# **Subdifferentials and Proximal Operators**

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# Learning goals

- Be able to derive subdifferential and proximal operator formulas
- Understand that subdifferentials define affine minorizors
- Existence of subgradient for convex functions
- Understand maximal monotonicity and Minty's theorem
- Know strong monotonicity and relation to strong convexity
- Know different characterizations of smoothness
- Understand and be able to use Fermat's rule
- Know subdifferential calculus rules
- Understand that prox evaluates subdifferential

# Subdifferentials

### Gradients of convex functions

• Recall: A differentiable function  $f~:~\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}$  is convex iff  $f(y)\geq f(x)+\nabla f(x)^T(y-x)$ 

for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 



- Function f has for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  an affine minorizer that:
  - has slope s defined by  $\nabla f$
  - coincides with function f at x
  - defines normal  $(\nabla f(x), -1)$  to epigraph of f
- What if function is nondifferentiable?

# Subdifferentials and subgradients

• Subgradients *s* define affine minorizers to the function that:



- $\bullet \,$  coincide with f at x
- define normal vector  $(\boldsymbol{s},-1)$  to epigraph of f
- ${\ensuremath{\, \bullet }}$  can be one of many affine minorizers at nondifferentiable points x
- Subdifferential of  $f:\mathbb{R}^n\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$  at x is set of vectors s satisfying

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + s^T(y - x) \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \tag{1}$$

- Notation:
  - subdifferential:  $\partial f : \mathbb{R}^n \to 2^{\mathbb{R}^n}$  (power-set notation  $2^{\mathbb{R}^n}$ )
  - subdifferential at x:  $\partial f(x) = \{s : (1) \text{ holds}\}$
  - elements  $s \in \partial f(x)$  are called *subgradients* of f at x

#### **Relation to gradient**

• If f differentiable at x and  $\partial f(x) \neq \emptyset$  then  $\partial f(x) = \{\nabla f(x)\}$ :



• i.e., subdifferential (if nonempty) at x consists of only gradient

#### Subgradient existence – Nonconvex example

• Function can be differentiable at x but  $\partial f(x) = \emptyset$ 



• 
$$x_1: \partial f(x_1) = \{0\}, \nabla f(x_1) = 0$$

- $x_2$ :  $\partial f(x_2) = \emptyset$ ,  $\nabla f(x_2) = 0$
- $x_3: \partial f(x_3) = \emptyset, \nabla f(x_3) = 0$
- Gradient is a local concept, subdifferential is a global property

# Subgradient existence – Convex example

• Consider the convex function:



- What are the subdifferentials at points  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$ ,  $x_3$ ?
  - Subdifferential at  $x_1$  is -1 (affine minorizer with slope -1)
  - Subdifferential at x<sub>2</sub> is [-1,1] (affine minorizers with slope [-1,1])
  - Subdifferential at  $x_3$  is 1 (affine minorizer with slope 1)

Fact:

• For *finite-valued* convex functions, a subgradient exists for every x

# Existence for extended-valued convex functions

- Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$  be convex, then:
  - 1. Subgradients exist for all x in relative interior of  $\operatorname{dom} f$
  - 2. Subgradients sometimes exist for x on boundary of  $\operatorname{dom} f$
  - 3. No subgradient exists for x outside  $\operatorname{dom} f$
- Examples for second case, boundary points of domf:



• No subgradient (affine minorizer) exists for left function at x = 1

#### Monotonicity

• Subdifferential operator is monotone:

$$(s_x - s_y)^T (x - y) \ge 0$$

for all  $s_x \in \partial f(x)$  and  $s_y \in \partial f(y)$ 

• Proof: Add two copies of subdifferential definition

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + s_x^T(y - x)$$

with x and y swapped

•  $\partial f: \mathbb{R} \to 2^{\mathbb{R}}$ : Minimum slope 0 and maximum slope  $\infty$ 



#### Monotonicity beyond subdifferentials

• Let  $A: \mathbb{R}^n \to 2^{\mathbb{R}^n}$  be monotone, i.e.:

$$(u-v)^T(x-y) \ge 0$$

for all  $u \in Ax$  and  $v \in Ay$ 

- If n = 1, then  $A = \partial f$  for some function  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$
- If  $n \ge 2$  there exist monotone A that are not subdifferentials

