u_d

An Ordinal Optimization Theory-Based Algorithm for Solving the Optimal Power Flow Problem With Discrete Control Variables

Shin-Yeu Lin, Yu-Chi Ho, and Ch'i-Hsin Lin

Abstract—The optimal power flow (OPF) problem with discrete control variables is an NP-hard problem in its exact formulation. To cope with the immense computational-difficulty of this problem, we propose an ordinal optimization theory-based algorithm to solve for a good enough solution with high probability. Aiming for hard optimization problems, the ordinal optimization theory, in contrast to heuristic methods, guarantee to provide a top n% solution among all with probability more than 0.95. The approach of our ordinal optimization theory-based algorithm consists of three stages. First, select heuristically a large set of candidate solutions. Then, use a simplified model to select a subset of most promising solutions. Finally, evaluate the candidate promising-solutions of the reduced subset using the exact model. We have demonstrated the computational efficiency of our algorithm and the quality of the obtained solution by comparing with the competing methods and the conventional approach through

Index Terms—Discrete control variables, nonlinear programming, optimal power flow, ordinal optimization.

NOMENCLATURE

 n_d -dimensional vector of discrete con-

-	trol variables such as switching shunt
	capacitor banks and transformer taps.
x	n_x -dimensional vector of continuous
	variables consisting of real and reactive
	power generation, real and imaginary
	parts of bus complex voltage.
U_d	Sample space of u_d .
$g(x, u_d) = 0$	Real and reactive power flow balance
	equations.
$h(x) \le 0$	Inequality constraints such as thermal-
	limit security constraints, security limits
	on voltage magnitude, and real and re-

active power generation limits.

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 $f(x, u_d)$ Ot

MDCP

 $MDCP(u_d)$

 $f'(\cdot)$

 $\begin{array}{l} u_c \\ \underline{u_c}, \overline{u_c} \\ u_{cj}, u_{dj} \\ \text{CP} \end{array}$

 $(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$

 $u_{cj}^* \atop \lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil, (\lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor)$

 $\begin{array}{l} \Delta u_{cj}^* \\ \Delta f(\Delta u_{cj}^*) \end{array}$

λ

 $\nabla_{u_{ci}} g(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$

 $\nabla_{u_c} g(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$

 $\Delta f(u_d(i))$

N N SS

 $\begin{array}{l}
s \\
\hat{x}(u_d(i))
\end{array}$

k''

Objective function such as the total power generation cost or the total system losses.

Mixed discrete-continuous nonlinear optimization problem such as the optimal power flow (OPF) problem with discrete control variables.

mixed discrete-continuous nonlinear optimization problem (MDCP) for a given u_d .

Representation of a typical objective function in ordinal optimization theory.

Continuous version of u_d . Lower and upper limit of u_d . The *jth* component of u_c and u_d .

Continuous nonlinear optimization Problem formed by replacing u_d in

MDCP with u_c . Local optimal solution of continuous nonlinear optimization problem (CP).

The *jth* component of u_c^* .

Nearest discrete value of u_{dj} to u_{cj}^* on the right-hand (left-hand) side of u_{cj}^* . $= u_{cj}^* - \lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor \text{ or } u_{cj}^* - \lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil.$

Deviation of optimal objective value caused by Δu_{ci}^* .

Lagrange multiplier associated with $g(x, u_d) = 0$ at the optimal solution $(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$ of CP.

Partial derivative of $g(x^*(u_c), u_c)$ w.r.t. u_{cj} evaluated at $(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$.

Partial derivative of $g(x^*(u_c), u_c)$ w.r.t. u_c evaluated at $(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$.

Deviation of optimal objective value of CP due to the change of u_c from u_c^* to $u_d(i)$.

Representative set of U_d . Number of samples in N.

Selected subset or estimated good enough subset which consists of the

estimated top n% samples of N. Number of samples in SS.

Approximate solution of $MDCP(u_d(i))$.

Number of top samples in SS ordered by the objective values of the quadratic approximate solutions of $MDCP(u_d)$ that are guaranteed to consist of a good enough solution of MDCP.

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I. INTRODUCTION

THE OPF problem has a long history in power-system research. Numerous numerical techniques had been developed for this problem such as the successive linear programming method [21]–[23], successive quadratic programming (SQP) method [4], [6], [26], Lagrange Newton method [19], [24], [25], the interior point method [28]–[30], and the recent dual-type method [11], [12], [14]. However, these methods are designed for purely continuous-variable OPF. In reality, the power systems consist of several discrete control variables such as the switching shunt capacitor banks, which are switched on and off in order to correct the voltage profile and reduce active power transmission losses and transformer taps, which are adjusted step by step to ensure that a voltage-controlled bus maintains its voltage within acceptable limits. In most of the existing OPF algorithms including the above-mentioned ones, discrete controls are treated as continuous variables until they are approximately optimized. Then they are rounded off to their nearest discrete values. Simply rounding off discrete controls can cause a considerable increase of the objective value and/or violations of inequality constraints. This deficiency had been recognized by Tinney et al. in [27]. A linear programming-based method was developed in [2] to deal with this type of mixed discrete-continuous nonlinear programming problems; however, it is too time consuming.

To cope with the computational intractability and the disadvantages induced by arbitrarily rounding off technique, a penalized discretization algorithm is proposed by Liu et al. in [15]. They employed a complicated six rules to introduce the quadratic limit penalty of a discrete control during the solution process of a Newton OPF. They finally fix the penalized continuous discrete-control at its discrete value based on a local convergence criteria. In other words, they proposed a rounding off technique based on a penalized discretization. Thus, this method cannot completely resolve the problem of infeasibility caused by not treating the discrete control variables in their exact form. To solve the OPF with discrete control variables in a more exact manner, Bakirtzis et al. proposed an enhanced genetic algorithm (GA) in [1], which needs only the power flow solutions for fitness evaluation, however, sacrificing the hard restriction on branch flow limits. Thus, violations of inequality constraints may occur in this method. Recent methods that treat the discrete control variables in their exact form and take the feasibility of OPF into account are the mean field theory-based annealing algorithm [5], the evolutionary algorithm [17], and the tabu search method [9]. However, these methods use global searching technique, which is very computationally time-consuming provided that the size of the search space is huge.

To retain the merits of the above three methods in handling the discrete control variables and the feasibility of OPF while avoiding their immense computational-complexity, we intend to use the ordinal optimization (OO) technique, which is recently developed by Ho and his colleagues [7], [8]. This optimization technique can effectively reduce the number of search samples of the huge sample space formed by all discrete control variables and seek a **good enough** solution with **high probability** instead of searching the best for sure. Thus, the *purpose* of this paper

is to propose an OO theory-based algorithm to solve for a good enough solution of the OPF with discrete control variables efficiently. The approach of our algorithm consists of three stages. First, select heuristically a large set of candidate solutions. Then, use a simplified model to select a subset of most promising solutions. Finally, evaluate the candidate promising-solutions of the reduced subset using the exact model.

Since OO is a rather new optimization technique, we will include some relevant materials in the appendices for easier reference. Thus, our paper is organized in the following manner. In Section II, a mathematical formulation of the OPF problem with discrete control variables will be presented. In Section III, we will present our approach based on the OO theory to solve for a good enough solution of the OPF problem with discrete control variables. In order not to affect the fluency of presentation, a detailed review of the OO theory [7], [8], the applications of the alignment probability [10] to our problem and a comment for addressing the question regarding infeasible solutions are given in Appendices A, B, and C, respectively. In addition, an efficient dual-type method for solving a set of quadratic programming problems, which are induced from our approach as stated in Section III, is presented in Appendix D. We concluded Section III by presenting an online algorithm for obtaining a **good enough** solution of the OPF problem with discrete control variables. The test results and the comparisons of our online algorithm with the conventional approach and the competing methods on the IEEE 118-bus system and the IEEE 244-bus system are presented in Section IV. Finally, we make a conclusion in Section V.

II. MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION OF THE OPF PROBLEM WITH DISCRETE CONTROL VARIABLES

The OPF problem with discrete control variables is a type of MDCP, which can be formulated as

(MDCP)
$$\min_{x,u_d} f(x, u_d)$$
 subject to
$$g(x, u_d) = 0$$

$$h(x) \le 0$$

$$u_d \in U_d. \tag{1}$$

This optimization problem is to find the continuous and discrete control settings so as to minimize the objective function while satisfying the required constraints.

We can rewrite the MDCP shown in (1) as

$$\min_{u_d \in U_d} \{ \min_x f(x, u_d) \mid g(x, u_d) = 0, h(x) \le 0 \}$$
 (2)

where we denote the optimization problem inside the bracket for a given $u_d \in U_d$ as $MDCP(u_d)$, that is

$$MDCP(u_d) \equiv \{ \min_{x} f(x, u_d) \mid g(x, u_d) = 0, h(x) \le 0 \}.$$
 (3)

In convention and practical applications of power systems, a local solution of the OPF is usually sought. However, in the MDCP shown in (2), we can tell that even if we require a local solution only, we still need to solve the MDCP(u_d) for all samples $u_d \in U_d$. Thus, suppose each discrete control variable has p possible discrete values, then there will be p^{n_d} samples in the

sample space U_d . To give a flavor of the numerical value of the size of U_d , assuming $n_d = 50$, and p = 4, there will be $4^{50} \approx 10^{30}$ samples in U_d . Therefore, it will be computationally intractable to solve for a local optimal solution of MDCP shown in (2) using a global searching technique.

III. OO THEORY-BASED APPROACH

Denoting the optimal objective value of the optimization problem $MDCP(u_d)$ for a given u_d as a function of u_d , say $f'(u_d)$, then (2) becomes $\min_{u_d \in U_d} f'(u_d)$ which has exactly the same form as the optimization problem treated in OO theory [7], [8]. Before stating our approach for the MDCP in (2), we will briefly state the idea of OO theory in the following while the details are given in Appendix A.

A. Review of OO Theory

The OO theory is a new methodology designed to cope with hard problems such as the lack of structure problems, problems with uncertainties, or problems with huge sample space that grows exponentially with respect to the problem size. The problem considered in this paper is of the latter kind. There are two basic tenets of the OO theory. The first is that of order versus value in decision making. It is obvious that determining whether $f'(u_{d1}) < f'(u_{d2})$ is much easier than determining $f'(u_{d2}) - f'(u_{d1}) =?$: consider the intuitive example of determining which of the two boxes in two hands is heavier versus identifying how much heavier one is than the other. The second tenet is the goal softening. Instead of asking the **best for sure** in optimization, it settles for the **good enough** with **high probability**. A conclusion drawn from the OO theory is the following.

Suppose we simultaneously evaluate a large set of alternatives very approximately and order them according to the approximate evaluation. Then there is high probability that we can find the actual good alternatives if we limit ourselves to the top n% of the observed good choices.

Thus, first, we use only a very rough model to **order** the goodness of a solution relying on the robustness of ORDER against noise and model error to separate the good from the bad. Second, we soften the goal of the problem and look for a good enough solution, which is among the top n% of the search space U_d , with **high probability**. These two steps greatly reduce the computational burden and search difficulties of the problem as will be detailed in Appendix A. A summary of these search procedures for obtaining a **good enough** solution of $\min_{u_d \in U_d} f'(u_d)$ with high probability can be described in the following: i) Using either a uniform selection or a heuristic method to select a representative set N with size N, say 1000, for the search space U_d . ii) Using an easily computed crude model to roughly evaluate and order the performance of each sample in N and collect the top s samples to form a selected subset (SS), which is the estimated good enough subset. The OO theory guarantees that SS consists of actual good enough solutions with **high probability**. The value of s in our approach determined based on the alignment probability [10] is 50 as will be described in Appendix A.II. iii) Evaluating the objective value of the $MDCP(u_d)$ for each sample u_d in SS to obtain the **good** enough solution.

B. Three-Stage Approach

Based on the above search procedures, our three-stage approach for obtaining a **good enough** solution of the MDCP shown in (2) is presented in the following.

i) Using a heuristic method to determine the set N.

First, we define the MDCP shown in (2) as a continuous nonlinear optimization problem (CP) if we replace the discrete u_d as continuous u_c . Thus, the resulting CP is shown in (4)

$$\min_{\underline{u}_c \le u_c \le \bar{u}_c} \{ \min_x f(x, u_c) \mid g(x, u_c) = 0, h(x) \le 0 \}.$$
 (4)

Our strategy to determine the set N is to solve the CP to obtain an optimal solution $(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$ first. Then, we can set each component of the discrete u_d , say u_{dj} , be either $\lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor$ or $\lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$. At this stage, we have reduced the search space from p^{n_d} to 2^{n_d} . In fact, this is a similar intuition as the conventional approach for solving the MDCP in (2), because we believe that good solutions should be among the 2^{n_d} samples. However, arbitrarily rounding off does not guarantee a **good enough** solution with **high probability**. In general $2^{n_d} \gg N$, we need to reduce the search samples further. To do so, we will estimate the deviation of the optimal objective value $\Delta f(\Delta u_{cj}^*)$ caused by Δu_{cj}^* that is $\Delta f(\Delta u_{cj}^*) \equiv f(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*) - f(x^*(u_c'), u_c')$, where $u_c' = [u_{c1}', \ldots, u_{cn_d}']^T$ in which $u_{ci}' = u_{ci}^*$, if $i \neq j$, and $u_{cj}' = \lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor or \lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$. Based on the sensitivity theorem in [16], we can obtain

$$\Delta f(\Delta u_{cj}^*) \approx \lambda^T \nabla_{u_{cj}} g(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*) \Delta u_{cj}^*. \tag{5}$$

Now if $|\Delta f(\Delta u_{cj}^*)| < \varepsilon$, a predetermined small positive real number, then we fix the discrete u_{dj} at $\lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor$ if $\Delta u_{cj}^* = u_{cj}^* - \lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor$ or $\lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$ if $\Delta u_{cj}^* = u_{cj}^* - \lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$. In other words, if u_{cj}^* is set to be $\lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor$ (or $\lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$) and the estimated deviation of the objective value is small, then we fix u_{cj}^* at $\lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor$ (or $\lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$). Suppose there are $l \ u_{dj}$ fixed by this manner, there will be $n_d - l$ components of u_d not yet fixed. Thus, we have further reduced the search samples from 2^{n_d} to 2^{n_d-l} . The value ε is selected so that $2^{n_d-l} \approx N$. The above process constitutes our heuristic method for determining the set N.

 ii) Determining the selected subset (SS) based on a crude model.

