

A Data-Driven Framework for Assessing Cold Load Pick-Up Demand in Service Restoration

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Abstract—Cold load pick-up (CLPU) has been a critical concern to utilities. Researchers and industry practitioners have underlined the impact of CLPU on distribution system design and service restoration. The recent large-scale deployment of smart meters has provided the industry with a huge amount of data that are highly granular, both temporally and spatially. In this paper, a data-driven framework is proposed for assessing CLPU demand of residential customers using smart meter data. The proposed framework consists of two interconnected layers: 1) At the feeder level, a nonlinear autoregression model is applied to estimate the diversified demand during the system restoration and calculate the CLPU demand ratio. 2) At the customer level, Gaussian mixture models and probabilistic reasoning are used to quantify the CLPU demand increase. The proposed methodology has been verified using real smart meter data and outage cases.

Index Terms—Cold load pick-up, distribution systems, service restoration, least squares support vector machine, Gaussian Mixture Model.

I. INTRODUCTION

COLD load pick-up (CLPU) is a challenging issue in electric power industry [1]–[3]. The CLPU demand is an increased load at service restoration phase due to the loss of load diversity. During normal system operation, the on-off switching cycles of thermostatically controlled loads (TCL) within a population of customers take place independently because of the heterogeneity of appliances and the diversity of customer behaviors. However, immediately after a long power outage in the restoration phase, the switching cycles of TCLs will coincide and become highly correlated for a period of time. This phenomenon is the main reason for the abnormal level of demand due to the temporary lack of diversity. In this paper, the term “CLPU demand” refers to this undiversified load during the restoration.

For feeders with high penetration of TCLs, CLPU can have serious consequences, such as restoration failure [4]–[8], transformers aging [9], [10], transformer overloading [11], and unacceptable voltage drops [12]. CLPU demand can continue several

minutes to even several hours after extreme weather conditions [2]. Hence, it is necessary to quantify the impact of CLPU on distribution system design and restoration. To achieve this goal, the primary task is to quantify the deviation of CLPU demand from normal (diversified) load in historical outage cases. This will help the utilities to extract useful information for future service restorations.

Previous papers have mainly focused on model-driven methods for CLPU demand assessment. In [1], a physical model was built for simulating steady and transient response of thermostatically-controlled residential electric space heating devices. Based on the developed model, the aggregate impacts of space heaters on feeder-level CLPU demand were analyzed. In [13], a simple and practical model was developed to represent temperature dynamics in a house with a thermostatically-controlled heater/air-conditioner. The model can be used in load management and aggregate CLPU impact evaluation. In [14], similar groups of elementary component load models were built and the load models in the same group were aggregated by using statistical techniques to simulate CLPU. In [15], a multi-state physical load model was developed to capture the behavior of end-use loads. Besides using air temperature as a control signal, other variables, such as price, can also be integrated into the model. In [3], the developed model in [15] was used to account for the multi-state operation of residential heat pumps. This model was then employed to estimate the magnitude and duration of CLPU demand. In [16], CLPU demands of seven houses with different types of electric heating equipment were measured, and field studies were also performed for load restoration process. Although [16] used field measurements to analyze CLPU demand, the employed dataset was procured from the measurements of only a limited number of residential customers, and it fails to employ estimation methods to capture the variations in the expected diversified demand at the time of restoration. Thus, previous works are largely dependent on detailed dynamic modeling of residential/commercial appliances.

While model-driven methods for CLPU demand evaluation offer benefits, such as physical interpretability and cost-efficiency, their disadvantages cannot be ignored. Residential loads depend on many factors, such as the types of appliances, the states of appliances, customer behaviors, and house thermal resistance and capacitance. Therefore, to accurately model a house load, enough detailed information should be collected, which is very challenging to accomplish for utilities in practice. This lack of such detailed information can lead to considerable

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86 modeling bias. On the other hand, in the past decade, smart meter
 87 data with high temporal-spatial granularity has become widely
 88 available to utilities [17], which provides an opportunity to ad-
 89 dress the shortcomings of previous model-based approaches.
 90 Specifically, the impact of all the aforementioned unknown factors
 91 can be reflected in the smart meter data. For example, a larger
 92 thermal inertia value results in a decrease in the rate of change
 93 of indoor temperature that leads to less power consumption at
 94 the time of restoration, which is then measured by the smart met-
 95 ers. Hence, utilities can obtain CLPU information from smart
 96 meter data with high fidelity, instead of relying on model-driven
 97 techniques, which need detailed explicit knowledge of thermal
 98 parameters and appliances' information. Considering this, in
 99 this paper, we will develop a data-driven framework to assess
 100 feeder-level CLPU demand ratio and customer-level CLPU de-
 101 mand increase. Compared with the model-driven methods, the
 102 framework can provide an approach for assessing CLPU demand
 103 without the need for developing specific load models.

104 The main contribution of this work is to propose a framework
 105 for assessing CLPU demand at the time of restoration, which
 106 is used for developing statistical CLPU models. The proposed
 107 framework consists of two layers: 1) At the feeder level, the ratio
 108 of the undiversified CLPU demand to the estimated diversified
 109 demand is obtained. To achieve this, a least squares support
 110 vector machine (LS-SVM) auto-regression model is employed
 111 to estimate the diversified demand under the assumption that
 112 the outage has not happened. Then the CLPU demand ratio is
 113 calculated by dividing the actual undiversified CLPU demand
 114 at the time of restoration by the estimated diversified demand.
 115 Finally, a CLPU ratio regression model is developed based on
 116 the obtained historical CLPU ratios under different outage dura-
 117 tion and ambient temperatures. The developed regression model
 118 can be used for predicting how the load behaves under new and
 119 previously unseen outage cases. Therefore, one innovative aspect
 120 of this paper is using a load estimation technique to assess
 121 feeder-level CLPU demand, which has not been applied
 122 in previous papers regarding CLPU demand evaluation. 2) At
 123 the customer level, a novel CLPU demand increase assessment
 124 approach is proposed. Gaussian mixture models (GMM) are ap-
 125 plied to devise a probabilistic technique towards constructing
 126 marginal probability density functions (PDF) of customer de-
 127 mand increase due to CLPU. Then the customer CLPU demand
 128 increase is analyzed statistically for a set of customers to evalu-
 129 ate the loss of load diversity. The performance of the developed
 130 framework is verified using real smart meter data from three
 131 Midwest U.S. utilities. We have also shown that using the pro-
 132 posed approach the PDF of demand increase due to CLPU can
 133 be estimated for any group of customers, which can provide an
 134 invaluable guideline for designing sequential restoration plans
 135 for distribution systems.

136 The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section II in-
 137 troduces the proposed framework of CLPU demand assessment
 138 and the real dataset. Section III presents the procedure of feeder
 139 CLPU demand ratio evaluation. In Section IV, the procedure
 140 of assessing customer CLPU demand increase is presented. In
 141 Section V, outage case studies are analyzed. Section VI
 142 concludes the paper.

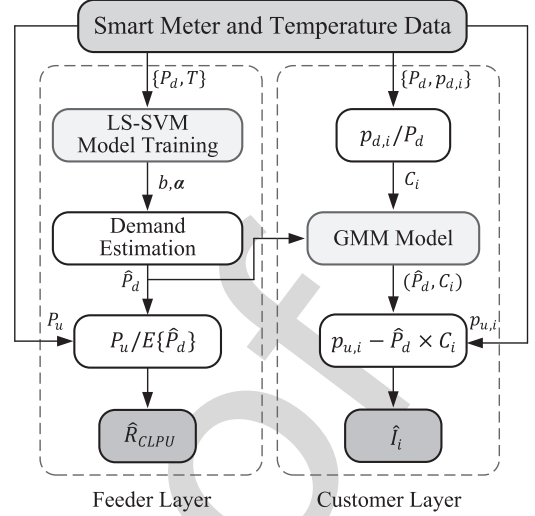


Fig. 1. CLPU demand assessment framework.

