



CS-541

Wireless Sensor Networks

Lecture 10: Time-series analysis

Spring Semester 2017-2018

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Overview

- Time series analysis
- Intro to Machine learning



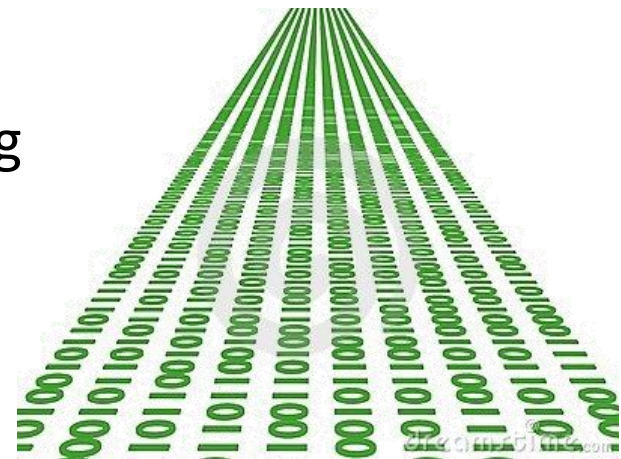
Stream Data Processing

Data streams—continuous, ordered, changing, fast, huge amount

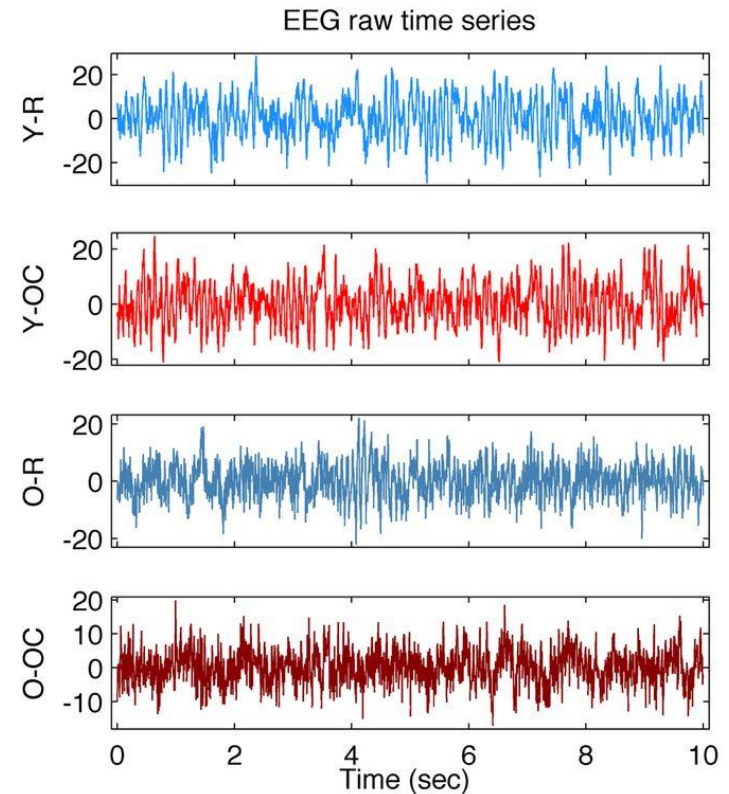
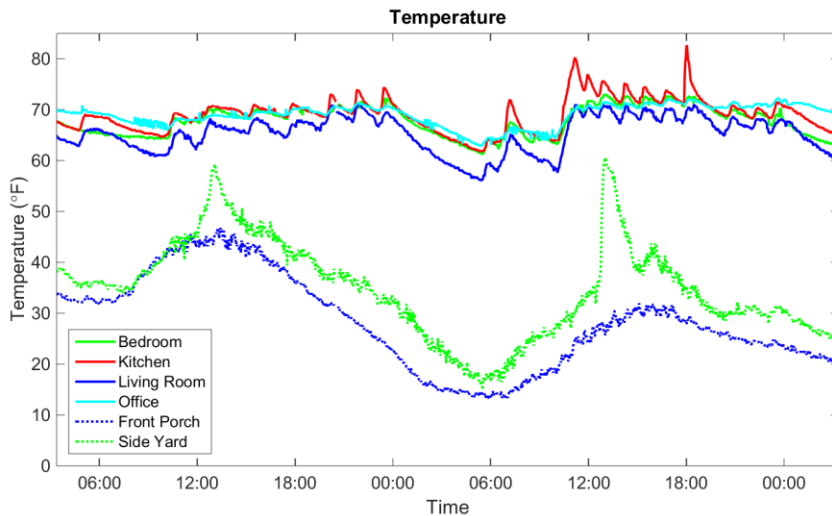
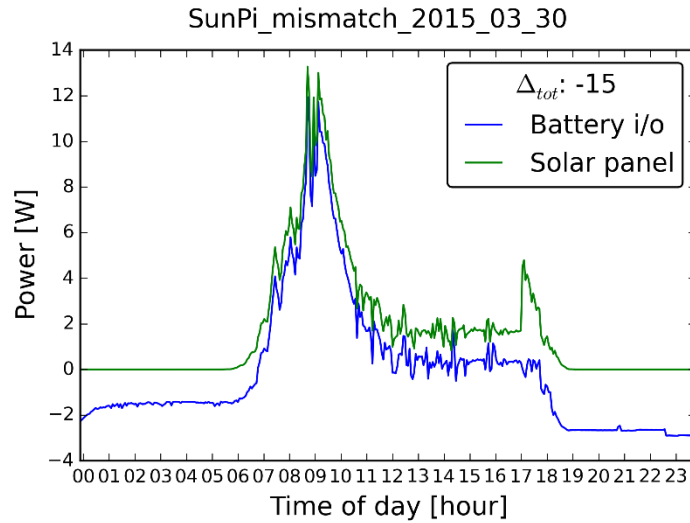
- Huge *volumes* of continuous data, possibly infinite
- Fast *changing* and requires fast, real-time response

Applications

- Telecommunication records
- Network monitoring and traffic engineering
- Industrial processes: power & manufacturing
- Sensor, monitoring & surveillance



Time-series in WSN



Problems

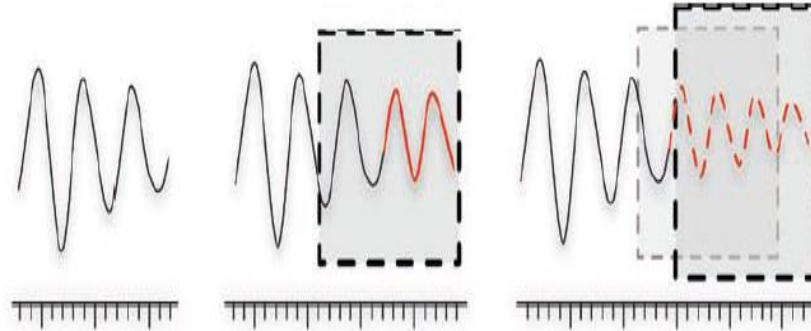
- *Type 1*: patterns, periodicities, and/or compress
 - Wearable, Smart city
- *Type 2*: forecast, find motifs, quantify similarity
 - Activity recognition
- *Type 3*: Multiple time series analysis
 - Sensor networks

“Predictions are very difficult... especially about the future”
Niels Bohr

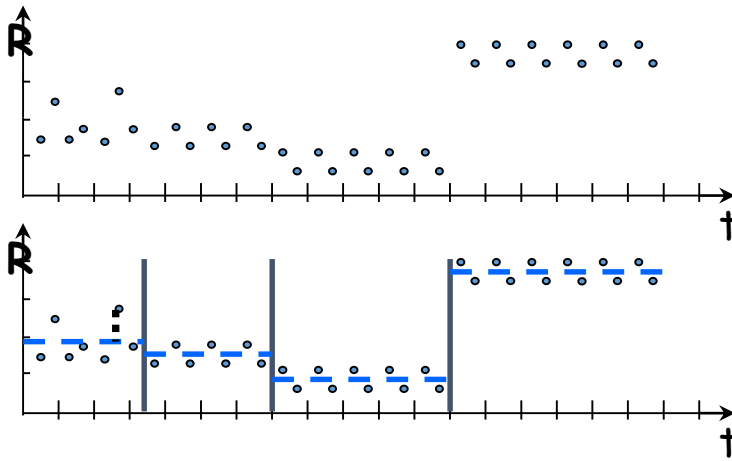


Applications

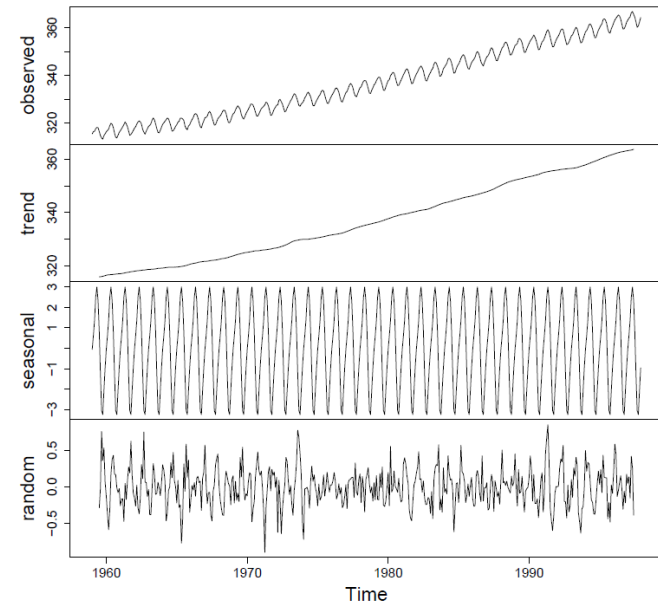
Prediction - Forecasting



Segmentation - Clustering



Analysis



Time-Series data

Time series: sequence of observations $s_t \in \mathbb{R}$ ordered in time $t=1\dots N$

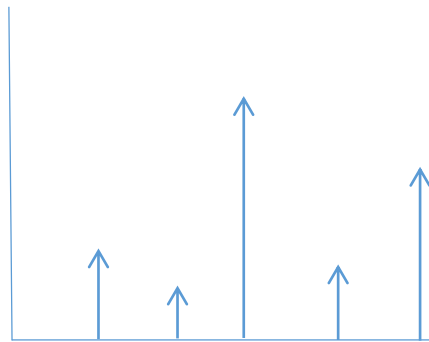
Applications

- Weather, economic, marketing, web, envirometrics, sensor networks

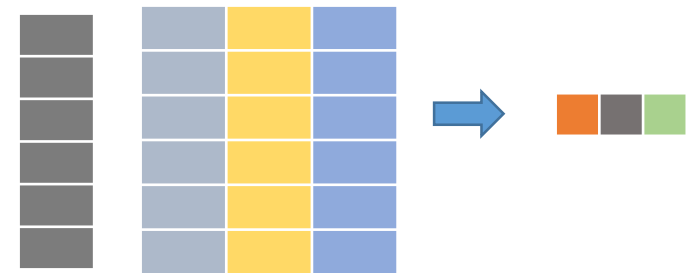
Representations



Sliding windows



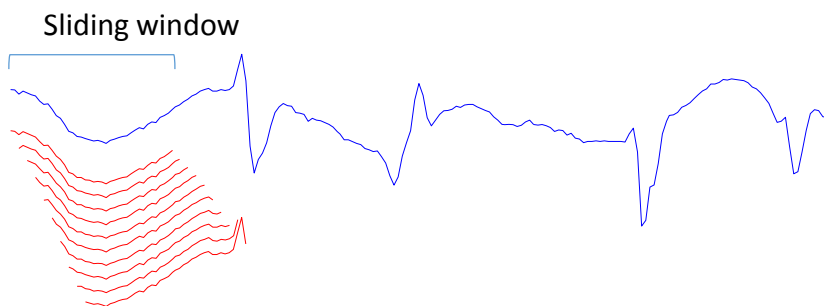
Histograms



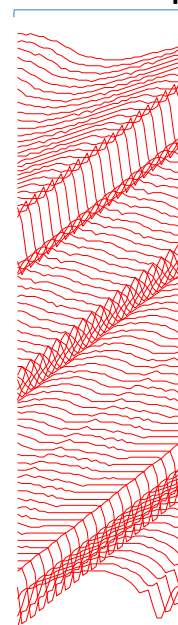
Transform coding

Sliding window

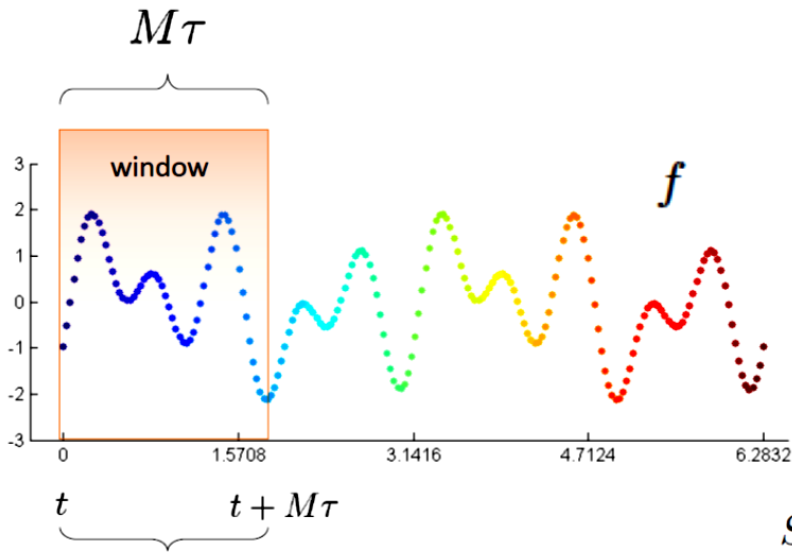
- Given a time series, individual subsequences are extracted with a sliding window



