Abstract

Wind energy is an important source of renewable energy, and offshore wind turbines are becoming increasingly popular due to the strong and consistent wind resources available in offshore locations. However, the efficiency and performance of offshore wind turbines are heavily reliant on wind speed, making accurate wind speed predictions essential for their optimal operation. This project focuses on forecasting wind speed in the offshore windpark Beatrice, located in the North Sea, using four different models: ARIMA, RF, LR, and SVR. These models are widely used in time-series forecasting and machine learning and have shown promising results in predicting wind speed in various contexts. The dataset used in this assignment is a csv file. Each row shows an specific location in the UK and 10 parameters for predicting weather are reported 8 times per day during the month of May in 2018. After cleaning, the data was then split into training and testing sets with 80% and 20% of the data, respectively. Using the training data, each model was trained and subsequently evaluated on the testing data using root mean squared error (RMSE) metrics. The results of the evaluation showed that the RF model demonstrated the highest level of accuracy

Keywords: Weather forecasting, Timeseries, Wind speed, ARIMA model, Statistical model, Machine leraning models, Predicting wind speed

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Implementation and Discussion

In this section, an end-to-end timeseries project will be implemented and the research questions mentioned in previous sections will be answered. First, the data will be examined.

1.1 Data

The dataset that is examined here is a CSV file called " $WRFdata_May2018$ " which has 5453 rows and 2482 columns. Each row shows an specific location in the UK and 10 parameters for predicting weather are reported 8 times per day during the month of May in 2018. The factors are as follows:

Parameter	Description	MeasuringUnit
\overline{XLAT}	Latitude	
XLONG	Longitude	
TSK	Skin temperature or surface temperature	oK(Kelvin)
PSFC	Surface pressure	Pa(Pascal)
U10	X component of wind at 10m	m/s
V10	Y component of wind at 10m	m/s
Q2	2-meter specific humidity	Kg/Kg
Rainc	Convective rain (Accumulated precipitation)	mm
Rainnc	Non-convective rain	Mm
Snow	Snow water equivalent	Kg/m2
TSLB	Soil temperature	oK
SMOIS	Soil Moisture	m3/m3

Table 1.1: Data description

In this assignment, 400 rows are selected for data exploration, and then only one location will be chosen for time series analysis.

1.2 Data Exploration

Data exploration is an important part of any timeseries project. It is the process of understanding the data, identifying trends, patterns, and seasonal effects. This information can be used to build better time series models and to make more accurate forecasts.

1.2.1 Loading the Data

The read.csv() function reads the CSV file " $WRFdata_May2018.csv$ " into the variable WRFdata. Since the CSV file does not contain a header row, the header argument has been set to FALSE.

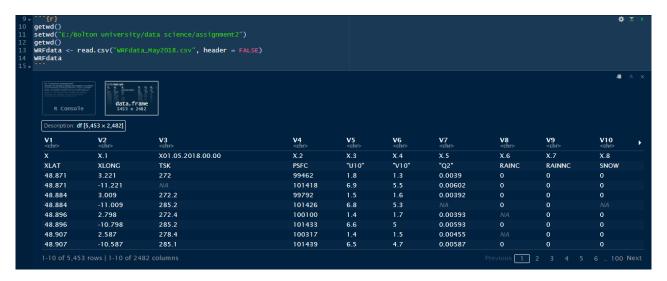


Figure 1.1: Reading the main CSV file

As it can be seen in Fig(1.1), 5,453 rows and 2,482 columns of data are contained in this CSV file. The first two columns indicate different locations in the UK. A sample of 400 rows is selected in Excel and uploaded here(Fig(1.2)).

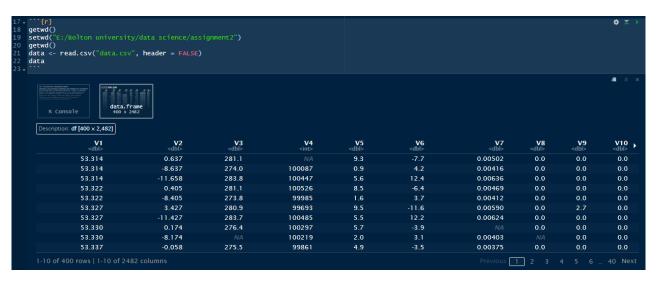


Figure 1.2: Reading the selected data

1.2.2 Reshaping the data

The variable "data" has 400 rows which means 400 different locations are chosen. Before doing any analysis, it is better to reshape the data to understand it and work with it better. In order to do this, the first two columns are kept in variable "location" (Fig(1.3)) and then deleted from the dataset(Fig(1.4)). Next, the data is reshaped without locations and a column for the date and time is added(Fig(1.5), (1.6)). It also can be seen in Fig(1.6) that the column names has been changed.

