

# Singular Perturbation-Based Large-Signal Order Reduction of Microgrids for Stability and Accuracy Synthesis With Control

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**Abstract**—The increasing penetration of distributed energy resources (DERs) highlights the growing importance of microgrids (MGs) in enhancing power system reliability. Employing electromagnetic transient (EMT) analysis in MGs becomes crucial for controlling the rapid transients. However, this requires an accurate but high-order model of power electronics and their underlying control loops, complexifying the stability analysis from the viewpoint of a higher control level. To overcome these challenges, this paper proposes a large-signal order reduction (LSOR) method for MGs with considerations of external control inputs and the detailed dynamics of underlying control levels based on singular perturbation theory (SPT). Specially, we innovatively proposed and strictly proved a general stability and accuracy assessment theorem that allows us to analyze the dynamic stability of a full-order nonlinear system by only leveraging our derived reduced-order model (ROM) and boundary layer model (BLM). Furthermore, this theorem furnishes a set of conditions that determine the accuracy of the developed ROM. Finally, by embedding such a theorem into the SPT, we propose a novel LSOR approach with guaranteed accuracy and stability analysis equivalence. Case studies are conducted on MG systems to show the effectiveness of the proposed approach.

**Index Terms**—Microgrids, inverters, nonlinear, order reduction, singular perturbation, stability, electromagnetic transient.

## NOMENCLATURE

### Abbreviations

28	BLM	Boundary layer model
29	DER	Distributed energy resource
30	EMT	Electromagnetic transient
31	GAS	Global asymptotic stability
32	ISS	Input-to-state stability

LPF	Low pass filter	33
LSOR	Large-signal order reduction	34
MG	Microgrid	35
PI	Proportion-Integral	36
PLL	Phase locked loop	37
PCC	Point of common coupling	38
QSS	Quasi-steady-state	39
RMSE	Root-mean-square error	40
ROM	Reduced-order model	41
SPT	Singular perturbation theory	42

### Variables

$P, Q$	Active and reactive powers	44
$V_{od}, V_{oq}$	dq-axis DER output voltages	45
$I_{od}, I_{oq}$	dq-axis DER output currents	46
$V_{odf}$	filtered d-axis DER output voltage	47
$\Phi_{PLL}$	Integral of filtered d-axis DER output voltage	48
$\delta$	Phase angle	49
$\omega_{PLL}$	Angular frequency measured by PLL	50
$\Phi_P, \Phi_Q$	Integrals of errors between active/reactive power and power commands	51
$P^*, Q^*$	Active and reactive power commands	52
$I_{ld}^*, I_{lq}^*$	dq-axis inductor current commands	53
$\omega^*$	Angular frequency command generated by droop controller	54
$\omega_n$	Angular frequency setpoint	55
$V_{oq}^*$	DER output voltage command generated by droop controller	56
$V_{oq,n}$	DER output voltage setpoint	57
$\Phi_d$	Integral of error between measured angular frequency and its command	58
$\Phi_q$	Integral of error between DER output voltage and its command	59
$\Gamma_d, \Gamma_q$	Integrals of errors between dq-axis inductor currents and their commands	60
$V_{ld}^*, V_{lq}^*$	dq-axis inductor voltage commands	61
$I_{ld}, I_{lq}$	dq-axis inductor currents	62
$V_{bd}, V_{bq}$	dq-axis bus voltages	63
$\mathbf{x}$	Slow state variables of the MG system	64
$\mathbf{z}$	Fast state variables of the MG system	65
$\mathbf{u}$	External control input of the MG system	66
$\mathbf{y}$	System output of the MG system	67
$\hat{\mathbf{x}}$	Solution of the ROM	68

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75	$\hat{\mathbf{y}}$	Solution of the BLM
76	$\mathbf{E}_x$	Error vector between the slow states and the solution of the ROM
77		
78	$\mathbf{E}_y$	Error vector between the fast states and the solution of the BLM
79		
80	<i>Parameters</i>	
81	$OM_{\text{flag}}$	Switch between grid-tied and islanded mode: 1-grid-tied mode; 2-islanded mode
82		
83	$\omega_c$	Corner frequency of LPF for instantaneous powers
84		
85	$\omega_{c,PLL}$	Corner frequency of LPF for DER output voltage
86		
87	$K_{P,PLL}$	Proportional gain of PI controller in PLL
88	$K_{I,PLL}$	Integral gain of PI controller in PLL
89	$K_{I,P}$	Integral gain of PI controller in power controller
90		
91	$K_{P,P}$	Proportional gain of PI controller in power controller
92		
93	$D_P$	$P$ - $\omega$ droop gain
94	$D_Q$	$Q$ - $V$ droop gain
95	$K_{I,V}$	Integral gain of PI controller in voltage controller
96		
97	$K_{P,V}$	Proportional gain of PI controller in voltage controller
98		
99	$\omega_n$	Nominal angular frequency
100	$L_f$	Inductance of LC filter
101	$K_{I,C}$	Integral gain of PI controller in current controller
102		
103	$K_{P,C}$	Proportional gain of PI controller in current controller
104		
105	$R_f, R_c$	Parasitic resistances of the inductors
106	$C_f$	Capacitance of LC filter
107	$R_d$	Dumping resistor of LC filter
108	$\varepsilon$	Perturbation coefficient
109	$\varepsilon^*$	Threshold of $\varepsilon$ below which the error of ROM converges asymptotically
110		
111	$\varepsilon^{**}$	Threshold of $\varepsilon$ below which the error of ROM converges within a finite time $T$
112		
113	$n, m, p$	Dimensions of slow/fast states and input
114	$\tau$	Fast time scale variable defined as $t/\varepsilon$
115	$T$	Finite error convergence time if $\varepsilon < \varepsilon^{**}$

## I. INTRODUCTION

**M**ICROGRIDS (MGs) are localized small-scale power systems composed of interconnected loads and distributed energy resources (DERs) in low-voltage and medium-voltage distribution networks. It can be operated in grid-connected and islanded modes [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6]. The high penetration of low-inertia DERs makes the dynamic response of MGs different from conventional networks dominated by synchronous machines. This low-inertia characteristic highlights the importance of dynamic modeling, stability analysis, and control studies of MGs in the electromagnetic transient (EMT) time scale [7], [8], [9]. To precisely capture the comprehensive transient dynamics of MGs in a hierarchical control structure, detailed dynamic models of the lower control

levels such as primary and zero-control levels, and the impact of external input from higher control levels such as secondary control, need to be taken into account. However, the high-order nature of these detailed dynamics of the underlying control structures makes it intractable to analyze the stability of MGs with such a complex dynamic model [10], [11], [12], [13], [14]. In addition, another critical challenge brought by considering the underlying controllers is the two-time-scale behavior of MGs due to the different evolutionary velocities of different state variables, which leads to a stiff differential equation problem [15]. In the dynamic simulation of MGs, numerically solving this stiff problem requires extremely small time steps, which results in an unmanageable computational complexity [16].

To solve the above problems, model order reduction techniques have been studied and applied to power system analyses. In [17], [18], an aggregate equivalent model was developed for the order reduction of MGs by assuming similar inverter dynamics. Kron reduction was adopted to simplify the network of MGs in [19]. In [20], the authors used a balanced truncation method for DC MGs described by a linear model with inhomogeneous initial conditions. Although these methods can effectively simplify the MG model, the time-scale separation problem aroused by the consideration of underlying control levels for EMT analysis is still not solved.

Given the inherent two-time-scale property of MGs, singular perturbation theory (SPT) is a suitable technology for this purpose. The SPT is a mathematical framework that focuses on analyzing problems with a parameter, where the solutions of the problem at a specific limiting value of the parameter exhibit distinct characteristics compared to the solutions of the general problem, resulting in a singular limit. It facilitates the separation of the system into a reduced-order model (ROM) that captures the slow states, and a boundary layer model (BLM) that represents the errors between fast and quasi-steady states. It is worth noting that the terms “slow” and “fast” refer to the transient evolutionary velocity of states in this context. Unlike conventional model reduction methods that simply neglect certain state variables, SPT preserves the characteristics of fast dynamics by integrating them into the “slow” states, as advocated by [21]. Additionally, SPT has the advantage of converting the original stiff problem into a non-stiff problem, resulting in improved computational efficiency. Due to the above advantages, the SPT has been widely used in power system studies. The transient stability of type-3 wind turbines is investigated in [22] by applying the SPT and Lyapunov methods and taking into account the dynamics of phase-locked loop (PLL) and current control. In [23], a model-order reduction and dynamic aggregation strategy are proposed for grid-forming inverter-based power networks. More reduced-order models for grid-forming virtual-oscillator-controlled inverters with nested current and voltage-control loops, and current-limiting action for overcurrent protection by using the SPT are outlined in [24]. In [25], a linear active disturbance rejection control scheme for two-mass systems is developed based on the SPT. In the context of the MG order reduction problem, a spatiotemporal model reduction method of MGs using SPT and Kron reduction was proposed

in [26], nonetheless, the method is not generic enough. In [27], [28], a linear SPT was applied to small-signal models of MGs. A small-signal ROM considering coupling dynamics is developed for autonomous wind-solar multi-MGs based on the SPT in [29]. However, since the above studies use the small-signal model, the results only hold in the neighborhood of a stable equilibrium point.

The above studies focus on the development of the reduced-order MG modeling, whereas the stability assessment based on the derived ROM is not included. To fill this gap, the system order is reduced to simplify the stability analysis by neglecting the underlying voltage controller in [30] at the expense of losing fast dynamics. In [31], the nonlinear Lyapunov stability of DC/AC inverters with different ROMs was studied. A method for simplifying the stability assessment was developed and applied to an islanded MG with droop control by using inverter angles in [32]. Nevertheless, it was demonstrated that such a simplification process could affect the accuracy of ROMs in [33], [34], [35]. Moreover, to our best knowledge, the existing studies *do not consider the impact of external inputs* such as power commands and voltage frequency references on MG stability analysis. A typical way is to consider the unforced system by neglecting the inputs to study the internal stability. However, even though the unforced system is stable, a continuous input signal can render the system unstable. In [36], a stability assessment criterion that used the input-to-state stability (ISS) of ROM and global asymptotic stability (GAS) of BLM was proposed to analyze the total stability of the original system. This method is generic for arbitrary singular perturbed systems under certain conditions, nevertheless, the convergence of the error between reduced and original models is not theoretically analyzed, which hinders the accuracy evaluation of ROMs. This work is further extended in [37], where the stability and accuracy issues are simultaneously proved, however, the effect of external inputs is still not analyzed.

