Slide11

Haykin Chapter 10:

Information-Theoretic Models

CPSC 636-600

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ICA section is heavily derived from Aapo Hyvärinen's ICA tutorial: http://www.cis.hut.fi/aapo/papers/IJCNN99_tutorialweb/.

Shannon's Information Theory

- Originally developed to help design communication systems that are efficient and reliable (Shannon, 1948).
- It is a deep mathematical theory concerned with the essence of the communication process.
- Provides a framework for: efficiency of information representation, limitations in reliable transmission of information over a communication channel.
- Gives bounds on optimum representation and transmission of signals.

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Motivation

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Information-theoretic models that lead to self-organization in a principled manner.

- Maximum mutual information principle (Linsker 1988): Synaptic connections of a multilayered neural network develop in such a way as to maximize the amount of information preserved when signals are transformed at each processing stage of the network, subject to certain constraints.
- Redundancy reduction (Attneave 1954): "Major function of perceptual machinary is to strip away some of the *redundancy* of stimulation, to describe or encode information in a form more economical than that in which it impinges on the receptors". In other words, *redundancy reduction = feature extraction*.

Information Theory Review

Topics to be covered:

- Entropy
- Mutual information
- Relative entropy
- Differential entropy of continuous random variables

Random Variables

- Notations: X random variable, x value of random variable.
- If X can take continuous values, theoretically it can carry infinite amount of information. However, this it is meaningless to think of infinite-precision measurement, in most cases values of X can be quantized into a finite number of discrete levels.

$$X = \{x_k | k = 0, \pm 1, ..., \pm K\}$$

• Let event $X = x_k$ occur with probability

$$p_k = P(X = x_k)$$

with the requirement

$$0 \le p_k \le 1, \quad \sum_{k=-K}^{K} p_k = 1$$

Entropy

• Uncertainty measure for event $X = x_k$ (log assumes \log_2):

$$I(x_k) = \log\left(\frac{1}{p_k}\right) = -\log p_k.$$

- $I(x_k) = 0$ when $p_k = 1$ (no uncertainty, no surprisal).
- $I(x_k) \ge 0$ for $0 \le p_k \le 1$: no negative uncertainty.
- $I(x_k) > I(x_i)$ for $p_k < p_i$: more uncertain for less probable events.
- Average uncertainty = **Entropy** of a random variable:

$$H(X) = E[I(x_k)]$$

= $\sum_{k=-K}^{K} p_k I(x_k)$
= $-\sum_{k=-K}^{K} p_k \log p_k$

Uncertainty, Surprise, Information, and Entropy

- If p_k is 1 (i.e., probability of event $X = x_k$ is 1), when $X = x_k$ is observed, there is **no surprise**. You are also pretty sure about the next outcome ($X = x_k$), so you are more certain (i.e., **less uncertain**).
 - High probability events are less surprising.
 - High probability events are less uncertain.
 - Thus, surprisal/uncertainty of an event are related to the inverse of the probability of that event.
- You gain **information** when you go from a high-uncertainty state to a low-uncertainty state.

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Properties of Entropy

- The higher the H(X), the higher the **potential information** you can gain through observation/measurement.
- Bounds on the entropy:

$$0 \le H(X) \le \log(2K+1)$$

- H(X) = 0 when $p_k = 1$ and $p_j = 0$ for $j \neq k$: No uncertainty.
- $H(X) = \log(2K + 1)$ when $p_k = 1/(2K + 1)$ for all k: Maximum uncertainty, when all events are equiprobable.

Properties of Entropy (cont'd)

• Max entropy when $p_k = 1/(2K+1)$ for all k follows from

$$\sum_{k} p_k \log\left(\frac{p_k}{q_k}\right) \ge 0$$

for two probability distributions $\{p_k\}$ and $\{q_k\}$, with the equality holding when $p_k = q_k$ for all k. (Multiply both sides with -1.)

