

Trajectory Sensitivities and Parametric Uncertainty in Power System Dynamics

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Motivation

- Renewable generation will change how we manage the grid.
 - **Uncertainty.** Weather fluctuations. Higher complexity! (uDERs)
 - **Dynamics.** Inverter resources. Ancillary services.
- Uncertainty Quantification (UQ) in dynamics is challenging but exciting area of research.
- **However.** The problem needs better definition. What role does uncertainty play in power system dynamics? What are desirable properties of UQ techniques?
- I will present some two methods:
 1. Method of Moments.
 2. Worst-case trajectory via optimization.

Sensitivities are a great technique to have in your research tool belt.

About me

My bias:

- I was trained as an Electrical Engineer. Using high performance computing techniques to simulate large-scale power system dynamics.
- Conversations with industry partners. Parameters not known accurately. Especially load models and now, distributed energy resources.
- Focused on statistical techniques, inverse problems, etc.
- Joined Argonne's MCS. Work alongside mathematicians and statisticians. Optimization and Data Assimilation group. Adjoints, AD, etc. Focus on leveraging HPC.

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Power System Dynamics

- The electrical power system is a complex machine that transforms energy from diverse sources into electrical energy and then distributes it to end users.
- Transitory processes occur due to normal operations or perturbances. Power system dynamics studies are concerned with:
 1. The stability of the system after such process.
 2. The mitigation of the transient regime.
 3. The quality of the transition between steady-state regimes.
- A widely-used power system dynamics model uses a DAE:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(t, x, y, \theta), \\ 0 &= g(t, x, y, \theta).\end{aligned}$$

- Owing to control mechanisms and physical constraints, functions f often present nonlinearities such as saturation, state limiters, switches.

Uncertainty in Dynamics

Let $\dot{x} = f(t, x, \theta)$ be the diff. equation that represents our dynamics.

- When parameters vary with time stochastically. We might use a forcing s. process

$$\dot{x} = f(t, x, \theta) + (x(t), t)dW(t).$$

- When parameters do not vary with time but they have a known p.d.f

$$\theta \sim \pi().$$

- When parameters do not vary with time and do not have known p.d.f

$$\theta \in [\theta_m, \theta_M].$$

Different methods depending on: nature of uncertainty, problem, requirements.

Sensitivities

- I will introduce MoM.
- Before that, we will survey the sensitivity equations.

Sensitivities

We consider an ODE for simplicity:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(t, x, \theta), \quad t_0 \leq t \leq t_F, \quad x(t_0) = x_0(\theta).$$

where $x \in \mathbf{R}^n, \theta \in \mathbf{R}^p$. Sensitivity with respect to θ_k , $u_k(t) = \frac{dx(t)}{d\theta_k}$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{du_k}{dt} &= f_x(t, x, \theta)u_k + f_\theta(t, x, \theta)e_k, \\ u_k(t_0) &= \frac{dx(0)}{d\theta_k}. \end{aligned}$$

with $f_x \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ and $f_\theta \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times p}$.

Sensitivity equation, tangent linear model, variational equation.

Sensitivities II

For a DAE:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(x, y, \theta), \\ 0 &= g(x, y, \theta).\end{aligned}$$

Define $\alpha = \theta_k$, $f_\alpha = f_\theta e_k$, $u_x^\alpha = \left[\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial \alpha} \quad \dots \right]$. Then, we have:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{u}_x^\alpha \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_x & f_y \\ g_x & g_y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_x^\alpha \\ u_y^\alpha \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} f_\alpha \\ g_\alpha \end{bmatrix}.$$

Integrating this with backward Euler:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta t f_x - I & \Delta t f_y \\ g_x & g_y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \{u_x^\alpha\}^t \\ \{u_y^\alpha\}^t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\Delta t (f_\alpha) - \{u^\alpha\}^{t-1} x \\ -g_\alpha \end{bmatrix}.$$

Hybrid systems, discrete events [Hiskens and Pai, 2000].

