

# Fundamentals of Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Independent Component Analysis (ICA), and Independent Vector Analysis (IVA)

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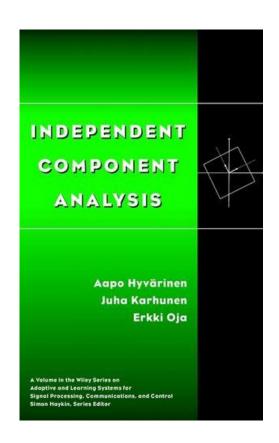
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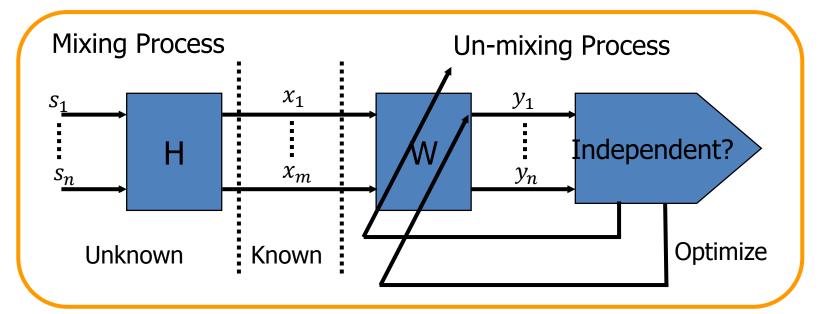
## **Acknowledgement and Recommended text:**

Hyvarinen et al., Independent Component Analysis, Wiley, 2001



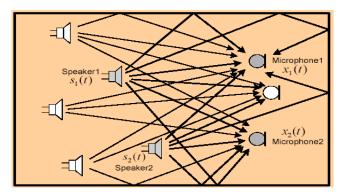


## **Source Separation and Component Analysis**



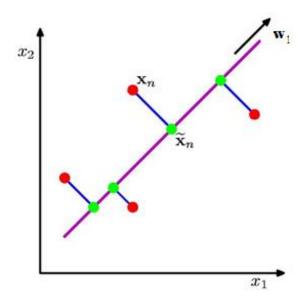
Mixing Model: x = Hs

Un-mixing Model: y = Wx = WHs = PDs





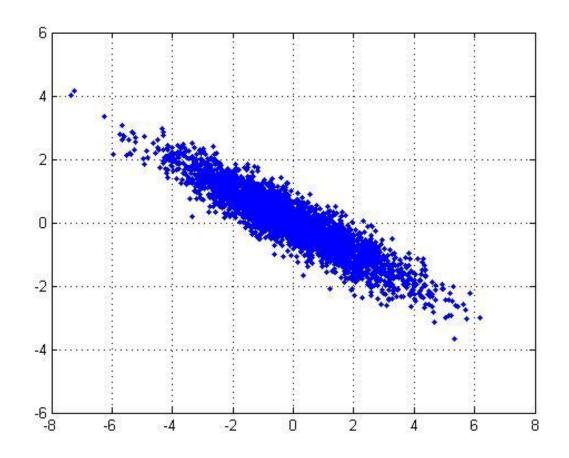
Orthogonal projection of data onto lower-dimension linear space:



- i. maximizes variance of projected data
- ii. minimizes mean squared distance between data point and projections

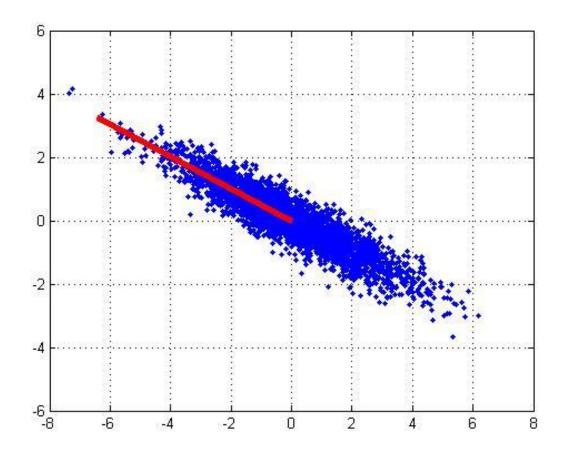


Example: 2-D Gaussian Data



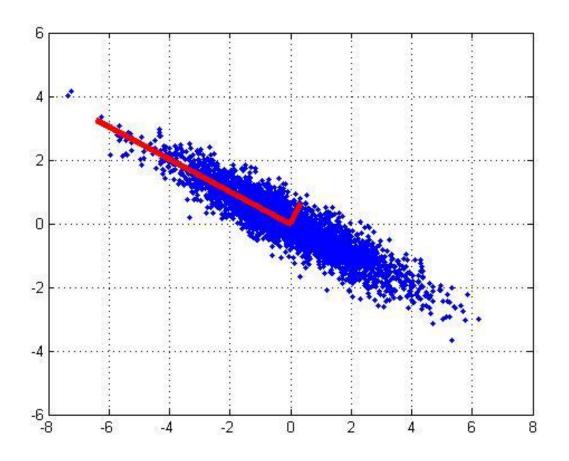


Example: 1st PC in the direction of the largest variance





Example: 2<sup>nd</sup> PC in the direction of the second largest variance and each PC is orthogonal to other





- In PCA the redundancy is measured by correlation between data elements
- Using only the correlations as in PCA has the advantage that the analysis can be based on second-order statistics (SOS)

