



IJRASET

International Journal For Research in
Applied Science and Engineering Technology



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL FOR RESEARCH

IN APPLIED SCIENCE & ENGINEERING TECHNOLOGY

Volume: 14 **Issue:** V **Month of publication:** May 2026

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.22214/ijraset.2026.83123>

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Review on Load Forecasting in Modern Power Systems: Comparative Analysis of Techniques, Challenges, Research Gap and Emerging Trends

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Abstract: Accurate prediction of load is a fundamental aspect of planning and operation of power systems. The complexity and uncertainty of load forecasting have been significantly increased due to the evolution of renewable energy sources, the integration of electric vehicles and other innovations associated with the smart grid concept. This work presents a detailed overview of load forecasting techniques that include traditional statistical models, various AI, machine learning, and deep learning models. Load forecasting methods based on statistical models, AI-based methods, deep learning methods, machine learning methods, and Transformer-based architecture is reviewed and analyzed. A comparative analysis of these methods is performed on the basis of category, complexity, strengths, and limitations. The factors affecting electrical load are also studied such as the temperature, humidity, holidays, and economic activity to understand their effect on the accuracy of forecasting. In addition challenges, research gaps and future direction are discussed. The review aims to help researchers select the most appropriate forecasting technique for their research and to gain a better understanding of the recent developments in the area. It will also help utilities to select effective forecasting methods for better grid management and energy planning.

Index Terms—Load forecasting, ARIMA, machine learning, deep learning, LSTM, Transformer, smart grid.

I. INTRODUCTION

Electrical load forecasting is the task of predicting the electricity consumption of a certain area for a future time period. Accurate forecasting is important for the efficient and reliable operation of modern power systems, allowing utilities and system operators to make informed decisions regarding generation scheduling, unit commitment, energy trading and infrastructure investment [1].

The ongoing transition to smart grid architectures, the integration of distributed energy resources (DERs), and the increasing penetration of electric vehicles (EVs) have resulted in a far less predictable and more nonlinear load behavior. The traditional load profiles are further complicated by the increasing demand response programs and the emergence of prosumers making the classical deterministic models less and less useful [2], [3].

Traditional methods for load forecasting have relied on statistical techniques, including regression and Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average models. Despite their computational efficiency, these methods rely on the assumptions of linearity and stationarity, which frequently do not hold in contemporary load scenarios. The availability of high-resolution smart meter data and the development of computational resources have gradually promoted the use of machine learning and deep learning methods. For example, Long Short-Term Memory networks, Convolutional Neural Networks, and Transformer-based models have set new accuracy benchmarks with Mean Absolute Percentage Error values consistently below 2% on benchmarks [4].

With the limited review paper on various aspects of this topic [5], [6], [7], there is a requirement for further analysis on the latest approaches in the modern smart grid era. This paper tries to fill this gap by providing a comprehensive review on load forecasting methods from five perspectives, i.e., statistical models, AI-based methods, deep learning methods, machine learning, and hybrid frameworks.

II. CLASSIFICATION OF LOAD FORECASTING

The classification of electrical load forecasting is based on different time frames, operational objectives, input features and accuracy requirements. Generally, the load forecasting can be categorized into three major categories based on the length of the forecasting period such as Three types of load forecasting are there, namely, Short-Term Load Forecasting, Medium-Term Load Forecasting, and Long-Term Load Forecasting [8]. Each category has a different and important role to play in the planning and operation of modern power systems.

A. Short-Term Load Forecasting:-

STLF includes predicting how much electricity will be needed in the next hour to seven days. This is the most important category for operations because system operators use its outputs directly for real-time grid management, unit commitment, economic dispatch, spinning reserve allocation, and electricity market bidding [9], [10]. Under conditions of high renewable penetration, wrong short-term forecasts can cause big economic penalties, system imbalances, or even grid instability. The accuracy standards for STLF are usually very high. An acceptable level of accuracy for operational deployment is a Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) below 3%. However, the rapid and nonlinear variations of load demand arising from changing weather conditions, human behaviors, industrial activity cycles, and the random nature of distributed energy resources (DERs) [11] have made it increasingly difficult to attain this accuracy. Recent advances in deep learning, especially Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks and Transformer architectures, have greatly improved the accuracy of STLF, with state-of-the-art models reaching MAPE values below 2% consistently on standard benchmark datasets.

B. Medium-Term Load Forecasting:-

MTLF considers forecasting horizons of one week to about one year. It is mainly used for planning maintenance dates of generation units, fuel purchase for thermal power plants, hydro-reservoir management and electricity contract negotiations in deregulated energy markets [12]. MTLF uses aggregated historical load profiles, seasonal patterns, and economic indicators as its main inputs, while STLF needs real-time data at a high frequency. Such models need to take into consideration seasonal effects, heating/cooling cycle due to temperature, impact of public holidays, as well as economic influences on the base consumption rate. Models falling under the category of MTLF yield MAPE values in the range of 3–8% depending on geographical location and the approach taken. Hybrid models combining statistical decomposition methods with deep learning have been successful in modeling both the trend and seasonality components of medium-term load [13].

