Review

Computational Intelligence Load Forecasting: A Methodological Overview

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Abstract: Electricity demand forecasting has been a real challenge for power system scheduling in the different levels of the energy sectors. Various computational intelligence techniques and methodologies have been employed in the electricity market for load forecasting; although, scant evidence is available about the feasibility of each of these methods considering the type of data and other potential factors. This work introduces several scientific, technical rationale behind intelligent forecasting methods, based on the work of previous researchers in the field of energy. The fundamental benefits and main drawbacks of the aforementioned methods are discussed in order to depict the efficiency of each approach in various situations. In the end, a proposed hybrid strategy is represented.

Keywords: Intelligent Load Forecasting; Demand-Side Management; Pattern Similarity; Hierarchical Forecasting; Feature Selection; Weather Station Selection

1. Introduction

Load Forecasting (LF) is an integral part of the energy planning sector. Designing a time-ahead power market requires demand scheduling for various energy divisions comprises generation, transmission, distribution. LF helps the power system operators for various decision-making in the power system including supply planning, generation reserve, system security, dispatching scheduling, demand-side management, financial planning and so forth. While LF is specifically essential for the time-ahead power market operation, inaccurate demand forecasting will cost the utility a huge financial burden [1].

Traditionally, engineering approaches were employed to predict the future demand manually with the help of charts and tables. These traditional methods mainly considered the weather impacts as well as calendar effects. Today, these features are still determined for developing the load models with novel methods [2].

By the advent of the statistical software packages and artificial intelligence techniques, several outstanding pieces of research devoted to the statistical [3] and computational intelligence (CI) approaches [4] to model the future load. Some examples of the statistical approaches applied in the LF literature for developing regression-based load models include Auto-Regressive Moving average (ARMA) [5, 6], Auto-Regressive Moving Integrated Average (ARIMS) [7] and Seasonal ARIMA (SARIMA) [8]. Artificial Neural Network (ANN) [4], Support Vector Machine (SVM) [9], Fuzzy Logic [10] and etc. are considered the prevailing CI-based forecasting techniques.
The CI-based load models, regardless of the computational algorithms used to develop them, can be further subcategorized into some methodological outlines. Correspondingly, it must be notified that different forecasting techniques cannot be interpreted as different methodological approaches. A method is defined as a structured procedural solution designed for specific cases of forecasting practices; while, a technique refers to a certain model that can be categorized with all the other similar models in one technical category such as regression or neural network techniques. For example, Fan & Hyndman [11] and Mandal et al. [12] both applied the ANN architecture to develop the 24-hour ahead load model; while, different methodological approaches were considered in each of these papers. In [11], a stepwise method is applied for selecting the optimal subset of variables including the historical load and meteorological variables which locates the lowest error in the model, while in the latter, only the daily load profiles similar to the day-ahead load, recognized by a similarity index (similar day type and similar weather), are fed into the engine. The solution is not always narrowed down to the technique that the forecasters use, instead, the strategy to implement those techniques are important as well.

Generally, both methods and techniques are important when it comes to accurate estimation; however, limited literature is available for the load forecasting methodologies. Most surveys in the literature devoted to the investigation of different load forecasting techniques [13] [14-16]. For example, Mogharm et al. [14] investigated the LF techniques classified into two categories of statistical approaches and CI-based techniques. Hippert et al. [13] reviewed the Neural Network based short-term load forecasting. Although These surveys addressed the most applicable LF techniques, this still might be unclear for early researchers to understand the merit behind developing any specific load model.

This paper explains the main framework of the state-of-the-art methodologies applied for the CI-based load forecasting via examples of several case studies. A comprehending overview of the technical and computational difficulties for LF is presented, as well as the proposed strategies by various researchers to unravel them. These strategies are categorized into four main groups based on their identical topologies. The robustness of each method to deal with the different type of load data are identified.

The rest of paper is organized as follow. Section 2 presents a general overview of the four principle methodologies, followed by four subsections wherein the details of each method is fully described. Section 3 discusses the main advantages and disadvantages of LF methods. Moreover, in section 3, the benefit of the hybrid methods are argued followed by representing the general schematic of a hybrid method proposed in this work. And finally, the concluding remarks are drawn in the last section.

2. Load Forecasting Methodologies

Load forecasting can be conducted by various methodologies. The selection of a forecasting method depends on so many factors including the relevance and availability of the historical data, the forecast horizon, the level of the accuracy for the weather data, the desired prediction accuracy and so forth. In general, the selected method and technique should make the best use of available data. Some of the most applicable methods for load forecasting in the literature can be categorized into the similar day method, variable selection method, hierarchical forecasting and weather station selection according to the Hong and Fan’s survey [2], whereas each approach looks at the forecasting problem uniquely.