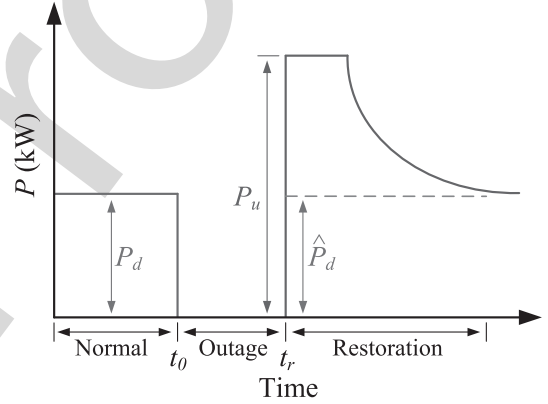


Fig. 2. Typical CLPU demand curve.

II. PROPOSED CLPU DEMAND ASSESSMENT FRAMEWORK AND REAL DATASET DESCRIPTION 143 144

145 This section presents a high-level overview of the proposed
 146 framework for feeder-level and customer-level CLPU demand
 147 assessment. We will also describe the real smart meter dataset
 148 available to us. Assuming customers' smart meter data during
 149 normal and restoration conditions is available to utilities, then
 150 the feeder-level demand can be obtained by aggregating time-
 151 aligned customer-level demand. The overall framework is shown
 152 in Fig. 1.

A. Feeder Layer 153

154 The objective of feeder-level CLPU demand assessment is to
 155 obtain the CLPU demand ratio, R_{CLPU} , defined as follows:

$$R_{CLPU} = \frac{P_u}{P_d} \quad (1)$$

156 where, P_u is the undiversified feeder demand at the time of
 157 restoration, t_r , after outage occurrence at t_0 , and P_d is the di-
 158 versified feeder demand at time t_r . However, as shown in Fig. 2,

the actual measured feeder demand at the time of restoration is undiversified due to CLPU. This implies that P_d at time t_r cannot be directly obtained from smart meter data, and needs to be estimated based on the demand data history during normal system operation. Hence, the first task at this level is to estimate P_d at the time of restoration. For this, we design a machine learning technique which is based on a nonlinear auto-regression model with exogenous input (NARX) and is implemented using LS-SVM. The LS-SVM is trained using historic P_d and temperature data to continuously predict the future diversified demand. Since the actual feeder load at the time of restoration is undiversified due to CLPU, the outcome of the machine learning model is the estimated diversified feeder demand *if the outage did not happen*. Therefore, taking the estimation residuals into account, the estimated diversified feeder demand \hat{P}_d at time t_r is modeled as follows:

$$\hat{P}_d = P_d + \varepsilon_{t_r} \quad (2)$$

where, ε_{t_r} denotes the machine learning estimation residual. Assuming that the residual follows a Gaussian distribution, namely $\varepsilon_{t_r} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$, with σ defining the machine learning framework uncertainty, the estimated diversified demand also follows a Gaussian distribution [18]:

$$\hat{P}_d \sim \mathcal{N}(P_d, \sigma^2) \quad (3)$$

Therefore, the CLPU demand ratio can be estimated as follows:

$$\hat{R}_{CLPU} = \frac{P_u}{E\{\hat{P}_d\}} \quad (4)$$

where, $E\{\cdot\}$ is the empirical averaging operator.

B. Customer Layer

The objective of this level is to construct the marginal PDF of individual customer demand increase due to CLPU at the time of restoration, denoted as I_i for the i^{th} customer and defined as follows:

$$I_i = p_{u,i}(t_r) - p_{d,i}(t_r) \quad (5)$$

where, $p_{u,i}(t_r)$ is the actual customer demand corresponding to the undiversified feeder load, and $p_{d,i}(t_r)$ is the customer demand at the time of restoration *if the outage did not happen*. Similar to the variable P_d in equation (1), since $p_{d,i}(t_r)$ is unknown and cannot be measured by smart meters, it needs to be estimated. However, compared to feeder demand, customer demand can be much more volatile. Considering this volatility, instead of directly estimating $p_{d,i}(t_r)$ for each customer, this paper adopts a probabilistic learning approach to construct the marginal PDF of the estimated customer demand at time t_r using the obtained \hat{P}_d for the feeder. Based on the demand data history from smart meters, a *contribution factor* is defined for the i^{th} customer, denoted as C_i , which determines the customer contribution to feeder demand (P_d). Note that C_i is obtained in normal state (without outage) when $p_{d,i}(t)$ can be measured

directly by smart meters, as follows:

$$C_i(t) = \frac{p_{d,i}(t)}{\sum_{j=1}^M p_{d,j}(t)} = \frac{p_{d,i}(t)}{P_d(t)} \quad i = 1, \dots, M. \quad (6)$$

where, M is the total number of customers connected to the feeder. Hence, during the normal operation, an individual customer demand can be determined as $p_{d,i}(t) = P_d(t)C_i(t)$. Noting the dependency of $p_{d,i}(t)$ on both $P_d(t)$ and $C_i(t)$, to obtain the marginal PDF of $\hat{p}_{d,i}(t_r)$, the joint PDF of the estimated diversified feeder demand ($\hat{P}_d(t)$) and the contribution factor at the time of restoration is constructed. This joint PDF is determined using a GMM technique, which employs past customer demand measurements and the corresponding estimated diversified feeder demand. It will be shown that a nonlinear transformation of this joint PDF can be used to obtain the marginal PDF for $\hat{p}_{d,i}(t_r)$. The CLPU demand increase for the i^{th} customer at the time of restoration, \hat{I}_i , is estimated as:

$$\hat{I}_i = p_{u,i}(t_r) - \hat{p}_{d,i}(t_r) \quad (7)$$

Note that given the obtained marginal PDF for $\hat{p}_{d,i}$, equation (7) also leads to a marginal PDF for the individual customer demand increase.

C. Real Dataset Description

The available smart meter data history contains three U.S. Midwest utilities' energy consumption data (kWh) of over 10,000 residential customers with a 15-minute time resolution, and the time range is about four years. This data includes time stamps which have been used for customer-level demands' time-alignment. When an outage occurs, the meter will keep a record of outage start time, end time, and the associated energy consumption readings. The ambient temperature data is obtained from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) database [19], and is time-aligned with smart meter data.

III. FEEDER-LEVEL DIVERSIFIED DEMAND ESTIMATION

In this section, a LS-SVM regression model is developed to estimate the diversified feeder demand, \hat{P}_d , at the time of restoration, which is then used to determine the CLPU demand ratio, R_{CLPU} .

The LS-SVM is based on a support vector margin maximization process to minimize the machine learning structural risk function. This regression model has many advantages, including good generalization capability and low susceptibility to local minima [18], [20], and has been employed in distribution systems [21], [22]. In demand estimation, the selection of explanatory variables is critical. The feeder demand at a certain time is primarily affected by the temperature at that time and is highly correlated with previous demand samples within a certain time period [18]. Demand also changes with seasons and days of week (working day vs non-working day). To capture seasonal and daily demand diversity, the dataset is divided across seasons and working/non-working days, respectively. The explanatory variable $\mathbf{x}(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, which acts as the input to the

251 demand estimation model, is built as follows:

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = [P_d(t-1), \dots, P_d(t-n_{lag}), T(t)]^\top \quad (8)$$

252 where, $P_d(t-i)$ is the feeder demand at time $t-i$, n_{lag} is the
253 maximum time lag, and $T(t)$ is the ambient temperature at time
254 t . Therefore, using this explanatory variable, feeder demand at
255 time t can be expressed as:

$$P_d(t) = \boldsymbol{\omega}^\top \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t)) + b + \varepsilon_t \quad (9)$$

256 where, $\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_h}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$ represent regression model param-
257 eters, $\boldsymbol{\varphi}(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n_h}$ is a mapping function, transforming low
258 dimensional input vector $\mathbf{x}(t)$ into a high dimensional vector
259 $\boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t))$, and ε_t is a normally distributed random variable rep-
260 resenting the estimation residual.

