Why does functional pruning yield such fast algorithms for optimal changepoint detection?

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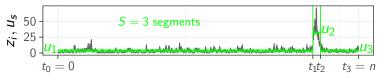
Classical dynamic programming for optimal changepoint detection

Functional pruning algorithms

Empirical time complexity

Theoretical time complexity

Statistical model is a piecewise constant mean



- ▶ We have *n* data $z_1, ..., z_n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$.
- ▶ Fix the number of segments $S \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$.
- ▶ Optimization variables: S-1 changepoints $t_1 < \cdots < t_{S-1}$ and S segment means $u_1, \ldots, u_S \in \mathbb{R}_+$.
- Let $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_{S-1} < t_S = n$ be the segment limits.
- Statistical model: for every segment $s \in \{1, ..., S\}$, $z_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \mathsf{Poisson}(u_s)$ for every data point $i \in (t_{s-1}, t_s]$ implies convex loss function $\ell(u, z) = u z \log u$ to minimize.
- Other models: real-valued $z_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(u_s, \sigma^2)$ implies square loss $\ell(u, z) = (u z)^2$, etc.



Maximum likelihood inference is a non-convex minimization problem

- ▶ Hard optimization problem, naively $O(n^S)$ time.
- Auger and Lawrence (1989): $O(Sn^2)$ time classical dynamic programming algorithm:

$$\mathcal{L}_{s,t} = \min_{t' < t} \mathcal{L}_{s-1,t'} + c_{(t',t]}$$



Maximum likelihood inference is a non-convex minimization problem

$$\mathcal{L}_{S,n} = \min_{\substack{\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^S \\ 0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{S-1} < t_S = n}} \sum_{i=t_{s-1}+1}^{t_s} \sum_{i=t_{s-1}+1}^{t_s} \ell(u_s, z_i)$$

$$= \min_{\substack{t_{s-1} \\ t_1 < \dots < t_{S-2} \\ t_1 < \dots < t_{S-2} \\ t_1 < \dots < t_{S-1} \\ t_2 < \dots < t_{S-1} \\ t_3 < \dots < t_{S-1} \\ t_4 < \dots < t_{S-1} \\ t_5 < \dots < t_{S-$$

- ▶ Hard optimization problem, naively $O(n^S)$ time.
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Efficient computation of optimal last segment cost

For any $0 \le i < j \le n$ we have

$$c_{(i,j]} = \min_{u} \sum_{t=i+1}^{j} (u - z_{t})^{2}$$

$$= \min_{u} \sum_{t=i+1}^{j} (u^{2} - 2uz_{t} + z_{t}^{2})$$

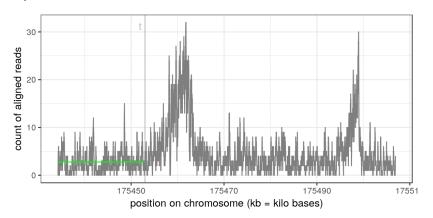
$$= \sum_{t=i+1}^{j} (z_{t}^{2}) + \min_{u} (j - i)u^{2} - 2u \sum_{t=i+1}^{j} (z_{t})$$

$$= Q_{j} - Q_{i} + (S_{j} - S_{i})^{2}/(j - i) - 2(S_{j} - S_{i})^{2}/(j - i)$$

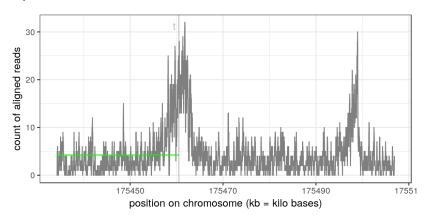
$$= Q_{j} - Q_{i} - (S_{j} - S_{i})^{2}/(j - i)$$

where

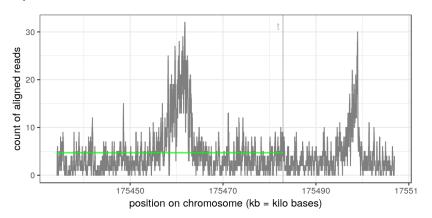
- ▶ $Q_0 = 0$ and $Q_i = Q_{i-1} + z_i^2$ for all $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ (cumulative sum of squares of data).
- ▶ $S_0 = 0$ and $S_i = S_{i-1} + z_i$ for all $i \in \{1, ..., n\}$ (cumulative sum of data).