C. Long-Term Load Forecasting:-

LTLF is the task of long-term electricity load prediction with periods that can be as long as several decades. This type of load forecasting is paramount for planning of electricity production and transmission capacities, energy policy planning and investments in energy infrastructure projects [14]. Due to the extended prediction periods, LTLF models should account for various macroeconomic indicators like GDP growth, population changes, urbanization rates, and industrialization estimates. As more electric vehicles become used in transportation and heating/cooling systems get increasingly electrified, the electrification of these processes becomes one of the main load drivers on a long-term basis. According to statistics, the global consumption of electricity by EVs is projected to reach about 180 TWh per year in 2024, up by 60% compared to the previous year, while the further annual increase is expected to be exponential until 2035 [15]. Modeling of this type of load behavior poses a significant challenge to research, as linear regression models cannot effectively represent nonlinear dependencies [16].

III. FACTORS AFFECTING ELECTRICAL LOAD

To develop effective electrical load forecasting models, it is essential to have a thorough knowledge about the influencing variables that affect electrical load demand. These influencing variables, along with the selection of input variables, model structure, and forecast horizon, directly depend upon each other. Through an extensive literature survey, it has been found that there exist four major categories of influencing variables, namely weather/climatic variables, economic/demographic variables, calendar/temporal variables, and social/behavioral variables.

A. Weather and Climatic Factors

The second largest class of load-driving factors is that consisting of weather and climate-related variables. Temperature is known to be the single most influential meteorological factor contributing to electricity demand changes, since it drives directly the use of the heating, ventilation and air conditioning systems (HVAC). The energy loads associated with HVAC make up a dominant share of overall electricity consumption both in households and commercial buildings, especially during the extreme seasons [17]. Empirically, it has been found that temperature alone explains 60–70% of variance in peak load on daily basis, which makes accurate temperature forecasts an essential input to load forecast models.

B. Economic and Demographic Factors

The economic and demographic variables are the key factors that define the baseline and long-term trend of the electricity demand. Gross Domestic Product (GDP), industrial production, per capita income, and economic activities in different sectors are responsible for determining the quantity of electricity consumed in a particular region. In all the studies reviewed, GDP and past load data were found to be the most common factors influencing electricity demand. GDP is used as an input variable in about 29% of all the studies [18].

C. Calendar and Temporal Effects

Temporal and calendar variables provide systematic regularity and seasonality to electric demand curves, and would be regarded as incomplete without them. Calendar-related phenomena include weekdays, time of day, seasons, and special dates including holidays.

The electricity load on weekdays is quite different from that on weekends due to different levels of industrial and business activities. The electricity load during weekday exhibits obvious peaks during the early and late commutes of workers [19]. The electricity load on weekends seems to be smoother without obvious peaks. Time of day phenomena include intraday periodicity with consumption peaking at mid-afternoon and early evenings in predominantly residential electricity networks and mid-morning in predominantly commercial grids [20].

D. Social and Behavioral Factors

An emerging and highly relevant set of influencing factors are social and behavioral elements, owing to the technological revolution currently affecting the domestic and commercial use of energy. Patterns in lifestyle, culture, occupancy, and the awareness of individuals about the cost of their energy consumption all influence load profiles.

The growing prevalence of smart homes, IoT-enabled appliances, and HEMS has led to the evolution of consumption behavior in the domestic space. Real-time monitoring, scheduling, and automation of energy consumption in smart homes mean that load profiles are now more flexible and difficult to predict than ever. There has been ample evidence that integrating consumer behavior information through IoT into machine learning and XAI systems increases forecast accuracy.

IV. METHODS OF LOAD FORECASTING

This review systematically analyzes the development of short-term load forecasting (STLF) methods from 2000 to 2025. A total of 72 papers were selected from reputed journals and conferences such as IEEE Transactions, MDPI Energies, Elsevier Energy and Frontiers in Energy Research. The literature reviewed is classified by forecasting techniques as follows: 2 papers are reviewed under statistical and classical methods covering ARIMA and Regression based approaches; The 2 papers for SARIMA based seasonal forecasting are included; 3 papers are selected for Artificial Neural Network (ANN) and Fuzzy Logic methods; 2 papers are about hybrid ARIMA-ANN models; 4 papers review Support Vector Machine and Machine Learning techniques; Random Forest and XGBoost methods are selected for 3 papers; 6 papers on Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) and its variants such as Bi-LSTM and Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU), 4 papers on CNN-LSTM hybrid deep learning models, and 3 papers on Transformer and Attention-based architectures. The rest of the papers are on ensemble methods, federated learning, explainable AI and smart grid applications.

A. Traditional Statistical Methods

The traditional basis for electrical load forecasting has been the statistical methods due to their sound mathematical basis and ease of understanding. This is because such methodologies rely on the application of known statistical laws in order to predict the link between past loads and various other determinants. Although novel machine learning systems have been developed recently, the conventional approaches still have practical relevance.

1) *Regression Analysis*: The regression-based approach is one of the oldest and most popular approaches in load forecasting.

