

**EECS 227C / STAT 260**  
**Optimization algorithms and analysis**  
Spring 2017  
Lecturer: Martin Wainwright

---

**Further material on subgradients**

In many applications, we are confronted with optimization problems involving functions that need not be differentiable. In the convex case, there is a natural generalization of differentiability, which leads us into subgradients and subdifferentials.

## 1 Basic definitions and properties

Consider a convex function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  taking values in the extended reals. The domain of the function  $f$ , or  $\text{dom}(f)$  for short, is the set of  $x$  for which  $f(x) < +\infty$ . For a given  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , a subgradient of  $f$  at  $x$  is a vector  $g \in \mathbb{R}^d$  such that

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle g, y - x \rangle \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

In geometric terms, this means that the vector  $g$  specifies a supporting hyperplane to the epigraph of  $f$  at  $x$ . It is a natural generalization of the derivative for a convex function, since the gradient  $\nabla f(x)$  satisfies this condition when  $f$  is differentiable.

We write  $\partial f(x)$  to mean the collection of all subgradients of  $f$  at  $x$ . Some useful properties:

- For vectors  $x$  belonging to the (relative) interior of the domain, we are guaranteed that  $\partial f(x)$  is a non-empty set. This can be shown by applying the supporting hyperplane theorem to the epigraph of the set (e.g., see Boyd and Vandenberghe for details).
- The subdifferential is a convex set (exercise for student).
- Differentiable case: we have  $\partial f(x) = \{\nabla f(x)\}$  whenever  $f$  is differentiable at  $x$ .

The following provides us with the natural generalization of the zero-gradient optimality condition for convex optimization:

**Theorem 1.** *For a convex function  $f$ , we have  $x^* \in \arg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$  if and only if  $0 \in \partial f(x^*)$ .*

*Proof.* This claim is basically immediate from the definition. On one hand, if  $0 \in \partial f(x^*)$ , then the definition of sub-gradient guarantees that  $f(y) \geq f(x^*) + \langle 0, y - x^* \rangle \geq f(x^*)$  for all  $y$ , which establishes the claim. On the other hand, if  $f(y) \geq f(x^*)$  for all  $y$ , then we see that  $0 \in \partial f(x^*)$ .  $\square$

## 2 Subgradient calculus

The strong form of subgradient calculus refers to results that lead to a complete characterization of the entire subdifferential  $\partial f(x)$ . The weak form of subgradient calculus refer to rules that allow to us to compute a particular subgradient  $g \in \partial f(x)$ . In algorithmic contexts—such as when implementing a subgradient method—the “weak” results are often adequate.

The following results apply to convex functions whose domain is all of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ :

- Non-negative linear combinations: we have

$$\partial(\alpha_1 f_1 + \alpha_2 f_2)(x) = \alpha_1 \partial f_1(x) + \alpha_2 \partial f_2(x) \quad (1)$$

for  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \geq 0$ .

- Affine transformations: for  $f(x) = h(Ax + b)$ , we have

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

If we deal with convex functions that take the value  $\infty$  at certain points of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then life becomes more complicated. For instance, the additivity property (1) may fail to hold unless we have an additional condition on the intersection of their domains—namely, that  $\text{int}(\text{dom} f_1 \cap \text{dom} f_2)$  is non-empty. When this condition fails, we will see a problematic example in HW #4. On the other hand, it can be verified that we always have the inclusion

$$\partial f_1(x) + \partial f_2(x) \subseteq \partial(f_1 + f_2)(x).$$

This is often enough for algorithmic purposes, because it means that we can generate a subgradient vector for the sum  $f_1 + f_2$  by computing  $g_j \in \partial f_j(x)$  for  $j = 1, 2$  and then forming the sum  $g := g_1 + g_2$ .

## 2.1 Danskin's theorem

Given a function  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and compact set  $\mathcal{Z} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ , consider the new function

$$f(x) := \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \phi(x, z). \quad (2)$$

Danskin's theorem guarantees that under certain regularity conditions on  $\phi$ , the function  $f$  is convex, and characterizes its subdifferential.

