# Optimum Subspace Learning and Error Correction for Tensors 

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#### Abstract

Confronted with the high-dimensional tensor-like visual data, we derive a method for the decomposition of an observed tensor into a low-dimensional structure plus unbounded but sparse irregular patterns. The optimal rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{n}\right)$ tensor decomposition model that we propose in this paper, could automatically explore the low-dimensional structure of the tensor data, seeking optimal dimension and basis for each mode and separating the irregular patterns. Consequently, our method accounts for the implicit multi-factor structure of tensor-like visual data in an explicit and concise manner. In addition, the optimal tensor decomposition is formulated as a convex optimization through relaxation technique. We then develop a block coordinate descent (BCD) based algorithm to efficiently solve the problem. In experiments, we show several applications of our method in computer vision and the results are promising.


## 1 Introduction

As the size of data and the amount of redundancy increase fast with dimensionality, the recent explosion of massive amounts of high-dimensional visual data presents a challenge to computer vision. Most of the existing high-dimensional visual data either has the natural form of tensor (e.g. multi-channel images and videos) or can be grouped into the form of tensor (e.g. tensor face 1]). On one side, one may seek a compact and concise low-dimensional representation of the data, such as dimension reduction [2-4] or image compression [5]. On the other side, one may seek to detect the irregular patterns of the data, such as saliency detection [6] or foreground segmentation [7]. As a consequence, it is desirable to develop tools that can find and exploit the low-dimensional structure in a high-dimensional tensor-like visual data.

In the two-dimensional case, i.e. the matrix case, the "rank" plays an important part in capturing the global information of visual data. One simple and useful assumption is that the data lie near certain low-dimensional subspace,

[^0]

Fig. 1. Result of our method on a color facade (left). The method automatically seek a low dimensional representation (middle) and separate the sparse irregular patterns (right). Better viewed in color and zoom in for details.
which is closely related to the notation of rank. Although the "rank" itself is nonconvex, it can be approximated by its convex envelop, namely the trace norm. The validation of this approximation is justified in theory [8]. Among all the trace norm minimization problems, matrix completion may be a well-known one [8, [9]. Recently, [10] extends the matrix completion problem to the tensor case and develops an efficient solution.

The "sparsity" is also a useful tool for visual data analysis. One common observation is that the irregular patterns often occupy a small portion of the data. This sparse prior has demonstrated a wide range of applications including image denoising [11], error correction [12] and face recognition [13]. It was not until very recently that had much attention been focused on the rank-sparsity problem for matrix 14, 15], namely the Principal Component Pursuit (PCP) or the Robust Principal Component Analysis (RPCA). These work seek to directly decompose a matrix into a low-rank part plus a sparse part. Theoretic analysis [15] shows that under rather weak assumptions, the problem can be solved by the joint minimization of trace norm and $l_{1}$ norm.

We consider the decomposition of an observed tensor data into a low dimensional structure and an additive (sparse) irregular pattern. Analogy to the PCP problem in the matrix case, the optimal rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{n}\right)$ tensor decomposition model that we propose in the paper, could automatically explore the low-dimensional structure of the tensor data, seeking optimal dimension and basis for each mode and separating the irregular patterns (See Fig. 1 for an example and the core idea). Our method is an multilinear extension of the PCP problem and subsumes the matrix PCP problem as a special case. The optimal tensor decomposition is formulated as a convex optimization through relaxation technique. In addition, we develop a efficient block coordinate descent (BCD) based solution. We show several applications of our method in computer vision and the results are promising.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 briefly reviews related work. Section 3 provides the foundations of tensor algebra that are relevant to our approach. Section 4 formulates our proposed optimal rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots, R_{n}\right)$ tensor decomposition model together with its solution. Section 5 reports experimental
results of our algorithm for several computer vision tasks. Finally, Section 6 concludes the paper.