The linear and multiple regression models create mathematical functions that represent the relationship between the electric power load and predictor variables like air temperature, time-related, and calendar variables. Multiple regression models represent the load as a weighted sum of the predictors. It is easy to interpret the coefficients in this case, and computing forecasts becomes faster.

Regression models are still applicable for short and medium term load forecasting for the period 2020-2025. They are especially suitable in hybrid architectures where they are basic or pre-processing models [21]. But their linearity inherent limits their capability to model non-linear dependencies and sophisticated seasonal patterns in present-day electric power grids.

- 2) *Time Series Methods (ARMA/ARIMA/SARIMA)*: Forecasting has been widely performed using models such as ARMA and ARIMA models. The ARIMA model is an extension of the Box-Jenkins method. It takes into account autoregressive terms, differencing terms and moving average terms in its construction, which enables it to handle non-stationary time series data. The Seasonal ARIMA (SARIMA) is an extension of the ARIMA model, by adding the seasonal component to deal with seasonality effects and periodicity in time series data, which is suitable for short-term forecasting with significant seasonality [22]. The ARIMA and SARIMA models assume the linearity and stationarity, which make them not suitable for modeling the non-linear nature of load variations, sudden spikes in demand, or even the environmental factors that could affect the process.
- 3) *Exponential Smoothing*: Exponential smoothing algorithms such as Holt-Winter technique find application in many scenarios where time series data with trend and seasonal elements have to be forecasted. Such forecasting techniques apply exponentially weighted average on historical data points, thus assigning higher significance to more recent points. Holt-Winters algorithm efficiently models all three elements – level, trend, and seasonality – and is applicable for medium term load forecasting tasks. Due to high efficiency and reliability, exponential smoothing algorithms are widely employed in contemporary forecasting frameworks [23]. Unfortunately, just like any other classical model, exponential smoothing fails in handling nonlinear time series data.

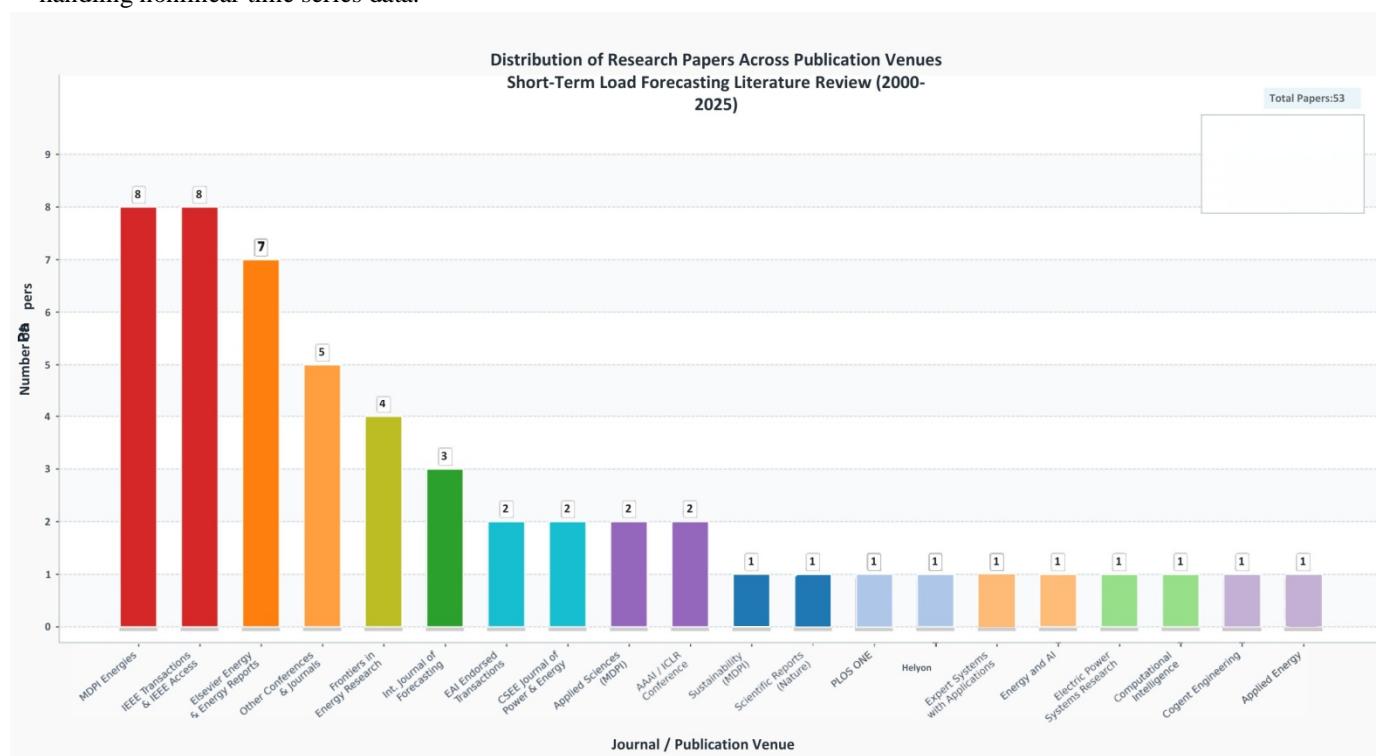


Fig.1. 'Distribution of Research Papers Across Publication Venues Load Forecasting Literature Review (2000–2025)'

- 4) *Kalman Filter*: The Kalman Filter is an algorithm for recursively estimating states from observations, where each estimate is continually updated as more data becomes available. It performs quite well in applications related to load forecasting because such problems involve evolving states.