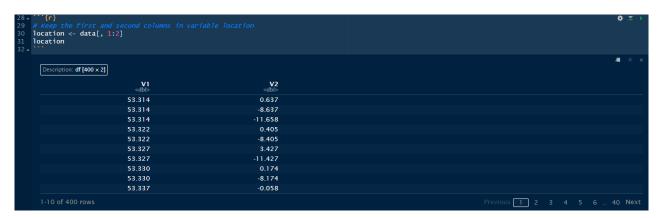


Figure 1.3: Selecting and keeping two columns in variable location

38 # 39 r 40 d	<pre>fr} # Remove the first and see data <- subset(data, seled # Remove the row names fro ownames(data) <- NULL data</pre>	ct = -c(1, 2))		ame						***
	Description: df [400 × 2,480]									. ■
	V3 <dbl></dbl>	V4 <int></int>	V5 <dbl></dbl>	V6 <dbl></dbl>	V7 <dbl></dbl>	V8 <dbl></dbl>	V9 <dbl></dbl>	V10 <dbl></dbl>	V11 <dbl></dbl>	V12 <dbl></dbl>
	281.1		9.3	-7.7	0.00502	0.0	0.0	0.0	273.2	1.0000
	274.0	100087	0.9	4.2	0.00416	0.0	0.0	0.0	278.7	0.2959
	283.8	100447	5.6	12.4	0.00636	0.0	0.0	0.0	273.2	1.0000
	281.1	100526	8.5	-6.4	0.00469	0.0	0.0	0.0	273.2	1.0000
	273.8	99985	1.6	3.7	0.00412	0.0	0.0	0.0	278.5	0.2854
	280.9	99693	9.5	-11.6	0.00590	0.0	2.7	0.0		1.0000
	283.7	100485	5.5	12.2	0.00624	0.0	0.0	0.0	273.2	1.0000
	276.4	100297	5.7	-3.9		0.0	0.0	0.0	278.7	0.2731
		100219	2.0	3.1	0.00403		0.0	0.0	278.4	0.2826
	275.5	99861	4.9	-3.5	0.00375	0.0	0.0	0.0	278.1	0.2797
	1-10 of 400 rows 1-10 of 24	180 columns						Previous	1 2 3 4 5	6 40 Next

Figure 1.4: Deleting two columns from the dataset

After reshaping the data, locations are then added to the dataset(Fig(1.7)) and then these two columns are moved to the first(Fig(1.8))

Now, the dataset is ready for data exploration.

```
# create an empty list to store the reshaped data frames

data_list <- list()

# loop over each row of the original time series

for (i in 1:nrow(data)) {

# extract the current row and convert to matrix

current_row <- as.matrix(data[i,])

# reshape the current row and add column names

current_reshaped <- matrix(as.numeric(current_row), nrow = 248, ncol = 10, byrow = TRUE)

colnames(current_reshaped) <- c("TSK","PSFC","U10","V210","Q2","Rainc","Snow", "TSLB","SMOIS")

# add a date column to the reshaped data

current_df <- cbind.data.frame(date = seq(as.POSIXCt("2018-05-01 00:00:00"), as.POSIXct("2018-05-31 21:00:00"),

by = "3 hours"), current_reshaped)

# add the current data frame to the list

data_list[[i]] <- current_df

# combine all data frames in the list into a single data frame

final_df <- do.call(rbind, data_list)

final_df

# combine all data frames in the list into a single data frame

final_df <- do.call(rbind, data_list)
```

Figure 1.5: Reshaping the dataset and adding the date column to the dataset

date <\$3: POSIXct>	TSK <dbl></dbl>	PSFC <dbl></dbl>	U10 <dbl></dbl>	V10 <dbl></dbl>	Q2 <dbl></dbl>	Rainc	Rainnc <dbl></dbl>	Snow <dbl></dbl>	TS <dl< th=""></dl<>
2018-05-01 00:00:00	281.1		9.3	-7.7	0.00502	0.0	0.0	0	273
2018-05-01 03:00:00	281.1	100558	9.1	-4.9	0.00454	0.0	0.0		273
2018-05-01 06:00:00	281.1	100657	9.1	-2.2	0.00390	0.0	0.0		
2018-05-01 09:00:00	281.1	100748	5.6	0.7	0.00532	0.0	0.0		273
2018-05-01 12:00:00	281.1	100757	1.5	6.1	0.00492	0.0	0.0		273
2018-05-01 15:00:00	281.1	100654	2.2	6.4	0.00570	0.0	0.0		273
2018-05-01 18:00:00	281.1	100633	2.9	7.4	0.00573	0.0	0.0		273
2018-05-01 21:00:00	281.1	100621	3.4	9.0	0.00571	0.0	0.0		273
2018-05-02 00:00:00	281.5	100551	1.6	11.9	0.00548	0.0	0.0		273
2018-05-02 03:00:00	281.5	100387	-0.4	12.6		0.0	0.0	0	273

Figure 1.6: Reshaping the dataset



Figure 1.7: Adding location columns to the dataset

1.2.3 Describing the data

For describing the data, there are a few lines of code that can be used. Here, some of them which are really important can be seen.



