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EEG-based Classification of Epileptic and Non-epileptic Events using Multi-array Decomposition

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Abstract: In this paper, the classification of epileptic and non-epileptic events from multi-channel EEG data is investigated based on temporal and spectral analysis and two different schemes for the formulation of the training set. Although matrix representation which treats EEG features as concatenated vectors allows capturing dependencies across EEG channels, it leads to significant increase of feature vector dimensionality and lacks a means of modeling dependencies between features. Thus in this paper, we compare the commonly used matrix representation in which features are concatenated from all channels in order to capture the total spatiotemporal context with a tensor-based scheme which extracts signature features to feed the classification models. TUCKER decomposition is applied to learn the essence of original, high-dimensional domain of feature space and extract a multi-linear discriminative subspace. In contrast to relevant studies found in the literature, in this study, the non-epileptic class consists of two types of paroxysmal episodes of loss of consciousness, namely the psychogenic non-epileptic seizure (PNES) and the vasovagal syncope (VVS). The classification schemes were evaluated on EEG epochs from 11 subjects in an inter-subject cross-validation setting. The proposed tensor scheme achieved an accuracy of 97,7% which is better

1 compared to the spatiotemporal model even after trying to improve the latter by dimensionality
2 reduction through principal component analysis (PCA) and feature selection by feature ranking.

3 **Keywords:** electroencephalography, seizure-like events, tensors, multi-array decomposition, multi-
4 linear data structures

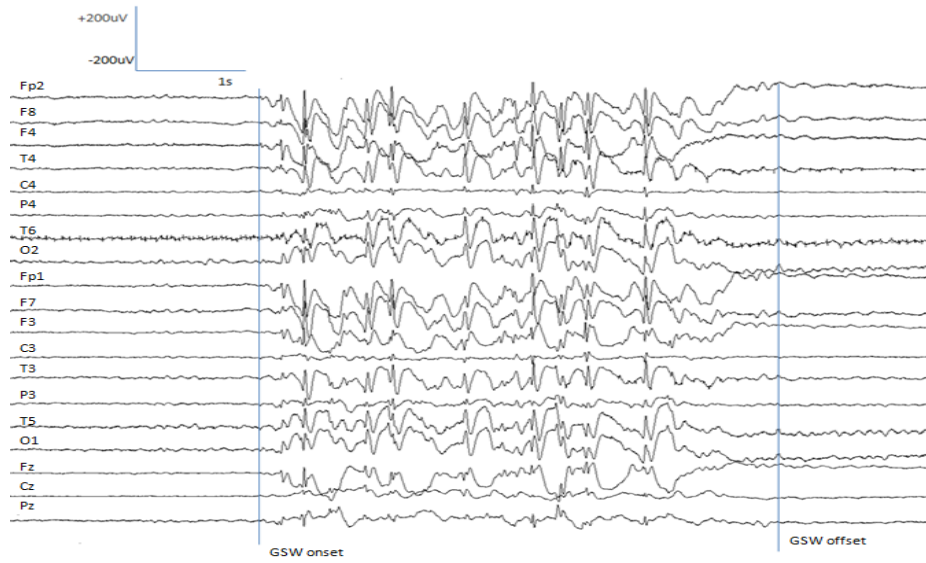
5 **1. Introduction**

6 One of the most challenging medical cases a clinician usually faces in everyday practice is that
7 of patients reporting episodes of transient loss of consciousness (TLoC or blackout), altered
8 awareness, abnormal limb movements or incontinence. The common causes of such episodes are
9 mainly that of epileptic seizures, possible psychogenic non-epileptic seizures (PNES) and vasovagal
10 syncopal attacks (VVS) [1, 2]. The similar seizure-like reactions of both epileptic and non-epileptic
11 events make their diagnosis a difficult task. In clinical practice, the diagnosis is based on historical
12 information assisted by specific tests [3]. However, since patients may have limited or no recall of the
13 event and a witness report might not be available clinical information can be either missing or
14 fragmented.

15 Diagnostic uncertainty may have costs in terms of patients' distress, unnecessary lifestyle
16 changes, social exclusion and financial deprivation associated with hospitalization and repeated
17 investigations [4]. In the worst case scenario, a misdiagnosis of epilepsy can result in mistreatment,
18 with potentially important side effects from the use of antiepileptic drugs and also may have
19 significant medical implications if a serious condition remains undiagnosed or untreated. Furthermore,
20 the financial burden on health services accompanied by an incorrect diagnosis is significant. Taking
21 into account the estimated proportion of the worldwide population with active epilepsy (according to
22 WHO, it is estimated between 4 to 10 per 1000 people) and the unnecessary treatment costs, the
23 estimated annual cost of epilepsy misdiagnosis only in England is around £189 million [5].

