

Light GBM and SVM algorithms for Predicting Synthetic Load Profiles for Electric Power Distribution System Using a Non-Intrusive Approach

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Abstract: Due to related uncertainties brought by changes in energy consumption and the integration of rooftop photovoltaic systems, the accuracy and availability of load profiling data are difficult to achieve. However, project managers and planners use a precise load profile as a crucial tool when determining whether the feeder must be updated or de-loaded. The paper aims to apply a non-intrusive machine learning (ML) technique that predicts the synthetic load profile behavior of an Electric Power Distribution System using a Light Gradient Boosted and Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithm. The most effective ML algorithm is chosen, and it has the potential to be assessed and verified using validation curves, residuals model generation, and prediction error metrics based on the following key statistical indicators: Mean Absolute Error, Mean Square Error, Root Mean Square Error, R-Square, Root Mean Squared Logarithmic Error, and Mean Absolute Percentage Error. The most effective ML has the potential to be assessed and verified using validation curves, residual model generation, and prediction error metrics based on the following key statistical indicators. The result shows that the estimation of the Irms avg -based on LightGBM is more accurate than the SVM because of its quick, economical, and difficult to overfit, particularly with high-dimensional data, speed, and efficiency of the MAE (3.0698), MSE (15.2757), RMSE (3.9020), RMSLE (0.1433), and MAPE (0.0049) respectively. Additionally, the machine learning model shows that, when compared to the SVM, the LightGBM model had the highest accurate prediction, with R-Square values of 89.8%, 90.3%, and 88.5% for Irms_A_avg, Irms_B_avg, and Irms_C_avg, respectively for Brakfontein Substation supply region, and best represents a diverse customer base.

***Keywords:** Light Gradient Boosted; Machine learning; Non-Intrusive Approach; electric load forecasting; Support Vector Machine; Synthetic Load Profile.

1. Introduction

The complexity of power system construction, planning, and operation is increasing as the energy transition progresses. There are significant limitations with traditional manual analysis methods for quickly and accurately assessing the dynamic security region of power systems, such as rule roughness and low calculation efficiency, whereas data mining approaches could provide a novel way to overcome such issues [1]. The predictive ability to accurately calculate load profiles is critical for building reliable and cost-effective power systems. It can cut operating expenses, optimize dispatching, and make unit maintenance and overhaul easier to schedule, achieving dispatching's economic logic [2]. It is challenging to predict daily load since it mostly depends on previous days' loads as well as other variables like temperature and calendar

influence [3]. The industrial, commercial, and residential power consumption on the electrical grid demonstrates quick growth characteristics with a significant increase in economic and social levels. However, there are apparent differences in the load characteristics of diverse consumers because production processes vary and because different industries use energy at different times of the day [4, 5]. Specific loads experience significant swings in their peak and trough during brief periods [6]. Consequently, a crucial and challenging topic of research is how completely to evaluate the power load parameters for accurate load forecasting [7]. Demand predictions are the most important component of the demand-side idea of intelligent grids because they allow those in charge of the smart grid to make decisions.

Deep learning systems have recently shown promising results in predicting energy

use. In terms of machine learning methods, some commonly used algorithms are artificial neural networks, support vector machines (SVM), and Gaussian processes (GP). The two most frequent methods are back propagation (BP) neural network and SVM [8]. Gradient boosting models have been successful in estimating building energy usage in recent years. The authors of [9] integrated deep learning models like the temporal convolutional network (TCN) into the tree-based model LightGBM [10], which outperformed other artificial intelligence methods like the support vector regressor (SVR) and long short-term memory (LSTM). Aside from improved performance, the significance of features in tree-based ensemble models can be readily conveyed by a score representing the value of each feature as a splitting node in each tree. XGBoost [11] is another effective tree-based model for forecasting multi-step heat loads; it outperformed SVR and deep neural networks (DNNs) [12]. A similar day selection technique based on the XGBoost algorithm output feature importance score was proposed by [13]. The task of predicting load involves many different dimensions and aspects of ML algorithms are good at detecting patterns that appear to be random, numerical approaches like curve fitting are inaccurate. However, the preceding approaches do not consider time series correlation, therefore they cannot successfully converge when there are a large number of training samples.

A synthetic load that is generated from a profile can to some extent, resemble a real load. To synthesize load data, specific daily load profiles are created each year using hourly load data. By analyzing the collected load data, it is feasible to determine the load profiles of the clients [14]. Metropolitan municipality's primary goal is to improve its residents' quality of life by offering a range of services. The South African municipality can develop and carry out strategic initiatives to achieve its organizational goals, since it is one of the most important aspects of developing a reliable distribution network, an accurate load profile is essential. One way to provide services is to provide power to both formal and informal townships; this is accomplished through

various programs and portfolios [15, 16, 17]. Ensure the dependability of the system, this entails keeping an eye on population expansion and enhancing the medium voltage (MV) distribution network. However, due to the surge in illegal electrical connections and people residing in their backyards, the City of Tshwane's Energy and Electrical Division (COT) is having difficulties in implementing these programs and portfolios. It is required to use a more thorough approach to computing and data analysis to ensure that the city's reliability management systems for the medium voltage (MV) distribution network are optimized to the maximum extent possible. The MV distribution network can generate synthetic load profiles using a computer application with the fewest possible human errors [18, 19, 20]. Figure 1 shows the integration of the medium voltage network into the system using a typical distribution network configuration for COT.

