

# A Joint Distribution System State Estimation Framework via Deep Actor-Critic Learning Method

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**Abstract**—Due to the increasing penetration of volatile distributed photovoltaic (PV) resources, real-time monitoring of customers at the grid-edge has become a critical task. However, this requires solving the distribution system state estimation (DSSE) jointly for both primary and secondary levels of distribution grids, which is computationally complex and lacks scalability to large-scale systems. To achieve real-time solutions for DSSE, we present a novel hierarchical reinforcement learning-aided framework: at the first layer, a weighted least squares (WLS) algorithm solves the DSSE over primary medium-voltage feeders; at the second layer, deep actor-critic (A-C) modules are trained for each secondary transformer using measurement residuals to estimate the states of low-voltage circuits and capture the impact of PVs at the grid-edge. While the A-C parameter learning process takes place offline, the trained A-C modules are deployed online for fast secondary grid state estimation; this is the key factor in the scalability and computational efficiency of the framework. To maintain monitoring accuracy, the two levels exchange boundary information with each other at the secondary nodes, including transformer voltages (first layer to second layer) and active/reactive total power injection (second layer to first layer). This interactive information passing strategy results in a closed-loop structure that is able to track optimal solutions at both layers in a few iterations. We have performed numerical experiments using real utility data and feeder models to verify the performance of the proposed framework.

**Index Terms**—Actor-critic method, joint distribution system state estimation, distributed PV generation, secondary distribution network.

## NOMENCLATURE

A-C	Actor-critic
BCSE	Branch current state estimation
DSSE	Distribution system state estimation
DNN	Deep neural network
KDE	Kernel density estimation

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LV	Low voltage	40
MV	Medium voltage	41
PV	Photovoltaic	42
PDF	Probability density function	43
SM	Smart meter	44
TDE	Temporal difference error	45
$\mathbf{c}_n$	External input vector for secondary transformer $n$	46
$G$	Gain matrix	48
$H$	Jacobian matrix	49
$I_{Re,n}, I_{Im,n}$	Real and imaginary current components of secondary transformer $n$ .	50
$J$	Sum of squared residuals	52
$l_c$	Learning rate of A-C module	53
$N_{MV}$	Number of nodes in MV system	54
$N_{LV}$	Number of nodes in LV system	55
$\hat{\mathbf{p}}_s$	Active power injections of secondary transformers	56
$\hat{\mathbf{q}}_s$	Reactive power injections of secondary transformers	58
$\hat{r}_n$	Approximate measurement residuals of secondary transformer $n$	60
$r_n$	Actual measurement residuals of secondary transformer $n$	62
$\mathbf{u}_n$	Exploratory perturbation for secondary transformer $n$	64
$V_n$	Estimated voltage of secondary transformer $n$	66
$W$	Weight matrix	67
$W_{MW}$	Weight matrix of MV network sensors	68
$W_{p_s}, W_{q_s}$	Weight matrices of secondary network states	69
$\mathbf{x}_p$	Vector of primary network states	70
$\mathbf{x}_{s,n}$	Real and imaginary current components of secondary network $n$	71
$\mathbf{z}_{s,n}$	SM voltage and energy measurements of secondary network $n$	73
$\mathbf{z}^{MV}$	MV network sensor measurements	75
$\mathcal{A}_\mu, \mathcal{A}_\Sigma$	DNNs for parameterizing $\mu_n$ and $\Sigma_n$	76
$\boldsymbol{\alpha}_n$	Parameters of critic for secondary transformer $n$	77
$\delta$	Threshold for BCSE	79
$\pi_n$	Policy function of actor for secondary transformer $n$	80

82	$\mu_n$	Mean vector of secondary transformer $n$ states
83	$\theta_n, \gamma_n$	Learning parameters of DNNs in actor
84	$\Sigma_n$	Covariance matrix of secondary transformer
85		$n$ states
86	$\Sigma_{I_{Re,n}}, \Sigma_{I_{Im,n}}$	Components of $\Sigma_n$ corresponding to the states
87		$I_{Re,n}$ and $I_{Im,n}$
88	$\sigma_{p_s,n}^2, \sigma_{q_s,n}^2$	Variances of net active and reactive power for
89		secondary transformer $n$
90	$\nabla_{\alpha_n} \mathcal{C}$	Gradient of the critic DNN
91	$\nabla_{\theta_n} \pi_n$	Gradient of policy function with respect to $\theta_n$
92	$\nabla_{\gamma_n} \pi_n$	Gradient of policy function with respect to $\gamma_n$

## I. INTRODUCTION

**A**S MORE stochastic customer-owned distributed resources, such as photovoltaic (PV) power generators, are connected to low voltage (LV) secondary distribution grids, an urgent need grows for accurate and efficient system monitoring [1]. Specifically, topological details of secondary networks and the real-time measurements of customers have to be incorporated into distribution system state estimation (DSSE) to accurately capture voltage fluctuations across LV systems and quantify the impacts of these variations on medium voltage (MV) primary distribution feeders. Recent years have seen a rapid growth in the deployment of smart meters (SMs), providing a good opportunity to achieve this [2].

### A. Literature Review and Challenges

Most existing works have provided distribution system state estimation (DSSE) solutions only in a *disjoint manner* (i.e., by decoupling primary and secondary networks); these works can be roughly categorized into two general groups: (1) *Primary Grid DSSE*: multiple DSSE methods have been provided for MV primary distribution feeders, while aggregating all LV resources at the secondary transformers and disregarding the secondary grid topology and parameters [3]–[11]. The basic approach is to compensate for lack of a detailed secondary model in DSSE by estimating LV network losses, which can then be used as pseudo-measurements to revise measurement aggregation [12]. (2) *Secondary Grid DSSE*: Another group of papers has explored DSSE techniques for LV secondary networks while simplifying primary MV feeders [13]–[19]. Here, the primary feeder has been generally modeled as a constant voltage source to which the secondary network is connected.

All these papers use the SM measurements to monitor only one level of the distribution network and do not permit comprehensive monitoring of the distribution network at the LV and MV levels. Some previous works can be extended to a unified model of all primary and secondary circuits. However, such extensions can lead to computational blow-up due to the extremely large size of joint primary-secondary systems, especially for urban systems. In other words, these methods can take a time delay of several minutes in real-time applications, which may not truly reflect the current system states [20]. This lack of scalability contributes to unacceptable time delays in obtaining system states and hinders the online monitoring of modern distribution grids. Also, due to their disjoint approaches towards system monitoring, previous works in both groups can

fail to accurately capture the potential mutual impacts of LV and MV networks on each other; furthermore, the mutual impacts of several neighboring secondary networks connected to the same primary feeder have not been quantified. Consequently, disjoint DSSE solvers become untenable and less accurate as conventional distribution systems move towards more active grids with higher penetration of renewable resources that can cause multi-directional power flow across the grid and poses a great challenge for high-confidence pseudo-measurement generation. Under this new situation, previous modeling assumptions, such as constant voltage levels in primary feeders, can become too strong. The impact of secondary network topology on voltage fluctuations at the grid-edge can no longer be ignored.