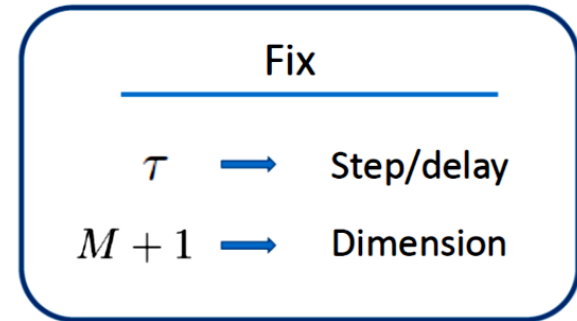
All subsequences



Sliding windows embedding



$f(t), f(t + \tau), \dots, f(t + M\tau)$



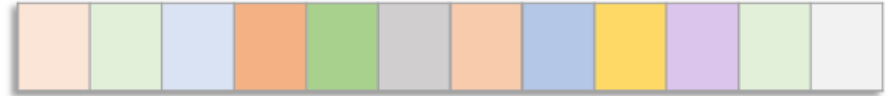
$$SW_{M,\tau}f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} f(t) \\ f(t + \tau) \\ \vdots \\ f(t + M\tau) \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{M+1}$$

Sliding Windows and Persistence: An application of topology to signal analysis, J. Perea and J. Harer, 2015

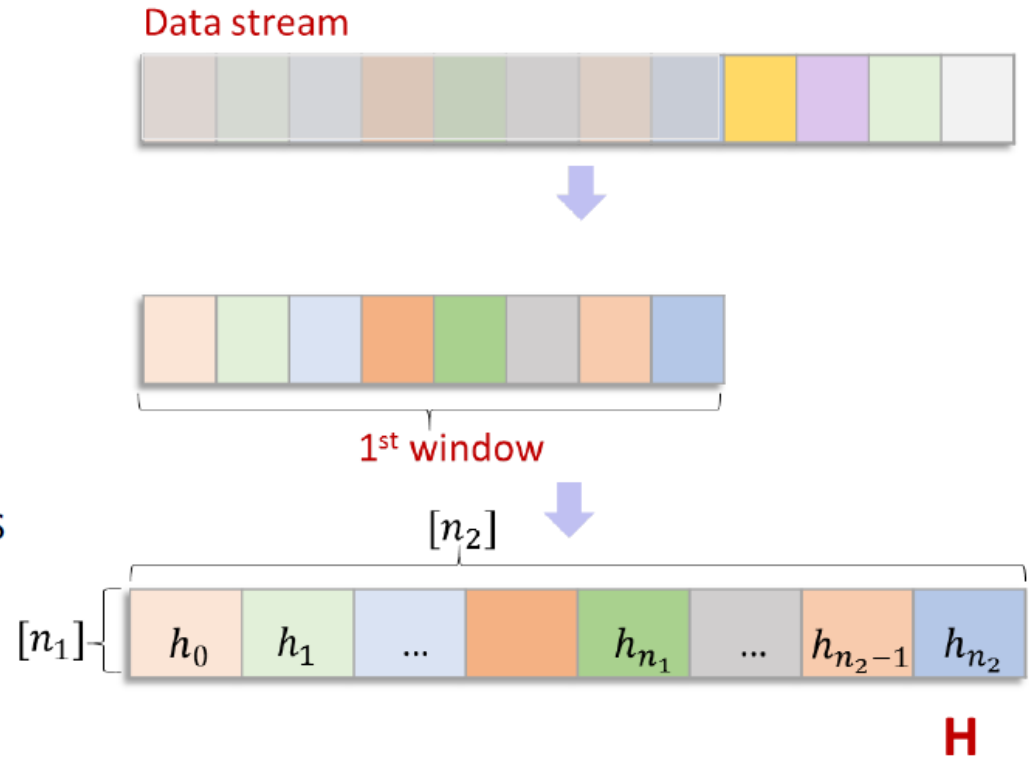


1 Sensor stream

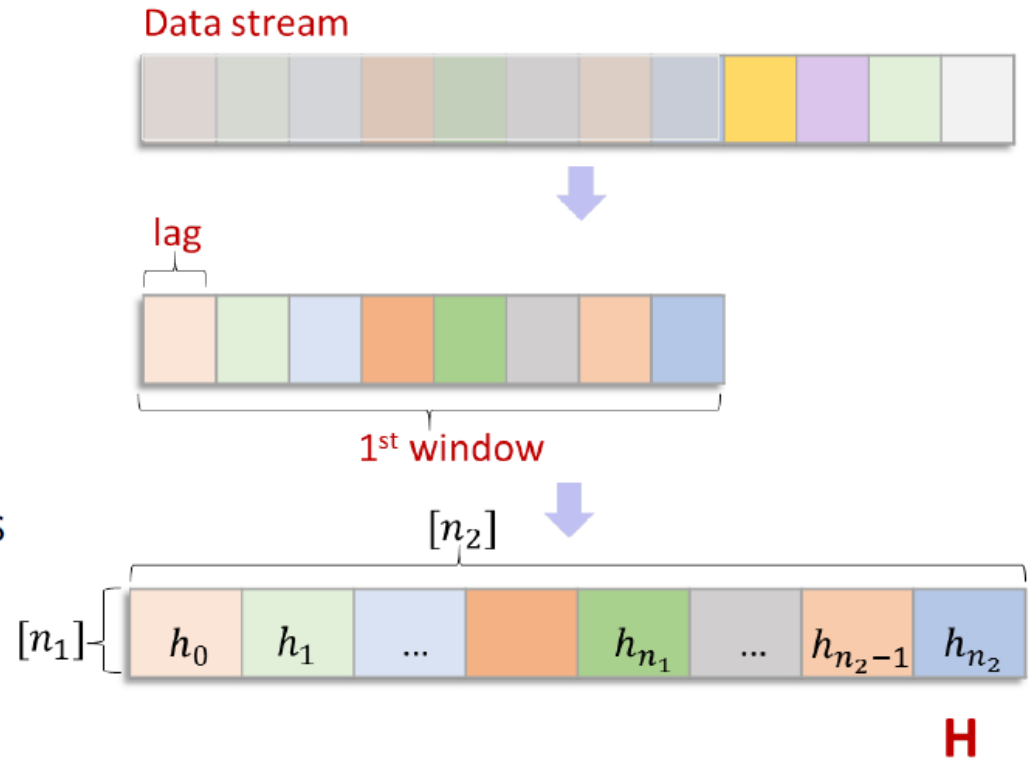
Data stream



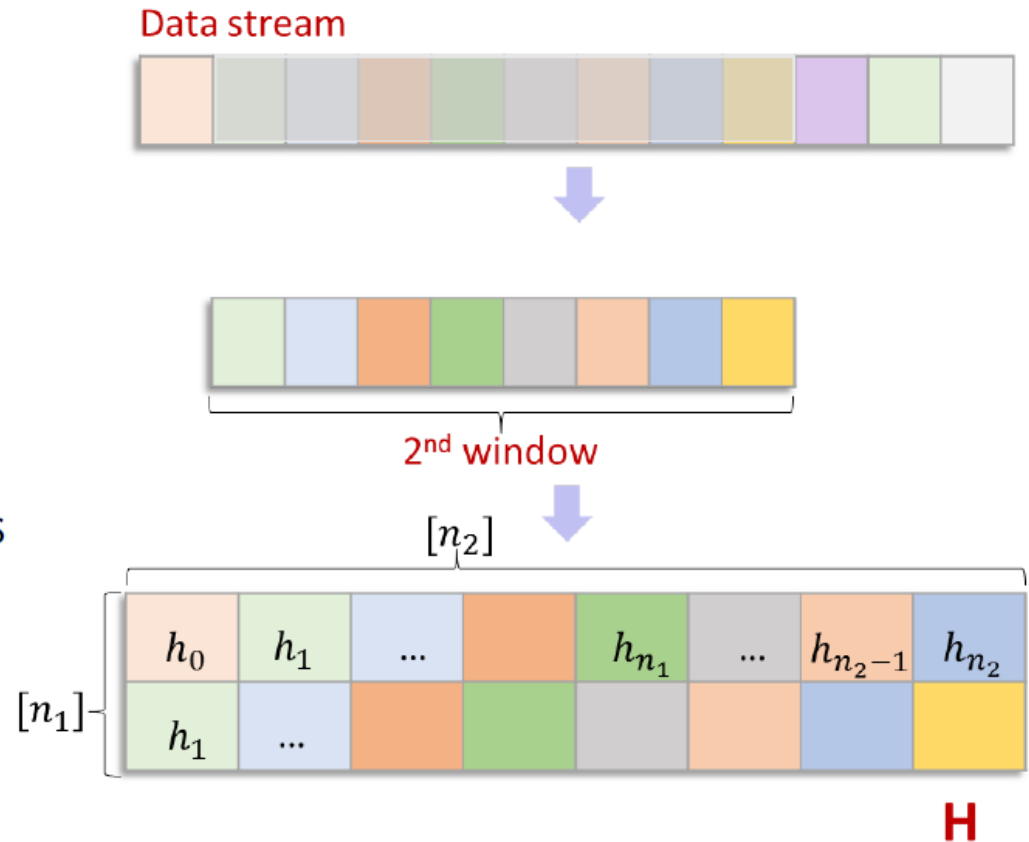
- ① Sensor stream
- ② Temporal windowing
- ③ Hankelization process **H**
 - ✓ $[n_1]$ lagged temporal windows of $[n_2]$ samples



