# Efficient Image Classification via Structured Low-Rank Matrix Factorization Regression 

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#### Abstract

In real-world applications involving sparse coding and low-rank matrix recovery problems, linear regression methods usually struggle to effectively capture the structured correlations present in data matrices. This limitation arises from representation approaches that treat images as vectors and handle testing samples individually, overlooking these correlations. To address these challenges, we propose a novel approach that leverages the low-rank property to capture the global and intrinsic structure of residual and coefficient matrices, departing from the assumption of independent and identically distributed (I.I.D) data. Our method introduces nonconvex and nonsmooth low-rank matrix regression models guided by the extended matrix variate power exponential distribution (M.P.E.D). By incorporating factorization strategies into the regression coefficient matrix and utilizing the Schatten- $p$ norm with three distinct values of $p$, we enhance computational efficiency. Our formulation enables efficient subproblem solving through the introduction of auxiliary variables and the use of singular value threshold operators. We achieve closed-form solutions using the proposed multi-variable alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM). Theoretical analysis establishes the local convergence properties and computational complexity of our optimization algorithm. Furthermore, we conduct numerical experiments on various image datasets, including face, object, and digital, to demonstrate the superior performance and computational


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efficiency of our methods compared to several related regression approaches. The source codes for our method are available at https://github.com/ZhangHengMin/TIFS_SLRMFR.

Index Terms-Low-rank matrix regression, alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM), Schatten- $\boldsymbol{p}$ norm, matrix factorization, theoretical analysis, image classification.

## I. Introduction

IT IS well-known that sparse coding and low-rank matrix recovery methods have made significant contributions to various domains, including pattern recognition, computer vision, and machine learning. These methods have found successful applications in diverse areas, such as image recognition [1], [2], [3], multimodal recognition [4], [5], finger-vein recognition [6], [7], and image restoration and inpainting [8], [9]. They have also been widely employed in tasks such as classification and subspace clustering. Among the linear regression techniques, Sparse Representation-based Classification (SRC) [10] and Low-Rank Representation (LRR) [11] have received considerable attention in this context. SRC aims to find the sparsest solution for each data point independently, while LRR seeks the lowest-rank solution for all the data jointly. These methods have been extended and improved in various ways, including Collaborative Representation Classification (CRC) [12], Nuclear norm Matrix Regression (NMR) and its faster version (FNMR) [13], Unifying Liner Regression (ULR) [14], Adaptive Low-Rank Representation (ALPR) [15], Discriminative Low-Rank Sparse Representation (DLRSR) [16], Nonconvex Linear Regression related to $\ell_{21}$-norm ( $\mathrm{NLR} \ell_{21}$ ) [17], and Robust Supervised Low-Rank Discriminant Analysis (RSLDA) [18]. These regression methods have been extensively studied and applied, contributing to be an active area of research, especially for image classification.

The methods discussed above exhibit versatility, applicable to both one-dimensional vectors and two-dimensional matrices. These methods leverage various norms to achieve specific properties, including sparsity, collaboration, and low-rankness [12], [13], [14]. At the vector level, norms like the $\ell_{1}$-norm, $\ell_{2}$-norm, and $\ell_{2,1}$-norm are frequently employed. Similarly, at the matrix level, norms such as the Frobenius norm, $L_{2,1}$-norm, and nuclear norm are utilized as seen in works like [19], [20], and [21]. These norms play pivotal roles in shaping optimization objectives and guiding the representation process for coefficients and noise measurements. Alongside
convex formulations, nonconvex approaches based on norms such as the $\ell_{p}$-norm, $\ell_{2, p}$-norm, and Schatten $p$-norm with $p \in(0,1)$ have been explored as alternatives for unbiased estimators. These nonconvex formulations act as substitutes for promoting sparsity, group sparsity, and low-rankness, and they have demonstrated advantages across various studies. These approaches have been applied in [22], [23], [24], [25], and [26]. A comprehensive analysis of the existing references has revealed three common aspects, as detailed below:

- Regression models related to one-dimensional vectors primarily focus on defining the loss function and regularization term under the assumption of independent and identically distributed (I.I.D) data [10], [13], [14]. These models handle testing samples individually by employing linear representations based on the training samples.
- Regression models related to two-dimensional matrices consider the residual function and regularization term while incorporating low-rank structural information [11], [13], [27]. The incorporation of additional information has been shown to enhance their performance, as demonstrated in studies such as [12], [15], [16], [18], [28], [29], and [30].
- Some linear regression methods utilize nonconvex relaxations of the $\ell_{0}$-norm, $\ell_{2,0}$-norm, and rank function, which provide nearly unbiased estimators [19], [20], [22], [23], [26]. However, these optimization algorithms often suffer from higher complexity, particularly when dealing with large-scale matrices, due to the computations involved in singular value decomposition (SVD).
In this work, we address the aforementioned challenges by introducing three main contributions. Firstly, we propose a novel approach that adopts a joint representation method inspired by the matrix variate distribution for testing samples, enabling us to capture sample relationships and incorporate additional information into the representation process. Instead of treating testing samples independently, we consider them collectively, allowing for a more comprehensive representation. Secondly, we incorporate low-rank structures into the representation of the residual and coefficient matrices. By enforcing a low-rank property on the coefficient matrix, we effectively capture the underlying structure of the data and improve representation quality. This incorporation of low-rankness enhances the discriminative power of the algorithm. Lastly, we enhance computational efficiency by factorizing the coefficient matrix into two factor matrices. This factorization significantly reduces computational complexity, thereby enhancing the algorithm's efficiency. Furthermore, the resulting theoretical analysis provides support for practical applications. To illustrate our design process, we provide a representation relation in Fig. 1, which demonstrates that the testing image can be represented as a linear combination of the training samples and an error image. Notably, we take into account each residual image matrix while leveraging the global structure of the coefficient matrix. This approach allows us to capture pixel dependencies and enforce the low-rank property on the coefficient matrix, as demonstrated in previous works [11], [13], [20], [23], [27], [31]. By preserving the relationships within these matrices, we introduce the concept


Fig. 1. Revisiting the matrix level in equation (1) through the interconnectedness of training, testing, and error images.
of matrix regression, as defined in Definition 1. This allows us to collectively represent the testing samples and integrate low-rank structures into the representation process, providing a solution.

Based on the flowchart depicted in Fig. 1, our approach involves jointly representing testing samples at the matrix level, successfully considering both the residual and coefficient matrices. This enables us to capture the underlying structure and dependencies present in the data, resulting in more informative and accurate representations. Meanwhile, we propose the Schatten- $p$ Norm Factorized Low-rank Matrix Regression ( $\mathrm{S}_{p}$ NFLMR) methods. These methods are optimized using the multi-variable ADMM algorithm [32], [33], [34], which involves computing the SVD and determining smaller factor matrices, which help in preserving the low-rank property and improving the computational efficiency. To better evaluate the performance, we apply them to image reconstruction and classification tasks and compare their performance against existing methods. This motivates us to assess the classification accuracy and computational efficiency of the methods and provide visual results from different viewpoints to facilitate a comprehensive comparison. Through this comprehensive evaluation, our main objective is to validate the effectiveness and efficiency of the proposed $S_{p}$ NFLMR methods.

The subsequent sections are organized as follows: Section II introduces the problem formulations from a probabilistic distribution perspective and presents the factorized formulas that form the basis of our approach. Sections III and IV provide a detailed explanation of the iterative algorithm's development using the ADMM framework, along with provable analysis of its convergence properties. In Section V, we present experimental results to demonstrate the exceptional classification accuracy and computational efficiency achieved by our approach. Finally, in Section VI, we conclude the work by summarizing the key findings and discussing potential avenues for future research.

## II. Problem Formulation

This section begins by introducing matrix regression and highlighting the relationship between the error matrix $\mathbf{E}$ and
the coefficient matrix $\mathbf{X}$, as depicted in Fig. 1. To capture the interactions between these matrices, we propose a novel representation framework inspired by the matrix variate power exponential distribution (M.P.E.D) [35], [36]. This framework enables us to effectively model and analyze the dependencies and relationships that exist within the data.

