# Data Analytics for IoT

#### EΠΛ 428: IOT PROGRAMMING

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- Real **value** is in IoT data
- However, as more IoT devices added:
  - The data becomes overwhelming (big data)
  - Consume precious network bandwidth
  - Server resources use to store, and process data
- New IoT methods implemented for this need:
  - Big data technologies: Hadoop, NoSQL, MapReduce
  - Edge streaming analytics: real-time, on-device
  - Network analytics: support efficient functionality



# Level 5 (full control) autonomous vehicle >50 sensors:

 ultrasonic, surround camera, and long- and short-range radar, long range and stereo cameras, LiDAR, dead reckoning



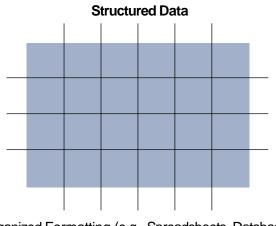
Sensor	Raw data rate
Radar	0.1-15 Mbps/sensor
LIDAR	20-100 Mbps/sensor
Camera	500-3500 Mbps/sensor
Ultrasonic	<0.01 Mbps/sensor

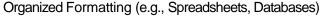
- Approx. 40 Gbps or 19 TB per hour or 5,894 TB per year (50min driving per day)
- 1 billion cars globally -> **589,400 Yottabytes**

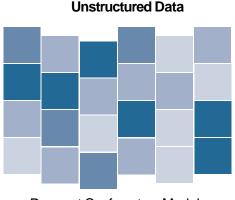
https://blogs.sw.siemens.com/polarion/the-data-deluge-what-do-we-do-with-the-data-generated-by-avs/



- Analyzing this amount of data in the most efficient manner possible falls under the umbrella of data analytics
- Data analytics provide knowledge and actionable insights



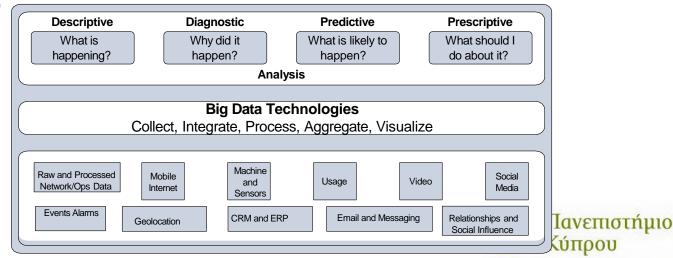




Does not Conform to a Model (e.g., Text, Images, Video, Speech)

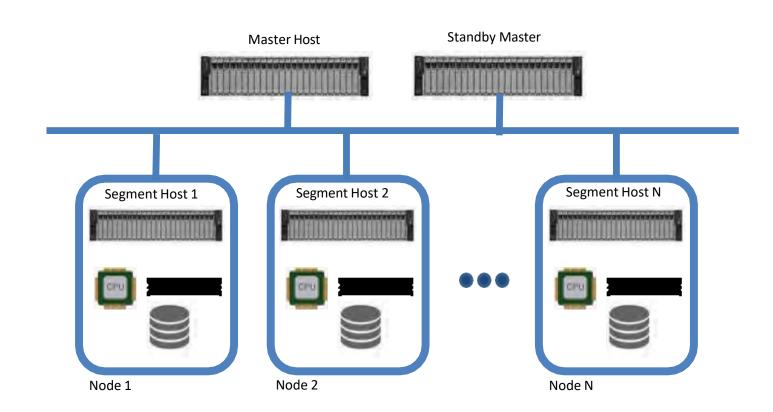
- Structured data follows a model that defines how the data is represented/ organized
  - relational database management system (RDBMS)
  - Structured Query Language (SQL) is used to interact with RDBMS
- 80% is however unstructured data
  - NoSQL do not enforce a strict schema, and they support a complex, evolving data model; more scalable

- IoT data can be transit ("data in motion") or stored ("data at rest")
- Devices generate data that is exchanged (in motion) and acted upon (processed at the edge, fog)
- At the data center, processed also in real-time. Tools with this sort of capability, such as Spark, Storm, and Flink; tools part of Hadoop ecosystem
- Data at rest found in IoT brokers or storage at data center. Myriad tools, for structured data in relational databases, also in Hadoop