To meet these problems, a natural solution is to devise a DSSE solution that is able to jointly monitor primary and secondary networks, referred to as joint DSSE. As per our knowledge on the topic, studies of joint DSSE are still limited. Few recent papers [21], [22] have proposed distributed multi-level architectures for performing DSSE at LV and MV levels. However, in these cases, several critical questions remain open, which may challenge the practical deployment of these joint DSSE methods. 1) The DSSE algorithms only have an open-loop one-directional flow of information from secondary to primary feeders, which can fail to capture the mutual impacts of LV-MV and LV-LV networks on each other, as the distribution grids become more active. 2) Previous joint DSSE methods focus on using the *cloud-based infrastructure* to interconnect the different DSSE levels. Such an infrastructure may impose additional communication costs on utilities. 3) These methods require the system to be completely covered by SMs or pseudo measurements. However, in actual grids, full coverage of SM and high-confidence pseudo-measure generation are rare. 4) Specific SM data quality problems, such as asynchronous errors and missing data, are ignored in these methods, which renders their practical implementation costly. 5) Primary and secondary networks have distinct parametric characteristics. For example, compared to MV systems, the LV networks have higher R/X values and typical branch impedance levels. This characteristic difference between primary and secondary systems can lead to severe ill-conditioning of these joint DSSE solvers.

### B. Overall Structure of the Proposed Hierarchical Joint DSSE Framework

In this paper, we have proposed a hierarchical reinforcement learning-aided framework for joint DSSE over primary and secondary distribution systems using customer-side SM data, as shown in Fig. 1. This work presents in detail how to coordinate the hierarchical levels of the SE architecture. Specifically, our framework consists of two layers: at the first layer, a weighted least square (WLS)-based branch current state estimation (BCSE) algorithm is performed over the primary feeder to obtain the states of the MV distribution network, i.e., real/imaginary branch currents. At this layer, all the secondary circuits are treated as aggregated nodes with net equivalent active/reactive power injections provided by the second layer of the hierarchy. Note that, the load data for each secondary node is treated as a variable and estimated using the second

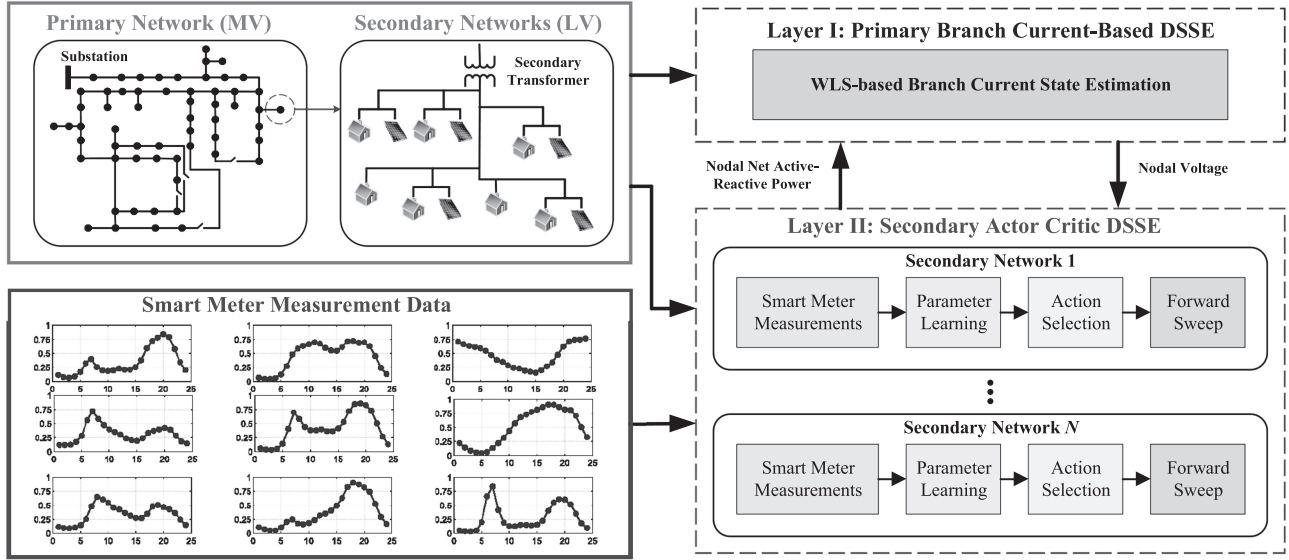


Fig. 1. Reinforcement learning-aided hierarchical DSSE framework.

layer model. Since the WLS is performed only over the primary feeder, it is computationally efficient. After obtaining the states of the primary feeder, the solver passes down the *estimated secondary transformer nodal voltages* to the second layer of the hierarchy. As shown in Fig. 1. This work presents in detail how to coordinate the hierarchical levels of the SE architecture. Specifically, our framework consists of two layers: at the first layer, a weighted least square (WLS)-based branch current state estimation (BCSE) algorithm is performed over the primary feeder to obtain the states of the MV distribution network, i.e., real/imaginary branch currents. At this layer, all the secondary circuits are treated as aggregated nodes with net equivalent active/reactive power injections provided by the second layer of the hierarchy. Note that, the load data for each secondary node is treated as a variable and estimated using the second layer model. Since the WLS is performed only over the primary feeder, it is computationally efficient. After obtaining the states of the primary feeder, the solver passes down the *estimated secondary transformer nodal voltages* to the second layer of the hierarchy.

At the second layer, the estimated transformer nodal voltage is utilized as input to update the nodal load data by solving a machine learning model. Specifically, a deep actor-critic (A-C) module [23] is trained for each LV network of secondary transformers. The goal of the A-C model is to estimate the states of secondary networks (i.e., secondary branch currents) by minimizing the residuals of customer SM voltage measurements. Unlike WLS, the A-C modules leverage their past experiences to adaptively improve their future performance and generalize to unseen situations. The training process takes place offline and the A-C modules are employed online to estimate network states. Thanks to the neural network implementation of the A-C model, the online computation cost is several orders of magnitude lower than that of the WLS method. For each LV secondary network, a nonparametric PDF estimation approach is utilized to generate real and reactive power injections. The OpenDSS software is then leveraged to run power flow analysis.

The computed voltages are treated as the voltage measurements, along with the generated load data of the observable customers and secondary transformers' terminal voltages generated at the first layer, used for A-C model offline training. The outputs of the second layer of the hierarchy, which are passed back to the first layer, are the net injected active/reactive powers to the primary feeder for each secondary transformer. These outputs are determined using the A-C-based estimated states of secondary circuits. Hence, the interaction between the two layers of the joint DSSE takes place at the secondary nodes, where nodal voltage flows from the first layer to the second layer and active/reactive power injections are passed in reverse. At each iteration of this closed-loop interaction, each layer revises the states of the network in response to the received inputs from another layer.

The main contributions of our joint DSSE framework can be summarized as follows:

- The proposed method provides comprehensive monitoring of the distribution network at the LV and MV levels. The estimation process has a closed-loop structure to accurately quantify the mutual impacts of primary-secondary networks and secondary-secondary networks on each other.
- Using the proposed A-C method, utilities can achieve a considerable speed-up in solving the joint DSSE in large-scale grids, which allows them to monitor the whole system in real-time. The distributed nature of the proposed framework allows for allocating the computational burdens of DSSE among multiple A-C modules, which further reduces the computation time.
- Compared to the traditional WLS-based method, our deep learning-aided framework eliminates the need for pseudo-measurements to avoid the additional imputation error. The offline training procedure is implemented using simulation data. In addition, our strategy can mitigate the impact of SM data quality issues, including asynchronous errors, missing data, and outliers, on the training process.

