# COMP5121 Data Mining and Data Warehousing Applications

#### **Week 10: Outlier Detection**

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## Outline

- Outliers and Outlier Analysis
- Outlier Detection Methods Categories
- Statistical Methods
- Proximity-Based Methods
- Clustering-Based Methods
- Mining Contextual and Collective Outliers
- Outlier Detection in High-Dimensional Space

## **OUTLIERS AND OUTLIER ANALYSIS**

## What are Outliers?

- Outlier: A data object that deviates significantly from the rest of the objects, as if it were generated by a different mechanism
  - Unusual transaction target/amount
  - Temperature
  - **...**

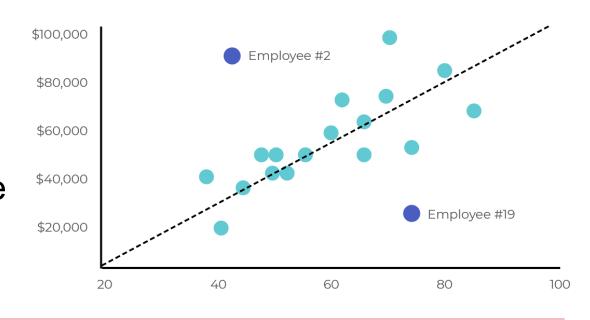
We often refer the rest of the object as normal data and outliers as abnormal data.



## What are Outliers?

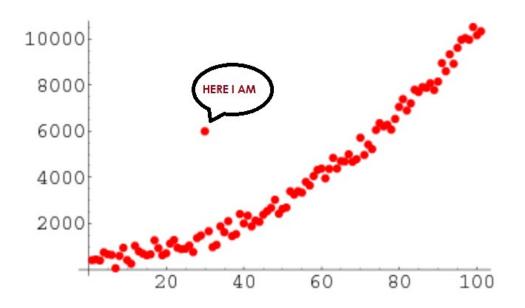
- Outliers are different from the noises
  - Noises are random errors or variance in a measurement process.
  - Noises can mislead data analysis and need to be removed.
- Outliers are interesting
  - Provide new knowledge
  - Potentially be influential
  - Need to be handled with care

#### Test Scores Versus Performance Measured by Sales



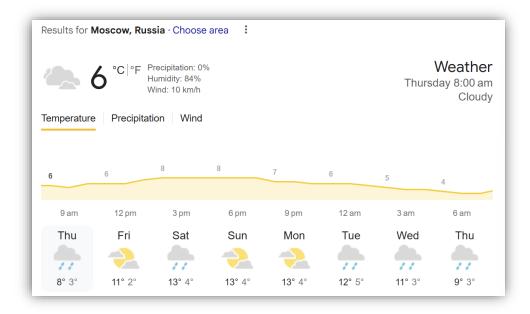
# Types of Outliers – Global

☐ Global outlier: A data object that deviates significantly from the entire dataset



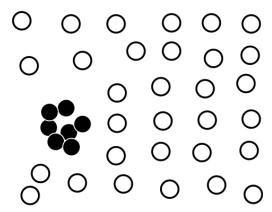
## Types of Outlier – Contextual

- Contextual outlier: A data object deviating significantly with respect to a specific context of the object
- ☐ Example: Is 25°C in March an outlier?
  - In Hong Kong, it is normal.
  - In Moscow, ...



## Types of Outliers – Collective

- ☐ Collective outlier: A subset of data objects that collectively deviates significantly from the entire dataset
- ☐ Key point: A single data point may not be an outlier on its own, but their combined behavior makes them unusual.
  - Example: A sudden spike in network traffic from a group of devices might indicate a cyber attack.



## Types of Outliers

A dataset can have multiple types of outliers

- ☐ Different outliers may be used in different applications
  - Global: simplest but may not be accurate
  - Contextual: require domain knowledge
  - Collective: model the behavior of a group of data objects

# Challenges of Outlier Detection (I)

- Modeling normal objects and outliers properly
  - The quality of detection depends on how well we model normal data and outliers.
  - It is almost impossible to enumerate all normal data in a dataset.
  - The boundary between "normal" and "abnormal" is not clear.
- Application-specific outlier detection
  - The choice of distance measure and relationship between objects are often application-dependent.
  - It is impossible to develop a universal outlier detection method.

