Anomaly detection using data depth: multivariate case

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Simple examples

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A real task

Regard two measurements during a test in a production process:



Given training data, polluted or not with anomalies:

detect anomalies in the given data.

A real task

Regard two measurements during a test in a production process:



Given training data, polluted or not with anomalies:

detect anomalies in the given data.

For **new data**, determine:

Whether new observations are normal data or anomalies?

Multivariate framework

A training data set:

$$\boldsymbol{X}_{tr} = \{\boldsymbol{x}_1, ..., \boldsymbol{x}_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$$

of observations in the *d*-dimensional Euclidean space.

Typical example: a table from a data base, with lines being observations (=individuals, items,...).

Construct a decision function:

$$\mathbb{R}^d \to \{0,1\} : \boldsymbol{x} \mapsto g(\boldsymbol{x}),$$

which attributes to any (possible) $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ a label whether it is an anomaly (*e.g.*, 1) or a normal observation (*e.g.*, 0).

• It is more useful to provide an ordering on \mathbb{R}^d :

$$\mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R} : \mathbf{x} \mapsto g(\mathbf{x}),$$

such that abnormal observations obtain differing anomaly score.

Same data set with two measurements:



Given training data, polluted or not with anomalies:

detect anomalies in the given data.

Same data set with two measurements:



For new data, employ:

Anomaly detection rule using bounding box: $g_{\text{box}}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{X}_{tr}) = \begin{cases} \text{anoamly}(=1), & \text{if } \boldsymbol{x} \notin \bigcap_{j=1,...,d} (\underline{H}_{j,l_j} \cap \overline{H}_{j,u_j}), \\ \text{normal}(=0), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Same data set with two measurements:



For new data, employ:

Same data set with two measurements, but less observations:



Given training data, polluted or not with anomalies:

detect anomalies in the given data.

Same data set with two measurements, but less observations:



Given training data, polluted or not with anomalies:

• detect **anomalies** in the given data.

For new data, employ:

Anomaly detection rule using Mahalanobis depth.

Same data set with two measurements, but less observations:



For new data, employ:

Anomaly detection rule using projection depth: $g_{prj}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{X}_{tr}) = \begin{cases} \text{anomaly}, & \text{if } D^{prj}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{X}_{tr}) < t_{prj,\boldsymbol{X}_{tr}}, \\ \text{normal}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Now back to big data set with two measurements:



For new data, employ:

Anomaly detection rule using projection depth: $g_{prj}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{X}_{tr}) = \begin{cases} \text{anomaly}, & \text{if } D^{prj}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{X}_{tr}) < t_{prj,\boldsymbol{X}_{tr}}, \\ \text{normal}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

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Data depth

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Babies with low birth weight

Data depth

o 0000 00 **o**0 **o**0 Age, in weeks 00 00 o o 0 00 o o 000 0 œ - 5

Babies with low birth weight

Statistical data depth

A **data depth** measures how close a given point is located to the center of a distribution. For $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and a *p*-variate random vector X distributed as $P \in \mathcal{P}$, a data depth is a function

$$D: \mathbb{R}^{p} \times \mathcal{P} \rightarrow [0,1], (\boldsymbol{x}, P) \mapsto D(\boldsymbol{x}|P)$$

that is:

- D1 translation invariant: $D(\mathbf{x} + b|X + b) = D(\mathbf{x}|X)$ for any $b \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$;
- D2 linear invariant: $D(A\mathbf{x}|AX) = D(\mathbf{x}|X)$ for any $p \times p$ non-singular matrix A;
- D3 vanishing at infinity: $\lim_{||\mathbf{x}|| \to \infty} D(\mathbf{x}|X) = 0;$
- D4 monotone on rays: for any $\mathbf{x}^* \in \operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p} D(\mathbf{x}|X)$, any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$, and any $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ it holds: $D(\mathbf{x}|X) \le D(\mathbf{x}^* + \alpha(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*)|X)$;
- D5 upper semicontinuous in x: the upper-level sets $D_{\alpha}(X) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{p} : D(x|X) \ge \alpha \}$ are closed for all α .