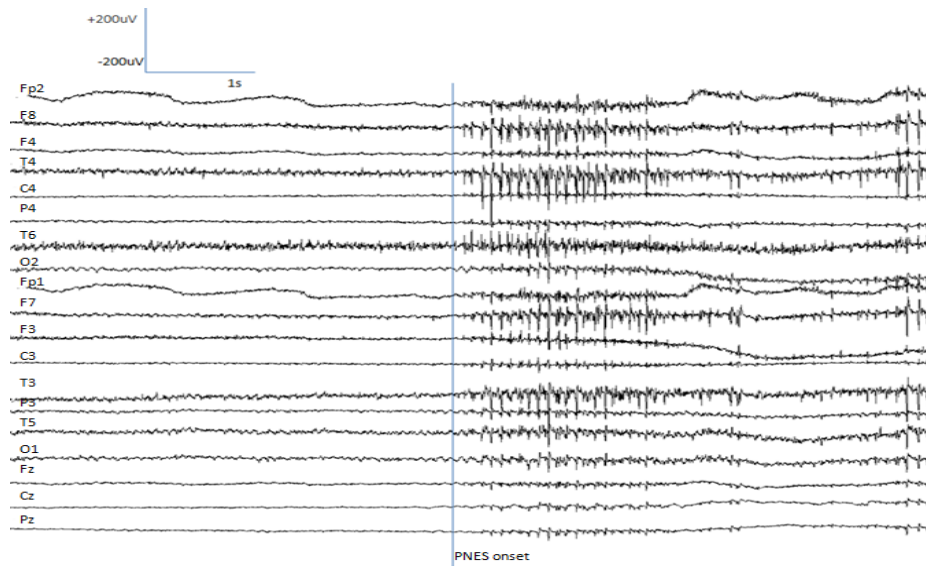
24 The most common diagnostic issue that medical experts routinely deal with, is the
25 differentiation between an epileptic seizure commonly manifested by generalized spike wave
26 discharges (GSW), a psychogenic non-epileptic seizure (PNES) [6] and a vasovagal/ vasodepressor
27 syncope (VVS) [7]. Figures 1 to 3 show examples of the different epileptic and non-epileptic events
28 investigated in our study.

29



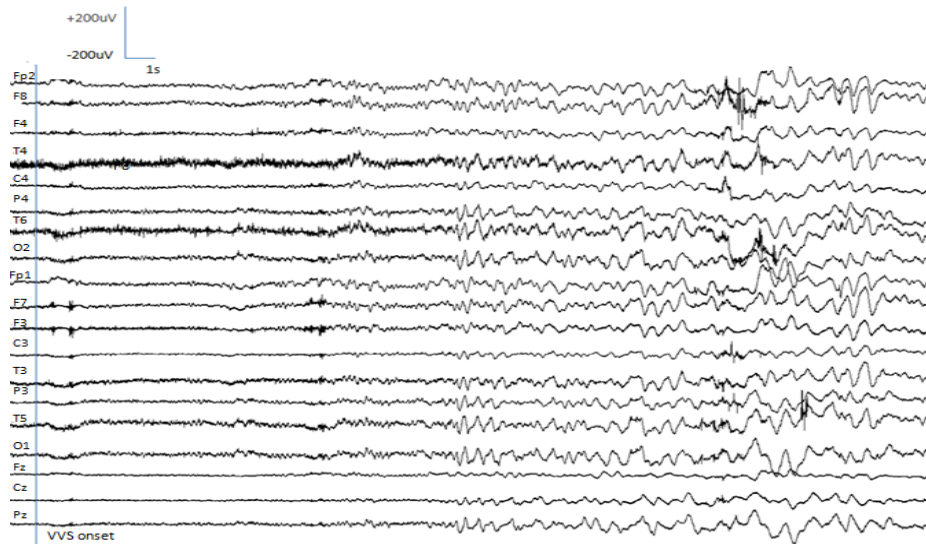
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2 **Fig. 1 Generalized Spike Wave (GSW) example. The first marker indicates the beginning of the GSW event**
 3 **and the second marker its end.**



4

5 **Fig. 2 Psychogenic Non Epileptic Seizure (PNES) example. The marker indicates the beginning of the**
 6 **PNES event.**



1

2 **Fig. 3 Vasovagal Syncopal Event (VVS) example. The marker indicates the beginning of the VVS event.**