Sensitivities III

2nd-order ([Choi et al., 2017], [Geng and Hiskens, 2019]). Define $\alpha = \theta_k$, $\beta = \theta_i$, $v^{\alpha\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial \alpha\beta} & \dots \end{bmatrix}$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{v}_x^{\alpha\beta} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_x & f_y \\ g_x & g_y \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_x^{\alpha\beta} \\ v_y^{\alpha\beta} \end{bmatrix} + \xi(x, y, u),$$

where the forcing term, ξ , is:

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{bmatrix} f_{\alpha\beta} \\ g_{\alpha\beta} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} f_{\alpha x} & f_{\alpha y} \\ g_{\alpha x} & g_{\alpha y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_x^\alpha \\ u_y^\alpha \end{bmatrix} \\ & + \begin{bmatrix} f_{\beta x} & f_{\beta y} \\ g_{\beta x} & g_{\beta y} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_x^\beta \\ u_y^\beta \end{bmatrix} + (I_m \otimes (u^\alpha)^T) \mathcal{H} u^\beta. \end{aligned}$$

For $\theta \in \mathbf{R}^p$, we will have p n -dimensional vectors of first-order sensitivities, p n -dimensional vectors of second-order self-sensitivities, and $\frac{p^2-p}{2}$ n -dimensional vectors of second-order mixed sensitivities.

Notice, however, that we only need to factorize one matrix.

Canonical form. Some times useful to see parameters as initial conditions:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ u \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f(t, x, u) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} x(t_0) \\ u(t_0) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Method of Moments

Method of Moments

Motivation

- We would like to obtain $p(x(t))$ given $x(0) \sim \pi_0(x_0)$.
- Obtaining the whole density can be challenging and costly.
- What if we look at first two moments of $p(x(t))$.

The evolution of such density is determined by the *map* of the diff. eq:

$$x_{k+1} = \phi(x_k)$$

Hence, we seek the moments of

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[x_{k+1}] &= \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k)] \\ \mathbb{V}[x_{k+1}] &= \mathbb{V}[(\phi(x_k) - \mu_k)^2]\end{aligned}$$

Old idea ([Pugachev, 1965]): $\mathbb{E}[g(x)] \approx g(\mathbb{E}[x])$.

Approximation of Moments via Taylor series

Given x a r.v. with known moments we want to obtain $\mathbb{E}[g(x)]$. We Taylor expand $g(x)$ around μ and take expectations:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[g(x)] &= g(\mu) + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \mathbb{E}[(x_i - \mu_{x_i})(x_j - \mu_{x_j})] \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{3!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\partial^3 g}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_k} \mathbb{E}[(x_i - \mu_{x_i})(x_j - \mu_{x_j})(x_k - \mu_{x_k})] \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{4!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{\partial^4 g}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_k \partial x_l} \mathbb{E}[(x_i - \mu_{x_i})(x_j - \mu_{x_j})(x_k - \mu_{x_k})(x_l - \mu_{x_l})],\end{aligned}$$

- In the case of the map $\phi()$, the derivatives are the sensitivities (also, [Hiskens and Alseddiqui, 2006])!
- If we start with known pdf for x_0 , we can do this for $x_1 = \phi(x_0)$, but what about $x_2 = \phi(\phi(x_0))$?
- Closure problem.

Gaussian Closure

We assume that x_0 has a normal distribution and that x_i **remains Gaussian**. This has two consequences:

- Odd moments are zero.
- Isserlis theorem. Higher-order even moments determined with first two moments.

For instance, taking $c_{ij} = \mathbb{E} [(x_i - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_j)]$, we have:

$$\mathbb{E} [(x_i - \mu_i)(x_j - \mu_j)(x_k - \mu_k)(x_l - \mu_l)] = c_{ij}c_{kl} + c_{il}c_{jk} + c_{ik}c_{lj}$$

Higher-order moment terms in the expansions can be computed with first and second-order moments.

