Localization and Approximation Based Methods for Distributed Control and Optimization

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The problem(?)

We have more data than we can compute with



Systems are getting bigger, sensors are getting cheaper & smaller



Motivation

The fallacy

Distributed computing/The Cloud/The Edge/GPUs will save us



Motivation

Trade solution accuracy for improved computation time.

Outline

- Approximation via sketching
 - Randomized SVD
 - Distributed iterative Hessian sketching
- 2 Federated learning
 - Approximation
 - Localization

Key Idea: Sketching





Ground truth Sketch 1 Sketch 2

How to generate a sketch? Error incurred when using the sketch?



Mathematics > Optimization and Control

[Submitted on 6 Sep 2021]

Large-Scale System Identification Using a Randomized SVD

Han Wang, James Anderson



Singular Value Decomposition

Given $A\in \mathbb{C}^{m\times n}$, define $p=\min\{m,n\},$ the SVD of A is given by $A=U\Sigma V^*$

where

- $U \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ is unitary
- $V \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is unitary
- $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is diagonal

when $m \neq n$, the matrix Σ takes the form

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{\Sigma} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \widetilde{\Sigma} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\widehat{\Sigma} = \mathbf{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$ and $\widetilde{\Sigma} = \mathbf{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m)$, and

$$\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \ldots \ge \sigma_p \ge 0$$

Randomized SVD

Alternative SVDs

Compact SVD

$$A = U_r \Sigma_r V_r^*$$

- Σ_r is a square $r \times r$ matrix
- r is given by the number of non-zero singular values
- U_r and V_r are semi-unitary

Truncated SVD

 $A \approx U_l \Sigma_l V_l^*$

- Σ_l is a square $l \times l$ matrix and l < r
- U_l and V_l are semi-unitary

Randomized SVD

Optimal Low-Rank Approximation

Error bounds

The Eckart-Young theorem tells us that for eack k:

$$\sigma_{k+1} = \begin{array}{ll} \mbox{minimize} & \|A - X\| \\ \mbox{subject to} & \mbox{rank}(X) \leq k \end{array}$$

Moreover, an optimal X can be constructed from the k-dominant left singular vectors of A:

 $X = QQ^*A$

Computational cost

• Standard SVD cost $O(mn^2)$ when $n \ll m$

- $l\mbox{-truncated SVD}$ takes O(mnl) flops using classical methods Randomized SVD

Randomized SVD Algorithm: RSVD

Stage 1

Find a matrix \boldsymbol{Q} such that

 $A \approx QQ^*A$, where Q has orthonormal columns.

Interpret \approx as meaning that Q satisfies

 $\|(I-QQ^*)A\| \leq \epsilon, \quad \text{for some acceptable } \epsilon > 0.$

Stage 2

Use ${\it Q}$ and your favorite classical SVD algorithm then rearrange.

Stage 1: Random Sampling

Objective

Given a matrix $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ compute an approximate basis for $\mathbf{range}(A)$.

Algorithm

1 Sample the range of A by generating independent "random" vectors $\omega^{(i)}$ for $i=1,\ldots,k$:

$$y^{(i)} = A\omega^{(i)} \quad \iff \quad Y = A\Omega$$

2 Orthogonalize the columns of Y

Note

- The matrix Y is a called a **sketch** of A
- $Y \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times k}$ where $k \ll \min\{m, n\}$

Randomized SVD

Stage 1: Analysis

Stage 1: Algorithm

- **1** Draw a random matrix $\Omega \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times (k+l)}$ // Draw l extra samples
- **2** Form the sketch $Y = A\Omega$ // Cost O(mn(k+l))
- **3** Construct orthogonal basis: $[Q, \sim] = QR(Y) // Cost O(n(k+l)^2)$

Theorem (Halko, Martinsson, Tropp, 2011)

Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, a target rank $k \ge 2$, and parameter $l \ge 2$ such that $k + l \le \min\{m, n\}$. The algorithm above produces a matrix Q with orthonormal columns that satisfies

$$\mathbf{E} \|A - QQ^*A\| \le \left[1 + \frac{4\sqrt{k+l}}{l-1}\sqrt{\min\{m,n\}}\right]\sigma_{k+1}.$$

