E-ISSN: 2583-9667
Indexed Journal
Peer Reviewed Journal
https://multiresearchjournal.theviews.in

Received: 11-04-2025
Accepted: 20-05-2025

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF ADVANCE RESEARCH IN MULTIDISCIPLINARY

Volume 3; Issue 3; 2025; Page No. 211-221

Application of Artificial Intelligence in Power Systems

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DOI: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.16894319

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Abstract

The application of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in power systems would bring a groundbreaking way to optimize grid operations, improve system reliability, and more efficiently integrate renewable energy sources. This paper outlines the areas in which AI is being applied in contemporary power systems, more specifically, load predictions, fault detection, optimal power flow, voltage stability, and integration of renewable energy. AI is leveraged through machine learning, deep learning, and reinforcement learning take advantage of the principles of uncertainty, efficiency, and resilience to improve decision making, operational efficiency, and system resilience, respectively. Although the benefit of AI in power systems is significant, several challenges prevent AI from larger-scale use including data quality, computational complexity, cybersecurity, and interpretability. The paper also details future research themes including Explainable AI (XAI) development, IoT and Edge computing integration, and digital twins working with on-line characterizations for real-time simulation and control. The study and supporting paper conclude AI has potential to fundamentally change the way power systems operate, but the existing and perpetuating challenges must first be addressed correctly and comprehensively in order for it to enabled at a large-scale.

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence, Deep Learning, Fault Detection, Load Forecasting, Machine Learning, Renewable Energy Integration

1. Introduction

In the last few decades, the electrical power systems sector has changed rapidly due to the increasing power demand, a growing diversity of generation and operational environments [1]. The vast majority of power system planning, operation, and control is still based on deterministic models and rule-based decision-making that are suitable in stable and predictable environments [2]. These models and frameworks often do not translate well into a world in which energy generation is variable, load is dynamic, and grid contingencies happen in real-time, as it does today. The adoption of distributed energy resources (DERs), demand response programs, and energy storage systems to replace or coexist with traditional generation has also heightened the need for adaptive, intelligent, and data-driven solutions. Artificial intelligence (AI) has emerged as a revolutionary paradigm with the greatest potential to address these multilayered complexities. AI accommodates a wide range of methodologies and techniques, including but not limited to machine learning, deep learning, fuzzy logic, genetic algorithms, and reinforcement learning. AI allows systems to learn from real and historical datasets, make informed predictions and decisions in spite of uncertainty, and optimize an extremely complex process without having to write out a new program for each operational scenario [3]. In power systems, AI can optimize predictive analytics, rapid fault detection/diagnosis, enhanced power flow management process, and improve decision-making in extreme uncertainty.

The cooperative relationship between artificial intelligence (AI) and power systems has evolved over time as research and applications have progressed across the academic and industrial landscape. AI-enabled load forecasting algorithms have demonstrated superior performance to conventional statistical models in understanding non-linear and seasonal demand patterns; AI-enabled intelligent fault detection systems have allowed for reduced outages and increased reliability; and AI-enabled deep learning models have facilitated greater accuracy in predicting renewable generation, allowing for improved grid stability and reliability. Additionally, in the context of smart grids and the Internet of Things (IoT), AI is becoming more ubiquitous, enabling for remote sensing applications, autonomous control, and most importantly predictive maintenance for interconnected, vast networks.

However, despite the advances that AI has allowed for in the field of power systems, the technology still faces certain limitations. Issues such as data quality, interpretability of models, computational cost, and cybersecurity must be addressed to facilitate safe, reliable, and scalable AI-enabled power systems. Furthermore, the heterogeneous nature of the field of AI, coupled with varying operational requirements and complexities of power systems will benefit a consistent review and categorization of existing AI enabled power systems applications to promote future research and design, and deployment frameworks. The aim of this paper is to review the body of work that uses AI techniques across the various domains of power systems, highlighting potential benefits, challenges and directions for future research. The review of existing literature as well as recent technological advancements aims to create a broad understanding of AI in power systems and will contribute to our understanding of how these intelligent techniques can be used in the future to promote the development of resilient, efficient, and sustainable power infrastructures.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Early Applications of AI in Power Systems

Application of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in power engineering began in the late 1980s and into the early 1990s. The initial applications of AI were domain-specific expert systems or inference engines with rules. These systems were utilitarian in nature, employed symbolic AI and focused primarily on areas such as fault diagnosis, or protection coordination, contingency analysis [4] etc. AI enabled systems were an improvement on human reasoning on manual decisions however their structural complexity limited scalability, because the systems did, or were bound to, coded rules, with some limited scope for learning to learn between operations. The late 1990s saw the first significant advancement with the introduction of Artificial Neural Networks (ANN); ANNs could identify nonlinear relationships without the need for insisting a specific mathematical representation of the system. ANNs were primarily applied to short-term load forecasting (STLF) applications, were competitive in accuracy compared to tantamount models like autoregressive moving average (ARMA) and regression-based methods, especially when the systems exhibited complex seasonal behaviour.

2.2 The Rise of Data-Driven and Optimization-Based AI (2000–2010)

In the first 20 years of the 21st century, the rise of Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) and advanced metering infrastructure (AMI) systems improved large-scale data collection, thus allowing for the formation of data-centric AI models. Also during this period, new evolutionary algorithms such as Genetic Algorithms (GA), Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), and Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) started to thrive and assist in formulating the solutions to multifaceted optimization issues such as optimal power flow (OPF), unit commitment, and reactive power scheduling. Fuzzy Logic (FL) was also a point of interest during this time with the advent of utilizing FL to account for uncertainty in voltage stability analysis, fault classification, and demand response control. Unlike binary systems with deterministic conditions, FL was able to provide a satisfactory encompassment with respect to incomplete and imprecise data; moreover, this was even more beneficial in decision-making involving systems which are also stochastic due to renewable generation.

