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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Finite-Difference-Impedance Method for Time-Delay Systems

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ABSTRACT The stability issues assessment by the impedance-based method demands the computation of accurate small-signal models. However, obtaining impedance models can be a time-consuming task if analytical models or the perturbation-based method are used. Especially in large-scale, poorly damped, distributed, and frequency-dependent parameter systems. A third approach, which has been less explored, is based on numerical derivative approximations, rather than analytical equations or time-domain simulations. This approach works with large-scale systems, avoiding tedious mathematical expressions and large recursive time-domain simulations. As a step-forward in this approach, this paper proposes a numericaloriented method, based on the finite-difference method, to compute impedance models of time-delay powerelectronics-based power systems. An outstanding feature of the proposal is the capability to incorporate the exact delays into the numerical models of impedance without resorting to approximations nor increasing the size of the system model. We compare the proposed method with the analytical and perturbation methods using a grid-connected microgrid with two power electronic inverters as a test system. The results confirm the correct performance of the proposal.

INDEX TERMS Impedance-based method, small-signal stability, VSC-based systems, time-delay.

I. INTRODUCTION

The impedance based stability method [1] has been considered as a tool that provides valuable information related to the small-signal stability and performance of the port-interactions in power systems with power electronics penetration around steady-state operating points. Systems based on power converters have been analyzed with impedance models in several reference frameworks, such as wind farms type III and IV along with high voltage direct current (HVDC) transmission systems based on line-commuted converters (LCC) or voltage source converters (VSC) [2], [3] were modeled with sequence impedance. Similarly, the effect of inertial support techniques in the sequence impedance models is studied in [4] and [5]. The *DQ* framework is used to study HVDC-VSC systems, power converters and microgrids [6], [7], [8], [9], [10]. Impedance models of modular multi-

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level converters (MMC) are commonly derived in the harmonic state space (HSS) to preserve the harmonic coupling in these converters [11], [12], [13], [14]. Other proposals have been presented as the $\alpha\beta$ -domain [15], [16] and the modified sequence domain [17], [18], [19]. Regardless of the selected framework, the impedance models are got by either analytic procedures or applying successive small perturbations at different frequencies of interest. The former option is commonly preferred because of the following reasons: provides accurate insights of the interactions between the subsystems, leads to closed expressions, the exact effect of every parameter in the small-signal models can be measured, helps to reinforce the knowledge related to small-signal issues, among others. Deriving impedance models with the analytical method can be an overwhelming work, especially for large-scale systems. On the other hand, the perturbation method [20] works with measurements of voltages and currents at the terminals of subsystems; measurements come from real systems or simulations. Regarding to this, several approaches have been used

to identify the impedance models injecting a small amplitude signal at the point of interaction, where the subsystems need to be identified. The injection corresponds to three phase voltages (series) or currents (shunt) [21], [22] or single phase perturbations [23]. These examples use a single-tone procedure, applying the perturbation at different frequencies one by one, which can be a slow procedure.

On the other hand, the approach based on pseudo-randomsequence (PRS) perturbations can be a faster option to identify the impedance. Typical signals are the binary, near-binary and non-binary sequences, with binary being preferred for identification applications in power electronics [24]. Popular alternatives among the binary sequences are the maximum-length pseudo random binary (MLBS), the inverse-repeat binary (IRS), the discrete-interval binary (DIBS) and orthogonal binary sequences [25], [26], [27]. Another method to determine the impedance applies changes in the references of the active or reactive power in the power electronics control [28]. This technique originally uses measured information of the system when operates in two conditions; however, there has been alternatives that uses three [29] or four operating points [30] in order to estimate the impedance. Employing more measured points can improve the accuracy of the estimation, and reduces the effect of the inherent coupling in the *dq* framework [31]. On the other hand, a novel approach using artificial neural networks to identify impedance under several operating conditions is presented in [32]. In most of the reported works devoted to the small-signal stability analysis present the identification impedance as a backup to validate the analytic models, although the intrinsic practical approach of this method lead to its application in real systems as is reported in [33].

A third alternative little addressed is the numerical approaches that seek to avoid the analytical work that represents the linearization of the nonlinear model and algebraic manipulation. The usage of built-in functions of MAT-LAB is used in [34] to linearized models implemented in SIMULINK; an iterative algorithm is used in [35] to identify the impedance; in both works, the impedance is computed using the *DQ* framework. The periodic small-signal analysis (PAC) is presented in [36] to numerically derived impedance models of an MMC-VSC, then the vector fitting is used to compute analytical transfer functions. The numeric approach is not restricted to the impedance models, in [37] is presented a methodology to derive a state space model of electronic converters in the extended harmonic domain (EHD) using a forward finite difference approximation. In this regards, a previous work of the authors has introduced the so-called finite-difference-impedance method (FDIM) where the forward finite-difference approximation [38] is used to compute a linear time invariant (LTI) model, and afterward the impedance models are determined using a systematic procedure. The method is oriented toward systems modeled in *DQ*-domain, and its outstanding features are the generality to compute the impedance of large systems, it does not matter the control techniques (linear/nonlinear), it takes

