

Evaluation of Weather Parameters for Renewable Energy Forecasting with Echo State Networks

Samuel G. Dotson^{a,*}, Kathryn D. Huff^a

^a*Dept. of Nuclear, Plasma, and Radiological Engineering, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL 61801*

Abstract

The abstract goes here. As a general guide, you should provide a concise (150-250 words) summary of your article - introduction, methodology, results, and conclusion. Avoid using abbreviations and acronyms unless the abbreviation/acronym is used repeatedly in the abstract. There should be no references in the abstract.

Keywords: FIXME, key words, go here, like:, simulation, spent nuclear fuel

1. Introduction

1.1. Motivation

In response to the rising threat of climate change many countries have prioritized reducing carbon emissions. The goal set by the 2015 Paris Agreement is to prevent the global temperature from rising more than 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels [1]. Virtually all current plans to reduce carbon emissions depend on increasing the share of energy production by renewable and clean energy sources, especially solar and wind [2, 3, 4, 5]. While solar and wind are low-carbon sources, these forms of electricity generation increase variability, which can lead to blackouts and power system failures [6]. Further, even modest penetrations of renewable energy negatively affect the economics of other types of clean energy, such as nuclear power [2, 7, 8]. This may force nuclear plants to shut down prematurely, at the precise moment all clean sources of energy are most needed. There has been some work done to quantify the economic benefit of improving forecasts of renewable energy [9, 10, 11]. Improving renewable energy forecasts can mitigate some of the negative side effects of variability. The economic benefits of better forecasts include: reduced costs compared to building storage devices [9]; curtailment reduction and more efficient use of non-renewable sources [10]; and a slight, but important, amount of load-following from

nuclear and biomass generators, which are unable to follow rapid changes in demand [11]. Most proposed forecasting improvements involve new algorithms or machine learning techniques. However, one of the simplest approaches to improving forecasts is to improve the training data for such algorithms. There is a veritable zoo of weather parameters that can supplement target training data, but we don't know *a priori* which of these parameters will be helpful or detrimental to model performance. In this paper, we evaluate several common parameters for use in renewable energy forecasting with Echo State Networks (ESNs).

1.2. Why Echo State Networks

ESNs have several appealing features. They are simple, consisting only of a large, sparse, reservoir and a single output layer [12]; flexible and generalizable, while other network architectures require significant fine tuning [13]; and fast, due to their simple structure and few trainable weights relative to other neural networks. The ESN network architecture eliminates the need for complicated data pre-processing, such as feature extraction, that is required for other machine learning and statistical algorithms [14, 15]. ESNs have also been shown to outperform other prediction techniques [16, 17, 18, 19, 20].

Classical ESNs have previously been used to forecast demand, wind energy, and solar energy [21, 17, 20]. ESNs are typically used to make extreme short term predictions, on the order of seconds

*Corresponding Author

Email address: sgd2@illinois.edu (Samuel G. Dotson)

60 or minutes [22, 23, 19], one-hour ahead [18], up to
 a single day ahead [21]. Forecasts must be multiple-
 hours to a couple of days ahead to aid unit com-
 mitment and grid-scale energy economy [9, 10, 11].
 In this work we use a classic ESN architecture to
 65 forecast total demand, wind production, and solar
 production, 4-hours and 48-hours ahead.

There has been a lot of work to improve the fore-
 casting capability of the basic ESN. Approaches
 include adding multiple reservoirs [20, 24, 25, 26];
 70 including non-linear units [27, 19]; combining with
 other network architecture [22, 28]; and using a par-
 ticle swarm approach [29, 23]. Some works mention
 that including weather parameters may be useful
 75 for renewable energy forecasting [30, 19] but none
 have demonstrated the effect each parameter has on
 model performance. The primary goal of this work
 is to fill that gap.