# Maximal monotonicity

- Let the set  ${\rm gph}\,\partial f:=\{(x,u): u\in\partial f(x)\}$  be the graph of  $\partial f$
- $\partial f$  is maximally monotone if no other function g exists with

 $\operatorname{gph} \partial f \subset \operatorname{gph} \partial g,$ 

with strict inclusion

• A result (due to Rockafellar):

f is closed convex if and only if  $\partial f$  is maximally monotone

# Minty's theorem

- Let  $\partial f:\mathbb{R}^n\to 2^{\mathbb{R}^n}$  and  $\alpha>0$
- $\partial f$  is maximally monotone if and only if  $\operatorname{range}(\alpha I + \partial f) = \mathbb{R}^n$





not maximally monotone



• Interpretation: No "holes" in  ${\rm gph}\,\partial f$ 

# Strong convexity

- Recall that f is  $\sigma$ -strongly convex if  $f \frac{\sigma}{2} \| \cdot \|_2^2$  is convex
- If f is  $\sigma$ -strongly convex then

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + s^T(y-x) + \frac{\sigma}{2} ||x-y||_2^2$$

holds for all  $x\in {\rm dom}\partial f$  ,  $s\in \partial f(x),$  and  $y\in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

• The function has convex quadratic minorizers instead of affine



• Multiple lower bounds at  $x_2$  with subgradients  $s_{2,1}$  and  $s_{2,2}$ 

#### Strong monotonicity

• If f  $\sigma$ -strongly convex function, then  $\partial f$  is  $\sigma$ -strongly monotone:

$$(s_x - s_y)^T (x - y) \ge \sigma ||x - y||_2^2$$

for all  $s_x \in \partial f(x)$  and  $s_y \in \partial f(y)$ 

· Proof: Add two copies of strong convexity inequality

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + s_x^T(y-x) + \frac{\sigma}{2} ||x-y||_2^2$$

with x and y swapped

- $\partial f$  is  $\sigma$ -strongly monotone if and only if  $\partial f \sigma I$  is monotone
- $\partial f: \mathbb{R} \to 2^{\mathbb{R}}$ : Minimum slope  $\sigma$  and maximum slope  $\infty$



# Strongly convex functions – An equivalence

The following are equivalent

- (i) f is closed and  $\sigma$ -strongly convex
- (ii)  $\partial f$  is maximally monotone and  $\sigma$ -strongly monotone

Proof:

 $\begin{array}{ll} (\mathbf{i}) \Rightarrow (\mathbf{ii}): \text{ we know this from before} \\ (\mathbf{ii}) \Rightarrow (\mathbf{i}): & (\mathbf{ii}) & \Rightarrow \partial f - \sigma I = \partial (f - \frac{\sigma}{2} \| \cdot \|_2^2) \text{ maximally monotone} \\ & \Rightarrow f - \frac{\sigma}{2} \| \cdot \|_2^2 \text{ closed convex} \\ & \Rightarrow f \text{ closed and } \sigma \text{-strongly convex} \end{array}$ 

### Smoothness and convexity

• A differentiable function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex and smooth if  $\begin{aligned} f(y) &\leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y-x) + \frac{\beta}{2} \|x-y\|_2^2 \\ f(y) &\geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y-x) \end{aligned}$ 

holds for all  $x,y\in\mathbb{R}^n$ 

• f has convex quadratic majorizers and affine minorizers



• Quadratic upper bound is called *descent lemma* 

#### Gradient of smooth convex function

• Gradient of smooth convex function is monotone and Lipschitz

$$(\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y))^T (x - y) \ge 0$$
$$\|\nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x)\|_2 \le \beta \|x - y\|_2$$

•  $\nabla f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ : Minimum slope 0 and maximum slope  $\beta$ 



• Actually satisfies the stronger  $\frac{1}{\beta}$ -cocoercivity property:

$$(\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y))^T (x - y) \ge \frac{1}{\beta} \|\nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x)\|_2^2$$

#### Smooth convex functions – Equivalences

- Let  $f:\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable. The following are equivalent:
  - (i)  $\nabla f$  is  $\frac{1}{\beta}$ -cocoercive
- (ii)  $\nabla f$  is maximally monotone and  $\beta$ -Lipschitz continuous
- (iii) f is closed convex and satisfies descent lemma (is  $\beta$ -smooth)

