A), the study focuses on the total energy losses along the lines of the feeder during hours of high PV injection in a typical day (this period varies with the month).

The worst case approach considers only one system state which will more likely take place during hours with the highest PV injection. Based on the available historic data for the feeder, this period is between 12:00AM and 18:30PM on a typical July day. The sum of energy losses has been computed

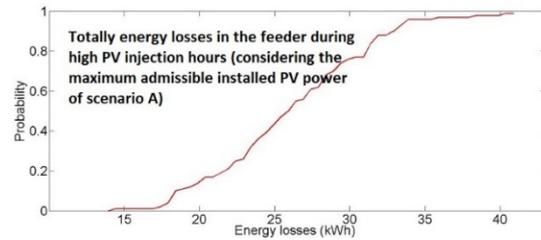


Figure 7: CDF of probability of total energy losses in the feeder during high PV injection hours in a typical July day, considering the maximum admissible installed PV power (scenario A).

along the feeder for the considered period, for each simulated day. Figure 7 illustrates the statistical distribution (CDF of probability) of the computed daily line losses, obtained with the probabilistic approach.

The probabilistic approach and the consideration of the SM measurements demonstrated that total energy losses in the feeder vary significantly, depending on the system state. Consequently, in 95% of the simulated days, total energy losses during high PV injection hours (12:00AM to 18:30PM) do not exceed 35kWh in a day. In the deterministic approach which assumes the worst case scenario taking place all along the high PV injection period, the respective energy losses result equal to 148kWh. This important difference highlights that the probabilistic approach considers the extremely low frequency of worst case scenarios to take place simultaneously for all feeder users. Considering such probabilities, the DSO could manage a less conservative and more cost-effective long-term strategy.

Undoubtedly, the computed PV hosting capacity values depend on the load profiles of the customers that are located in the feeder. However, the results clearly indicate in relative terms, that smaller distributed PV units have a much smoother impact than the bigger ones concentrated in one small area of the feeder. This fact is demonstrated by the comparison of scenario A to scenario D. Moreover, as previously mentioned, in certain countries the maximum admissible installed power per PV unit connected to the LV network is equal to 10kVA. In such cases, scenario D might not be appropriate based on the probabilistic simulation results. As a matter of fact, the admissible total installed power would have to limit to 32.63kVA although the network would be able to support 37.63kVA. The difference between the PV hosting capacity computed with the probabilistic and the deterministic approach for these cases (considering only voltage margin) is not as big as for scenarios A and B. Indeed, in scenarios A and

B, the volatile character and the extremely rare coincidence of worst case values for 12 units cannot be reliably represented by a deterministic model.

Regarding the distribution of units among phases, the comparison of scenarios A and B shows that the existing phase unbalance affected the computation. Indeed, the violated parameter in this case is voltage magnitude of phase (C) although all new PV units are connected to phase (B). Therefore, the unfair distribution of new PV units among phases did not directly affect $P_{unbalance}$ but it had an impact on the voltage magnitude of phase (C). Considering voltage limits, the aggregated PV hosting capacity for scenario B resulted equal to 144.63kVA, if one considers only voltage constraints. However, the connection of most new PV units at phase (B) resulted in very high current values so that the maximum current capacity was exceeded by 50%.

In scenario F, the connection of new PV units by means of three-phase inverters integrating three-phase damping control can increase the aggregated hosting capacity by 36%, considering voltage margin. Thanks to the resistive behaviour of this control scheme towards the zero- and negative-sequence voltage component, the deviation of voltage magnitude and unbalance becomes much smoother compared to the currently applied on-off control. Thus, the risk of exceeding the defined limits is reduced and a bigger share of PV generation can be integrated. Applying this control in scenario C would definitely lead to even higher PV hosting capacity.

Based on the results of scenario G, reactive power control does not result in higher PV hosting capacity compared to scenario A (on-off control). Voltage profile in the feeder is however improved compared to scenario A. As a matter of fact, voltage limits are not violated in scenario G whereas the maximum current capacity limit is exceeded for the same amount of PV integration compared to scenario A.

