



Universal Passive Synchronization Method for Grid-Forming Inverters Without Mode Transition

Preprint

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Universal Passive Synchronization Method for Grid-Forming Inverters Without Mode Transition

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Abstract—Power systems are transforming with increasing levels of inverter-based resources (IBRs). This transformation requires critical roles of grid-forming (GFM) inverters replacing synchronous generators for bulk power system stabilization and ancillary services, also allowing flexible power system operation, such as microgrid that is operated by multiple GFM IBRs to achieve system resilience against contingencies. To realize the resilient power systems allowing flexible in-and-out operation of GFM IBRs potentially programmed with different primary controls, a synchronization method universally applicable, i.e., independent of control types, would be beneficial to ease the integration process, but it has not been actively studied. To fill the gap, this paper proposes a universal synchronization method that achieves a passive synchronization to enable a smooth transition in a grid with off-nominal system parameters, i.e., voltage and frequency. The logic proposed requires no modification on the primary control, thus applicable to any type of GFMs with a voltage reference input. To validate the concept, a simulation of an IEEE 13-bus benchmark system modified with 3 GFM inverters is presented. It simulates an inverter-driven black start scenario in which GFM inverters autonomously turn on and connect to the grid under heavy loading, using the synchronization logic. The case study demonstrates that GFM inverters can tune their voltage reference to smoothly synchronize without severe transients, and contribute to a seamless black start of the grid under unbalanced load conditions. Two GFM methods—Droop and dispatchable virtual oscillator control—are used for the demo to validate feasibility and interoperability of the passive synchronization.

Index Terms—Inverter synchronization, grid-forming inverter, inverter-based resources, passive synchronization, black start.

I. INTRODUCTION

Today’s electric grid is shifting towards increased generation from solar, wind, batteries, and more. These sources, also known as inverter-based resources (IBR), are connected to the power system with power electronic inverters rather than traditional large synchronous generators. The majority of inverters in today’s grid are grid-following (GFL); they employ a phase-locked loop (PLL) to latch onto a well-defined stiff grid voltage and act as a current

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source. Therefore, in general, they are not capable of regulating voltage or frequency. As a result, they cannot inject power into the grid if no reliable external voltage reference exists. Grid-forming inverters (GFM), on the other hand, act as a voltage source. Based on the loading conditions, GFM inverters maintain the grid frequency and voltage, achieving power sharing between sources [1], [2]. As such, GFM inverters will be paramount to creating a flexible and resilient grid as the proliferation of IBRs increases.

With the transition to relying on IBRs to restore and form a stable grid, the control strategy for synchronizing GFM inverters before they get connected to the grid, is a critical research question for a number of reasons. First, the synchronization timing—the moment at which the GFM’s circuit breaker is closed and the GFM is connected to the grid—will determine the short-time scale power flow between the inverter and the grid [3], [4]. This momentary power flow is inevitable, since it is faster than the inverter control dynamics, but it can be controlled based on the timing of closing the circuit breaker. Second, significant transients resulting from ineffective IBR synchronization may lead to system instability by forcing IBRs to experience extreme conditions that can saturate control loops and cause unexpected, destabilizing dynamic behavior [5], [6]. Third, the low short circuit ratio of IBRs, usually ranging in 1.1-1.5 p.u. compared to 6-10 p.u. of synchronous generators, translates into an increased risk of inverter tripping or early failure degrading reliability from repeated excursion to the out-of-range operations [7].

There are currently several synchronization methods found in literature. Introduced in [8], the synchronization method would work for all different types of GFM and GFL controls since the relay operation only uses local measurements and does not manipulate any signal in the IBRs. The architecture may not work, however, in a grid with off-nominal voltages as the voltage error does not reach an acceptable level (discussed more in Section II-B). Lu, in [9], proposed a synchronization method fully integrated in a virtual oscillator control (VOC) GFM. This method creates minimal transients as it allows the VOC to fully track the grid voltage before grid connection, but since the synchronization is embedded into the oscillator operation, it is not straightforward to extend it to other

