Abstract—This paper examines small-signal stability of electrical networks composed dominantly of three-phase grid-following inverters. We show that the mere existence of a high-voltage power flow solution does not necessarily imply small-signal stability; this motivates us to develop a framework for stability analysis that systematically acknowledges inverter dynamics. We identify a suitable time-scale decomposition for the inverter dynamics, and using singular perturbation theory, obtain an analytic condition for stability that is agnostic to filter and control parameters in small-signal stability. Numerical simulations for a radial network validate the approach and illustrate the efficiency of our analytic conditions for designing and monitoring grid-tied inverter networks.

I. INTRODUCTION

Problem description and motivation: The ongoing shift from fossil-fuel-driven synchronous generators to power-electronics-interfaced renewable energy is leading to changes in how power grids are modeled, analyzed, and controlled. While synchronous generators are generally rated at several hundreds of MVA and installed on the transmission backbone, power electronics inverters are distributed across both transmission and distribution subsystems and are generally much smaller in capacity. Furthermore, synchronous generators have large rotating masses that buffer supply-demand fluctuations and limit frequency excursions during transients, whereas inverters have very different dynamics (attributable dominantly to output filters and digital controllers [31]) and they possess no moving parts. Future grids will have large number of power-electronics circuits with highly distributed architecture as inverters assume a more prominent role, and this will necessitate the development of compatible models and computationally efficient stability-analysis approaches.

Most commercial inverters on the market for residential and utility-scale applications are grid-following. This means inverters inject currents while synchronized to the voltage at their terminals which is assumed to be set externally by the bulk grid. In effect, grid-following inverters act as voltage-following current sources. In recent years, there has been increased attention on grid-forming inverter technology, whereby—much like conventional synchronous generators—terminal voltage and frequency are modulated as a function of real- and reactive-power injections. Indeed, while grid-forming technology may very well be the solution for grids with penetration levels approaching 100%, in the foreseeable future, it is likely that the bulk grid will see conventional synchronous generators co-exist alongside a large number of grid-following inverters. For instance, in Oahu, Hawaii, at least 800,000 micro-inverters interconnect photovoltaic panels to the grid, producing as much power as the state’s largest conventional power plant, Konkar [8]. This motivates the problem of stability analysis for large-scale networks composed dominantly of grid-following inverters that we examine.

The inverter dynamical model that we investigate is composed of a current controller, a power controller, a PLL, and an LCL filter. This is prototypical and mirrors models published widely in the literature [16]–[19], [22], [23], [27]. We propose a framework that leverages singular perturbation methods to obtain an analytic, computationally light-weight condition for small-signal stability assessment of three-phase distribution networks with grid-following inverters. Our solution strategy yields an analytic condition for stability that is agnostic to system size and clearly highlights the role of the network topology and pertinent system parameters on system stability.

Due to the complexity of the involved dynamics, most prior art on stability of inverter-based systems has typically focused on simplified models that neglect inner control loops with fast dynamics [25]. Some exceptions are [1], [32], where stability of full-order inverter models are studied in grid-connected networks. However, these studies are restricted to parallel networks of inverters and are not applicable to networks with general topologies. In some cases, detailed inverter models have been considered in general networks, but system stability has only been studied for a single inverter or a small network of inverters using numerical eigenvalue analysis. For instance, small-signal stability is analyzed in the literature using eigenvalue analysis for a single grid-following inverter under unintentional islanding in [28], for the IEEE 37-bus system with 7 inverters in [22], [23], for a radial network consisting of 3 inverters in [17], and for a single-machine-single-inverter network in [13]. The article [15] provides interesting insights about the role of inverter structure in small-signal stability of transmission grids with different levels of penetration of inverters. Using numerical simulations for the IEEE 9-bus system with one grid-following and one grid-forming inverter, this paper reveals the substantial effect of grid-following dynamics in the small-signal stability of inverter networks.
Understandably, while numerical eigenvalue analysis of the linearized network is indeed a reasonable strategy, this approach comes with significant drawbacks. First, the large size of the network combined with the high dimensionality of the inverter model pose computational challenges to analysis. Furthermore, studying small-signal stability by computing eigenvalues of the linearized system does not reveal the role of critical network attributes on system stability, insights which if formalized appropriately can facilitate analysis.

Several works have also used time-scale separation and singular perturbation to study the qualitative dynamic behaviors of the inverter networks (see, e.g., [23] and the survey [25]). In [25], a generic time-scale approach is used to study stability of inverter networks. However, this approach does not explicitly identify the time-scale parameter and treats all the states of the grid-following inverters as fast variables. In [25], a suitable time-scale decomposition for a class of inverters is identified and iterative scheme for model reduction is proposed.

On a tangential note, it must be acknowledged that there is a growing body of work on stability assessment of synchronous generators and grid-forming inverter systems, and this includes approaches that have applied model-order reduction using singular perturbation analysis. For instance, in [2], [6], [9], [26], [29], model-reduction approaches based on singular perturbation are proposed to study stability and control of grid-forming inverters. In [14], singular perturbation is applied to obtain a hierarchy of reduced-order models for inverters in the grid-forming mode. In [2], a hierarchical time-scale approach is used to estimate the trajectories of networks of grid-forming inverters. In [26], a Lyapunov approach is used to study multiple-time-scale separation in inverter networks modeled as nested interconnected systems. We refer interested readers to [24] for a survey on singular perturbation methods and to [25] for a survey on application of singular perturbation in stability and control of inverters.

Contributions: We make several contributions to the study of small-signal stability of grid-following inverter networks. First, we show that adopting a static model for grid-following inverters (as fixed sources of active and reactive power) and neglecting fast dynamics induced by the inverters’ control loops may lead to erroneous conclusions regarding stability (see Example 4). This underscores the importance of acknowledging a full-order model for stability analysis. We start by introducing a model for grid-tied inverter networks that acknowledges line dynamics and where each inverter is modeled using a 13th-order model. Next, we uncover a correspondence between the equilibrium points of the dynamics and the solutions of the algebraic power-flow equations. The main contribution of this paper, i.e., an analytic sufficient condition for small-signal stability, is derived in the context of a dimensionless transcription of the involved models which leads to the identification of a physically insightful parametrization of the inverters. We show that certain assumptions on the range of parameters result in a time-scale decomposition of the system. Using singular perturbation analysis, we propose an analytic sufficient condition which guarantees small-signal stability over a given parametric regime. As a unique contribution, we emphasize that the dimensionless form of the network equations as well as the regularity of the singular perturbation problem (i.e., existence of isolated quasi-steady state manifolds) are critical steps in a rigorous time-scale analysis. Over this specified parametric regime, our analytic sufficient condition can also be interpreted as a lower bound on the stability threshold of the network and allows us to check system stability with minimal computational complexity. Furthermore, in the special case of resistive networks, our sufficient condition reduces to checking Hurwitzness of a Metzler matrix, something that can be implemented efficiently via linear programming (see [21]).

In the literature, small-signal stability of inverter networks is studied using eigenvalue analysis for the full-order models (see, e.g., [15], [17]) or for the reduced-order models (see, e.g., [2], [14], [23]). Compared to performing eigenvalue analysis for the full-order system, our proposed analytically driven sufficient condition reduces computational complexity by addressing the high dimensionality of the underlying dynamics (the inverter model we study has 13 dynamical states) and it demarcates the role of the network (topology and constitution) and pertinent inverter dynamics (filter and controller parameters). Compared to the model-order-reduction approaches in [2], [14], our framework can capture the dynamic stability of networks of grid-following inverters. Moreover, while many existing approaches in the literature only outline iterative schemes for model reduction (see [23]), our analysis provides an explicit reduced-order model. Finally, we provide several case studies to validate the analysis.

Notation: Vectors and matrices. We denote the set of real numbers by \( \mathbb{R} \), the set of complex numbers by \( \mathbb{C} \), the set of complex numbers with negative real part by \( \mathbb{C}_- \), the set of binary \( n \)-tuples by \( \mathbb{Z}_2^n \), and the \( n \)-dimensional torus by \( \mathbb{T}^n \). We define \( i = \sqrt{-1} \). We identify the complex plane \( \mathbb{C} \) with the real plane \( \mathbb{R}^2 \). For a complex number \( v = v_1 + iv_2 \in \mathbb{C} \), the norm of \( v \) is \( |v| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2} \) and the argument of \( v \), \( \arg(v) \), is the angle between \( v \) and the positive imaginary axis. We denote the identity matrix of dimension \( n \) by \( I_n \), the \( n \)-column vector of zeros with \( 0_n \), and the \( n \)-column vector of ones with \( 1_n \). For a matrix \( A = \{a_{ij}\} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m} \), we denote the trace by \( \text{tr}(A) \), the determinant by \( \det(A) \), and \( \infty \)-norm by \( \|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} |a_{ij}| \). For two real symmetric matrices \( A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \) we write \( A \succ B \) if \( A - B \) is positive definite. A real square matrix \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \) is Metzler if all its off-diagonal entries are non-negative. For two square matrices \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \) and \( B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m} \), the tensor product is denoted by \( A \otimes B \). For a vector \( x \in \mathbb{C}^n \), we denote \( \text{diag}(x) \) by \( |x| \).

