Identifying witnesses to noise transients in ground-based gravitational-wave observations with matrix and tensor factorization techniques

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Abstract

Ground-based gravitational-wave (GW) detectors are a frontier large-scale experiment in experimental astrophysics. Given the elusive nature of GWs, the ground-based detectors have complex interacting systems made up of exquisitely sensitive instruments which makes them susceptible to terrestrial noise sources. As these noise transients - termed as *glitches* - appear in the detector's main data channel, they can mask or mimic real GW signals resulting in false alarms in the detection pipelines. Given their high rate of occurrence compared to astrophysical signals, it is vital to examine these glitches and probe their origin in the detector's environment and instruments in order to possibly eliminate them from the science data. In this paper we present a tensor factorization-based data mining approach, based on irregular tensor mining, to finding witness events to these glitches in the network of heterogeneous sensors that monitor the detectors and build a catalog which can aid human operators in diagnosing the sources of these noise transients.

1 Introduction

Noise coupling into a large-scale, complex instrument's main channel(s) is a typical issue in big scientific experiments that push the limits of technology towards ground-breaking discoveries. To tackle this issue, along with constant engineering improvements, these complex frontier experiments deploy a large array of monitoring systems for day-to-day diagnostics and calibration, producing vast quantities of raw data-streams about the overall state of the detectors. This raw data, if strategically mined for latent patterns of interest, can potentially point to origins of noise couplings. The raw data is often heterogeneous temporal data from which we need to engineer datasets suitable for data mining and the authors of this paper wish to explore the end-to-end matrix and tensor factorization based data mining pipeline in the context of complex scientific instruments like the LIGO detectors.

The ground-based gravitational-wave (GW) detectors like advanced LIGO Aasi et al. [2015] are one such frontier complex instrument that have successfully reached the state-of-the-art sensitivity needed to detect astrophysical signals. Given their exquisite sensitivity, these detectors are plagued by various sources of transient terrestrial noise which affect the searches for GWs. Glitches are non-Gaussian noise transients appearing in the **main channel** of the detector which measures the amount of strain, $h(t)$, produced by a passing gravitational wave. Their origins are environmental and instrumental in nature. These noise transients stand out from the expected stationary Gaussian noise as transient power excesses which trigger GW search pipelines leading to false alarms and, along with the stationary noise, limit the detector's sensitivity. Hence, glitch characterization is a crucial

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problem and has been studied at LIGO in two important ways - 1. the time-frequency morphology of the glitches in the main channel, 2. presence of triggers in auxiliary diagnostic channels coincident with the glitches.

Glitch's morphology in the main channel Glitches have complex morphologies and vary in duration and frequency. Therefore, LIGO scientists have been studying the glitches based on the morphological differences evident in their time-frequency spectrograms. Several different classes of glitches have been identified Zevin et al. [2017] and given their diversity and abundance, machine learning approaches have been used to automatically classify glitch spectrograms into distinct groups using image classification techniques George et al. [2017]. Through the Gravity Spy project Zevin et al. [2017], citizen scientists have hand-labelled glitch spectrogram images through visual inspection into several classes. Figure 1 shows representative time-frequency plots of glitches belonging to a few Gravity Spy classes. Since Gravity Spy has collected a sizable sample of labelled spectrogram images of glitches, past works like George et al. [2017] have used deep convolutional neural networks with transfer learning to automate glitch classification.

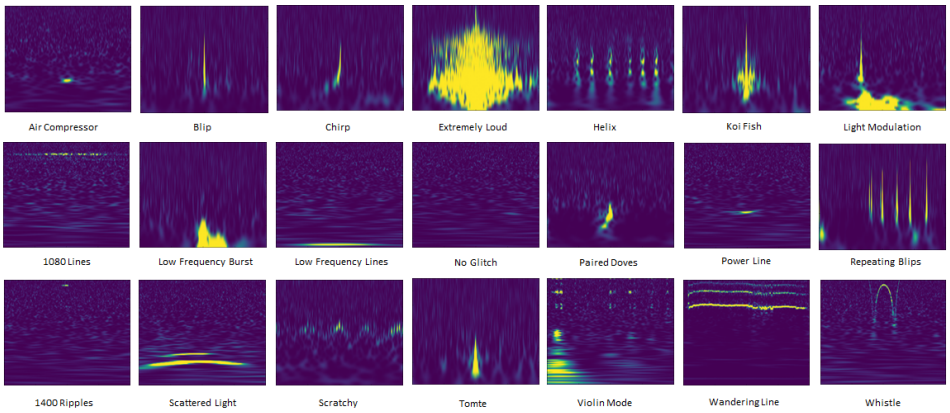

Figure 1: Time-frequency plots of glitches belonging to 20 classes in the Gravity Spy glitch catalog. There is a wide variety in morphological features among the different classes.