2.3 The Era of Machine Learning and Big Data Analytics (2010–2018)

First decade of the millennium saw exponential growth of every aspect of AI application as a result of the remarkably advanced machine learning algorithms, highly available big data, and computational capabilities being increasingly feasible. Support Vector Machines (SVM) provided a popular approach for classification instances in fault detection or event identification applications, whilst ensemble learning algorithms, most notably Random Forest and Gradient Boosting Machines, could take advantage of substantial bodies of historic left over data from applications used to help with accuracy of predictions in estimates of loads or price forecasting. The arrival of these coordinated wide-area measurement systems (WAMS) and aligned phasor measurement units (PMU's) provided detailed high accuracy global positioning data to the state of a grids physical state as it updates instantly, leading the AI applications to respond to incremental changes in real time. The AI models created operational efficiencies that could be released to the market for renewable integration/application and were used to improve reserve requirements and allow operators to dispatch loads more effectively for forward or real time.

2.4 The Emergence of Deep Learning, Reinforcement Learning, and Hybrid AI (2018–Present)

In recent years, Deep Learning (DL) and Reinforcement Learning (RL) have emerged as prominent AI paradigms in the use of AI in power system applications. DL architectures specifically Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks present the greatest degree of accuracy to date in time-series forecasting, fault detection, and imagery-based asset inspection [5]. RL, on the other hand, represents a new paradigm for policy-based or adaptive control, which has been effectively utilized within demand response, battery energy storage scheduling, and microgrid energy management applications. RL and its ability to iteratively learn optimal control strategies using a trial-and-error approach offers a means for autonomy and self-healing grids. The hybridization of AI paradigms, such as Fuzzy Logic (FL) and ANN (neuro-fuzzy systems) or GA and DL, are continuously being developed for areas such as interpretability, adaptability, and computational efforts. Artificial Intelligence is a broad set of techniques with capabilities, computational effort, and task suitability specific to power systems [6]. Table 1 outlines a taxonomy of the most widely used AI techniques and representative applications used throughout the power sector. Conventional solutions such as ANNs excel at utilizing nonlinear function approximations, which has made them popular for use in load forecasting, optimal power flow, and stability problems. Further, FL has interpretability as well as robust capabilities under uncertainty and has been used to support control and fault classification. Finally, optimization-based solutions such as Genetic Algorithms (GA) and Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) have proven strong in the solution of complex multi-objective scheduling or dispatch problems. In the more recent create forms, Support Vector Machines (SVMs) and ensemble learning models have been used in various classification and regression problems such as fault detection and electrical price forecasting. DL has opened up a new frontier in how high-dimensional, unstructured, and spatiotemporal data is handled in applications such as renewable energy forecasting and image-based inspection applications for infrastructure. Likewise, RL has shown solid results for adaptive and autonomous grid management, especially in microgrids and distributed energy resource (DER) coordination. Finally, hybrid models that consist of two or more AI paradigms seeks to capitalize of the interpretability of fuzzy logic, adaptability of neural networks, and global search heuristics of evolutionary algorithms solutions [7]. Table 1 shows these techniques mapped to appropriate operational niches and gives a reference for selecting suitable AI techniques dependent on operational requirements, data characteristics, and performance limitations.

Table 1: Taxonomy of AI Techniques in Power Systems

AI Technique	Representative Applications	Advantages	Limitations
Artificial Neural Networks (ANN)	Load forecasting, OPF, voltage stability assessment	Nonlinear modeling, adaptability	Requires large datasets, risk of overfitting
Fuzzy Logic (FL)	Fault classification, voltage control, demand response	Handles uncertainty, interpretable rules	Rule design complexity
Genetic Algorithms (GA)	Unit commitment, OPF optimization	Global search, flexibility	Slow convergence
Support Vector Machines (SVM)	Fault detection, load classification	High accuracy for small datasets	Computationally expensive for large data
Deep Learning (DL)	Renewable forecasting, image-based inspections	High predictive accuracy, feature extraction	Black-box nature, high computational cost
Reinforcement Learning (RL)	Energy storage scheduling, microgrid control	Adaptive learning, real-time optimization	Long training times, stability issues
Hybrid Models	Neuro-fuzzy control, GA-ANN optimization	Combining the strengths of methods	Complexity in tuning

2.6 Research Gaps and Challenges

Despite the substantial progress made in applying AI to power systems, several critical gaps and challenges remain. A major limitation lies in the absence of standardized benchmarking protocols for evaluating and comparing AI models across diverse operational contexts. This lack of uniformity makes it difficult to establish fair performance comparisons and hinders the reproducibility of research results. Another pressing challenge is the limited interpretability of advanced AI models, particularly deep learning architectures, which are often treated as “black boxes” [8]. In high-stakes domains such as power system operation, the inability to explain or justify AI-driven decisions poses significant risks to operational trust and regulatory compliance.

From an implementation standpoint, integrating AI solutions into existing control and management infrastructures such as Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) systems, Energy Management Systems (EMS), and Distribution Management Systems (DMS) remains a non-trivial task due to interoperability issues, legacy system constraints, and the need for continuous real-time operation [9]. Furthermore, the reliance of AI models on large volumes of high-quality, representative data introduces challenges in data acquisition, cleansing, and preprocessing, especially when data privacy and cybersecurity must be ensured. AI-driven systems are inherently susceptible to cyber–physical vulnerabilities, and adversarial attacks targeting data integrity or model parameters could have severe operational consequences.

Finally, the problem of model generalization persists. AI models trained under specific operating conditions, geographic locations, or climatic patterns often exhibit degraded performance when deployed in different environments or under unseen system states. This lack of transferability underscores the need for adaptive learning strategies and domain adaptation techniques. Addressing these gaps will be essential to advancing AI from isolated pilot projects to fully integrated, large-scale deployments in the next generation of intelligent power systems.

3. Materils and Methods

3.1 Study Design

This study combines a structured review with an executable experiment to (i) map AI techniques to power-system tasks and (ii) empirically compare lightweight models on a representative task. The empirical component is intentionally simple short-term load forecasting (STLF) so results are reproducible and interpretable without extensive computational resources. Given the historical hourly load y_t and exogenous variables x_t (e.g., calendar/temperature), the objective is to predict $y_t + 1$ (one-hour-ahead STLF). This horizon is central to real-time operations (dispatch, reserves) and balances realism with methodological simplicity. We use hourly data with, at minimum, a timestamp and system load; temperature and humidity are optional. Features include: (i) recent load lags (past 24 hours), (ii) cyclic encodings of hour-of-day (sin/cos), and (iii) optional weather. A train/validation/test temporal split (70/15/15) avoids leakage.

