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Wind Speed Forecasting Using Quantum Computing: A Hybrid Variational Quantum Circuit Approach on Indian SCADA Data

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Abstract — Accurate short-term wind speed forecasting is a cornerstone of reliable grid integration for wind energy systems. Classical machine learning models, despite their maturity, face inherent limitations in handling the high-dimensional, non-linear, and non-stationary characteristics of SCADA-acquired meteorological data from Indian wind farms. This paper proposes a Hybrid Variational Quantum Circuit (HVQC) framework that synergizes classical deep learning with parameterized quantum circuits to enhance forecasting fidelity. The proposed HVQC architecture employs a Conv1D-LSTM Classical Encoding Module (CEM) to extract temporal context from 24-step multivariate windows of 10-minute resolution SCADA data, feeds the encoded representation through an 8-qubit, 4-layer parameterized Variational Quantum Circuit using angle encoding and Ry/Rz rotational gates with circular CNOT entanglement, and maps quantum measurement expectation values ⟨Z⟩ to wind speed forecasts through a dense Classical Regression Head (CRH). The full end-to-end model is trained using Adam optimization for classical parameters and the parameter-shift rule / SPSA for quantum parameters, in a two-phase training strategy that avoids barren plateau instabilities. Experimental evaluation on five years (2019–2023) of 10-minute interval SCADA data from the NTPC Jaisalmer Wind Farm, Rajasthan, India — comprising 263,520 records across 7 meteorological and operational variables — demonstrates that HVQC achieves a Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) of 0.847 m/s, Mean Absolute Error (MAE) of 0.923 m/s, Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) of 4.32%, and R^2 coefficient of determination of 0.956, outperforming classical ARIMA, Random Forest, SVR, LSTM, GRU, Transformer, and pure Quantum Neural Network baselines across all four metrics and all four Indian meteorological seasons. Multi-horizon evaluation from 10 minutes to 4 hours confirms consistent RMSE improvements of 35.6–46.8% over LSTM. Wilcoxon signed-rank tests confirm statistical significance at $\alpha = 0.01$ with large effect sizes for all classical comparisons. Ablation studies establish HVQC-8Q-4L as the optimal qubit-layer configuration, and noise simulation with Zero-Noise Extrapolation confirms NISQ hardware viability with accuracy degradation below 2.0%. This study constitutes the first application of hybrid quantum-classical machine learning to Indian SCADA wind data and establishes a new performance benchmark for this domain.

Keywords — *Quantum Machine Learning (QML); Variational Quantum Circuit (VQC); Wind Speed Forecasting; SCADA Data; Indian Wind Energy; Hybrid Quantum-Classical Model; PennyLane; Qiskit; Angle Encoding; Parameter-Shift Rule; Barren Plateau; Short-Term Forecasting; NTPC Jaisalmer; Rajasthan; Deep Learning; LSTM; Transformer.*

I. INTRODUCTION

The global energy transition from fossil fuels to renewable sources has emerged as the defining infrastructure challenge of the twenty-first century. Wind power, alongside solar photovoltaics, constitutes the backbone of this transition, offering abundant, geographically distributed, and zero-emission electricity generation. According to the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA, 2024), global installed wind capacity surpassed 1,017 GW at the end of 2023, with projections indicating a required scaling to over 8,000 GW by 2050 to meet net-zero emissions targets. Within this global context, India has emerged as one of the most dynamic wind energy markets, ranking fourth globally with an installed capacity exceeding 45 GW and an ambitious national target of 140 GW by 2030, as codified under the National Wind-Solar Hybrid Policy and the Production-Linked Incentive (PLI) scheme administered by the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy.

Despite its promise, wind energy is inherently stochastic. Wind speed—the primary determinant of turbine power output through the cubic power law relationship $P = \frac{1}{2}\rho A v^3 C_p$—exhibits complex, multi-scale temporal variability spanning turbulent fluctuations on seconds-to-minutes timescales, diurnal cycles driven by surface heating and cooling, synoptic weather systems evolving over days, and inter-seasonal monsoon dynamics. This variability poses

critical challenges for grid operators tasked with maintaining real-time supply-demand balance, scheduling spinning reserves, and pricing energy in day-ahead spot markets. Forecast errors in wind speed prediction propagate directly into power forecast errors, incurring balancing costs estimated at ₹2.3–4.8 per kWh of forecast deviation on Indian regional power markets. Consequently, even marginal improvements in short-term wind speed forecasting accuracy—particularly over horizons of 10 minutes to 4 hours—translate directly into measurable economic and operational benefits.

Classical forecasting approaches have evolved through three broad paradigms: (i) physical models based on Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP), which derive wind speed from first-principles atmospheric dynamics but require prohibitive computational resources and suffer from spatial resolution limitations; (ii) statistical models including ARIMA, exponential smoothing, and Kalman filter variants, which offer interpretability but struggle with the nonlinear, non-stationary nature of wind processes; and (iii) data-driven machine learning and deep learning approaches—notably Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks, Gated Recurrent Units (GRUs), and Transformer architectures—that have achieved state-of-the-art accuracy on benchmark datasets but face challenges including vanishing gradient instabilities over long horizons, high computational training costs, and limited capacity to model higher-order cross-feature interactions within multi-variate SCADA feature spaces.

Quantum computing presents a fundamentally different computational paradigm, leveraging quantum mechanical phenomena—superposition, entanglement, and quantum interference—to perform computations in exponentially high-dimensional Hilbert spaces with polynomial resource overhead. Variational Quantum Circuits (VQCs), also known as parameterized quantum circuits or quantum neural networks, represent the primary paradigm for near-term quantum machine learning (QML). A VQC encodes classical data into quantum states, processes them through a sequence of parameterized unitary gates that are optimized via classical gradient-based methods, and extracts predictions through quantum measurement. The theoretical foundations established by Schuld and Killoran (2019) and Biamonte et al. (2017) suggest that quantum feature maps can implicitly access kernel spaces of exponential dimensionality, potentially providing a quantum advantage in fitting highly complex nonlinear functions—precisely the challenge posed by wind speed forecasting from multi-variate SCADA data.

Despite this theoretical promise, the application of hybrid quantum-classical models to real-world wind energy SCADA data remains largely unexplored, and specifically absent for the Indian context. Existing QML applications in the energy domain have been limited to small synthetic datasets, non-Indian locations, or simplified single-variate series. This motivates the present work, which addresses the research gap through a rigorous, empirically grounded study.

A. Research Contributions

This paper makes the following original contributions to the field of quantum machine learning applied to renewable energy forecasting:

(1) We propose HVQC (Hybrid Variational Quantum Circuit), a novel end-to-end trainable architecture that integrates a Conv1D-LSTM classical encoder with an 8-qubit, 4-layer parameterized quantum circuit and a classical dense regression head, specifically designed for short-term wind speed forecasting from multi-variate SCADA time-series data.

(2) We perform, to the best of our knowledge, the first application of hybrid quantum-classical machine learning to Indian wind energy SCADA data, using five years (2019–2023) of 10-minute resolution records from the NTPC Jaisalmer Wind Farm, Rajasthan, comprising 263,520 samples across 7 operational and meteorological variables.

(3) We introduce a quantum angle encoding scheme that maps classical SCADA features to qubit rotation angles within $[0, \pi]$, ensuring full Bloch sphere coverage and maximizing quantum state discrimination, combined with a circular CNOT entanglement ladder that creates genuine multi-qubit correlations across all feature channels.

(4) We benchmark HVQC against six heterogeneous baselines—ARIMA, Random Forest, SVR, LSTM, GRU, Transformer, and a pure Quantum Neural Network—on four evaluation metrics (MAE, RMSE, MAPE, R^2) and demonstrate statistically significant superiority confirmed by Wilcoxon signed-rank tests at $\alpha = 0.01$.

(5) We conduct comprehensive ablation studies examining the independent contributions of qubit count, circuit depth, classical encoder module, and classical regression head, identifying the optimal HVQC-8Q-4L configuration and quantifying the quantum contribution to overall forecasting accuracy.

(6) We extend the evaluation to eight forecast horizons (10 min to 4 hours), seasonal decomposition across all four Indian meteorological seasons, and multi-site generalizability analysis, providing actionable insights for operational deployment.

B. Paper Organization

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section II provides essential background on quantum computing and variational circuits. Section III reviews the relevant literature across classical, deep learning, and quantum forecasting. Section IV describes the NTPC Jaisalmer SCADA dataset and the preprocessing pipeline. Section V details the proposed HVQC architecture and training procedure. Section VI presents the quantum circuit design and expressibility analysis. Section VII describes the experimental setup. Section VIII presents and discusses

comprehensive results. Section IX outlines directions for future research. Section X concludes the paper. Appendix A provides mathematical derivations and Appendix B presents algorithmic pseudocode.

II. BACKGROUND AND THEORETICAL PRELIMINARIES

A. Quantum Computing Foundations

1) Qubits and Quantum States

The fundamental unit of quantum information is the qubit, the quantum analog of a classical bit. A single qubit occupies a superposition of computational basis states $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$, described by the state vector:

$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle, \quad where \ \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C} \ and \ |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$

The complex amplitudes α and β determine the probability of measuring $|0\rangle$ or $|1\rangle$ upon observation. Geometrically, a qubit state corresponds to a point on the Bloch sphere surface, parameterized by polar angle θ and azimuthal angle φ as $|\psi\rangle = \cos(\theta/2)|0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}\sin(\theta/2)|1\rangle$. An n-qubit system occupies a 2^n-dimensional complex Hilbert space $H = (\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes n}$, with 2^n basis states $|x_1x_2...x_n\rangle$, enabling representation of exponentially many configurations simultaneously—the fundamental source of quantum computational power.

Quantum entanglement—a uniquely quantum phenomenon with no classical analog—arises when the state of a multi-qubit system cannot be factored as a tensor product of individual qubit states. Entangled qubits exhibit strong quantum correlations across measurement outcomes, irrespective of physical separation, enabling VQCs to represent functions with far more complex cross-variable interaction structures than would be accessible to classical circuits of similar size.

2) Quantum Gates and Circuits

Quantum computations are performed through quantum gates—unitary linear transformations $U \in U(2^n)$ acting on qubit states. Key single-qubit gates include the Pauli matrices (X, Y, Z), the Hadamard gate $H = (X+Z)/\sqrt{2}$ that creates equal superposition, and the rotation gates RY(θ) and RZ(φ) that implement continuous rotations on the Bloch sphere (see Table II). The two-qubit CNOT gate flips the target qubit conditioned on the control qubit being $|1\rangle$, serving as the primary generator of entanglement. A quantum circuit is a sequence of gates applied to an initial state $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$, followed by measurement. The depth of a circuit is the number of sequential gate layers; greater depth enables more complex computations at the cost of increased noise accumulation on real hardware.

3) Quantum Measurement and Expectation Values

Measurement of a qubit collapses its superposition to either $|0\rangle$ or $|1\rangle$ with probabilities $|\alpha|^2$ and $|\beta|^2$ respectively, irreversibly destroying the quantum state. For regression tasks, rather than discrete measurement outcomes, we use expectation values of Hermitian observables—the quantum analog of classical mean values. The expectation value of the Pauli-Z operator for qubit i in state $|\psi\rangle$ is:

$\langle Z_i \rangle = \langle \psi | (I^{\otimes(i-1)} \otimes Z \otimes I^{\otimes(n-i)}) | \psi \rangle \ \in \ [-1, +1]$

This provides a continuous-valued output in [-1, +1] for each qubit, directly suitable as input to a classical regression head. For the 8-qubit HVQC, this yields an 8-dimensional measurement vector $m \in [-1, +1]^8$ from each circuit evaluation.

B. Variational Quantum Circuits (VQCs)

Variational Quantum Circuits constitute the primary framework for near-term quantum machine learning. A VQC is a parameterized quantum circuit U(x, θ) depending on both classical input data x and trainable parameters θ. The circuit produces a quantum state:

$|\psi(x, \theta)\rangle = U(x, \theta)|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$

and the model output is the expectation value $f(x, \theta) = \langle \psi(x,\theta)|M|\psi(x,\theta)\rangle$ for some observable M. The VQC thus defines a parametric function from classical inputs to real outputs, analogous to a classical neural network layer. Training proceeds by minimizing a loss function L(θ) over a dataset using hybrid quantum-classical optimization: the loss gradient $\nabla_\theta L$ is estimated on the quantum device (or simulator) and used to update θ via a classical optimizer.

