A Category Space Approach to Supervised Dimensionality Reduction

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Abstract

Supervised dimensionality reduction has emerged as an important theme in the last decade. Despite the plethora of models and formulations, there is a lack of a simple model which aims to project the set of patterns into a space defined by the classes (or categories). To this end, we set up a model in which each class is represented as a 1D subspace of the vector space formed by the features. Assuming the set of classes does not exceed the cardinality of the features, the model results in multi-class supervised learning in which the features of each class are projected into the class subspace. Class discrimination is automatically guaranteed via the imposition of orthogonality of the 1D class subspaces. The resulting optimization problem—formulated as the minimization of a sum of quadratic functions on a Stiefel manifold—while being non-convex (due to the constraints), nevertheless has a structure for which we can identify when we have reached a global minimum. After formulating a version with standard inner products, we extend the formulation to reproducing kernel Hilbert spaces in a straightforward manner. The optimization approach also extends in a similar fashion to the kernel version. Results and comparisons with the multi-class Fisher linear (and kernel) discriminants and principal component analysis (linear and kernel) showcase the relative merits of this approach to dimensionality reduction.

Keywords: Dimensionality reduction, optimization, classification, supervised learning, Stiefel manifold, category space, Fisher discriminants, principal component analysis, multi-class

1 Introduction

Dimensionality reduction and supervised learning have long been active tropes in machine learning. For example, principal component analysis (PCA) and the support vector machine (SVM) are standard bearers for dimensionality reduction and supervised learning respectively. Even now, machine learning researchers are accustomed to performing PCA when seeking a simple dimensionality reduction technique despite the fact that it is an unsupervised learning approach. In the past decade, there has been considerable interest to include supervision (expert label information) into dimensionality reduction techniques. Beginning with the well known EigenFaces versus FisherFaces debate [5], there has been considerable activity centered around using Fisher linear discriminants (FLD) and other supervised learning approaches in dimensionality reduction. Since the Fisher linear discriminant has a multi-class extension, it is natural to begin there. However, it is also
natural to ask the question if this is the only possible approach. In this work, we design a category space approach with the fundamental goal of using multi-class information to aid in dimensionality reduction. The motivation for the approach and the main thrust of this work are our focus, next.

The venerable Fisher discriminant is a supervised dimensionality reduction technique, wherein, a maximally discriminative one dimensional subspace is estimated from the data. The criterion used for discrimination is the ratio between the squared distance of the projected class means and a weighted sum of the projected variances. This criterion has a closed form solution yielding the best 1D subspace. The Fisher discriminant also has an extension to the multi-class case. Here the criterion used is more complex and highly unusual: it is the ratio between a squared distance between each class projected mean and the total projected mean and the sum of the projected variances. This too results in a closed form solution but with the subspace dimension cardinality being one less than the number of classes.

The above description of the multi-class FLD sets the stage for our approach. We begin with the assumption that the set of categories (classes) is a subspace of the original feature space (similar to FLD). However, we add the restriction that the category bases are mutually orthogonal with the origin of the vector space belonging to no category. Given this restriction, the criterion for multi-class category space dimensionality reduction is quite straightforward: we simply maximize the square of the inner product between each pattern and its own category axis with the aim of discovering the category space via this process. (Setting the origin is a highly technical issue and therefore not described here.) The result is a sum of quadratic objective functions on a Stiefel manifold—the category space of orthonormal basis vectors. This is a very interesting objective function which has coincidentally received quite a bit of treatment recently [23, 9]. Furthermore, there is no need to restrict ourselves to sums of quadratic objective functions provided we are willing to forego useful analysis of this base case. The unusual aspect of the objective function comprising sums of quadratic objective functions is that we can formulate a criterion which guarantees that we have reached a global minimum if the achieved solution satisfies it. Unfortunately, there is no algorithm at the present time that can a priori guarantee satisfaction of this criterion and hence we can only check on a case by case basis. Despite this, our experimental results show that we get efficient solutions, competitive with those obtained from other dimensionality reduction algorithms. Extensive comparisons are conducted against principal component analysis (PCA) and multi-class Fisher using support vector machine (SVM) classifiers on the reduced set of features.

It should be clear that the contribution of this paper is to a very old problem in pattern recognition. While numerous alternatives exist to the FLD (such as canonical correlation analysis [13]) and while there are many nonlinear unsupervised dimensionality reduction techniques (such as local linear embedding [24], ISOMAP [29] and Laplacian Eigenmaps [6]), we have not encountered a simple dimensionality reduction technique which is based on projecting the data into a space spanned by the categories. Obviously, numerous extensions and more abstract formulations of the base case in this paper can be considered, but to reiterate, we have not seen any previous work perform supervised dimensionality reduction in the manner suggested here.

2 Related Work

Traditional dimensionality reduction techniques like principal component analysis (PCA) [18], and supervised algorithms such as Fisher linear discriminant analysis [11] seek to retain significant features while removing insignificant, redundant, or noisy features. These algorithms are frequently utilized as preprocessing steps before the application of a classification algorithm and have been been successful in solving many real-world problems. A limitation in the vast majority of methods is that there is no specific connection between the dimensionality reduction technique and the supervised
2 Related Work

Dimensionality reduction techniques such as canonical correlation analysis (CCA) \[15\], and partial least squares (PLS) \[2\] on the one hand and classification algorithms such as support vector machines (SVM) \[31\] on the other seek to optimize different criteria. In contrast, in this paper, we analyze dimensionality reduction from the perspective of multi-class classification. The use of a category vector space (with dimension equal to class cardinality) is an integral aspect of this approach.

