

Compression of Hyper Spectral Images using Tensor Decomposition Methods

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Abstract: - Tensor decomposition methods have been recently identified as an effective approach for compressing high-dimensional data. Tensors have a wide range of applications in numerical linear algebra, chemo metrics, data mining, signal processing, statics, and data mining and machine learning. Due to the huge amount of information that the hyper spectral images carry, they require more memory to store, process and send. We need to compress the hyper spectral images in order to reduce storage and processing costs. Tensor decomposition techniques can be used to compress the hyper spectral data. The primary objective of this work is to utilize tensor decomposition methods to compress the hyper spectral images. This paper explores three types of tensor decompositions: Tucker Decomposition (TD_ALS), CANDECOMP/PARAFAC (CP) and Tucker_HOSVD (Higher order singular value Decomposition) and comparison of these methods experimented on two real hyper spectral images: the Salinas image (512 x 217 x 224) and Indian Pines corrected (145 x 145 x 200). The PSNR and SSIM are used to evaluate how well these techniques work. When compared to the iterative approximation methods employed in the CP and Tucker_ALS methods, the Tucker_HOSVD method decomposes the hyper spectral image into core and component matrices more quickly. According to experimental analysis, Tucker HOSVD's reconstruction of the image preserves image quality while having a higher compression ratio than the other two techniques.

Keywords:-Hyper Spectral Image, Tensor, Tensor Decomposition, PSNR, SSIM.

I. INTRODUCTION

Hyper spectral (HS) image compression has drawn a lot of interest due to the massive amount of data that was gathered by the spectrometers, which consists of hundreds of non-overlapping spectral bands with extremely high inter-band spectral correlation. HS images are used in a variety of applications, such as locating and tracking soldiers during military operations [1], monitoring quality in the agricultural sector [2], finding and tracking parts in the manufacturing industry [3], tracking and tracing celestial bodies in space, examining the Earth's surface for classifying minerals, and tracking in remote sensing, as well as locating and tracking natural disasters like floods and droughts [4].

HS-imagery captures the information or scene at different wave lengths across the electro-magnetic spectrum from 400 to 2500 nm, which is outside the range of human vision. Each pixel consists of a spectrum corresponding to various wavelengths. The fundamental goal of HS imaging is to extract the pixel spectrum from a scene image. Each image pixel is made up of hundreds of values that correspond to the sampling of the pixel's continuous spectrum [5]. HS imagery is more accurate and detailed than other types of sensed data. The HS image means a large number of images captured at different wavelengths. The image is acquired at a certain spectral band, or wavelength range, of the electromagnetic spectrum, and the HS image changes color at different wavelengths. The HS image is defined in the form of a data cube (K, L, and M), where K and L indicate the spatial dimensions and M indicates the spectral dimension.

HSI compression provides challenges in HS image processing, necessitating HSI storage and transmission

bandwidth. For instance, the 512 x 512 x 224, 16 bit AVIRIS - Airborne Visible/Infrared Imaging Spectrometer dataset requires Giga Bytes of memory storage. HS image compression is a technique for reducing an image's size without compromising its quality. The cost of the bandwidth and storage on the device is decreased by HS image compression. HS Image Compression is primarily divided into two categories: Lossless Compression [6] and Loss Compression. The foundation of HS image compression is divided into 2 categories: transformed-based techniques like DWT (Discrete Wavelet Transform), DCT (Discrete Cosine Transform), and decomposition techniques like tensor decomposition, SVD, and PCA.

