# Subgradients

Yu-Xiang Wang CS292F

(Based on Ryan Tibshirani's 10-725)

Consider the problem

$$\min_x f(x)$$

for f convex and differentiable,  $dom(f) = \mathbb{R}^n$ . Gradient descent: choose initial  $x^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , repeat

$$x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} - t_k \cdot \nabla f(x^{(k-1)}), \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Step sizes  $t_k$  chosen to be fixed and small, or by backtracking line search.

Question: Why are we not using line searches in deep learning?

We derived computational guarantees:

- If f is L-smooth, then gradient descent has iteration complexity  $O(L/\epsilon)$  or an O(L/k) sublinear convergence rate.
- If f is L-smooth and m-strongly convex, then gradient descent has iteration complexity of  $O(\frac{L}{m}\log(1/\epsilon)),$  or an  $O((1-m/L)^k)$  linear convergence rate.
- The linear convergence result generalizes to functions that satisfy the Polyak-Łojasiewicz condition.

#### Other related conditions: RSI, QC, EB.

**Theorem:** (Karimi, Nutini, Schmidt, ECML2016) For smooth functions  $(RSI) \rightarrow (EB) \equiv (PL) \rightarrow (QG)$ . If in addition, f is convex, then  $(RSC) \equiv (PL) \equiv (QC) \equiv (EB)$ .

Assuming Lipschitz gradient as before, and also strong convexity: **Theorem:** Gradient descent with fixed step size  $t \le 2/(m+L)$ or with backtracking line search search satisfies

$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^{\star} \le c^k \frac{L}{2} \|x^{(0)} - x^{\star}\|_2^2$$

where 0 < c < 1.

There is one gap from the proof we had to the above theorem. We proved convergence when choosing  $t \leq 1/L$  and c = (1 - mt). It does not cover  $t \in (1/L, 2/(m + L)]$ . In fact, by choosing t = 2/(m + L) and use strong convexity directly (rather than using the KL-condition), we could get a constant improvement

$$c = 1 - \frac{4Lm}{(L+m)^2} = \left(\frac{L/m - 1}{L/m + 1}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{1 - m/L}{1 + m/L}\right)^2$$

Nesterov Acceleration:

- For L-smooth functions,  $O(L/\epsilon)$  can be improved to  $O(\sqrt{L/\epsilon}).$
- For *L*-smooth and *m*-strongly convex functions,  $O(\frac{L}{m}\log(\frac{1}{\epsilon}))$  can be improved to  $O(\sqrt{\frac{L}{m}}\log(\frac{1}{\epsilon}))$ .

These bounds are optimal.

Question: AGD dominates GD. Why are we learning GD at all?

Downsides:

• Requires *f* to be smooth

Can we apply gradient descent to solve a larger class of problems?

# Outline

Today: crucial mathematical underpinnings!

- Subgradients
- Examples
- Properties
- Optimality characterizations

Next Lecture: Subgradient descent and proximal gradient descent.

If time permits, we will do the "gradient boosting" example from the previous lecture.

# Subgradients

Recall that for convex and differentiable f,

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) \quad \text{for all } x, y$$

I.e., linear approximation always underestimates f

A subgradient of a convex function f at x is any  $g \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + g^T(y-x) \quad \text{for all } y$$

- Always exists<sup>1</sup>
- If f differentiable at x, then  $g=\nabla f(x)$  uniquely
- Same definition works for nonconvex f (however, subgradients need not exist)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>On the relative interior of dom(f)

#### Examples of subgradients

Consider  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , f(x) = |x|



• For  $x \neq 0$ , unique subgradient  $g = \operatorname{sign}(x)$ 

• For x = 0, subgradient g is any element of [-1, 1]

Consider  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = ||x||_2$ 



- For  $x \neq 0$ , unique subgradient  $g = x/||x||_2$
- For x = 0, subgradient g is any element of  $\{z : ||z||_2 \le 1\}$

Consider  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = ||x||_1$ 



- For  $x_i \neq 0$ , unique *i*th component  $g_i = \operatorname{sign}(x_i)$
- For  $x_i = 0$ , *i*th component  $g_i$  is any element of [-1, 1]