Figure 1.8: Moving location columns to the first

• str() function

The str() function is a useful tool for getting an overview of the data. It can be used to quickly see the number of rows and columns, the data types of the columns, and the names of the columns. This information can be helpful for understanding the data and for planning data analysis. In this case, the str() function is telling that the data frame df has 99,200 observations (rows) and 13 variables (columns) and the type of each column can be seen in Fig(1.9).

```
91. **(f)
92. str(df)
93. **

**(data.frame': 99200 obs. of 13 variables:

$ Latitude: num 53.3 53.3 53.3 53.3 53.3 ...

$ Longitude: num 6.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637 0.637
```

Figure 1.9: An overview of df

summary() function

The summary() function provides a more detailed summary of the data. It includes the mean, median, standard deviation, and other statistical measures for each column. The summary also shows that there are some missing values in the data. The number of missing values is shown in the last row of each column. For example, there are 2904 missing values for the Q2 variable(Fig(1.10)).

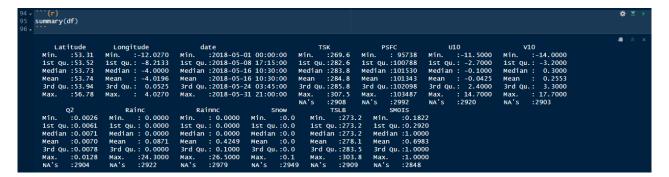


Figure 1.10: A summary of df

• head() function

The head() function displays the first few rows of the df data which is six rows here(Fig(1.11)).

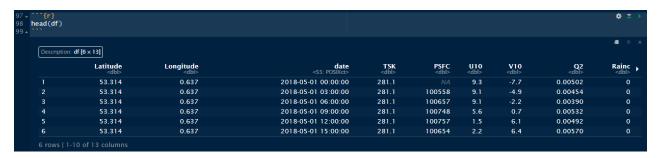


Figure 1.11: Viewing a few first rows of df

• tail() function

The tail() function displays the last few rows of the data(Fig(1.12)).

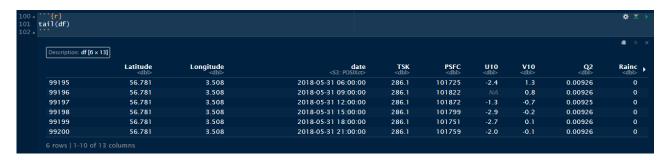


Figure 1.12: Viewing a few last rows of df

• is.na() function

The is.na() function in R is used to check for missing values in a vector or data frame. It returns a logical vector of the same length as the input vector, with a value of TRUE for each element that is missing and FALSE for each element that is not missing. In (Fig(1.13)), a summation of null values can be seen.



Figure 1.13: The number of null values of df

1.2.4 Visualising the data

• Histogram

A histogram is a bar graph that shows the distribution of data. Since the goal of this project is to predict the wind speed, the histogram of the wind components can be seen here (Fig(1.14) and (1.16)). And since there are null values in this dataset, null values are deleted when drawing the histogram which can be seen in Fig(1.15) and (1.17)

```
109 | ```{r}
110 | Tibrary(ggplot2)
111 ggplot(df , aes(x = u10)) +
112 geom_histogram(binwidth = 2, fill = blue", alpha = 0.7) +
113 | labs(title = "Histogram of U10", x = "x component of wind at 10m", y = "frequency")
114 | ```
```

Figure 1.14: The histogram of U10

Scatterplot

A scatterplot is a graph that shows the relationship between two variables. Fig(1.18) and (1.19) show a scatter plot of the U10 and V10 variables with the U10 variable on the x-axis and the V10 variable on the y-axis. Each point on the plot represents a data point.

1.3 Data Cleaning

Data cleaning is the process of identifying, correcting, and removing errors and inconsistencies in data. This is a vital part of any data analysis process, as it guarantees the information being analysed is correct

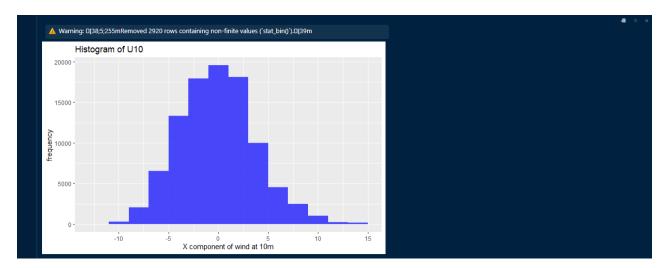


Figure 1.15: The histogram of U10

```
115+ ```{r}
116 | \text{ibrary}(ggplot2)
117 ggplot(df , aes(x = VIO)) +
118 geom_histogram(binwidth = 2, fill = blue , alpha = 0.7) +
119 | labs(title = Histogram of VIO", x = "Y component of wind at 10m", y = "frequency")
120+ ````
```

