

Part 2 - Inverse Problems in a Nutshell

José M. Bioucas Dias

Instituto de Telecomunicações
Instituto Superior Técnico
Universidade de Lisboa
Portugal

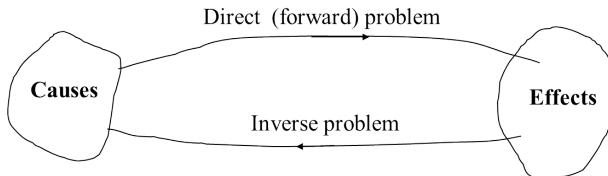
Société Française de Photogrammétrie et Télédétection
Grenoble, France, May, 2016



Part 2

- Direct (forward) and inverse problems
- Classes of direct problems. Examples
- Well-posed, ill-posed, and ill-conditioned inverse problems
- Curing ill-conditioned/ill-posed inverse problems
- The Bayesian philosophy. Bayesian estimators
- The regularization framework
- Widely used (convex) regularizers
- Proximity operators and proximity algorithms

Direct/Inverse problems



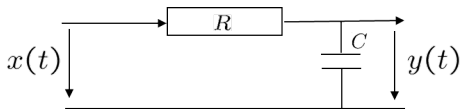
Example

Direct problem: the computation of the trajectories of bodies from the knowledge of the forces

Inverse problem: determination of the forces from the knowledge of the trajectories

Newton solved the first direct/inverse problem: the determination of the gravitation force from the Kepler laws describing the trajectories of planets

Example: a linear time invariant (LTI) system

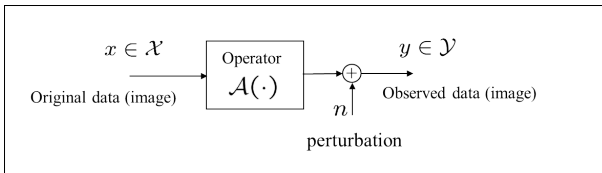


- Direct problem: $y(t) = x \star h(t) = \int x(t')h(t-t')dt'$
Fourier domain: $\tilde{y}(\omega) = \tilde{h}(\omega)\tilde{x}(\omega) \Rightarrow \tilde{h}(\omega) = (1 + j\omega\tau)^{-1}, \quad \tau = RC$
- Inverse problem $\tilde{x}(\omega) = \tilde{y}(\omega)/h(\tilde{\omega})$
- Source or difficulties: \tilde{h}^{-1} is unbounded: $|\tilde{h}^{-1}(\omega)| \rightarrow \infty$ as $|\omega| \rightarrow \infty$
 \Rightarrow A perturbation on \tilde{y} leads to a perturbation on \tilde{x} given by

$$\tilde{\Delta}x(\omega) = \tilde{\Delta}y(\omega)(1 + j\omega\tau)$$

high frequencies of the perturbation are amplified, degrading the estimate of \tilde{x}

Classes of direct (forward) problems: linear operators



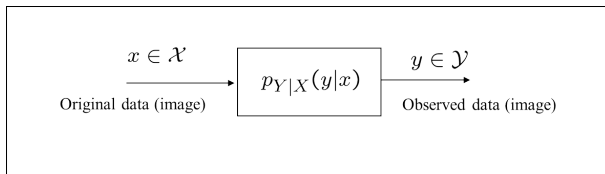
- Linear operators in Euclidean spaces

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n}, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

- Applications:

- image denoising, deconvolution, deblurring
- X-ray tomography, MR imaging, radar imaging
- imaging compressive sensing
- image deblurring, superresolution, fusion
- hyperspectral unmixing

Classes of direct problems: statistical observation models

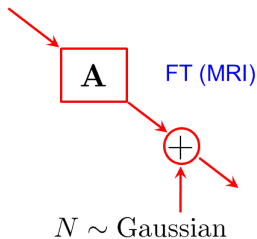
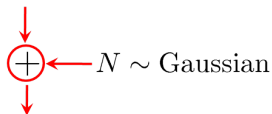
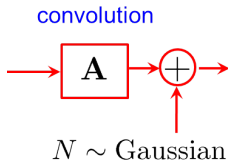


