
Towards off-the-grid algorithms for total variation regularized inverse problems

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Abstract We introduce an algorithm to solve linear inverse problems regularized with the total (gradient) variation in a gridless manner. Contrary to most existing methods, that produce an approximate solution which is piecewise constant on a fixed mesh, our approach exploits the structure of the solutions and consists in iteratively constructing a linear combination of indicator functions of simple polygons.

Keywords Off-the-grid imaging · Inverse problems · Total variation

1 Introduction

By promoting solutions with a certain specific structure, the regularization of a variational inverse problem is a way to encode some prior knowledge on the signals to recover. Theoretically, it is now well understood which regularizers tend to promote signals or im-

ages which are sparse, low rank or piecewise constant. Yet, paradoxically enough, most numerical solvers are not designed with that goal in mind, and the targeted structural property (sparsity, low rank or piecewise constancy) only appears “in the limit”, at the convergence of the algorithm.

Several recent works have focused on incorporating structural properties in optimization algorithms. In the context of ℓ^1 -based sparse spikes recovery, it was proposed to switch from, e.g. standard proximal methods (which require the introduction of an approximation grid) to algorithms which operate directly in a continuous domain: interior point methods solving a reformulation of the problem [Candès and Fernandez-Granda, 2014, Castro et al., 2017] or a Frank-Wolfe / conditional gradient algorithm [Bredies and Pikkarainen, 2013] approximating a solution in a greedy way. More generally, the conditional gradient algorithm has drawn a lot of interest from the data science community, for it provides iterates which are a sum of a small number of atoms which are promoted by the regularizer (see the review paper [Jaggi, 2013]).

In the present work, we explore the extension of these fruitful approaches to the total (gradient) variation regularized inverse problem

$$\min_{u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)} T_\lambda(u) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \frac{1}{2} \|\Phi u - y\|^2 + \lambda |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2), \quad (\mathcal{P}_\lambda)$$

where $\Phi: L^2(\mathbb{R}^2) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a continuous linear map such that

$$\forall u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2), \quad \Phi u = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} u(x) \varphi(x) dx, \quad (1)$$

with $\varphi \in [L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)]^m \cap C^0(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^m)$ and $|Du|(\mathbb{R}^2)$ denotes the total variation of (the gradient of) u . Such variational problems have been widely used in image

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processing for the last decades, following the pioneering works of Rudin, Osher and Fatemi [Rudin et al., 1992]. One would typically solve (\mathcal{P}_λ) to produce an approximation of an unknown image u_0 from the knowledge of $y = \Phi u_0 + w$, where $w \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is some additive noise.

Many algorithms have been proposed to solve (\mathcal{P}_λ) . With the notable exception of [Viola et al., 2012], most of them rely on the introduction of a fixed discrete grid, which yields reconstruction artifacts such as anisotropy or blur (see the experiments in [Tabti et al., 2018]). On the other hand, it is known that some solutions of (\mathcal{P}_λ) are sums of a finite number of indicator functions of simply connected sets [Bredies and Carioni, 2019, Boyer et al., 2019], yielding piecewise constant images. Our goal is to design an algorithm which does not suffer from some grid bias while providing solutions built from the above-mentioned atoms.

2 Preliminaries

In the following, for any function $u : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we shall use the notation

$$U^{(t)} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \begin{cases} \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid u(x) \geq t\} & \text{if } t \geq 0, \\ \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid u(x) \leq t\} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

2.1 Functions of bounded variation and sets of finite perimeter

Let $u \in L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R}^2)$. The total variation of u is given by

$$J(u) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \sup_{z \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^2)} - \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} u \operatorname{div} z \quad \text{s.t. } \|z\|_\infty \leq 1.$$

If $J(u)$ is finite, then u is said to have bounded variation, and the distributional gradient of u , denoted Du , is a finite vector-valued Radon measure. We moreover have $|Du|(\mathbb{R}^2) = J(u) < +\infty$.

A measurable set $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is said to be of finite perimeter if $P(E) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} J(\mathbf{1}_E) < +\infty$. The reduced boundary $\partial^* E$ of a set of finite perimeter E is defined as the set of points $x \in \operatorname{Supp}(|D\mathbf{1}_E|)$ at which

$$\nu_E(x) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} - \frac{D\mathbf{1}_E(B(x, r))}{|D\mathbf{1}_E|(B(x, r))}$$

exists and is moreover such that $\|\nu_E(x)\| = 1$.

From [Giusti, 1984, Proposition 3.1], we know that if E has finite perimeter, there exists a Lebesgue representative of E with the property that

$$\forall x \in \partial E, 0 < |E \cap B(x, r)| < |B(x, r)|.$$

In the following, we always consider this representative and consequently obtain $\operatorname{Supp}(D\mathbf{1}_E) = \overline{\partial^* E} = \partial E$.

If $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ has finite perimeter, [Ambrosio et al., 2001, Corollary 1] states that it can be decomposed into an at most countable union of its M -connected components (which are pairwise disjoint), i.e.

$$E = \bigcup_{i \in I} E_i \quad \text{with } P(E) = \sum_{i \in I} P(E_i) \text{ and } \forall i, |E_i| > 0.$$

Each M -connected component E_i can in turn be decomposed as

$$E_i = \operatorname{int}(\gamma_i^+) \setminus \bigcup_{j \in J_i} \operatorname{int}(\gamma_{i,j}^-),$$

$$\text{with } P(E_i) = P(\operatorname{int}(\gamma_i^+)) + \sum_{j \in J_i} P(\operatorname{int}(\gamma_{i,j}^-)),$$

where for all $i \in I$ and $j \in J_i$, γ_i^+ and $\gamma_{i,j}^-$ are rectifiable Jordan curves. We say that a set of finite perimeter E is *simple* if it has a single M -connected component which is moreover the interior of a rectifiable Jordan curve.

2.2 Subdifferential of the total variation

In the rest of this document, J is considered as a mapping from $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ to $\mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$. This mapping is convex, proper and lower semi-continuous. One can prove it is in fact the support function of the closed convex set

$$\{-\operatorname{div} z \mid z \in L^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^2), \operatorname{div} z \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2), \|z\|_{L^\infty} \leq 1\},$$

which is hence the subdifferential of J at 0. We also have the following useful characterizations

$$\begin{aligned} \partial J(0) = & \left\{ \eta \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2) \text{ s.t.} \right. \\ & \left. \forall u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2), \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \eta u \right| \leq |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2) \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \partial J(0) = & \left\{ \eta \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2) \text{ s.t. } \forall E \subset \mathbb{R}^2, 0 < |E| < +\infty \right. \\ & \left. \text{and } P(E) < +\infty \implies \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \eta \frac{\mathbf{1}_E}{P(E)} \right| \leq 1 \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, the subdifferential of J at $u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ is given by

$$\partial J(u) = \left\{ \eta \in \partial J(0) \mid \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \eta u = |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2) \right\}.$$

We also have the following useful result:

Proposition 1 (see e.g. [Chambolle et al., 2016])
 Let $u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ be such that $J(u) < \infty$ and $\eta \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$.
 Then $\eta \in \partial J(u)$ if and only if $\eta \in \partial J(0)$ and the level
 sets of u satisfy

$$\begin{cases} \forall t > 0, P(U^{(t)}) = \int_{U^{(t)}} \eta, \\ \forall t < 0, P(U^{(t)}) = - \int_{U^{(t)}} \eta. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

2.3 Dual problem and dual certificates

The Fenchel-Rockafellar dual of (\mathcal{P}_λ) is the following
 finite dimensional problem

$$\max_{p \in \mathbb{R}^m} \langle p, y \rangle - \frac{\lambda}{2} \|p\|^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \Phi^* p \in \partial J(0), \quad (\mathcal{D}_\lambda)$$

which has a unique solution (it is in fact equivalent to
 the projection of $\frac{y}{\lambda}$ on the closed convex set of vectors p
 such that $\Phi^* p \in \partial J(0)$). Moreover, strong duality holds
 as stated by the following proposition

Proposition 2 Problems (\mathcal{P}_λ) and (\mathcal{D}_λ) have the same
 value and any solution u_λ of (\mathcal{P}_λ) is linked with the
 unique solution p_λ of (\mathcal{D}_λ) by the extremality condi-
 tion

$$\begin{cases} \Phi^* p_\lambda \in \partial J(u_\lambda), \\ p_\lambda = -\frac{1}{\lambda} (\Phi u_\lambda - y). \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Remark 1 Proposition 2 implies in particular that all
 solutions of (\mathcal{P}_λ) have the same total variation and the
 same image by Φ .

2.4 Distributional curvature

We denote by \mathcal{H}^1 the 1-dimensional Hausdorff measure
 on \mathbb{R}^2 , and for every Borel set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, by $\mathcal{H}^1 \llcorner A$ the
 measure \mathcal{H}^1 restricted to A , i.e. such that for every
 Borel set E we have

$$(\mathcal{H}^1 \llcorner A)(E) = \mathcal{H}^1(A \cap E).$$

If $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is a set of finite perimeter, then the distri-
 butional curvature vector of E is $\mathbf{H}_E : C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^2) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 defined by

$$\forall T \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^2), \langle \mathbf{H}_E, T \rangle = \int_{\partial^* E} \text{div}_E T d\mathcal{H}^1,$$

where $\text{div}_E T$ denotes the tangential divergence of T
 on E given by

$$\text{div}_E T = \text{div} T - (DT \nu_E) \cdot \nu_E,$$

where DT denotes the differential of T . E is said to
 have locally integrable distributional curvature if there
 exists a function $H_E \in L^1_{loc}(\partial^* E; \mathcal{H}^1)$ such that

$$\mathbf{H}_E = H_E \nu_E \mathcal{H}^1 \llcorner \partial^* E.$$

For instance, if E is an open set with C^2 boundary, it
 has a locally summable distributional curvature which
 is given by the (classical) scalar mean curvature.

3 A modified Frank-Wolfe algorithm

In the spirit of [Bredies and Pikkarainen, 2013, Boyd
 et al., 2017, Denoyelle et al., 2019] which introduced
 variants of the conditional gradient algorithm for sparse
 spikes recovery in a continuous domain, we derive a
 modified Frank-Wolfe algorithm allowing to iteratively
 solve (\mathcal{P}_λ) in a gridless manner.

3.1 Description

The Frank-Wolfe algorithm (see Algorithm 1) allows
 to minimize a convex differentiable function f over a
 weakly compact convex subset C of a Banach space.
 Each step of the algorithm consists in minimizing a lin-
 earization of f on C , and building the next iterate as
 a convex combination of the obtained point and the
 current iterate.

Algorithm 1: Frank-Wolfe algorithm

Data: objective f , domain C , starting point $x_0 \in C$
Result: point x^*

```

1 while true do
2   find  $s_k \in \underset{s \in C}{\text{Argmin}} f(x_k) + df(x_k)[s - x_k]$ ;
3   if  $df(x_k)[s_k - x_k] = 0$  then
4     output  $x^* \leftarrow x_k$ , which is optimal;
5   else
6      $\gamma_k \leftarrow \frac{2}{k+2}$ ;
7     // tentative update
8      $\tilde{x}_{k+1} \leftarrow x_k + \gamma_k(s_k - x_k)$ ;
9     // final update
10    choose any  $x_{k+1}$  such that
11       $f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(\tilde{x}_{k+1})$ ;
12  end
13 end
```

An important feature of the algorithm is that while
 the classical update (Line 8) is to take x_{k+1} to be equal
 to \tilde{x}_{k+1} , all convergence guarantees are preserved if one
 chooses any $x_{k+1} \in C$ such that $f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(\tilde{x}_{k+1})$
 instead.

Even though T_λ is not differentiable, it is possible to
 recast problem (\mathcal{P}_λ) into that framework by performing

an epigraphical lift (see Appendix A). In this setting, the linear minimization step which is at the core of the algorithm amounts to solving the following problem

$$\min_{u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \eta u \quad \text{s.t.} \quad |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2) \leq 1, \quad (4)$$

for an iteration-dependent function $\eta \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Denoting $u^{[k]}$ the k -th iterate, this function is given by

$$\eta^{[k]} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} -\frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^* \left(\Phi u^{[k]} - y \right).$$

As is usual when using the Frank-Wolfe algorithm, we notice that since the objective of (4) is linear and the total variation unit ball is convex and compact (in the weak $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ topology), at least one of its extreme points is optimal. A result due to Fleming [Fleming, 1957] (see also [Ambrosio et al., 2001]) states that those extreme points are exactly the functions of the form $\pm \mathbf{1}_E / P(E)$ where $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ is a simple set with $0 < |E| < +\infty$. This means the linear minimization step can be carried out by finding a simple set solving the following geometric variational problem:

$$\max_{E \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2} \frac{|\int_E \eta|}{P(E)} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad 0 < |E| < +\infty, \quad P(E) < +\infty. \quad (5)$$

Since Problem (5) is reminiscent of the Cheeger problem [Parini, 2011], which, given a domain $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$, consists in finding the subsets E of Ω minimizing the ratio $P(E)/|E|$, we refer to it as the “Cheeger problem” in the rest of the paper, and to any of its solutions as a “Cheeger set”.

In view of the above, we derive Algorithm 2, which produces a sequence of functions that are linear combinations of indicators of simple sets, and which is a valid application of Algorithm 1 to (\mathcal{P}_λ) , in the sense that Proposition 3 holds. The operations performed at Lines 13-15 are discussed in the next subsection

Remark 2 We use here a so-called “fully corrective” variant of Frank-Wolfe, meaning that instead of choosing the next iterate $u^{[k+1]}$ as a convex combination of $\pm \mathbf{1}_{E_*} / P(E_*)$ and the previous iterate $u^{[k]}$ as in Line 7 of Algorithm 1, we optimize (Line 10 of Algorithm 2) the objective over $\text{Vect} \left((\mathbf{1}_{E_i})_{i=1, \dots, N^{[k]}+1} \right)$, which obviously decreases the objective more than the standard update (and hence does not break convergence guarantees).

