



Coordinated Control of distributed energy resources in the power distribution grid: The reactive power compensation

Sandro Zampieri
Universita' di Padova

In collaboration with Saverio Bolognani

Outline

- **Introduction to distributed (leaderless) decision models**
 - Scientific context
 - Application examples
- **Application to the control of the electric power distribution networks**
 - Centralized vs decentralized decision models for the microgrid control
 - The reactive power compensation
 - A model the microgrid
 - Minimization of the power losses by reactive power compensation
 - A quadratic approximation
 - A distributed algorithm for the reactive power compensation
 - Convergence of the algorithm



Distributed (leaderless) decision models

In the context of optimization, control, estimation, decision making, computation, etc, the word **DISTRIBUTED** is used with different meanings:

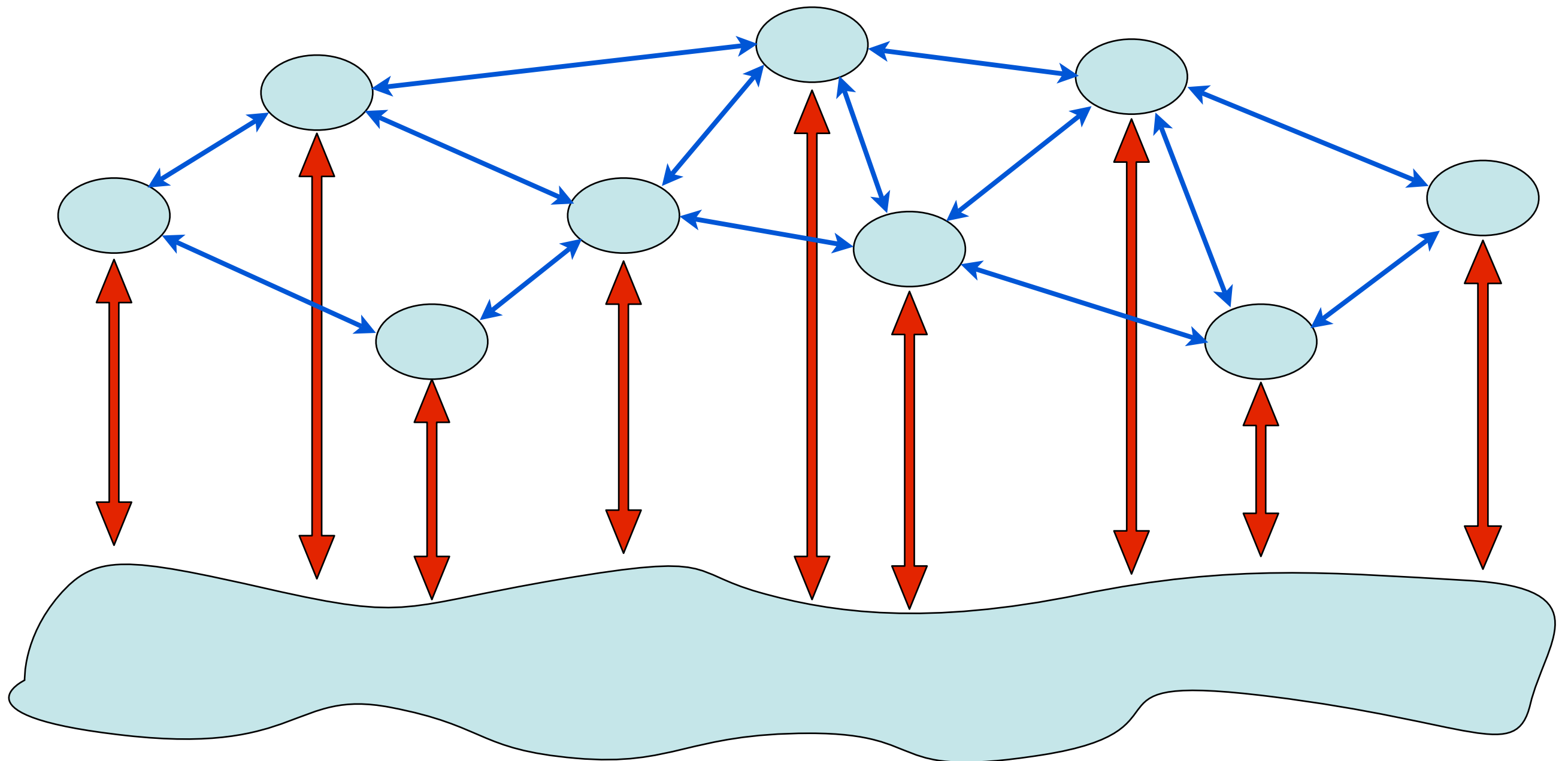
- The task is distributed over many agents in order to speed up the task completion (i.e. parallel computers).
- The system itself is constituted by several interacting parts which need to be coordinated (i.e. wireless sensor networks).

In the context of the distributed decision models we can distinguish:

- Distributed decision models with leaders or with a hierarchy (based on spanning trees construction).
- Leaderless distributed decision models in which the agents are peers in the network. Here the goal is not performance, but the robustness and the of self-organization.