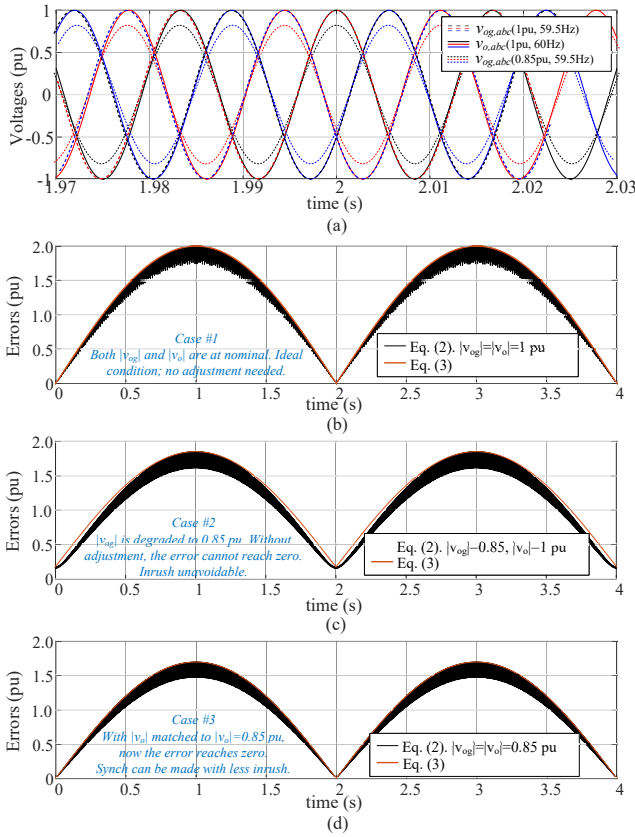


Fig. 2: Inverter and grid voltage and voltage error signals with and without voltage reference tuning when the grid voltage is degraded to 0.85 p.u. The grid is assumed at 59.5 Hz and the inverter at 60 Hz in this example: (a) three-phase voltage signals in different conditions around the zero error, (b) voltage error signal, κ_v with nominal voltages, i.e., $|v_{og}| = |v_o| = 1$ p.u. (c) error signal with degraded grid voltage without the proposed sync method, and (d) with the sync method.

from the other generators yielding a significant voltage deviation. With the method, GFM inverters can smoothly join the grid and contribute to improving the power quality. Control mode transition after grid connection is not required as the scaling input becomes zero once the inverter is connected to the grid, i.e., same potential. In case the two voltage signals (across the relay switch) are not available in the hardware, K_{synch} can be set to zero upon grid connection. In case the grid connection switches do not exist, i.e., inverter filters are always connected to the grid, the inverter modulation index signal can be used as a software switch, controlled by the method for the inverter start-up sequence [15].

B. Operation Principle of the Synchronization Method

This section discusses the operation of the synchronization method in detail with mathematical derivations. First, the two voltages (a-phase only shown), v_{og} and v_o can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{og,a} &= |V_{og}| \cos(2\pi f_g t) \\ v_{o,a} &= |V_o| \cos(2\pi f_{inv} t + \theta_0) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where f_g and f_{inv} are the frequency of the grid and inverter, respectively. Since the relay short-circuits the two voltages, the transient currents are functions of the instantaneous voltage differences in each phase. To avoid

detrimental inrush currents, the relays should close when the voltage differences are acceptable.

To identify the relay closing timing when the voltage differences are small, one can define a variable, voltage-difference factor, κ_v , to capture the three-phase voltage differences as (more details are found in [10], [16]):

$$\kappa_v = 0.5 (|v_{og,a} - v_{o,a}| + |v_{inv,b} - v_{o,b}| + |v_{og,c} - v_{o,c}|). \quad (2)$$

Fig. 2 displays three examples with different grid and inverter voltage conditions that clarify the need for a synchronization method. The cases are: 1) when $|v_{og}| = |v_o| = 1$ p.u., 2) when $|v_{og}| = 0.85$ and $|v_o| = 1$ p.u., and 3) $|v_{og}| = |v_o| = 0.85$ p.u., illustrated in Fig. 2(b)-(d), respectively. The grid and inverter frequencies are fixed at 59.5 Hz and 60 Hz, respectively. To obtain insights and derive design equations, the envelop of the error signal can be approximated as:

$$\kappa_v < (|V_{og}| + |V_o| - 2||V_{og}| - |V_o||) |\sin(\pi \Delta f t)| + |V_{og}| - |V_o|. \quad (3)$$

