

Quantum PSO-Based Power Demand and Supply Management algorithm for Micogrids

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In this paper, we formulate a day-ahead dispatch problem of microgrids with distributed generation (DG) subject to the non-convex cost function. An operational framework is proposed to address the DGs 'valve-point' loading effect and optimize its performance. The valve-point effect induces a ripple in a 'fuel-cost' curve. The impact of demand side management (DSM) on convex and non-convex energy management system (EMS) problems with different load participation levels is investigated. Further, the DA scheduling horizon of a fifteen-minute resolution time is considered to examine the effect of load dynamics in the MG. The new optimization algorithm, Quantum Particle Swarm Optimization (QPSO), is employed to solve the non-convex DGs cost optimization problem. It is demonstrated that the algorithm efficiently solves the EMS problem. Simulation results point to a 5% reduction in OPEX costs with a minimal penalty on customer satisfaction or Utility.

Keywords: smart Grid, prosumers, OPEX and CAPEX, hierarchical, distributed generation, battery energy storage system (BESS).

1. Introduction

The key to energy utilization efficiency in future smart grids (SGs) is optimized DSM with time-related pricing. Intelligence in the SG with "closed-loop" control of demand implies that small and numerous renewable energy sources (RESs) will be easier to control and coordinate. However, the intermittency and geographic spread of RESs require high computing power. Energy optimization using scheduling alone is limited by the flexibility of schedulable loads and the consumers' willingness to compromise their comfort due to appliances' switch-on time delays. The residential tariffs should directly offer monetary incentives for PAR reduction strategies to work. Otherwise, customers will not desire to flatten their peaks on the load curves. Besides shifting base load appliances, deploying electrical storage is a complementary method of optimizing households' energy consumption. Suppose ToU tariffs and electricity storage are used. In that case, consumer electricity costs can be reduced by

storing energy during low-cost off-peak times and then discharging the stored energy for use during high-cost on-peak times, avoiding expensive grid supply. Overall, the key to successfully optimized dispatching would be to embark on a strategy that minimizes the OPEX and CAPEX associated with traditional and renewable generators, the transactional costs of the transmittable power, and maximizes the Utility's demand response benefits concurrent with satisfying the load demand constraints.

This is achieved by effectively managing power generation, distribution, and usage in the SG or MG. Overall, the primary objectives include:

- integrating renewable generation sources into the main power grid. These sources can be from individual households or PPPs.
- Real-time constant monitoring of electrical power consumption and its depletion in the SG.
- Acquisition of key grid measurements as well as billing-related data.
- Constant achievement of optimized balancing of demand and power energy consumption by end-users.
- Facilitating regular interactions between end-users and Utilities. An enabling information and Communications Technology (ICT) subsystem normally facilitates this.
- Constantly guarding and enforcing both privacy and security within the entire system.
- Enhancement of reliability by way of allowing degrees of autonomy in management.
- Ensuring the maximized efficiency in terms of assets used in the SG.

A full duplex ICT subsystem is incorporated to inter-link the various entities communication-wise. In that way, end-users can trade effectively, e.g., maximize power trading with the grid. This is because they would have acquired market-related information and grid status before trading any excess power to the grid. Note that at a functional level, the SG system encompasses various applications and services concurrently with advanced management and operation to ensure efficiency in balancing supply and demand. In summary, the operation functions in envisaged future SGs aggregately bring about a multitude of services / or applications

2. Related Works

There is a phenomenally exponential rise in published work on DSM for microgrid optimization [1], [2], [3]. General constraints, various objective functions, problem formulation methodologies, and topologies of the smart grids exist in the literature. The authors in [4] identified five typical microgrid optimization objectives and outlined a matrix of these criteria vs twenty-two optimization techniques. The characteristic optimization problems in the area are summarised as;

- Electricity cost minimization.
- Consumer utility or comfort function maximization,

- Aggregate power usage minimization,
- Minimization of both cost and total power consumed.
- The comfort maximization and aggregate power consumption minimization.

A constrained multi-objective function formulation of the optimization is considered in [5]. This achieves multi-objectives related to cost savings, load flattening, and peak load reduction. Under certain conditions and assumptions, a Pareto-optimal solving strategy can be formulated, but the optimization model becomes too complex.

