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Image Denoising Based on HOSVD With Iterative-Based Adaptive Hard Threshold Coefficient Shrinkage

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ABSTRACT Natural images often have self-similarity, which can be used to remove noise. Therefore, many current denoising methods denoise by processing similar image block matrix. Aiming at the problem that these methods will destroy the two-dimensional structure of image blocks when they are expanded into one-dimensional column vectors, a new image denoising method based on high-order singular value decomposition is proposed. Several similar image blocks are stacked into three-dimensional arrays and treated as a third-order tensor; then, higher-order singular value decomposition can be performed. For the core tensor obtained by decomposition, an iterative algorithm with adaptive hard threshold coefficient shrinkage is proposed. The experimental results show that the proposed method outperforms the state-of-the-art methods in peak-signal-to-noise ratio, structural similarity, and visual effects.

INDEX TERMS Image denoising, tensor, high order singular value decomposition, adaptive hard thresholding, threshold coefficient shrinkage.

I. INTRODUCTION

Image denoising is a fundamental problem in image processing. In the process of acquisition and transmission, the image is often affected by the factors of the image device itself and the external environmental conditions, which inevitably generates noise points. The denoising of the image not only provides an image with good visual quality, but also provides a good basis for later image analysis and understanding.

For a noise image $Y = X + D$, where X is the original image and D is Gaussian noise, $D \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. The task is to obtain a denoised image \hat{X} by processing and calculating the noisy image Y , and make the error between denoised image \hat{X} and original image X is the smallest.

Classic image denoising methods can be divided into spatial domain and frequency domain methods. Traditional spatial domain linear filtering includes mean filtering, median filtering, Wiener [1] filtering, etc. Frequency domain

denoising methods include wavelet denoising [2] and partial differential equation denoising [3] and sparse transformation [4] denoising method, etc. Among them, more and more attention has been paid to the transform domain denoising method, and a lot of meaningful discussions and practices have been carried out. It assumes that the real image signal can be approximated by a linear combination of a set of bases, that is to say, the real image signal can be represented in the transform domain sparsely. Due to the advantages of sparse coding in image information representation, it is widely used in the field of image denoising. Reference [5] is a method of wavelet threshold shrinkage, it can achieve denoising based on the assumption that the expression coefficients obtained by wavelet basis transform satisfy the sparsity. In order to achieve translation invariance, Pennec and Mallat [6] proposed to replace the compact expression with redundant expression. However, the above method of sparse

and redundant representation of transform domain adopts data-independent basis, and does not consider the characteristics of the image itself in image denoising application. Yang *et al.* [7] proposed a sparse and redundant expression K-SVD based on dictionary training. The method obtained an overcomplete dictionary by learning, and considers that each image block could be approximated by a linear combination of dictionary atoms, and the coefficient vector had sparsity, that is, most elements in the vector were zero. In recent years, the weighted nuclear norm minimization (WNNM) [8] and the bidirectional low rank representation denoising method based on adaptive cluster dictionary [9] decompose the image into singular values in the transform domain, and perform singular value threshold shrinkage to achieve image denoising. These two methods are still essentially denoising methods based on sparse transforms.

In 2005, Buades *et al.* [10] proposed the concept of non-local similarity of images, and proposed NLM (Non-Local Means) image denoising method, which opened up a new era of image denoising. A partial block has many similar blocks in the entire image. The non-local self-similar prior (NSS) takes advantage of this feature to denoise the image which is the most successful prior to image restoration. Zoran and Weiss proposed an Expected Patch Log Likelihood (EPL) image restoration framework based on image block priors [11], and the prior of image block was modeled by using the Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM). This method not only preserved the texture details of the image, but also solved the problem of artificial traces. PGPD [12] put forward a well-defined NSS model learning from natural images, and applies the priori model for high performance denoising, which achieved good denoising effect. However, when used the denoised image block reconstructing the entire image, the image blocks overlap each other in order to overcome the block effect at the edge of the image block. Therefore, one pixel point in the image corresponds to multiple denoising estimates. Inspired by non-local average self-similarity and sparse coding, Mairal *et al.* [13] proposed a Learned Simultaneous Sparse Coding (LSSC) method which was considered that the coding of each image block was not independent of each other and the coding similarity of the image block should be enhanced. Dong *et al.* [4] integrated NSS and local sparse coding into NCSR framework, which had powerful image restoration capability. Dabov *et al.* [14] combined the non-local similarity of image and transform domain denoising method, and proposed BM3D (Block Matching 3-D) image denoising algorithm, which is one of the most classical denoising algorithms. Rajwade *et al.* [15] performed high-order Singular Value Decomposition (HOSVD) on the 3D similar block array in BM3D algorithm, and obtained the dynamic adaptive basis of 3D transform, and excellent denoising effect has also been achieved. The basis of this article is the two algorithms.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Part 2 briefly introduces the related work of 3D similar block transform denoising; combined with the properties of high-order

singular value decomposition of tensor, Part 3 proposes the new HOSVD denoising algorithm based on iterative-based adaptive hard threshold coefficient shrinkage; the experimental results in Part 4 show the effectiveness of our proposed algorithm; the final part summarizes the full text and proposes the next step.

