

DATA PREPROCESSING

THE AUTHOR

The Dynamic Time Warping(DTW) algorithm is the one of the oldest algorithms that is used to compare and cluster sequences varying in time, length and speed. Formally, given two temporal sequences, the algorithm utilises the technique of dynamic programming to find an optimum alignment between through the computation of local distances between the points in each sequence. The time and computational complexity of this algorithm is $O(mn)$ where m and n denote the length of the sequences that are being compared. Thus for high dimensional time series sequences, the time and computational costs incurred by the algorithm are quite high which makes DTW a very unattractive choice for clustering or discovering motifs in high dimensional data sets. Intuitively speaking, DTW is a clustering algorithm that clusters similar patterns varying in time and speed. Another drawback for working in high-dimensional spaces is the contrast between the distances of nearest and furthest points. The distances between such points become increasingly smaller as the dimensionality increases. This makes it difficult to construct meaningful cluster groups in such spaces.

To address the issue of the curse of dimensionality, DTW algorithms employ a window constraint to reduce the search space. The window constraints determine the allowable shapes that a warping path can take. To reduce the time and computational costs incurred by the algorithm, the window size is reduced as the dimensionality of the data increases. Rigid constraints impose a more rigid alignment that prevents an overly temporal skew between two sequences, by keeping frames of one sequence from getting too far from the other. For clustering data sets such speech utterances, the effect produced by such global constraints is highly undesirable. If we consider two utterances of a word spoken at different time frames, the patterns can have an overly temporal askew between them as result of the different contexts in which the words are spoken and/or as a result of different speakers speaking the same word. Thus it is necessary to explore techniques other than window constraints that can improve the performance of the DTW algorithm in terms of both accuracy and time.

Before investigating methods to improve a technique, it is highly necessary to first understand the nature of the data itself. In this chapter, I investigate data-driven preprocessing techniques that attempt to understand the underlying intrinsic structure of the lower-dimensional space on which the data lives. By achieving a thorough understanding of the

data, we can achieve dimensionality reduction by isolating and identifying smaller set of new(current) features that are more relevant for the problem in hand.

There are presently two groups of preprocessing techniques commonly used to address this issue:

- Feature Selection
- Feature Extraction

Feature selection techniques involve selecting only a subset of attributes from the original data. One of the most popular approaches to feature selection is the exploratory data analysis(EDA). EDA is an approach to data analysis that postpones the usual assumptions about what kind of model the data follows with the more direct approach of allowing the data itself to reveal its underlying structure and models. The particular techniques employed in EDA are often quite simple, consisting of various techniques of:

- (1) Plotting the raw data (such as data traces, histograms, histograms, probability plots, lag plots, block plots, and Youden plots.
- (2) Plotting simple statistics such as mean plots, standard deviation plots, box plots, and main effects plots of the raw data.
- (3) Positioning such plots so as to maximize our natural pattern-recognition abilities, such as using multiple plots per page.

Feature extraction processes on the other hand are concerned with a range of techniques that apply an appropriate functional mapping to the original attributes to extract new features. The intuition behind feature extraction is that the data vectors $\{x_n\}$ typically lie close to a non-linear manifold whose intrinsic dimensionality is smaller than that of the input space as a result of strong correlations between the input features. Hence by using appropriate functional mapping, we obtain a smaller set of features that capture the intrinsic correlation between the input variable. Hence by doing so, we move from working in high dimensional spaces to working in low dimensional spaces. The choice of appropriate functional mapping can also improve the clustering of data as shown by figure 1:

In the rest of this chapter, I explore a range of feature selection and extraction methods and investigate whether their application can improve the performance of the DTW algorithm in terms of both accuracy and time complexity.

