

# Building a Fuzzy Expert System for Electric Load Forecasting Using a Hybrid Neural Network

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**Abstract**—This paper presents the development of a hybrid neural network to model a fuzzy expert system for time series forecasting of electric load. The hybrid neural network is trained to develop fuzzy logic rules and find optimal input/output membership values of load and weather parameters. A hybrid learning algorithm consisting of unsupervised and supervised learning phases is used for training the fuzzified neural network. In the supervised learning phase, both back-propagation and linear Kalman filter algorithms are used for the adjustment of weights and membership functions. Extensive tests have been performed on a 2-year utility data for the generation of peak and average load profiles in 24 h, 48 h, and 168 h ahead time frame during summer and winter seasons. From the simulation results, it is observed that the fuzzy expert system using the Kalman filter-based algorithm gives faster convergence and more accurate prediction of a load time series.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

IT IS WELL KNOWN that fuzzy logic provides an inference strategy that enables approximate human reasoning capabilities to knowledge-based systems. Also, it provides a mathematical morphology to emulate certain perceptual and linguistic attributes associated with human cognition. Although fuzzy theory provides an inference mechanism under cognitive uncertainty, computational neural networks offer exciting advantages such as learning, adaptation, fault tolerance, parallelism, and generalization. The computational neural networks, comprising processing elements called neurons, are capable of coping with computational complexity, non-linearity, and uncertainty.

To enable a system to deal with cognitive uncertainties in a manner more like humans, one may incorporate

the concepts of fuzzy logic into neural network. Although fuzzy logic is a natural mechanism for modelling cognitive uncertainty, it may involve an increase in the amount of computation required. This can be readily offset by using fuzzy neural network approaches having the potential for parallel computations with high flexibility.

The application of an artificial neural network (ANN) and fuzzy logic-based decision support system to time-series forecasting has gained much attention recently. ANN-based load forecasts give large errors when the weather profile changes very fast. Also extremely slow training or even training failure occurs in many cases due to difficulties in selecting proper structures of the neural network paradigm being used, and due to the errors in associated parameters such as learning rates, activation functions, etc., which are fundamental to any back-propagation neural network. On the other hand, the development of a fuzzy decision system (fuzzy expert system) for load forecasting requires detail analysis of data, and the fuzzy rule base has to be developed

heuristically for each season. The rules fixed in this way may not always yield the best forecast. Thus, a hybrid neural network model is used that combines the idea of fuzzy logic-based decision system and neural network structure and learning abilities into an integrated framework. Such a hybrid model provides human understandable meaning to the normal feedforward neural network in which the internal units are always opaque to the users. This structure also avoids the rule matching time of the inference engine in the traditional fuzzy logic system and results in enhanced learning speed and prediction accuracy.

The present work is aimed at achieving the said objective of a robust load forecast with much improved accuracy using a fuzzy expert system modelled by the hybrid ANN architecture. The two types of fuzzy expert system models, abbreviated FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> are based on the argument that any fuzzy expert system employing one block of rules may be approximated by a neural network (feedforward, multilayered). The input vector to FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> consists of differences in weather parameters between the reference and the forecasted day or hour. The output of the FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> gives the load correction that, when added to the past load, gives the forecasted load. The learning algorithm for FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> combines unsupervised and supervised learning procedures to build the rule nodes and train the membership functions. The supervised learning procedure for FES<sub>1</sub> uses a gradient back-propagation algorithm for finding the optimum weights and membership functions. Although for FES<sub>2</sub>, the supervised learning procedure uses a linear Kalman filter-based learning algorithm suggested by Scalero and Tepedelenlioglu (1992), which is similar to the least square adaptive learning techniques. The least square adaptive filtering techniques are known to have rapid convergence properties over the back-propagation algorithm.

A few examples of peak load forecasting and daily average load forecasting of a typical utility with 24 h and 168 h lead time are shown in this paper. The approach presented in this paper is also applicable to load forecasts with longer lead times.

## 2. FUZZY EXPERT SYSTEM

### 2.1. Fuzzy Statements

This section portrays inexact information presented by fuzzy statements, and explains both fuzzy conditional statements and inference mechanisms. Typically, an engineering model requires the use of exact or mathematical statements. These statements correspond to precise information such as  $x = 3.0$ ,  $2 < \theta < 0$ , or  $y = 3t + 24$ . The value of  $x = 3.0$  has a grade membership comparable to 100% (= 1), for all other values (2.8, 2.9, 3.1, 3.2), the grades of membership in the solution is zero. In the case of real world values, however, this grade of membership

is not true due to the imprecision of tools, the influence of the observer, etc. Additionally, human reasoning is often imprecise, that is, inexact statements such as, "the value of  $x$  is not big" or "the temperature is about 4°." Therefore, a theory to correctly express the grade of membership is desirable.

The Fuzzy Set Theory allows manipulation of both exact and inexact (fuzzy) statements. This is very important for load forecasting because there are so many fuzzy factors that are difficult to characterize by a number. An instance of this could be weather conditions such as temperature, humidity, cloud cover, etc. For example, "the temperature this morning will be about 11°." Temperature is an important factor in load forecasting, but is not easy to characterise by an exact numerical quantity. In addition, the linguistic hedges (such as small, medium, large) can be modified by other linguistic hedges (such as not, very, very very) (Zadeh, 1965) For example, "value of  $x$  is not big," where big is a linguistic hedge and not a modifier.

### 2.2. Fuzzy Rule Base

A fuzzy expert system consists of a collection of fuzzy IF-THEN rules. For example, the rule base  $R$  is written as

$$R = [R^1, R^2, \dots, R^M] \quad (1)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} R^l: & \text{IF } (x_1 \text{ is } F_1^l \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } x_p \text{ is } F_p^l) \\ & \text{THEN } (y_1 \text{ is } G_1^l \text{ and } \dots \text{ and } y_q \text{ is } G_q^l) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $\underline{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$  and  $\underline{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m)^T$  are the input and output vectors to the fuzzy system, respectively.  $F_i^l$  and  $G_j^l$  are labels of fuzzy sets  $U_i$  and  $V_j$ , respectively, and  $1 \leq p \leq n$ ;  $1 \leq q \leq m$ , and  $l = 1, 2, \dots, M$ .

### 2.3. Fuzzy Inference Engine

A fuzzy inference engine uses the rules in the fuzzy rule base to determine a mapping from fuzzy sets in  $U$  to fuzzy sets in  $V$  based on fuzzy logic operations. In the fuzzy inference engine, the IF part of  $R_j^l$  defines a cartesian product of  $F_1^l, \dots, F_p^l$  and the  $R_j^l$  itself is viewed as a fuzzy implication  $F_1^l \times \dots \times F_p^l \Rightarrow G_j^l$ . If  $A$  is an arbitrary fuzzy set in  $U$ , then each  $R^l$  of eqn. (2) determines a fuzzy set  $AR^l$  in  $V$  based on the sup-star composition

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{AR^l}(y_{A \circ R^l}) &= \sup_{\underline{x} \in U} [\mu_A(\underline{x} \cdot y_j)] \\ &= \sup_{\underline{x} \in U} [\mu_A(\underline{x}) * \mu_{F_1^l}(x_1) * \dots * \mu_{F_p^l}(x_p) * \mu_{G_j^l}(y_j)] \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where  $y_j \in V_j$ .

The final fuzzy set  $A \circ R_j$  ( $R_j = [R_j^1, \dots, R_j^M]$ ) in  $V_j$  determined by the fuzzy inference engine is obtained by combining eqn. (2) for  $l = 1, 2, \dots, M$  using the triangular co-norm

$$\mu_{A \circ R_j}(y_j) = \mu_{A \circ R_j^1}(y_j) + \dots + \mu_{A \circ R_j^M}(y_j). \quad (4)$$

**2.3.1. Fuzzification and Defuzzification.** In many cases it is convenient to express the membership function of a fuzzy subset in terms of a standard nonlinear function. The following Gaussian membership function suggested by Lin and Lee (1991) is used for the fuzzification of input and output linguistic parameters of the fuzzy expert system:

$$\mu_{A_i}(x) = \exp\left\{\frac{-(x-a)^2}{b}\right\} \quad (5)$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are the center and width of the Gaussian membership function, respectively.

