

CS 886

Applied Machine Learning

Audio Features, Dimensionality Reduction

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Recall: SIFTs for image classification

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 - ② Different images have different numbers of SIFTs
- Possible solution to the above problem:
 - ① Vector Quantization to reduce to a “vocabulary size” of 100 (say) through [clustering](#) or [sparse coding](#)
 - ② Any SIFT gets mapped to the closest “word” in the “vocabulary,” creating a [histogram](#) of the “words” in each image, i.e. count how many times each quantized SIFT appears. This is the new feature vector, has length 100 (say)

Features for Audio (and other) Signals

- Sounds are just one-dimensional images
- Can construct global and local features
- Many of the same problems associated with pixels-as-features show up with samples-as-features: [Lack of invariance](#).

Phase and Frequency

- Phase information is present in audio data, can have huge impact on simple similarity (distance, dot-product) but is **perceptually irrelevant**. (Except maybe stereo.)
- Can we derive features that are invariant to phase?
- [Matlab demo 1]

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- [Matlab demo 1]
- **Fourier analysis** takes a signal and re-writes it as a weighted sum of shifted sines and cosines
 - Weights correspond to importance of different frequencies
 - Shifts (phases) can be easily “thrown away”
 - Main methods: “Fourier Transform” (or Fast Fourier Transform, FFT), “Discrete Cosine Transform”

Windowing

- Discrete Fourier transform works perfectly for functions that have an integer number of periods over the samples
- No chance of this happening in practice
- Compensate by “windowing.” [Essential](#) for any kind of frequency analysis
- [Matlab demo 2]

The Frequency Domain: Spectrogram

- Many overlapping windows, one after the other
- Plot: Time on x-axis, frequency on y-axis, color indicates power
- Each “column” could be used as a feature vector for the audio playing at that instant in time.
- [Matlab demo 3]

Problems with the Spectrogram

- 1 All the information is scrunched way down at the bottom in the low frequencies. Perceptually, the frequency ranges 100-200Hz and 10kHz-20kHz should be approximately equally important.
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- 1 Warp the frequency axis to “enlarge” the region where the information is (i.e. low frequencies.) Converts from Hz to “mels”
 - 2 Take the log of the result then take Fourier transform *AGAIN* to remove periodicity
- Produces the Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCC), which are *the* feature vectors for natural sounds. Much like SIFTs in this respect.
 - (But, see http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/xpls/abs_all.jsp?arnumber=5618550)
 - [Matlab Demo 4]

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Audio signal classification

Talk by Anssi Klapuri at

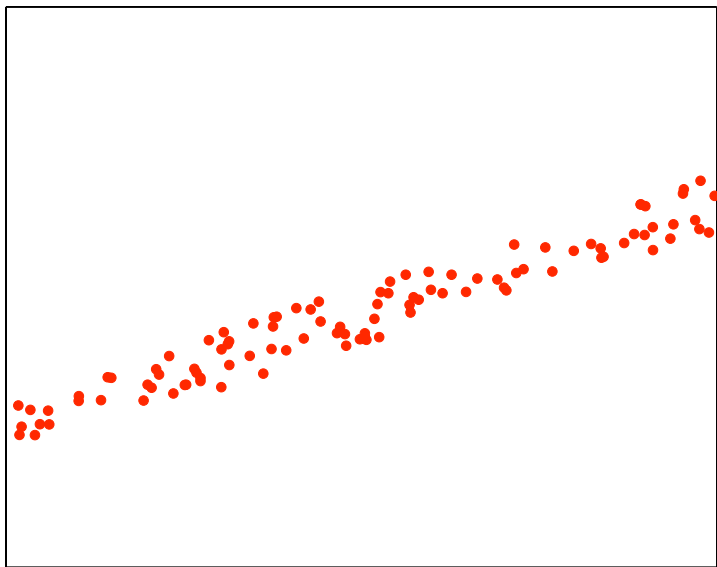
<http://mtg.upf.edu/ismir2004/graduateschool/>

- Concrete problems
 - musical instrument classification
 - musical genre classification
 - percussive instrument transcription
 - music segmentation
 - speaker recognition, language recognition, sound effects retrieval, context awareness, video segmentation using audio,...
- Closely related to sound source recognition in humans
 - includes segmentation (perceptual sound separation) in polyphonic signals
- Many efficient methods have been developed in the speech / speaker recognition field