- Implication (ii) $\Rightarrow$ (i) is called the Baillon-Haddad theorem
- Will connect smoothness and strong convexity via conjugates in next lecture

#### Fermat's rule

Let  $f:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}\cup\{\infty\},$  then x minimizes f if and only if  $0\in\partial f(x)$ 

• Proof: x minimizes f if and only if

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + 0^T (y - x)$$
 for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

which by definition of subdifferential is equivalent to  $0 \in \partial f(x)$ 

• Example: several subgradients at solution, including 0



# Fermat's rule – Nonconvex example

- Fermat's rule holds also for nonconvex functions
- Example:



- $\partial f(x_1) = 0$  and  $\nabla f(x_1) = 0$  (global minimum)
- $\partial f(x_2) = \emptyset$  and  $\nabla f(x_2) = 0$  (local minimum)
- For nonconvex f, we can typically only hope to find local minima

## Subdifferential calculus rules

- Subdifferential of sum  $\partial(f_1 + f_2)$
- Subdifferential of composition with matrix  $\partial(g \circ L)$

#### Subdifferential of sum

If  $f_1, f_2$  closed convex and relint  $\operatorname{dom} f_1 \cap \operatorname{relint} \operatorname{dom} f_2 \neq \emptyset$ :  $\partial(f_1 + f_2) = \partial f_1 + \partial f_2$ 

• One direction always holds: if  $x \in \text{dom}\partial f_1 \cap \text{dom}\partial f_2$ :

$$\partial (f_1 + f_2)(x) \supseteq \partial f_1(x) + \partial f_2(x)$$

Proof: let  $s_i \in \partial f_i(x)$ , add subdifferential definitions:

$$f_1(y) + f_2(y) \ge f_1(x) + f_2(x) + (s_1 + s_2)^T (y - x)$$

i.e.  $s_1 + s_2 \in \partial (f_1 + f_2)(x)$ 

• If  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  differentiable, we have (without convexity of f)

$$\nabla(f_1 + f_2) = \nabla f_1 + \nabla f_2$$

### Subdifferential of composition

If f closed convex and relint dom $(f \circ L) \neq \emptyset$ :  $\partial (f \circ L)(x) = L^T \partial f(Lx)$ 

• One direction always holds: If  $Lx \in \operatorname{dom} f$ , then

$$\partial (f \circ L)(x) \supseteq L^T \partial f(Lx)$$

Proof: let  $s \in \partial f(Lx)$ , then by definition of subgradient of f:

 $(f \circ L)(y) \ge (f \circ L)(x) + s^T (Ly - Lx) = (f \circ L)(x) + (L^T s)^T (y - x)$ 

i.e.,  $L^T s \in \partial (f \circ L)(x)$ 

• If f differentiable, we have chain rule (without convexity of f)

$$\nabla (f \circ L)(x) = L^T \nabla f(Lx)$$

# A sufficient optimality condition

Let 
$$f : \mathbb{R}^m \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}, g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}, \text{ and } L \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$
 then:  
minimize  $f(Lx) + g(x)$  (1)  
is solved by every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  that satisfies  
 $0 \in L^T \partial f(Lx) + \partial g(x)$  (2)

• Subdifferential calculus inclusions say:

$$0 \in L^T \partial f(Lx) + \partial g(x) \subseteq \partial((f \circ L)(x) + g(x))$$

which by Fermat's rule is equivalent to x solution to (1)

• Note: (1) can have solution but no x exists that satisfies (2)

# A necessary and sufficient optimality condition

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^m \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}, g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}, L \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  with f, g closed convex and assume relint  $\operatorname{dom}(f \circ L) \cap \operatorname{relint} \operatorname{dom} g \neq \emptyset$  then:

minimize 
$$f(Lx) + g(x)$$
 (1)

is solved by  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if x satisfies

$$0 \in L^T \partial f(Lx) + \partial g(x) \tag{2}$$

• Subdifferential calculus equality rules say:

$$0 \in L^T \partial f(Lx) + \partial g(x) = \partial((f \circ L)(x) + g(x))$$

which by Fermat's rule is equivalent to x solution to (1)

• Algorithms search for x that satisfy  $0 \in L^T \partial f(Lx) + \partial g(x)$ 