The defuzzifier is needed to give a crisp output for any practical application like forecasting. The output of the fuzzy inference engine is a fuzzy set  $A \circ R$  in  $V$ , therefore, the defuzzifier maps  $A \circ R$  into a crisp point  $\underline{y} \in V$ . The most commonly used centroid defuzzifier is defined as

$$y = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^M \bar{y}_j^l \left( \mu_{A \circ R_j^l}(\bar{y}_j^l) \right)}{\sum_{j=1}^M \mu_{A \circ R_j^l}(\bar{y}_j^l)} \quad (6)$$

### 3. FUZZY EXPERT SYSTEM MODEL USING NEURAL NETWORK APPROACH

An alternative to the neural network-based load forecast is the expert system approach. A fuzzy expert system approach for load forecast consists of rules similar to the rules  $R^1, \dots, R^M$  given in Section 2.2. One of the difficulties with the fuzzy expert system is the rule matching and composition time, apart from the time-consuming process of adapting the rules. The neural network eliminates the rule matching process and stores the knowledge in the link weights. The decision signals can be pumped out immediately after the input data are fed in. Figure 3 shows the proposed hybrid neural network to model the fuzzy expert system using the ANN architecture. The fuzzy expert system clusters the differential temperatures and humidities of the  $i$ th and  $(i+n)$ th days into fuzzy term sets. Here  $n$  is the lead time for the forecast (i.e.,  $n=24$  for 24 h ahead forecast,  $n=48$  for 48 h ahead forecast, and so on). The output of the expert system is the final load correction ( $\hat{e}_{LC}$ ).

Hence, the forecasted load on  $(i+n)$ th day ( $P_f(i+n)$ ) is given by:

$$P_f(i+n) = P(i) + \hat{e}_{LC}(i). \quad (7)$$

The fuzzy expert system modelled as a hybrid neural network has a total of five layers. Nodes at layer 1 are the input linguistic nodes. Layer 5 is the output layer and consists of two nodes [one is for the actual load correction ( $\hat{e}_{LC}$ ) and the other is the desired load correction ( $e_{LC}$ )]. Nodes at layer 2 and 4 are term nodes that act as membership functions to represent the term sets of the respective linguistic variable. Each node at layer 3 represents the preconditions of the rule nodes, and layer 4 links define the consequence of the rules. The functions of each layer is described as follows:

- Layer 1: The nodes in this layer just transmit the input feature  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  to the next layer.
- Layer 2: Each input feature  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  is expressed in terms of membership values  $\mu_{x_i}^j(a_{ij}, b_{ij})$ , where  $i$  corresponds to the input feature and  $j$  corresponds to the number of term sets for the linguistic variable  $x_i$ . The membership function  $\mu_{x_i}^j$  uses the Gaussian membership function (5).
- Layer 3: The links in this layer are used to perform precondition matching of fuzzy logic rules. Hence, the rule nodes perform the product operation (or AND operation).

$$\mu_{R_p} = \prod \mu_{x_i}^j \quad (8)$$

where  $R_p = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .  $R_p$  corresponds to the rule node and  $n$  is the maximum number of rule nodes. However, if the fuzzy AND operation is used

$$\mu_{R_p} = \min\{\mu_{x_i}^j\} \quad (9)$$

- Layer 4: The nodes in this layer have two operations (i.e., forward and backward transmission). In forward transmission mode, the nodes perform the fuzzy OR operation to integrate the fired rules, which have the same consequence:

$$\mu^4 = \sum_{i=1}^p \mu_i^4 \quad (10)$$

where  $p$  corresponds to the links terminating at the node. In the backward transmission mode, the links function exactly the same as the layer 2 nodes.

- Layer 5: There are two nodes in this layer (i.e., for obtaining the actual and desired output load correction, respectively). The desired output load correction ( $e_{LC}$ ) is fed into the hybrid neural network during learning whereas the actual load correction ( $\hat{e}_{LC}$ ) is obtained by using the centroid defuzzification method (6).

#### 4. HYBRID LEARNING ALGORITHM FOR THE FUZZY EXPERT SYSTEM (FES)

The hybrid learning scheme consists of two phases. In phase I, the initial membership functions of the input and output linguistic variables are fixed and an initial form of the network is constructed. Then, during the learning process, some nodes and links of this initial network are deleted or combined to form the final structure of the network. In phase II learning, the input and output membership functions are optimally adjusted to obtain the desired outputs. Phase I represents the unsupervised learning phase. Phase II represents the supervised learning phase.

##### 4.1. Phase-I: Unsupervised Learning Phase

Given the training input data  $x_i(t)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , the desired output load correction ( $e_{LC}(t)$ ) and the fuzzy partitions  $|\mu_{x_i}^j|$ . We want to locate the membership functions (i.e.,  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_{ij}$ ) and find the fuzzy logic rules.

The Kohonen's feature maps algorithm (Lin & Lee, 1991) is used to find the values for  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_{ij}$ :

$$\|x(t) - a_{i, \text{closest}}(t)\| = \min_{1 \leq j \leq t} \left\{ \|x_i(t) - a_{ij}(t)\| \right\} \quad (11)$$

$$a_{i, \text{closest}}(t+1) = a_{i, \text{closest}}(t) + \eta(t) \left[ x_i(t) - a_{i, \text{closest}}(t) \right] \quad (12)$$

$$a_{ij}(t+1) = a_{ij}(t) \text{ for } a_{ij} \neq a_{i, \text{closest}} \quad (13)$$

where  $\eta(t)$  is the monotonically decreasing learning rate and  $t = |T(x_i)|$  (i.e., the number of term sets for the linguistic variable  $x_i$ ).

This adaptive formulation runs independently for each input linguistic variable  $x_i$ :

The width,  $b_{ij}$  is determined heuristically at this stage (Lin & Lee, 1991) as follows:

$$b_{ij} = \frac{|a_{i,j} - a_{i, \text{closest}}|}{r} \quad (14)$$

where  $r$  is an overlap parameter. After the parameters of the membership functions have been found, the weights in layer 4 are obtained by using the competitive learning algorithm (Rumelhart & Zipses, 1985) as follows:

$$W_{ij} = LI_j^4 (LI_j^3 - W_{ij}) \quad (15)$$

where  $LI_j^3$  serves as the win-loss index of the rule node at layer 3 and  $LI_j^4$  serves as the win-loss index of the  $j$ th term node at layer 4, respectively.

After the competitive learning through the whole training data set, the link weights at layer 4 represent the

strength of the existence of the corresponding rule consequence. If a link weight between rule node and the term node of the output linguistic node is very small, then all the corresponding links are deleted, meaning that this rule node has little or no relation to the output.

After the consequences of rule nodes are determined, the rule combination is performed to reduce the number of rules in the following manner. The criteria for the choice of rule nodes are:

1. they have the same consequences,
2. some preconditions are common to all the rule nodes in this set,
3. the union of other preconditions of these rule nodes composes the whole term set of some input linguistic variables.

The rule nodes that satisfy these criteria are replaced by a new rule node with common preconditions.

##### 4.2. Phase II: Supervised Learning Phase

Once the fuzzy logic rules have been found, the phase II learning is used to find the optimum weights and the input and output membership functions by using the gradient descent backpropagation algorithm (Scalero & Tepedelenlioglu, 1992).

a) The weight update equation for layer 4 is:

$$W_{ij}(t) = W_{ij}(t) + \eta \left[ \frac{-\partial E}{\partial W_{ij}} \right] \quad (16)$$

The error function  $E$  is given by

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \left[ e_{LC}(t) - \hat{e}_{LC}(t) \right]^2 \quad (17)$$

Because

$$\hat{e}_{LC} = \frac{\sum (a_{ij} b_{ij}) \mu_i^5}{\sum b_{ij} \mu_i^5} \quad (18)$$

using centroid defuzzification method (6)

$$\mu_i^5 = \mu^4 = \sum_{i=1}^p \mu_i^4 W_{ij} \quad (19)$$

where  $W_{ij} = 1$  for  $t = 1$ .