II. RELATED WORK

At present, the majority of image denoising algorithms utilize the non-local similarity of image blocks. However, when processing image blocks, most of the algorithms expand them into column vectors, which, although it is convenient for calculation and processing, it destroys the 2-dimensional structure information of the image blocks. The two image denoising methods described below still treat the image block as a 2-dimensional matrix structure.

A. BM3D

The BM3D image denoising algorithm is considered to be one of the most classic image denoising algorithms, which combines the non-local similarity of pixel blocks in the image and the denoising of transform domain. The algorithm mainly consists of two stages: basic estimation and final estimation.

1) BASIC ESTIMATION STAGE

For any reference image block $P \in R^{b \times b}$ on the noise image Y , where b is the side length of the reference image block. When perform similar block matching on the noise image Y , denote $S = i : d(P, P_i) \leq T$, $d(P, P_i)$ represents the distance between two image blocks, and T is the threshold of the similarity measure. Then, all of the image blocks $\{P_i\}_{i \in S}$ which satisfy the conditions stacked together to form a 3-dimensional array Z . Perform a 3-dimensional transformation T_{3D} on the 3-dimensional array Z , and then we have a hard threshold shrinkage of the coefficients in the transformation domain, and then carry out 3-dimensional inverse transformation T_{3D}^{-1} to obtain a basic estimation \hat{Z} of Z . As follows:

$$\hat{Z} = T_{3D}^{-1}(H(T_{3D}(Z))) \quad (1)$$

The 3-dimensional transform T_{3D} is composed of 2D-DCT or 2D-Bior1.5 and transform 1D-Haar. H is a hard threshold function. Finally, each image block in \hat{Z} is replaced back to the original position in the image, and a weighted average of each overlapping pixel point results in the basic estimated image Y_{basic} .

2) THE FINAL ESTIMATION STAGE

In the final estimation stage, we can take the basic estimated image Y_{basic} which is obtained in the first stage as a reference. First of all, similar to the first stage, for each reference block P_{basic} on the image Y_{basic} , similar block matching is performed to obtain a 3-dimensional array Z_{basic} . On the noise image, pixel blocks of the same position are selected to form a 3-dimensional Z_{noise} . For the coefficient $c_{basic} \in T_{3D}(Z_{basic})$ of the 3-dimensional transform, select $c_{noise} \in T_{3D}(Z_{noise})$

of the corresponding position, and Eq.(2) can be obtained by Wiener filtering:

$$\hat{c}_{noise} = \frac{c_{basic}^2}{c_{basic}^2 + \sigma^2} c_{noise} \quad (2)$$

The Wiener filter coefficient \hat{c}_{noise} is subjected to 3D inverse transformation to obtain a 3-dimensional array Z_{final} , and then it will be weighted aggregated to the original position on the image, so we can get the final estimate of image denoising Y_{final} .

B. HIGH ORDER SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

In recent years, theories about tensor decomposition is optimizing day by day, and their applications are also more and more widely in practice [16], [17]. In [17], the singular value decomposition (SVD) of matrix is extended to tensors, and a high-order SVD method for tensors is proposed. The high-order SVD method has been applied in many fields, such as handwritten numeral recognition [18] and texture analysis [19], and achieved many good results.

Rajwade *et al.* [15] used HOSVD to process the 3-dimensional array in order to achieve image denoising. That is to say, the fixed base of 3D transform in BM3D algorithm is expanded to a dynamic adaptive base and a good denoising effect is achieved.

III. AN ITERATIVE ADAPTIVE HARD THRESHOLD COEFFICIENT SHRINKAGE ALGORITHM

Although the HOSVD image denoising method extends the fixed base in the BM3D method to a dynamic adaptive base, the BM3D algorithm flow is still used, that is to say, the first estimated image obtained by the hard-threshold shrinkage is used as the reference image of the second-stage Wiener filter, and the advantages of HOSVD decomposition and dynamic basis are not fully utilized. The image denoising effect is also slightly inferior to BM3D.

Combining with the properties of high-order singular value decomposition and referring to the processing framework of other image denoising methods [20], [21], an iterative adaptive hard-threshold algorithm is proposed in this paper.

A. SIMILAR BLOCK MATCHING AND HIGH-ORDER SINGULAR VALUE DECOMPOSITION

For each reference block $P^{ref} \in R^{b \times b}$ in the noise image Y , search for K similar blocks (including the reference block itself) $P_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, K$ which are most similar in image Y . Among them, the similarity measure uses a simple and convenient L_2 distance, which are defined as below:

$$d(P^{ref}, P_i) = \|P^{ref} - P_i\|_2^2 \quad (3)$$

In order to improve the numerical stability of decomposition, the blocks are normalized to each similar block before decomposition [22], [23]:

$$Q_i = P_i - \sum_{i=1}^K P_i / K = P_i - \bar{P}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, K \quad (4)$$

To stack all Q_i into 3-dimensional array Z_Q , calculate its high order singular value decomposition,

$$(S_Q, U_1, U_2, U_3) = \text{HOSVD}(Z_Q), \quad (5)$$

where S_Q is the core tensor obtained by decomposition, the size is the same as Z_Q which is $b \times b \times K$. U_1, U_2 and U_3 are orthogonal matrices, and the core tensor S_Q can be regarded as the coefficient of the 3-dimensional array Z_Q in the decomposition domain of the high order singular value.

