

Invited Paper

The irrelevance of electric power system dynamics for the loading margin to voltage collapse and its sensitivities

Ian Dobson^{1 a)}

¹ *Electrical and Computer Engineering Department,
University of Wisconsin, Madison WI 53706 USA*

^{a)} *dobson@engr.wisc.edu*

Abstract: The loading margin to a saddle-node or fold bifurcation measures the proximity to voltage collapse blackouts of electric power transmission systems. Sensitivities of the loading margin can be used to select controls to avoid voltage collapse. We analytically justify the use of static models to compute loading margins and their sensitivities and explain how the results apply to underlying dynamic models. The relation between fold bifurcations of the static models and saddle-node bifurcations of the underlying dynamic models is clarified.

Key Words: bifurcation, fold, saddle-node, continuation, blackout, electric power transmission

1. Introduction

Dynamic voltage collapse due to loss of a stable operating equilibrium in a saddle-node or fold bifurcation is an important mechanism for electric power transmission system instability and blackout [1–3]. Therefore it is useful to compute the location of fold bifurcations of power system models and their proximity to current operating conditions. The proximity to fold bifurcation can be measured by computing the loading margin; that is, the increase in loading required to obtain fold bifurcation. If the loading margin is dangerously small, then controls to steer the power system away from the fold bifurcation can be selected by computing the sensitivity of the loading margin to control actions [4]. The sensitivity of the loading margin to any power system parameter is also easy to compute.

We explain and prove the following observation: *Loading margins to fold bifurcations and their sensitivities depend only on the static parts of dynamic power system models.* For example, a dynamic power system model

$$\dot{x} = f(x, \lambda)$$

may be reduced to the static equations

$$0 = f(x, \lambda)$$

without affecting the loading margin to a fold bifurcation. Although voltage collapse due to fold bifurcation is dynamic and requires dynamic power system models to be properly *understood*, the *computation* of loading margin and its sensitivities only requires knowledge of the static parts of the dynamic models. This simplification is of great practical value because the dynamic parts of load models are usually very poorly known, and it is laborious to obtain good data for the dynamics of generators. We can compute loading margins and their sensitivities using the better known and

simpler static load models, while assuming a very general form for the poorly known dynamics which underlie the static equations. This observation generalizes more limited results in [5–7] and supports the reductions in [8] of differential-algebraic power system equations to static models. Moreover, this observation is a result underlying advanced industry software to monitor and avoid voltage collapse blackouts, for example [9].

Once static power system models $0 = f(x, \lambda)$ are obtained, they can be advantageously simplified by algebraic manipulation. Section 4 describes useful algebraic manipulations which do not affect the loading margins and their sensitivities. Section 5 states the further assumptions needed to conclude that the loading margin to fold bifurcation is the minimum loading margin to *any* instability.

We choose to measure proximity to voltage collapse with a loading margin because it is an accurate and basic index, appreciable by all, which takes full account of system limits and nonlinearities. Observe that every paper on voltage collapse indices not explicitly using loading margin implicitly acknowledges loading margin by using it as the horizontal scale when the performance of the proposed index is graphed.

There is a distinction between a fold bifurcation of static equations and the saddle-node bifurcation of some dynamic equations that underly the static equations. Most of the literature in voltage collapse addresses saddle-node bifurcations of dynamic equations, whereas in some practical applications it is desirable or necessary to compute with fold bifurcations of static equations. This paper explains these distinctions and defines the fold bifurcation and its relation to the dynamics. The mathematical details are given in the Appendices.

This paper is a revised version of the conference paper [10], which is hard to access. Although this paper is written in the context of avoiding fold bifurcations and the consequent voltage collapse blackouts in electric power systems, most of the results are easily adaptable to avoiding fold bifurcations in other applications. Other applications of margins to bifurcations, such as ensuring the stability of satellites, chemical reactions, and mechanical devices, are reviewed in [11].

2. Fold bifurcation and geometry

This section summarizes the geometry of state space and parameter space that is useful for monitoring and avoiding voltage collapse blackouts. The power system state vector x typically includes bus voltages and angles as well as other system states. The parameter vector λ includes measures of system loading such as real or reactive power demand at a bus or more general loading parameters for loads with more elaborate load models. Suppose the power system is operating with equilibrium state x_0 and parameter λ_0 . In order to measure the proximity to voltage collapse, the effect of increasing the loading parameters in λ in some given pattern¹ is computed by a continuation method [12–15] or a quasistatic simulation method [8, 16] until a fold bifurcation is encountered at (x_*, λ_*) . (Recall that continuation solves for a succession of equilibria as the loading is increased and takes account of power system limits as they occur.) The loading margin is then the distance $|\lambda_* - \lambda_0|$.

We make the following assumption:

Assumption 1. Near the bifurcation at (x_*, λ_*) , the system has dynamics specified by parameterized, smooth differential equations $\dot{x} = f(x, \lambda)$.

Assumption 1 allows the voltage collapse to be analyzed and understood and the sensitivities needed to avoid the bifurcation to be computed. In a fold bifurcation, two equilibria coalesce and disappear. If one of the equilibria is stable, then the dynamic consequences of the fold bifurcation are well approximated by movement, slow then fast, along a particular dynamic trajectory called the unstable part of the center manifold of x_* [17].

There is also much information available from eigenvectors of the Jacobian $f_x|_*$ about the geometry of the fold bifurcation. The essential information about the fold bifurcation that needs to be determined is its location (x_*, λ_*) , its right eigenvector v and its normal vector N . (The right eigenvector v corresponds to the zero eigenvalue of the singular Jacobian $f_x|_*$. The normal vector $N = w f_\lambda|_*$,

¹The pattern of load increase can be specified by the fraction of participation of each load in the load increase, and is determined by a load forecast or by assuming some typical or worst case.

where w is the left eigenvector corresponding to the zero eigenvalue of $f_x|_{*}$.) These have the following engineering uses and interpretations:

- (a) The critical loading λ_* determines the loading margin $|\lambda_* - \lambda_0|$ which describes the proximity of the current loading λ_0 to voltage collapse.
- (b) The right eigenvector v describes both the direction in state space in which the equilibrium moves just before the bifurcation and the initial direction in state space along which the dynamic voltage collapse occurs. In particular, v quantitatively predicts the relative amounts of voltage decline at buses as the bifurcation is approached and as the initial part of the dynamic collapse occurs [17, 18].
- (c) n is the normal vector to the set of critical loadings in parameter space at which fold bifurcations occur. n determines the optimum direction to move in parameter space to avoid fold bifurcation. In particular, it determines the combination of loads to shed to optimally move away from bifurcation [18], and can be used to compute and avoid the bifurcation closest to the operating parameters [19–24]. More importantly, n can be used to easily compute the first order sensitivity of the loading margins or transfer capabilities to any power system parameters or controls [4, 25]. This allows effective controls and important parameters to be selected [26, 27], and enables quick and rough contingency screening [28, 29] and quantification of uncertainty in load margins [30].

3. Reduction of dynamic to static equations

This section explains that loading margins to fold bifurcations and their sensitivities depend only on the static parts of dynamic power system models. Since the location of the bifurcation (x_*, λ_*) and the useful quantities v and n are computed from the dynamic equations $\dot{x} = f(x, \lambda)$, one might expect that details of the dynamics of f would affect the computations. However, we explain below and prove in appendix A that this is not the case: (x_*, λ_*) , v and n only depend on the static equations $0 = f(x, \lambda)$. This not only simplifies the required modeling but is of great practical value because some power system dynamic equations, particularly load power dynamics, are poorly known. However, we retain the notion that there are some dynamics underlying the static equations so that we can understand the voltage collapse. We need only assume a very general form for these dynamics to compute (x_*, λ_*) , v and n for these dynamic equations from the corresponding static equations.

First we explain these ideas in a simple case of a single differential equation f in one state variable x and one parameter λ :

$$\dot{x} = f(x, \lambda) = -x^2 - \lambda + 1.$$

The set Z is the nose curve parabola (or bifurcation diagram)

$$Z = \{(x, \lambda) \mid 0 = -x^2 - \lambda + 1\},$$

and the dynamics for each fixed value of the parameter λ are indicated by the arrows in Fig. 1. There is a generic fold bifurcation at the tip of the nose curve $(x, \lambda) = (0, 1)$. The most important of the conditions confirming this to be a fold bifurcation is that the derivative $f_x = -2x$ vanishes at $(x, \lambda) = (0, 1)$. That is, $f_x|_{(0,1)} = 0$. Since this condition involves f , it would seem to depend on the dynamical equations $\dot{x} = -x^2 - \lambda + 1$. However, an equivalent condition is that Z has a tangent parallel to the state space (that is, vertical in Fig. 1) at the bifurcation. This shows that Z has a fold at the bifurcation when Z is viewed along the state space (vertical) axis. Thus the location of the bifurcation only depends on the set Z which is defined by the static equations $-x^2 - \lambda + 1 = 0$. To emphasize this, note that there are many other differential equations with different dynamics but with the same set Z . Examples are:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= 2(-x^2 - \lambda + 1), \\ \dot{x} &= (x^2 + 2)(-x^2 - \lambda + 1), \end{aligned}$$

or, more generally,

$$\dot{x} = h(-x^2 - \lambda + 1),$$

where h is any smooth function with $h(0) = 0$ and no other zeros and nonzero gradient at zero.