The transform-based technique is the most widely used 2D compression method, which has been extended to 3D images. It applies a transformation function to the image's three dimensions, transforming the image pixels' grey values into the frequency domain. For compressing HS images, transform-based techniques like discrete Fourier transform, discrete cosine transform, discrete wavelet and Karhunen-Loève transform are commonly used. These transform-based techniques can be applied with other methods like predictive, compressive sensing, tensor decomposition (TD), etc. Tensor decomposition methods are the most current techniques for HS image compression that outperform traditional transform-based methods. H. Wang et al. [7] proposed a method that uses Principle Component Analysis (PCA) in JPEG 2000 for decorrelation of the spectrum. Fowler et al. [8] proposed a low-complexity PCA which is spatially sampled. Karami et al. [9] proposed 3D-DCT method is applied to the HS image. It converts pixels into low and high energy frequency coefficients using DCT. Low frequency energy coefficients are dropped by quantization, and TD is applied to high frequency energy coefficients to create a compressed image. Karami et al. [10] proposed 3D-DWT in conjunction with Tucker decomposition, which uses DWT to divide an image into four subgroups: LLLH, HL, and HH band. Tucker decomposition is applied to these four groups and finally a coder to the core tensor to create a compressed image. A reverse process is applied to reconstruct the original image. Wang et al. [11] proposed a method which used 3-DWT to separate high and low frequency regions. To create a compressed image, Turbo channel coding is used for higher frequency regions and 3D-SPIHT (set partitioning in hierarchical trees) for low frequency regions to create a compressed image. Cheng et al. [12] proposed the EZW (Embedded Zero tree Wavelet) algorithm. EZW is a hybrid method of an integer KLT and an integer DWT, which provides higher efficiency and a higher

compression ratio compared to existing methods. A genetic algorithm has been proposed by Karami et al. [13] which is named Particle Swarm Optimization Non-negative Tucker decomposition (NTD). A genetic algorithm is used to obtain a final optimized solution after implementing NTD. Rajesh and Gagan Kumar [14] proposed two implementations of the image compression algorithm, and Fangl, He [15] proposed a CP compression technique which decomposes the given tensor image into rank-1 tensors. Tensor decomposition techniques can achieve high compression ratios with good PSNR, less computing cost and higher accuracy when compared to transform-based techniques. Dimensionality Reduction for Classification Methods Using Tensor Modeling was proposed by N. Renard and S. Bourennane [16]. The dimensions were reduced by using a PCA joint and an orthogonal projection onto a lower subspace dimension of the spatial way. HYDICE data from the real world are used in the experiment. The use of dimension reduction increased the hyper spectral image classifier's effectiveness. In this paper three Tensor decomposition methods have used to compress the two real HS images. Tensor decomposition methods remove the spectral and spatial redundancy exists in HS image.

The paper is organized as: Section II deals with the fundamental concept of tensors and their operations. Section III deals with three main tensor decomposition methods Section IV examines and draws conclusions from the experimental results. Section V of the study finishes with a list of potential future work.

II. INTRODUCTION TO TENSORS

Tensors are commonly utilized in a variety of applications, including machine learning, data analytics and so on. Tensors are generalizations of matrices to higher dimensions. Higher order tensors are used as a mathematical representation of images. A tensor T is an M - Dimensional (Multi- Dimensional) array of order N . It is a component of the product of M Vector space.

$T \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L \times M}$. The order or modes of the tensor are indicated by dimensionality. A vector is a 1st order Tensor, a matrix is a 2nd order Tensor, and three or higher orders are known as Tensors [17]. Fig 2 shows the visualization of tensors of order - 0, 1, 2, and 3. As HS images have three dimensions (Rows, Cols, and Channel), they are represented as a 3rd order Tensor in Fig 2. T_{KLM} represents an element (K, L and M) of a 3rd order Tensor T .

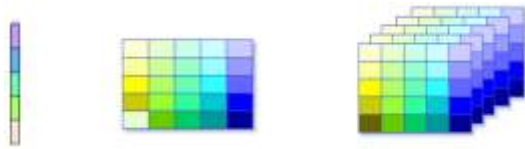


Fig 1: Vector, Matrix and Tensor

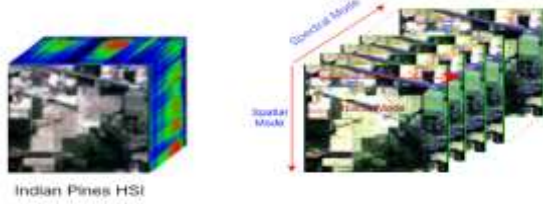


Fig 2: HS Image Cube

A. *Fiber*: -Fibers are the matrix's higher order Rows and Columns, specified by a single index. A matrix column is a mode-1 fiber. A matrix row is represented by the Mode-2. Similar to this, 3rd order tensors have three fibers: row, column, and tube, which are denoted by the letters $T_{:lm}$, $T_{k,m}$, and T_{kl} : correspondingly as shown in Fig3.