To overcome the above challenges, this paper proposes a novel large-signal order reduction (LSOR) strategy for inverter-based MGs with detailed dynamics of the underlying control levels in the EMT time scale. Firstly, a general theorem for analyzing the dynamic stability of the full-order model by only alternatively assessing the stability of its derived ROM and BLM is proposed. A key point is that we consider ISS to quantify the system's response to external inputs and unify internal and external stability. In particular, by assuming the ROM to be ISS, the unforced ROM to be exponentially stable, and BLM to be uniformly GAS, one can prove that the original system is totally ISS. Then, we develop the conditions that guarantee the accuracy of ROMs for both slow and fast dynamics. Finally, by embedding the proposed stability and accuracy assessment theorem into the large-signal SPT, an improved LSOR algorithm is proposed for MGs. Strict mathematical proof is provided to illustrate that the proposed order reduction technique is generic for arbitrary dynamic systems. The main contributions can be summarized as follows:

- We propose a general theorem that allows us to assess the large-signal stability of MGs with detailed dynamics

of underlying controllers in the EMT time scale by only analyzing their ROMs and BLMs.

- A set of accuracy criteria is developed, under which the error between the reduced and original models is bounded and converges as the perturbation coefficients decrease.
- The impact of external control input from the higher control level on the above stability and accuracy analyses is studied with strict mathematical proof.
- The stability and accuracy assessment synthesis is embedded into the LSOR method to improve the model accuracy via a feedback mechanism, which automatically tunes the bounds of perturbation coefficients as an index for identifying the slow and fast dynamics.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the large-signal mathematical model of the studied MG system. Section III introduces the general singular perturbation theory and proposes our stability and accuracy assessment theory. Section IV gives the simulation validation of the proposed method. Section V concludes the paper.

## II. LARGE-SIGNAL MODELING OF INVERTER-BASED MGs

This section introduces a nonlinear model of the studied MG system with detailed primary and zero-control levels. Depending on the research objectives, control strategies, and operation modes, MGs may have different models. According to [27], the transient response velocity of line dynamics is much faster than the slow ones in DERs due to the small line impedance. Moreover, the state equations are fully decoupled between DERs and lines. As a result, the line dynamics can be neglected. Therefore, this section focuses on the modeling of DERs, which are the main dynamic components in an inverter-based MG.

A general control diagram of DERs is shown in Fig. 1. The model can switch between two subsystems according to the MG operation modes. In grid-tied mode,  $OM_{\text{flag}}$  switches to 1, then the voltage source inverter is controlled by the power controller and current controller to follow the power command ( $P^*, Q^*$ ). The MG bus voltage and system frequency are maintained by the main grid. In islanded mode,  $OM_{\text{flag}}$  is set to 0, and the MG voltage and frequency are regulated by the DERs using droop controllers. According to Fig. 1, the mathematical model can be derived for each component where  $i = 1, \dots, N$  denotes the index of  $N$  DERs in the MG.

### A. Average Power Calculation

The generated active and reactive power can be calculated using the transformed output voltage  $v_{\text{odq}}$  and current  $i_{\text{odq}}$ . Using a low-pass filter (LPF) with the corner frequency  $\omega_c$ , we can obtain the filtered instantaneous powers as follows,

$$\dot{P}_i = -P_i\omega_{ci} + 1.5\omega_{ci}(V_{\text{odi}}I_{\text{odi}} + V_{\text{oqi}}I_{\text{oqi}}), \quad (1a)$$

$$\dot{Q}_i = -Q_i\omega_{ci} + 1.5\omega_{ci}(V_{\text{oqi}}I_{\text{odi}} - V_{\text{odi}}I_{\text{oqi}}). \quad (1b)$$

### B. Phase Lock Loop

The model of PLL is the same as that established in [27] as follows,

$$\dot{V}_{\text{odfi}} = \omega_{\text{cPLL}i}V_{\text{odi}} - \omega_{\text{cPLL}i}V_{\text{odfi}}, \quad (2a)$$

$$\dot{\Phi}_{\text{PLL}i} = -V_{\text{odfi}}. \quad (2b)$$

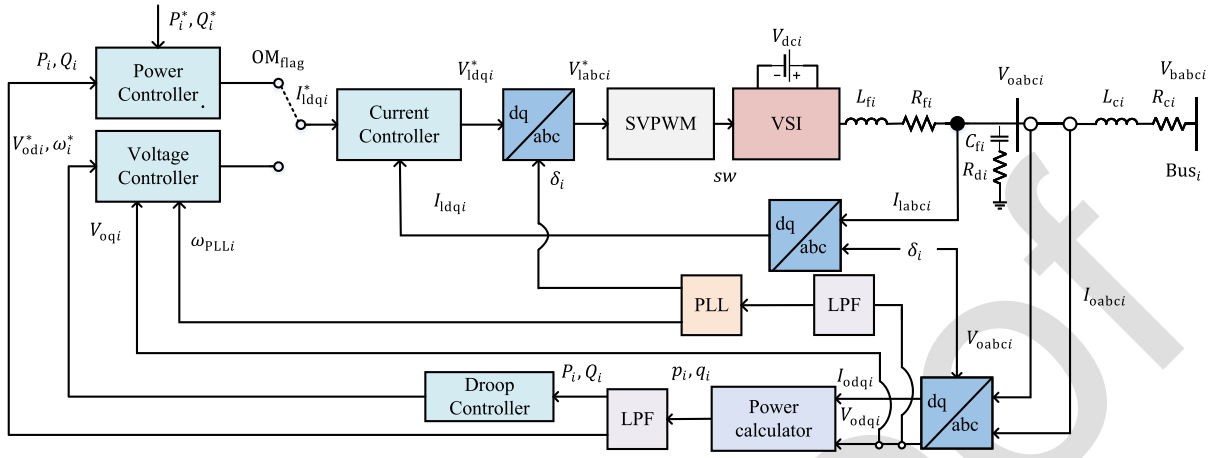


Fig. 1. The block diagram of voltage-sourced inverter-based DER with underlying control loops.

301 In grid-tied mode, the inverter output phase is synchronized  
302 to the main grid using PLL, therefore the derivative of phase  
303 angle  $\delta_i$  is set to  $\omega_{PLL i}$ :

$$304 \quad \dot{\delta}_i = \omega_{PLL i} = 377 - K_{P,PLL i} V_{odfi} + K_{I,PLL i} \Phi_{PLL i}. \quad (3)$$

305 In islanded mode, the phase angle of the first inverter can  
306 be arbitrarily set as the reference for the other inverters:

$$307 \quad \dot{\delta}_i = \omega_{PLL 1} - \omega_{PLL i}. \quad (4)$$

### 308 C. Power Controllers

309 In grid-tied mode, the output power of DER is regulated by  
310 the power controller using the PI control method. The input  
311 references are the commanded real and reactive powers:

$$312 \quad \dot{\Phi}_{P_i} = P_i - P_i^*, \quad (5a)$$

$$313 \quad I_{lqi}^* = K_{I,P_i} \Phi_{P_i} + K_{P,P_i} \dot{\Phi}_{P_i}, \quad (5b)$$

$$314 \quad \dot{\Phi}_{Q_i} = Q_i - Q_i^*, \quad (5c)$$

$$315 \quad I_{ldi}^* = K_{I,Q_i} \Phi_{Q_i} + K_{P,Q_i} \dot{\Phi}_{Q_i}. \quad (5d)$$

### 316 D. Voltage Controllers and Droop Controllers

317 In islanded mode, a DER has no reference inputs from the  
318 main grid. Therefore, it must generate its only voltage and  
319 frequency references using droop controllers as follows,

$$320 \quad \omega_i^* = \omega_{ni} - D_{P_i} P_i, \quad (6a)$$

$$321 \quad V_{oqi}^* = V_{oq,ni} - D_{Q_i} Q_i. \quad (6b)$$

322 These references will be used as the set points for voltage  
323 controllers. Two PI controllers are adopted for the voltage  
324 controllers as follows,

$$325 \quad \dot{\Phi}_{di} = \omega_{PLL i} - \omega_i^*, \quad (7a)$$

$$326 \quad I_{ldi}^* = K_{I,V_i} \Phi_{di} + K_{P,V_i} \dot{\Phi}_{di}, \quad (7b)$$

$$327 \quad \dot{\Phi}_{qi} = V_{oqi}^* - V_{oqi}, \quad (7c)$$

$$328 \quad I_{lqi}^* = K_{I,V_i} \Phi_{qi} + K_{P,V_i} \dot{\Phi}_{qi}. \quad (7d)$$

### E. Current Controllers

329 The PI controllers are adopted for current controllers. They  
330 generate the commanded voltage reference  $V_{ldqi}^*$  according to  
331 the error between the inductor currents reference  $I_{ldqi}^*$  and its  
332 feedback measurements  $I_{ldqi}$ :  
333

$$334 \quad \dot{\Gamma}_{di} = I_{ldi}^* - I_{ldi}, \quad (8a)$$

$$335 \quad V_{ldi}^* = -\omega_{ni} L_{fi} I_{lqi} + K_{I,C_i} \Gamma_{di} + K_{P,C_i} \dot{\Gamma}_{di}, \quad (8b)$$

$$336 \quad \dot{\Gamma}_{qi} = I_{lqi}^* - I_{lqi}, \quad (8c)$$

$$337 \quad V_{lqi}^* = -\omega_{ni} L_{fi} I_{ldi} + K_{I,C_i} \Gamma_{qi} + K_{P,C_i} \dot{\Gamma}_{qi}. \quad (8d)$$

### F. LC Filters and Coupling Inductors

338 The dynamical models of LC filters and coupling inductors  
339 are as follows,  
340

$$341 \quad \dot{I}_{ldi} = (-R_{fi} I_{ldi} + V_{ldi} - V_{odi}) / L_{fi} + \omega_{ni} I_{lqi}, \quad (9a)$$

$$342 \quad \dot{I}_{lqi} = (-R_{fi} I_{lqi} + V_{lqi} - V_{oqi}) / L_{fi} - \omega_{ni} I_{ldi}, \quad (9b)$$

$$343 \quad \dot{I}_{odi} = (-R_{ci} I_{odi} + V_{odi} - V_{bdi}) / L_{ci} + \omega_{ni} I_{oqi}, \quad (9c)$$

$$344 \quad \dot{I}_{oqi} = (-R_{ci} I_{oqi} + V_{oqi} - V_{bqi}) / L_{ci} - \omega_{ni} I_{odi}, \quad (9d)$$

$$345 \quad \dot{V}_{odi} = (I_{ldi} - I_{odi}) / C_{fi} + \omega_{ni} V_{oqi} + R_{di} (\dot{I}_{ldi} - \dot{I}_{odi}), \quad (9e)$$

$$346 \quad \dot{V}_{oqi} = (I_{lqi} - I_{oqi}) / C_{fi} - \omega_{ni} V_{odi} + R_{di} (\dot{I}_{lqi} - \dot{I}_{oqi}). \quad (9f)$$

347 In conclusion, when the MG system is operating in grid-  
348 tied mode, the mathematical model can be represented by  
349 equations (1)-(3), (5) and (8)-(9). In islanded mode, the MG  
350 model can be represented by equations (1)-(2), (4) and (6)-(9).

