# Anomaly detection using data depth: multivariate case 

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Journée de la recherche du LTCI
Palaiseau, October 14, 2022

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Simple examples

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## What is data depth?

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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:

$$
\boldsymbol{X}_{t r}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}
$$

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:

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

which attributes to any (possible) $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ 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 $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ :

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

such that abnormal observations obtain differing anomaly score.

## Teaser

Same data set with two measurements:


Given training data, polluted or not with anomalies:

- detect anomalies in the given data.


## Teaser

Same data set with two measurements:


For new data, employ:

- Anomaly detection rule using bounding box:
$g_{\text {box }}\left(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}\right)= \begin{cases}\operatorname{anoamly}(=1), & \text { if } \boldsymbol{x} \notin \bigcap_{j=1, \ldots, d}\left(\underline{H}_{j, l_{j}} \cap \bar{H}_{j, u_{j}}\right), \\ \text { normal }(=0), & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}$


## Teaser

Same data set with two measurements:


For new data, employ:

- Anomaly detection rule using Mahalanobis depth:

$$
g_{\mathrm{Mah}}\left(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}\right)= \begin{cases}\text { anomaly }, & \text { if } D^{\mathrm{Mah}}\left(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}\right)<t_{\mathrm{Mah}, \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}} \\ \text { normal }, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Teaser

Same data set with two measurements, but less observations:


Given training data, polluted or not with anomalies:

- detect anomalies in the given data.


## Teaser

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.


## Teaser

Same data set with two measurements, but less observations:


For new data, employ:

- Anomaly detection rule using projection depth:

$$
g_{\text {prj }}\left(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}\right)= \begin{cases}\text { anomaly, } & \text { if } D^{\text {prj }}\left(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}\right)<t_{\text {prj }, \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}} \\ \text { normal }, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Teaser

Now back to big data set with two measurements:


For new data, employ:

- Anomaly detection rule using projection depth:

$$
g_{\text {prj }}\left(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}\right)= \begin{cases}\text { anomaly, } & \text { if } D^{\text {prj }}\left(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}\right)<t_{\text {prj }, \boldsymbol{X}_{t r}} \\ \text { normal }, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
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## Data depth

## Babies with low birth weight



## Data depth

## 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 $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$ and a $p$-variate random vector $X$ distributed as $P \in \mathcal{P}$, a data depth is a function

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

that is:
D1 translation invariant: $D(\boldsymbol{x}+b \mid X+b)=D(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)$ for any $b \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$;
D2 linear invariant: $D(A \boldsymbol{x} \mid A X)=D(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)$ for any $p \times p$ non-singular matrix $A$;
D3 vanishing at infinity: $\lim _{\|\boldsymbol{x}\| \rightarrow \infty} D(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)=0$;
D4 monotone on rays: for any $\boldsymbol{x}^{*} \in \operatorname{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}} D(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)$, any $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$, and any $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ it holds:
$D(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X) \leq D\left(\boldsymbol{x}^{*}+\alpha\left(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{x}^{*}\right) \mid X\right) ;$
D5 upper semicontinuous in $\boldsymbol{x}$ : the upper-level sets $D_{\alpha}(X)=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}: D(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X) \geq \alpha\right\}$ are closed for all $\alpha$.

## Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth

Tukey (1975) - "Mathematics and the picturing of data"
Halfspace depth of $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{p}$ w.r.t. a $d$-variate random vector $X$ distributed as $P$ is defined as the smallest probability mass of a closed halfspace containing $\mathbf{x}$ :

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

and w.r.t. a data set $\boldsymbol{X}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{p}$ :

$$
D^{h(n)}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{X})=\frac{1}{n} \min _{\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathbb{S}^{p-1}} \sharp\left\{i: \boldsymbol{u}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} \geq \boldsymbol{u}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{x}\right\} .
$$

## Halfspace depth

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


## Halfspace (=Tukey, location) data depth

## Babies with low birth weight



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## Halfspace (=Tukey, location) data depth

## Babies with low birth weight

114 / 161


## Halfspace (=Tukey, location) data depth

## Babies with low birth weight



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Halfspace (=Tukey, location) data depth


