

1 Direct Power Control of DFIG Wind Turbine Systems Based on 2 an Intelligent Proportional-Integral Sliding Mode Control

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8 **Abstract-** This paper presents an intelligent proportional-integral sliding mode
9 control (iPISMC) for direct power control of variable speed-constant frequency wind
10 turbine system. This approach deals with optimal power production (in the maximum
11 power point tracking sense) under several disturbance factors such as turbulent wind.
12 This controller is made of two sub-components: (i) an intelligent proportional-integral
13 module for online disturbance compensation and (ii) a sliding mode module for
14 circumventing disturbance estimation errors. This iPISMC method has been tested on
15 FAST/Simulink platform of a 5MW wind turbine system. The obtained results
16 demonstrate that the proposed iPISMC method outperforms the classical PI and
17 intelligent proportional-integral control (iPI) in terms of both active power and
18 response time.

19 **Keywords:** Wind turbine system; Model-free control; Sliding mode control
20

21 1. INTRODUCTION

22 As a consequence of population expansion and increasing environmental issues, the
23 demand for renewable energy generation systems keeps growing. As a green and
24 clean energy, wind turbine systems have been paid considerable attention and their
25 proportion in nationwide energy production will rise in the next decade according to
26 the Global Wind Energy Council report [1, 2]. However, random wind fluctuations
27 and wind turbine nonlinearity are major difficulties for exploiting renewable energy
28 with a high efficiency. The nonlinear characteristics of a wind turbine system can be
29 classified as electrical and mechanical nonlinearities. While the former are related to
30 the generators and its uncertain parameters; the latter are related to the drive train and
31 wind wheels for instance. Considering both electrical and mechanical nonlinearities,
32 designing an efficient wind turbine controller is a challenging problem.

33 Wind turbine systems are high-order nonlinear systems. The doubly fed induction
34 generator (DFIG) is widely utilized on the multi-MW wind turbines because of its low
35 cost and small size. Their nonlinear characteristics are not only reflected in the DFIG
36 model, but also in the aerodynamic and drive-train models. With large power wind

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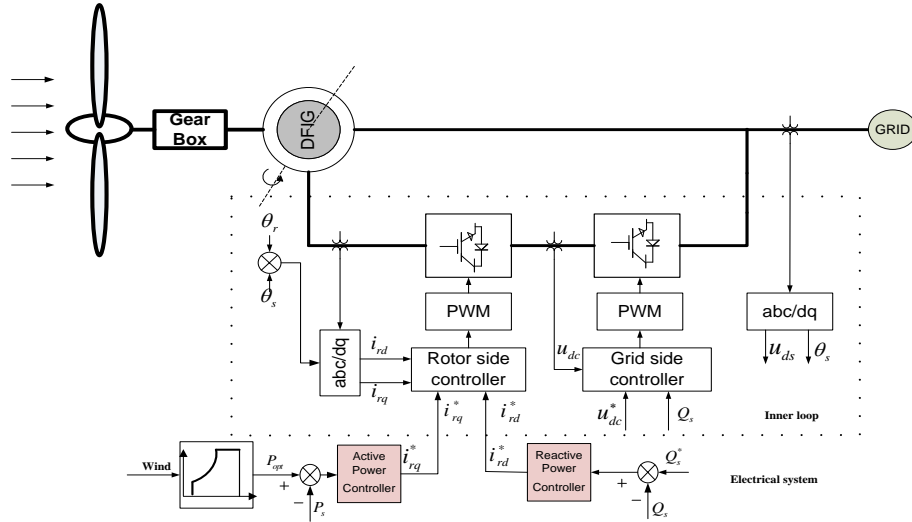


Fig. 1. The DFIG wind turbine system

37

38

39 turbine systems developing and blade diameter increasing, its nonlinear feature will
 40 be reinforced, and will influence directly the output performance of wind turbine
 41 systems.

42 Modeling and control of wind turbine systems has been a vivid research topic in the
 43 past decade [3]. A controller can optimize the power production of a DFIG in many
 44 ways. For speed and torque or power control of DFIGs, there are vector control, direct
 45 torque control and direct power control [4].

46 In low wind speed region (between cut-in speed and rating speed), most of reported
 47 methods in the literature aim at tracking the maximum power point (MPP) of DFIGs.
 48 In reference [5], a direct power control strategy based on proportional-integral (PI)
 49 controller has been developed for DFIGs. Even though this method ensures an
 50 input-to-state closed-loop stability, it does not take electrical nonlinearities into
 51 account. Considering electrical nonlinearities which are originated in DFIG parameter
 52 uncertainties both in resistance and inductance, a sliding mode control approach has
 53 been proposed for regulation of the active and reactive power in [6]. In order to
 54 circumvent external uncertainty sources such as wind turbulences, a robust fuzzy
 55 controller and a fuzzy logic controller for direct power regulation are designed in [7]
 56 and [8]. Another type of controller is introduced in [9, 10] for MPP tracking. They use
 57 a radial-basis function neural network controller which focuses only on the nonlinear
 58 aerodynamic model and neglects the electrical torque equation. The same nonlinear
 59 aspects of the aerodynamic model are also taken into account in [11] using the same
 60 family of controllers as in [6], i.e. sliding mode controllers. Also in [12], a
 61 discrete-time sliding mode approach is introduced for variable speed wind turbine
 62 system.

