Hyperspectral BSS using GMCA with *spatio-spectral* sparsity constraints

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Abstract—GMCA is a recent algorithm for multichannel data analysis which was used successfully in a variety of applications including multichannel sparse decomposition, blind source separation (BSS), color image restoration and inpainting. Building on GMCA, the purpose of this contribution is to describe a new algorithm for BSS applications in *hyperspectral* data processing. It assumes the collected data is a mixture of components exhibiting sparse spectral signatures as well as sparse spatial morphologies, each in specified dictionaries of spectral and spatial waveforms. We report on numerical experiments with synthetic data and application to real observations which demonstrate the validity of the proposed method.

Index Terms—GMCA, MCA, sparsity, morphological diversity, hyperspectral data, multichannel data, Blind Source Separation, wavelets, curvelets.

I. INTRODUCTION

Over the last few years, the use of multi-channel sensors has spread widely in a variety of research fields ranging from astronomy to geophysics. This has raised interest in methods for the coherent processing of multivariate data, as well as more specific approaches for hyperspectral data. In this context, the data matrix \( \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times t} \) is composed of images of size \( \sqrt{t} \times \sqrt{t} \) observed in \( m \) different wavelength bands. A widely used approach to model such data consists in assuming that each row \( x_p \) of \( \mathbf{X} \) is the linear combination of \( n \) so-called sources : \( \forall i = 1, \ldots, m; \ x_p = \sum a_{ik} s_k + n_p \) where \( s_k \) is known as a source and \( a_{ik} \) models for the contribution of the \( k \)-th source in the \( p \)-th channel. The term \( n_t \) stands for noise or source imperfections. By defining the so-called mixing matrix \( \mathbf{A} \) the entries of which are \( A[p,k] = a_{ik} \), and the source matrix \( \mathbf{S} \) the rows of which are the sources \( \{s_k\}_{t=1,\ldots,n} \), the data \( \mathbf{X} \) are more concisely modeled as follows:

\[
\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{AS} + \mathbf{N}
\]

where \( \mathbf{N} \) models some additive noise contribution. Blind source separation methods then aim at estimating both \( \mathbf{A} \) and \( \mathbf{S} \) from the data \( \mathbf{X} \). Several statistical approaches have been applied to solve this problem. In a nutshell, designing an effective blind source separation method reduces to finding a measure of diversity between the sources. In the last two decades, the mainstream approach has been independent component analysis (ICA - see [7], [8] and references therein). These statistical approaches aim at designing blind source separation methods that enforce the statistical independence of the sought after sources.

Inspired by recent advances in computational harmonic analysis, sparsity-based blind source separation methods have been introduced in [7], [8]. More specifically, Generalized Morphological Component Analysis (GMCA) is a recent algorithm designed in [7] which is used to decompose a given data matrix \( \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times t} \) into a specified number \( n \) of rank one contributions \( \mathbf{X}_k \) with different statistical and *spatio-spectral* properties. Each matrix \( \mathbf{X}_k \) is the product of a spectral signature \( a_k^\mathsf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times t} \) and a spatial density profile \( s_k \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times t} \). A major assumption of GMCA is that each \( s_k \) has a sparse representation \( \nu_k \) in a given dictionary of spatial waveforms \( \Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{t \times t} \), which for simplicity we take to be the same for all \( k \). In matrix form, we write:

\[
\mathbf{X} = \sum_k \mathbf{X}_k + \mathbf{N} = \sum_k a_k^\mathsf{s} s_k + \mathbf{N} \quad (1)
\]

\[
= \mathbf{AS} + \mathbf{N} = \sum_k a_k^\nu_k \Phi + \mathbf{N} \quad (2)
\]

where the \( k \)-th line of \( \mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times t} \) is \( s_k \) and the \( k \)-th column of \( \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \) is \( a_k^\mathsf{s} \). The \( m \times t \) random matrix \( \mathbf{N} \) is included to account for modeling errors, or instrumental noise, assumed to be Gaussian, uncorrelated inter- and intra-channels, with variance \( \sigma^2 \).