1. FEATURE SELECTION

The computational and time complexity associated with the DTW algorithm is governed by the dimensionality of the time series. To get a feel of the data, I employed exploratory

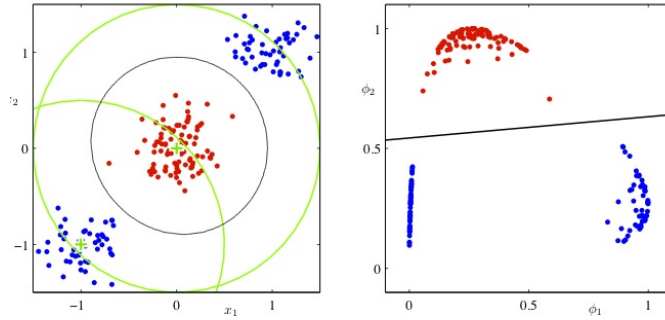


FIGURE 1. The figure on the right corresponds to location of the data points in the feature space spanned by gaussian basis functions $\phi_1(x)$ and $\phi_2(x)$

data analysis on the isolated word utterances belonging to the test and training data sets that I constructed from the TIDIGITS corpus. The aim here to identify and isolate redundant features from the time series data. To get an idea about the structure of the data, I have studied the plots of the time series sequences along with performing auditory perception on the individual samples. Figure 2 gives the plot of raw signal corresponding to the word ‘8’ by a speak from the *boy* category. From the visual and auditory analysis, I have made the following observations:

- Long durations of silence occupy the beginning and end of each utterance. These durations of silence segments are considerably long compared to the interesting regions in the acoustic signal that actually contain information about the spoken digit . Removing these silence segments not only reduce the dimensionality of the time series but also results in minimal loss of information.
- Through auditory perception of numerous samples, I have discovered that the recordings are highly distorted when played in matlab even when the data is scaled so that the sound is played as loud as possible without clipping. The distorted signal fails to provide any time auditory clue about category of the speaker i.e whether the speaker belongs to { boy,girl, men,women} and the signal must be played multiple times for its class to be correctly identified.

From further experiments, I have seen that if I down-sample the utterances by $\frac{1}{2}$ which in other words means decreasing the sampling frequency by half, the resultant sampled signal is much clearer to understand. Sub-sampling the utterances by half involves removing every other sample from the time series. From the observation of figure 3, it can be sen that this technique keeps the global trend of the signal intact but results in the loss of local information. Furthermore through auditory perception of the sampled signals, I have

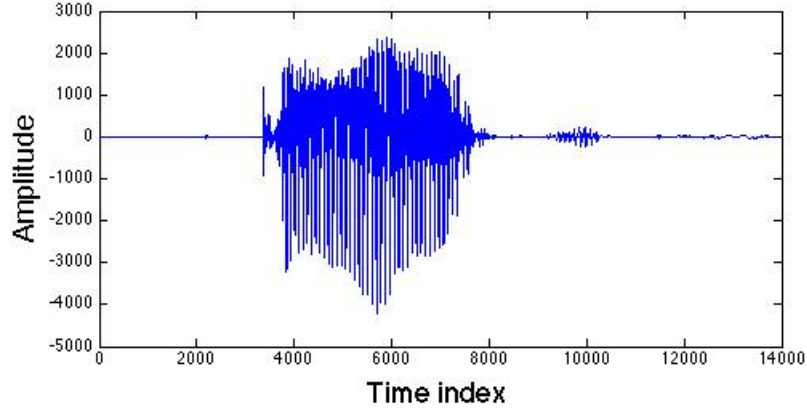


FIGURE 2. ‘Raw ’signal

discovered that losing some **local information** actually cleans the signal in a manner that allows the listener to identify the speaker’s category and the utterance’s class with ease.