Gaussian Closure Expressions

Propagation of the mean and covariance:

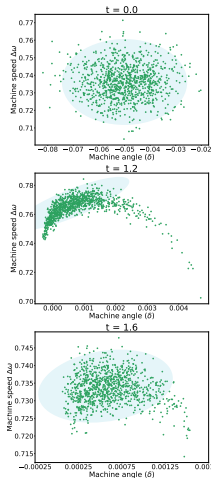
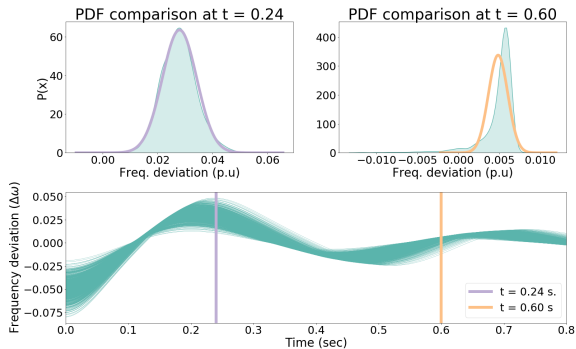
$$\mathbb{E}[g(x)] = g(\mu) + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} c_{ij} + \frac{1}{4!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{\partial^4 g}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_k \partial x_l} (c_{ij} c_{kl} + c_{il} c_{jk} + c_{ik} c_{lj}),$$

$$\begin{aligned} c_{pq}^g = & \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_i} \right) c_{ij} + \frac{1}{3!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} + \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_k} + \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \right) c_{ijk} \\ & + \frac{1}{4!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_i} \frac{\partial^3 g_q}{\partial x_j \partial x_k \partial x_l} + \frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_j} \frac{\partial^3 g_q}{\partial x_i \partial x_k \partial x_l} + \frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_k} \frac{\partial^3 g_q}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_l} + \frac{\partial g_p}{\partial x_l} \frac{\partial^3 g_q}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_k} + \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_k \partial x_l} + \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_k} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_j \partial x_l} \right. \\ & + \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_l} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} + \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_i \partial x_l} + \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_j \partial x_l} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_i \partial x_k} + \frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_k \partial x_l} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} + \frac{\partial^3 g_p}{\partial x_j \partial x_k \partial x_l} \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial^3 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_k \partial x_l} \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial^3 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_l} \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_k} + \frac{\partial^3 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_j \partial x_k} \frac{\partial g_q}{\partial x_l} \left. \right) c_{ijkl} \\ & - \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial^2 g_p}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \frac{\partial^2 g_q}{\partial x_k \partial x_l} \right) c_{ij} c_{kl}. \end{aligned}$$

Contribution of second-order sensitivities can be substantial.

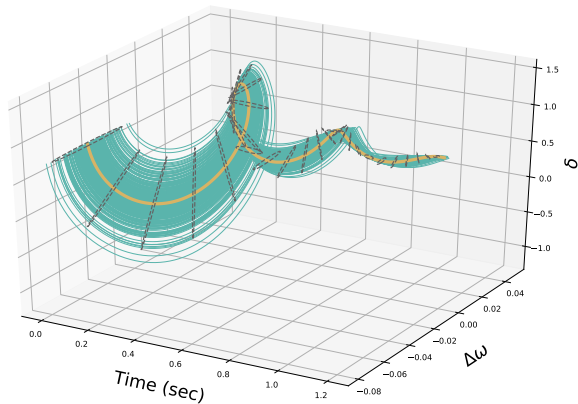
Case Study I

OMIB, 14 states. Gaussian approximation and normal deviation. Tails.



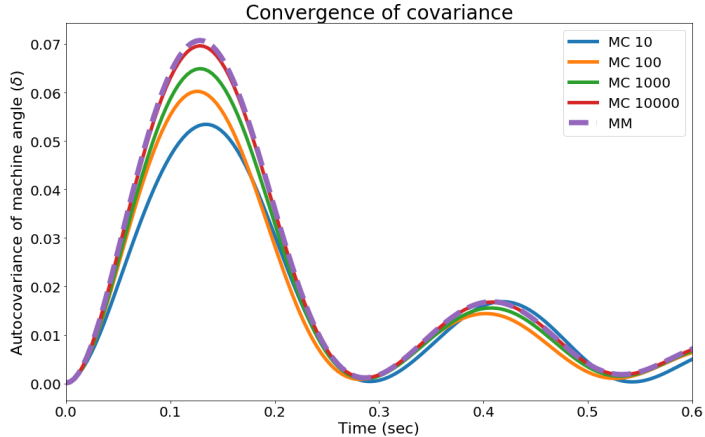
Case Study II

Plotting the uncertainty ellipsoid for $\Delta\omega$, δ .



Case Study III

Monte Carlo convergence.



