

# Proximal Gradient Algorithms: Applications in Signal Processing

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EUSIPCO 2019

IDIAP, Amazon Research, KU Leuven ESAT-STADIUS

# **Proximal Gradient Algorithms: Applications in Signal Processing**

## **Part I: Introduction**

**Toon van Waterschoot**

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**EUSIPCO 2019**

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# Optimization in Signal Processing

Inference problems such as ...

- Signal estimation,
- Parameter estimation,
- Signal detection,
- Data classification

... naturally lead to optimization problems

$$x_* = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} \underbrace{\text{loss}(x) + \text{prior}(x)}_{\text{cost}(x)}$$

Variables  $x$  could be signal samples, model parameters, algorithm tuning parameters, etc.

# Modeling and Inverse Problems

Many inference problems lead to optimization problems in which signal models need to be inverted, i.e. **inverse problems**:

Given set of observations  $y$ , infer unknown signal or model parameters  $x$

- Inverse problems are often ill-conditioned or underdetermined
- Large-scale problems may suffer more easily from ill-conditioning
- Including **prior** in cost function then becomes crucial (e.g. regularization)

# Modeling and Inverse Problems

Choice of suitable cost function often depends on adoption of application-specific **signal model**, e.g.

- Dictionary model, e.g. sum of sinusoids  $y = Dx$  with DFT matrix  $D$
- Filter model, e.g. linear FIR filter  $y = Hx$  with convolution matrix  $H$
- Black-box model, e.g. neural network  $y = f(x)$  with feature transformation function  $f$

In this tutorial, we will often represent signal models as **operators**, i.e.

$$y = Ax \text{ with } A = \text{linear operator}$$

$$y = A(x) \text{ with } A = \text{nonlinear operator}$$

# Motivating Examples

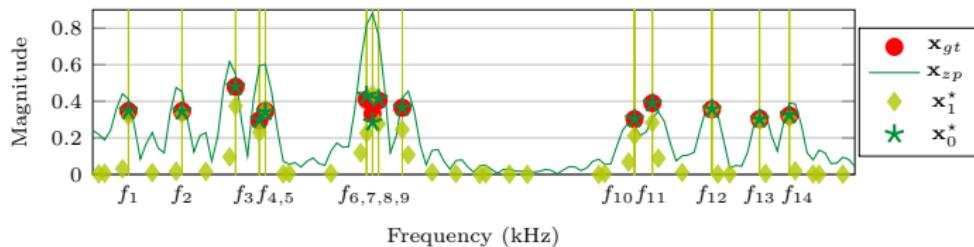
## Example 1: Line spectral estimation

- DFT dictionary model with selection matrix  $S$  and inverse DFT matrix  $F_i$

$$y = SF_i x$$

- Underdetermined inverse problem:  $\dim(y) \ll \dim(x)$
- Spectral sparsity prior for line spectrum

$$x_* = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} \underbrace{\text{DFT model output error}(x)}_{\text{loss}(x)} + \underbrace{\text{spectral sparsity}(x)}_{\text{prior}(x)}$$



# Motivating Examples

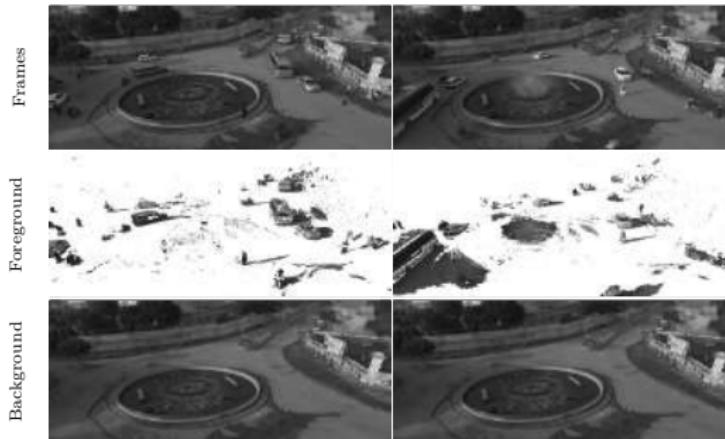
## Example 2: Video background removal

- Static background + dynamic foreground decomposition model

$$Y = L + S$$

- Underdetermined inverse problem:  $\dim(Y) = \frac{1}{2}(\dim(L) + \dim(S))$
- Rank-1 prior for static BG + sparse prior for FG changes (robust PCA)

$$x_* = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} \underbrace{\text{BG + FG model output error}(x)}_{\text{loss}(x)} + \underbrace{\text{BG rank} + \text{FG sparsity}(x)}_{\text{prior}(x)}$$



# Motivating Examples

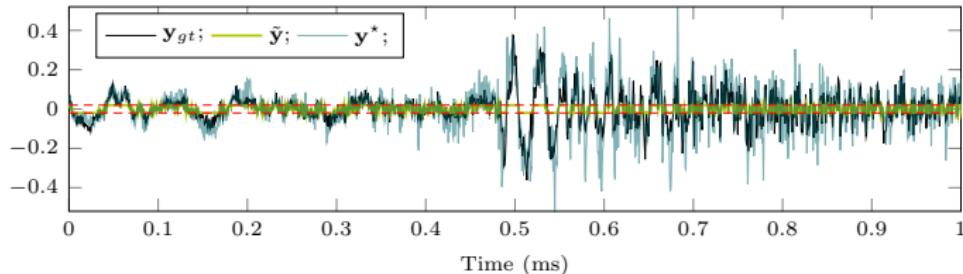
## Example 3: Audio de-clipping

- DCT dictionary model with inverse DCT matrix  $F_{i,c}$

$$y = F_{i,c}x$$

- Underdetermined inverse problem: missing data (clipped samples) in  $y$
- Spectral sparsity for audio signal + amplitude prior for clipped samples

$$x_* = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} \underbrace{\text{DCT model output error}(x)}_{\text{loss}(x)} + \underbrace{\text{spectral sparsity} + \text{clipping}(x)}_{\text{prior}(x)}$$



# Challenges in Optimization

## Linear vs. nonlinear optimization

- Linear: closed-form solution
- Nonlinear: iterative numerical optimization algorithms

## Convex vs. nonconvex optimization

- Convex: unique optimal point (global minimum)
- Nonconvex: multiple optimal points (local minima)

## Smooth vs. non-smooth optimization

- Smooth: Newton-type methods using first- and second-order derivatives
- Non-smooth: first-order methods using (sub)gradients

# Challenges in Optimization

Trends and observations:

- Loss is often linear/convex/smooth but prior is often not
- Even if non-convex problems are hard to solve globally, iterating from good initialization may yield local minimum close enough to global minimum
- Non-smooth problems are typically tackled with first-order methods, showing slower convergence than Newton-type methods

Key message of this tutorial:

Also for **non-smooth** optimization problems,  
Newton-type methods showing fast convergence can be derived

- This greatly broadens variety of loss functions and priors that can be used
- Theory, software implementation, and signal processing examples will be presented in next 2.5h

# Tutorial Outline

1. Introduction
2. Proximal Gradient (PG) algorithms
  - Proximal mappings and proximal gradient method
  - Dual and accelerated proximal gradient methods
  - Newton-type proximal gradient algorithms
3. Software Toolbox
  - Short introduction to Julia language
  - Structured Optimization package ecosystem
4. Demos and Examples
  - Line spectral estimation
  - Video background removal
  - Audio de-clipping
5. Conclusion

# Proximal Gradient Algorithms: Applications in Signal Processing

Part II

Lorenzo Stella

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EUSIPCO 2019

AWS AI Labs (Amazon Research)

# About me

- Applied Scientist at AWS AI Labs (Amazon Research)
- Deep learning, probabilistic time series models
- Time series forecasting, classification, anomaly detection...
- **We're hiring!**

**Gluon Time Series:** [github.com/awslabs/gluon-ts](https://github.com/awslabs/gluon-ts)

- Previously: Ph.D. at IMT Lucca and KU Leuven with Panos Patrinos
- The work presented here was done prior to joining Amazon

# Outline

1. Preliminary concepts, composite optimization, proximal mappings
2. Proximal gradient method
3. Duality
4. Accelerated proximal gradient
5. Newton-type proximal gradient methods
6. Concluding remarks

# Blanket assumptions

In this presentation:

- Underlying space is the Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  equipped with
  - Inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ , e.g. dot product)
  - Induced norm  $\| \cdot \| = \sqrt{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle}$
- Linear mappings will be identified by their matrices and adjoints will be denoted by transpose  $^\top$
- Most algorithms will be matrix-free: can view matrices and their transposes as linear mappings and their adjoints
- All results carry over to general Euclidean spaces, most of them even to Hilbert spaces

# The space $\mathbb{R}^n$

- $n$ -dimensional column vectors with real components endowed with

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ x_2 + y_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n + y_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha x_1 \\ \alpha x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- Standard inner product:  $\langle x, y \rangle = x^\top y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$  dot product
- Induced norm:  $\|x\| = \|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$  Euclidean norm

Alternative inner product and induced norm ( $Q \succ 0$  is  $n \times n$ )

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle_Q = x^\top Qy$$

$$\|x\| = \|x\|_Q = \sqrt{x^\top Qx}$$

# The space $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

- $m \times n$  real **matrices**

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \cdots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \cdots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \cdots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Standard inner product

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = \text{trace}(X^\top Y) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij} Y_{ij}$$

- Induced norm

$$\|X\| = \|X\|_F = \sqrt{\langle X, X \rangle} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m X_{ij}^2}$$

**Frobenius norm**

# Extended-real-valued functions

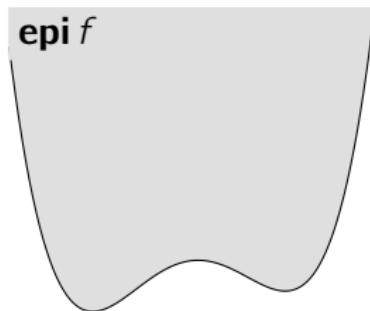
- Extended real line  $\overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\} = (-\infty, \infty]$
- Extended-real-valued functions  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$
- Effective domain  $\text{dom } f = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid f(x) < \infty\}$
- $f$  is called **proper** if  $f(x) < \infty$  for some  $x$   $(\text{dom } f \text{ is nonempty})$
- Offer a unified view of optimization problems

**Main example:** indicator of set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\delta_C(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in C \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Epigraph

**Epigraph:**  $\text{epi } f = \{(x, \alpha) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \mid f(x) \leq \alpha\}$

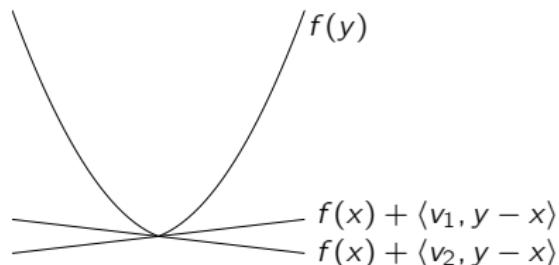


- $f$  is **closed** iff  $\text{epi } f$  is a closed set.
- $f$  is **convex** iff  $\text{epi } f$  is a convex set.

# Subdifferential

**Subdifferential** of a proper, convex function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ :

$$\partial f(x) = \{v | f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle v, y - x \rangle \quad \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$



- $\partial f(x)$  is a convex set
- $\partial f(x) = \{v\}$  iff  $f$  is differentiable at  $x$  with  $\nabla f(x) = v$
- $\bar{x}$  minimizes  $f$  iff  $0 \in \partial f(\bar{x})$
- Definition above can be extended to **nonconvex**  $f$

# Composite optimization problems

$$\mathbf{minimize} \quad \varphi(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

---

## Assumptions

- $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  differentiable with  $L$ -Lipschitz gradient ( $L$ -smooth)

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\| \leq L\|x - y\| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

- $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  proper, closed
- Set of optimal solutions  $\mathbf{argmin} f + g$  is nonempty

# Proximal mapping (or operator)

Assume  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  closed, proper

$$\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) = \underset{z \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 \right\}, \quad \gamma > 0$$

If  $g$  is convex:

- for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , function  $z \mapsto g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2$  is strongly convex
- $\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x)$  is unique for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$

## Examples

- $f(x) = 0$ :  $\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma f}(x) = x$
- $f(x) = \delta_C(x)$ :  $\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma f}(x) = \Pi_C(x)$

Proximal mapping: generalization of Euclidean projection

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**Proximal mapping: generalization of Euclidean projection**

# Properties

$$\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) = \underset{z \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 \right\}, \quad \gamma > 0$$

---

- If  $g$  is convex, from the optimality conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} p \in \underset{z}{\operatorname{argmin}} g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 &\iff -\gamma^{-1}(p - x) \in \partial g(p) \\ &\iff x \in p + \gamma \partial g(p) \end{aligned}$$

- In other words

$$p \in x - \gamma \partial g(p) \tag{\spadesuit}$$

- Equivalent to **implicit subgradient** step
- Analogous to implicit Euler method for ODEs
- From  $(\spadesuit)$ , any fixed-point  $\bar{x} = \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(\bar{x})$  satisfies  $0 \in \partial g(\bar{x})$

**Fixed-points of  $\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}$   $\equiv$  minimizers of  $g$**

## Properties

$$\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) = \operatorname*{argmin}_{z \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 \right\}, \quad \gamma > 0$$

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- For convex  $g$ , mapping  $\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is **firmly nonexpansive (FNE)**

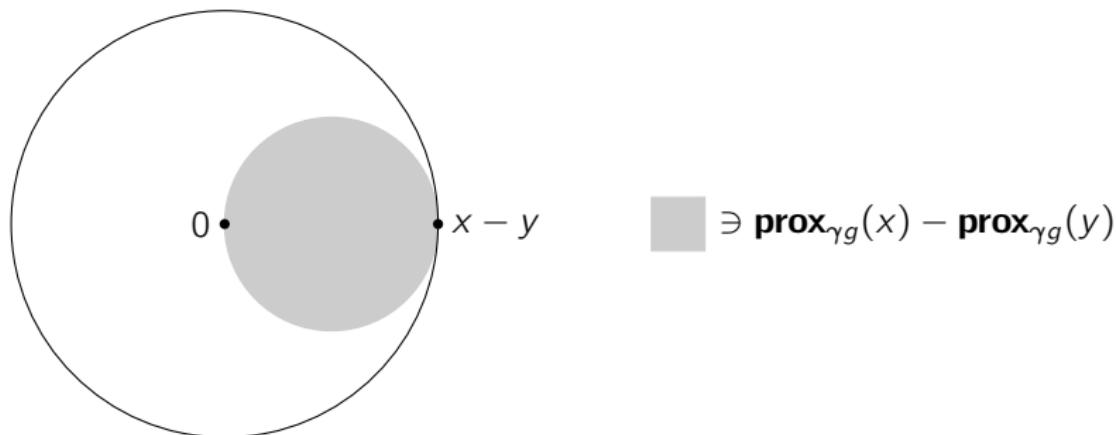
$$\|\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) - \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(y)\|^2 \leq \langle \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) - \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(y), x - y \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

# Properties

$$\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) = \underset{z \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 \right\}, \quad \gamma > 0$$

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- For convex  $g$ , mapping  $\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is **firmly nonexpansive (FNE)**

$$\|\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) - \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(y)\|^2 \leq \langle \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) - \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(y), x - y \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

- FNE implies  $\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}$  **nonexpansive** (Cauchy-Schwarz)

$$\|\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) - \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(y)\| \leq \|x - y\| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

## Examples of proximal mappings

- Convex quadratic function

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{2} \langle x, Qx \rangle + \langle q, x \rangle \quad \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) = (I + \gamma Q)^{-1}(x - \gamma q)$$

