

Mitigating Smart Meter Asynchrony Error via Multi-Objective Low Rank Matrix Recovery

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Abstract—Smart meters (SMs) are being widely deployed by distribution utilities across the U.S. Despite their benefits in real-time monitoring, SMs suffer from certain data quality issues; specifically, unlike phasor measurement units (PMUs) that use GPS for data synchronization, SMs are not perfectly synchronized. The asynchrony error can degrade the monitoring accuracy in distribution networks. To address this challenge, we propose a principal component pursuit (PCP)-based data recovery strategy. Since asynchrony results in a loss of temporal correlation among SMs, the key idea in our solution is to leverage a PCP-based low rank matrix recovery technique to maximize the temporal correlation between multiple data streams obtained from SMs. Further, our approach has a novel multi-objective structure, which allows utilities to precisely refine and recover all SM-measured variables, including voltage and power measurements, while incorporating their inherent dependencies through power flow equations. We have performed numerical experiments using real SM data to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed strategy in mitigating the impact of SM asynchrony on distribution grid monitoring.

Index Terms—Smart meters, sensor asynchrony, low rank matrix recovery, multi-objective optimization.

NOMENCLATURE

23		
24	BCSE	Branch current state estimation
25	DSSE	Distribution system state estimation
26	MPE	Mean percentage error
27	PCP	Principle component pursuit
28	PCA	Principle component analysis
29	SM	Smart meter
30	WLS	Weighted least squares
31	G	Gain matrix
32	H	Jacobian matrix
33	h_i	Measurement function that maps state values to the measurement variable i
34		
35	I_{re}, I_{im}	Current real and imaginary values for all the branches
36		

	J	Sum of squared residuals	37
	L	Weight parameter for penalizing deviations from SM measurements	38
			39
	M_U	Voltage observation matrix	40
	M_U^*	Refined post-mitigation voltage matrix	41
	M_P	Nodal active power injection matrix	42
	M_P^*	Refined post-mitigation active power matrix	43
	M_Q	Nodal reactive power injection matrix	44
	M_Q^*	Refined post-mitigation reactive power matrix	45
	M_{MV}	Synchronized sensor measurements	46
	M_z	Measurement vector	47
	M_{PS}	Pseudo measurements	48
	$P_i(t_j)$	Measured active power at node i at time t_j	49
	$Q_i(t_j)$	Measured reactive power at node i at time t_j	50
	R	Branch resistance matrix of the system	51
	U_0	Squared voltage magnitude of substation	52
	$U_i(t_j)$	Measured voltage magnitude squared at node i at time t_j	53
			54
	W	Weight matrix	55
	X	Branch reactance matrix of the system	56
	x_s	System state vector	57
	Y_M, Y_S	Interim matrices using the latest solution updates	58
			59
	Z_M, Z_S	Interim matrices using the full history of the solution trajectory	60
			61
	α, β	Auxiliary matrices	62
	ΔS_U	Asynchrony voltage error matrix	63
	ΔE_U	Voltage measurement error matrix	64
	ΔS_P	Asynchrony active power error matrix	65
	ΔE_P	Active power measurement error matrix	66
	ΔS_Q	Asynchrony reactive power error matrix	67
	ΔE_Q	Reactive power measurement error matrix	68
	$\delta_U, \delta_P, \delta_Q$	Standard deviations of voltage, active power, and reactive power measurement errors	69
			70
	$\Gamma(\cdot, \cdot)$	Differentiable function for low rank matrices	71
	Γ_T	Total approximate sparsity norm for all the SM datasets	72
			73
	$\ \cdot\ _*$	Nuclear norm operation	74
	$\ \cdot\ _1$	1-norm operation	75
	$\ \cdot\ _F$	Frobenius norm operation	76
	$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$	Frobenius inner product	77
	$\lambda_U, \lambda_P, \lambda_Q$	Balanced parameters for voltage, active power, and reactive power measurements	78
			79
	μ_U, ν_U	Smoothness parameter	80
	$\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3$	Non-negative weights	81
	$\Psi(\cdot, \cdot)$	Differentiable function for sparse error matrices	82

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83	σ_i^2	Error variance of sensor i
84	$\tau(\cdot, \cdot)$	Aggregate gradient factor
85	$\zeta_j(A)$	j 'th singular value of an arbitrary matrix A .

86 I. INTRODUCTION

87 **T**HE WIDE-SCALE deployment of smart meters (SMs)
 88 provides a unique opportunity for utilities to enhance
 89 their situational awareness capabilities in distribution grids.
 90 By 2018, more than 150 million customers across the U.S.
 91 were equipped with SMs [1]. On the other hand, SMs are
 92 commonly counted among low-quality sensors. Specifically,
 93 SMs are asynchronous due to mismatching in sampling time
 94 among sensors in the grid, which can limit their applicability
 95 in real-time system monitoring [2].

96 Most previous works on distribution grid state estimation
 97 have assumed that SMs are perfectly time-aligned [3], [4].
 98 Only few works have studied the impact of time misalignment
 99 and asynchrony of various sensors on grid monitoring and situational awareness: In [5], [6], the statistical characteristics of
 100 time misalignment in distribution grid sensors have been estimated using Markov-modulated models. In [2], exponential
 101 load variation trends are exploited for developing confidence
 102 intervals for SM data samples in distribution system state estimation (DSSE) to compensate for time delays and asynchrony.
 103 In [7], a dynamic DSSE formulation is proposed for multitude
 104 of asynchronous sensors, which has proven bounded estimation errors. In [8], [9], meter clock synchronization errors
 105 are captured through Gaussian probability distributions and represented in DSSE. This idea was also applied in [10] to
 106 model measurement errors in grid monitoring. Most solutions
 107 proposed for mitigating SM data quality issues rely on *a priori*
 108 knowledge of error distribution structure and parameters,
 109 which can be difficult to acquire due to information scarcity.

