

# ECEN 667

## Power System Stability

### Lecture 18: Stability Signal Analysis, Part 1

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# Announcements

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- HW #4 is on the website, due Nov 6<sup>th</sup> at 8 AM.
- Read the following paper by Nov 11<sup>th</sup> :
  - S. Maslennikov and E. Litvinov, "ISO New England Experience in Locating the Source of Oscillations Online," in *IEEE Transactions on Power Systems*, vol. 36, no. 1, pp. 495-503, Jan. 2021
- HW #5 is on the website, due Nov 20<sup>th</sup> at 8 AM.
- Review the slides and PowerWorld examples
- **Exam 2 will be Tuesday, December 2<sup>nd</sup>, 2025**

# Oscillations



- An oscillation is just a repetitive motion that can be either undamped, positively damped (decaying with time) or negatively damped (growing with time)
- If the oscillation can be written as a sinusoid then

$$e^{\alpha t} (a \cos(\omega t) + b \sin(\omega t)) = e^{\alpha t} C \cos(\omega t + \theta)$$

$$\text{where } C = \sqrt{A^2 + B^2} \text{ and } \theta = \tan\left(\frac{-b}{a}\right)$$

- The damping ratio is

$$\xi = \frac{-\alpha}{\sqrt{\alpha^2 + \omega^2}}$$

The percent damping is just the damping ratio multiplied by 100; goal is sufficiently positive damping

# Power System Oscillations

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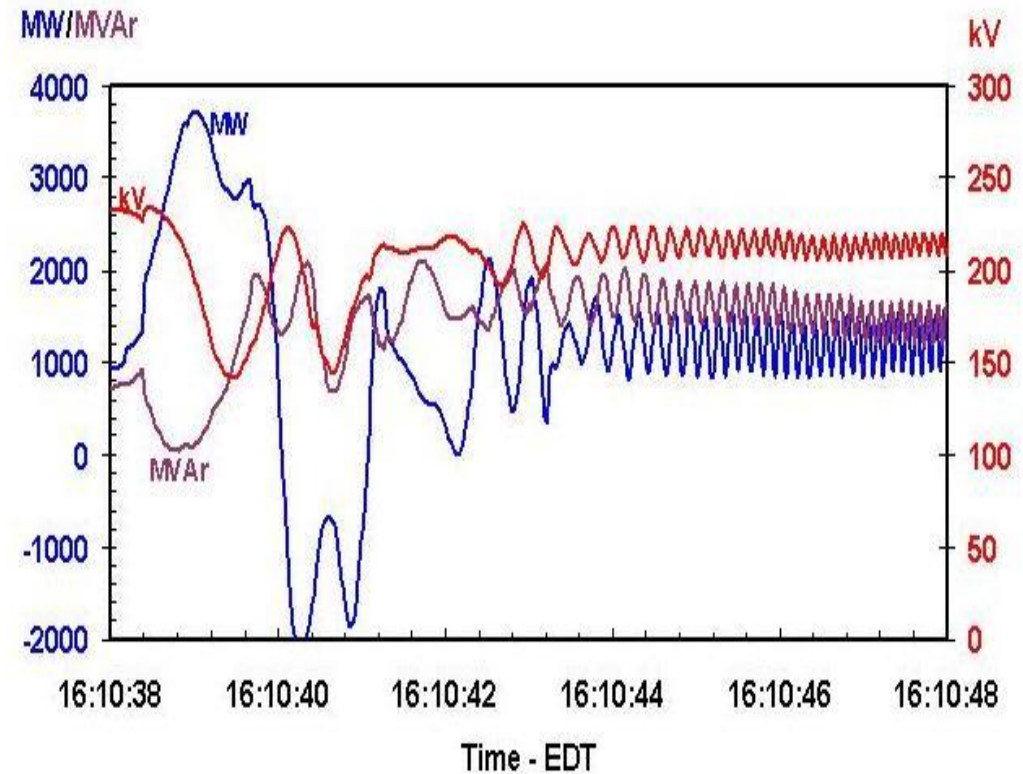
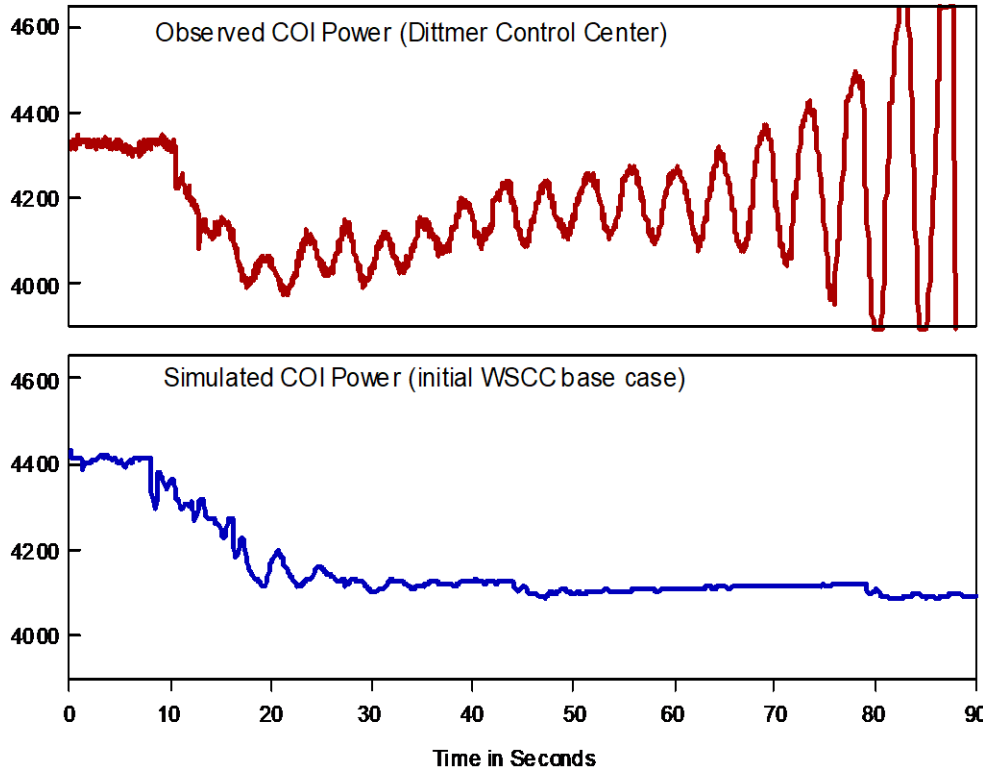


- Power systems can experience a wide range of oscillations, ranging from highly damped and high frequency switching transients to sustained low frequency ( $< 2$  Hz) inter-area oscillations affecting an entire interconnect
- Types of oscillations include
  - Transients: Usually high frequency and highly damped
  - Local plant: Usually from 1 to 5 Hz
  - Inter-area oscillations: From 0.15 to 1 Hz
  - Slower dynamics: Such as AGC, less than 0.15 Hz
  - Subsynchronous resonance: 10 to 50 Hz (less than synchronous)

# Example Oscillations



- The left graph shows an oscillation that was observed during a 1996 WECC Blackout, the right from the 8/14/2003 blackout



# References

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- For the 1996 WECC blackout, more information is available at
  - [www.nerc.com/pa/rrm/ea/System%20Disturbance%20Reports%20DL/1996SystemDisturbance.pdf](http://www.nerc.com/pa/rrm/ea/System%20Disturbance%20Reports%20DL/1996SystemDisturbance.pdf); the July 2, 1996 event was caused by a tree contact
- Charlie Concordia wrote a paper on electric grid oscillations in 1938
  - C. Concordia, S. B. Crary, J.M. Lyons, Stability Characteristics of Turbine Generators, *AIEE Transactions*, vol. 57, pp. 732-744, 1938.
- There is a 2021 NERC document on oscillations at [www.nerc.com/comm/PC/SMSResourcesDocuments/Interconnection\\_Oscillation\\_Analysis.pdf](http://www.nerc.com/comm/PC/SMSResourcesDocuments/Interconnection_Oscillation_Analysis.pdf)
  - Also see T.J. Overbye, S. Kunkolienkar, F. Safdarian, A. Birchfield, “On the Existence of Dominant Inter-Area Oscillation Modes in the North American Eastern Interconnect Stability Simulations”, 57th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, Honolulu, HI, January 2024

# Modes

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- A mode is a concept from linear system analysis
  - Electric grids certainly are not linear, but usually their response to small disturbances is approximated as linear
- A mode corresponds to one of the eigenvalues of the response or, for oscillations, a complex pair of eigenvalues
- A mode has a frequency and damping; all parts of the system oscillate with this pattern
- The mode shape tells how parts of the system participate in the mode
- There can be multiple modes in a system; power systems can have many modes

# Causes of Power System Oscillations

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- The response of a simple system can be divided into its natural response versus its forced response
  - The natural response tells how the system will response to an initial disturbance without any additional (external) influences; this response shows the system's modes
  - A forced response is associated with an external disturbance; if the external disturbance is periodic then the system will oscillate at least partially at this frequency
  - Often forced oscillations are due to control failures
- Resonance occurs when a forced response is at a similar frequency to one of the system's modes
- An power system can experience both types of oscillations

# Forced Oscillations in WECC (from [1])

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- Summer 2013 24 hour data: 0.37 Hz oscillations observed for several hours. Confirmed to be forced oscillations at a hydro plant from vortex effect.
- 2014 data: Another 0.5 Hz oscillation also observed. Source points to hydro unit as well. And 0.7 Hz. And 1.12 Hz. And 2 Hz.
- Resonance possible when system modes are poorly damped and close to the forcing function. Resonance can be observed in model simulations.