- Euclidean norm

$$g(x) = \|x\| \quad \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) = \begin{cases} (1 - \gamma/\|x\|)x, & \|x\| > \gamma, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- $L_1$ -norm

$$g(x) = \|x\|_1 = \sum_i |x_i| \quad [\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x)]_i = \begin{cases} x_i + \gamma & x_i < -\gamma \\ 0 & |x_i| \leq \gamma \\ x_i - \gamma & x_i > \gamma \end{cases}$$

- Nuclear norm

$$g(X) = \sum \mathbf{diag} \Sigma \quad \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(X) = U \hat{\Sigma} V^T$$

where  $X = U \Sigma V^T$       where  $\mathbf{diag} \hat{\Sigma} = \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma \|\cdot\|_1}(\mathbf{diag} \Sigma)$

# Proximal calculus rules

- **Separable sum:**  $f(x_1, x_2) = f_1(x_1) + f_2(x_2)$

$$\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma f}(x_1, x_2) = (\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma f_1}(x_1), \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma f_2}(x_2))$$

- **Scaling and translation:**  $f(x) = \phi(\alpha x + \beta), \alpha \neq 0$

$$\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma f}(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha}(\mathbf{prox}_{\alpha^2 \lambda \phi}(\alpha x + \beta) - \beta)$$

- **Postcomposition:**  $f(x) = \alpha \phi(x) + \beta, \alpha > 0$

$$\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma f}(x) = \mathbf{prox}_{\alpha \gamma \phi}(x)$$

- **Orthogonal composition:**  $f(x) = \phi(Qx), Q^\top Q = QQ^\top = I$

$$\mathbf{prox}_{\gamma f}(x) = Q^\top \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma \phi}(Qx)$$

(e.g.:  $Q = \text{DCT}, \text{DFT}$ )

# Properties

$$\text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) = \operatorname*{argmin}_{z \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 \right\}, \quad \gamma > 0$$

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- If  $g$  is convex  $\text{prox}_{\gamma g}$  is single-valued
- If  $g$  is nonconvex  $\text{prox}_{\gamma g}$  is set-valued in general
  - Can be empty, can be multi-valued
  - If  $g$  is lower bounded then  $\text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x)$  nonempty for all  $x$
  - Algorithms will work by taking any  $p \in \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x)$

# Outline

1. Preliminary concepts, composite optimization, proximal mappings
2. **Proximal gradient method**
3. Duality
4. Accelerated proximal gradient
5. Newton-type proximal gradient methods
6. Concluding remarks

# Composite optimality conditions

$$\text{minimize } \varphi(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

---

- If  $x_*$  is a local minimum of  $\varphi$  then

$$-\nabla f(x_*) \in \partial g(x_*) \tag{1}$$

- Moreover, we have shown already that for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$p \in \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) \iff x \in p + \gamma \partial g(p) \tag{2}$$

- We can reformulate (1) as follows, using (2)

$$\begin{aligned} -\nabla f(x_*) \in \partial g(x_*) &\iff x_* - \gamma \nabla f(x_*) \in x_* + \gamma \partial g(x_*) \\ &\iff x_* = \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x_* - \gamma \nabla f(x_*)) \end{aligned}$$

- We have shown that  $x_*$  satisfies (1) iff it is a **fixed point** of mapping

$$T(x) = \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x - \gamma \nabla f(x))$$

## Proximal gradient method

To minimize  $f + g$  iterate

$$x^{k+1} = \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))$$

- 
- Reduces to gradient method if  $g = 0$

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k)$$

- Reduces to gradient projection when  $g = \delta_C$

$$x^{k+1} = \Pi_C(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))$$

- Reduces to proximal point method when  $f = 0$

$$x^{k+1} = \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^k)$$

# Interpretations

$$x^{k+1} = \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))$$

---

- Proximal gradient step can be expressed as linearized (in  $f$ ) sub-problem

$$x^{k+1} = \underset{u}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{f(x^k) + \langle \nabla f(x^k), u - x^k \rangle}_{\ell_f(u; x^k)} + g(u) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|u - x^k\|^2 \right\}$$

- Since  $\nabla f$  is Lipschitz, for  $\gamma \leq 1/L$ :

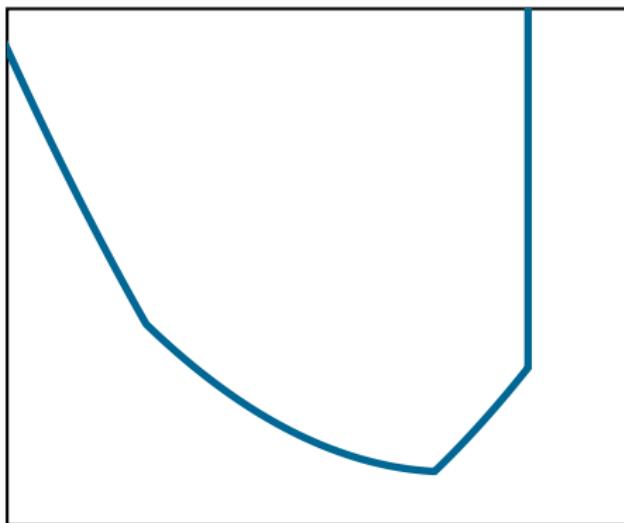
$$f(u) \leq \ell_f(u; x^k) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|u - x^k\|^2 \quad \text{for all } u \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

- Thus  $\ell_f(u; x^k) + g(u) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|u - x^k\|^2$  **majorizes**  $\varphi(u)$
- Proximal gradient as a **majorization minimization algorithm**

# Interpretations

$$x^{k+1} = \underset{u}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{f(x^k) + \langle \nabla f(x^k), u - x^k \rangle}_{\ell_f(u; x^k)} + g(u) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|u - x^k\|^2 \right\}$$

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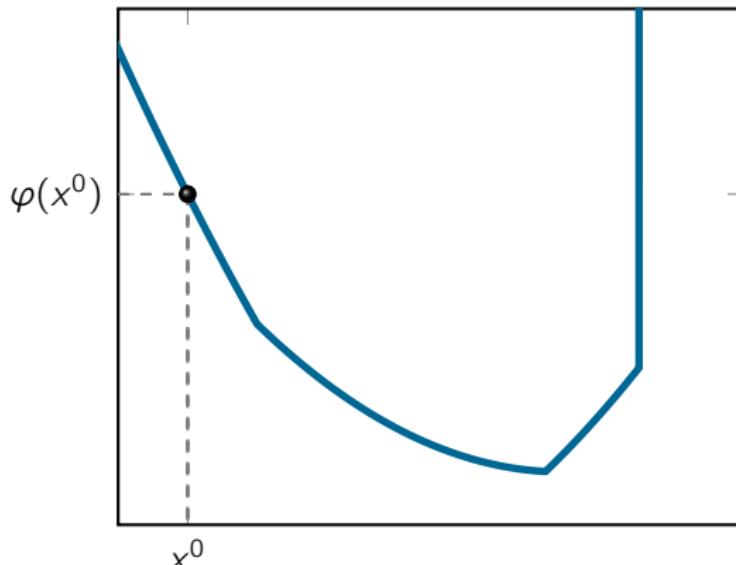


—  $\varphi = f + g$

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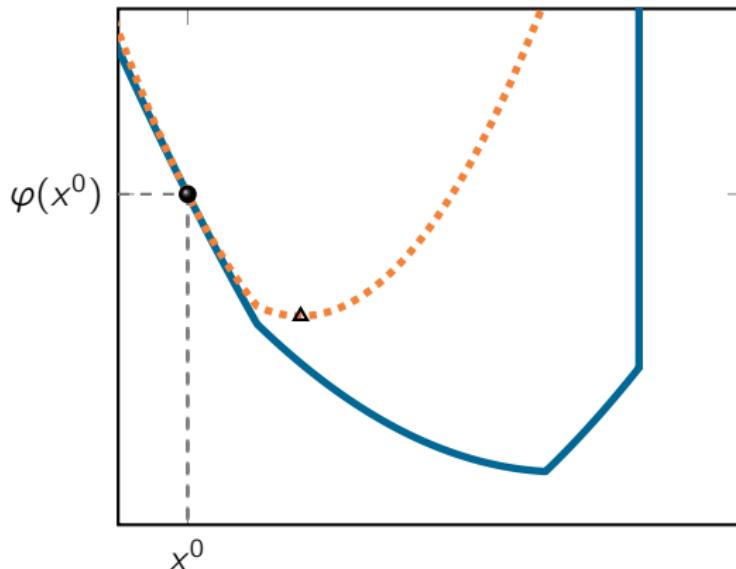


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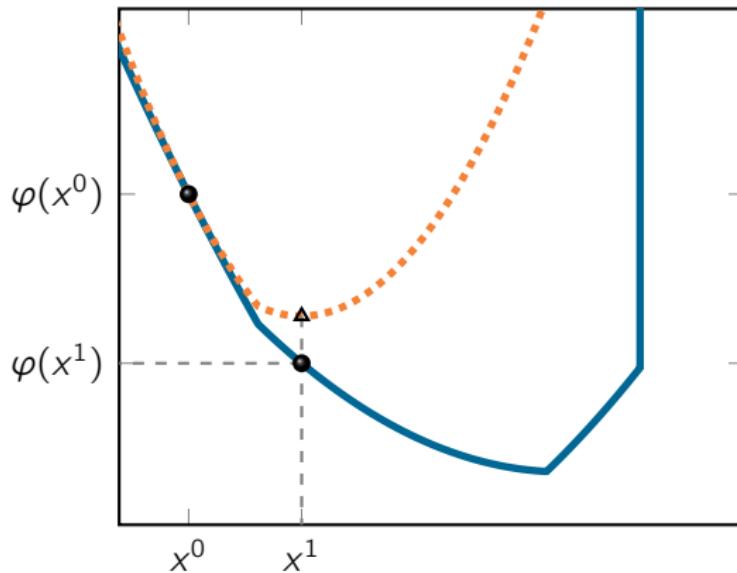


$$\varphi = f + g \quad \ell_f(u; x^0) + g(u) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|u - x^0\|^2$$

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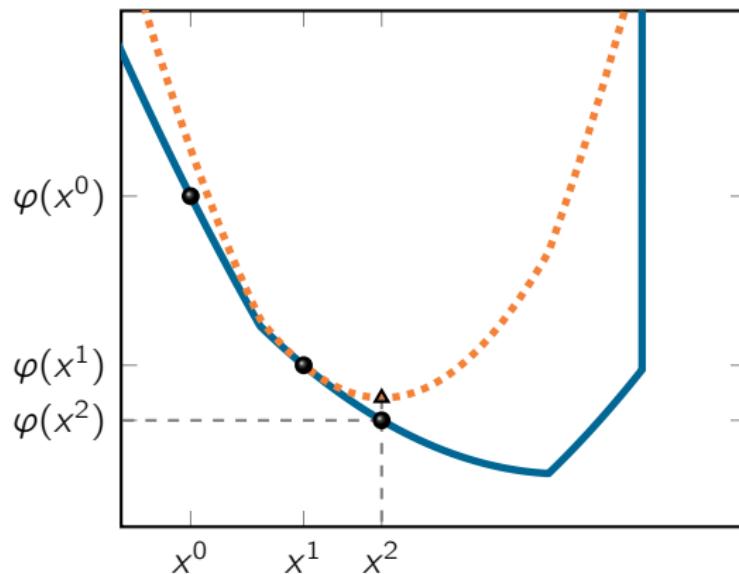


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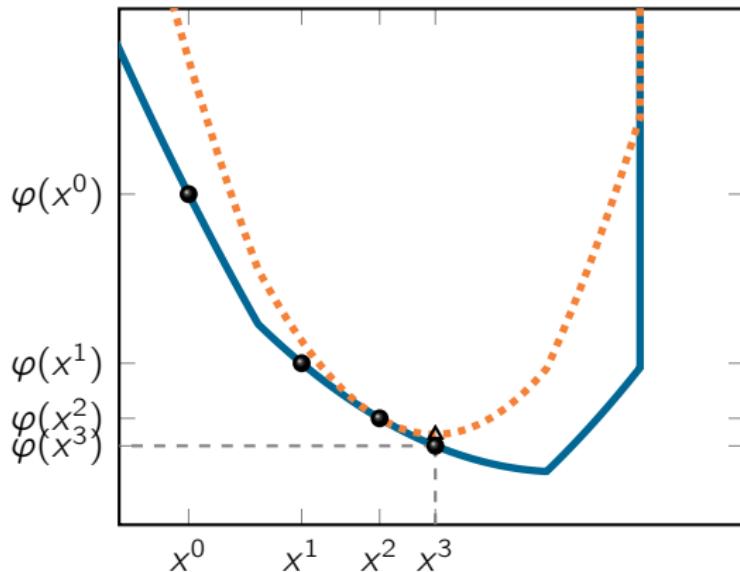


—  $\varphi = f + g$       —  $\ell_f(u; x^1) + g(u) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|u - x^1\|^2$

# Interpretations

$$x^{k+1} = \underset{u}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \underbrace{f(x^k) + \langle \nabla f(x^k), u - x^k \rangle}_{\ell_f(u; x^k)} + g(u) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|u - x^k\|^2 \right\}$$

---



—  $\varphi = f + g$       —  $\ell_f(u; x^2) + g(u) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|u - x^2\|^2$

# Convergence rate (convex case)

## Theorem (Convergence rate – convex case)

The iterates of proximal gradient method with  $\gamma \in (0, 1/L]$  satisfy

$$\varphi(x^k) - \varphi(x_*) \leq \frac{\|x_0 - x_*\|^2}{2\gamma k}$$

- **Conclusion:** to reach  $\varphi(x^k) - \varphi(x_*) \leq \epsilon$ , proximal gradient needs

$$k = \left\lceil \frac{\|x_0 - x_*\|^2}{2\gamma\epsilon} \right\rceil \quad \text{iterations}$$

## Convergence rate (strongly convex case)

$$\|x^{k+1} - x_*\|^2 \leq (1 - \gamma\mu) \|x^k - x_*\|^2 \quad (\spadesuit)$$

- if  $f$  **strongly convex** ( $\mu > 0$ ), then linear convergence

$$\|x^k - x_*\|^2 \leq c^k \|x^0 - x_*\|^2 \quad c = 1 - \gamma\mu$$

- for  $\gamma = \frac{1}{L}$  contraction factor is  $c = 1 - \frac{\mu}{L}$
- for small  $\frac{\mu}{L}$  convergence is slow
- $\mu = 0$ : () shows that distance from solution set is nonincreasing

$$\|x^{k+1} - x_*\| \leq \|x^k - x_*\|$$

- sequences with this property are called Fejér monotone
- Fejér monotonicity: convergence of the sequence of iterates to some  $x_*$

## Convergence (nonconvex case)

- If  $f$  is **nonconvex** and  $\gamma \leq 1/L$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|R(x^k)\| = 0 \quad R(x) = x - \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(x - \gamma \nabla f(x))$$

- $R : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is sufficiently regular, e.g. it's Lipschitz if  $g$  is convex
- This implies that every cluster point  $\bar{x}$  of  $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  satisfies

$$R(\bar{x}) = 0 \iff -\nabla f(\bar{x}) \in \partial g(\bar{x})$$

- Convergence of the sequence using *Kurdyka-Łojasiewicz* assumption

# Proximal gradient with line search

- In practice Lipschitz constant  $L$  is not known, how to select  $\gamma$ ?
- Can do backtracking: start with  $\gamma_0$  large and at every iteration run

---

**Algorithm 1:** Line search to determine  $\gamma$

---

**Input:**  $x^k$ ,  $\gamma_{k-1}$  and  $\beta \in (0, 1)$

$\gamma \leftarrow \gamma_{k-1}$

**while**  $f(z) > f(x^k) + \langle \nabla f(x^k), z - x^k \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x^k\|^2$  **do**

$z \leftarrow \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))$

$\gamma \leftarrow \beta\gamma$

**end**

---

- Requires one evaluation of  $\text{prox}_{\gamma g}$  and  $f$  per line search iteration
- Only a finite number of backtrackings will be necessary
- Preserves convergence properties of the algorithms