Note that the voltage error signals for the three cases, as indicated in (3) and displayed in Fig. 2(b)-(d), are periodic with the frequency of $\Delta f = |f_g - f_{inv}|$ with different magnitude and offsets. Also notable is that the error signal reaches zero only when the grid and inverter voltage magnitudes are equal, i.e., $|V_{og}| = |V_o|$, yielding (3) to:

$$\kappa_v < (|V_{og}| + |V_o|) |\sin(\pi \Delta f t)| \quad (4)$$

which justifies the voltage reference scaling in this study. In other words, if the voltages are not matched, inrush currents are inevitable. This confirms the benefit of tuning the voltage magnitude at the inverter matched to the grid to minimize the inrush current in the synchronization process.

Now, implementation of the method in different GFM controls is discussed. As mentioned, the method can be readily applied to any type of GFMs. In this study, three representative GFM methods are discussed: droop [17], [18], virtual synchronous machine [19], and dispatchable virtual oscillator control [15]. In case of droop, the voltage scaling can be integrated in the voltage droop, as illustrated in Fig. 1:

$$v_{d,droop}^* = v_{nom} + k_q(q^* - q) + \kappa_{synch}(|v_o| - |v_{og}|) \quad (5)$$

where $v_{d,droop}^*$ and v_{nom} are the resultant inverter voltage magnitude in steady state and the nominal voltage, and k_q is the voltage droop gain. As briefly discussed earlier, the adjustment term, $\kappa_{synch}(|v_o| - |v_{og}|)$, naturally becomes zero once the inverter is connected to a grid or κ_{synch} can be set zero if needed to avoid dynamic impact.

Similar to droop GFM, in dVOC GFM, the oscillator voltage reference v^* can be replaced by $v^* = v^* + \kappa_{synch}(|v_o| - |v_{og}|)$ that, in steady state, leads to:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{d,dvoc}^* \approx v_i^* + \frac{1}{\alpha(v_i^* + \kappa_{synch}(|v_o| - |v_{og}|))} (q^* - q) \\ + \kappa_{synch}(|v_o| - |v_{og}|). \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

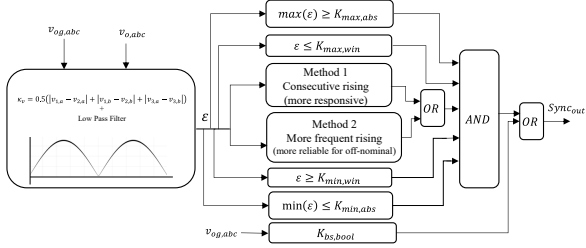


Fig. 3: Universal synchronization logic overview where ϵ is a low pass filtered error signal used for the logic. $K_{bs,boost}$ from $v_{og,abc}$ is used for the GFM that initiates the black start at zero grid voltage.

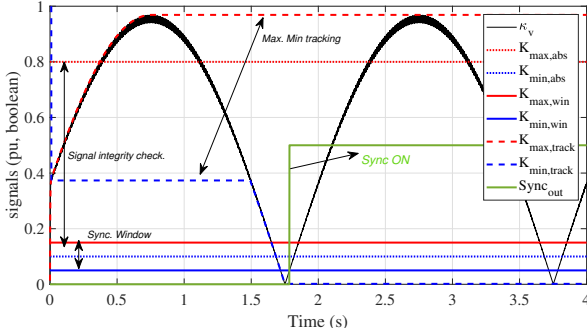


Fig. 4: Illustration of the synchronization logic operating under a grid voltage degraded at 0.5 p.u. with supplementary signals overlaid.

where $v_{d,dvoc}^*$ denotes the resultant inverter voltage magnitude and α is an oscillator coefficient to tune the reactive power droop and other dynamics [15]. As shown, it affects the effective reactive power droop gain as the voltage departs from the nominal, which underscores the importance of making sure the adjustment term disappears once the inverter is connected to the grid (which is naturally done by the proposed method).

