



## Lecture 2: Basics on convex smooth/non-smooth optimisation

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**Inverse problems in image processing**

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**Goal:** providing theoretical/practical tools (i.e. algorithms) for solving

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} F(x)$$

for a function  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  with suitable properties.

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Such minimisation problem often appears in many contexts:

- **Inverse problems:** imaging, variable selection, compressed sensing. . .  
Example:  $F(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - y\|_2^2$  (least-square problem), . . .
- **Statistical/machine learning:** empirical risk minimisation, regression. . .
- **Numerical analysis/optimisation:** analysis/implementation of fast algorithms for solving large-scale problems. . .
- . . . many more!

**Convolution problem:**  $Y = g * X + N$  with  $Y, X, N, \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  (2D objects)

- Represent this using a Fourier (circulant) matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  with  $n = N^2$

$$y = Ax + n$$

where  $y = \text{vec}(Y)$ ,  $x = \text{vec}(X)$  and  $n = \text{vec}(N)$ .

- You have looked at the condition number of  $A$  and commented on the small size of the singular values of  $A$ , which creates the problem
- **Not possible** to perform the “naive” inversion:





$$x = A^{-1}(y - n) \quad \textbf{THIS IS WRONG!}$$

- **Minimisation approach:** look instead at the minimisation problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - y\|^2$$

My lectures: how to solve it numerically.

Some standard reference books/surveys:

-  R. Tyller Rockafeller, *Convex Analysis*, Princeton University Press, 1970.
-  S. Boyd, L. Vandenberghe, *Convex Optimization*, Cambridge University Press, 2004.
-  A. Beck, *First-order methods in optimization*, Volume 25, MOS-SIAM series on Optimization, 2017.
-  A. Chambolle, T. Pock, *An introduction to continuous optimization for imaging*, Acta Numerica, 2016

... will try mostly to follow these books.

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### Research interests

Inverse imaging problems, smooth/non-smooth & convex/non-convex optimisation, biomedical imaging applications, digital restoration of artworks, computational neurosciences. . .

## Preliminaries & basic notions

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- **Linear algebra:** vector spaces, norms, scalar product
- **Basic calculus:** the space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ : dot product  $\langle v, w \rangle = v^T w$ ,  $\ell_p$  norms ( $p \geq 1$ )  $\|x\|_p$ .  
Will use  $\|x\| = \|x\|_2 = (\sum x_i^2)^{1/2}$  to denote the standard Euclidean norm.
- **Analysis:** sequences, convergence, limits, continuity, differentiability. . .
- Convex subsets  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$(\forall x, y \in S) \quad (\forall \alpha \in [0, 1]) \quad z := \alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y \in S$$

- Linear operators  $\mathcal{A} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ ; their matrix representation  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , adjoint operators  $A^T$ . Example: convolution with kernel  $g$ :  $g * X \leftrightarrow Ax$ , with  $x = \text{vec}(X)$ .
- Operator norm  $\|A\| = \max \{\|Ax\| : \|x\| \leq 1\}$

# Proper functions

Minimal property to have well-defined minimisation problems.

## Proper function

A function  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  is said *proper* iff

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{such that} \quad F(x) \neq +\infty.$$

We define  $\mathcal{P} := \{F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\} \text{ s.t. } F \text{ is proper}\}.$

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Why this? We are interested in solving

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} F(x)$$

so we need to exclude atypical functions identically equal to  $+\infty$ . The set:

$$\text{dom}(F) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : F(x) < +\infty\}$$

is called the *effective domain* of  $F$ .

## Some examples

- For  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , consider  $F(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - y\|_2^2 \rightarrow$  least-square minimisation problem.
- In the case of Poisson noise statistics  $F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m ((Ax)_i - y_i \log (Ax)_i)$
- *Regularised problems*: for  $\lambda > 0$ ,  $F(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - y\|_2^2 + \lambda g(x)$  with, for instance:
  - $g(x) = \|x\|_2^2$  or  $g(x) = \|\nabla x\|_2^2$ ;
  - $g(x) = \|x\|_1$  or  $g(x) = \|\nabla x\|_1$ ;
  - $g(x) = \|Wx\|_1$  where  $W$  is a wavelet operator (see next lectures. . . )

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The type of problems considered will be often in the form:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{F(x) := f(x) + g(x)\},$$

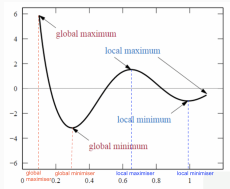
where  $f, g$  are proper functions and where  $f$  is *nicer* (smoother) than  $g$ .  
Namely:

- $g \equiv 0$ : **smooth** optimisation ( $\rightarrow F(x) = f(x)$ , so  $F$  is smooth);
- $g \neq 0$ : **non-smooth** optimisation.