Consider  $f(x) = \max\{f_1(x), f_2(x)\}$ , for  $f_1, f_2 : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  convex, differentiable



- For  $f_1(x) > f_2(x)$ , unique subgradient  $g = \nabla f_1(x)$
- For  $f_2(x) > f_1(x)$ , unique subgradient  $g = \nabla f_2(x)$
- For f<sub>1</sub>(x) = f<sub>2</sub>(x), subgradient g is any point on line segment between ∇f<sub>1</sub>(x) and ∇f<sub>2</sub>(x)

# Subdifferential

Set of all subgradients of convex f is called the subdifferential:

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

- Nonempty (only for convex *f*)
- $\partial f(x)$  is closed and convex (even for nonconvex f)
- If f is differentiable at x, then  $\partial f(x) = \{\nabla f(x)\}$
- If  $\partial f(x) = \{g\}$ , then f is differentiable at x and  $\nabla f(x) = g$

#### Connection to convex geometry

Convex set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , consider indicator function  $I_C : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$I_C(x) = I\{x \in C\} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in C \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin C \end{cases}$$

For  $x \in C$ ,  $\partial I_C(x) = \mathcal{N}_C(x)$ , the normal cone of C at x is, recall

$$\mathcal{N}_C(x) = \{g \in \mathbb{R}^n : g^T x \ge g^T y \text{ for any } y \in C\}$$

Why? By definition of subgradient g,

$$I_C(y) \ge I_C(x) + g^T(y-x)$$
 for all  $y$ 

• For 
$$y \notin C$$
,  $I_C(y) = \infty$ 

• For  $y \in C$ , this means  $0 \ge g^T(y-x)$ 



## Subgradient calculus

Basic rules for convex functions:

- Scaling:  $\partial(af) = a \cdot \partial f$  provided a > 0
- Addition\*:  $\partial(f_1 + f_2) = \partial f_1 + \partial f_2$  (Minkowski set addition )
- Affine composition\*: if g(x) = f(Ax + b), then

$$\partial g(x) = A^T \partial f(Ax + b)$$

• Finite pointwise maximum: if  $f(x) = \max_{i=1,...m} f_i(x)$ , then

$$\partial f(x) = \operatorname{conv} \bigg( \bigcup_{i: f_i(x) = f(x)} \partial f_i(x) \bigg)$$

convex hull of union of subdifferentials of active functions at  $\boldsymbol{x}$ 

\* The  $\supset$  direction are true without additional conditions, the  $\subset$  direction are true under additional regularity conditions. It suffices that the intersection of the relative interiors is not an empty set. See Chap 23 of the Rockafellar book for more details.

• General pointwise maximum: if  $f(x) = \max_{s \in S} f_s(x)$ , then

$$\partial f(x) \supseteq \operatorname{cl}\left\{\operatorname{conv}\left(\bigcup_{s:f_s(x)=f(x)}\partial f_s(x)\right)\right\}$$

Under some regularity conditions (on  $S, f_s$ ), we get equality

• Norms: important special case,  $f(x) = ||x||_p$ . Let q be such that 1/p + 1/q = 1, then

$$||x||_p = \max_{||z||_q \le 1} z^T x$$

(This is the definition of the dual norm) And

$$\partial f(x) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\|z\|_q \le 1} z^T x.$$

(This is what Yaoliang Yu calls a polar operator (see e.g., Zhang, Yu and Schuurmans, NIPS'13).)