B. ADAPTIVE HARD THRESHOLD COEFFICIENTS SHRINKAGE

How to shrink the coefficient of the core tensor S_Q is the key of denoising algorithm. Based on the assumption that the wavelet coefficients obey the Laplace distribution, [23] and [24] propose a classical threshold function:

$$\tau = \frac{2\sqrt{2}\sigma_w^2}{\sigma_x}, \quad (6)$$

where σ_w is the estimate of the noise level of the image at the k th iteration of $Y^{(k)}$.

$$\sigma_w = \gamma \sqrt{\sigma^2 - \|Y - Y^{(k)}\|_2^2}, \quad (7)$$

where γ is a preset parameter used to estimate the noise level, and σ_x is the standard deviation of the coefficients of the real image signal X in higher order singular values. Here, notice the properties of the high order singular value decomposition [16], [17]. The core tensor S_Q is a third-order tensor of $b \times b \times K$ size. If slicing in the direction of the vertical third dimension (similar to other dimensions), K different matrix S_Q^i of size $b \times b$ can be obtained.

$$\|S_Q^i\|_F = \sigma_i^{(3)} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, K, \quad (8)$$

where $\sigma_i^{(3)}$ is the i th singular value of the third dimension matrix $S_Q^{(3)}$ of the core tensor S_Q . Equation (8) can also be expressed as:

$$\sum_{\lambda \in S_Q^i} \lambda^2 = (\sigma_i^{(3)})^2 \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, K \quad (9)$$

From the formula (8), we can see that the coefficient in the core tensor S_Q is actually to re-decompose the corresponding singular value so that the noise energy originally concentrated on the singular value is mainly transferred to the smaller coefficient in the core tensor S_Q while larger coefficients are less affected by noise. Therefore, this paper adopts the method of hard threshold shrinkage:

$$\hat{S}_Q = \text{hard}(S_Q, \tau) \quad (10)$$

In Eq. (6), σ_x is the standard deviation of the coefficients of the real image signal X in higher order singular values

$$\sigma_x = \sqrt{\max(\sigma_{S_Q}^2 - \sigma^2, 0)}, \quad (11)$$

where σ_{S_Q} is the standard deviation of the core tensor coefficient S_Q . Since the core tensor S_Q coefficient approximates

TABLE 1. Comparison I of different denoising algorithms.

Images	10			20			30		
	BM3D	HOSVD	Ours	BM3D	HOSVD	Ours	BM3D	HOSVD	Ours
C. Man	34.12	33.81	34.29	30.43	30.22	30.51	28.64	28.30	28.67
	0.9304	0.9242	0.9311	0.8730	0.8611	0.8729	0.8360	0.8081	0.8330
Monarch	34.17	34.53	34.90	30.39	30.60	31.01	28.38	28.37	28.80
	0.9567	0.9557	0.9578	0.9207	0.9131	0.9222	0.8873	0.8692	0.8856
Boat	34.31	34.31	34.51	30.54	30.56	30.73	28.55	28.48	28.68
	0.9406	0.9384	0.9408	0.8780	0.8728	0.8809	0.8289	0.8153	0.8308
Hill	33.03	32.98	33.16	29.78	29.77	29.87	28.09	27.95	28.10
	0.8972	0.8971	0.9004	0.8138	0.8143	0.8166	0.7548	0.7477	0.7537
House	36.73	36.77	36.78	33.85	33.40	33.92	32.23	31.25	32.24
	0.9199	0.9226	0.9197	0.8707	0.8637	0.8716	0.8471	0.8187	0.8429
Kod	33.99	33.96	34.27	30.32	30.29	30.47	28.40	28.29	28.49
	0.9360	0.9322	0.9356	0.8784	0.8715	0.8783	0.8348	0.8195	0.8321
Lake	32.50	32.39	32.72	28.64	28.59	28.83	26.60	26.60	26.83
	0.9295	0.9269	0.9309	0.8691	0.8615	0.8715	0.8167	0.8040	0.8196
Lena	34.81	34.70	34.89	31.13	30.92	31.15	29.13	28.80	29.06
	0.9392	0.9365	0.9380	0.8902	0.8793	0.8881	0.8468	0.8231	0.8409
Peppers	35.22	35.13	35.27	31.69	31.43	31.65	29.60	29.18	29.48
	0.9410	0.9377	0.9394	0.9033	0.8888	0.8986	0.8687	0.8408	0.8592
Straw	30.95	31.21	31.50	27.13	27.23	27.37	25.01	25.07	25.14
	0.9592	0.9611	0.9639	0.8997	0.9023	0.9049	0.8319	0.8385	0.8379
Average	33.98	33.97	34.23	30.39	30.30	30.55	28.46	28.23	28.55
	0.9350	0.9332	0.9358	0.8797	0.8728	0.8806	0.8353	0.8185	0.8336

the Laplace distribution (see Fig. 1), the average value of the core tensor S_Q coefficients is close to 0 and the variance is

$$\sigma_{S_Q}^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^2}{m} = \bar{\lambda}^2, \quad (12)$$

where $m(m = b \times b \times K)$ is the number of all the coefficients in the core tensor S_Q and $\lambda_i \in S_Q$ is the coefficient of the core tensor S_Q . Combining the above two equations (9) and (10), we get

$$\sigma_x = \sqrt{\max(\bar{\lambda}^2 - \sigma^2, 0)} \quad (13)$$

In order to obtain different hard-threshold shrinkage thresholds for each coefficient λ_i , here we propose an adaptive threshold setting method. In the above equation, replace λ_i^2 with λ^2 .

