



Systems that exhibit such behaviour are known as *hybrid* or *piece-wise smooth* dynamical systems. Power systems exemplify such systems. Referring to the AVR/PSS of Figure 1, an event occurs when  $V_{PSS}$  or  $E_{fd}$  encounters a limit. The outcome of such an event is a change in the description of subsequent system behaviour.

Along smooth sections of the flow, away from events, dynamics are driven by the tangent vector field

$$\dot{x} = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \equiv f. \quad (2)$$

At an event, the tangent vector field  $f$  may switch and/or the state undergo a reset

$$x^+ = h(x^-), \quad (3)$$

where  $x^-$  and  $x^+$  refer to the pre- and post-event values of  $x$  respectively. (The event is assumed to take zero time.)

For power systems, the dynamic states must generally satisfy algebraic constraints,

$$g(x, y) = 0 \quad (4)$$

that introduce algebraic variables  $y$ . However it will be assumed that the Jacobian  $D_y g$  is globally nonsingular, effectively allowing the elimination of  $y$ . Therefore, for notational clarity, (4) will be disregarded in later analysis.

This model is a simplification of a more complete hybrid system model presented in [10], [11]. This simplification favours clearer development of limit cycle analysis. However, details of the full model can be found in [8].

### B. Trajectory sensitivities

Algorithms for locating limit cycles require the sensitivity of a trajectory (flow) to perturbations in initial conditions [12]. To obtain the sensitivity of the flow  $\phi$  to initial conditions  $x_0$ , the Taylor series expansion of (1) is formed. Neglecting higher order terms gives

$$\Delta x(t) = \frac{\partial \phi(t)}{\partial x_0} \Delta x_0 \equiv \Phi(x_0, t) \Delta x_0 \quad (5)$$

where  $\Phi$  is the *sensitivity transition matrix*, or *trajectory sensitivities*, associated with the  $x$  flow [13]. Equation (5) describes the change  $\Delta x(t)$  in a trajectory, at time  $t$  along the trajectory, for a given (small) change in initial conditions  $\Delta x_0$ .

Space limitations preclude the inclusion of the variational equations describing the evolution of  $\Phi$ . Full details are given in [10], [11]. It should be emphasized that  $\Phi$  does not require smoothness of the underlying flow  $\phi$ . Trajectory sensitivities are well defined for the non-smooth and/or discontinuous flows associated with realistic power systems.

Furthermore, the computational burden of generating  $\Phi$  is minimal. It is shown in [11], [14], [15] that when an implicit numerical integration technique such as trapezoidal integration is used, trajectory sensitivities can be obtained as a by-product of computing the underlying trajectory.

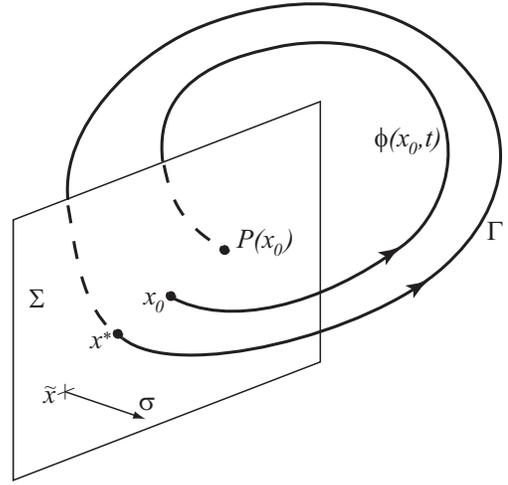


Fig. 2. Poincaré map.

## III. LIMIT CYCLE ANALYSIS

### A. Poincaré maps

Limit cycles and their stability can be determined using Poincaré maps [3], [16]. This section provides a brief review of these concepts, and establishes a connection with trajectory sensitivities.

A Poincaré map effectively samples the flow of a periodic system once every period. The concept is illustrated in Figure 2. If the limit cycle is stable, oscillations approach the limit cycle over time. The samples provided by the corresponding Poincaré map approach a fixed point. An unstable limit cycle results in divergent oscillations. For such a case the samples of the Poincaré map diverge.