Remark 3 Computing $a^{[k+1]}$ at Line 10 of Algorithm 2 amounts in most cases to solve a LASSO-type problem. Indeed, given $N \in \mathbb{N}^*$ and E_1, \dots, E_N a collection of simple sets, assuming that we have

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^N, \quad \left| D \left(\sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i} \right) \right|(\mathbb{R}^2) = \sum_{i=1}^N |a_i| P(E_i), \quad (6)$$

Algorithm 2: modified Frank-Wolfe algorithm applied to (\mathcal{P}_λ)

Data: measurement operator Φ , observations y , regularization parameter λ

Result: function u^*

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1  $u^{[0]} \leftarrow 0$ ;
2  $N^{[0]} \leftarrow 0$ ;
3 while true do
4    $\eta^{[k]} \leftarrow -\frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^* (\Phi u^{[k]} - y)$ ;
5    $E_* \leftarrow \underset{E \text{ simple}}{\text{Argmax}} \frac{|\int_E \eta^{[k]}|}{P(E)} \text{ s.t. } 0 < |E| < +\infty$ ;
6   if  $|\int_{E_*} \eta^{[k]}| \leq P(E_*)$  then
7     output  $u^* \leftarrow u^{[k]}$ , which is optimal;
8   else
9      $E^{[k+1]} \leftarrow (E_1^{[k]}, \dots, E_{N^{[k]}+1}^{[k]}, E_*)$ ;
10     $a^{[k+1]} \leftarrow \underset{a \in \mathbb{R}^{N^{[k]}+1}}{\text{argmin}} T_\lambda \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k]}+1} a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i^{[k+1]}} \right)$ ;
11    remove atoms with zero amplitude;
12     $N^{[k+1]} \leftarrow$  number of atoms in  $E^{[k+1]}$ ;
13    perform a local minimization of
         $(a, E) \mapsto T_\lambda \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k+1]}} a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i} \right)$  initialized with
         $(a^{[k+1]}, E^{[k+1]})$  to find  $(a_i, E_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N^{[k+1]}}$ 
        s.t.  $E_i$  is simple and  $|E_i| < +\infty$  for all  $i$ 
        with moreover
         $T_\lambda \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k+1]}} a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i} \right) \leq T_\lambda \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k+1]}} a_i^{[k+1]} \mathbf{1}_{E_i^{[k+1]}} \right)$ ;
14     $E^{[k+1]} \leftarrow E$ ;
15    repeat the operations of Lines 10-12;
16     $u^{[k+1]} \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k+1]}} a_i^{[k+1]} \mathbf{1}_{E_i^{[k+1]}}$ ;
17  end
18 end

```

then we get that

$$T_\lambda(u) = \frac{1}{2} \|\Phi_E a - y\|^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^N P(E_i) |a_i|,$$

with

$$\Phi_E \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \left[\left(\int_{E_i} \varphi_j \right)_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq N \\ 1 \leq j \leq m}} \right]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times N}.$$

Hence finding the vector a minimizing $T_\lambda(u)$ with the sets E_1, \dots, E_N fixed amounts to solving a finite dimensional least squares problem with a weighted ℓ^1 norm penalization (the weights are here the perimeters of the sets $(E_i)_{i=1, \dots, N}$).

Identity (6) however does not always hold. It does as soon as $\mathcal{H}^1(\partial^* E_i \cap \partial^* E_j) = 0$ for all $i \neq j$ (since in that case the measures $(D\mathbf{1}_{E_i})_{i=1, \dots, N}$ are mutually singular). However, given a function u of the form given

above, we stress that it is always possible to find another collection of simple sets such that (6) holds (with a constraint on the sign of the $(a_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$). This can indeed be done by writing u as a linear combination of indicator functions of its level sets, and then by applying the decomposition mentioned in Section 2.1 to each level set. We can hence assume (up to a change of the sets E_1, \dots, E_N) that (6) holds while carrying on the minimization at Line 10 (note however that from a computational point of view, detecting that (6) does not hold for a given function u and finding another representation of u for which it does might be difficult).

Remark 4 The stopping condition is here replaced by

$$\sup_E \frac{|\int_E \eta^{[k]}|}{P(E)} \leq 1, \text{ with } \eta^{[k]} = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^* (\Phi u^{[k]} - y),$$

which is equivalent to $\eta^{[k]} \in \partial J(0)$. Since the optimality of $a^{[k]}$ at Line 10 (and hence at Line 15) always ensures $\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \eta^{[k]} u^{[k]} = J(u^{[k]})$, this yields $\eta^{[k]} \in \partial J(u^{[k]})$ and hence (3) holds, which means $u^{[k]}$ solves (\mathcal{P}_λ) .

3.2 Sliding step

Several works [Bredies and Pikkarainen, 2013, Boyd et al., 2017, Denoyelle et al., 2019] have advocated for the use of a special final update, which helps identify the sparse structure of the sought-after signal. Loosely speaking, it would amount in our case to, at the very end of an iteration, run the gradient flow of the mapping

$$(a, E) \mapsto T_\lambda \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k+1]}} a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i} \right) \quad (7)$$

initialized with $(a^{[k+1]}, E^{[k+1]})$, so as to find a set of parameters at which the objective is smaller. Formally, this would correspond¹ to finding a curve

$$t \mapsto (a_i(t), E_i(t))_{1 \leq i \leq N^{[k+1]}}$$

such that for all t

$$\begin{cases} a'_i(t) = -\lambda \left(\text{sign}(a_i(t)) P(E_i(t)) - \int_{E_i(t)} \eta(t) \right), \\ V_i(t) = -\lambda |a_i(t)| (H_{E_i(t)} - \text{sign}(a_i(t)) \eta(t)), \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

where $V_i(t)$ denotes the normal velocity of the boundary of E_i at time t and

$$\eta(t) = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^* (\Phi u(t) - y), \quad u(t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k+1]}} a_i(t) \mathbf{1}_{E_i(t)}.$$

¹ The formulas given in (8) can be formally obtained by using the notion of shape derivative, see [Henrot and Pierre, 2018, Chapter 5].

Proving that such a curve exists for a given initial set of parameters is a difficult question. Even if one could prove its existence, the result is likely to hold up to some time, past which singularities could appear. Letting these issues aside, what we need to perform this sliding step is simply to find $(a_i, E_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N^{[k+1]}}$ such that E_i is simple and $|E_i| < +\infty$ for all i with

$$T_\lambda \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k+1]}} a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i} \right) \leq T_\lambda \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N^{[k+1]}} a_i^{[k+1]} \mathbf{1}_{E_i^{[k+1]}} \right). \quad (9)$$

The sliding step (Line 13 of Algorithm 2) was first introduced in [Bredies and Pikkarainen, 2013]. It allows in practice to considerably improve the convergence speed of the algorithm, and also produces sparser solutions: if the solution is expected to be a linear combination of a few indicator functions, removing the sliding step will typically produce iterates made of a much larger number of indicator functions, the majority of them correcting the crude approximations of the support of the solution made over the first iterations.

In [Denoyelle et al., 2019], the introduction of this step allowed the authors to derive improved convergence guarantees (i.e. finite time convergence) in the context of sparse spikes recovery. Their proof relies on the fact that at every iteration, a “critical point” of the objective can be reached at the end of the sliding step. In our case, the above mentioned existence issues make the adaptation of these results difficult. However, if the existence of a curve (formally) satisfying (8) could be guaranteed for all times, then one would expect it to converge when t goes to infinity to a critical point of the mapping defined in (7), in the sense of the following definition.

Definition 1 Let $N \in \mathbb{N}^*$, $a \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and E_1, \dots, E_N be subsets of \mathbb{R}^2 such that $|E_i| < +\infty$, $P(E_i) < +\infty$ for all $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ and (6) holds. We say that $(a_i, E_i)_{1 \leq i \leq N}$ is a critical point of the mapping

$$(a, E) \mapsto T_\lambda \left(\sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i} \right)$$

if for all $i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ we either have $a_i \neq 0$ and

$$\begin{cases} P(E_i) = \text{sign}(a_i) \int_{E_i} \eta, \\ H_{E_i} = \text{sign}(a_i) \eta, \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

or $a_i = 0$ and $|\int_{E_i} \eta| \leq P(E_i)$, where

$$\eta \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} -\frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^* (\Phi u - y), \quad u \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_i}.$$

In Remark 6, we discuss how assuming a critical point is indeed reached at the end of the sliding step for every iteration could be used to derive additional properties of sequences produced by Algorithm 2. We stress that if, for a given iteration, a critical point is reached at the end of the sliding step, then Line 15 can be skipped, since the first equality in (10) and the inequality given above in the case of a zero amplitude ensure $a^{[k+1]}$ is already optimal for the problem to be solved.

3.3 Convergence results

As already mentioned, Algorithm 2 is a valid application of Algorithm 1 to (\mathcal{P}_λ) , in the sense that the following property holds (see [Jaggi, 2013]):

Proposition 3 *Let $(u^{[k]})_{k \geq 0}$ be a sequence produced by Algorithm 2. Then there exists $C > 0$ such that for any solution u^* of Problem (\mathcal{P}_λ) ,*

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{N}^*, T_\lambda(u^{[k]}) - T_\lambda(u^*) \leq \frac{C}{k}. \quad (11)$$

Remark 5 As discussed in [Jaggi, 2013], the linear minimization step (solving (4) or equivalently (5)) can be solved approximately. In fact if there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for every k the set computed at Line 5 is an ϵ_k -maximizer of (5) with $\epsilon_k = \frac{\gamma}{k+2}\delta$, then

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{N}^*, T_\lambda(u^{[k]}) - T_\lambda(u^*) \leq \frac{2\gamma}{k+2}(1+\delta), \quad (12)$$

where γ is the curvature constant of the objective used in the reformulation of (\mathcal{P}_λ) . One can in fact show that this curvature constant is smaller than a quantity which is proportional to $\|\Phi\|^2 (\|y\|^2/\lambda)^2$.

We first provide a general property of minimizing sequences (see e.g. [Iglesias et al., 2018] for a proof), which hence applies to the sequence of iterates produced by Algorithm 2.

Proposition 4 *Let $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a minimizing sequence for (\mathcal{P}_λ) . Then there exists a subsequence (not relabeled) which converges weakly in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and strongly in $L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ to a solution u_* of (\mathcal{P}_λ) . Moreover, we have $Du_n \xrightarrow{*} Du_*$.*

We now provide additional properties of sequences produced by Algorithm 2. We first begin by noticing that if $(u^{[k]})_{k \geq 0}$ is such a sequence, then the optimality conditions at Lines 10 and 15 ensure

$$\forall k, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, N^{[k]}\}, P(E_i^{[k]}) = \left| \int_{E_i^{[k]}} \eta^{[k]} \right|.$$

But from Proposition 3 and Proposition 4 we have the existence of a (not relabeled) subsequence which converges strongly in $L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and weakly in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ towards a solution u^* of (\mathcal{P}_λ) . The weak convergence of $(u^{[k]})_{k \geq 0}$ in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ implies that $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \Phi u^{[k]} = \Phi u^*$, which in turns yields the strong convergence in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ of $(\eta^{[k]})_{k \geq 0}$ towards the solution η^* of (\mathcal{D}_λ) . We can then use the following lemma to show all the sets $E_i^{[k]}$ are included in some common ball.

Lemma 1 *Let $(\eta_k)_{k \geq 0}$ be a sequence of functions converging strongly to η_∞ in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$. For all $k \geq 0$, we denote*

$$\mathcal{F}_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left\{ E \text{ simple} \mid 0 < |E| < +\infty, P(E) = \left| \int_E \eta_k \right| \right\},$$

and $\mathcal{F} = \cup_{k \geq 0} \mathcal{F}_k$. Then there exist positive real numbers R and C such that

$$\forall E \in \mathcal{F}, P(E) \leq C \text{ and } E \subset B(0, R).$$

Proof. This proof is based on [Chambolle et al., 2016, Section 5].

Upper bound on the perimeter: the family of functions $\{\eta_k^2, k \in \mathbb{N}\} \cup \{\eta_\infty^2\}$ being equi-integrable, for all $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $R_1 > 0$ such that

$$\forall k, \int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R_1)} \eta_k^2 \leq \epsilon^2.$$

Let $E \in \mathcal{F}$. Then there exists k s.t. $P(E) = \left| \int_E \eta_k \right|$ and we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_E \eta_k \right| &\leq \left| \int_{E \cap B(0, R_1)} \eta_k \right| + \left| \int_{E \setminus B(0, R_1)} \eta_k \right| \\ &\leq \sqrt{|B(0, R_1)|} \|\eta_k\|_{L^2} \\ &\quad + \sqrt{|E \setminus B(0, R_1)|} \sqrt{\int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R_1)} \eta_k^2} \\ &\leq \sup_k \|\eta_k\|_{L^2} \sqrt{|B(0, R_1)|} + \epsilon \sqrt{|E \setminus B(0, R_1)|}. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover,

$$\sqrt{|E \setminus B(0, R_1)|} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{c_2}} (P(E) + P(B(0, R_1))),$$

where $c_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 4\pi$ is the isoperimetric constant. Hence taking $\epsilon \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\sqrt{c_2}}{2}$ and defining

$$C \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 2 \left(\sqrt{|B(0, R_1)|} \sup_k \|\eta_k\|_{L^2} + \frac{1}{2} P(B(0, R_1)) \right),$$

we have $P(E) \leq \frac{1}{2} P(E) + \frac{C}{2}$ and hence $P(E) \leq C$.

Inclusion in a ball: we still take $\epsilon = \frac{\sqrt{c_2}}{2}$ and fix a real $R_2 > 0$ such that $\int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R_2)} \eta_k^2 \leq \epsilon^2$ for all k . Now let $E \in \mathcal{F}$ and k such that

$$P(E) = \left| \int_E \eta_k \right|.$$

Let us show that $E \cap B(0, R_2) \neq \emptyset$. By contradiction, if $E \cap B(0, R_2) = \emptyset$, we would have:

$$\begin{aligned} P(E) &= \left| \int_{E \setminus B(0, R_2)} \eta_k \right| \leq \sqrt{\int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R_2)} \eta_k^2} \sqrt{|E|} \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{c_2}} P(E). \end{aligned}$$

Dividing by $P(E)$ (which is positive since $0 < |E| < \infty$) yields a contradiction. Since E is simple, the perimeter bound yields $\text{diam}(E) \leq C$, which shows $E \subset B(0, R)$ with $R \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} C + R_2$. \square