Now let us denote the N samples in N as $u_d(i), i=1,\ldots,N$. To pick out the samples to form SS, we will employ a crude model, which estimates the deviation of the optimal objective value in (4), that is $\Delta f(u_d(i)) \equiv f(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*) - f(x^*(u_d(i)), u_d(i))$, due to the change of u_c from u_c^* to $u_d(i)$. The formula for estimating $\Delta f(u_d(i))$ is an extension of the formula of (5) by considering the vector increment $\Delta u_c^* = u_c^* - u_d(i)$ rather than the component increment Δu_{cj}^* and is stated in the following:

$$\Delta f(u_d(i)) \approx \lambda^T \nabla_{u_c} g(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*) (u_c^* - u_d(i)).$$
 (6)

We order the samples in N based on $|\Delta f(u_d(i))|$ obtained from (6) as follows. The sample $u_d(i)$ with lower value of $|\Delta f(u_d(i))|$, that is the sample being less sensitive to the optimal objective value of (4), will be ranked higher. In other words, the samples, which are likely to retain the optimal objective value of (4) are ranked higher. Consequently, the top ranked $su_d(i)$ form SS, where s denotes the size of SS determined based on the alignment probability [10] as will be detailed in Appendix I. The SS thus formed is the **estimated good enough** subset. Now according to the OO theory [7], [8], SS consists of **actual good enough** samples with **high probability**.

iii) Finding the Good Enough Solution.

Let us denote the samples in SS by $u_d(j), j = 1, \ldots, s$. Suppose we solve the MDCP (u_d) exactly for each sample in SS, the sample that has the least objective value will be the **good enough** solution that we are looking for as have been concluded by the OO theory [7], [8]. However, solving s (=50) MDCP (u_d) , which are nonlinear constrained optimization problems, is too time consuming to meet the requirement of online power system operation. Thus, to resolve this computational difficulty, we employ a two-phase strategy based, again, on the OO theory [7], [8]. Before presenting this two-phase strategy, a tough question that may be raised is what if all s samples in SS are infeasible? We have addressed this question in Appendix C.

Now as shown in Fig. 1, the basic idea of our two-phase strategy is to evaluate the s samples in SS very approximately first and order them according to this approximate evaluation. Then, the actual best alternative will be contained in the top few observed **good choices.** Thus, in phase 1, we can efficiently solve for the approximate solutions of the s $MDCP(u_d)$ and order them based on their corresponding objective values, which represent the estimated performance of the s u_d . Then, in phase 2, we only solve for the exact solutions of the $MDCP(u_d)$ for the few top ranked samples obtained in phase 1, and the one with least objective value is the good enough solution that we look for. In the following, we will describe this two-phase approach in detail. In the first phase, we will solve the $MDCP(u_d)$ approximately for a given $u_d(j)$ by solving its quadratic approximate problem as shown in the following:

$$\min_{\Delta x} \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^{T} [\nabla_{x}^{2} f(x^{*}(u_{c}^{*}), u_{c}^{*}) + \delta I] \Delta x + [\nabla_{x} f(x^{*}(u_{c}^{*}), u_{c}^{*}) \\
+ \nabla_{u_{c}x}^{2} f(x^{*}(u_{c}^{*}), u_{c}^{*}) (u_{c}^{*} - u_{d}(j))]^{T} \Delta x$$
subject to
$$g(x^{*}(u_{c}^{*}), u_{c}^{*}) + \nabla_{u_{c}} g^{T} (x^{*}(u_{c}^{*}), u_{c}^{*}) (u_{c}^{*} - u_{d}(j)) \\
+ \nabla_{x} g^{T} (x^{*}(u_{c}), u_{c}^{*}) \Delta x = 0$$

$$h(x^{*}(u_{c}^{*})) + \nabla_{x} h^{T} (x^{*}(u_{c}^{*})) \Delta x \leq 0 \tag{7}$$

where I is an identity matrix, and $\delta > 0$ is a small positive scalar but enough to make the Hessian of (7) positive definite.

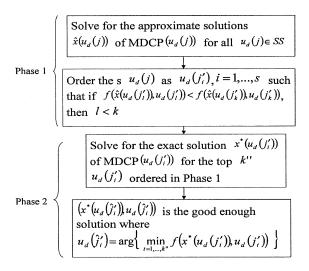


Fig. 1. Two-phase strategy for finding the good enough solution.

We let $\Delta x^*(u_d(j))$ denote the optimal solution of (7), then $\hat{x}(u_d(j)) = x^*(u_c^*) + \Delta x^*(u_d(j))$ is the approximate solution of the optimization problem inside the bracket of (2) for $u_d =$ $u_d(i)$. We have developed an efficient dual-type method called DPPQN in [11], [12], [14], which is especially suited for solving (7) for all samples $u_d(j)$, $j = 1, \ldots, s$. However, in order not to affect the fluency of presentation, we will present this method in Appendix D. Furthermore, this dual-type method can also resolve the computational difficulty caused by the infeasibility of (7) for a given $u_d(j)$. Since the practical objective functions of the OPF such as the total generation cost and the total system losses are mostly convex, the quadratic-approximated $MDCP(u_d)$ shown in (7) should be a good approximate model of the actual MDCP (u_d) , thus the order of $u_d(j_i)$, $i = 1, \ldots, s$ ordered based on the objective value $f(\hat{x}(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ should be closely related to the order of $u_d(j_i''), i = 1, \ldots, s$, ordered based on the objective value $f(x^*(u_d(j_i'')), u_d(j_i''))$.

Therefore, we can estimate the number of top ranked samples in $u_d(j'i)_{,i}=1,\ldots,s$ that will consist of the actual top sample $u_d(j''_1)$ based on the alignment probability [10]. That is, to estimate the k'' such that $u_d(j''_1) \in \{u_d(j'_i), i=1,\ldots,k''\}$. Once k'' is estimated, we need only to solve the exact solution of MDCP(u_d) for $u_d(j'_i)$, $i=1,\ldots,k''$. In our problem, k''=3 and the detailed procedures for obtaining k'' based on the alignment probability [10] are described in Appendix B.

C. OO Theory-Based Algorithm for Solving the MDCP

Now, we are ready to state our algorithm for solving the MDCP shown in (2) to obtain a **good enough** solution.

- Step 1) Solve the CP in (4) using the method proposed in [11], [12] to obtain $(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$.
- Step 2) Compute $\Delta f(\Delta u_{cj}^*)$ by (5) for each $j \in \{1,\ldots,n_d\}, \Delta u_{cj}^* = u_{cj}^* \lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor$ and $\Delta u_{cj}^* = u_{cj}^* \lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$. Pick the l least-value $|\Delta f(\Delta u_{cj}^*)|$, such that $2^{n_d-l} \approx N$, then set u_{d_j} to be $\lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor$ if $\Delta u_{cj}^* = u_{cj}^* \lfloor u_{cj}^* \rfloor$, or $\lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$ if $\Delta u_{cj}^* = u_{cj}^* \lceil u_{cj}^* \rceil$.

Steps 1 and 2 is how we pick the N samples needed for ordinal optimization.

- Step 3) Compute $\Delta f(u_d(i))$ by (6) and calculate $|\Delta f(u_d(i))|$ for all $i=1,\ldots,N$.
- Step 4) Rank all N samples based on their values of $|\Delta f(u_d(i))|$ obtained in Step 3, such that the samples with smaller $|\Delta f(u_d(i))|$ will be ranked higher. Then pick out the top s samples to form SS. Steps 3 and 4 use a very crude model to form the selected subset (SS) required by OO theory.
- Step 5) Solve (7) for all $su_d(j)$ in SS using the dual projected pseudo Quasi-Newton (DPPQN) method described in Appendix D to obtain the approximate solutions $\hat{x}(u_d(j)), j=1,\ldots,s$. Order the $su_d(j)$ based on their approximate objective values $f(\hat{x}(u_d(j)), u_d(j)), j=1,\ldots,s$, to be $u_d(j_l'), i=1,\ldots,s$, such that if $f(\hat{x}(u_d(j_l')), u_d(j_l')) < f(\hat{x}(u_d(j_k')), u_d(j_k'))$, then l < k.
- Step 6) Find the exact solutions of the MDCP (u_d) in (3) for $u_d(j_i'), i=1,\ldots,k''$, obtained in Step 5. The one having the least objective value is the **good enough** solution.