In the PCA, first the data is centered by subtracting the mean

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - E\{\mathbf{x}\}$$



The data x is linearly transformed

$$y_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{j1} x_j = \mathbf{w}_1^T \mathbf{x}$$
  
subject to  $\|\mathbf{w}_1\| = 1$ 

Mean of the first transformed factor

$$E\{y_1\} = E\{w_1^T x\} = w_1^T E\{x\} = 0$$

Variance of the <u>first</u> transformed factor

$$E\{y_1^2\} = E\{(w_1^T x)^2\} = E\{(w_1^T x)(x^T w_1)\}$$



$$E\{y_1^2\} = E\{(w_1^T x)(x^T w_1)\} = w_1^T E\{xx^T\} w_1$$
$$= w_1^T R_{XX} w_1$$
(1)

The above correlation matrix is symmetric

$$a^T R_{XX} b = b^T R_{XX} a$$

Correlation matrix  $R_{XX}$  is not in our control and depends on the data x.

We can control w?



#### (PCA by Variance Maximization)

At maximum variance a small change in w will not affect the variance

$$E\{y_1^2\} = (w_1 + \Delta w)^T R_{XX} (w_1 + \Delta w)$$
  
=  $w_1^T R_{XX} w_1 + 2\Delta w^T R_{XX} w_1 + \Delta w^T R_{XX} \Delta w$ 

where Δw is very small quantity and therefore

$$E\{y_1^2\} = \mathbf{w}_1^T \mathbf{R}_{XX} \, \mathbf{w}_1 + 2\Delta \mathbf{w}^T \, \mathbf{R}_{XX} \, \mathbf{w}_1 \tag{2}$$

By using (1) and (2) we can write

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{w}_1 = 0 \tag{3}$$



As we know that

$$\|\mathbf{w}_1 + \Delta \mathbf{w}\| = 1$$

therefore

$$(\mathbf{w}_1 + \Delta \mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{w}_1 + \Delta \mathbf{w}) = 1$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{1}^{T}\mathbf{w}_{1} + 2\Delta\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{w}_{1} + \Delta\mathbf{w}^{T}\Delta\mathbf{w} = 1$$

where  $\Delta w$  is very small quantity and therefore

$$1 + 2\Delta w^T w_1 + 0 = 1$$
$$\Delta w^T w_1 = 0 \tag{4}$$

The above result shows that  $w_1$  and  $\Delta w$  are orthogonal to each other.



By careful comparison of (3) and (4) and by considering  $R_{XX}$ 

$$\Delta w^{T} R_{XX} w_{1} - \Delta w^{T} \lambda_{1} w_{1} = 0$$

$$\Delta w^{T} [R_{XX} w_{1} - \lambda_{1} w_{1}] = 0$$
since 
$$\Delta w^{T} \neq 0$$

$$\therefore [R_{XX} w_{1} - \lambda_{1} w_{1}] = 0$$

$$\rightarrow R_{XX} w_{i} = \lambda_{i} w_{i} \qquad i = 1, 2, ..., n \qquad (5)$$

where

$$\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots \dots \lambda_n$$
 are eigenvalues of  $R_{XX}$ 

and

$$w_{1,}w_{2},\ldots\ldots w_{n}$$
 are eigenvectors of  $R_{XX}$ 



$$R_{XX} w_i = \lambda_i w_i$$
,  $i = 1, 2, ..., n$   
 $\lambda_1 = \lambda_{max} > \lambda_2 > ... ... > \lambda_n$ 

and

$$\mathbf{E} = [\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots \dots, \mathbf{w}_n]$$

$$\therefore \qquad R_{XX}E = E \Lambda \tag{6}$$

where

$$\Lambda = \text{dig } [\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n]$$

We know that E is orthogonal matrix

$$E^T E = I$$

and we can update (7)

$$E^T R_{XX} E = E^T E \Lambda = I\Lambda = \Lambda$$
 (7)



In expanded form (7) is

$$\mathbf{w}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{w}_{j} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{i} & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{bmatrix}$$

 $R_{XX}$  is symmetric and positive definite matrix and can be represented as [Hyvarinen et al.]

$$R_{XX} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \ w_i^T \ w_j$$

We know

$$\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{w}_j = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{bmatrix}$$

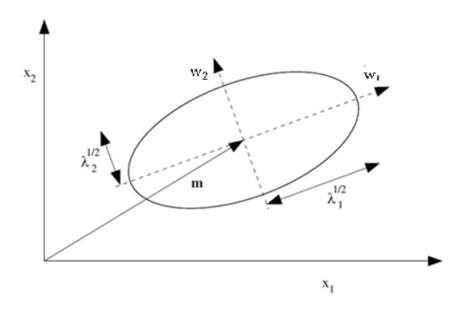
Finally, (1) will become

$$E\{y_i^2\} = w_i^T R_{XX} w_i = \lambda_i, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$
 (8)

Can we define the principal components now?



In a multivariate Gaussian probability density, the principal components are in the directions of eigenvectors  $\mathbf{w}_i$  and the respective variances are the eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ .



There are n possible solutions for w and

$$y_i = w_i^T x = x^T w_i$$
  $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ 



#### Whitening

Data whitening is another form of PCA

The objective of whitening is to transform the observed vector z = Vx, which is uncorrelated and with variance equal to identity matrix

$$E\{zz^T\} = I$$

The unmixing matrix, W, can be decomposed into two components:

$$W = UV$$

Where U is rotation matrix and V is the whitening matrix and

$$V = \Lambda^{-1/2} E^T$$



# Principal Component Analysis (PCA) Whitening

$$z = Vx$$

$$E\{zz^T\} = VE\{xx^T\}V^T = \Lambda^{-1/2} E^T E\{xx^T\}E \Lambda^{-1/2}$$

$$= \Lambda^{-1/2} E^T R_{xx} E \Lambda^{-1/2} = I$$

The covariance is unit matrix, therefore z is whitened

Whinintng matrix, V, is not unique. It can be pre-multiply by an orthogonal matrix to obtain another version of V

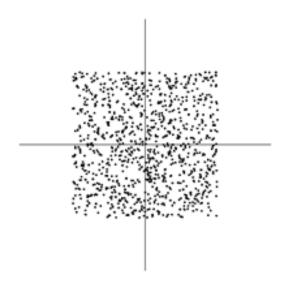
#### Limitations:

PCA only deals with second order statistics and provides only decorrelation. Uncorrelated components are not independent



#### **Limitations**

Two components with uniform distributions and their mixture



The joint distribution of ICs  $s_1$ (horizontal axis) and  $s_2$  (vertical axis) with uniform distributions.

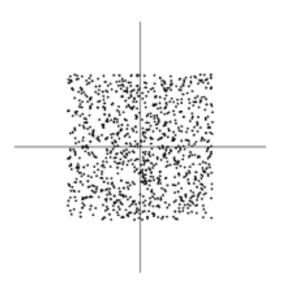


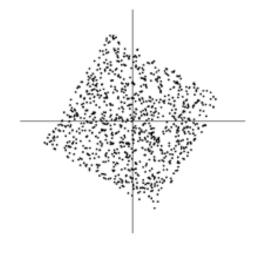
The joint distribution of observed mixtures  $x_1$  (horizontal axis) and  $x_2$  (vertical axis).



#### **Limitations**

#### Two components with uniform distributions and after PCA





The joint distribution of ICs  $s_1$  (horizontal axis) and  $s_2$  (vertical axis) with uniform distributions.

The joint distribution of the whitened mixtures of uniformly distributed ICs

PCA does not find original coordinates

> Factor rotation problem



## Limitations: uncorrelation and independence

If two zero mean random variables  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  are uncorrelated then their covariance is zero:

$$cov(s_1, s_2) = E\{s_1s_2\} = 0$$

If  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  are independent, then for any two functions,  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  we have

$$E\{g_1(s_1)g_2(s_2)\} = E\{g_1(s_1)\}E\{g_2(s_2)\}$$

If random variables are independent then they are also uncorrelated

If  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  are discrete valued and follow such a distribution that the pair are with probability 1/4 equal to any of the following values: (0,1), (0,-1), (1,0) and (-1,0). Then

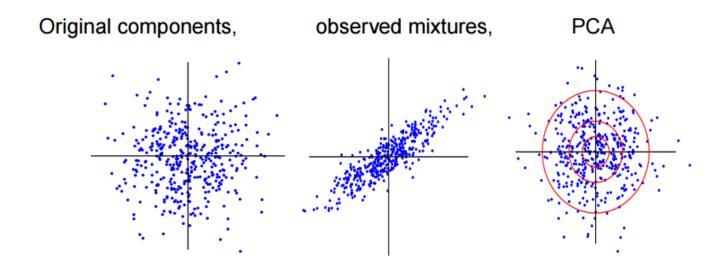
$$E\{s_1^2s_2^2\}=0 \neq \frac{1}{4}=E\{s_1^2\}E\{s_2^2\}$$

Therefore, uncorrelated components are not independent



## Limitations: uncorrelation and independence

However, uncorrelated components of Gaussian distribution are independent

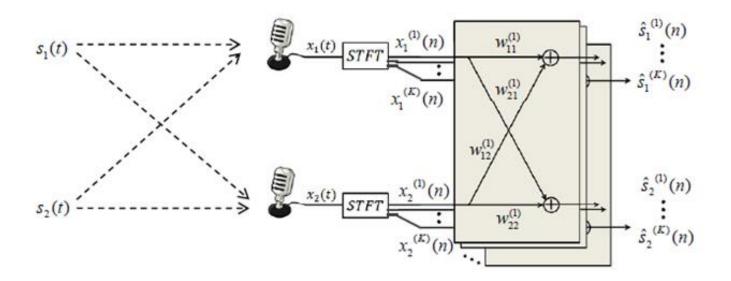


Distribution after PCA is same as distribution before mixing



Independent component analysis (ICA) is a statistical and computational technique for revealing hidden factors that underlie sets of random variables, measurements, or signals.

ICA separates the sources at each frequency bin





The fundamental restrictions in ICA are:

 The sources are assumed to be statistically independent of each other. Mathematically, independence implies that the joint probability density function p(s) of the sources can be factorized

$$p(s) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i(s_i)$$

where  $p_i(s_i)$  is the marginal distribution of the i - th source

ii. All but one of the sources must have non-Gaussian distributions



#### Why?

The joint pdf of two Gaussian ICs,  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  is:

$$p(s_1, s_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left(-\frac{s_1^2 + s_2^2}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{S}\|^2}{2}\right)$$

If the mixing matrix H is orthogonal, the joint pfd of the mixtures  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  is:

$$p(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{s}\|^2}{2}\right) |\det \mathbf{H}^T|$$

H is orthogonal, therefore  $\|\mathbf{H}^T\mathbf{s}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{s}\|^2$  and  $|\det \mathbf{H}^T| = 1$ 

$$p(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{s}\|^2}{2}\right)$$

Orthogonal mixing matrix does not change the pdf and original and mixing distributions are identical. Therefore, there is no way to infer the mixing matrix from the mixtures



