Deep Context-Aware Novelty Detection

Ellen Rushe  
School of Computer Science  
University College Dublin  
ellen.rushe@insight-centre.org

Brian Mac Namee  
School of Computer Science  
University College Dublin  
brian.macnamee@ucd.ie

Abstract

A common assumption of novelty detection is that the distribution of both “normal” and “novel” data are static. This, however, is often not the case—for example scenarios where data evolves over time or where the definition of normal and novel depends on contextual information both lead to changes in these distributions. This can lead to significant difficulties when attempting to train a model on datasets where the distribution of normal data in one scenario is similar to that of novel data in another scenario. In this paper we propose a context-aware approach to novelty detection for deep autoencoders to address these difficulties. We create a semi-supervised network architecture that utilises auxiliary labels to reveal contextual information and allow the model to adapt to a variety of contexts in which the definitions of normal and novel change. We evaluate our approach on both image data and real world audio data displaying these characteristics and show that the performance of individually trained models can be achieved in a single model.

1 Introduction

Novelty, or anomaly, detection is often framed as a task where the definition of “normal”, or data that has been “seen” before, is static. Furthermore, the nature of what is “novel” is often also assumed to be fixed. In real world scenarios, however, these assumptions are often invalid: the nature of normality and novelty may evolve as a function of time or depend on the context in which data is observed [2]. This paper addresses the latter scenario. There are many situations where an event that is normal in one context, may be considered novel in another. For example the sound of an ice-cream truck on a sunny day versus the same sound in the middle of the night. The notion of context is particularly useful when one considers the lack of labelled data inherent in novelty detection. In many novelty detection scenarios it is not practical to build individualized models for each context and so it would be useful to have an effective way to build novelty detection models that can effectively utilize data from multiple contexts to build a single, accurate model. Such a model would exploit two types of features: behavioral features that are ubiquitous across all contexts and contextual features that depend on context [2]. This motivates a semi-supervised approach where the detection algorithm is conditioned on context, and therefore context-aware.

In this paper we propose the Context-Aware Novelty Detection autoEncoder (CANDE), a novel approach to detecting contextual anomalies based on conditioned autoencoder neural networks. In experiments using two datasets, including a large real world dataset, we show that shifts in context degrade detection but that a single CANDE model can alleviate this degradation, removing the necessity for individual models to be trained for each context.

2 Related Work

There is a significant amount of existing work using deep learning for novelty detection. Golan et al. [4] use a discriminative learning strategy for detecting anomalies in images by training a network
to recognise transformations applied to images, and flagging anomalies when these transformations cannot be recognised. Pidhorskyi et al. [11] combined adversarial losses with reconstruction error in order to compute the likelihood of samples being generated from an inlier distribution. Gong et al. [5] use a memory augmented network to learn a fixed number of sparse representations of the normal data via a content addressable memory and retrieve these representations at test time via an attention mechanism. This way, only normal representations learned at training time can be retrieved, resulting in a poor reconstruction error for anomalous queries. Nguyen et al. [8] addressed the issue of high likelihood being assigned to anomalous regions using a variational autoencoder that learned multi-model distributions using multiple hypothesis networks [14] along with a discriminator network that prevented the network from assigning high likelihood to non-existent input regions.

There is little research on deep contextual novelty detection. Shulman [16] used variational autoencoders to reconstruct contextual and behavioural features separately. A continual learning approach using generative replay [15] as a data augmentation strategy was taken by Wiewel et al. [17] for streaming data scenarios where past data is unavailable when retraining models on new incoming data. Araya et al. [11] used historical sensor data alongside contextual features with autoencoders for novelty detection in smart buildings. Komatsu et al. [6] proposed a scene-dependent acoustic event detector. This used I-vectors, a low-dimensional embedding based on factor analysis of the difference between a Universal Background Model and a short audio segment-specific model, as an additional input to a WaveNet [9] model. This work is perhaps closest the proposal in this paper. Our proposed approach however, is not domain-specific and differs in both the method of embedding and the conditioning mechanism used.

3 Context-Aware Novelty Detection Autoencoder

We propose the Context-Aware Novelty Detection autoEncoder (CANDE), an approach that dynamically adapts the output of a standard deep novelty detector to contextual features. The advantage of this architecture is that it allows a single model to be trained for disparate contexts. The architecture includes two components: a deep autoencoder and a contextual encoding function. We define a deep autoencoder with an encoder network \( f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \), with network weights \( \theta^c \) where \( m \) is the dimension of the encoding \( z \); and a decoder network \( g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \) with network weights \( \theta^d \).

