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COMMENTS ON LINEAR FEATURE EXTRACTION

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By

T. L. Henderson
D. G. Lainiotis

Technical Memorandum No. 8
April 15, 1969

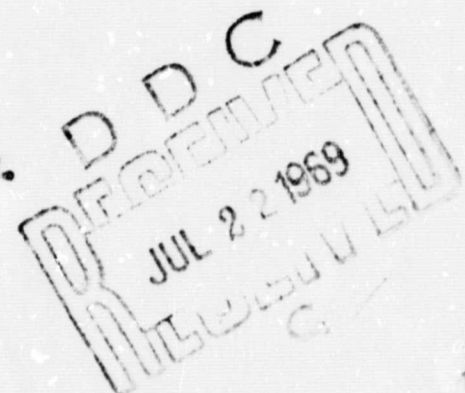
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COMMENTS ON LINEAR FEATURE EXTRACTION*

T. L. Henderson and D. G. Lainiotis
Department of Electrical Engineering
and
Electronics Research Center
The University of Texas at Austin
Austin, Texas 78712

ABSTRACT

The problem considered is that of finding the best linear transformation to reduce a random data vector z to vector of smaller dimension. It is assumed that the original data are Gaussian under either of two hypotheses, and that one wishes to use the transformed data to distinguish the hypotheses. The Bhattacharya distance is used to measure the information carried by the transformed data. A compromise solution is obtained for the case in which the data has both different means and different covariances under the alternative hypotheses.

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COMMENTS ON LINEAR FEATURE EXTRACTION

We consider the problem of choosing a $K \times N$ transformation matrix to extract as much information as possible from an $N \times 1$ data vector z . The integer K is assumed to be fixed by practical considerations, and is taken to be less than N (since otherwise an invertible transformation could be found which preserves all of the information). It is further assumed that z is a Gaussian random vector under each of two hypotheses H_0 and H_1 , and that we wish to extract those features which will enable us to best distinguish between the hypotheses. Specifically,

$$z \sim \eta(0, R_0) \text{ under hypothesis } H_0$$

$$z \sim \eta(m, R_1) \text{ under hypothesis } H_1,$$

where the assumption of zero mean under the null hypothesis is made with no loss in generality since we could always subtract the mean before applying the transformation. For convenience, we assume that R_0 is positive definite.

The transformed data vector is

$$y = Az$$

where A is the $K \times N$ transformation matrix. Thus y has the following statistics:

$$y \sim \eta(0, P_0) \text{ under hypothesis } H_0$$

$$y \sim \eta(u, P_1) \text{ under hypothesis } H_1,$$

where $P_0 \triangleq AR_0A^T$, $P_1 \triangleq AR_1A^T$, and $u \triangleq Am$.

As a measure of the information carried by y we shall use the Bhattacharya distance ^{*1}, which in this case reduces to ^{*2}

$$B = \frac{1}{8} u^T P^{-1} u + \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{\det P}{(\det P_0 \cdot \det P_1)^{\frac{1}{2}}}, \text{ where } P \triangleq \frac{1}{2} (P_0 + P_1).$$

We shall not here discuss all of the justifications for using this measure, except to say that it provides an upper bound on the probability of error in distinguishing the hypotheses and in many special cases becomes monotonically related to the probability of error^{*1, 2, 3}. We do, however, remark that it obeys most of the rules one would expect from an information measure: (1) It is non-negative (2) It becomes very large if y carries enough information to permit almost-perfect discrimination (3) It goes to zero if y is useless for distinguishing between the hypotheses (4) It will never decrease when the transformation matrix A is augmented by the addition of an extra row (5) It has the same value for choices of A which are equivalent (equivalent in the sense that would give y 's which are related by invertible transformations).

The problem of choosing A to maximize B becomes straight-forward in a couple of special cases, for which the results are fairly-well known:

Case I: If $R_0 = R_1$ ($\triangleq R$), then the quantity $s^T z$ is a sufficient statistic for distinguishing between the hypotheses^{*4}, where s is an $N \times 1$ vector defined by $s \triangleq R^{-1} m$. Thus in this case we could actually take A to be the row vector s^T and retain all of the relevant information with $1 \times N$ transformation. It is not difficult to show that, in fact, B attains its maximum whenever s^T is in the space spanned by the rows of A , and the maximum value is $B = \frac{1}{8} m^T R^{-1} m$.

Case II: If $m=0$, then the maximum value for B will be attained if we take the rows of A to be the first K eigenvectors $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_K$ (transposed) of

the matrix equation $R_1 \phi = \lambda R_0 \phi$, where the eigen-solutions $(\phi_i, \lambda_i)_{i=1}^N$ are ordered so that $\lambda_1 + 1/\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 + 1/\lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_N + 1/\lambda_N$. It is easily shown that there exist N eigen-solutions which satisfy the "orthonormality" condition $\phi_i^T R_0 \phi_j = \delta_{ij}$.^{*5} Moreover, with this choice of A, the components of y will be statistically independent under either hypothesis.