Although the time-frequency morphology of the glitches is well-studied and the morphology-based Gravity Spy catalog of glitches has been meticulously built, it is important to find origins of these noise transients in the system and build a richer, more actionable catalog which can equip the operators to locate sources of these noise transients, understand coupling mechanisms and possibly eliminate these glitches with instrumental upgrades.

Auxiliary channels characteristics Apart from the main channel which measures the strain $h(t)$, LIGO maintains $O(10^5)$ auxiliary channels to record the state of the instrument and its environment using a wide variety of sensors, some of which are used in calibration of the detector. Some of these auxiliary channels may witness noise sources which couple to the main channel to produce a transient power excess causing a glitch. Finding correlations between glitches in the main channel and excess power events in the auxiliary channels is therefore useful in determining the origins of these glitches.

Our contribution is a data mining approach for unsupervised analysis of glitches in the main channel and the triggers in the auxiliary diagnostic channels using *matrix and tensor factorization techniques*. We describe some existing works in Section 2. We describe LIGO operations in section 3.1 and motivate the prevalence of matrix and tensor factorization techniques for a variety of real-world applications in Section 3.2. We describe the end-to-end data mining pipeline in Section 4 beginning with how we performed data collection in section 4.1, how we did feature engineering in section 4.2 to create datasets as described in section 4.3. Section 5 describes the analysis results and Section 6 concludes the paper with some future directions for this line of work.

2 Related Works

There have been several efforts at LIGO that use these auxiliary channels for glitch analysis. Notably, iDQ Essick et al. [2020] is a machine learning-based low-latency glitch prediction pipeline which uses auxiliary channels information to train a binary classifier to compute the probability of presence of glitches in the main channel. Similarly, in Cavaglia et al. [2018] the authors use auxiliary channel information and binary classification as a tool to study 2 sets of well-understood glitches from the first two observing runs of LIGO. They find a set of channels that witness these glitches and infer the probable mechanical couplings which produce them.

3 Background

3.1 Gravitational-wave Astronomy with LIGO

The various LIGO sites house a state-of-the-art nulling laser interferometer which, in the absence of a GW event, is supposed to register no signal at the output photo-diode as the main laser beam splits into two at a central station and travel down the interferometer arms, bounce off the mirrors located at the end stations that are equidistant from the central station and travel back. The arm length paths are set up such that upon their return to the central station, the two laser beams co-mingle and destructively interfere, cancelling each other out. LIGO's main data product is the strain, $h(t)$ - the relative change in the interferometer's arm lengths induced by a passing GW. The stretching and squeezing of spacetime by a passing GW physically changes the interferometer's arm length which causes the two laser beams to no longer destructively interfere, a power excess occurs and a signal is measured at the output photo-diode.

Transient terrestrial disturbances originating in the environment or the instrument can cause a brief power excess and result in a signal being registered at the output photo-diode. This coupling of noise into the main channel, $h(t)$, is, in essence, a glitch. Auxiliary channels record the measurements from a wide variety of sensors that are deployed around the interferometer. These channels range across various instrumental subsystems like physical environment monitoring system to the suspension systems of the end station mirrors. The $O(10^5)$ recorded auxiliary channels include a lot of redundancy. LIGO instrument specialists use a subset of the auxiliary channels as *safe* channels to monitor and mitigate noise sources that emerge during day to day operations. Safety of a channel is determined by doing signal injection tests to ascertain that the channel is insensitive to astrophysical signals. Given the need for manual injection tests, it is time consuming to test safety of every individual LIGO auxiliary channel. LIGO data analysts also use these auxiliary channels as *veto generators* to remove time segments contaminated with glitches and generate clean segments of $h(t)$ that are then used for GW searches. Thus, as described in Essick et al. [2013] it is useful to determine important auxiliary channels which can act as *veto generators*. Given the large number of auxiliary channels only some of which may witness a glitch, it is conducive to use machine learning based techniques to find correlation between the main and auxiliary channel power excesses in an attempt to potentially determine what type of mechanical couplings produces a certain type of glitch.

3.2 Data Mining using Matrix and Tensor Factorization Techniques

Data Mining is the practice of studying the data distribution by systematically searching for latent patterns in large, multi-aspect data to derive insights about underlying structures of interest like clusters, co-clusters, outliers, repeating patterns, etc. Often data mining plays a critical role in knowledge discovery via exploratory analysis and in creating large datasets with high-quality training examples necessary for employing supervised machine-learning techniques that have achieved great success in the field of artificial intelligence and machine learning in recent times.