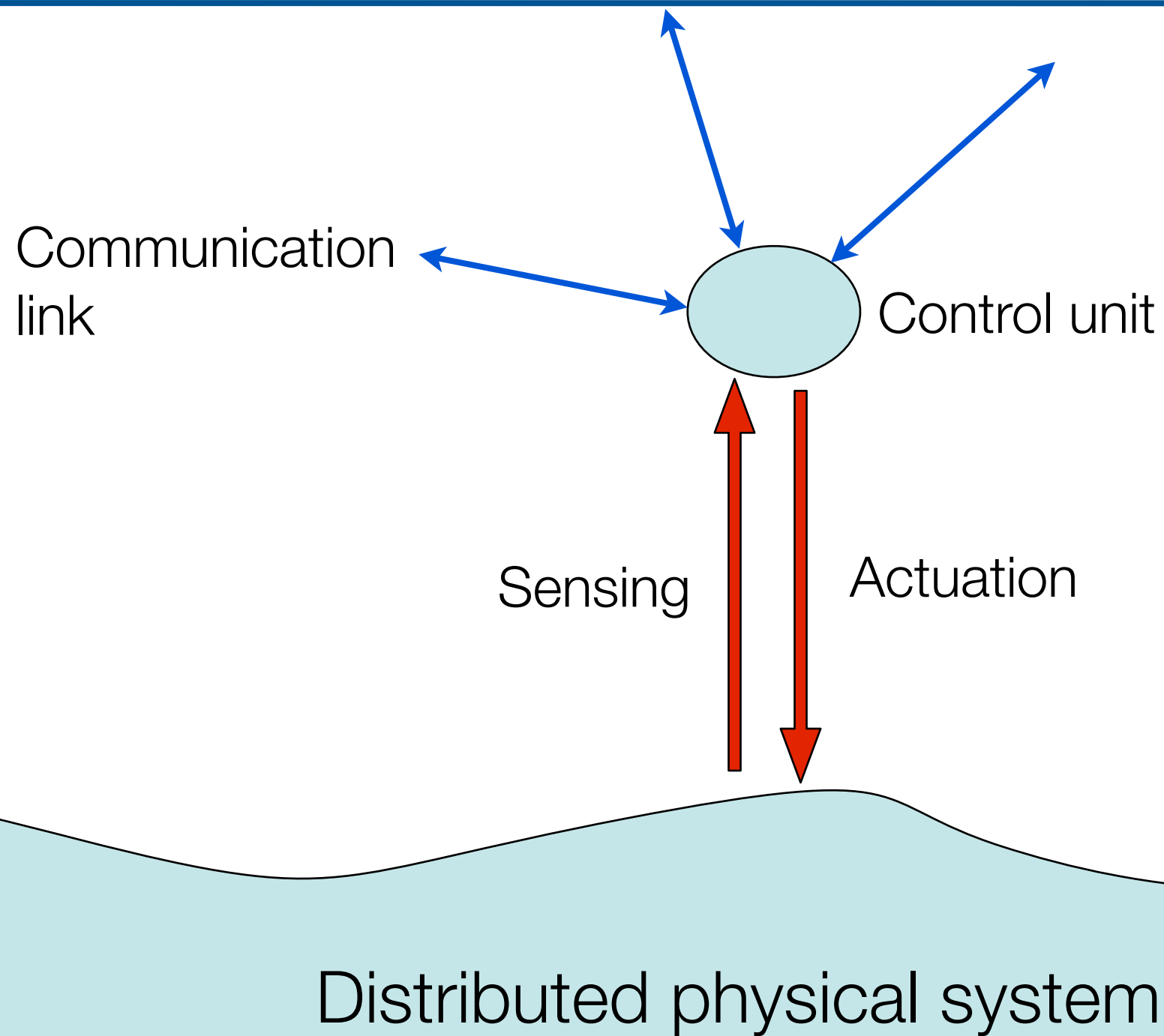
Distributed decision models

Distributed control system

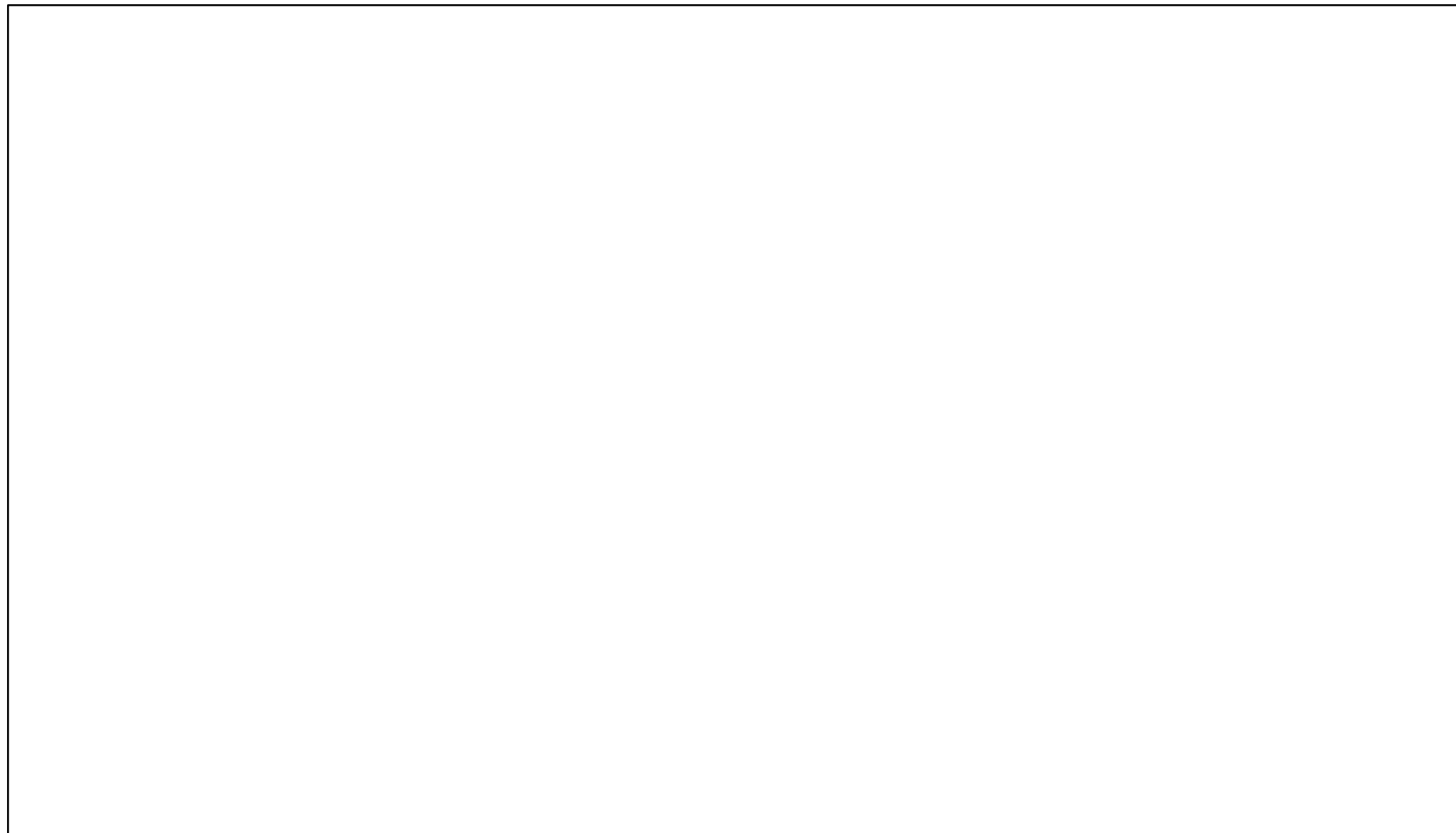


Distributed physical system

Distributed decision models



Example: robotic networks



Kiva systems

Example: wireless sensor networks



Distributed decision models



Water distribution



Traffic



Leaderless distributed decision models

Centralized vs. Leaderless

For large scale systems **centralized architectures** tends to be

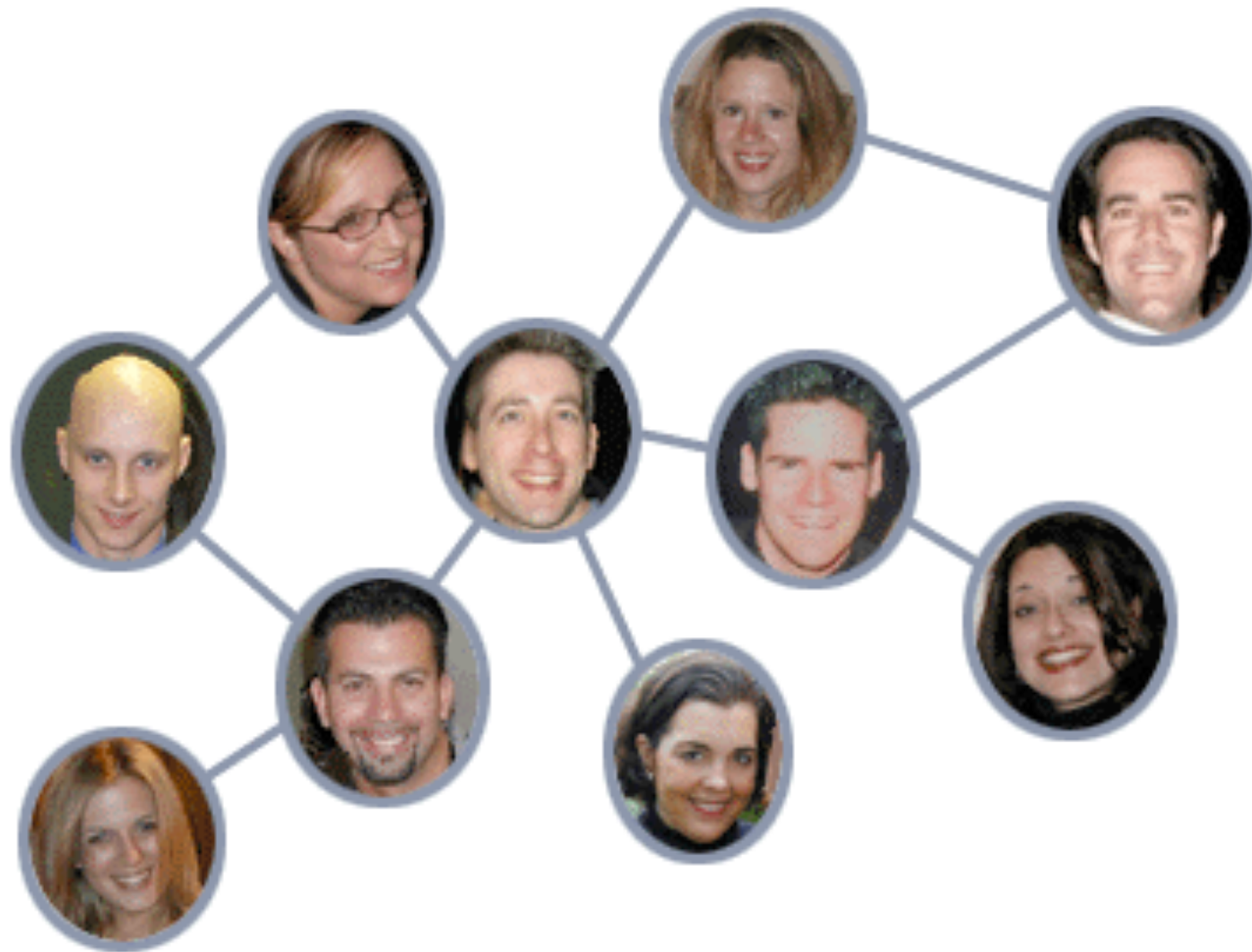
- **More efficient**
- **Fragile** to failures and to external changes
- **Expensive** in the configuration phase

For large scale systems **distributed architectures** tends to be

- **Less efficient**
- **Robust** to failures and to external changes (ex: market based economy)
- **Cheap** in the configuration phase (plug and play)

Scientific context

Social and economic networks: individual social and economic interactions produce a global equilibrium (**market robustness**)



