

Skript zur Vorlesung  
**Knowledge Discovery in Databases**  
im Sommersemester 2013

# Kapitel 4: Outlier Detection

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basiert auf Tutorial von Hans-Peter Kriegel, Peer Kröger, Arthur Zimek: Outlier Detection Techniques  
(PAKDD-09, Bangkok, Thailand)

[http://www.dbs.ifi.lmu.de/cms/Knowledge\\_Discovery\\_in\\_Databases\\_I\\_\(KDD\\_I\)](http://www.dbs.ifi.lmu.de/cms/Knowledge_Discovery_in_Databases_I_(KDD_I))

## Was ist ein Outlier?

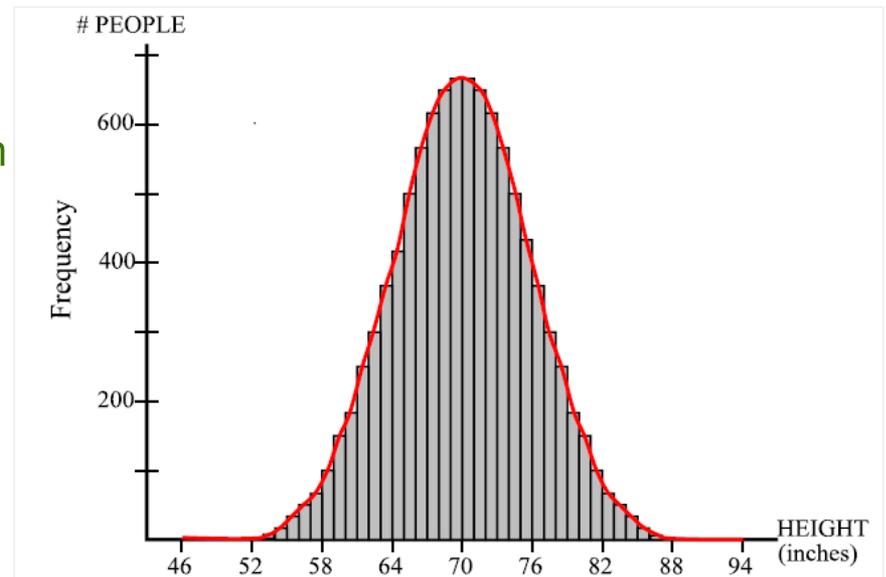
Definition nach Hawkins [Hawkins 1980]:

“Ein Outlier ist eine *Beobachtung*, die sich von den anderen *Beobachtungen* so deutlich unterscheidet, daß man denken könnte, sie sei von einem anderen Mechanismus generiert worden.”

Was meint “Mechanismus”?

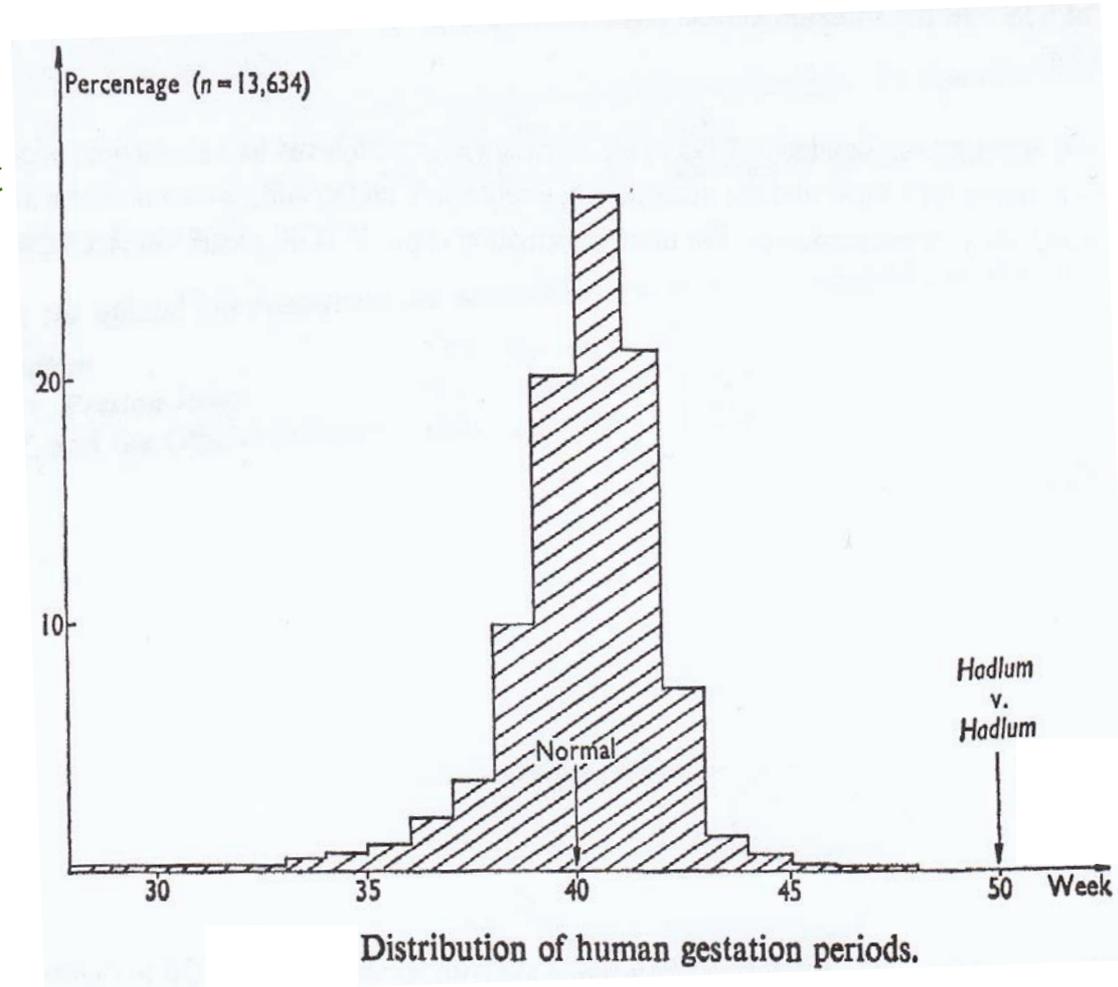
Intuition aus der Statistik:  
“erzeugender Mechanismus” ist ein (statistischer) Prozess.

Abnormale Daten (outlier) zeigen eine verdächtig geringe Wahrscheinlichkeit, aus diesem Prozess zu stammen.



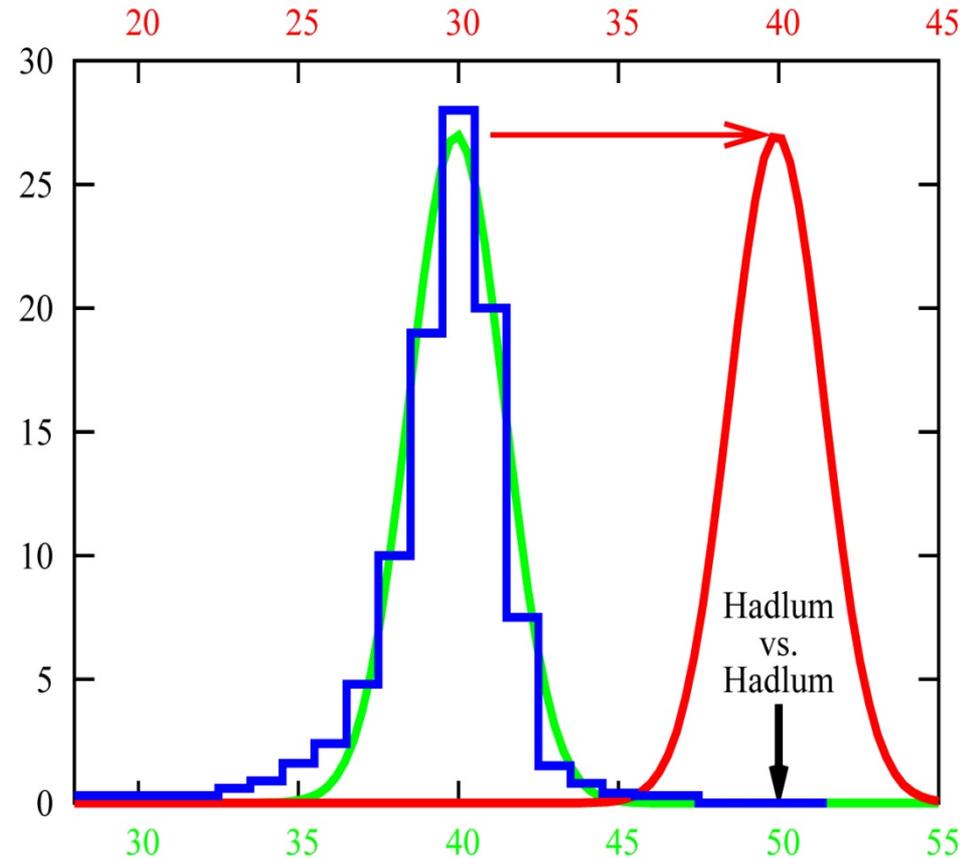
## Beispiel: Hadlum vs. Hadlum (1949) [Barnett 1978]

- Geburt eines Kindes von Mrs. Hadlum 349 Tage nachdem Mr. Hadlum zum Militärdienst abwesend war.
- Durchschnittliche Dauer einer menschlichen Schwangerschaft ist 280 Tage (40 Wochen)
- Ist eine Schwangerschaftsdauer von 349 Tagen ein Outlier?