We have now shown there exists $R > 0$ such that for all k we have $\text{Supp}(u^{[k]}) \subset B(0, R)$, which means the strong L^1_{loc} convergence of $(u^{[k]})_{k \geq 0}$ towards u^* is in fact a strong L^1 convergence. This slightly improved convergence result is summarized in the following proposition:

Proposition 5 *Let $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a sequence produced by Algorithm 2. Then there exists a (not relabeled) subsequence and $R > 0$ such that $\text{Supp}(u_n) \subset B(0, R)$ for all n . Moreover, this subsequence converges strongly in $L^1(\mathbb{R}^2)$ to a solution u_* of (\mathcal{P}_λ) (and by Proposition 4 weakly in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$), with moreover $Du_n \xrightarrow{*} Du_*$.*

Corollary 1 *Let $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$ be a subsequence such as in Proposition 5. Up to another extraction, for almost every $t \in \mathbb{R}$, we have*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} |U_n^{(t)} \triangle U_*^{(t)}| = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \partial U_*^{(t)} \subseteq \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \partial U_n^{(t)},$$

where²

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \partial U_n^{(t)} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \text{dist}(x, \partial U_n^{(t)}) = 0\}.$$

Proof. The strong convergence of $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$ towards a solution u_* in $L^1(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and Fubini's theorem give

$$0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} |u_n - u_*| = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| U_n^{(t)} \triangle U_*^{(t)} \right| dt.$$

Hence, up to the extraction of a further subsequence, that we do not relabel, we get that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} |U_n^{(t)} \triangle U_*^{(t)}| = 0 \text{ for almost every } t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

² For more details on this type of set convergence, see e.g. [Rockafellar and Wets, 1998, Chapter 4].

We now fix such $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $x \in \partial U_*^{(t)}$. We want to show that $x \in \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \partial U_n^{(t)}$, which is equivalent to

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \text{dist}(x, \partial U_n^{(t)}) = 0.$$

By contradiction, if the last identity does not hold, we have the existence of $r > 0$ and of φ such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, B(x, r) \cap \partial U_{\varphi(n)}^{(t)} = \emptyset.$$

Hence for all n , we either have

$$B(x, r) \subset U_{\varphi(n)}^{(t)} \quad \text{or} \quad B(x, r) \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus U_{\varphi(n)}^{(t)}.$$

If $B(x, r) \subset U_{\varphi(n)}^{(t)}$ for a given n then

$$\begin{aligned} |U_{\varphi(n)}^{(t)} \triangle U_*^{(t)}| &\geq |U_{\varphi(n)}^{(t)} \setminus U_*^{(t)}| \geq |B(x, r) \setminus U_*^{(t)}| \\ &\geq C |B(x, r)|. \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality, which is a weak regularity property of $U_*^{(t)}$, holds for all r smaller than some $r_0 > 0$, for some constant C that is independent of r and x (see [Chambolle et al., 2016, Prop. 7]). We can in the same way show

$$|U_{\varphi(n)}^{(t)} \triangle U_*^{(t)}| \geq C |B(x, r)|$$

if $B(x, r) \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus U_{\varphi(n)}^{(t)}$ and hence get the inequality for all n . Using that $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} |U_n^{(t)} \triangle U_*^{(t)}| = 0$, we get a contradiction. \square

Remark 6 As mentioned in Section 3.2, the introduction of the sliding step is supposed to allow the derivation of improved convergence properties. If its output is a critical point in the sense of Definition 1, a first remark we can make is that for all $i \in \{1, \dots, N^{[k]}\}$ the set $E_i^{[k]}$ has distributional curvature $\text{sign}(a_i^{[k]}) \eta^{[k]}$. This can be exploited to obtain “uniform” density estimates for the level sets of $u^{[k]}$ in the spirit of [Maggi, 2012, Corollary 17.18]. One could then wonder whether this weak regularity of the level sets could be used to prove

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \partial U_n^{(t)} \subseteq \partial U_*^{(t)}, \quad (13)$$

where

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \partial U_n^{(t)} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \text{dist}(x, \partial U_n^{(t)}) = 0\}.$$

This, combined with the result of Corollary 1 and the fact $(\partial U_n^{(t)})_{n \geq 0}$ is uniformly bounded would mean that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \partial U_n^{(t)} = \partial U_*^{(t)}$$

in the Hausdorff sense (see [Rockafellar and Wets, 1998] for more details).

A major obstacle towards this result is that, although Lemma 1 provides a uniform upper bound on the perimeter of the atoms involved in the definition of the iterates, to our knowledge, it does not seem possible to derive such a bound for the perimeter of their level sets, which prevents one from using the potential weak-* convergence of $D\mathbf{1}_{U_n^{(t)}}$ towards $D\mathbf{1}_{U_*^{(t)}}$.

4 Implementation

The implementation³ of Algorithm 2 requires two oracles to carry out the operations described on Lines 5 and 13: a first one that, given a weight function η , returns a solution of (5), and a second one that, given a collection of real numbers and simple sets, returns another such collection with a lower objective value. Our approach for designing these oracles relies on polygonal approximations: we fix an integer $n \geq 3$ (that might be iteration-dependent), look for a maximizer of \mathcal{J} defined by

$$\mathcal{J}(E) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \frac{1}{P(E)} \left| \int_E \eta \right|$$

among simple polygons with at most n sides, and perform the sliding step by finding a collection of real numbers and simple polygons satisfying (9). This choice is mainly motivated by our goal to solve (P_λ) “off-the-grid”, which naturally leads us to consider purely Lagrangian methods which do not rely on the introduction of a pre-defined discrete grid.

4.1 Polygonal approximation of Cheeger sets

In the following, we fix an integer $n \geq 3$ and denote

$$\mathcal{X}_n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 2} \mid [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_n, x_1] \text{ is simple}\}.$$

We recall that a polygonal curve is said to be simple if non-adjacent sides do not intersect. If $x \in \mathcal{X}_n$, then⁴ $\cup_{i=1}^n [x_i, x_{i+1}]$ is a Jordan curve. It hence divides the plane in two regions, one of which is bounded. We denote this region E_x (it is hence a simple polygon). When x spans \mathcal{X}_n , E_x spans \mathcal{P}_n , the set of simple polygons with at most n sides. The sets we wish to approximate in this section (in order to carry out Line 5 in Algorithm 2) are the maximizers of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{P}_n . We prove their existence in Appendix B.

³ A complete implementation of Algorithm 2 can be found online at <https://github.com/rpetit/tvsfw> (see also <https://github.com/rpetit/PyCheeger>).

⁴ If $i > n$ we define $x_i \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} x_{i \bmod n}$, i.e. $x_{n+1} = x_1$.

The approximation method presented thereafter consists of several steps. First, we solve a discrete version of (4), where the minimization is performed over the set of piecewise constant functions on a given mesh. Then, we extract a level set of the solution, and obtain a simple polygon whose edges are located on the edges of the mesh. Finally, we use a first order method initialized with the previously obtained polygon to locally maximize \mathcal{J} .

4.1.1 Fixed mesh step

Every solution of (4) has its support included in some ball (indeed if u solves (4), then there exists α such that $\alpha \eta \in \partial J(u)$, and the result follows from Proposition 1 and Lemma 1). We can hence solve (4) in $[-R, R]^2$ for a sufficiently large $R > 0$. We now proceed as in [Carlier et al., 2009]. Let N be a positive integer, and define $h \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} 2R/N$. We denote E^h the set of N by N matrices. For $u = (u_{i,j})_{(i,j) \in [1,N]^2} \in E^h$ we define

$$\partial_x^h u_{i,j} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} u_{i+1,j} - u_{i,j} \quad \partial_y^h u_{i,j} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} u_{i,j+1} - u_{i,j} \quad (14)$$

for all $(i,j) \in [0, N]^2$, with the convention $u_{i,j} = 0$ if either i or j is in $\{0, N+1\}$. We now define

$$\nabla^h u_{i,j} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} (\partial_x^h u_{i,j}, \partial_y^h u_{i,j}),$$

and set

$$J^h(u) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} h \sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^N \|\nabla^h u_{i,j}\|_2 = h \|\nabla^h u\|_{2,1}.$$

We then solve the following discretized version of (4) for increasingly small values of h

$$\min_{u \in E^h} h^2 \langle \bar{\eta}^h, u \rangle \quad \text{s.t.} \quad J^h(u) \leq 1, \quad (15)$$

where $\bar{\eta}^h = \left(\frac{1}{h^2} \int_{C_{i,j}^h} \eta \right)_{(i,j) \in [1,N]^2}$ and $(C_{i,j}^h)_{(i,j) \in [1,N]^2}$ is a partition of $[-R, R]^2$ composed of squares of equal size, i.e.

$$C_{i,j}^h \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} [-R+(i-1)h, -R+ih] \times [-R+(j-1)h, -R+jh].$$

For convenience reasons, we will also use the above expression to define $C_{i,j}^h$ if i or j belongs to $\{0, N+1\}$.

In practice we solve (15) using the primal-dual algorithm introduced in [Chambolle and Pock, 2011]: we take (τ, σ) such that $\tau \sigma \|D\|^2 < 1$ holds with $D \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} h \nabla^h$ and define

$$\begin{cases} \phi^{n+1} = \text{prox}_{\sigma \|\cdot\|_{2,\infty}}(\phi^n + \sigma D \bar{u}^n), \\ u^{n+1} = (u^n - \tau D^* \phi^{n+1}) - \tau h^2 \bar{\eta}^h, \\ \bar{u}^{n+1} = 2u^{n+1} - u^n, \end{cases} \quad (16)$$

where $\text{prox}_{\sigma\|\cdot\|_{2,\infty}}$ is given by:

$$\text{prox}_{\sigma\|\cdot\|_{2,\infty}}(\phi) = \phi - \sigma \text{proj}_{\{\|\cdot\|_{2,1} \leq 1\}} \left(\frac{\phi}{\sigma} \right).$$

See [Condat, 2016] for the computation of the projection onto the $(2,1)$ -unit ball.

The following proposition shows that, when the grid becomes finer, solutions of (15) converge to a solution of (4). Its proof is almost the same as the one of [Carlier et al., 2009, Theorem 4.1]. Since the latter however gives a slightly different result about the minimization of a quadratic objective (linear in our case) on the total variation unit ball, we decided to include it for the sake of completeness.

Proposition 6 *Let u^h be the piecewise constant function on $(C_{i,j}^h)_{(i,j) \in [1,N]^2}$, extended to 0 outside $[-R, R]^2$ associated to a solution of (15). Then there exists a (not relabeled) subsequence converging strongly in $L^1(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and weakly in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ to a solution u^* of (4) when $h \rightarrow 0$, with moreover $Du^h \xrightarrow{*} Du$.*

Proof. We first notice that for any function v that is piecewise constant on $(C_{i,j})_{(i,j) \in [1,N]^2}$ and that is equal to 0 outside $[-R, R]^2$, we have $J(v) = h \|\nabla^h v\|_{1,1}$ where by abuse of notation $\nabla^h v$ is given by (14) with $v_{i,j}$ the value of v in $C_{i,j}$. Hence $J^h(u^h) \leq 1$ for all h implies that $J(u^h)$ (and hence $\|u^h\|_{L^2}$) is uniformly bounded in h . There hence exists a (not relabeled) subsequence that converges strongly in $L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and weakly in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ to a function u , with moreover $Du^h \xrightarrow{*} Du$.

Let us now take $\phi = (\phi^{(1)}, \phi^{(2)}) \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^2)$ such that $\|\phi\|_\infty \leq 1$. The weak-* convergence of the gradients give us that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \phi \cdot dDu &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \phi \cdot dDu^h \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^N \left(\int_{C_{i,j}^h \cap C_{i+1,j}^h} \phi^{(1)} d\mathcal{H}^1 \right) \cdot \nabla^h u_{i,j}^h. \end{aligned}$$

One can moreover show there exists $C > 0$ such that for h small enough and all (i, j) we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \left[\int_{C_{i,j}^h \cap C_{i+1,j}^h} \phi^{(1)} d\mathcal{H}^1 \right] - h \phi^{(1)}(x_{i+1,j+1}^h) \right| &\leq Ch^2, \\ \left| \left[\int_{C_{i,j}^h \cap C_{i,j+1}^h} \phi^{(2)} d\mathcal{H}^1 \right] - h \phi^{(2)}(x_{i+1,j+1}^h) \right| &\leq Ch^2, \end{aligned}$$

with $x_{i,j}^h \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} (-R + ih, -R + jh)$. We use the above inequalities and the fact $\|\phi(x)\| \leq 1$ for all x to obtain the existence of $C' > 0$ such that for h small enough and for all (i, j) we have:

$$\left\| \left(\int_{C_{i,j}^h \cap C_{i+1,j}^h} \phi^{(1)} d\mathcal{H}^1 \right) \right\|_2 \leq h \sqrt{1 + C'h}.$$

This finally yields

$$\begin{aligned} &\sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^N \left(\int_{C_{i,j}^h \cap C_{i+1,j}^h} \phi^{(1)} d\mathcal{H}^1 \right) \cdot \nabla^h u_{i,j}^h \\ &\leq \sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^N h \sqrt{1 + C'h} \|\nabla^h u_{i,j}^h\| = \sqrt{1 + C'h} J^h(u^h), \end{aligned}$$

which gives

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \phi \cdot dDu \leq \limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{1 + C'h} J^h(u^h) \leq 1.$$

We now have to show that

$$\forall v \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2), J(v) \leq 1 \implies \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \eta u \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \eta v.$$

Let $v \in C^\infty([-R, R]^2)$ be such that $J(v) \leq 1$. We define

$$v^h \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \left(v \left(\left(i + \frac{1}{2} \right) h, \left(j + \frac{1}{2} \right) h \right) \right)_{(i,j) \in [1,N]^2}.$$

One can then show that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} J^h(v^h) = J(v) = 1,$$

so that for every $\delta > 0$ we have $J^h\left(\frac{v^h}{1+\delta}\right) \leq 1$ for h small enough. Now this yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{[-R,R]^2} \eta u &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_{[-R,R]^2} \eta v^h \\ &\leq \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_{[-R,R]^2} \eta \frac{v^h}{1+\delta} \\ &= \int_{[-R,R]^2} \eta \frac{v}{1+\delta}. \end{aligned}$$

Since this holds for all $\delta > 0$ we get that

$$\int_{[-R,R]^2} \eta u \leq \int_{[-R,R]^2} \eta v. \quad (17)$$