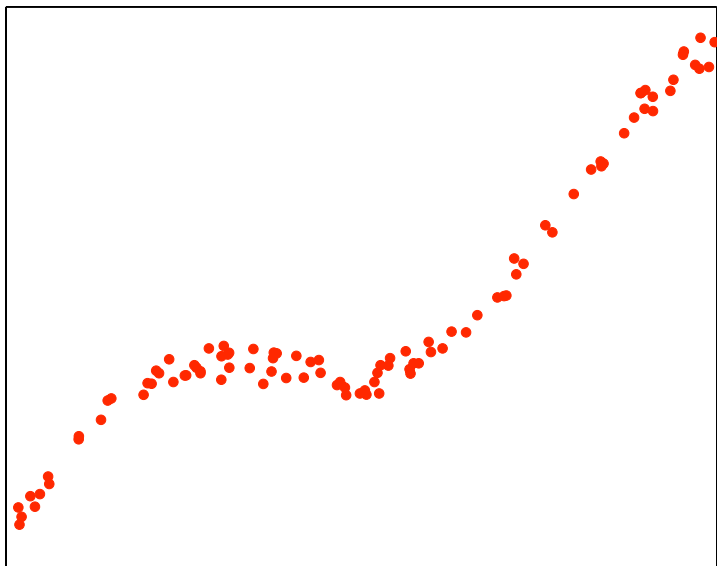
What is dimensionality reduction?

- Dimensionality reduction (or embedding) techniques:
 - Assign instances to real-valued vectors, in a space that is much smaller-dimensional (even 2D or 3D for visualization).
 - Approximately preserve similarity/distance relationships between instances
 - Sometimes, retain the ability to (approximately) reconstruct the original instances
- Some techniques:
 - Axis-aligned: Feature selection
 - Linear: Principal components analysis
 - Non-linear
 - Kernel PCA
 - Independent components analysis
 - Self-organizing maps
 - Multi-dimensional scaling

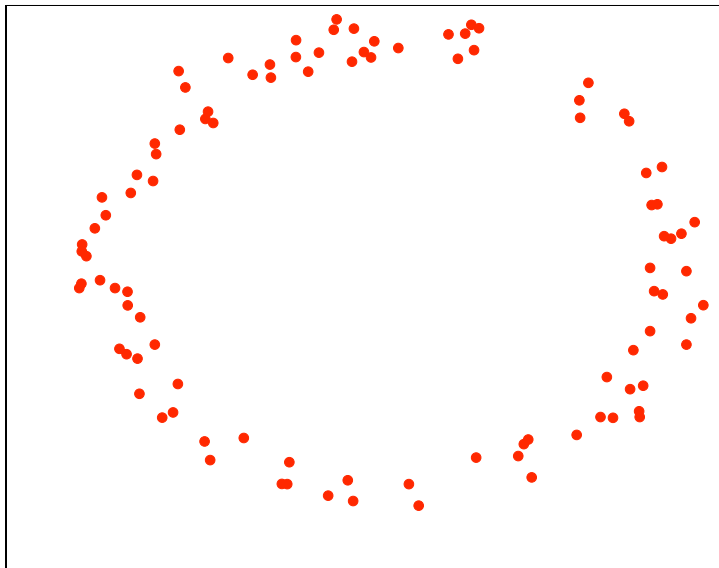
What is the true dimensionality of this data?