FIGURE 1. Separation of the subsystems.

less time to get the impedance compared to the analytic or the perturbation approach, and its accuracy is much better that the perturbation approach. Nonetheless, [38] needs the ordinary differential equations (ODEs) system, which leads to approximate the delays with rational functions. However, incorporate the delay in this manner may lead to a deficient model to assess stability because of high frequency dynamics are overlooked; this is vital to understand the harmonic stability issues related to power electronics, whose behaviour exhibits non-passive properties in this frequency range related to time-delayed [39]. Despite the order of the approximation can be increased to improve its performance, this turns out in a higher-order model. So, it is better trying to represent the delay exactly. Motivated by this issue, the aim of the present work is to introduce a procedure to incorporate the delays into the finite-difference-impedance method in an exact form without increasing the system order. This extension complements the previous proposal and opens the possibility of exploring hybrid approaches, where parts can be numerically or analytically computed.

The structure of this document is: section II explains the proposal to add the delay to the finite-difference-impedance method that can be seen as an extension of the original FDIM, but with an analytical term. In section III, the proposal is compared with the analytical and perturbation approaches; it is also shown the application of the numerical Laplace transform to obtain time-domain responses from the impedance models and the generalized Nyquist stability criterion (GNSC) to assess small-signal stability. Finally, in section IV the conclusions are given.

II. FORMULATION OF THE ANALYTIC EXTENSION

Let us consider a system that is divided as Figure [1](#page-1-0) shows. Here, the source subsystem will be represented just as a power electronic converter with closed-loop control; however, many more devices components can be included. The source subsystem has its average model in *DQ* as [38]:

$$
\frac{dx_1}{dt} = f_1(x_1, i, u_1, v)
$$

$$
\frac{di}{dt} = g_1(x_1, i, u_1, v) \tag{1}
$$

Hereinafter, lower case bold fonts indicate vector variables, then x_1 is for the state vector related to elements of the source subsystem, u_1 represents the control references, the current \vec{i} and the voltage *v* in the interface are also explicitly shown in the ODE set. There is a passive filter (whose topology can be whatsoever) in terminals of the converter that is represented by the element Z_f . It is worth noting that the control strategy takes the control reference u_1 , and the voltage and current v, i as inputs, and gives as output the modulation m_1 . Then, the effect of the PWM causes that a delayed modulation y_1 be applied to the converter. In [\(1\)](#page-1-1), the delay dynamics are included in x_1 and in the vector field f_1 (); however, it is observed that a relationship between m_1 (which results of algebraic operations $m_1 = q_1(x_1, i, u_1, v)$, and y_1 is always held, this can be written in the frequency domain as a linear relationship:

$$
\boldsymbol{Y}_1(s) = G_d(s)\boldsymbol{M}_1(s) \tag{2}
$$

where $G_d(s)$ is the delay transfer function. If $G_d(s) = e^{-T_s s}$, the pure delay is incorporated into the model, but in this case it is not possible to get an ODE set [\(2\)](#page-2-0), unless to resort to delay differential equations. Now, y_1 is considered as a new input and [\(1\)](#page-1-1) is rewritten as follows:

$$
\frac{dx_1}{dt} = f_1(x_1, i, u_1, v, y_1) \n\frac{di}{dt} = g_1(x_1, i, u_1, v, y_1) \nm_1 = q_1(x_1, i, u_1, v)
$$
\n(3)

Around the steady-state operating point (x_1^0, i^0, v^0, y_1^0) , the following small-signal model is obtained:

$$
\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \Delta i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_4 & A_3 \\ A_2 & A_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \Delta i \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} B_2 \\ B_1 \end{bmatrix} \Delta u_1 \n+ \begin{bmatrix} C_2 \\ C_1 \end{bmatrix} \Delta v + \begin{bmatrix} G_2 \\ G_1 \end{bmatrix} \Delta y_1 \n\Delta m_1 = H_2 \Delta x_1 + H_1 \Delta i + F \Delta v + D \Delta u_1 \n\Delta Y_1(s) = G_d(s) \Delta M_1(s)
$$
\n(4)

The involved matrices are computed using a forward finite-difference approach [40] column-by-column, e.g., the i^{th} column of A_4 is obtained as follows:

$$
A_4^i \approx \frac{f_1(x_1^0 + \epsilon I_n^i, i^0, u_1^0, v^0, y_1^0) - f_1(x_1^0, i^0, u_1^0, v^0, y_1^2)}{\epsilon}
$$
\n(5)

The assumed dimensions of the variables are $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $u_1 \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and $v, i, m_1, y_1 \in \mathbb{R}^2$; I_n^i is the *i*th column of an identity matrix of dimension *n*, and ϵ is a small perturbation parameter. This system can be seen as an hybrid one, where the involved matrices are numerically computed, whereas the delay $G_d(s) = e^{-T_s s}$ is analytically included. From a small-signal perspective, the source subsystem can be thought as either a Thévenin or Norton equivalent. If the former is

FIGURE 2. Test case: Two inverters connected to the grid.