63 In order to improve the efficiency of MPP tracking, a novel controller relying on an
 64 intelligent proportional-integral-derivative (iPID) control is proposed in [13], it has
 65 been proved to produce efficient control for a variety of systems such as a quadrotor
 66 vehicle [14], DC/DC converters, and motors [15]. This approach uses an observer

67 which is based on algebraic techniques to estimate the unknown dynamics [16].
68 However, this algebraic based iPID control cannot ensure the trajectory tracking error
69 to tend to zero rapidly. In addition, its estimation performances are significantly
70 degraded by measurement noises [17].

71 In order to overcome the aforementioned difficulties, this paper presents an extended
72 state observer based intelligent proportional-integral sliding mode control (iPISMC)
73 to perform direct power control of DFIG Wind turbine systems. The extended state
74 observer (ESO) is integrated into an intelligent proportional-integral (iPI) to estimate
75 the unknown uncertain dynamics of the system. An acceptable performance can be
76 ensured when the unknown dynamic is bounded and the parameters of ESO observer
77 are carefully selected [18]. Unfortunately, there always remains a non-null estimation
78 error if the ESO observer is not well selected. Concerning this estimation error, an
79 auxiliary sliding mode controller is added to the ESO based iPI control. The full
80 control strategy that we propose will be referred to as iPISMC. With application of the
81 Lyapunov stability theory, we prove the stability of the proposed iPISMC control.
82 Using simulations generated by the FAST/simulink platform, we show that the
83 proposed controller is robust to random wind inputs and parameter variations. The
84 experiments also demonstrate that iPISMC outperforms PI and iPI controllers in terms
85 of average power production. Note that our goal in this paper is not to prove that
86 iPISMC outperforms any other controller but only to validate that for given
87 proportional and integral gain values, it should be preferred to PI or iPI controllers.

88 The paper is organized as follows. In section II, wind turbine system modeling and the
89 basic principle of vector control for DFIG will be briefly presented.

90 In Section III, an intelligent proportional and integral sliding mode controller is
91 designed. Some simulation results are shown in Section IV assessing the quality of
92 iPISMC in terms of power production and response time. At last, section V concludes
93 the paper.

94 **2. Wind turbine system modeling and vector control**

95 The DFIG based wind turbine system which is illustrated in Fig. 1, is mainly
96 composed of the following three components: the aerodynamic subsystem, the DFIG
97 subsystem, and the drive-train subsystem. From Fig. 1, one notes that the general
98 control strategy is based on two loops: the inner loop which regulates the rotor current,
99 and the outer loop which is applied to track the maximum power point. The
100 aerodynamic and gearbox subsystems will be simulated by the FAST platform which
101 is developed by the National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL). In this paper, we
102 focus on the maximum power point tracking.

103 **2.1 Aerodynamic subsystem**

104 Usually, the approximate values of aerodynamic power P_a and torque T_a are given by
105 the following equations:

$$\begin{cases} P_a = \frac{1}{2} \rho \pi R^2 v^3 C_p(\lambda, \beta) \\ T_a = \frac{1}{2} \rho \pi R^3 v^2 C_p(\lambda, \beta) / \lambda \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

107 where λ is tip speed ratio and we have $\lambda = \omega_m R / v$. R is the blade radius, v is the wind
108 speed, ρ is the air density, β is the pitch angle and C_p is the power coefficient. ω_m is
109 the rotor speed.

110 In a variable pitch and variable speed system, by changing pitch angle, when wind
111 flows through wind turbine, its output power will be varying with respect to rotor
112 speed and pitch angle. In order to obtain more energy under a given pitch angle value,
113 we can set λ as an optimal value so that the power coefficient can reach a maximum
114 value. Therefore, one typical method for tracking the maximum power is to maintain
115 the tip speed ratio constant by measuring the wind speed and rotor speed [19, 20].

116 2.2 DFIG subsystem

117 The induction generator can be written in dq arbitrary reference frame as follows [21]:

$$\begin{cases} u_{sd} = R_s i_{sd} - \omega_s i_{sd} + \dot{\psi}_{sd} \\ u_{sq} = R_s i_{sq} + \omega_s i_{sq} + \dot{\psi}_{sq} \\ u_{rd} = R_r i_{rd} - \omega_r i_{rd} + \dot{\psi}_{rd} \\ u_{rq} = R_r i_{rq} + \omega_r i_{rq} + \dot{\psi}_{rq} \end{cases}, \quad (2)$$

119 where $\dot{\psi}_{sd}, \dot{\psi}_{sq}, \dot{\psi}_{rd}, \dot{\psi}_{rq}$ are the derivatives of fluxes $\psi_{sd}, \psi_{sq}, \psi_{rd}, \psi_{rq}$, respectively.

120 2.3 Drive train subsystem

121 In the DFIG subsystem, the aerodynamic torque is transferred to generator side by the
122 gearbox. The drive train subsystem can be simplified regardless of friction loss. It can
123 be written as follows [22]:

$$T_a - T_e = J \dot{\omega}_m + B \omega_m, \quad (3)$$

125 where T_a is the equivalent aerodynamic torque, J is the equivalent moment of inertia
126 and B is damping factor. T_e is the electromagnetic torque.