In supervised learning, it is customary for classification methodologies to regard classes as nominal labels without having any internal structure. This remains true regardless of whether a discriminant or classifier is sought. Discriminants are designed by attempting to separate patterns into oppositional classes \[7\] \[10\] \[14\]. When generalization to a multi-class classifier is required, many oppositional discriminants are combined with the final classifier being a winner-take-all (or voting-based) decision w.r.t. the set of nominal labels. Convex objective functions based on misclassification error minimization (or approximation) are not that different either. Least-squares or logistic regression methods set up convex objective functions with nominal labels converted to binary outputs \[34\] \[8\]. When extensions to multi-class are sought, the binary labels are extended to a one of \(K\) encoding with \(K\) being the number of classes. Support vector machines (SVM’s) were inherently designed for two class discrimination and all formulations of multi-class SVM’s extend this oppositional framework using one-versus-one or one-versus-all schemes. Below, we begin by describing the different approaches to the multi-class problem. This is not meant to be exhaustive, but provides an overview of some of the popular methods and approaches that have been researched in classification and dimensionality reduction. Folley and Sammon \[25\] \[12\] studied the two class problem and feature selection and focused on criteria with greatest potential to discriminate. The goal of feature selection is to find a set of features with the best discrimination properties. To identify the best feature vectors they chose the generalized Fisher optimality criterion proposed by \[1\]. The selected directions maximize the Fisher criterion which has attractive properties of discrimination. Principal components analysis (PCA) permits the reduction of dimensions of high dimensional data without losing significant information \[15\] \[18\] \[26\]. Principal components are a way of identifying patterns or significant features without taking into account discriminative considerations \[21\]. Supervised PCA (SPCA), derived from PCA is a method for obtaining useful sub-spaces when the labels are taken into account. This technique was first described in \[4\] under the title “supervised clustering.” The idea behind SPCA is to perform selective dimensionality reduction using carefully chosen subsets of labeled samples. This is used to build a prediction model \[3\]. While we have addressed the most popular techniques in dimensionality reduction and multi-class classification, this is not an exhaustive study of the literature. Our focus so far is primarily on discriminative dimensionality reduction methods that assist in better multi-class classification performance. The closest we have seen in relation to our work on category spaces is the work in \[33\] and \[32\]. Here, they mention the importance and usefulness of modeling categories as vector spaces for document retrieval and explain how unrelated items should have an orthogonal relationship. This is to say that they should have no features in common. The structured SVM in \[30\] is another effort at going beyond nominal classes. Here, classes are allowed to have internal structure in the form of strings, trees etc. However, an explicit modeling of classes as vector spaces is not carried out.

From the above, the modest goal of the present work should be clear. We seek to project the input feature vectors to a category space—a subspace formed by category basis vectors. The multi-class FLD falls short of this goal since the number of projected dimensions is one less than the number of classes. The multi-class (and more recently multi-label) SVM \[16\] literature is fragmented due to lack of agreement regarding the core issue of multi-class discrimination. The varieties of supervised PCA do not begin by clearly formulating a criterion for category space projection. Variants such as CCA \[17\] \[27\], PLS \[28\] and structured SVM’s \[30\] while attempting to
3 Dimensionality Reduction using a Category Space Formulation

3.1 Maximizing the square of the inner product

The principal goal of this paper is a new form of supervised dimensionality reduction. Specifically, when we seek to marry principal component analysis with supervised learning, by far the simplest synthesis is category space dimensionality reduction with orthogonal class vectors. Assume the existence of a feature space with each feature vector \(x_i \in \mathbb{R}^D\). Our goal is to perform supervised dimensionality reduction by reducing the number of feature dimensions from \(D\) to \(K\) where \(K \leq D\). Here \(K\) is the number of classes and the first simplifying assumption made in this work is that we will represent the category space using \(K\) orthonormal basis vectors \(\{w_k\}\) together with an origin \(x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^D\). The second assumption we make is that each feature vector \(x_i\) should have a large magnitude inner product with its assigned class. From the orthonormality constraint above, this automatically implies a small magnitude inner product with all other weight vectors. A candidate objective function and constraints following the above considerations is

\[
E(W) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left[w_k^T (x_{i_k} - x_0)\right]^2
\]

and

\[
w_k^T w_l = \begin{cases} 
1, & k = l \\
0, & k \neq l 
\end{cases}
\]

respectively. In (1), \(W = [w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_K]\). Note that we have referred to this as a candidate objective function for two reasons. First, the origin \(x_0\) is still unspecified and we cannot obviously minimize (1) w.r.t. \(x_0\) as the minimum value is not bounded from below. Second, it is not clear why we cannot use the absolute value or other symmetric functions of the inner product. Both these issues are addressed later in this work. At present, we resolve the origin issue by setting \(x_0\) to the centroid of all the feature vectors (with this choice getting a principled justification below).