Therefore, the paper proposes a non-intrusive monitoring system that analyzes the full house load demand curve using a Light Gradient Boosted and Support Vector Machine to evaluate the features of specific electric appliances. The main contributions of this paper are as follows.

1. We propose LightGBM and SVM algorithms and demonstrate that LightGBM is more accurate than the SVM because of its quick, economical, and challenging to over fit, particularly with high-dimensional data, speed, and efficiency.
2. We applied machine learning models to estimate the load profiles for the electric power distribution system using LightGBM and SVM kernels to determine the load profiles for the electricity distribution network in Tshwane municipality.
3. We present a machine learning model that shows when compared to the SVM, the LightGBM model had the highest accurate prediction, with R-Square values of 89.8%, 90.3%, and 88.5% for $Irms_A_avg$, $Irms_B_avg$, and $Irms_C_avg$, respectively for Brakfontein Substation supply region, and best represents a diverse customer base.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 goes over studies on related works on the current state of load profiling and power demand modeling techniques. Section 3 addresses the methods, while

Section 4 discusses the results. Section 5 introduces the conclusion.

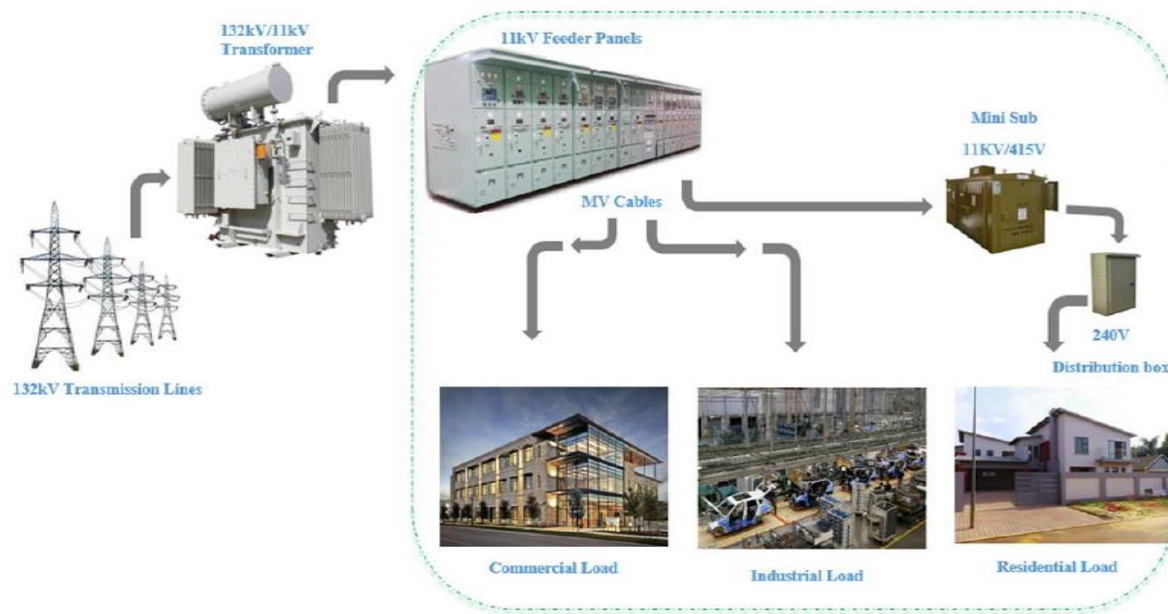


Figure 1. Integration of the medium voltage network into the system using a typical distribution network configuration for COT.

2. Related works on the Current State of Load Profiling and Power Demand Modeling Techniques

The electrical load patterns of users were previously grouped using models based on clustering methodologies to help with tariff design, short-term forecasting, and demand response programs to support management decisions. In developing countries, accurate electric load forecasting (ELF) is essential for carrying out energy policy effectively. Furthermore, accurate forecasts of the electric power load are essential for the management and planning of several organizations. For instance, it might have an impact on load shedding, contract evaluation, and infrastructure development. However, because the cost of an error is so high, it will be worthwhile to conduct research into forecasting strategies that could lower this by just a few percentage points [21]. Long-term load estimates often cover more than one year, while short-term load projections typically cover a period between one hour and one week. As a result, short-term forecasting is essential for keeping an eye on and

managing electricity systems [22]. Projecting daily load, however, is challenging because it mostly depends on the load from the previous day, as well as other variables like temperature and the calendar [23]. The industrial, commercial, and residential power consumption on the electrical grid demonstrates quick growth characteristics with a significant increase in economic and social levels. However, there are noticeable differences in the load characteristics of diverse consumers due to the disparate manufacturing processes and peak and trough times of energy demand among industries [24,25].

