COMS21202: Symbols, Patterns and Signals Data Acquisition and Data Characteristics

[based on Dima Damen lecture notes]

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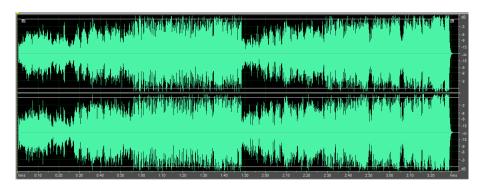
Agenda

Today we are going to talk about

- Data acquisition
- 2. Data characteristics: distance measures
- 3. Data characteristics: summary statistics [reminder]

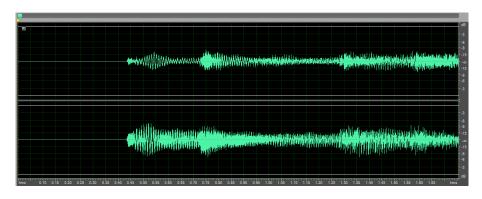
Analogue to Digital conversion involves

- 1. Sampling
- 2. Quantisation
- e.g. Audio Signal 1D [low zoom]



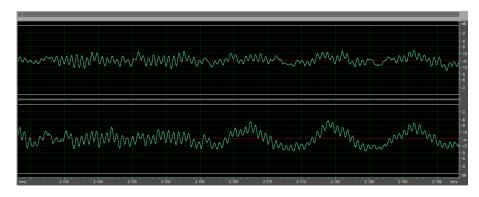
Analogue to Digital conversion involves

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- e.g. Audio Signal 1D [medium zoom]



Analogue to Digital conversion involves

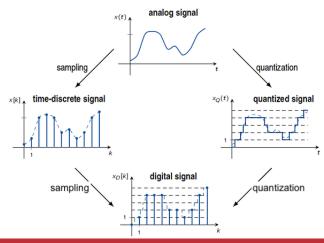
- 1. Sampling
- Quantisation
- e.g. Audio Signal 1D [high zoom] : How do you represent data digitally?



You need to:

- 1. Sample
- 2. Quantise

example from dsp-nbsphinx.readthedocs.io (chapter 5.1)



Theorem

Nyquist-Shannon sampling theorem:

If a function x(t) contains no frequencies higher than f_{max} hertz, it is completely determined by giving its ordinates at a series of points spaced $\frac{1}{2f_{max}}$ seconds apart.

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In other words,

- ightharpoonup Suppose the highest frequency for a given analog signal is f_{max} ,
- ► According to the Theorem: sampling period, $T_s \leq \frac{1}{2f_{max}}$ which is equivalent to sampling rate, $f_s \geq 2f_{max}$

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 - Stereo (2 channels)

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Note: Higher sampling/quantisation achieves better signal quality, but also larger memory/storage.

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- Binary Images: Black/White 1 bit per pixel

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- Can be defined between single-dimensional data, multi-dimensional data or data sequences.
- Distance is important as it:
 - enables data to be ordered
 - allows numeric calculations
 - enables calculating similarity and dissimilarity
- Without defining a distance measure, almost all statistical and machine learning algorithms will not be able to function.

A valid distance measure D(a, b) between two components a and b has the following properties

- ▶ non-negative: $D(a, b) \ge 0$
- reflexive: $D(a,b) = 0 \iff a = b$
- ightharpoonup symmetric: D(a,b)=D(b,a)
- ▶ satisfies triangular inequality: $D(a,b) + D(b,c) \ge D(a,c)$

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$$= \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|$$

$$= \sqrt{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y})}$$
(1)

$$D(x,y) = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i - y_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

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= $max(|x_1 - y_1|, |x_2 - y_2|, ..., |x_n - y_n|)$

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Distance (Numerical Time Series)

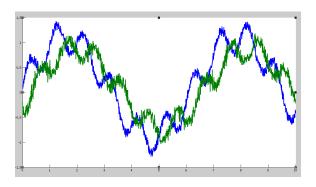
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P-Norm distances can only

- Compare time series of the same length
- very sensitive to signal transformations:
 - shifting
 - uniform amplitude scaling
 - non-uniform amplitude scaling
 - uniform time scaling

Adv. distance: Dynamic Time Warping (Berndt and Clifford, 1994)