$$\sigma_x^i = \sqrt{\max(\lambda_i^2 - \sigma^2, 0)} \quad (14)$$

This results in different shrink thresholds for each of the coefficients so that λ_i , which is more heavily affected by noise and smaller, is more shrunk to zero.

In conclusion, the shrinking formula of adaptive hard threshold coefficient proposed in this paper is as follows:

$$\hat{S}_Q = \text{hard}(S_Q, \tau_i) \quad (15)$$

$$\tau_i = \frac{2\sqrt{2}\sigma_w^2}{\sigma_x^i}, \quad (16)$$

where σ_w and σ_x^i are determined by formula (6) and (14) respectively.

C. WEIGHTED AGGREGATION AND ITERATIVE REGULARIZATION

After obtaining the contracted core tensor coefficient \hat{S}_Q , calculate

$$\hat{Z}_Q = \hat{S}_Q \times_1 U_1 \times_2 U_2 \times_3 U_3 \quad (17)$$

Get the estimated \hat{Q}_i and $\hat{P}_i = \hat{Q}_i + \bar{P}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$, \times_j is the tensor and matrix multiplication. Put all the \hat{P}_i back to the original position of the image. Because different image similar blocks may overlap each other, so when we gather a set of 3-dimensional array to define a weight

$$w = \begin{cases} 1/m, & r = 0 \\ r/m, & r > 0 \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

TABLE 2. Comparison II of different denoising algorithms.

Images	10			20			30		
	EPLL	NCSR	PGPD	EPLL	NCSR	PGPD	EPLL	NCSR	PGPD
C. Man	32.568	32.58	30.477	29.098	29.04	29.077	27.316	27.24	27.283
	0.8931	0.8868	0.8401	0.8067	0.7961	0.7972	0.7395	0.7323	0.7338
Monarch	36.587	36.76	34.429	32.917	33.16	33.069	28.5	28.46	28.49
	0.9556	0.9568	0.9319	0.9252	0.9324	0.9216	0.895	0.9088	0.8987
Boat	33.622	33.91	32.043	30.619	30.79	30.829	28.796	28.93	29.058
	0.8845	0.8883	0.8489	0.8227	0.8198	0.8205	0.7703	0.7715	0.7742
Hill	33.508	33.69	31.871	30.451	30.65	20.683	28.809	28.97	29.115
	0.8861	0.8861	0.8392	0.7987	0.8003	0.8009	0.7388	0.7423	0.7458
House	35.702	32.91	34.834	33.03	33.87	33.808	31.332	32.07	32.172
	0.9022	0.8883	0.885	0.8623	0.874	0.8683	0.8339	0.8487	0.8449
Kod	35.411	35.70	33.732	32.191	32.41	32.594	30.549	30.84	31.137
	0.9118	0.8978	0.8697	0.845	0.8478	0.8453	0.8045	0.8268	0.8134
Lake	32.788	32.94	31.06	29.871	29.88	29.911	28.164	28.15	28.197
	0.8816	0.8819	0.8447	0.8255	0.8202	0.8209	0.87847	0.782	0.8721
Lena	34.854	35.94	33.451	32.169	32.88	32.401	24.854	31.24	30.854
	0.8911	0.8971	0.8648	0.8446	0.8553	0.8469	0.8095	0.8288	0.8177
Peppers	34.857	35.75	33.525	32.48	33.22	32.643	30.894	31.61	31.222
	0.8777	0.8861	0.852	0.8413	0.8604	0.8399	0.8125	0.8439	0.8176
Straw	30.861	32.99	28.846	26.969	27.72	27.202	24.812	23.07	24.865
	0.958	0.9611	0.9312	0.8964	0.8668	0.8966	0.825	0.8486	0.8194
Average	34.08	34.42	32.43	30.98	31.36	31.22	29.402	29.958	29.239
	0.9042	0.9030	0.8708	0.8468	0.8473	0.8458	0.8013	0.8133	0.8048

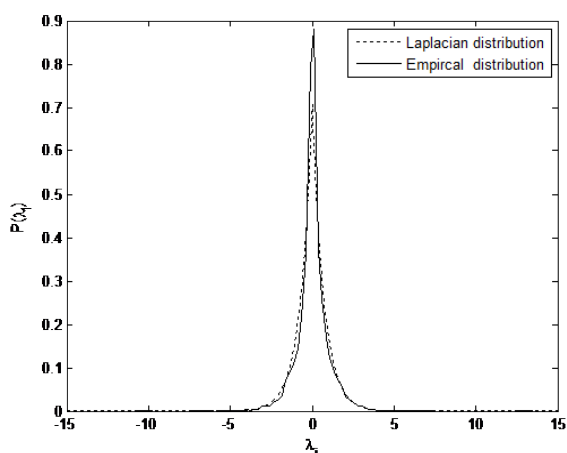


FIGURE 1. The distribution of the core tensor coefficient λ_r of image Peppers.

where r is the number of zero elements in the core tensor of \hat{S}_Q , the more zero elements in \hat{S}_Q , the greater the weight of the aggregation.

