DAEN: Deep Autoencoder Networks for Hyperspectral Unmixing

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Abstract—Spectral unmixing is a technique for remotely sensed image interpretation that expresses each (possibly mixed) pixel as a combination of pure spectral signatures (endmembers) and their fractional abundances. In this paper, we develop a new technique for unsupervised unmixing which is based on a deep autoencoder network (DAEN). Our newly developed DAEN consists of two parts. The first part of the network adopts stacked autoencoders (SAEs) to learn spectral signatures, so as to generate a good initialization for the unmixing process. In the second part of the network, a variational autoencoder (VAE) is employed to perform blind source separation, aimed at obtaining the endmember signatures and abundance fractions simultaneously. By taking advantage from the SAEs, the robustness of the proposed approach is remarkable as it can unmix data sets with outliers and low signal-to-noise ratio. Moreover, the multihidden layers of the VAE ensure the required constraints (nonnegativity and sum-to-one) when estimating the abundances. The effectiveness of the proposed method is evaluated using both synthetic and real hyperspectral data. When compared with other unmixing methods, the proposed approach demonstrates very competitive performance.

Index Terms—Deep autoencoder network (DAEN), deep learning, endmember identification, hyperspectral unmixing, variational autoencoder (VAE).

I. INTRODUCTION

Hyperspectral images have been extensively used in a wide variety of applications, including classification, target detection, environmental monitoring, precision agriculture, and so on [1]–[3]. However, due to the relatively low spatial resolution of hyperspectral images, many pixels are mixed by several materials, which brings difficulties to the characterization of hyperspectral data, leading to inaccuracies in the understanding and quantification of the considered scenes [4], [5].

In order to deal with mixed pixels, many algorithms have been proposed for hyperspectral unmixing [1]. Hyperspectral unmixing refers to any process that separates the pixel spectra from a hyperspectral image into a collection of pure constituent spectra, called endmembers, and a set of abundance fractions. At each pixel, the endmembers are generally assumed to represent the pure materials, and the abundances represent the percentage of each endmember [6].

Unmixing algorithms rely on specific mixing models, which can be characterized as either linear or nonlinear [7]. Linear spectral mixing (LSM) holds when the mixing scale is macroscopic and the photon reaching the sensor has interacted with just one material [8]. In contrast, non-LSM (NLSM) considers physical interactions between the light scattered by multiple materials in the scene. These interactions may happen at a multilayered level or at a microscopic (or intimate) level [9], [10]. In recent years, a new trend is to incorporate linear and nonlinear models for unmixing. For instance, in [11] and [12], nonlinearity is regarded as a penalty term of a linear objective function. In [13], the hyperspectral data are projected on hyperplanes representing the nonlinearities. Although NLSM is more faithful to the imaging mechanism of instrument, there are many challenges remaining. For instance, retrieving a reliable estimate of the actual areal proportions of the endmembers in the NLSM requires the use of complex metrics, which needs to consider the prior knowledge of the scene [1]. Furthermore, the high computational cost is beyond the reach of many techniques [1]. Therefore, most unmixing algorithms belong to the LSM category. Despite its simplicity, it provides very good approximations of the light scattering mechanisms in many real scenarios [14].

Regardless of the availability of training samples, most unmixing methods can be classified into two categories, i.e., handcrafted and learning based. In this paper, we use handcrafted to denote traditional algorithms, which derive
estimations from the image itself without learning. Handcrafted approaches are subdivided into pure pixel based and nonpure pixel based. Pure pixel-based methods, such as N-FINDR [15] and vertex component analysis (VCA) [16], assume that pure pixels made up of a single endmember are present in the observed scene. These methods often project and impose an orthogonality condition onto endmembers in their estimation [14]. However, in real scenarios, the pure pixel-based assumption may not hold for all endmembers. This is particularly the case when the data have relatively low spatial resolution [17]. In this context, the pure pixel assumption may collapse with the lack of purity of one or more materials in data. In order to overcome this problem, nonpure pixel-based methods such as minimum volume-constrained nonnegative matrix factorization (MVCNMF) [18], piecewise convex multiple-model endmember detection (PCOMMEND) [19], minimum volume simplex analysis [20], robust collaborative nonnegative matrix factorization [21], and others [22]–[25] focus on exploiting the data structure via some geometrical and statistical assumptions. Handcrafted methods, as the main trend in the past two decades, have shown to be very effective in the unmixing of hyperspectral data, for scenarios of outliers [26], [27], noisy conditions [28], highly mixed cases [29], [30], and so on.

With advances in computer technology, learning-based approaches for unmixing have achieved a fast development in the last few years. Joint Bayesian unmixing is a typical example of learning-based approaches, which leads to good abundance estimates due to the incorporation of full additivity (i.e., sum-to-one) and nonnegativity constraints [31], [32]. However, the randomness of sample probabilities may lead to random local estimations for the extracted endmembers, which may not properly represent the global characteristics of the scene [33]. On the other hand, approaches based on artificial neural networks have also been developed for the learning of abundance fractions, assuming the prior knowledge of the endmember signatures [34]–[36]. These approaches exhibit better performance when compared with handcrafted methods, but they assume that endmembers are known in advance and, therefore, need to incorporate endmember extraction algorithms to perform unmixing. More recently, as a common tool for deep learning, autoencoders have achieved a fast development in unmixing applications. Nonnegative sparse autoencoder and denoising autoencoder were employed to obtain the endmember signatures and abundance fractions simultaneously for unmixing, with advanced denoising and intrinsic self-adaptation capabilities [37]–[39]. Sparse autoencoder [40] and multiple hidden layer autoencoder [41], [42] are further employed for hyperspectral unmixing, demonstrating a good potential of autoencoders in the tasks of unmixing. However, their strength is in the aspect of noise reduction and they exhibit limitations when dealing with outliers. Due to the fact that outliers likely lead to initialization problems, their presence can bring strong interference to the unmixing solutions. In [43], we proposed a stacked nonnegative sparse autoencoder (SNSA) to address the issue of outliers. For LSM-based hyperspectral unmixing, the physical meaning of the model implies the sum-to-one on abundance fractions when every material in a pixel can be identified [14], [39], [44]. However, similar to the NMF-based approaches, SNSA adopts an additivity penalty on the abundance coefficients. The additivity penalty denotes that a penalty coefficient is used for controlling approximation of the sum-to-one. As this is not a hard constraint, the sum-to-one constraint is not necessarily ensured [43].

