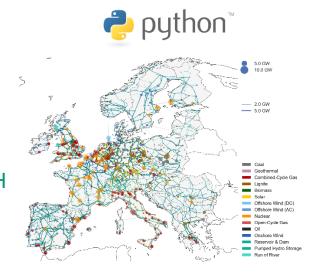




Energy System Modeling with Python

University of Freiburg (Germany) | Faculty of Engineering
Department of Sustainable Systems Engineering | INATECH
Chair for Control and Integration of Grids



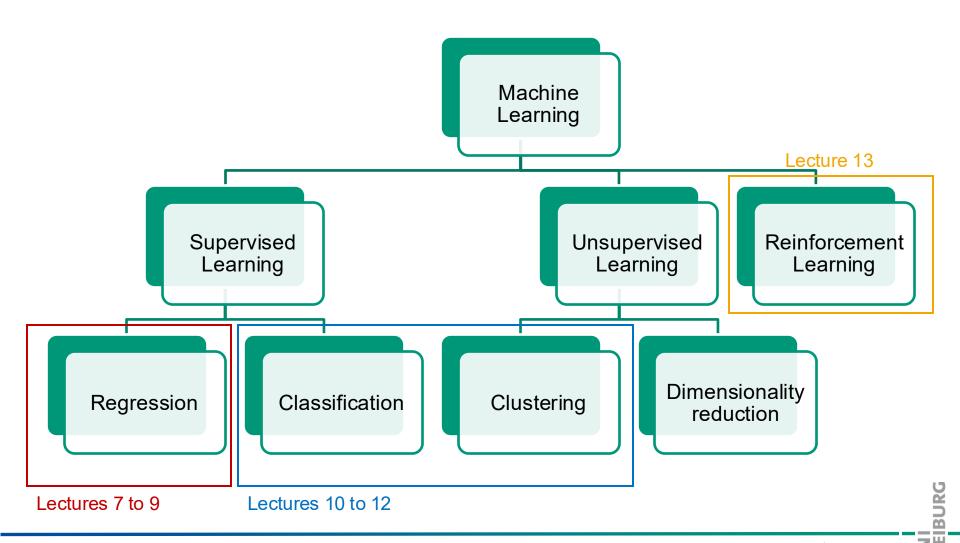
Tuesday, 3. June 2025







Branches of ML



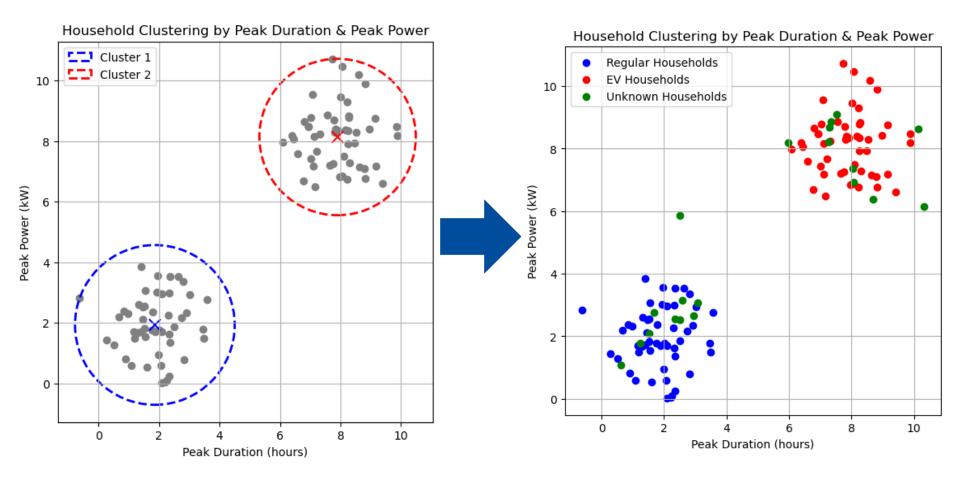
Theoretical part

From Un- to Supervised Learning

- ▶ Last lecture: labels were not available → Unsupervised learning to discover structure in data without labels (e.g., clustering similar load profiles)
- **Now**: labels are available → move to **supervised learning** to learn a function $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$, where
 - \mathcal{X} = input features,
 - *y* = discrete class labels
- ➤ **Task:** predict class $y \in \{0, 1, ..., K-1\}$ from features $x \in R^d$