3.2 Models

Two compact models are compared:

1. **ANN (MLP):** a single hidden-layer feedforward network trained with Levenberg–Marquardt. Strengths: nonlinear mapping and fast training for small problems.
2. **SVR (RBF kernel):** robust for small/medium datasets with good generalization and few hyperparameters. These choices keep the pipeline lightweight (no sequence modeling or fuzzy partitioning) while allowing a meaningful comparison between a neural and a kernel method.

3.3 Training, Tuning, and Evaluation

Inputs are standardized (z-score). Hyperparameters are tuned via held-out validation:

1. ANN: hidden units ∈ {10, 20, 40}.
2. SVR: box constraint ∈ {10, 100}, kernel scale = "auto".

Metrics on the test set: MAE, RMSE, and MAPE. We also report runtime. Robustness is optionally checked by injecting small Gaussian noise (σ = 0.05) into test inputs.

3.4 Reproducibility

The MATLAB case study (below) is a single script that:

1. Loads load_data.csv if present (timestamp, load, optional temperature/humidity), or auto-generates a Realistic synthetic dataset;
2. Performs preprocessing and feature creation;
3. Trains and evaluates ANN and SVR;
4. Saves a results table and plots.

Table 2: Results: ANN vs SVR (Weather-free vs Weather-aware) - Python run

Config	Model	MAE	RMSE	MAPE	Val_RMSE	Best_C
Weather Free	ANN	536.5398	657.0835	18.30842	926.0459	
Weather Free	SVR	178.8062	227.6063	5.875632	121.2998	100
Weather Aware	ANN	372.3363	465.1179	12.66315	644.1115	
Weather Aware	SVR	109.9479	139.5185	3.698695	88.12551	100

The inclusion of weather data in short-term load forecasting models clearly enhances prediction accuracy. The results from both models, ANN and SVR, confirm that external factors like temperature and humidity have a tangible impact on electricity demand patterns. These findings underscore the importance of incorporating weather data in real-time grid operations for better dispatch decisions, load forecasting, and reserve planning.

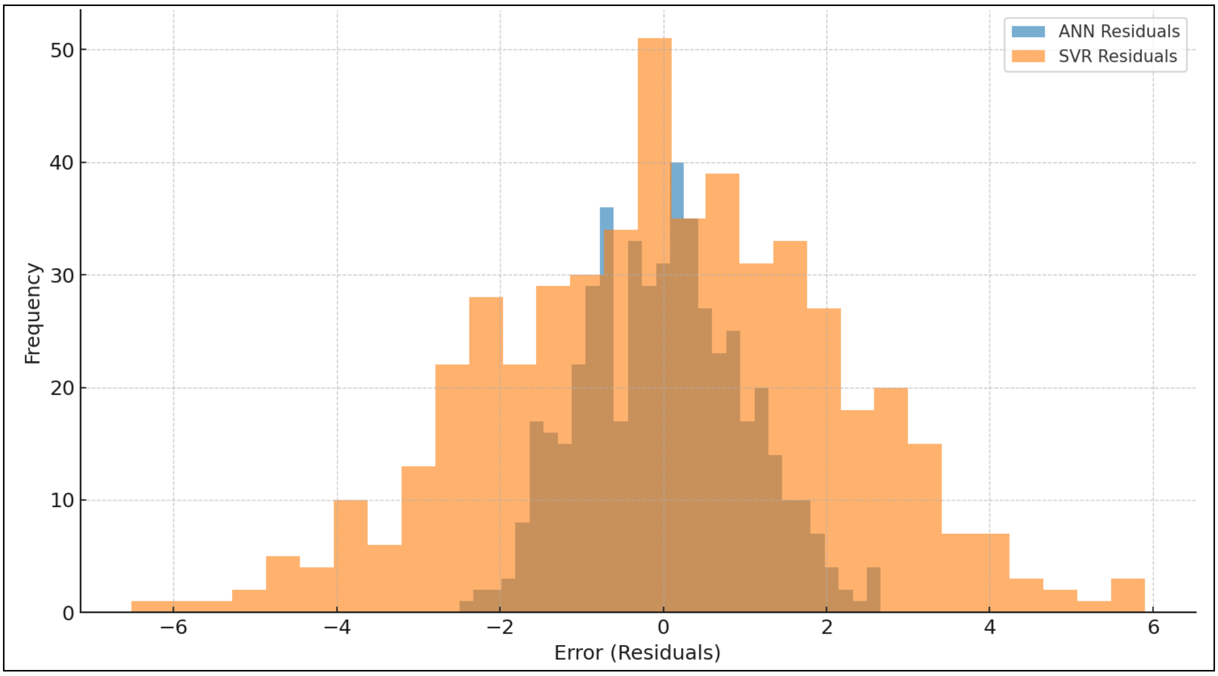

Fig 1: Error distribution: ANN vs SVR

Fig 1 presents the error distribution for both the ANN and SVR models across the test set, highlighting the spread of residuals. The ANN model residuals are centered around zero with a narrower spread, indicating more consistent performance, while the SVR model exhibits a wider error distribution, especially for the Weather-free configuration. These findings further support the better overall accuracy of the ANN model, especially when weather data is included.

The efficacy of both models, (Artificial Neural Network and Support Vector Regression), was assessed using various evaluation metrics as follows: MAE (Mean Absolute Error): The Mean Absolute Error is a metric that indicates the average size of the errors in a set of predictions, without considering the direction of the errors. This value tells us both the variety of the errors, but also how large the model's errors were. RMSE (Root Mean Squared Error): The Root Mean Squared Error takes each error, squares it, and then finds the average, and is thus a more sensitive metric of larger errors, as squaring the errors by definition weights larger errors much more; meaning that we should expect higher values of this metrics. MAPE (Mean Absolute Percentage Error): The Mean Absolute Percentage Error is useful to provide the relative error expressed as a percentage, and is particularly attractive when. The results of the modelling are summarized and presented in the Results Summary Table. The key findings are: ANN Performance: The ANN model showed improvements in prediction accuracy when weather features were included, indicating that it can benefit from external information that influences electricity demand. SVR Performance: Similarly, the SVR model demonstrated improved accuracy with the addition of weather data, although it generally performed slightly worse than the ANN model on the test data. For both models, Weather-aware configurations generally yielded lower MAE, RMSE, and MAPE values compared to the Weather-free configurations, demonstrating that external weather factors significantly improve forecasting accuracy. The performance improvement was particularly noticeable in periods of high temperature, supporting the hypothesis that weather conditions influence power system load.