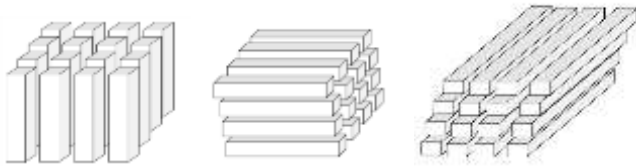


Fig 3: Column Fiber, Row Fiber and Tube Fiber

B. *Slices*: - By fixing all but two indices, two-dimensional Sections of a tensor are defined as Slices. The horizontal, lateral and frontal slices are shown in Fig 4.

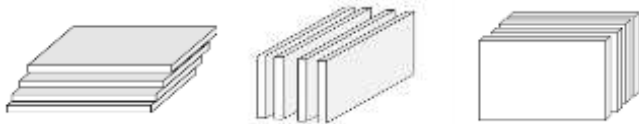


Fig 4: Horizontal slices, Lateral and Frontal slices

C. *Rank-1 Tensor*: -A multidimensional tensor is strictly considered to be of rank - 1 if it can be reduced to the outer product of M vectors. A rank-1 matrix can be represented as $T = aob$ and rank-1 third order tensor can be represented as $T = ao b o c$. Fig 5 represents the rank-1 concept graphically.

D. *Tensor Rank*: -The Rank of a tensor(T) is the lowest number of rank-1 tensors necessary to produce T as their sum. A rank-R third order tensor can be written as

$$T = \sum_{r=1}^R \lambda_r a_r o b_r o c_r = [[\lambda : A, B, C]]$$

The A,B,C are called the factor matrices and λ is frequently employed to absorb the corresponding weights during the normalization of the column of the factor matrices.

The Norm of a 3rd order tensor $T \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L \times M}$ is given by

$$\|T\| = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{m=1}^M T_{klm}^2}$$

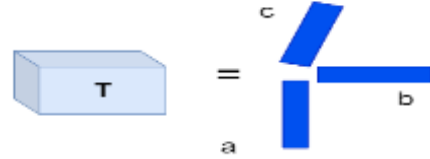


Fig 5: Rank-1 3rd order Tensor

E. *Inner Product*: -The inner product of 3rd order tensors $S, T \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L \times M}$ is given by

$$\langle S, T \rangle = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{l=1}^L \sum_{m=1}^M S_{klm} T_{klm}}$$

The outer product of the third order tensor is represented as $T = a(1) o a(2) o \dots o a(M)$ with

$$t_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_N} = a_{i_1}^{(1)} a_{i_2}^{(2)} \dots a_{i_N}^{(M)}$$

F. *Matricization*: - Rearranging the elements of a tensor into a matrix is called Unfolding. For instance $3 \times 4 \times 2$ tensor can be arranged as a 2×12 matrix or a 3×8 and so on. Let the frontal slices of $T \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 4 \times 2}$ be

$$T_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 & 7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 3 & 8 \\ 1 & 7 & 9 & 3 \\ 8 & 2 & 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, the 3 mode-n unfolding are

$$T_{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 3 & 8 \\ 4 & 6 & 8 & 6 & 1 & 7 & 9 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 & 7 & 8 & 2 & 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T_{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 & 3 & 1 & 8 \\ 2 & 6 & 6 & 2 & 7 & 2 \\ 3 & 8 & 9 & 3 & 9 & 8 \\ 4 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T_{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 6 & 6 & 3 & 8 & 9 & 4 & 6 & 7 \\ 3 & 1 & 8 & 2 & 7 & 2 & 3 & 9 & 8 & 8 & 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

G. *Tensor Multiplication*: -The n- mode (matrix) product of a tensor $T \in \mathbb{R}^{M_1 \times M_2 \times \dots \times M_n}$ with a matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times J^n}$ is denoted by $(T \times_n U)$.