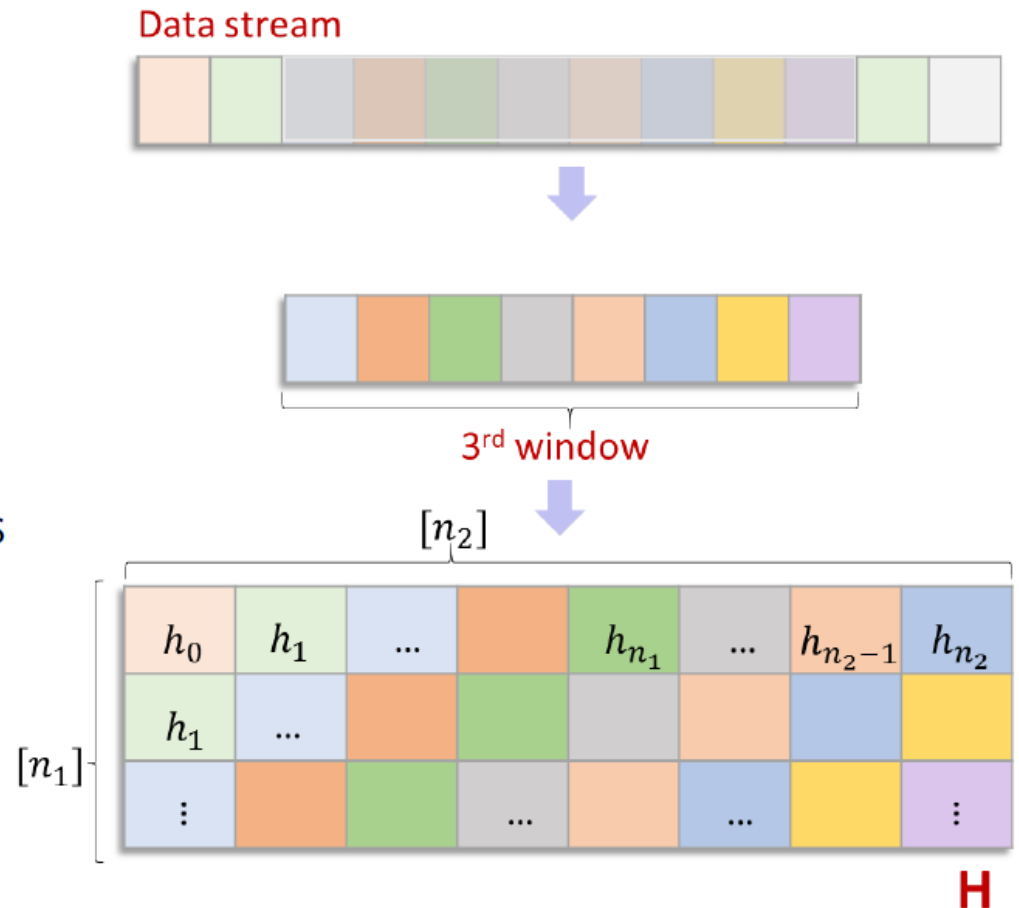
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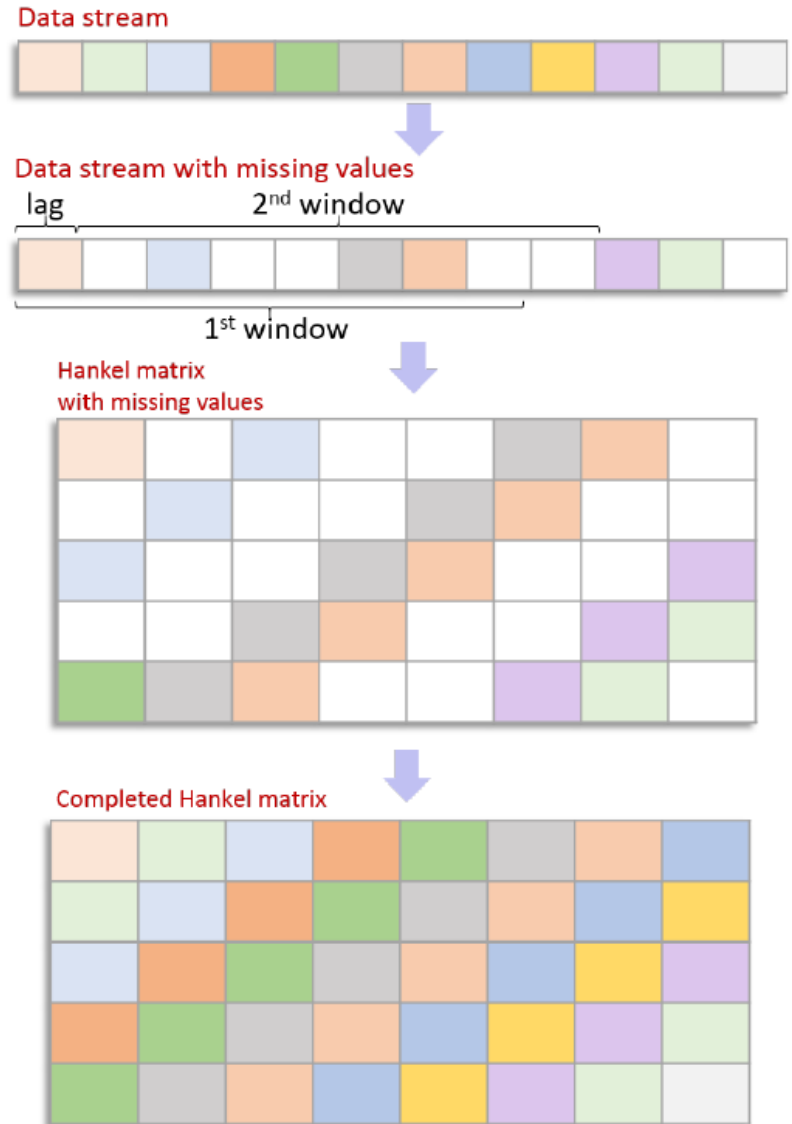


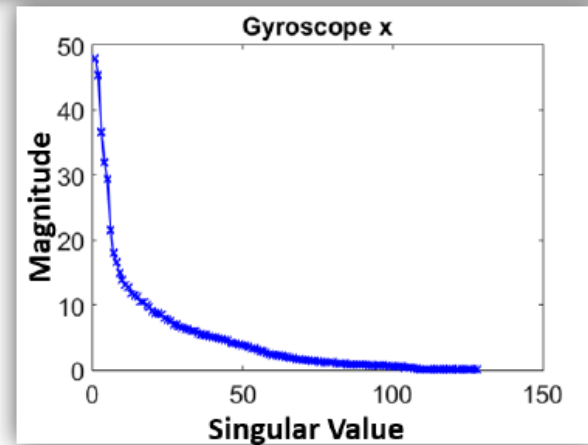
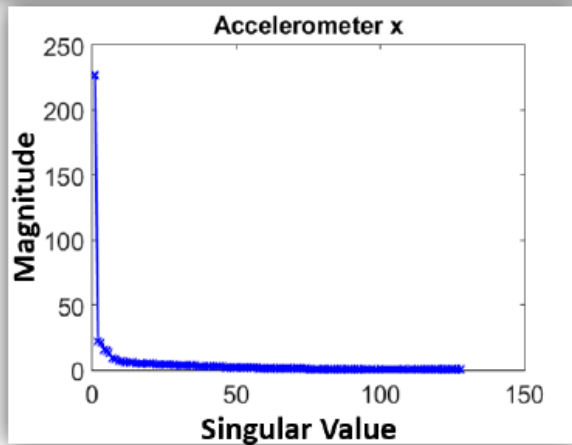
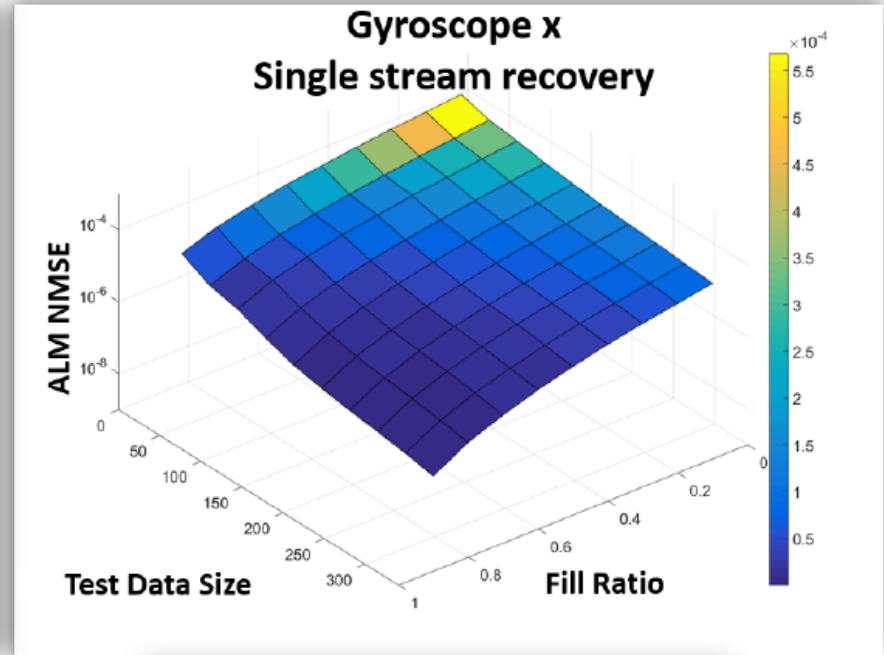
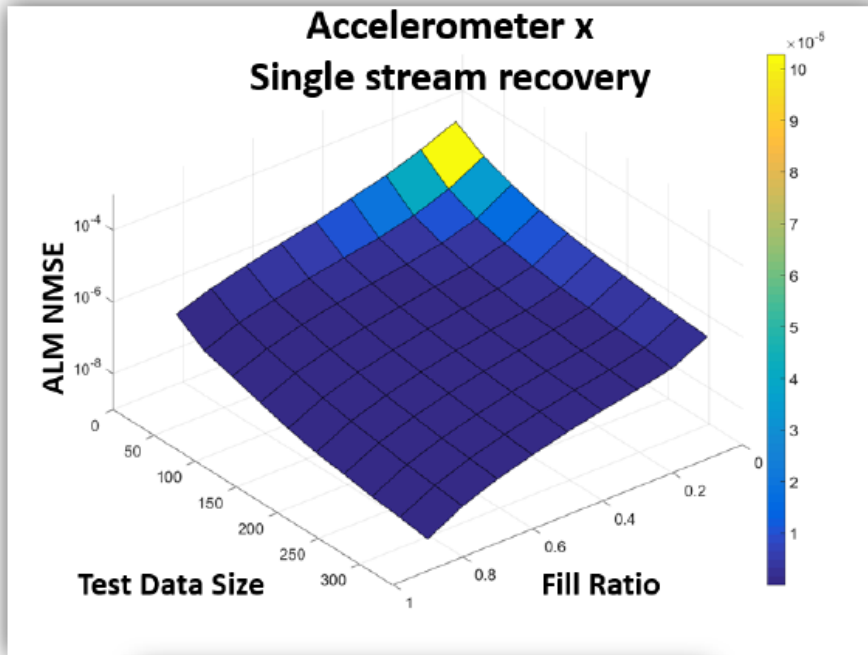
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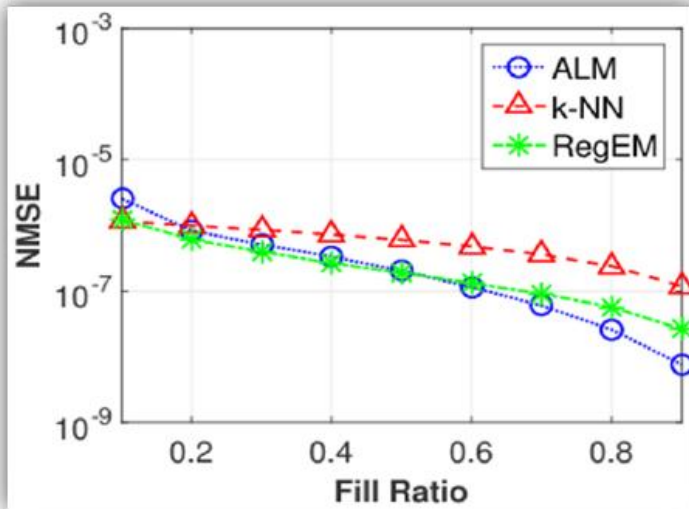
- ① **Test** sensor stream
- ② Introduction of missing values
- ③ Temporal windowing
- ④ Hankelization process **H**
- ⑤ Undersampled Hankel matrices that need to be reconstructed!

⇓
Matrix Completion

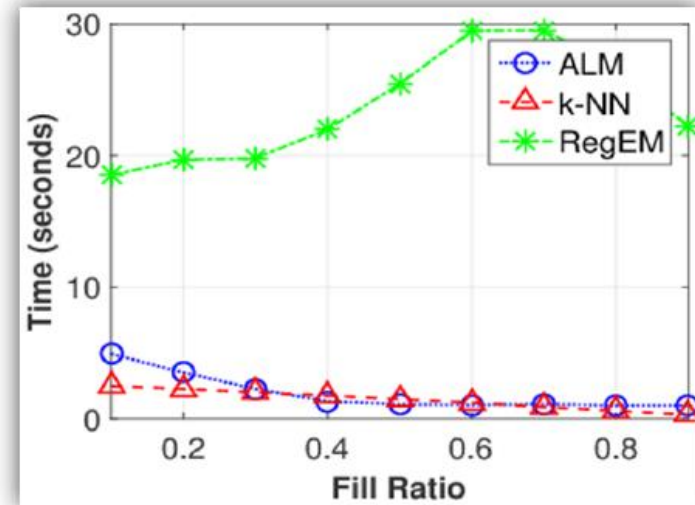
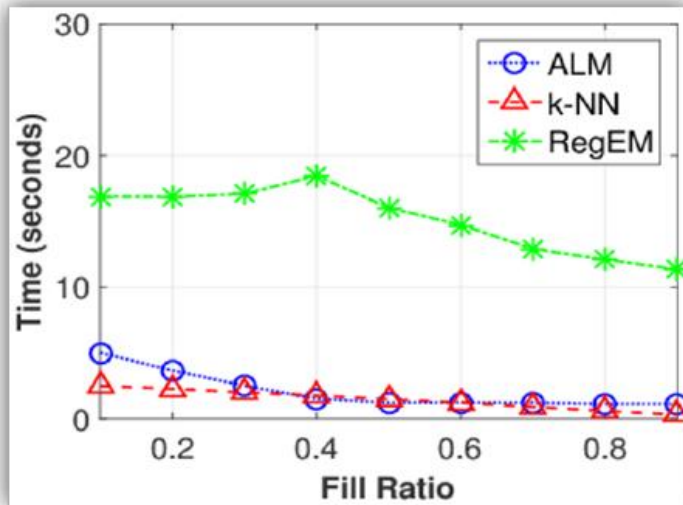
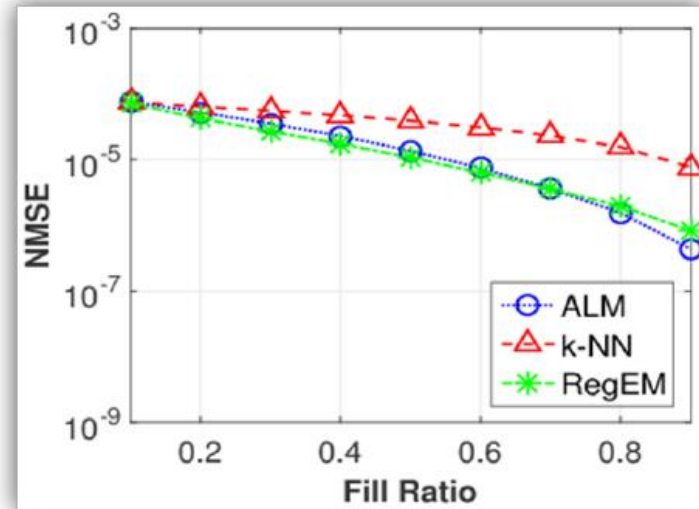




**Accelerometer x
Single stream recovery**



**Gyroscope x
Single stream recovery**



Autoregressive Models (AR)

Thus for *stationary* time series the mean value function is **constant** and the covariance function is only a **function of the distance in time** ($t - s$)

The “order” of the AR(p) models is the number of prior values used in the model.

