Technical Note: The Soft-Thresholding Operator

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Abstract—Due to space limitations in [1] and [2], this Technical Note is supplied to explain the formulation of the l_1 -regularization for a nonlinear sliding window estimator.

I. Introduction

Our work in outlier detection and exclusion, or accommodation, is motivated by recent advances in computer vision where sparse representation of candidate tracking sets [3] is applied to face recognition [4]. While it is common in the robotics community to solve state estimation problems by a formulation of the Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE), e.g. the Kalman filter, the MLE is sensitive to measurements which deviate from their stochastic noise model. The authors of [3] demonstrate that l_1 -regularization can exploit the sparseness of outliers in a candidate dataset. However, success of the regularization depends on measurement redundancy.

II. LINEAR PROBLEM FORMULATION

Consider the simple linear model

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + \boldsymbol{\eta},\tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ for m > n, state vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\mathbf{\eta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}\mathbf{\sigma}^2)$ is the measurement noise. The maximum likelihood estimate for \mathbf{x} is found by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{x}}{arg\,min} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{x}\|_{2}^{2} \right\}. \tag{2}$$

Given a dataset without outliers, the residual $\mathbf{r} \triangleq \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H} \boldsymbol{x}$ will be dense with variance $\mathbf{I} \boldsymbol{\sigma}^2$. However, in the presence of outliers, \mathbf{r} will contain both dense values from nominal measurements, and sparse values resulting from outliers. We can exploit the sparseness of the outliers by solving the problem in (1) as an l_1 -regularized least squares problem, which is known to yield sparse solutions [3]. The Least Soft-thresholded Squares (LSS) [5] estimate for \boldsymbol{x} is found by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{x}} = \underset{\boldsymbol{x}}{arg\,min} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{H}\boldsymbol{x} - \mathbf{s}\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \|\mathbf{s}\|_{1} \right\}, \quad (3)$$

where $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, and the regularizing or *soft-thresholding* parameter [6] is $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. The $\|.\|_1$ and $\|.\|_2$ denote the l_1 and l_2 norms respectively.

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A. Example 1: Necessity of Measurement Redundancy

Consider a simple 2D line-fit problem, $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}$, where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, and $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 2}$. The vertical shift along the y-axis is $\mathbf{x}(1)$, and slope is $\mathbf{x}(2)$. Suppose the true values are $\mathbf{x} = [0,0]$, then true line lies on the x-axis of the x-y plane.

Assume m=2. Given two measurements, $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}=[5,0]$, the Least-Square (LS) estimate of the two unknowns is $\hat{\mathbf{x}}=(\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{H})^{-1}\mathbf{H}^{\mathsf{T}}\tilde{\mathbf{y}}=[5,-5]$, i.e. the estimated line is shifted up by 5 and has a slope of -5. Clearly, without measurement redundancy, it is impossible to reject, or accommodate, the bad measurement $\mathbf{y}(1)=5$.

For the overdetermined problem where $m \geq 3$, there are (m-2) degrees-of-freedom with which to make a decision given any pair measurements. If a measurement is bad, an algorithm can be employed to remove or accommodate for the bad measurement, and the simple 2D line-fit problem can still be solved. While this is a trivial example, it motivates the necessity of measurement redundancy.

B. Example 2: Sparsity of L-1 Regularization

Here we extend the 2D line-fit problem of Section II-A, such that m=200. Applying eqn. (3), Fig. 1 illustrates the residuals for two cases, with and without outliers. It is clear that the top plot of Fig. 1 (the case without outliers) contains residuals which are dense with zero mean. However, the bottom plot of Fig. 1 (the case *with* outliers) clearly shows that outliers are generally sparse, substantiating the claim of [3].

Applying equations (2) and (3) to the 2D line-fit problem, it is trivial to demonstrate the LS sensitivity to outliers. In this example, the LS residuals have a mean $\mu=7.39$ and standard deviation $\sigma=2.75$, whereas the LSS residuals have $\mu=0.05$ and $\sigma=0.99$.

