REVISITING ROBUSTNESS OF THE UNION-OF-SUBSPACES MODEL FOR DATA-ADAPTIVE LEARNING OF NONLINEAR SIGNAL MODELS

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ABSTRACT
This paper revisits the problem of data-adaptive learning of geometric signal structures based on the Union-of-Subspaces (UoS) model. In contrast to prior work, it motivates and investigates an extension of the classical UoS model, termed the Metric-Constrained Union-of-Subspaces (MC-UoS) model. In this regard, it puts forth two iterative methods for data-adaptive learning of an MC-UoS in the presence of complete and missing data. The proposed methods outperform existing approaches to learning a UoS in numerical experiments involving both synthetic and real data, which demonstrates effectiveness of both an MC-UoS model and the proposed methods.

Index Terms— Nonlinear signal models, union of subspaces

1. INTRODUCTION

Much of machine learning, signal processing, and statistics literature is based on the premise that high-dimensional signals lie on or near low-dimensional structures embedded in higher-dimensional ambient spaces. Knowledge of the low-dimensional structure underlying a high-dimensional signal set reveals the information one is looking for, thereby greatly simplifying the sampling, processing, computational, and storage requirements [1]. But this knowledge is seldom, if ever, available to practitioners. Because of this, a significant fraction of the literature is devoted to study of plausible signal models and either characterization or learning of low-dimensional structures adhering to a prescribed signal model [2–5].

Two insights have emerged from decades of research on signal models. First, nonlinear signal models provide better abstractions of the real world signals than linear signal models [6]. Second, data-adaptive learning of signal models from training examples results in better performance than off-the-shelf characterization of low-dimensional structures describing the signal models of interest [7]. In recent years, a nonlinear signal model that has in particular helped advance the state-of-the-art in many applications is the union-of-subspaces (UoS) model [1, 8–10]. The UoS model, which is a generalization of the vanilla sparsity model, states that signals belong to a union of low-dimensional subspaces. While data-adaptive learning of subspaces underlying a UoS dates back more than a decade [11, 12], interest in this area has exploded in recent years because of our move toward a data-driven society. A necessary incomplete list of works in this regard includes [5, 10, 13–21].

Our Contributions: The canonical UoS model does not impose any structure on the collection of subspaces underlying signals of interest. Intuitively, however, one expects that if a UoS describes similar signals (e.g., frontal face images of a single person) then the underlying collection of subspaces should be “related” to each other. In addition, it stands to reason that methods for learning UoS’s would be better able to thwart errors caused by noise, outliers, missing data, etc., if they could explicitly account for any such relationship between subspaces describing a UoS. In order to capture this intuition of “related subspaces,” we put forth a novel extension of the traditional UoS model, termed metric-constrained union-of-subspaces (MC-UoS) model. Heuristically, the MC-UoS model states that signals not only belong to a union of low-dimensional subspaces, but the individual subspaces are also close to each other with respect to a metric defined on the Grassmann manifold. The main challenge in this regard is formulation of methods for data-adaptive learning of subspaces underlying an MC-UoS. We address this challenge by presenting two iterative algorithms, termed MiCUSaL and rMiCUSaL, for data-adaptive learning of an MC-UoS using complete data and missing data, respectively. In order to demonstrate effectiveness of both the MC-UoS model and the proposed algorithms, we carry out extensive numerical experiments using synthetic and real data. Results of these experiments demonstrate that both MiCUSaL and rMiCUSaL outperform existing approaches to data-adaptive learning of a UoS in terms of robustness to noise, outliers, and missing data.

Notation: We use lower-case and upper-case letters for vectors and matrices, respectively. In addition, \( (\cdot)\) and \( \mathbf{tr}(\cdot) \) denote transpose and trace operations, respectively, while \( \| \cdot \|_F \) and \( \| \cdot \|_p \) denote Frobenius norm and \( \ell_p \) norm of matrices and vectors, respectively. Given a set \( \Omega \), \( A_\Omega \) (resp., \( v_\Omega \)) denotes the submatrix of \( A \) (resp., subvector of \( v \)) corresponding to the rows of \( A \) (resp., entries of \( v \)) indexed by \( \Omega \). Finally, \( A_{ij} \) denotes the \( (i, j) \)-th element of \( A \) and \( v(i) \) denotes the \( i \)-th entry of a vector \( v \).