# Global/local minimisers

For  $F \in \mathcal{P}$ , we denote:

- **global minimiser**:  $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :  $F(x^*) \leq F(x)$  for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- **local minimiser**:  $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ : there exists  $\delta > 0$  and a neighbourhood  $B_\delta(x^*)$  such that  $F(x^*) \leq F(x)$  for every  $x \in B_\delta(x^*)$ .

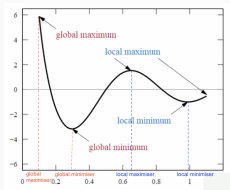


**Note:** **minima** of a functional  $\neq$  **minimisers** (points in the domain where minima are attained)!

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**Note:** **minima** of a functional  $\neq$  **minimisers** (points in the domain where minima are attained)!

## Set of minimisers

The set of (local, global) minimisers of  $F$  is denoted by:

$$\arg \min F = \{x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n : x^* \text{ is a minimiser of } F\}.$$

**Not necessarily a singleton!** (there can be more than one minimiser, it depends on  $F$ )

## A stupid, but important remark

Optimisation problems are often formulated in two ways:

- min form: looking for minimal values of the functional

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} F(x)$$

- (more instructive) argmin form: looking for minimisers of the functional

$$\arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} F(x)$$



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- min form: looking for minimal values of the functional

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- (more instructive) argmin form: looking for minimisers of the functional

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In practice, we look most of the times to the second formulation as we are also interested in the element  $x^*$  minimising  $F$ .

## Convexity

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# Convex functions

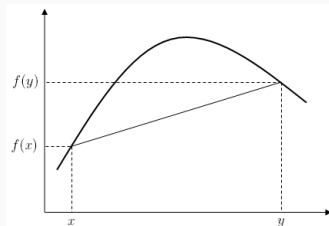
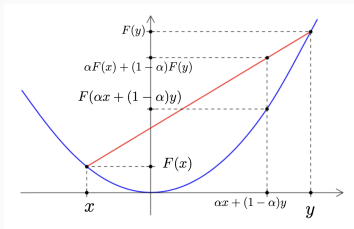
Let  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  be a proper function, i.e.  $F \in \mathcal{P}$ .

## Convex function

$F \in \mathcal{P}$  is said to be *convex* if:

$$(\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n) \quad (\forall \alpha \in [0, 1]) \quad F(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y) \leq \alpha F(x) + (1 - \alpha)F(y).$$

Moreover,  $F$  is *strictly convex* if the inequality holds when  $x, y \in \text{dom}(F)$ ,  $x \neq y$  and  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ . We say that  $G : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [-\infty, +\infty)$  is *concave* if  $F = -G$  is convex. If a function is not convex nor concave we say that is *non-convex*.



Convex/concave function

# Convex functions

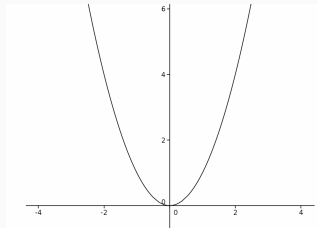
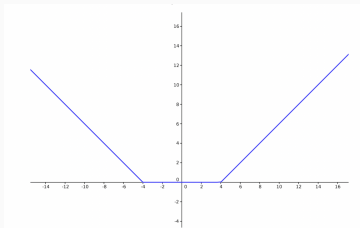
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Convex VS. strictly convex functions

# Convex functions

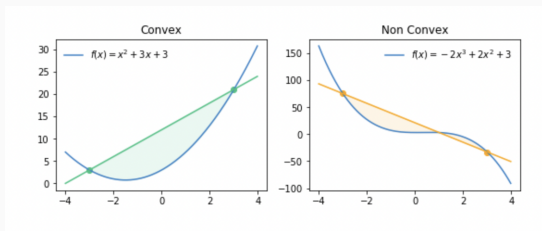
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## Examples:

- $F(x) = \|x\|$  is convex

$$\|\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y\| \leq \|\alpha x\| + \|(1 - \alpha)y\| = \alpha\|x\| + (1 - \alpha)\|y\| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

- $F(x) = \|x\|^2$  is strictly convex
- $F(x) = \|x\|_p$ ,  $p \in [1, +\infty)$  are convex

### Proposition (operations with convex functions)

Let  $F$  and  $G$  two convex functions and let  $\beta > 0$ . Then, the sum  $F + G$  is a convex function and the function  $\beta F$  is a convex function.

# Useful properties

## Proposition (operations with convex functions)

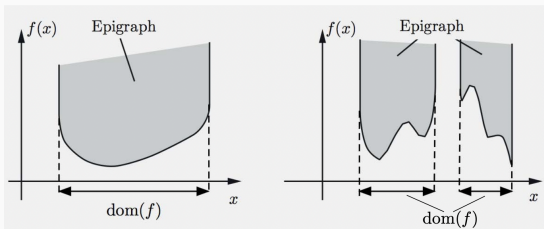
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## Proposition (epigraph of convex functions is convex set)

Let  $F \in \mathcal{P}$ . Then  $F$  is a convex function if and only if the set

$$\text{epi}(F) := \{(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} : F(x) \leq t\}$$

is convex.





## Continuity and differentiability

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## Lower semi-continuity

You all know what a continuous function is:

$$(\forall x \in \text{dom}(F)) \quad \lim_{y \rightarrow x} F(y) = F(x)$$

However, a weaker notion can be used to guarantee the well-posedness of optimisation problems classically encountered in this context.

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## Lower semi-continuity

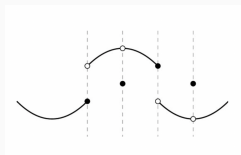
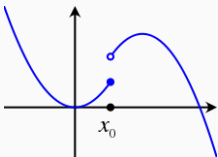
Let  $F \in \mathcal{P}$ . We say that  $F$  is *lower semi-continuous (l.s.c.)* at the point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  iff

$$F(x) \leq \liminf_{y \rightarrow x} F(y).$$

Using sequences, this means that for every sequence  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  such that  $x_k \rightarrow x$ :

$$F(x) \leq \liminf_{k \rightarrow +\infty} F(x_k) := \lim_{k \rightarrow +\infty} \inf \{F(x_j) : j \geq k\}.$$

If  $F$  is l.s.c. at every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we say that the function is l.s.c.



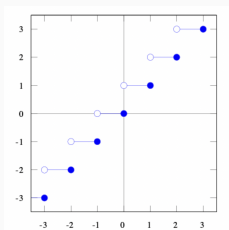
**Left:** lower l.s.c. **Right:** where the function is lower l.s.c.?

## Examples of l.s.c. functions

- The functions

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}, \quad F(x) = \lceil x \rceil = \min \{k \in \mathbb{Z} : x \leq k\}$$

are l.s.c. (but not continuous).



$$F(x) = \lceil x \rceil$$

- All continuous functions (l.s.c + u.s.c.).

We need to ensure that the minimum is not attained at the “extreme points” of the domain. . .

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## Coercivity

Let  $F \in \mathcal{P}$ . We say that  $F$  is *coercive* iff

$$\lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow +\infty} F(x) = +\infty.$$

This means that the function has a large growth for values of  $x$  whose norm is large.

**Examples:**

- $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ ,  $F(x) = e^x$  is **not** coercive, but  $F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ ,  $F(x) = e^{|x|}$  is.
- $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ ,  $F(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$  is coercive.
- $F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ ,  $F(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 + x_2^2 = (x_1 - x_2)^2$  is **not** coercive.  
( $F(x_1, x_2) = 0$  on the line  $x_1 = x_2$ , so there  $\|x\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} \rightarrow +\infty$ , but  $F(x) = 0$ )

## Existence of minimisers

We have everything we need to provide conditions for showing the **existence** of minimisers for the problem considered.