From \( n \)-complex variables to \( 2n \)-real variables. For every complex \( Z = X + iY \in \mathbb{C} \), the associated real variable in the real plane is denoted by \( z = (x, y)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2 \). We will frequently use matrix \( \mathbf{J} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \), matrix \( \mathbf{H} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \), and the rotation matrix (parameterized by angle \( \theta \in \mathbb{S}^1 \)) by \( \mathbf{R}(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \sin(\theta) \\ -\sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{pmatrix} \). Let \( u \in \mathbb{R}^2 \). We define matrix-valued operators \( D : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \) and \( D' : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2} \) by \( D(u) = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ u_2 & -u_1 \end{pmatrix} \) and \( D'(u) = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ -u_2 & u_1 \end{pmatrix} \). All the above matrices and operators can be extended to the \( n \)-
dimensional complex and $2n$-dimensional real spaces using block diagonal structure. For the brevity of notation, we denote the extended $n$-dimensional complex ($2n$-dimensional real) matrix/operator with the same symbol as its 1-dimensional complex (2-dimensional real) counterpart. Let $V \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $v \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ be the associated real vector, then we define $\|v\|_{\infty} = \|V\|_{\infty}$.

Algebraic graph theory. We denote an undirected weighted graph by a triple $G = (N, E, A)$, where $N = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ is the set of nodes and $E \subseteq N \times N$ is the set of edges. The matrix $A = \{a_{ij}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the weighted adjacency matrix. For every node $i \in V$, the degree of the node $i$ is given by $d_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}$. For a fixed orientation on $G$, the incidence matrix of the graph $G$ is denoted by $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$. The Laplacian for the graph $G$ is defined by $L = D - A$, where $D = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n)$.

Power systems. We examine balanced AC systems, by which we mean that the three-phase signals have the same amplitude and they are phase shifted by $2\pi/3 \text{rad}$. We consider two different reference frames. The first is the global DQ-frame, and it is a rotating reference frame tied to the nominal grid frequency $\omega_{\text{nom}}$. The second, the local dq-frame, is with reference to each inverter’s terminal voltage vector. For a balanced three-phase signal $x: \mathbb{R}_+ \to \mathbb{R}^3$, we denote the dq-frame representation by $x_{dq} = (x_d, x_q)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and the DQ-frame representation by $x_{DQ} = (x_{D}, x_{Q})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2$. These are related as follows: $x_{dq} = \mathcal{R}(\delta)x_{DQ}$, where $\delta \in \mathbb{S}$ is the angle between the dq-frame and the DQ-frame. We assume that all the electrical signals in the network are balanced [3, Chapter 2]. Therefore, the voltage of the grid is a three-phase AC signal given by the time-varying function $v(t) = [v_a(t), v_b(t), v_c(t)]^\top \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and in the global DQ-frame, as $v_{DQ} = [0, V_g]^\top$, where $V_g$ is the amplitude.

II. MODEL OF INDIVIDUAL INVERTER

We briefly overview the dynamics of the type of grid-following 3-phase inverters examined in this work. For a more detailed description of the model, see [19, 22]. The model captures all relevant AC-side dynamics, and is composed of: i) phase-locked loop (PLL), ii) power controller, iii) current controller, and iv) LC output filter. An illustrative block diagram is given in Fig. 1. The PLL consists of a low-pass filter with cut-off frequency $\omega_c$, PLL, and a PI controller with gains $k_p$ and $k_i$. The PLL dynamics are

$$\dot{\phi}_{\text{PLL}} = \omega_c \cdot \text{PLL}(v_{\text{od}} - v_{\text{PLL}}),$$

$$\dot{\delta} = -k_p v_{\text{PLL}} + k_i \phi_{\text{PLL}},$$

where $v_{\text{PLL}}$ and $\phi_{\text{PLL}}$ denote states of the low-pass filter and PI controller, respectively. $\delta$ is the output of the PI controller, and $v_{\text{od}}$ is the d-component of the output voltage of the inverter. The frequency of the PLL loop is defined by $\omega_{\text{PLL}} = \omega_{\text{nom}} + \delta$. The power controller consists of two low-pass filters with cut-off frequency $\omega_s$ and two PI controllers with gains $k_p$ and $k_i$. The pertinent dynamics are given by

$$\dot{s}_{\text{avg}} = \omega_s (s - s_{\text{avg}}),$$

where $s_{\text{avg}} = (p_{\text{avg}}, q_{\text{avg}})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2$ collects the states of the low-pass filters, $i_{ldq} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ capture the outputs of the PI controllers (these are the references for the current controller), $s_{\text{ref}} = (p_{\text{ref}}, q_{\text{ref}})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2$ collects the active- and reactive-power references, and $s = (p, q)^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2$ collects instantaneous active- and reactive-power outputs (measured at the point of common coupling):

$$s = \frac{3}{2} (v_{\text{odldq}} + v_{\text{odqodq}}) = \frac{3}{2} D(v_{\text{oddq}})iz_{ldq}.$$}

The current controller consists of two PI controllers with gains $k_p$ and $k_i$, with outputs to be the references for the inverter voltage at the switching terminals $v_{\text{idq}}$:

$$\dot{v}_{\text{idq}} = k_p (i_{ldq} - i_{ldq}) + k_i \int (i_{ldq} - i_{ldq}) \, dt$$

$$+ \omega_{\text{PLL}} L_J (\mathcal{J} i_{ldq}).$$

Since the switching period is typically much shorter than the filter and controller time constants, we assume that $v_{\text{idq}} = \hat{v}_{\text{idq}}$. The dynamics of the LC filter (composed of inductance, $L_f$, and capacitance, $C_f$) are given by

$$\dot{\mathbf{i}}_{\text{idq}} = \frac{1}{L_f} (v_{\text{idq}} - v_{\text{odq}}) - \omega_{\text{PLL}} \mathcal{J} i_{\text{idq}},$$

$$\dot{v}_{\text{odq}} = \frac{1}{C_f} (i_{ldq} - i_{ldq}) - \omega_{\text{PLL}} \mathcal{J} v_{\text{odq}},$$

where $i_{\text{idq}}$ denotes the inductor current, $v_{\text{odq}}$ denotes the capacitor voltage, and $i_{\text{odq}}$ denotes the current injected by the inverter into the grid terminals. (See Fig. 1). Finally, we introduce two new variables $\phi_s := \int (s_{\text{ref}} - s_{\text{avg}}) \, dt$, and $\gamma_{\text{odq}} := \int (i_{ldq} - i_{ldq}) \, dt$, that will aid in exposition. The inner- and outer-loop control architecture examined here is ubiquitous, see, e.g., [16–19], [22], [23], [27].

Now, we write the dynamical system of the inverters in the global DQ-frame. To this end, we introduce:

$$\mathcal{J} \mathcal{D} q = \mathcal{R}(\delta) \mathcal{J} \mathcal{D} q,$$

$$\mathcal{J} \mathcal{D} q = \mathcal{R}(\delta) \mathcal{D} q,$$

for vector $y$ with time-varying entries, the time derivatives in the global DQ-frame and local dq-frame are related by

$$\dot{y}_{\text{odq}} - \mathcal{J} \mathcal{R}(\delta) \dot{y}_{\text{idq}} = \mathcal{R}(\delta) \dot{y}_{\text{idq}}.$$
Fig. 1: Block diagram capturing the dynamics of a three phase grid-tied inverter and shorthand representation for the per-phase equivalent circuit. Model includes dynamics arising from the phase locked loop (1), power controller (2), current controller (3), and LC filter (4) [20].

Remark 1. The model introduced above does not include the DC-side dynamics. This is deliberate; including DC-side dynamics tailored to, e.g., photovoltaic resources and energy-storage devices, would take away from the generality of the results that follow. Another reason that prompts the exclusion relates to the nature of some DC resources. In particular, DC-side dynamics can be neglected if one is interfacing with a resource that presents stiff voltage-source-like behavior or as a result of the application of appropriate fast-acting control loops. It is also worth pointing out that control strategies for DC-side resources, e.g., maximum power point tracking algorithms, cannot always be neatly transcribed into state-space models to facilitate analysis. This last aspect in particular, provides excellent grounds for future work.