Figure 1.16: The histogram of V10

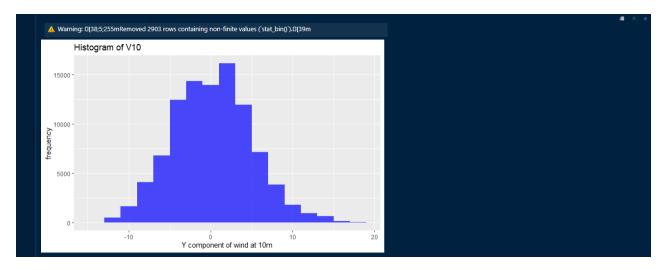


Figure 1.17: The histogram of V10

```
121 • ```{r}

122 ggplot(df, aes(x = U10, y = V10)) +

123 geom_point(color = 'blue') +

124 labs(x = "U10", y = "V10")

125 • ```
```

Figure 1.18: The scatterplot of U10 and V10

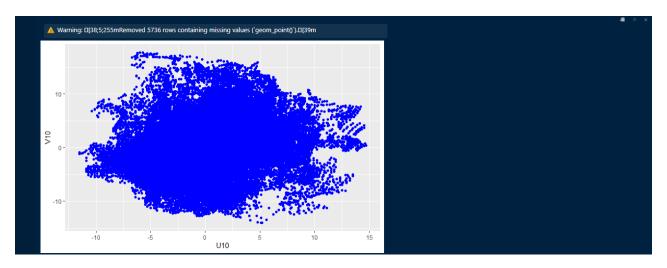


Figure 1.19: The scatterplot of U10 and V10

and trustworthy. There are a number of steps that can be followed in R for cleaning data. In this assignment the following steps will be followed.

1.3.1 Identifying and removing duplicate values

Using duplicated() function, duplicate values can be identified in the dataset. As it can be seen in Fig(1.20), there is no duplicate values in df dataset.



Figure 1.20: The number of duplicate values of df

1.3.2 Identifying and imputing missing values

Missing values are values that are not present in the dataset. They can be identified using the is.na() function. Fig (1.21) shows the total null values of df which is 29234. For imputing missing values there are different methods, but, in this assignment, missing values are imputed using interpolation method. Interpolation is a statistical method that assumes that the data is continuous which is true about the df dataset. Fig (1.22) represents filling missing values using interpolation and then in Fig (1.23) the total number of null values has been checked which is zero. It means that the df dataset now is cleaned. After cleaning the data, now it is time to add a new column for wind speed.



Figure 1.21: The number of missing values of df

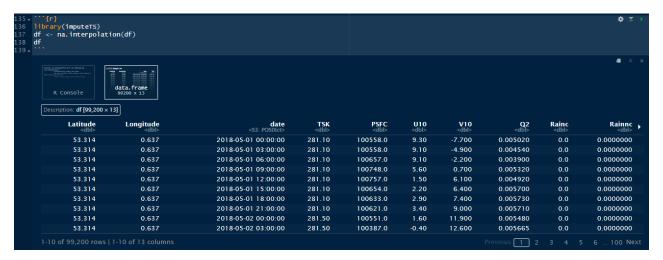


Figure 1.22: Filling missing values using interpolation



Figure 1.23: Checking missing values after filling them

1.3.3 Adding wind speed column

In this part, the new column for wind speed will be calculated and added to the dataset. The wind speed can be calculated from U10 and V10 using the following formula:

$$wind_speed = sqrt(U^2 + V^2)$$

where U is X component of wind at 10m and V is Y component of wind at 10m. In (1.24) a new column, wind_speed, is added to df dataset.

1.4 Modelling and Forecasting

After going through these steps, it is time to build models that can be used for predicting wind speed. Before building the models, the outliers are checked first, and then the dataframe will be converted into

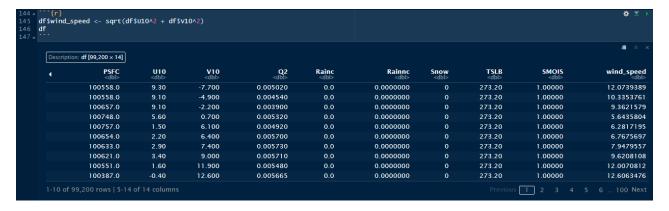


Figure 1.24: Adding wind speed column to the df dataset

a time series, and after that, four models will be presented to predict the wind speed in this section. Finally, the best model will be evaluated.

1.4.1 Detecting and Handling outliers

A data point which is considered to be an outlier is one that deviates significantly from the norm. There are many factors that lead to the emergence of these outliers, such as data entry errors, measurement errors, or simply random chance. Outliers can have a huge impact on machine learning models and if an outlier is included in the training data, it can cause the model to learn the wrong thing which can result in having inaccurate predictions and poor model performance. There are a number of different methods for detecting outliers but here boxplot and z_score method for detecting outliers are presented.

Fig(1.25) shows the boxplot of wind_speed for visualising outliers and from Fig(1.26) the distribution of wind_speed can be seen which is between 3 and 7 approximately.