For implementation in virtual synchronous machine GFM inverters, one can find the steady-state voltage equation:

$$v_{d,vsm}^* = v_{nom} + \frac{1}{D_q}(q^* - q) + \kappa_{synch}(|v_o| - |v_{og}|) \quad (7)$$

where $v_{d,vsm}^*$ is the scaled voltage magnitude and D_q is the equivalent voltage droop term.

C. Design Considerations for Universal Synchronization

To synchronize a GFM inverter to a preformed grid, the condition of the error signal is analysed as shown in Fig. 3. The parameters in Fig. 3 are each analyzed later in detail. Once the conditions are met, AND gated, the inverter relay will close. An example with an error signal and supplementary variables used is illustrated in Fig. 4. In this example, the grid has a frequency of 59.5 Hz while the inverter is operating at 60 Hz. The voltage magnitude of both the grid and inverter is set to 0.5 p.u., assuming the GFM voltage scaling is in place. The error signal shows two complete periods for illustration, but note that the error becomes zero once the relay closes. To avoid a significant inrush current, the voltage difference should be less than a certain value; the error signal should be close to zero at the switch closing.

In addition, note that the switch closing may facilitate the momentary power flow in a desired direction. For instance, the GFM inverter joining the grid—if supposed to share the system load with other GFMs—can be driven by controlling the switch closing timing to inject power into the grid during the transient. It may facilitate the system to settle smoothly to the new steady state. This can be realized by closing the relay when the error signal increases. As shown in Fig. 2, this ensures the voltages in the less loaded side (thus at higher frequency, i.e., inverter side in this example) are slightly leading the voltages in the other side, more loaded, (thus at lower frequency, i.e., grid side in this example). This forces the momentary power flow from the less loaded side to the more loaded side, same direction for the new steady state. More discussion can be found in [8]. In practice, one should account for the turn-on delay of the relay that may incur non-ideal transients, but that can likely be compensated for. Moreover, the momentary power exchange control with the relay close timing may not be guaranteed as the electrical distance between sources increases, as shown in Section III, which can be a future direction.

1) Key variables:

- Cutoff frequency of the low-pass filter to process the error signal. A low-pass filter is necessary to filter out 6th harmonic of the grid frequency in the error signal, i.e., 360 Hz in a 60 Hz grid, and other erroneous measurements from noise and computation. On the other hand, it must allow all signals of $2\pi\Delta f_{max}$ to pass through with acceptable attenuation and delay or a significant delay will occur. These two conditions indicate that: $2\pi\Delta f_{max} < f_{LPF} < 6\omega_{nom}$. Δf_{max} can be determined by frequency droop gains of GFM inverters. Based on these two considerations, the cutoff frequency of the low-pass filter is designed at 100 Hz, to avoid signal attenuation at $\Delta f_{max}=1.2$ Hz, i.e., to accommodate 2% droop, in the simulation shown in Section III. With this design choice, the 360 Hz ripple still impacts the signal, which necessitates additional signal processing as discussed hereafter.
- Counter value $K_{num,rises}$, to capture the rising edge. As mentioned, the relay should close shortly after the error signal passes the minimum and starts increasing [8], [16]. This parameter sets the number of calculated rises necessary for the relay switch to be turned on. A greater counter number makes the switching more reliable, but it may cause a delay, especially under noisy measurements. If the number is too large, then the enable signal will only turn on when the error becomes too large and the circuit breaker will not close as other conditions are not satisfied. Therefore, the design should consider the worst case that occurs when $\Delta f = \Delta f_{max}$ and the $V_1 = V_2 = V_{nom}$ in which the error signal will rise at the steepest slope. With a given sampling time of the measurement, T_s , the minimum number of samples (the worst case), N_{min} , can be calculated between

TABLE I: System Setup and GFM Inverter Parameters for Simulation.