In this paper, we develop a new deep autoencoder network (DAEN) for hyperspectral unmixing, which specifically addresses the presence of outliers in hyperspectral data. The proposed DAEN has two main steps. In the first step, we learn the spectral signatures via the stacked autoencoders (SAEs), aiming at generating good initializations for the network. In the second step, we employ a variational autoencoder (VAE) to perform unmixing for the estimation of the endmembers and abundances. VAE combines variational inference to perform unsupervised learning and inherit autoencoder architecture which can be trained with gradient descent [45], [46]. Different from conventional autoencoders, VAEs include a reparameterization which strictly ensures the abundance sum-to-one constraint during unmixing. Compared with other NMF-based algorithms, our newly proposed DAEN has three main advantages: 1) with the use of SAEs, we can effectively tackle the problem of outliers and generate a good initialization of the unmixing network; 2) with the adoption of a VAE, we can ensure the nonnegativity and sum-to-one constraints, resulting in the good performance on abundance estimation; and 3) the endmember signatures and abundance fractions are obtained simultaneously. Finally, it should be noted that the basic concept of DAEN was introduced in [47]. In comparison, this paper presents an optimized scheme for DAEN in detail. Specifically, the SAEs are used for initialization in this paper, while in [47], it was for outlier detection. Comprehensive validation by using different simulated and real hyperspectral data is presented in this paper.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the proposed DAEN approach. In Section III, synthetic data sets are used for evaluation. This allows us to conduct a quantitative comparison with other methods. In Section IV, experiments with two real hyperspectral data sets are conducted for further validation. Finally, Section V concludes this paper with some remarks and hints at plausible future research lines.

II. NMF-BASED UNMIXING

Let \( Y = [y_1, \ldots, y_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n} \) be matrix representation of a hyperspectral data set with \( n \) spectral vectors and \( d \) spectral bands. Under the LSM, we have [14], [48]

\[
Y = WH + N
\]

s.t. \( H \geq 0, \quad 1_n^T H = 1_n^T \) \hspace{1cm} (1)

where \( W = [w_1, \ldots, w_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m} \) is the mixing matrix containing \( m \) endmembers, \( w_i \) denotes the \( i \)th endmember, \( H = [h_1, \ldots, h_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \) is the abundance matrix, \( H \geq 0 \) and \( 1_m^T H = 1_m^T \) are the so-called abundance nonnegativity and sun-to-one constraints, which stem from a physical interpretation of the abundance vectors, and \( 1_m = [1, 1, \ldots, 1]^T \) is a column vector.
vector of size \( m \) (the notation \([ \cdot ]^T\) stands for vector or matrix transpose). Finally, \( \mathbf{N} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n} \) is the error matrix that may affect the measurement process (e.g., noise).

For a given observation \( \mathbf{Y} \), unmixing aims at obtaining the mixing matrix \( \mathbf{W} \) and the abundance matrix \( \mathbf{H} \). In this paper, we tackle the simultaneous estimation of \( \mathbf{W} \) and \( \mathbf{H} \) by seeking a solution with the following NMF-based optimization:

\[
(W, H) = \text{arg min}_{W,H} \frac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{Y} - WH \|^2_F + \mu f_1(W) + \lambda f_2(H) 
\]  

(2)

where \( \| \cdot \|^2_F \) denotes the Frobenius norm, \( f_1(W) \) and \( f_2(H) \) are two regularizers on the mixing matrix \( W \) and the abundance fractions \( H \), respectively, with \( \mu \) and \( \lambda \) being the regularization parameters.

III. DEEP AUTOENCODER NETWORK

In this section, we describe the proposed DAEN for unmixing (illustrated in Fig. 1), where \( U \) and \( V \) are the latent variables (LV) of the reparameterization of the VAE, respectively. As shown in Fig. 1, the endmember matrix \( W \) corresponds to the last weight matrix of the decoder in VAE, and the abundance \( H \) is estimated from the hidden layers of VAE, while \( W \) and \( H \) denote the initializations for VAE generated by SAEs, respectively. This section is organized as follows. In Section III-A, we first revisit the SAEs for initialization. Then, in Section III-B, we introduce the proposed NMF-VAE-based unmixing scheme.

A. SAEs for Initialization

Based on the geometry assumption that endmembers are generally located around the vertices of the data simplex, we use a pure pixel-based method to extract a set of candidate pixels as the training set for the SAEs. Specifically, we adopt VCA to obtain a set of \( k \) candidates, with \( k > m \). As VCA considers random directions in the subspace projection \([14],[16]\), we run it for \( p \) times, resulting in \( q \) candidates, with \( q = p \cdot k \). These \( q \) candidates are then grouped into \( m \) training sets \( \{ C_i \}_{i=1}^m \) based on the spectral angle distance (SAD) and clustering, with \( C_i = \{ c_1, \ldots, c_{i_n} \} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times i_n} \) and \( i_n \) is the number of samples in \( C_i \). Let \( c_{i_{a_i}} \) and \( c_{i_{b_i}} \) be the cluster centers of \( C_i \) and \( C_j \), respectively. For any candidate \( c_{i_{a_i}} \) in \( C_i \), for \( i_a = 1, \ldots, i_n \), we have \( \text{SAD}(c_{i_{a_i}}, c_{i_{a_j}}) \leq \text{SAD}(c_{i_{a_i}}, c_{i_{b_j}}) \), for any \( j = 1, \ldots, m \) and \( j \neq i \), where

\[
\text{SAD}(c_{i_{a_i}}, c_{i_{a_j}}) = \arccos \left( \frac{c_{i_{a_i}} \cdot c_{i_{a_j}}}{\| c_{i_{a_i}} \| \cdot \| c_{i_{a_j}} \|} \right). 
\]  