# Challenges of Outlier Detection (II)

- ☐ Handling noise in outlier detection
  - Outlier provides valuable insights while noise doesn't.
  - Noise may distort the normal objects and blur the distinction between normal objects and outliers, making detection hard.
- Understandability
  - Understand why these are outliers: justification of the detection
  - Specify the degree of an outlier: how unlikely it is for the object to be generated by a normal mechanism

# CATEGORIZATION: OUTLIER DETECTION METHODS

## Categorization: Different Criteria

- Based on the data labels
  - Supervised, Unsupervised, Semi-supervised (partial labels)
- ☐ Based on assumption regarding normal data *vs* outliers
  - Statistical: normal data are generated from a statistical model
  - Proximity-based: outliers are far away from their nearest neighbors compared to normal data
  - Clustering-based: normal data belong to large, dense clusters; outliers belong to small, sparse clusters, or no clusters

## (I) Supervised Methods

- Modeling outlier detection as a classification problem
  - Samples examined by domain experts used for training & testing
  - To learn a classifier for outlier detection effectively:
    - Model normal objects and report those not matching the model as outliers, or
    - Model outliers and treat those not matching the model as normal

### Challenges

- Imbalanced classes: Outliers are rare → Boost the outlier class by generating some artificial outliers for training
- Recall > Precision: Catch as many outliers as possible, even if it means misclassifying some normal objects as outliers

## (I) Unsupervised Methods

- □ Intuition: assume the normal objects are somewhat clustered into multiple groups, each having some distinct features
  - Outliers are expected to be far away from any normal groups

#### Weakness

- Normal objects may not share any strong patterns, but the collective outliers may share high similarity in a small area
- Unsupervised methods may have a high false positive rate but still miss many real outliers.
- Hard to distinguish noise from outliers
- Clustering is expensive, but far fewer outliers than normal objects

## (I) Semi-Supervised Methods

- ☐ Situation: in many applications, # labeled data is often limited
  - Labels could be on outliers only, normal objects only, or both.
- ☐ If labeled normal objects are available:
  - Use the labeled examples and the nearby unlabeled objects to train a model for normal objects
  - Those not fitting the normal model are flagged as outliers
- ☐ If labeled outliers are available:
  - A small number of labeled outliers may not represent all outliers
  - Combine with unsupervised methods to learn a model of normal objects and improve detection accuracy.

# (II) Statistical Methods (model-based)

- ☐ Assume normal data follow some statistical/stochastic models.
  - Data that do not conform to the model are outliers.

□ Effectiveness: highly depends on whether the assumption of statistical model holds in the real data

- Statistical modeling
  - Parametric: Assume a specific distribution (e.g., Gaussian).
  - Non-parametric: Do not assume a specific distribution, offering more flexibility.

## (II) Proximity-Based Methods

- ☐ An object is an **outlier** if its nearest neighbors of the object are farther away compared to most other objects
  - Proximity: measured by comparing its distance to its neighbors.
  - If the object's proximity significantly deviates from the proximity of most other objects in the same set, it is flagged as an outlier.
- ☐ **Effectiveness**: highly relies on the proximity measure
  - Defining proximity measures can be difficult in some applications.
  - Struggles with groups of outliers that are close to each other.
  - Two types: distance-based vs. density-based (density of objects in the surrounding area)

## (II) Clustering-Based Methods

- ☐ Normal data belong to large, dense clusters
- Outliers belong to small or sparse clusters, or no clusters

- Challenges
  - Clustering is expensive: Clustering methods often have high computational costs, especially for large datasets.
  - Scalability: Straightforward clustering may not scale well to large or high-dimensional datasets.

parametric vs non-parametric

# STATISTICAL METHODS

#### Statistical Methods

Assume that the normal objects in a data set are generated by a stochastic process or a generative model

#### Categories

- Parametric method assumes that the normal data objects are generated by a parametric distribution with parameter  $\theta$ 
  - □ Example: Gaussian distribution, Poisson distribution.
- Non-parametric does not assume an a priori statistical model
  - □ Example: Kernel Density Estimation (KDE), histogram-based

## Parametric Method – Normal Distribution

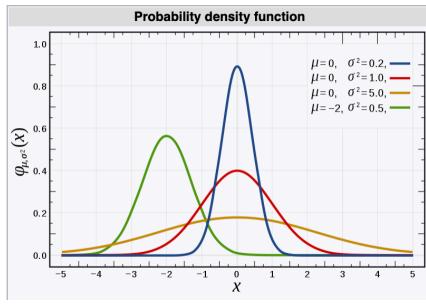
- Widely used in statistics and natural/social sciences to model real-valued random variables with unknown distribution
  - Represented by the probability density function (PDF):

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

Notation:  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 

#### Normal distributions are common in:

- Adult heights
- IQ scores
- Measurement errors
- ...