Various matrix and tensor factorization-based techniques have been widely used in the literature for latent patterns discovery in mutli-aspect data. In Davidson et al. [2013], the authors mine spatio-temporal data from fMRI scans which consist of thousands of voxels to discover a network of cohesive

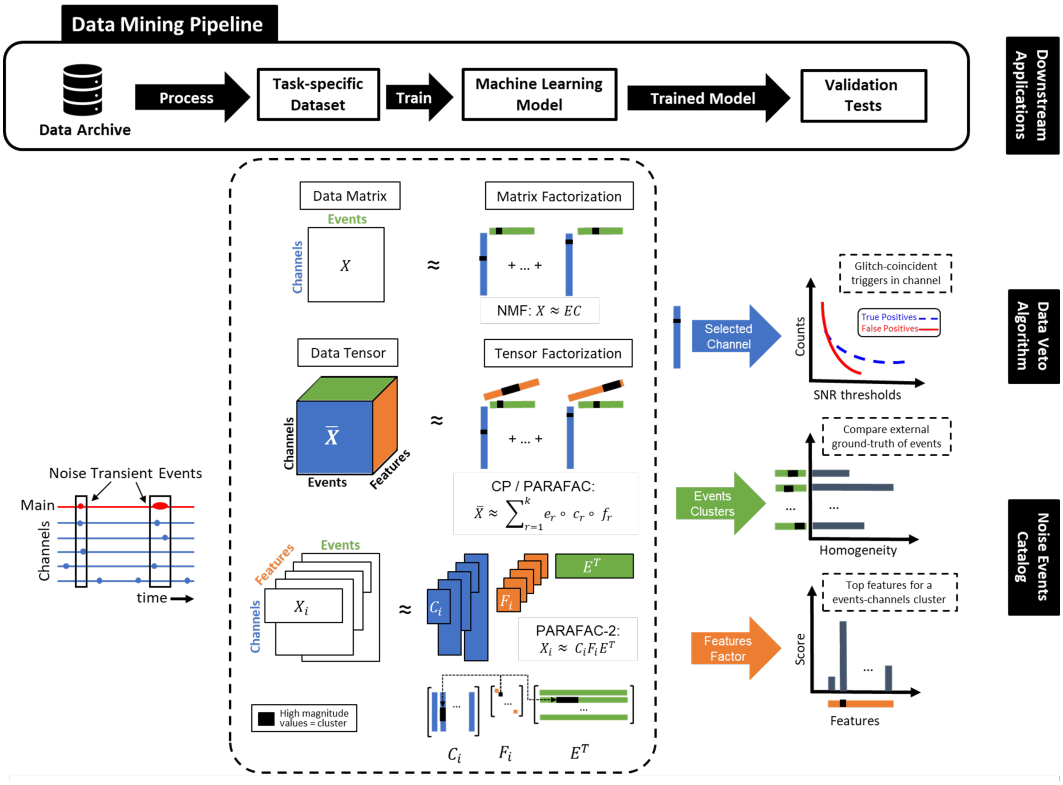

Figure 2: Proposed Pipeline

regions in the brain using tensor factorization. In Ho et al. [2014], the authors demonstrate the use of tensor factorization for discovering *medical phenotypes* - a latent pattern of interest for medical professional - by cohesively mapping a heterogeneous collection of electronic health records. The motivation behind the choice of using matrix and tensor factorization to do these types of analysis is the computational efficiency and the simple yet powerful nature of these techniques.

4 Proposed Data Mining Pipeline

The task at hand is to find clusters in a set of glitch events (G) occurring in the main channel ($h(t)$) with respect to the subset of channels (S) witnessing the glitch events from the set of auxiliary channels (A) selected for the analysis thus obtaining *co-clusters* of events and channels. In this paper, we formulate this task as a soft co-clustering problem which is discussed in brief in Section 3.3. Figure 2 shows a diagrammatic representation of the complete data mining pipeline. We begin by choosing an analysis time interval in which we collect a set of glitch events that occurred in the main channel (G) and corresponding loud triggers that occurred in a set of auxiliary channels (A) around the time of the glitch events. We represent this information first as a 2-mode tensor, i.e a matrix, where each element represent a trigger event in an auxiliary channel for each glitch event. We can later add additional modes to the tensor to *featurize* the data-points using some set of features (F) related to the channels or the triggers in the channels. The constructed tensor is then factorized and the latent patterns resulting from the factors are examined using various validation tests that are specific to certain downstream applications.