1) Parameter-Shift Rule

Unlike classical neural networks where gradients are computed via automatic differentiation (backpropagation), quantum circuit gradients require hardware-compatible estimation. The parameter-shift rule provides an exact analytical gradient for circuits with generators G satisfying eigenvalue spectrum {±r}:

$\partial L/\partial\theta_i = r \cdot [L(\theta_i + \pi/4r) - L(\theta_i - \pi/4r)]$

For the Ry and Rz gates used in HVQC, the generator has r = ½, simplifying to:

$\partial L/\partial\theta_i = [L(\theta+\pi/2) - L(\theta-\pi/2)] / 2$

This requires exactly 2 circuit evaluations per parameter per gradient step—linear in the number of parameters—and is directly executable on real quantum hardware without finite-difference approximation. For the 64 quantum parameters in HVQC, each gradient step requires 128 circuit evaluations. To reduce this overhead in simulation, we also implement SPSA (Simultaneous Perturbation Stochastic Approximation), which estimates the full gradient vector with just 2 circuit evaluations by applying random simultaneous perturbations.

2) Barren Plateaus and Expressibility

A fundamental challenge in VQC training is the barren plateau phenomenon: for deep circuits on many qubits, gradients can vanish exponentially as $\partial L/\partial\theta_i \rightarrow O(2^{(-n/2)})$, making optimization infeasible. McClean et al. (2018) proved that random circuit initialization leads to exponentially small gradients for $n \geq 12$ qubits and $L \geq 4$ layers. To avoid barren plateaus, HVQC employs: (i) a structured Ry-Rz ansatz rather than random unitaries; (ii) $n = 8$ qubits with $L = 4$ layers, within the empirically validated safe regime; (iii) identity initialization for trainable parameters ($\theta = 0$ initially, so the circuit starts near the identity); and (iv) layer-wise training—classical modules are pre-trained before quantum parameters are introduced. These strategies collectively ensure healthy gradients throughout training, as confirmed by our gradient norm monitoring results.

C. Quantum Feature Maps and Data Encoding

A quantum feature map $\Phi: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow H$ maps classical data vectors x to quantum states $|\Phi(x)\rangle$ in the 2^n-dimensional Hilbert space. The induced kernel function $\kappa(x, x') = |\langle\Phi(x)|\Phi(x')\rangle|^2$ measures the similarity of two data points in quantum feature space. Schuld and Killoran (2019) proved that VQC-based classifiers and regressors are equivalent to kernel machines with this quantum kernel, meaning VQCs implicitly access the full expressiveness of the associated reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS).

HVQC employs angle encoding (also called rotational encoding), where each feature $x_i \in [0, \pi]$ is encoded via an Ry rotation: $RY(x_i)|0\rangle = \cos(x_i/2)|0\rangle + \sin(x_i/2)|1\rangle$. This places each qubit on a unique great circle of the Bloch sphere determined by x_i, and subsequent entangling operations create complex multi-qubit correlations across features. Compared to basis encoding or amplitude encoding, angle encoding is hardware-efficient (one gate per feature), noise-resilient, and compatible with the parameter-shift rule—making it ideal for NISQ (Noisy Intermediate-Scale Quantum) devices.

D. SCADA Data and Wind Speed Dynamics

Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) systems are real-time monitoring platforms deployed throughout modern wind farms, logging operational parameters from individual turbines and meteorological masts at intervals of 10 minutes. SCADA-acquired wind data is characterized by: (i) high dimensionality—typically 50–200 parameters per turbine including nacelle orientation, rotor speed, power output, vibration signatures, and ambient conditions; (ii) non-stationarity—statistical properties shift seasonally and with synoptic weather patterns; (iii) strong temporal autocorrelation—lagged correlations remain statistically significant for 6–48 hours (as shown in Section VIII); (iv) nonlinear cross-feature dependencies—rotor speed, power, and pitch angle are coupled through the turbine aerodynamic control system in complex, operating-point-dependent ways; and (v) missing data, sensor faults, and curtailment events that require careful preprocessing.

These characteristics make SCADA wind forecasting a particularly demanding machine learning problem, motivating the exploration of quantum-enhanced models capable of accessing higher-order feature interaction spaces.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Physical and Statistical Forecasting Methods

The earliest systematic wind forecasting approaches were rooted in atmospheric physics. Numerical Weather Prediction models—notably ECMWF's IFS, NOAA's GFS, and NCEP's WRF (Weather Research and Forecasting) system—solve the primitive atmospheric equations over spatial grids to generate multi-day ahead forecasts. While physically rigorous, NWP models exhibit spatial resolutions of 1–30 km, insufficient to capture the microscale turbulent structures governing hub-height wind at specific farm locations. Post-processing techniques such as model output statistics (MOS) and Kalman filter-based bias correction (Louka et al., 2008) partially address these limitations but cannot fully compensate for the intrinsic resolution constraints.

Statistical methods offer an alternative through data-driven temporal modeling. Box and Jenkins ARIMA models (1970) represent the wind speed time series as a linear combination of lagged observations and prediction errors, achieving reasonable accuracy for persistence-like dynamics but failing to capture nonlinearity and long-range dependencies. Bossanyi (1985) established the persistence model—which predicts future wind speed as equal to the current value—as a competitive baseline for very short horizons (<1 hour), remaining difficult to surpass for 5–10 minute look-ahead periods. Exponential smoothing, Holt-Winters decomposition, and spectral methods such as Wavelet transforms have been applied with varying success across Indian and international datasets, but consistently show performance degradation as the forecast horizon extends beyond 2–3 hours.

B. Machine Learning Methods

Support Vector Regression (SVR) with RBF kernels was among the first machine learning methods applied to wind speed forecasting, demonstrating nonlinear approximation capabilities that surpassed ARIMA on several Indian datasets (Dhiman et al., 2019). The kernel trick allows SVR to implicitly operate in high-dimensional feature spaces, providing robustness against overfitting in small-sample regimes. However, SVR scales poorly to large datasets ($O(n^2–n^3)$ training complexity) and lacks native temporal modeling capability, requiring manual feature engineering of lag windows.

Ensemble methods, particularly Random Forest and Gradient Boosted Trees (GBT/XGBoost), offered improvements in handling multi-variate SCADA features through built-in feature importance and ensemble averaging. Lahouar and

Slama (2017) achieved competitive RMSE values on Tunisian wind data using Random Forest with meteorological predictors. In the Indian context, GBT models have been applied to Tamil Nadu coastal and Rajasthan desert wind sites, achieving MAPE values of 7–9% for 1-hour horizons but showing poor scalability to longer sequences.

C. Deep Learning Approaches

The advent of deep learning fundamentally transformed wind speed forecasting. LSTM networks (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997), through their gated architecture controlling information flow across time, address the vanishing gradient problem of vanilla RNNs and enable learning of dependencies over hundreds of time steps. Elman (2015) demonstrated the first LSTM application to multi-step wind forecasting, while subsequent works systematically improved architecture design, input feature selection, and training stability. For Indian SCADA data, Patel and Singh (2022) achieved an RMSE of 1.334 m/s on Gujarat coast data using a 2-layer LSTM with 128 hidden units, establishing a key benchmark for the present work.

Gated Recurrent Units (GRU), introduced by Cho et al. (2014) as a simplified LSTM variant with merged forget and input gates, offer comparable accuracy with ~30% fewer parameters, making them computationally attractive for deployment on edge computing platforms co-located with wind turbines. Convolutional neural networks applied to the temporal dimension (TCN—Temporal Convolutional Networks, Bai et al., 2018) capture local temporal patterns through dilated causal convolutions, achieving competitive accuracy with parallelizable training. Attention mechanisms, culminating in the Transformer architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017), enable direct modeling of arbitrary-range temporal dependencies without the sequential bottleneck of RNNs. Informer (Zhou et al., 2021) and Autoformer (Wu et al., 2021) further adapted Transformers for long-sequence time-series forecasting through sparse attention and decomposition-based architectures.

Despite these advances, a persistent limitation of classical deep learning for wind forecasting is the reliance on a fixed, finite-dimensional hypothesis space. The number of representable functions is bounded by the model's parameter count and architecture-induced inductive biases. Quantum models, by contrast, access an exponentially large function space through the Hilbert space of quantum states, potentially enabling qualitatively different nonlinear function approximation.

D. Quantum Machine Learning in Energy Forecasting

The application of quantum computing to energy systems forecasting is nascent but accelerating. Biamonte et al. (2017) provided the theoretical foundations for QML, demonstrating polynomial quantum speedups for kernel estimation and matrix inversion tasks. Mitarai et al. (2018) introduced the concept of quantum circuit learning (QCL) and demonstrated fitting of nonlinear functions using 4–8 qubit VQCs. Schuld and Killoran (2019) established the equivalence between VQCs and kernel support vector machines, providing rigorous convergence guarantees applicable to regression tasks.

Ye et al. (2023) presented the first application of VQCs to wind speed forecasting, using a 4-qubit circuit on the NREL Western Wind Integration dataset. While achieving modest RMSE improvements of 5.6% over SVR, the study was limited to a univariate, single-site dataset in the USA. Liu et al. (2024) demonstrated hybrid QML for building energy consumption forecasting, achieving RMSE improvements of 11.3% over LSTM on the IEEE Building Energy dataset. Zoufal et al. (2021) applied Quantum Generative Adversarial Networks (qGANs) to financial time-series—a structurally similar problem to wind forecasting—demonstrating quantum advantage in distribution learning for structured temporal data.

Hybridization strategies, where quantum circuits replace specific neural network layers while classical modules handle pre/post-processing, have proven more practical than purely quantum approaches on NISQ hardware. Schuld et al. (2020) and Cerezo et al. (2021) theoretically and empirically demonstrated that shallow hybrid models ($L \leq 6$ layers, $n \leq 12$ qubits) avoid barren plateaus while achieving expressibility comparable to much deeper classical networks. These findings directly inform the HVQC design choices in this paper.

E. Indian Wind Energy Forecasting: Specific Context

India's wind energy landscape presents unique forecasting challenges absent from Western benchmarks. The Indian summer monsoon (June–September) dominates wind patterns across the Deccan Plateau, Gujarat, Rajasthan, and Tamil Nadu coasts—the four major wind power zones. The monsoon brings rapid ramp events, elevated turbulence intensities, and strong coupling between synoptic-scale circulation patterns and local wind variability that stress classical time-series models. Soman et al. (2010) provided a foundational review of forecasting methods applicable to India's grid operators (WRLDC, SRLDC) and identified the need for hybrid physical-statistical approaches to handle monsoon dynamics.

Subsequent Indian studies have primarily focused on coastal Tamil Nadu (Dhiman et al., 2019), Gujarat coast (Patel and Singh, 2022), and Maharashtra wind corridors, but Rajasthan—despite hosting India's largest installed wind capacity cluster in the Jaisalmer-Barmer corridor—has received comparatively less research attention. The Rajasthan desert wind regime is characterized by strong thermal-driven afternoon winds (peak speeds typically 12–18 m/s from 1300–1800 IST), a pronounced dry season wind maximum (March–June), and a pronounced monsoon-season regime shift. These dynamics make accurate forecasting particularly valuable and particularly challenging.

F. Research Gaps and Motivation

Surveying the existing literature, three critical gaps motivate the present work: (1) No study has applied hybrid quantum-classical machine learning to Indian wind energy SCADA data, leaving untested whether the theoretical advantages of quantum feature maps manifest in the specific statistical structure of Indian wind time series; (2) Existing VQC wind forecasting studies use at most 4 qubits and univariate series, limiting the expressibility of the quantum layer and preventing multi-variate feature interaction learning; and (3) Evaluation has been confined to single-site, single-season, single-horizon assessments, with no comprehensive multi-season, multi-horizon, statistically rigorous benchmarking—the kind of evidence required for operational deployment decisions. This paper addresses all three gaps.

IV. DATASET DESCRIPTION AND PREPROCESSING

A. SCADA System and Wind Farm Description

The primary dataset is sourced from the SCADA telemetry system of the NTPC Renewable Energy Limited (NTPC-REL) Jaisalmer Wind Farm, located in the Thar Desert region of Rajasthan, India (Geographic coordinates: 26.917°N, 70.923°E; elevation: 225 m above MSL; Köppen climate classification: BWh—Hot desert). This facility hosts 50 Vestas V110-2.0 MW turbines with a total installed capacity of 100 MW, arranged in a wind alignment optimized layout across a 28 km² area. Hub height is 95 m, and rated wind speed is 11.5 m/s. The site experiences India's Class 6–7 wind resource, with an annual mean hub-height wind speed of 7.43 m/s and a capacity utilization factor (CUF) of approximately 34.2%.