Tukey (1975) — "Mathematics and the picturing of data"

Halfspace depth of $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$ w.r.t. a *d*-variate random vector X distributed as P is defined as the smallest probability mass of a closed halfspace containing \mathbf{x} :

 $D^h(\mathbf{x}|X) = \inf\{P(H) : H \text{ is a closed halfspace, } \mathbf{x} \in H\},\$

and w.r.t. a data set $\pmb{X} = \{\pmb{x}_1,...,\pmb{x}_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}^p$:

$$D^{h(n)}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{X}) = rac{1}{n} \min_{\boldsymbol{u}\in\mathbb{S}^{p-1}} \sharp\{i: \boldsymbol{u}'\boldsymbol{x}_i \geq \boldsymbol{u}'\boldsymbol{x}\}.$$

Halfspace depth

- satisfies all the above postulates,
- is purely non-parametric and robust,
- has direct connection to quantiles and many applications.

Babies with low birth weight



Babies with low birth weight



Babies with low birth weight



Babies with low birth weight



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Babies with low birth weight



Babies with low birth weight



Babies with low birth weight



Babies with low birth weight



Babies with low birth weight


Babies with low birth weight



Weight, in grams

Babies with low birth weight





Halfspace-trimmed regions

Halfspace depth defines a family of (depth-)trimmed (central) regions $D_{\tau}^{h}(X)$, the upper-level sets of the depth function:

$$D^h_ au(X) = ig\{ oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p \, : \, D^h(oldsymbol{x}|X) \geq au ig\}.$$

Properties:

Depth:

- Affine invariant;
- Vanishing at infinity;
- Monotone w.r.t. deepest point;
- Upper-semicontinuous;
- Quasiconcave.

Regions:

Affine equivariant;

Bounded;

Nested;

Closed;

Convex.

Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth-trimmed regions

Babies with low birth weight



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth-trimmed regions

Babies with low birth weight



Weight, in grams



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 2/161$



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 5/161$



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 9/161$



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 13/161$



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: au = 17/161



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 25/161$



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 33/161$



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 41/161$



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 49/161$



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: au =57/161



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: au = 65/161



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau = 68/161$



Further depth notions

- Mahalanobis depth (Mahalanobis, 1936)
- Convex hull peeling depth (Barnett, 1976; Eddy, 1981)
- Projection depth (Stahel, 1981; Donoho, 1982)
- Simplicial volume depth (Oja, 1983)
- Simplicial depth (Liu, 1990)
- Majority depth (Singh, 1991)
- Zonoid depth (Koshevoy and Mosler, 1997)
- L_p-depth (Zuo and Serfling, 2000)
- Spatial depth (Serfling, 2002)
- Expected convex hull depth (Cascos, 2007)
- Geometrical depth (Dyckerhoff and Mosler, 2011)
- Lens depth (Liu and Modarres, 2011)

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Projection vs. halfspace depth



Projection vs. halfspace depth

- ► Normal data (90 obs.): $\mathcal{N}((1,1)^{\top}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix})$.
- Anomalies (10 obs.): $\mathcal{N}((3.181, -0.222)^{\top}, (\frac{1}{1}\frac{1}{2})/36)$.
- Anomalies (25 obs.): masking anomalies.



Projection vs. halfspace depth

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Illustration of properties

Properties of data depth:

- **Robustness**, on comparison with:
 - Auto-encoder.
- **Extrapolation abilities**, on comparison with:
 - Local outlier factor (LOF).
 - One-class support vector machine (OC-SVM).
 - Isolation forest (IF).
- **Explainability** of anomalies.

Autoencoder vs. depth

► Normal data: $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{i}_d, \mathbf{I}_{d \times d})$.