## Beispiel: Hadlum vs. Hadlum (1949) [Barnett 1978]

- Blau: statistische Beobachtungsbasis (13634 erhobene Schwangerschaften)
- Grün: angenommener zugrundeliegender Gauss-Prozess
  - sehr geringe Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass die Geburt aus diesem Prozess stammt
- Rot: Annahme von Mr. Hadlum (ein anderer Gauss-Prozess, in dem die Schwangerschaft später beginnt, ist für die Geburt verantwortlich)
  - unter dieser Annahme hat die Schwangerschaftsdauer einen Durchschnittswert und höchst-mögliche Wahrscheinlichkeit



## Anwendungsgebiete:

- Betrugsentdeckung
  - Kaufverhalten mit einer Kreditkarte ändert sich, wenn die Karte gestohlen wurde
  - Ungewöhnliche Kauf-Muster können Kreditkarten-Mißbrauch anzeigen
- Medizin
  - Ungewöhnliche Symptome oder Test-Ergebnisse können mögliche gesundheitliche Probleme eines Patienten anzeigen
  - Ob ein bestimmtes Testergebnis ungewöhnlich ist, kann von anderen Eigenschaften des Patienten abhängen (z.B. Geschlecht, Alter, Gewicht, ...)
- Öffentliches Gesundheitswesen
  - Auftauchen einer bestimmten Krankheit (z.B. Tetanus) verstreut über verschiedene Krankenhäuser einer Stadt zeigt Probleme mit dem zugehörigen Impfprogramm an
  - Ob das Auftreten der Krankheit unnormal ist hängt von verschiedenen Aspekten ab, z.B. Häufigkeit, räumliche Korrelation etc.

## Anwendungsgebiete:

- Sport-Statistiken
  - In vielen Sportarten werden diverse Parameter aufgezeichnet, um die Leistung eines Spielers zu bewerten
  - Außergewöhnliche (in positivem wie negativem Sinne) Spieler können durch ungewöhnliche Werte bestimmt werden
  - Manchmal ist nur eine Teilmenge der Parameter ungewöhnlich
- Entdecken von Messfehlern
  - Daten aus Sensoren (z.B. in einem wissenschaftlichen Experiment) können Meßfehler enthalten
  - Ungewöhnliche Werte können ein Hinweis auf Meßfehler sein
  - Solche Meßfehler aus den Daten zu entfernen, kann wichtig sein für erfolgreiche Datenanalyse und Data Mining

„One person’s noise could be another person’s signal.“

## Diskussion der Intuition von Hawkins

- Daten sind gewöhnlich multivariat (mehr-dimensional)  
=> Basis-Modell ist univariat (ein-dimensional)
- Ein Datensatz stammt oft aus mehr als einem erzeugenden Prozess  
=> Basis-Modell nimmt nur einen einzelnen genuinen erzeugenden Mechanismus an
- Anomalien können eine andere Klasse von Objekten sein (aus einem anderen Prozess erzeugt), die nicht besonders selten sind  
=> Basis-Modell nimmt an, dass Outlier sehr selten sind

Eine große Zahl von Methoden wurde entwickelt, um über die Basis-Annahmen hinauszugelangen. Dabei liegen jedoch stets andere, oft nicht explizite Annahmen zugrunde.

## Generelle Szenarien der Anwendung:

- supervised
  - in manchen Anwendungsgebieten gibt es Trainingsdaten mit normalen und ungewöhnlichen Fällen
  - es kann mehrere normale und ungewöhnliche Klassen geben
  - meist ist das Klassifikationsproblem unbalanciert
- semi-supervised
  - in manchen Szenarien gibt es Trainingsdaten nur für die normale oder nur für die ungewöhnliche Klasse
- unsupervised
  - in den meisten Szenarien gibt es keine Trainingsdaten

In dieser Vorlesung konzentrieren wir uns auf das unsupervised Szenario.

## Erkennung von Outliern

- Nebenprodukt von Clustering?
- Manche Cluster-Algorithmen ordnen nicht jeden Punkt einem Cluster zu, sondern lassen "Noise" übrig.
- Idee: Wende Cluster-Verfahren an, betrachte Noise als Outlier.
- Problem:
  - Clustering Algorithmen sind daraufhin entwickelt und optimiert, Cluster zu finden.
  - Qualität der Outlier Detection hängt von Qualität der Cluster-Struktur und der Eignung des Clustering Algorithmus für diese Struktur ab.
  - Mehrere Outlier, die einander ähnlich sind, bilden eventuell auch selbst ein (kleines) Cluster, können also nicht entdeckt werden.

## Klassifikation von Outlier Detection Algorithmen

- Globaler vs. lokaler Ansatz:  
Wird die “Outlierness” bestimmt bezüglich des gesamten Datensatzes (global) oder nur bezüglich einer Auswahl?
- Labeling vs. Scoring  
Bestimmt der Algorithmus den Outlier-Grad eines Punktes (Scoring) oder wird für jeden Punkt eine Entscheidung getroffen (Label: Outlier/kein Outlier)
- Eigenschaften des Outlier Modells  
Auf welchen Eigenschaften beruht die Modellierung von “Outlierness”

- Global vs. Lokal
  - bezieht sich auf die Auflösung der Referenzmenge bezüglich derer die “Outlierness” bestimmt wird
  - Globale Ansätze:
    - Referenzmenge enthält gesamten Datensatz
    - Basis-Annahme: nur ein einziger (normaler) erzeugender Mechanismus
    - Grundlegendes Problem: Outlier sind auch in Referenzmenge und verfälschen die Ergebnisse
  - Lokale Ansätze:
    - Referenzmenge enthält nur eine (kleine) Teilmenge des Datensatzes
    - Meist keine Annahme über Anzahl der Mechanismen
    - Grundlegendes Problem: wie ist eine geeignete Referenzmenge zu bestimmen?
  - Beachte: Manche Ansätze liegen dazwischen
    - Auflösung der Referenzmenge wird im Verfahren variiert

- Labeling vs. Scoring
  - bezieht sich auf das Ergebnis, das der Algorithmus liefert
  - Labeling Ansätze:
    - binäre Entscheidung
    - Daten-Objekt wird als Outlier markiert oder als normal
  - Scoring Ansätze:
    - kontinuierlicher Output: für jedes Objekt wird ein Score geliefert (z.B. die Wahrscheinlichkeit, ein Outlier zu sein)
    - Objekte können nach ihrem Score geordnet werden
  - Beachte:
    - Viele Scoring-Ansätze bestimmen nur die top-n Outlier (Parameter n wird durch Benutzer angegeben)
    - Scoring-Ansätze können grundsätzlich in Labeling-Ansätze transformiert werden, wenn ein geeigneter Grenzwert angegeben werden kann, dessen Überschreitung zum Label "Outlier" führt

- Klassen von zugrundeliegenden Modellen
  - Statistisches Modell
    - Überlegung:
      - Wende ein Modell an, das die normalen Daten statistisch beschreibt (z.B. Gauss-Verteilung)
      - Outlier sind Punkte, die nicht gut zu diesem Modell passen (eine geringe Erzeugungswahrscheinlichkeit haben)
    - Beispiele:
      - Wahrscheinlichkeitstests basierend auf statistischen Modellen
      - Tiefen-basierte Ansätze
      - Deviation-based Ansätze
      - Manche Subspace Outlier Detection Ansätze

- Modellierung durch räumliche Nähe
  - Überlegung:
    - Untersuche die räumliche Nachbarschaft jedes Punktes im Datenraum
    - Wenn die Nachbarschaft deutlich andere Struktur (z.B. geringere Dichte) aufweist als die Nachbarschaften von anderen Punkten, kann der betreffende Punkt als Outlier angesehen werden.
  - Beispiele:
    - Distanz-basierte Ansätze
    - Dichte-basierte Ansätze
    - Manche Subspace Outlier Detection Ansätze

- Modellierung durch Winkel-Spektrum
  - Überlegung:
    - Bestimme das Spektrum paarweiser Winkel zwischen einem gegebenen Punkt und anderen (alle? Auswahl?) Punkten
    - Outlier sind Punkte, die eine geringe Varianz haben

Im Folgenden:

Orientierung an den verschiedenen Modellierungen

## General idea

- Given a certain kind of statistical distribution (e.g., Gaussian)
- Compute the parameters assuming all data points have been generated by such a statistical distribution (e.g., mean and standard deviation)
- Outliers are points that have a low probability to be generated by the overall distribution (e.g., deviate more than 3 times the standard deviation from the mean)