## 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:

$$
D_{\tau}^{h}(X)=\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^{p}: D^{h}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X) \geq \tau\right\} .
$$

## 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



Halfspace (=Tukey, location) data depth


## 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: $\tau=17 / 161$

## 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: $\tau=57 / 161$

## Halfspace (=Tukey, location) depth region: $\tau=65 / 161$

## 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)
- $\mathbb{Q}_{p}$-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

- Normal data (90 obs.): $\mathcal{N}\left((1,1)^{\top},\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2\end{array}\right)\right)$.
- Anomalies (10 obs.): $\mathcal{N}\left((3.181,-0.222)^{\top},\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2\end{array}\right) / 36\right)$.

Projection depth


Simplicial volume depth


Projection vs. halfspace depth

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




## Projection vs. halfspace depth

- Normal data (90 obs.): $\mathcal{N}\left((1,1)^{\top},\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2\end{array}\right)\right)$.
- Anomalies (10 obs.): $\mathcal{N}\left((3.181,-0.222)^{\top},\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2\end{array}\right) / 36\right)$.
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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: $\mathcal{N}\left(\boldsymbol{i}_{d}, \boldsymbol{I}_{d \times d}\right)$.
- Anomalies: ellicpical Cauchy distribution.


$$
d=20
$$



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.
- Test data: same + new anomalies.




## One-class support vector machine

- Training data: polluted with anomalies.
- Test data: same + new anomalies.




## Isolation forest

- Training data: polluted with anomalies.
- Test data: same + new anomalies.




## Data depth (projection depth notion)

- Training data: polluted with anomalies.
- Test data: same + new anomalies.




## Explainability

- Let us take the previous example.



## Explainability

- Optimizing direction: variables contribution, e.g., $(0.863,-0.505)^{\top}$.
- 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.): $\mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}_{d}\right.$, Toeplitz $\left._{d \times d}\right)$.
- Anomalies (50 obs.): $\mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}_{d}+1.25 \cdot \lambda \cdot \min \mathrm{PC}, \boldsymbol{I}_{d \times \boldsymbol{d}}\right)$.




## Statistical approximation: sub-sampling

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

- Normal data (950 obs.): $\mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}_{d}\right.$, Toeplitz $\left._{d \times d}\right)$.
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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 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | convex hull peeling depth majority depth expected convex hull depth geometrical depth halfspace depth projection depth simplicial depth | zonoid depth Mahalanobis depth |
|  | simplicial volume depth |  |

* : Italics indicate robust depth notions.


## Mahalanobis depth (Mahalanobis, 1936)



- $X \sim \mathrm{~N}\left(\mu_{X}, \Sigma_{X}\right)$


## Mahalanobis depth (Mahalanobis, 1936)



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Mahalanobis depth (Mahalanobis, 1936)

- $X \sim \mathrm{~N}\left(\mu_{X}, \Sigma_{X}\right)$
- $d(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)=\left\|\boldsymbol{x}-\mu_{X}\right\|$
- $d_{\text {Mah }}^{2}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)=$ $\left(\boldsymbol{x}-\mu_{X}\right)^{\top} \Sigma_{X}^{-1}\left(\boldsymbol{x}-\mu_{X}\right)$
$-D^{\text {Mah }}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)=\frac{1}{1+d_{\text {Mah }}^{2}(x \mid X)}$


## Projection depth (Zuo, Serfling, 2000)

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& O_{P r j}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)= \\
& \sup _{\mathbf{u} \in S^{d-1}} \frac{\left|\mathbf{u}^{\top} x-m_{X}\left(\mathbf{u}^{\prime} x\right)\right|}{\sigma_{X}\left(\mathbf{u}^{\top} x\right)},
\end{aligned}
$$

$m_{X}$ and $\sigma_{X}$ are univariate location and scatter measures.

- $m_{X}=$ median and $\sigma_{X}=\mathrm{MAD}$ (median absolute deviation).
- $D^{\text {prj }}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)=\frac{1}{1+O_{P i j}(x \mid X)}$.


## Projection depth (Zuo, Serfling, 2000)

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$-D^{\text {prj }}(\boldsymbol{x} \mid X)=\frac{1}{1+O_{P i j}(x \mid X)}$.