Definition 1: Let $\mathbf{A}_{i}$ be a column vector of dimension $l q \times 1$, where $l$ is the number of rows and $q$ is the number of columns. The training database is represented by $\mathbf{A}=$ $\left[\mathbf{A}_{1}, \mathbf{A}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{A}_{m}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{l q \times m}$. For a testing sample $\mathbf{Y}_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{l q \times 1}$, the linear representation is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{Y}_{i}\right)=\mathcal{A}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)+\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathcal{M}(\cdot): \mathbb{R}^{l q} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{l \times q}$ transforms a vector into a matrix. Here, $\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)$ represents the residual matrix, $\mathbf{X}_{i}=$ $\left[\mathbf{X}_{i 1}, \mathbf{X}_{i 2}, \ldots, \mathbf{X}_{i m}\right]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$ is the coefficient vector, and $\mathbf{X}=\left[\mathbf{X}_{1}, \mathbf{X}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{X}_{n}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the coefficient matrix. The reconstructed image matrix is given by $\mathcal{A}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)=\mathbf{X}_{i 1} \mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{A}_{1}\right)+$ $\mathbf{X}_{i 2} \mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{A}_{2}\right)+\ldots+\mathbf{X}_{i m} \mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{A}_{m}\right)$.

To capture the characteristics of the residual and coefficient matrices, we depart from the assumption of independent and identically distributed (I.I.D.) elements and introduce a specific definition for the random matrices used in this study.

Definition 2: Consider a random matrix $\mathbf{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times n}$ that follows a $l \times n$ variate power exponential distribution with parameters $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times n}, \Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}, \Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, and $p, \beta>0$. Then, the density function of $\mathbf{Z}$ can be defined as

$$
\begin{align*}
& f(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{M}, \Sigma, \Phi, p, \beta) \\
& \quad=\mathbf{C}|\Sigma|^{-\frac{n}{2}}|\Phi|^{-\frac{l}{2}} \mathbf{e}^{\left.-\frac{1}{2}\left(\operatorname{tr[}[\mathbf{Z}-\mathbf{M})^{\top} \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{Z}-\mathbf{M}) \Phi^{-1}\right]^{\frac{p}{2}}\right)^{\frac{\beta}{2}}} \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\mathbf{C}=\frac{\ln \Gamma\left(\frac{\ln }{2}\right)}{\pi^{\frac{\ln }{2}} \Gamma\left(1+\frac{\ln }{2 p}\right) 2^{1+\frac{\ln }{p}}}$ and $\Gamma(\cdot)$ denotes the Gamma function. Here, we use the notation $\mathbf{Z} \sim \Xi(\mathbf{M}, \Sigma, \Phi, p, \beta)$ to represent the distribution for simplicity.

By setting $\mathbf{M}=\mathbf{0}, \Sigma=\mathbf{I}_{l \times l}, \Phi=\mathbf{I}_{n \times n}$, and $\beta=1$ in (2), we obtain $\mathbf{Z} \sim \boldsymbol{\Xi}\left(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_{l \times l}, \mathbf{I}_{n \times n}, p, 1\right)$. Then, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_{l \times l}, \mathbf{I}_{n \times n}, p, 1\right)=\mathbf{C e}^{-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{Z}^{\top} \mathbf{Z}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{C}$ is a constant determined by (2). Taking the logarithm of both sides of (3), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ln f\left(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_{l \times l}, \mathbf{I}_{n \times n}, p, 1\right)=\ln \mathbf{C}-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{Z}^{\top} \mathbf{Z}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof Based on the assumptions and definitions stated in Definitions 1 and 2, we can deduce the following

$$
\begin{align*}
P\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right) \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}\right) & =\mathbf{C}_{1} \mathbf{e}^{-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right)^{\top}\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right)\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}},  \tag{5}\\
P(\mathbf{X}) & =\mathbf{C}_{2} \mathbf{e}^{-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}}, \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\mathbf{C}_{1}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{2}$ are positive proportionality constants. Consequently, the estimation of the coefficient matrix $\mathbf{X}$ can be obtained by solving the Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) probability problem, which is formulated as follows

$$
\mathbf{X}^{*}=\operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{X}} \ln P(\mathbf{X} \mid \mathbf{E})
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& =\operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{X}} \ln P(\mathbf{E} \mid \mathbf{X})+\ln P(\mathbf{X}) \\
& =\operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{X}} \ln \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod_{j=1}^{n} P\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right) \mid \mathbf{X}_{j}\right)+\ln P(\mathbf{X}) \\
& =\operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{X}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \ln P\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right) \mid \mathbf{X}_{j}\right)+\ln P(\mathbf{X}) \\
& =\operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{X}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln P\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right) \mid \mathbf{X}_{i}\right)+\ln P(\mathbf{X}) \\
& =\operatorname{argmax}_{\mathbf{X}}-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{tr}\left(\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right)^{\top}\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right)\right)^{\frac{p}{2}} \\
& \quad \quad-\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}+\ln \left(\mathbf{C}_{1} \mathbf{C}_{2}\right) \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

where the fifth equality " $=$ " in the statement holds because $P_{i \neq j}\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right) \mid \mathbf{X}_{j}\right)=0$. By using (2), (5), (6), and (7), and introducing a regularization parameter $\lambda>0$, we arrive at the following optimization problem:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \min _{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{E}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{tr}\left(\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right)^{\top}\left(\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right)\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}+\lambda \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}} \\
& \text { s.t. } \mathbf{E}=\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{A X} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

which is equivalent to (9) based on the definition of the Schatten- $p$ norm, i.e., $\|\mathbf{X}\|_{S_{p}}^{p}=\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X}\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}$.

Theorem 1: For $1 \leq i \leq n$, let $\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)=\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{Y}_{i}\right)-\mathcal{A}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)$ be a random matrix following an E. M. P. E distribution, specifically $\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right) \sim \Xi\left(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}_{l \times l}, \mathbf{I}_{q \times q}, p, 1\right)$. In addition, let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ follow this probability distribution. Thus, the joint low-rank matrix regression model can be formulated as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{\mathbf{X}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{Y}_{i}\right)-\mathcal{A}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{p}}^{p}+\lambda\|\mathbf{X}\|_{S_{p}}^{p} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 1: Problem (9) provides the flexibility to integrate low-rank structures simultaneously into the error measurements and representation coefficients, as shown in Fig. 2(a) and (b). By utilizing the Schatten- $p$ norm, it gives improved correlation and adaptability to structural noises [13], [23] compared to convex norms that I.I.D. noise. For example, the $L_{1}$-norm assumes the Laplace distribution, while the Frobenius norm assumes the Gaussian distribution.

Remark 2: As the number of training and testing samples increases, the computational complexity of updating the matrix $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ becomes higher, especially when $m>n$. This is primarily due to the computations involved in the SVD, which is commonly used for solving low-rank matrix minimization problems and has a complexity of $o\left(m n^{2}\right)$. It is important to discuss the distinctiveness of our factorization strategy in comparison to other acceleration techniques, such as:

- Utilization of nesterov's strategy and extragradient technique [22], [37]: These strategies are effective in algorithm designs aimed at curtailing the total iteration count.
- Analogous to the process in power methods and randomized SVD [33], [38]: These techniques follow a similar processing approach with the goal of diminishing computational complexity within each iteration.


Fig. 2. The illustrations consist of plotted curves depicting singular values and the distribution of element values for an error matrix sized $60 \times 43$ (top row). Additionally, correlation matrices are showcased as heatmaps in both row-wise and column-wise representations (bottom row) in (a), all related to a face image of the AR database. In (b), the prevalent factorization of the coefficient matrix is displayed, emphasizing its block-diagonal property.

Notably, this addition aims to enhance the understanding of the unique features of our approach while also acknowledging the effectiveness and efficiency of alternative acceleration strategies. Then, the utilization of a factorization technique for Schatten- $p$ norm, as illustrated in Fig. 2 (b), is a natural step to address this challenge and is logically sound.

Definition 3: Let $\mathbf{X}=\mathbf{U} \mathbf{V}^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, where $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ and $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$, with $\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{X})=r \leq d \leq \min (m, n)$. For any $p, q_{1}$, and $q_{2}>0$ satisfying $\frac{1}{p}=\frac{\overline{1}}{q_{1}}+\frac{1}{q_{2}}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{p}\|\mathbf{X}\|_{S_{p}}^{p}=\min _{\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}} \frac{1}{q_{1}}\|\mathbf{U}\|_{S_{q_{1}}}^{q_{1}}+\frac{1}{q_{2}}\|\mathbf{V}\|_{S_{q_{2}}}^{q_{2}}, \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

which leads to the following equivalences: (i) $\|\mathbf{X}\|_{*}=$ $\min _{\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}} \frac{1}{2}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+\|\mathbf{V}\|_{F}^{2}\right)$ for $p=1, q_{1}=2$, and $q_{2}=2$, (ii) $\|\mathbf{X}\|_{S_{2 / 3}}^{2 / 3}=\min _{\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}} \frac{1}{3}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+2\|\mathbf{V}\|_{*}\right)$ for $p=2 / 3, q_{1}=2$, and $q_{2}=1$, and (iii) $\|\mathbf{X}\|_{S_{1 / 2}}^{1 / 2}=\min _{\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}} \frac{1}{2}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{*}+\|\mathbf{V}\|_{*}\right)$ for $p=1 / 2, q_{1}=1$, and $q_{2}=1$.

