

Chapter 10

Optimization of In-House Energy Demand

Stephan Spiegel

1 **Abstract** Heating control is of particular importance, since heating accounts for
2 the biggest amount of total residential energy consumption. Smart heating strategies
3 allow to reduce such energy consumption by automatically turning off the heating
4 when the occupants are sleeping or away from home. The present context or occu-
5 pancy state of a household can be deduced from the appliances that are currently in
6 use. In this chapter, we investigate energy disaggregation techniques to infer appli-
7 ance states from an aggregated energy signal measured by a smart meter. Since
8 most household devices have predictable energy consumption, we propose to use the
9 changes in aggregated energy consumption as features for the appliance/occupancy
10 state classification task. We evaluate our approach on real-life energy consumption
11 data from several households, compare the classification accuracy of various machine
12 learning techniques, and explain how to use the inferred appliance states to optimize
13 heating schedules.

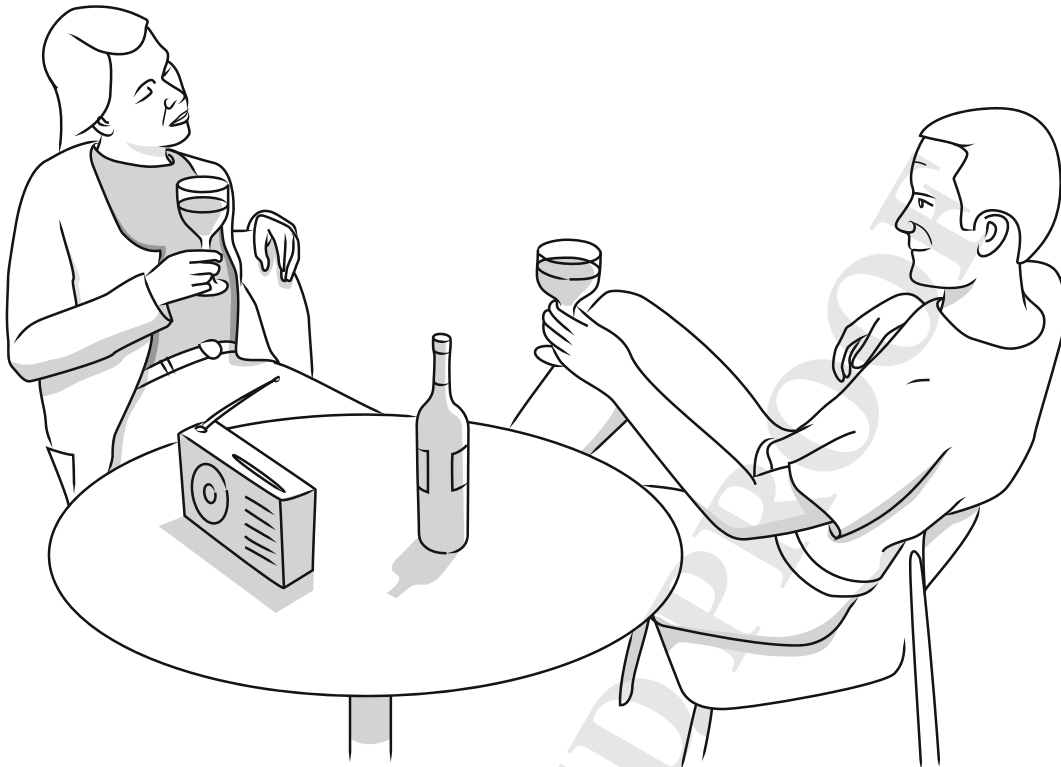
14 **Sustainable Energy: The Early Adopter Scenario**

15 Steven and his wife Suzanne love to relax in their garden behind the house on warm
16 summer evenings. Usually, they enjoy dinner with a glass of wine on their garden
17 terrace, talking about the kids, Clara and Carl, or listing to the latest news from the
18 local radio station. Yesterday evening there was a radio broadcast about the advance
19 of smart meters and their potential to reduce the energy consumption in residential
20 homes. Suzanne was excited about the idea of saving energy by themselves, especially
21 since the power market has continuously raised prices over the last couple of years.
22 Steven has always been fond of Suzanne's commitment to sustainable living and
23 suggested to contact Ralph, an old schoolmate of him, who runs his own little business
24 in the IT sector and also is a trained electrician.

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26 On the next day Steven called Ralph and was surprised to learn that heating
27 accounts for the biggest amount of total residential energy consumption. Ralph told
28 him that some households save up to 30 % energy by installing an advanced heating
29 control, which allows to setup heating schedules. But Steven argued that it would be
30 difficult to set up a heating schedule for his family, since the timetable of his kids is
31 irregular, his wife's company allows her to telecommute up to four times per month,
32 and he sometimes has to do shift work. Ralph contemplated Steven's arguments for a
33 while and eventually suggested to install a presence sensing infrastructure, which can
34 detect movements and forwards presence states to the heating control. However, after
35 weighing the cost for such a sensor infrastructure against the potential energy savings,
36 they both abandoned this course of action. Having discussed the advantages and
37 limitations of available solutions, Steven told Ralph about the radio broadcast which
38 had advertised smart metering technology and came up with the idea of using energy
39 consumption measurements for the detection of presence states. Ralph thought it
40 was a brilliant idea and said that he would do some research on smart metering
41 technology.

42 A week had passed when Ralph finally called back and told Steven that he had
43 come up with an advantageous solution for automatically detecting presence states
44 from smart meter measurements. Although Steven had never before heard of some-
45 thing like energy disaggregation, he could understand that Ralph planned to imple-
46 ment an algorithm that utilizes energy consumption readings to infer appliance use,
47 which in turn could be used to deduce presence states. Ralph explained that the
48 use of an individual electronic device causes a specific energy consumption profile,
49 which can be used to deduce certain activities in a household. According to Ralph,

50 the task of the energy disaggregation algorithm would be to recognize and classify
51 the individual appliances consumption profiles within the aggregated energy signal
52 coming from the smart meter. Ralph assured Steven that this solution does not require
53 additional sensor infrastructure and enables recommendations for optimized heating
54 schedules based on automatically deduced presence states.