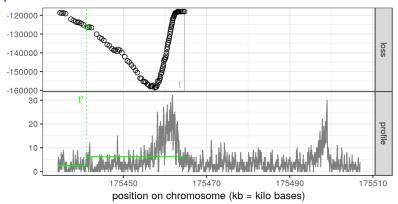
$$\mathcal{L}_{1,t} = \underbrace{\mathcal{C}_{(0,t]}}_{ ext{optimal loss of 1st segment }(0,t]}$$



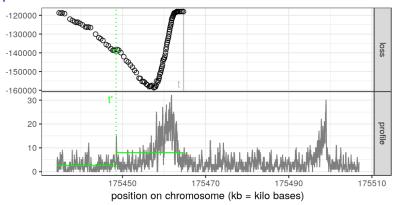
$$\mathcal{L}_{1,t} = \underbrace{\mathcal{C}_{(0,t]}}_{ ext{optimal loss of 1st segment }(0,t]}$$



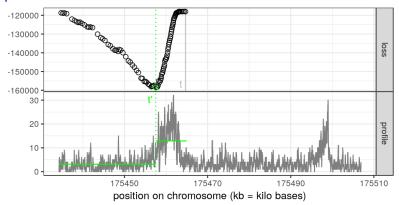
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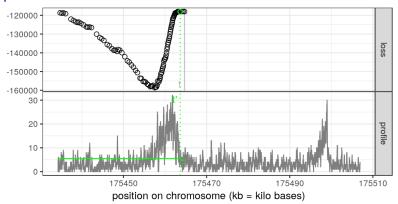
$$\mathcal{L}_{2,t} = \min_{t' < t} \qquad \qquad + \qquad \underbrace{\mathcal{C}_{(t',t]}}_{ ext{optimal loss in 1 segment up to } t'} + \underbrace{\mathcal{C}_{(t',t]}}_{ ext{optimal loss of 2nd segment } (t',t]}$$



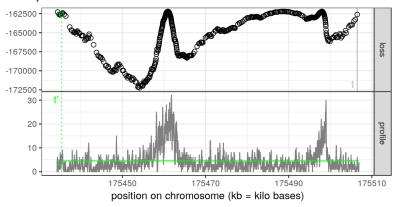
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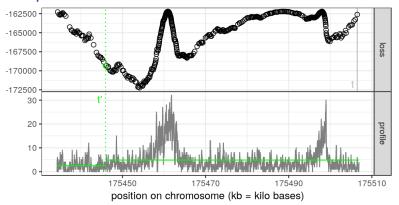
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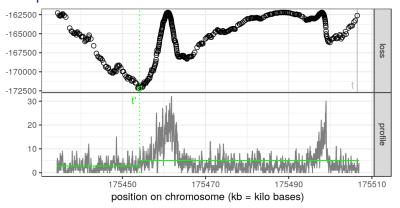
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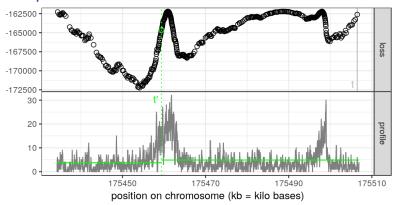
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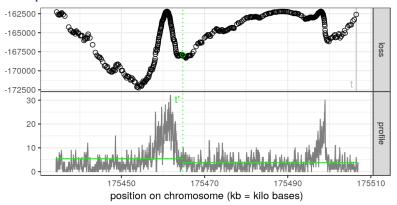
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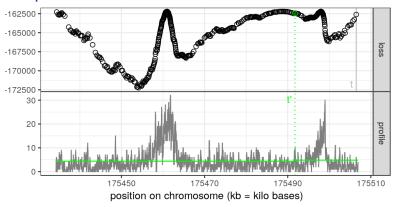
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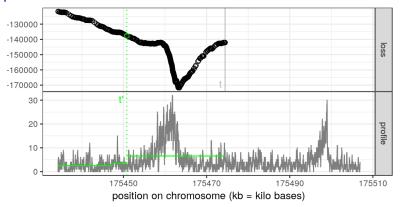
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Dynamic programming is faster than grid search for s>2 segments