261 Given the current feeder demand and temperature values,
262 together with the past feeder demand samples with certain
263 time lags, a training set of size N_{tr} can be developed, $\mathbf{D}_{tr} =$
264 $\{\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{P}_d(t)\}_{t=1}^{N_{tr}}$. To obtain the optimal values of learning
265 parameters, a structural risk function, J , is formulated and min-
266 imized with respect to $\boldsymbol{\omega}$, b , and ε_t , over the training set. This
267 optimization is formulated as follows:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\omega}, b, \varepsilon_t} J = \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{\omega}^\top \boldsymbol{\omega} + \gamma \sum_{t=1}^{N_{tr}} \varepsilon_t^2 \quad (10)$$

$$\text{s.t. } P_d(t) = \boldsymbol{\omega}^\top \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t)) + b + \varepsilon_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, N_{tr}.$$

268 where, γ is a regularization constant to prevent overfitting. To
269 solve this optimization problem, the Lagrangian, \mathcal{L} , is con-
270 structed as a function of regression parameters:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\omega}, b, \varepsilon_t; \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = J(\boldsymbol{\omega}, b, \varepsilon_t) - \sum_{t=1}^{N_{tr}} \alpha_t (\boldsymbol{\omega}^\top \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}_t) + b + \varepsilon_t - P_d(t)) \quad (11)$$

271 where, α_t 's are Lagrange multipliers. The optimality conditions
272 are obtained by solving $\nabla_{(\boldsymbol{\omega}, b, \varepsilon_t)} \mathcal{L} = 0$, as follows:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\omega}} = 0 \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\omega} = \sum_{t'=1}^{N_{tr}} \alpha_{t'} \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t')) \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b} = 0 \rightarrow \sum_{t=1}^{N_{tr}} \alpha_t = 0 \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \varepsilon_t} = 0 \rightarrow \alpha_t = \gamma \varepsilon_t \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \alpha_t} = 0 \rightarrow P_d(t) = \boldsymbol{\omega}^\top \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t)) + b + \varepsilon_t \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

273 Combining equations (9) and (12), $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ can be eliminated from the
274 regression model as shown below:

$$P_d(t) = \sum_{t'=1}^{N_{tr}} \alpha_{t'} \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t'))^\top \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t)) + b + \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma} \quad t = 1, \dots, N_{tr}. \quad (13)$$

275 The term $\boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t'))^\top \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t))$ in equation (13) can be represented
276 by a *kernel function*, $K(\cdot, \cdot)$, as follows:

$$K(\mathbf{x}(t'), \mathbf{x}(t)) = \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t'))^\top \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{x}(t)) \quad t', t = 1, \dots, N_{tr}. \quad (14)$$

In this paper, a Gaussian kernel is employed to replace the dot
277 product in equation (14):
278

$$K(\mathbf{x}(t'), \mathbf{x}(t)) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}(t') - \mathbf{x}(t)\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right) \quad t', t = 1, \dots, N_{tr}. \quad (15)$$

Note that equations (12) and (13) yield a set of linear equa-
279 tions, from which the machine learning parameters, b and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ are
280 obtained for the given training set \mathbf{D}_{tr} :
281

$$\begin{bmatrix} b \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{1}^\top \\ \mathbf{1} & \Omega + \frac{1}{\gamma} \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \mathbf{P}_d \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

282 where, $\mathbf{P}_d = [P_d(1), \dots, P_d(N_{tr})]^\top$, $\mathbf{1} = [1, \dots, 1]^\top$, \mathbf{I} is the
283 identity matrix, $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = [\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{N_{tr}}]^\top$, and the entries of the ker-
284 nel matrix, Ω , are determined as follows:

$$\Omega_{t't} = K(\mathbf{x}(t'), \mathbf{x}(t)) \quad t', t = 1, \dots, N_{tr}. \quad (17)$$

285 It should be noted that b and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ can have different values as the
286 values of input parameters, n_{lag} , σ , and γ , change. To tune the
287 regression model with respect to input parameters, k-fold cross-
288 validation is performed. Moreover, mean absolute percentage
289 error (MAPE) is adopted as the criteria for evaluating the per-
290 formance of the regression model. After completing the cross-
291 validation and training procedures, which optimize the input
292 variables and learning parameters, the estimation accuracy of
293 the regression model is evaluated on a test set, \mathbf{D}_t , of size N_t .

294 The critical step in calculating feeder CLPU demand ratio
295 R_{CLPU} is to estimate the diversified feeder demand at the time of
296 restoration, t_r . Similar to equation (8), the explanatory variable
297 at time t_r is obtained as follows:

$$\mathbf{x}(t_r) = [P_d(t_r-1), \dots, P_d(t_r-n_{lag}^*), T(t_r)]^\top \quad (18)$$

298 where, n_{lag}^* is the optimal time lag. Using this explanatory vari-
299 able, the estimated diversified feeder demand at time t_r is deter-
300 mined based on the trained LS-SVM model, as follows:

$$\hat{P}_d(t_r) = \sum_{t=1}^{N_{tr}} \alpha_t^* K(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{x}(t_r)) + b^* \quad (19)$$

301 where, α_t^* and b^* are the optimal machine learning parameters.

302 Hence, R_{CLPU} is obtained by dividing the undiversified
303 feeder restoration demand by the empirically averaged estimated
304 diversified feeder demand at time t_r , as shown in equation (4).
305 Note that the empirical averaging process is performed consid-
306 ering the estimation residual distribution obtained from a test
307 set during normal system operation. An algorithmic overview
308 of LS-SVM model for assessing R_{CLPU} is summarized in
309 Algorithm 1.

310 IV. CUSTOMER DEMAND INCREASE ESTIMATION 310

311 Although the aggregate residential demand at feeder level
312 can be estimated with satisfactory accuracy, individual customer
313 consumption can be quite stochastic [23]. Fig. 3 shows the daily
314 demand curves of a single residential customer with and with-
315 out outage, with 15-minute resolution during a season. The gray

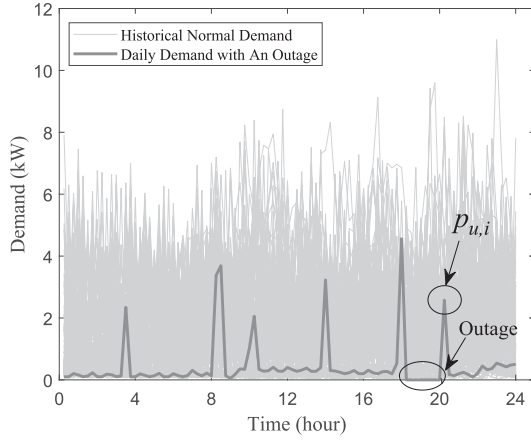


Fig. 3. Customer daily demand curves.

Algorithm 1: LS-SVM.