The load characteristics of energy consumers also change depending on the time of year, the weather, average days, where power is consumed, and other factors. Because individual loads fluctuate greatly in a short amount of time, there is a big difference between peak and trough [26]. Consequently, a crucial and challenging topic of research is how to comprehensively evaluate the power load parameters for accurate load forecasting [27]. The general expansion of the energy

infrastructure as well as population growth is responsible for the sharp increase in power demand. The use of "intelligent grids" is being made to successfully manage this increasing demand [28]. Demand predictions are the most important component of the demand-side idea of intelligent grids because they allow those in charge of the smart grid to make decisions. Short-term (from a few hours to a few days), medium-term, and long-term load forecasting are the three types available. The task of load forecasting involves many different dimensions and aspects. Because machine learning algorithms are so good at detecting patterns that appear to be random, numerical approaches like curve fitting are inaccurate. The paper aims to create a non-intrusive monitoring system that evaluates the behavior of each electric appliance based on a Light Gradient Boosted Machine (LightGBM) machine learning (ML) technique for producing synthetic load profiles.

Demand-side management and software control in the distribution network are empirical because every grid design may be simulated using different parameters. Electricity is produced and utilized on demand; it cannot be produced in large quantities and stored for use later. Several power demand modeling techniques that help with load prediction are explained in this section. The demand for residential, commercial, industrial, and other consumer characteristics may be predicted using a variety of machine learning and mathematical techniques for modeling electricity consumption [29, 30, 31, 32, 33]. Some of the methods utilized in earlier research include probability matrices and time series, linear auto-regression, Markov chains, Time-Use Survey data, autoregressive integrated moving average (ARIMA), artificial neural network (ANN), and multiple linear regression (MLR). These several techniques were used to cross-validate the results and were chosen depending on the type, quality, and quantity of available data. When a researcher has a lot of data gathered over a long enough period to cover the necessary population or sample size, for example, time series analysis is ideal since it accurately

forecasts data [34]. The Holt-Winters (HWT) exponential smoothing model and Autoregressive Moving-Average (ARMA) approaches are the most used due to their ability to handle time-series data with patterns [35]. Fuzzy logic, on the other hand, is less ideal since expert systems rely on rules that are generated from the experiences of experts and operators. Another study focuses on modeling power demand regarding consumption patterns and cost and alternative energy sources. To explore the relationship between pricing and client consumption patterns, for instance, Author [36] built a multinomial logic model; the data were analyzed, and a response was produced. To regulate consumption patterns, a variety of pricing schemes (including fixed rate, variable rate, ladder pricing, single price, time-varying pricing, and others) have been studied. [37].

Adding useful features to energy consumption predictions can enhance accuracy. Because building energy consumption has multiple daily patterns, labeling various patterns can help increase forecasting accuracy. The most straightforward way is to identify the daily pattern of building energy usage with a time-series clustering algorithm such as k-shape [38], or k-means [39]. The historical energy data of a building can be separated into groups with various patterns using time-series clustering. The problem in applying a load pattern to STLF is that we cannot name the predicting day's pattern until we know the actual load numbers. As a result, previous studies solely used clustering techniques in the preprocessing step. Ref. [40] discovered that k-shape clustering can aid in appropriately labeling a building's principal space consumption to improve building performance benchmarking and analysis. The authors of [41] used cluster analysis to discover daily heating load trends for both the training and test sets. To circumvent the contradiction, academics have created other approaches for labeling forecasting day patterns.

Based on numerous findings from the literature, First, tree-based models such as SVM and LightGBM algorithms are promising; further research on feature engineering should

be undertaken to increase their predicting performance. Second, most load pattern methods focus on day type and weather type, which are not equal to actual load patterns that are vital for building load forecasting. Because the forecasting day load is uncertain, a stochastic approach should be used to predefine the forecasting days' energy load pattern. Finally, a recursive multistep load forecasting algorithm produces better results, but at a higher calculation cost.

3. Methods

The two techniques of Gradient-Based Side Sampling and the EFB combine to provide the characteristics of the LightGBM Algorithm. The lightGBM was utilized in this study to predict the load profiles for the electricity distribution system. These algorithms include deep learning and shallow learning models, ensemble learning strategies, and traditional learning strategies like linear regression and support vector machines. They also include linear and nonlinear approaches. The Python program Pycaret is used to build the lightGBM model [42]. The construction of the Light Gradient Boosting Machine model for forecasting pillar stability, which was developed using Python 3.10 in Anaconda 3. It is easy to understand and use, resulting in skill estimations with less bias than previous methods. The training approach begins by reading three-phase power distribution systems' voltage and current datasets. The essential data used in this inquiry were load flow and voltage, current root-mean-square, and trend period information. The data for this research comes from the Brakfontein substation of the Tshwane electricity grid's supply region from August 29 2016 to September 19, 2017. The training dataset is then split into k subsets of 604 for cross-validation. This makes it feasible to produce identical k models without delay. Each model is then tested on the remaining partitions after being trained on $k-10$ partitions. The method parameter k denotes the number of groups that are created from a given data sample. The final evaluation performance is averaged k times to get the method's total performance. The results of

this small dataset are then enhanced by cross-validation.

3.1. Load Demand Parameter Identification

To capture load characteristics, the component-based methodology necessitates the use of field data. The measurement-based method is organized in stages. First, collect measurement data; next, choose a load model structure; then, estimate parameters; and finally, validate the load model. The measurement is carried out strictly under various situations and disturbances. Finally, model parameters are determined by minimizing the discrepancy between the load model response and field data.