Find $h(x) \approx y$ with $y \in \{\text{class labels}\}$

Problem Formulation



Regression vs Classification

What changes when we add labels? → Depends on the type of label

Regression:

- Target variable $y \in R$ (continuous)
- Goal: predict precise numeric output
- Typical loss: Mean Squared Error (MSE)

Classification:

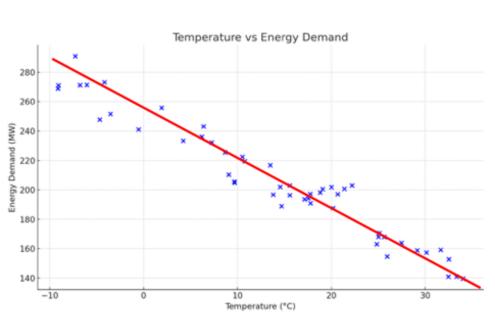
- Target variable $y \in \{0, 1, ..., K-1\}$ (discrete)
- Goal: assign input to one of K classes
- Typical loss: Cross-Entropy or 0-1 loss (more later)

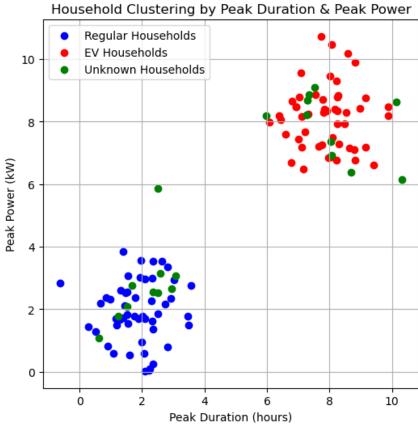
Consequences for model behavior:

- Regression → continuous output
- Classification → probability or discrete label



Regression vs Classification





Energy-System Examples: Regression vs Classification

| Task | Label Type | Goal | Method Type |
|-------------------------------|--|----------------------------|----------------|
| Demand Forecasting | Continuous (kWh) | Predict numeric load | Regression |
| Device Type Classification | Multi-class (e.g., heat pump, boiler,) | Identify type | Classification |
| Anomaly Detection | Binary or multi- class | Detect and classify faults | Classification |
| Price Estimation | Continuous (€/MWh) | Predict future price | Regression |

- Choosing the correct ML formulation depends on the *nature of the label*
- Common tasks in energy systems involve **both** regression and classification

Loss & Cost Refresher

- You've already seen this in regression:
 - Loss = error for one example
 - *Cost* = average loss over training set
- Same structure holds for classification, but with different loss functions
- Classification requires losses suitable for discrete outputs
- We'll look at:
 - 0-1 Loss (ideal, non-differentiable)
 - Hinge Loss (Support Vector Machine SVM)
 - Cross-Entropy Loss (used today)

Classification Loss Functions – Overview

0–1 Loss

$$\mathcal{L}(y, \hat{y}) = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ if } y = \hat{y} \\ 1 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Directly measures classification accuracy
- Not differentiable → not usable for gradient descent

Hinge Loss (SVMs)