• Kullback-Leibler divergence (relative entropy):

$$D_{p \parallel q} = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p_X(x) \log \left(\frac{p_X(x)}{q_X(x)} \right)$$

measures how different two probability distributions are (note that it is not symmetric, i.e., $D_{p||q} \neq D_{q||p}$.

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Diff. Entropy of Uniform Distribution

• Uniform distribution within interval [0, 1]:

$$f_X(x) = 1$$
 for $0 \le x \le 1$ and 0 otherwise

$$h(X) = -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 1 \cdot \log 1 dx$$
$$= -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 1 \cdot 0 dx$$
$$= 0. \tag{1}$$

Differential Entropy of Cont. Rand. Variables

• Differential entropy:

$$h(X) = -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) \log f_X(x) dx = -E[\log f_X(x)]$$

• Note that H(X), in the limit, does not equal h(X):

$$H(X) = -\lim_{\delta x \to 0} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{f_X(x_k)\delta x}_{p_k} \log(\underbrace{f_X(x)\delta x}_{p_k})$$
$$= -\lim_{\delta x \to 0} \left[\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x_k) \log(f_X(x))\delta x + \log(\delta x) \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x_k)\delta x \right]$$
$$= -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x_k) \log(f_X(x))dx$$
$$-\lim_{\delta x \to 0} \log \delta x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x)\delta x$$
$$= h(X) - \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \log \delta x$$

Properties of Differential Entropy

• h(X+c) = h(X)

•
$$h(aX) = h(X) + \log|a|$$

$$f_Y(y) = \frac{1}{|a|} f_Y\left(\frac{y}{a}\right)$$

$$h(Y) = -E[\log f_Y(y)]$$

= $-E\left[\log\left(\frac{1}{|a|}f_Y\left(\frac{y}{a}\right)\right)\right]$
= $-E\left[\log f_Y\left(\frac{y}{a}\right)\right] + \log|a|.$

Plugging in Y = aX to the above, we get the desired result.

• For vector random variable X,

$$h(\mathbf{AX}) = h(\mathbf{X}) + \log |\det(\mathbf{A})|.$$

Maximum Entropy Principle

- When choosing a probability model given a set of known states of a stochastic system and constraints, there could be potentially an infinite number of choices. Which one to choose?
- Jaynes (1957) proposed the maximum entropy principle:
 - Pick the probability distribution that maximizes the entropy, subject to constraints on the distribution.

One Dimensional Gaussian Dist.

- Stating the problem in an constrained optimization framework, we can get interesting general results.
- For a given variance σ^2 , the Gaussian random variable has the largest differential entropy attainable by any random variable.
- The entropy of a Gaussian random variable *X* is uniquely determined by the variance of *X*.

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Mutual Information

• **Conditional entropy**: What is the entropy in *X* after observing *Y*? How much uncertainty remains in *X* after observing *Y*?

$$H(X|Y) = H(X,Y) - H(Y)$$

where the joint-entropy is defined as

$$H(X,Y) = -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x,y) \log p(x,y)$$

• Mutual information: How much uncertainty is reduced in X when we observe Y? The amount of reduced uncertainty is equal to the amount of information we gained!

$$I(X;Y) = H(X) - H(X|Y) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$$

Mutual Information for Continuous Random Variables

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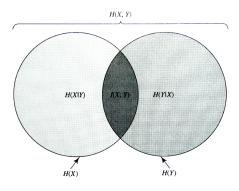
• In analogy with the discrete case:

$$I(X;Y) = \int_{\infty}^{\infty} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} f_{X,Y}(x,y) \log\left(\frac{f_X(x|y)}{f_X(x)}\right) dxdy$$

And it has the same property

$$I(X;Y) = h(X) - h(X|Y)$$
$$= h(Y) - h(Y|X)$$
$$= h(X) + h(Y) - h(X,Y)$$

Summary



• Various relationships among entropy, conditional entropy, joint entropy, and mutual information can be summarized as shown above.