# Outline

1. Preliminary concepts, composite optimization, proximal mappings
2. Proximal gradient method
- 3. Duality**
4. Accelerated proximal gradient
5. Newton-type proximal gradient methods
6. Concluding remarks

# Duality

$$\text{minimize } f(x) + g(Ax)$$

---

- $f$  and  $g$  are proper, closed, convex
- $A$  matrix (e.g. data) or linear operator (e.g. finite differencing)

**Note:** computing  $\text{prox}_{\gamma(g \circ A)}$  is much more complex than  $\text{prox}_{\gamma g}$

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Example: simple **bound** constraints become **polyhedral** constraints

$$g = \delta_{\{z:z \leq b\}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{prox}_{\gamma g} = \Pi_{\{z:z \leq b\}} = \min(\cdot, b)$$

$$(g \circ A) = \delta_{\{x:Ax \leq b\}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{prox}_{\gamma(g \circ A)} = \Pi_{\{x:Ax \leq b\}} = ?$$

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Reformulate problem in **separable form** and solve the dual:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{minimize}_{x,z} \quad f(x) + g(z) \\ & \mathbf{subject \ to} \quad Ax = z \end{aligned}$$

# Duality

## Primal

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{x,z}{\text{minimize}} \quad f(x) + g(z) \\ & \text{subject to} \quad Ax = z \end{aligned}$$

## Dual

$$\underset{y}{\text{minimize}} \quad f^*(-A^T y) + g^*(y)$$

- Functions  $f^*$  and  $g^*$  are the **Fenchel conjugates** of  $f$  and  $g$

$$f^*(u) = \sup_x \{ \langle u, x \rangle - f(x) \} \quad (\text{similarly for } g)$$

- If  $f$  is  $\mu$ -strongly convex then  $f^*$  has  $\mu^{-1}$ -Lipschitz gradient

$$\nabla f^*(u) = \operatorname{argmax}_x \{ \langle u, x \rangle - f(x) \}$$

- **Moreau identity:**  $y = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(y) + \gamma \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma^{-1}g^*}(\gamma^{-1}y)$

We can apply (accelerated) proximal gradient method to the dual

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# Accelerated proximal gradient (APG)

$$\text{minimize } f(x) + g(x)$$

---

- When  $f$  and  $g$  are convex, convergence rate of proximal gradient is  $O(1/k)$
- Proximal gradient reduces to gradient method whenever  $g \equiv 0$
- Gradient method **not optimal** for smooth convex problems
- Optimal convergence rate is  $O(1/k^2)$
- **Nesterov (1983)** suggested simple modification that attains optimal rate
- Beck & Teboulle (2009) extended the method to composite problems

# Accelerated proximal gradient (APG)

Start with  $x^{-1} = x^0$ , repeat

$$\beta_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = 0, \\ \frac{k-1}{k+2} & \text{if } k = 1, 2, \dots \end{cases}$$

$$y^k = x^k + \beta_k(x^k - x^{k-1})$$

extrapolation step

$$x^{k+1} = \mathbf{prox}_{\gamma g}(y^k - \gamma \nabla f(y^k))$$

proximal gradient step

## Theorem (Convergence rate of APG – convex case)

The iterates of APG with  $\gamma \in (0, 1/L]$  satisfy

$$\varphi(x^{k+1}) - \varphi_* \leq \frac{2L}{(k+2)^2} \|x^0 - x_*\|^2$$

- APG faster than PG in theory (and practice!)
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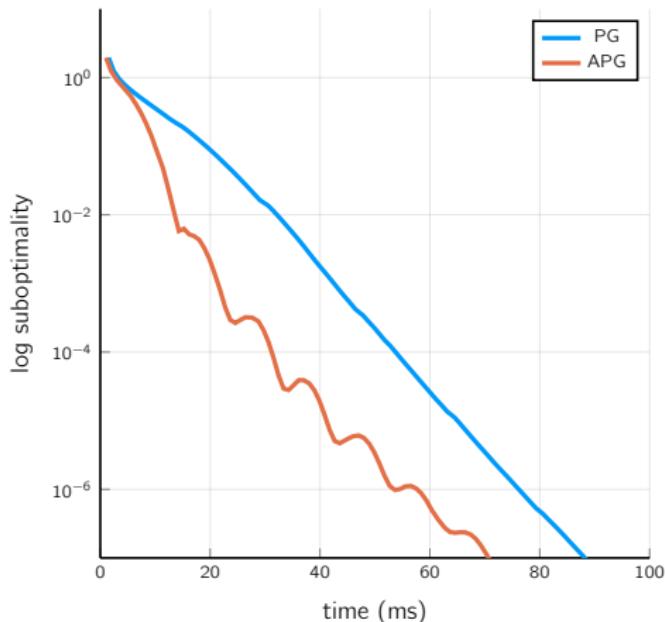
## Example: lasso (or basis pursuit)

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1 \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{1000 \times 2500}$$

- Original signal  $\hat{x}$  is sparse with 100 nonzeros
- Output  $y = A\hat{x} + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma)$  (SNR = 10)
- $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|^2$ ,  $g(x) = \lambda \|x\|_1$
- Lipschitz constant of  $\nabla f$  is  $\|A^\top A\|$

## Example: lasso (or basis pursuit)

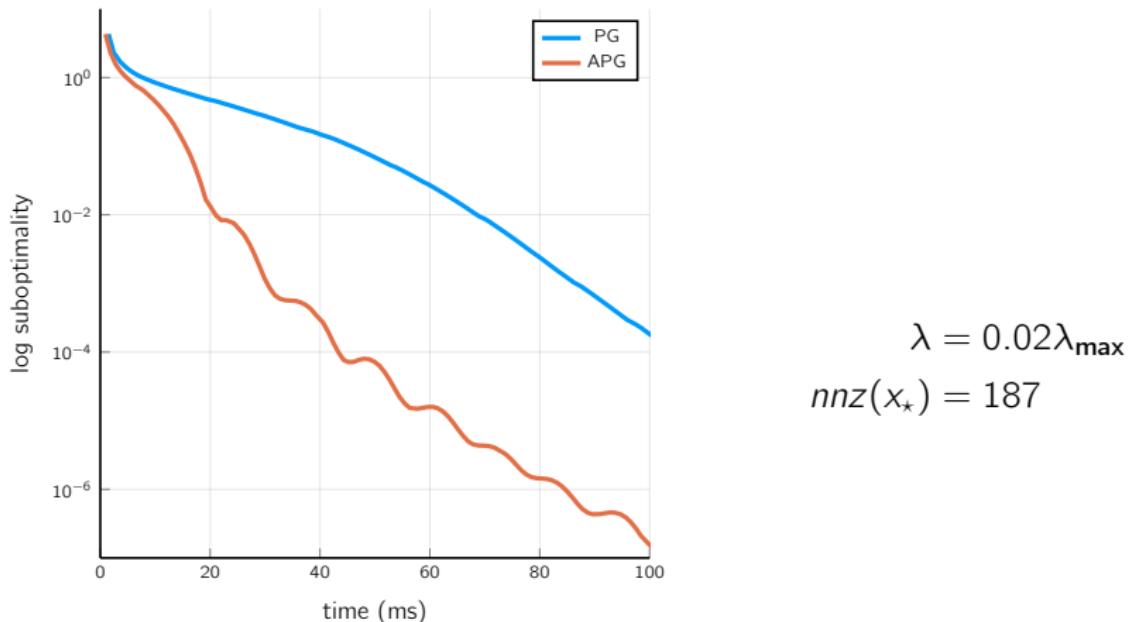
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$$\lambda = 0.05\lambda_{\max}$$
$$nnz(x_*) = 90$$

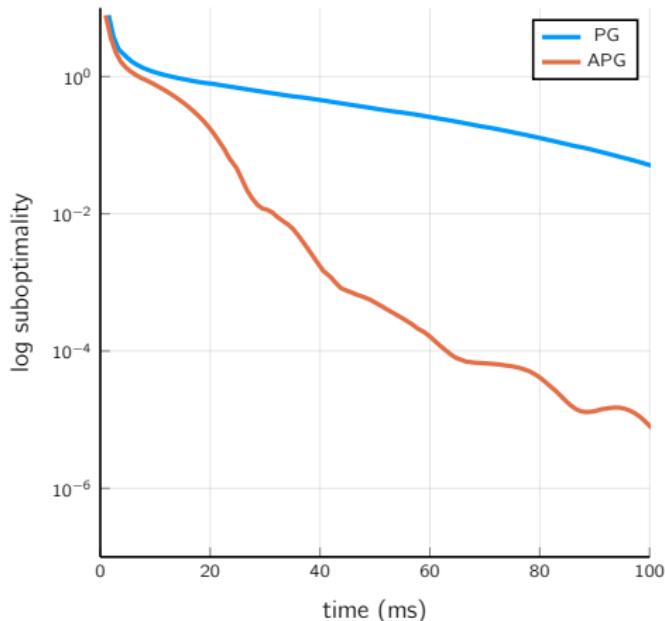
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$$\lambda = 0.01\lambda_{\max}$$
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# Newton-type methods (smooth case)

1. Solve **minimize**  $f(x)$  using

$$x^{k+1} = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} f(x^k) + \langle \nabla f(x^k), x - x^k \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|x - x^k\|_{H_k}^2 \quad H_k \succ 0$$

2. Solve  $\nabla f(x) = 0$

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - H_k^{-1} \nabla f(x^k) \quad H_k \text{ nonsingular}$$

- **Equivalent approaches**
- Choose  $H_k \approx \nabla^2 f(x^k) \equiv J \nabla f(x^k)$
- Gradient method corresponds to  $H_k = I$
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Can we extend this to composite problems  $f + g$ ?

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**Can we extend this to composite problems  $f + g$ ?**

## Variable metric proximal gradient

**minimize**  $f(x) + g(x)$

---

$$d^k = \underset{d}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ f(x^k) + \langle \nabla f(x^k), d \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|d\|_{H_k}^2 + g(x^k + d) \quad H_k \succ 0$$

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \tau_k d^k \quad \tau_k > 0$$

where  $H_k \approx \nabla^2 f(x^k)$ . Define the **scaled proximal mapping**

$$\operatorname{prox}_g^H(x) = \underset{z}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ g(z) + \frac{1}{2} \|z - x\|_H^2 \right\}, \quad H \succ 0$$

Then the above is equivalent to

$$d^k = \operatorname{prox}_g^{H_k}(x^k - H_k^{-1} \nabla f(x^k)) - x^k$$

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \tau_k d^k \quad \tau_k > 0$$

## Variable metric proximal gradient

- Becker, Fadili, 2012:  $f, g$  both convex, uses a modified SR1 method to approximate  $H_k \approx \nabla^2 f$
- Lee et al., 2014:  $f, g$  both convex, show superlinear convergence when  $H_k$  is computed using quasi-Newton formulas, and solving subproblem inexactly
- Chouzenoux et al., 2014:  $f$  can be nonconvex, analyzes convergence of an inexact method under KL assumption
- Frankel et al., 2015:  $f, g$  can both be nonconvex
- ...

# Variable metric proximal gradient

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---

Major **practical** drawback:

- No closed-form for computing  $\text{prox}_g^H$  in general, even for very simple  $g$
- Closed form for  $\text{prox}_g^H$  if:
  - if  $g = \|\cdot\|_1$  then  $H$  must be **diagonal**
  - if  $g = \|\cdot\|_2$  then  $H$  must have **constant diagonal**
- Otherwise, need **inner iterative procedure** to compute  $\text{prox}_g^H$
- Change in oracle
  - before:  $\nabla f$  and  $\text{prox}_{\gamma g}$  (often very simple to compute)
  - after:  $\nabla f$  and  $\text{prox}_g^H$  (much harder in general)
- Not as easily implementable as original proximal gradient method

# Newton-type method for optimality conditions

$$R(x) = x - \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x - \gamma \nabla f(x)) = 0 \quad (\spadesuit)$$

- Any local minimum  $x_*$  satisfies  $R(x_*) = 0$
- System of nonlinear, nonsmooth equations
- **Idea:** apply Newton-type method to solve ()

$$z^k = \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))$$

$$d^k = B_k(z^k - x^k) \quad B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \text{ nonsingular}$$

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + d^k$$

- Choose  $B_k$  (approximately) as  $JR(x^k)^{-1}$
- Need to **damp** the last step to enforce convergence
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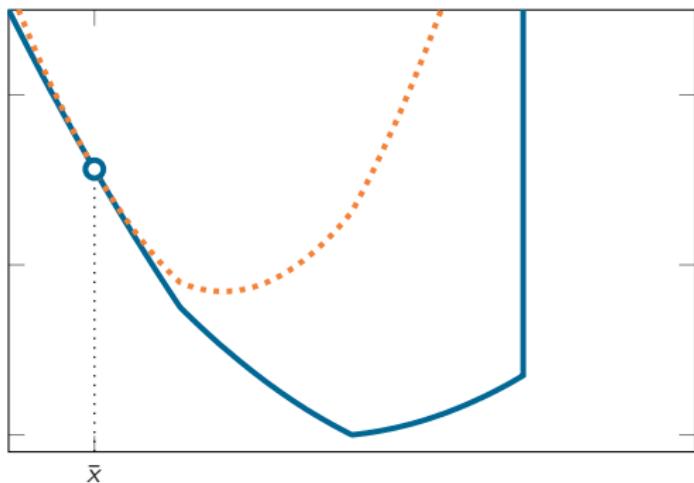
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# Forward-backward envelope

$$\varphi_\gamma(x) = \min_z \left\{ Q_\gamma(z; x) = f(x) + \langle z - x, \nabla f(x) \rangle + g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 \right\}$$

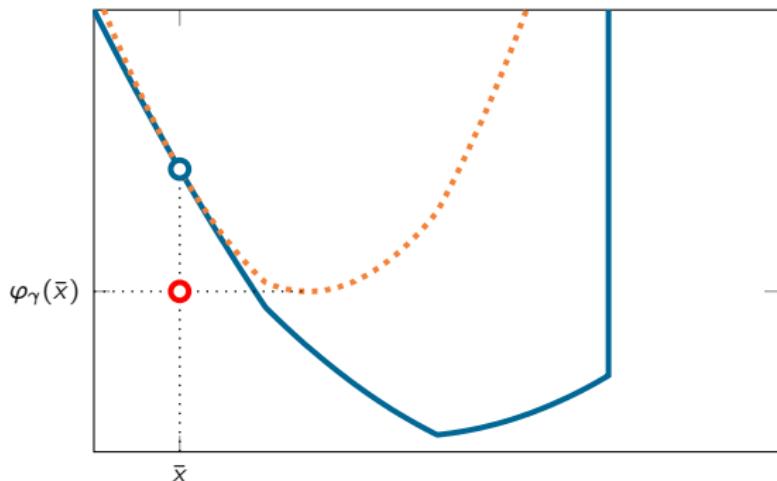
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—  $\varphi$  .....  $Q_\gamma(\cdot; \bar{x})$

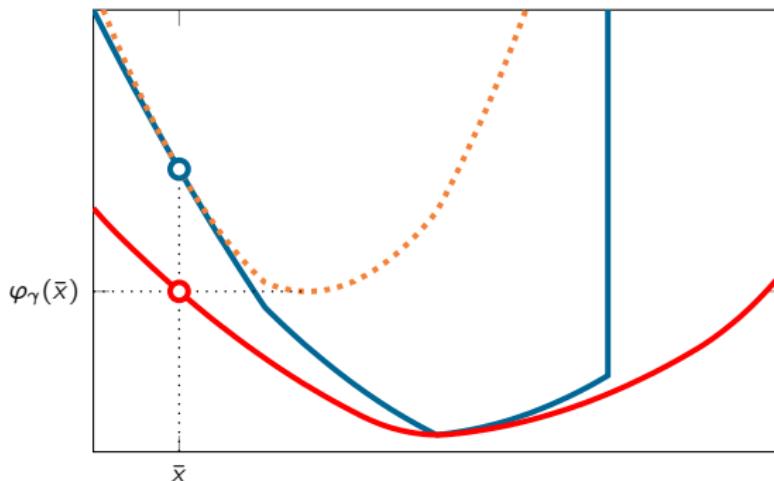
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## Theorem