The cases outlined in Definition 3 correspond to specific values of $p$. These values have also been investigated in the case of $p=1$ in studies like [21], [39], [40], and for $p=1 / 2$ and $2 / 3$ in [41], [42]. Then, we can introduce a substitution of the Schatten- $p$ norm with the minimization of the sum of two norms, denoted as $g_{q_{1}, q_{2}}(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V})$, for cases (i)-(iii). This substitution is not only meaningful but also aligned with the
motivation presented in Remark 2, as it effectively reduces computational complexity. The sizes of the factor matrices $\mathbf{U}$ and $\mathbf{V}$ depend on the number of training and testing samples. Without loss of generality, by combining (9) and (8) with (10), we formulate the optimization problem:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \min _{\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{E}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{p}}^{p}+\lambda g_{q_{1}, q_{2}}(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}), \\
& \text { s.t. } \mathbf{E}=\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{A X}, \quad \mathbf{X}=\mathbf{U} \mathbf{V}^{\top} \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

where to analyze the solution to problem (11) for different values of $p$ in the Schatten- $p$ norm, we consider specific values of $p$ and their corresponding choices of $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$. The factorization formulations can be expressed as follows:

- When $p=1$, we choose $g_{2,2}(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V})=\frac{1}{2}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+\|\mathbf{V}\|_{F}^{2}\right)$ in (11), and then (11) becomes the minimization problem based on nuclear norm factorization, i.e.,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \min _{\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{E}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{1}}^{1}+\frac{\lambda}{2}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+\|\mathbf{V}\|_{F}^{2}\right) \\
& \text { s.t. } \mathbf{E}=\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{A X}, \mathbf{X}=\mathbf{U} \mathbf{V}^{\top} \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

- When $p=2 / 3$, we choose $g_{2,1}(\mathbf{U}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}})=\frac{1}{3}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+\right.$ $2\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}\|_{*}$ ) in (11), and also introduce $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}=\mathbf{V}$ in the constraints, then (11) becomes the minimization problem based on Schatten-2/3 norm factorization, i.e.,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \min _{\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{E}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{2 / 3}}^{2 / 3}+\frac{\lambda}{3}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+2\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}\|_{*}\right) \\
& \text { s.t. } \mathbf{E}=\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{A X}, \quad \mathbf{X}=\mathbf{U} \mathbf{V}^{\top}, \quad \widehat{\mathbf{V}}=\mathbf{V} . \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

- When $p=1 / 2$, we choose $g_{1,1}(\widehat{\mathbf{U}}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}})=\frac{1}{2}\left(\|\widehat{\mathbf{U}}\|_{*}+\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}\|_{*}\right)$ in (11), and also introduce $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}=\mathbf{U}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}=\mathbf{V}$ in the constraints, then (11) becomes the minimization problem based on Schatten-1/2 norm factorization, i.e.,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \min _{\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{E}} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{1 / 2}}^{1 / 2}+\frac{\lambda}{2}\left(\|\widehat{\mathbf{U}}\|_{*}+\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}\|_{*}\right) \\
& \text { s.t. } \mathbf{E}=\mathbf{Y}-\mathbf{A X}, \mathbf{X}=\mathbf{U} \mathbf{V}^{\top}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}=\mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}=\mathbf{U} . \tag{14}
\end{align*}
$$

To obtain a closed-form solution for each subproblem in solving problems (13) and (14), the introduction of auxiliary variables such as $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}$ is advantageous. This approach allows us to utilize $g_{q_{1}, q_{2}}(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V})$ and apply the singular value thresholding operator [43], which is associated with the nuclear norm. Alternatively, when auxiliary variables are not introduced as splitting variables, linearized strategies, as employed in [17], [37], and [44], are often used for the square term. In general, the optimization of most constrained minimization problems involves iterative optimization methods, such as modified ADMM [42], [45], [46], [47]. These algorithms offer a substantial reduction in computational complexity through the factorization of the low-rank matrix. However, it is essential to engage in a comprehensive discussion regarding the potential challenges and intricacies associated with integrating complexity reduction into our proposed algorithms. This can be achieved by examining two key perspectives:

- On the one hand, the adoption of complexity reduction strategies entails the incorporation of matrix factorization, specifically $\mathbf{Z}=\mathbf{U} \mathbf{V}^{\top}$. In our approach, we have opted for the widely used Schatten $p$-norm [41], [42], as other nonconvex rank relaxation functions may lack readily available factorization formulas. The presence of closed-form or analytic solutions for the associated subproblems greatly enhances computational efficiency. Thus, both factorization formulas and closedform/analytic solutions are fundamental prerequisites for the successful implementation of our proposed approach.
- On the other hand, implementing the factorization strategy for low-rank matrices inherently introduces the complexity of managing multiple variables, a challenge crucial for ensuring convergence guarantees, as highlighted in [34]. Importantly, the incorporation of multiple variables naturally intensifies the computational workload, particularly during the optimization process involving SVD for large-scale matrix computations. Nevertheless, it is essential to acknowledge that the dimensions of the factor matrices are significantly smaller when compared to the learned low-rank matrix. This distinct attribute has substantially influenced our decision to capitalize on it, aiming to curtail computational complexity.


## III. The Optimization Scheme

In this section, we will employ the ADMM approach to solve problems (12), (13), and (14). To simplify and introduce commonly used functions, we define the following:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
f_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{1}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{X}\right)=\left\langle\Gamma_{1}, \mathbf{E}+\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}-\mathbf{Y}\right\rangle  \tag{15}\\
\quad+\frac{\mu^{k}}{2}\|\mathbf{E}+\mathbf{A X}-\mathbf{Y}\|_{F}^{2}, \\
f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}\right)=\left\langle\Gamma_{2}, \mathbf{X}-\mathbf{U} \mathbf{V}^{\top}\right\rangle \\
\quad+\frac{\mu^{k}}{2}\left\|\mathbf{X}-\mathbf{U V}^{\top}\right\|_{F}^{2}, \\
f_{3, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{3}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}\right)=\left\langle\Gamma_{3}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}-\mathbf{V}\right\rangle+\frac{\mu^{k}}{2}\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}-\mathbf{V}\|_{F}^{2}, \\
f_{4, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{4}, \mathbf{U}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}\right)=\left\langle\Gamma_{4}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}-\mathbf{U}\right\rangle+\frac{\mu^{k}}{2}\|\widehat{\mathbf{U}}-\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2},
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ represents the inner product operator. The dual variables $\Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2}, \Gamma_{3}$, and $\Gamma_{4}$ are introduced, and the penalty parameter $\mu^{k+1}=\rho \mu^{k}>0$ is commonly used to accelerate the convergence speed, where $\rho>1$. Empirical analysis suggests that larger values of $\rho$ can lead to fewer iterations but lower accuracy, while smaller values of $\rho$ can result in more iterations but higher accuracy. The augmented Lagrangian functions (ALFs) for solving problems (12), (13), and (14) are then defined as follows:

- Using (15) and (16) for $p=1$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathcal{L}_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{E}, \Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2}\right) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{1}}^{1}+f_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{1}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{X}\right) \\
& \quad+\frac{\lambda}{2}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+\|\mathbf{V}\|_{F}^{2}\right)+f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}\right) \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

- Using (15)-(17) for $p=2 / 3$, we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathcal{L}_{2 / 3, \mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{E}, \Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2}, \Gamma_{3}\right) \\
&=\left.\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{2 / 3}}^{2 / 3}+f_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{1}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{X}\right)\right) \\
&+\frac{\lambda}{3}\left(\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+2\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}\|_{*}\right)+f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}\right) \\
&+f_{3, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{3}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}\right) \tag{20}
\end{align*}
$$