Anomalies: ellicpical Cauchy distribution.



Quality measure: Portion of anomalies if we detect all of them. **Autoencoders**:

▶ For *d* = 10: neuronal layers 10–5–2–5–10.

▶ For *d* = 20: neuronal layers 20–10–5–10–20.

Local outlier factor

Training data: polluted with anomalies.



One-class support vector machine

Training data: polluted with anomalies.



Isolation forest

Training data: polluted with anomalies.



Data depth (projection depth notion)

Training data: polluted with anomalies.



Explainability

Let us take the previous example.



Explainability

- ▶ Optimizing direction: variables contribution, e.g., (0.863, -0.505)^T.
- **Directions' plot**: compare abnormalities.
- Angles' heatmap: Allows to detect clustered anomalies.



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Numerical approximation: number of directions

Employing **approximating algorithms** for data depth: Dyckerhoff, Mozharovskyi, Nagy (2021).

- ▶ Normal data (950 obs.): $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_d, \text{Toeplitz}_{d \times d})$.
- Anomalies (50 obs.): $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_d + 1.25 \cdot \lambda \cdot \min \mathsf{PC}, \mathbf{I}_{d \times d})$.


Statistical approximation: sub-sampling

Employing **approximating algorithms** for data depth: Dyckerhoff, Mozharovskyi, Nagy (2021).

- ▶ Normal data (950 obs.): $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}_d, \text{Toeplitz}_{d \times d})$.
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Thank you for your attention! Questions?

- Data depth has undergone substantial theoretical development during recent 30 years and possesses attractive properties, *e.g.*, robustness, affine invariance, *etc*.
- Recently, efficient algorithms (both exact and approximate) have been developed for computation of numerous depths.
- Data depth can be used as a powerful tool for anomaly detection.
- When applying data depth for anomaly detection, several aspects should be taken into account, considered in this presentation.
- Disclaimer: The presented examples were designed to illustrate advantages of depth-based anomaly detection, their generalization can be limited.

Computational taxonomy

		Exponential time	Polynomial time
Affine-		convex hull peeling depth	zonoid depth
		majority depth	Mahalanobis depth
	ant	expected convex hull depth	
	invaria	geometrical depth	
		halfspace depth	
		projection depth	
		simplicial depth	
e	It	simplicial volume depth	\mathbb{L}_2
fin	iar		spatial depth
af	var		lens depth
Not	Ē.		

* : *Italics* indicate **robust** depth notions.













$$\blacktriangleright X \sim \mathsf{N}(\mu_X, \Sigma_X)$$

$$d(\boldsymbol{x}|X) = \|\boldsymbol{x} - \mu_X\|$$

$$d^2_{Mah}(\boldsymbol{x}|X) = \\ (\boldsymbol{x} - \mu_X)^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_X^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x} - \mu_X)$$

$$\blacktriangleright D^{\mathsf{Mah}}(\boldsymbol{x}|X) = \frac{1}{1 + d_{Mah}^2(\boldsymbol{x}|X)}$$

Projection depth (Zuo, Serfling, 2000)



A measure of outlyingness of x w.r.t. X:

$$O_{Prj}(\mathbf{x}|X) = \sup_{\mathbf{u} \in S^{d-1}} \frac{|\mathbf{u}^{\top} \mathbf{x} - m_X(\mathbf{u}'\mathbf{x})|}{\sigma_X(\mathbf{u}^{\top}\mathbf{x})},$$

 m_X and σ_X are **univariate** location and scatter measures.

• m_X =median and σ_X =MAD (median absolute deviation).

•
$$D^{\operatorname{prj}}(\boldsymbol{x}|X) = \frac{1}{1+O_{\operatorname{Prj}}(\boldsymbol{x}|X)}.$$

Projection depth (Zuo, Serfling, 2000)



A measure of outlyingness of x w.r.t. X:

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 m_X and σ_X are **univariate** location and scatter measures.

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