Now,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{ij}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial \hat{e}_{LC}} \frac{\partial \hat{e}_{LC}}{\partial \mu_i^5} \frac{\partial \mu_i^5}{\partial W_{ij}} \quad (20)$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{ij}} = [e_{LC}(t) - \hat{e}_{LC}(t)] \times \left\{ \frac{a_{ij} b_{ij} (\sum b_{ij} \mu_i^5) - (\sum a_{ij} b_{ij} \mu_i^5) b_{ij}}{(\sum b_{ij} \mu_i^5)^2} \right\} \mu_i^4. \quad (21)$$

Training the output membership functions at layer 5:

$$a_{ij}(t+1) = a_{ij}(t) + \eta_1 \left[ \frac{-\partial E}{\partial a_{ij}} \right] \quad (22)$$

where  $\eta_1$  is the learning rate.  
Now,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_{ij}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial \hat{e}_{LC}} \frac{\partial \hat{e}_{LC}}{\partial a_{ij}}. \quad (23)$$

Therefore, using eqns. (17) and (18) we get

$$a_{ij}(t+1) = a_{ij}(t) + \eta_1 (e_{LC}(t) - \hat{e}_{LC}(t)) \left\{ \frac{b_{ij} \mu_i^5}{(\sum b_{ij} \mu_i^5)} \right\}. \quad (24)$$

Similarly,

$$b_{ij}(t+1) = b_{ij}(t) + \eta_2 \left[ \frac{-\partial E}{\partial b_{ij}} \right] \quad (25)$$

where  $\eta_2$  is the learning rate.  
Now,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial b_{ij}} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial \hat{e}_{LC}} \frac{\partial \hat{e}_{LC}}{\partial b_{ij}}. \quad (26)$$

Therefore, using eqns. (17) and (18) we get

$$b_{ij}(t+1) = b_{ij}(t) + \eta_2 (e_{LC}(t) - \hat{e}_{LC}(t)) \times \left\{ \frac{a_{ij} \mu_i^5 (\sum b_{ij} \mu_i^5) - (\sum a_{ij} b_{ij} \mu_i^5) \mu_i^5}{(\sum b_{ij} \mu_i^5)^2} \right\} \quad (27)$$

c) Tuning the input membership functions at layer 2:  
The error signal  $\delta_i^4$  at layer 4 is given by

$$\delta_i^4 = [e_{LC}(t) - \hat{e}_{LC}(t)] \times \left\{ \frac{a_{ij} b_{ij} (\sum b_{ij} \mu_i^5) - (\sum a_{ij} b_{ij} \mu_i^5) b_{ij}}{(\sum b_{ij} \mu_i^5)^2} \right\} \quad (28)$$

where  $(a_{ij}, b_{ij})$  correspond to the output term set.

The error signal at layer 3 is found by performing the summation over the consequences of a rule node (i.e., layer 4). Therefore,

$$\delta_i^3 = \sum \delta_i^4. \quad (29)$$

The adaptive rule for  $a_{ij}$  (layer 2) is derived as:

$$a_{ij}(t+1) = a_{ij}(t) + \eta_3 \left[ \frac{-\partial E}{\partial a_{ij}} \right] \quad (30)$$

where  $\eta_3$  is the learning rate.  
Now,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_{ij}} = \delta_i^3 e \left( \frac{-(x_i - a_{ij})^2}{b_{ij}} \right) \left\{ \frac{2(x_i - a_{ij})}{b_{ij}} \right\}. \quad (31)$$

Also,

$$\delta^2 = \sum \delta_i^3, \quad (32)$$

in a similar way as eqn. (29).  
Therefore,

$$a_{ij}(t+1) = a_{ij}(t) - \eta_3 \delta_i^3 e \left( \frac{-(x_i - a_{ij})^2}{b_{ij}} \right) \left\{ \frac{2(x_i - a_{ij})}{b_{ij}} \right\}. \quad (33)$$

Similarly, the adaptive rule for  $b_{ij}$  (layer 2) is derived as

$$b_{ij}(t+1) = b_{ij}(t) - \eta_4 \delta_i^3 e \left( \frac{-(x_i - a_{ij})^2}{b_{ij}} \right) \left\{ \frac{(x_i - a_{ij})^2}{b_{ij}^2} \right\}. \quad (34)$$

The convergence speed of the phase II supervisory learning scheme for fuzzy expert systems is found to be superior to the supervisory learning scheme for ordinary fuzzy neural network approach (Dash et al., 1993) because the phase I unsupervised learning process had done much of the learning in advance. The convergence speed of the supervised learning process can be improved further by solving the weight update equations at layer 3 and the input and output membership function at layer 1 and layer 2 by linear Kalman filter equations (Singhal & Wu, 1989).

## 5. FUZZY EXPERT SYSTEM USING LINEAR KALMAN FILTER (FES<sub>2</sub>)

Referring to Figure 1, the tuning of Gaussian membership function at layers 2 and 4 ( $a_{ij}, b_{ij}$ ) is similar to the weight update equations at layer 3. In (Scalero & Tepedelenlioglu, 1992) it has been shown that the

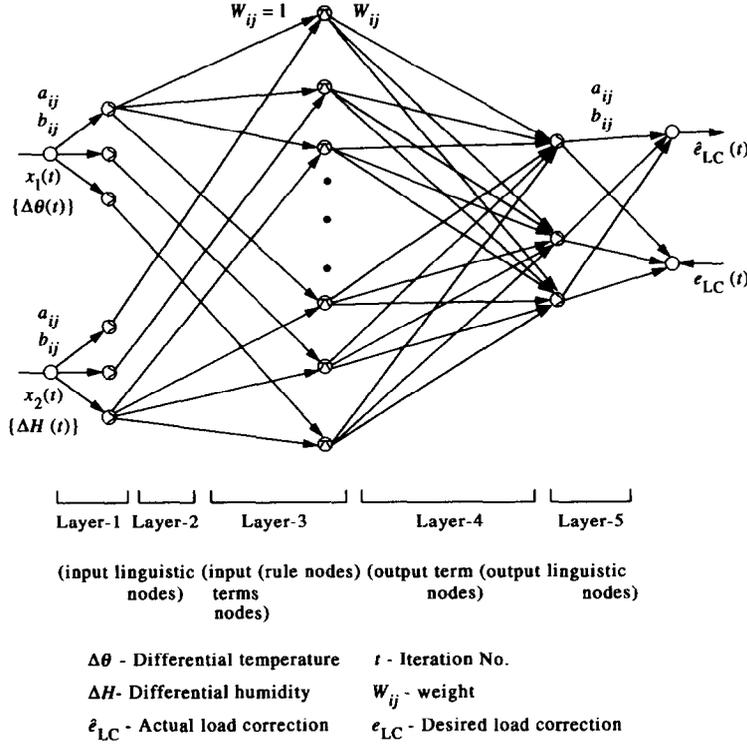


FIGURE 1. Hybrid neural network modelled as a fuzzy expert system.

presence of nonlinear function (in this study the Gaussian membership function) between the weights and the error makes the back-propagation algorithm different from standard least square adaptive filtering techniques, which are known to have rapid convergence (Haykin, 1986).

The FES<sub>2</sub> model uses the linear Kalman filter equations for updating the weights and the membership function. Unlike the back-propagation technique, this algorithm assumes that the estimated weight matrix is nonstationary and hence will allow the tracking of a time varying data like that of load forecasting.

This algorithm defines locally at each node a gradient based on present and past data, and updates the weights of each node using the linear Kalman filter equations to bring this gradient identically to zero whenever an update is made. Performing the update and defining the gradient in this manner ensures that maximum use is made of available information.