Univariate AR model

- **AR(1)** → $x_t = b_0 + b_1x_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$
- **AR(2)** → $x_t = b_0 + b_1x_{t-1} + b_2x_{t-2} + \varepsilon_t$
- **AR(p)** → $X_t = \sum_{i=1}^p \varphi_i X_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t.$

Solutions: Yule–Walker equations

Estimation of autocovariances, least squares regression

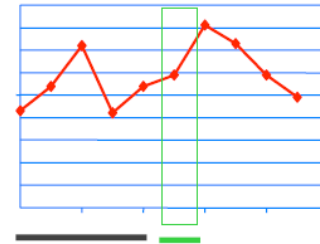


Matrix formulation

- $\mathbf{X}_{[N \times w]} \times \mathbf{a}_{[w \times 1]} = \mathbf{y}_{[N \times 1]}$

Ind-var 1

Ind-var-w



time

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{1w} \\ X_{21}, X_{22}, \dots, X_{2w} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ X_{N1}, X_{N2}, \dots, X_{Nw} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_w \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$



Matrix formulation

- $$\mathbf{X}_{[N \times w]} \times \mathbf{a}_{[w \times 1]} = \mathbf{y}_{[N \times 1]}$$

Ind-var-1
Ind-var-w

time
↓

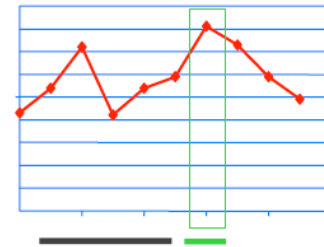
$$\begin{bmatrix} X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{1w} \\ X_{21}, X_{22}, \dots, X_{2w} \\ \dots \\ \dots \\ \dots \\ X_{N1}, X_{N2}, \dots, X_{Nw} \end{bmatrix}$$

×

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_w \end{bmatrix}$$

=

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$$



Vector Autoregressive Models (VAR)

Vector AR (VAR) extension to multiple time series

$$y_t = c + A_1 y_{t-1} + A_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + A_p y_{t-p} + e_t,$$

- least squares: $B_1 = (Y_{t-1}^T Y_{t-1})^{-1} Y_{t-1}^T Y_t$ (under conditions)
- Determination of lag length is a trade-off

Granger causality: statistical hypothesis test for determining whether one time series X is useful in forecasting another time series Y, ('60)

$$Y_t = \alpha + \phi_1 Y_{t-1} + \beta_1 X_{t-1} + e_t$$

“if $\beta_1=0$ then past values of X have no explanatory power for Y beyond that provided by past values of Y”.



Similarity between time-Series

Euclidean Distance

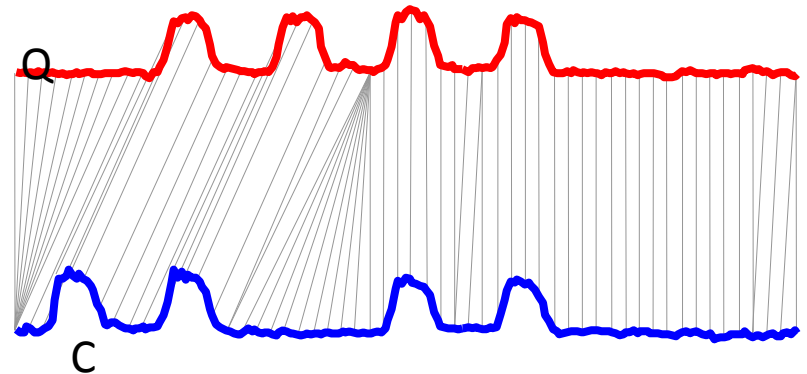
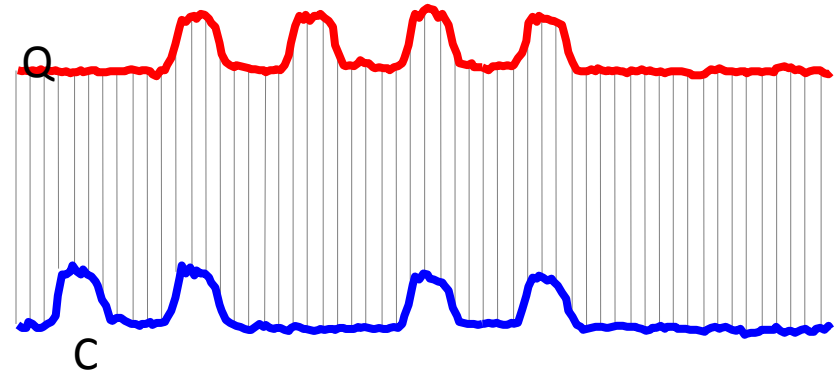
$$D(\vec{x}, \vec{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2$$

(+) *Efficient computation*

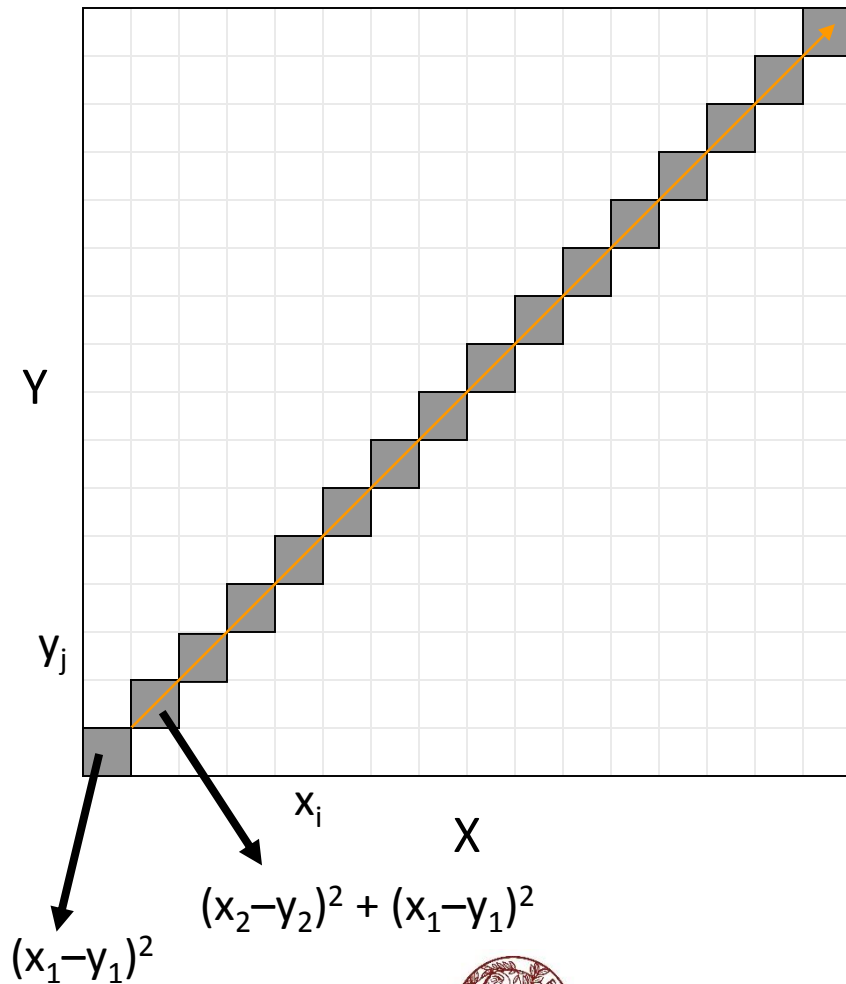
(-) *Time shift, scaling*

Dynamic Time Warping

- *Nonlinear alignments are possible.*

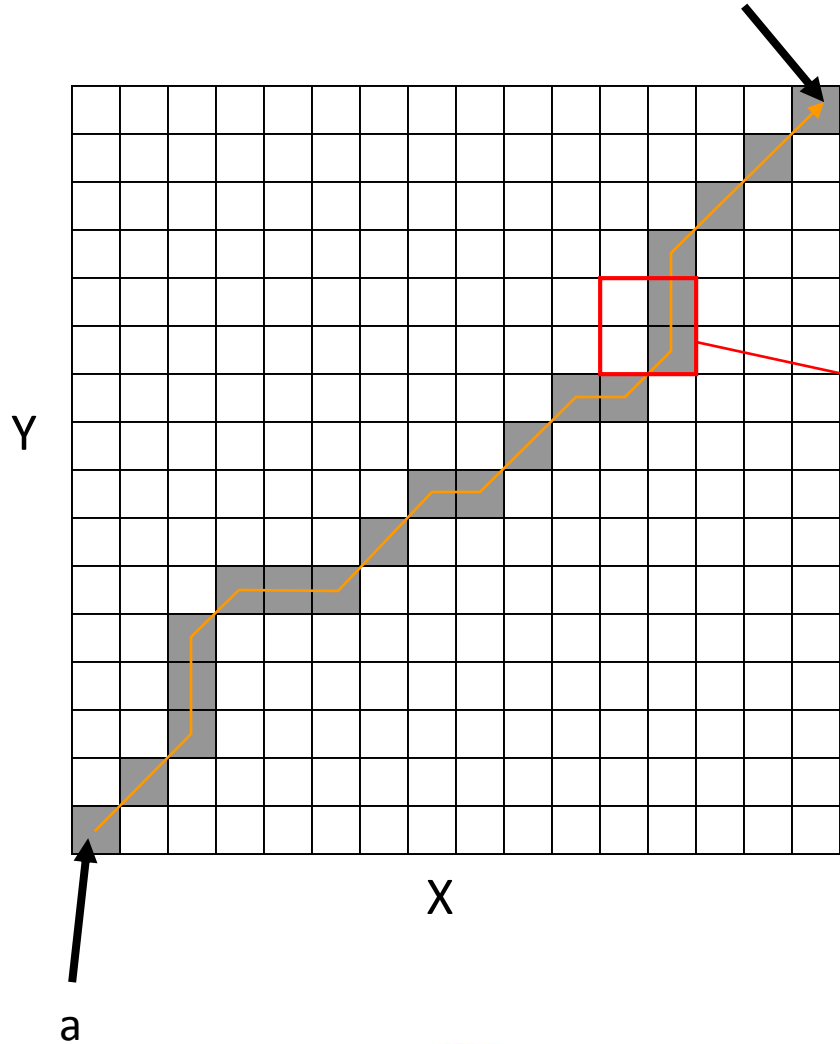


DTW: Euclidean Distance

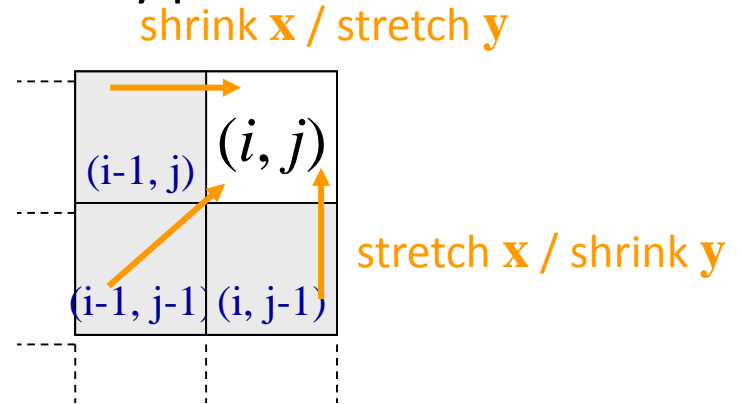


- Each cell $c = (i, j)$ is a pair of indices whose corresponding values will be computed, $(x_i - y_j)^2$, and included in the sum for the distance.
- Euclidean path:
 - $i = j$ always.
 - Ignores off-diagonal cells.

DTW: Dynamic time warping



DTW allows any path.



