1 INTRODUCTION

At the beginning of the 21st century, a massive improvement of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) gave an opportunity for solving some existing limitations of the electrical grid, while also reducing the operational costs (Miceli et al., 2013). This sparked people involved in the development of the future energy market to think of new concepts. Of these ideas, smart meters and smart grid were the most popular, by adding ICT intelligence to the system, wherever useful.

These ideas led many countries to support various research programs in the smart grid domain. Denmark, already having a long tradition in the green electricity market, published a set of recommendations for implementing these concepts in the report called Smart Grid in Denmark. One Danish financed research program is ForskEL (Energinet, 2015), meant to support the development and integration of environmentally friendly power generation technologies and grid connection.

One goal of ForskEL is to help the Distributed System Operators (DSOs) in making sensible decisions regarding future power grid planning and fault diagnosis in near-real-time. This calls for the utilization of intelligent methods for grid data visualization, as presented in (Stefan et al., 2017).

The new challenge for the Danish DSOs arises as more distributed power generation is introduced at the low voltage grid level. This affects their ability to monitor the state of the power grid without encountering operational constraints. One of the DSOs’ primary tools are to obtain full observability of the low voltage grid, by making use of scalable data analytics, as intended with the Danish RemoteGRID project (Martin-Löeches et al., 2017). Hence, high-performance data processing and analytical methods are fundamental for efficiently managing distribution grid data.

Two relevant data types are considered in relation to the power grid:

- Geographic data: electrical network structure (cables, transformers, substations, meters) and their geographical coordinates;
- Measurement data: three-phased generic grid measurements from each load or connection point containing multiple loads (voltage, current, consumption).

This paper introduces a study of analytical methods suitable for obtaining low voltage grid observability. The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents the flow of data in a smart grid application. The proposed study is presented in Section 3 and
it underlines the advantages of pseudo-measurements and state estimator for the smart grid scenario. In Section 4, both generic and state of the art analytic methods will be presented. Given the chosen case study and background, the most suitable analytics will be emphasized in Section 5, along with the definitions of bulk and stream data types. Section 6 will summarize the aforementioned study requirements with future action plans for testing the above concepts.

2 STUDY BACKGROUND

The underlying application structure is defined based on the requirements imposed by the analytical methods suitable for the state estimation algorithm introduced in Section 3. In this study, the application structure is proposed as a client-server application, based on the IEC 61868-100 standard (Commission, 2013). The data flow is depicted in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: Data flow and exchange of automatic events according to IEC 61968-100.](image)

The IEC standard is meant to provide guidelines regarding message exchange and interface specifications for utility enterprise distribution systems. Consequently, the key terms are clarified as follows:

- **Advanced Metering Infrastructure (AMI)** (Uribe-Pérez et al., 2016): main data source in a smart grid, characterized by a large number of nodes (meters) located at customer premises;
- **Meter Data Management (MDM)** (IEC/TC, 2013): software entity that involves the storage and management of the AMI data. This includes the Database Management System (DBMS);
- **Enterprise Service Bus (ESB)** (Neumann and Nielsen, 2010): software-based integration layer specifying a standardized communication interface facilitating services (routing, mediation, recording of data etc.) via standard event-driven messaging. The ESB middleware works as an adapter between different data formats and protocols in a Service Oriented Architecture (SOA).

Data is generated at the AMI (server entity) as an encoded packet, which is then decoded at the MDM level and sent to a database management system (DBMS) for storage via XML messaging (McMorran, 2007). In this back-end architecture (Upwork, 2017), the DBMS is defined as an integration feature, which provides the ESB middleware with raw data to be sent to the analytics module for processing. A processing unit in the analytics module extracts the desired information to be displayed for the user (client entity). In the smart grid context, the user is usually located in the DSO control center. The event progression of data is storing - information extraction - information display. These events take place in a cyclic manner and thus, they are referred to as **automatic events**.

The data exchange sequences are not solely one-way. In case the client (user) detects unusual patterns or missing information in a certain geographical area, additional data from that specific area (or specific meters) can be requested for enhanced monitoring pur-
poses. If so, the data flow is based on so-called interactive events, as shown in Figure 2. The client’s request for more detailed information is transmitted to the DBMS via the ESB, to search if there is a match for the requested data in the database. If a match is found, a reply is sent to the client for display and visualization. If not, the data request may be forwarded to the AMI, which will configure the meters to send the required data. Timing is crucial in the DSOs decision making process and is notably affected by delays in the transmissions from data collection to data display. Requesting certain information all the way from the AMI will result in additional delays due to the increased number of messaging sequences between entities.