(3)

In this paper, for \( p \) and \( k \), we empirically set \( p = 30 \) and \( k = 3m \), respectively. By enforcing nonnegativity, the training of SAEs minimizes the reconstruction error (RE) as follows:

\[
\min \sum_{s=1}^{i_n} \| c_{s} - \tilde{w}_s \|^2_2 
\]  

(4)

where \( \tilde{w}_s \) is the reconstructed signature of the \( i \)th endmember, and \( \tilde{W} = [\tilde{w}_1, \ldots, \tilde{w}_m] \) are the reconstructed endmember matrix. Following [49], the reconstructed signature is denoted as

\[
\tilde{w}_s = M_s f(M_s^T C_i) 
\]  

(5)

where \( M_s \) is the matrix of weights between the input and hidden neurons or those from hidden to output neurons, and \( f(\cdot) \) is the activation function [49] given by

\[
f(g_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a_i \cdot g_i - b_i)} 
\]  

(6)

where \( g_i = M_s^T C_i \), \( a_i \) and \( b_i \) are the parameters aimed at controlling the information transmission between neurons, and \( \cdot \) is the dot product, i.e., elementwise operator. Note that the number of input neurons and output neurons is the same as the hidden neurons, while the number of hidden neurons here is set as the number of bands. Then, we can use a gradient rule to update \( a_i \) and \( b_i \) as follows:

\[
\begin{cases}
\Delta a_i = \gamma \left( 1 - \left( 2 + \frac{1}{\tau} \right) f_i + \frac{1}{\tau} f_i^2 \right) \\
\Delta b_i = \gamma \frac{1}{b_i} + g_i \Delta a_i
\end{cases}
\]  

(7)

where \( \gamma \) and \( \tau \) are hyperparameters in the learning process controlling the mean activity level of the desired output distribution. Following the empirical settings in [49], we set \( \gamma = 0.0001 \) and \( \tau = 0.2 \). With the aforementioned definition in hand, the learning reduces to the following update rule:

\[
\Delta M_s = \eta \Delta \tilde{w}_s f^T + |M_s| 
\]  

(8)
where $\Delta \tilde{w}_i$ is the gradient of candidate $i$ for update, $|M_i|$ enforces the weight matrix to be nonnegative, and $\eta$ is an adaptive learning rate. In this paper, following [49], we set $\eta = \hat{\eta}((\|f_i\|^2 + \epsilon)^{-1}$ with $\hat{\eta} = 0.002$, where $\epsilon = 0.001$ is a small parameter to ensure the positivity of $\eta$.

Finally, let $\tilde{w}_r^{t+1}$ be the reconstructions from the $r$th and $(t+1)$th autoencoders, respectively. The SAEs ends when $\|\tilde{w}_r^{t+1} - \tilde{w}_r^{t}\|^2_2$ converges.

After the endmember matrix $\tilde{W}$ is reconstructed, based on the linear mixing model (1), the abundances $\tilde{H}$ can be obtained via the fully constrained least square (FCLS) [48]. In the learning of the VAE, $\tilde{W}$ and $\tilde{H}$ are used as initializations of $W$ and $H$, respectively.

### B. VAE for Unmixing

First, let us recall the NMF-based objective function in (2), which contains two regularizers on the mixing matrix and abundance matrix, respectively. For the first regularizer $f_1(W)$ on the mixing matrix, following [20], we have

$$f_1(W) = \text{MinVol}(W)$$

where $\text{MinVol}(\cdot)$ is a function aiming at enclosing all the pixels into the simplex constructed by the endmembers. Specifically, following [20], we set $\text{MinVol}(W) = \|\text{det}(W)\|$, with $\|\text{det}(W)\|$ being the volume defined by the origin and the columns of $W$.

With respect to regularizer $f_2(H)$ on the abundance matrix, in order to ensure the nonnegativity and sum-to-one constraints, we employ the VAE to penalize the solution of $H$, denoted as

$$f_2(H) = \text{VAE}(H)$$

where the neurons of all hidden layers are set as the number of endmembers, while the number of inputs and outputs corresponds to the number of pixels.

With these definitions in mind, we obtain the following objective function:

$$(W, H) = \arg \min_{W, H} \frac{1}{2}\|Y - WH\|^2_F + \mu \text{MinVol}(W) + \lambda \text{VAE}(H).$$

In the following, we present the VAE-based regularizer in detail. Let $U$ and $V$ be the LV, we define $f_2(H)$ as

$$f_2(H(U, V)) = \left\| \frac{1}{2n}(I_{m \times n} + \ln V^2 - U^2 - V^2)I_n \right\|^2_2$$

where $I_{m \times n} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with all elements being 1, and vector $I_n = [1, \ldots, 1]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $U = [u_1, \ldots, u_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $V = [v_1, \ldots, v_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. The derivation of (12) is shown in Appendix A. Following [45], let $u_j = [u_{1,j}, \ldots, u_{m,j}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $v_j = [v_{1,j}, \ldots, v_{m,j}]^T \in \mathbb{R}^m$ be the reparameters of LV, we define $h_{i,j} = \text{Cons}(u_{i,j}, v_{i,j})$, where Cons($\cdot$) represents a decay function as follows:

$$\text{Cons}(u_{i,j}, v_{i,j}) = \begin{cases} u_{i,j} + \sigma v_{i,j}, & 0 < (u_{i,j} + \sigma v_{i,j}) < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $\sigma$ is a parameter that, as indicated in [31], can be obtained via Monte Carlo (MC) sampling. In order to meet the abundance sum-to-one constraint, we have

$$h_{m,j} = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} h_{i,j}. \quad (14)$$

The objective function in (11) is a combinational problem, which is nonconvex, therefore, it is difficult to solve. In this paper, we propose an iterative scheme to optimize $W$ and $H$, respectively, both of which are solved by a gradient descent method. The first-order derivatives of the objective function are computed as follows:

$$\begin{align*}
\nabla_U(W, H) &= \frac{\lambda}{n} z(I_n)^T \ast U \\
\nabla_V(W, H) &= \frac{\lambda}{n} z(I_n)^T \ast (\ln V \ast V - V)
\end{align*}$$

where $\ast$ is the dot division, $z = (1/2n)(I_{m \times n} + \ln V^2 - U^2 - V^2)I_n$. $\nabla(U)$ and $\nabla(V)$ are the gradients of reconstructed errors, which are

$$\begin{align*}
\nabla(U) &= W^T(WH - Y)) \ast C_{\text{cons}} \\
\nabla(V) &= \sigma W^T(WH - Y) \ast C_{\text{cons}}
\end{align*}$$

where $C_{\text{cons}}$ is an indicative function, $C_{\text{cons}} = I_{m \times n}[0 < (U + \sigma V) < 1]$. For more details, the derivation of (15) is given in Appendix B.