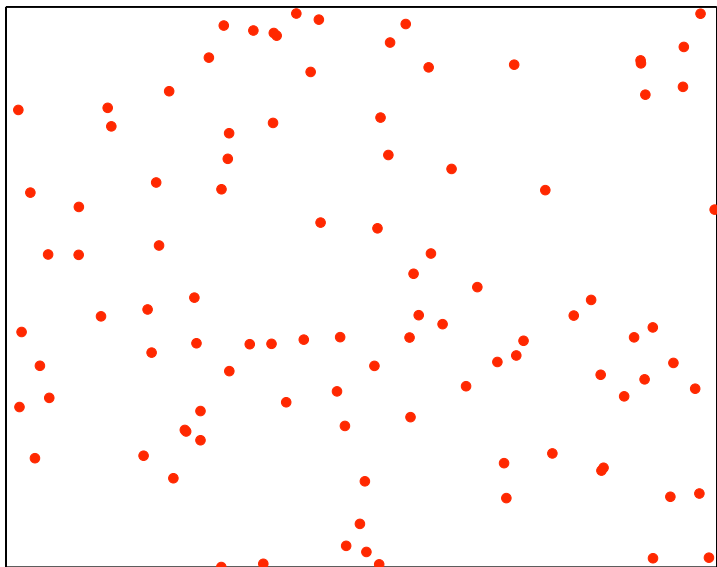
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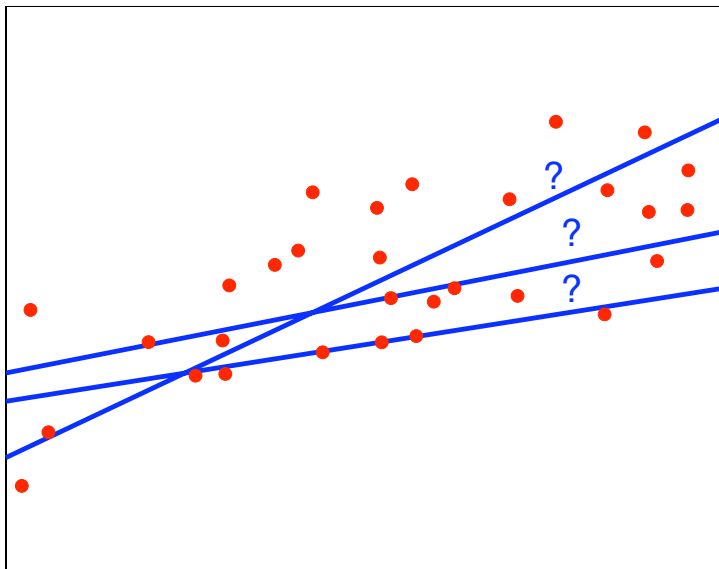
Remarks

- All dimensionality reduction techniques are based on an implicit assumption that the data lies along some *low-dimensional manifold*
- This is the case for the first three examples, which lie along a 1-dimensional manifold despite being plotted in 2D
- In the last example, the data has been generated randomly in 2D, so no dimensionality reduction is possible without losing information
- The first three cases are in increasing order of difficulty, from the point of view of existing techniques.

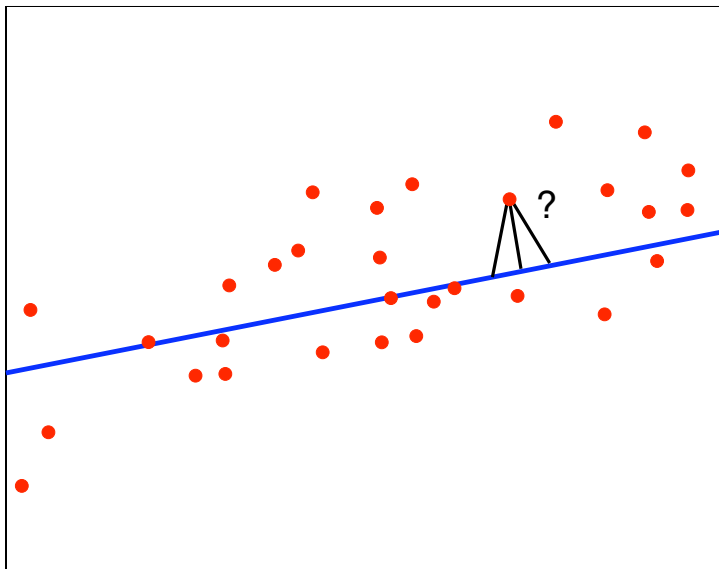
Simple Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Given: n instances, each being a length- p real vector.
- Suppose we want a 1-dimensional representation of that data, instead of p -dimensional.
- Specifically, we will:
 - Choose a line in \mathbb{R}^p that "best represents" the data.
 - Assign each data object to a point along that line.
 - (Identifying a point on a line just requires a scalar: How far along the line is the point?)

Which line is best?



How do we assign points to lines?