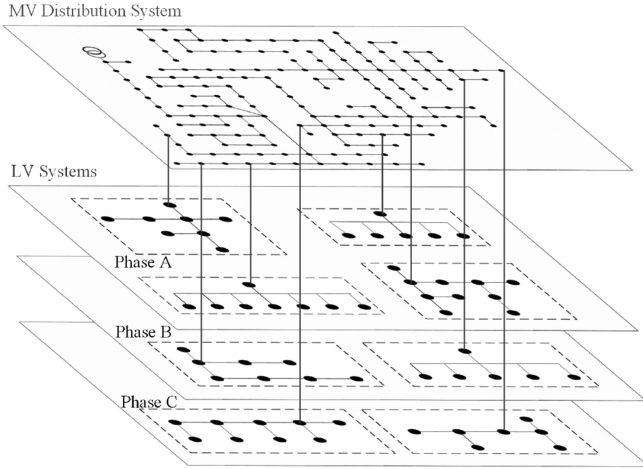


Fig. 2. A three-phase unbalanced MV distribution systems.

- The A-C module allows for explicit learning of the uncertainty of networks' states caused by measurement errors through parametric probabilistic policy functions, which can enhance overall monitoring accuracy.
- The proposed method is able to handle the topology changes in distribution networks. The rationale behind this is that the proposed method only utilizes the deep learning techniques to approximate the secondary-level estimation process. When a topology change occurs on the MV system, the Jacobin matrices in the first layer can be adjusted to accommodate this change.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: in Section II, the technical details of the proposed hierarchical joint DSSE are presented. In Section III, the numerical results have been analyzed to verify the performance of the joint DSSE method. In Section IV, paper conclusions are presented.

## II. DEEP ACTOR-CRITIC STRATEGY FOR JOINT DSSE

Fig. 2 shows the common structures of distribution systems at the MV and LV levels. Each LV network is connected to an MV bus by using a single/three-phase transformer. The goal of the proposed method is to provide distribution system situational awareness for both MV and LV networks. In general, our joint DSSE model consists of two parts: an optimization-based solution that infers the system states of the primary-level network, and a deep learning-based method that estimates the customer-level states and provides feedback to the first model. Note that, in this work, the topology and line parameters are considered to be available in a given distribution network. This assumption is realistic and consistent with the recent expansion of smart grid monitoring devices. In some cases without this information, before implementing the proposed method, our previously designed topology and parameter identification method [24] can be applied to obtain complete and accurate system models for MV and LV distribution grids.

### A. Primary Network BCSE

At the first layer of the hierarchical joint DSSE, a WLS-based BCSE algorithm is performed over the MV network to minimize

the sum of squared residuals ( $J$ ) [25], [26]. In this paper, vector is in bold.

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{x}_p} J &= (\mathbf{z}_p - \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_p))^T W (\mathbf{z}_p - \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_p)) \\ \text{s.t. } \mathbf{z}_p &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_{MV} \\ \hat{\mathbf{p}}_s \\ \hat{\mathbf{q}}_s \end{bmatrix} \\ W &= \begin{bmatrix} W_{MV} & \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & W_{p_s} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} & W_{q_s} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where,  $\mathbf{x}_p$  is a vector denoting the primary network states, including real and imaginary branch current values,  $\mathbf{z}_p$  is a vector containing the MV network sensor measurements ( $\mathbf{z}_{MV}$ ), including supervisory control and data acquisition (SCADA) and distribution level phasor measurement units ( $\mu$ PMUs), and the estimated total active/reactive power injections of secondary transformers ( $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_s, \hat{\mathbf{q}}_s$ ) that are provided by the second layer of the hierarchy.  $\mathbf{h}$  is the primary network measurement function that maps state values to measurements.  $W$  is a weight matrix that represents the solver's confidence level in each element of  $\mathbf{z}_p$ , which consists of sub-matrices  $W_{MV}$ ,  $W_{p_s}$ , and  $W_{q_s}$  corresponding to  $\mathbf{z}_{MV}$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_s$ , and  $\hat{\mathbf{q}}_s$ , respectively. Here,  $W_{MV}$  is determined by the nominal accuracy levels of MV network sensors, e.g., the weight assigned to the measurements received from a specific sensor is selected as the inverse of measurement error variance for that sensor [25]. The elements of  $W_{p_s}$ , and  $W_{q_s}$  are determined by the estimated uncertainty of the secondary network states as elaborated in Section II-B.

Given the formulation (1), the WLS-based solver performs the following steps to estimate the states of the primary network:

- *Step I:* Receive the latest values of  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_s, \hat{\mathbf{q}}_s, W_{p_s}$ , and  $W_{q_s}$  from the second layer of the hierarchy (see Section II-B).
- *Step II:* Random state initialization ( $\mathbf{x}_p[0], k \leftarrow 1$ ).
- *Step III:* At iteration  $k$ , update the measurement function Jacobian matrix,  $H$ :

$$H = \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_p[k-1])}{\partial \mathbf{x}_p} \quad (2)$$

The elements of the Jacobian matrix for the BCSE method can be obtained for arbitrary feeders with known topology. More details of these elements can be referred to [27]. Hence, when the distribution system undergoes reconfiguration, the Jacobin matrix can be easily adjusted to accommodate this change.<sup>1</sup>

- *Step IV:* Update the gain matrix,  $G$ :

$$G(x) = H^T(\mathbf{x}_p[k-1])W H(\mathbf{x}_p[k-1]) \quad (3)$$

- *Step V:* Update the state values using the gain and Jacobian matrices to reduce measurement residuals:

$$\mathbf{x}_p[k] = \mathbf{x}_p[k-1] + G^{-1}H^T W (\mathbf{z}_p - \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_p[k-1])) \quad (4)$$

<sup>1</sup>Given that the secondary transformers are generally equipped with protection devices, when an outage happens in a radial system, a protective device isolates the faulted area along with the loads downstream of the fault location (i.e., the whole secondary distribution system). In other words, the topology of the secondary distribution systems is typically constant.