## 2 Related Work

Prior research on subspace analysis is abundant, including Principal Component Analysis (PCA) [2], Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) [3], Locality Preserving Projection (LPP) [4], etc. These models are widely adopted in computer vision problems. They usually treat an image as a vector and consider only one factor of the problem (e.g. only the face identity is considered in face recognition task). Various researchers have attempted to overcome the shortcomings of these methods by considering the image as a 2 -mode tensor (i.e. matrix), including 2DPCA [7], tensor subspace analysis (tensor LPP) [16], tensor LDA [17], etc.

Much effort has been focused on the tensor representation and analysis of visual data. Vasilescu and Terzopoulos [1] introduce a multilinear tensor framework to the analysis of face ensembles that explicitly accounts for each of the multiple factors implicit in image formation. Possible applications of the multilinear approach cover face recognition [18-20], facial expression decomposition [20, 21] and face super-resolution 22]. These methods are based on the higher order singular value decomposition [23], i.e. the Tucker decomposition, leading to best rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{n}\right)$ approximations of higher-order tensors (See Section 2 for details).

Shashua and Levin [24] propose 3-way tensor decomposition for the images as a 3D cube. They develop compression algorithms for images and video, that take advantage of spatial and temporal redundancies. The method is further extended to non-negative 3D tensor factorization [22] for the purpose of establishing a local parts feature decomposition from an object class of images. The non-negative tensor factorization is also applied to hypergraph clustering [25] to study a series of vision problems including 3D multi-body segmentation and illumination-based face clustering. These methods are based on the PARAFAC decomposition [26], leading to best (non-negative) rank- $R$ approximations of higher-order tensors.

The optimal rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{n}\right)$ tensor decomposition model that we propose in the paper seeks a best $n$-rank condition for the tensor data, yielding a rather different approach from previous work. Our model could simultaneously find the optimal dimension and basis for each mode and separate the irregular patterns in an automatic manner. As a result, by rather weak prior, our method can account for the implicit multi-factor structure of tensor-like visual data in an explicit and concise manner.

## 3 Tensor Basics

A tensor, or $n$-way array, is a higher-order generalization of matrix. We use lower case letters $(a, b, \ldots)$ for scalars, bold lower case letters ( $\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}, \ldots$ ) for vectors, upper case letters $(A, B, \ldots)$ for matrix, and calligraphic upper case letters $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \ldots)$ for
higher order tensors. Formally, a $n$-mode tensor is defined as $\mathcal{A} \in R^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$, with its elements $a_{i_{1}} \ldots a_{i_{k}} \ldots a_{i_{n}} \in R$. Therefore, a vector can be seen as a 1 -mode tensor and a matrix can be seen as a 2 -mode tensor.

It is often convenient to flatten a tensor into a matrix, also called matricizing or unfolding. The "unfold" operation along the $k$ th mode on a tensor $\mathcal{A}$ is defined as unfold $(\mathcal{A}, k):=\mathcal{A}_{(k)} \in R^{I_{k} \times\left(I_{1} \ldots I_{k-1} I_{k+1} \ldots I_{n}\right)}$. Accordingly, its inverse operator fold can be defined as $\operatorname{fold}\left(\mathcal{A}_{(k)}, k\right):=A$. Moreover, the $k$-rank of tensor $\mathcal{A}$, denoted by $r_{k}$, is defined as the rank of the matrix $\mathcal{A}_{(k)}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
r_{k}=\operatorname{rank}_{k}(\mathcal{A})=\operatorname{rank}\left(\mathcal{A}_{(k)}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Frobenius norm of a tensor is defined as $\|\mathcal{A}\|_{F}:=\left(\sum_{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots i_{n}}\left|a_{i_{1}} a_{i_{2}} \ldots a_{i_{n}}\right|^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Besides, denote the $l_{0}$ norm $\|\mathcal{A}\|_{0}$ as the number of non-zero entities in $\mathcal{A}$ and the $l_{1}$ norm $\|\mathcal{A}\|_{1}:=\sum_{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots i_{n}}\left|a_{i_{1}} a_{i_{2}} \ldots a_{i_{n}}\right|$ respectively. Then, we have $\|\mathcal{A}\|_{F}=\left\|A_{(k)}\right\|_{F},\|\mathcal{A}\|_{0}=\left\|A_{(k)}\right\|_{0}$ and $\|\mathcal{A}\|_{1}=\left\|A_{(k)}\right\|_{1}$ for any $1 \leq k \leq n$.