As seen in equation (1), the measurement-based load model is presented as a curve-fitting problem.

$$\min \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [(P_i^m - P_i^e)^2 + (Q_i^m - Q_i^e)^2], \quad (1)$$

where P_i^m and Q_i^m are the measured active and reactive power, respectively, P_i^e and Q_i^e are the modeled active and reactive power. The parameters can be calculated using robust algorithms: least squares, Genetic Algorithms (GA), Support Vector Machines (SVM), Kalman Filter (KF), Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm, and Simulated Annealing.

3.2. Light Gradient Boosted Machine Learning Algorithms

LightGBM, an upgraded form of Gradient Boosting Decision Tree (GBDT), was proposed in 2017 [9]. GBDT, an integrated algorithm, is made up of a succession of linear subset combinations. Based on the iteration concept, it takes the regression tree as the subset and adds the subsets one by one to reduce the learner's loss function. Equation (2) can be used to express GBDT.

$$F_x(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k f_i(x|\theta_1) \quad (2)$$

where $f_i(x|\theta_1)$ is regression tree subsets in the i -th iteration; θ_1 = parameter of subsets; x is number of subsets; θ_1 is obtained by minimizing the loss functions by equation (3).

$$\theta_1 = \arg \min L[F_{i-1}(x) + f_i(x|\theta_1)] \quad (3),$$

Where L is the loss function that the learner uses for prediction.

The algorithm enhances the gradient boosting technique employed by LightGBM by focusing on boosting situations with stronger gradients and using a type of autonomous

feature selection. To get over the limitations of the histogram-based approach used GBDT frameworks, it also uses two cutting-edge techniques, Gradient-based One Side Sampling and Exclusive Feature Bundling (EFB). The histogram method and the leaf-wise strategy with depth limitation are the key advances of the LightGBM model. The histogram algorithm separates continuous data into K integers and creates a K-width histogram. The discretized value is accumulated in the histogram as an index during the traversal, and the best decision tree split point is then searched for. The Leaf-wise technique with depth limitation entails choosing the leaf with the highest gain to split and loop throughout each split. Simultaneously, by restricting the depth of the tree and the number of leaves, the model's complexity is minimized and overfitting is avoided. The LightGBM model is trained using the gradient boosting approach, and the grid search method is used to optimize the model's hyperparameters. The major hyperparameters of the LightGBM model optimized using the grid search approach are as follows: the number of weak regression trees is 200, the number of leaves is 50, the learning rate is 0.1, and the number of iterations is 2000.

3.3. Support Vector Machine Algorithm

The support vector machines (SVM) method is excellent at resolving issues brought on by overfitting, a short sample size, nonlinear data, and extensive computing. For instance, in SVM, the most significant threshold in the feature set is used to first separate the good data grouping from the bad data. SVM is used in this dissertation with linear, RBF, and MLP kernels. By equation (4), the SVM algorithm, a classification algorithm based on linear discriminant function, was proposed in 1995 [7]. It uses convex optimization technologies to determine the best discriminant surface for sample categorization.

$$F_x(x) = w^T x + b \quad (4)$$

where w and b are the normal vector and displacement term of the hyperplane respectively; x is the sample data. Decision rule: if $F_x(x) > 0$, it is taken as a positive class, i.e., the black dots in Figure 3, namely the stable point; if $F_x(x) < 0$, as negative class.

Because most data are not linearly separable, SVM introduces a kernel function x , x to replace xx in equation (4) to translate the input space to a high-dimensional feature space, locate a hyperplane, and realize the classification function. SVM bypasses the high-dimensional transformation of data by calculating the inner product directly in the original input space, which circumvents the dimension explosion of high-dimensional space. SVM has an excellent classification impact, great interpretability, and generalization ability since it is based on the idea of structural risk reduction and the introduction of kernel function technology. When a linear kernel function is utilized, SVM can provide the expression of the classification hyperplane, i.e. the DSR border. Where is the relaxation variable, suggesting that the interval between the admissible samples and the hyperplane is less than the hard threshold 1, allowing for a given number of outliers; C , the penalty parameter indicating the significance of outliers; n , the number of training samples. When the number of features is enormous, however, the cost of SVM training is very high and overfitting is very likely. As a result, a feature selection process is required, and the quality of the outputs has a significant impact on SVM accuracy. Figure 3 depicts the fundamental principles of the SVM algorithm. The hyper parameter configurations of SVM are the kernel function, the penalty parameter C and the γ .

3.4 K-Folds Cross-Validation

Cross-validation is a model evaluation method that is superior to residual evaluations since it predicts how well the learner will perform when asked to make new predictions for data, which was handled by eliminating some of the data before training. After training, the data that was removed can be used to assess the learned model's performance on "fresh" data. The data set is divided into two parts: the training set and the testing set. The function approximator solely uses the training set to fit a function. The function approximator is then asked to forecast the output values for the data in the testing set (which it has never seen before).

The errors it makes are compounded in the same way as before to produce the mean absolute test set error, which is used to

evaluate the model. The data set is partitioned into k subsets, and the holdout approach is applied to each one k times. Each time, one of the k subsets is utilized as the test set, while the remaining $k - 1$ subsets are combined to form the training set. The average error for all k trials is then computed. The advantage of this strategy is that it is less important how the data is separated. Every data point appears exactly once in a test set and $k - 1$ times in a training set.