Further, the authors [6][7][8] present an in-depth analysis of pricing signals as well as demand-side programs. Studies on relevant demand response smart technologies and markets are covered in [9] [10], and they demonstrate the extent of energy savings and other efficiency metrics that have been achieved in the electricity markets. Demand response architectures are described in [11], highlighting their requirements, benefits, costs, and implementation progress in various Power utilities worldwide. The works in [12],[13],[14],[15] focus on enabling technologies such as smart meters (SMs), energy controllers (EC), and cyber-physical communication systems needed to deploy DR in SGs.

Traditionally DSM was applied to energy-consuming loads. With the SG hosting easily controllable sources such as photovoltaics (PVs), wind turbines (WTs), and energy-storing systems (ESSs), more flexibility for DR is introduced from the generation side. The operation strategy of Microgrids in the context of DR involves optimization, which means considering all the components in addition to the traditional loads. Optimization analysis and simulation done in [16] Using a Genetic Algorithm, we show that DR based on traditional load curtailment can reduce grid power while simultaneously increasing RES grid supply.

Of these numerous exact, games theory approach and meta-heuristic DR algorithms techniques [2],[5], the literature is unclear as to which methods are specifically suitable to certain classes of problems that arise in real-life situations. An extensive account of state-of-the-art methods for power scheduling in smart homes is provided as well as possible future research directions in [7],[1]. Simpler optimization models dealing with single-time instant have solutions that can be computed easily in closed-form or by polynomial algorithms [6]. Nevertheless, the class of optimization that investigates multiple intervals discrete-time problems, is characteristically solved by heuristic techniques that may result in suboptimal results. The author in [17] introduced the concept of a simple Multi-Period Energy Tariff Optimization Problem and proved that all such problems are NP-hard. The area of application has mainly been around residential appliance scheduling using price-based DR programs and inputs of:

- Electricity price TOU or day ahead RTP signals obtained from utility or energy retailer SM.
- Consumer utility function from which the optimization algorithm makes decisions.
- Environmental factors such as temperature, occupancy, luminance intensity, etc.

Dispatch in large-scale transmission systems is a typical minimum cost-optimal power flow (OPF) problem. Agent-based distributed algorithms have shown superiority over centralized approaches as they require minimal information sharing. Various offline techniques for

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distributed optimization and power flow models are summarised in [18]. The Dual Decomposition, Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers, Analytical Target Cascading, the Auxiliary Problem Principle, Optimality Condition Decomposition, and Consensus Innovation are some of the promising methods for finding solutions to a variety of optimization and power control problems. Most of the methods have been applied offline in the literature. Adaptation to online optimization still requires a great deal of work. Surveys of several meta-heuristic optimization techniques and their limitations as applied to off-line microgrids are available in [19],[20][21]. The population-based meta-heuristic optimization methods that have found application in power system optimization generally belong to three classes, namely swarm intelligence (SI) [22], evolutionary algorithms (EA), and the hybrid of the two techniques [23]. Popular evolutionary methods cover Genetic Algorithm (GA), Evolution Strategy (ES), Differential Evolution (DE), Evolution Programming (EP), etc. An extensive discussion of the limitations of these methods and possible research leads can be found in [24]. Firefly, Particle Swarm Optimization, Artificial Bee Colony, Ant Colony Optimization, etc., [25] are some of the most popular SI methods. Other natural phenomena-inspired methods are e.g., Gravitational Search (GSA), Harmony Search (HS) algorithm, Flower Pollination (FPA), Biogeography-Based Optimization (BBO), etc. Figure 2 provides an anatomy of commonly applied DR optimization techniques well elucidated in the literature.

Meta-heuristic techniques can tackle multi-objective optimization problems without gradient information and can recover from local optima as they are inherently stochastic. Certain standard benchmark multi-modal, mixed-modal, and unimodal model functions are used to assess the performance of these techniques subject to tuning certain tuning parameters. Standard deviation means the value of solutions obtained, and convergence rates are measures used to compare the performance of the various methods. The weakness of GA is that they are prone to get stuck in local optimum, and their search space is small. DE methods though they have been shown to possess average convergence rates and have a greater degree of complexity, in their favour is easy applicability to a wide variety of problems that include practical scheduling.

Currently, no single method is well suited for both standard and practical formulations. There is, therefore, a need to find such standard benchmark functions to help with selecting appropriate optimization methods for general cost optimization problems [7].