## 351 III. IMPROVED LSOR BY EMBEDDING STABILITY AND 352 ACCURACY ASSESSMENT THEOREM

353 In this section, we propose an improved LSOR method  
354 together with stability and accuracy assessment synthesis.  
355 Firstly, we briefly present the SPT-based LSOR approach.  
356 Then a novel large-signal stability and accuracy assess-  
357 ment theorem with consideration of external control input is  
358 proposed. Finally, we improve the LSOR algorithm by embed-  
359 ding the stability and accuracy assessment theorem, so that  
360 it can guarantee the accuracy of derived ROM and efficiently  
361 evaluate the stability of original models. The proposed LSOR

strategy is essentially generic and is suitable for the above MG model introduced in Section II.

#### A. LSOR Approach Using the SPT for MGs

Due to the two-time-scale property, the dynamics of MGs can be classified as slow and fast dynamics according to the transient velocities. Based on this phenomenon, here we first rewrite the mathematical model introduced in Section II as the general singular perturbed form (10). Then, the detailed algorithm, theoretical supports, and case studies illustrating the identification of slow and fast will be proposed in the later sections.

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{z}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), \varepsilon), \quad (10a)$$

$$\varepsilon \dot{\mathbf{z}}(t) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{z}(t), \mathbf{u}(t), \varepsilon), \quad (10b)$$

where all the state variables in (1)-(9) are collected in the vector  $[\mathbf{x}^\top \ \mathbf{z}^\top]^\top = [P_i Q_i V_{odfi} \ \Phi_{PLLi} \ \delta_i \ \Phi_{Pi} \ \Phi_{Qi} \ \Gamma_{di} \ \Gamma_{qi} \ I_{ldi} \ I_{lqi} \ V_{odi} \ V_{oqi} \ I_{odi} \ I_{oqi}]^\top (i = 1, \dots, N)$  in grid-tied mode or  $[\mathbf{x}^\top \ \mathbf{z}^\top]^\top = [P_i \ Q_i \ \Phi_{PLLi} \ V_{odfi} \ \delta_i \ \Phi_{di} \ \Phi_{qi} \ \Gamma_{di} \ \Gamma_{qi} \ I_{ldi} \ I_{lqi} \ V_{odi} \ V_{oqi} \ I_{odi} \ I_{oqi}]^\top (i = 1, \dots, N)$  in islanded mode, respectively;  $\dot{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\dot{\mathbf{z}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  denote the derivatives of slow and fast states, respectively; the external control input is denoted as  $\mathbf{u} = [P_i^* \ Q_i^*]^\top$  in grid-tied mode or  $\mathbf{u} = [\omega_{ni} \ V_{oqi,ni}]^\top$  in islanded mode, respectively;  $\varepsilon$  denotes the small parameters in MGs such as capacitances and inductances named as perturbation coefficient and its identification method will be proposed in the later sections;  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{g}$  are locally Lipschitz functions on their arguments. For simplicity, we neglect the notation of time-dependency ( $t$ ) in the rest of this paper.

The two-time-scale characteristic of MGs motivates the adoption of SPT. The main idea of SPT is to freeze the fast dynamics and degenerate them into static equations. Thus, the ROM can be obtained by substituting the solutions of the static equations into the slow dynamic equations. Since  $\varepsilon$  is small, the fast transient velocity  $\dot{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{g}/\varepsilon$  can be much larger than the slow dynamics  $\dot{\mathbf{x}}$ . To solve this two-time-scale problem, we can set  $\varepsilon = 0$ , then equation (10b) degenerates to the following algebraic equation,

$$0 = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{u}, 0). \quad (11)$$

If equation (11) has at least one isolated real root and satisfies the implicit function theory, then for each argument, we have the following closed-form solution,

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}). \quad (12)$$

Substitute equation (12) into equation (10a) and let  $\varepsilon = 0$ , we have a quasi-steady-state (QSS) model,

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}), \mathbf{u}, 0). \quad (13)$$

Note that the order of the QSS system (13) drops from  $n+m$  to  $n$ . The inherent two-time-scale property can be described by introducing the BLM. Define a fast time scale variable  $\tau = t/\varepsilon$ , and a new coordinate  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{z} - \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$ . In this new coordinate, equation (10b) is rewritten as

$$\frac{d\mathbf{y}}{d\tau} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}), \mathbf{u}, \varepsilon) - \varepsilon \left[ \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}), \mathbf{u}, \varepsilon) + \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \dot{\mathbf{u}} \right]. \quad (14)$$

Let  $\varepsilon = 0$ , we obtain the BLM as follows,

$$\frac{d\mathbf{y}}{d\tau} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}), \mathbf{u}, 0). \quad (15)$$

#### B. Stability and Accuracy Assessment Theorem

In this subsection, we propose a criterion to assess the stability of the original system and the accuracy of ROM and BLM. We first introduce a few technical definitions and assumptions below.

*Definition 1:* Class  $\mathcal{K}$  function  $\alpha : [0, t) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is a continuous strictly increasing function with  $\alpha(0) = 0$ . Further, if  $t = \infty$  and  $\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} \alpha(r) = \infty$ , then  $\alpha$  is said to belong to class  $\mathcal{K}_\infty$  function.

*Definition 2:* Class  $\mathcal{KL}$  function  $\beta : [0, t) \times [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is a continuous function satisfying: for each fixed  $s$ , the function  $\beta(r, s)$  belongs to class  $\mathcal{K}$ ; for each fixed  $r$ , the function  $\beta(r, s)$  is decreasing with respect to  $s$  and  $\beta(r, s) \rightarrow 0$  for  $s \rightarrow \infty$ .

Considering the impact of external inputs on the stability of MGs, we define the ISS as follows.

*Definition 3 (ISS):* Consider such a nonlinear system

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \tilde{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{x}, v_1, v_2) \quad (16)$$

where  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the state vector,  $v_1 \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $v_2 \in \mathbb{R}^p$  are input vectors, and  $\tilde{\mathbf{f}}$  is locally Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^p$ . The system (16) is ISS with Lyapunov gains  $\alpha_{v_1}$  and  $\alpha_{v_2}$  of class  $\mathcal{K}$ , if there exists a class  $\mathcal{KL}$  function  $\beta$  such that for  $\mathbf{x}(0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and bounded inputs  $v_1, v_2$ , the solution of (16) exists and satisfies

$$\|\mathbf{x}(t)\| \leq \beta(\|\mathbf{x}(0)\|, t) + \alpha_{v_1}(\|v_1\|) + \alpha_{v_2}(\|v_2\|). \quad (17)$$

The above definition indicates that an MG system is ISS when all the trajectories are bounded by some functions of the input magnitudes. Then we give the following three assumptions which are the sufficient conditions for the theorem.

*Assumption 1 (Growth Conditions):* The functions  $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}$ , and their first partial derivatives are continuous and bounded with respect to  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{u}, \varepsilon)$ ;  $\mathbf{h}$  and its first partial derivatives  $\partial \mathbf{h} / \partial \mathbf{x}, \partial \mathbf{h} / \partial \mathbf{u}$  is locally Lipschitz; and the Jacobian  $\partial \mathbf{g} / \partial \mathbf{z}$  has bounded first partial derivatives with respect to its arguments.

*Assumption 2 (Stability of ROM):* The ROM (13) is ISS with Lyapunov gain  $\hat{\alpha}_x$ , and its unforced system has an exponentially stable equilibrium at the origin.

*Assumption 3 (Stability of BLM):* The origin of the BLM (15) is a GAS equilibrium, uniformly in  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ .

*Remark 1:* The conditions in Assumption 1 are commonly satisfied for most MGs [34]. Inspired by [36], we propose the stability and accuracy assessment of MGs as the following theorem. Note that the conditions, results and proof of our theorem and [36] are different. In [36], only the stability of the original system is proved, nonetheless, the accuracy of the ROM and BLM is not analyzed, which is of vital importance to make sure that the derived reduced-order model

is correct. However, the addition of accuracy analysis arouses new challenges in the proof which cannot be solved by directly using [36]. Therefore, we add a constraint condition on the transient speed in Assumption 2 and propose a new proving method for our theorem.