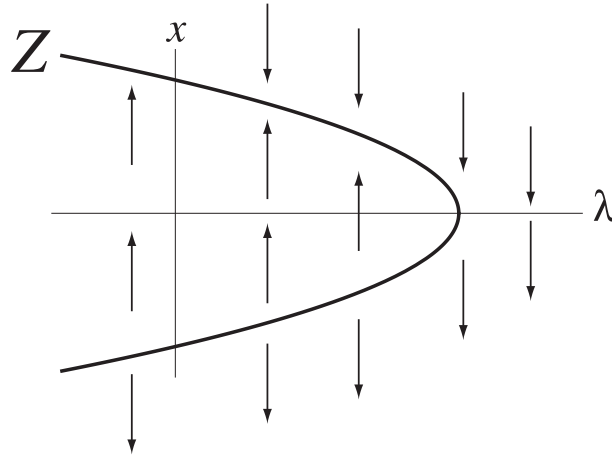


Fig. 1. The set Z plus dynamics.

Thus we can compute Z and the location of the bifurcation with any of the static equations $0 = h(-x^2 - \lambda + 1)$ and the dynamics specified by h are irrelevant to this computation. Note that the eigenvalues or gradients f_x of these equations are completely different except that they all vanish at the bifurcation.

Now let the state vector x have n dimensions and the parameter vector λ have m dimensions. The n dimensional state space is denoted by X and the m dimensional parameter space is denoted by Λ . The power system is modeled as n differential equations

$$\dot{x} = f(x, \lambda). \quad (1)$$

Consider the state and parameter values for which f has an equilibrium:

$$Z = \{(x, \lambda) \mid f(x, \lambda) = 0\}.$$

The set Z contains hypersurfaces of dimension m in the $m + n$ dimensional combined state and parameter space $X \times \Lambda$. The essence of a continuation method is to compute a curve in Z . Appendix A characterizes the fold bifurcation and its sensitivities in terms of the shape and position of Z . Since the shape and position of Z does not depend on dynamics, the location of the fold bifurcation only depends on the static equations $0 = f(x, \lambda)$ or other static equations yielding the same equilibrium set Z . Moreover, since the vectors v and N can be computed from the geometry of the fold of Z , v and N also do not depend on dynamics and may be computed from static equations. These observations can be stated as follows (for lemma 1 and a more precise version and proof of lemma 2 see appendix A):

Lemma 2. Suppose $0 = f(x, \lambda)$ are static equations with underlying dynamics specified by

$$\dot{x} = \bar{f}(x) = h(f(x, \lambda)),$$

where $h(0) = 0$ and this zero is unique and simple. Then

- (a) f has a fold bifurcation at $(x_*, \lambda_*) \iff \bar{f}$ has a fold bifurcation at (x_*, λ_*) .
- (b) When suitably scaled, $v = \bar{v}$ and $N = \bar{N}$.

In the simplest application of lemma 2, h is chosen to be the identity map and the differential equations $\dot{x} = f(x, \lambda)$ are reduced to the static equations $0 = f(x, \lambda)$. If the differential equations contain nonzero time constants T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n so that $\dot{x} = T^{-1}f(x, \lambda)$, where the matrix

$T = \text{diag}\{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n\}$, then choosing h in lemma 2 to be multiplication by T^{-1} again yields static equations $0 = f(x, \lambda)$. This shows that the location and sensitivities of fold bifurcations are independent of the value of the time constants. (That this holds for the *location* of fold bifurcations should be obvious upon noting that multiplying the k th row of the Jacobian f_x by T_k multiplies the determinant of f_x by T_k but does not affect where the determinant vanishes. However, the nonzero eigenvalues or singular values of f_x generally depend on the time constants.) One might also want to exploit the freedom to scale the static equations by multiplying them by various constants to improve the conditioning of the Jacobian f_x for numerical computation.

Often static equations are used because the dynamic equations are poorly known. Then lemma 2 gives a very general class of dynamic equations which can be assumed to underlie the static equations. For example, suppose we have differential-algebraic power system equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_k &= f^k(x, \lambda), & k &= 1, \dots, n_g, \\ 0 &= f^k(x, \lambda), & k &= n_g+1, \dots, n, \end{aligned}$$

where the algebraic equations express real or reactive power balance at the loads. Consider the load numbered j first and suppose that f^{n-1} and f^n represent real and reactive power balance at load j with state variables voltage magnitude V and angle θ . Suppose that the underlying dynamics at load j are of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{V} \\ \dot{\theta} \end{pmatrix} = h^j \left(\begin{pmatrix} f^{n-1}(x, \lambda) \\ f^n(x, \lambda) \end{pmatrix} \right),$$

where $h^j : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ is a vector valued vector function on U , where $0 \in U \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. We suppose that the Jacobian of h is nonsingular at the origin. (This is reasonable since independent first order variations in real and reactive power balance would be expected to give independent first order variations in \dot{V} and $\dot{\theta}$.) Then if all the loads have similar form to load number j , a function h suitable for lemma 2 can be constructed from the functions similar to h^j for the loads and identity functions for the first n_g equations. Thus lemma 2 shows that for understanding the problem, we can assume general and sensible underlying dynamics for each load, but for purposes of computing fold bifurcations, the static model

$$0 = f^k(x, \lambda), \quad k = 1, \dots, n$$

can be used with no loss of accuracy. This example shows how differential-algebraic power system models can be reduced to static (algebraic) equations for computation of loading margins and their sensitivities. The computations are valid for a general class of dynamics underlying the static equations. For another example of the use of this reduction see [8, section 3.2].

4. Simplifying the algebraic equations

The preceding section 3 showed that dynamic equations could be reduced to static equations. This section makes use of the fact that the static equations may be changed to equivalent static equations. Both the number of static equations and their variables may change.

Once static equations are obtained, it is often useful to algebraically manipulate them to simplify them or gain some computational advantage. The following lemma shows that algebraic manipulations which preserve the set Z and the rank of the equations do not affect fold bifurcations (for a more precise and complete version and proof see appendix A):

Lemma 4. (informal version) *Let $f : X \times \Lambda \rightarrow X$ have $Z = \{(x, \lambda) \mid f(x, \lambda) = 0\}$. Let $\bar{f} : X \times \Lambda \rightarrow X$ have $\bar{Z} = \{(x, \lambda) \mid \bar{f}(x, \lambda) = 0\}$. Suppose that $Z = \bar{Z}$ and that at $z_* \in Z$, $\text{rank } f_z|_* = \text{rank } \bar{f}_z|_*$ where $z = (x, \lambda)$. ($f_z|_*$ is the Jacobian of f with respect to z evaluated at z_* .)*

(a) f has a fold bifurcation at $z_* \iff \bar{f}$ has a fold bifurcation at z_* .

(b) When suitably scaled, $v = \bar{v}$ and $N = \bar{N}$.

Sometimes load dynamics are specified in an implicit form and algebraic manipulation is required to show how the dynamics can be removed using lemma 2. For example, consider the following power system dynamic model with a single dynamic load model shown explicitly:

$$\dot{y} = f^1(y, V, \lambda) \quad (2)$$

$$0 = g(\dot{P}^d, \dot{V}, P^d, V, \lambda) \quad (3)$$

$$P^d = P(y, V). \quad (4)$$

Here V is the load voltage, y are the other state variables, P^d is the real power demanded by the load and the function P evaluates the real power supplied to the load by the electrical network. Equation (3) is a general form due to Hill; it includes as a special case his exponential recovery model [31]. Equation (4) is real power balance at the load and Eq. (2) is the other dynamic equations. Appendix B shows that if Eqs. (2)–(4) specify a well posed differential equations in the state variables (y, V) , then lemmas 2 and 4 can be applied to yield static equations

$$0 = f^1(y, V, \lambda) \quad (5)$$

$$0 = g(0, 0, P(y, V), V, \lambda). \quad (6)$$

Note that Eq. (6) is the static part of the dynamic load model Eq. (3), since it corresponds to setting $\dot{P}^d = \dot{V} = 0$ in Eq. (3).