Stage 2: Building an Approximate SVD



Randomized SVD

Realization Using RSVD

Linear System Identification



Realization Using RSVD

Problem formulation

Collect data from the LTI system

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + Bu_t + w_t$$
$$y_t = Cx_t + Du_t + v_t$$

The data

- We have $N<\infty$ observations over finite time-horizon T
- Observe: $\{y_t^i\}_{t=0}^T$, $\{u_t^i\}_{t=0}^T$ for $i=1,\ldots,N$
- Assume: $u_t \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_u^2 I)$, $w_t \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_w^2 I)$, $v_t \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_v^2 I)$

Objective

Find matrices $(\hat{A},\hat{B},\hat{C},\hat{D})$ that "best fit" observed data

Realization

The process of obtaining a state-space model from the Markov matrix

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} D & CB & CAB & \dots & CA^{T-2}B \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times Tp}.$$

- When $w_t, v_t \equiv 0$ have access to G, otherwise must solve an optimization problem to obtain an estimate \hat{G}
- The realization problem is to determine the state-space matrices from \hat{G} , *i.e.*, a mapping

$$\hat{G} \mapsto \left(\begin{array}{c|c} \hat{A} & \hat{B} \\ \hline \hat{C} & \hat{D} \end{array} \right)$$

Ho-Kalman Algorithm

Assumptions

- (A, B, C) is minimal
- $n = \operatorname{rank}(\mathcal{H}) \le \min\{T_1, T_2\}$

Algorithm

 $\textbf{1} From \ G \text{ construct the Hankel matrix}$

$$\mathcal{H} = \begin{bmatrix} CB & CAB & \dots & CA^{T_2}B \\ CAB & CA^2B & \dots & CA^{T_2+1}B \\ CA^2B & CA^3B & \dots & CA^{T_2+2}B \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ CA^{T_1-1}B & CA^{T_1}B & \dots & CA^{T_1+T_2-1}B \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{pT_1 \times m(T_1+1)}$$

where $T = T_1 + T_2 + 1$.

By assumption ${\mathcal H}$ and ${\mathcal H}^-$ are full rank System Realization

Ho-Kalman Algorithm

Assumptions

- (A, B, C) is minimal
- $n = \operatorname{rank}(\mathcal{H}) \le \min\{T_1, T_2\}$

Step 2: Factorization

 \mathcal{H}^- is full rank and so it can be factored as

$$\mathcal{H}^{-} = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ CA \\ \vdots \\ CA^{T-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B & AB & \dots & A^{T_{2}-1}B \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \mathcal{O}\mathcal{Q}$$

Ho-Kalman Algorithm

Algorithm

1 From G construct the Hankel matrix

$$\mathcal{H} = \begin{bmatrix} CB & CAB & \dots & CA^{T_2}B \\ CAB & CA^2B & \dots & CA^{T_2+1}B \\ CA^2B & CA^3B & \dots & CA^{T_2+2}B \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ CA^{T_1-1}B & CA^{T_1}B & \dots & CA^{T_1+T_2-1}B \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{pT_1 \times m(T_1+1)}$$

where $T = T_1 + T_2 + 1$.

2 Compute a n-truncated SVD of H⁻: H⁻ ≈ U_nΣ_nV_n^{*}
3 O = U_nΣ^{1/2}/_n, Q = Σ^{1/2}/_nV_n^{*}
3 Â = O[†]H⁺Q[†]

Comments

- Realization is a non-convex problem
- H-K algorithm provides realizations unique up to similarity transform

$$(A, B, C, D) \mapsto (TAT^{-1}, TB, CT^{-1}, D)$$

- Computation cost: at least $O(pmnT_1T_2)$ flops from the SVD step.
- Robustness guarantee [Oymak & Ozay, 2019]:

$$\max\left\{ \|\hat{A} - T^{-1}AT\|, \|\hat{B} - T^{-1}B\|, \|\hat{C} - CT\| \right\}$$
$$\leq c\sqrt{\|G - \hat{G}\|} = O\left(\frac{1}{N^4}\right).$$

Stochastic Ho-Kalman Algorithm

Idea

Replace the truncated SVD with a randomized SVD!