To define a Poincaré map, consider the limit cycle  $\Gamma$  shown in Figure 2. Let  $\Sigma$  be a hyperplane transversal to  $\Gamma$  and defined by

$$\Sigma = \{x : \sigma^T(x - \tilde{x}) = 0\} \quad (6)$$

where  $\tilde{x}$  is a point anchoring  $\Sigma$ , and  $\sigma$  is a vector normal to  $\Sigma$ . The trajectory emanating from  $x^*$  will again encounter  $\Sigma$  at  $x^*$  after  $T$  seconds, where  $T$  is the minimum period of the limit cycle. Due to the continuity of the flow  $\phi$  with respect to initial conditions, trajectories starting on  $\Sigma$  in a neighbourhood of  $x^*$  will, in approximately  $T$  seconds, intersect  $\Sigma$  in the vicinity of  $x^*$ . Hence  $\phi$  and  $\Sigma$  define the Poincaré map

$$x_{k+1} = P(x_k) := \phi(x_k, \tau_r(x_k)). \quad (7)$$

where  $\tau_r(x_k) \approx T$  is the time taken for the trajectory to return to  $\Sigma$ . Complete details can be found in [3], [16].

### B. Shooting method

From (7), it can be seen that a point  $x^*$  on the limit cycle can be located by using Newton's method to solve the nonlinear algebraic equations

$$F_l(x^*) = \phi(x^*, \tau_r(x^*)) - x^* = 0. \quad (8)$$

The solution process therefore has the iterative form

$$x^{i+1} = x^i - (DF_l(x^i))^{-1} F_l(x^i). \quad (9)$$

It is shown in [8] that the Jacobian  $DF_l$  is given by

$$DF_l(x^i) = \left( I - \frac{f|_{\tau_r(x^i)} \sigma^T}{\sigma^T f|_{\tau_r(x^i)}} \right) \Phi(x^i, \tau_r(x^i)) - I \quad (10)$$

where  $f$  is given by (2). Notice that because the flow  $\phi$  and associated sensitivities  $\Phi$  are well defined for non-smooth systems, solution of (8) is also well defined for such systems.

It can be seen from (8) that evaluation of  $F_l(x^i)$  at each iteration requires numerical integration. This process is therefore referred to as a *shooting method* [12].

### C. Limit cycle stability

Stability of the Poincaré map (7) is determined by linearizing  $P$  at the fixed point  $x^*$ , i.e.,

$$\Delta x_{k+1} = DP(x^*) \Delta x_k. \quad (11)$$

From the definition of  $P(x)$  given by (7), it follows that

$$DP(x^*) = \left( I - \frac{f|_{x^*} \sigma^T}{\sigma^T f|_{x^*}} \right) \Phi(x^*, T) \quad (12)$$

where  $\tau_r(x^*) = T$ .

The matrix  $\Phi(x^*, T)$  is exactly the trajectory sensitivity matrix after one period of the limit cycle, i.e., starting from  $x^*$  and returning to  $x^*$ . This matrix is called the *Monodromy matrix*. It is shown in [16] that for an autonomous system, one eigenvalue of  $\Phi(x^*, T)$  is always 1, and the corresponding eigenvector lies along  $f|_{x^*}$ . The remaining eigenvalues of  $\Phi(x^*, T)$  coincide with the eigenvalues of  $DP(x^*)$ , and are known as the *characteristic multipliers*  $m_i$  of the periodic solution. The characteristic multipliers are independent of the choice of cross-section  $\Sigma$ .

Because the characteristic multipliers  $m_i$  are the eigenvalues of the linear map  $DP(x^*)$ , they describe the (local) stability of the Poincaré map  $P(x_k)$ . Hence the (local) stability of the periodic solution is determined by:

- 1) All  $m_i$  lie within the unit circle, i.e.,  $|m_i| < 1, \forall i$ . The map is stable, so the periodic solution is stable.
- 2) Some  $m_i$  lie outside the unit circle. The periodic solution is unstable.

Interestingly, there exists a particular cross-section  $\Sigma^*$ , such that

$$DP(x^*) \zeta = \Phi(x^*, T) \zeta \quad (13)$$

where  $\zeta \in \Sigma^*$ . This cross-section  $\Sigma^*$  is the hyperplane spanned by the  $n - 1$  eigenvectors of  $\Phi(x^*, T)$  that are not aligned with  $f|_{x^*}$ . Therefore the vector  $\sigma^*$  that is normal to  $\Sigma^*$  is the left eigenvector of  $\Phi(x^*, T)$  corresponding to the eigenvalue 1. The hyperplane  $\Sigma^*$  is invariant under  $\Phi(x^*, T)$ , i.e.,  $\Phi(x^*, T)$  maps vectors  $\zeta \in \Sigma^*$  back into  $\Sigma^*$ .