In the case of multichannel image data, the image from the \( p \)-th channel is formally represented here as the \( p \)-th line of \( \mathbf{X} \), \( x_p \). The importance of sparsity in blind source separation was recently recognized in [7]. The sparse coefficient vector \( \nu_k \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times t} \) has most of its entries close to zero while only a few have significant amplitudes. In addition to this marginal property of the sparse representations \( \nu_k \), GMCA also requires morphological diversity to achieve its decomposition which is a property of their joint distribution. Let \( \nu_k \) be the \( k \)-th line of matrix \( \nu \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times t} \). The latter property expresses the assumption that there is little probability that a column of \( \nu \) will have more than one significant entry. This is true for instance of sparse independent random processes. It is also true of a random vector generated such that at most one entry is significant, in which case the entries are not independent variables. In that setting, sparsity and morphological diversity helps discriminating between the sought after sources. Furthermore, the use of sparse representations also makes GMCA more robust to noise than commonly used methods. In the context of BSS, GMCA has been shown to outperform standard state-of-the-art methods. Beyond source separation problems, GMCA was applied successfully in a variety of multichannel data processing applications, color image restoration and inpainting [7], [8].

Contribution of this paper

Building on GMCA, the purpose of this contribution is to describe a new algorithm for so-called *hyperspectral* data processing. In what follows, regardless of other definitions or models living in other scientific communities, the term *hyperspectral* will be used in reference to multichannel data with the following two specific properties: first that the number of channels is large and second that these achieve a *regular if not uniform* sampling of some additional and meaningful physical index (e.g. wavelength, space, time) which we refer to as the *spectral* dimension. Typically, hyperspectral imaging systems collect data in a large number (up to several hundreds) of contiguous intervals of the electromagnetic spectrum. For such data, in a BSS setting for instance, one may be urged by prior knowledge to set additional constraints on the estimated parameters \( A \) and \( S \) such as equality or positivity constraints but also regularity constraints not only in the spatial dimension but in the spectral dimension as well. For instance, it may be known *a priori* that the mixed underlying objects of interest \( \mathbf{X}_k = a_k^\mathsf{s} s_k \) exhibit both sparse spectral signatures and sparse spatial morphologies in known dictionaries of spectral and spatial waveforms. The proposed...
algorithm, referred to as hypGMCA was devised to account for the additional a priori sparsity constraint on the mixing matrix i.e. to enforce that columns \( a^k \) have a sparse representation in \( \Psi \), a given dictionary of spectral waveforms.

Commonly used methods for hyperspectral source separation includes standard blind source separation methods such as ICA [7]. Minimum enclosing volume methods [7],[?] have also been proposed. The latter methods aim at enclosing the data set into a polytope with minimum volume. The axes of this polytope then provide estimators for the columns of the mixing matrix. Very different from these methods, hypGMCA is able to account for physically meaningful prior information including the spatial and spectral sparsity behavior of the components and/or their positivity. Taking advantage of the double spatial and spectral sparsity of the sources, hypGMCA is able to better discriminate between the components and thus achieve better separation results and it is more robust to instrumental noise.

In the next section, we discuss and build a modified MAP objective function which formalizes the desired spatio-spectral sparsity constraint. The resulting hypGMCA algorithm is given in section III. Finally, in section IV, numerical experiments with synthetic and real hyperspectral data illustrate the efficiency of the proposed algorithm.

II. OBJECTIVE FUNCTION

With the above spatio-spectral sparsity assumptions, equation (1) is rewritten as follows:

\[
X = \sum_k X_k + N = \sum_k \Psi \gamma^k \nu_k \Phi + N
\]  (3)

where \( X_k = a^k s_k \) are rank one matrices sparse in \( \Omega = \Psi \otimes \Phi \) such that \( a^k \) has a sparse representation \( \gamma^k \) in \( \Psi \) while \( s_k \) has a sparse representation \( \nu_k \) in \( \Phi \). Denote \( \alpha_k = \gamma^k \nu_k \) the rank one matrix of coefficients representing \( X_k \) in \( \Omega \).

Initially, the objective of the GMCA algorithm is as follows:

\[
\min_{A,S} \sum_k \lambda_k \| \nu_k \|_1 + \frac{1}{2 \sigma^2} \left\| X - \sum_k a^k s_k \right\|_2^2 \text{ with } s_k = \nu_k \Phi
\]  (4)