Hong and Fan identified these categories of LF methodologies based on the different realization of forecast problem by each method. For example, the similar pattern method determines the load data as a sequence of various similar patterns, while variable selection method presumes that the load data behaves like a series of variables either correlated or independent from each other. Hierarchical method, on the other hand, considers the data as an aggregated load which is highly variant by changes in the load at lower levels of the hierarchy. Finally, weather station selection is the method which determined the best-fitted weather data into the load model.
Figure 1 shows the tree diagram of these four forecasting methods. As can be seen, each method can be carried out via multiple strategies. For example, there are various approaches to predict a hierarchical structure, i.e., bottom up, top down, ensemble and weighted combination. A full description of these four recognized categories of LF methodologies is represented in the following subsections with examples of several case studies.

2.1. The Similar Pattern Method

Similarity-based methods are the generalized forms of minimum distance approaches applied in machine learning and pattern recognition. These methods also have been utilized for load forecasting by finding similar demand patterns within the data set and predicting the future load using interpolation or weighting [17]. There are different strategies for finding the similar load profiles; in the most simple case, it can be achieved by assigning a similarity index to the type-of-the-day in the calendar or meteorological factors. The similar patterns will then be achieved by searching between those days with similar indexes. Searching space is generally within a close neighborhood; although, sometimes annual lagged data is also determined. For example, Dudek et al. [18] developed a similarity-based forecasting model using the similarity between seasonal patterns of a load time series based on the calendar-lagged load data. The search space in [18] was limited to the nearest neighbor of the forecast day, as well as the nearest neighbor of the same calendar day in the previous year. In fact, assigning the day of the year index besides the weekday index is essential to avoid the seasonal variations. The typical search space for the similar-day method is illustrated in figure 2.
Figure 2. limitation of search space for the similar days

Figure 3 illustrates the methodology applied by Dudek et al. [18] appropriately. In the first step, the similar days with the similar weekday index and day-of-the-year index as the forecast day extracted from the load time series (first series), as well as a sequence of the days following these similar days (second series). In the second step, the days with the similar patterns within the first series (similar-day series) were chosen by a selection strategy, and those followed by these newly selected days within the second series (sequence series). The outcome of the third step is a regression model of the load data extracted from the sequence series, and eventually, the next day in the original time series is forecasted by decoding the final model.

Besides the calendar index as the similarity indicator, other characteristics such as weather similarities can also be considered. For instance, Ying Chen et al. [19] proposed a similar-day selection method based on the weather similarity of the forecast day. In their proposed method which was designed to forecast the load in a short-term period (two working days excluding the weekend) by hourly resolution, the search for the similar days was limited to the days with the same weekday index and weather index to the forecast day. The days with similar weather condition were selected based on a minimization process, while the meteorological condition was defined by wind-chill, temperature, humidity, wind speed, and cloud cover variables. Also, the same index was assigned for some of the weekdays with similar load pattern. It also has been shown that relying only on the similar day’s data without establishing the initial status of tomorrow’s load leads to an inaccurate forecast result. Thus the 24-hour today’s load has been fed as an input to the forecast engine. Figure 4 illustrates the schematic diagram of the similar pattern method developed in [19].

Figure 3. similar pattern-based prediction algorithm developed by Dedek et al. [18]
As already mentioned, the selection of the similar patterns between the days with similar indexes (weekday, the day of the year and weather indexes) can be made by a distance minimization technique. Some works in the literature applied Euclidean norm to measure the match level between the similar days [20] [12] [19]. As listed in table 1, Chen et al. [19] used the Euclidean norm to evaluate the weather similarity between the forecast day and previous days. Senjyu et al. [20] also applied a weighted Euclidian to investigate the similarity of load patterns using the load deviations between forecast day and historical days, weather deviation and the slope of load deviations. The assigned weights ($w$) in the formulae (2) is determined based on a regression model using the trend of load and temperature.

Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) is also another method to measure the similarity, for those time series with similar values not exactly at the same time point. Using the DTW method might end up finding more similar patterns of load profiles within the dataset. Teeraratkul et al. [21] indicated that by using the DTW method, the number of groups for similar profiles reduced by 50%.