- RDBMS used for storing structured data in data warehouses
  - used for longer-term archiving and data queries (take minutes or hours to respond)
- Massively parallel processing (MPP) databases are designed to be much faster, to be efficient, and to support reduced query times
- MPP take advantage of multiple nodes (computers) designed in a scale-out architecture with data processing distributed across multiple systems
- MPPs designed to allow for fast query processing and often have built-in analytic functions
- MPP architecture typically contains a single master node that is responsible for the coordination of all the data storage and processing across the cluster





- Nodes have local processing, memory, and storage
- Data storage is optimized across the nodes in a structured SQL-like format that allows data analysts to work with the data using common SQL tools and applications



- NoSQL an umbrella term encompassing different types of databases:
- Document stores: Stores semi-structured data, such as XML or JSON
- **Key-value stores**: Store associative arrays where a key is paired with an associated value; easy to build and easy to scale.
- Wide-column stores: Similar to a key-value store, but the formatting can vary from row to row, even in the same table
- Graph stores: Organized based on the relationships between elements. Graph stores are commonly used for social media or natural language processing, where the connections between data are very relevant
- NoSQL was developed to support the high-velocity, real-time analytics that typically do not require much repeated use



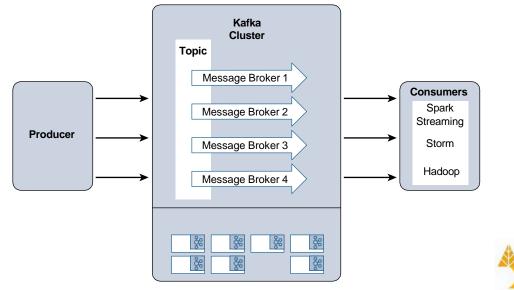
- NoSQL key-value stores are capable of handling indexing and persistence simultaneously at a high rate
- Makes them a great choice for time-series data
- Hadoop originally intended to index millions of websites and quickly return search results; had two key elements:
  - Hadoop Distributed File System (HDFS): A system for storing data across multiple nodes
    - NameNodes: Coordinate storage of data and provide data adds, moves, deletes, reads. Also instruct DataNodes for data replication
    - DataNodes: Servers that store data
  - **MapReduce**: A distributed processing engine that splits a large task into smaller ones that can be run in parallel



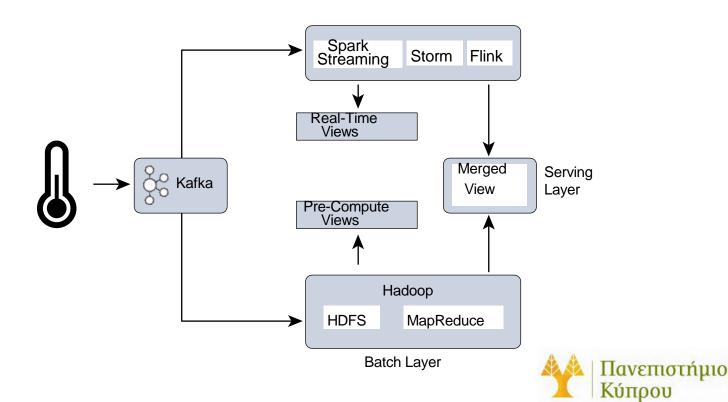
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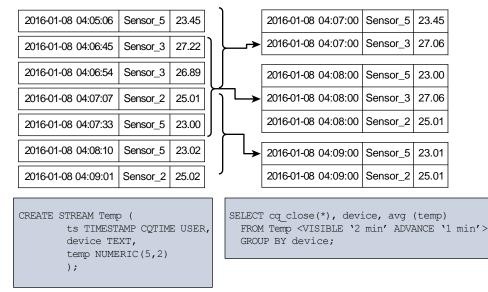
- Hadoop includes > 100 software packages addressing every element in the data lifecycle:
  - from collection, to storage, to processing, to analysis and visualization
- Apache Kafka is a distributed publisher-subscriber messaging system designed to accept data from origin and deliver the data to stream-processing engines; broker
  - distributed nature run in a clustered configuration
  - can handle many producers and consumers simultaneously



