



A Deep Learning-Based Framework for Smart Home Energy Consumption Forecasting

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ABSTRACT

The global transition toward sustainable energy systems and the proliferation of smart home technologies have made efficient energy management a critical objective. Central to this goal is the accurate forecasting of residential energy consumption, which empowers both consumers and utilities to optimize energy use, reduce costs, and enhance grid stability. This paper proposes a comprehensive, deep learning-based framework for energy consumption forecasting in smart homes, designed to overcome the inherent challenges of highly variable, non-linear, and privacy-sensitive data. The methodology involves a comparative analysis of established forecasting models, including traditional statistical methods like ARIMA and cutting-edge deep learning architectures such as Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) and Convolutional Neural Network-LSTM (CNN-LSTM) hybrids. The framework incorporates a robust data pipeline, encompassing meticulous data preprocessing, domain-specific feature engineering, and rigorous model evaluation using a multi-metric approach. The analysis synthesizes findings from recent studies, demonstrating that advanced deep learning models consistently outperform traditional methods by effectively capturing complex temporal patterns and dependencies in energy usage data. The report also provides a nuanced examination of the trade-offs between model complexity, computational demands, and predictive accuracy, revealing that simpler models, such as K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), can be a competitive and robust alternative in data-scarce environments. This research underscores the vital role of predictive analytics in enabling dynamic demand-side management and ensuring the effective integration of renewable energy sources. It also highlights the growing importance of privacy-preserving techniques like Federated Learning to foster a more secure and sustainable energy future.

Keywords- Deep Learning, Smart Home Systems, Energy Consumption Forecasting, Artificial Intelligence, Time Series Prediction

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background and Motivation

The increasing global energy demand and the imperative for sustainability have driven a fundamental transformation of energy systems, shifting from centralized power generation to a



more decentralized, responsive smart grid architecture. In this evolving landscape, smart homes serve as a critical nexus for energy management and optimization. Accurate energy consumption forecasting is a foundational capability for any effective Smart Home Energy Management System (SHEMS).⁴ By providing foresight into future consumption patterns, forecasting enables proactive measures such as the planning of energy production, the strategic handling of energy consumption by smart devices, and the avoidance of energy scarcity during outages.

The market for smart home energy monitoring devices is a rapidly expanding sector, with its value projected to grow from USD 2,073.5 million in 2024 to USD 8,514.2 million by 2033, representing a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 17.2%. This substantial growth is fueled by rising electricity costs and a heightened consumer awareness of energy conservation.⁷ The adoption of smart devices provides not only individual economic incentives but also broader societal benefits. As more homes integrate these technologies, the collective, granular data they provide becomes an invaluable asset for utilities and grid operators. This data-rich environment facilitates the transition from a top-down, supply-driven model to a more flexible, demand-responsive grid. The increasing market share of "service" components, encompassing installation, maintenance, and remote monitoring, further indicates a shift from simple hardware products to integrated, data-driven solutions that enable sophisticated management strategies. The ability to forecast residential energy demand allows for intelligent load balancing and the more effective integration of intermittent renewable sources, such as solar and wind, thereby contributing to overall grid stability and long-term sustainability.

1.2. Problem Statement

Despite the clear benefits, residential energy forecasting is a challenging task due to the highly variable and non-linear nature of consumption patterns. Unlike commercial or industrial loads, household energy usage is influenced by a complex interplay of human behavior, appliance-specific operations, and external factors like seasons and outdoor temperature. This inherent variability creates a non-stationary time series, a condition that poses significant difficulties for traditional statistical models. For instance, methods like the Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model, which rely on assumptions of linearity and stationarity, often struggle to capture these complex relationships.

This move toward more sophisticated models, while necessary, introduces additional hurdles. Advanced machine learning and deep learning algorithms require substantial amounts of high-quality historical data to train effectively, a requirement that can be a significant challenge for individual homes with limited data availability. Furthermore, the computational intensity of these algorithms can limit their application in certain smart home systems. Another critical and often overlooked problem is data privacy. Conventional centralized frameworks require sensitive user data to be collected and stored in a single location, creating a risk of privacy breaches. Therefore,



a successful forecasting framework must not only be accurate but also address these issues of data availability, computational cost, and user privacy.

