

Master's Degree in Mechatronic Engineering



**Politecnico
di Torino**

Master's Degree Thesis

**UNSUPERVISED MACHINE
LEARNING ALGORITHMS FOR EDGE
NOVELTY DETECTION**

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positive proposed healthy normal RUL faulty IMS dataset
framework value time first possible
linear novel measure way file known 42 solution
application signal two used collection classification
standard outlier Fourier no see plot also shown python
snapshot data use profile microcontroller
forest edge type train phase 10 Novelty detection
selecting purpose Model case dataset called defined library
function done new decision 1.0 space clustering 100 technique
sampling Transform set sample cluster database
feature able cost system K-mean
section number Fault result Previous implemented
agent better device float state ML FD vibration described
comparison problem metric Figure it's detection
GMM work parameter axis false sensor example
algorithm 12 task LOF frequency degradation
Chapter trained line centroid score threshold
DBSCAN structure end training perform
distance configuration Test event one ND Table evaluation
learning instance common point user approach
evaluate Maintenance novelty field validation condition
procedure method Bearing class prediction different applied
implementation Since detect another mean based behaviour considered

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To my parents, who have given me everything.
Thank you for always making me believe that anything is possible.

*Ai miei genitori, che mi hanno dato tutto.
Grazie per avermi sempre fatto credere che tutto sia possibile.*

Ariel

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Appendix A

Fourier Transform

This appendix aims to provide a brief and non-exhaustive introduction to the Fourier Transform. The various types of Fourier Transform are key tools in a vast range of fields in engineering, physics and mathematics. In computer science, the Fourier Transform is used in signal processing, image processing, data compression, and many other applications.

A.1 Continuous Fourier Transform

Most of the modern signal processing techniques find their roots in the Fourier Transform, which is a mathematical tool that allows the decomposition of a non-periodic signal into its frequency components. For periodic signals, The transform is a train of impulses, whose amplitudes are linked to the Fourier series coefficients.

The Continuous Fourier Transform (CFT) of a signal $x(t)$ is defined as:

$$X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt, \quad \forall f \in \mathbb{R}$$

where $X(f)$ is the Fourier Transform of $x(t)$, f is the frequency variable and j is the imaginary unit. The quantity $2\pi f$ is the angular frequency.

A.2 Discrete Fourier Transform

The Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) is a sampled version of the Continuous Fourier Transform. From an engineering perspective, the DFT is of particular interest because most of the signals are sampled in time and therefore, the DFT is the most commonly used form of the Fourier Transform.

The DFT is used to transform a sequence of N complex numbers $x(n)$ into another sequence of N complex numbers $X(k)$. The DFT is defined as:

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n)e^{-j2\pi kn/N}, \quad \forall k \in \{0, 1, \dots, N-1\} \quad (\text{A.1})$$

where $X(k)$ is the DFT of $x(n)$, k is the frequency index and N is the number of samples in the sequence.

The output spectrum given by the DFT is also discrete and finite, with the same number of samples as the input signal. The sampling frequency of the signal $x(n)$ determines the upper frequency limit of the DFT output, as the faster the sampling rate, the higher the frequencies that can be represented. The length of the signal $x(n)$ determines the frequency resolution of the DFT output, as the longer the signal, the finer the frequency resolution is.

Computational complexity Examining the definition of the DFT in Equation A.1, we can notice that it requires N complex multiplications and $N(N)$ complex additions. Therefore, the computational complexity of the DFT is $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$, which does not scale well for large values of N .

A.3 Fast Fourier Transform

To overcome the computational complexity of the DFT, the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) algorithm was developed in the 1960s by Cooley and Tukey [1]. Choosing a data length N that is a power of 2, the FFT algorithm reduces the computational complexity of the DFT from $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ to $\mathcal{O}(N \log_2 N)$. This becomes particularly important for large values of N , where the FFT algorithm is significantly faster than the DFT.

In the classic algorithm, a single multiplication happens many times. The general idea of this fast algorithm is to exploit the periodicity of the complex exponentials in the DFT to divide the computation into smaller sub-problems and reuse the already computed multiplication.

Breaking the exponential into its sine and cosine components, it becomes intuitive that the same result appears multiple times in the computation. The FFT algorithm takes advantage of this redundancy to reduce the number of operations, recursively dividing the problem into half-sized subproblems up to the point that the subproblems have only one sample.