As a part of the analytics module, the next section will introduce the Distributed System State Estimator (DSSE).

3 STUDY OUTLINE: LOW VOLTAGE GRID OBSERVABILITY

Low voltage grids are undergoing a transformation from a passive to a more active role in the electrical network. Traditionally, conventional large gas or coal power plants, among others, are the source of electrical power generation (Trebolle et al., 2013). After being transmitted at a high voltage level, the energy is distributed to supply the loads in the system. Lately, the penetration of distributed generation, especially from Renewable Energy Resources (RES), at the low voltage level has increased. It creates operational challenges for the DSOs since the low voltage grid was not designed to operate under such conditions. For example, generation peaks from RES do not necessarily match peaks of consumption, introducing power flows from the low to the high voltage level.

In order to address operational concerns, the DSOs require advanced management tools. Grid monitoring is the first step towards a more reliable operational approach (Abur and Exposito, 2004). In fact, nowadays, the low voltage grid electrical parameters are not monitored in the DSOs control centers. Monitoring the system allows DSOs to determine whether or not the system is operating under normal conditions. A system is considered to operate under normal conditions if all the loads can be supplied without violating any operational constrains (Abur and Exposito, 2004).

3.1 Low Voltage Grid State Estimation - LV DSSE

Grid observability depends on where the measurement points are placed along the electrical grid. In the case of low voltage grids, these measurements are provided by the smart meters. However, the information extracted from the meter’s data contains errors due to various factors, such as communication issues or measurement deviations in the devices. Thus, as a first step in control centers, efficient data analytics are required to properly determine the state of the electrical grid. The state is defined as “known” if the voltages and phase angles with respect to a certain voltage and angle reference are known at every node (point where two or more circuit elements meet) (Abur and Exposito, 2004). The process in charge of eliminating errors and providing the best estimate of the system state in distribution systems is the so-called distribution system state estimation (DSSE) (Alimardani et al., 2015).

![Figure 3: Evaluating observability based on the field near-real-time measurements.](image)

Figure 3 shows the block diagram of the observability analysis performed based on the raw measured data. This analysis determines if the system state can be estimated based on the set of acquired near-real-time readings. For example, few or non-existing measurements are sometimes provided from a specific geographical area of the system. This implies that the available data is insufficient to successfully estimate the state of the system. In that case, other data analytics methods are needed, where the unavailable near-real-time measurements are substituted by the
3.2 Pseudo-measurements

Traditionally, pseudo-measurements have been obtained from standardized daily load and generation profiles (DLP-DGP). Those are created for different customer classes based on socio-demographic factors (Krsman et al., 2016). However, other approaches seeking more precise accuracy have been developed in the literature. Artificial Neuronal Networks (ANN) are used in (Do Coutto Filho et al., 1999). Besides, different clustering techniques were utilized as it is the case of k-means (Benítez et al., 2014), principal component analysis (Abreu et al., 2012), spectral clustering method (Albert and Rajagopal, 2013) or finite mixture model (Stephen et al., 2014), among others.

New solutions are to be studied in order to provide robust pseudo-measurements for low voltage grid applications based on the utilization of AMI data. Unpredictable behavior from RES is a challenge where efficiency in terms of the amount of stored data needs to be considered given the large number of nodes at the low voltage level.

4 ANALYTIC METHODS

AMI data is by definition part of the Internet of Things (IoT) umbrella, in the sense that smart meters act as sensors in the electrical grid infrastructure. IoT data analytics is characterized by autonomous or semi-autonomous examination of data, employing sophisticated techniques and tools, typically beyond those of traditional Business Intelligence (BI). These techniques help to reduce complex data sets into actionable insights, enhance and empower BI decision support systems. By this token, some traditional analytics and algorithms include data mining, machine learning, pattern matching, forecasting, visualization, semantic analysis, sentiment analysis (Gartner Summits, 2017).