The objective function in (1) is the negative of a quadratic function. Since the function \(-x^2\) is concave, it admits a Legendre transform-based majorization using the tangent of the function. That is, we propose to replace objective functions of the form \(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\) with \(\min_y -xy + \frac{1}{2}y^2\) which can quickly checked to be valid for an unconstrained auxiliary variable \(y\). Note that this transformation yields a linear objective function w.r.t. \(x\) which is to be expected from the geometric interpretation of a tangent.

Consider the following Legendre transformation of the objective function in (1). The new objective function is

\[
E_{\text{quad}}(W,Z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left[z_{ki_k} \left(-w_k^T x_{i_k} + w_k^T x_0\right) + \frac{1}{2}z_{ki_k}^2\right]
\]

where \(Z = \{z_{ki_k} \mid k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}, i_k \in \{1, \ldots, |C_k|\}\}\). Now consider this to be an objective function over \(x_0\) as well. In order to avoid minima at negative infinity, we require additional constraints.
One such constraint (and perhaps not the only one) is of the form $\sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki_k} = 0, \forall k$. When this constraint is imposed, we obtain a new objective function

$$E_{\text{quad}}(W, Z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left[ -z_{ki_k} w_k^T x_{ik} + \frac{1}{2} z_{ki_k}^2 \right]$$

(4)

to be minimized subject to the constraints

$$\sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki_k} = 0, \forall k$$

(5)

in addition to the orthonormal constraints in (2). This objective function yields a $Z$ which removes the class-specific centroid of $C_k$ for all classes.

3.2 Maximizing the absolute value of the inner product

We have justified our choice of centroid removal mentioned above indirectly obtained via constraints imposed on Legendre transform auxiliary variables. The above objective function can be suitably modified when we use different forms (absolute inner product etc.). To see this, consider the following objective function which minimizes the negative of the magnitude of the inner product:

$$E(W) = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} |w_k^T (x_{ik} - x_0)|.$$  

(6)

Since $-|x|$ is also a concave function, it too can be majorized. Consider first replacing the non-differentiable objective function $-|x|$ with $-\sqrt{x^2 + \epsilon}$ (also concave) where $\epsilon$ can be chosen to be a suitably small value. Now consider replacing $-\sqrt{x^2 + \epsilon}$ with $\min_y -xy - \epsilon \sqrt{1 - y^2}$ which can again quickly checked to be valid for a constrained auxiliary variable $y \in [-1, 1]$. The constraint is somewhat less relevant since the minimum w.r.t. $y$ occurs at $y = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + \epsilon^2}}$ which lies within the constraint interval. Note that this transformation also yields a linear objective function w.r.t. $x$. As before, we introduce a new objective function

$$E_{\text{abs}}(W, Z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left[ -z_{ki_k} w_k^T x_{ik} - \epsilon \sqrt{1 - z_{ki_k}^2} \right]$$

(7)

to be minimized subject to the constraints $\sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki_k} = 0, \forall k$ and $z_{ki_k} \in [-1, 1]$ which are the same as in (5) in addition to the orthonormal constraints in (2).

3.3 Extension to RKHS kernels

The generalization to RKHS kernels is surprisingly straightforward. First, we follow standard kernel PCA and write the weight vector in terms of the RKHS projected patterns $\phi(x_l)$ to get

$$w_k = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_{ki} \phi(x_i).$$  

(8)

Note that the expansion of the weight vector is over all patterns rather than just the class-specific ones. This assumes that the weight vector for each class lives in the subspace (potentially infinite
dimensional) spanned by the RKHS projected patterns—the same assumption as in standard kernel PCA. The orthogonality constraint between weight vectors becomes

\[
\langle w_k, w_l \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{ki} \alpha_{lj} \langle \phi(x_i), \phi(x_j) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{ki} \alpha_{kj} K(x_i, x_j)
\]

which is equal to one if \( k = l \) and zero otherwise. In matrix form, the orthonormality constraints become

\[
AGA^T = I_K
\]

where \([A]_{kl} \equiv \alpha_{ki}\) and \([G]_{ij} \equiv K(x_i, x_j)\) is the well-known Gram matrix of pairwise RKHS inner products between the patterns.

The corresponding squared inner product and absolute value of inner product objective functions are

\[
E_{\text{Kquad}}(A, Z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in C_k} \left[ -\sum_{j=1}^{N} z_{ki} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) + \frac{1}{2} z_{ki}^2 \right]
\]

and

\[
E_{\text{Kabs}}(A, Z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in C_k} \left[ -\sum_{j=1}^{N} z_{ki} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) - \epsilon \sqrt{1 - z_{ki}^2} \right]
\]

respectively. These have to be minimized w.r.t. the orthonormal constraints in (10) and the origin constraints in (5). Note that the objective functions are identical w.r.t. the matrix \( A \). The parameter \( \epsilon \) can be set to a very small but positive value.

4 An algorithm for supervised dimensionality reduction

We now return to the objective functions and constraints in (4) and (7) prior to tackling the corresponding kernel versions in (11) and (12) respectively. It turns out that the approach for minimizing the former can be readily generalized to the latter with the former being easier to analyze. Note that the objective functions in (4) and (7) are identical w.r.t. \( W \). Consequently, we dispense with the optimization problems w.r.t. \( Z \) which are straightforward and focus on the optimization problem w.r.t. \( W \).