Appendix B

Wavelets

B.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the FFT has been briefly described. It maps N time-domain datapoints into N frequency-domain datapoints. The FFT retain the information about the original signal, expressing it in the frequency domain. In other words, the FFT does not retain any knowledge about the time evolution of the signal and preserves the number of datapoints.

Another tool for signal processing is the wavelet. There are two main categories:

- Wavelet Transform (WT), which maps the datapoints of a 1D signal into a 2D plane, giving information about the frequency content of a signal at a given time.
- Wavelet Packet Decomposition (WPD), which is a tool that allows to decompose a signal into a tree of sub-bands, down-sampled signals.

A mother wavelet is a function that complies with the following conditions:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(t) dt = 0 \quad \text{i.e. it has a mean value of zero.} \quad (\text{B.1})$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi(t)|^2 dt = 1 \quad \text{i.e. it has a unitary energy.} \quad (\text{B.2})$$

The Morlet wavelet is a complex wavelet, which complies with the above conditions. It is defined as:

$$\psi(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi f_b}} e^{i2\pi f_c t} e^{-t^2/f_b} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi f_b}} [\cos(2\pi f_c t) + j \cdot \sin(2\pi f_c t)] e^{-t^2/f_b} \quad (\text{B.3})$$

where f_c is the central frequency and f_b is the bandwidth. The Morlet wavelet is a complex wavelet, which means that it has a real and an imaginary part, as shown in Figure B.1.

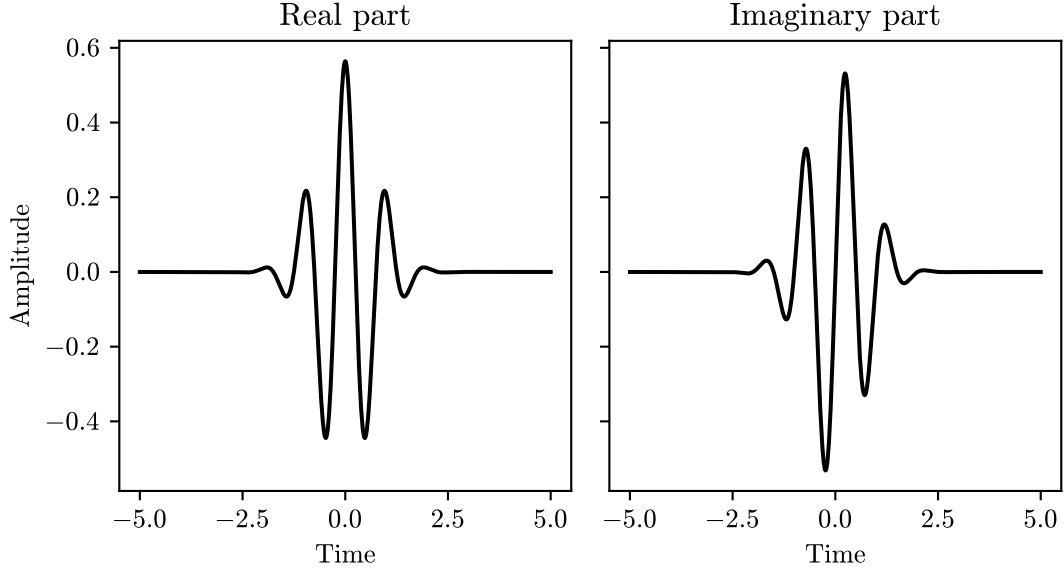


Figure B.1: *Real and imaginary part of the Morlet wavelet*

B.2 Scaling and translation

The wavelet is a function of time, and it can be scaled and translated. The scaling allows to investigate the frequency content of the signal, while the translation allows to investigate the time evolution of the signal.

So a general wavelet is obtained by scaling and translating a mother wavelet:

$$\psi_{a,b}(t) = \psi\left(\frac{t-b}{a}\right) \quad (\text{B.4})$$

where a is the scaling factor and b is the translation factor. $\psi_{1,0}$ is the mother wavelet. Some wavelets are shown in Figure B.2.

B.3 Wavelet Transform

Intuitively, the WT is a tool that allows to investigate the frequency content of a signal at a given time. The transform is defined as a function of the scaling and translation factors:

$$W(a,b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \psi_{a,b} dt \quad (\text{B.5})$$

where $x(t)$ is the signal. The wavelet transform is a 2D plane, where one axis is the scaling factor and the other axis is the translation factor.