Power distribution network



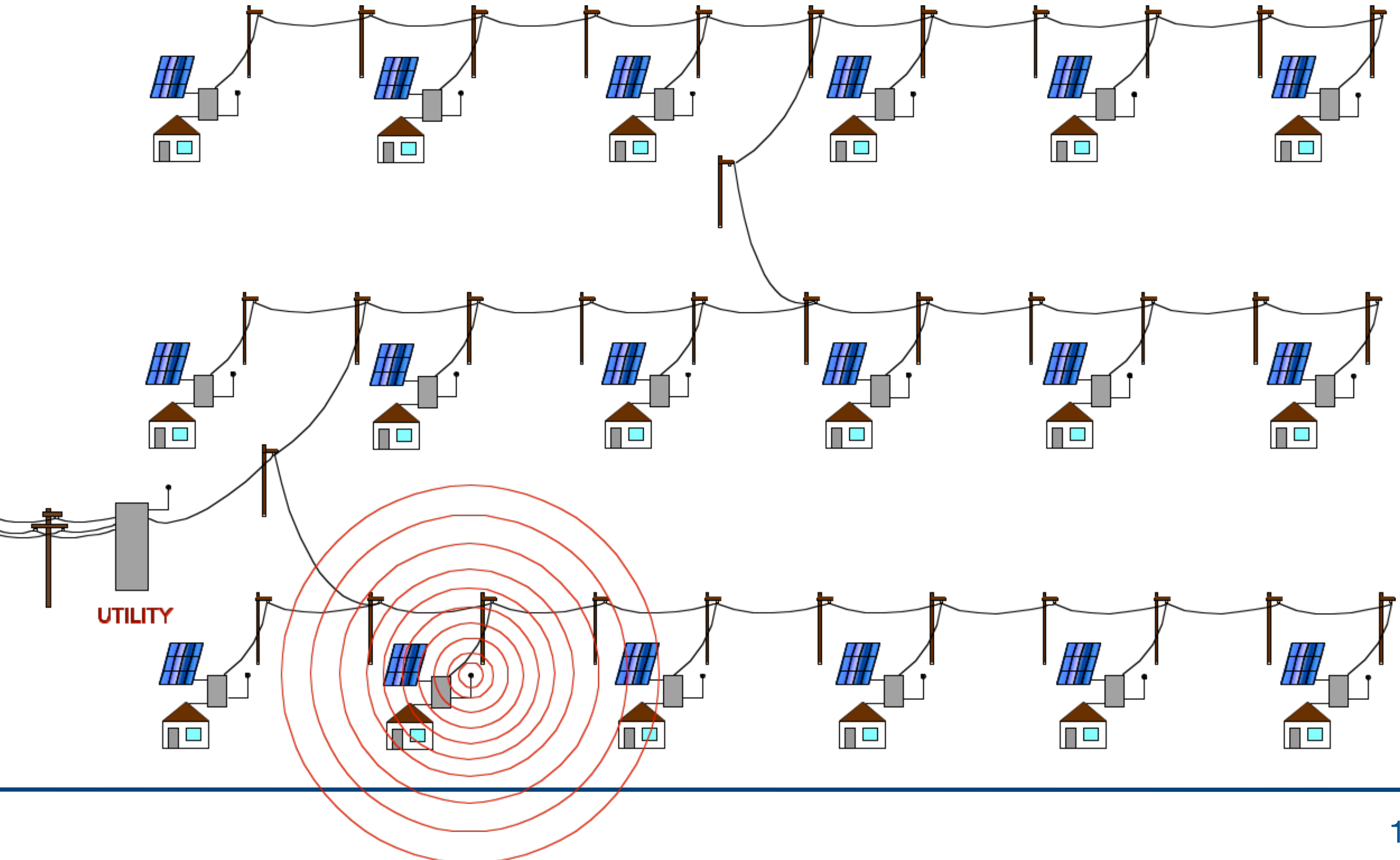
Power distribution network



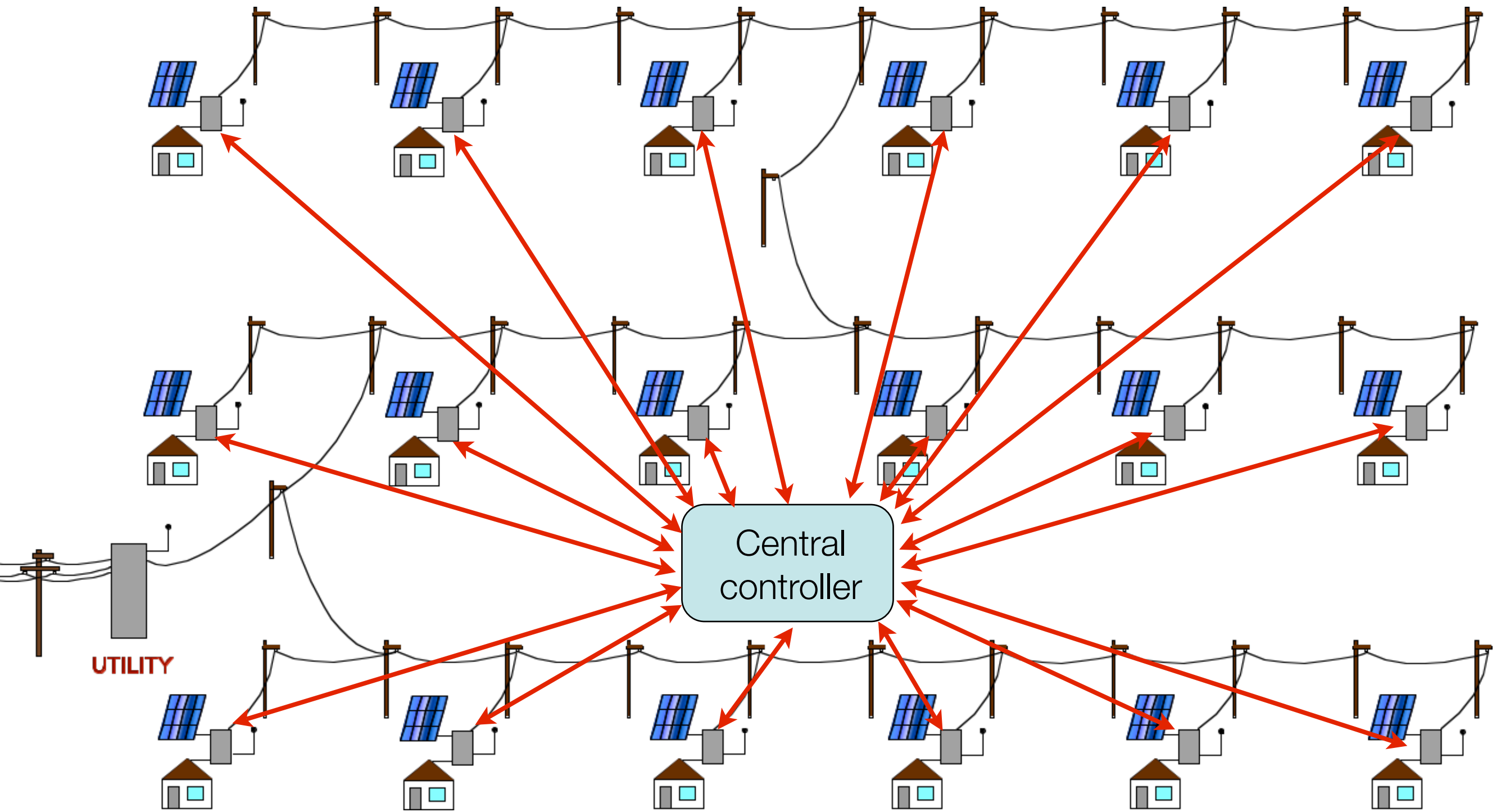
Power distribution network



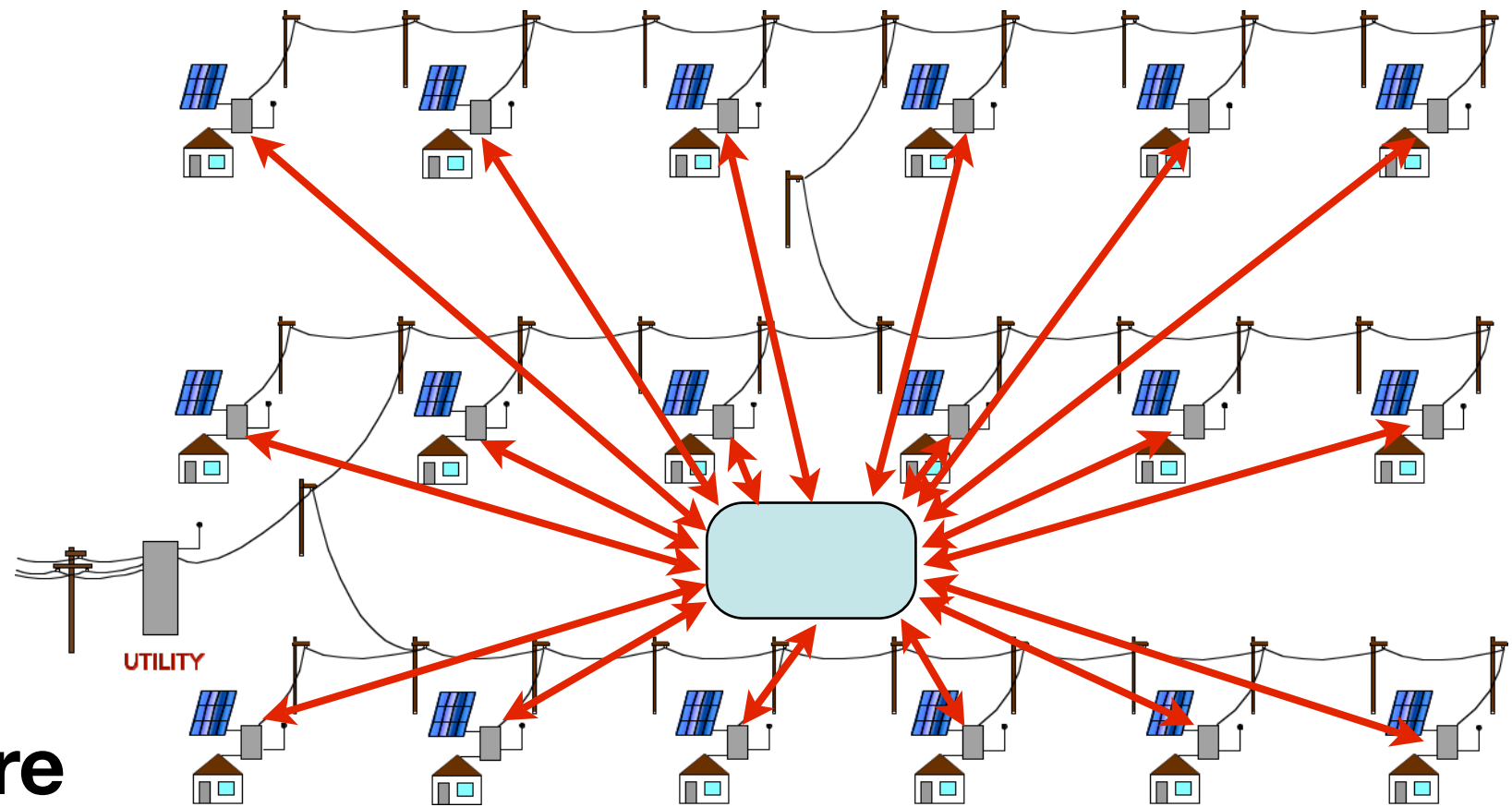
Smart grid



Centralized architecture



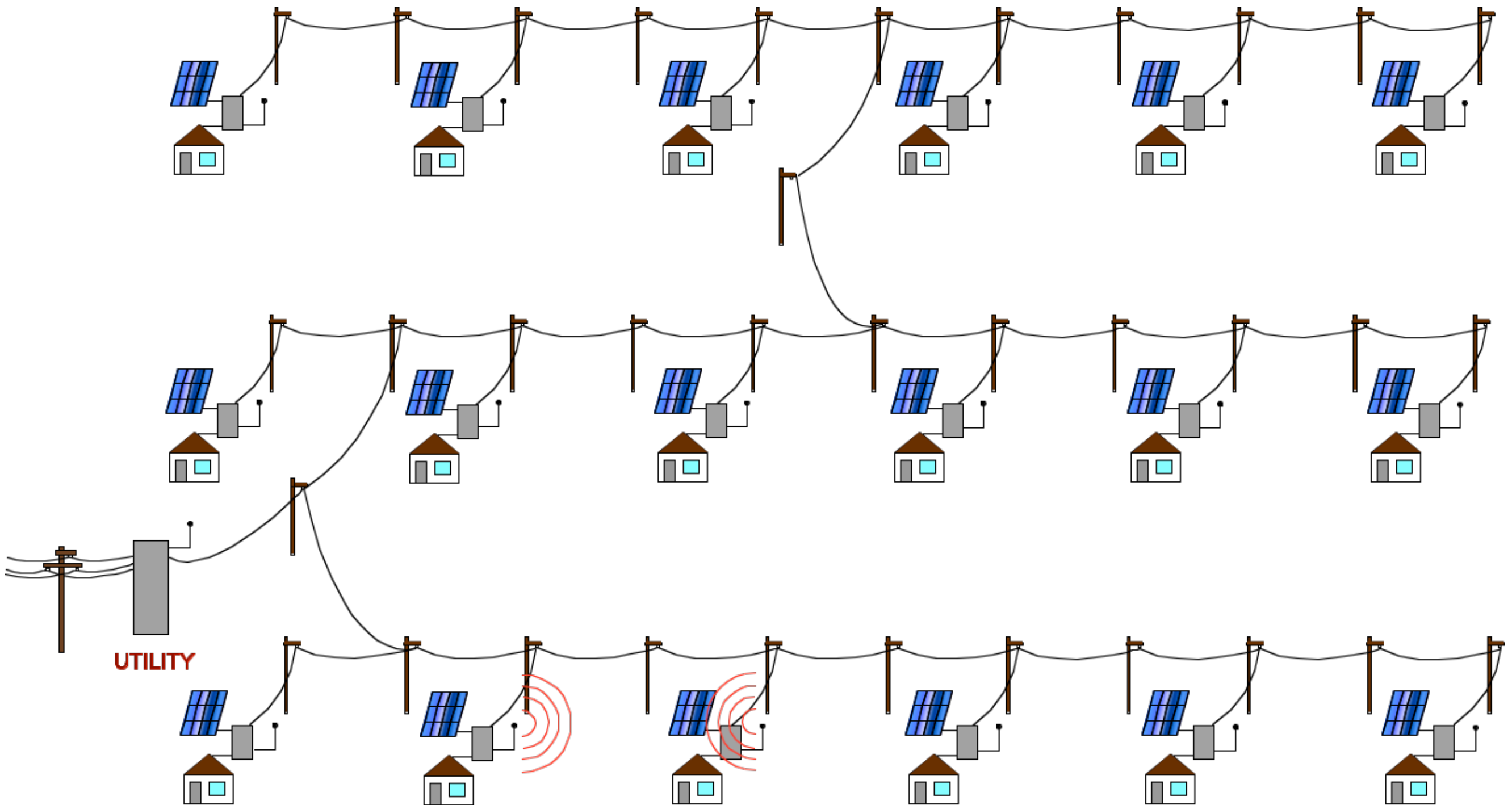
Centralized architecture



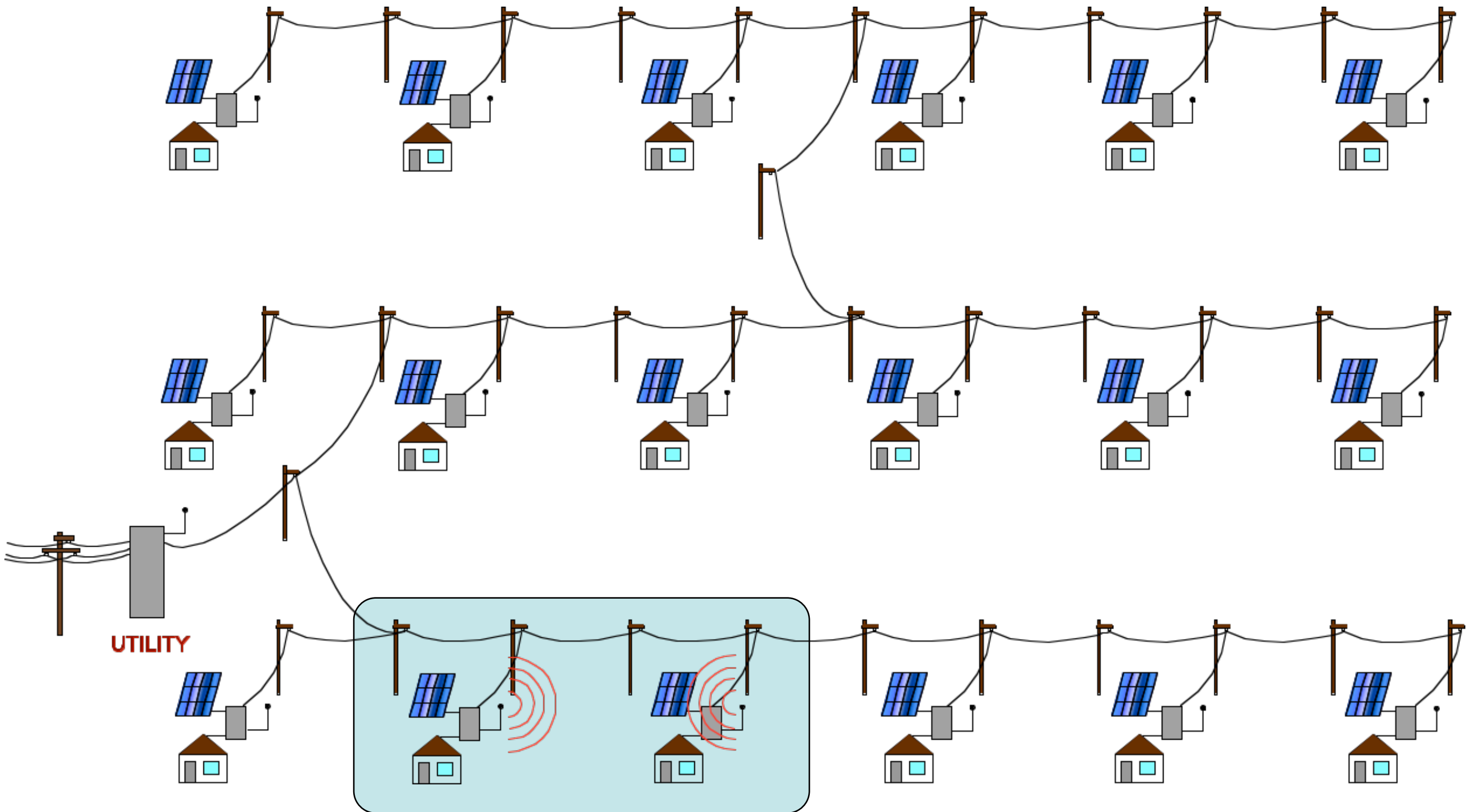
Centralized architecture

- **Efficient**
- **Local** sensing (voltage)
- **Local** control (injection of reactive power)
- **Global** and **synchronous** communication
- **Global** grid model
- **Expensive** configuration