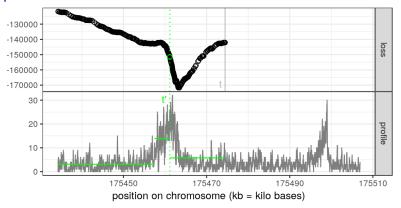
Computation time in number of data points n:

segments s	grid search	dynamic programming
1	O(n)	O(n)
2	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^2)$
3	$O(n^3)$	$O(n^2)$
4	$O(n^4)$	$O(n^2)$
:	:	<u>:</u>

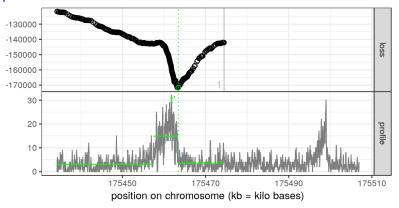
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For example n = 5735 data points to segment. n^2 = 32890225 n^3 = 188625440375 :
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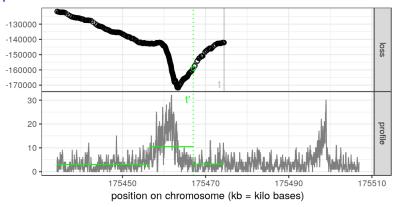
$$\mathcal{L}_{3,t} = \min_{t' < t} \underbrace{\mathcal{L}_{2,t'}}_{ ext{optimal loss in 2 segments up to } t'} + \underbrace{\mathcal{C}_{(t',t]}}_{ ext{optimal loss of 3rd segment } (t',t]}$$



$$\mathcal{L}_{3,t} = \min_{t' < t} \qquad \qquad \mathcal{L}_{2,t'} \qquad \qquad + \qquad \underbrace{\mathcal{C}_{(t',t]}}_{\text{optimal loss of 3rd segment } (t',t]}$$



$$\mathcal{L}_{3,t} = \min_{t' < t} \qquad \qquad \mathcal{L}_{2,t'} \qquad \qquad + \qquad \underbrace{\mathcal{C}_{(t',t]}}_{\text{optimal loss of 3rd segment } (t',t]}$$



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Theoretical time complexity

Classical dynamic programming is too slow for big data

- Motivated by big data sequences n > 1000 in genomics and other fields, for which $O(n^2)$ is too slow.
- Recent work into functional pruning algorithms which compute the same solution in $O(n \log n)$ (empirically).
- ▶ Independent discovery by Rigaill arXiv:1004.0887, JFdS 2015; Johnson PhD 2011, JCGS 2013. Main idea: first minimize on the last changepoint t_{S-1} , then on the last segment mean u_S :

$$\mathcal{L}_{S,n} = \min_{t_{S-1}} \mathcal{L}_{S-1,t_{S-1}} + \min_{\substack{u_S \\ i=t_{S-1}+1}} \sum_{i=t_{S-1}+1}^{t_{S}=n} \ell(u_S, z_i) - \text{classical}$$

$$= \min_{\substack{u_S \\ t_{S-1}}} \min_{t_{S-1}} \mathcal{L}_{S-1,t_{S-1}} + \sum_{i=t_{S-1}+1}^{t_{S}=n} \ell(u_S, z_i) - \text{functional}$$

Dynamic programming recursion with functional pruning

- ightharpoonup au is first data point on last segment.
- $\blacktriangleright \mu$ is last segment mean.

$$C_{S,n}(\mu) = \min_{\tau \in \{S,...,n\}} \mathcal{L}_{S-1,\tau-1} + \sum_{i=\tau}^{n} \ell(\mu, z_i)$$

$$= \min\{\mathcal{L}_{S-1,S-1} + \sum_{i=S}^{n} \ell(\mu, z_i), ...,$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{S-1,n-1} + \ell(\mu, z_n)\}$$

$$= \ell(\mu, z_n) + \min\{\mathcal{L}_{S-1,S-1} + \sum_{i=S}^{n-1} \ell(\mu, z_i), ...,$$