4.1 Weight matrix estimation with orthogonality constraints

The objective function and constraints on \( W \) can be written as

\[
E_{\text{equiv}}(W) = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in C_k} z_{ki} w_k^T x_{ik}
\]

and

\[
w_k^T w_l = \begin{cases} 
1, & k = l \\
0, & k \neq l 
\end{cases}
\]

Note that the set \( Z \) is not included in this objective function despite its presence in the larger objective functions of (4) and (7). The orthonormal constraints can be expressed using a Lagrange parameter matrix to obtain the following Lagrangian:
4 An algorithm for supervised dimensionality reduction

\[ L(W, \Lambda) = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki_k} w_k^T x_{i_k} + \text{trace} \left\{ \Lambda \left( W^T W - I_K \right) \right\}. \] (15)

Setting the gradient of \( L \) w.r.t. \( W \) to zero, we obtain

\[ \nabla_W L(W, \Lambda) = -Y + W \left( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \right) = 0 \] (16)

where the matrix \( Y \) of size \( D \times K \) is defined as

\[ Y \equiv \left[ \sum_{i_1 \in C_1} z_{1i_1} x_{i_1}, \cdots, \sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki_k} x_{i_k} \right] \] (17)

Using the constraint \( W^T W = I_K \), we get

\[ \left( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \right) = W^T Y. \] (18)

Since \( \left( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \right) \) is symmetric, this immediately implies that \( W^T Y \) is symmetric. From (16), we also get

\[ \left( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \right) W^T W \left( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \right) = \left( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \right)^2 = Y^T Y. \] (19)

Expanding \( Y \) using its singular value decomposition (SVD) as \( Y = U \Sigma V^T \), the above relations can be simplified to

\[ Y = U \Sigma V^T = UV^T (V \Sigma V^T) = W \left( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \right) \] (20)

giving

\[ \left( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \right) = V \Sigma V^T \] (21)

and

\[ W = UV^T. \] (22)

We have shown that the optimal solution for \( W \) is the polar decomposition of \( Y \), namely \( W = UV^T \). Since \( Z \) has been held fixed during the estimation of \( W \), in the subsequent step we can hold \( W \) fixed and solve for \( Z \) and repeat. We thereby obtain an alternating algorithm which iterates between estimating \( W \) and \( Z \) until a convergence criterion is met.

4.2 Estimation of the auxiliary variable \( Z \)

The objective function and constraints on \( Z \) depend on whether we use objective functions based on the square or absolute value of the inner product. We separately consider the two cases.

The inner product squared effective objective function

\[ E_{\text{quadeff}}(Z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left[ -z_{ki_k} w_k^T x_{i_k} + \frac{1}{2} z_{ki_k}^2 \right] \] (23)

is minimized w.r.t. \( Z \) subject to the constraints \( \sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki_k} = 0, \forall k \). The straightforward solution obtained via standard minimization is
4 An algorithm for supervised dimensionality reduction

\[ z_{ki} = w_k^T x_{ik} - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} w_k^T x_{ik} \]

\[ = w_k^T \left( x_{ik} - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} x_{ik} \right). \]  

(24)

The absolute value effective objective function

\[ E_{\text{abseff}}(Z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left[ -z_{ki} w_k^T x_{ik} - \epsilon \sqrt{1 - z_{ki}^2} \right] \]  

(25)

is also minimized w.r.t. \( Z \) subject to the constraints \( \sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki} = 0, \forall k \). A heuristic solution obtained (eschewing standard minimization) is

\[ z_{ki} = \frac{w_k^T x_{ik}}{\sqrt{(w_k^T x_{ik})^2 + \epsilon^2}} \]

(26)

which has to be checked to be valid. The heuristic solution acts as an initial condition for constraint satisfaction (which can be efficiently obtained via 1D line minimization). The first order Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions obtained from the Lagrangian

\[ L_{\text{abseff}}(Z, M) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left[ -z_{ki} w_k^T x_{ik} - \epsilon \sqrt{1 - z_{ki}^2} \right] - \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mu_k \sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki} \]  

are

\[ -w_k^T x_{ik} + \epsilon \frac{z_{ki}}{\sqrt{1 - z_{ki}^2}} - \mu_k = 0, \forall k \]  

(28)

from which we obtain

\[ z_{ki} = \frac{w_k^T x_{ik} + \mu_k}{\sqrt{(w_k^T x_{ik} + \mu_k)^2 + \epsilon^2}}. \]  

(29)

We see that the the constraint \( z_{ki} \in [-1, 1] \) is also satisfied. For each category \( C_k \), there exists a solution to the Lagrange parameter \( \mu_k \) such that \( \sum_{i_k} z_{ki} = 0 \). This can be obtained via any efficient 1D search procedure like golden section [19].