If  $g$  is convex (results can be extended to  $g$  being nonconvex)

1.  $\varphi_\gamma$  is strictly continuous
2.  $\varphi_\gamma \leq \varphi$  for any  $\gamma > 0$
3.  $\varphi(z) \leq \varphi_\gamma(x) - \frac{1-\gamma L}{2\gamma} \|x - z\|^2$  where  $z = \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x - \gamma \nabla f(x))$
4.  $\varphi_\gamma(x) = \varphi(x)$  for any stationary point  $x$
5.  $\inf \varphi_\gamma = \inf \varphi$  and  $\operatorname{argmin} \varphi_\gamma = \operatorname{argmin} \varphi$  for  $\gamma \in (0, L^{-1})$

- 1. implies that  $\varphi_\gamma$  is everywhere finite
- if  $\gamma < L^{-1}$ , 2. and 3. imply that  $z$  (strictly) decreases  $\varphi_\gamma$
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# Proximal averaged Newton-type method (PANOC)

$$z^k = \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))$$

$$d^k = B_k(z^k - x^k) \quad B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \text{ nonsingular}$$

$$x^{k+1} = (1 - \tau_k)z^k + \tau_k(x^k + d^k) \quad \tau_k \in (0, 1]$$

---

From the theorem:  $\varphi_\gamma$  continuous and

$$\varphi_\gamma(z^k) \leq \varphi_\gamma(x^k) - \frac{1-\gamma L}{2\gamma} \|x^k - z^k\|^2$$

**Therefore:**  $\tau_k \in (0, 1]$  exists such that

$$\varphi_\gamma(x^{k+1}) \leq \varphi_\gamma(x^k) - \alpha \frac{1-\gamma L}{2\gamma} \|x^k - z^k\|^2 \quad \alpha \in (0, 1)$$

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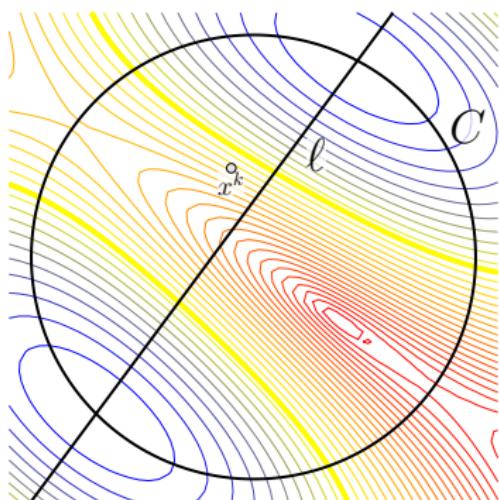
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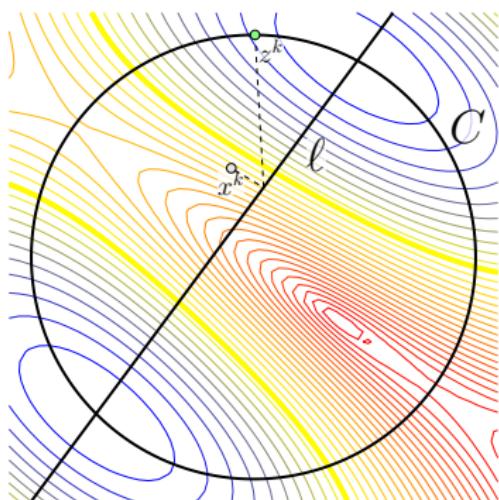
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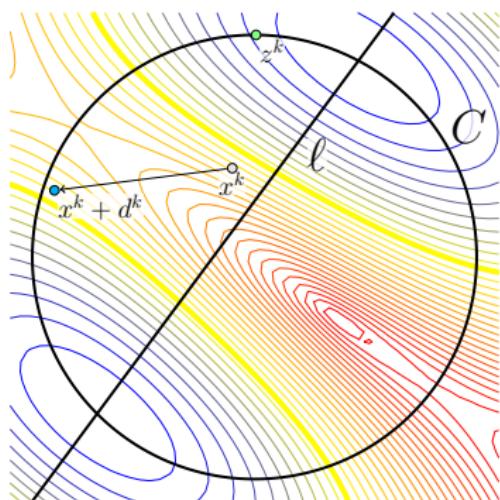
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$B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  nonsingular

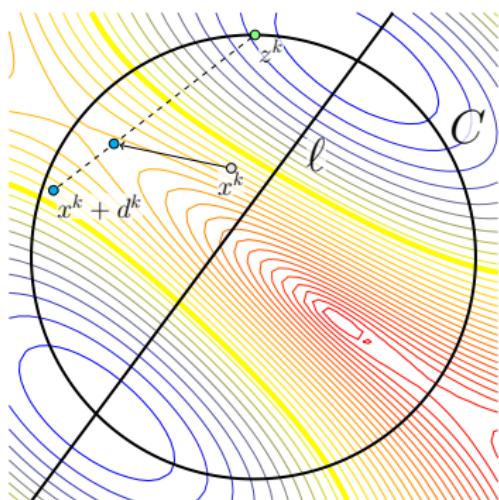
$\tau_k \in (0, 1]$

---

**minimize**  $f(x) + g(x)$

$$f = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{dist}^2(\cdot, \ell)$$

$$g = \delta_C$$



# Proximal averaged Newton-type method (PANOC)

$$z^k = \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))$$

$$d^k = B_k(z^k - x^k)$$

$$x^{k+1} = (1 - \tau_k)z^k + \tau_k(x^k + d^k)$$

$B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  nonsingular

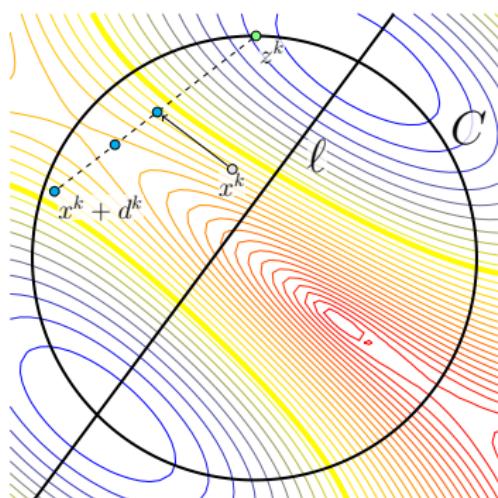
$\tau_k \in (0, 1]$

---

**minimize**  $f(x) + g(x)$

$$f = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{dist}^2(\cdot, \ell)$$

$$g = \delta_C$$



# Proximal averaged Newton-type method (PANOC)

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$B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  nonsingular

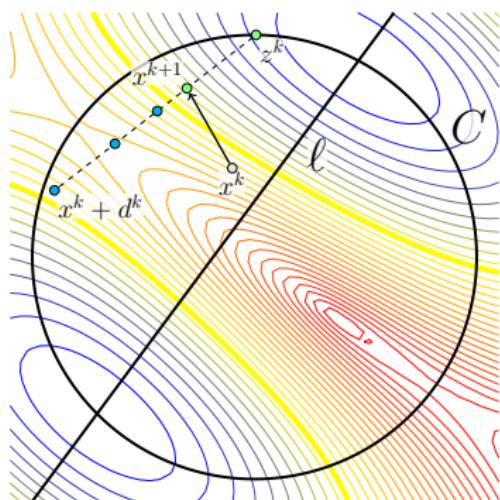
$\tau_k \in (0, 1]$

---

**minimize**  $f(x) + g(x)$

$$f = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{dist}^2(\cdot, \ell)$$

$$g = \delta_C$$



# Proximal averaged Newton-type method (PANOC)

$$z^k = \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))$$

$$d^k = B_k(z^k - x^k) \quad B_k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \text{ nonsingular}$$

$$x^{k+1} = (1 - \tau_k)z^k + \tau_k(x^k + d^k) \quad \tau_k \in (0, 1]$$

---

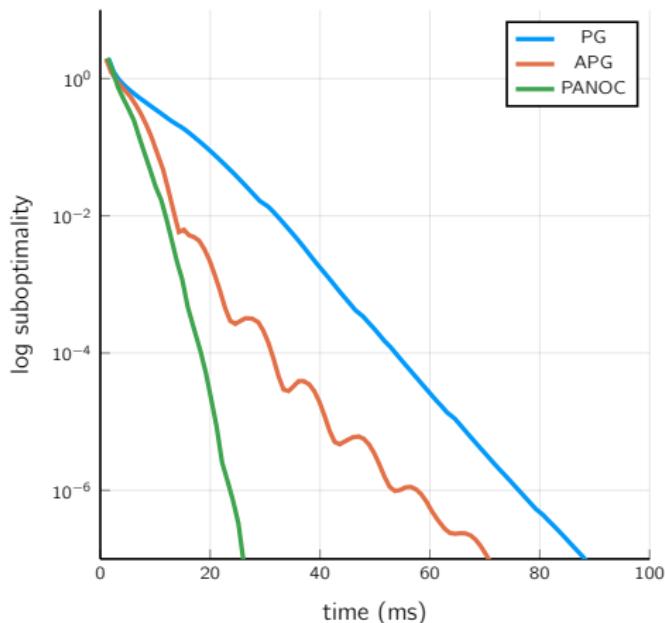
How to choose  $B_k$ ? Quasi-Newton: start with nonsingular  $B_0$ , update it s.t.

$$B_k y^k = s^k \quad (\text{inverse secant condition}) \quad \begin{cases} s^k = x^k - x^{k-1} \\ y^k = R(x^k) - R(x^{k-1}) \end{cases}$$

- (Modified) Broyden method yields superlinear convergence
- Limited-memory BFGS: works well in practice, **no need to store  $B^k$**
- Products with  $B^k$  computed in  $O(n)$  using inner products only

## Example: lasso (or basis pursuit)

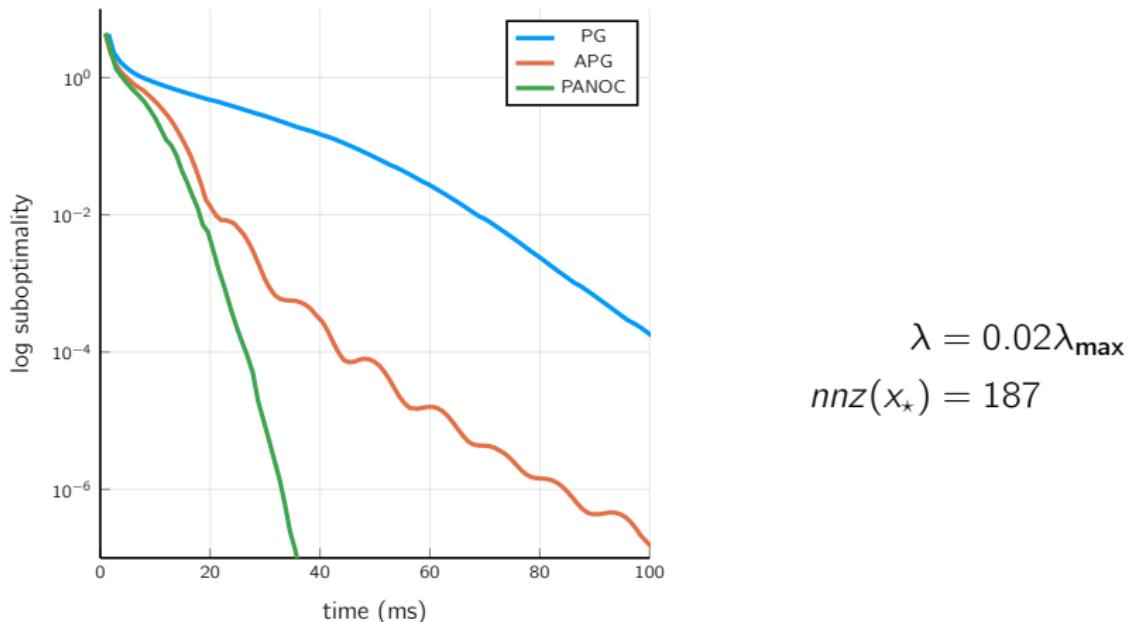
$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1 \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{1000 \times 2500}$$



$$\lambda = 0.05\lambda_{\max}$$
$$nnz(x_*) = 90$$

## Example: lasso (or basis pursuit)

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1 \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{1000 \times 2500}$$

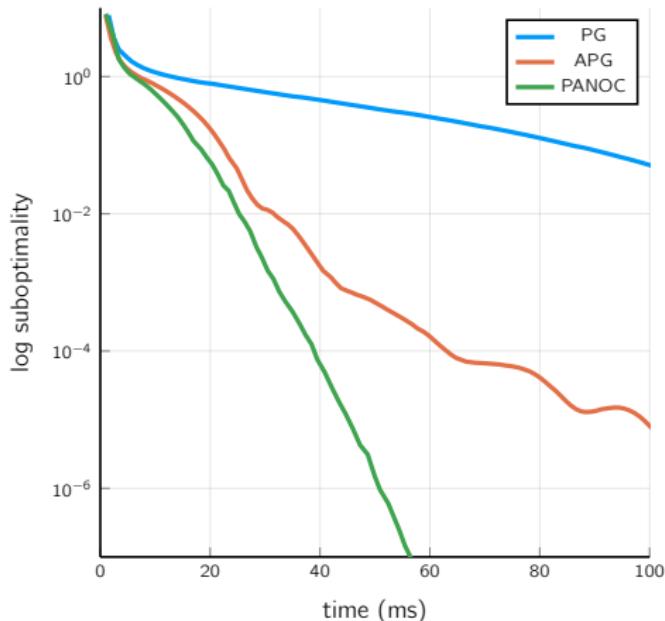


$$\lambda = 0.02\lambda_{\max}$$

$$nnz(x_*) = 187$$

## Example: lasso (or basis pursuit)

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1 \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{1000 \times 2500}$$



$$\lambda = 0.01\lambda_{\max}$$
$$nnz(x_*) = 404$$

# Outline

1. Preliminary concepts, composite optimization, proximal mappings
2. Proximal gradient method
3. Duality
4. Accelerated proximal gradient
5. Newton-type proximal gradient methods
6. Concluding remarks

# Concluding remarks

## Proximal gradient (PG) method:

- Extends classical gradient descent to composite problems
- Convergence rate guarantees in the convex case
- Convergence to local minima in the nonconvex case (under assumptions)
- Accelerated variants greatly improve convergence (and makes it practical)

## Newton-type PG:

- Variable metric PG exist, which require solving inner subproblem in general
- PANOC: Newton-type method for the composite optimality conditions
- **Same oracle** as PG:  $\nabla f$  and  $\text{prox}_{\gamma g}$
- **Same global convergence** as PG
- Much faster local convergence using e.g. L-BFGS directions

# References

## Theory books:

- Bertsekas, "Convex Optimization Theory", 2009
- Rockafellar, Wets, "Variational Analysis", 2009
- Bauschke, Combettes, "Convex Analysis and Monotone Operator Theory in Hilbert Spaces", 2017

## Algorithms books:

- Bertsekas, "Convex Optimization Algorithms", 2015
- Beck, "First-Order Methods in Optimization", 2017

## (Accelerated) proximal gradient method:

- Beck, Teboulle, "A Fast Iterative Shrinkage-Thresholding Algorithm for Linear Inverse Problems", 2009
- Attouch et al, "Convergence of descent methods for semi-algebraic and tame problems: ...", 2011
- Nesterov, "Gradient methods for minimizing composite functions", 2013
- Li, Lin, "Accelerated Proximal Gradient Methods for Nonconvex Programming", 2015