- 1: Split demand and temperature data into two parts: training/validation set, and test set
 - 2: **procedure** TRAINING/VALIDATION
 - 3: Select initial n_{lag}, σ, γ
 - 4: $\mathbf{D}_{tr} \leftarrow \{\mathbf{x}(t), P_d(t)\}_{t=1}^{N_{tr}}$
 - 5: $\Omega \leftarrow K(\mathbf{x}(t'), \mathbf{x}(t)) \quad t', t = 1, \dots, N_{tr}$.
 - 6: $\mathbf{P}_d \leftarrow [P_d(1), \dots, P_d(N_{tr})]^T$
 - 7: Solve equation (16) to obtain α_t 's and b
 - 8: $\hat{P}_d(t') \leftarrow \sum_{t=1}^{N_{tr}} \alpha_t K(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{x}(t')) + b$
 - 9: Compute validation MAPE
 - 10: Change n_{lag}, σ, γ , do Step 3 to 9, optimize parameters, $n_{lag}^*, \sigma^*, \gamma^*, b^*, \alpha^*$
 - 11: **end procedure**
 - 12: **procedure** TESTING $n_{lag}^*, \sigma^*, \gamma^*, b^*, \alpha^*$
 - 13: $\mathbf{D}_t \leftarrow \{\mathbf{x}(t), P_d(t)\}_{t=1}^{N_t}$
 - 14: $\hat{P}_d(t) = \sum_{t'=1}^{N_{tr}} \alpha_t^* K(\mathbf{x}(t'), \mathbf{x}(t)) + b^*$
 - 15: Compute test MAPE
 - 16: **end procedure**
 - 17: **procedure** DEMAND ESTIMATION
 - 18: $(n_{lag}^*, \sigma^*, \gamma^*, b^*, \alpha^*)$
 - 19: $\mathbf{x}(t_r) \leftarrow [P_d(t_r - 1), \dots, P_d(t_r - n_{lag}^*), T(t_r)]^T$
 - 20: $\hat{P}_d(t_r) \leftarrow \sum_{t=1}^{N_{tr}} \alpha_t^* K(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{x}(t_r)) + b^*$
 - 21: **end procedure**
 - 22: $\hat{R}_{CLPU} \leftarrow P_u / E\{\hat{P}_d(t_r)\}$
-

316 curves are the historical daily demand data during normal operation and the red curve denotes the demand data in one day with
 317 an outage. The spikes represent the semi-periodic on/off cycling of customer appliances, which are captured by the smart meter.
 318 It can also be seen that customer demand at the interval [17.75 h, 20 h] equals zero, indicating an outage during this period. The
 319 plot shows that daily load curves do not present obvious cyclic behavior in contrast with the feeder demand. Also, customer
 320 peak demand at the time of restoration, $p_{u,i}$, is not necessarily larger than normal demand. Hence, considering the volatility of
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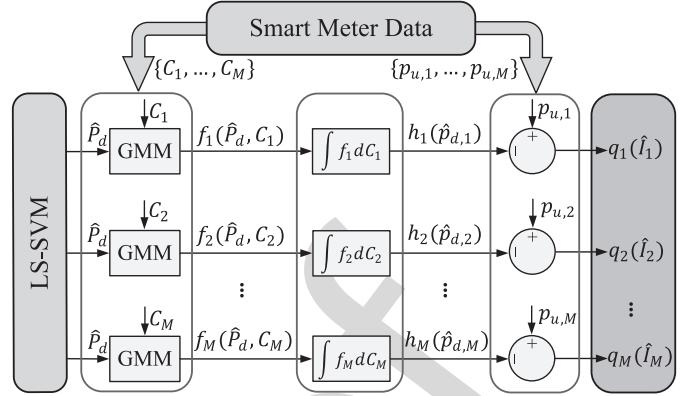


Fig. 4. Overall structure of the customer CLPU demand increase assessment.

customer demand, in this section a probabilistic method is proposed to determine \hat{I}_i . The overall structure of customer-level CLPU demand assessment is shown in Fig. 4.

As discussed in Section II, the estimated demand for the i^{th} customer at the time of restoration is obtained as follows:

$$\hat{p}_{d,i}(t_r) = \hat{P}_d(t_r) C_i \quad i = 1, \dots, M. \quad (20)$$

The difficulty in equation (20) is to compute the product of the two random variables \hat{P}_d and C_i . It is shown in [24], that using the joint PDF of two dependent random variables, the marginal PDF of their product can be obtained using a nonlinear transformation. Hence, denoting the joint PDF of \hat{P}_d and C_i by $f_i(\hat{P}_d, C_i)$, the marginal PDF of estimated customer demand $\hat{p}_{d,i}$ at time t_r is obtained as follows [24]:

$$h_i(\hat{p}_{d,i}) = \int_{0+}^1 f_i\left(\frac{\hat{p}_{d,i}}{C_i}, C_i\right) \frac{1}{C_i} dC_i \quad (21)$$

Therefore, the first step in calculating equation (21) is to obtain $f_i(\hat{P}_d, C_i)$ for each customer. To do this, a probabilistic technique is employed using GMMs. GMM is a parametric model, which approximates arbitrary PDFs as weighted summation of Gaussian density components. GMM has been previously applied in distribution systems studies for modeling the stochasticity of load and the uncertainty of distribution system state estimators [25], [26]. In this paper, we propose using GMM to model the joint PDF of customer contribution and the estimated diversified feeder demand. Thus, based on the estimated diversified feeder demand, \hat{P}_d , and contribution factor, C_i , for the i^{th} customer, the GMM approximation model, which is composed of S_i Gaussian components, can be expressed as follows:

$$l(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} w_j g(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j) \quad (22)$$

where, \mathbf{z} is a two-dimensional continuous-valued vector defined as $\mathbf{z} = [\hat{P}_d, C_i]$, w_j 's are the mixture weights corresponding to multi-variate Gaussian components $g(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j)$, which satisfy $\sum_{j=1}^{S_i} w_j = 1$. Thus, each component is a bi-variate Gaussian

355 function defined as:

$$g(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j|} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j|^{1/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{z} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j^{-1} (\mathbf{z} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_j) \right\} \quad (23)$$

356 where, $\boldsymbol{\mu}_j$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j$ are the component mean vector and covariance
357 matrix, respectively. Also, $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = \{w_j, \boldsymbol{\mu}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_j\}$, is the collection
358 of parameters of the GMM model that have to be learned.

359 With respect to GMM approximation, the model training ob-
360 jective is to obtain the optimal parameter collection $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^*$ that best
361 matches the distribution of the given training set. The train-
362 ing set is composed of C_i data history and \hat{P}_d samples. The
363 most well-established method for GMM training is the maxi-
364 mum likelihood (ML) estimation [27]. Given the training vec-
365 tors $Z = \{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_N\}$ with N samples, the GMM likelihood
366 can be written as:

$$l(Z|\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \prod_{t=1}^N p(\mathbf{z}_t|\boldsymbol{\lambda}) \quad (24)$$

367 Generally, this non-linear function can be minimized iteratively
368 with respect to $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ using expectation-maximization (EM) algo-
369 rithm [27]. Also, to tune the GMM models with respect to the
370 component number, S_i , k-fold cross-validation is performed.
371 To evaluate model performance with different learned $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$'s, the
372 Bayesian information criterion (BIC) is employed.