# Why subgradients?

Subgradients are important for two reasons:

- Convex analysis: optimality characterization via subgradients, monotonicity, relationship to duality
- Convex optimization: if you can compute subgradients, then you can minimize any convex function

# Optimality condition

For any f (convex or not),

$$f(x^{\star}) = \min_{x} f(x) \iff 0 \in \partial f(x^{\star})$$

I.e.,  $x^*$  is a minimizer if and only if 0 is a subgradient of f at  $x^*$ . This is called the subgradient optimality condition

Why? Easy: g = 0 being a subgradient means that for all y

$$f(y) \ge f(x^{\star}) + 0^T (y - x^{\star}) = f(x^{\star})$$

Note the implication for a convex and differentiable function f , with  $\partial f(x) = \{\nabla f(x)\}$ 

# Derivation of first-order optimality

Example of the power of subgradients: we can use what we have learned so far to derive the first-order optimality condition. Recall

$$\min_{x} f(x) \text{ subject to } x \in C$$

is solved at x, for f convex and differentiable, if and only if

$$\nabla f(x)^T(y-x) \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } y \in C$$

Intuitively: says that gradient increases as we move away from x. How to prove it? First recast problem as

$$\min_{x} f(x) + I_C(x)$$

Now apply subgradient optimality:  $0 \in \partial(f(x) + I_C(x))$ 

#### Observe

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \in \partial \big( f(x) + I_C(x) \big) \\ \iff & 0 \in \{ \nabla f(x) \} + \mathcal{N}_C(x) \\ \iff & - \nabla f(x) \in \mathcal{N}_C(x) \\ \iff & - \nabla f(x)^T x \ge - \nabla f(x)^T y \text{ for all } y \in C \\ \iff & \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) \ge 0 \text{ for all } y \in C \end{aligned}$$

as desired

Note: the condition  $0 \in \partial f(x) + \mathcal{N}_C(x)$  is a fully general condition for optimality in convex problems. But it's not always easy to work with (KKT conditions, later, are easier)

#### Example: lasso optimality conditions

Given  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ , lasso problem can be parametrized as $\min_{\beta} \ \frac{1}{2} \|y - X\beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$ 

where  $\lambda \geq 0$ . Subgradient optimality:

$$0 \in \partial \left(\frac{1}{2} \|y - X\beta\|_{2}^{2} + \lambda \|\beta\|_{1}\right)$$
  
$$\iff 0 \in -X^{T}(y - X\beta) + \lambda \partial \|\beta\|_{1}$$
  
$$\iff X^{T}(y - X\beta) = \lambda v$$

for some  $v \in \partial \|\beta\|_1$ , i.e.,

$$v_i \in \begin{cases} \{1\} & \text{if } \beta_i > 0\\ \{-1\} & \text{if } \beta_i < 0 \ , \quad i = 1, \dots p\\ [-1, 1] & \text{if } \beta_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

Write  $X_1, \ldots X_p$  for columns of X. Then our condition reads:

$$\begin{cases} X_i^T(y - X\beta) = \lambda \cdot \operatorname{sign}(\beta_i) & \text{if } \beta_i \neq 0\\ |X_i^T(y - X\beta)| \le \lambda & \text{if } \beta_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

Note: subgradient optimality conditions don't lead to closed-form expression for a lasso solution ... however they do provide a way to check lasso optimality

They are also helpful in understanding the lasso estimator; e.g., if  $|X_i^T(y - X\beta)| < \lambda$ , then  $\beta_i = 0$ . This is very useful!

- Screening rules. Support recovery guarantees for Lasso. (Wainwright, Trans. on Info Theory, 2009)
- Used in the analysis of e.g., Sparse Subspace Clustering. (Soltanokoltabi and Candes, Annals of Statistics 2012) (W. and Xu, ICML'13)

### Example: soft-thresholding

Simplfied lasso problem with X = I:

$$\min_{\beta} \frac{1}{2} \|y - \beta\|_2^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|_1$$

This we can solve directly using subgradient optimality. Solution is  $\beta = S_{\lambda}(y)$ , where  $S_{\lambda}$  is the soft-thresholding operator:

$$[S_{\lambda}(y)]_{i} = \begin{cases} y_{i} - \lambda & \text{if } y_{i} > \lambda \\ 0 & \text{if } -\lambda \leq y_{i} \leq \lambda \\ y_{i} + \lambda & \text{if } y_{i} < -\lambda \end{cases}, \quad i = 1, \dots n$$

