

# Recent advances on low-rank and sparse decomposition for moving object detection

## Matrix and Tensor-based approaches

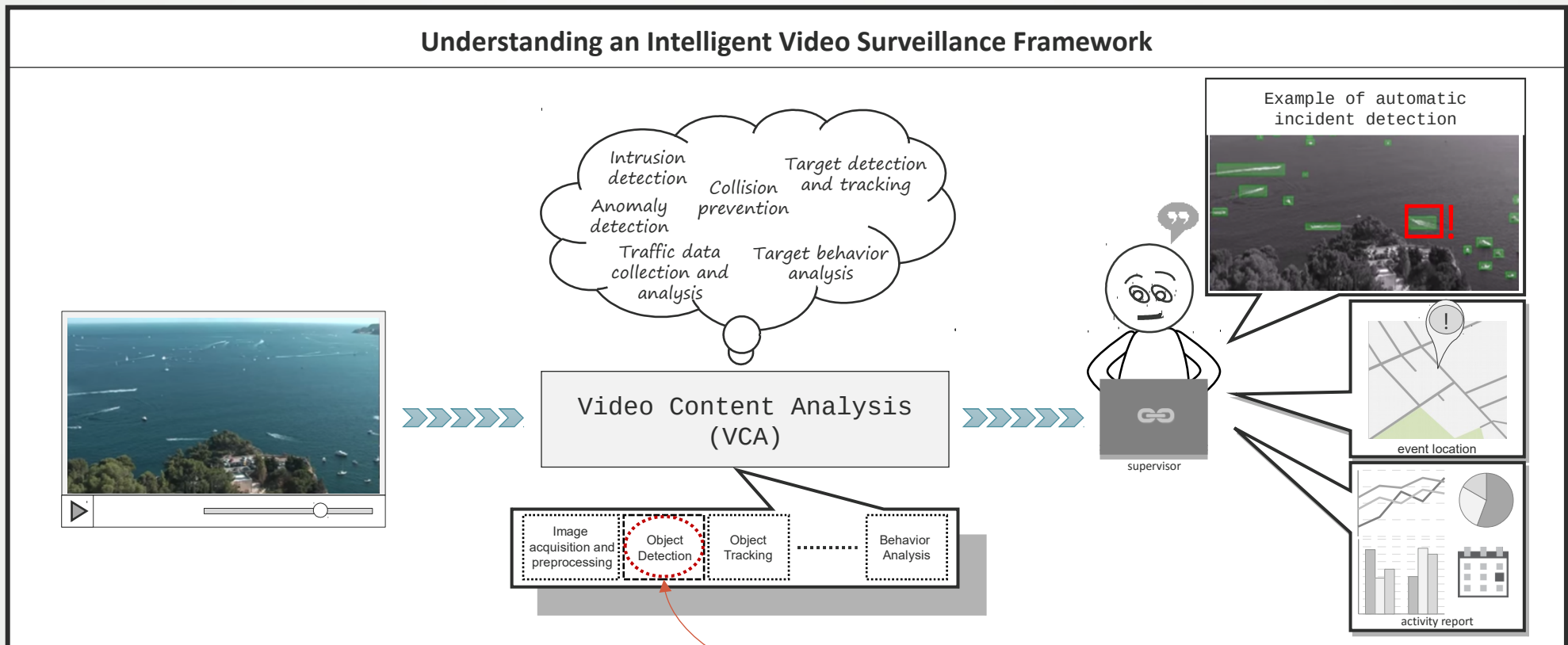
Atelier : Enjeux dans la détection d'objets mobiles par soustraction de fond

# Summary

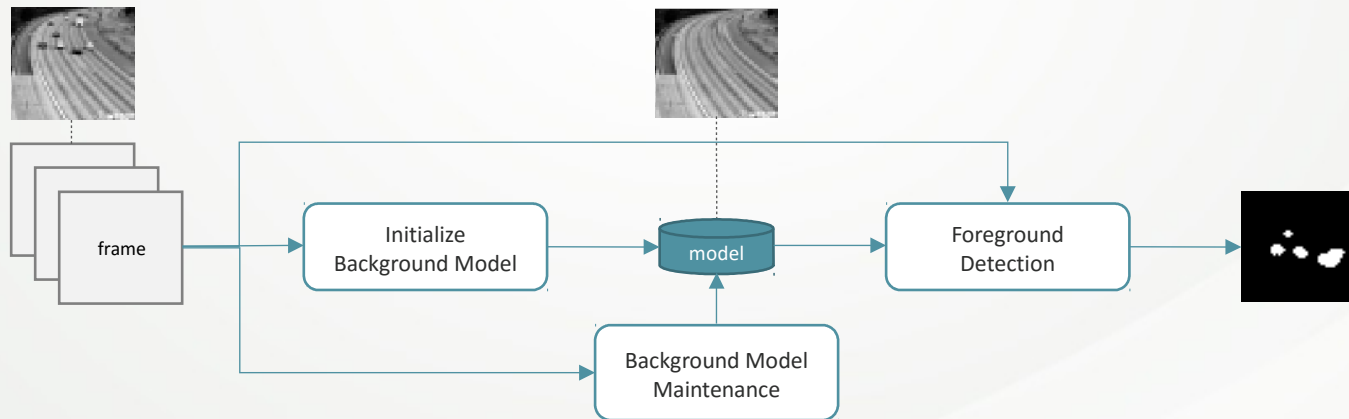
- Context
  - Understanding an Intelligent Video Surveillance Framework
  - Introduction to Background Subtraction
- Decomposition into Additive Matrices
  - Case 1: Low-rank Approximation and Matrix Completion
  - Case 2: Robust Principal Component Analysis (RPCA)
  - Case 3: Stable decomposition
    - Constrained RPCA
- Introduction to Tensors
  - Tensor Decomposition
    - Tucker/HoSVD
    - CANDECOMP-PARAFAC (CP)
    - Applications to Background Subtraction

# Behind the Scenes of an Intelligent Video Surveillance Framework

## Understanding an Intelligent Video Surveillance Framework



# Introduction to Background Subtraction



# Background Subtraction Methods

A large number of algorithms have been proposed for background subtraction over the last few years:

## Traditional methods:

- Basic methods, mean and variance over time
- Fuzzy based methods
- Statistical methods
- Non-parametric methods
- Neural and neuro-fuzzy methods

## Matrix and Tensor Factorization methods:

- Eigenspace-based methods (PCA / SVD)
- RPCA, LRR, NMF, MC, ST, etc.
- Tensor Decomposition, NTF, etc.

## **BGSLibrary (C++)**

<https://github.com/andrewssobral/bgslibrary>

## **LRSLibrary (MATLAB)**

<https://github.com/andrewssobral/lrslibrary>

**our focus**

Andrews Sobral and Antoine Vacavant. A comprehensive review of background subtraction algorithms evaluated with synthetic and real videos. Computer Vision and Image Understanding (CVIU), 2014.

Bouwmans, Thierry; Sobral, Andrews; Javed, Sajid; Ki Jung, Soon; Zahzah, El-Hadi. "Decomposition into Low-rank plus Additive Matrices for Background/Foreground Separation: A Review for a Comparative Evaluation with a Large-Scale Dataset". Submitted to Computer Science Review, 2015.

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A large number of algorithms have been developed in the last few years:

## Traditional methods:

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- Neural and neuro-fuzzy methods

## Matrix and Tensor Factorization methods:

- Eigenspace-based methods (FPCA, FPCA, etc)
- RPCA, LRR, NMF, MC, ST, etc
- Tensor Decomposition, NTF, etc

## Glossary of terms:

PCA	Principal Component Analysis
SVD	Singular Value Decomposition
LRA	Low-rank Approximation
MC	Matrix Completion
NMF	Non-negative Matrix Factorization
RPCA	Robust Principal Component Analysis
LRR	Low-rank Recovery
RNMF	Robust NMF
ST	Subspace Tracking
Stable RPCA	Stable version of RPCA
TTD	Three-Term Decomposition
TD	Tensor Decomposition
NTF	Non-negative Tensor Factorization

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# Decomposition into Additive Matrices

- The decomposition is represented in a general formulation:

$$A = \sum_{k=1}^K M_k$$

- where  $K$  usually is equal to 1, 2, or 3. For  $K = 3$ ,  $M_1 \dots M_3$  are commonly defined by:

$$A = M_1 + M_2 + M_3 = L + S + E$$

- The characteristics of the matrices  $M_k$  are as follows:
  - The first matrix  $M_1 = L$  is the low-rank component.
  - The second matrix  $M_2 = S$  is the sparse component.
  - The third matrix  $M_3 = E$  is generally the noise component.
- When  $K = 1$ , the matrix  $A \approx L$  and  $S$  (implicit) can be given by  $S = A - L$ . e.g.: LRA, MC, NMF, ...
- When  $K = 2$ ,  $A = L + S$ . This decomposition is called explicit. e.g.: RPCA, LRR, RNMF, ...
- When  $K = 3$ ,  $A = L + S + E$ . This decomposition is called stable. e.g.: Stable RPCA / Stable PCP.

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# Low Rank Approximation

- Low-rank approximation (LRA) is a minimization problem, in which the cost function measures the fit between a given matrix (the data) and an approximating matrix (the optimization variable), subject to a constraint that the approximating matrix has reduced rank.

$$\underset{L}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|A - L\|_F$$

subject to  $\text{rank}(L) < r$ , (desired rank).

usually  $\text{rank}(L)$  is replaced by  $\|L\|_* = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i$  where  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r$  are the singular values of  $L$ .

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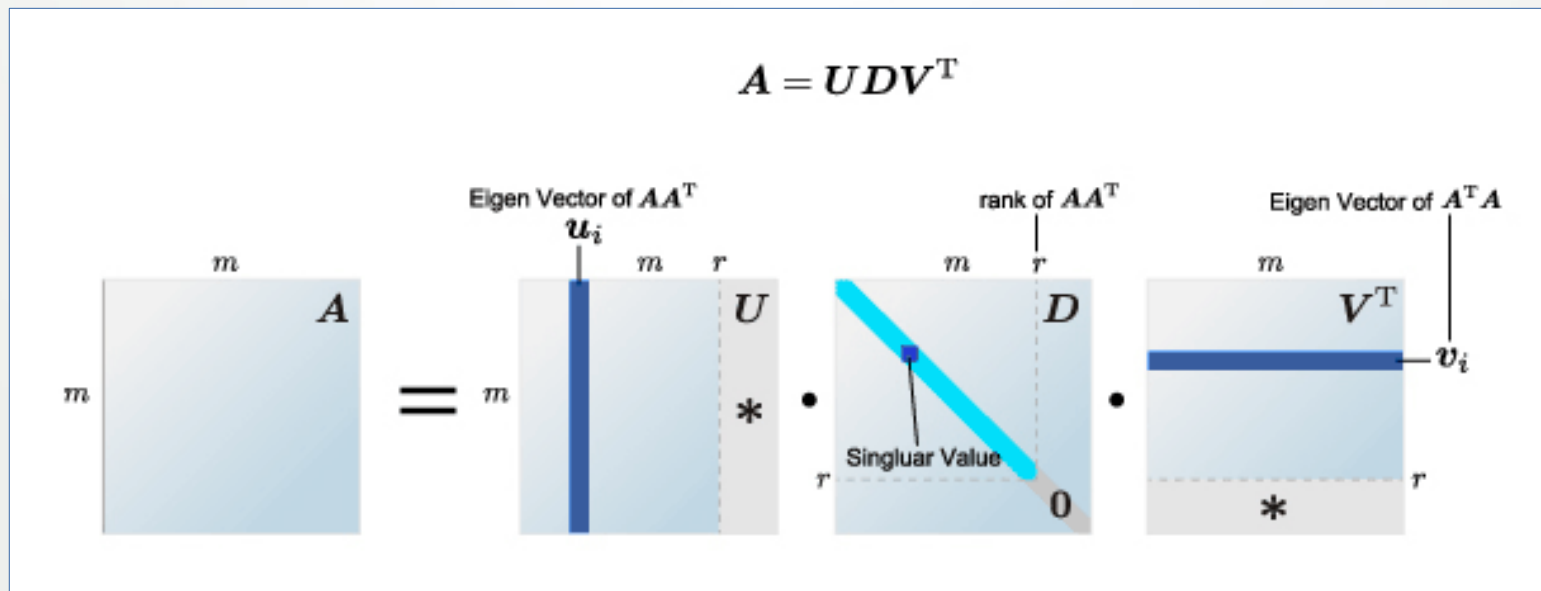
**!!! Singular Value Decomposition !!!**

# Singular Value Decomposition

- Formally, the singular value decomposition of an  $m \times n$  real or complex matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is a factorization of the form:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{V}^T$$

- where  $\mathbf{U}$  is a  $m \times m$  real or complex unitary matrix,  $\mathbf{D}$  is an  $m \times n$  rectangular diagonal matrix with non-negative real numbers on the diagonal, and  $\mathbf{V}^T$  (the transpose of  $\mathbf{V}$  if  $\mathbf{V}$  is real) is an  $n \times n$  real or complex unitary matrix. The diagonal entries  $\mathbf{D}$  are known as the singular values of  $\mathbf{A}$ .
- The  $m$  columns of  $\mathbf{U}$  and the  $n$  columns of  $\mathbf{V}$  are called the left-singular vectors and right-singular vectors of  $\mathbf{A}$ , respectively.



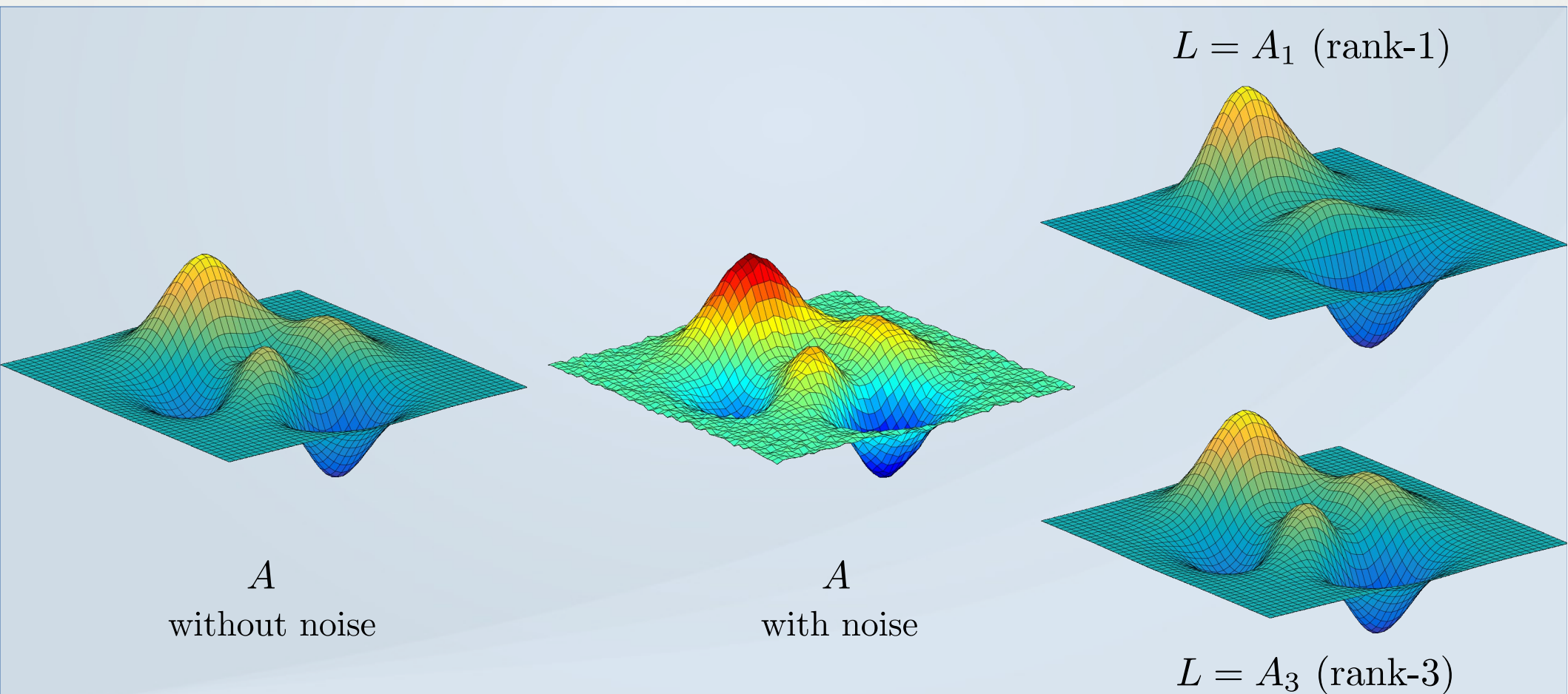
*generalization of eigenvalue decomposition*

# Best rank $r$ Approximation

If  $A = UDV^T$  is the SVD of  $A$  and the singular values are sorted as  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \sigma_n$  then for any  $r < n$ , the best rank- $r$  approximation to  $A$  is:

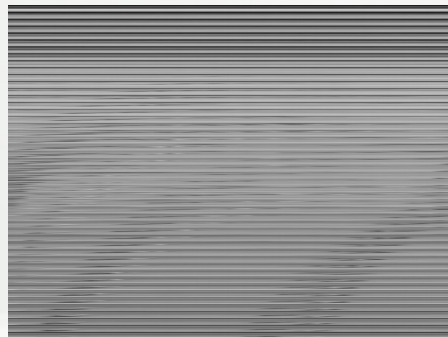
$$L = A_r = U_r D_r V_r^T \text{ or } L = \sum_{i=1}^r u_i d_i v_i^T$$

$L = A_r$  minimizes  $\|A - L\|_2$  and  $\|A - L\|_F$  among all rank- $r$  matrices

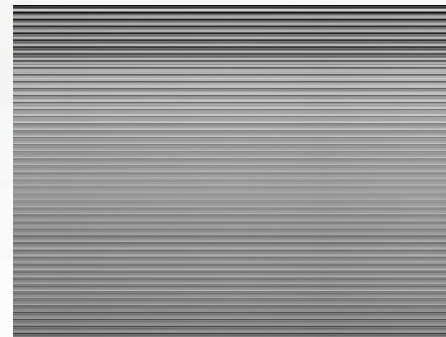
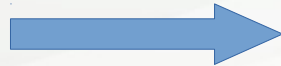


# Background Model Estimation

```
3 %% Load video
4 load(fullfile(lrs_conf.lrs_dir, 'dataset', 'trafficdb', 'traffic_patches.mat'));
5 V = im2double(imgdb{100});
6 % convert to 2D matrix
7 A = convert_video3d_to_2d(V);
8 %% low-rank approximation (rank-1)
9 [m,n] = size(A);
10 % let us define that rank to be equal to r
11 r = 1;
12 % doing it the normal SVD way
13 [U,S,V] = svd(A);
14 L = U(1:m,1:r)*S(1:r,1:r)*V(1:n,1:r)';
15 % ||A - L||_F
16 norm(abs(A-L), 'fro')
```



$$L = S_r D_r V_r^T$$



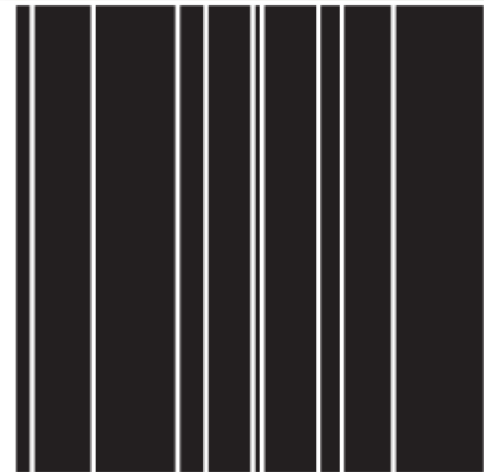
# What about LRA for corrupted entries?



(a) noise



(b) random corruptions



(c) sample-specific corruptions

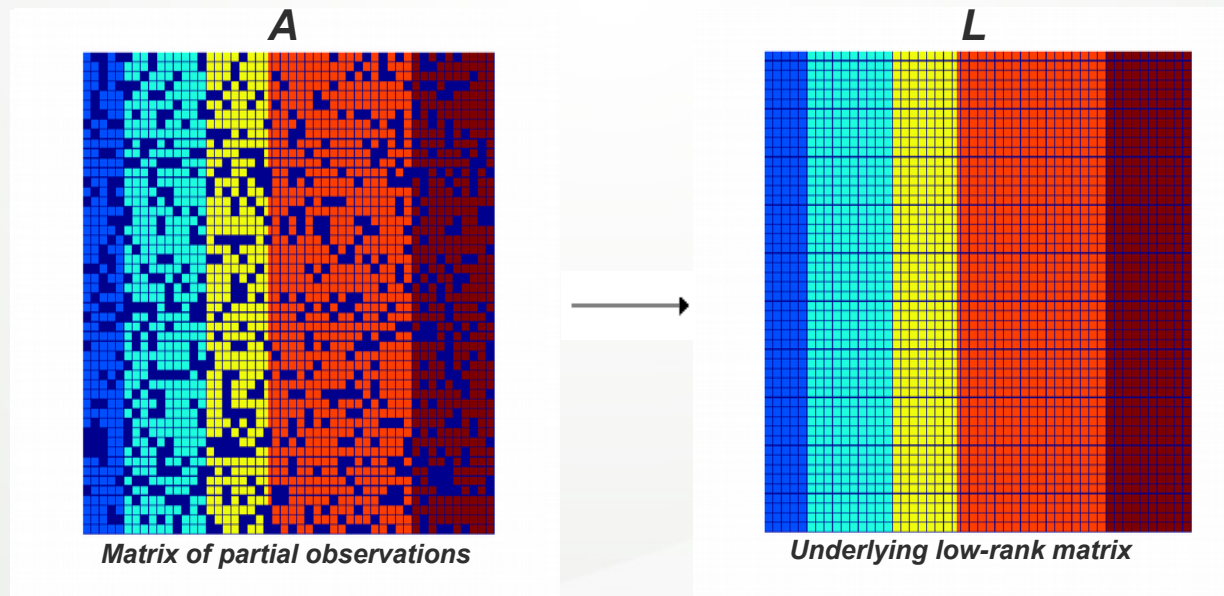


# Introduction to Matrix Completion (MC)

- Matrix Completion (MC) can be formulated as the problem of to recover a low rank matrix  $L$  from the partial observations of its entries (represented by  $A$ ):

$$\underset{L}{\text{minimize}} \quad \text{rank}(L)$$

$$\text{subject to} \quad L_{ij} = A_{ij}, (i, j) \in \Omega \text{ (set of observed elements).}$$

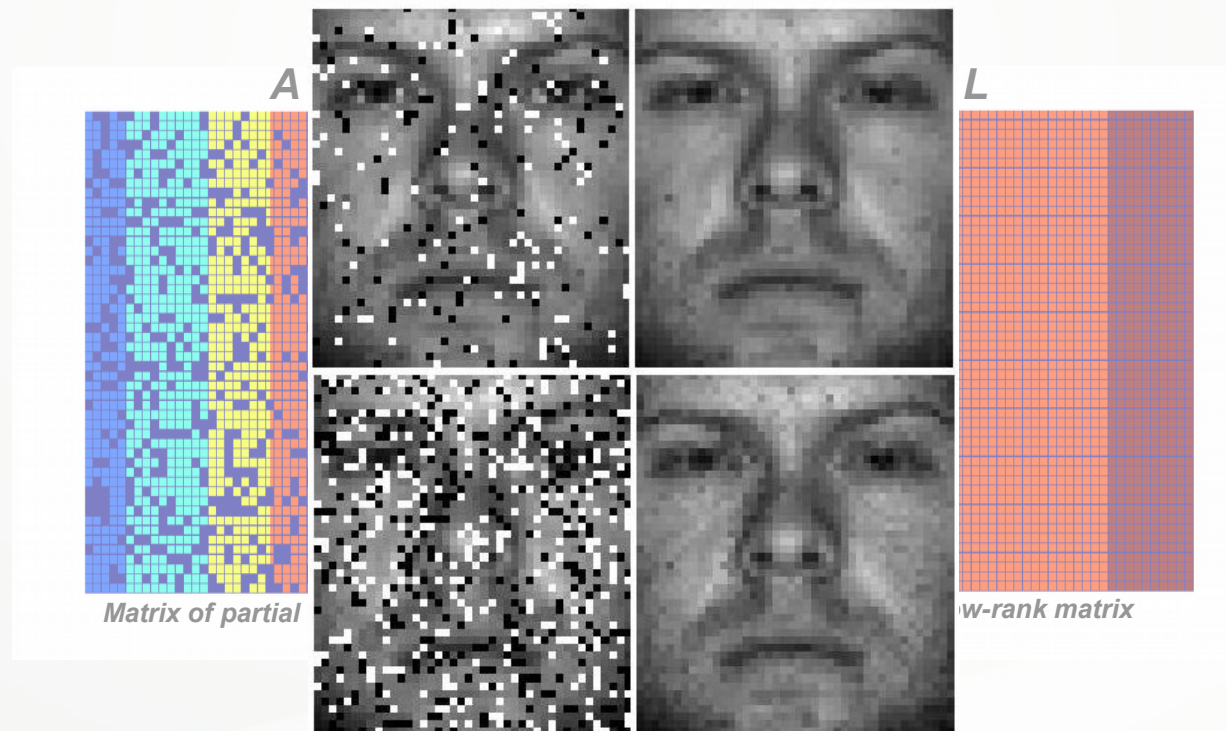


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# Demo: Matrix Completion

## Setup a problem

```
rng(234923); % for reproducible results
N = 16; % the matrix is N x N
r = 2; % the rank of the matrix
df = 2*N*r - r^2; % degrees of freedom of a N x N rank r matrix
nSamples = 3*df; % number of observed entries

% For this demo, we will use a matrix with integer entries
% because it will make displaying the matrix easier.
iMax = 5;
X = randi(iMax,N,r)*randi(iMax,r,N); % Our target matrix
```

Now suppose we only see a few entries of X. Let "Omega" be the set of observed entries

```
rPerm = randperm(N^2); % use "randsample" if you have the stats toolbox
omega = sort( rPerm(1:nSamples) );
```

Print out the observed matrix in a nice format. The "NaN" entries represent unobserved values. The goal of this demo is to find out what those values are!

```
Y = nan(N);
Y(omega) = X(omega);
disp('The "NaN" entries represent unobserved values');
disp(Y)
```

minimize  $\|L\|_*$   
subject to  $P_\Omega(L) = P_\Omega(A)$   
 $P_\Omega(\cdot)$  (is the sampling operator).

Matrix completion via TFOCS

<http://cvxr.com/tfocs/demos/matrixcompletion/>

The "NaN" entries represent unobserved values

30	NaN	24	8	12	14	12	NaN	22	NaN	NaN	10	14	24	20	NaN
30	21	NaN	11	21	NaN	12	21	NaN	15	17	NaN	8	15	23	NaN
NaN	9	NaN	NaN	9	NaN	NaN	NaN	7	9	8	7	5	NaN	11	6
35	NaN	NaN	10	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	23	NaN	17	13	15	26	24	NaN
NaN	9	9	5	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	9	8	NaN	NaN	9	11	NaN
NaN	11	19	7	NaN	13	10	11	17	19	12	9	11	19	17	NaN
45	24	30	NaN	NaN	29	18	NaN	25	30	NaN	19	17	30	32	NaN
NaN	NaN	21	NaN	15	18	12	15	18	21	15	12	12	21	21	12
25	11	NaN	7	11	13	10	11	17	19	12	9	NaN	19	NaN	NaN
NaN	13	11	7	13	16	8	NaN	8	11	11	NaN	NaN	11	15	8
45	24	30	14	24	29	18	24	25	30	23	19	17	NaN	32	18
NaN	15	21	9	NaN	18	12	15	18	21	15	12	NaN	21	21	12
25	NaN	13	9	17	NaN	10	17	NaN	13	14	13	7	13	19	10
40	20	28	12	20	NaN	16	20	NaN	NaN	NaN	16	16	NaN	28	16
NaN	NaN	18	10	18	22	12	NaN	14	NaN	16	14	10	NaN	22	12
25	11	19	7	11	NaN	10	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	9	11	19	17	NaN

# Demo: Matrix Completion

```
% Add TFOCS to your path (modify this line appropriately):
addpath ~/Dropbox/TFOCS/

observations = X(omega); % the observed entries
mu           = .001;    % smoothing parameter

% The solver runs in seconds
tic
Xk = solver_sNuclearBP( {N,N,omega}, observations, mu );
toc
```

Auslender & Teboulle's single-projection method

```
Iter   Objective   |dx|/|x|   step
-----+-----
100 | +3.54125e+02  1.68e-04  1.32e-03
200 | +3.54125e+02  7.42e-07  1.77e-03*
251 | +3.54125e+02  5.41e-09  2.28e-03*
Finished: Step size tolerance reached
Elapsed time is 1.289716 seconds.
```

Recovered matrix (rounding to nearest .0001):

30	12	24	8	12	14	12	12	22	24	14	10	14	24	20	12
30	21	15	11	21	26	12	21	10	15	17	16	8	15	23	12
15	9	9	5	9	11	6	9	7	9	8	7	5	9	11	6
35	16	26	10	16	19	14	16	23	26	17	13	15	26	24	14
15	9	9	5	9	11	6	9	7	9	8	7	5	9	11	6
25	11	19	7	11	13	10	11	17	19	12	9	11	19	17	10
45	24	30	14	24	29	18	24	25	30	23	19	17	30	32	18
30	15	21	9	15	18	12	15	18	21	15	12	12	21	21	12
25	11	19	7	11	13	10	11	17	19	12	9	11	19	17	10
20	13	11	7	13	16	8	13	8	11	11	10	6	11	15	8
45	24	30	14	24	29	18	24	25	30	23	19	17	30	32	18
30	15	21	9	15	18	12	15	18	21	15	12	12	21	21	12
25	17	13	9	17	21	10	17	9	13	14	13	7	13	19	10
40	20	28	12	20	24	16	20	24	28	20	16	16	28	28	16
30	18	18	10	18	22	12	18	14	18	16	14	10	18	22	12
25	11	19	7	11	13	10	11	17	19	12	9	11	19	17	10

Original matrix:

30	12	24	8	12	14	12	12	22	24	14	10	14	24	20	12
30	21	15	11	21	26	12	21	10	15	17	16	8	15	23	12
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30	18	18	10	18	22	12	18	14	18	16	14	10	18	22	12
25	11	19	7	11	13	10	11	17	19	12	9	11	19	17	10

Relative error, no rounding: 0.00000410%

# MC Algorithms

- **LRSLibrary:**

- MC: Matrix Completion (14)

- FPC: Fixed point and Bregman iterative methods for matrix rank minimization (Ma et al. 2008)
    - GROUSE: Grassmannian Rank-One Update Subspace Estimation (Balzano et al. 2010)
    - IALM-MC: Inexact ALM for Matrix Completion (Lin et al. 2009)
    - LMaFit: Low-Rank Matrix Fitting (Wen et al. 2012)
    - LRGeomCG: Low-rank matrix completion by Riemannian optimization (Bart Vandereycken, 2013)
    - MC\_logdet: Top-N Recommender System via Matrix Completion (Kang et al. 2016)
    - MC-NMF: Nonnegative Matrix Completion (Xu et al. 2011)
    - OP-RPCA: Robust PCA via Outlier Pursuit (Xu et al. 2012)
    - OptSpace: Matrix Completion from Noisy Entries (Keshavan et al. 2009)
    - OR1MP: Orthogonal rank-one matrix pursuit for low rank matrix completion (Wang et al. 2015)
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    - ScGrassMC: Scaled Gradients on Grassmann Manifolds for Matrix Completion (Ngo and Saad, 2012)
    - SVP: Guaranteed Rank Minimization via Singular Value Projection (Meka et al. 2009)
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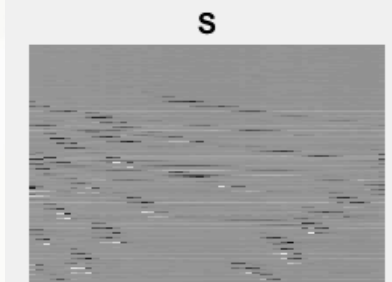
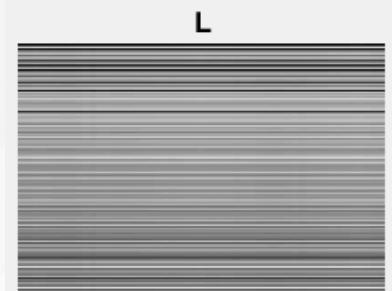
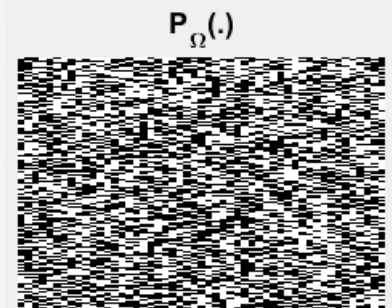
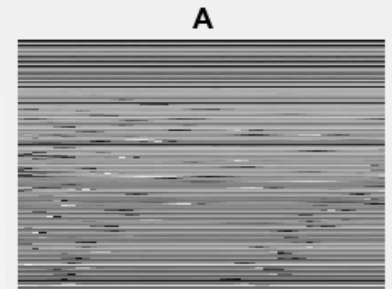
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# Demo: LRSLibrary for MC