Gamarra and Guerrero [10] provide an extensive review of optimization and other techniques applied to four common micro-grid optimization problems of power mix selection, sizing, siting as well and scheduling, which is the focus of this dissertation. Mathematical methods such as linear mixed-integer(LMI) programming take more time to find the optimal solutions compared to the heuristic techniques [13].

Observability, controllability, and security are imperatives for successful MG operations [18]. If these can be fully achieved, possible benefits that can be accrued are system performance, customer satisfaction, and availability of data to close off gaps in uncertainties. Challenges that persist are a lack of real-time system controls, societal barriers to market deregulation, and insufficient time to avail consumers the time-varying pricing information. Load prediction and control state estimation can be employed to enhance observability in intelligent distribution networks using, e.g., an agent-based control approach whose archi-

structure derives from distributed control rather than a traditional centralized paradigm. The resultant DEG networks will have enhanced flexibility and adaptability of automation systems, generally contributing to speeding the progress of Smart Grids. What is needed now is an effort to develop a standardized and integrated vision for SG [20]. Electric vehicle technology will also in the future have a great Impact on SG development. Consequently, there exists a huge potential for research both for backup and DSM as well as provision of flexibilities for main grid management [18], [26].

Overall, the core issue here is to address power dispatching optimally. This task is accomplished in the form of power demand and dispatch intervention programs summarized in Figure 3

We thus, in the next sections propose an optimized neural network-driven model solution.

3. Proposed Optimization Model

In this regard, we will assume a "look ahead policy," i.e., data pertaining to power usage in the past one day period (24 hours) is known apriori. This data included the following:

- 15 minutes interval power demand forecasting for the day ahead.
- 15 -60 minutes PV solar and wind generation potential forecasting;
- Approximated cost functions of the DERs, and other parameters such as maximum and minimum power generation limits.
- The state of the BESS, i.e. its initial charge levels.

The SG operates all its connected MGs in either one of the following modes:

Mode I: Standalone mode. In this case the MG is isolated from the main interconnecting grid.

Mode II: connected mode: In this case the MG fully connects to the main interconnection grid and power trading may take place.

The objective is to minimize the aggregated power generation costs by all sources in a given MG (or SG), we thus have

$$\min \Pi = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \Pi(x_i, u_i) + \Pi_N(x_N) \quad (1)$$

Where x_i and u_i are state and decision vectors respectively. In the same equation g_i denotes the degree of correlation between neighbouring vectors, and Π_i a cost function at an arbitrary time i .

Equation (1) 's validity is subject to satisfying a constraint Ψ defined by;

$$\begin{cases} x_{i+1} = g_i(x_i, u_i) \\ c_{iN}(x_i, u_i) = 0 & x_{iN}(x_N) = 0 \\ c_{iN}(x_i, u_i) \leq 0 & x_{iN}(x_N) \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad i=1,2,\dots,N-1 \quad (2)$$

Thus for Mode I of SG operation, we have an equivalent formulation as follows:

$$x_i = [P_1(i) \ P_2(i) \ \dots \ P_m(i) \ P_{BESS}(i) \ soc(i)]^T \quad (3)$$

Similarly for Mode II operations we have;

$$x_i = [P_1(i) \ P_2(i) \ \dots \ P_m(i) \ P_{BESS}(i) \ P_{grid}(i) \ soc(i)]^T \quad (4)$$

$$u_i = [\Delta P_1(i) \ \Delta P_2(i) \ \dots \ \Delta P_m(i) \ \Delta P_{BESS}(i) \ \Delta P_{grid}(i)]^T \quad (5)$$

Equations (2), (3), and (4) together depict a discrete multi- cascaded dynamic process whose solution can be best achieved by utilizing dynamic programming. In solving such a problem, an input set of decision variables generates input states for the next stages. The process repeats until the final stage, where the output represents a minimal summed cost of the entire multistage process system.

The Multistage decision process can be expressed by;

$$x^{k+1} = f^k(x^k, u^k), x^k \in U^k, \quad k \in [0, 1, \dots, N-1] \quad (6)$$

$$V^N(x^N) = \min_{u^0, \dots, u^N} \left[g^N(x^N) + \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} g^k(x^k, u^k) \right] \quad (7)$$

Where in the two above equations,

V^N -represents the aggregated costs of all stages.

f^k - functions characterizing state transitions.

g^k - k stage's cost function.

x^k - k stage's state vector

u^k = k stage's corresponding decision vector.

k - time interval count.

