Dynamic Security Assessment of Western Danish Power System Based on Ensemble Decision Trees
Liu, Chengxi; Bak, Claus Leth; Chen, Zhe; Lund, Per

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Abstract

With the increasing penetration of renewable energy resources and other forms of dispersed generation, more and more uncertainties will be brought to the dynamic security assessment (DSA) of power systems. This paper proposes an approach that uses ensemble decision trees (EDT) for online DSA. Fed with online wide-area measurement data, it is capable of not only predicting the security states of current operating conditions (OC) with high accuracy, but also indicating the confidence of the security states 1 minute ahead of the real time by an outlier identification method. The results of EDT together with outlier identification show high accuracy in the presence of variance and uncertainties due to wind power generation and other dispersed generation units. The performance of this approach is demonstrated on the operational model of western Danish power system with the scale of around 200 lines and 400 buses.

Nomenclature

AED Average Euclidean distance.
CA Critical attribute.
DT Decision tree.
EDT Ensemble decision trees.
LS Learning set.
$N_{OOB}$ The number of cases in out-of-bag dataset.
$N_{ree}$ The number of DTs EDT model.
OC Operating condition.
OOB Out-of-bag.
TS Test set.
$X$ Training datasets from bootstrap sampling.
$\Theta$ Randomly selected sub-vector predictor set.
$h_k(X_k, \Theta_k)$ The set of classifiers of $k$th decision tree.
$\hat{C}_{DE}(x_i)$ Prediction of validation case $x_i$ by the $k$th DT.
$\hat{C}_{EDT}(x_i)$ Prediction of validation case $x_i$ by EDT model containing $N_{ree}$ DTs.
$M_{EDT}(x_i, C_1)$ Margin of validation case $x_i$ in EDT model.
$S_{EDT}(x_i)$ Strength of classifiers of EDT model.
$VI(a_m)$ Relative importance of the $m$th variable
$\Psi(a_m)$ Permutation of the $m$th variable data.
$Prox(x_i, x_j)$ Proximity between case $i$ and case $j$.
$O I(x_i)$ Outlier index of case $i$.

1 Introduction

Dynamic security assessment (DSA) provides power system operators with important information about the ability of a certain operating condition (OC) to withstand a defined set of contingencies and to regain a state of operating equilibrium after being subjected to a physical disturbance, with most system variables bounded so that practically the entire system remains intact [1].

Offline DSA performs detailed time-domain (T-D) simulations for all credible contingencies and a variety of OCs, so as to determine the security thresholds of generation and load as well as the limits of power transfer in important interties in power systems. However, even though a large number of simulations are conducted for typical OCs and different contingencies, it is still impossible to cover all OCs, especially for large scale power systems.

Online DSA is able to update current OC to supplement the result of offline DSA for higher reliability. It involves rapid screening process to rank and select the most critical contingencies and intelligent filtering of OCs that should be simulated and updated to the result of offline DSA [2]. Then only limited numbers of traditional T-D simulations are carried out to explore the system security guidelines in terms of different criteria. Finally, the guidelines of offline DSA are updated dynamically with precise prediction of security in case of credible contingencies.

Nowadays, the increasing integration of renewable energy resources such as wind farms, solar power plants, energy storage units as well as plug-in hybrid electric vehicles further bring more complexity and uncertainties to modern power systems at different voltage levels. These resources have impacts on power system security, but they are not as accessible for direct monitoring and control from control centre as conventional centralized generation. The presence of these uncertain impacts makes the DSA much more challenging for modern power systems.

Many pattern recognition methods, such as support vector machine, artificial neural network and decision tree (DT), are used in online DSA [3,4]. These methods generate a training database offline by T-D simulations and then train a model with decision rules using the training set of label patterns. Fed with online measurements from SCADA or WAMS, the model is then used to determine the security states of current...
This paper proposes a methodology that uses Ensemble Decision Tree (EDT) for online DSA, which is capable of not only predicting the security states of new OC with high accuracy, but also informing the adaptability of the EDT model by Outlier Index (OI). The OI is calculated by the Average Euclidean Distance (AED) of the new OCs to all the cases existed in the database. The small AED implies the large proximity of the new OC to the model trained by the database, so that the EDT model is sure about the security states of the new OC, and vice versa. Therefore, given a threshold of OI, the misclassified cases can be completely filtered out as unsure cases for further verification. Finally, the new cases together with the existed cases can be used to build an updated EDT model to strengthen the information of the database.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the algorithms of traditional DT and the novel EDT models; Section 3 describes the details of the proposed approach for online DSA; Section 4 demonstrates the performance of this approach on western Danish power system; finally, conclusions and discussions are provided in Section 5.