With respect to the updates of $H$ and $W$, we employ the gradient descent method for the solutions as follows:

$$H \leftarrow H + \Delta H$$

and

$$W \leftarrow W + \Delta W$$

where $\Delta H$ and $\Delta W$ are the gradients for $H$ and $W$, respectively. Specifically:

1) for $H$, we have

$$\Delta H = -\phi(\nabla_U(W, H) + \sigma \nabla_V(W, H))$$

where $\phi$ is the learning rates that can be estimated by the Armijo rule [50];

2) for $W$, we obtain $\Delta W$ via Adadelta [51] as follows:

$$\Delta W = -\frac{\text{RMS}[\Delta W]}{\text{RMS}[\nabla W(W, H)]} \nabla W(W, H)$$

where $\text{RMS}[\cdot]$ is the root mean square [51]. The first-order derivatives of the objective function (11) are calculated as

$$\nabla W(W, H) = (WH - Y)H^T + \mu d(\text{MinVol}(W))$$

where $d(\text{MinVol}(W))$ is the gradient for the volume function, which can be computed as the one in [18].

Finally, a pseudocode of the proposed DAEN is given in Algorithm 1. As shown in Algorithm 1, DAEN consists of two main parts, a set of SAEs for initialization and one VAE for unmixing. Specifically, in Line 1, $M_i$ is randomly initialized. In Line 2, the hyperparameters are set following [49], while in Line 3, the candidate samples used for training are
Algorithm 1 DAEN for Hyperspectral Unmixing

Input: data set $Y$.
Output: endmembers $W$, abundances $H$.

Step 1: /* SAE for initialization */
1. Initialization: $M_0$.
2. Set hyper-parameters following [49].
3. Obtain $p \times k$ candidates via VCA [16].

repeat
4. Update $[\hat{w}_i]_{i=1}^{m}$ in (5).
5. Update $[M_i]_{i=1}^{p}$ in (8).
until convergence
6. Compute $\hat{H}$ via FCLS [48].

Step 2: /* VAE for unmixing */

repeat
8. Update $\Delta H$ in (17).
until convergence

IV. Experiments With Synthetic Data

In this section, we use simulated hyperspectral data to evaluate the effectiveness of our newly proposed DAEN. The simulated data, with a maximum abundance purity of 0.8, are generated according to the LSM, where the pure spectral signatures (with 224 spectral bands covering the spectral range from 0.4 $\mu$m to 2.5 $\mu$m) are randomly selected from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) spectral library.\(^1\)

In our experiments, several different scenarios, with different numbers of pixels, different numbers of endmembers and outliers, have been considered. Note that all our experiments have been performed in a desktop personal computer with Intel Core i7 CPU and 16 GB of RAM.

Three indicators, i.e., SAD, RE, and root mean square error (RMSE) are used to measure the accuracy of the unmixing results, which are defined as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
\text{SAD}(w_i, \hat{w}_i) &= \arccos \left( \frac{[w_i, \hat{w}_i]}{||w_i|| \cdot ||\hat{w}_i||} \right) \\
\text{RE}(y_j)_{j=1}^{n}, (\hat{y}_j)_{j=1}^{n}) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sqrt{||y_j - \hat{y}_j||_2^2} \\
\text{RMSE}(h_j, \hat{h}_j) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sqrt{||h_j - \hat{h}_j||_2^2}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\hat{w}_i$ and $w_i$ denote the extracted endmember and the library spectrum, $\hat{y}_j$ and $y_j$ are the reconstruction and original signature of pixel $j$, and $\hat{h}_j$ and $h_j$ are the corresponding estimated and actual abundance fractions, respectively.

Experiment 1 (Parameter Settings): In order to verify the performance of network parameters in (12), we test DAEN under different parameter settings. In this test, the data encompasses 3 endmembers, 676 pixels, and SNR = 30 dB. In addition, 3 outliers are included in the data. The obtained results are listed in Table I, which shows that better results can be obtained when the parameters are set to $\mu = 0.1$ and $\lambda = 0.1$. In addition, it can be observed that the proposed algorithm is insensitive to the settings with $\mu < 0.3$ and $\lambda < 0.3$. Nevertheless, in the following experiments, we empirically set $\mu = 0.1$ and $\lambda = 0.1$, respectively.

Experiment 2 (Comparison With Other Methods): Comparisons with several widely used unmixing algorithms, including NFIHDR [15], VCA [16], PCOMMEND [19], MVCNMF [18], Bayesian [31], and SNSA [43], are included for further evaluation. It should be noted that for the competitors, MVCNMF, Bayesian, and PCOMMEND provide estimations of endmembers and abundances, simultaneously, while for NFIHDR and VCA, the abundances are obtained using the FCLS method.

Table II presents the obtained SADs, RMSEs, and RESs.