The gradient for the linear combiner in each is defined as

$$G = R W - C. \quad (35)$$

The weight vector that makes  $G = R W - C$  zero is the solution to the normal equations.

Here  $R$  is the auto correlation matrix for each layer and is calculated as

$$R = \sum_{np=1}^{NP} f^{NP-np} x_{np} x_{np}^T \quad (36)$$

and  $C$  is the cross-correlation matrix and is given by

$$C = \sum_{np=1}^{NP} f^{NP-np} d_{np} x_{np}^T \quad (37)$$

where  $NP$  denotes the total number of patterns.  $d_{np}$  and  $x_{np}$  are the summation output and the output of the nonlinearity (Gaussian membership function), respectively, for the layer 2 and layer 5 nodes, respectively. As the layer 4 nodes contain no nonlinearity term,  $d_{np} = x_{np}$ . The weights given by eqn. (35) are updated by using a Kalman filter at each layer with a variable forgetting factor ( $f$ ) as shown in eqns. (36) and (37). A variable forgetting factor is used to take care of the new estimates giving less weightage to old estimates.

The Kalman gain vector  $K_j(t)$  at each layer  $j$  is given by

$$K_j(t) = \left\{ \frac{R_j^{-1}(t)x_i(t)}{f_j + x_i^T(t) R_j^{-1}(t)x_i(t)} \right\} - \mu_j \left\{ \frac{E(t-1) - E(t-2)}{K_j(t-1) - K_j(t-2)} \right\} \quad (38)$$

where  $x_i(t)$  corresponds to the previous layer,  $\mu_j$  is the learning rate, and  $t$  denotes the iteration number. The error,  $E$ , at each iteration is obtained from eqn. (17). The first term in eqn. (38) expresses the Kalman gain,  $K_j$ , in

**TABLE 1**  
**The Learned Fuzzy Logic Rules for 24 Hour Ahead**  
**Peak Load Forecasting Using FES<sub>1</sub> in Winter**

Rule	Term Sets		
	Preconditions		Consequence
	$\Delta \Theta_{\max}(i, i+1)$	$\Delta H_{\max}(i, i+1)$	$\hat{e}_{LC}(i)$
0	0	3	7
1	0	4	7
2	1	0	8
3	1	1	7
4	1	2	7
5	1	3	6
6	1	4	6
7	2	0	8
8	2	1	7
9	2	2	7
10	2	3	6
11	2	4	7
12	3	1	2
13	3	2	4
14	3	3	6
15	4	2	5
16	4	3	6
17	4	4	1
18	5	0	3
19	5	1	2
20	5	2	1
21	5	3	1
22	5	4	0
23	6	0	1
24	6	1	1
25	6	2	0

terms of the inverse autocorrelation matrix  $R_j$  and the input to the previous layer  $x_i$ . The second term is used to track the error along a gradient descent surface to attain the final convergence (similar to tuning of membership functions). This helps in a faster rate of convergence.

During training the network is randomly initialized. The original training pairs become obsolete as the adjacent layers adapt their weights according to their perceived observations. Hence, the  $R_j(t)$  matrix for a particular layer, containing the sum total of all prior observations, becomes outdated. Because the Kalman filter minimizes the prediction effort of all prior observations, parameter estimates become biased towards initial conditions and the solution to this problem is the modification of the covariance matrix and the forgetting factor in the following manner:

$$f_j(t+1) = f_0 - \gamma_1 \bar{e}(t) \quad (39)$$

$$R_j^{-1}(t+1) = [R_j^{-1}(t) - K_j(t)x_i^T(t)R_j^{-1}(t)]/f_j \quad (40)$$

where

$$\bar{e}(t) = \frac{r(t)}{1 + x_i^T(t)R_j^{-1}(t)x_i(t)} \quad (41)$$

and  $\gamma_1$  is a constant that is inversely proportional to the prediction error,  $e(t)$ , at that layer. As a result,  $f_j$  remains close to 1 when  $R_j$  is already large and the weight estimates are sensitive to parameter variations. A lower bound  $f_0$  and  $f_j$  is used to prevent the forgetting factor from becoming excessively small, resulting in large estimate fluctuations in spite of small prediction errors. The strategy for employing this forgetting factor is to initially allow it to assume small values during learning such that the initial conditions are quickly forgotten. However, as the average prediction error decreases, it is important to cause  $f_j$  to remain near one to avoid the winding up of the weight estimates. This can be simply implemented by setting  $\gamma_1$  smaller as the mean squared error decreases.

The unsupervised learning phase of FES<sub>2</sub> is same as for FES<sub>1</sub>. The supervised learning phase of FES<sub>2</sub> is modified using the linear Kalman filter equations instead of the back-propagation method used for FES<sub>1</sub>. Therefore, the update equations are modified as follows:

a) The weight update equation for layer 4 is:

$$W_{ij}(t) = W_{ij}(t) + \eta K_j(t) \left[ \frac{-\partial E}{\partial W_{ij}} \right] \quad (42)$$

where  $\partial E / \partial W_{ij}$  is given by eqn. (21) and  $K_j(t)$  is given by eqn. (38).

b) The update equations for  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_{ij}$  at layer 5 are:

$$a_{ij}(t+1) = a_{ij}(t) + \eta_1 K_j(t) \left[ \frac{-\partial E}{\partial a_{ij}} \right] \quad (43)$$

where  $\partial E / \partial a_{ij}$  is given by eqn. (23) and  $K_j(t)$  is given by eqn. (38).

$$b_{ij}(t+1) = b_{ij}(t) + \eta_2 K_j(t) \left[ \frac{-\partial E}{\partial b_{ij}} \right] \quad (44)$$

where  $\partial E / \partial d_{ij}$  is given by eqn. (26) and  $K_j(t)$  is given by eqn. (38).

c) The update equations for  $a_{ij}$  and  $b_{ij}$  at layer 2 are:

$$a_{ij}(t+1) = a_{ij}(t) + \eta_3 K_j(t) \left[ \frac{-\partial E}{\partial a_{ij}} \right] \quad (45)$$