A data point's distance from the overall data mean is measured using a z_score. It is determined by first finding the mean of the data, then finding the standard deviation of the data, and finally dividing that total by the standard deviation. In this example, outliers are identified by finding all of the data points that have a z_score of more than 3. Fig(1.27) represents the outliers obtained using this method.

Now that the outliers are obtained, there are various methods for handling them. In this assignment, winsorisation method is used for handling these outliers. The Winsorise function takes two arguments: the data to be winsorised and the probabilities to use. The probabilities are the percentage of data points to be winsorised at each end of the distribution. In this case, the probabili-

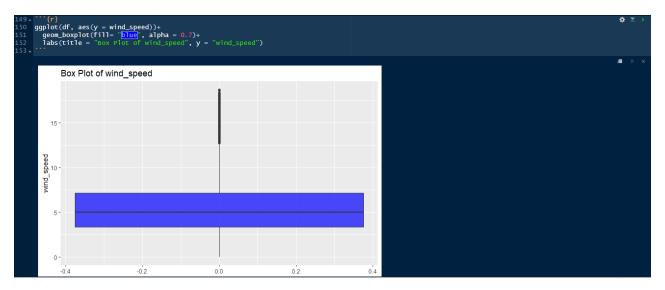


Figure 1.25: Identifying outliers of wind_speed using boxplot

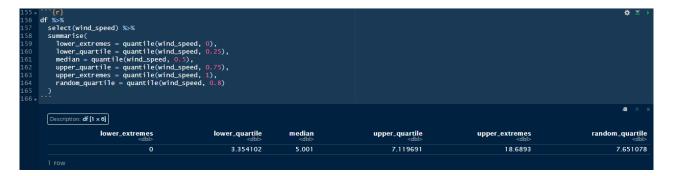


Figure 1.26: Distribution of wind speed

ties are 0.05 and 0.95, which means that 5% of the data points at each end of the distribution will be winsorised. Fig(1.28) shows how this method is used. And Fig(1.29) represents the boxplot of wind_speed after handling outliers. Then, wind_speed column in the df dataset will be repleced by this column(Fig(1.30)).

1.4.2 Creating a new variable to represent time

At this stage, it is time to select the desired location from the cleaned dataset. The selected location is in the North Eea, near Offshore-Windpark Beatrice which has Latitude = 56.781 and Longitude = 3.508. Fig(1.31) shows how this location is chosen. Now the df dataset has 248 rows and 2 columns which one of them represents date and the other shows wind_speed column. The structure of the df dataset is checked in Fig(1.32).

Figure 1.27: Detecting outliers of wind_speed coulmn using z_score method

```
nsorized_data <- Winsorize(data, probs = c(0.05, 0.95))
ta[z_outliers] <- winsorized_data[z_outliers]
ta <- winsorized_data
                                                                                     9.362158
8.805112
6.030755
                                                                                                                     6.767016
6.161169
4.301163
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       3.448188
5.093133
                                                                                                                     3.883298
4.884670
10.371114
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           . 670832
. 622498
. 622498
                                                                                                                    1.622498
7.170077
9.533625
1.622498
6.139218
7.900633
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     5.600893
7.602631
1.835756
8.130191
6.105735
7.793587
4.356604
8.122192
5.126402
7.446476
4.720169
2.900000
                                                                                                                                                                                     8.800000
1.622498
5.818075
                                                                                                                     7. 036512
5. 500909
8. 590693
                                                                                        2.690725
3.716181
7.017834
5.323533
                                                                                                                          . 702939
. 341659
. 220111
. 382379
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      4.517743
7.596052
4.701064
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            . 601922
                                                           549510
                                                                                                                     2.801785
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             629387
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              514153
```

Figure 1.28: Handling outliers using winsorisation method

Fig(1.33) and (1.34) show the line graph which shows the wind speed over time.

Fig(1.35) shows how a variable is created to represent time. This is very useful for building machine learning models.

1.4.3 Splitting data into train and test

Splitting the data into a training set and a test set is important because it helps to prevent overfitting. Overfitting is a problem that occurs when a machine learning model learns the training data too well and is unable to generalize to new data. By splitting the data into a training set and a test set, it can