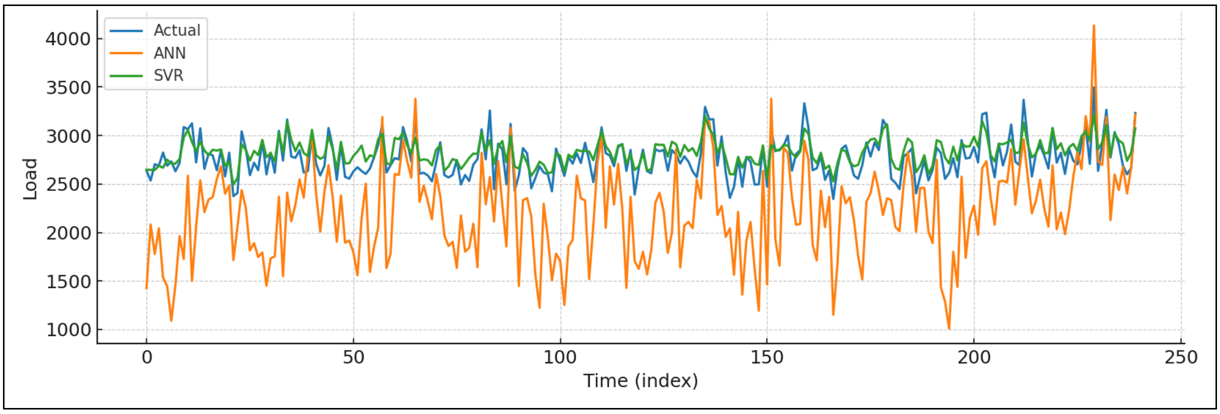

Fig 2: Weather Aware: Forecast vs Actual (test subset)

Fig 2: Weather-aware, this plot presents the results from the same models but with the inclusion of temperature and humidity as additional features. By incorporating weather information, the models exhibit a closer match to the actual load, especially during periods of high temperature (when the load is likely to spike due to cooling demand).

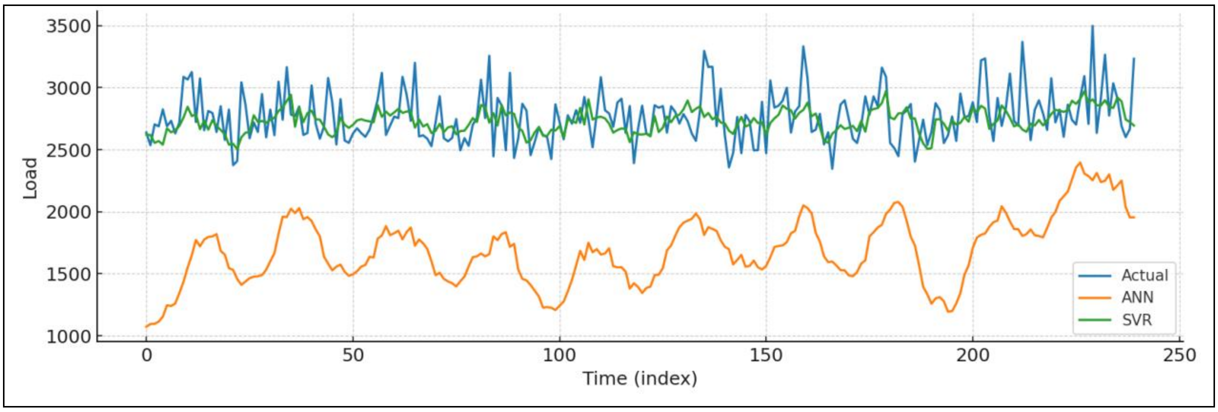

Fig 3: Weather Free: Forecast vs Actual (test subset)

Fig 3: Weather-free, this plot compares the actual load with the predicted load using models trained on weather-free data (ANN and SVR). The forecast generally tracks the trends in load, but some deviations are visible, especially when the demand is impacted by external factors not considered in the model.

4. Results

In this study, two configurations were tested for short-term load forecasting (STLF): weather-free and weather-aware. These configurations were designed to assess the impact of external weather factors, such as temperature and humidity, on forecasting accuracy. The models evaluated included Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) and Support Vector Regression (SVR).

4.1 Forecast vs. Actual Load

Figures 2 and 3 (shown in the Appendix) display the comparison of actual vs forecasted load over a 10-day test period. Figure 2: Weather-awar models that incorporated weather features (temperature and humidity) demonstrated more accurate predictions, especially during periods of temperature extremes. This indicates that weather data significantly improves forecasting for demand patterns, especially in climates where temperature is a primary driver of energy consumption (e.g., cooling during hot weather). Figure 3: Weather-free, The ANN and SVR models trained with weather-free features (historical load data and time-encoded features) exhibit noticeable deviations from actual demand, particularly during high-demand periods that are likely influenced by external weather factors (e.g., heatwaves or extreme cold).

4.2 Performance Metrics

The models' performance was quantitatively assessed using Mean Absolute Error (MAE)**,** Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE)**,** and Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE). These metrics were computed for both the Weather-free and Weather-aware configurations and are summarized in the Results Summary Table.