[https://github.com/andrewssobral/lrslibrary/blob/master/algorithms/mc/GROUSE/run\\_alg.m](https://github.com/andrewssobral/lrslibrary/blob/master/algorithms/mc/GROUSE/run_alg.m)

```
1 % MC | GROUSE | Grassmannian Rank-One Update Subspace Estimation (Balzano et al. 2010)
2 % process_video('MC', 'GROUSE', 'dataset/demo.avi', 'output/demo_MC-GROUSE.avi');
3
4 [numr,numc] = size(M);
5 I = randi([0 1],numr,numc); % ones(size(M));
6 maxrank = 1;
7 maxCycles = 100;
8 step_size = 0.1;
9
10 [Usg, Vsg, err_reg] = grouse(M,I,numr,numc,maxrank,step_size,maxCycles);
11 L = Usg*Vsg';
12 S = M - L;
13
14 % show_2dvideo(M,m,n);
15 % show_2dvideo(M.*I,m,n);
16 % show_2dvideo(L,m,n);
17 % show_2dvideo(S,m,n);
```



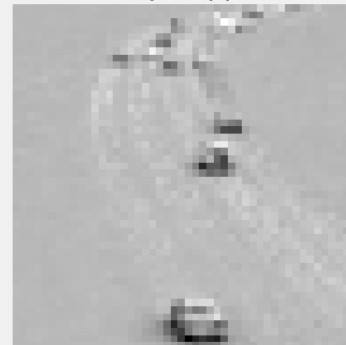
Input (I)



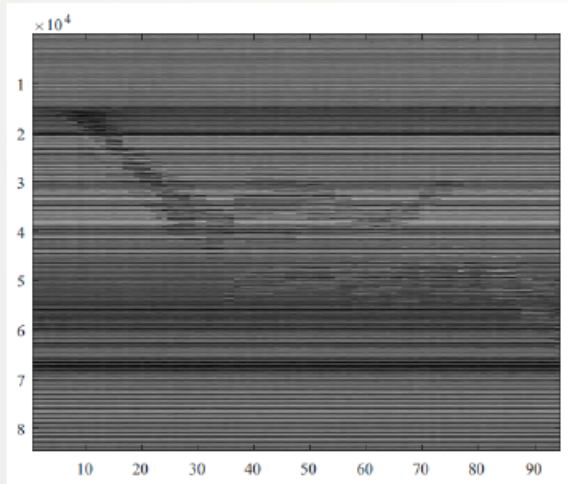
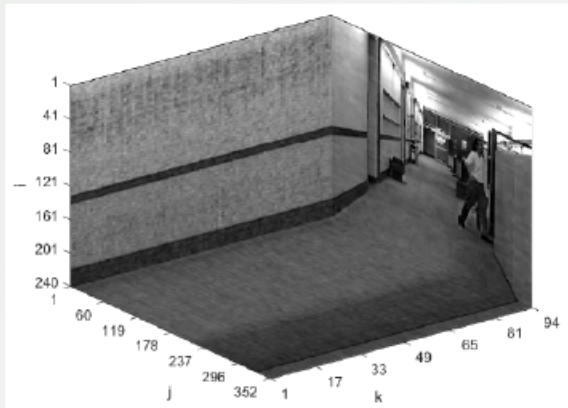
Low Rank (L)



Sparse (S)

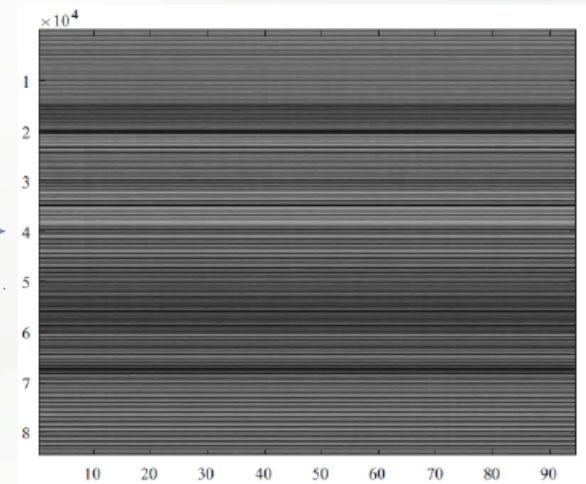
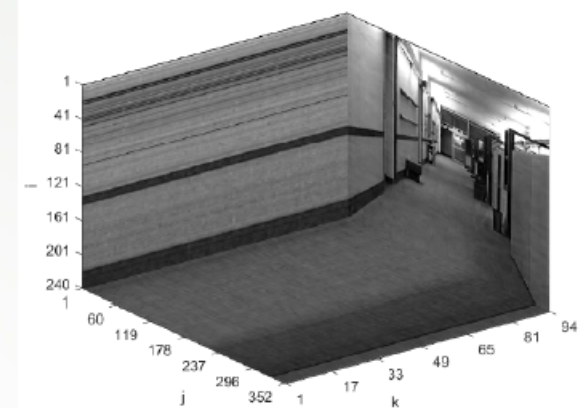


# MC for Background Model Initialization



$A$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{minimize } \|L\|_* \\ \text{subject to } P_\Omega(L) = P_\Omega(A) \end{array} \right\}$$



$L$

where  $P_\Omega(\cdot)$  is the sampling operator.

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- where **K** usually is equal to 1, 2, or 3. For **K = 3**, **M<sub>1</sub> ... M<sub>3</sub>** are commonly defined by:

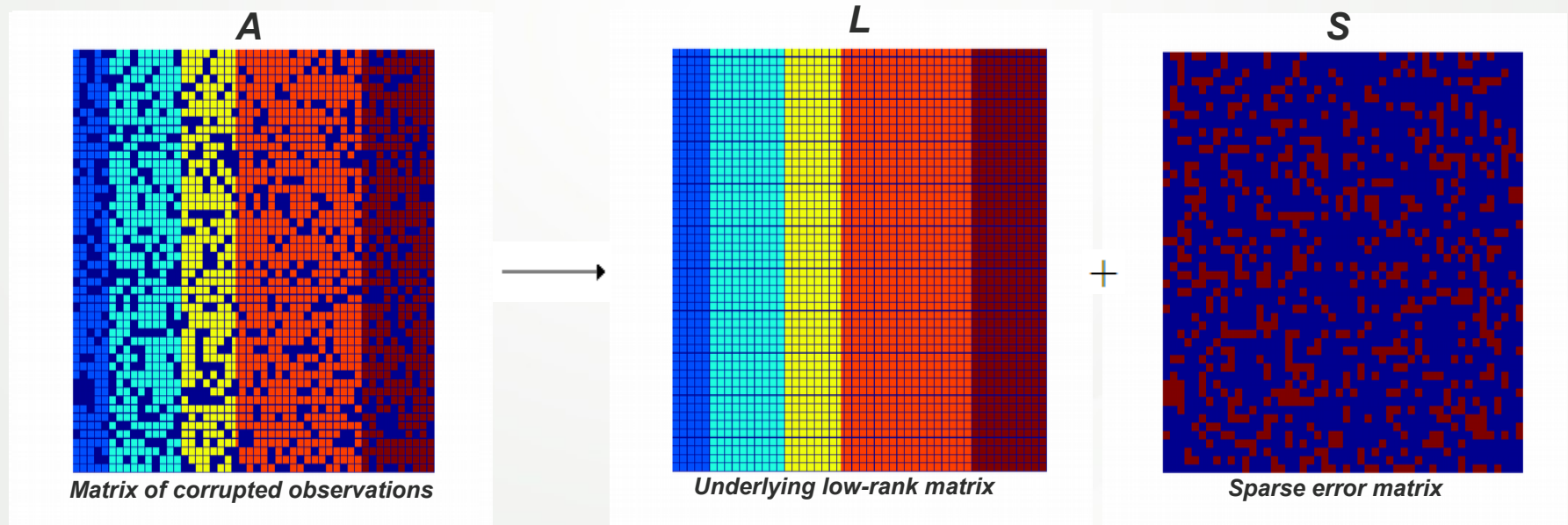
$$A = M_1 + M_2 + M_3 = L + S + E$$

- The characteristics of the matrices **M<sub>k</sub>** are as follows:
  - The first matrix **M<sub>1</sub> = L** is the low-rank component.
  - The second matrix **M<sub>2</sub> = S** is the sparse component.
  - The third matrix **M<sub>3</sub> = E** is generally the noise component.
- When **K = 1**, the matrix **A ≈ L** and **S** (implicit) can be given by **S = A – L**. e.g.: LRA, MC, NMF, ...
- When **K = 2**, **A = L + S**. This decomposition is called explicit. e.g.: RPCA, LRR, RNMF, ...
- When **K = 3**, **A = L + S + E**. This decomposition is called stable. e.g.: Stable RPCA / Stable PCP.

# Robust Principal Component Analysis (RPCA)

- RPCA can be formulated as the problem of decomposing a data matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  into two components  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{S}$ , where  $\mathbf{A}$  is the sum of a low-rank matrix  $\mathbf{L}$  and a sparse matrix  $\mathbf{S}$ :

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} + \mathbf{S}$$





# Robust Principal Component Analysis (RPCA)

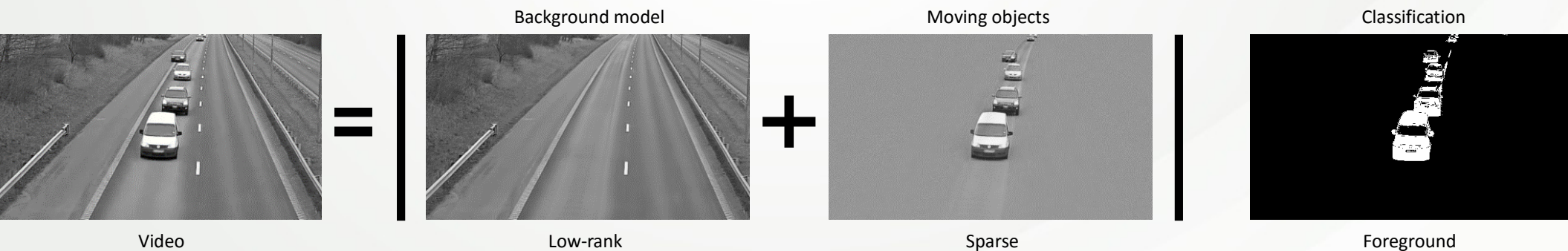
- Candès et al. (2009) show that  $L$  and  $S$  can be recovered by solving a convex optimization problem, named as Principal Component Pursuit (PCP):

minimize  $\|L\|_* + \lambda\|S\|_1$

subject to  $A = L + S$ , where  $\lambda$  is a weighting parameter.

$\|L\|_*$  enforces low rank in  $L$ .

$\|S\|_1$  enforces the sparsity in  $S$ .



# Solving PCP

One effective way to solve PCP for the case of large matrices is to use a standard augmented Lagrangian multiplier method (ALM) (Bertsekas, 1982).

$$\ell(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{Y}) \triangleq \|\mathbf{L}\|_* + \lambda \|\mathbf{S}\|_1 + \langle \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{M} - \mathbf{L} - \mathbf{S} \rangle + \mu \|\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{L} - \mathbf{S}\|_F^2 \quad (1)$$

and then minimizing it iteratively by setting

$$(\mathbf{L}^{(k)}, \mathbf{S}^{(k)}) = \arg \min_{(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S})} \ell(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{Y}^{(k)}) \quad (2)$$

and updating  $\mathbf{Y}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{Y}^{(k)} + \mu(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{L}^{(k)} - \mathbf{S}^{(k)})$ .

where:

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{S}} \ell(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{Y}) = \mathcal{S}_{\lambda\mu^{-1}}(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{L} + \mu^{-1}\mathbf{Y}) \quad (3)$$

$$\arg \min_{\mathbf{L}} \ell(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{Y}) = \mathcal{D}_{\mu^{-1}}(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{S} + \mu^{-1}\mathbf{Y}). \quad (4)$$

$$\mathcal{S}_{\tau}(x) \triangleq \text{sgn}(x) \max\{|x| - \tau, 0\}.$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{\tau}(\mathbf{A}) \triangleq \mathbf{U}\mathcal{S}_{\tau}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})\mathbf{V}^T$$

$\langle \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \rangle \triangleq \text{tr}(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{B})$ , where  $\text{tr}(\cdot)$  denotes the trace operator

$\lambda = 1/\sqrt{\max\{n_1, n_2\}}$  and  $\mu = (n_1 n_2)/(4 \|\mathbf{M}\|_1)$

---

**Algorithm 1** ALM using alternating directions [2], [3], [5]

---

- 1: **input:**  $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2}$
  - 2: **initialize:**  $\mathbf{S}^{(0)} = \mathbf{Y}^{(0)} = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $\lambda = 1/\sqrt{\max\{n_1, n_2\}}$ ,  
 $\mu = (n_1 n_2)/(4 \|\mathbf{M}\|_1)$ ,  $k = 0$
  - 3: **while not converged do**
  - 4:    $\mathbf{L}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\mu^{-1}}(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{S}^{(k)} + \mu^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{(k)})$
  - 5:    $\mathbf{S}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathcal{S}_{\lambda\mu^{-1}}(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{L}^{(k+1)} + \mu^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{(k)})$
  - 6:    $\mathbf{Y}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{Y}^{(k)} + \mu(\mathbf{M} - \mathbf{L}^{(k+1)} - \mathbf{S}^{(k+1)})$
  - 7: **end while**
  - 8: **output:**  $\mathbf{L}^{(k)}, \mathbf{S}^{(k)}$
- 

shrinkage operator  $\mathcal{D}_{\tau}(\cdot)$

$\lambda_1$	0	0
0	$\lambda_2$	0
0	0	<del><math>\lambda_3</math></del>

More information:

(Qiu and Vaswani, 2011), (Pope et al. 2011), (Rodríguez and Wohlberg, 2013)

# RPCA solvers

## Algorithm 1 (RPCA via Iterative Thresholding)

**Input:** Observation matrix  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , weights  $\lambda$  and  $\tau$ .

- 1: **while** not converged **do**
- 2:  $(U, S, V) = \text{svd}(Y_{k-1})$ ,
- 3:  $A_k = US_{\tau}[S]V^T$ ,
- 4:  $E_k = S_{\lambda\tau}[Y_{k-1}]$ ,
- 5:  $Y_k = Y_{k-1} + \delta_k(D - A_k - E_k)$ .
- 6: **end while**

**Output:**  $A \leftarrow A_k, E \leftarrow E_k$ .

## Algorithm 5 (RPCA via the Inexact ALM Method)

**Input:** Observation matrix  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\lambda$ .

- 1:  $Y_0 = D/J(D); E_0 = 0; \mu_0 > 0; \rho > 1; k = 0$ .
- 2: **while** not converged **do**
- 3: // Lines 4-5 solve  $A_{k+1} = \arg \min_A L(A, E_k, Y_k, \mu_k)$ .
- 4:  $(U, S, V) = \text{svd}(D - E_k + \mu_k^{-1}Y_k)$ ;
- 5:  $A_{k+1} = US_{\mu_k^{-1}}[S]V^T$ .
- 6: // Line 7 solves  $E_{k+1} = \arg \min_E L(A_{k+1}, E, Y_k, \mu_k)$ .
- 7:  $E_{k+1} = S_{\lambda\mu_k^{-1}}[D - A_{k+1} + \mu_k^{-1}Y_k]$ .
- 8:  $Y_{k+1} = Y_k + \mu_k(D - A_{k+1} - E_{k+1})$ .
- 9: Update  $\mu_k$  to  $\mu_{k+1}$ .
- 10:  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ .
- 11: **end while**

**Output:**  $(A_k, E_k)$ .

## Algorithm 2 (RPCA via Accelerated Proximal Gradient)

**Input:** Observation matrix  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $\lambda$ .

- 1:  $A_0 = A_{-1} = 0; E_0 = E_{-1} = 0; t_0 = t_{-1} = 1; \bar{\mu} > 0; \eta < 1$ .
- 2: **while** not converged **do**
- 3:  $Y_k^A = A_k + \frac{t_{k-1}-1}{t_k}(A_k - A_{k-1}), Y_k^E = E_k + \frac{t_{k-1}-1}{t_k}(E_k - E_{k-1})$ .
- 4:  $G_k^A = Y_k^A - \frac{1}{2}(Y_k^A + Y_k^E - D)$ .
- 5:  $(U, S, V) = \text{svd}(G_k^A), A_{k+1} = US_{\frac{\mu_k}{2}}[S]V^T$ .
- 6:  $G_k^E = Y_k^E - \frac{1}{2}(Y_k^A + Y_k^E - D)$ .
- 7:  $E_{k+1} = S_{\lambda\frac{\mu_k}{2}}[G_k^E]$ .
- 8:  $t_{k+1} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{4t_k^2 + 1}}{2}; \mu_{k+1} = \max(\eta\mu_k, \bar{\mu})$ .
- 9:  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ .
- 10: **end while**

**Output:**  $A \leftarrow A_k, E \leftarrow E_k$ .

*Robust PCA Algorithm Comparison*

Algorithm	Rank of estimate	Relative error in estimate of $A$	Time (s)
<a href="#">Singular Value Thresholding</a>	20	$3.4 \times 10^{-4}$	877
<a href="#">Accelerated Proximal Gradient</a>	20	$2.0 \times 10^{-5}$	43
<a href="#">Accelerated Proximal Gradient (with partial SVDs)</a>	20	$1.8 \times 10^{-5}$	8
<a href="#">Dual Method</a>	20	$1.6 \times 10^{-5}$	177
<a href="#">Exact ALM</a>	20	$7.6 \times 10^{-8}$	4
<a href="#">Inexact ALM</a>	20	$4.3 \times 10^{-8}$	2
<a href="#">Alternating Direction Methods</a>	20	$2.2 \times 10^{-5}$	5

# What about RPCA for very dynamic background?



# Decomposition into Additive Matrices

- The decomposition is represented in a general formulation:

$$A = \sum_{k=1}^K M_k$$

- where **K** usually is equal to 1, 2, or 3. For **K = 3**, **M<sub>1</sub> ... M<sub>3</sub>** are commonly defined by:

$$A = M_1 + M_2 + M_3 = L + S + E$$

- The characteristics of the matrices **M<sub>k</sub>** are as follows:
  - The first matrix **M<sub>1</sub> = L** is the low-rank component.
  - The second matrix **M<sub>2</sub> = S** is the sparse component.
  - The third matrix **M<sub>3</sub> = E** is generally the noise component.
- When **K = 1**, the matrix **A ≈ L** and **S** (implicit) can be given by **S = A – L**. e.g.: LRA, MC, NMF, ...
- When **K = 2**, **A = L + S**. This decomposition is called explicit. e.g.: RPCA, LRR, RNMF, ...
- When **K = 3**, **A = L + S + E**. This decomposition is called stable. e.g.: Stable RPCA / Stable PCP.