**Table 1.** Distance minimization method for similarity measurement

| Paper      | Method                              | Formulae                                      | Parameters                                      |
|------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| [19]       | Euclidean distance minimization     | $\min \sum_{t=1}^{24} (w(t)^{f} - w(t)^{i})$, $i \in \theta$ | $\theta$: historical days                        |
|            |                                     |                                               | $f$: forecast day                                |
|            |                                     |                                               | $i$: historical day in $\theta$                  |
|            |                                     |                                               | $w$: weather factor under consideration          |
| [12] [20]  | Weighted Euclidean distance         | $\min \sqrt{w_1(\Delta L_t)^2 + w_2(\Delta L_{st})^2 + w_3(\Delta T_t)^2}$ | $\Delta L_t$: deviation of load of forecast day and historical day $\Delta L_{st}$: deviation of slope between load on forecast day and load of historical day $\Delta T_t$: deviation of temperature between forecast day and historical day $w_n$: Weight factor |
More Recently, clustering algorithms are used to find similar load patterns within the dataset [22, 23]. These clustering techniques are used to group the data into a specific number of categories of the daily load patterns, naming the pattern-sequence based LF method. In this way, a label indexes the load for each day in the dataset. Consequently, a sequence of labels is created in the dataset.

Alvarez et al. [24] applied K-means clustering technique to create clusters of different load patterns and extracted a sequence of labels from the dataset as a pattern to search within the dataset to predict the next day’s load. A schematic of pattern-sequence based forecasting method is depicted in figure 5. According to figure 5, all the weekdays in a dataset are labeled using a clustering method. To predict the next day’s load, a window of a sequence of labels before the forecast day is selected, then the same sequence of labels is searched within the dataset. By averaging the load of the next days, the load of the forecast day is achieved.

The prevalence of the smart meters in the smart grid facilitated the market planners with the fine-grained data with hourly and sub-hourly resolution. The load profiles at the customer-ends provide more sophisticated information about the type of customers and their consumption behaviors. Quilumba et al. [25] used a clustering technique to group the smart meter customers according to their similar energy pattern consumption. The temperature information was interpolated between the neighbor values to become as granular as the smart data.

Clustering methods can distinguish the similar sequences within a dataset as discussed earlier; however, they cannot differentiate the main features of these patterns. More recently, adding memory to the structure of learning engines such as recurrent neural network and deep learning outweigh this drawback.

Liu et al. [26] considered sequence learning approach to developing a load model using recurrent neural network structure (RNN). Kong et al. [27] discuss that long short-term memory of RNN is a powerful engine to learn the look back sequences due to its memory cells to remember important features and forget gates to reset the cells for redundant features. Shi et al. [28] applied the deep recurrent neural network to map the sequence of input data into the corresponding output sequence. Zheng et al. [29] proposed a hybrid method, applying a clustering technique to capture the similar days within the dataset and then used the sequence to sequence structure of the long short-term
memory structure to adjust the length of the input and output sequences. A sequence to sequence structure is primarily designed to map sequences with different length [30] [31]. Marino et al [31] discussed that the main advantage of the sequence to sequence structure is the ability of the approach to predict an arbitrary number of future time steps having an arbitrary length of an input sequence. Satish et al. [32] investigated the optimum learning sequence for the training stage. The results indicated that the number of patterns in a sequence impacts the accuracy of the model.

Table 2 lists the highly cited publications in which similar-pattern method was applied for load prediction. These publications are categorized based on the three common techniques of “distance minimization”, “clustering” and “sequence learning”.

| Method          | Publications | Technique          |
|-----------------|--------------|--------------------|
| Similar Pattern | [12, 18-21, 33, 34] | Distance Minimization |
|                 | [22-25, 35-37] | Clustering         |
|                 | [23, 38, 39] |                    |
|                 | [26, 27] [28] [29] [30] [31] [32] | Sequence Learning |

On the whole, the pattern similarity method is a suitable method to capture the repeated patterns of the load series in a short-term. The overall pattern of a system is rarely changing in the short term; while in longer periods, some significant deviations might lessen the similarity of the future load to the past load.

2.2. The Variable Selection Method

Variable selection is the process of selecting the most influential variables or features (predictor variables) within the dataset that can adequately capture the relationship between the available data and the output model. Despite time series forecasting which only relies on the past data, the variable selection method determines the external variables besides the historical load to embed into the model [40].

Some of these variables- that are so-called explanatory variables due to explaining the reason of load fluctuations- are calendar variables (time of the day, day of the week, month of the year and day of the year etc.), meteorological variables (temperature, humidity, cloud cover, wind chill, solar radiation etc.), the historical load and so forth [41].