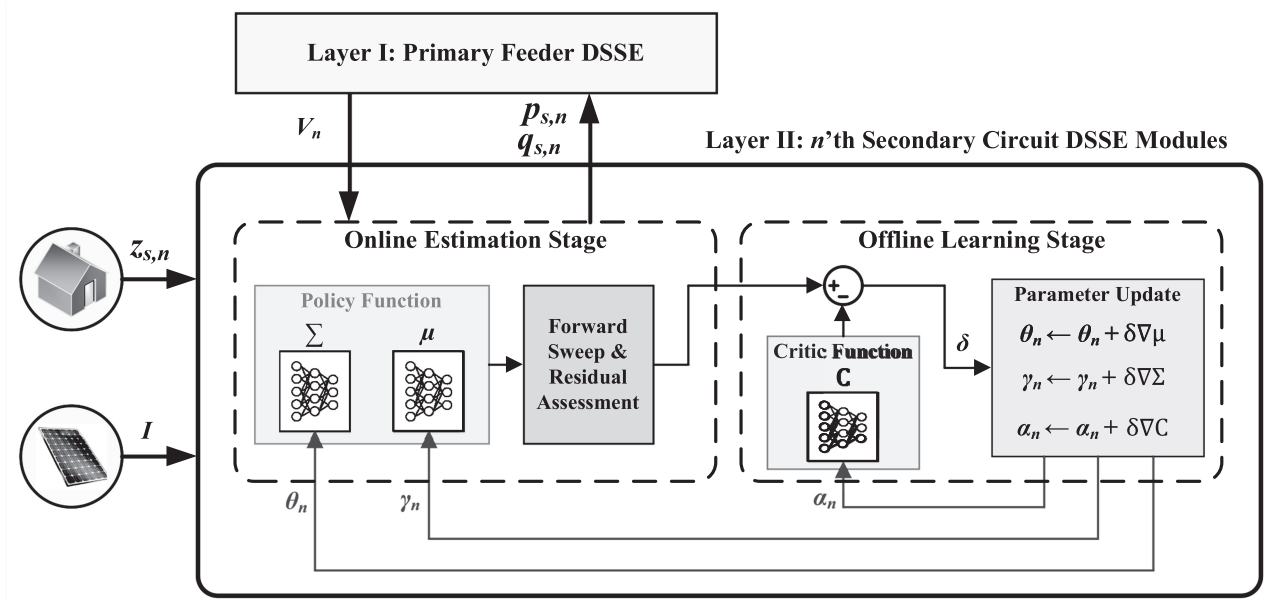


Fig. 3. Layer II: A-C-based DSSE for secondary circuits.

- 338 • *Step VI:*  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ ; go back to Step III until convergence, 370  
 339 i.e.,  $\|\mathbf{x}_p[k] - \mathbf{x}_p[k - 1]\| \leq \delta$ , with  $\delta$  being a user-defined 371  
 340 threshold. 372
- 341 • *Step VII:* Given the estimated values of the branches, 373  
 342 perform a forward sweep [25] to obtain the voltages of 374  
 343 secondary transformers throughout the network. Pass down 375  
 344 the estimated voltage of the  $n$ 'th secondary transformer 376  
 345 ( $V_n$ ) to the corresponding A-C module in the second layer 377  
 346 of the joint DSSE hierarchy. 378

347 To deal with unbalanced systems, as pointed out in [28], 379  
 348 a three-phase distribution line model that considers the self 380  
 349 and mutual impedance is used in BCSE. All aforementioned 381  
 350 equations still hold. Also, BCSE permits solving coupled and 382  
 351 decoupled versions of the WLS by including and ignoring mutual 383  
 352 impedances. Compared to traditional state estimation solutions 384  
 353 that use node voltages, BCSE adopts branch current as state 385  
 354 variables, which is a more natural way of DSSE formulation for 386  
 355 distribution systems [2]. The simplification of the measurement 387  
 356 functions helps improve computation speed and memory usage. 388  
 357 Therefore, BCSE is more suitable for large-scale distribution 389  
 358 grids. 390

### 359 B. Reinforcement Learning-Aided State Estimation for 391 360 Secondary Networks 392

361 The computational complexity of the conventional WLS tech- 393  
 362 nique is mainly determined by the *matrix inversion*, which 394  
 363 induces a complexity of  $O((N_{MV} + N_{LV})^3)$ .  $N_{MV}$  and  $N_{LV}$  395  
 364 refer to the number of nodes in the MV and LV system, res- 396  
 365 pectively. In general,  $N_{LV} \gg N_{MV}$ . Thus, running a BCSE 397  
 366 algorithm over the whole primary and secondary networks at 398  
 367 the same time is a *computationally intensive* task, especially 399  
 368 for large-scale urban systems (i.e., the value of  $N_{LV}$  can be 400  
 369 in the thousands). To solve this challenge, the second layer

of the hierarchy is designed with the objective of simplifying 370  
 and speeding-up the joint DSSE process to achieve real-time 371  
 monitoring, as shown in Fig. 3. 372

Inspired by the recent success of machine learning techniques 373  
 in the areas of image processing and computer vision, we have 374  
 leveraged a reinforcement learning technique, the A-C method to 375  
 handle the low observability problem in real-world distribution 376  
 systems. Specifically, the A-C parameter learning process takes 377  
 place offline, and the trained A-C modules are deployed online 378  
 for fast secondary grid state estimation. For each secondary 379  
 transformer, an A-C module is trained offline using simulation 380  
 data. More precisely, following previous works [29]–[31], a 381  
 nonparametric probability density function (PDF) estimation 382  
 approach, known as kernel density estimation, is utilized to learn 383  
 the conditional PDF of customer consumption and PV outputs 384  
 given the time of the day, using the historical data from observed 385  
 distribution systems. Such a nonparametric strategy can deal 386  
 with the non-Gaussian distribution of renewable power. To avoid 387  
 under-smoothing or over-smoothing issues, a calibration process 388  
 has been performed to optimize the value of kernel bandwidth 389  
 by minimizing the overall modeling bias [32]. In some systems 390  
 without reactive power measurements, empirical load power 391  
 factors are utilized to calculate the reactive power. Based on 392  
 the conditional estimated PDFs, a transformation method is 393  
 then applied to obtain real and reactive data for each customer. 394  
 By using Monte Carlo simulations, the computed voltages are 395  
 treated as the voltage measurements, along with the generated 396  
 net demand data of the observable customers<sup>2</sup> and secondary 397  
 transformers' terminal voltages generated at the first layer, used 398  
 for A-C model offline training. Thus, after model training, the 399

<sup>2</sup>Since residential PVs are typically integrated into distribution systems behind-the-meter, where only the net demand is recorded by SMs. The net demand equals native demand minus the PV generation.

data resource required for online state estimation only include the measurements of the observable customers and the estimated secondary transformers' voltages, which eliminates the need for pseudo-measurements and handles the low observability problem. It should be noted that additional available information, such as high-confidence pseudo-measurements, can also be added to improve the performance of the model, but is not required. One advantage of this training strategy is to mitigate the impact of SM data quality issues, such as asynchronous errors, missing and bad data, on the model development process. Further, in the online application, the proposed method can be easily integrated with previous data recovery methods to address the SM data quality problems [33], [34].

