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/.

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Motivation

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*.

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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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):

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

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

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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):

$$H(X) = -\lim_{\delta x \to 0} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{f_X(x_k)\delta x}_{p_k} \log(\underbrace{f_X(x)\delta x})$$

$$= -\lim_{\delta x \to 0} \left[\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x_k) \log(f_X(x))\delta x + \log(\delta x) \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x_k) \delta x \right]$$

$$= -\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x_k) \log(f_X(x)) dx$$

$$-\lim_{\delta x \to 0} \log \delta x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_X(x) \delta x$$

$$= h(X) - \lim_{\delta x \to 0} \log \delta x$$
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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.

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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!

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

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 for Continuous Random Variables

• In analogy with the discrete case:

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

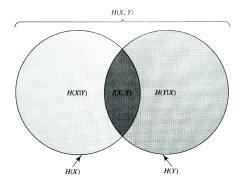
And it has the same property

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

$$= h(Y) - h(Y|X)$$

$$= h(X) + h(Y) - h(X,Y)$$

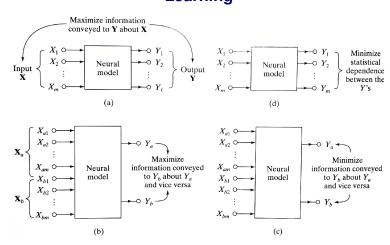
Summary



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

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Application of Information Theory to Neural Network Learning



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

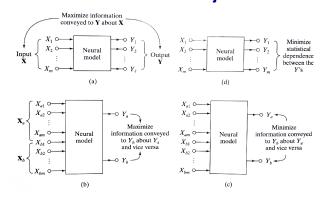
Properties of KL Divergence

- 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:

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

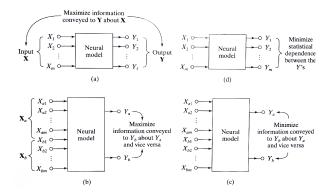
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Mutual Information as an Objective Function



- (a) Maximize mutual info between input vector \mathbf{X} and output vector \mathbf{Y} .
- (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.
- ullet (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_Y^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(Y; X) for input vector X and output vector 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 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:

$$\sigma_{N'}^2 = \sum_{\substack{i=1\\26}}^m w_i^2 \sigma_N^2.$$

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:

$$Y_a = S + N_a$$

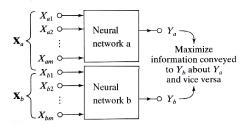
$$Y_b = S + N_b$$

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)

$$\begin{split} \bullet & \text{ With } I(Y_a;Y_b) = h(Y_a) + h(Y_b) - h(Y_a,Y_b) \text{ and } \\ & h(Y_a) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \log \left(2\pi \sigma_a^2 \right) \right] \\ & h(Y_b) = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \log \left(2\pi \sigma_b^2 \right) \right] \\ & h(Y_a,Y_b) = 1 + \log(2\pi) + \frac{1}{2} \log |\det(\Sigma),| \\ & \Sigma = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \sigma_a^2 & \rho_{ab}\sigma_a\sigma_b \\ \rho_{ab}\sigma_a\sigma_b & \sigma_b^2 \end{array} \right] \text{ (covariance matrix)} \\ & \rho_{ab} = \frac{E[(Y_a - E[Y_a])(Y_b - E[Y_b])]}{\sigma_a\sigma_b} \text{ (correlation)} \end{split}$$

we get

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

Spatially Coherent Features (cont'd)

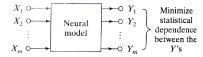
• The final results was:

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

- 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)



• 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**:

$$X = AU$$
.

where

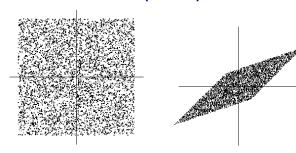
$$\mathbf{X} = [X_1, X_2, ..., X_m]^T.$$

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.

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ICA (cont'd)

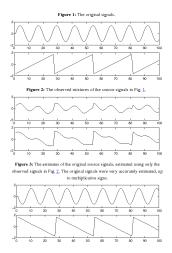


$$A = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{array} \right].$$

- ullet 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:

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 X = AU, and Y = 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 X = AU, both A and U are unknown.
- Task: find an estimate of the *inverse* of the mixing matrix (the demixing matrix W)

$$Y = WX$$
.

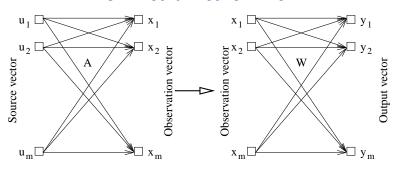
The hope is to recover the unknown source U. (A good example is the *cocktail party problem*.)

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

ullet 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:

$$X = AU, Y = WX$$

Consider one component of \mathbf{Y} :

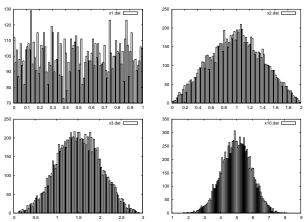
$$Y_i = [W_{i1}, W_{i2}, ..., W_{im}]\mathbf{X}$$

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

call this \mathbf{Z}^T

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.

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

- 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:

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

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

Another variant:

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

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

$$J(Y) \approx (E[G(Y)] - E[G(N)])^2$$

$$G_1(Y) = \frac{1}{a_1} \log \cosh a_1 Y, \quad G_2(Y) = -\exp(-Y^2/2).$$

ICA: Negentropy

Negentropy J is defined as

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

where Y_{gauss} is a Gaussian random variable that has the same covariance matrix as \mathbf{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 $f_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{W})$ parameterized by the matrix \mathbf{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

- $\bullet \;$ 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:

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

• Next, we need to calculate the output entropy:

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

ullet Finally, we need to calculate the marginal entropy $\widetilde{h}(Y_i)$, 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.