Case Study IV

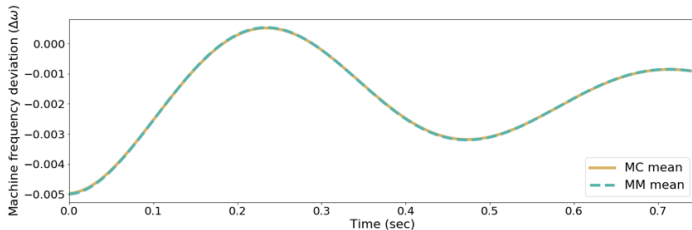
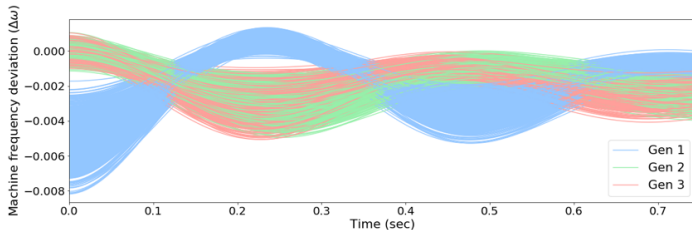
Table: Approximation errors using higher order degree derivatives in the Method of Moments (MM). Comparison with Monte Carlo experiment using 10,000 samples. We show the approximated mean at $t = 0.6$ sec.

Method	Mean	Error
Monte Carlo	0.004860	-
MM, 1st order derivatives	0.005822	19,796%
MM, 2nd order derivatives	0.004918	1,211%
MM, 3rd order derivatives	0.004864	0,098%

Approximation is quite good. Second order sensitivities have a significant impact on accuracy.

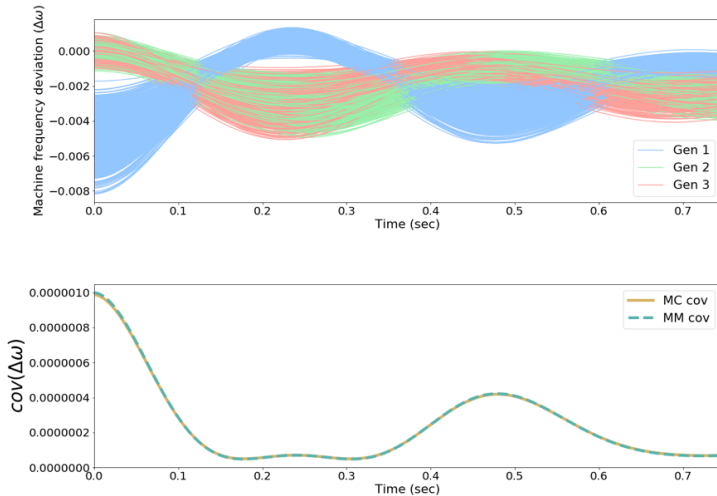
Case Study VI

Same set-up with a 9 bus system. Mean of $\Delta\omega_1$.



Case Study VII

Same set-up with a 9 bus system.



Challenges

- Gaussian hypothesis. What about other distributions?
- Does not capture tails.
- Misleading if distribution is bimodal (e.g. bifurcation)
- Closure. Common approach but no guarantees. Approximation may degrade over time (good performance might depend on system being dissipative).

Advantages and extension

- Second-order give us increased accuracy.
- No sampling involved. Potential to scale to large systems.
- Moments can be used with Chebyshev's inequality to determine probability of x_k exceeding value.
- Complex distributions can be approximated by Gaussian mixtures:
 $p(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n w_i N(x; \sigma_i, P_i)$ with $\sum w_i = 1$.
- It can be combined with sampling techniques (think control variates in MC).

Depending on application, this could be a good tool. It can also serve as an ingredient to more general approaches. We leverage sensitivities.