1.3. Contributions

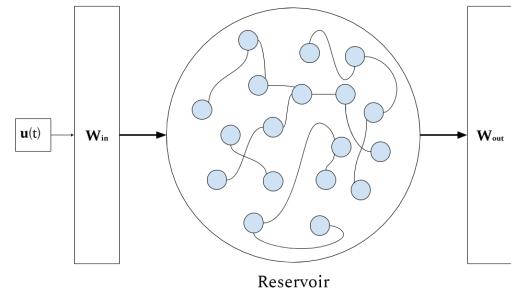
In this work, we use ESNs for three main prediction
 80 tasks: total electricity demand, wind energy
 production, and solar energy production. We split
 these tasks into further sub tasks; predicting 4-hours
 ahead and 48- hours ahead. These predictions fa-
 cilitate scheduling and grid planning because cur-
 85 rent market rules put renewable energy on the grid
 first, forcing conventional power generators to work
 around this variability [9]. Using ESNs to make pre-
 dictions two-days ahead is unique to this paper since
 90 the longest predictions by ESNs in the literature only
 reach one-day ahead [21]. Finally, we repeat these
 tasks with several commonly used weather param-
 eters and evaluate their effect on model performance.
 The need to consider exogenous meteorological in-
 95 puts has been noted previously. Surprisingly, sun
 elevation is seldom used as a correlated quantity for
 energy demand and wind power.

The structure of the paper is as follows. In Section
 2, we discuss how data were selected and processed,
 and we review ESNs. Section 3 shows a bench-
 100 marking exercise for our ESN implementation and
 presents the results. We discuss the results and
 future implications in Section 4.

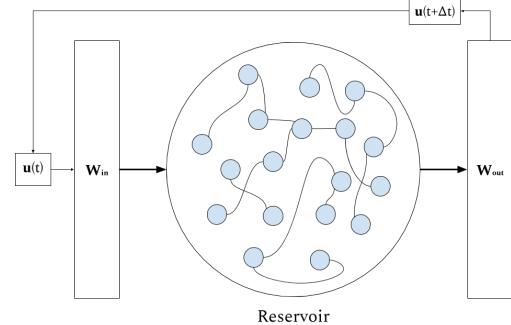
2. Methodology

2.1. Echo State Networks

105 An ESN, sometimes called a “reservoir
 computer,”[31, 32, 33] is a type of recurrent
 neural network that replaces the many hidden



(a) Training Flow



(b) Predicting Flow

Figure 1: Reservoir behavior in the training and predicting phases.

layers of a conventional feed-forward neural network with a reservoir that is:

- 110 1. sparse,
2. connected by uniformly random weights, centered at zero,
3. and large (i.e. has many neurons).

The reservoir is therefore a randomly instantiated adjacency matrix, \mathbf{W} , of size $N \times N$. The input vector, $U(t)$, of K units is mapped onto the reservoir by an input matrix, W^{in} of size $N \times K$. The activation states of the reservoir are calculated by

$$x(t) = \tanh(W^{in} \cdot U(t) + \mathbf{W}x(t-1)) \quad (1)$$

Where $x(t)$ is the collection of reservoir activations [18, 32, 12]. The output is read by an output weight matrix, W^{out} .

$$U(t + \Delta t) = (W^{out})^T \cdot x(t) \quad (2)$$

In the training phase, the output, $U(t + \Delta t)$, is discarded and the next training input passed to the network. During the prediction phase, the output is kept and used as the next input. Figure 1 illustrates this behavior. The speed of ESNs is owed to this structure—only W^{out} has tunable weights. Everything else is fixed. In this work, we adapted the open source Python package pyESN [34] to construct and train the network.

2.2. Hyper-parameter Optimization

ESNs are fast because the hidden layer in a conventional feed-forward neural network is replaced by a large reservoir that does not require training. The trade off is that ESNs are sensitive to various hyper-parameters that need to be optimized [12]. These hyper-parameters are summarized in Table 1. The spectral radius (ρ) should satisfy the “echo state property” which means that previous reservoir activations have a decaying influence on future states. This is usually guaranteed for $\rho < 1$, but is not a requirement [12].

The hyper-parameters are optimized by performing a grid search over the test values specified in Table 1. The following steps were taken for each prediction task:

- 140 1. Select a hyper-parameter or pair of parameters.
2. Generate ESN prediction with the specified parameters.
3. Calculate and record the RMSE.

4. Continue until last entry in the parameter set is reached.
5. Set the network parameters to hyper-parameter value that minimizes the RMSE.

This algorithm generates an error surface where the coordinates of the absolute minimum correspond to the indices of values in the hyper-parameter test sets that minimized the RMSE.