### Theorem (existence of minimisers)

Let  $F \in \mathcal{P}$ . If  $F$  is l.s.c. and coercive, then  $F$  admits a minimiser.

**Note I:** Equivalently said, the problem:

$$\arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} F(x)$$

has at least one solution, or, similarly,  $\arg \min F \neq \emptyset$  (again: without further conditions, it is composed of many points).

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**Note II:** this result generalises the standard Bolzano-Weierstrass theorem saying that problem

$$\min_{x \in C} F(x)$$

for compact  $C$  and *continuous*  $F$ , admits at least a solution ( $\arg \min F \neq \emptyset$ ).



So far, only existence of minimisers. How to guarantee uniqueness?

## Theorem (existence+uniqueness of minimisers)

Let  $F \in \mathcal{P}$ . If  $F$  is l.s.c., coercive and **strictly convex**, then  $F$  admits a **unique** minimiser.

**Note I:** Equivalently said, the problem:

$$\arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} F(x)$$

has **exactly** one solution, or, similarly,  $\arg \min F = \{x^*\}$ , a singleton.

Recalling the original problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{F(x) := f(x) + g(x)\},$$

we will assume at least both  $f$  and  $g$  to be proper, l.s.c. and convex to have at least one solution.

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As said above, most of the problems encountered in this course will have a *nice* component  $f$  for which **further regularity** (smoothness) holds. . .

# Introducing smoothness

Recalling the original problem

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As said above, most of the problems encountered in this course will have a *nice* component  $f$  for which **further regularity** (smoothness) holds. . .

To simplify things, let us first look at:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{F(x) := f(x) + \cancel{g(x)}\},$$

so ignore the presence of the non-nice component  $g$ .

We would like to provide a characterisation of the minimisers of a function  $f$  in terms of a suitable notion of “ $\nabla f$ ”. We use Gâteaux differentiability.

## Gâteaux differentiability

Let  $f \in \mathcal{P}$  and let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  s.t.  $f(x) < +\infty$ . For  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we denote the *directional derivative* in  $x$  along the direction  $v$  the limit

$$f'(x; v) = f'(x)[v] := \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + tv) - f(x)}{t},$$

when it exists. If there exists  $w$  such that:

$$(\forall v \in \mathbb{R}^n) \quad f'(x; v) = \langle w, v \rangle,$$

then we say that  $f$  is *Gâteaux differentiable* in  $x$  and denote by  $\nabla f(x) = w$  the *Gâteaux derivative* (or, simply, the *gradient*) of  $f$  at  $x$ .

We can now express the optimality of point in terms of  $\nabla f$ .

### Theorem (Fermat's rule)

Let  $F \in \mathcal{P}$  be convex and differentiable at point  $x^*$ . Then:

$$x^* \in \arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \iff \nabla f(x^*) = 0,$$

hence solving an optimisation problem corresponds to solve a system of equations.

**Exercise:** for  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - y\|_2^2$ , compute  $\nabla f$ .

You may have seen this notion already applied to a function  $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\exists L \geq 0 : \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad |h(x) - h(y)| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$

It is a condition controlling the growth of  $h$ .

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In the framework of first-order optimisation methods, such condition is rather important when assumed on the gradient of the differentiable function  $f \in \mathcal{P}$ .

## Gradient Lipschitz continuity

Let  $f \in \mathcal{P}$  be differentiable. We say that  $f$  is a *gradient Lipschitz continuous function* with constant  $L \geq 0$  iff:

$$\exists L \geq 0 : \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$

**Exercise:** Compute the Lipschitz constant  $L$  of the gradient of the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}\|Ax - y\|_2^2$ .



## A first (but useful!) algorithm

**Gradient descent** (GD) algorithm: ubiquitous in many applications (training of neural nets...) for minimising **convex**, **differentiable** and proper functions

$$f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$$

### Gradient descent algorithm

**Input:**  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (initial guess),  $\tau \in (0, \frac{2}{L}]$  (step-size)

Iterate for  $k \geq 0$ :

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \tau \nabla f(x_k)$$

till **convergence**.