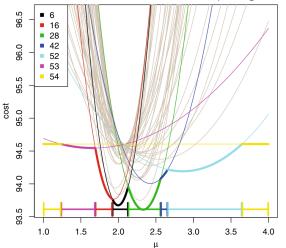
$$\mathcal{L}_{S-1,n-2} + \ell(\mu, z_{n-1})\}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{S-1,n-1}\}$$

$$= \ell(\mu, z_n) + \min\{C_{S,n-1}(\mu), \mathcal{L}_{S-1,n-1}\}$$

Functional cost representation results in pruning

Maidstone, et al. Statistics and Computing 2016.



- ▶ Only need to store the minimum cost (colored lines/intervals).
- ► No need to consider the cost functions/changepoints which are not optimal for any mean values (grey=lines).

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Number of intervals in real and simulated data

Rigaill, arXiv:1004.0887.

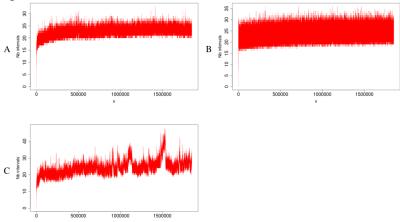
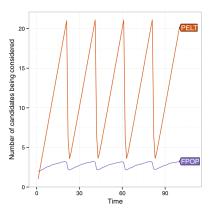


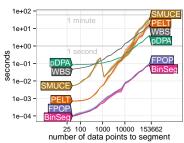
FIGURE 5. Maximum number of intervals stored by the pDPA at each point of the sequence for K=1. A: For 100 sequences of 1.8 10^6 points simulated with a constant signal plus an additional normal noise of variance 1. B: For 100 sequences of 1.8 10^6 points simulated with a sine wave signal plus an additional normal noise of variance 1. C: For the 18 profiles of length 1.8. 10^6 of the GSE17359 dataset

Another fast functional pruning algorithm

Maidstone, et al. Statistics and Computing 2016.

$$\underset{\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(m_i, z_i) + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} I[m_i \neq m_{i+1}]$$





Algorithm with constraints is also fast

H, et al. arXiv:1703.03352.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} & \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(m_i, z_i) \\ \text{subject to} & \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} I[m_i \neq m_{i+1}] = S-1, \\ & \dots \text{up-down constraints on } m. \end{array}$$

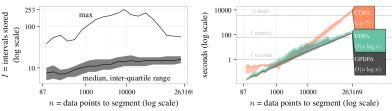
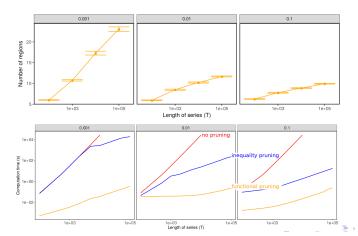


Figure 3: Empirical speed analysis on 2752 count data vectors from the histone mark ChIP-seq benchmark. For each vector we ran the GPDPA with the up-down constraint and a max of K=19 segments. The expected time complexity is O(KnI) where I is the average number of intervals (function pieces; candidate changepoints) stored in the $C_{k,t}$ cost functions. Left: number of intervals stored is $I=O(\log n)$ (median, inter-quartile range, and maximum over all data points t and segments k). Right: time complexity of the GPDPA is $O(n\log n)$ (median line and min/max band).

Another fast constrained algorithm for neuroscience

Jewell, et al. Biostatistics 2019.

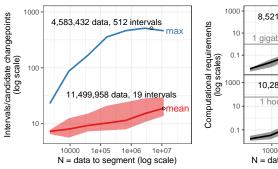


Another fast constrained algorithm for genomics

H, et al. arXiv:1810.00117, accepted in J. Statistical Software.

$$\underset{\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(m_i, z_i) + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} I[m_i \neq m_{i+1}]$$

subject to ...up-down constraints on m.