## Basic assumption

- Normal data objects follow a (known) distribution and occur in a high probability region of this model
- Outliers deviate strongly from this distribution

A huge number of different tests are available differing in

- Type of data distribution (e.g. Gaussian)
- Number of variables, i.e., dimensions of the data objects (univariate/multivariate)
- Number of distributions (mixture models)
- Parametric versus non-parametric (e.g. histogram-based)

Example on the following slides

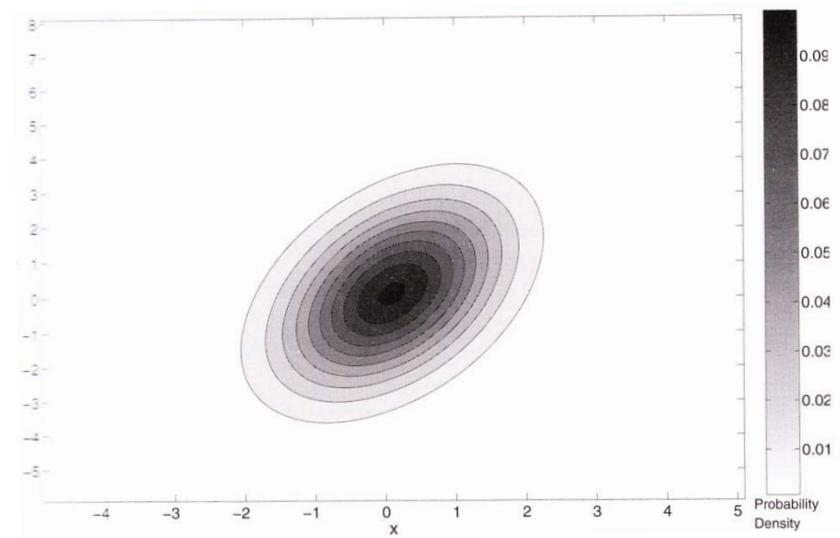
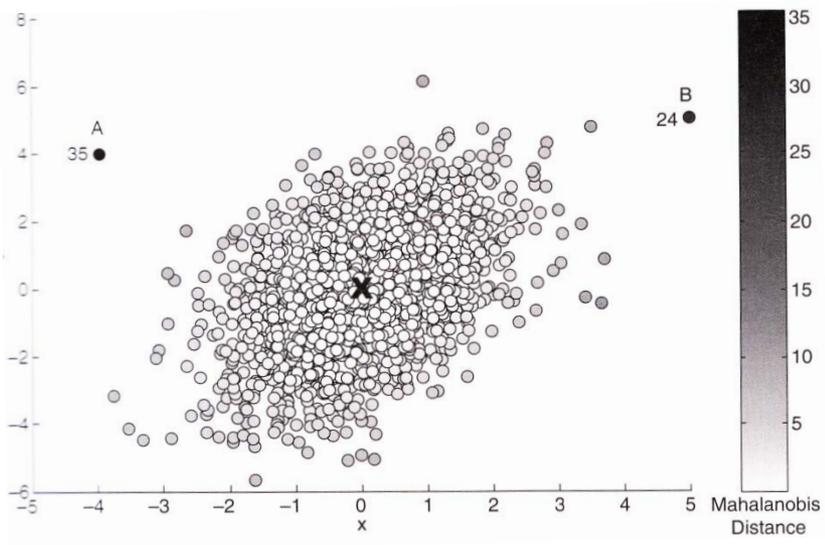
- Gaussian distribution
- Multivariate
- 1 model
- Parametric

## Probability density function of a multivariate normal distribution

$$N(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^d |\Sigma|}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x-\mu)}{2}}$$

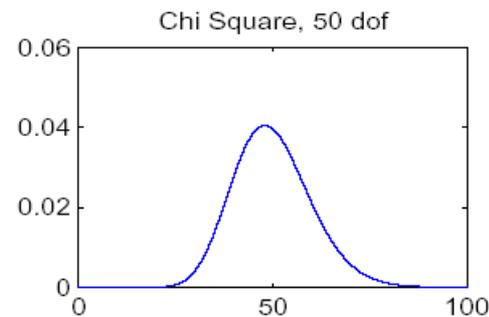
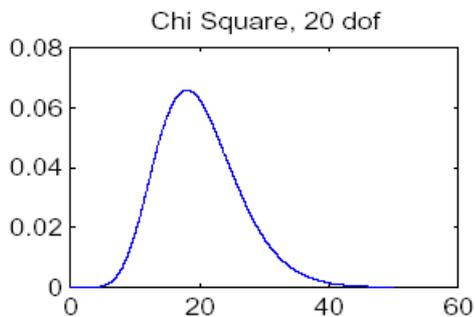
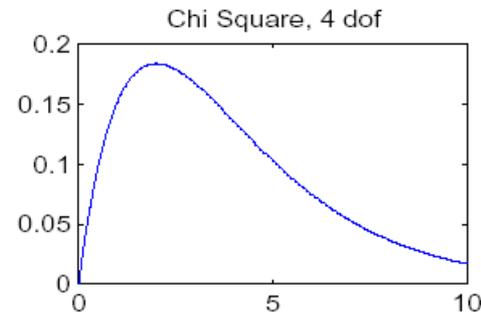
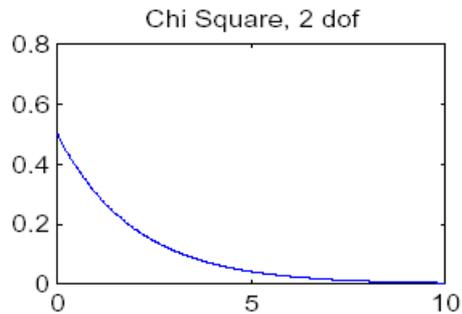
- $\mu$  is the mean value of all points (usually data are normalized such that  $\mu=0$ )
- $\Sigma$  is the covariance matrix from the mean
- $MDist(x, \mu) = (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)$  is the Mahalanobis distance of point  $x$  to  $\mu$
- MDist follows a  $\chi^2$ -distribution with  $d$  degrees of freedom ( $d =$  data dimensionality)
- All points  $x$ , with  $MDist(x, \mu) > \chi^2(0,975)$  [ $\approx 3 \cdot \sigma$ ]

## Visualization (2D) [Tan et al. 2006]



## Problems

- Curse of dimensionality
  - The larger the degree of freedom, the more similar the *MDist* values for all points



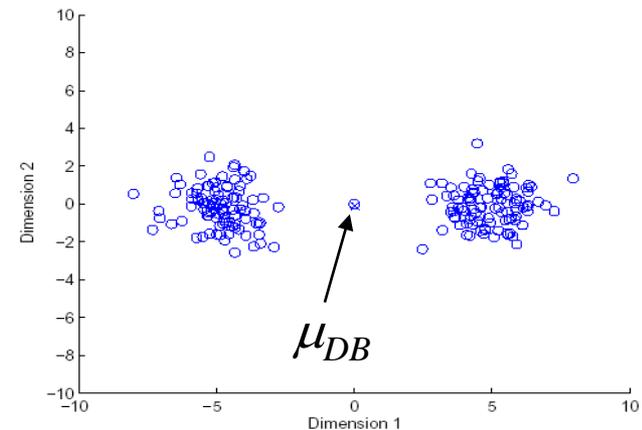
x-axis: observed *MDist* values  
y-axis: frequency of observation

## Problems (cont.)

- Robustness
    - Mean and standard deviation are very sensitive to outliers
    - These values are computed for the complete data set (including potential outliers)
    - The *MDist* is used to determine outliers although the *MDist* values are influenced by these outliers
- ⇒ Minimum Covariance Determinant [Rousseeuw and Leroy 1987]  
 minimizes the influence of outliers on the Mahalanobis distance

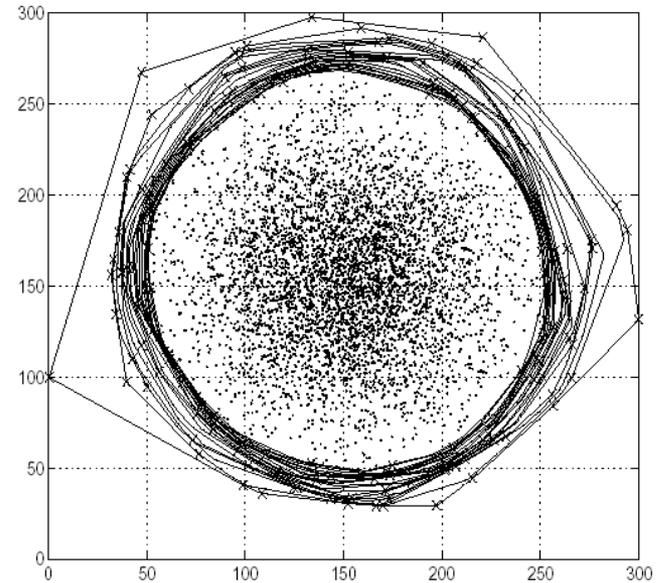
## Discussion

- Data distribution is fixed
- Low flexibility (no mixture model)
- Global method
- Outputs a label but can also output a score