FIGURE 3. Controls of the power electronic converters.

selected to represent the source subsystem, this can be written as:

$$
\mathbf{K}_s \Delta \mathbf{U}_1(s) = \mathbf{Z}_s(s) \Delta \mathbf{I}(s) + \Delta \mathbf{V}(s) \tag{6}
$$

where K_s , Z_s are obtained if the state-space model and the algebraic equation in [\(4\)](#page-2-1) are changed into the frequency domain, and then algebraic manipulations are done using these terms together with the relationship between ΔY_1 and ΔM_1 . This results in:

$$
K = (A_2 + G_1e^{-T_{s}s}H_2)(sI_n - A_4 - G_2e^{-T_{s}s}H_2)^{-1}
$$

\n
$$
P = -\left[C_1 + G_1e^{-T_{s}s}F + K(C_2 + G_2e^{-T_{s}s}F)\right]^{-1}
$$

\n
$$
Z_s = P\left[sI_2 - A_1 - G_1e^{-T_{s}s}H_1 - K(A_3 + G_2e^{-T_{s}s}H_1)\right]
$$

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FIGURE 4. Impedance models computed with the FDIM-A (**–**), analytic (**- -**) and perturbation (·) approaches: weak grid.

$$
\boldsymbol{K}_{s} = \boldsymbol{P} \left[\boldsymbol{B}_{1} + \boldsymbol{G}_{1} e^{-T_{s} s} \boldsymbol{D} + \boldsymbol{K} (\boldsymbol{B}_{2} + \boldsymbol{G}_{2} e^{-T_{s} s} \boldsymbol{D}) \right] \tag{7}
$$

where, I_n and I_2 are identity matrices of dimension *n* and 2, respectively; for brevity, the argument*s*is omitted. In the case of the load subsystem, a similar derivation can be obtained, it is assumed that its large-signal model is given as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\frac{di}{dt} &= g_2(x_2, i, u_2, v, y_2) \\
\frac{dx_2}{dt} &= f_2(x_2, i, u_2, v, y_2) \\
m_2 &= q_2(x_2, i, u_2, v)\n\end{aligned}
$$
(8)

And the delayed relationship is $Y_2(s) = G_d(s)M_2(s)$, where the delay function $G_d(s)$ can have different delay values of those in the source subsystem. The small-signal model is similarly derived, and a Thévenin equivalent is also selected to represent the load susbsystem:

$$
\Delta V(s) = Z_l(s)\Delta I(s) + K_l \Delta U_2(s)
$$
\n(9)

The matrices are computed as follows:

$$
\mathbf{K} = (A_2 + G_1 e^{-T_s s} \mathbf{H}_2)(s \mathbf{I}_n - A_4 - G_2 e^{-T_s s} \mathbf{H}_2)^{-1}
$$

FIGURE 5. Impedance models computed with the FDIM-A (**–**) and the analytic (**- -**) approaches: stiff grid.

$$
P = \left[C_1 + G_1e^{-T_s s}F + K(C_2 + G_2e^{-T_s s}F)\right]^{-1}
$$

\n
$$
Z_l = P\left[sI_2 - A_1 - G_1e^{-T_s s}H_1 - K(A_3 + G_2e^{-T_s s}H_1)\right]
$$

\n
$$
K_l = -P\left[B_1 + G_1e^{-T_s s}D + K(B_2 + G_2e^{-T_s s}D)\right]
$$
 (10)

These expressions lead to the small-signal model regardless of the type of control strategy or system size.

III. VALIDATION OF THE PROPOSAL

The test case shown in Figure [2](#page-2-2) is used to illustrate the proposal. It consists of two power converters interconnected to a grid equivalent through transmission lines that are modeled with a PI equivalent, the system is operating in balanced conditions. The first converter has an LCL passive filter, whereas the second one has an RL filter. The control blocks of both converters are depicted in Figure [3,](#page-2-3) each VSC is based on typical decoupled current control in the rotating synchronous framework *dq*. The VSC-1 additionally has outer controls that regulate the DC-link voltage and the reactive power. A phase locked loop (PLL) is used to synchronize each converter, and the effect of the PWM and the digital implementation

FIGURE 6. Effect of bandwidth in stability: 1.667 krad/s **–**, 1.818 krad/s **–**, 2 krad/s **–**, 2.222 krad/s **–**, 2.5 krad/s **–**.

is represented by the exact delay transfer function. Now, the large-signal model is firstly presented, afterward the numerical linearization is carried out, and then the impedance model is obtained.