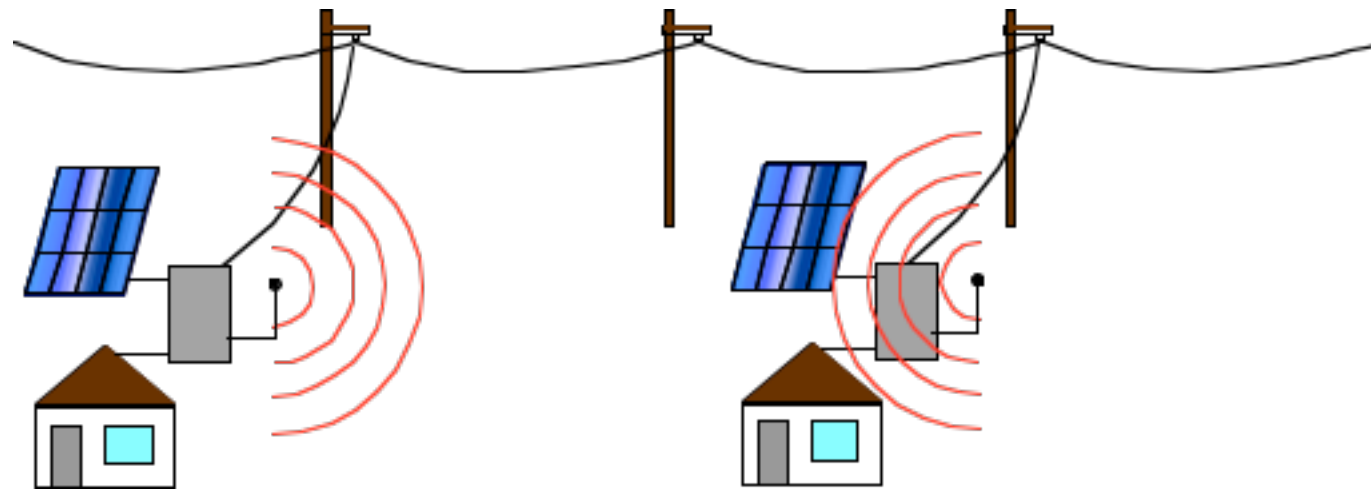
Distributed architecture



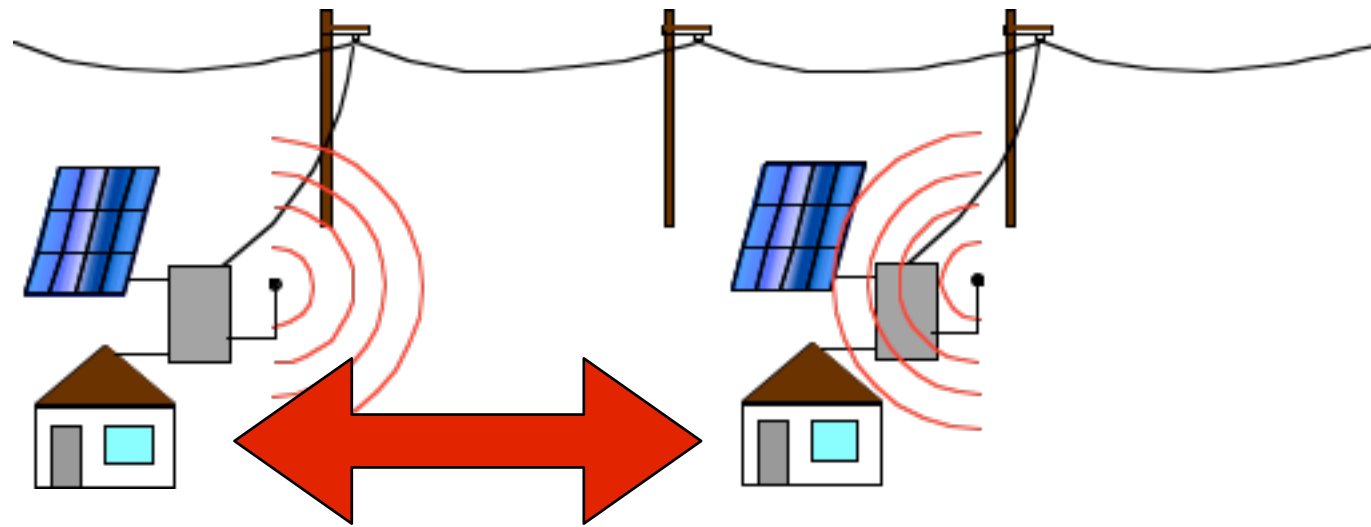
Distributed architecture



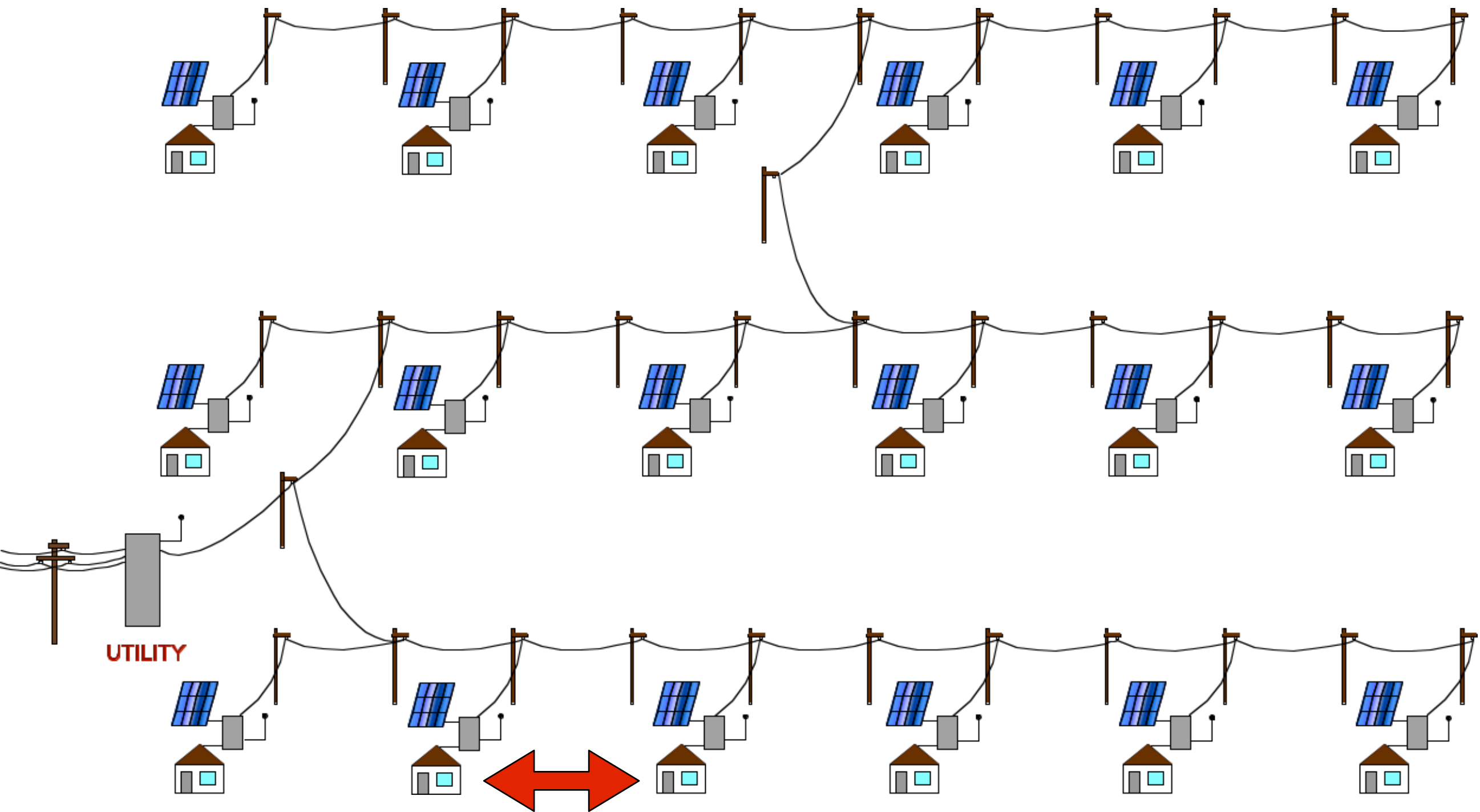
Distributed architecture



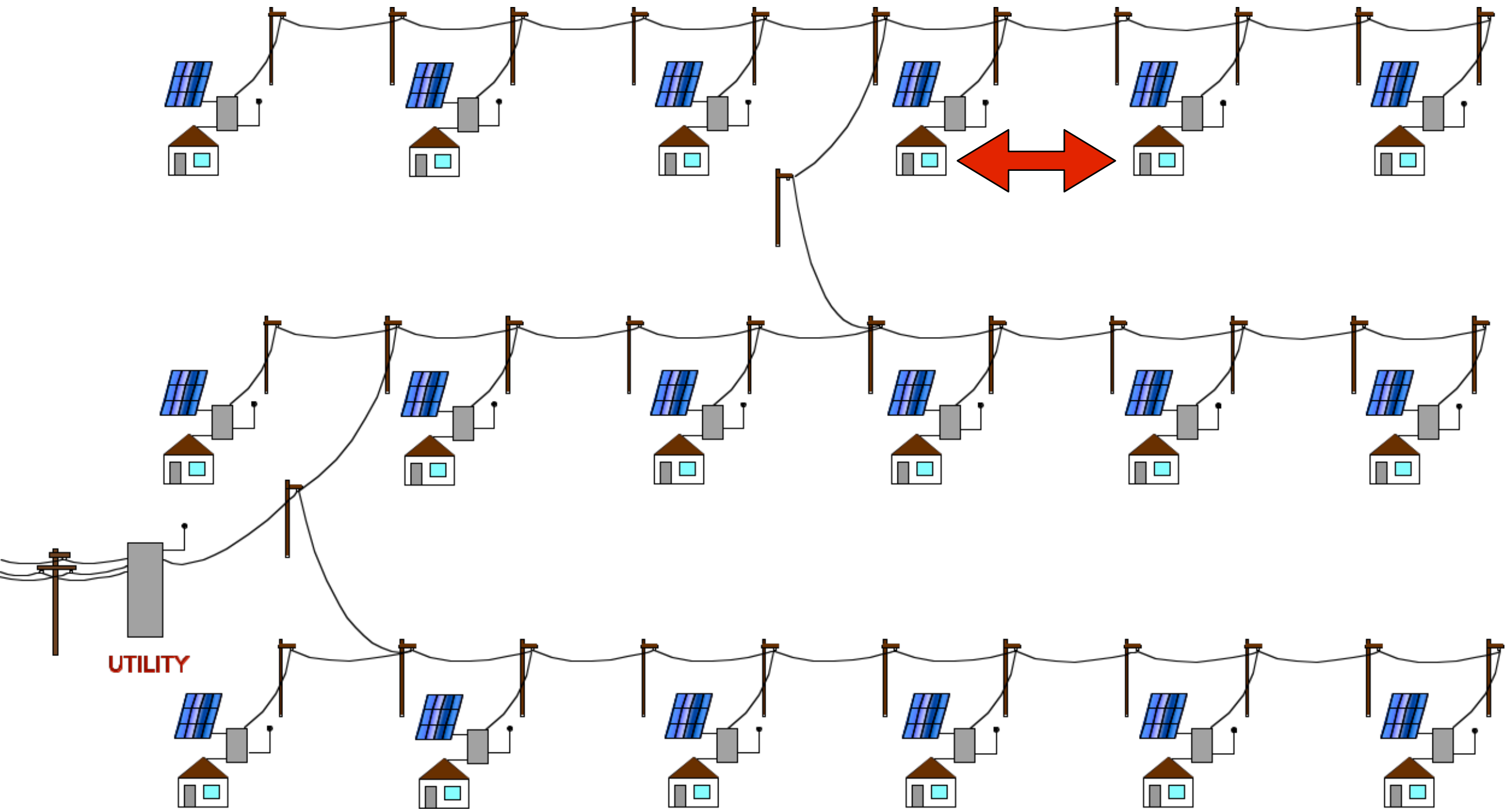
Distributed architecture



Distributed architecture



Distributed architecture



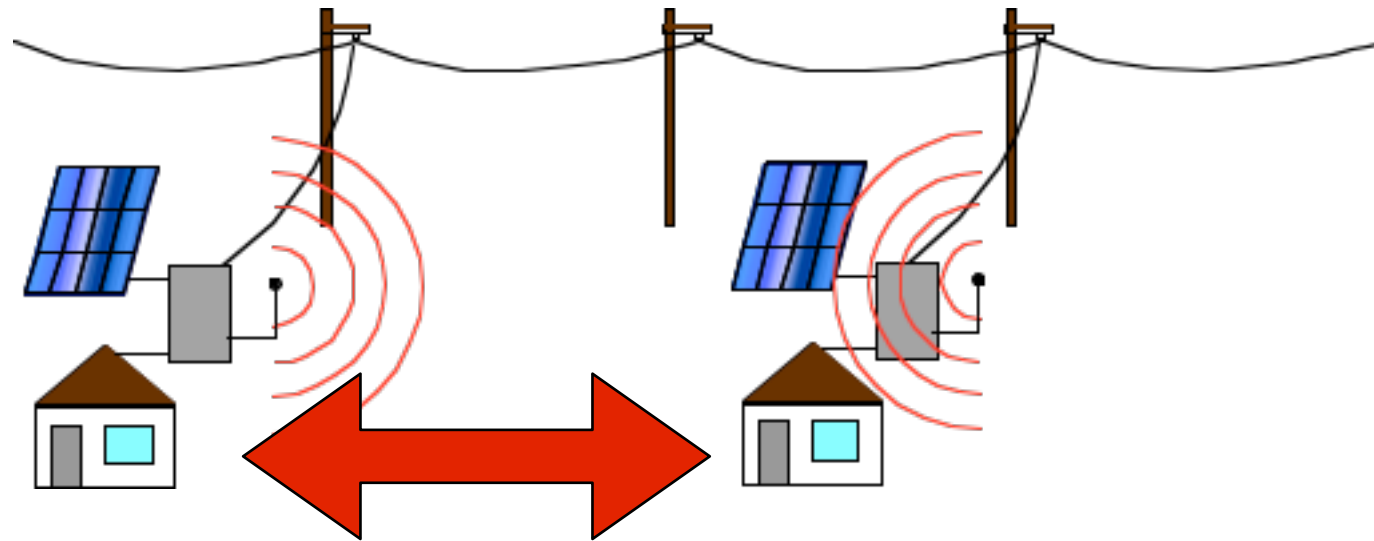
Distributed architecture



Distributed architecture



Distributed architecture



Distributed leaderless architecture

- **Less** efficient
- **Local** sensing (voltage)
- **Local** control (injection of reactive power)
- **Local** and **asynchronous** communication
- **Local** grid model
- **Cheap** configuration