2.3. Prediction Tasks

We first performed a benchmarking task by making a prediction for the Lorenz 1963 model [35]. Then we optimized predictions for univariate time-series representing total demand, solar energy, and wind energy 4-hours ahead and 48-hours ahead. Finally, those same six tasks are repeated with an additional predictor. The tasks are summarized in Table 2.

2.4. Data Selection and Processing

All data predicting demand, wind energy, and solar energy on the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC) campus are from the UIUC Solar Farm 1.0 dashboard [36] and proprietary data shared with us courtesy of the UIUC Facilities and Services Department. All data had hourly resolution. Weather data was retrieved from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)[37] for two locations: Champaign, IL, where UIUC is located, and Lincoln, IL, where Rail-splitter Windfarm is located. UIUC has a power purchase agreement with Railsplitter Windfarm [38]. In the case of UIUC solar data, significant portions were missing due to instrument failure. In order to fill in this missing data, we calculated the theoretical solar energy production based on irradiance data from OpenEI [39]. The solar output is given by [40]

$$P = G_T \eta_{ref} \tau_{pv} A [1 - \gamma(T - 25)] \quad [W] \quad (3)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} G_T &= P_{DNI} * \cos(\beta + \delta - lat) \\ &+ P_{DHI} * \left(\frac{180 - \beta}{180} \right) \left[\frac{W}{m^2} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Table 1: Description of Model Hyper-parameters

Hyper-parameter	Purpose	Tested Values
noise	Neuron regularization	[0.0001, 0.0003, 0.0007, 0.001, 0.003, 0.005, 0.007, 0.01]
ρ	Spectral radius	[0.5, 0.7, 0.9, 1, 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 1.5]
N	Size of reservoir, \mathbf{W}	[600, 800, 1000, 1500, 2000, 2500, 3000, 4000]
sparsity	The density of connections in \mathbf{W}	[0.005, 0.01, 0.03, 0.05, 0.1, 0.12, 0.15, 0.2]
Training Length	Size of the training set before prediction	$L \in [5000, 25000]$, step size = 300

Table 2: Summary of Prediction Tasks

Target	Future	Additional Predictor
Total Demand	4 hours ahead	None
Solar Energy	48 hours ahead	Solar Elevation Humidity Pressure
Wind Energy		Wet Bulb Temp. Dry Bulb Temp. Wind Speed

where

$$\delta = 23.44 \sin \left(\left(\frac{\pi}{180} \right) \left(\frac{360}{365} \right) (N + 284) \right) \text{ [degrees]} \quad (5)$$

η, τ, γ are solar panel properties

P_{DNI} is the direct normal irradiance

P_{DHI} is the diffuse horizontal irradiance

β is the tilt angle of the solar panels

The solar elevation angle, α , was also calculated [41, 42] using coordinates for the UIUC solar farm.

$$\alpha = \sin^{-1} [\sin(\delta) \sin(\phi) + \cos(\delta) \cos(\phi) \cos(\omega)] \quad (6)$$

where

δ is the declination angle

ϕ is the latitude of interest

ω is the hour angle

Finally, we normalized all of the data using the infinity norm

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty \equiv \max |x_i|. \quad (7)$$

The infinity norm is equivalent to normalizing by the system capacity. This is useful because it simplifies the comparison of our results between tasks whose training data have vastly different magnitudes.

165 2.5. Error Metric

We measure the accuracy of the model using two error metrics: Mean absolute error (MAE) and root mean squared error (RMSE). These are defined as

$$\text{MAE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |y_i - \hat{y}_i| \quad (8)$$

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2} \quad (9)$$

The MAE measures the expected error throughout the forecast horizon. The RMSE indicates the presence of large but infrequent errors. Since the data were normalized by system capacity [9], the error metrics are easily interpretable.

3. Results

Below we show the best prediction for each task.

3.1. Benchmark: Lorenz 1963

We first verified that our choice of implementation for ESNs produces similar results to those found in the literature [31]. The hyper-parameters that

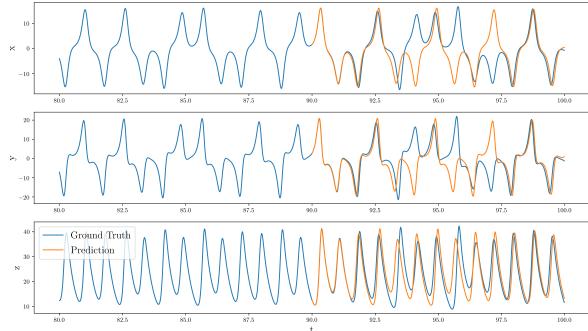


Figure 2: Using an ESN to replicate the climate of the Lorenz Attractor.

minimized the RMSE of the model can be found in Table 3. Our optimized values are somewhat different from the literature, but our ESN implementation successfully replicated the climate of the Lorenz Attractor similar to Pathak et. al 2017.