- Measurements contain noise, so full accuracy isn't necessary anyway
- The deterministic algorithm struggles with modest systems sizes

Main Result (Informal)

Theorem

The stochastic Ho-Kalman Algorithm reduces the computational complexity of the realization problem from $O(pmn^3)$ to $O(pmn^2 \log n)$ when $T_1 = T_2 = n$. The achievable robustness is the same as deterministic algorithm.

Numerical Experiments

Scalability and Approximation Error

Eg	(n,m,p,T)	$\dim(\hat{H}^-)$	Running Time [s]		Realization Error	
			Det.	Stoch.	Det.	Stoch.
1	(40, 30, 20, 100)	2000×2970	5.7456		6.67e-04	
2	(60, 50, 40, 360)	7200 imes 8950	227.0116		8.27e-04	
3	$(100,\!80,\!50,\!500)$	12500×19920	922.8428		6.53e-04	
4	(120, 110, 90, 600)	27000×32890	Inf		N/A	
5	(200, 150, 100, 600)	30000×44850	Inf		N/A	

- $(n,m,p,T) \rightarrow$ (state, input, output, horizon)
- No parallelization used with the randomized SVD
- No power iterations
- Oversampling parameter: p = 10
- Relative error:

$$\frac{\|\mathcal{G} - \hat{\mathcal{G}}\|_{\mathcal{H}_{\infty}}}{\|\mathcal{G}\|_{\mathcal{H}_{\infty}}}$$

Numerical Experiments

Scalability and Approximation Error

Eg	(n,m,p,T)	$\dim(\hat{H}^-)$	Running Time [s]		Realization Error	
			Det.	Stoch.	Det.	Stoch.
1	(40, 30, 20, 100)	2000×2970	5.7456	0.0897	6.67e-04	1.19e-03
2	(60, 50, 40, 360)	7200 imes 8950	227.0116	0.9323	8.27e-04	1.75e-03
3	$(100,\!80,\!50,\!500)$	12500×19920	922.8428	4.4581	6.53e-04	1.66e-03
4	(120, 110, 90, 600)	27000×32890	Inf	17.6603	N/A	1.96e-03
5	(200, 150, 100, 600)	30000×44850	Inf	52.1762	N/A	1.45e-03

- $(n,m,p,T) \rightarrow$ (state, input, output, horizon)
- No parallelization used with the randomized SVD
- No power iterations
- Oversampling parameter: p = 10
- Relative error:

$$\frac{\|\mathcal{G} - \hat{\mathcal{G}}\|_{\mathcal{H}_{\infty}}}{\|\mathcal{G}\|_{\mathcal{H}_{\infty}}}$$

Additional Numerical Experiments

Oversampling parameter



(a) Running time of stochastic Ho-Kalman Algorithm using RSVD with oversampling parameter *l*.



(b) Realization error of stochastic Ho-Kalman Algorithm using RSVD with oversampling parameter l.

- Example 4: (n, m, p, T) = (100, 80, 50, 500)
- No power iterations

Stochastic Realization Algorithm: Conclusions

Methodology

- Performance degradation due to randomization almost negligible
- Non-asymptotic sample complexity bounds remain intact
- Order of magnitude gain in computation time (for large instances)
- Not yet exploited parallel computing

Algorithm tuning

- Algorithm performance can be boosted by including power iterations
 - This does impact running time
- Algorithm performance not sensitive to oversampling rate
 - Doesn't appear to impact running time

Learning Linear Models Using Distributed Iterative Hessian Sketching

Han Wang, James Anderson Proceedings of The 4th Annual Learning for Dynamics and Control Conference, PMLR 168:427-440, 2022.



Least Squares Sketching

Sketched Least squares

Given the problem:

$$x^{\star} \in \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{C}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{2n} \|Ax - y\|^2}_{f(x)}, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

Instead solve:

$$x^{\sharp} \in \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{C}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{2n} \|S(Ax - y)\|^2}_{g(x)},$$

with $S \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, m \ll n$

•
$$f(x^{\star}) \le f(x^{\sharp}) \le (1+\delta)f(x^{\star})$$

Sketching the Hessian

Iterative Hessian Sketch

Pilanci and Wainwright [PW] showed that this method is provably bad!