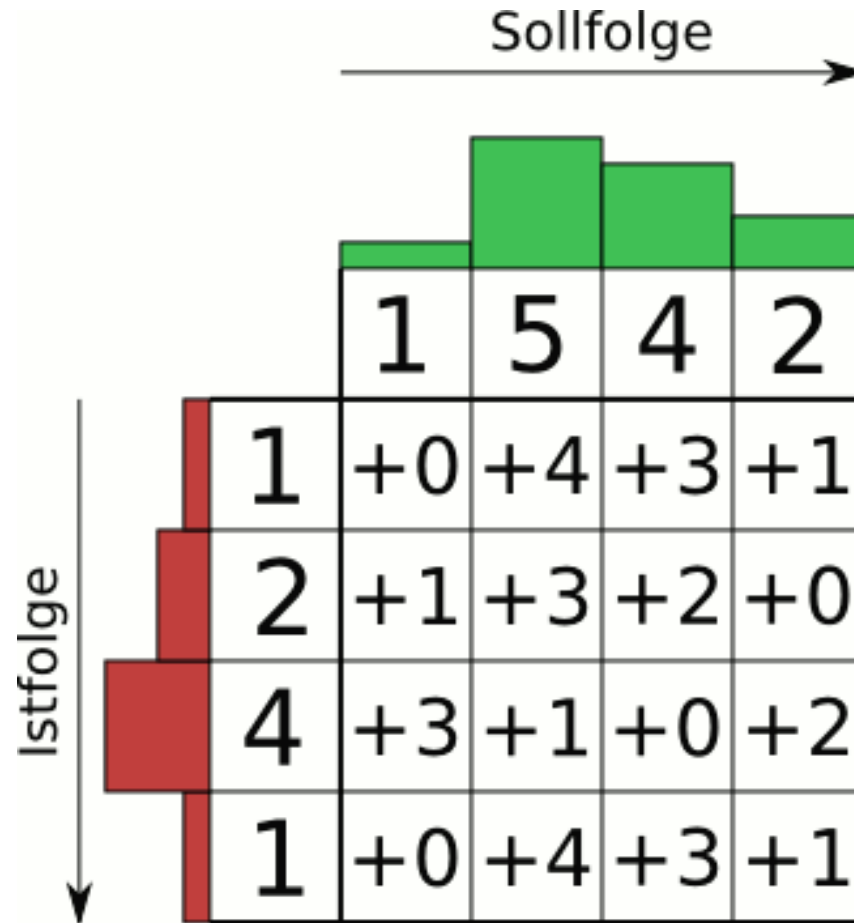
Dynamic Programming approach

$$D(i, j) = |x_i - y_j| + \min \{ D(i-1, j), D(i-1, j-1), D(i, j-1) \}$$

- Extend sequences by repeating elements
- Euclidean distance between extended sequences



DTW example

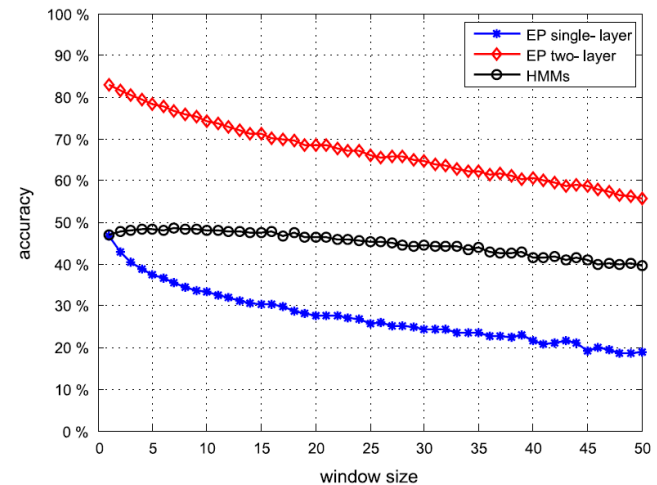
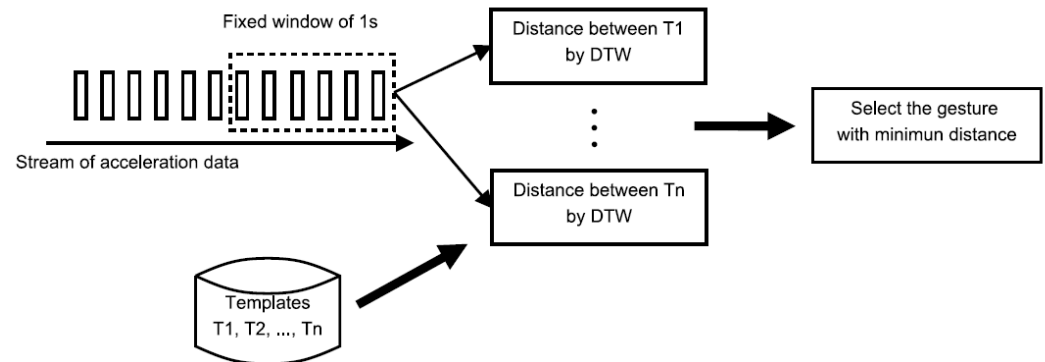


DTW based activity recognition



a

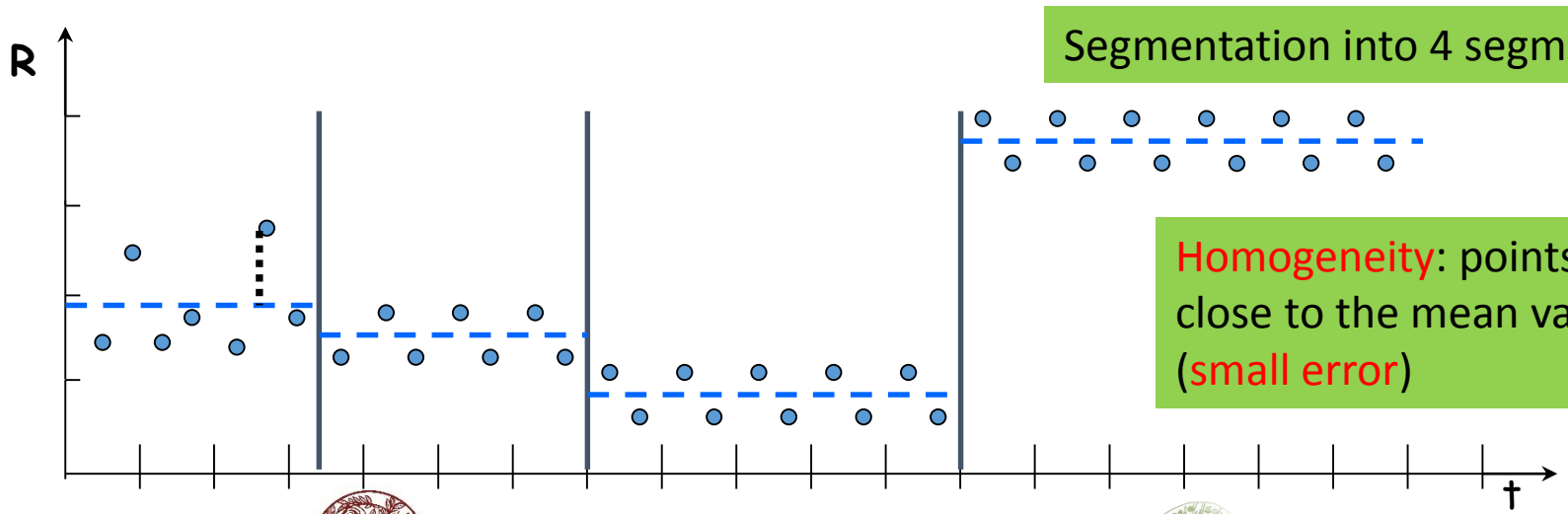
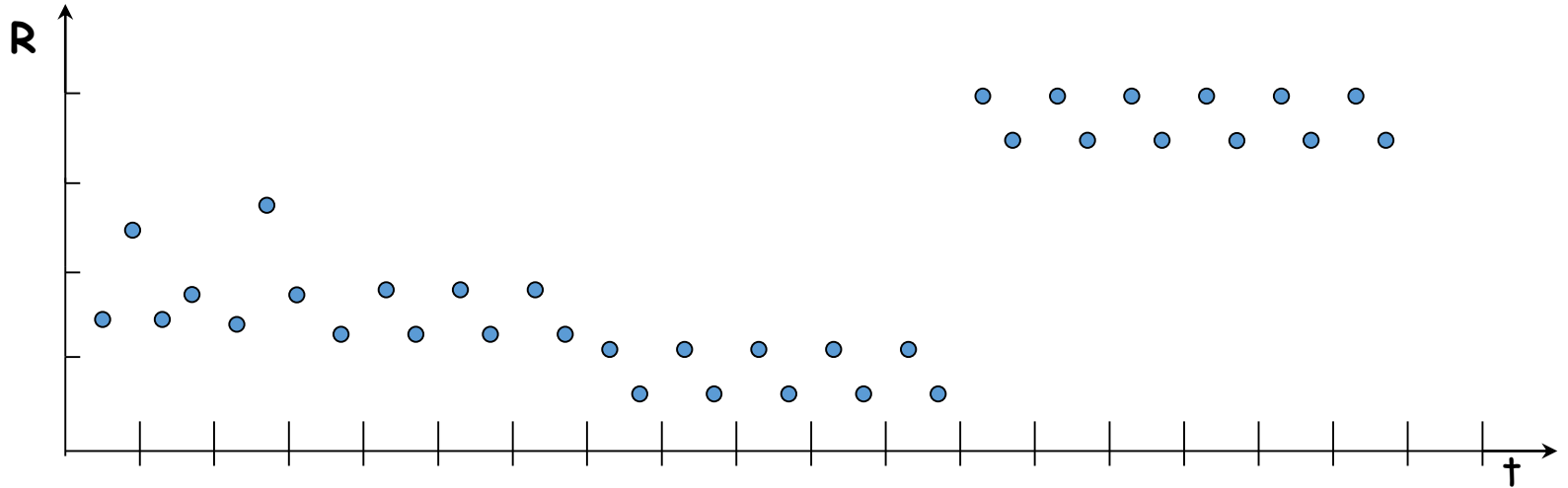
b



Wang, Liang, et al. "A hierarchical approach to real-time activity recognition in body sensor networks." *Pervasive and Mobile Computing* 8.1 (2012): 115-130.



Stream Data Processing



Segmentation into 4 segments

Homogeneity: points are close to the mean value (small error)



The K-segmentation problem

- A K-segmentation S : a partition of T into K contiguous segments $\{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_K\}$.
- Similar to K-means clustering, but now we need the points in the clusters to respect the order of the sequence

Given a sequence T of length N and a value K , find a K -segmentation $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_K\}$ of T such that the SSE error E is minimized.

Solve via Dynamic Programming:

- Construct the solution of the problem by using solutions to problems of smaller size
- Build the solution bottom up from smaller to larger instances



Outlier detection

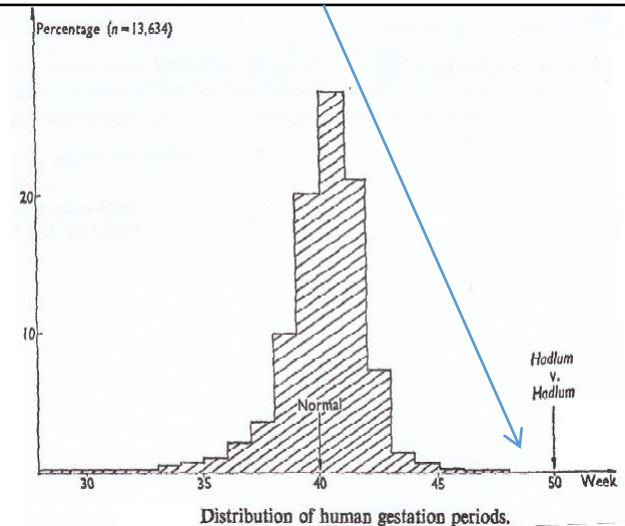
Definition (anomaly/novelty detection)

“those measurements that **significantly deviate** from the **normal pattern** of the sensed data”

Types: Noise, Errors, Events & Attacks

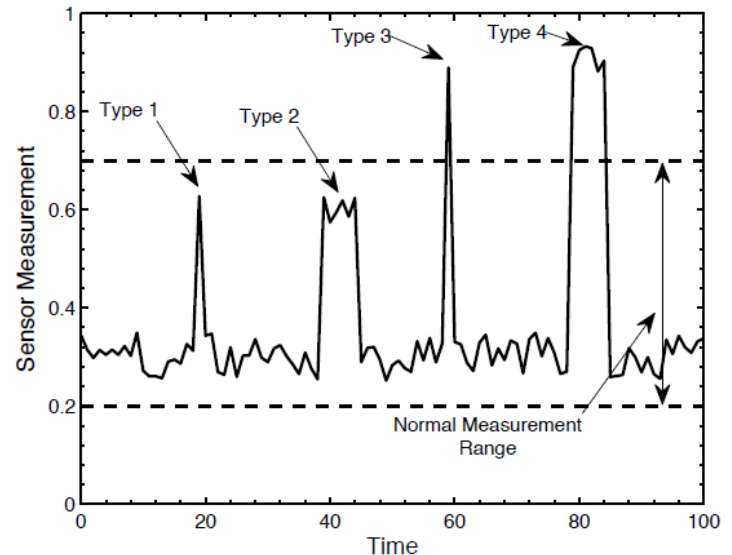
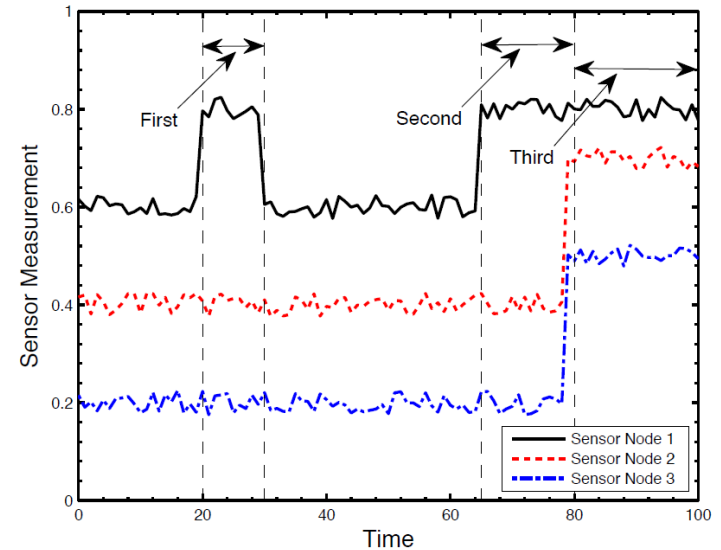
Outlier Detection	Event Detection
No prior knowledge	semantics
comparative	Threshold based
False alarms	Detection

The birth of a child to Mrs. Hadlum happened 349 days (11,5 months) after Mr. Hadlum left for military service.