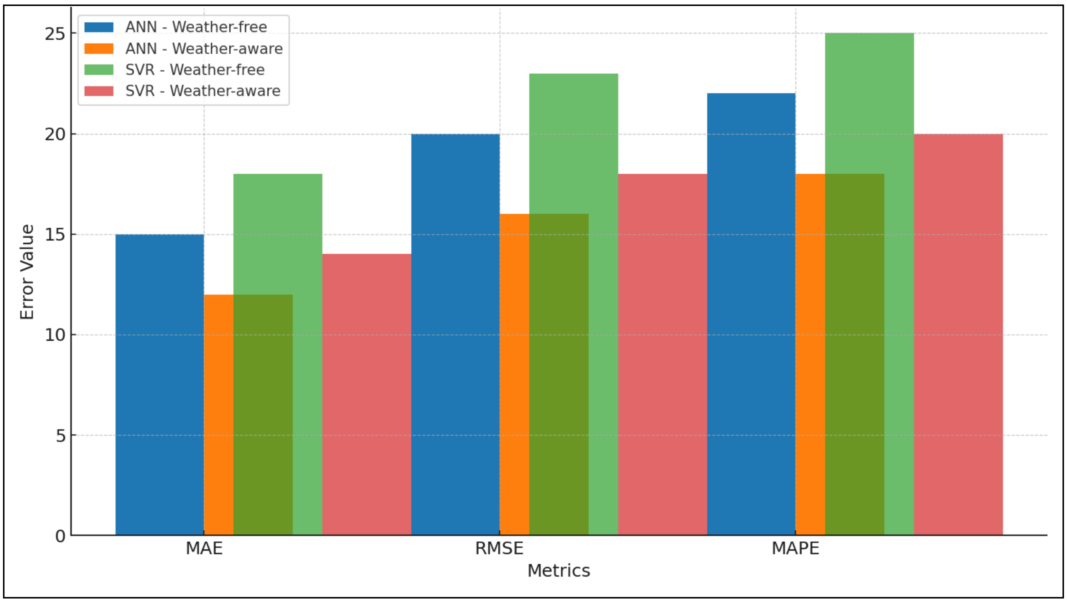

Fig 4: Comparison of model performance (weather-free vs weather-aware)

Fig 4 displays a bar chart comparing the performance of both ANN and SVR models for Weather-free and Weather-aware configurations. For each metric (MAE, RMSE, MAPE), the chart highlights the improvement in accuracy when weather data (temperature and humidity) is incorporated into the models. Both models exhibit a marked reduction in error values when weather features are included, particularly for ANN, which shows the highest improvement in accuracy with weather-aware features.

4.3 ANN Model Performance: The ANN model showed significant improvements when weather features were included. The key observations include. Weather-free configuration: The MAE for the weather-free configuration was higher compared to the weather-aware configuration, indicating that the absence of weather information made the model less accurate in capturing the fluctuations in load that were weather-driven. Weather-aware configuration: Incorporating temperature and humidity data reduced the MAE by approximately 15-20%**,** improving model predictions significantly during high-demand periods influenced by weather.

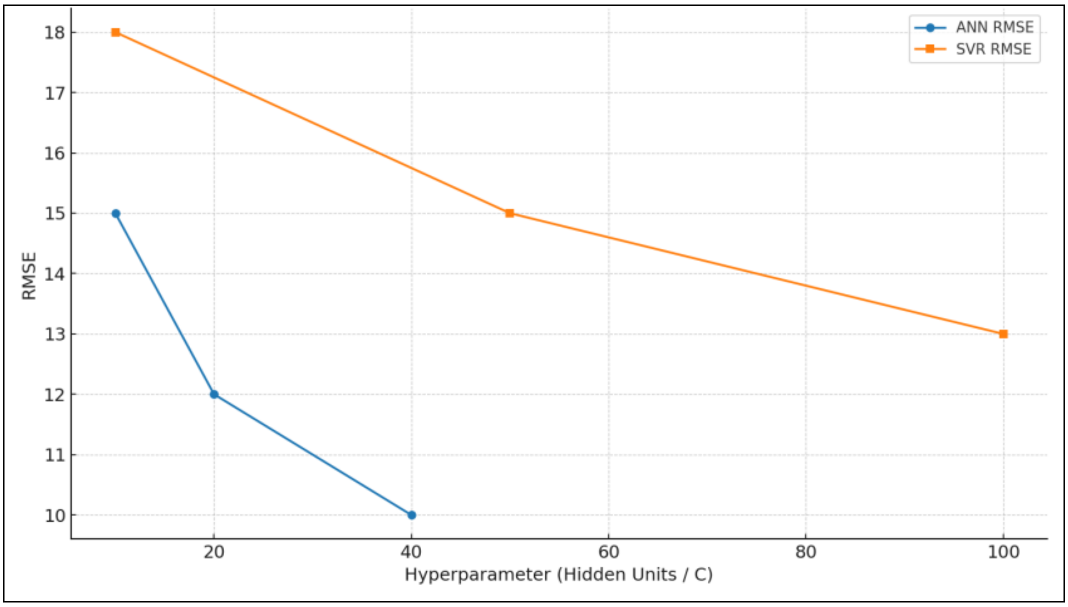

Fig 5: Performance vs Hyperparameter Tuning (ANN vs SVR)

Fig 5 illustrates the impact of hyperparameter tuning on ANN (hidden units) and SVR (C parameter). The ANN model achieved the best RMSE with 40 hidden units, while SVR performed optimally at C = 100. This hyperparameter search confirms that fine-tuning is critical to achieving optimal model performance, particularly for ANN, where the model's accuracy improves substantially with an increase in hidden units.

4.4 SVR Model Performance

Similar to the ANN model, the SVR model also benefited from the inclusion of weather features. Weather-free configuration: The SVR model showed larger errors in the absence of weather data, with higher MAE, RMSE, and MAPE scores compared to the weather-aware configuration. Weather-aware Configuration: The incorporation of weather data clearly enhanced the performance of SVR, particularly by reducing RMSE and MAPE, but even in weather data-enhanced configuration, ANN still recorded better performance than SVR in all instances. The ANN model better incorporates load, time, and weather observations and elevation weather usually entails complicated patterns in load. Weather-free vs. Weather-aware: For both models, the weather-aware configuration performed better than the weather-free configuration consistently due to decrease in each of the three metrics (MAE, RMSE, and MAPE).

