FORWARD-BACKWARD ENVELOPE FOR THE SUM OF TWO NONCONVEX FUNCTIONS: FURTHER PROPERTIES AND NONMONOTONE LINESEARCH ALGORITHMS*

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Abstract. We propose ZeroFPR, a nonmonotone linesearch algorithm for minimizing the sum of two nonconvex functions, one of which is smooth and the other possibly nonsmooth. ZeroFPR is the first algorithm that, despite being fit for fully nonconvex problems and requiring only the black-box oracle of forward-backward splitting (FBS)—namely evaluations of the gradient of the smooth term and of the proximity operator of the nonsmooth one—achieves superlinear convergence rates under mild assumptions at the limit point when the linesearch directions satisfy a Dennis—Moré condition, and we show that this is the case for Broyden's quasi-Newton directions. Our approach is based on the forward-backward envelope (FBE), an exact and strictly continuous penalty function for the original cost. Extending previous results we show that, despite being nonsmooth for fully nonconvex problems, the FBE still enjoys favorable first- and second-order properties which are key for the convergence results of ZeroFPR. Our theoretical results are backed up by promising numerical simulations. On large-scale problems, by computing linesearch directions using limited-memory quasi-Newton updates our algorithm greatly outperforms FBS and its accelerated variant (AFBS).

Key words. nonsmooth optimization, nonconvex optimization, forward-backward splitting, linesearch methods, quasi-Newton methods, prox-regularity

AMS subject classifications. 90C06, 90C25, 90C26, 90C53, 49J52, 49J53

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1. Introduction. In this paper we deal with optimization problems of the form

(1.1)
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \varphi(x) \equiv f(x) + g(x)$$

under the following requirements, which will be assumed without further mention.

Assumption I (basic assumption). In problem (1.1),

- (i) $f \in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ (differentiable with L_f -Lipschitz continuous gradient);
- (ii) $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is proper, closed, and γ_g -prox-bounded (see subsection 2.1);
- (iii) a solution exists, that is, $\operatorname{argmin} \varphi \neq \emptyset$.

Both f and g are allowed to be nonconvex, making (1.1) prototypic for a plethora of applications spanning signal and image processing, machine learning, statistics, control, and system identification. A well-known algorithm addressing (1.1) is forward-backward splitting (FBS), also known as the proximal gradient method. FBS has been thoroughly analyzed under the assumption of g being convex. If moreover f is convex, then FBS is known to converge globally with rate O(1/k) in terms of objective value, where k is the iteration count. In this case, accelerated variants of FBS, also known as fast forward-backward splitting (FFBS), can be derived, thanks to the work of

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Nesterov [9, 36], that only require minimal additional computations per iteration but achieve the provably optimal global convergence rate of order $o(1/k^2)$ [6].

The work in [41] pioneered an alternative acceleration technique. The method is based on an exact, real-valued penalty function for the original problem (1.1), namely the *forward-backward envelope* (FBE), defined as

$$(1.2) \qquad \varphi_{\gamma}(x) = \varphi_{\gamma}^{f,g}(x) \coloneqq \inf_{z \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), z - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 + g(z) \right\},$$

where $\gamma > 0$ is a given parameter. We will adopt the simpler notation φ_{γ} without superscript whenever f and g are clear from context.

The name forward-backward envelope comes from the fact that $\varphi_{\gamma}(x)$ is the value of the minimization problem that defines the forward-backward step and alludes to the kinship that it has with the Moreau envelope. These claims will be addressed in more detail in section 4. When f is sufficiently smooth and both f and g are convex, the FBE was shown to be continuously differentiable and amenable to be minimized with generalized Newton methods. More recently, [50] proposed a linesearch algorithm based on (L-)BFGS quasi-Newton directions for minimizing the FBE. The curvature information exploited by Newton-like methods acts as an online preconditioner, enabling superlinear rates of convergence, under some assumptions. However, unlike plain (F)FBS schemes, such methods require accessing second-order information of the smooth term f (needed for the evaluation of $\nabla \varphi_{\gamma}$), and are well defined only as long as the nonsmooth term g is convex. On the contrary, FBS only requires first-order information on f and prox-boundedness of g, in which case all accumulation points are stationary for φ , i.e., they satisfy the first-order necessary conditions [5].

Contributions. In this paper we propose ZeroFPR, a nonmonotone linesearch algorithm that, to the best of our knowledge, is the first that (1) addresses the same range of problems as FBS, (2) requires the same black-box oracle as FBS (gradient of one function and proximity operator of the other), (3) yet achieves superlinear rates if some assumptions (only) at the limit point are met. Though related to the minFBE algorithm [50], ZeroFPR is conceptually different, mainly because it is gradient free, in the sense that it does not require the gradient of the FBE. Moreover:

- We provide the necessary theoretical background linking the concepts of stationarity of a point for problem (1.1), *criticality* and optimality. To the best of our knowledge, such an analysis was previously made only for the proximal point algorithm [45], for a special case of the projected gradient method [7, 8] and for difference-of-convex minimization problems [40].
- The analysis of the FBE, previously studied only in the case of f being $C^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and g convex [50], is extended to f and g as in Assumption I. In particular, we discuss properties of f and g that ensure (1) continuous differentiability of the FBE around critical points, (2) (strict) twice differentiability at critical points, and (3) equivalence of strong local minimality for the original function and the FBE.
- Exploiting the investigated properties of the FBE and of critical points we prove that ZeroFPR with monotone linesearch converges (1) globally if φ_{γ} has the Kurdyka-Lojasiewicz property [33, 34, 27], and (2) superlinearly when quasi-Newton Broyden directions are employed, under additional requirements at the limit point.

Organization of the paper. In section 2 we introduce some notation and list known facts about FBS. In section 3 we define and explore notions of stationarity and criticality for the investigated problem and relate them to properties of the forward-backward

operator. In section 4 we extend the results of [50] about the fundamental properties of the FBE to the more general setting addressed in this paper; for the sake of readability, some of the proofs are deferred to Appendix A. Section 5 addresses the core contribution of the paper, ZeroFPR; although arbitrary directions can be chosen, we tailor the results on superlinear convergence to a quasi-Newton Broyden method so as to truly maintain the same black-box oracle as FBS. Some ancillary results needed for the proofs are listed in Appendix B. Finally, section 6 illustrates numerical results obtained with the proposed method.

2. Preliminaries.

2.1. Notation. The $n \times n$ identity matrix is denoted by I, and the extended real line as $\overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$. The open and closed balls of radius $r \geq 0$ centered in $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are denoted by B(x;r) and $\overline{B}(x;r)$, respectively. Given a set E and a sequence $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, we write $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \subset E$ with the obvious meaning of $x^k \in E$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. The (possibly empty) set of cluster points of $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is denoted by $\omega((x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}})$, or simply as $\omega(x^k)$ whenever the indexing is clear from context. We say that $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is summable if $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \|x^k\|$ is finite, and square-summable if $(\|x^k\|^2)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is summable.

A function $h: \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is level-bounded if for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ the level set $\text{lev}_{\leq \alpha} h := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid h(x) \leq \alpha\}$ is bounded. Following the terminology of [49], we say that a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is strictly continuous at \bar{x} if

$$\limsup_{\substack{y,z\to\bar{x},\\y\neq z}} \frac{|f(y)-f(z)|}{\|y-z\|}$$

is finite, and strictly differentiable at \bar{x} if $\nabla f(\bar{x})$ exists and

$$\lim_{\begin{subarray}{c} y,z\to\bar x,\\ y\neq z\end{subarray}} \frac{f(y)-f(z)-\langle\nabla f(\bar x),y-z\rangle}{\|y-z\|}=0.$$

The set of functions $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ with Lipschitz continuous gradient is denoted by $C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, and for $f \in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ we write L_f to indicate the Lipschitz modulus of ∇f .

For a proper, closed function $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$, a vector $v \in \partial g(x)$ is a *subgradient* of g at x, where the *subdifferential* $\partial g(x)$ is considered in the sense of [49, Def. 8.3], i.e.,

$$\partial g(x) = \left\{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \exists (x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \to x, \ (v^k \in \hat{\partial} g(x^k))_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \to v \text{ s.t. } g(x^k) \to g(x) \right\},$$

where "s.t." indicates "such that," and $\hat{\partial}g(x)$ is the set of regular subgradients of g at x, namely

$$\hat{\partial}g(x) = \left\{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid g(z) \ge g(x) + \langle v, z - x \rangle + o(\|z - x\|) \ \forall z \in \mathbb{R}^n \right\}.$$

We have $\partial \varphi(x) = \nabla f(x) + \partial g(x)$ and $\hat{\partial} \varphi(x) = \nabla f(x) + \hat{\partial} g(x)$ [49, Ex. 8.8(c)].

Given a parameter value $\gamma > 0$, the Moreau envelope function g^{γ} and the proximal mapping $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}$ are defined by

$$(2.1) g^{\gamma}(x) \coloneqq \inf_{z} \left\{ g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||z - x||^2 \right\},$$

$$\mathrm{prox}_{\gamma g}(x) \coloneqq \mathop{\mathrm{argmin}}_{z} \left\{ g(z) + \tfrac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x\|^2 \right\}.$$

We now summarize some properties of g^{γ} and $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}$; the interested reader is referred to [49] for a detailed discussion. A function $g:\mathbb{R}^n\to\overline{\mathbb{R}}$ is $\operatorname{prox-bounded}$ if there exists $\gamma>0$ such that $g+\frac{1}{2\gamma}\|\cdot\|^2$ is bounded below on \mathbb{R}^n . The supremum of all such γ is the threshold γ_g of $\operatorname{prox-boundedness}$ for g. In particular, if g is convex or bounded below, then $\gamma_g=\infty$. In general, for any $\gamma\in(0,\gamma_g)$ the proximal mapping $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}$ is nonempty- and compact-valued, and the Moreau envelope g^{γ} finite [49, Thm. 1.25].