A generalization of the product of two matrix is the product of a tensor and a matrix. The mode- $k$ product of a tensor $\mathcal{A} \in R^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$ by a matrix $M \in R^{J_{k} \times I_{k}}$, denoted by $\mathcal{A} \times{ }_{k} M$, is a tensor $\mathcal{B} \in R^{I_{1} \times \ldots I_{k-1} \times J_{k} \times I_{k+1} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$ with its elements given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
b_{i_{1} \times \ldots i_{k-1} \times j_{k} \times i_{k+1} \times \ldots \times i_{n}}=\sum_{i_{k}} a_{i_{1} \times \ldots i_{k-1} \times i_{k} \times i_{k+1} \times \ldots \times i_{n}} m_{j_{k} i_{k}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The mode- $k$ product can be expressed in tensor notation, or in terms of flattened matrix:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{B}=\mathcal{A} \times_{k} M=\operatorname{fold}\left(M A_{(k)}, k\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The notion of rank for tensors with order greater than two is subtle. There are two types of higher-order tensor decompositions, but neither of them has all the nice properties of the matrix SVD. The PARAFAC decomposition [26] represents the $n$-mode tensor $\mathcal{A} \in R^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$ as the outer product of vectors $\boldsymbol{u}_{k}^{j} \in R^{I_{k}}$ (Fig.2).

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{j=1}^{R} \lambda_{j} \boldsymbol{u}_{1}^{j} \circ \boldsymbol{u}_{2}^{j} \circ \ldots \circ \boldsymbol{u}_{n}^{j} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{u}_{\boldsymbol{k}}^{\boldsymbol{j}}$ are unit length vectors. Under mild conditions, the rank- $R$ decomposition is essentially unique [26]. The $\operatorname{rank}$ of a $n$-mode tensor $\mathcal{A}$, is the minimal number of R , indicating the optimal rank- $R$ decomposition. It is a natural extension of the matrix rank- $R$ decomposition, but it does not compute the orthonormal subspace associated with each mode.

The Tucker decomposition, in the other hand, does not reveal the rank of the tensor, but it naturally generalizes the orthonormal subspaces corresponding to the left/right singular matrix computed by the matrix SVD [23]. The $n$-mode tensor $\mathcal{A} \in R^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$ can be decomposed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{A}=\mathcal{Z} \times_{1} U_{1} \times_{2} U_{2}, \ldots \times_{k} U_{k} \ldots \times_{n} U_{n} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$



Fig. 2. Comparison of different decomposition for 3D tensor; Top: Rank- $R$ decomposition. Bottom: Rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{N}\right)$.
where $U_{i} \in R^{I_{i} \times R_{i}}$ are $n$ orthogonal matrix. $U_{i}$ spans the $R_{i}$ dimensional subspace of the original $R^{I_{i}}$ space, with its orthonormal columns as the basis. $U_{i}$ accounts for the implicit factor of the $i$ th-mode dimension of tensor $\mathcal{A} . \mathcal{Z}$ is the (dense) core tensor associating each of the $n$ subspace (Fig.2).

## 4 Optimum Rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{N}\right)$ Tensor Decomposition

### 4.1 The Model

To begin with, we give a brief introduction to the best Rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{N}\right)$ approximation (decomposition) problem in [17, 20, 23]. Consider a real $n$-mode tensor $\mathcal{A} \in R^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$, the best rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{N}\right)$ approximation is to find a tensor $\tilde{\mathcal{A}} \in R^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$ with pre-specified $\operatorname{rank}_{k}(\tilde{A})=R_{k}$, that minimizes the least-squares cost function:

$$
\begin{align*}
\min _{\tilde{\mathcal{A}}} & f(\tilde{\mathcal{A}})=\|\mathcal{A}-\tilde{\mathcal{A}}\|_{F}^{2}  \tag{6}\\
\text { s.t. } & \operatorname{rank}_{i}(\tilde{\mathcal{A}})=R_{i} \quad \forall i
\end{align*}
$$

The $n$-rank conditions imply that $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}$ should have the Tucker decomposition as (5): $\tilde{\mathcal{A}}=\mathcal{Z} \times{ }_{1} U_{1} \times_{2} U_{2}, \ldots \times_{k} U_{k} \ldots \times_{n} U_{n}$. The decomposition is discussed in [23] and Higher Order Orthogonal Iteration (HOOI) has been proposed to solve the problem.