*Theorem 1:* If the MGs system (10), its ROM (13) and the BLM (15) satisfy the Assumptions 1-3, then for each pair of  $(\mu, \xi)$ , there exists a positive constant  $\varepsilon^*$ , such that for all  $t \in [0, \infty)$ ,  $\max\{\|\mathbf{x}(0)\|, \|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \|\mathbf{u}\|, \|\dot{\mathbf{u}}\|\} \leq \mu$ , and  $\varepsilon \in (0, \varepsilon^*]$  the errors between the solutions of the original MGs system (10) and its ROM (13) and BLM (15) satisfy

$$\|\mathbf{x}(t, \varepsilon) - \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)\| = O(\varepsilon), \quad (18)$$

$$\|\mathbf{z}(t, \varepsilon) - \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t), \mathbf{u}(t)) - \hat{\mathbf{y}}(t)\| = O(\varepsilon), \quad (19)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}(t)$  are the solutions of ROM (13) and BLM (15), respectively.  $\|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\| = O(\varepsilon)$  means that  $\|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\| \leq k\|\varepsilon\|$  for some positive constant  $k$ . Furthermore, for any given  $T > 0$ , there exists a positive constant  $\varepsilon^{**} \leq \varepsilon^*$  such that for  $t \in [T, \infty)$  and  $\varepsilon < \varepsilon^{**}$ , it follows uniformly that

$$\|\mathbf{z}(t, \varepsilon) - \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t), \mathbf{u}(t))\| = O(\varepsilon). \quad (20)$$

Moreover, there exist class  $\mathcal{KL}$  functions  $\beta_x, \beta_y$ , a Lyapunov gain  $\alpha_x$  of class  $\mathcal{K}$  and positive constants  $\xi$ , such that the solutions of the original MGs system (10a) and (14) exist and satisfy

$$\|\mathbf{x}(t, \varepsilon)\| \leq \beta_x(\|\mathbf{x}(0)\|, t) + \alpha_x(\|\mathbf{u}\|) + \xi, \quad (21)$$

$$\|\mathbf{y}(t, \varepsilon)\| \leq \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) + \xi. \quad (22)$$

*Remark 2:* Theorem 1 indicates large-signal stability by observing that  $\mu$  can be arbitrarily large. This is more comprehensive than the small-signal stability studied in [27]. Moreover, the errors between the solutions of reduced and original MGs should be small and bounded to guarantee accuracy. Equations (18) and (19) show that for sufficiently small  $\varepsilon$ , these errors tend to be zero. Equation (20) means that for small enough  $\varepsilon$ , the solution  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  of the BLM decays to zero exponentially fast in time  $T$ , so that the fast solutions can be estimated by only QSS solutions  $\mathbf{h}(t, \bar{\mathbf{x}}(t))$  after time  $T$ .

*Remark 3:* According to the theorem, if the ROM is ISS and BLM is GAS, then the original system is stable as shown in (21) and (22). Moreover, in real physical systems, one challenge of SPT is how to identify the slow and fast dynamic states. A commonly used approach is the knowledge discover-based method that relies on expert knowledge for specific domains. For example, in MGs, some small parasitic parameters such as capacitances, inductances, and small time constants, can be selected as the perturbation coefficients  $\varepsilon$ . The states with respect to these small  $\varepsilon$  are identified as fast states. This conventional empirical identification method falls short of efficiency and accuracy. Therefore, we propose a more efficient and accurate method to identify the slow/fast dynamics by finding the bound of  $\varepsilon$  in the following proof.

*Proof:* The proof of the theorem is conducted in three steps. First, we prove the GAS of  $\mathbf{y}$  (22). This result will then be used in proving the accuracy of ROM and BLM (18)-(20). Finally, we provide the proof of ISS of  $\mathbf{x}$  (21).

Using the converse theorem and Assumption 3, there exists a smooth function  $V_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}) : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ , and three class  $\mathcal{K}_\infty$  functions  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$  and  $\alpha_3$ , such that

$$\alpha_1(\|\mathbf{y}\|) \leq V_1(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}) \leq \alpha_2(\|\mathbf{y}\|), \quad (23)$$

$$\frac{\partial V_1}{\partial \mathbf{y}} g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} + h(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}), \mathbf{u}, 0) \leq -\alpha_3(\|\mathbf{y}\|). \quad (24)$$

Using [36, Lemmas 1 and 2] together with (23) and (24), it can be verified that there exists a class  $\mathcal{K}$  function  $\alpha_y$ , a class  $\mathcal{KL}$  function  $\beta_y$  and a continuous nonincreasing function  $\gamma_y : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ , such that for essentially bounded inputs and  $\varepsilon \leq \gamma_y(\max\{\|\mathbf{x}\|, \|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \|\mathbf{u}\|, \|\dot{\mathbf{u}}\|\})$ , the solution of (14) exists for all  $t \geq 0$  and satisfies

$$\|\mathbf{y}(t, \varepsilon)\| \leq \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) + \alpha_y(\varepsilon). \quad (25)$$

Note that at this step we do not know the boundedness of  $\mathbf{x}$ . To use the inequality (25), we apply the causality and signal truncations. Define a positive constant  $\tilde{\mu}$  satisfying  $\tilde{\mu} > \beta_x(\mu, 0) + \alpha_x(\mu) + \xi$ . It can be verified that  $\mu < \tilde{\mu}$ . Considering the continuity for a given initial condition, we can define  $T > 0$  as the upper bound of  $[0, T)$  within which  $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \tilde{\mu}$ . Since  $\gamma_y$  is nonincreasing, it follows that

$$\gamma_y(\tilde{\mu}) < \gamma_y(\mu) \leq \gamma_y(\max\{\|\mathbf{x}(0)\|, \|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \|\mathbf{u}\|, \|\dot{\mathbf{u}}\|\}), \quad (26)$$

$$\gamma_y(\tilde{\mu}) \leq \gamma_y(\|\mathbf{x}\|). \quad (27)$$

For  $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon_1 := \gamma_y(\tilde{\mu})$ , (26) and (27) yield that  $\varepsilon \leq \gamma_y(\max\{\|\mathbf{x}\|, \|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \|\mathbf{u}\|, \|\dot{\mathbf{u}}\|\})$  holds for all  $t \in [0, T)$ . However, from the definition of  $\tilde{\mu}$ , there must exist a positive constant  $\eta$ , such that  $\|\mathbf{x}\| < \tilde{\mu}$  for all  $t \in [0, T + \eta)$ . This contradicts that  $T$  is maximal, so  $T = \infty$ . Therefore, there exists an  $\varepsilon_2$  satisfying  $\alpha_y(\varepsilon_2) = \xi$ , such that (22) holds for all  $t \geq 0$ , and  $\varepsilon \leq \min\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2\}$ .

Then, we prove the second step about the accuracy of the ROM (18)-(20). Define the error between solutions of reduced and original slow dynamics as  $\mathbf{E}_x = \mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}$ . When  $\varepsilon = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{z} - \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) = 0$ . Then, we have

$$\dot{\mathbf{E}}_x = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}_x, 0, \mathbf{u}, 0) + \Delta \mathbf{f}, \quad (28)$$

where  $\Delta \mathbf{f} = [\mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{E}_x, 0, \mathbf{u}, 0) - \mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, 0, \mathbf{u}, 0) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}_x, 0, \mathbf{u}, 0)] + \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}, \varepsilon) - \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, 0, \mathbf{u}, 0)$ . According to Assumption 1, it follows that

$$\|\Delta \mathbf{f}\| \leq \ell_1 \|\mathbf{E}_x\|^2 + \ell_2 \|\mathbf{E}_x\| \|\hat{\mathbf{x}}\| + \ell_3 \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) + \ell_3 \xi + \ell_4 \varepsilon, \quad (29)$$

for some positive constants  $\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_4$ . The last term in system (28) can be viewed as a perturbation of

$$\dot{\mathbf{E}}_x = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}_x, 0, \mathbf{u}, 0). \quad (30)$$

Since the origin of the system (30) is exponentially stable with  $\mathbf{u} = 0$ , using the converse theorem, there exist a Lyapunov function  $V_2(\mathbf{E}_x)$ , and positive constants  $c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4$ , for which it follows that

$$c_1 \|\mathbf{E}_x\|^2 \leq V_2(\mathbf{E}_x) \leq c_2 \|\mathbf{E}_x\|^2, \quad (31)$$

$$\frac{\partial V_2}{\partial \mathbf{E}_x} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}_x, 0, \mathbf{u}, 0) \leq -c_3 \|\mathbf{E}_x\|^2, \quad (32)$$

$$\left\| \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial \mathbf{E}_x} \right\| \leq c_4 \|\mathbf{E}_x\|. \quad (33)$$

Using (22), (29) and (31)-(33), the Lyapunov function of (30) along the trajectory of (28) satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V}_2 &= \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial \mathbf{E}_x} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{E}_x, 0, \mathbf{u}, 0) + \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial \mathbf{E}_x} \Delta \mathbf{f} \\ &\leq -c_3 \|\mathbf{E}_x\|^2 + c_4 \|\mathbf{E}_x\| \left[ \ell_1 \|\mathbf{E}_x\|^2 + \ell_2 \|\mathbf{E}_x\| \|\hat{\mathbf{x}}\| \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \ell_3 \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) + \ell_3 \xi + \ell_4 \varepsilon \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

For  $\|\mathbf{E}_x\| \leq c_3/(2c_4\ell_1)$ , using Assumption 2, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V}_2 &\leq -2 \left\{ c_3 - c_4 \ell_1 \left[ \hat{\beta}_x(\|\hat{\mathbf{x}}(0)\|, t) + \hat{\alpha}_x(\|\mathbf{u}\|) \right] \right\} V_2 \\ &\quad + 2 \left[ \ell_3 \varepsilon + \ell_3 \xi + \ell_4 \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) \right] \sqrt{V_2} \\ &\leq -2 \left\{ \ell_a - \ell_b \hat{\beta}_x(\|\hat{\mathbf{x}}(0)\|, t) \right\} V_2 \\ &\quad + 2 \left[ \ell_c \varepsilon + \ell_d \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) \right] \sqrt{V_2}, \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

where  $0 < \ell_a \leq c_3 - c_4 \ell_1 \hat{\alpha}_x(\sup \|\mathbf{u}\|)$ ,  $\ell_c \geq \ell_3(1 + \xi/\varepsilon) > 0$ , and  $\ell_b, \ell_d > 0$ . Using the comparison lemma, we have

$$\begin{aligned} W_2(t) &\leq \phi(t, 0) W_2(0) \\ &\quad + \int_0^t \phi(t, s) \left[ \ell_c \varepsilon + \ell_d \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) \right] ds, \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

where  $W_2 = \sqrt{V_2}$  and

$$|\phi(t, s)| \leq \ell_e e^{-\ell_f t}, \quad \text{for } \ell_e, \ell_f > 0. \quad (37)$$

Because

$$\int_0^t e^{-\ell_f t} \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) ds = O(\varepsilon), \quad (38)$$

it can be verified that  $W_2(t) = O(\varepsilon)$ . Then it follows that  $\mathbf{E}_x(t, \varepsilon) = O(\varepsilon)$ , and this means that (18) holds.