1.3. Paper Contributions

This paper presents a comprehensive framework for smart home energy consumption forecasting, offering several key contributions. First, it provides a comparative analysis of various forecasting models, from traditional benchmarks to state-of-the-art deep learning architectures. This evaluation highlights the strengths and weaknesses of each approach, justifying the use of more complex models for specific applications. Second, the report outlines a detailed, end-to-end methodology that addresses the practical aspects of implementing a forecasting system, including data collection, preprocessing, feature engineering, and rigorous evaluation. Third, it discusses emerging solutions to the key challenges of data scarcity and privacy through an examination of Federated Learning and transfer learning. Finally, this paper provides a nuanced discussion on the trade-off between model performance and complexity, offering practical guidance for researchers and practitioners on how to select the most appropriate forecasting strategy based on their specific needs and available resources.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Traditional Statistical and Machine Learning Methods

Statistical time-series models have long served as the benchmark for forecasting tasks. The Autoregressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model is a classic example, known for its effectiveness with short-term, non-seasonal data that exhibits stable trends. Its core principles involve capturing the autoregressive components (the relationship between a time series and its past values) and moving average components (the relationship between a time series and the lagged forecast errors). However, the linear nature of ARIMA limits its ability to model the complex, non-linear relationships prevalent in smart home energy data. To address this, hybrid models have been proposed, such as the Deepened K-Means Clustering ARIMA (DKMCA) model, which first uses clustering to remove ambiguity from the data before applying ARIMA for forecasting.

Beyond statistical methods, a variety of classical machine learning algorithms have been applied to energy forecasting. The Gradient Boosting (GB) algorithm, for instance, has demonstrated exceptional performance, achieving a high score of 0.95 and outperforming other methods like Simple Linear Regression, Decision Tree Regression, and Support Vector Machine Regression in a smart home energy management system.⁴ Another robust alternative is the K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) model. While conceptually simple, one study found that a basic KNN approach for an energy community with 50 households achieved an average reduction in financial energy costs of 8.01%, which was remarkably close to the 8.06% reduction achieved by a more complex deep learning model. This finding highlights a crucial trade-off: in situations with limited training data (less than six months), simpler models can be a robust and cost-effective alternative to complex



deep learning architectures, which may not offer a significant performance gain to justify their additional complexity and computational demands.

2.2. Deep Learning Architectures for Time-Series Forecasting

The limitations of traditional models in capturing the non-linear, multi-variate nature of energy data have propelled the adoption of deep learning. Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), and their more advanced variants, are particularly well-suited for this domain due to their ability to process sequential data. The Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) network is an enhanced version of the RNN designed to overcome the vanishing gradient problem, which prevents traditional RNNs from learning long-term dependencies. The LSTM architecture features a unique memory cell controlled by three specialized gates—the forget gate, input gate, and output gate—that allow it to selectively retain or discard information over extended periods. This structure makes LSTMs exceptionally effective at capturing the complex temporal patterns in energy consumption data, such as daily and seasonal cycles. Numerous studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of LSTMs, with one paper reporting a more favorable Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) of 3.0% compared to a traditional ARIMA model. Another study comparing LSTM to a Nonlinear Autoregressive (NAR) network for long-term forecasting found that LSTM delivered superior results, with a significantly lower RMSE.

The evolution of deep learning has also led to the development of powerful hybrid models that combine the strengths of different architectures. A prominent example is the CNN-LSTM hybrid model, which synergistically leverages the spatial feature extraction capabilities of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with the temporal sequencing power of LSTMs. In this setup, the CNN module can identify latent patterns and multi-dimensional features in the data, while the LSTM component processes these extracted features to predict future energy consumption. These hybrid models have demonstrated an ability to provide highly accurate forecasts, with one study showing that a ConvLSTM model outperformed other proposed models in terms of MAPE for multi-step ahead forecasting. The development of such hybrid architectures represents a significant trend in artificial intelligence research—the convergence of different neural network types to create more robust and accurate models for complex, real-world problems.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Data Collection and Description

A robust energy forecasting framework begins with the collection of rich, high-fidelity data. Representative datasets, such as those from the Pecan Project in Texas, USA, or publicly available sources on platforms like Kaggle, serve as the foundation for this research. The utility of a dataset for forecasting is determined not only by its volume but also by the diversity of its features. A comprehensive dataset for smart home energy forecasting should include a range of variables that capture the multifaceted nature of consumption. Key features include: temporal data (date, time,



season), appliance-specific consumption in kilowatt-hours (kWh) , external factors like outdoor temperature , and household-specific information such as household size.

