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 $L_1 - L_2$ 

# Minimizing the Difference of $L_1$ and $L_2$ Norms with Applications

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## Outline

**1** A nonconvex approach:  $L_1$ - $L_2$ 

2 Minimization algorithms

Some applications





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## Background

We aim to find a sparse vector from an under-determined linear system,

```
\hat{x}_0 = \operatorname{argmin}_x ||x||_0 \text{ s.t. } Ax = b.
```

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This is NP-hard.

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A popular approach is to replace  $L_0$  by  $L_1$ , i.e.,

 $\hat{x}_1 = \operatorname{argmin}_x \|x\|_1$  s.t. Ax = b.

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This is NP-hard.

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 $\hat{x}_1 = \operatorname{argmin}_x ||x||_1$  s.t. Ax = b.

The equivalence between  $L_0$  and  $L_1$  norms holds when the matrix *A* satisfies the restricted isometry property (RIP).

Candes-Romberg-Tao (2006)

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## Coherence

Another sparse recovery guarantee is based on coherence.

$$||x||_0 \leq \frac{1}{2}(1+\mu(A)^{-1}),$$

where coherence of a matrix  $A = [a_1, \dots, a_N]$  is defined as

$$\mu(A) = \max_{i \neq j} \frac{|a_i^T a_j|}{\|a_i\| \|a_j\|} \; .$$

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Coherence

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Two extreme cases are

- $\mu \sim 0 \Rightarrow$  incoherent matrix
- $\mu \sim 1 \Rightarrow$  coherent matrix

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## What if the matrix is coherent?

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## $L_1$ - $L_2$ works well for coherent matrix

We consider an over-sampled DCT matrix with each column as

$$\mathbf{a}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \cos(\frac{2\pi j \mathbf{w}}{F}), j = 1, \cdots, N$$

where w is a random vector of length M.

The larger *F* is, the more coherent the matrix. Take a  $100 \times 1000$  matrix for an example:

F	coherence		
1	0.3981		
10	0.9981		
20	0.9999		

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P. Yin, Y. Lou, Q. He and J. Xin, SIAM Sci. Comput., 2015 Y. Lou, P. Yin, Q. He and J. Xin, J. Sci. Comput., 2015

#### *L*<sub>1</sub>-*L*<sub>2</sub> 6/36

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**Figure:** Success rates of incoherent matrices, F = 1.

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**Figure:** Success rates of coherent matrices, F = 20.

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## **Comparing metrics**



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**Figure:** Level lines of three metrics:  $L_2$  (strictly convex),  $L_1$  (convex), and  $L_1 - L_2$  (nonconvex).

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## **Comparing nonconvex metrics**

Consider a matrix *A* of size  $17 \times 19$  and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{19 \times 2}$  be the basis of the null space of *A*, i.e. AV = 0.

So the feasible set is a two-dimensional affine space, i.e.  $\{x : Ax = Ax_g\} = \{x = x_g + V \begin{bmatrix} s \\ t \end{bmatrix} : s, t \in \mathbb{R}\}.$ 

Visualize objective functions  $L_0$ ,  $L_{1/2}$ , and  $L_1$ - $L_2$  over 2D *st*-plane.

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L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model Algorithms Applications Conclusions

### $L_0$ : incoherent (left) and coherent (right)



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### $L_{1/2}$ : incoherent (left) and coherent (right)



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### $L_1$ - $L_2$ : incoherent (left) and coherent (right)



## Model failure v.s. algorithm failure



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### L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model Algorithms Applications Conclusions

## **Truncated** $L_1$ - $L_2$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_{t,1-2} := \sum_{i \notin \Gamma_{\mathbf{x},t}} |x_i| - \sqrt{\sum_{i \notin \Gamma_{\mathbf{x},t}} x_i^2},$$

where  $\Gamma_{\mathbf{x},t} \subseteq \{1, \dots, N\}$  with cardinality *t* is a set containing the indices of the entries of **x** with the *t* largest magnitudes.



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T. Ma, Y. Lou, and T. Huang, SIAM Imaging Sci., to appear 2017



## Advantages of $L_1$ - $L_2$

· Lipschitz continuous





## Advantages of *L*<sub>1</sub>-*L*<sub>2</sub>

· Lipschitz continuous

• Correct *L*<sub>1</sub>'s biasedness by subtracting something with smooth gradient a.e.

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## Advantages of $L_1$ - $L_2$

· Lipschitz continuous

• Correct *L*<sub>1</sub>'s biasedness by subtracting something with smooth gradient a.e.