Step 5 uses a slightly more accurate but still approximate model to evaluate the few top-ranked samples obtained in Step 4. OO theory then guarantees that the best ranked sample in Step 6 is indeed good enough with high probability.

D. Online Modifications

It is quite possible that before completing the solution process of solving the quadratic programming problems shown in (7) for all samples $u_d(j)$ in SS, we may already obtain an approximate solution $(\hat{x}(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ whose objective value $f(\hat{x}(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ is close to $f(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$. Considering the limited computation budget for online optimal power flow application, we should solve for the exact solution of $\text{MDCP}(u_d)$ for this sample $u_d(j)$ immediately instead of solving it after all s quadratic approximate solutions are obtained. Consequently, if the objective value of the resulting solution of this sample is close to $f(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$, we have obtained a **good enough** solution. Otherwise, we will go on for the next sample. Such a modification definitely saves computational time. Thus, we can modify steps 5 and 6 of our algorithm presented in previous subsection for online applications as follows.

Step 5M: Set j=0 and set j=j+1; set the values of $\beta(0<\beta<1)$ and $\delta_1(>0)$; set the non-negative integer m=0.

Step 6M: Solve (7) for $u_d(j)$. If $(|f(\hat{x}(u_d(j)), u_d(j)) - f(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)|/|f(\hat{x}(u_d(j)), u_d(j))|) < \beta^m \delta_1$, solve the MDCP (u_d) for this $u_d(j)$ to obtain $x^*(u_d(j))$ and go to Step 7M; otherwise, set j = j + 1. If $j \leq s$, repeat this step; otherwise, go to Step 8M.

Step 7M: If $(|f(x^*(u_d(j)),u_d(j)) - f(x^*(u_c^*),u_c^*)|/|f(x^*(u_d(j)),u_d(j))|) < \varepsilon_1,$ where ε_1 is a small positive real number, then

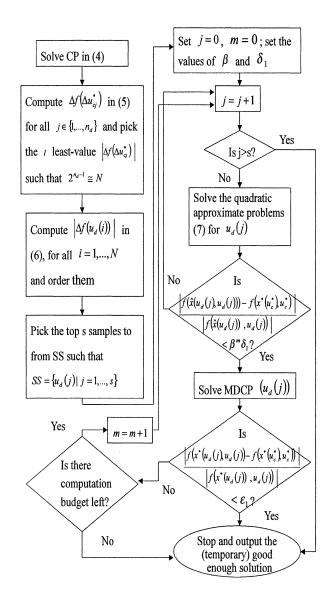


Fig. 2. Flowchart of proposed online algorithm.

 $(x^*(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ is the **good enough** solution and stop; otherwise, set $(x^*(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ as the temporary **good enough** solution and check whether there are enough computation budget left; if not, stop and output the temporary **good enough** solution; otherwise, go to Step 8M.

Step 8M: If j > s, stop and output the temporary good enough solution; otherwise, set j = j + 1, m = m + 1 and return to Step 6M.

With the above modifications, we show the flowchart of our OO theory-based online algorithm in Fig. 2. In addition, a brief illustration about the parameters β and δ_1 is given in the following remark

Remark 1: The positive real number $\beta^m \delta_1$ in Step 6M is used to measure the closeness between $f(\hat{x}(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ and $f(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$. Thus, in Step 5M, we can set δ_1 to be a not too small value, say 0.03, so as to obtain a temporary good enough solution $(x^*(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ in Step 6M fast. Subsequently in Step 7M, if $f(x^*(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ is close enough to $f(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$, then $(x^*(u_d(j)), u_d(j))$ is the good

enough solution that we are looking for; otherwise, we will increase m by 1 in Step 8M and return to Step 6M. When m increases, $\beta^m \delta_1$ will decrease, because $\beta (<1)$ behaves like a reduction factor. Thus, we can proceed further to obtain a better temporary good enough solution or the good enough solution. We typically set $\beta = 0.9$ in Step 5M.

IV. TEST RESULTS

A. Test Systems and Test Cases

We have tested our online algorithm on the OPF problems with discrete control variables of the IEEE 118-bus system and the IEEE 244-bus system [30]; the former consists of 18 generation buses and 179 transmission lines, and the latter consists of 47 generation buses and 445 transmission lines. It should be noted that the values of conductance of the transmission lines in the IEEE 244-bus system are much higher than that of the IEEE 118-bus system on the average. We consider two types of objective function: the minimum total real power generation cost $\Sigma_{G_i} a_i P_{G_i}^2 + b_i P_{G_i} + c_i$ and the minimum system losses $\Sigma_l P_{loss}(l)$, where P_{G_i} denotes the real power generation of generation bus G_i , a_i , b_i , and c_i are generation cost coefficients, and $P_{loss}(l)$ denotes the real power loss on transmission line l. For each system and each objective function, we have tested several cases associated with various number of capacitors and various number of transformers. We assume each capacitor is equipped with three capacitor banks, and the capacity of a bank ranges from 14 to 42 MVAR. We assume each transformer tap has 32 discrete steps such that each step is 5/8% of the nominal transformer tap ratio. A summary of all the test cases is described below. Case 1A to Case 4A in Table I and Case 5A to Case 8A in Table II represent the test cases on the IEEE 118-bus system. Case 1A to Case 4A use the total generation cost, while Case 5A to Case 8A use the total system losses as their objective functions. The number of capacitors and the number of transformers assumed in Case 1A-8A are shown in the second and third columns of Tables I and II. Case 1B to Case 4B in Table III and Case 5B to Case 8B in Table IV represent the test cases on the IEEE 244-bus system. Case 1B to Case 4B use the total generation cost, while Case 5B to Case 8B use the total system losses as their objective functions. The corresponding number of capacitors and transformers assumed in these eight cases are also shown in the second and third columns of Tables III and IV. It should be noted that all the tests we have made are carried out in a Pentium IV personal computer.