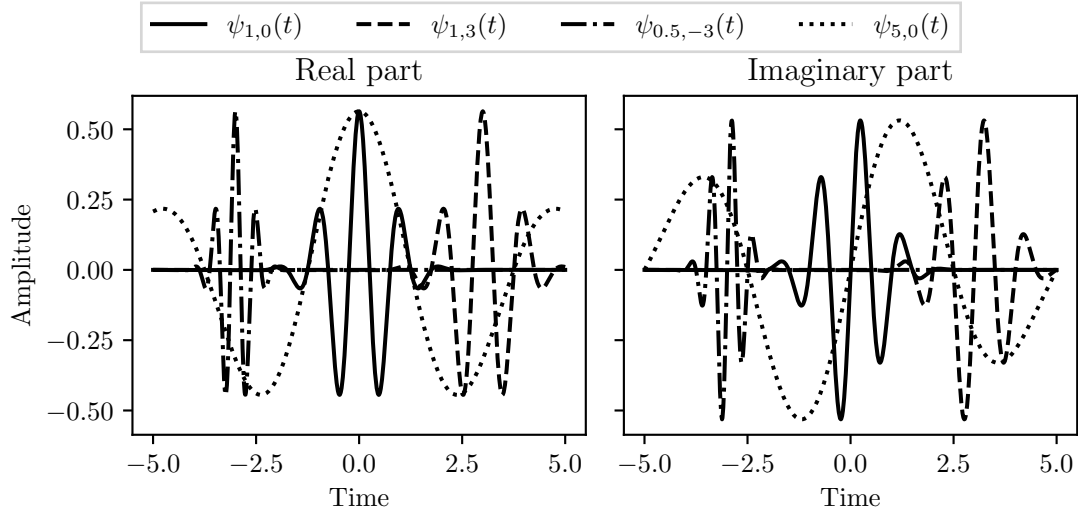


Figure B.2: *Effect of scaling and translation on the Morlet wavelet*

B.4 Wavelet Packet Decomposition

The WPD is a tool that allows to decompose a signal into a tree of sub-bands, down-sampled signals. Each level is computed by the decomposition of the previous level, forming a binary tree [2]. Being a binary tree, as shown in the **figure B.3**, the number of sub-bands at level n is 2^n . The downsampling, done at each level, reduces the number of datapoints by a factor of 2, so the overall number of datapoints is preserved.

At each stage, the signal is passed through a low-pass filter and a high-pass filter. The low-pass filter is used to compute the approximation coefficients, while the high-pass filter is used to compute the detail coefficients. The filters are finite impulse response filters, and the coefficients are computed by convolution. The decomposition is done recursively, until the desired level is reached.

Since this is just a transformation, the original signal can be reconstructed by the inverse wavelet packet decomposition. The reconstruction is done by upsampling the coefficients and passing them through the inverse filters.