4.1 Data Collection

A channel is typically a raw data-readout over time from an environment or instruments monitoring sensor (or some useful derived quantity). Each channel can be tagged with certain features (properties)

$h(t)$	the main channel sensitive to GWs
A	set of *safe* auxiliary channels selected for analysis
$a_i(t)$	i^{th} auxiliary channel $\in A$
G	set of glitches in $h(t)$
t_g	time of a $h(t)$ glitch $\in G$
P	set of trigger or channel features (properties)
S	set of candidate glitch witness channels
$[(t_{start}), (t_{end})]$	time interval chosen for analysis

Table 1: Terminology

like - 1. it belongs to a subsystem in the complex system (for example, a temperature sensor belonging to the *physical environment monitoring* subsystem or an inertial sensor measuring ground motion belonging to the *internal seismic isolation subsystem*), 2. it is located at one out of a set of discrete locations in the observatory's infrastructure.[1]

A trigger refers to a transient power excess event in a channel - $h(t)$ or any $a(t)$ - detected by an event trigger generator (ETG) like Omicron Robinet [2016] which runs continually in real-time at LIGO during its operational runs. Thus, glitches are simply loud triggers in $h(t)$ that are not astrophysical in origin. Omicron infers certain features (properties) of the generated triggers viz. signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), peak frequency, bandwidth, amplitude, duration, phase, etc. Thus, each trigger is represented by a list of its properties. [2]

We can do a systematic trigger collection inspired by Cavaglia et al. [2018] as follows:

1. Obtain a set, G, of loud triggers, i.e. trigger with peak SNR > 7.5, that occurred in $h(t)$ between t_{start} and t_{end}.
2. For all $t_g \in G$, find triggers from a set, A, of safe auxiliary channels in a fixed window $[t_g - \gamma, t_g + \gamma]$ around each t_g where, $t_g \in G$ is the peak SNR time of the glitch trigger. γ is window parameter to center the glitch trigger around its peak SNR time. In this analysis γ ranges from 0.1 to 1 second.

If no trigger is present in the window, a default null trigger is stored for that channel corresponding to that t_g. In case of multiple loud triggers in the window, we pick the loudest trigger.

4.2 Feature Engineering and Dataset Construction

Matrix Construction: The matrix $\boldsymbol{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{|G|\times|A|}$ encodes the presence or absence of a loud trigger in each auxiliary channel for every glitch in G weighted by peak SNR. Each $|A|$-length row of $\boldsymbol{X}$ corresponds to a glitch and each element $x_{i,j}$ is the peak SNR of i_{th} trigger in j_{th} auxiliary channel if trigger present, zero otherwise.

Tensor Construction: The matrix described in the previous section can be extended into a tensor[3] to additionally encode the features (properties) of the 2 entities in the matrix i.e. the events and/or the channels. Structurally, we can create 2 types of the tensor as follows -

1. 3-mode cuboid: $\mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{|G|\times|A|\times|P|}$ where, $|P|$ = number of features. Thus, each element $\mathcal{X}(i, j, k)$ is the peak SNR of ith trigger in j^{th} auxiliary channel the has the kth feature (property) if trigger present, zero otherwise.

[1] We use a list of safe auxiliary channels maintained by LIGO's Detector Characterization group for the analyses present in this paper.

[2] In this analysis, the threshold for loud triggers in $h(t)$ is set at peak SNR ≥ 7.5 following the example of Gravity Spy Zevin et al. [2017] which only registers triggers with peak SNR ≥ 7.5 as glitches in their catalog. Since we want to use the Gravity Spy glitch catalog in this work to validate our findings, we will set the same threshold for the analyses presented in this paper.

[3] A tensor in this context is a multidimensional array.

2. Collection of matrices: $\boldsymbol{X}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{|G|\times|A_i|}$ where, i is the ith feature (property), $i = 1, ..., |P|$. Thus, each element $\boldsymbol{X}_i(m, n)$ is the peak SNR of mth trigger in n^{th} auxiliary channel that has the ith feature (property) if trigger present, zero otherwise.

4.3 Co-clustering glitches, channels and their features

Consider the traditional clustering problem where, a data matrix $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$ has m data-points (or observations) each of which has n features. Clustering methods, like the popular *k-means* algorithm, partition the data-points to discover k subsets called *clusters* such that data-points in a cluster are *similar* to each other and *distinct* from data-points in other clusters. Co-clustering refers to simultaneous clustering of multiple modes of the data. In case of the 2-mode data (i.e. a data matrix) $\mathbf{D}$ described above, co-clustering partitions along the n rows as well as the m columns to find subsets. Co-clustering can be formulated as a multi-linear factorization as described in Papalexakis and Sidiropoulos [2011] such that $\mathbf{D}^{m\times n} \approx [\mathbf{R}^{m\times k}\mathbf{C}^{k\times n}]$ where k is referred to as the *rank* of the factorization. In this paper, to co-cluster the 2-mode data matrix, we use Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF). The choice of NMF is dictated by the non-negative values (the SNRs of the triggers) in $\mathbf{X}$. Imposing the non-negativity constraint can potentially yield more interpretable factors that prove useful for further analysis. To co-cluster the 3-mode data tensors which adds trigger or channel related features to the event-channel pairs, we will use variants of PARAFAC tensor factorization. We describe these factorization methods formally in the following sections.