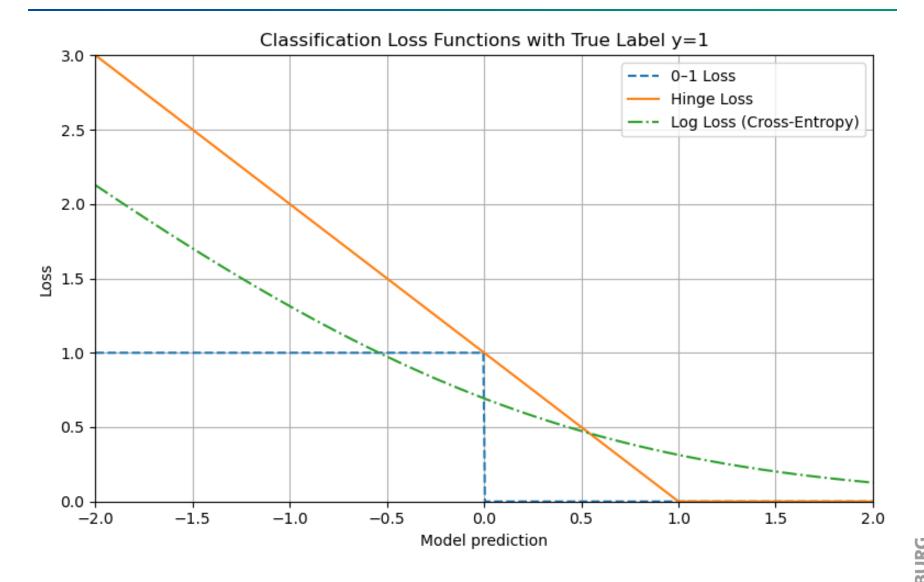
$$\mathcal{L}(y, \hat{y}) = \max(0, 1 - y \cdot \hat{y})$$

- Promotes large margins
- Used in Support Vector Machines

Log Loss / Cross-Entropy (our focus)

- Smooth, convex
- Measures probability error
- Used in logistic regression & neural networks

Classification Loss Functions – Overview



Cross-Entropy Loss (Binary Case)

- Used in binary classification, especially with logistic regression
- Prediction using sigmoid function:

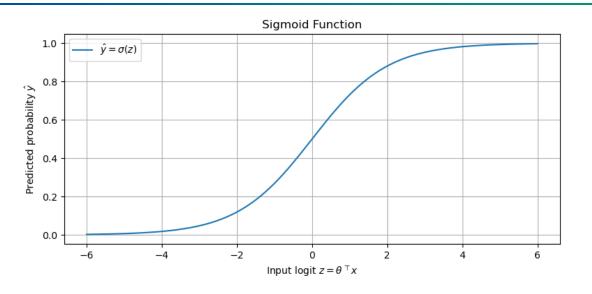
$$\hat{y} = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}, \quad z = \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x$$

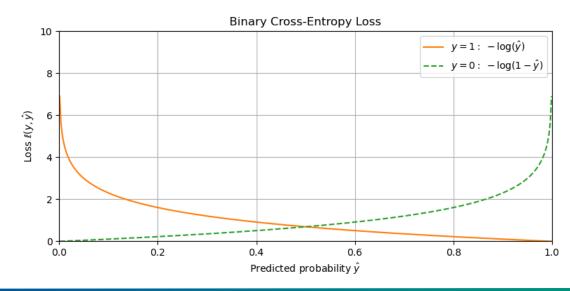
Binary Cross-Entropy Loss:

$$\mathcal{L}(y, \hat{y}) = -(y \log(\hat{y}) + (1 - y) \log(1 - \hat{y}))$$

- > Intuition:
 - Penalizes confident wrong predictions heavily
 - Encourages well-calibrated probabilities

Cross-Entropy Loss (Binary Case)





Classification Models

Logistic Regression – Probabilistic Classifier

Model form:

$$\hat{y} = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$
 where $z = \theta^{T} x$

Training objective: minimize binary cross-entropy

$$J(\theta) = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} [y_i \log \hat{y}_i + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \hat{y}_i)]$$