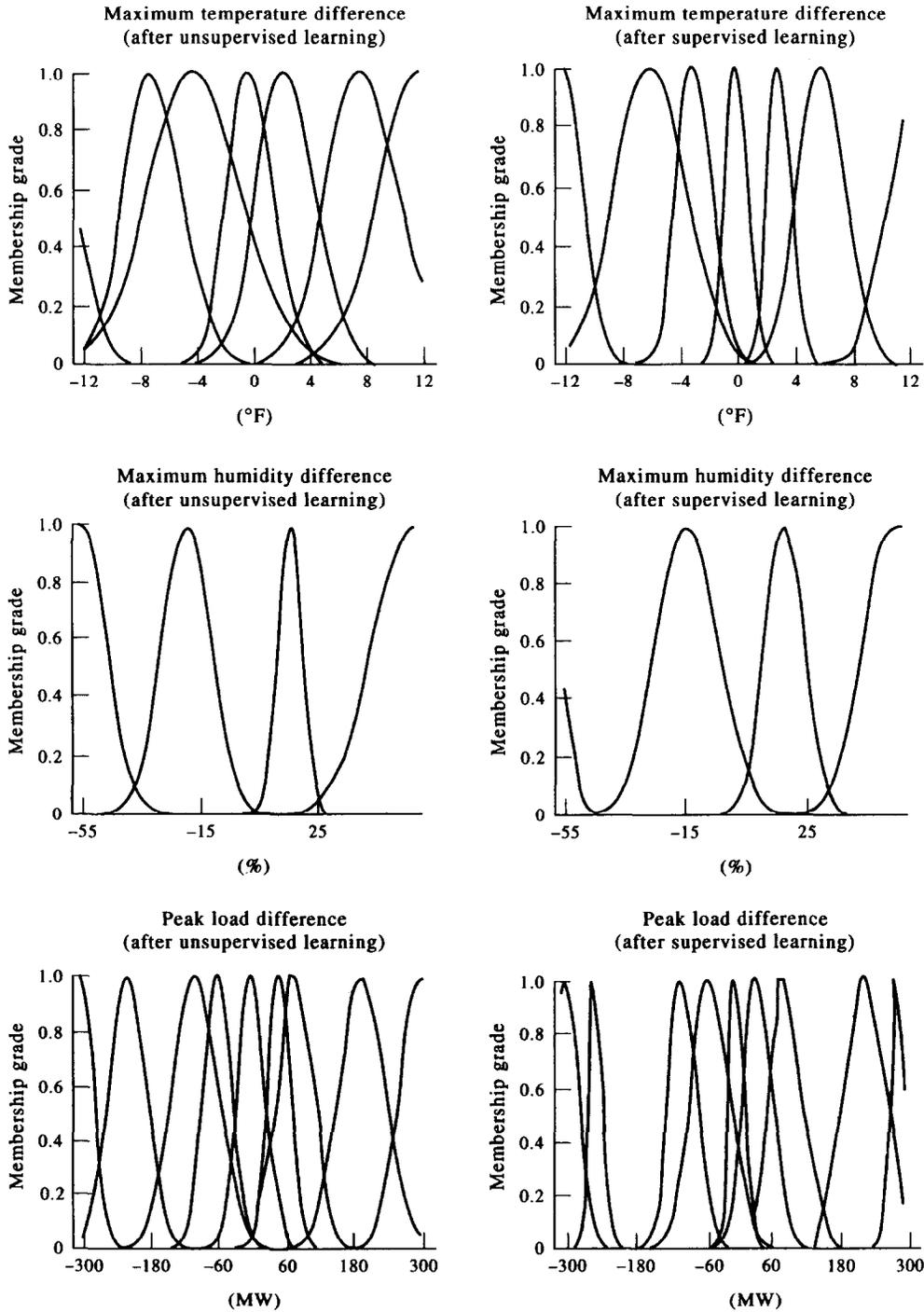


FIGURE 2. Learned membership functions for 24 h ahead peak load forecasting, in January (winter) using FES<sub>1</sub>.

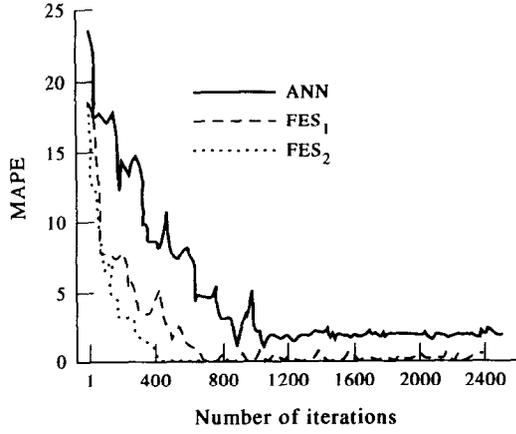


FIGURE 3. Comparison of the mean absolute percentage errors versus the iteration number for 24 h ahead forecast in January (winter).

where,  $\delta E / \partial a_{ij}$  is given by eqn. (31) and  $K_j(t)$  is given by eqn. (38).

Similarly,

$$b_{ij}(t+1) = b_{ij}(t) - \eta_a K_j(t) \delta_i^2 e \left( \frac{-(x_i - a_{ij})^2}{b_{ij}} \right) \times \left\{ \frac{(x_i - a_{ij})^2}{b_{ij}^2} \right\} \quad (46)$$

where  $d_i^2$  is given by eqn (32) and  $K_j(t)$  is given by eqn. (38).

The convergence properties of the supervisory learning scheme for FES<sub>2</sub> are found to be superior to FES<sub>1</sub> using the Kalman filter equation in the weight and membership update equations, as shown in Sections 6.3 and 6.4. Also, the accuracy of the forecast increases for a similar reason.

$$R_j^{-1}(t+1) = f_j(t) R_j^{-1}(t) + x_i^T(t) x_i(t) \quad (46)$$

and the forgetting factor  $f_j$  is modified as

$$f_j(t+1) = 1 - \gamma \bar{e}(t+1) \quad (47)$$

TABLE 2  
Peak Load Forecasting in June (Summer) Using 24 Hour Ahead Forecast

Day	Actual Load (MW)	Peak Forecast (NN) (MW)	P E (NN)	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>1</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>1</sub> )	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>2</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>2</sub> )
1	1848	1872.8	-1.34	1823.3	1.34	1825.7	1.21
2	1850	1883.7	-1.82	1844.7	0.29	1831.8	0.99
3	1852	1827.8	1.31	1833.6	0.99	1868.0	-0.86
4	1687	1627.6	3.52	1669.7	1.03	1688.9	-0.11
5	1573	1499.6	4.67	1539.4	2.14	1544.1	1.84
6	1752	1752.4	-0.02	1747.6	0.25	1749.1	0.17
7	1679	1661.4	1.05	1671.1	0.47	1668.5	0.62
8	1674	1726.6	-3.14	1652.6	1.28	1698.5	-1.46
9	1712	1750.3	-2.24	1686.0	1.52	1715.3	-0.19
10	1778	1858.3	-4.52	1752.7	1.42	1761.8	0.91
11	1614	1660.4	-2.87	1620.6	-0.41	1602.7	0.70
12	1520	1456.7	4.16	1474.5	3.00	1559.6	-2.60
13	1730	1705.0	1.45	1747.4	-1.01	1719.5	0.61
14	1663	1709.5	-2.80	1674.5	-0.69	1657.8	0.31
15	1722	1755.8	-1.96	1755.7	-1.96	1741.7	-1.14
16	1710	1745.5	-2.08	1681.4	1.67	1693.5	0.97
17	1806	1838.3	-1.79	1805.1	0.05	1803.3	0.15
18	1730	1788.2	-3.37	1757.7	-1.60	1718.3	0.68
19	1622	1584.9	2.29	1649.1	-1.67	1644.7	-1.40
20	1752	1775.7	-1.35	1772.9	-1.20	1738.9	0.75
21	1658	1648.6	0.57	1671.4	-0.81	1662.6	-0.28
22	1672	1684.1	-0.72	1685.3	-0.80	1680.3	-0.50
23	1701	1643.7	3.37	1718.8	-1.05	1727.7	-1.57
24	1736	1669.5	3.83	1702.9	1.91	1714.4	1.24
25	1588	1556.1	2.01	1621.0	-2.08	1619.2	-1.96
26	1482	1413.4	4.63	1463.9	1.22	1462.9	1.29
27	1720	1672.0	2.79	1695.7	1.41	1705.4	0.85
28	1699	1750.4	-3.02	1708.2	-0.53	1665.9	1.95
29	1684	1666.6	1.03	1705.2	-1.26	1667.5	0.98
30	1693	1757.5	-3.81	1676.9	0.95	1721.2	-1.66
MAPE			2.45		1.20		1.00
Iterations required			970		520		440