which is derived as a MAP estimation of the model parameters \( A \) and \( S \) where the 1 penalty terms imposing sparsity come from Laplacian priors on the sparse representation \( \nu_k \) of \( s_k \) in \( \Phi \). Interestingly, the treatment of \( A \) and \( S \) in the above is asymmetric. This is a common feature of the great majority of BSS methods which invoke a uniform improper prior distribution for the spectral parameters \( A \). Truly, \( A \) and \( S \) often have different roles in the model and very different sizes. However, dealing with so-called hyperspectral data, assuming that the spectral signatures \( a^k \) also have sparse representations \( \gamma^k \) in spectral dictionary \( \Psi \), this asymmetry is no longer so obvious. Also, a well known property of the linear mixture model (1) is its scale and permutation invariance: without additional prior information, the indexing of the \( X_k \) in the decomposition of data \( X \) is not meaningful and \( a^k, s_k \) can trade a scale factor in full impunity. A consequence is that unless a priori specified otherwise, information on the separate scales of \( a^k \) and \( s_k \) is lost due to the multiplicative mixing, and only a joint scale parameter for \( a^k, s_k \) can be estimated. This loss of information needs to be translated into a practical prior on \( X_k = a^k s_k = \Psi \gamma^k \nu_k \Phi \). Unfortunately, deriving the distribution of the product of two independent random variables \( \gamma^k \) and \( \nu_k \) based on their marginal densities can be cumbersome. We propose instead that the following \( p_x \) is a good and practical candidate joint sparse prior

\[
p_x(\gamma^k, \nu_k) \propto \exp(-\lambda_k \| \gamma^k \nu_k \|_1) \propto \exp(-\lambda_k \sum_{i,j} |\gamma^k_i \nu_k^j|)
\]  (5)

where \( \gamma^k_i \) is the \( i \)th entry in \( \gamma^k \) and \( \nu_k^j \) is the \( j \)th entry in \( \nu_k \). Note that the proposed distribution has the nice property, for subsequent derivations, that the conditional distributions of \( \gamma^k \) given \( \nu_k \) and of \( \nu_k \) given \( \gamma^k \) are both Laplacian distributions which are commonly and conveniently used to model sparse distributions. Finally, inserting the latter prior distribution in a Bayesian MAP estimator leads to the following minimization problem:

\[
\min_{\alpha_k} \frac{1}{2 \sigma^2} \left\| X - \sum_k a^k s_k \right\|_2^2 + \sum_k \lambda_k \| \nu_k \|_1
\]  (6)

Let us first note that the above can be expressed slightly differently as follows:

\[
\min_{\alpha_k} \frac{1}{2 \sigma^2} \left\| X - \sum_k a^k s_k \right\|_2^2 + \sum_k \lambda_k \| \alpha_k \|_1
\]  (7)

which uncovers a nice interpretation of our problem as that of approximating the data \( X \) by a sum of rank one matrices \( X_k \) which are sparse in the specified dictionary of rank one matrices. This is the usual 1 minimization problem [?] but with the additional constraint that the \( X_k \) are all rank one at most. The latter constraint is enforced here mechanically through a proper parametric representation of \( X_k = a^k s_k \) or \( \alpha_k = \gamma^k \nu_k \). A similar problem was previously investigated by [?] with a very different approach.

We also note that rescaling the columns of \( A \leftarrow \rho A \) while applying the proper inverse scaling to the lines of \( S \leftarrow 1/\rho S \), leaves both the quadratic measure of fit and the 1 sparsity measure in equation (6) unaltered. Although renormalizing is still worthwhile numerically, it is no longer dictated by the lack of scale invariance of the objective function and the need to stay away from trivial solutions, as in GMCA.

There have been previous reports of a symmetric treatment of \( A \) and \( S \) for BSS [?],[?],[?] however in the noiseless case. We also note that very recently, the objective function (6) was proposed in [?] for dictionary learning oriented applications. However, the algorithm derived in [?] is very different from the method proposed here which benefits from all the good properties of GMCA, notably its speed and robustness which come along the iterative thresholding with a decreasing threshold.

II. GMCA ALGORITHM FOR HYPERSPECTRAL DATA

For the sake of simplicity, consider now that the multichannel dictionary \( \Omega = \Psi \otimes \Phi \) reduces to a single orthonormal basis, tensor

Figure 1. Image data set used in the experiments. Each image contains 128 by 128 pixels. They all have zero mean and are normalized to have unit variance.
product of orthonormal bases $\Psi$ and $\Phi$ of respectively spectral and spatial waveforms. In this case, the minimization problem (6) is best formulated in coefficient space as follows:

$$\min_{(\gamma, \nu)} \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} ||\alpha - \gamma\nu||_2^2 + \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k ||\gamma^k\nu_k||_1$$

(8)

where the columns of $\gamma$ are $\gamma^k$, the rows of $\nu$ are $\nu_k$ and $\alpha = \Psi^T X \Phi^T$ is the coefficient matrix of data $X$ in $\Omega$. Thus, we are seeking a decomposition of matrix $\alpha$ into a sum of sparse rank one matrices $\alpha_k = \gamma^k\nu_k$.