A. LARGE-SIGNAL MODEL

A general frame is used to model all the system elements (this is denoted with capital letters *DQ*), besides there are other two frames oriented with the voltage at the point of common coupling (PCC) v_{pcc_1} and v_{pcc_2} (these are denoted with lowercase dq). The PLL gives either the angle δ_1 or δ_2 . The knowledge of these angles permits synchronizing each power converter and so, the control strategies can be developed. The change between any of the two frames and the general one can be done using the rotation matrix [41]:

$$
C(\delta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\delta) & \sin(\delta) \\ -\sin(\delta) & \cos(\delta) \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (11)

It is worth noting that, due to that the natural framework of the system is into the abc domain, this has to be referred into the *DQ* frame. This change is accomplished using the Park

FIGURE 7. Effect of delay in stability: 198.4 µs **–**, 220 µs **–**, 240 µs **–**, 260 µs **–**.

transform:

$$
T(\theta) = \frac{2}{3} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & \cos\left(\theta - \frac{2\pi}{3}\right) & \cos\left(\theta + \frac{2\pi}{3}\right) \\ -\sin(\theta) & -\sin\left(\theta - \frac{2\pi}{3}\right) & -\sin\left(\theta + \frac{2\pi}{3}\right) \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}
$$
(12)

where $\theta = \omega_0 t$, being ω_0 the nominal frequency. To study this system, the point of interface between both subsystems is selected at the PCC of the voltage source converter 1 (VSC-1), i.e., v_{pcc_1} . Hence, the VSC-1, its controls and the LCL filter are taken as the source subsystem, while the rest of elements are part of the load subsystem. Figure [3](#page-2-3) shows the delays represented without rational approximations in both VSCs. First, the state variables of each subsystem are defined according to [\(3\)](#page-2-4). Then, we have x_1 = $\left[v_{dc_1} \delta_1 x_{pll_1} x_{d_1} x_{q_1} x_{p_1} x_{Q_1} x_{c_1} v_{f_1} \right]^T$, and i_{c_1} = $\left[i_{c_{1_D}} i_{c_{1_Q}}\right]^T$, $v_{f_1} = \left[v_{f_{1_D}} v_{f_{1_Q}}\right]^T$. The current and voltage in the interface point (in this case results that the interface point is the same that the PCC of VSC-1) are $i_{DQ} = \left[i_{f_{1D}} \hat{i_{f_{1Q}}} \right]^T$, $v_{DQ} = \left[v_{pcc_1} \, v_{pcc_1} \right]^T$, respectively; the control references

are $u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} v_{dc}^* & Q^* \end{bmatrix}^T$. The vector x_1 contains the integral terms of the proportional integral (pi) controls, the angle phase computed by the PLL, the DC-link voltage and the current and voltage in the LCL filter. The dynamical model in per unit (p.u.) of the source subsystem is as follows: (13), as shown at the bottom of the page, where the most of the variables can be found in Figure [3.](#page-2-3) Term ω_b is the base frequency, $\hat{\omega}_0$ is the nominal frequency in p.u., and $L_{eq_1} = L_{c_1} + L_{f_{a_1}}$. Due to $i_{c_{1_{dq}}}$, $v_{pcc_{1_{dq}}}$ and y_{DQ_1} are computed using the rotation matrix (11) (see Figure [3\)](#page-2-3), these terms contain nonlinearities that are implicitly in the large-signal model. The voltage v_{pcc_1} is an algebraic variable; however, considering a system with a capacitor in the interface point, this can be a state variable. On the other hand, the large-signal model for the load subsystem is given in [\(14\)](#page-6-0), as shown at the bottom of the next page.

B. SMALL-SIGNAL IMPEDANCE MODEL

The parameters of the balanced system are given in Table [1](#page-8-0) (the meaning of each parameter is given in the Appendix A) referred to base values of 0.8 MVA, 0.69 kV and 60 Hz; the A-phase of the voltage v_{th} is $1.02 \cos(\omega_0 t + 0.11)$ p.u. The results are shown in Figure [4,](#page-3-0) where the impedance magnitude of both subsystems (in the range 10 Hz-10 kHz) computed with the finite-difference-impedance method with analytical extension (FDIM-A) approach is compared against the perturbation approach whose simulations are carried out in SIMULINK/MATLAB, and analytic expressions (that are given in the Appendix B). The three approaches give similar results and they almost overlap each other, and this permits to validate the proposal. As seen from Table [1,](#page-8-0) the impedance of the equivalent grid gives a short-circuit ratio (SCR) of 4.5, so this grid is almost weak [42]. Now, it will be considered another operative scenario with a stronger grid with

SCR=18 but the same X/R relation. This time, the impedance models are just computed using the analytic and the FDIM-A; the results in Figure [5](#page-3-1) show that Z_s is less affected by the impedance of the grid; however, some changes are seen in the main diagonal elements. On the other hand, the grid impedance impacts more the characteristic of the load impedance Z_l ; the off-diagonal elements seen in Figure [5-](#page-3-1)(b) have a smaller magnitude in low frequencies compared to [4-](#page-3-0)(b), moreover, the resonance peaks have bigger values. Regarding to the main diagonal elements, the changes are notable in low frequencies. These results confirm that the proposal correctly identifies weak or stiff systems.

