Fast Iterative Shrinkage-Thresholding Algorithm for Linear Inverse Problem

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The FISTA Paper

Fast Iterative Shrinkage-Thresholding Algorithm for Linear Inverse Problem A. Beck and M. Teboulle,

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ToC

- Context and Introduction
 - The Context
 - The Proximal Operator
- Proximal Gradient and Accelerated Proximal Gradient
 - Proximal Gradient
 - The Accelerated Proximal Gradient
- The Momentum Term
 - Questions to Answer
 - Bounded Sequence
 - Some Quantities
 - A Sketch of the Proof
- Mumerical Experiments
 - LASSO
 - Image Deconvolution with Noise
- References

Sum of Two Functions

Consider a function f that we can write into the sum of two functions.

$$\min_{x} g(x) + h(x) \tag{1}$$

When g(x) is Lipschitz smooth and h(x), closed convex and proper, we can use Beck and Teboulle's FISTA algorithm.

- 1. The function h can be nonsmooth.
- 2. Taking the proximal operator of h has to be possible and easy to implement (More on that later).
- 3. Under the right conditions, the FISTA algorithm converges with $\mathcal{O}(1/k^2)$.

Contributions

- 1. In Beck's and Teboulle's paper[2], they popularized the use of Nesterov Momentum for nonsmooth functions.
- 2. Beck proved the convergence with the convexity assumption on g, h.
- 3. The FISTA algorithm is provably faster than the alternative algorithm: ISTA, TWIST.

A Major Assumption

Assumption (Convex Smooth Nonsmooth with Bounded Minimizers)

We will assume that $g: \mathbb{E} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is **strongly smooth** with constant L_g and $h: \mathbb{E} \mapsto \bar{\mathbb{R}}$ is **closed convex and proper**. We define f:=g+h to be the summed function and $ri \circ dom(g) \cap ri \circ dom(h) \neq \emptyset$. We also assume that a set of minimizers exists for the function f and that the set is bounded. Denote the minimizer using \bar{x} .

We refer to this as "Assumption A.1".

Lipschitz Smoothness

Definition (Strong Smoothness)

A differentiable function g is called strongly smooth with a constant α then it satisfies:

$$|g(y) - g(x) - \langle \nabla g(x), y - x \rangle| \le \frac{\alpha}{2} ||x - y||^2 \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{E}.$$
 (2)

Remark

When g is convex, then the absolute value can be removed; the above condition is equivalent to:

$$\|\nabla g(x) - \nabla g(y)\| \le \alpha \|y - x\| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{E},$$

we assume $\|\cdot\|$ is the euclidean norm for simplicity. In Beck's book, theorem 5.8[1].

Proximal Operator Definition

Definition (The Proximal Operator)

For a function f with $\alpha \geq 0$, the proximal operator is defined as:

$$\operatorname{prox}_{f,\alpha}(x) := \arg\min_{y} \left\{ f(y) + \frac{1}{2\alpha} \|y - x\|^2 \right\}.$$

Remark

The proximal operator is a singled-valued mapping when f is convex, closed, and proper.

Proixmal Operator and Set Projections

Observe that when f is an indicator function δ_Q defined as:

$$\delta_{Q}(x) := \begin{cases} 0 & x \in Q, \\ \infty & x \notin Q, \end{cases}$$

the proximal operator of δ_Q is

$$\operatorname{prox}_{\delta_Q,\alpha}(x) = \operatorname*{argmin}_y \left\{ \delta_Q(y) + \frac{1}{\alpha} \|x - y\|^2 \right\} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in Q} \|x - y\|^2,$$

it searches for the closest point to the set Q for all $\alpha>0$, and it is called a projection. When $Q\neq\emptyset$ is convex and closed, the point is unique.

Example of Prox

Definition (Soft Thresholding)

For some $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the proximal operator of the absolute value is:

$$\operatorname{prox}_{\lambda\|\cdot\|_{1},t}(x) = \operatorname{sign}(x) \max(|x| - t\lambda, 0).$$

One could interpret the sign operator as projecting x onto the interval [-1,1] and the $\max(|x|-t\lambda,0)$ as the distance of the point x to the interval $[-t\lambda,t\lambda]$.

The Proximal Gradient Algorithm

The Proximal Gradient Method

Algorithm Proximal Gradient With Fixed Step-sizes

```
1: Input: g, h, smooth and nonsmooth, L stepsize, x^{(0)} an initial guess of solution.

2: for k=1,2,\cdots,N do

3: x^{(k+1)}=\arg\min_{y}\{h(y)+\langle\nabla g(x^{(k)}),y-x^{(k)}\rangle+\frac{L}{2}\|y-x^{(k)}\|^2\}

4: if x^{(k+1)},x^{(k)} close enough then

5: Break

6: end if

7: end for
```

- 1. It takes the lowest point on the upper bounding function to go next.
- 2. It is a fixed-point iteration.