- iii. In general, the mixing matrix H is square (n = m) and invertible
- iv. Methods to realize ICA are more sensitive to data length than the methods based on SOS

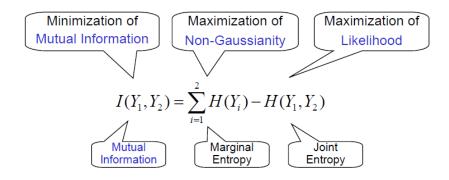
Mainly, ICA relies on two steps:

A statistical criterion, e.g. nongaussianity measure, expressed in terms of a cost/contrast function J(g(y))

An optimization technique to carry out the minimization or maximization of the cost function J(g(y))



- Minimization of Mutual Information (Minimization of Kullback-Leibler Divergence)
- 2. Maximization of Likelihood
- 3. Maximization of Nongaussianity



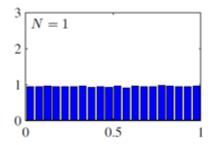
H(•):Entropy

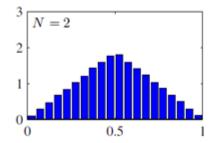
> All solutions are identical

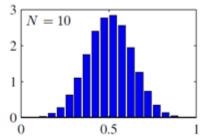


#### Nongaussainity and Independence

Central limit theorem: subject to certain mild conditions, the sum of a set of random variables has a distribution that becomes increasingly Gaussian as the number of terms in the sum increases







Histogram plots of the mean of N uniformly distributed numbers for various values of N. As N increases, the joint distribution tends towards a Gaussian.

So roughly, any mixture of components will be more Gaussian than the components themselves



## Nongaussainity and Independence

Central limit theorem: The distribution of Independent random variables tends towards a Gaussian distribution, under certain conditions

If  $z_i$  is independent and identically distributed random variable then  $x_n = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i$ 

Mean and variance of  $x_n$  grow without bound when  $n \to \infty$ , and  $y_n = (x_n - \mu_{x_n})/\delta_{x_n}^2$ 

It has been shown that the distribution of  $y_n$  converges to a Gaussian distribution with zero mean and unit variance when  $n \to \infty$ . This is known as the central limit theorem



## Nongaussainity and Independence

In BSS, if  $s_j$ , j=1,...,n are unknown source signals and mixed with coefficients  $h_{ij}$ , i=1,...,m then  $x_i = \sum_{j=1}^n h_{ij} s_j$ 

The distribution of the mixture  $x_i$  is usually near to Gaussian when the number of sources  $s_i$  is fairly small

We know that

$$y_i = \sum_{j=1}^m w_{ji} x_j = \mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}$$

How could the central limit theorem be used to determine  $w_i$  so that it would equal to one of the rows of the inverse of mixing matrix H ( $y \approx H^{-1}x$ )?



## Nongaussainity and Independence

In practice, we couldn't determine such a  $w_i$  exactly, because the problem is blind i.e. H is unknown

We can find an estimator that gives good approximation of  $w_i$ .

By varying the coefficients in  $w_i$ , and monitoring the change in distribution of  $y_i = w_i^T x$ 

Hence, maximizing the non- Gaussainity of  $\mathbf{w}_i^T \mathbf{x}$  provides one of the Independent Components

How we can maximize the nongaussainity?



## **Nongaussainity by Kurtosis**

For ICA estimation based on nongaussainity, we require a qualitative measures of nongaussainity of a random variable

Kurtosis is the name given to the forth-order cumulants of a random variable e.g.y, the kurtosis is defined as:

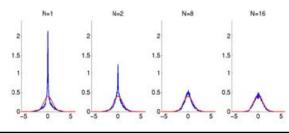
$$kurt(y) = E\{y^4\} - 3(E\{y^2\})^2$$

If the data is whitened, e.g. zero mean and unit variance, then  $kurt(y) = E\{y^4\} - 3$  is normalized version of the fourth moment  $E\{y^4\}$ 



## **Nongaussainity by Kurtosis**

For Gaussian variable y, the fourth moment is equal to  $3(E\{y^2\})^2$ . Therefore, kurtosis is zero for Gaussian random variables



N	1	2	8	16	Gaussian
Kurtosis	2.1	1.8	0.70	0.39	0

$$kurt(y) = E\{|y|^4\} - 3(E\{|y|^2\})^2$$

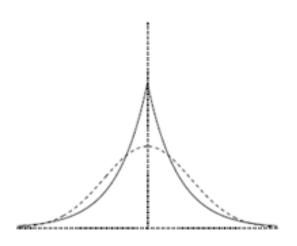
Typically nongaussianity is measured by the absolute value of kurtosis



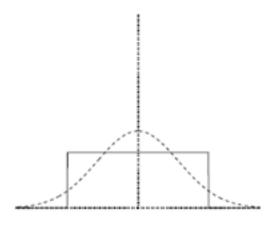
## **Nongaussian Distributions**

Random variable that have a positive kurtosis are called supergaussian. A typical example is Laplacian distribution

Random variable that have a negative kurtosis are called subgaussian. A typical example is the uniform distribution



Laplacian and Gaussian distributions.



Uniform and Gaussian distributions.



#### **Limitations of Kurtosis**

Kurtosis is not a robust measure of nongaussainity

Kurtosis can be very sensitive to outliers. For example, in 1000 samples of a random variable of zero mean and unit variance, if one value is equal to 10, then

$$kurt(y) = \frac{10^4}{1000} - 3 = 7$$

A single value can make kurtosis large and the value of kurtosis may depends only on few observations in the tail of the distribution

We have a better measure of nongaussainity than kurtosis?