• Exact recovery of 1-sparse vectors (truncated version yields exact recovery of *t*-sparse vectors)

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## Advantages of *L*<sub>1</sub>-*L*<sub>2</sub>

· Lipschitz continuous

• Correct *L*<sub>1</sub>'s biasedness by subtracting something with smooth gradient a.e.

• Exact recovery of 1-sparse vectors (truncated version yields exact recovery of *t*-sparse vectors)

· Good for coherent compressive sensing



## Outline

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### L1-L2 16/36 Yifei Lou L1-L2 model Algorithms Applications

## Algorithms

We consider an unconstrained  $L_1 - L_2$  formulation, i.e.,

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^N} F(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 + \lambda(\|x\|_1 - \|x\|_2).$$

Our first attempt is using the difference of convex algorithm (DCA) by composing decompose F(x) = G(x) - H(x) into

$$\begin{cases} G(x) = \frac{1}{2} ||Ax - b||_2^2 + \lambda ||x||_1 \\ H(x) = \lambda ||x||_2. \end{cases}$$

An iterative scheme is,

$$x^{n+1} = \arg\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^N} \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1 - \langle x, \frac{\lambda x^n}{\|x^n\|_2} \rangle.$$

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We then derive a proximal operator for  $L_1$ - $\alpha L_2$  ( $\alpha \ge 0$ )

$$x^* = \arg\min_{x} \lambda \left( \|x\|_1 - \alpha \|x\|_2 \right) + \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2,$$

which has a closed-form solution:

1 If  $||y||_{\infty} > \lambda$ , then  $x^* = z(||z||_2 + \alpha\lambda)/||z||_2$ , where  $z = \operatorname{shrink}(y, \lambda)$ ;

2 if  $||y||_{\infty} = \lambda$ , then  $||x^*||_2 = \alpha \lambda$ ,  $x_i^* = 0$  for  $|y_i| < \lambda$ ;

3 If (1 − α)λ < ||y||<sub>∞</sub> < λ, then x\* is 1-sparse vector satisfying x<sub>i</sub><sup>\*</sup> = 0 for |y<sub>i</sub>| < ||y||<sub>∞</sub>;

4 If 
$$\|y\|_{\infty} \leq (1-\alpha)\lambda$$
, then  $x^* = 0$ .

Y. Lou and M. Yan, J. Sci Comput., to appear 2017

**Remarks** 

### $L_1$ - $L_2$ model

Algorithms Applications  Most L<sub>1</sub> solves are applicable for L<sub>1</sub>-αL<sub>2</sub> by replacing soft shrinkage with this proximal operator.

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**Remarks** 

L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model Algorithms Applications

- Most L<sub>1</sub> solves are applicable for L<sub>1</sub>-αL<sub>2</sub> by replacing soft shrinkage with this proximal operator.
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 Both nonconvex-ADMM and DCA converge to stationary points.

Remarks

L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model Algorithms Applications

- Most L<sub>1</sub> solves are applicable for L<sub>1</sub>-αL<sub>2</sub> by replacing soft shrinkage with this proximal operator.
- The algorithm of combining ADMM and this operator (nonconvex-ADMM), is much faster than the DCA.
- Both nonconvex-ADMM and DCA converge to stationary points.
- However, nonconvex-ADMM does not give better performance than DCA for coherent CS.





Figure: Success rates of coherent matrices, F=20.

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Figure: Success rates of incoherent matrices, F=5.

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> DCA is more stable than nonconvex-ADMM, as each DCA subproblem is convex.

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- DCA is more stable than nonconvex-ADMM, as each DCA subproblem is convex.
- Since it is convex at  $\alpha = 0$ , we consider a continuation scheme of gradually increasing  $\alpha$  from 0 to 1, referred to as "weighted".

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How to update the weight α?

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- DCA is more stable than nonconvex-ADMM, as each DCA subproblem is convex.
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- How to update the weight α?
  - For incoherence matrices, a linear increase for  $\alpha$  with a large slope until reaching one;

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- DCA is more stable than nonconvex-ADMM, as each DCA subproblem is convex.
- Since it is convex at  $\alpha = 0$ , we consider a continuation scheme of gradually increasing  $\alpha$  from 0 to 1, referred to as "weighted".
- How to update the weight α?
  - For incoherence matrices, a linear increase for  $\alpha$  with a large slope until reaching one;
  - For coherent cases, a sigmoid function to update  $\alpha$ , which may or may not reach one.



**Figure:** Different ways of updating  $\alpha$  for incoherent (blue) or coherent (red) matrices.





Figure: Success rates of coherent matrices, F=20.

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Applications

## Outline

**1** A nonconvex approach:  $L_1$ - $L_2$ 

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## **Super-resolution**

The super-resolution problem discussed here is different to image zooming or magnification, but aiming to recover a real-valued signal from its low-frequency measurements.

