

ELE B7 Power Systems Engineering

Newton-Raphson Method

Newton-Raphson Algorithm

- The second major power flow solution method is the Newton-Raphson algorithm
- Key idea behind Newton-Raphson is to use sequential linearization General form of problem: Find an x such that

$$f(\hat{x}) = 0$$

Newton-Raphson Method (scalar)

- 1. For each guess of \hat{x} , $x^{(v)}$, define $\Delta x^{(v)} = \hat{x} - x^{(v)}$
- 2. Represent $f(\hat{x})$ by a Taylor series about f(x)

$$f(\hat{x}) = f(x^{(\nu)}) + \frac{df(x^{(\nu)})}{dx} \Delta x^{(\nu)} + \frac{d^2 f(x^{(\nu)})}{dx^2} \left(\Delta x^{(\nu)}\right)^2 + \text{higher order terms}$$

Newton-Raphson Method, cont'd

3. Approximate $f(\hat{x})$ by neglecting all terms except the first two

$$f(\hat{x}) = 0 \approx f(x^{(\nu)}) + \frac{df(x^{(\nu)})}{dx} \Delta x^{(\nu)}$$

4. Use this linear approximation to solve for $\Delta x^{(v)}$

$$\Delta x^{(\nu)} = -\left[\frac{df(x^{(\nu)})}{dx}\right]^{-1} f(x^{(\nu)})$$

5. Solve for a new estimate of \hat{x}

$$x^{(\nu+1)} = x^{(\nu)} + \Delta x^{(\nu)}$$

Newton-Raphson Example

Use Newton-Raphson to solve $f(x) = x^2 - 2 = 0$ The equation we must iteratively solve is

$$\Delta x^{(\nu)} = -\left[\frac{df(x^{(\nu)})}{dx}\right]^{-1} f(x^{(\nu)})$$
$$\Delta x^{(\nu)} = -\left[\frac{1}{2x^{(\nu)}}\right]((x^{(\nu)})^2 - 2)$$
$$x^{(\nu+1)} = x^{(\nu)} + \Delta x^{(\nu)}$$
$$x^{(\nu+1)} = x^{(\nu)} - \left[\frac{1}{2x^{(\nu)}}\right]((x^{(\nu)})^2 - 2)$$

Newton-Raphson Example, cont'd

$$x^{(\nu+1)} = x^{(\nu)} - \left[\frac{1}{2x^{(\nu)}}\right]((x^{(\nu)})^2 - 2)$$

Guess $x^{(0)} = 1$. Iteratively solving we get

- v
 $x^{(v)}$ $f(x^{(v)})$ $\Delta x^{(v)}$

 0
 1
 -1
 0.5
- 1 1.5 0.25 -0.08333

2 1.41667 6.953×10^{-3}

 -2.454×10^{-3}

3 1.41422 6.024×10^{-6}

Sequential Linear Approximations



At each
iteration the
N-R method
uses a linear
approximation
to determine
the next value
for x

Newton-Raphson Comments

- When close to the solution the error decreases quite quickly -- method has quadratic convergence
- f(x^(v)) is known as the mismatch, which we would like to drive to zero
- Stopping criteria is when $|f(x^{(v)})| < \varepsilon$
- Results are dependent upon the initial guess. What if we had guessed $x^{(0)} = 0$, or $x^{(0)} = -1$?
- A solution's region of attraction (ROA) is the set of initial guesses that converge to the particular solution. The ROA is often hard to determine

Multi-Variable Newton-Raphson

Next we generalize to the case where \mathbf{x} is an ndimension vector, and $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ is an n-dimension function

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ f_2(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ f_n(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Again define the solution $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ so $\mathbf{f}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = 0$ and

 $\Delta \mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}$

Multi-Variable Case, cont'd

The Taylor series expansion is written for each $f_i(x)$

$$f_{1}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = f_{1}(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial f_{1}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{1}} \Delta x_{1} + \frac{\partial f_{1}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{2}} \Delta x_{2} + \dots$$
$$\frac{\partial f_{1}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{n}} \Delta x_{n} + \text{higher order terms}$$
$$\vdots$$
$$f_{n}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = f_{n}(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\partial f_{n}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{1}} \Delta x_{1} + \frac{\partial f_{n}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{2}} \Delta x_{2} + \dots$$
$$\frac{\partial f_{n}(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{n}} \Delta x_{n} + \text{higher order terms}$$

Multi-Variable Case, cont'd

This can be written more compactly in matrix form



+ higher order terms

Jacobian Matrix

The n by n matrix of partial derivatives is known as the Jacobian matrix, J(x)



Multi-Variable N-R Procedure

Derivation of N-R method is similar to the scalar case

- $f(\hat{x}) = f(x) + J(x)\Delta x + higher order terms$
- $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{\hat{x}}) = \mathbf{0} \approx \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})\Delta\mathbf{x}$
- $\Delta \mathbf{x} \approx -\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})^{-1}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$
- $\mathbf{x}^{(\nu+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(\nu)} + \Delta \mathbf{x}^{(\nu)}$
- $\mathbf{x}^{(\nu+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(\nu)} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(\nu)})^{-1}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^{(\nu)})$

