

Matrix Masking Methods Which Preserve Moments

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September 30, 1997

Abstract

The challenge of the problem of data disclosure avoidance lies in finding a compromise between protecting respondents' identities while providing the analyst with useful information. Statistics to be preserved most commonly include, means, variances and covariances by domains of the classification variables; regression coefficients; independence and measures of association; and parameters of loglinear and logistic regression models. In this paper, a linear transformation of the original data is presented, which preserves means, covariances, and eventually higher order moments.

1 Introduction

Several methods of disclosure limitation have been proposed in the literature. *Cell suppression* was investigated by Greenberg and Zayatz [10], Cox [3], [4], and Carvalho et al. [1]. It involves the elimination of records at high risk of identification. When data is being summarized in cross-classification contingency tables, cells with few counts are deleted but the marginal totals of contingency tables are preserved. *Swapping* observations was proposed originally by Dalenius and Reiss [5], [6]. A variant of this method was implemented by the Census Bureau for the 1990 Census [12]. *Rounding* and *truncation* methods are discussed in [11]. *Data smoothing* and *imputation* [15], [9] consist in releasing a sample from a distribution with similar characteristics as the original data. Kim [13] proposed a method of *addition of random noise*, by which the transformed data maintains many of the statistical characteristics of the original data. *Inclusion of simulated data* has also been implemented in the past. Entire simulated rows are introduced to the data. Cell suppression,

random noise, and inclusion of simulated data, are all particular cases of *matrix masking*, a technique that was introduced by Duncan and Pearson [8].

In the sequel, \mathbf{X} will denote an $n \times p$ real valued matrix of the original data. Matrix masking involves the release of mapped data $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{C}$ for some matrices \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} , and \mathbf{C} . In this paper we seek a transformation of the type $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{X}$, where \mathbf{T} is a suitable $m \times n$ matrix, so that the transformation \mathbf{T} preserves means, covariance matrix, and eventually, depending on m , n and p , higher order moments. In other words,

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m y_{ij} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \quad \text{and} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m y_{ij} y_{ik} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} x_{ik} \quad (2)$$

$j, k = 1, \dots, p$

or equivalently,

$$\frac{1}{m} \mathbf{Y}' \mathbf{1}_m = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{1}_n \quad \text{and} \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{1}{m} \mathbf{Y}' \mathbf{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}' \mathbf{X} \quad (4)$$

where $\mathbf{1}_n = (1, 1, \dots, 1)'$; the subscript shall be omitted if it is obvious from the context. Given a vector $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)'$, $\|\mathbf{u}\|$ will denote its usual \mathcal{R}^n norm, $\|\mathbf{u}\| = (\sum u_i^2)^{1/2}$. Methods of random noise are presented in section 3. While somewhat restrictive in that the transformation \mathbf{T} is given by an $n \times n$ matrix, it offers a simple, intuitive, and easy to implement methodology. In section 4 the general case is proposed.

2 Matrix Representations

Some basic results of linear algebra are reviewed here. For a more in depth reading, see for instance [7], [18], [20], [19], [17]. A square matrix \mathbf{P} is said

*This paper reports the general results research undertaken by the Census Bureau staff. The views expressed are attributable to the author and do not necessarily reflect those of the Census Bureau