B. Comparison With the Conventional Approach

Our tests for demonstrating the performance of our online algorithm in comparison with the conventional approach are carried out in the following. We first solve these 16 cases using the **conventional approach**, which solves the CP in (4) for each case first then round the obtained optimal continuous values of the discrete control variables, u_c^* , off to their nearest discrete values. After the values of the discrete control variables are fixed at the nearest u_d , we then solve the $\mathrm{MDCP}(u_d)$, and the resulting objective values and the consumed CPU times are shown in the fourth and the seventh column, respectively, of each table. We apply our **online algorithm** presented in Sec-

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF OUR ONLINE ALGORITHM WITH THE CONVENTIONAL
APPROACH ON CASES 1A–4A OF THE IEEE 118-BUS SYSTEM USING THE
TOTAL GENERATION COST AS THE OBJECTIVE FUNCTION

C A	No. of	No. of	Obj. Value (\$/hr)		Obj. Value Red.	CPU times (seconds)	
S E	Сар.	Trans.	Con. Appr.(I)	Our Alg.(II)	$\frac{(I)-(II)}{(II)} \times 100\%$	Con. Appr.	Our Alg.
1A	10	10	46414	39603	17.2%	1.678	2.351
2A	12	12	49500	40306	22.8%	2.541	2.731
3A	15	15	51154	41759	22.5%	2.133	3.312
4A	20	20	∞	41612	∞	-	2.67

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF OUR ONLINE ALGORITHM WITH THE CONVENTIONAL
APPROACH ON CASES 5A–8A OF THE IEEE 118-BUS SYSTEM USING THE
TOTAL SYSTEM LOSSES AS THE OBJECTIVE FUNCTION

C A	No. of	No. of	Obj. Value		Obj. Value Red.	(seconds)	
S	Cap.	Trans.		Our	$\frac{(I)-(II)}{(II)} \times 100\%$	Con.	Our
E			Appr.(I)	Alg.(II)		Appr.	Alg.
5A	10	10	63.1MW	55.1MW		1.236	1.251
6A	12	12	68.2MW	55.2MW		1.237	2.792
7A	15	15	82.7MW	50.4MW		1.396	5.078
8A	20	20	82.6MW	48.5MW	70.8%	1.372	1.424

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF OUR ONLINE ALGORITHM WITH THE CONVENTIONAL
APPROACH ON CASES 1B–4B OF THE IEEE 244-BUS SYSTEM USING THE
TOTAL GENERATION COST AS THE OBJECTIVE FUNCTION

C A	No. of	No. of	Obj. Value (\$/hr)		Obj. Value Red. CPU times (seconds)		
S E	Cap.	Trans.	Con. Appr.(I)	Our Alg.(II)	$\frac{(I)-(II)}{(II)} \times 100\%$	Con. Appr.	Our Alg.
1B	15	15	xpp1.(1) ∞	149708	∞	-	4.379
$^{2}\mathrm{B}$	25	25	8	166801	∞	-	4.476
3B	30	30	153057	132012	16.0%	4.24	4.31
4B	36	36	150963	132327	14.0%	4.24	4.40

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF OUR ONLINE ALGORITHM WITH THE CONVENTIONAL
APPROACH ON CASES 5B–8B OF THE IEEE 244-BUS SYSTEM USING THE
TOTAL SYSTEM LOSSES AS THE OBJECTIVE FUNCTION

C A	No. of	No. of	Obj. Value		Obj. Value Red.	CPU times (seconds)		
S E	Cap.	Trans.	Con. Appr.(I)	Our Alg.(II)	$\frac{(I)-(II)}{(II)} \times 100\%$	Con. Appr.	Our Alg.	
5B	15	15	38.4MW	29.3MW	31.0%	5.38	5.82	
6B	25	25	42.6MW	36.5MW	16.7%	5.031	3.836	
7B		30	44.2MW	37.2MW	18.9%	6.379	11.483	
8B	36	36	39.8MW	31.7MW	25.8%	5.09	7.220	

tion III-D with $\delta_1=0.03, \varepsilon_1=0.01,$ and $\beta=0.9$ to solve for a good enough solution for each case, and the resulting objective value and the consumed CPU times are shown in the fifth and the eighth column, respectively, of each table. The reduction of the objective values achieved by our online algorithm compared with the conventional approach is given in column 6 of each table. We found that among all of the discrete control variables, the objective value (4) is less sensitive to transformer tap ratio changes than it is to the capacitor bank changes; hence, we set the transformer tap ratios fixed in Step 2 of our online algorithm. This result is consistent with the observation in [15]. The values of the discrete control variables obtained by the conventional approach may be infeasible as appeared in Cases 4A, 1B, and 2B in which infinite objective values are indicated; however, our online algorithm obtains good enough solution in all cases we have simulated. This demonstrates the probability of not obtaining any feasible solution by our algorithm is extremely low comparing with the conventional approach. Furthermore, the CPU times consumed by our online algorithm is slightly larger than that consumed by the conventional approach in most of the cases as can be observed from the last two columns of all tables. Thus, compared with the conventional approach, we observed that: i) our online algorithm is also suitable for real-time application; ii) the improvements on the objective values for either the minimum total generation cost or minimum total system losses are 28% on the average; and iii) we can always obtain a **good enough** solution in contrast to the possible failure of the conventional approach.

C. Comparison With the Competing Methods

Our method deals with the OPF problems with discrete control variables in their exact form and takes the feasibility of OPF into account in contrast to the penalized discretization algorithm [15] and the enhanced genetic algorithm [1]. Thus, we can avoid any possible ambiguity on the feasibility of our solution. The recent methods that treat the discrete control variables and the feasibility of OPF like our algorithm are mean-field theory based annealing algorithm [5], the evolutionary algorithm [17], and the tabu search method [9]. However, these methods are seeking the global optimal solution of the OPF (2) within the huge sample space U_d , which should be very computationally time consuming. For examples, the mean field theory-based annealing algorithm took 10 min to solve the OPF of a 270-bus system as reported in [5], and the tabu search method and evolutionary algorithm took 6 and 27 min, respectively, to solve the OPF of a 24-bus system as described in [9]. In fact, the computational complexity caused by global searching technique is what our OO theory-based online algorithm intend to resolve by seeking a good enough solution with high probability instead.

To demonstrate the merits of our online algorithm, we should compare with the above mentioned methods by simulations. In [5], the mean field theory-based annealing algorithm compared only with the SQP method for a four-bus and 30-bus systems. However, the tabu search method in [9] had compared with and beaten the evolutionary algorithm and the SQP method. Thus, it would be typical to compare our online algorithm with the tabu search method.

The tabu search is an iterative algorithm; it starts from a randomly generated feasible solution and moves to a better solution in the randomly selected neighborhood by the following procedures. Starting from the best solution in the selected neighborhood, if it does not belong to the Tabu List (TL), or in case of being in the TL but passes the aspiration level (AL) test, it will be added to the TL and a move to this solution will be carried out; otherwise, repeat these procedures for the next best solution. During the search process, the best solution is always updated and stored aside until the stopping criterion is satisfied. Details of this method can be found in [9] and [18]. We apply the tabu search method to all of the cases shown in Tables I to IV. Due to the page limitation, we cannot present all of the comparison results. However, we will show some typical cases to demonstrate the efficiency of our online algorithm. Figs. 3–6 describe the simulation results of applying our online algorithm and the tabu search method to Cases 5A, 7A, 5B,

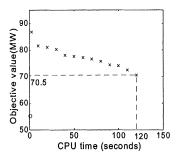


Fig. 3. Comparison of our online algorithm and the tabu search method on Case 5A.

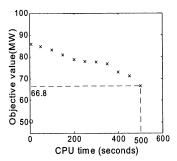


Fig. 4. Comparison of our online algorithm and the tabu search method on Case 7A.

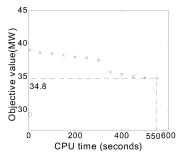


Fig. 5. Comparison of our online algorithm and the tabu search method on Case 5B.