373 Based on the optimal $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^*$ obtained from equation (24) and
374 using equations (22) and (23), the joint PDF of estimated feeder
375 demand \hat{P}_d at time t_r and contribution factor C_i for the i^{th}
376 customer can be specifically written as,

$$f_i(\hat{P}_d, C_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{S_i} \omega_j g(\hat{P}_d, C_i) \quad (25)$$

377 where,

$$g(\hat{P}_d, C_i) = \frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_{\hat{P}_d}^{(j)} \sigma_{C_i}^{(j)} \sqrt{1 - \rho_j^2}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2(1 - \rho_j^2)} \left[\frac{(\hat{P}_d - \mu_{\hat{P}_d}^{(j)})^2}{\sigma_{\hat{P}_d}^{(j)2} + \frac{(C_i - \mu_{C_i}^{(j)})^2}{\sigma_{C_i}^{(j)2}} - 2\rho_j(\hat{P}_d - \mu_{\hat{P}_d}^{(j)})(C_i - \mu_{C_i}^{(j)})}{\sigma_{\hat{P}_d}^{(j)} \sigma_{C_i}^{(j)}} \right] \right) \quad (26)$$

378 where, $\mu_{\hat{P}_d}^{(j)}$, $\mu_{C_i}^{(j)}$, $\sigma_{\hat{P}_d}^{(j)}$, $\sigma_{C_i}^{(j)}$, and ρ_j are the corresponding mean,
379 variance, and correlation of \hat{P}_d and C_i for the j th component,
380 respectively. Hence, substituting equation (25) into (21), the
381 marginal PDF of the estimated customer demand, $h_i(\hat{p}_{d,i})$, is
382 obtained using numerical integration over the customer contri-
383 bution factor variable.

384 Finally, using equation (7), the marginal PDF of demand in-
385 crease for the i^{th} customer is constructed. Note that since $p_{u,i}$ is
386 directly measured by the customer's smart meter at the time of
387 restoration, it is treated as a constant value. Hence, the marginal

TABLE I
OUTAGE CASE INFORMATION

Case	Outage Duration	Ambient Temperature
1	33 min	38.5 °C
2	91 min	37.0 °C
3	128 min	39.0 °C
4	136 min	35.0 °C
5	61 min	31.5 °C
6	83 min	34.0 °C
7	47 min	35.5 °C
8	101 min	30.0 °C
9	46 min	25.5 °C
10	77 min	29.5 °C
11	93 min	38.5 °C
12	41 min	31.0 °C
13	65 min	36.5 °C
14	48 min	29.0 °C
15	63 min	38.0 °C
16	118 min	26.5 °C
17	107 min	32.0 °C
18	85 min	27.0 °C
19	35 min	29.5 °C

PDF of \hat{I}_i , denoted as q_i is obtained for each customer, as
388 follows: 389

$$q_i(\hat{I}_i) = h_i(p_{u,i} - \hat{I}_i) \quad (27)$$

V. CASE STUDY 390

Nineteen outage cases are observed for evaluating feeder-level
391 CLPU demand ratio and post-outage customer-level CLPU de-
392 mand increase. The case information is shown in Table I. 393

A. Feeder CLPU Demand Ratio Estimation 394

1) *CLPU Ratio Estimation and Regression Analysis:* Feeder
395 CLPU demand ratio is obtained by dividing the measured un-
396 diversified restoration demand by the estimated diversified de-
397 mand at the time of restoration. As shown in Fig. 5, a demand
398 overshoot occurs in the restoration phase, and the undiversified
399 demand is significantly greater than the estimated diversified
400 demand. Note that the undiversified CLPU demand (the spike
401 labeled as P_u in Fig. 5) is observed using smart meter data, and
402 is not estimated. Also, it is observed that once the restoration
403 phase is completed, the actual feeder demand drops back to the
404 estimated diversified levels. This corroborates the accuracy of
405 the LS-SVM framework. 406

Table II shows the values of R_{CLPU} and the LS-SVM estima-
407 tion MAPE. The performance of LS-SVM has been compared
408 with two other regression models: 1) the autoregressive model
409 with exogenous input variables (ARX), and 2) the polynomial
410 NARX (P-NARX) model [28]. As is observed in Table II, LS-
411 SVM shows better R_{CLPU} estimation accuracy compared with
412 the other two models. From Table I and Table II, the impact 413

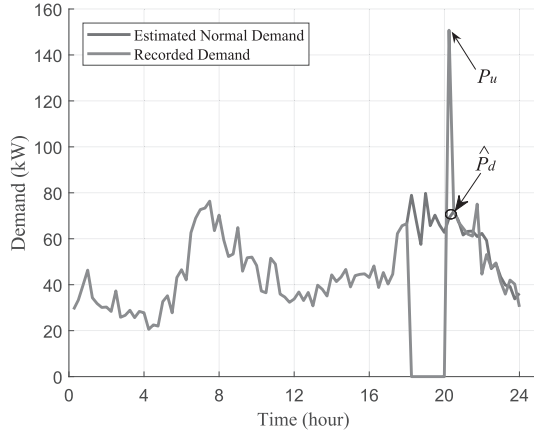


Fig. 5. Estimated diversified feeder demand curve and the recorded demand curve with an outage.

TABLE II
FEEDER CLPU DEMAND RATIO

Case	LS-SVM		P-NARX		ARX	
	Ratio	MAPE	Ratio	MAPE	Ratio	MAPE
1	1.41	5.45%	1.28	6.85%	1.37	6.38%
2	1.63	10.89%	1.56	13.59%	1.55	13.70%
3	1.88	11.56%	1.83	13.70%	1.81	13.55%
4	2.16	10.77%	2.25	12.30%	2.19	11.88%
5	2.87	10.48%	2.97	13.53%	2.88	10.45%
6	2.69	7.09%	2.72	5.62%	2.66	8.25%
7	2.40	8.51%	2.38	8.60%	2.34	6.80%
8	3.17	10.10%	3.31	11.42%	3.20	11.07%
9	2.71	10.85%	2.82	14.33%	2.79	13.47%
10	2.88	7.14%	2.95	9.53%	2.99	9.28%
11	2.06	9.52%	2.04	10.17%	2.00	13.85%
12	2.50	13.19%	2.54	14.43%	2.51	13.45%
13	2.22	5.21%	2.25	6.50%	2.21	5.08%
14	2.88	7.50%	2.94	9.53%	2.93	9.28%
15	1.97	9.18%	1.95	9.22%	1.98	9.17%
16	3.31	8.35%	3.35	11.07%	3.39	11.74%
17	2.74	5.07%	2.79	3.40%	2.74	5.16%
18	3.43	5.87%	3.50	8.83%	3.47	7.78%
19	2.35	9.74%	2.43	13.06%	2.42	10.93%

of outage duration and ambient temperature on the ratio can be observed.

Fig. 6 shows the regression analysis result of the estimated CLPU ratio in terms of outage duration (O) and ambient temperature (T). As can be seen, a surface is fitted to the data with acceptable accuracy using polynomial regression based on the estimated CLPU ratios. This CLPU ratio regression model provides an alternative way for estimating the CLPU ratio and demand in future system restoration cases. Also, as more outage cases are collected, the accuracy of the CLPU ratio regression model can be improved.

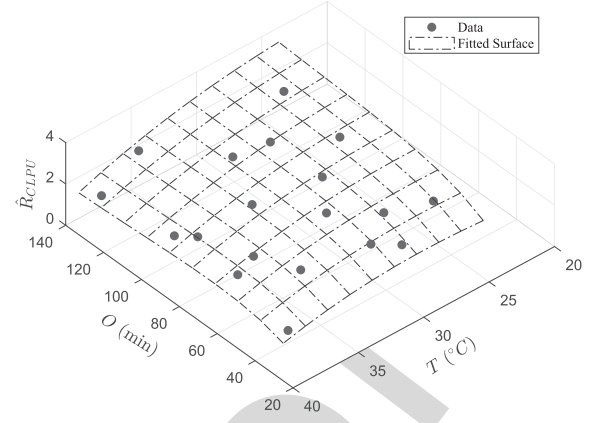


Fig. 6. Regression analysis of estimated CLPU ratios.