Given a nonempty closed set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ we let $\delta_S : \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ denote its indicator function, namely $\delta_S(x) = 0$ if $x \in S$ and $\delta_S(x) = \infty$ otherwise, and $\Pi_S : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ the (set-valued) projection $x \mapsto \operatorname{argmin}_{z \in S} \|z - x\|$. Proximal mappings can be seen as generalized projections due to the relation $\Pi_S = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma \delta_S}$ for any $\gamma > 0$.

For a set-valued mapping $T: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ we let $gph\widetilde{T} = \{(x,y) \mid y \in T(x)\}$ denote its graph, $zer T = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid 0 \in T(x)\}$ denote the set of its zeros, and fix $T = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x \in T(x)\}$ denote the set of its $fixed\ points$.

2.2. Forward-backward iterations. Due to the quadratic upper bound

(2.3)
$$f(z) \le f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), z - x \rangle + \frac{L_f}{2} ||z - x||^2$$

holding for all $x, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ [11, Prop. A.24], for any $\gamma \in (0, 1/L_t)$ the function

(2.4)
$$\ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}(z;x) := f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), z - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||z - x||^2 + g(z)$$

furnishes a majorization model for φ in the sense that

- $\ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}(z;x) \geq \varphi(z)$ for all $x,z \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and
- $\ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}(x;x) = \varphi(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Given a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, one iteration of forward-backward splitting (FBS) for problem (1.1) consists in the minimization of the majorizing function $\ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}$, namely in selecting

(2.5)
$$x^{+} \in T_{\gamma}^{f,g}(x) \coloneqq \operatorname{argmin}_{z} \ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}(z; x),$$

where $\gamma \in (0, \min \{\gamma_g, 1/L_f\})$ is the stepsize parameter. The (set-valued) forward-backward operator $T_{\gamma}^{f,g}$ can be equivalently expressed as

$$(2.6a) T_{\gamma}^{f,g}(x) = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g} \left(x - \gamma \nabla f(x) \right),$$

which motivates the bound $\gamma < \gamma_g$ in (2.5) to ensure the existence of x^+ for any x. We also introduce the corresponding (set-valued) forward-backward residual, namely

(2.6b)
$$R_{\gamma}^{f,g}(x) := \frac{1}{\gamma} \left(x - T_{\gamma}^{f,g}(x) \right).$$

Whenever no ambiguity occurs, we will omit the superscript and write simply ℓ_{γ} , T_{γ} , and R_{γ} in place of $\ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}$, $T_{\gamma}^{f,g}$, and $R_{\gamma}^{f,g}$, respectively.

The inclusion (2.5) emphasizes that FBS is a majorization-minimization algorithm (MM), a class of methods which has been thoroughly analyzed when the majorizing function is strongly convex in the first argument [14] (for ℓ_{γ} , this is the case when g is convex). MM algorithms are of interest whenever minimizing the surrogate function ℓ_{γ} (\cdot ; x) is significantly easier than directly addressing the nonstructured minimization of φ . For FBS this translates into the simplicity of prox_{γg} and ∇f operations (cf. (2.6a)). Under very mild assumptions FBS iterations (2.5) converge to a critical point (see section 3) independently of the choice of x^+ in the set $T_{\gamma}(x)$ [5]. The key is the following sufficient decrease property, whose proof can be found in [15, Lem. 2].

LEMMA 2.1 (sufficient decrease). For any $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_g)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $\bar{x} \in T_{\gamma}(x)$ it holds that $\varphi(\bar{x}) \leq \varphi(x) - \frac{1 - \gamma L_f}{2\gamma} \|x - \bar{x}\|^2$.

3. Stationary and critical points. Unless φ is convex, the stationarity condition $0 \in \hat{\partial}\varphi(x^*)$ in problem (1.1) is only necessary for the optimality of x^* [49, Thm. 10.1]. In this section we define different concepts of (sub)optimality and show how they are related for generic functions $\varphi = f + g$ as in Assumption I.

Definition 3.1. We say that a point $x^* \in \text{dom } \varphi$ is

- (i) stationary if $0 \in \partial \varphi(x^*)$;
- (ii) critical if it is γ -critical for some $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_g)$, i.e., if $x^* \in T_{\gamma}(x^*)$;
- (iii) optimal if $x^* \in \operatorname{argmin} \varphi$, i.e., if it solves (1.1).

The notion of criticality was already discussed in [7, 8] under the name of L-stationarity (L plays the role of $^{1}/_{\gamma}$) for the special case of $g = \delta_{B \cap C_{s}}$, where B is a convex set and C_{s} is the (nonconvex) set of vectors with at most s nonzero entries. In [40] it is defined as d-stationarity, although the analysis is limited to difference-of-convex minimization problems; more precisely, it addresses problem (1.1) for a concave piecewise smooth function f and a convex function g.

If g is convex, then $\gamma_g = \infty$ and we may talk of criticality without mention of γ : in this case, γ -criticality and stationarity are equivalent properties regardless of the value of γ . For more general functions g, instead, the value of γ plays a role in determining whether a point is γ -critical or not, which legitimizes the following definition.

DEFINITION 3.2. The criticality threshold is the function $\Gamma^{f,g}:\mathbb{R}^n\to [0,\gamma_g]$ defined by

(3.1)
$$\Gamma^{f,g}(x) := \sup(\{\gamma > 0 \mid x \in T^{f,g}_{\gamma}(x)\} \cup \{0\}) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

As usual, whenever f and g are clear from the context we simply write Γ in place of $\Gamma^{f,g}$. The bound $\Gamma \leq \gamma_g$ is due to the fact that $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_g}$ (and consequently T_{γ}) is everywhere empty-valued for $\gamma > \gamma_g$. Considering also $\gamma = 0$ forces the set in the definition to be nonempty, and the lower bound $\Gamma \geq 0$ in particular; more precisely, observe that, by definition, $\Gamma(x) > 0$ iff x is a critical point.

Example 3.3. Let us consider $\varphi = f + g$ for $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$ and $g = \delta_C$, where $C = \{\pm 1\}$. Clearly, $\gamma_g = +\infty$ (as g is lower-bounded), $L_f = 1$, and ± 1 are both (unique) optima. Since $\hat{\partial}\varphi(x) = \mathbb{R}$ for $x \in C$ and $\hat{\partial}\varphi$ is clearly empty elsewhere, all points in C are stationary. prox $_{\gamma g}$ is the (set-valued) projection on C, and therefore the forward-backward operator is $T_{\gamma}(x) = \Pi_C((1-\gamma)x)$. We have

$$T_{\gamma}(-1) = \begin{cases} \{-1\} & \text{if } \gamma < 1, \\ \{\pm 1\} & \text{if } \gamma = 1, \\ \{1\} & \text{if } \gamma > 1, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad T_{\gamma}(1) = \begin{cases} \{1\} & \text{if } \gamma < 1, \\ \{\pm 1\} & \text{if } \gamma = 1, \\ \{-1\} & \text{if } \gamma > 1. \end{cases}$$

In particular, $\Gamma(1) = \Gamma(-1) = 1$.

We now list some properties of critical and optimal points which will be used to derive regularity properties of T_{γ} and g^{γ} .

Theorem 3.4 (properties of critical points). The following properties hold:

(i) for $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_g)$, a point x^* is γ -critical iff

$$g(x) \ge g(x^*) + \langle -\nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle - \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x - x^*||^2 \qquad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n;$$

- (ii) if x^* is critical, then it is γ -critical for all $\gamma \in (0, \Gamma(x^*))$; moreover, x^* is also $\Gamma(x^*)$ -critical provided that $\Gamma(x^*) < \gamma_q$;
- (iii) $T_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) = \{x^{\star}\}$ and $R_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) = \{0\}$ for any critical point x^{\star} and $\gamma \in (0, \Gamma(x^{\star}))$.

Proof. (i) By definition, x^* is γ -critical iff $\ell_{\gamma}(x^*; x^*) \leq \ell_{\gamma}(x; x^*)$ for all x, i.e., iff

$$f(x^*) + g(x^*) \le f(x^*) + \langle \nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x - x^*||^2 + g(x) \qquad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

By suitably rearranging, the claim readily follows.

(ii) Since x^* is γ -critical, due to (i) it is apparently also γ' -critical for any $\gamma' \in (0, \gamma]$. From the definition (3.1) of the criticality threshold $\Gamma(x^*)$, it then follows that x^* is γ -critical for any $\gamma \in (0, \Gamma(x^*))$. Suppose now that $\Gamma(x^*) < \gamma_g$. Then, due to (i), for all $\gamma \in (0, \Gamma(x^*))$ we have

$$g(x) \ge g(x^*) + \langle -\nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle - \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x - x^*||^2 \qquad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

By taking the limit as $\gamma \nearrow \Gamma(x^*)$ we obtain that the inequality holds for $\Gamma(x^*)$ as well, proving the claim in light of the characterization (i).

(iii) Let x^* be a critical point and let $x \in T_{\gamma}(x^*)$ for some $\gamma < \Gamma(x^*)$. Fix $\gamma' \in (\gamma, \Gamma(x^*))$. From (i) and (ii) it then follows that

(3.2)
$$g(x) \ge g(x^*) + \langle -\nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle - \frac{1}{2\gamma'} ||x - x^*||^2$$

Since $x, x^{\star} \in T_{\gamma}(x^{\star})$, it holds that $\ell_{\gamma}(x^{\star}; x^{\star}) = \ell_{\gamma}(x; x^{\star})$, i.e.,

$$g(x^*) = \langle \nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x - x^*||^2 + g(x) \stackrel{(3.2)}{\geq} g(x^*) + \left(\frac{1}{2\gamma} - \frac{1}{2\gamma'}\right) ||x - x^*||^2.$$

Since
$$\frac{1}{2\gamma} - \frac{1}{2\gamma'} > 0$$
, necessarily $x = x^*$.