Examples: $(\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n})$

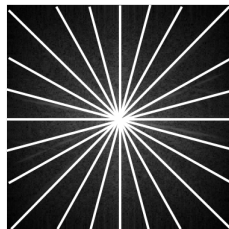
$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{Ax}) = -\log p_{Y|X}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) \text{ where } \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{z}) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^m \xi(z_i, y_i)$$

- **Gaussian observations:** $\xi_G(z, y) = \frac{1}{2}(z - y)^2$
(widely used in image restoration)
- **Poissonian observations:** $\xi_P(z, y) = z + \iota_{\mathbb{R}_+}(z) - y \log(z_+)$
(noise in photo-electric conversion, SPET (single photon emission tomography, PET (positron emission tomography))
- **Multiplicative noise:** $\xi_M(z, y) = L(z + e^{y-z})$
(radar, sonar)

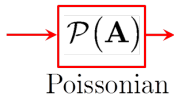
Examples



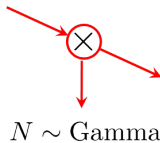
subsampling



Examples



subsampling



multiplicative noise

Example: hyperspectral pansharpening

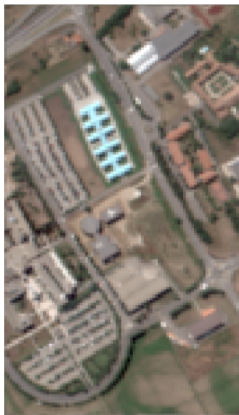
$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{600 \times 400 \times 100}$$



original HS

$$\mathbf{y}_h = \mathbf{A}_h \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n}_h$$

$$\mathbf{y}_h \in \mathbb{R}^{150 \times 100 \times 100}$$



spatially blurred and
downsampled HS

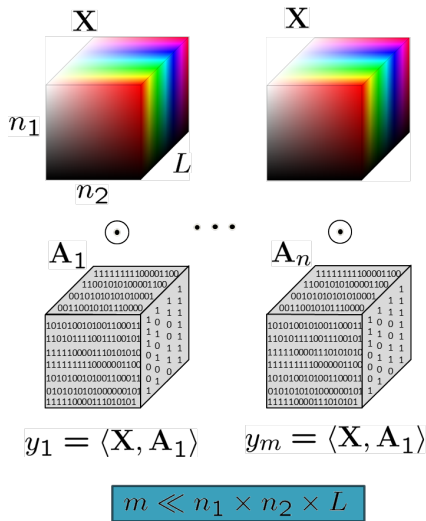
$$\mathbf{y}_p = \mathbf{A}_p \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n}_p$$

$$\mathbf{y}_p \in \mathbb{R}^{600 \times 400 \times 1}$$



spectrally blurred HS

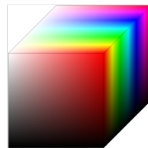
Example: hyperspectral compressive sensing



$\{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$ $\{\mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_m\}$



Solve a convex
optimization problem



perfect reconstruction

Well-posed/ill-posed inverse problems [Hadamard, 1923]

Definition

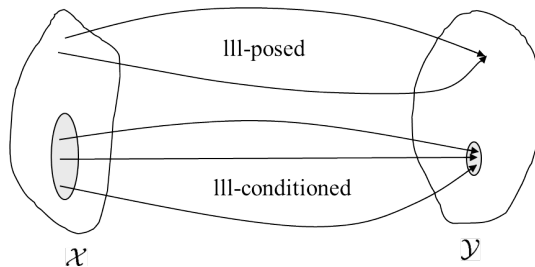
Let $\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ be a (possible nonlinear) operator

The inverse problem of solving $\mathcal{A}(x) = y$ is well-posed in the Hadamard sense if:

- 1) A solution exists for any y in the observed data space
- 2) The solution is unique
- 3) The inverse mapping $y \mapsto x$ is continuous

- An inverse problem that is not well-posed is termed ill-posed
- The operator \mathcal{A} of an inverse well/ill-posed problem is termed well/ill-posed