Unfortunately, there is no obvious closed form solution to problem (8), which is also clearly non-convex. Similarly to the GMCA algorithm, we propose instead a numerical approach by means of a block-coordinate relaxation (BCR) [?] iterative algorithm, alternately minimizing with respect to $\gamma$ and $\nu$. Indeed, thanks to the chosen prior, for fixed $\gamma$ (resp. $\nu$), the marginal minimization problem over $\nu$ (resp. $\gamma$) is convex and is solved using a variety of methods. Inspired by the iterative thresholding methods described in [?], [?], [?], akin to Projected Landweber algorithms, we obtain the following system of update rules:

$$\nu^{\text{new}} = \Delta_\eta \left( (\gamma^T \gamma)^{-1} \gamma^T \alpha \right)$$

$$\gamma^{\text{new}} = \Delta_\zeta \left( \alpha \nu^{\text{old}} (\nu^T \nu)^{-1} \right)$$

where vector $\eta$ has length $n$ and entries $\eta[k] = \frac{\sigma^2 \lambda_k}{\gamma^k ||\gamma||_2}$, while $\zeta$ has length $m$ and entries $\zeta[k] = \frac{\sigma^2 \lambda_k ||\nu||_2}{\nu^k ||\nu||_2}$. The multichannel soft-thresholding operator $\Delta_\eta$ acts on each row $k$ of $\nu$ with threshold $\eta[k]$ and $\Delta_\zeta$ acts on each column $k$ of $\gamma$ with threshold $\zeta[k]$. Equations (9) and (10) are easily interpreted as thresholded alternate least squares solutions. A complete derivation of these update rules is given in Appendix A.

Finally, in the spirit of the fast GMCA algorithm [?], it is proposed that a solution to problem (8) can be approached efficiently using the following iterative symmetric thresholding scheme with a progressively decreasing threshold, which we refer to as hypGMCA:

1. Set the number of iterations $I_{\text{max}}$ and initial thresholds $\lambda_k^{(0)}$
2. Transform the data $X$ into $\alpha$.
3. While $\lambda_k^{(i)}$ are higher than a given lower bound $\lambda_{\text{min}}$,
   - Update $\nu$ assuming $\gamma$ is fixed using equation (9).
   - Update $\gamma$ assuming $\nu$ is fixed using equation (10).
   - Decrease the thresholds $\lambda_k^{(i)}$.
4. Transform back $\gamma$ and $\nu$ to estimate $A$ and $S$.

With the threshold successively decaying towards zero along iterations, the current sparse approximations for $\gamma$ and $\nu$ are progressively refined by including finer structures spatially and spectrally, alternately. This salient to fine estimation process is the core of hypGMCA. The final threshold should vanish in the noiseless case or it may be set to a multiple of the noise standard deviation as in common detection or denoising methods. Soft thresholding results from the use of an $\ell_1$ sparsity measure, which comes as an approximation to the $\ell_0$ pseudo-norm. Applying a hard threshold instead towards the end of the iterative process, may lead to better results as was noted experimentally in [?], [?]. When non-unitary or redundant transforms are used, the above is no longer strictly valid. Nevertheless, simple shrinkage still gives satisfactory results in practice as studied in [?]. In the end, implementing the proposed update rules requires only a slight modification of the GMCA algorithm given in [?]. Where a simple least squares linear regression was used in the GMCA update for $a^k$, the proposed update rule applies a thresholding operator to the least squares solution thus enforcing sparsity on the estimated spectral signatures as a priori desired. The case where the dictionary $\Omega$ is the union of several orthonormal bases $\Omega_k$ may also be handled with a BCR approach. Update rules are easily derived, leading however to a much slower algorithm requiring the different forward and reverse transformations to be applied at each iteration.