110 In this paper, we propose a SM data recovery technique
 111 that is capable of mitigating the impact of asynchrony error
 112 in grid monitoring. Our method has three novel features: (1)
 113 We have noted that a rise in SM asynchrony results in a
 114 loss of mutual temporal correlation in their time-series data
 115 streams. This loss of temporal correlation can be translated
 116 into an increase in the rank of *observation matrices*, which
 117 store the measurement data from multiple SMs. Thus, we propose
 118 to cast the asynchrony error mitigation problem as a low
 119 rank matrix recovery process. For this purpose, we have leveraged
 120 principle component pursuit (PCP) techniques [11], [12].
 121 PCP employs data-centric optimization for decomposing SM
 122 datasets to identify and separate asynchrony error term from
 123 raw data. The main idea is that by manipulating the SM data
 124 and reducing the rank of the observation matrices, we will
 125 enhance the temporal correlation among the SMs which rolls
 126 back the adverse impact of asynchrony. (2) In addition to asynchronous errors, SM data has measurement errors that result
 127 from the imprecision (i.e., noise) of the measuring devices.
 128 Typically, SMs have a relative measurement error of about
 129 1%. Further, unlike image datasets, synchronous SM measurements and asynchronous errors cannot be exactly low rank and
 130 exactly sparse. These data properties hinder the applications of
 131 state-of-the-art low rank data recovery methods to deal with

SM asynchrony errors, such as robust principal component
 analysis (PCA) [13]. To deal with these problems, we utilize
 a relaxation to PCP that introduces an entry-wise noise term to
 represent SM measurement errors in the objective function and
 eliminate rank-1 constraints. (3) SMs are multi-modal, meaning
 that they can measure several different variables, including
 nodal voltage magnitude and nodal average active power (plus
 nodal reactive power, in some cases.) To mitigate the impact
 of sensor asynchrony, data recovery needs to be conducted
 over all measurement datasets simultaneously. However, since
 these multi-modal datasets are inherently interdependent due
 to the grid physics, a coordination scheme is required to
 revise all the datasets while capturing their dependencies. To
 achieve this, we propose a new multi-objective data recovery
 formulation that refines voltage magnitude, active/reactive
 power measurements (and pseudo-measurements), concurrently.
 The dependencies among these datasets are captured via approximate DistFlow-based constraints [14], [15]. We
 have developed a Nesterov-based technique to solve the PCP-based multi-objective optimization for recovering multiple SM
 datasets [16].

The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows.

- An important observation from real data is presented: asynchrony results in loss of temporal correlation among neighboring SMs. This observation can be quantified using the rank of the nodal voltage observation matrix.
- A novel low rank-based data recovery method is developed to fully mitigate asynchronization error in grid monitoring based on our observation.
- The proposed method considers various specific properties of SM data for enhancing the quality of the recovered data and ensure consistency with grid physics: 1) SMs can measure several different asynchronous variables; 2) SM measurements are statistically interdependent; 3) small entry-wise measurement errors exist within SM measurements.
- Our method handles SM asynchrony issue without needing high-resolution reference sensors, such as micro-PMUs, which are unavailable in most practical distribution systems.
- The proposed solution has been tested using real SM data and feeder models to verify its performance.

The rest of the paper is constructed as follows: Section II presents the proposed multi-objective data recovery method and our approximate first-order solution; Section III demonstrates the application of data recovery in grid monitoring; Section IV analyzes numerical results and verification of the proposed models; finally, Section V presents the paper conclusions.

II. MULTI-OBJECTIVE SM DATA RECOVERY STRATEGY

In this section, we lay out our data recovery solution for mitigating the errors caused by the asynchronous nature of SMs in distribution grids. This includes key ideas in developing a multi-objective optimization formulation, along with an approximate first-order algorithm to solve the model.

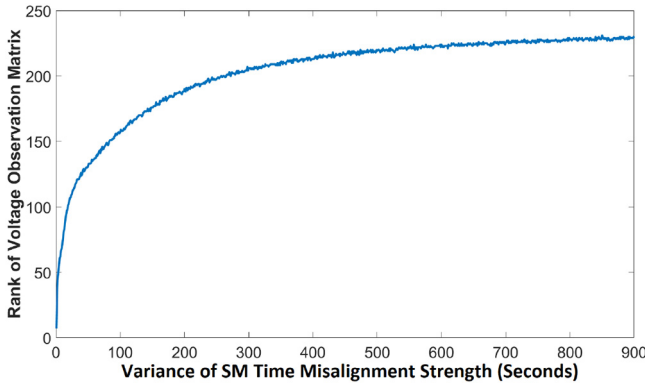


Fig. 1. Rank increase in M_U due to SM asynchrony.

195 A. Rationale

196 The available data from SMs can be organized into *observa-*
 197 *tion matrices*. These matrices capture the time-series measure-
 198 ments of several sensors within a given time window $[t_1, t_m]$.
 199 For example, the voltage observation matrix is as follows:

$$200 \quad M_U = \begin{bmatrix} U_1(t_1) & \cdots & U_N(t_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ U_1(t_m) & \cdots & U_N(t_m) \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

201 where, $U_i(t_j)$ is the measured voltage magnitude squared at
 202 node i and at time t_j . Note that each column of M_U corre-
 203 sponds to an SM. The observation matrices can be constructed
 204 at feeder-, lateral-, or service transformer-levels.

205 Our PCP-based data recovery model is based on a key obser-
 206 vation from real data: asynchrony among SMs leads to an
 207 increase in the rank of M_U . The increase in rank is caused by
 208 loss of temporal correlation among SMs, which translates into
 209 a decrease in statistical correlations in columns of M_U (i.e.,
 210 the columns lose linear dependency.) This observation can be
 211 backed-up by numerical experiments, as shown in Fig. 1. This
 212 figure shows the average rank of M_U at various time windows
 213 (measured for a grid lateral) as a function of strength of SM
 214 asynchrony (measured in terms of variance of time misalign-
 215 ment distribution.) As is observed, the rank of the observation
 216 matrix increases as the SM asynchrony intensifies. Note that
 217 this observation can be found on the data from SMs with
 218 diverse resolutions, including 15 minutes, 30 minutes, and 60
 219 minutes.

220 To fully capture and mitigate the impact of SM asynchrony,
 221 similar observation matrices can be defined for nodal active
 222 and reactive power injection measurements, denoted as M_P
 223 and M_Q , respectively:

$$224 \quad M_P = \begin{bmatrix} P_1(t_1) & \cdots & P_N(t_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_1(t_m) & \cdots & P_N(t_m) \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

$$225 \quad M_Q = \begin{bmatrix} Q_1(t_1) & \cdots & Q_N(t_1) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ Q_1(t_m) & \cdots & Q_N(t_m) \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

226 where, $P_i(t_j)$ and $Q_i(t_j)$ are active and reactive power measure-
 227 ments at node i and time t_j , respectively. Note that in general

SMs are capable of measuring both average active and reactive 228
 powers. However, in many cases, this function is not activated 229
 for residential sensors. Thus, in case the reactive power data 230
 is unavailable, *pseudo-measurements* can be applied instead to 231
 construct an approximate M_Q . Note that our method is robust 232
 to gross sparse errors, thus, it can handle the uncertainty of 233
 pseudo-measurements and low quality data. 234