As k is increased, the variance of the resulting estimate decreases. K-folds are frequently used in applied machine learning to compare and select a model for a predictive modeling issue. It produces skill estimates with less bias than other approaches since it is straightforward to understand and apply. Additionally, it is less biased than previous approaches because an average estimate of any characteristic is less biased than a single-shot estimate [43, 44]. According to [43], the entire process of the K-Fold cross-validation technique employed in this area of the paper is broken down into four phases.

Step 1: If the total number of training instances in S sets is m , divide the entire training set S into K equal subgroups so that each subgroup contains m/k training examples.

Step 2: Select a model from the collection to serve as M_i . Next, select $k - 1$ from the training subset $\{S_1, S_2, S_3, S_{j-1}, S_{j+1}, \dots, S_k\}$. The

last one left in the order is S_j . For the hypothetical function h_{ij} , practice with this $k - 1$ subset M_i . Use the last S_j as a test to see if you can encounter issues.

Step 3: Because we release S_j (j from 1 to k) empirical errors one at a time. As a result, the mean of all k empirical errors are the empirical error for a M_i . Consequently, the average produced is the K-Fold cross-validation performance metric in the loop.

Step 4: Pick the ones with the lowest average empirical error rate M_i . Next, use all S to complete additional training for the final h_i .

3.4.1. Training Data Process

Reading the root mean square voltage and current datasets for three-phase power distribution systems begins the training operation. The training dataset is then split into K subsets of 604 for cross-validation, yielding K identical models right away. The models are then trained on $K-1$ partitions before being evaluated on the remaining partitions. The number of groups into which a given data sample is divided is represented by K , a method parameter. In the model, for example, K is 10, and the processing is shown in Figure 2. The total performance of the approach is determined by averaging the final evaluation performance K times. Finally, cross-validation is used to improve the outcomes of this little dataset.

bagging_freq	5
bagging_fraction	0.9

3.5. Sensitivity analysis

Performance is significantly impacted by how the learning algorithms' hyper-parameters are configured. The variety of hyper-parameter search and tuning techniques depends on the diversity of learning algorithms. The hyper-parameter values are adjusted for the validation set after training the machine learning models on the training set. The phrase "load model" refers to a mathematical relationship between the active or reactive power of a load bus and the same bus voltage. There are two methods for modeling loads: the first gauges the active and reactive powers' voltage and frequency sensitivity at the substation; the second builds a composite load model for a specific substation based on the mix of load classes at that substation. Static models and dynamic models are the two categories into which load models are separated.

The frequency-dependent model is derived by multiplying the exponential model by a factor that depends on the bus frequency [45]; the factor is responsible for the efficiency of the system data for the creation of the prediction model.

$$Factor = [1 + a_f(f - f_0)] \quad (5)$$

Where f = The frequency of the bus voltage; f_0 =Nominal frequency; and a_f =The frequency sensitivity parameter.

The active and reactive power responses to step disturbances of the bus voltage are represented in the ERL model; the load that recovers slowly over time is the right candidate for this model [46]. The ERL is modeled as a nonlinear first-order equation of the load response shown in the equation.

$$T_p \frac{dx_p}{dt} = -x_p + P_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{N_{ps}} - P_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{N_{pt}}, \quad (6)$$

$$T_p \frac{dx_p}{dt} = -x_p + P_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{N_{ps}} - P_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{N_{pt}}, \quad (7)$$

$$P_d = x_p + P_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{N_{pt}}, \quad (8)$$

$$T_q \frac{dx_q}{dt} = -x_q + Q_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{N_{qs}} - Q_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{N_{qt}}, \quad (9)$$

$$Q_d = x_q + Q_0 \left(\frac{V}{V_0}\right)^{N_{qt}}, \quad (10)$$

where x_p and x_q are state variables related to active and reactive power dynamics, T_p and T_q are time constants of the exponential recovery response, N_{ps} and N_{qs} are exponents related to the steady-state load response, N_{pt} and N_{qt} are exponents related to the transient load response. The equations above are responsible for computing the power load factor of the system data for the creation of the prediction model.

The measurement-based methodology adapted from [47] employs a step-by-step process. Getting measurement data is the first step, followed by choosing a load model structure, estimating parameters, and validating the load model. Under a specific set

of circumstances and disturbances, the measurement is performed. By minimizing the discrepancy between the load model response and the field observations, the model parameters are finally computed.

Equation (10) explains how to express the measurement-based load model as a curve-fitting issue.

$$\min \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [(P_i^m - P_i^e)^2 + (Q_i^m - Q_i^e)^2], \quad (11)$$

P_i^e and Q_i^e are the modeled active and reactive power, P_i^m and Q_i^m are the measured active and reactive power, respectively. Least squares, Genetic techniques (GA), Support Vector Machines (SVM), Kalman Filter (KF), Levenberg-Marquardt method, and Simulated

Annealing are some of the reliable techniques that can be used to determine the parameters.

3.6. Evaluation Criteria

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is a standard metric in machine learning for evaluating the linear relationship between actual and predicted values. Furthermore, mean absolute error (MAE) and mean squared error (MSE) are popular model performance

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n |\hat{y}_i - y_i|}{n}, \quad (12)$$

$$MSE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2}{n}, \quad (13)$$

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}, \quad (14)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y})^2}, \quad (15)$$

$$RMSLE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\log(\hat{y}_i + 1) - \log(y_i + 1))^2}, \quad (16)$$

n is the total number of observations, y_i represents the average value, y_i the true value, and \hat{y} represents the predicted.