Table 3: Hyper-parameters for the Lorenz 1963 Model

Parameter	This paper	Literature [31]
N	2000	300
ρ	0.9	1.2
sparsity	0.1	0.1
noise	0.001	0
Training Length	3200	Not Specified

4. Discussion

The forecast accuracy of our ESN for the Lorenz model does not persist for quite as long as in other works [31]. However, our model successfully replicates the environment that produces the Lorenz Attractor. Further, optimal parameters may be unique for each randomly instantiated reservoir. It is impossible to replicate the exact conditions of other works without information about a seed for the random state. We have included this information for future work to compare with our results.

For each target variable, demand, wind, and solar, we found that air pressure was the only meteorological factor that improved the forecast error in every case. Solar elevation angle also decreased the error in most cases with one exception, 48-hour

ahead solar production. One possible reason for the improved performance from adding air pressure is that the data may contain implicit information about weather dynamics. For example, air pressure typically changes throughout the day due to solar heating and has close relationship to air temperature [43], thus it contains implicit information about both the amount of solar energy reaching the ground and the ambient temperature which influences electricity demand and solar energy generation. Similarly, the height of the sun in the sky has a strong influence on ambient weather and thus on demand and the production of renewable energy. Elevation angle lacks information about how much solar energy reaches the ground, which could explain why air pressure performed better in some cases. Using the solar angle to improve forecasting has a couple of important advantages over measured weather data. First, it can be calculated accurately within a minute time-resolution [41]. Second, because solar angle can be calculated deterministically, it reduces the amount of data processing required. Based on this, we recommend using solar elevation as a simple first attempt at improving forecasts.

The results also show that some meteorological factors are detrimental to model performance. In particular, Table ?? and 4 show that temperature increased both the MAE and RMSE for the model. This is counter to conventional wisdom that air temperature influences electricity demand. Additionally, we recommend that researchers forecast demand, solar, and wind energy separately, rather than packaged together as a net demand, because they each possess unique and potentially interfering dynamics.

The forecast lengths were decided based on the requirements for improved economics and planning mentioned in the literature [9, 10, 11]. The ESN model performed reasonably well at predicting four hours ahead but is not an improvement over the state-of-the-art [9, 44]. The model did not perform well at the 48-hour ahead forecasts. This could be due to the lack of higher resolution data. ESNs are known for their ability to predict highly non-linear systems [45, 46] yet using hourly data could add superfluous complexity that confounds the model [47].

4.1. Future Work

One appealing avenue of continued work is to leverage ESNs to generate synthetic data that respects real dynamics. Synthetic data is often use-