- Using (15)-(18) for $p=1 / 2$, we achieve

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathcal{L}_{1 / 2, \mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{E}, \Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2}, \Gamma_{3}, \Gamma_{4}\right) \\
&=\left.\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{1 / 2}}^{1 / 2}+f_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{1}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{X}\right)\right) \\
&+\frac{\lambda}{2}\left(\|\widehat{\mathbf{U}}\|_{*}+\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}\|_{*}\right)+f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}\right) \\
&+f_{3, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{3}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}\right)+f_{4, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{4}, \mathbf{U}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}\right) \tag{21}
\end{align*}
$$

where in the subsequent iterations of the nonconvex multivariable ADMM, we address a sequence of equations (19) to (21) to update primal variables, dual variables, and penalty parameters sequentially. We place particular emphasis on elucidating our rationale behind the utilization of the ADMM algorithm, aiming to foster a transparent understanding of our choice. In this context, we provide a concise overview: ADMM was selected due to its proven effectiveness in dealing with constrained optimization problems. The algorithm's ability to derive closed-form solutions for each subproblem significantly contributes to its computational efficiency. This selection aligns with our optimization objectives, striking a balance between robustness and computational simplicity. Therefore, it is essential to comprehensively explain our selection to employ the ADMM algorithm, highlighting its compatibility with our specific problem's characteristics. Moreover, to solve the individual subproblems arising from equations (19) to (21), we seek closed-form solutions by minimizing optimization problems grounded in the Schatten- $p$ norm, where $p=1,2 / 3$, and $1 / 2$. This approach is crucial for managing residual descriptions and factorization strategies for coefficient matrix. To achieve this, we introduce singular value thresholding operators, a technique extensively utilized in previous studies [23], [41], [42], [48] and presented below for reference.
Proposition 1: Let $\Lambda \Sigma \Theta^{\top}$ be the SVD of a matrix $\mathbf{D} \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{l \times q}$ satisfying $\Lambda \Lambda^{\top}=\mathbf{I}$ and $\Theta \Theta^{\top}=\mathbf{I}$ for the identity matrix I, and assume $\Sigma=\operatorname{diag}\left(\left\{\sigma_{j}\right\}_{1 \leq j \leq r}\right)$ with $r=$ $\min (l, q)$. For each of positive singular value $\sigma_{j}$ and $\kappa>0$, we provide the singular value function shrinkage operators of the problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{\mathbf{E}} \kappa\|\mathbf{E}\|_{S_{p}}^{p}+\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{E}-\mathbf{D}\|_{F}^{2}, \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the optimal solver, denoted as $\mathbf{E}^{*}$, for $p=1,2 / 3$, and $1 / 2$, will be respectively represented as below.

- For $p=1$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{E}_{*}=\mathcal{S}_{\kappa}(\mathbf{D})=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(\left\{\max \left(\sigma_{i}-\kappa, 0\right)\right\}\right) \Theta^{\top} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For $p=2 / 3$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{E}_{*}=\mathcal{T}_{\kappa}(\mathbf{D})=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(\left\{\theta\left(\sigma_{i}\right) \cdot \xi\right\}\right) \Theta^{\top} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{\begin{array}{l}
\theta\left(\sigma_{i}\right)=\left(\left(\varpi+\sqrt{2 \sigma_{i} / \varpi-\varpi^{2}}\right) / 2\right)^{3} \\
\varpi=\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}(2 \beta)^{1 / 4} \cosh (\phi / 3)^{1 / 2} \\
\phi=\operatorname{arccosh}\left(\frac{27 \sigma_{i}^{2}}{16}(2 \beta)^{-1.5}\right)
\end{array}\right. \\
& \begin{cases}\xi=1, & \sigma_{i}>\frac{2}{3}\left(3(2 \beta)^{3}\right)^{1 / 4} \\
0, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

- For $p=1 / 2$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{E}_{*}=\mathcal{W}_{\kappa}(\mathbf{D})=\Lambda \operatorname{diag}\left(\left\{\theta\left(\sigma_{i}\right) \cdot \xi\right\}\right) \Theta^{\top}, \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\{\begin{array}{l}
\theta\left(\sigma_{i}\right)=\frac{2}{3} \sigma_{i}\left(1+\cos \left(\frac{2 \pi}{3}-\frac{2}{3} \varphi\right)\right), \\
\varphi=\arccos \left(\frac{\beta}{4}\left(\frac{\sigma_{i}}{3}\right)^{-1.5}\right), \\
\begin{cases}\xi=1, & \sigma_{i}>\frac{\sqrt[3]{54}}{4}(2 \eta)^{2 / 3}, \\
0, & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
\end{array} . \begin{array}{l}
\end{array}\right.
\end{align*}
$$

where the closed-form solutions for the involved Schatten- $p$ norm subproblems can be obtained by using equations (23), (24), and (26). These equations provide the necessary operations to compute the updated variables, namely $\mathbf{E}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}$, and $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}$. By leveraging these closed-form solutions, an effective optimization process is achieved, which facilitates faster convergence and improves computational efficiency.

Given the variables at the $k$-th iteration, i.e., $\left\{\mathbf{U}^{k}, \mathbf{V}^{k}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k}\right.$, $\left.\widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{E}^{k}\right\}$, we update the variables at the $(k+1)$-th iteration by minimizing (19)-(21) with respect to $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}, \mathbf{E}$, and $\mathbf{X}$. Subsequently, we update the dual variables according to the following rules:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\Gamma_{1}^{k+1}=\Gamma_{1}^{k}+\mu^{k}\left(\mathbf{E}^{k+1}+\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}^{k+1}-\mathbf{Y}\right)  \tag{28}\\
\Gamma_{2}^{k+1}=\Gamma_{2}^{k}+\mu^{k}\left(\mathbf{X}^{k+1}-\mathbf{U}^{k+1}\left(\mathbf{V}^{k+1}\right)^{\top}\right), \\
\Gamma_{3}^{k+1}=\Gamma_{3}^{k}+\mu^{k}\left(\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}-\mathbf{V}^{k+1}\right) \\
\Gamma_{4}^{k+1}=\Gamma_{4}^{k}+\mu^{k}\left(\widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k+1}-\mathbf{U}^{k+1}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

where the closed-form solutions for the $(k+1)$-th iteration can be easily obtained using Proposition 1. These solutions involve matrix computations that include derivatives and multiplications based on equations (28)-(31).

## A. Updating $\mathbf{U}^{k+1}$ and $\mathbf{V}^{k+1}$

By optimizing (19), we compute the derivatives with respect to $\mathbf{U}$ and $\mathbf{V}$ and set them to zero. This allows us to find the updated variables $\mathbf{U}^{k+1}$ and $\mathbf{V}^{k+1}$ by solving

$$
\underset{\mathbf{U}}{\arg \min } \frac{\lambda}{2}\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}^{k}\right)
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \quad=\left(\mathbf{X}^{k}+\frac{\Gamma_{2}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right) \mathbf{V}^{k}\left(\frac{\lambda \mathbf{I}}{\mu^{k}}+\left(\mathbf{V}^{k}\right)^{\top} \mathbf{V}^{k}\right)^{-1}  \tag{32}\\
& \underset{\mathbf{V}}{\arg \min } \frac{\lambda}{2}\|\mathbf{V}\|_{F}^{2}+f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{U}^{k+1}, \mathbf{V}\right) \\
& \quad=\left(\mathbf{X}^{k}+\frac{\Gamma_{2}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right)^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{k+1}\left(\frac{\lambda \mathbf{I}}{\mu^{k}}+\left(\mathbf{U}^{k+1}\right)^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{k+1}\right)^{-1} . \tag{33}
\end{align*}
$$

Similar to (32) and (33), we optimize (20) and obtain the updates for $\mathbf{U}^{k+1}$ and $\mathbf{V}^{k+1}$ through

$$
\begin{align*}
& \underset{\mathbf{U}}{\arg \min } \frac{\lambda}{3}\|\mathbf{U}\|_{F}^{2}+f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}^{k}\right) \\
& =\left(\mathbf{X}^{k}+\frac{\Gamma_{2}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right) \mathbf{V}^{k}\left(\frac{2 \lambda \mathbf{I}}{3 \mu^{k}}+\left(\mathbf{V}^{k}\right)^{\top} \mathbf{V}^{k}\right)^{-1},  \tag{34}\\
& \underset{\mathbf{V}}{\arg \min } f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{U}^{k+1}, \mathbf{V}\right)+f_{3, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{3}^{k}, \mathbf{V}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k}\right) \\
& =\left[\left(\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k}+\frac{\Gamma_{3}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right)+\left(\mathbf{X}^{k}+\frac{\Gamma_{2}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right)^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{k+1}\right] \\
& \quad \times\left(\mathbf{I}+\left(\mathbf{U}^{k+1}\right)^{\top} \mathbf{U}^{k+1}\right)^{-1} . \tag{35}
\end{align*}
$$

By optimizing (21), we update $\mathbf{U}^{k+1}$ based on the computational method described in (35), resulting in

$$
\begin{align*}
& \underset{\mathbf{U}}{\arg \min } f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V}^{k}\right)+f_{4, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{4}^{k}, \mathbf{U}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k}\right) \\
& =\left[\left(\widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k}+\frac{\Gamma_{4}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right)+\left(\mathbf{X}^{k}+\frac{\Gamma_{2}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right) \mathbf{V}^{k+1}\right] \\
& \quad \times\left(\mathbf{I}+\left(\mathbf{V}^{k}\right)^{\top} \mathbf{V}^{k}\right)^{-1} . \tag{36}
\end{align*}
$$

In particular, when updating both $\mathbf{U}^{k+1}$ and $\mathbf{V}^{k+1}$, it is advantageous to incorporate an adaptive rank tuning technique [41], [49]. This technique helps estimate the value of $d$, which corresponds to the rank of the low-rank matrix. By selecting a suitable rank value, we can strike a balance between computational complexity and clustering performance.