4. Results

The configurations of the hyper-parameters of the learning algorithms have a significant effect on the performance. The diversity of learning algorithms determines the variety of hyperparameter search and tuning methods. After training the machine learning models on the training set, the hyper-parameter settings are tweaked for the validation set. As used in power systems terminology, the load model describes a mathematical relationship between a load bus's active or reactive power and the same bus voltage. Two approaches exist for load modeling: the first measures the voltage and frequency sensitivity of the active and reactive powers at the substation; the second is to construct a composite load model for a given substation based on the mix of load classes substation. Load models are divided into two types: static models and dynamic models.

metrics. MAE and MSE calculated the mean of the absolute errors and the mean of the squared errors between the actual values and the model-predicted values on the data set. The Root Mean Squared Logarithmic Error (RMSLE) calculates the difference between predicted and actual results. These are their definitions:

Data pre-processing is a crucial first step in every machine-learning technique. In this paper, each regression model's leading training and prediction measure is distance. First, each data characteristic is normalized such that its contribution to the distance measure is proportional. Next, the calculation of a fresh weight is done to guarantee that the average difference between all locations remains consistent between weight sets. The data is then segregated into training, validation, and testing sets.

This section may be divided into subheadings. It should provide a concise and precise description of the experimental results, their interpretation, as well as the experimental conclusions that can be drawn.

4.1. Visualising Training Sets Results

The training and testing results for the residuals LGBM model show that both the train and test accuracy values are better than for the LGBM model, as shown in Table 2 is used to calculate the load profiles for Tshwane's energy grid's electric power distribution system. In applied machine learning, K-folds are often used to compare and choose a predictive modeling issue.

Table 2. Summary of Train and Test Results of the LGBM model.

Irms_A_avg Residuals (R^2)	Irms_B_avg Residuals (R^2)	Irms_C_avg Residuals (R^2)
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Train	0.941	0.976	0.801
Test	0.898	0.903	0.813

4.1. Evaluation cross-validation model Model Results

Tables 3 and 4, respectively, illustrate the performance of the K-Fold cross-validation model for the SVM and LightGBM models. The Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Mean Square Error (MSE), Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), R-Square (R²), Root Mean Squared

Logarithmic Error (RMSLE), and Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) are all displayed in the tables. Due to its lower values of the MAE (3.0698), MSE (15.2757), RMSE (3.9020), RMSLE (0.1433), and MAPE (0.0049), respectively, the estimation-based lightGBM is shown to be more accurate than the SVM in this experiment.

Table 3. LightGBM Evaluation Model.

Fold	MAE	MSE	RMSE	R ²	RMLSE	MAPE
0	3.1850	16.3168	4.0394	0.9212	0.1445	0.1175
1	3.1425	16.1701	4.0212	0.9159	0.1486	0.1195
2	2.8842	12.8020	3.5780	0.9258	0.1379	0.1141
3	2.8864	13.1910	3.6319	0.9180	0.1381	0.1122
4	3.1488	16.0548	4.0068	0.9143	0.1499	0.1207
5	3.2420	18.3126	4.2793	0.9150	0.1444	0.1144
6	3.1601	15.7749	3.9718	0.9183	0.1515	0.1246
7	3.1772	15.9247	3.9906	0.9096	0.1448	0.1199
8	3.0629	15.6130	3.9513	0.9203	0.1429	0.1145
9	2.8092	12.5966	3.5492	0.9320	0.1307	0.1063
Mean	3.0698	15.2757	3.9020	0.9190	0.1433	0.1164
Std	0.1450	1.7361	0.2245	0.0060	0.0060	0.0049

Table 4. SVM Evaluation Model.

Fold	MAE	MSE	RMSE	R ²	RMLSE	MAPE
0	5.1526	45.2995	6.7305	0.7811	0.2217	0.1849
1	5.2075	44.9283	6.7029	0.7665	0.2373	0.2034
2	4.6869	36.2160	6.0180	0.7900	0.2155	0.1833
3	4.6784	34.8448	5.9029	0.7835	0.2136	0.1820
4	4.7701	37.9491	6.1603	0.7975	0.2225	0.1860
5	4.9934	42.8764	6.5480	0.8010	0.2125	0.1799
6	4.9565	40.8569	6.3919	0.7885	0.2295	0.1996
7	5.0272	41.4177	6.4357	0.7648	0.2248	0.1915
8	5.1403	46.0304	6.7846	0.7652	0.2253	0.1912
9	4.6993	36.8997	6.0745	0.8009	0.2080	0.1750
Mean	4.9312	40.7319	6.3749	0.7839	0.2211	0.1877
Std	0.1965	3.8615	0.3037	0.0136	0.0084	0.0084

4.1. Prediction Error Output and Residuals Model

Figure 3 shows the estimated prediction error for the lightGBM model. Again, the Figures indicate that the lightGBM model had

the most accurate prediction compared to their R-Square values of 89.8%, 90.3%, and 88.5%, respectively for *lrms_A_avg*, *lrms_B_avg* and *lrms_C_avg*.

