# Signal Decomposition via Distributed Optimization 

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## Outline

Signal decomposition problem

Parameters and validation

Distributed solution method

PV data example

## Signals

- we consider vector valued signals that can include missing values

$$
y_{1}, \ldots, y_{T} \in(\mathbf{R} \cup\{?\})^{p}, \quad y=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
y_{1} & \cdots & y_{T}
\end{array}\right]
$$

- partition indices into known and unknown values

$$
\mathcal{K}=\left\{(t, i) \mid y_{t, i} \in \mathbf{R}\right\}, \quad \mathcal{U}=\left\{(t, i) \mid y_{t, i}=?\right\}
$$

- examples: financial data, energy production/load data, atmospheric and hydrospheric data


## Example: data from 8 PV systems



- 5 days of 1-minute measurements from 8 PV systems in the same geographic area
- white pixels denote missing values


## Decomposing a signal into components

- decomposition of signal $y$ into $K$ components

$$
y \stackrel{\mathcal{K}}{=} x^{1}+\cdots+x^{K}
$$

- $\xlongequal{\mathcal{K}}$ means equal at known indexes $t, i \in \mathcal{K}$
- $x^{k} \in \mathbf{R}^{T \times p}$ for $k=1, \ldots, K$ are components with no missing data
- component $x^{k}$ comes from component class $k$
- example component classes
- smooth
- sparse
- periodic
- nonnegative
- piecewise affine
- Boolean with infrequent switching


## Brief comment on notation

- drop the $k$ when refering to a general variable $x \in \mathbf{R}^{T \times p}$
- $x_{t} \in \mathbf{R}^{p}$ for $t=1, \ldots, T$ is a row vector
- $x_{i} \in \mathbf{R}^{T}$ for $i=1, \ldots, p$ is a column vector
- $x_{t, i} \in \mathbf{R}$ is a single entry


## Estimating missing values

- missing values in $y$ can be estimated from decomposition as

$$
\hat{y} \stackrel{\mathcal{U}}{=} x^{1}+\cdots+x^{K}
$$

- basis of validation and parameter tuning method described later on


## Component classes

- component classes characterized by loss or implausibility functions

$$
\phi_{k}: \mathbf{R}^{T \times p} \rightarrow \mathbf{R} \cup\{\infty\}, \quad k=1, \ldots, K
$$

- smaller $\phi_{k}(x)$ means more plausible $x$ for class $k$
- infinite values encode constraints on components
- for statistical model of a component class, $\phi(x)$ is negative log-likelihood
- simple examples (with scale factor $\lambda>0$ ):
- mean-square small class: $\phi(x)=\frac{\lambda}{T_{p}} \sum_{t}\left\|x_{t}\right\|_{2}^{2}$
- mean-square smooth class: $\phi(x)=\frac{\lambda}{(T-1) p} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1}\left\|x_{t+1}-x_{t}\right\|_{2}^{2}$
- nonnegative class: $\phi(x)= \begin{cases}0 & x_{t, i} \geq 0 \text { for all } t, i \\ \infty & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}$


## Signal decomposition problem

- we choose decomposition to minimize total loss or implausibility
- signal decomposition (SD) problem:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\operatorname{minimize} & \phi_{1}\left(x^{1}\right)+\cdots+\phi_{K}\left(x^{K}\right) \\
\text { subject to } & y \stackrel{\mathcal{K}}{=} x^{1}+\cdots+x^{K}
\end{array}
$$

- variables are components $x^{1}, \ldots, x^{K}$
- we refer to a solution as an optimal signal decomposition


## Solving the signal decomposition problem

- if all $\phi^{k}$ are convex, SD problem is convex, and so can be efficiently solved
- otherwise, we settle for an approximate solution
- our method is based on alternating directions method of multipliers (ADMM)
- a distributed method that handles the component classes separately
- easy to define new component classes
- solves SD problem when it's convex
- approximately solves SD problem it's not convex


## Example

$K=3$ component classes:

- mean-square small, $\phi_{1}(x)=\frac{\lambda_{1}}{T_{p}} \sum_{t}\left\|x_{t}\right\|_{2}^{2}$
- mean-square smooth, $\phi(x)=\frac{\lambda_{2}}{(T-1) p} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1}\left\|x_{t+1}-x_{t}\right\|_{2}^{2}$
- Boolean with infrequent switching,

$$
\phi(x)= \begin{cases}\frac{\lambda_{3}}{(T-1) p} \sum_{i} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1}\left|x_{t+1, i}-x_{t, i}\right| & x_{t, i} \in\{0,1\} \text { for all } t, i \\ \infty & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

i.e., rate of switching between values 0 and 1

- $\lambda_{i}$ are positive weights; can take $\lambda_{1}=1$


## Synthetic data

- scalar signal, i.e., $y \in(\mathbf{R} \cup\{\infty\})^{1 \times T}$
- generate $y$ as $x_{\text {true }}^{1}+x_{\text {true }}^{2}+x_{\text {true }}^{3}$, then randomly make $10 \%$ of entries unknown
- entries of $x_{\text {true }}^{1}$ are IID $\mathcal{N}\left(0,0.15^{2}\right)$
- entries of $x_{\text {true }}^{2}$ are white noise passed through a low-pass filter
- $x_{\text {true }}^{3}$ is realization of Markov chain on $\{0,1\}$ with probability 0.1 of transitions $0 \rightarrow 1$ or $1 \rightarrow 0$