**TABLE 3**  
**Peak Load Forecasting in January (Winter) Using 48 Hour Ahead Forecast**

Day	Actual Load (MW)	Peak Forecast (NN) (MW)	P E (NN)	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>1</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>1</sub> )	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>2</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>2</sub> )
1	2690	2553.1	5.09	2663.6	0.98	2673.3	0.62
2	2628	2554.4	2.80	2577.5	1.92	2663.2	-1.34
3	2703	2657.0	1.70	2672.7	1.12	2728.7	-0.95
4	2592	2631.9	-1.54	2560.6	1.21	2561.4	1.18
5	2530	2583.9	-2.13	2509.5	0.81	2544.9	-0.59
6	2574	2590.2	-0.63	2591.2	-0.67	2555.5	0.72
7	2389	2383.7	0.22	2400.0	-0.46	2367.0	0.92
8	2513	2482.6	1.21	2493.4	0.78	2497.7	0.61
9	2500	2372.0	5.12	2595.8	-3.83	2568.0	-2.72
10	2450	2366.7	3.40	2490.9	-1.67	2478.9	-1.18
11	2551	2504.3	1.83	2569.9	-0.74	2557.4	-0.25
12	2763	2889.0	-4.56	2849.2	-3.12	2811.6	-1.76
13	2603	2563.4	1.52	2623.3	-0.78	2620.2	-0.66
14	2914	2781.7	4.54	2875.8	1.31	2895.9	0.62
15	2761	2865.1	-3.77	2780.9	-0.72	2783.4	-0.81
16	2514	2425.0	3.54	2567.3	-2.12	2552.0	-1.51
17	2543	2647.8	-4.12	2511.5	1.24	2516.3	1.05
18	2435	2500.0	-2.67	2486.6	-2.12	2414.8	0.83
19	2496	2468.8	1.09	2487.0	0.36	2488.3	0.31
20	2551	2484.2	2.62	2505.6	1.78	2522.9	1.10
21	2813	2882.8	-2.48	2773.3	1.41	2794.2	0.67
22	2537	2427.4	4.32	2591.3	-2.14	2574.8	-1.49
23	2381	2282.2	4.15	2323.1	2.43	2333.1	2.01
24	2459	2378.3	3.28	2432.7	1.07	2433.2	1.05
25	2505	2487.0	0.72	2521.3	-0.65	2517.3	-0.49
26	2429	2500.2	-2.93	2451.3	-0.92	2450.6	-0.89
27	2438	2320.7	4.81	2379.0	2.42	2403.1	1.43
28	2748	2771.4	-0.85	2711.7	1.32	2702.9	1.64
29	2388	2503.3	-4.83	2347.2	1.71	2350.5	1.57
30	2175	2132.4	1.96	2208.7	-1.55	2142.2	1.51
31	2539	2466.1	2.87	2520.0	0.75	2521.0	0.71
MAPE			2.82		1.42		1.07
Iterations required			1560		880		700

$$\bar{e}(t+1) = \frac{[e(t)]^2}{1 + x^T(t)R_\gamma(t-1)x(t)} \quad (48)$$

where  $\gamma$  is a constant inversely proportional to the prediction error  $e(t)$ .

## 6. IMPLEMENTATION RESULTS

In order to evaluate the performance of the fuzzy expert system, load forecasting is performed on a typical utility data. The models ANN, FES<sub>1</sub>, and FES<sub>2</sub> are tested on a 2-year utility data for generating peak and average load profiles and some of the results are given in the subsequent subsections. In (Bunn and Farmer (1989) and Brace (1991)) it has been shown that ANN gives the best prediction and accuracy compared to conventional approaches. So in this case the results of FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> are compared to that of the ANN approach.

The training sets are formed separately for each of the

seven day types (i.e., Tuesdays through Thursdays, Mondays, Fridays, Saturdays, Sundays, Holidays). The selection of training patterns and the selection of variable ranges are given in Sections 6.1 and 6.2.

### 6.1. Optimum Selection of Training Patterns

The utility data studied here are susceptible to large and sudden changes in weather and load, so selection of appropriate training cases plays a vital role in training the network. Several techniques for the selection of training patterns have been suggested in Peng, Hubele, and Karady (1992).

The following load model is used for peak load forecasting:

$$P_{\max}(i) = f(P_{\max}(i-n), P_{\max}(i-n-1), \dots, P_{\max}(i-n-n_1), \\ \ominus_{\max}(i-n), \ominus_{\max}(i), \ominus_{\max}(i-1), \dots, \\ \ominus_{\max}(i-n_2), H_{\max}(i-n), H_{\max}(i), H_{\max}(i-1),$$

**TABLE 4**  
**Peak Load Forecasting in January (Winter) Using 168 Hour Ahead Forecast**

Day	Actual Load (MW)	Peak Forecast (NN) (MW)	P E (NN)	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>1</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>1</sub> )	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>2</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>2</sub> )
1	2690	2534.5	5.78	2630.0	2.23	2742.2	-1.94
2	2628	2556.0	2.74	2564.7	2.41	2571.0	2.17
3	2703	2610.8	3.41	2649.5	1.98	2666.5	1.35
4	2592	2651.4	-2.29	2636.6	-1.72	2551.0	1.58
5	2530	2616.5	-3.42	2580.1	-1.98	2480.7	1.95
6	2574	2503.5	2.74	2519.9	2.10	2628.8	-2.13
7	2389	2433.2	-1.85	2351.5	1.57	2354.8	1.43
8	2513	2433.1	3.18	2444.9	2.71	2449.7	2.52
9	2500	2353.8	5.85	2370.8	5.17	2378.5	4.86
10	2450	2324.3	5.13	2340.5	4.47	2360.1	3.67
11	2551	2620.1	-2.71	2510.7	1.58	2519.6	1.23
12	2763	2953.9	-6.91	2886.0	-4.45	2874.1	-4.02
13	2603	2531.9	2.73	2555.9	1.81	2649.6	-1.79
14	2914	2761.6	5.23	2853.1	2.09	2972.3	-2.00
15	2761	2894.6	-4.84	2658.3	3.72	2660.2	3.65
16	2514	2389.6	4.95	2408.4	4.20	2415.2	3.93
17	2543	2697.4	-6.07	2653.9	-4.36	2651.8	-4.28
18	2435	2494.7	-2.45	2454.7	-0.81	2424.8	0.83
19	2496	2463.8	1.29	2509.2	-0.53	2481.5	0.58
20	2551	2456.6	3.70	2493.9	2.24	2514.5	1.43
21	2813	2886.4	-2.61	2864.5	-1.83	2762.9	1.78
22	2537	2382.0	6.11	2441.9	3.75	2462.2	2.95
23	2381	2279.8	4.25	2285.0	4.03	2285.0	4.03
24	2459	2540.6	-3.32	2518.5	-2.42	2507.4	-1.97
25	2505	2575.4	-2.81	2538.8	-1.35	2537.8	-1.31
26	2429	2500.7	-2.95	2480.5	-2.12	2462.3	-1.37
27	2438	2281.2	6.43	2351.0	3.57	2370.2	2.78
28	2748	2839.0	-3.31	2808.2	-2.19	2784.3	-1.32
29	2388	2513.8	-5.27	2481.8	-3.93	2474.2	-3.61
30	2175	2125.4	2.28	2198.9	-1.10	2159.3	0.72
31	2539	2456.2	3.26	2476.3	2.47	2489.2	1.96
MAPE			3.87			2.61	2.29
Iterations required			2050			1170	890

$$\dots, H_{\max}(i-n_3)). \quad (49)$$

For average load forecast a similar model as eqn. (49) is chosen, given by:

$$P_{av}(i) = f(P_{av}(i-n), P_{av}(i-1), \dots, P_{av}(i-n_1), \ominus_{\max}(i-n), \ominus_{\max}(i), \ominus_{\max}(i-1), \dots, \ominus_{\max}(i-n_2), \ominus_{\min}(i-n), \ominus_{\min}(i), \ominus_{\min}(i-1), \dots, \ominus_{\min}(i-n_2), H_{\max}(i-n), H_{\max}(i), H_{\max}(i-1), \dots, H_{\max}(i-n_3), H_{\min}(i-n), H_{\min}(i), H_{\min}(i-1), \dots, H_{\min}(i-n_3)). \quad (50)$$

Here,  $n$  indicates the lead time of the forecast ( $n \neq n_1, n_2, n_3$ ).  $P$ ,  $\ominus$ , and  $H$  stand for load, temperature, and humidity, respectively. Also different values of  $n_1, n_2$ , and  $n_3$  were tested to find the effect of the past data on the load forecast. With  $n_1, n_2, n_3 > 0$  there was no marked improvement in the results. Therefore, we chose,  $n_1 = n_2 = n_3 = 0$  in this study. However, the choice of  $n_1, n_2, n_3$  depends entirely on the utility data concerned.