## General idea

- Search for outliers at the border of the data space but independent of statistical distributions
- Organize data objects in convex hull layers
- Outliers are objects on outer layers



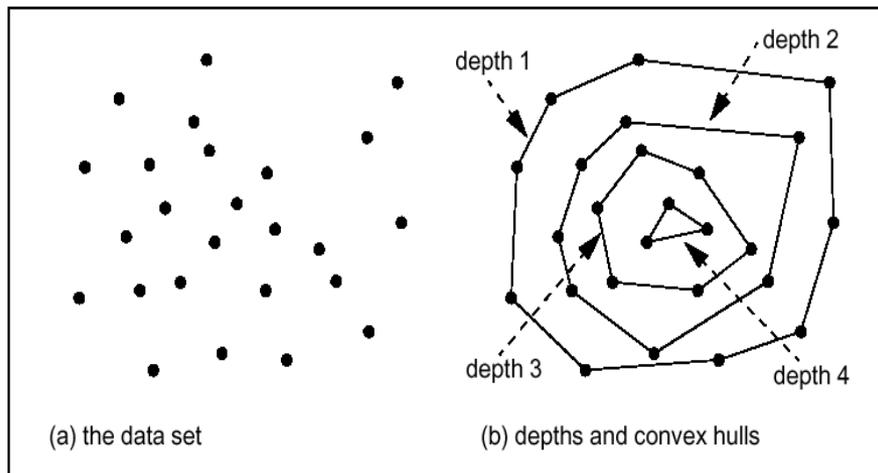
Picture taken from [Johnson et al. 1998]

## Basic assumption

- Outliers are located at the border of the data space
- Normal objects are in the center of the data space

## Model [Tukey 1977]

- Points on the convex hull of the full data space have depth = 1
- Points on the convex hull of the data set after removing all points with depth = 1 have depth = 2
- ...
- Points having a depth  $\leq k$  are reported as outliers



Picture taken from [Preparata and Shamos 1988]

## Sample algorithms

- ISODEPTH [Ruts and Rousseeuw 1996]
- FDC [Johnson et al. 1998]

## Discussion

- Similar idea like classical statistical approaches ( $k = 1$  distributions) but independent from the chosen kind of distribution
- Convex hull computation is usually only efficient in 2D / 3D spaces
- Originally outputs a label but can be extended for scoring easily (take depth as scoring value)
- Uses a global reference set for outlier detection

## General Idea

- Judge a point based on the distance(s) to its neighbors
- Several variants proposed

## Basic Assumption

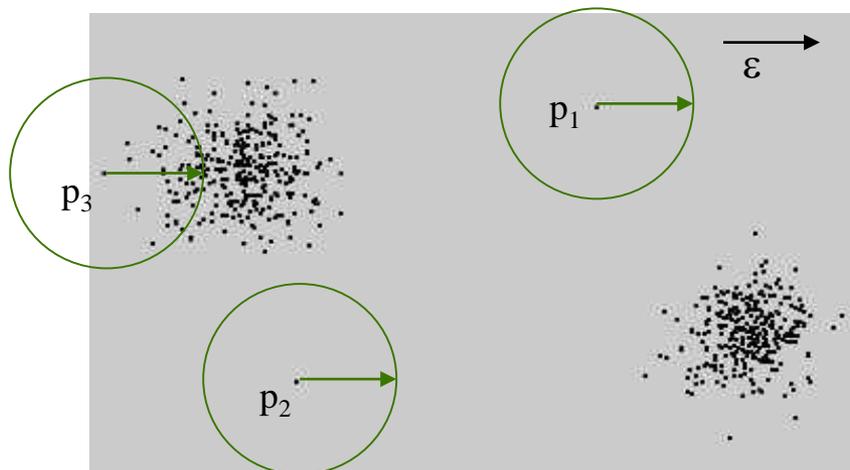
- Normal data objects have a dense neighborhood
- Outliers are far apart from their neighbors, i.e., have a less dense neighborhood

## DB( $\epsilon, \pi$ )-Outliers

- Basic model [Knorr and Ng 1997]
  - Given a radius  $\epsilon$  and a percentage  $\pi$
  - A point  $p$  is considered an outlier if at most  $\pi$  percent of all other points have a distance to  $p$  less than  $\epsilon$

$$OutlierSet(\epsilon, \pi) = \left\{ p \mid \frac{Card(\{q \in DB \mid dist(p, q) < \epsilon\})}{Card(DB)} \leq \pi \right\}$$

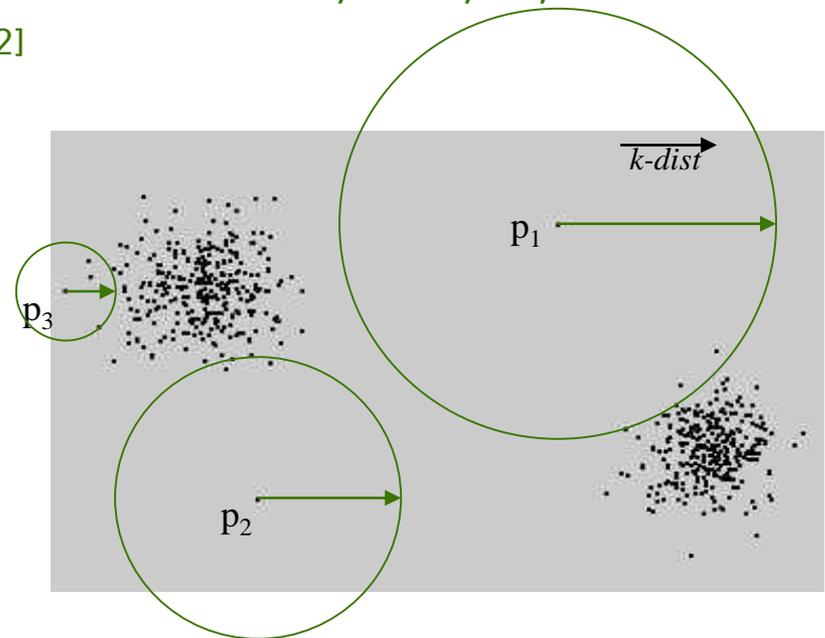
range-query with radius  $\epsilon$



## Outlier scoring based on $k$ NN distances

- General models
  - Take the  $k$ NN distance of a point as its outlier score [Ramaswamy et al 2000]
  - Aggregate the distances of a point to all its 1NN, 2NN, ...,  $k$ NN as an outlier score [Angiulli and Pizzuti 2002]

- DB-Outlier:  
binary-decision
- $k$ NN-Outlier:  
ranking

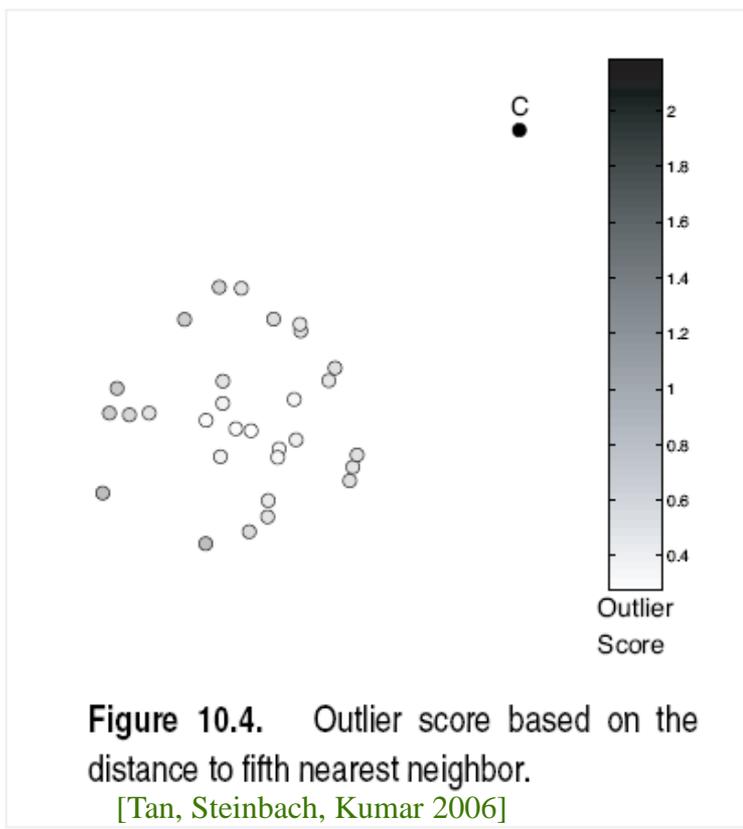


- $k$ NN-Outlier can be roughly considered Schönfinkeled or Curried version of DB-Outlier