## Synthetic data

component 1



## Decomposition with $\lambda_{2}=25, \lambda_{3}=0.5$

component 1


- true estimate
component 2

- true
estimate
component 3



## Decomposition with $\lambda_{2}=500, \lambda_{3}=5$

component 1

—— true
estimate
component 2


- true
estimate
component 3



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## Component class parameters

- class losses $\phi_{k}$ can have associated parameters, denoted $\phi_{k}\left(x^{k} ; \theta_{k}\right), \theta_{k} \in \Theta_{k}$
- some common examples
- weight or scaling parameters $\phi(x ; \theta)=\theta \ell(x), \theta \in \Theta=\mathbf{R}_{++}$ (often denoted with traditional symbol $\lambda$ )
- signal scaling parameters $\phi(x ; \theta)=\phi^{\mathrm{bool}}(x / \theta) \Longrightarrow x \in\{0, \theta\}^{T \times p}$
- constraint parameters $\phi(x ; \theta)=\mathcal{I}\left(\theta_{1} \leq x \leq \theta_{2}\right)$
- basis parameters $\phi(x)=\mathcal{I}\left(x=\theta \alpha\right.$ for some $\left.\alpha \in \mathbf{R}^{d \times n}\right)$
- different parameters lead to different decompositions


## Validating a decomposition

- randomly select test set $\mathcal{T} \subset \mathcal{K}$ and replace associated values in $y$ with ?
- carry out decomposition using entries $\mathcal{K} \backslash \mathcal{T}$
- decomposition yields estimates $\hat{y}_{t, i}$ for $(t, i) \in \mathcal{T}$
- quantify residuals or errors $y_{t, i}-\hat{y}_{t, i},(t, i) \in \mathcal{T}$, with some metric, e.g. RMS or AA (average absolute)
- for more stable validation, process can repeat, e.g. $k$-fold cross validation or bootstrap sampling
- can be used to choose component classes and class parameters


## Example

AA test error

- set $\lambda_{1}=1$, search parameter space for best $\lambda_{2}$ and $\lambda_{3}$
- randomly select $10 \%$ of the data point for test set
- decompose for each parameter value $(10 \times 10$ grid)
- repeat 12 times and take average error

Final decomposition, $\lambda_{2}=21.5, \lambda_{3}=0.278$
component 1


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## Alternating direction direction of multipliers (ADMM)

- a method for solving convex optimization problems
- developed in 1970s, with roots in 1950s; modern treatment in Boyd et al. [2011]
- can be used as a heuristic for non-convex problems
- a distributed method, with different parts handled separately


## SD via ADMM

- for iteration $j=1, \ldots$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(x^{k}\right)^{j+1} & :=\operatorname{prox}_{k}\left(\left(x^{k}\right)^{j}-u^{j}\right), \quad k=1, \ldots, K \\
\hat{y}^{j+1} & :=\sum_{k=1}^{K}\left(x^{k}\right)^{j+1} \\
u_{t, i}^{j+1} & :=u_{t, i}^{j}+\frac{2}{K}\left(\hat{y}_{t, i}^{j+1}-y_{t, i}\right), \quad(t, i) \in \mathcal{K}
\end{aligned}
$$

- $\operatorname{prox}_{k}(v)=\operatorname{argmin}_{x}\left(\phi_{k}(x)+\frac{\rho}{2}\|x-v\|_{F}^{2}\right)$, proximal operator of $\phi_{k}$
- $\rho>0$ is an algorithm parameter
- $u_{t, i}^{j}$ are dual variables


## Convergence and properties

- converges to (global) solution when all $\phi^{k}$ are convex, for any $\rho>0$
- is a good heuristic in other cases, but choice of $\rho$ can matter
- only need proximal operator for each component class
- first step can be carried out in parallel, for the $k$ components
- each component handled separately; coordination is via dual variables $u_{t, i}^{j}$


## Proximal operator

$$
\operatorname{prox}_{\phi}(v)=\underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}}\left(\phi(x)+\frac{\rho}{2}\|x-v\|_{F}^{2}\right)
$$

- compromise between making $\phi(x)$ small and $x$ near $v$
- when $\phi$ is an indicator function of a set $\mathcal{C}$, proximal operator is projection onto $\mathcal{C}$ (and doesn't depend on $\rho$ )
- for many $\phi$, proximal operator can be worked out analytically
- for others, can involve some computation