- Apache Spark
  - An in-memory distributed data analytics platform
  - At each stage of a MapReduce operation processing is moved into memory to lower latency batch processing
- Lambda architecture
  - Querying both streaming and data at rest (batch processing)



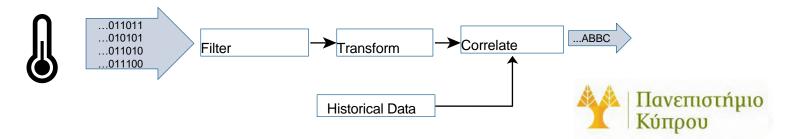
- In IoT, vast quantities of data are generated on the fly and often need to be analyzed and responded to in real-time
- High volume live stream IoT data that needs to be analysed to detect patterns or anomalies
  - Volume of data generated at the edge immense— bandwidth requirements to the cloud are very high
  - Time sensitivity precludes waiting for deep analysis in the cloud



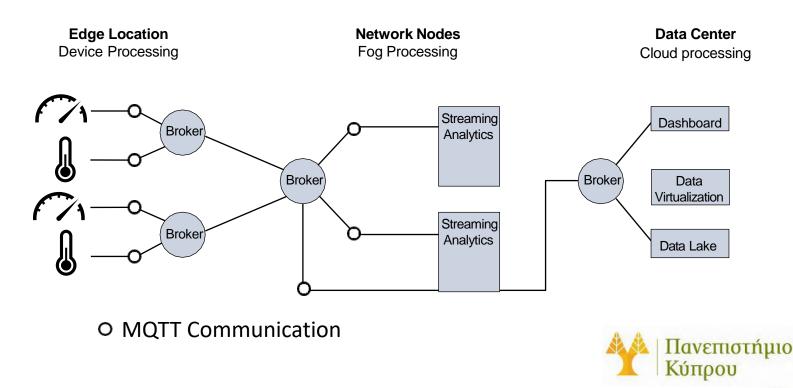
#### **Defining Streams and Windows**



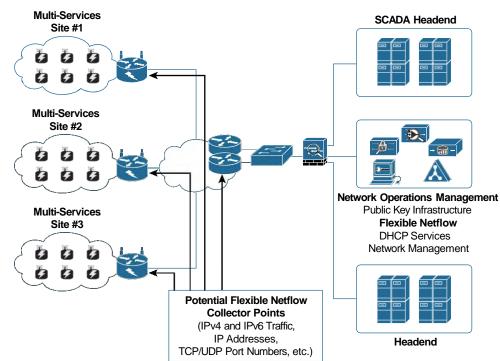
- Streaming data analytics most useful when multiple data streams are combined from different types of sensors or different time periods
- For example, in a hospital, several vital signs are measured for patients, including body temperature, blood pressure, heart rate, and respiratory rate
  - When this data is combined and analyzed, it provides an invaluable picture of the health of the patient at any given time.
- Alternatively, historical data may include the patient's past medical history, such as blood test results
  - Combining historical data gives the live streaming data a powerful context and promotes more insights into the current condition of the patient



- Streaming analytics may be performed directly at the edge, in the fog, or in the cloud data center
- Value of data when aggregated increases massively
- But there is also value in retracking from the edge to the network to gain a wider understanding of largescale systems
- Fog analytics allows to see beyond one device



- Network analytics is concerned with discovering patterns in the communication flows from network traffic
- Analyze details of communications patterns made by protocols and correlate this across the network
- Understand what is normal behavior and identify anomalies
  - Connectivity and routing issues
  - Cyberattacks / Emergency situations