Finally, if $v \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ is such that $v = 0$ outside $[-R, R]^2$ and $J(v) \leq 1$, by standard approximation results (see [Ambrosio et al., 2000, remark 3.22]) we also have that (17) holds, and hence u solves (4). Finally, since u solves (4), its support is included in $[-R, R]^2$, which shows the strong $L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R}^2)$ convergence of (u^h) towards u^* in fact implies its strong $L^1(\mathbb{R}^2)$ convergence. \square

Since we are interested in finding a simple set E that approximately solves (5), and now have a good way of approximating solutions of (4), we make use of the following result:

Proposition 7 *Let u be a solution of (4). Then the level sets of u are such that for all $t \in \mathbb{R}^*$ with $|U^{(t)}| > 0$, the set $U^{(t)}$ solves (5).*

Proof. This is a direct consequence of Proposition 1. \square

If we have v^h converging strongly in $L^1(\mathbb{R}^2)$ to a solution v^* of (4), then up to the extraction of a (not relabeled) subsequence, for almost every $t \in \mathbb{R}$ we have that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left| V_h^{(t)} \triangle V_*^{(t)} \right| = 0.$$

The above results hence show we can construct a sequence of sets $(E_k)_{k \geq 0}$ such that $|E_k \triangle E_*|$ converges to 0, with E_* a solution of (5). However, this convergence only implies that

$$\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{J}(E_k) \leq \mathcal{J}(E_*),$$

and given that E_k is a union of squares this inequality is likely to be strict, because the perimeter of E_k will not converge to the perimeter of E_* . From Remark 5, we know we have to design a numerical method that allows to find a set at which the value of \mathcal{J} is arbitrarily close to $\mathcal{J}(E_*)$. This hence motivates the introduction of the refinement step described in the next subsection.

As a final remark, we stress that, even for k large enough, E_k could in general be not simple. However, since for every set of finite perimeter E , $\mathcal{J}(E)$ is a convex combination of the

$$(\mathcal{J}(\text{int}(\gamma_i^+)))_{i \in I}, \quad (\mathcal{J}(\text{int}(\gamma_{i,j}^-)))_{i \in I, j \in J_i},$$

it is always possible to find a simple set F in the decomposition of E which is such that $\mathcal{J}(F) \geq \mathcal{J}(E)$. We can hence assume that the output of the fixed mesh step is a simple set.

4.1.2 Refinement step

We use a shape gradient algorithm (see [Allaire et al., 2021]) to refine the set produced by the fixed mesh step described above. It consists in iteratively constructing a sequence of simple polygons by finding at each step a displacement of steepest ascent for \mathcal{J} , along which the vertices of the previous polygon are moved to obtain the next one. Given $x^t \in \mathcal{X}_n$ and a step size α^t , we define the next iterate by:

$$\begin{aligned} x_j^{t+1} &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} x_j^t + \alpha^t \theta_j^t, \\ \theta_j^t &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \frac{1}{P(E_{x^t})^2} \left(P(E_{x^t}) \theta_{\text{area},j}^t + \left[\int_{E_{x^t}} \eta \right] \theta_{\text{per},j}^t \right), \\ \theta_{\text{area},j}^t &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} w_j^{t-} \nu_{j-1}^t + w_j^{t+} \nu_j^t, \\ \theta_{\text{per},j}^t &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} -(\tau_j^t - \tau_{j-1}^t), \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

where, for all j , τ_j^t and ν_j^t are respectively the unit tangent and outer normal vectors on $[x_j^t, x_{j+1}^t]$ and

$$\begin{aligned} w_j^{t+} &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{[x_j^t, x_{j+1}^t]} \eta(x) \frac{\|x - x_{j+1}^t\|}{\|x_j^t - x_{j+1}^t\|} d\mathcal{H}^1(x), \\ w_j^{t-} &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{[x_j^t, x_{j-1}^t]} \eta(x) \frac{\|x - x_{j-1}^t\|}{\|x_j^t - x_{j-1}^t\|} d\mathcal{H}^1(x). \end{aligned}$$

One can actually show that the displacement θ^t we apply to the vertices of E_{x^t} is such that

$$\theta^t = \underset{\|\theta\| \leq 1}{\text{Argmax}} \lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mathcal{J}(E_{x^t + \alpha \theta}) - \mathcal{J}(E_{x^t})}{\alpha}, \tag{19}$$

i.e. that it is the displacement of steepest ascent for \mathcal{J} at E_{x^t} . We provide a proof of this result in Appendix C.

The weights w_j^{t+} , w_j^{t-} and the integral of η over E_{x^t} are computed using numerical integration methods. We found that integrating the weight function η on each triangle of a sufficiently fine triangulation of E_{x^t} yields good numerical results (this triangulation must be updated at each iteration, and sometimes re-computed from scratch to avoid the presence of ill-shaped triangles).

Comments. Two potential concerns about the above procedure are whether the iterates remain simple polygons (i.e. $x^t \in \mathcal{X}_n$ for all t) and whether they converge to a global maximizer of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{P}_n . We could not prove that the iterates remain simple polygons along the process, but since the initial polygon can be taken arbitrarily close to a simple set solving (5) (in terms of the Lebesgue measure of the symmetric difference), we do not expect nor observe in practice any change of topology during the optimization. Moreover, even if \mathcal{J} could have non-optimal critical points⁵, the above initialization allows us to start our local descent with a polygon that hopefully lies in the basin of attraction of a global maximizer. Additionally, we stress again that to carry out Line 5 of Algorithm 2, thanks to Remark 5, we only need to find a set with near optimal value in (5).

An interesting problem is to quantify the distance (e.g. in the Hausdorff sense) of a maximizer of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{P}_n to a maximizer of \mathcal{J} . We discuss in Section 6 the simpler case of radial measurements. In the general case, if the sequence of polygons defined above converges to a simple polygon E_x , then E_x is such that

$$w_j^+ = w_j^- = \frac{\int_{E_x} \eta}{P(E_x)} \tan\left(\frac{\theta_j}{2}\right) \tag{20}$$

⁵ Here critical point is to be understood in the sense that the limit appearing in (19) is equal to zero for every θ such that $\|\theta\|$ is small enough.

for all j , where θ_j is the j -th exterior angle of the polygon (the angle between $x_j - x_{j-1}$ and $x_{j+1} - x_j$). This can be seen as a discrete version of the following first order optimality condition for solutions of (5):

$$\eta = \frac{\int_E \eta}{P(E)} H_E \text{ on } \partial^* E. \quad (21)$$

Note that (21) is similar to the optimality condition for the classical Cheeger problem (i.e. with $\eta = 1$ and the additional constraint $E \subseteq \Omega$), namely $H_E = P(E)/|E|$ in the free boundary of E (see [Alter et al., 2005] or [Parini, 2011, Prop. 2.4]).

4.2 Sliding step

The implementation of the sliding step (Line 13 in Algorithm 2) is similar to what is described above for refining crude approximations of Cheeger sets. We use a first order method to locally minimize the following mapping

$$(a, x) \mapsto T_\lambda \left(\sum_{i=1}^N a_i \mathbf{1}_{E_{x_i}} \right). \quad (22)$$

Given a step size α^t , a vector $a^t \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and x_1^t, \dots, x_N^t in \mathcal{X}_n , we set $u^t \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^N a_i^t \mathbf{1}_{E_{x_i^t}}$ and perform the following update:

$$\begin{aligned} a_i^{t+1} &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} a_i^t - \alpha^t h_i^t, \\ h_i^t &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \left\langle \Phi \mathbf{1}_{E_{x_i^t}}, \Phi u^t - y \right\rangle + \lambda P(E_{x_i^t}) \operatorname{sign}(a_i^t), \\ x_{i,j}^{t+1} &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} x_{i,j}^t - \alpha^t \theta_{i,j}^t, \\ \theta_{i,j}^t &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} a_i^t [\theta_{\text{data},i,j}^t - \lambda \operatorname{sign}(a_i^t) (\tau_{i,j}^t - \tau_{i,j-1}^t)], \\ \theta_{\text{data},i,j}^t &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \langle \Phi u^t - y, w_{i,j}^{t-} \rangle \nu_{i,j-1}^t + \langle \Phi u^t - y, w_{i,j}^{t+} \rangle \nu_{i,j}^t, \end{aligned}$$

where $\tau_{i,j}^t$, $\nu_{i,j}^t$ are respectively the unit tangent and outer normal vectors on the edge $[x_{i,j}^t, x_{i,j+1}^t]$ and

$$\begin{aligned} w_{i,j}^{t+} &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{[x_{i,j}^t, x_{i,j+1}^t]} \varphi(x) \frac{\|x - x_{i,j+1}^t\|}{\|x_{i,j}^t - x_{i,j+1}^t\|} d\mathcal{H}^1(x), \\ w_{i,j}^{t-} &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{[x_{i,j-1}^t, x_{i,j}^t]} \varphi(x) \frac{\|x - x_{i,j-1}^t\|}{\|x_{i,j}^t - x_{i,j-1}^t\|} d\mathcal{H}^1(x). \end{aligned}$$

Comments. We first stress that the above update is similar to the evolution formally described in (8). Now, unlike the local optimization we perform to approximate Cheeger sets, the sliding step may tend to induce topology changes (see Section 5.2 for an example). This is of course linked to the possible appearance of singularities mentioned in Section 3.2. Typically, a simple set may tend to split in two simple sets over the course of

the descent. This is a major difference (and challenge) compared to the sliding steps used in sparse spikes recovery (where the optimization is carried out over the space of Radon measures) [Bredies and Pikkarainen, 2013, Boyd et al., 2017, Denoyelle et al., 2019]. This phenomenon is closely linked to topological properties of the faces of the total (gradient) variation unit ball: its extreme points do not form a closed set for any reasonable topology (e.g. the weak $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ topology), nor do its faces of dimension $d \leq k$ for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$. As a result, when moving continuously on the set of faces of dimension $d = k$, it is possible to “stumble upon” a point which only belongs to a face of dimension $d > k$.

Our current implementation does not allow to handle these topology changes in a consistent way, and finding a way to deal with them “off-the-grid” is an interesting avenue for future research. It is important to note that not allowing topological changes during the sliding step is not an issue, since all convergence guarantees hold as soon as the output of the sliding step decreases the energy more than the standard update. One can hence stop the local descent at any point before any change of topology occurs, which avoids having to treat them. Still, in order to yield iterates that are as sparse as possible (and probably to decrease the objective as quickly as possible), it seems preferable to allow topological changes.

5 Numerical experiments

5.1 Recovery examples

Here, we investigate the practical performance of Algorithm 2. We focus on the case where Φ is a sampled Gaussian convolution operator, i.e.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^2, \varphi(x) = \left(\exp \left(-\frac{\|x - x_i\|^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right)_{i \in \{1, \dots, m\}}$$

for a given $\sigma > 0$ and a sampling grid $(x_i)_{i \in \{1, \dots, m\}}$. The noise is drawn from a multivariate Gaussian with zero mean and isotropic covariance matrix $\tau^2 I_m$. We take λ of the order of $\sqrt{2 \log(m)} \tau^2$.

Numerically certifying that a given function is an approximate solution of (\mathcal{P}_λ) is difficult. However, as the sampling grid becomes finer, Φ tends to the convolution with the Gaussian kernel, which is injective. Relying on a Γ -convergence argument, one may expect that if u_0 is a piecewise constant image and w is some small additive noise, the solutions of (\mathcal{P}_λ) with $y = \Phi u_0 + w$ are close to u_0 , modulo the regularization effects of the total variation. We also assess the performance of our algorithm by comparing its output to that of a primal

dual algorithm minimizing a discretized version of (\mathcal{P}_λ) on a pixel grid, where the total variation term is replaced by the so called discrete isotropic total variation⁶.

Our first experiment consists in recovering a function u_0 that is a linear combination of three indicator functions (see Figures 1 and 2). During each of the three iterations required to obtain a good approximation of u_0 , a new atom is added to its support. One can see the sliding step is crucial: the large atom on the left, added during the second iteration, is significantly refined during the sliding step of the third iteration, when enough atoms have been introduced.

The second experiment (see Figure 3) consists in recovering the indicator function of a set with a hole (which can also be seen as the sum of two indicator functions of simple sets). The support of u_0 and its gradient are accurately estimated. Still, the typical effects of total (gradient) variation regularization are noticeable: corners are slightly rounded, and there is a “loss of contrast” in the eye of the pacman.

The third experiment (Fig. 4) also showcases the rounding of corners, and highlights the influence of the regularization parameter: as λ decreases, the curvature of the edge set increases.

Finally, we provide in Fig. 5 the results of an experiment on a more challenging task, which consists in reconstructing a natural grayscale image. In this setting we obviously do not expect the solution of (\mathcal{P}_λ) to be close to the original image. It indeed has a non-zero background, which suggests Neumann boundary conditions would be more suitable than the Dirichlet boundary conditions we use in (\mathcal{P}_λ) .

5.2 Topology changes during the sliding step

Here, we illustrate the changes of topology that may occur during the sliding step (Line 13 of Algorithm 2). All relevant plots are given in Figure 6. The unknown function (see (a)) is the sum of two indicator functions:

$$u_0 = \mathbf{1}_{B((-1,0),0.6)} + \mathbf{1}_{B((1,0),0.6)},$$

and observations are shown in (b). The Cheeger set computed at Line 5 of the first iteration covers the two disks (see (c)).

⁶ We stress that there exists more sophisticated discretizations of the total variation (see [Chambolle and Pock, 2021] for a review). Our choice to compare our algorithm with a method using the isotropic scheme is hence debatable, but is motivated by the fact this discretization is widely considered as a baseline against which new numerical methods should be tested.

In this setting, our implementation of the sliding step converges to a function similar to (f)⁷, and we obtain a valid update that decreases the objective more than the standard Frank-Wolfe update. The next iteration of the algorithm will then consist in adding a new atom to the approximation, with negative amplitude, so as to compensate for the presence of the small bottleneck.

However, it seems natural that the support of (f) should split into two disjoint simple sets, which is not possible with our current implementation. To investigate what would happen in this case, we manually split the two sets (see (g)) and let them evolve independently. The support of the approximation converges to the union of the two disks, which produces an update that decreases the objective even more than (f).