## Examples

| name | $\phi(x)$ | $\operatorname{prox}_{\phi}(v)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mean-square small | $\lambda \sum_{t}\left\\|x_{t}\right\\|_{2}^{2}$ | $\frac{\rho}{2 \lambda+\rho} v_{t, i}$ |
| average-absolute small | $\lambda \sum_{t}\left\\|x_{t}\right\\|_{1}$ | $\begin{cases}v_{t, i}-\lambda / \rho & v_{t, i}>\lambda / \rho \\ 0 & \left\|v_{t, i}\right\|<\lambda / \rho \\ v_{t, i}+\lambda / \rho & v_{t, i}<-\lambda / \rho\end{cases}$ |
| mean-square small r ${ }^{\text {th }}$-order diff. | $\lambda \sum_{i}\left\\|D_{r} x_{i}\right\\|_{2}^{2}$ | $\left(I+\frac{2 \lambda}{\rho} D_{r}^{T} D_{r}\right)^{-1} v$ |
| non-negative | $\mathcal{I}(x \geq 0)$ | $(v)_{+}$ |
| linear equality constraint | $\mathcal{I}(A x=b)$ | $v-A^{T}\left(A A^{T}\right)^{-1}(A v-b)$ |
| Boolean set | $\mathcal{I}\left(x \in\{0,1\}^{T \times p}\right)$ | $\begin{cases}0 & \left\|v_{t, i}\right\| \leq\left\|v_{t, i}-1\right\| \\ 1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}$ |

## A less obvious example

- Boolean with infrequent switching

$$
\phi(x)= \begin{cases}\lambda \sum_{i} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1}\left|x_{t+1, i}-x_{t, i}\right| & x_{t, i} \in\{0,1\} \text { for all } t, i \\ \infty & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

- proximal operator can be evaluated by solving a graph shortest path problem using dynamic programming, with cost $O(T)$ flops


## Convergence example, convex case



## Convergence example, non-convex case



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## PV fleet outage detection

- recall data example of power signals from 8 PV systems (PV 'fleet') exposed to similar weather patterns
- want to automatically detect drops in system output that might be due to a failure of a PV module or string of modules
- standard industry approach
- make a physical model of each system
- obtain local measurements of irradiance and temperature
- compare actual to predicted for each system
- let's try a purely data driven approach, using SD


## The data set

- 15 days of 1-minute measurements from 9 systems
- $\mathrm{T}=21600, \mathrm{p}=9$
- artificially induce 'failures' in two systems
- $25 \%$ loss of power output in system 6 during second-to-last day
- $50 \%$ loss of power output in system 1 during final day
fleet power data



## Data preprocessing

- scale each system data to about $[0,1]$ (use 95th percentile for UB, not max)
- take $\log _{10}$ and set zero values to ?
- taking log gives a multiplicative component model, instead of additive


## SD components

- residual: $\phi_{1}(x)=\lambda_{1}\|x\|_{F}^{2}$
- common clear sky component: smooth, equal across systems, daily periodic

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\phi_{2}(x)=\lambda_{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T-2}\left\|x_{t}-2 x_{t+1}+x_{t+2}\right\|_{2}^{2} \\
& -x_{i}-x_{i+1}=0, \text { for } i=1, \ldots, p-1 \\
& -x_{t}-x_{t+1440}=0, \text { for } t=1, \ldots, T-1440
\end{aligned}
$$

- common weather component: asymmetric distribution and equal across systems
$-\phi_{3}(x)=\lambda_{3} \sum_{t, i} 1 / 2\left|x_{t, i}\right|+(\tau-1 / 2) x_{t, i}$
$-x_{t, i}-x_{t, i+1}=0$, for all $t$ and for $i=1, \ldots, p-1$
- outage detector: non-positive, mostly zero, and mostly constant
$-\phi_{4}(x)=\lambda_{4} \sum_{i} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1}\left|x_{t, i}-x_{t+1, i}\right|+\lambda_{5} \sum_{t, i}\left(-x_{t, i}\right)$
$-x \preceq 0$
$-x_{1}=\mathbf{0}$ (first row is the zero vector)
- $T \times p \times K=777,636$ variables to estimate!

Results: decomposition of system 1 (last 5 days)


Results, outage detector component

Fleet loss analysis


Naive approach, compare each to average

Fleet loss analysis


## Software

- developing Python implementation: https://github.com/bmeyers/optimal-signal-demixing/
- work in progress
- components defined as objects, proximal operators are attributes
- no requirement to understand ADMM or proximal operators to use!


## Conclusions

signal decomposition via distributed optimization

- is interpretable
- provides a good way to describe prior knowledge about the signal
- is extensible
- is scalable to very large data sets
- does not require large training sets (or any labeled training data)

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