Reconstruction error

- Let the line be represented as $\mathbf{b} + \alpha\mathbf{v}$ for $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. For convenience assume $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$.
- Each instance \mathbf{x}_i is associated with a point on the line $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i = \mathbf{b} + \alpha_i\mathbf{v}$.
 - Instance \mathbf{x}_i is *encoded* as a scalar α_i
- We want to choose \mathbf{b} , \mathbf{v} , and the α_i to minimize the total reconstruction error over all data points, measured using Euclidean distance:

$$R = \sum_{i=1}^n \|\mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i\|^2$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & \sum_{i=1}^n \|\mathbf{x}_i - (\mathbf{b} + \alpha_i\mathbf{v})\|^2 \\ \text{w.r.t.} & \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{v}, \alpha_i, i = 1, \dots, n \\ \text{s.t.} & \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = 1 \end{array}$$

Solving the optimization problem [HTF Ch. 14.5]

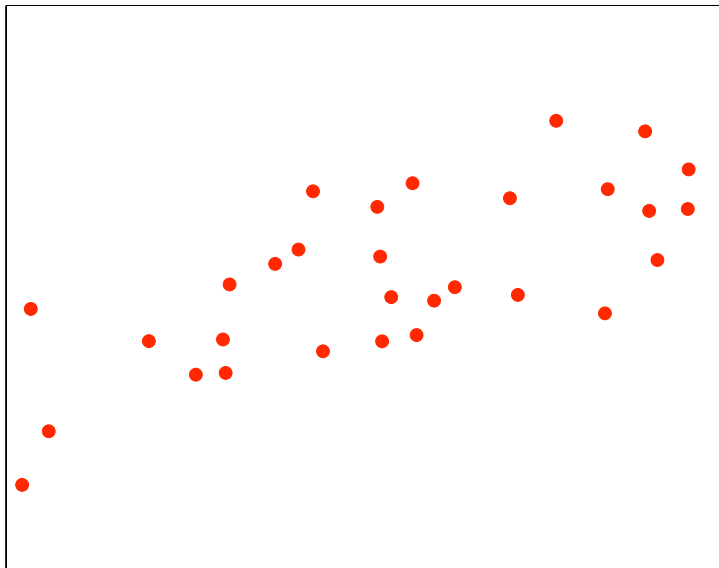
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- Turns out the optimal \mathbf{b} is just the sample mean of the data,
 $\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i$
- This means that the best line goes through the mean of the data. Typically, we subtract the mean first. Assuming it's zero:

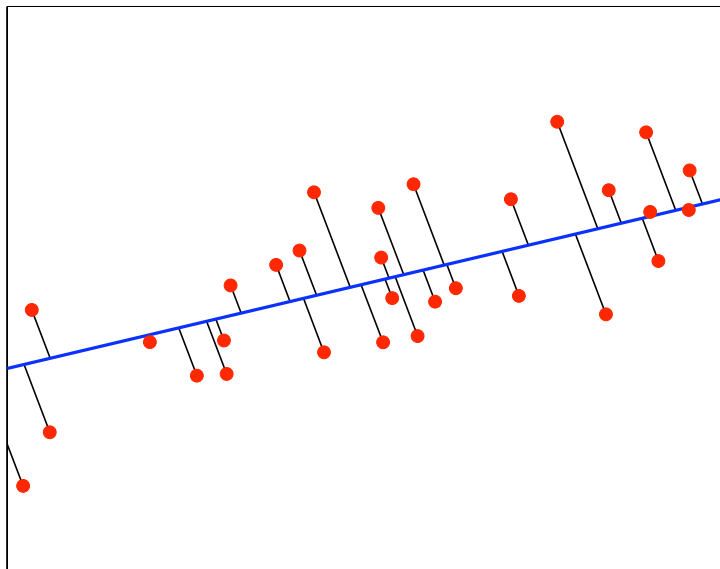
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- Consider fixing \mathbf{v} . The optimal α_i is given by *projecting* \mathbf{x}_i onto \mathbf{v} .