Recently, there have been several modifications of the Kalman Filter approach that combine it with other models, providing improved results in terms of short-term forecasting [24]. However, although being a powerful tool, it relies on the assumption that system dynamics are linear and that noise is Gaussian.

B. Artificial Intelligence-Based Methods

Due to inadequacies in traditional statistical modeling in modeling non-linear relationships, the use of artificial intelligence (AI) was adopted in load forecasting, starting from the early 1990s.

This is because AI modeling allows for the modeling of complex patterns within data without the need for any specific mathematical modeling.

1) *Artificial Neural Networks (ANN)*: Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) are amongst the oldest machine learning algorithms applied for load forecasting purposes. Artificial neural networks are universal function approximation models that can capture complex non-linear mappings between inputs and outputs. Input variables usually include past load information, weather conditions and calendar variables.

The output of a neuron can be expressed as:

$$y = f\left(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i + b\right)$$

where x_i represents input features, w_i are weights, b is bias, and $f()$ is the activation function (e.g., sigmoid, ReLU). For a multi-layer network:

$$y = f^{(L)}(W^{(L)} \cdot f^{(L-1)}(\dots f^{(1)}(W^{(1)}x + b^{(1)}))$$

Several works have proven the ability of ANNs to perform load modeling and accurate forecasting [25], [26]. Nevertheless, there are several weaknesses of classical ANNs such as the need for big data sets during training, vulnerability to overfitting, and the vanishing gradient phenomenon.

2) *Fuzzy Logic Systems*: Fuzzy Logic Models are based on linguistic variables and membership functions in order to deal with uncertainties in load prediction.

A fuzzy rule can be defined as follows:

If x_1 is A_1 , x_2 is A_2 Then y is B

Output is calculated using weighted sum method.

$$y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i(x) \cdot y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i(x)}$$

$\mu_i(x)$ denotes the membership function. ANFIS combines neural networks and fuzzy logic to improve accuracy [27], [28].

1) *Support Vector Regression (SVR)*: Support Vector Regression (SVR) intends to construct a function where the deviation between the prediction and real target values is no more than ϵ .

The regression function follows:

$$f(x) = w^T \phi(x) + b$$

Optimization problem follows:

$$\min \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n (\xi_i + \xi_i^*)$$

with constraints as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} y_i - w^T \phi(x_i) - b &\leq \epsilon + \xi_i \\ w^T \phi(x_i) + b - y_i &\leq \epsilon + \xi_i^* \end{aligned}$$

where $\phi(x)$ represents mapping from input to high-dimensional space, C is penalty parameter. SVR has great generalization performance [29], [30] but has significant computational complexity.

3) *Hybrid AI Methods*: In hybrid modeling, a number of methods are used together in order to achieve high level of forecasting accuracy. For instance, in ARIMA-ANN hybrid modeling,

$$y_t = y_t^{(ARIMA)} + y_t^{(ANN)}$$

where:

- y_t^{ARIMA} captures linear components
- y_t^{ANN} models nonlinear residuals

Such hybrid techniques improve accuracy and robustness [31],[32].

C. Machine Learning Methods

Traditional AI algorithms for load prediction have certain drawbacks such as lack of scalability, lack of automated feature selection and inaccuracy of the current ML models [33].

1) *Random Forest*: The Random Forest model is an ensemble of T trees, each tree being trained on a bootstrap sample of the training data. The output \hat{y} is given by averaging the outputs of all individual trees:

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T h_t(\mathbf{x})$$

where $h_t(\mathbf{x})$ represents the prediction made by the t -th tree on input vector \mathbf{x} . Random Forest (RF) reduces variance by averaging but keeps low bias to prevent overfitting in single decision trees [34].

One of the most significant benefits of RF in load forecasting is its natural feature ranking based on the mean decrease in impurity (MDI):

$$FI(j) = \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{s \in S_t(j)} p(s) \cdot \Delta I(s)$$

where the set of splitting criteria on feature j of tree t is denoted as $S_t(j)$, $p(s)$ is the proportion of observations that fall into split s , and $\Delta I(s)$ is the reduction in impurity at split s [35]. This approach has been used to identify important input features such as temperature, humidity and calendar-related variables. RF-based methods have resulted in MAPE scores between 1.5 and 3% in STLF applications [36].