III. MODEL FOR GRID-TIED NETWORK OF INVERTERS

In this section, we derive the dynamical system model governing the grid-tied network of inverters and loads and study the equilibrium points of the system. We model the network using an undirected, connected, matrix-weighted graph $G$ with node set (buses) $N$, edge set (branches) $E \subseteq N \times N$, and the symmetric matrix-valued edge weights (admittances) $a_{kj} = a_{jk} = (R_{kj}I_2 + \omega_{hom}L_{kj}J)^{-1}$, where $R_{kj}$ is the resistance and $L_{kj}$ is the inductance of the line $(k,j)$, for every $(k,j) \in E$. Suppose $B$ is the incidence matrix of $G$. There are three types of nodes in the network: we have one grid bus with voltage $v_{gDQ} = [0, V_{gDQ}]^T$ denoted by 0. We have $n \geq 1$ inverter buses collected in the set $N_I$, and $l$ load buses collected in the set $N_L$. This setup is well suited for analysis of distribution networks with the stiff voltage source, i.e., the grid bus, modeling the secondary side of the step-down transformer that interfaces the distribution network with the medium-voltage transmission network. The idea here being that the aggregate representation of all transmission-side assets presents itself as a stiff equivalent source. Without loss of generality, we assume that $N_I = \{1, \ldots, \ell\}$ and $N_L = \{\ell+1, \ldots, n+l\}$ such that $N = \{0\} \cup N_I \cup N_L$. Therefore $|N| = 1 + \ell + n$ and we assume that $|E| = m$. Associated to the matrix-weighted graph, $G$, we define the nodal admittance matrix by $Y = (B \otimes I_2)A(B \otimes I_2)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{2(1+\ell+n) \times 2(1+\ell+n)}$, where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2m \times 2m}$ is given by $A = \text{blkdi}(a_{jk})$. The partition $N = \{0\} \cup N_I \cup N_L$ induces the following decomposition of incidence matrix $B$: $B^T = (B_0^T, B_L^T, B_I^T)$, where $B_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times m}$, $B_L \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell \times m}$, and $B_I \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ and the following partition for the admittance matrix $Y = [Y_{00}, Y_{0L}, Y_{0I}; Y_{L0}, Y_{LL}, Y_{LI}; Y_{I0}, Y_{IL}, Y_{II}]$. 

For a given variable (parameter) $y$ corresponding to the inverter, we define vector $y = (y_1^T, \ldots, y_n^T)^T$, where $y_k$ is the associated variable (parameter) for the $k$th inverter.

Inverter model: Using (5), the governing dynamics for all inverters in the network can be expressed as:

$$\dot{y} = F(y) + G(y)v_{eDQ} + Csy_{ref},$$

where, in $y = (y_1^T, \ldots, y_n^T)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{13n}$, $y_k$ captures all the dynamic states for the $k$th inverter, $F(y) = (f_1^T(y_1), \ldots, f_n^T(y_n))^T$, $G(y) = \text{diag}(g_1(y_1), \ldots, g_n(y_n))$, and $C = \text{diag}(C_1, \ldots, C_n)$, where $f_k$ is the drift vector field and $g_k$ and $C_k$ are control vector fields of inverter $k$.

Load and line models: Let $v_k \in \mathbb{R}^2$ be the grid load voltage (in the DQ-frame) and $i_k \in \mathbb{R}^2$ be the current demand (in the DQ-frame) of the $k$th load. We collect the nodal voltages and current demands for the loads in $v_L = (v_1^T, \ldots, v_n^T)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ and $i_L = (i_1^T, \ldots, i_n^T)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$, respectively. We assume loads are purely resistive; suppose $R_L \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$ is the vector of load resistances, then we get

$$v_L = (-R_L I_2) i_L.$$
\[
([L_e] \otimes I_2) \xi_{DQ} = \left(-[R_e] \otimes I_2 - \omega_{nom}[L_e] \otimes J\right) \xi_{DQ} + (B^\top \otimes I_2)v, \tag{8}
\]
where \(\xi_{DQ} \in \mathbb{R}^{2m}\) is the vector of current flows in the lines. Thus we have \(i = (B \otimes I_2)\xi_{DQ}\).

### A. Network Model and Dimensionless Transcription

From (6)–(8), the grid-tied inverter-network dynamics are:

\[
\dot{y} = F(y) + G(y)(B_1 \otimes I_2)\xi_{DQ} + Cs_{ref},
\]

\[
([L_e] \otimes I_2) \xi_{DQ} = \left(-[R_e] \otimes I_2 - \omega_{nom}[L_e] \otimes J\right) \xi_{DQ} + (B^\top \otimes I_2)v,
\]

where \(v = [v_{DQ}^T, v_{oDQ}^T, v_{adQ}^T]^T\) and \(w = (-B_1[R_e] \otimes I_2)\xi_{DQ}\).

We transcribe the differential equations (9) in a dimensionless format. We assume that \(s_{nom}\) is the nominal power generation/consumption in the network. For each inverter, we introduce the following dimensionless variables:

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{v}_{PLL} &:= \frac{v_{PLL}}{V_g}, \quad \hat{\phi}_{PLL} := \frac{k_{PLL}}{V_g k_{PLL}}, \hat{s}_{avg} := \frac{s_{avg}}{s_{nom}}, \\
\hat{\phi}_s &:= \frac{V_g k_i \phi_i}{s_{nom}}, \quad \hat{s}_{ref} := \frac{s_{ref}}{s_{nom}}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_{DQ} := \frac{\hat{\gamma}_{DQ}}{V_g}, \quad \hat{i}_{DQ} := \frac{V_g i_{DQ}}{V_g},
\end{align*}
\]

For the network, we introduce the dimensionless parameters

\[
\hat{\xi}_{DQ} := V_g s_{nom}^{-1} \xi_{DQ}, \quad \hat{v} := V_g^{-1} v, \quad \hat{i} := V_g^{-1} s_{nom}^{-1} i.
\]

While the above scaling may be reminiscent of the classical per-unit representation frequently employed in power system analysis, there are several notable points of departure. In particular, the classical per-unit representation is typically only utilized to scale impedances, currents, voltages, and power values for steady-state analysis of power networks. In contrast, we utilize the dimensionless transcription for scaling time-domain signals beyond physical-layer electrical quantities (referenced above) to also include, e.g., controller states.

We also isolate time-constants of different sub-systems:

- for the PLL low-pass filter: \(\tau_{PLL} = \omega_{PLL}^{-1}\), \(\tau'_s = (k_i s_{nom})^{-1}\);
- for the PLL PI controller: \(\tau_{PLL} = \frac{k_{PLL}}{k_i}\);
- for the low-pass filter of the power controller: \(\tau_s = \omega_s^{-1}\);
- for tracking in the power controller: \(\tau'_s = (V_g k_i)^{-1}\);
- for the PI controller in the power controller: \(\tau_p = \frac{k_{PLL}}{k_i}\);
- for the current controller: \(\tau_c = V_g^2 (k_i s_{nom})^{-1}\);
- for the PLL controller in the current controller: \(\tau_{PLL} = \frac{k_{PLL}}{k_i}\);
- for the LC filter: \(\tau_{LC} = \frac{s_{nom}}{\sqrt{\omega_{nom} C_i^2 + \omega_{nom} L_i^2}}\) and \(\tau'_c = \frac{C_i}{\sqrt{s_{nom} V_g}}\).

With these preliminaries in place, the dimensionless grid-tied inverter-network dynamics can be expressed as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{\hat{v}}_{PLL} &= [\tau_{PLL}]^{-1} (\hat{v}_{oDQ} - \hat{v}_{PLL}), \tag{10a} \\
\dot{\hat{\phi}}_{PLL} &= -[\tau_s]^{-1} \hat{\phi}_{PLL}, \tag{10b} \\
\dot{\hat{\delta}} &= [\tau_s]^{-1} (\hat{\phi}_{PLL} - \hat{\phi}_{PLL}), \tag{10c}
\end{align*}
\]

### B. Equilibrium points of the Dimensionless Dynamics

We start by introducing some notation. Let \(Y \in \mathbb{R}^{(2n+2)}\) be the admittance matrix of the network. Then

\[
\begin{align*}
Y_{ref} &:= Y_{ref} - Y_{IL} (Y_{IL} + [R_e]^{-1} \otimes I_2)^{-1} Y_{IL}, \\
Y_{red} &:= Y_{red} + \omega_{nom} ([C_i] \otimes J), \\
Y_g &:= Y_{IL} - Y_{IL} (Y_{IL} + [R_e]^{-1} \otimes I_2)^{-1} Y_{IL}, \\
w &:= -Y_{ref}^{-1} Y_{oDQ},
\end{align*}
\]

and the dimensionless parameters \(\hat{Y}_{(\cdot)} := V_g^2 s_{nom}^{-1} Y_{(\cdot)}\) and \(\hat{w} := -V_g^{-1} w\) and \(Z_e = Z + (\omega_{nom} L_e)^{-1} B_0 [R_e] B_0^{-1} \otimes I_2\).