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\(^1\)https://speclab.cr.usgs.gov/spectrallib.html
TABLE II
AVERAGE SADs (IN RADIANS), RES, AND RMSEs, ALONG WITH THEIR STANDARD DEVIATIONS, OBTAINED FROM 10 MC RUNS BY DIFFERENT METHODS FOR THE CONSIDERED SIMULATED DATA UNDER DIFFERENT SCENARIOS. BEST RESULTS ARE IN BOLD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>SNR=40dB</th>
<th>SNR=20dB</th>
<th>SNR=10dB</th>
<th>SNR=5dB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SAD</td>
<td>RMSE</td>
<td>RE</td>
<td>SAD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N-FINDR</td>
<td>0.0428±0.04%</td>
<td>0.5074±0.91%</td>
<td>0.0182±0.01%</td>
<td>0.0816±0.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VCA</td>
<td>0.0430±0.09%</td>
<td>0.4297±0.10%</td>
<td>0.0157±0.03%</td>
<td>0.0550±0.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVC-NMF</td>
<td>0.0059±0.03%</td>
<td>0.3920±0.03%</td>
<td>0.0120±0.01%</td>
<td>0.0102±0.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bayesian</td>
<td>0.0157±0.05%</td>
<td>0.3819±0.09%</td>
<td>0.0133±0.03%</td>
<td>0.0166±1.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCOMMEND</td>
<td>0.0113±1.66%</td>
<td>0.4175±0.67%</td>
<td>0.0104±0.27%</td>
<td>0.0327±2.73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNSA</td>
<td>0.0055±0.04%</td>
<td>0.3903±0.07%</td>
<td>0.0115±0.01%</td>
<td>0.0100±0.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAEN</td>
<td>0.0035±0.03%</td>
<td>0.3891±0.02%</td>
<td>0.0116±0.01%</td>
<td>0.0092±0.64%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DAEN is able to retrieve more stable abundance estimates relying on its accurate endmember identification step. The advantages are remarkable, especially for problems with low SNR, outliers, and a relatively large number of endmembers and pixels.

For illustrative purposes, Fig. 2 displays the obtained endmember signatures for a problem with 3364 pixels, 4 endmembers, 10 outliers, and SNR = 20 dB, along with the references from the USGS library. It can be seen that the results obtained by the proposed DAEN are better than those produced by the other methods.

V. EXPERIMENTS WITH REAL DATA

In this section, the proposed DAEN approach is applied to two real hyperspectral images: Mangrove [52], Samson [53], and Cuprite [54] data sets for further evaluation. In these experiments, the parameters involved in the considered algorithms follow the settings in the simulated experiments, i.e., we use $\mu = 0.1$ and $\lambda = 0.1$, respectively.

A. Experiment With Mangrove Data Set

The Mangrove data is an EO-1 Hyperion (hyperspectral) image which has been obtained from the USGS Earth Resources Observation and Science Center through a data acquisition request to the satellite data provider [52], [53], and collected over the Henry Island of the Sunderban Biosphere Reserve of West Bengal, India. Atmospheric correction has converted the radiance of the data to reflectance units by using FLAASH model in ENVI software, and the endmembers (pure signatures of mangrove species) of the data have been

...
TABLE III
SADs (in radians) and REs along with their standard deviations obtained by different methods for the Mangrove data from 10 MC runs, where the best results are in bold

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mineral</th>
<th>N-FINDR</th>
<th>VCA</th>
<th>MVC-NMF</th>
<th>Bayesian</th>
<th>PCOMMEND</th>
<th>SNSA</th>
<th>DAEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Avicennia</td>
<td>0.1495±0%</td>
<td>0.9602±4.65%</td>
<td>0.1973±2.18%</td>
<td>0.1001±3.05%</td>
<td>0.0992±2.81%</td>
<td>0.0995±4.26%</td>
<td>0.0968±2.58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bruguiera</td>
<td>0.8235±1%</td>
<td>0.8824±7.79%</td>
<td>0.9825±7.53%</td>
<td>1.5957±4.16%</td>
<td>0.9564±3.95%</td>
<td>0.1103±3.84%</td>
<td>0.1025±4.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excoecaria</td>
<td>0.7361±0%</td>
<td>0.7377±1.50%</td>
<td>0.9094±4.08%</td>
<td>0.0963±2.96%</td>
<td>0.0876±5.73%</td>
<td>0.0880±3.27%</td>
<td>0.0863±1.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phoenix</td>
<td>0.1306±1%</td>
<td>1.3063±0.12%</td>
<td>0.9782±3.93%</td>
<td>0.9624±3.93%</td>
<td>1.7065±8.23%</td>
<td>0.0711±4.41%</td>
<td>0.0706±3.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean SAD</td>
<td>0.4599</td>
<td>0.9717</td>
<td>0.5621</td>
<td>0.6886</td>
<td>0.7124</td>
<td>0.0922</td>
<td>0.0890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>0.0822±0%</td>
<td>0.0980±0.40%</td>
<td>0.0392±2.36%</td>
<td>0.0129±4.57%</td>
<td>0.0162±5.19%</td>
<td>0.0057±0.25%</td>
<td>0.0050±0.13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2. Estimated endmember signatures by the proposed method for a problem with 4 endmembers, 3364 pixels, 10 outliers, and SNR = 20 dB, along with the references from the USGS library.

Fig. 3. 45×45 pixel subscene of the Mangrove data used in our experiment. Identified by a ground survey of the study area, including *Avicennia*, *Bruguiera*, *Excoecaria*, and *Phoenix*. The Mangrove data, as shown in Fig. 3, include 137×187 pixels and 155 bands, with a spatial resolution of 30 m. For detailed information of the Mangrove data, we refer to [52].

In our experiment, a subscene with 45×45 pixels of the Mangrove data has been used to further evaluate the proposed DAEN. Following [52], the considered subscene contains 4 endmembers, i.e., $m = 4$.

Table III presents the obtained quantitative results from the Mangrove data. It can be seen that the proposed DAEN achieved very promising results for the four considered mangrove species. However, the other competitors ended up with errors when detecting or estimating the endmembers. This is due to the fact that according to our observation, the Mangrove scene contains many outliers across the whole image, which brings a lot of difficulties for general unmixing methods. This point was verified by our experiment, in which we detected a total of 17 outliers. For illustrative purposes, Fig. 4 scatterplots the unmixing results obtained by the considered methods, in which the detected outliers are also illustrated. In Fig. 4, we can observe that the proposed DAEN produced good unmixing results for this data set, while all the other methods resulted in problems.