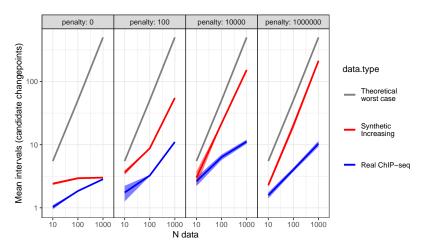
1000 8,521,917 data, 86 gigabytes of 1 gigabyte 1 gigabyte 1 1000 1 10,289,916 data, 190 minutes 1 hour 1 hour 1 10,000 1 1 1 hour 1 h

 $I = O(\log n)$ intervals.

Overall $O(n \log n)$ complexity.



Worst case quadratic complexity only observed with synthetic data and large penalties



Mean \pm standard deviation over 10 data sets.

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Worst case complexity is quadratic

Rigaill, arXiv:1004.0887.

Propostion 5. If all $\sum_{j} \gamma(Y_{j}, \mu)$ are unimodal in μ and if both minimising $\widetilde{C}_{1:t,\tau}^{K}(\mu)$ and finding the roots of $\widetilde{C}_{1:t,\tau}^{K}(\mu) = \mathbf{Cost}_{1:t}^{K-1}$ are in $\mathscr{O}(1)$, the pDPA is at worst in $\mathscr{O}(K_{max}n^{2})$ time and in $\mathscr{O}(K_{max}n)$ space.

Proof. The key quantity to control is the number of intervals needed to represent $\mathscr{S}^K_{1:t,\tau}$. For a given K and at step t the number of candidate last change-points is obviously bounded by t. If all $\sum_{j=\tau+1}^{t+1} \gamma(Y_j,\mu)$ are unimodal, using theorem 8 (proved in appendix A) we get that the total number of intervals is bounded by 2t-1. Thus at each step there is at most t last change-points and 2t-1 intervals to update. By summing all these bounds from 1 to n and for every possible K we retrieve an $\mathscr{O}(K_{max}n^2)$ worst case time complexity.

As for the worst case space complexity, we need to store two $(n+1) \times K_{max}$ matrices $(D_{K,t})$ and $I_{K,t}$ and at each step there is at most t candidates and 2t-1 intervals. This gives an $\mathcal{O}(K_{max}n)$ space complexity

Average case complexity proof for uniform loss

Rigaill, arXiv:1004.0887.

Property 6. For the negative log-likelihood loss, $K_{max} = 1$, and for, $Y_{1:n+1}$, n independent and identically distributed random variables of density f and continuous distribution F, $E(|\tau^1_{1:n}|) = \mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ and the average time complexity of the pDPA is in $\mathcal{O}(n\log(n))$.

Proof The proof of $E(|\tau^1_{1:t}|) = \mathcal{O}(\log(t))$ is given in appendix B. We obtain this result by studying the set $\mathscr{S}^1_{1:n,\tau}$. More precisely we characterize some simple events for which $\mathscr{S}^1_{1:n,\tau}$ is empty and compute the probability of these events. Then by taking the expectation and summing over all possible τ we get the desired result.

For the complexity using theorem 8 we know that the number of intervals stored by the pruned DPA is always smaller than 2 times the number of candidate change-points. Thus for $K_{max} = 1$, for every $t \le n$ the pruned DPA updates on average $\mathcal{O}(\log(t))$ functional costs and intervals. From this the complexity follows

Conclusions

- ▶ Optimal detection of S-1 changepoints in n data is naively a $O(n^S)$ computation.
- Functional pruning method yields algorithms with worst case time complexity of $O(n^2)$ (same as classical dynamic programming).
- Empirically the functional pruning algorithms are much faster, $O(n \log n)$.
- Only one proof of average time complexity for 1 changepoint and the uniform loss function (never used in practice).
- ▶ Would be interesting to prove $O(n \log n)$ average time complexity in other more realistic situations. (square/Poisson loss, λ) How?
- Let's collaborate! toby.hocking@nau.edu

Example data set with n = 4

Rigaill, arXiv:1004.0887.