### D. Continuation methods

It is often useful to explore the changes in limit cycle structure and stability properties that result from parameter variations. This can be achieved by introducing a free parameter  $\theta$  into (8), giving

$$F_l(x^*, \theta) = 0. \quad (14)$$

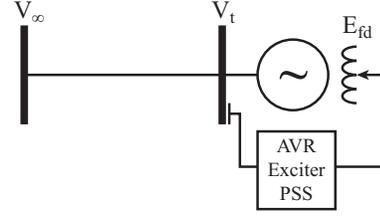


Fig. 3. Single machine infinite bus system.

As shown earlier, the point  $x^*$  given by (8) fully specifies the associated limit cycle. Therefore, the 1-manifold, or curve, defined by (14) describes the variation of  $x^*$ , and hence the associated limit cycle variation, with changes in parameter  $\theta$ .

The curve given by (14) can be traced using a homotopy method [17]. A predictor-corrector process is presented in [8]. Note that even when the underlying dynamic behaviour is non-smooth, curves given by (14) are generally smooth. Curve smoothness may be lost at grazing bifurcations though [8], [18]. The details are beyond the scope of this paper, though an illustration is provided in Section IV.

## IV. EXAMPLE

### A. Model

A single machine infinite bus system was used to explore the existence and nature of limit-induced limit cycles. This system is shown schematically in Figure 3, and parameter values are provided in the appendix. The generator was represented by a sixth order machine model [19], and the AVR/exciter by the model given in Figure 1. (The PSS was disabled for these studies.) This resulted in 9 dimensional state space, that is  $x \in \mathbb{R}^9$ .

The non-windup limits on  $E_{fd}$  introduce non-smoothness into the model. It will be shown that these limits restrict growing (unstable) oscillations in a way that gives rise to stable limit cycles.

This example illustrates that the efficient computation of trajectory sensitivities for large-scale non-smooth systems allows, 1) the use of shooting methods for locating limit-induced limit cycles, and 2) assessment of their stability properties.

### B. Hopf bifurcation

For the parameter values given in the appendix, a Hopf bifurcation occurs at an AVR gain of  $K_A^* = 208.22$ . The equilibrium point is unstable for  $K_A > 208.22$ . To illustrate, for a gain of  $K_A = 212$ , linearization around the equilibrium point gave an unstable eigenvalue pair of  $0.0053 \pm j5.86$ . The behaviour of the field voltage  $E_{fd}$  is shown in Figure 4. The initial growth in oscillation magnitude reflects the instability of the operating point. But notice that behaviour stabilizes to a limit cycle, from around 70 seconds. This is a consequence of the field voltage encountering its maximum limit  $E_{fdmax} = 5.4$ .

The shooting method was used to locate this stable limit cycle. Convergence was obtained in 3 iterations, with the  $V_t - E_{fd}$  projection of the limit cycle shown in Figure 5.

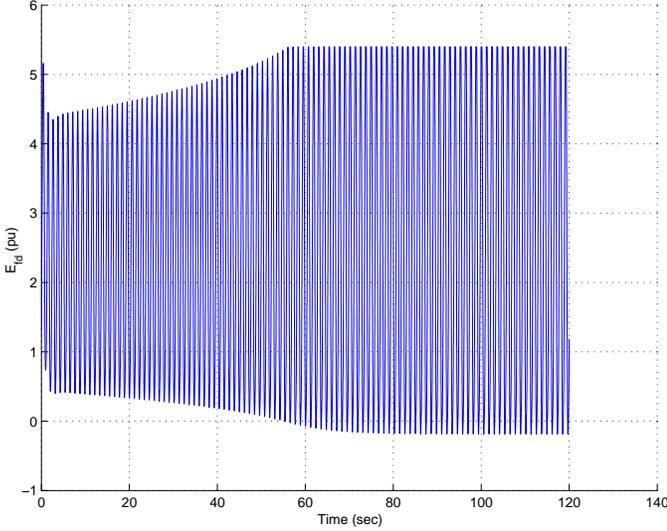


Fig. 4. Response of field voltage  $E_{fd}$  for  $K_A = 212$ .