6 The case of a single radial measurement

In this section, we study a particular setting, where the number of observations m is equal to 1, and the unique sensing function is radial, i.e. the measurement operator is given by (1) with $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a radial function⁸. We first state a proposition about the solutions of (\mathcal{P}_λ) in this setting, before carrying on with results that will require more assumptions on φ . Unless otherwise specified, sets that differ by a Lebesgue negligible set and functions that are equal almost everywhere are identified.

For every $u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$, we define the radialisation \tilde{u} of u by

$$\tilde{u}(x) = \int_{\mathbb{S}^1} u(\|x\| e) d\mathcal{H}^1(e).$$

We note that in our setting Φu only depends on u through \tilde{u} , that is:

$$\Phi u = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \varphi u = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \tilde{\varphi} \tilde{u}.$$

Using the fact $|\tilde{Du}|(\mathbb{R}^2) \leq |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2)$ for any $u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ such that $|Du|(\mathbb{R}^2) < +\infty$ with equality if and only if u is radial (see Appendix D.1 for a proof of this statement), we may state the following result:

Proposition 8 *Every solution of (\mathcal{P}_λ) is radial, and there exists a solution that is proportional to the indicator of a disk centered at the origin.*

⁷ This only occurs when λ is small enough. For higher values of λ , the output is similar to (d) or (e).

⁸ We say that $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is radial if there exists $g : [0, +\infty[\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = g(\|x\|)$ for almost every $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$.

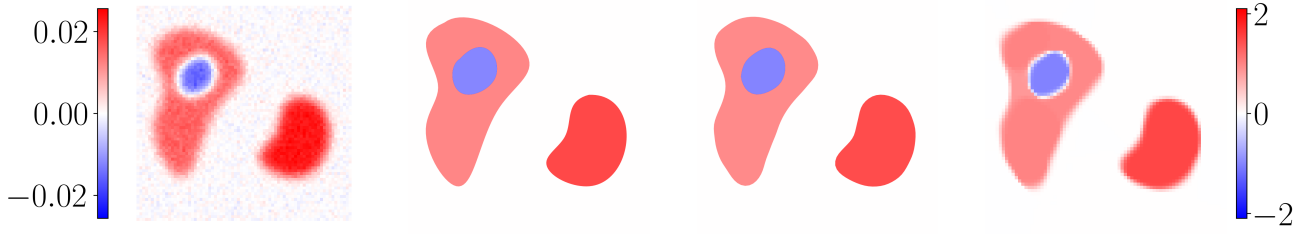


Fig. 1: From left to right: observations, unknown function, output of Algorithm 2, output of the fixed grid method

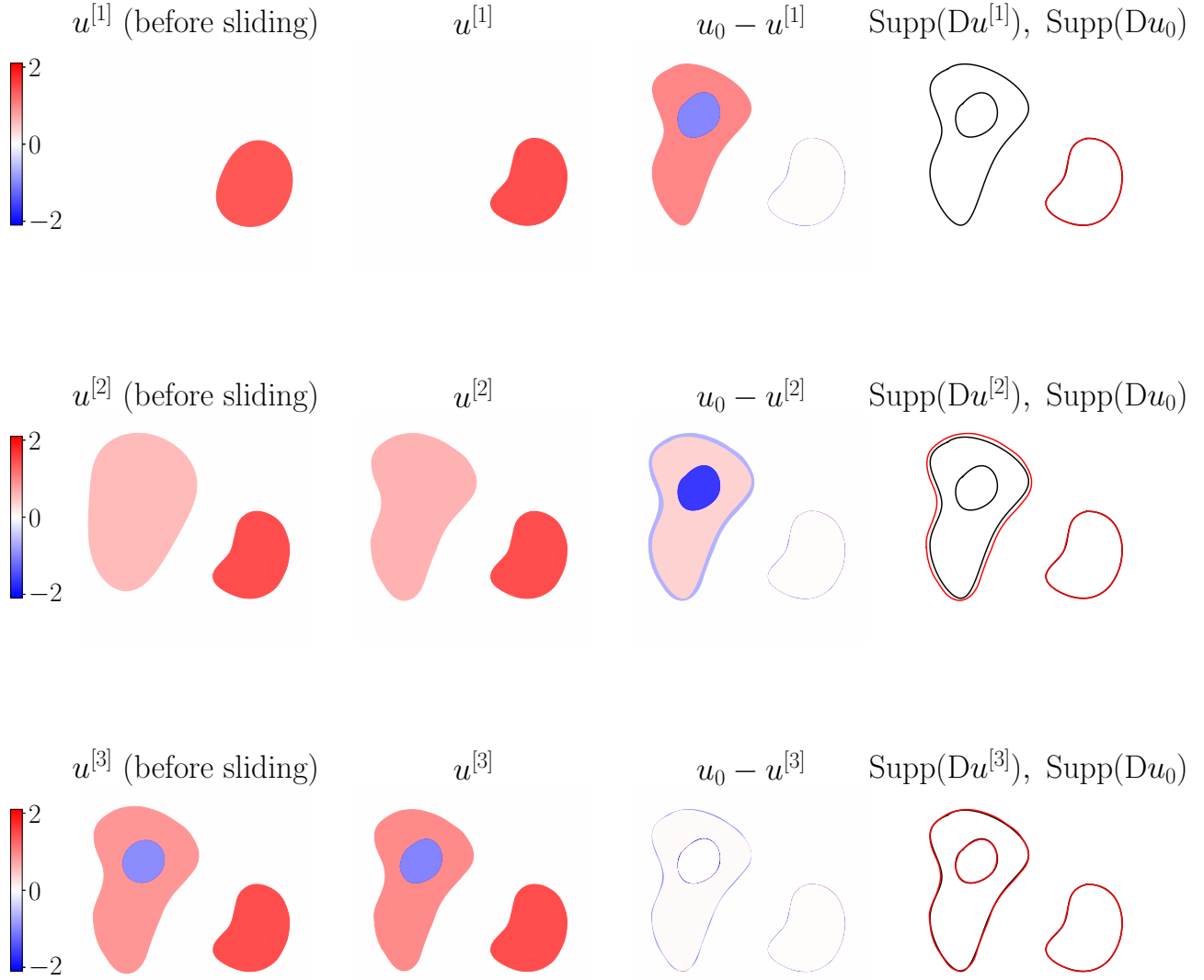


Fig. 2: Unfolding of Algorithm 2 for the first experiment ($u^{[k]}$ denotes the k -th iterate)



Fig. 3: From left to right: unknown function, observations, output of the fixed grid method, output of Algorithm 2, gradients support (red: output of Algorithm 2, black: unknown)

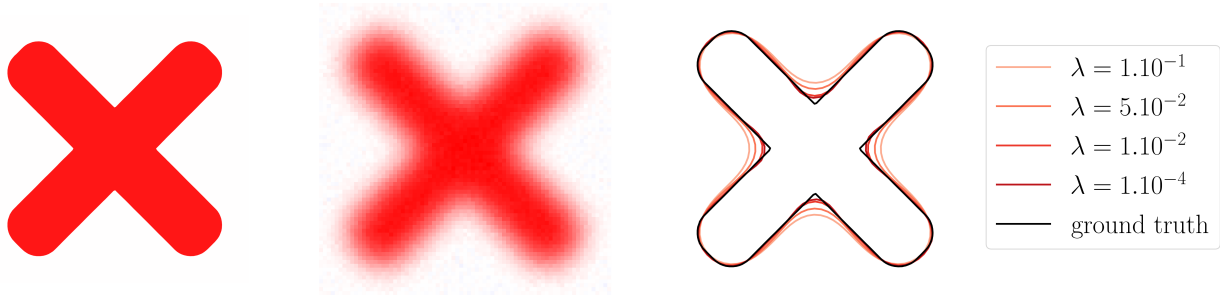


Fig. 4: Left: unknown function, middle: observations, right: output of Algorithm 2 for different values of λ



Fig. 5: From left to right: original image, observations, iterates $u^{[k]}$ ($k \in \{4, 10\}$) produced by Algorithm 2, output of the fixed grid method

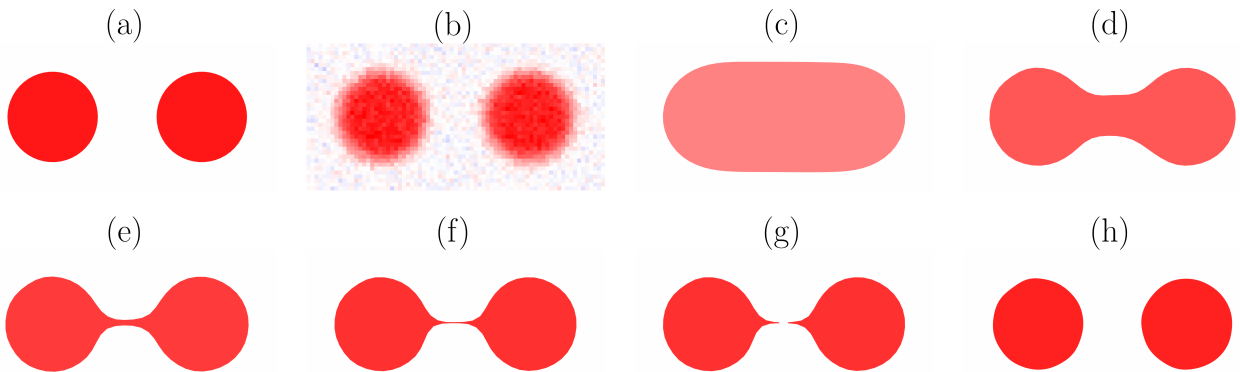


Fig. 6: Topology change experiment. (a): unknown signal, (b): observations, (c): weighted Cheeger set, (d,e,f,g): sliding step iterations (with splitting), (h): final function.

Proof. The first part of the result is a direct consequence of the above statements. Then, using and [Boyer et al., 2019, Corollary 2 and Theorem 2], we have that there exists a solution of (\mathcal{P}_λ) which is proportional to the indicator function of a simple set. The result follows from the fact that every simple set whose indicator function is radial is a disk centered at the origin. \square

We will now assume φ is positive, continuous and decreasing⁹ along rays. For any $r \in \mathbb{R}_+$, we will denote by an abuse of notation $\tilde{\varphi}(r)$ the value of $\tilde{\varphi}$ at any point $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ such that $\|x\| = r$. We may also invoke the following assumption:

Assumption 1. The function $f : r \mapsto r \tilde{\varphi}(r)$ is continuously differentiable on \mathbb{R}_+^* , $rf(r) \rightarrow 0$ when $r \rightarrow +\infty$, and there exists $\rho_0 > 0$ such that $f'(r) > 0$ on $]0, \rho_0[$ and $f'(r) < 0$ on $]\rho_0, +\infty[$.¹⁰

In the rest of this section we first explain what each step of Algorithm 2 should theoretically return in this particular setting, without worrying about approximations made for implementation matters. Then, we compare those with the output of each step of the practical algorithm.

6.1 Theoretical behavior of the algorithm

The first step of Algorithm 2 consists in solving the Cheeger problem (5) associated to $\eta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^* y = \frac{y}{\lambda} \varphi$ (or equivalently to φ). Using the Steiner symmetrization principle, and denoting by $B(0, R)$ the disk of radius R centered at the origin, we may state¹¹:

Proposition 9 *All the solutions of the Cheeger problem (5) associated to $\eta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varphi$ are disks centered at the origin. Under Assumption 1 the unique solution is the disk $B(0, R^*)$ with R^* the unique maximizer of*

$$R \mapsto \left[\int_0^R r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr \right] / R.$$

Proof. We first stress that existence of solutions was already briefly discussed in Section 3.1 (it can either be obtained by purely geometric arguments, or by showing the existence of solutions of (4) by the direct method

of calculus of variations and then using Krein-Milman theorem).

Now if $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ is such that $0 < P(E) < +\infty$ and $\nu \in \mathbb{S}^1$, denoting E_ν^s the Steiner symmetrization of E with respect to the line through the origin and directed by ν , we have (see Lemma 9)

$$\frac{\int_E \eta}{P(E)} \leq \frac{\int_{E_\nu^s} \eta}{P(E_\nu^s)},$$

with equality if and only if $|E \triangle E_\nu^s| = 0$. Hence if E^* solves (5), arguing as in [Maggi, 2012, section 14.2], we get that E^* is a convex set which is invariant by reflection with respect to any line through the origin, and hence that E^* is a ball centered at the origin.

Now for any $R > 0$ we have

$$\mathcal{G}(R) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\int_{B(0, R)} \varphi}{P(B(0, R))} = \frac{1}{R} \int_0^R r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr,$$

and the last part of the result follows from a simple analysis of the variations of \mathcal{G} under Assumption 1, which is given in Appendix D. \square

The second step (Line 10) of the algorithm then consists in solving

$$\inf_{a \in \mathbb{R}} \frac{1}{2} \left(a \int_{E^*} \varphi - y \right)^2 + \lambda P(E^*) |a|, \quad (23)$$

where $E^* = B(0, R^*)$. The solution a^* has a closed form which writes:

$$a^* = \frac{\text{sign}(y)}{\int_{E^*} \varphi} \left(|y| - \lambda \frac{P(E^*)}{\int_{E^*} \varphi} \right)^+, \quad (24)$$

where $x^+ = \max(x, 0)$.

The next step should be the sliding one (Line 13). However, in this specific setting, one can show that the constructed function is already optimal, as stated by the following proposition:

Proposition 10 *Under Assumption 1, Problem (\mathcal{P}_λ) has a unique solution $a^* \mathbf{1}_{E^*}$ with $E^* = B(0, R^*)$ the solution of the Cheeger problem given by Prop. 9, and a^* given by (24).*

Proof. If $u^* \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ solves (\mathcal{P}_λ) then

$$\Phi^* p^* = p^* \varphi \in \partial J(u^*),$$

with $p^* = -\frac{1}{\lambda}(\Phi u^* - y)$. Now from Proposition 1 we know $p^* \varphi \in \partial J(u^*)$ implies that $p^* \varphi \in \partial J(0)$ and that the level sets of u^* satisfy

$$P(U_*^{(t)}) = \left| \int_{U_*^{(t)}} p^* \varphi \right|.$$

⁹ In all the following, by decreasing we mean *strictly* decreasing.

¹⁰ Assumption 1 is for example satisfied by $\varphi : x \mapsto \exp(-\|x\|^2/(2\sigma^2))$ for any $\sigma > 0$.

¹¹ This result can be proved using the radialisation operation previously introduced. We here however rely on classical arguments used in the analysis of geometric variational problems, which we will moreover also use later in this section.

This means that the non trivial level sets of u^* are all solutions of the Cheeger problem associated to $p^*\varphi$ (or equivalently to φ), and are hence equal to $B(0, R^*)$. This shows there exists $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $u^* = a \mathbf{1}_{B(0, R^*)}$, and the result easily follows. \square

To summarize, with a single observation and a radial sensing function, a solution is found in a single iteration, and its support is directly identified by solving the Cheeger problem.

6.2 Study of implementation approximations

In practice, instead of solving (5), we look for an element of \mathcal{P}_n (a simple polygon with at most n sides) maximizing \mathcal{J} , for some given integer $n \geq 3$. It is hence natural to investigate the proximity of this optimal polygon with $B(0, R^*)$. Solving classical geometric variational problems restricted to the set of n -gons is involved, as the Steiner symmetrization procedure might increase the number of sides [Pólya and Szegő, 1951, Sec. 7.4]. However, using a trick from Pólya and Szegő, one may prove:

Proposition 11 *Let $n \in \{3, 4\}$. Then all the maximizers of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{P}_n are regular and inscribed in a circle centered at the origin.*

Proof.

Triangles: let E^* be a maximizer of \mathcal{J} among triangles. Then the Steiner symmetrization of E^* with respect to any of its heights through the origin (see Figure 7) is still a triangle, and Lemma 9 ensures it has a higher energy except if this operation leaves E^* unchanged. As a consequence, E^* must be symmetric with respect to all its heights through the origin. This shows E^* is equilateral and inscribed in a circle centered at the origin.

Quadrilaterals: we notice that if E is a simple quadrilateral, then its Steiner symmetrization with respect to any line perpendicular to one of its diagonals (see Figure 8) is still a simple quadrilateral. We can then proceed exactly as for triangles to prove any maximizer E^* of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{P}_4 is symmetric with respect to every line through the origin and perpendicular to one of its diagonals. This shows E^* is a rhombus centered at the origin. We can now symmetrize with respect to any line through the origin perpendicular to one of its sides to finally obtain that E^* must be a square centered at the origin. \square

Our proof does not extend to $n \geq 5$, but the following conjecture is natural:

Conjecture 1 The result stated in Proposition 11 holds for all $n \geq 3$.

For $n \in \{3, 4\}$ or if Conjecture 1 holds, it remains to compare the optimal polygons with $B(0, R^*)$. If we define $\mathcal{G}(R) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \mathcal{J}(B(0, R))$ and $\mathcal{G}_n(R)$ the value of \mathcal{J} at any regular n -gon inscribed in a circle of radius R centered at the origin, then we can state the following result (its proof is given in Appendix D.3):

Proposition 12 *Under Assumption 1, we have that*

$$\|\mathcal{G}_n - \mathcal{G}\|_\infty = O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right).$$

Moreover, if f is of class C^2 and $f''(\rho_0) < 0$, then for n large enough \mathcal{G}_n has a unique maximizer R_n^ and*

$$|R_n^* - R^*| = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right).$$

If φ is the function defined by

$$\varphi : x \mapsto \exp(-\|x\|^2/(2\sigma^2)),$$

then this last result holds for all $n \geq 3$.

Now, the output of our method for approximating Cheeger sets, described in Section 4, is a polygon that is obtained by locally maximizing \mathcal{J} using a first order method. Even if we carefully initialize this first order method, the possible existence of non-optimal critical points makes its analysis challenging. However, in our setting (a radial weight function), the simple polygons that are critical points¹² of \mathcal{J} coincide with its global maximizers over \mathcal{P}_n (at least for small n). The proof of this result is given in Appendix D.4.

Proposition 13 *Let $n \in \{3, 4\}$. Under Assumption 1, if f is of class C^2 and $f''(\rho_0) < 0$, the elements of \mathcal{P}_n that are critical points of \mathcal{J} are the regular n -gons inscribed in the circle of radius R_n^* centered at the origin.*

We make the following conjecture:

Conjecture 2 The result stated in Proposition 13 holds for all $n \geq 3$.

If $n \in \{3, 4\}$, or if Conjecture 2 holds, we may therefore expect our polygonal approximation to be at Hausdorff distance of order $O(\frac{1}{n})$ to $B(0, R^*)$.

¹² We recall that critical point is here to be understood in the sense that the limit appearing in (19) is equal to zero for every θ such that $\|\theta\|$ is small enough.

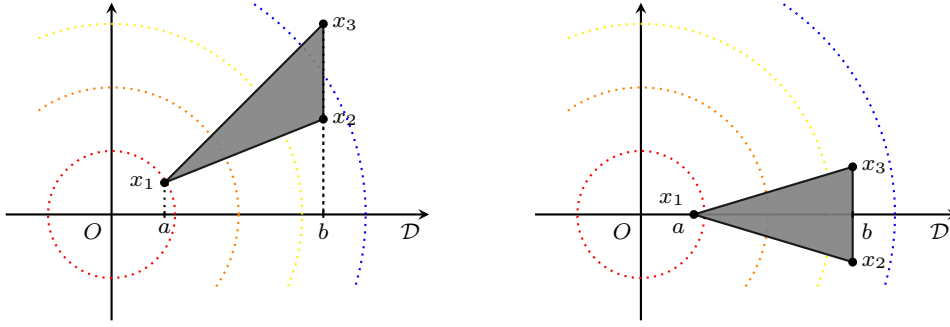


Fig. 7: Steiner symmetrization of triangles

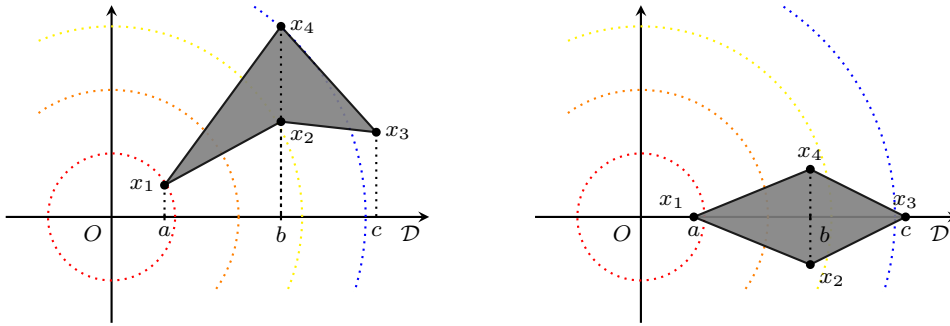


Fig. 8: Steiner symmetrization of quadrilaterals

7 Conclusion

As shown in the present exploratory work, solving total variation regularized inverse problems in a gridless manner is highly beneficial, as it allows to preserve structural properties of their solutions, which cannot be achieved by traditional numerical solvers. The price to pay for going “off-the-grid” is an increased complexity of the analysis and the implementation of the algorithms. Furthering their theoretical study and improving their practical efficiency and reliability is an interesting avenue for future research.

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A Derivation of Algorithm 2

See [Denoyelle et al., 2019, Sec. 4.1] for the case of the sparse spikes problem.

Lemma 2 Problem (\mathcal{P}_λ) is equivalent to

$$\min_{(u,t) \in C} \tilde{T}_\lambda(u,t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{2} \|\Phi u - y\|^2 + \lambda t \quad (\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_\lambda)$$

with

$$C \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(u,t) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2) \times \mathbb{R} \mid |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2) \leq t \leq M\}.$$

and $M \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \|y\|^2/(2\lambda)$, i.e. if u is a solution of (\mathcal{P}_λ) then we have that $(u, |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2))$ is a solution of $(\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_\lambda)$, and conversely any solution of $(\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_\lambda)$ is of the form $(u, |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2))$ with u a solution of (\mathcal{P}_λ) .

Proof. If u^* is a solution of (\mathcal{P}_λ) , then

$$T_\lambda(u^*) \leq T_\lambda(0) = \|y\|^2/2.$$

Hence we have that $|Du^*|(\mathbb{R}^2) \leq M$, which shows the feasible set of (\mathcal{P}_λ) can be restricted to functions u which are such that $|Du|(\mathbb{R}^2) \leq M$. It is then straightforward to show that the resulting program is equivalent to $(\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_\lambda)$, in the sense defined above. \square

The objective \tilde{T}_λ of $(\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_\lambda)$ is now convex, differentiable and we have for all $(u,t) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2) \times \mathbb{R}$