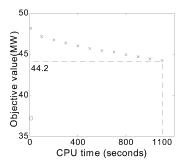


Fig. 6. Comparison of our online algorithm and the tabu search method on Case 7B.

and 7B. The objective functions of these four cases are the minimum system losses. In each of the four figures, the point marked by "x" denotes the pair of the objective value of the best solution so far and the corresponding consumed CPU times during the search process of the tabu search method applying to the corresponding case. However, the point marked by "o" in each figure denotes the pair of the objective value of the final solution and the corresponding CPU times obtained

by our online algorithm. We let $(t_{(.)}^{\mathrm{OO}}, f_{(.)}^{\mathrm{OO}})$ denote the coordinate of point "o", where (\cdot) represents the corresponding case. From column 8 and column 5 of Tables II and IV, we see that $(t_{5A}^{\mathrm{OO}}, f_{5A}^{\mathrm{OO}}) = (1.251 \text{ s}, 55.1 \text{ MW}), (t_{7A}^{\mathrm{OO}}, f_{7A}^{\mathrm{OO}}) = (5.078 \text{ s}, 50.4 \text{ MW}), (t_{5B}^{\mathrm{OO}}, f_{5B}^{\mathrm{OO}}) = (5.82 \text{ s}, 29.3 \text{ MW}), and <math>(t_{7B}^{\mathrm{OO}}, f_{7B}^{\mathrm{OO}}) = (11.483 \text{ s}, 37.2 \text{ MW})$. We let $(t_{(.)}^{\mathrm{TS}}, f_{(.)}^{\mathrm{TS}})$ denote the coordinate of the specific point "x", such that $t_{(.)}^{\mathrm{TS}} \approx 100t_{(.)}^{\mathrm{OO}}$ in the corresponding case (\cdot) . We also mark $(t_{(.)}^{\mathrm{TS}}, f_{(.)}^{\mathrm{TS}})$ in each figure, that is $(t_{5A}^{\mathrm{TS}}, f_{5A}^{\mathrm{TS}}) = (120 \text{ s}, 70.5 \text{ MW}), (t_{7A}^{\mathrm{TS}}, f_{7A}^{\mathrm{TS}}) = (500 \text{ s}, 66.8 \text{ MW}), (t_{5B}^{\mathrm{TS}}, f_{5B}^{\mathrm{TS}}) = (550 \text{ s}, 34.8 \text{ MW}), \text{ and } (t_{7B}^{\mathrm{TS}}, f_{7B}^{\mathrm{TS}}) = (1100 \text{ s}, 44.2 \text{ MW})$. From Figs. 3–6, we see that the improvement of the solution during the search process of the tabu search method is very sluggish. Even when tabu search method consumes $t_{(.)}^{T}(\approx 100t_{(.)}^{\mathrm{OO}})$ CPU times, $f_{(.)}^{\mathrm{TS}}$ is still at least 18% more than $f_{(.)}^{\mathrm{OO}}$ in each case. These results demonstrate the efficiency of our online algorithm in getting a good enough solution.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The OPF problem with discrete control variables is an NP hard problem and has a long history in power system research. In this paper, we have developed an OO theory based online algorithm to deal with it. We treat the discrete control variables in their exact form and take the feasibility of the OPF into account. Our online algorithm can get a good enough solution of the considered problem efficiently to resolve the computational complexity caused by the approach of global searching techniques such as the mean field theory-based annealing algorithm [5], evolutionary algorithm [16], and the tabu search method [9]. We have demonstrated the computational efficiency of our online algorithm and the quality of the obtained solution by comparing with the tabu search method and the conventional approach through simulations.

Above all, our ordinal optimization theory-based algorithm has a very important implication in power system control and management, because most of the power system optimization problems involve discrete control variables; a popular example problem in addition to the current one is the optimal capacitor placement problem.

APPENDIX A

I. OO Theory [7], [8]

In order to make the computation of the NP hard problem $\min_{u_d \in U_d} f'(u_d)$ tractable, where U_d is a nonstructured huge sample space, the OO theory soften the goal from the **best for sure** to **good enough with high probability** such that a great reduction of the search space can be achieved. To proceed with the search reductions, the OO theory starts from defining a representative set of U_d , denoted by N, which can be obtained by either a uniform selection or a heuristic method. Usually, the size of N, denoted by N, is sufficiently large, say 1000. A **Good Enough Subset** of N, denoted by GS_N , is formed by the top ranked n%, say n=3.5, samples of N. As shown in [13], $GS_N \subseteq GS_{U_d}$ with a very high probability 0.991, where GS_{U_d} denotes the **Good Enough Subset** of U_d formed by the top $n_{U_d}\%$, say $n_{U_d}=5$, samples of U_d . Thus, to seek a **good**

enough solution of U_d , it is sufficient to seek a **good enough** solution of N. However, a GS_N is easy to specify but difficult to obtain; for example, in our problem, one needs to solve $N = 1000 \text{ MDCP}(u_d(j))$, that is N nonlinear constrained optimization problems, to determine the GS_N which is, of course, computationally intractable for large power systems. Thus, to reduce the search samples while obtaining members in GS_N , the OO theory advocates the use of a very crude model in evaluating the "goodness" of any proposed solution sample. Using such a crude model one can with manageable effort estimate what are the top n% of the samples. Call this estimated top n%the **Selected Subset (SS)**. In other words, the SS is determined by first ranking the samples in N based on an easily computed **crude model** of $f'(u_d)$ noted by $f'(u_d) + \omega$, where ω denotes the modeling noise or error, then choose the top s samples to form SS. The OO theory then provides a universal alignment **probability** between the intersection of the GS_N and the SS [10]. Furthermore, OO theory provides in [10] a formula for obtaining the value s as the value of a six-parameter function $Z(k, g, N, C, \xi(\cdot), P_A)$, the meaning of these parameters is described below. k and g denote the desired number of alignments between SS and GS_N and the size of GS_N , respectively. C denotes a class of ordered performance curve (OPC), a summary of which is presented later in remark 2. The OPC class chosen for the N samples strongly depends on the designer's familiarity of the system, for example, if one is familiar with the structure of the system, he or she may employ a better heuristic method than **uniform selection** to determine the set N from U_d ; $\xi(\cdot)$ represents the noise characteristics of the modeling error ω ; a uniform noise density U[-W, W] is assumed, and the magnitude W strongly depends on the crude model $f'(u_d) + \omega$ chosen for determining SS. P_A is the alignment probability and is taken to be 0.95 in most of the applications. Simple expressions for the function $Z(k, g, N, C, \xi(\cdot), P_A)$, based on a Monte Carlo study over numerous OPCs distributed uniformly among the five broadly generic classes are given in [9]. The formula allows us to determine the value s by a simple and direct calculation. Once the value s is determined, we need only to solve the $MDCP(u_d(j))$ for those s samples of SS, and the resulting k top samples ordered by the objective values of the $MDCP(u_d(j))$ in SS will be members of GS_N with probability $P_A = 0.95$. In our problem, we need only one good enough solution, thus the top ranked sample is what we are looking for.