2) *Model Robustness Evaluation*: The robustness of learning parameters (σ and γ) has been tested in accordance with [29]. To do this, the following steps have been performed: first, 1% of demand samples in the training set are randomly selected. Second, the selected samples are contaminated by multiplying them with different contamination coefficients to generate outliers. The contamination coefficient is varied from 1 to 2 with step of 0.1. The contaminated demand outliers can be written as follows:

$$P_{ou} = P_{or} K_m \quad (28)$$

where, P_{or} is the original uncontaminated demand sample and K_m denotes the contamination coefficient. Third, for each contamination coefficient, the LS-SVM model is retrained to obtain the new learning parameters. Also, the MAPE under these new parameters is obtained over the test set. Finally, the ratios of the retrained learning parameters (with outliers) to the original learning parameters (without outliers) are calculated to quantify the changes in the model due to noise injection. These ratios are also obtained by dividing the estimation MAPEs of the model with and without outliers. The ratios are written as follows:

$$K_\sigma = \frac{\sigma_{ou}}{\sigma_{or}} \times 100 \% \quad (29)$$

$$K_\gamma = \frac{\gamma_{ou}}{\gamma_{or}} \times 100 \% \quad (30)$$

$$K_{MAPE} = \frac{MAPE_{ou}}{MAPE_{or}} \times 100 \% \quad (31)$$

where, σ_{ou} , γ_{ou} denote the retrained learning parameters after contamination, $MAPE_{ou}$ denotes the estimation MAPE corresponding to σ_{ou} and γ_{ou} ; similarly, σ_{or} , γ_{or} denote the trained learning parameters obtained from the original uncontaminated training set, and $MAPE_{or}$ corresponds to σ_{or} and γ_{or} . Fig. 7 shows the changes in learning parameters and test MAPE against the contamination coefficient. It can be seen that the estimation MAPE has been kept unchanged, since the LS-SVM has been able to automatically adjust itself to higher levels of noise to maintain satisfactory performance. In addition, parameter σ has been nearly kept constant as the contamination coefficient increases. However, parameter γ decreases as the contamination

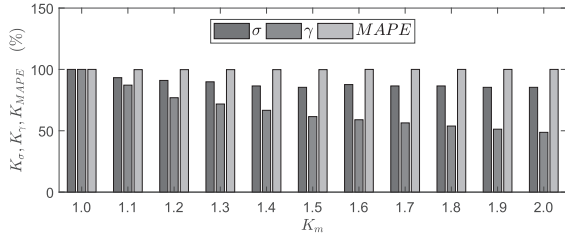
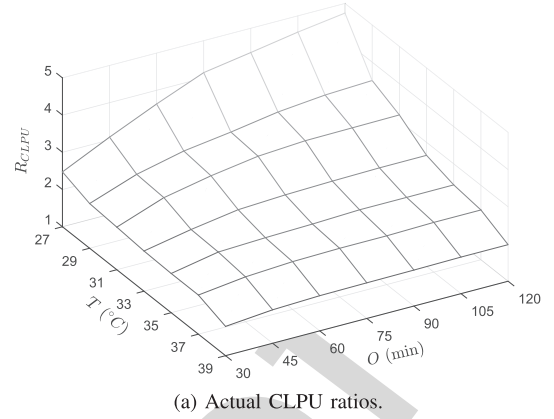


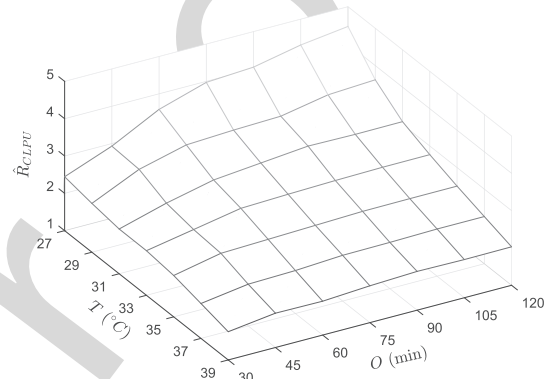
Fig. 7. Robustness evaluation of learning parameters.

456 coefficient increases, which can be justified using equation (10).
 457 As can be seen, in equation (10), γ is basically the regulariza-
 458 tion trade-off factor which determines the weight of the training
 459 set's inherent noise level during the training process. Hence,
 460 when we artificially increase this noise level in the training set
 461 through contamination, the LS-SVM training algorithm automa-
 462 tically decreases the weight assigned to the inherent noise
 463 parameter to keep the risk function at its minimum value.

464 3) *CLPU Ratio Validation*: Since the real diversified demand
 465 at the time of restoration is unknown, due to the undiversified
 466 nature of load, therefore, we cannot validate the estimated ra-
 467 tios using real outage cases alone. Considering this, we have
 468 conducted additional Monte Carlo simulations to validate the
 469 CLPU ratios. Specifically, 49 new outage cases with different
 470 outage durations and different ambient temperatures are created,
 471 and then, our proposed approach is applied to the data generated
 472 from these outage cases [30]. The basic steps of validation are as
 473 follows: first, the demand consumed by TCLs are generated using
 474 Monte Carlo simulations for a heterogeneous population of
 475 customers, obtained from appliance-level state-space modeling,
 476 both in normal operation and outage conditions; second, addi-
 477 tional appliances' consumed demands are added to the TCLs'
 478 consumed demands to obtain customers' net demands; third,
 479 feeder-level demand is obtained by aggregating customer-level
 480 loads; then, the proposed CLPU assessment framework is ap-
 481 plied to the data obtained from 49 outage cases to obtain cor-
 482 responding CLPU ratios; finally, ratio validation is conducted
 483 by comparing the outcomes of the proposed data-driven model
 484 and the simulation results. Fig. 8(a) and Fig. 8(b) show the ac-
 485 tual and estimated CLPU ratios, respectively. Note that the ac-
 486 tual CLPU ratios are obtained from Monte Carlo simulations,
 487 and the estimated CLPU ratios are obtained by applying our
 488 proposed framework to the demand data generated from these
 489 Monte Carlo simulations. In Fig. 8(a) and Fig. 8(b), T denotes
 490 the ambient temperature and O denotes outage duration. As can
 491 be seen, the estimated CLPU ratios can accurately match the
 492 actual CLPU ratios. The validation of CLPU ratio can also be
 493 demonstrated in Fig. 9, in which the CLPU ratio estimation per-
 494 centage errors (PE) are smaller than 9% for all cases, and 90%
 495 of the percentage error values are less than 6%, which validates
 496 the performance of the framework. This can also demonstrate
 497 the advantage of our proposed data-driven approach over the
 498 model-driven Monte Carlo simulator, showing that the CLPU
 499 ratio can be accurately estimated only based on the available
 500 demand data and without the knowledge of thermal parameters
 501 of individual customer houses.



(a) Actual CLPU ratios.



(b) Estimated CLPU ratios.

Fig. 8. Actual and estimated CLPU ratios.

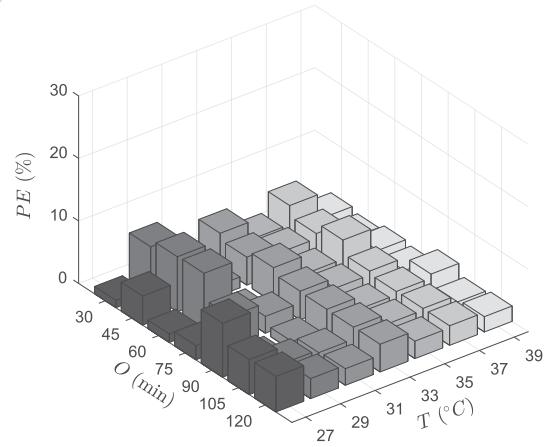


Fig. 9. CLPU ratio estimation percentage errors.