It is often useful to reduce the number of equations by solving some of the equations for some of the variables and substituting the solved variables in the remaining equations. The inverse of this process, in which new variables are defined and more equations are written, is also useful because it can improve system sparsity. When changing the static equations in this way, either increasing or decreasing the number of equations and variables, we want to be assured that the fold bifurcations and their geometry are essentially unchanged. This is the substance of the following lemma (for a more precise version and proof see appendix A):

Lemma 5. (informal version) *Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be written as $x = (a, b)$ where $a \in \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^{n-\bar{n}}$.*

Write the n equations $0 = f(x, \lambda)$ as $0 = \begin{pmatrix} f^1(a, b, \lambda) \\ f^2(a, b, \lambda) \end{pmatrix}$ where f^1 consists of \bar{n} equations and f^2 consists of $n - \bar{n}$ equations. Suppose that $f_b^2|_{}$ is invertible so that the equations $0 = f^2(a, b, \lambda)$ are solvable (at least locally) for b so that $b = h(a, \lambda)$. Define the \bar{n} equations $\bar{f}(a, \lambda) = f^1(a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda)$. Then f has a fold bifurcation at $z_* = (a_*, b_*, \lambda_*) \iff \bar{f}$ has a fold bifurcation at $\bar{z}_* = (a_*, \lambda_*)$. Moreover, for suitable scaling of \bar{n} and \bar{v} , $N = \bar{N}$ and $v = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{v} \\ h_a|_* \bar{v} \end{pmatrix}$.*

A simple example of the use of lemmas 2 and 5 occurs when the dynamic equations include $\dot{\delta} = \omega$, where δ is the power angle of a generator. Lemma 2 reduces $\dot{\delta} = \omega$ to the algebraic equation $0 = \omega$ and lemma 5 allows ω to be set to zero in all the other power system equations and omitted from the system state.

Lemma 5 also allows Eqs. (5), (6) to be rewritten with an additional state P^d as

$$0 = f^1(y, V, \lambda) \quad (7)$$

$$0 = g(0, 0, P^d, V, \lambda) \quad (8)$$

$$P^d = P(y, V) \quad (9)$$

if desired, without affecting the fold bifurcation.

A more substantial application of lemma 5 can be seen to yield the Liapunov-Schmidt reduction (choose a of lemma 5 to be a coordinate along v and define $f^1 = wf$, etc.) [42].

Note that each of the lemmas which reduce dynamic equations to static equations or simplify the static equations states the relation between v and N before and after the reduction or simplification. Therefore, if we compute v and N with the simplified static equations, we can work back through the

applicable lemmas to deduce v and N for the dynamic equations. That is, the geometry of the fold of the dynamic equations is calculable from the geometry of the fold of the simplified static equations and vice versa. The most striking instance of this property is that the initial direction v of movement of the dynamic voltage collapse can be determined from static equations!

Cañizares [5] proves by direct calculation that a set of differential-algebraic equations modeling an AC/DC power system can be reduced to static equations while preserving the loading margin and the bifurcation geometry. Lemmas 2 and 5 apply to the AC/DC power system model and provide alternate proofs of Theorems 1 and 2 of [5] (use the versions of lemmas 2 and 5 in Appendix A to obtain Theorem 2).

5. The context of other instabilities

So far we have only considered the computation of loading margin to a fold bifurcation of an equilibrium. The previous assumption 1 suffices if we are only concerned with this narrow focus. There are other possible instabilities and transient dynamics to be considered in determining the loading margin to the *first* instability of the power system as the loading is slowly increased. We state some additional assumptions necessary if we are to conclude that the fold bifurcation is this first bifurcation and hence the applicable instability mechanism for the given loading increase. The reader should refer to [8], especially the second scenario of section 2.2, for a previous account of some of the ideas in this section.

Assumption 2. The system is assumed to be governed by smooth differential equations parameterized by λ as the loading increases. However, the differential equations may undergo discrete changes when limits or structural changes are encountered. Limits important to voltage collapse include generator reactive power limits and tap changing transformer limits. A line tripping or a generator outage are examples of structural changes.

Assumption 3. The initial operating condition (x_0, λ_0) is assumed to be asymptotically stable. This is usually known either by assuming a zero loading λ_0 at which the asymptotically stable equilibrium x_0 is known or by previous or current operating experience at a higher loading λ_0 . (If the power system operates at (x_0, λ_0) without transients, then (x_0, λ_0) must be stable.)

Then there are three typical ways in which stability of the equilibrium can be lost as the loading is increased from λ_0 :

- (1) *Fold bifurcation.* The stable equilibrium disappears in a fold bifurcation. This instability occurs generically and locating and avoiding this bifurcation is the focus of this paper. Note that a fold bifurcation *must* occur eventually because all solutions disappear for sufficiently high loading.
- (2) *Instability due to discrete change.* A stable equilibrium may disappear or become unstable when the differential equations undergo discrete changes. For example, when a generator encounters a reactive power limit, the system equations change in such a way that the equilibrium persists but can possibly change stability [6]. If a line or generator is tripped, then the system equations change in such a way that equilibrium can possibly be lost.
- (3) *Hopf bifurcation.* The stable equilibrium persists, but becomes unstable in an oscillatory instability associated with Hopf bifurcation. This instability occurs generically. Complete dynamic models are required to detect or analyze a Hopf bifurcation. We do not consider oscillatory instabilities in this paper.

It is also possible in exceptional cases for combinations of instabilities (1), (2), and (3) to occur simultaneously, but we ignore these nongeneric possibilities. It should be noted that the power system equations do not have special symmetries that would, for example, make transcritical or pitchfork bifurcations generic. Leaving nongeneric phenomena aside, the discussion can be usefully limited to the generic fold and Hopf bifurcations and the structural change instability listed above.

If the discrete change or Hopf bifurcation instabilities do not occur as the loading is increased, then the equilibrium will always lose stability in a fold bifurcation. However, an additional assumption is

needed to ensure that the system state stays near enough to the equilibrium as the loading is increased to guarantee that stability is not lost due to large signal transient effects:

Assumption 4. The system state tracks the system equilibrium sufficiently closely as the parameters change. This assumption is known as the quasistatic assumption [17]. Deviation of the state from the stable equilibrium can occur when the parameter rate of change becomes large enough or when discrete changes to the equations occur. In either case, transients occur and these transients are assumed to restore the state near to the stable equilibrium in such a way that the particular form and size of the transient can be neglected.

The ideas of this section so far can be summarized as follows:

Continuation methods can be applied to compute the fold bifurcation starting from a known stable condition at low loading. If stability is not lost due to oscillatory instabilities or limits or structural changes as the loading is slowly increased, then the stability must eventually be lost in a fold bifurcation and the loading at this fold bifurcation will determine the minimum system loading margin to any instability.

As regards checking whether instability occurs due to oscillatory instabilities (Hopf bifurcations), it is useful to analyze and avoid oscillatory instabilities separately from the fold bifurcation. Although Hopf bifurcations and fold bifurcations can occur in the same power system models [32–37] there is not evidence that their corresponding instability problems are closely related. For example, one might argue that if excitation systems are well designed, Hopf bifurcation instabilities encountered at higher loadings when studying voltage collapse models would vanish. (The parameter sensitivities for Hopf and fold bifurcations can be studied and compared using the techniques of [35].) From a practical modeling point of view, the Hopf bifurcation requires a complete dynamic model to be known and so is better analyzed separately. (We note that eigenvalue, singular value and Hopf analyses of differential-algebraic equations are only valid if the underlying dynamics enforcing the algebraic constraints are assumed to be both stable and fast.)

Even with the assumptions above, the continuation approach to computing loading margins and their sensitivities has significant limitations. For example, the timing and complex interaction of discrete and continuously evolving events are not suitably represented. The quasistatic assumption may be violated when significant transients occur. The claim is not that the assumptions capture all voltage collapse phenomenon; rather, the claim is that the assumptions are useful in engineering algorithms that can practically monitor and avoid voltage collapse blackouts. Other methods with different advantages are available. In particular, a time domain simulation can represent dynamic models in great detail and readily reproduce complex series of events. The loading margin and sensitivity approach is complementary to time domain simulation. While the loading margin approach must make some restrictive assumptions, it does provide useful margin and sensitivity information and insight not available from time domain simulations.

6. Conclusions

This paper explains and justifies how static power system models can be used to compute the loading margin to voltage collapse due to fold or saddle node bifurcation and its sensitivities to parameters and controls. The static models are understood to have underlying dynamics which are responsible for the dynamic voltage collapse as a consequence of the fold bifurcation. Moreover, we study how the static equations can be advantageously changed or simplified without changing the results.

If power system dynamic equations are given, then we show that reducing the dynamic equations to static equations by setting the derivatives of the state variables to zero does not affect the loading margin or its sensitivities. Once the static equations are obtained, they may be algebraically simplified in several ways, again without affecting the loading margin or its sensitivities. The simplified equations can be fewer in number and have fewer variables and parameters, or can be larger in number and have better numerical properties such as sparsity. Conclusions about the geometry of the fold bifurcation of the dynamic equations are available from the simplified static equations. This is illustrated by showing how a general class of dynamic load models due to Hill [31] can be reduced to static models.