IV. Numerical experiments

In this section, we compare the performance of hypGMCA and GMCA in toy BSS experiments with 1D and 2D. First we consider synthetic 2D data consisting of $m = 128$ mixtures of $n = 5$ image sources, generated according to the linear mixing model (1). The sources were drawn at random from a set of structured $128 \times 128$ images shown on Figure 1. These images provide us with 2D spatially structured processes which are sparse enough in the curvelet domain [?]. The spectral signatures, i.e. the columns of the mixing matrix, were generated as sparse processes in some orthogonal wavelet domain given a priori. The wavelet coefficients of the spectra were sampled from a Laplacian probability density with scale parameter $\mu = 1$. Finally, white Gaussian noise with variance $\sigma^2$ was added to the pixels of the synthetic mixture data in the different channels. Figure 2 displays four typical noisy simulated mixture data with SNR = 20dB. The graph on figure 4 traces the evolution of $C_A = \|I_A - PA^T A\|_1$, which we use to assess the recovery of the mixing matrix $A$, as a function of the SNR which was varied from 0 to 40dB. Matrix $P$ serves to reduce the scale and permutation indeterminacy inherent in model (3) and $A^T$ is the pseudo-inverse of the estimated matrix of spectral signatures. In simulation, the true source and spectral matrices are known so that $P$ can be computed easily. Criterion $C_A$ is then strictly positive, and null only if matrix $A$ is correctly estimated up to scale and permutation. Finally, as we expected since it benefits from the added a priori spatial sparsity constraint it enforces, the proposed hypGMCA is clearly more robust to noise. A visual inspection of figure 3 allows a further qualitative assessment of the improved source recovery provided by correctly accounting for a priori spatial as well as spectral sparsity. The images on the right hand side were obtained with GMCA while the images on the left were obtained with hypGMCA. In all cases, both methods were run in the curvelet domain [?] with the same number of iterations.
source separation. However, as \( n \) becomes larger than 15 the spectral sparsity constraint clearly enhances the recovery results. For instance, when \( n = 64 \), hypGMCA outperforms the original GMCA by up to 12dB. The lower panel of Figure 5 shows the behavior of both algorithms in terms of \( C_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \| a^i s_i - \tilde{a}^i \tilde{s}_i \|_1 / \sum_{i=1}^{n} \| a^i s_i \|_1 \). As expected, accounting for spectral sparsity yields sparser results. Furthermore, as the number of sources increases, the deviation between the aforementioned methods becomes wider.

**Additional positivity constraint**

In hyperspectral data models, the sources often have an interpretable physical meaning (temperature, reflectance, etc). Hence, the entries of the sources to be estimated ought to be positive. The hypGMCA algorithm is adapted to account for the positivity of the sources. The new update rules are derived in Appendix B.

In the present experiment, the sources are drawn randomly from the set of normalized 128 \( \times 128 \) images shown on Figure 1. The number of sources in the synthetic mixtures is \( n = 5 \). The associated spectral signatures are generated from a Laplacian probability density with scale parameter \( \mu = 1 \) in a given orthogonal wavelet basis. Both the columns of the mixing matrix and the sources are constrained to be positive. The number of channels is \( m = 128 \). White Gaussian noise with variance matrix \( \sigma^2 \) is added to the mixed sources in each channel.

The separation algorithms, GMCA, hypGMCA and hypGMCA with positivity constraints, were used in the curvelet domain with 100 iterations. Figure 6 pictures the evolution of the mixing matrix criterion \( C_\mathcal{A} \) when the SNR varies from 0 to 40dB. To further assess the efficiency of our algorithms, figure 6 also displays the results obtained using two state of the art methods developed for hyperspectral data unmixing in geoscience and remote sensing applications namely the Vertex Component Analysis method (VCA) [7] and the Minimum Volume Enclosing Simplex Algorithm (MVES) [7], Matlab implementations available online for both methods were used in this comparison. These two unmixing algorithms aim at estimating the spectral signatures of the endmembers (mixing matrix) as well as their fractional abundance maps (sources) based on the observed mixture data. VCA and MVES both assume positive sources, a property which is true of the synthetic data set used here. However, VCA and MVES make some additional assumptions which are not made by hypGMCA. For instance, VCA and MVES assume the fractional abundances of all endmembers sum to one in all pixels. The data was scaled accordingly before applying these methods. VCA also assumes noiseless data and the existence of pure pixels. Low purity is shown in [7] to impact heavily on the performance of VCA and may explain the bad results we obtained with this algorithm even at high SNR. On the other hand, MVES does not assume purity and proves to be a very efficient unmixing algorithm at high SNR, the performance of hypGMCA+positivity being only slightly better.