1. M. Venkatasubramanian, “Oscillation Monitoring System”, June 2015

<http://www.energy.gov/sites/prod/files/2015/07/f24/3.%20Mani%20Oscillation%20Monitoring.pdf>

# Observing Modes and Damping



- With the advent of wide-scale PMU deployments, the modes and damping can be observed two ways
  - Event (ringdown) analysis – this requires an event
  - Ambient noise analysis – always available, but not as distinct

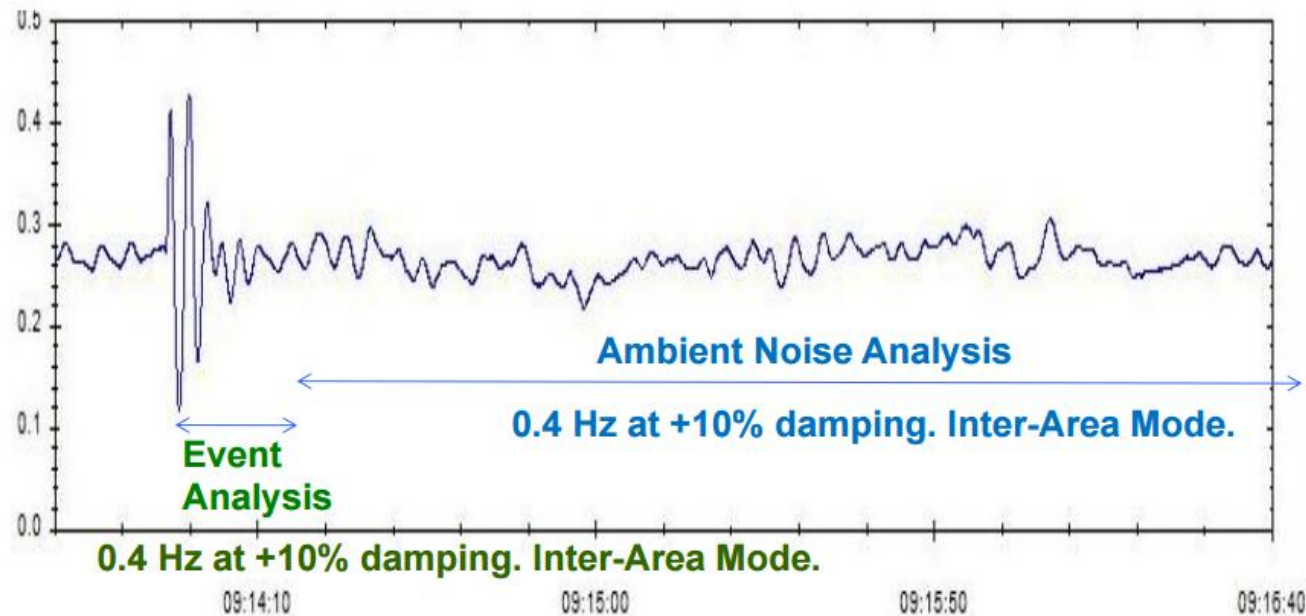


Image Source: M. Venkatasubramanian, "Oscillation Monitoring System", June 2015  
<http://www.energy.gov/sites/prod/files/2015/07/f24/3.%20Mani%20Oscillation%20Monitoring.pdf>

# Resonance with Interarea Mode [1]

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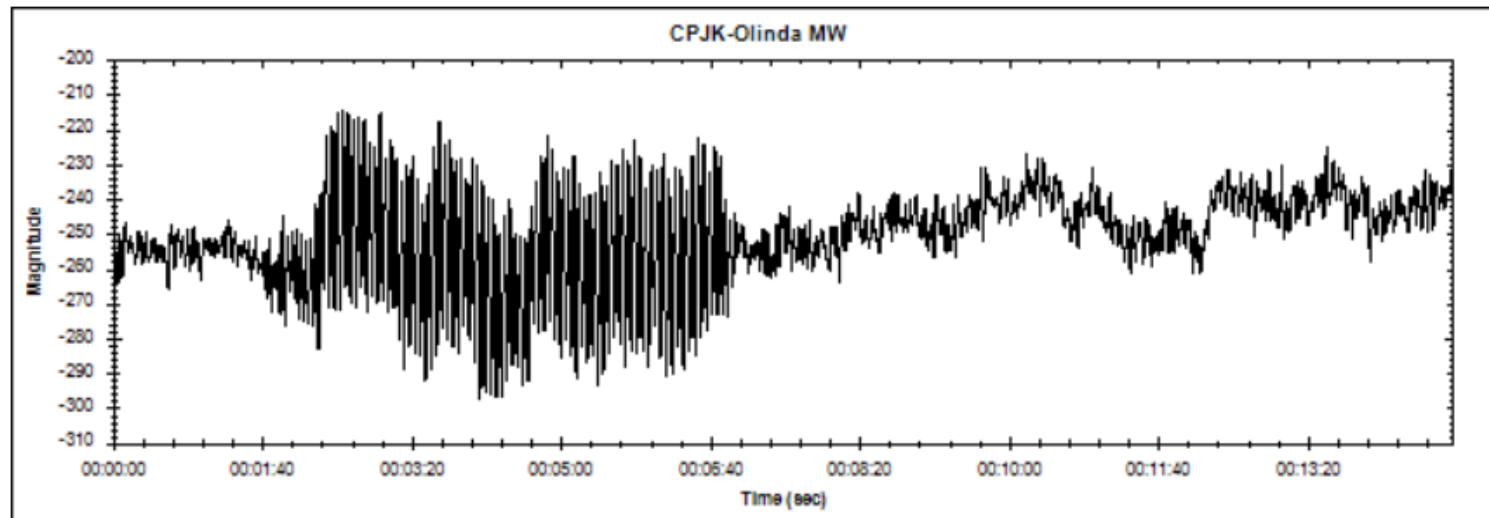


- Resonance effect high when:
  - Forced oscillation frequency near system mode frequency
  - System mode poorly damped
  - Forced oscillation location near the two distant ends of mode
- Resonance effect medium when
  - Some conditions hold
- Resonance effect small when
  - None of the conditions holds

# Medium Resonance on 11/29/2005



- 20 MW 0.26 Hz Forced Oscillation in Alberta Canada
- 200 MW Oscillations on California-Oregon Inter-tie
- System mode 0.27 Hz at 8% damping
- Two out of the three conditions were true.



1. M. Venkatasubramanian, "Oscillation Monitoring System", June 2015  
<http://www.energy.gov/sites/prod/files/2015/07/f24/3.%20Mani%20Oscillation%20Monitoring.pdf>