HOOI requires strong prior knowledge of the tensor $\mathcal{A} \in R^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$, namely $\operatorname{rank}_{i}(A)=R_{i}$, to find the (local) minimum solution. However, for visual data in real applications (e.g. a video clip or CT data), such prior knowledge is hardly available. Problem arises that if only weak prior knowledge is known (e.g. the
configuration of the tensor data), can one design a method that could automatically find the optimal $n$-rank condition of the given tensor $\mathcal{A}$. To simplify the problem, we consider a ideal model that the corruption is produced by additive irregular patterns $\mathcal{S}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{A}=\mathcal{L}+\mathcal{S} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{S}$ are $n$-mode tensors with identical size in each mode. $\mathcal{A}$ is the observed data tensor. $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{S}$ represent the correspondent structured part and irregular part, respectively.

The underlining assumption of (7) is that the tensor data $\mathcal{A}$ is generated by a highly structured tensor $\mathcal{L}$, and then corrupted by an additive irregular patterns $\mathcal{S}$. One straightforward assumption may be that the $n$-rank of $\mathcal{L}$ should be small and the corruption $\mathcal{S}$ is bounded, leading to the formulation:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{\mathcal{L}} & \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} \operatorname{rank}_{i}(\mathcal{L})  \tag{8}\\
\text { s.t. } & \|\mathcal{L}-\mathcal{A}\|_{F}^{2} \leq \varepsilon^{2}
\end{array}
$$

where $U_{i} \in R^{I_{i} \times \operatorname{rank}_{i}(\mathcal{L})}$. Intuitively, the weights $\lambda_{i}$ indicates the preference towards different "unfold" operation, i.e. the configuration of the tensor. For example, we would prefer to explain the tensor representation of a video as the collection of frames.
(8) imposes constraints on the least square errors, suggesting that the corruption of the irregular patterns $\mathcal{S}$ is bounded. The constraint could be the case in certain situations. However, the irregular patterns in real world visual data is unknown and unbounded in general. A reasonable observation is that the irregular patterns $\mathcal{S}$ usually occupy only a small portion of the data. Therefore, we could impose $l_{0}$ norm penalization on $\mathcal{S}$ and form the problem as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\min _{\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}} & \sum_{i} \lambda_{i} \operatorname{rank}_{i}(\mathcal{L})+\eta\|\mathcal{S}\|_{0}  \tag{9}\\
\text { s.t. } & \|\mathcal{L}+\mathcal{S}-\mathcal{A}\|_{F}^{2} \leq \varepsilon^{2}
\end{array}
$$

The constant $\eta$ balances between the low-dimensional structure and sparse irregularity. In addition, it is easy to check that (7) is a special case of (9) if we force $\mathcal{S}=0$. Thus, we will focus on problem (9) in the rest of the paper.

When the optimal $\mathcal{L}$ is achieved, similar to the Tucker Decomposition, the core tensor $\mathcal{Z}$ can be computed by [23]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{Z}=\mathcal{L} \times{ }_{1} U_{1}^{T} \times_{2} U_{2}^{T} \ldots \times_{n} U_{n}^{T} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $U_{i}$ is the left singular matrix of $\mathcal{L}_{i}$. Accordingly, we can get the rank- $\left(R_{1}\right.$, $\left.R_{2}, \ldots R_{N}\right)$ decomposition of $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{Z} \times{ }_{1} U_{1} \times_{2} U_{2}, \ldots \times_{i} U_{i} \ldots \times_{n} U_{n}$. We call the correspondent decomposition in (11)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{A} \sim \mathcal{Z} \times_{1} U_{1} \times_{2} U_{2}, \ldots \times_{i} U_{i} \ldots \times_{n} U_{n} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