In practice, it is probable that a proportion of customers are unmonitored. Hence, it is of interest to analyze the performance of the proposed framework in scenarios where different proportions of customers do not have smart meters. This has also been demonstrated using Monte Carlo simulations, where the CLPU ratio estimation percentage errors are shown as a function of percentage of monitored customers in Fig. 10. It can be seen that as the number of monitored customers increases the accuracy of the proposed framework improves. Also, the framework still has

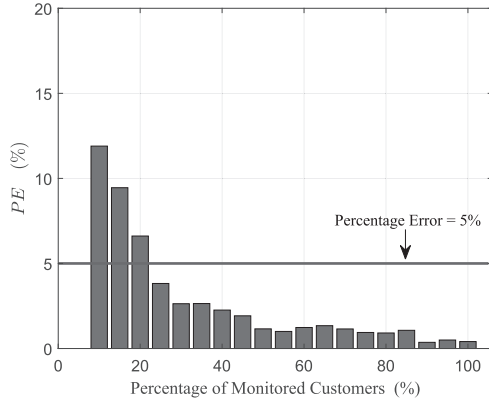


Fig. 10. Relationship between the CLPU ratio estimation percentage error with the percentage of monitored customers.

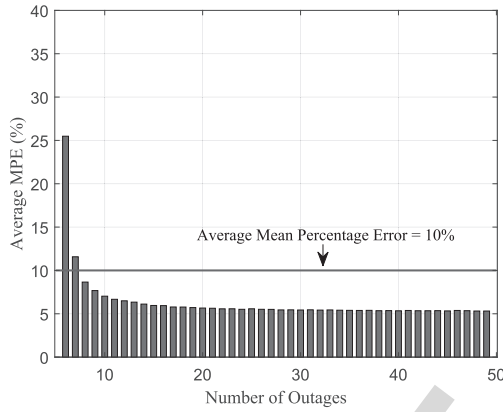


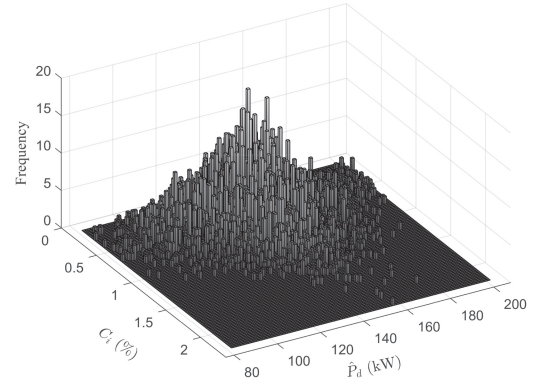
Fig. 11. Relationship between average MPE with the number of outages.

511 acceptable accuracy even when a high percentage of customers
512 are unmonitored.

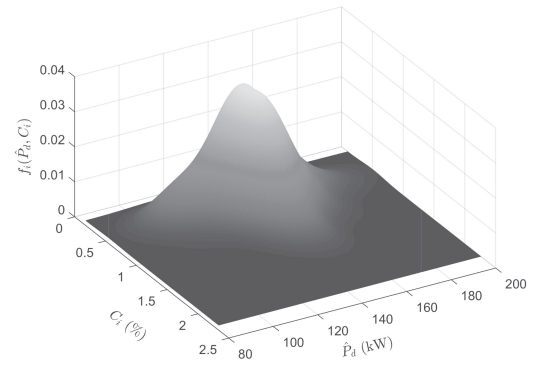
513 It is also of great importance to conduct robustness analysis
514 with respect to the number of available outage cases due to
515 the outage data scarcity. To do this, a training process has been
516 performed using random drop-out for cross validation. The performance
517 of the framework has been evaluated in terms of the CLPU ratio prediction
518 mean percentage error (MPE), and is plotted against the number of historical
519 outages, as shown in Fig. 11. As can be seen, to reach an average MPE
520 of smaller than 10%, a minimum number of eight outages is required in
521 this case. Hence, as more outage data become available, the accuracy of
522 the regression model is improved. This robustness analysis has also been
523 conducted on our utility data, and a similar decreasing trend of average
524 MPE against the number of outages is observed.

526 B. Customer CLPU Demand Increase Estimation

527 Fig. 12(a) and Fig. 12(b) show the empirical histogram and the GMM-
528 based estimation of $f_i(\hat{P}_d, C_i)$ for one customer, respectively. As can be
529 seen by comparing these figures, GMM is able to accurately model the
530 behavior of the customer using smooth parametric Gaussian density
531 functions.

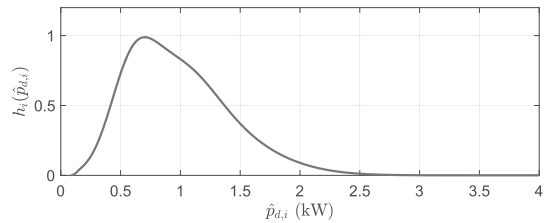


(a)

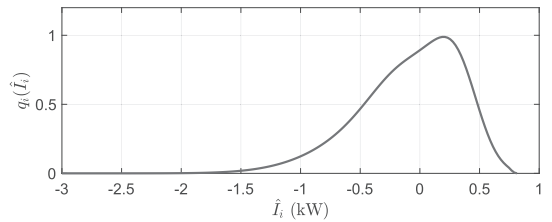


(b)

Fig. 12. Joint PDF estimation of diversified feeder demand and contribution factor for one customer. (a) Empirical histogram. (b) GMM-based estimation.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 13. Distribution of estimated demand and CLPU demand increase of one customer. (a) Distribution of $\hat{p}_{d,i}$. (b) Distribution of \hat{I}_i .

Fig. 13 shows the probability distribution of estimated demand and CLPU demand increase of one customer at time t_r . Note that the probable CLPU demand increase of the customer

532
533
534

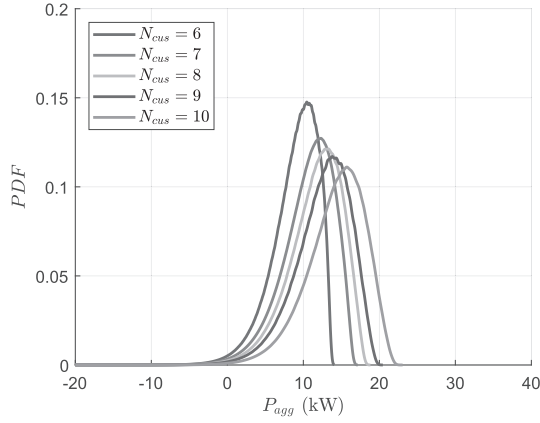


Fig. 14. Distributions of aggregate demand increase.

535 can be negative. This partly reflects the stochasticity of cus-
 536 tomer demand. Regarding system restoration issue, optimal ap-
 537 proaches have been proposed for restoring different groups of
 538 customers after extreme events in the literature [6]–[8]. Our pro-
 539 posed method can provide the marginal PDF of demand increase
 540 for a group of customers by convolving the marginal PDFs of de-
 541 mand increase of individual customers [31], which is useful for
 542 the utilities to perform restoration risk evaluation. For instance,
 543 Fig. 14 shows the PDFs of aggregate demand increase (P_{agg})
 544 for N_{cus} customers connected to the same transformer. Hence,
 545 the impact of CLPU demand increase on the transformer can
 546 be accurately quantified. As can be seen, as the number of cus-
 547 tomers increases the expected aggregate demand increase also
 548 shifts towards larger values.