As detailed below, the A-C module is a combination of policy-based and value-based reinforcement learning, which has advantages from both. Specifically, A-C module consists of two deep learning components that are trained cooperatively: (1) the *actor* represents the secondary state estimation *policy function* ( $\pi_n$ ), which receives external inputs for the  $n$ 'th secondary circuit, including the SM voltage/energy measurements ( $\mathbf{z}_{s,n}$ ), and the estimated transformer voltage from the first layer ( $V_n$ ), and maps them to secondary states,  $\mathbf{x}_{s,n}$ . Here,  $\mathbf{x}_{s,n}$  are the real/imaginary components of secondary circuit branch currents. This mapping is formulated as a  $D_n$ -dimensional parametric multivariate Gaussian probability distribution function, where  $\mathbf{x}_{s,n} \in \mathbb{R}^{D_n}$  [35]:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_{s,n} &\sim \pi_n(\boldsymbol{\mu}_n, \Sigma_n) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\Sigma_n|}(2\pi)^{D_n}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{s,n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)^\top \Sigma_n^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_{s,n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)} \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where,  $\mathbf{c}_n = [\mathbf{z}_{s,n} \ V_n]$ , and  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_n$  and  $\Sigma_n$  are the  $n$ 'th secondary circuit state mean vector and covariance matrix, respectively. In this paper, these two statistical factors are parameterized using two deep neural networks (DNNs),  $\mathcal{A}_\mu$  and  $\mathcal{A}_\Sigma$ , with parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_n$  and  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_n$ :

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_n = \mathcal{A}_\mu(\mathbf{c}_n | \boldsymbol{\theta}_n) \quad (6)$$

$$\Sigma_n = \mathcal{A}_\Sigma(\mathbf{c}_n | \boldsymbol{\gamma}_n) \quad (7)$$

Basically, parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_n$  and  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_n$  are the weight and biases assigned to the synapses in the DNNs, which need to be learned. This enables the operator to accurately quantify, not only the expected value of the secondary circuit states, but also their uncertainty, which is a critical element in grids with high renewable penetration. (2) The *critic* is a DNN denoted by  $\mathcal{C}$  with parameters  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_n$  for the  $n$ 'th circuit, which quantifies how well the actor is performing. In our problem, the critic tries to predict the secondary network estimation residuals based on the inputs to the second layer:

$$\hat{r}_n = \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{c}_n | \boldsymbol{\alpha}_n) \quad (8)$$

where,  $\hat{r}_n$  represents the approximate residuals; ideally, if the critic has perfect performance, then,  $\hat{r}_n = r_n$ , meaning that the predicted residuals are equal to the realized measurement residuals  $r_n$ .

Given the defined A-C modules, the computational process at the second layer of the hierarchy consists of a state estimation stage (A), which is performed jointly with the first layer, and

a parameter update stage (B), which is confined to the second layer alone.

- *Stage A - [Joint DSSE]*
- *Step A-I:* Input the learned A-C parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_n$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_n$ , and  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_n$ .
- *Step A-II:* Receive the updated  $V_n$  from the first layer, and construct the external input vector,  $\mathbf{c}_n$ .
- *Step A-III:* Construct the policy function  $\pi_n$ , according to (5), using parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}_n$  and  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_n$  and external inputs  $\mathbf{c}_n$ .
- *Step A-IV:* Sample secondary circuit states in real-time using the constructed policy function,  $\mathbf{x}_{s,n} \leftarrow \pi_n$ .
- *Step A-V:* Use generated states to perform a forward sweep [25] over the secondary circuit to obtain the net active/reactive power injections at the transformer node,  $\hat{p}_{s,n}$  and  $\hat{q}_{s,n}$ , as follows:

$$\hat{p}_{s,n} = V_n I_{Re,n} \quad (9)$$

$$\hat{q}_{s,n} = V_n I_{Im,n} \quad (10)$$

where,  $I_{Re,n} \in \mathbf{x}_{s,n}$  and  $I_{Im,n} \in \mathbf{x}_{s,n}$  are the estimated net real and imaginary current components of  $n$ 'th secondary transformer.

- *Step A-VI:* To construct  $W_{p_s}$  and  $W_{q_s}$ , the variances of  $\hat{p}_{s,n}$  and  $\hat{q}_{s,n}$  need to be obtained. Noting that the uncertainty of LV circuits states are explicitly quantified by the covariance matrix of the policy function,  $\pi_n$ , we have:

$$\sigma_{p_{s,n}}^2 = (V_n)^2 \Sigma_{I_{Re,n}} \quad (11)$$

$$\sigma_{q_{s,n}}^2 = (V_n)^2 \Sigma_{I_{Im,n}} \quad (12)$$

where,  $\sigma_{p_{s,n}}^2$  and  $\sigma_{q_{s,n}}^2$  are the variances of the net active and reactive power for the  $n$ 'th LV system, and  $\Sigma_{I_{Re,n}}$  and  $\Sigma_{I_{Im,n}}$  are components of  $\Sigma_n$  corresponding to the states  $I_{Re,n}$  and  $I_{Im,n}$ , respectively. These variables are determined using  $\mathcal{A}_\Sigma(\mathbf{c}_n | \boldsymbol{\gamma}_n)$ . Therefore, the weights assigned to  $p_{s,n}$  and  $q_{s,n}$  in the WLS-based solver of layer I are equal to  $\sigma_{p_{s,n}}^{-2}$  and  $\sigma_{q_{s,n}}^{-2}$ , respectively.

- *Step A-VII:* Pass the net active/reactive power injection of all secondary transformers to the first layer of the joint DSSE framework,  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_s = [\hat{p}_{s,1}, \dots, \hat{p}_{s,N}]$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{q}}_s = [\hat{q}_{s,1}, \dots, \hat{q}_{s,N}]$ . Go back to Step A-II until  $V_n$  is stabilized.
- *Stage B - [A-C Parameter Update]*
- *Step B-I:* After the state estimation process has converged, re-sample states using the latest policy function,  $\mathbf{x}_{s,n} \leftarrow \pi_n + \mathbf{u}_n$ , where  $\mathbf{u}_n$  is a *exploratory perturbation* generated using a zero-mean uniform distribution. This perturbation allows the A-C module to actively search for potential improvements in the learned policy and escape local minimums.
- *Step B-II:* Estimate the secondary DSSE residuals from the critic, using  $\mathbf{c}_n$  and DNN parameters  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_n$ , according to (8).
- *Step B-III:* Use generated state sample and the latest value of  $V_n$  from Step A-VII, to perform a forward sweep over the secondary circuit to obtain the estimated voltages; use the estimated nodal voltages to obtain the realized residual,  $r_n$ .
- *Step B-IV:* Obtain the *temporal difference error* (TDE),  $\delta_n = r_n - \hat{r}_n$ , and use it to update the parameters of the

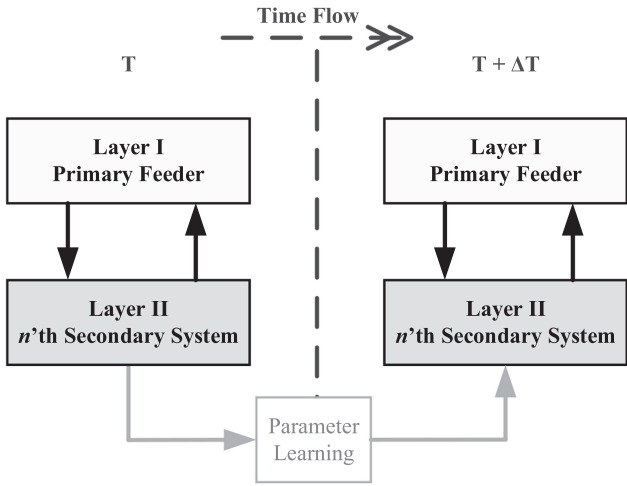


Fig. 4. Temporal function of the proposed hierarchical joint DSSE.

critic:

$$\alpha_n \leftarrow \alpha_n + l_c \delta_n \nabla_{\alpha_n} \mathcal{C}(c_n) \quad (13)$$

where,  $l_c$  is a learning rate, and  $\nabla_{\alpha_n} \mathcal{C}$  is the gradient of the critic DNN with respect to its parameters. This computation is performed using back-propagation over the DNN [23].