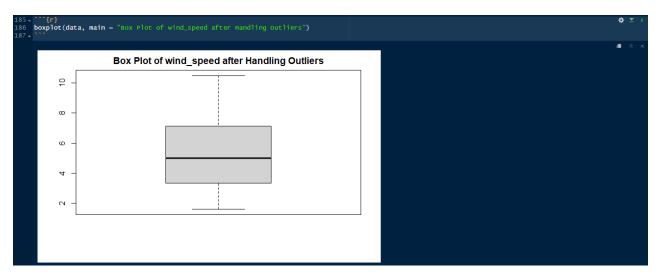


Figure 1.29: The boxplot of wind_speed after handling outliers

```{r} lf\$wind_s lf	peed <- data									* ≖
Description	on: df [99,200 × 14]									<b>4</b> ×
•	PSFC <dbl></dbl>	U10 <dbl></dbl>	V10 <dbl></dbl>	Q2 <dbl></dbl>	Rainc <dbl></dbl>	Rainnc <dbl></dbl>	Snow <dbl></dbl>	TSLB <dbl></dbl>	SMOIS <dbl></dbl>	wind_spee
	100558.0	9.30	-7.700	0.005020	0.0	0.0000000	0	273.20	1.00000	10.50816
	100558.0	9.10	-4.900	0.004540	0.0	0.0000000		273.20	1.00000	10.33537
	100657.0	9.10	-2.200	0.003900	0.0	0.0000000	0	273.20	1.00000	9.3621
	100748.0	5.60	0.700	0.005320	0.0	0.0000000		273.20	1.00000	5.6435
	100757.0	1.50	6.100	0.004920	0.0	0.0000000	0	273.20	1.00000	6.2817
	100654.0	2.20	6.400	0.005700	0.0	0.0000000		273.20	1.00000	6.7675
	100633.0	2.90	7.400	0.005730	0.0	0.0000000	0	273.20	1.00000	7.9479
	100621.0	3.40	9.000	0.005710	0.0	0.0000000		273.20	1.00000	9.6208
	100551.0	1.60	11.900	0.005480	0.0	0.0000000	0	273.20	1.00000	10.5081
	100387.0	-0.40	12.600	0.005665	0.0	0.0000000	0	273.20	1.00000	10.5081

Figure 1.30: Replacing wind_speed column with new column

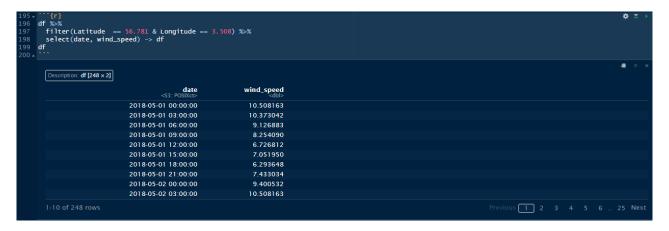


Figure 1.32: A summary of the df dataset

Figure 1.33: A plot of the df dataset

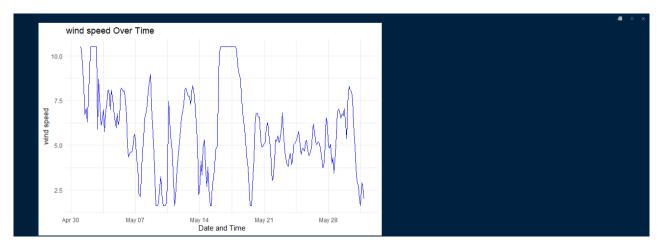


Figure 1.34: A plot of the df dataset

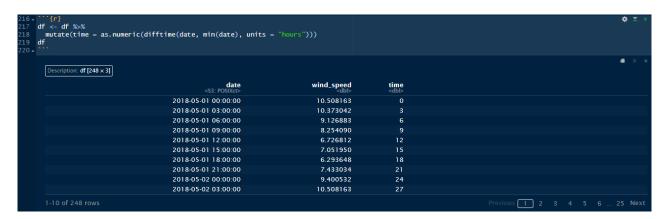


Figure 1.35: Creating a new variable to represent time

be ensured that the model is not overfitting to the training data. The training data is used to traing the model and using test data the performance of the model can be evaluated.

The code in Fig(1.36) sets the seed to 123, then randomly samples 80% of the rows from the df data frame and assigns them to the train_data variable which is 198 observations in this case. The remaining 20% of the rows are assigned to the test_data variable(50 observations). Now, it is time to create models.

Figure 1.36: Splitting data into train and test

#### 1.4.4 ARIMA model

The first model that is created in this assignment is ARIMA model. Fig(1.37) shows an ARIMA model that has been fit to the wind speed data. The ARIMA model is a statistical model that can be used to forecast time series data. The model is made up of three components: the autoregressive (AR) component, the moving average (MA) component, and the integrated (I) component. The summary of the ARIMA model shows the parameters of the model, the AIC which is 907.32 and BIC scores of the model, which is 917.19. The AIC and BIC scores are measures of the model's fit to the data. Fig(1.38) forecasts future values of the wind speed data using the ARIMA model. The accuracy of the model is evaluated using RMSE which is root mean squared error.

Figure 1.37: Training ARIMA model using train dataset

```
243 * '`{r}

forecast
244 | * forecast
245 | arima_forecast <- forecast(arima_model, h = length(test_data$wind_speed))

246 |

247 | * evaluate
248 | arima_accuracy <- accuracy(arima_forecast, test_data$wind_speed)
249 | cat("ARIMA Model Accuracy:", arima_accuracy[, "RMSE"])

ARIMA Model Accuracy: 2.356304 2.375463
```

Figure 1.38: Testing ARIMA model using test dataset

### 1.4.5 LR model

The second model which has been trained here is linear regression. Fig(1.39) shows that a linear regression model is fit to the training set. The model is then used to predict wind speed values for the test set. The RMSE for this model is 2.231711 which is better than the ARIMA model. Fig(1.40) and Fig(1.41) show the plot of actual and predicted wind_speed.

Figure 1.39: Training and testing linear regression model