Analytics are classified by two main categories: historical and near-real-time analytics.

- Historical analytics: based on the past data values. Data-at-rest corresponds to batch data processing;

4.1 Historical Analytics

Four traditional types of historical analysis are presented in the following subsections. They are a trade-off between the provided information value and the implementation difficulty. This is illustrated in (CI and T, 2014).

4.1.1 Descriptive

This type of data analysis is used to provide insight into past events, by identifying overall themes and patterns. Descriptive analytics is commonly classified as BI and is the de facto standard analytics methodology. Typical outputs include dashboards, reports and status emails stating historical observations by summarizing raw data for human interpretation. These are mainly obtained through methods such as data mining and data aggregation.

An example of descriptive analytics can be found in (Liu et al., 2016), where daily profile of consumption trends are obtained by means of data aggregation. This helps to understand daily habits of consumers and, at the same time, to insure the privacy of end users through data anonymization (Diamantoulakis et al., 2015).

4.1.2 Diagnostic

Diagnostic analysis helps answering questions like "Why was a certain event triggered", by providing a deep understanding of a limited problem space via in-depth data analysis, discovering the root causes and characteristics of an event. Advancing from aggregate and summary information to detailed data, based on specific focus attribute(s), is done via selection and querying of data sets. Data granularity defines the limit for the analytic level of detail. The resulting output is typically an analytic dashboard. Correlation methods are part of obtaining a diagnosis analysis. The review in (Raza and Khosravi, 2015) proposes a method for characterizing power system loads by the correlation between load demand and weather variables.

4.1.3 Predictive

Predictive analytics is about foreseeing the future based on historical data patterns. Future predictions and scenarios come from data mining, machine learning and statistical modeling of raw data. Thus, actionable insights are obtained via plausible estimates of future outcomes. Typical deliverables are in the form of predictive forecasts based on probabilistic and correlation analysis.

Load forecasting is a common use case of predictive analysis in smart grids (Diamantoulakis et al., 2015). The study made in (Abu-El-Magd and Findlay,
2003) approaches a forecast method which is based on a combination of ANNs and time series data models. Load forecasting can be achieved using not only correlations, but also through machine learning solutions, such as the MapReduce processing model (Rizvandi et al., 2011) (GJSsions, 2014). MapReduce allows for massive scalability across a cluster of computers, for large data sets (in the range of Terabytes), which is a suitable solution in case of AMI infrastructures.

4.1.4 Prescriptive

The primary focus of prescriptive analytics is to provide real-world recommendations. Datasets are evaluated via analytical models and the preferred cause of action for each specific event is selected. Then the result, in the form of explicit actionable information, is presented for human interaction, typically making the final decision on acceptance or rejection. Hence, prescriptive analytics takes a step further than predictive analytics by reducing complex data and algorithms to non-technical descriptors for immediately recognizable advice on predicted future outcomes. The analysis aids the decision-making process, having the potential to both maximize positive outcomes as well as prevent undesirable events (Halo Business Intelligence, 2017).

Simultaneous utilization of multi-source datasets includes historical and real-time data, transactional and big data analytics, that affect marketing strategies (Daki et al., 2017). For example, one significant tool to help utility companies navigate towards a smart grid platform is the Vitria IoT Analytics Platform, reported in (Vitria, 2015). This white paper states that a combination of prescriptive analytics and smart decisions provide the highest throughput in the analytics value chain.

4.2 Near-real-time Analytics

The resilience of the power grid is part of the future requirements for evolving towards intelligent grids. The main motivation for near-real-time analytics lies in the lack of limited grid functionality to timely detect and prevent failures. This extends to the discovery of natural disasters or criminal actions that might have caused the failures. Therefore, these can be prevented by making use of real-time intelligence (Vitria, 2015).

4.2.1 Streaming Analytics

Near-real-time decision support can be provided via data-in-motion pre-database processing, inspection, correlation and analysis. It enables instantaneous management, monitoring, and continuous statistical analysis of data. Introducing real-time KPI overview, immediate access to metrics, and reporting, improves reaction time and accelerates decision-making.