2 Algorithms of ensemble decision trees

2.1 Background

A database can be divided randomly to a learning set (LS) and test set (TS). Given a LS and a TS from T-D simulations composed of a number of OCs and their security results in case of contingencies, a DT can be created to find out the critical attributes (CAs) relevant to the security and to predict the security of any OCs in terms of these CAs. DT is a decision support model expressed as single binary tree to predict the possible consequences of the target value by a number of if-then rules. Therefore, the security of a specific case, i.e. either Secure (S) or Insecure (I), represented by a set of measurements (i.e. \( a_1, a_2, ..., a_k \)), can be predicted by dropping the measurements of the case downward from the root node to a terminal node of DT, as shown in Figure 1. Details of DT algorithms can be found in [6].

![Figure 1: Illustration of database and a simple DT.](image)

The model of EDT, derived from DT, is composed of a multitude of de-correlated DTs such that each node of DTs depends on a sub-vector randomly selected from the full-vector predictors. Bootstrap sampling is also used in EDT by resampling the cases with replacement from the database many times to create a number of datasets with the same size. Each dataset may contain repeated cases because of the resampling the cases with replacement from the database. Therefore, given a threshold of OI, the OI is calculated by the Outlier Index (OI). The OI is calculated by:

\[ OI = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{AED(i)}{\text{AED}_{\text{max}}} \]

where \( n \) is the number of cases in the database, \( AED(i) \) is the Average Euclidean Distance of the new OCs to all the cases existed in the database, and \( \text{AED}_{\text{max}} \) is the maximum AED calculated from the entire dataset. The EDT model is sure about the security states of the new OC, and vice versa. Therefore, given a threshold of OI, the misclassified cases can be completely filtered out as unsure cases for further verification. Finally, the new cases together with the existed cases can be used to build an updated EDT model to strengthen the information of the database.

The classification output (i.e. Secure or Insecure) of EDT model is the majority voting result (largest fraction) from a large number of DTs. Although each DT is unpruned and over-fitted, the overall EDT model can benefit from aggregated-base variance reduction. The structure of EDT is shown in Figure 2. Details of EDT algorithm can be found in [7].

![Figure 2: The process of an EDT model.](image)

Assuming we have a database containing \( N \) cases, each case is represented by \( M \) predictors \( X_n = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_M\} \)
representing the measurements of case \( n \) and one target \( C_n = \{S \text{ or } 1\} \) standing for the secure or insecure state for case \( n \) which is obtained by T-D simulations. Defining that there is an EDT model composed of a number of \( N_{tree} \) trees, the process of EDT training is that for each node in the \( k \)th tree (\( k \leq N_{tree} \)), the random sub-vector \( \Theta_i \) is selected, which is independent from the past random vector \( \Theta_1, \Theta_2, \ldots, \Theta_j \) but with the same distribution. The \( k \)th tree is grown using the training set \( X_k \) from the \( k \)th bootstrap sampling and \( \Theta_k = \{\Theta_i, \Theta_2, \ldots, \Theta_j\} \) resulting in a number of classifiers \( h_k(X_k, \Theta_k) \). Therefore, an EDT model is composed of a collection of \( N_{tree} \) tree-structured classifiers \( DT_i = \{h_i(X_i, \Theta_i), k = 1, \ldots, N_{tree}\} \) and each DT casts a unit vote for the most popular class at input \( x \), which is defined in (1)

\[
\hat{C}_{EDT}^E(x) = \text{majority voting}\{\hat{C}_{EDT}^i(x), k = 1, 2, \ldots, N_{tree}, x \in \mathbf{X}\}
\]

where \( \hat{C}_{EDT}^i(x) \) is the prediction of case \( x_i \) by the \( k \)th DT in the EDT model.

### 2.2 Margins

Margin of a case \( x_i \) measures the extent to which the average proportion of votes by \( \hat{C}_{EDT}^i(x) \) for the true class \( C_i \) exceeds the average proportion of votes for any other false classes. As defined in (2), the margin is a proportion of votes for true class minus the maximum proportion of votes for the remaining false class. Margin is a measure used to evaluate the confidence of the classification model. Hence, the larger the margin for case \( j \) implies the higher of confidence of the classification by EDT model.

\[
\hat{M}_{EDT}^E(x_i, C_i) = \text{avg}\{\hat{C}_{EDT}^j(x) = C_i, \max\{\text{avg}\{\hat{C}_{EDT}^j(x_i) \neq C_i\}\}\}
\]

Therefore the strength of classifiers in EDT is defined as the average margin of all cases in the dataset, as defined in (3).

\[
S_{EDT}^E = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \hat{M}_{EDT}^E(x_n, C_n)
\]

### 2.3 Variable Importance

Compared with single DT, an EDT model has the advantage that it gives each variable the chance to appear in the different context with different covariates, so as to better reflect its potential effect on the response. The importance of variables in EDT model is computed to assess the contribution of the variable to grow the EDT model and the relevance of each variable over all DTs in the EDT model.