```
268 | **\frac{1}{2} | **\frac{
```

Figure 1.40: The plot of actual and predicted values for LR model

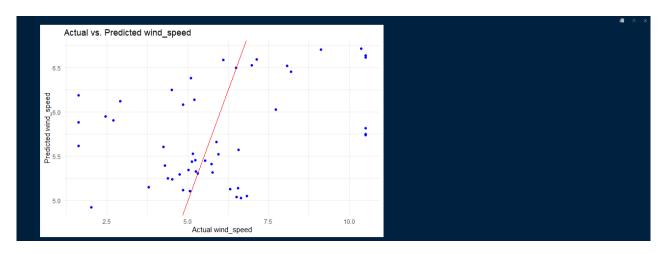


Figure 1.41: The plot of actual and predicted values for LR model

#### 1.4.6 SVR model

The third model which is created here, is Support Vector Regression. It is a supervised learning algorithm that can be used to solve regression problems. SVR is a kernel-based algorithm, which means that it uses a kernel function to map the data into a higher-dimensional space where it can be more easily separated. Fig(1.42) fits an SVR model on the training set using the radial basis function (RBF) kernel. The RBF kernel is a popular kernel function that is known for its good performance on a variety of problems. The code then displays the summary of the SVR model. The summary will show the parameters of the model, the training error, and the test error. Fig(1.43) fits an SVR model on the training set using the linear kernel. In Fig(1.44) an SVR model using polynomial kernel has been created on the training set. As it can be seen here, the number of support vectors for RBF kernel, linear and polynomial kernels are 180, 176 and 176, respectively. The other information can be seen in each figure. In Fig(1.45) the SVR models then used to predict wind_speed values using the test set and the RMSE values for each models is shown which means that the SVR model using RBF kernel has better accuracy than the other two.

In Fig(1.45) the SVR models then used to predict wind_speed values using the test set and the RMSE values for each models is shown which means that the SVR model using RBF kernel has better accuracy than the other two. The plots of actual and predicted wind_speed using SVR modells are presented in Fig(1.46) and (1.47).

Figure 1.42: Fit an SVR model on the training set using RBF kernel

```
290 | * 2.Linear kernel
291 | * 2.Linear kernel
292 | * 2.Linear kernel
293 | * Display the SVR model summary
295 | * SVmmary(svr_model_linear)

**Call:
295 | * SVm(formula = wind_speed ~ time, data = train_data, kernel = "linear")

**Parameters:
296 | SVM-Type: eps-regression
297 | SVM-kernel: linear
298 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
298 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
299 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
290 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
290 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
291 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
292 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
293 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
294 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
295 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
296 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
297 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
298 | * SVM-type: eps-regression
299 | * SVM-type: eps-regre
```

Figure 1.43: Fit an SVR model on the training set using linear kernel

Figure 1.44: Fit an SVR model on the training set using polynomial kernel

#### 1.4.7 RF model

The last model that will be discussed here is Random Forest model. The Random Forest model is a type of machine learning algorithm that is known for its high accuracy and robustness. The model is

Figure 1.45: Testing SVR models on the testing set

```
| Plot the actual vs. predicted values for the SVR models | p1 <- ggplot() + geom_point(data = test_data, aes(x = wind_speed, y = svr_predictions_RBF), color = 'blue') + geom_abline(slope = 1, intercept = 0, color = 'red') + labs(title = "SVR_RBF: Actual vs. Predicted wind_speed", y = "Predicted wind_speed", y = "Predicted wind_speed", y = "Predicted wind_speed", theme(minmal()+ theme(minmal()+ theme_minmal()+ labs(title = "SVR_LBF: Actual vs. Predicted wind_speed", y = svr_predictions_linear), color = 'blue') + geom_abline(slope = 1, intercept = 0, color = 'red') + labs(title = "SVR_LBF: Actual vs. Predicted wind_speed", y = "Predicted w
```

Figure 1.46: The plot of actual and predicted values for SVR models

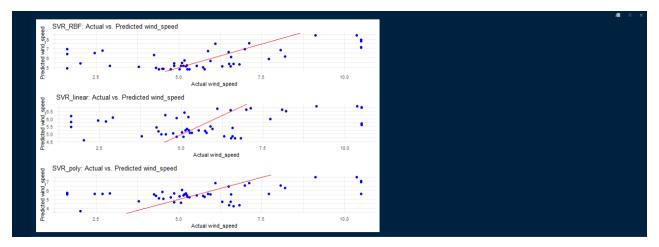


Figure 1.47: The plot of actual and predicted values for SVR models

built by training a number of decision trees on different subsets of the training data. The predictions of the individual decision trees are then combined to produce the final prediction of the Random Forest model. In this assignment, three random forest models have been built using 100, 200 and 300 trees and then the RMSE of the models are evaluated.

Fig(1.48),(1.49) and (1.50) show training the three RF models using training dataset and in Fig(1.51), the models then are tested to predict wind_speed using test set. It also can be seen that the RMSE for these three models are evaluated. It seems that the model with 200 trees has better accuracy than others. The actual and predicted values are shown in Fig(1.52) and (1.53).

Figure 1.48: Fitting an RF model on the training set using ntree=100

Figure 1.49: Fitting an RF model on the training set using ntree=200

# 1.5 Evaluation of Different Models

So far, eight models have been created here. There are different ways for calculationg the error and evaluationg models to see which one has better performance. In this assignment, RMSE value for

Figure 1.50: Fitting an RF model on the training set using ntree=300