3

4 Epileptic seizures are brief episodes of abnormal excessive or synchronous neuronal brain
 5 activity [8], characterized by typical ictal neurophysiological patterns and postictal and/or interictal
 6 abnormalities. Pshychogenic non-epileptic seizures (PNES) are sudden paroxysmal changes in
 7 behavior or consciousness, that resemble epilepsy but are not accompanied by the electrophysiological
 8 changes that characterize an epileptic seizure [9]. Vasovagal or vasodepressor syncope is a common
 9 type of syncope and various mechanisms have been postulated for explaining the characteristic
 10 association of hypotension and bradycardia. The term "vasovagal" indicates that both blood vessels
 11 and heart were implicated and since atropine reversed the bradycardia but not the hypotension he
 12 considered vasodilatation as the primary responsible factor. As such, PNES and VVS are generally
 13 considered to be physical symptoms of an underlying psychological disturbance, triggered by extreme
 14 stress-related or emotional events. Clinical characteristics, such as stable ictal heart rate, pelvic
 15 thrusting, closed eyes, longer duration of events, events induced by suggestion and rhythmic
 16 movement patterns [9-13] have been associated with non-epileptic events rather than epileptic
 17 seizures. In most cases, however, the diagnosis of such events still remains doubtful and agreement
 18 between physicians as to the nature of a single event may also be limited [14], resulting in
 19 misdiagnosis in around 25% of cases [2].

20 Despite such diagnostic uncertainty, to the best of our knowledge, only a few studies have been
 21 proposed in the literature for automated classification between epileptic and non-epileptic pathological
 22 events from EEG. Poulos et al. [15] proposed an algorithm which estimates a number of auto-

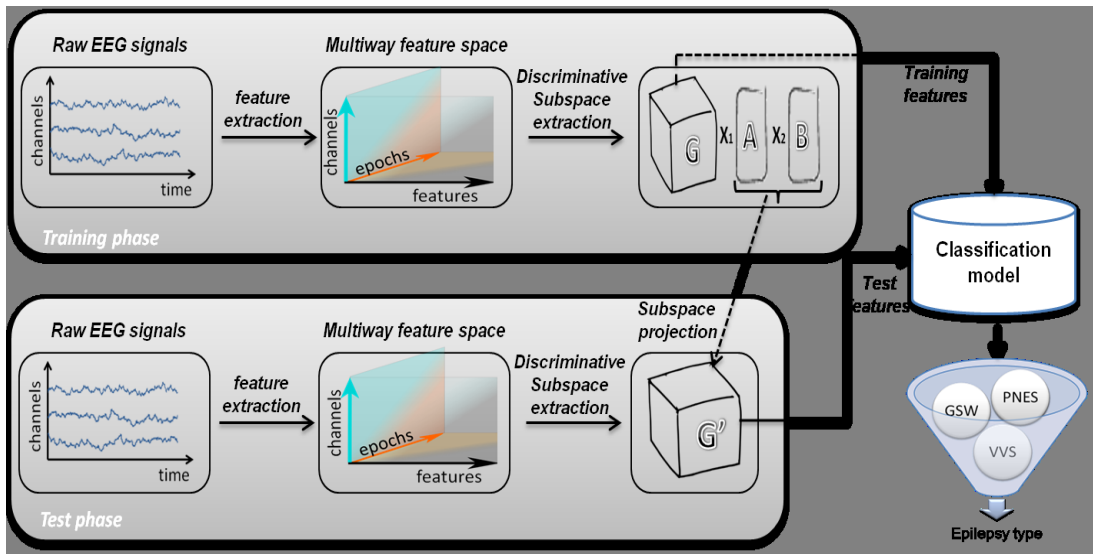
1 correlated coefficients extracted from an appropriately selected epileptic EEG segment and examines
2 whether these coefficients are correlated with the coefficients of the unknown EEG segments in order
3 to classify the latest into epileptic or non-epileptic. In [16] a LVQ1 neural network was trained on an
4 appropriately extracted set of auto-correlation coefficients (codebook) and the resulting model was
5 used to classify the corresponding feature vectors of the unknown EEG segments. However, both the
6 aforementioned studies do not consider different types of non-epileptic events, which constitutes a
7 fundamental clinical problem. In our previous works [17,18], the non-epileptic class was extended to
8 include both PNES and VVS events. In order to automatically classify epileptic and non-epileptic
9 EEG epochs, several temporal and spectral features were extracted from different channels and
10 combined to a large feature vector as a representative signature for each epoch.

