

Anomaly Detection

Introduction - basics of anomaly detection

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Topics for today:

- review of the Gaussian pdf
- review of least-squares
- leverage scores definition and properties
- leverage scores for anomaly detection



one dimensional Gaussian

$$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

multi-dimensional Gaussian

$$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\Sigma)}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mu)\right\}$$

In general, we say that we sample from a standard Gaussian variable:

$$x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \text{ or } \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_d)$$

Note: there is already a hint that “ Σ is the square of something”



statistical variables have two important properties:

the mean of the variable: $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}] = \mu$

the variance of the variable: $\mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[x])(\mathbf{x} - \mathbb{E}[x])^T] = \Sigma$

An exercise for you: you are in the one-dimensional setting and you have a Gaussian variable $x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and then we need to build a new variable $y = ax + b$. what sort of random variable is this?



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$$\mathbb{E}[y] = \mathbb{E}[ax + b] = a\mu + b$$

$$\mathbb{E}[(y - \mathbb{E}[y])(y - \mathbb{E}[y])^T] = a^2 \mathbb{E}[(x - \mu)(x - \mu)] = a^2 \sigma^2$$

where we use the fact that $\mathbb{E}[y - \mathbb{E}[y]] = a\mathbb{E}[X - \mu]$



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What would be the reverse of this?

$$y = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \text{ (we standardize the random variable)}$$



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$\mathbf{y} = \mu + \mathbf{L}\mathbf{x}$ where $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T = \Sigma$ (from the Cholesky factorization of Σ , this is the “square root” for a matrix).



the setup in this class is the following:

- we are in the supervised setting
- we are given a dataset where each data point has d features
- we are given n data points $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the features
- we are given n labels for these data points $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$

the goals are:

- assume a linear predictor $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- estimate the best linear predictor from the data, i.e., $\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta \approx y_i$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$
- pick the squared error to minimize $(\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta - y_i)^2$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$
- overall objective function is $\sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i^T \beta - y_i)^2$



- overall objective function is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} - y_i)^2 \quad (1)$$

- this can be written in matrix form as:

$$\|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \mathbf{y}\|_F^2 \quad (2)$$

- \mathbf{X} is an $n \times d$ matrix where the i^{th} row is \mathbf{x}_i^T
- \mathbf{y} is an n -dimensional vector of labels
- the unknown is $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ the d -dimensional vector

- we have used the Frobenius norm $\|\mathbf{A}\|_F^2 = \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^d |A_{ij}|^2$,
for vectors this is just $\|\mathbf{x}\|_F^2 = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$.



The least-squares problem solves the following:

$$\underset{\beta}{\text{minimize}} \|\mathbf{X}\beta - \mathbf{y}\|_F^2 \quad (3)$$

- when $n = d$ we have $\beta^* = \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$
 - when $n > d$ we have $\beta^* = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$
 - when $n < d$ we have $\beta^* = \mathbf{X}^T(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T)^{-1}\mathbf{y}$
-
- how do we get these?
 - what happens if we replace the squared with absolute value?
 - how do we compute β^* in each case above?



There are several things that the least-squares assumes:

- we assume that the data was generated as $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \mathbf{e}$ where \mathbf{e} is considered to be a standard Gaussian random variable: $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{e}] = \mathbf{0}$ and $\text{var}[\mathbf{e}] = \sigma^2\mathbf{I}_n$
- note that $\text{var}[\mathbf{y}] = \sigma^2\mathbf{I}_n$
- the the least-squares solution is given by $\beta^* = (\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$
- the projected values are given by $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{X}\beta^* = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{y}$
- and the the empirical error is given by $\hat{\mathbf{e}} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}} = (\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})\mathbf{y}$ where $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^T$
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- then, $\text{var}[\hat{\mathbf{y}}] = \sigma^2\mathbf{H}^2$ and $\text{var}[\hat{\mathbf{e}}] = \sigma^2(\mathbf{I}_n - \mathbf{H})^2$



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- \mathbf{H} is symmetric.

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The leverage scores are the diagonal elements of the \mathbf{H} matrix, i.e.,
$$h_i = H_{ii} = \mathbf{x}_i^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i.$$

We have the following properties:

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Proof. The diagonal of \mathbf{H} has only positive entries that sum up to d .



Why are these scores so important? They show the self-sensitivity of each residual:

$$h_{ii} = \frac{\partial \hat{y}_i}{\partial y_i} \quad (4)$$

This measures the degree by which the i^{th} measured value y_i influences the i^{th} predicted value \hat{y}_i .

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Because we want to know how much the parameters vary if we remove a single data point from the data set we have the following:

$$\beta^* - (\beta^{(-i)})^* = \frac{(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_i (y_i - \mathbf{x}_i^T \beta)}{1 - h_{ii}} \quad (5)$$



What is an anomaly