# $k^{th}$ nearest neighbor based I

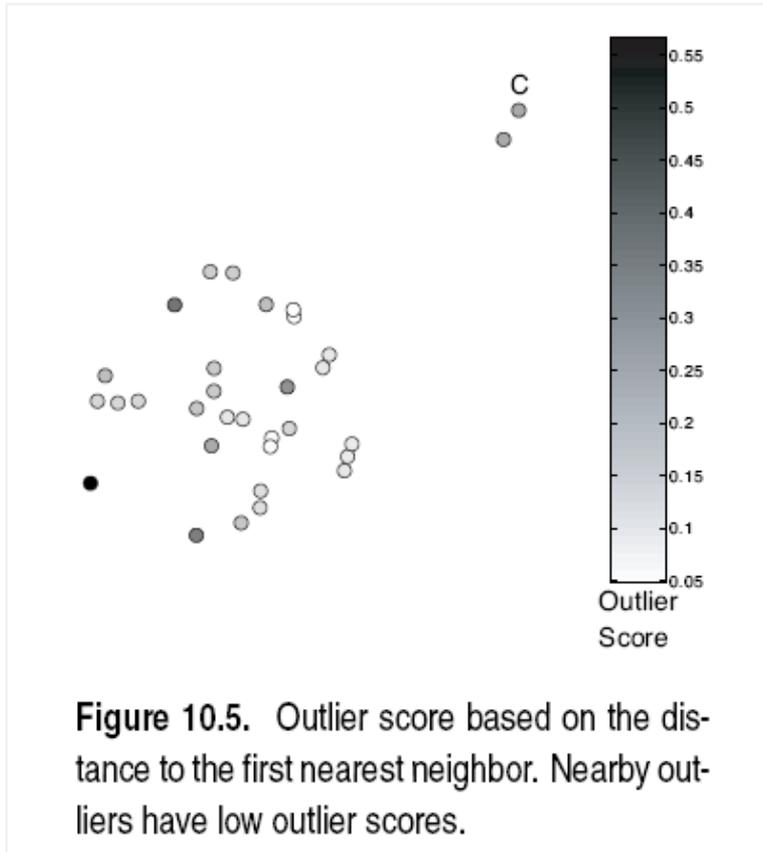
The outlier score of an object is given by the distance to its  $k$ -nearest neighbor.

- theoretically lowest outlier score: 0

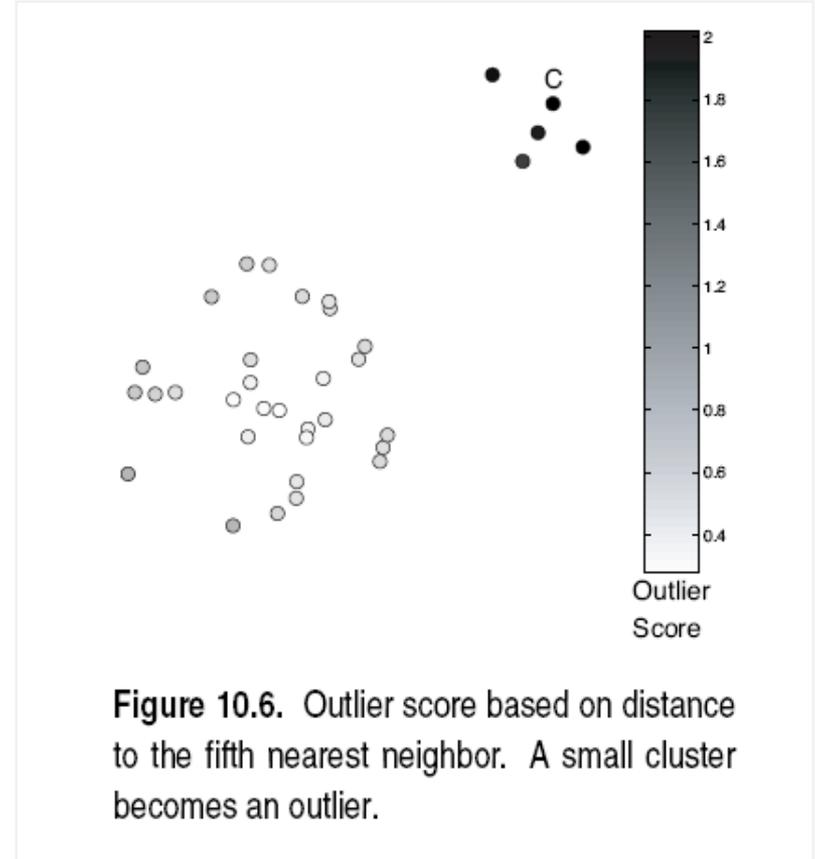


k=5

- The outlier score is highly sensitive to the value of  $k$



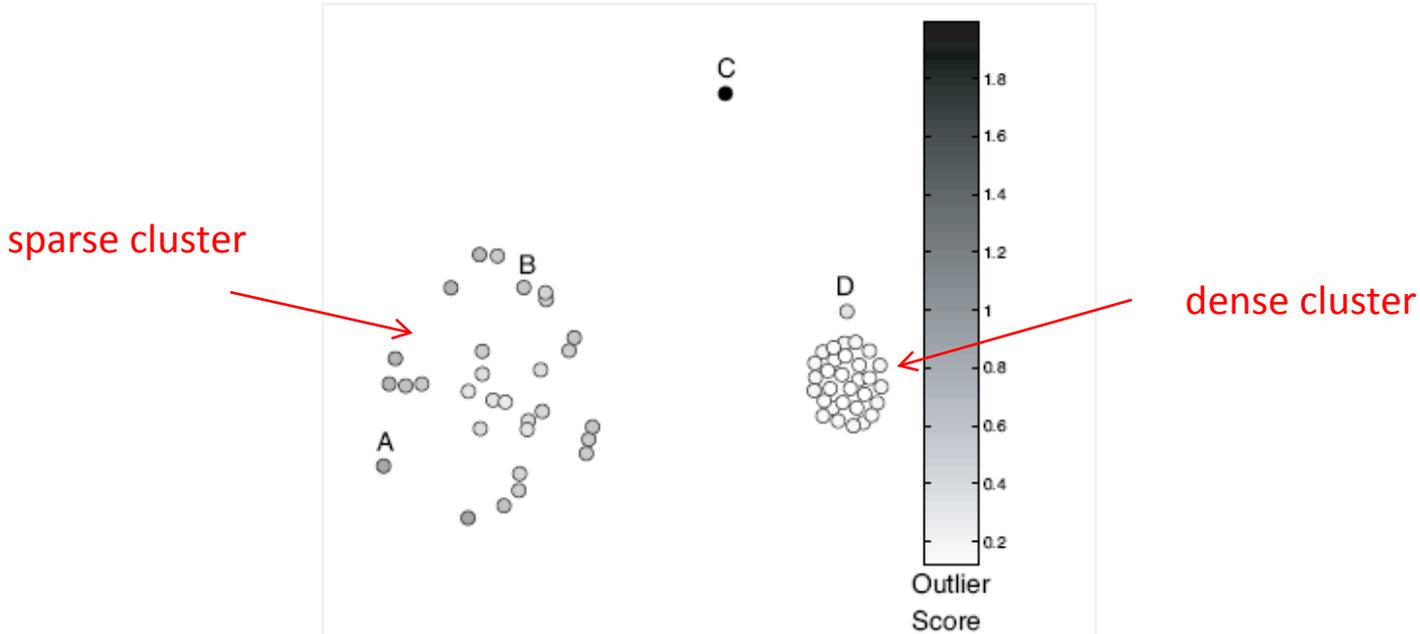
If  $k$  is too small, then a small number of close neighbors can cause low outlier scores.



If  $k$  is too large, then all objects in a cluster with less than  $k$  objects might become outliers.