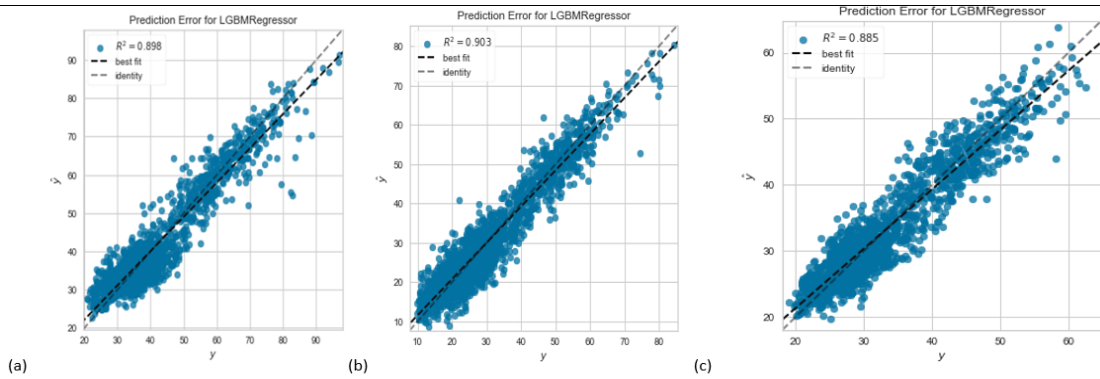


Figure 3. Prediction Error for the Light Gradient Boosting Machine Model (a) Irms_A_avg Output Prediction Error; (b) Irms_B_avg Output Prediction Error; (c) Irms_C_avg Output Prediction Error.

Figure 3 depicts the calculated residual model for the LGBM, according to the developed machine learning model, the training and testing residuals for LGBM models.

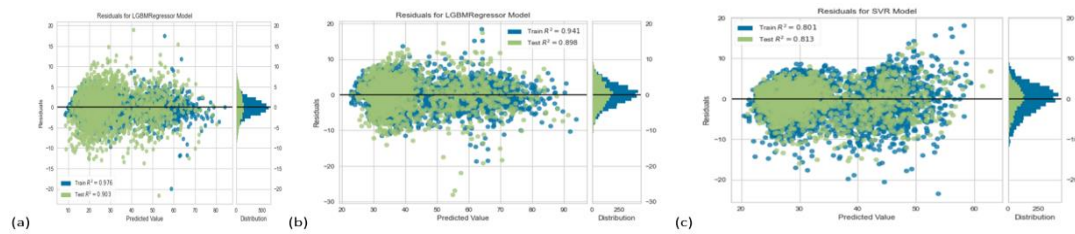


Figure 4. Residuals for Light Gradient Boosting Machine Model (a) Irms_A_avg Output Prediction; (b) Irms_B_avg Output Prediction; (c) Irms_C_avg Output Prediction

Figure 4 shows the estimated prediction error for the SVM models for the Irms_A_avg Output, Irms_B_avg Output, and Irms_C_avg

Output. Figure 5 indicate that the SVM model predicted 80.1%, 78.8%, and 81.3%, respectively, owing to their R-Square values.

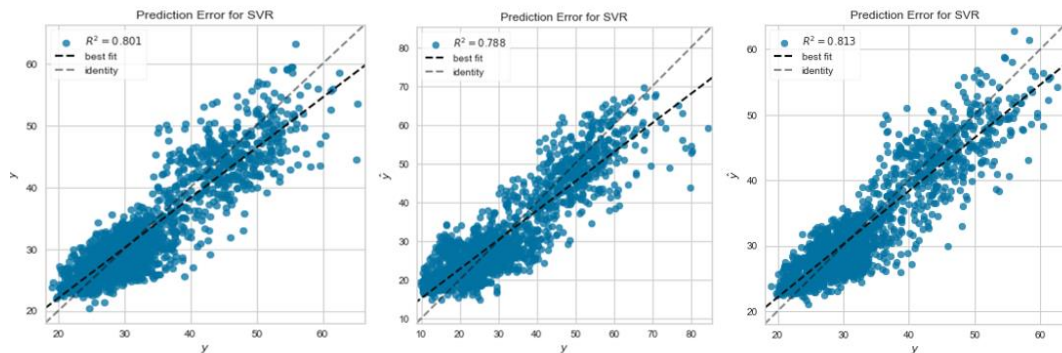


Figure 5. Prediction Error for the SVM Model (a) Irms_A_avg Output Prediction Error; (b) Irms_B_avg Output Prediction Error; (c) Irms_C_avg Output Prediction Error.

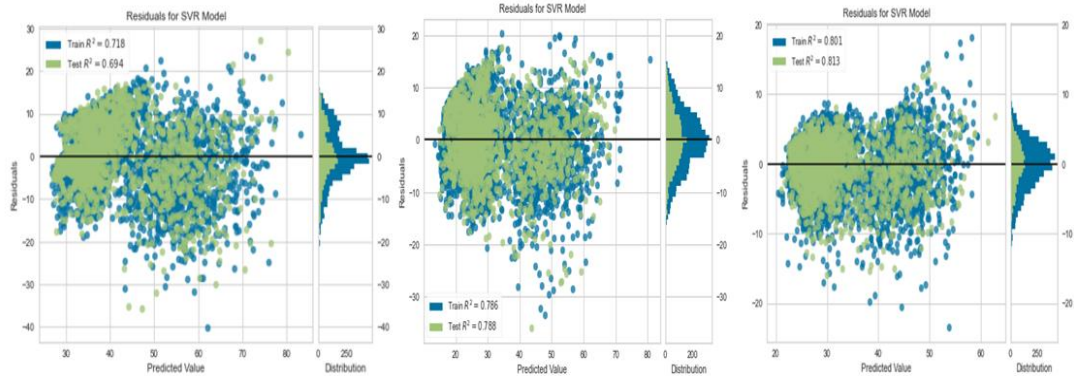


Figure 6. Residuals for SVM Model (a) Irms_A_avg Output Prediction; (b) Irms_B_avg Output Prediction; (c) Irms_C_avg Output Prediction.