In this way, for the noise image $Y^{(k)}$, we get the estimation $X^{(k)}$ of an iteration. Inspired by [20], [23], and [25],

we conduct iterative regularization processing, and update the $Y^{(k+1)}$ at the beginning of the next iteration through the following expression

$$Y^{(k+1)} = (1 - \delta)X^{(k)} + \delta Y, \quad (19)$$

where δ is a small positive number that controls the proportion of added noise at each iteration. In summary, the complete algorithm can be described in Algorithm 1.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

In order to verify the correctness of the proposed algorithm, we use 10 standard images of 256×256 size for testing firstly. The experiment parameters are set as follows: the number of iterations $J = 4$, the noise estimation parameter $\gamma = 0.35$ and the iterative regularization parameter $\delta = 0.10$. When the noise level $\sigma \leq 10$, the image side length $b = 6$, $K = 25$, when the noise level is $10 < \sigma \leq 30$, the image side length $b = 7$, $K = 30$. To speed up the algorithm, we take a reference block per 3 pixels, and the search window has a radius of 25 when the similar block matches.

Firstly, we compare our algorithm with the two image denoising algorithms BM3D [14] and HOSVD [15], the bases of the proposed algorithm, which are also based on

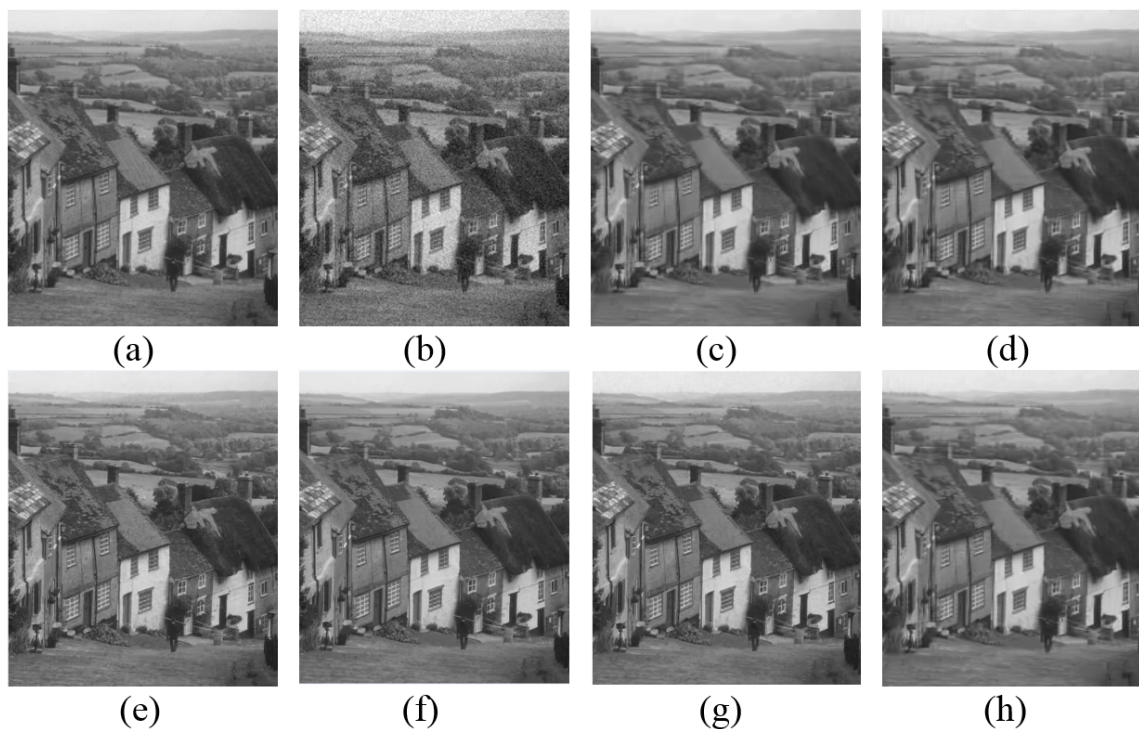


FIGURE 2. Noisy image comparison of image Hill. (a) Initial image, (b) Noise image($\sigma = 10$), (c) BM3D(PSNR=33.03dB, SSIM=0.8972), (d) HOSVD(PSNR=32.98dB, SSIM=0.8971), (e) EPLL(PSNR=33.50758dB, SSIM=0.8861), (f) NCSR(PSNR=33.69dB, SSIM=0.8861), (g) PGPD(PSNR=31.871dB, SSIM=0.8392), (h) Ours(PSNR=33.16dB, SSIM=0.9004).