Rewrite the LS problem as

$$\underset{x \in \mathcal{C}}{\text{minimize }} \|Ax\|^2 - \langle x, A^T y \rangle.$$

Newton's method produces updates

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha (A^T A)^{-1} A^T (A x_t - b).$$

If we sketch A in the norm only (and keep track of residuals), we get

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha (A^T S_t^T S_t A)^{-1} A^T (A x_t - b).$$

Distribute this over q nodes:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha \frac{1}{q} \sum_{k=1}^{q} (A^T S_{t,k}^T S_{t,k} A)^{-1} A^T (A x_t - b).$$

Sketching the Hessian

Distributed Iterative Hessian Sketch

Proposed by Bartan and Pilanci [BP]

Generalized sketching and refined the analysis [Wang & Anderson 2022]

Algorithm 1 Distributed Iterative Hessian SketchInput: Number of iterations T, step size μ .for t = 1 to T dofor workers k = 1 to q in parallel doSample $S_{t,k} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$.Sketch the data $S_{t,k}A$.Compute gradient $g_t = A^T(Ax_t - b)$.Solve $\hat{\Delta}_{t,k} = \arg \min_{\Delta} \frac{1}{2} ||S_{t,k}A\Delta||_2^2 + g_t^T \Delta$ and send to master.end forMaster: Update $x_{t+1} = x_t + \mu \frac{1}{q} \sum_{k=1}^q \hat{\Delta}_{t,k}$ and send x_{t+1} to workers.end forreturn x_T

System Identification

Parameter estimation

Given observed data $\ensuremath{\mathcal{D}}$ believed to have been generated by

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + Bu_t + w_t$$
$$y_t = Cx_t + Du_t + v_t,$$

estimate the Markov parameters.



Learning Markov Parameters

OLS formulation

An estimate \hat{G} of the Markov matrix is obtained by solving

 $\underset{X}{\mathsf{minimize}} \| UX - Y \|_F^2$

where

- $X \in \mathbb{R}^{mT \times p}$
- U and Y are Toeplitz
- Solution via QR decomposition: $O(NT(mT)^2)$

Result

DIHS applied to OLS problem

- Assume number of rollouts, N, satisfies $N > 8mT + 16\log(T/\delta)$
- Define $\kappa = mNT^2$

Theorem (Informal)

Fix $\delta \in (0,1)$ and $\rho \in (0,\frac{1}{2})$. If the sketch dimension satisfies

$$s > \frac{c_0 \log^4(\kappa)}{\rho^2} mT,$$

then at iteration k, DIHS satisfies

$$\|X_k - X^{\mathrm{LS}}\|_F \le 2\left(\frac{\rho}{\sqrt{q}}\right)^k \|X^{\mathrm{LS}}\|_F$$

with high probability. Learning Markov Parameters

Numerical Experiments

Sketch selection and number of workers



- 40 states, 30 inputs, 20 outputs
- $\sim 45M$ data points

Learning Markov Parameters

Numerical Experiments

12 workers: same system



DIHS: Conclusions

- Randomized numerical linear algebra can be applied to Sys ID
- General least squares problems (and beyond)
- Applications to control synthesis?



Computer Science > Machine Learning

[Submitted on 28 Mar 2022]

FedADMM: A Federated Primal-Dual Algorithm Allowing Partial Participation

Han Wang, Siddartha Marella, James Anderson



Federated Learning

A framework for distributed optimization that accounts for:

• Device and data heterogeneity, and data locality



Federated Learning: Local Data

Centralized OLS



• All data in one place (or globally accessible)

Federated Learning: Local Data

Federated OLS



• Data is **not** shared between clients

Federated Learning Problem Setup

Federated Learning

General problem formulation:

$$\underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f_i(x) + g(x)$$

- f_i non-convex, L-smooth
- *g* non-smooth, convex
- problem data is stored locally on each device and is never shared
- client-server computation model

Federated Learning

We want to solve the distributed optimization problem

$$\underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f_i(x) + g(x)$$

No shortage of algorithms:

- FedAvg, FedSplit, FedProx, FedDR, SCAFFOLD, FedPD, FedDyn,...
- Our contribution: FedADMM
 - Converges with partial participation and approximate local solutions