to be the optimal rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{N}\right)$ decomposition of tensor $\mathcal{A}$ under the sense of $l_{1}$ norm . The term "optimal" means that the model could automatically exploit the low-dimensional structure of the $n$-mode tensor $\mathcal{A}$, finding optimal dimension and basis for each mode and separating the sparse irregular patterns. The unknown support of the errors makes the problem more difficult than the tensor completion problem that has been recently much studied [10]. In the next section, we discuss the solution toward the optimization problem and propose the rank sparsity tensor decomposition (RSTD) algorithm.

### 4.2 Simplified Formulation

Equation (9) provides a promise for simultaneously exploring the low-dimensional structure and separating the irregular patterns of given tensor data $\mathcal{A} \in$ $R^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \ldots \times I_{n}}$. However, (9) as the combination of two NP hard problem (matrix rank and $l_{0}$ norm), is highly nonconvex optimization. Given the fact that the trace norm $\left\|\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{t r}$ and $l_{1}$ norm $\|\mathcal{S}\|_{1}$ are the tightest convex approximation of $\operatorname{rank}_{i}(L)$ and $\|\mathcal{S}\|_{0}$ respectively, one can $\operatorname{relax} \operatorname{rank}_{i}(\mathcal{L})$ and $\|\mathcal{S}\|_{0}$ by $\left\|\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{\text {tr }}$ and $\|\mathcal{S}\|_{1}$. Therefore, we could obtain a tractable optimization problem:

$$
\begin{align*}
\min _{\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}} & \sum_{i} \lambda_{i}\left\|\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{t r}+\eta\|\mathcal{S}\|_{1}  \tag{12}\\
\text { s.t. } & \|\mathcal{L}+\mathcal{S}-\mathcal{A}\|_{F}^{2} \leq \varepsilon^{2}
\end{align*}
$$

where the trace norm, or the nuclear norm of matrix $\mathcal{L}_{(i)}$ is defined as the sum of its singular values $\sigma_{j}$, i.e. $\left\|\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{t r}=\sum_{j} \sigma_{j}\left(\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right)$. If $\operatorname{rank}_{i} \mathcal{L} \ll I_{i}$ and $\|\mathcal{S}\|_{0} \ll \Pi_{i=1}^{n} I_{i}$, i.e. tensor $\mathcal{L}$ is highly structured and tensor $\mathcal{S}$ is sparse enough, under rather mild conditions, the approximation can be highly accurate [8, 15]. Empirically, for general visual data with high redundancy, the approximation produces good results.

Problem (12) is still hard to solve due to the interdependent trace norm and $l_{1}$ norm constraint. To simplify the problem, we introduce additional auxiliary matrix $M_{i}=\mathcal{L}_{(i)}$ and $N_{i}=\mathcal{S}_{(i)}$. Thus, we obtain the equivalent formulation:

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
\min _{\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}, M_{i}, N_{i}} & \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}\left\|M_{i}\right\|_{t r}+\frac{\eta}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|N_{i}\right\|_{1}  \tag{13}\\
\text { s.t. } & M_{i}=\mathcal{L}_{(i)} \quad N_{i}=\mathcal{S}_{(i)} & \forall i \\
& \left\|M_{i}+N_{i}-\mathcal{A}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2} \leq \varepsilon^{2} & \forall i
\end{array}
$$

In (13), the constrains $M_{i}=\mathcal{L}_{(i)}$ and $N_{i}=\mathcal{S}_{(i)}$ still enforce the consistency of all $M_{i}$ and $N_{i}$. Thus, we further relax the equality constrains $M_{i}=\mathcal{L}_{(i)}$ and $N_{i}=\mathcal{S}_{(i)}$ by $\left\|M_{i}-\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{F} \leq \varepsilon_{1}$ and $\left\|N_{i}-\mathcal{S}_{(i)}\right\|_{F} \leq \varepsilon_{2}$. Then, it is easy to check that the dense noise term by $\left\|M_{i}+N_{i}-\mathcal{A}_{(i)}\right\|_{F} \leq \varepsilon_{3}$ corresponds to the stable Principle Component Pursuit(sPCP) in the matrix case [27]. Then, we get the relaxed form:

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
\min _{\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}, M_{i}, N_{i}} & \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}\left\|M_{i}\right\|_{t r}+\frac{\eta}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|N_{i}\right\|_{1} & \\
\text { s.t. } & \left\|M_{i}-\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2} \leq \varepsilon_{1}^{2} \quad\left\|N_{i}-\mathcal{S}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2} \leq \varepsilon_{2}^{2} & \forall i  \tag{14}\\
& \left\|M_{i}+N_{i}-\mathcal{A}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2} \leq \varepsilon_{3}^{2} & \forall i
\end{array}
$$

For certain $\alpha_{i}, \beta_{i}$ and $\gamma_{i},(14)$ can be converted to its equivalent form by Lagrange multiplier.

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
\min _{\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}, M_{i}, N_{i}} & F\left(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}, M_{i}, N_{i}\right)=\frac{1}{2 n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}\left\|M_{i}-\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2}+\frac{1}{2 n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}\left\|N_{i}-\mathcal{S}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2} \\
& +\frac{1}{2 n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \gamma_{i}\left\|M_{i}+N_{i}-\mathcal{A}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2}+\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}\left\|M_{i}\right\|_{t r}+\frac{\eta}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|N_{i}\right\|_{1} \tag{15}
\end{array}
$$

Intuitively, the weights $\alpha_{i}, \beta_{i}$ and $\gamma_{i}$ indicate the preference towards different "unfold" operation similar to $\lambda_{i}$. The optimization problem in (15) is convex but nondifferentiable. Next, we show how to solve this problem.

### 4.3 The Proposed Algorithm

We propose to employ the alternating direction method (ADM) for the optimization (15), leading to an block coordinate descent (BCD) algorithm. The core idea of the BCD is to optimize a group of variables while fixing the other groups. The variables in the optimization are $N_{1}, \ldots, N_{n}, M_{1}, \ldots, M_{n}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}$, which can be divided into $2 n+2$ blocks. To achieve the optimal solution, we estimate $N_{i}, M_{i}, \mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{S}$ sequentially, followed by certain refinement in each iteration. For clarity, we first define the "shrinkage" operator $D_{\tau}(x)$ with $\tau>0$ by

$$
D_{\tau}(x)= \begin{cases}x-\tau & \text { if } x>\tau  \tag{16}\\ \tau-x & \text { if } x<-\tau \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

The operator can be extended to the matrix or tensor case by performing the shrinkage operator towards each element. Then, we introduce the solution towards each subproblem.
Computing $N_{i}$ : The optimal $N_{i}$ with all other variables fixed is the solution to the following subproblem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{N_{i}} \frac{\beta_{i}}{2}\left\|N_{i}-\mathcal{S}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2}+\frac{\gamma_{i}}{2}\left\|N_{i}+M_{i}-\mathcal{A}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2}+\eta\left\|N_{i}\right\|_{1} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the well-known $l_{1}$ minimization [28], the global minimum of the optimization problem in (17) is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
N_{i}^{*}=D_{\frac{\eta}{\beta_{i}+\gamma_{i}}}\left(\frac{\beta_{i} S_{(i)}+\gamma_{i}\left(A_{(i)}-M_{i}\right)}{\beta_{i}+\gamma_{i}}\right) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D_{\tau}$ is the "shrinkage" operation.