Here is a fairly general form of Danskin's theorem due to D. Bertsekas. In particular, suppose that the function  $x \mapsto \phi(x, z)$  is convex and closed<sup>1</sup> for each  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ . Suppose that  $f$  has a domain with non-empty interior, and that  $\phi$  is continuous on  $\text{int}(\text{dom}(f)) \times \mathcal{Z}$ . For each  $x \in \text{int}(\text{dom}(f))$ , define the set  $\mathcal{Z}^*(x) = \{z \in \mathcal{Z} \mid f(x) = \phi(x, z^*)\}$ . Then we have

$$\partial f(x) = \text{conv} \left( \bigcup_{z^* \in \mathcal{Z}^*(x)} \partial_x \phi(x, z^*) \right).$$

Here  $\partial_x \phi(\cdot, z^*)$  denotes the subdifferential of the function  $x \mapsto \phi(\cdot, z^*)$ . When  $\phi$  is differentiable, then we have

$$\partial f(x) = \text{conv} \left( \bigcup_{z^* \in \mathcal{Z}^*(x)} \nabla_x \phi(x, z^*) \right).$$

---

<sup>1</sup>This means that its epigraph is closed

## 2.2 Finite maxima

We often come across functions defined in terms of finite maxima—that is,

$$f(x) := \max_{j=1,\dots,N} g_j(x) \quad (3)$$

where  $\{g_j\}_{j=1}^N$  are a collection of convex functions. It can be seen that  $f$  is always a convex function. Assuming that each  $g_j$  is also differentiable, let us verify that the subdifferential of  $f$  takes the form

$$\partial f(x) = \text{conv} \left\{ \nabla g_j(x) \mid j \in J^*(x) \right\} \quad \text{where } J^*(x) = \{k \mid g_k(x) = f(x)\}.$$

This is actually a special case of Danskin's theorem. Define the function  $\phi : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  via  $\phi(x, z) = \sum_{j=1}^N z_j g_j(x)$ , and note that

$$f(x) = \max_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} \phi(x, z), \quad \text{where } \mathcal{Z} := \{z \in \mathbb{R}^N \mid z_j \in [0, 1], \sum_{\ell=1}^N z_\ell = 1\}.$$

Noting that this set-up satisfies all the requirements of Danskin's theorem, the claim follows.

For future reference, we also note that a slight generalization of Danskin's theorem guarantees that, even when the  $g_j$  are not differentiable at  $x$ , then we still have

$$\partial f(x) = \bigcup_{j \in J^*(x)} \partial g_j(x).$$

## 2.3 Min-functions

Given a function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$  that is jointly convex in  $(x, y)$ , define the new function

$$f(x) = \inf_y \varphi(x, y) \quad (4)$$

Let's assume that  $f(x) > -\infty$  for all  $x$  to avoid degeneracies. We claim that  $f$  is convex. Indeed, given two  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , let  $y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{R}^m$  be corresponding vectors such that  $f(x_j) = \varphi(x_j, y_j)$  for  $j = 1, 2$ . (If the infimum is not achieved, we can find  $y_j$  that provides a  $\delta$ -approximation to the infimum, work through the argument, and then take limits as  $\delta \rightarrow 0$  at the end.) We then have

$$\begin{aligned} f(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) &\leq \varphi(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2, \lambda y_1 + (1 - \lambda)y_2) \\ &\leq \lambda \varphi(x_1, y_1) + (1 - \lambda) \varphi(x_2, y_2) \\ &= \lambda f(x_1) + (1 - \lambda) f(x_2). \end{aligned}$$

**Lemma 1.** *For a given  $x$ , suppose that there exists some  $y$  such that  $f(x) = \varphi(x, y)$ . Then for any subgradient  $(g, 0) \in \partial \varphi(x, y)$ , we have  $g \in \partial f(x)$ .*

*Proof.* For any pair  $(x', y')$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(x', y') &\geq \varphi(x, y) + \langle (g, 0), (x' - x, y' - y) \rangle \\ &= f(x) + \langle g, x' - x \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

This inequality holds for all  $y'$ , we may take the infimum to conclude that

$$f(x') = \inf_y \varphi(x', y) \geq f(x) + \langle g, x' - x \rangle.$$

This inequality holds for all  $x'$ , which shows that  $g \in \partial f(x)$ , as claimed.  $\square$

### 3 Some examples

Let us consider some examples to illustrate these properties.