Consequently, at any stage k ;

$$V^k(x^k) = \min_{u^k \in U^k} \left[g^k(x^k, u^k) + V^{k-1}(x^{k-1}) \right] \quad (8)$$

This is subject to satisfying Ψ ;

$$\Psi = \begin{cases} x_{min}^{k-1} < x^{k-1} < x_{max}^{k-1} \\ x_{min}^k \leq x^k \leq x_{max}^k \\ x^k = f^{k-1}(x^{k-1}, u^{k-1}) \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

In Fig.1 a summarised reformulation of the model is pro- vided.

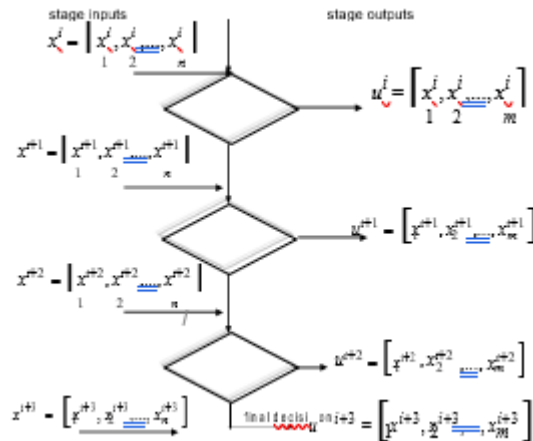


Fig. 1: Modeling Node Policies in Power Dispatching

To ease the computational loads involved in the Frame- work's core modules in all the SG's control infrastructure, we chose to incorporate some NN modules. The model in Fig.2 illustrates one such example NN module. These will also aid in the more precise determination of optimal deci- sions and ultimately optimal dispatching of available power subject to maximizing profits as well as keeping OPEX and CAPEX low.

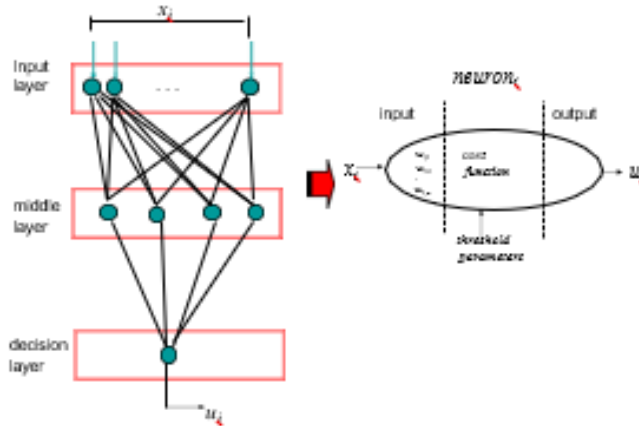


Fig. 2: The Neural Network Set Module illustration

The PSO algorithm is primarily based on generating ran- dom approximated solutions before searching for an opti- mal one through exhaustive iterations. It tends to up the computational loads and signalling overheads among the entities constituting the hierarchical dispatching frame- work. Neither does it timeously converge to a localized optimal decision. Its successor, the quantum PSO (QPSO), has a faster convergence rate and a more précised fitness valuing. It treats each particle as a quantum state and then uses the Schrodinger equation to formulate an equivalent wave function. Ultimately, the particles will gradually con- verge to a global solution.

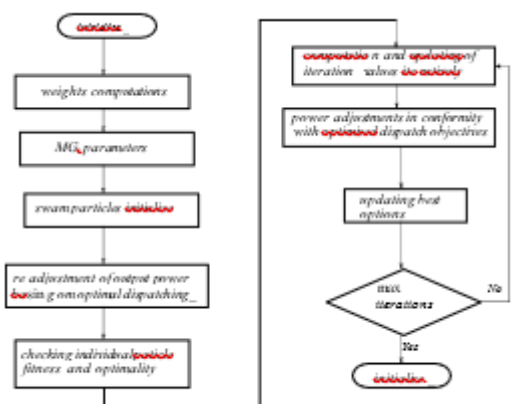


Fig. 3: QPSO algorithm-based dispatch algorithm

The QPSO algorithm, as summarised in Fig. 3, will be implemented in the Neural Network modules to implement the optimization as summarised by the reformulation provided in Fig. 1.

4. Model Evaluation

Note that in this case, we rely on the VPSPICE simulation platform, which, among other things, has the necessary pre-trained NN sets. To enhance the "look ahead" forecasting, we initially ran trial runs for both PV and WT generators. The data used is provided in Table 1.