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Properties of KL Divergence

- It is always positive or zero. Zero, when there is a perfect match between the two distributions.
- It is invariant w.r.t.
 - Permutation of the order in which the components of the vector random variable x are arranged.
 - Amplitude scaling.
 - Monotonic nonlinear transformation.
- It is related to mutual information:

(b)

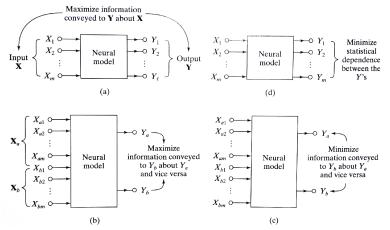
$$I(\mathbf{X};\mathbf{Y}) = D_{f_{\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Y}} \parallel f_{\mathbf{X}} f_{\mathbf{Y}}}$$

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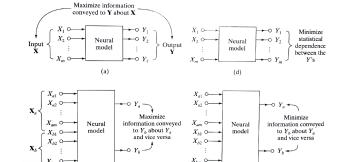
Mutual Information as an Objective Function

Application of Information Theory to Neural Network





• We can use mutual information as an objective function to be optimized when developing learning rules for neural networks. 19

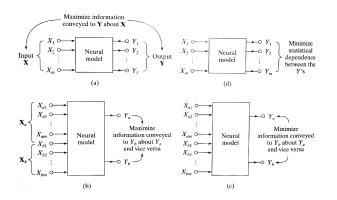


• (a) Maximize mutual info between input vector X and output vector \mathbf{Y} .

(c)

• (b) Maximize mutual info between Y_a and Y_b driven by near-by input vectors \mathbf{X}_a and \mathbf{X}_b from a *single* image.

Mutual Info. as an Objective Function (cont'd)



- (c) Minimize information between Y_a and Y_b driven by input vectors from *different* images.
- (d) Minimize statistical dependence between Y_i 's.

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Example: Single Neuron + Output Noise

• Single neuron with additive output noise:

$$Y = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i X_i\right) + N,$$

- where Y is the output, w_i the weight, X_i the input, and N the processing noise.
- Assumptions:
 - Output Y is a Gaussian r.v. with variance σ_V^2 .
 - Noise N is also a Gaussian r.v. with $\mu=0$ and variance $\sigma_N^2.$
 - Input and noise are uncorrelated: $E[X_iN] = 0$ for all *i*.

Maximum Mutual Information Principle

- Infomax principle by Linsker (1987, 1988, 1989): Maximize $I(\mathbf{Y}; \mathbf{X})$ for input vector \mathbf{X} and output vector \mathbf{Y} .
- Appealing as the basis for statistical signal processing.
- Infomax provides a mathematical framework for self-organization.
- Relation to *channel capacity*, which defines the Shannon limit on the rate of information transmission through a communication channel.

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Ex.: Single Neuron + Output Noise (cont'd)

• Mutual information between input and output:

 $I(Y; \mathbf{X}) = h(Y) - h(Y|\mathbf{X}).$

• Since $P(Y|\mathbf{X}) = c + P(N)$, where c is a constant,

 $h(Y|\mathbf{X}) = h(N).$

Given \mathbf{X} , what remains in Y is just noise N. So, we get

 $I(Y; \mathbf{X}) = h(Y) - h(N).$

Ex.: Single Neuron + Output Noise (cont'd)

• Since both Y and N are Gaussian,

$$h(Y) = \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi\sigma_Y^2)]$$
$$h(N) = \frac{1}{2} [1 + \log(2\pi\sigma_N^2)]$$

• So, finally we get:

$$I(Y; \mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left(\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_N^2} \right).$$

• The ratio σ_Y^2/σ_N^2 can be viewed as a signal-to-noise ratio. If noise variance σ_N^2 is fixed, the mutual information $I(Y; \mathbf{X})$ can be maximized simply by *maximizing the output variance* σ_Y^2 !