C. NYQUIST STABILITY ANALYSIS

Checking the stability is a major concern because the system can be undergone to parametric changes. Therefore, is vital to understand how these changes impact in the stable behavior of the system. This task is generally carried out using the generalized Nyquist stability criterion (GNSC) [43]; with the traces of the eigenvalues $\lambda_1(j\omega)$ and $\lambda_2(j\omega)$ of the open-loop gain $L(j\omega) = Z_l(j\omega)Z_s^{-1}(j\omega)$. To verify that the FDIM-A is able to retain the stability properties of the system, it is assessed the sensitivity of the system to changes in the gains of the inner-loop control. The bandwidth of the current control in VSC-2 is varied to find its effect in the stability. The traces of λ_1 and λ_2 are shown in Figure [6](#page-4-1) using the FDIM-A. Initially, the control is tuned to have a bandwidth of 1.667 krad/s and neither λ_1 nor λ_2 encircles the critical point (-1,0). As the bandwidth increases the traces of λ_1 get closer and closer, and eventually, with a bandwidth of 2.5 krad/s the (-1,0) point is encircled. The system is unstable, and the unstable oscillations are found around 84.988 Hz.

$$
\begin{bmatrix}\nv_{dc_1} \\
\delta_1 \\
x_{pll_1} \\
x_{d1} \\
x_{q1} \\
\delta_{l} \\
x_{p1} \\
\delta_{l} \\
x_{p2} \\
\delta_{l} \\
\delta_{l} \\
x_{p1} \\
\delta_{l} \\
x_{p2} \\
\delta_{l} \\
\delta
$$

(13)

On the other hand, the stability of the scenario with a stiff grid is also assessed. Reducing the bandwidth of the current control in VSC-2 to the value of 1.667 krad/s does not cause instability. So, this time it will be tested the impact of the delay in VSC-2. Initially, $T_{d2} = 198.4 \ \mu s$ and neither λ_1 nor λ_2 encircle the critical point. Afterward, the delay increases and the Nyquist traces of λ_1 and λ_2 are shown in Figure [7.](#page-4-2) Checking the trace of λ_1 , is seen that the system loses stability for a delay of $260 \mu s$, expecting that the frequency of the unstable oscillations be around of 973.7 Hz.

Time-domain simulations using the nonlinear model are carried out with SIMULINK to reinforce the outcomes obtained with the FDIM-A. Figure [8](#page-6-1) shows that increasing the bandwidth of current control in VSC-2 the system effectively causes oscillations of 85.22 Hz; Regarding to the delay, in Figure [9](#page-7-0) is seen that a value of 260 μs drives the system to present oscillations of 970 Hz. Both Figures match with high accuracy regarding to the results of the proposal, so this confirms that the FDIM-A retains the stability properties of the system, and can be trustfully used in small-signal studies.

D. NUMERICAL LAPLACE TRANSFORM STABILITY ANALYSIS

An alternative approach for assessing stability is to get the time-domian waveforms of the system from the impedances

$$
\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} i_{f_{1D}} \\ i_{f_{1Q}} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\omega_b}{L_{g_1}} \begin{bmatrix} v_{pcc_{1D}} - R_{g_1} i_{f_{1Q}} - \hat{\omega}_0 L_{g_1} i_{f_{1Q}} - v_{\pi_{1D}} \\ v_{pcc_{1Q}} - R_{g_1} i_{f_{1Q}} - \hat{\omega}_0 L_{g_1} i_{f_{1D}} v_{\pi_{1Q}} \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\begin{bmatrix} v_{\pi_{1D}} \\ v_{\pi_{1Q}} \\ i_{\pi_{1D}} \\ i_{\pi_{1D}} \\ i_{\pi_{1D}} \\ i_{\pi_{1D}} \\ i_{\pi_{1D}} \\ i_{\pi_{1D}} \\ e_{\pi_{1D}} \\ e_{\pi_{1D}} \\ e_{\pi_{1D}} \\ i_{\pi_{2D}} \\ \delta_2 \\ \delta_1 \\ \delta_2 \\ \delta_3 \\ \delta_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (2\omega_b/C_{\pi_1})(i_{f_{1D}} - i_{\pi_{1D}} - \hat{\omega}_0 (C_{\pi_1}/2)v_{\pi_{1D}}) \\ (2\omega_b/L_{\pi_1})(v_{\pi_{1D}} - R_{\pi_1} i_{\pi_{1D}} - \hat{\omega}_0 L_{\pi_1} i_{\pi_{1D}} - e_{\pi_{1D}}) \\ (2\omega_b/L_{\pi_1})(i_{\pi_{1D}} - i_{\pi_{1D}} + i_{g_{0}} - \hat{\omega}_0 C_{\pi_1}/2)e_{\pi_{1D}}) \\ (2\omega_b/C_{\pi_1})(i_{\pi_{1D}} - i_{\pi_{1D}} + i_{g_{0}} + \hat{\omega}_0 (C_{\pi_1}/2)e_{\pi_{1D}}) \\ i_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ i_{\pi_{2D}} \\ i_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{2D}} \\ e_{\pi_{
$$

(14)

FIGURE 9. Response of i_{f_1} to a step change in $I_{q_2}^*$ for several delays.