4.3.1 Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF)

The formulation of NMF is stated as follows. Given $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{|G|\times|A|}$ and desired number of components (rank) $k << min(|G|, |A|)$, find $\mathbf{E} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{|G|\times k}$ and $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{k\times|A|}$ such that $\mathbf{M} \approx \mathbf{EC}$. In our case, each row of $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{C}^T$ is a k-length latent space representation of triggers and channels respectively. For computation of NMF, we used the implementation from Scikit-Learn library available for Python.

4.3.2 Non-negative CP/PARAFAC Tensor Factorization

In order to incorporate features of the trigger events, we can factorize $\mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{|G|\times|A|\times|F|}$ using the CP/PARAFAC tensor factorization. As depicted in figure 2, the CP/PARAFAC tensor factorization of $\mathcal{X}$ is expressed as a sum of outer products of k rank-1 tensors called components or factors. These components can be arranged as 3 factor matrices viz. $\mathbf{E} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{|G|\times k}$, $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{|A|\times k}$, and $\mathbf{F} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{|P|\times k}$ corresponding to each mode of $\mathcal{X}$, each with r columns. Formally stated as, $\mathcal{X} \approx \sum_{r=1}^{k} \mathbf{e}_r \circ \mathbf{c}_r \circ \mathbf{f}_r$, where $\mathbf{e}_r$, $\mathbf{c}_r$ and $\mathbf{f}_r$ are the rth column in factor matrices $\mathbf{E}$, $\mathbf{C}$ and $\mathbf{F}$ respectively. The true rank k of the tensor is defined as the minimum number of rank-1 components required to exactly reconstruct the original tensor. However, a low-rank approximation of the tensor is of interest to our analysis since a low-rank approximation can capture latent patterns across the modes of the tensor. In our case, the rows of factor matrices $\mathbf{E}$, $\mathbf{C}$ and $\mathbf{F}$ hold the k-length latent space representations of the glitch events, channels and trigger features respectively. For the computation of the PARAFAC decomposition we used the implementation from Tensorly Kossaifi et al. [2019] which uses hierarchical alternating least squares method. Additionally, we impose non-negativity constraint on the factors.

4.3.3 PARAFAC-2 Tensor Factorization

In order to incorporate features of channels, we can jointly factorize the collection of matrices $\boldsymbol{X}_i$ using the PARAFAC-2 factorization. The choice of irregular tensor mining technique like PARAFAC-2 is made instead of CP/PARAFAC for incorporating features of channels to avoid obtaining trivially orthogonal slices (since each channel belongs to exactly one subsystem and location) in the third mode of the typical 3-mode cuboid tensor. As depicted in figure 2, the PARAFAC-2 factorization of a collection of matrices where a matrix $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^{|G|\times|A_i|}$ is a frontal slice in a pseudo 3-mode tensor. A_i is the set of auxiliary channels in the ith subsystem or at the ith location. Formally

stated as $X_i \approx C_i F_i E^T$ where k is the rank of the decomposition, $C_i \in \mathbb{R}^{|A_i| \times k}$ is factor matrix corresponding to the channels belonging to the ith subsystem or at the ith location, $E \in \mathbb{R}^{|G| \times k}$ is the factor matrix corresponding to the glitch events that is shared across all i factor matrices corresponding to channels and $F_i \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$ is a diagonal matrix indicating which clusters of channels in a specific subsystem or at a specific location are co-clustered with a cluster of glitch events.

5 Results

For this analysis, we chose a 10-day time interval in the first half of the third observing run of LIGO (referred to as O3a by the LIGO community) Tse et al. [2019]. There were approximately 3300 loud glitches at the LIGO Hanford observatory. We used approximately 550 safe auxiliary channels obtained from a list maintained by the Detector Characterization group at LIGO.

We construct the data matrix $\mathbf{X}$ described in 4.3.1 and two variants for each of the data tensors described in 4.3.2, 4.3.3 using 2 sets of features related to the *auxiliary channels* for the third mode viz. 1. a set of discrete subsystems that the channels belong to: $\mathcal{X}^{subsystems}$, 2. a set of discrete locations where the sensors corresponding to the channels are located: $\mathcal{X}^{locations}$.