## **Nongaussainity by Negentropy**

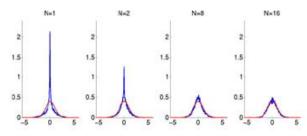
A fundamental result of information theory is that a Gaussian variable has the largest entropy among all variables of equal variance.

A robust but computationally complicated measure of nongaussainity is negentropy



#### **Nongaussainity by Negentropy**

A measure that is zero for Gaussian variables and always nonnegative can be obtained from differential entropy, and called negentropy



# sources N	1	2	8	16	Gaussian
Entropy <i>H</i>	1.19	1.33	1.39	1.40	1.41
Negentropy N	0.225	0.087	0.025	0.012	0

$$H(y) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \log \frac{1}{p_i}$$
$$N(y) = H(x_{\text{gauss}}) - H(y)$$



#### **Nongaussainity by Negentropy**

A classical method of approximating negentropy based on higher-order cumulants for zero mean random variable y is:

$$J(y) \approx \frac{1}{12}E\{y^3\}^2 + \frac{1}{48}kurt(y)^2$$

For symmetric distributions, the first term on right hand side of the above equation is zero.

Therefore, a more sophisticated approximation of negentropy is required



#### Nongaussainity by Negentropy

The method that uses nonquadratic function G, and provides a simple way of approximating the negentropy is [Hyvarinen et al]:

$$J(y) \propto [E\{G(y)\} - E\{G(v)\}]^2$$

where v is a standard random Gaussian variable

By choosing *G* wisely, we can obtain approximation of negentropy that is better than the one provided by kurtosis



#### **Nongaussainity by Negentropy**

By choosing a *G* that does not grow too fast, we can obtain more robust estimator.

The following choices of *G* have proved that these are very useful

$$G_1(y) = \frac{1}{a_1} \log \cosh a_1 y$$
,  $G_2(s) = \exp(-\frac{y^2}{2})$   
where  $1 < a_1 < 2$  is a constant and mostly equal to one

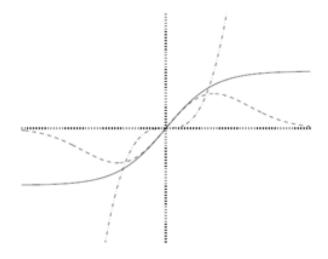
The derivatives of above contrast functions are used in ICA algorithms

$$g_1(y) = \tanh(a_1 y),$$
  
 $g_2(y) = y \exp(-\frac{y^2}{2}),$   
 $g_3(y) = y^3$ 



#### **Nongaussainity by Negentropy**

Different nonlinearities are required, which depends on the distribution of ICs



The robust nonlinearities  $g_1$  (solid line),  $g_2$  (dashed line) and  $g_3$  (dash-doted line).

Can we optimize the local maxima for nongaussainity of a linear combination  $y = \sum_i w_i x_i$  under the constraint that the variance of y is constant?



#### **ICA Estimation Principle 1**

To find the unmixing matrix W, so that the components  $y_i$  and  $y_j$ , where  $i \neq j$ , are uncorrelated, and the their nonlinear functions  $g(y_i)$  and  $h(y_i)$ , are also uncorrelated.

The above nonlinear decorrelation is the basic ICA method



#### **ICA Learning Rules**

In gradient descent, we minimize a cost function J(W) from its initial point by computing its gradient at that point, and then move in the direction of steepest descent

The update rule with the gradient taken at the point  $W_k$  is:

$$W_{k+1} = W_k - \mu \frac{\partial J(W)}{\partial W}$$

According to Amari et al., the largest increase in  $J(W+\partial W)$  can be obtained in the direction of natural gradient

$$\frac{\partial J(W)}{\partial W_{nat}} = \frac{\partial J(W)}{\partial W} W^T W$$



# Independent Component Analysis (ICA) ICA Learning Rules

Therefore, the update equation of natural gradient descent is:

$$W_{k+1} = W_k - \mu \frac{\partial J(W)}{\partial W} W_k^T W_k$$

The final update equation of the natural gradient algorithm is:

$$W_{k+1} = W_k + \mu[I - y^T g(y)] W_k$$

where  $\mu$  is called the step size or learning rate

For stability and convergence of the algorithm  $0<\mu\ll\infty$ . If we select a very small value of  $\mu$  then it will take more time to reach local minima or maxima



# Independent Component Analysis (ICA) ICA Learning Rule

Initialize the unmixing matrix

$$W_0 = randn(n, n)$$

For n = 2

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad g(Y) = \begin{bmatrix} g(y_1) \\ g(y_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

The target is:

$$[I - yg(y)^T] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow E\{I\} = E\{yg(y)^T\} = R_{yy}$$

How we can diagonalize  $R_{yy}$ ?