B. Data Recovery Model 235

The main component of asynchrony error mitigation is to 236
 compensate for the loss of temporal correlation among SMs. 237
 Since this loss can be detected via the changes in the ranks of 238
 the observation matrices, asynchrony error mitigation can be 239
 written as a low rank matrix recovery model. To consider both 240
 asynchrony errors and small entry-wise measurement errors in 241
 SM data, our data recovery approach models an observation 242
 matrix (i.e., asynchrony voltage magnitude matrix) as the sum- 243
 mation of three components: a low rank voltage magnitude 244
 matrix, an asynchrony error matrix, and a measurement error 245
 matrix. The goal is to identify unknown voltage magnitude 246
 matrix and asynchrony error matrix within the datasets in the 247
 presence of entry-wise noise. The model is shown below: 248

$$249 \quad M_U = M_U^* + \Delta S_U + \Delta E_U \quad (4)$$

where, M_U^* represents the *refined post-mitigation* voltage mag- 250
 nitude matrix which has a low rank, ΔS_U is the asynchrony 251
 error matrix, and ΔE_U represents entry-wise measurement 252
 errors. It should be noted that measurement error is different 253
 from asynchrony error, as mentioned in previous work [9]. 254
 The same representation applies to both active and reactive 255
 measurements and pseudo-measurements, as follows: 256

$$257 \quad M_P = M_P^* + \Delta S_P + \Delta E_P \quad (5)$$

$$258 \quad M_Q = M_Q^* + \Delta S_Q + \Delta E_Q \quad (6)$$

where, the sub-components are defined similar to (4). The 259
 objective of the data recovery process is to revise the SM 260
 data in a way that the ranks of observation matrices are mini- 261
 mized (i.e., temporal correlations among SMs are maximized), 262
 while the extent of changes made in the original data is kept 263
 at a minimum level. This goal can be represented using three 264
 objective functions, corresponding to the available datasets, 265
 M_U , M_P , and M_Q , as follows: 266

$$267 \quad \begin{cases} f_U = \|M_U^*\|_* + \lambda_U \|\Delta S_U\|_1 \\ f_P = \|M_P^*\|_* + \lambda_P \|\Delta S_P\|_1 \\ f_Q = \|M_Q^*\|_* + \lambda_Q \|\Delta S_Q\|_1 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where, $\|\cdot\|_*$ and $\|\cdot\|_1$ are the nuclear norm and 1-norm 268
 (i.e., sparsity norm) operations, respectively. These norms are 269
 calculated as follows [17]: 270

$$271 \quad \|A\|_* = \sum_j \zeta_j(A) \quad (8)$$

$$272 \quad \|A\|_1 = \max_j \sum_i |A(i,j)| \quad (9)$$

where, $\zeta_j(A)$ denotes the j 'th singular value of an arbitrary 273
 matrix A . Further, λ_U , λ_P , and λ_Q are tunable parameters 274

that are leveraged to balance out the two competing components of the objective functions: minimizing the rank of the recovered data versus the amount of changes made in the data during the recovery process. Mathematically, this means that by minimizing f_U , f_P , and f_Q , the data recovery process effectively minimizes the ranks of M_U^* , M_P^* , and M_Q^* . At the same time, the changes made in the data are kept small by penalizing the sparsity norm of matrices ΔS_U , ΔS_P , and ΔS_Q . The three objectives f_U , f_P , and f_Q are evaluated over the datasets that are generated by the same system (e.g., same feeder, lateral, or service transformer). However, these three datasets are not independent from each other due to the power flow constraints. Thus, the re-calibration of these three datasets cannot be performed separately using conventional low rank data recovery methods, such as robust PCA and PCP. To address this problem, we propose a multi-objective PCP-based model that can jointly refine three the SM datasets. The objective function minimizes the ranks of recovered data to realize the best achievable SM re-alignment. Moreover, to incorporate the inherent interdependencies of the three objectives, power flow equations are added as the constraints of the model. The proposed multi-objective optimization is as follows:

$$\min_{M_U^*, M_P^*, M_Q^*} \{f_U, f_P, f_Q\} \quad (10)$$

$$s.t. \quad \|M_U - M_U^* - \Delta S_U\|_F \leq \delta_U \quad (11)$$

$$\|M_P - M_P^* - \Delta S_P\|_F \leq \delta_P \quad (12)$$

$$\|M_Q - M_Q^* - \Delta S_Q\|_F \leq \delta_Q \quad (13)$$

$$M_U^* = M_P^* \cdot R^T + M_Q^* \cdot X^T + 1_{m \times N} U_0 \quad (14)$$

where, $\|\cdot\|_F$ denotes the Frobenius norm of matrix, defined as follows:

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_i \sum_j A(i, j)^2} \quad (15)$$

In addition, parameters δ_U , δ_P , and δ_Q are the standard deviations of the measurement/pseudo-measurement errors (obtained using knowledge of sensor tolerance or pseudo-measurement confidence intervals), matrices R and X represent the branch resistance and branch reactance of the network, respectively [18]. U_0 is the primary voltage magnitude squared for the transformer to which the SMs are connected. The rationale behind constraints (11), (12), and (13) is that the refined components (i.e., M_U^* , M_P^* , M_Q^*) are not exactly low rank and the asynchrony error components (i.e., ΔS_U , ΔS_P , ΔS_Q) are not exactly sparse. Such soft constraints allow for slight deviations in the recovered data to compensate for SM measurement errors, which are consistent with our knowledge of measurement device confidence levels. Also, these allow utilities to minimize asynchrony error with noisy practical SM data, which particularly pertains to reactive power data that may be unavailable for residential customers. Constraint (14) is obtained from the linear DistFlow in matrix form [15], which can enforce network physics and capture the inherent dependencies among datasets. The goal of this constraint is to ensure that the recovered SM data is feasible in power engineering context.

Our method follows the line of low rank data recovery techniques that have been commonly used in many areas [11]. Unlike the black box methods that lack interpretability, the proposed model has a solid mathematical foundation to recover a low rank SM data matrix in the presence of gross asynchrony errors. Also, the dependencies among the datasets are basically encoded into the solution through a set of linear equality constraints. Such power flow models can be applied for arbitrary distribution systems. Note that the model is extendable to unbalanced systems in a straightforward way (i.e., full three-phase DistFlow is leveraged). Further, the proposed data recovery model makes no assumptions on system topology or load distribution, which ensures the performance of this model in other distribution systems.