Table 1. 24-hour interval climatic data captured for analysis purposes

time	temperature°C	wind velocity	I(kW/m ²)
1	12	5.05	0.001
2	11.3	6.04	0.001
3	10.2	6.6	0.001
4	11.5	7.3	0.001
5	11.7	7.2	0.001
6	11.8	7.2	0.001
7	11.9	6.9	0.003
8	12	6.9	0.15
9	13.2	7.9	0.3
10	15.1	8.5	0.8
11	20.1	11	0.99
12	26.2	7.6	1.12
13	27	7.332	1.903
14	27.39	7.253	0.8
15	27	7.2	0.55
16	25.4	6.4	0.11
17	19.3	6.5	0.001
18	18.8	7.6	0.001
19	18	5.7	0.001
20	16.7	5.71	0.001
21	11.3	5.2	0.001
22	9.3	6.1	0.001
23	7.9	5.06	0.001
24	7.6	5.3	0.01

The climatic data is captured hourly over a 24-hour cycle period. To capture more realistic data characterizing the typical climatic conditions of the vicinity (area), we averaged 5

consecutive captures. Specifically, the typical data includes temperature, wind velocity, and solar intensity.

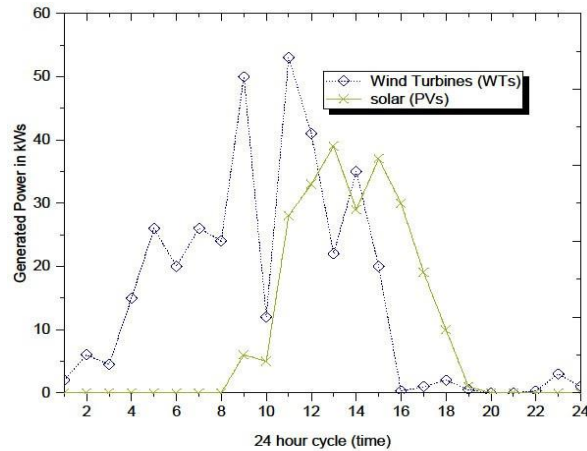


Fig. 4: Aggregated Power from PVs and WTs over a 24 Hour interval.

The plot of Aggregated Power from PVs and WTs over a 24 Hour interval.

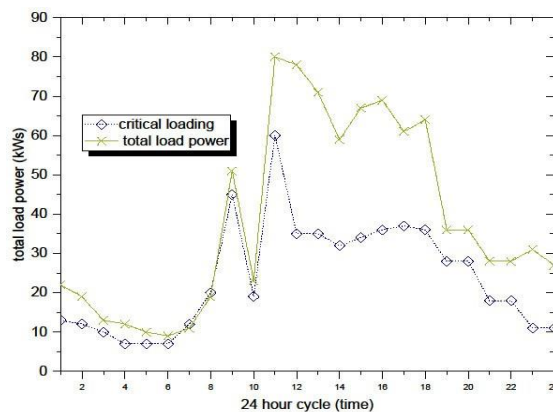


Fig.51: Aggregated(total) SG load and its critical loading.

As expected, the graph shows that ambient temperatures coupled with optimal solar radiation intensity (and correct inclination angle) will generate more power. PVs typically yield power during daylight hours from around 8 a.m. to 19 a.m., whereas WTs still generate power at night. We also provide a variation of critical versus noncritical grid loads over a 24-hour period. These are captured at 60-minute intervals and are shown in Fig.5.

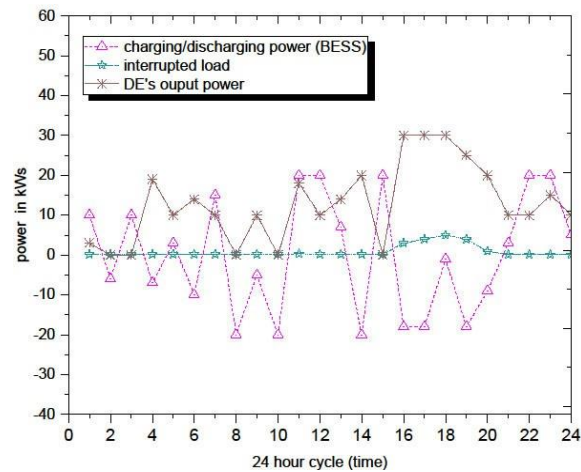


Fig. 6: Varying of BESS charging/discharging versus DEs optimality.