Trust Region Optimization

Approximation of Trajectory Extremes with Trust Region Optimization

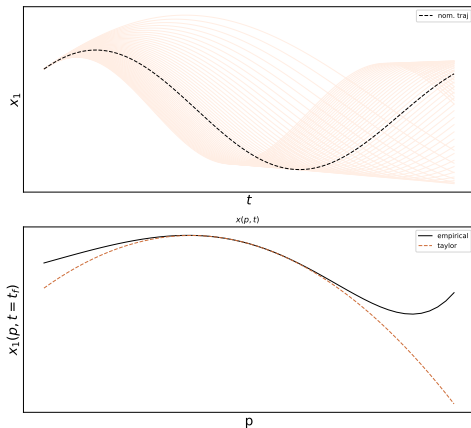
Motivation

- Requirements for system performance (e.g. voltage and frequency within bounds).
- Parameters not known but we have ranges (unknown-but-bounded [Schweppe, 1973])
- Consider the DAE $M\dot{z} = h(z, \theta, t)$. Find the extremes given a bounded set for θ .
- Reachability, interval analysis, etc.
- One idea:

$$z_i(p_m + s, t) \approx z_i(p_m, t) + s^T \left. \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial p} \right|_{(p_m, t)} + \frac{1}{2} s^T \left. \frac{\partial^2 z_i}{\partial p^2} \right|_{(p_m, t)} s.$$

[Hiskens and Alseddiqui, 2006] (1st order), and [Choi et al., 2017] (2nd).

An optimization problem



Formulation:

$$\underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \quad z_i(\theta, t)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad \theta \in \Theta$$

- We are using a **surrogate** of z_i
- Nonlinear optimization problem

Trust Region

Find $\{x_k\}$ that converge to a point x_* , where $\nabla f(x_*) = 0$.
We use a quadratic surrogate model - Taylor expansion at x_k :

$$m_k(x_k + s) = f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T s + \frac{1}{2} s^T \nabla^2 f(x_k) s$$

We need to ensure surrogate is *suitable* approximation in a given region \mathcal{B}_k , where

$$\mathcal{B}_k = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid \|x - x_k\| \leq \Delta_k\}.$$

We seek s that minimizes $m_k()$ and $\|s_k\|_2 \leq \Delta_k$ (the subproblem). Then, we check agreement:

$$\rho_k = \frac{\text{actual reduction}}{\text{predicted reduction}} = \frac{f_i(x_k) - f_i(x_k + s_k)}{m_k(x_k) - m_k(x_k + s_k)}$$

If ρ_k is small: reject and reduce trust region radius. If accepted, set x_{k+1} and create new surrogate.

Algorithm 1 Trust Region

```
1: procedure TRUST REGION
2:   Given  $\hat{\Delta} > 0$ , initialize  $\Delta_0 \in (0, \hat{\Delta})$ , and  $\eta \in [0, \eta_1)$ 
3:   for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  do
4:     obtain  $s_k$  by reducing  $m_k(x)$ 
5:     evaluate  $\rho_k$  from (8)
6:     if  $\rho_k < \eta_1$  then
7:        $\Delta_{k+1} = \frac{1}{4} \Delta_k$ 
8:     else
9:       if  $\rho_k > \eta_2$  and  $\|s_k\| = \Delta_k$  then
10:         $\Delta_{k+1} = \min(2\Delta_k, \hat{\Delta})$ 
11:      else
12:         $\Delta_{k+1} = \frac{1}{4} \Delta_k$ 
13:      if  $\rho_k > \eta$  then
14:         $x_{k+1} = x_k + s_k$ 
15:      else
16:         $x_{k+1} = x_k$ 
```

Constants η_1 and η_2 typically set to $\frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$.

Trust Region II. Extreme trajectories

Again, consider $M\dot{z} = h(z, \theta, t)$ and $\theta \in \Theta$. To approximate the extreme trajectories we:

- Choose a point on the parameter interval. Usually the center.
- Integrate the DAE and its sensitivity equations from t_0 to t_j .
- Construct surrogate and solve Trust Region:

$$\min_d \quad m_k(p_k + s) = z_i + u_i^T s + \frac{1}{2} s^T V_i s, \quad \text{s.t. } \|s\| \leq \Delta_k,$$

- Optimization problem is solved for each time step.
- We can "hot start" but no guarantee optimal p is close.