FIGURE 10. Small-signal equivalent electric circuit of the test case.

 $Z_s(s)$ and $Z_l(s)$ instead of resorting to software such as PSCAD, EMTP-RV or SIMULINK, among others. The conversion from frequency domain to time domain can be conducted through the numerical Laplace transform (NLT) [44], [45], [46], which is a useful tool in the electromagnetic transient (EMT) community, that allows benefits such as accuracy, simplicity and numerical efficiency.

From a small-signal perspective, the test system is represented as Figure [10](#page-7-1) indicates, using Thévenin equivalents from both subsystems. The voltage sources represent small perturbations (such as small changes in control references) that can occur in each subsystem. Then, the current or the voltage in the PCC can be computed using basic electric circuit laws. Applying the Kirchhoff's second law to the circuit in Figure [10,](#page-7-1) leads to the following equation:

$$
-K_s \Delta U_1(s) + [Z_s(s) + Z_l(s)] \Delta I(s) + K_l \Delta U_2(s) = 0
$$
\n(15)

and the current is easily obtained as follows:

$$
\Delta \boldsymbol{I}(s) = \left[\boldsymbol{Z}_s(s) + \boldsymbol{Z}_l(s)\right]^{-1} \left[\boldsymbol{K}_s \Delta \boldsymbol{U}_1(s) - \boldsymbol{K}_l \Delta \boldsymbol{U}_2(s)\right]
$$
\n(16)

To demonstrate the effectiveness of the NLT, the small-signal model [\(16\)](#page-7-2) is solved considering just an occurrence of a slight change of reference in Q^* from 0.1 to 0.11 p.u. This is represented with $\Delta U_1(s) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0.01/s \end{bmatrix}^T$ and setting $\Delta U_2(s) =$ 0. The NLT is compared against SIMULINK in Figure [11,](#page-7-3) where the variable $i_{f1_D} = \Delta i_{f1_D} + i_{f1_D}^0$ is simulated for several bandwidths. Initially, the system is operating in an stable

FIGURE 11. Current i_{f_1} **FIGURE 11.** Current H_{1_D} using NLI – and SIMULINK \cdots . Bandwide (a) 1.667 krad/s, (b) 1.818 krad/s, (c) 2.0 krad/s, (d) 2.222 krad/s, using NLT - and SIMULINK · · · · Bandwidths: (e) 2.5 krad/s.

condition; eventually, when the bandwidth is 2.5 krad/s the system presents growing oscillations that are well replicated by the generalized Nyquist stability criterion. The NLT in this case is a useful tool for visualizing the dynamic behavior of the system along with its steady state and also to evaluate the stability as an alternative and complement to Nyquist and Bode diagrams; providing truly waveforms of variables, but with less computational burden in comparison to EMTsoftware. Moreover, using the NLT to assess the stability does not need to count the encirclements around the point $(-1,0)$ by the Nyquist diagrams. This task can be very difficult, especially when the Nyquist diagrams are complicated draws. This is more notorious in cases where the impedance of any subsystem has several resonance peaks, such as those systems where the long lines models are incorporated into the analysis to take into account the high frequency effects of these elements [44].

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented an improvement to the finitedifference-impedance method, which permits incorporating the pure delay effect into the impedance model without rational approximations. The method is entirely numerical

TABLE 1. Parameters of the test case.

oriented, and the only analytic term is related to the exponential term; therefore, the proposal helps to reduce the tedious task of deriving small-signal impedance models of power electronics, especially when larger systems are of interest. The correctness of the method was verified using the traditional analytic and perturbation approaches. Moreover, the NLT was also used to obtain the time-domain response and corroborate the results. The stability assessment showed that the proposal can provide precise and fast information related to oscillatory issues in power electronics-dominated power systems.

APPENDIX

A. SYMBOLS DEFINITION

The meaning of each symbol shown in Table [1](#page-8-0) is provided here. Where the *x* stands, it relates to parameters of the VSC-1 $(x = 1)$ or VSC-2 $(x = 2)$.