C. Solution Strategy

A major challenge in solving the proposed data recovery model is the existence of power flow constraints (14) that hinders the application of the existing closed-form dual solvers [13]. Another complication is that (10) has three non-smooth objective functions, which makes the problem non-differentiable. To efficiently tackle these challenges, we present a first-order Nesterov-like algorithm to solve the proposed multi-objective data recovery framework [19]. The basic idea of our solution is to approximate the non-smooth objectives with differentiable surrogates. By applying this idea, the following surrogate components can be written for f_U [16]:

$$\|M_U^*\|_* \approx \Gamma(M_U^*, \mu_U) = \max_{\|\alpha\|_2 \leq 1} \langle M_U^*, \alpha \rangle - \frac{\mu_U}{2} \|\alpha\|_F^2 \quad (16)$$

$$\|\Delta S_U\|_1 \approx \Psi(\Delta S_U, \nu_U) = \max_{\|\beta\|_\infty \leq 1} \langle \Delta S_U, \beta \rangle - \frac{\nu_U}{2} \|\beta\|_F^2 \quad (17)$$

where, α and β are auxiliary matrices, μ_U and ν_U are smoothness parameters, and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is the Frobenius inner product [17], calculated as follows:

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \sum_i \sum_j A(i, j) \cdot B(i, j) \quad (18)$$

Note that the non-differentiable norms are replaced with differentiable functions $\Gamma(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $\Psi(\cdot, \cdot)$ in (16) and (17). The Lipschitz constants for the gradients of $\Gamma(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $\Psi(\cdot, \cdot)$ equal $\frac{1}{\mu_U}$ and $\frac{1}{\nu_U}$, respectively. Similar smooth surrogates are defined and calculated for the objectives f_P and f_Q . By adopting this approximate alternative, the objectives in optimization (10) can be rewritten as a single-objective weighted averaging process by using a scalarization method [20]. Since the relaxed problem is convex, the single-objective formulation is guaranteed to track all the Pareto-optimal solutions, given valid weight assignment to the objectives [21]. The single-objective formulation can be rearranged as follows:

$$\min_{M_U^*, M_P^*, M_Q^*} \Gamma_T(M_U^*, M_P^*, M_Q^*) + \Psi_T(\Delta S_U, \Delta S_P, \Delta S_Q) \quad (19)$$

$$s.t. \quad (11) - (14) \quad (20)$$

here, the new objective function consists of two component: (I) Γ_T quantifies the total approximate nuclear norm for all

the SM datasets:

$$\Gamma(M_U^*, M_P^*, M_Q^*) = \omega_1 \Gamma(M_U^*, \mu_U) + \omega_2 \Gamma(M_P^*, \mu_P) + \omega_3 \Gamma(M_Q^*, \mu_Q) \quad (21)$$

where, ω_1 , ω_2 , and ω_3 are the non-negative user-defined weights assigned to f_U , f_P , and f_Q , respectively. Assigning a larger weight to the objective function indicates that the function has a higher priority compared to a function with a smaller weight. Further, $\omega_1 + \omega_2 + \omega_3 = 1$ needs to hold to ensure Pareto-optimality. (II) Γ_T is the total approximate sparsity norm for all the SM datasets, as follows:

$$\Psi(\Delta S_U, \Delta S_P, \Delta S_Q) = \omega_1 \lambda_U \Psi(\Delta S_U, \nu_U) + \omega_2 \lambda_P \Psi(\Delta S_P, \nu_P) + \omega_3 \lambda_Q \Psi(\Delta S_Q, \nu_Q) \quad (22)$$

This new data recovery formulation (19) is both convex and differentiable. Given the new model, the Nesterov algorithm entails the following steps to solve SM data recovery problem:

Step I - Initialization: $k \leftarrow 0$ (counter initialization); $M_U^*(0) \leftarrow M_U$, $M_P^*(0) \leftarrow M_P$, $M_Q^*(0) \leftarrow M_Q$, $\Delta S_U \leftarrow 0_{m \times N}$, $\Delta S_P \leftarrow 0_{m \times N}$, and $\Delta S_Q \leftarrow 0_{m \times N}$ (solution initialization).

Step II - Component-Wise Gradient Calculation: Obtain the gradients of components (16) and (17) for all the objective functions in the data recovery problem. As shown in [19], these gradients can be computed as follows:

$$\nabla \Gamma(M_U^*(k), \mu_U) = \alpha^*(\mu_U) \quad (23)$$

$$\nabla \Psi(\Delta S_U(k), \nu_U) = \beta^*(\nu_U) \quad (24)$$

where, α^* and β^* are the optimal solutions of (16) and (17), respectively, obtained for the latest values of M_U^* and ΔS_U at iteration k . Similar gradient values can be obtained for surrogate components of active/reactive power data.

Step III - Aggregate Gradient Computation: Insert the obtained gradients in Step II, to form the overall gradient values for the weighted averaging problem (19):

$$\nabla \Gamma_T(M_U^*, M_P^*, M_Q^*) = \omega_1 \alpha^*(\mu_U) + \omega_2 \alpha^*(\mu_P) + \omega_3 \alpha^*(\mu_Q) \quad (25)$$

$$\nabla \Psi_T(\Delta S_U, \Delta S_P, \Delta S_Q) = \omega_1 \beta^*(\nu_U) + \omega_2 \beta^*(\nu_P) + \omega_3 \beta^*(\nu_Q). \quad (26)$$

Step IV - Interim Variable Updates: This step in the algorithm defines and updates several interim variables. These variables will be leveraged in the data refinement step. The idea is to apply gradient descent using the aggregate gradient components, obtained in Step III, while at the same time penalize deviations from the original measurements. Four interim matrices are defined: Y_M , Y_S , Z_M , and Z_S . While Y_M and Y_S are computed using the latest solution updates, on the other hand, Z_M and Z_S are obtained using the full history of the solution trajectory. Accordingly, the update process for $[Y_M, Y_S]$ is a convex and tractable optimization process, as follows:

$$[Y_M, Y_S] = \arg \min_{M, S} \left\{ \langle \nabla \Gamma_T(M_U^*(k), M_P^*(k), M_Q^*(k)), M \rangle + \langle \nabla \Psi_T(\Delta S_U, \Delta S_P, \Delta S_Q), S \rangle + \frac{L}{2} (\|\Delta M\|_F^2 + \|\Delta S\|_F^2) \right\} \quad (27)$$

$$s.t. \quad (11)-(14) \quad (28)$$

where, L is a weight parameter used for penalizing deviations from SM measurements. Here, the deviation from the original data are denoted as ΔM and ΔS (e.g., $\Delta M = M - [M_U^*(0), M_P^*(0), M_Q^*(0)]$). Similarly, a convex optimization process is defined for updating $[Z_M, Z_S]$, considering full solver trajectory:

$$[Z_M, Z_S] = \arg \min_{M, S} \left\{ \tau(M, S) + \frac{L}{2} (\|\Delta M\|_F^2 + \|\Delta S\|_F^2) \right\} \quad (29)$$

$$s.t. \quad (11) - (14) \quad (30)$$

where, $\tau(M, S)$ is an average aggregate gradient factor with respect to solver history, defined as follows:

$$\tau(M, S) = \sum_{i=0}^k \langle \nabla \Gamma_T(M_U^*(i), M_P^*(i), M_Q^*(i)), M \rangle + \langle \nabla \Psi_T(\Delta S_U, \Delta S_P, \Delta S_Q), S \rangle. \quad (31)$$