- *Step B-V*: Update the parameters of the actor, using the TDE:

$$\theta_n \leftarrow \theta_n + l_a \delta_n \mathbf{u}_n \nabla_{\theta_n} \pi_n(c_n) \quad (14)$$

$$\gamma_n \leftarrow \gamma_n + l_a \delta_n \mathbf{u}_n \nabla_{\gamma_n} \pi_n(c_n) \quad (15)$$

with  $l_a$  denoting the rate of policy learning. To obtain the gradient of policy function with respect to DNN parameters,  $[\theta_n, \gamma_n]$ , chain rule is applied to the two sets of parameters separately:

$$\nabla_{\theta_n} \pi(c_n) = \frac{\Sigma_n^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_{s,n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)}{\sqrt{|\Sigma_n|} (2\pi)^{D_n}} e^{-\frac{M}{2}} \nabla_{\theta_n} \mathcal{A}_\mu(c_n) \quad (16)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\gamma_n} \pi(c_n) &= \frac{-\Sigma_n^{-1}(I - (\mathbf{x}_{s,n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)(\mathbf{x}_{s,n} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)^\top \Sigma_n^{-1}) e^{-\frac{M}{2}}}{2\sqrt{|\Sigma_n|} (2\pi)^{D_n}} \\ &\quad \nabla_{\gamma_n} \mathcal{A}_\Sigma(c_n) \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

where,  $M = (\mathbf{c}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)^\top \Sigma_n^{-1} (\mathbf{c}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_n)$  is an auxiliary matrix. Note that  $\nabla_{\theta_n} \mathcal{A}_\mu$  and  $\nabla_{\gamma_n} \mathcal{A}_\Sigma$  in (16) and (17) are obtained using back-propagation over the two DNNs of the actor.

- *Step B-VI*: Move to the next time-step; go back to Step A-I.

Fig. 4 shows the temporal functionality of the proposed A-C method. As can be seen, the parameters of DNNs are updated and replaced across time steps, while on the other hand, the bi-layer estimation takes place at each time step given the latest values of parameters. This enables the hierarchical framework to adapt to changes in the feeder across time, while offering fast real-time monitoring capability to utilities. Thus, in rare cases with secondary topology changes, the proposed method can continuously update the parameters of both DNNs to adapt to

the new topology. Unlike most supervised learning-based DSSE methods that require retraining DNNs for new topologies, our approach provides a low-cost solution for topology change in both primary and secondary networks.

### C. Convergence Analysis

The two layers of our model continuously exchange boundary information, including transformer voltages (first layer to second layer) and active/reactive total power injection (second layer to first layer). A major challenge in this model is to ensure the convergence of system monitoring, especially at the earlier stage of training when unreliable estimates generated by A-C modules may cause numerical instability for WLS. To avoid this, we have designed a confidence weight-based strategy. The basic idea is to integrate the TDE from the second layer (i.e., A-C modules) into the confidence matrix of the first layer (i.e., WLS). The TDE is able to measure how well the DNNs infer system states over time, which is a good metric for determining the reliability of the estimated secondary network states. Therefore, the A-C modules with lower TDE will receive higher confidence weights at the WLS. Also, as we mentioned before, the A-C modules are pre-trained using simulation data, which further reduces the risk of numerical instability during online estimation.

## III. NUMERICAL RESULTS

This section explores the practical performance of our joint DSSE framework. As detailed below, the test system for this case study is a three-phase unbalanced distribution feeder that consists of a 60-node 13.8 kV primary feeder and 44 secondary circuits with a total number of 238 customers from a utility partner in the U.S. The topology of the primary feeder and two exemplary secondary networks are shown in Fig. 5. The real SCADA/SM data and MV-LV network OpenDSS models of this distribution feeder are utilized to verify our method. The data includes customers' energy/voltage measurements at the secondary networks, and total primary feeder active/reactive power and substation voltages. More details on the data are available online [36]. It should be noted that these real-world measurement data is naturally imperfect. According to our utility partners, an error tolerance of  $\pm 1\%$  can be expected. In addition, to further validate our method under noisy conditions, error samples were generated from a normal distribution with zero mean and 1% variance and added to the voltage values obtained from the OpenDSS simulator to represent standard measurement deviations [15].

To validate our hierarchical reinforcement learning-aided DSSE framework, we have assumed that 30% of the customers are randomly selected to install SMs in this feeder. This assumption is consistent with the number of recently reported SMs in the U.S.<sup>3</sup>. The locations of SMs are randomly selected. Distributed solar resources are added to the secondary networks to capture the impact of uncertain renewable resources on DSSE.

<sup>3</sup>By the end of 2020, an estimated 107 million SMs were deployed with an annual growth of 8 million devices from the previous year [37]. These SMs cover about 75% of U.S. households.

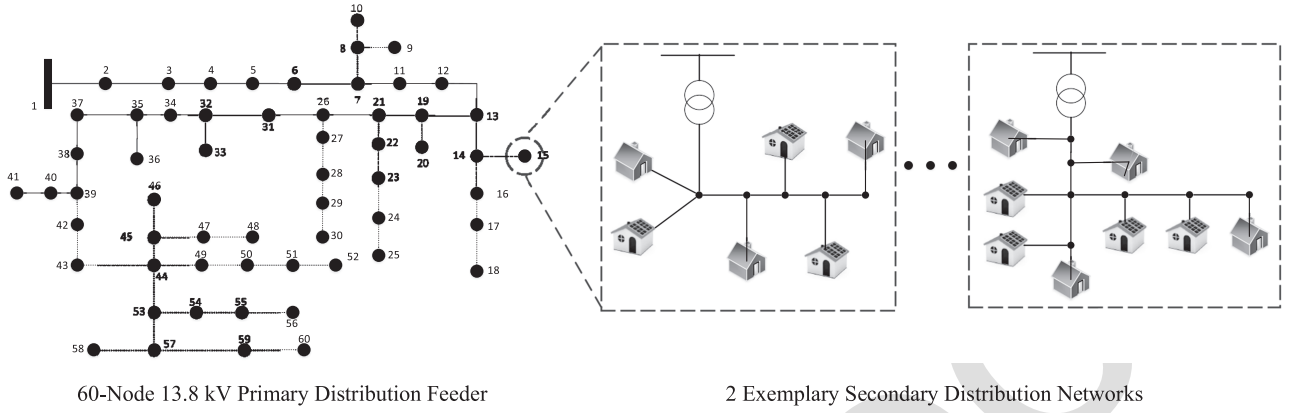


Fig. 5. Test feeder topology and secondary network examples.