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Example: Single Neuron + Input Noise

As before:

$$h(Y|\mathbf{X}) = h(N') = \frac{1}{2}(1 + 2\pi\sigma_{N'}^2) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + 2\pi\sigma_N^2 \sum_{i=1}^m w_i^2 \right].$$

• Again, we can get the mutual information as:

$$I(Y; \mathbf{X}) = h(Y) - h(N') = \frac{1}{2} \log \left(\frac{\sigma_Y^2}{\sigma_N^2 \sum_{i=1}^m w_i^2} \right)$$

• Now, with fixed σ_N^2 , information is maximized by maximizing the ratio $\sigma_Y^2 / \sum_{i=1}^m w_i^2$, where σ_Y^2 is a function of w_i .

Example: Single Neuron + Input Noise

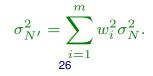
• Single neuron, with noise on each input line:

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i (X_i + N_i).$$

• We can decompose the above to

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i X_i + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i N_i}_{\text{call this } N'}$$

• N' is also a Gaussian distribution, with variance:



Lessons Learned

- Application of Infomax principle is problem-dependent.
- When $\sum_{i=1}^m w_i^2 = 1,$ then the two additive noise models behave similarly.
- Assumptions such as Gaussianity need to be justified (it's hard to calculate mutual information without such tricks).
- Adpoting a Gaussian noise model, we can invoke a "surrogate" mutual information computed relatively easily.

Noiseless Network

- Noiseless network that transforms a random vector X of arbitrary distribution to a new random vector Y of different distribution:
 Y = WX.
- Mutual information in this case is:

 $I(\mathbf{Y}; \mathbf{X}) = H(\mathbf{Y}) - H(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}).$

With noiseless mapping, $H(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X})$ attains the lowest value $(-\infty)$.

• However, we can consider the gradient instead:

$$\frac{\partial I(\mathbf{Y}; \mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \frac{\partial H(\mathbf{Y})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$$

Since $H(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X})$ is independent of \mathbf{W} , it drops out.

 Maximizing mutual information between input and output is equivalent ot maximing entropy in the output, both with respect to the weight matrix W (Bell and Sejnowski 1995).

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Modeling of a Perceptual System

- Importance of redundancy in sensory messages: Attneave (1954), Barlow (1959).
- Redundancy provides *knowledge* that enables the brain to build "cognitive maps" or "working models" of the environment (Barlow 1989).
- Reduncany reduction: specific form of *Barlow's hypothesis* early processing is to turn highly redundant sensory input into more efficient *factorial code*. Outputs become *statistically independent*.
- Atick and Redlich (1990): principle of minumum redundancy.

Infomax and Redundancy Reduction

- In Shannon's framework, Order and structure = Redundancy.
- Increase in the above reduces uncertainty.
- More redundancy in the signal implies less information conveyed.
- More information conveyed means less redundancy.
- Thus, Infomax principle leads to reduced reduncancy in output Y compared to input X.
- When noise is present:
 - Input noise: add redundancy in input to combat noise.
 - Output noise: add more output components to combat noise.
 - High level of noise favors redundancy of representation.
 - Low level of noise favors diversity of representation.

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Principle of Minimum Redundancy

Sensory signal S, Noisy input X, Recoding system A, noisy output Y.

 $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{S} + \mathbf{N}_1$ $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{N}_2$

- Retinal input includes redundant information. Purpose of retinal coding is to reduce/eliminate the redundant bits of data due to correlations and noise, before sending the signal along the optic nerve.
- Redundancy measure (with channel capacity $C(\cdot)$):

$$R = 1 - \frac{I(\mathbf{Y}; \mathbf{S})}{C(\mathbf{Y})}$$

Principle of Minimum Redundancy (cont'd)

• Objective: find recoder matrix A such that

$$R = 1 - \frac{I(\mathbf{Y}; \mathbf{S})}{C(\mathbf{Y})}$$

is minimized, subject to the no information loss constaraint:

$$I(\mathbf{Y}; \mathbf{X}) = I(\mathbf{X}; \mathbf{X}) - \epsilon.$$

- When **S** and **Y** have the same dimensionality and there is no noise, principle of minimum redundancy is equivalent to the Infomax principle.
- Thus, Infomax on input/output lead to reduncancy reduction.