Several studies also considered the lagged load data into their model[42, 43]. The lagged variables determine the effect of recency by incorporating the alteration of demand level throughout the load time series into the model. For example, Ceperic et al. [42] proposed a feature selection algorithm to select the optimum number of the lagged loads in order to embed the sequential correlation of the load variables within the dataset into the model. Another example is the work of Fan and Hyndman [11] that considered the lagged load demand for each of the preceding 12 hours, and the lagged values for the same hours of the two previous days, as well as the maximum and minimum load values in the past 24 hours and average load in the previous week; Although, a selecting algorithm has chosen some of these candidate variables.

Besides the lagged demand, some studies embedded the lagged temperatures as input variables. The electricity demand is remarkably impacted by the recent temperature as well as the current temperature. That is why in the forecasting model developed by Fan and Hyndman [11], besides the lagged demand, the current and the 12-hour lagged temperature for the preceding day and the former two days were involved in the model; however, the main concern about the weather variables is its
level of validation that partly depends on the weather station section which will be discussed more in the related section.

By nominating multiple input variables, considering the huge number of the available data for every variable, the predictor engine might not be able to converge to an accurate predictive model. Therefore, an effective subset of the data with the optimal number of predictor variables will help the forecast accuracy [44]. An effective predictor variable is highly explanatory and independent of other variables. The aim is to select the optimal subset of the predictor variables with fewer numbers that suitably describes the characteristics of the output variable. The optimal input subset favors the model accuracy, as well as the cost efficiency and model interpretability [45]. In the literature, researchers employed different methods and techniques to select explanatory variables optimally.

One of the methods used for variable selection is the stepwise refinement which is a step by step approach for selecting the inputs. In this method, the primary model is a full model consists of all the measured variables. Hence, based on the predictive capability of the individual variables, the redundant terms from the model will be omitted. The retained variables consequently lead to the best model. One example is the work of Fan and Hyndman [11] who carried out a step by step variable selection method to extract the best-suited model. The nominated inputs were the calendar variables, actual demand and lagged demand (from the National Electricity Market of Australia-NEM) and forecasted temperature data from more than one sites in the target area. For example, in the first stage, the temperature differentials form the same period of the last six days were dropped one at a time, and the one which led to the lowest error was selected. Consequently, in the next stage, the temperature variable has been frozen to only the selected day from the last stage, and the temperatures of the last six hours were considered for the trail. This procedure has been continued until the final group of variables was selected.

Nedellec et al. [46] followed the same strategy of stepwise refinement for variable selection as well, but in a three-step procedure while the variables in each stage were selected based on the scale of the forecast. In the long-term module, monthly load and temperature time series for every region and weather station were selected, to extract the long-term trend and low-frequency effects. The residual of the first stage with no seasonality and weather effects were considered for a medium-term estimate. Variables such as a type of the day, type of the year, de-trended electrical load, real temperature, and lagged temperature were the predictor variables in the medium-term model. In short-term stage, more localized factors that were remained were captured by selecting variables such as year, month, day, hour, time of the year and day type, as well as real and smoothed weather variables. This stepwise algorithm is illustrated in figure 6 for a better understanding. As can be seen, the final forecasted load is an additive model of the three components.

Xiao et al. [47] also developed an ensemble load model by applying a group of load forecasting techniques to capture the trend of the load series, then the highly nonlinear characteristics of the residual subseries modeled using various data handling techniques.
There are also other approaches to identify the maximum relevance between different variables. Correlation-based methods use a heuristic algorithm to find the subset of variables that are highly correlated with the output but are not correlated with each other [48]. Chen et al. [9] used the correlation method to measure the dependency of the peak demand to the temperature. Kouhi et al. [49] developed a correlation-based feature selection method to reduce the chaotic structure of a load time series and selected the highly relevant variables within this reconstructed space. Amjadi et al. [3] also used a correlation approach to create a subseries of the load data to develop a hybrid forecast model.

Mutual Information (MI) is an information theoretic-based approach to measure the interdependency between variables. Wang et al. [50] used the MI method to obtain the initial weights of the developed ANN based load forecast model. Elattar et al. [51] reconstructed a load time series by embedding the dimension and time delay computed by the mutual information approach. Young-Min Wi et al. [52] adopted the MI method to evaluate the mutual information between the dominant weather features and loads of the different seasons.

Moreover, Reis et al. [53] applied wavelet filter to reconstruct a subseries of data after selecting the input variables using autocorrelation function. Amjadi et al. [54] also proposed a hybrid load prediction algorithm in which a filter-based technique selected a minimum subset of inputs. Zhongyi Hu et al. [55] proposed a hybrid filter method for the feature selection procedure.