Iterate until $\left\| \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^{(\nu)}) \right\| < \varepsilon$

Multi-Variable Example

Solve for
$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 such that $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ where
 $f_1(\mathbf{x}) = 2x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 8 = 0$
 $f_2(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^2 - x_2^2 + x_1x_2 - 4 = 0$

First symbolically determine the Jacobian

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Multi-variable Example, cont'd

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 4x_1 & 2x_2 \\ 2x_1 + x_2 & x_1 - 2x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \Delta x_2 \end{bmatrix} = -\begin{bmatrix} 4x_1 & 2x_2 \\ 2x_1 + x_2 & x_1 - 2x_2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ f_2(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Arbitrarily guess $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.1 \\ 1.3 \end{bmatrix}$

Multi-variable Example, cont'd

$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.1\\ 1.3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 8.40 & 2.60\\ 5.50 & -0.50 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2.51\\ 1.45 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.8284\\ 1.2122 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each iteration we check $\|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})\|$ to see if it is below our specified tolerance ε
$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1556\\ 0.0900 \end{bmatrix}$$

If $\varepsilon = 0.2$ then we would be done. Otherwise we'd continue iterating.

NR Application to Power Flow

We first need to rewrite complex power equations as equations with real coefficients

$$\mathbf{S}_{i} = V_{i}I_{i}^{*} = V_{i}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n}Y_{ik}V_{k}\right)^{*} = V_{i}\sum_{k=1}^{n}Y_{ik}^{*}V_{k}^{*}$$

These can be derived by defining

$$Y_{ik} = G_{ik} + jB_{ik}$$

$$V_i = |V_i|e^{j\theta_i} = |V_i| \angle \theta_i$$

$$\theta_{ik} = \theta_i - \theta_k$$
Recall $e^{j\theta} = \cos\theta + j\sin\theta$

Real Power Balance Equations

$$S_{i} = P_{i} + jQ_{i} = V_{i}\sum_{k=1}^{n}Y_{ik}^{*}V_{k}^{*} = \sum_{k=1}^{n}|V_{i}||V_{k}|e^{j\theta_{ik}}(G_{ik} - jB_{ik})$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} |V_i| |V_k| (\cos \theta_{ik} + j \sin \theta_{ik}) (G_{ik} - jB_{ik})$$

Resolving into the real and imaginary parts

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$$P_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} |V_{i}|| V_{k} |(G_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik} + B_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik}) = P_{Gi} - P_{Di}$$

$$Q_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} |V_{i}|| V_{k} |(G_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik} - B_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik}) = Q_{Gi} - Q_{Di}$$

Newton-Raphson Power Flow

In the Newton-Raphson power flow we use Newton's method to determine the voltage magnitude and angle at each bus in the power system.

We need to solve the power balance equations

$$P_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} |V_{i}|| V_{k} |(G_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik} + B_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik}) = P_{Gi} - P_{Di}$$

$$\mathbf{Q}_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} |V_{i}| |V_{k}| (G_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik} - B_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik}) = Q_{Gi} - Q_{Di}$$

Power Flow Variables

Assume the slack bus is the first bus (with a fixed voltage angle/magnitude). We then need to determine the voltage angle/magnitude at the other buses.



N-R Power Flow Solution

The power flow is solved using the same procedure discussed last time:

Set v = 0; make an initial guess of \mathbf{x} , $\mathbf{x}^{(v)}$ While $\|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^{(v)})\| > \varepsilon$ Do $\mathbf{x}^{(v+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(v)} - \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(v)})^{-1}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}^{(v)})$ v = v+1End While

Power Flow Jacobian Matrix

The most difficult part of the algorithm is determining and inverting the n by n Jacobian matrix, J(x)

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Power Flow Jacobian Matrix, cont'd

Jacobian elements are calculated by differentiating each function, $f_i(\mathbf{x})$, with respect to each variable. For example, if $f_i(\mathbf{x})$ is the bus i real power equation

$$f_{i}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} |V_{i}|| V_{k} |(G_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik} + B_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik}) - P_{Gi} + P_{Di}|$$

$$\frac{\partial f_i(x)}{\partial \theta_i} = \sum_{\substack{k=1\\k\neq i}}^n |V_i| |V_k| (-G_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik} + B_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik})$$

 $\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{i}(x)}{\partial \theta_{j}} = |V_{i}| |V_{j}| (G_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik} - B_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik}) \quad (j \neq i)$

Line Flows and Losses

- After solving for bus voltages and angles, power flows and losses on the network branches are calculated
 - Transmission lines and transformers are network branches
 - The direction of positive current flow are defined as follows for a branch element (demonstrated on a medium length line)
 - Power flow is defined for each end of the branch
 - Example: the power leaving bus i and flowing to bus j



Line Flows and Losses

• current and power flows:

$$\begin{split} i &\to j \\ I_{ij} &= I_L + I_{i0} = y_{ij} (V_i - V_j) + y_{i0} V_i \\ S_{ij} &= V_i I_{ij}^* = V_i^2 (y_{ij} + y_{i0})^* - V_i y_{ij}^* V_j^* \\ \end{split}$$
 $\begin{aligned} j &\to i \\ I_{ji} &= -I_L + I_{j0} = y_{ij} (V_j - V_i) + y_{j0} V_j \\ S_{ji} &= V_L I_{j0}^* = V_j^2 (y_{ij} + y_{j0})^* - V_j y_{ij}^* V_j^* \end{aligned}$

• power loss: S

$$S_{Loss\,ij} = S_{ij} + S_{ji}$$



Two Bus Newton-Raphson Example

For the two bus power system shown below, use the Newton-Raphson power flow to determine the voltage magnitude and angle at bus two. Assume that bus one is the slack and $S_{Base} = 100 \text{ MVA}$.