We show that the equilibrium points of the dimensionless grid-tied inverter network dynamics (10) are in correspondence with the solutions of the following power-flow equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{s}_{ref} &= \hat{\delta} D (\hat{v}_{oDQ}) \hat{i}_{DQ}, \tag{12} \\
\hat{i}_{DQ} &= \hat{Y}_{red} \hat{v}_{oDQ} + \hat{Y}_{oDQ}, \tag{13}
\end{align*}
\]

Lemma 2. For a given reference-power injection \(s_{ref}\) to the inverters, the following statements are equivalent:

(i) \(((\hat{v}_{oDQ})^T, \hat{v}_{oDQ})^T) \in \mathbb{R}^{4n}\) is a solution for the power-flow equations (12) and (13);

(ii) for every \(\alpha = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^n, \hat{\phi}_s \in \mathbb{R}^{13n+2n}\) is an equilibrium point of the dimensionless grid-tied inverter-network dynamics (10) given by

\[
\hat{s}_{ref} = (0, s_{ref}^*)^T, \quad \hat{v}_{oDQ} = \hat{v}_{oDQ}^*, \quad \hat{Y}_{DQ} = \hat{Y}_{DQ}^*, \quad \hat{v}_{oDQ}^+ 1_{DQ}^T
\]

with

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{\delta}_{ref} &= -arg(\hat{v}_{oDQ}^T), \\
\hat{\phi}_{ref} &= \hat{H}_R(\delta_{ref})^T, \\
\hat{i}_{DQ} &= [\tau_c \otimes I_2] \hat{Y}_{oDQ} + \hat{i}_{DQ}^*, \tag{10f}
\end{align*}
\]
\[ \hat{\xi}_{\text{ref}} = Z^{-1}(B_1^T \otimes I_2)\hat{v}_{\text{ref}}^{\text{DQ}} + (B_0^T \otimes I_2)\hat{v}_{\text{DQ}}. \]

**Proof.** Regarding (ii) \(\implies\) (i), from the power-controllers’ dynamics in (10), we can conclude that if \(\hat{\xi}_{\text{ref}}\) is an equilibrium point, then we have \(\hat{s} = \hat{s}_{\text{ref}}\). This implies \(\hat{v}_{\text{DQ}}\) and \(\hat{v}_{\text{ref}}\) satisfy (12). Moreover, at the equilibrium point \(\hat{\xi}_{\text{ref}}\), the line dynamics (10) will simplify to \(\hat{\xi}_{\text{ref}} = Y\hat{v}_{\text{ref}}\). Using Kron reduction [7], this implies that \(\hat{v}_{\text{ref}}\) and \(\hat{v}_{\text{DQ}}\) satisfy (13).

Regarding (i) \(\implies\) (ii), suppose \((\hat{v}_{\text{DQ}})\) and \((\hat{v}_{\text{ref}})^T\) is a solution to the power flow equations (12) and (13). Then from the PLL in (10), we have \(\hat{v}_{\text{PLL}} = 0_n\) and \(\hat{v}_{\text{od}} = 0_n\). Note that, \(\hat{v}_{\text{od}} = 0_n\) can be written in the trigonometric form \(v_{\text{od}} \cos(\delta^k_{\text{ref}}) + v_{\text{od}} \sin(\delta^k_{\text{ref}}) = 0\).

This implies that, for every \(k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}\), there exists \(\alpha_k \in \mathbb{Z}_2\) such that \(\delta^k_{\text{ref}} = -\arg(v_{\text{DQ}}) + \alpha_k \pi\). From (10), we have \(\hat{s}_{\text{avg}} = \hat{s}_{\text{ref}}\). Finally, \(\hat{v}_{\text{DQ}}, \hat{v}_{\text{ref}}\), and \(\hat{v}_{\text{DQ}}\) can be found by solving the remaining equations in (10). \(\square\)

**Remark 3.** The power-flow equations (12) (13) have been studied extensively and many sufficient conditions for existence and uniqueness of solutions have been developed; e.g., see [4], [30]. Lemma 16 in Appendix restates a useful uniqueness result from [30].

IV. STABILITY ANALYSIS OF THE DIMENSIONLESS GRID-TIED INVERTER-NETWORK DYNAMICS

In bulk power-systems dynamics literature, it is commonplace to assume that the dynamics of the grid-following inverters are much faster than the dynamics of grid-forming inverters and synchronous machines [25]. This assumption justifies the use of a static model for grid-following inverters such that the inverter nodes are considered to be sources of constant (active and reactive) power. Subsequently, the network operation is described by the following power-flow equations:

\[ 0_2 = \hat{s}_{\text{ref}} - \frac{3}{2}D(\hat{v}_{\text{DQ}})\hat{\omega}_{\text{DQ}}. \]

Quite obviously, the static representation (14) does not capture stability. The following example shows that the internal dynamics of the inverters can induce instabilities, even if the power-flow equations in (14) admit a high-voltage solution.

**Example 4. (Instabilities Induced by Inverter Dynamics)** Consider a radial grid-connected network consisting of 25 identical inverters (see Fig. 2 for a sketch). The inverters have uniform reference power injections \(p_{\text{ref}} = \hat{p}_{\text{ref}}\), each line has resistance \(R = 10^{-2}\) \(\Omega\) and inductance \(L = 10^{-5}\) H, and the grid voltage is \(v_{\text{grid}} = [0, 120v_2]^T\) V (peak) with constant frequency \(\omega_{\text{nom}} = 120\pi\) rad/s.

(i) **Static model:** If inverter power injections satisfy

\[ \hat{p} = \hat{p}_{\text{ref}}, \]

then, there exists a unique high-voltage, low-current solution for the power-flow equations (14) (see Lemma 16 in the Appendix).

(ii) **Dynamic model:** We use the dynamic model (5) for the inverters (parameters are given in the fourth column of Table III in Appendix). The governing equations for the network are in (10), and condition (15) via Lemma 2 guarantees the existence of a family of equilibrium points \(\hat{s}^\alpha\), \(\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_2\) for the system (10). Linearizing the system (10), we study local stability of \(\hat{s}^\alpha\).

Figure 3 plots the maximum real part of the eigenvalues of the linearized system (10) around the equilibrium point \(\hat{s}^0\) as a function of active-power injection. The red vertical line is the threshold of the power injection for which the power-flow equations admit a unique solution (obtained from (15)). Notice that there are power injections for which a high-voltage solution of the power-flow equations exists, however, the corresponding equilibrium point \(\hat{s}^0\) is not stable.

A. Small-signal Stability via Time-scale Separation

We now focus on the small-signal stability of the dimensionless grid-tied inverter-network dynamics (10). Due to high dimensionality and nonlinearity of the dynamic model, studying small-signal stability is not analytically tractable. Therefore, it is a reasonable goal to reduce the model order. To that end, we identify a physically meaningful parametrization of the inverters, and we show that under suitable assumptions, this parametrization leads to a time-scale decomposition of the system (10) which simplifies analysis. We begin by uncovering time constants of different sub-systems.

**Definition 5 (Singular perturbation parameter).** For dynamics (10), we define:

\[ \epsilon_1 = \max \left\{ \|\tau_{\text{PLL}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_{\text{PLL}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_2\|_\infty, \|\tau_2\|_\infty, \|\tau_2\|_\infty \right\}, \]

\[ \epsilon_\tau = \max \left\{ \|\tau_{\text{LC}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_{\text{LC}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_2\|_\infty \right\} \]

Using these, we define the singular perturbation parameter:

\[ \epsilon := \max \{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_\tau\}. \]

**Remark 6.** (i) Definition 5 establishes a physically meaningful time-scale separation of the components of the inverter network when \(\epsilon \ll 1\). In this case, \(\|\tau_{\text{LC}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_{\text{LC}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_2\|_\infty, \|\tau_2\|_\infty, \|\tau_2\|_\infty \leq \epsilon^2\) which implies that the line dynamics, the LC filter, and the current controller are the fastest components. Moreover, \(\|\tau_{\text{PLL}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_{\text{PLL}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_2\|_\infty \leq \epsilon\) which implies that the PLL, and averaging-part of the power controller (i.e., \(\hat{s}_{\text{avg}}\)) are slower than the current controller, the line dynamics, and the LC filter but they are faster than the power-tracking controller (i.e., \(\hat{v}_{\text{od}}\)) dynamics.

(ii) The assumption \(\epsilon \ll 1\) is equivalent to \(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_\tau \ll 1\), which is realistic in practice. For instance, in the inverter models with the parameters in Table III in Appendix and those used in [17], [22], [23], it holds that \(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_\tau \leq 0.1\).

(iii) \(\tau_\epsilon = \frac{L}{\sqrt{R^2 + \omega_{\text{nom}}^2 L^2}} \leq \omega_{\text{nom}}^{-1}\) for every \(\epsilon \in \mathbb{E}\). Similarly, one can show that \(\|\tau_{\text{LC}}\|_\infty, \|\tau_{\text{LC}}\|_\infty \leq \omega_{\text{nom}}^{-1}\) and this gives an upper bound for the LC and line parameter \(\epsilon_\tau \leq \omega_{\text{nom}}^{-1}\).