# Stable PCP

- The PCP is limited, the low-rank component needs to be exactly low-rank and the sparse component needs to be exactly sparse, but in real applications the observations are often corrupted by noise.
- Zhou et al. (2010) proposed a stable version of PCP, named Stable PCP (SPCP), adding a third component that guarantee stable and accurate recovery in the presence of entry-wise noise. The observation matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is represented as  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L} + \mathbf{S} + \mathbf{E}$ , where  $\mathbf{E}$  is a noise term.

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize} && \|L\|_* + \lambda_1 \|S\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|E\|_F^2 \\ &\text{subject to} && A = L + S + E \end{aligned}$$

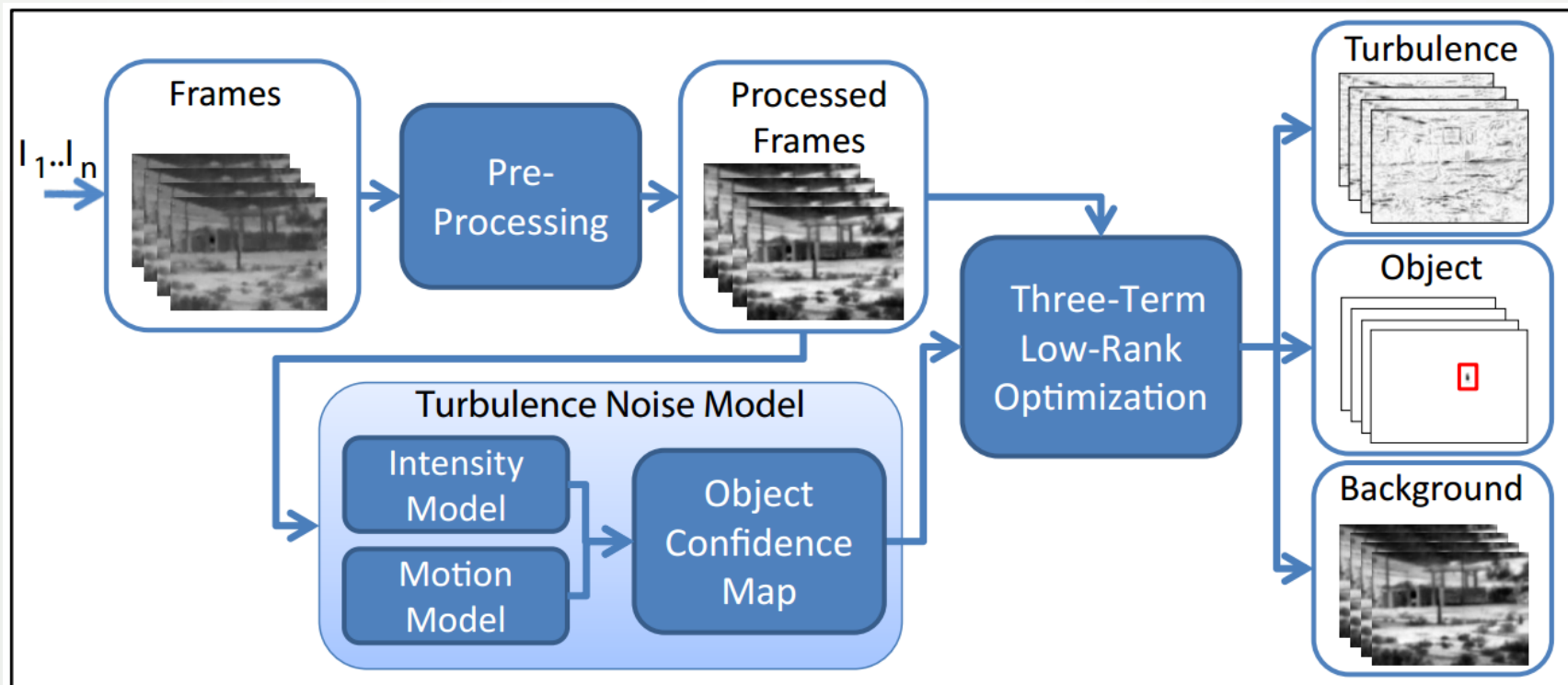


# Constrained RPCA (example 1)

- Some authors added an additional constraint to improve the background/foreground separation:
  - Oreifej et al. (2013) use a turbulence model that quantify the scene's motion in terms of the motion of the particles which are driven by dense optical flow.

minimize  $\|L\|_* + \lambda_1 \|\Pi(S)\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|E\|_F^2$

subject to  $A = L + S + E$ , where  $\Pi(\cdot)$  represents the confidence map.

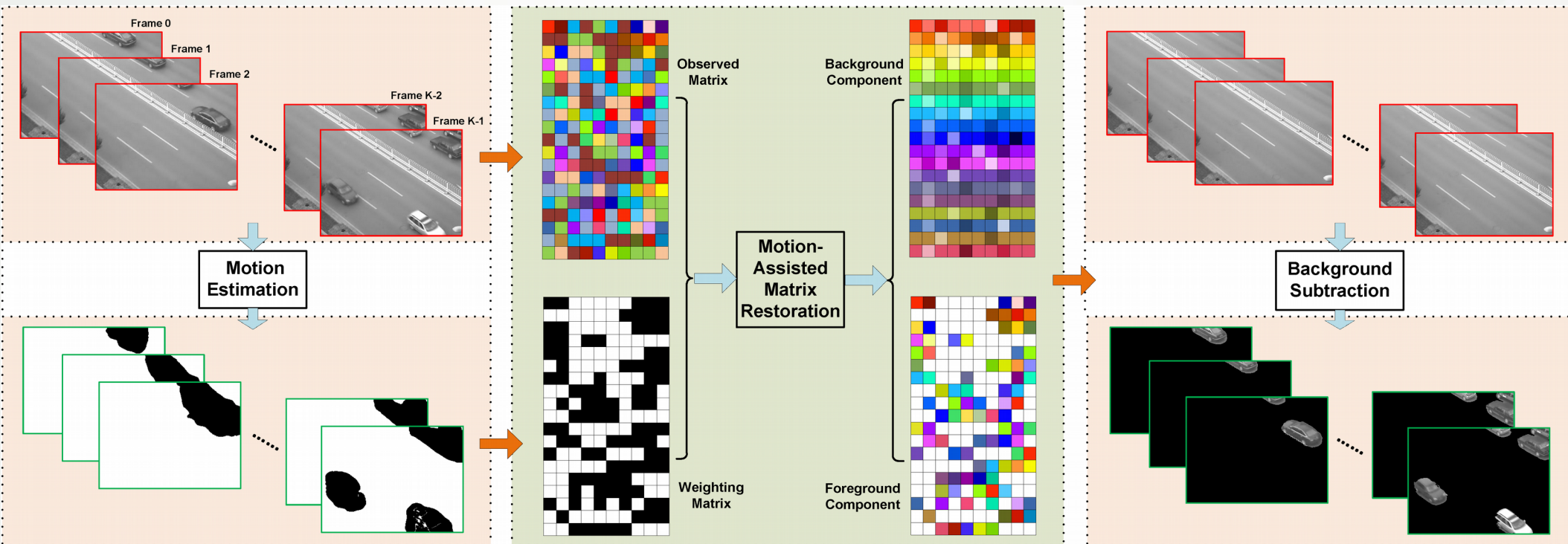


# Constrained RPCA (example 2)

- Yang et al. (2015) propose a robust motion-assisted matrix restoration (RMAMR) where a dense motion field is estimated for each frame by dense optical flow, and mapped into a weighting matrix which indicates the likelihood that each pixel belongs to the background.

$$\text{minimize} \quad \|L\|_* + \lambda_1 \|S\|_1 + \lambda_2 \|E\|_F^2$$

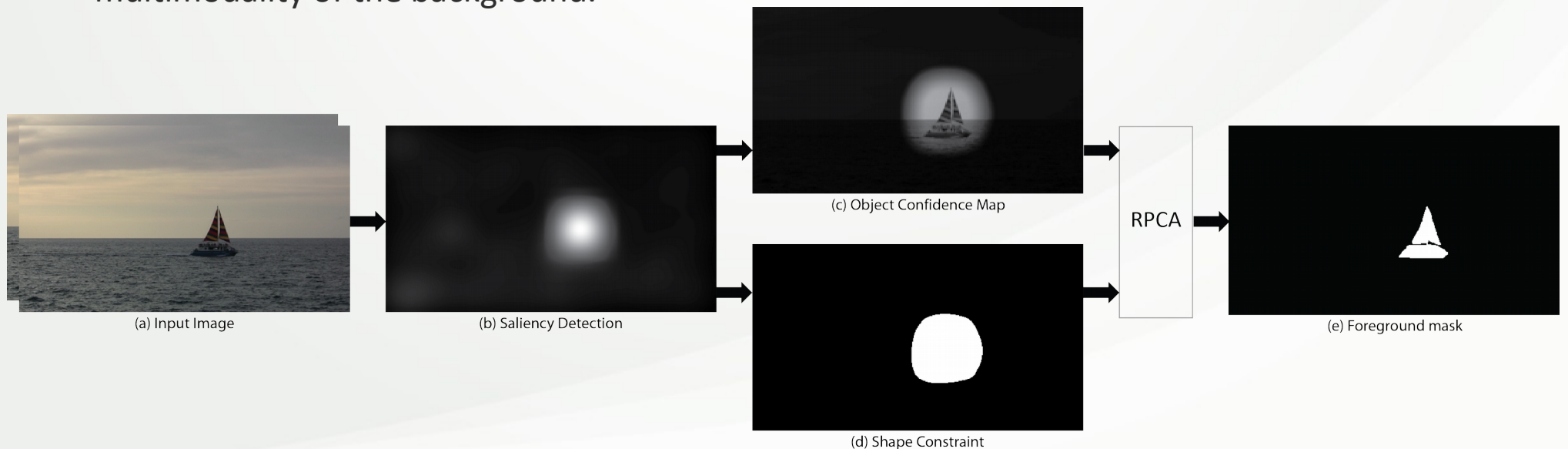
subject to  $W \circ A = W \circ (L + S + E)$ , where  $W$  represents the weighting matrix.





# Double-constrained RPCA?

- Sobral et al. (2015) propose a double-constrained Robust Principal Component Analysis (RPCA), named SCM-RPCA (Shape and Confidence Map-based RPCA), is proposed to improve the object foreground detection in maritime scenes. It combine some ideas of Oreifej et al. (2013) and Yang et al. (2015).
  - The weighting matrix proposed by Yang et al. (2015) can be used as a shape constraint (or region constraint), while the confidence map proposed by Oreifej et al. (2013) reinforces the pixels belonging from the moving objects.
- The original 3WD was modified adding the shape constraint as has been done in the RMAMR. We chose to modify the 3WD instead of RMAMR due its capacity to deal more robustly with the multimodality of the background.



# Solving the SCM-RPCA

Author(s)	Minimization
Oreifej et al. [12]	$\min_{L,S,E} \ L\ _* + \lambda \ \Pi(S)\ _1 + \gamma \ E\ _F^2$ $\text{s.t. } A = L + S + E$
Yang et al. [15]	$\min_{L,S,E} \ L\ _* + \lambda \ S\ _1 + \gamma \ E\ _F^2$ $\text{s.t. } W \circ A = W \circ (L + S + E)$
<b>SCM-RPCA</b>	$\min_{L,S,E} \ L\ _* + \lambda \ \Pi(S)\ _1 + \gamma \ E\ _F^2$ $\text{s.t. } A = L + W \circ S + E$

## Algorithm 1 Algorithm for solving SCM-RPCA.

Input:

Observation  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{mn \times k}$

Confidence Map  $\Pi \in \mathbb{R}^{mn \times k}$

Shape Constraint  $W \in [0, 1]^{mn \times k}$

Output:

Background  $L \in \mathbb{R}^{mn \times k}$

Foreground  $S \in \mathbb{R}^{mn \times k}$

Noise  $E \in \mathbb{R}^{mn \times k}$

while not converged do

$$\Upsilon = \beta_t^{-1} Y_t$$

$$URV^T = \text{svd}(A - L_t - E_t + \Upsilon)$$

$$L_{t+1} = U s_{(1/\beta_t)}(R) V^T$$

$$S_{t+1} = W \circ s_{(\lambda/\beta_t \Pi)}(A - L_{t+1} - E_t + \Upsilon)$$

$$\kappa = (1 + \frac{2\gamma}{\beta_t})^{-1}$$

$$E_{t+1} = \kappa (A - L_{t+1} - S_{t+1} + \Upsilon)$$

$$Z = A_{t+1} - L_{t+1} - S_{t+1} - E_{t+1}$$

$$Y_{t+1} = Y_t + \beta_t Z$$

$$\beta_{t+1} = \rho \beta_t$$

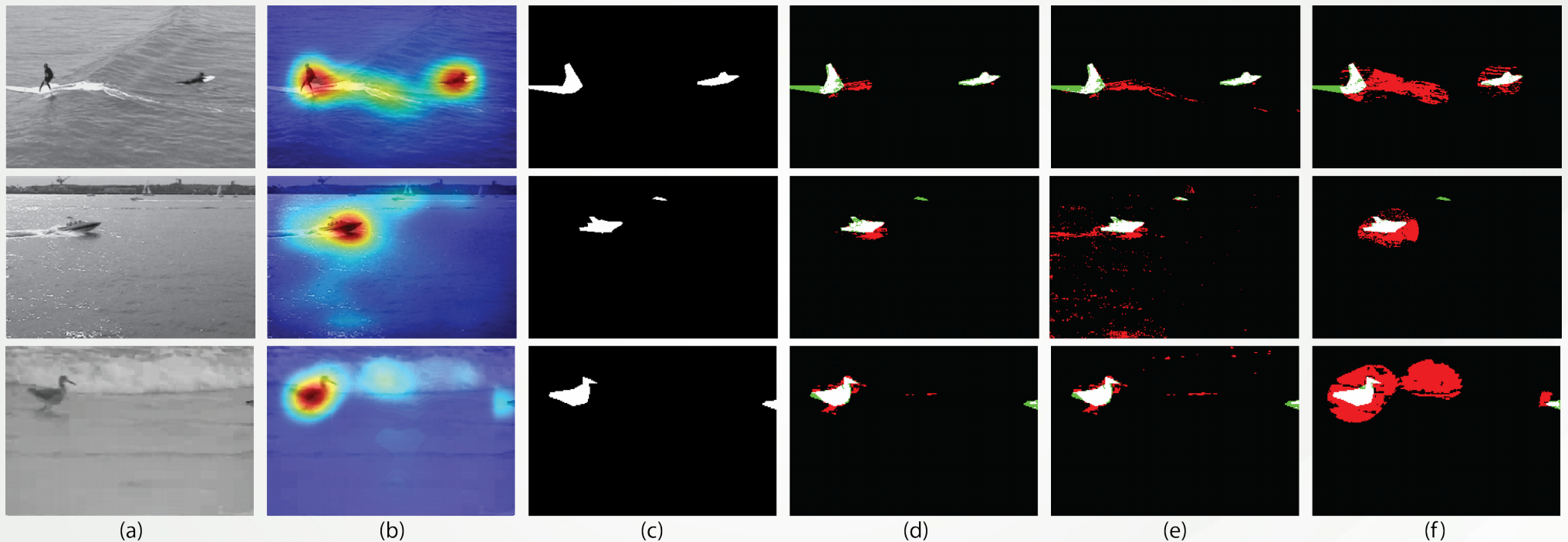
$$t = t + 1$$

end

Table 1. Comparison of the proposed method and related works.