55 Steven was very pleased with Ralph's proposal and informed his wife Suzanne
56 about the good news. In about three months they would have a new energy-aware
57 heating control system, which will help them to cut future energy bills without any
58 effort. Suzanne was relieved by the idea that she will never again have to worry about
59 the kids going out of the house without turning the heating off or her coming home
60 early in winter finding the living room in a state of severe cold. Steven told her that
61 it would even be possible to access and monitor the heating control from remote via
62 her smart phone, which may be convenient when they are on longer vacation with
63 their kids. As usual both Steven and Suzanne were enjoying dinner together on their
64 garden terrace, talking about new family projects and listening to the local radio
65 station, which this time was broadcasting a debate about environmentally friendly
66 vehicles and new ways of transportation.

67 10.1 Introduction

68 The main goal of our study is to provide a framework for heating control and schedul-
69 ing which considers the occupancy states of residential homes. Since most solutions
70 for occupancy state identification involve complex sensor infrastructure and costly
71 hardware which cause high usage barrier [3, 9, 14, 17], we aim to use given infor-
72 mation from available electricity smart meters. We propose to employ energy disag-
73 gregation to infer appliance usage which is, as we will show, beneficial to occupancy
74 state identification. In the following, we briefly introduce the value of appliance
75 usage information, before we explain how we use this information for the purpose
76 of heating control.

77 In the context of domestic environments, consumers vastly underestimate the
78 energy used for heating and overestimate the energy used for appliances that replace
79 manual labor tasks [4]. Numerous studies have identified that consumers get a bet-
80 ter understanding of their energy use by clear, concise, and direct feedback about
81 appliance-specific consumption information [13, 19, 23].

82 In regard to power grid operators and power suppliers, knowledge about the energy
83 consumption on appliance level is critical to the development of power system plan-
84 ning, load forecasting, billing procedures, and pricing models [4, 19]. In addition, the
85 identification of electric appliances in domestic environments is important, because
86 the increasing number of renewable energy sources in the power grid requires electric
87 utilities to be able to quickly react to changes in supply and demand [18].

88 The growing need for accurate and specific information about domestic energy
89 consumption on device level has led to numerous studies on appliance load moni-
90 toring [1, 4, 10, 22, 23]. Existing solutions for appliance load monitoring can

91 be classified into two primary techniques [4, 21]: distributed direct sensing and
92 single-point sensing.

93 Distributed direct sensing typically requires a current sensor to be installed in-line
94 with every device and is therefore often referred to as intrusive load monitor-
95 ing. Although intrusive load monitoring easily achieves a consumption breakdown,
96 deploying a large number of sensors in the residential environment quickly leads to
97 high cost and discouraging high usage barrier [21].

98 Single-point sensor systems are easier to deploy and are typically subsumed under
99 the concept of nonintrusive load monitoring (NILM) [21]. Energy disaggregation is
100 the task of using an aggregated energy signal, such as that coming from a single-point
101 sensor or rather whole-home power monitor, to make inferences about the different
102 loads of individual appliances [10]. However, single-point sensor systems require
103 knowledge about the household devices and their electrical characteristics [21]. The
104 challenges in energy disaggregation are mainly due to appliances with similar energy
105 consumption, appliances with multiple settings, parallel appliance activity, and envi-
106 ronmental noise [19]. Recent studies [8, 10–13, 20] have shown that machine learning
107 techniques represent a suitable solution to recognize appliances in such dynamic and
108 unpredictable environments.

109 In this work, we consider energy disaggregation techniques to derive occupancy
110 states from appliance usage data in order to use this information in smart heating con-
111 trol strategies [9]. Heating control is of particular importance, since heating accounts
112 for the biggest amount of total residential energy consumption and recent studies
113 have shown that up to 30% of the total energy can be saved by turning the heat-
114 ing off when the occupants are asleep or away [14]. Existing work on the inference
115 of occupancy states in residential environments includes statistical classification of
116 aggregated energy data [9], hot water usage [3] as well as human motion and activity
117 [17]. Our own approach to infer occupancy states differs in that we consider appli-
118 ance usage, which gives more detailed information about the present context in a
119 household and the devices which suggest user activity. Furthermore, our proposed
120 framework does not require any additional infrastructure, and, therefore, is more
121 likely to be accepted by residents.

122 For the evaluation of our approach, we consider the REDD dataset [10], which
123 consists of whole-home and device-specific electricity consumption for a number
124 of real houses over the period of several month. In our experiments, we compare
125 the performance of different models for the appliance/occupancy state classification
126 task. We use cross-validation (training on all houses and leave-one-out for testing) to
127 evaluate how well the different models generalize. Our results suggest that the Naive
128 Bayes classifier is suitable for the prediction of occupancy/appliance states and fits
129 the problem of real-time heating control.

130 The rest of the chapter is structured as follows. In Sect. 10.2, we give some back-
131 ground on recent advances in energy disaggregation. Section 10.3 introduces the
132 formal notation of our appliance state classification task. Our proposed framework
133 for heating control and scheduling by means of energy disaggregation techniques
134 is described in Sect. 10.4. The experimental design and results on our approach are
135 presented in Sect. 10.5. A practical application for our approach, named SOE, is

136 demonstrated in Sect. 10.6. Eventually, we conclude our study and give an outlook
137 on future work in Sect. 10.7.

138 10.2 Background

139 Energy disaggregation, also referred to as nonintrusive load monitoring, is the task
140 of using an aggregated energy signal, such as that coming from a whole-home power
141 monitor, to make inferences about the different individual loads of the system [10].
142 This approach is seen as an intermediate between existing electricity meters (which
143 merely record whole-home power usage) and fully energy-aware home appliance
144 networks, where each individual device reports its own consumption [18].

145 For a thorough evaluation of various energy disaggregation mechanisms under
146 real-world conditions, a comprehensive collection of power consumption data is
147 needed [18]. Most approaches to energy disaggregation have been supervised, in
148 that the model is trained on individual device power signals [23]. The vast majority
149 of supervised disaggregation approaches have evaluated the trained models on the
150 same devices but in new conditions [1].

151 Research on energy disaggregation has been encouraged by publicly available
152 datasets such as REDD [10], which contains information about the power consump-
153 tion of several different homes on device level, and, therefore, allows cross-validation
154 for individual appliances. Experiments on the REDD dataset have shown that the
155 Factorial Hidden Markov Model (FHMM) is able to disaggregate the power data
156 reasonably well [10]. In that case, the disaggregation task is framed as an inference
157 problem and the performance of energy disaggregation is evaluated considering the
158 percentage of energy correctly classified.