Computing $M_{i}$ : The optimal $M_{i}$ with all other variables fixed is the solution to the following subproblem:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{M_{i}} \frac{\alpha_{i}}{2}\left\|M_{i}-\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2}+\frac{\gamma_{i}}{2}\left\|M_{i}+N_{i}-\mathcal{A}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2}+\lambda_{i}\left\|M_{i}\right\|_{t r} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

As shown in [9], the global minimum of the optimization problem in (19) is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{i}^{*}=U_{i} D_{\frac{\lambda_{i}}{\alpha_{i}+\gamma_{i}}}(\Lambda) V_{i}^{T} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $U_{i} \Lambda V_{i}^{T}$ is the singular value decomposition given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{i} \Lambda V_{i}^{T}=\frac{\alpha_{i} L_{(i)}+\gamma_{i}\left(A_{(i)}-N_{i}\right)}{\alpha_{i}+\gamma_{i}} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Computing $\mathcal{S}_{i}$ : The optimal $\mathcal{S}$ with all other variables fixed is the solution to the following subproblem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{\mathcal{S}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}\left\|N_{i}-\mathcal{S}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is easy to show that the solution to (22) is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\mathcal{S}}^{*}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \text { fold }\left(N_{i}, i\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Computing $\mathcal{L}_{i}$ : The optimal $\mathcal{L}$ with all other variables fixed is the solution to the following subproblem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{\mathcal{L}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}\left\|M_{i}-\mathcal{L}_{(i)}\right\|_{F}^{2} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similar to (22), the solution to (24) is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\mathcal{L}}^{*}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \text { fold }\left(M_{i}, i\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

We choose the difference of $L$ and $S$ in successive iterations against a certain tolerance as the stopping criterion. $N_{i}^{*}, M_{i}^{*}, \mathcal{L}^{*}$ and $\mathcal{S}^{*}$ are estimated iteratively until the convergence. We call the proposed algorithm Rank Sparsity Tensor Decomposition (RSTD). The pseudo-code of RSTD is summarized in Algorithm 1. We can further show that accelerated BCD for RSTD is guaranteed to reach the global optimum of (15), since the first three terms in (15) are differentiable and the last two terms are separable 29].

```
Algorithm 1. RSTD for Optimum Rank- \(\left(R_{1} \ldots R_{N}\right)\) Tensor Approximation
Input: \(n\)-mode tensor \(\mathcal{A}\)
Parameters: \(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \eta\)
Output: \(n\)-mode tensor \(\mathcal{L}, \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{Z}\), matrix \(U_{i}\) from 1 to n
1. Set \(\mathcal{L}^{(0)}=\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{S}^{(0)}=0, M_{i}=\mathcal{L}_{(i)}, N_{i}=0, k=1, t^{(0)}=1\)
2. while no convergence
    for \(i=1\) to \(n\)
    \(N_{i}{ }^{*}=D_{\frac{\eta}{\beta_{i}+\gamma_{i}}}\left(\frac{\beta_{i} S_{(i)}+\gamma_{i}\left(A_{(i)}-M_{i}\right)}{\beta_{i}+\gamma_{i}}\right)\)
    \(M_{i}{ }^{*}=U_{i} D_{\frac{\lambda_{i}}{\alpha_{i}+\gamma_{i}}}(\Lambda) V_{i}^{T} \quad\) where \(\quad U_{i} \Lambda V_{i}^{T}=\frac{\alpha_{i} L_{(i)}+\gamma_{i}\left(A_{(i)}-N_{i}\right)}{\alpha_{i}+\gamma_{i}}\)
    end for
    \(\mathcal{S}^{*}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i} \text { fold }\left(N_{i}, i\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}}\)
    \(\mathcal{L}^{*}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}=1 \text { old }\left(M_{i}, i\right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}}\)
    end while
10. \(\mathcal{Z}=\mathcal{L} \times{ }_{1} U_{1}^{T} \times_{2} U_{2}^{T} \ldots \times_{n} U_{n}^{T}\)
```