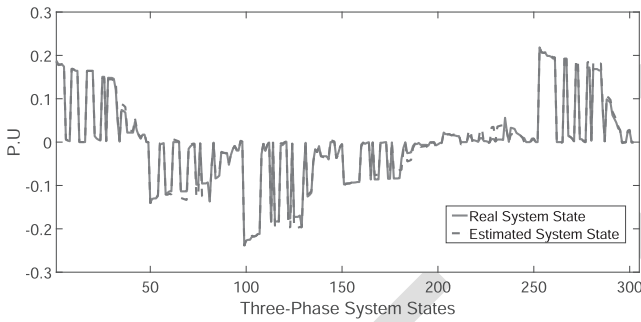
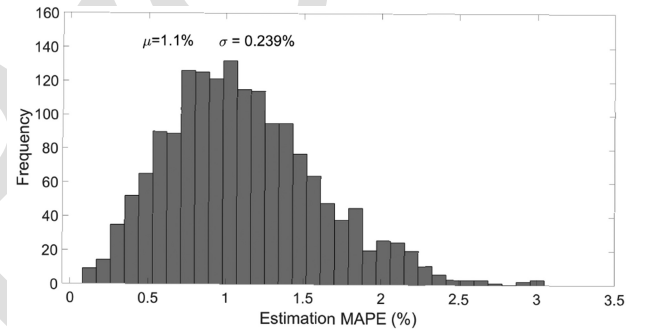


Fig. 6. Comparison of estimated system states and real values.

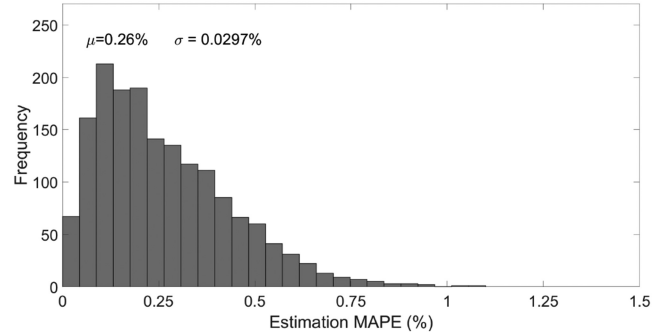
571 The penetration level of renewable power is 50% with respect  
 572 to the long-term average peak load. The solar power data is  
 573 adopted from [38]. In DSSE, the maximum error values for the  
 574 real measurements is 3%. In this work, the hyperparameter set  
 575 of the A-C modules is calibrated by using the random search  
 576 strategy [39]. As a result, the three DNNs,  $\mathcal{A}_\mu$ ,  $\mathcal{A}_\Sigma$ , and  $\mathcal{C}$ , consist  
 577 of 3 hidden layers of 10 neurons. The learning rates of actor and  
 578 critic,  $l_a$  and  $l_c$ , are selected as 0.01 based on the performance  
 579 of the validation process.

#### 580 A. The Performance of the Proposed Joint DSSE Method

581 The A-C module is trained for various secondary networks  
 582 in parallel based on the simulation data and tested using the  
 583 new data inquiry. In this experiment, for each LV network, the  
 584 number of training data is 1000. After model training, Fig. 6  
 585 compares the estimated primary-level distribution system states  
 586 (i.e., branch current real and imaginary parts) with the actual  
 587 state values using the proposed method at a specific time point.  
 588 As is demonstrated in the figure, the outcome of our method  
 589 closely follows the underlying states. It should be noted that our  
 590 test network is a three-phase unbalanced distribution system and  
 591 the phase connections of customers are known. Furthermore,  
 592 to validate the average performance of the proposed method,  
 593 we have tested our method over a long-term period (more than  
 594 1500 time points). The error distribution is shown in Fig. 7. The  
 595 Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) criterion is used here



(a) Voltage magnitude component error



(b) Voltage phase component error

Fig. 7. Voltage magnitude and phase estimation using the proposed reinforcement learning-aided hierarchical DSSE model.

to evaluate the accuracy of state estimation:

$$M = \frac{100\%}{n_s} \sum_{t=1}^{n_s} \left| \frac{\hat{A}(t) - A(t)}{\hat{A}(t)} \right| \quad (18)$$

where,  $\hat{A}(t)$  and  $A(t)$  are the actual state value and the estimated  
 597 value. As is demonstrated in these figures, the estimation errors  
 598 for voltage magnitude and phase angle are 1.1% and 0.26%,  
 599 respectively. These results corroborate the satisfactory performance  
 600 of the proposed model over real data.  
 601

Although our A-C-aided DSSE method can eliminate the need  
 602 for pseudo-measurement generation, the system observability  
 603 (i.e., SM penetration ratio) still impacts its performance due  
 604 to information loss. To demonstrate the sensitivity of the joint  
 605



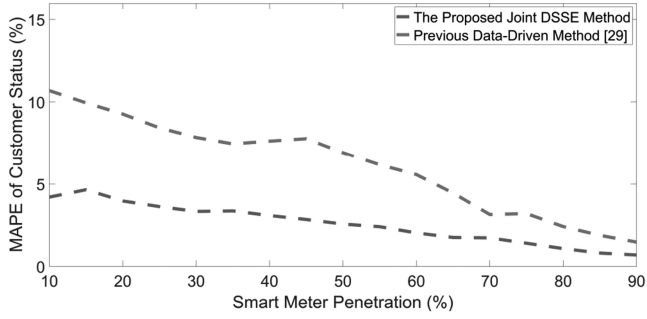
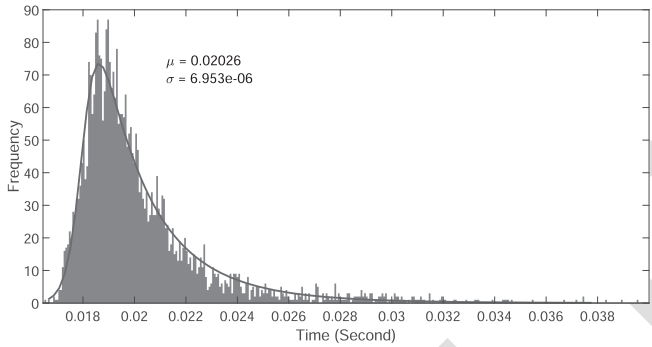
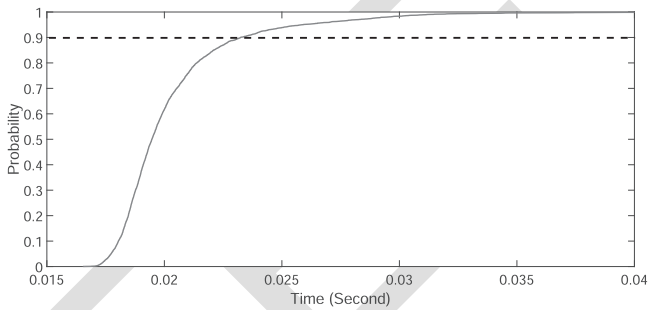


Fig. 8. Sensitivity analysis: quantifying the impact of observability (i.e., smart meter penetration) on state estimation accuracy.