## 6.2. Scaling of the Variable Range

Because the input variables and the estimated ones from the hybrid neural network have wide variations in magnitudes, they will cause convergence problem and the system will behave completely erratic. To circumvent this problem, the variables are scaled between 0.1 and 0.9 (Rahman, Drezga, & Rajagopalan, 1993). This is performed so as to maximise accuracy and minimise training time. The following scheme is adopted to scale the variables between 0.1 and 0.9. Let  $X_{i,\max}$  and  $X_{i,\min}$  denote the upper and lower bounds of the observed range of feature  $X_i$  in all the patterns in the historical data base considering numerical values only. Similarly,  $O_{i,\max}$  and  $O_{i,\min}$  denote the upper and lower bounds of the observed range of outputs. Then  $X_i$  is normalised as

$$X_i^n = 0.1 + [0.8(X_i - X_{i,\min}) / (X_{i,\max} - X_{i,\min})] \quad (51)$$

where  $(i, j)$  corresponds to the  $j$ th pattern of the  $i$ th training set.

**TABLE 5**  
**Average Load Forecasting in January (Winter) Using 24 Hour Ahead Forecast**

Day	Actual Load (MW)	Peak Forecast (NN) (MW)	P E (NN)	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>1</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>1</sub> )	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>2</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>2</sub> )
1	2166	2223.4	-2.65	2161.2	0.22	2163.5	0.12
2	2153	2209.8	-2.64	2192.4	-1.83	2120.8	1.49
3	2233	2218.1	0.67	2242.3	-0.42	2216.6	0.73
4	2093	2092.1	0.04	2092.6	0.02	2089.0	0.19
5	2050	2041.0	0.44	2050.1	-0.00	2050.0	-0.00
6	2109	2109.3	-0.01	2107.9	0.05	2108.2	0.04
7	1937	1933.4	0.18	1934.2	0.14	1936.9	0.00
8	1983	1974.9	0.41	1969.4	0.68	1976.2	0.34
9	2045	1991.6	2.61	2008.7	1.78	2080.1	-1.72
10	2003	2036.6	-1.68	2007.1	-0.21	1998.2	0.24
11	1982	1954.9	1.37	1980.2	0.09	1980.5	0.07
12	2117	2116.2	0.04	2116.8	0.01	2116.6	0.02
13	2064	2035.6	1.37	2042.8	1.03	2049.9	0.70
14	2237	2262.3	-1.13	2241.5	-0.20	2240.6	-0.17
15	2198	2239.1	-1.87	2171.0	1.23	2221.3	-1.06
16	2068	2065.3	0.13	2065.2	0.14	2067.1	0.04
17	2021	2057.0	-1.78	2047.9	-1.33	1994.9	1.29
18	1976	1953.7	1.13	1970.8	0.26	1982.1	-0.31
19	2019	2019.9	-0.04	2030.1	-0.55	2007.3	0.58
20	2073	2090.0	-0.82	2053.3	0.95	2087.2	-0.68
21	2195	2224.6	-1.35	2175.8	0.87	2203.5	-0.39
22	2015	1982.8	1.60	2041.4	-1.31	2003.3	0.58
23	1917	1866.8	2.62	1935.1	-0.94	1936.8	-1.03
24	1977	1943.5	1.70	1961.3	0.80	1961.0	0.81
25	2021	2017.5	0.17	2017.1	0.20	2024.1	-0.15
26	1977	1961.6	0.78	1965.6	0.58	1970.9	0.31
27	1964	2010.8	-2.38	1921.8	2.15	1939.0	1.27
28	2086	2124.2	-1.83	2078.7	0.35	2077.9	0.39
29	1876	1889.6	-0.72	1889.4	-0.72	1883.0	-0.37
30	1772	1751.3	1.17	1757.2	0.83	1765.5	0.37
31	1960	200.1	-2.05	1928.1	1.63	1924.6	1.81
MAPE			1.21		0.69		0.56
Iterations required			1700		1020		680

Similarly, the output  $O_i$  can be expressed

$$O_i^n = 0.1 + [0.8(O_i - O_{i,\min}) / (O_{i,\max} - O_{i,\min})] \quad (52)$$

where  $X_i^n$  and  $O_i^n$  denote the normalised input and output vectors, respectively.

The normalised predicted values can be converted back to the actual values using the above expressions.

The ideas discussed in sections 6.1. and 6.2 are used for obtaining the peak and average load forecasts.

### 6.3. Peak Load Forecasting

For  $n$  h ahead peak load forecasting, the following training data are used for the ANN:

Input pattern:  $P_{\max}(i)$ ,  $\ominus_{\max}(i)$ ,  $H_{\max}(i)$ ,  $\ominus_{\max}^f(i+n)$ ,  $H_{\max}^f(i+n)$

Output pattern:  $P_{\max}(i+n)$  for the ANN.

Superscript  $f$  denotes the forecasted values for  $\ominus$  and  $H$ . The forecasted values for  $(i+n)$ th day are used to get a more realistic forecast.

For FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> the training patterns used are:

Input pattern:  $\Delta\ominus_{\max}(i, i+n)$  and  $\Delta H_{\max}(i, i+n)$

Output pattern:  $e_{LC}(i)$ , the desired load correction.

The  $P_{\max}(i+n)$  for FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> is obtained using eqn. (7).

Table 1 gives the learned membership functions for 24 h ahead peak load forecasting in winter using FES<sub>1</sub>, for example, rule 0 is interpreted as:

RO: IF  $\Delta\ominus_{\max}$  is term 0 and  $\Delta H_{\max}$  is term 3  
THEN  $\hat{e}_{LC}$  is term 7.

Figure 2 gives the learned membership functions after the first phase (unsupervised learning phase) and the

**TABLE 6**  
**Average Load Forecast in June (Summer) Using 48 Hour Ahead Forecast**

Day	Actual Load (MW)	Peak Forecast (NN) (MW)	P E (NN)	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>1</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>1</sub> )	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>2</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>2</sub> )
1	1521	1541.1	-1.32	1509.7	0.74	1516.7	0.28
2	1531	1562.5	-2.06	1512.3	1.22	1549.5	-1.21
3	1473	1455.2	1.21	1453.1	1.35	1456.5	1.12
4	1336	1380.9	-3.36	1370.3	-2.57	1305.9	2.25
5	1285	1254.0	2.41	1260.8	1.88	1272.9	0.94
6	1433	1446.2	-0.92	1443.5	-0.73	1423.5	0.66
7	1406	1375.5	2.17	1386.6	1.38	1418.5	-0.89
8	1403	1442.3	-2.80	1437.0	-2.42	1418.0	-1.07
9	1428	1461.0	-2.31	1450.7	-1.59	1448.8	-1.46
10	1431	1467.3	-2.54	1459.8	-2.01	1411.3	1.38
11	1301	1272.8	2.17	1286.0	1.15	1322.7	-1.67
12	1235	1206.7	2.29	1217.8	1.39	1219.9	1.22
13	1418	1394.7	1.64	1419.3	-0.09	1419.8	-0.13
14	1408	1395.5	0.89	1401.9	0.43	1399.8	0.58
15	1421	1451.3	-2.13	1443.0	-1.55	1439.6	-1.31
16	1447	1480.1	-2.29	1468.4	-1.48	1429.9	1.18
17	1440	1420.7	1.34	1425.3	1.02	1428.3	0.81
18	1352	1313.9	2.82	1324.8	2.01	1330.5	1.59
19	1305	1279.8	1.93	1282.6	1.72	1290.3	1.13
20	1430	1407.5	1.57	1416.6	0.94	1440.3	-0.72
21	1383	1387.8	-0.35	1395.3	-0.89	1389.2	-0.45
22	1414	1434.1	-1.42	1425.0	-0.78	1401.1	0.91
23	1423	1386.9	2.54	1404.1	1.33	1410.9	0.85
24	1406	1361.6	3.16	1370.4	2.53	1373.1	2.34
25	1267	1230.6	2.87	1250.3	1.32	1248.6	1.45
26	1221	1254.3	-2.73	1207.9	1.07	1234.4	-1.10
27	1397	1371.7	1.81	1401.7	-0.34	1395.9	0.08
28	1401	1374.1	1.92	1384.3	1.19	1384.9	1.15
29	1403	1415.2	-0.87	1416.5	-0.96	1389.3	0.98
30	1411	1376.1	2.47	1393.6	1.23	1390.1	1.48
MAPE			2.01		1.31		1.08
Iterations required			1630		1520		1070

second phase (supervised learning phase). Figure 3 gives the mean absolute percentage errors (MAPE's) versus the number of iterations. The results in Figures 2 and 3 are obtained for 24 h ahead load forecasting in January (winter). From Figure 3 we find that the FES<sub>2</sub> gives fastest convergence followed by FES<sub>1</sub> and ANN. The convergence speed of the FES<sub>2</sub> was found to be superior because of the linear Kalman filter equations used for weight update and the error-dependent forgetting factor was responsible for driving the MAPE low during the first few hundred iterations until the bias introduced by the initial conditions was eliminated.