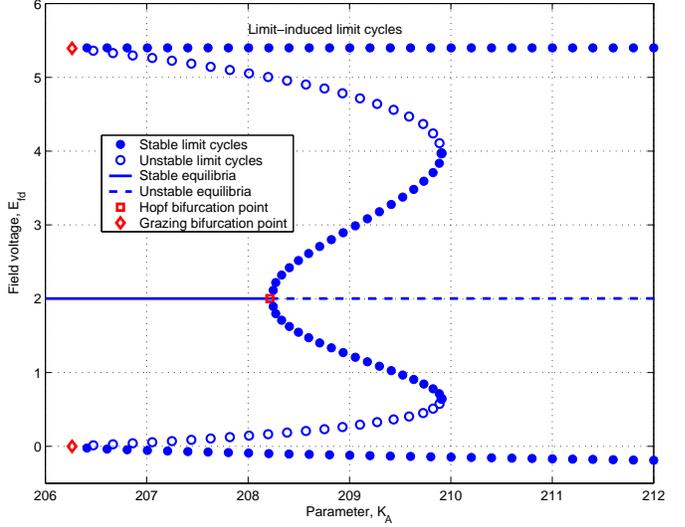


Fig. 6. Bifurcation diagram.

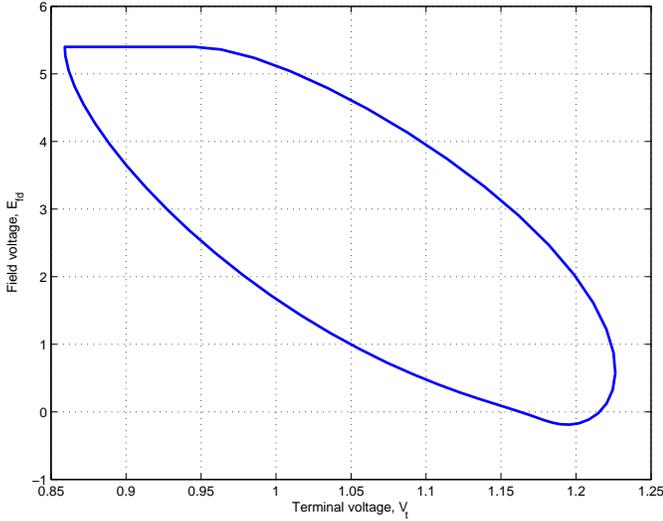


Fig. 5. Stable limit-induced limit cycle for  $K_A = 212$ .

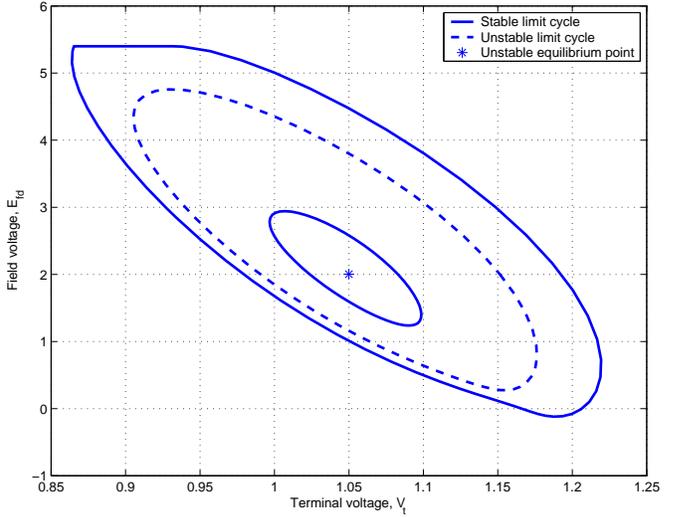


Fig. 7. Co-existing limit cycles and equilibrium point,  $K_A = 209$ .

It was found that all characteristic multipliers lay within the unit circle, with the largest having a magnitude of 0.83. This confirmed the limit cycle was indeed an attractor.

Further investigation of the Hopf bifurcation revealed that it was in fact supercritical. The bifurcation diagram of Figure 6, produced using the continuation process of Section III-D, shows a branch of stable limit cycles emanating from the Hopf bifurcation.<sup>1</sup> This branch of limit cycles undergoes a cyclic fold at  $K_A = 209.9$ , beyond which the branch comprises unstable limit cycles.

As shown in Figure 6, the stable non-smooth limit cycles, induced by the  $E_{fdmax}$  limit, coexist with the smooth limit cycles that result from the Hopf bifurcation. Over the range  $208.22 < K_A < 209.9$ , the system exhibits an unstable equilibrium point, an unstable limit cycle, and two stable limit cycles (one smooth and one non-smooth). These limit sets are

<sup>1</sup>The limit cycles are represented in Figure 6 by the extreme values of  $E_{fd}$ .

shown in Figure 7, for a gain  $K_A = 209$ .