Ill-conditioned inverse problems



- Many well-posed inverse problems are ill-conditioned, in the sense that

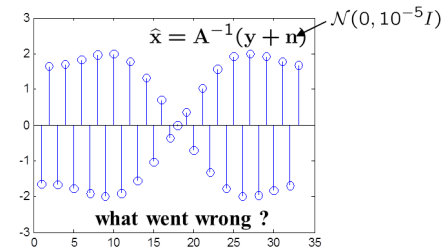
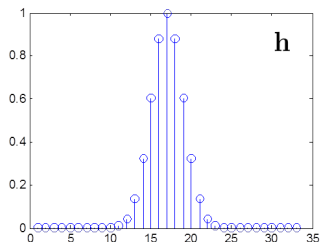
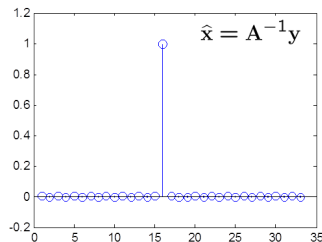
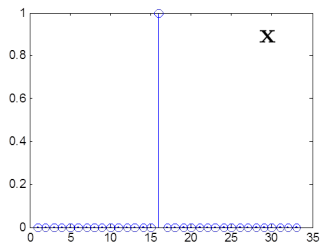
$$\frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \gg \frac{\|\Delta y\|}{\|y\|}$$

- for linear operators $\frac{\|\Delta x\|}{\|x\|} \leq \text{cond}(\mathcal{A}) \frac{\|\Delta y\|}{\|y\|}$ (tight bound)

$$\text{cond}(\mathcal{A}) \equiv \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$$

An ill-conditioned IP: discrete deconvolution

Let $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n}$, where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ represents a cyclic convolution with a Gaussian convolution kernel.



An ill-conditioned IP: 1D discrete deconvolution

Eigen-decomposition of cyclic matrices

- $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{v}_k \Rightarrow \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^*, \quad \mathbf{V}^*\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{V}^* = \mathbf{I}, \quad (\text{unitary})$

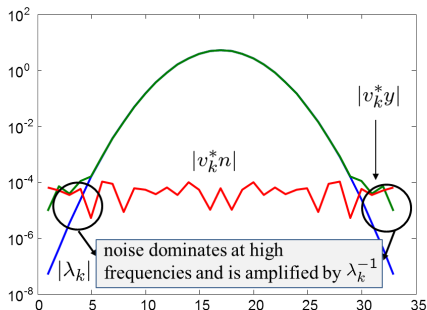
$\mathbf{V} \rightarrow$ eigenvector (Fourier) matrix, $\mathbf{\Lambda} \rightarrow$ eigenvalue matrix (diagonal) matrix

- $\mathbf{A} = \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k \mathbf{v}_k \mathbf{v}_k^*, (\lambda_k \neq 0, k = 1, \dots, n) \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{\lambda_k} \mathbf{v}_k \mathbf{v}_k^*$

- $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n}$

- $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$

$$= \mathbf{x} + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(\mathbf{v}_k^* \mathbf{n})}{\lambda_k} \mathbf{v}_k$$



Example: 1D discrete deconvolution

- Regularization by filtering

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_\alpha = \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k^{-1} w_\alpha(|\lambda_k|) \mathbf{v}_k (\mathbf{v}_k^* \mathbf{y})$$

such that

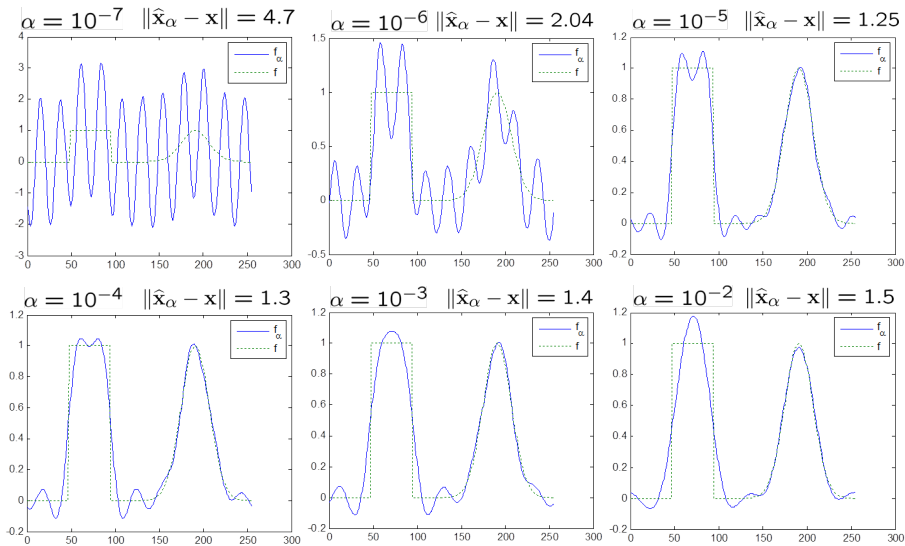
- 1 $w_\alpha(|\lambda|) \lambda^{-1} \rightarrow 0$ as $\lambda \rightarrow 0$
 - 2 The larger eigenvalues are retained
- Wiener filter