We once again reiterate that the objective of the proposed framework is a hierarchical-based optimal dispatch strategy with key desirables such as lowered OPEX and CAPEX costs (i.e., financial/economic viability), non-violation of environment protection from avoidable pollution, and power supply reliability in the grid. The optimal charging/ discharging times can be deduced from the plot provided in Fig.6 and Fig. 7.

Table 2. Pollutants and associated costs

type	(g / kWhr)	cost _coeff (ZAR / Kg)
nitrogen oxide	9.9	63
sulphur oxide	0.199	14.01

We make use of the pollutant associated tabulated values and associated costs (Table 2) to further evaluate optimal BESS capacity. In addition, pairwise comparisons of weights fed to the inputs of the NNs at the primary (local), secondary, and apex layers of the hierarchical tree (of the dispatch model) are carried out. It is the results of these comparisons that ultimately feed to the NN inputs at each layer.

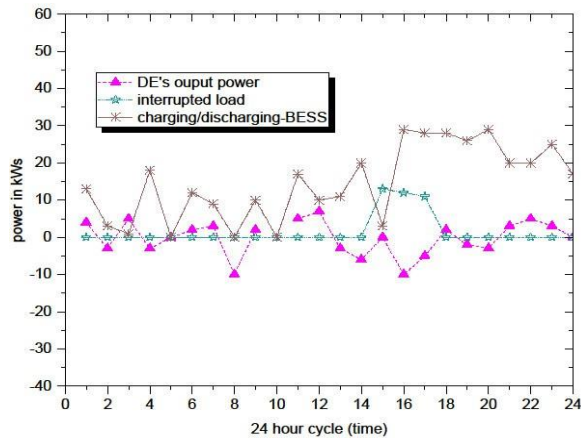


Fig.e 7: Optimality assuming a 50k Ah BESS capacity in the SG

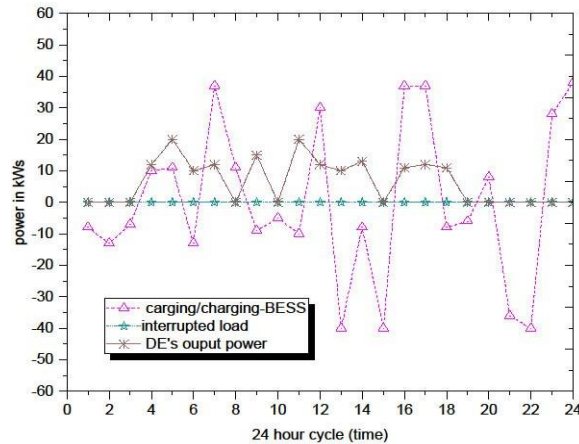


Fig. 8: Optimality assuming a 50k Ahr BESS storage capacity in the SG

Our model framework has a tendency to accommodate more renewable generators such as PVs and WTs than fossil-based equivalents such as diesel generating based plants. By referring to Optimality assuming a 50k Ah BESS capacity in the SG, Optimality assuming a 50k Ahr BESS storage capacity in the SG Fig. 8 shows that the sizing of BESS systems in an SG / or Mg will significantly impact the optimal dispatch end results. First, the BESS systems act as a buffer to balance and smooth demand and supply curve rippling.

As also observed in the analytical part, there is a tendency to have all redundant be rerouted towards BESS systems for storage.

5. Conclusion

This paper analyzes and solves a new microgrid energy management problem with a non-convex cost function with load dynamics using the QPSO algorithm. Four case studies were studied to demonstrate the benefit of various demand-side participation levels on IMGs while solving the non-convex problem. The Utility-induced load shaping is introduced in the objective function to reduce the grid's energy import. Further, the dynamic load dispatch of the microgrid is obtained within a 15, 30 or 60-minute time frame, and the effect of demand-side management on its overall operating cost is investigated. The QPSO algorithm demonstrably solves the non-convex problem efficiently. Simulation results yield a 4.34 % reduction in operating cost compared to the case where demand-side management participation is lower. Finally, due to the VPE, costs for the non-convex DGs increase compared to DG units with convex cost functions. The methodology can nevertheless assist MGs operator to minimize costs while benefiting customers with peak reduction hence lower energy consumption during peak periods. Consumer utility can be safeguarded by appropriate scheduling wherein the consumer has a say.

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