# $k^{th}$ nearest neighbor based III

- cannot handle datasets with regions of widely different densities due to the global threshold



**Figure 10.7.** Outlier score based on the distance to the fifth nearest neighbor. Clusters of differing density. [Tan, Steinbach, Kumar 2006]

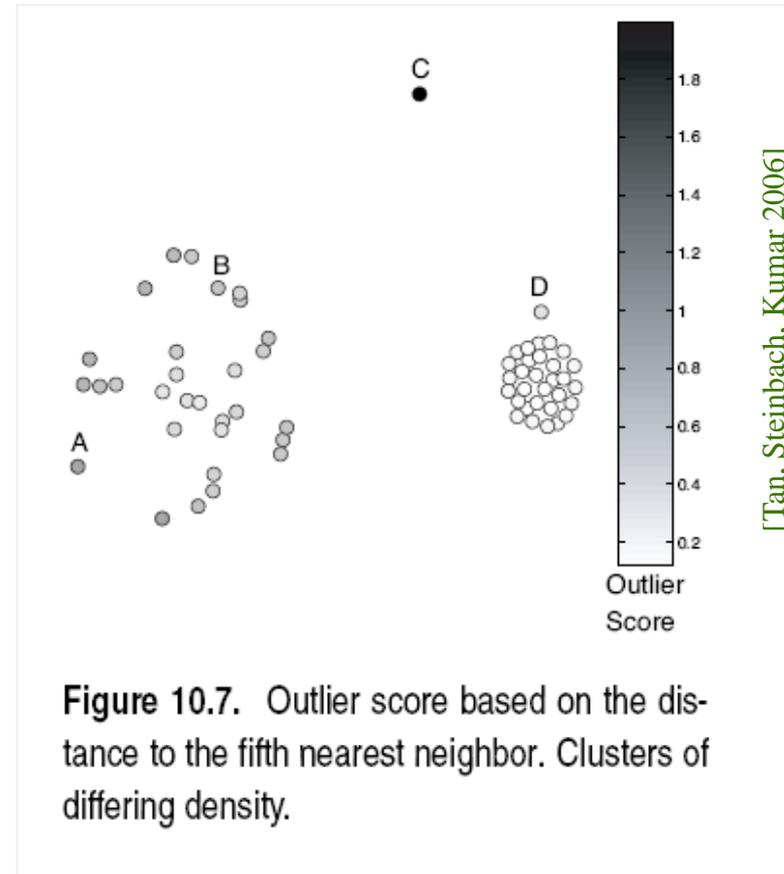
## General idea

- Compare the density around a point with the density around its local neighbors.
- The relative density of a point compared to its neighbors is computed as an outlier score.
- Approaches also differ in how to estimate density.

## Basic assumption

- The density around a normal data object is similar to the density around its neighbors.
- The density around an outlier is considerably different to the density around its neighbors.

- Different definitions of density:
  - e.g., # points within a specified distance  $d$  from the given object
- The choice of  $d$  is critical
  - If  $d$  is too small many normal points might be considered outliers
  - If  $d$  is too large, many outlier points will be considered as normal
- A global notion of density is problematic (as it is in clustering)
  - fails when data contain regions of different densities
- Solution: use a notion of density that is relative to the neighborhood of the object



D has a higher absolute density than A but compared to its neighborhood, D's density is lower.

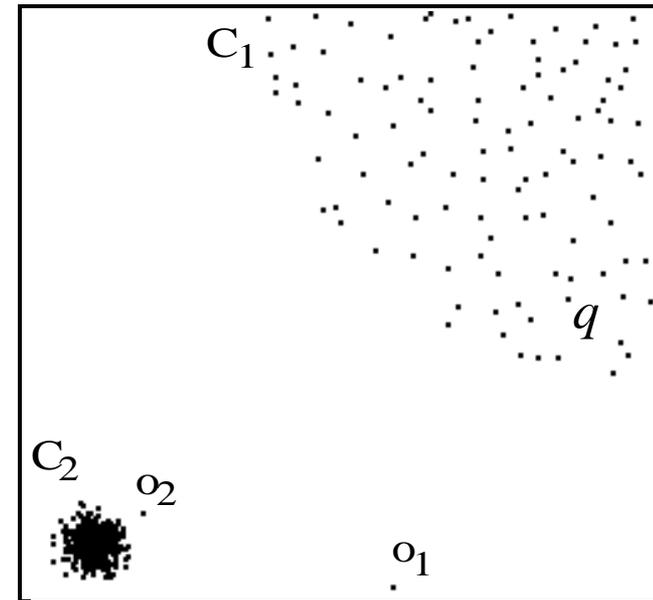
## Local Outlier Factor (LOF) [Breunig et al. 1999, 2000]

### – Motivation:

- Distance-based outlier detection models have problems with different densities
- How to compare the neighborhood of points from areas of different densities?

### • Example

- DB( $\epsilon, \pi$ )-outlier model
  - » Parameters  $\epsilon$  and  $\pi$  cannot be chosen so that  $o_2$  is an outlier but none of the points in cluster  $C_1$  (e.g.  $q$ ) is an outlier
- Outliers based on kNN-distance
  - » kNN-distances of objects in  $C_1$  (e.g.  $q$ ) are larger than the kNN-distance of  $o_2$



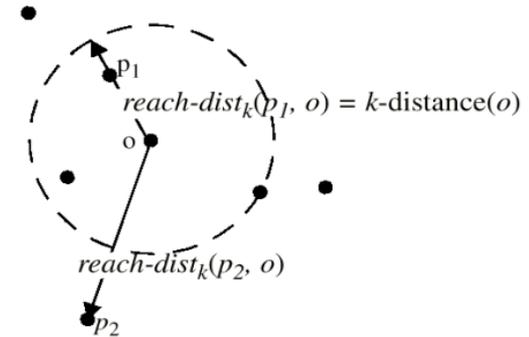
### – Solution: consider relative density

## – Model

- Reachability “distance”

- Introduces a smoothing factor

$$reach-dist_k(p, o) = \max\{k\text{-distance}(o), dist(p, o)\}$$



- Local reachability density (*lrd*) of point  $p$

- Inverse of the average reach-dists of the  $k$ NNs of  $p$

$$lrd_k(p) = 1 / \left( \frac{\sum_{o \in kNN(p)} reach-dist_k(p, o)}{Card(kNN(p))} \right)$$

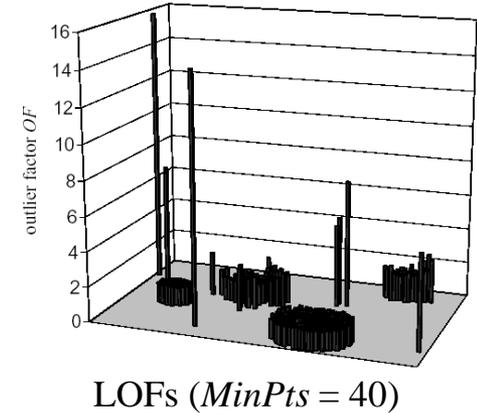
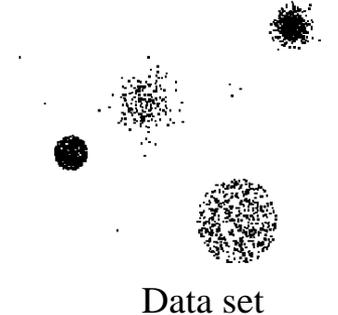
- Local outlier factor (LOF) of point  $p$

- Average ratio of *lrds* of neighbors of  $p$  and *lrd* of  $p$

$$LOF_k(p) = \frac{\sum_{o \in kNN(p)} \frac{lrd_k(o)}{lrd_k(p)}}{Card(kNN(p))}$$

## – Properties

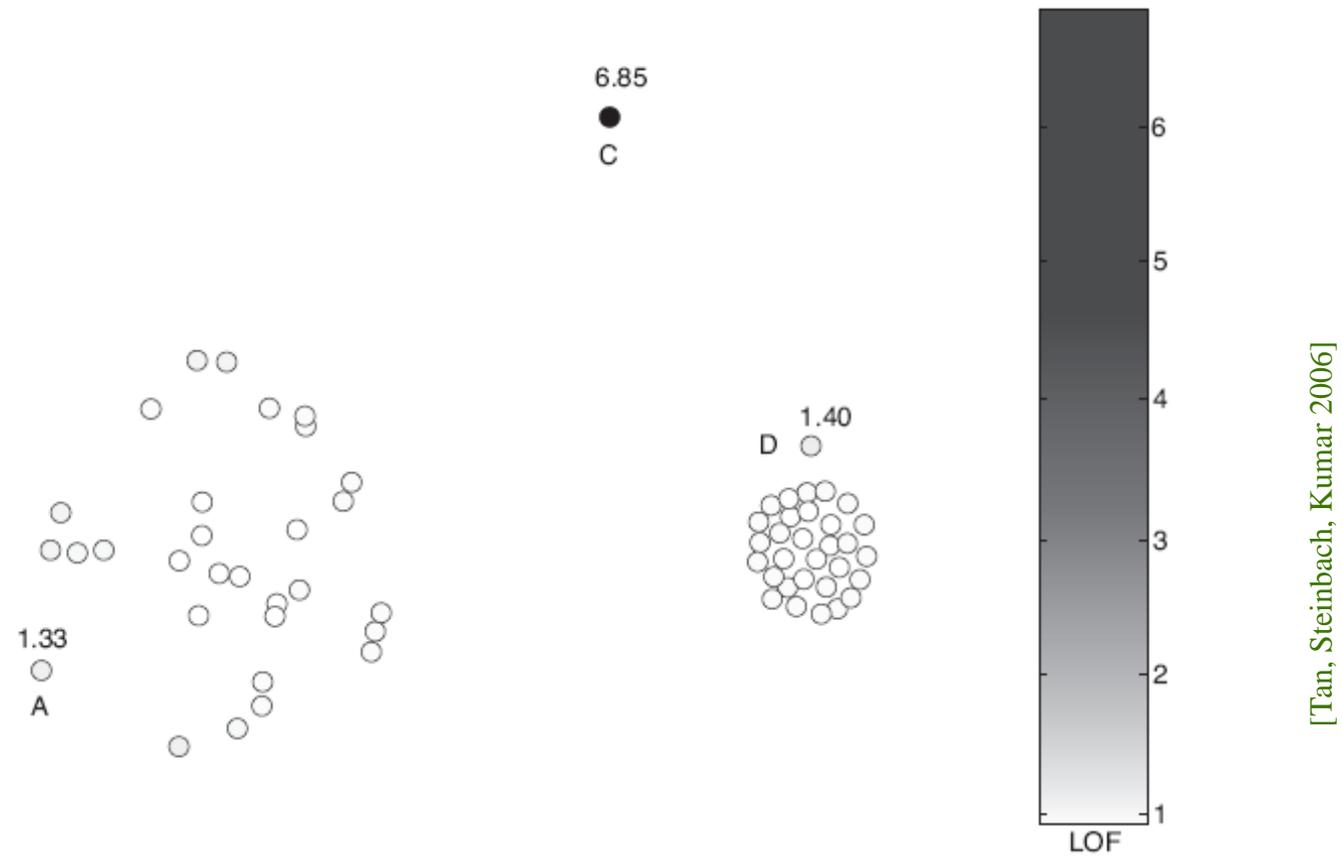
- $LOF \approx 1$ : point is in a cluster (region with homogeneous density around the point and its neighbors)
- $LOF \gg 1$ : point is an outlier