The inequality in Theorem 3.4(i) can be rephrased as the fact that the vector $-\nabla f(\bar{x})$ is a "global" proximal subgradient for g at \bar{x} as in [49, Def. 8.45], where "global" refers to the fact that δ can be taken as $+\infty$ in the cited definition. An interesting consequence is that the definition of criticality depends solely on φ and not on the considered decomposition f+g; in fact, it is only the threshold Γ that depends on it. To see this, let $\tilde{f}=f-h$ and $\tilde{g}=g+h$ for some $h\in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, and consider a point x^* which is γ -critical with respect to the decomposition f+g, i.e., such that $x^*\in T^{f,g}_{\gamma}(x^*)$. Combining Theorem 3.4(i) with the quadratic bound (2.3) for h, we obtain

$$\tilde{g}(x) \ge \tilde{g}(x^*) - \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(x^*), x - x^* \rangle - \frac{1}{2\frac{\gamma}{1 + \gamma L_h}} \|x - x^*\|^2 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Again from the characterization of Theorem 3.4(i), we deduce that $x^* \in T^{f,\tilde{g}}_{\tilde{\gamma}}(x^*)$, where $\tilde{\gamma} = \gamma/(1 + \gamma L_h)$. In particular, considering h = -f we infer that a point x^* is critical iff $x^* \in T^{0,\varphi}_{\gamma}(x^*) = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma\varphi}(x^*)$ for some $\gamma > 0$, which legitimizes the notion of criticality without mentioning a specific decomposition.

In the next result we show that criticality is a halfway property between stationarity and optimality. In light of these relations we shall seek "suboptimal" solutions which we characterize as critical points.

PROPOSITION 3.5 (optimality, criticality, stationarity). Let $\bar{\gamma} := \min \{ \gamma_q, 1/L_f \}$.

- (i) $(criticality \Rightarrow stationarity)$ fix $T_{\gamma} \subseteq \operatorname{zer} \hat{\partial} \varphi$ for all $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_g)$.
- (ii) (optimality \Rightarrow criticality) $\Gamma(x^*) \geq \bar{\gamma}$ for all $x^* \in \operatorname{argmin} \varphi$; in particular, $\operatorname{argmin} \varphi \subseteq \operatorname{fix} T_{\gamma}$ for all $\gamma \in (0, \bar{\gamma})$, and also for $\gamma = 1/L_f$ if $\gamma_g > 1/L_f$.

Proof. (i) Let $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_g)$ and $x \in \text{fix}\, T_\gamma$. Since x minimizes $g + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|\cdot - x + \gamma \nabla f(x)\|^2$, we have

$$0 \in \hat{\partial} \left[g + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \| \cdot - x + \gamma \nabla f(x) \|^2 \right](x) = \hat{\partial} g(x) + \nabla f(x) = \hat{\partial} \varphi(x),$$

where the first inclusion follows from [49, Thm. 10.1] and the equalities from [49, Thm. 8.8(c)]. This proves that x is stationary.

(ii) Fix $\gamma \in (0, \bar{\gamma})$, $x^* \in \operatorname{argmin} \varphi$, and $y \in T_{\gamma}(x^*)$. Necessarily $y = x^*$, otherwise, due to Lemma 2.1, $\varphi(y)$ would contradict minimality of $\varphi(x^*)$. Therefore, x^* is γ -critical and the claim follows from the arbitrariness of $\gamma \in (0, \bar{\gamma})$.

As already seen in Example 3.3, the bound $\Gamma(x^*) \geq \min\{\gamma_g, {}^1/L_f\}$ at optimal points in Proposition 3.5(ii) is tight, and clearly the implication "optimality \Rightarrow criticality" cannot be reversed (consider, e.g., the point $x^* = 0$ for $\varphi = \cos$). The next example shows that the other implication is also proper.

Example 3.6 (stationarity \neq criticality). Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$ and $g(x) = x^{5/3}$. We have $\gamma_g = +\infty$, $L_f = 1$, and for $x^* = 0$ it holds that $\hat{\partial}\varphi(x^*) = \{\nabla\varphi(x^*)\} = \{0\}$. Thus, x^* is stationary; however, $T_{\gamma}(x^*) = \text{prox}_{\gamma_g}(0) = \{-(5\gamma/3)^3\}$, and in particular $x^* \notin T_{\gamma}(x^*)$ for any $\gamma > 0$, proving x^* to be noncritical.

4. Forward-backward envelope. The FBE (1.2) was introduced in [41] and further analyzed in [50, 32] in the case in which g is convex. Under such an assumption the FBE was shown to be continuously differentiable, which made it possible to derive minimization algorithms based on its gradient. In the general setting addressed in this paper the FBE might fail to be (continuously) differentiable, and as such we need to resort to methods that do not need first-order information of the FBE. This task will be addressed in section 5, where Algorithm ZeroFPR will be proposed; other than being applicable to a wider range of problems, the proposed scheme is entirely based on the same oracle of forward-backward iterations, unlike the approaches in [41, 50, 32], which instead require the computation of $\nabla^2 f$. All this will be possible thanks to continuity properties of the FBE, and to the behavior of φ_{γ} at critical points. We now focus on its continuity, while the other property will be addressed shortly after in Theorem 4.4.

Remark 4.1 (alternative expressions for φ_{γ}). By expanding the square and rearranging the terms in the definition (1.2), φ_{γ} can equivalently be expressed as

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(x) = \inf_{z \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ f(x) - \frac{\gamma}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 + g(z) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|z - x + \gamma \nabla f(x)\|^2 \right\}.$$

Comparing with (2.5), it is apparent that the set of minimizers z in the above expression coincides with $T_{\gamma}(x)$, the forward-backward operator at x. Moreover, taking out the constant term $f(x) - \frac{\gamma}{2} ||\nabla f(x)||^2$ from the infimum we immediately obtain the following expression involving the Moreau envelope of g:

(4.1)
$$\varphi_{\gamma}(x) = f(x) - \frac{\gamma}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 + g^{\gamma}(x - \gamma \nabla f(x)). \quad \Box$$

Other than providing an explicit way of computing the FBE, (4.1) emphasizes how φ_{γ} inherits the regularity properties of the Moreau envelope of g. In particular, the next key property follows from the strict continuity of g^{γ} [49, Ex. 10.32].

PROPOSITION 4.2 (strict continuity of φ_{γ}). For any $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_g)$, the FBE φ_{γ} is a real-valued and strictly continuous function on \mathbb{R}^n .

4.1. Connections with the Moreau envelope. For the special case in which f=0, FBS iterations (2.5) reduce to the proximal point algorithm (PPA) $x^+ \in \text{prox}_{\gamma\varphi}(x)$, first introduced in [35] for convex functions φ and later generalized for functions with convex majorizing surrogate $\ell_{\gamma}^{0,\varphi}(\cdot;x) = \varphi(\cdot) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||\cdot -x||^2$; see e.g., [26]. Similarly, the FBE reduces to the Moreau envelope $\varphi^{\gamma} = \varphi_{\gamma}^{0,\varphi}$. In fact, the FBE extends the connection between PPA and Moreau envelope,

$$(4.2a) \varphi^{\gamma}(x) = \min_{z} \ell_{\gamma}^{0,\varphi}(z; x) \leftrightarrow \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma\varphi}(x) = \operatorname{argmin}_{z} \ell_{\gamma}^{0,\varphi}(z; x) ,$$

holding for f = 0 in (2.4), to majorizing functions $\ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}$ with arbitrary $f \in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$,

$$(4.2b) \hspace{1cm} \varphi_{\gamma}(x) = \min_{z} \ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}\left(z;\,x\right) \hspace{0.2cm} \leftrightarrow \hspace{0.2cm} T_{\gamma}(x) = \mathrm{argmin}_{z} \ell_{\gamma}^{f,g}\left(z;\,x\right).$$

In the next section we will see the fundamental qualitative similarities between the FBE and the Moreau envelope. Namely, for γ small enough both φ^{γ} and φ_{γ} are lower bounds for the original function φ with the same minimizers and minimum; in particular, the minimization of φ is equivalent to that of φ^{γ} or φ_{γ} . Similarly, the identity

$$\varphi(\bar{x}) = \varphi^{\gamma}(x) - \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x - \bar{x}||^2$$
 for $\bar{x} \in \text{prox}_{\gamma \varphi}(x)$

will be extended to the inequality

$$\varphi(\bar{x}) \leq \varphi_{\gamma}(x) - \tfrac{1 - \gamma L_f}{2\gamma} \|x - \bar{x}\|^2 \quad \text{for } \bar{x} \in T_{\gamma}(x).$$

4.2. Basic properties. We now provide bounds relating φ_{γ} to the original function φ that extend the well-known inequalities involving the Moreau envelope.