In voltage collapse blackouts, the pattern in which voltages and other quantities initially dynamically decline is determined by the right eigenvector associated with the Jacobian singularity. Since we show that this eigenvector is determined by static equations, this leads to the remarkable observation that the initial dynamics of collapse can be determined from static models.

More commonly, the complete dynamic equations of the power system are not well known. However, we can compute load power margins and their sensitivities with static power system equations and the paper shows that the results are accurate for a general and sensible class of underlying dynamic equations. This result enables commercial software used by the power industry to monitor and avoid voltage collapse blackouts.

It is a substantial advantage for a voltage collapse index to be independent of dynamics both in simplifying and optimizing the power system model for computations and in allowing the computation to be done accurately despite poorly known dynamics. The paper shows that the load power margin is independent of dynamics and we suspect that this useful property is also shared by the energy function index. (Note that [38] gives an interpretation of an energy function index as the area enclosed by the intersection of Z with a plane spanned by the real power and angle at a bus; this interpretation is independent of the dynamics.) Voltage collapse indices based on eigenvalues [39] or singular values [40, 41] depend on the linearization of the system at an operating equilibrium. Therefore these indices require for a power system model either a full set of differential equations or differential-algebraic equations with the assumption or knowledge that the algebraic equations are enforced by underlying dynamics that are both fast and stable. In particular, voltage collapse indices based on eigenvalues or singular values depend on load dynamics.

In this paper, we provide justification and explicit assumptions for computations of loading margins to saddle node bifurcations and their sensitivities with static power system models. We describe and prove how the static equations may be advantageously changed or simplified while preserving the loading margin and sensitivity information. The proofs use standard methods, but the detailed analysis of how the equations may be advantageously changed appears to be new. We also clarify the technical differences between the mathematical definitions and methods appropriate for fold bifurcations of static equations and saddle-node bifurcations of dynamic equations.

Acknowledgments

We thank Scott Greene and Rajesh Rajaraman for useful comments. Support in part by NSF grant ECS-9009079 and EPRI contracts RP 8010-30 and RP 8050-03 is gratefully acknowledged.

Appendix

A. Definitions and lemmas

A definition of a fold bifurcation is presented and its relation to the standard definition of a saddle node bifurcation is discussed. The fold bifurcation of the dynamic Eq. (1) is characterized in terms of a fold of the set

$$Z = \{(x, \lambda) \mid f(x, \lambda) = 0\},$$

which only depends on static parts of the power system model. Lemmas needed for sections 3 and 4 are stated and proved.

Let the state space X be \mathbb{R}^n and the parameter space Λ be \mathbb{R}^m . Dynamic equations are $\dot{x} = f(x, \lambda)$ where $f : U \rightarrow TX$ is a smooth set of differential equations and U is an open set of $X \times \Lambda$ containing (x_*, λ_*) . (TX is the tangent space of X .) We will also define a fold bifurcation for smooth static equations $0 = f(x, \lambda)$ where $f : U \rightarrow X$.

We distinguish between saddle-node bifurcations and fold bifurcations as can be seen in the following definitions:

Definition: Let $f : U \rightarrow X$ or $f : U \rightarrow TX$ be a smooth function and let the dimension of X be n . f has a **fold bifurcation** at $(x_*, \lambda_*) \in U$ if it satisfies conditions F(a)–F(d):

$$\text{F(a)} \quad f(x_*, \lambda_*) = 0.$$

F(b) $f_x|_*$ has rank $n - 1$.

F(c) $wf_\lambda|_* \neq 0$.

F(d) $wf_{xx}|_*(v, v) \neq 0$,

where v and w are nonzero vectors satisfying $f_x|_*v = 0$ and $wf_x|_* = 0$.

Condition F(a) states that (x_*, λ_*) is a root or equilibrium of f . Condition F(b) states that the Jacobian f_x is singular at the bifurcation and that the kernel $\langle v \rangle$ of $f_x|_*$ is one dimensional. The transversality conditions F(c) and F(d) help to ensure that the fold bifurcation is not degenerate. The conditions F(a)–F(d) appear in static bifurcation theory (see the discussion in [42, section 6.2]) and are equivalent to a standard definition of fold in singularity theory [43] as discussed in Appendix C.

The standard definition for a generic saddle-node bifurcation can be obtained by adding another condition to F(a)–F(d):

Definition: f has a **saddle-node bifurcation** at (x_*, λ_*) if f has a fold bifurcation at (x_*, λ_*) and

F(e) $f_x|_*$ has a simple zero eigenvalue.

There are two possibilities for f to satisfy F(b). The generic possibility is that $f_x|_*$ has rank $n - 1$ and a unique simple zero eigenvalue. In this case f satisfies the conditions for a generic saddle node bifurcation at (x_*, λ_*) and the dynamics near (x_*, λ_*) are as described in [17]. The exceptional possibility is that $f_x|_*$ has rank $n - 1$ and a nonsimple zero eigenvalue. That is, there is a nontrivial Jordan block with zero eigenvalues of geometric multiplicity one and algebraic multiplicity greater than one. The consequence of the nontrivial Jordan block is that the dynamics of f near (x_*, λ_*) are more complicated. For example, in the case of Jordan block $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, there are Hopf and saddle connection bifurcations nearby (see [44, section 7.3]). This bifurcation is codimension 2 but can occur in power system models (see point A in [45]).

However, the conditions F(a)–F(d) are sufficient to guarantee that near λ_* there is locally a critical hypersurface in parameter space at which two equilibria coalesce. On one side of the hypersurface near λ_* there are two equilibria and on the other side near λ_* there are none. This is proved in [42, section 6.2]. Those skeptical about this fact in the exceptional case should look at Fig. 7.3.1 of [44].

One theme of this appendix is that if we are concerned with algebraic equations and their equilibria, then F(a)–F(d) are the right conditions for fold bifurcation. This is the context of singularity theory [43] or static bifurcation theory [42]. In this context no distinction is made between the dynamics at a generic saddle node and the dynamics at a fold bifurcation with a nonsimple eigenvalue, because these phenomena are indistinguishable by examining the equilibria only. Indeed it can be inappropriate in this context to discuss eigenvalues of algebraic equations because changes to the equations which preserve their equilibria generally alter the eigenvalues. For example, multiplying one of the algebraic equations by two does not affect the equilibria but generally does alter the eigenvalues.

The fold bifurcation defined by F(a)–F(d) is a generic codimension 1 event in the singularity theory context. In the dynamic vector context, we must additionally require simplicity of the zero eigenvalue in order to obtain a generic saddle node bifurcation and exclude the exceptional codimension 2 event of a nonsimple eigenvalue.

Now we define a fold of a set $Z \subset U \subset X \times \Lambda$. The natural projection $X \times \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda$ is given by $(x, \lambda) \mapsto \lambda$ and we write $\pi : Z \rightarrow \Lambda$ for the restriction to Z of the natural projection $X \times \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda$.

Definition: Let Z be a subset of U and $z_* \in Z$. Z has a **fold** at $z_* \in U$ if it satisfies conditions ZF(a)–ZF(c):

ZF(a) Z is a submanifold of U of dimension m .

ZF(b) $\pi_z|_*$ has rank $m - 1$.

ZF(c) $N\pi_{zz}|_*(v, v) \neq 0$, where v and N are nonzero vectors satisfying $\pi_z|_*v = 0$ and $N\pi_z|_* = 0$.

ZF(b) is equivalent to the set Z having a tangent parallel to the state space or having a fold when viewed along this tangent. This tangent direction is given by the right eigenvector v . The hypersurface of critical parameters at which there is a fold bifurcation is the projection of the fold in Z onto the parameter space Λ and the normal vector to this hypersurface is N .

Lemma 1 is the key lemma which proves that fold bifurcations of f correspond to folds of Z :

Lemma 1. *Suppose $Z = f^{-1}(0)$. Then*

- (a) f has a fold bifurcation at z_* \iff Z has a fold at z_* and $\text{rank } f_z|_* = n$.
- (b) Suppose conditions F(a)–F(d) and ZF(a)–ZF(c) are satisfied. Choose the scalings of v , w , v , N such that $|v| = |V|$ and $|wf_\lambda|_* = |N|$. Then $v = (v, 0)$, $N = wf_\lambda|_*$ and $N\pi_{zz}|_*(v, v) = -wf_{xx}|_*(v, v)$.

Proof (a) \implies : Since $f_x|_*$ has rank $n - 1$ and $wf_\lambda|_* \neq 0$, $f_z|_* = (f_x, f_\lambda)|_*$ has rank n . Then there is a subset $U_1 \ni z_*$ open in $X \times \Lambda$ on which f has rank n . Then $Z = (f|_{U_1})^{-1}(0)$ is a submanifold of U of dimension m and ZF(a) is proven.