Let T be the tensor given below

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 6 & 8 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 3 & 8 \\ 1 & 7 & 9 & 3 \\ 8 & 2 & 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

and let $U = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$. Then, the product $y = T \times_1 U \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 4 \times 2}$

$$Y_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 36 & 64 & 92 & 74 \\ 44 & 78 & 112 & 91 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$Y_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 58 & 44 & 90 & 58 \\ 70 & 55 & 110 & 74 \end{bmatrix}$$

H. *Matrix Kronecker Product*:- Consider two matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times J}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L}$ then, the Kronecker product is denoted by $A \otimes B$ and defined by

$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}B & a_{12}B & \dots & a_{1J}B \\ a_{21}B & a_{22}B & \dots & a_{2J}B \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{I1}B & a_{I2}B & \dots & a_{IJ}B \end{bmatrix} \text{ and}$$

the result is a matrix of size $(IK) \times (JL)$

I. *Matrix Khatri –Rao product*: - Consider two matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{I \times K}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times K}$ then, the Khatri –Rao product is denoted by $A \odot B$ and defined by $A \odot B = [a_1 \otimes b_1, a_2 \otimes b_2, \dots, a_K \otimes b_K]$ and the result is a matrix of size $(IJ) \times K$. It is the matching column wise Kronecker product and $a \otimes b = a \odot b$ are identical if a and b are vectors .

J. *Hadamard product*: - It is the element wise product. Consider two matrices A and B are of same size of $I \times J$ then Hadamard product is denoted by $A * B$ and defined by

$$A * B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} & a_{12}b_{12} & \dots & a_{1J}b_{1J} \\ a_{21}b_{21} & a_{22}b_{22} & \dots & a_{2J}b_{2J} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{I1}b_{I1} & a_{I2}b_{I2} & \dots & a_{IJ}b_{IJ} \end{bmatrix}$$

III. TENSOR DECOMPOSITIONS METHODS

Tensor decompositions are useful techniques for tensor analysis. These have been the subject of in-depth research in many disciplines including signal processing, psychometrics, neuroscience, communication, machine learning, chemo metrics, biometrics, quantum physics, and quantum chemistry[18]. Several matrix decompositions are generalised by tensor decompositions. The popular tensor decompositions are tensor rank decomposition, higher order singular value Decompositions, Tucker Decomposition (TD), Hierarchical Tucker decompositions, CANDECOMP/PARAFAC (CP) Decomposition and Block term decomposition and are the two most commonly used TD techniques.

A. CANDECOMP/PARAFAC(CP)

Decomposition Method: -By representing the 3D HSI as a 3-way tensor, the canonical decomposition approach[19] is employed to minimize the size of the dataset. As seen in Fig 6, the canonical decomposition method decomposes the given tensor as the addition of rank-1 tensors. In general these images can be visualized as a three-mode Tensor as shown in Fig 2. The HS image, $T \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L \times M}$, where K , L , and M are the parameters for the height, width, and spectral channel.

The Third order HS image tensor $T \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L \times M}$ can be written as the sum of Rank- 1 tensor

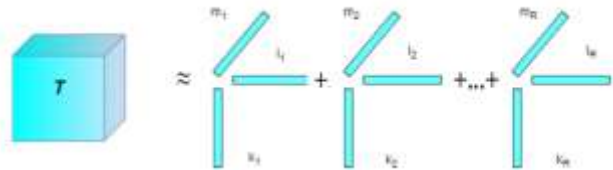


Fig 6: CP decompositions as a three way array

$$T \approx \sum_{r=1}^R p_r \circ q_r \circ n_r$$

Where R is a positive Integer, $p_r \in \mathbb{R}^K$, $q_r \in \mathbb{R}^L$ and $n_r \in \mathbb{R}^M$ for $r = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. The third order element wise HS image tensor can be written as