159 Although FHMMs have shown to be a powerful tool [5] for learning probabilistic
160 models of multivariate time series, the combinatorial nature of distributed state rep-
161 resentation makes an exact algorithm for inferring the posterior probabilities of the
162 hidden state variables intractable. Approximate inference can be carried out using
163 Gibbs sampling or variational methods [5]. Recent work [8] on energy disaggregation
164 presents different FHMM variants which incorporate additional features and better
165 fit the probability distribution of the state occupancy durations of the appliances.

166 Another work [19] proposes Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) for appliance
167 recognition, because they (i) do not require prior understanding of appliance behavior,
168 (ii) are capable of handling multiple states, and (iii) are able to learn while running.
169 The results show that after training the ANN with generated appliance signatures, the
170 proposed system is able to recognize the previously learned appliances with relatively
171 high accuracy, even in demanding scenarios. To tune the ANN, the authors suggest to
172 use the generated signatures to create a training dataset with all possible combinations
173 of appliance activity. Comparing the disaggregation performance for different ANN
174 algorithms, additional work [11] suggests to employ back-propagation rather than
175 the radial-base-function.

176 In another study [21], the authors propose a disaggregation algorithm that consists
177 of several consecutive steps including normalization, edge detection via thresholding
178 and smoothing techniques, extraction of power-level and delta-level consumption,
179 matching of known appliances from a signature database with extracted delta vectors,
180 and labeling of recognized devices. The proposed system does not require setup or
181 training, because the user is able to label appliance signatures via her smart phone. In
182 that case, the appliance signatures are based on apparent, reactive, real, and distortion
183 power measured by the smart meter.

184 The classification of household items based on their electricity usage profile over
185 a fixed time interval is discussed in yet another study [13]. The authors consider the
186 time series classification problem of identifying device types through daily or weekly
187 demand profiles. The proposed approach concentrates on bespoke features such as
188 mean, variance, kurtosis, skewness, slope, and run measures. The experiments show
189 that classification using the bespoke features performs better than classification
190 using the raw data. However, the nature of similarity captured strongly depends on
191 the features extracted.

192 In a similar work [18], the authors present an appliance identification approach
193 based on characteristic features of traces collected during the 24h of a day. The
194 extracted features include temporal appliance behavior, power consumption levels,
195 shape of the consumption, active phase statistics, and noise level characteristics.
196 Each resulting feature vector is annotated by the actual device class and used to train
197 the underlying model of the selected classifier. Among various tested classifiers, the
198 Random Committee algorithm performs best in categorizing new and yet unseen
199 feature vectors into one of the previously trained device types. Additional work [11]
200 demonstrates that the solution from any single-feature, single-algorithm disaggrega-
201 tion approach could be combined under a committee decision mechanism to render
202 the best solution.

203 Yet another work [20] presents a nonintrusive appliance load monitoring tech-
204 nique based on integer programming. Since the overall load current is expressed as
205 a superposition of each current of the operating appliance, the monitoring problem
206 can be formulated as an integer quadratic programming problem by expressing the
207 operating conditions as integer variables. Besides that the proposed method does not
208 require relearning when a new appliance is installed in the house, it is furthermore
209 able to distinguish between different device modes and some-type appliances that
210 operate simultaneously.

211 To monitor the states of multiple appliances via electricity consumption measure-
212 ments, another work [12] introduces the Bayes filter approach, which computes the
213 posterior distribution over the current state given all observations to date. Since the
214 state transition of an appliance is a continuous process, the authors employ a sliding
215 window to take the temporal factor into consideration and extract the past records of
216 data to be features. The estimated states are represented as binary strings, where each
217 bit denotes the on/off state of one individual appliance. According to the results, the
218 Bayes filter outperforms the KNN, Naive Bayes, and SVM classifier.

219 Leveraging recent advances in device and appliance power supplies, another series
220 of studies [4, 6] extends the energy disaggregation approach by using high-frequency

221 sampling of voltage noise, which provides an additional feature vector that can be
 222 used to distinguish more accurately between energy usage signatures. Appliances
 223 conduct a variety of noise voltage back onto the home's power wiring, yielding
 224 measurable noise signatures that are easily detectable using appropriate hardware.
 225 An important advantage of voltage noise signatures is that any electrical outlet inside
 226 the home can be used as a single installation point.

227 10.3 Notation

228 Since different devices tend to draw different amounts of power, which are consistent
 229 over time, total power is a reasonable feature to use for classification [4]. Most
 230 devices have predictable current consumption and can be categorized according to
 231 the magnitude of real/reactive power. Given a household with N devices, the power
 232 consumption of an individual appliance $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ over a period of T time
 233 points can be expressed as: $y^{(i)} = \{y_1^{(i)}, y_2^{(i)}, \dots, y_T^{(i)}\}$. Usually, we only observe
 234 the sum of all power outputs at each time: $\bar{y}_t = \sum_{i=1}^n y_t^{(i)}$, with $t = 1, \dots, T$.

235 Given the aggregated power signal, most research on energy disaggregation
 236 [1, 22, 23] aims at inferring the individual device consumption. Since we aim to
 237 infer the context or rather occupancy states in residential environments in order to
 238 optimize heating control, we are mainly interested in the ON/OFF states of individ-
 239 ual appliances $s_t^{(i)}$, where $s_t^{(i)} = 1$ if device i is turned "on" at time point t , and
 240 $s_t^{(i)} = 0$ otherwise. The appliance state identification task can be framed as an infer-
 241 ence problem. Given an aggregated power signal $\bar{y}_1, \dots, \bar{y}_T$, we intend to compute
 242 the posterior probability $p(s_t^{(i)} | \bar{y}_t)$ of individual appliance states $s_t^{(i)}$ for each device
 243 $i = 1, \dots, N$ and each time point $t = 1, \dots, T$.

244 Due to the fact that the aggregated power signal is super-imposed and unnormal-
 245 ized, and, therefore, unsuitable for the appliance state identification, we consider the
 246 changes in power consumption as features, which can be derived by the first-order
 247 difference of the power signal $\Delta y_t^{(i)} = y_t^{(i)} - y_{t-1}^{(i)}$ for $t = 2, \dots, T$. Thus the appli-
 248 ance state identification task could also be formulated as a classification problem,
 249 where a certain change in power consumption categorizes a device into either "ON"
 250 or "OFF" state.