11 Broadly speaking, raw EEG signals are naturally born with more than two modes (dimensions)
12 of time and space and represented by a multi-way array (tensor). In addition, the process of feature
13 extraction produces structured high-order multi-way arrays that are usually very high dimensional,
14 with large amount of redundancy, while occupying only a subspace of the input space [19]. However,
15 all the previous research works in epileptic and non-epileptic events classification treated EEG
16 features as concatenated vectors (i.e. matrix representation with observations in the rows and features
17 in the columns) in a very high-dimensional space neglecting the inherent structure and correlation in
18 the original feature space [20] [21]. Although matrix representation is suitable for many datasets, it is
19 not always a natural representation because it assumes the existence of a single target variable and
20 lacks a means of modeling dependencies between other features [22]. Motivated by the above, in this
21 study, we compare the commonly used matrix representation in which features are concatenated from
22 all channels in order to capture the total spatiotemporal context with a tensor-based scheme which
23 extracts signature features to feed the classification models. TUCKER decomposition is applied to
24 learn the essence of original, high-dimensional domain of feature space and extract a multi-linear
25 discriminative subspace. The proposed scheme reduced dramatically the computational complexity of
26 the subsequent classification step, which now was performed efficiently in a lower dimensional feature
27 space. The advantage in terms of computational cost relied on the notion that once the mapping (from
28 the original feature space to a reduced space) was learned, its application to unknown EEG segments
29 would only require a few matrix multiplications.

1 The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Firstly, Section 2 is devoted to the proposed
 2 tensor-based scheme, data description, parameterization and pre-processing of EEG signals and
 3 classification. In Section 3, the experimental results are presented and a direct comparison with a
 4 scheme using linearized feature vectors is performed along with some discussion. The final section is
 5 devoted to some concluding remarks.

6 2. Materials and Methods

7 2.1 Tensor-based scheme for (non)epileptic EEG events classification



8

9 **Fig. 4 The tensor-based scheme for EEG-based epileptic type classification**

10

11 The block diagram of the proposed tensor-based scheme is shown in Figure 4. During the training
 12 phase a set of multichannel EEG data denoted as $S = \{s_t\}, 1 \leq t \leq T$, where T denotes the number of
 13 samples per channel and $s_t \in \mathbb{R}^M$, where M denotes the number of channels, with known time
 14 annotations for the events of interest (i.e., PNES, VVS and GSW) was used to train binary
 15 classification models. Initially, each EEG signal was frame blocked with a Hamming window to non-
 16 overlapping frames of w samples. For each windowed frame, Q temporal and spectral EEG features
 17 (see Section 2.3 for more details) were estimated for each of the M channels, resulting in a third-order
 18 feature tensor $F_v \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times Q \times K}$ with K being the total number of windows. In particular, the constructed
 19 training tensor is a third-order tensor with modes the EEG channels, the features and the time epochs.
 20 Then, based on tensor decomposition, the proposed method extracts simultaneously dominant

1 temporal, spatial and spectral information from the training data, seeking an optimal discriminative
 2 feature subspace to project the test data and drive the classification process [23]. Therefore, TUCKER
 3 decomposition [24] was applied to reserve multi-linear discriminative subspace from the training
 4 feature tensor by decomposing the training tensor to two basis factors and a low-dimensional tensor
 5 $G \in R^{R_1 \times R_2 \times K}$.

6 In this scheme, TUCKER-2 was applied to extract the discriminative multi-linear subspace.
 7 Given the tensor $F_v \in R^{M \times Q \times K}$, its TUCKER-2 model, expressed as a decomposition of a 3-D tensor into
 8 two basis factors and a core tensor, is defined as:

$$F_v = G \times_1 A \times_2 B$$

9 with the symbol \times_n denoting the n -mode product of a tensor with a matrix along the mode- n (i.e. tensor
 10 unfolding in the direction of the n -th dimension) [25], the $A \in R^{M \times R_1}$, $B \in R^{Q \times R_2}$ being the basis
 11 factors (projection filters) and $G \in R^{R_1 \times R_2 \times K}$ the extracted signature features. The core tensor G
 12 consists of signature features of F_v projected onto the factor subspace spanned by A and B . Then, the
 13 low-dimensional tensor was matricized and used as signature features to train the classification model.

14 We used Tucker decomposition instead of canonical polyadic decomposition (CPD) [26] due to
 15 its superior flexibility. Tucker model enables all the components of each mode (dimension) to interact
 16 with each other through the mean of the core tensor, whereas, in CPD, a component in a certain mode
 17 can be linked to only a single component in another mode. Another critical issue, when applying tensor
 18 decomposition to perform data analysis, was the determination of the number of components $R_1 R_2$.
 19 Here, the values of the both parameters were set to two maximizing the classification of epilepsy type
 20 in our recordings.

21 During the test phase, the calculated basis factors were used as a projected filter to perform
 22 feature extraction and finally the test features were used to feed the classification model.