$$w_\alpha(|\lambda|) = \frac{|\lambda|^2}{|\lambda|^2 + \alpha} \quad \hat{\mathbf{x}}_\alpha = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\lambda_k^*}{|\lambda_k|^2 + \alpha} \mathbf{v}_k (\mathbf{v}_k^* \mathbf{y})$$

- Equivalent variational formulation (Tikhonov regularization)

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_\alpha &= \arg \min_x \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \\ &= (\mathbf{A}^* \mathbf{A} + \alpha \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^* \mathbf{y} \end{aligned}$$

Example: 1D Discrete deconvolution



Example: 2D Discrete deconvolution

- convolution kernel h : uniform 9×9 , $\mathbf{n} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 = 0.56^2)$

- $\text{cond}(\mathbf{A}) = 2.2 \times 10^5$, $\text{SNR} = \frac{\text{var}(\mathbf{y})}{\sigma^2} = 40\text{dB}$

- \mathbf{x}

 $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Ax} + \mathbf{n}$ 

Example: 2D Discrete deconvolution

$\alpha = 10^{-3}$ ISNR = -16dB



$\alpha = 5 \times 10^{-3}$ ISNR = -5dB



$\alpha = 3 \times 10^{-2}$ ISNR = 5.6dB



$\alpha = 10^{-1}$ ISNR = 3.2 dB



Curing Ill-posed/Ill-conditioned inverse problems

Golden rule for solving ill-posed/ill-conditioned inverse problems

Search for solutions which are:

- 1 compatible with the observed data
- 2 satisfy additional constraints (*a priori* or prior information) coming from the (physics) problem

Frameworks to solve inverse problems

- Bayesian inference: the causes are inferred by minimizing the Bayesian risk
- Regularization theory: the causes are inferred by minimizing a cost function

The Bayesian philosophy

Bayesian Inference

- Probabilities describe degrees of belief, not limiting relative frequencies
- We can make probability statements about parameters, even though they are fixed quantities
- Any inference should be based on the **posterior**

$$p_{X|Y}(x|y) = \frac{p_{Y|X}(y|x)p_X(x)}{p_Y(y)}$$

where $p_X(x)$ is the **prior** (or a priori) **distribution** that expresses our belief about x before we see any data and $p_Y(y)$ is the **marginal** on y

Bayesian estimators

Optimal Bayes estimator:

$$\hat{x}_{\text{Bayes}} \in \arg \min_{\hat{x}} \mathcal{R}(\hat{x}|y)$$

where $\mathcal{R}(\hat{x}|y)$ is the **a posteriori expected loss**

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{x}|y) = E[L(x, \hat{x})|y] = \int L(x, \hat{x})p(x|y) dx$$

and $L(x, \hat{x})$ is a **loss function** that measures the discrepancy between x and \hat{x}

- Zero-one loss function (**Maximum A Posteriori Probability**):

$$L_{\varepsilon}(x, \hat{x}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \|x - \hat{x}\|_2 \leq \varepsilon \\ 1 & \|x - \hat{x}\|_2 > \varepsilon \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} \hat{x}_{\text{MAP}} &= \arg \max_x p(x|y) \\ &= \arg \max_x p(y|x)p(x) \end{aligned}$$

- Quadratic loss(**Posterior Mean**):

$$L(x, \hat{x}) = (x - \hat{x})^T Q (x - \hat{x}) \Rightarrow \hat{x}_{\text{PM}} = \mathbb{E}[x|y]$$