- Enable capabilities to cope with
  - capacity planning for scalability
  - security monitoring
- Drivers of the adoption of standardize architectures
- Flow statistics can be collected:
  - Network traffic monitoring and profiling: Flow collection from the network layer provides global and distributed near-real-time monitoring capabilities
  - Application traffic monitoring and profiling: Gain detailed timebased view of IoT access services, such as the application-layer protocols, including MQTT, CoAP, and DNP3
  - **Capacity planning**: Used to track and anticipate IoT traffic growth and help in the planning of upgrades
  - Security analysis: Generate low volumes of traffic typically and always send their data to the same server(s), any change in network traffic behavior may indicate a cybersecurity event
  - Accounting: Field networks are often physically isolated and leverage public cellular services and VPNs for backhaul. Traffic can be leveraged to optimize the billing
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INTRO TO TIMESERIES ANALYSIS

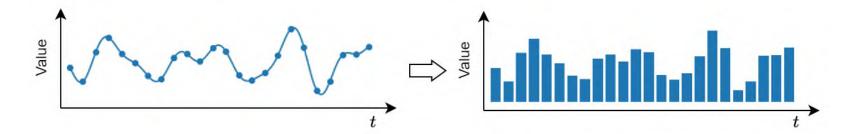


- Time series analysis provides insights into patterns over time that are invaluable
  - Understanding dynamics
  - Detecting events
  - forecasting
- Provide understanding of
  - Theoretical concepts
  - Translation to functional tools

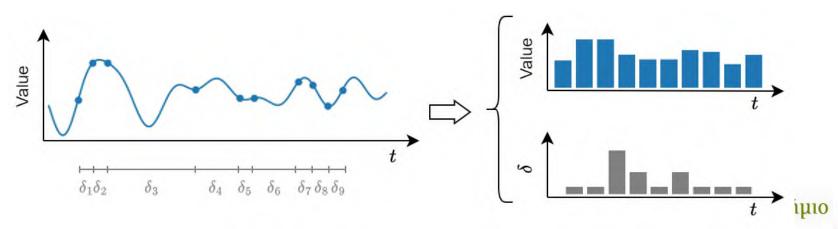


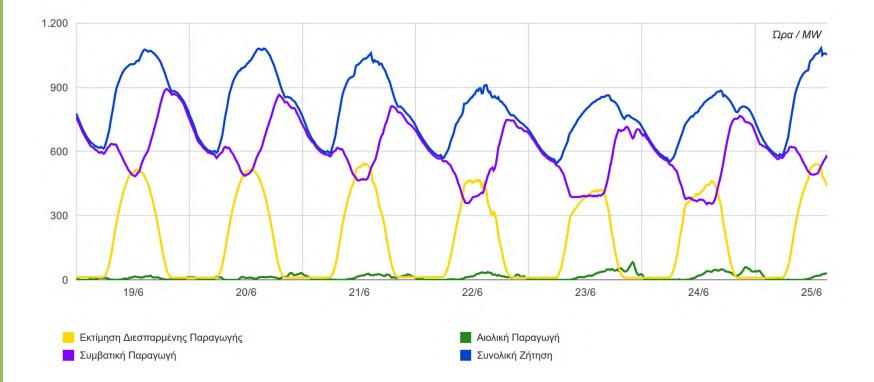
WHAT IS A TIME SERIES?

A time series is a sequence of data points
Usually, signal is sampled at given frequency
Represented as sequence of sampled values



• Irregularly sampled signals are time series encoded with additional information stored into a data structure