Is important to note that the double constraints (confidence map and shape) can be built from two different types of source (i.e. from spatial, temporal, or spatio-temporal information), but in this work we focus only on spatial saliency maps.

# SCM-RPCA - Visual results on UCSD data set

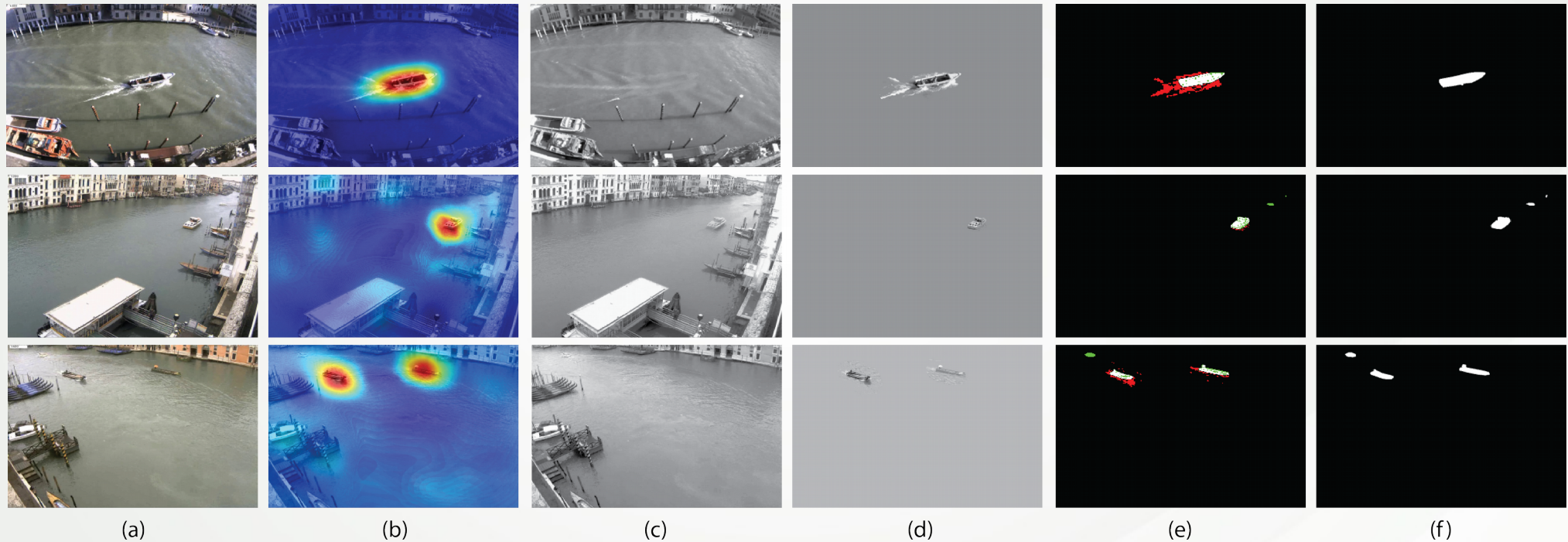


From left to right: (a) input frame, (b) saliency map generated by BMS, (c) ground truth, (d) proposed approach, (e) 3WD, and (f) RMAMR.

Dataset:

[http://www.svcl.ucsd.edu/projects/background/\\_subtraction/ucsdbsub/\\_dataset.htm](http://www.svcl.ucsd.edu/projects/background/_subtraction/ucsdbsub/_dataset.htm)

# SCM-RPCA - Visual results on MarDT data set



Is important to note that in the UCSD scenes we have used the original spatial saliency map provided by BMS, while for the MarDT scenes we have subtracted its temporal median due to the high saliency from the buildings around the river.

Dataset:

<http://www.dis.uniroma1.it/~labrococo/MAR/index.htm>

# Infinity and beyond

## Decomposition in Additive Matrices

$$\min \text{rank}(A)$$

$$\text{s.t. } P_{\Omega}(A) = P_{\Omega}(L)$$

“completion”

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^N A_i = A_1 + \dots + A_N \quad N\text{-term decomposition}$$

$$A = L + S + E$$

three-term decomposition  
“stable”

$$A = XL + S$$

two-term decomposition  
“generic”

$$L = L_1 L_2 \text{ or } L_1 + L_2$$

$$S = S_1 S_2 \text{ or } S_1 + S_2$$

“reinforced”

$$L = \Omega(L) \text{ or } S = \Omega(S)$$

“constrained” or “structured”  
sparsity/low-rank

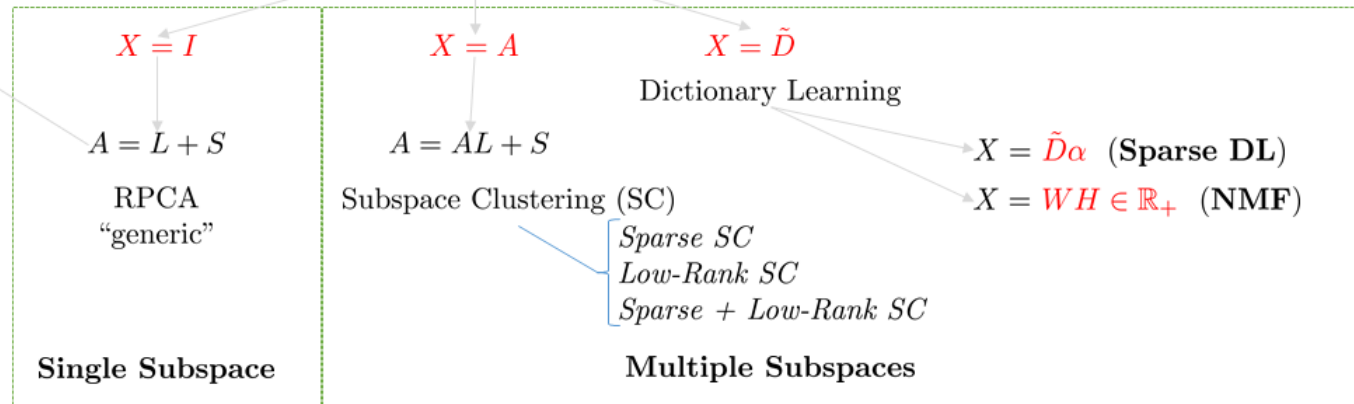
$$A_n = L_n + S_n + E_n$$

“online” or “incremental”

$$A = \Phi(L + S + E)$$

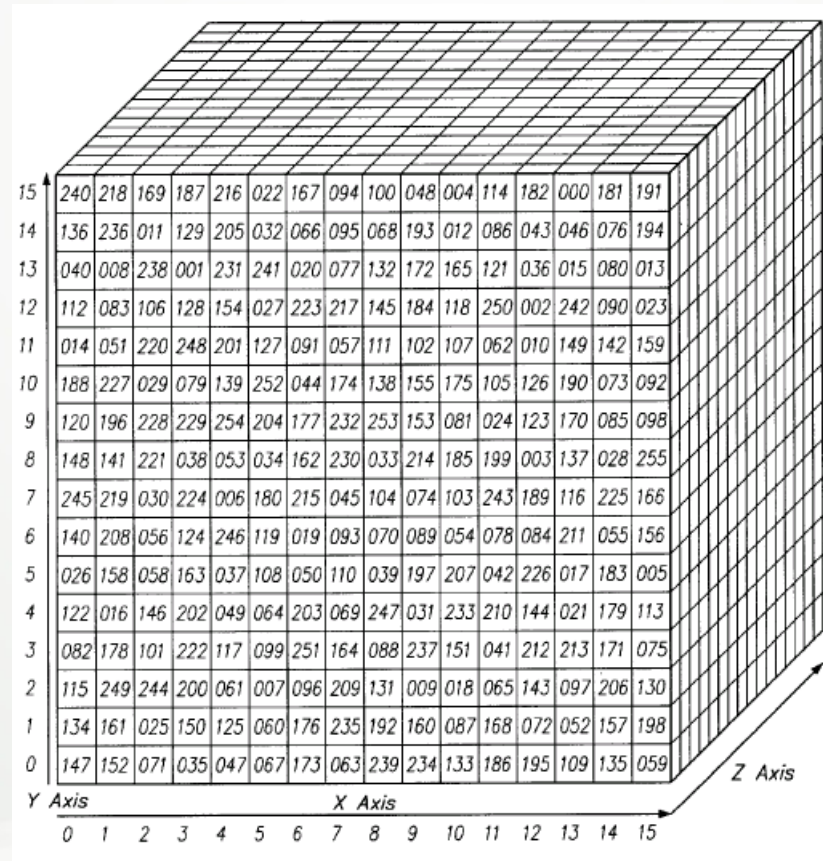
“compressive sensing”

RPCA  
“stable”



**Legend:**  
*L* low-rank matrix  
*S* sparse matrix  
*E* noise/outlier matrix

# What about multidimensional data?

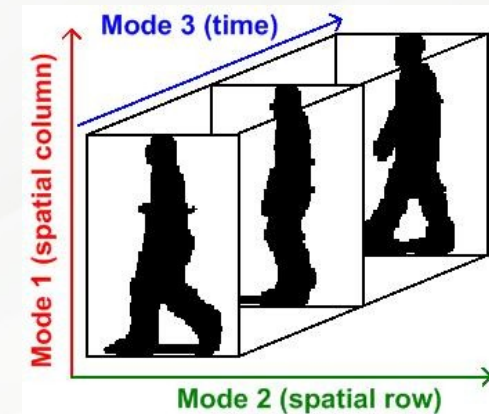
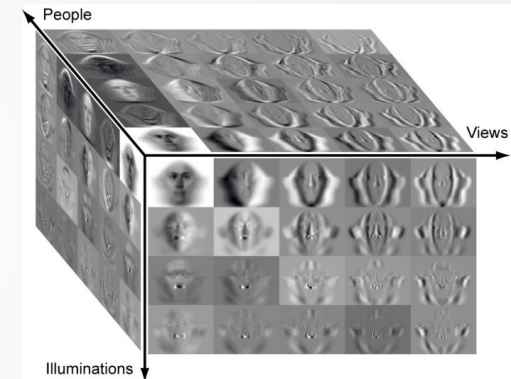
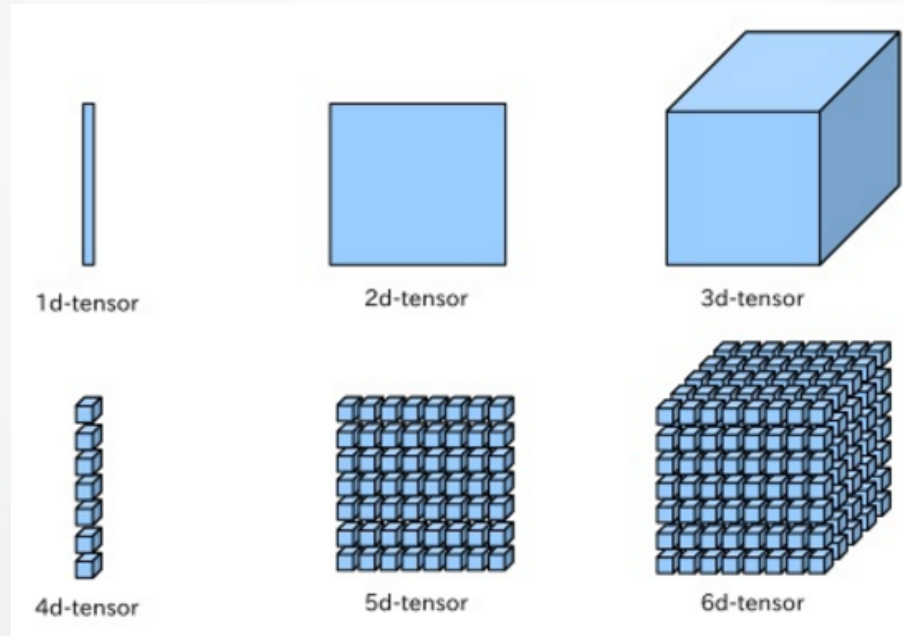
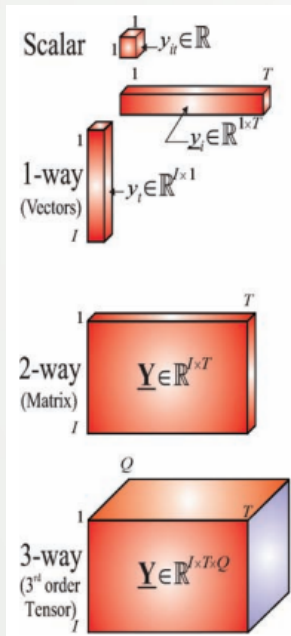


# Introduction to tensors

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# Introduction to tensors

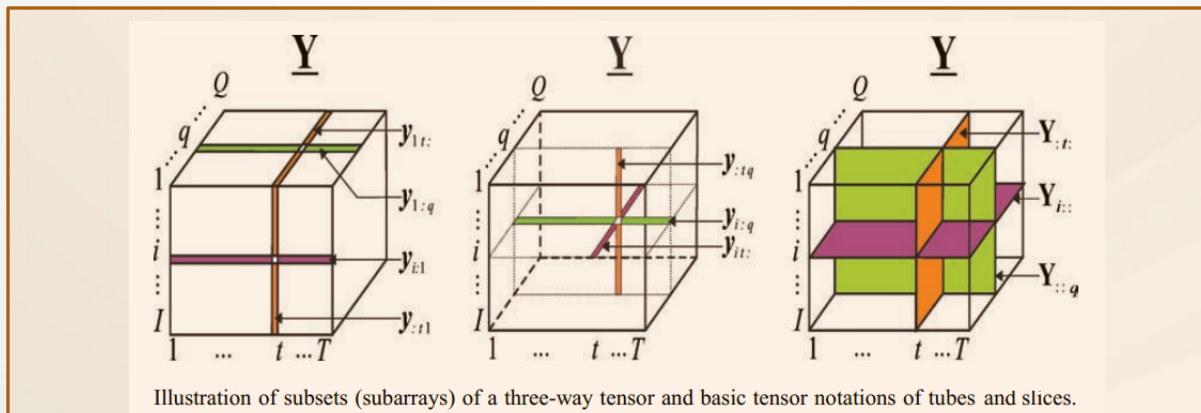
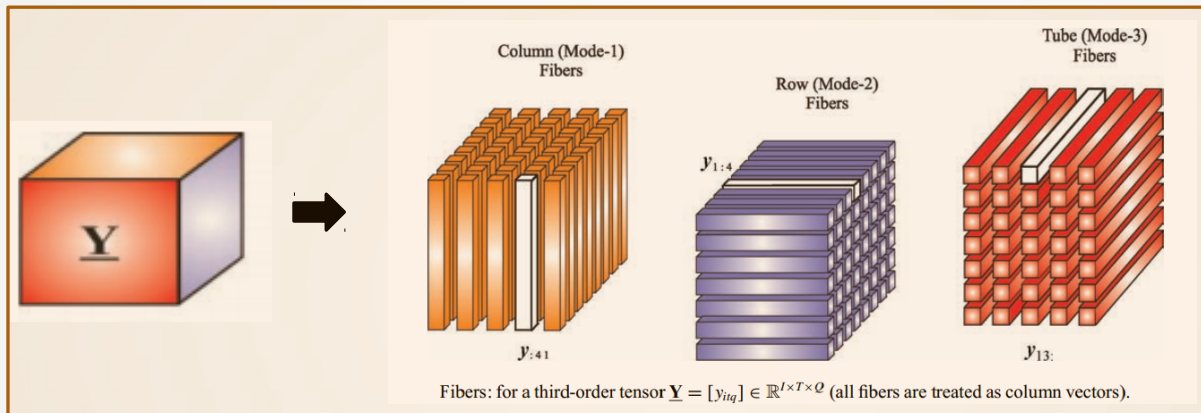
- Tensors are simply mathematical objects that can be used to describe physical properties. In fact tensors are merely a generalization of scalars, vectors and matrices; a scalar is a zero rank tensor, a vector is a first rank tensor and a matrix is the second rank tensor.