(iv) For different parameters and control architectures, one can conceivably identify a different singular perturbation parameter and time-scale decomposition. However, we expect the corresponding stability result to be similar.
Theorem 7 (Small-signal Stability). Consider the dimensionless grid-tied inverter-network dynamics (10) with states in $\mathbb{R}^{13n+2m}$ and references $\bar{s}^{\text{ref}} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$. The following hold:

(i) if

$$
\left\| D'(\bar{w})Y_{\text{ref}}^{-1}(D'(\bar{w}))^{-1}D'(\bar{s}^{\text{ref}}) \right\|_{C, \infty} \leq \frac{3}{M},
$$

then there is a unique solution $(\bar{s}^{\text{ref}}_{\text{eq}})^{T}, (\bar{\theta}^{\text{ref}}_{\text{eq}})^{T}$ for the power-flow equations (12) and (13) and a family of equilibrium points $\bar{s}^{\text{eq}}_{\alpha}, \alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}^{n}$, for the grid-tied inverter network dynamics (10) satisfying:

$$
\| \bar{s}^{\text{ref}}_{\text{eq}} \|_{C, \infty} \leq \frac{1}{2} \| \bar{s} \|_{C, \infty};
$$

(ii) if the equilibrium point $\bar{s}^{\text{ref}}_{0}$ for the inverter network (10) exists, $[\bar{T}]_{\text{PLL}} \gg [\bar{T}]_{\text{PLL}}$, and the $2n \times 2n$ matrix

$$
M := -\left(D(\bar{s}^{\text{ref}}_{\text{ref}})Y_{\text{ref}}^{-1}D'(\bar{s}^{\text{ref}}_{\text{ref}})\right) \times
\hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}R(-\delta^{\text{ref}})H(\tau' \otimes I_{2})^{-1}
$$

is Hurwitz. Then, there exists an $\epsilon^{*} > 0$ such that, for every $\epsilon \leq \epsilon^{*}$, the equilibrium point $\bar{s}^{\text{eq}}_{0}$ is locally exponentially stable.

Proof. Regarding part (i), the proof follows from combining Lemma 16 in Appendix and Lemma 2. Regarding part (ii), consider the dimensionless grid-tied inverter network dynamics (10). In order to perform the three-time-scale singular perturbation, we introduce the small variable $\sigma = \epsilon^{2}$. Then it is clear that $\sigma \ll \epsilon \ll 1$ and they induce a three-time-scale separation for the dynamical system (10). Using (16) and defining the variable $\Delta \bar{x} := \bar{x} - \bar{x}^{\text{eq}}$, we get a three-time-scale decomposition of the system. We define the states $z_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{6n+2m}$, $z_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{5n}$, and $z_{3} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ as follows:

$$
z_{1} = \left(\Delta \hat{\tau}_{\text{PLL}} \Delta \hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}} \Delta \delta \Delta \bar{s}_{\text{avg}}\right)^{T},
$$

$$
z_{2} = \left(\Delta \hat{\theta}_{\text{PLL}} \Delta \hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}} \Delta \delta \Delta \bar{s}_{\text{avg}}\right)^{T},
$$

$$
z_{3} = R(-\delta)\hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}} - R(-\delta^{\text{ref}})\hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}}^{\text{ref}},
$$

where $z_{1}$ is faster than $z_{2}$ and $z_{2}$ are faster than $z_{3}$. Note that the variable $z_{1}$ includes the states of the current controller and the inductor currents and the capacitor voltages in the filters and the current flows in the lines, the variable $z_{2}$ includes the output phase angle and the states of low-pass filter and PI controller in the PLL and the state of low-pass filter in the power control loop, and the variable $z_{3}$ includes the state of PI controller in the power control loop. The corresponding time-scales are given by $\tau = t/\sigma$ and $\tau' = t/\epsilon$. Using these time scales, the dimensionless grid-tied inverter network dynamics (10) can be written as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{z}_{3} &= g_{3}(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, \epsilon), \\
\epsilon \dot{z}_{2} &= g_{2}(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}), \\
\sigma \dot{z}_{1} &= g_{1}(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, \sigma),
\end{align*}
$$

where $g_{1}, g_{2}, g_{3}$ are suitably defined functions. Note that, by Lemma 2, the equilibrium point $x^{\text{ref}}_{0}$ of the dimensionless grid-tied inverter network (10) is independent of both $\sigma$ and $\epsilon$. As a result, $(z_{1}^{T}, z_{2}, z_{3}^{T})^{T} = 0_{13n+2m}$ is an equilibrium point for (19) for every $\sigma, \epsilon > 0$. Our proof strategy is based on successive use of singular perturbation with respect to the time-scales $\tau$ and $\tau'$. The quasi-steady-state manifold for the time-scale $\tau$ is the manifold $z_{1} = h_{1}(z_{2}, z_{3})$ obtained by solving the algebraic equations $g_{1}(z_{1}, z_{2}, z_{3}, 0) = 0_{(6n+2m)}$ [11, §11.2]. After some algebraic computations, the quasi-steady-state manifold for the time-scale $\tau$ is given by:

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{\Delta} \hat{\tau}_{\text{PLL}} &= \hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}R(\delta)\hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}} - \hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}R(-\delta^{\text{ref}})\hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}}^{\text{ref}}, \\
\dot{\Delta} \hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}} &= \hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}R(-\delta)\hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}} - \hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}R(-\delta^{\text{ref}})\hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}}^{\text{ref}}, \\
\dot{\Delta} \bar{s}_{\text{PLL}} &= Z_{L}^{-1}(B_{1}^{T} \otimes I_{2})\hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}z_{3}.
\end{align*}
$$

Since the quasi-steady-state manifold for the time-scale $\tau$ is an isolated manifold, the singular perturbation problem is in the standard form. Now, we introduce the error variables $e_{1}, e_{2}, e_{3} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$ and $e_{4} \in \mathbb{R}^{2m}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
e_{1} &= \Delta \hat{\tau}_{\text{PLL}} - \hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}z_{3}, \\
e_{2} &= \Delta \hat{\phi}_{\text{PLL}} - z_{3}, \\
e_{3} &= \Delta \bar{s}_{\text{PLL}} - Z_{L}^{-1}(B_{1}^{T} \otimes I_{2})\hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}z_{3}, \\
e_{4} &= \Delta \hat{\tau}_{\text{PLL}} - \hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}e_{2}.
\end{align*}
$$

Using these error variables, the boundary-layer dynamics associated to the time-scale $\tau$ are:

$$
\begin{align*}
d\sigma d\tau &= -\sigma [\tau_{c} \otimes I_{2}]^{-1}e_{2}, \\
d\sigma d\tau &= \sigma [\tau_{Lc}^{-1} \otimes I_{2}](e_{1} - e_{3} - ([\tau_{c}]^{-1}[T_{c}] \otimes I_{2})e_{2}), \\
d\sigma d\tau &= \sigma [\tau_{Lc}^{-1} \otimes I_{2}](e_{2} - (B_{1} \otimes I_{2})e_{4} - [\tau_{Lc}'' \otimes I_{2}]e_{3}), \\
d\sigma d\tau &= [\tau_{c}][\tau_{c}'] \otimes I_{2}])^{-1}((B_{1}^{T} \otimes I_{2})e_{4} - Z_{L} e_{4}).
\end{align*}
$$
We first show that for the boundary-layer dynamics (24), the origin is the exponentially stable equilibrium point. It is easy to see that since the graph is connected, we have $\text{Ker}(B_1^T) = \{0_n\}$, the matrix $[(\frac{\tau}{\tau_L} \otimes I_2)]J$ is skew-symmetric and the matrix $-(Z_L + Z_U')$ is negative definite. Hence, using Lemma 15 in Appendix, the origin is the locally exponentially stable point of the boundary-layer dynamics (24). Using [11, Theorem 11.4], the dynamical system (19) is locally exponentially stable around the origin, if the reduced-order system:

$$\dot{z}_3 = g_3(h_2(z_3), z_2, z_3, \epsilon),$$
$$\epsilon \dot{z}_2 = g_2(h_1(z_2, z_3), z_2, z_3),$$

(25)

is locally exponentially stable around the origin. Now, we use singular perturbation analysis with respect to the time-scale $\tau'$ to show that the dynamical system (25) is locally exponentially stable around the origin. Note that, the quasi-steady-state manifold for time-scale $\tau'$ is $z_2 = h_2(z_3)$ obtained by solving the algebraic equations $g_2(h_1(z_2, z_3), z_2, z_3) = 0_n$. Thus, the quasi-steady state manifold for time-scale $\tau'$ is given by:

$$\Delta \hat{v}_{PLL} = 0_n, \quad \Delta \hat{\phi}_{PLL} = 0_n, \quad \Delta \delta = \delta^{BL}(z_3) = \arg(\hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ),$$
$$\Delta \hat{s}_{avg} = \frac{3}{2}D(\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ - s_{ref}),$$

where $\delta^{BL} : \mathbb{R}^{2n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined by $\delta^{BL}(z_3) = \arg(\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ)$. Since the quasi-steady state manifold for the time-scale $\tau'$ is an isolated manifold, the singular perturbation problem is in the standard form. We introduce the error variables $e_5, e_6, e_7 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $e_8 \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$:

$$e_5 = \Delta \hat{v}_{PLL}, e_6 = \Delta \hat{\phi}_{PLL},$$
$$e_7 = \Delta \delta = \delta^{BL}(z_3) + \arg(\hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ),$$
$$e_8 = \Delta \hat{s}_{avg} - \frac{3}{2}D(\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ).$$