Since $(f_x|_*, f_\lambda|_*) \begin{pmatrix} v \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0$ and the only x for which $(f_x|_*, f_\lambda|_*) \begin{pmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 0$ are multiples of v , $TZ|_* \cap TX|_* = \langle (v, 0) \rangle$. Since the natural projection $X \times \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda$ has kernel TX , its restriction to Z , π has $\ker \pi_z = TZ \cap TX$. Hence $\ker \pi_z|_* = TZ|_* \cap TX|_* = \langle (v, 0) \rangle$ and $\pi_z|_*$ has rank $m - 1$ and ZF(b) is proven. Write $v = (v, 0)$ and note that $\pi_z|_*v = 0$ and $v \neq 0$. Also write $N = wf_\lambda|_*$ and note that $N \neq 0$.

The natural projection $X \times \Lambda \rightarrow X$ is given by $(x, \lambda) \mapsto x$. Write $\chi : Z \rightarrow \Lambda$ for the restriction to Z of the natural projection $X \times \Lambda \rightarrow X$. Note that $\chi_z v = \chi_z(v, 0) = v$. For any $z = (x, \lambda) \in Z$,

$$0 = f(\chi(z), \pi(z)).$$

Differentiate to obtain

$$0 = f_x \chi_z + f_\lambda \pi_z. \quad (\text{A-1})$$

Multiply by w on the left and evaluate at z_* to obtain

$$0 = wf_\lambda|_* \pi_z|_* = N\pi_z|_* \quad (\text{A-2})$$

Differentiate Eq. (A-1) with respect to Z to obtain

$$0 = f_{xx} \chi_z \chi_z + f_x \chi_{zz} + 2f_{x\lambda} \chi_z \pi_z + f_\lambda \pi_{zz} + f_{\lambda\lambda} \pi_z \pi_z.$$

Multiply “on the left” by w and “on the right” by (v, v) , evaluate at z_* and rearrange to obtain

$$N\pi_{zz}|_*(v, v) = -wf_{xx}|_*(v, v). \quad (\text{A-3})$$

Hence $N\pi_{zz}|_*(v, v) \neq 0$ and ZF(c) is proven.

(a) \Leftarrow : $f(z_*) = 0$ and F(a) follow immediately from $z_* \in Z = f^{-1}(0)$. Since $\langle v \rangle = \ker \pi_z|_* = TZ|_* \cap TX|_*$, $v \in TX|_*$ and can be written as $v = (v, 0)$ where $v \neq 0$. $v \in TZ|_*$ implies that $(f_x|_*, f_\lambda|_*) \begin{pmatrix} v \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = f_x|_*v = 0$ and $v \in \ker f_x|_*$. Moreover, if $v_1 \in \ker f_x|_*$, then $0 = f_x|_*v_1 = (f_x|_*, f_\lambda|_*) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in TZ|_* \cap TX|_* = \ker \pi_z|_*$. Since $\ker \pi_z|_* = \langle v \rangle = \langle (v, 0) \rangle$, v_1 must be a multiple of v . Hence $\ker f_x|_* = \langle v \rangle$ and $\text{rank } f_x|_* = n - 1$ and F(b) is proven.

Choose $w \neq 0$ such that $wf_x|_* = 0$. $f_z|_* = (f_x|_*, f_\lambda|_*)$ rank n and $f_x|_*$ rank $n - 1$ imply that $wf_\lambda|_* \neq 0$ and F(c) is proven. Obtain Eq. (A-2) as before and use the single dimension of the kernel of $\pi_z|_*$ to deduce that w can be rescaled so that $N = wf_\lambda|_*$. Obtain Eq. (A-3) as before and deduce that $wf_{xx}|_*(v, v) = -N\pi_{zz}|_*(v, v) \neq 0$ and F(d) is proven.

(b): Part (b) follows from the proofs of part (a). \square

Lemma 2. *Suppose $0 = f(x, \lambda)$ are static equations with underlying dynamics specified by*

$$\dot{x} = \bar{f}(x) = h(f(x, \lambda)),$$

where $h(0) = 0$ and the zero of h is unique and simple. That is, $h(x) = 0 \iff x = 0$ and $h_x|_0$ is nonsingular. Then

(a) f has a fold bifurcation at $(x_*, \lambda_*) \iff \bar{f}$ has a fold bifurcation at (x_*, λ_*) .

(b) Choose the scalings of v, \bar{v}, w, \bar{w} such that $|v| = |\bar{v}|$ and $|wf_\lambda|_* = |\bar{w}\bar{f}_\lambda|_*$. Then $v = \bar{v}$, $N = wf_\lambda|_* = \bar{w}\bar{f}_\lambda|_* = \bar{N}$ and $wf_{xx}|_*(v, v) = \bar{w}\bar{f}_{xx}|_*(\bar{v}, \bar{v})$.

Proof (a): The uniqueness of the zero of h implies that $0 = \bar{f}(x) = h(f(x)) \iff 0 = f(x)$ and $Z = f^{-1}(0) = \bar{f}^{-1}(0) = \bar{Z}$. Since $\bar{f}_x|_* = h_x|_0 f_x|_*$ and $h_x|_0$ is invertible, $\text{rank } f_z|_* = n \iff \text{rank } \bar{f}_z|_* = n$. Now Lemma 1(a) yields f has a fold bifurcation $\iff Z$ has a fold and $\text{rank } f_z|_* = n \iff \bar{Z}$ has a fold and $\text{rank } \bar{f}_z|_* = n \iff \bar{f}$ has a fold bifurcation.

(b): Lemma 1(b) yields (b). \square

The essentials of a fold in π are not changed when Z is changed by a diffeomorphism affecting only the state space only as proved in lemma 3. Note that lemma 3 applies when a new state space of different dimension is used.

Lemma 3. Let Z be a submanifold of $X \times \Lambda$ of dimension m and $\pi : Z \rightarrow \Lambda$ be the restriction to Z of the natural projection $X \times \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda$. Suppose π has a fold at $z_* \in Z$ so that $\pi_z|_*$ has rank $m - 1$ and $N\pi_{zz}|_*(V, V) \neq 0$ where V and N are nonzero vectors satisfying $\pi_z|_* V = 0$ and $N\pi_z|_* = 0$. Let \bar{Z} be a submanifold of $\bar{X} \times \Lambda$ and $\bar{\pi} : \bar{Z} \rightarrow \Lambda$ be the restriction to \bar{Z} of the natural projection $\bar{X} \times \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda$. Suppose that there is a diffeomorphism $\phi : Z \rightarrow \bar{Z}$ which is onto and which preserves Λ so that $\bar{\pi}\phi = \pi$. Let $\bar{V} = \phi_z|_*(V)$ and $\bar{N} = N$ and $\bar{z}_* = \phi(z_*)$. Then $\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}}|_{\bar{*}}$ has rank $m - 1$, $\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}}|_{\bar{*}} \bar{V} = 0$, $\bar{N}\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}\bar{z}}|_{\bar{*}}(\bar{V}, \bar{V}) = N\pi_{zz}|_*(V, V)$, and $\bar{\pi}$ has a fold at \bar{z}_* .

Proof : ϕ a diffeomorphism and $\bar{\pi}\phi = \pi$ implies $\bar{\pi} = \pi\phi^{-1}$ and

$$\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}} = \pi_z(\phi_z)^{-1}. \quad (\text{A-4})$$

Hence $\text{range } \bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}}|_{\phi(z_*)} = \text{range } \pi_z|_{z_*}$. In particular, $\text{rank } \bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}}|_{\bar{*}} = \text{rank } \pi_z|_* = m - 1$. Also

$$\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}}|_{\bar{*}} \bar{V} = \pi_z|_*(\phi_z|_*)^{-1} \phi_z|_* V = \pi_z|_* V = 0$$

and

$$\bar{N}\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}\bar{z}}|_{\bar{*}} = N\pi_{zz}|_*(\phi_z|_*)^{-1} = 0.$$

Rearranging Eq. (A-4) and differentiating yields

$$\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}\bar{z}}\phi_z\phi_z + \bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}}\phi_{zz} = \pi_{zz}.$$

Multiplying by $N = \bar{N}$ and V and evaluating at z_* gives

$$\bar{N}\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}\bar{z}}|_{\bar{*}}(\bar{V}, \bar{V}) = N\pi_{zz}|_*(V, V). \quad (\text{A-5})$$

The results obtained imply that $\bar{\pi}$ has a fold at \bar{z}_* . \square

Note that Eq. (A-5) only holds when the scaling of \bar{V} and V is such that $\bar{V} = \phi(V)$. However, Eq. (A-5) is usually used to ensure that $N\pi_{zz}|_*(V, V) \neq 0 \iff \bar{N}\bar{\pi}_{\bar{z}\bar{z}}|_{\bar{*}}(\bar{V}, \bar{V}) \neq 0$ and in this case the scalings of \bar{V} and V are irrelevant.