2) *Gradient Boosting: XGBoost and LightGBM*: Gradient boosting constructs an ensemble of M weak learners sequentially. The model at step m is:

$$F_m(\mathbf{x}) = F_{(m-1)}(\mathbf{x}) + \eta \cdot h_m(\mathbf{x})$$

where η is the learning rate and $h_m(\mathbf{x})$ is a tree fitted to the negative gradient (residuals) of the loss function \mathcal{L} with respect to F_{m-1} :

$$h_m = \arg \min_{h} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(y_i, F_{m-1}(x_i))}{\partial F_{m-1}(x_i)} - h(x_i) \right]^2$$

XGBoost augments this objective with L1 and L2 regularization terms to prevent overfitting:

$$\mathcal{L}^{(m)} = \sum_{i=1}^n l(y_i, \hat{y}_i) + \gamma T + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \|w\|^2$$

where T is the total number of leaves, w are the weights of leaves, γ is the minimum gain threshold, and λ is the L2 regularization parameter. Models trained using XGBoost algorithms have demonstrated the lowest MAPE of 2.61% on regional grid data sets. The LightGBM algorithm expands gradient boosting through the leaf-wise growth of trees and Gradient-based One-Side Sampling (GOSS). The algorithm is able to train ten times faster than XGBoost models on large data sets with similar performance [37]. Both algorithms have secured top positions in the GEFCom energy forecasting competition [38].

- 3) *k-Nearest Neighbors (kNN)*: kNN approximates load by finding the k closest data points to the query point x_q according to some distance metric like the Euclidean distance:

$$d(x_q, x_i) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^d (x_{q,j} - x_{i,j})^2}$$

The weighted prediction is computed as:

$$\hat{y}_q = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i \cdot y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i}, \quad w_i = \frac{1}{d(x_q, x_i)}$$

D. Deep Learning Methods:

Deep learning has become the prevailing approach in load forecasting because of its superior capability of learning complex temporal interactions along with multivariate dependencies in large datasets [39].

- 1) *Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN)*: The processing of the sequence by the RNNs is done using the hidden state h , which holds the information regarding time:

$$h_t = \tanh(W_h h_{t-1} + W_x x_t + b)$$

where x_t denotes the input data for time step t , W_h and W_x denote weight matrices, while b denotes the bias term. Although RNNs are capable of modeling temporal load sequences, they suffer from the problem of vanishing gradients when backpropagating through time (BPTT), which can be mathematically formulated as:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial W} = \prod_{k=t}^T \left(\frac{\partial h_k}{\partial h_{k-1}} \right) \rightarrow 0$$

as $T \rightarrow \infty$

This limits their ability to capture long-range load dependencies.

- 2) *Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)*: The LSTM network [40] eliminates the vanishing gradient by means of three gates, namely: the forget gate f_t , the input gate i_t , and the output gate o_t , defined as

$$f_t = \sigma(W_f [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f)$$

$$i_t = \sigma(W_i [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i)$$

$$o_t = \sigma(W_o [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_o)$$

The cell state c , and hidden state h , are updated as:

$$c_t = f_t \odot c_{t-1} + i_t \odot \tanh(W_c [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_c)$$

$$h_t = o_t \odot \tanh(c_t)$$

where $\sigma(\cdot)$ is the sigmoid function and \odot denotes element-wise multiplication. LSTM consistently achieves MAPE values below 2% on standard load forecasting benchmarks.

- 3) *Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU)*: GRU has a simplified structure compared to LSTM by combining the forget and input gates into a single update gate z_t , and an additional reset gate r_t :

$$z_t = \sigma(W_z [h_{t-1}, x_t])$$

$$r_t = \sigma(W_r [h_{t-1}, x_t])$$

$$h_t = (1 - z_t) \odot h_{t-1} + z_t \odot \tanh(W_h [r_t \odot h_{t-1}, x_t])$$

GRU reduces the model parameters by approximately 25% compared to LSTM and achieves similar forecasting accuracy [41]. It is especially suitable for real-time STL applications because of the lower computational overhead [42].

- 4) *Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN)*: The 1D CNN captures local temporal patterns in load sequences by performing 1D convolution with a set of learned filters of kernel length k along the temporal dimension:

$$z_j^{(l)} = \sigma \left(\sum_{i=1}^{C_{l-1}} w_{ij}^{(l)} * x_i^{(l-1)} + b_j^{(l)} \right)$$

where σ denotes 1D convolution, C_{l-1} is the number of input channels at layer l , and $x_i^{(l-1)}$ is the i -th feature map. CNNs effectively capture periodic and seasonal patterns in load data and have been applied to both building-level and grid-level forecasting tasks [43], [44].

- 5) *CNN-LSTM Hybrid Models*: CNN-LSTM hybrid network structures make use of CNN layers for extracting spatial local features from the input data and LSTM layers to model sequential temporal behavior. For input feature vectors $F \in \mathbb{R}^{(T \times d)}$ obtained from the CNN layer, the following is used by the LSTM:

$$\hat{y}_{t+h} = f_{LSTM}(f_{CNN}(X_{t-L:t}))$$

where $X_{t-L:t}$ is the input window of size L and h is the forecasting horizon. These hybrid architectures have produced MAPE values ranging between 0.8–1.8% in the case of benchmark data, outperforming CNN and LSTM standalone models [45].