2. PROBLEM FORMULATION

In this section, we mathematically formulate the problem studied in this paper. Recall the canonical UoS model [8], which asserts that signals of interest lie in a union of \( K \) low-dimensional subspaces:

\[
\mathcal{M} = \bigcup_{k=1}^{K} S_k, \quad \text{where } S_k \text{ is a subspace of } \mathbb{R}^n.
\]

In here, we have simplified the assumption that \( \forall k, \dim(S_k) = s \ll n \). The basic premise behind this paper is that the \( S_k \)'s underlying similar signals likely do not correspond to arbitrary points on the Grassmann manifold \( G_{n,s} \), defined as the collection of all \( s \)-dimensional subspaces of \( \mathbb{R}^n \). In order to formalize this idea, we put forth the definition of a metric-constrained union-of-subspaces (MC-UoS).

Definition 1. (Metric-Constrained Union-of-Subspaces.) A UoS \( \mathcal{M} = \bigcup_{k=1}^{K} S_k \) is said to be constrained with respect to a metric \( d_{nk} : G_{n,s} \times G_{n,s} \to [0, \infty) \) if \( \max_{j,k : j \neq k} d_{nk} (S_j, S_k) \leq \epsilon \) for some positive constant \( \epsilon \).

In words, the MC-UoS model asserts that signals of interest lie in a union of \( K \) low-dimensional subspaces that are also “close” to each other. Our goal in this paper is to learn an MC-UoS \( \mathcal{M} \) in a data-adaptive manner. To this end, we assume access to a total
of \( N \) training samples, \( Y = \{ y_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times s}\}_{i=1}^{N} \), that correspond to (possibly noisy) samples drawn from \( M \). The problem of learning \( M \) in this setting can be posed as learning \( K \)-subspaces, \( \{S_k\}_{k=1}^{K} \), such that (i) each \( y_i \) is well approximated by one of the \( S_k \)’s, and (ii) the \( S_k \)’s are close to each other. The metric we use in here to measure closeness of subspaces on \( G_{n,s} \) is based on the Hausdorff distance, defined initially in [22] and proven to be a metric in [23]. Specifically, if \( D_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times s} \) denotes an orthonormal basis of \( S_k \), then
\[
d_s(S_j, S_k) = \sqrt{s - \text{tr}(D_j^T D_k ^T D_k D_j)}, \quad (1)
\]
where \( P_k \) denotes the projection operator \( P_k = D_k D_k^T \). Note that being a distance on \( G_{n,s}, d_s(\cdot, \cdot) \) in (1) is invariant under the choice of orthonormal bases of the two subspaces. While there exist other measures of subspace distances in the literature (see, e.g., [24]), we prefer (1) because of its ease of computation.

The preceding discussion helps us pose the problem of learning an MC-UoS \( M \) in terms of the following optimization problem:
\[
\{S_k\} = \arg \min_{S_k \in G_{n,s}} \sum_{j,k=1}^{K} d_s^2(S_j, S_k) + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N} \| y_i - P_{S_k} y_i \|^2, \quad (2)
\]
where \( \hat{i} = \arg \min_k \| y_{\hat{i}} - P_{S_k} y_{\hat{i}} \|^2 \) with \( P_{S_k} y_k \) denoting the projection of \( y_k \) onto \( S_k \). In words, the first term in (2) forces the learned subspaces to be close to each other, the second term in (2) forces the learned subspaces to provide reasonable approximations of the training data, and the parameter \( \lambda \) quantifies the desired trade-off between subspace closeness and data approximation. Our objective then is to provide fast computational methods for solving (2) for the cases of “complete” training data and “missing” training data.

### 3. MC-UoS Learning From Complete Data

In this section, we propose an algorithm for solving (2) for the case of complete training data. We begin by simplifying the expression in (2). To this end, we first define a \( K \times N \) indicator matrix \( W \) as
\[
W_{i,k} = \begin{cases} \hat{1} & \text{if } y_i \in S_k \text{ and } w_k = 1 \text{ and only if } y_i \text{ belongs to the subspace } S_k, \\ \hat{0} & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases} \quad (3)
\]
In words, \( W \) specifies memberships of the \( y_i \)’s in different subspaces and \( w_k = 1 \) if and only if \( y_i \) belongs to the subspace \( S_k \). Next, notice from elementary manipulations that
\[
\| y_i - P_{S_k} y_i \|^2 = \| y_i - D_k D_k^T y_i \|^2 = \| y_i \|^2 - \| D_k^T y_i \|^2,
\]
where once again \( D_k \) denotes an orthonormal basis of \( S_k \). Therefore, defining \( D \) as \( [D_1 \ldots D_K] \), (2) can be equivalently expressed as \( (D, W) = \arg \min_{D,W} F(D, W) \) such that
\[
F(D, W) = \sum_{j,k=1}^{K} \| D_k - P_{S_k} D_k \|^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_{i,k} (\| y_i \|^2 - \| D_k^T y_i \|^2). \quad (4)
\]
Instead of minimizing (4) simultaneously over \((D, W)\), which will be computationally difficult, we will resort to minimizing it by alternating between minimizing \( F(D, W) \) over \( W \) for a fixed \( D \) and minimizing \( F(D, W) \) over \( D \) for a fixed \( W \). In the following, we term minimization of \( F(D, W) \) over \( D \) as the subspace assignment step and minimization of \( F(D, W) \) over \( W \) as the subspace update step. In terms of performance measure, we are in particular interested in a partial optimal solution, defined as follows.