127 2.4 Vector Control Strategy of the DFIG based wind turbine system

128 In order to regulate the power of the DFIG based wind turbine system, a common
129 method is to utilize a vector control by flux orientation, such as stator flux orientation
130 (SFO) [23], stator voltage orientation (SVO). By dq coordinate transformation, lots of
131 methods can be developed and their controllers are powerful in different aspects. In
132 fact, the differences between these methods are on the control strategy and measured
133 variables [24]. Here, the chosen method for DFIG power regulation is SFO. In steady
134 conditions, voltage and frequency are approximately constant and one has the
135 following relationships

136
$$\begin{cases} \psi_{sd} = \psi, \psi_{sq} = 0 \\ u_{sq} = \omega_r \psi, u_{sd} = 0 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

137 By making substitutions in equation (2) using (4), the equivalent rotor dynamic
138 models can be derived as

139
$$\begin{cases} \dot{i}_{rd} = -(R_r i_{rd} - \omega_r i_{rq}) / \delta L_r + u_{rd} / \delta L_r \\ \dot{i}_{rq} = -(R_r i_{rq} + \omega_r i_{rd}) / \delta L_r + u_{rq} / \delta L_r - \omega_r (L_m / L_s) \psi \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

140 where $\delta = 1 - L_m^2 / (L_r L_s)$ is a leak coefficient and ω_r is the rotor electrical speed in the
141 synchronous reference frame. Equation (5) indicates that the current of d or q axis is
142 not strictly independent of d or q voltage in rotor side.

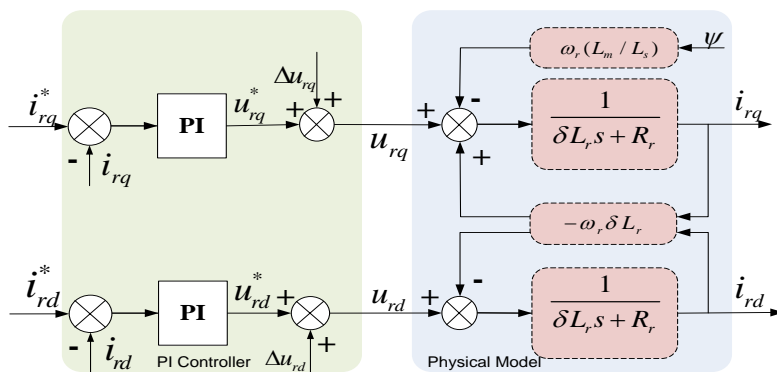
143 To perform the decoupled control and achieve high-performance, two different offset
144 voltages will be added to dq voltages as illustrated in Fig. 2.

145 The offset voltages can be calculated as

146
$$\begin{cases} \Delta u_{rd} = -\omega_r \delta L_r i_{rq} \\ \Delta u_{rq} = \omega_r \delta L_r i_{rd} + \omega_r (L_m / L_s) \psi \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

147 With the offset voltages, the model of DFIG will be simplified and decoupled. The
148 parameter of inner-loop proportional-Integral controller can be designed according to
149 pole placement. This scheme is used assuming that the stator voltage is fixed and that
150 the compensated voltage can annihilate completely the offset. However, in practice,
151 the performance of a PI controller designed by that method depends on its invariance
152 with respect to system parameters whose values must be known beforehand. Besides,
153 the measurement noise, flux saturation and other nonlinear factors will also increase
154 power error.

155 The structure of active and reactive power control is shown in Fig. 3. It can be treated
156 as inner loop and outer loop control. The main objective for the outer loop is to
157 regulate active and reactive powers. The output of the outer loop will serve as a
158 reference for the inner loop.



159
160 **Fig. 2.** DFIG model in dq reference frame

161 **3. Intelligent proportional-integral Sliding Mode Control**

162 In this part, the basic principle of iPI and iPISM is introduced. The stability of
163 iPISM in closed-loop system is proved.

164 **3.1 Intelligent proportional-integral Control**

165 For a general single input single output (SISO) nonlinear system, an ultra-local model
166 which is defined as follows can be used to define its corresponding dynamics

167
$$y^{(n)} = F + \alpha \cdot u, \quad (7)$$

168 where $n \geq 1$ is the derivative order of the output y , and u is the input, α is the input
169 gain,. F is the lumped unknown dynamics (LUD) disturbance. If $n = 1$, a first-order
170 system can be selected to describe the dynamics of the controlled system.

171 If F and α are well-known items, an iPI control can be proposed as

172
$$u = \frac{1}{\alpha} (-F + \dot{y}^* + k_p e + k_i \int e dt), \quad (8)$$

173 where $e = y^* - y$ is the output error and y^* is the desired reference. Substituting
174 equation (8) into (7), the error equation can be deduced as follows

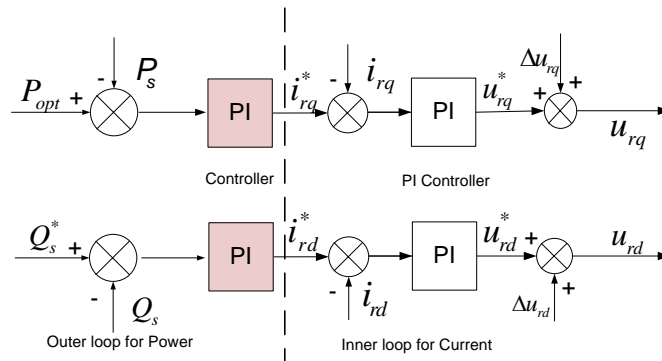
175
$$\dot{e} + k_p e + k_i \int e dt = 0. \quad (9)$$

176 The steady error dynamics of this closed loop is determined by the parameters k_p and
177 k_i , whose values can be selected according to the Hurwitz criterion.