- 6) *Transformer and Attention Mechanism*: Different from the recurrent neural network, the Transformer employs the multi-head self-attention (MHSA) that computes the correlation of any two sequences at all time steps [46]:

$$\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax} \left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}} \right) V$$

where $Q, K,$ and V represent the query, key, and value matrices, respectively, while d_k is the key dimension. Multi-head attention involves performing H attention operations in parallel:

$$\text{MHSA}(Q, K, V) = \text{Concat}(\text{head}_1, \dots, \text{head}_H) W^o$$

Popular Transformer-based architectures for load prediction are Informer which applies ProbSparse attention to reduce the computational cost from $O(T^2)$ to $O(T \log T)$ and PatchTST, which patches the input sequence and thus shortens the sequence length [47]. Temporal Fusion Transformers (TFT) combine multi-horizon prediction, variable selection networks, and static covariates encoding within a single neural network [48]. In energy applications,

E. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF METHODS

Table I provides a comparison of the most significant load forecasting techniques discussed in this paper based on parameters such as category, complexity, accuracy, merits, and demerits. Out of all the techniques discussed above, deep learning models, especially those using LSTM, CNN-LSTM, and transformers, have been found to be more accurate when it comes to short-range predictions. Nevertheless, they perform better at the expense of increased data needs and computation power. Gradient boosting algorithms like XGBoost can be considered as an alternative when there is not enough data or transparency is vital.

TABLE I COMPARISON OF LOAD FORECASTING METHODS

Method	Category	Complexity	Strengths	Limitations
ARIMA[49]	Statistical	Low	Simple, interpretable	Limited to linear data
ANN[50]	AI-based	Medium	Captures nonlinear patterns	Risk of overfitting
SVR[51]	ML-based	Medium	Works well on small datasets	High computational cost
Random-Forest[52]	ML-based	Medium	Robust and fast	Limited temporal modeling
XGBoost[53]	ML-based	Medium	High prediction accuracy	Requires feature tuning
LSTM[54]	Deep Learning	High	Handles sequential data	High computational cost
CNN-LSTM[55]	Deep Learning	High	Captures spatial and temporal features	Complex training
Transformer[56]	Deep Learning	Very High	Models long-range dependencies	Requires large datasets