251 10.4 Framework and Algorithms

252 Figure 10.1 shows a flowchart of our proposed framework for heating control and
 253 scheduling by means of energy disaggregation. The input for our heating control
 254 framework is an aggregated energy signal, such as that coming from a smart meter in
 255 a residential home. In the first step (i) we extract features from the energy signal, i.e.
 256 changes in consumption, which can be used to categorize the individual electrical

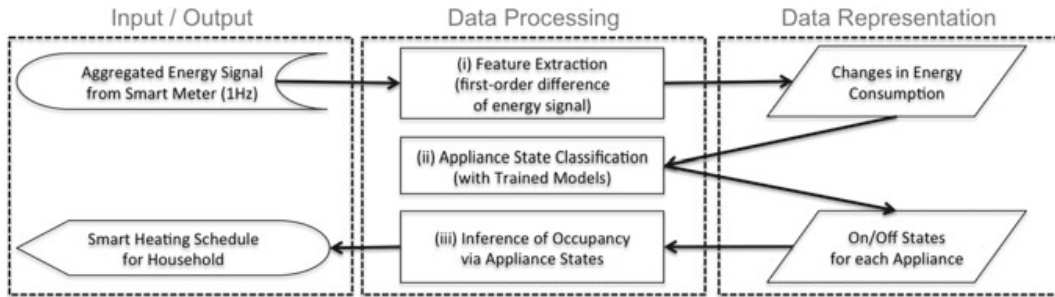


Fig. 10.1 Framework for heating control and scheduling by means of energy disaggregation techniques

257 devices. Subsequently, (ii) we use the extracted features as input for the appliance
 258 state classification. For the sake of simplicity, Fig. 10.1 assumes that the individual
 259 appliance models were trained on other households prior to the classification task.
 260 Given the classified ON/OFF states for each appliance, we can eventually (iii) infer
 261 the occupancy state of the respective household and recommend optimized heating
 262 schedules.

263 In the following subsections, we describe the (i) feature extraction, (ii) appliance
 264 state classification, and (iii) inference of occupancy in more detail.

265 10.4.1 Feature Extraction

266 Given the overall energy consumption of a household and the energy consumption of
 267 the individual appliances in this household, we aim to build a model for each appli-
 268 cance in order to estimate its ON/OFF states in a previously unknown environment or
 269 household. Since an appliance can be either turned ON or OFF, the device state iden-
 270 tification can be formalized as a two class problem. For the training of an individual
 271 appliance model, we consider the changes in power consumption that classify the
 272 respective device states. In our approach, the input for the classification model are
 273 two distributions of power changes, which represent the features that characterize
 274 one or the other class.

275 Figure 10.2 illustrates the feature extraction process on the basis of real-life mea-
 276 surements from the REDD data set, in particular the energy consumption of (a) House
 277 1 and (b) its refrigerator for a sample time frame of 8 h. We can see that (a) the overall
 278 energy consumption is the sum of (b) the Refrigerator's energy consumption and the
 279 energy consumption of other appliances. Given this information, we can derive the
 280 changes in energy consumption by the first-order difference of the power signals.
 281 This step is often referred to as edge detection, since the stable periods in the signal
 282 are filtered out. The edges or changes in power consumption of the overall energy
 283 signal and the Refrigerator signal are shown in Fig. 10.2c, d, respectively. Knowing
 284 which edges specify (d) the activity of the Refrigerator, we can easily separate the
 285 changes in energy consumption that categorize other devices by considering all the

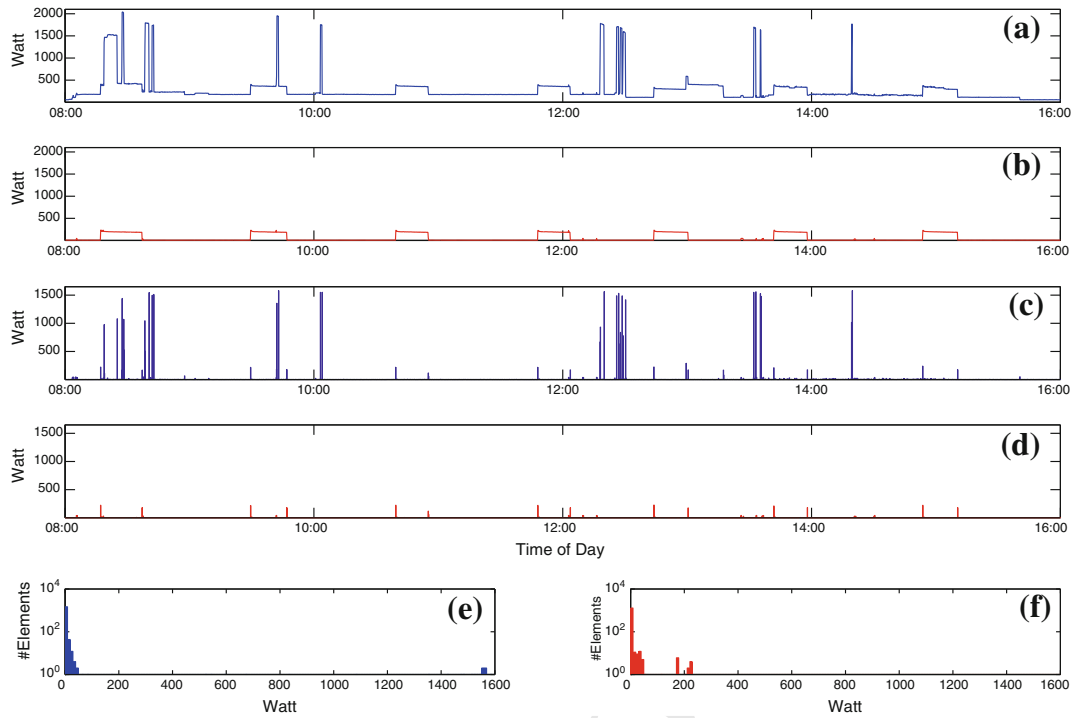


Fig. 10.2 Energy consumption of **a** House 1 and **b** its Refrigerator over an interval of 8 h. Plot **c** and **d** show the changes in power consumption for House 1 and its Refrigerator. The distribution of power changes that classify the Refrigerator's ON/OFF states are illustrated in Plot **e** and **f**

286 edges in (c) the overall energy signal which do not belong to the Refrigerator. The
 287 distribution of the edges that classify the Refrigerator's ON/OFF states are illustrated
 288 in Fig. 10.2e, f. These distributions can serve as training input for most probabilistic
 289 models.