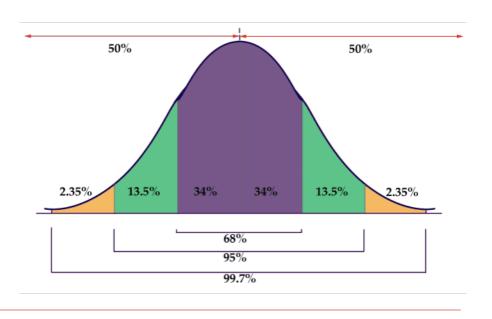


## Parametric Method – Normal Distribution

**68-95-99.7 Rule:** describes the percentage of data falling within 1, 2, or 3 standard deviations of the mean:

- $\square$  Given a random variable  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ 
  - $P(\mu \sigma \le X \le \mu + \sigma) \approx 68.27\%$
  - $P(\mu 2\sigma \le X \le \mu + 2\sigma) \approx 95.45\%$
  - $P(\mu 3\sigma \le X \le \mu + 3\sigma) \approx 99.73\%$

- μ is the mean (center)
- $\sigma^2$  is the variance (spread)



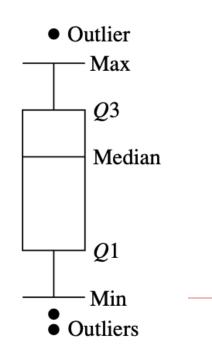
## Parametric Method – Normal Distribution

- $\square$  Given a dataset  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ :
  - Estimate mean:  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i$
  - Estimate variance:  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum (x_i \bar{x})^2$

- □ Outlier detection using 65-95-99.7 rule
  - A data object  $x_i$  is considered an outlier if  $|x_i \bar{x}| > 3\sigma$
  - Only 0.3% of data lies beyond 3 standard deviations from mean.
  - This makes  $x_i$  highly unlikely belong to this normal distribution.

## Parametric Method – IQR and Boxplot

- $\square$  Given a dataset  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ 
  - Calculate  $Q_1$  (lower quartile),  $Q_2$  (median),  $Q_3$  (upper quartile)
  - Calculate the interquartile range  $IQR = Q_3 Q_1$
  - Outliers: Any data point outside  $[Q_1 1.5 \times IQR, Q_3 + 1.5 \times IQR]$
- ☐ Key idea: Similar to 68-95-99.7 rule, the range captures most normal data
  - The parameter 1.5 is a typical threshold but could be adjusted accordingly



# Parametric Method – $\chi^2$ Statistic

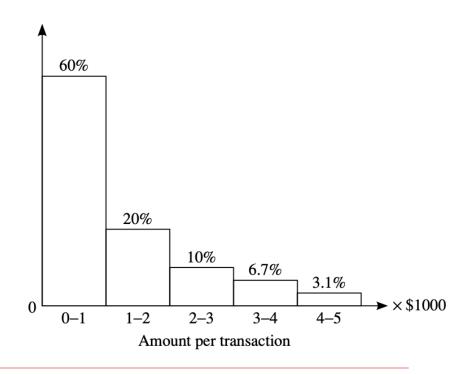
- Multivariate data: data involving two or more attributes
  - Transform it to univariate statistic for easier outlier detection

- $\square$  Given a data object  $o = (o_1, o_2, ..., o_d)$ 
  - Calculate  $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(o_i E_i)^2}{E_i}$ 
    - $\square$  o is the observed value and E is the expected value
  - The larger  $\chi^2$  is, the more likely o is an outlier

## Non-parametric Method – Histogram

- Construct a histogram from the dataset using bins
- □ **Example**: A transaction over \$5,000 can be an outlier since only 0.2% of transactions is over \$5,000

- ☐ Challenge: hard to choose bin size
  - Too small ⇒ Normal data in rare bins
  - Too big ⇒ Outliers in frequent bins