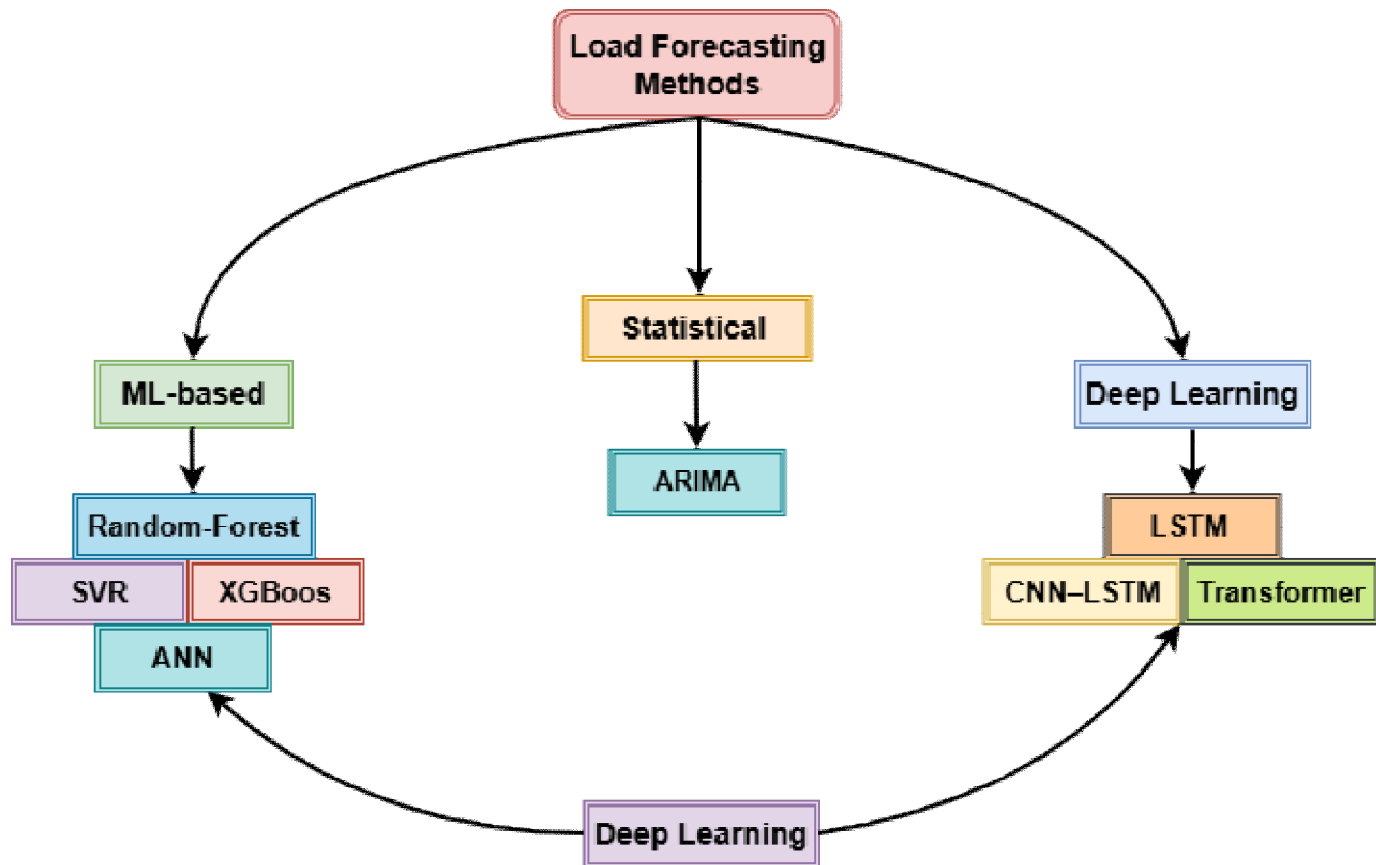


Fig.2.Loadforecastingmethod

F. BENCHMARKDATASETS

Thereproducibilityandcomparabilityofresultsofanyresearchworkrelatedtoloadforecastingdependhighlyontheuseofastandardizeddataset.ThecommonlyusedbenchmarkingdatasetsarementionedbelowintableII.

The GEFCom2012 and GEFCom2014 competitions provided standard evaluation procedures which helped the field move forward through providing means to compare different models. PJM and ERCOT data sets are popular in North America and have long historical records that can be used for training deep learning models.

V. CHALLENGES AND RESEARCH GAPS

Though considerable progress has been made in load forecasting methodologies, there remain a number of inherent issues that prevent the implementation of effective load forecasting techniques in practical scenarios. This paper will discuss five major categories of open problems.

A. DataQualityandAvailability

However, measurements of the load are often missing, erroneous and contain outliers because of sensor and transmission faults [64]. Load measurements in smart meters may have gaps of 1% up to over 15%. Preprocessing strategies such as variational

TABLE II COMMONLY USED BENCHMARK DATASETS IN LOAD FORECASTING RESEARCH

Dataset	Region	Granularity	Features	Access
GEFCom2012[57]	Global	Hourly	Hierarchical electricity load + weather data (21 zones)	IEEE Competition
GEFCom2014[58]	Global	Hourly	Probabilistic load, wind, solar, and price forecasting	IEEE Competition
ERCOT[59]	USA (Texas)	Hourly	Zonal load, solar PV, wind generation data	Public

PJM[60]	USA(East)	Hourly	Multi-zonedemand,peakload,energy forecasts	Public
UCIHousehold[61]	France	1-min/Hourly	Activepower,reactivepower, voltage, sub-metering	OpenSource
UCIElectricity[62]	Portugal	15-min/Hourly	Electricity load of 370 substations (2011–2014)	OpenSource
IESOOntario[63]	Canada(Ontario)	Hourly	Provincialelectricitydemand, zonal data	Public