Item	Design Selections
Baseline Load (MW, MVar)	$P_a = 1.16, P_b = 0.97, P_c = 1.14$ $Q_a = 0.61, Q_b = 0.63, Q_c = 0.75$
Transient at 5 s	3.6 MW at bus 671
Inverter Parameters	$P_{\text{rated}} = 3.6 \text{ MVA}, V_{\text{rated}} = 1000 \text{ V},$ $L_f = 0.04, R_f = 0.054, C_f = 0.1$ $L_g = 0.06, R_g = 0.005$
Droop GFM	$k_p = 0.03, k_q = 0.15, \omega_n = 2\pi \cdot 60 \text{ rad/sec}$
dVOC GFM	$\alpha = 14.4, \eta = 2.094$

*Quantities are in per unit if not specified.

the window of $K_{min,win}$ to $K_{max,win}$ which are discussed later:

$$K_{num,rises} \ll N_{min} = \frac{K_{max,win} - K_{min,win}}{2\pi \Delta f_{max} T_s} \quad (8)$$

- $K_{bool,rise}$. This parameter checks if the error signal is rising. Because of the 360 Hz ripple, a simple comparison between consecutive samples cannot be used. Instead, two complementary methods are used to detect whether the error signal is rising. One ignores the ripple by counting consecutive rises and ignoring a small number of consecutive falls caused by the 360 Hz ripple. Once there are a certain number of consecutive falls, then the signal is reset. The benefits of this method are that it can be readily implemented and it requires less calculations, but its performance degrades in conditions when the frequency differences (and the voltage magnitude) are small, leading to the flattened slope of error signal, which necessitates a complementary method. The other method measures the numeric amount the signal rises and the amount it falls in each ripple. If it rose more than it fell for a given ripple, then the period is classified as rising. This method requires more calculations and it performs well at degraded voltages and small frequency differences. These two logics are *OR* gated and yields $K_{bool,rise}$, as illustrated in Fig. 3.
- $K_{bs,bool}$. This Boolean signal will override all other parameters to allow a black start. When no voltage exists in the grid side, a GFM inverter should establish the voltage on the grid. In case there are multiple black-start capable GFM inverter units, additional intelligence can be implemented to organize the restoration process, e.g., programming a turn-on delay inversely proportional to the inverter capability to eliminate or minimize the need for communication [10]. If it detects that the signal has been under a threshold for a preset amount of time, the GFM inverter will automatically turn on as illustrated in Fig.3.

2) Supplementary Variables:

- $K_{max,abs}$: This absolute error value is programmed considering the maximum voltage deviation of $|v_{og}|$

 TABLE II: Sync Logic Parameters Used in Simulation with $T_s = 125 \mu s$.

Item	Design Selections
$K_{num,rises}$	38
$K_{bs,bool}$	16000
$K_{max,abs}$	1.6
$K_{min,abs}$	0.05
$K_{max,win}$	0.01
$K_{min,win}$	0.12

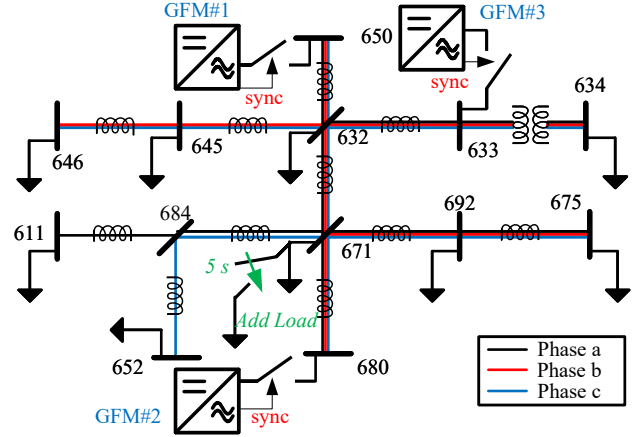


Fig. 5: Modified IEEE 13-bus system with 3 GFM inverters: GFM #1&2 with droop and GFM #3 with dVOC GFM to test the proposed universal synchronization logic and interoperability.

acceptable from the nominal voltage. $\max(\epsilon) > K_{max,abs}$ yields a high signal. $\max(\epsilon)$ is initialized at 0 p.u. and tracks the maximum of the error signal. This parameter ensures that the signal is reasonable and that at least half of a cycle has passed before the relay closes, i.e., to avoid a premature switching.

