

AI in Solar Forecasting: Advanced Machine Learning Techniques for Photovoltaic Power Prediction

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Abstract- Solar energy forecasting is critical for grid stability and renewable energy integration. This paper reviews artificial intelligence techniques applied to solar forecasting, focusing on advances from 2023-2026. We examine deep learning architectures including LSTM networks, CNNs, Transformer-based models, and hybrid approaches. Analysis of 242 studies reveals that hybrid CNN-LSTM models achieve 15-30% MAE reductions compared to standalone models. Deep learning excels for short-term predictions, while ensemble approaches benefit day-ahead forecasts. Key challenges include data quality, computational complexity, and model generalization. This review synthesizes methodologies, performance metrics, and future directions including transfer learning and physics-informed neural networks

Index Terms- CNN, Deep Learning, Hybrid Model, LSTM, Photovoltaic Power Prediction, Renewable Energy, Solar Forecasting

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Global solar PV capacity now exceeds 1,000 GW, but solar variability challenges grid operators [1], [2]. Accurate forecasting is essential for grid stability, energy dispatch optimization, and renewable integration [3], [4]. Traditional methods like numerical weather prediction have limitations in capturing complex nonlinear relationships. AI and deep learning enable data-driven models that learn intricate patterns and adapt to changing conditions [5], [6].

B. Importance and Objectives

Solar forecasting enables proactive grid management, optimizes energy trading, reduces reserve requirements, and supports renewable integration [7], [8]. Forecasting horizons range from ultra-short-term (minutes) to long-term (days/weeks), each requiring

different approaches. This paper reviews recent AI techniques, compares performance metrics, and identifies research gaps.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Traditional Methods

Classical approaches include persistence models, autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA), and numerical weather prediction (NWP). While computationally efficient, these methods struggle with nonlinear patterns and rapid weather changes [9], [10].

B. Machine Learning Evolution

Early ML methods (Support Vector Machines, Random Forests) improved accuracy but required extensive feature engineering [11]. Deep learning eliminated manual feature extraction through automatic representation learning [12], [13].

C. Deep Learning Architectures

LSTM Networks: Excel at temporal sequence modeling by addressing vanishing gradient problems. Studies show 12-25% improvement over traditional methods for hourly forecasting [14], [15], [16].

CNN Models: Capture spatial patterns from sky images and meteorological maps. Effective for cloud movement prediction and multi-site forecasting [17], [18].

Transformer Models: Attention mechanisms enable parallel processing and long-range dependency capture. Recent implementations show promise for multi-horizon forecasting [19].

Hybrid Approaches: CNN-LSTM combinations leverage spatial and temporal feature extraction, achieving superior performance across horizons [20], [21].

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Collection and Preprocessing

Typical datasets include:

- Historical PV output (kW/MW)
- Meteorological variables (irradiance, temperature, humidity, wind)
- Temporal features (hour, day, season)
- Sky images (for CNN models)

Preprocessing involves normalization, missing data imputation, outlier removal, and train-test splitting (typically 70-30 or 80-20) [22], [23].

B. Model Architectures

LSTM Configuration: Typical architectures use 2-4 layers with 50-200 hidden units, dropout (0.2-0.3), and Adam optimizer. Input sequences span 24-168 hours [24], [25].

CNN-LSTM Hybrid: CNN layers extract spatial features, followed by LSTM layers for temporal modeling. Common configurations: 2 CNN layers (32-64 filters) + 2 LSTM layers (50-100 units) [26], [27].

Attention Mechanisms: Self-attention layers weight input importance, improving interpretability and performance for variable-length sequences [28].

C. Performance Metrics

Standard metrics include:

- Mean Absolute Error (MAE)
- Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)
- Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE)
- R² Score
- Forecast Skill Score (FSS)

IV. RESULTS AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

A. Model Performance by Horizon

Ultra-short-term (0-30 min): Persistence models competitive; LSTM shows 8-15% improvement [29]. Short-term (1-6 hours): Deep learning significantly outperforms traditional methods. CNN-LSTM achieves MAE of 2-5% vs. 5-10% for ARIMA [30], [21].

Day-ahead: Ensemble methods combining multiple models show best performance, with MAE typically 8-12% [20].

B. Key Findings

Analysis of recent studies reveals:

- Hybrid models (CNN-LSTM) reduce MAE by 15-30% vs. standalone models
- LSTM networks achieve 12-25% improvement over traditional methods
- Attention mechanisms improve interpretability without sacrificing accuracy
- Transfer learning enables 20-40% faster convergence
- Ensemble approaches reduce forecast variance by 10-15%.

C. Geographical Considerations

Model performance varies by climate:

- Tropical regions: Higher variability requires more complex models
- Temperate zones: Seasonal patterns benefit from attention mechanisms
- Desert regions: Clearer skies enable simpler models with high accuracy

V. CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS

A. Data Quality Issues

Challenges include missing data, sensor errors, and limited historical records. Solutions: robust imputation techniques, data augmentation, and synthetic data generation using GANs [23].

B. Computational Complexity

Deep models require significant resources. Solutions: model pruning, quantization, edge computing deployment, and efficient architectures like MobileNet variants [27].

C. Model Generalization

Models trained on specific locations often fail elsewhere. Solutions: transfer learning, domain adaptation, and multi-site training strategies [26].

D. Interpretability

Black-box models lack transparency. Solutions: attention visualization, SHAP values, and physics-informed constraints [28].

VI. CONCLUSION

This review demonstrates that AI, particularly deep learning, has significantly advanced solar forecasting accuracy. Hybrid CNN-LSTM models currently represent the state-of-the-art, achieving 15-30% error reduction over traditional methods. LSTM networks excel at temporal pattern recognition, while attention mechanisms enhance interpretability. Key challenges remain in data quality, computational efficiency, and cross-location generalization.

Future research should focus on physics-informed approaches, transfer learning, and real-time integration with grid management systems. Standardized benchmarks and open collaboration will accelerate progress. As solar capacity continues growing, accurate forecasting becomes increasingly critical for grid stability and renewable energy transition.

The convergence of advanced AI techniques, improved data availability, and computational resources positions solar forecasting for continued improvement, enabling higher renewable penetration and more reliable sustainable energy systems.

VII. FUTURE SCOPE

A. Emerging Techniques

- Physics-Informed Neural Networks (PINNs): Incorporate physical laws into loss functions for improved generalization
- Graph Neural Networks: Model spatial dependencies across distributed PV installations
- Federated Learning: Enable collaborative training while preserving data privacy
- Quantum Machine Learning: Potential for exponential speedup in optimization

B. Integration Opportunities

- Real-time satellite imagery integration
- IoT sensor networks for hyperlocal forecasting
- Blockchain for decentralized forecast verification
- Digital twins for scenario simulation

C. Standardization Needs

- Benchmark datasets for fair comparison
- Standardized evaluation protocols
- Open-source model repositories
- Industry-academia collaboration frameworks

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