Clustering glitch events The $|G|$-length vectors in $\mathbf{E}$ are latent representations of glitches and indicators of glitch clusters. Given some external ground-truth labeling for the glitch events, like the Gravity Spy catalog, we can examine whether we find homogeneous clusters for the different Gravity Spy classes w.r.t. the auxiliary channels obtained via co-clustering. More specifically, to quantify ***homogeneity*** of the clusters found in the factors w.r.t. the Gravity Spy classes, we count the number of occurrences of glitches belonging to each Gravity Spy class in the top k values of each $|G|$-length vector in $\mathbf{E}$ and aggregate this quantity across all factors. For example, homogeneity of a co-clustering instance with rank r is defined as $\frac{1}{r}\sum_{i=1}^{r}\frac{1}{N_i}$ where N_i is the number of unique Gravity Spy classes associated with top k values of ith factor (column) in $\mathbf{E}$. Here, k is adaptively chosen to be 90% of the norm of the factor. Thus if we find highly homogeneous clusters for the Gravity Spy classes this quantity is close to 1. To quantify how many Gravity Spy classes a factorization instance covers, we define ***coverage*** as the fraction of unique Gravity Spy classes represented across all factors (columns) of $\mathbf{E}$ over the total number of classes in the dataset. We expect coverage to approach 1 as we increase the factorization rank.

Selecting veto-generator channels The $|A|$-length vectors in $\mathbf{C}$ are latent representations of channels. We used these vectors to obtain a set of candidate channels $S \subset A$, to test as *witnesses* of occurrences of glitches More specifically, each $|A|$-length vector in $\mathbf{C}$ encodes the *contribution* of subset of channels to the corresponding subset of glitches. We pick the channel corresponding to the maximum magnitude value in the vector, i.e. the highest contribution, and add it to S. For each channel $s_i \in S$, if there is a glitch in $h(t)$ and a corresponding trigger in s_i in a window around the glitch, we say s_i ***witnessed*** the glitch. For each channel $s_i \in S$, we count the number of glitches in $h(t)$ that it *witnessed* to test whether s_i can be used to veto and remove segments of $h(t)$ before searching for real GW signals in $h(t)$ and reduce the number of false alarms.

Channels-based glitch events catalog Using factor matrices $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{C}$ we can *label* each glitch event with the channels that witness it. Since each row i in $\mathbf{E}$ is an embedding of ith glitch event (e_i) in the $\mathbb{R}^k$ latent space discovered by the rank-k factorization, we can choose factor j from the k available factors which has the highest magnitude value for e_i and associate the channels in the jth factor (i.e. column) of $\mathbf{C}$ with e_i.

5.1 Analysis

Figure 3 shows factors discovered by a rank-5 Non-negative CP/PARAFAC instance for the data tensor $\mathcal{X}$. We cabn observe that the two factors (out of 5) have high homogeneity and find clusters of glitch events belonging to class #5 and we can find the diagnostic channels that strongly witnesses

these clusters of class #5 glitches to be channels #281 in the first factor and #367 and #369 in the second factor. We can also observe that the first factor finds higher frequency witness triggers than the second factor.

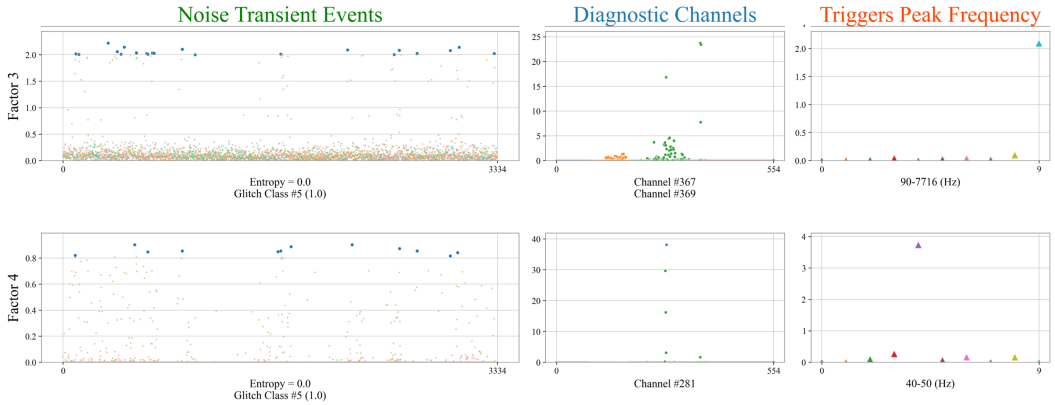

Figure 3: Factors #3, #4 of a Non-negative CP/PARAFAC tensor factorization instance ($rank = 5, \gamma = 0.5$) showing co-clusters of glitch events, witness channels and peak frequencies of witness triggers.