**Definition 2** ([25]). A point \((D^*, W^*)\) is a partial optimal solution of \( \arg \min_{D,W} F(D, W) \) if \( \forall \hat{D}, F(D^*, W^*) \leq F(\hat{D}, W^*) \leq F(D^*, W^*) \) and \( \forall \hat{W}, F(D^*, W^*) \leq F(D^*, \hat{W}) \).

We refer the reader to [26] for a discussion of the significance of partial optimal solutions in the context of our problem.

In order to obtain a partial optimal solution, we begin with subspace assignment. When \( D \) is fixed, subspace assignment simply corresponds to solving \( \forall i = 1, \ldots, N, \)
\[
l_i = \arg \min_{k=1, \ldots, K} \| y_i - P_{S_k} y_i \|^2 = \arg \max_{k=1, \ldots, K} \| D_k^T y_i \|^2 \quad (5)
\]
and then setting \( w_{i,k} = 1 \). On the other hand, subspace update, which corresponds to a fixed \( W \), is a more challenging task. In order to address this challenge, we resort to block-coordinate descent (BCD) [27], which results in sequential updates of the \( D_k \)’s in \( D \). Specifically, let \( c_k = \{ i \in \{1, \ldots, N\} \mid w_{i,k} = 1 \} \) denote the indices of all \( y_i \)’s that are assigned to the \( k \)-th subspace and define \( Y_k = [y_i \mid i \in c_k] \). Then, for a fixed \( W \), the \( K \) subproblems corresponding to BCD of \( \min_D F(D, W) \) can be expressed after some manipulations as
\[
D_k = \arg \min_{D_k \in V_{n,s}} \sum_{j \neq k} \| D_k - P_{S_j} D_k \|^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \langle \| Y_k \|^2_F - \| D_k^T Y_k \|^2_F \rangle,
\]
where \( V_{n,s} \) denotes the Stiefel manifold (i.e., collection of all \( n \times s \) orthonormal matrices). We can simplify the above expression to reduce each BCD subproblem to the following maximization problem:
\[
D_k = \arg \max_{D_k \in V_{n,s}} \| Y_k \|^2_F - \| D_k^T Y_k \|^2_F.
\]
We now define \( A_k = \sum_{j \neq k} D_j D_j^T + \frac{\lambda}{2} Y_k Y_k^T \). It then follows from [28] that max tr \( (D_k^T A_k D_k) \) has a closed-form solution and the \( D_k \) that achieves the maximum is simply given by the \( s \) eigenvectors of \( A_k \) associated with its \( s \)-largest eigenvalues. This completes our

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**Algorithm 1** Metric-Constrained UoS Learning (MiCUSaL)

**Input:** Training data \( Y \); problem parameters \( K, s, \) and \( \lambda \).

**Initialize:** Orthonormal bases \( D_k, k = 1, \ldots, K \).

1. while stopping rule do
   2. for \( i = 1 \) to \( N \) **(Subspace Assignment) do**
      3. \( l_i \leftarrow \arg \max_k \| D_k^T y_i \|_2, \quad w_{i,l_i} \leftarrow 1, \quad \forall k \neq l_i, w_{i,k} \leftarrow 0. \)
   4. **end for**
   5. for \( k = 1 \) to \( K \) **(Subspace Update) do**
      6. \( c_k \leftarrow \{ 1 \leq i \leq N : w_{i,k} = 1 \}, \quad Y_k \leftarrow [y_i \mid i \in c_k]. \)
      7. \( A_k \leftarrow \sum_{j \neq k} D_j D_j^T + \frac{\lambda}{2} Y_k Y_k^T. \)
      8. **Eigen decomposition of** \( A_k : U_k \Sigma_k U_k^T = A_k. \)
      9. \( D_k \leftarrow \text{columns of} \ U_k \text{corresponding to} \ s \text{-largest diagonal elements in} \ \Sigma_k. \)
   10. **end for**
11. **end while**

**Output:** Orthonormal bases \( D_k, k = 1, \ldots, K \).

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description of the subspace update step. Combining the subspace assignment and subspace update steps, we can now formally describe our algorithm in Algorithm 1, which we term as metric-constrained union-of-subspaces learning (MiCUSaL). The following theorem, stated without proof because of space constraints, describes convergence behavior of MiCUSaL.