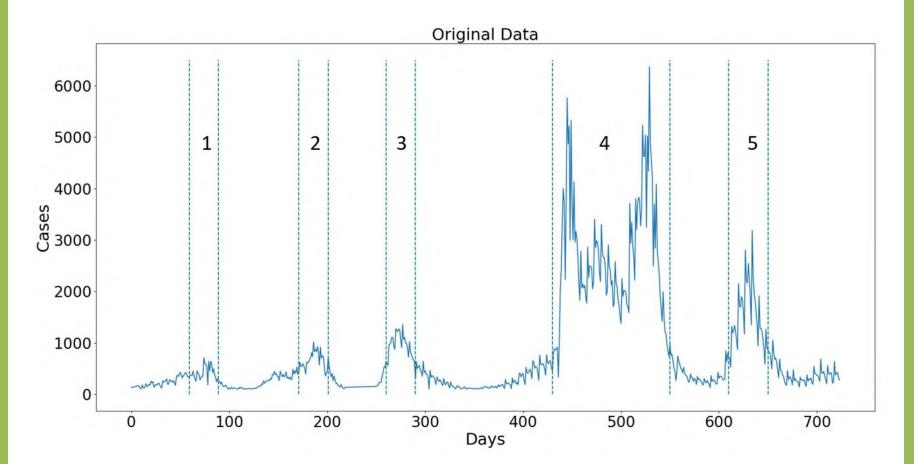




https://tsoc.org.cy/electrical-system/archive-total-daily-system-generation-on-the-transmission-system/?startdt=19-06-2024&enddt=%2B15days



• COVID-19 Positive Cases (15/10/20 -18/10/22)

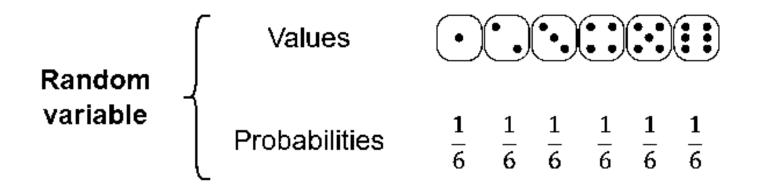




- The main objective of time series analysis is:
  - To understand and characterize the underlying process that generates the observed data.
  - To forecast the evolution of the process, i.e., predict the next observed values.
- Two main perspectives to look at a time series leading to different analysis approaches
  - Statistical
  - Dynamical systems

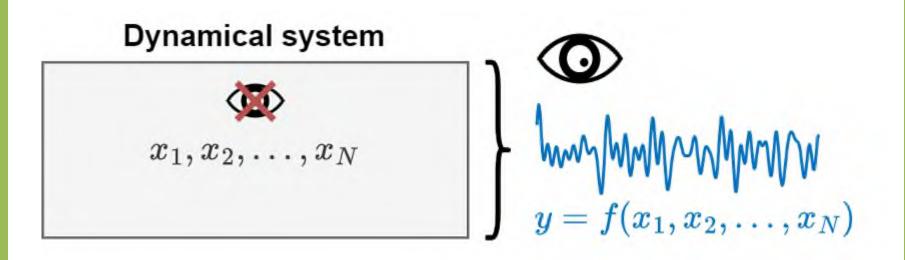


- Assumed to be a sequence of random variables that have some correlation or part of a distribution
- Sequence is a realization (observed values) of a stochastic process
- Statistical time series approaches focus on finding the parameters of the stochastic process that most likely produced the observed time series



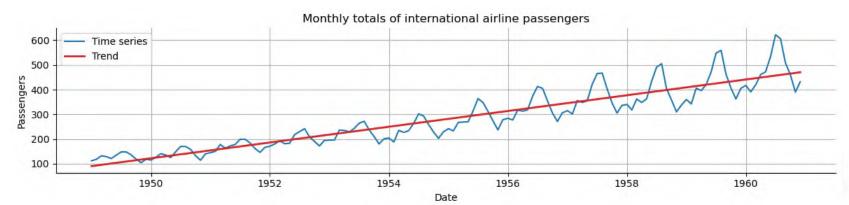


- Assume that there is a system governed by unknown variables
- Observe one time series generated by the system
  - Unknown variable of the system
  - Unknown function of the system
- Objective is to reconstruct the dynamics of the system





- Composed of three parts:
  - Trend: the long-term direction
  - Seasonality: the periodic behavior
  - Residuals: the irregular fluctuations
- Trend captures the general direction of the time series
  - For example, increasing number of passengers over the years despite seasonal fluctuations
- Trend can be increasing, decreasing, or constant
- It can increase/decrease in different ways over time (linearly, exponentially, etc)



- Periodic fluctuations in time series data that occur at regular intervals due to seasonal factors
- Consistent / predictable patterns over a specific period (e.g., daily, monthly, quarterly, yearly)
- It can be driven by many factors:
  - Naturally occurring events such as weather fluctuations caused by time of year
  - Business or administrative procedures, such as start and end of a school year
  - Social or cultural behavior, e.g., holidays