4.1. Prediction Error Output Validation

The relationship between a model parameter and the model score is often established using a validation curve. Two curves make up a validation curve: one for the cross-validation score and one for the training set score. This paper uses 10-fold cross-validation as its validation curve

function. For Irms_A_avg Output, Irms_B_avg Output, and Irms_C_avg Output, respectively, Figure 8 displays the SVM validation curve. The curve in Figure 6 suggests that $K = 10$ would be the ideal value for K . The training and cross-validation results improve with increasing neighbors (K).

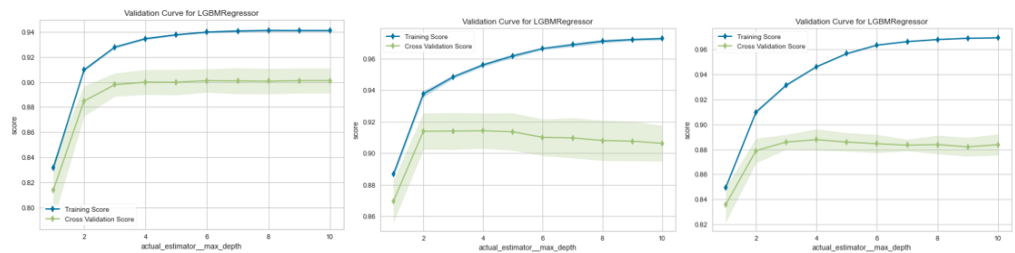


Figure 7. Prediction Error for the Validation Curve for SVM Model (a) Irms_A_avg Output Prediction Validation; (b) Irms_B_avg Output Prediction Validation; (c) Irms_C_avg Output Prediction Validation.

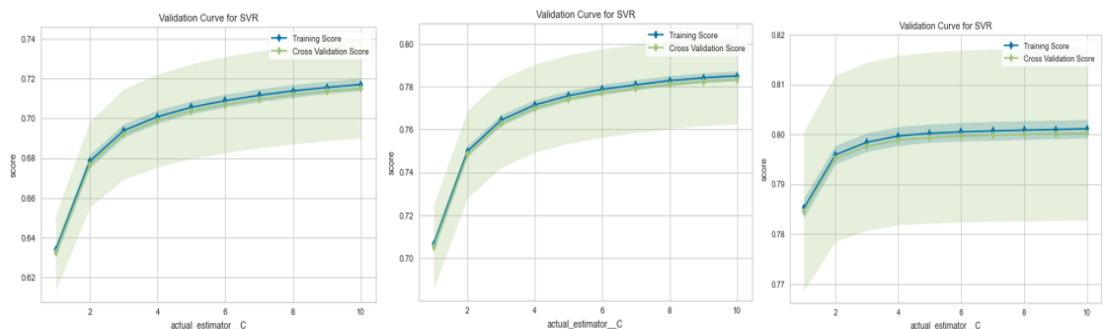


Figure 8. Residuals for Validation Curve for SVM Model (a) Irms_A_avg Output Prediction Validation; (b) Irms_B_avg Output Prediction Validation; (c) Irms_C_avg Output Prediction Validation

The training dataset is then split into K subsets of 604 for cross-validation. This makes it feasible to produce identical K models without delay. A validation test is presented to

check the effectiveness of the proposed technique. The estimation-based lightGBM is more precise than the SVM since its MAE, MSE, RMSE, RMSLE, and MAPE values are more diminutive than SVM. However, as the

number of neighbors (K) increases, the accuracy of the training and cross-validation scores decreases. In other words, the ideal value of K for the Irms A avg forecast would be 10.

5. Conclusions

In this paper, machine learning models are used to estimate the load profiles for the electric power distribution system in Tshwane municipality. The authors employ MLP, RBF, and linear SVM kernels. It determines the load profiles for the electricity distribution network in Tshwane. K-folds are frequently used in applied machine learning to compare and select a predictive modeling problem. Reading the root mean square voltage and current datasets for three-phase power distribution systems correspondingly is the first step in the training approach. For cross-validation, the training dataset is then split into K subsets of 604 each, yielding K identical models right away. Each model is then tested on the remaining partitions after being trained on K-1 partitions. The method parameter K denotes the number of groups that are created from a given data sample. The final evaluation performance is averaged K times to get the method's total performance. The results of this small dataset are then enhanced by cross-validation. It is mentioned how well the K-Fold cross-validation model performs for the SVM and LightGBM models. The relationship between a model parameter and the model score is often established using a validation curve. Two curves make up a validation curve: one for the cross-validation score and one for the training set score. Future work will look at

recursive feature elimination with cross-validation (RFECV) to better understand what features will be included in the machine-learning model. Even though the data points used in this research are over 6040 by 20, more data is required to improve the accuracy of the prediction model.

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