- $K_{min,abs}$: This absolute error value is programmed considering the maximum mismatch between $|v_{og}|$ and $|v_o|$ to be acceptable. $\min(\epsilon) < K_{min,abs}$ yields a high signal. $\min(\epsilon)$ is initialized at 2 p.u. and tracks the minimum of the error signal. Similar to $K_{max,abs}$, this parameter ensures that the signal is reasonable and that at least half of a cycle has passed before relay closing. It will also serve as a check to ensure that the magnitudes of the two voltage signals are close enough, which may be used for tuning.
- $K_{max,win}$ and $K_{min,win}$: These two preset variables form a switch close window as illustrated in Fig. 4. $K_{max,win}$ sets the maximum error value that allows the relay turn on; $\epsilon < K_{max,win}$ yields a high signal. This ensures that the inverter relay is not turned on too late which may yield a detrimental inrush current. $K_{min,win}$ sets the minimum error value for switch turn on; $\epsilon > K_{min,win}$ yields a high signal. This variable also serves a similar function as $K_{num,rises}$ but acts as a secondary security measure; it ensures that the breaker is not closed too early.

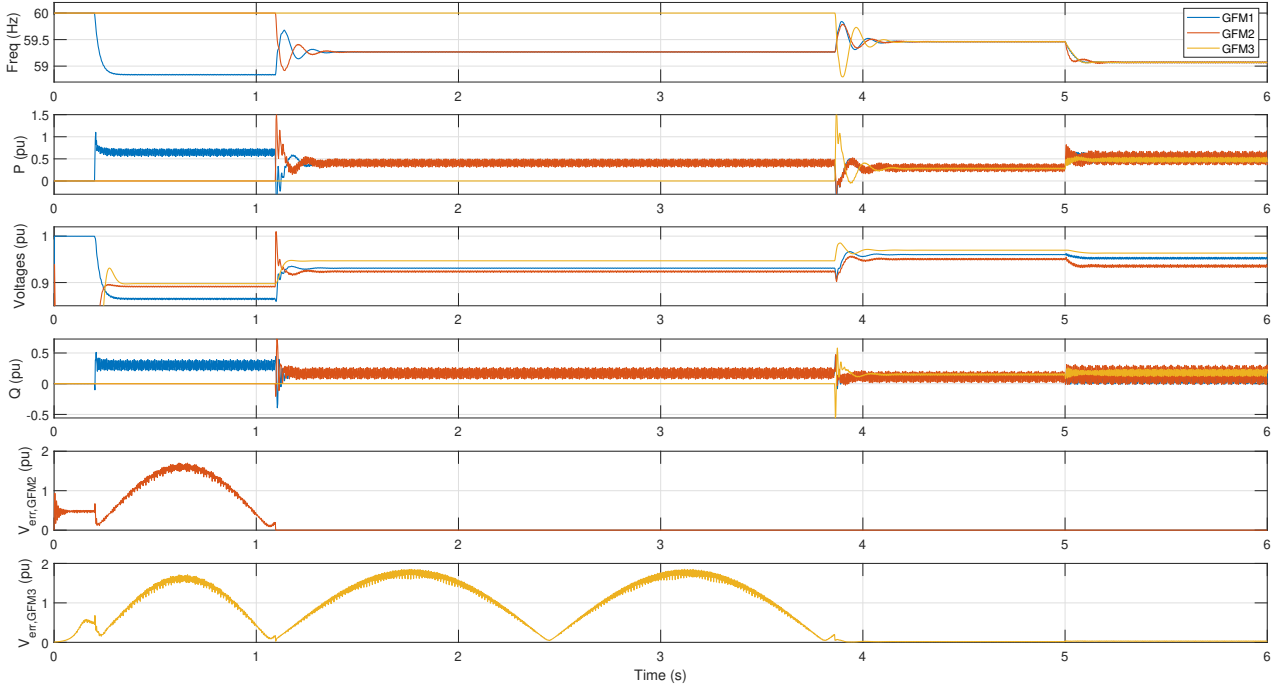


Fig. 6: Entire black-start simulation result with 3 GFM inverters and the proposed synchronization logic: from the top, frequencies of all 3 GFM inverters, active powers, rms voltages, reactive powers, filtered voltage error signal in GFM #2, and voltage error signal in GFM #3.