## Non-parametric Method – KDE

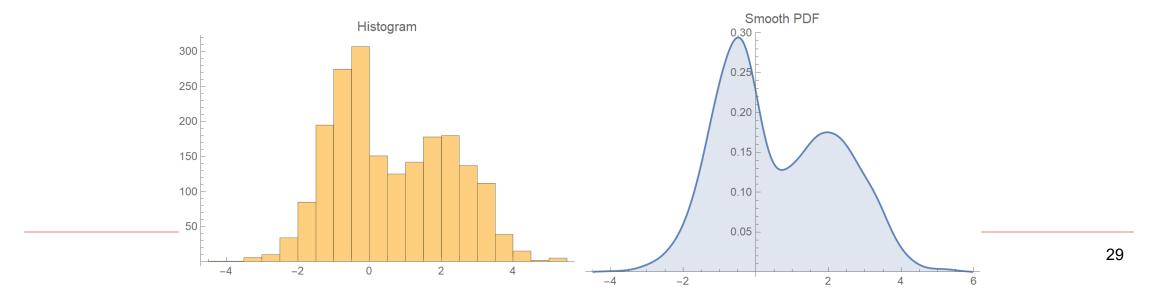
- ☐ Kernel Density Estimation: A method used to estimate the probability density distribution of the data
  - Every data object contributes to the probability density of others.
  - The contribution of a data object to another object decreases as their distance increases.

#### □ KDE-based outlier detection:

- Given a dataset  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ , calculate the estimated probability density function, that is,  $\hat{f}_h(x) = \frac{1}{nh} \sum K(\frac{x-x_i}{h})$ 
  - $\square$  Bandwidth: h, the larger the bandwidth, the smoother the estimated pdf
- The lower  $\hat{f}_h(x)$  is, the more unlikely x is generated from the distribution

## Non-parametric Method – KDE

- ☐ Compared to histogram:
  - **Smoothness**: KDE provides a continuous density estimation, while histograms are discrete.
  - **Flexibility**: KDE does not rely on fixed bin sizes, reducing the sensitivity to bin width.
  - Edge effect: KDE minimizes abrupt changes at the boundaries.



## Summary: Statistical Methods

#### ☐ Pros

- Statistically justifiable: providing interpretable and reliable results
- Once the distribution is learned, detection process is fast

#### ☐ Cons

- Learning process is slow especially for complex distributions
- Not suitable for high-dimensional data

## PROXIMITY-BASED METHODS

## Proximity-based Outlier Detection

☐ Proximity: the degree of nearness/closeness between objects

- ☐ In data science, it refers to similarity or dissimilarity (distance)
  - Euclidean distance, cosine similarity, jaccard similarity, etc.

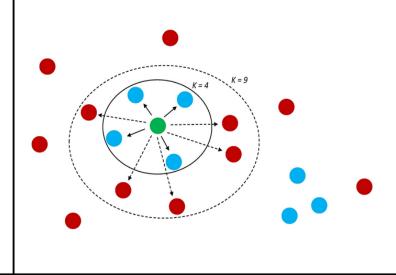
□ Assumption: the proximity of an outlier object to its nearest neighbors significantly deviates from the proximity of the object to most other objects in the dataset

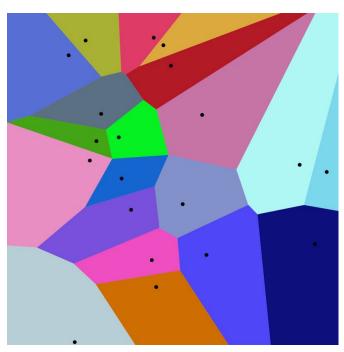
# Nearest Neighbors (NN)

☐ The nearest neighbor to a data object *o* is the data object closest to *o* 

 $\square$  We can extend this concept to k-nearest

neighbors.





Voronoi Diagram

## Distance-Based Outlier

☐ Given a data object o and a distance threshold  $r \ge 0$ , its r-neighborhood is defined as  $N_r = \{o' | o' \ne o \land dist(o', o) \le r\}$ 

- $\square$  A data object o is a  $DB(r,\pi)$ -outlier if  $\frac{|N_r|}{|D|} < \pi$ 
  - Fraction threshold:  $0 < \pi \le 1$
  - It suggests o is an outlier if its r-neighborhood contains too few data points compared to the total dataset.