- R_{c_x} : Resistance of the passive filter in the VSC-side.
- L_{c_x} : Inductance of the passive filter in the VSC-side.
- C_{f_1} : Capacitance of the passive filter in VSC-1.
- $R_{f_{a_x}}$: Resistance of the passive filter in the grid-side.
- $L_{f_{a_x}}$: Inductance of the passive filter in the grid-side.
- R_{g_x} : Resistance of the feeder.
- *Lg^x* : Inductance of the feeder.
- C_{π_x} : Capacitance of the PI equivalent line.
- R_{π_x} : Resistance of the PI equivalent line.
- L_{π_x} : Inductance of the PI equivalent line.
- $k_{p x_n}$: Proportional gain of the PLL.
- $k_{ix_{\text{all}}}$: Integral gain of the PLL.
- *kpx^d* : Proportional gain of the inner loop control for the *d*-current.
- *kix^d* : Integral gain of the inner loop control for the *d*-current.
- k_{pxq} : Proportional gain of the inner loop control for the *q*-current.
- k_{ixq} : Integral gain of the inner loop control for the *q*-current.
- T_{dx} : Time delay representing the digital implementation of control and PWM effect.
- k_{p_v} : Proportional gain of the outer inner control for the DC-voltage in VSC-1.
- k_{i_v} : Integral gain of the outer inner control for the DC-voltage in VSC-1.
- k_{pq} : Proportional gain of the outer inner control for the reactive power in VSC-1.
- k_{iQ} : Integral gain of the outer inner control for the reactive power in VSC-1.
- v_{dc}^* : Control reference of the DC-voltage in VSC-1.
- ϕ^* : Control reference of the reactive power in VSC-1.
- $I_{d_2}^*$: Control reference of the *d*-current in VSC-2.
- $I_{q_2}^*$: Control reference of the *q*-current in VSC-2.
- \hat{R}_{th} : Resistance of the grid equivalent.
- *L_{th}*: Inductance of the grid equivalent.

B. ANALYTIC IMPEDANCE MODELS

The models are given here, the steady-state value of variables is denoted with uppercase fonts and superindex 0.

• The impedance Z_s of the source subsystem is computed as follows:

$$
G_{pll} = \frac{\omega_b}{s} \left[0 \frac{k_{p1_{pll}}s + k_{i1_{pll}}}{s} \right]
$$

\n
$$
G_b = \left(1 - G_{pll} \frac{\partial C}{\partial \delta_1} \Big|_{\delta_1^0} V_{pcc_1}^0 \right)^{-1} G_{pll} C(\delta_1^0)
$$

\n
$$
K_i = \left[V_{pcc_1_Q}^0 - V_{pcc_1_D}^0 \right]
$$

\n
$$
K_v = \left[V_{pcc_1_Q}^0 - V_{pcc_1_D}^0 \right]
$$

\n
$$
C_{vd} = -\left[\frac{k_{p_1}s + k_{i_1}}{s} 0 \right]^T
$$

\n
$$
C_i = \left[\frac{k_{p1_d}s + k_{i_1d}}{s} \frac{0}{k_{p1_d}s + k_{i_1d}} \right]
$$

\n
$$
G_{dec} = \left[\frac{0}{\hat{\omega}_0 L_{eq_1}} \frac{\hat{\omega}_0 L_{eq_1}}{0} \right]
$$

\n
$$
A_1 = C_i C_q K_i + (G_{dec} - C_i) \frac{\partial C}{\partial \delta_1} \Big|_{\delta_1^0} I_{c_1}^0 G_b
$$

\n
$$
+ C(\delta_1^0) + \frac{\partial C}{\partial \delta_1} \Big|_{\delta_1^0} V_{pcc_1}^0 G_b
$$

\n
$$
G_{vpec} = \frac{e^{-T_{d_1}s}}{V_{dc_1}^0} C^{-1} (\delta_1^0) A_1 + \frac{\partial C^{-1}}{\partial \delta_1} \Big|_{\delta_1^0} Y_1^0 G_b
$$

\n
$$
G_{sdq} = I_2 + \frac{\omega_b e^{-T_{d_1}s}}{V_{dc_1}^0 C_{dc_1}s} C^{-1} (\delta_1^0) (C_i C_{vdc} - M_1^0) (I_{c_1}^0)^T
$$

\n
$$
A_2 = (G_{dec} - C_i) C(\delta_1^0)
$$

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$$
-\frac{\omega_b}{C_{dc_1}s}(C_iC_{vdc} - M_1^0)(Y_{DQ_1}^0)^T
$$

\n
$$
G_{ic1} = \frac{e^{-T_{d_1}s}}{V_{dc_1}^0}C^{-1}(\delta_1^0)A_2
$$

\n
$$
G_{if1} = \frac{e^{-T_{d_1}s}}{V_{dc_1}^0}C^{-1}(\delta_1^0)C_iC_qK_v
$$

\n
$$
H_{sdq} = V_{dc_1}^0I_{2\times 2} - \frac{\omega_b}{C_{dc_1s}}Y_{DQ_1}^0(I_{c_1}^0)^T
$$