Proposition 4.3. Let $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_g)$ be fixed. Then

- (i) $\varphi_{\gamma} \leq \varphi$,
- (ii) $\varphi(\bar{x}) \leq \varphi_{\gamma}(x) \frac{1-\gamma L_f}{2\gamma} ||x \bar{x}||^2 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } \bar{x} \in T_{\gamma}(x).$

Proof. (i) is obvious from the definition of the FBE (consider z = x in (1.2)). As for (ii), since the set of minimizers in (1.2) is $T_{\gamma}(x)$ (cf. (4.2b)), (2.3) yields

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(x) = f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), \bar{x} - x \rangle + g(\bar{x}) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|x - \bar{x}\|^{2}$$

$$\geq f(\bar{x}) - \frac{L_{f}}{2} \|\bar{x} - x\|^{2} + g(\bar{x}) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|x - \bar{x}\|^{2} = \varphi(\bar{x}) + \frac{1 - \gamma L_{f}}{2\gamma} \|x - \bar{x}\|^{2}. \quad \Box$$

With respect to the inequalities holding for convex g treated in [50], the lower bound in Proposition 4.3 is weaker, while the upper bound is unchanged. Regardless, an immediate consequence of the result is that the value of φ and φ_{γ} at critical points is the same, and minimizers and infima of the two functions coincide for γ small enough.

THEOREM 4.4. The following hold:

- (i) $\varphi(x) = \varphi_{\gamma}(x)$ for all $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_g)$ and $x \in \operatorname{fix} T_{\gamma}$,
- (ii) $\inf \varphi = \inf \varphi_{\gamma} \text{ and } \operatorname{argmin} \varphi = \operatorname{argmin} \varphi_{\gamma} \text{ for all } \gamma \in (0, \min\{1/L_f, \gamma_g\}).$

The bound $\gamma < 1/L_f$ in Theorem 4.4(ii) is tight even when f and g are convex, as the counterexample with $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$ and $g = \delta_{\mathbb{R}_+}$ shows (see [50, Ex. 2.4] for details).

Although we will address problem (1.1) by simply exploiting the *continuity* of the FBE, nevertheless φ_{γ} enjoys favorable properties which are key for the efficacy of the method which will be discussed in section 5. Firstly, observe that, due to *strict* continuity, φ_{γ} is almost everywhere differentiable, which follows from Rademacher's theorem. The same applies to the mapping $x \mapsto x - \gamma \nabla f(x)$, its Jacobian being

$$(4.3) Q_{\gamma}(x) := I - \gamma \nabla^2 f(x),$$

which is symmetric wherever it exists [49, Cor. 13.42 and Prop. 13.34]. However, in order to show that the proposed method achieves fast convergence we need additional regularity properties, namely (strict) twice differentiability at critical points and continuous differentiability around them. The rest of the section is dedicated to this task.

4.3. Prox-regularity and first-order properties. In the favorable case in which g is convex and $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$, the FBE enjoys global continuous differentiability [50]. In our setting, *prox-regularity* acts as a surrogate of convexity; the interested reader is referred to [49, sect. 13.F] for a detailed discussion.

DEFINITION 4.5 (prox-regularity). Function g is said to be prox-regular at x_0 for $v_0 \in \partial g(x_0)$ if there exist $\rho, \varepsilon > 0$ such that for all $x' \in B(x_0; \varepsilon)$ and

$$(x, v) \in \operatorname{gph} \partial g$$
 s.t. $x \in B(x_0; \varepsilon), v \in B(v_0; \varepsilon), and $g(x) \leq g(x_0) + \varepsilon$$

it holds that
$$g(x') \ge g(x) + \langle v, x' - x \rangle - \frac{\rho}{2} ||x' - x||^2$$
.

Prox-regularity is a mild requirement enjoyed globally and for any subgradient by all convex functions, with $\varepsilon = +\infty$ and $\rho = 0$. When g is prox-regular at x_0 for v_0 , for sufficiently small $\gamma > 0$ the Moreau envelope g^{γ} is continuously differentiable in a neighborhood of $x_0 + \gamma v_0$ [45]. For our purposes, when needed, prox-regularity of g will be required only at critical points x^* , and only for the subgradient $-\nabla f(x^*)$. Therefore, with a slight abuse of terminology we define prox-regularity of critical points as follows.

DEFINITION 4.6 (prox-regularity of critical points). We say that a critical point x^* is prox-regular if g is prox-regular at x^* for $-\nabla f(x^*)$.

Examples where a critical point fails to be prox-regular are of challenging construction; before illustrating a cumbersome such instance in Example 4.9, we first prove an important result that connects prox-regularity with first-order properties of the FBE.

THEOREM 4.7 (continuous differentiability of φ_{γ}). Suppose that f is of class C^2 around a prox-regular critical point x^* . Then, for all $\gamma \in (0, \Gamma(x^*))$ there exists a neighborhood U_{x^*} of x^* on which the following properties hold:

- (i) T_{γ} and R_{γ} are strictly continuous, and in particular single valued;
- (ii) $\varphi_{\gamma} \in C^1$ with $\nabla \varphi_{\gamma} = Q_{\gamma} R_{\gamma}$, where Q_{γ} is as in (4.3).

Proof. For $\gamma' \in (\gamma, \Gamma(x^*))$, using Theorem 3.4(i) and (iii) we obtain that

$$(4.4) g(x) \ge g(x^*) - \langle \nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle - \frac{1}{2\gamma'} \|x - x^*\|^2 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Replacing γ' with γ in the above expression, the inequality is strict for all $x \neq x^*$. From [45, Thm. 4.4] applied to the "tilted" function $x \mapsto g(x+x^*) - g(x^*) - \langle \nabla f(x^*), x \rangle$ it follows that there is a neighborhood V of $x^* - \gamma \nabla f(x^*)$ in which $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}$ is strictly continuous and g^{γ} is of class C^{1+} with $\nabla g^{\gamma}(x) = \gamma^{-1}(x - \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(x))$ for all $x \in V$. Since f is C^2 around x^* and ∇f is continuous, by possibly narrowing U_{x^*} we may assume that $f \in C^2(U_{x^*})$ and $x - \gamma \nabla f(x) \in V$ for all $x \in U_{x^*}$. Part (ii) then follows from (4.1) and the chain rule of differentiation, and (i) from the fact that strict continuity is preserved by composition.

When f = 0, Theorem 4.7 restates the known fact that if g is prox-regular at x^* for $0 \in \partial g(x^*)$, then g^{γ} is continuously differentiable around x^* with $\nabla g^{\gamma}(x) = \frac{1}{\gamma}(x - \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x))$. Notice that the bound $\gamma < \Gamma(x^*)$ is tight: in general, for $\gamma = \Gamma(x^*)$

no continuity of T_{γ} nor continuous differentiability of φ_{γ} around x^{\star} can be guaranteed. In fact, even when x^{\star} is $\Gamma(x^{\star})$ -critical, T_{γ} might even fail to be single valued and φ_{γ} differentiable at x^{\star} , as the following counterexample shows.

Example 4.8 (necessity of $\gamma \neq \Gamma(x^*)$ in first-order properties). Consider $f = \frac{1}{2}x^2$ and $g = \delta_S$, where $S = \{0, 1\}$. Then, $L_f = 1$, $\gamma_g = +\infty$, $T_{\gamma}(x) = \Pi_S((1 - \gamma)x)$, and the FBE is $\varphi_{\gamma}(x) = \frac{1-\gamma}{2} ||x||^2 + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \operatorname{dist}((1-\gamma)x, S)^2$. At the critical point x = 1, which satisfies $\Gamma(1) = \frac{1}{2}$, g is prox-regular for any subgradient. For any $\gamma \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ it is easy to see that φ_{γ} is differentiable in a neighborhood of x = 1. However, for $\gamma = \frac{1}{2}$ the distance function has a first-order singularity in x = 1, due to the 2-valuedness of $T_{\gamma}(1) = \Pi_S(\frac{1}{2}) = \{0, 1\}$.

Example 4.9 (prox-nonregularity of critical points). Consider $\varphi = f + g$, where $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$, $g(x) = \delta_S(x)$, and $S = \{1/n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}\} \cup \{0\}$. For $x_0 = 0$ we have $\Gamma(x_0) = +\infty$; however, g fails to be prox-regular at x_0 for $v_0 = 0 = -\nabla f(x_0)$. For any $\rho > 0$ and for any neighborhood V of (0,0) in gph g it is always possible to find a point arbitrarily close to $(0,-1/\rho)$ with multi-valued projection on V. Specifically, the midpoint $P_n = \left(\frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1}), -1/\rho\right)$ has 2-valued projection on gph g for any $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$, i.e., $\Pi_{\text{gph}\,g}(P_n) = \{1/n, 1/n+1\}$. By considering a large n, P_n can be made arbitrarily close to (0,0). It follows that g cannot be prox-regular at 0 for 0, for otherwise such projections would be single valued close enough to (0,0) [45, Cor. 3.4 and Thm. 3.5]. As a result, $g^{\gamma}(x) = (1/2\gamma) \operatorname{dist}(x,S)^2$ is not differentiable around x = 0, and indeed at each midpoint $\frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1})$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$ it has a nonsmooth spike.

To underline how unfortunate the situation depicted in Example 4.9 is, notice that adding a linear term λx to f for any $\lambda \neq 0$, yet leaving g unchanged, restores the desired prox-regularity of each critical point. Indeed, this is trivially true for any nonzero critical point; besides, g is prox-regular at 0 for any $\lambda \in (0, -\infty)$, while for any $\lambda < 0$ the point 0 is not critical.

4.4. Second-order properties. In this section we discuss sufficient conditions for twice-differentiability of the FBE at critical points. In addition to prox-regularity, which is needed for local continuous differentiability, we will also need generalized second-order properties of g. The interested reader is referred to [49, sect. 13] for an extensive discussion on epi-differentiability.

Assumption II. With respect to a given critical point x^* .

- (i) $\nabla^2 f$ exists and is (strictly) continuous around x^* ;
- (ii) g is prox-regular and (strictly) twice epi-differentiable at x^* for $-\nabla f(x^*)$, with its second-order epi-derivative being generalized quadratic:

$$(4.5) d^2 g(x^* | -\nabla f(x^*))[d] = \langle d, Md \rangle + \delta_S(d) \forall d \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

where $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear subspace and $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$. Without loss of generality we take M symmetric and such that $\text{Im}(M) \subseteq S$ and $\text{ker}(M) \supseteq S^{\perp}$.