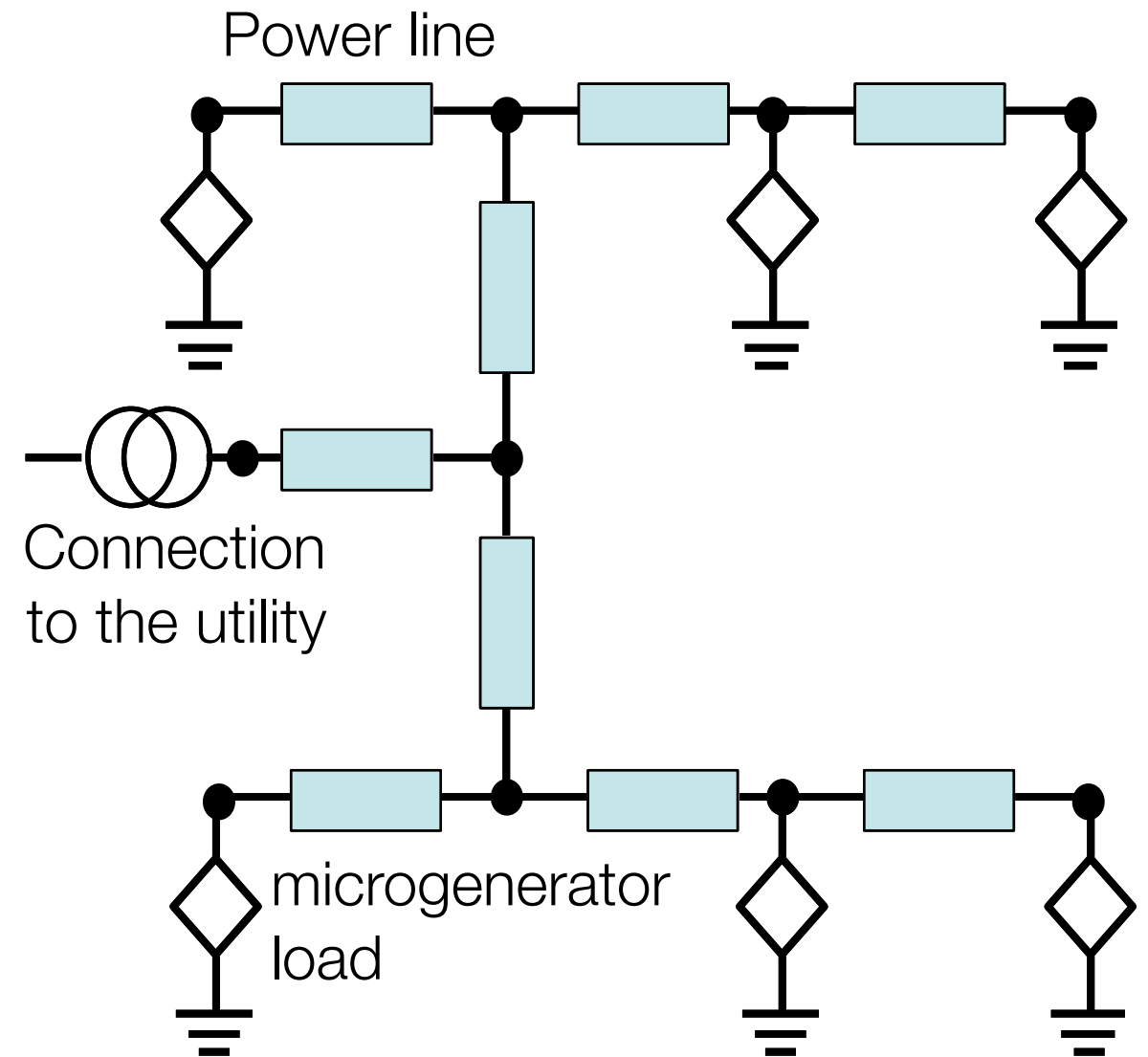
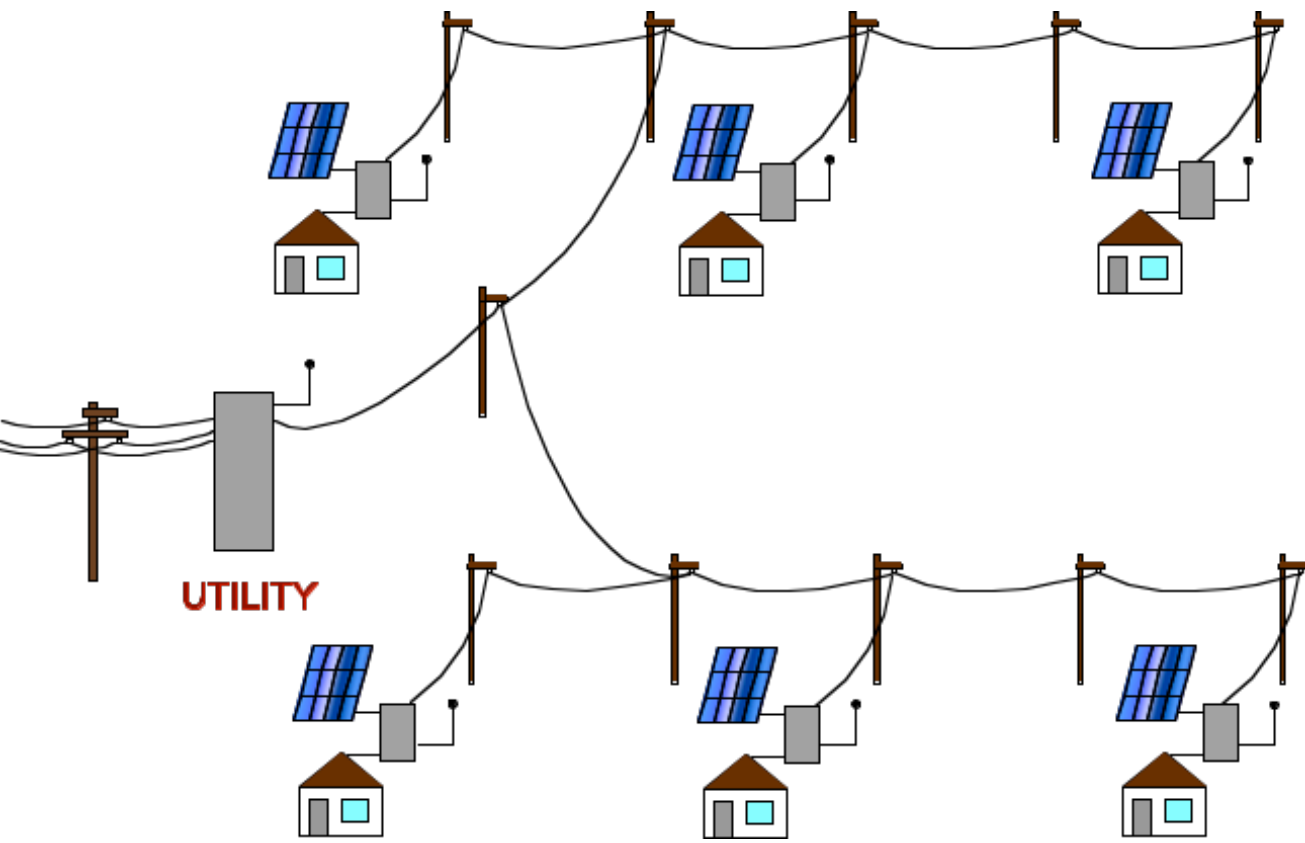
The reactive power

We have reactive power whenever **voltage and current are out of phase**, i.e. phase angle is not zero.

- Users in the microgrid may require reactive power
- It can be obtained from the utility which in this case charges the microgrid
- It can be produced by the electronic interfaces of microgenerators in the microgrid with (essentially) no cost
- Transporting reactive power costs since it yields losses on the cables

Consequently it is convenient to generate reactive power **close where it is needed**

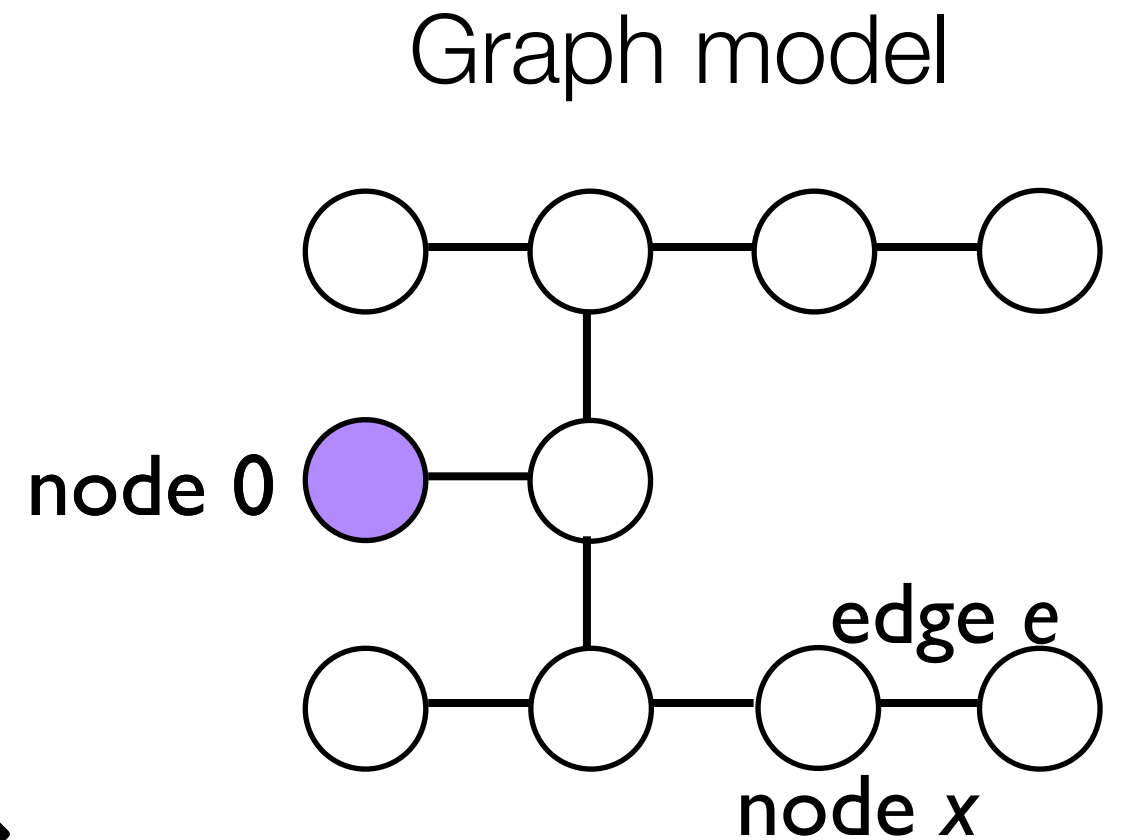
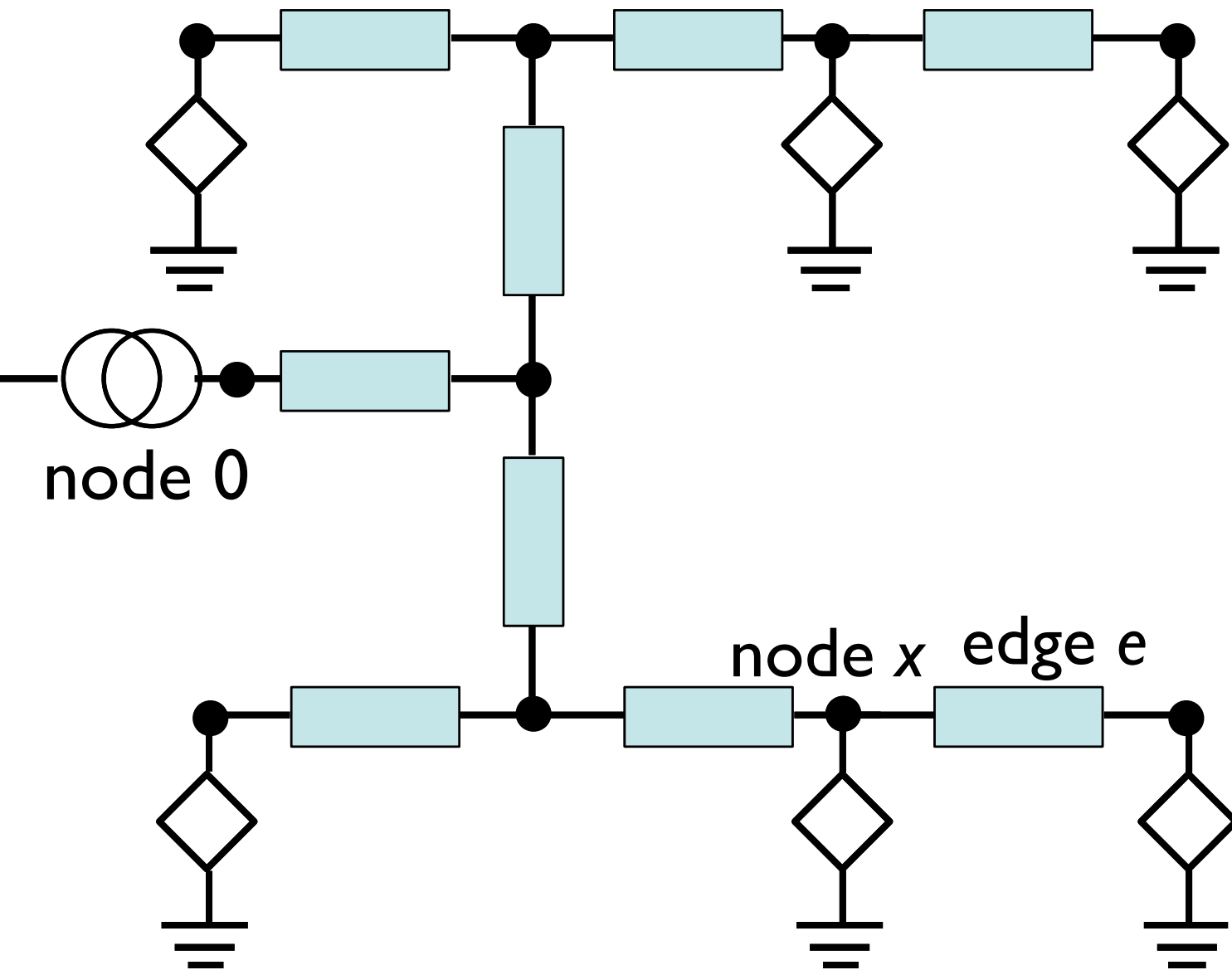
A model of a microgrid