Finally, for illustrative purposes, the estimated endmember signatures, along with their ground references, and the corresponding abundance maps obtained by the proposed DAEN are shown in Fig. 5. Effective results can be observed from Fig. 5.

In summary, our experiments with this challenging Mangrove data set demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed DAEN for real scenarios with outliers, which is a general situation in real problems.

B. Experiment With the Samson Data Set

In this experiment, we use the Samson data set that includes 156 bands covering the wavelengths from 0.401 to 0.889 μm and 95×95 pixels, as shown in Fig. 6, for validation [53]. There are three endmembers, including soil, tree, and water, in the ground truth image.

Table IV demonstrates the obtained quantitative results for the considered methods. It can be observed that the
TABLE IV
SADs (IN RADIANS) AND REs ALONG WITH THEIR STANDARD DEVIATIONS OBTAINED BY DIFFERENT METHODS
FOR THE SAMSON DATA FROM 10 MC RUNS, WHERE THE BEST RESULTS ARE IN BOLD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mineral</th>
<th>N-FINDR</th>
<th>VCA</th>
<th>MVC-NMF</th>
<th>Bayesian</th>
<th>PCOMMEND</th>
<th>SNSA</th>
<th>DAEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soil</td>
<td>0.0713±0%</td>
<td>0.0627±1.85%</td>
<td><strong>0.0402±3.87%</strong></td>
<td>0.1062±7.25%</td>
<td>0.2849±4.35%</td>
<td>0.0410±5.02%</td>
<td>0.0405±2.76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tree</td>
<td>0.0495±0%</td>
<td>0.0501±7.82%</td>
<td>0.0261±3.62%</td>
<td>0.0610±8.34%</td>
<td>0.0505±6.14%</td>
<td>0.0205±2.89%</td>
<td><strong>0.0196±3.52%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>0.0408±0%</td>
<td>0.0273±3.74%</td>
<td>0.0304±5.29%</td>
<td>0.0364±2.48%</td>
<td>0.0716±4.34%</td>
<td>0.0291±2.59%</td>
<td><strong>0.0279±3.83%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean SAD | 0.0539 | 0.0467 | 0.0322 | 0.0679 | 0.1357 | 0.0302 | **0.0293** |
RMSE     | 0.9572±0% | 0.8926±1.35% | 0.6430±0.98% | 0.7501±1.63% | 0.9439±2.35% | 0.6143±3.37% | **0.6097±3.62%** |
RE       | 0.0129±0% | 0.0116±0.19% | 0.0075±0.86% | 0.0103±0.42% | **0.0057±1.15%** | 0.0066±0.25% | 0.0062±0.85% |

Fig. 5. Estimated endmember signatures (in red), along with the ground reference (in blue) and their corresponding abundance maps by the proposed DAEN. (a) Avicennia. (b) Bruguiera. (c) Excoecaria. (d) Phoenix.

Fig. 6. (a) Samson image and its (b) corresponding ground truth.

Fig. 7. Results obtained by the proposed DAEN on the Samson data set. (Top) Ground truth abundance maps on Samson data. (Middle) Estimated abundance maps from the proposed DAEN. (Bottom) Estimated endmember signatures (in red) along with their corresponding reference signatures (in blue).

The proposed DAEN obtained the best mean SAD and RMSE. For illustrative purposes, the endmembers signatures and the estimated abundances are shown in Fig. 7. Fig. 7 reveals that the endmembers and abundances, estimated from DAEN, have good matches with regard to the corresponding ones in the ground truth.

C. Experiment With the Cuprite Data Set

The third real hyperspectral data, namely Cuprite, was collected by the Airborne Visible Infra-Red Imaging Spectrometer over the Cuprite mining site, Nevada, in 1997 [54]. This scene has 224 spectral bands over a wavelength from 0.4 μm to 2.5 μm, with a nominal spectral resolution of 10 nm. Prior to the analysis, bands 1–2, 105–115, 150–170, and 223–224 were removed due to low SNR and water

Fig. 8. Cuprite data set (Tricorder 3.3 product), showing the location of different minerals in the scene.
Fig. 9. Estimated endmembers (in red), along with the references from the USGS library (in blue), and their corresponding abundance maps obtained by the proposed DAEN. (a) Alunite, (b) Buddingtonite, (c) Chalcedony, (d) Jarosite, (e) Kaolin/Smeect, (f) Kaolinite wx1, (g) Kaolinite px1, (h) Montmorillonite, (i) Muscovite, (j) Nontronite, (k) Pyrope, and (l) Sphene.