$$d\tilde{T}_\lambda(u,t): L^2(\mathbb{R}^2) \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$(v,s) \mapsto \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \Phi^*(\Phi u - y) v \right] + \lambda s.$$

Moreover, the feasible set C is weakly compact. We can therefore apply Frank-Wolfe algorithm to $(\tilde{\mathcal{P}}_\lambda)$. The following result shows how the linear minimization step (Line 2 of Algorithm 1) one has to perform at step k amounts to solving the Cheeger problem (5) associated to $\eta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^*(\Phi u^{[k]} - y)$.

Proposition 14 Let $(u,t) \in C$ and $\eta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^*(\Phi u - y)$. We also denote

$$\alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sup_{E \subset \mathbb{R}^2} \frac{|\int_E \eta|}{P(E)} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad 0 < |E| < +\infty, P(E) < +\infty. \quad (25)$$

Then, if $\alpha \leq 1$, $(0,0)$ is a minimizer of $d\tilde{T}_\lambda(u,t)$ over C . Otherwise, there exists a simple set E achieving the supremum in (25) such that, denoting $\epsilon = \text{sign}(\int_E \eta)$, $\left(\frac{\epsilon M}{P(E)} \mathbf{1}_E, M\right)$ is a minimizer of $d\tilde{T}_\lambda(u,t)$ on C .

Proof. The extreme points of C are $(0, 0)$ and the elements of

$$\left\{ \left(\pm \frac{M}{P(E)} \mathbf{1}_E, M \right) \mid E \text{ is simple, } 0 < |E| < +\infty \right\}.$$

Since $d\tilde{T}_\lambda(u, t)$ is linear, it reaches its minimum on C at least at one of these extreme points. We hence have that

$$(0, 0) \in \underset{(v, s) \in C}{\operatorname{Argmin}} d\tilde{T}_\lambda(u, t)(v, s)$$

or that a minimizer can be found by finding an element of

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\substack{E \text{ simple} \\ \epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}}}{\operatorname{Argmin}} \left\langle \Phi u - y, \frac{\epsilon M}{P(E)} \Phi \mathbf{1}_E \right\rangle + \lambda M \\ &= \underset{\substack{E \text{ simple} \\ \epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}}}{\operatorname{Argmin}} \left\langle \Phi u - y, \frac{\epsilon}{\lambda P(E)} \Phi \mathbf{1}_E \right\rangle \\ &= \underset{\substack{E \text{ simple} \\ \epsilon \in \{-1, 1\}}}{\operatorname{Argmin}} \frac{\epsilon}{P(E)} \int_E \frac{1}{\lambda} \Phi^* (\Phi u - y). \end{aligned}$$

This last problem is equivalent to finding an element of

$$\underset{E \text{ simple}}{\operatorname{Argmax}} \frac{1}{P(E)} \left| \int_E \eta(x) dx \right|,$$

in the sense that E^* is optimal for the latter if and only if the couple $(E^*, \operatorname{sign}(\int_{E^*} \eta))$ is optimal for the former. We can moreover show that $(0, 0)$ is optimal if and only if for all $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ such that $0 < |E| < +\infty$ and $P(E) < +\infty$ we have:

$$\frac{1}{P(E)} \left| \int_E \eta(x) dx \right| \leq 1.$$

B Existence of maximizers of the Cheeger ratio among simple polygons with at most n sides

Let $\eta \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2) \cap C^0(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and $n \geq 3$. We want to prove the existence of maximizers of the Cheeger ratio \mathcal{J} associated to η among simple polygons with at most n sides. We will in fact prove a slightly stronger result, namely the existence of maximizers of a relaxed energy which coincides with \mathcal{J} on simple polygons, and the existence of a simple polygon maximizing this relaxed energy.

We first begin by defining relaxed versions of the perimeter and the (weighted) area. To be able to deal with polygons with a number of vertices smaller than n , which will be useful in the following, we define for all $m \geq 2$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 2}$ the following quantities:

$$\mathcal{P}(x) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^m \|x_{i+1} - x_i\| \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{A}(x) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \eta \chi_x,$$

where $\chi_x(y)$ denotes the index (or winding number) of any parametrization of the polygonal curve $[x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_m, x_1]$ around $y \in \mathbb{R}^2$. In particular, for every $x \in \mathcal{X}_m$ (i.e. for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$ defining a simple polygon), we have

$$\mathcal{P}(x) = P(E_x) \quad \text{and} \quad |\mathcal{A}(x)| = \left| \int_{E_x} \eta \right|,$$

and hence, as soon as $\mathcal{P}(x) > 0$:

$$\mathcal{J}(E_x) = \frac{|\mathcal{A}(x)|}{\mathcal{P}(x)}.$$

This naturally leads us to define

$$\mathcal{Y}_m \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 2} \mid \mathcal{P}(x) > 0\}$$

and to denote, abusing notation, $\mathcal{J}(x) = |\mathcal{A}(x)|/\mathcal{P}(x)$ for every $x \in \mathcal{Y}_m$.

The function χ_x is constant on each connected component of $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \Gamma_x$ with $\Gamma_x \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \cup_{i=1}^m [x_i, x_{i+1}]$. It takes values in $\{-m, \dots, m\}$ and is equal to zero on the only unbounded connected component. We also have $\partial \operatorname{supp}(\chi_x) \subset \Gamma_x$. Moreover χ_x has bounded variation and for \mathcal{H}^1 -almost every $y \in \Gamma_x$ there exists $u_\Gamma^+(y), u_\Gamma^-(y)$ in $\{-m, \dots, m\}$ such that

$$D\chi_x = (u_\Gamma^+ - u_\Gamma^-) \nu_{\Gamma_x} \mathcal{H}^1 \llcorner \Gamma_x.$$

Now we define

$$\alpha \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \sup_{x \in \mathcal{Y}_n} \mathcal{J}(x).$$

If $\eta = 0$, then the existence of maximizers is trivial. Otherwise, there exists a Lebesgue point x_0 of η at which η is non-zero. Now the family of regular n -gons inscribed in any circle centered at x_0 has bounded eccentricity. Hence, if $x_{n,r}$ defines a regular n -gon inscribed in a circle of radius r centered at x_0 , Lebesgue differentiation theorem ensures that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\left| \int_{E_{x_{n,r}}} \eta \right|}{|E_{x_{n,r}}|} > 0,$$

and the fact that $\alpha > 0$ easily follows.

□

Lemma 3 *Let $C > 0$. There exists $R > 0$ and $c > 0$ such that*

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{Y}_n, \mathcal{J}(x) \geq C \implies \mathcal{P}(x) \geq c \text{ and } \|x_i\| \leq R \text{ for all } i.$$

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Lemma 1.

Upper bound on the perimeter: the integrability of η^2 yields that for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $R_1 > 0$ such that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R_1)} \eta^2 \leq \epsilon^2. \quad (26)$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$ and $R_1 > 0$ such that (26) holds. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(x) &\leq \frac{1}{C} |\mathcal{A}(x)| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{C} \left[\left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \cap B(0, R)} \eta \chi_x \right| + \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R)} \eta \chi_x \right| \right] \\ &\leq \frac{1}{C} \left[\|\eta\|_{L^2} \|\chi_x\|_{L^\infty} \sqrt{|B(0, R)|} + \epsilon \|\chi_x\|_{L^2} \right] \\ &\leq \frac{1}{C} \left[\|\eta\|_{L^2} n \sqrt{|B(0, R)|} + \epsilon \frac{1}{\sqrt{c_2}} |D\chi_x|(\mathbb{R}^2) \right] \\ &\leq \frac{1}{C} \left[\|\eta\|_{L^2} n \sqrt{|B(0, R)|} + \epsilon \frac{2n}{\sqrt{c_2}} \mathcal{P}(x) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Now, taking

$$\epsilon \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \frac{C \sqrt{c_2}}{4n} \quad \text{and} \quad c' = \frac{2n}{C} \|\eta\|_{L^2} \sqrt{|B(0, R)|},$$

we finally get that $\mathcal{P}(x) \leq c'$.

Inclusion in a ball: we take $\epsilon = \frac{\sqrt{c_2}}{4n}$ and fix $R_2 > 0$ such that $\int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R_2)} \eta^2 \leq \epsilon^2$. Let us show that

$$\text{supp}(\chi_x) \cap B(0, R_2) \neq \emptyset.$$

By contradiction, if $\text{supp}(\chi_x) \cap B(0, R_2) = \emptyset$, we would have:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(x) &\leq \frac{1}{C} |\mathcal{A}(x)| \\ &= \frac{1}{C} \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R_2)} \eta \chi_x \right| \\ &\leq \sqrt{\int_{\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus B(0, R_2)} \eta^2} \|\chi_x\|_{L^2} \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{c_2}} |D\chi_x|(\mathbb{R}^2) \leq \frac{2n\epsilon}{\sqrt{c_2}} \mathcal{P}(x). \end{aligned}$$

Dividing by $\mathcal{P}(x) > 0$ yields a contradiction. Now since

$$\partial \text{supp}(\chi_x) \subset \Gamma_x,$$

we have $\text{diam}(\text{supp}(\chi_x)) \leq \mathcal{P}(x) \leq c'$ which shows

$$\text{supp}(\chi_x) \subset B(0, R) \text{ with } R \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} c' + R_2.$$

This in turn implies that $\|x_i\| \leq R$ for all i .

Lower bound on the perimeter: the integrability of η^2 shows that, for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\forall E \subset \mathbb{R}^2, |E| \leq \delta \implies \left| \int_E \eta^2 \right| \leq \epsilon^2.$$

Taking $\epsilon \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} C \sqrt{c_2}/2$, we obtain that if $|\text{supp}(\chi_x)| \leq \delta$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{P}(x) &\leq \frac{1}{C} |\mathcal{A}(x)| = \frac{1}{C} \left| \int_{\text{supp}(\chi_x)} \eta \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{C} \sqrt{\int_{\text{supp}(\chi_x)} \eta^2} \sqrt{|\text{supp}(\chi_x)|} \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{C \sqrt{c_2}} \mathcal{P}(\text{supp}(\chi_x)) \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{C \sqrt{c_2}} \mathcal{P}(x), \end{aligned}$$

the last inequality holding because $\partial \text{supp}(\chi_x) \subset \Gamma_x$. We get a contradiction since $\mathcal{P}(x)$ is positive. \square

Applying Lemma 3 with e.g. $C = \alpha/2$, and defining

$$\mathcal{Y}'_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 2} \mid \mathcal{P}(x) \geq c \text{ and } \|x_i\| \leq R \text{ for all } i\},$$

we see that any maximizer of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{Y}'_n (if it exists) is also a maximizer of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{Y}_n , and conversely.

Lemma 4 *Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 2}$. Then for every $a \in \mathbb{R}^2$ we have*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}(x) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \text{sign}(\det(x_i - a, x_{i+1} - a)) \int_{ax_i x_{i+1}} \eta \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \det(x_i - a, x_{i+1} - a) \int_{T_1} \eta((x_i - a, x_{i+1} - a)y) dy, \end{aligned}$$

where $ax_i x_{i+1}$ denotes the triangle with vertices a, x_i, x_{i+1} and $T_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(\alpha, \beta) \in (\mathbb{R}_+)^2 \mid \alpha + \beta \leq 1\}$ is the unit triangle.

Proof. Let us show that for all $a \in \mathbb{R}^2$ we have

$$\chi_x = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{sign}(\det(x_i - a, x_{i+1} - a)) \mathbf{1}_{ax_i x_{i+1}} \quad (27)$$

almost everywhere. First, we have that $y \in \mathbb{R}^2$ is in the (open) triangle $ax_i x_{i+1}$ if and only if the ray issued from y directed by $y - a$ intersects $]x_i, x_{i+1}[$. Moreover, if y is in this triangle, then

$$\text{sign}(\det(x_i - a, x_{i+1} - a)) = \text{sign}((y - a) \cdot (x_{i+1} - x_i)^\perp).$$

The above hence shows that, if $y \in \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \cup_{i=1}^n]x_i, x_{i+1}[$ does not belong to any of the segments $[a, x_i]$, evaluating the right hand side of (27) at y amounts to compute the winding number $\chi_x(y)$ by applying the ray-crossing algorithm described in [Hormann and Agathos, 2001]. This in particular means that (27) holds almost everywhere, and the result follows. \square

From Lemma 4, we deduce that \mathcal{A} is continuous on $\mathbb{R}^{n \times 2}$. This is also the case of \mathcal{P} . Now \mathcal{Y}'_n is compact and included in \mathcal{Y}_n , hence the existence of maximizers of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{Y}'_n , which in turn implies the existence of maximizers of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{Y}_n .

Let us now show there exists a maximizer which belongs to \mathcal{X}_n . To do so, we rely on the following lemma

Lemma 5 *Let $m \geq 3$ and $x \in \mathcal{Y}_m \setminus \mathcal{X}_m$. Then there exists m' with $2 \leq m' < m$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}_{m'}$ such that*

$$\mathcal{J}(x) \leq \mathcal{J}(y).$$

Proof. If $x \in \mathcal{Y}_m \setminus \mathcal{X}_m$ then $[x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_m, x_1]$ is not simple. If there exists i with $x_i = x_{i+1}$ then

$$y = (x_1, \dots, x_i, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_m)$$

is suitable, and likewise if $x_1 = x_m$ then

$$y = (x_1, \dots, x_{m-1})$$

is suitable. Otherwise we distinguish the following cases:

If there exists $i < j$ with $x_i = x_j$: we define

$$\begin{aligned} y &= (x_1, \dots, x_i, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{m-(j-i)}, \\ z &= (x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{j-1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{j-i}. \end{aligned}$$

We notice that $2 \leq j - i < m$ and $2 \leq m - (j - i) < m$.

If there exists $i < j$ with $x_i \in]x_j, x_{j+1}[$: we necessarily have $(i, j) \neq (1, m)$. We define

$$\begin{aligned} y &= (x_1, \dots, x_i, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{m-(j-i)}, \\ z &= (x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_j) \in \mathbb{R}^{j-i+1}. \end{aligned}$$

We again have $2 \leq m - (j - i) < m$, and since $(i, j) \neq (1, m)$, we have $j - i < m - 1$ which shows $2 \leq j - i + 1 < m$.

If there exists $i < j$ with $x_j \in]x_i, x_{i+1}[$: we necessarily have $j > i + 1$. We define

$$\begin{aligned} y &= (x_1, \dots, x_i, x_j, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{m-(j-i)+1}, \\ z &= (x_{i+1}, \dots, x_j) \in \mathbb{R}^{j-i}. \end{aligned}$$

We again have $2 \leq j - i < m$, and since $j > i + 1$ we obtain that $2 \leq m - (j - i) + 1 < m$.

If there exists $i < j$ with $x' \in]x_i, x_{i+1}[\cap]x_j, x_{j+1}[$: if we have $j = i + 1$ then either $x_{i+2} \in]x_i, x_{i+1}[$ or $x_i \in]x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}[$

and in both cases we fall back on the previously treated cases. The same holds if $(i, j) = (1, m)$. Otherwise, we define

$$y = (x_1, \dots, x_i, x', x_{j+1}, \dots, x_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{m-(j-i)+1},$$

$$z = (x', x_{i+1}, \dots, x_j) \in \mathbb{R}^{j-i+1}.$$

Since $j > i+1$ and $(i, j) \neq (1, m)$ we get $2 \leq m-(j-i)+1 < m$ and $2 \leq j-i+1 < m$.