to be *orthogonal* if $\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{I}$. Viewed as a linear transformation, an orthogonal matrix produces a rotation of the coordinate axes, preserving therefore norms and angles. If \mathbf{P} is orthogonal, so is \mathbf{P}' , and we have $\mathbf{P}^{-1} = \mathbf{P}'$. The spectral decomposition theorem asserts that any symmetric matrix \mathbf{A} can be expressed as $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{P}'$, where $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ is a diagonal matrix of eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{P} is an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the standardized eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} . An $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{L} , $m \leq n$ ($m \geq n$), is said to be column orthonormal (row orthonormal) if $\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$ ($\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{I}$). Any $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{X} , $m \geq n$, can be represented as $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{\Lambda}^{1/2}\mathbf{P}'$, where $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ is an $n \times n$ diagonal matrix of the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$, \mathbf{P} is an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix of its standardized eigenvectors, and \mathbf{L} is an $m \times n$ column orthonormal matrix whose columns consist of the n normalized eigenvectors of $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}'$ associated with the n largest eigenvalues of this matrix. This is called the singular value decomposition theorem. For any matrix \mathbf{A} we have $\text{rank}[\mathbf{A}] = \text{rank}[\mathbf{A}'] = \text{rank}[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'] = \text{rank}[\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}]$. For conformable matrices the nonzero eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$ are the same as those of $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}$. In particular, if \mathbf{A} is $m \times n$ column orthonormal, then the m nonzero eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}'$ are all equal to 1. Given Ω , a vector subspace of \mathfrak{R}^n , every $n \times 1$ vector \mathbf{y} can be expressed uniquely in the form, $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$, where $\mathbf{u} \in \Omega$ and $\mathbf{v} \in \Omega^\perp$, the last being the orthogonal complement of Ω . There is a unique matrix \mathbf{P}_Ω , called the projection onto Ω , such that $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{P}_\Omega \mathbf{y}$; this matrix is further symmetric and idempotent. The projection of \mathfrak{R}^n onto Ω^\perp is given by $\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P}_\Omega$. If $\Omega = \mathcal{R}[\mathbf{X}]$ (the range of \mathbf{X}), then $\mathbf{P}_\Omega = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'$, where $(\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ is any generalized inverse of $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$.

3 Random Noise

The method of random noise can be viewed as a particular case of matrix masking in which m , the number of records of the transformed data, equals n , the number of records of the original data. Let $\mathbf{E} = \{\varepsilon_{ij}\}_{n \times p}$ be matrix of random noise. Set

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Y} &= \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{E} \\ y_{ij} &= x_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} . \end{aligned}$$

Which in general can be expressed as

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{T}_D \mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{D}) \mathbf{X} .$$

In this section we seek sufficient conditions for \mathbf{T}_D to satisfy (3) and (4).

3.1 A general solution

If \mathbf{T} is orthogonal, (4) is satisfied, because

$$\mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{Y} = (\mathbf{TX})'(\mathbf{TX}) = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{TX} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{IX} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} .$$

If \mathbf{D} is symmetric and idempotent, thus an orthogonal projection, $\mathbf{T}_D = \mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{D}$ is orthogonal, since

$$(\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{D})'(\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{D}) = \mathbf{I} - 4\mathbf{D} + 4\mathbf{D}'\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{I} .$$

It follows that the transformation $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{T}_D \mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{D})\mathbf{X}$ satisfies (4). Assume further that \mathbf{D} is an orthogonal projection into a subspace of $\mathbf{1}_n^\perp$. We have

$$\mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{D})'\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{1} ,$$

hence (3) also holds.

3.2 An explicit solution

A relatively simple technique of construction of such a random noise matrix is as follows. Let $\varepsilon_{i1} = \varepsilon_{i2} = \dots = \varepsilon_{ip} = \varepsilon_i$, where $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_n)'$ is an arbitrary zero mean vector, so as (1) holds. Set $y_{ij} = x_{ij} - \lambda_j \varepsilon_i$ for some constants λ_j to be determined. The λ s that satisfy (2) are solutions of the system of $p(p+1)/2$ equations

$$\lambda_j \lambda_k \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2 - \lambda_j \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ik} \varepsilon_i - \lambda_k \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \varepsilon_i = 0$$

By straightforward calculations such solutions are

$$\lambda_j = \frac{2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} \varepsilon_j}{\sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2} = 2 \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_j, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \rangle}{\|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\|_2^2} . \quad (5)$$

This leads to the following

Theorem 1 For any $n \times 1$ zero mean vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ the transformation $\mathbf{T}_\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ given by

$$\mathbf{T}_\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \mathbf{X} = \left(\mathbf{I} - 2 \frac{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}'}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}' \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \right) \mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{D}_\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \mathbf{X} \quad (6)$$

preserves means and covariances.

The proof is straightforward, since equation (6) follows directly from (5).

Remark 1. A trivial solution of the type $\lambda_j = 0$ leaves unchanged the column \mathbf{X}_j of \mathbf{X} . To avoid trivial solutions, the vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ must be chosen so that $\langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \mathbf{X}_j \rangle \neq 0$, $j = 1, \dots, p$. If no column \mathbf{X}_j has a constant values, such choice of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is always possible.