549 To evaluate the loss of load diversity for a population of cus-
 550 tomers, the following index is defined for each customer:

$$\mathbb{P}_{I_0,i} = \Pr(\hat{I}_i \geq I_0) \quad (32)$$

551 where, $\mathbb{P}_{I_0,i}$ denotes the probability of estimated demand in-
 552 crease being larger than a threshold, I_0 , for the i^{th} customer,
 553 with $\Pr(a)$ defining probability of event a . Using this index,
 554 the factor $R_{lb}(I_0)$ indicates the percentage of customers with
 555 $\mathbb{P}_{I_0,i} > 0$, as shown in equation (33):

$$R_{lb}(I_0) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^M H(\mathbb{P}_{I_0,i})}{M} \times 100\% \quad (33)$$

556 where, $H(x)$ is the Heaviside step function defined as follows:

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases} \quad (34)$$

557 Fig. 15(a) shows the relationship between R_{lb} and I_0 . It can be
 558 seen that: 1) for $I_0 = 0$ we have $R_{lb} = 100\%$, which implies that
 559 all customers have non-negative CLPU demand increase with
 560 non-zero probability, and 2) R_{lb} decreases as I_0 increases, which
 561 indicates that the number of customers with $\hat{I}_i > I_0$ decreases
 562 as I_0 increases. This is determined by the maximum capability
 563 of customers' contribution to feeder CLPU demand. Fig. 15(b)
 564 shows $\mathbb{P}_{I_0,i}$ distribution boxplot as a function of threshold level

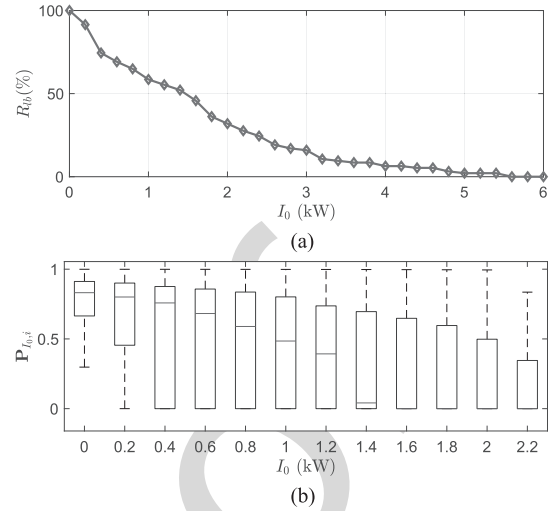


Fig. 15. Evaluation of loss of load diversity. (a) The relationship between R_{lb} and I_0 . (b) Distribution of $\mathbb{P}_{I_0,i}$.

565 I_0 . This figure describes the loss of load diversity during service
 566 restoration. For example, the first box tells us that almost
 567 all of the customers have $\mathbb{P}_{I_0} = 0$, $i > 0.5$ for this outage case.
 568 This means that nearly all customer' loads simultaneously start
 569 drawing more energy than normal from the feeder in the restora-
 570 tion phase. It can also be seen that the first quartile, the median,
 571 and the third quartile values of $\mathbb{P}_{I_0,i}$ present a descending trend
 572 as the threshold I_0 increases. This is consistent with the decreas-
 573 ing trend of R_{lb} , observed in Fig. 15(a). This implies that only
 574 a few customers have abnormally high demand increase during
 575 service restoration.

576 It is also of interest to discover the relationship between the
 577 uncertainty of customer demand increase and the uncertainty
 578 of customer behavior during normal system operation. To
 579 evaluate the uncertainty of customer demand increase at the
 580 time of restoration, the *entropy* of \hat{I}_i is obtained using $q_i(\hat{I}_i)$, as
 581 follows [32]:

$$E(\hat{I}_i) = - \int_{\hat{I}_i} q_i(\hat{I}_i) \log_2(q_i(\hat{I}_i)) d\hat{I}_i \quad (35)$$

582 On the other hand, to evaluate the uncertainty of customer
 583 behavior during normal system operation, customer demand is
 584 sampled on different days at the same time corresponding to
 585 the restoration instant. Based on these data samples the entropy
 586 of customer behavior is defined similar to (35) and denoted
 587 as $E(p_{d,i})$. Fig. 16 shows the relationship between $E(\hat{I}_i)$
 588 and $E(p_{d,i})$ for all customers. It can be seen that a positive
 589 linear relationship exists between the uncertainty of customer
 590 CLPU demand increase and the uncertainty of normal customer
 591 demand at the time corresponding to the restoration instant. The
 592 correlation between these two entropy variables is around 0.72,
 593 which implies that customers with uncertain normal demand
 594 also show more uncertainty at the time of restoration.

595 To assess customer demand increase due to CLPU, the rela-
 596 tionship between energy consumption within a 4-hour time

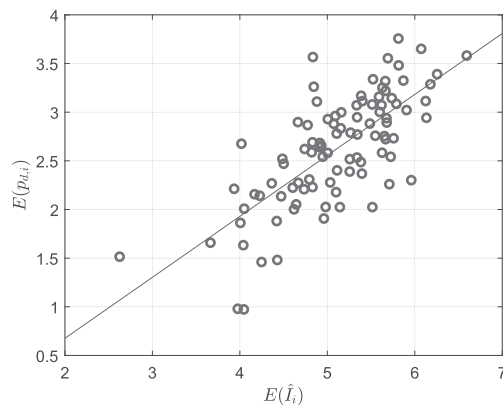


Fig. 16. Relationship between entropy of customer CLPU demand increase and entropy of normal demand at the time corresponding to restoration instant.

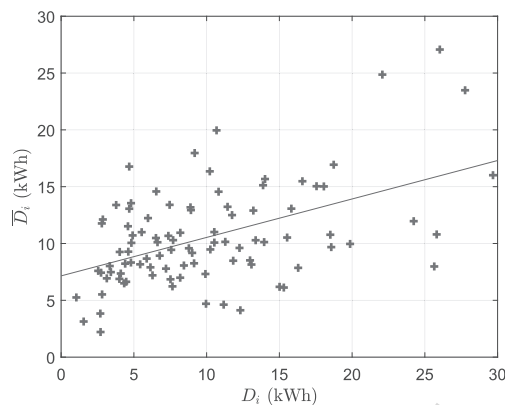


Fig. 17. Relationship between customer energy consumption after the time of restoration and average normal energy consumption at corresponding time period.

interval after time of restoration, D_i , and average energy consumption during the same time period in normal operation, \bar{D}_i , is analyzed. Fig. 17 shows the relationship between D_i and \bar{D}_i for all customers. The slope of the fitted line is smaller than 1, which indicates that customer energy consumption after the time of restoration is greater than average energy consumption in normal operation during the corresponding time period. Also, a positive correlation between D_i and \bar{D}_i is observed, which implies that higher energy consumption during normal system operation corresponds to higher restoration energy consumption.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented a data-driven framework for using smart meter data to determine feeder-level CLPU demand ratio and to assess customer-level demand increase due to CLPU, based on historical outage cases. Machine learning and probabilistic methodologies are used for CLPU demand assessment. Outage cases are employed for model training and verification. The results of case studies show that the proposed framework can accurately determine feeder-level CLPU demand ratio and assess customer-level demand increase due to loss of load diversity during service restoration. It is shown that only a few

customers have extreme CLPU demand increase, and customers with higher energy consumption during normal operation typically have higher demand during the restoration phase. The performance of the proposed data-driven framework is validated using extensive Monte Carlo simulations. It has been demonstrated that our method is able to accurately assess CLPU demand at both feeder- and customer-levels without having any explicit knowledge of individual houses' thermal information.

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