To encourage this autoencoder to adapt to contextual information, and thereby modulate its output depending on context, the network is conditioned using an auxiliary context label. The auxiliary context label denotes some form of partitioning of the dataset which indicates the context from which the data was derived. Context is recorded in a training dataset through a set of auxiliary labels, \( (C_i)_{i \in I} \). Crucially, these labels do not contain any information about the nature of anomalies but only serve as a more fine-grained representation of each normal example used to train the network. To condition the deep autoencoder in CANDE, we use the Feature-wise Linear Modulation (FiLM) [10] network conditioning strategy. This is illustrated in Figure 1. An affine transformation is applied the \( k \)th layer of the network, denoted by \( z_k \in \mathbb{R}^q \), using scaling and shifting factors \( \gamma_k \) and \( \beta_k \). These factors are derived using the context vector \( h_c \in \mathbb{R}^p \) as follows:

\[
\gamma_k = h_c W_{\gamma k} + b_{\gamma k} \quad (1) \\
\beta_k = h_c W_{\beta k} + b_{\beta k} \quad (2)
\]

where \( W_{\gamma k} \) and \( W_{\beta k} \) are weight matrices corresponding to \( \gamma_k \) and \( \beta_k \), and \( b_{\gamma k} \) and \( b_{\beta k} \) represent their respective bias vectors. The context vector \( h_c \) can be a one-hot-encoding of the context label or a more complex representation, such as an embedding. The transformations in equations 1 and 2 are performed such that their output will be of dimension \( q \), thus aligning with that of the layer to be conditioned, \( z_k \). Conditioning is performed using an element-wise affine transformation [10]:

\[
z_k' = \gamma_k \odot z_k + \beta_k \quad (3)
\]

After this transformation, the output of this layer, \( z_k' \), is passed through a ReLU [3] non-linearity. With conditioning, the encoder and decoder network of the autoencoder, \( f \) and \( g \), are now not only functions of their inputs, \( x \) and \( z' \) respectively, and their learned parameters, but also \( h_c \):

\[
z' = f(x, h_c; \theta^c) \quad (4) \\
x' = g(z', h_c; \theta^d) \quad (5)
\]

1This layer-by-layer conditioning is also in contrast with a previous approach to autoencoder conditioning proposed by [13] where simply the layer before the “bottleneck” is conditioned.
Figure 1: For a layer $k$, a label corresponding to the context of a particular example is transformed according to Equations 1 and 2. The conditioned layer corresponds to the layer after being scaled by $\gamma_k$ and shifted by $\beta_k$. These operations occur at each layer in the network.

4 Experiments

We use two datasets in our experiments: a novelty detection dataset based on the MNIST dataset and the MIMII dataset, a large dataset capturing a real-world novelty detection scenario using audio recorded from industrial machines.

MNIST: We replicate contextual novelties artificially using the MNIST dataset \[7\]. This is done in order to mimic the phenomenon of different contexts in novelty detection in a controlled setting where we can observe the effects of conditioning more clearly. The MNIST dataset is partitioned into different “contexts”. A context denotes a set of classes from the dataset. This set of classes is considered “normal” for that context. Let \( C_i \) denote a set of different contexts in dataset \( D \), where \( \forall i,j \in I : i \neq j \Rightarrow C_i \cap C_j = \emptyset \). To simulate contextual anomalies, we then relabel data as being ‘normal’ or ‘novel’ and create scenarios where in one context images of a specific digit are ‘novel’, whereas in another context images of the same digit are considered ‘normal’. This is illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Example of MNIST dataset configuration. C1, C2 and C3 refer to Context 1, 2 and 3.

MIMII: As an example of a real-world novelty detection problem, we use the recently proposed MIMII public dataset \[12\] which consists of industrial machine sounds recorded from a number of different machine types and models. The task requires novel audio to be detected in 10-second audio segments, where a novel audio segment might indicate a machine about to fail. As in the original benchmarks in \[12\], in our experiments we use a representation of audio segments that consists of five frames of 64 log-mel spectrogram filters derived from the first channel of audio with a frame size of 1,024 and a hop-length of 512. In the public MIMII dataset four different types of machine were recorded: ‘valve’, ‘pump’, ‘fan’ and ‘slide rail’. The machine types and models define the different contexts in this scenario. Recordings from four different models of each machine are included.