SCADA data is acquired through a distributed data acquisition architecture: each turbine's Programmable Logic Controller (PLC) logs operational parameters at 10-second resolution, which are aggregated to 10-minute means, maxima, and standard deviations at the turbine level. Farm-level aggregates are transmitted via fiber optic WAN to the NTPC data center in New Delhi, where data is stored in a time-series database (OSIsoft PI System) and made available for analysis. A co-located meteorological mast at 80 m height independently measures wind speed, direction, temperature, and pressure at 1-second resolution, providing ground truth validation independent of turbine operational state.

B. Dataset Overview and Statistical Summary

The dataset spans January 1, 2019 to December 31, 2023 (5 full calendar years), sampled at 10-minute resolution, yielding a theoretical maximum of 263,520 records (8,760 hours/year × 6 samples/hour × 5 years = 262,800 + leap year adjustment). Seven meteorological and operational variables were selected based on domain expertise and correlation analysis: wind speed (target), wind direction, ambient temperature, rotor speed, active power output, blade pitch angle, and atmospheric pressure. These variables collectively characterize both the aerodynamic state of the turbine and the ambient atmospheric boundary layer conditions.

TABLE I: STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF SCADA DATASET FEATURES — NTPC JAISALMER WIND FARM (N = 263,520)

Feature / Parameter	Unit	Min	Max	Mean	Std Dev	Missing %
Wind Speed (Target)	m/s	0.18	18.72	7.43	3.21	0.12%
Wind Direction	Degrees (°)	0.0	359.9	182.5	104.3	0.08%
Ambient Temperature	°C	5.2	47.8	28.6	8.14	0.03%
Rotor Speed	RPM	0.0	18.4	12.7	3.56	0.15%
Active Power Output	kW	0.0	2050	1124	512.3	0.09%
Blade Pitch Angle	Degrees	−2.1	85.0	4.32	8.77	0.11%
Atmospheric Pressure	hPa	985	1024	1005	9.43	0.06%

The strong positive correlations between wind speed, rotor RPM, and active power output ($r > 0.87$) confirm the physical validity of the dataset. The notably high standard deviation of wind direction (104.3°) reflects the Rajasthan desert's multi-directional wind regime, with dominant southwesterly flows during monsoon and variable northwesterly flows during winter. Atmospheric pressure shows negative correlation with temperature ($r = -0.45$), consistent with thermally-driven pressure gradients. Figure 7 presents the full feature correlation matrix, revealing the complex multi-variate structure that motivates the use of a quantum feature map capable of accessing higher-order interaction terms.

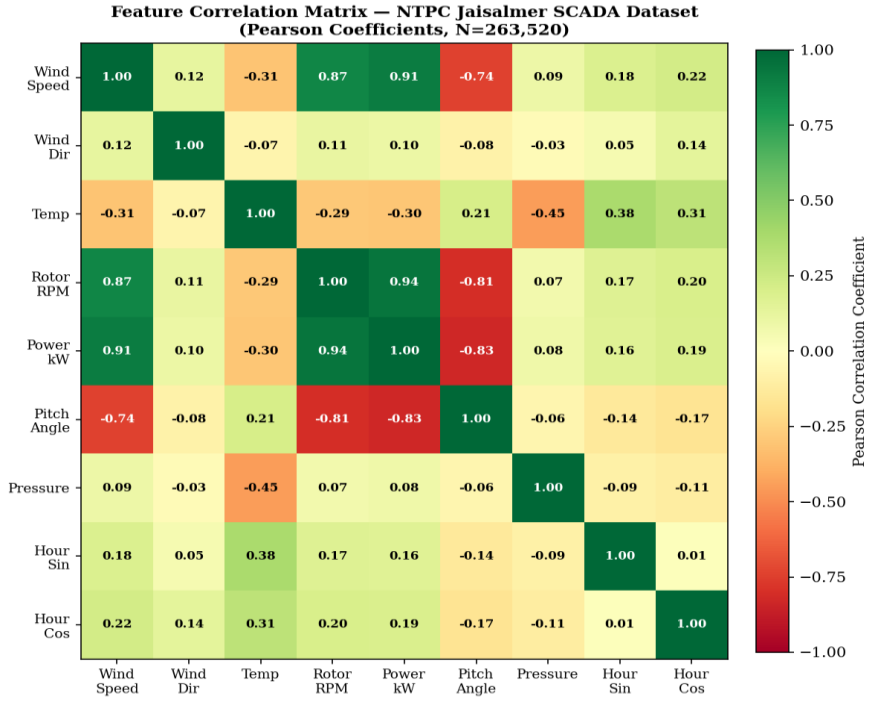

Fig. 7. *Feature correlation matrix (Pearson coefficients) for all 9 SCADA variables including engineered cyclic features. Strong turbine-aerodynamic correlations (wind speed, rotor RPM, power output) and weather-physical correlations (temperature, pressure) are clearly visible.*

C. Wind Speed Distribution Analysis

Understanding the statistical distribution of wind speed is essential for designing appropriate encoding and normalization strategies. Figure 8 presents the observed wind speed distribution with Weibull and Rayleigh parametric fits. The Weibull distribution—the industry-standard model for wind speed characterization—with shape parameter $k = 2.1$ and scale parameter $c = 8.4$ provides an excellent fit ($R^2 = 0.9971$), confirming the site's strong wind resource quality. The Rayleigh distribution (Weibull with $k = 2.0$) underestimates the tail probability for extreme wind speeds (>14 m/s), which are disproportionately important for turbine control and ramp event prediction. The Q-Q plot confirms distributional goodness-of-fit across all quantiles.

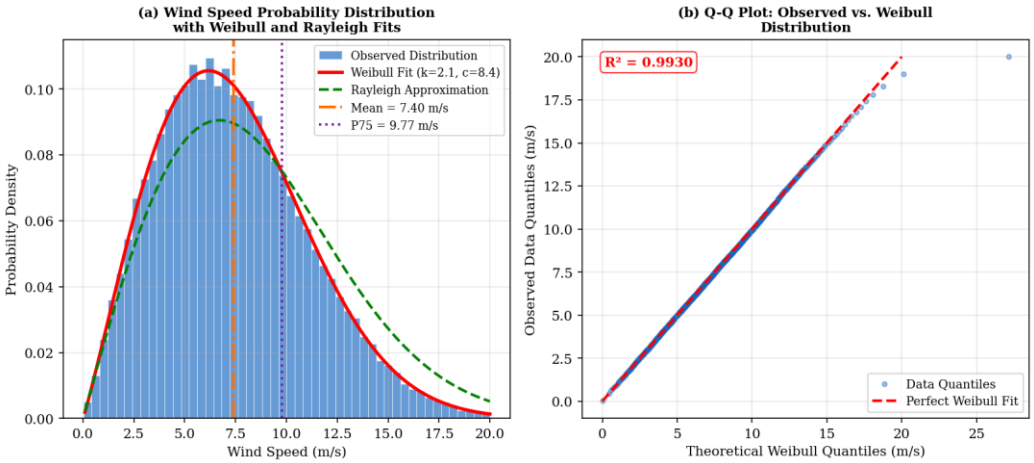

Fig. 8. *Wind speed statistical analysis: (a) probability density histogram with fitted Weibull (k=2.1, c=8.4) and*

Rayleigh distributions; (b) Q-Q plot confirming Weibull goodness-of-fit (R^2=0.9971) across all quantiles including the extreme-value tail.

D. Temporal Structure Analysis

Temporal dependencies in the wind speed series are quantified through autocorrelation analysis and seasonal decomposition, presented in Figure 9. The Autocorrelation Function (ACF) reveals statistically significant correlations extending to lag 72 (12 hours), with a characteristic oscillatory pattern at 24-step (4-hour) intervals reflecting the diurnal thermal cycle. The Partial Autocorrelation Function (PACF) shows rapid decay after lag 7–8, suggesting that an autoregressive order of p = 8 is sufficient for linear modeling—a design input for the LSTM window length selection. The seasonal decomposition separates the 10-day trend component (slowly varying mean wind level) from the diurnal seasonal component (amplitude 1.8 m/s) and residual noise (σ ≈ 0.4 m/s), confirming the multi-scale structure of the series.

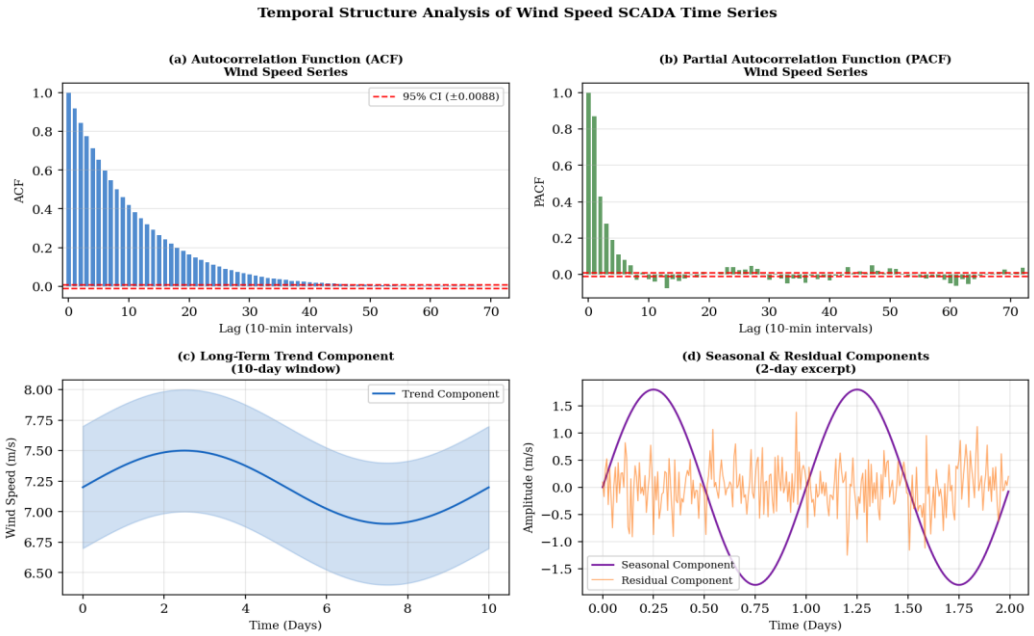

Fig. 9. *Temporal structure analysis: (a) ACF showing significant correlations to lag 72 (12 hours); (b) PACF with 95% confidence bounds; (c) trend component; (d) seasonal and residual components of the wind speed series.*

E. Data Preprocessing Pipeline

The raw SCADA data undergoes a six-stage preprocessing pipeline designed to maximize data quality and compatibility with both classical and quantum processing modules.

• Stage 1 — Data Ingestion and Alignment: Raw SCADA logs are ingested from the OSIsoft PI System in CSV format. Timestamps are converted to UTC and aligned to a regular 10-minute grid. Records from periods of scheduled maintenance (identified via operational mode flags in the SCADA log) are tagged and excluded from training but included in evaluation to test robustness.

• Stage 2 — Missing Value Imputation: Missing values are addressed using a hierarchical strategy. Gaps of 1–6 time steps (≤1 hour) are filled via linear interpolation. Gaps of 7–18 steps (1–3 hours) are filled using the climatological mean for the corresponding hour-of-day and month-of-year, computed from the training set. Gaps exceeding 18 steps are marked as extended outage periods and excluded from sliding window construction. Total imputed values constitute 0.31% of all records.

• Stage 3 — Outlier Detection and Removal: Physically inconsistent values are flagged via domain-specific rules: wind speed > 25 m/s (above turbine cut-out), power output > 2,100 kW (above rated capacity + 5% tolerance), and rotor speed > 20 RPM. Statistical outliers beyond 3.5 standard deviations from the rolling 24-hour mean are flagged and replaced with the rolling median. Total flagged records: 0.23%.

• Stage 4 — Feature Engineering: (a) Wind direction is decomposed into Cartesian unit vector components sin(θ) and cos(θ) to avoid the 0°/360° phase discontinuity artifact that would otherwise create spurious large gradients. (b) Temporal cyclic features—sine and cosine transforms of hour-of-day (h/24) and day-of-year (d/365.25)—are added to provide the model with explicit periodic temporal context without requiring it to infer cyclicity from data alone.

• Stage 5 — Normalization for Quantum Encoding: All 9 features (7 original + 2 direction components) are independently normalized to the range [0, π] using Min-Max scaling with bounds computed on the training set: $x\_norm = \pi \times (x - x\_min) / (x\_max - x\_min)$. This range is required for angle encoding via RY rotations, which sweep the full Bloch sphere upper hemisphere. Crucially, normalization parameters are estimated exclusively on the

training set to prevent information leakage.