# An Online Oscillation Detection Tool

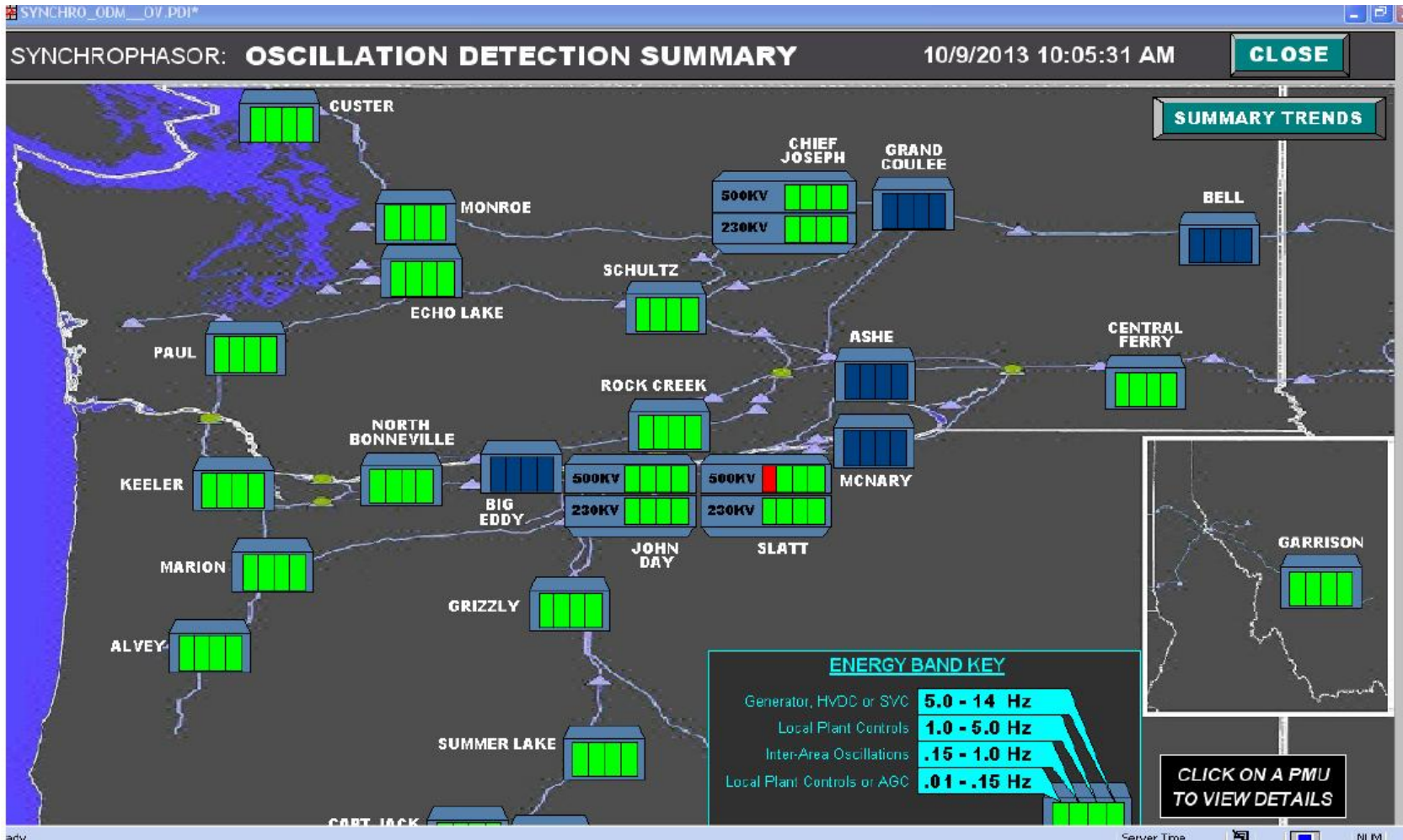


Image source: WECC Joint Synchronized Information Subcommittee Report, October 2013

# Small Signal Analysis and Measurement-Based Modal Analysis

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- Small signal analysis has been used for decades to determine power system frequency response
  - It is a model-based approach that considers the properties of a power system, linearized about an operating point
- Measurement-based modal analysis determines the observed dynamic properties of a system
  - Input can either be measurements from devices (such as PMUs) or dynamic simulation results
  - The same approach can be used regardless of the measurement source
- Focus in this section is on the measurement-based approach

# Ring-down Modal Analysis



- Ring-down analysis seeks to determine the frequency and damping of key power system modes following some disturbance
- There are several different techniques, with the Prony approach the oldest (from 1795); introduced into power in 1990 by Hauer, Demeure and Scharf
- Regardless of technique, the goal is to represent the response of a sampled signal as a set of exponentially damped sinusoidals (modes)

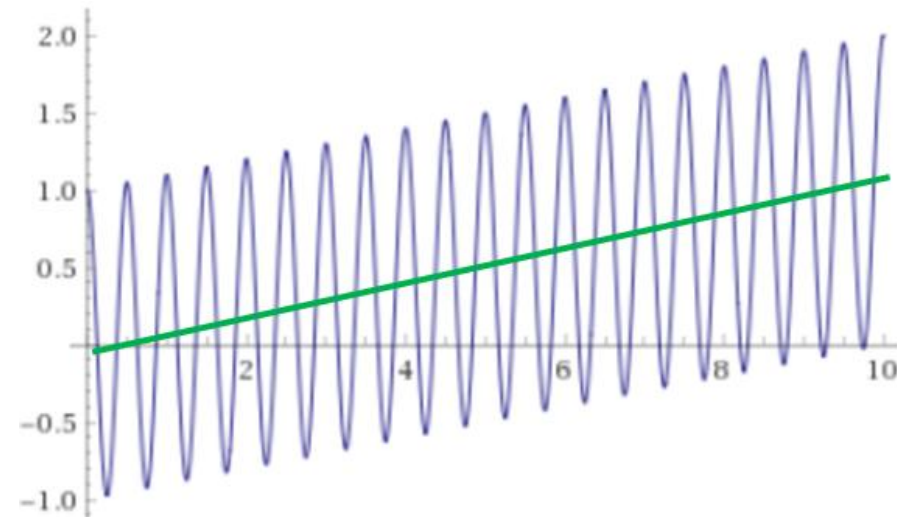
$$y(t) = \sum_{i=1}^q A_i e^{\sigma_i t} \cos(\omega_i t + \phi_i)$$
$$\text{Damping (\%)} = \frac{-\alpha_i}{\sqrt{\alpha_i^2 + \omega_i^2}} \times 100$$

# Goal: Extracting Modes from the Signals



- The goal is to gain information about the electric grid by extracting modal information from its signals
  - The frequency and damping of the modes is key
- The premise is we'll be able to reproduce a complex signal, over a period of time, as a set a of sinusoidal modes
  - We'll also allow for linear detrending

$$0.1t + \cos(2\pi 2t)$$



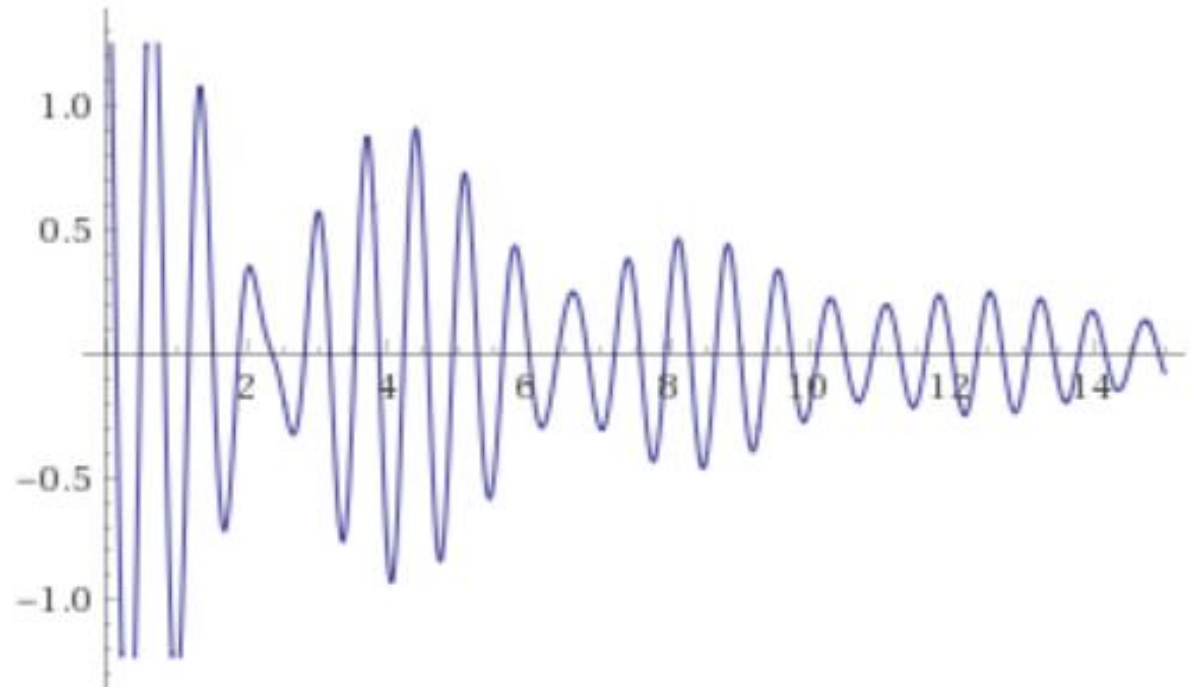
# Example: Summation of Two Damped Exponentials



- This example was created by going from the modes to a signal
- We'll be going in the opposite direction (i.e., from a measured signal to the modes)

plot	$e^{-0.25x} \cos(10x) + e^{-0.125x} \cos\left(8.5x + \frac{\pi}{8}\right)$
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Plot:



# Some Reasonable Expectations

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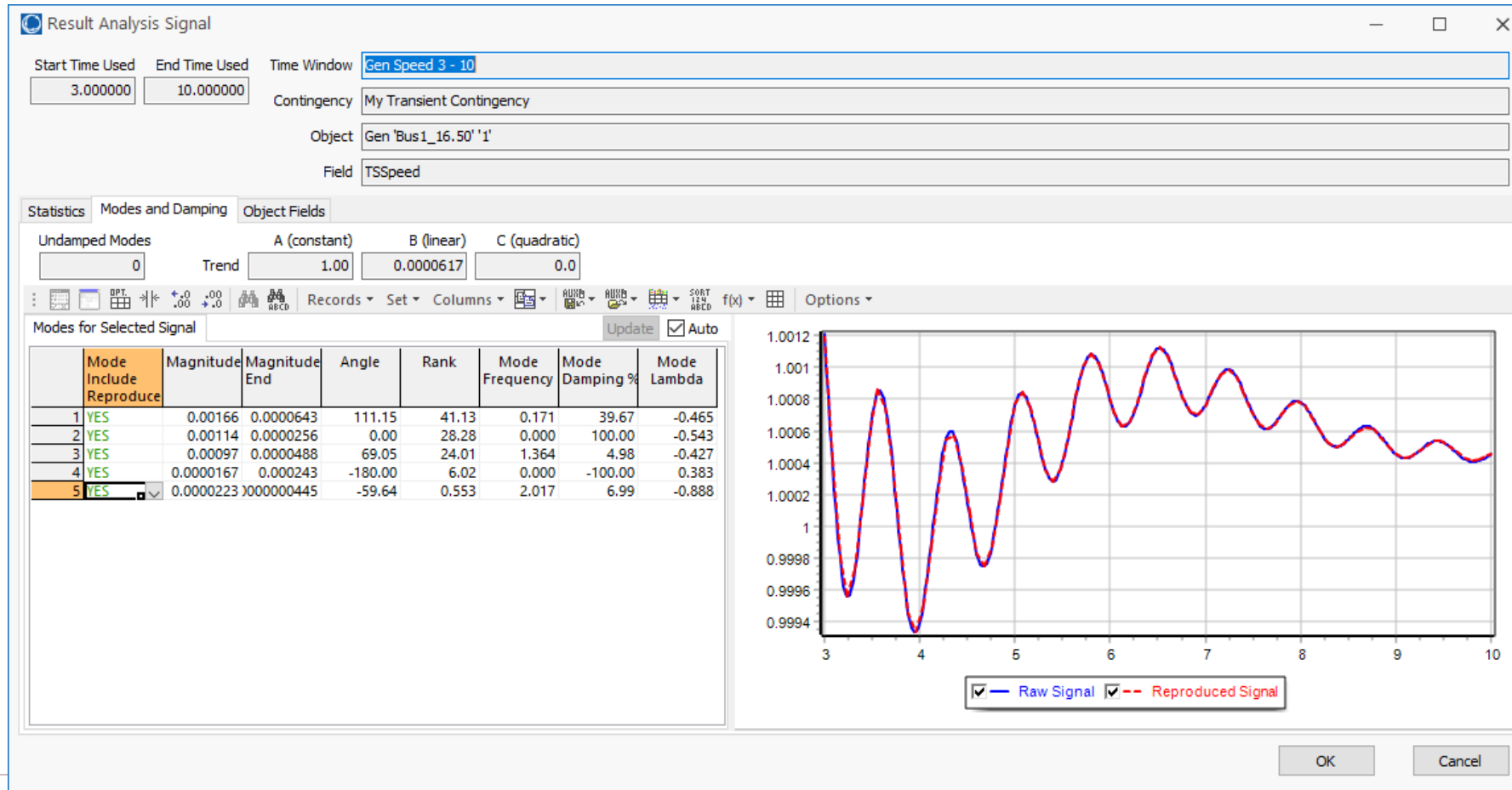


- **Verifiable** to show how well the modes match the original signal(s)
  - We'll show this
- **Flexible** to handle between one and many signals
  - We'll go up to simultaneously considering 40,000 signals
- **Fast**
  - What is presented will be, with a discussion of the computational scaling
- **Easy to use**
  - This is software implementation specific; results shown here were done using the modal analysis tool integrated into PowerWorld Simulator (version 22)

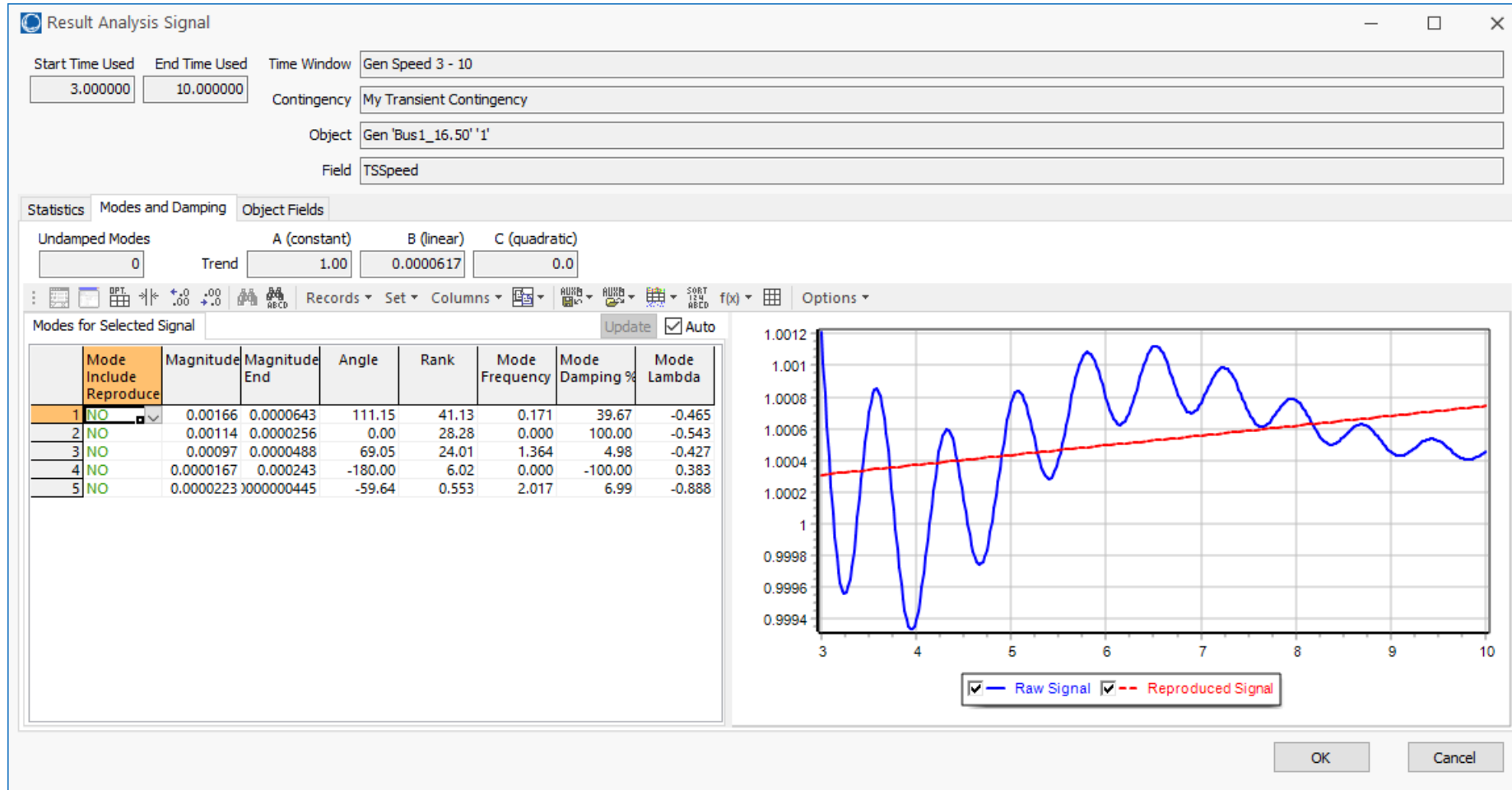
# Example: One Signal



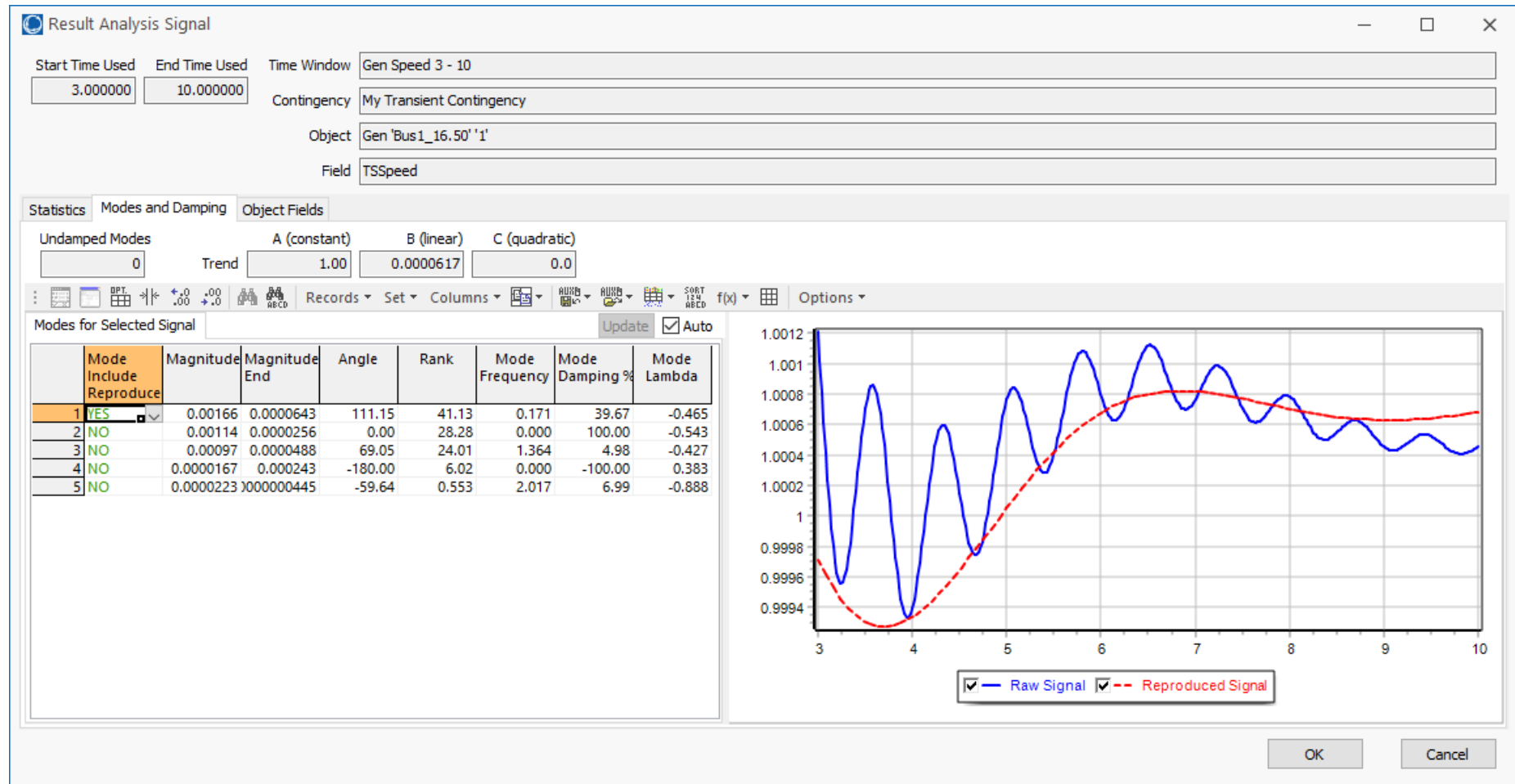
- This could be any signal; image shows the result of the original signal (blue) and the reproduced signal (red)