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Spatially Coherent Features (cont'd)

• Let S denote a signal component common to both Y_a and Y_b . We can then express the outputs in terms of S and some noise:

$$Y_a = S + N_a$$

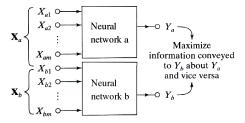
$$Y_b = S + N_b$$

and further assume that N_a and N_b are independent and zero-mean Gaussian. Also assume S is Gaussian.

• The mutual information then becomes

$$I(Y_a; Y_b) = h(Y_a) + h(Y_b) - h(Y_a, Y_b)$$

Spatially Coherent Features



- Infomax for unsupervised processing of the image of natural scenes (Becker and Hinton, 1992).
- Goal: design a self-organizing system that is capable of learning to encode complex scene information in a simpler form.
- Objective: extract higher-order features that exhibit simple coherence across space so that representation for one spatial region can be used to produce that of representation of neighboring regions.

Spatially Coherent Features (cont'd)

• With
$$I(Y_a; Y_b) = h(Y_a) + h(Y_b) - h(Y_a, Y_b)$$
 and

$$h(Y_a) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \log \left(2\pi \sigma_a^2 \right) \right]$$

$$h(Y_b) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \log \left(2\pi \sigma_b^2 \right) \right]$$

$$h(Y_a, Y_b) = 1 + \log(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2} \log |\det(\Sigma)|$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_a^2 & \rho_{ab} \sigma_a \sigma_b \\ \rho_{ab} \sigma_a \sigma_b & \sigma_b^2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ (covariance matrix)}$$

$$\rho_{ab} = \frac{E[(Y_a - E[Y_a])(Y_b - E[Y_b])]}{\sigma_a \sigma_b} \text{ (correlation)}$$
we get

 $I(Y_a; Y_b) = -\frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 - \rho_{ab}^2\right).$

Spatially Coherent Features (cont'd)

• The final results was:

$$I(Y_a; Y_b) = -\frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 - \rho_{ab}^2\right)$$

- That is, maximizing information is equivalent to maximizing *correlation* between *Y*_a and *Y*_b, which is intuitively appealing.
- Relation to *canonical correlation* in statistics:
 - Given random input vectors \mathbf{X}_a and \mathbf{X}_b ,
 - find two weight vectors \mathbf{w}_a and \mathbf{w}_b so that
 - $Y_a = \mathbf{w}_a^T \mathbf{X}_a$ and $Y_b = \mathbf{w}_b^T \mathbf{X}_b$ have maximum correlation between them (Anderson 1984).
 - Applications: stereo disparity extraction (Becker and Hinton, 1992).
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Independent Components Analysis (ICA)

$\begin{array}{c} X_1 \bigcirc & \\ X_2 \bigcirc & \\ \vdots \end{array}$	Neural model		Y_1 Y_2	}	Minimize statistical dependence between the
$X_m \circ \longrightarrow$		_	Y_m	J	Y's

• Unknown random source vector $\mathbf{U}(n)$:

$$\mathbf{U} = [U_1, U_2, ..., U_m]^T$$

where the m components are supplied by a set of *independent* sources. Note that we need a series of source vectors.

• U is transformed by an unknown *mixing matrix* A:

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{AU}$$

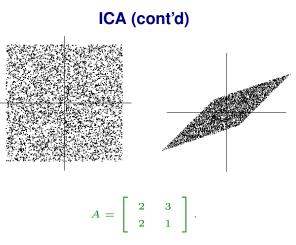
where

$$\mathbf{X} = [X_1, X_2, ..., X_m]^T.$$

Spatially Coherent Features

- When the inputs come from two separate regions, we want to *minimize* the mutual information between the two outputs (Ukrainec and Haykin, 1992, 1996).
- Applications include when input sources such as different polarizations of the signal are imaged: mutual information between outputs driven by two orthogonal polarizations should be minimized.