### 4.3 Extension to the kernel setting

The objective function and constraints on the weight matrix \( A \) in the kernel setting are

\[ E_{\text{Kequiv}}(A) = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} N \sum_{j=1}^{N} z_{ki} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) \]  

(30)

with the constraints

\[ AGA^T = I_K \]  

(31)

where \( [A]_{ki} = \alpha_{ki} \) and \( [G]_{ij} = K(x_i, x_j) \) is the \( N \times N \) kernel Gram matrix. The constraints can be expressed using a Lagrange parameter matrix to obtain the following Lagrangian:
\begin{equation}
L_{\text{ker}}(A, \Lambda) = - \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \sum_{j=1}^{N} z_{kij} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) + \text{trace} \left\{ \Lambda_{\text{ker}} \left( AGA^T - I_K \right) \right\}.
\end{equation}

Setting the gradient of \( L_{\text{ker}} \) w.r.t. \( A \) to zero, we obtain

\[ -Y_{\text{ker}} + (\Lambda_{\text{ker}} + \Lambda_{\text{ker}}^T)AG = 0 \quad (33) \]

where the matrix \( Y_{\text{ker}} \) of size \( K \times N \) is defined as

\[ [Y_{\text{ker}}]_{kj} \equiv \sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{kij} K(x_j, x_{ik}). \quad (34) \]

Using the constraint \( AGA^T = I_K \), we obtain

\[ (\Lambda_{\text{ker}} + \Lambda_{\text{ker}}^T)AGA^T(\Lambda_{\text{ker}} + \Lambda_{\text{ker}}^T) = (\Lambda_{\text{ker}} + \Lambda_{\text{ker}}^T)^2 = Y_{\text{ker}}G^{-\frac{1}{2}}Y_{\text{ker}}^T. \quad (35) \]

Expanding \( Y_{\text{ker}}G^{-\frac{1}{2}} \) using its singular value decomposition as \( Y_{\text{ker}}G^{-\frac{1}{2}} = U_{\text{ker}}S_{\text{ker}}V_{\text{ker}}^T \), the above relations can be simplified to

\[ (\Lambda_{\text{ker}} + \Lambda_{\text{ker}}^T) = U_{\text{ker}}S_{\text{ker}}U_{\text{ker}}^T \quad (36) \]

and

\[ AG^\frac{1}{2} = U_{\text{ker}}V_{\text{ker}}^T \Rightarrow A = U_{\text{ker}}V_{\text{ker}}^TG^{-\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (37) \]

We have shown that the optimal solution for \( A \) is related to the polar decomposition of \( Y_{\text{ker}}G^{-\frac{1}{2}} \), namely \( A = U_{\text{ker}}V_{\text{ker}}^TG^{-\frac{1}{2}} \). Since \( Z \) has been held fixed during the estimation of \( A \), in the subsequent step we can hold \( A \) fixed and solve for \( Z \) and repeat. We thereby obtain an alternating algorithm which iterates between estimating \( A \) and \( Z \) until a convergence criterion is met. This is analogous to the non-kernel version above.

The solutions for \( Z \) in this setting are very straightforward to obtain. We eschew the derivation and merely state that

\[ z_{kij} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) \]

for the squared inner product kernel objective and

\[ z_{kij} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik})}{\sqrt{\left( \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) \right)^2 + \epsilon^2}} - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik})}{\sqrt{\left( \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) \right)^2 + \epsilon^2}} \quad (39) \]

for the absolute valued kernel objective. This heuristic solution acts as an initial condition for constraint satisfaction (which can be efficiently be obtained via 1D line minimization). Following the line of equations (27)-(29) above, the solution can be written as
\[ z_{ki} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) + \mu_k}{\sqrt{(\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) + \mu_k)^2 + \epsilon^2}}. \] (40)

For each category \( C_k \), as before, there exists a solution to the Lagrange parameter \( \mu_k \) such that \( \sum_{i_k} z_{ki} = 0 \). Once again, this can be obtained via any efficient 1D search procedure like golden section [19].

4.4 Analysis

4.4.1 Euclidean setting

The simplest objective function in the above sequence which has been analyzed in the literature is the one based on the squared inner product. Below, we summarize this work by closely following the treatment in [22, 23]. First, in order to bring our work in sync with the literature, we eliminate the auxiliary variable \( Z \) from the squared inner product objective function (treated as a function of both \( W \) and \( Z \) here):

\[ E_{\text{quad}}(W, Z) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} [z_{ki} w_k^T x_{ik} + \frac{1}{2} z_{ki}^2] \] (41)

Setting \( z_{ki} = w_k^T (x_{ik} - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} x_{ik}) \) which is the optimum solution for \( Z \), we get

\[ E_{\text{quad}}(W) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k^T R_k w_k = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left[ z_{ki}^2 \right] \] (42)

where \( R_k \) is the class-specific covariance matrix:

\[ R_k \equiv \sum_{i_k \in C_k} (x_{ik} - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i \in C_k} x_i) (x_{ik} - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i \in C_k} x_i)^T. \] (43)

We seek to minimize (42) w.r.t. \( W \) under the orthonormality constraints \( W^T W = I_K \).