\n
$$
Z_{c_1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{L_{c_1}}{\omega_b}s + R_{c_1} & -\hat{\omega}_0L_{c_1} \\ \hat{\omega}_0L_{c_1} & \frac{L_{c_1}}{\omega_b}s + R_{c_1} \end{bmatrix}
$$

\n
$$
Y_c = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{C_{f_1}}{\omega_b}s & -\hat{\omega}_0C_{f_1} \\ \hat{\omega}_0C_{f_1} & \frac{C_{f_1}}{\omega_b}s \end{bmatrix}
$$

\n
$$
Z_{f_1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{L_{f_{al}}}{\omega_b}s + R_{f_{al}} & -\hat{\omega}_0L_{f_{al}} \\ \hat{\omega}_0L_{f_{al}} & \frac{L_{f_{al}}}{\omega_b}s + R_{f_{al}} \end{bmatrix}
$$

\n
$$
H_{ic1} = \frac{\omega_b}{C_{dc_1s}}Y_{DQ_1}^0(Y_{DQ_1}^0)^T + Z_{c_1}
$$

\n
$$
A_3 = H_{sdq} - (Y_c + H_{ic1}^{-1})^{-1}H_{ic1}^{-1}H_{sdq}
$$

\n
$$
T_1 = \begin{bmatrix} G_{sdq} - G_{ic1}H_{ic1}^{-1}A_3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}
$$

\n
$$
\times \begin{bmatrix} G_{if1} + G_{ic1}H_{ic1}^{-1}(Y_c + H_{ic1}^{-1})^{-1} \end{bmatrix}
$$

\n
$$
T_2 = \begin{bmatrix} G_{sdq} - G_{ic1}H_{ic1}^{-1}A_3 \end{bmatrix}
$$

• The impedance Z_l is computed as follows:

$$
C_i = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{k_{p2_d}s + k_{i2_d}}{s} & 0\\ 0 & \frac{k_{p2_q}s + k_{i2_q}}{s} \end{bmatrix}
$$

\n
$$
G_{dec} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\hat{\omega}_0 L_{c_2} \\ \hat{\omega}_0 L_{c_2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$

\n
$$
G_{pll} = \frac{\omega_b}{s} \left[0 \frac{k_{p2_{pll}}s + k_{i2_{pll}}}{s} \right]
$$

\n
$$
G_a = \left(1 - G_{pll} \frac{\partial C}{\partial \delta_1} \Big|_{\delta_2^0} V_{pcc_2}^0 \right)^{-1} G_{pll} C(\delta_2^0)
$$

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$$
\mathcal{B}_{1} = C^{-1}(\delta_{2}^{0})(-C_{i} + G_{dec}) \frac{\partial C}{\partial \delta_{1}}\Big|_{\delta_{2}^{0}} C_{2}G_{a}
$$
\n
$$
G_{b} = \frac{e^{-T_{d_{2}},s}}{V_{dc_{2}}} \mathcal{B}_{1} + \frac{\partial C^{-1}}{\partial \delta_{1}}\Big|_{\delta_{2}^{0}} Y_{2}^{0}G_{a}
$$
\n
$$
Z_{c_{2}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{L_{c_{2}}}{\omega_{b}}s + R_{c_{2}} & -\hat{\omega}_{0}L_{c_{2}}\\ \hat{\omega}_{0}L_{c_{2}} & \frac{L_{c_{2}}}{\omega_{b}}s + R_{c_{2}} \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\mathcal{B}_{2} = e^{-T_{d_{2}},s}C^{-1}(\delta_{2}^{0})(-C_{i} + G_{dec})C(\delta_{2}^{0})
$$
\n
$$
Z_{conv_{2}} = (I_{2} - V_{dc_{2}}G_{b})^{-1} [Z_{c_{2}} - \mathcal{B}_{2}]
$$
\n
$$
\mathcal{Z}_{f_{2}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{L_{f_{2}}}{\omega_{b}}s + R_{f_{i2}} & -\hat{\omega}_{0}L_{f_{i2}}\\ \hat{\omega}_{0}L_{f_{i2}} & \frac{L_{f_{i2}}}{\omega_{b}}s + R_{f_{i2}} \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\mathcal{Y}_{2_{a}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{C_{\pi_{2}}}{\omega_{b}}s - \hat{\omega}_{0}C_{\pi_{2}}\\ \hat{\omega}_{0}C_{\pi_{2}} & \frac{C_{\pi_{2}}}{\omega_{b}}s \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\mathcal{Y}_{2_{a}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{C_{\pi_{2}}}{\omega_{b}}s - \hat{\omega}_{0}C_{\pi_{2}}\\ \hat{\omega}_{0}L_{\pi_{2}} & \frac{C_{\pi_{2}}}{\omega_{b}}s \end{bmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
\mathcal{Y}_{2_{b}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{C_{\pi_{2}}}{\omega_{b}}s - \hat{\omega}_{0}C_{\pi_{2}}\\ \hat{\omega}_{0}L_{\pi_{2}} & \frac
$$

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