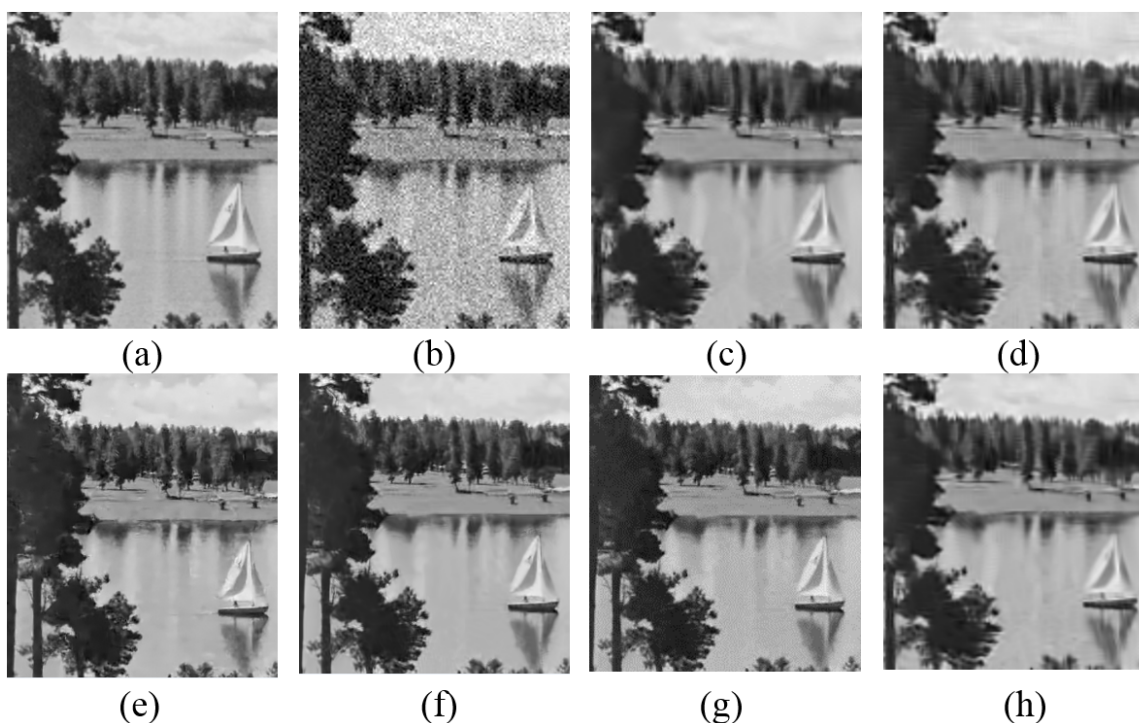


FIGURE 3. Noisy image comparison of image Lake. (a) Initial image, (b) Noise image($\sigma = 20$), (c) BM3D(PSNR=28.64dB, SSIM=0.8691), (d) HOSVD(PSNR=28.59dB, SSIM=0.8615), (e) EPLL(PSNR=29.8711dB, SSIM=0.8255), (f) NCSR(PSNR=29.88dB, SSIM=0.8202), (g) PGPD(PSNR=29.9109dB, SSIM=0.8209), (h) Ours(PSNR=28.83dB, SSIM=0.8715).

3D image block transform. At the same time, in order to verify the algorithms effectiveness, three other related classical algorithms are used for comparison, including EPLL [11],

NCSR [4] and PGPD [12]. Peak signal-to-noise ratio (PSNR) and structural similarity (SSIM) are two common image quality metrics. Since the PSNR does not take into account