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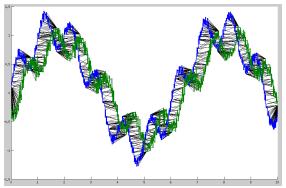
- Replaces Euclidean one-to-one comparison with many-to-one
- Recognises similar shapes even in the presence of shifting and/or scaling
- ▶ Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) can be defined recursively as For two time series $\mathbf{X} = (x_0, ..., x_n)$ and $\mathbf{Y} = (y_0, ..., y_m)$

```
\textit{DTW}(\boldsymbol{X},\boldsymbol{Y}) = \textit{D}(x_0,y_0) + \textit{min}\{\textit{DTW}(\boldsymbol{X},\textit{REST}(\boldsymbol{Y})),\textit{DTW}(\textit{REST}(\boldsymbol{X}),\boldsymbol{Y}),\textit{DTW}(\textit{REST}(\boldsymbol{X}),\textit{REST}(\boldsymbol{Y}))\}
```

where $REST(X) = (x_1, ..., x_n)$

Adv. distance: Dynamic Time Warping (Berndt and Clifford, 1994)

Can be used for aligning sequences



- Distance is not always between numerical data
- Distance between symbolic data is less well-defined, but gaining interest (e.g. text data)
- Distance in text could be:
 - syntactic
 - semantic

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- Measures the number of substitutions required to change one string/number into another

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Syntactic - e.g. Hamming Distance

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For binary strings, hamming distance equals L₁

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- ► 'fish' insertion / 'firsh' substitution / 'first'
- used in spelling correction, DNA string comparisons

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- Menti.com: D('horse', 'rose') =
- Menti.com: D('AGGCTATCACCTGACC', 'TGGCCTATCACCTGAC') =

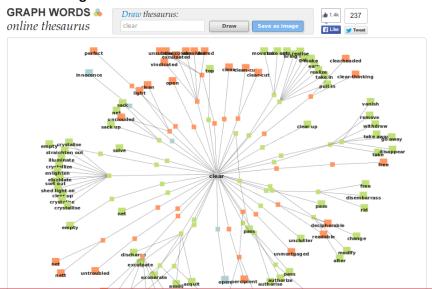
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- ► 'AGGCTATCACCTGACC' del 'AGGCTATCACCTGAC' sub 'TGGCTATCACCTGAC' TGGCCTATCACCTGAC'

Semantic - e.g. WUP Relatedness Measure

- Built on top of a hierarchy of word semantics
- Most commonly used is WordNet (Princeton) http://wordnet.princeton.edu/
- WordNet contains more than 117,000 synsets (synset: set of one or more synonyms that are interchangeable in some context)

Semantic - e.g. WUP Relatedness



Semantic - e.g. WUP Measure

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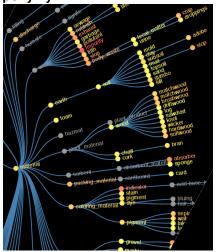
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 - antonymy (strong contract) e.g. wet ↔ dry

Semantic - e.g. hyponymy



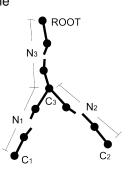
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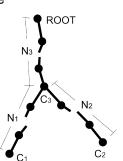


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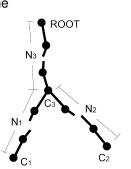
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- or online: http://ws4jdemo.appspot.com/



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$$D_{WUP} = 1 - WUP$$

Distance - Conclusion

- Once you define a distance measure on your data, you can perform numeric operations
- Different distance measures will enable you to use the same data for various goals

Questions?

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Which are numeric distances? [Menti.com]

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Mean and Variance (Reminder)

For one-dimensional data $\{x_1,..,x_n\}$,

Mean: [average]

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} x_{i}$$

Variance: [spread]

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i (x_i - \mu)^2$$

Standard Deviation:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i} (x_i - \mu)^2}$$

Mean and Covariance

For multi-dimensional data $\{\mathbf{x}_1,...,\mathbf{x}_n\}$ where \mathbf{x}_i is an m-dimensional vector, Mean: calculated independently for each dimension

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}$$

Variance can still be computed along each dimension

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Covariance Matrix: spread and correlation

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i} (\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{2}$$
$$= \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i} (\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{T} (\mathbf{x}_{i} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

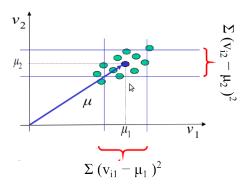
WARNING: Σ is the capital letter of σ , not the summation sign!

In two dimensions,

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i} \begin{bmatrix} (v_{i1} - \mu_1)^2 & (v_{i1} - \mu_1)(v_{i2} - \mu_2) \\ (v_{i1} - \mu_1)(v_{i2} - \mu_2) & (v_{i2} - \mu_2)^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- ► In addition to the variances along each dimension, the covariance matrix measures the correlation between components
- ► A positive covariance between two components means a proportional relationship between the variables.
- A negative covariance value indicates and inverse proportional relationship.