Power lines: impedences i.e. linear constraints on currents and voltages

Microgenerators/loads: linear constraints in the (active and reactive) powers

A model of a microgrid



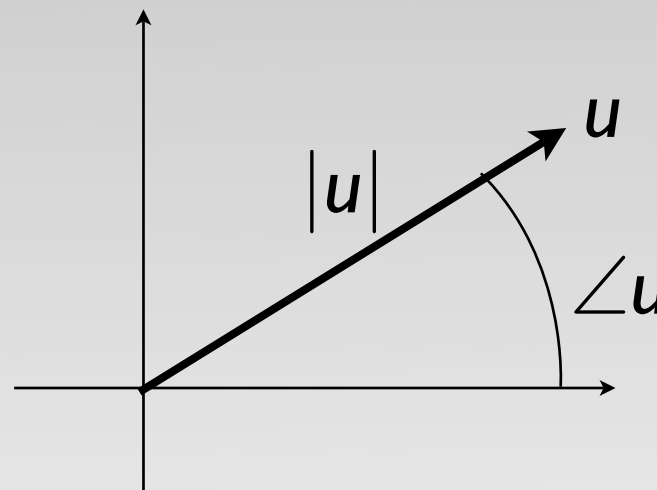
A model of a microgrid

Sinusoidal regime

We assume that the circuit is at the sinusoidal regime at a certain fixed frequency. In this way every signal $u(t)$ are described by a complex number $u \in \mathbb{C}$ describing amplitudes and phases

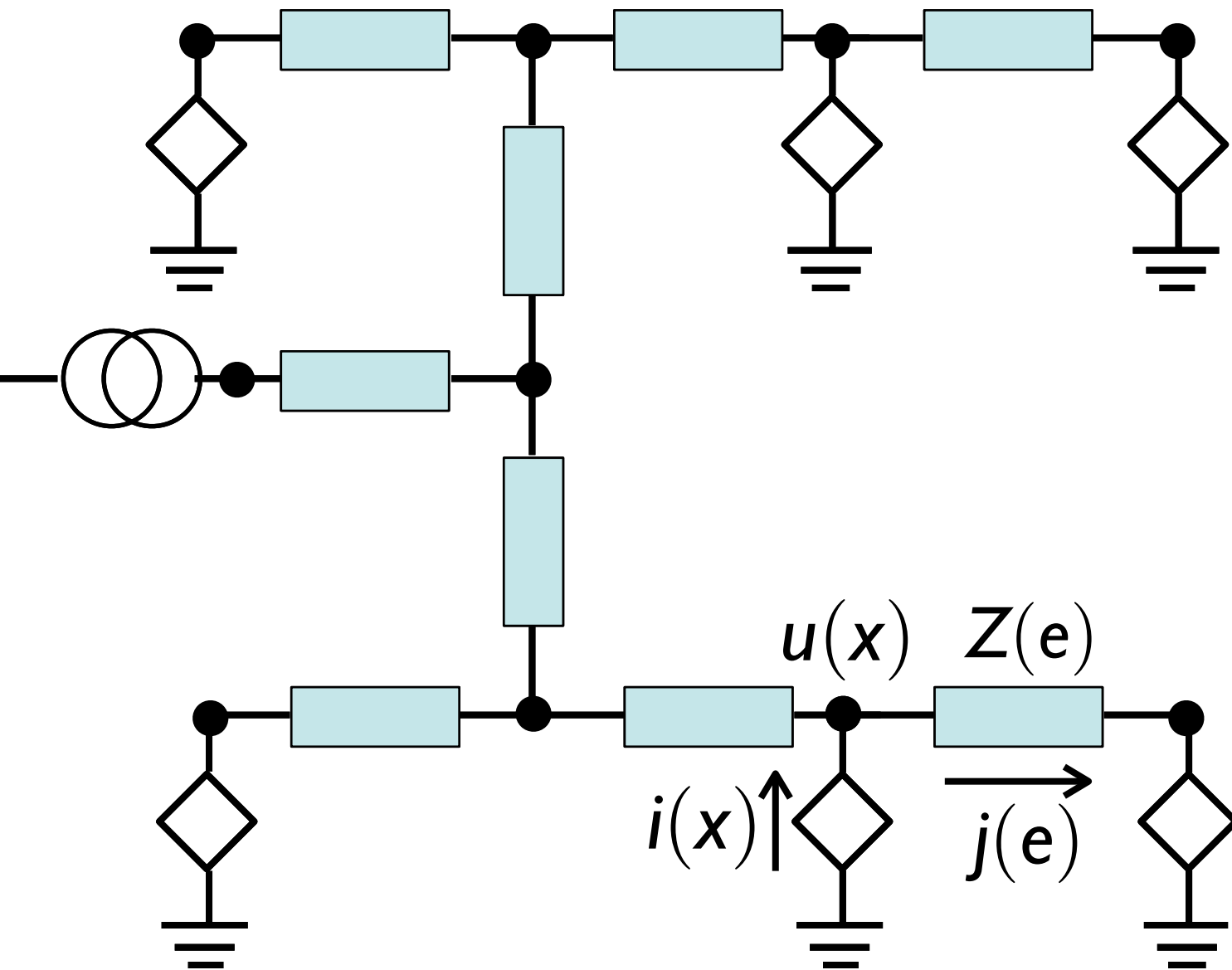
$$u(t) = |u| \cos(\omega t + \angle u)$$

where $|u|$ is the absolute value of u and $\angle u$ is the phase of u .



$$u = |u|e^{j\angle u}$$

A model of a microgrid



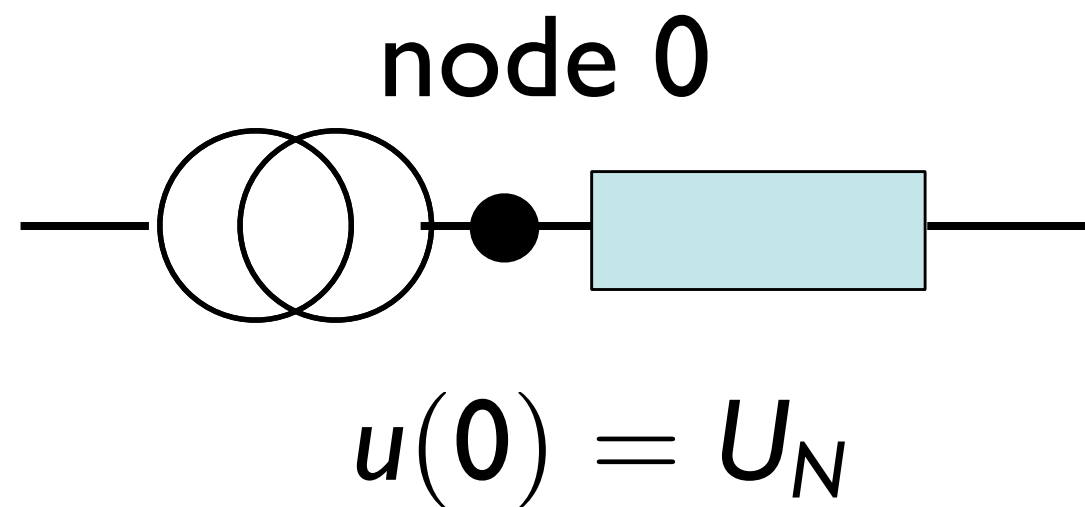
Variables of the model

- $u(x)$ potential at node x
- $i(x)$ current at node y
- $j(e)$ current at edge e
- $Z(e)$ impedance at edge e

complex numbers

A model of a microgrid

The utility ensures that the voltage at the node 0 is equal to the nominal voltage U_N

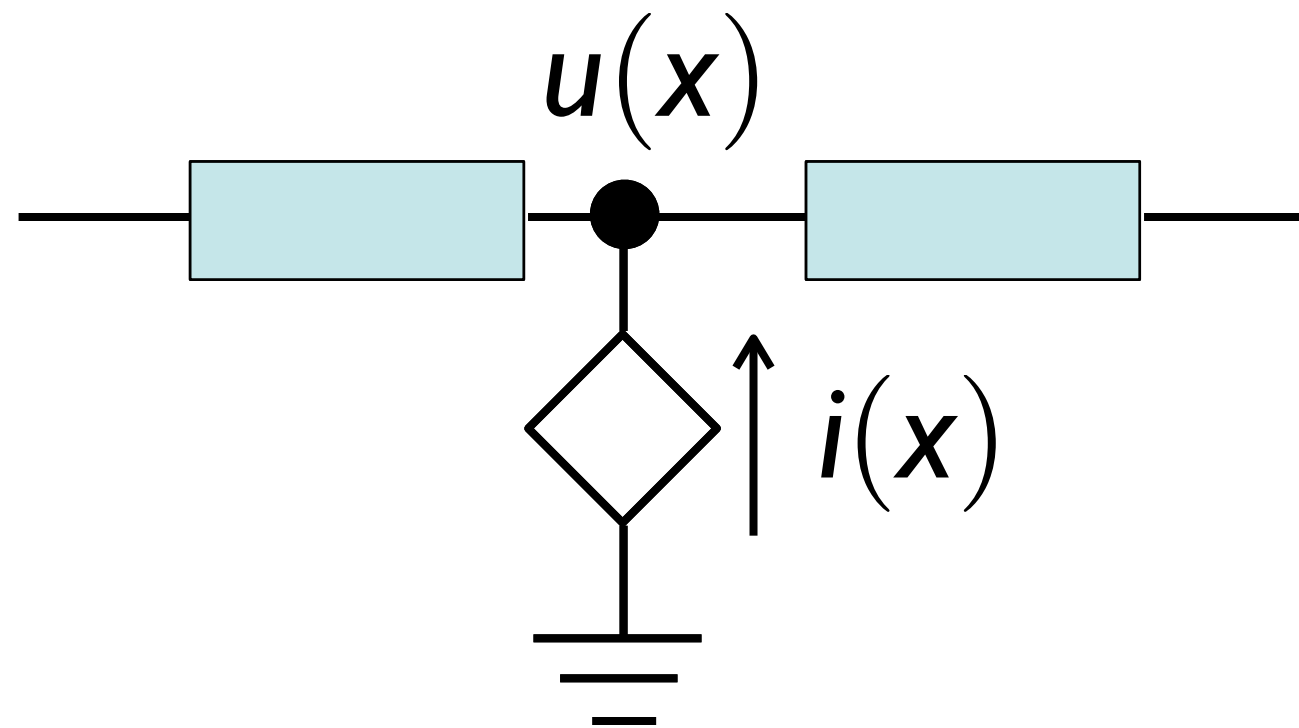


A model of a microgrid

The node x inject in the grid the complex power $s(x) = u(x)i(x)^*$

$p(x) = \text{Re}[s(x)]$ active power

$q(x) = \text{Im}[s(x)]$ reactive power



A model of a microgrid

The cost to be minimized is the Power Loss (PL)

$$PL = \sum_e \operatorname{Re}[\mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{e})] |j(\mathbf{e})|^2$$