## B. Updating $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k+1}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}$

In the optimization problem (19), the variables $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k+1}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}$ are not explicitly involved. However, in the optimization problem (20), only $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}$ is included. Furthermore, in the optimization problem (21), both $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k+1}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}$ are present. These auxiliary variables are introduced to simplify the optimizations and enable closed-form solutions.

Fixing other unrelated variables and combining (23) with (20), we can observe that updating $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}$ involves

$$
\begin{gather*}
\underset{\widehat{\mathbf{V}}}{\arg \min } \frac{2 \lambda}{3}\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}\|_{*}+f_{3, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{3}^{k}, \mathbf{V}^{k+1}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}\right) \\
\quad=\mathcal{S}_{2 \lambda / 3 \mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{V}^{k+1}-\frac{\Gamma_{3}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right) \tag{37}
\end{gather*}
$$

By optimizing (21) to update $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k+1}$, we can derive the following solution formulas

$$
\underset{\widehat{\mathbf{V}}}{\arg \min } \frac{\lambda}{2}\|\widehat{\mathbf{V}}\|_{*}+f_{3, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{3}^{k}, \mathbf{V}^{k+1}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}\right)
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& =\mathcal{S}_{\lambda / 2 \mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{V}^{k+1}-\frac{\Gamma_{3}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right)  \tag{38}\\
\underset{\widehat{\mathbf{U}}}{\arg \min } & \frac{\lambda}{2}\|\widehat{\mathbf{U}}\|_{*}+f_{4, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{4}^{k}, \mathbf{U}^{k+1}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}\right) \\
& =\mathcal{S}_{\lambda / 2 \mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{U}^{k+1}-\frac{\Gamma_{4}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right) \tag{39}
\end{align*}
$$

## C. Updating $\mathbf{X}^{k+1}$ and $\mathbf{E}^{k+1}$

Fixing the unrelated variables and computing the derivatives with respect to $\mathbf{X}$, we can set the derivative value to zero to obtain the following closed-form solutions for (19)-(21) based on the $(k+1)$-th iterate for $\mathbf{X}^{k+1}$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
\underset{\mathbf{X}}{\arg \min } & f_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{1}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{X}\right)+f_{2, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{2}^{k}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}^{k+1}, \mathbf{V}^{k+1}\right) \\
& =\left(\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A}\right)^{-1} \times\left[\mathbf{A}^{\top}\left(Y-\mathbf{E}^{k}-\frac{\Gamma_{1}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right)\right. \\
& \left.+\left(\mathbf{U}^{k+1}\left(\mathbf{V}^{k+1}\right)^{\top}-\frac{\Gamma_{2}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right)\right] \tag{40}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\mathbf{A}=\left[\mathbf{A}_{1}(:), \mathbf{A}_{2}(:), \ldots, \mathbf{A}_{n}(:)\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{l q \times m}$ is defined as the data matrix generated from all the training samples. Furthermore, we observe that $\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A}$ remains unchanged when the databases are fixed. Therefore, it can be computed outside the iteration loop to avoid repeated computations.

By fixing other unrelated terms with $\mathbf{E}_{i}^{k}$, we reformulate equation (15) as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} f_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{1, i}^{k}, \mathbf{E}_{i}^{k}, \mathbf{X}_{i}\right) \hat{=} \frac{\mu^{k}}{2}\left\|\mathbf{E}^{k}+\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}-\mathbf{Y}+\frac{\Gamma_{1}^{k}}{\mu^{k}}\right\|_{F}^{2} \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we can rewrite $f_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{1, i}^{k}, \mathbf{E}_{i}, \mathbf{X}_{i}^{k+1}\right)=\frac{\mu^{k}}{2} \| \mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)-$ $h_{\mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}^{k+1}, \Gamma_{1, i}^{k}\right) \|_{F}^{2} \quad$ with $\quad h_{\mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}^{k+1}, \Gamma_{1, i}^{k}\right)=\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{Y}_{i}\right)-$ $\mathcal{A}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}^{k+1}\right)-\frac{\mathcal{M}\left(\Gamma_{1, i}^{k}\right)}{\mu^{k}}$. By combining equations (19)-(21) and (41), we can transform the sub-problems for iteratively updating $\mathbf{E}^{k+1}$ into the following optimization problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underset{\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)}{\arg \min }\left\|\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)\right\|_{S_{p}}^{p}+f_{1, \mu^{k}}\left(\Gamma_{1, i}^{k}, \mathbf{E}_{i}, \mathbf{X}_{i}^{k+1}\right) \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

where, based on Proposition 1, we can obtain the analytic solvers for (42) with three different $p$-values as follows

$$
\mathcal{M}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}^{k+1}\right)= \begin{cases}\mathcal{S}_{1 / \mu^{k}}\left(h_{\mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}^{k+1}, \Gamma_{1, i}^{k}\right)\right), & p=1,  \tag{43}\\ \mathcal{T}_{1 / \mu^{k}}\left(h_{\mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}^{k+1}, \Gamma_{1, i}^{k}\right)\right), & p=2 / 3, \\ \mathcal{W}_{1 / \mu^{k}}\left(h_{\mu^{k}}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i}^{k+1}, \Gamma_{1, i}^{k}\right)\right), & p=1 / 2 .\end{cases}
$$

After obtaining the vectors $\mathbf{E}_{i}^{k+1}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$ from (43) in parallel to improve computational efficiency, we can construct the residual matrix $\mathbf{E}^{k+1}$ by concatenating these individual vectors. Specifically, we form $\mathbf{E}^{k+1}$ by horizontally combining the vectors: $\mathbf{E}^{k+1}=\left[\mathbf{E}_{1}^{k+1}, \mathbf{E}_{2}^{k+1}, \ldots, \mathbf{E}_{n}^{k+1}\right]$. This updated matrix $\mathbf{E}^{k+1}$ will be utilized in the subsequent iterations.

In summary, the iteration procedure for solving problems (12)-(14) can be outlined in Algorithm 1. The algorithm

```
Algorithm 1 Optimization for Problem (11)
Input: \(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{X}^{1}, \mathbf{U}^{1}, \mathbf{V}^{1}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{1}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{1}\), and \(\left\{\Gamma_{i}^{0}\right\}_{1 \leq i \leq 4}\)
Parameter: \(\lambda, p, d \geq r, \rho=1.1, \mu^{0}\) and \(k=0\)
Output: \(\mathbf{X}^{*} \leftarrow \mathbf{X}^{k+1}\)
    while not converged do
        if \(p=1\)
            update \(\mathbf{U}^{k+1}\) and \(\mathbf{V}^{k+1}\) by (32) and (33),
            update \(\mathbf{X}^{k+1}\) by (22),
            update \(\mathbf{E}^{k+1}\) by (43) with \(p=1\),
            update \(\Gamma_{1}^{k+1}\) and \(\Gamma_{2}^{k+1}\) by (28) and (29),
        elseif \(p=2 / 3\)
            update \(\mathbf{U}^{k+1}\) and \(\mathbf{V}^{k+1}\) by (34) and (35),
            update \(\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}\) by (37),
            update \(\mathbf{X}^{k+1}\) by (22),
            update \(\mathbf{E}^{k+1}\) by (43) with \(p=2 / 3\),
            update \(\Gamma_{1}^{k+1}, \Gamma_{2}^{k+1}\) and \(\Gamma_{3}^{k+1}\) by (28)-(30),
        else
            update \(\mathbf{U}^{k+1}\) and \(\mathbf{V}^{k+1}\) by (36) and (35),
            update \(\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k+1}\) and \(\widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k+1}\) by (38) and (39),
            update \(\mathbf{X}^{k+1}\) by (22),
            update \(\mathbf{E}^{k+1}\) by (43) with \(p=1 / 2\),
                update \(\Gamma_{1}^{k+1}, \Gamma_{2}^{k+1}, \Gamma_{3}^{k+1}\) and \(\Gamma_{4}^{k+1}\) by (28)-(31),
        end
    end while
```