$$T_{klm} \approx \sum_{r=1}^R p_{kl} q_{lm} n_{mk}$$

for $k=1,2,3,\dots,K$, $l=1,2,3,\dots,L$ and $m=1,2,3,\dots,M$ as shown in Fig 6. The combination of the vector from the rank-1 component is referred to as factormatrices. The third order HSI tensor may be written in matrix form also

$$T_{(1)} \approx P(N \odot Q)^T ; T_{(2)} \approx Q(N \odot P)^T ;$$

$$T_{(3)} \approx N(Q \odot P)^T ;$$

Where \odot denotes the Khatri–Rao product and P, Q, N are the Rank-1 Vectors as shown in equation.

$$P = [p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_R] ; Q = [q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots, q_R] ;$$

$$N = [n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots, n_R]$$

Finally CP model can be expressed as

$$T \approx [P, Q, N] \sum_{r=1}^R p_r \circ q_r \circ n_r$$

If P,Q,N are adjusted to unit length with the absorbed weights into the vector $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^R$

$$\text{Then } T \approx \lambda ; P, Q, N = \sum_{r=1}^R \lambda_r p_r \circ q_r \circ n_r$$

CP decomposition with ALS algorithm:-The main problem with CP decomposition is determining how many rank-1 tensors to use. The rank of a tensor cannot be determined by a finite procedure. [20]. The iterative alternate least squares approach is used to calculate the rank of tensors [21-25]. The iterative approach first fixes P and Q to solve N, then fixes P and N to solve Q, then fixes Q and N to solve P, and so on until some convergence criterion is satisfied.

Procedure

Input: HSIImage dataset $T \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L \times M}$
Compression:
 Initialize: Set randomly P, Q and N.
 Repeat
 $P = T_{(1)}(N \odot Q)[N^T N * Q^T Q]^\dagger$ and save theNormalization of the columns in P as v,
 $Q = T_{(2)}(N \odot P)[Q^T Q * P^T P]^\dagger$ and save theNormalization of the columns in Q as v,
 $N = T_{(3)}(Q \odot P)[Q^T Q * P^T P]^\dagger$ and save theNormalization of the columns in P as v.
 Until $\|T - \bar{T}\|_F / \|T\|_F < \epsilon$, ϵ is a constant

B. Tucker Decompositions (TD):- Consider a 3D tensor (HS image) $T \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times L \times M}$ decomposed into core and component matrices[26-28] as shown in Fig 7 .

$$T \approx G_{X_1} A_{X_2} B_{X_3} C = \sum_{i=1}^{I_1} \sum_{j=1}^{I_2} \sum_{l=1}^{I_3} g_{pqr} a_i \circ b_j \circ c_l = \mathcal{G}; A, B, C$$

Where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times i_1}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times i_2}$ and $C \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times i_3}$ are orthogonal component matrices and $G \in \mathbb{R}^{i_1 \times i_2 \times i_3}$ is called core tensor. Tucker introduced the decomposition of a tensor in 1966. Tucker decomposition using Alterative least square and Tucker decomposition using Higher Order Singular value Decomposition are two well methods used for HS image compression.

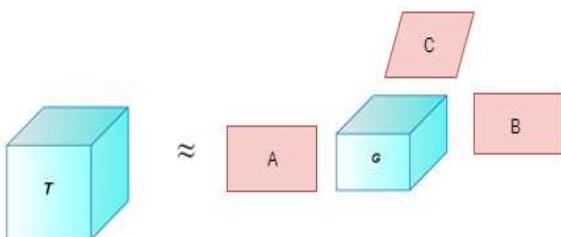


Fig 7 : Tucker Decomposition

B.1 TD Decomposition with ALS algorithm

Tucker Decomposition using ALS approximation algorithm decomposes the given tensor into core tensor and orthogonal component matrices with initial guess. TD decomposition with ALS algorithm is explained in below.