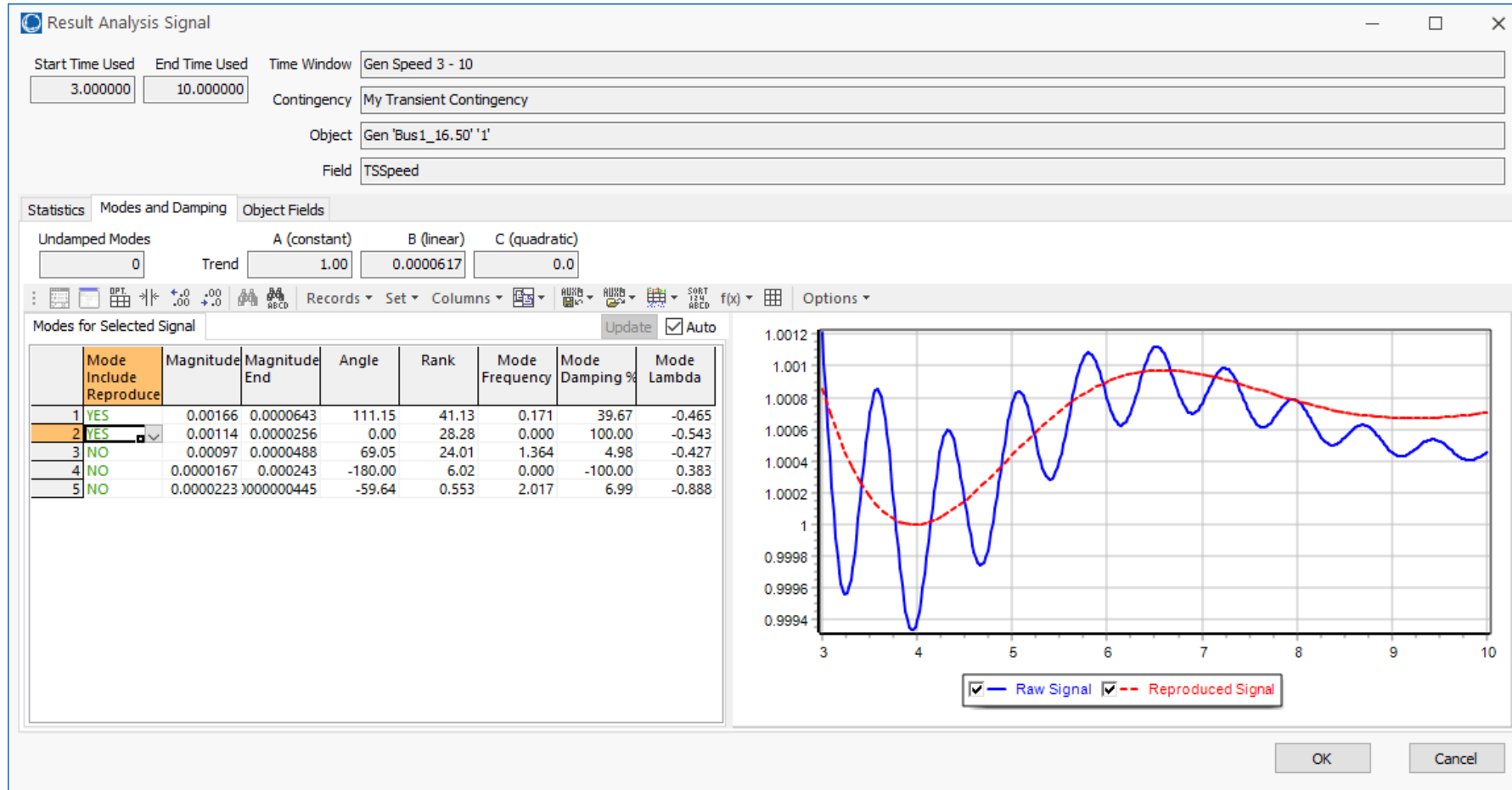
# Verification: Linear Trend Line Only



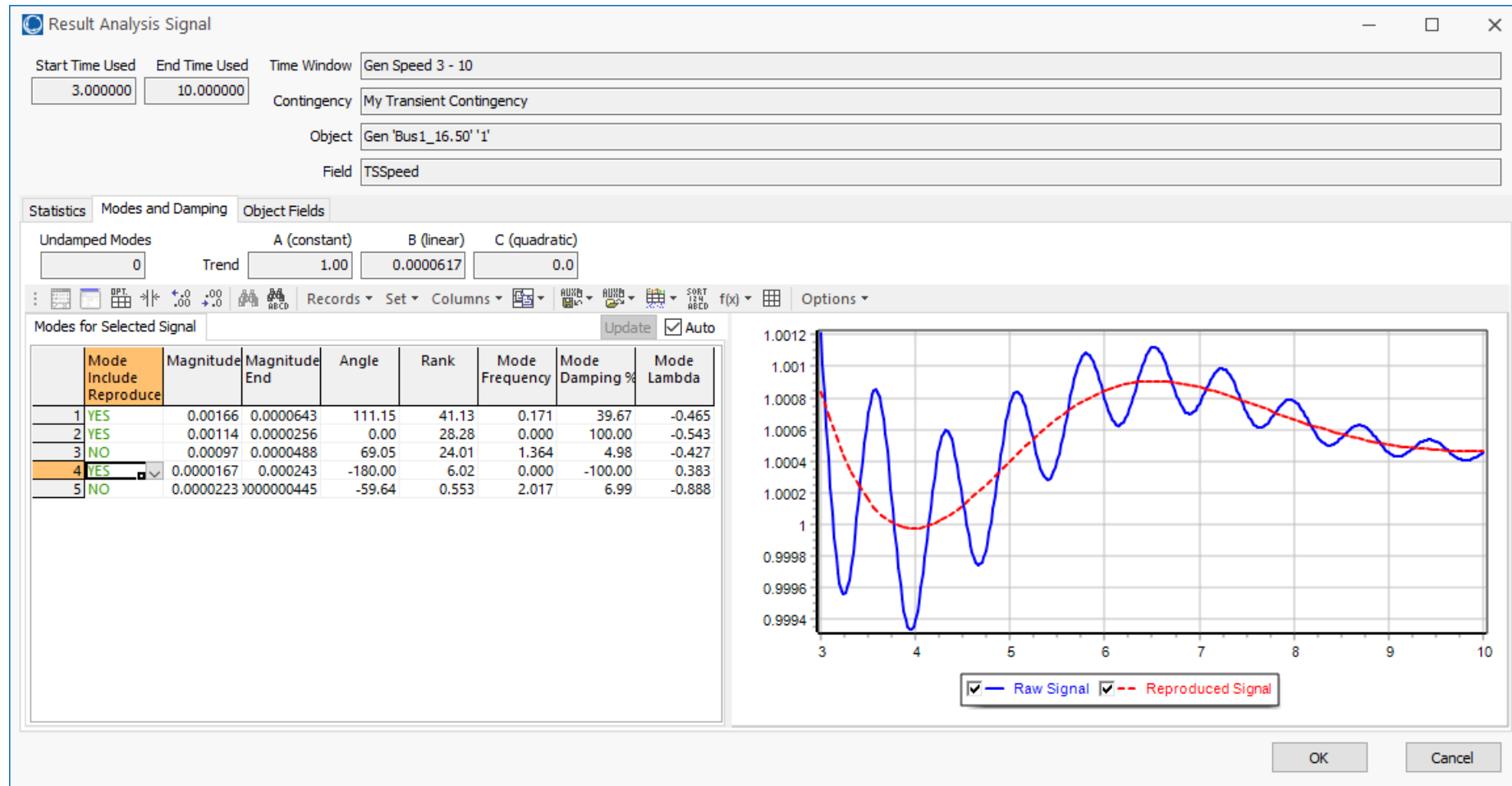
# Verification: Linear Trend Line + One Mode