Now, one can see that in each case we have $\mathcal{P}(x) = \mathcal{P}(y) + \mathcal{P}(z)$ and $\chi_x = \chi_y + \chi_z$ almost everywhere, which in turn gives that $\mathcal{A}(x) = \mathcal{A}(y) + \mathcal{A}(z)$. We hence get that $\mathcal{P}(y) = 0$ or $\mathcal{P}(z) = 0$, and in this case $\mathcal{J}(x) = \mathcal{J}(y)$ or $\mathcal{J}(x) = \mathcal{J}(z)$, or that $\mathcal{P}(y) > 0$ and $\mathcal{P}(z) > 0$, which yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{|\mathcal{A}(x)|}{\mathcal{P}(x)} &\leq \frac{|\mathcal{A}(y)| + |\mathcal{A}(z)|}{\mathcal{P}(y) + \mathcal{P}(z)} \\ &= \frac{\mathcal{P}(y)}{\mathcal{P}(y) + \mathcal{P}(z)} \frac{|\mathcal{A}(y)|}{\mathcal{P}(y)} + \frac{\mathcal{P}(z)}{\mathcal{P}(y) + \mathcal{P}(z)} \frac{|\mathcal{A}(z)|}{\mathcal{P}(z)}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\mathcal{J}(x)$ is smaller than a convex combination of $\mathcal{J}(y)$ and $\mathcal{J}(z)$, which gives that it is smaller than $\mathcal{J}(y)$ or $\mathcal{J}(z)$. This shows that y or z is suitable. \square

We can now prove our final result, i.e. that there exists $x_* \in \mathcal{X}_n$ such that

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{Y}_n, \mathcal{J}(x_*) \geq \mathcal{J}(x).$$

Indeed, repeatedly applying the above lemma starting with a maximizer x_* of \mathcal{J} over \mathcal{Y}_n , we either have that there exists m with $3 \leq m \leq n$ and $x'_* \in \mathcal{X}_m$ such that $\mathcal{J}(x_*) = \mathcal{J}(x'_*)$, or that there exists $y \in \mathcal{Y}_2$ such that $\mathcal{J}(x_*) \leq \mathcal{J}(y)$, which is impossible since in that case $\mathcal{J}(y) = 0$ and $\mathcal{J}(x_*) = \alpha > 0$. We hence have $x'_* \in \mathcal{X}_m$ such that

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{Y}_n, \mathcal{J}(x'_*) = \mathcal{J}(x_*) \geq \mathcal{J}(x).$$

We can finally build $x''_* \in \mathcal{X}_n$ such that $\mathcal{J}(x''_*) = \mathcal{J}(x'_*)$ by adding dummy vertices to x'_* , which finally allows to conclude.

C First variation of the perimeter and weighted area functionals for simple polygons

We stress that since \mathcal{X}_n is open, for every $x \in \mathcal{X}_n$ the functions $h \mapsto P(E_{x+h})$ and $h \mapsto \int_{E_{x+h}} \eta$ are well-defined in a neighborhood of zero (for any locally integrable function η). We now compute the first variation of these two quantities.

Proposition 15 *Let $x \in \mathcal{X}_n$. Then we have*

$$P(E_{x+h}) = P(E_x) - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle h_i, \tau_i - \tau_{i-1} \rangle + o(\|h\|), \quad (28)$$

where $\tau_i \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \frac{x_{i+1} - x_i}{\|x_{i+1} - x_i\|}$ is the unit tangent vector to $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$.

Proof. If $\|h\|$ is small enough we have:

$$\begin{aligned} P(E_{x+h}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_{i+1} - x_i + h_{i+1} - h_i\| \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{\|x_{i+1} - x_i + h_{i+1} - h_i\|^2} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \|x_{i+1} - x_i\| \left(1 + \frac{\langle x_{i+1} - x_i, h_{i+1} - h_i \rangle}{\|x_{i+1} - x_i\|^2} + o(\|h\|) \right) \\ &= P(E_x) + \sum_{i=1}^n \langle \tau_i, h_{i+1} - h_i \rangle + o(\|h\|), \end{aligned}$$

and the result follows by re-arranging the terms in the sum. \square

Proposition 16 *Let $x \in \mathcal{X}_n$ and $\eta \in C^0(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Then we have*

$$\int_{E_{x+h}} \eta = \int_{E_x} \eta + \sum_{i=1}^n \langle h_i, w_i^- \nu_{i-1} + w_i^+ \nu_i \rangle + o(\|h\|), \quad (29)$$

where ν_i is the outward unit normal to E_x on $]x_i, x_{i+1}[$ and

$$w_i^+ \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{[x_i, x_{i+1}]} \eta(x) \frac{\|x - x_{i+1}\|}{\|x_i - x_{i+1}\|} d\mathcal{H}^1(x),$$

$$w_i^- \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]} \eta(x) \frac{\|x - x_{i-1}\|}{\|x_i - x_{i-1}\|} d\mathcal{H}^1(x).$$

Proof. Our proof relies on the following identity (see Lemma 4 for a proof of a closely related formula):

$$\int_{E_x} \eta = \text{sign} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \det(x_i \ x_{i+1}) \right) \sum_{i=1}^n \omega(x_i, x_{i+1}),$$

with

$$\omega(a_1, a_2) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \det(a_1 \ a_2) \int_{T_1} \eta((a_1 \ a_2) y) dy,$$

where $T_1 \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \{(\alpha, \beta) \in (\mathbb{R}_+)^2 \mid \alpha + \beta \leq 1\}$ is the unit triangle. Assuming $\eta \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and denoting $\text{adj}(A)$ the adjugate of a matrix A , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} &\omega(a_1 + h_1, a_2 + h_2) \\ &= \omega(a_1, a_2) + \det(a_1 \ a_2) \int_{T_1} \nabla \eta((a_1 \ a_2) y) \cdot ((h_1 \ h_2) y) dy \\ &\quad + \text{tr}(\text{adj}(a_1 \ a_2)^T (h_1 \ h_2)) \int_{T_1} \eta((a_1 \ a_2) y) dy + o(\|h\|) \\ &= \omega(a_1, a_2) \\ &\quad + \text{sign}(\det(a_1 \ a_2)) \int_{O_{a_1 a_2}} \nabla \eta(y) \cdot ((h_1 \ h_2) (a_1 \ a_2)^{-1} y) dy \\ &\quad + \frac{\text{tr}(\text{adj}(a_1 \ a_2)^T (h_1 \ h_2))}{|\det(a_1 \ a_2)|} \int_{O_{a_1 a_2}} \eta(y) dy + o(\|h\|). \end{aligned}$$

Denoting $g(y) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} (h_1 \ h_2) (a_1 \ a_2)^{-1} y$, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} &\omega(a_1 + h_1, a_2 + h_2) \\ &= \omega(a_1, a_2) \\ &\quad + \text{sign}(\det(a_1 \ a_2)) \int_{O_{a_1 a_2}} [\nabla \eta \cdot g + \eta \text{div} g] + o(\|h\|) \\ &= \omega(a_1, a_2) \\ &\quad + \text{sign}(\det(a_1 \ a_2)) \int_{\partial(O_{a_1 a_2})} \eta(g \cdot \nu_{O_{a_1 a_2}}) d\mathcal{H}^1 + o(\|h\|), \end{aligned}$$

where we used Gauss-Green theorem to obtain the last equality. Now if $\|h\|$ is small enough then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \det(x_i \ h_i \ x_{i+1} + h_{i+1}) \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^n \det(x_i \ x_{i+1})$$

have the same sign, so that, defining

$$g_i : y \mapsto ((h_i \ h_{i+1})(x_i \ x_{i+1})^{-1} y),$$

we get

$$d\left(\int_{E_\bullet} \eta\right)(x) \cdot h = \epsilon \sum_{i=1}^n \text{sign}(\det(x_i \ x_{i+1})) \omega_i,$$

with

$$\epsilon \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \text{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \det(x_i \ x_{i+1})\right),$$

$$\omega_i \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{\partial^*(O x_i x_{i+1})} \eta(g_i \cdot \nu_{O x_i x_{i+1}}) d\mathcal{H}^1.$$

Then one can decompose each integral in the sum and show the integrals over $[0, x_i]$ cancel out each other, which allows to obtain

$$d\left(\int_{E_\bullet} \eta\right)(x) \cdot h = \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{[x_i, x_{i+1}]} \eta(g_i \cdot \nu_i) d\mathcal{H}^1.$$

But now if $y \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]$ then

$$(x_i \ x_{i+1})^{-1}y = \frac{1}{\|x_{i+1} - x_i\|} \begin{pmatrix} \|y - x_{i+1}\| \\ \|y - x_i\| \end{pmatrix},$$

and the result follows by re-arranging the terms in the sum. One can then use an approximation argument as in [Maggi, 2012, Proposition 17.8] to show it also holds when η is only continuous. \square

D Results used in Section 6

D.1 Properties of the radialisation operator

The goal of this subsection, based on [Dautray and Lions, 2012, II.1.4], is to prove the following result:

Proposition 17 *Let $u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ be s.t. $|Du|(\mathbb{R}^2) < +\infty$. Then $|D\tilde{u}|(\mathbb{R}^2) \leq |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2)$ with equality if and only if u is radial.*

First, one can show that for every $u \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$, the radialisation \tilde{u} of u defined in Section 6 by

$$\tilde{u}(x) = \int_{\mathbb{S}^1} u(\|x\| e) d\mathcal{H}^1(e) \quad (30)$$

is well defined and belongs to $L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$. Then a change of variables in polar coordinates shows that, as stated in the following lemma, the radialisation operator is self-adjoint.

Lemma 6 *We have*

$$\forall u, v \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2), \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \tilde{u}(x) v(x) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} u(x) \tilde{v}(x) dx.$$

We now state a useful identity:

Lemma 7 *For every $\varphi \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}, \mathbb{R}^2)$, we have:*

$$\langle D\tilde{u}, \varphi \rangle = \left\langle Du, \varphi \cdot \frac{x}{\|x\|} \right\rangle,$$

where $\varphi \cdot \frac{x}{\|x\|}$ denotes the mapping $x \mapsto \left(\varphi(x) \cdot \frac{x}{\|x\|}\right)$.

Proof. From Lemma 6 we get

$$\langle D\tilde{u}, \varphi \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} \tilde{u} \text{div} \varphi = \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} u \widetilde{\text{div} \varphi}.$$

Using polar coordinates, defining

$$h(r, \theta) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} (r \cos(\theta), r \sin(\theta)),$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{div} \varphi)(h(r, \theta)) &= \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r(\varphi_r \circ h))(r, \theta) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\varphi_\theta \circ h)(r, \theta), \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

where φ_r and φ_θ respectively denote the radial and orthoradial components of φ , i.e.

$$\varphi_r(x) = \varphi(x) \cdot \frac{x}{\|x\|} \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi_\theta(x) = \varphi(x) \cdot \frac{x^\perp}{\|x\|}.$$

The second term in (31) has zero circular mean. Interchanging derivation and integration we get that the radialisation of the first term equals $\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r(\widetilde{\varphi_r \circ h}))$, which yields

$$(\widetilde{\text{div} \varphi})(x) = \text{div} \left(\varphi \cdot \frac{x}{\|x\|} \right)(x).$$

\square

We now introduce the radial and orthoradial components of the gradient, which are Radon measures on $U \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$ defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \forall \psi \in C_c^\infty(U), \quad \langle D_{\text{rad}} u, \psi \rangle &= \left\langle Du, \psi \frac{x}{|x|} \right\rangle, \\ \langle D_{\text{orth}} u, \psi \rangle &= \left\langle Du, \psi \frac{x^\perp}{|x|} \right\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 18 *There exist two $|Du|$ -measurable mappings from U to \mathbb{R} , denoted g_{rad} and g_{orth} , such that*

$$g_{\text{rad}}^2 + g_{\text{orth}}^2 \leq 1 \quad |Du|\text{-almost everywhere}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \forall \psi \in C_c^\infty(U), \quad \langle D_{\text{rad}} u, \psi \rangle &= \int_U \psi(x) g_{\text{rad}}(x) d|Du|(x), \\ \langle D_{\text{orth}} u, \psi \rangle &= \int_U \psi(x) g_{\text{orth}}(x) d|Du|(x). \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

Proof. The existence of the $|Du|$ -measurable mappings g_{rad} and g_{orth} , as well as (32), come from Lebesgue differentiation theorem and the fact $D_{\text{rad}} u$ and $D_{\text{orth}} u$ are absolutely continuous with respect to Du . Now for every open set $A \subset U$ we have:

$$\begin{aligned} |Du|(A) &= \sup \{ \langle Du, \varphi \rangle \mid \varphi \in C_c^\infty(A, \mathbb{R}^2), \|\varphi\|_\infty \leq 1 \} \\ &= \sup \left\{ \left\langle Du, \varphi_1 \frac{x}{\|x\|} \right\rangle + \left\langle Du, \varphi_2 \frac{x^\perp}{\|x\|} \right\rangle \text{ s.t.} \right. \\ &\quad \left. \varphi_i \in C_c^\infty(A), \|\varphi_1^2 + \varphi_2^2\|_\infty \leq 1 \right\} \\ &= \sup \left\{ \langle D_{\text{rad}} u, \varphi_1 \rangle + \langle D_{\text{orth}} u, \varphi_2 \rangle \text{ s.t.} \right. \\ &\quad \left. \varphi_i \in C_c^\infty(A), \|\varphi_1^2 + \varphi_2^2\|_\infty \leq 1 \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence for $\varphi_i \in C_c^\infty(A)$ such that $\|\varphi_1^2 + \varphi_2^2\|_\infty \leq 1$ we have:

$$\int_A 1 d|Du| \geq \int_A (g_{\text{rad}} \varphi_1 + g_{\text{orth}} \varphi_2) d|Du|.$$

If we had $g_{\text{rad}}^2 + g_{\text{orth}}^2 > 1$ on a set of non zero measure $|Du|$, we would have a contradiction. \square

We can now prove Proposition 17. Indeed, since $\{0\}$ is \mathcal{H}^1 -negligible, we have that

$$|Du|(\{0\}) = |D\tilde{u}|(\{0\}) = 0,$$

and moreover

$$|D\tilde{u}|(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}) \leq |D_{\text{rad}} u|(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}) \leq |Du|(\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}). \quad (33)$$

The first equality comes from Lemma 7, while the second is easily obtained from the definition of D_{rad} . Now if we have $|D_{\text{rad}} u|(U) = |Du|(U)$, then we get

$$\int_U g_{\text{rad}} d|Du| = \int_U \sqrt{g_{\text{rad}}^2 + g_{\text{orth}}^2} d|Du| = \int_U d|Du|.$$

This yields $g_{\text{orth}} = 0$ (and $|g_{\text{rad}}| = 1$) $|Du|$ -almost everywhere. Hence $D_{\text{orth}} u = 0$.

Let us now show this implies that u is radial. If we define $A \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=}]0, +\infty[\times]-\pi, \pi[$, then we have that the mapping given by $h : (r, \theta) \mapsto (r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$ is a C^∞ -diffeomorphism from A to $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus (\mathbb{R}_- \times \{0\})$. Now if $\xi \in C_c^\infty(A)$ we have that $\xi \circ h^{-1} \in C_c^\infty(h(A))$ and

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle D_{\text{orth}} u, \xi \circ h^{-1} \rangle \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2} u \operatorname{div} \left((\xi \circ h^{-1}) \frac{x^\perp}{\|x\|} \right) \\ &= \int_0^{+\infty} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (u \circ h)(r, \theta) \left(\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\xi)(r, \theta) \right) r d\theta dr. \end{aligned}$$

This means that $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial r} (u \circ h) = 0$ in the sense of distributions, and hence that there exists¹³ a mapping $g :]0, +\infty[\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that for almost every $(r, \theta) \in A$, $(u \circ h)(r, \theta) = g(r)$. We finally get $u(x) = g(\|x\|)$ for almost every $x \in h(A)$, which shows u is radial.

D.2 Lemmas used in the proof of Proposition 9

We take $\eta \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \varphi$ and keep the assumptions of Section 6.

Lemma 8 *Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ be square integrable, even and decreasing on \mathbb{R}_+ . Then for every measurable set A such that $|A| < +\infty$ we have*

$$\int_A f \leq \int_{A^s} f,$$

where $A^s \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} [-\frac{|A|}{2}, \frac{|A|}{2}]$. Moreover, equality holds if and only if $|A \triangle A^s| = 0$.

¹³ To see this, notice that if we convolve $u \circ h$ with an approximation of unity ρ_ϵ , then we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} ((u \circ h) \star \rho_\epsilon) = (u \circ h) \star \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \rho_\epsilon = 0,$$