178 Let us now fit this model to our electro-mechanical system. Combining the equations
179 (2,4) and (5), the active and reactive powers are calculated as follows

180
$$\begin{cases} P_s = \frac{3}{2} (u_{sd} i_{sd} + u_{sq} i_{sq}) = \frac{3}{2} \frac{L_m}{L_s} u_{sq} i_{rq} \\ Q_s = \frac{3}{2} (u_{sq} i_{sd} - u_{sd} i_{sq}) = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\psi - i_{rd} L_m}{L_s} u_{sq} \end{cases}, \quad (10)$$

181 The active and reactive powers are decoupled and they are only related to d axis or q
182 axis rotor current. The same iPI controller is retrieved for the active and reactive
183 powers.



184

185 **Fig. 3.** Two loop vector control for DFIG (PI for Current, PI for Power)

186 Here, we only explain for the active power case. According to equation (10), the
 187 dynamic active power equation can be approximately written as

$$188 \quad \dot{P}_s = F + \alpha \cdot i_{rq}, \quad (11)$$

189 where F is a disturbance related to turbulent wind and other factors such as d axis
 190 coupled current, and $\alpha = 1.5L_m u_{sq} / L_s$.

191 The power error is defined as

$$192 \quad e = P_{opt} - P_s, \quad (12)$$

193 where P_{opt} is the optimal power obtained on the power chart.

194 In this paper, the estimated disturbance \hat{F} will be obtained using an extended state
 195 observer (ESO) method [25]. According to the ESO method, a second observer is
 196 introduced

$$197 \quad \begin{cases} e_1 = z_1 - P_s \\ \dot{z}_1 = z_2 - \beta_1 e_1 + \alpha u \\ \dot{z}_2 = -\beta_2 |e_1|^{1/2} \text{sign}(e_1) \\ \hat{F} = z_2 \end{cases}, \quad (13)$$

198 where β_1, β_2 are constant. e_1 is the estimation error of ESO. z_1 and z_2 are the
 199 intermediate states. In the ESO framework, z_2 represents the estimation produced by
 200 the observer, we thus have $z_2 = \hat{F}$. Therefore, for the first order system (18), the
 201 following relatively simple intelligent PI (iPI) control can be proposed to achieve
 202 optimal power tracking

$$203 \quad i_{rq} = \frac{1}{\alpha} (-\hat{F} + \dot{P}_{opt} + k_p \cdot e + k_i \cdot \int e d\tau). \quad (14)$$

204 From the ESO equations, the estimated error exists and is defined as $\tilde{F} = F - \hat{F}$.

205 From reference [18], one has generally $\|\tilde{F}\| \leq f_m$ with f_m an upper bound value.

206 Substituting equation (14) into (11), the error equation is deduced as

$$207 \quad \dot{e} + k_p \cdot e + k_i \cdot \int e dt + \tilde{F} = 0. \quad (15)$$

208 Applying the Laplace transform to equation (15), we obtain:

$$209 \quad (s + k_p + k_i / s)E(s) + \tilde{F}(s) - \tilde{F}(0^+) = 0. \quad (16)$$

210 According to final value theorem, the steady error can be calculated as

$$211 \quad e(t_\infty) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s^2}{s^2 + k_p \cdot s + k_i} (\tilde{F}(0^+) - \tilde{F}(s)). \quad (17)$$

212 Since $\|\tilde{F}\|$ is bounded and k_p and k_i are selected as Hurwitz polynomial parameters,
 213 the steady error $e(t_\infty)$ is ensured to tend to zero. According to the steady error

214 equation (17), the performance of iPI controller depends on the gains k_p and k_i and on
 215 the estimated value of F . If the result of the observer is not accurate, this method will
 216 be ineffective. In addition, the measurement noise of power will also weaken the
 217 performance because estimation error will increase, especially in presence of
 218 high-frequency noise.

219 3.2 Intelligent Proportional-integral Sliding Mode Control

220 In this part, we add an extra input to compensate the estimation error and
 221 measurement noise. The structure of this iPISMC control is shown in Fig 4.

222 The extra input is denoted by u_e . The final intelligent proportional and integral sliding
 223 mode controller (iPISMC) can be defined as

$$224 \quad i_{rq} = \frac{1}{\alpha} (-\hat{F} + \dot{P}_{opt}^* + k_p \cdot e + k_i \cdot \int e d\tau) + u_e. \quad (18)$$

225 The structure of this iPISMC control is shown in Fig. 4. By substituting equation (18)
 226 in equation (11), the closed-loop error is given by:

$$227 \quad \dot{e} + k_p \cdot e + k_i \cdot \int e d\tau + \alpha \cdot u_e + \tilde{F} = 0. \quad (19)$$

228 Define x_1 and x_2 as follows:

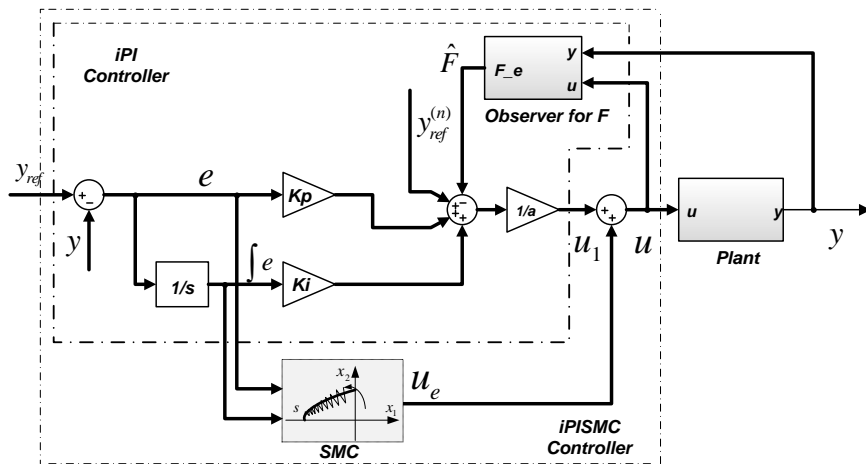
$$229 \quad \begin{cases} x_1 = \int e d\tau \\ x_2 = e \end{cases}, \quad (20)$$