Thus, the boundary-layer dynamics associated to the time-scale $\tau'$ is given by:

$$\frac{de_5}{d\tau'} = \epsilon(\tau_{PLL}^{-1})(\Delta \hat{v}_{od} - e_5),$$
$$\frac{de_6}{d\tau'} = -\epsilon(\tau_{PLL}^{-1})e_5,$$
$$\frac{de_7}{d\tau'} = \epsilon(\tau_{PLL}^{-1})(e_6 - e_5),$$
$$\frac{de_8}{d\tau'} = -\epsilon(\tau_s \otimes I_2^{-1})e_8,$$

(26)

where $\Delta \hat{v}_{od}$ is the $d$-component of $\mathcal{R}(\delta)(\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ) - \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ$. We show that the boundary-layer dynamics (26) are stable around the origin. Let $e = (e_5, e_6, e_7, e_8)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{5n}$. Note that the linearized boundary-layer equation dynamics around the origin have the form $\Delta \delta = S\delta$, where $S \in \mathbb{R}^{5n \times 5n}$ has the upper block triangular form $S = \begin{pmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ 0_{2n \times 3n} & S_{22} \end{pmatrix}$ with:

$$S_{11} = \begin{pmatrix} -\epsilon(\tau_{PLL}^{-1}) & 0_{n \times n} & \epsilon(\tau_{PLL}^{-1}) \\ -\epsilon(\tau_{PLL}^{-1}) & 0_{n \times n} & 0_{n \times n} \\ -\epsilon(\tau_{PLL}^{-1}) & 0_{n \times n} & 0_{n \times n} \end{pmatrix},$$
$$S_{12} = -\epsilon(\tau_s \otimes I_2^{-1})1_{2n \times 3n}.$$ 

Note that $\hat{v}_{od} = \mathcal{R}(\delta)(\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ)$. By Lemma 2, we know that $\hat{v}_{ref}^o > 0_n$. This implies that, for $z_3$ close enough to the origin, we get $\hat{v}_{od} > 0_n$. Moreover, we have $[T_{PLL}] > [\tau_{PLL}]$. Using Lemma 15 in Appendix, the matrix $S$ is Hurwitz. Therefore, the origin is the locally exponentially stable point of the boundary-layer equations (26). Now, we consider the reduced-order dynamics. The reduced-order model for the multi-time-scale analysis is given by:

$$\dot{z}_3 = g_3(h_1(h_2(z_3), z_4), h_2(z_3), z_3, 0).$$

(27)

In order to study the stability of the reduced-order model (27), note that $z_3 = \mathcal{R}(-\delta)\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ$. This implies that the reduced order model (27) is given by:

$$\dot{z}_3 = -\frac{3}{2}\mathcal{R}(-\delta^{ref})\mathcal{R}[\tau_s \otimes I_2^{-1}]^{-1}(\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ) \times$$

$$\left(D(\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ) + D(\hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ)\right)^{-1}.$$ 

Linearizing the above equation, we get $\Delta \dot{z}_3 = M'\Delta z_3$, where $M' := -\frac{3}{2}R(-\delta^{ref})R[\tau_s \otimes I_2^{-1}]^{-1} \times$ $\left(D(\hat{\gamma}_{ref}^1z_3 + \hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ) + D(\hat{v}_{ref}^oDQ)\right)^{-1}$. 

Note that, for any scalar $c \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ and any matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{2n \times 2n}$, the matrix $A$ is Hurwitz if and only if the matrix $cA$ is Hurwitz. Moreover, by [10, Theorem 1.3.22], Hurwitzness of the matrix $M'$ is equivalent to the Hurwitzness of matrix $M$ defined in (18). This means that $M'$ is Hurwitz and the origin is a locally exponentially stable equilibrium point of the reduced-order model (27) associated to the time-scale $\tau'$. Note that the boundary-layer dynamics associated with the time-scale $\tau'$ are given by (26) and are shown to be locally exponentially stable around the origin. Thus, using [11, Theorem 11.4], there exists $\tilde{\epsilon} > 0$ such that, for every $\epsilon \leq \tilde{\epsilon}$, the reduced-order dynamics (25) associated to the time-scale $\tau$ are locally exponentially stable around the origin. Note that the boundary-layer dynamics associated to the time-scale $\tau$ are given by (24) and shown to be locally exponentially stable around the origin. Therefore, using [11, Theorem 11.4] for the time-scale $\tau$, there exists $\tilde{\sigma} > 0$ such that, for every $\sigma \leq \tilde{\sigma}$ and $\epsilon \leq \tilde{\epsilon}$, the dynamical system (19) is locally exponentially stable around the origin. By defining $\epsilon^* = \min\{\tilde{\epsilon}, \tilde{\sigma}\}$, the stability of the equilibrium point of the dimensionless network dynamics follows from condition (ii) for every $\epsilon \leq \epsilon^*$. 

Remark 8. (1) The largest value of $\epsilon^*$ for which Theorem 7(ii) holds is hard to compute. A standard lower bound on $\epsilon^*$ can be obtained via [12, Lemma 2.2].

(2) In [17], small-signal stability of inverter networks has been studied using eigenvalue analysis for the full-order systems. For large-scale networks, eigenvalue analysis of the grid-tied inverter network dynamics (10) is computationally complicated and, in general, it requires linearizing the system (10) and checking stability of a $(13n + 2m)$-dimensional matrix. Theorem 7(ii) uses a time-scale analysis to eliminate the line dynamics, the dynamics of the current controller, PLL, and LC filter from small-signal stability analysis. The sufficient condition in Theorem 7(ii) significantly reduces computational complexity by reducing the problem to checking that a $2n$-dimensional matrix is Hurwitz.
(3) By part (i), there exists a family of equilibrium point \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^\alpha \) for the grid-tied inverter network dynamics (10). However, in part (ii), we focus on the equilibrium point \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^0 \). The reason is that this trajectory is locally exponentially stable when there is no power injection for the inverters;

(4) Theorem 7(ii) brings out the role of network topology, the power injections/demands, and inverter parameters in small-signal stability of inverter networks. For the matrix \( M \), the term \( \hat{Y}_{\text{red}} \) reveals the role of network topology. The terms \( \hat{V}_{\text{ref}}, \hat{V}_{\text{ref}}^\star \) and \( \delta_{\text{ref}} \) (obtained by solving the power-flow equations (12)–(13)) reveal the role of network topology and power injections/demands. Finally, \( \tau_s^\star \) reveals the role of inverters’ internal dynamics.

B. Corollaries

**Corollary 9** (Single inverter connected to the grid). Consider a single inverter with the reference power injection \( s_{\text{ref}} = (p_{\text{ref}}, q_{\text{ref}})^T \) connected to the grid with voltage \( v_{\text{ref}} = (0, v_s) \) through a line with resistance \( R \) and inductance \( L \). If

\[
\|s_{\text{ref}}\|_2 \leq \frac{3}{8} \frac{V_s}{R_\text{nom} L^2} \tag{28}
\]

(i) there exist two equilibrium points \( \hat{x}_{0}^\text{ref} \) and \( \hat{x}_{1}^\text{ref} \) satisfying

\[
\|\delta_{\text{ref}} - (0, 1)\|_{C, \infty} \leq \frac{1}{2};
\]

(ii) if we have \( T_\text{PLL} > T_\text{PLL} \), then there exists a \( \bar{\epsilon}^* > 0 \) such that, for all \( \epsilon \leq \bar{\epsilon}^* \), \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^0 \) is locally exponentially stable.

**Proof.** Regarding part (i), we define the dimensionless resistance \( R = V_{\text{ref}}^{-2} R \) and dimensionless inductance \( L = V_{\text{ref}}^{-2} L \). Then, \( \|s_{\text{ref}}\|_2 \leq \frac{3}{8} \frac{V_s}{R_\text{nom} L^2} \).

(iii) if we have \( T_\text{PLL} > T_\text{PLL} \), then there exists a \( \epsilon^* > 0 \) such that, for all \( \epsilon \leq \epsilon^* \), \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^0 \) is locally exponentially stable.

Therefore:

\[
\|\delta_{\text{ref}} - (0, 1)\|_{C, \infty} \leq \frac{1}{2};
\]

Using simple algebraic manipulations, we get \( \det(M) = (2\delta_{\text{ref}} - 1)(\tau_s^\star)^{-1} \) and \( \text{tr}(M) = -2\delta_{\text{ref}}(\tau_s^\star)^{-1} \). Since \( \|\delta_{\text{ref}} - (0, 1)\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \), we have \( 2\delta_{\text{ref}} \geq 1 \). This implies that \( \det(M) \geq 0 \).

Moreover, for the equilibrium points \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^0 \), we have \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^0 < 0 \). This implies that \( \text{tr}(M) < 0 \) and \( M \) is Hurwitz. Thus, by Theorem 7(ii), \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^0 \) is locally exponentially stable.

In the next corollary, we study the special case of resistive networks and provide a computationally efficient numerical method for checking sufficient condition (18).