Lemma 4. Let $f : X \times \Lambda \rightarrow X$ be smooth and have zero set Z . Let $\bar{f} : X \times \Lambda \rightarrow X$ be smooth and have zero set \bar{Z} . Suppose that $Z = \bar{Z}$ and that at $z_* \in Z$, $\text{rank } f_z|_* = \text{rank } \bar{f}_z|_*$ where $z = (x, \lambda)$. Then

(a) f has a fold bifurcation at $z_* \iff \bar{f}$ has a fold bifurcation at z_* .

(b) Choose the scalings of $\bar{v}, \bar{w}, \bar{N}$ such that $|v| = |\bar{v}|$ and $|wf_\lambda|_* = |\bar{w}\bar{f}_\lambda|_*$. Then $v = \bar{v}$, $N = wf_\lambda|_* = \bar{w}\bar{f}_\lambda|_* = \bar{N}$ and $wf_{xx}|_*(v, v) = \bar{w}\bar{f}_{xx}|_*(\bar{v}, \bar{v})$.

Proof : Follows from lemmas 1 and 3 with ϕ as the identity map. \square

Lemma 5. Let $f(x, \lambda) = \begin{pmatrix} f^1(a, b, \lambda) \\ f^2(a, b, \lambda) \end{pmatrix}$ be a smooth function with component functions f^1, f^2 where

$$\begin{aligned} f &: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, \\ f^1 &: \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-\bar{n}} \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}}, \\ f^2 &: \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-\bar{n}} \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-\bar{n}}. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose that $\text{rank } f_b^2|_* = n - \bar{n}$ so that $f_b^2|_*$ is invertible.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Define } \bar{f} &: \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}} \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}}, \\ \bar{f}(a, \lambda) &= f^1(a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda), \end{aligned}$$

where h is the unique smooth function $U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n-\bar{n}}$ satisfying $f^2(a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda) = 0$ and $h(a_*, \lambda_*) = b_*$ for some neighborhood U of (a_*, λ_*) . Write $z = (x, \lambda)$ and $\bar{z} = (a, \lambda)$. Then

- (a) $\text{rank } f_z = n \iff \text{rank } \bar{f}_{\bar{z}} = \bar{n}$.
- (b) f has a fold bifurcation at $z_* = (a_*, b_*, \lambda_*) \iff \bar{f}$ has a fold bifurcation at $\bar{z}_* = (a_*, \lambda_*)$.
- (c) For suitable scaling of \bar{N} and \bar{v} ,
 $N = \bar{N}$ and $v = \begin{pmatrix} v^1 \\ v^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{v} \\ h_a|_* \bar{v} \end{pmatrix}$.

Proof (a): Observe that $\text{rank } f_z = \text{rank } f_{z,b}$ since f_z and $f_{z,b}$ differ only in the order of their columns. Note that $\bar{f}_{\bar{z}} = f_{z,b}^1 - f_b^1 (f_b^2)^{-1} f_{z,b}^2$ and

$$\begin{pmatrix} f_{z,b}^1 & f_b^1 \\ f_{z,b}^2 & f_b^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_{\bar{n}+m} & 0 \\ -(f_b^2)^{-1} f_{z,b}^2 & I_{n-\bar{n}} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{f}_{\bar{z}} & f_b^1 \\ 0 & f_b^2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (\text{A-6})$$

The rank of the LHS of Eq. (A-6) = $\text{rank } f_{z,b}$ since the second matrix is invertible and the rank of the RHS of Eq. (A-6) = $\text{rank } \bar{f}_{\bar{z}} + \text{rank } f_b^2 = \text{rank } \bar{f}_{\bar{z}} + n - \bar{n}$. Hence $\text{rank } f_z = \text{rank } \bar{f}_{\bar{z}} + n - \bar{n}$ and (a) follows.

(b): By lemma 1(a), f has a fold bifurcation at z_* implies that its zero set Z has a fold at z_* and $\text{rank } f_z|_* = n$. In particular, Z is a submanifold of $U_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m$ where U_1 is a neighborhood of z_* . By part (a), $\text{rank } f_{\bar{z}}$ has rank \bar{n} and it follows (see proof of lemma 1(a)) that the zero set \bar{Z} of \bar{f} is a submanifold of $\bar{U}_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}} \times \mathbb{R}^m$ where \bar{U}_1 is a neighborhood of \bar{z}_* . Similarly \bar{f} has a fold bifurcation at \bar{z}_* implies that \bar{Z} is a submanifold of \bar{U}_1 and Z is a submanifold of U_1 . Thus either f has a fold bifurcation at z_* or \bar{f} has a fold bifurcation at \bar{z}_* imply that both Z and \bar{Z} are submanifolds.

Define

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta &: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \\ \zeta(a, \lambda) &= (a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda), \\ \eta &: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\bar{n}} \times \mathbb{R}^m \\ \eta(a, b, \lambda) &= (a, \lambda). \end{aligned}$$

We can find open sets V, \bar{V} with $z_* \in V \subset U_1, \bar{z}_* \in \bar{V} \subset \bar{U}_1$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} (a, \lambda) \in \bar{Z} \cap \bar{V} &\iff \bar{f}(a, \lambda) = 0 \\ &\iff f^1(a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda) = 0 \\ &\iff f^1(a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda) = 0 \text{ and } f^2(a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda) = 0 \\ &\iff f(a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda) = 0 \\ &\iff (a, h(a, \lambda), \lambda) \in Z \cap V. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\zeta|_{\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}}$ maps $\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}$ onto $Z \cap V$. Since $\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}$ is a submanifold of U and $Z \cap V$ is a submanifold of $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m$ and ζ and η are smooth functions, $\zeta|_{\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}}$ and $\eta|_{Z \cap V}$ are smooth functions. Moreover, it is easy to verify that $\zeta|_{\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}} \circ \eta|_{Z \cap V}$ and $\eta|_{Z \cap V} \circ \zeta|_{\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}}$ are identity functions. Therefore $\zeta|_{\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}}$ is diffeomorphism from $\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}$ onto $Z \cap V$. Now use part (a) and lemmas 1(a) and 3 to deduce result (b).

(c): From part (b) and lemmas 1(b) and 3, we obtain

$$N = \bar{N} \text{ and } v = (\zeta|_{\bar{Z} \cap \bar{V}})|_{\bar{z}_*}(\bar{v}) = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{v} \\ h_a|_* \bar{v} \end{pmatrix}. \quad \square$$

B. Manipulation of a load model

The dynamic load model is specified by

$$\dot{y} = f^1(y, V, \lambda) \quad (\text{B-1})$$

$$0 = g(\dot{P}^d, \dot{V}, P^d, V, \lambda) \quad (\text{B-2})$$

$$P^d = P(y, V). \quad (\text{B-3})$$

We apply lemma 1 by first eliminating P^d and solving g to obtain an expression for \dot{V} to put the equations in state space form. Suppose that $g_{\dot{P}^d} P_V + g_{\dot{V}} \neq 0$. As shown below, this condition is sufficient for Eqs. (B-1)–(B-3) to define well posed differential equations in state variables (y, V) . Differentiating Eq. (B-3), substituting in Eq. (B-2) and using Eq. (B-1) yields

$$0 = g(P_y f^1(y, V, \lambda) + P_V \dot{V}, \dot{V}, P(y, V), V, \lambda). \quad (\text{B-4})$$

Let (y_*, V_*, λ_*) be an equilibrium of Eqs. (B-1)–(B-3). Then (y_*, V_*, λ_*) also satisfies Eq. (B-4). Since $g_{\dot{P}^d} P_V + g_{\dot{V}} \neq 0$, the implicit function theorem implies that there is an open set $U \ni (y_*, V_*, \lambda_*)$ and a unique smooth function $f^2 : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f^2(y_*, V_*, \lambda_*) = 0$ and

$$g(P_y f^1(y, V, \lambda) + P_V f^2(y, V, \lambda), f^2(y, V, \lambda), P(y, V), V, \lambda) = 0. \quad (\text{B-5})$$

Now Eqs. (B-1)–(B-3) can be written in state space form in U :

$$\dot{y} = f^1(y, V, \lambda)$$

$$\dot{V} = f^2(y, V, \lambda).$$

Applying lemma 2 yields the static equations

$$0 = f^1(y, V, \lambda) \quad (\text{B-6})$$

$$0 = f^2(y, V, \lambda). \quad (\text{B-7})$$

Now we use lemma 4 to deduce that fold bifurcations of Eqs. (B-6) and (B-7) are the same for the equations

$$0 = f^1(y, V, \lambda) \quad (\text{B-8})$$

$$0 = g(0, 0, P(y, V), V, \lambda). \quad (\text{B-9})$$

Eqs. (B-6) and (B-7) imply Eqs. (B-8) and (B-9) via Eq. (B-5). Conversely, Eqs. (B-8) and (B-9) imply that for $(y, V, \lambda) \in U$,

$$0 = g(P_V f^2(y, V, \lambda), f^2(y, V, \lambda), P(y, V), V, \lambda). \quad (\text{B-10})$$

But f^2 is unique so we can deduce from Eqs. (B-9) and (B-10) that $0 = f^2(y, V, \lambda)$. Hence Eqs. (B-6) and (B-7) and Eqs. (B-8) and (B-9) are equivalent and have the same zero set Z .