# A comment to constraint qualification

• The condition

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\operatorname{relint}\operatorname{dom}(f\circ L)\cap\operatorname{relint}\operatorname{dom} g\neq \emptyset
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is called *constraint qualification* and referred to as CQ

• It is a mild condition that rarely is not satisfied



# Evaluating subgradients of convex functions

• Obviously need to evaluate subdifferentials to solve

$$0 \in L^T \partial f(Lx) + \partial g(x)$$

- Explicit evaluation:
  - If function is differentiable:  $\nabla f$  (unique)
  - If function is nondifferentiable: compute element in  $\partial f$
- Implicit evaluation:
  - Proximal operator (specific element of subdifferential)

# **Proximal operators**

### **Proximal operator**

• Proximal operator of (convex) g defined as:

$$\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(z) = \operatorname{argmin}_{x}(g(x) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x - z||_{2}^{2})$$

where  $\gamma>0$  is a parameter

- Evaluating prox requires solving optimization problem
- Objective is strongly convex  $\Rightarrow$  solution exists and is unique

#### Prox evaluates the subdifferential

• Fermat's rule on prox definition:  $x = prox_{\gamma g}(z)$  if and only if

$$0 \in \partial g(x) + \gamma^{-1}(x-z) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \gamma^{-1}(z-x) \in \partial g(x)$$

Hence,  $\gamma^{-1}(z-x)$  is element in  $\partial g(x)$ 

- A subgradient  $\partial g(x)$  where  $x = \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(z)$  is computed
- Often used in algorithms when g nonsmooth (no gradient exists)

#### Prox is generalization of projection

 $\bullet\,$  Recall the indicator function of a set C

$$\iota_C(x) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in C \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Then

$$\Pi_{C}(z) = \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} (\|x - z\|_{2} : x \in C)$$
  
=  $\underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} (\frac{1}{2} \|x - z\|_{2}^{2} : x \in C)$   
=  $\underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} (\frac{1}{2} \|x - z\|_{2}^{2} + \iota_{C}(x))$   
=  $\operatorname{prox}_{\iota_{C}}(z)$ 

• Projection onto C equals prox of indicator function of C

#### Proximal operator – Example 1

Let  $g(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^THx + h^Tx$  with H positive semidefinite

- Gradient satisfies  $\nabla g(x) = Hx + h$
- Fermat's rule for  $x = prox_{\gamma g} z$ :

$$0 = \nabla g(x) + \gamma^{-1}(x - z) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad 0 = Hx + h + \gamma^{-1}(x - z)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad (I + \gamma H)x = z - \gamma h$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad x = (I + \gamma H)^{-1}(z - \gamma h)$$

• So  $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g} z = (I + \gamma H)^{-1} (z - \gamma h)$ 

#### Proximal operator – Example 2

• Consider the function g with subdifferential  $\partial g$ :

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} -x & \text{if } x \le 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x \ge 0 \end{cases} \qquad \partial g(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0\\ [-1,0] & \text{if } x = 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

• Graphical representations





• Fermat's rule for  $x = prox_{\gamma g} z$ :

$$0 \in \partial g(x) + \gamma^{-1}(x-z)$$

#### Proximal operator – Example 2 cont'd

• Let x < 0, then Fermat's rule reads

$$0 = -1 + \gamma^{-1}(x - z) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x = z + \gamma$$

which is valid ( x<0) if  $z<-\gamma$ 

• Let x = 0, then Fermat's rule reads

$$0 = [-1, 0] + \gamma^{-1}(0 - z)$$

which is valid (x=0) if  $z\in [-\gamma,0]$ 

• Let x > 0, then Fermat's rule reads

$$0 = 0 + \gamma^{-1}(x - z) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x = z$$

which is valid (x > 0) if z > 0

The prox satisfies

$$\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(z) = \begin{cases} z + \gamma & \text{if } z < -\gamma \\ 0 & \text{if } z \in [-\gamma, 0] \\ z & \text{if } z > 0 \end{cases}$$

# **Computational cost**

• Evaluating prox requires solving optimization problem

$$\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(z) = \operatorname*{argmin}_{x}(g(x) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x - z||_{2}^{2})$$

- Prox typically more expensive to evaluate than gradient
- Example: Quadratic  $g(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^THx + h^Tx$ :

$$\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(z) = (I + \gamma H)^{-1} (z - \gamma h), \qquad \nabla g(z) = Hz - h$$