230 The state-space equations can be obtained as

$$231 \quad \begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -k_p \cdot x_2 - k_i \cdot x_1 - \alpha \cdot u_e - \tilde{F} \end{cases} \quad (21)$$

232 Therefore, the extra input u_e is designed to compensate the disturbance. According to
 233 the sliding mode control framework, a switching function S is defined as

$$234 \quad S = x_2 + c \cdot x_1. \quad (22)$$



235 **Fig. 4. iPISMC control structure**
 236

237 The derivative of equation (22) is

$$238 \quad \dot{S} = -k_i * x_1 + (c - k_p)x_2 - \alpha * u_e - \tilde{F}. \quad (23)$$

239 In order to ensure the stability of closed-loop system, the input should be selected so
240 that state trajectories are confined to the sliding hyper surface. The extra input u_e is
241 composed by two parts:

- 242 • equivalent control signal u_1 which ensures the ideal sliding mode condition ($S=0$),
- 243 • correction control signal u_2 which reduces the chattering effects.

244 The extra input is

$$245 \quad u_e = u_1 + u_2. \quad (24)$$

246 Considering that \tilde{F} is unknown in equation (23) and the ideal sliding mode condition,
247 u_1 is calculated by replacing \tilde{F} with f_m as following

$$248 \quad u_1 = \frac{1}{\alpha}(-k_i * x_1 + (c - k_p)x_2 - f_m). \quad (25)$$

249 In order to reduce the chattering effects, u_2 is selected as

$$250 \quad u_2 = \frac{1}{\alpha}(\eta_1 * sat(S, \varepsilon) + \eta_2 * S), \quad (26)$$

$$251 \quad \text{where } sat(S, \varepsilon) = \begin{cases} 1 & , S > \varepsilon \\ S / \varepsilon, \|S\| \leq \varepsilon & \text{and } \eta_1 > 0, \eta_2 > 0, \varepsilon > 0. \\ -1 & , S < -\varepsilon \end{cases}$$

252 The input i_{rq} can be rewritten as follows

$$253 \quad \begin{aligned} i_{rq}(t) &= \frac{1}{\alpha}(-\hat{F} + \dot{P}_{opt}^* + k_p \cdot e + k_i \cdot \int e d\tau) + u_e \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha}(-\hat{F} + \dot{P}_{opt}^* + \eta_1 \cdot sat(S, \varepsilon) + \eta_2 \cdot S + c \cdot e) \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

254 3.3 Stability analysis

255 Define the following Lyapunov function as

$$256 \quad V = \frac{1}{2} S^2. \quad (28)$$

257 The derivative of equation (28) is

$$258 \quad \begin{aligned} \dot{V} &= S\dot{S} = S(\dot{x}_2 + c * \dot{x}_1) \\ &= -S(\eta_1 \cdot sat(S, \varepsilon) + \tilde{F} - f_m) - \eta_2 S^2. \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

259 If $S < -\varepsilon$, the boundedness of \tilde{F} is sufficient to ensure that
260 $\dot{V} = -S(-\eta_1 + \tilde{F} - f_m) - \eta_2 S^2 < 0$. If $S > \varepsilon$, $\dot{V} = -S(\eta_1 + \tilde{F} - f_m) - \eta_2 S^2$. According to
261 the boundedness of \tilde{F} , it is ensured that $\dot{V} < 0$ if one has $\eta_1 > 2f_m$.

262 If $|S| < \varepsilon$, we obtain

$$263 \quad \dot{V} = -S(\eta_1 S / \varepsilon + \tilde{F} - f_m) - \eta_2 S^2. \quad (30).$$

264 In order to ensure the negative right-side term, the condition is

$$265 \quad -S(\tilde{F} - f_m) - (\eta_2 + \eta_1 / \varepsilon) S^2 < 0$$

$$266 \quad |(\tilde{F} - f_m)| < (\eta_2 + \eta_1 / \varepsilon) |S| \quad (31)$$

266 Again, given the boundedness of \tilde{F} and $|S| < \varepsilon$, the condition is $(\eta_1 + \varepsilon\eta_2) > 2f_m$.

267 In summary, the conditions needed to ensure stability of closed loop system are

$$268 \quad \eta_1 > 2f_m \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_2 > 0, \varepsilon > 0.$$

269 The reactive power is related to the d axis rotor current. Usually, the reference of
 270 reactive power is set to zero. The structure of reactive power controller can be chosen
 271 the same as the above iPISMC control for the active power. Its stability can be proved
 272 likewise.

273 4. Simulation Results

274 To validate the effectiveness of this proposed iPISMC control, we tested it on the
 275 co-simulation platform of Matlab/Simulink and FAST. The main parameters for
 276 computer simulations are shown in table 1. The wind turbine model originates in
 277 FAST platform which is developed by the National Renewable Energy Laboratory
 278 (NREL) [26]. The detailed model and parameters of 5MW DFIG are selected from
 279 reference [27].