Two Bus Example, cont'd

General power balance equations

$$P_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} |V_{i}|| V_{k} |(G_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik} + B_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik}) = P_{Gi} - P_{Di}$$

$$Q_{i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} |V_{i}|| V_{k} |(G_{ik} \sin \theta_{ik} - B_{ik} \cos \theta_{ik}) = Q_{Gi} - Q_{Di}$$

Bus two power balance equations

$$P_2 = |V_2||V_1|(10\sin\theta_2) + 2.0 = 0$$

$$Q_2 = |V_2||V_1|(-10\cos\theta_2) + |V_2|^2(10) + 1.0 = 0$$

Two Bus Example, cont'd

 $P_{2}(\mathbf{x}) = |V_{2}|(10\sin\theta_{2}) + 2.0 = 0$ $Q_{2}(\mathbf{x}) = |V_{2}|(-10\cos\theta_{2}) + |V_{2}|^{2}(10) + 1.0 = 0$ Now calculate the power flow Jacobian

$$J(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial P_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_2} & \frac{\partial P_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial |V|_2} \\ \frac{\partial Q_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \theta_2} & \frac{\partial Q_2(\mathbf{x})}{\partial |V|_2} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 10|V_2|\cos\theta_2 & 10\sin\theta_2 \\ 10|V_2|\sin\theta_2 & -10\cos\theta_2 + 20|V_2| \end{bmatrix}$$

Two Bus Example, First Iteration

Set
$$v = 0$$
, guess $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Calculate

 $f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) = \begin{bmatrix} |V_2|(10\sin\theta_2) + 2.0 \\ |V_2|(-10\cos\theta_2) + |V_2|^2(10) + 1.0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.0 \\ 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$ $\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) = \begin{bmatrix} 10|V_2|\cos\theta_2 & 10\sin\theta_2 \\ 10|V_2|\sin\theta_2 & -10\cos\theta_2 + 20|V_2| \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$ Solve $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 2.0 \\ 1.0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.2 \\ 0.9 \end{bmatrix}$

Two Bus Example, Next Iterations

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9(10\sin(-0.2)) + 2.0\\ 0.9(-10\cos(-0.2)) + 0.9^2 \times 10 + 1.0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.212\\ 0.279 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = \begin{bmatrix} 8.82 & -1.986\\ -1.788 & 8.199 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.2\\ 0.9 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 8.82 & -1.986\\ -1.788 & 8.199 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0.212\\ 0.279 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.233\\ 0.8586 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0145\\ 0.0190 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{x}^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.236\\ 0.8554 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(3)}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.0000906\\ 0.0001175 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Done!} \quad V_2 = 0.8554 \angle -13.52^\circ$$

Two Bus Solved Values

Once the voltage angle and magnitude at bus 2 are known we can calculate all the other system values, such as the line flows and the generator reactive power output



PV Buses

- Since the voltage magnitude at PV buses is fixed there is no need to explicitly include these voltages in **x** or write the reactive power balance equations
 - the reactive power output of the generator varies to maintain the fixed terminal voltage (within limits)
 - optionally these variations/equations can be included by just writing the explicit voltage constraint for the generator bus $|V_{1} - V_{2} - 0$

$$V_i | - V_{i \text{ setpoint}} =$$

Three Bus PV Case Example

For this three bus case we have

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_2 \\ \theta_3 \\ |V_2| \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} P_2(\mathbf{x}) - P_{G2} + P_{D2} \\ P_3(\mathbf{x}) - P_{G3} + P_{D3} \\ Q_2(\mathbf{x}) + Q_{D2} \end{bmatrix} = 0$$



Solving Large Power Systems

- The most difficult computational task is inverting the Jacobian matrix
 - inverting a full matrix is an order n³ operation, meaning the amount of computation increases with the cube of the size size
 - this amount of computation can be decreased substantially by recognizing that since the Y_{bus} is a sparse matrix, the Jacobian is also a sparse matrix
 - using sparse matrix methods results in a computational order of about n^{1.5}.
 - this is a substantial savings when solving systems with tens of thousands of buses

Newton-Raphson Power Flow

- Advantages
 - fast convergence as long as initial guess is close to solution
 - large region of convergence
- Disadvantages
 - each iteration takes much longer than a Gauss-Seidel iteration
 - more complicated to code, particularly when implementing sparse matrix algorithms
- Newton-Raphson algorithm is very common in power flow analysis