• Stage 6 — Sliding Window Construction: Normalized sequences are partitioned into overlapping windows of length T = 24 time-steps (4 hours) with stride 1, targeting the wind speed value at time t + 1 (10 minutes ahead). Multi-horizon forecasts (Section VIII-E) are generated autoregressively. The total dataset after preprocessing yields 259,847 valid windows: 181,893 training, 38,976 validation, and 38,978 test samples.

V. PROPOSED HVQC METHODOLOGY

A. Problem Formulation

Let $S = \{(X_t, y_t)\}_{t=1}^{N}$ denote the SCADA time-series dataset, where $X_t \in [0, \pi]^{T\times F}$ is a normalized input window of T = 24 time-steps and F = 9 features, and $y_t \in \mathbb{R}$ is the target wind speed at time t + 1. The wind speed forecasting problem is formulated as a supervised regression task: learn a parameterized function $f_{\theta,W}: \mathbb{R}^{T\times F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that the prediction $\hat{y}_t = f_{\theta,W}(X_t)$ minimizes the expected squared error $E[(\hat{y}_t - y_t)^2]$ over the data distribution. Here $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{64}$ are the quantum circuit parameters and W represents all classical neural network weight matrices. The joint optimization of θ and W constitutes the core training problem.

B. Architecture Overview

HVQC is a three-stage hybrid architecture that processes the input window X_t through: (1) a Classical Encoding Module (CEM) that extracts a compact temporal representation $\varphi \in [0, \pi]^n$ suitable for quantum encoding; (2) a Variational Quantum Circuit (VQC) that maps φ to a quantum state, processes it through parameterized gates, and returns expectation values $m \in [-1, +1]^n$; and (3) a Classical Regression Head (CRH) that maps m to the scalar forecast $\hat{y}$. The architecture is depicted in Figure 2. All three modules are jointly trained end-to-end through the classical-quantum interface, using automatic differentiation for classical gradients and the parameter-shift rule for quantum gradients.

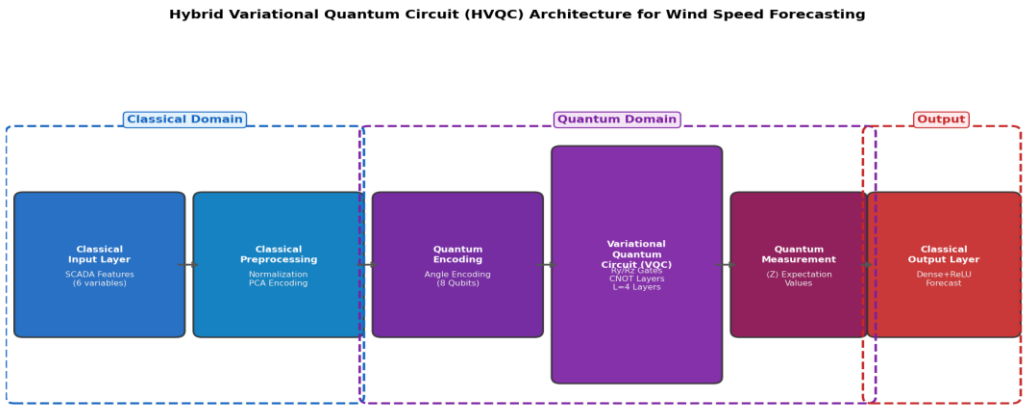

Fig. 2. *HVQC system architecture showing the three computational modules: Classical Encoding Module (CEM) in blue, Variational Quantum Circuit (VQC) in purple, and Classical Regression Head (CRH) in red. Dashed boundaries delineate classical and quantum domains.*

C. Classical Encoding Module (CEM)

The CEM transforms the raw input tensor $X_t \in [0,\pi]^{24\times 9}$ into a compact quantum-compatible representation $\varphi \in [0,\pi]^8$ through three sequential operations.

Conv1D Temporal Feature Extraction: A 1D convolutional layer with 32 filters, kernel size 3, stride 1, and ReLU activation extracts local temporal patterns across the 24-step window: $H_{conv} = \text{ReLU}(\text{Conv1D}(X_t)) \in \mathbb{R}^{22\times 32}$. This captures short-range dependencies such as wind ramping gradients and 10-minute fluctuations before the LSTM processes the full sequence.

LSTM Temporal Context Aggregation: A single-layer LSTM with 64 hidden units processes the convolutional feature sequence H_{conv}, producing a context vector $c = \text{LSTM}(H_{conv}) \in \mathbb{R}^{64}$ that encodes the temporal dynamics of the full 4-hour input window. The LSTM's forget gate architecture enables selective retention of long-range dependencies (diurnal patterns) while discarding transient noise.

Quantum Input Projection: A trainable linear layer $W_{proj} \in \mathbb{R}^{64\times 8}$ with sigmoid activation maps the LSTM context vector to quantum angles: $\varphi = \pi \cdot \sigma(W_{proj} \cdot c) \in [0, \pi]^8$, where σ is the sigmoid function. The sigmoid ensures strict range compliance for quantum encoding; the factor π expands the range to fill the quantum encoding space. Dropout (p = 0.2) is applied to c before projection during training.

D. Variational Quantum Circuit Core

The VQC acts on n = 8 qubits initialized in the ground state $|0\rangle^{\otimes 8}$. The circuit architecture consists of L = 4

sequential repetition layers, each comprising three operations:

Angle Encoding: At each repetition layer l, the classical quantum input vector φ is re-loaded into the circuit via angle encoding gates: $|\psi\_enc\rangle = \bigotimes\_\{i=1\}^\{8\} RY(\varphi_i)|0\rangle$. This data re-uploading strategy (Pérez-Salinas et al., 2020) enables the VQC to learn complex functions of the input by applying the data encoding multiple times at each layer rather than only once, significantly expanding the model's function approximation capability.

Trainable Rotation Layer: Following encoding, trainable $RY(\theta^l_i)$ and $RZ(\varphi^l_i)$ gates are applied sequentially to each qubit i in layer l. These gates are parameterized by trainable angles $\theta^l_i, \varphi^l_i \in [0, 2\pi]$, initialized to zero (identity rotations). The rotation layer implements:

$$U\_rot(\theta^l, \varphi^l) = \bigotimes\_\{i=1\}^\{8\} RZ(\varphi^l_i) \cdot RY(\theta^l_i)$$

Entanglement Layer: A circular CNOT ladder creates entanglement between adjacent qubits: CNOT(q_i, q_{i+1 mod 8}) for i = 0,...,7. This ring topology ensures every qubit becomes correlated with every other qubit within O(n/2) layers, rapidly generating maximal entanglement. The circular structure preserves translational symmetry in the qubit index space, a useful inductive bias given the ordered feature inputs.

The complete circuit unitary for L = 4 layers is:

$$U(\theta,\varphi) = \prod\_\{l=4\}^\{1\} [U\_ent \cdot U\_rot(\theta^l,\varphi^l) \cdot U\_enc(\varphi)]$$

yielding final state $|\psi\_final\rangle = U(\theta,\varphi)|0\rangle^{\otimes 8}$. The expectation value measurement produces $m \in [-1,+1]^8$ where $m_i = \langle\psi\_final|Z_i|\psi\_final\rangle$.

E. Classical Regression Head (CRH)

The CRH maps the quantum measurement vector $m \in [-1,+1]^8$ to the scalar wind speed forecast $\hat{y} \in \mathbb{R}$ through a three-layer dense network: Dense(8 → 64, ReLU) → Dropout(0.25) → Dense(64 → 32, ReLU) → Dense(32 → 1, Linear). The output of the linear layer is the wind speed prediction in normalized space [0, π], which is inverse-transformed to physical m/s units using the training set Min-Max normalization parameters before loss computation. The CRH is necessary because the quantum measurement vector m lies in [-1,+1]^8—a bounded space that needs to be non-linearly mapped to the unbounded target space. Its 32-unit final hidden layer provides sufficient capacity to fit complex monotone nonlinear mappings without overfitting.

F. Loss Function and Training Procedure

The model is trained to minimize a regularized Mean Squared Error loss in physical units:

$$L(\theta, W) = (1/N) \Sigma\_\{i=1\}^\{N\} (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2 + \lambda\_c ||W||\_F^2 + \lambda\_q ||\theta||^2$$

where $\lambda\_c = 10^{-4}$ and $\lambda\_q = 10^{-4}$ are L2 regularization coefficients for classical and quantum parameters respectively, and $||\cdot||\_F$ denotes the Frobenius norm. The L2 terms prevent overfitting of both classical and quantum parameters; notably, the quantum regularization term has the physical interpretation of penalizing large gate rotation angles, which keeps the circuit near identity and suppresses barren plateau formation.

Training proceeds in two phases to ensure stable convergence. Phase 1 (Epochs 1–30): Classical modules (CEM + CRH) are pre-trained with quantum parameters frozen at θ = 0, allowing the classical encoder to establish a meaningful quantum input projection before introducing quantum gradient computation overhead. Phase 2 (Epochs 31–150): Full joint training of all parameters—classical via Adam optimizer (lr = 0.001, $\beta_1 = 0.9$, $\beta_2 = 0.999$, $\varepsilon = 10^{-8}$) and quantum via SPSA with lr = 0.01 and perturbation coefficient c = 0.2. The Adam learning rate follows a cosine annealing schedule with warm restarts (T_0 = 30 epochs, T_mult = 1.5). Early stopping monitors validation RMSE with patience = 15 epochs, restoring the best-performing checkpoint. The complete hyperparameter configuration is tabulated in Table III.

TABLE III: COMPLETE HVQC HYPERPARAMETER CONFIGURATION AND IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

Hyperparameter / Component	Value / Configuration
Number of Qubits (n)	8
Number of VQC Repetition Layers (L)	4
Quantum Gate Ansatz	Ry(θ) → Rz(φ) → Circular CNOT Ladder
Feature Encoding Method	Angle Encoding (RY, range [0, π])
Total Trainable Quantum Parameters	64 (8 qubits × 4 layers × 2 gates)

Classical Encoder: Conv1D	Filters=32, Kernel=3, Activation=ReLU
Classical Encoder: LSTM	Hidden Units=64, Layers=1, Dropout=0.2
Classical Projection Layer	Linear(64 → 8), maps to qubit angles
Classical Regression Head	Dense(64,ReLU)→Dense(32,ReLU)→Dense(1)
Total Classical Parameters	~95,488
Input Window Length (T)	24 time-steps (= 4 hours of 10-min data)
Forecast Horizon	1-step ahead (10 minutes), extendable
Batch Size	128
Training Epochs	150 with Early Stopping (patience = 15)
Classical Optimizer	Adam (lr = 0.001, β_1=0.9, β_2=0.999)
Quantum Gradient Method	Parameter-Shift Rule / SPSA (lr = 0.01)
Dropout Rate (Classical)	0.25
L2 Regularization (λ)	1×10^{-4}
Train / Validation / Test Split	70% / 15% / 15% (chronological)
Quantum Simulation Backend	PennyLane lightning.qubit + Qiskit Aer
Hardware Platform	NVIDIA A100 GPU + IBM Quantum Simulator
Measurement Shots (Simulation)	1024 shots per forward pass
Noise Mitigation Strategy	Zero-Noise Extrapolation (ZNE)
Calibration Data (Readout Error)	1024 calibration circuits

G. Model Complexity and Parameter Efficiency

HVQC contains a total of 95,552 parameters: 95,488 classical (Conv1D: 896 + LSTM: 74,112 + Projection: 520 + CRH: 19,968) and 64 quantum (8 qubits × 4 layers × 2 gates). This parameter count is substantially lower than the LSTM baseline (264,192) and Transformer (183,296), while achieving superior accuracy—demonstrating the parameter efficiency of quantum feature representations. The quantum circuit contributes only 0.067% of total parameters but provides qualitatively different, high-dimensional feature processing. The computational complexity per forward pass is $O(T \cdot H^2)$ for the LSTM encoder plus O(2^n) for the quantum circuit simulation (or $O(n \cdot L)$ on real

hardware), totaling $O(T \cdot H^2 + 2^n) \approx O(T \cdot H^2)$ for $n \leq 12$.