Write $z = (y, V, \lambda)$. To apply lemma 4, it remains to show that the ranks of the Jacobians with respect to z of Eqs. (B-6) and (B-7) and Eqs. (B-8) and (B-9) are the same at a point $z_* \in Z$.

The Jacobian of Eqs. (B-8) and (B-9) is $\begin{pmatrix} f_z^1|_* \\ a \end{pmatrix}$ where $a = [g(0, 0, P(y, V), V, \lambda)]_z|_*$. Differentiating Eq. (B-5) with respect to z and evaluating at z_* yields

$$0 = \left(g_{\hat{P}^d} P_V + g_{\hat{V}}\right)|_* f_z^2|_* + \left(g_{\hat{P}^d} P_y\right)|_* f_z^1|_* + a,$$

and since $g_{\hat{P}^d} P_V + g_{\hat{V}} \neq 0$, we can deduce that $\text{rank} \begin{pmatrix} f_z^1|_* \\ a \end{pmatrix} = \text{rank} \begin{pmatrix} f_z^1|_* \\ f_z^2|_* \end{pmatrix}$.

C. Concerning the definition of fold

This appendix shows that the definition of fold point of Z in Appendix A is standard by proving it equivalent to the definition 4.1 of fold point in [43, chapter 3 page 87]. The proof also shows a geometric meaning of the transversality condition $N\pi_{zz}|_*(V, V) \neq 0$.

It is convenient to work in a fixed chart of Z with open set $U_1 \ni z_*$ and to neglect the distinction between objects associated with Z and their coordinates. Define the matrix function

$$\begin{aligned} M : U_1 &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times m} \\ z_1 &\mapsto \pi_z|_{z_1} \end{aligned}$$

and define S_{m-1} to be the matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ of rank $m - 1$. S_{m-1} is a submanifold of $\mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ (see proof of lemma 6 below or [43, page 60]). If M intersects S_{m-1} transversally at $M(z_*)$, let U_2 be a neighborhood of z_* on which M intersects S_{m-1} transversally and define the submanifold F of U_1 by $F = M^{-1}(S_{m-1}) \cap U_2$.

Then definition 4.1 of [43] may be rewritten and specialized to:

$z_* \in U_1$ is a fold point of π iff

- (a) $\pi_z|_* = M(z_*) \in S_{m-1}$.
- (b) M intersects S_{m-1} transversally at $\pi_z|_*$.
- (c) $TF|_* + \ker \pi_z|_* = TZ|_*$.

Define $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow Z$ to be a smooth curve in Z with $\gamma(0) = z_*$ and $\gamma_s|_0 = v$. Since $\ker \pi_z|_* = \langle v \rangle$, condition (c) is equivalent to

(c') γ intersects F transversally at z_* .

Let W_1 be a neighborhood of 0 in \mathbb{R} so that $\gamma(W_1) \subset U_1$. Define the curve of matrices $A = M \circ \gamma$:

$$\begin{aligned} A : W_1 &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times m} \\ s &\mapsto M(\gamma(s)). \end{aligned}$$

Now we claim that the condition

(d) A intersects S_{m-1} transversally at $\pi_z|_*$.

is equivalent to conditions (b) and (c'). For (c') implies $\gamma_s|_0 \notin TF|_*$ and this, together with (b) implies $M_z(\gamma_s|_0) = A_s|_0 \notin TS_{m-1}|_{M(*)}$ and hence (d). Conversely, (d) implies (b). Moreover, (d) implies (c') because γ not transverse to F at z_* implies $\gamma_s|_0 \in TF$ implies $A_s|_0 = M_z(\gamma_s|_0) \in TS_{m-1}|_{M(*)}$ implies that A is not transverse to S_{m-1} at $\pi_z|_*$.

Lemma 6 below proves that condition (d) is equivalent to

$$NA_s|_0 V \neq 0.$$

But $A_s|_0 = (M(\gamma(s)))_s|_0 = M_z|_* \gamma_s|_0 = \pi_{zz}|_* v$ so condition (d) is equivalent to

$$N\pi_{zz}|_*(V, V) \neq 0,$$

which is the condition ZF(c). But conditions (a) and (b) are equivalent to ZF(a) and ZF(b). Therefore the conditions ZF(a), ZF(b), ZF(c) of the fold definition in Appendix A are equivalent the definition 4.1 of [43].

It remains to state and prove the following:

Lemma 6. Let $A : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ be a smooth function so that $A(s)$ is an $m \times m$ matrix parameterized by s . Suppose $A(0)$ has rank $m - 1$ and let v and N be nonzero vectors such that $A(0)v = 0$ and $NA(0) = 0$. Let S_{m-1} be the submanifold of matrices in $\mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ with rank $m - 1$. Then

$$A \text{ transversal to } S_{m-1} \text{ at } A(0) \iff NA_s|_{0V} \neq 0.$$

Proof : Write B^{ij} for the cofactor of the (i, j) element of a matrix $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$. Since $A(0)$ has rank $m - 1$, i and j can be chosen so that $(A(0))^{ij} \neq 0$. Define the smooth functions $\tilde{n}(B) = (B^{1j}, B^{2j}, \dots, B^{mj})$ and $\tilde{v}(B) = (B^{i1}, B^{i2}, \dots, B^{im})^T$. Let $U \subset \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ be a neighborhood of $A(0)$ such that $B \in U \Rightarrow B^{ij} \neq 0$. Define

$$\begin{aligned} \beta : U &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ B &\mapsto \tilde{n}(B)B\tilde{v}(B). \end{aligned}$$

Write e_i for the column vector with 1 in the i th coordinate and 0 elsewhere. Recall that multiplying elements of a matrix row by their corresponding cofactors and adding yields the matrix determinant while multiplying elements of a matrix row by the cofactors corresponding to another row of the matrix and adding yields zero. Hence

$$B\tilde{v}(B) = \det B e_i \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{n}(B)B = \det B e_j^T, \quad (\text{C-1})$$

and it follows that

$$\beta(B) = B^{ij} \det B.$$

Then $S_{m-1} \cap U = \beta^{-1}(0)$ because, in U , $B^{ij} \neq 0$ so that $\text{rank } B = m - 1$ iff $\det B = 0$. β is regular because the expansion of a determinant in terms of cofactors implies that $[\det B]_{b_{ij}} = B^{ij}$ and hence that $\beta_{b_{ij}} = (B^{ij})^2 \neq 0$. (Here $[\det B]_{b_{ij}}$ and $\beta_{b_{ij}}$ denote the gradients of $\det B$ and β with respect to b_{ij} .) $S_{m-1} \cap U = \beta^{-1}(0)$ and β regular imply that $TS_{m-1} = \ker \beta_B$.

Let $V \subset \mathbb{R}$ be a neighborhood of 0 with $A(V) \subset U$. Define $\alpha : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $\alpha(s) = \beta(A(s))$. Then, since $TS_{m-1} = \ker \beta_B$ and β regular, A transversal to S_{m-1} at $A(0) \iff \alpha_s|_0 = \beta_B|_{A(0)} A_s|_0 \neq 0$.

It remains to prove that $\alpha_s|_0 = NA_s|_{0V}$ for suitable rescalings of N and v . Eq. (C-1) implies that $A(0)\tilde{v}(A(0)) = \det A(0) e_i = 0$. Moreover, $\tilde{v}(A(0)) \neq 0$ since it has a nonzero component $(A(0))^{ij}$. Since $A(0)$ has a one dimensional kernel, a suitable rescaling of v yields $v = \tilde{v}(A(0))$. Similarly $N = \tilde{n}(A(0))$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_s|_0 &= [\tilde{n}(A(s))A(s)\tilde{v}(A(s))]_s|_0 \\ &= [\tilde{n}(A(s))]_s|_0 A(0)v + NA_s|_{0V} + NA(0)[\tilde{v}(A(s))]_s|_0 \\ &= NA_s|_{0V}. \end{aligned}$$

□

References

- [1] T. Van Cutsem and C. Vournas, *Voltage Stability of Electric Power Systems*, Kluwer, Norwell MA, 1998.
- [2] T. Van Cutsem, "Voltage instability: phenomena, countermeasures, and analysis methods," *Proc. IEEE*, vol. 88, no. 2, pp. 208–227, February 2000.
- [3] IEEE PES Power System Stability Subcommittee, *Voltage Stability Assessment: Concepts, Practices and Tools*, IEEE PES Power System Stability Subcommittee Special Publication, IEEE product number SP101PSS, ISBN 0780378695, 2002.
- [4] S. Greene, I. Dobson, and F.L. Alvarado, "Sensitivity of the loading margin to voltage collapse with respect to arbitrary parameters," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 262–272, February 1997.
- [5] C.A. Cañizares, "Conditions for saddle-node bifurcations in AC/DC power systems," *Int. J. Electr. Power Energy Syst.*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 61–68, February 1995.