## – Discussion

- Choice of  $k$  ( $MinPts$  in the original paper) specifies the reference set
- Originally implements a local approach (resolution depends on the user's choice for  $k$ )
- Outputs a scoring (assigns an LOF value to each point)

# Density-based Approaches



[Tan, Steinbach, Kumar 2006]

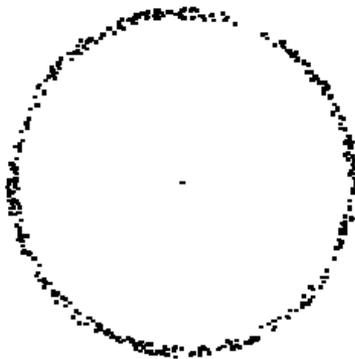
Figure 10.8. Relative density (LOF) outlier scores for two-dimensional points of Figure 10.7.

## Variants of LOF

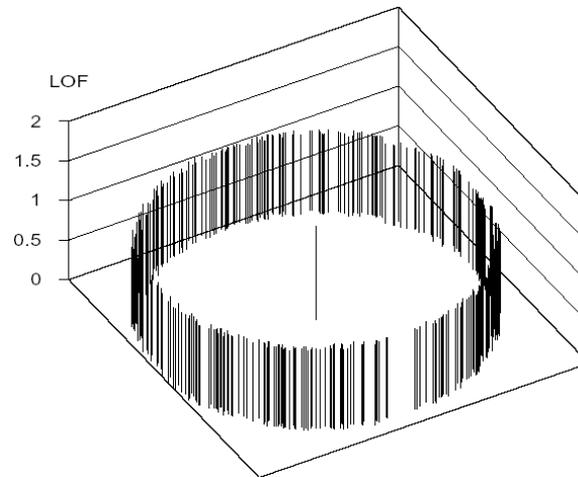
- Mining top- $n$  local outliers [Jin et al. 2001]
  - Idea:
    - Usually, a user is only interested in the top- $n$  outliers
    - Do not compute the LOF for all data objects => save runtime
  - Method
    - Compress data points into micro clusters using the CFs of BIRCH [Zhang et al. 1996]
    - Derive upper and lower bounds of the reachability distances, lrd-values, and LOF-values for points within a micro clusters
    - Compute upper and lower bounds of LOF values for micro clusters and sort results w.r.t. ascending lower bound
    - Prune micro clusters that cannot accommodate points among the top- $n$  outliers ( $n$  highest LOF values)
    - Iteratively refine remaining micro clusters and prune points accordingly

## Variants of LOF (cont.)

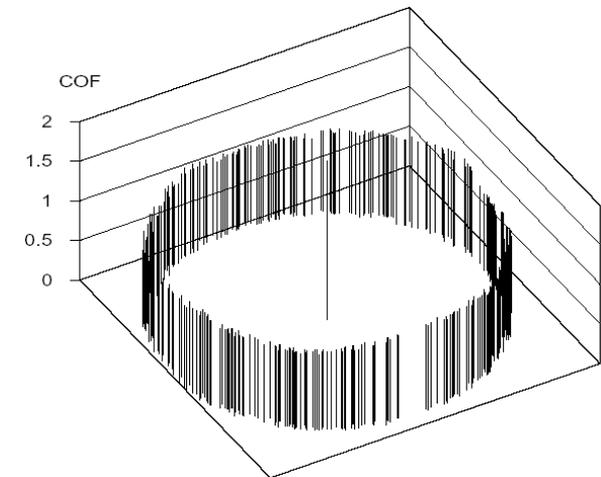
- Connectivity-based outlier factor (COF) [Tang et al. 2002]
  - Motivation
    - In regions of low density, it may be hard to detect outliers
    - Choose a low value for  $k$  is often not appropriate
  - Solution
    - Treat “low density” and “isolation” differently
  - Example



Data set



LOF

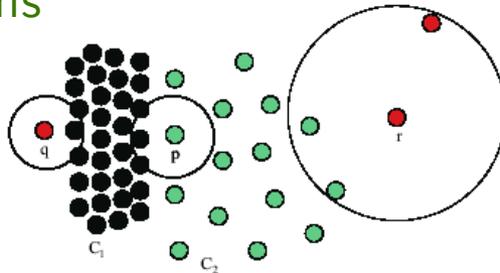


COF

## Influenced Outlierness (INFLO) [Jin et al. 2006]

### – Motivation

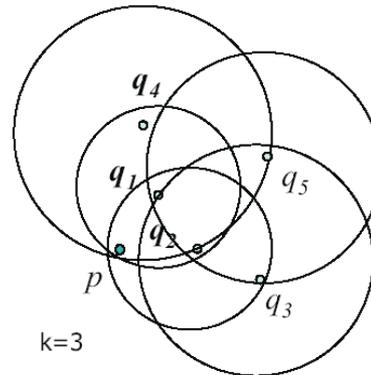
- If clusters of different densities are not clearly separated, LOF will have problems



Point  $p$  will have a higher LOF than points  $q$  or  $r$  which is counter intuitive

### – Idea

- Take symmetric neighborhood relationship into account
- Influence space ( $kIS(p)$ ) of a point  $p$  includes its  $k$ NNs ( $kNN(p)$ ) and its reverse  $k$ NNs ( $RkNN(p)$ )



$$kIS(p) = kNN(p) \cup RkNN(p) \\ = \{q_1, q_2, q_4\}$$

## – Model

- Density is simply measured by the inverse of the  $k$ NN distance, i.e.,  
 $den(p) = 1/k\text{-distance}(p)$

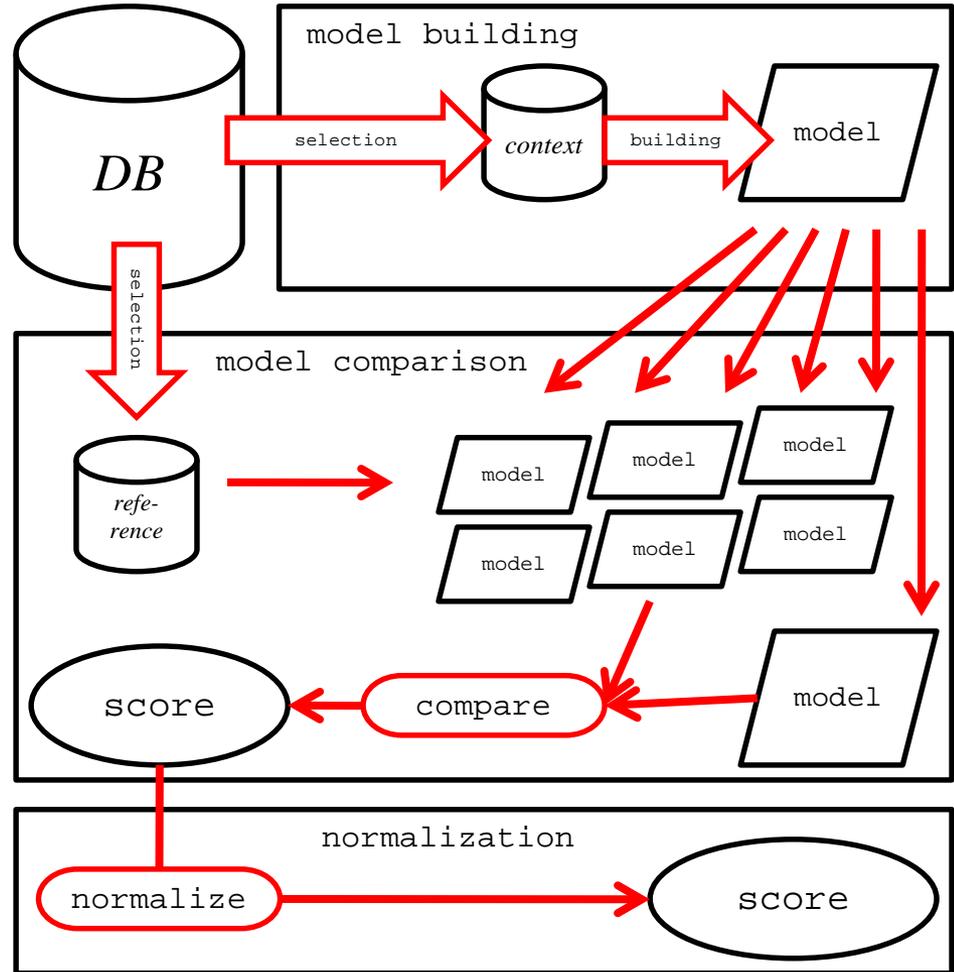
- Influenced outlierness of a point  $p$

$$INFLO_k(p) = \frac{\frac{\sum_{o \in kIS(p)} den(o)}{Card(kIS(p))}}{den(p)}$$

- INFLO takes the ratio of the average density of objects in the neighborhood of a point  $p$  (i.e., in  $kNN(p) \cup RkNN(p)$ ) to  $p$ 's density

general scheme [Schubert et al. 2012]:

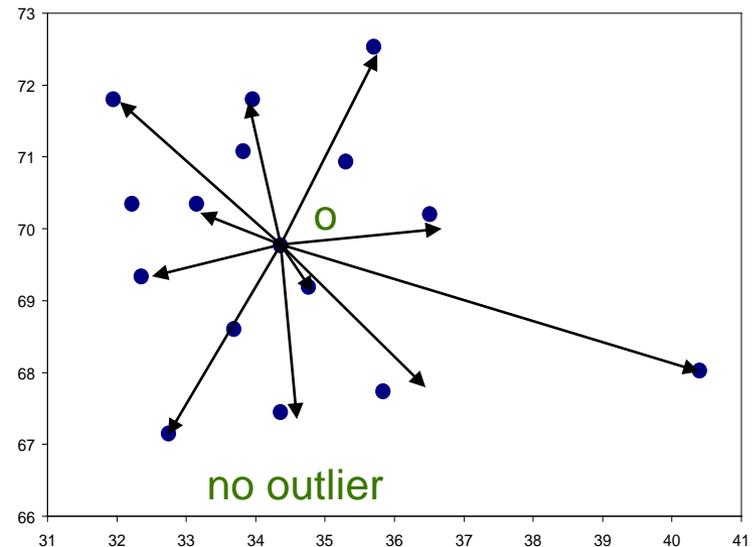
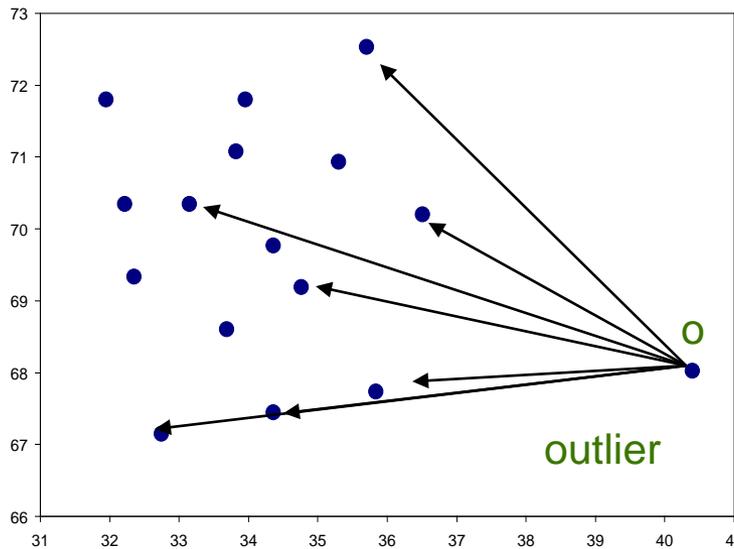
- context set for model building
- reference set for model comparison
- both, context set and reference set, could be:
  - identical
  - local
  - global
- outlier models come in degrees of "locality"



## ABOD – angle-based outlier degree [Kriegel et al. 2008]

### – Rational

- Angles are more stable than distances in high dimensional spaces (cf. e.g. the popularity of cosine-based similarity measures for text data)
- Object  $o$  is an outlier if most other objects are located in similar directions
- Object  $o$  is no outlier if many other objects are located in varying directions

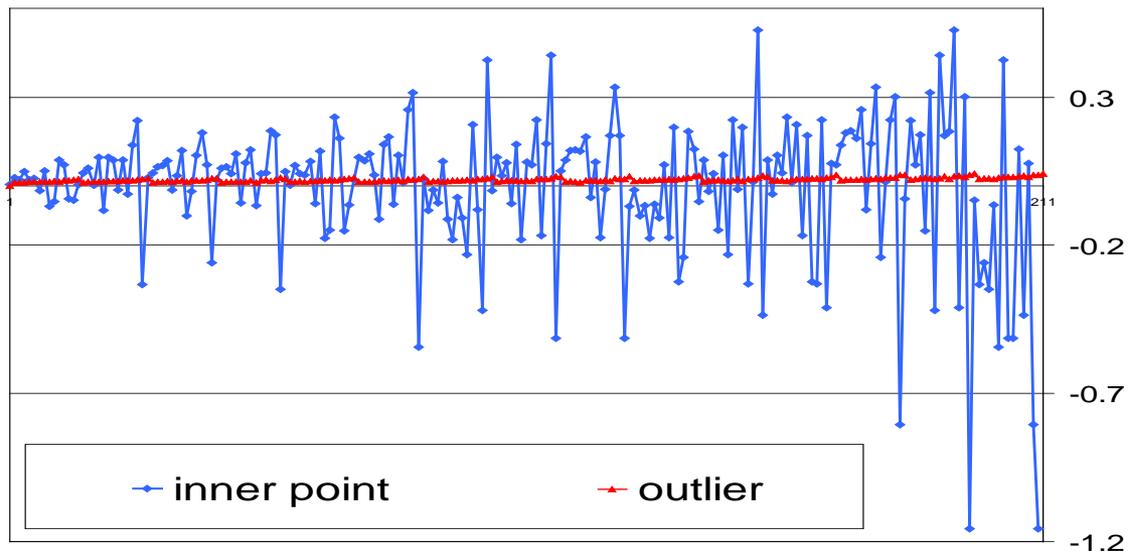
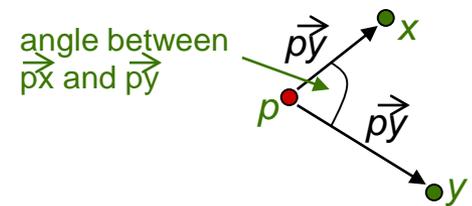


## – Basic assumption

- Outliers are at the border of the data distribution
- Normal points are in the center of the data distribution

## – Model

- Consider for a given point  $p$  the angle between  $\vec{p_x}$  and  $\vec{p_y}$  for any two  $x, y$  from the database
- Consider the spectrum of all these angles
- The broadness of this spectrum is a score for the outlierness of a point



- Model (cont.)
  - Measure the variance of the angle spectrum
  - Weighted by the corresponding distances (for lower dimensional data sets where angles are less reliable)

$$ABOD(p) = \text{VAR}_{x,y \in DB} \left( \frac{\left\langle \begin{matrix} \vec{\phantom{x}} \\ xp, yp \end{matrix} \right\rangle}{\left\| \begin{matrix} \vec{\phantom{x}} \\ xp \end{matrix} \right\|^2 \cdot \left\| \begin{matrix} \vec{\phantom{x}} \\ yp \end{matrix} \right\|^2} \right)$$

- Properties
  - Small ABOD => outlier
  - High ABOD => no outlier

- Algorithms
  - Naïve algorithm is in  $O(n^3)$
  - Approximate algorithm based on random sampling for mining top- $n$  outliers
    - Do not consider all pairs of other points  $x,y$  in the database to compute the angles
    - Compute ABOD based on samples  $\Rightarrow$  lower bound of the real ABOD
    - Filter out points that have a high lower bound
    - Refine (compute the exact ABOD value) only for a small number of points
- Discussion
  - Global approach to outlier detection
  - Outputs an outlier score  
(inversely scaled:
    - high ABOD score  $\Rightarrow$  inlier,
    - low ABOD score  $\Rightarrow$  outlier)

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# Was haben Sie gelernt?

- Outlier: Intuition, aber auch Vagheit des Konzepts
- Kategorien, Eigenschaften von Outlier-Modellen
- Probabilistisches Modell
- Distanz-basierte Modelle
  - DB-Outlier
  - kNN-basierte Modelle
- Dichte-basierte Modelle
  - LOF: Motivation, Modell
  - Varianten von LOF (top-n, connectivity, influence set)
- Lokalität
- Winkel-basiertes Modell