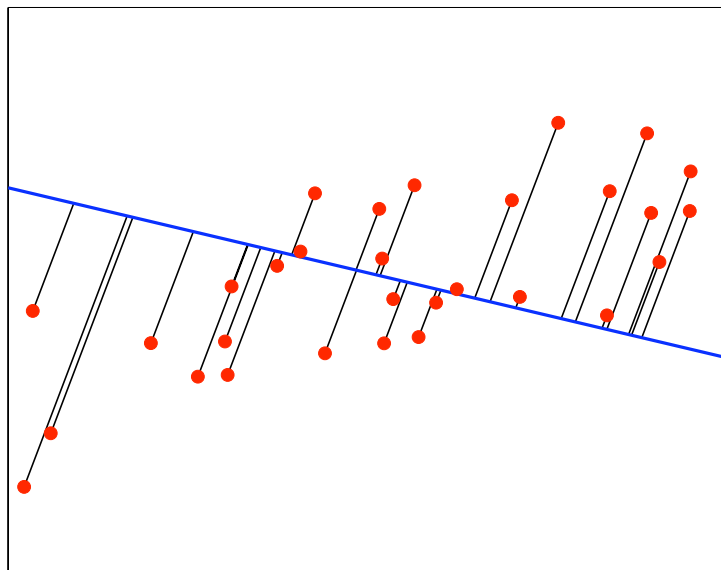
Example data



Example with $\mathbf{v} \propto (1, 0.3)$



Example with $\mathbf{v} \propto (1, -0.3)$



Optimizing...

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Optimizing...

Let's look at the objective we want to minimize:

- $\sum_{i=1}^n \|\mathbf{x}_i - \alpha_i \mathbf{v}\|^2$, min over \mathbf{v}, α_i s.t. $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$
- $\sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \alpha_i \mathbf{v})^T (\mathbf{x}_i - \alpha_i \mathbf{v})$
- $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i - 2\alpha_i \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \alpha_i^2 \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}$
- $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i - 2\alpha_i \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \alpha_i^2$ (Assumed \mathbf{v} was a unit vector.)
- $\implies \alpha_i^* = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}_i$
- $\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i - 2\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{x}_i$
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- Forming the Lagrangian of the above problem and setting derivative to zero gives $(X^T X)\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ as feasible solutions. (Left to reader.)

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- Thus, \mathbf{v} must be an eigenvector of $(X^T X)$.
- The \mathbf{v} that maximizes $\mathbf{v}^T (X^T X) \mathbf{v}$ is the eigenvector of $(X^T X)$ with the largest eigenvalue

Another view of \mathbf{v}

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad & \mathbf{v}^T (X^T X) \mathbf{v} \\ \text{w.r.t.} \quad & \mathbf{v} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

- Recall $\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{v}$ is our low-dimensional representation of \mathbf{x}_i
- $\mathbf{v}^T (X^T X) \mathbf{v} = \sum_i (\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{v})^2 = \text{Var}(\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{v})$
- The optimal \mathbf{v} produces an encoding that has as much variance as possible
- (Dan you should draw some pictures.)

Recall: Covariance

- $(X^T X)$ is an $p \times p$ matrix whose i, j entry is proportional to the *estimated covariance* between the i th and j th feature
- Covariance quantifies a *linear relationship* (if any) between two random variables X and Y .

$$\text{Cov}(X, Y) = E\{(X - E(X))(Y - E(Y))\}$$

- Given n samples of X and Y , covariance can be estimated as

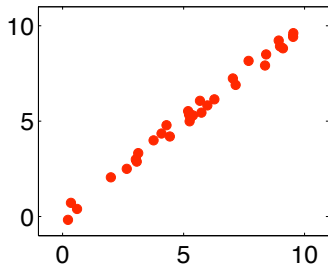
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_X)(y_i - \mu_Y) ,$$

where $\mu_X = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ and $\mu_Y = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$.

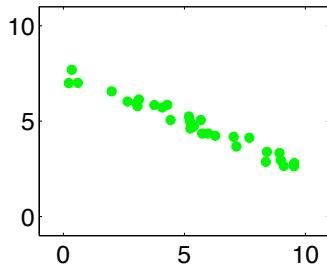
- Note: $\text{Cov}(X, X) = \text{Var}(X)$.