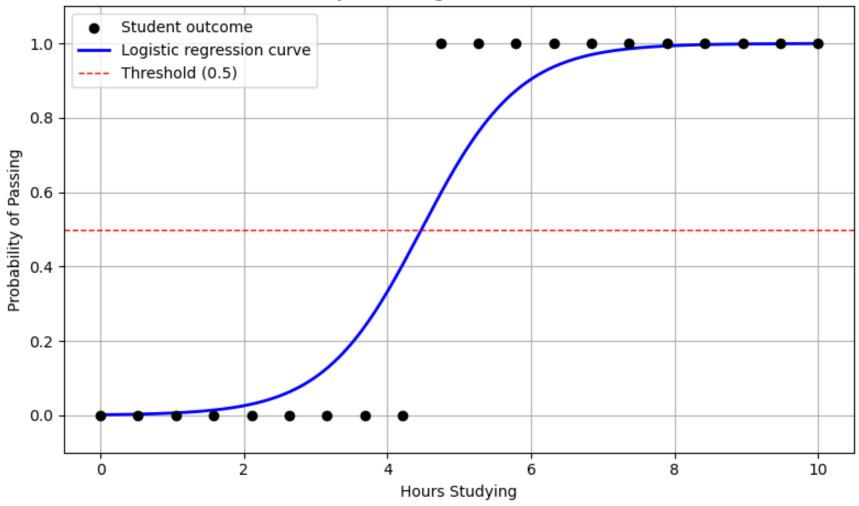
- Optimized via **gradient-based methods** (e.g. gradient descent)
- Output $\hat{y} \in (0,1)$ is a **probability** estimate for class 1
- **Decision rule:**

Predict class =
$$\begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } \hat{y} \ge \tau \\ 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Logistic regression learns a **linear decision boundary** in feature space

Logistic Regression – Probabilistic Classifier





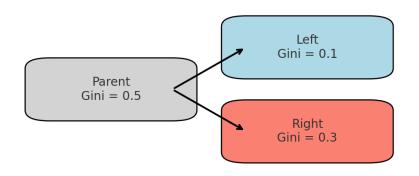
Random Forest Classifier – Splits & Impurity

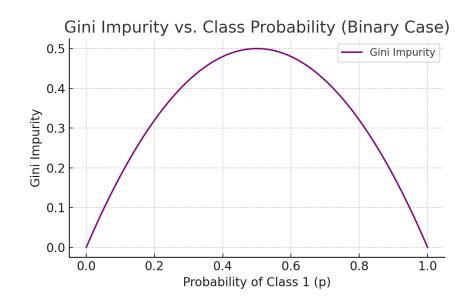
- > Ensemble of trees built on bootstrapped samples & random feature subsets
- Trees choose splits that maximize impurity reduction
- **Node impurity** quantifies class mix:

Gini: $1 - \sum_k p_k^2$

Entropy: $-\sum_k p_k \log_2 p_k$

Regression trees instead minimize MSE at each split Toy Tree Node: Gini Impurity Before and After Split



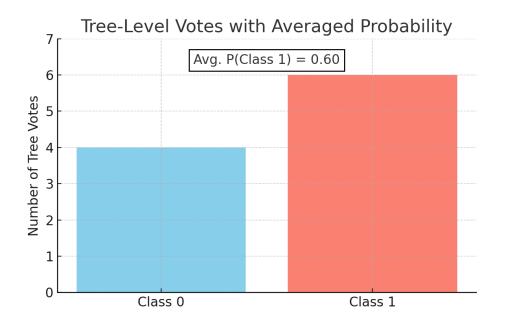


Random Forest Classifier – Voting & Probabilities

- **Hard vote**: final class = majority of tree predictions
- Soft vote: class k probability

$$P(y = k \mid x) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} 1\{h_t(x) = k\}$$

- Probabilities enable thresholding and confidence analysis
- **Regression trees** instead use average of the trees



LightGBM for Classification – What Changes?