Demand Prediction with ESN

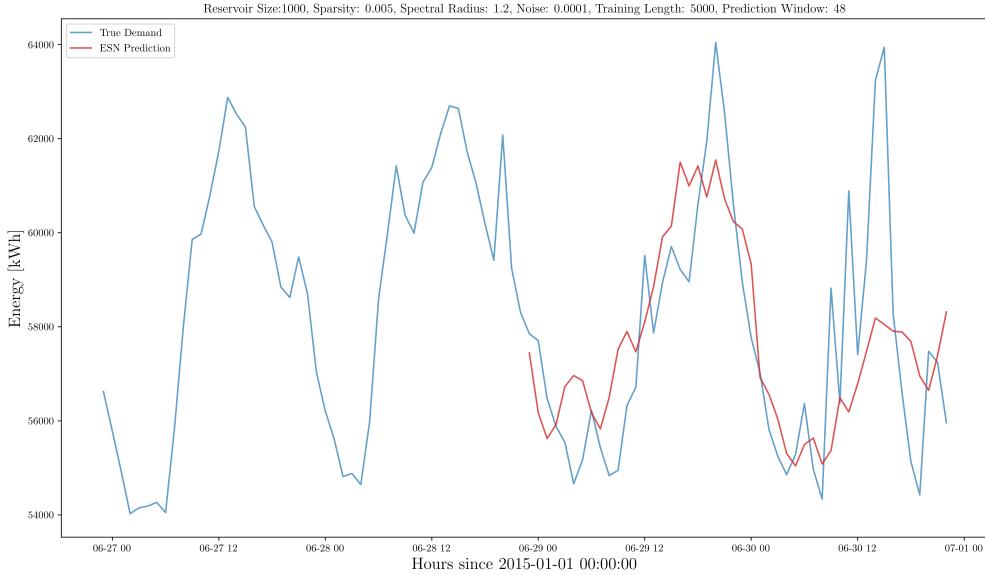


Figure 3: The optimized 48-hour ahead demand prediction with pressure as a meteorological predictor.

Table 4: Tabulated error for 48-hour ahead total electricity demand forecasts with various coupled quantities. Improvement indicates the percentage improvement over the base case of forecasting electricity demand alone.

Scenario	MAE	RMSE	Improvement MAE (%)	Improvement RMSE (%)
Total Demand	0.018892	0.024137	[-]	[-]
Demand + Sun Elevation	0.013375	0.022893	-29.20	-5.15
Demand + Humidity	0.048357	0.063544	+155.96	+163.26
Demand + Pressure	0.009329	0.017334	-50.62	-28.18
Demand + Wet Bulb Temp.	0.033473	0.039922	+77.18	+65.40
Demand + Dry Bulb Temp.	0.031866	0.040409	+66.67	+67.42
Demand + Wind Speed	0.051045	0.074966	+170.19	+210.58

Table 5: Tabulated error for 4-hour ahead electricity demand forecasts with various coupled quantities. Improvement indicates the percentage improvement over the base case of forecasting solar energy alone.

Scenario	MAE	RMSE	Improvement MAE (%)	Improvement RMSE (%)
Total Demand	0.019343	0.026322	[-]	[-]
Demand + Sun Elevation	0.009869	0.016928	-48.98	-35.69
Demand + Humidity	0.054772	0.073056	+183.16	+177.54
Demand + Pressure	0.009754	0.019314	-49.57	-26.62
Demand + Wet Bulb Temp.	0.020932	0.026979	+8.21	+2.50
Demand + Dry Bulb Temp.	0.026577	0.039963	+37.40	+51.82
Demand + Wind Speed	0.042534	0.067427	+119.89	+156.16

ful for other machine learning or optimization algorithms. Typically, these data are produced by sampling from an Auto-regressive Moving Average

(ARMA) model [48, 49], which tacitly assumes the training data can be made stationary. ESNs have been shown to replicate the environment of a dynam-

Demand Prediction with ESN

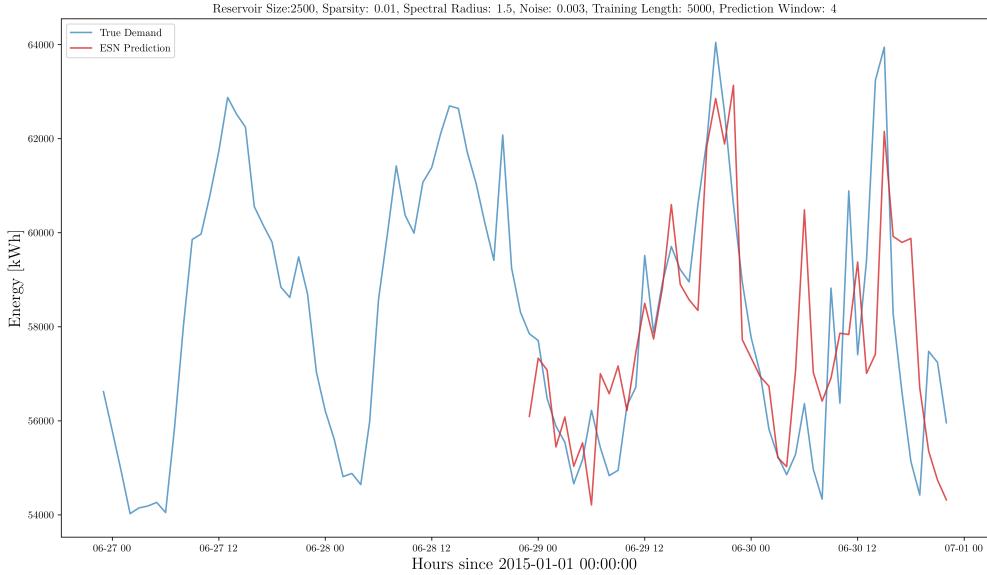


Figure 4: The optimized 4 hour ahead demand prediction with solar angle as an additional predictor.