23 **2.2. Data Description and Pre-processing**

24 The previously described classification methodology was evaluated on multi-parametric
 25 recordings performed under the ARMOR project [27]. All EEG data were recorded at the Department
 26 of Clinical Neurophysiology and Epilepsies in St. Thomas' Hospital in London. The data consisted of
 27 105 generalized seizures (epileptic group) and 21 (19 PNES and 2 VVS) seizure-like events (non-

1 epileptic groups) from 11 different patients. All participants had at least one of their typical epileptic or
2 non epileptic events captured during the recording procedure. The epileptic group, consisted of patients
3 with known diagnosis of idiopathic generalized epilepsy, manifested clinically with absence seizures
4 and they had at least one clinical episode captured during the recording associated with generalized
5 spike wave discharges on the EEG. The non-epileptic group included patients who had sustained a
6 vasovagal syncope (2 patients) or a psychogenic non-epileptic attack (5 patients) during their
7 monitoring. Patients with focal seizures were excluded from this analysis.

8 The recordings were performed using conventional AgCl EEG electrodes positioned according
9 to the extended international 10–20 system. After the completion of data acquisition, each recorded
10 dataset was visually inspected for noise and motion artifacts and a subset of the main EEG channels
11 was selected for analysis including the following channels: Fp2, F8, F4, T4, C4, A2, P4, T6, O2, Fp1,
12 F7, F3, A1, C3, T3, P3, T5, O1, Fz, Cz, Pz. Notch filtering was applied to attenuate interference at 60
13 Hz and its harmonics from power lines. Also, baseline correction and re-sampling at 250 Hz was
14 applied in order to obtain a common resolution level for all data coming from different patients and
15 acquisition systems. The recordings were manually annotated by expert Neurologists of the Kings
16 College London. Only epochs during paroxysmal events were considered for training and for testing.

17 **2.3 Parameterization of EEG signals**

18 The parameterization of the brain signals was based on the temporal and spectral information in
19 the EEG channels. Initially, the incoming EEG signals $s_i \in \mathbb{R}^M$ were frame blocked to epochs with a
20 sliding Hamming window of length $w = 2 \text{ sec}$ and without time-overlap between successive epochs. A
21 large number of hybrid features were investigated including statistical features such as
22 minimum/maximum value, mean, variance, standard deviation, percentiles (25%, 50%-median, 75%),
23 interquartile range, mean absolute deviation, range, skewness, and kurtosis [28-30]. In addition, several
24 studies have supported that the number of ‘zero crossings’ in the EEG is thought to change during
25 seizure activity [28,31]. Here, the zero crossing rate is calculated as the sum of all positive zero
26 crossings for each epoch of the zero-meaned EEG. Spectral features including 6-th order
27 autoregressive-filter (AR), power spectral density, frequency with maximum and minimum amplitude,
28 the power of continuous wavelet transform using symlet 5 mother wavelet of scale 25 and 32, the
29 power of discrete wavelet transform with mother wavelet function Daubechies 16 and decomposition

1 level equal to 8 were also used. For each EEG epoch, fifty-five $Q = 55$ features in total were analysed
2 for each one of the $M = 21$ channels. All feature vectors were first normalized. The extracted features
3 were derived from linear and nonlinear signal analysis and all have been employed in EEG applications
4 in the past.

5 **2.4 Classification**

6 Aiming to evaluate the ability of the extracted signature features to discriminate between
7 epileptic and non-epileptic events widely used classifiers were used, namely the random forest (RF)
8 [32], the k-nearest neighbors (KNN) algorithm and its weighted (wKNN) version [33], and support
9 vector machines (SVM) using the sequential minimal optimization algorithm [34], linear discriminant
10 analysis (LDA) [35] and BayesNet [36] were investigated. For the KNN and wKNN classifiers, the
11 Euclidean distance was selected as the distance metric. After testing the parameter space, $k = 9$ was
12 chosen empirically. Moreover, the Gaussian radial basis function (RBF) for the SVM kernel was used.
13 Polynomial-based kernels were also considered, but their performance was considerably lower than the
14 RBF kernel. The values of the soft margin parameter $C = 20$ and the scaling factor $\gamma = 0.1$ were found
15 to offer optimal classification performance after a grid search at all combinations of
16 $C = \{1.0, 5.0, 10.0, 20.0, 30.0\}$ and $\gamma = \{0.001, 0.01, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0\}$.

17 **3. Experimental Results and Discussion**

18 The tensor-based classification scheme presented in Section 2.1 was applied to the EEG dataset
19 described in 2.2 in order to be compared with our previous classification scheme [17] that uses matrix
20 representation with linearized feature vector of dimensionality $M \times Q = 21 \times 55$ features for each
21 frame of the training and tests sets. In this matrix representation features are concatenated from all
22 channels in order to capture the total spatiotemporal context. For both schemes, evaluation was
23 performed in a leave-one-out cross-validation setting. Specifically, each time one subject was left-out
24 for testing, while the rest of the subjects were used for training. For the left-out subject, all epochs
25 between seizure onset and offset were used as testing samples. **Error! Reference source not found.**
26 shows the number of epochs that were extracted from each subject during the seizure(s).