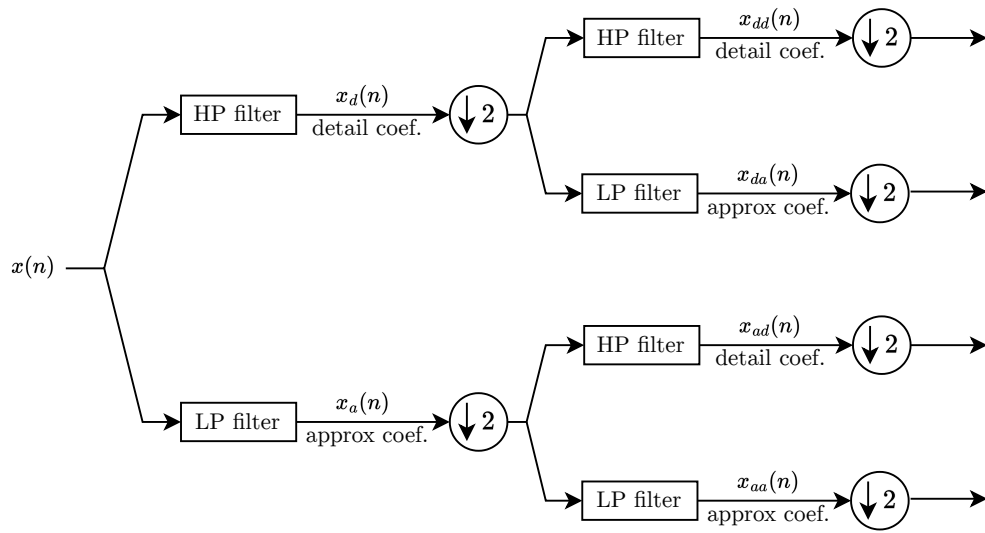


Figure B.3: *Wavelet Packet Decomposition tree*

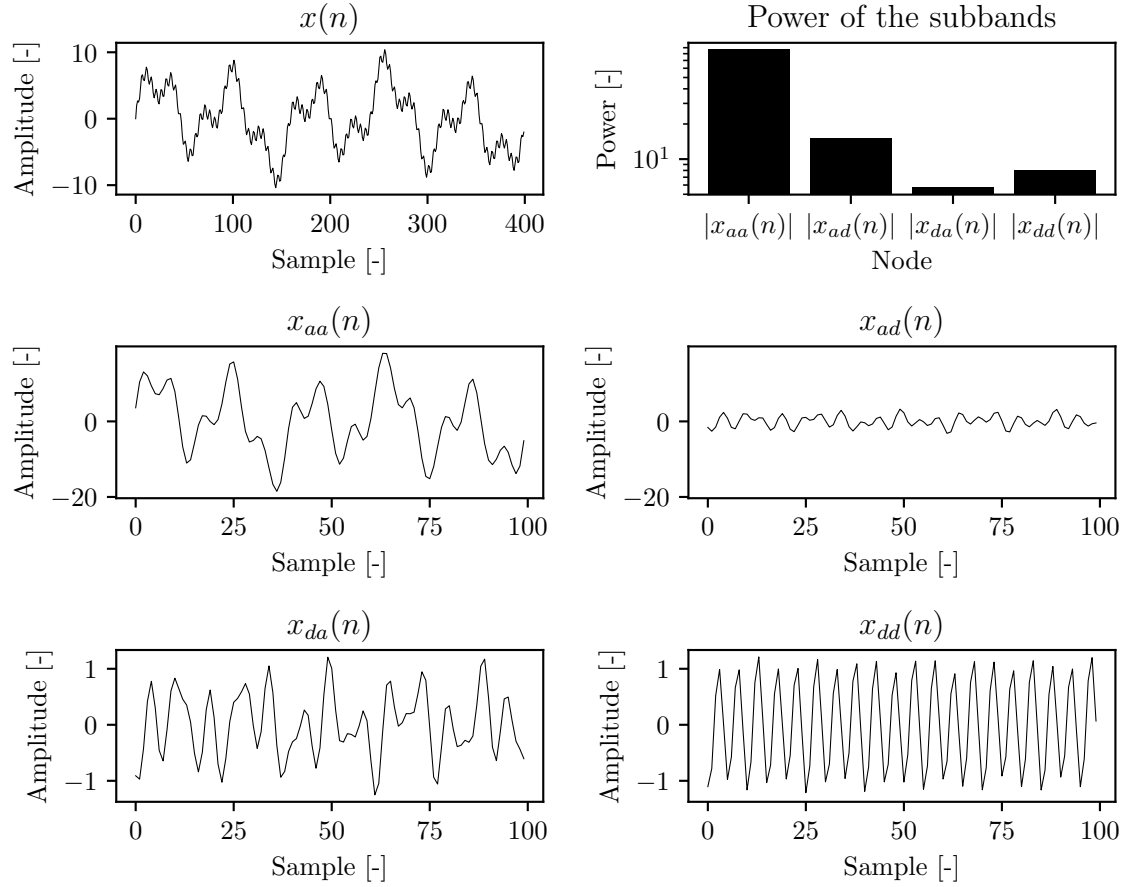


Figure B.4: *Wavelet Packet Decomposition of a signal*

Bibliography

- [1] James W Cooley and John W Tukey. «An algorithm for the machine calculation of complex Fourier series». In: *Mathematics of computation* 19.90 (1965), pp. 297–301 (cit. on p. 2).
- [2] A. N. Akansu and Y. Liu. «On Signal Decomposition Techniques». In: *Optical Engineering Journal* 30 (July 1991). (Invited Paper), special issue Visual Communications and Image Processing, pp. 912–920 (cit. on p. 5).