- Residuals are the random fluctuations left over after trend and seasonality are removed from the original time series
- Capture short term, unpredictable measurements
  - Noise
  - Uncertainty (measurements/ model / actuator)
  - Faults / failures



- Time series components can be decomposed with the following models:
  - 1. Additive decomposition
  - 2. Multiplicative decomposition
  - 3. Pseudoadditive decomposition
- Additive models assume that the observed time series is the sum of its components

$$X(t) = T(t) + S(t) + R(t)$$

- where T(t), S(t) and R(t) is the trend, seasonality and residual
- Additive models are used when the magnitudes of the seasonal and residual values do not depend on the level of the trend



Multiplicative models assume the observed time series is a product of its components

$$X(t) = T(t) \cdot S(t) \cdot R(t)$$

• Can be transformed in additive model by log transformation

 $\log X(t) = \log(T(t)) + \log(S(t)) + \log(R(t))$ 

 Used when the magnitudes of seasonal and residual values depends on the trend



- Pseudoadditive models combine elements of the additive and multiplicative models.
- Useful when:
  - Time series values are very small or zero
  - Multiplicative models struggle with zero values, but you still need to model multiplicative seasonality
- Some features are multiplicative (e.g., seasonal effects) and other are additive (e.g., residuals).
- Complex seasonal patterns or data that do not completely align with additive or multiplicative model.
- Particularly relevant for modeling series that are extremely weather-dependent, have sharply pronounced seasonal fluctuations and trend-cycle movements

$$X(t) = T(T) + T(t) \cdot (S(t) - 1) + T(t) \cdot (R(t) - 1)$$

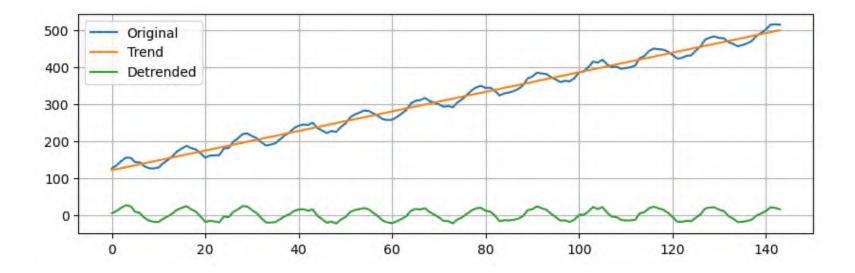


## 1. Estimate a linear trend (compute 1<sup>st</sup> order polynomial)

```
slope, intercept = np.polyfit(np.arange(len(additive)),
additive, 1) # estimate line coefficient
trend = np.arange(len(additive)) * slope + intercept # linear
trend
```