# Independent Component Analysis (ICA) ICA Learning Rule

lf

$$\Delta W = W_{k+1} - W_k$$

and

$$R_{yy} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 g(y_1) & y_1 g(y_2) \\ y_2 g(y_1) & y_1 g(y_2) \end{bmatrix},$$

Then

$$\Delta W = \mu \begin{bmatrix} c_1 - y_1 g(y_1) & y_1 g(y_2) \\ y_2 g(y_1) & c_2 - y_1 g(y_2) \end{bmatrix} W \Longrightarrow 0$$

Update W so that  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  become mutually independent



#### ICA Estimation Principle 2

To find the local maxima of nongaussainity of a linear combination  $y = \sum_i w_i x_i$  under the condition that the variance of y is constant. Each local maxima will provide one independent component

ICA by maximization of nongaussainity is one of the most widely used techniques



# Independent Component Analysis (ICA) ICA Learning Rule

We can derive a simple gradient algorithm to maximize negentropy

First we whiten the data z = Vx, where V is the whitening matrix

We already know that the function to measure negentropy is:

$$J(y) \propto [E\{G(y)\} - E\{G(v)\}]^2$$

We know that  $y = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z}$  and take the derivative of J(y) with respect to  $\mathbf{w}$ 

$$\frac{\partial J(y)}{\partial \mathsf{W}} \propto 2[E\{G(\mathsf{W}^T\mathsf{Z})\} - E\{G(v)\}] \frac{\partial}{\partial w} [E\{G(\mathsf{W}^T\mathsf{Z})\} - E\{G(v)\}]$$



#### **ICA Learning Rule**

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial J(y)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &\propto 2[E\{G(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} - E\{G(v)\}] \frac{\partial}{\partial w} [E\{G(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} - E\{G(v)\}] \\ &\propto 2[E\{G(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} - E\{G(v)\}] E\{g(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z}) \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} \\ &\propto 2[E\{G(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} - E\{G(v)\}] E\{\mathbf{z}g(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} \end{split}$$
 If  $\gamma = 2[E\{G(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} - E\{G(v)\}]$  then 
$$\frac{\partial J(y)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \propto \gamma \ E\{\mathbf{z}g(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} \end{split}$$

Hence, the update equations of a gradient algorithm are:

$$\Delta w \propto \gamma E\{zg(w^Tz)\}$$
 and  $w \leftarrow W/_{\|W\|}$ 



### **Implementation Summary**

- i. Center the data  $x = x E\{x\}$
- ii. Whiten the data z = Vx
- iii. Select a nonlinearity g
- iv. Randomly initialize w, with  $\|\mathbf{w}\| = 1$ , and  $\gamma$
- v. Update  $\Delta w \propto \gamma E\{zg(w^Tz)\}$
- vi. Normalize  $w \leftarrow w/|w|$
- vii. Update, if required,  $\Delta \gamma \propto [E\{G(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} E\{G(v)\}] \gamma$

Repeat from step-v, if not converged.



#### **Fast Fixed-point Algorithm (FastICA)**

FastICA is based on a fixed point iteration scheme to find a maximum of the nongaussianity of IC *y* 

The above gradient method suggests the following fixed point iteration

$$w = E\{zg(w^Tz)\}$$

the coefficient  $\gamma$  is eliminated by the normalization step

We can modify the iteration by multiplying w with some constant  $\alpha$  and add on both sides of the above equation

$$(1+\alpha)\mathbf{w} = E\{\mathbf{z}g(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} + \alpha \mathbf{w}$$



#### **Fast Fixed-point Algorithm (FastICA)**

$$(1+\alpha)\mathbf{w} = E\{\mathbf{z}g(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} + \alpha \mathbf{w}$$

Due to the subsequent normalization of w to unit norm, the above equation gives a fixed point iteration. And  $\alpha$  plays an important role in fast convergence

The optima of  $E\{G(w^Tz)\}$  under the constraint  $E\{G(w^Tz)^2\} = \|w\|^2 = 1$  are obtained at points when the gradient of the Lagrangian is zero [Hyvarinen et al.]

$$\frac{\partial J(y)}{\partial W} = E\{zg(W^Tz)\} + \beta W$$

We can take derivative of the above equation to find the local maxima

$$\frac{\partial^2 J(y)}{\partial w^2} = E\{zz^T g'(w^T z)\} + \beta I$$



#### **Fast Fixed-point Algorithm (FastICA)**

Data is whitened therefore

$$\frac{\partial^2 J(y)}{\partial w^2} = E\{g'(w^T z)\}I + \beta I$$

According to Newton's method

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - \left[ \frac{\partial^2 J(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{w}^2} \right]^{-1} \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$$

Therefore Newton iteration is:

$$\mathsf{w} \leftarrow \mathsf{w} - [E\{g'(\mathsf{w}^T\mathsf{z})\} + \beta]^{-1} (E\{\mathsf{z}g(\mathsf{w}^T\mathsf{z})\} + \beta \mathsf{w})$$



#### Fast Fixed-point Algorithm (FastICA)

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} - [E\{g'(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z})\} + \beta]^{-1} (E\{\mathbf{z}g(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z})\} + \beta \mathbf{w})$$

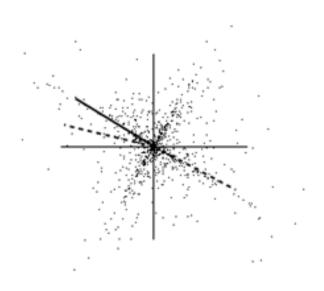
Multiply both sides of above equation with  $E\{g'(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} + \beta$  and by simplifying, we obtain basic fixed-point iteration in FastICA

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow E\{\mathbf{z}g(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} - E\{g'(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\}$$
 and

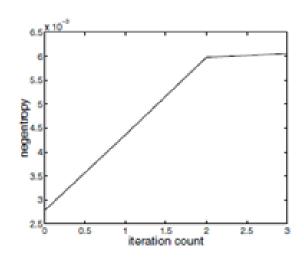
$$w \leftarrow w/\|w\|$$



### **Fast Fixed-point Algorithm (FastICA)**



Results with FastICA using negentropy. Doted and solid lines show w after first and second iterations respectively (not at actual scale).