Remark 2. Regressions performed in either set will clearly produce identical results provided that no

quadratic term or interactions are included in the model. To maintain unchanged regression outcomes when quadratic terms or interactions are included, the new data must preserve third order moments as well.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n y_{ij} y_{ik} y_{il} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij} x_{ik} x_{il}$$

The only constraint that the vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ must satisfy is $\sum \varepsilon_i = 0$. The choice of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ has therefore $n - 1$ "degrees of freedom". We can impose additional conditions to produce specific results. By a suitable choice of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, for instance, third order moments may be preserved if $n \geq p^3 + 1$; variables that are positive by design may be transformed into positive values; the change $|y_{ij} - x_{ij}| = |\lambda_j \varepsilon_i|$ may also be controlled. This change depends on the choice of the vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$. Large values of $|\lambda_j|$ are likely to produce larger differences. Since the values of the λ s depend on the choice of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$, a good choice of this vector may increase the value of a particular λ_j , but this is not necessarily possible for all the λ s altogether (unless the variables X_j are highly correlated), because this method does not provide a different choice of $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ for each column of \mathbf{X} . Section 3.4 deals with the relationship between $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ and λ . Later in section 4.2 a more general transformation is discussed, which allows for separate effects in each of the variables.

3.3 Categorical variables

Theorem 1 can readily be extended to the case in which the data set also contains categorical variables. Suppose that the data set contains q discrete variables, V_1, V_2, \dots, V_q in addition to the p numerical variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p . Let r be the number of cells in the cross-classification table by the q categorical variables. By partitioning the data into r subsets and applying this method to each subgroup, the last results will apply to each of the subdomains. In matrix form, suppose that m_s is the number of observations in cell s , $s = 1, \dots, r$. For any cell s with $m_s \geq 2$ select a random vector $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_s = (\varepsilon_{s1}, \dots, \varepsilon_{sm_s})'$ as before and apply the transformation $\mathbf{T}_{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_s} X^*$ as in Theorem 1, where X^* is the subset of observations in cell s restricted to the numerical variables of the data set. Finally repeat this procedure to all cells with counts greater than 1. Clearly Theorem 1 applies in each transformed cell. To construct this mapping first sort \mathbf{X} by the set of categorical vari-

ables and secondly construct the matrix

$$\mathbf{D}_v = \begin{pmatrix} D_{\varepsilon_1} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & D_{\varepsilon_2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & D_{\varepsilon_r} \end{pmatrix}$$

where D_{ε_s} are m_s by m_s matrices defined by (6). This leads to

Theorem 2 *If a data set contains p numerical variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p , and q categorical variables V_1, V_2, \dots, V_q , then the transformation*

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{T}_v \mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{D}_v) \mathbf{X}$$

preserves means and covariance matrices in every domain defined by levels of the categorical variables. In particular, results of regressions and analyses of covariance are preserved.

3.4 Geometric Approach

Consider the $n \times p$ matrix \mathbf{X} as p points of \mathfrak{R}^n . For a given variable X_j , (2) implies that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{ij} - \lambda_j \varepsilon_i)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n x_{ij}^2 = 0.$$

It follows that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (\lambda_j \varepsilon_i^2 - 2x_{ij} \varepsilon_i) = \langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \lambda_j \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - 2\mathbf{x}_j \rangle = 0.$$

Thus, as a point of \mathfrak{R}^n , $\lambda_j \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ must be located on the surface of the n -dimensional sphere \mathcal{S} with center at \mathbf{x}_j and radius $\|\mathbf{x}_j\|$. To satisfy (4), $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ must lay in the hyperplane α passing through the origin and perpendicular to the vector $\mathbf{1}$. Hence, the vectors $\lambda_j \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ lay in the ellipsoid generated by the intersection of α with \mathcal{S} . When $\text{var}(\mathbf{x}_j) = 0$, \mathbf{x}_j is colinear to the vector $\mathbf{1}$; the numerator in (5) is equal to zero and the intersection of α with \mathcal{S} is restricted to one single point, the origin. In this case $\lambda_j = 0$ and the only solution of (1) and (2) is \mathbf{x}_j itself. As $\text{var}(\mathbf{x}_j)$ increases, \mathbf{x}_j moves away from $\mathbf{1}$ and there are increasing values of λ_j that solve these equations. Given \mathbf{x}_j , the maximum value of $|\lambda_j|$ in the set of solutions of (1) and (2) is reached when the numerator in (5) is maximum, which in turn will be achieved when $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ is the projection of \mathbf{x}_j onto the plane α , that is, when $\varepsilon_{ij} = x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j$, in which case $\lambda_j = 2$. It is clear that the ε_i values that produce a large change in one variable X_j should also produce large changes in all the other variables that are highly correlated with X_j . Variables uncorrelated with X_j , by