Types of outliers

- First Order Anomalies:
 - Partial data measurements are anomalous at a sensor node
- Second Order Anomalies:
 - All data measurements at a sensor node are anomalous
- Third Order Anomalies:
 - Data from a set of sensor nodes are anomalous



Type 1: Incidental absolute errors:

- A short-term extremely high anomalous

Type 2: Clustered absolute errors:

- A continuous sequence of *type 1* errors

Type 3: Random errors:

- Short-term observations outside normal range

Type 4: Long term errors:

- A continuous sequence of *type 3* errors



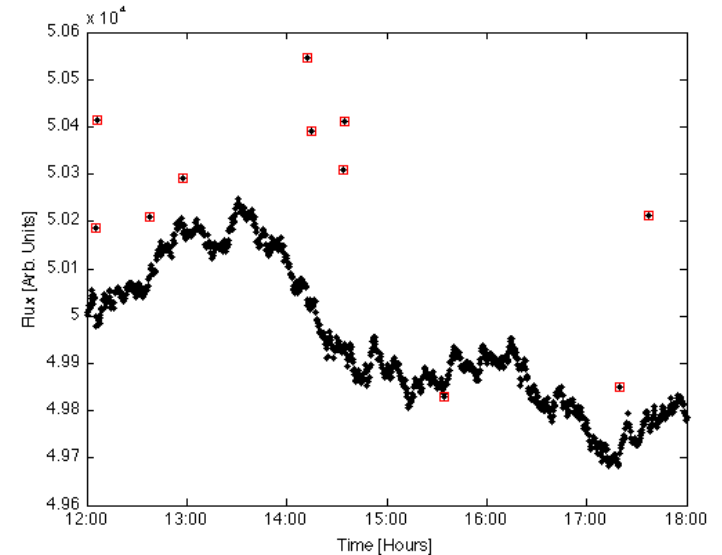
Outlier detection in WSNs

Objectives

- Data reliability
- Quality of Service
- Communications overhead
- Adaptive sampling rates
- Security alert

Applications

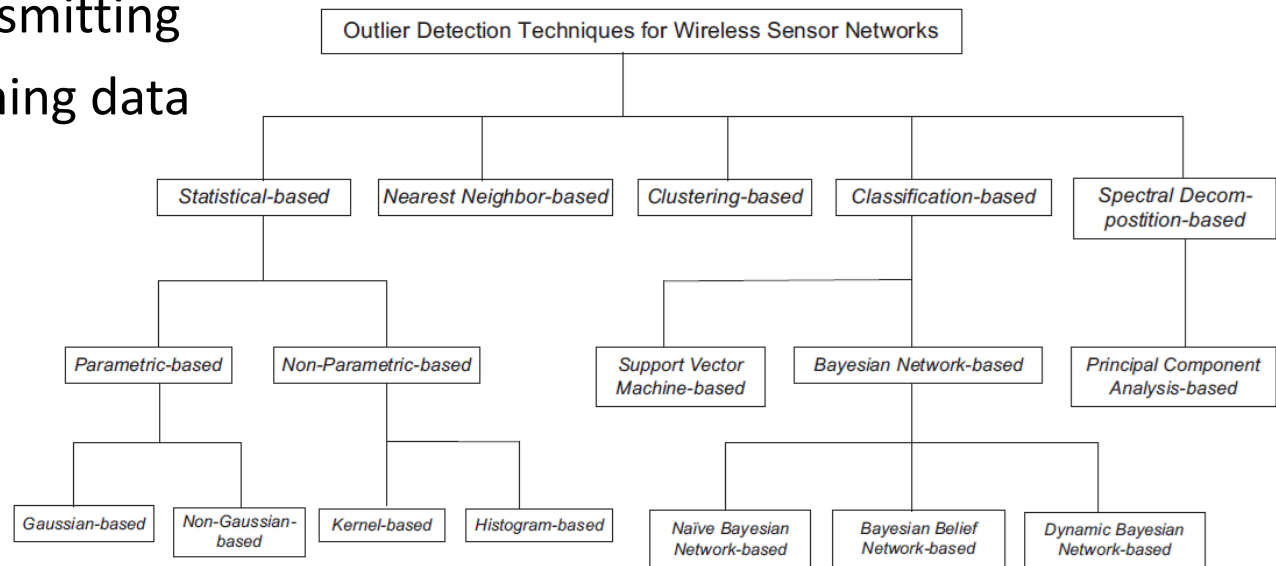
- Environmental monitoring (e.g. fire)
- Health monitoring (e.g. heart attack)
- Industrial monitoring (e.g. malfunctions)



Outlier detection in WSNs

Challenges

- Low cost & quality
- Processing vs Transmitting
- Distributed streaming data
- Network topology
 - Failures,
 - Disconnections,
 - Mobility
- Deployment scale
- Type detection



Statistical

Gaussian-based models

- Send measurements -> model
- Build model -> send parameters

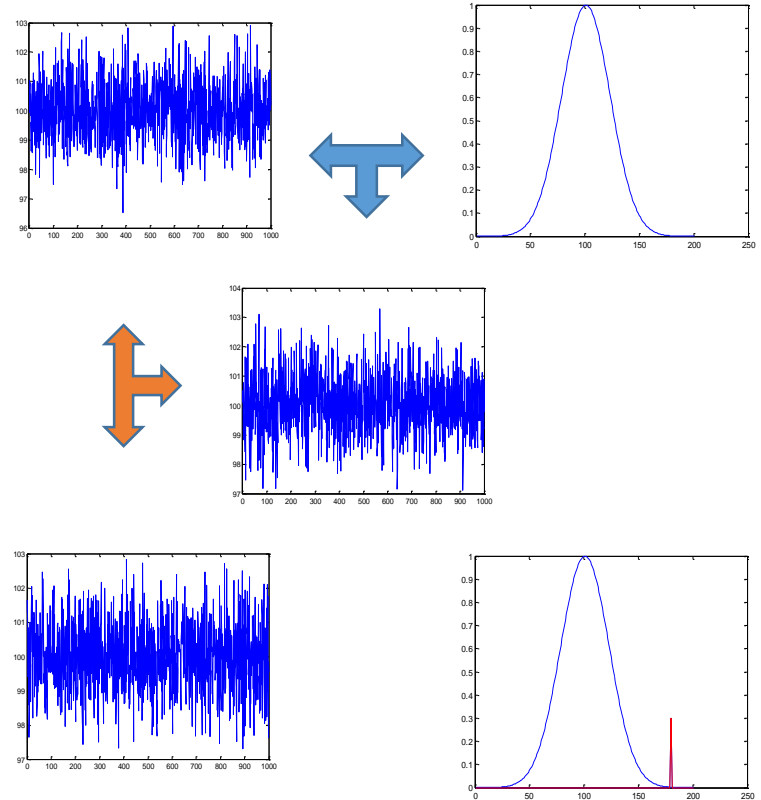
Non-Gaussian

- Symmetric α -stable distributions

Mixtures

Clusters

Detection Thresholds



Non-parametric modeling

Histogram based

1. Obtain v_{\min} and v_{\max} information
2. Collect histogram
3. Collect outliers and potential outliers
4. Diffuse potential outliers and count the number of neighbors within d

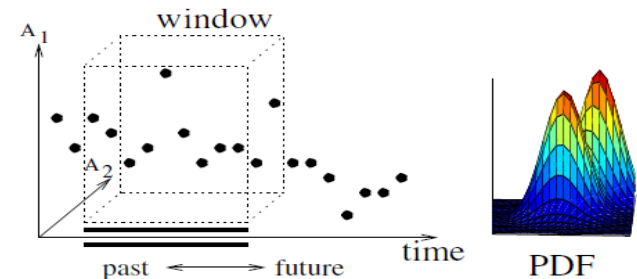
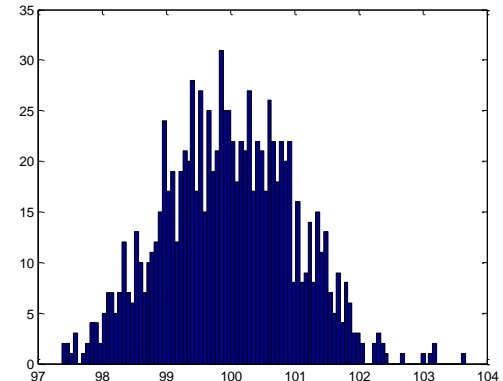
- Number of bins
- Thresholds

Kernel Density Estimation

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{h_i} K\left(\frac{x - x_i}{h_i}\right)$$

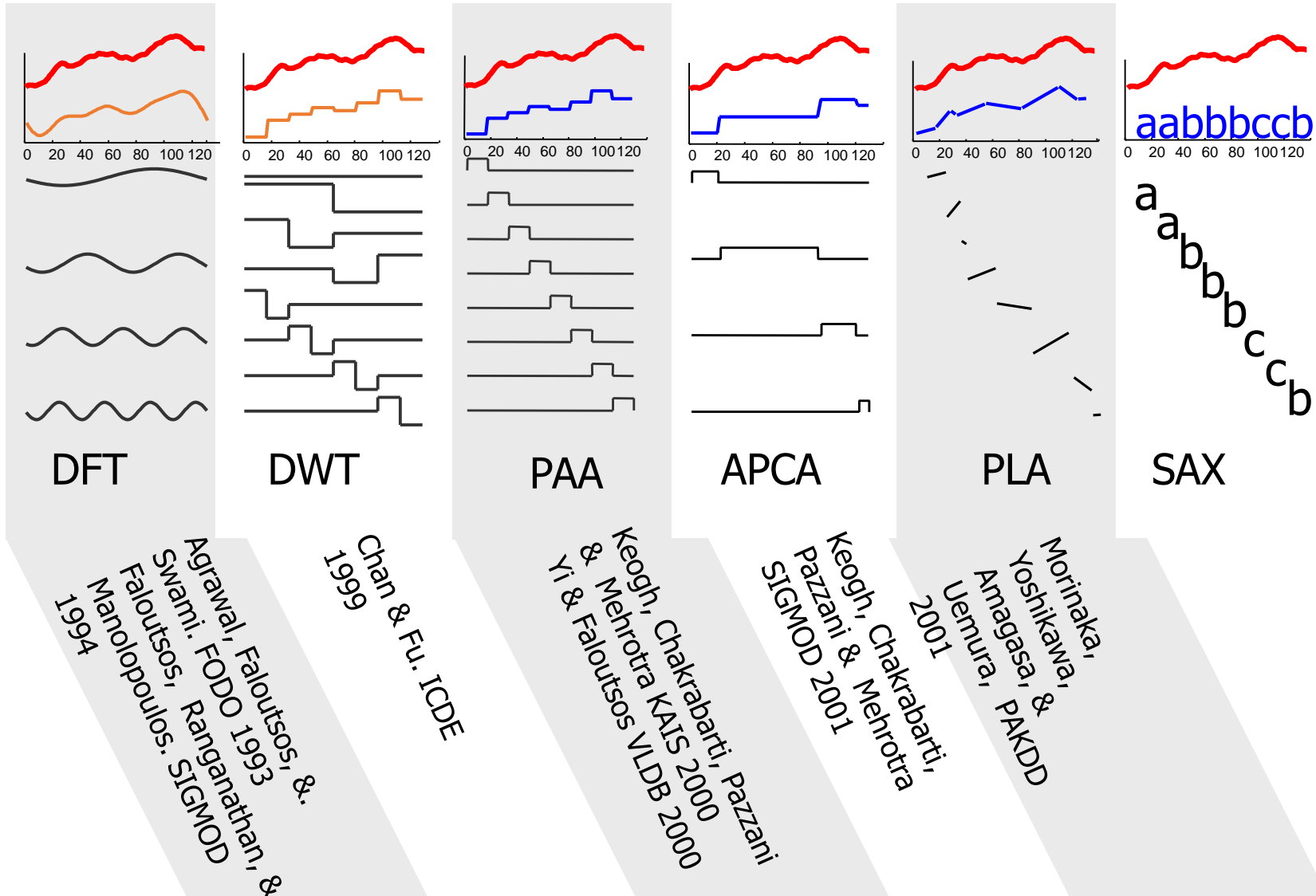
Kernel

Bandwidth



Gaussian $K(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}u^2}$

Time series



DFT

DWT

PAA

APCA

PLA

SAX

Agrawal, Faloutsos, & Swami. FODO 1993
 Faloutsos, Ranganathan, & Manolopoulos. SIGMOD 1994