The resulting model fit is shown in Fig. 2, where the true line lies on the x-axis, the LS fit is shifted up along the y-axis, and the LSS result nearly overlaps the true line. 1

III. SOFT-THRESHOLDING OPERATOR PROOF

This section solves the optimization problem

$$f(r) = \mathop{\arg\min}_{s} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \left(r - \frac{s}{\sigma} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{\nu} |s| \right\} = \mathop{\arg\min}_{s} g_r(s),$$

where $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma > 0$ and $\nu > 0$ are the parameters of the Normal and Laplacian distributions, and

$$g_r(s) \triangleq \frac{1}{2} \left(r - \frac{s}{\sigma} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{\nu} |s|.$$
 (4)

¹PFR: I think this paragraph and the Fig. ² are unnecessary.

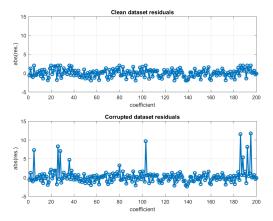


Fig. 1. Top: Clean dataset residuals without outliers. Bottom: Corrupted dataset residuals with 5% outliers.

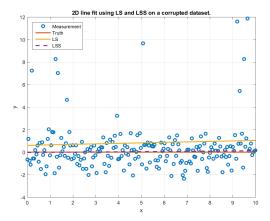


Fig. 2. 2D line fit with a corrupted dataset containing 5% outliers.

Note first that $g_r(s)\Big|_{s=0} = \frac{1}{2}r^2$.

Because $g_r(s)$ is not differentiable in s, three cases can be considered (s < 0, s = 0, and s > 0), with the final answer f(r) being the value of s over the three cases that gives the lowest cost. For $s \neq 0$:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial s}g_r(s) = -\frac{r}{\sigma} + \frac{s}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{\nu}\operatorname{sgn}(s).$$

For s>0, $\frac{\partial}{\partial s}g_r(s)=0$ yields the critical value $s_+^*=\sigma(r-\mu)$, where $\mu\triangleq\frac{\sigma}{\nu}$. Because, in this case $s_+^*>0$, it must be that $r>\mu$. The cost at s_+^* is:

$$g_r(s)\Big|_{s=s_+^*} = g_r(\sigma(r-\mu)) = \mu r - \frac{1}{2}\mu^2.$$

Note that:

$$\frac{1}{2}(r-\mu)^2 \ge 0 \quad \forall \ r, \mu;$$

therefore,

$$\frac{1}{2}r^2 \ge r\mu - \frac{1}{2}\mu^2 \quad \forall \ r, \mu.$$

This ensures that in this case (i.e., s > 0), for any value of r, it is true that $g_r(s_+^*) \leq g_r(0)$.

For s < 0, $\frac{\partial}{\partial s} g_r(s) = 0$ yields the critical value $s_-^* = \sigma(r + \mu)$. Because, in this case $s_-^* < 0$, it must be that $r < -\mu$. The cost at s_-^* is:

$$g_r(s)\Big|_{s=s_-^*} = g_r(\sigma(r+\mu)) = -\mu r - \frac{1}{2}\mu^2.$$

Note that:

$$\frac{1}{2}(r+\mu)^2 \geq 0 \ \forall \ r,\mu;$$

therefore.

$$\frac{1}{2}r^2 \ge -r\mu - \frac{1}{2}\mu^2 \quad \forall \ r, \mu.$$

This ensures that in this case (i.e., s < 0), for any value of r, it is true that $g_r(s_+^*) \le g_r(0)$.

When $|r| < \mu$, it is straightforward to show that any non-zero value of s will increase the second term of $g_r(s)$ more than it decreases the first term; therefore, in this case $s^* = 0$.

Given the analysis above, the unique optimal solution for s as a function of r and $\mu > 0$ is:

$$s = \begin{cases} \sigma(r+\mu), & \text{if } r < -\mu, \\ \sigma(r-\mu), & \text{if } r > \mu, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (5)

Eqn. (5) can be more compactly stated as

$$S_{\sigma,\nu}(r) = \sigma \, \operatorname{sgn}(r) \, \, \max\left(|r| - \frac{\sigma}{\nu}, 0\right).$$

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