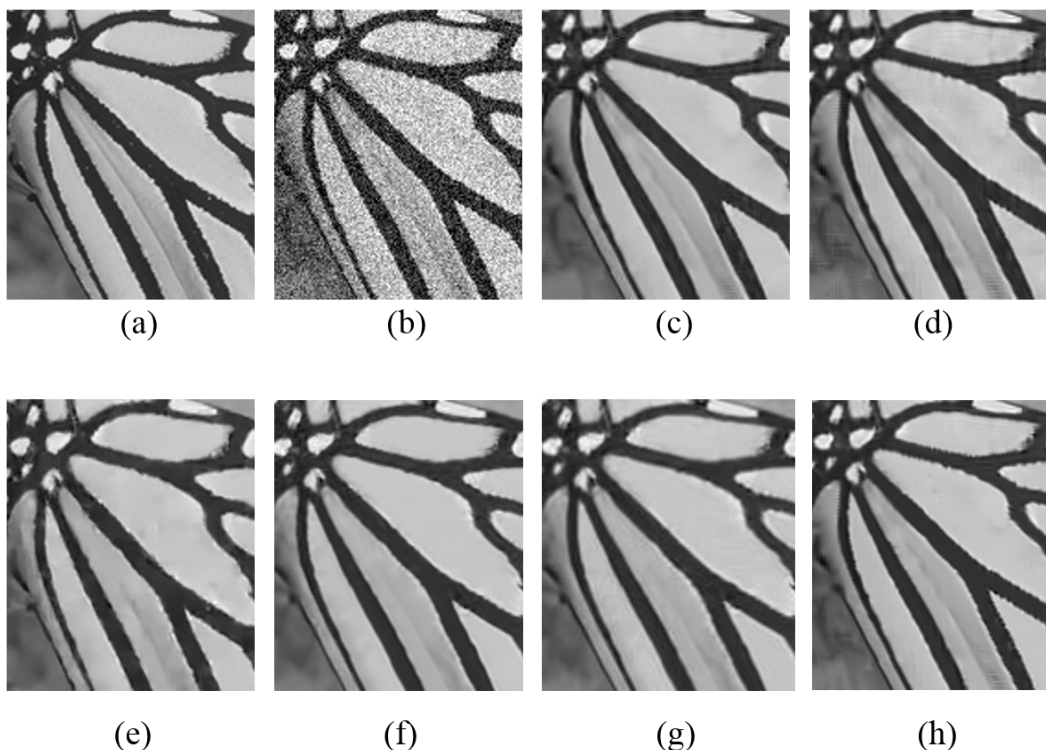


FIGURE 4. Noisy image comparison of image Monarch. (a) Initial image, (b) Noise image($\sigma = 10$), (c) BM3D(PSNR=28.38dB, SSIM=0.8873), (d) HOSVD(PSNR=28.37dB, SSIM=0.8692), (e) EPLL(PSNR=28.5dB, SSIM=0.895), (f) NCSR(PSNR=28.46dB, SSIM=0.9088), (g) PGPD(PSNR=28.49dB, SSIM=0.8209), (h) Ours(PSNR=28.80dB, SSIM=0.8856).

Algorithm 1 Iterative Algorithm Based on HOSVD

Input: Noisy image Y ;
 Output: Denoising image $X^{(J)}$;
 Initialization: $Y^{(l)} = Y$;
 Iteration $J, k = 1, 2, \dots, J$;
 Step(1): similar block matching: in image $Y^{(k)}$, find the most similar k image block for each reference block p^{ref} ;
 Step(2): block standardization: use (4) to standardize each set of similar blocks;
 Step(3): HOSVD decomposition:
 $(S_Q, U_1, U_2, U_3) = HOSVD(Z_Q)$;
 Step(4): adaptive hard threshold shrinkage: the coefficient shrinkage of S_Q is performed by equation (15);
 Step(5): inverse transform to image space, using equation (18) weighted aggregate to get $X^{(k)}$;
 Step(6): if k is less than J , use formula (19) to update $Y^{(k+1)}$, and continue to iterate, if k is equal to J , output $X^{(J)}$, the algorithm ends.

the visual characteristics of the human eye, it often occurs that the evaluation result is inconsistent with the subjective feeling of the person. SSIM measures image similarity from the aspects of brightness, contrast and structure, so it is

better than PSNR in image denoising and image similarity evaluation. Tables 1 and 2 show the test results of the above six algorithms at 3 different noise levels 10, 20, 30. In each cell of the table, the above values are PSNR values, and the values below are SSIM values. Table 1 and Table 2 show that the new algorithm achieves better PSNR value than the basic two algorithms BM3D and HOSVD algorithms, and is slightly lower than EPLL, NCSR and PGPD in different noise levels. But SSIM is almost higher than all comparison methods.

For a comparison of the visual quality of images after denoising, the reader can see Fig. 2-Fig. 4. It can be seen from the Lake image in Fig. 3 that the forest obtained by the new method is more clear. From the Monarch image in Fig. 4, the new method is better for the texture details of the butterfly wings. Combine PSNR, SSIM value and subjective comparison and we can see that the proposed method can better preserve the details of the image, especially when the noise level is small or the image has more texture details, the denoising effect of the new method is more obvious.

For the above experimental examples, it can be seen that the proposed iterative algorithm has certain advantages for images with a resolution of 256*256, and the running time cost is relatively low. In order to verify the practicability of the algorithm, we have carried out denoising operations on the high-resolution images (with a resolution of 512*512) of