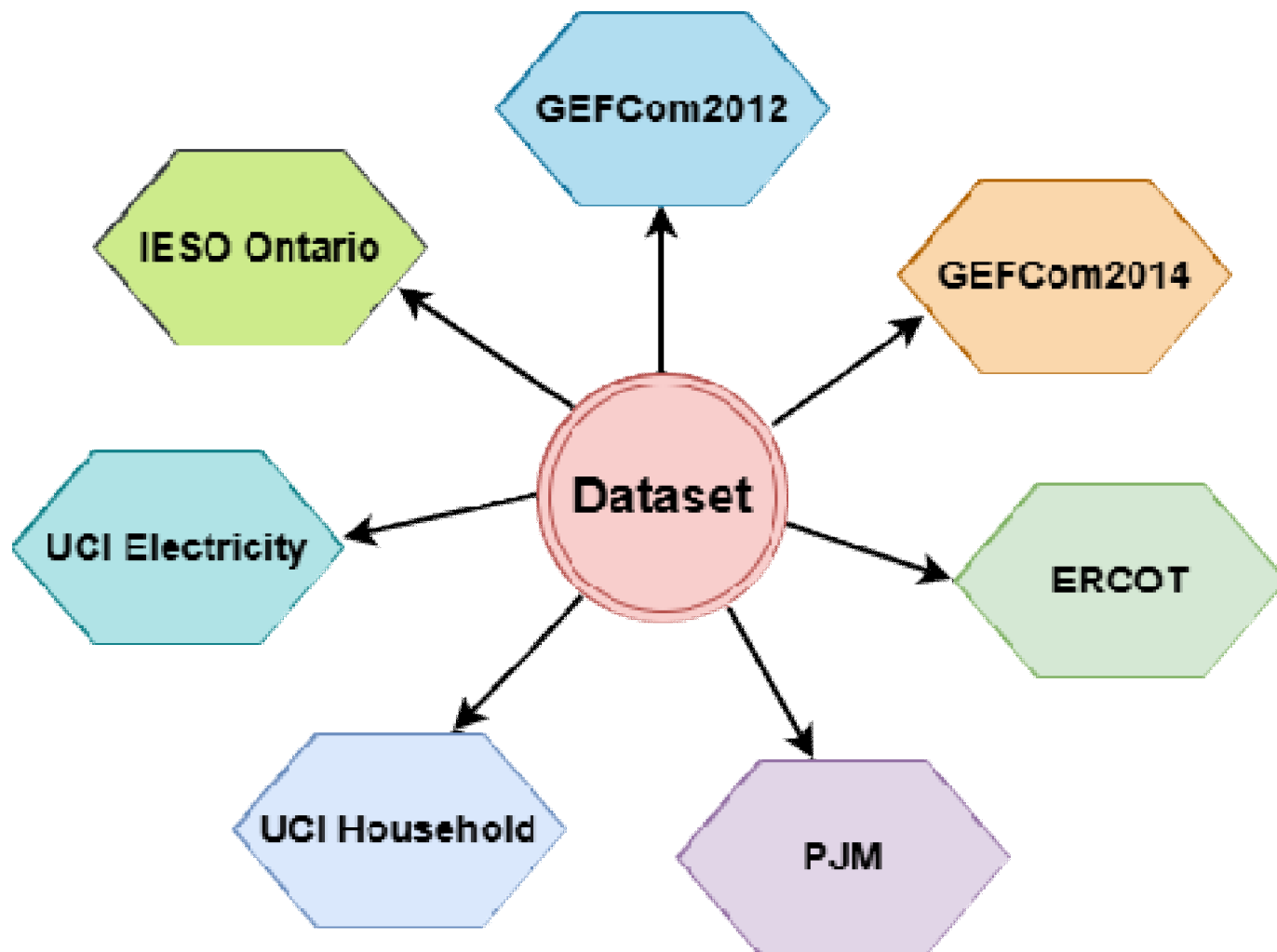


Fig.3. Benchmark Datasets in Load Forecasting

autoencoder(VAE)andwaveletdenoisingshouldbecarefullycraftedtoensurethereisnostatisticalbiasintrainingmodels [65].

B. Model Interpretability

Deep learning methods have high accuracy but are still deep and cannot be used in safety-critical power systems [66]. Research is now being undertaken into using XAI methods such as SHAP and LIME. SHAP methods were found to dominate in a recently conducted review of 50 studies (62%), while robust testing of explanation algorithms is still an open research question [67].

C. Renewable Energy Integration

Solar and wind integration lead to issues of intermittency and demand-supply uncertainty that cannot be fully addressed using only a demand model [68]. Frameworks involving net load forecasting, which combine demand and distributed generation, in addition to probability-based output approaches such as quantile regression and Bayesian deep learning, become crucial.

D. Computational Scalability

Deployment of deep learning algorithms in the restricted settings such as smart metering devices and microgrids involves the application of techniques such as pruning, quantization, and knowledge distillation [69]. Collaborative architecture in which both cloud computing and edge computing are used for performing inference and regular training is one example of such an approach [70].

E. Privacy and Data Security

Smart meters collect detailed consumer behavior data that entails privacy concerns owing to regulations such as GDPR. Although FL offers the ability to train a model collaboratively without exchanging data [71], it has some drawbacks, including non-IID distribution and vulnerability to poisoning attacks on the model [72].

VI. DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

A few novel techniques have been identified that will play important roles in advancing load forecasting methodologies.

Federated Learning (FL) Federated learning provides a mechanism for collaborative learning using different data sources without disclosing any private data. The technique can be effectively applied to utility networks and prosumers. The performance of federated learning-based methods is on par with traditional centralised techniques.

Transfer Learning Transfer learning can enhance the forecasting performance when data is not readily available, which is useful for new smart meters and microgrids.

Physics Informed Neural Networks (PINNs) Physics informed neural networks combine physics and machine learning to obtain more trustworthy models. They perform especially well in forecasting when the cases are uncertain or unseen.

Probabilistic Forecasting Differing from point based forecasting, probabilistic approaches produce predictive distributions, and a lot of research has gone into various techniques such as quantile regression and Bayesian models.

Foundation Models for Time Series Foundation models like TimesFM, Moirai and Chronos can achieve zero-shot and few-shot forecasting.

VII. CONCLUSION

The paper offers an overview of the current state of art in load forecasting methods. Statistical models such as ARIMA and regression have been compared to more modern architectures such as LSTM, Transformer, CNN-LSTM, and CNN. The modern methods reflect the influence of data availability and computational resources.

From the results of the comparative analysis, it can be concluded that deep learning architectures are the most accurate models for short-term forecasts, while gradient boosting models can be considered a compromise between accuracy, explainability, and computational costs. Thus, the choice of a forecasting algorithm depends on specific forecasting tasks.

This review also emphasizes that weather conditions, seasonal variations, holidays and socio-economic parameters have a significant impact on the electrical load and should be taken into account while selecting an appropriate forecasting model for accurate predictions. Despite the impressive results achieved, there are still unresolved issues related to data quality, explainability of models, integration of renewable sources, and data protection. Future forecasting models will critically need novel approaches like federated learning, transfer learning, and probabilistic forecasting.

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