Input : HSIImage dataset $T \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times L \times M}$, R Compression
 Initialize : Set randomly i_1, i_2, i_3 .
 Repeat
 $A = T_{(1)}(C \odot B)[C^T C * B^T B]^\dagger$ and save theNormalization of the columns in A as v,
 $B = T_{(2)}(C \odot A)[B^T B * A^T A]^\dagger$ and save theNormalization of the columns in B as v,
 $C = T_{(3)}(B \odot A)[B^T B * A^T A]^\dagger$ and save theNormalization of the columns in C as v.
 Until $\|T - \bar{T}\|_F / \|T\|_F < \epsilon$, ϵ is a constant

B.2 Tucker Decomposition – HOSVD

A straightforward method for solving the Tucker decomposition would be to solve each mode-k metricized form of the Tucker decomposition for A(k). HOSVD can be considered as a generalization of the matrix SVD. The algorithm is shown below.

Procedure TD-HOSVD (T,R1,R2,R3):

for k=1,2,3...N **do**
 $R^{(n)} \rightarrow A^{(n)}$ left single leading vector of $T_{(N)}$
end for
 $G \leftarrow T_{X_1} A^{(1)T} X_2 A^{(2)T} X_3 \dots X_N A^{(N)T}$
Return G, $A^{(1)} A^{(2)} \dots \dots \dots A^{(N)}$
End procedure

IV. SIMULATION RESULTS

Experimentation is carried out on two different Hyper Spectral Images: Salinas and IndianPines as shown in Fig 8. Indian Pines was taken by NASA's AVIRIS sensor above Indian Pines, Indiana, and it has 145 by 145 pixels and 224 channels/bands in the wavelength range of 400nm to 2500nm.

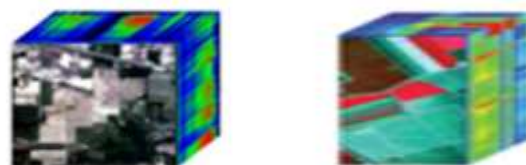


Fig 8 : Indian Pine HS Image Data set and Salinas HS Image

Indian Pines Corrected (145 x145 x200) forms by removing the excessive noise and water absorption bands. The 512 x217 x 224 pixel Salinas scene was captured in the range of 400nm to 860nm over California's Salinas Valley. Salinas HS image of size 512 x 217 x 224 is compressed using three tensor Decompositions methods- CP Decompositions, Tucker Decomposition –HOSVD and Tucker Decomposition – ALS.

Table 1 : PSNRs of Salinas HS image

S.No	BANDS	CP	TD_ ALS	TD_HOSVD
1	7	38.40	38.60	38.73
2	28	42.89	46.33	46.54
3	37	43.54	45.73	45.946
4	42	44.35	48.09	48.22
5	60	38.94	43.58	43.70
6	98	35.50	37.56	37.71
7	170	29.22	29.06	29.22
8	200	31.75	31.73	31.89
9	207	26.96	27.01	27.17
10	215	23.87	23.72	23.88

Peak Signal to Noise ratio (PSNR) or the proportion of Maximum Power to Noise Power[29], is a decibel-based metric that can be used to assess the quality of a reconstructed image. The PSNR measured for all bands and few selected bands of PSNRs are mentioned in the Table 1 .

When compared to the CP decomposition method after Salinas HS image reconstruction, Tucker decomposition approaches offer good quality.HOSVD Tucker gives somewhat better results than ALS Tucker.The time taken to compress the tensor into core and component matrices is more for CP decompositions method and less for HOSVD Tucker decompositions as shown in Fig 9 and

S.No	BANDS	CP	TD_ ALS	TD_HOSVD
1	7	37.88	38.29	38.37
2	28	42.41	43.85	44.05
3	42	41.31	44.73	44.88
4	60	32.03	34.2	34.43
5	98	35.71	35.64	35.73
6	125	33.58	33.91	33.99
7	150	25.65	24.10	24.20
8	174	26.21	24.57	24.63
9	180	22.49	23.01	23.08
10	195	17.84	17.97	18.12

HOSVD tucker takes less time to recreation of Salinas HS image compared to other two methods as shown in Fig 10.