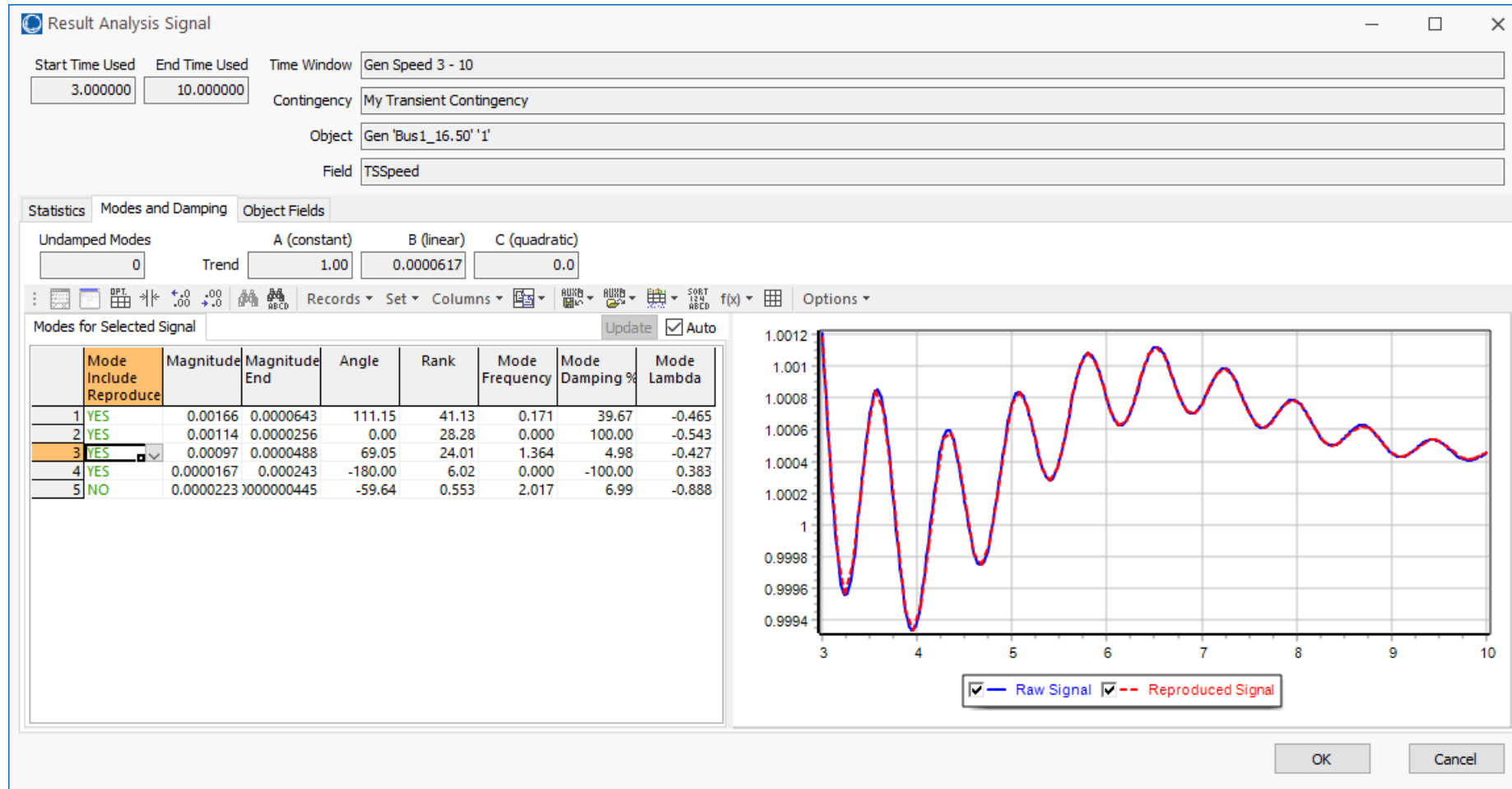
# Verification: Linear Trend Line + Two Modes



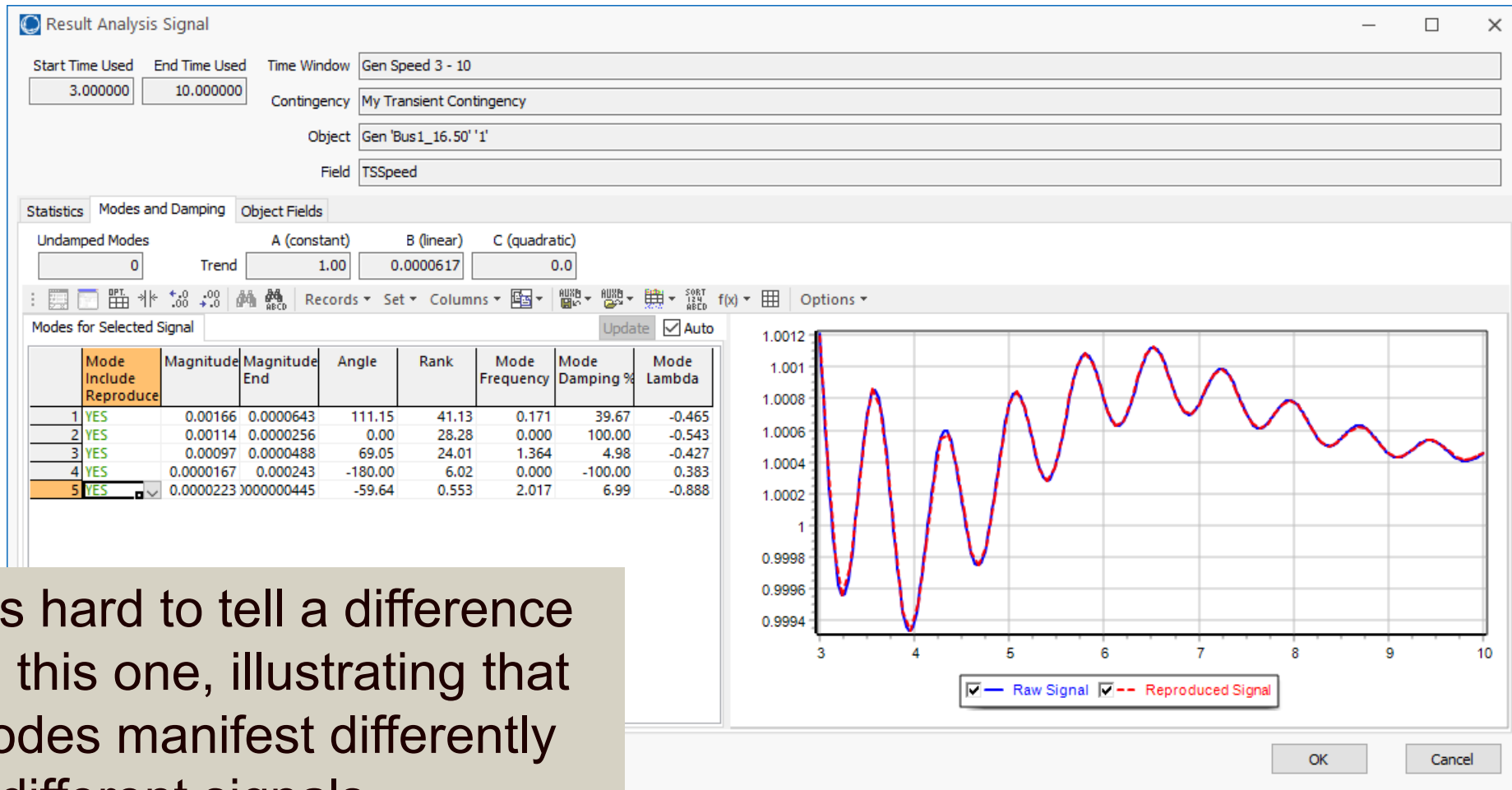
# Verification: Linear Trend Line + Three Modes