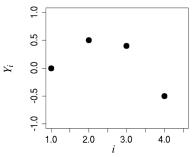


Figure 1. Four-point signal. y_i as a function of i. $y_1 = 0$, $y_2 = 0.5$, $y_3 = 0.4$, $y_4 = -0.5$

Functional cost computation at t = 3

Rigaill, arXiv:1004.0887.

▶ Data: 0, 0.5, 0.4, -0.5.

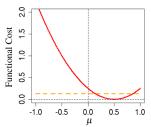
 $ightharpoonup \mathcal{L}_{1,1} = \min_{\mu} (\mu - 0)^2 = 0.$

 $\mathcal{L}_{1,2} = \min_{\mu} (\mu - 0)^2 + (\mu - 0.5)^2 = 0.125.$

• Computing $C_{2,3}(\mu) = \ell(\mu, z_3) + \min\{C_{2,2}(\mu), L_{1,2}\}$:

• Change before $\tau = 2$: $C_{2,2}(\mu) = \mathcal{L}_{1,1} + (\mu - 0.5)^2$.

▶ Change before $\tau = 3$: $\mathcal{L}_{1,2}$.



τ	Functional cost	$\mathscr{S}^1_{1:3, au}$
2	$0.25 - \mu + \mu^2$	[0.146 , 0.854]
3	0.125	$[-\infty, 0.146] \cup [0.854, +\infty]$

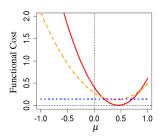
FIGURE 2. Functional cost of $Y_{1:3}$ for K=1 using the quadratic loss. (Left) Functional cost as a function of μ of segmentations having a change-point at $\tau=2$ (solid red) and $\tau=3$ (orange dashed). (Right) Analytical expression of the functional costs for $\tau=2$ and $\tau=3$ and the set of μ , for which they are optimal: $\mathcal{S}_{1:3-\tau}^{1}$.

Functional cost computation at t = 4

Rigaill, arXiv:1004.0887.

- ▶ Data: 0, 0.5, 0.4, -0.5.
- Computing $C_{2,4}(\mu) = \ell(\mu, z_4) + \min\{C_{2,3}(\mu), \mathcal{L}_{1,3}\}$:
- Change before $\tau = 2$: $\mathcal{L}_{1,1} + (\mu 0.5)^2 + (\mu 0.4)^2$.
- ► Change before $\tau = 3$: $\mathcal{L}_{1,2} + (\mu 0.4)^2$.
- ▶ Change before $\tau = 4$:

$$\mathcal{L}_{1,3} = \min_{\mu} (\mu - 0)^2 + (\mu - 0.5)^2 + (\mu - 0.4)^2.$$

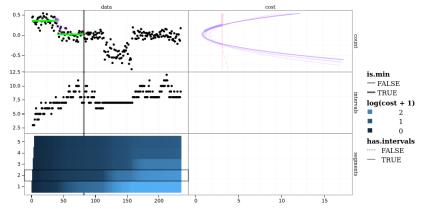


1	τ	Functional cost	$\mathscr{S}^1_{1:4, au}$
1	2	$0.41 - 1.8\mu + 2\mu^2$	$[\ 0.190\ ,\ 0.709\]$
3	3	$0.285 - 0.8\mu + \mu^2$	0
-	4	0.14	$[\; -\infty, 0.190 \;] \cup [\; 0.709, +\infty \;]$

FIGURE 3. Functional cost of $Y_{1:4}$ for K=1 using the quadratic loss. (Left) Functional cost of a segmentations having a change-point at $\tau=2$ (solid red) $\tau=3$ (orange dashed) and $\tau=4$ (blue dotted). (Right) Analytical expression of the functional costs for $\tau=2$, 3 and 4 and the set of μ , for which they are optimal: $\mathcal{S}_{1:4}^{1}$ τ :

Functional pruning larger example

- ▶ Computing each $C_{s,t}(\mu)$ is an O(I) operation where I is the number of intervals (candidate changepoints).
- ▶ Need to compute O(Sn) functions; total complexity is O(SnI).
- ▶ Empirically $I = O(\log n)$ due to pruning so overall $O(Sn \log n)$.



http://members.cbio.mines-paristech.fr/~thocking/figure-unconstrained-PDPA-normal-big/