**Corollary 10** (Resistive network of inverters). Consider the dynamics (10). Suppose the lines are purely resistive and the reference power injections and demands are purely active. The following statements hold:

(i) if \( \|\hat{u} - \hat{u}_{\text{ref}}^0 \|_{C, \infty} \leq \frac{3}{8} \), where \( \hat{u} = \hat{L}_{\text{red}}^{-1} \hat{L}_{\text{ref}} v_{\text{ref}} \), then there exists a family of equilibrium points \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^\alpha \) for (10) with the property that

\[
\|\delta_{\text{ref}} - \delta\|_{C, \infty} \leq \frac{1}{2} \|\delta\|_{C, \infty}.
\]

(ii) if additionally \( |T_\text{PLL}| > |T_\text{PLL}| \) and the Metzler matrix

\[
N := [\delta_{\text{ref}}(\tau_s^\star)^{-1} + \delta_{\text{ref}}(\hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1})(\tau_s^\star)^{-1}]
\]

is Hurwitz, then there exists \( \epsilon^* > 0 \) such that for every \( \epsilon \leq \epsilon^* \), equilibrium \( \hat{x}_{\text{ref}}^0 \) is locally exponentially stable.

**Proof.** Regarding part (i), since the network is resistive and power injections/demands are purely active, we know that

\[
\hat{Y}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} = \hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \hat{I}_2, \quad \hat{s}_{\text{ref}} = \hat{p}_{\text{ref}} \circ (\frac{1}{0}) \quad \hat{w} = \hat{u} \circ \hat{I}_2.
\]

Then, (28) is equivalent to (17) and the result follows from Theorem 7(i). By Theorem 7(ii), we have \( \hat{L}_{\text{ref}} ^{-1} = \hat{L}_{\text{ref}} ^{-1} \hat{I}_2 \circ \hat{I}_2 \circ \hat{I}_2 \). The result then follows from Corollary 9(ii) as well.

Using Lemma 14, matrix \( M \) is Hurwitz if and only if matrices

\[
\hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \hat{I}_2 - \hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \hat{I}_2 \circ \hat{I}_2
\]

are Hurwitz. Note that the active-power injections from the inverters to the grid are non-negative in steady state. This implies that \( \hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \hat{I}_2 \circ \hat{I}_2 \geq 0 \). Thus, the matrices (30) are similar to the following matrices:

\[
-\hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \hat{I}_2 - \hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \hat{I}_2 \circ \hat{I}_2
\]

Since the matrix \( \hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \circ \hat{I}_2 \) is positive definite and the matrix

\[
\hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \circ \hat{I}_2
\]

is Hurwitz. Moreover, note that the matrix \( \hat{L}_{\text{ref}} \) is a grounded Laplacian matrix and by [5, Exercise 10.11] its inverse \( \hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \) is non-negative. Also, the matrices \( \hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \circ \hat{I}_2 \) and \( \hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \circ \hat{I}_2 \) are all diagonal with non-negative diagonal elements. This implies that the matrix \( -\hat{L}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} \circ \hat{I}_2 \) has non-negative off-diagonal elements and therefore, it is Metzler. The proof of Corollary 10 then follows from Theorem 7.
Remark 11 (Computational complexity). One can check the Hurwitzness of the Metzler matrix (29) using the following feasibility problem:

\[ N \xi < 0, \quad \xi > 0. \]  

(31)

The problem (31) is a linear program and can be checked using distributed methods whose computational time scales linearly with the number of non-zero elements in \( N \) [21].

V. Numerical Simulations

In this section, motivated by the recent increase in the integration of renewable energy resources across power grids, we study the stability issues associated with the expansion of networks of grid-following inverters. Our goal is to use Theorem 7 to study how the expansion of inverter networks can affect their small-signal stability. We present numerical simulation results for radial networks (see Fig. 2) with identical inverters and reference-power setpoints. Since Theorem 7 requires singular perturbation parameters \( \epsilon_1, \epsilon_e \) to be small, we assume that \( \epsilon_e \) is small and fixed while \( \epsilon_1 \) is small but variable. We aim to answer the following questions:

- For which values of the inverter parameter \( \epsilon_1 \) does Theorem 7(ii) guarantee small-signal stability?
- How efficient is the condition (18) in Theorem 7(ii) to analyze small-signal stability?

The first question can be interpreted as an inverter design problem, while the second question can be interpreted as a network monitoring problem. Solutions to these problems are provided in Sections V-A and V-B, respectively. Our test case is a family of radial networks \( \{G(n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \), where \( G(n) \) is the weighted undirected connected graph with the node set (buses) \( \mathcal{N}_n = \{0, \ldots, n\} \) and the edge set (branches) \( \mathcal{E}_n = \{(i, i + 1) \mid i = 0, \ldots, n-1\} \) (see Fig. 2). For every radial network \( G(n) \), the node 0 is the slack bus connected to the grid with voltage \( v_g = i(120/2) \) V (peak) and frequency \( \omega_{\text{nom}} = 120 \text{ rad/s} \). Nodes \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \) are the inverters with \( s_{\text{nom}} = 1000 \text{ VA} \), and \( \tau_{\text{PLL}} = \epsilon_1^2, \tau_{\text{PLL}} = \epsilon_1^3/\pi \), \( T_{\text{PLL}} = \epsilon_1, \tau_a = \epsilon_1, \tau_c = (0.1)\epsilon_1^2 \), \( T_a = 10\epsilon_1, \tau_c = \sqrt{3} \epsilon_1^2, \) \( T_c = \epsilon_1^2, L_f = 10^{-3} \text{ H} \), and \( C_f = 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ F} \). For every \((j,k) \in \mathcal{E}_n \), the admittance of line \((i,j)\) is given by \( a_{jk} = a_{kj} = (RI/2 + \omega_{\text{nom}} L J)^{-1} \), where the line resistance is \( R = 0.02 \Omega \) and line inductance is \( L = 2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ H} \). We first define the notion of a safe penetration level.

Definition 12 (Safe Penetration Level). Given a family of networks \( \{G(n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \) and uniform reference power injection \( s_{\text{ref}} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \), the Safe Penetration Level (SPL) for \( \{G(n)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \) is the maximum \( n \in \mathbb{N} \) such that the dimensionless dynamics (10) with underlying graph \( G(n) \) and reference powers \( s_{\text{ref}} = 1_n \otimes s_{\text{ref}} \) has a locally stable equilibrium point.

Remark 13. (1) For our test case network, SPL of the network depends on the parameter \( \epsilon_1 \).
(2) One can use the matrix \( M \) defined in (18) to estimate the SPL of the network; from Theorem 7(ii), there exists a positive number \( \epsilon^* > 0 \) such that, for every \( \epsilon \leq \epsilon^* \), SPL of the network is larger than this estimate.

A. Designing Grid-tied Inverter Networks

We now examine the efficiency of our analytic results in Theorem 7 to design grid-following inverter networks focusing on the small-signal stability of the grid. In particular, we focus on estimating the SPL for the radial network shown in Fig. 2 and numerically computing the largest range of parameter \( \epsilon_1 \) for which Theorem 7(ii) holds. To carry out this task, we study the effect of parameter \( \epsilon_1 \) for different active power injections on the SPL of the system. The result is shown in Fig. 4, where the overlapping dashed lines are the estimates of SPL based on the sufficient condition in Theorem 7(ii). Thus, according to Fig. 4, the largest domain \( \epsilon_1 \) for which Theorem 7(ii) holds is (0, 0.0025], for the active power injections \( p_{\text{ref}} = 1000 \text{ W} \), \( p_{\text{ref}} = 1500 \text{ W} \), and \( p_{\text{ref}} = 2000 \text{ W} \), respectively. As \( \epsilon_1 \) becomes smaller, the dashed and solid lines get closer to each other and Theorem 7(ii) can be used to find the exact SPL.

B. Monitoring Grid-tied Inverter Networks

We now study the accuracy and computational efficiency of condition (18) in Theorem 7(ii) for monitoring the small-signal stability of the network. For our test case, we pick the parameter \( \epsilon_1 = 0.001 \). Based on the discussion in Section V-A, we are in the range of applicability of Theorem 7(ii). Recall that SPL is the largest number of inverters in the network for which the equilibrium point \( X_0^{\text{test}} \) of full-order system (10) is locally asymptotically stable. We let \( T_{\text{in}} \) denote the computational time of finding SPL, using the eigenvalue analysis for the linearized system. We let \( \text{SPL}_{\text{test}} \) denote the largest number of inverters in the grid for which the matrix \( M \) in (18) is Hurwitz. Similarly, we let \( T_{\text{test}} \) denote the computational time for checking the Hurwitzness of matrix \( M \) in (18). Finally, we let \( \text{SPL}_{\text{static}} \) denote the largest number of inverters in the grid for which condition (15) holds. We start with different uniform reference active-power injections \( s_{\text{ref}} = 1_n \otimes (\tilde{p}, 0)^T \) and compute the thresholds SPL, \( \text{SPL}_{\text{test}} \), and \( \text{SPL}_{\text{static}} \) together with the computational times for SPL and \( \text{SPL}_{\text{test}} \) for each active-power injections. The results are shown in Table I. From Table I, one can see that (i) the static condition (15) overestimates the value of SPL, (ii) condition (18) gives an accurate lower bound for safe penetration level and its
corresponding computation time (i.e., \( T_{\text{test}} \)) is almost one order of magnitude less than the computation time to perform eigenvalue analysis for the full-order system (i.e., \( T_{\text{lin}} \)).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( P )</th>
<th>( T_{\text{lin}} ) (s)</th>
<th>( T_{\text{test}} ) (s)</th>
<th>SPL</th>
<th>SPL_{\text{DC-Link}}</th>
<th>SPL_{\text{static}}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.5853</td>
<td>0.0774</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.5636</td>
<td>0.0793</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.5546</td>
<td>0.0767</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.6525</td>
<td>0.0767</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>0.5313</td>
<td>0.0881</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>0.5063</td>
<td>0.0766</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE I: Comparing the computation time and accuracy of conditions (18) and (19) for small-signal stability. The unit of the quantities \( T_{\text{test}} \) and \( T_{\text{lin}} \) are seconds, the quantity of \( \tilde{p} \) is dimensionless and the quantities SPL and SPL_{\text{DC-Link}} and SPL_{\text{static}} are integers.