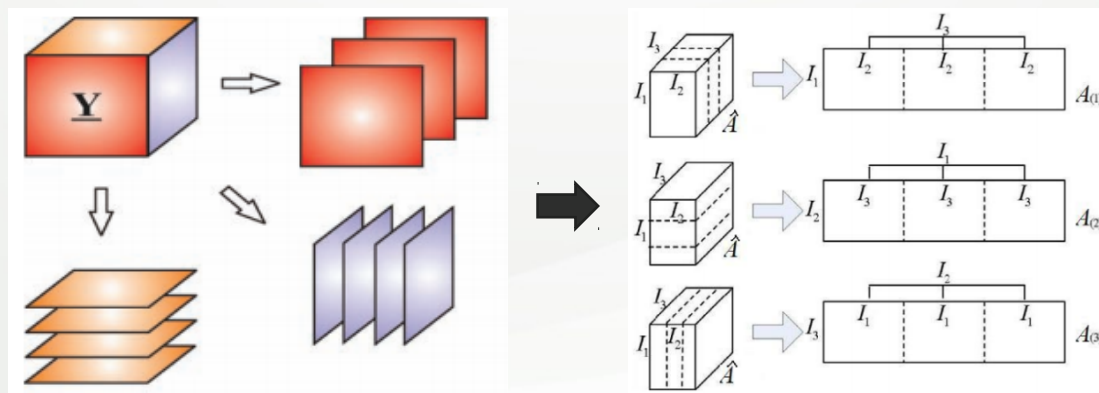
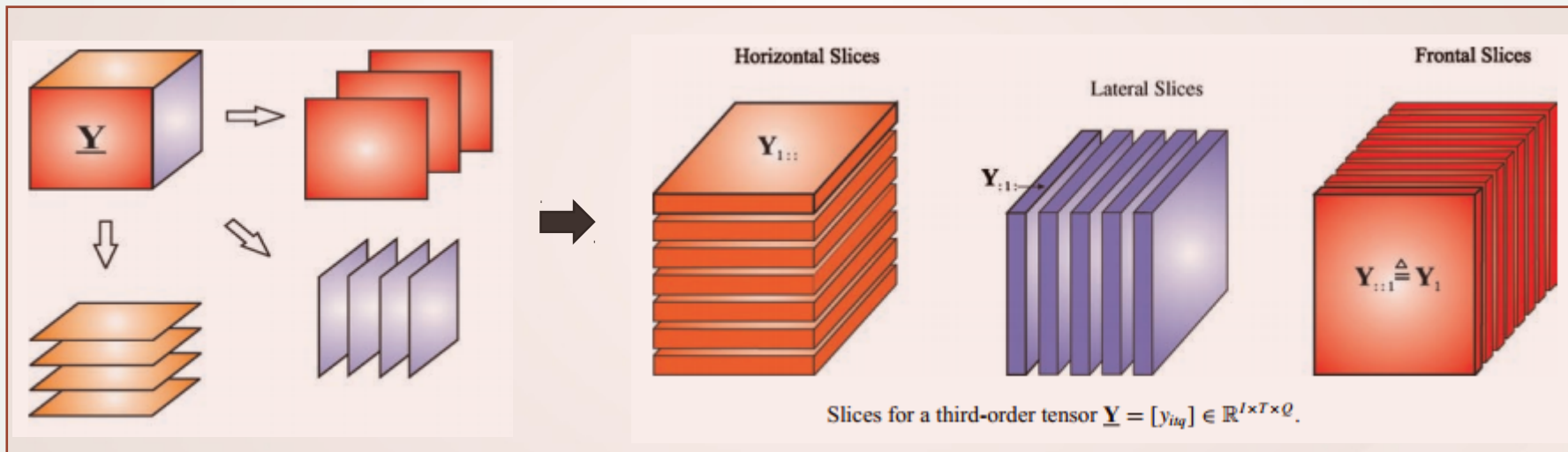
# Introduction to tensors

- **Subarrays, tubes and slices** of a 3rd order tensor.



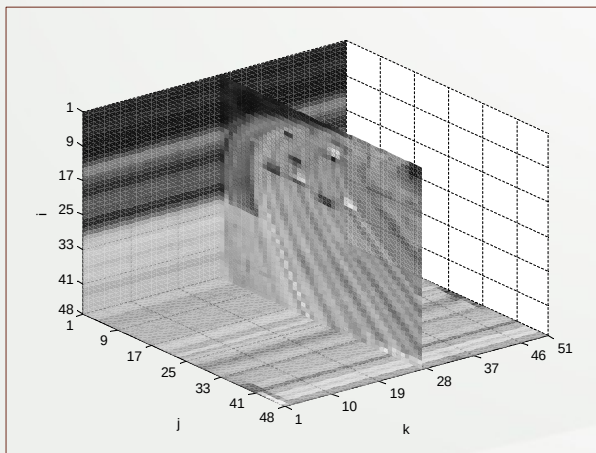
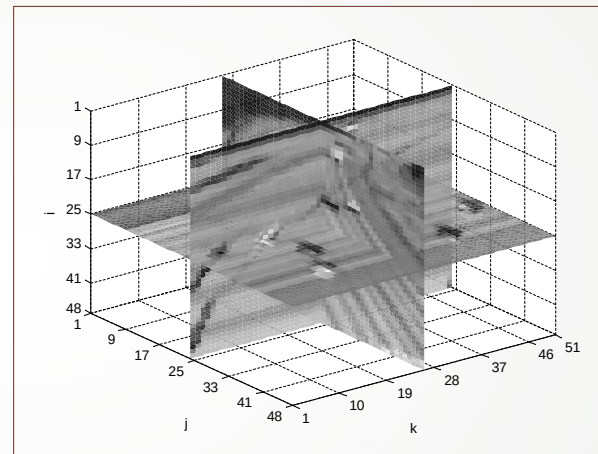
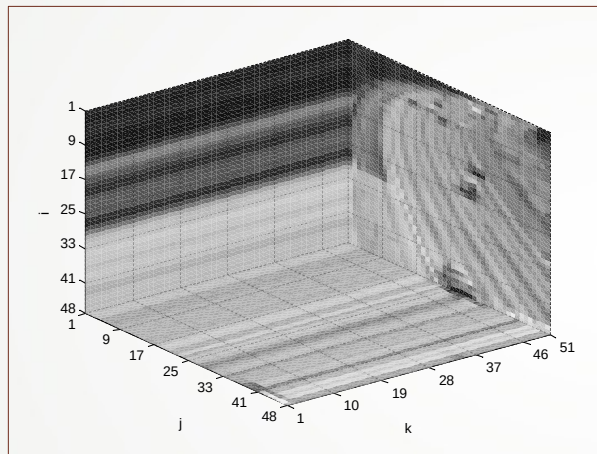
# Introduction to tensors

- **Matricization and unfolding** a 3rd order tensor.

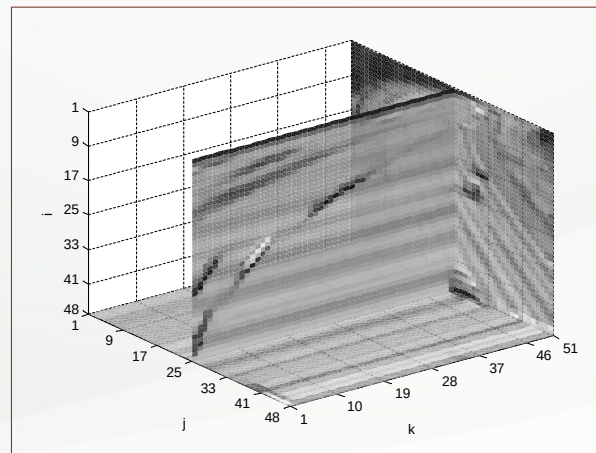


# Introduction to tensors

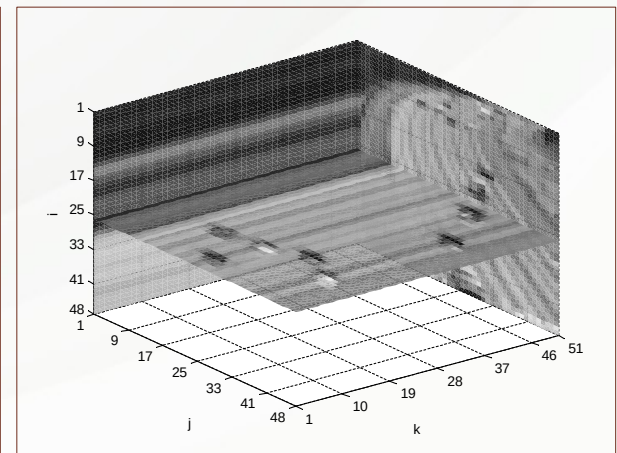
- **Horizontal, vertical and frontal** slices from a 3rd order tensor.



Frontal



Vertical

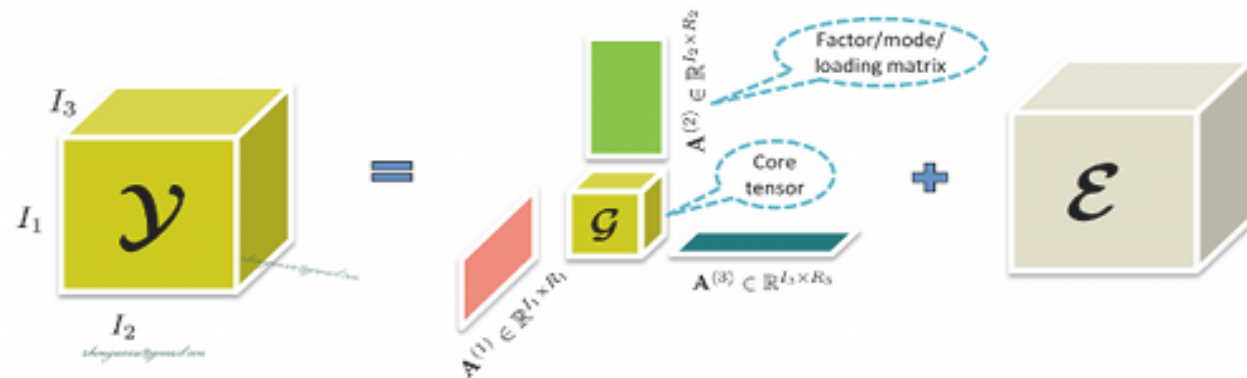


Horizontal

# Tensor decomposition methods

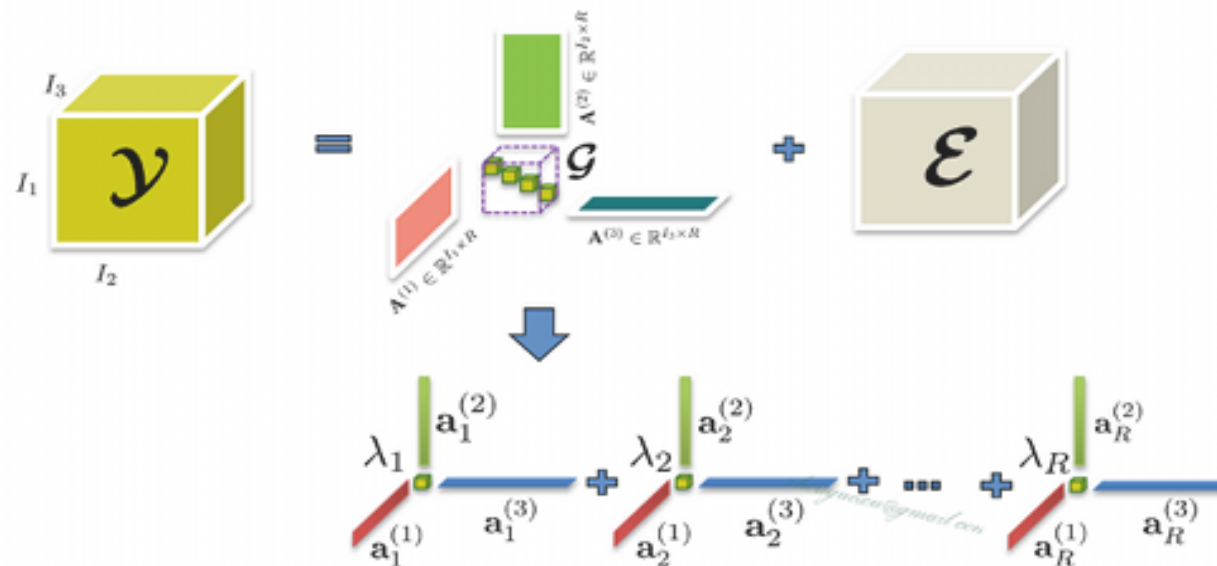
- Approaches:
  - Tucker / HOSVD
  - CANDECOMP-PARAFAC (CP)
  - Hierarchical Tucker (HT)
  - Tensor-Train decomposition (TT)
  - NTF (Non-negative Tensor Factorization)
  - NTD (Non-negative Tucker Decomposition)
  - NCP (Non-negative CP Decomposition)

## Tucker Decomposition



$$\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{G} \times_1 \mathbf{A}^{(1)} \times_2 \mathbf{A}^{(2)} \times_3 \mathbf{A}^{(3)} + \mathcal{E}$$

## CP Decomposition



- $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R$ .
- $\mathcal{G}$  is super diagonal.

$$\mathcal{Y} = \sum_r \lambda_r \mathbf{a}_r^{(1)} \circ \mathbf{a}_r^{(2)} \circ \mathbf{a}_r^{(3)} + \mathcal{E}$$

# Tucker / HoSVD

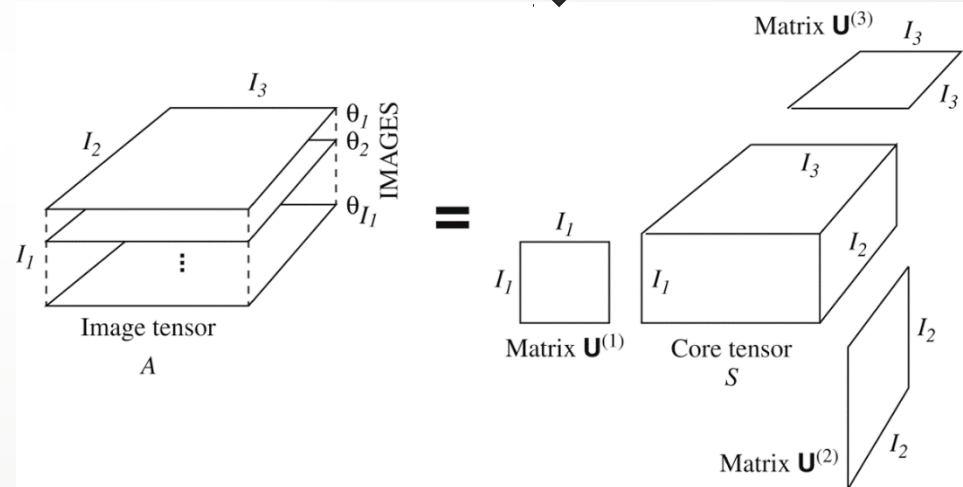
## The Higher Order Singular Value Decomposition (HOSVD)

The HOSVD of a tensor  $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \dots \times n_d}$  involves computing the matrix SVDs of its modal unfoldings  $\mathcal{A}_{(1)}, \dots, \mathcal{A}_{(d)}$ . This results in a representation of  $\mathcal{A}$  as a sum of rank-1 tensors.

```
function [S,U] = HOSVD(A)
% A is an n(1)-by-...-by-n(d) tensor.
% U is a length-d cell array with the
% property that U{k} is the left singular
% vector matrix of A's mode-k unfolding.
% S is an n(1)-by-...-by-n(d) tensor given by
% A x1 U{1} x2 U{2} ... xd U{d}

S = A;
for k=1:length(A.size)
    C = tenmat(A,k);
    [U{k},Sigma,V] = svd(C.data);
    S = ttm(S,U{k}',k);
end
```

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{S} \times_{n=1}^N U^{(n)}$$



# CP

- The CP model is a special case of the Tucker model, where the core tensor is superdiagonal and the number of components in the factor matrices is the same.

Solving by ALS (alternating least squares) framework

```
n = [ 5 6 7 ]; rmax = 35;
% Generate a random tensor...
A = tenrand(n);
for r = 1:rmax
    % Find the closest length-r ktensor...
    X = cp_als(A,r);
    % Display the fit...
    E = double(X)-double(A);
    fit = norm(reshape(E,prod(n),1));
    fprintf('r = %1d, fit = %5.3e\n',r,fit);
end
```

## The CP Approximation Problem

Given  $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3}$  and  $r$ , determine  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^r$ ,  $F \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times r}$ ,  $G \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2 \times r}$ , and  $H \in \mathbb{R}^{n_3 \times r}$  so that

$$\mathcal{A} \approx [[\lambda; F, G, H]] = \mathcal{X}.$$

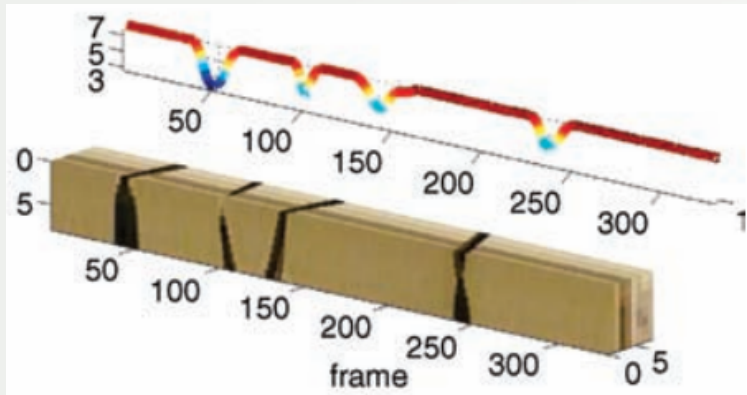
## What About $r$ ?