Regularization framework

- $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \rightarrow$ **data fidelity term**: measures the compatibility between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} (data-term, loss function, observation model, log-likelihood, ...)
- $\phi(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow$ **regularizer**: expresses prior information about \mathbf{x}
- $\tau \rightarrow$ **regularization parameter**: sets the relative weight between the data term and the regularizer

Unconstrained and constrained formulations

- 1) Tikonov regularization: $\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + \tau \phi(\mathbf{x})$
- 2) Morozov regularization: $\min_{\mathbf{x}} \phi(\mathbf{x})$ subject to: $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \varepsilon$
- 3) Ivanov regularization: $\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ subject to: $\phi(\mathbf{x}) \leq \delta$

These formulations are equivalent under mild conditions [Lorenz & Worlicze, 13].
2) and 3) may take an unconstrained form using indicator functions

Widely used (convex) regularizers

Typical (sparseness-inducing) regularizer:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}\|_1$$

\mathbf{x} contains representation coefficients (e.g., wavelet coefficients)

\mathbf{x}

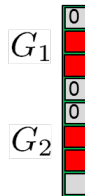


Typical frame-based analysis regularizer:

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{P}\mathbf{x}\|_1$$

\mathbf{P} is an analysis operator

\mathbf{x}



Group regularization (structured sparsity):

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \phi_i(\mathbf{x}_{G_i}), \quad G_i \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$$

ϕ_i is the ℓ_1 , ℓ_2 , or ℓ_∞ norm (groups G_i may overlap)

Total variation regularization

Total variation regularization (promotes localized step gradients)

([Rudin, Osher, Fatemi, 92])

$$\text{TV}_p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (|x_i - x_{h_i}|^p + |x_i - x_{v_i}|^p)^{1/p}$$

where $h_i, v_i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ are the horizontal/vertical neighbors of i

Nonlocal total variation regularization (improved fine detail preservation)

([Osher et al., 05], [Elmoataz et al., 08])

$$\text{NLTV}_p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} \omega_{i,j}^p |x_i - x_j|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

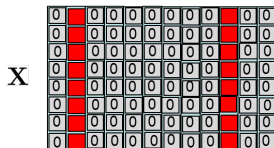
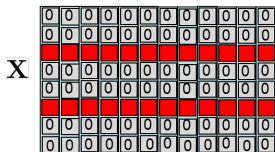
where $\mathcal{N}_i \subset \{1, \dots, n\} \setminus \{i\}$

Example: TV and NLTV denoising

Regularization oriented to matrices

Mixed norms (structured sparseness-inducing) regularizers

$$\phi(\mathbf{X}) = \|\mathbf{X}\|_{p,1} = \sum_i \|\mathbf{x}^i\|_p \quad p \in \{2, \infty\}, \quad \phi(\mathbf{X}) = \|\mathbf{X}^T\|_{p,1}$$



Schatten p -norm ($p \geq 1$)

$$\|\mathbf{X}\|_{\mathcal{S}_p} = \left(\sum_i (\sigma_i(\mathbf{X}))^p \right)^{1/p}$$

where $\sigma_i(\mathbf{X})$ is the i th singular value of \mathbf{X} .

$$\|\mathbf{X}\|_{\mathcal{S}_1} \equiv \|\mathbf{X}\|_* \text{ (nuclear norm, promotes low rank)}$$

$$\|\mathbf{X}\|_{\mathcal{S}_2} \equiv \|\mathbf{X}\|_F \text{ (Frobenius norm)}$$

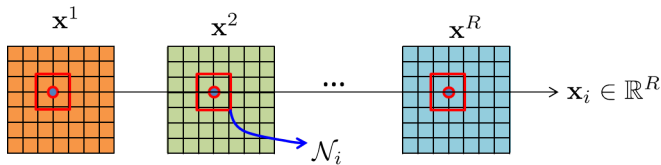
$$\|\mathbf{X}\|_{\mathcal{S}_\infty} = \sigma_1(\mathbf{X}) \text{ (spectral norm)}$$

Regularization oriented to hyperspectral (multiband) images

Let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{R \times N}$ denote an hyperspectral image with R spectral bands and N pixels per band