initializes the Lagrange multipliers, primal variables, and parameters according to the technique suggested in [41], [42], and [44]. The algorithm continues iterating until the stopping criteria are met, which is determined by the following condition:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\left\|\mathbf{E}^{k+1}+\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}^{k+1}-\mathbf{Y}\right\|_{F}}{\|\mathbf{Y}\|_{F}}<\epsilon \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $0<\epsilon \ll 1$ is a pre-defined threshold value. To evaluate the classification accuracy, we design a classification criterion using the Schatten- $p$ norm with three different $p$ values, as proposed in [12] and [13]. Based on the coefficient matrix $\mathbf{X}^{*}$, we calculate the class-wise error matrices for all the testing samples and assign the final label to the $i$-th testing sample $\mathbf{Y}_{i}$. The final label can be determined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Label}\left(\mathbf{Y}_{i}\right)=\operatorname{argmin}_{j} \frac{\left\|\operatorname{Mat}\left(\mathbf{Y}_{i}\right)-\mathcal{A}_{c_{j}}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i, c_{j}}^{*}\right)\right\|_{S_{p}}^{p}}{\left\|\mathbf{X}_{i, c_{j}}^{*}\right\|_{2}} \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{X}_{i, c_{j}}^{*}$ represents the coefficient vector associated with the $i$-th testing sample for the $j$-th class, denoted as $c_{j}$, training samples, and $\mathcal{A}_{c_{j}}\left(\mathbf{X}_{i, c_{j}}^{*}\right)$ represents the reconstructed image matrix for class $c_{j}$. The computable $\operatorname{Label}\left(\mathbf{Y}_{i}\right)$ is determined by selecting the value on the right side of the " $=$ " sign that is the smallest among all $1 \leq j \leq n$, indicating the class with the lowest reconstruction error for $\mathbf{Y}_{i}$.

## IV. Theoretical Analysis

In this section, we present the computational complexity of Algorithm 1, and then present the algorithmic convergence property. The detailed analysis was given as below.

- For the computational complexity in (32)-(43)., it mainly depends on the computations of the SVD of the error matrix $\operatorname{Mat}\left(\mathbf{E}_{i}\right)$ and the factorized matrix $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}$ along with the matrix multiplications for updating $\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{U}$, and $\mathbf{V}$, respectively. For the studied cases, the complexity of updating $\mathbf{E}$ and $\mathbf{X}$ is $o\left(n l q^{2}\right)$ and $o\left(m n \varsigma+m^{2} n+m d n\right)$ for $l \geq q$ and $\varsigma=l q$, For $p=2 / 3$, the complexity of computing $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}$ is $o\left(n d^{2}\right)$, while for $p=1 / 2$, the total complexity of computing $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}$ and $\widehat{\mathbf{U}}$ is $o\left((m+n) d^{2}\right)$. Then, we give the complexity of updating $\mathbf{U}$ and $\mathbf{V}$ as follows
- the computational complexity of updating $\mathbf{U}$ is the same, i.e., $o\left(d^{3}+2 n d^{2}+m d n\right)$, for the three $p$-values.
- the computational complexity of updating $\mathbf{V}$ is $o\left(d^{3}+\right.$ $\left.2 m d^{2}+m d n\right)$ for $p=1$ as well as $o\left(d^{3}+(n+m) d^{2}+\right.$ $m d n$ ) for both $p=2 / 3$ and $p=1 / 2$, respectively.
- For the convergence property, we theoretically prove the boundedness of generated variable sequences and the satisfied Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions.
- We prove the boundedness of the generated variable sequences, both the dual variables $\left\{\Gamma_{i}^{k+1}\right\}_{i=1}^{4}$ and the primal variables involved in (12)-(14). This shows that these variable sequences remain within certain bounds, ensuring the stability of the optimization process.
- The global convergence of the generated variable subsequences are proved theoretically, which can be exploited to characterize the cluster point.
We next present a brief overview of two important concepts: the dual norm [33] and the sub-differential of the singular value function [9], [50]. Understanding these concepts is essential for analyzing the convergence of our proposed methods.

Lemma 1: Let $\mathcal{H}$ be a real Hilbert space endowed with an inner product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ and a corresponding norm $\|\cdot\|$, and $\mathbf{z} \in$ $\partial\|\mathbf{y}\|$, where $\partial f(\mathbf{y})$ denotes the sub-gradient of $f(\mathbf{y})$. Then $\|\mathbf{z}\|^{*}=1$ if $\mathbf{X} \neq 0$, and $\|\mathbf{z}\|^{*} \leq 1$ if $\mathbf{X}=0$, where $\|\mathbf{z}\|^{*}$ is the dual norm of $\|\mathbf{z}\|$. For example, the dual norm of the nuclear norm is the spectral norm $\|\cdot\|_{2}$, i.e., the largest singular value of given matrix.

Lemma 2: Let $F(\mathbf{X}): \mathbb{R}^{l \times m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the corresponding singular value function $f \circ \sigma(\mathbf{X})$ at a matrix $\mathbf{X}$, and $f(\cdot)$ : $\mathbb{R}^{m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an absolutely symmetric function, then assume that $\mathbf{X}=\Lambda \Sigma \Theta^{\top}$ is the SVD of $\mathbf{X}$, then the sub-differential of $F(\cdot)$ at $\mathbf{X}$ is given by the following formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial F(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}}=\partial(f \circ \sigma)(\mathbf{X})=\Lambda \widehat{\Sigma} \Theta^{\top}, \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\widehat{\Sigma}_{i i}=\left.\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{y}}\right|_{\mathbf{y}=\Sigma_{i i}}$ holds for $1 \leq i i \leq m$.
Proposition 2: Let ( $\mathbf{U}^{k}, \mathbf{V}^{k}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{E}^{k}$ ) be the multivariable sequence as well as the dual variable sequence $\left\{\Gamma_{i}^{k+1}\right\}_{i=1}^{4}$ generated from Algorithm 1, and we assume that $\mu^{k}\left(\mathbf{E}^{k}-\mathbf{E}^{k+1}\right)$ is bounded. Then, we have the assertions:
(i) the dual variables $\left\{\Gamma_{i}^{k+1}\right\}_{i=1}^{4}$ are bounded, and
(ii) the primal ones $\left(\mathbf{U}^{k}, \mathbf{V}^{k}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{E}^{k}\right)$ involved in the problems (12)-(14) are also bounded for three cases.

Theorem 2: Let $\quad\left(\mathbf{U}^{k}, \mathbf{V}^{k}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{k}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{E}^{k}\right)$ be a variable sequence along with the dual variable sequence $\left\{\Gamma_{i}^{k+1}\right\}_{i=1}^{4}$ generated by Algorithm 1, and assume the

TABLE I
Statistic Descriptions of Involved Six Experimental Databases

| Dataset | Styles | Subjects | Size | Training | Testing |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (a) AR | face | 100 | $60 \times 43$ | $2580 \times 700$ | $2580 \times 600$ |
| (b) FERET | face | 200 | $40 \times 40$ | $1600 \times 1000$ | $1600 \times 400$ |
| (c) ExYaleB | face | 38 | $96 \times 84$ | $8064 \times 266$ | $8064 \times 722$ |
| (d) COIL20 | object | 20 | $32 \times 32$ | $1024 \times 300$ | $1024 \times 300$ |
| (e) FLAVIA | object | 32 | $30 \times 40$ | $1200 \times 800$ | $1200 \times 800$ |
| (f) MNIST | digital | 10 | $28 \times 28$ | $784 \times 1000$ | $784 \times 1000$ |



## (a) AR


(c) ExYaleB

(e) FLAVIA
(b) FERET

(d) COIL20

(f) MNIST

Fig. 3. Partial images from six databases (faces, objects, and digital images) with various variations such as occlusions and illuminations. The images on the left are for training, and the ones on the right are for testing.
same conditions as stated in Proposition 2. Under the additional condition that $\mu^{k}\left(\mathcal{T}^{k}-\mathcal{T}^{k+1}\right) \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ as $k \rightarrow+\infty$, where $\mathcal{T}^{k}=\left(\mathbf{V}^{k}, \mathbf{X}^{k}, \mathbf{E}^{k}\right)$, any cluster point, denoted as $\left(\mathbf{U}^{*}, \mathbf{V}^{*}, \widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{*}, \widehat{\mathbf{U}}^{*}, \mathbf{X}^{*}, \mathbf{E}^{*}\right)$ and $\left\{\Gamma_{i}^{*}\right\}_{i=1}^{4}$, obtained from the variable sequence, is a stationary point with respect to (19)-(21). Moreover, the choices of these variables satisfy the KKT conditions for the cases of $p=1,2 / 3$, and $1 / 2$.