We say that the assumptions are "strictly" satisfied if the stronger conditions in parenthesis hold.

Twice epi-differentiability of g is a mild requirement, and cases in which d^2g is generalized quadratic are abundant [47, 48, 43, 44]. Moreover, prox-regular and C^2 -partly smooth functions g (see [29, 19]) comprise a wide class of functions that strictly

¹This can indeed be done without loss of generality: if M and S satisfy (4.5), then it suffices to replace M with $M' = \frac{1}{2} \Pi_S(M + M^\top) \Pi_S$ to ensure the desired properties.

satisfy Assumption II(ii) at a critical point x^* provided that strict complementarity holds, namely if $-\nabla f(x^*) \in \text{relint } \partial g(x^*)$. In fact, it follows from [19, Thm. 28] applied to the tilted function $\tilde{g} = g + \langle \nabla f(x^*), \cdot \rangle$ (which is still C^2 -partly smooth and prox-regular at x^* ; see [29, Cor. 4.6] and [49, Ex. 13.35]) that $\text{prox}_{\gamma \tilde{g}}$ is continuously differentiable around x^* for γ small enough (in fact, for $\gamma < \Gamma(x^*)$). From [42, Thm. 4.1(g)] we then obtain that \tilde{g} is strictly twice epi-differentiable at x^* with generalized quadratic second-order epiderivative, and the claim follows by tilting back to g.

We now show that the quite common properties required in Assumption II are all that is needed for ensuring first-order properties of the proximal mapping and second-order properties of the FBE at critical points. The result generalizes the one in [50] by allowing nonconvex functions g. Although the proof is quite similar, we include it for the sake of self-containedness.

THEOREM 4.10 (twice differentiability of φ_{γ}). Suppose that Assumption II is (strictly) satisfied with respect to a critical point x^* . Then, for any $\gamma \in (0, \Gamma(x^*))$,

(i) $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}$ is (strictly) differentiable at $x^{\star} - \gamma \nabla f(x^{\star})$ with symmetric and positive semidefinite Jacobian

(4.6)
$$P_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) := J \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma q}(x^{\star} - \gamma \nabla f(x^{\star}));$$

(ii) R_{γ} is (strictly) differentiable at x^{\star} with Jacobian

(4.7)
$$JR_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) = \frac{1}{\gamma} \left[I - P_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) Q_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) \right],$$

where Q_{γ} is as in (4.3) and P_{γ} as in (4.6);

(iii) φ_{γ} is (strictly) twice differentiable at x^{\star} with symmetric Hessian

(4.8)
$$\nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^*) = Q_{\gamma}(x^*) J R_{\gamma}(x^*).$$

Again, when $f \equiv 0$, Theorem 4.10 covers the differentiability properties of the proximal mapping (and consequently the second-order properties of the Moreau envelope, due to the identity $\nabla g^{\gamma}(x) = \frac{1}{\gamma}(x - \text{prox}_{\gamma g}(x))$), as discussed in [42]. We now provide a key result that links nonsingularity of the Jacobian of the

We now provide a key result that links nonsingularity of the Jacobian of the forward-backward residual R_{γ} to strong (local) minimality for the original cost φ and for the FBE φ_{γ} , under the generalized second-order properties of Assumption II.

THEOREM 4.11 (conditions for strong local minimality). Suppose that Assumption II is satisfied with respect to a critical point x^* , and let $\gamma \in (0, \min \{\Gamma(x^*), 1/L_f\})$. The following are equivalent:

- (a) x^* is a strong local minimum for φ ,
- (b) x^* is a local minimum for φ and $JR_{\gamma}(x^*)$ is nonsingular,
- (c) the (symmetric) matrix $\nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^*)$ is positive definite,
- (d) x^* is a strong local minimum for φ_{γ} ,
- (e) x^* is a local minimum for φ_{γ} and $JR_{\gamma}(x^*)$ is nonsingular.

Proof. See Appendix A.

5. ZeroFPR algorithm. The first algorithmic framework exploiting the FBE for solving composite minimization problems was studied in [41], and other schemes have been recently investigated in [50, 32]. All such methods tackle the problem by looking for a (local) minimizer of the FBE, exploiting the equivalence of (local) minimality

Algorithm ZeroFPR Generalized forward-backward with nonmonotone linesearch

REQUIRE $\gamma \in (0, \min\{1/L_f, \gamma_g\}), \ \beta, p_{\min} \in (0, 1), \ \sigma \in (0, \gamma \frac{1-\gamma L_f}{2}), \ x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n.$ INITIALIZE $\bar{\Phi}_0 = \varphi_{\gamma}(x^0), \ k = 0.$

- 1: Select $\bar{x}^k \in T_\gamma(x^k)$ and set $r^k = \frac{1}{\gamma}(x^k \bar{x}^k)$.
- 2: if $||r^k|| = 0$, then stop; end if
- 3: Select a direction $d^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- 4: Let $\tau_k \in \{\beta^m \mid m \in \mathbb{N}\}\$ be the largest such that $x^{k+1} = \bar{x}^k + \tau_k d^k$ satisfies

(5.1)
$$\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}) \le \bar{\Phi}_k - \sigma ||r^k||^2.$$

5: $\bar{\Phi}_{k+1} = (1 - p_k)\bar{\Phi}_k + p_k\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1})$ for some $p_k \in [p_{\min}, 1]$. $k \leftarrow k+1$ and go to step 1.

for the original function φ and for the FBE φ_{γ} for γ small enough. To do so, they all employ the concept of directions of descent, thus requiring the gradient of the FBE to be well defined everywhere. In the more general framework addressed in this paper, such a basic requirement is not met, which is why we approach the problem from a different perspective. This leads to ZeroFPR, the first algorithm, to the best of our knowledge, that, despite requiring only the black-box oracle of FBS and being suited for fully nonconvex problems, achieves superlinear convergence rates.

5.1. Overview. Instead of directly addressing the minimization of φ or φ_{γ} , we seek solutions of the following nonlinear inclusion (generalized equation):

(5.2) find
$$x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
 such that $0 \in R_{\gamma}(x^*)$.

By doing so we address the problem from the same perspective of FBS, that is, finding fixed points of the forward-backward operator T_{γ} or, equivalently, zeros of its residual R_{γ} . Despite the fact that R_{γ} might be quite irregular when g is nonconvex, it enjoys favorable properties at the very solutions to (5.2)—i.e., at γ -critical points—starting from single-valuedness (cf. Theorem 3.4(iii)). If some assumptions are met, R_{γ} turns out to be continuous around and even differentiable at critical points (cf. Theorems 4.7 and 4.10), and as a consequence the *inclusion* problem (5.2) reduces to a well-behaved system of equations, as opposed to generalized equations, when close to solutions.

This motivates addressing problem (5.2) with fast methods for nonlinear equations. Newton-like schemes are iterative methods that prescribe updates of the form

$$(5.3) x^+ = x - HR_{\gamma}(x),$$

which essentially amount to selecting H = H(x), a linear operator that ideally carries information on the geometry of R_{γ} around x, in the attempt to yield an optimal iterate x^+ . For instance, when R_{γ} is sufficiently regular, the Newton method corresponds to selecting H as the inverse of an element of the generalized Jacobian of R_{γ} at x, enabling fast convergence when close to a solution under some assumptions. However, selecting H as in the Newton method would require additional information to the forward-backward oracle T_{γ} , and as such it goes beyond the scope of this paper. For this reason we focus instead on quasi-Newton schemes in which H are linear operators recursively defined with low-rank updates that satisfy the (inverse) secant condition

(5.4)
$$H^+y = s$$
, where $s = x^+ - x$ and $y \in R_{\gamma}(x^+) - R_{\gamma}(x)$.

A famous result [21] states that, under some assumptions and starting sufficiently close to a solution x^* , updates as in (5.3) are superlinearly convergent to x^* iff the Dennis-Moré condition holds, namely the limit $\|(H^{-1} - JR_{\gamma}(x^{\star}))s\|/\|s\| \to 0$; see also [22] for a thorough survey. More recently, in [23] the result was extended to generalized equations of the form $f(x) + G(x) \ni 0$, where f is smooth and G possibly set valued. The study focuses on Josephy-Newton methods where the update x^+ is the solution of the inner problem $f(x) - Bx \in Bx^+ + G(x^+)$, where $B = H^{-1}$. which can be interpreted as a forward-backward step in the metric induced by B. In particular, differently from the proposed ZeroFPR, the method in [23] has the crucial limitation that, unless the operator B has a very particular structure, the backward step $(B+G)^{-1}$ may be prohibitively challenging. The same remark applies to proximal (quasi-)Newton-type methods, in which each iteration requires the computation of a scaled proximal gradient step; see [28] and the references therein.

5.1.1. Globalization strategy. Quasi-Newton schemes are extremely handy and widely used methods. However, it is well known that they are effective only when close enough to a solution and might even diverge otherwise. To cope with this crucial downside there comes the need of a globalization strategy; this is usually addressed by means of a linesearch over a suitable merit function ψ , along directions of descent for ψ so as to ensure sufficient decrease for small enough stepsizes. Unfortunately, the potential choice $\psi(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|R_{\gamma}(x)\|^2$ is not regular enough for a 'direction of descent' to be everywhere defined. The proposed Algorithm ZeroFPR bypasses this limitation by exploiting the favorable properties of the FBE. In Theorem 5.10 we will see that ZeroFPR achieves superlinear convergence, provided that f and g enjoy some regularity requirements at the limit point and the directions satisfy a Dennis-Moré condition. However, regardless of whether or not any such conditions are met, the algorithm has the same convergence guarantees of FBS (cf. Theorem 5.6).