There are basically two approaches to measure the relative importance of the \( m \)th variable \( VI(a_m) \) in the prediction vector \( X_n = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m, \ldots, a_M\} \). The traditional approach is used by default for a single DT, which is calculated by aggregating the improvement indices of splitting variable and the surrogate variables for every node and sort the result descendingly [6]. Then, the relative value of important variable is calculated by scaling these improvement indices such that the largest value is 100%.

Although the traditional approach is intrinsic, it is subjected to the over-fitting issues in EDT. Hence, the novel approach is used to assess the importance of the \( m \)th variable \( VI(a_m) \), as defined in (4):

a) Assume that we already know the OOB performance \( P_m \) of a given EDT model;
b) Randomly permute all values of variable \( m \);
c) Score the data and compute the new OOB performance \( P_{m'} \);
d) Compute the decrease of performance \( P_m - P_{m'} \);
e) Sort and scale the performance decrease.

\[
VI(a_m) = P_m - P_{m'}
\]

### 2.4 Proximities and Outliers

Proximity matrix \( \text{Prox} \) is introduced by EDT to evaluate the Euclidean distance between every two cases in the spaces of observation. The proximity between case \( i \) and case \( j \) in the database is the number of times that they occur in the same terminal node of trees, then these counts are normalized by dividing the total number of DTs, i.e. \( N_{tree} \), as defined in (8).

\[
\text{Prox}(x_i, x_j) = \frac{1}{N_{tree}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \{C_{ij}(DT_n(X, \Theta_n))\} \in [0,1]
\]

where \( C_{ij} \) (\( DT_n \)) is the one-zero function for counting the times that \( x_i \) and \( x_j \) going to the same terminal node, as defined in (9).

\[
C_{ij}(DT_n(X, \Theta_n)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_i, x_j \text{ in the same terminal node of } DT_n \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}
\]

Therefore, the diagonal elements in the proximity matrix are 1.0 which are self-proximities. Cases that are alike will have proximity close to 1.0; while dissimilar will have proximities close to 0.0.

Then, outliers are able to be detected as cases having small proximities to all other cases belonging to the same target class. The outlier index (OI) of case \( i \) is defined in (10), in which \( N_i \) is the number of cases that the classification is the same with case \( i \).
3 Proposed approach

The flowchart of the proposed EDT-based online DSA is shown in Figure 4. The proposed approach is executed in the following stages.

**Offline RF Building**
- **Generate original** $N_c$ $OCs$ & Forecasted data for 24-h ahead $OCs$
- **Generate database of** $N_c \times N_{OC}$ cases with security/stability states by T-D simulations under specified security criteria
- **Build a RF model from** the database

**Database Update for RF**
- **Prediction data for 1-min ahead $OC$**
  - **Outlier Index of predicted $OC$ $> Threshold A$?**
    - **No**
      - Verify predicted $OC$ by T-D simulation
      - Create a new case for predicted $OC$
      - Update the case to the database and rebuild a RF model
    - **Yes**
      - Final RF model

**Online DSA**
- **Online Measurements**
  - **Proximity between current $OC$ and predicted $OC$ $< Threshold B$?**
    - **No**
      - Judge the security by simulated result 1-min before
    - **Yes**
      - Verify the security of current $OC$ by Final RF model and calculate security margin

Figure 4: The flowchart of EDT based online DSA scheme.

3.1 Stage I: Offline EDT building

The original database is prepared offline by detailed T-D simulations of $N_c \times N_{OC}$ cases for $N_c$ critical contingencies and $N_{OC}$ $OC$s based on 24-hour horizon forecasted data of the system, such as load forecast, wind forecast, unit-commitment-based generation plan, network topology as well as the unavailability of system elements due to scheduled maintenance, etc. Then, the original contingency-oriented EDT model is trained based on the prepared database.

3.2 Stage II: Database update for EDT model

System $OC$ of 1 minute ahead can be predicted with much higher accuracy by short-term power flow prediction algorithms, such as short-term load forecast and short-term wind forecast, etc. Then Outlier Index of 1-min ahead $OC$ is calculated according to (10) to evaluate the AED of the predicted $OC$ to all the cases already existed in the database. Given a threshold of OI, the predicted $OC$ with OI larger than the specified threshold will be filtered out as unsure case for immediate verification by T-D simulation. Then the original database will be updated by the new case of predicted $OC$ together with the existed cases. Finally, an upgraded EDT model will be built straightaway with strengthened information of the updated database.