Step V - Data Refinement: Apply a weighted averaging process using the updated interim variables, from Step IV, to refine the SM data. Based on the suggestion in [16], this weighted update process is written as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} M_U^*(k+1) \\ M_P^*(k+1) \\ M_Q^*(k+1) \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \left(\frac{k+1}{k+3} \right) Y_M + \left(\frac{2}{k+3} \right) Z_M \quad (32)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta S_U(k+1) \\ \Delta S_P(k+1) \\ \Delta S_Q(k+1) \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \left(\frac{k+1}{k+3} \right) Y_S + \left(\frac{2}{k+3} \right) Z_S. \quad (33)$$

Step V-Iterate and Terminate: $k \leftarrow k + 1$ and go to Step II until the maximum number of iterations is reached. Output the refined SM datasets, M_U^* , M_P^* , and M_Q^* , after algorithm convergence.

III. ENHANCING GRID MONITORING ROBUSTNESS TO SM ASYNCHRONY ERROR

Fig. 2 shows how our proposed data recovery technique can be integrated into grid monitoring systems as a pre-processor. The refined data is continuously fed to a branch current state estimation (BCSE) module to monitor the grid states in real-time, including the real and imaginary parts of currents of all branches [22]. The BCSE method leverages a weighted least squares (WLS)-based solver to minimize the sum of squared residuals (J). This problem can be formulated as an optimization task over the distribution network given the recovered data samples M_U^* , M_P^* , M_Q^* from our multi-objective PCP-based model, as follows:

$$\min_{x_s} J = \sum_i W_{i,i} (M_z(i) - h_i(x_s))^2$$

$$s.t. \quad M_z = \begin{bmatrix} M_{MV} \\ M_U^*(\cdot) \\ M_P^*(\cdot) \\ M_Q^*(\cdot) \\ M_{PS} \end{bmatrix} \quad (34)$$

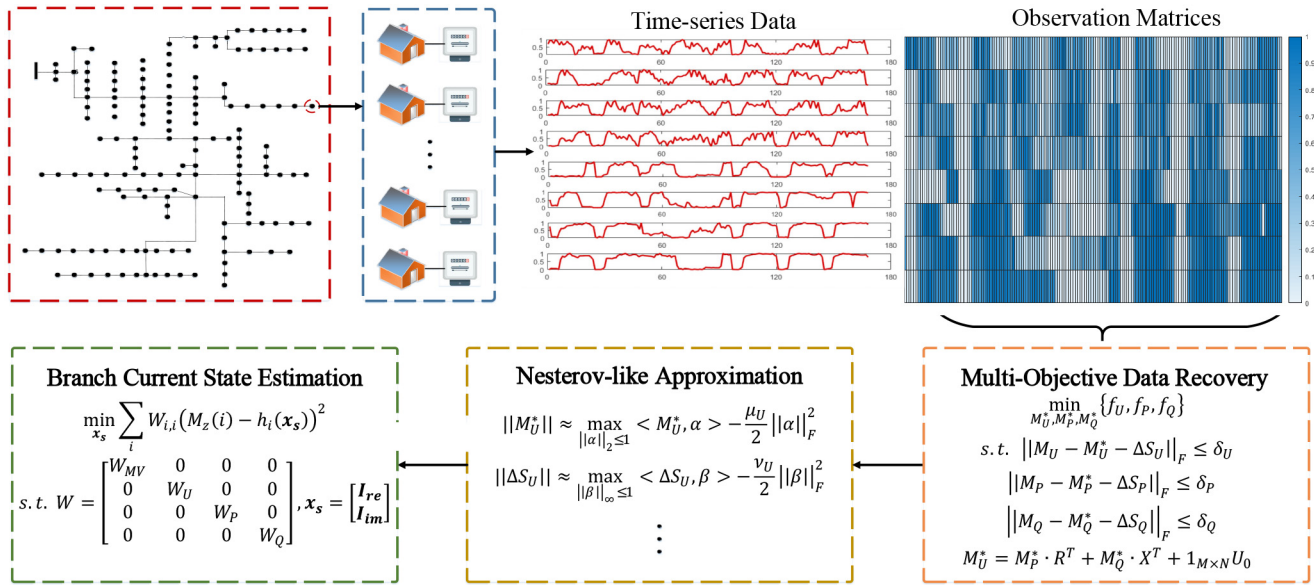


Fig. 2. Overall structure of the solution for grid monitoring.

$$\begin{aligned}
 W &= \begin{bmatrix} W_{MV} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & W_U & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & W_P & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & W_Q & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & W_{PS} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \mathbf{x}_s &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{re} \\ \mathbf{I}_{im} \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

where, \mathbf{x}_s is the grid state vector that contains current real/imaginary values for all the branches of the distribution system ($\mathbf{I}_{re}/\mathbf{I}_{im}$), and M_z is the measurement vector. The measurement data includes the MV network synchronized sensor measurements (M_{MV}), including SCADA and μ PMUs, if available, the refined SM data, M_U^* , M_P^* , M_Q^* , and the pseudo measurements M_{PS} that can be generated by our previous work [23]. h_i is the measurement function that maps state values to the i 'th measurement variable, which is obtained based on the power flow equation. Furthermore, W is a weight matrix that represents the solver's confidence level in each element of M_z . The matrix W includes the measurement confidence weights, consisting of sub-matrices W_{MV} , W_U , W_P , W_Q , and W_{PS} corresponding to M_{MV} , M_U^* , M_P^* , M_Q^* , and M_{PS} , respectively. These weight values are determined by the nominal accuracy levels of the sensors as $W_{i,i} = \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2}$, where σ_i^2 is the i 'th sensor error variance [24]. The purpose of the weights is to devalue the importance of unreliable data sources in grid monitoring.