ZeroFPR globalizes the convergence of any fast local method, and requires exactly the same oracle of FBS. Conceptually, the algorithm is really elementary; for simplicity, let us first consider the monotone case, i.e., with $p_k \equiv 1$ so that $\bar{\Phi}_k = \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k)$ (cf. step 5). The following steps are executed for updating the iterate x^k :

- first, at step 1 a nominal forward-backward call yields an element x̄^k ∈ T_γ(x^k) that decreases the value of φ_γ by at least γ (Proposition 4.3(i));
 then, at step 3 an update direction d^k at x̄^k (not at x^k!) is selected;
- (3) because of the sufficient decrease $x^k \mapsto \bar{x}^k$ on φ_{γ} and the continuity of φ_{γ} , at step 4 a stepsize τ_k can be found with finitely many backtrackings $\tau_k \leftarrow \beta \tau_k$ that ensures a decrease for φ_{γ} of at least $\sigma \|r^k\|^2$ in the update $x^k \mapsto \bar{x}^k + \tau_k d^k$ for any $\sigma < \gamma \frac{1-\gamma L_f}{2}$.

In order to reduce the number of backtrackings, $p_k < 1$ can be selected resulting in a nonmonotone linesearch. The sufficient decrease is enforced with respect to a parameter $\bar{\Phi}_k \geq \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k)$ (cf. Lemma 5.1), namely a convex combination of $\{\varphi_{\gamma}(x^i)\}_{i=0}^k$. For the sake of convergence, $(p_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ can be selected arbitrarily in (0,1] as long as it is bounded away from 0, hence the role of the user-set lower bound p_{\min} . Consequently, small values of σ and p_k concur in reducing conservatism in the linesearch by favoring larger stepsizes.

LEMMA 5.1 (nonmonotone linesearch globalization). For all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ the iterates generated by ZeroFPR satisfy

(5.5)
$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) \le \varphi(\bar{x}^k) \le \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) \le \bar{\Phi}_k$$

and there exists $\bar{\tau}_k > 0$ such that

(5.6)
$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k + \tau d^k) \le \bar{\Phi}_k - \sigma \|r^k\|^2 \qquad \forall \tau \in [0, \bar{\tau}_k].$$

In particular, the number of backtrackings at step 4 is finite.

Proof. The first two inequalities in (5.5) are due to Proposition 4.3(i) and (ii), respectively. Moreover,

$$\bar{\Phi}_{k+1} = (1 - p_k)\bar{\Phi}_k + p_k\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}) \ge (1 - p_k)\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}) + p_k\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}) = \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}),$$

where the inequality follows by the linesearch condition (5.1); this proves the last inequality in (5.5). As for (5.6), let k be fixed, and contrary to the claim suppose that for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\tau_{\varepsilon} \in [0, \varepsilon]$ such that the point $x_{\varepsilon} = \bar{x}^k + \tau_{\varepsilon} d^k$ satisfies $\varphi_{\gamma}(x_{\varepsilon}) > \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \sigma ||r^k||^2$. By taking the limit for $\varepsilon \to 0^+$, so that $x_{\varepsilon} \to \bar{x}^k$, we have

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} \varphi_{\gamma}(x_{\varepsilon}) \ge \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \sigma \|r^k\|^2 \ge \varphi(\bar{x}^k) + \left(\gamma \frac{1 - \gamma L_f}{2} - \sigma\right) \|r^k\|^2 > \varphi(\bar{x}^k),$$

which contradicts Proposition 4.3(i). Here, the equality follows from the continuity of φ_{γ} (Proposition 4.2), the first inequality from the property of x_{ε} , the second one from Proposition 4.3(ii), and the last one from the fact that $r^{k} \neq 0$ and $\gamma \frac{1-\gamma L_{f}}{2} > \sigma$. Therefore, there exists $\bar{\tau}_{k} > 0$ such that

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k + \tau d^k) \le \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \sigma \|r^k\|^2 \le \bar{\Phi}_k - \sigma \|r^k\|^2 \quad \text{for all } \tau \in [0, \bar{\tau}_k]. \quad \Box$$

The existence of $\bar{\tau}_k > 0$ as in (5.6) ensures that, for any direction d^k , a stepsize τ_k is found at step 3 with finitely many backtrackings. In subsection 5.4 we will also see that ZeroFPR returns solutions of problem (5.2), and that convergence is superlinear when the directions are chosen according to a modified Broyden's quasi-Newton scheme, if some properties are satisfied at the limit point. In section 6 we will then confirm the theoretical findings with numerical simulations, which however seem to agree that also BFGS is extremely well performing in practice, although not supported by the theory (of superlinear convergence). A tentative explanation of this fact will be hinted in the conclusive remarks. Before going into the theory, we briefly discuss how to compute such quasi-Newton directions.

5.1.2. Choice of the directions: Quasi-Newton methods. As already emphasized, fast convergence of ZeroFPR will be obtained thanks to the employment of Newton-like directions d^k . Differently from the classical Newton-like step (5.3), when stepsize 1 is accepted, the update in ZeroFPR is of the form $x^+ = \bar{x} + d$ rather than $x^+ = x + d$, where \bar{x} is an element of $T_{\gamma}(x)$. Consequently, d needs to be a Newton-like direction at \bar{x} , and not at x, namely

(5.7)
$$d^k = -H_k \bar{r}^k \quad \text{for some } \bar{r}^k \in R_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k)$$

(as opposed to $\bar{r}^k \in R_{\gamma}(x^k)$).

Broyden's method. We consider a modified Broyden scheme [46] that performs rank-one updates of the form

(5.8a)
$$H_{k+1} = H_k + \frac{s_k - H_k y_k}{\langle s_k, (1/\vartheta_k - 1) s_k + H_k y_k \rangle} s_k^{\top} H_k \text{ with } \begin{cases} s_k = x^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k, \\ y_k = r^{k+1} - \bar{r}^k, \end{cases}$$

for a sequence $(\vartheta_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}\subset (0,2]$. The original Broyden formula [17] corresponds to selecting $\vartheta_k\equiv 1$, whereas for other values of ϑ_k the secant condition (5.4) is *drifted* to $H^+\tilde{y}=s$, where $\tilde{y}=(1-\vartheta)H^{-1}s+\vartheta y$. In particular, [46] suggests

(5.8b)
$$\vartheta_k := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |\gamma_k| \ge \bar{\vartheta}, \\ \frac{1 - \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma_k)\bar{\vartheta}}{1 - \gamma_k} & \text{if } |\gamma_k| < \bar{\vartheta}, \end{cases} \text{ where } \gamma_k := \frac{\langle H_k y^k, s^k \rangle}{\|s^k\|^2},$$

and $\bar{\vartheta} \in (0,1)$ is a fixed parameter, with the convention that $\operatorname{sgn} 0 = 1$. Starting from an invertible matrix H_0 , this specific selection ensures that all matrices H_k are invertible.

BFGS method. The BFGS method consists of the following update rule for matrices H_k in (5.7): starting from a symmetric and positive definite H_0 , (5.9)

$$H_{k+1} = \left(I - \rho_k s_k y_k^{\top}\right) H_k \left(I - \rho_k y_k s_k^{\top}\right) + \rho_k s_k s_k^{\top}, \quad \rho_k = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\langle s_k, y_k \rangle} & \text{if } \langle s_k, y_k \rangle > 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

with $s_k = x^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k$ and $y_k = r^{k+1} - \bar{r}^k$ (see e.g., [38, sect. 6.1]). BFGS is the most popular quasi-Newton scheme; it is based on rank-two updates that enforce symmetry, additionally to the secant condition. In fact, BFGS is guaranteed to satisfy the Dennis-Moré condition provided that the Jacobian of the nonlinear system at the limit point is symmetric [18]. Although this is not the case for $JR_{\gamma}(x^*)$, we observed in practice that BFGS directions (5.9) perform extremely well.

Limited-memory variants. Ultimately, instead of storing and operating on dense $m \times m$ matrices, limited-memory variants of quasi-Newton schemes keep in memory only a few (usually 3 to 20) most recent pairs (s^k, y^k) implicitly representing the approximate inverse Jacobian. Their employment considerably reduces storage and computations over the full-memory counterparts, and as such they are the methods of choice for large-scale problems. The most popular limited-memory method is L-BFGS: based on BFGS, it efficiently computes matrix-vector products with the approximate inverse Jacobian using a two-loop recursion procedure [31, 37, 38].

5.2. Connections with other methods. The first algorithmic framework exploiting the FBE was studied in [41], where two semismooth Newton methods were analyzed for convex f and g with $f \in C^{2,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ (twice continuously differentiable with Lipschitz continuous gradient). A generalization of the scheme was then studied in [50] under less restrictive assumptions, with particular attention to quasi-Newton directions in place of semismooth Newton methods. The proposed algorithm interleaves descent steps over the FBE with forward-backward steps. The study [32] then analyzed global and linear convergence properties of a generic linesearch algorithmic framework for minimizing the FBE based on gradient-related directions, for analytic f and subanalytic, convex, and lower bounded g.

Though apparently closely related, the approach that we provide in this paper presents major conceptual differences from any of the ones above. Apart from the significantly less restrictive assumptions, the crucial distinction is that our method does not require the gradient of the FBE. As a consequence, no computation nor the existence of $\nabla^2 f$ is required, resulting in a method that, differently from the others, truly relies on the very same oracle information of the forward-backward operator T_{γ} . Moreover, not only does the method have the same worst-case convergence properties of FBS, but it also has a certificate of superlinear convergence if some mild requirements are met.