Trust Region III. Uncertainty Model

We set up a system with a generator, governor, exciter with saturation. The uncertainty comes from the load composition, α .

$$\begin{aligned}P_{inj}(V_0, t_0) &= \alpha P_z + (1 - \alpha) P_{mot}, \\Q_{inj}(V_0, t_0) &= \alpha Q_z + (1 - \alpha) Q_{mot}.\end{aligned}$$

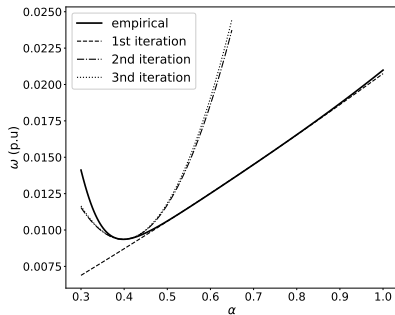
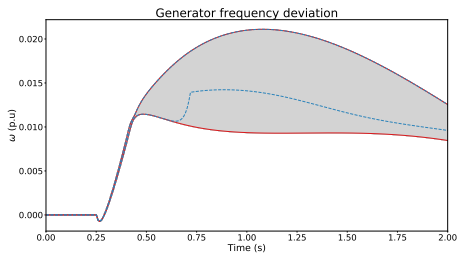
where $P_z = \left(\frac{V_i}{V_0}\right)^2 P_0$ and the motor:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{e}'_d &= -\frac{1}{T_p}(e'_d + (x_0 - x')i_q) + s\omega_s e'_q, \\ \dot{e}'_q &= -\frac{1}{T_p}(e'_q - (x_0 - x')i_d) - s\omega_s e'_d, \\ \dot{s} &= \frac{1}{2H}(\tau_m - e'_d i_d - e'_q i_q)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= r_a i_d - x' i_q + e'_d + V \sin(\theta), \\ 0 &= r_a i_q - x' i_d + e'_q - V \cos(\theta), \\ P_{mot} &= -V \sin(\theta) i_d + V \cos(\theta) i_q, \\ Q_{mot} &= V \cos(\theta) i_d + V \sin(\theta) i_q.\end{aligned}$$

Trust Region III

Fault applied from $t = 0.25$ to $t = 0.45$. In red, Trust Region. In blue, optimize for the Taylor expansion around nominal point. Compared with grid-sampling, we observe very small errors (e.g. for minimum trajectory, relative error is $1.406e^{-6}$ over whole trajectory)



Note corners not necessarily correspond to extremes.

Thoughts

- We tried this on New England case (19 parameters). Good performance.
- Small number of TR iterations (average 5-10).
- This is still an approximation. Problems might arise with local minima.
- But the field of NLOpt is very mature. Lots of room for better performance.
- We might turn to global optimization techniques (sampling might be involved)
- Trust-region can be used to accelerate global optimization techniques

UQGrid

```
# load data
psys = load_psse(raw_filename="IEEE39_v33.raw")
add_dyr(psys, "IEEE39.dyr")

# add fault and create initial data structures
v, Sinj = runpf(psys, verbose=True)
psys.add_busfault(1, zfault, 0.01)

# set up parameters
pmax = np.ones(psys.nloads)
pmin = np.zeros(psys.nloads)

pnom = pmin + 0.5*(pmax - pmin)
psys.set_load_parameters(pnom)

# integrate
results = integrate_system(psys, verbose=True,
                           comp_sens=True, dt=dt, tend=10.0)
```

- Trajectory sensitivities useful tool in UQ.
- Implementation barrier.
- Achieving performance might be challenging.
- We are developing a new library, UQGrid.
- PETSc. Discrete sensitivities and adjoints.
- AD for f_θ .
- Parallelization (GPU).
- High performance and flexibility.

We look for users, collaborators.

Thank You

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Sensitivities

Let $f : S \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^m$, $S \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$ be a vector function, and let z be an interior point of S the second-degree Taylor expansion:

$$f(z + d) = f(z) + \mathcal{J}d + \frac{1}{2}(I_m \otimes d^T)\mathcal{H}d + \mathbf{O}(\|d\|^3)$$

Here \mathcal{J} is the Jacobian matrix, \mathcal{H} is the Hessian matrix. The quadratic term:

$$(I_m \otimes d^T)\mathcal{H}d = \begin{bmatrix} d^T \mathcal{H}_1 d \\ d^T \mathcal{H}_2 d \\ \vdots \\ d^T \mathcal{H}_m d \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Often, we are interested in sensitivities with respect to a vector parameter. For instance, given $f(t, x, \theta)$, then $f_\theta(t, x, \theta) = \frac{\partial f(t, x, \theta)}{\partial \theta}$.