1) Remark 2: Illustration of the Ordered Performance Curve (OPC) [10]: Consider a standard optimization problem $\min_{u_d \in U_d} f'(u_d)$, where U_d is the sample space, and $f'(\cdot)$ is a performance measure defined on the sample space. The OPC of a collection of ordered samples $u_{d_1}, u_{d_2}, \ldots, u_{d_N}$ selected from U_d is determined by the spread of the order performance $f'_{[1]}, f'_{[2]}, \ldots, f'_{[N]}$, where $f'_{[i]}$ denotes $f'(u_{d_i})$. Without loss of generality, $f'_{[i]}$ s can be normalized into the range [0, 1], that is, for $i = 1, \ldots, N, y_i = (f'_{[i]} - f'_{[1]})/(f'_{[N]} - f'_{[1]})$. Meanwhile, the ordered samples, spaced equally, are also mapped into the range [0, 1] such that for all $i = 1, \ldots, N, z(u_{di}) \equiv z_{[i]} = (i-1)/(N-1)$. There are five broad categories of OPC models: i) lots of good samples, ii) lots of intermediate but few good and bad samples, iii) equally distributed good, bad, and intermediate samples, iv)

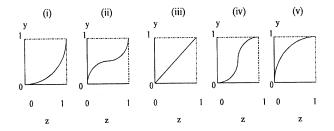


Fig. 7. Graphical expression for the five OPC models.

lots of good and lots of bad samples but few intermediate ones, and v) lots of bad samples. A graphical expression for these five OPC models or types is shown in Fig. 7. To accommodate the above five OPC types and differentiate the curves within one type by using the smallest number of parameters, the inverse mapping of the incomplete Beta function, parameterized by a pair of numbers α and γ , is employed. More precisely, the standardized OPC is determined by a two-parameter smooth curve $\Lambda(z\,|\,\alpha,\gamma) = F^{-1}(z\,|\,\alpha,\gamma) = F(z\,|\,(1/\alpha),(1/\gamma)),$ where $F(z\,|\,\cdot,\cdot)$ is the Incomplete Beta function of the two parameters (\cdot,\cdot) . In general, $\alpha<1,\gamma>1$ corresponds to the OPC of type (i); $\alpha>1,\gamma>1$ corresponds to the OPC of type (iii); $\alpha<1,\gamma<1$ corresponds to the OPC of type (iii); $\alpha<1,\gamma<1$ corresponds to the OPC of type (iv); $\alpha>1,\gamma<1$ corresponds to the OPC of type (iv); $\alpha>1,\gamma<1$ corresponds to the OPC of type (v).

II. Determination of the Size of Selected Subset (SS) for Our Problem [10]

In our problem, the desired number of alignments between SS and GS_{Ud} , k, is 1. The corresponding smallest number of alignments between SS and GS_N , k, to achieve the above desired alignment is also 1 [13] as indicated in Section I.A. Thus, we can determine the value $s=Z(k,g,N,C,\xi(\cdot),P_A)$ by the formula given in [10], in which we take $g=50,k=1,N=1000,P_A=0.95,C$ is of worst case that is type (v) OPC, and a uniform large noise distribution $\mathrm{U}[-2.5,2.5]$ for the noise characteristics $\xi(\cdot)$. The value of s for our problem we obtained from the above formula is 50. It should be noted that the value s we obtained based on the above setup is conservative due to the selection of C and $\xi(\cdot)$.

APPENDIX B

To estimate the value of k'' indicated in Section III.C, we employ the technique of alignment probability [10] as summarized in Appendix A. In the current problem, we apply the following similarities of the terminologies described in Appendix A. We first denote the SS obtained in ii) of the three-stage approach presented in Section III.B as SS^0 , then treating this SS^0 as the set \mathbf{N} in OO theory, that is, we set $\mathbf{N} = SS^0$. Thus, the top ranked sample in $SS^0 = \{u_d(j_i), i=1,\ldots,s\}$ ordered based on the objective values of $\mathrm{MDCP}(u_d(j_i))$ will be considered as GS_N . In the first phase of our two-phase strategy presented in Section III.C, we use a good approximate model to determine the estimated good enough subset, that is the SS. Now we should determine the size of the SS to ensure that $\mathrm{GS}_N \subseteq \mathrm{SS}$ with very high probability based on the technique of alignment

probability [10]. Since the size of N here is only around 50, which is far too small to apply the formula provided in [10] as summarized in Appendix A, we have to perform a Monte Carlo study followed from the guidelines given in [10] to estimate the value k'' (i.e., the size of SS, as described below).

We first place the s(=50) samples in $N=(SS^0)$ by equally spacing them in the normalized ordered interval [0, 1]. We studied a total of 49 OPCs distributed uniformly among the five broadly generic types formed from the following parameters $\alpha = 0.2, 0.4, 0.8, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0, 5.0,$ and $\gamma = 0.2, 0.4, 0.8, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0, 5.0$, the meaning of the two parameters α and γ are described in Remark 2 of Appendix A. We employ a moderate noise $\xi(\cdot)$ with uniform noise density U[-0.5, 0.5], because our quadratic approximation for the $MDCP[u_d(j)]$ given in (7) is in fact a good approximate model from the viewpoint of an OPF problem researcher. As a matter of fact, the range of the noise considered above equals the range of OPC, which can result in (with nonzero probability) swapping the rank of some good enough samples with the worst samples. In all of our Monte-Carlo calculations, we simulate 10 000 realizations of noisy OPCs. For the alignment probability equals 0.99, we found that k'' = 3. In other words, $u_d(j_1'') \in \{u_d(j_i'), i = 1, \dots, k''\}$. This implies that after solving the s(=50) quadratic approximate problems shown in (7), we need only solve k''(=3) exact MDCP[$u_d(j)$].

APPENDIX C

We call a sample $u_d(i)$ feasible if the MDCP $(u_d(i))$ in (3) for the given $u_d(i)$ has a feasible solution; otherwise, we call this $u_d(i)$ infeasible. In addition, we consider the optimal objective value of an infeasible sample as ∞ [3]. Obviously, to obtain the top ranked sample of SS ordered by the objective value of $MDCP(u_d(i))$, we need to solve the $MDCP(u_d(i))$ for all samples in SS. However, the samples in SS chosen based on the model (6) do not guarantee to be feasible. Subsequently, we have to answer the question that what if all s samples in SS are infeasible and does one need to search for a feasible solution from N? As a matter of fact, if all s samples of SS are infeasible, then we can be resonably sure (i.e., with probability more than 0.95) the probability that there are feasible samples among the Nis very low as concluded by the method of point estimation of the opinion poll in statistics ([20], Chap. 3 and [22]). This is briefly illustrated below. Suppose the target population of interest consists of N persons and M of them favor a certain proposition. What we should like to know is the proportion p = (M/N). We consider the opinion poll as a binomial experiment and treat the sample that favors the proposition as a "success." Then the true success probability p can be estimated by $\hat{p} = k/n$, where $n(\ll N)$ denotes the limited number of trials, and k denotes the observed number of successes. Now a question is how good is the estimate? Let us determine the probability that the estimate \hat{p} does not deviate from the true success probability p by more than some small quantity d. In other words, we want to know the probability-P(d)-that $p-d < \hat{p} < p+d$. Substituting \hat{p} , P(d) denotes the probability that k lies in the following range np - nd < k < np + nd. This probability can be evaluated with the help of normal approximation, and $P(d) \ge 0.95$ if $n = 1/d^2$.

Now our feasibility test can be viewed as the above opinion poll experiment such that the feasible sample is considered as a success. Using the following similarities, $s \sim n$ and $t \sim k$, if there are t feasible samples among the s(=50), then we can be resonably sure that the probability of picking up a feasible one from the N(= 1000) samples is t/50 with deviation not more than $1/\sqrt{s}$, which equals 0.1414. Thus, if all s = 50samples of SS are infeasible, then we can be reasonably sure the probability that there are feasible samples in the N is 0 with deviation not more than 0.1414. This addresses the question raised in (iii) of Section III.B. In the above argument, we inherently assume that the samples in SS were uniformly selected; however, this is not our case. As a matter of fact, the samples which are more likely to satisfy the constraints $q(x, u_d) = 0$ are more probably selected into SS. This is illustrated below. The criteria that we rank the samples to be selected into SS is according to (6). That is the sample $u_d(i)$ with lower value of $|\Delta f(u_d(i))|$ will be ranked higher. Since (6) can be rewritten in the following form $\Delta f(u_d(i)) \cong \lambda^T \Delta g(x^*(u_c^*), u_d^*(i))$, where $\Delta g(x^*(u_c^*), u_d^*(i)) \approx \nabla_{u_c} g(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*) (u_c^* - u_d(i))$. Thus, if $u_d(i)$ is more likely to be feasible then it will cause lower value of $\|\Delta g(x^*(u_c^*), u_d^*(i))\|$ and will induce lower value of $|\Delta f(u_d(i))|$. Consequently, it will be more probably selected into SS.