A mathematical model is expressed as

$$b_k = rac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} x_t e^{-i2\pi kt/N}, \qquad |k| \le f_c,$$

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$  is a vector of interest, and  $b \in \mathbb{C}^n$  is the given low frequency information with  $n = 2f_c + 1$  (n < N).



## Theorem by Candés and Fernandez-Granda 2012

Let  $T = \{t_j\}$  be the support of *x*. If the minimum distance obeys

$$\triangle(T) \geq 2 \cdot N/f_c,$$

then *x* is the unique solution to  $L_1$  minimization. If *x* is real-valued, then the minimum gap can be lowered to  $1.26 \cdot N/f_c$ .

### L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> 27/36 Yifei Lou L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model



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Y. Lou, P. Yin and J. Xin, J. Sci. Comput., 2016

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## Low-rank recovery

Replacing nuclear norm with truncated  $L_1$ - $L_2$  of the singular values



T. Ma, Y. Lou, and T. Huang, SIAM Imaging Sci., to appear 2017

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## Image processing

### We consider

$$J(u) = \|D_x u\|_1 + \|D_y u\|_1 - \alpha \|\sqrt{|D_x u|^2 + |D_y u|^2}\|_1,$$

which turns out to be a weighted difference of anisotropic and isotropic TV:

$$J(u) = J_{ani} - \alpha J_{iso},$$

where  $\alpha \in [0, 1]$  is a weighting parameter.

Gradient vectors  $(u_x, u_y)$  are mostly 1-sparse, and  $\alpha$  takes into account the occurrence of non-sparse gradient vectors.

Y. Lou, T. Zeng, S. Osher and J. Xin, SIAM J. Imaging Sci., 2015



## **MRI** reconstruction



### $L_1$ - $L_2$ 31/36 Yifei Lou $L_1$ - $L_2$ model Algorithms

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## **Block-matching**



**Figure:** Illustration of constructing groups by block-matching (BM). For each  $w \times w$  reference patch from an  $n_1 \times n_2$  image, we use block-matching to search its n - 1 best matched patches in terms of Euclidean distance, and then vectorize and combine those patches to form a group of size  $w^2 \times n$ .



## **Block-matching inpainting**



### BM3D PSNR=26.71,SSIM=0.8419

### SAIST 9 PSNR=29.53,SSIM=0.9147

OUIS PSNR=30.65,SSIM=0.9264







T. Ma, Y. Lou, T. Huang and X. Zhao, ICIP, to appear 2017

### L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> 33/36 Yifei Lou L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model

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## Logistic regression

Given a collection of training data  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with a label  $y_i \in \{\pm 1\}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \cdots, m$ , we aim to find a hyperplane defined by  $\{\mathbf{x} : \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + v = 0\}$  by minimizing the following objective function,

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}\in\mathbb{R}^n,v\in\mathbb{R}}F(\mathbf{w},v)+l_{avg}(\mathbf{w},v)$$

where the second term is called averaged loss defined as

$$l_{avg}(\mathbf{w}, v) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ln\left(1 + \exp(-y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + v))\right).$$

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## **Preliminary results**

Real data of patients with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) for years 2011 and 2012. For each year, the data set contains 18 types of medical information, such as prescriptions, number of office visits, and whether the patient was hospitalized. We used the 2011 data to train our classifier and the 2012 data to validate its performance.

	$L_1$	$L_2$	$L_1$ - $L_2$
Recall	0.6494	0.6585	0.6829
Precision	0.0883	0.0882	0.0912
F-Score	0.0573	0.0581	0.0622
AUC	0.7342	0.7321	0.7491

UCLA REU project in 2015, followed by Q. Jin and Y. Lou for a journal submission

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## Conclusions

L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model Algorithms Applications Conclusions

1  $L_1$ - $L_2$  is always better than  $L_1$ , and is better than  $L_p$  for highly coherent matrices.

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## Conclusions

L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model Algorithms Applications Conclusions

- 1  $L_1$ - $L_2$  is always better than  $L_1$ , and is better than  $L_p$  for highly coherent matrices.
- 2 Proximal operator can accelerate the minimization, but it tends to obtain a suboptimal solution.

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## Conclusions

L<sub>1</sub>-L<sub>2</sub> model Algorithms Applications Conclusions

- 1  $L_1$ - $L_2$  is always better than  $L_1$ , and is better than  $L_p$  for highly coherent matrices.
- Proximal operator can accelerate the minimization, but it tends to obtain a suboptimal solution.
- In general, nonconvex methods have better empirical performance compared to convex ones, but lack of provable grounds.

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# Thank you!

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