Chan & Fu. ICDE 1999

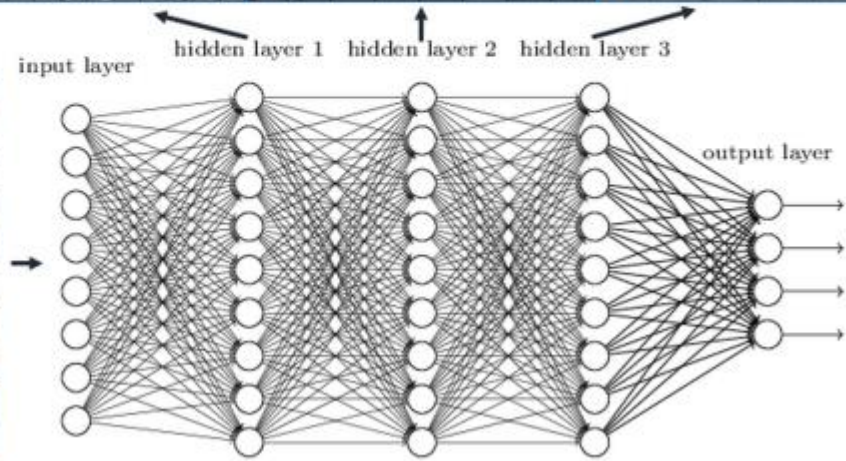
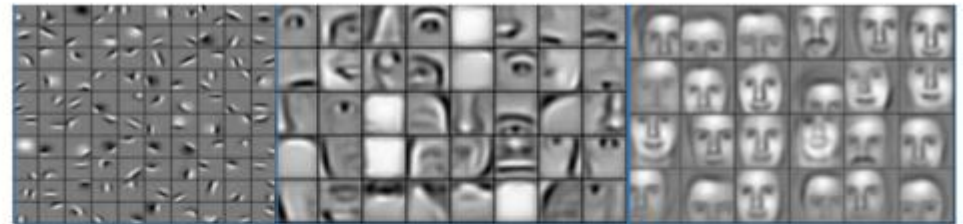
Keogh, Chakrabarti, Pazzani & Mehrotra KAIS 2000
 Yi & Faloutsos VLDB 2000

Keogh, Chakrabarti, Pazzani & Mehrotra SIGMOD 2001

Morinaka, Yoshikawa, Amagasa, & Uemura, PAKDD 2001



Machine Learning



Machine Learning

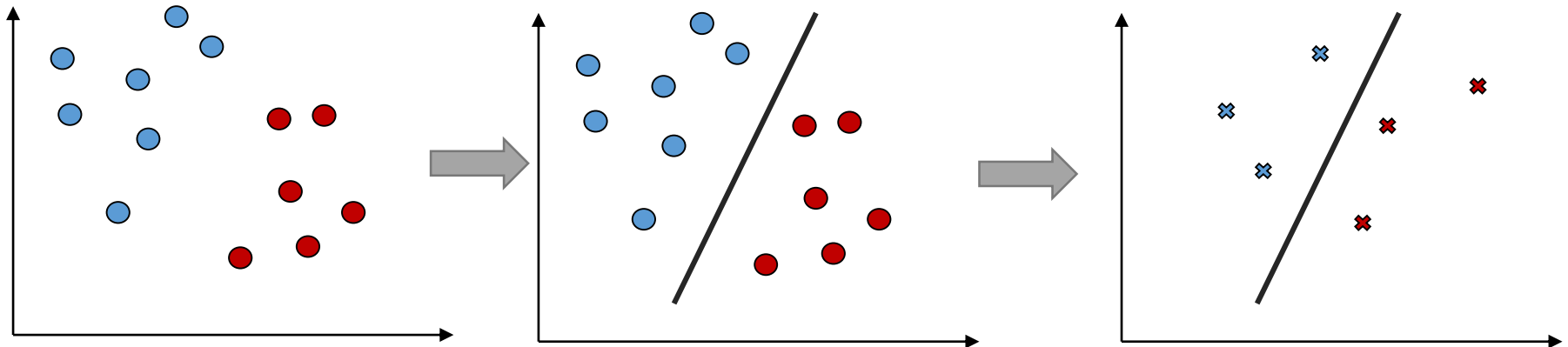
Machine learning: construction and study of algorithms that can learn from data

- Models of example inputs (training data) → make predictions or decisions on new inputs (testing data)
- Data: characteristics
- Prior assumptions: a priori knowledge
- Representation: How do we represent the data
- Model / Hypothesis space: Hypotheses to explain the data
- Feedback / learning signal: Learning signal (delayed, labels)
- Learning algorithm: Model update
- Evaluation: Check quality



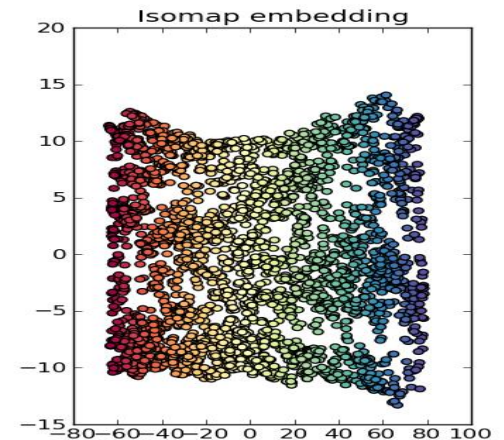
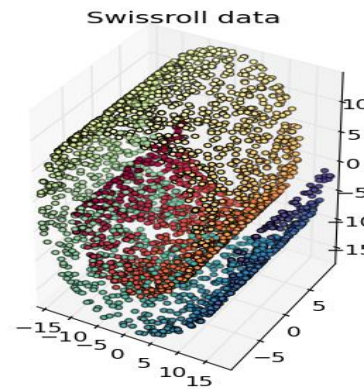
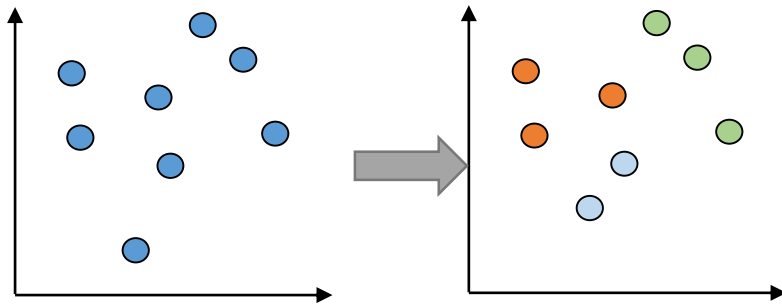
Types of ML

Supervised learning: present example inputs and their desired outputs (**labels**) → learn a general rule that maps inputs to outputs.



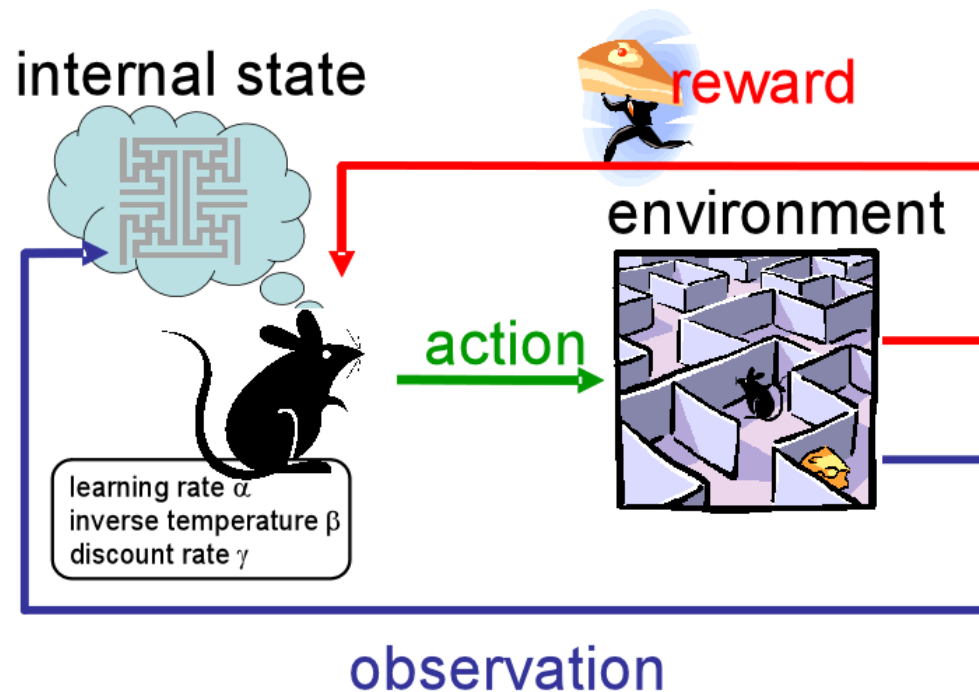
Types of ML

Unsupervised learning: no labels are given \rightarrow find structure in input.



Types of ML

Reinforcement learning: system interacts with environment and must perform a certain goal without explicitly telling it whether it has come close to its goal or not.



Applications in WSNs

Network performance optimization

- Routing
- Distributed regression framework
- Data Aggregation
- Localization and Objects Targeting
- Medium Access Control

Data Mining

- Activity recognition
- Event Detection and Query Processing



Unsupervised learning - Clustering

What is a cluster?

groups of data instances that are similar to each other in one cluster and data instances that are very different from each other into different clusters

Hard vs. Soft

- *Hard*: belong to single cluster
- *Soft*: belong to multiple clusters

Flat vs. Hierarchical

- *Flat*: clusters are flat
- *Hierarchical*: clusters form a tree



K-means clustering

- K-means is a **partitional clustering** algorithm
- Let the set of data points (or instances) D be

$$\{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\},$$

where $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{ir})$ is a **vector** in a real-valued space $X \subseteq R^r$, and r is the number of attributes (dimensions) in the data.

- The k -means algorithm partitions the given data into k clusters.
 - Each cluster has a cluster **center**, called **centroid**.
 - k is specified by the user



K-means algorithm

Given k , the *k-means* algorithm works as follows:

- 1) Randomly choose k data points (**seeds**) to be the initial **centroids**, cluster centers
- 2) Assign each data point to the closest **centroid**
- 3) Re-compute the **centroids** using the current cluster memberships.
- 4) If a convergence criterion is not met, go to 2).

Stopping criteria

- no re-assignments of data points to different clusters
- no change of centroids

- minimum decrease in the $SSE = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_j} dist(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{m}_j)^2$

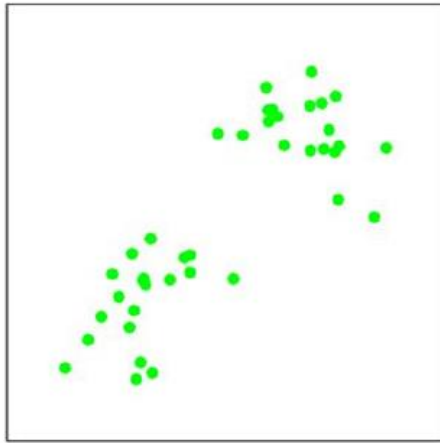


K-means example

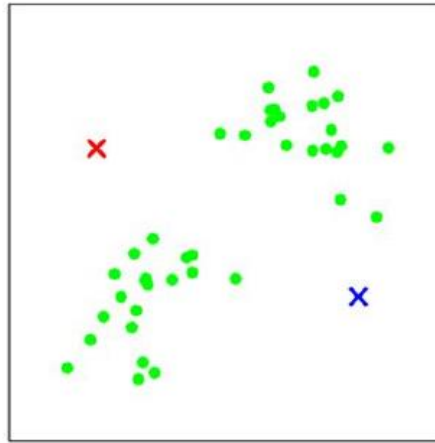
Complexity is $O(n * K * I * d)$

n = number of points, K = number of clusters,

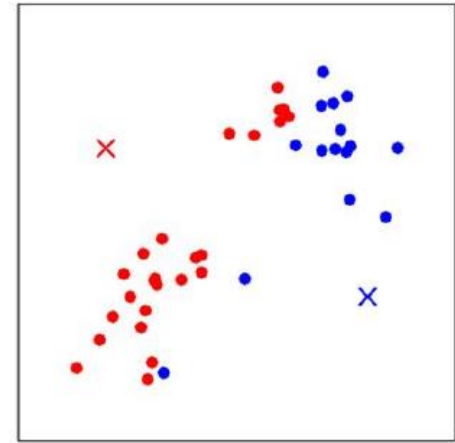
I = number of iterations, d = dimensionality