Since we have already verified that (22) holds in the first step, then by Assumption 3, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_y(t, \varepsilon) &= \|\mathbf{z}(t, \varepsilon) - \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t, \varepsilon), \mathbf{u}(t)) - \hat{\mathbf{y}}(t)\| \\ &= \|\mathbf{y}(t, \varepsilon) - \hat{\mathbf{y}}(t)\| \leq \|\mathbf{y}(t, \varepsilon)\| + \|\hat{\mathbf{y}}(t)\| \\ &\leq \beta_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) + \alpha_y(\varepsilon) + \hat{\beta}_y(\|\hat{\mathbf{y}}(0)\|, \tau) = O(\varepsilon) \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

for given initial points and all  $t \geq 0$ . This proves (19).

According to Assumption 3,  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}(\tau) = \hat{\beta}_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ . Thus, the term  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}(\tau) = O(\varepsilon)$  for all  $t \geq T > 0$  if  $\varepsilon$  is small enough to satisfy

$$\hat{\beta}_y(\|\mathbf{y}(0)\|, \tau) \leq k\varepsilon \quad (40)$$

Let  $\varepsilon^{**}$  and  $T$  denote a solution of (40) with equal sign. Subsequently, (20) holds for all  $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon^{**}$  uniformly on  $[T, \infty)$ .

Finally, we prove the ISS of original slow dynamics. Since

$$\|\mathbf{x}(t, \varepsilon)\| - \|\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}(t, \varepsilon) - \hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)\| = O(\varepsilon), \quad (41)$$

there exist some class  $\mathcal{KL}$  function  $\beta_x$ , class  $\mathcal{K}$  function  $\alpha$  and a small positive constant  $\varepsilon_3$ , such that the solution of (10a) exists for all  $t \geq 0$  and  $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon^* := \min\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3\}$  satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x}(t, \varepsilon)\| &\leq \|\hat{\mathbf{x}}(t)\| + O(\varepsilon) \\ &\leq \hat{\beta}_x(\|\hat{\mathbf{x}}(0)\|, t) + \hat{\alpha}_x(\|\mathbf{u}\|) + O(\varepsilon) \\ &\leq \beta_x(\|\mathbf{x}(0)\|, t) + \alpha_x(\|\mathbf{u}\|) + \xi. \end{aligned} \quad (42)$$

This completes the proof of (21).  $\blacksquare$

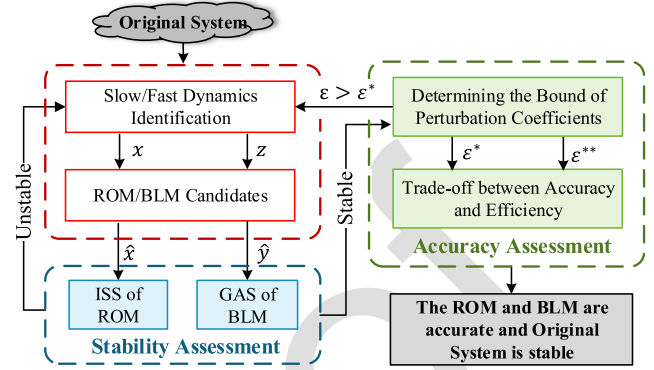


Fig. 2. The diagram of stability and accuracy assessment embedded LSOR.

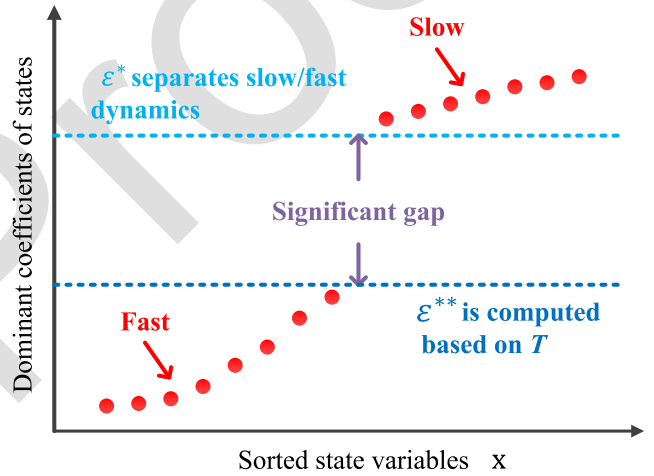


Fig. 3. Illustration of slow/fast dynamics separation by determining  $\varepsilon^*$ . The smaller value of the dominant coefficient indicates faster speed. If all the dominant coefficients of fast states are smaller than  $\varepsilon^{**}$ , the solution of BLM  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  converges to zero within time  $T$ .

### C. Stability and Accuracy Assessment Embedded LSOR

This subsection develops a novel LSOR method by embedding the above theorem. The overall flowchart is shown in Fig. 2 and the detailed algorithm is proposed in *Algorithm 1*.

*Algorithm 1* provides a method to identify the slow and fast dynamics of a system with guaranteed stability and accuracy. The feasibility of *Algorithm 1* relies on the inherent singularly perturbed nature of inverter-based MGs, indicating the existence of at least one significant gap among the dynamic speeds of the states. To quantitatively analyze the relationship between the gap size and dynamic performance of the reduced model, we have introduced an additional threshold  $\varepsilon^{**}$  in *Algorithm 1*, whose efficacy has been proved in *Theorem 1*. The relationship between  $\varepsilon^*$  and  $\varepsilon^{**}$  is illustrated in Fig. 3. A numerical case study is given in the next section to demonstrate how  $\varepsilon^{**}$  helps balance the accuracy and computational cost.

On the other hand, it is also possible that different partitions of fast and slow dynamics result in similar performance of the ROM. Choosing more dynamics as fast ones can reduce the order of the ROM and improve the computational efficiency, but it can also compromise the accuracy. Therefore, a careful trade-off should be made according to the engineering requirements. For instance, in the MG control problem,

**Algorithm 1** Stability/Accuracy Assessment Embedded LSOR

- 1: Choose the smaller parameters dominating the transient velocity as  $\varepsilon$ . The states with respect to  $\varepsilon$  are identified as fast states, while the others as slow states.
- 2: **procedure** ROM AND BLM DERIVATION
- 3: Let  $\varepsilon = 0$ , solve the algebraic equation (11) to obtain the isolated QSS solutions  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$
- 4: Substitute  $\mathbf{z}$  into (10a), obtaining the ROM (13)
- 5: Derive the BLM using equation (15).
- 6: **end procedure**
- 7: **procedure** STABILITY ASSESSMENT
- 8: **if** Assumption 2 and 3 are satisfied **then**
- 9: Go to next procedure
- 10: **else**
- 11: Return to Step 1 to re-identify slow/fast dynamics.
- 12: **end if**
- 13: **end procedure**
- 14: **procedure** CALCULATE THE BOUND OF  $\varepsilon$
- 15: Calculate  $\varepsilon^* = \min\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3\}$  according to proof.
- 16: Calculate  $\varepsilon^{**}$  by solving equation (40) with equal sign.
- 17: **end procedure**
- 18: **procedure** ACCURACY ASSESSMENT
- 19: **if**  $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon^*$  **then**
- 20: **if**  $\varepsilon \leq \varepsilon^{**}$  **then**
- 21:  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{u})$  is the solution of fast dynamics
- 22: **else**
- 23: Use  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{u}) + \hat{\mathbf{y}}$  by solving the BLM (15).
- 24: **end if**
- 25: **else**
- 26: Return to Step 1 to re-identify slow/fast dynamics
- 27: **end if**
- 28: **end procedure**

minimizing the computational time of solving differential equations is not a priority. In this case, as long as the computational speed meets the sampling rate requirement to avoid input time delays, it is preferable to use a higher-order but more accurate ROM to design the controller [38]. On the other hand, if the modeling error tolerance is higher while the computational burden is more critical, such as in some qualitative analysis, then it is suggested to consider more states as fast ones [26].

This algorithm is designed for MGs with two-time-scale properties, however, no basic assumptions of the MGs are required. Therefore, the proposed method can be applied to arbitrary dynamic systems.

#### IV. CASE STUDY

##### A. Simulation Setup

The proposed method is tested on a modified IEEE-37 bus MG, which can be operated in grid-tied or islanded modes as shown in Fig. 4. According to [26], seven inverters are connected to buses 15, 18, 22, 24, 29, 33, and 34. When the point of common coupling (PCC) is closed, the MG is operated in grid-tied mode. Otherwise, it is operated in islanded mode.

We first let the MG be operated in grid-tied mode. In order to analyze the detailed dynamic properties of both slow

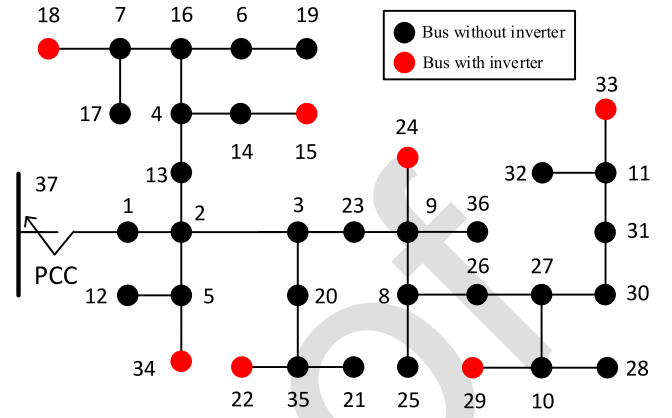


Fig. 4. The diagram of modified IEEE-37 bus system.

and fast dynamics as well as compare our method with the small-signal order reduction approach, a single bus of interest (bus 34) is chosen to show its dynamic responses after power command (input) changes for clearance. Then, a simulation is conducted in islanded mode to show the dynamic responses of multiple buses with DERs when a load sudden change is given to verify its effectiveness against large disturbances. The detailed load and line parameter settings can be found in [26].