More recently, developing the bio-inspired optimization tools as well as the evolutionary optimization algorithms leded to improving the CI-based feature selection techniques for load forecasting. Some examples of the developed optimization algorithms for feature selection in the literature include Ant Colony [56], Particle Swarm [57, 58], Differential Evolution [59], hybrid Genetic and Ant Colony [60] and so forth.

Some of the highly cited publications for load forecasting categorized based on the applied feature selection techniques are listed in table 3.
Table 3. List of the publications using different feature selection techniques

| Publication | Technique               |
|-------------|-------------------------|
| [11, 46] [47]| Stepwise                |
| [53, 54]     | Filter                  |
| [3, 9, 45, 49, 61, 62]| Correlation            |
| [45, 50-52, 63]| Mutual Information    |
| [56] [57, 58] [59] [60, 64]| Optimization Algorithms|

Generally, there are two main parts in forecasting a system. The first one is selecting the appropriate group of inputs; the other is to find a suitable architecture for the forecasting engine [65]. For example, Khotanzad et al.[66] proposed a three-module structure to model the hourly, daily and weekly trend by one of each. In their developed architecture for prediction of the hourly load of the next day, the decomposed result of each of the three modules would be trained by 24 ANN engines for each hour of the day.

Some other papers in the literature also applied the so-called parallel architecture for 24-hour ahead load forecasting [42, 67]. The reasons for utilizing this design are the smaller number of the training data for each module, the omitted parameters for the hour of the day, the simpler model for each hour of the day comparing to one general model for all 24 hours and so forth. Figure 7 shows an overview of the parallel design for 24-hour ahead load forecasting. The left side picture is a schematic of the architecture proposed by Khotanzad et al.[66].

![Figure 7. Parallel Architecture for 24-hour ahead forecasting](image)

Overall, developing the explanatory model via the variable selection method is suitable when the forecasters have fundamental knowledge about the system. In order to forecast the variable of interest, one needs to identify different exogenous variables. Generally, there are no rules implied for
the selection of the input variables. The forecaster’s experiences in analyzing the type of the data from a specific market, as well as the preliminary testing might help to select the proper group of variables. Thus, the professional judgment is undoubtedly part of the process.

2.3. Hierarchical Forecasting

The previous methods presumed the load data as single time-series, while these time series can be inherently disaggregated by different attributes of interest [40]. Load time-series naturally are organized based on different hierarchies such as geographic, temporal, circuit connection and revenue. Figure 8 depicts a typical hierarchical structure of a time-series divided into aggregate and disaggregate levels.

One example of a hierarchical load structure can be found in a study conducted by Zhang et al. [68]. The load data was the recorded consumption of 300 smart meter customers of a subsection in Australian utility within 3 years. The 300 customers were clustered into 30 nodes with their postcodes. These 30 nodes again grouped into 3 nodes. Also, these three nodes summed up at final level to one aggregated time series. In the distribution level; however, the hierarchical levels are specified as the load of substations, feeders, transformers and, customers [69].

![Figure 8. Schematic Diagram of the Hierarchical Structure of a load time series](image)

Recently, there has been a prevailing attention to the hierarchical load model due to the market considerations for decision making in different levels of the power system including independent system operator, distribution operator, and the customer-ends. Utilities need the forecast at low voltage levels in order to perform effectively the operation at the distribution level such as circuit switching and load control. The accurate forecasting model at low level could even increase the prediction accuracy at independent system operator level [70]. In fact, the independent system operator in the upper level in a power system covers a large geographical area, with extensive load diversities throughout the area. Hence, a single model is not able to guarantee the prediction accuracy.

The state-of-the-art load forecasting methods to deal with hierarchical load structure are sub-grouped into bottom-up and top-down approaches [25, 71]. The bottom-up approach aggregates the forecasts form low level to the aggregated level, while the top-down method aggregates the historical load prior to the forecasting. The former approach doesn’t miss out any information due to the aggregation; although, high volatility of bottom level is challenging to be predicted [72]. The top-down method, on the other hand, is simpler for less noisiness due to the aggregation; although, some features for the individual series will be lost [40]. For instance, Quilumba et al. [25] used the bottom-up approach for forecasting the load of the customers disaggregated by the similar consumption patterns.

Some of the advantages and disadvantages of the bottom-up and top-down approaches were highlighted by Hyndman et al. [73], who referenced the early works in the literature. Generally, the bottom-up approach is robust when the data in bottom level is reliable without missing information; otherwise, the forecast at the low-level is error-prone, and the top-down approach will result in a more accurate forecast. On the whole, the superiority of one method over the other is not uniform.
Hierarchical Load Forecasting can also be conducted at all levels of the hierarchies individually, that is so called as “base forecast”; however, here the challenge is that the prediction at aggregated level might not be consistent with the added up base forecast [74].