$$C = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i} \left[(v_{ii} - \mu_{1})^{2} + (v_{ii} - \mu_{1})(v_{i2} - \mu_{2}) \right]$$

$$(v_{ii} - \mu_{1})(v_{i2} - \mu_{2}) + (v_{i2} - \mu_{2})^{2}$$

$$0 \quad 0 \quad 0$$

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Covariance and correlation: Demo

geogebra.org/m/wrSFAnkh

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Covariance matrix is always

- square and symmetric
- variances on the diagonal

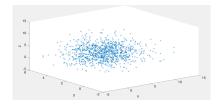
In three dimensions,

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i} \begin{bmatrix} (v_{i1} - \mu_1)^2 & (v_{i1} - \mu_1)(v_{i2} - \mu_2) & (v_{i1} - \mu_1)(v_{i3} - \mu_3) \\ (v_{i1} - \mu_1)(v_{i2} - \mu_2) & (v_{i2} - \mu_2)^2 & (v_{i2} - \mu_2)(v_{i3} - \mu_3) \\ (v_{i1} - \mu_1)(v_{i3} - \mu_3) & (v_{i2} - \mu_2)(v_{i3} - \mu_3) & (v_{i3} - \mu_3)^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

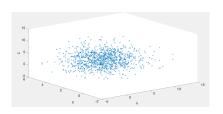
Covariance matrix is always

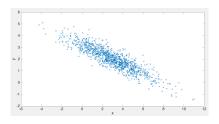
- square and symmetric
- variances on the diagonal
- covariance between each pair of dimensions is included in non-diagonal elements

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

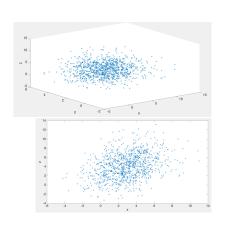


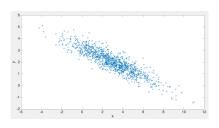
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$



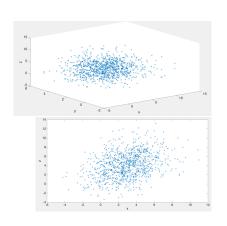


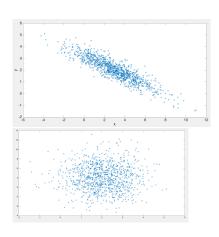
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$





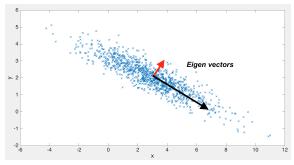
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- Eigenvectors and eigenvalues define principal axes and spread of points along directions
- Commonly used to reduce data dimensionality (e.g. Principal component analysis [PCA])

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Definition

For a square matrix *A*, if there exists a non-zero column vector *v* where

$$Av = \lambda v$$

then,

 $v \rightarrow$ eigenvector of matrix A

 $\lambda \rightarrow$ is eigenvalue of matrix A

e.g.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \ v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- ▶ To calculate eigenvectors of a square matrix, solve $|A \lambda I| = 0$ where
 - ▶ I is the identity matrix
 - ► |A| is the determinant of the matrix
- ▶ For 2 × 2 matrices, two eigenvalues are found λ_1 , λ_2

e.g.

$$A - \lambda \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\lambda & -1 \\ 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A - \lambda \mathbf{I}| = \lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 2 = (\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 2)$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1, \, \lambda_2 = 2$$

After the eigenvalues are found, the eigenvectors can be calculated

For $\lambda_1 = 1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{12} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{12} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (2)

This simplified to:

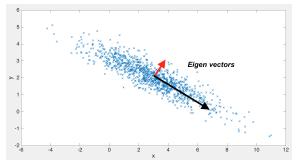
$$\begin{bmatrix} -v_{12} \\ 2v_{11} + 3v_{12} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ v_{12} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (3)

lts set $v_{12} = 1$ then we get the eigenvector¹:

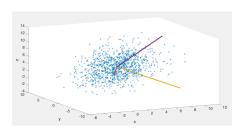
▶ Verify that this is indeed a valid eigenvector by calculating $Av = \lambda v$

¹Note that there many eigenvectors that work for a particular eigenvalue, but they all have the same direction. We could consider the eigenvector with $||v_1|| = 1$, $v_1 = (\frac{1}{\sqrt{c}}, \frac{-1}{\sqrt{c}})$.