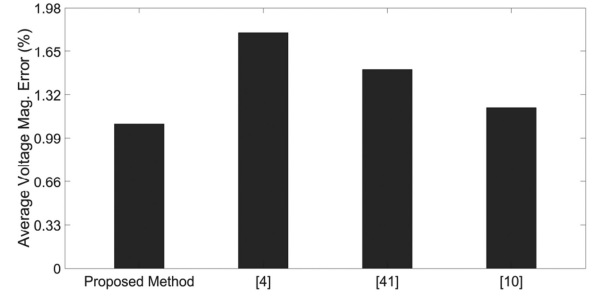
(a) Probability density function of online action selection time



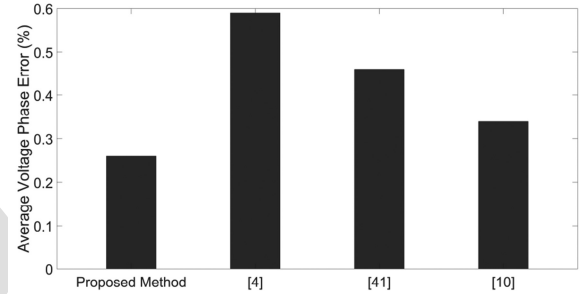
(b) Cumulative distribution function of online action selection time

Fig. 9. Statistical results of online action selection time.

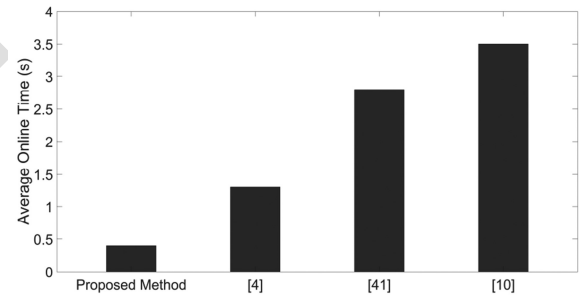
606 DSSE accuracy to the system observability, Fig. 8 shows  
 607 the secondary-level state estimation accuracy of the proposed  
 608 method under various SM penetration ratios by calculating  
 609 estimation errors for voltage magnitude and phase angle. SM  
 610 penetration is determined by the number of customers and SMs.  
 611 In this figure, the blue dashed line describes the state estimation  
 612 accuracy of the proposed method under various SM penetration  
 613 levels by calculating estimation errors for voltage magnitude  
 614 and phase angle. When the system observability is only 10%,  
 615 the error is around 5%. When the system observability is 50%,  
 616 the error is around 2%. Also, the accuracy of a previous machine  
 617 learning-based method is compared with our solution, as shown  
 618 by the red dashed line [29]. Based on the results of the two  
 619 data-driven methods, it is clear that the state estimation accuracy  
 620 decreases as the percentage of SM penetration decreases. Thanks  
 621 to its hierarchical nature, in this case, our method outperforms



(a) Comparison of voltage magnitude component errors



(b) Comparison of voltage phase component errors



(c) Comparison of online computation

Fig. 10. Comparison results between [4], [10], [40], and the proposed method.

the existing learning-based method at all observability levels. 622  
 Also, these results show that the proposed method can provide 623  
 a comprehensive and accurate monitoring of the distribution 624  
 network at the LV and MV levels. 625

## B. Method Comparison 626

To further demonstrate the performance of the proposed joint 627  
 DSSE framework, we have conducted numerical comparisons 628  
 with three state-of-the-art methods, including a multi-area DSSE 629  
 method [4], a hybrid framework [40], and an optimization-based 630  
 solution [10]. The three methods are simulated with the same 631  
 real-world datasets to calculate the accuracy of the methods. 632  
 The comparison results are shown in 10. As demonstrated in the 633  
 figure, in terms of voltage magnitude, the average estimation 634  
 errors are 1.1%, 1.79%, 1.51%, and 1.22% for the proposed 635  
 solution, [4], [40] and [10], respectively. In terms of voltage 636  
 phase angle, the average estimation errors are 0.26%, 0.59%, 637  
 0.46%, and 0.34%, respectively. In terms of online computation 638

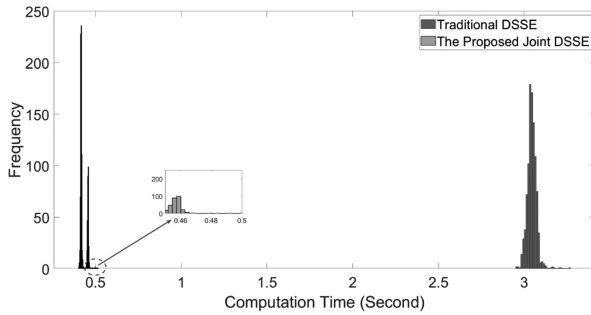


Fig. 11. Computation time comparisons (the proposed actor-critic-based method versus the traditional optimization-based method).

complexity, the average times are 0.4 seconds, 1.3 seconds, 2.8 seconds, and 3.5 seconds, respectively. A few observations follow: (1) The traditional optimization-based method (i.e., [4]) is more likely to be affected by the high penetration of renewable power resources than methods incorporating machine learning techniques, thus reducing accuracy. The rationale behind this is that it is hard to find a good heuristic initial guess due to the fast changes in the system states. (2) Among the machine learning-based methods, the proposed solution can achieve a better performance compared to the previous works. (3) Even though previous method (i.e., [10]) can be extended to a unified model of all primary and secondary circuits for comprehensive system monitoring, this extension leads to a significant increase in computational burden. (4) Compared with the multi-area and the hybrid methods (i.e., [4] and [40]), the proposed method decomposes monitoring into two interconnected layers and then limits Jacobian matrix computations to the primary feeders, thus significantly accelerating real-time monitoring. This comparison result demonstrates the competitiveness of our solution.

### C. Computational Complexity Analysis

To ensure that the proposed method can provide real-time monitoring in practice, we have tracked the computation time. Note that the case study is conducted on a standard PC with an Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU running at 3.70 GHz and with 32.0 GB of RAM. Fig. 9 presents the computation time distribution of the online action selection of A-C modules. Considering the uncertainty of the computation speed, 3500 Monte Carlo simulations have been performed. As shown in the figure, the majority of online action time are concentrated around 0.02 s. Moreover, based on the cumulative distribution function of online action time, almost 90% of simulations have online action time below 0.024 seconds, thus ensuring real-time system monitoring. Moreover, the computation time of the whole hierarchical framework is tested and compared to the WLS-based method [27]. Fig. 11 shows the computation time distributions of our proposed method and an existing monitoring model [27] over a 60-node distribution network. As can be observed, the computation time is reduced from about 3 seconds to about 0.5 seconds. In this case, our framework is able to significantly improve the computation time by an average factor of 6 times. It should be noted that our test system is a middle-size rural distribution feeder

that has a limited number of customers. Since the computation burden of the optimization method grows exponentially, our method's improvements in computation time would be higher in large-scale urban systems. Such low computational complexity also can help handle significant system state shift caused by distributed energy resources and plug-in electric vehicles in a short period of time [20]. Consequently, our joint DSSE solver can truly reflect the operating point of the modern distribution system.

## IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have presented a reinforcement learning-aided hierarchical DSSE solution to jointly monitor the primary and secondary distribution networks. Compared to previous works, the proposed solution is scalable to large grids and can accurately capture the impact of volatile grid-edge renewable resources on system states. Our model enables fast online estimation of secondary network states, while allowing for offline evaluation and updates of DNNs. Further, the proposed method can eliminate the need for pseudo-measurements and reduce the impact of data quality issues. The hierarchical joint DSSE method has been tested using real SM data and models of distribution grids. It is observed that after the estimation policy function is fully learned, the proposed method can accurately estimate the primary and secondary system states. Moreover, the results show that this solution is able to outperform previous monitoring methods in terms of estimation accuracy and computation time.

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