5.3. Main remarks. In this section we list a few observations that come in handy when implementing ZeroFPR.

Remark 5.2 (adaptive variant when L_f is unknown). In practice, no prior knowledge of the global Lipschitz constant L_f is required for ZeroFPR. In fact, replacing L_f with an initial estimate L > 0 and fixing a backtracking ratio $\alpha \in (0,1)$, after step 2 the following instruction can be added:

2bis: **if**
$$f(\bar{x}^k) > f(x^k) - \langle \nabla f(x^k), x^k - \bar{x}^k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|x^k - \bar{x}^k\|^2$$
 then $\gamma \leftarrow \alpha \gamma, \ L \leftarrow L/\alpha, \ \sigma \leftarrow \alpha \sigma, \ \bar{\Phi}_k \leftarrow \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k)$ and go to step 1.

Whenever the quadratic bound (2.3) is violated with L in place of L_f , the estimated Lipschitz constant L is increased and γ decreased accordingly; as a consequence, the FBE φ_{γ} changes and the nonmonotone linesearch is restarted. Since replacing L_f with any $L \geq L_f$ still satisfies (2.3), it follows that L is incremented only a finite number of times. Therefore, there exists an iteration k_0 starting from which γ and σ are constant; in particular, all the results of the paper remain valid starting from iteration k_0 , at the latest.

Remark 5.3 (support for locally Lipschitz ∇f). If dom g is bounded and, as is reasonable, the directions $(d^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ selected at step 3 do not diverge, then Assumption I(i) on f can be relaxed to ∇f being locally Lipschitz.

In fact, it follows from the definition of proximal mapping that $(\bar{x}^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq \text{dom } g$, and if the directions are bounded then there exists a compact domain $\Omega\supseteq \text{dom } g$ such that $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}\subseteq\Omega$. Then, all results of the paper apply by replacing L_f with $\text{lip}_{\Omega}\nabla f$, the (finite) Lipschitz constant of ∇f on Ω .

Remark 5.4 (cost per iteration). Evaluating φ_{γ} essentially amounts to one evaluation of T_{γ} ; this is evident from the expression (4.1), together with the observation that $g^{\gamma}(x-\gamma\nabla f(x))=g(\bar{x})+\frac{1}{2\gamma}\|x-\gamma\nabla f(x)-\bar{x}\|^2$ for any $\bar{x}\in T_{\gamma}(x)$. Therefore, computing $\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k+\tau_k d^k)$ at step 4 yields an element $\bar{x}^{k+1}\in T_{\gamma}(x^{k+1})$ required in step 1, since $x^{k+1}=\bar{x}^k+\tau_k d^k$ at every iteration. In general, one evaluation of T_{γ} per backtracking step is required. If the directions d^k are computed with Broyden or BFGS methods (5.8) and (5.9), then one additional evaluation of T_{γ} is required for retrieving d^k ; in the best case of $\tau_k=1$ being accepted, which asymptotically happens if some assumptions are met (cf. Theorem 5.11), the algorithm then requires exactly two evaluations of T_{γ} per iteration.

Remark 5.5 (extension of FBS). Observe that by selecting $d^k \equiv 0$ the condition at step 4 is always satisfied with $\tau_k = 1$ (in fact, for any τ_k), since for any $\sigma < \frac{1 - \gamma L_f}{2\gamma}$ it holds that

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) \leq \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \tfrac{1-\gamma L_f}{2\gamma} \|x^k - \bar{x}^k\|^2 \leq \bar{\Phi}_k - \sigma \|x^k - \bar{x}^k\|^2,$$

where the inequalities follow from Proposition 4.3(ii) and (5.5), respectively. ZeroFPR then reduces to the classical FBS algorithm (cf. (2.5)), as $x^{k+1} = \bar{x}^k + d^k = \bar{x}^k \in T_{\gamma}(x^k)$ for any k.

- **5.4.** Convergence results. In this section we analyze the properties of cluster points of the iterates generated by ZeroFPR. Specifically,
 - every cluster point of $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ and $(\bar{x}^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ solves problem (5.2) (Theorem 5.6);
 - if the linesearch is (eventually) monotone and some assumptions are met, then global and linear convergence are achieved (Theorems 5.8 and 5.9);

• directions satisfying the Dennis–Moré condition, such as Broyden's, enable superlinear rates under mild assumptions (Theorems 5.10 and 5.11).

In what follows, in order to exclude the trivial case in which the optimality condition $r^k = 0$ is achieved in a finite number of iterations we assume $r^k \neq 0$ for all k's.

THEOREM 5.6 (criticality of cluster points). The following hold for the iterates generated by ZeroFPR:

- (i) $r^k \to 0$ square-summably, and all cluster points of $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(\bar{x}^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ are critical; more precisely, $\omega(x^k) = \omega(\bar{x}^k) \subseteq \operatorname{fix} T_{\gamma}$;
- (ii) $(\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k))_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to a (finite) value φ_{\star} , and if $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is bounded, then so does $(\varphi(\bar{x}^k))_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$.

Proof. (i) For all iterates k we have

$$(5.10) \quad \bar{\Phi}_{k+1} = (1 - p_k)\bar{\Phi}_k + p_k\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}) \stackrel{(5.1)}{\leq} \bar{\Phi}_k - \sigma p_k ||r^k||^2 \leq \bar{\Phi}_k - \sigma p_{\min} ||r^k||^2.$$

By telescoping the above inequality and using (5.5), we obtain

$$(5.11) \bar{\Phi}_k - \inf \varphi \ge \bar{\Phi}_0 - \bar{\Phi}_{k+1} = \sum_{i=0}^k \left[\bar{\Phi}_i - \bar{\Phi}_{i+1} \right] \ge \sigma p_{\min} \sum_{i=0}^k \|r^i\|^2,$$

proving that $r^k \to 0$ square-summably. Now, let $K \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ be such that $(x^k)_{k \in K} \to x'$ for some $x' \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, since $\|\bar{x}^k - x^k\| = \gamma \|r^k\| \to 0$, in particular $(\bar{x}^k)_{k \in K} \to x'$ as well. Due to the arbitrariness of the cluster point x' it follows that $\omega(x^k) \subseteq \omega(\bar{x}^k)$, and a similar reasoning proves the converse inclusion, hence $\omega(x^k) = \omega(\bar{x}^k)$. Moreover, we have $x^k \in \overline{\mathbb{B}}(\bar{x}^k; \gamma \|r^k\|) \subseteq \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g} \left(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k)\right) + \overline{\mathbb{B}}(0; \gamma \|r^k\|)$ and, since $(x^k - \gamma \nabla f(x^k))_{k \in K} \to x' - \gamma \nabla f(x')$, from the outer semicontinuity of $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g} [49, \operatorname{Ex.} 5.23(b)]$ it follows that $x' \in \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g} (x' - \gamma \nabla f(x'))$, i.e., $x' \in \operatorname{fix} T_{\gamma}$.

(ii) From (5.10) it follows that $(\Phi_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing, and in particular its limit exists, which we denote φ_{\star} . Notice that $\varphi_{\star} = \inf \bar{\Phi}_k \geq \inf \varphi > -\infty$, where the first inequality is due to (5.5). Therefore

$$0 \leftarrow \bar{\Phi}_k - \bar{\Phi}_{k+1} = p_k \left(\bar{\Phi}_k - \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}) \right) \overset{(5.1)}{\geq} p_{\min} \sigma \|r^k\|^2 \geq 0,$$

and since $\bar{\Phi}_k$ converges to φ_{\star} , then so does $\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1})$. If $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is bounded, then so is $(\bar{x}^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ due to compact-valuedness of $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}$ [49, Thm. 1.25]. Due to local Lipschitz continuity of the FBE (Proposition 4.2) and boundedness of $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ and $(\bar{x}^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$, φ_{γ} is Lipschitz continuous on a compact set that contains the sequences with modulus, say, L>0. Then,

$$0 \leq \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \varphi(\bar{x}^k) \leq \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) \leq L \|x^k - \bar{x}^k\| = L\gamma \|r^k\| \to 0,$$

where the first two inequalities follow from Proposition 4.3. This shows that $\varphi(\bar{x}^k) \to \varphi_{\star}$.

5.4.1. Global and linear convergence. Due to (5.5) and the fact that the sequence $(\bar{\Phi}_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing (cf. (5.10)), the iterates of ZeroFPR satisfy $\varphi(\bar{x}^k) \leq \bar{\Phi}_0 = \varphi(\bar{x}^0)$. As a consequence, a sufficient condition for ensuring that the sequence $(\bar{x}^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ does not diverge, and consequently nor does $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ (provided that the sequence of directions $(d^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is bounded), is that the level set $\text{lev}_{\leq\varphi(\bar{x}^0)}\varphi$ is compact. In the adaptive variant discussed in Remark 5.2, this translates to boundedness of the level set $\text{lev}_{\leq\varphi(\bar{x}^{k_0})}\varphi$, where k_0 denotes the iteration starting from which γ is constant. Since the iterate k_0 and the point \bar{x}^{k_0} are unknown a priori, the sufficient condition needs be strengthened to φ having bounded level sets.

We now show that if φ_{γ} is well behaved at cluster points, then the whole sequence generated by ZeroFPR is convergent. Good behavior involves the existence of a *desingularizing function*, that is, φ_{γ} needs to possess the *Kurdyka–Lojasiewicz* property, a standard requirement that we restate here for the reader's convenience.