Zhang et al. [68] proposed a solution to optimally adjust the base forecasts at each node to be consistent across the aggregation structure. This goal has been accomplished by minimizing the redundancy between the forecast at the aggregated level and the sum of the base forecasts, using quadratic programming in a post-processing scheme. The method was tested on two electricity networks, one bulk system of a large area with several dispatch zones at the bottom level, the latter is a distribution network covering a small area with hundreds of individual customers at a low level. The result shows that for more than 85% of the nodes in bulk network, the proposed method was more accurate. For distribution network with more volatile load, the improvement is more obvious especially at the upper aggregated level the error is significantly decreased. Nose-Filho et al. [75] developed a load model for a sub-distribution system in New Zealand as well by finding participation factors between the local forecasts and the global forecast.

Another example is the study by Fan et al. [76] who proposed a strategy to forecast the load of the sub-regions within a large geographical area independently by finding the optimal region partition in the combination procedure. It has been argued in [76] that the weather condition is a dominant factor on load variations; therefore, the extreme variation in weather condition throughout the area can be interpreted as high load diversity with the large region. The other factor that makes the regional load profiles to be vastly different has been identified to be the noncoincident load peaks.

Sun et al. [69] proposed a strategy to predict loads of different nodes in a distribution power system, by a top-down approach. First, loads of parent nodes are forecasted, then by finding the similarity between the parent node (aggregated level) and its child nodes (correspondent disaggregated levels), two classes of regular and irregular nodes are identified. Thus, for the regular nodes, the load is a fraction of the origin load, calculated by a distribution factor. For those irregular loads which do not follow the leading characteristics of the parent node, individual models are forecasted. The similarity between nodes was identified by using the distance minimization method, for both the weather parameter and the historical load.

More recently, with the dominance of smart meters, fine-grained data at sub-levels reveal more information at the aggregated level. Wang et al. [77] used the granular smart meter data to construct a forecast model at an aggregated level. In their proposed model, the data is clustered into different groups of loads with similar patterns, and the aggregated forecast is obtained by adding up the forecast of the individual clusters; however, instead of the bottom-up strategy, a weight is assigned to each model while varying the number of clusters. The final forecast is an optimally weighted combination of these individual forecasts. Their proposed method was implemented on a data set consists of 5237 residential consumers’ data with half hourly resolution for 75-week duration. It has been shown that the result of the direct aggregated load is more accurate than the clustering strategy; while, their proposed method outweighs both other methods. Besides this data set, the method was also tested on 155 substations load data for the 103-week duration. In contrast to the first data set, the outcomes indicate that the bottom-up model is more accurate than other individual clustering models. It has been concluded that the reason for this contrast is due to regularity in substation load in comparison to residential load profiles.

Table 4 illustrates two of the combination methods that were applied to sum up the base forecast to be coherent with the aggregated forecast. Both of these methods minimize the error between the sum of the base forecasts and aggregated forecast, either by linear [77] or quadratic [68] programming. Other combination methods are discussed in [78] with further theoretical explanations. This is suggested that new hierarchical forecasting method might be expressed by selecting an appropriate combination algorithm.
Table 4. Combination Methods for base forecasts

| Combination Method       | Formulae                                                                 | Parameters               |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Linear Programming      | $w = \arg \min_w \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{|\hat{Y} - \bar{Y}|}{\bar{Y}}$       | $\hat{Y}$: base forecast |
|                         | $\bar{Y} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} w_n \bar{Y}_n$                               | $\bar{Y}$: adjusted forecast | $W$: weight factor |
| Quadratic Programming   | $\min_{Y} \frac{1}{2}(\hat{Y} - \bar{Y})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\hat{Y} - \bar{Y})$ | $\hat{Y}$: base forecast |
|                         | $\bar{Y} = [\vec{a}, \vec{b}]^T$                                       | $\bar{Y}$: adjusted forecast |
|                         | $\vec{a} = p \vec{b}$                                                   | $\vec{a}$: load of the aggregated level |
|                         | $\vec{b}$: Load of the disaggregated level                              | $p$: participation factor |