# Verification: Linear Trend Line + Four Modes



# Verification: Linear Trend Line + Five Modes

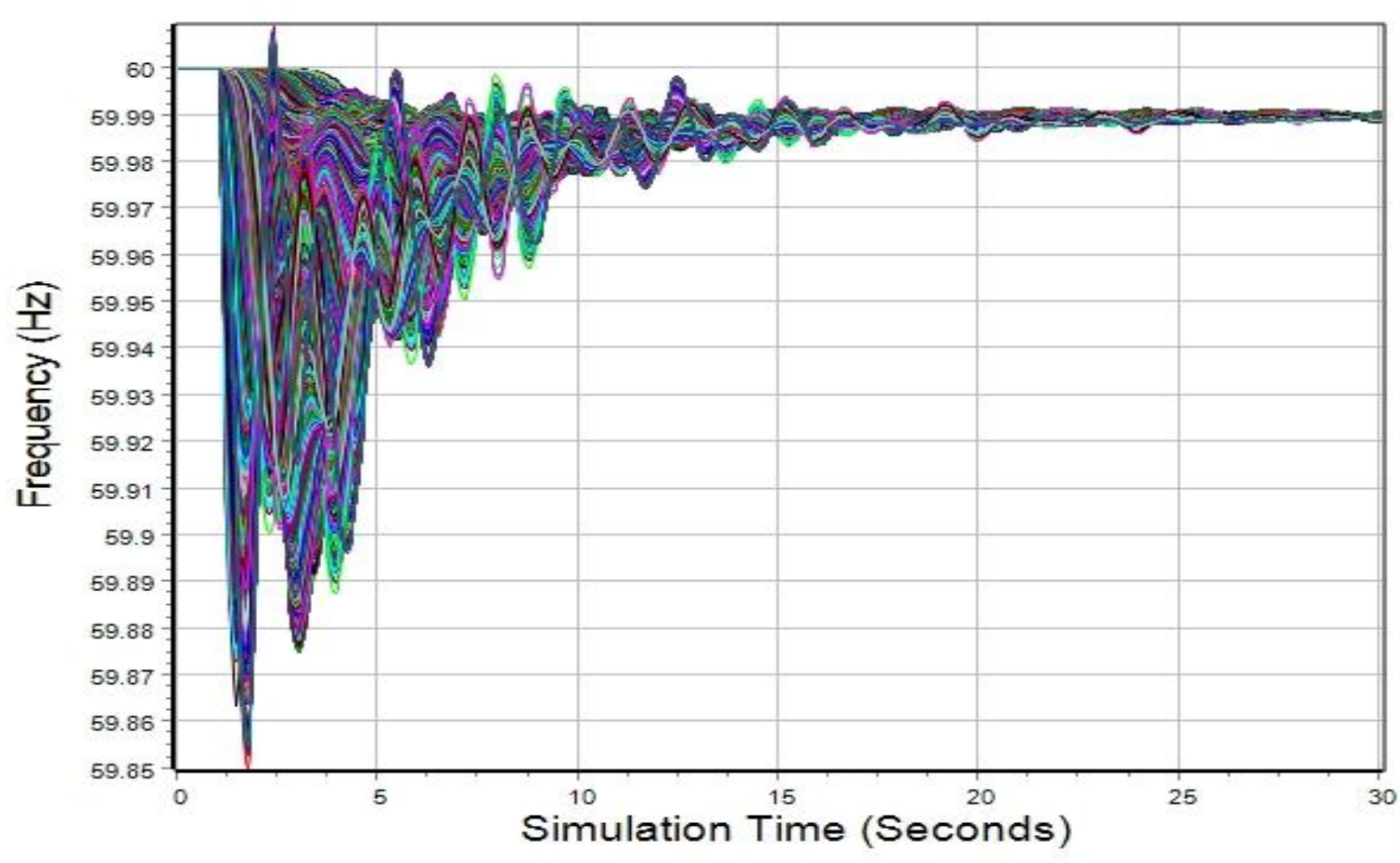


It is hard to tell a difference on this one, illustrating that modes manifest differently in different signals

# A Larger Example



- Applying the developed techniques to the response of all 43,400 substation frequencies from a 110,000-bus electric grid (20 million plus values)



# Measurement-Based Modal Analysis

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- There are a number of different approaches
- The idea of all techniques is to approximate a signal,  $y_{\text{org}}(t)$ , by the sum of other, simpler signals (basis functions)
  - Basis functions are usually exponentials, with linear and quadratic functions used to detrend the signal
  - Properties of the original signal can be quantified from basis function properties
    - Examples are frequency and damping
  - Signal is considered over time with  $t=0$  as the start
- Approaches sample the original signal  $y_{\text{org}}(t)$

# Measurement-Based Modal Analysis 2



- Vector  $\mathbf{y}$  consists of  $m$  uniformly sampled points from  $y_{\text{org}}(t)$  at a sampling value of  $\Delta T$ , starting with  $t=0$ , with values  $y_j$  for  $j=1 \dots m$ 
  - Times are then  $t_j = (j-1)\Delta T$
  - At each time point  $j$ , the approximation of  $y_j$  is

$$\hat{y}_j(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \phi_i(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$$

where  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$  is a vector with the real and imaginary eigenvalue components, with  $\phi_i(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = e^{\alpha_i t_j}$  for  $\alpha_i$  corresponding to a real eigenvalue, and  $\phi_i(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = e^{\alpha_i t_j} \cos(\alpha_{i+1} t_j)$  and  $\phi_{i+1}(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = e^{\alpha_i t_j} \sin(\alpha_{i+1} t_j)$  for a complex eigenvalue

# Measurement-Based Modal Analysis 3



- Error (residual) value at each point  $j$  is

$$r_j(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = y_j - \hat{y}_j(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$$

- The closeness of the fit can be quantified using the Euclidean norm of the residuals

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^m (y_j - \hat{y}_j(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha}))^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{r}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})\|_2^2$$

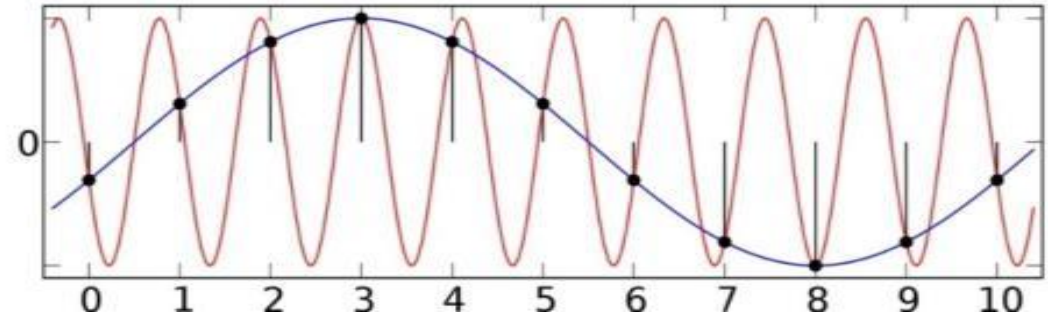
- Hence we need to determine  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$

$$\hat{y}_j(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \phi_i(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$$

# Sampling Rate and Aliasing



- The Nyquist-Shannon sampling theory requires sampling at twice the highest desired frequency
  - For example, to see a 5 Hz frequency we need to sample the signal at a rate of at least 10 Hz
- Sampling shifts the frequency spectrum by  $1/T$  (where  $T$  is the sample time), which causes frequency overlap
- This is known as aliasing, which can cause a high frequency signal to appear to be a lower frequency signal
  - Aliasing can be reduced by fast sampling and/or low pass filters



# One Solution Approach: The Matrix Pencil Method



- There are several algorithms for finding the modes. We'll use the Matrix Pencil Method
  - This is a newer technique for determining modes from noisy signals (from about 1990, introduced to power system problems in 2005); it is an alternative to the Prony Method
  - The Matrix Pencil Method is useful when there is signal noise
- Given  $m$  samples, with  $L=m/2$ , the first step is to form the Hankel Matrix,  $\mathbf{Y}$  such that

This not a sparse matrix

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \cdots & y_{L+1} \\ y_2 & y_3 & \cdots & y_{L+2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{m-L} & y_{m-L+1} & \cdots & y_m \end{bmatrix}$$

# Algorithm Details, cont.



- Then calculate  $\mathbf{Y}$ 's singular values using an economy singular value decomposition (SVD)

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T$$

- The ratio of each singular value is then compared to the largest singular value  $\sigma_c$ ; retain the ones with a ratio  $>$  than a threshold
  - This determines the modal order,  $M$
  - Assuming  $\mathbf{V}$  is ordered by singular values (highest to lowest), let  $\mathbf{V}_p$  be then matrix with the first  $M$  columns of  $\mathbf{V}$

The computational complexity increases with the cube of the number of measurements!

This threshold is a value that can be changed; decrease it to get more modes.

# Aside: The Matrix Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

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- The SVD is a factorization of a matrix that generalizes the eigendecomposition to any  $m$  by  $n$  matrix to produce

$$Y = U\Sigma V^T$$

The original concept is more than 100 years old, but has found lots of recent applications

- where  $\Sigma$  is a diagonal matrix of the singular values
- The singular values are non-negative, real numbers that can be used to indicate the major components of a matrix (the gist is they provide a way to decrease the rank of a matrix)