### 2. Detrend time series by subtracting linear component

detrended = additive - trend # remove the trend

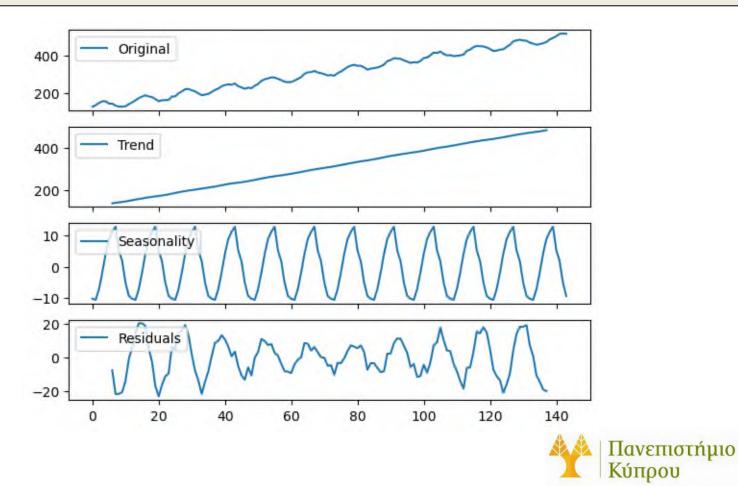




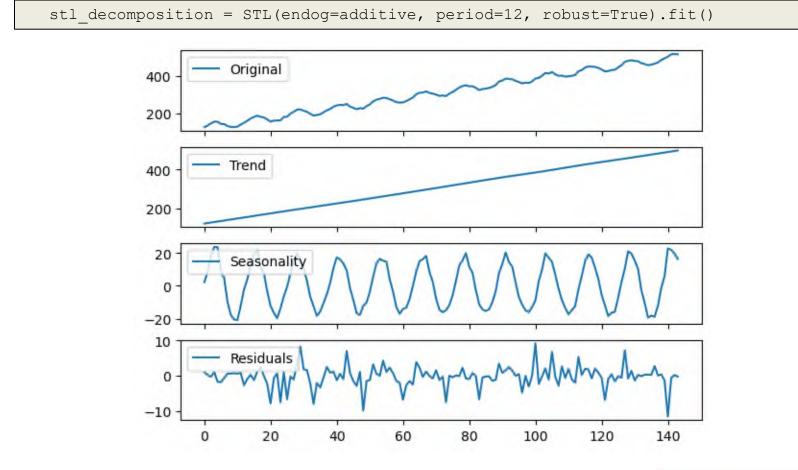
# 1. seasonal\_decompose function

- a) specify type of model (additive or multiplicative)
- b) main period

additive\_decomposition = seasonal\_decompose(x, model='additive', period=12)



- LOESS is an alternative approach employed by function STL
  - Seasonal and Trend decomp. using LOESS





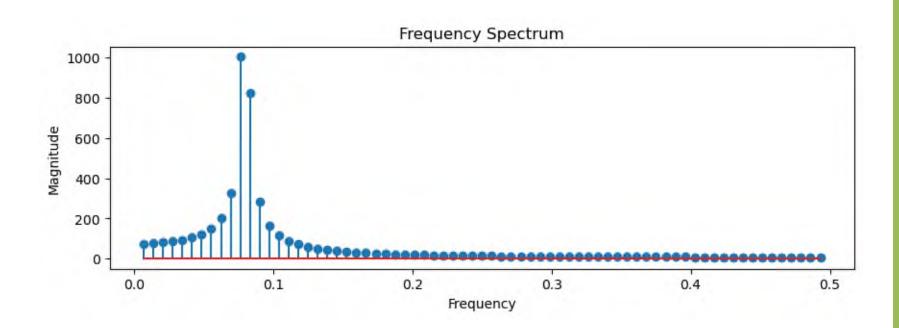
- Use seasonal\_decompose when:
  - Data has a clear and stable seasonal pattern and trend
  - Simpler model with fewer parameters to set
  - The seasonal amplitude is constant over time (suggesting an additive model) or varies proportionally with the trend (suggesting a multiplicative model)
- Use STL when:
  - Data exhibits complex seasonality that may change over time
  - Handle outliers effectively without them distorting the trend and seasonal components
  - Non-linear trends and seasonality, and better adjustment over the decomposition process



IDENTIFY THE DOMINANT PERIOD/FREQUENCY

- Autocorrelation function
- Use Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) on a detrended signal

period, freqs, magnitudes = fft\_analysis(seasonal)





- Autocorrelation function
- Use Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) on a detrended signal

```
def fft analysis(signal):
   # Linear detrending
    slope, intercept = np.polyfit(np.arange(len(signal)), signal, 1)
    trend = np.arange(len(signal)) * slope + intercept
    detrended = signal - trend
    fft values = fft(detrended)
    frequencies = np.fft.fftfreq(len(fft values))
   # Remove negative frequencies and sort
    positive frequencies = frequencies[frequencies > 0]
   magnitudes = np.abs(fft values)[frequencies > 0]
    # Identify dominant frequency
    dominant frequency = positive frequencies[np.argmax(magnitudes)]
    print(f"Dominant Frequency: {dominant frequency:.3f}")
    # Convert frequency to period (e.g., days, weeks, months, etc.)
   dominant period = 1 / dominant frequency
    print(f"Dominant Period: {dominant period:.2f} time units")
    return dominant period, positive frequencies, magnitudes
```