## Distance-Based Method: A Nested Loop Algorithm

- $\square$  For each data object  $o_i$ , let  $count \leftarrow 0$ 
  - 1. Calculate  $dist(o_i, o_i)$  for  $j \neq i$
  - 2. If  $dist(o_i, o_i) \le r$ , then  $count \leftarrow count + 1$
  - 3. If  $count \ge \pi |D|$ , exit
  - 4. Repeat from Step 1
- $\square$  If not exit before, then  $o_i$  is a  $DB(r,\pi)$ -outlier

## Distance-Based Method: A k-NN Algorithm

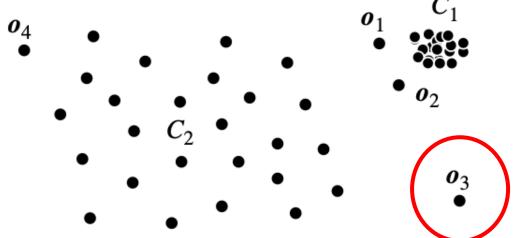
- $\square$  Determine  $DB(r,\pi)$ -outlier with k-nearest neighbors
  - A data object o is an outlier if the distance to its k-th nearest neighbor exceeds the distance threshold r, i.e.,  $dist(o_k, o) > r$
  - The number of neighbors is determined by:  $k = \lceil \pi \mid D \mid \rceil$

- □ Advantages: Simple and interpretable. Works well for datasets where proximity is meaningful.
- Challenges: Computationally expensive for large datasets and may struggle with high-dimensional data.

#### **Density-Based Method**

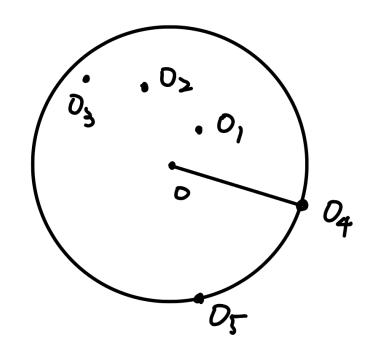
- Distance-based methods discover global outliers
  - The  $DB(r,\pi)$ -outlier is far from  $(1-\pi) \times 100\%$  of data objects
  - Controlled by two global parameters r and  $\pi$

Density-based methods assume the density around an outlier object is significantly different from the density around its neighbors.



#### **Density-Based Method**

- ☐ We define  $dist_k(o)$  to be the distance between o and its k-th nearest neighbor
  - $N_k(o) = \{o'|dist(o',o) \le dist_k(o)\}$
  - Note that  $N_k(o)$  can contain more than k data objects.



- Local density: the average distance to o in  $N_k(o)$ 
  - It is sensitive to small distance

If the local density of o is significantly lower than its nearest neighbors, it is an outlier.

#### Summary: Proximity-Based Methods

#### ☐ Pros

- Understandable to humans
- Non-parametric. No assumptions on the data distribution
- Flexible to different proximity measurements

#### □ Cons

- Computation cost can be high especially in high-dimensional space
- Not suitable for collective outliers detection

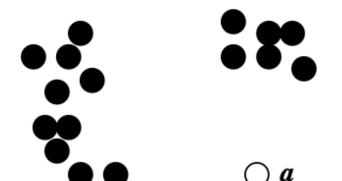
## **CLUSTERING-BASED METHODS**

#### Clustering-Based Outlier Detection

- ☐ Clustering-based methods examine the relationship between data objects and clusters
  - 1. If a data object doesn't belong to any cluster, it is an outlier
  - 2. If a data object is far from its nearest cluster, it is an outlier
  - If a data object belongs to a small or sparse cluster, all objects in that cluster are outliers

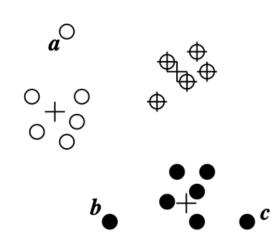
## Case 1: Not Belong to Any Cluster

- Using clustering methods like DBSCAN, some data points may not belong to any cluster.
- ☐ These unclustered points are considered outliers.
  - Consider organizing a library. Most books fit into well-defined categories, such as "Fiction" or "Science."
  - However, a rare, unrelated book that doesn't belong to any category (like a handwritten manuscript) would be an outlier.



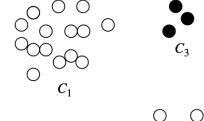
## Case 2: Far Away from Nearest Cluster

- $\square$  k-means clustering is sensitive to outliers, as points far from cluster centers may distort the clustering process.
- □ We can find the data objects who is far away from the cluster center as outliers
  - Unusual activity (e.g., rare login attempts or abnormal patterns) often appears far from established clusters of normal behavior.