Solar Generation Prediction with ESN

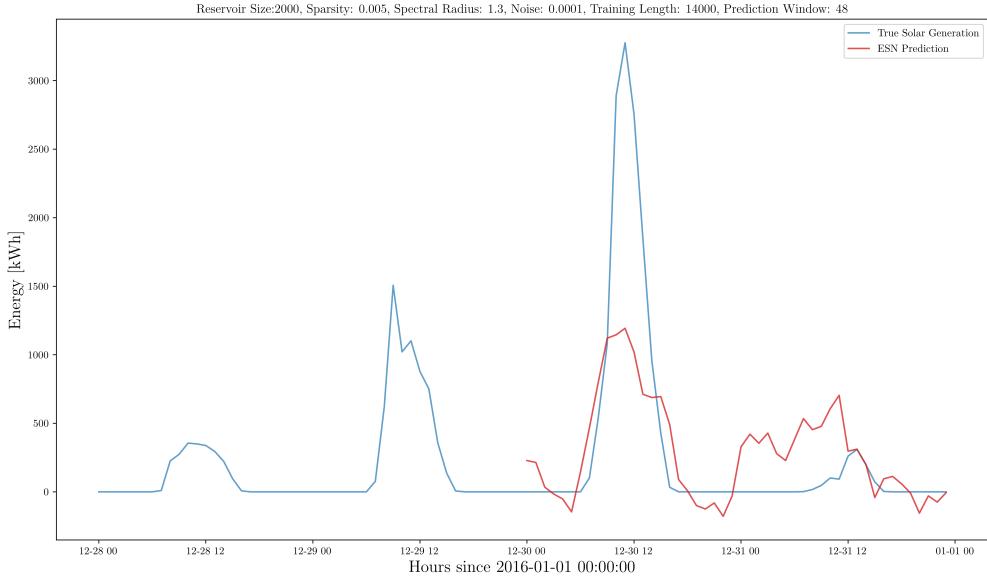


Figure 5: The optimized 48-hour ahead solar energy prediction with humidity as a meteorological predictor.

ical system, although it remains to be seen how far in the future this behavior persists [31, 32]. Future work will also explore the effect of data resolution on model performance, as well as evaluate some of the improvements to the ESN algorithm.

5. Conclusion

Improving renewable energy forecasting is important for grid-planning and unit commitment. Especially as the share of variable renewable resources increases, challenging the baseload power from nu-

Table 6: Tabulated error for 48-hour ahead solar energy forecasts with various coupled quantities. Improvement indicates the percentage improvement over the base case of forecasting solar energy alone.

Scenario	MAE	RMSE	Improvement MAE (%)	Improvement RMSE (%)
Solar Energy	0.143276	0.206162	[\cdot]	[\cdot]
Solar + Sun Elevation	0.200627	0.292516	+40.02	+41.88
Solar + Humidity	0.086920	0.111476	-39.33	-45.93
Solar + Pressure	0.098554	0.152672	-31.21	-25.94
Solar + Wet Bulb Temp.	0.114157	0.167503	-20.32	-18.75
Solar + Dry Bulb Temp.	0.079036	0.123783	-44.84	-39.96
Solar + Wind Speed	0.147270	0.191722	+2.788	-7.004