In the CP approximation problem we have assumed that  $r$ , the length of the approximating ktensor, is given:

$$\mathcal{A} \approx \mathcal{X} = \sum_{j=1}^r \lambda_j U_1(:,j) \circ \cdots \circ U_d(:,j)$$

We can think of  $\mathcal{X}$  as a rank- $r$  approximation to  $\mathcal{A}$ .

# Background Model Estimation via Tensor Factorization



(b) A  $8 \times 8 \times 3 \times 330$  sub-tensor at pixel (49,65)



(a) Background of the Hall Monitor sequence

Listing 7.13 Background estimation for the HallMonitor sequence.

```

1 % Copyright 2008 by Anh Huy Phan and Andrzej Cichocki
2 % Load Hall sequence
3 clear
4 load Hall4Dtensor;
5 %% Process full block
6 sT = size(T);
7 blksize = 8;
8 d = zeros(sT(4), prod(sT(1:2))/blksize^2);
9 kblk = 0;
10 xy = zeros(1,2);
11 for xu = 1:8:sT(1)-7
12     for yu = 1:8:sT(2)-7
13         kblk = kblk + 1;
14         Tblk = T(xu:xu+blksize-1, yu:yu+blksize-1, :, :);
15
16         %% Factorize subtensor with Parafac algorithms R = 1
17         Yblk = permute(tensor(Tblk), [4 1 2 3]);
18         options = struct('verbose',1,'tol',1e-6,'maxiters',500,...
19             'init',2,'nonlinearproj',1);
20         [X_hals,Uinit,A_,ldam,iter] = parafac_hals(Yblk,1,options);
21         d(:,kblk) = double(A_{1});
22         xy(kblk,:) = [xu yu];
23     end
24 end
25
26 %% Find stationary blocks and build background image
27 maxd = max(d); mind = min(d);
28 thresh = 0.005;
29 Imbgr = zeros(sT(1:3));
30 for k = 1:size(d,2);
31     edges = [mind(k):thresh:maxd(k) maxd(k)+eps] ;
32     [n,bin] = histc(d(:,k), edges);
33     m = mode(bin);
34     indbgr = find((d(:,k) >= edges(m)) & (d(:,k) <= edges(m+1)));
35     bgrblk = median(T(xy(k,1):xy(k,1)+blksize-1, ...
36         xy(k,2):xy(k,2)+blksize-1, :, indbgr), 4);
37     Imbgr(xy(k,1):xy(k,1)+blksize-1, xy(k,2):xy(k,2)+blksize-1, :) = bgrblk;
38 end
39
40 %% Display the estimated background image
41 imshow(Imbgr)

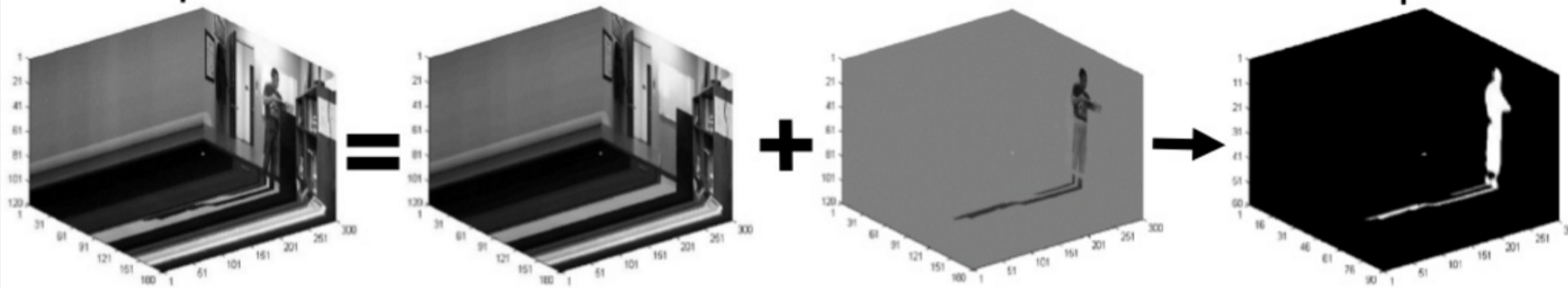
```



# Background Subtraction via Tensor Decomposition



Frontal slices



Input  
 $\mathcal{Y}$

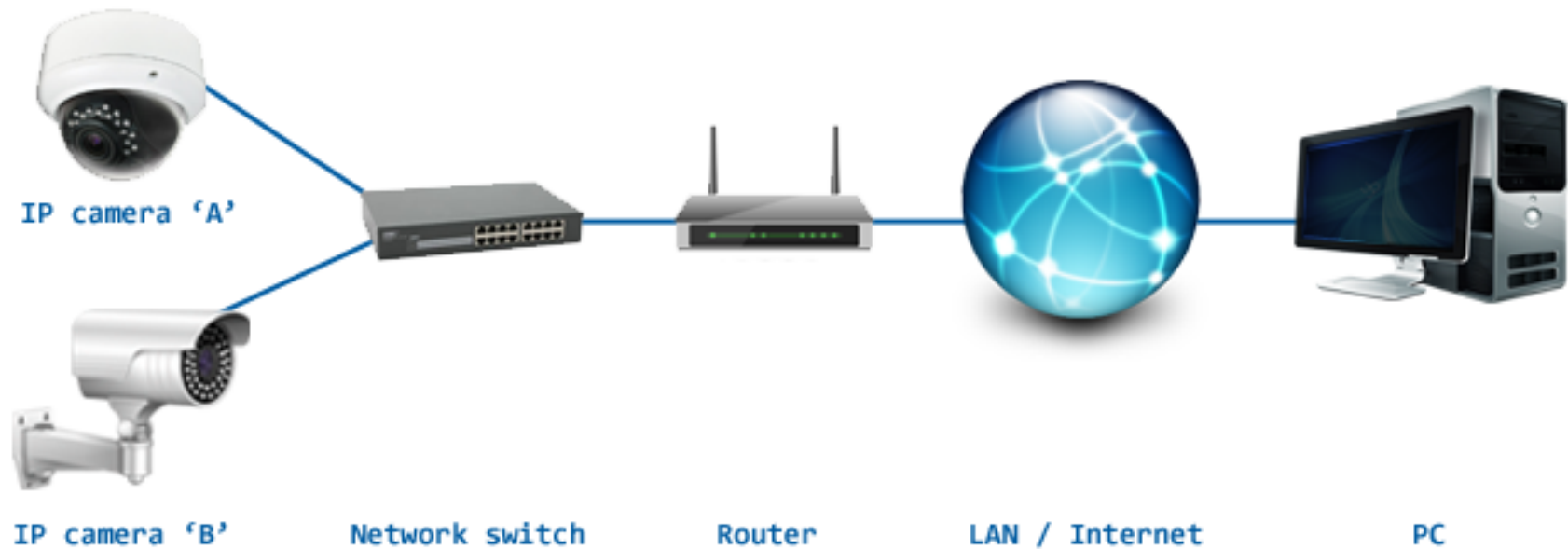
Low-rank  
 $\mathcal{X}$

Sparse  
 $\mathcal{E}$

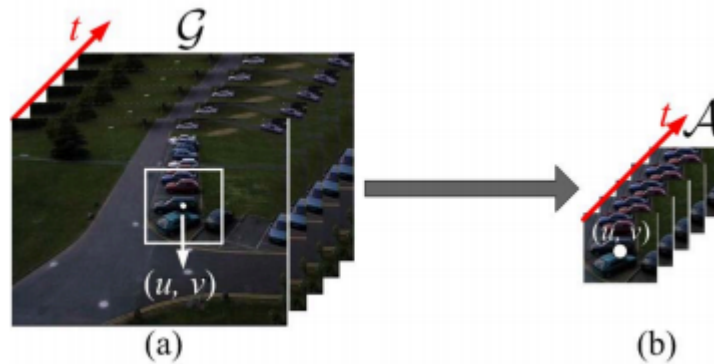
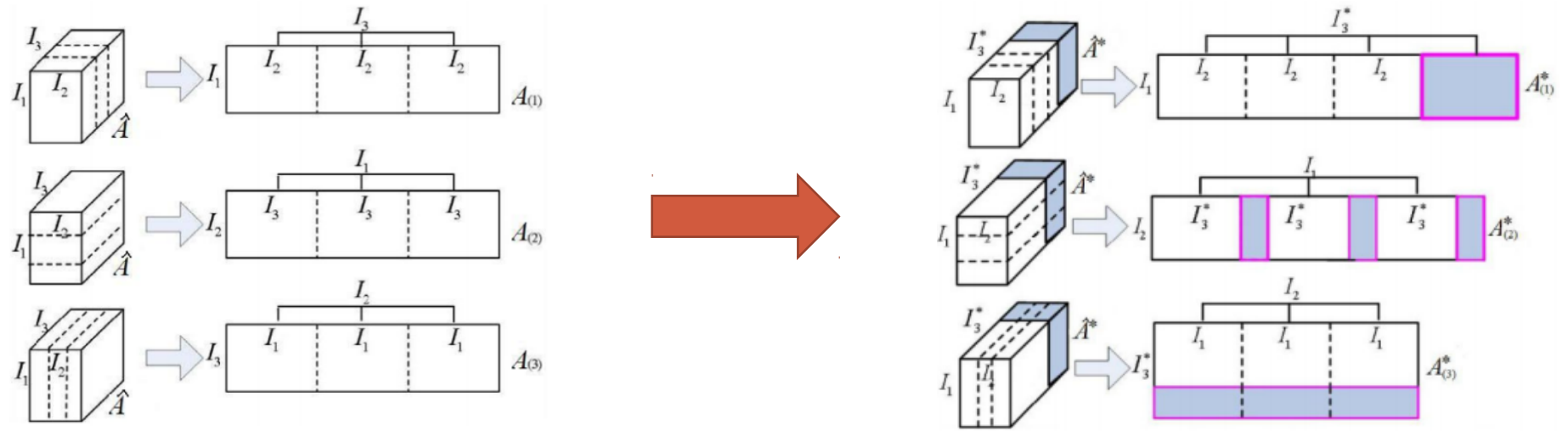
Mask

# Incremental Tensor Learning

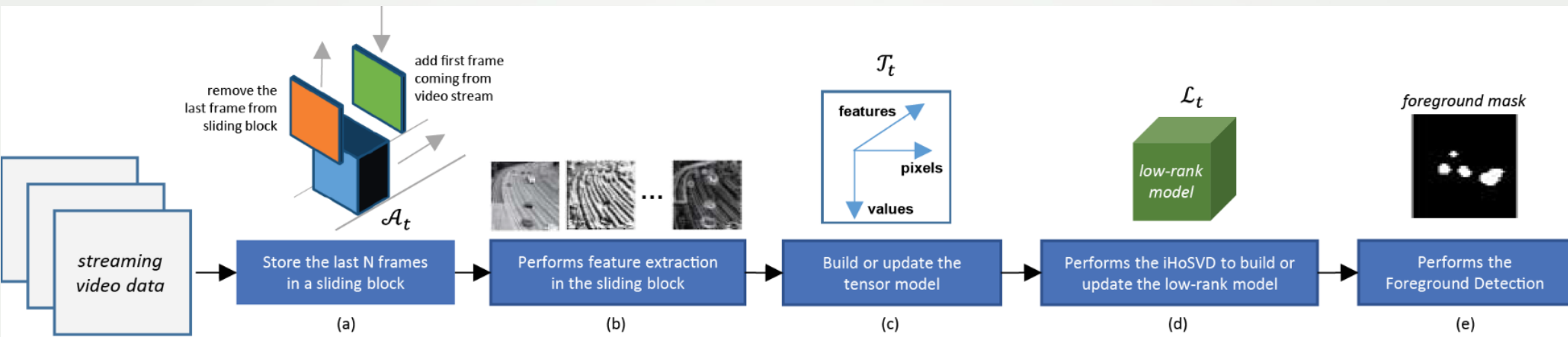
Interested in stream processing?



# Incremental Tensor Subspace Learning



# Incremental and Multifeature



## Algorithm 1 Proposed iHoSVD algorithm.

```

function INCREMENTALHOSVD( $\mathcal{T}_t, r^{(n)}, t^{(n)}$ )
     $\mathcal{S}_t \leftarrow \mathcal{T}_t$ 
    if  $t = 0$  then ▷ Performs the standard rank- $r$  SVD
        for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
             $[\mathbf{U}_t^{(n)}, \mathbf{\Sigma}_t^{(n)}, \mathbf{V}_t^{(n)}] \leftarrow \text{SVD}(\mathcal{T}_t^{(n)}, r^{(n)}, t^{(n)})$ 
        end for
    else ▷ Performs the incremental rank- $r$  SVD
        for  $i = 1$  to  $n$  do
             $[\mathbf{U}_t^{(n)}, \mathbf{\Sigma}_t^{(n)}, \mathbf{V}_t^{(n)}] \leftarrow \text{iSVD}(\mathcal{T}_t^{(n)}, r^{(n)}, t^{(n)}, \mathbf{U}_{t-1}^{(n)}, \mathbf{\Sigma}_{t-1}^{(n)}, \mathbf{V}_{t-1}^{(n)})$ 
        end for
    end if
     $\mathcal{S}_t \leftarrow \mathcal{T}_t \times_1 (\mathbf{U}_t^{(1)})^T \dots \times_n (\mathbf{U}_t^{(n)})^T$  ▷  $\times_n$  denotes the  $n$ -mode tensor times matrix
    return  $\mathcal{S}_t, \mathbf{U}_t^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{U}_t^{(n)}$ 
end function
    
```

# Incremental and Multifeature

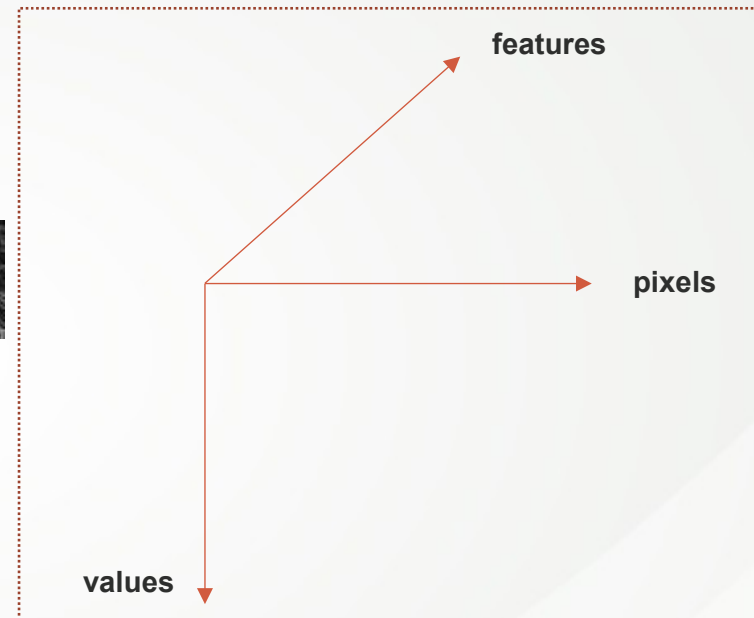
A total of 8 features are extracted:

- 1) red channel,
- 2) green channel,
- 3) blue channel,
- 4) gray-scale,
- 5) local binary patterns (LBP),
- 6) spatial gradients in horizontal direction,
- 7) spatial gradients in vertical direction, and
- 8) spatial gradients magnitude.