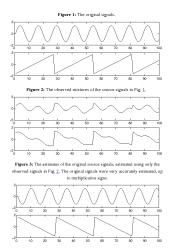


- Left: u_1 on x-axis, u_2 on y-axis (source)
- Right: x_1 on x-axis, x_2 on y-axis (observation)
- Thoughts: how would PCA transform this?

Examples from Aapo Hyvarinen's ICA tutorial:

http://www.cis.hut.fi/aapo/papers/IJCNN99_tutorialweb/.

ICA (cont'd)



Examples from AApo Hyvarinen's ICA tutorial: http://www.cis.hut.fi/aapo/papers/IJCNN99_tutorialweb/.

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ICA: Ambiguities

Consider $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{AU}$, and $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{WX}$.

- Permutation: $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{U}$, where \mathbf{P} is a permutation matrix. Permuting \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{A} in the same way will give the same \mathbf{X} .
- Sign: the model is unaffected by multiplication of one of the sources by -1.
- Scaling (variance): estimate scaling up U and scaling down A will give the same X.

ICA (cont'd)

- In $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{U}$, both \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{U} are **unknown**.
- Task: find an estimate of the *inverse* of the mixing matrix (the demixing matrix W)

 $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{X}.$

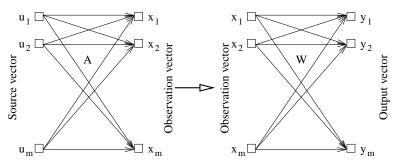
The hope is to recover the unknown source \mathbf{U} . (A good example is the *cocktail party problem*.)

This is known as the **blind source separation** problem.

Solution: It is actually feasible, but certain ambiguities cannot be resolved: sign, permutation, scaling (variance). Solution can be obtained by enforcing independence among components of Y while adjusting W, thus the name *independent components analysis*.

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ICA: Neural Network View



- The mixer on the left is an unknown physical process.
- The demixer on the right could be seen as a neural network.

ICA: Independence

• Two random variables X and Y are statistically independent when

 $f_{X,Y}(x,y) = f_X(x)f_Y(y),$

- where $f(\cdot)$ is the probability density function.
- A weaker form of independence is *uncorrelatedness* (zero covariance), which is

$$E[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y] = 0,$$

i.e.,

$$E[XY] = E[X]E[Y].$$

• Gaussians are bad: When the unknown source is Gaussian, any orthogonal transformation A results in the same Gaussian distribution.

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ICA: Non-Gaussianity

- Non-Gaussianity can be used as a measure of independence.
- The intuition is as follows:

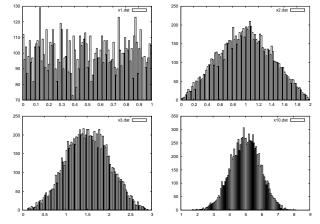
$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{U}, \quad \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{X}$$

Consider on component of **Y**:

$$Y_i = [W_{i1}, W_{i2}, ..., W_{im}]\mathbf{X}$$
$$Y_i = \underbrace{[W_{i1}, W_{i2}, ..., W_{im}]\mathbf{A}}_{\text{call this } \mathbf{Z}^T} \mathbf{U}$$

So, Y_i is a linear combination of random variables U_k $(Y_i = \sum_{j=1}^m Z_i U_i)$, so it is more Gaussian than any individual U_k 's. The Gaussianity is *minimized* when Y_i equals one of U_k 's (one Z_p is 1 and all the rest 0).

Statistical Aside: Central Limit Theorem



- When i.i.d. random variables $X_1, X_2, ...$ are added to get another random variable X, X tends to a normal distribution.
- So, Gaussians are prevalent and hard to avoid in statistics.

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ICA: Measures of Non-Gaussianity

There are several measures of non-Gaussianity

- Kurtosis
- Negentropy
- etc.

ICA: Kurtosis

• Kurtosis is the fourth-order cumulant.