- Major axis eigenvector corresponding to larger eigenvalue (i.e. larger variance)
- Minor axis eigenvector corresponding to smaller eigenvalue (i.e. smaller variance)
- These can be represented using major and minor axes of ellipses



Covariance Matrix: another example



$$\lambda_1 = 0.08$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0.08$$
 $\lambda_2 = 4.52$ $\lambda_3 = 8.40$

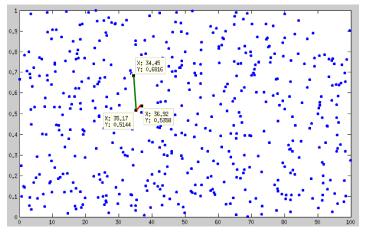
$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -0.42 \\ -0.90 \\ 0.12 \end{bmatrix} v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.71 \\ -0.40 \\ -0.57 \end{bmatrix} v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.57 \\ -0.15 \\ 0.81 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$v_2 = \begin{vmatrix} 0.71 \\ -0.40 \\ -0.57 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$v_3 = \begin{vmatrix} 0.57 \\ -0.15 \\ 0.81 \end{vmatrix}$$

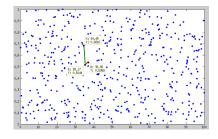
Principal/Major axis is v_3 (corresponding to largest eigenvalue)

 Multi-dimensional data may need to be normalised before distance is calculated²



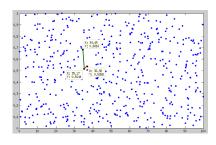
²note the difference in magnitude between the two dimensions below!

- Multi-dimensional data may need to be normalised before distance is calculated.
- Methods for normalisation:



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- Methods for normalisation:
 - 1. Rescaling

$$x' = \frac{x - \min(x)}{\max(x) - \min(x)}$$

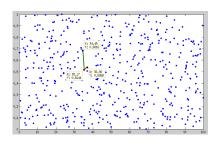


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$$x' = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$



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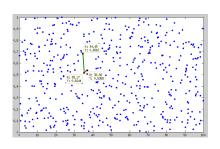
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Scaling to unit length

$$X' = \frac{X}{\|X\|}$$



Mean, variance and covariance can provide concise description of 'average' and 'spread'

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 - but not when outliers are present in the data
 - outliers: small number of points with values significantly different from that other points
 - usually due to fault in measurement

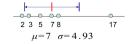
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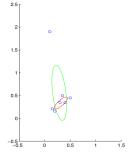




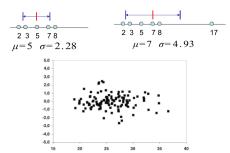
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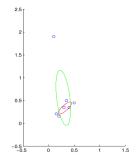






- Mean, variance and covariance can provide concise description of 'average' and 'spread'
 - but not when outliers are present in the data
 - outliers: small number of points with values significantly different from that other points
 - usually due to fault in measurement
 - not always easy to remove





Mean vs. Median

- An alternative to arithmetic mean is the median value
- But median is difficult to work with
- e.g. median of two sets cannot be defined in terms of the individual medians

Note - Sample Variance vs. Variance

Given sample $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_N\}$

$$\mu \approx \bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \tag{5}$$

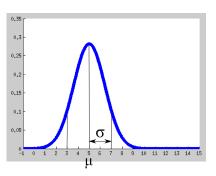
$$\sigma^2 \approx s^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \tag{6}$$

- These are only estimates of the 'true' mean and variance
- N − 1 gives unbiased estimate of the variance
- \triangleright As $N \to \infty$
 - $\bar{\mathbf{x}} \to \mu$ $\mathbf{s}^2 \to \sigma^2$

Normal Distribution (Reminder)

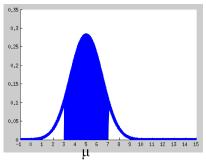
For a normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ in one dimension, the probability density function (pdf) can be calculated as

$$\rho(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
 (7)



Normal Distribution (Reminder)

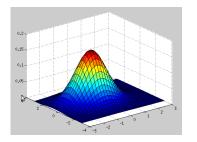
- 68% of the sample should lies within one standard deviation of the mean
- 95% of that area lies within two standard deviations of the mean
- ▶ 99.9% of that area lies within three standard deviations of the mean

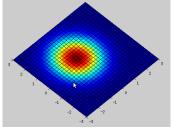


Normal Distribution - Multi-dimensional

For multi-dimensional normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ in M dimensions, the probability density function (pdf) can be calculated as

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^M |\Sigma|}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})}$$
(8)





WARNING: Σ is the capital letter of σ , not the summation sign!

Problem class tomorrow!

- Problem Class Tomorrow (Thur 1-2): Data Acquisition
- Prepare your answers in advance [problem sheet on github SPS page]

Further Reading

- Fundamentals of Multimedia Li and Drew (2004)
 - Section 6.1 Digitization of Sound
- Applied Multivariate Statistical Analysis Hardle and Simar (2003)
 - Section 1.2
 - Section 1.4
 - Section 3.1
 - Section 3.2
- Linear Algebra and its applications Lay (2012)
 - Section 6.5
 - Section 6.6
- Advances in Data Mining Knowledge Discovery and applications Karahoca (Ed.) (2012)
 - Chapter 3. Similarity Measures and Dimensionality Reduction Techniques for Time Series Data Mining