#### Case 3: Outliers in Small Clusters

- ☐ The above two cases focus on detecting individual outliers
- ☐ Cluster-based local outlier factor (*CBLOF*)
  - Clusters are divided into large and small
    - □ based on # objects they cover
  - For an object o in large cluster:  $CBLOF = \# objects \times sim(o, C)$ 
    - $\square$  C is the cluster o lies in
  - For an object o in small cluster:  $CBLOF = \# objects \times sim(o, C)$ 
    - $\square$  *C* is the nearest large cluster of *o*



## Summary: Clustering-Based Methods

#### ☐ Pros

- Unsupervised. Suitable for any type of data
- Clusters can be regarded as a summary of data and help other tasks.
- Detection process is fast as # cluster is typically small

#### □ Cons

Effectiveness is limited since the labels are missing.

# MINING CONTEXTUAL AND COLLECTIVE OUTLIERS

#### Contextual Outlier Detection

- ☐ The attributes of data objects are divided into two groups
  - Context attribute: e.g. longitude, latitude, time, etc.
  - Behavioral attribute: e.g. temperature
- □ How to analyze the corresponding contextual information?
  - In some scenarios, the contexts can not be clearly identified

#### **Extending Conventional Outlier Detection**

- When the contexts can be clearly identified
  - Identify the contexts of data objects using contextual attributes
  - Apply a conventional outlier detection

## Example: Is 28°C an outlier for Hong Kong in April?

- First find all data objects whose "City" equals "Hong Kong" and "Month" equals "April"
- Apply a conventional outlier detection on these selected data objects

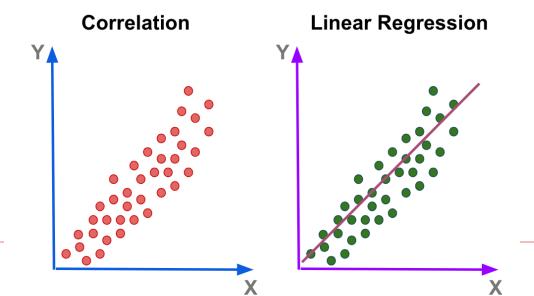
City	Month	Temperature
Hong Kong	April	28.7°C
Hong Kong	April	26°C
Tokyo	March	12°C

#### Modeling Normal Behavior wrt Contexts

- When the contexts cannot be clearly identified
  - E.g. finding an abnormal purchase wrt to the browser log
  - There is no straightforward way to determine how much of a customer's browsing history should be considered
- ☐ Use a predictive model to predict the purchase based on the browser log
  - If an actual purchase is significantly different from the prediction, it can be considered as an outlier.

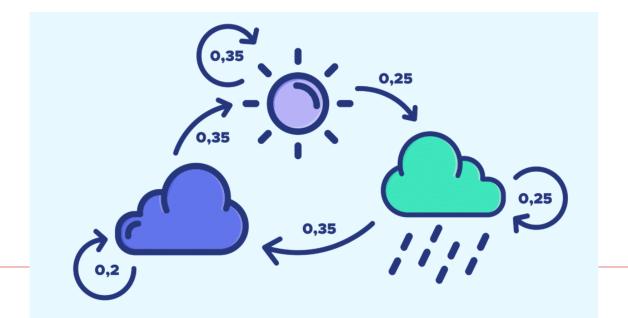
## Modeling Behavior – Regression Analysis

- Regression analysis reveals the correlation between data objects
  - Assume the purchase highly depends on the browser log
  - Learn a regression model to predict purchase behavior based on browser log
  - Find outliers if actual purchases deviate significantly from prediction



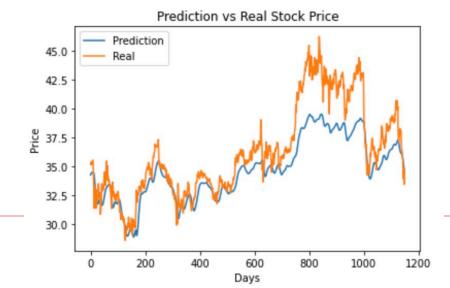
#### Modeling Behavior – Markov Models

- □ Markov property:  $P(X_n|X_{n-1},...,X_1) = P(X_n|X_{n-1},...,X_{n-k})$ 
  - $\blacksquare$  The number k is called the order
- Based on Markov property, we can learn a Markov model to represent the transition probability from one product to another, or from one product to the purchase