# Aside: SVD Image Compression Example

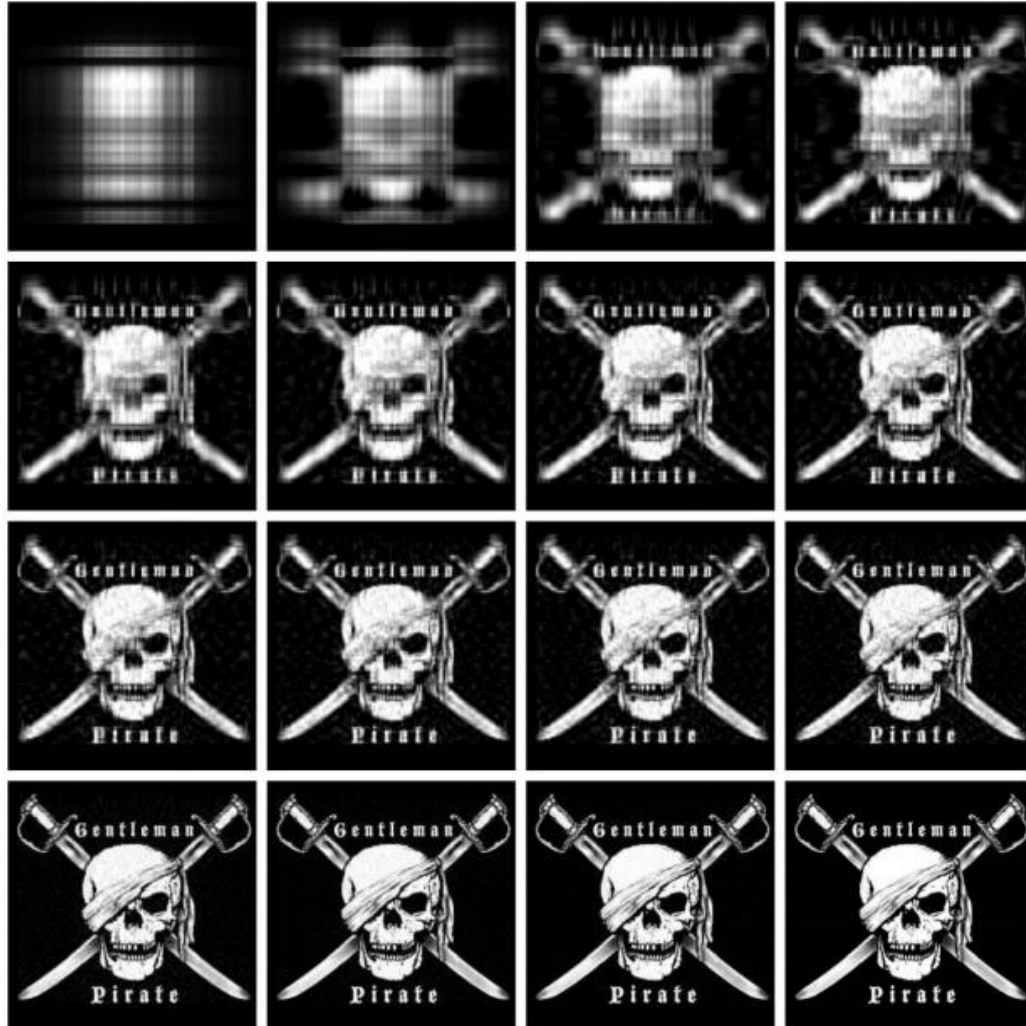


Figure 3.1: Image size 250x236 – modes used  
 {{1,2,4,6},{8,10,12,14},{16,18,20,25},{50,75,100,original image}}

Images can be represented with matrices. When an SVD is applied and only the largest singular values are retained the image is compressed.

Image Source:  
[www.math.utah.edu/~goller/F15\\_M2270/BradyMathews\\_SVDImage.pdf](http://www.math.utah.edu/~goller/F15_M2270/BradyMathews_SVDImage.pdf)

# Matrix Pencil Algorithm Details, cont.



- Then form the matrices  $\mathbf{V}_1$  and  $\mathbf{V}_2$  such that
  - $\mathbf{V}_1$  is the matrix consisting of all but the last row of  $\mathbf{V}_p$
  - $\mathbf{V}_2$  is the matrix consisting of all but the first row of  $\mathbf{V}_p$
- Discrete-time poles are found as the generalized eigenvalues of the pair  $(\mathbf{V}_2^T \mathbf{V}_1, \mathbf{V}_1^T \mathbf{V}_1) = (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B})$
- These eigenvalues are the discrete-time poles,  $z_i$  with the modal eigenvalues then

$$\lambda_i = \frac{\ln(z_i)}{\Delta T}$$

If  $\mathbf{B}$  is nonsingular (the situation here) then the generalized eigenvalues are the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{A}$

The log of a complex number  $z=r\angle\theta$  is  $\ln(r) + j\theta$

# Matrix Pencil Method with Many Signals



- The Matrix Pencil approach can be used with one signal or with multiple signals
- Multiple signals are handled by forming a  $\mathbf{Y}_k$  matrix for each signal  $k$  using the measurements for that signal and then combining the matrices

$$\mathbf{Y}_k = \begin{bmatrix} y_{1,k} & y_{2,k} & \cdots & y_{L+1,k} \\ y_{2,k} & y_{3,k} & \cdots & y_{L+2,k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{m-L,k} & y_{m-L+1,k} & \cdots & y_{m,k} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Y}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{Y}_N \end{bmatrix}$$

The required computation scales linearly with the number of signals

# Matrix Pencil Method with Many Signals 2



- However, when dealing with many signals, usually the signals are somewhat correlated, so vary few of the signals are actually need to be included to determine the desired modes
- Ultimately we are finding

$$y_j(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \phi_i(t_j, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$$

- The  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$  is common to all the signals (i.e., the system modes) while the  $\mathbf{b}$  vector is signal specific (i.e., how the modes manifest in that signal)

# Quickly Determining the $\mathbf{b}$ Vectors



- A key insight is from an approach known as the Variable Projection Method (from Borden, 2013) that for any signal  $k$

$$\mathbf{y}_k = \Phi(\boldsymbol{\alpha})\mathbf{b}_k$$

And then the residual is minimized by selecting  $\mathbf{b}_k = \Phi(\boldsymbol{\alpha})^+\mathbf{y}_k$

where  $\Phi(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$  is the  $m$  by  $n$  matrix with values

$\Phi_{ji}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = e^{\alpha_i t_j}$  if  $\alpha_i$  corresponds to a real eigenvalue,

and  $\Phi_{ji}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = e^{\alpha_i t_j} \cos(\alpha_{i+1} t_j)$  and  $\Phi_{ji+1}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = e^{\alpha_i t_j} \sin(\alpha_{i+1} t_j)$

for a complex eigenvalue;  $t_j = (j - 1)\Delta T$

Finally,  $\Phi(\boldsymbol{\alpha})^+$  is the pseudoinverse of  $\Phi(\boldsymbol{\alpha})$

Where  $m$  is the number of measurements and  $n$  is the number of modes

# Aside: Pseudoinverse of a Matrix

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- The pseudoinverse of a matrix generalizes concept of a matrix inverse to an  $m$  by  $n$  matrix, in which  $m \geq n$ 
  - Specifically this is a Moore-Penrose Matrix Inverse
- Notation for the pseudoinverse of  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\mathbf{A}^+$
- Satisfies  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}$
- If  $\mathbf{A}$  is a square matrix, then  $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$
- Quite useful for solving the least squares problem since the least squares solution of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^+ \mathbf{b}$
- Can be calculated using an SVD

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T$$

$$\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}^+\mathbf{U}^T$$

# Least Squares Matrix Pseudoinverse Example



- Assume we wish to fit a line ( $mx + b = y$ ) to three data points: (1,1), (2,4), (6,4)
- Two unknowns,  $m$  and  $b$ ; hence  $\mathbf{x} = [m \ b]^T$
- Setup in form of  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{so } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Least Squares Matrix Pseudoinverse Example, cont.



- Doing an economy SVD

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{V}^T = \begin{bmatrix} -0.182 & -0.765 \\ -0.331 & -0.543 \\ -0.926 & 0.345 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6.559 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.988 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -0.976 & -0.219 \\ 0.219 & -0.976 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Computing the pseudoinverse

$$\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}^+\mathbf{U}^T = \begin{bmatrix} -0.976 & 0.219 \\ -0.219 & -0.976 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.152 & 0 \\ 0 & 1.012 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -0.182 & -0.331 & -0.926 \\ -0.765 & -0.543 & 0.345 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Sigma}^+\mathbf{U}^T = \begin{bmatrix} -0.143 & -0.071 & 0.214 \\ 0.762 & 0.548 & -0.310 \end{bmatrix}$$

In an economy SVD the  $\mathbf{S}$  matrix has dimensions of  $m$  by  $m$  if  $m < n$  or  $n$  by  $n$  if  $n < m$

# Least Squares Matrix Pseudoinverse Example, cont. 2



- Computing  $\mathbf{x} = [m \ b]^T$  gives

$$\mathbf{A}^+ \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.143 & -0.071 & 0.214 \\ 0.762 & 0.548 & -0.310 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.429 \\ 1.71 \end{bmatrix}$$

- With the pseudoinverse approach we immediately see the sensitivity of the elements of  $\mathbf{x}$  to the elements of  $\mathbf{b}$ 
  - New values of  $m$  and  $b$  can be readily calculated if  $\mathbf{y}$  changes
- Computationally the SVD is order  $mn^2+n^3$  (with  $n < m$ )
  - In this example it means it scales linearly with the number of points; matrices with  $m \gg n$  are common

# Computational Considerations



- When there is just one signal, the procedure scales with the cube of the number of measurements
  - This value is usually relatively small, say 20 seconds of data sampled at 10 Hz for 200 measurements
- If multiple signals are included, it scales linearly with the number of signals
- However, a key insight is once  $\alpha$  has been determined, each  $\mathbf{b}_k$  can be determined with a matrix multiply of a matrix with dimensions of the number of modes and number of measurements

$$\mathbf{y}_k = \Phi(\alpha)\mathbf{b}_k \rightarrow \mathbf{b}_k = \Phi(\alpha)^+ \mathbf{y}_k$$

$\Phi(\alpha)^+$  is the pseudoinverse of  $\Phi(\alpha)$

We can quickly determine how well  $\mathbf{a}$  matches each signal