**Theorem 1.** MiCUSaL is guaranteed to converge. It also returns a partial optimal solution if \( \forall k, \arg \max_{A_k} \text{tr}(D_k^T A_k D_k) \) during the subspace update step has a unique solution.

We conclude by pointing out that a necessary and sufficient condition to have a unique solution to \( \arg \max_{A_k} \text{tr}(D_k^T A_k D_k) \) is to have distinct \( s \)-th and \((s + 1)\)-th largest eigenvalues of \( A_k \).

### 4. MC-UoS Learning from Missing Data

In this section, we study MC-UoS learning for the case of training data with missing entries. The setup here corresponds to observing each \( y_i \) at locations \( \Omega_i \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\} \) with \( |\Omega_i| \geq s \), denoted by \( y_{\Omega_i} \in \mathbb{R}^{|\Omega_i|} \). Since we do not have access to the complete \( y_i \)'s, the quantities \( \|y_i - P_{\Omega_i} y_i\|^2 \) in (2) cannot be computed directly. Instead, we leverage the results in [29] and replace \( \|y_i - P_{\Omega_i} y_i\|^2 \) by

\[
\|y_i - P_{\Omega_i} y_i\|^2 = y_i^T (I - D_{\Omega_i} (D_{\Omega_i}^T D_{\Omega_i})^{-1} D_{\Omega_i}^T) y_i,
\]

where \( P_{\Omega_i} \equiv D_{\Omega_i} (D_{\Omega_i}^T D_{\Omega_i})^{-1} D_{\Omega_i}^T \). In this case, we can reformulate (2) as \( (D, W) = \arg \min_{D,W} G(D,W) \), where

\[
G(D,W) = \sum_{i,k=1}^{K} \|D_k - P_{\Omega_i} D_k\|^2 + \
\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \|y_i - P_{\Omega_i} y_i\|^2. \tag{7}
\]

In order to solve this problem, we once again make use of alternating minimization comprising subspace assignment and subspace update steps. When \( D \) is fixed, subspace assignment in here corresponds to solving \( \forall i, I_i = \arg \min_{k=1,\ldots,K} \|y_i - P_{\Omega_i} y_i\|^2 \).

When \( W \) is fixed, we carry out subspace update using BCD again, in which case \( \arg \min_{D,G} G(D,W) \) can be shown to be comprised of the following \( K \) subproblems: \( D_k = \arg \min_{D_k \in \mathbb{V}_{n,s}} g(D_k) \) with

\[
g(D_k) \equiv -\text{tr}(D_k^T A_k D_k) + \lambda \sum_{i,k=1}^{K} \|y_i - P_{\Omega_i} y_i\|^2. \tag{8}
\]

Here, \( c_k \) is as defined in Section 3 and \( A_k = \sum_{j \neq k} D_j D_j^T \). It can be shown that \( g(D_k) \) is invariant to the choice of the orthonormal basis of \( \mathbb{S}_k \). Hence \( \min_{D_k \in \mathbb{V}_{n,s}} g(D_k) \) is an optimization problem on the Grassmann manifold [30]. The cost function \( g(D_k) \) consists of \( s \) \( \|\cdot\|^2 \) terms. In order to minimize it, we employ incremental gradient descent procedure [31] and operate on a single component in each step. Inspired from algorithms in [30], we first compute the gradient of one term, and move along a short geodesic curve in the gradient direction. To be specific, the gradient of \( g_1(D_k) \equiv -\text{tr}(D_k^T A_k D_k) \) is \( \nabla g_1 = (I_n - D_k D_k^T) A_k D_k \). Where \( I_n \) denotes the \( n \times n \) identity matrix. The geodesic equation for a curve \( D_k(\eta) \) in the direction \( -\nabla g_1 \) with a step length \( \eta \) is [30]

\[
D_k(\eta) = D_k V_k \cos(\Sigma_k \eta) V_k^T + U_k \sin(\Sigma_k \eta) V_k^T, \tag{9}
\]

where \( U_k \Sigma_k V_k^T \) is the SVD decomposition of \( -\nabla g_1 \). Note that (8) in here differs from [32, Eqn (2)] only in terms of one additional term \( g_1 \) and a scaling factor \( \frac{\lambda}{2} \) of all other terms in \( g(D_k) \). It therefore follows that the optimization of other terms in \( g(D_k) \) can be performed as in GROUSE [32] but with a constant step size \( \frac{\lambda}{2} \). We conclude this section by presenting our algorithm in Algorithm 2, termed **Robust MC-UoS Learning** (rMiCUSaL).