27

1

Table 1 Number of seizures and number of seizure epochs per subject

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Class</i>	<i># Epochs</i>	<i># Seizures</i>
1	GSW	59	52
2	GSW	29	19
3	GSW	16	14
4	GSW	19	20
5	PNES	1	1
6	PNES	1	1
7	PNES	1	1
8	PNES	13	13
9	PNES	3	3
10	VVS	45	1
11	VVS	18	1

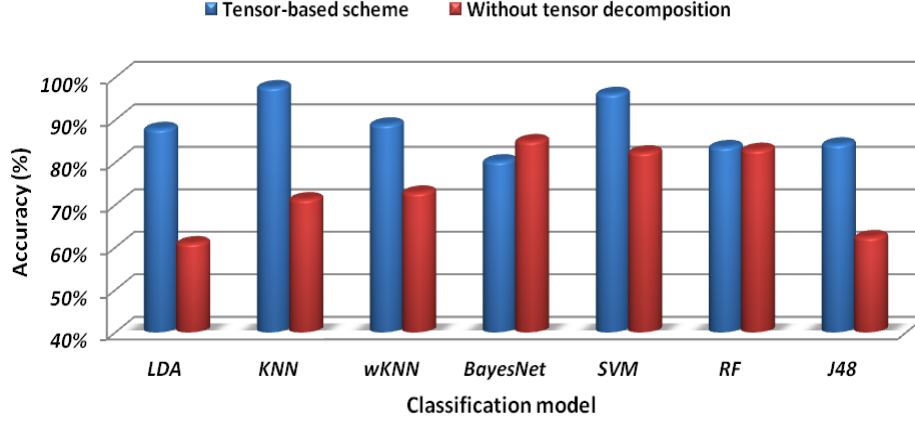
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3 Throughout the paper, the classification accuracy defined as:

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + TN + FN}$$

4 where true positives are denoted as TP, true negatives as TN, false positives as FP and false negatives
5 as FN, served as the primary performance metric. Here we consider the epileptic class as the positive
6 and the non-epileptic class (PNES or VVS) as the negative.

7 The accuracy of the proposed scheme for classifying between epileptic (GSW) and non-epileptic
8 (VVS, PNES) events, for the investigated classifiers, is shown in Fig. 5. The overall highest accuracy
9 was 97.7% achieved by the KNN classifier, with the second highest being 96.1% using SVM as a
10 classification model. On the other hand, the overall highest accuracy achieved by the scheme with the
11 matrix representation of the linearized feature vectors was 86% for the BayesNet classifier. As can be
12 seen, the performance of the tensor-based scheme was considerably higher compared to the scheme
13 where the original features (without tensor decomposition) were utilized to drive the classifiers. In
14 particular, the system performance was increased by approximately 13%. It seems that the high
15 dimensionality of the training samples in the scheme without tensor decomposition is not appropriate
16 for datasets with limited number of instances such as our dataset.



1
2 **Fig. 5 Classification accuracy for the different classifiers with and without tensor decomposition.**
3

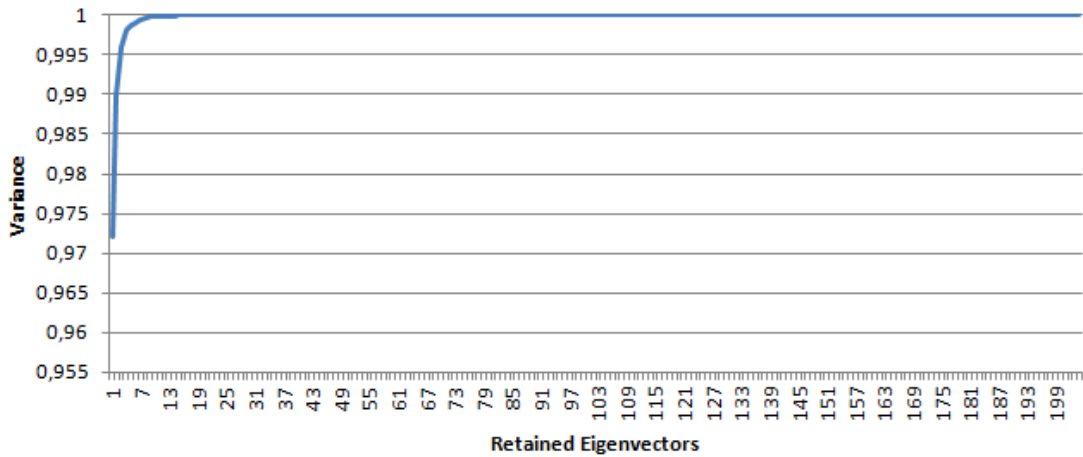
4 In a further step, to make a fair comparison of the two schemes, we tried to optimize the scheme
5 without tensor decomposition by performing dimensionality reduction following two different
6 strategies: principal component analysis (PCA) and feature selection by feature ranking.