280 In this paper, we only investigate three controllers: PI, iPI and iPISMC. The
 281 parameters $k_p = 5 \times 10^{-5}$ and $k_i = 2.5 \times 10^{-4}$ are set to the same values for all three
 282 methods. This is justified by the fact that iPI is a wrapper for PI and iPISMC is a
 283 wrapper for iPI. Moreover, these parameters are optimized using the pole placement
 284 method.

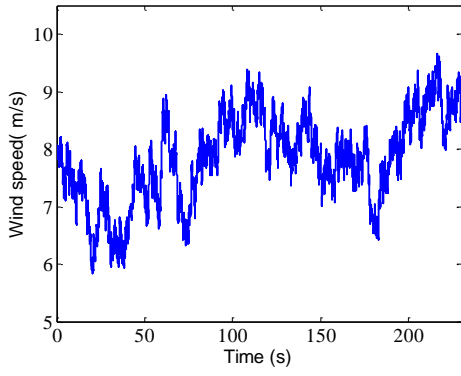
285 4.1 Stochastic wind

286 In order to demonstrate the performance in more realistic conditions, a stochastic
 287 wind has been utilized and the results are shown in Fig. 5. The stochastic wind speed

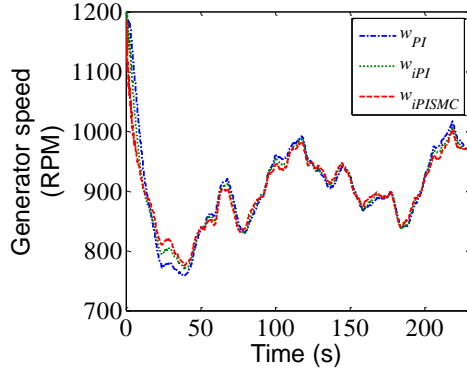
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Table 1. The main parameters of wind turbine system

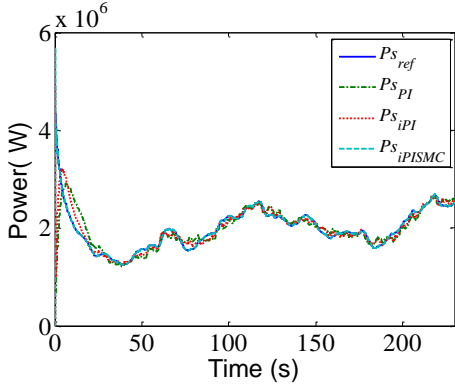
<i>Parameter Description</i>	<i>Value</i>
<i>Rated Power</i>	<i>5 MW</i>
<i>Rotor Radius</i>	<i>63 m</i>
<i>Gear Box Ratio</i>	<i>97</i>
<i>Moment of inertia</i>	<i>4.38E+07N.m²</i>
<i>Frequency</i>	<i>50Hz</i>
<i>Number of Pole pairs</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Stator resistance</i>	<i>1.552mΩ</i>
<i>Stator Leakage inductance</i>	<i>1.2721mH</i>
<i>Rotor resistance</i>	<i>1.446mΩ</i>
<i>Rotor Leakage inductance</i>	<i>1.1194mH</i>
<i>Mutual inductance</i>	<i>5.5182mH</i>



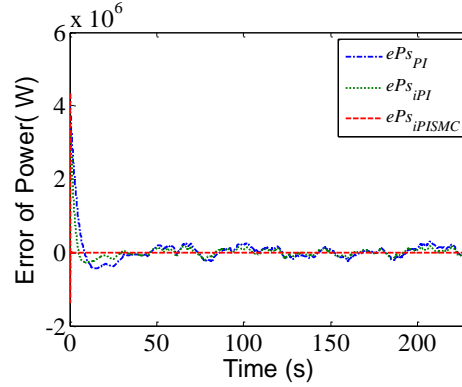
(a) Wind speed (Mean value=8m/s)



(b) Generator speed in high speed side



(c) Output power of generator



(d) Output power error of generator

Fig. 5. Simulated results with a stochastic wind (mean speed =8 m/s)

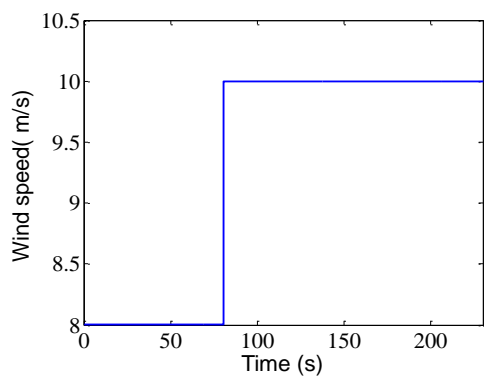
mean value is 8.0 m/s. The chosen turbulence model is an international electrotechnical commission (IEC) standard Kaimal model produced by TurbSim software. A realization of that stochastic process is given in Fig. 5(a). Its corresponding tracking performance results are illustrated in Fig. 5 (c-d). It can be noticed clearly from Fig. 5(d) that the proposed iPISMC ensures the best optimal power tracking performance compared with the classical PI and iPI methods.