The inclusion of these diverse variables is essential because residential energy consumption is not merely a function of time but is a product of complex interactions between human behavior and environmental conditions. The data indicates that consumption patterns vary significantly based on the season, with air conditioners being used more in the summer and heaters in the winter. This highlights a crucial cause-and-effect relationship: external environmental factors directly influence appliance usage, which, in turn, drives energy consumption. A predictive model must be trained to learn and exploit these causal relationships to achieve high accuracy. Therefore, a successful framework must move beyond a simple univariate time series model and adopt a multivariate approach that incorporates these contextual features.

3.2. Data Preprocessing and Feature Engineering

Before any model training can occur, the raw data must undergo meticulous preprocessing to ensure quality and enhance model performance. Standard preprocessing steps include handling missing values, which may require imputation or resampling. Data normalization and standardization are also essential to ensure all features are on a similar scale, which can significantly boost the performance of many machine learning algorithms.

Feature engineering, the process of creating new features from existing ones, is a foundational aspect of improving model accuracy in energy forecasting. Incorporating domain-specific attributes, such as temporal markers (e.g., hour of the day, day of the week, and seasonal cycles), has been shown to yield significant performance improvements. One study observed a 30% increase in accuracy when incorporating time-based features into the models. For deep learning models like LSTM, the data preparation process includes a unique and crucial step: reshaping the input data. LSTMs require a three-dimensional input array with the dimensions of [samples, timesteps, features]. Furthermore, LSTMs perform optimally with shorter subsequences, typically between 200 and 400 time steps, which necessitates splitting a long time series into multiple shorter samples. The success of a forecasting framework is highly dependent on the quality of these preparatory steps, as even the most sophisticated model architecture will perform poorly on poorly prepared data.

3.3. Forecasting Framework Design

An effective energy forecasting solution is a holistic system, not just a standalone algorithm. The framework can be conceptualized as a cyber-physical system (CPS) composed of three distinct but interconnected layers: Data Acquisition, Communication Network, and Data Analytics. The Data Acquisition layer utilizes IoT sensors and smart meters to collect real-time, high-frequency energy consumption data, with sampling rates that can range from 1 kHz to 100 kHz. This raw data is then transmitted via a Communication Network, which could utilize technologies like Wi-Fi or Zigbee, to a central hub or IoT gateway.



The final and most critical layer is the Data Analytics and Management System (SHEMS). This system, which may be hosted on a cloud computing platform or a localized edge device, is responsible for data storage, preprocessing, and the execution of the predictive models. The core of this layer is the integration of predictive algorithms, such as a trained LSTM model, which ingest the preprocessed data and output future consumption trends. This comprehensive, layered architecture demonstrates that a viable solution extends far beyond the choice of a single algorithm, encompassing the entire pipeline from data generation to intelligent decision-making.

3.4. Model Implementation and Training

To ensure a model's robustness and generalization to unseen data, the dataset is typically divided into three subsets: a training set (approximately 70% of the data), a validation set (15%), and a testing set (15%). The training set is used to build the initial model, the validation set is used to fine-tune its parameters and prevent overfitting, and the testing set provides a final, unbiased assessment of the model's accuracy on data it has never encountered.

Model training also involves the critical step of hyperparameter tuning, which optimizes the model's internal settings to achieve peak performance for a specific dataset. The implementation of deep learning models like LSTM can be accomplished using powerful libraries such as TensorFlow in Python.

3.5. Evaluation Metrics

The effectiveness of a forecasting model is quantified using a suite of evaluation metrics, each providing a unique perspective on model performance. The choice of metric is not arbitrary but reflects the specific goals and priorities of the application.

- **Mean Absolute Error (MAE):** This metric measures the average magnitude of the errors in the same units as the original data. Its linear nature makes it less sensitive to outliers, providing a robust measure of average error. The formula for MAE is given by

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n |y_t - \hat{y}_t|$$

where n is the number of observations, y_t is the actual value at time t , and \hat{y}_t is the forecasted value at time t .²⁸

- **Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE):** RMSE quantifies the average squared difference between forecasted and actual values. By squaring the errors, this metric gives a disproportionately larger weight to large errors, making it highly sensitive to outliers. A lower RMSE value indicates a better model.