Solar Generation Prediction with ESN

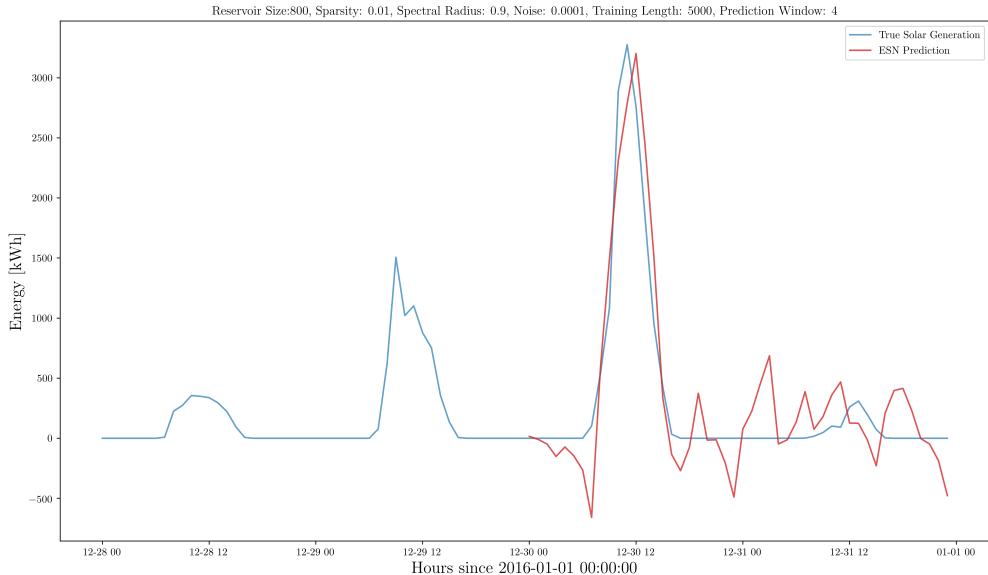


Figure 6: The optimized 4 hour ahead solar energy prediction with wet bulb temperature as a meteorological predictor.

Table 7: Tabulated error for 4-hour ahead solar energy forecasts with various coupled quantities. Improvement indicates the percentage improvement over the base case of forecasting solar energy alone.

Scenario	MAE	RMSE	Improvement MAE (%)	Improvement RMSE (%)
Solar Energy	0.061426	0.095794	[\cdot]	[\cdot]
Solar + Sun Elevation	0.033263	0.060048	-45.85	-37.32
Solar + Humidity	0.054951	0.078739	-10.54	-17.80
Solar + Pressure	0.046862	0.089294	-23.71	-6.78
Solar + Wet Bulb Temp.	0.038104	0.053419	-37.97	-44.24
Solar + Dry Bulb Temp.	0.044104	0.073112	-28.20	-23.68
Solar + Wind Speed	0.070293	0.099912	+14.44	+4.30

265 clear plants. We first demonstrated that our implementation of the ESN algorithm is consistent with the literature. Then we applied this model

to prediction tasks for total demand, solar energy, and wind energy, and evaluated the influence of several meteorological factors on model performance.

Wind Generation Prediction with ESN

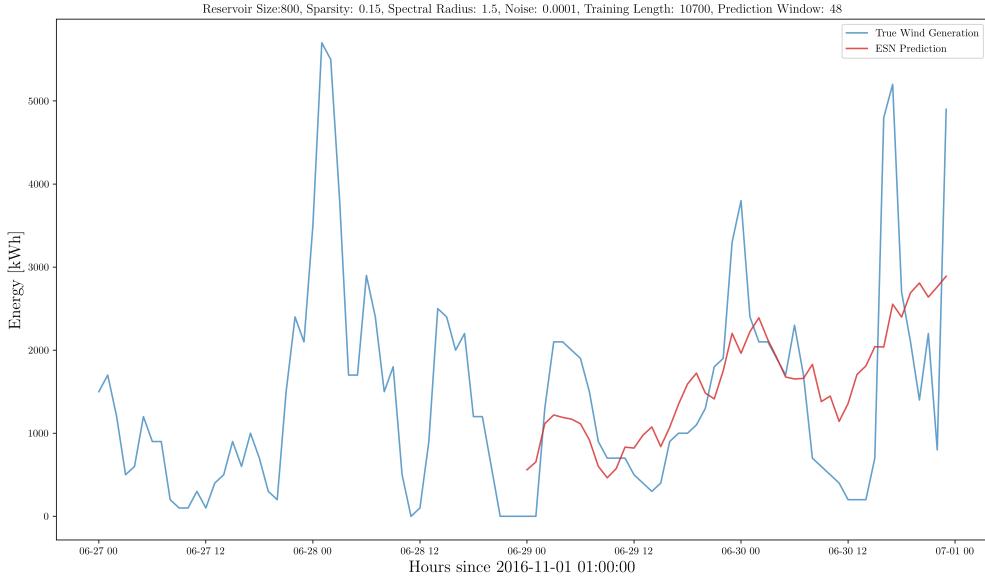


Figure 7: The optimized 48-hour ahead wind energy prediction with solar angle as an additional predictor.