In the general case the problem is much more difficult. Gradient techniques could be used to find the optimum A, but such techniques would prove extremely impractical when N is large. We shall develop here a slightly sub-optimal solution to the problem, which is relatively easy to find in a given practical problem.

If we write $B = B_I + B_{II}$, where $B_I = \frac{1}{8} u^T P^{-1} u$; $B_{II} = \frac{1}{8} \ln \left(\frac{\det P}{\det P_0 \cdot \det P_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$, then we can note the following facts: First we note that B_{II} is completely independent of m, and is simply the value of B that would have been obtained under the assumption $m = 0$. Thus we must have $B_{II} \leq B_{II}^*$, where B_{II}^* is the value of B_{II} attained when A is chosen as in Case II. Furthermore, B_I is just the value of B that would have been obtained if we had assumed equal covariance matrices, taking the average value $R = \frac{1}{2}(R_0 + R_1)$. Therefore, $B_I \leq B_I^* \triangleq \frac{1}{8} m^T R^{-1} m$, and equality will be achieved whenever the row space of A contains the vector $s^T = m^T R^{-1}$.

At this point we should mention one special case: if it should happen that s^T is contained in the row space of the matrix A chosen as in Case II, then both equalities will obtain and the maximum B will have been achieved. (This may actually occur, at least approximately, in some practical cases.)

If we write $B^{\text{opt}} = B_I^{\text{opt}} + B_{II}^{\text{opt}}$ to denote the values attained when A is chosen to maximize B , we must have $B_I^{\text{opt}} \leq B_I^*$ and $B_{II}^{\text{opt}} \leq B_{II}^*$. But suppose we choose A as in Case II. Then we would have $B = B_I + B_{II}^*$, where, excepting the special case, $B_I < B_I^*$. Now suppose we use the $(K+1) \times N$ matrix A^{aug} formed by adjoining s^T onto A as its $K+1$ row; i.e., $A^{\text{aug}} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} A \\ s^T \end{bmatrix}$. Then $B^{\text{aug}} = B_I^* + B_{II}^{\text{aug}}$, since the row space now contains s^T . Furthermore, it must be true that $B_{II}^* \leq B_{II}^{\text{aug}}$ since we know that (in Case II) adding a new row to the matrix transformation never decreases the information. Hence $B^{\text{aug}} \geq B^{\text{opt}}$.

The result can be summarized as follows: Although we cannot easily find the best $K \times N$ matrix A^{opt} , we can always use the $(K+1) \times N$ matrix A^{aug} to extract just as much (and possibly more) information at the cost of requiring that we be permitted to use one extra component in the transformed data vector y .

It should be noted that another interpretation of this result is provided by simply identifying $J=K+1$; $J-1=K$, and stating that although A^{aug} may not be quite as good as the best $J \times N$ matrix, it certainly yields as much information as any $(J-1) \times N$ matrix, and may be therefore regarded as a slightly suboptimal solution to the problem of finding the best $J \times N$ matrix.

In many real problems this compromise solution should be good enough, provided that increasing or decreasing K slightly does not drastically affect the amount of information we can extract. This condition would be met if N were quite large and K had been predetermined by a law of diminishing returns, (i.e. if K had been selected to be large enough so that further increase would

yield relatively little additional information).

In order to find A^{aug} we must find s , and determine the first K eigenvectors ϕ_1 described under Case II. Finding s is not too difficult, and is actually analogous to finding the matched filter in a problem with continuous (rather than discrete, i.e. vector) data. For finding the ϕ_1 's we first note that

$$R_1 \phi = \lambda R_0 \phi \iff R_0^{-1} R_1 \phi = \lambda \phi \iff R_1^{-1} R_0 \phi = \frac{1}{\lambda} \phi \text{ (if } R^{-1} \text{ exists).}$$

Matrix iteration techniques can be used to find the eigenvectors ^{*6}. However, when N is extremely large such techniques are unreasonable (and it becomes impossible to invert the matrices). For this reason a practical method has been developed for finding the eigenvectors under the fairly general assumption that the components of z can be regarded as the output sequence of discrete linear dynamic system excited by a "white" Gaussian noise sequence (with a different model for each hypothesis). The details are too involved to be presented in this correspondence ^{*5}.

In closing we remark that these results apply equally well to the case of continuous data $z = z(t)$, $t \in (a, b)$, provided a complete set of eigenfunctions $\phi_1(t)$ exist for the integral equation ^{*3,7}

$$\int_a^b R_1(t, \tau) \phi(\tau) d\tau = \lambda \int_a^b R_0(t, \tau) \phi(\tau) d\tau,$$

where R_0 and R_1 are the hypothesis-conditional covariance functions of $z(t)$. (State variable techniques have been developed for solving this integral equation) ^{*8}.

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