3.3 Stage III: Online dynamic security assessment

Fed by online measurement from WAMS and SCADA system, the proximity between current $OC$ and predicted $OC$ is calculated by (8). If the proximity is smaller than the specified proximity threshold, which implies that the current $OC$ matches the predicted $OC$, then the security of the current $OC$ is decided by detailed T-D simulation conducted 1-min before. If the proximity is larger than the specified proximity threshold, the security of the current $OC$ is judged by final EDT model built in Stage II and security margin for current $OC$ is calculated by the equation in (2).

4 Case study

The approach proposed in this paper is demonstrated on western Danish power system. The detailed model of western Danish power system with about 400 buses, 200 lines is developed in DgSILENT/PowerFactory and provided by Energinet.dk. 8 central power plant units and 2 offshore wind farms are connected to the power grid at the transmission system level. Besides, 150 combined and heat power (CHP) plants and more than 200 onshore wind power plants are integrated to the distribution system. The geographical map of western Danish power system is shown in Figure 5.

As mentioned in Section 2, the training process of EDT model should be based on a database which is prepared by offline T-D simulation considering the critical “$N-1$” contingencies and “$N-k$” contingencies from Danish transmission system operator’s (Energinet.dk) historical record and experience. The “$N-1$” contingencies are the three-phase faults at the terminals of 400/150kV transmission lines with clearing time of 0.12sec (6cycles). The database contains not only the measurement data as predictor values, but also the target values which are the results of T-D simulation secure (S) or insecure (I) based on criteria as given below:

a) Transient stability: The system is considered as transient instable for a given contingency, if the systems transient stability index (TSI) defined by (11) is lower than 10%, in which $\Delta \delta_{\text{max}}$ is the maximum angle separation of any two rotor angles in degree.

$$TSI = \frac{360 - \Delta \delta_{\text{max}}}{360 + \Delta \delta_{\text{max}}} \times 100\%$$ (11)
b) Short-term voltage security: The system is considered to be insecure if the duration of any bus voltage going out of range from 0.8pu to 1.1pu is longer than 0.5sec.

In order to demonstrate the proposed approach with a typical scenario, the OC with peak load with one 400kV backbone KAS_400_LAG out of service is selected as the tested scenario. The contingency is a 3-phase short circuit in 400kV overhead line FGD_400_LAG close to the substation of LAG followed by the line trip. The short circuit place is marked as a red square in Figure 5. Then a database with 660 cases is created considering the variance of dispersed generation, such as wind farms and CHP plants.

A data mining software Salford Predictive Miner is adopted to train an EDT model base on the database. The EDT model contains 500 deep-grown DTs, and 10 out of 202 predictors are randomly selected as the predictors within each node of every DT. Figure 6 shows the training process, which shows that the performance of EDT model (Error Rate) does not improve obviously after the 150th DTs. Figure 7 shows the relative variable importance, calculated by (4).

Figure 8 shows the proximity matrix map of the 660 cases in the training database.

After the training process of EDT model, another database with 440 cases with different variance parameters, independent from the previous database is generated to validate the created EDT model.

Figure 9(a) shows the 440 cases in the test set with respect to their OI, which is then sorted in a descendent order in Figure 9(b). The misclassified cases are all within the 30 cases with the highest OI. The blue cases are the correct ones, while the green and red cases are the misclassified ones.

Given a threshold of OI, the predicted OC with OI larger than the specified threshold will be filtered out as unsure case for immediate verification by T-D simulation. As shown in Figure 10(a), the original accuracy of EDT model is tested as 92.27%. If the OI threshold is given as 6.15, and all the cases with OI larger then 6.15 are verified by further T-D simulation, the accuracy can be increased to 95.68%. Whilst, if stricter (more conservative) threshold is given (i.e. 1.54), the accuracy can reach to even 100%.

Figure 10(b) shows the percentage of cases that need for further verification. Only a percentage of 3.82% out of 440 cases are needed to be verified if the threshold is given as 6.15. Nevertheless, a percentage of 11.36% out of 440 cases are needed to be verified if stricter threshold is given as 1.54, and within these cases, a percentage of 7.50% are the mismatched cases.
Afterward, the database can be periodically updated by the new cases together with the existed cases. Finally, a stronger EDT model can be created straightaway with strengthened information of the updated database. Therefore, the percentage of filtered out cases for verification should be significantly decreased if more cases are added into the database for upgrading the EDT model.

5 Conclusions and discussions

This paper proposes an online DSA approach based on EDT. This approach is demonstrated on western Danish power system considering the uncertainties of wind power and other forms of dispersed generation. Given a threshold of OI, misclassified cases can be filtered out as outliers for further verification 1 min ahead of the real time. Practically, this outlier identification method is able to improve the accuracy of online DSA to even 100%.

This paper is a first step towards a goal that to achieve online DSA with 100% accuracy theoretically in the presence of uncertainties of renewable energy. The exact value of OI thresholds to be given should have strong relationship with the value of variance or uncertainties of wind or other DG units in mathematics, which is being pursued in future study.

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