The formula is:

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n (y_t - \hat{y}_t)^2}$$

The choice of RMSE over MAE often signifies a greater concern for avoiding significant prediction errors, which can have higher costs in real-world applications like financial risk management.²⁸

- **Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE):** MAPE expresses the error as a percentage,



providing a scale-independent measure that is particularly useful for comparing the performance of models across different datasets or time series with varying scales. Its intuitive nature makes it easy to understand for non-technical users. The formula is:

$$MAPE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{|y_t - \hat{y}_t|}{y_t} \times 100\%$$

A lower MAPE indicates better forecast accuracy, but it can be misleading or undefined when actual values are close to zero.²⁸

- **R-squared (R²):** R-squared, or the Coefficient of Determination, quantifies the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variables. A value closer to 1.0 indicates that the model fits the data well. It provides a measure of the model's ability to capture the overall variability in the dataset.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Comparative Performance Analysis

A review of recent research demonstrates a clear trend: advanced deep learning and hybrid models consistently outperform traditional statistical methods in the domain of smart home energy forecasting. This superiority is rooted in their ability to learn complex, non-linear relationships and long-term dependencies that simpler models cannot capture.

A study comparing a standard LSTM model to ARIMA found that the LSTM achieved a significantly more favorable MAPE of 3.0%. This empirical evidence supports the theoretical advantage of LSTMs in handling sequential data. Another study, focused on long-term forecasting, showed that an LSTM model delivered a significantly lower RMSE of 8.8033 compared to a Nonlinear Autoregressive (NAR) network, which had an RMSE of 20.1971. This demonstrates the capacity of LSTM to maintain accuracy over longer prediction horizons. The effectiveness of hybrid models is also well-documented. For instance, a CNN-LSTM model was found to outperform other proposed models in terms of MAPE for short-term forecasts (1, 3, and 6 days), highlighting the benefits of combining feature extraction and sequential learning.

While deep learning models often achieve superior performance, a nuanced perspective is required. In a study evaluating load forecasting for households, the most accurate deep learning model (a Transformer architecture) achieved an average reduction in financial energy costs of 8.06%.³ However, a simple KNN approach achieved an average savings of 8.01%, positioning it as a competitive and robust alternative.³ This compelling finding questions whether the significant effort and computational resources required for complex deep learning models are always justified for marginal performance gains, particularly when data is limited.

This analysis is further supported by a Federated Learning study, which showed that a Federated LSTM (FedLSTM-par) achieved an R² score of 88.68, which was higher than the R² of a standard LSTM (85.13) in a scenario with partial client participation.



4.2. Strengths and Limitations of Each Approach

The choice of a forecasting model is a decision that requires a careful analysis of the trade-offs between accuracy, complexity, and resource requirements. Traditional models like ARIMA are praised for their interpretability and lower computational demands. They are effective for simpler, linear forecasting tasks but struggle with the non-linear, non-stationary nature of residential energy data.

Deep learning models, on the other hand, are highly effective at capturing complex, non-linear patterns and long-term dependencies in the data. Their primary limitations are their high computational demand, the need for large datasets for optimal performance, and their lack of interpretability, which can make it difficult to understand the reasoning behind their predictions. The existence of a robust, simple alternative like KNN for certain applications suggests a practical approach to model selection. For rapid prototyping or in scenarios where data is scarce (e.g., in a newly installed smart home system), simpler models may be the optimal choice. The added complexity and cost of a deep learning model are most warranted for large-scale, long-term, and high-stakes forecasting where a marginal improvement in accuracy can have a significant financial or operational impact.

4.3. Addressing Key Challenges

The inherent challenges of residential energy forecasting, particularly data privacy and scarcity, have led to the development of novel solutions. The problem of centralized data collection and its associated privacy risks can be addressed through the use of a Federated Learning (FL) framework. In this approach, a global model is trained collaboratively across multiple decentralized devices, such as smart homes, without the local data ever leaving its source. The system achieves this by having the central server share the model architecture with the clients, which then perform local training on their private data. The clients send only the model weight updates back to the server, which aggregates them to create an improved global model. This method not only protects user privacy but has also been shown to yield high accuracy. A Federated LSTM model with partial client participation achieved an R^2 score of 88.68, outperforming a standard LSTM model and demonstrating that this privacy-preserving approach is both theoretically sound and empirically effective.

For the challenge of data scarcity, especially in new homes with limited historical data, transfer learning offers a promising solution. By leveraging knowledge from a pre-trained model on a large, publicly available dataset, a model can achieve improved accuracy even when trained on a small, local dataset. One study found that transfer learning improved the normalized mean absolute error by 1.97 percentage points when only two months of training data were available. This approach allows for the benefits of deep learning to be realized more quickly, even when a system is first being deployed.



4.4. Broader Implications for Grid Management

The ultimate value of a robust energy forecasting framework extends beyond individual household optimization; it has profound implications for the broader smart grid ecosystem. Accurate forecasts are a crucial enabler for Demand-Side Management (DSM) programs. By predicting peak demand periods, utilities can implement time-of-use (TOU) pricing, and smart home systems can automatically schedule the operation of high-consumption appliances during off-peak hours, thereby reducing costs for consumers and alleviating stress on the grid.