##### B. Performance in Grid-Tied Mode and Comparison With Small-Signal ROM

We start by defining a set of candidate coefficients that dominate the dynamic response speeds to identify the slow and fast dynamics. In [26], [27], the dominant coefficients are selected as the common coefficients of the state variables and their derivative terms. This selection has been verified within a neighborhood of an equilibrium using modal analysis and tested with hardware experiments in [27]. However, this method may not be applicable to nonlinear systems in our problem. For nonlinear systems, there is no general method like spectral analysis in linear systems that can precisely measure the dynamic response speeds.

To overcome this challenge, we first approximately follow the definition of dominant coefficients which has been validated on a small-signal model of the MG in [27]. Then, we select the smaller coefficients as perturbation coefficients  $\varepsilon$ . Finally, if the derived ROM and BLM pass the proposed stability and accuracy assessment in Theorem 1, this candidate  $\varepsilon$  and the corresponding separation of slow and fast dynamics are theoretically verified. If not, we need to re-identify the slow and fast dynamics by lowering the threshold of  $\varepsilon$  and considering different combinations of parameters as dominant coefficients in the differential equations.

Considering the MG model in grid-tied mode, the derivative term can be rewritten as

$$\left( \frac{1}{\omega_c} \dot{P}_i, \frac{1}{\omega_c} \dot{Q}_i, \dot{\Phi}_{PLL_i}, \dot{\delta}_i, \frac{K_{P,P_i}}{K_{I,P_i}} \dot{\Phi}_{P_i}, \frac{K_{P,P_i}}{K_{I,P_i}} \dot{\Phi}_{Q_i}, \frac{K_{P,C_i}}{K_{I,C_i}} \dot{\Gamma}_{d_i}, \frac{K_{P,C_i}}{K_{I,C_i}} \dot{\Gamma}_{q_i}, \frac{1}{\omega_c, PLL_i} \dot{V}_{od,fi}, \frac{L_{fi}}{R_{fi}} \dot{I}_{ldi}, \frac{L_{fi}}{R_{fi}} \dot{I}_{lqi}, \frac{L_{ci}}{R_{ci}} \dot{I}_{odi}, \frac{L_{ci}}{R_{ci}} \dot{I}_{oqi}, \frac{C_{fi}}{R_{di}} \dot{V}_{odi}, \frac{C_{fi}}{R_{di}} \dot{V}_{oqi} \right) \quad (43)$$



688 Substituting the parameters in [39] into the vector (43), we  
 689 have

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left( \frac{1}{50.26} \dot{P}_i, \frac{1}{50.26} \dot{Q}_i, \dot{\Phi}_{PLL_i}, \dot{\delta}_i, \frac{0.5}{25} \dot{\Phi}_{d_i}, \frac{0.5}{25} \dot{\Phi}_{q_i}, \frac{1}{100} \dot{\Gamma}_{d_i}, \right. \\
 & \frac{1}{100} \dot{\Gamma}_{q_i}, \frac{1}{7853.98} \dot{V}_{od,fi}, \frac{0.0042}{0.5} \dot{I}_{ld_i}, \frac{0.0042}{0.5} \dot{I}_{lq_i}, \\
 & \left. \frac{0.0005}{0.09} \dot{I}_{od_i}, \frac{0.0005}{0.09} \dot{I}_{oq_i}, \frac{0.000015}{2.025} \dot{V}_{od_i}, \frac{0.000015}{2.025} \dot{V}_{oq_i} \right) \\
 & = \left( 0.02 \dot{P}_i, 0.02 \dot{Q}_i, \dot{\Phi}_{PLL_i}, \dot{\delta}_i, 0.02 \dot{\Phi}_{d_i}, 0.02 \dot{\Phi}_{q_i}, 0.01 \dot{\Gamma}_{d_i}, \right. \\
 & 0.01 \dot{\Gamma}_{q_i}, 1.3 \times 10^{-4} \dot{V}_{od,fi}, 8.4 \times 10^{-3} \dot{I}_{ld_i}, 8.4 \times 10^{-3} \dot{I}_{lq_i}, \\
 & \left. 1.4 \times 10^{-3} \dot{I}_{od_i}, 1.4 \times 10^{-3} \dot{I}_{oq_i}, 7.4 \times 10^{-6} \dot{V}_{od_i}, 7.4 \times 10^{-6} \dot{V}_{oq_i} \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

696 It can be seen that the magnitudes of dominant coefficients  
 697 vary significantly, which is caused by the two-time-scale  
 698 property of the system. The smaller parameters are selected as  
 699 perturbation coefficients  $\varepsilon$ , which are utilized to classify the  
 700 slow and fast states in this system:

$$701 \quad \mathbf{x}_1 = [P_i \ Q_i \ \Phi_{PLL_i} \ \delta_i \ \Phi_{P_i} \ \Phi_{Q_i} \ \Gamma_{d_i} \ \Gamma_{q_i}]^T, \quad (44)$$

$$702 \quad \mathbf{z}_1 = [V_{od,fi} \ I_{ld_i} \ I_{lq_i} \ I_{od_i} \ I_{oq_i} \ V_{od_i} \ V_{oq_i}]^T. \quad (45)$$

703 *Remark 4:* The concepts of slow and fast dynamics are rela-  
 704 tive and depend on the specific parameter settings. Different  
 705 parameters can alter the dynamic response speeds of the  
 706 states accordingly. For instance, the states associated with PI  
 707 controllers are regarded as slow dynamics under the parameter  
 708 setting in [39], but as fast dynamics under the parameter setting  
 709 in [26]. Hence, the identification of slow and fast dynamics  
 710 should take into account the detailed parameter setting, and  
 711 the results (44)-(45) are not generalizable for any MGs.

712 We first set  $\varepsilon$  to 0 and calculate the QSS solution  $\mathbf{z}_1 =$   
 713  $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{u}_1)$  by solving the algebraic equation with respect to the  
 714 fast dynamics (45). Then the ROM is obtained by substituting  
 715  $\mathbf{z}_1$  into the slow dynamic equations with respect to (44).  
 716 Comparing the numbers of state variables in equation (43)  
 717 and (44), the order of the original model is reduced to 53.33%.  
 718 Then we derive the BLM using equation (15). Once the ROM  
 719 and BLM are obtained, we use the conventional ISS and GAS  
 720 judging theorems in [21] to evaluate their stability of them.  
 721 Specially, the unforced nonlinear ROM is exponentially stable  
 722 by checking that its linearized system matrix has eigenvalues  
 723 with strictly negative real parts. It can be verified that the  
 724 assumptions are satisfied. Based on this result, we are inclined  
 725 to anticipate the stability of the original system.

726 To ensure this, we still need to theoretically verify the  
 727 accuracy of the ROM and BLM. Following the technique  
 728 in the proof, we can calculate the boundary of  $\varepsilon$  as  $\varepsilon^* =$   
 729  $\min\{\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3\} = 7.92 \times 10^{-3}$ . Note that  $\max\{\varepsilon\} = 3.9 \times$   
 730  $10^{-3} < 7.92 \times 10^{-3} = \varepsilon^*$ . Therefore, we can conclude that this  
 731 MGs system is stable and we can use the solutions of its ROM  
 732  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  and  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{u}) + \hat{\mathbf{y}}$  to accurately represent its real dynamic  
 733 responses. Furthermore, given  $T = 0.43$  s, we can find a  $\varepsilon^{**}$   
 734 satisfying  $\max\{\varepsilon\} < \varepsilon^{**} = 4.2 \times 10^{-3}$ , which indicates that  
 735 the term  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  will be  $O(\varepsilon)$  after 0.43 s. Here, a trade-off exists  
 736 between accuracy and efficiency. When the accuracy is prior,  
 737 one can choose  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{u}) + \hat{\mathbf{y}}$  by computing an additional  
 738 differential equation (BLM). When the efficiency dominates,  
 739 use  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{u})$  suffering the inaccuracy only within  $(0, T)$ .

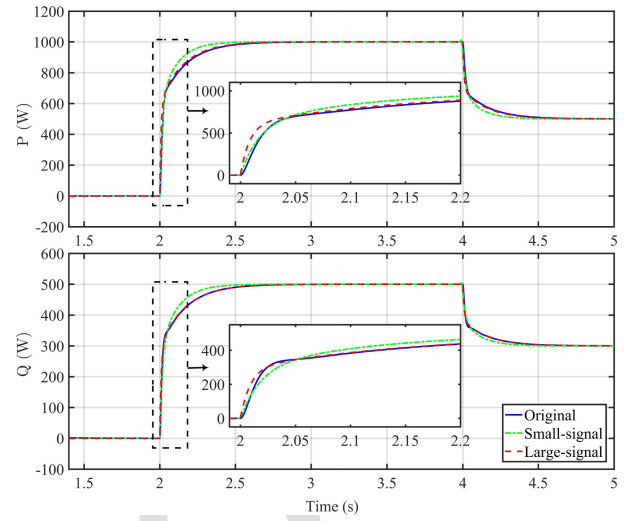


Fig. 5. Simulation results of slow and fast dynamic responses of interested bus 34: active and reactive power.

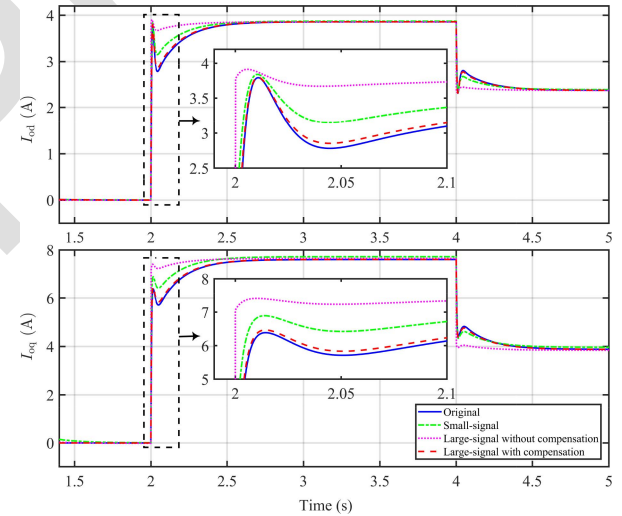


Fig. 6. Simulation results of slow and fast dynamic responses of interested bus 34:  $dq$ -axis output currents  $I_{od}$  and  $I_{oq}$ .