Check: from last slide, subgradient optimality conditions are

$$\begin{cases} y_i - \beta_i = \lambda \cdot \operatorname{sign}(\beta_i) & \text{if } \beta_i \neq 0\\ |y_i - \beta_i| \le \lambda & \text{if } \beta_i = 0 \end{cases}$$

Now plug in  $\beta = S_{\lambda}(y)$  and check these are satisfied:

- When  $y_i > \lambda$ ,  $\beta_i = y_i \lambda > 0$ , so  $y_i \beta_i = \lambda = \lambda \cdot 1$
- When  $y_i < -\lambda$ , argument is similar
- When  $|y_i| \leq \lambda$ ,  $\beta_i = 0$ , and  $|y_i \beta_i| = |y_i| \leq \lambda$

Soft-thresholding in one variable:



#### Example: distance to a convex set

Recall the distance function to a closed, convex set C:

$$\operatorname{dist}(x,C) = \min_{y \in C} \|y - x\|_2$$

This is a convex function. What are its subgradients?

Write  $dist(x, C) = ||x - P_C(x)||_2$ , where  $P_C(x)$  is the projection of x onto C. It turns out that when dist(x, C) > 0,

$$\partial \operatorname{dist}(x, C) = \left\{ \frac{x - P_C(x)}{\|x - P_C(x)\|_2} \right\}$$

Only has one element, so in fact dist(x, C) is differentiable and this is its gradient

We will only show one direction, i.e., that

$$\frac{x - P_C(x)}{\|x - P_C(x)\|_2} \in \partial \operatorname{dist}(x, C)$$

Write  $u = P_C(x)$ . Then by first-order optimality conditions for a projection,

$$(x-u)^T(y-u) \le 0 \quad \text{for all } y \in C$$

Hence

$$C \subseteq H = \{y : (x-u)^T (y-u) \le 0\}$$

Claim:

$$\operatorname{dist}(y,C) \geq \frac{(x-u)^T(y-u)}{\|x-u\|_2} \quad \text{for all } y$$

Check: first, for  $y \in H$ , the right-hand side is  $\leq 0$ 

Now for  $y \notin H$ , we have  $(x-u)^T(y-u) = ||x-u||_2 ||y-u||_2 \cos \theta$ where  $\theta$  is the angle between x-u and y-u. Thus

$$\frac{(x-u)^T(y-u)}{\|x-u\|_2} = \|y-u\|_2 \cos\theta = \operatorname{dist}(y,H) \le \operatorname{dist}(y,C)$$

as desired

Using the claim, we have for any y

$$dist(y,C) \ge \frac{(x-u)^T (y-x+x-u)}{\|x-u\|_2} \\ = \|x-u\|_2 + \left(\frac{x-u}{\|x-u\|_2}\right)^T (y-x)$$

Hence  $g = (x - u)/\|x - u\|_2$  is a subgradient of  $\operatorname{dist}(x, C)$  at x

#### More on distance to a convex set

Recall the distance function to a closed, convex set C:

$$\operatorname{dist}(x,C) = \min_{y \in C} \|y - x\|_2$$

We have shown that  $\frac{x-P_C(x)}{\|x-P_C(x)\|_2} \in \partial \operatorname{dist}(x,C)$  for those x such that  $\operatorname{dist}(x,C) > 0$ .

- Quiz #1: Prove the converse?
- Quiz #2: How about when  $x \in C$ ? (Hint: Discuss when  $x \in int(C)$  and when  $x \in \partial C$ .) Is it differentiable?
- Quiz #3: What happens when we consider dist<sup>2</sup>(x, C)? Can we show that it is differentiable?

# References and further reading

- S. Boyd, Lecture notes for EE 264B, Stanford University, Spring 2010-2011
- R. T. Rockafellar (1970), "Convex analysis", Chapters 23–25
- L. Vandenberghe, Lecture notes for EE 236C, UCLA, Spring 2011-2012

One more thing:

- 1. For differentiable functions, we have a way to talk about stationary points via gradients.
- 2. For nonconvex functions, subgradients are good for characterizing *global* optimal solution, but not stationary points and local optimal solutions.
- 3. For those who are bugged by this issue like I do. Read about "Clarke subgradient".