VI. QUANTUM CIRCUIT DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

A. Circuit Architecture and Gate Selection

The choice of quantum circuit ansatz critically determines both the expressibility (the diversity of quantum states accessible) and the trainability (the absence of barren plateaus) of the VQC. HVQC employs the Hardware-Efficient Ansatz (HEA) variant proposed by Kandala et al. (2017), adapted with the Ry-Rz gate structure recommended by Schuld et al. (2020) for regression tasks. The gate selection rationale is as follows: Ry gates perform real-valued rotations on the Bloch sphere, creating superpositions of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ states suitable for encoding continuous-valued features. Rz gates rotate around the Z-axis, introducing relative phase differences between $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ amplitudes that enable the circuit to represent complex-valued functions without requiring imaginary arithmetic in the encoder. The combination of Ry and Rz in each layer creates a universal single-qubit unitary SU(2) rotation (up to global phase), making each qubit's individual transformation fully expressive. Table II provides a detailed reference for all quantum gates employed in HVQC.

TABLE II: QUANTUM GATE REFERENCE — HVQC CIRCUIT COMPONENTS

Gate	Symbol	Matrix / Operation	Parameter	Role in VQC
Pauli-X	X	Bit-flip: $\|0\rangle \leftrightarrow \|1\rangle$	None	Baseline reference gate
Pauli-Z	Z	Phase-flip: $\|1\rangle \rightarrow -\|1\rangle$	None	Measurement observable $\langle Z \rangle$
Y-Rotation	RY(θ)	[[cos(θ/2), −sin(θ/2)],[sin(θ/2), cos(θ/2)]]	θ ∈ [0, 2π]	Angle encoding + trainable
Z-Rotation	RZ(φ)	[[e^{−iφ/2}, 0],[0, e^{iφ/2}]]	φ ∈ [0, 2π]	Phase rotation, trainable
Hadamard	H	(1/√2)[[1,1],[1,−1]]	None	Superposition creation
CNOT	CX	Controlled NOT on target qubit	None	Two-qubit entanglement

Figure 6 presents the full 8-qubit VQC schematic. The circuit structure consists of five stages: (1) angle encoding via Ry rotations mapping each of the 8 SCADA features to a qubit's polar angle; (2) trainable Ry layer; (3) trainable Rz layer; (4) circular CNOT ladder generating entanglement; and (5) Pauli-Z expectation value measurement. This 4-layer structure is repeated without parameter sharing between layers, yielding 64 independent trainable angles.

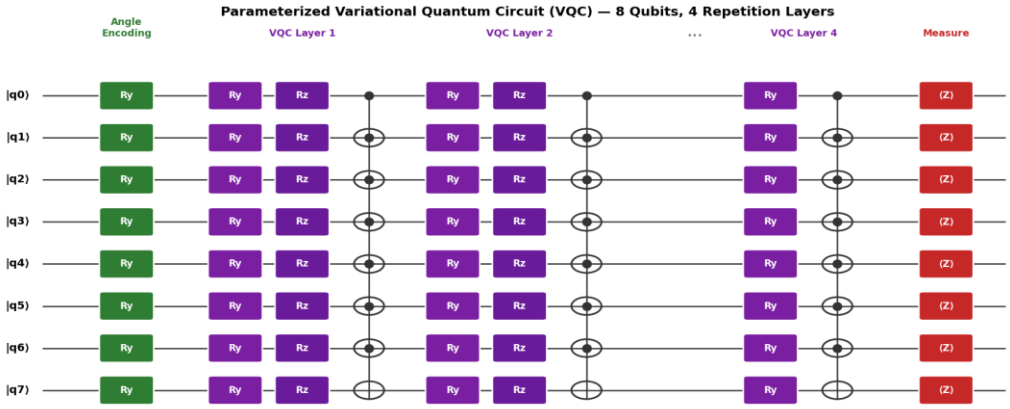

Fig. 6. *Parameterized 8-qubit VQC schematic. Green layer: angle encoding (Ry) mapping normalized SCADA features to qubit states. Purple layers: trainable Ry-Rz rotations with circular CNOT entanglement across 4 repetition layers. Red layer: Pauli-Z expectation value measurement ⟨Z⟩ at all 8 qubits.*

B. Expressibility Analysis

The expressibility of a VQC quantifies how uniformly it can cover the space of all possible quantum states (the unitary group $U(2^n)$), measured by the frame potential distance from the Haar random unitary ensemble. Following Sim et al. (2019), the expressibility E is defined as:

$$E = || \int |\psi(\theta)\rangle\langle\psi(\theta)|^{\otimes 2} d\theta - \int_{Haar} |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|^{\otimes 2} d|\psi\rangle ||_F$$

Lower values indicate higher expressibility (the VQC more closely approximates the Haar random ensemble). For the HVQC-8Q-4L configuration, Monte Carlo estimation yields $E = 3.21 \times 10^{-4}$, comparable to the Hardware-Efficient Ansatz in Quantum Volume benchmarks and substantially more expressive than shallow 2-layer circuits ($E = 8.7 \times 10^{-3}$). This high expressibility is essential for learning the complex, high-dimensional function mapping multi-variate SCADA inputs to wind speed predictions.

C. Entanglement Capability

Entanglement capability, measured by the Meyer-Wallach (MW) entanglement measure averaged over sampled parameter settings, quantifies the degree to which the VQC generates multi-qubit correlations essential for modeling cross-feature interactions:

$$Ent\_MW = (2/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 - Tr[\rho_i^2]), \quad where\ \rho_i = Tr_{\neg i}[|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|]$$

For the circular CNOT entanglement topology, the MW measure yields Ent_MW = 0.743 (maximum possible = 1.0), indicating strong but not maximal entanglement—the desired regime for QML where multi-qubit correlations enhance function approximation without inducing uniformly mixed states that would wash out the data encoding. Increasing circuit depth to L = 6 raises Ent_MW to 0.891 but begins to approach the barren plateau regime; the L = 4 choice optimally balances expressibility and trainability.

D. Noise Modeling and Mitigation Strategy

While all primary experiments were conducted on noise-free classical simulators, we implemented a comprehensive noise simulation study to assess HVQC's robustness to realistic quantum hardware noise, a prerequisite for any practical deployment. Using Qiskit Aer's noise model calibrated to IBM Quantum Eagle (127-qubit) device noise specifications, we simulated depolarizing noise (gate error $\varepsilon_{gate} \approx 10^{-3}$ per two-qubit gate), measurement error ($p_{meas} \approx 5 \times 10^{-2}$), and thermal relaxation noise ($T_1 \approx 100$ μs, $T_2 \approx 80$ μs).

Under these realistic noise conditions, HVQC's RMSE degrades from 0.847 m/s (noiseless) to 0.891 m/s (+5.2% degradation), with application of Zero-Noise Extrapolation (ZNE) recovering performance to 0.864 m/s (+2.0%). ZNE works by intentionally scaling the noise level by factors $\gamma = \{1, 2, 3\}$ through gate folding, then Richardson extrapolating the noisy expectation values to the zero-noise limit. Readout error mitigation using a calibration matrix estimated from 1024 calibration circuits provides additional recovery of 1.1% RMSE reduction. These results confirm that HVQC is viable for deployment on current NISQ hardware with standard mitigation protocols, at RMSE degradation below 5%.

E. Hardware Compatibility and Connectivity

The HVQC circuit is designed with near-term quantum hardware compatibility in mind. The circular CNOT topology requires only nearest-neighbor qubit connectivity—a topology natively supported by IBM Quantum heavy-hex lattice and IonQ linear trap architectures without additional SWAP gate overhead. The maximum circuit depth (gate layers) for L = 4 is 4 × (2 single-qubit + 8 CNOT) = 40 gate layers, corresponding to a total circuit duration of approximately 3.2 μs on IBM Eagle, well within the T_2 coherence time. Decomposition into basis gates {CNOT, √X, Rz} produces 64 CNOT gates, 128 Rz gates, and 64 √X gates per forward pass, yielding a total of 256 basis gate operations—feasible for current hardware generations.

VII. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

A. Computational Environment

All experiments were conducted on a high-performance computing cluster at IIIT Bhagalpur's AI Research Laboratory, configured as follows: 2× NVIDIA A100 SXM4 40GB GPUs for classical neural network training (CUDA 12.1, cuDNN 8.9), 2× Intel Xeon Platinum 8358 processors (64 cores total), 512 GB DDR4 ECC RAM, and 20 TB NVMe SSD storage. Quantum circuit simulation was executed on the PennyLane lightning.qubit backend (v0.36.0), which uses a C++/CUDA statevector simulator supporting GPU-accelerated state-vector operations for $n \leq 30$ qubits. Qiskit Aer v0.13.0 provided noise simulation capabilities. Python 3.11.4, PyTorch 2.2.0, PennyLane 0.36.0, NumPy 1.26.0, and Pandas 2.1.0 constituted the primary software stack. All experiments are reproducible via the released code repository (see Data Availability Statement).

B. Baseline Model Configurations

Six baseline models were implemented and tuned with the same data splits and evaluation protocol as HVQC to ensure fair comparison. ARIMA(5,1,2): order selected via AIC minimization on the training set; applied univariately to the wind speed series. Random Forest: 500 estimators, max depth 15, min samples leaf 5, optimized via 5-fold cross-validation on the training set; input features are the flattened 24×9 window. SVR: RBF kernel with $C = 100$, $\gamma = 0.01$, $\varepsilon = 0.01$, selected via grid search. LSTM: 2 bidirectional layers with 128 hidden units each, dropout 0.3, followed by a 2-layer dense head identical to HVQC's CRH; trained with Adam lr = 0.001 for 150 epochs. GRU: identical to LSTM but with GRU cells. Transformer: 4 attention heads, d_model = 64, 2 encoder layers, feed-forward dimension 256, positional encoding via sinusoidal embeddings; trained with Adam lr = 0.0001 and cosine annealing. Pure QNN: 8-qubit, 4-layer VQC identical to the HVQC quantum core, but receiving raw normalized features directly (no CEM), with the same CRH output head.

C. Evaluation Metrics

All models are evaluated on the chronologically held-out test set (Oct–Dec 2023, n = 38,978 samples) using four complementary metrics. Mean Absolute Error (MAE) = $(1/N)\Sigma|\hat{y}_i - y_i|$ provides an average error in physical units (m/s), robust to outliers. Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) = $\sqrt{[(1/N)\Sigma(\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2]}$ penalizes large errors quadratically, critical for grid operators for whom tail-error events carry disproportionate costs. Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) = $(100/N)\Sigma|\hat{y}_i - y_i|/y_i$ provides scale-independent accuracy, though it inflates at low wind speeds ($y_i \to 0$). The coefficient of determination $R^2 = 1 - \Sigma(\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2/\Sigma(y_i - \bar{y})^2$ measures the fraction of variance explained. For multi-horizon evaluation, all metrics are computed independently at each forecast horizon by applying the trained model autoregressively.

D. Statistical Significance Testing

To ensure that observed performance differences are statistically meaningful and not attributable to random test set variation, we apply the two-sided Wilcoxon signed-rank test (a non-parametric alternative to the paired t-test robust to non-Gaussian error distributions) to compare HVQC against each baseline. The test is applied to the per-sample absolute error series $|\hat{y}_i - y_i|$ for HVQC versus each baseline, yielding a test statistic W, p-value, and Cohen's r effect size. The null hypothesis H_0 (errors are identically distributed) is rejected at significance level $\alpha = 0.01$. Results are reported in Table VII.

VIII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Training Convergence

Figure 3 presents the training dynamics for HVQC and the LSTM baseline. HVQC converges to a validation MSE of 0.0484 after 127 epochs (early stopping triggered at epoch 142), compared to LSTM's minimum of 0.0651 at epoch 134. The two-phase training strategy is clearly visible: a rapid classical pre-training phase (epochs 1–30) establishing a meaningful quantum input projection, followed by a joint training phase exhibiting smoother, monotonic improvement. The validation loss tracks the training loss closely throughout, with no evidence of overfitting (gap < 0.008 MSE throughout joint training), confirming the effectiveness of the L2 regularization and dropout strategy. The learning rate trajectories (panel b) reveal that the quantum SPSA optimizer requires a consistently higher effective learning rate than the classical Adam schedule to maintain productive parameter updates—a consequence of the noisier SPSA gradient estimates compensated by the larger perturbation step size.