hence the smooth function $(u \circ h) \star \rho_\epsilon$ is equal to some function g_ϵ that depends only on r . Letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+$, we see that for almost every (r, θ) , $u \circ h$ only depends on r .

Proof. We have

$$\int_A f = \int_0^{+\infty} |\{f \mathbf{1}_A \geq t\}| dt = \int_0^{+\infty} |\{f \geq t\} \cap A| dt.$$

For all $t > 0$ there exists α such that $\{f \geq t\} = [-\alpha, \alpha]$, so that we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\{f \geq t\} \cap A| &= |[-\alpha, \alpha] \cap A| \leq \min(2\alpha, |A|) \\ &= |[-\alpha, \alpha] \cap [-|A|/2, |A|/2]| \\ &= |\{f \geq t\} \cap A^s|. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\int_A f \leq \int_0^{+\infty} |\{f \geq t\} \cap A^s| dt = \int_{A^s} f.$$

Now if $|A \triangle A^s| > 0$ then $|A \setminus A^s| = |A^s \setminus A| > 0$ and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{A^s} f &= \int_{A \cap A^s} f + \int_{A^s \setminus A} f \\ &> \int_{A \cap A^s} f + f\left(\frac{|A|}{2}\right) |A^s \setminus A| \\ &\geq \int_{A \cap A^s} f + \int_{A \setminus A^s} f = \int_A f, \end{aligned}$$

which proves the second part of the result. \square

Lemma 9 *Let $E \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ be s.t. $0 < |E| < \infty$ and $P(E) < \infty$. Then for any $\nu \in \mathbb{S}^1$, denoting E_ν^s the Steiner symmetrization of E with respect to the line through the origin directed by ν , we have*

$$\frac{\int_{E_\nu^s} \eta}{P(E_\nu^s)} \geq \frac{\int_E \eta}{P(E)},$$

with equality if and only if $|E \triangle E_\nu^s| = 0$.

Proof. From [Maggi, 2012, theorem 14.4] we know that we have $P(E_\nu^s) \leq P(E)$. We now perform a change of coordinates in order to have $E_\nu^s = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |x_2| \leq \frac{\mathcal{L}^1(E_{x_1})}{2}\}$ with

$$E_{x_1} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \{x_2 \in \mathbb{R} \mid (x_1, x_2) \in E\}.$$

Now we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_E \eta &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \eta(x_1, x_2) \mathbf{1}_E(x_1, x_2) dx_2 \right) dx_1 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\int_{E_{x_1}} \eta(x_1, \cdot) \right) dx_1, \end{aligned}$$

with $E_{x_1} = \{x_2 \in \mathbb{R} \mid (x_1, x_2) \in E\}$. For almost every $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ we have that E_{x_1} is measurable, has finite measure, and that $\eta(x_1, \cdot)$ is nonnegative, square integrable, even and decreasing on \mathbb{R}_+ . We can hence apply Lemma 8 and get that

$$\int_E \eta \geq \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\int_{(E_{x_1})^s} \eta(x_1, \cdot) \right) dx_1 = \int_{E_\nu^s} \eta. \quad (34)$$

Moreover, if $|E \triangle E_\nu^s| > 0$, then since

$$\begin{aligned} |E \triangle E_\nu^s| &= \int_0^{+\infty} \left(\int_0^{+\infty} |\mathbf{1}_E(x_1, x_2) - \mathbf{1}_{E_\nu^s}(x_1, x_2)| dx_2 \right) dx_1 \\ &= \int_0^{+\infty} \left(\int_0^{+\infty} |\mathbf{1}_{E_{x_1}}(x_2) - \mathbf{1}_{(E_{x_1})^s}(x_2)| dx_2 \right) dx_1 \\ &= \int_0^{+\infty} |E_{x_1} \triangle (E_{x_1})^s| dx_1, \end{aligned}$$

we get that $\mathcal{L}^1(\{x_1 \in \mathbb{R} \mid |E_{x_1} \triangle (E_{x_1})^s| > 0\}) > 0$ and hence that (34) is strict. \square

Lemma 10 *Under Assumption 1, the mapping*

$$\mathcal{G} : R \mapsto \frac{1}{R} \int_0^R r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr$$

has a unique maximizer.

Proof. Since φ (and hence $\tilde{\varphi}$) is continuous, we have that \mathcal{G} is C^1 on R_+^* and

$$\mathcal{G}'(R) = \frac{R(R\tilde{\varphi}(R)) - \int_0^R r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr}{R^2}.$$

Now an integration by part yields that for any continuously differentiable function $h :]0, +\infty[\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and for any $x > 0$ we have

$$H(x) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} x h(x) - \int_0^x h = \int_0^x t h'(t) dt,$$

which shows $H'(x) = x h'(x)$. This means the mappings

$$R \mapsto R(R\tilde{\varphi}(R)) - \int_0^R r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr \text{ and } R \mapsto f(R) = R\tilde{\varphi}(R)$$

have the same variations. Under Assumption 1, it is then easy to show there exists $R_0 > 0$ such that $\mathcal{G}'(R_0) = 0$, \mathcal{G}' is positive on $]0, R_0[$ and negative on $]R_0, +\infty[$, hence the result. \square

D.3 Proof of Proposition 12

We define

$$R_n(\theta) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} R \frac{\cos(\pi/n)}{\cos((\theta \bmod 2\pi/n) - \pi/n)},$$

so that in polar coordinates an equation of the boundary of a regular n -gon of radius R with a vertex at $(0, 0)$ is given by $r(\theta) = R_n(\theta)$. Under Assumption 1 we have, for all $R > 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} & 2\pi R \frac{\tan(\pi/n)}{\pi/n} |\mathcal{G}(R) - \mathcal{G}_n(R)| \\ &= \left| \frac{\tan(\pi/n)}{\pi/n} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr d\theta - \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{R_n(\theta)} r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr d\theta \right| \\ &= \left| \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{R_n(\theta)}^R r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr d\theta - \left(1 - \frac{\tan(\pi/n)}{\pi/n}\right) \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr d\theta \right| \\ &\leq \left[2\pi \sup_{\theta \in [0, 2\pi]} |R - R_n(\theta)| \|f\|_\infty + \left(1 - \frac{\tan(\pi/n)}{\pi/n}\right) 2\pi R \|f\|_\infty \right] \\ &\leq \|f\|_\infty \left[(1 - \cos(\pi/n)) + \left(1 - \frac{\tan(\pi/n)}{\pi/n}\right) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

We hence obtain that $|\mathcal{G}(R) - \mathcal{G}_n(R)|_\infty = O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$.

Now assuming f is of class C^2 and $f''(\rho_0) < 0$ we want to prove that for n large enough, \mathcal{G}_n has a unique maximizer R_n^*

and $|R_n^* - R^*| = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$. Denoting $\alpha_n(s) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \frac{\cos(\pi/n)}{\cos(s/n)}$, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G}_n(R) &= \frac{1}{2\pi R \frac{\tan(\pi/n)}{\pi/n}} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{R_n(\theta)} r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi R \frac{\tan(\pi/n)}{\pi/n}} n \int_0^{2\pi/n} \int_0^{R \frac{\cos(\pi/n)}{\cos(\theta - \pi/n)}} r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr d\theta \\ &= \frac{\pi/n}{R \tan(\pi/n)} \int_0^1 \int_0^{R \alpha_n(s)} r \tilde{\varphi}(r) dr ds \\ &= \frac{\pi/n}{\tan(\pi/n)} \frac{1}{R} \int_0^R r \left[\int_0^1 \alpha_n(s)^2 \tilde{\varphi}(r \alpha_n(s)) ds \right] dr. \end{aligned}$$

Considering Lemma 10 and defining

$$f_n : r \mapsto r \left[\int_0^1 \alpha_n(s)^2 \tilde{\varphi}(r \alpha_n(s)) ds \right],$$

we see that showing f_n' is positive on $]0, \rho_1[$ and negative on $]\rho_1, +\infty[$ for some ρ_1 is sufficient to prove \mathcal{G}_n has a unique maximizer. Now we have

$$f_n'(r) = \int_0^1 \alpha_n(s)^2 (\tilde{\varphi}(r \alpha_n(s)) + r \alpha_n(s) \tilde{\varphi}'(r \alpha_n(s))) ds.$$

The image of $[0, 1]$ by $s \mapsto r \alpha_n(s)$ is $[r \cos(\pi/n), r]$. Since the mapping $r \mapsto \tilde{\varphi}(r) + r \tilde{\varphi}'(r) = (r \tilde{\varphi})'(r)$ is positive on $]0, \rho_0[$ and negative on $]\rho_0, +\infty[$, we get that f_n' is positive on $]0, \rho_0[$ and negative on $]\rho_0/\cos(\pi/n), +\infty[$ and it hence remains to investigate its sign on $[\rho_0, \rho_0/\cos(\pi/n)]$. But since f is of class C^2 and $f''(\rho_0) < 0$ there exists $\epsilon > 0$ s.t. $f''(r) < 0$ on $[\rho_0 - \epsilon, \rho_0 + \epsilon]$. For n large enough, we hence have

$$[\rho_0 \cos(\pi/n), \rho_0/\cos(\pi/n)] \subset]\rho_0 - \epsilon, \rho_0 + \epsilon[,$$

which implies that

$$\forall r \in [\rho_0, \rho_0/\cos(\pi/n)], r \alpha_n(s) \in]\rho_0 - \epsilon, \rho_0 + \epsilon[,$$

and hence $f_n''(r) < 0$. This finally shows there exists ρ_1 such that f_n' is positive on $]0, \rho_1[$ and negative on $]\rho_1, +\infty[$, and the result follows as in the proof of Lemma 10.

Now R^* and R_n^* are respectively the unique solutions of $F(0, R) = 0$ and $F(\pi/n, R) = 0$ with

$$\begin{aligned} F(t, R) &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \left[\int_0^R f_t \right] - R f_t(R), \\ f_t(r) &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} r \int_0^1 \alpha(t, s)^2 \tilde{\varphi}(r \alpha(t, s)) ds, \\ \alpha(t, s) &\stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \frac{\cos t}{\cos(ts)}. \end{aligned}$$

One can then show $\frac{\partial}{\partial R} F(0, R) = 0$ if and only if $f_0'(R) = 0$, i.e. if and only if $R = \rho_0$. But from the proof of Lemma 10 and the above, it is easy to see neither R^* nor R_n^* equals ρ_0 . We can hence apply the implicit function theorem to finally get that $|R^* - R_n^*| = O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$.

D.4 Proof of Proposition 13

D.4.1 Triangles

Let T be a triangle. Up to a rotation of the axis, we can assume that there exist $a < b$ and two affine functions u, v such that $v \geq u$ and $u(a) = v(a)$ with

$$T = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in [a, b], u(x) \leq y \leq v(x)\}.$$

The Steiner symmetrization T_s of T with respect to the line through the origin perpendicular to the side $\{b\} \times [u(b), v(b)]$ is hence obtained by replacing u and v in the definition of T by $(u - v)/2$ and $(v - u)/2$. For all $\theta \in [0, 1]$, we define

$$u_\theta \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} (1 - \theta)u + \theta(-v),$$

$$v_\theta \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \theta(-u) + (1 - \theta)v,$$

and

$$T_\theta \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in [a, b], u_\theta(x) \leq y \leq v_\theta(x)\},$$

so that $T_{1/2} = T_s$. Let us now show that

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \mathcal{J}(T_\theta) \Big|_{\theta=0} \leq 0,$$

with equality if and only if T is symmetric with respect to the symmetrization line.

Weighted area term: first, we have:

$$\int_{T_\theta} \eta = \int_a^b \left(\int_{u_\theta(x)}^{v_\theta(x)} \eta(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) dy \right) dx.$$

Hence

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{T_\theta} \eta \Big|_{\theta=0} = - \int_a^b (u + v)(x) (g_x(|v|(x)) - g_x(|u|(x))) dx,$$

with $g_x(p) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \eta(\sqrt{x^2 + p^2})$. Our assumptions on η ensure that $p \mapsto g_x(p)$ is decreasing, so that $g_x(|v|(x)) - g_x(|u|(x))$ and $|u|(x) - |v|(x)$ have the same sign. But since

$$-(u(x) + v(x)) \quad \text{and} \quad -(|u|(x) - |v|(x))$$

also have the same sign, we have that

$$-(u + v)(x) (g_x(|v|(x)) - g_x(|u|(x))) < 0,$$

unless $u(x) = v(x)$ or $u(x) = -v(x)$. Since u and v are affine and $u(a) = v(a)$, the first equality can not hold for any $x \in]a, b[$ (otherwise we would have $u = v$ on $[a, b]$ and T would be flat). Moreover, $u(x) = -v(x)$ almost everywhere on $[a, b]$ if and only if $T = T_s$. Hence $\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{T_\theta} \eta \Big|_{\theta=0} \leq 0$ with equality if and only if $T = T_s$.

Perimeter term: now, the perimeter of T_θ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} P(T_\theta) &= \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + |\nabla u_\theta|^2} + \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + |\nabla v_\theta|^2} + v_\theta(b) - u_\theta(b) \\ &= (b - a) (f(\nabla u_\theta) + f(\nabla v_\theta)) + (v(b) - u(b)), \end{aligned}$$

with $f(p) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \sqrt{1 + \|p\|^2}$, this last function being strictly convex. Now since

$$\begin{cases} \nabla u_\theta = \nabla u - \theta(\nabla u + \nabla v), \\ \nabla v_\theta = \nabla v - \theta(\nabla u + \nabla v), \end{cases}$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\theta} P(T_\theta) \Big|_{\theta=0} &= (b - a) [\nabla f(\nabla u) + \nabla f(\nabla v)] \cdot [-(\nabla u + \nabla v)] \\ &= -(b - a) [\nabla f(\nabla u) - \nabla f(-\nabla v)] \cdot [\nabla u - (-\nabla v)], \end{aligned}$$

and the strict convexity of f hence shows

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} P(T_\theta) \Big|_{\theta=0} \leq 0,$$

with equality if and only if $\nabla u = -\nabla v$, which means, up to a translation, that T is equal to T_s .

Applying the above arguments to all three sides finally yields the result.

D.4.2 Quadrilaterals

Let Q be a simple quadrilateral. Up to a rotation of the axis, we can assume that there exist $a < b < c$ and four affine functions u_1, v_1, u_2, v_2 such that

$$\begin{cases} v_1 \geq u_1, v_2 \geq u_2, \\ u_1(a) = v_1(a), u_2(c) = v_2(c), \\ u_1(b) = u_2(b), v_1(b) = v_2(b), \end{cases}$$

with $Q = T_1 \cup T_2$ and

$$T_i \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in [a, b], u_i(x) \leq y \leq v_i(x)\}.$$

For all $\theta \in [0, 1]$ and $i \in \{1, 2\}$, we define

$$\begin{cases} u_{i,\theta} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} (1 - \theta)u_i + \theta(-v_i), \\ v_{i,\theta} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \theta(-u_i) + (1 - \theta)v_i, \end{cases}$$

and $Q_\theta = T_{1,\theta} \cup T_{2,\theta}$ with

$$T_{i,\theta} = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x \in [a, b], u_{i,\theta}(x) \leq y \leq v_{i,\theta}(x)\},$$

so that the Steiner symmetrization Q^s of Q with respect to the ligne through the origin perpendicular to the diagonal $\{b\} \times [u_1(b), v_1(b)]$ satisfies $Q_{1/2} = Q^s$.

Weighted area term: the fact $\frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{Q_\theta} \eta \Big|_{\theta=0} \leq 0$ with equality if and only if $Q = Q^s$ can easily be deduced from the case of triangles using the fact that $\int_{Q_\theta} \eta = \int_{T_{1,\theta}} \eta + \int_{T_{2,\theta}} \eta$.

Perimeter term: now, the perimeter of Q_θ is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} P(Q_\theta) &= \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + |\nabla u_{1,\theta}|^2} + \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + |\nabla v_{1,\theta}|^2} \\ &\quad + \int_b^c \sqrt{1 + |\nabla u_{2,\theta}|^2} + \int_b^c \sqrt{1 + |\nabla v_{2,\theta}|^2} \\ &= (b - a) (f(\nabla u_{1,\theta}) + f(\nabla v_{1,\theta})) \\ &\quad + (c - b) (f(\nabla u_{2,\theta}) + f(\nabla v_{2,\theta})) \end{aligned}$$

with $f(p) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \sqrt{1 + \|p\|^2}$ as before. We then get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\theta} P(Q_\theta) \Big|_{\theta=0} &= -(b - a) [\nabla f(\nabla u_1) - \nabla f(-\nabla v_1)] \cdot [\nabla u_1 - (-\nabla v_1)] \\ &\quad - (c - b) [\nabla f(\nabla u_2) - \nabla f(-\nabla v_2)] \cdot [\nabla u_2 - (-\nabla v_2)], \end{aligned}$$

and the strict convexity of f hence shows

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} P(Q_\theta) \Big|_{\theta=0} \leq 0,$$

with equality if and only if $\nabla u_1 = -\nabla v_1$ and $\nabla u_2 = -\nabla v_2$, which means, up to a translation, that Q is equal to Q^s .