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}^1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}^R \end{bmatrix} \text{ (} R \text{ band images)}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N] \text{ (} N \text{ spectral vectors)}$$



$$\mathbf{X}_i = [\mathbf{x}_i \mid i \in \mathcal{N}_i]$$

Structured tensor regularization

$$\phi_{\text{ST}_p}(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \tau_i \|\mathbf{G}_i \mathbf{X}_i \mathbf{H}\|_{\mathcal{S}_p}$$

Regularization oriented to hyperspectral (multiband) images

Instances of structured tensor regularization

- **ST-TV** (other names: Vector TV, Hyperspectral TV)
([Bressom, Chan, 2008], [Yuan et al., 2012])

$$\phi_{\text{ST-TV}}(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \tau_i \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_{h_i}, \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_{v_i}\|_F$$

ST-TV promotes localized step gradients within the image bands and aligns the “discontinuities” across the bands

- **ST-NLTV_p** (other names: Multichannel-NLTV)
([Gilboa, Osher, 2009], [Cheng et al., 2009])

$$\phi_{\text{ST-NLTV}_p}(\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \tau_i \left\| [(\omega_{i,j}(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j), j \in \mathcal{N}_i)] \right\|_{S_p}$$

ST-NLTV combines the characteristics of ST-TV and of NLTV

Proximal algorithms for solving convex inverse problems

Hyperspectral imaging inverse problems are challenging

- Hyperspectral imaging inverse problems are usually **very large** and often **non-smooth**
- Gradient-based algorithms cannot be used (e.g., nonlinear conjugate gradient or quasi-Newton)

Proximal algorithms: [Parikh et al., 13], [Komodakis & Pesquet, 14]

- new class of iterative methods suited to solve large scale non-smooth convex optimization problems
- replace a difficult problem with a sequence of simpler ones
- proximity operators, which may be interpreted as implicit subgradients, plays a central role in the proximal algorithms

Convex optimization and proximal algorithms

Proximity Operators ([Moreau 62], [Combettes, Wajs, 05], [Combettes, Pesquet, 07, 11], [Parikh, Boyd, 2013])

Moreau proximity operator (shrinkage/thresholding/denoising function)

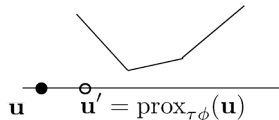
$$\text{prox}_{\tau\phi}(\mathbf{u}) = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} (1/2)\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{u}\|_2^2 + \tau\phi(\mathbf{x})$$

Projection onto a convex set

$$\iota_C(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 0 & \mathbf{x} \in C \\ +\infty & \mathbf{x} \notin C \end{cases} \quad \text{prox}_{\tau\iota_C}(\mathbf{u}) = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x} \in C} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{u}\|_2^2$$

Proximity operators generalize projections onto convex sets

Proximity operators have the flavor of gradient steps



Fixed points: \mathbf{u}^* minimizes if and only if $\mathbf{u}^* = \text{prox}_{\tau\phi}(\mathbf{u}^*)$

Moreau decomposition : $\mathbf{u} = \text{prox}_{\phi}(\mathbf{u}) + \text{prox}_{\phi^*}(\mathbf{u})$
(ϕ^* is the convex conjugate of ϕ)

Proximity Operators of widely used convex regularizers

$$\ell_1\text{-norm: } \phi(\mathbf{z}) = \|\mathbf{z}\|_1 \Rightarrow \text{prox}_{\tau\phi}(\mathbf{u}) = \text{soft}(\mathbf{u}, \tau) := (|\mathbf{u}| - \tau)_+ \text{sign}(\mathbf{u})$$

$$\ell_2\text{-norm: } \phi(\mathbf{z}) = \|\mathbf{z}\|_2 \Rightarrow \text{prox}_{\tau\phi}(\mathbf{u}) = \text{vect-soft}(\mathbf{u}, \tau) := (\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 - \tau)_+ (\mathbf{u} / \|\mathbf{u}\|_2)$$

$$\ell_\infty\text{-norm: } \phi(\mathbf{z}) = \|\mathbf{z}\|_\infty \Rightarrow \text{prox}_{\tau\phi}(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{u} - P_{B_{\ell_1}(\tau)}(\mathbf{u})$$