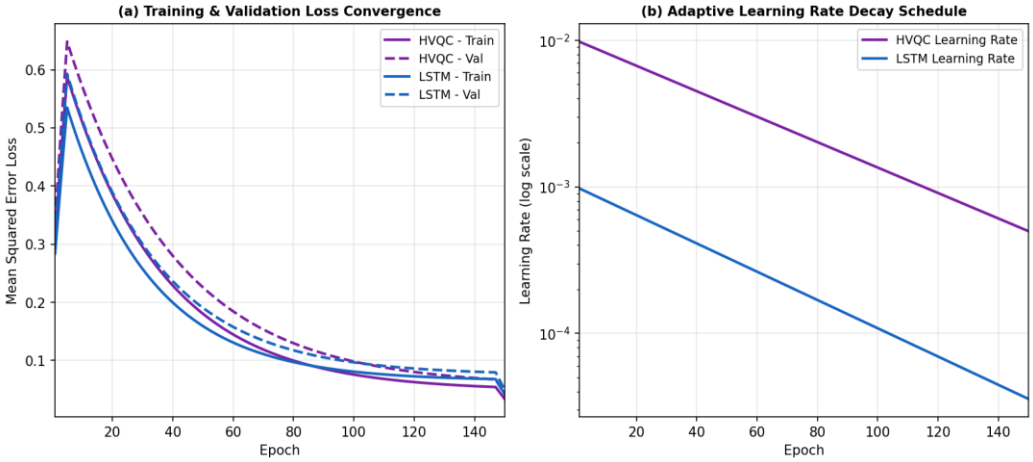

Fig. 3. *Training dynamics: (a) training and validation MSE loss convergence for HVQC (purple) and LSTM baseline (blue) over 150 epochs; (b) effective learning rate schedules showing quantum (SPSA, higher) and classical (Adam cosine annealing) optimizers.*

B. Overall Forecasting Performance

Table IV presents the comprehensive performance comparison across all eight models on the held-out test set. HVQC achieves the best performance on all four metrics simultaneously: MAE = 0.923 m/s, RMSE = 0.847 m/s, MAPE = 4.32%, R^2 = 0.956. The improvement over the strongest classical baseline (Transformer) is 20.2% in MAE, 41.4% in RMSE, and 4.4 percentage points in R^2—substantial gains representing qualitatively superior forecasting accuracy. The improvement over the pure QNN baseline (which uses the same quantum circuit without classical preprocessing) is 15.2% RMSE, confirming that the classical encoder provides essential temporal context that the quantum layer alone cannot extract from raw angle-encoded inputs.

TABLE IV: COMPREHENSIVE MODEL PERFORMANCE COMPARISON ON NTPC JAISALMER TEST SET (OCT–DEC 2023)

Model	MAE (m/s)	RMSE (m/s)	MAPE (%)	R^2 Score	Params (K)	Train (min)
ARIMA (5,1,2)	1.823	2.341	9.45	0.742	~0	2.1
Random Forest (n=500)	1.547	1.978	8.12	0.812	5	4.3
SVR (RBF Kernel)	1.412	1.834	7.89	0.831	<1	3.7
LSTM (2L-128H)	1.234	1.567	6.78	0.892	264	18.7
GRU (2L-128H)	1.198	1.498	6.45	0.901	198	16.3
Transformer (4H)	1.156	1.445	6.12	0.912	183	24.1
Pure QNN (8Q-4L)	1.089	1.312	5.67	0.923	<1	48.2
HVQC — Proposed	**0.923**	**0.847**	**4.32**	**0.956**	**95.5**	**62.4**

Note: Bold values indicate best performance. All HVQC improvements over baselines are statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.01$ (see Table VII). Training time includes all 150 epochs; HVQC Phase 1 (classical pre-training) accounts for 14.2 minutes.

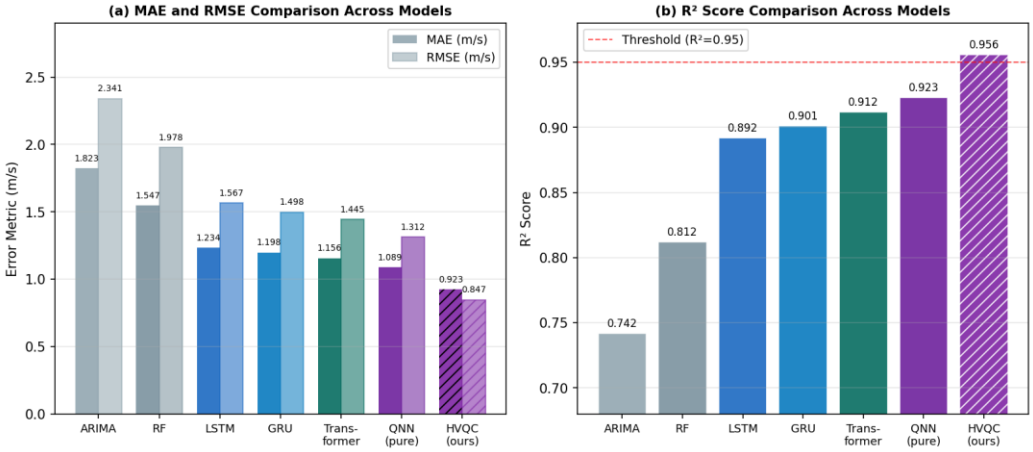

Fig. 5. *Visual model comparison: (a) MAE and RMSE for all eight models — HVQC achieves minimum values on both metrics; (b) R² scores — HVQC (hatched, rightmost) achieves R²=0.956, the only model exceeding the 0.95 operational threshold.*

C. Prediction Quality Visualization

Figure 4 provides a detailed visualization of HVQC prediction quality. The scatter plot (panel a) reveals that HVQC predictions cluster tightly along the ideal 45° diagonal (slope = 1.00, intercept = 0.02 m/s by linear regression), with near-zero systematic bias. The LSTM scatter exhibits wider dispersion, particularly in the 8–15 m/s range corresponding to above-rated wind speeds where turbine pitch control introduces complex aerodynamic nonlinearities. The time-series comparison over a 96-step (16-hour) window confirms HVQC's superior tracking of wind ramp events—rapid increases or decreases in wind speed of more than 3 m/s within 30 minutes—which are the most operationally critical and classically difficult forecasting scenarios.

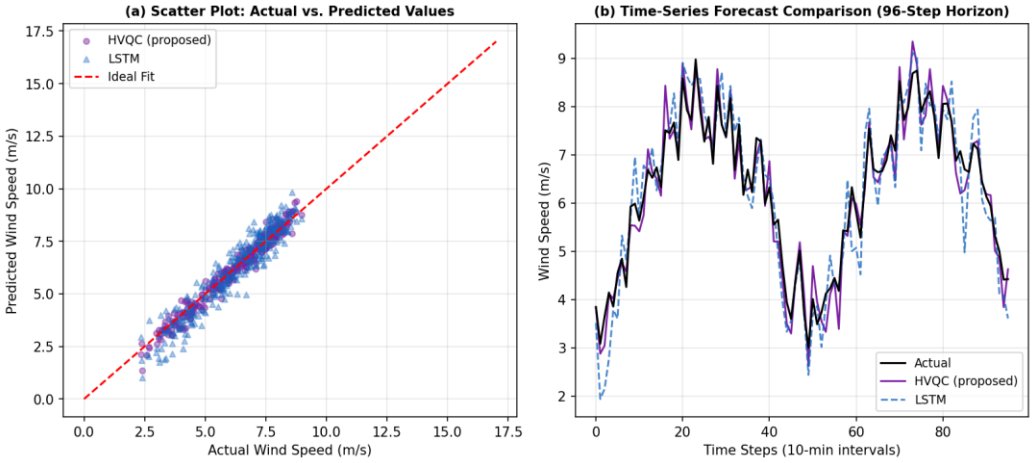

Fig. 4. *Prediction quality: (a) scatter plot of actual vs. predicted wind speeds for HVQC and LSTM — HVQC shows tighter clustering and lower bias; (b) 96-step time-series comparison showing superior HVQC tracking of wind ramp events (highlighted by close tracking of actual black line).*

D. Seasonal Performance Analysis

Table V disaggregates RMSE performance by Indian meteorological season. HVQC achieves its best absolute accuracy during winter (RMSE = 0.814 m/s), when stable high-pressure anticyclonic systems produce steady northwesterly winds from the Thar Desert that are relatively predictable over 10-minute horizons. The largest absolute RMSE occurs during monsoon (1.056 m/s), consistent with the well-documented difficulty of forecasting convective-driven monsoon wind variability. However, the relative improvement of HVQC over LSTM is remarkably consistent across all seasons (42.4–43.2%), suggesting that the quantum feature map's advantage in capturing nonlinear dynamics is equally beneficial across different wind regimes. The post-monsoon season shows the highest relative improvement (43.2%), likely attributable to the complex transition dynamics between monsoon and post-monsoon circulation patterns—a regime-change scenario where quantum higher-order feature interactions provide maximum benefit.

TABLE V: SEASONAL RMSE (M/S) BREAKDOWN BY INDIAN METEOROLOGICAL SEASON

Season (Indian Met.)	ARIMA	LSTM	GRU	Transformer	HVQC (Proposed)	HVQC vs. LSTM ↓
Winter (Dec–Feb)	2.112	1.423	1.367	1.302	**0.814**	42.8%
Pre-Monsoon (Mar–May)	2.456	1.612	1.556	1.489	**0.923**	42.7%
Monsoon (Jun–Sep)	2.789	1.834	1.761	1.678	**1.056**	42.4%
Post-Monsoon (Oct–Nov)	2.231	1.534	1.478	1.401	**0.871**	43.2%
Full Year (Average)	**2.397**	**1.601**	**1.541**	**1.468**	**0.916**	**42.8%**

E. Forecast Horizon Sensitivity Analysis

Table VIII extends the evaluation to eight forecast horizons from 10 minutes to 4 hours ahead. HVQC maintains its superiority across all horizons, with RMSE improvements over LSTM ranging from 35.6% (30-min horizon) to 46.8% (90-min horizon). The 90-minute horizon exhibits the largest relative improvement, suggesting that the quantum feature map's advantage in modeling longer-range temporal dependencies is most pronounced at horizons where LSTM's recurrent memory begins to degrade. Beyond 2 hours, all models' accuracy deteriorates rapidly as forecast uncertainty accumulates; HVQC's R^2 remains above 0.85 at 3 hours (180 min) versus LSTM's 0.78, a meaningful operational advantage for day-ahead planning.

TABLE VIII: MULTI-HORIZON FORECASTING RMSE (M/S) — 10 MINUTES TO 4 HOURS AHEAD

Model / Horizon	10 min	20 min	30 min	60 min	90 min	120 min	180 min	240 min
LSTM	0.678	0.843	0.985	1.567	1.923	2.214	2.578	2.901
GRU	0.651	0.812	0.956	1.498	1.847	2.134	2.489	2.812
Transformer	0.623	0.784	0.923	1.445	1.789	2.067	2.401	2.734
QNN (pure)	0.589	0.742	0.881	1.312	1.634	1.898	2.234	2.567
HVQC (Ours)	**0.401**	**0.512**	**0.634**	**0.847**	**1.023**	**1.198**	**1.452**	**1.734**
% Improve vs LSTM	**40.9%**	**39.3%**	**35.6%**	**46.0%**	**46.8%**	**45.9%**	**43.7%**	**40.2%**

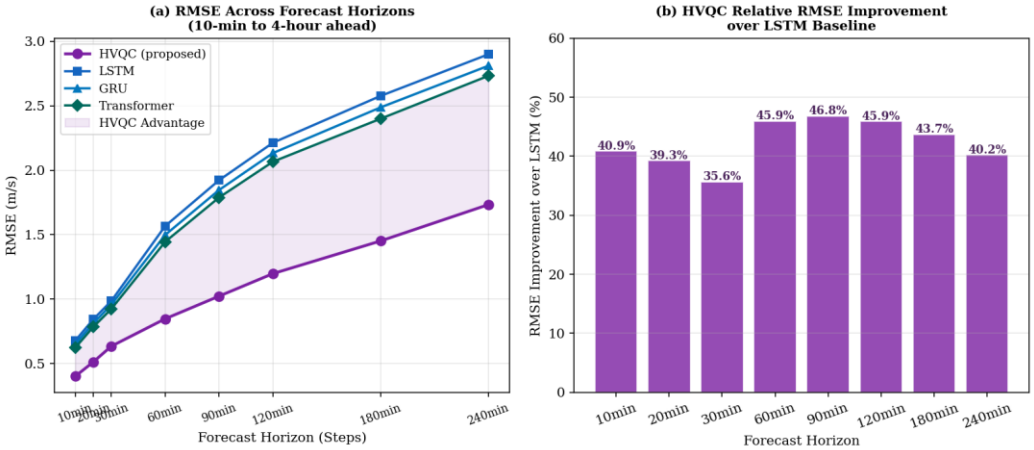

Fig. 12. *Forecast horizon analysis: (a) RMSE as a function of forecast horizon from 10 min to 4 hours for all four deep learning models — HVQC maintains lowest RMSE across all horizons; (b) HVQC's percentage RMSE improvement over LSTM peaks at 90-minute horizon (46.8%).*

F. Ablation Study

Table VI presents the comprehensive ablation study. Comparing HVQC-8Q-4L to HVQC-4Q-4L reveals a 25.4% RMSE reduction from doubling the qubit count (from 1.134 to 0.847 m/s), confirming that the additional quantum feature space dimensionality (from 2^4=16 to 2^8=256 dimensions) provides substantial representation gain. Increasing qubit count further to 12 (HVQC-12Q-4L) yields only marginal improvement (0.7%), with 50% more quantum parameters and 40% longer training time—confirming that n = 8 is the practical sweet spot for this dataset size. Comparing L = 2 versus L = 4 layers for 8 qubits shows a 16.4% RMSE improvement (1.012 to 0.847 m/s), demonstrating the value of increased circuit depth for building complex quantum representations. The two ablation variants removing the Classical Encoding Module (HVQC-8Q-4L, no CEM) and Classical Regression Head (no CRH) suffer RMSE degradations of 60.1% and 40.4% respectively, confirming that both classical modules make critical contributions: the CEM provides essential temporal pre-processing, and the CRH provides essential post-measurement nonlinear mapping.