740 Then we conduct the simulation of the derived ROM using  
 741 MATLAB. The active power command changes to 1000 W at  
 742 2 s and changes to 500 W at 4 s. The reactive power command  
 743 changes to 500 W at 2 s and changes to 300 W at 4 s. A  
 744 comparison simulation using the small-signal order reduction  
 745 method in [27] is conducted under the same conditions. The  
 746 simulation results are shown in Fig. 5-7, where blue solid lines  
 747 denote the responses of the original model, green dash-dotted  
 748 lines denote that using small-signal order reduction method,  
 749 pink dotted lines denote the results of proposed LSOR without  
 750 BLM compensation (i.e., QSS solution), and red dashed lines  
 751 are the responses with the addition of solution  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  of BLM  
 752 (i.e.,  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{h} + \hat{\mathbf{y}}$ ). For the main slow dynamics (active and  
 753 reactive powers) shown in (a), the proposed LSOR method is  
 754 more accurate than the small-signal model during the transient  
 755 period. Regarding the fast dynamics voltages and currents  
 756 illustrated in (b) and (c), the LSOR method with compensation  
 757  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  provides the most accurate performance. However, the

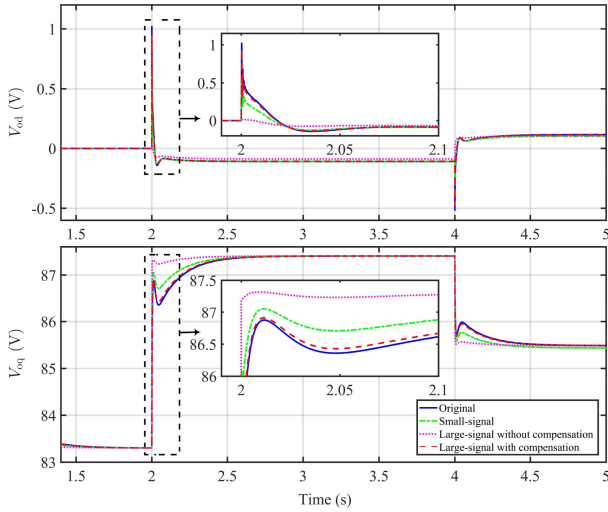


Fig. 7. Simulation results of slow and fast dynamic responses of interested bus 34:  $dq$ -axis output voltages  $V_{od}$  and  $V_{oq}$ .

TABLE I  
RMSES OF SLOW AND FAST DYNAMICS USING LSOR, LSOR WITH BLM COMPENSATION, AND SMALL-SIGNAL ORDER REDUCTION METHODS

Model \ State	LSOR	LSOR w/ compensation	Small-signal
$P$ (kW)	0.014		0.019
$Q$ (kVAR)	0.004		0.008
$I_{od}$ (A)	0.257	0.021	0.101
$I_{oq}$ (A)	0.499	0.040	0.227
$V_{od}$ (V)	0.022	0.002	0.008
$V_{oq}$ (V)	0.286	0.023	0.127

LSOR without  $\hat{y}$  gives worse performance than the small-signal one used in [27]. This is because the fast dynamics predicted by the method in [27] are also compensated with a corrected response. From the stability point of view, the red lines in Fig. 5-7 show that, with bounded input power commands, both ROM and BLM are stable, which indicates that the original system is stable as justified by the stability of blue lines. To systematically evaluate the quantitative contrasts in the dynamic behaviors of both the proposed large-signal and small-signal order reduction methods, we present the root-mean-square errors (RMSEs) computed from the results displayed in Figs. 5-7. As tabulated in Table I, these RMSE values are sufficiently small when compared to the magnitudes of their corresponding state variables. It is important to note that the compensation facilitated by the BLM exclusively pertains to fast dynamics. Thus, the respective cells of active/reactive powers which are identified as slow dynamics in this case in Table I remain unpopulated.

### C. Computational Efficiency Analysis

In order to evaluate the computational efficiency of the proposed SPT-based method, particularly from the viewpoint of reducing stiffness, two different ordinary differential equation (ODE) solvers are implemented: ode45 solver and

TABLE II  
COMPUTATIONAL TIME OF ORIGINAL, SMALL-SIGNAL AND LARGE-SIGNAL ROMS USING DIFFERENT ODE SOLVERS

Solver \ Model	Original model	Large-signal	Small-signal
ode45	94.25 s	11.92 s	9.56 s
ode15s	11.43 s	10.81 s	8.24 s

ode15s solver. Stiffness is a property of a system of ordinary differential equations that affects the numerical stability and efficiency of solving the system. A system is stiff if it has some components that vary much faster than others, or if it has some solutions that decay much faster than the solution of interest [40]. In such cases, a nonstiff numerical method, such as ode45 in MATLAB, would require very small time steps to capture the rapid changes or avoid numerical oscillations, which would result in a large computational cost and possibly loss of accuracy. A stiff numerical method such as ode15s in MATLAB, on the other hand, can handle larger time steps and maintain stability and accuracy. However, it may slightly reduce the accuracy of the solution.

Table III demonstrates that the ode45 solver achieves a more significant reduction in computational time than the ode15s solver when applied to the reduced-order models obtained from the original full-order model. This comparison suggests that our LSOR method transforms the original model from a *stiff* ODE problem to a *non-stiff* one. The proposed method also enhances the stability of the ODE-solving process through this transformation. Therefore, the proposed method can decrease the computational time from two aspects: the order of the system and the stiffness of the ODE problem. Furthermore, the small-signal order reduction method is slightly faster than the LSOR method. This is because the LSOR results in a set of ODEs with many nonlinear terms, which require more time to solve than a linear one. However, as Table I indicates, the accuracy of the small-signal method is lower than the proposed LSOR method.

*Remark 5:* Note that with the addition of the solution of BLM, we need to solve another set of differential equations. This seems that the proposed method has limited ability to reduce the computational burden. However, this is not the case. As discussed above, SPT reduces the computational burden not only by reducing the number of differential equations but also by converting the *stiff* problem to a *non-stiff* one. Moreover, the adopted example is a possible worst case that the perturbation coefficients are not small enough. When  $\varepsilon$  is sufficiently small, the converging time  $T$  can be sufficiently small as well. Then we can directly use the algebraic equation to estimate the fast states.

### D. Performance in Grid-Tied Mode Under Short-Circuit Faults

In the preceding subsections, we examined the performance of our proposed LSOR method under external disturbances induced by load sudden changes. To gain deeper theoretical insights, we investigated how load sudden changes influence

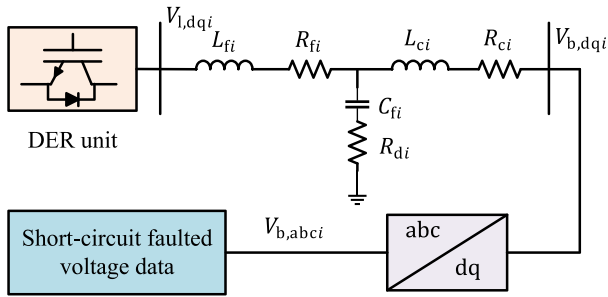


Fig. 8. Diagram illustrating the implementation of short-circuit fault test.

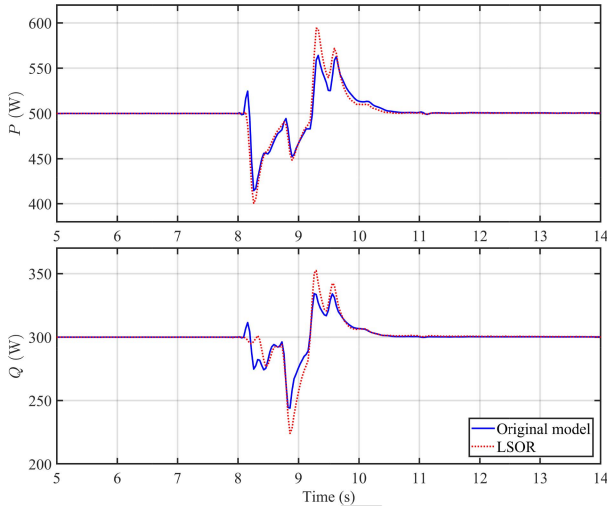


Fig. 9. Simulation results of slow and fast dynamic responses of the interested bus 34 under short-circuit fault disturbance: active and reactive power.

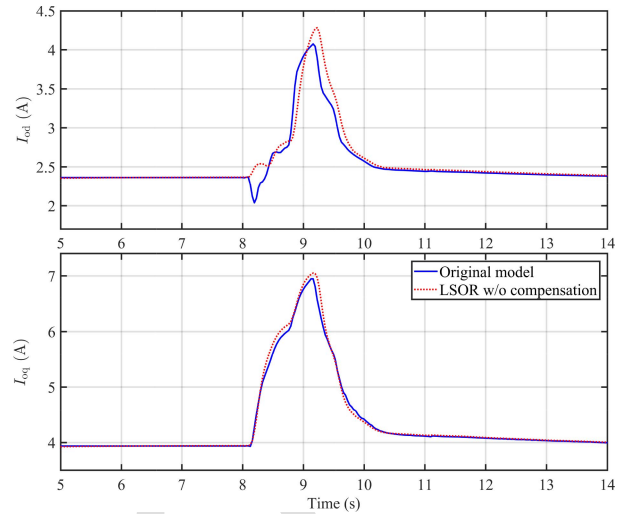

 Fig. 10. Simulation results of slow and fast dynamic responses of the interested bus 34 under short-circuit fault disturbance:  $dq$ -axis output currents  $I_{od}$  and  $I_{oq}$ .

 TABLE III  
 COMPUTATIONAL TIME OF ORIGINAL AND REDUCED-ORDER MODELS USING DIFFERENT ODE SOLVERS IN ISLANDED MODE

Solver \ Model	Original model	Reduced model	Percentage
ode45	104.25 s	11.25 s	89.2%
ode15s	13.23 s	11.37 s	14%

the inverters' internal states through the power controller (5). Seeking a comprehensive understanding of various external disturbances' influence on the dynamic performance of the ROM, we further explore the impact of disturbance induced by short-circuit faults in this subsection. In contrast to load sudden changes, the influence of short-circuit faults is transmitted through the bus voltages  $V_{bd}$  and  $V_{bq}$  connected to the LC filter of the DER, as detailed in (9). This discovery establishes a theoretical foundation that streamlines the simulation setup. Illustrated in Fig. 8, this approach allows us to concentrate on the key variables influencing order reduction performance, ensuring efficiency in our simulation.