Table 2 gives the peak load forecasting results in terms of mean absolute percentage errors (MAPEs) for ANN, FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> in the month of June (winter) using 24 h ahead forecast. Tables 3 and 4 give the results for the month of January (winter) using 48 h and 168 h ahead forecast, respectively.

From Tables 2, 3 and 4 we see that the FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> give better prediction accuracy compared to ANN. Also

we find that the results for 48 h and 168 h predictions are comparable with that of the 24 h ahead predictions. This is because the load forecasting was performed as a one-step process (i.e. looking 24 h ahead, 48 h ahead, and so on). However, as the lead time increased to 168 h the PEs were found to be greater than 4% even with FES<sub>2</sub>. As the primary aim of this paper was to make a comparative assessment between ANN, FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub>, no attempt was made to improve the forecast errors further.

#### 6.4. Daily Average Load Forecast

For  $n$  h ahead average load forecasting, the following training data are used for ANN.

$$\text{Input pattern: } P_{av}(i), \Theta_{\max}(i), \Theta_{\min}(i), H_{\max}(i), \\ H_{\min}(i), \Theta_{\max}^f(i+n), \Theta_{\min}^f(i+n), \\ H_{\max}^f(i+n), H_{\min}^f(i+n)$$

$$\text{Output pattern: } P_{av}(i+n) \text{ for ANN.}$$

For FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub>, the training patterns used are:

**TABLE 7**  
**Average Load Forecasting in June (Summer) Using 168 Hour Ahead Forecast**

Day	Actual Load (MW)	Peak Forecast (NN) (MW)	P E (NN)	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>1</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>1</sub> )	Peak Forecast (FES <sub>2</sub> ) (MW)	P E (FES <sub>2</sub> )
1	1521	1558.6	-2.47	1542.9	-1.44	1538.2	-1.13
2	1531	1558.9	-1.82	1551.8	-1.36	1550.6	-1.28
3	1473	1436.0	2.51	1452.7	1.38	1456.5	1.12
4	1336	1409.3	-5.49	1388.2	-3.91	1364.9	-2.16
5	1285	1244.1	3.18	1250.8	2.66	1261.6	1.82
6	1433	1409.4	1.65	1428.4	0.32	1434.6	-0.11
7	1406	1377.5	2.03	1385.3	1.47	1385.9	1.43
8	1403	1441.2	-2.72	1435.3	-2.30	1431.1	-2.00
9	1428	1484.1	-3.93	1471.8	-3.07	1448.7	-1.45
10	1431	1469.6	-2.70	1447.0	-1.12	1416.5	1.01
11	1301	1358.0	-4.38	1345.8	-3.44	1330.0	-2.23
12	1235	1202.5	2.63	1212.5	1.82	1221.7	1.08
13	1418	1390.3	1.95	1403.0	1.06	1432.0	-0.99
14	1408	1394.9	0.93	1399.7	0.59	1411.0	-0.21
15	1421	1484.4	-4.46	1453.7	-2.30	1451.8	-2.17
16	1447	1482.3	-2.44	1473.2	-1.81	1463.8	-1.16
17	1440	1402.7	2.59	1412.1	1.94	1415.5	1.70
18	1352	1308.5	3.22	1357.7	-0.42	1358.1	-0.45
19	1305	1269.2	2.74	1290.0	1.15	1295.0	0.77
20	1430	1404.0	1.82	1406.3	1.66	1441.9	-0.83
21	1383	1350.4	2.36	1363.2	1.43	1399.7	-1.21
22	1414	1463.1	-3.47	1448.6	-2.45	1396.6	1.23
23	1423	1371.5	3.62	1393.0	2.11	1404.8	1.28
24	1406	1359.5	3.31	1372.1	2.41	1389.7	1.16
25	1267	1219.4	3.76	1237.6	2.32	1254.2	1.01
26	1221	1256.7	-2.92	1241.6	-1.69	1236.1	-1.24
27	1397	1372.7	1.74	1384.6	0.89	1387.9	0.65
28	1401	1373.1	1.99	1379.7	1.52	1380.5	1.46
29	1403	1414.4	-0.81	1405.5	-0.18	1399.5	0.25
30	1411	1359.6	3.64	1374.9	2.56	1378.1	2.33
MAPE			2.78		1.76		1.23
Iterations required			2650		2480		1310

Input pattern:  $\Delta \ominus_{\max}(i, i+n), \Delta \ominus_{\min}(i, i+n),$   
 $\Delta H_{\max}(i, i+n), \Delta H_{\min}(i, i+n)$

Output pattern:  $e_{LC}(i)$ , the desired load correction.

Again forecasted temperature and humidity values are used for the day of the forecast.

The  $P_{av}(i+n)$  for FES<sub>1</sub> and FES<sub>2</sub> is obtained using eqn. (7).

Table 5 gives the average load forecasting results, number of iterations for convergence, PEs and the MAPEs for the ANN, FES<sub>1</sub>, and FES<sub>2</sub> models in the month of January (winter) using 24 h ahead forecast. Tables 6 and 7 give the results for 48 h and 168 h ahead predictions in the month of June (summer).

Again, from Tables 5, 6, and 7 we find the improved performance of FES<sub>2</sub> in terms of faster convergence and improved overall accuracy over the ANN and FES<sub>1</sub>.

## 7. DISCUSSION

The fuzzy expert system presented in this paper is constructed from training examples by machine learning

techniques, and the neural network model is trained to develop fuzzy logic rules and find input/output membership functions. By combining both unsupervised and supervised learning schemes, the learning speed for time series forecasting problems converges much faster than original back-propagation learning algorithm. Further, by using a linear Kalman filter for the supervised learning phase, the learning time is shortened with rapid convergence due to the adaptive nature of the learning algorithm. The fuzzy expert system using a linear Kalman filter produces a more accurate load forecast for lead times varying from 24 h to 168 h in comparison to the one using gradient descent back-propagation algorithm. The forecasting results presented in Section 6 are based upon only true temperature information because all the data for this utility are historical. However, in reality the temperature information will be the forecasted value and this will add to the forecast error. The developed expert systems are used to forecast the load during weekends but no attempt is made to forecast for days with unusual events. Such events will require

extensive data analysis to track the events in that day and to select training cases accordingly from the previous days with similar events. Such activities are continuing, and will be reported in a future paper.

As a final note, a shorter period is used for training as load patterns change very fast. But training and prediction can be done over longer periods with less chaotic data having strong correlation to any particular weather and environmental variable. This flexibility permits the adaptation of the proposed fuzzy expert systems for producing accurate load forecasts for different geographic areas.

## 8. CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents the development of a fuzzy expert system using a hybrid neural network approach to predict peak and daily average load profiles in an energy management system. The fuzzy expert system is modelled as a hybrid neural network and uses fuzzy membership values of load and weather parameters. A hybrid learning scheme consisting of both self-organized and supervised learning phases is used for training the hybrid neural network. Further, the paper presents simulation results using both back-propagation and Kalman filter-based algorithms, the latter producing faster convergence during training and more accurate predictions.

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