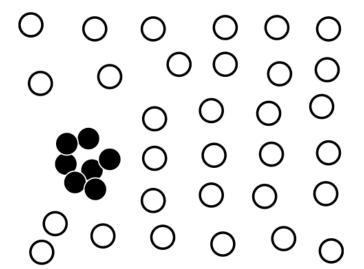
#### Modeling Behavior – LSTM

- □ To handle the fixed-order issue of Markov models, we can use a recurrent neural network (RNN) called LSTM
- Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) network aims to provide a short-term memory for RNN that can last thousands of timesteps
  - LSTM is good at time-series data prediction



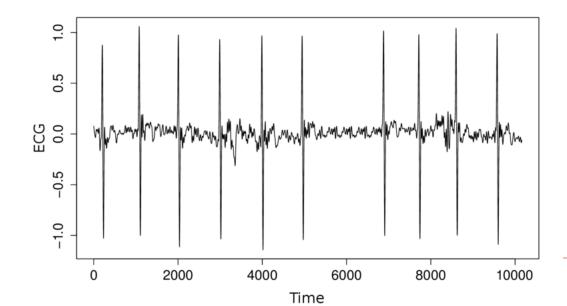
#### Collective Outlier Detection

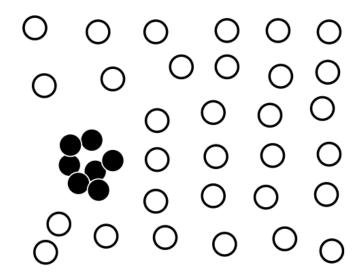
- □ A group of data objects as a whole deviating significant from the entire dataset
- Question: How can we identify the abnormal behavior of a group of data objects
  - We need to examine the structure of the dataset



#### Collective Outlier Detection

- □ Structure
  - Temporal data: sub-sequences
  - Spatial data: local areas
  - Graph and network data: subgraphs





#### **Extending Conventional Outlier Detection**

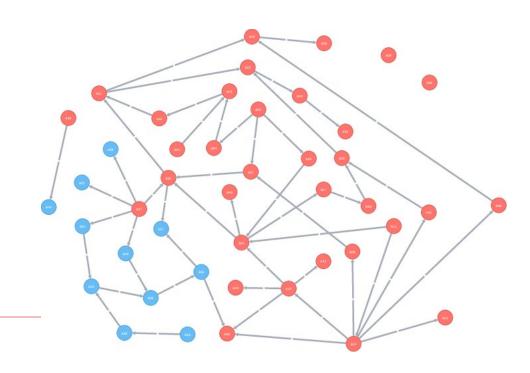
- ☐ We first break the entire dataset into small "structure units"
  - Sub sequences, local areas, subgraphs, etc.

☐ Then we can conduct conventional outlier detection on these

"structured objects"

#### **Example: Graph outlier detection**

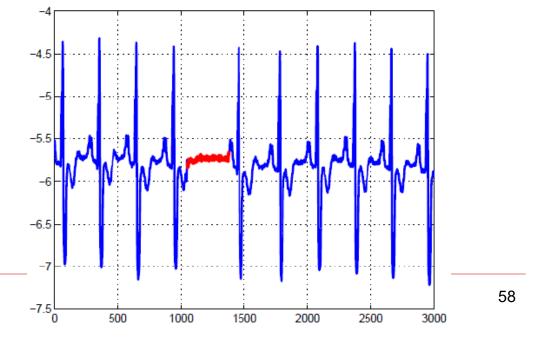
- Structure units: subgraphs with different number of nodes
- Typically, the number of subgraphs decreases while more nodes and edges are involved
- Find the outlier with unexpected #subgraph



## Modeling the Normal Behavior

☐ In real scenarios, the number of structure units can be huge and it's impossible to examine all of them

□ We can use predictive models (Markov models, LSTM, etc.) to model and predict normal data



#### **OUTLIER IN HIGH-DIMENSIONAL SPACE**

## Curse of Dimensionality & High Dimensions

- □ Data objects are sparse in high-dimensional space
  - Hard to understand the structure of data: making it difficult to cluster, classify, or understand relationships.
  - Sensitive to noises: Small variations in high-dimensional data can drastically affect results due to the sparsity.

☐ **Visualization challenge:** Humans can't intuitively visualize data beyond three dimensions.