III. SIMULATION RESULTS

To validate the universal GFM synchronization concept, this section presents simulation results. For the simulation, the IEEE 13-bus benchmark system has been modified to have three GFM inverters, GFM #1-3, connected to bus 650, 680, and 633, respectively. Fig. 5 illustrates the test system. To emulate a black start scenario in a microgrid setup, the voltage source at the substation has been removed and the three GFM inverters collectively black start the system from the zero voltage. System baseline loading is the same with the original model representing an unbalanced distribution system, as shown in Table I. Combination of the distributed GFM inverters and the unbalanced system loading will demonstrate the GFM control and system dynamic behavior under non-ideal conditions. After all three GFM inverters involved in the process of bringing the system parameters near nominal with the baseline load, an active power load transient occurs at bus 671 at $t=5$ s which emulates additional load pick up.

GFM inverters are equipped with the synchronization logic proposed with the parameters specified in Table II. Arbitrary start-up delays (to activate the logic) have been programmed to emulate an autonomous black start process based on the logic. To validate the universal application of the logic as discussed in Section II-B, GFM #1&2 employ droop and GFM #3 dVOC. Inverter parameters are tabulated in Table I. Inner control loops are not implemented for this evaluation. Notable are the voltage droop gains for GFM inverters. To evaluate the performance of the universal synchronization under degraded voltage conditions, a relatively high, 15% of voltage droop is

adopted in this study, which would result in large voltage deviations from the nominal. GFM synchronization under off-nominal conditions is important because i) GFM inverters are the foundation to stabilize the high IBR penetration grid with reduced system inertia, so their robust synchronization is paramount, and ii) it would improve the resilience of the grid by unlocking potential use cases, including inverter-driven black start that may experience severe voltage degradation due to lacking capacity that requires additional GFM units to join to fully establish the grid.

Fig. 6 displays the simulation result. GFM #1, programmed with shortest activation delay, initiates the black start in the zero voltage grid. Due to the loading, the system voltage settles at an off-nominal value. Oscillations in active and reactive power are observed due to the unbalanced loading and positive-sequence-based control. Once the grid voltage established by GFM #1, the synchronization logic of GFM #2&3 start tracking the voltage error. Around $t=1.1$ s, GFM #2 turns on when the instantaneous voltage differences are acceptable while GFM #3 keeps tracking the signal since it is not activated yet. After connecting to the grid, the two GFM inverters redistribute the system loading, increasing the system voltage further. Activated afterwards, GFM #3, programmed with dVOC, also joins the grid around $t=3.8$ s, leading the system to a new steady state with increased voltage and frequency nearer to the nominal. It demonstrates the universal synchronization applicable to different GFMs and interoperability. At $t=5$ s, a 3.6 MW load is added to the system to emulate additional load pick up. All three GFM inverters collectively regulate the grid by sharing the

additional load. It completes the black start scenario.

IV. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This paper has presented a universal synchronization method that is applicable to any GFM inverter with a voltage reference input without affecting the control dynamics. Since the effect of the method naturally disappears once the GFM is grid connected, no mode transition is required. The concept has been validated by the simulation of the IEEE 13-bus system with three GFM inverters, each programmed with droop or dVOC. It demonstrates that GFM inverters can synchronize to the grid under off-nominal conditions by matching the inverter terminal voltage to the grid, which will facilitate the future research and development for inverter-driven black start with multiple GFM inverters for a large system baseline load and GFM inverter's fault behavior study and improvement. This study can also be extended i) to test more types of GFMs, including virtual synchronous machine and matching control, ii) to involve inner control loops and current limit functions to relate overloading and fault conditions, and iii) to conduct experimental verification for field deployment.

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