A set of \( K \) orthonormal vectors \( \{w_k \in \mathbb{R}^D, k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}\} \) in a \( D \)-dimensional Euclidean space is a point on the well known Stiefel manifold, denoted here by \( M_{D,K} \) with \( K \leq D \). The problem in (42) is equivalent to the maximization of the sum of heterogeneous quadratic functions on a Stiefel manifold. The functions are heterogeneous in our case since the class-specific covariance matrices \( R_k \) are not identical in general. The Lagrangian corresponding to this problem (with \( Z \) removed via direct minimization) is

\[ L_{\text{quad}}(W, \Lambda) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k^T R_k w_k + \text{trace} \left[ \Lambda^T (W^T W - I_K) \right]. \] (44)

Setting the gradient of the above Lagrangian w.r.t. \( W \) to zero, we obtain

\[ [R_1 w_1, R_2 w_2, \ldots, R_K w_K] = W (\Lambda + \Lambda^T). \] (45)

Noting that \( \Lambda + \Lambda^T \) is symmetric and using the Stiefel orthonormality constraint \( W^T W = I_K \), we get
\[(\Lambda + \Lambda^T) = W^T [R_1w_1, R_2w_2, \ldots, R_Kw_K]. \quad (46)\]

The above can be considerably simplified. First we introduce a new vector \(w \in M_{D,K}\) defined as \(w \equiv [w_1^T, w_2^T, \ldots, w_K^T]^T\) and then rewrite (45) in vector form to get

\[Rw = S(w)w \quad (47)\]

where

\[R \equiv \begin{bmatrix} R_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0_K \\ 0_K & R_2 & \cdots & 0_K \\ 0_K & \cdots & \cdots & 0_K \\ 0_K & \cdots & \cdots & R_K \end{bmatrix} \quad (48)\]

is a \(KD \times KD\) matrix and

\[S(w) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} w_1^TR_1w_1I_K & \cdots & \frac{1}{2}\left(w_1^TR_1w_K + w_K^TR_1w_1\right)I_K \\ \frac{1}{2}\left(w_1^TR_1w_2 + w_2^TR_2w_1\right)I_K & \cdots & \frac{1}{2}\left(w_2^TR_2w_K + w_K^TR_2w_2\right)I_K \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{2}\left(w_1^TR_1w_K + w_K^TR_1w_1\right)I_K & \cdots & w_K^TR_Kw_KI_K \end{bmatrix} \quad (49)\]

a \(KD \times KD\) symmetric matrix. The reason \(S(w)\) can be made symmetric is because it’s closely related to the solution to \((\Lambda + \Lambda)^T\)—which has to be symmetric. The first and second order necessary conditions for a vector \(w_0 \in M_{D,K}\) to be a local minimum (feasible point) for the problem in (42) are as follows:

\[Rw_0 = S(w_0)w_0 \quad (50)\]

and

\[(R - S(w_0))|_{TM(w_0)} \quad (51)\]

is negative semi-definite. In (51), \(TM(w_0)\) is the tangent space of the Stiefel manifold at \(w_0\). In a tour de force proof, Rapcsák further shows in [23] that if the matrix \((R - S(w_0))\) is negative semi-definite, then a feasible point \(w_0\) is a global minimum. This is an important result since it adds a sufficient condition for a global minimum for the problem of minimizing a heterogeneous sum of quadratic forms on a Stiefel manifold.\footnote{Note that this problem is fundamentally different from and cannot be reduced to the minimization of trace \((AW^TBW)\) subject to \(W^T W = I_K\) which has a closed form solution.}

### 4.4.2 The RKHS setting

We can readily extend the above analysis to the kernel version of the squared inner product. The complete objective function w.r.t. both the coefficients \(A\) and the auxiliary variable \(Z\) is

\[E_{\text{Kequiv}}(A, Z) = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i \in C_k} \left[ -\sum_{j=1}^N z_{ki} \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik}) + \frac{1}{2} z_{ki}^2 \right]. \quad (52)\]

Setting \(z_{ki} = \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_{kj} K(x_j, x_{ik})\) which is the optimum solution for \(Z\), we get
The objective function and constraints in (53) can be written as

$$E_{\text{Quad}}(A) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{kj} \left( K(x_j, x_{i_k}) - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i \in C_k} K(x_j, x_i) \right) \right)^2$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k^T G_k \alpha_k$$

where $[\alpha_k]_j = \alpha_{kj}$, $A = [\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_K]^T$ and

$$[G_k]_{jm} = \sum_{i_k \in C_k} \left( K(x_j, x_{i_k}) - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i \in C_k} K(x_j, x_i) \right) \cdot \left( K(x_m, x_{i_k}) - \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{i \in C_k} K(x_m, x_i) \right)$$

The constraints on $A$ can be written as

$$AGA^T = I_K \Rightarrow \left( G^\frac{1}{2} A^T \right)^T \left( G^\frac{1}{2} A^T \right) = I_K.$$ (55)

Introducing a new variable $B = G^\frac{1}{2} A^T$, we may rewrite the kernel objective function and constraints as

$$E_{\text{Quadnew}}(B) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \beta_k^T H \beta_k \equiv -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \beta_k^T G^{-\frac{1}{2}} G_k G^{-\frac{1}{2}} \beta_k$$

(56)

where $B \equiv [\beta_1, \beta_2, \ldots, \beta_K]$ and

$$B^T B = I_K$$ (57)

respectively. This is now in the same form as the objective function and constraints in Section 4.4.1 and therefore the Rapcsák analysis of that section can be directly applied here. The above change of variables is predicated on the positive definiteness of $G$. If this is invalid, principal component analysis has to be applied to $G$ resulting in a positive definite matrix in a reduced space after which the above approach can be applied.