VI. CONCLUSIONS & FUTURE WORK

We studied small-signal stability of grid-tied networks of grid-following inverters and loads. Using a time-scale analysis and a suitable choice of a family of parameters for the inverters, we presented an analytic sufficient condition for local exponential stability. We showed that, compared to the direct eigenvalue analysis of the full-order system, this sufficient condition has the advantages of reducing the computational complexity of checking small-signal stability as well as providing insights about the role of the network topology and inverter parameters on stability. Directions for future work include expanding the scope of the analytical approach to include other inverter control methods, DC-side dynamics, and load models. Expansive case studies focused on standard IEEE test cases with deliberately introduced heterogeneity in network and inverter parameters would also highlight the benefits of the proposed analytical approach to practitioners and operators engaged in system design and monitoring.

APPENDIX

Table (II) collects the variables and their symbols for grid-following inverter model and Table (III) collects the parameter values for this class of inverters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PLL low-pass filter state</td>
<td>( \phi_{\text{PLL}} )</td>
<td>Current controller auxiliary state</td>
<td>( \gamma_{\text{eq}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLL PI controller state</td>
<td>( \phi_{\text{PI}} )</td>
<td>Current controller output voltage</td>
<td>( \psi_{\text{d}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLL phase output</td>
<td>( \delta )</td>
<td>Output current</td>
<td>( \psi_{\text{q}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power controller low-pass filter state</td>
<td>( \psi_{\text{ave}} )</td>
<td>Power controller auxiliary state</td>
<td>( \phi_{\text{eq}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference power injection</td>
<td>( s_{\text{ref}} )</td>
<td>Current controller reference current</td>
<td>( \psi_{\text{d}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power controller auxiliary state</td>
<td>( \phi_{\text{eq}} )</td>
<td>PLL Frequency</td>
<td>( \omega_{\text{PLL}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current in the lines</td>
<td>( \delta_{\text{DQ}} )</td>
<td>LC-filter voltage</td>
<td>( \psi_{\text{dq}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grid voltage</td>
<td>( \delta_{\text{DQ}} )</td>
<td>Grid frequency</td>
<td>( \omega_{\text{nom}} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE II: Variables and their symbols for the inverter model.

**Lemma 14.** Let \( \eta_1, \ldots, \eta_m \) be the eigenvalues of a matrix \( C \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n} \). For \( A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n} \), \( \lambda \) is an eigenvalue of \( A \otimes I_m + B \otimes C \) if and only if it is an eigenvalue of \( A + \eta_k B \), for some \( k \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \).

**Lemma 15.** Let \( \Gamma, \Pi, \Xi, \Upsilon, \Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \) and \( \Theta \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m} \) be diagonal matrices with positive diagonal entries such that \( \Gamma \succ \Pi \). Suppose that \( K \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \) is an arbitrary matrix with \( \ker(K) = \{0_n\} \). \( P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \) is a skew-symmetric matrix, and \( Z \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m} \) is such that \( Z + Z^T \) is negative definite. Then the following matrices are Hurwitz:

\[
A = \begin{pmatrix} -\Gamma & \Xi \\ -\Xi & \Theta \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0_{n \times n} & -\Gamma \\ \Xi & \Xi \end{pmatrix}.
\]

**Proof.** The characteristic polynomial of matrix \( A \) is: \( \lambda^3 I_n + \lambda^2 \Gamma + \lambda \Xi \Xi + \Xi \Xi = 0_n \). Since all matrices \( \Gamma, \Pi, \Xi, \Upsilon, \Sigma, \) and \( \Theta \) are diagonal, \( \lambda_i \) is an eigenvalue of \( A \) if and only if \( \lambda_i \Gamma + \lambda_i \Xi + \Xi = 0 \), \( \Xi \Xi = 0 \). The diagonal elements of the matrices \( \Gamma, \Pi, \Xi, \Upsilon, \Sigma, \) and \( \Theta \) are positive. Therefore, using the Routh–Hurwitz criteria, \( \lambda_i \in \mathbb{C} \) if and only if \( (\Gamma_i)(\Xi_i) > (\Upsilon_i)(\Xi_i)(\Sigma_i) = 0 \). Thus, \( A \) is Hurwitz if and only if \( \Gamma \succ \Pi \). To show that the matrix \( B \) is Hurwitz, we use LaSalle’s invariance principle [11]. Consider the dynamical system \( x = Bx \), where \( x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) \in \mathbb{R}^{(6n+4)} \). We define the Lyapunov function \( V : \mathbb{R}^{(6n+4)} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) by: \( V(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{1}{2} [x_1^T \Gamma x_1 + x_2^T \Xi x_2 + x_3^T \Xi x_3 + x_4^T \Theta x_4] \). Then, it is easy to check that \( V(x_1, x_2, x_3) < 0 \). By LaSalle’s invariance principle, the trajectories of the system \( x = Bx \) converge to the largest invariant set inside \( S = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{(6n+4)} \mid V(x) = 0 \} \). It is easy to see that \( S = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{(6n+4)} \mid x_4 = x_2 = 0 \} \). Let us denote the largest invariant set inside \( S \) by \( L \). Our goal is to show that \( L = \{0_{(6n+4)}\} \). Suppose that \( \gamma : t \rightarrow (\gamma_1(t), \gamma_2(t), \gamma_3(t), \gamma_4(t)) \) is a trajectory which belongs identically to \( S \). Then we have \( \gamma_4(t) = \gamma_2(t) = 0 \). First note that \( \gamma_4(t) = 0 \) implies that \( \Theta \gamma_3(t) + \Theta \gamma_4(t) = 0 \). \( \Theta \gamma_3(t) = 0 \). Since \( \ker(K) = \{0_m\} \), we deduce that \( \gamma_3(t) = 0 \). Moreover, we see that \( \gamma_2(t) = 0 \Rightarrow \Xi \gamma_1(t) = 0 \). This implies that \( \gamma_1(t) = \gamma_2(t) = \gamma_3(t) = \gamma_4(t) = 0 \). Thus, the only invariant set inside \( S \) is \( \{0_{(6n+4)}\} \) and thus \( B \) is Hurwitz.

**Lemma 16.** Consider (12), (13) with \( \hat{w} = -\hat{w}_{\text{ref}} \). Suppose \( \|D'(\hat{w})\overline{D}_{\text{ref}}^{-1} (D'(\hat{w}))^{-1} D'(\hat{w}_*)\|_{C, \infty} \leq \frac{3}{8} \). Then, the following statements hold:

(i) the power flow equations (12) and (13) has a unique solution \( \overline{\hat{v}}_{\text{DQ}} \) with \( \overline{\hat{v}}_{\text{DQ}} \in \Omega \) where \( \Omega = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^{2n} \mid \|y - \hat{w}\|_{C, \infty} \leq \frac{1}{2} \|\hat{w}\|_{C, \infty} \} \);

TABLE III: Dimensionless parameters of the inverter model.
for every \( \mathbf{v}^0 \in \Omega \), the iteration procedure

\[
\mathbf{v}^{k+1} = \hat{\mathbf{w}} + \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{v}_{\text{red}}^{-1} D (\mathbf{v}^{k+1} - \mathbf{s}^k),
\]

converges to \( \mathbf{v}_{\text{OQQ}} \), where \( (\mathbf{v}_{\text{OQQ}}, \mathbf{v}_\text{red} (\mathbf{v}_{\text{OQQ}} - \mathbf{w})) \) is the unique solution to (12) and (13).

Proof. By considering \( \mathbb{R}^{2n} \cong \mathbb{C}^n \), part (i) and (ii) are straightforward generalizations of [30, Theorem 1]. One should note the fact that the nodal variables in [30, Theorem 1] are average power injections/demands and therefore the power flow equations have the form \( \mathbf{s} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{f} \). However, in this paper, the nodal variables are instantaneous power injections/demands and the power flow equations read \( \mathbf{s} = \frac{3}{2} \mathbf{D} (\mathbf{v}_{\text{red}} - \mathbf{w}) \).

REFERENCES


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