Covariance example

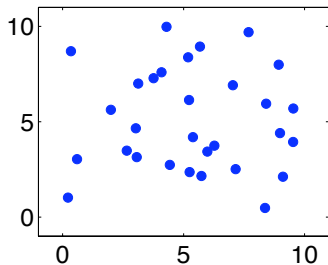
Cov=7.6022



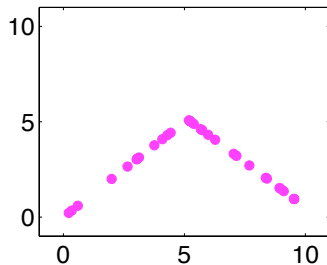
Cov=-3.8196



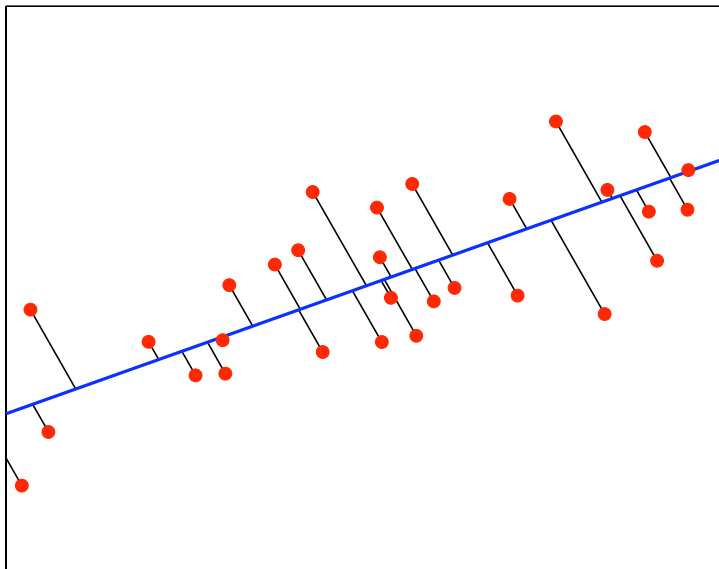
Cov=-0.12338



Cov=0.00016383



Example with optimal line: $\mathbf{b} = (0.54, 0.52)$,
 $\mathbf{v} \propto (1, 0.45)$



Remarks

- The line $\mathbf{b} + \alpha\mathbf{v}$ is the *first principal component*.
- The variance of the data along projected onto the line $\mathbf{b} + \alpha\mathbf{v}$ is as large as if they are projected onto any other line.
- \mathbf{b} , \mathbf{v} , and the α_i can be computed easily in polynomial time.

Reduction to d dimensions

- More generally, we can create a d -dimensional representation of our data by projecting the instances onto a hyperplane
 $\mathbf{b} + \alpha^1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + \alpha^d \mathbf{v}_d$.
- If we assume the \mathbf{v}_j are of unit length and orthogonal, then the optimal choices are:
 - \mathbf{b} is the mean of the data (as before)
 - The \mathbf{v}_j are orthogonal eigenvectors of S corresponding to its d largest eigenvalues.
 - Each instance is projected orthogonally on the hyperplane.

Remarks

- \mathbf{b} , the eigenvalues, the \mathbf{v}_j , and the projections of the instances can all be computed in polynomial time, e.g. using Singular Value Decomposition.

$$X_{n \times p} = U_{n \times n} D_{n \times p} V_{p \times p}^T$$

- Columns of U are left-eigenvectors, diagonal of D are sqrts of eigenvalues (“singular values”), V are right-eigenvectors

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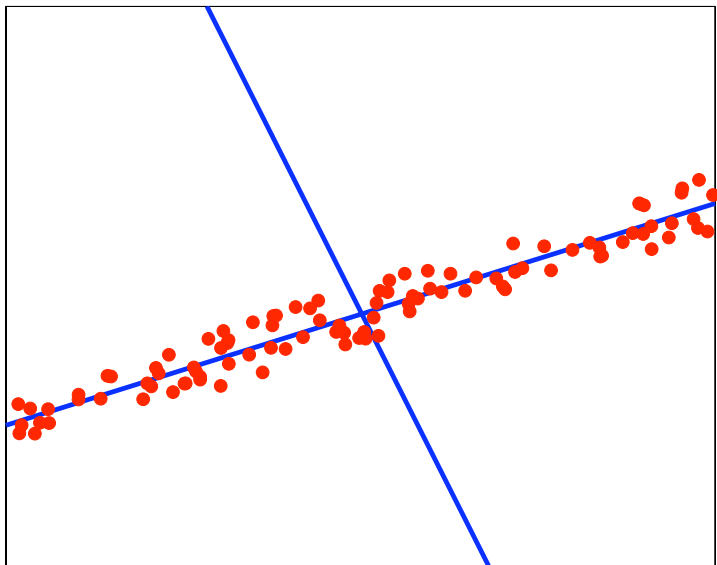
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- Columns of U are left-eigenvectors, diagonal of D are sqrts of eigenvalues ("singular values"), V are right-eigenvectors
- The magnitude of the j^{th} -largest eigenvalue, λ_j , tells you how much variability in the data is captured by the j^{th} principal component
- So you have feedback on how to choose d !
- When the eigenvalues are sorted in decreasing order, the proportion of the variance captured by the first d components is:

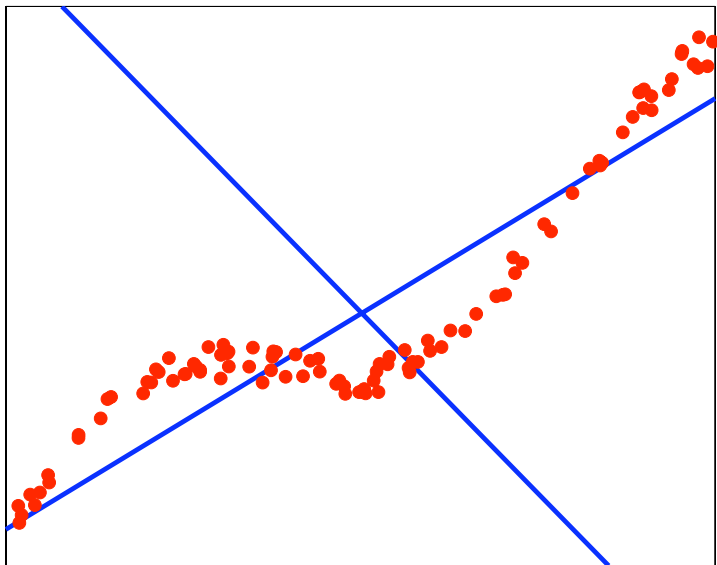
$$\frac{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_d}{\lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_d + \lambda_{d+1} + \dots + \lambda_n}$$

- So if a "big" drop occurs in the eigenvalues at some point, that suggests a good dimension cutoff

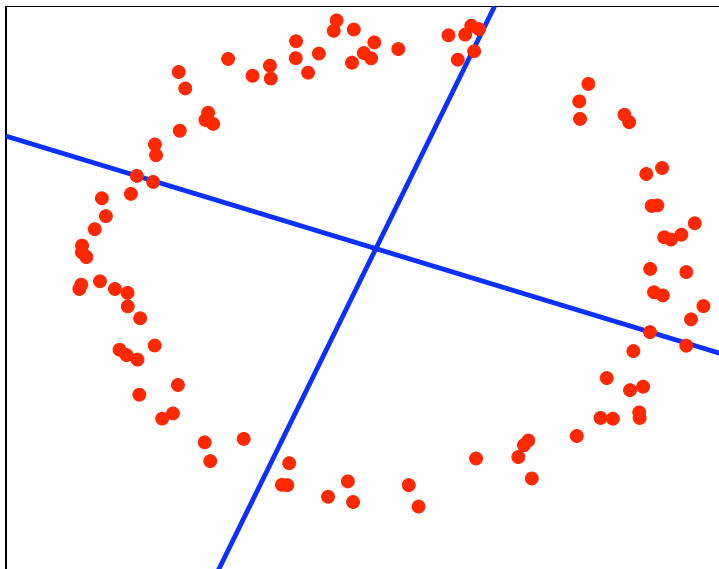
Example: $\lambda_1 = 0.0938, \lambda_2 = 0.0007$



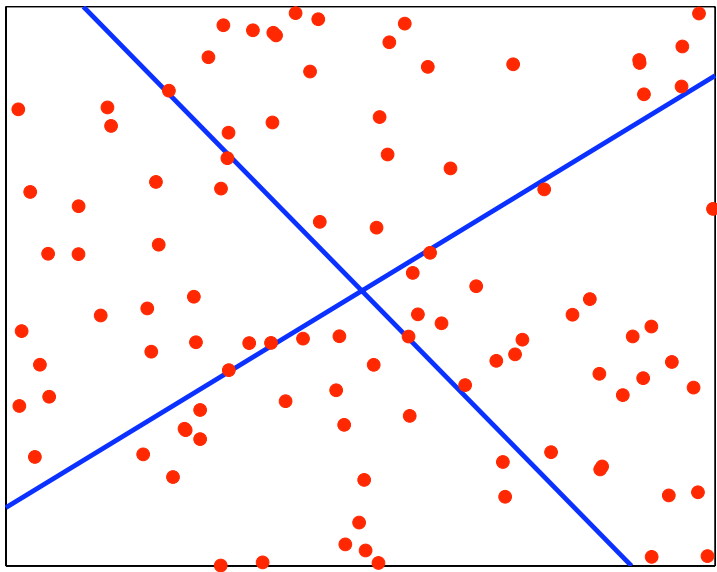
Example: $\lambda_1 = 0.1260$, $\lambda_2 = 0.0054$