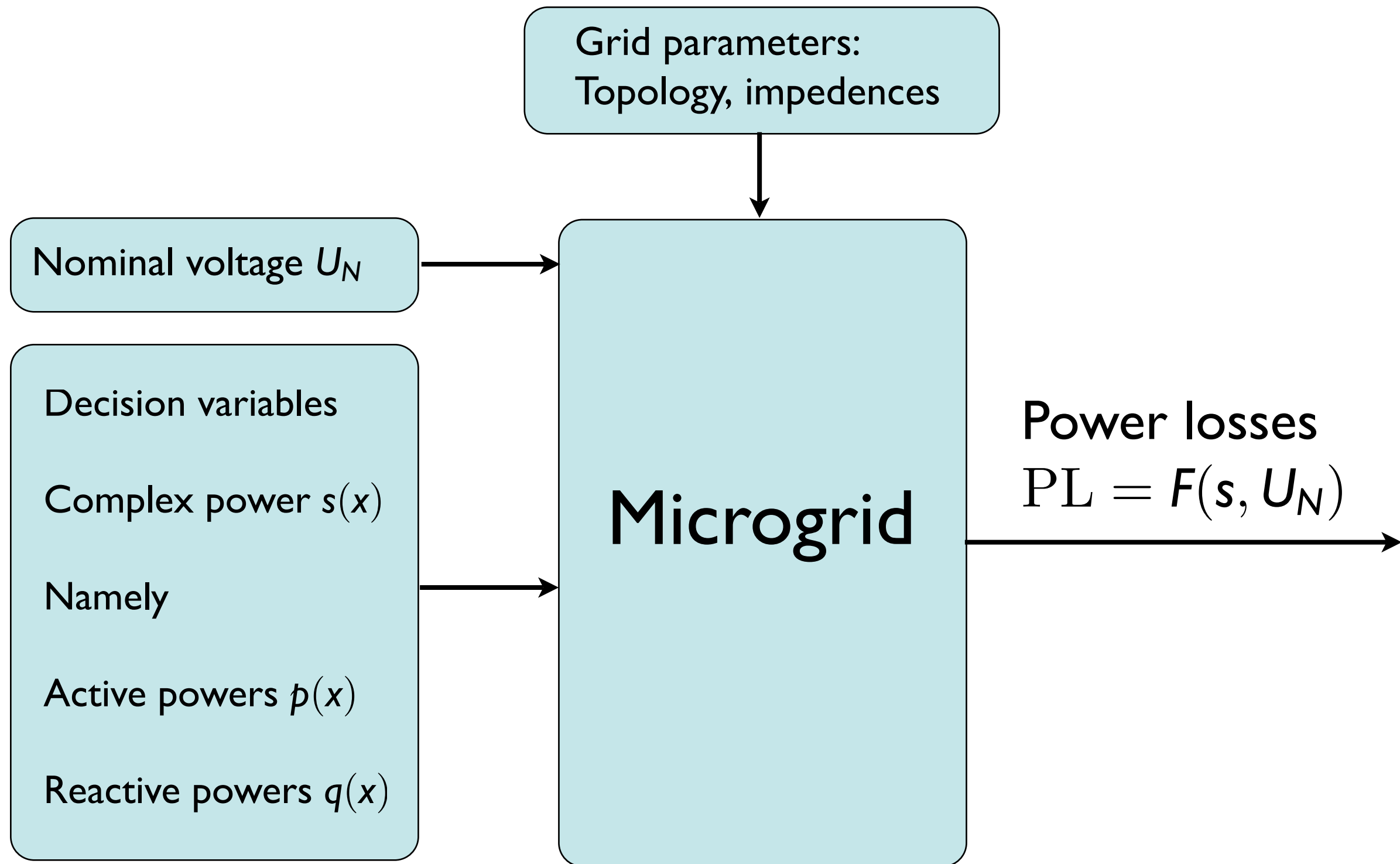
The inputs (control/disturbances)

- U_N (nominal voltage)
- s (the vector having as entries the injected complex powers $s(x)$)

The cost PL is a nonlinear function of the inputs

$$PL = F(s, U_N)$$

A model of a microgrid



Minimization of the power losses

$$\begin{aligned} & \min F(U_N, s) \\ & \text{over } s \\ & \text{subject to constraints} \end{aligned}$$

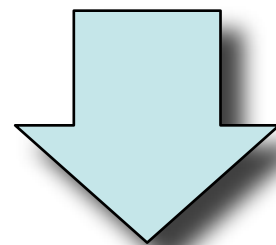
NON-CONVEX OPTIMIZATION PROBLEM: difficult to solve in a distributed way

Approximation of the cost

HYPOTHESIS: $Z(e) = e^{j\theta} R(e)$ where $R(e)$ is a real number

Taylor Expansion

$$F(s, U_N) \simeq s^* M s \frac{1}{U_N^2} + o\left(\frac{1}{U_N^2}\right)$$



For big U_N , minimizing $F(s, U_N)$ is equivalent to minimizing the quadratic function

$$s^* M s$$

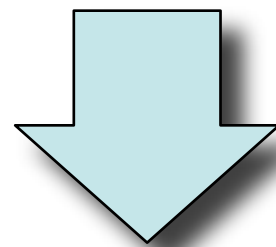
Approximation of the cost

HYPOTHESIS: $Z(e) = e^{j\theta} R(e)$ where $R(e)$ is a real number

Approximation of the gradient of the cost function

If U_N is big, then

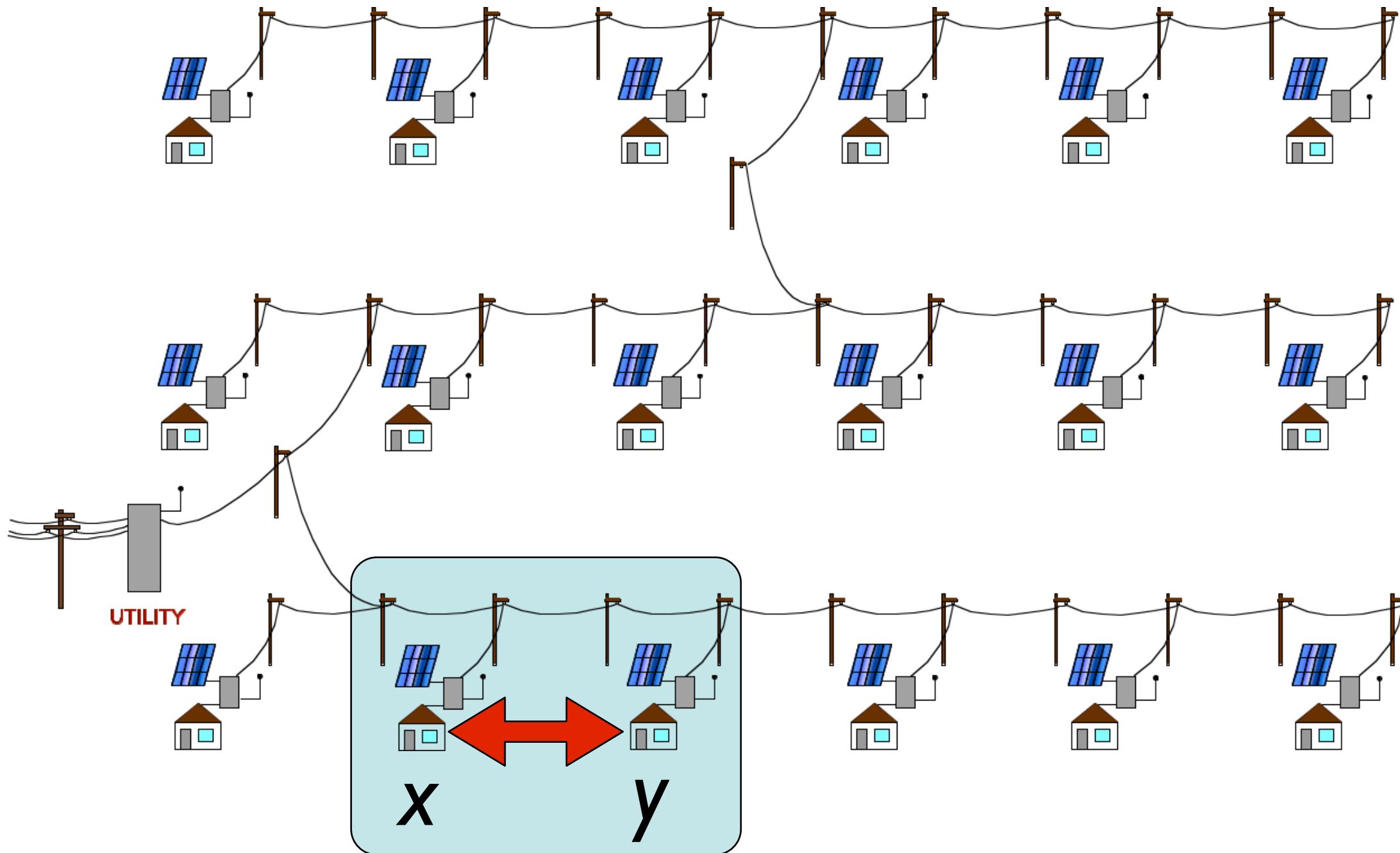
$$\text{grad } F(s, U_N) \simeq 2 \frac{\cos\theta e^{j\theta}}{U_N} (u - U_N I)^*$$