It should be mentioned that we provide the detailed proofs of the theoretical results, i.e., Proposition 2 and Theorem 2, in the supplementary materials.

## V. Numerical Experiments

This section starts by providing statistics on six widely used image databases, which are summarized in TABLE I. The selected images from these databases are also showcased in Fig. 3 (a)-(f). Subsequently, we provide comprehensive descriptions of each experimental image database, highlighting their unique characteristics and applications.

- The AR database contains images of 100 individuals, including samples with scarf occlusions, making it a challenging dataset for face recognition tasks. The FERET database consists of images with frontal, left, or right profile views, showcasing variations in pose, expression, and lighting conditions. We specifically selected a subset of 1400 images, representing 200 individuals. The ExYaleB database comprises images of 38 subjects captured under various illuminations, providing valuable insights into illumination robustness in face recognition.
- The COIL20 object database consists of 600 images depicting 20 different objects. Each image features the main body of the object centered against a black
background, and multiple horizontal angles are captured, providing diverse views for each object. The FLAVIA database focuses on leaf classification and contains images of leaves from various plant species. Each leaf species exhibits unique variations in shape, length, and width, making it a suitable dataset for studying leaf classification tasks. We specifically selected 1600 images representing 32 different leaf species. The MNIST database is a well-known dataset widely used for handwriting digit recognition. It includes multiple handwritten digits ranging from 0 to 9 , making it a valuable resource for training and evaluating digit recognition algorithms.
The selected databases used in our experiments are publicly available and can be easily loaded. We conducted the experiments without any pre-processing, using the training and testing samples directly. The experiments were performed on a 64-bit PC with an Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-7700 CPU@3.6GHz and 8.0 GB RAM, utilizing MATLAB R2021b. To compare our proposed SpNFLMR approach, we implemented and compared several mostly related methods, including CRC [12], NMR with its faster version (FNMR) [13], $\mathrm{ULR}_{*}$ [14], $\mathrm{ULR}_{* *}$ [14], ALPR [15], DLRSR [16], NLR $\ell_{21}$ [17], RSLDA [18], and generalized iterated shrinkage algorithm (GISA) with three $p$-values [24]. Note that $\mathrm{ULR}_{*}$ and $\mathrm{ULR}_{* *}$ are specific instances of the ULR model [14], and GISA ${ }_{1}$ and SRC share the same model formulations while utilizing different optimization algorithms. For conducting the comparisons, we meticulously fine-tuned the parameters of these methods to achieve the best possible performance and computational efficiency. In contrast, our proposed S $p$ NFLMR approach, for $p=1,2 / 3$, and $1 / 2$, consistently demonstrated effectiveness and robustness across all three scenarios.


## A. Experiments on Face Databases

The results presented in TABLE II provide a comprehensive comparison between our proposed methods and ten other approaches across three face databases. Upon analyzing the results, it becomes apparent that CRC, ULR, and GISA exhibit lower timing costs due to their differentiable objective functions and overall approach to processing testing data. In contrast, methods such as NMR and FNMR incur higher time costs as they compute the coefficient representation for each individual testing data independently. Our proposed methods, along with NLR $\ell_{21}$, NMR, and FNMR, effectively leverage the low-rank structure information, resulting in improved classification accuracy while consistently demonstrating lower timing costs. This highlights the higher efficiency of our factorization strategies and validates the superior classification accuracy they offer. On the other hand, ALPR, DLSR, and RSLDA achieve lower classification accuracy compared to some of the comparative methods due to their reliance on inexact measurements of the residual function in these datasets. This suggests that our methods are better suited for capturing the inherent structure and leading to enhanced accuracy.

To further validate the effectiveness of our proposed methods, Fig. 4 (a) shows the curves of the stopping function on the

TABLE II
Classification Accuracy (\%) and Computation Times of the Methods Used on Three Face Databases

| Methods | AR |  | FERET |  | ExYaleB |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Acc | Time | Acc | Time | Acc | Time |
| CRC | 67.50 | 3.9 s | 70.50 | 2.2 s | 48.50 | 4.6 s |
| NMR | 70.67 | 323.8 s | $\mathbf{7 8 . 2 5}$ | 205.4 s | 48.07 | 550.5 s |
| FNMR | 70.17 | 210.5 s | 77.75 | 143.6 s | 46.81 | 294.8 s |
| ALPR | 52.00 | 156.7 s | 69.25 | 226.2 s | 24.59 | 698.9 s |
| DLRSR $^{2}$ | 60.17 | 27.7 s | 72.00 | 11.3 s | 26.55 | 330.5 s |
| ULR $_{*}$ | 66.83 | 10.6 s | 70.50 | 8.5 s | 49.31 | 11.9 s |
| ULR $_{* *}$ | 67.33 | 13.7 s | 71.50 | 13.1 s | 49.17 | 15.7 s |
| NLR $_{21}$ | 63.33 | 295.6 s | 71.00 | 378.9 s | $\mathbf{9 5 . 7 1}$ | 204.5 s |
| GISA $_{1}$ | 65.50 | 5.8 s | 77.25 | 3.9 s | 27.29 | 6.1 s |
| GISA $_{2 / 3}$ | 65.67 | 5.7 s | 73.50 | 4.1 s | 27.29 | 6.4 s |
| GISA $_{1 / 2}$ | 66.00 | 5.8 s | 70.50 | 4.3 s | 27.29 | 6.1 s |
| RSLDA $^{2}$ | 59.18 | 210.6 s | 73.25 | 139.7 s | 57.75 | 1263.6 s |
| S $_{1}$ NFLMR $^{2}$ | 73.50 | 15.7 s | 69.75 | 8.9 s | 42.52 | 61.3 s |
| S $_{2 / 3}$ NFLMR $^{2}$ | $\mathbf{8 1 . 5 0}$ | 45.4 s | 76.75 | 23.1 s | 63.44 | 126.1 s |
| S $_{1 / 2}$ NFLMR $^{2}$ | 76.33 | 69.5 s | 72.25 | 35.5 s | 51.94 | 168.9 s |



Fig. 4. Visual comparisons of the influences of our methods with three different $p$-values are shown for three face databases. The comparisons take into account plotted curves, random initial variables, and model parameters.

AR database, which exhibit a desirable non-increasing convergence property. To gain deeper insights into the nonconvex nature of our methods, Fig. 4 (b) presents the distribution of classification accuracy across 500 runs on the FERET database, considering random initial variables. Analyzing the spread of accuracy values allows us to assess the robustness and stability in different initialization scenarios. Furthermore, in Fig. 4 (c), we visualize the timing costs associated with various parameter settings, focusing on the ExYaleB database. This analysis helps us evaluate the computational efficiency