```
379 * ```(r)

Predict wind_speed values for the test set using the Random Forest model

rf_predictions_n100 <- predict(rf_model_n100, newdata = test_data)

rf_predictions_n200 <- predict(rf_model_n200, newdata = test_data)

381

382

rf_predictions_n300 <- predict(rf_model_n300, newdata = test_data)

383

384

385

Calculate the root mean squared error (RMSE) for the Random Forest model

rf_rmse_n100 <- sqrt(mean((test_dataSwind_speed - rf_predictions_n100)^2))

rf_rmse_n200 <- sqrt(mean((test_dataSwind_speed - rf_predictions_n200)^2))

rf_rmse_n300 <- sqrt(mean((test_dataSwind_speed - rf_predictions_n200)^2))

rf_rmse_n300 <- sqrt(mean(test_dataSwind_speed - rf_predictions_n300)^2))

cat("Random Forest n300 RMSE:", rf_rmse_n300, "\n")

cat("Random Forest n300 RMSE:", rf_rmse_n300, "\n")

301

cat("Random Forest n300 RMSE:", rf_rmse_n300, "\n")

Random Forest n300 RMSE: 0.7235625

Random Forest n300 RMSE: 0.7235628
```

Figure 1.51: Testing the RF models on the testing set

```
Plot the actual vs. predicted values for the Linear Regression, SVR, and Random Forest models

pl < ggp[ot() +
geom_point(data = test_data, aes(x = wind_speed, y = rf_predictions_n100), color = [blue] +
geom_abline(slope = 1, intercept = 0, color = [blue] +
labs(title = "Random Forest: Actual vs. Predicted wind_speed",

y = "Predicted wind_speed") +
theme.minimal()+
theme.minimal()+
geom_point(data = test_data, aes(x = wind_speed, y = rf_predictions_n200), color = [blue] +
geom_abline(slope = 1, intercept = 0, color = [color = [color
```

Figure 1.52: The plot of actual and predicted values for RF models

these modells are calculated. Fig(1.54) shows a comparison between these values. The lower RMSE, the better performance the model has.

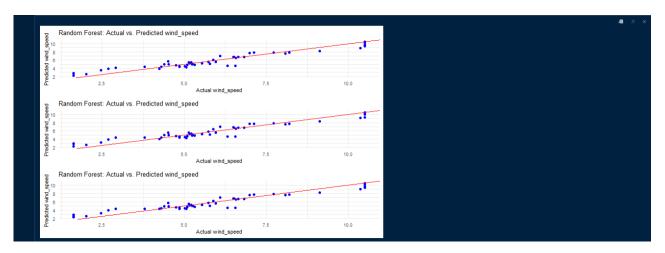


Figure 1.53: The plot of actual and predicted values for RF models

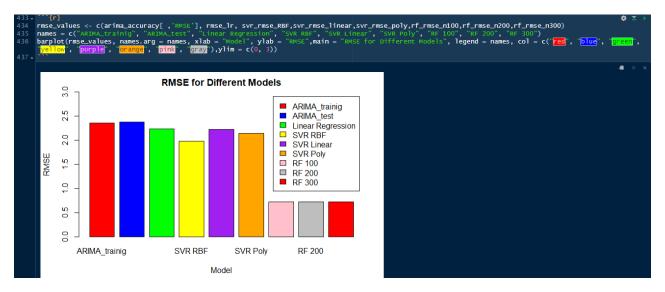


Figure 1.54: A comparison of models based on RMSE values

As it can be seen in Fig(1.54), ARIMA model has higher values of RMSE and the lowest value of RMSE is for Random Forest models. Even between three Random Forest models, the model with ntree=200 has the best performance and the RMSE value for this model is about 0.70. It should be noted that RMSE value is not enough for saying that a model performs well and the other factors should be considered.

# Conclusion

In conclusion, this project aimed to forecast wind speed in the offshore-windpark Beatrice using four different models: ARIMA, RF, LR, and SVR. models were trained on the given dataset which has the location for this area and they were subsequently evaluated based on their RMSE metrics.

As The results showed the RF model was the most accurate, followed by the SVR model, while the LR and ARIMA models had relatively higher errors. Overall, the project successfully achieved its objectives of predicting wind speed and comparing the performance of different models.

Future research can focus on refining the models' precision and uncovering additional influences on wind speed at offshore wind farms.