With the knowledge gained from exploratory data analysis, I have constructed a signal filter that achieves dimensionality reduction by performing feature selection. The algorithm behind the filter is as follows:

Algorithm 1 SignalFilter

```

1: procedure SIGNALFILTER(signal) ▷ raw signal
2:   threshold = 0
3:   maxAmplitude = max(rawSignal)
4:   Adapt the threshold based on the value taken by the maximum amplitude
5:   signalSil_R ← removeSilence(rawSignal, threshold)
6:   return output ← downsample signalSil_R by  $\frac{1}{2}$ 
7: end procedure

```

- The algorithm removes all samples in the times series sequence whose magnitude is less than the threshold. The threshold used is an adaptive parameter. By using the information of the signal’s maximum amplitude the algorithm sets the threshold accordingly. It raises the threshold for signals corresponding to speakers having a loud and deep voice is higher and lowers the threshold for signals corresponding to speakers having as gentle and low voice.

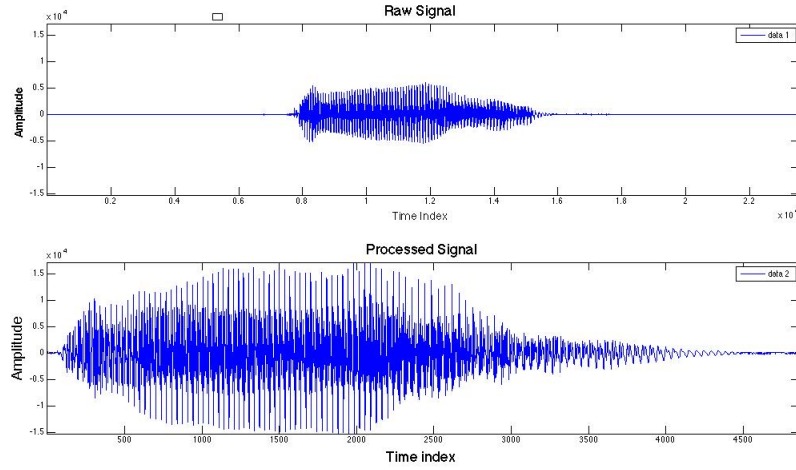


FIGURE 3. shows the raw acoustic signal corresponding to the utterances of the digit '5' alongside with the version that has its dimensionality reduced by the filter discussed above. From the comparison of the plots, it can be observed that the filter preserves the interesting patterns associated with the utterance while succeeding in reducing the dimensionality of the data.

To analyse how the performance of the DTW algorithm is affected by introducing this feature selection process, I ran the value-added DTW (i.e. DTW using raw values) twice on the test data set that I have constructed from the TIDIGITS corpus. An outline of the algorithm is given below. In the first run, I ran the algorithm using the most rigid window constraint while in the second run, I employ the feature selection process before applying the same DTW algorithm. The results found are as follows:

Algorithm 2 Value-Based DTW

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1: procedure VALUE-BASED(seq1, seq2)                                ▷ two raw sequences
2:    $w = \max(\lceil 0.1 * \max(n, m) \rceil, \text{abs}(n-m))$                 ▷ Window constraint
3:   for  $i=1$ : to  $\text{length}(\text{seq1})$  do                                ▷ Initialise the DTW cost matrix
4:      $\text{DTW}(i, 0) = \infty$ 
5:   end for
6:   for  $i=1$  to  $\text{length}(\text{seq2})$  do
7:      $\text{DTW}(0, i) = \infty$ 
8:   end for
9:   for  $i=2$  to  $\text{length}(\text{seq1})$  do
10:    for  $j=\max(2, i-w)$  to  $\min(\text{length}(\text{seq2}), i+w)$  do        ▷  $\text{cost}(a, b) \equiv \text{euclid}(a, b)$ 
11:       $\text{DTW}(i, j) = \text{cost}(\text{seq1}(i), \text{seq2}(j)) + \min\{ \text{DTW}(i-1, j) + \text{DTW}(i, j-1) + \text{DTW}(i-1, j-1) \}$ 
12:    end for
13:  end for
14:   $\text{return result} = \frac{\text{DTW}(n, m)}{nm}$                                 ▷  $n=\text{length}(\text{seq1}), m=\text{length}(\text{seq2})$ 
15: end procedure

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