290 10.4.2 Appliance State Classification

291 In this study, we aim at evaluating the appliance state classification task by means
 292 of various machine learning techniques, including Naive Bayes (NB) classifier,
 293 Factorial Hidden Markov Model (FHMM), Classification Tree (CT), and One-
 294 Nearest-Neighbor (1NN) classifier.

295 We selected these models based on their complementary characteristics and degree
 296 of popularity regarding the energy disaggregation task. Table 10.1 shows typical
 297 characteristics of the considered machine learning techniques [16], although the

Table 10.1 Characteristics of algorithms

	NB	FHMM	CT	1NN
Fitting speed	Fast	Fast	Fast	Fast
Prediction speed	Fast	Fast	Fast	Medium
Memory usage	Low	Low	Low	High
Easy to interpret	Yes	No	Yes	No

characteristics strongly depend on the underlying algorithm and the problem. Therefore, Table 10.1 should be considered as a guide for an initial choice of models.

The NB classifier is a simple probabilistic model based on applying Bayes' theorem with strong independence assumptions, which has been applied for appliance and occupancy recognition in various studies [9, 12, 13, 18]. Speed and memory usage of the NB classifier are good for simple distributions, but can be poor for large datasets [16].

The FHMM is a statistical model in which the system under study is assumed to be a Markov process with unobserved or hidden states. FHMMs have been successfully applied to the energy disaggregation problem [8, 10, 23]; however, their complexity increases with the number of states and the length of the Markov chain [5, 8].

CTs map observations about an item to conclusions about the item's target value, meaning the predicted outcome is the class to which the data belongs. Decision tree learning has been proven to be applicable to appliance identification on metering data in a couple of recent studies [1, 18].

The 1NN classifier is often regarded as the simplest straw man or baseline approach [7], and has been considered for the energy disaggregation task in several studies [12, 13, 23]. 1NN usually has good performance in low dimensions, but can have poor predictions in high dimensions. For linear search, 1NN does not perform any fitting [16].

10.4.3 Inference of Occupancy

We assume that there exists a direct relationship between appliance usage and occupancy states in residential homes. For instance, if the lighting is turned ON, we usually know that the residents are at home, unless someone forgot to turn OFF the lighting. Hence, lighting may be a straightforward indicator for occupancy states, enabling us to verify manually adjusted heating schemes and recommend optimized heating schedules.

However, heating control is much more complex, because the usage of certain appliance actually requires to decrease the temperature. For example, when residents turn ON the oven or stove, the temperature in the kitchen rises automatically, and we can reduce heating to save energy, instead of just opening the window. In case the heating control system would have knowledge about the installation points of all devices, one could even use the appliance states to control the temperature in individual rooms.

The knowledge of individual appliance states furthermore allows us to infer devices that are unrelated to occupancy. For instance, the refrigerator automatically switches between ON and OFF state every few minutes, no matter if the residents are at home or not. The same is true for devices in standby mode or appliances such as the smoke alarm or electronic panels which are constantly drawing power. Therefore, by just looking at the overall energy consumption of a household it is impossible to distinguish between occupancy states.

339 The accuracy of the appliance state classification and the implications for heating
340 control will be scrutinized in the following section.

341 **10.5 Empirical Evaluation**

342 The goal of our evaluation is twofold: (i) we investigate which of the considered
343 machine learning models is most accurate for the the appliance state classification
344 task; and (ii) we assess the use of the identified appliance or rather occupancy states
345 for heating control.

346 **10.5.1 Energy Data**

347 We consider the REDD dataset [10], which comprises electricity consumption mea-
348 surements from six household at the granularity level of individual devices, and rep-
349 resents to date one of the largest and richest publicly available collections of power
350 consumption data [2]. There are approximately 20 consecutive days of measurements
351 available for each house, providing data from the two main phases and each individ-
352 ual circuit at 1 Hz frequency rate. Measured appliances include main consumers such
353 as Air Conditioning, Dishwasher, Disposal, Electrical Heating, Microwave, Oven,
354 Refrigerator, Stove, Washer/Dryer as well as other miscellaneous electronics and
355 outlets (see Table 10.2).

356 **10.5.2 Experimental Design**

357 In our empirical evaluation, we compare the classification accuracy of the introduced
358 machine learning models (see Table 10.1) on the REDD data set. Strictly speaking,
359 we assess the appliance state classification accuracy for all considered models on
360 a granularity level of individual devices. The training of the respective models is
361 done on appliance-specific consumption measurements of one particular device for
362 all households but one. The aggregated electricity consumption signal of the left-
363 out household is then used for testing the performance of the trained models for
364 each individual device. This evaluation principle is also commonly known as cross-
365 validation with leave-one-out.

366 **10.5.3 Classification Accuracy**

367 Table 10.2 illustrates the classification accuracy per (a) household and (b) appli-
368 ance for all examined models, including Naive Bayes (NB), Factorial Hidden
369 Markov Model (FHMM), Classification Trees (CT), and One-Nearest-Neighbor

Table 10.2 Cross-validation of trained models

	NB	FHMM	CT	1NN
(a) Classification accuracy of device states per household averaged over all appliances				
House 1	0.8429	0.8414	0.8319	0.7615
House 2	0.9310	0.9300	0.9224	0.8062
House 3	0.9275	0.9200	0.8908	0.7213
House 4	0.8645	0.8616	0.8746	0.7038
House 5	0.9864	0.9854	0.9839	0.7638
House 6	0.8131	0.7873	0.7752	0.6050
MEAN	0.8942	0.8876	0.8798	0.7269
(b) Classification accuracy of device states per appliance averaged over all households				
Air conditioning	0.9315	0.9248	0.9300	0.9138
Bathroom GFI	0.9328	0.9275	0.9324	0.9134
Dishwasher	0.9541	0.9493	0.9551	0.9134
Disposal	0.9955	0.9818	0.9970	0.9918
Electrical heating	0.8863	0.8856	0.8620	0.8895
Electronics	0.8875	0.7970	0.7404	0.0991
Furnace	0.8216	0.8211	0.7294	0.5216
Kitchen outlets	0.7902	0.7915	0.7070	0.1775
Lighting	0.7751	0.7737	0.8006	0.7611
Microwave	0.9516	0.9473	0.9526	0.9279
Miscellaneous	0.9242	0.9295	0.9296	0.7237
Outdoor outlets	0.9982	0.9995	0.9997	0.9996
Oven	0.9754	0.9804	0.9815	0.9811
Refrigerator	0.7834	0.7872	0.7952	0.7898
Smoke alarm	0.9729	0.9629	0.9738	0.6234
Stove	0.9346	0.9288	0.9363	0.8330
Subpanel	0.9808	0.9807	0.9815	0.9811
Unknown outlets	0.9578	0.9558	0.9555	0.3432
Washer/Dryer	0.9287	0.9256	0.9297	0.8763
MEAN	0.9148	0.9079	0.8994	0.7505

370 (1NN) classifier. The classification results present the performance of the trained
 371 models in an unknown environment or rather before unseen household.