- [6] I. Dobson and L. Lu, "Voltage collapse precipitated by the immediate change in stability when generator reactive power limits are encountered," *IEEE Trans. Circuits Syst. I*, vol. 39, no. 9, pp. 762–766, September 1992.
- [7] I. Dobson and L. Lu, "Computing an optimum direction in control space to avoid saddle node bifurcation and voltage collapse in electric power systems," *IEEE Trans. Autom. Control*, vol. 37, no. 10, pp. 1616–1620, October 1992.
- [8] T. Van Cutsem, "Analysis of emergency voltage situations," *11th Power Systems Computation Conference*, Avignon, France, September 1993.
- [9] H. Li, H.-D. Chiang, and J. Tong, "An on-line tool for voltage stability assessment and control of large-scale power systems," *Proc. Bulk Power System Dynamics and Control VI*, Cortina d'Ampezzo, Italy, August 2004.
- [10] I. Dobson, "The irrelevance of load dynamics for the loading margin to voltage collapse and its sensitivities," *Proc. Bulk Power System Voltage Phenomena III, Voltage Stability, Security and Control*, L.H. Fink, Ed., Davos, Switzerland, 1994.
- [11] I. Dobson, "Distance to bifurcation in multidimensional parameter space: margin sensitivity and closest bifurcations," chapter 3, pp. 49–66 in *Bifurcation Control, Theory and Applications*, editors G. Chen, D.J. Hill, and X. Yu, Lecture Notes in Control and Information Sciences, vol. 293, ISBN 3-540-40341-8, Springer Verlag, 2003.
- [12] C.A. Cañizares and F.L. Alvarado, "Point of collapse and continuation methods for large AC/DC systems," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 1–8, February 1993.
- [13] H.-D. Chiang, A. Flueck, K.S. Shah, and N. Balu, "CPFLOW: A practical tool for tracing power system steady-state stationary behavior due to load and generation variations," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 10, no. 2, pp. 623–634, May 1995.
- [14] K. Iba, H. Suzuki, M. Egawa, and T. Watanabe, "Calculation of critical loading condition with nose curve using homotopy continuation method," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 6, pp. 584–593, May 1991.
- [15] V. Ajjarapu and C. Christy, "The continuation power flow: a tool for steady state voltage stability analysis," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 416–423, February 1992.
- [16] A. Kurita, et al., "Multiple time-scale power system dynamic simulation," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 216–223, February 1993.
- [17] I. Dobson and H.-D. Chiang, "Towards a theory of voltage collapse in electric power systems," *Syst. Contr. Lett.*, vol. 13, pp. 253–262, 1989.
- [18] I. Dobson, "Observations on the geometry of saddle node bifurcation and voltage collapse in electric power systems," *IEEE Trans. Circuits Syst. I*, vol. 39, no. 3, pp. 240–243, March 1992.
- [19] I. Dobson, "Computing a closest bifurcation instability in multidimensional parameter space," *J. Nonlinear Sci.*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 307–327, 1993.
- [20] I. Dobson and L. Lu, "New methods for computing a closest saddle node bifurcation and worst case load power margin for voltage collapse," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 905–913, August 1993.
- [21] J. Lu., C.W. Liu, and J.S. Thorp, "New methods for computing a saddle-node bifurcation point for voltage stability analysis," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 10, no. 2, pp. 978–985, May 1995.
- [22] R. Wang and R.H. Lasseter, "Re-dispatching generation to increase power system security margin and support low voltage bus," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 15, no. 2, pp. 496–501, May 2000.
- [23] F.L. Alvarado, I. Dobson, and Y. Hu, "Computation of closest bifurcations in power systems," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 918–928, May 1994.
- [24] C.A. Cañizares, "Calculating optimal system parameters to maximize the distance to saddle-node bifurcations," *IEEE Trans. Circuits Syst. I*, vol. 45, no. 3, pp. 225–237, March 1998.
- [25] F. Capitanescu and T. Van Cutsem, "Unified sensitivity analysis of unstable or low voltages caused by load increases or contingencies," *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 321–329, February 2005.
- [26] S. Greene, I. Dobson, and F.L. Alvarado, "Contingency ranking for voltage collapse via sensitiv-

- ities from a single nose curve,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 14, no. 1, pp. 232–240, February 1999.
- [27] Y. Li, H.-D. Chiang, H. Li, Y.-T. Chen, and D.-H. Huang, “Applying bifurcation analysis to determine optimal placements of measurement devices for power system load modeling,” *Int. J. Bifurcation Chaos*, vol. 18, no. 7, pp. 2111–2121, 2008.
- [28] H.-D. Chiang, L. Jin, M. Varghese, S. Ghosh, and H. Li, “Linear and nonlinear methods for contingency analysis in on-line voltage security assessments,” *IEEE Power Engineering Society General Meeting*, Calgary, Alberta, Canada, July 2009.
- [29] S. Greene, I. Dobson, and F.L. Alvarado, “Sensitivity of transfer capability margins with a fast formula,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 17, no. 1, pp. 34–40, February 2002.
- [30] J. Zhang, I. Dobson, and F.L. Alvarado, “Quantifying transmission reliability margin,” *Int. J. Electr. Power Energy Syst.*, vol. 26, no. 9, pp. 697–702, 2004.
- [31] D.J. Hill, “Nonlinear dynamic load models with recovery for voltage stability studies,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 166–176, February 1993.
- [32] H.-D. Chiang, C.-W. Liu, P.P. Varaiya, F.F. Wu, and M.G. Lauby, “Chaos in a simple power system,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 8, no. 4, pp. 1407–1417, November 1993.
- [33] V. Ajjarapu and B. Lee, “Bifurcation theory and its application to nonlinear dynamical phenomena in an electrical power system,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 424–431, February 1992.
- [34] J.H. Chow and A. Gebreselassie, “Dynamic voltage stability of a single machine constant power load system,” *Proc. 29th IEEE Conference on Decision and Control*, Honolulu HI, pp. 3057–3062, December 1990.
- [35] I. Dobson, F.L. Alvarado, and C.L. DeMarco, “Sensitivity of Hopf bifurcations to power system parameters,” *Proc. 31st IEEE Conference on Decision and Control*, Tucson AZ, pp. 2928–2933, December 1992.
- [36] H.O. Wang, E.H. Abed, and A.M.A. Hamdan, “Bifurcations, chaos, and crises in voltage collapse of a model power system,” *IEEE Trans. Circuits Syst. I*, vol. 41, no. 4, pp. 294–302, April 1994.
- [37] C. Rajagopalan, B. Lesieutre, P.W. Sauer, and M.A. Pai, “Dynamic aspects of voltage/power characteristics,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 990–1000, August 1993.
- [38] T.J. Overbye, I. Dobson, and C.L. DeMarco, “Q-V curve interpretations of energy measures for voltage security,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 331–340, February 1994.
- [39] B. Gao, G.K. Morison, and P. Kundur, “Voltage stability evaluation using modal analysis,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 7, no. 4, pp. 1529–1542, November 1992.
- [40] P.-A. Löf, G. Andersson, and D.J. Hill, “Voltage stability indices for stressed power systems,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 326–335, February 1993.
- [41] A. Tiranuchit and R.J. Thomas, “A posturing strategy against voltage instabilities in electric power systems,” *IEEE Trans. Power Syst.*, vol. 3, no. 1, pp. 87–93, February 1988.
- [42] S.N. Chow and J. Hale, *Methods of Bifurcation Theory*, Springer Verlag, New York, 1982.
- [43] M. Golubitsky and V. Guillemin, *Stable Mappings and their Singularities*, Graduate Texts in Mathematics 14, Springer Verlag, New York, 1973.
- [44] J. Guckenheimer and P. Holmes, *Nonlinear Oscillations, Dynamical Systems and Bifurcations of Vector Fields*, Springer Verlag, New York, 1983.
- [45] V. Venkatasubramanian, H. Schättler, and J. Zaborszky, “Voltage dynamics: study of a generator with voltage control, transmission and matched MW load,” *IEEE Trans. Autom. Control*, vol. 37, no. 11, pp. 1717–1733, November 1992.