APPENDIX D

For the sake of simplicity in explaining the dual-type method for solving the quadratic approximate problem (7), we consider the total generation cost as the objective function, and the inequality constraints consist of the generation limits and voltage security constraints only. The same method can be applied to the cases with the total system losses as the objective function. Cases including the coupling thermal limit in the inequality constraints can be similarly treated by taking the modification in [12] into account.

Based on the above assumption, $f(x,u_d)$ is a convex function of x only, thus in the sequel, we use the notation f(x) as the objective function. Since the cost of an individual generator is a quadratic function of the generation, thus $\nabla_x^2 f(x^*(u_c^*))$ is a constant diagonal matrix. Furthermore, since the generation limit and voltage security are decoupled bus-wise, the inequality constraints $h(x^*(u_c^*)) + \nabla_x h^T(x^*(u_c^*)) \Delta x \leq 0$ can be decomposed into

$$h_i(x^*(u_c^*)) + \nabla_{x_i} h_i^T(x^*(u_c^*)) \Delta x_i \le 0, i = 1, \dots, B$$
 (8)

where B denotes the number of buses in the system; Δx_i and h_i denote the increment of continuous variables and the inequality constraint functions associated with bus i. Thus, (7) can be written in the following form:

$$\min_{\Delta x} \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^T H \Delta x + r^T \Delta x$$
subject to $A^T \Delta x = b(u_d(j))$

$$C_i^T \Delta x_i \le d_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, B$$
 (9)

where the constant matrices $H = \nabla_x^2 f(x^*(u_c^*)) + \delta I$, $A = \nabla_x g(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)$, and $C_i = \nabla_{x_i} h_i(x^*(u_c^*))$, the constant vectors $d_i = -h_i(x^*(u_c^*))$ and $r = \nabla_x f(x^*(u_c^*))$,

and the dependent vector $b(u_d(j)) = -g(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*) - \nabla_{u_c} g^T(x^*(u_c^*), u_c^*)(u_c^* - u_d(j))$. Clearly, the matrix H is positive definite, and we can assume that A is of full rank, because otherwise we can always delete the redundant equality constraints.

I. DPPQN Method

We will employ the DPPQN method proposed in [11], [12], [14] to solve (9). The DPPQN method solves the following dual problem of (9) instead of solving (9) directly:

$$\max_{\lambda} \phi(\lambda) \tag{10}$$

where the dual function

$$\phi(\lambda) = \min_{\Delta x \in \Omega} \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^T H \Delta x + \lambda^T (A^T \Delta x - b(u_d(j)))$$
 (11)

and $\Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^{B} \Omega_i$, where

$$\Omega_i = \{ \Delta x_i \mid C_i^T \Delta x_i < d_i \}$$
 (12)

and $\Omega_j \cap \Omega_k = \emptyset$ if $j \neq k$.

The DPPQN method is an iterative method using the following iterations:

$$\lambda(t+1) = \lambda(t) + \tau(t)\Delta\lambda(t) \tag{13}$$

where t is the iteration index, $\tau(t)$ is a positive step-size determined by an Armijo-type rule [11], [12], [14], and the increment $\Delta\lambda(t)$ is computed by

$$\Phi \Delta \lambda(t) + \nabla_{\lambda} \phi(\lambda(t)) = 0 \tag{14}$$

where the matrix

$$\Phi = -A^T H^{-1} A \tag{15}$$

is a negative definite matrix, which represents the Hessian of $\phi(\lambda)$, however, not considering the constraints $\Delta x \in \Omega$ as will be shown later in (17). The gradient of $\phi(\lambda)$ at $\lambda(t)$ can be computed by

$$\nabla_{\lambda}\phi(\lambda(t)) = A^{T}\Delta\hat{x} - b(u_d(j))$$
 (16)

where $\Delta \hat{x}$ is the optimal solution of the optimization problem on the right-hand side (RHS) of (11), [14].

As shown in [11] and [12], the optimal solution for the optimization problem on the RHS of (11), $\Delta \hat{x}$, can be obtained using a two-phase approach. The first phase is to solve the following unconstrained optimization problem analytically:

$$\min \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^T H \Delta x + \lambda^T (A^T \Delta x - b(u_d(j)))$$
 (17)

which is the optimization problem on the RHS of (11) without considering the constraints $\Delta x \in \Omega$. Let $\Delta \tilde{x}$ be the optimal solution of (17), then

$$\Delta \tilde{x} = -H^{-1}(A\lambda). \tag{18}$$

The second phase is to project the $\Delta \tilde{x}$ onto Ω , that is projecting $\Delta \tilde{x_i}$ onto Ω_i , for $i=1,\ldots,B$, and the resulting projection is the optimal solution of the optimization problem on the RHS of (11) $\Delta \hat{x}$

1) Summary of the DPPQN Method: Starting from a $\lambda(t)$, we can use the two-phase method mentioned above to solve for

 $\Delta \hat{x}$, the optimal solution of the optimization problem on the RHS of (11). Once $\Delta \hat{x}$ is obtained, we can compute $\nabla_{\lambda}\phi(\lambda(t))$ by (16). Associated with the matrix Φ expressed in (15), we can solve for $\Delta\lambda(t)$ from (14). We then update $\lambda(t+1)$ by (13) using an Armijo-type step-size $\tau(t)$ and proceed with the next iteration.

II. Computational Efficiency

We see that the matrix Φ in (15) is sparse, because H is diagonal, and the nonzero entries of A represent the structure of the connectivity of the power system, which is sparse. Thus, we can obtain $\Delta\lambda(t)$ at each iteration t by solving the sparse linear (14) using sparse matrix technique. However, the most distinguished point for applying the DPPQN method here is that the matrix Φ is a **constant sparse matrix for all samples** $u_d(j)$ in SS. This implies that the LU factorization and the associated memory management for the nonzero entries for the sparse matrix Φ is done once and for all. This, of course, will save tremendous computational-time in solving all the s dual problems (10).

III. Convergence and Solution

The Φ in (15) is a negative definite matrix, because H is positive definite and A is of full rank. Thus, $\Delta\lambda(t)$ obtained from (14) will be an ascent direction of the dual function (11). With the Armijo-type step-size $\tau(t)$ [11], [12], [14], convergence of the DPPQN method had been shown in [11], [12], and [14]. Let λ^* denote the optimal solution of the dual problem (10), and $\Delta\hat{x}(\lambda^*)$ denotes the optimal solution of the optimization problem on the RHS of (11) when $\lambda = \lambda^*$. Since our primal problem (9) is a quadratic programming problem with a strictly convex objective function, by strong duality theorem [3], the $\Delta\hat{x}(\lambda^*)$ is the solution of (9). Furthermore, if the dual function $\phi(\lambda)$ tends to approach ∞ during the solution process, we can conclude that $u_d(j)$ is infeasible for (7) with the objective value ∞ .

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