In addition to providing necessary conditions for global minima, the authors in [9] developed an iterative procedure as a method for a solution. We have adapted this to suit our purposes. A block coordinate descent algorithm which successively updates $W$ and $Z$ is presented in Algorithm [1]
Algorithm 1 Iterative process for minimization of the sum of squares of inner products objective function.

- **Input**: A set of labeled patterns \( \{x_{ik}\}_{1}^{\left|C_k\right|}, \forall k \in \{1, \ldots, K\} \).

- **Initialize**:
  - Convergence threshold \( \epsilon \).
  - Arbitrary orthonormal system \( W^{(0)} \).

- **Repeat**
  - Calculate the sequence \( [W^{(1)}, W^{(2)}, \ldots, W^{(m)}] \). Assume \( W^{(m)} \) is constructed for \( m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \)
  - Update the auxiliary variable \( Z^{(m+1)} \), under the constraint \( \sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki} = 0, \forall k \),
    \[ z_{ki}^{(m+1)} = (w^{(m)})_k^T x_{ik} - \frac{1}{\left|C_k\right|} \sum_{i_k \in C_k} (w^{(m)})_k^T x_{ik} \]
    for the sum of squares of inner products objective function.
  - Perform the SVD decomposition on \( \left[ \sum_{i_1 \in C_1} z_{i1}^{(m+1)} x_{i1}, \ldots, \sum_{i_k \in C_k} z_{ki}^{(m+1)} x_{ik} \right] \) to get \( U^{(m+1)} S^{(m+1)} (V^{(m+1)})^T \) where \( S^{(m+1)} \) is \( K \times K \).
  - \( W^{(m+1)} = U^{(m+1)} (V^{(m+1)})^T \), the polar decomposition.

- **Loop until** \( \|W^{(m+1)} - W^{(m)}\|_F \leq \epsilon \).

- **Output**: \( W \)

5 Experimental Results

5.1 Quantitative results for linear and kernel dimensionality reduction

In practice, dimensionality reduction is used in conjunction with a classification algorithm. By definition the purpose of dimensionality reduction as it relates to classification, is to reduce the complexity of the data while retaining discriminating information. Thus we utilize a popular classification algorithm in order to analyze the performance of our proposed dimensionality reduction technique. In this section, we report the results of several experiments with dimensionality reduction combined with SVM classification. In the multi-class setting, we compare against other state-of-the-art algorithms that perform dimensionality reduction and then evaluate the performance using the multi-class one-vs-all linear SVM scheme. The classification technique uses the traditional training and testing phases, outputting the class it considers the best prediction for a given test sample. We measure the accuracy of these predictions averaged over all test sets. In Table (1), we demonstrate the effectiveness of both the sum of quadratic and absolute value functions, denoted as category quadratic space (CQS) and category absolute value space (CAS) respectively. Then, we benchmark their overall classification accuracy against several classical dimensionality reduction techniques, namely, least squares linear discriminant analysis (LS-LDA) [34], Fisher linear discriminant (MC-FLD) [11], principal component analysis (PCA) [21] and their multi-class and kernel counterparts (when applicable). In each experiment, we choose two thirds of the data for training and the remaining third of the samples were used for testing. The results are shown in
Table (1).

**Databases**: To illustrate the performance of the methods proposed in Section 3, we conducted experiments using different publicly available data sets taken from the UCI machine learning data repository [20]. We have chosen a variety of data sets that vary in terms of class cardinality ($K$), samples ($N$) and number of features ($D$) to demonstrate the versatility of our approach. For a direct comparison of results, we chose the same data sets: Vehicle, Wine, Iris, Seeds, Thyroid, Satellite, Segmentation, and Vertebral Silhouettes recognition databases. More details about the individual sets are available at the respective repository sites.

We divide the results into the linear and kernel groups (as is normal practice). The obtained results for linear dimensionality reduction with SVM linear classification are shown in Table (1). All dimensionality reduction algorithms were implemented and configured for optimal classification results (via cross-validation) with a linear SVM classifier. It can be seen that the category space projection scheme consistently provides a good projection for a standard classification algorithms to be executed. Several of the data sets are comprise only three classes and it can be seen that the proposed method is competitive in performance and in some instances performs slightly better.

| Name (# Classes) | CQS | CAS | LS-LDA | PCA | MC-FLD |
|------------------|-----|-----|--------|-----|--------|
| Vehicle (4)      | 53.91 | 53.05 | 76.56 | 55.36 | 76.82 |
| Wine (3)         | 96.07 | 96.82 | 95.51 | 77.19 | 97.28 |
| Iris (3)         | 97.55 | 96.88 | 96.11 | 96.77 | 96.77 |
| Seeds (3)        | 90.39 | 90.79 | 95.15 | 92.53 | 95.79 |
| thyroid (3)      | 94.02 | 94.08 | 94.02 | 92.57 | 93.92 |
| Satellite (6)    | 85.30 | 85.20 | 86.38 | 85.45 | 86.52 |
| Segmentation (7) | 93.14 | 93.44 | 94.62 | 94.40 | 94.43 |
| Vertebral (3)    | 84.13 | 82.79 | 81.45 | 80.05 | 81.18 |

Also for comparison, Table (2) reports the performance of the proposed kernel formulations followed by a linear SVM classifier. These proposed methods also achieve accuracy rates similar to their kernel counterparts.