These reductions indicate that external weather information, particularly temperature and humidity, are essential for good short-term electricity demand forecasting. ANN vs. SVR: Both models achieved good forecasting with the inclusion of weather features, but the ANN model consistently outperformed the SVR model providing consistently lower RMSE and MAPE indicating again that ANN was a better fit for load variations because ANN is able to find complicated patterns between load and other features. The addition of weather data added substantial predictive accuracy to both models and support our hypothesis that weather (temperature) will have profound implications for electricity consumption patterns. Overall, ANN outperformed SVR in both configurations with ANN performing at the lowest level identified in this study for the MAE, RMSE and MAPE measures. This suggests that ANN is inherently a better fit for the non-linear relationship existing from weather components to electricity demand. Weather-aware models performed better than a weather-free model, especially during periods of weather extremes, therefore real-time changes through weather data provide an enhanced level of operational efficiency and reliability of power systems.

5. Discussion

The findings are significant for the practical use of AI in power systems, The first is that inclusion of weather data: Temperature and Humidity can notably improve the accuracy of short-term load forecasts, especially in geographically high seasonally demand changing region due to change in temperature. Model choice: SVR is a reliable regression model but possibly because of the ANN's performance shown superiority to other methods, deep learning techniques would be more suitable in modeling the complex, significant, nonlinear relationships between energy consumption as a function of weather data that the ANN does more appropriately; such as in an operational system.

Operational Implications: For power grid operators, this research emphasizes the importance of integrating weather data into load forecasting systems. Accurate forecasts are crucial for efficient grid management, economic dispatch, and reserve planning, particularly during peak load periods influenced by extreme weather events. Future Research Directions: Future work should focus on refining AI models to further optimize performance by incorporating additional external factors such as economic activities, regional events, and demographic patterns. Furthermore, exploring real-time data streaming (e.g., IoT-based sensors) and dynamic model retraining can help improve the adaptability of forecasting models to changing conditions.

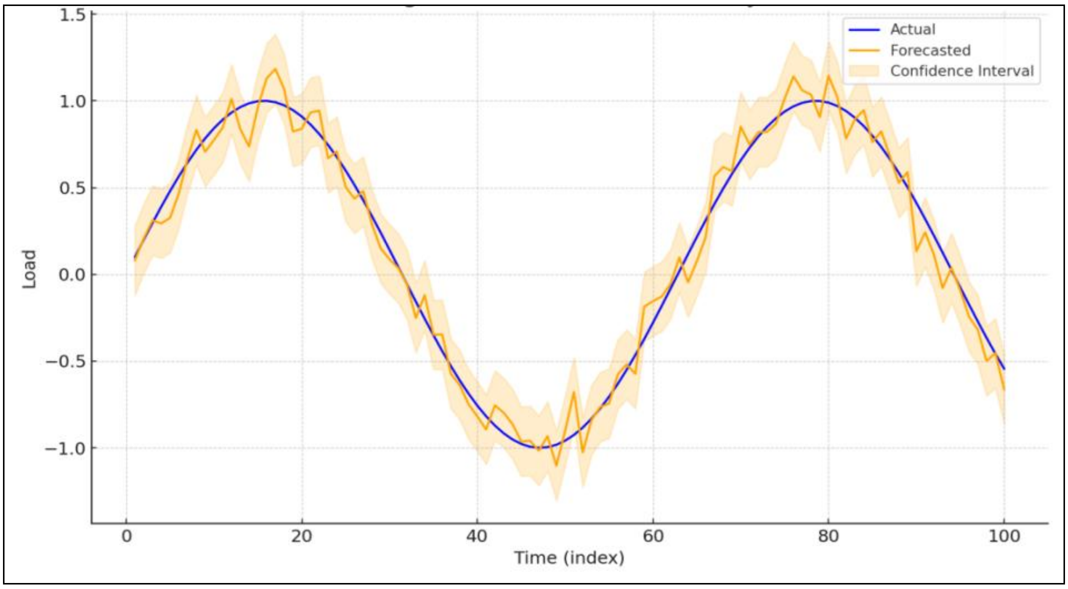

Fig 6: Forecasting confidence with uncertainty interval

Fig 6 visualizes the forecasting confidence for a subset of the test data. The forecasted values are plotted along with confidence intervals, represented by the shaded regions. This graph highlights the uncertainty of the predictions, particularly during periods of high volatility. The shaded confidence intervals show that, although the forecast captures the underlying trend, there are varying degrees of certainty, especially when weather-driven anomalies (e.g., extreme temperature spikes) affect load.

6. AI Applications in Power Systems

6.1 Load Forecasting

AI technologies in load forecasting provide enhanced potential for improving the accuracy and lead-time of demand, and the ability to identify and correct errors is critical for optimizing generation resources, minimizing operating costs, and providing a consistent and reliable power system. Load forecasting can be completed in a short-term, medium-term, or long-term time horizon. Short-term forecasting (STLF) is an area of research that has been extremely widely studied and advances in AI applications such as artificial neural networks (ANN's), support vector machines (SVM's), and recurrent neural networks (RNN's), typically used for predicting hourly or daily load demands have succeeded in capturing non-linear patterns found within load data, particularly when demand is increasing or decreasing rapidly [10]. Medium-term forecasting (MTLF) examines daily or weekly load predictions that contribute to optimization for purchases of fuel supplies, generation leads, and reserve contingencies. Fuzzy logic and decision tree models have been used to model and incorporate uncertainty within the load profiles to account for unexpected outages or changes in renewable generation. Long-term load forecasting (LTLF) typically includes predicting load in yearly or multi-year cycles. Load forecasted at these intervals are necessary for long-range infrastructure investments.[11]. Traditional and efficient deep learning models such as deep neural networks (DNN) are well suited to utilize complex patterns in load data, especially when combined with new weighted factors based on economically driven or climate data. AI based load forecasting systems are also being developed in less predictable environments where all variations are driven by renewables. For EHV networks or HVDC back to back stations to maintain stability, prediction accuracy for variabilities in renewable generation, and demand variabilities is important.