The convergence of FastICA using negentropy, for supergusasain ICs (not at actual scale)



### **Implementation Summary of FastICA Algorithm**

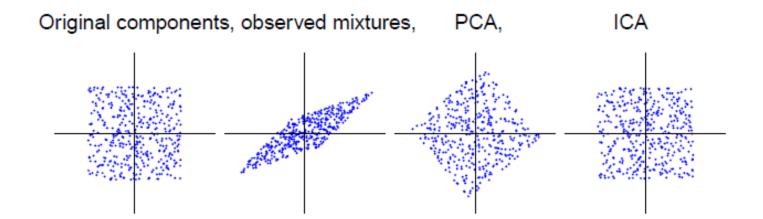
- i. Center the data  $x = x E\{x\}$
- ii. Whiten the data z = Vx
- iii. Select a nonlinearity *g*
- iv. Randomly initialize w, with constraint ||w|| = 1
- v. Update  $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow E\{\mathbf{z}g(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\} E\{g'(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{z})\}$
- vi. Normalize  $w \leftarrow W/_{\|W\|}$

Repeat from step-v till converge



#### Illustration of PCA vs. ICA

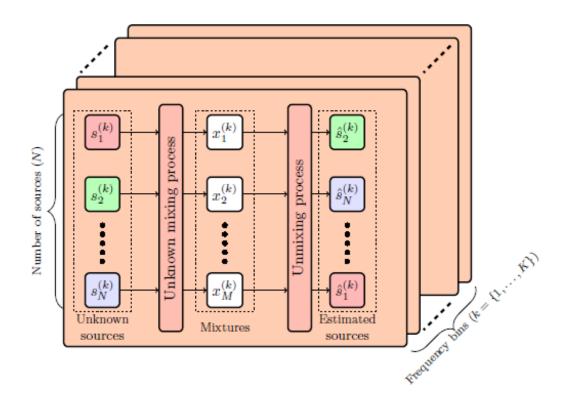
Two components with uniform distributions:





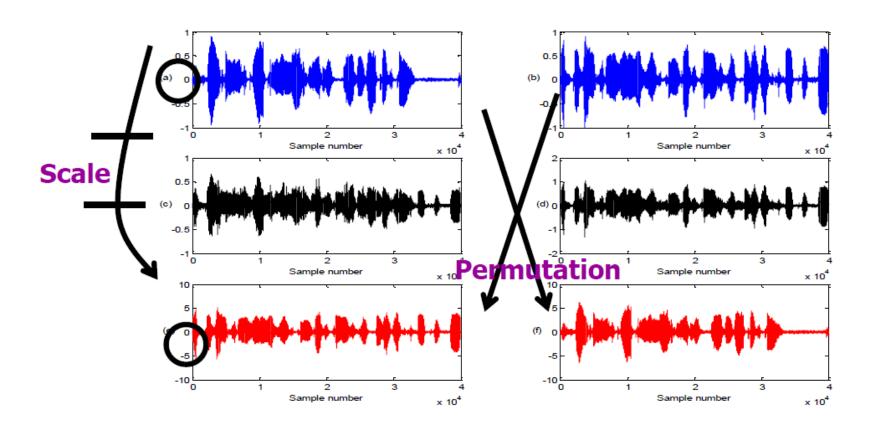
#### **Limitations of ICA**

Permutation and scaling ambiguities



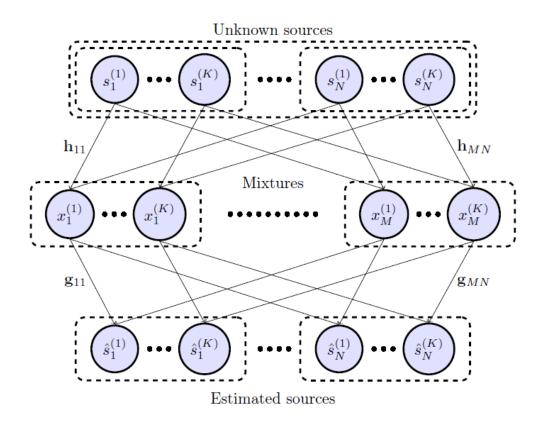


#### **Limitations of ICA**



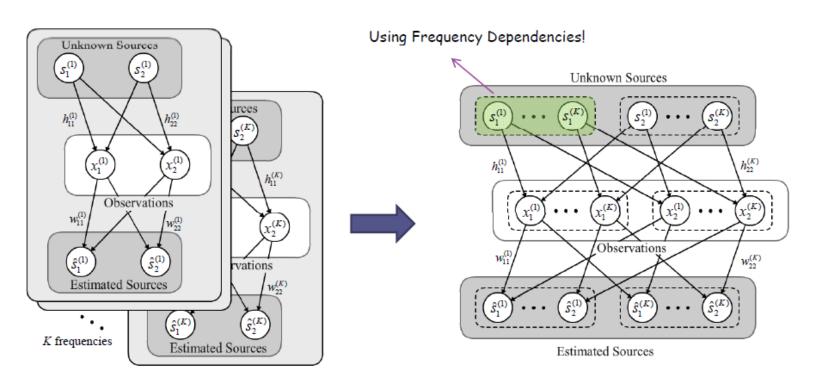


IVA models the statistical independence between sources. And maintains the dependency between frequency bins of each source