Example: $\lambda_1 = 0.0884$, $\lambda_2 = 0.0725$



Example: $\lambda_1 = 0.0881$, $\lambda_2 = 0.0769$



More remarks

- Outliers have a big effect on the covariance matrix, so they can affect the eigenvectors quite a bit
- A simple examination of the pairwise distances between instances can help discard points that are very far away (for the purpose of PCA)
- If the variances in the original dimensions vary considerably, they can “muddle” the true correlations. There are two solutions:
 - work with the correlation of the original data, instead of covariance matrix
 - normalize the input dimensions individually before PCA
- In certain cases, the eigenvectors are meaningful; e.g. in vision, they can be displayed as images (“eigenfaces”)

Uses of PCA

- Pre-processing for a supervised learning algorithm, e.g. for image data, robotic sensor data
- Used with great success in image and speech processing
- Visualization
- Exploratory data analysis
- Removing the linear component of a signal (before fancier non-linear models are applied)

Eigenfaces

- L. Sirovich and M. Kirby (1987). "Low-dimensional procedure for the characterization of human faces". Journal of the Optical Society of America A 4 (3): 519-524.
- Adapted from Wikipedia:
<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Eigenface>
 - 1 Prepare a training set of face images taken under the same lighting conditions, normalized to have the eyes and mouths aligned, resampled to a common pixel resolution. Each image is treated as one vector, by concatenating the rows of pixels

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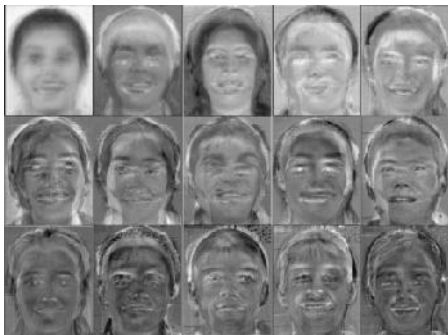
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- 4 Choose the principal components. The eigenvectors (eigenfaces) with largest associated eigenvalue are kept.

Eigenfaces



Beyond PCA: Nonlinear dimensionality reduction

- Kernel PCA (but you don't get the eigenvectors)
- Self-Organizing Maps
- Isomap
- Locally Linear Embedding
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nonlinear_dimensionality_reduction

Application: Netflix Recommender

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SVD with Missing Data

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- What do we mean by \approx ? Minimize squared error over the observed data:

$$\min_{U, V} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^p \mathbf{1}_{ij} (\mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_j^T - Y_{ij})^2$$

Final Touch: Regularization

- What do we mean by \approx ? Minimize squared error over the observed data, don't let the matrices entries grow too large:

$$\min_{U,V} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^p \mathbf{1}_{ij} (\mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{v}_j^T - Y_{ij})^2 + \lambda \sum_{ij} \mathbf{1}_{ij} (\|\mathbf{u}_i\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}_j\|^2)$$

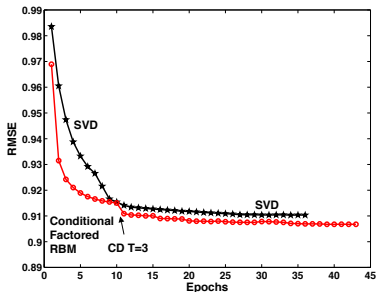


Figure 4. Performance of the conditional factored RBM vs. SVD with $C = 40$ factors. The y-axis displays RMSE (root mean squared error), and the x-axis shows the number of epochs, or passes through the entire training dataset.

- Salakhutdinov, Mnih, Hinton, “Restricted Boltzmann Machines for Collaborative Filtering” <http://www.machinelearning.org/proceedings/icml2007/papers/407.pdf> presents an alternative model also