The gradient of $F(s, U_N)$ can be obtained by measuring the voltages

Distributed Iterative Algorithm

Iterative algorithm: at each step t a random pair of nodes x, y are activated



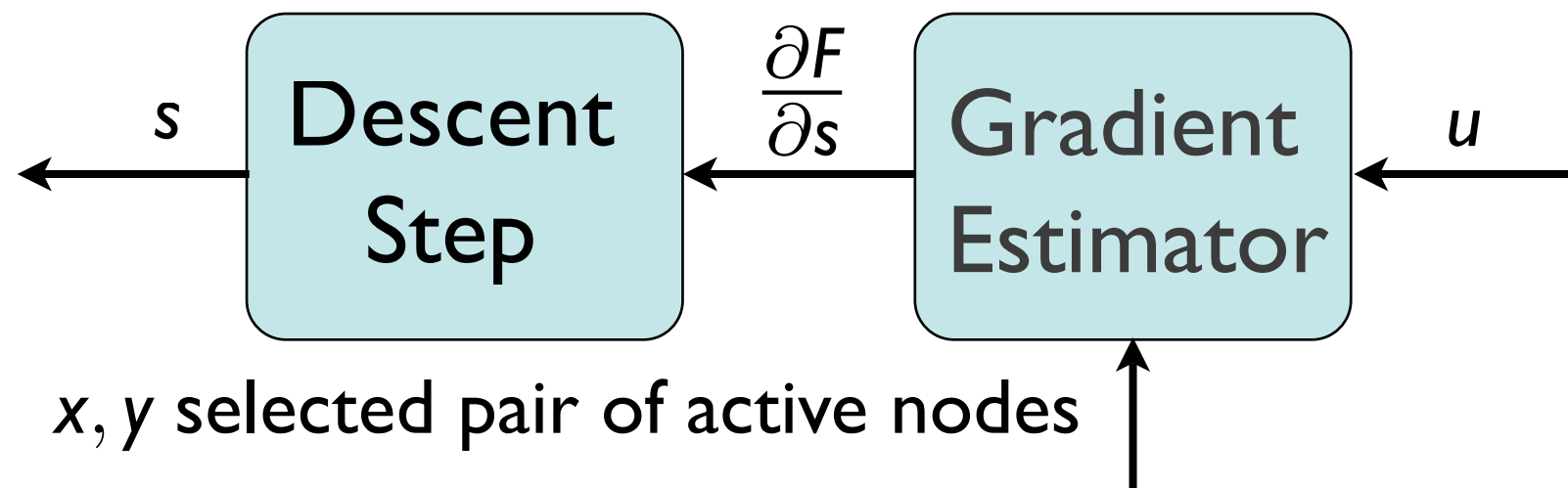
Distributed Iterative Algorithm

Estimation step

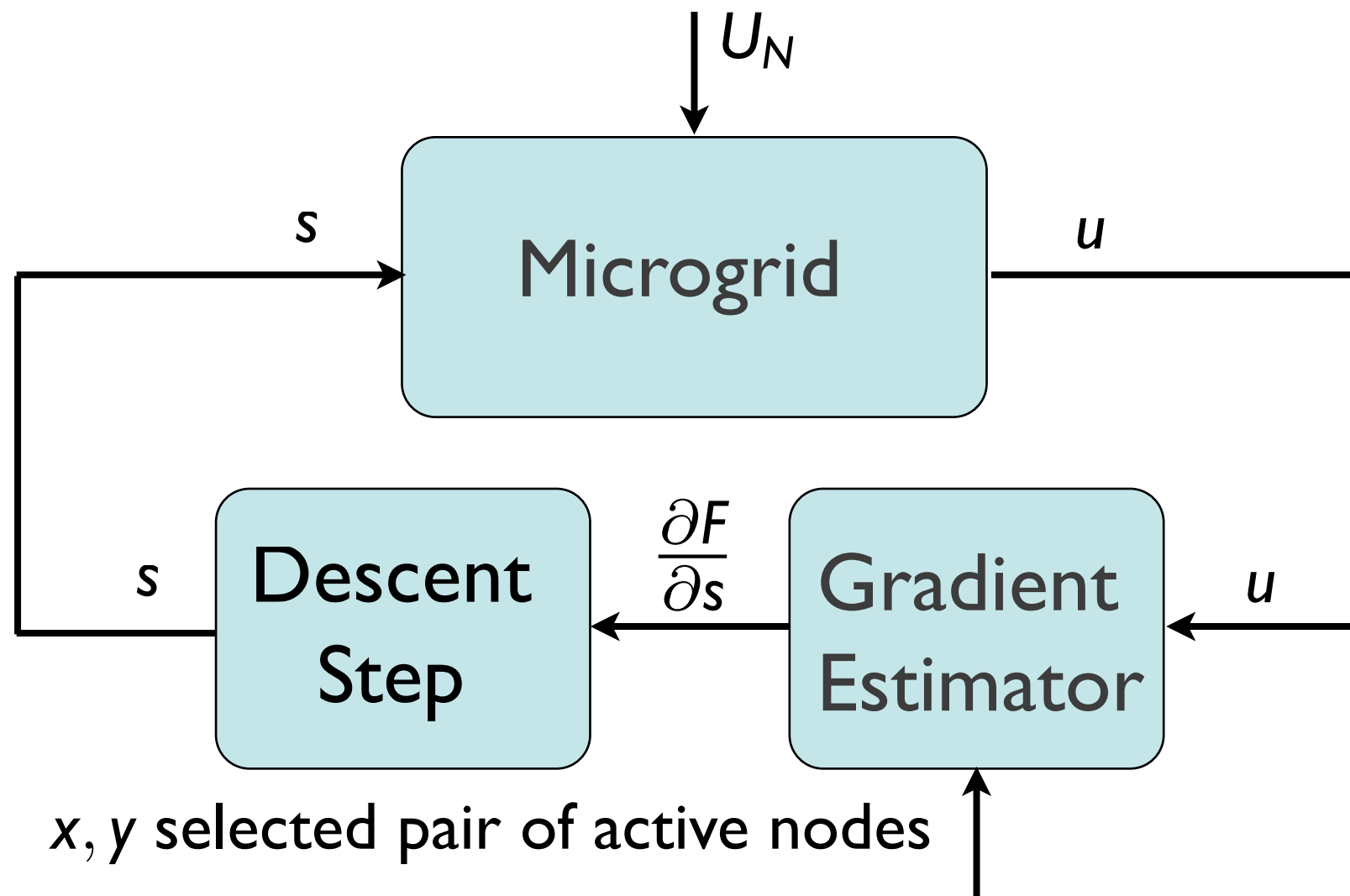
The nodes x, y estimate the gradient at x, y from the voltages $u(x), u(y)$ and exchange these estimates

Descent step

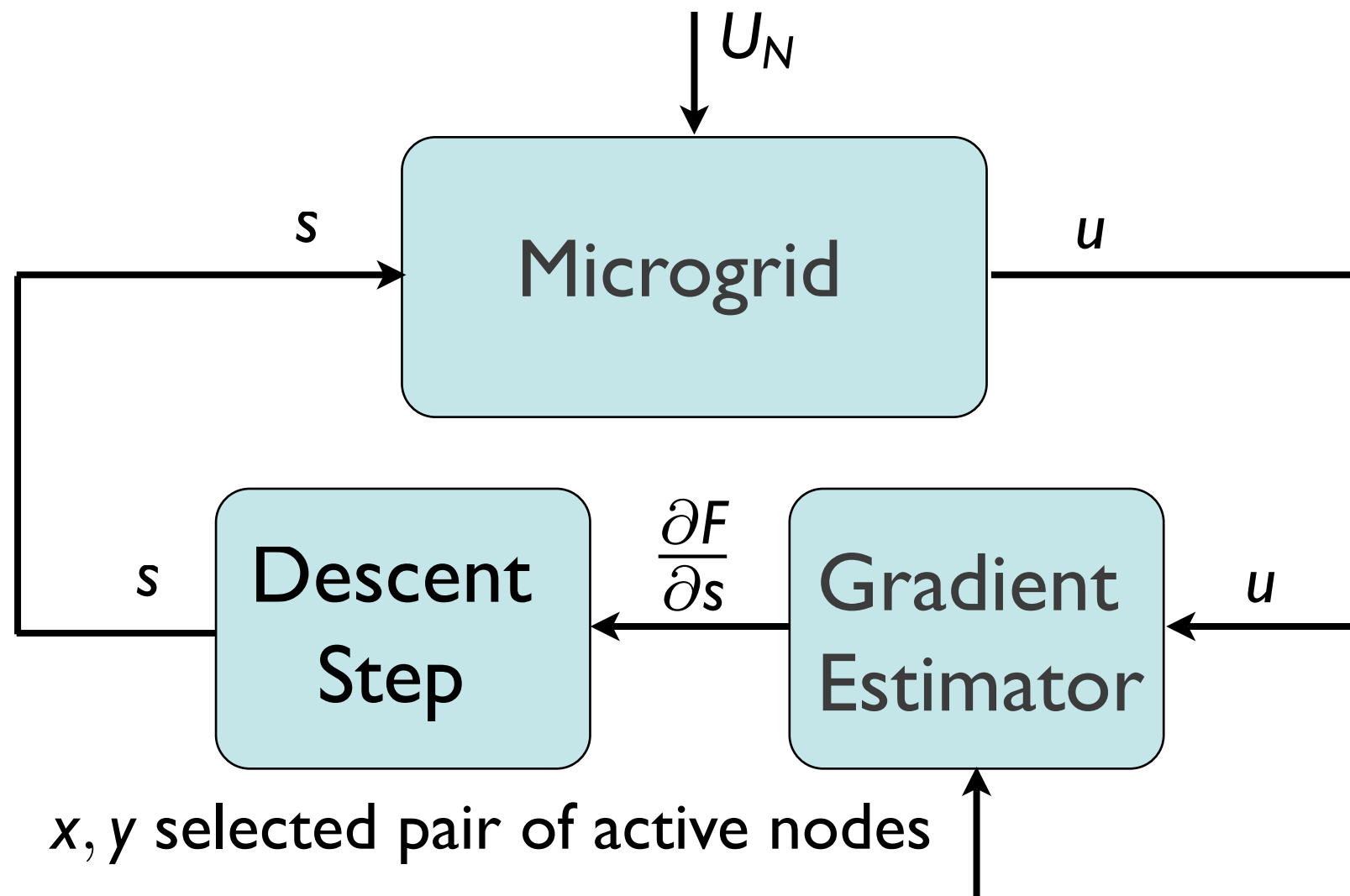
The nodes x, y inject the new powers $s(x), s(y)$ so that the cost decreases



Distributed Iterative Algorithm



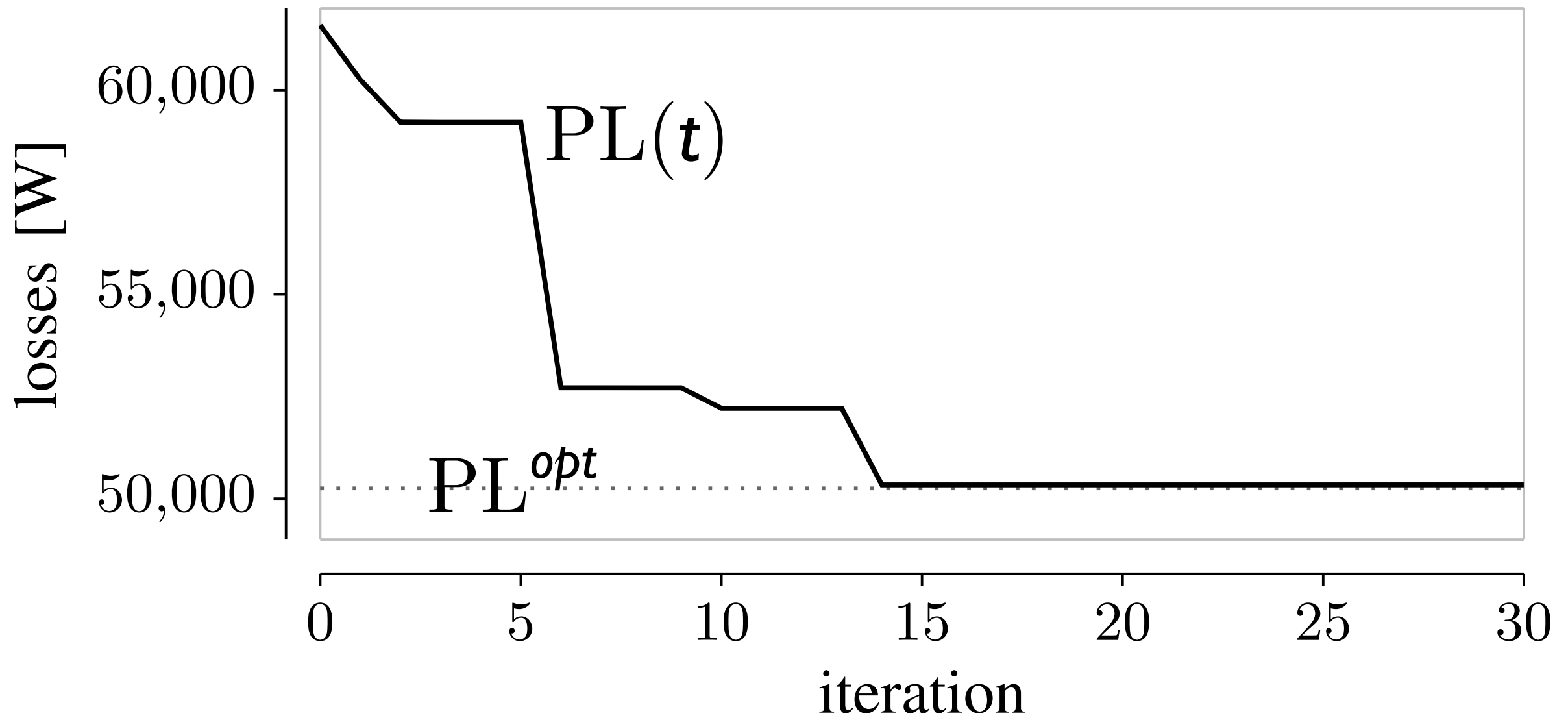
Distributed Iterative Algorithm



Result: the power loss converges to an approximation of the optimal power loss

$$PL(t) \longrightarrow PL^{opt}$$

Simulation





Conclusions

- Leaderless distributed decision models have pros and cons
- PROS: robustness to external changes, highly self-adaptiveness and so need of a limited initial configuration
- CONS: sub-optimal performance can be obtained
- Only a distributed modeling is needed
- Simplified approximated models need to be obtained
- Convergence and performance analysis can be done (distance to optimum)



Questions?