7 PCA is a transformation that finds the optimal linear combinations of the features, in the sense
8 that they represent the data with the highest variance in a feature subspace, without taking the intra-
9 class and inter-class variances into consideration separately. The reduced dimension of the feature
10 vectors is determined by observing the eigenvalues of the covariance matrix of the feature vectors
11 sorted in descending order. The largest eigenvalues that constitute a high percentage of the total
12 variance (e.g. 99%) of the principal components and account for much of the variability of the data are
13 selected. The eigenvectors corresponding to the selected eigenvalues are used to form the
14 transformation matrix, resulting in feature vectors with reduced dimensionality. PCA was performed on
15 the feature matrix and the performance in terms of accuracy for different number of retained
16 eigenvectors so as different amounts of variation are kept, was evaluated.

17 The proportion of retained variance for different number of retained eigenvectors was computed
18 after sorting the eigenvectors in decreasing order of eigenvalues by

$$Variance = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i}{\sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j}$$

19 where λ_i is the eigenvalue for the i -th principal component, r the number of retained eigenvectors, and
20 and m the number of total number of components. Figure 6 shows the retained variance as a function
21 of the number of retained eigenvectors.



1

2 **Fig. 6 Classification Retained Variance for different number of PCA retained eigenvectors.**

3

4 As can be seen, 198 eigenvectors are required in order to achieve 100% variance while in order to
 5 achieve 99,9% variance, only 5 retained eigenvectors are required. The classification performance for
 6 different number of retained eigenvectors with respect to the BayesNet classifier is shown in Table 2.
 7 For the evaluation of the scheme without tensor decomposition we selected the BayesNet classifier,
 8 since it was the one that reached the highest accuracy. The maximum accuracy, which is 85,85%, is
 9 achieved when 7 components are retained (99,9% retained variance). Although PCA does not improve
 10 the accuracy of the scheme without tensor decomposition, it provides an accuracy which is almost
 11 equal to the initial one obtained with a feature vector of significantly lower dimensionality.

Retained Components	Retained Variance	Accuracy
1	97,2%	60,98%
2	99,0%	78,54%
3	99,6%	75,61%
4	99,8%	70,24%
5	99,9%	78,05%
6	99,9%	83,90%
7	99,9%	85,85%
198	100%	82,44%

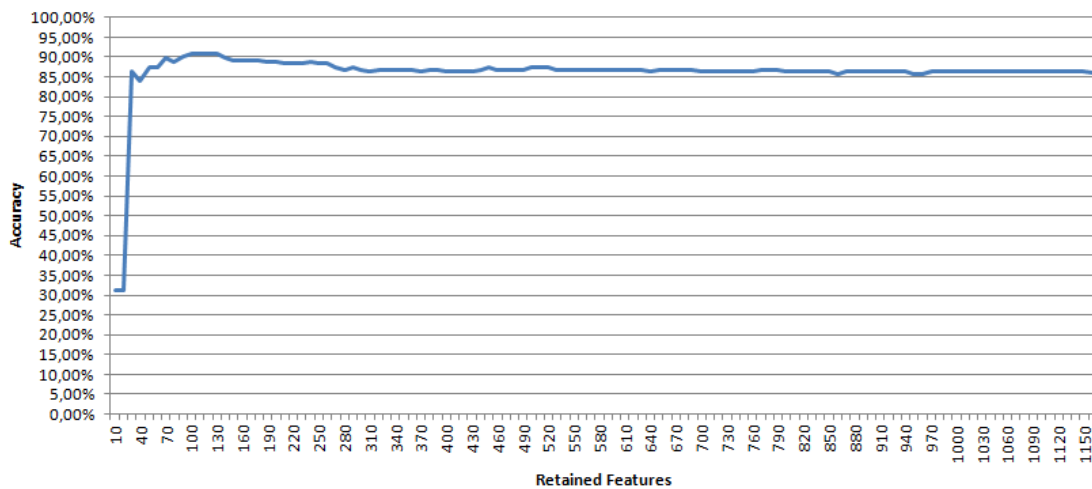
12 **Table 2 Classification performance for different amounts of retained variance with respect to the scheme**
 13 **without tensor decomposition**