## Newton-type proximal gradient methods:

- Becker, Fadili, "A quasi-Newton proximal splitting method", 2012
- Lee et al, "Proximal Newton-Type Methods for Minimizing Composite Functions", 2014
- Chouzenoux et al, "Variable Metric Forward-Backward Algorithm for Minimizing the Sum of a Differentiable Function and a Convex Function", 2014
- Frankel et al, "Splitting Methods with Variable Metric for Kurdyka-Łojasiewicz Functions and General Convergence Rates", 2015
- Themelis et al, "Forward-backward envelope for the sum of two nonconvex functions: ...", 2016
- Stella et al, "A Simple and Efficient Algorithm for Nonlinear Model Predictive Control", 2017
- Stella et al, "Newton-type Alternating Minimization Algorithm for Convex Optimization", 2018

# **Proximal Gradient Algorithms: Applications in Signal Processing**

## **Part III**

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**EUSIPCO 2019**

IDIAP Research Institute

# **StructuredOptimization.jl**

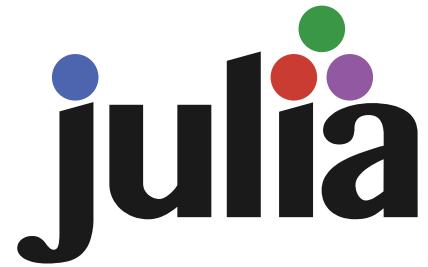
Niccolò Antonello (Idiap Research Institute)



# Outline

- Introduction to Julia
- StructuredOptimization.jl
  - AbstractOperators.jl
  - ProximalOperators.jl
  - ProximalAlgorithms.jl
- Demos

Introduction to



# The Julia language

- General-purpose programming language
- Designed specifically for *scientific computing*
- Young language
  - Born in 2012
  - 1.0 stable release Summer 2018

# The Julia language features

- Dynamic language (Like Python, MATLAB)
- Interoperability
  - Easily call other languages (C, Fortran)
- Designed to be *fast*
  - Approaches C, faster than Python
- Open Source

- Syntax very close to MATLAB

```
In [118]: # solving a random linear system of equations (y = A*x)
A = randn(3,3)
x = randn(3)      # just a vector
y = A\x
```

```
Out[118]: 3-element Array{Float64,1}:
 2.0664785413005244
 -3.0015294370755936
 -1.5437559125502291
```

- ...but often very close to Python

```
In [119]: a,b = (1,2) # Tuples
```

```
Out[119]: (1, 2)
```

```
In [120]: [i+j for i = 1:3, j =1:3] # Comprehensions
```

```
Out[120]: 3×3 Array{Int64,2}:
 2  3  4
 3  4  5
 4  5  6
```

- Ahead-of-time compilation

```
In [121]: function foo(x)
            return sum(x)
end
x = randn(1000)
# first time you run a function code is compiled
@time foo(x)
# second time code is re-used
@time foo(x);

0.024094 seconds (3.84 k allocations: 170.800 KiB)
0.000005 seconds (5 allocations: 176 bytes)
```

# Learning Julia

- Full documentation [docs.julialang.org \(https://docs.julialang.org/en/v1/\)](https://docs.julialang.org/en/v1/).
- Responsive and helpful community in [Discourse \(https://discourse.julialang.org\)](https://discourse.julialang.org).
- Help function

```
In [125]: ?cos # Interactive help through Read-Eval-Print Loop (REPL)
```

```
search: cos cosh cosd cosc Cos cospi cosine acos acoshacosd sincos const close
```

```
Out[125]: cos(x)
```

Compute cosine of  $x$ , where  $x$  is in radians.

---

```
cos(A::AbstractMatrix)
```

Compute the matrix cosine of a square matrix  $A$ .

If  $A$  is symmetric or Hermitian, its eigendecomposition ([eigen \(@ref\)](#)) is used to compute the cosine. Otherwise, the cosine is determined by calling [exp\\_ \(@ref\)](#).

## Examples

```
jldoctest
julia> cos(fill(1.0, (2,2)))
2×2 Array{Float64,2}:
 0.291927  -0.708073
 -0.708073   0.291927
```

---

```
cos(x::AbstractExpression)
```

Cosine function:

$\cos(\mathbf{x})$

See documentation of `AbstractOperator.Cos`.

## Integrated development environment (IDE)

- [Juno](http://junolab.org) (<http://junolab.org>) (Atom extension) ← user friendly IDE
- [Jupyter notebooks](https://jupyter.org) (<https://jupyter.org>) (such as this one) available also online ([juliabox](https://juliabox.com) (<https://juliabox.com>))
- Other editors such as Vim, Spacemacs have dedicated extensions

## Package manager

- Julia has built-in package manager
- Installing packages

```
julia> ] add AbstractOperators
```

# Optimization in Julia

- [JuMP.jl](https://github.com/JuliaOpt/JuMP.jl) (<https://github.com/JuliaOpt/JuMP.jl>).
  - LP, MIP, SOCP, NLP
- [Convex.jl](https://github.com/JuliaOpt/Convex.jl) (<https://github.com/JuliaOpt/Convex.jl>).
  - Convex Optimization (like MATLAB's CVX)
- [Optim.jl](https://github.com/JuliaNLSolvers/Optim.jl) (<https://github.com/JuliaNLSolvers/Optim.jl>).
  - Smooth Nonlinear Programming

# **StructuredOptimization.jl**

- Large scale and nonsmooth problems
- Convex & Nonconvex
- PG algorithms
- Modeling language with mathematical formulation

## **StructuredOptimization.jl: Package ecosystem**

Joins 3 *independent* packages:

- **ProximalOperators.jl**
- **AbstractOperators.jl**
- **ProximalAlgorithms.jl**

# ProximalOperators.jl

## Proximal Operators

$$\mathbf{y} = \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(\mathbf{x}) = \arg \min_{\mathbf{z}} \left\{ g(\mathbf{z}) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{x}\|^2 \right\},$$

where  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ ,  $\gamma > 0$ .

- Generalization of projection
- Often has efficient closed form

## Library of functions with efficient prox

- Indicators of sets
  - Norm balls e.g.  $S = \{x : \sum_i |x_i| \leq r\}$
- Norm and regularization functions
  - Norms e.g.  $\|x\|_1, \|x\|_\infty$
- Penalties and other functions
  - Least squares, Huber loss, Logistic loss

## Example: $\ell_1$ -norm

```
In [126]: using ProximalOperators # load a package
lambda = 3.5      # regularization parameter
f = NormL1(lambda) # one can create the L1-norm as follows
```

```
Out[126]: description : weighted L1 norm
domain      : AbstractArray{Real}, AbstractArray{Complex}
expression   : x ↦ λ||x||_1
parameters   : λ = 3.5
```

```
In [128]: # `prox` evaluates proximal operator at `x`
# optional positive stepsize `gamma`
gamma = 0.5
x = randn(10)
y, fy = prox(f, x, gamma)
# returning proximal point y and the value of the f(y)
```

```
Out[128]: ([0.0, 0.0, 0.0, -0.00310438, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0], 0.010865314173881
369)
```

```
In [129]: # `prox!` evaluates the proximal operator in-place
# (Note: by convention func. with ! are in-place)

y = similar(x); # pre-allocate y
fy = prox!(y, f, x, gamma)
```

```
Out[129]: 0.010865314173881369
```

## **ProximalOperators.jl calculus rules**

Modify & combine functions

- Convex conjugate
- Functions combinations (Separable sum)
- Function regularization (Moreau Envelope)
- Pre and post composition

## Example: Precomposition

Construct a least squares function with diagonal matrix:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{D}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

```
In [130]: d, y = randn(10), randn(10);
```

```
In [131]: f_ls = SqrNormL2() # smooth function
```

```
Out[131]: description : weighted squared Euclidean norm
domain      : AbstractArray{Real}, AbstractArray{Complex}
expression   : x → (λ/2)||x||^2
parameters   : λ = 1.0
```

```
In [132]: f = PrecomposeDiagonal(f_ls, d, y)
```

```
Out[132]: description : Precomposition by affine diagonal mapping of weighted squared Eu
clidean norm
domain      : AbstractArray{Real}, AbstractArray{Complex}
expression   : x → f(diag(a)*x + b)
parameters   : f(x) = x → (λ/2)||x||^2, a = Array{Float64,1}, b = Array{Float6
4,1}
```

```
In [133]: x = randn(10)
y, fy = prox(f,x)
```

```
Out[133]: ([1.73048, -0.384114, 0.298391, 0.885389, -0.567672, -0.166953, -0.103638, -0.
368458, -0.240603, 0.396272], 2.1379379614662475)
```

```
In [134]: gradfx, fx = gradient(f,x)
```

```
Out[134]: ([-0.0572666, 2.11036, 2.10945, 0.358283, -1.87252, 0.0232842, 0.177813, -1.00
873, 1.43095, -0.21392], 5.933046424575226)
```

# AbstractOperators

**AbstractOperators.jl** extends syntax typically used for matrices to mappings.

```
In [135]: using AbstractOperators  
A = DCT(3,4) # create a 2-D Discrete Cosine Transform operator
```

```
Out[135]: ℱc  ℝ^(3, 4) -> ℝ^(3, 4)
```

```
In [136]: x = randn(3,4) # notice that x is not restricted to a vector!  
y = A*x           # apply the linear operator
```

```
Out[136]: 3×4 Array{Float64,2}:  
 0.383866  -1.40719   -0.727502  -0.452948  
 -0.468083   0.740363  -0.237086  -0.49221  
  0.492823  -1.47733   0.313025  -2.24597
```

## **Fast (Matrix free) operators library**

- **Basic operators** (Eye, DiagOp)
- DSP
  - Transformations (e.g DFT, DCT)
  - Filtering (e.g Conv, Xcorr)
- **Nonlinear functions** (Cos, Sin)

## Matrix free?

Use fast operators, avoid building matrices.

```
In [138]: # Fourier transform
N = 2^9
x = randn(Complex{Float64},N)
A = [exp(-im*2*pi*k*n/(N)) for k =0:N-1, n=0:N-1]; #Fourier Matrix
```

```
In [139]: A_mf = DFT(Complex{Float64},(2^9,)) # (matrix free)
```

```
Out[139]: ℐ ℂ^512 -> ℂ^512
```

In [140]:

```
# not good for memory
println("Size Fourier Matrix:    ", sizeof(A))
println("Size Abstract Operator: ", sizeof(A_mf))
```

```
Size Fourier Matrix:    4194304
Size Abstract Operator: 24
```

In [141]:

```
# ...and neither for speed!
print("Fourier Matrix:")
@time A*x
print("Abstract Operators:")
@time A_mf*x;
```

```
Fourier Matrix: 0.000896 seconds (5 allocations: 8.281 KiB)
Abstract Operators: 0.000017 seconds (5 allocations: 8.281 KiB)
```

## **AbstractOperators.jl calculus rules**

- Concatenation HCAT, VCAT, DCAT
- Composition
  - Linear and Nonlinear
- Transformations
  - Scale, Affine addition
  - Adjoint and Jacobian

## Automatic differentiation

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \tilde{f}(AB\mathbf{x}),$$

where  $A$  and  $B$  linear operators

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = B^* A^* \nabla \tilde{f}(AB\mathbf{x})$$

$A^*$  and  $B^*$  adjoint operators with fast transformation

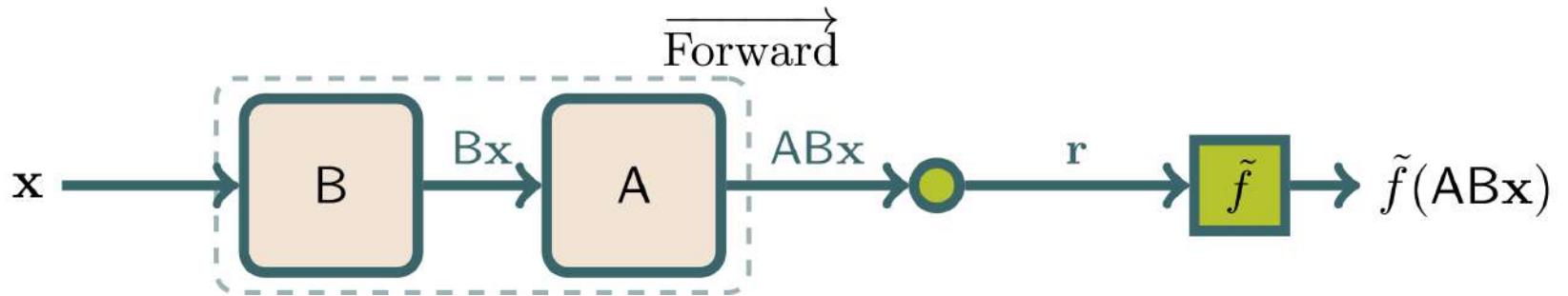
```
In [143]: # define operators
B = IDCT(5)           # inverse DCT transform
A = FiniteDiff((5,))  # finite difference operator
B, A
```

```
Out[143]: ( $\mathcal{F}^{-1}$ :  $\mathbb{R}^5 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^5$ ,  $\delta x$ :  $\mathbb{R}^5 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ )
```

```
In [144]: C = A*B # can combine operators
```

```
Out[144]:  $\delta x * \mathcal{F}^{-1}$ :  $\mathbb{R}^5 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4$ 
```

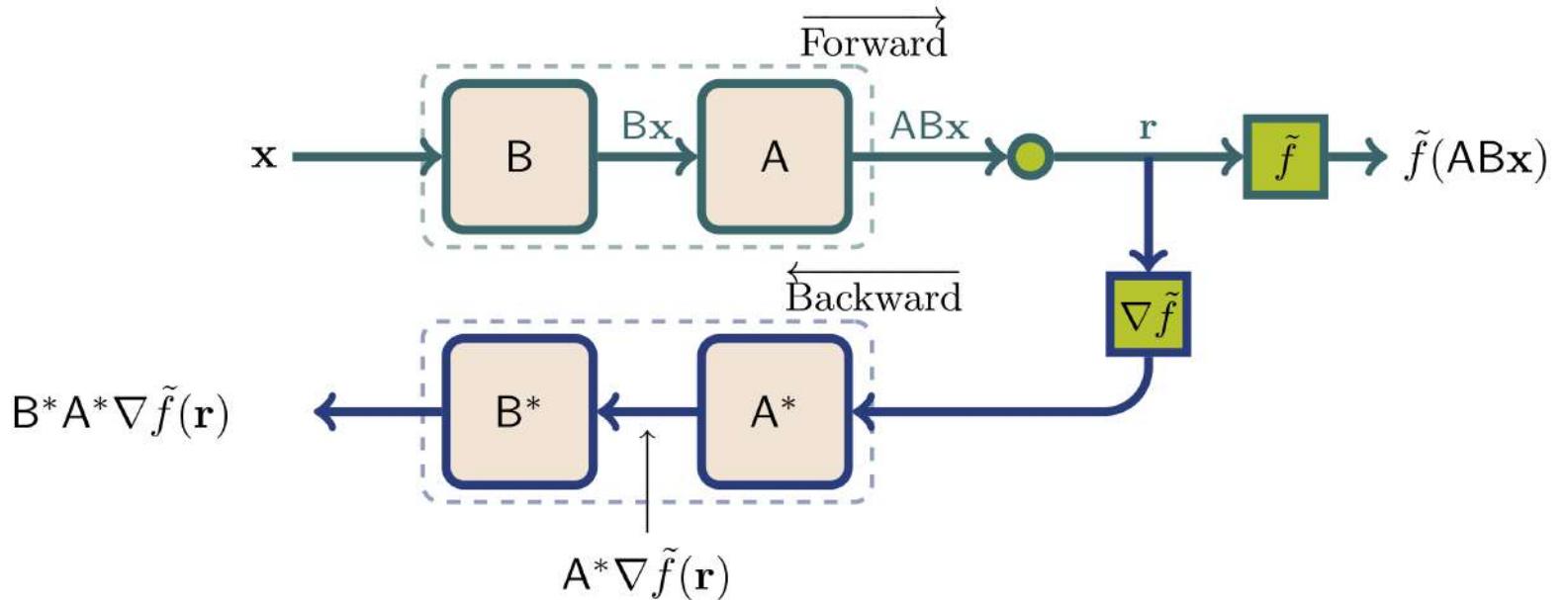
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \tilde{f}(A\mathbf{B}\mathbf{x})$$



```
In [145]: x = randn(5)          # random point
          r = C*x            # r = A*B*x (Forward pass)
          f_t = SqrNormL2()    # least squares cost function
          f = f_t(r)           # evaluate f(x) = g(A*B*x)
```

Out[145]: 4.5266875469669605

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = B^* A^* \nabla \tilde{f}(AB\mathbf{x})$$



```
In [146]: vft, ft_tx = gradient(f_t,r)
vft = C'*vft; # get gradient: adjoint operator C' (Backpropagation)
```

```
In [147]: # gradient using finite differences
using LinearAlgebra
x_eps = zero(x)
∇f_FD = zero(x)
for i = 1:length(x_eps)
    x_eps .= 0
    x_eps[i] = sqrt(eps())
    ∇f_FD[i] = (f_t(C*(x.+x_eps))-f)./sqrt(eps())
end
norm( ∇f_FD - ∇f ) # testing gradient using
```

```
Out[147]: 2.067756216756867e-7
```

# **ProximalAlgorithms.jl**

*Proximal algorithms* for nonsmooth optimization in Julia.