372 The results in Table 10.2a show the classification accuracy of device states per
 373 household averaged over all appliances. For instance, the NB model achieved an
 374 accuracy of 0.8429 for House 1, meaning that the model was trained on House 2–6
 375 and tested on the previously unknown House 1, where 84.29 % of all device states
 376 were classified correctly. However, as illustrated in Table 10.2a the classification
 377 accuracy of each model varies with the household, which is due to the fact that
 378 the examined households use appliances of different manufacturers with dissimilar
 379 energy profiles.

380 Table 10.2b presents the classification accuracy of device states per appliance
 381 averaged over all households. For example, the results show that the NB model is
 382 able to classify the device states of the Air-Conditioning with an average accuracy of
 383 93.15 %, taking the mean of House 1–6. In general, all models achieved a relatively
 384 high classification accuracy for appliances with distinctive energy profiles, such as
 385 the Dishwasher or Oven, but performed less well on appliances with changes in
 386 consumption that can easily be confused with other devices, like the Refrigerator or
 387 Lighting.

388 By taking the mean over all results for (a) each household and (b) each appliance
 389 per model, shown in the bottom row of Table 10.2a, b respectively, we can easily see
 390 that on average the NB model achieved the highest classification accuracy, closely
 391 followed by FHMM and CT. Although the INN classifier shows relatively high clas-
 392 sification accuracy for several individual appliances, it is unable to correctly classify
 393 the device states of others, and, therefore, achieve the lowest average classification
 394 performance.

395 **10.5.4 Heating Control**

396 In this subsection, we discuss how the classified ON/OFF device states can be used
 397 for heating control and scheduling. Since the Naive Bayes (NB) model achieved the
 398 highest average accuracy on classifying device states of appliances in an unknown
 399 household (see Table 10.2), we will consider the NB approach in our following exem-
 400 plification.

401 Figure 10.3 shows the (a) observed and (b) estimated ON/OFF states for the
 402 Washer/Dryer in House 1 over a period of 4 weeks, where every quarter of an hour
 403 aggregates the device activities that occurred during the same weekday and time of
 404 day. By illustrating the (a) observed activity of the Washer/Dryer, which constitutes
 405 our ground truth, we see that this appliance is mostly used on Fridays and weekends.
 406 The (b) estimated activity of the Washer/Dryer, inferred from the overall energy con-
 407 sumption of House 1 by the trained NB model, shows similar behavior patterns for
 408 weekends, but predicts false ON states for Mondays.

409 By taking a closer look at the confusion matrix of observed and estimated ON/OFF
 410 device states for the Washer/Dryer in House 1, shown in Table 10.3, we are able to
 411 gain a better understanding of the estimated appliance activity. Table 10.3 reveals
 412 the percentage of true positives (TP) or true ON states, true negatives (TN) or true
 413 OFF states, false positives (FP) or false ON states, and false negatives (FN) or false
 414 OFF states. Although the NB model achieves a high classification accuracy $[(TP +$
 415 $TN)/(TP + TN + FP + FN) = 96.83 \%$], the percentage of falsely classified states
 416 $[FP + FN = 3.17 \%$] is not negligible, explaining the mistaken Washer/Dryer activity
 417 estimated for Mondays (see Fig. 10.3b). The FP and FN estimates imply heating
 418 during absence and cooling during occupancy, respectively.

419 The cause of falsely classified states can also be explained with help of Fig. 10.2.
 420 By examining the distribution of ON and OFF states of the refrigerator in House 1,

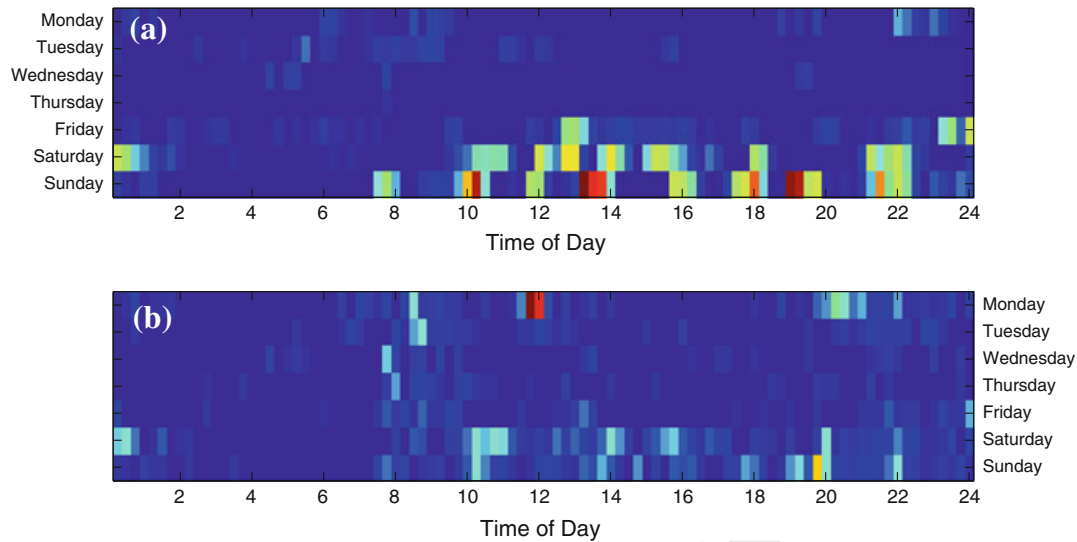


Fig. 10.3 Observed and estimated ON/OFF states for the Washer/Dryer in House 1 over the period of 4 weeks, illustrating the actual and predicted device activities in the time from April 25 to May 15 2011, where every quarter of an hour aggregates the activities that occurred during the same weekday and time of day. The transition from *blue*, to *yellow*, to *red* colored areas illustrates low, moderate, and high device activity. **a** Observed ON/OFF states of Washer/Dryer. **b** Estimated ON/OFF states of Washer/Dryer

Table 10.3 Confusion matrix of observed and estimated ON/OFF device states for the Washer/Dryer in House 1, where Accuracy = TP + TN = 96.83 %.