Furthermore, energy forecasting is essential for the effective integration of renewable energy sources, such as solar and wind power, which are inherently unpredictable. By having accurate forecasts of both energy demand and renewable supply, grid operators can better balance the system, maximize the use of clean energy, and enhance overall grid resilience.

The goal of forecasting is not just to predict consumption but to enable intelligent optimization and control. A robust forecasting model serves as the foundational input for a Model Predictive Control (MPC) system, which can then dynamically adjust an HVAC system, for example, to achieve significant energy savings. In this way, the forecasting framework transforms from a passive predictive tool into an active enabler of a new generation of automated, intelligent, and sustainable energy management systems.

4.5. Case Study: Energy Consumption Patterns in India

For a research paper focused on smart homes in India, it is critical to present findings that are relevant to the local context. Recent research based on smart meter data from various Indian cities reveals distinct consumption patterns and provides a quantitative basis for analysis. Due to the text-based nature of this report, I have provided detailed descriptions and data for a series of figures and tables that would be included in a physical paper.

Table 1: Average Monthly Electricity Consumption in Indian Cities

Region	Average Monthly Consumption (kWh)
Pune City	156
Pune District	133
Aurangabad	184



Bhopal	170
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Data from the eMARC initiative in India demonstrates the significant variation in household energy consumption across different regions, providing a valuable dataset for forecasting models. The table above illustrates the average monthly electricity consumption in several Indian cities, with averages varying between 100 kWh and 200 kWh.

Average Monthly Electricity Consumption in Indian Households

A bar graph would display the average monthly electricity consumption (in kWh) across different regions and household types (e.g., Basic, with Water Heaters, with ACs). This figure would visually demonstrate the heterogeneity in consumption patterns, highlighting that while the average consumption may fall within a narrow range, there is significant variation among individual households. For instance, a household with an air conditioner or water heater in Pune City might consume up to 348 kWh, far exceeding the average of 156 kWh for the city as a whole.

Per Capita and Seasonal Energy Consumption

A combination of bar graphs and line graphs would effectively visualize two key trends:

Annual Per Capita Consumption: A bar graph would compare the annual per capita electricity consumption across regions based on appliance ownership categories. This would show that households with water heaters in Aurangabad and with ACs in Pune City have the highest per capita consumption.

Seasonal Variation: A line graph would illustrate how average monthly consumption fluctuates with the seasons. It would highlight that the use of space-cooling appliances like fans and ACs leads to higher consumption during the summer months. For example, households with ACs in Pune City consume approximately 1.3 times their average electricity in summer.

Energy Performance vs. Annual Consumption

A scatter plot would be an excellent way to visualize the relationship between a household's Energy Performance Index (EPI) and its total annual electricity consumption. This visual would show that even households with a high (5-star) energy efficiency rating can still have a wide range of consumption (121 kWh to 4174 kWh annually). This figure underscores that household size and lifestyle play a significant role in overall consumption, independent of a home's energy efficiency rating.

5. CONCLUSION

This paper presented a comprehensive framework for smart home energy consumption forecasting, grounded in a comparative analysis of traditional and deep learning approaches. The research confirms that deep learning models, particularly LSTM and its hybrid variants, are exceptionally well-suited for this task due to their ability to capture the complex, non-linear, and temporal



patterns inherent in residential energy data. This capability leads to superior predictive accuracy compared to conventional statistical models like ARIMA.

However, the analysis also revealed a crucial nuance: the value of a model's complexity is dependent on the context. In scenarios with limited data, simpler, less computationally intensive models like KNN can serve as a robust and highly competitive alternative, delivering significant practical benefits without the substantial resource requirements of deep learning. The report further demonstrated how key challenges, such as data privacy and scarcity, can be effectively addressed through innovative solutions like Federated Learning and transfer learning, which allow for high-quality predictions while safeguarding sensitive user data.

This research highlights the critical role of predictive analytics in fostering a more sustainable and economically viable energy future. Accurate forecasting is not an end in itself; it is a fundamental enabler of demand-side management, renewable energy integration, and intelligent grid optimization. Future work should focus on several key areas to build upon these findings, including the development of new, more computationally efficient hybrid architectures, the further exploration of privacy-preserving frameworks in large-scale deployments, and the integration of an even wider range of contextual data, such as real-time electricity prices and human activity logs, to further enhance predictive accuracy and enable truly intelligent energy management systems.

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