$$\text{nuclear-norm: } \phi(\mathbf{Z}) = \|\mathbf{Z}\|_* \Rightarrow \text{prox}_{\tau\phi}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{U}\mathcal{D}_\tau(\boldsymbol{\sigma})\mathbf{V}^T$$

$$[\mathbf{U}, \Sigma, \mathbf{V}] = \text{svd}(\mathbf{X}), \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \text{diag}(\Sigma), \quad \mathcal{D}_\tau(\Sigma) = \text{diag}(\sigma_i - \tau)_+$$

$$\text{Schatten } p\text{-norm } (p \geq 1): \phi(\mathbf{Z}) = \|\mathbf{Z}\|_{\mathcal{S}_p} \Rightarrow \text{prox}_{\tau\phi}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{U}\mathcal{D}_\tau(\Sigma)\mathbf{V}^T$$

$$[\mathbf{U}, \Sigma, \mathbf{V}] = \text{svd}(\mathbf{X}), \quad \mathcal{D}_\tau(\Sigma) = \text{diag}(\text{prox}_{\tau\|\cdot\|_p}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}))$$

Proximal algorithms: SALSA ([Afonso, B-D, Figueiredo, 09, 10])

SALSA - (split augmented Lagrangian shrinkage algorithm) solves the optimization

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sum_{j=1}^J g_j(\mathbf{H}^j \mathbf{x}), \quad \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \mathbf{H}^j \in \mathbb{R}^{n_j \times n} \\ g_j : \mathbb{R}^{n_j} \mapsto \mathbb{R} \text{ convex, closed, proper} \end{array}$$

Algorithm 1: SALSA

initialization:

choose $(\mathbf{u}_0^j, \mathbf{d}_0^j) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_j \times n_j}$, $j = 1, \dots, J$

define $\mathbf{G} = \sum_{j=1}^J (\mathbf{H}^j)^T \mathbf{H}^j$

set $\mu \in]0, +\infty[$

for $k = 0, 1, \dots$ **do**

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{G}^{-1} \left(\sum_{j=1}^J \mathbf{H}^j \left(\mathbf{u}_k^j + \mathbf{d}_k^j \right) \right)$$

for $j = 1$ **to** J **do**

$$\mathbf{u}_{k+1}^j = \text{prox}_{g_j/\mu}(\mathbf{H}^j \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{d}_k^j)$$

$$\mathbf{d}_{k+1}^j = \mathbf{d}_k^j - (\mathbf{H}^j \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{u}_{k+1}^j)$$

return \mathbf{x}_{k+1}

Distinctive features

- Minimizes sums of convex terms
- The computation of proximity operators is parallelizable
- Offers flexibility in the choice of splittings
- **Conditions for easy applicability:**
 - inexpensive proximity operators
 - inexpensive matrix inversion
- Related algorithms: PPXA
[Combettes, Pesquet, 08]
SDMM [Setzer, et al., 10]

Proximal algorithms: FBPD ([Condat, 13], [Vũ,13])

FBPD - (Forward Backward Primal Dual) solves the optimization

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x}) + h(\mathbf{G}\mathbf{x}) \quad & \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad \mathbf{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \\ & f, h : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R} \quad \text{convex, closed, proper} \\ & g : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R} \quad \text{convex, } \beta\text{-Lipschitz continuous gradient} \end{aligned}$$

Algorithm 2: FBPD

initialization:

choose $(\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{u}_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$

set $\tau > 0, \sigma > 0$ such that

$$\tau(\beta/2 + \sigma\|\mathbf{G}\|^2) < 1$$

for $k = 0, 1, \dots$ **do**

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}_k = \nabla g(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{u}_k)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \text{prox}_{\tau f}(\mathbf{x}_k - \tau \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k)$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{u}}_k = \mathbf{G}(2\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k)$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{k+1} = \text{prox}_{\sigma h^*}(\mathbf{u}_k + \sigma \bar{\mathbf{u}}_k)$$

return \mathbf{x}_{k+1}

Distinctive features

- Minimizes sums of convex terms
- Does not involve matrix inversions
- Offers flexibility in the choice of splittings
- **Conditions for easy applicability:**
 - inexpensive proximity operators
- Related algorithms: FBF
[Combettes & Pesquet, 12]