Streaming analytics provide value from the data in a similar manner as traditional historical analytics. The value of streaming data decreases non-linearly over time, meaning that events should be reacted upon quickly, in near-real-time. The progression from historical methods comes as analytics are no longer performed “at-rest”. Instead, data is processed before it is stored and therefore the decision-making process becomes timely and more efficient (Gutierrez, 2016) (Techopedia, 2017). A summary of the modules involved in the data streaming based on the surveyed analytics types is shown in Figure 4. This figure shows that the same principles as in historical analytics can be applied to streaming data.
Table 1: Advantages and disadvantages of using historical and near-real-time analytics for providing data to the DSSE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analytics</th>
<th>Pros</th>
<th>Cons</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Historical (context awareness)</td>
<td>• provide insight by uncovering data patterns and trends</td>
<td>• accuracy and reliability dependent on time</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• quickly accessible and detailed (available and verified data)</td>
<td>• most machine learning algorithms do not deal with temporal effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• clarity by presentation of reduced complex data sets - thorough presentation of large data sets</td>
<td>• reliance on batch processing and consequently limited by the resulting update intervals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near-real-time (situation awareness)</td>
<td>• detects gross errors - accuracy</td>
<td>• highly dependent on the delays in the communication network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• avoid latency from filtering disk data</td>
<td>• difficult to adapt to platform and hardware requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• detect emerging correlations between multiple data sets</td>
<td>• risk of incorrect analysis via implementation dependency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• immediate pre-database data availability</td>
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5 MAIN FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The study presented above emphasized the importance of introducing analytical methods to monitor the status of low voltage electrical grids and to plan future grid reinforcements. Historical data is used to create pseudo-measurements, aiming to fill in missing or erroneous data received from a smart grid infrastructure.

Given the back-end client-server architecture presented in Section 2, the automatic ingestion of data can be defined as a "stream of data": Near-real-time measurements are characterized as a continuous, fast changing and voluminous data flow, commonly known as stream.

To support the above-mentioned definition, the notion of near-real-time data can be given in the context of the data flow architecture in Section 2 and the use case presented in Section 3: Assuming that the data packets sent from the low voltage grid arrive consecutively with a fixed period of time, then a near-real-time data stream can be defined as: a data packet characterized by the arrival granularity and received in a timely manner at the user side. Timing is then relative to the types of events involved in the data flow: automatic or interactive.

The analytical methods involved in the DSSE algorithm are based on both historical and near-real-time data. Due to their timely nature, the near-real-time measurements are more reliable and accurate than the historical ones. Therefore, the DSSE needs near-real-time data, that should be pre-processed in order for the estimator to "understand" it, equivalently to the streaming analytics procedures shown in Figure 4. There are typically not enough near-real-time measurements available to successfully perform the DSSE. Therefore, there is not enough data to provide full grid observability. In order to fill in the gaps of missing information, pseudo-measurements can be created by requesting raw data that has been previously stored in a database. The requested information can therefore be extracted by means of filtering, mining or querying, making it comprehensible for the DSSE. In this case, the most suitable analytics are descriptive.

A summary of pros and cons of the aforementioned analytics for the DSSE is presented in Table 1. The novelty of this study is based on the integration of traditional analytics into the energy-related field, which consists of the DSSE algorithm. As historical based analytics are useful to build periodic reports for strategic and long-term decisions, they are also limited by the temporal effects. Historical data may not give a true pattern of a data trend, if this has changed with time. While near-real-time analytical tools can address the temporal dependency, they are also platform sensitive.
6 CONCLUSION

This study addresses the challenges for choosing suitable data analytics methods in the domain of low voltage smart grids. DSSE is an analytical method for providing a reliable source of information related to the state of the grid, by filtering the raw data and detecting gross errors. Ideally, DSSE makes use of near-real-time data to provide a successful estimation. In many cases, this data is insufficient or non-available, so pseudo-measurements generated from historical data will fill in for the lack of information. Traditional historic analytics can build predictive outputs useful for the DSSE, but there is a higher error probability in the pseudo-measurement.

By this token, the data analytics module should be built on a platform that can accommodate for both historical and near-real-time analysis. The next step in this research is to test the functionality of a DSSE algorithm and analyze the capabilities of processing large amounts of historical batch data. At the same time, the test aims to characterize the performance and bottlenecks of parallel processing of both stream and batch data types, taking into account parameters such as memory usage, processing time and in-memory processing behavior.

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