The WLS-based solution employs a gradient-based algorithm to find the optimal solutions for (34) (i.e., $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_s} J=0$) [25]. The algorithm involves the following steps to estimate the states of the grid:

Step I - Receive Input Data: Receive the recovered SM data, M_U^* , M_P^* , and M_Q^* (see Section II), and the latest measurement data from the primary network, M_{MV} . Concatenate the input data to form the measurement vector, M_z .

Step II - State Initialization: $k \leftarrow 0$; initialize the values of the states through randomization, $\mathbf{x}_s(k)$ (to speed up the BCSE solver the values of states can be initialized using the solutions from the last time step.)

Step III - Jacobian Computation: Update the Jacobian matrix, H , using the gradients of the measurement function. The Jacobian captures the sensitivity of the measurements to the state variables:

$$H_{i,j} = \frac{\partial h_i(\mathbf{x}_s(k))}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{s_j}} \quad (35)$$

The Jacobian matrix can be conveniently calculated for the BCSE method for feeders with known topology (e.g., see [22] for details on how Jacobian can be obtained for various types of measurement functions.)

Step IV - Gain Matrix Computation: Leverage the Jacobian matrix from Step III to obtain the gain matrix, G , as follows:

$$G(\mathbf{x}_s(k)) = H^T(\mathbf{x}_s(k))WH(\mathbf{x}_s(k)). \quad (36)$$

Step V - State Update: Update the values of the states using the gain matrix within the first order Newton-Gauss method, as follows:

$$\mathbf{x}_s(k+1) \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_s(k) + G^{-1}H^T W(M_z - \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_s(k))). \quad (37)$$

Step VI - Iterate and Terminate: $k \leftarrow k+1$; go back to Step III until convergence, i.e., $k \geq k_{max}$, with k_{max} being a user-defined maximum number of iteration for the BCSE algorithm.

Step VII - Roll the Time Window: At the new time point, the data recovery is performed using the latest measurement data, according to II. Go back to Step I.

IV. NUMERICAL RESULTS

The proposed data recovery and grid monitoring framework has been tested and validated using a fully observable

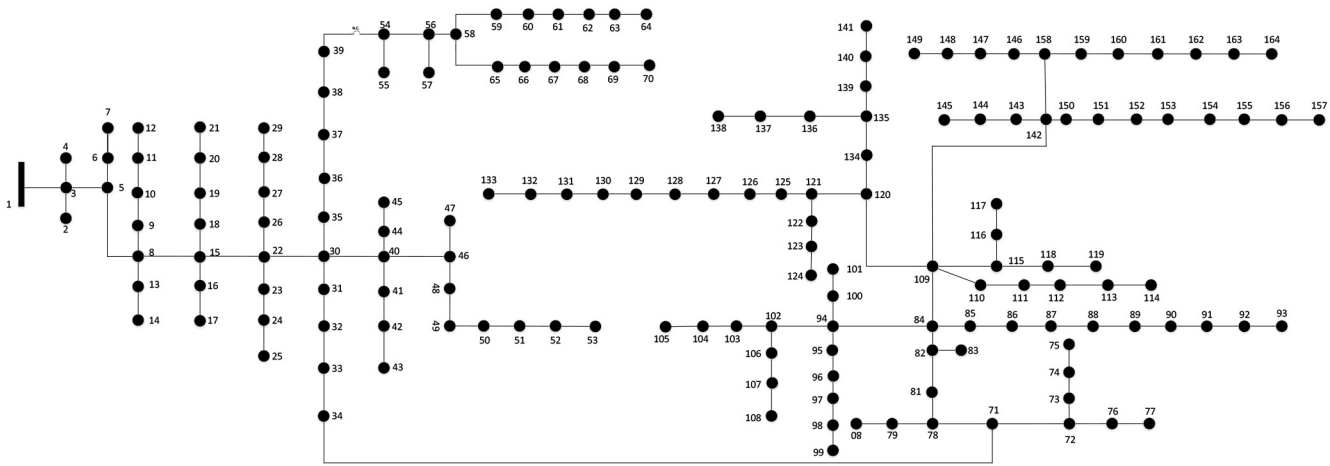


Fig. 3. 164-node feeder topology.

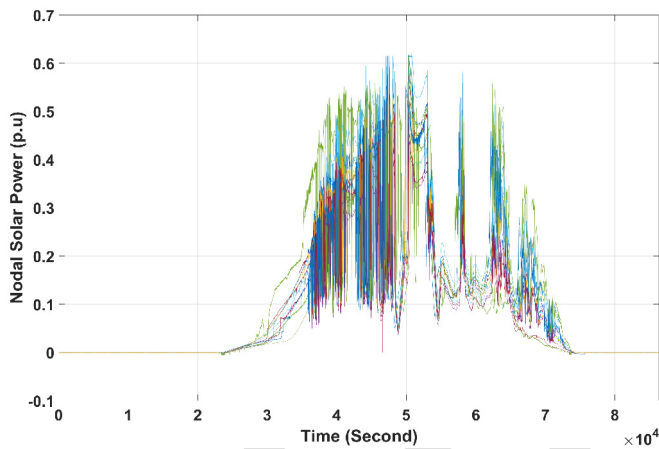


Fig. 4. PV generation data.

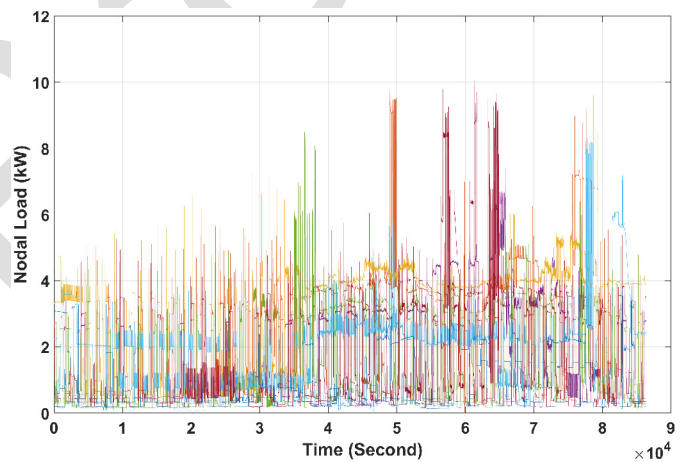


Fig. 5. Consumption data.