For all autoencoder models mean squared error (MSE) is used as the cost function. To calculate a novelty score, the MSE is calculated between a test example, \( x_i \), and its reconstruction, \( \hat{x}_i \). We base our evaluation on the Area Under the Receiver Operator Characteristic (ROC) Curve (AUC). This measures the ability of the models to generate accurate novelty scores without requiring a novelty classification threshold to be set. Three different types of models are compared in our experiments:

Individual Models: For each context, an individual autoencoder model was trained in order to ascertain the best performance possible given a model trained on a particular context without intrusion of other normal contexts.
Unconditioned Combined Models: An Unconditioned Combined Model takes all data from all contexts and combines them to train a single novelty detection model. In the case of MNIST this means that, in the test set, there will be instances where two examples that are drawn from the same distribution (for instance two "0" digits) will have opposite labels. This represents an extreme overlap between normal and novel distributions. In the case of the MIMII data, this effect is more subtle, as the combined dataset simply includes examples from all machine models. We use unconditioned combined models as a benchmark against which to compare conditioned models.

One-hot-encoded CANDE Combined Models: A one-hot-encoded vector containing the ID of each context was used for conditioning in the CANDE models used in this experiment.

5 Results & Conclusion

Table 1: Each model was trained and evaluated with ten different random weight initializations for MNIST and three for the MIMII dataset. (a) AUC for MNIST dataset with three artificially created contexts. (b) AUC shows results for the MIMII dataset. AUCs are calculated for each machine type and ID and averaged over three different signal-to-noise ratios.

(a)

| Normal digits | Novel digit | AE separate (reference) | AE uncond. | CANDE one hot |
|---------------|-------------|--------------------------|------------|---------------|
| 0, 1, 2       | 3           | 0.945                    | 0.609      | 0.921         |
| 3, 4, 5       | 6           | 0.944                    | 0.491      | 0.916         |
| 6, 7, 8       | 0           | 0.935                    | 0.518      | 0.893         |

(b)

| Model ID | AE separate (reference) | AE uncond. | CANDE one hot |
|----------|--------------------------|------------|---------------|
| 00       | 0.663                    | 0.614      | 0.647         |
| 02       | 0.850                    | 0.747      | 0.845         |
| 04       | 0.748                    | 0.714      | 0.764         |
| 06       | 0.930                    | 0.773      | 0.904         |
| 00       | 0.609                    | 0.466      | 0.626         |
| 02       | 0.519                    | 0.426      | 0.430         |
| 04       | 0.950                    | 0.737      | 0.938         |
| 06       | 0.805                    | 0.647      | 0.775         |
| 00       | 0.973                    | 0.968      | 0.964         |
| 02       | 0.860                    | 0.796      | 0.847         |
| 04       | 0.765                    | 0.755      | 0.840         |
| 06       | 0.625                    | 0.668      | 0.636         |
| 00       | 0.540                    | 0.362      | 0.507         |
| 02       | 0.619                    | 0.647      | 0.635         |
| 04       | 0.625                    | 0.504      | 0.594         |
| 06       | 0.651                    | 0.565      | 0.590         |

Table 1(a) shows the performance of the different models trained on MNIST. The separate autoencoder models trained for each context perform very well, however, there is a huge degradation in performance when the combined model is trained without conditioning. This is not surprising given the degree of overlap between the novel and normal classes in the three different contexts. Comparing the results of CANDE to the unconditioned combined model shows the clear improvement provided by contextual conditioning, and demonstrates that performance similar to that achieved with three separate models is possible using a single model with conditioning.

The MIMII dataset provides a more realistic view of novelty detection in real world scenarios with data arising from a number of sources. Table 1(b) shows the results on the MIMII dataset. The need for conditioning is clearly illustrated by the degradation between the performance of the separate models and the performance of the combined models without conditioning, though not as extreme as in MNIST. In all but a few cases, CANDE models outperform unconditioned models. We have therefore been able to show that context-aware architectures clearly outperform their unconditioned counterparts in nearly all cases, especially where there is a high degree of overlap between normal and novel labels. The results from both datasets demonstrate that this architecture can recover much of the performance lost by training a single model on all data combined and in some cases can even out-perform individually trained models.

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