Both VCA and MVES operate in pixel space and make no use of the spatial structures in the abundance maps so that both have rapidly degrading performance as the noise level increases. By design, hypGMCA+positivity takes advantage of the spatiotemporal sparsity of the data. This feature obviously provides our method with greater robustness to noise as shown on figure 6. As expected, accounting for the additional positivity prior results in greater efficiency of hypGMCA+positivity over hypGMCA and GMCA and provides significant separation enhancement at all noise levels. This is partly explained by the lower dimension of parameter space to be explored for source estimation i.e. \( nt/2^t \) instead of \( nt \).
reflectance. Example maps collected in four different channels are shown on Figure 7. Model (3) is clearly too simple to describe true atmospheric effects are most likely to contribute to the process. In any case, following a similar decision made in [?], ranging from 0.05 to 0.25 nm with a spectral resolution of 13 nm. The data are calibrated so that each pixel measures a reflectance. Example maps collected in four different channels are shown on figure 7. Model (3) is clearly too simple to describe this hyperspectral reflectance data set. Non-linear instrumental and atmospheric effects are most likely to contribute to the true generative process. In any case, following a similar decision made in [?],

we use hypGMCA to fit the linear mixing model 3 to the data. Obviously, this is making the physically plausible assumption that the contributing components we seek to separate have sparse spectral signatures as well as sparse spatial concentration maps in a priori specified orthogonal wavelet bases. We also assume that the sources are positive. In the hypGMCA algorithm, this constraint is enforced by projection of the estimated source maps $S$ on the cone generated by the vectors with positive entries. The number of iterations is $I_{max} = 250$. VCA, MVES and hypGMCA have been set up so that the number components to be estimated is $n = 10$. Among the $n = 10$ estimated components, for each of the three methods applied, we focus on the two components with corresponding spectra which are most correlated with the H$_2$O and CO$_2$ ice reference spectra. Figure 8 displays their spectral signatures compared to the reference spectra, and Figure 9 shows the corresponding spatial density (positive) maps. Given the non-linearity of the physical mixture process, the close fit between the estimated and reference CO$_2$ spectra is satisfactory. This figure also shows the spectra estimated with VCA and MVES. With these methods the CO$_2$ spectrum is also very well estimated. The H$_2$O ice spectrum estimated with hypGMCA is remarkably similar to the reference spectra for wavelengths higher than 1.4 $\mu$m. In that case, VCA and MVES seems to be better in the range 0.93 – 1.4 $\mu$m. Let us notice that the spectral behavior of the CO$_2$ and H$_2$O are similarly flat in this range. The range > 1.4 $\mu$m, where these components exhibit
several modes, is slightly more interesting. In this spectral band, VCA performs rather well with the exception that the first mode around 1.5\(\mu m\) is not accurately estimated. MVES provides good results in the band 1.4 – 2.3\(\mu m\) but the estimated H\(_2\)O spectrum diverges from the reference spectrum in the band > 2.3\(\mu m\).

As also noted in [2], the CO\(_2\) ice appears located in large regions around the pole of planet Mars, while H\(_2\)O ice seems to be concentrated in some tight interstices of the Mars surface. Let us notice that this component is clearly more challenging as it is less preponderant in the data than CO\(_2\). In that case, the three methods perform quite well in estimating the H\(_2\)O spectrum. In the end, despite the simple linear mixture model we used, hypGMCA is able to extract components with spectral signatures that closely match reference spectra with performances at least similar to the state-of-the-art methods.

![Figure 8. Top picture: Reference (solid line) and estimated spectra for H\(_2\)O ice. Bottom picture: Reference (solid line), \(\square\) and estimated spectra for CO\(_2\) ice. Legend: (\(\square\)): MVES, (\(\circ\)): VCA and (\(\bullet\)): hypGMCA.](image1)

![Figure 9. Estimated spatial concentration maps of H\(_2\)O ice (left) and CO\(_2\) ice (right).](image2)

**VI. CONCLUSION**

We described a new algorithm, hypGMCA, for blind source separation in the case where it is known \textit{a priori} that the spatial and spectral features in the data have sparse representations in known dictionaries of template waveforms. The proposed method relies on an iterative thresholding procedure with a progressively decreasing threshold. As expected, and confirmed in numerical experiments, taking into account the additional prior knowledge of spectral sparsity enhances source separation. It also provides greater robustness to noise contamination as well as stability when the dimensionality of the problem increases. We also noted that accounting for the prior knowledge that the sources are positive requires only a slight modification of the algorithm. Finally, the proposed method was applied to real hyperspectral data from Omega on Mars Express. The close match between the learned spectra and the reference spectra is remarkable.

**Acknowledgments**: The authors are grateful to Olivier Forni for providing the hyperspectral data from Omega on Mars Express.