14

15 Note that these results are produced by applying PCA without any standardization of the data
 16 before performing the analysis. In such a case, since the different features are not measured on the
 17 same scale and PCA is performed on the non-standardized features, each principal component is
 18 dominated by a single or a few features, the one(s) with the highest variance resulting somehow to an
 19 ordering of the features by their variance. In this case very few components explain all the variance in

1 the data. On the other hand, when z-score is used before PCA, the other components contribute as well
 2 to the explanation of the data variance, since standardizing implies assigning equal importance to all
 3 variables. As a result, when standardizing the data many more principal components are required to
 4 achieve the same variance (in order to achieve 99% variance, 115 retained eigenvectors are required).
 5 However, when standardizing the data, it seems that the additional components introduce noise
 6 resulting to significantly reduced classification accuracy.

7 As an alternative strategy for dimensionality reduction, we examined the discriminative power of
 8 the extracted features for the classification of epileptic and non-epileptic EEG events by feature
 9 ranking. The t-test was used for estimating the importance of each feature in binary classification. In
 10 this study, ranking is performed by following a leave-one-out strategy on the available subjects.
 11 Specifically, for each leave-one-out experiment, feature ranking is performed using the t-test in each
 12 training subset. This means that for each leave-one-out experiment the retained features may be
 13 different. The performance of the method, in terms of accuracy for different number of N-best features
 14 (N=10, 20, 30, ..., 1150) using the BayesNet classifier that had shown the best performance for the
 15 scheme without tensor decomposition are shown in Figure 7.



16
 17 **Fig. 7 Classification Accuracy for the scheme without tensor decomposition for different subsets**
 18 **of N-best features (N=10, 20, ..., 1150).**

19
 20 As can be seen in the above figure the highest classification accuracy is achieved when a small
 21 subset of discriminative features is used. Specifically, the scheme without tensor decomposition
 22 achieves its highest accuracy (90,73%) for a subset of 100 best features. Such results indicate the

1 superiority of the tensor-based scheme even after the optimization of the scheme without tensor
2 decomposition through feature selection.

3 Finally, in order to examine the ability of the tensor-based scheme using the best performed
4 classifier (KNN) to discriminate each type of pathological events from the others, we performed pair-
5 wise classification of all possible pairs of the events (GSW-PNES, GSW-VVS, and PNES-VVS). The
6 achieved accuracies are presented in Table 3.

7 **Table 3 System performance (with and without tensor decomposition) in terms of accuracy for all the**
8 **pairwise classification problems**

Pairwise classification	Tensor-based scheme	Without tensor decomposition
<i>GSW-PNES</i>	0,991	0,901
<i>GSW-VVS</i>	0,983	0,903
<i>PNES-VVS</i>	0,886	0,760

9
10 As can be seen, the discrimination of PNES and VVS pathological events was the most difficult
11 problem (87% accuracy). The above might be attributed to the nature of the different types of the
12 pathological events. In general, generalized spike waves were very specific ictal neurophysiological
13 patterns, presenting much more consistent features (compared to the other types) and consequently
14 making their detection an easier task. On the other hand, PNES has no specific EEG patterns but was
15 frequently accompanied by muscular artifacts presenting great variability across subjects. Similar
16 variability appears even between consecutive epochs of VVS examples, since there were several
17 changes that happen successively in time during such an episode (beta / alpha \rightarrow theta \rightarrow delta \rightarrow lower
18 voltage rhythms \rightarrow isoelectric suppression). It seems that the variability in the feature values of the
19 PNES and VVS epochs was high (with respect to the available training data) impeding the learning of a
20 discrimination model.

21 Although direct comparison with other studies was not possible due to the different characteristics
22 of each dataset (e.g. different seizure types, lack of PNES or VVS examples in most studies or use of
23 single channel data), the achieved classification accuracy was higher than the one reported in the
24 literature [15, 16]. Regarding our previous work on the same dataset [17,18], again the proposed
25 tensor-based scheme achieves higher accuracy.

26 **4. Conclusions**

1 In this paper, a tensor-based scheme was proposed to discriminate different pathological events,
2 The scheme incorporates spatial-spectral-temporal features extracted from EEG brain activity, and
3 TUCKER decomposition to extract a multi-linear discriminative subspace. The proposed scheme was
4 compared against the commonly used matrix representation in which features are concatenated from all
5 channels in order to capture the total spatiotemporal context. Experimental results demonstrated that
6 using multi-linear models, we were able to extract signature features of EEG recordings for
7 discriminating various type of epileptic events with higher accuracy. Even after the optimization of the
8 scheme without tensor decomposition through feature selection, the proposed tensor-based scheme still
9 presented higher classification accuracy.

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