## Curse of Dimensionality & High Dimensions

- □ **Distance metrics:** The distance becomes meaningless!
  - In high dimensions, the difference between the nearest and farthest neighbors diminishes.
  - $= \lim_{d \to \infty} E\left(\frac{dist_{max} dist_{min}}{dist_{min}}\right) \to 0$
- □ Combinatorial explosion: High-dimensional data leads to an exponential increase in # feature combinations to analyze.
  - 30-dimensional space  $\rightarrow$  2<sup>30</sup>  $\approx$  one billion possible combination!
  - Most attributes are irrelevant attributes

#### Challenges for High-Dimensional Outlier Detection

- ☐ Detecting outliers without saying why they are outliers is not very useful in high-dimensional space.
  - Many dimensions may have irrelevant or noisy features.
- Data sparsity: Noise dominates, making it hard to distinguish true outliers from noisy data.

- Subspaces and Scalability
  - Outliers often exist in specific subspaces, not in the full space.
  - Efficient exploration of subspaces is vital for meaningful outliers.

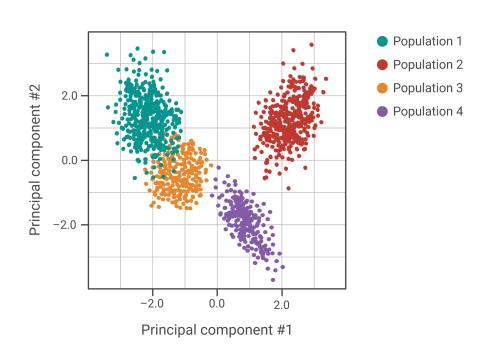
#### **Extending Conventional Outlier Detection**

- ☐ **Method 1**: Detect outliers in the full space (e.g., HilOut\*)
  - 1. Find distance-based outliers, but use the ranks of distance instead of the absolute distance in outlier detection
  - 2. For each object o, find its k-nearest neighbors (nn denotes "nearest neighbors"):  $nn_1(o), ..., nn_k(o)$
  - 3. Compute the weight of object  $o: w(o) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} dist(o, nn_i(o))$
  - 4. Rank all objects in weight-descending order
  - 5. Select the top-l objects as outliers (l: user-specified parameter)

#### **Extending Conventional Outlier Detection**

- Method 2: Dimensionality reduction
  - PCA-based Heuristic Approach: Principal components with low variance are preferred because:
    - □ Normal objects tend to cluster closely in these selected dimensions
    - ☐ Outliers are more likely to deviate significantly from the majority.

# Population Genetics 2D Principal Component Analysis (PCA)



## Finding Outliers in Subspaces

☐ Detecting outliers in full-dimensional spaces is hard to interpret.

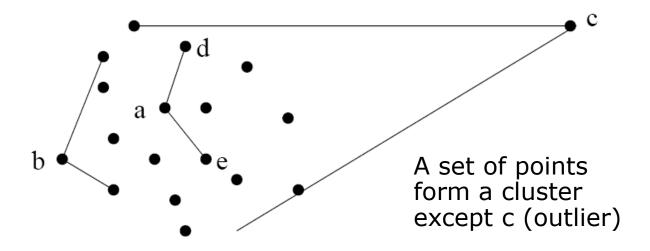
- ☐ Find outliers in much lower dimensional subspaces
  - Understand why the object is an outlier
  - Quantify to what extent it deviates from normal behavior
  - Example: Find "outlier customers" in certain subspace
    - average transaction amount >> avg.
    - □ purchase frequency << avg.</p>

## Finding Outliers in Subspaces: Example

- ☐ A grid-based subspace outlier detection method to identify an area with significantly lower density than the average
  - Project data onto various subspaces
  - Discretize the data into a grid with equal-depth regions
    - □ For each dimension, create  $\phi$  partitions  $\rightarrow$  each contains  $f = \frac{1}{\phi}$  of total data
  - Search for regions that are significantly sparse
    - $\square$  For an r-dimensional subspace, the expected # objects in a cell is  $f^r n$
    - □ Calculate a sparsity score  $S(C) = \frac{n(C) f^r n}{\sqrt{f^r (1 f^r) n}}$ , where S(C) < 0 means a sparse cell C that may contain outliers

## Modeling High-Dimensional Outliers

- ☐ Develop new models for high-dimensional outliers directly
  - Avoid proximity measures and adopt new heuristics that do not deteriorate in high-dimensional data



#### Summary

- ☐ Types of outliers: Global, Contextual, Collective
- Detection methods: Supervised/Unsupervised/Semi-supervised
  - Statistical methods: Parametric / Nonparametric
  - Proximity-based methods: Distance- / Density-based
  - Clustering-based methods: Three cases
  - High-dimensional outlier detection

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## **THANK YOU!**