The Upper Bounding Function

Observe that when g is Lipschitz smooth with constant L_g then fix any point x and for all $y \in \mathbb{E}$:

$$g(x) + h(x) \le g(x) + \nabla g(x)^{T} (y - x) + \frac{\beta}{2} ||y - x||^{2} + h(y) =: m_{x}(y|\beta).$$

Moreover, it has shown that:

$$\underbrace{\operatorname{prox}_{h,\beta^{-1}}(x-\beta^{-1}\nabla g(x))}_{=:\mathcal{P}^{g,h}_{\beta^{-1}}(x)} = \arg\min_{y} \{m_{x}(y|\beta)\}.$$

The proximal gradient algorithm performs fixed point iterations on the proximal gradient operator.

A Plot for an Upper Bounding Function

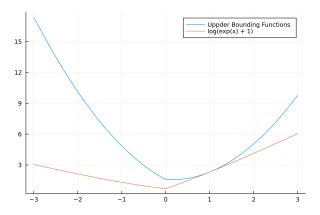


Figure: The upper bounding function that the proximal gradient algorithm is minimizing for each iteration. In this case $g(x) = \exp(1 + \log(x))$, h(x) = |x|

Facts About Proximal Gradient Descent

With our Assumption A.1:

- 1. It converges monotonically with a $\mathcal{O}(1/k)$ rate as shown in Beck's Boook[1] with a step size L^{-1} such that $L > L_g$.
- 2. When h is the indicator function, it is just the projected subgradient method. When h=0, this is the smooth gradient descent method where the norm of the fixed point error converges with $\mathcal{O}(1/k)[1]$.
- 3. The fixed point of the proximal gradient operator is the minimizer of *f* .

The Accelerated Proximal Gradient Method

Momentum Template Method

Algorithm Template Proximal Gradient Method With Momentum

- 1: **Input:** $x^{(0)}, x^{(-1)}, L, h, g$; 2 initial guesses and stepsize L
- 2: $y^{(0)} = x^{(0)} + \theta_k(x^{(0)} x^{(-1)})$
- 3: **for** $k = 1, \dots, N$ **do**
- 4: $x^{(k)} = \operatorname{prox}_{h,L^{-1}}(y^{(k)} + L^{-1}\nabla g(y^{(k)})) = \mathcal{P}_{L^{-1}}^{g,h}(y^{(k)})$
- 5: $y^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + \theta_k(x^{(k)} x^{(k-1)})$
- 6: end for

In the case of FISTA, we use:

$$t_k = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4t_k^2}}{2}, \theta_k = \frac{t_k - 1}{t_{k+1}}, t_0 = 1, x^{(-1)} = x^{(0)}$$

Facts about the Accelerated Proximal Gradient Method

- 1. When h = 0, this is Nesterov's famous accelerated gradient method proposed back in 1983.
- 2. It is no longer a descent method.
- 3. It has a convergence rate of $\mathcal{O}(1/k^2)$ under Assumption A.1, proved by Beck, Toboulle in the FISTA paper [2].

Some Important Questions to Address for the Second Half

- 1. Why does the sequence of t_k , θ_k makes sense?
- 2. What ideas are involved in proving that the convergence rate is $\mathcal{O}(1/k^2)$?
- 3. If the above is true, what secret sauce cooks up the sequence t_k, θ_k ?
 - unfortunately, the secret cause is not the Nesterov momentum term t_k but rather an inequality involving two sequences that give us a bound.

Two Bounded Sequence

The proof for the convergence rate for deriving the momentum sequence hinges on the following lemma about two sequences of numbers:

Lemma (Two Bounded Sequences)

Consider the sequences $a_k, b_k \ge 0$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $a_1 + b_1 \le c$. Inductively the two sequences satisfy $a_k - a_{k+1} \le b_{k+1} - b_k$, which describes a sequence with oscillations bounded by the difference of another sequence. Consider the telescoping sum:

$$a_k - a_{k+1} \ge b_{k+1} - b_k \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$$
 $\implies -\sum_{k=1}^N a_{k+1} - a_k \ge \sum_{k=1}^N b_{k+1} - b_k$
 $-(a_{N+1} - a_1) \ge b_{N+1} - b_1$
 $c \ge a_1 + b_1 \ge b_{N+1} + a_{N+1}$
 $\implies c \ge a_{N+1}.$

The Nesterov Momentum Sequence

In the algorithm we listed, the Nesterov momentum sequence consists of $heta_k, t_k$ with $t_0=1$ given by

$$t_{k+1} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + 4t_k^2}}{2}, \theta_k = \frac{t_k - 1}{t_{k+1}}, t_0 = 1$$
 (3)

It is shown that the sequence of t_k grows linearly and $t_k > (1+k)/2$.

- 1. $v^{(k)} = x^{(k)} x^{(k-1)}$ is the velocity term.
- 2. $\bar{v}^{(k)} = \theta_k v^{(k)}$ is the weighed velocity term.
- 3. $e^{(k)} := x^{(k)} \bar{x}$, where $\bar{x} \in \arg\min_{x} (f(x))$, where \bar{x} is fixed
- 4. $\Delta_k := f(x^{(k)}) f(\bar{x})$ which represent the optimality gap at step k.