### 5. SIMULATION RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, we evaluate the performance of our proposed methods on both synthetic and real data. In the complete data setting, we compare the performance of MiCUSaL with Block-Sparse Dictionary Design (SACs+BK-SVD) [10], K-subspace clustering (K-sub) [33], Sparse Subspace Clustering (SSC) [15] and Robust Subspace Clustering (RSC) [17]. For the case of missing training data, we compare the results of rMiCUSaL with K-Supspaces with Missing Data (k-GROUSE) [21] and SSC [15]. In order to study the robustness of our methods, we assume every training and test sample \( y \) is noisy in the sense that \( y = x + v \) where \( x \) belongs to one of the \( \mathbb{S}_k \)'s (all \( \|x\|^2 = 1 \) and \( v \) is additive white Gaussian noise with variance \( \sigma^2 \)). We use \( X \) and \( X^{\text{noisy}} \) to denote “clean” training and test signals respectively, while the set of noisy test samples is denoted by \( Y^{\text{noisy}} \). In our experiments, we add white Gaussian noise with different expected noise power \( \mathbb{E}[\|v\|^2] = \sigma^2 \) ranging from 0.1 to 0.5 to the “clean” training and test samples. For the missing data experiments, we create training (but not test) data with different percentages of missing values ranging from 20% to 50% for every fixed noise power. Finally, we choose \( \lambda = 1 \) for all experiments.

**Experiments with Synthetic Data:** We first consider an experiment on synthetic data with parameters \( K = 4, s = 15, n = 100 \) and \( N = 400 \). We define the ground-truth \( S_k \)'s by their orthonormal
bases \( \{ U_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k} \}_{k=1}^{K} \). To generate the \( S_k \)'s, we start with a random orthonormal basis \( U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k} \) and let \( S_k = \text{span}(W_k) \) where \( W_k = U + tB_k \) with \( B_k \) a random Gaussian \( n \times s \) matrix and parameter \( t \) controlling the distance between subspaces. To make the \( S_k \)'s close to each other, we set \( t = 0.05 \).

After generating the subspaces, we generate a set of points from \( S_k \) as \( X_i = U_k C_k \), where \( C_k \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times K} \) is a matrix whose entries are i.i.d. random variables with \( N(0, 1) \) distribution. We then stack all the data into a matrix \( X = [X_1, \ldots, X_k] = \{ x_i \}_{i=1}^{N} \) and normalize all the points to unit \( \ell_2 \) norms. Test data \( X^{te} = \{ x_i^{te} \}_{i=1}^{N} \) is produced using the same foregoing strategy.

Next, we make use of a collection of noisy samples, \( Y \), to learn a union of \( K \) subspaces and stack the learned orthonormal bases \( \{ D_k \}_{k=1}^{K} \) into \( D \). For MC-UoS learning performance analysis, we define \( d_{avgy} \) as the average of normalized subspace distances between pairs of \( D_k \)'s and \( U_k \)'s as

\[
d_{avgy} \equiv \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sqrt{\frac{\text{tr}(D_k^T D_k)}{\text{tr}(U_k^T U_k)}} \frac{\text{tr}(U_k^T D_k)}{\text{tr}(U_k^T U_k)}.
\]

where \( \hat{k} = \arg \max_k ||D_k^T U_j||_F \). We also ensure that no two \( D_k \)'s are matched to the same \( U_k \). A smaller \( d_{avgy} \) indicates a better performance of MC-UoS learning. Also, if learned subspaces are closer to the ground truth, they are expected to have a good representation performance of MC-UoS learning. We then stack all the data into a matrix \( X = [X_1, \ldots, X_k] = \{ x_i \}_{i=1}^{N} \) and normalize all the points to unit \( \ell_2 \) norms. Test data \( X^{te} = \{ x_i^{te} \}_{i=1}^{N} \) is produced using the same foregoing strategy.

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7. REFERENCES