#### 3.1 Revisiting the absolute value function

We can compute the subdifferential of the  $\ell_1$ -norm as a consequence of Danskin's theorem. In particular, defining the function  $\phi(x, z) = xz$ , note that we have

$$f(x) := |x| = \max_{|z| \leq 1} \phi(x, z).$$

It is easy to see that the conditions of Danskin's theorem are satisfied, and that  $x \operatorname{sign}(x) = |x|$ , so that the maximum is achieved at  $z^* = \operatorname{sign}(x)$  for  $x \neq 0$ . When  $x = 0$ , the maximum is achieved for all  $z^* \in [-1, 1]$ , whence

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} \{\operatorname{sign}(x)\} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ [-1, 1] & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

#### 3.2 Piecewise linear functions

A bit more generally, a piecewise linear function takes the form

$$f(x) = \max_{j=1, \dots, N} (\langle a_j, x \rangle + b_j)$$

where each  $(a_j, b_j) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}$  defines a hyperplane. For example, the function  $f(x) = |x|$  is a very special case with  $d = 1$ ,  $N = 2$ ,  $(a_1, b_1) = (1, 0)$  and  $(a_2, b_2) = (-1, 0)$ .

From Section 2.2, we have

$$\partial f(x) = \operatorname{conv} \{a_j \mid j \in J^*(x)\} \quad \text{where } J^*(x) = \{k \mid \langle a_k, x \rangle + b_k = f(x)\}.$$

#### 3.3 Indicator functions and their subdifferentials

Given a closed convex set  $\mathcal{C}$ , let us define the indicator function

$$\mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{C}}(x) := \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{C} \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

It is easy to see that  $\mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{C}}$  is a convex function. Let us characterize its subdifferential. For points  $x$  in the interior of  $\mathcal{C}$ , it is easy to see that  $\partial \mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{C}}(x) = \{0\}$ . The interesting cases are when  $x$  belongs to the boundary of  $\mathcal{C}$ . In this case, we have  $g \in \partial \mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{C}}(x)$  if and only if

$$\mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{C}}(y) \geq 0 + \langle g, y - x \rangle \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

For  $y \notin \mathcal{C}$ , we have  $\mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{C}}(y) = +\infty$ , so this constraint is not meaningful. So it reduces to the condition  $\langle g, y - x \rangle \leq 0$  for all  $y \in \mathcal{C}$ . This set of constraints defines a set known as the normal cone at  $x$ , viz.

$$\mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{C}}(x) = \{g \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid \langle g, y - x \rangle \leq 0 \text{ for all } y \in \mathcal{C}\}. \quad (6a)$$

Note that the normal cone at  $x$  is polar to the tangent cone at  $x$  given by

$$\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{C}}(x) := \{y \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid y - x \in \mathcal{C}\}. \quad (6b)$$

The tangent cone corresponds to the set of directions that are locally feasible from  $x$ . The normal cone corresponds to the set of all directions that have non-positive inner product with any feasible direction in the tangent cone.

### 3.4 Distance from a given convex set

Given a closed convex set  $\mathcal{C}$ , we can define the function

$$\text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}}(x) = \min_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \|x - y\|_2 = \|x - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(x)\|_2. \quad (7)$$

Let us use Lemma 1 to find an element of the subdifferential  $\partial \text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}}(x)$  for an  $x \notin \mathcal{C}$ . Introducing the function  $\varphi(x, y) = \|x - y\|_2$ , note that it is jointly convex in  $(x, y)$ , and moreover we have at the point  $y = \Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(x)$ , we have

$$\left( \frac{x - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(x)}{\|x - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(x)\|_2}, 0 \right) \in \partial \varphi(x, \Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(x)).$$

From Lemma 1, we conclude that the vector

$$\frac{x - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(x)}{\|x - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}}(x)\|_2} \in \partial \text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}}(x)$$

whenever  $\text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}}(x) > 0$ .

If  $\text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}}(x) = 0$ , then we have  $0 \in \partial \text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}}(x)$  by the usual optimality condition.

### 3.5 Alternating projections onto convex sets

As an extension of the previous example, suppose that we are given a collection of convex sets  $\{\mathcal{C}_j\}_{j=1}^N$ , and we wish to find some point  $x^* \in \cap_{j=1}^N \mathcal{C}_j$ , assuming that the intersection is non-empty. Note that  $x^* \in \cap_{j=1}^N \mathcal{C}_j$  if and only if  $\text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x) = 0$  for all  $j = 1, \dots, N$ . Thus, we can reformulate our problem in terms of the minimization problem

$$f(x) = \max_{j=1, \dots, N} \text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x).$$

By our previous results on max-functions, this is a convex function. For any  $x$  such that  $f(x) > 0$ , we can find an element  $g \in \partial f(x)$  as follows:

- choose an index  $j$  such that  $\text{dist}_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x) = f(x)$ , meaning that  $\mathcal{C}_j$  among the sets furthest away from  $x$ .
- compute the unit norm vector

$$g = \frac{x - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x)}{\|x - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x)\|_2}$$

We can thus run a subgradient method with this algorithm. In particular, if we use the step size  $\alpha^\ell > 0$ , then we have

$$x^{\ell+1} = x^\ell - \alpha^\ell g^\ell = x^\ell - \alpha^\ell \frac{x^\ell - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x^\ell)}{\|x^\ell - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x^\ell)\|_2} \quad \text{for some } j \text{ such that } f(x^\ell) = \|x^\ell - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x^\ell)\|_2.$$

If we use the handy step size  $\alpha^\ell = f(x^\ell)$ , then we have

$$x^{\ell+1} = \Pi_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x^\ell) \quad \text{for some } j \text{ such that } f(x^\ell) = \|x^\ell - \Pi_{\mathcal{C}_j}(x^\ell)\|_2.$$

In the case of two sets (i.e.,  $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}_1 \cap \mathcal{C}_2$ ), this method is exactly alternating projections onto convex sets. See Figure 3.5 for an illustration.

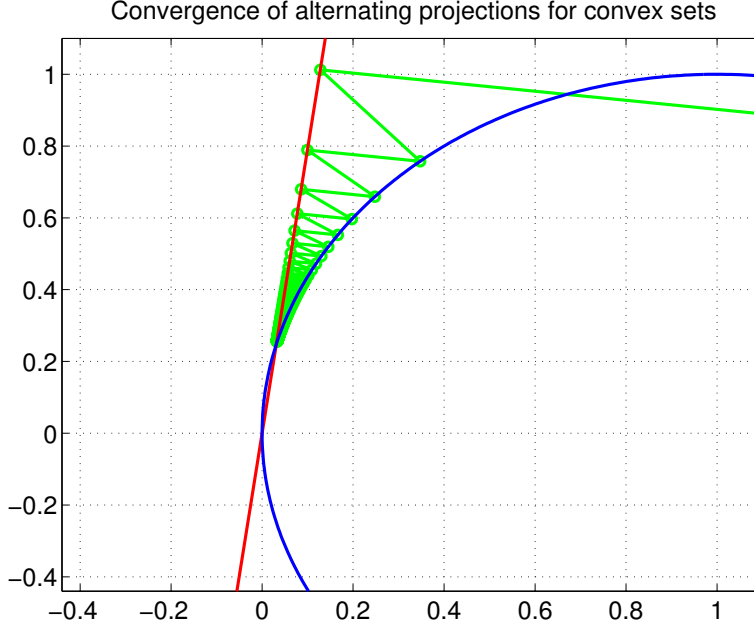


Figure 1: Illustration of the alternating projection method for finding a point  $x^* \in \mathcal{C}_1 \cap \mathcal{C}_2$ , with the halfspace  $\mathcal{C}_1 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid -\sin(\theta)x_1 + \cos(\theta)x_2 \geq 0\}$  with  $\theta = 1.4451$ , and circle  $\mathcal{C}_2 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \|x - (1, 0)\|_2 \leq 1\}$ .

## 4 Consequences for constrained optimization

The zero-subgradient optimality condition stated in Theorem 1 has an interesting corollary for the problem of constrained optimization over a convex set. In particular, consider a problem of the form  $\min_{x \in \mathcal{C}} g(x)$ , where  $\mathcal{C}$  is a closed convex set, and  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is convex. In previous lectures, we have seen that the condition

$$\langle \nabla g(x^*), y - x^* \rangle \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathcal{C} \quad (8)$$

is necessary and sufficient for the constrained optimality of  $x^*$ . This statement is actually a special case of Theorem 1.

Recalling the indicator function  $\mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{C}}$  from equation (5), define the new convex function  $f(x) = g(x) + \mathbb{I}_{\mathcal{C}}(x)$ . Note that we have the equivalence  $\min_{x \in \mathcal{C}} g(x) = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$ . Now from Example 3.3 and sub-gradient calculus (using the fact that  $\text{dom}(g) = \mathbb{R}^d$ ), we know that

$$\partial f(x) = \nabla g(x) + \mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{C}}(x).$$

Hence the condition  $0 \in \partial f(x^*)$  is equivalent to  $-\nabla g(x^*) \in \mathcal{N}_{\mathcal{C}}(x^*)$ , which is in turn equivalent to the original statement (8).