$\Rightarrow$  the algorithm converges to a (possibly not unique) minimiser of  $f$

## A first (but useful!) algorithm

**Gradient descent** (GD) algorithm: ubiquitous in many applications (training of neural nets...) for minimising **convex**, **differentiable** and proper functions  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$

### Gradient descent algorithm

**Input:**  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (initial guess),  $\tau \in (0, \frac{2}{L}]$  (step-size)

Iterate for  $k \geq 0$ :

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \tau \nabla f(x_k)$$

till **convergence**.

$\Rightarrow$  the algorithm converges to a (possibly not unique) minimiser of  $f$

- Choice of  $\tau$ : important to guarantee convergence (need to be sufficiently small), it relates to the inverse of  $L$ .
- Convex assumption: no dependence on  $x_0$ .
- Stopping criterion: relative error  $\|x_{k+1} - x_k\| \leq \text{tol}$  or gradient check  $\|\nabla f(x_{k+1})\| \leq \text{tol}$  (approaching 0).

Unfortunately, in many applications the function  $g$  in

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{F(x) := f(x) + g(x)\},$$

is different from 0. Typically,  $g$  is convex, but **non differentiable** so its gradient (and henceforth the one of  $F$ ) cannot be defined...

## Subdifferentiability

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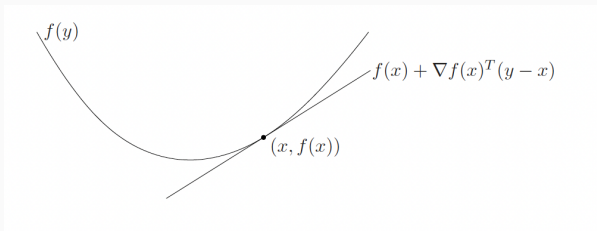
## A preliminary observation

One can show that if  $f$  is differentiable:

$$f \text{ is convex} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad (\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n) \quad f(y) \geq \underbrace{f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x)}_{=:\phi(y;x)}$$

Or, in other words:

- the function  $\phi(y; x)$  is an affine lower bound/estimator of  $f$
- the tangent to  $f$  is below  $f$  at all points.



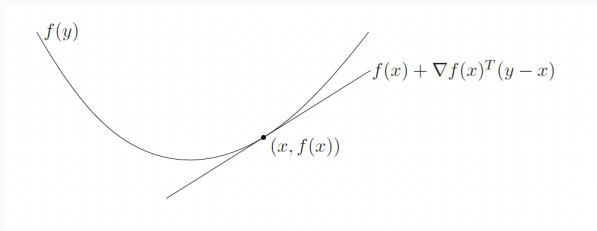
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... what if  $f$  is not differentiable (but convex)?

# Subdifferential and subgradients

Let us now look at the *non-nice* component  $g$  of the problem:

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## Subdifferentials and subgradients

Let  $g \in \mathcal{P}$  be **convex**. Then, a vector  $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a *subgradient* of  $g$  at point  $x \in \text{dom}(g)$  iff:

$$g(y) \geq g(x) + p^T(y - x), \quad \forall y \in \text{dom}(g)$$

The set of all subgradients at a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is called the *subdifferential* of  $g$  in  $x$ , and it is denoted by:

$$\partial g(x) = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^n : p \text{ is a subgradient of } g \text{ at point } x\}$$



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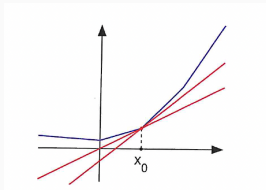
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**Interpretation:**

- $p \in \partial g(x)$  if and only if  $\phi(y; x) = g(x) + p^T(y - x)$  is a lower affine bound for  $g$ .
- $\partial g(x)$  collects all the **slopes** of the “tangent” straight lines passing through  $x$ .

## Remarks

In general,  $\partial g(x)$  contains many elements (“many derivatives at each point”).



Multiple subgradients at a non-differentiable point  $x_0$ .

However, one can show that if  $g$  is differentiable in  $x$ , then:

$$\partial g(x) = \{\nabla g(x)\},$$

i.e. the only element in  $\partial g(x)$  is the (classical) gradient of  $g$  in  $x$ .

**Exercise:** compute  $\partial g(x)$  at all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  for the 1D function  $g(x) = |x|$  and provide a graphical representation of the result.

**Further exercises** for more rules on subdifferential calculus.

Questions?

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