The shooting method of Section III-B was used to obtain the limit cycles of Figure 7. In all cases, convergence was obtained in three iterations, with each iteration requiring a single simulation of one period of the oscillation. On the other hand, reliance on time-domain simulation would be futile. The unstable limit cycle has characteristic multipliers both inside and outside the unit circle, so time reversal would not achieve convergent behaviour. Furthermore, transient behaviour is poorly damped in the vicinity of the Hopf bifurcation. Therefore lengthy simulation would be required for adequate convergence to the stable limit cycles. Shooting methods are however unaffected by the stability properties and damping associated with a limit cycle.

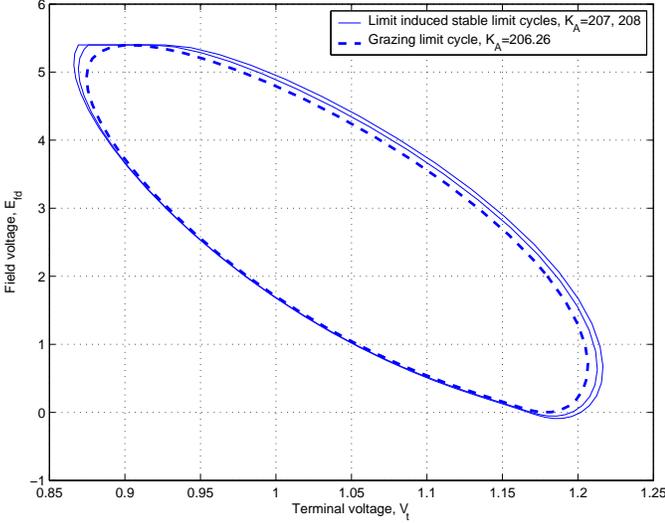


Fig. 8. Grazing limit cycle.

### C. Grazing bifurcation

As the gain  $K_A$  is reduced, the branches of limit-induced and smooth limit cycles converge, finally merging at  $K_A = 206.26$ . At that point, the smooth limit cycle becomes tangential to (grazes) the  $E_{fd,max}$  limit surface, as shown in Figure 8. Furthermore, the figure shows that as  $K_A$  reduces, the limit-induced limit cycle spends less and less time on the limit surface, until it also just grazes that surface. The two limit cycles coalesce at the grazing case. As  $K_A$  is further reduced, the limit cycles cannot continue to deform as they did prior to grazing. It follows that the limit cycles must vanish, with structural stability being lost due to a grazing bifurcation [18].

## V. CONCLUSIONS

Power systems form an important application area within the general class of hybrid (non-smooth) systems. The non-smooth nature of behaviour exhibited by such systems complicates computation and stability analysis of limit cycles. Those complications are overcome through generalization of trajectory sensitivity analysis to non-smooth systems.

Standard Poincaré map results extend naturally to hybrid systems. The Monodromy matrix is obtained by evaluating trajectory sensitivities over one period of the (possibly non-smooth) cyclical behaviour. One eigenvalue of this matrix is always unity. The remaining eigenvalues, i.e., the characteristic multipliers of the periodic solution, determine the local stability properties of the limit cycle.

Restrictions imposed by limiters on state excursions can help prevent instability. For systems that exhibit underlying oscillatory response, limiters tend to induce periodic, (non-smooth) limit cycle behaviour. A case of this form has been explored in the paper. It has been shown that such limit-induced limit cycles can co-exist with other, more traditional, limit sets.

## APPENDIX

The following per unit parameter values fully describe the single machine infinite bus system of Section IV. All

parameters are given on a 100 MVA base, with  $\omega$  in rad/sec.

- Machine parameters:  $r_a = 0.0006$ ,  $x_d = 0.588$ ,  $x'_d = 0.0913$ ,  $x''_d = 0.075$ ,  $T'_{d0} = 6.59$ ,  $T''_{d0} = 0.0386$ ,  $x_q = 0.588$ ,  $x'_q = 0.1$ ,  $x''_q = 0.075$ ,  $T'_{q0} = 1.0$ ,  $T''_{q0} = 0.0419$ ,  $x_l = 0.049$ ,  $M = 0.0667$ ,  $D = 0.005$ ,  $T_m = 2.5$ .
- AVR parameters:  $T_R = 0.04$ ,  $T_A = 0.04$ ,  $T_B = 12$ ,  $T_C = 1$ ,  $V_{setpoint} = 1.05$ ,  $E_{fd,max} = 5.4$ ,  $E_{fd,min} = -5$ .
- PSS is disconnected.
- Infinite bus parameters:  $V_\infty = 1$ .
- Line parameters:  $r = 0.01$ ,  $x = 0.25$ ,  $b = 0.4$ .

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