TABLE V
SADs (IN RADIANS) AND REs ALONG WITH THEIR STANDARD DEVIATIONS OBTAINED AFTER 10 MC RUNS BY DIFFERENT METHODS FOR THE CUPRITE DATA, WHERE THE BEST RESULTS ARE IN BOLD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mineral</th>
<th>N-FINDR</th>
<th>VCA</th>
<th>MVC-NMF</th>
<th>Bayesian</th>
<th>PCOMMIND</th>
<th>NSA</th>
<th>DAEN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alunite</td>
<td>0.0992±0%</td>
<td>0.1019±2.65%</td>
<td>0.1304±3.94%</td>
<td>0.1197±6.12%</td>
<td>0.1450±4.37%</td>
<td>0.1201±3.12%</td>
<td>0.1097±4.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddingtonite</td>
<td>0.1639±0%</td>
<td>0.1208±1.54%</td>
<td>0.0992±4.01%</td>
<td>0.1140±5.38%</td>
<td>0.1208±3.41%</td>
<td>0.1062±2.95%</td>
<td>0.0939±5.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chalcedony</td>
<td>0.1687±0%</td>
<td>0.1704±3.47%</td>
<td>0.1108±1.32%</td>
<td>0.1297±4.16%</td>
<td>0.1315±2.92%</td>
<td>0.1097±4.10%</td>
<td>0.1104±4.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jarosite</td>
<td>0.1893±0%</td>
<td>0.1490±3.47%</td>
<td>0.1085±2.65%</td>
<td>0.1264±3.32%</td>
<td>0.1164±3.29%</td>
<td>0.1131±3.62%</td>
<td>0.1095±2.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaolin/Smeect</td>
<td>0.0804±0%</td>
<td>0.0764±4.01%</td>
<td>0.0826±2.28%</td>
<td>0.1003±5.16%</td>
<td>0.0936±3.63%</td>
<td>0.0819±4.43%</td>
<td>0.0801±4.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaolinite wx1</td>
<td>0.0792±0%</td>
<td>0.0805±1.78%</td>
<td>0.0813±2.84%</td>
<td>0.0909±3.49%</td>
<td>0.0794±4.28%</td>
<td>0.0794±3.92%</td>
<td>0.0786±2.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaolinite px1</td>
<td>0.0108±0%</td>
<td>0.0992±3.12%</td>
<td>0.0937±3.56%</td>
<td>0.0982±3.52%</td>
<td>0.1123±5.04%</td>
<td>0.1079±3.54%</td>
<td>0.1086±4.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montmorillonite</td>
<td>0.0651±0%</td>
<td>0.0587±1.93%</td>
<td>0.0635±4.56%</td>
<td>0.0591±3.67%</td>
<td>0.0798±4.72%</td>
<td>0.0616±3.83%</td>
<td>0.0583±2.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscovite</td>
<td>0.1437±0%</td>
<td>0.1302±2.14%</td>
<td>0.1291±1.97%</td>
<td>0.1284±3.25%</td>
<td>0.1351±3.17%</td>
<td>0.1252±2.75%</td>
<td>0.1303±3.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nontronite</td>
<td>0.0803±0%</td>
<td>0.0816±4.41%</td>
<td>0.0804±3.85%</td>
<td>0.0857±4.63%</td>
<td>0.0914±3.94%</td>
<td>0.0825±3.32%</td>
<td>0.0796±3.97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pyrope</td>
<td>0.0532±0%</td>
<td>0.0607±5.18%</td>
<td>0.0574±5.18%</td>
<td>0.0528±4.90%</td>
<td>0.0741±3.26%</td>
<td>0.0638±4.47%</td>
<td>0.0593±3.82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sphene</td>
<td>0.1496±0%</td>
<td>0.1541±3.95%</td>
<td>0.1380±4.21%</td>
<td>0.1589±5.64%</td>
<td>0.1442±5.18%</td>
<td>0.1396±3.91%</td>
<td>0.1407±4.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean SAD</td>
<td>0.1070</td>
<td>0.1095</td>
<td>0.0979</td>
<td>0.1056</td>
<td>0.1103</td>
<td>0.0993</td>
<td><strong>0.0966</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>0.0095±0%</td>
<td>0.0054±0.07</td>
<td>0.0038±0.04</td>
<td>0.0042±0.08</td>
<td><strong>0.0030±0.06</strong></td>
<td>0.0038±0.07</td>
<td>0.0032±0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

absorption in those bands, leaving a total of 188 spectral bands. The portion of the data used in the experiment has 191 × 250 pixels. The Cuprite site is well understood mineralogically and has several exposed minerals of interest, all included in the USGS library considered in the experiment. Fig. 8 shows a mineral map produced in 1995 by USGS, in which the Tricorder 3.3 software product was used to map different minerals present in the Cuprite mining district. It should be noted that following the work in [22] and [53], the number of endmembers considered in the experiment is set to 12.

For illustrative purposes, the estimated endmember signatures, along with the references from the USGS library and their corresponding abundance maps, are depicted in Fig. 9. From this figure, we can observe that the estimated endmember signatures generally match well with the references. These results indicate the effectiveness of the proposed DAEN for hyperspectral unmixing in real scenarios.

Finally, Table V presents the obtained SADs and REs from all the considered methods. From this table, we can further observe that the proposed DAEN obtained better or competitive results when compared with other methods, in terms of both SADs and REs, which reveals the quality of the endmembers and fractional abundances estimated by our method in this particular scenario.
VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have introduced a new hyperspectral unmixing approach based on a DAEN which includes two parts, i.e., a set of SAEs for initialization and a VAE for nonnegative matrix factorization, aimed at obtaining the endmember signatures and the abundance fractions, simultaneously. Our experimental results, conducted using both synthetic and real data sets, indicate that the proposed DAEN can particularly handle problems with significant outliers. This is an important contribution since the presence of outliers is a general situation in real problems and traditional unmixing algorithms are often misguided by outliers that can be also understood as endmembers due to their singularity. This peculiarity of our method has been investigated and substantiated via experiments with both simulated and real hyperspectral data sets. As the proposed DAEN is based on the linear model, future works will investigate the application of DAEN to nonlinear unmixing scenarios, in order to achieve enhanced characterizations via the combination of endmembers in hyperspectral data sets.

APPENDIX

A. Objective Function $f_2(H(U, V))$

Let vector $h_j$ represents the LV. Following [45], the prior is set to multivariate Gaussian $p(h_j) = N(0, I)$, and the posterior is given by $q(h_j|y_j) = N(u_j, v_j I)$. The objective of the original VAE is defined as

$$D_{KL}(q(h_j|y_j) \parallel p(h_j)) - E_q(\ln p(y_j|h_j))$$

where $D_{KL}(\cdot)$ denotes the Kullback–Leibler divergence, which is also called the expected RE [46]. $-E_q(\ln p(y_j|h_j)$ is regarded as RE. Following the work in [45], the Frobenius norm of $D_{KL}(q(h_j|y_j) \parallel p(h_j))$ can be written as

$$\|D_{KL}(q(h_j|y_j) \parallel p(h_j))\|_F$$

$$= \left\| \int q(h_j|y_j) \ln p(h_j) d h_j - \int q(h_j|y_j) \ln q(h_j|y_j) d h_j \right\|^2_F.$$  \hspace{1cm} (22)

For convenience, we split the right-hand side of (23) into the following two terms:

$$\begin{cases} 
\Phi_1 = \int q(h_j|y_j) \ln p(h_j) d h_j \\
\Phi_2 = \int q(h_j|y_j) \ln q(h_j|y_j) d h_j.
\end{cases}$$  \hspace{1cm} (24)