- (Accelerated) **Proximal Gradient** (aka Forward-backward)
- **PANOC**

Many others:

- Asymmetric forward-backward-adjoint algorithm (AFBA)
- Chambolle-Pock primal dual algorithm
- Davis-Yin splitting algorithm
- Douglas-Rachford splitting algorithm
- Vũ-Condat primal-dual algorithm

PANOC , ZeroFPR , ForwardBackward

Solve problem:

$$\operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x}} f(A\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x})$$

- $f$  smooth function
- $A$  linear operator
- $g$  nonsmooth function

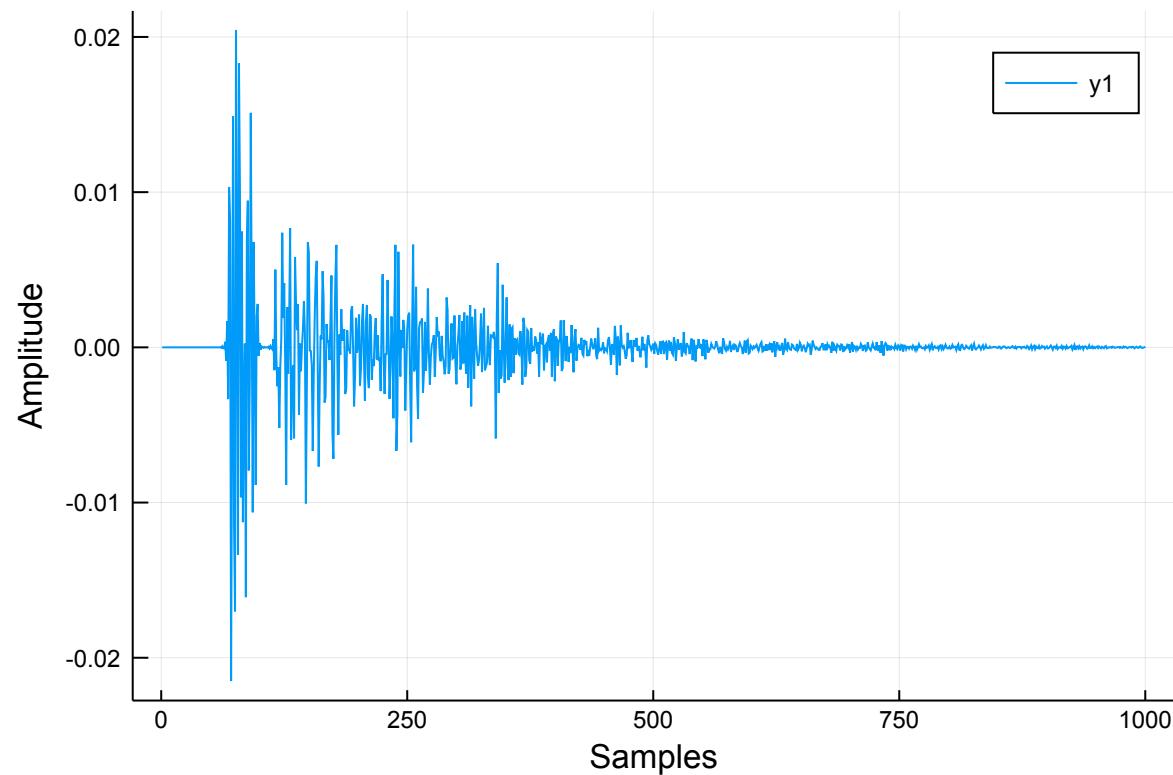
## Example: sparse deconvolution

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{h} * \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|_1$$

- $\mathbf{h}$  impulse response (FIR)
- $\mathbf{y}$  noisy measurement
- $\mathbf{x}$  unkown source clean signal (sparse)

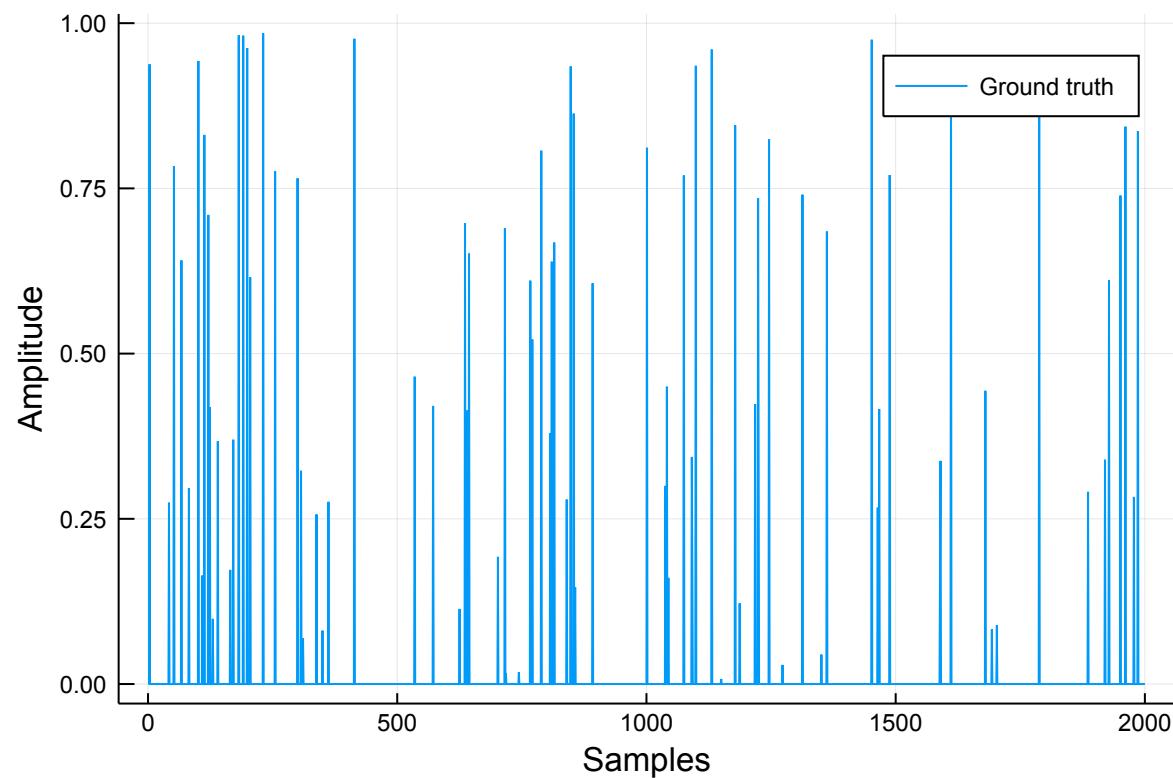
```
In [148]: using DelimitedFiles, Plots  
h = readdlm("data/h.txt")[:] #load impulse response  
plot(h; xlabel="Samples", ylabel="Amplitude")
```

Out[148]:



```
In [149]: using SparseArrays, Random; Random.seed!(123)
x_gt = Array(sprand(2000,0.05))      # random sparse vector
plot(x_gt; xlabel="Samples", ylabel="Amplitude", label="Ground truth")
```

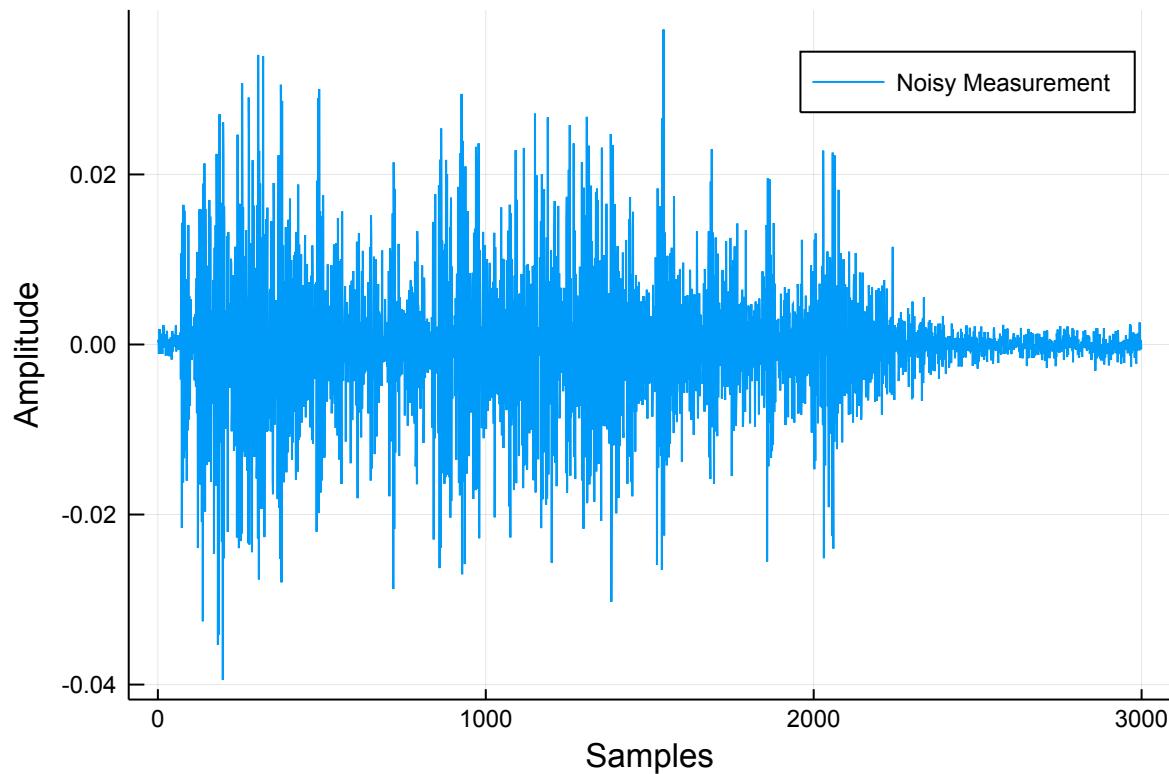
Out[149]:



In [150]:

```
using DSP  
y = conv(h,x_gt) + 1e-3 .* randn(length(h)+length(x_gt)-1)  
plot(y; xlabel="Samples", ylabel="Amplitude", label="Noisy Measurement")
```

Out[150]:



Construct  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{h} * \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$  and  $g(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|_1$

```
In [151]: using AbstractOperators  
linop = Conv(size(x_gt), h) # convolution operator
```

```
Out[151]: ★ R^2000 -> R^2999
```

```
In [152]: using ProximalOperators  
smooth = PrecomposeDiagonal( SqrNormL2(), 1.0, -y )  
nonsmooth = NormL1(1e-3);
```

## Create PANOC solver

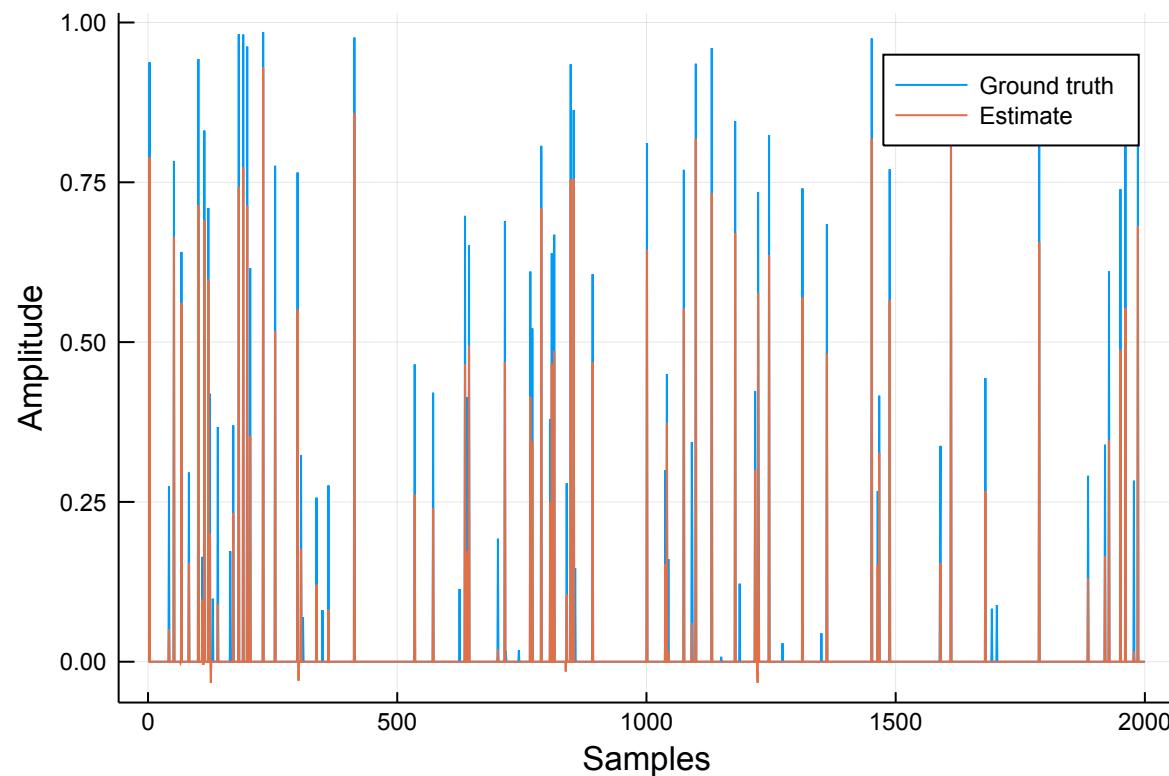
```
In [153]: using ProximalAlgorithms: PANOC  
solver = PANOC(verbose=true); # set options
```

```
In [154]: x0 = zeros(length(x_gt)) # initial estimate  
println(" it | γ | res | τ ")  
x0, its = solver(x0; f=smooth, A=linop, g=nonsmooth);
```

it	γ	res	τ
10	2.200e+01	7.836e-04	1.000e+00
20	2.200e+01	1.418e-04	1.000e+00
30	2.200e+01	1.363e-06	1.000e+00
40	2.200e+01	8.510e-08	1.000e+00
47	2.200e+01	6.195e-09	1.000e+00

```
In [155]: plot(x_gt; xlabel="Samples", ylabel="Amplitude", label="Ground truth")
plot!(x0, label="Estimate")
```

Out[155]:



**StructuredOptimization.jl**

Structured optimization problem:

$$\underset{\mathbf{x}}{\text{minimize}} f_1(A_1 \mathbf{x}) + f_2(A_2 \mathbf{x}) + \cdots + f_N(A_N \mathbf{x})$$

- Cost function composed of different terms
- $f_i$  loss functions
- $A_i$  linear operators
- Constraints: indicator functions

Structured optimization problem:

$$\underset{\mathbf{x}}{\text{minimize}} f_1(A_1 \mathbf{x}) + f_2(A_2 \mathbf{x}) + \cdots + f_N(A_N \mathbf{x})$$

StructuredOptimization.jl converts it to the PG general problem:

$$\underset{\mathbf{x}}{\text{minimize}} f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x})$$

- $f$  smooth (differentiable)
  - **automatic differentiation** → AbstractOperators.jl
- $g$  nonsmooth (including constraints)
  - **efficient proximal mappings** → ProximalOperators.jl

## Example: Sparse Deconvolution

$$\mathbf{x}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{h} * \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|_1$$

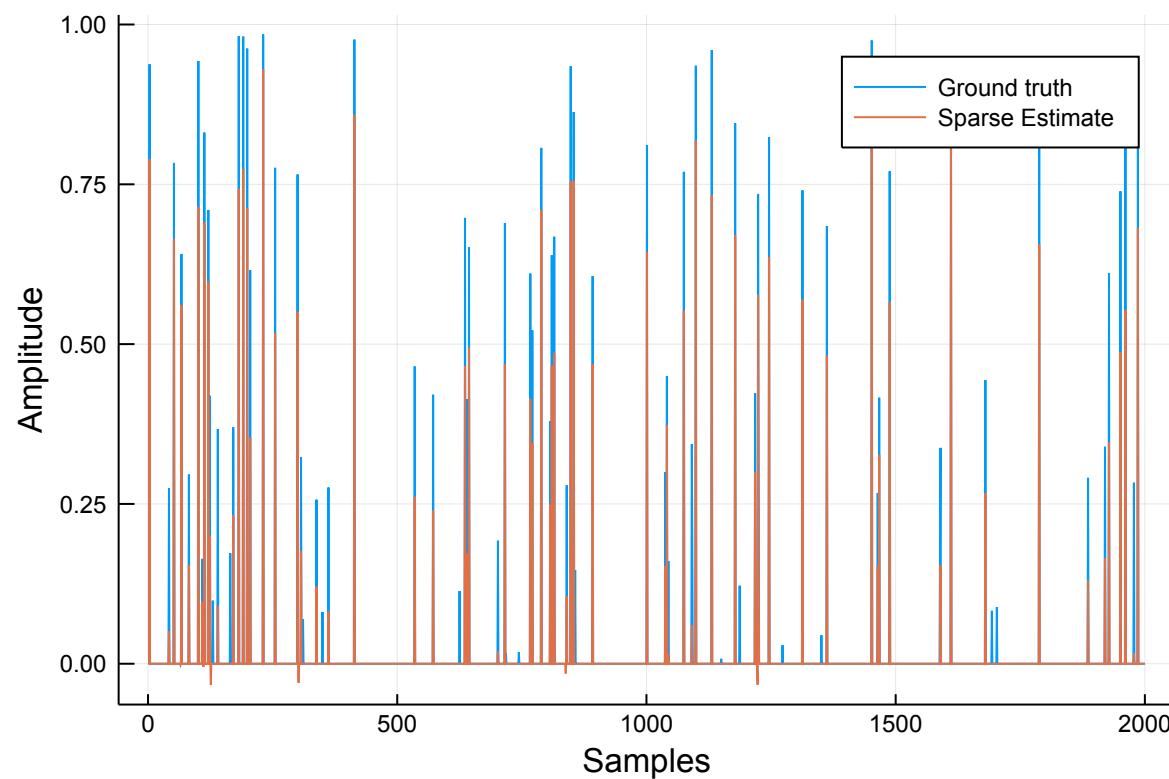
```
In [156]: using StructuredOptimization  
x = Variable(length(x_gt)) # define optimization variable
```

```
Out[156]: Variable(Float64, (2000,))
```

```
In [157]: # (ls short hand for 0.5*norm(...)^2 )  
@minimize ls( conv(x,h) - y ) + 1e-3*norm(x, 1); # solve problem
```

```
In [158]: plot(x_gt; xlabel="Samples", ylabel="Amplitude", label="Ground truth")
plot!(~x, label="Sparse Estimate")
# ~x to access the solution
```

Out[158]:



## Matrix free optimization

```
In [159]: ~x .= 0  
_, its = @time @minimize ls( conv(x,h) - y ) + 1e-3*norm(x, 1)  
x_mf = copy(~x);
```

```
0.185090 seconds (17.13 k allocations: 6.785 MiB, 6.34% gc time)
```

```
In [160]: ~x .= 0; Nx = length(x_gt)  
H = hcat([[zeros(i);h;zeros(Nx-1-i)] for i = 0:Nx-1]...)  
_, its_mf = @time @minimize ls( H*x - y ) + 1e-3*norm(x, 1);  
its_mf == its
```

```
0.342836 seconds (17.44 k allocations: 6.720 MiB)
```

```
Out[160]: true
```

### Example: constraint optimization

Refine the LASSO solution using:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\mathbf{z}}{\text{minimize}} \frac{1}{2} \|(\mathbf{E}\mathbf{z}) * \mathbf{h} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 \\ & \text{subject to } \mathbf{z} \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

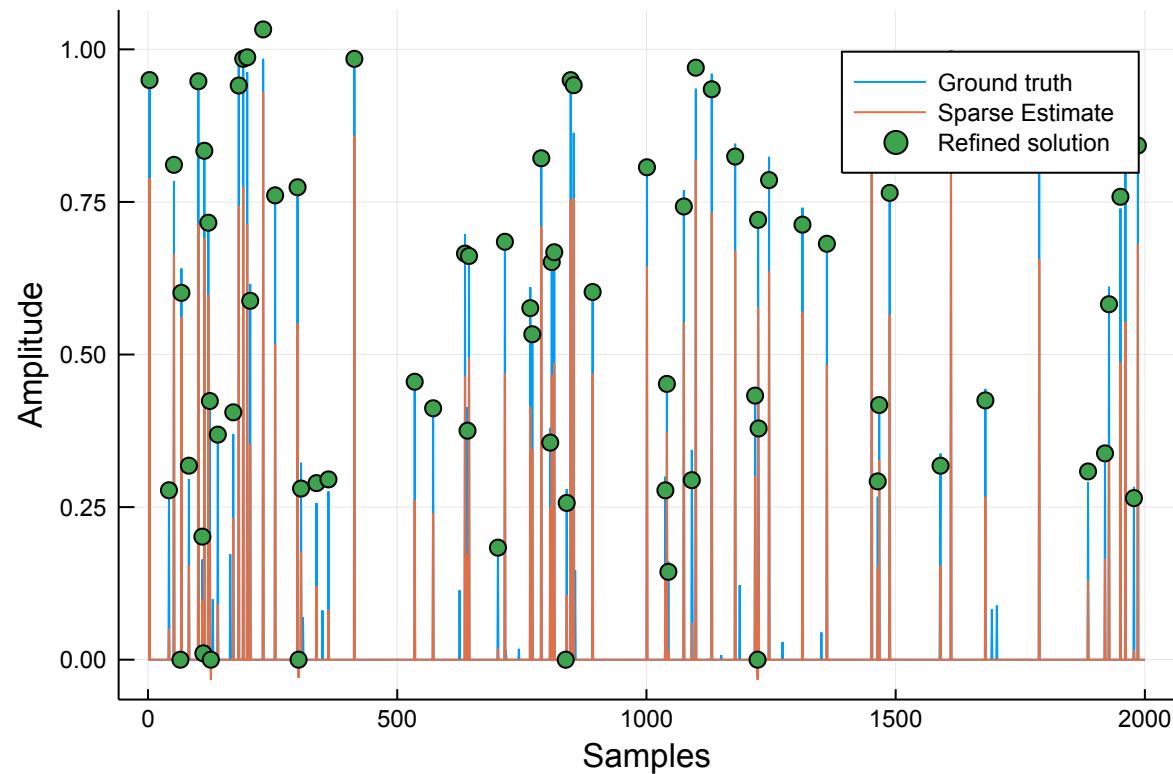
- $\mathbf{z}$  is a vector of length  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_0$
- $\mathbf{E}$  is a matrix that expands  $\mathbf{z}$  to the support of  $\mathbf{x}^*$

```
In [162]: using LinearAlgebra
idx = findall(.!((~x) .≈ 0.0))      # indices nonzero elements
E = Diagonal(ones(length(~x)))[ :, idx] # create expansion matrix

z = Variable((~x)[idx]) # initialize var. with nonzero elements
@minimize ls( conv(E*z,h) - y ) st z >= 0.0; # solve problem
```

```
In [163]: plot(x_gt; xlabel="Samples", ylabel="Amplitude", label="Ground truth")
plot!(~x, label="Sparse Estimate")
scatter!(idx, ~z, label="Refined solution" )
```

Out[163]:



## Limitations

- Only PG algorithms supported
- $g$  must be **efficiently computable proximal mappings**

Nonsmooth function  $g(B\mathbf{x})$  must satisfy:

1.  $B$  is a **tight frame**

- $BB^* = \mu I$ , where  $\mu \geq 0$

2.  $g$  is a *separable sum*:  $g(B\mathbf{x}) = \sum_j h_j(C_j \mathbf{x}_j)$

- $\mathbf{x}_j$  non-overlapping slices of  $\mathbf{x}$

- $C_j$  tight frames

```
In [164]: n = 10
A,b = randn(2*n,n),randn(2*n)
x = Variable(n)
@minimize ls(A*x-b)+norm(dct(x),1);
# nonsmooth fun composed with orthogonal operator (rule 1)
```

```
In [165]: #@minimize ls(A*x-b)+norm(A*x,1)
# rule 1 not satisfied!
```

```
In [166]: #@minimize ls( A*x - b ) + maximum(x) st x >= 2.0
# rule 2 not satisfied!
```

```
In [167]: @minimize ls( A*x - b ) + maximum(x[1:5]) st x[6:10] >= 2.0;
# accepted: optimization variables partitioned in nonoverlapping groups
```

## Demos

- Line Spectral estimation
- Video background removal
- Audio Declipping

# **Line Spectral Estimation**

## **Goal:**

- recover frequencies & amplitudes of signal  $\mathbf{y}$

## **Assumption:**

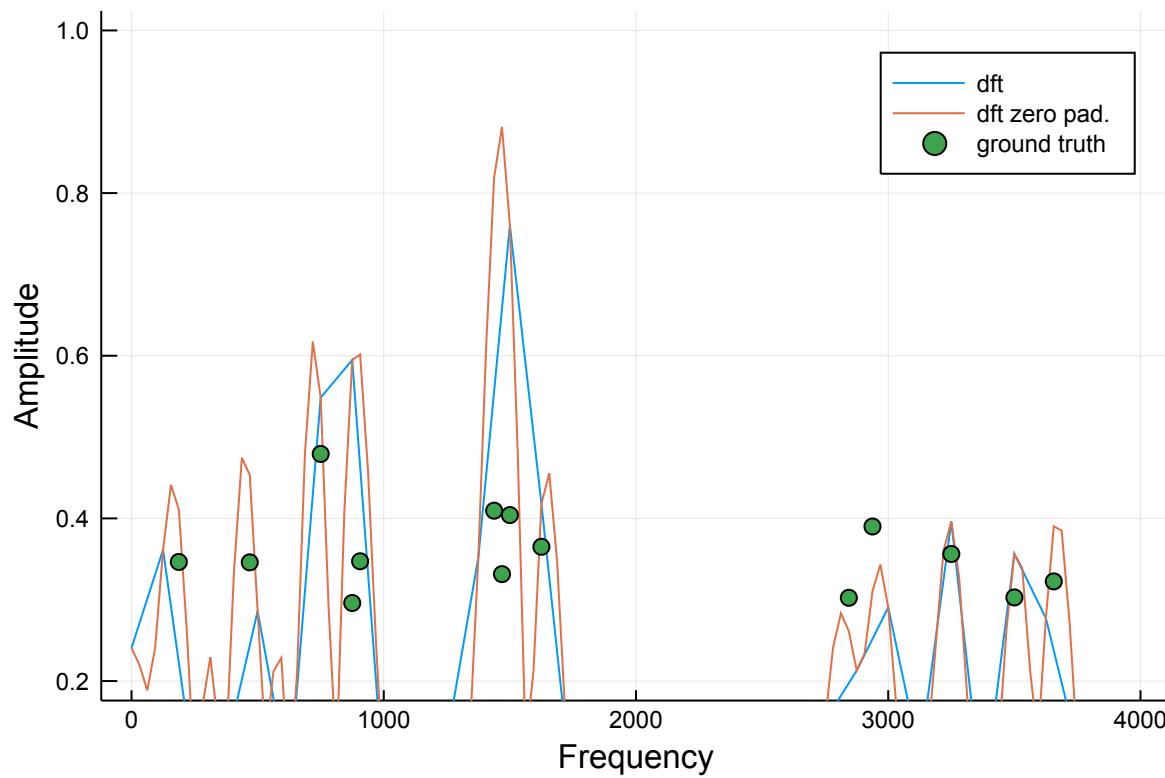
- $\mathbf{y}$  sparse mixture of  $N$  sinusoids.

Simple solutions:

- DFT
- zero-padded DFT of  $\mathbf{y}$  with  $s$  super-resolution factor.

```
In [18]: plot(f, abs.(fft(y)./Nt )[1:div(Nt,2)+1]; label = "dft")
plot!(f_s, abs.(xzp./Nt )[1:div(s*Nt,2)+1]; label = "dft zero pad.", ylim=[0.2;1]
], xlim=[0;4e3], xlabel="Frequency", ylabel="Amplitude")
scatter!(fk, abs.(A) ./2; label = "ground truth")
```

Out[18]:



## **Spectral leakage:**

- frequencies merge
- amplitude not estimated correctly

**Lasso formulation:**

$$\mathbf{x}_1^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|S F^{-1} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|_1,$$

- $F^{-1}$ : Inverse Fourier transform
- $S$ : selection mapping takes first  $N_t$  samples