| Name (# Classes) | K-CQS | K-CAS | K-PCA | K-MC-FLD |
|------------------|-------|-------|-------|----------|
| Vehicle (4)      | 40.27 | 40.92 | 44.81 | 74.35    |
| Wine (3)         | 92.95 | 95.63 | 95.95 | 96.88    |
| Iris (3)         | 95.55 | 93.33 | 95.55 | 94.44    |
| Seeds (3)        | 90.21 | 90.47 | 91.53 | 93.65    |
| thyroid (3)      | 41.97 | 40.24 | 43.08 | 72.34    |
| Satellite (6)    | 81.54 | 86.23 | 89.69 | 90.61    |
| Segmentation (7) | 72.96 | 77.24 | 83.01 | 92.43    |
| Vertebral (3)    | 70.96 | 69.53 | 70.96 | 82.25    |
5 Experimental Results

Tab. 3: Kernel dimensionality reduction w/ angle classification.

| Name (# Classes) | K-CQS-A | K-CAS-A |
|------------------|---------|---------|
| Vehicle (4)      | 67.96   | 68.24   |
| Wine (3)         | 95.32   | 95.32   |
| Iris (3)         | 95.55   | 95.18   |
| Seeds (3)        | 91.79   | 91.79   |
| thyroid (3)      | 67.90   | 66.79   |
| Satellite (6)    | 83.33   | 76.29   |
| Segmentation (7) | 50.21   | 48.94   |
| Vertebral (3)    | 77.59   | 77.77   |

The iterative approach in Algorithm (1) was applied to obtain an optimal orthonormal basis $W$ (which is $D \times K$) for the category space, where $D$ dimensional input patterns can be projected to the smaller $K$ dimensional category space if $D > K$. We start with a set of $N$ labeled, input vectors $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^D$ drawn randomly from multiple classes $C_k$, $k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$. The optimization technique searches over Steifel manifold elements as explained above. The algorithm is terminated when the Frobenius norm difference between iterations, $\|W^{(m-1)} - W^{(m)}\|_F \leq \delta$ (with $\delta = 10^{-8}$). Once we have determined the optimal $W$, the patterns are mapped to the category space by the transformation $y_i = W^T x_i$, to obtain the corresponding set of $N$ samples $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^K$, where $K$ is the reduced dimensional space.

The results above show that our proposed methods lead to classification rates that can be compared to classical approaches. But, the main focus of this work is to provide an algorithm that retains important classification information while introducing a geometry (category vector subspace) which has attractive semantic and visualization properties. The results suggest that our classification results are competitive with other techniques while learning a category space.

5.2 Visualization of kernel dimensionality reduction

Another valuable aspect of this research can be seen in the kernel formulation which demonstrates warping of the projected patterns towards their respective category axes. This suggests a geometric approach to classification, i.e. we could consider the angle of deviation of a test set pattern from each category axis as a measure of class membership. Within the category space, a base category is represented by the bases (axes) that define the category space. Class membership is therefore inversely proportional to the angle between the pattern and the respective category axis. Figures (1) through (3) illustrate the warped space for various three class problems, for a variation in the width parameter ($\sigma$) of a Gaussian radial basis function kernel in the range $\sigma = [0.1, 0.8]$. Note the improved visualization semantics of the category space approach when compared to the other dimensionality reduction techniques.
Fig. 1: Reduced dimensionality projection for a medium $\sigma$ value: From top to bottom: Vertebral, Thyroid, Wine, Iris, Seeds.
Fig. 2: Reduced dimensionality projection for a small $\sigma$ value. From top to bottom: Vertebral, Thyroid, Wine, Iris, Seeds.
6 Conclusions

In this work, we presented a new approach to supervised dimensionality reduction—one that attempts to learn orthogonal category axes during training. The motivation for this work stems from the observation that the semantics of the multi-class Fisher linear discriminant are unclear especially w.r.t. defining a space for the categories (classes). Beginning with this observation, we designed an objective function comprising sums of quadratic and absolute value functions (aimed at maximizing the inner product between each training set pattern and its class axes) with Stiefel manifold constraints (since the category axes are orthonormal). It turns out that recent work has

![Fig. 3: Reduced dimensionality projection for a large $\sigma$ value. From top to bottom: Vertebral, Thyroid, Wine, Iris, Seeds.](image-url)
characterized such problems and provided sufficient conditions for the detection of global minima (despite the presence of non-convex constraints). The availability of a straightforward Stiefel manifold optimization algorithm tailored to this problem (which has no step size parameters to estimate) is an attractive by-product of this formulation. The extension to the kernel setting is entirely straightforward. Since the kernel dimensionality reduction approach warps the patterns toward orthogonal category axes, this raises the possibility of using the angle between each pattern and the category axes as a classification measure. We conducted experiments in the kernel setting and demonstrated reasonable performance for the angle-based classifier suggesting a new avenue for future research. Finally, visualization of dimensionality reduction for three classes showcases the category space geometry with clear semantic advantages over principal components and multi-class Fisher.

Several opportunities exist for future research. We notice clustering of patterns near the origin of the category space, clearly calling for an origin margin (as in SVM’s). At the same time, we can also remove the orthogonality assumption (in the linear case) while continuing to pursue multi-class discrimination. Finally, extensions to the multi-label case are warranted and suggest interesting opportunities for future work.

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