The fault scenario replicates real-world conditions by adopting time-varying real utility-measured faulted voltage data. The fault sequence stages short-circuit scenarios, starting with an A-B fault at 5 seconds, followed by an A-B-G fault at 5.24 seconds, and a more severe three-phase fault at 5.63 seconds. The sequence concludes with fault clearance at 6.38 seconds, restoring the system to its normal operating state. Same as in Section IV-B, the DER at the interested bus 34 is analyzed.

Figs. 9-11 compare the dynamic responses of the proposed SPT-based LSOR and the original full-order model for the states  $(P, Q, I_{od}, I_{oq}, V_{od}, V_{oq})$ , which have RMSEs of (0.01, 0.01, 0.01, 0.01, 0.01, 0.01). The results show that the proposed SPT-based LSOR method can accurately capture

both the slow and fast dynamics of the original full-order model under the complex short-circuit fault scenario, which demonstrates its effectiveness and robustness.

#### E. Performance in Islanded Mode Under Load Sudden Change

In this subsection, a simulation in islanded mode is conducted to verify the effectiveness of the proposed method by showing the dynamic responses of the buses with DERs. To study the dynamic characteristics, a  $20 \Omega$  load is connected parallel to bus 12 at 2 s and disconnected at 2.5 s. Following the similar procedure in case 1, we can identify the slow and fast dynamics of this multi-bus system. Despite the different parameter settings of inverters, the relative magnitudes of derivative terms' coefficients still hold uniformly. That means we can obtain a uniform division of slow and fast dynamics. This fact is based on the nature of different components' time scales. The slow and fast states are divided as follows,

$$\mathbf{x}_2 = [P_i \ Q_i \ \Phi_{PLL_i} \ \delta_i \ \Phi_{di} \ \Phi_{qi} \ \Gamma_{di} \ \Gamma_{qi}]^T, \quad (46)$$

$$\mathbf{z}_2 = [V_{odfi} \ I_{ldi} \ I_{lqi} \ I_{odi} \ I_{oqi} \ V_{odi} \ V_{oqi}]^T. \quad (47)$$

The ROM can be derived using the *Algorithm 1*. The order of the original model is reduced from  $105^{\text{th}}$  to  $56^{\text{th}}$ . The simulation time is shown in Table III. Same as analyzed in the last case study, the proposed method can convert the stiff model of islanded MG to a non-stiff one to reduce the computational burden. Figs. 12-14 show the dynamic

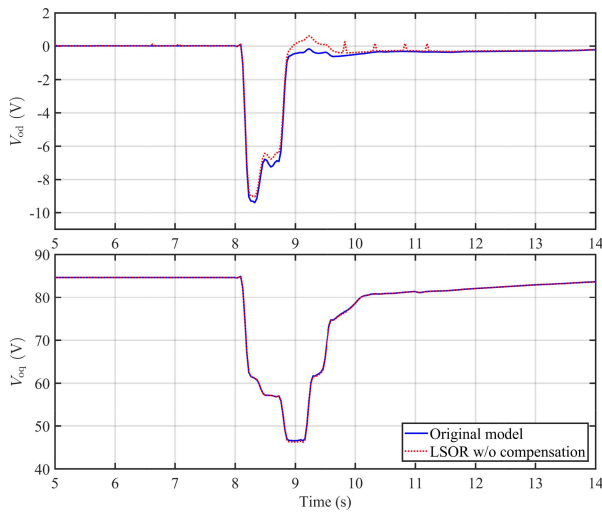


Fig. 11. Simulation results of slow and fast dynamic responses of the interested bus 34 under short-circuit fault disturbance:  $dq$ -axis output voltages  $V_{od}$  and  $V_{oq}$ .

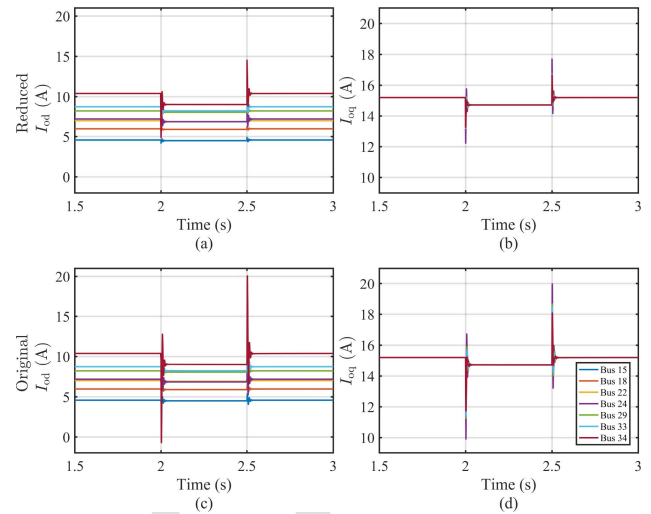


Fig. 13. Comparison of the  $dq$ -axis output currents of the seven buses with DERs of original and reduced systems: (a)-(b) denote the responses of the reduced-order system, (c)-(d) are the responses of the original system.

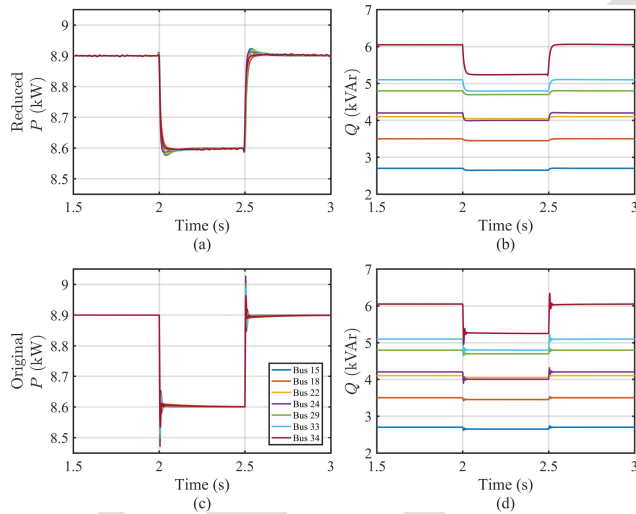


Fig. 12. Comparison of the active/reactive power of the seven buses with DERs of original and reduced systems: (a)-(b) denote the responses of the reduced-order system, (c)-(d) are the responses of the original system.

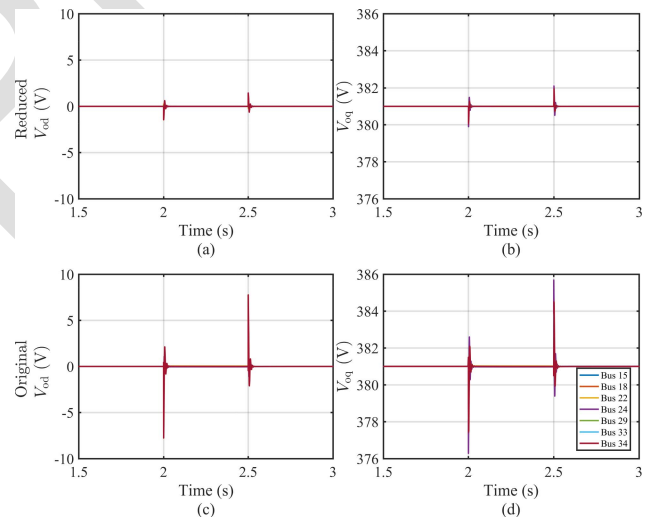


Fig. 14. Comparison of the  $dq$ -axis output voltages of the seven buses with DERs of original and reduced systems: (a)-(b) denote the responses of the reduced-order system, (c)-(d) are the responses of the original system.

879 responses of the original and reduced models of seven buses  
 880 with DERs. The comparison between the results of the original  
 881 model and the reduced one shows the accuracy of the ROM.  
 882 In addition, the responses under load sudden change verify  
 883 the effectiveness of our method against large disturbances in  
 884 islanded systems.

## 885 V. CONCLUSION

886 This paper proposes an LSOR approach for MGs in the  
 887 EMT time scale with consideration of external control input  
 888 by synthesizing a novel stability and accuracy assessment  
 889 theorem. The advantages of our proposed theorem can be  
 890 summarized into two aspects. Firstly, one can determine the  
 891 stability of a full-order system by only analyzing the stability  
 892 of its derived ROM and BLM. Specially, when the ROM  
 893 is input-to-state stable and the BLM is uniformly globally  
 894 asymptotically stable, the original MG system can be proved

895 to be stable under several common growth conditions. This  
 896 makes it easier and more feasible to determine the stability of  
 897 a high-order system. Secondly, a set of quantitative accuracy  
 898 assessment criteria is developed and embedded into a tailored  
 899 feedback mechanism to guarantee the accuracy of the derived  
 900 ROM. It is proved that the errors between solutions of reduced  
 901 and original models are bounded and convergent under such  
 902 conditions. The above stability and accuracy theorem has  
 903 been strictly proven indicating that the proposed method is  
 904 generic for arbitrary dynamic systems satisfying the given  
 905 assumptions. Finally, we have conducted multiple simulations  
 906 under different conditions on an IEEE standard MG system to  
 907 verify the effectiveness of the proposed method.

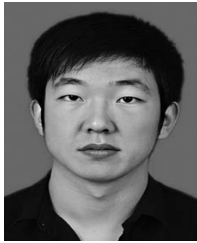
908 The suggested LSOR method holds promise for future  
 909 extensions. One potential avenue involves exploring its  
 910 applicability across diverse classes of nonlinear systems,  
 911 encompassing uncertainties, time-varying coefficients, time

delays, and similar complexities. Investigating whether the established sufficient conditions for stability and accuracy of ROM can be extended to these intricate systems would be a valuable pursuit. Another potential extension lies in integrating the proposed LSOR method with nonlinear control and optimization techniques. This could involve designing stabilizing controllers based on the ROM for high-order systems, presenting an opportunity to streamline the complexity of controller design.

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