	Observed ON	Observed OFF
Estimated ON	True positive (TP) = 0.59 %	False positive (FP) = 1.14 %
Estimated OFF	False negative (FN) = 2.03 %	True negative (TN) = 96.24 %

421 shown in Fig. 10.2e, f respectively, we can see there is a significant overlap of changes
 422 in power consumption that are caused by both the Refrigerator and other devices.
 423 According to Fig. 10.2e, f, changes in power consumption that range from around
 424 1–50 W occur at times when the refrigerator is turned ON as well as when its is turned
 425 OFF, leading to an inaccurate appliance model.

426 In order to decrease the number of FP and FN device states one could orchestrate
 427 the trained appliance models or consider additional features that distinguish the
 428 appliances more accurate. However, this goes beyond the scope of this study, but
 429 could be part of future work.

430 A more thorough evaluation of the heating schedules would require datasets that
 431 comprise information about actual occupancy states in the residential homes and
 432 preferences of the residents in regard of temperature settings.

10.6 Application

Having explained our approach, we are now in the position to present SOE, a single-agent heating control system, that proposes optimized heating schedules that aim to reduce the residential energy consumption. SOE computes the optimized heating schedules based on manual adjustments of the residents and automatically determined occupancy states. In addition, SOE enables the residents to monitor and control their heating from remote using mobile devices.

In order to build a practical application we embedded the implementation of our trained appliance model in our SOE agent using the Matlab to Java compiler.¹ The SOE agent [15] is responsible for the heating control in a home and has access to the aggregated energy signal using Smart Message Language (SML)² and the Multi Utility Communication (MUC)(see footnote 2) interface.

Figure 10.4 illustrates the overall architecture of a SOE agent [15]. The residents are enabled to adjust the thermostat and create heating schedules for each

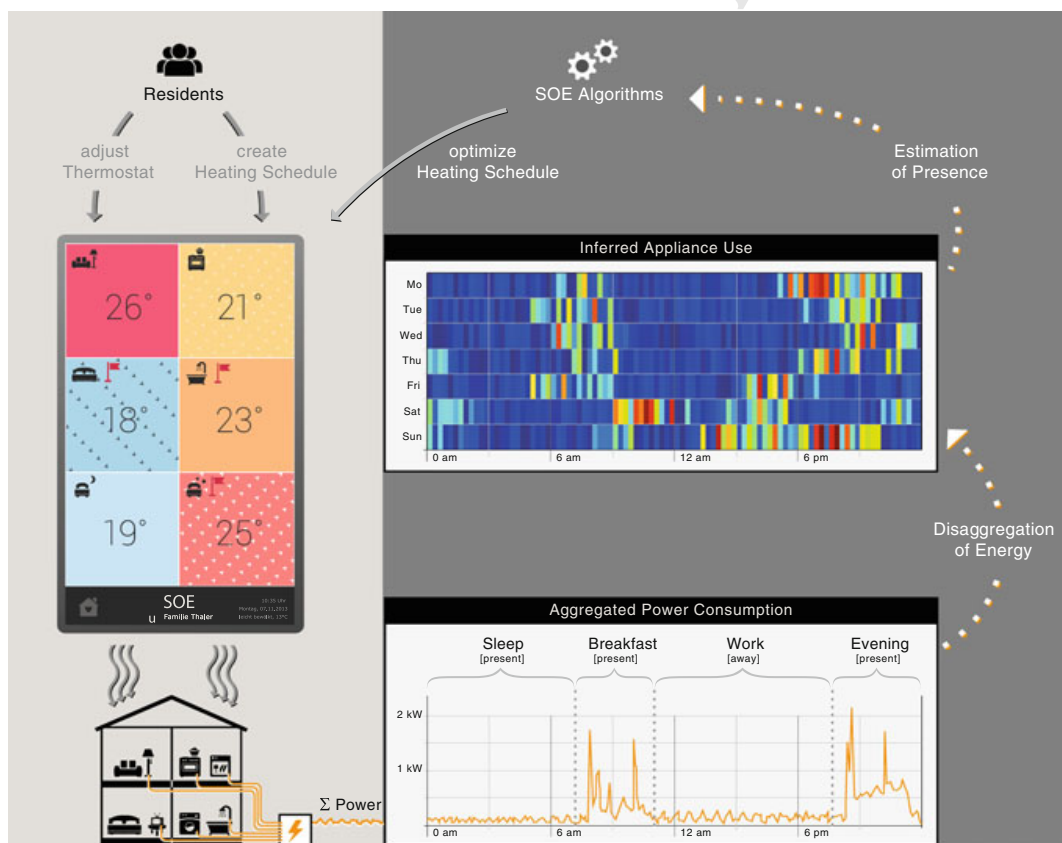


Fig. 10.4 Overall architecture of SOE heating control system. The aggregated energy signal is disaggregated using a Naive Bayes classifier to infer appliance usages. From such usage the occupants presence is estimated and used to optimize the heating schedule. The whole system can be controlled by the residents using tablets and smartphones

¹ www.mathworks.de/products/javabuilder/.

² www.vde.com/en/fnn/extras/sym2/Infomaterial/Pages/default.aspx.