524 feeder model shown in Fig. 3. This feeder represents an unbal-
 525 anced utility network in U.S. MidWest and consists of 164
 526 nodes, which is publicly available online [26]. The details of
 527 the system model include network topology, line parameters,
 528 and standard electric components. The system has an average
 529 of 30% solar-power-to-peak-load penetration level. The solar
 530 data is adopted from [27]. The nodal time-series load
 531 demand is aggregated using a real-world 1-second-resolution
 532 household dataset and utilized as the input of the power flow
 533 analysis [27]. The computed voltages are treated as the volt-
 534 age measurements. The resolution of the SM measurements
 535 is 15-minute. To simulate realistic asynchronous SM mea-
 536 surements, we randomly sample the 1-second resolution data
 537 at 15-min rate at each node to represent SM measurements.
 538 Thus, in this work, the SM asynchrony strength of each cus-
 539 tomer can be anywhere between 0 to 900 s. Fig. 4 and 5
 540 show the original solar and load time-series data in a day at
 541 different nodes of the system. User-defined parameters within
 542 the proposed data recovery model, including coefficients of
 543 the optimization solver, have been tuned through try-outs over
 544 historical/simulation datasets. Basically, the values of these
 545 parameters are chosen when the residual of branch current
 546 state estimation is minimized. It should be noted that the

high computational budget of this strategy does not impact
 the real-time performance of the proposed method since this
 parameter calibration is an offline process.

The case study is conducted on a standard PC with an
 Intel Xeon CPU running at 3.70 GHz and with 32.0 GB
 of RAM. Based on 500 Monte Carlo simulations, the average
 computational time is around 23 s, which is feasible
 in real-time applications. Fig. 6, 7, and 8 show the average
 error histograms of the proposed data recovery method for
 voltage, active power, and reactive power, respectively. The
 error is calculated by comparing the actual values of vari-
 ous variables with the solutions of the recovery model. As
 can be observed, the recovery error values are maintained
 within low levels, which confirms the acceptable performance
 of the data recovery framework. Specifically, the mean aver-
 age errors are 0.11%, 2.03%, and 1.27% for voltage, active
 power, and reactive power, respectively. This also demon-
 strates that the proposed data refinement framework has the
 best performance over the SM voltage dataset, among the
 three datasets. This outcome is consistent with the correla-
 tion-driven nature of the data recovery model (i.e., nodal voltage
 measurements are highly correlated, which facilitates better
 refinement.)

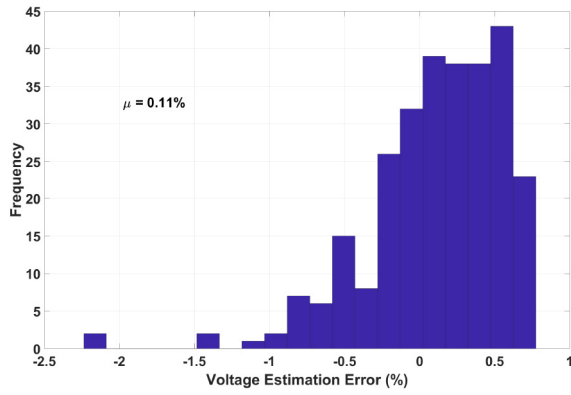


Fig. 6. Voltage recovery error.

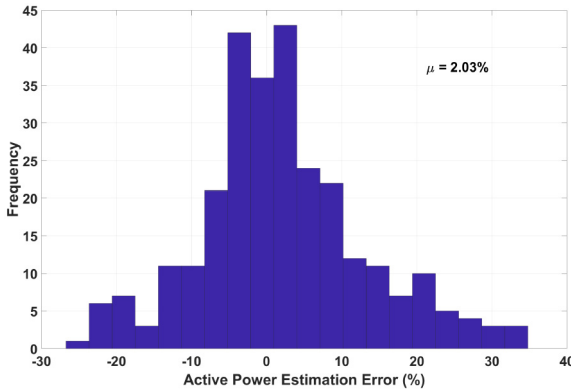


Fig. 7. Active power recovery error.

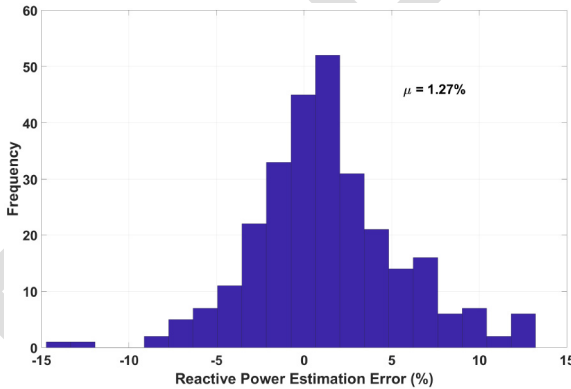


Fig. 8. Reactive power recovery error.

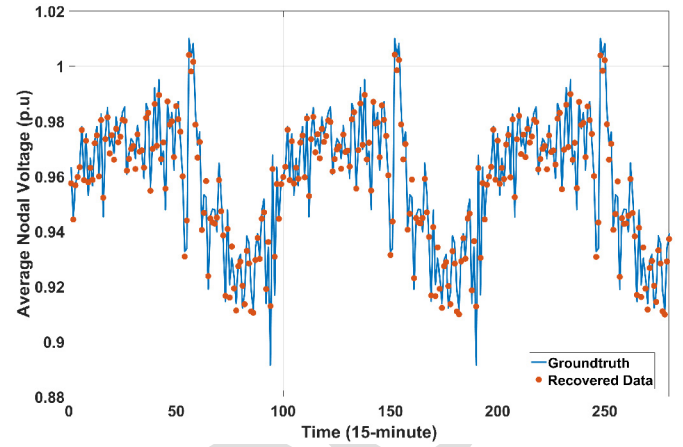


Fig. 9. Recovered average voltage data versus real (synchronized) time-series data.

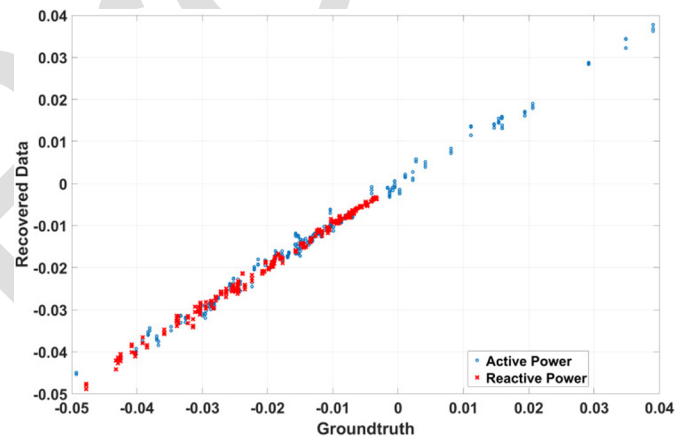


Fig. 10. Recovered nodal active/reactive power data versus real (synchronized) data.

data recovery framework. As can be observed, having the DistFlow equations as constraints within the multi-objective data refinement model has resulted in a significant reduction in power flow errors. This demonstrates that the proposed method is able to output data that is consistent with network physics, while capturing the dependencies among all SM datasets.