- ▶ LightGBM = gradient boosting → models built sequentially, each new tree fits the gradient of the loss
- You've seen this for regression:
 - Loss: MSE
 - Gradients: residuals $y_i \hat{y}_i$
- > For classification:
 - Loss = binary cross-entropy

$$\mathcal{L}(y, \hat{y}) = -(y \log(\hat{y}) + (1 - y) \log(1 - \hat{y}))$$

- Gradients = from this loss, based on predicted probabilities
- Output is a logit score, converted via sigmoid:

$$\hat{y} = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

- Supports:
 - **Hard predictions** via thresholding (e.g., 0.5)
 - **Probabilistic outputs** for metric evaluation

Performance Metrics

Confusion Matrix Fundamentals

- **Definition of terms**
 - True Positive (TP): model predicts 1, actual = 1
 - > False Positive (FP): model predicts 1, actual = 0
 - False Negative (FN): model predicts 0, actual = 1
 - > True Negative (TN): model predicts 0, actual = 0
- > **Purpose:** all classification metrics derive from these four counts
- Cost implications: different errors carry different real-world costs (e.g., missed fault vs. false alarm)

| | Predicted 1 | Predicted 0 |
|----------|-------------|-------------|
| Actual 1 | TP | FN |
| Actual 0 | FP | TN |

Precision & Recall Trade-off

Precision (P): also known as positive predictive value

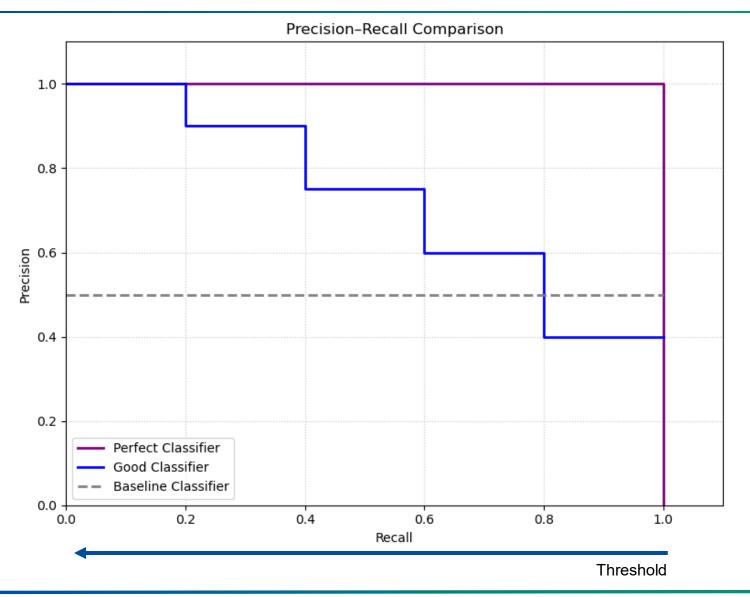
$$P = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

- "Of all predicted positives, how many were correct?"
- Recall (R): also known as sensitivity

$$R = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

- ✓ "Of all actual positives, how many did we catch?"
- Trade-offs:
 - ✓ raising threshold → ↑precision, ↓recall;
 - ✓ lowering threshold → ↑recall, ↓precision
- When to prioritize:
 - ✓ High precision → costly false positives (e.g., dispatching crews)
 - ✓ High recall → costly misses (e.g., undetected faults)

Precision & Recall Trade-off



F1 Score & Averaging

F1 score combines precision and recall into one metric:

$$F1 = 2 \times \frac{\text{Precision} \times \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$$

Why F1? Balances false positives and false negatives when both matter.

Averaging for multi-class:

- Macro-F1
 - Compute F1 for each class independently and take the unweighted mean:

$$Macro - F1 = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} F1_k$$

- Treats all classes equally → highlights poor performance on rare classes
- Weighted-F1
 - Compute F1 for each class, then weight by support n_k :

Weighted-F1 =
$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{k=1}^{K}n_k F1_k$$
, where $N=\sum_k n_k$

Reflects dataset composition → gives more influence to common classes

F1 Score & Averaging

Averaging for multi-class:

Macro-F1

Compute F1 for each class independently and take the **unweighted mean**:

$$Macro - F1 = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} F1_k$$

Treats all classes equally → highlights poor performance on rare classes

Weighted-F1

Compute F1 for each class, then weight by support n_k :