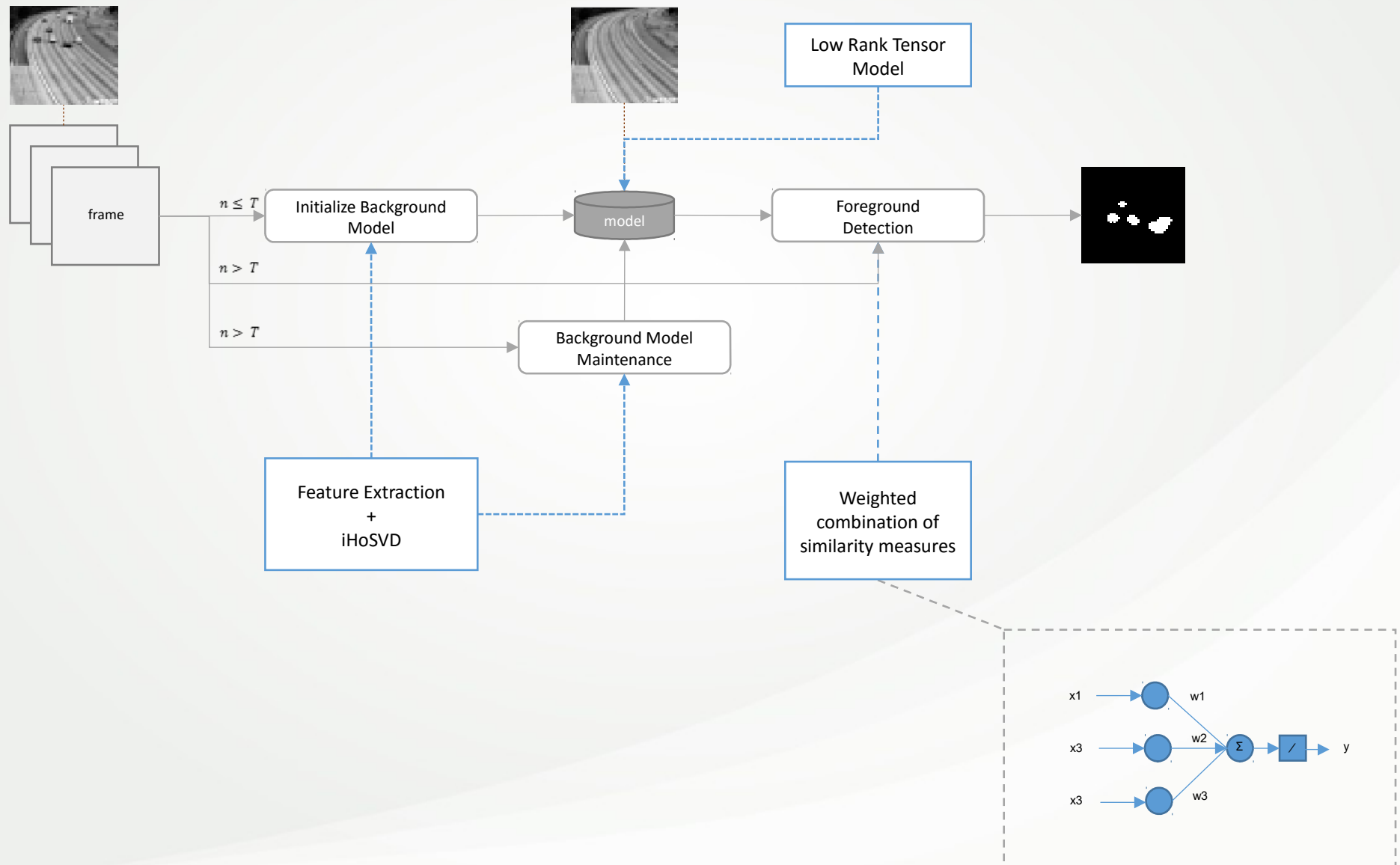
tensor model

$\mathcal{T}_t$



$$\mathcal{T}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{19200 \times 25 \times 8}$$

# Incremental and Multifeature



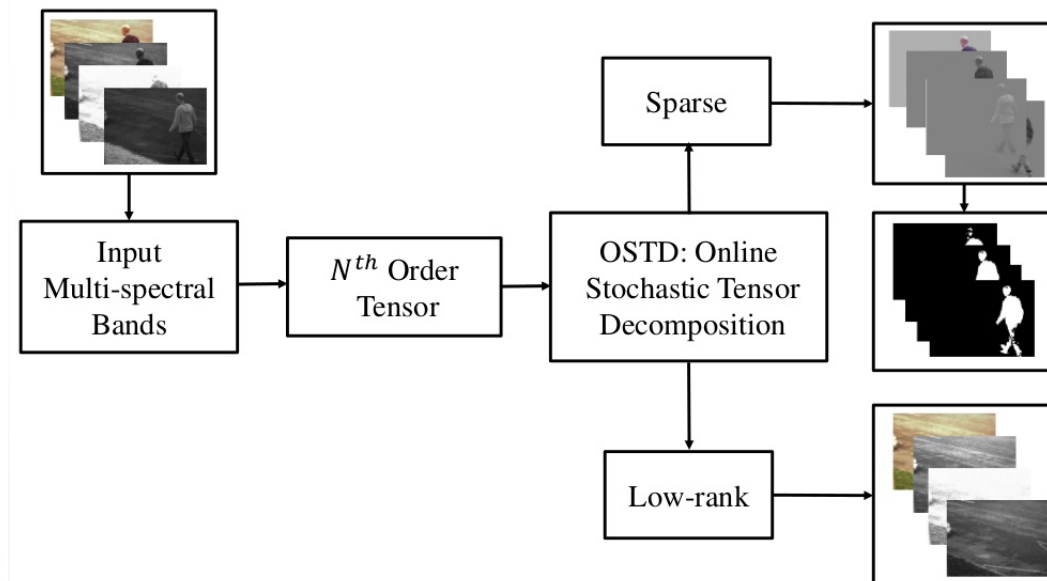
# Online Stochastic

- Let say  $N^{th}$  order observation tensor  $\mathcal{Y}$ 
  - corrupted by outliers,  $\mathcal{E}$
- Main assumption
  - $\mathcal{Y}$  can be reconstructed by the combination of
    - low-rank component,  $\mathcal{X}$
    - sparse component,  $\mathcal{E}$
  - convex optimization framework

$$\min_{\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{E}} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathcal{Y}_i - \mathcal{X}_i - \mathcal{E}_i\|_F^2 + \lambda_1 \|\mathcal{X}_i\|_* + \lambda_2 \|\mathcal{E}_i\|_1,$$

- $\|\mathcal{X}_i\|_*$  represents the nuclear norm of  $i^{th}$  mode
- $\|\mathcal{E}_i\|_1$  represents the  $l_1$  norm

- Stochastic/Online optimization proposed by [Feng *et.al* 2013]



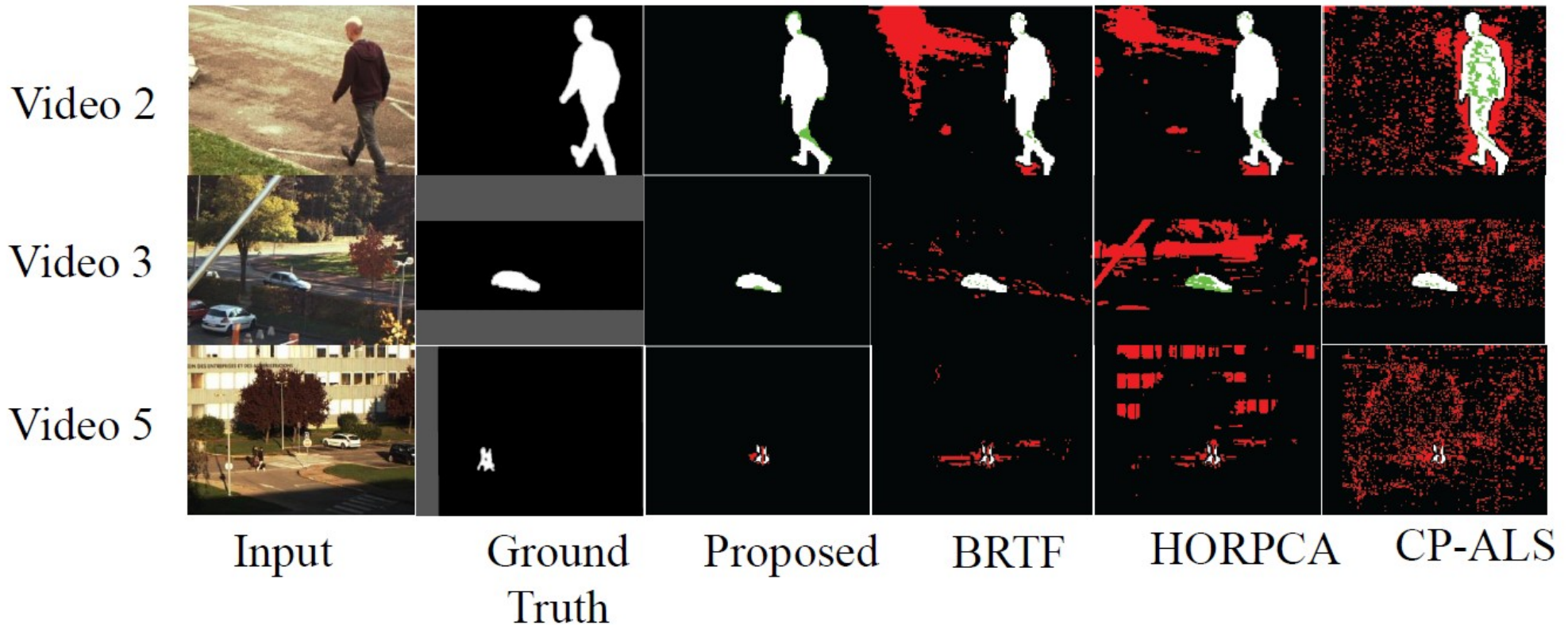
# OSTD cont...

- Advantages
  - no batch processing
  - iteratively update the basis
  - used for each  $i^{th}$  mode
- Major Processing: 3 Steps
  - **Low-rank** approximation
    - Initialize the basis,  $L$ 
      - Bilateral Random Projections (BRP) method
$$L = Y_1 (A_1^T Y_1)^{-1} Y_2^T$$
        - $L, Y, A$  are all random matrices
        - speed-up low-rank recovery: fast convergence
          - SVD decay slowly



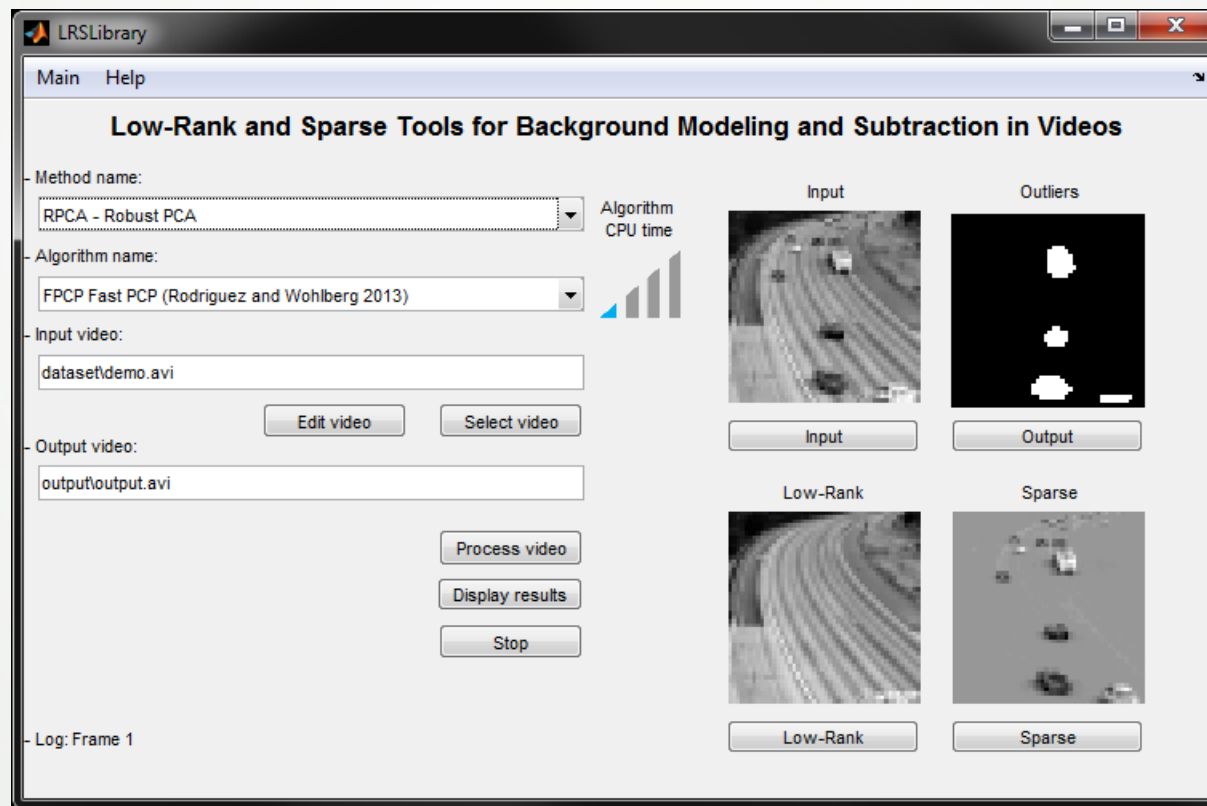
# Experimental Evaluations

- Qualitative Comparison
  - White: True positive (TP) pixels
  - Black: True negatives (TN) pixels
  - Red: False positives (FP) pixels
  - Green: False negatives (FN) pixels



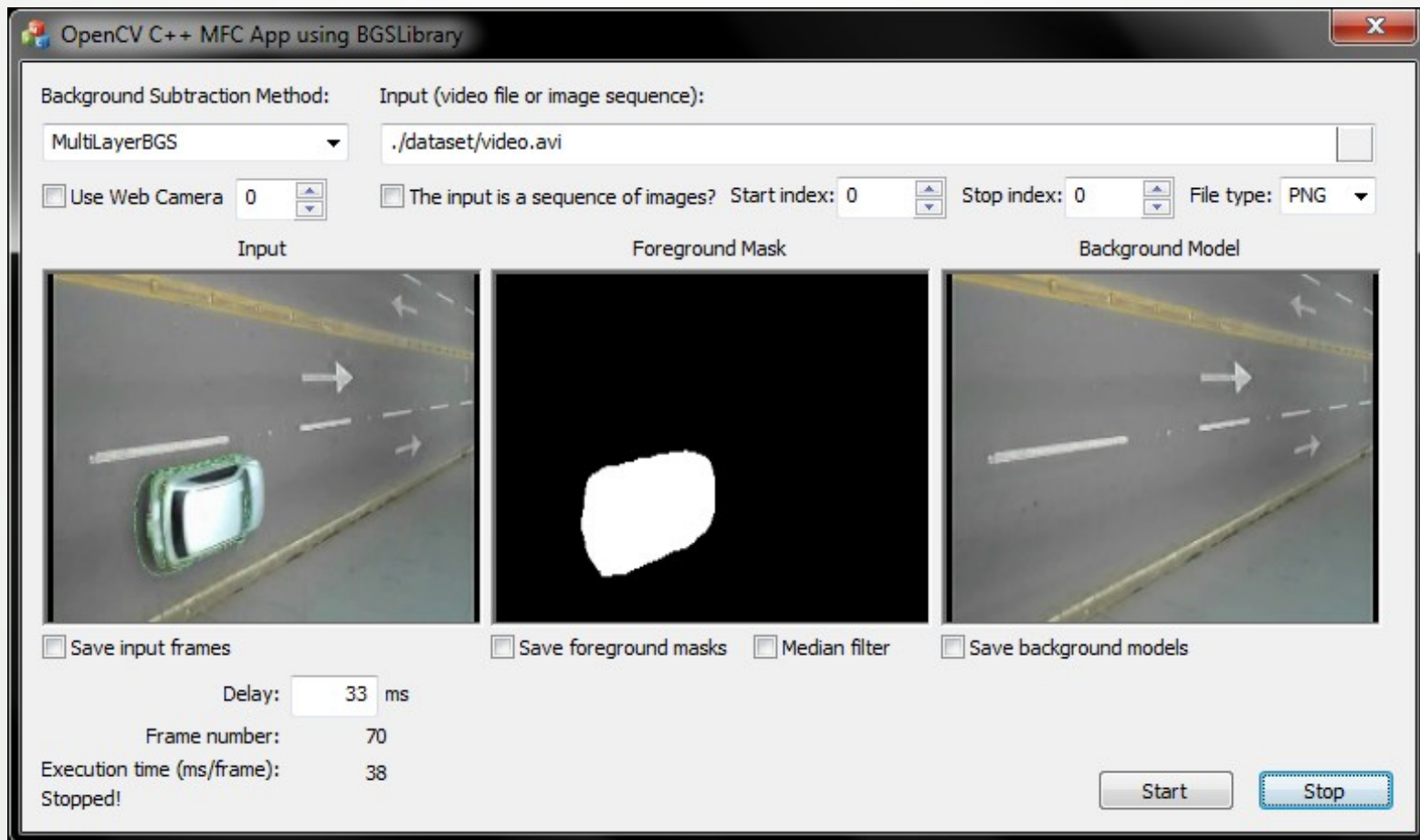
# LRSLibrary

The LRSLibrary provides a collection of low-rank and sparse decomposition algorithms in MATLAB. The library was designed for motion segmentation in videos, but it can be also used or adapted for other computer vision problems. Currently the LRSLibrary contains a total of 103 matrix-based and tensor-based algorithms.



# BGSLibrary

The BGSLibrary provides an easy-to-use C++ framework based on OpenCV to perform background subtraction (BGS) in videos. The BGSLibrary compiles under Linux, Mac OS X and Windows. Currently the library offers **37** BGS algorithms.



The  
End