Testing homogeneity of glitch clusters As shown in figure 4 although we can examine individual factors to discover such patterns, the overall homogeneity of factors discovered by NMF across various choices of factorization rank (k) and coincidence window sizes (γ) for the glitch events in our dataset with respect to the external ground-truth (Gravity Spy) labels is low. This suggests that morphological similarity in the time-frequency spectrograms of glitches as they appear in the main channel does not necessarily translate to having a common set of witness channels for the wide variety of Gravity Spy classes. This finding matches the one in Gurav et al. [2020] made about a set of glitch events in a different analysis period and w.r.t. superset of auxiliary channels than the ones used in this paper.

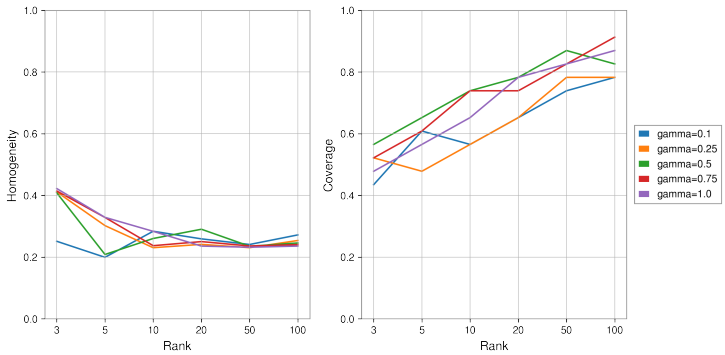

Figure 4: Overall homogeneity and coverage across factors discovered by NMF of glitch events with respect to the external ground-truth labels available for glitch events i.e. the Gravity Spy catalog. The homogeneity remains low at increasing factorization ranks as well as wider coincidence window sizes. The coverage increases with increasing factorization ranks.

Testing channels for veto generation A veto generator is a channel used by LIGO data analysts to algorithmically remove segments of $h(t)$ that are contaminated with glitches before searching for astrophysical signals in it. If a channel has coincident triggers with $h(t)$ glitches, the data segment around the trigger time is removed from $h(t)$. Thus an ideal veto generator will only have triggers that coincide with $h(t)$ glitch events (true positives) to avoid removing valuable science data segments

that don't have a coincident glitch (false positives). Figure 5 shows a candidate witness channel selected by an NMF instance that can be a good veto generator. The true positive rate exceeds the false positive rate above an SNR threshold of 25.

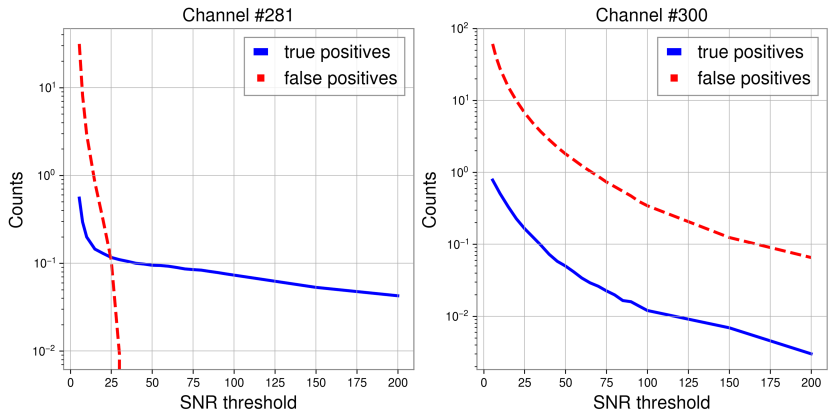

Figure 5: True and false positive rates of 2 different witness channels. *(Left)* Channel #281 a good veto generator candidate as it has a higher true positive rate above SNR 25. *(Right)*Channel #300 is a poor veto generator as it is a highly noisy channel.

Building a channels-based glitch catalog Figure 6 show how we can build a glitch catalog based on witness channels. A rank 5 NMF instance selected the same 2 witness channels (out of approx. 550 available channels) for 2 different glitch events occurring in $h(t)$. We can see these two channels have loud triggers in them around the time of these glitches but the *morphological signatures* of the loud triggers differ for each glitch event as evident in the spectrograms of the trigger signals. The data analysis pipeline described in this paper enables us to systematically label each glitch event with a small subset of channels that witness it and further examine the morphological signature of the loud triggers in these witness channels. Thus far the morphological signatures of only the glitch events in the main channel ($h(t)$) have been exhaustively studied and cataloged by Gravity Spy since doing so for hundreds of auxiliary diagnostic channels is not feasible. But the proposed data analysis pipeline addresses this feasibility issue by systematically clustering the glitch events w.r.t. their witnesses in the diagnostic channels first instead of resorting to a brute force search.