**APPENDIX A**

**DERIVATION OF THE UPDATE RULES**

Let us first point out that \(\nu_k\) is updated assuming that \(\gamma_k\) is fixed:

\[
\min_{\nu_k} \frac{1}{2} \| \alpha - \gamma_k \nu_k \|^2 + \sigma^2 \lambda_k \| \gamma_k \nu_k \|_1
\]

We denote \(f_1(\nu_k) = \frac{1}{2} \| \alpha - \sum_{j \neq k} \gamma_j \nu_j - \gamma_k \nu_k \|^2\) and \(f_2(\nu_k) = \sigma^2 \lambda_k \| \gamma_k \nu_k \|_1\). Then, the sources \(S^\prime\) are updated by solving the following minimization problem:

\[
\min_{\nu_k} f_1(\nu_k) + f_2(\nu_k)
\]

\(f_1\) is a differentiable quadratic function; its gradient is Lipschitz with some constant \(L\). \(f_2\) is a convex but nonsmooth function (it is not differentiable). Inspired by the iterative thresholding methods described in [2], [7], [8], akin to Projected Landweber algorithms, \(\nu_k\) is updated assuming that \(\gamma_k\) is fixed:

\[
\nu_k^{\text{new}} = \text{prox}_{\rho f_2}(\nu_k - \rho \nabla f_1(\nu_k))
\]

where \(\nabla f_1\) is the derivative of \(f_1\), \(\rho\) is the gradient step length and \(\text{prox}_{\rho f_2}\) is the so-called proximity operator associated with \(f_2\) [9]. In our setting, we have:

\[
\nabla f_1(\nu_k) = -\gamma_k^T (\alpha - \sum_{j \neq k} \gamma_j \nu_j - \gamma_k \nu_k)
\]

\[
\text{prox}_{\rho f_2}(\nu_k) = \Delta_{\eta_k}(\nu_k)
\]

where \(\Delta_{\eta_k}\) is the soft-thresholding operator with threshold \(\eta_k = \rho \sigma^2 \lambda_k \| \gamma_k \|_1\). In the context of hyperspectral data and assuming that the sought after components are morphologically different, their spectra are not too far from being mutually orthogonal. This means that the terms involving \(\gamma_k^j \gamma_j^k\) with \(j \neq k\) can be neglected. The derivative of \(f_1\) can thus be approximated by:

\[
\nabla f_1(\nu_k) = -\gamma_k^T (\alpha - \gamma_k \nu_k).
\]

The last step consists in choosing the gradient step length \(\rho\). We
would like to recall that the gradient of $f_1$ is Lipschitz with constant $L$. From the expression of its gradient in Equation (13), we get $L = \|\gamma \|_2^2$. From [7], convergence is guaranteed whenever $\rho L \leq 1$. We thus choose the largest gradient step length that guarantees convergence: $\rho = \frac{1}{L + \|\gamma \|_2^2}$. With this choice, the gradient descent step $\nu_k - \rho \nabla f_1(\nu_k)$ can be rewritten as follows:

$$\nu_k = \frac{1}{\|\gamma \|_2^2} \nu_k^T \alpha$$

This leads to the following update for $\nu_k$:

$$\nu_k^{\text{new}} = \Delta \eta \left( \frac{1}{\|\gamma \|_2^2} \nu_k^T \alpha \right)$$

where $\eta_k = \frac{\sigma^2 \|\gamma \|_2^2}{\|\nu_k \|_2^2}$. We now define the vector $\eta$ of size $n$ with entries $\eta[k] = \eta_k$. Hence, the source matrix $\nu$ is updated as follows:

$$\nu^{\text{new}} = \Delta \eta \left( \frac{1}{\|\gamma \|_2^2} \nu^T \alpha \right)$$

where the multichannel soft-thresholding operator $\Delta \eta$ acts on each row $k$ of $\nu$ with threshold $\eta[k]$. Let us recall that we have made the assumption that the spectra are orthogonal, the diagonal matrix $\text{Diag}(1/\|\gamma \|_2^2)$ is then an approximation for $(\gamma^T \gamma)^{-1}$. In practice, the spectra are not exactly orthogonal. In that case, better computational results are obtained by updating the source matrix $\nu$ as follows:

$$\nu^{\text{new}} = \Delta \eta \left( \gamma^T \gamma \right)^{-1} \gamma^T \alpha$$

(15)

Symmetrically, the parameter $\gamma$ is updated as follows:

$$\gamma^{\text{new}} = \Delta \zeta \left( \alpha \nu^T \gamma^{\text{new}} \right)^{-1}$$

where $\zeta$ has length $m$ and entries $\zeta[k] = \frac{\sigma^2 \|\nu \|_2^2 / \|\gamma \|_2^2}$. The multichannel soft-thresholding operator $\Delta \zeta$ acts on each column $k$ of $\gamma$ with threshold $\zeta[k]$. Equations (9) and (10) are easily interpreted as thresholded alternate least squares solutions.