Table 3. The mean power under PI, iPI and iPISMC

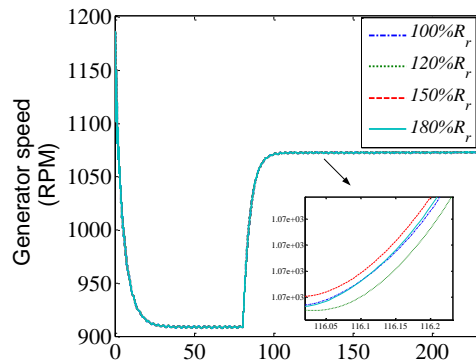
(Mean value=8m/s, IEC standard Kaimal model)

Criteria	$k_p=5.0 \times 10^{-5}$ $k_i=2.5 \times 10^{-4}$		$k_p=1.9 \times 10^{-5}$ $k_i=9.3 \times 10^{-4}$			$k_p=1.0 \times 10^{-4}$ $k_i=5.1 \times 10^{-4}$			
	PI	iPI	iPISMC	PI	iPI	iPISMC	PI	iPI	iPISMC
Mean power (value $\times 10^5$)	1.9759	1.9801	1.9834	1.9586	1.9727	1.9834	1.9802	1.982	1.9834
Mean error of power error (value $\times 10^5$)	0.4705	0.2268	0.0007	1.3228	0.6453	0.0007	0.2218	0.1089	0.0007
Variance of power error (value $\times 10^{11}$)	1.6456	0.7441	0.0102	4.6253	2.1684	0.0102	0.7856	0.3451	0.0102

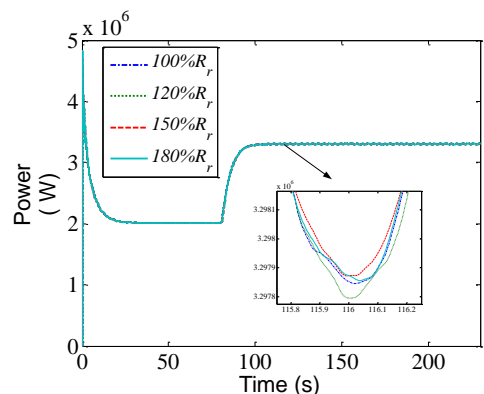
A complementary numerical analysis is provided by table 3. Different controller parameters are selected and tested. Comparing PI with iPI under the same conditions, the mean power using iPI is bigger than that of PI, while the mean error and variance



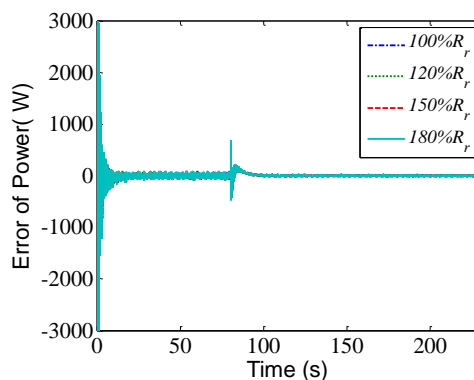
(a) Wind speed



(b) Generator speed in the high speed side



(c) Output power of generator



(d) Output power error of generator

Fig. 6. Simulation results with $R_r=100\%$ 120% 150% and 180%

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311 are smaller. With the same parameters k_p and k_i , the mean power obtained when using
 312 iPISMIC is bigger than that of other methods. Furthermore, the values of mean error
 313 and variance reflect iPISMIC efficiency. It shows that iPISMIC also outperforms PI and
 314 iPI controllers regarding this criterion.

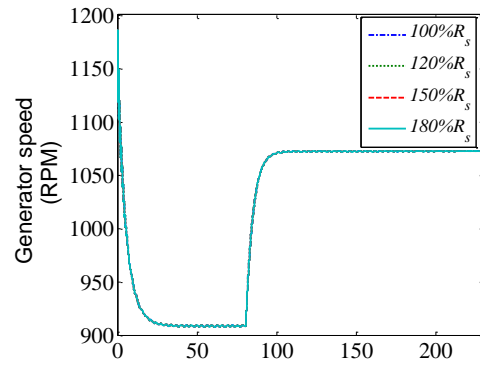
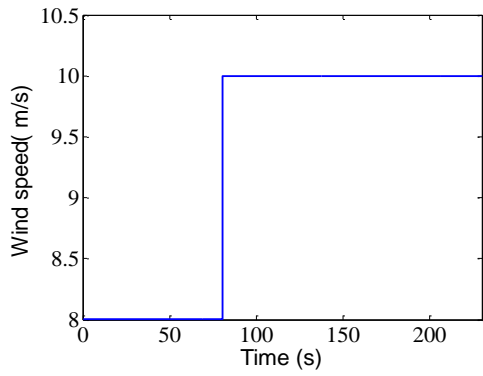
315 4.2 Step wind with parameter variations

316 In order to test the influence of DFIG parameter variations on the performances of
 317 the proposed iPISMIC, different conditions with parameter variation of resistances
 318 and mutual inductance have been tested and the corresponding results are reported
 319 in Fig. 6 - 8. For instance, the resistance is sensitive to the temperature which
 320 changes gradually with respect to ambient temperature. Consequently, the rotor
 321 resistances and mutual inductance are considered and tested.

322 Fig. 6-8 respectively shows the results of generator rotor speed, power and its tracking
 323 error under the variations of resistances $a \cdot R_r$, $a \cdot R_s$ and the mutual inductance with
 324 $a \cdot L_m$ with $a = \{1; 1.2; 1.5; 1.8\}$.