Different levels of a hierarchical structure interact with each other in a complicated fashion, whereas a change in one series at one level, can change the series at the same level as well as other levels of a hierarchy sequentially. Sun et al. [69] considered the change that switching operation might cause on the load trend, by adjusting the forecast as the switching is detected. The abnormal changes in the demand were identified by measuring the mean and standard deviation of the load using statistical process control, and then the load participation factor is calculated based on the new data. Comparably, deviations in the meteorological conditions in a large geographical area cause the base forecasts to vary, leading to the changes in the aggregated load accordingly. However, the meteorological information might not be available at every sub-level. there are a number of meteorological services available at a geographical area, providing the weather forecast information. Hong et al. [79] argued that in a hierarchical structure with various nodes to be forecasted, the best-related weather information could not be selected manually for each node. The method of weather station selection was one of the main objectives in the Global Energy Forecasting Competition 2012 (GEFC) [80]. More about this is discussed in the next section.

2.4. Weather Station Selection

In a large electricity market covering an expanded area, a single forecasting model cannot capture the load pattern. The hierarchical structure that was discussed in the previous section ensure a more satisfactory forecast across different levels of hierarchy. However, in a hierarchical structure that disaggregates the load based on geographical divisions or zonal hierarchies, the meteorological hierarchies that are for sure a dominant factor in load diversity cannot easily be captured. The challenge is to assign the most related weather station information to each zone or area in the hierarchy.

Fan et al. [76] proposed a combination method to select the best adapted individual weather forecast between multiple forecasts provided by different meteorological services. several papers in the literature [81, 82] used the average data from multiple services for its simple and effective result comparing to other weighted averaging methods.

In Hong & Pinson planned competition (GEFC competition) [79], weather station selection was one of the addressed issues. The data provided in the competition was the hourly load history of 20 zones in the USA along with the weather data gathered from 11 weather stations, without specifying the location of the weather stations.
Between the winning teams, Charlton et al. [83] built 11 energy model for each zone based on the weather data of 11 weather station provided in the competition. The best-fitted weather station for each zone is not a single station. Instead, it is a linear combination of up to 5 best-fitting weather stations for each group. Lloyd [84] also developed a forecast model based on all the weather stations’ data and used a Bayesian model averaging to integrate these models into one final average model. Moreover, in the proposed model by Nedellec et al. [46], one station was selected for each zone, considering that other combination strategies led to unsatisfactory outcomes. Taieb et al. [85] selected the best-fitted station for each zone by testing the last week temperature data for each zone. The demand modeled using the average temperature data of best three weather sites.

Hong et al.[79], on the other hand, proposed a method for weather station selection, that instead of assigning the same number of weather station to all nodes at the same level of hierarchy (as it was the common strategy in the GEFC competition), different numbers of weather stations are selected for individual load zones; Although, the result was not always superior to other alternatives.

3. Method Evaluation and Future Work

A comprehensive explanation of the LF methodologies provided in the last sections. Generally, the logic behind every specific method helps the forecaster to choose the best-fitted method based on their application. For example, the similar pattern method mainly relies on the historical values, in spite of the variable selection method which incorporates the information about explanatory variables. Therefore, the forecaster might consider the similar pattern method where the system might not be comprehensive enough, or if it is explanatory, it is extremely difficult to extract the main features that govern the demand behavior. In this situation, there are always some variations in the load that cannot be captured by explanatory variables. In similar pattern strategy, on the other hand, the focus is on what is going to happen rather than why it happens. still, when there is a correlation between exogenous variables and load data, explanatory model i.e. variable selection method is a suitable approach.

Some of the main advantages and disadvantages of these four methods are listed in Table 5. For example, in the variable selection method, as one drawback, it is assumed that all the input variables are independent of each other; although, in reality, they are partly correlated. To some extent, inserting some lag information as input data partly captures the high correlations between variables. Similar pattern method, on the other hand, presumes that the past values of a variable are important in predicting the future; although, the algorithms can only look back for a few steps for a limited sequence of data.

| Method               | Advantage                                                                 | Disadvantage                                      |
|----------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|
| Similar Pattern Method | • Adapt to exceptional circumstances and random events                     | • The horizon of forecast is limited up to a couple of days ahead |
|                      | • No previous knowledge about the system is needed                         | • Limited search space                             |
|                      |                                                                          | • Not explanatory                                 |
| Variable Selection Method | • Embedding exterior variables into the model                             | • No comprehensive correlation between variables   |
|                      | • Increase prediction accuracy by reducing overfitting and addressing the curse of dimensionality | • Difficulty in identifying exogenous variables    |
|                      |                                                                          | • Huge number of variables                         |
| Hierarchical Method | Weather Station Selection |
|----------------------|---------------------------|
| • Simpler prediction (smaller number of predictors or smaller size of input space) | • Find the best fitted weather data for each level of the hierarchy |
| • Improves the understanding of the prediction model | • Uncertainty about Optimal number of stations for each hierarchy |
| • Redundancy | • Lack of coherency across the aggregated structure. |
| • Non-independent input variables | • Loss of information due to aggregation in the top levels |
| • Help the power system operators to perform the load control and circuit switching at different levels of the hierarchies. | • The high irregular data at the bottom levels of the hierarchies |
| • Enhancing the model accuracy by using the information at the lower levels | |