In the first two cases (scenarios A and B), comparing the probabilistic simulation results to the respective ones of the deterministic approach, an important difference in the aggregated admissible hosting capacity is observed. One should notice that the violated parameter in the deterministic approaches is mainly the voltage magnitude and secondly the maximum current capacity of the lines. The deterministic approach led to 58-146% lower aggregated PV hosting capacity (compared to the one computed with the probabilistic approach) due to a violation that according to the probabilistic elaboration of the historic SM dataset took place for much less than 6% of the simulated system states. Indeed, based on figure 8, the addition of 12 new PV

units of 4kVA each (deterministic scenario A.I) generated an overvoltage risk that is lower than 1%.

The studied feeder currently hosts 22.63kVA of distributed PV generation and supplies 19 residential customers. The analysis of the current conditions (based on the historic SM datasets) demonstrated that both voltage violation risk and congestion risk are very low. Moreover, the above probabilistic load-flow analysis proved that congestion and voltage problems will only appear if 48kVA and 132kVA respectively of distributed PV generation (scenario A) are further integrated. This remark highlights the cost-efficiency of designing distribution networks based on the most frequent system states and on well-studied future scenarios. Such probabilistic approach can lead to customised solutions and help to avoid over-dimensioning and costly initial investments for the DSO.

Finally, a general remark concerns the self-sufficiency potential of the feeder. Based on the available user specific data, the annual generated PV energy in the feeder is in the range of 22400kWh corresponding to 22.63kVA of currently installed PV generation. The annual aggregated load for all users is in the range of 87200kWh. Given that PV users are entirely correlated regarding their PV profiles, the potential annual PV generation in the whole feeder has been roughly estimated for each analysed scenario s as follows:

$$E_{pv,tot,new,s} = f_{tot,s} \cdot E_{tot} \quad (6)$$

where $f_{tot,s}$ is the reference factor introduced in (3) applied for the total installed PV generation in scenario s and E_{tot} is the total annual generated PV energy in the feeder at present (≈ 22400 kWh). The estimation demonstrated that the annual potential PV generation in scenarios A, C, F and E would correspond to 80 to 107% of the annual load in the feeder (with hosting capacity considering both voltage margin and line capacity). This is only an order of magnitude observation. For determining the self-sufficiency of the feeder, further studies should be deployed, including congestion risk or other technical and economic issues that would have to be encountered for storing the generated PV power (Thirugnanam et al., 2015).

However, based on this rough estimation, certain renewable integration scenarios could potentially increase to an important extent the self-sufficiency of feeders like the studied one. As a result, their dependency on big conventional power plants, connected at the transmission level, could be efficiently reduced. However, big conventional plants

are important for maintaining grid stability. In a high DER integration scenario, without large and reactive storage facilities and/or flexibility services, the amount of RES should be carefully reviewed. To this end, costs induced by the use of grid services, including insurance against periods when it is not possible to consume own generated electricity, should be considered and reflected in the bill of generator owners (EDSO 2015). Reliable feasibility studies and comprehensive CBAs are necessary for evaluating various strategies in the decision making process.

7 CONCLUSIONS

This paper addresses the problem of determining the maximum PV hosting capacity that can be accommodated in a LV distribution feeder, while respecting local technical standards. To this purpose, a probabilistic simulation tool that uses as input user-specific SM energy flow data and feeder-specific parameters is presented. A PV hosting capacity review for a municipal area in Belgium is used as a case study for evaluating the usefulness and reliability of the proposed tool. The study outcome demonstrates that it is to the interest of the DSO and of the grid users to deploy probabilistic analysis that considers the time-variability of load/PV generation, both in the time axis and between different users' profiles. This variability of network state can be taken into account thanks to the deployment of long-term SM measurements. Consequently, the further deployment of SM devices is strongly recommended for a more cost effective long-term planning and coordination of the LV network.

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