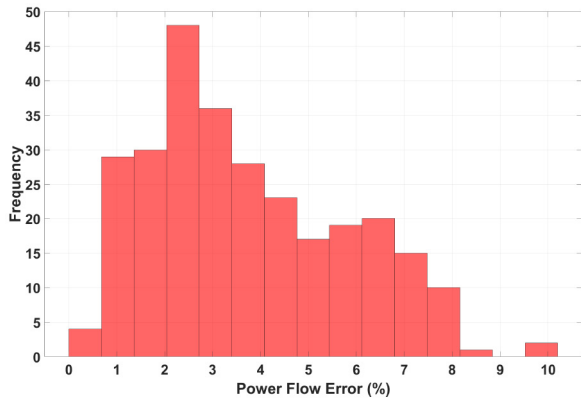
Finally, Fig. 12 depicts the histogram of system monitoring error after applying the data recovery framework. The mean percentage error (MPE) criterion is utilized to evaluate the performance of BCSE with our data recovery method, which is calculated by comparing the real state values (x_s), obtained from power flow simulations on the feeder model, with the estimated state values (\hat{x}_s), coming from the BCSE, as follows:

$$E = 100 \times \sum_i \frac{x_s(i) - \hat{x}_s(i)}{x_s(i)} \quad (38)$$

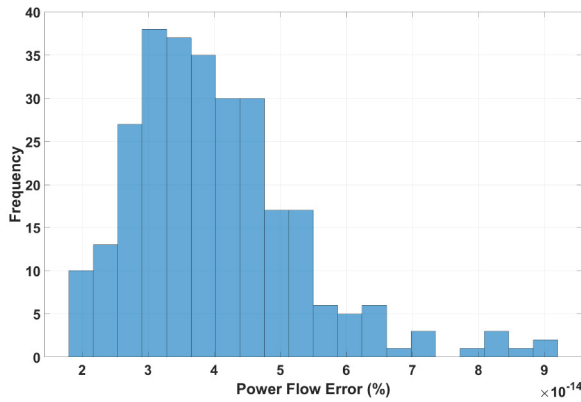
As is observed in Fig. 12, the DSSE error value is maintained at low levels, which demonstrates the successful integration of the data recovery solution into grid monitoring, which allows us to track the behavior of the feeder accurately. The mean estimation error value is 0.87%.

Fig. 9 compares the average value of recovered voltage data from the data refinement framework with the actual nodal voltage average (assuming synchronized sensors) within a sample time-window. As is observed in this figure, the developed algorithm closely follows the underlying signal. Fig. 10 shows a similar concept for active and reactive power datasets. As observed in this figure, the data recovery framework is basically an approximate identity mapping between the recovered data and the underlying (ideal) data. This corroborates the satisfactory performance of the model over real data in time domain.

Fig. 11 shows the histogram of power flow error with and without leveraging the DisFlow equations within the proposed



(a) Without DistFlow



(b) With DistFlow

Fig. 11. Power flow error with and without DistFlow constraints.

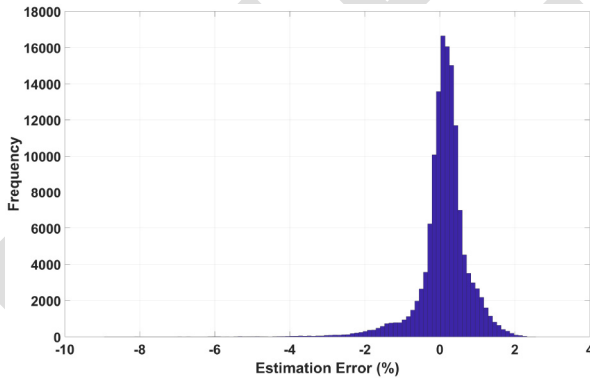


Fig. 12. BCSE error distribution.

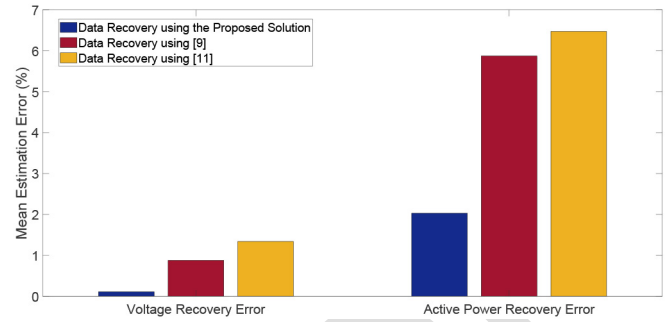


Fig. 13. Comparison results between [9], [11], and the proposed method.

proposed method can achieve a better performance compared to the previous works.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have presented a multi-objective data recovery method to mitigate the impacts of SM asynchrony issues in distribution system real-time monitoring. The proposed method is able to refine voltage, active power, and reactive power datasets simultaneously within the same framework via a multi-objective formulation. The inherent dependencies among these measurements are captured by using DistFlow equations. Our solution considers both asynchrony errors and measurement errors, thus making the model more widely applicable to practical distribution systems. A first-order algorithm is presented to solve the proposed multi-objective data recovery model. This algorithm is based on Nesterov method for approximating non-differentiable optimization problems with smooth surrogates. To evaluate the proposed method, a real 164-node utility feeder with real data is utilized. The results show that SM asynchrony error mitigation is possible using the proposed method with good accuracy. In this work, the mean average data recovery error are about 0.11%, 2.03%, and 1.27% for voltage magnitude, active power, and reactive power, respectively. Also, it can be observed that the DistFlow constraints can significantly reduce the inconsistency of recovered data with power flow equations. Based on the proposed data recovery method, the system state estimation error is less than 1%.

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To further demonstrate the performance of the proposed SM data recovery method, We have conducted numerical comparisons with two previous methods, including a previous smart meter asynchrony mitigation method [9] and a state-of-the-art low rank data recovery method [11]. The three methods are simulated with the same real-world datasets to calculate the accuracy of the methods. The comparison result is shown in Fig.13. As demonstrated in the figure, in terms of voltage, the average recovery errors are 0.11%, 0.877%, and 1.34% for the proposed solution, [9] and [11], respectively. In terms of active power, the average recovery errors are 2.03%, 5.84%, and 6.48%, respectively. Hence, based on this dataset, the

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