Table 2 : PSNRs of Indian Pines corrected HS image

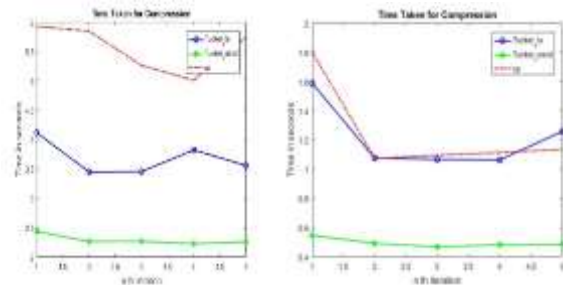


Fig 9 : Time taken to compress for Salinas and Indian Pine HS Image Data set

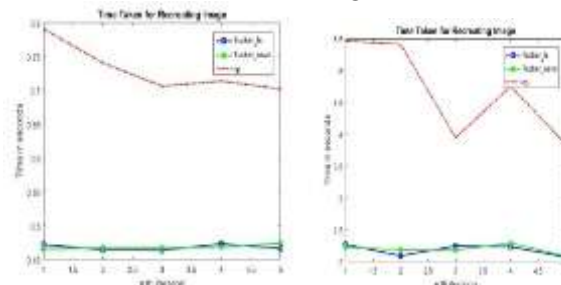


Fig 10 : Time taken to reconstruct the Salinas and Indian Pine HS Image Data set

Structural Similarity index (SSIM) [30] is an image fidelity metric that has proven to be quite successful in determining signal fidelity. The SSIM metric is a perceptual metric that classifies picture quality decline due to processing. In reality, it assesses the perceptual disparity between the reconstructed and original HS images. When utilizing SSIM, the HOSVD Tucker technique outperforms other decompositions in terms of perception image quality as shown in Table 2. The fundamental idea is to compress a given HS image by transforming it to a tensor using tensor decomposition algorithms. Table 3 shows that the HOSVD Tucker decomposition method compresses Salinas HS image data more than the CP and ALS Tucker decomposition methods.

The same procedure is repeated for Indian pines corrected HS image data set. Performance factors PSNR, SSIM of HOSVD are better than other two methods as shown in Table 4. Time taken to compress and to recreate is less compared to CP and Tucker ALS methods for Indian pines corrected image also. Compared to CP decomposition and Tucker decomposition using the ALS approach, Tucker decomposition using HOSVD compresses more while preserving good perception quality.

Table 3: Conclusion Table of Salinas HS image

Parameters	CP	Tucker ALS	Tucker - HOSVD
PSNR (dB)	32.68	32.97	33.09
Average SSIM	0.82	0.61	0.82
Elapsed Time(s) for compression	5.54	3.41	2.17
Elapsed Time(s) for Decompression	4.69	2.38	2.27
CR	86.55	88.79	96.69

Table 4: Conclusion Table of Indian Pines HS image

Parameters	CP	Tucker ALS	Tucker - HOSVD
PSNR (dB)	32.344	33.807	33.949
Average SSIM	0.591	0.521	0.517
Elapsed Time(s) for compression	5.546	3.409	2.179
Elapsed Time(s) for Decompression	4.695	2.383	2.275
CR	301.299	449.44	483.85

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, three effective tensor decompositions have been used to compress the hyper spectral image by representing it as a 3D tensor. A tensor decomposition method removes both spatial and spectral redundancy present in the hyper spectral image. Experimentation on two real data sets demonstrated that the Tucker decomposition using the HOSVD method outperforms in terms of PSNR and SSIM with high compression compared to the other two methods. For the Indian Pines data set, HOSVD outperforms the other two approaches by around 1 and 2 dB in terms of PSNR, and by 48 and 182 in terms of compression ratio. The ALS method is straightforward to comprehend and use, but it requires several iterations to converge, and convergence is not guaranteed. When compared to CP decomposition and Tucker decomposition-ALS, Tucker-HOSVD requires less time with excellent compression and decent image quality as it is a non-iterative approximation. In the future, we can explore additional non-iterative approximations for decompositions to reduce the time. In order to improve the performance in different applications, this work might be extended to additional issues like classification and unmixing.

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