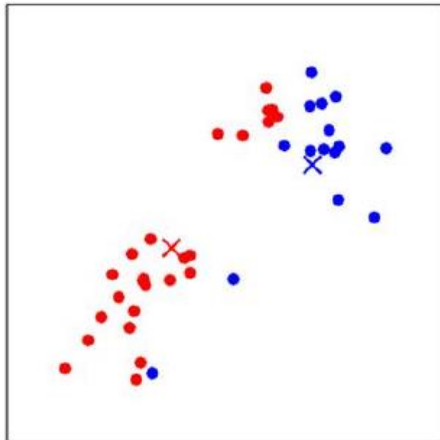
(a)



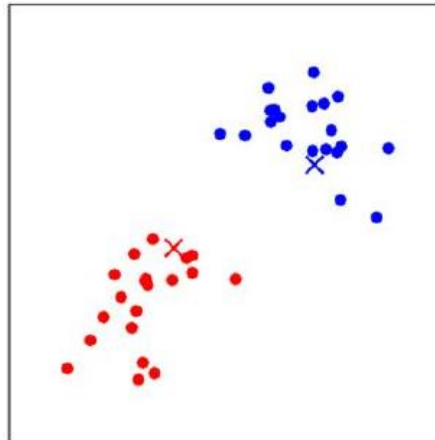
(b)



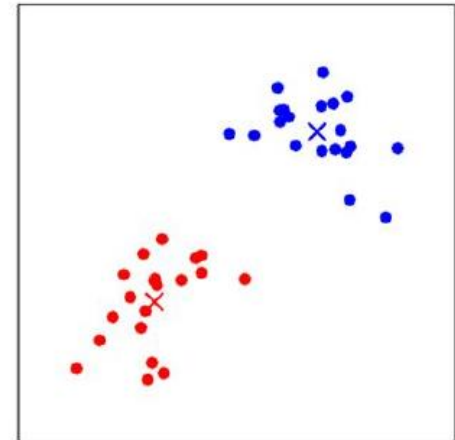
(c)



(d)



(e)



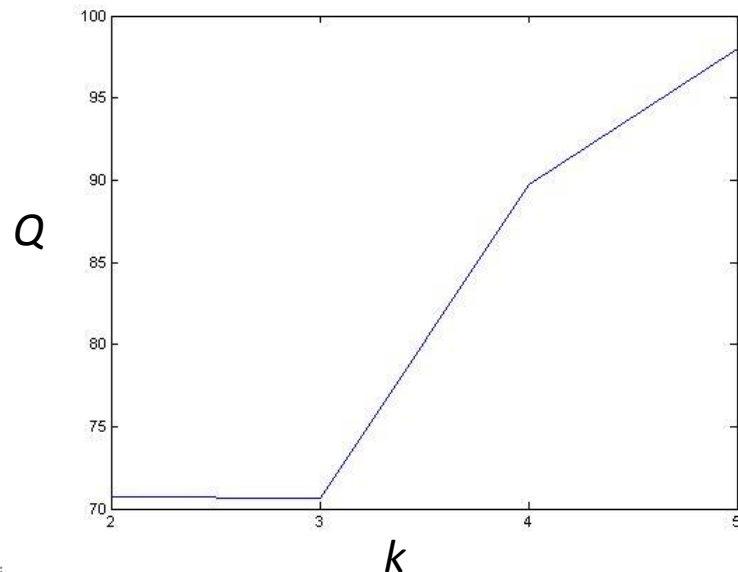
(f)

Issues with K-means

- Random initialization -> different clusters each time
- Data points are assigned to only one cluster
- Implicit assumptions about the “shapes” of clusters
- You have to pick the number of clusters...

Cluster tightness

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{|C_i|} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in C_i} d(\mathbf{x}, \mu_i)$$

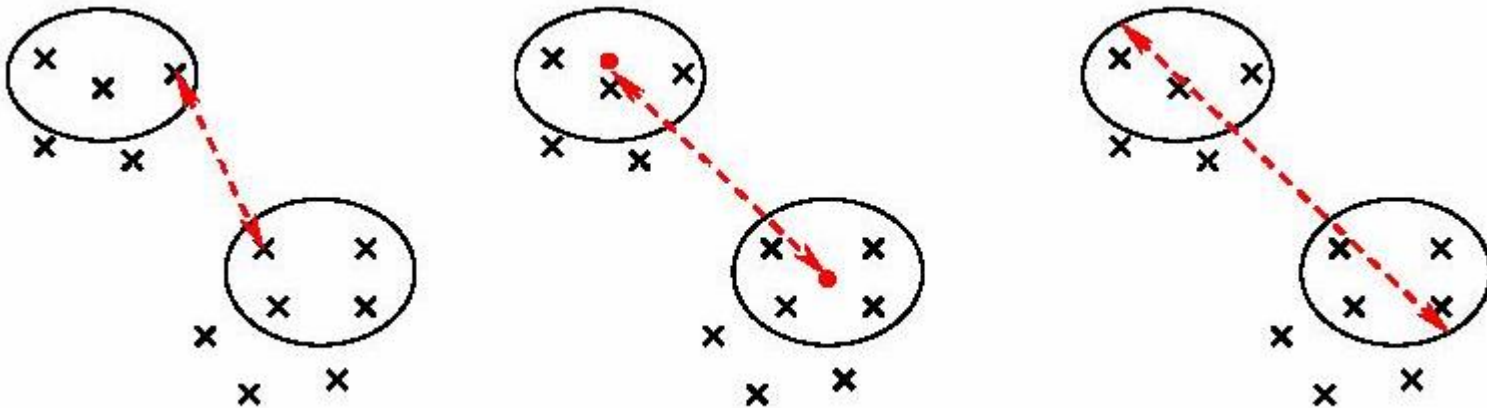


Distance Between Two Clusters

single-link clustering: distance between clusters -> shortest distance between any two members.

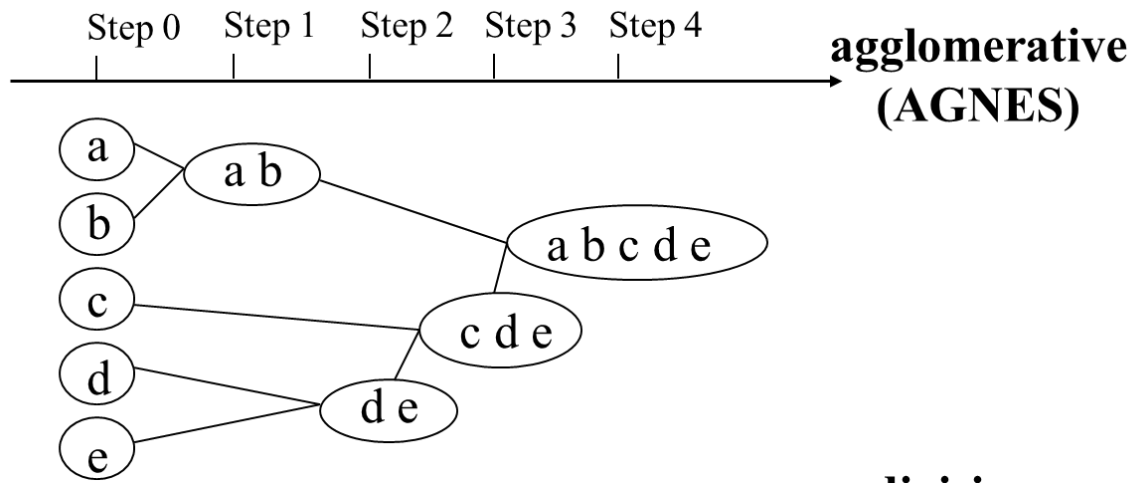
complete-link clustering: distance between clusters -> longest distance between any two members.

average-link clustering: distance between clusters -> average distance between any two members

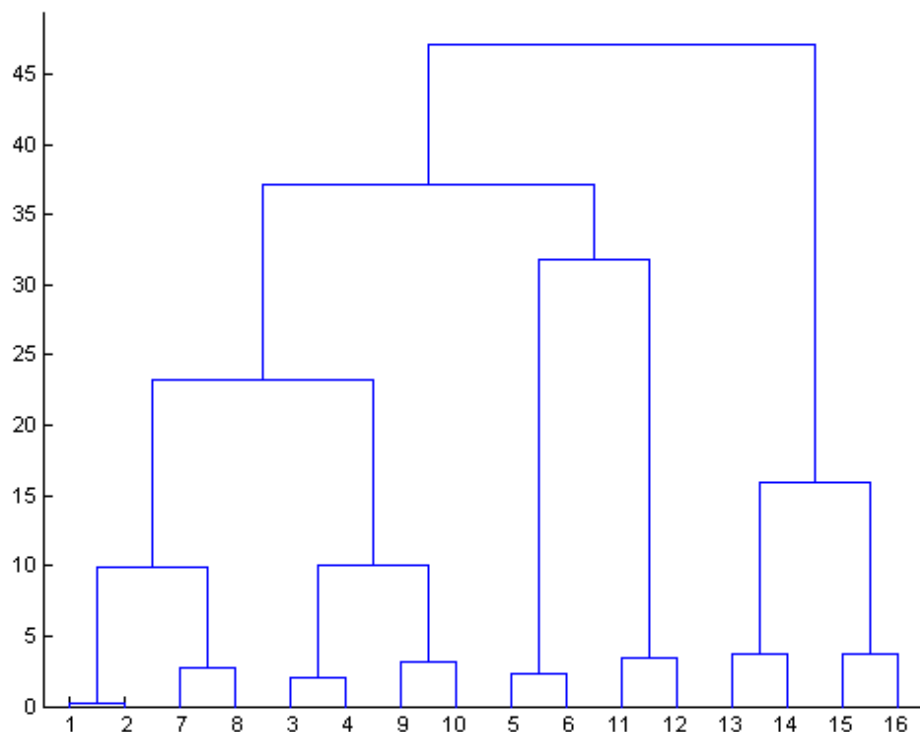


Hierarchical Agglomerative Clustering

- We start with every data point in a separate cluster
- We keep merging the most similar pairs of data points/clusters until we have one big cluster left
- This is called a bottom-up or agglomerative method



Hierarchical Clustering (cont.)

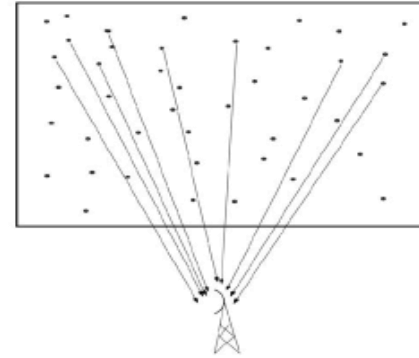


- This produces a binary tree or ***dendrogram***
- The final cluster is the root and each data item is a leaf
- The height of the bars indicate how close the items are

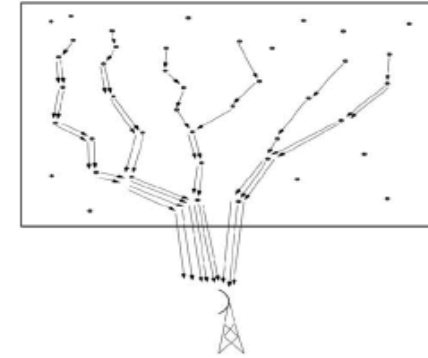


Clustering in WSN

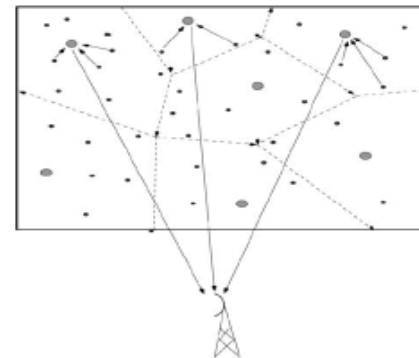
- Scalability:
 - Reduce routing tables to within cluster
- Data Aggregation
 - Energy reduction vs. full data transmission
 - CH based data fusion
 - multi-hop tree structure aggregation
- Load Balancing
 - Eliminate redundant data transmissions
 - Communications between CHs
- Energy reduction
 - Selective sampling within cluster
 - Short-range communications with CH
- Robustness & Fault tolerance
 - Support node failure/recovery
 - mobility of sensors
 - noisy measurements etc.
- Efficiency
 - Collision avoidance (intra vs. inter cluster communications)
 - Latency reduction by reducing hops
 - Network life-time maximization
 - Quality-of-service



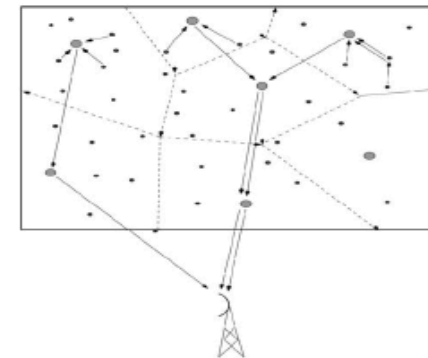
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Reading List

- Esling, Philippe, and Carlos Agon. "Time-series data mining." *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)* 45.1 (2012): 12.