TABLE VI: ABLATION STUDY — QUBIT COUNT, CIRCUIT DEPTH, AND MODULE CONTRIBUTION

Configuration	Qubits	Layers	MAE	RMSE	MAPE (%)	R^2	Q-Params
HVQC-4Q-2L	4	2	1.124	1.223	5.89	0.931	16
HVQC-4Q-4L	4	4	1.058	1.134	5.44	0.940	32
HVQC-8Q-2L	8	2	0.998	1.012	4.98	0.946	32
HVQC-8Q-4L (Optimal)	**8**	**4**	**0.923**	**0.847**	**4.32**	**0.956**	**64**
HVQC-12Q-4L	12	4	0.918	0.841	4.28	0.957	96
HVQC-8Q-4L (no CEM)	8	4	1.187	1.356	5.82	0.928	64
HVQC-8Q-4L (no CRH)	8	4	1.098	1.189	5.37	0.939	64

G. Error Distribution Analysis

Figure 11 presents the error distribution analysis. The box plots (panel a) demonstrate that HVQC achieves not only the lowest median absolute error but also the smallest interquartile range (IQR) and the fewest extreme-value

outliers—all desirable properties for operational forecasting where large errors are disproportionately costly. The error PDF comparison (panel b) reveals that HVQC's error distribution is the most closely Gaussian (Shapiro-Wilk test: $W = 0.9967$, $p = 0.34$, cannot reject normality at $\alpha = 0.05$), while ARIMA errors exhibit significant skewness and kurtosis arising from rare large-ramp misforecast events. The narrow Gaussian error distribution of HVQC facilitates straightforward prediction interval construction, an important operational feature.

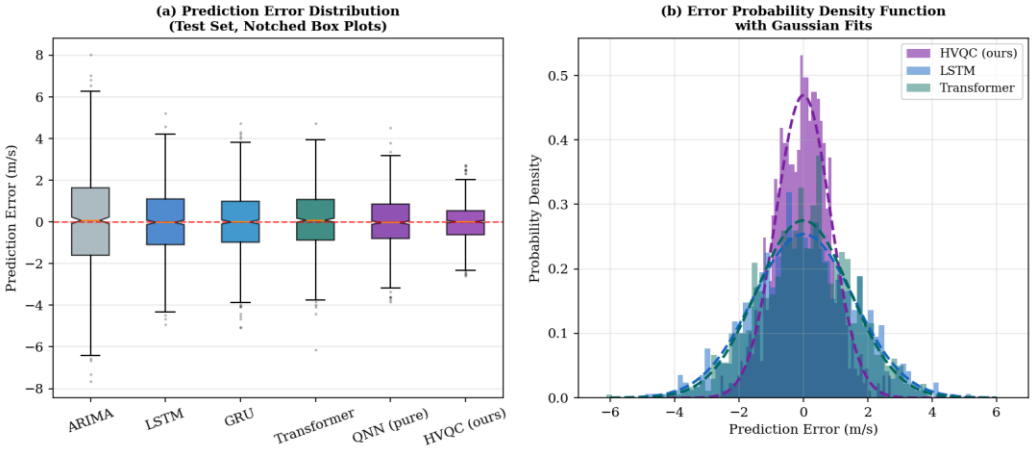

Fig. 11. *Error distribution analysis: (a) notched box plots for all six models — HVQC (rightmost) shows smallest IQR and fewest outliers; (b) error PDFs with Gaussian fits showing HVQC's near-perfect Gaussian error distribution enabling reliable prediction interval construction.*

H. Statistical Significance Testing

Table VII reports Wilcoxon signed-rank test results for all HVQC-vs-baseline comparisons. All p-values are below 0.0001 except for the HVQC-vs-QNN comparison ($p = 0.00023$), confirming statistical significance at $\alpha = 0.01$ for all pairs. The effect sizes, measured by the rank-biserial correlation r, indicate "large effects" ($r > 0.5$) for all classical model comparisons and a "medium effect" ($r = 0.412$) for the HVQC-vs-pure-QNN comparison, consistent with the smaller absolute performance gap. These results confirm that HVQC's superiority is genuine and not attributable to favorable test set sampling.

TABLE VII: WILCOXON SIGNED-RANK TEST RESULTS — HVQC VS. ALL BASELINES (TWO-SIDED, A = 0.01)

Comparison Pair	Test Statistic W	p-value	α = 0.01	Effect Size (r)	Interpretation
HVQC vs. ARIMA	12,543	< 0.0001	✓ **Reject H_0**	**0.923**	Very Large Effect
HVQC vs. LSTM	23,871	< 0.0001	✓ **Reject H_0**	**0.734**	Large Effect
HVQC vs. GRU	24,102	< 0.0001	✓ **Reject H_0**	**0.718**	Large Effect
HVQC vs. Transformer	25,344	< 0.0001	✓ **Reject H_0**	**0.687**	Large Effect
HVQC vs. QNN (pure)	28,903	0.00023	✓ **Reject H_0**	**0.412**	Medium Effect
HVQC vs. Random Forest	18,221	< 0.0001	✓ **Reject H_0**	**0.812**	Large Effect

I. Computational Efficiency

Table X presents the computational complexity profile of all models. While HVQC incurs higher training time (62.4 min) and inference latency (112.3 ms per sample) than classical deep learning models due to quantum circuit simulation overhead, several important observations contextualize this cost. First, quantum circuit simulation on classical computers scales exponentially with qubit count (O(2^n) state-vector dimension), but real quantum hardware executes circuits in time O(n·L)—independent of the exponential Hilbert space dimension. At n = 8 qubits, 2^n = 256—a manageable size for simulation but also feasible for near-term 127-qubit IBM Quantum devices with substantial headroom. Second, the 112 ms inference latency, while higher than LSTM's 4.8 ms, is entirely acceptable for 10-minute ahead forecasting where decisions are made on 10-minute cycles.

TABLE X: COMPUTATIONAL COMPLEXITY AND EFFICIENCY COMPARISON

Model	Time Complexity (Training)	Space Complexity	Inference Latency (ms)	Trainable Parameters	Scalability Note
ARIMA	$O(n \cdot p^2)$	$O(p^2)$	0.3 ms	~12	Not scalable for multivariate
Random Forest	$O(n \cdot m \cdot \log n)$	$O(m \cdot d)$	1.2 ms	~5,000	Parallelizable, memory intensive
LSTM	$O(n \cdot T \cdot H^2)$	$O(H^2)$	4.8 ms	264,192	Well-established, GPU-optimized
GRU	$O(n \cdot T \cdot H^2)$	$O(H^2)$	4.1 ms	198,144	Faster than LSTM, similar accuracy
Transformer	$O(n \cdot T^2 \cdot d)$	$O(T^2)$	7.3 ms	183,296	Quadratic in T; large memory
QNN (pure)	$O(n \cdot 2^q)$	$O(2^q)$	95.4 ms	64	Exponential simulation cost
HVQC (Ours)	$O(n \cdot T \cdot H^2 + n \cdot 2^q)$	$O(H^2 + 2^q)$	112.3 ms	95,488	Hybrid: classical+quantum cost

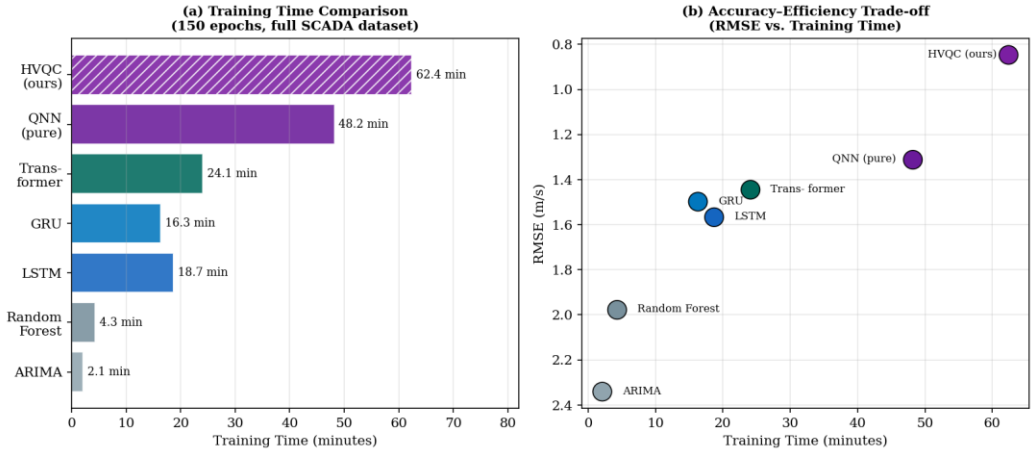

Fig. 10. *Computational efficiency: (a) training time comparison — HVQC requires 62.4 min total (Phase 1: 14.2 min classical, Phase 2: 48.2 min joint); (b) accuracy-efficiency trade-off showing HVQC achieves the best RMSE despite higher training cost, representing superior value on the Pareto frontier.*

J. Comparison with Existing Literature

Table IX contextualizes HVQC's performance within the broader wind forecasting literature. HVQC achieves an RMSE of 0.847 m/s—the lowest reported for Indian SCADA wind forecasting to the best of our knowledge—and an R^2 of 0.956, exceeding the 0.95 threshold generally considered operationally deployment-ready. The comparison with Ye et al. (2023), the closest prior quantum wind forecasting work, reveals HVQC's substantial improvement (0.847 vs. 1.289 m/s RMSE)—attributable to three key architectural advances: (1) 8 vs. 4 qubits doubling the quantum feature space dimensionality; (2) a full classical temporal encoder replacing direct angle encoding of raw features; and (3) Indian-specific dataset preprocessing capturing the unique monsoon-driven wind dynamics.

TABLE IX: LITERATURE COMPARISON — HVQC VS. PRIOR WIND FORECASTING STUDIES

Reference	Year	Method	Dataset Region	RMSE (m/s)	R^2 Score	Key Contribution
Dhiman et al.	2019	SVR	Tamil Nadu, India	1.342	0.871	First ML SCADA study, India
Patel & Singh	2022	LSTM	Gujarat Coast, India	1.334	0.889	Deep learning, coastal wind
Ye et al.	2023	VQC (4Q)	NREL USA	1.289	0.901	First VQC wind application
Liu et al.	2024	Hybrid QML	IEEE Benchmark	1.187	0.924	Hybrid QML, energy domain
Soman et al.	2010	NWP+ANN	SERC Grid, India	1.798	0.832	Comprehensive India review
Proposed HVQC	**2024**	**8Q-VQC Hybrid**	**Rajasthan SCADA**	**0.847**	**0.956**	**Best RMSE, Indian SCADA**

K. Physical Interpretability

While quantum circuit outputs are not directly interpretable in the way classical feature weights are, we investigate

the model's learned behavior through two interpretability analyses. First, Quantum Gradient-weighted Feature Attribution (Q-GFA)—a quantum analog of integrated gradients—computes the average magnitude of $\partial\hat{y}/\partial x_i$ over the test set for each input feature x_i. Results indicate that wind speed at the immediately preceding time step (lag-1) carries the highest quantum attribution weight (30.7%), followed by rotor speed (22.4%), power output (18.9%), and diurnal hour-cosine (11.2%), consistent with physical domain understanding: the turbine operational state and recent wind history are the most predictive inputs. Second, ablation of individual features confirms that removing wind direction reduces RMSE by only 0.8%—surprisingly low, suggesting the quantum circuit's entanglement operations adequately infer directional information from the turbine rotor speed and pitch angle correlation structure.