$\operatorname{Kurtosis}(Y) = E[Y^4] - 3\left(E\left[Y^2\right]\right)^2.$

- Gaussian distributions have kurtosis = 0.
- More peaked distributions have kurtosis > 0.
- More flatter distributions have kurtosis < 0.
- Learning: Start with random W. Adjust W and measure change in kurtosis. We can also use gradient-based methods.
- Drawback: Kurtosis is sensitive to outliers, and thus not robust.

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ICA: Approximation of Negentropy

Classical method:

$$J(Y) \approx \frac{1}{2}E[Y^3]^2 + \frac{1}{48}\operatorname{Kurtosis}(Y)^2$$

but it is not robust due to the involvement of the kurtoris.

• Another variant:

G

$$J(Y) \approx \sum_{k=1}^{p} k_i \left(E[G_i(Y)] - E[G_i(N)] \right)^2$$

where k_i 's are coefficients, $G_i(\cdot)$'s are nonquadratic functions, and N is a zero-mean, unit-variance Gaussian r.v.

• This can be further simplified by

$$J(Y) \approx \left(E[G(Y)] - E[G(N)] \right)^2$$
$${}_1(Y) = \frac{1}{a_1} \log \cosh a_1 Y, \quad G_2(Y) = -\exp(-Y^2/2).$$

ICA: Negentropy

• Negentropy J is defined as

 $J(\mathbf{Y}) = H(\mathbf{Y}_{gauss}) - H(\mathbf{Y})$

where Y_{gauss} is a Gaussian random variable that has the same covariance matrix as **Y**.

- Negentropy is always non-negative, and it is zero iff Y is Gaussian.
- Thus, maximizing negentropy is to maximize non-Gaussianity.
- Problem is that estimating negentropy is difficult, and requires the knowledge of the pdfs.

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ICA: Minimizing Mutual Information

- We can also aim to minimize mutual information between Y_i 's.
- This turns out to be equivalent to maximizing negentropy (when Y_i 's have unit variance).

$$I(Y_1; Y_2; ...; Y_m) = C - \sum_i J(Y_i)$$

where C is a constant that does not depend on the weight matrix \mathbf{W} .

ICA: Achieving Independence

- Given output vector **Y**, we want Y_i and Y_j to be statistically independent.
- This can achieved when $I(Y_i; Y_j) = 0$.
- Another alternative is to make the probability density f_Y(y, W) parameterized by the matrix W to approach the *factorial distribution*:

$$\widetilde{f}_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \widetilde{f}_{Y_i}(y_i, \mathbf{W}),$$

where $\widetilde{f}_{Y_i}(y_i, \mathbf{W})$ is the marginal probability density of Y_i . This can be measured by $D_{f \parallel \widetilde{f}}(\mathbf{W})$.

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ICA: Learning W

- Learning objective is to minimize the KL divergence $D_{f \parallel \widetilde{f}}.$
- We can do gradient descent:

$$\Delta w_{ik} = -\eta \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ik}} D_{f \parallel \widetilde{f}}$$

= $\eta \left((\mathbf{W}^{-T})_{ik} - \varphi(y_i) x_k \right)$

• The final learning rule, in matrix form, is:

$$\mathbf{W}(n+1) = \mathbf{W}(n) + \eta(n) \left[\mathbf{I} - \boldsymbol{\varphi}(\mathbf{y}(n)) \mathbf{y}^{T}(n) \right] \mathbf{W}^{-T}(n).$$

ICA: KL Divergence with Factorial Dist

• The KL divergence can be shown to be:

$$D_{f \| \widetilde{f}}(\mathbf{W}) = -h(\mathbf{Y}) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \widetilde{h}(Y_i).$$

• Next, we need to calculate the output entropy:

$$h(\mathbf{Y}) = h(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X}) = h(\mathbf{X}) + \log|\det(\mathbf{W})|.$$

• Finally, we need to calculate the marginal entropy $\tilde{h}(Y_i)$, which gets tricky. This calculation involves a polynomial activation function $\varphi(y_i)$. See the textbook for details.

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ICA Examples

• Visit the url http://www.cis.hut.fi/projects/ compneuro/whatisica.html for interesting results.