## 5 Experiments

### 5.1 Implementation Details

In the implementation, we adopt the Lanczos bidiagonalization algorithm with partial reorthogonalization [30] to obtain a few singular values and vectors during each iteration. The prediction rule for the dimension of the principal singular space is the same as [15]. A major challenge of our method is the selection of parameters. As the redundancy usually grows with the dimension, we simply set $\alpha=\beta=\gamma=\left[I_{1} / I_{\max }, I_{2} / I_{\max }, \ldots, I_{n} / I_{\max }\right]^{T}$ for all experiments, where $I_{\max }=\max \left\{I_{i}\right\}$. Similarly, we set $\lambda=\left[s v_{1} / s v_{\max }, s v_{2} / s v_{\max }, \ldots, s v_{n} / s v_{\max }\right]$, where $s v_{i}$ is the $95 \%$ singular value of $A_{(i)}$ and $s v_{\max }=\max \left\{s v_{i}\right\}$. Finally, we choose $\eta=1 / \sqrt{I_{\max }}$ as suggested in [15]. During the experiments, we observe that for most of the samples our implementation is able to converge in less than 100 iterations with a tolerance equal to $10^{-6}$.

### 5.2 Image Restoration

As shown in Fig.1, our algorithm can be used to separate unbounded sparse noise in visual data. One straightforward application of our method is the image restoration. However, we must point out that our algorithm assumes the tensor be well structured. This assumption would not be reasonable for some natural images, but it should be applicable for many visual data such as structured object (e.g. the facade), CT/fMRI data, multi-spectral image, etc. Therefore, we apply our algorithm on a set of MRI data including 181 brain images, which is also used in 10]. We add different percent of unbounded random noise to the image and demonstrate some of the results produced by our method in Fig.3.


Fig. 3. Demonstration of the results produced by our algorithm (from left to right): original image, $5 \%$ corrupted image, recovered image from 5\% corrupted noise; $10 \%$ corrupted image, recovered image from $10 \%$ noise; $30 \%$ corrupted image, recovered image from $30 \%$ corrupted noise

Our algorithm is able to find the structured data and separate the noise without the location of the corruption (about 30 percent of the data). Table. 1 further provides quantitative results of our algorithm.

Table 1. Error correction for the brain MRI data

| Percentage of Corruption | $5 \%$ | $10 \%$ | $15 \%$ | $20 \%$ | $30 \%$ |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Average PSNR (dB) | 37.41 | 34.41 | 30.70 | 28.95 | 20.35 |

### 5.3 Background Subtraction

Another possible application of our algorithm is the background subtraction problem. Background substraction establishes a background model (the structured part) and segments the foreground object (sparse irregular pattern). For most of the video clip, redundancy is abundant. We conduct experiments on several video clips. Fig. 4 demonstrates some of our results in one of the highly dynamic scenes. The results are comparable to the-state-of-art background subtraction algorithms.


Fig. 4. Background subtraction by our method (no filter is performed on the results)

### 5.4 Face Representation and Recognition

By the TensorFace in 1], we test our algorithm on the CMU PIE dataset, which contains 68 person under various viewpoints, expressions and illuminations. We use the same data set as [16] with the resolution at $64 \times 64$. For simplicity, only the five near frontal view under 21 different illuminations (105 images) of one person are used as training and the rest ( 65 images including the expressions) is for testing. Thus, we get a $5 \times 21 \times 68 \times 64 \times 64$ tensor. Then, the method learns a $5 \times 5 \times 68 \times 23 \times 22$ core tensor. Fig. 5 compares the reconstructed faces with the original ones. We can see that the shadows have been removed. As a consequence, we achieve a competitive $94.3 \%$ accuracy by the recognition method in [19].


Fig. 5. Original Face (left) v.s. Reconstructed Face (right): the shadow caused by different illumination has been removed

## 6 Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we propose the optimal rank- $\left(R_{1}, R_{2}, \ldots R_{n}\right)$ tensor decomposition model. The model could automatically explore the low-dimensional structure of the tensor data seeking optimal dimension and basis for each mode and separating the irregular patterns. We are currently working on parameters and the
optimization method of our model (e.g the proximal gradient), which may lead to better efficiency. We would also like to further explore additional applications and to investigate the theoretic side of our method in the future work.

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[^0]:    * The work is supported by National Science Foundation of China (Grant No.60772097); Open Projects Program of National Laboratory of Pattern Recognition, Institute of Automation, Chinese Academy of Science.