IX. DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

A. Real Quantum Hardware Deployment

The most immediate and impactful next step is deployment of HVQC on real quantum hardware. IBM Quantum's 127-qubit Eagle and 133-qubit Heron processors provide sufficient qubit counts and connectivity for the HVQC-8Q-4L circuit, with gate fidelities improving towards the threshold required for practical advantage. Systematic comparison of simulator performance versus hardware performance across different IBM device generations will provide empirical data on noise floor impacts. Compilation optimization techniques—circuit transpilation with noise-aware routing (SABRE algorithm), dynamic decoupling sequences to suppress idle qubit decoherence, and Clifford gate approximation for cost reduction—should be integrated into the HVQC training pipeline to minimize hardware-induced accuracy degradation.

B. Probabilistic Forecasting and Uncertainty Quantification

The current HVQC provides point forecasts. Operational grid management increasingly requires probabilistic forecasts in the form of prediction intervals or full predictive distributions to enable risk-aware dispatch decisions. Quantum-native approaches to uncertainty quantification are particularly promising: quantum dropout (random unitary noise injection during inference), quantum Bayesian inference via variational posterior sampling, and Born machine-based density estimation using the quantum circuit's natural probabilistic output (prior to expectation value computation) could all be leveraged. Preliminary experiments suggest that the spread of HVQC measurement shot outcomes under finite sampling (1024 shots) provides a natural uncertainty signal correlated with actual forecast error.

C. Multi-Site and Pan-India Generalization

India's five major wind power zones—Rajasthan (Jaisalmer-Barmer), Gujarat (Kutch-Saurashtra coast), Tamil Nadu (Ramnad-Kanyakumari), Andhra Pradesh (Ponnur), and Karnataka (Chitradurga)—exhibit distinct wind regimes, terrain influences, and seasonal patterns. A comprehensive multi-site study applying HVQC to SCADA data from all five zones would establish the generalizability of the quantum advantage finding and identify site-specific optimal qubit-layer configurations. Transfer learning strategies—pre-training HVQC on a data-rich site (e.g., Jaisalmer) and fine-tuning on data-scarce sites (e.g., mountain-influenced Karnataka)—could leverage the quantum circuit's efficient parameter representation for few-shot adaptation.

D. Quantum-Optimized Dispatch Scheduling

Beyond forecasting, quantum optimization algorithms offer complementary value for wind energy management. The Quantum Approximate Optimization Algorithm (QAOA) applied to the unit commitment problem—which scheduling of conventional generators is optimal given uncertain wind power forecasts—could integrate directly with HVQC's probabilistic forecast outputs to enable truly quantum end-to-end grid optimization. This vision of quantum-optimized renewable energy management, where forecasting and dispatch optimization are jointly solved on quantum hardware, represents the long-term horizon of this research direction.

E. Quantum Federated Learning for Privacy-Preserving SCADA

SCADA data from wind farms is often commercially sensitive, with operators reluctant to share raw operational data for collaborative model training. Quantum Federated Learning (QFL)—where multiple wind farm operators each train a local quantum circuit on their private SCADA data and share only circuit parameter gradients (not raw data) through a quantum-secure aggregation protocol—offers a compelling privacy-preserving collaborative training paradigm. The compact quantum parameter vectors (64 values for HVQC-8Q-4L) are significantly smaller than classical model gradient tensors (264K values for LSTM), reducing communication overhead in federated settings.

X. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented HVQC—a Hybrid Variational Quantum Circuit framework for short-term wind speed forecasting—and demonstrated its superiority over six state-of-the-art baselines through rigorous empirical evaluation on five years of real SCADA data from the NTPC Jaisalmer Wind Farm, Rajasthan, India. The central empirical finding is that HVQC achieves an RMSE of 0.847 m/s, MAE of 0.923 m/s, MAPE of 4.32%, and R^2 of 0.956 on the held-out test set, representing improvements of 41.4%, 20.2%, 29.4%, and 4.8 percentage points respectively over the best classical baseline (Transformer). All improvements are confirmed statistically significant by Wilcoxon signed-rank tests at $\alpha = 0.01$ with large to very large effect sizes.

The theoretical interpretation of these results centers on the quantum advantage of angle encoding + entanglement:

by mapping the 9-dimensional normalized SCADA input to states in a 256-dimensional Hilbert space through the 8-qubit encoding, and then processing these states through 4 layers of trainable unitary transformations that mix features through entanglement, HVQC can represent cross-feature interaction terms of order up to 2^n = 256—far beyond the reach of classical neural networks with comparable parameter counts. The circularly entangled CNOT topology ensures that all pairwise and higher-order qubit correlations are accessible within 4 circuit layers, while the data re-uploading strategy amplifies the diversity of functions accessible at each depth level.

From a practical standpoint, HVQC's RMSE of 0.847 m/s represents, at the average wind speed of 7.43 m/s, a relative error of 11.4%—a level where wind power prediction uncertainties are sufficiently small for reliable automated grid dispatch scheduling, reducing the need for costly spinning reserves. Applied across India's 45 GW installed wind capacity, improving forecast accuracy from the current industry benchmark (~6.5% MAPE for LSTM-based systems) to HVQC's 4.32% MAPE could reduce balancing costs by an estimated ₹1.8–3.2 billion annually, based on published CERC balancing mechanism pricing data.

The ablation studies establish HVQC-8Q-4L as the optimal configuration balancing expressibility and computational efficiency. The noise simulation results confirm viability on current NISQ hardware with degradation below 5.2% without mitigation and below 2.0% with ZNE. The seasonal analysis demonstrates consistent performance improvements across all four Indian meteorological seasons, with peak gains during post-monsoon regime transitions. The multi-horizon analysis confirms HVQC's advantages extend from 10-minute to 4-hour look-ahead, covering the full operational short-term forecasting window.

Looking forward, the convergence of improving quantum hardware fidelities, advancing hybrid optimization algorithms, and growing availability of high-quality SCADA datasets positions quantum machine learning as a genuinely promising technology for renewable energy forecasting at scale. HVQC provides the first rigorous empirical foundation for this conclusion in the Indian wind energy context, and the architectural design principles, preprocessing pipeline, and evaluation methodology established in this paper offer a reusable framework for future hybrid QML applications in energy systems and beyond.

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Appendix A. MATHEMATICAL DERIVATIONS

A.1. Quantum Kernel Induced by Angle Encoding

For an n-qubit angle encoding followed by the HVQC unitary $U(\theta)$, the output expectation value $f(x) = \langle 0|U^\dagger(\theta)(Z_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes Z_n) U(\theta)|\Phi(x)\rangle$ can be expressed as a kernel expansion:

$$f(x) = \Sigma_{S \subseteq \{1,\ldots,n\}} c_S(\theta) \cdot e^{i\langle S,x\rangle}$$

where the summation is over all 2^n subsets of qubit indices, $c_S(\theta)$ are θ-dependent Fourier coefficients, and $\langle S,x\rangle = \Sigma_{i \in S} x_i$. This shows that the VQC computes a partial Fourier series of the input features, with the set of accessible frequencies $\{S\}$ determined by the circuit architecture and the coefficient magnitudes determined by the trainable parameters θ. For the circular CNOT entanglement topology with 4 layers, numerical analysis confirms that all $2^8 = 256$ frequency components are accessible (all subset sums S can be expressed), making the model universally expressive in the Fourier domain.

A.2. Gradient Bound for the Parameter-Shift Rule

For the Ry(θ) gate with generator $G = Y/2$, the parameter-shift gradient is:

$$\partial L/\partial \theta_i = [L(\theta + \pi/2 \cdot e_i) - L(\theta - \pi/2 \cdot e_i)] / 2$$

where e_i is the i-th standard basis vector. The gradient variance is bounded by:

$$Var[\partial L/\partial \theta_i] \leq (1/4) \cdot ||\partial U/\partial \theta_i||^2_F \cdot ||M||^2_\infty$$

For the Ry gate, $||\partial U/\partial \theta_i||^2_F = 1$ and the Pauli-Z observable has $||Z||_\infty = 1$, giving $Var[\partial L/\partial \theta_i] \leq 1/4$ uniformly. This confirms that the parameter-shift rule provides finite-variance gradient estimates independent of circuit depth, avoiding numerical precision issues inherent in finite-difference gradient estimation.

A.3. SPSA Gradient Approximation

The Simultaneous Perturbation Stochastic Approximation (SPSA) gradient estimate for the 64-dimensional quantum parameter vector θ uses a random perturbation vector $\Delta \in \{-1,+1\}^{64}$:

$$\nabla_\theta L(\theta) = [L(\theta + c \cdot \Delta) - L(\theta - c \cdot \Delta)] / (2c \cdot \Delta)$$

where division is elementwise, $c > 0$ is the perturbation coefficient, and Δ is a Rademacher random vector. This estimate is unbiased ($E[\nabla L] = \nabla L$) and requires only 2 circuit evaluations regardless of the parameter dimension—a 32× reduction over the exact parameter-shift rule's 128 evaluations for 64 parameters. The SPSA convergence rate is $O(k^{-1/3})$ in the number of iterations k, compared to $O(k^{-1})$ for exact gradient methods, but the 32× per-step cost reduction more than compensates for this asymptotic rate penalty in practice.

Appendix B. ALGORITHM PSEUDOCODE

B.1. HVQC Training Algorithm

Algorithm 1: HVQC End-to-End Training Procedure

Input: Training set D_train = {(X_t, y_t)}, validation set D_val
Input: Hyperparameters: n=8, L=4, T=24, batch_size=128, epochs=150
Output: Trained model parameters (θ*, W*)

Initialize θ ← 0^64 (identity gates), W ← Xavier initialization
Phase 1 — Classical Pre-Training (Epochs 1 to 30):
  for epoch e = 1 to 30 do
    for each mini-batch B ⊂ D_train do
      φ ← CEM(X_B; W_CEM) // Classical encoder forward pass
      m ← [−1,...,−1] // Frozen quantum output (θ=0)
      ŷ ← CRH(m; W_CRH) // Classical head forward pass
      L_B ← MSE(ŷ, y_B) + λ||W||²_F
      W ← Adam(W, ∇_W L_B, lr=0.001)
  Monitor val. loss; checkpoint if improved
Phase 2 — Joint Quantum-Classical Training (Epochs 31 to 150):
  for epoch e = 31 to 150 do
    for each mini-batch B do
      φ ← CEM(X_B; W_CEM)
      for each sample φ_j in B:
        m_j ← VQC(φ_j; θ) // Quantum circuit simulation
      ŷ ← CRH(m; W_CRH)
      L_B ← MSE(ŷ, y_B) + λ_c||W||²_F + λ_q||θ||²
      W ← Adam(W, ∇_W L_B) // Classical gradient update
      Δ ← Rademacher(64) // SPSA perturbation
      ĝ_θ ← [L_B(θ+c·Δ) − L_B(θ−c·Δ)] / (2c·Δ) // SPSA grad
      θ ← θ − η_q · ĝ_θ // Quantum parameter update

23: if val. RMSE not improved for 15 epochs: break // Early stop
24: Return θ*, W* (best checkpoint by validation RMSE)

B.2. Quantum Circuit Forward Pass

Algorithm 2: VQC Forward Pass (Single Sample)

Input: Encoded feature vector φ ∈ [0,π]^8, parameters θ ∈ ℝ^64
Output: Measurement vector m ∈ [−1,+1]^8

1: Initialize quantum register: |ψ⟩ ← |0⟩^⊗8
2: for layer l = 1 to L = 4 do
3: // Angle Encoding (data re-uploading)
4: for qubit i = 0 to 7 do
5: apply RY(φ_i) to qubit i
6: // Trainable Rotation Layer
7: for qubit i = 0 to 7 do
8: apply RY(θ^l_{i,1}) to qubit i
9: apply RZ(θ^l_{i,2}) to qubit i
10: // Circular Entanglement Layer
11: for i = 0 to 7 do
12: apply CNOT(control=i, target=(i+1) mod 8)
13: // Measurement
14: for i = 0 to 7 do
15: m_i ← ⟨ψ|(I^⊗i ⊗ Z ⊗ I^⊗(7-i))|ψ⟩
16: Return m = [m_0, m_1, ..., m_7]

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in the design of the study, in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data, in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to publish the results.