6.2 Fault Detection and Diagnosis

Artificial Intelligence technologies provide significant advantages in assuring reliability and resilience of power systems by finding faults and diagnosing them faster than traditional, The speed problem in traditional systems often arose from inspectors having to verify for faults with subjective inspections or needing to meet predetermined thresholds, which often does not occur quickly enough in case of an disturbance to the grid. Together with, pattern recognition with Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs), Support Vector Machines (SVMs), were also shown have specific applicability in fault detection by recognizing patterns in data received from transmission Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) systems, Phasor Measurement Units (PMUs), or other real time sensors in determination to provide efficient power utility systems. AI diagnostic models regularly demonstrate the ability to differentiate between significant anomalies, for example voltage dips and frequency deviations to indicate voltage/current imbalance for the system. Those anomalies could mean system faults had occurred like, short circuits, overloading, or equipment failure which require dispatch or remediation [12]. Decision trees were even more successfully applied with random forests to classify faults and their likely cause was based on historical fault data, allowing dispatchers to respond quicker and more accurately to the cause of failures. Predictive Maintenance programs became popular with the established emergence of Artificial Intelligence, as the methods continue to apply adaptive history. Predictive maintenance typically employ predictive models like random forests, hoso and K-means clustering models to find potential failure before service outages, which is certainly valuable because they typically reference adaptive findings in real-time sensor data and historical failure history, which may tend to give greatest failure prediction after as it generally schedules out to critcal time any risk of equipment degradation and allows determining maintenaceactivities to eliminate downtime by planning work 'out of service' rather than immediately taking equipment out of service for mitigation.

6.3 Optimal Power Flow and Economic Dispatch

Optimal Power Flow (OPF) is the process of determining the most economical mix of generation, transmission, and distribution of power subject to constraints (e.g., generation limits, voltage limits). AI applications have specifically found success in solving the OPF problem with greater efficiency than traditional optimization techniques, especially genetic algorithms (GAs) and particle swarm optimization (PSO) [13]. Genetic Algorithms (GAs) rely on the process of natural selection to determine a solution to the optimization of power generation and transmission across the grid. GAs have the advantage of being effective around a local minimum, which is likely to be encountered in OPF optimization. Reinforcement learning (RL), although in its early stages, has gained increased popularity for OPF problems. RL constructs agents who will take actions in an environment to learn how to optimize, so agents will optimize grid level operations while continuously interacting with the environment. Once learnt, the agents will be able to optimize decision making based on real time information and continuously adapt to new conditions, and ultimately optimize the overall cost-benefit for the environment [14]. Economic Dispatch (ED), to optimize the distribution of generation resources to provide the forecasted demand with the lowest total cost in terms of production, has also been solved using AI techniques. ANNs and SVR can model generation cost better than a simple function which does not capture the non-linearity in fuel costs, renewable generation, and the substance of the electricity market.

6.4 Voltage Stability and Reactive Power Control

AI applications in large-scale power systems typically encompass real-time voltage instability mitigation and reactive power management. Managing both voltage instability and reactive power optimization is essential for grid reliability, which is particularly crucial in deregulated markets or higher penetration of renewable resources. Voltage instability mitigation using Fuzzy Logic Systems (FLS) will have application to real-time control with the presence of uncertainty and ambiguity with real-time measurement [15]. In this regard, fuzzy logic systems with appropriate input will assist in static and dynamic voltage control because they would maximize or minimize the reactive power compensation response with generation and demand conditions. Neural networks also have potential for voltage instability mitigation as a result of training with historic data to learn the voltage evolution of numerous periods of operation and to learn the power flow at each location. Once trained, these learning models can also be used to observe a change in behavior and provide notice of changing behavior which could indicate instability and assist the real-time operator in identifying potential remedies, such as adjusting the transformer taps or deploying capacitors. Reinforcement learning is also being studied for dynamic continuous regulation of voltage in smart grids where continuous learning would adjust its actions based on grid conditions.

6.5 Renewable Energy Integration

As more renewable energy sources (solar, wind, etc.) are being connected to the grid, the intermittency and variability of these sources pose challenges that require solutions. AI is being used to support integration in two separate ways: improving forecasting and optimizing operation of the grid. Machine learning such as deep learning (DL) and long short-term memory (LSTM) networks, are particularly effective in forecasting renewable generation [16]. Models can be trained on past environmental data that describes the weather patterns, temperature, wind speed, irradiance, etc. to predict the generation of solar or wind energy. Forecasts provide grid operators with knowledge of generation, so that they can better plan reserve planning requirements and dispatch backup generation. Reinforcement learning is also successfully employed to optimize battery energy storage systems (BESS), demand response programs, and distributed energy resources (DERs) to counteract the variability of generation from renewables. BESS learns by providing continuous service during normal operation and can store excess power when high outputs are generated by renewables and release this power when renewable generation drops. BESS can provide a steady and reliable source of power when renewable sources fluctuate. Hybrid AI techniques are also able to forecast and optimize and are successfully used to buffer variability in renewables, paving the way towards grid stability with high levels of renewables connected to the grid.

6.6 Smart Grid Management

Smart grids signify a major development in power system design by providing greater flexibility, efficiency and resilience. As we see greater penetration of distributed energy resources (DERs) and smart meters on the grid, intelligent system representation will become increasingly important to manage and optimize their performance. Artificial intelligence (AI) based systems are able to manage the high volume of data from smart meters, smart sensors, and other IoT devices. These smart systems can analyze the data for insights in real time, predict anomalies in the system, and optimize the smart grid and demand response operations. Smart grids can leverage intelligent agents to autonomously make decisions using reinforcement learning to optimize when energy storage systems should be deployed, when demand response systems should be triggered and when loads should be balanced across grid-connected distributed generation sources [17]. To facilitate decentralized decision-making in a smart grid, AI can leverage multi-agent systems (MAS) where intelligent agents act locally from their independent data, ultimately creating a smarter and more resilient grid that does not rely on a central intelligence. As mentioned previously, one of the fundamental challenges in a smart grid is cybersecurity, AI is used within and without of a smart grid to detect and eliminate cybersecurity threats and concerns, by identifying anomalous patterns in the smart meter communication data, energy management data and transmission data from sensors and billing information. Machine learning algorithms can be used detect a cyber intrusion in real-time and can mitigate the potentially catastrophic consequences to grid stability.