#### IVA vs ICA

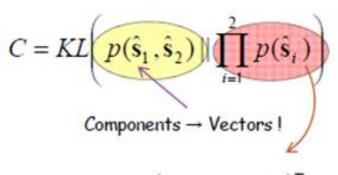


Conventional ICA

Independent Vector Analysis



Modified Multivariate Cost Function



$$\hat{\mathbf{s}}_i = \left(\hat{s}_i^{(1)}, \cdots, \hat{s}_i^{(K)}\right)^T$$

Conventional ICA Score Function

$$\varphi(\hat{s}_i^{(k)}) = -\frac{\partial \log p(\hat{s}_i^{(k)})}{\partial \hat{s}_i^{(k)}}$$
$$= \frac{\hat{s}_i^{(k)}}{\left|\hat{s}_i^{(k)}\right|} = \exp(j \cdot \arg(\hat{s}_i^{(k)})).$$

Using a Gradient Descent Algorithm:

$$\begin{split} w_{ij}^{(k)^{new}} &= w_{ij}^{(k)^{old}} + \eta \Delta w_{ij}^{(k)}, \\ \Delta w_{ij}^{(k)} &= -\frac{\partial C}{\partial w_{ij}^{(k)}} = w_{ij}^{-\uparrow(k)} - E\{\varphi^{(k)}(\hat{s}_i^{(1)} \cdots \hat{s}_i^{(K)})\} x_j^{\star(k)} \end{split}$$

Using Natural Gradient Learning:

$$\Delta w_{ij}^{(k)} = \sum_{l=1}^{2} (I_{il} - E\{\varphi^{(k)}(\hat{s}_{i}^{(1)} \cdots \hat{s}_{i}^{(K)})\hat{s}_{l}^{\star(k)}\}) w_{ij}^{(k)}$$

IVA Score Function (Multivariate)

$$\varphi^{(k)}(\hat{s_i}^{(1)}\cdots\hat{s_i}^{(K)}) = \frac{\partial \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \left|\hat{s}_i^{(k)}\right|^2}}{\partial \hat{s}_i^{(k)}} = \frac{\hat{s}_i^{(k)}}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \left|\hat{s}_i^{(k)}\right|^2}}$$
Exploiting frequency dependency!



#### The cost function is derived as

$$J_{IVA} = \mathcal{KL}(p(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1 \dots \hat{\mathbf{s}}_N) || \prod_{i=1}^N q(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_i))$$

$$= \int p(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1 \dots \hat{\mathbf{s}}_N) \log \frac{p(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1 \dots \hat{\mathbf{s}}_N)}{\prod_{i=1}^N q(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_i)} d\hat{\mathbf{s}}_1 \dots \hat{\mathbf{s}}_N$$

$$= \int p(\mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_M) \log p(\mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_M) d\mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_M$$

$$- \sum_{k=1}^K \log |\det G^{(k)}| - \sum_{i=1}^N \int p(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_i) \log q(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_i) d\hat{\mathbf{s}}_i$$

$$= \text{const.} - \sum_{k=1}^K \log |\det G^{(k)}| - \sum_{i=1}^N E[\log q(\hat{\mathbf{s}}_i)],$$



Partial derivative of the cost function is employed to find gradient

$$\Delta g_{ij}^{(k)} = -\frac{\partial J_{IVA}}{\partial g_{ij}^{(k)}} = g_{ij}^{(k)-H} - E[\varphi^{(k)}(\hat{s}_i^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{s}_i^{(K)})] x_j^{(k)*}$$

where 
$$\left[ (G^{(k)-1})^H \right]_{ij} \equiv g_{ij}^{(k)-H}$$
.

The natural gradient update becomes

$$\Delta g_{ij}^{(k)} = \sum_{l=1}^{N} \left( \delta_{il} - E[\varphi^{(k)}(\hat{s}_{i}^{(1)} \dots \hat{s}_{i}^{(K)}) \hat{s}_{i}^{(k)*}] \right) g_{lj}^{(k)},$$

where  $\delta_{il}$  is the Kronecker delta, i.e. when i = l,

 $\delta_{il} = 1$ , and zero otherwise.



#### Multivariate score function

$$\varphi^{(k)}(\hat{s}_i^{(1)} \dots \hat{s}_i^{(K)}) = -\frac{\partial \log q(\hat{s}_i^{(1)} \dots \hat{s}_i^{(K)})}{\partial \hat{s}_i^{(k)}}$$

A source prior applied in the original IVA

$$q(\mathbf{s}_i) \propto exp\Big(-((\mathbf{s}_i - \mu_i)^H \Sigma_i^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_i - \mu_i))^{\frac{1}{2}}\Big),$$

For zero mean and unit variance data, the non-linear score function becomes

$$\varphi^{(k)}(\hat{s}_i^{(1)}\dots\hat{s}_i^{(K)}) = \frac{\hat{s}_i^{(k)}}{\sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^K |\hat{s}_i^{(k)}|^2}}$$

and plays important role in maintaining the dependencies between the frequency bins of each source.



#### **Conclusions**

- PCA can provide uncorrelated data and is limited to second order statistics.
- ICA is nongaussian alternative to PCA.
- ICA finds a linear decomposition by maximizing nongaussianity of the components.
- Application of ICA for convolutive source separation is constraint by the scaling and permutation ambiguities.
- IVA can mitigate the permutation problem during the learning process.
- Robustness of IVA is proportional to the strength of source priors.
- Above methods are applicable to determined and overdetermined cases.



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## Thank you!

THAND

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