FedADMM

Rewrite the problem as

$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{x,\bar{x}}{\text{minimize}} & \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}f_{i}(x_{i})+g(\bar{x})\\ \text{s.t.} & \mathbb{I}=\mathbb{1}\bar{x} \end{array}$$

where

- x: concatenation of local variables $[x_1^T, x_2^T, \dots, x_N^T]$
- \bar{x} : global consensus variable

Each agent has an augmented Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L}_i(x_i, \bar{x}, z_i) := f_i(x_i) + g(\bar{x}^k) + \langle z_i^k, x_i - \bar{x}^k \rangle + \frac{\eta}{2} \left\| x_i - \bar{x}^k \right\|^2$$

Client-side



 $\label{eq:constraint} \begin{array}{l} \rhd \mbox{ Client side} \\ \mbox{for each client } i \in \mathcal{S}_k \mbox{ do} \\ \mbox{receive } \bar{x}^k \mbox{ from the server.} \\ x_i^{k+1} \approx \mathop{\arg\min}_{x_i} \mathcal{L}_i \left(x_i, \bar{x}^k, z_i^k \right) \\ z_i^{k+1} = z_i^k + \eta \left(x_i^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k \right) \quad \diamondsuit \mbox{Dual updates} \\ \hat{x}_i^{k+1} = x_i^{k+1} + \frac{1}{\eta} z_i^{k+1} \\ \mbox{send } \Delta \hat{x}_i^k = \hat{x}_i^{k+1} - \hat{x}_i^k \mbox{ back to the server} \\ \mbox{end for} \end{array}$

Client-side

Approximation

Clients do not have to minimize \mathcal{L}_i precisely:

$$\left\|x_i^{k+1} - \arg \min_{x_i} \mathcal{L}_i(x_i, \bar{x}^k, z_i^k)\right\| \le \epsilon_{i,k+1}$$

Partial Participation

At iteration k only a subset of clients \mathcal{S}_k need to send local updates

Server-side



Analysis

Convergence (Informal):

When $g \equiv 0$, we have

$$\frac{1}{K+1} \sum_{k=0}^{K} \mathbb{E}\left[\left\| \nabla f(\bar{x}^{k}) \right\|^{2} \right] \leq \underbrace{\frac{c_{1}[F(x^{0}) - f^{\star}]}{K+1}}_{(1)} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{N(K+1)} l(\epsilon_{i,k}, \epsilon_{i,k+1})}_{(2)}$$

where

$$l(\epsilon_{i,k}, \epsilon_{i,k+1}) := \sum_{k=0}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (c_2 \epsilon_{i,k}^2 + c_3 \epsilon_{i,k+1}^2)$$

- (1): initial optimality gap
- (2): cost of working with approximate solutions
- Impact of partial participation reflected in the constants (omitted)

Analysis

Convergence (Informal):

If the sum of the accuracies is bounded by $D>0, \, {\rm then}\,\, {\rm FedADMM}$ requires

$$K = \left\lfloor \frac{c_1[F(x_0) - F^\star] + (c_2 + c_3)D}{\epsilon^2} \right\rfloor \equiv O(\epsilon^{-2})$$

to achieve an ϵ -suboptimal stationary point.

 $\bullet\,$ All the above analysis can be extended to include g

Conclusions

- Randomized algorithms are widely used in ML & scientific computing
- Demonstrated their use in simple control applications
- Power applications?!

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- **[BP]**: Bartan and Pilanci, *Distributed averaging methods for* randomized second order optimization, arXiv:2002.0654, 2020.

Backup slides

Stage 1: Comments

Slowly decaying spectrum

Can boost accuracy by incorporating **power iterations**. Based on the observation:

$$W := (AA^*)^q A$$

has the same singular vectors as A. But

$$\sigma_j(W) = \sigma_j(A)^{2q+1}, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots$$

- Replace $Y = A\Omega$ with $Y = W\Omega$
- Complicates the error bound will show it later

Target rank selection

Straight forward to adaptively construct the basis vectors Q until tolerance is met. See **[HMT]** for details.

Additional Numerical Experiments

Power Iterations





(c) Running time of stochastic Ho-Kalman Algorithm with varying power parameter q. The oversampling parameter l is 10.

(d) Realization error of the stochastic Ho-Kalman Algorithm with varying power parameter q. The oversampling parameter l is 10.

• Example 4: (n, m, p, T) = (100, 80, 50, 500)