Weighted-F1 =
$$\frac{1}{N}\sum_{k=1}^{K} n_k F1_k$$
, where $N = \sum_k n_k$

Reflects dataset composition → gives more influence to common classes

| Class | F1 | Support n_k |
|-------------|-------------------------------|---------------|
| Α | 0.90 | 100 |
| В | 0.60 | 20 |
| Macro-F1 | (0.90+0.60)/2 = 0.75 | |
| Weighted-F1 | (100.0.90+20.0.60)/120 = 0.85 | |

Example – Confusion Matrix & Classification Report

Confusion Matrix

| Predicted ↓ \ True → | Baseline | EV |
|-------------------------|----------|----|
| Baseline | 191 | 9 |
| EV | 9 | 41 |

Classification Report

| Class | Precision | Recall | F1-Score | Support |
|--------------|-----------|--------|----------|---------|
| Baseline | 0.95 | 0.95 | 0.95 | 200 |
| EV | 0.82 | 0.82 | 0.82 | 50 |
| Accuracy | | | 0.93 | 250 |
| Macro avg | 0.89 | 0.89 | 0.89 | 250 |
| Weighted avg | 0.93 | 0.93 | 0.93 | 250 |

Key Takeaways from Classification Report

- High overall accuracy (0.93) hides class imbalance effects
- **Baseline class (n=200):** precision & recall = $0.95 \rightarrow \text{very reliable}$
- **EV class (n=50):** precision & recall = $0.82 \rightarrow$ notably weaker performance
- **Macro-F1 = 0.89** < overall accuracy → equal weighting reveals minority-class challenges
- Weighted-F1 = 0.93 ≈ accuracy → majority class dominates the aggregate metric
- Next steps: focus on improving EV detection (e.g., resampling, class weights, tailored) features)

Unbalanced Datasets

Imbalanced Datasets – Why It's a Problem

Confusion Matrix

| Predicted \downarrow \ True \rightarrow | Baseline | EV |
|---|----------|----|
| Baseline | 90 | 10 |
| EV | 0 | 0 |

Classification Report

| | | | - | |
|--------------|-----------|--------|----------|---------|
| Class | Precision | Recall | F1-Score | Support |
| Baseline | 0.90 | 1.0 | 0.95 | 90 |
| EV | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 10 |
| Accuracy | | | 0.90 | 100 |
| Macro avg | 0.45 | 0.50 | 0.47 | 100 |
| Weighted avg | 0.81 | 0.90 | 0.85 | 100 |

- **Definition:** one class (majority) far outnumbers the other(s) (minority)
- Naïve accuracy trap:
 - Suppose Baseline:EV = 90:10 ratio
 - Always predicting "Baseline" → 90% accuracy, but **zero** detection of EV
- Real-world stakes:
 - In **fault detection**, rare faults may be only 1–5% of data
 - Missing every fault → catastrophic consequences despite high accuracy
- **Key insight:** accuracy alone is **misleading** under imbalance



Coffee Break



Time to put everything into code



What You'll Do in Code Today

Goal:

Assign missing households their correct demand-response device type.

Main Steps:

- **Load data** (household profiles + known device labels)
- **Feature extraction** (reuse last exercise's time-series summary pipeline)
- 3. **Split** into training and test sets (stratified by device type)
- **Train** three classifiers:
 - **Logistic Regression**
 - **Random Forest Classifier**
 - c. LightGBM Classifier
- **Evaluate** on test set:
 - **Confusion matrix** for each model
 - **Classification report** (precision, recall, F1, support)
 - Macro-F1 and weighted-F1 comparisons
- **Compare** model behavior and decision making



Takeaways

- Classification tasks require appropriate loss functions (cross-entropy) and evaluation metrics beyond accuracy
- Logistic Regression, Random Forest, and LightGBM offer different trade-offs in interpretability, non-linearity, and handling of rare classes
- Macro-F1 vs Weighted-F1 reveal performance on minority classes
- **Unbalanced datasets** can often be an issue and require special treatment

Further Questions to Think About

- How might you **improve detection** of the rarest device class?
- When would you choose **one classifier** over another in production?
- How could **threshold tuning** or **class weighting** further boost performance?
- What additional **features** might capture device-specific behavior more effectively?