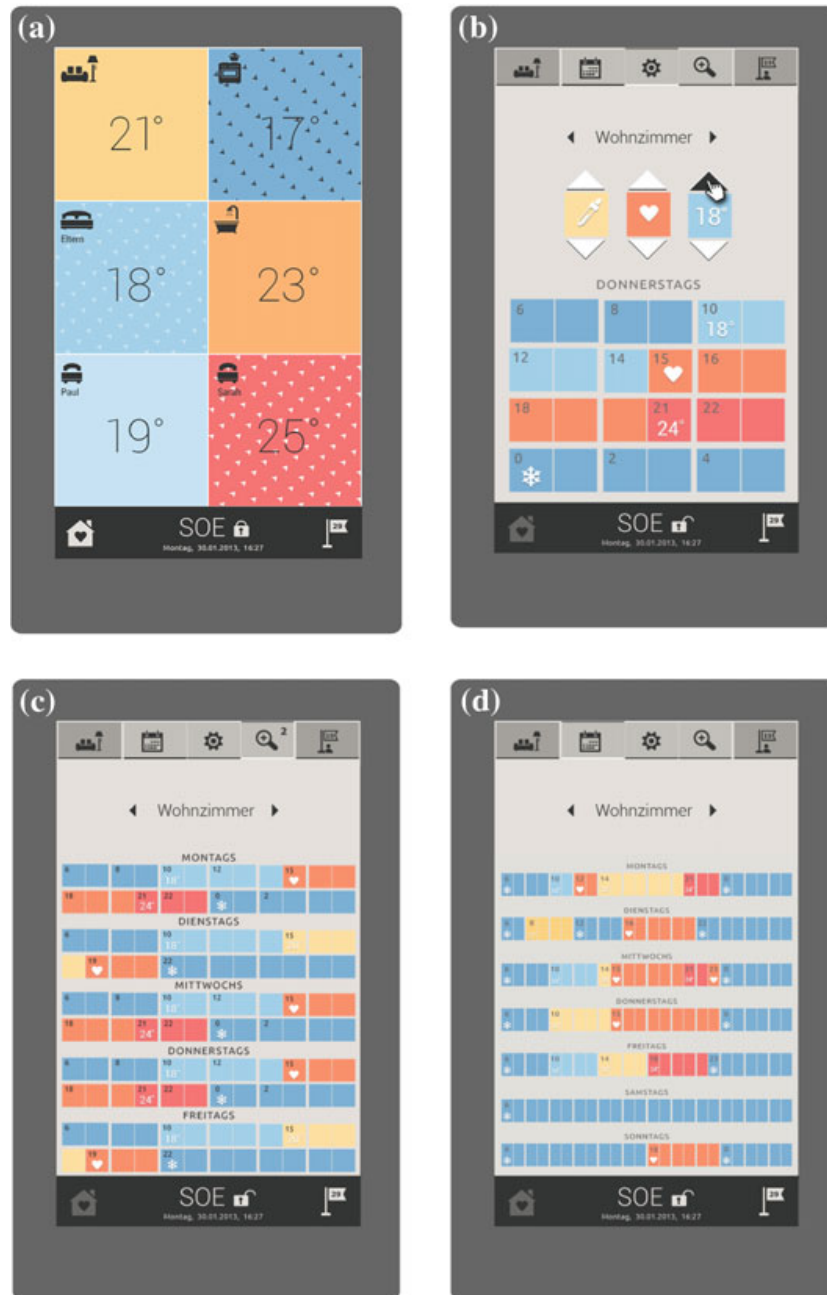


Fig. 10.5 Graphical user interface (GUI) of SOE heating control system, showing the temperature settings for **a** all rooms at current time, **b** one individual room for a specific weekday, **c** a single room for all workdays, and **d** one individual room for the entire week. The manually created heating schedules are compared against the automatically optimized scheme in order to give recommendations for possible energy savings at idle time intervals

447 individual room (refer to Fig. 10.5). Given the aggregated power consumption of the
 448 household, our implemented energy disaggregation component is able to classify
 449 individual appliance states. The inferred appliance use is subsequently employed to
 450 infer presence and to propose optimized heating schedules to the residents.

451 The SOE heating control system aims at integrating the user as an essential part
452 of the heating control process. At this point, we want to address questions concern-
453 ing various aspects of human computer interaction. This includes the usability and
454 acceptance of the developed system with regard to different user groups and/or envi-
455 ronments. Users are able to access the system using mobile devices and control the
456 heating process in a fine-grained manner (refer to Fig. 10.5).

457 In case that the manually created and automatically optimized heating schedules
458 differ from each other, the SOE agent will provide recommendations for possible
459 adaptations. These suggestions are shown as notifications, whereas the user can either
460 accept the recommended adaptations or reject the automatically generated heating
461 schedule to manually conduct changes. This is of utter importance, because the
462 number of falsely classified appliance states is not negligible. False estimates imply
463 heating during absence or cooling during presence, and are, therefore, undesired.

464 In our future work, we intend to reduce the number of false estimates and in con-
465 sequence to improve the appliance classification by using acceptance/rejection as
466 reward/punishment signal for reinforcement learning strategies. In order to demon-
467 strate the system outside of our showroom, we use a common notebook to simulate
468 the smart home and an iPad to show the SOE application.

469 10.7 Conclusion and Future Work

470 In this work, we reviewed recent advances in energy disaggregation and adopted
471 established appliance identification strategies to infer occupancy states for smart
472 heating control and scheduling. Our proposed approach to appliances state identifi-
473 cation considers the changes in power consumption as characteristic to classify the
474 individual devices. In our evaluation, we have shown that the Naive Bayes classifier
475 is able to achieve relatively high accuracy on the appliance state identification task,
476 even in unknown environments or households. Furthermore, we explained how to use
477 the information about identified appliances to infer occupancy states in residential
478 homes. We exemplified the idea of occupancy-based heating schedules and discussed
479 the problem of falsely identified appliance states.

480 The main advantage of our proposed framework for heating control and schedul-
481 ing is its simplicity in that we refrain from implementing new infrastructure in res-
482 idential homes, but use given information from available electricity smart meters.
483 This approach will eventually lead to higher acceptance rates among residents and
484 provides alternative avenues for novel heating control strategies.

485 In addition, we demonstrated SOE, a smart heating control system, which inte-
486 grates the discussed energy disaggregation algorithms to infer appliances states that
487 indicate presence. Our implementation of the SOE provides insights into practicality
488 and usability, which are valuable for the intended deployment in real estates.

489 Since our appliance state identification strategy can replace sensing infrastructure
490 that is used to identify occupancy states in residential homes, it would also be interest-
491 ing to compare the energy savings provided by our approach with the performance of

existing frameworks, such as the smart thermostat [14]. However, this would require datasets that comprise information about actual occupancy states in the residential homes and preferred temperature settings.

Our proposed approach to appliance state identification can furthermore be beneficial for other applications. Recent studies [2] have shown that the availability of smart meter data alone is often not sufficient to achieve high load disaggregation accuracies. Future work could combine the knowledge of total energy consumption with additional information about sequences of events, such as ON/OFF states for each individual appliance, to improve the accuracy of certain disaggregation algorithms [2] that use such events along with smart meter data.

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