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Form Matching to the Sequences

From lemma 2.3 in Beck's FISTA paper, one can obtain the following two expressions using the quantities introduced:

Substitute
$$x = x^{(k)}, y = y^{(k+1)}$$
 lemma 2.3

$$2L^{-1}(\Delta_k - \Delta_{k+1}) \ge \|v^{(k+1)} - \bar{v}^{(k)}\|^2 + 2\langle v^{(k+1)} - \bar{v}^{(k)}, \bar{v}^{(k)}\rangle$$
 (*)

Substitute $x = \bar{x}, y = y^{(k+1)}$ lemma 2.3

$$-2L^{-1}\Delta_{k+1} \ge \|v^{(k+1)} - \bar{v}^{(k)}\|^2 + 2\langle v^{(k+1)} - \bar{v}^{(k)}, e^{(k)} + \bar{v}^{(k)} \rangle. \tag{\star}$$

The Sequences t_k

For now, we don't know what the sequence t_k is, but we can assume that $t_k > 1$ for all k and using (*), (*) and consider $(t_{k+1}^2 - t_{k+1})(*) + t_{k+1}(*)$ which gives us:

$$2L^{-1}(\underbrace{(t_{k+1}^{2} - t_{k+1})\Delta_{k}}_{a_{k}} - \underbrace{t_{k+1}^{2}\Delta_{k+1}}_{a_{k+1}})$$

$$\geq \dots \text{Non-Trivial Amount of Math is Skipped...}$$

$$\geq \underbrace{\|t_{k+1}v^{(k+1)} + e^{(k)}\|^{2}}_{b_{k+1}} - \underbrace{\|e^{(k-1)} + (t_{k+1}\theta_{k} + 1)v^{(k)}\|^{2}}_{b_{k}}, \qquad (**)$$

If the form were to match the Two Bounded Sequences, it has to be the case that $t_{k+1}\theta_k+1=t_k$ and $t_{k+1}^2-t_{k+1}^2=t_k^2$. In this case, the Nesterov Momentum terms satisfy the conditions perfectly.

Using the Two Bounded Sequences

It is not hard to show that the base case $a_1 + b_1 < c$ is bouned using Assumption A1, The Two Bounded Sequences give

$$a_N \le c$$
 (4)

$$t_N^2 \Delta_N \le c \tag{5}$$

$$\Delta_N \le \frac{c}{t_N^2},\tag{6}$$

And recall that $t_k \ge (k+1)/2$, we can conclude that Δ_N convergences with rante $\mathcal{O}(1/N^2)$.

Simple LASSO

The Lasso Problem

Lasso minimizes the 2-norm objective with one norm penalty.

$$\min_{x} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \|x\|_{1} \right\}$$

And the prox for $\|\cdot\|_1$ is given by:

$$(\operatorname{prox}_{\lambda\|\cdot\|,t}(x))_i = \operatorname{sign}(x_i) \max(|x_i| - t\lambda, 0),$$

For our experiment:

- 1. A has diagonal elements that are numbers equally spaced on the interval [0, 2].
- 2. Vector *b* is the diagonal of *A* and every odd index is changed into $\epsilon \sim N(0, 10^{-3})$.

Results

The plot of Δ_k :

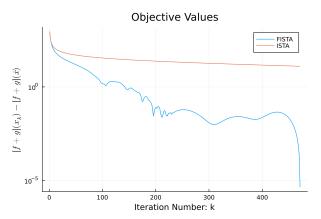
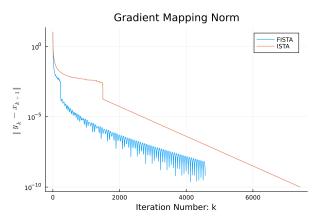


Figure: The left is the objective value of the function during all iterations.

Results

The plot of $||y^{(k)} - x^{(k)}||_{\infty}$:



Experiment Setup

Given an image that is convoluted by a Guassian kernel with some guassian noise, we want to recover the image, given the parameters for convolutions.

- 1. Guassian blur with a discrete 15 by 15 kernel is a linear transform represented by a sparse matrix A in the computer.
- 2. When an image is 500 by 500 with three color channels, A is 750000×750000 .
- 3. Let the noise be on all normalized colors values with $N(0, 10^{-2})$
- 4. We let $\lambda = \alpha \times (3 \times 500^2)^{-1}$.
- 5. Implemented in Julia, the code is too long to be shown here.

The Blurred Image

We consider blurring the image of a pink unicorn that I own.

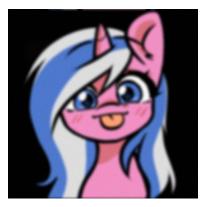


Figure: The image is blurred by the Gaussian Blurred matrix A with a tiny amount of noise on the level of 2×10^{-2} that is barely observable. Zoom in to observe the tiny amount of Gaussian noise on top of the blur.

Results



Figure: (a) $\alpha=0$, without any one norm penalty, is not robust to the additional noise. (b) $\alpha=0.01$, there is a tiny amount of λ . (c) $\alpha=0.1$, it is more penalty compared to (a).

References



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