6.7 Energy Storage Optimization

AI-enabled energy storage management is critical to optimizing power grid operations as battery energy storage systems (BESS) become more prevalent. AI can be utilized to optimize battery charge and discharge cycles while enhancing the performance and lifespan of energy storage systems. For example, reinforcement learning can be used to optimize battery scheduling, detecting price-influence on energy storage as battery systems charge when electricity is at a low price or discharged later when prices are higher, or when renewable generation is high. This maximizes economic benefits while creating an efficient use of the battery and prevents over-using storage. Predictive models generated from machine learning can model storage performance, including performance degradation over time, empowering grid operators to schedule preventative maintenance and ensure batteries are replaced at optimal intervals of use. Predictive models can also model the optimal state of charge (SOC) that should be maintained over time for optimal use lifespan without compromising early fading or premature aging of energy storage devices [18].

6.8 Future Research Directions

A very exciting area of research is the development of Explainable AI (XAI) techniques, which aim to provide some interpretability to AI models without sacrificing performance. In power systems that must have transparent and accountable decision-making, XAI may be able to provide explanations about why an AI model made a specific decision, while also providing an element of condition ability to operators about what the system did and why they can trust it. Future research will look at how to apply XAI techniques which will yield types of exposable decision-making in power systems, providing transparency and fostering collaboration between humans and AI. The arm of Internt of Things (IoT) is the next area that brings together AI and wireless devices. Other options could include the combination of IA and Edge computing which might generate new AI powered models of power systems keenly powered by intelligent sensors, or it could take a step-change in making power systems powered by Ai and intelligent sensors efficient at scale. IoT sensors could provide real time information of grid conditions or operations while edge computing may process the information at the source [19]. This decreases latency and and reliance on a central processing unit; the implications for the two technologies working together has great potential for smart grids that require decentralized and realtime decisions to be made. Digital twins are virtual replicas of their physical counterparts, capable of simultaneously simulating, predicting and optimizing operation. The computer models could have many applications to many domains of power systems utilising a digital twin to model the grid behaviour/models and run simulations under a variety of conditions (e.g. fault conditions which could be due to variability in renewable energy output or high demand). Future research could focus on frameworks that can integrate AI driven digital twins into power grid mission systems to enable predictive control or real-time optimization. AI research is increasingly moving towards cross-domain hybrid systems that combine the strengths of different AI approaches. For example, combining machine learning with expert systems or evolutionary algorithms can create hybrid models capable of solving complex power system problems with higher accuracy and flexibility. Research could focus on the integration of AI with optimization techniques (e.g., linear programming, dynamic programming) to solve multidisciplinary problems such as optimal power flow and demand response management.

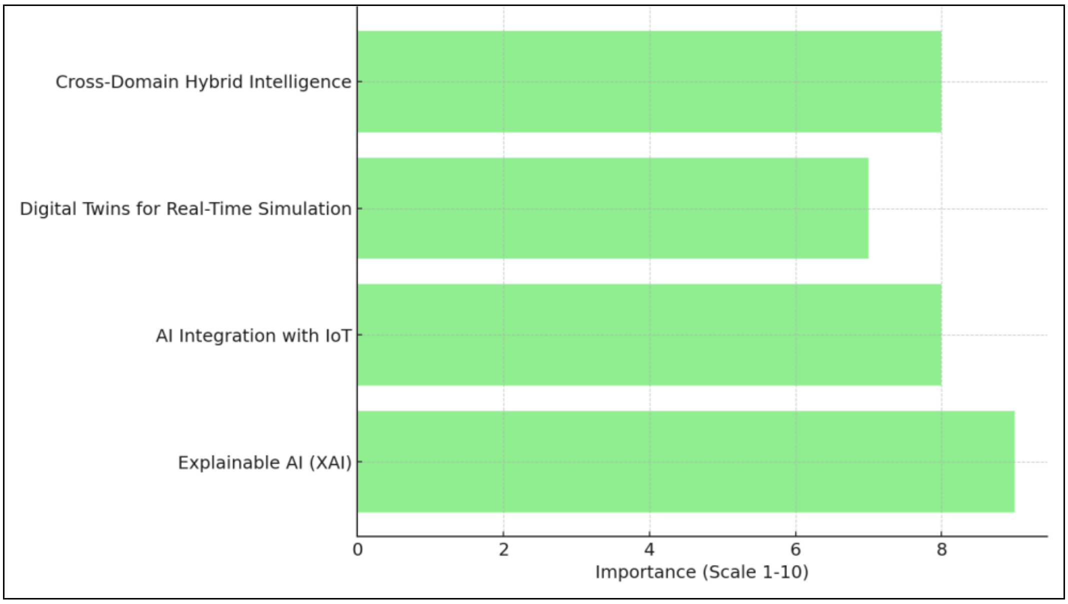

Fig 7: Future Research Directions in AI for Power Systems

Fig 7 shows the bar chart visualizes the key areas of future research in AI for power systems, highlighting the importance of various AI-driven innovations. Explainable AI (XAI) (9): As AI models become more complex, transparency and interpretability are essential. XAI techniques will be important for making AI models clear for grid operators and allowing them to develop trust in their recommendations. AI Integration with IoT (8): Integrating AI and the IoT (internet of things) will allow for the collection, monitoring, and control of grid system data in real-time. This will enable autonomous management and optimization of the grid. Digital Twins for Real-Time Simulation (7): Digital twins generate virtual representations of physical power systems. These models will provide real-time simulation and optimization and predictive control that will improve management of the grid. Cross-Domain Hybrid Intelligence (8): Conducting research on hybrid intelligence systems through various AI techniques (e.g., machine learning, optimization algorithms) may allow for more robust decision-making systems for various parts of the power grid.

7. Conclusion

Artificial intelligence (AI) has shown considerable promise in transforming power systems, especially with respect to better forecasting, real-time optimization, and predictive maintenance. AI in the context of grid operations will enhance power system efficiency, reliability, and adaptability to some of the issues created by renewable energy. AI allows scalability, which allows the same solutions to be configured for both local micro grids and large national grids. As power systems evolve towards more distributed, renewable energy-powered grids, so too will the role of AI play a more central role in optimizing operations [20]. Although AI has its challenges, AI will provide tools and techniques to help address the complexity of today's power grids to make them smart, efficient, and resilient. Continued advancement drivers the capability of AI in power systems, such as autonomous grid management, predictive control, and distributed energy resource operation, to a more evolving energy landscape.

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