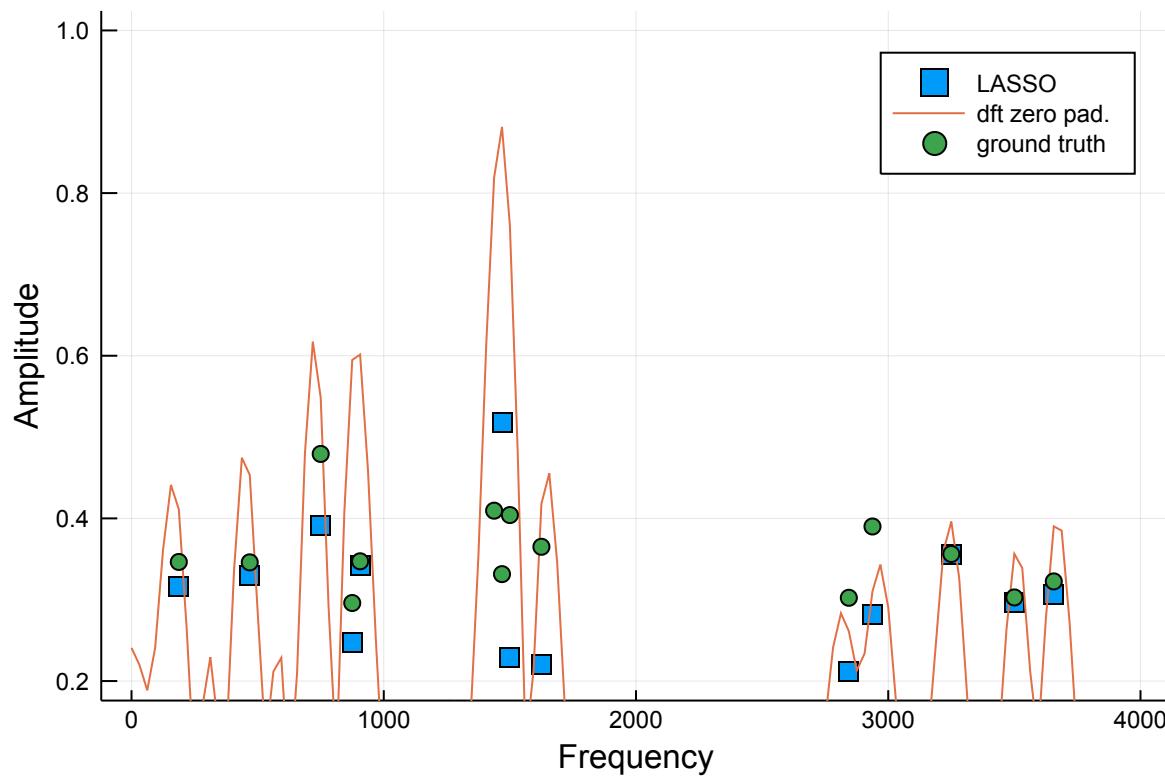
```
In [19]: using StructuredOptimization

x = Variable(Complex{Float64}, s*Nt) # define complex-valued variable
lambda = 1e-3*norm(xzp./(s*Nt),Inf) # set lambda

@minimize ls(ifft(x)[1:Nt]-complex(y))+lambda*norm(x,1) with PANOC(tol = 1e-8)
x1 = copy(~x); # copy solution
```

```
In [20]: scatter(f_s, abs.(x1[1:div(s*Nt,2)+1]./(s*Nt) ); label = "LASSO", m=:square)
plot!(f_s, abs.(xzp./Nt )[1:div(s*Nt,2)+1]; label = "dft zero pad.", ylim=[0.2;1]
], xlim=[0;4e3], xlabel="Frequency", ylabel="Amplitude")
scatter!(fk, abs.(A) ./2; label = "ground truth", ylim=[0.2;1], xlim=[0;4e3])
```

Out[20]:



### *Lasso results*

- $\mathbf{x}_1^*$  estimates improve!
- Amplitude usually underestimated

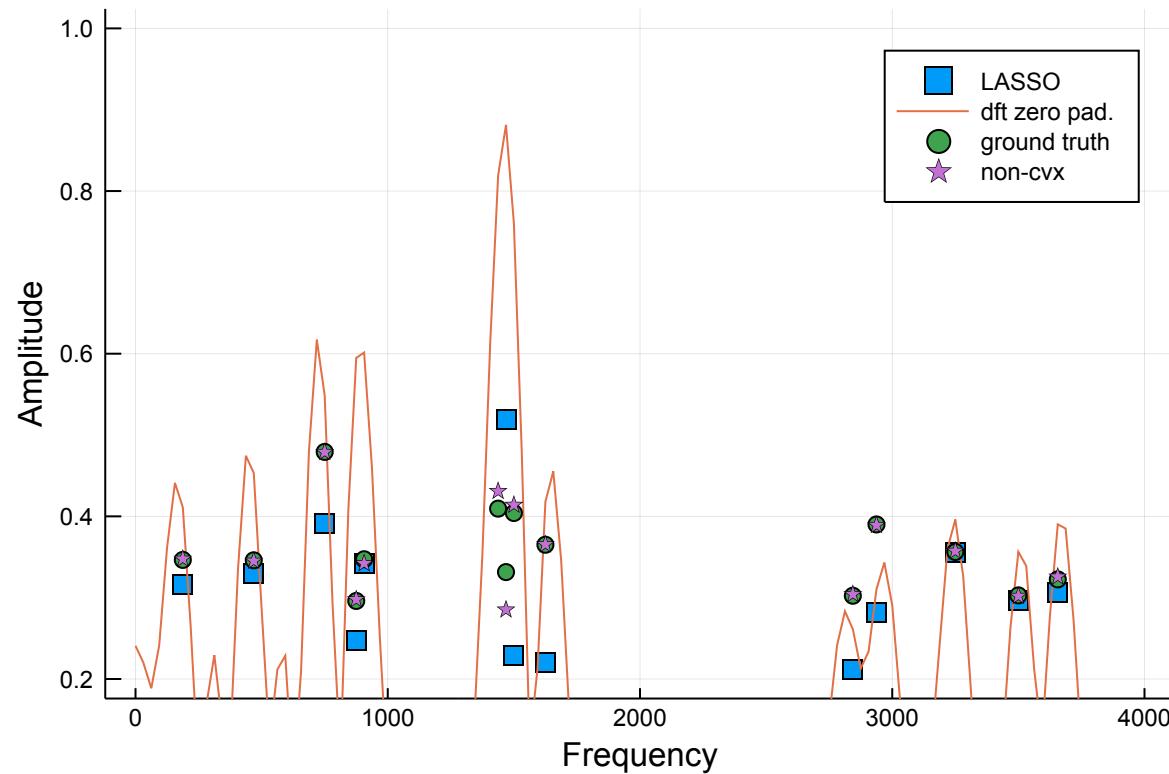
### *Non-convex problem*

$$\mathbf{x}_0^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \|SF^{-1}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 \text{ s.t. } \|\mathbf{x}\|_0 \leq 2N.$$

```
In [22]: # notice that following problem is warm-started by previous solution
@minimize ls(ifft(x)[1:Nt]-complex(y)) st norm(x,0) <= 2*N  with PANOC(tol = 1e-8)
);
x0 = copy(~x);
```

```
In [23]: scatter!(f_s, abs.(x0[1:div(s*Nt,2)+1]./(s*Nt) ); label = "non-cvx", m=:star)
```

Out[23]:



**Demo: Video Background removal**

## **Video**

- Static background
- Moving foreground

## **Goal**

- Separate foreground from static background

```
In [5]: using Images  
include("utils/load_video.jl")  
n, m, l = size(Y)  
Gray.([Y[:, :, 1] Y[:, :, 2] Y[:, :, 3]])
```

Out[5]:



## Low rank approximation

$$\underset{\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S}}{\text{minimize}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{S} - \mathbf{Y}\|^2 + \lambda \|\text{vec}(\mathbf{S})\|_1$$

subject to  $\text{rank}(\mathbf{L}) \leq 1$

- $\mathbf{Y}$ :  $l$ -th column has  $l$ -th frame
- $\mathbf{L}$ : background (low-rank)
- $\mathbf{S}$ : foreground (sparse)

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{S}}{\text{minimize}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{L} + \mathbf{S} - \mathbf{Y}\|^2 + \lambda \|\text{vec}(\mathbf{S})\|_1 \\ & \text{subject to } \text{rank}(\mathbf{L}) \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

```
In [6]: using StructuredOptimization
```

```
Y = reshape(Y,n*m,1) # reshape video
L = Variable(n*m,1) # define variables
S = Variable(n*m,1)

@minimize ls(L+S-Y) + 3e-2*norm(S,1) st rank(L) <= 1 with PANOC(tol = 1e-4);
```

```
In [7]: L, S = ~L, ~S # extract vectors from variables
S[ S .!= 0 ] .= S[ S .!= 0 ] .+L[ S .!= 0 ]
# add background to foreground changes in nonzero elements
S[S== 0] .= 1.0
# put white in null pixels
Y, S, L = reshape(Y,n,m,1), reshape(S,n,m,1), reshape(L,n,m,1);
```

```
In [8]: idx = [1;3]
img = Gray.(vcat([ Y[:, :, i] S[:, :, i] L[:, :, i]] for i in idx)...)
```

Out[8]:



**Demo: Audio de-clipping**

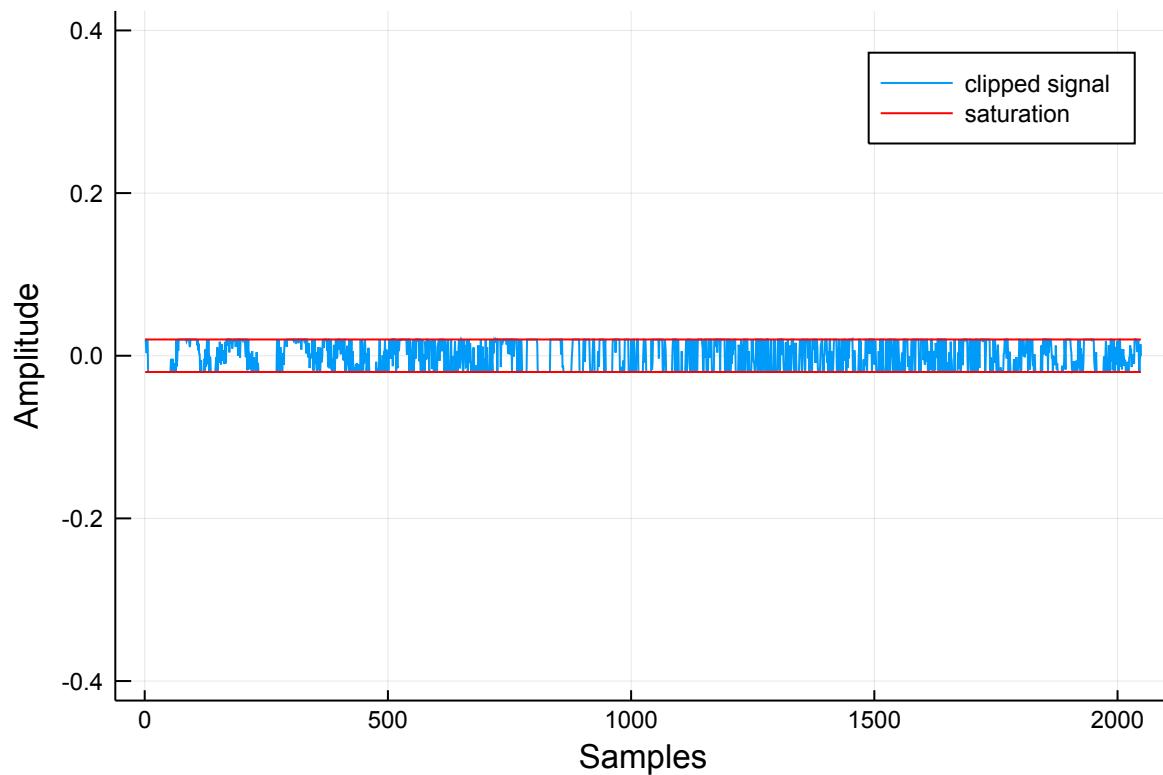
Audio recording of loud source can saturate



```
In [1]: using WAV, Plots  
# load wav file  
yt, Fs = wavread("data/clipped.wav"); yt = yt[:,1] [:]  
C = maximum(abs.(yt))      # clipping level  
# plotting a frame of the audio signal  
idxs = 2^11+1:2^12;
```

```
In [2]: plot(yt[idxs]; label = "clipped signal", xlabel="Samples", ylabel="Amplitude", ylim=[-0.4; 0.4])
plot!([1:length(idxs)], [C.*ones(2), -C.*ones(2)]; color=[:red :red], label = ["saturation" ""])
```

Out[2]:



$$\begin{aligned}
& \underset{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}{\text{minimize}} && \frac{1}{2} \|F_{i,c}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2, \\
& \text{subject to} && \|\mathbf{M}\mathbf{y} - M\tilde{\mathbf{y}}\| \leq \epsilon \\
& && \mathbf{M}_+ \mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{C} \\
& && \mathbf{M}_- \mathbf{y} \leq -\mathbf{C} \\
& && \|\mathbf{x}\|_0 \leq N
\end{aligned}$$

Input:

- $\tilde{\mathbf{y}}$  frame of clipped signal

Optimization variables:

- $\mathbf{x}$  DCT transform declipped frame ( $F_{i,c}$  brings to time domain)
- $\mathbf{y}$  time domain declipped frame

Constraints on  $\mathbf{y}$ :

- $M$  selection matrix of uncorrupted samples
- $M_{\pm}$  selection matrix of saturated samples

Constraints on  $\mathbf{x}$ :

- $\mathbf{x}$  is sparse  $\ell_0$ -ball constraint (sparsity DCT domain) (*nonconvex*)

$$\begin{aligned} \underset{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}}{\text{minimize}} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|F_{i,c}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2, \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \|M\mathbf{y} - M\tilde{\mathbf{y}}\| \leq \epsilon \\ & M_+\mathbf{y} \geq C \\ & M_-\mathbf{y} \leq -C \\ & \|\mathbf{x}\|_0 \leq N \end{aligned}$$

**Nonconvex problem:** refine solution by increasing  $N$

```
In [3]: using StructuredOptimization, DSP
Nl = 2^10                                # time window length
Nt = length(yt)                            # signal length
yd = zeros(Nt)                             # allocate declipped output

x, y = Variable(Nl), Variable(Nl)          # optimization variables
f = ls( idct(x) - y )                     # cost function
yw = zeros(Nl)                            # allocate weighted clipped frame

# wieight window options
win = sqrt.(hanning(Nl+1)[1:Nl])
overlap = div(Nl,2);
```

```
In [ ]: z, ε = 0, sqrt(1e-5) #weighted Overlap-Add
while z+Nl < Nt
    fill!(~x,0.); fill!(~y,0.) # initialize variables
    Ip = sort(findall(      yt[z+1:z+Nl] .>= C) ) #pos clip idxs
    In = sort(findall(      yt[z+1:z+Nl] .<= -C) ) #neg clip idxs
    I  = sort(findall(abs.(yt[z+1:z+Nl]) .< C)) #uncor idxs

    yw .= yt[z+1:z+Nl].*win # weighted frame
    for N = 30:30:30*div(Nl,30)    # increase active components DCT
        cstr = (norm(x,0) <= N,
                  norm(y[I]-yw[I]) <= ε,
                  y[Ip] >= C.*win[Ip],
                  y[In] <= -C.*win[In] )
        @minimize f st cstr with PANOC(tol = 1e-4, verbose = false)
        if norm(idct(~x) - ~y) <= ε break end
    end
    yd[z+1:z+Nl] .+= (~y).*win # store declipped signal
    z += Nl-overlap             # update index
end
```

```
In [ ]: plot(yd[idxs], label = "declipped signal", xlabel="Time (samples)", ylabel="Amplitude", ylim=[-0.4; 0.4])
plot!(yt[idxs]; label = "clipped signal")
plot!([1;length(idxs)], [C.*ones(2), -C.*ones(2)]; color=[:red :red], label = ["saturation" ""])
```

```
In [ ]: using LinearAlgebra  
wavwrite( 0.9 .* normalize(yd[:,Inf), "data/declipped.wav"; Fs = Fs, nbits = 16,  
compression=WAVE_FORMAT_PCM) # save wav file
```

Clipped audio:



Declipped audio:



# Conclusions

- Proximal gradient (PG) methods apply to wide variety of signal processing tasks
- PG framework applies to large-scale inverse problems with non-smooth terms
- PG framework applies to both convex and nonconvex problems
- Accelerated and Newton-type extensions of PG enjoy much faster convergence
- Julia software toolbox offers modeling language with mathematical notation
- More signal processing demos & examples available @  
<https://github.com/kul-forbes/StructuredOptimization.jl>

# Conclusions

## Additional resources

- N. Antonello, L. Stella, P. Patrinos and T. van Waterschoot, “*Proximal gradient algorithms: applications in signal processing*”, arXiv:1803.01621, Mar. 2018. <https://arxiv.org/abs/1803.01621>
- Software packages:
  - <https://github.com/kul-forbes/ProximalOperators.jl>
  - <https://github.com/kul-forbes/AbstractOperators.jl>
  - <https://github.com/kul-forbes/ProximalAlgorithms.jl>
  - <https://github.com/kul-forbes/StructuredOptimization.jl>

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