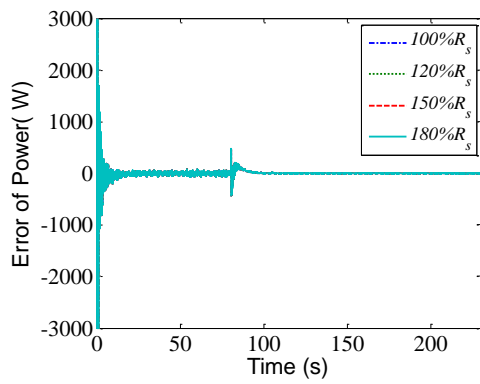
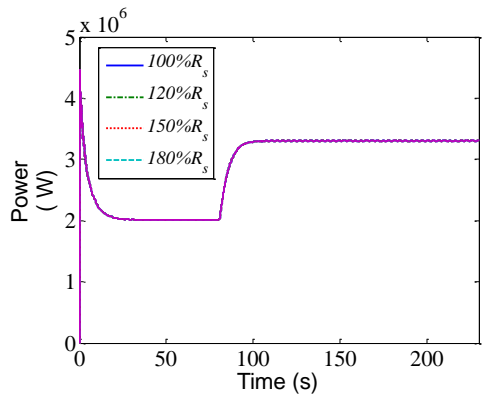
325 From the figures, the power errors converge to zero rapidly. Parameter variations have
 326 no significant influence on output rotor speed or power. From these results, one can
 327 notice that our iPISMIC is robust and able to reject the influences of the variations of

328 system parameters.



(a) Wind speed

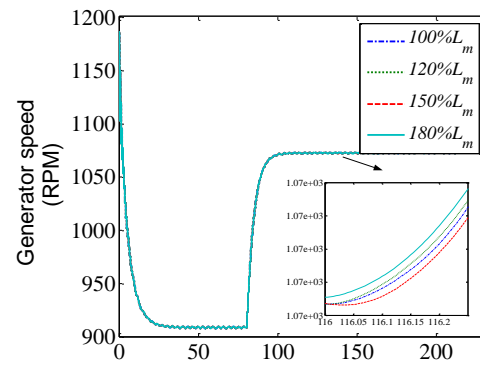
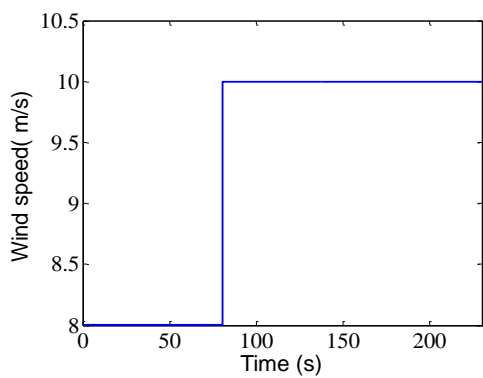
(b) Generator speed in the high speed side



(c) Output power of generator

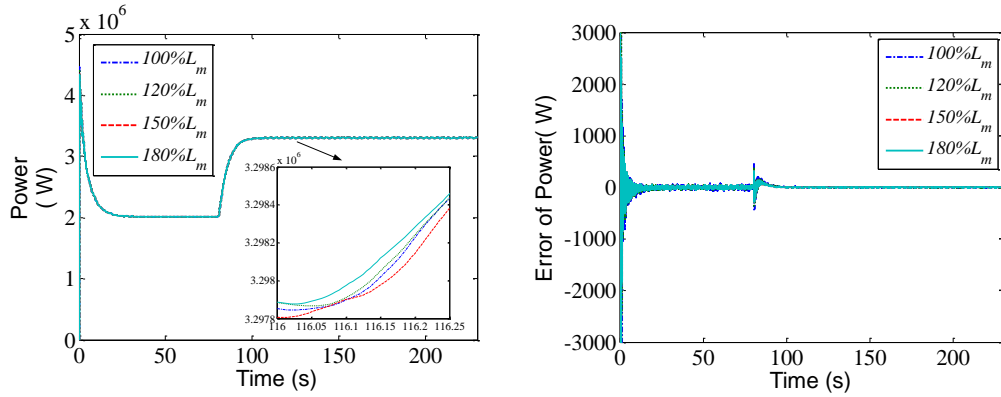
(d) Output power error of generator

333 **Fig. 7.** Simulation results with $R_s = 100\% 120\% 150\% \text{ and } 180\%$



(a) Wind speed

(b) Generator speed in the high speed side



(c) Output power of generator (d) Output power error of generator

Fig. 8. Simulation results with $L_m = 100\%$ 120% 150% and 180%

5. Conclusion

In this paper, an intelligent proportional-integral sliding mode control for direct power control of variable speed-constant frequency wind turbine system is presented. This controller consists in two nested controllers: an intelligent proportional integral controller enhanced by a sliding mode compensated controller. In order to demonstrate its performance, the controller is tested in two different cases which include stochastic wind and parameter variations.

Under stochastic wind turbulences, the average output error of iPISMC is significantly smaller than that of PI or iPI. Moreover, iPISMC is not sensitive to unpredictable parameter variations. This also tends to show that iPISMC can be employed when these parameters are ill-known. Consequently, iPISMC is well suited for DFIG wind turbine robust control in practical situations.

Acknowledgments

This work is supported by National Nature Science Foundation of China(61304077, 61203115), Jiangsu Province under Grant(BK2013075), by the Chinese Ministry of Education Project of Humanities and Social Sciences (13YJCZH171), by the Funding of Jiangsu Innovation Program for Graduate Education(Grant No.KYLX 0377)

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