**APPENDIX B**

**Positivity constraint**

Similarly to Appendix A, we rewrite Equation (8) in a simpler way. Assuming $\gamma$ is fixed, we denote $f_1(\nu) = \frac{1}{2} \| \alpha - \gamma^T \nu \|_2^2$ and $f_2(\nu) = \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k \| \gamma^T \nu_k \|_1$. Then, $\nu$ is updated by solving the following minimization problem:

$$\min_{\nu} f_1(\nu) + f_2(\nu)$$

where $f_1$ is a differentiable quadratic function and $f_2$ is a convex but nonsmooth function (it is not differentiable). In the framework of proximal calculus (see [7] and references therein), this optimization problem can be solved using the following fixed-point algorithm:

$$\nu^{\text{new}} = \text{prox}_{\rho f_2}(\nu - \rho \nabla f_1(\nu))$$

where $\nabla f_1$ is the derivative of $f_1$, $\rho$ is the gradient step length and $\text{prox}_{f_2}$ is the so-called proximity operator associated with $f_2$ [7]. In our setting, we have seen in Appendix A that $f_2$ is the $\ell 1$ norm and its proximity operator is the soft-thresholding operator.

In order to enforce the positivity of the sources $S = \nu \Phi$, $\nu$ is updated by solving the following minimization problem:

$$\min_{\nu} f_1(\nu) + f_2(\nu) + i_C(\nu)$$

where $i_C$ is the indicator function of the convex set $C$ of all matrices $Y$ such that $Y \Phi$ has non-negative entries. We recall that the indicator function $i_C(Y)$ of convex set $C$ is defined by [2]:

$$i_C(Y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } Y \in C \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This function $i_C$ is convex and admits a proximity operator. Hence the above minimization problem can be solved by using the same fixed-point algorithm [7]:

$$\nu^{\text{new}} = \text{prox}_{\rho f_2 + i_C}(\nu - \rho \nabla f_1(\nu))$$

This projected gradient algorithm requires evaluating the proximity operator associated with $f_2 + i_C$ which has in general no closed-form expression. This could be performed exactly by using an extension of the well-known alternate projections algorithm to the proximity operators [7]. This kind of algorithm requires alternating the application of $\text{prox}_{f_2}$ and $\text{prox}_{i_C}$, which can be computationally expensive. Furthermore, in practice, it turns out that a single application of $\text{prox}_{f_2}$ and then $\text{prox}_{i_C}$ provides good enough numerical results. That is why, in hypGMCA, the components are estimated as follows:

$$\nu^{\text{new}} = \text{prox}_{\rho f_2 + i_C}(\nu - \rho \nabla f_1(\nu))$$

By definition $\text{prox}_{\rho f_2 + i_C}(\nu)$ is $\text{Argmin}_{z \in C} \| z - \nu \|_2^2$. As $\Phi$ is orthogonal, $\text{prox}_{i_C}(\nu)$ can be equivalently written also follows:

$$\text{prox}_{i_C}(\nu) = \left( \text{Argmin}_{z \in K} \| z - \nu \Phi \|_2 \right) \Phi^T$$

where $z$ belongs to $K$, the set of matrices with non-negative entries (also known as non-negative orthant). This expression can be equivalently rewritten as follows: $\text{prox}_{i_C}(\nu) = P_K (\nu_{1/2} \Phi) \Phi^T$ where $P_K$ is the orthogonal projection onto $K$. Recall that this projection is defined as follows:

$$\forall i,j; (P_K(Y))[i,j] = \begin{cases} Y[i,j] & \text{if } Y[i,j] \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

To conclude, when the positivity of the sources is enforced, $\nu$ is updated as follows:

1. Update $\nu$ with no positivity constraint as described in Appendix A to get an intermediate estimate $\nu_{1/2}$ of $\nu$.
2. Enforce the positivity of the sources:

$$\nu^{\text{new}} = P_K (\nu_{1/2} \Phi) \Phi^T$$

**References**