Table 8: Tabulated error for 48-hour ahead wind forecasts with various coupled quantities. Improvement indicates the percentage improvement over the base case of forecasting wind energy alone.

Scenario	MAE	RMSE	Improvement MAE (%)	Improvement RMSE (%)
Wind Energy	0.103516	0.130848	[-]	[-]
Wind + Sun Elevation	0.051899	0.081339	-49.82	-37.84
Wind + Humidity	0.091975	0.112054	-11.15	-14.36
Wind + Pressure	0.054388	0.097670	-47.46	-25.36
Wind + Wet Bulb Temp.	0.074085	0.097004	-28.43	-25.86
Wind + Dry Bulb Temp.	0.081268	0.105289	-21.49	-19.53
Wind + Wind Speed	0.100880	0.122271	-2.5464	-6.555

Table 9: Tabulated error for 4-hour ahead wind forecasts with various coupled quantities. Improvement indicates the percentage improvement over the base case of forecasting wind energy alone.

Scenario	MAE	RMSE	Improvement MAE (%)	Improvement RMSE (%)
Wind Energy	0.090266	0.124303	[-]	[-]
Wind + Sun Elevation	0.039248	0.083134	-56.52	-33.12
Wind + Humidity	0.064131	0.096310	-28.95	-22.52
Wind + Pressure	0.043739	0.087981	-51.54	-29.22
Wind + Wet Bulb Temp.	0.044447	0.077770	-50.76	-37.44
Wind + Dry Bulb Temp.	0.050536	0.083151	-44.01	-33.11
Wind + Wind Speed	0.063456	0.088157	-29.70	-29.07

Our results show that only air pressure and solar angle were consistently good at improving model accuracy. However, the conventional ESN used here

did not demonstrate a significant improvement over the state-of-the-art. Nor was it accurate enough to improve grid-scale energy economy. Future work

Wind Generation Prediction with ESN

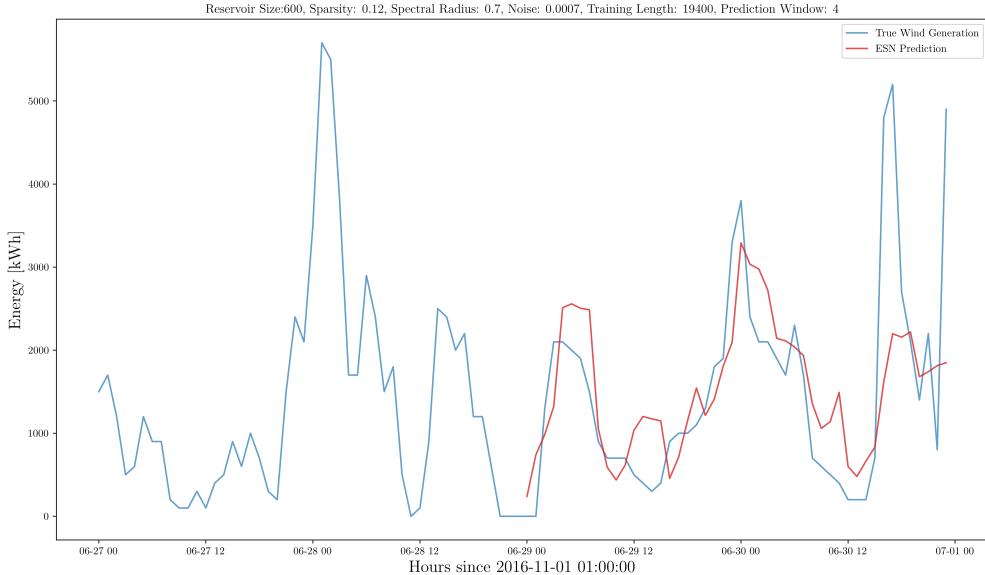


Figure 8: The optimized 4 hour ahead wind energy prediction with wet bulb temperature as a meteorological predictor.

will explore other applications of ESNs and evaluate improvements to the model algorithm.

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