The first term in (24) can be obtained as

$$\Phi_1 = \int q(h_j|y_j) \ln p(h_j) d h_j$$

$$= \int q(h_j|y_j) \ln \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left( -\frac{h_j^2}{2} \right) \right) d h_j$$

$$= \int q(h_j|y_j) \left( -\frac{1}{2} \ln (2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} E_{h_j \sim D(u_j,v_j)I}(h_j^2) \right) d h_j.$$  \hspace{1cm} (25)

Let $\text{Var}(h_j)$ denote the variance of $h_j$

$$\text{Var}(h_j) = E(h_j - E(h_j))^2$$

$$= E(h_j^2) - 2E(h_j)E(h_j) + (E(h_j))^2$$

$$= E(h_j^2) - (E(h_j))^2$$

$$= E(h_j^2) - (E(h_j))^2$$ \hspace{1cm} (26)

where $E(\cdot) = E_{h_j \sim D(u_j,v_j)I}(\cdot)$, we can obtain

$$E_{h_j \sim D(u_j,v_j)I}(h_j^2) = \text{Var}(h_j) + (E(h_j))^2$$

$$= u_j^2 + v_j.$$  \hspace{1cm} (27)

Therefore, we have

$$\Phi_1 = \int q(h_j|y_j) \ln p(h_j) d h_j$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \ln (2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (u_j^2 + v_j^2).$$  \hspace{1cm} (28)

Similarly, we can obtain the second term $\Phi_2$ in (24) as follows:

$$\Phi_2 = \int q(h_j|y_j) \ln q(h_j|y_j) d h_j$$

$$= \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} (1 + \ln(v_{i,j})^2 - (u_{i,j})^2 - (v_{i,j})^2) \right)^2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (29)

By introducing (28) and (29) into (24), we can obtain

$$\|D_{KL}(q(h_j|y_j) \parallel p(h_j))\|_F^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} \left( \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (1 + \ln(v_{i,j})^2 - (u_{i,j})^2 - (v_{i,j})^2) \right)^2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (30)

Let $pi_{i,j} = 1 + \ln(v_{i,j})^2 - (u_{i,j})^2 - (v_{i,j})^2$, then we have

$$P = 1_{m \times n} + \ln V^2 - U^2 - V^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (31)

where $1_{m \times n}$ is a matrix of 1s, and the matrices of reparamaters are $U = [u_1, \ldots, u_n]$ and $V = [v_1, \ldots, v_n]$, respectively.

Let $Z_i = (1/2n) \sum_{j=1}^{n} pi_{i,j}$, $z = [z_1, \ldots, z_m]^T \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, we have

$$Z = \frac{1}{2n} \left[ \begin{array}{cccc} p_{11} & p_{12} & \cdots & p_{1n} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} & \cdots & p_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{m-1,1} & p_{m-1,2} & \cdots & p_{m-1,n} \end{array} \right] \left[ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2n} (1_{m \times n} + \ln V^2 - U^2 - V^2) 1_n$$  \hspace{1cm} (32)

where $1_n = [1, \ldots, 1]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$. According to (30) and (32), we can obtain $f_2(H)$ with $U$ and $V$ as follows:

$$f_2(H(U, V)) = \left\| \frac{1}{2n} (1_{m \times n} + \ln V^2 - U^2 - V^2) 1_n \right\|^2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (33)
\[ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_{i,j}} = \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z_i} \cdot \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial u_{i,j}} = -2z_i \left( \frac{1}{n} u_{i,j} \right). \]  
(34)

Similarly, the first-order derivative for \( u_{i,j} \) can be obtained as

\[ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_{i,j}} = \frac{2}{n} \frac{n}{n} \left( \ln u_{i,j} - u_{i,j} \right). \]  
(35)

Then, the problem converts to the following one:

\[ \begin{cases}
\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u} = -2z(1)^\top \cdot U \\
\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \mathbf{V}} = 2 \sigma z(1)^\top \cdot (\ln \mathbf{V}/\mathbf{V} - \mathbf{V}).
\end{cases} \]  
(36)

Let \( R_0 = (1/2)\| Y - WH \|_F^2 \), and as

\[ \frac{1}{2} \| Y - WH \|_F^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left( y_{k,j} - \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_{k,i} h_{i,j} \right)^2 \]  

where \( d \) is the number of bands, for \( k = 1, \ldots, d \), the first-order derivative of \( R_0 \) is then defined as

\[ \frac{\partial R_0}{\partial h_{i,j}} = -\sum_{i=1}^{d} \left( \gamma_{k,i} - w_{k,i} h_{i,j} \right) w_{k,i}. \]  
(37)

For \( u_{i,j} \) and \( v_{i,j} \), the first-order derivatives of the abundance fraction are given as follows, respectively:

\[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial u_{i,j}} = \begin{cases} 
1, & 0 < (u_{i,j} + \sigma v_{i,j}) < 1 \\
0, & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases} \]  
(38)

\[ \frac{\partial v}{\partial u_{i,j}} = \begin{cases} 
\sigma, & 0 < (u_{i,j} + \sigma v_{i,j}) < 1 \\
0, & \text{otherwise} 
\end{cases} \]  
(39)

By introducing (38) and (39) into (37), we have

\[ \begin{cases}
\frac{\partial R_0}{\partial U} = W^T (WH - Y) \ast \mathcal{C}_{\text{cons}} \\
\frac{\partial R_0}{\partial \mathbf{V}} = \sigma W^T (WH - Y) \ast \mathcal{C}_{\text{cons}}
\end{cases} \]  
(40)

where \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{cons}} \) is an indicative function, \( \mathcal{C}_{\text{cons}} = \mathbf{I}_{m \times n} \{ 0 < (U + \sigma V) < 1 \} \). Then, we can obtain the first-order derivatives of the objective function as follows:

\[ \nabla U = \frac{\partial R_0}{\partial U} + \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial U}, \]  
\[ \nabla V = \frac{\partial R_0}{\partial \mathbf{V}} + \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \mathbf{V}}. \]  
(41)

Finally, the objective function (15) is derived by combining (36), (40), and (41).

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REFERENCES

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