contrast, should produce only small changes. This suggests a more general transformation of the type

$$y_{ij} = x_{ij} - \lambda_j(x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j),$$

whose solution is $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_p = 2$. Hence,

$$y_{ij} = 2\bar{x}_j - x_{ij}.$$

By straightforward calculations it can be seen that the above transformation satisfies (1) and (2) and produces the maximum change in each of the variables. This approach alone is not of interest, since the original data can be reconstructed from the transformed data. There are variants of this case, however, which allow for large individual changes while preventing disclosure. This in turn requires proper definition of distance between two data sets.

3.5 Weighted data

If the records are associated with weights w_i , to account for different probabilities of selection, a similar procedure may be used. The weighted mean \bar{x}_w and weighted variance σ_w^2 are respectively given by

$$\bar{x}_w = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i} \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_w^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i (x_i - \bar{x}_w)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}.$$

Choose ϵ so that $\sum w_i \epsilon_i = 0$ and $\lambda_j = 2 \sum w_i x_{ij} \epsilon_i / \sum w_i \epsilon_i^2$. The previous results apply also to the weighted data. The details are left to the reader.

3.6 Non-Uniqueness

To provide protection from disclosure, we must insure that, given a transformed data \mathbf{Y} , there are at least two different data sets \mathbf{X}_i and two transformations \mathbf{T}_ϵ , such that $\mathbf{T}_\epsilon \mathbf{X}_i = \mathbf{Y}$. It is easy to see that the inverse of \mathbf{T}_ϵ is $\mathbf{T}_{-\epsilon}$. Hence, for any transformed matrix \mathbf{Y} , if ϵ_ν , $\nu \in \Gamma$, is the set of all zero mean n -dimensional vectors, any of the matrices $\mathbf{X}_{\epsilon_\nu} = \mathbf{T}_{\epsilon_\nu} \mathbf{Y}$ could be the one with the original data.

4 The general case

In this section we study a general linear transformation $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{X}$ given by an $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{T} . When $m \neq n$, not only the values of the entries in the original data are changed, but also the number of records is modified, providing an extra protection against disclosure. The transformed records have completely lost their identity. Matching records between these

two matrices is meaningless, since each record in the transformed data is obtained as a weighted average of all the records of the original data.

4.1 Preliminary Results

The following results will be needed in the sequel.

Lemma 1 *Given two n -dimensional vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , with $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \|\mathbf{b}\|$, there is an orthogonal matrix \mathbf{C} such that $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}$.*

Proof. Let $\mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_3, \dots, \mathbf{r}_n$ be $n-1$ n -dimensional vectors such that the system $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, \mathbf{r}_n$ is orthogonal and let \mathbf{A} be the orthogonal matrix whose columns are these n vectors. Define \mathbf{B} in a similar way, for another orthogonal system $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{s}_2, \dots, \mathbf{s}_n$. It follows that

$$\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{B}'\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The lemma holds with $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{A}'$ \square

Lemma 2 *Given 2 vectors, \mathbf{a} ($n \times 1$) and \mathbf{b} ($m \times 1$), with $n \leq m$ and $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \|\mathbf{b}\|$, there is a column orthonormal $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{H} such that $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}$.*

Proof. Let \mathbf{A} be an arbitrary $m \times n$ column orthonormal matrix and let $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{a}$. Since

$$\|\mathbf{z}\|^2 = \mathbf{z}'\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{a}'\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A}\mathbf{a} = \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{b}\|^2,$$

By Lemma 1 there is an orthogonal matrix \mathbf{C} such that $\mathbf{C}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{b}$. The lemma holds for $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}$. \square