TABLE III
Classification Accuracy (\%) and Computation Times of the Methods Used on the Object and Digital Databases

| Methods | COIL20 |  | FLAVIA |  | MNIST |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Acc | Time | Acc | Time | Acc | Time |
| CRC | 62.33 | $<1 \mathrm{~s}$ | 58.88 | 3.2 s | 87.70 | 2.1 s |
| NMR | 62.67 | 22.1 s | 54.50 | 169.6 s | 89.20 | 124.5 s |
| FNMR | 62.00 | 15.6 s | 54.50 | 121.1 s | 85.10 | 115.6 s |
| ALPR | 65.00 | 14.0 s | 61.50 | 58.2 s | 86.60 | 17.1 s |
| DLRSR $^{2}$ | 57.00 | $<1 \mathrm{~s}$ | 55.88 | 1.8 s | 83.90 | 1.5 s |
| ULR $_{*}$ | 62.00 | 3.7 s | 61.00 | 24.1 s | 90.50 | 37.1 s |
| ULR $_{* *}$ | 62.33 | 4.6 s | 61.63 | 29.5 s | 90.60 | 38.2 s |
| ${\text { NLR } \ell_{21}}$ | 69.00 | 19.2 s | 51.13 | 431.1 s | 87.40 | 193.5 |
| GISA $_{1}$ | 61.33 | $<1 \mathrm{~s}$ | 60.75 | 3.0 s | 90.20 | 4.1 s |
| GISA $_{2 / 3}$ | 61.00 | $<1 \mathrm{~s}$ | 61.38 | 3.0 s | 90.10 | 3.4 s |
| GISA $_{1 / 2}$ | 62.00 | $<1 \mathrm{~s}$ | 59.25 | 3.1 | 89.70 | 3.8 s |
| RSLDA $^{2}$ | 58.00 | 20.1 s | 62.00 | 79.3 s | 90.70 | 46.2 s |
| S $_{1}$ NFLMR $^{2}$ | 61.33 | 4.3 s | 76.50 | 16.1 s | 89.80 | 11.1 s |
| $\mathrm{~S}_{2 / 3}$ NFLMR $^{2}$ | 64.00 | 9.7 s | 64.13 | 53.6 s | 87.40 | 26.4 s |
| $\mathrm{~S}_{1 / 2}$ NFLMR $^{2}$ | 65.00 | 11.2 s | 60.75 | 82.2 s | 81.80 | 35.3 s |

with examining the timing costs under different parameter configurations, we can make informed decisions to strike a balance between accuracy and computational efficiency.

## B. Experiments on Object and Digital Databases

The results listed in TABLE III provide quantitative comparisons for object and digital databases. The compared methods, including CRC, DLSR, ULR, and GISA, have higher computational efficiency. Here, ALPR, NMR, NLR $\ell_{21}$, and FNMR exhibit lower computational efficiency. Overall, our methods consistently achieve lower timing costs while improving accuracy compared to NMR and FNMR. However, there are instances where our methods do not surpass all the comparison methods, and this can be attributed to the utilization of additional information, such as ALPR, ULR, NLR $\ell_{21}$, DLRSR, and RSLDA. This phenomenon could be attributed to the absence of occlusions or illuminations in the testing images, which are the factors in which our methods excel to a certain extent.

To gain further insights, we conducted additional investigations to explore different perspectives. In Fig. 5 (a), we illustrate the distributions of representation coefficients obtained by our proposed methods for three different values of $p$ on the COIL20 dataset. This analysis allows us to understand the impact of varying $p$ on the coefficient matrix. Furthermore, in Fig. 5 (b), we analyze the reconstructed errors on the FLAVIA database to validate the effectiveness of our methods. The reconstructed errors for the same subjects as the testing samples exhibit lower values, while errors for different subjects show higher values. This demonstrates the ability of our methods to capture subject-specific information. Moreover, Fig. 5 (c) showcases the block-diagonal structures


Fig. 5. Visual comparisons derived from the coefficient matrices generated by our methods using three different $p$-values on object and digital databases.


Fig. 6. Visual comparisons of the reconstruction and residual images for three $p$-values, focusing on (a) the AR database and (b) the ExtYaleB database.
with normalization on the MNIST database, providing insights into the influence of the coefficient matrix.

## C. Further Analysis and Discussion

This subsection first performed an ablation analysis on six databases to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the modules used in our objective function. Additionally, we investigated the capabilities of our methods in face reconstruction and noise removal tasks, while also exploring the impact of parameter sensitivity on classification accuracy. These findings were thoroughly analyzed and discussed below.

- Reconstruction Validation: To demonstrate the effectiveness of our $S_{p}$ NFLMR methods, we provide visual examples in Fig. 6 (a) and (b). These examples showcase a series of reconstructed images and their corresponding error images from the AR and ExYaleB databases.

TABLE IV
Comparisons of Accuracy (\%) and Computation Times of the Methods Under Various Ablation Settings Across Six Databases

| // | AR |  | FERET |  | ExtYaleB |  | COIL20 |  | FLAVIA |  | MNIST |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Acc | Time | Acc | Time | Acc | Time | Acc | Time | Acc | Time | Acc | Time |
| (a) | 73.50 | 15.7s | 69.75 | 8.9s | 42.52 | 61.3 s | 61.33 | 4.3 s | 76.50 | 16.1 s | 89.80 | 11.1 s |
| (b1) | 78.83 | 35.9s | 71.25 | 20.5s | 52.91 | 121.9s | 65.67 | 8.1s | 74.13 | 33.2 s | 88.40 | 26.9s |
| (b2) | 76.67 | 43.0s | 72.25 | 23.1 s | 57.48 | 149.1s | 67.00 | 10.3s | 71.10 | 40.6s | 87.50 | 33.6s |
| (c1) | 79.17 | 21.9s | 75.25 | 10.2 s | 39.19 | 61.5 s | 61.67 | 4.5 s | 65.13 | 26.2s | 87.90 | 11.9s |
| (c2) | 73.83 | 26.7s | 65.75 | 13.5 s | 35.87 | 66.5 s | 62.67 | 5.5 s | 61.50 | 35.1 s | 83.70 | 13.6s |



Fig. 7. Visual comparisons of proposed methods across six databases to analyze the effects of different parameter pairs ( $p, d_{0}, \lambda$ ) on classification accuracy.

By visually inspecting these samples, it becomes evident that our methods successfully remove occlusions and illuminations from the testing images, attesting to their capability in preserving image fidelity.

- Ablation Analysis: The results of the ablation studies are presented in TABLE IV. The baseline method, denoted as (a) and represented by equation (12), serves as the reference. In the first set of experiments, we fixed the coefficient regularization term and replaced the residual term with equations (13) and (14), denoted as (b1) and (b2), respectively. In the second set, we fixed the residual term and substituted the regularization term with equations (13) and (14), denoted as (c1) and (c2), respectively. The results indicate that each module has a minor influence on both the classification accuracy and timing cost. Notably, when compared to the baseline (a), both (c1) and (c2) exhibit more significant improvements in timing costs compared to (b1) and (b2).
- Parameter Sensitivity: We conducted a thorough parameter analysis, and the results are presented in Fig. 7 (a)-(f). This analysis aimed to investigate the effects of different values of ( $p, \lambda, d_{0}$ ) across six databases. For the $p$ parameter, we specifically selected three values and adjusted the regularization parameter $\lambda$ accordingly for
each set. The choice of the rank number of the coefficient matrix, denoted as $d=d_{0} \times r_{e}$, can vary depending on the number of subjects and provides flexibility in the selection process. Automatic estimation of the rank number, denoted as $r_{e}$ in previous studies [41], [49], becomes crucial in scenarios where the exact rank of the coefficient matrix is unknown. Furthermore, by analyzing the classification accuracy of our $\mathrm{S}_{p}$ NFLMR methods, we observed that accuracy varied across different experimental settings while remaining stable overall. This comprehensive analysis of the ( $p, \lambda, d_{0}$ ) values provides valuable insights into the validation and exploration of the potential advantages. Carefully selecting appropriate values for $p, \lambda$, and $d_{0}$ further enhances the performance of our $\mathrm{S}_{p}$ NFLMR methods across various databases.


## VI. Conclusion and Future Work

This study focuses on investigating a structured nonconvex and nonsmooth low-rank matrix regression model, which utilizes the extended matrix variate power exponential distribution. The main objective is to address structured noise, such as occlusions and continuous illustration, by incorporating the residual function and capturing the block-structures of
the coefficient matrix. To achieve this, we introduce the Schatten $p$-norm and its factorization for three different $p$ values. This allows us to formulate structured regression problems and develop efficient iteration procedures using the augmented Lagrange function within the multi-variate ADMM framework. Theoretical analysis is performed to establish convergence properties under mild assumptions and the computational complexity is also provided. Additionally, extensive experiments are conducted to demonstrate the superior performance and lower timing cost of our methods compared to several related linear regression approaches.

In our upcoming research endeavors, we have identified two primary avenues for future exploration. Firstly, we plan to extend our efficient optimization algorithms to tackle tensor recovery problems, as examined in [51] and [52]. Secondly, our focus will be on incorporating additional information into our models, including the integration of graph structures [21], [40], [46], discriminative features [18], [53], [54], and latent attributes [55]. These enhancements will be built upon the groundwork laid by prior studies. We anticipate that these efforts will lead to improved performance and greater robustness across a variety of applications.

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