6 Conclusions and Future Directions

In this paper, we present an end-to-end data mining pipeline using unsupervised matrix and tensor factorization techniques to build a more comprehensive, data-driven catalog of noise transient events occurring in large-scale, complex scientific instruments like the ground-based gravitational wave detectors at LIGO. Such catalogs can aid operators to study sources of noise events, investigate mechanisms through which noise gets coupled into the detector's highly sensitive main channel and ultimately push the detectors towards their design sensitivity to achieve the scientific goal of observing larger volumes of spacetime to detect gravitational waves emanating from merging black holes and neutron stars. The procedures described to build useful datasets using hundreds of raw data-streams from a complex instrument's infrastructure and the unsupervised machine learning techniques used to systematically mine this data are fairly generic and can be generalized to any similarly large-scale complex scientific instruments that are becoming prevalent in modern experimental physics.

7 Acknowledgements

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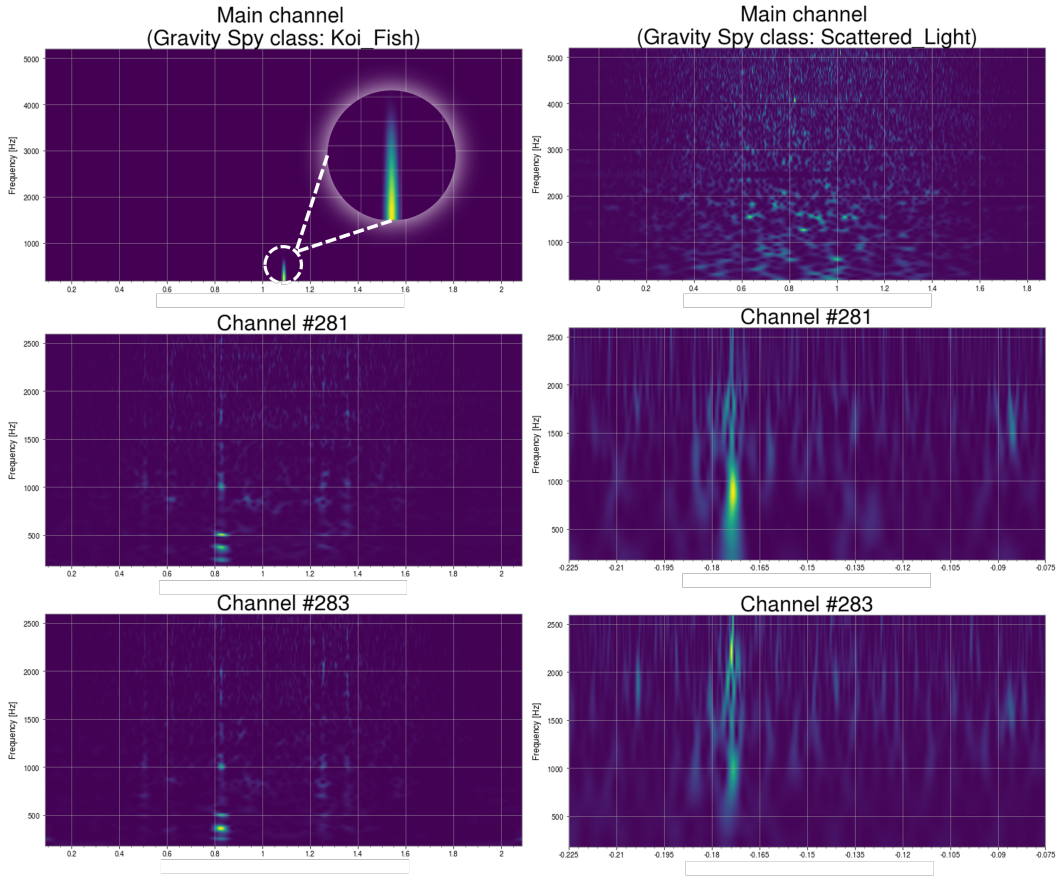

Figure 6: *(column 1, row 1)* A glitch occurrence in $h(t)$. *(column 1, rows 2,3)* the two channels selected by an NMF instance clearly show triggers in them around the time of the glitch. *(column 2, row 1)* Another glitch occurrence in $h(t)$ that was also witnessed by the same two channels *(column 2, rows 2,3)* but the triggers in the witness channels have different time-frequency morphologies.

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