Lemma 3 *Let $p \leq m \leq n$. For any $n \times p$ column orthonormal matrix \mathbf{L} there is an $m \times n$ row orthonormal matrix \mathbf{H} such that $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{L}$ is column orthonormal. The matrix \mathbf{H} can further be chosen so that $\mathbf{H}'\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}$ for any two given conformable vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , provided that $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \|\mathbf{b}\|$.*

Proof. Since $p \leq m$, it is possible to choose an orthogonal system of $n \times 1$ vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n such that the last $n-m$ vectors v_{n-m+1}, \dots, v_n are orthogonal to the p column vectors of \mathbf{L} . Denote by \mathbf{A} the $m \times n$ matrix whose first m columns form the m -dimensional identity matrix and the last $n-m$ columns are zero, $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{I}_m \mathbf{0})$, and let \mathbf{P} be the orthogonal matrix whose columns are the n vectors v_i . Define $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}'$. It must be proved that $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{L}$ is column orthonormal. For this,

$$(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{L})'(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{L}) = \mathbf{L}'\mathbf{H}'\mathbf{H}\mathbf{L} = (\mathbf{L}'\mathbf{P})(\mathbf{A}'\mathbf{A})(\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{L}).$$

Note that

$$\Lambda' \Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_n & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix},$$

By the selection of the column vectors of \mathbf{P} , the last $n - m$ columns of \mathbf{P} , being orthogonal to all p row vectors of \mathbf{L}' , we conclude that the last $n - m$ columns of $\mathbf{L}'\mathbf{P}$ are zero. Therefore,

$$(\mathbf{L}'\mathbf{P})(\Lambda'\Lambda)(\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{L}) = (\mathbf{L}'\mathbf{P})(\mathbf{P}'\mathbf{L}) = \mathbf{I}$$

as we wanted to prove. Given now any two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} with $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \|\mathbf{b}\|$, let $\mathbf{H}'\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{z}$.

$$\mathbf{z}'\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{a}'\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}'\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}'\mathbf{a} = \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{b}\|^2$$

and by Lemma 1 there is an orthogonal matrix \mathbf{C} such that $\mathbf{Cz} = \mathbf{b}$. Then choose $\mathbf{H}_1 = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{C}$. \square

4.2 General Transformation

In this section, a matrix \mathbf{T} satisfying (3) and (4), which is not unique is found. The non-uniqueness of \mathbf{T} is essential to prevent the reconstruction of \mathbf{X} from \mathbf{Y} .

Theorem 3 *Let $p \leq n$, m . For any $n \times p$ matrix \mathbf{X} of rank p there is an $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{T} such that the transformation $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{T}\mathbf{X}$ satisfies (3) and (4).*

Proof. Suppose first that $m \geq n$. Let \mathbf{H} be an $m \times n$ column orthonormal matrix such that $\mathbf{H}(n^{-1/2}\mathbf{1}_n) = m^{-1/2}\mathbf{1}_m$, whose existence is guaranteed by Lemma 2. Let $\mathbf{T} = \sqrt{m/n}\mathbf{H}$. Thus, $\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{T} = (m/n)\mathbf{I}$ and (4) readily follows. On the other hand,

$$\mathbf{1}_n = \frac{n}{m}\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{T}\mathbf{1}_n = \frac{n}{m}\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{1}_m.$$

Hence,

$$\frac{1}{m}\mathbf{Y}'\mathbf{1}_m = \frac{1}{m}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{T}'\mathbf{1}_m = \frac{1}{n}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{1}_n$$

and (3) also holds. Suppose now that $m < n$. By the singular value decomposition theorem, \mathbf{X} can be expressed as $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{L}\Lambda^{1/2}\mathbf{P}'$, where \mathbf{P} is the orthogonal matrix of eigenvalues of $\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$, Λ is the diagonal matrix of its eigenvectors and \mathbf{L} is column orthonormal. Let \mathbf{H} be as in Lemma 3, i.e. $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{L}$ is column orthonormal and $\mathbf{H}'(m^{-1/2}\mathbf{1}_m) = n^{-1/2}\mathbf{1}_n$. Define $\mathbf{T} = \sqrt{n/m}\mathbf{H}$. By straightforward calculations, similar to those in the previous case, it can be seen that (3) and (4) are satisfied for this \mathbf{T} . \square

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