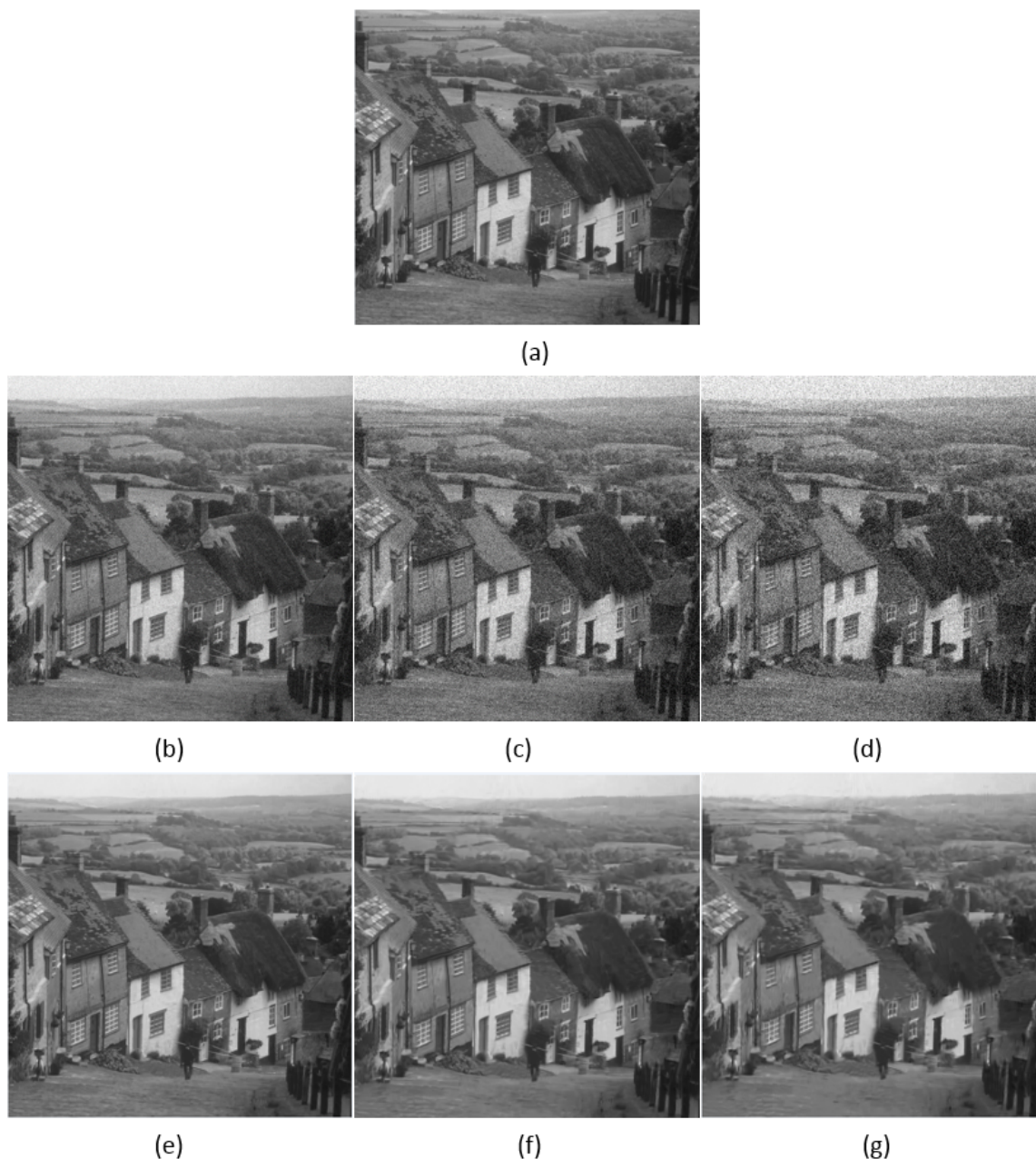


FIGURE 5. Denoising results of high resolution noisy images Hill. (a) Initial image, (b) Noise image($\sigma = 10$), (c) Noise image($\sigma = 20$), (d) Noise image($\sigma = 30$), (e) Denoising result($\sigma = 10$), (f) Denoising result($\sigma = 20$), (g) Denoising result($\sigma = 30$).

the above 10 images. Fig. 5 and Table 3 show the denoising results (Due to layout reason, only image Hill is selected for display). Among them, it can be seen from the visual effect of Fig. 5 that the proposed algorithm can achieve denoising of high-resolution images, and also obtains better results, retaining as much details as possible, such as windows, fences, and lines on the road and so on. Table 3 gives the PSNR and SSIM values for the denoising results of the Hill image at different noise levels. From Table 3, it can be seen that its PSNR and SSIM values are maintained at a high level. The effectiveness and practicability of the algorithm are illustrated. However, for the denoising of high-resolution images, the algorithm also has the same problems as other algorithms, namely,

TABLE 3. PSNR and SSIM of denoised image Hill with different σ .

Image	$\sigma = 10$	$\sigma = 20$	$\sigma = 30$
Hill	PSNR: 33.7521	PSNR: 30.7924	PSNR: 29.1068
	SSIM: 0.8879	SSIM: 0.8090	SSIM: 0.7499

the time cost is greatly improved with the increase of resolution. In the next study, we will try to solve the problem of time cost.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we propose an iterative algorithm for adaptive hard threshold shrinkage of kernel tensor coefficients.

It is based on the image denoising algorithms BM3D and HOSVD, and is combined with the properties of tensor high order singular value decomposition. The experimental results show that the denoising effect of this algorithm is comparable and outperforms BM3D and HOSVD algorithms to some extent. Under the two measurement standards of PSNR and SSIM, the new algorithm obtains higher measurement values. Compared with other classical algorithms, the proposed algorithm also has obvious advantages in most cases. In terms of visual comparison, it can also maintain better details than other methods after denoising.

If the 3-dimensional array formed by accumulation of similar blocks is regarded as a third order tensor, we can try other forms of tensor decomposition in the next step, such as CP decomposition [26], T-SVD decomposition [27] and so on, exploring appropriate coefficient shrinkage method, so as to achieve better denoising effect.

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