Hyndman et al. [73] discussed that taking advantage of the prominent features of different methods and combine them in a hybrid scheme is what we need to do now. Some examples of this combination are available in the literature.

For example, Quilumba et al. [25] applied the similar pattern method in one step to group the smart meter load profiles into an optimal number of groups and the feature selection method in the next step to forecast the aggregated load at each group of data.

In the proposed load model by Wang et al. [77] a three-stage combined model has been applied. The hierarchical structure of the load series extracted by applying the hierarchical clustering technique based on the similar consumption behavior of the customers. Different load models developed at each subgroup of the data using variable selection method, and eventually the final model revealed by adding a weight factor to the individual models in order to be coherent across the aggregate level.

Another example of the hybrid methodology can be found in the work of Zheng et al. [29], in which the feature selection method is used to help to find the similar days' clusters. Each cluster is shaped based on the feature values of the data, whereas a weighted parameter is assigned to each feature.

In this paper, a hybrid method is represented based on some of the main features of the methods reviewed in the last sections. The schematic diagram of the method is illustrated in figure 9. As it can be seen, this method is proposed to find the base forecasts at each level of the hierarchical structure by applying similar pattern method, and then using a strategy to keep the coherency between the loads at different levels. The strategy is performed in 7 steps as shown in figure 9. In the first step, the patterns similar to today’s load profile are extracted from each load series at the disaggregate level. Considering that \( n \) number of similar patterns are obtained for each sub series, and by assuming that there is \( N \) number of subsseries at the disaggregate level, \( n^N \) number of aggregated profiles can be created. Between these aggregated profiles, the one with the minimum distance from today’s profile at the aggregated level is selected. Then in the next step, the combined profile will be matched to the real aggregated profile by finding the weighting factor. Eventually, to forecast the next day’s load at the aggregate level, the load profiles of the sequence days (the days after the similar pattern days) that were selected in the optimal combination will be summed up using the weighting factor of step 5. This method finds the similar patterns in the disaggregate level, but measure the similarity
distance again at the aggregate level. Further assessment is required as a future work to evaluate the feasibility of this method on actual load data.

![Figure 9. Schematic diagram of the proposed hybrid method](image)

4. Conclusions

In this paper, the state-of-the-art methodologies for load forecasting divided into four main categories are discussed. Each of these methods proposes a specific solution for LF. Similar pattern method that is rooted form the minimum distance method, presumes that the load trend is unlikely to vary during a short period; Hence, by searching within the close vicinity of today’s load, some similar patterns can be distinguished. In fact, forecasting the future load is based on the subsequent behavior of the discovered similar patterns in the load series.

Variable selection method, on the other hand, tries to find the prominent, independent features in a dataset with the lowest correlation with each other and high correlation with the output. Constructing a subseries of these features help to improve the forecast accuracy.

Other methods, on the other hand, deal with the aggregate loads in different levels of the hierarchical structure. Predicting the load in various zonal level help the power system operators to effectively perform the switching operation and load control. In addition, improving the forecast at sub levels enhances the prediction accuracy at upper levels.

Besides the geographical and zonal hierarchies, the weather hierarchy is another vital factor in load forecasting that cannot be captured easily for each geographical zone. various weather services in a large geographical area provide different weather forecast information. Selecting the best-suited weather information is substantially important for load forecasting considering the influence of weather variables on the load trend.

Eventually, by highlighting the main advantages and disadvantages of each method, it has been concluded that combining the single methods in the hybrid scheme can benefit from the robustness of the single techniques. In the end, the simple outline of a hybrid strategy is proposed for future evaluation.

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Nomenclature

ANN  Artificial Neural Network
ARIMA  Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average
ARMA  Auto-Regressive Moving Average
CI   Computational Intelligence
DTW  Dynamic Time Warping
GEFC  Global Energy Forecasting Competition
LF   Load Forecasting
MI   Mutual Information
RNN  Recurrent Neural Network
SARIMA  Seasonal Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average
SVM   Support Vector Machine

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