DEFINITION 5.7 (KL property). A proper and lower semicontinuous function $h: \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ has the Kurdyka–Lojasiewicz property (KL property) at $x^* \in \text{dom } \partial h$ if there exist a concave desingularizing function (or KL function) $\psi: [0, \eta] \to [0, +\infty)$ for some $\eta > 0$ and a neighborhood U_{x^*} of x^* such that

- (i) $\psi(0) = 0$,
- (ii) ψ is C^1 with $\psi' > 0$ on $(0, \eta)$,
- (iii) for all $x \in U_{x^*}$ s.t. $h(x^*) < h(x) < h(x^*) + \eta$ it holds that

(5.12)
$$\psi'(h(x) - h(x^*)) \operatorname{dist}(0, \partial h(x)) \ge 1.$$

The KL property is a mild requirement enjoyed by semialgebraic functions and by subanalytic functions which are continuous on their domain; see [13, 12] and also [33, 34, 27]. Moreover, since semialgebraic functions are closed under parametric minimization, from the expression (1.2) it is apparent that φ_{γ} is semialgebraic provided that f and g are. More precisely, in all such cases the desingularizing function can be taken of the form $\psi(s) = \rho s^{\theta}$ for some $\rho > 0$ and $\theta \in (0,1]$, in which case it is usually referred to as a Łojasiewicz function. This property has been extensively exploited to provide convergence rates of optimization algorithms such as FBS; see [3, 4, 5, 15, 24, 39]. Further properties of f and g that ensure that φ_{γ} satisfies such a requirement are discussed in [32].

We first show how the KL property on φ_{γ} ensures global convergence of the iterates of ZeroFPR if the linesearch is eventually monotone, i.e., if $p_k = 1$ for k sufficiently large, and then show that linear convergence is attained when the KL function is actually a Lojasiewicz function with large enough exponent.

THEOREM 5.8 (global convergence (monotone LS)). Consider the iterates generated by ZeroFPR with $p_k = 1$ for k's large enough, and with directions satisfying

(5.13)
$$||d^k|| \le D||r^k|| \text{ for all } k,$$

for some $D \geq 0$. Suppose that $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ remains bounded, that φ_{γ} has the KL property on $\omega(x^k)$, and that every cluster point is prox-regular. If f is of class C^2 in a neighborhood of $\omega(x^k)$, then $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(\bar{x}^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ are convergent to (the same γ -critical point) x^* , and the sequence of residuals $(r^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is summable.

Proof. From Lemma B.2 we know that φ_{γ} is constant on the (nonempty) compact set $\omega(x^k)$. It then follows from [15, Lem. 6] that there exist $\eta, \varepsilon > 0$ and a uniformized KL function, namely a function ψ satisfying Definition 5.7(i), (ii), and (iii) for all $x^* \in \omega(x^k)$ and x such that $\operatorname{dist}(x, \omega(x^k)) < \varepsilon$ and $\varphi(x^*) < \varphi(x) < \varphi(x^*) + \eta$. Let $\varphi_* \coloneqq \lim_{k \to \infty} \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k)$, which exists and is finite (cf. Theorem 5.6), and let $k_1 \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $p_k = 1$ for all $k \geq k_1$. Then we have (cf. step 5 and (5.1))

(5.14)
$$\bar{\Phi}_k = \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) \text{ and } \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) > \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}) > \varphi_{\star} \quad \forall k \ge k_1.$$

By possibly restricting ε , from Theorem 4.7(ii) and since $\omega(x^k)$ is compact, it follows that φ_{γ} is differentiable in an ε -enlargement of $\omega(x^k)$. Since $(\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k))_{k \geq k_1}$ converges to φ_{\star} strictly decreasing (cf. (5.14)), and since $\operatorname{dist}(x^k, \omega(x^k)) \to 0$ as shown in Lemma B.2, there exists $k_2 \geq k_1$ such that for all $k \geq k_2$ we have $\varphi_{\star} < \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) < \varphi_{\star} + \eta$

and $\operatorname{dist}(x^k,\omega(x^k))<\varepsilon$. For all such k, by Theorem 4.7(ii) we have $\nabla\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k)=Q_{\gamma}(x^k)R_{\gamma}(x^k)=[\mathrm{I}-\gamma\nabla^2f(x^k)]r^k$ and the uniformized KL property yields

(5.15)
$$\psi'(\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \varphi_{\star}) \ge \frac{1}{\|\nabla \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k)\|} \ge \frac{1}{(1+\gamma L_f)\|r^k\|}.$$

Let $\Delta_k := \psi(\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \varphi_{\star}) > 0$. Then

$$(5.16) \quad \Delta_{k+1} \geq \psi' \left(\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k}) - \varphi_{\star} \right) \left(\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k}) - \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{k+1}) \right) \\ \geq \frac{(5.15)}{(1 + \gamma L_{f}) \|r^{k}\|} = \frac{\bar{\Phi}_{k} - \bar{\Phi}_{k+1}}{(1 + \gamma L_{f}) \|r^{k}\|} \geq \frac{\sigma p_{\min}}{1 + \gamma L_{f}} \|r^{k}\|,$$

where the first inequality follows from the concavity of ψ , and the second uses the fact that $\psi' \geq 0$. Since $\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) \to \varphi_{\star}$ and ψ is continuous, it follows that $\Delta_k \to \psi(0) = 0$. Hence, by telescoping the inequality it follows that $(\|r^k\|)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is summable. In turn, due to Lemma B.1(i), $(\|x^{k+1} - x^k\|)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is also summable. We conclude that $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a Cauchy sequence and as such it admits a limit. It follows from Theorem 5.6(i) that the limit point is also the limit of $(\bar{x}^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ and that it is γ -critical.

Theorem 5.9 (linear convergence (monotone LS)). Consider the iterates generated by ZeroFPR. Suppose that the assumptions of Theorem 5.8 are satisfied, and that the KL function can be taken of the form $\psi(s) = \rho s^{\theta}$ for some $\theta \in [1/2, 1]$. Then, $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(\bar{x}^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ are R-linearly convergent.

Proof. As shown in Theorem 5.8, both $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ and $(\bar{x}^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converge to the same $(\gamma$ -critical) point, which we denote x^* . Defining $B_k := \sum_{i\geq k} \|r^i\|$, from Lemma B.1(i) and (ii) we have

$$||x^k - x^*|| \le \sum_{i > k} ||x^{i+1} - x^i|| \le (\gamma + D)B_k$$
 and $||\bar{x}^k - x^*|| \le (3\gamma + D)B_k$.

The proof now reduces to showing that $(B_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges with asymptotic Q-linear rate. Inequality (5.15) reads

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \varphi_{\star} \le \left[(1 + \gamma L_f) \rho \theta \| r^k \| \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\theta}}$$

and since $r^k \to 0$ for large enough k, we have $_{<1 \text{ for lar}}$

$$\Delta_k := \psi \left(\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \varphi_{\star} \right) = \rho \left[\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \varphi_{\star} \right]^{\theta} \leq \rho \left[(1 + \gamma L_f) \rho \theta \| r^k \| \right]^{\frac{\theta}{1 - \theta}} \leq \rho^2 (1 + \gamma L_f) \| r^k \|.$$

Therefore, eventually $\Delta_k < 1$, and from (5.16) we get

$$B_k = \sum_{i \ge k} \|r^i\|^{(5.16)} \le \frac{1 + \gamma L_f}{\sigma p_{\min}} \sum_{i \ge k} (\Delta_i - \Delta_{i+1}) \le \frac{1 + \gamma L_f}{\sigma p_{\min}} \Delta_k \le \frac{\rho^2 (1 + \gamma L_f)^2}{\sigma p_{\min}} \|r^k\| = C \|r^k\|$$

for some C > 0. Thus, $B_k \leq C ||r^k|| = C(B_k - B_{k+1})$ for any k large enough, i.e., $B_{k+1} \leq (1 - 1/C)B_k$, proving the sought asymptotic Q-linear convergence of B_k .

5.4.2. Superlinear convergence. In the next result we provide sufficient conditions ensuring that, if the directions satisfy a Dennis-Moré condition, ZeroFPR achieves superlinear convergence rates. Then, we show that the Broyden scheme (5.8) produces directions that satisfy such a condition, and that due to the acceptance of unit stepsize $\tau_k = 1$, eventually each iteration of ZeroFPR will require only two evaluations of T_{γ} (cf. Remark 5.4). We recall that a sequence $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $x^k \neq x^*$ for all k is said to be superlinearly convergent to x^* if $\|x^{k+1} - x^*\|/\|x^k - x^*\| \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$.

Theorem 5.10 (superlinear convergence under the Dennis-Moré condition). Suppose that Assumption II is strictly satisfied at a strong local minimum x^* of φ , and consider the iterates generated by ZeroFPR. Suppose that $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to x^* and that the directions $(d^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ satisfy the Dennis-Moré condition

(5.17)
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\|\bar{r}^k + JR_{\gamma}(x^*)d^k\|}{\|d^k\|} = 0, \quad \text{where } \bar{r}^k \in R_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k).$$

Then, eventually the stepsize $\tau_k = 1$ is always accepted and the sequences $(x^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, $(\bar{x}^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$, and $(r^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ converge with superlinear rate.

Proof. From Theorem 4.10(ii) and (iii) and Theorems 4.7 and 4.11, we know that $\nabla \varphi_{\gamma}$ and R_{γ} are strictly differentiable at x^{\star} , with

$$G_{\star} := \nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) = Q_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) J R_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) \succ 0,$$

and that there exists a neighborhood U_{x^*} of x^* in which φ_{γ} is differentiable and R_{γ} is Lipschitz continuous with modulus, say, L_R . Since $\bar{x}^k = x^k - \gamma r^k \to x^*$ due to Theorem 5.6(i), it holds that $x^k, \bar{x}^k \in U_{x^*}$ for any k large enough. By single-valuedness of R_{γ} , for all such k we may write $R_{\gamma}(x^k)$ and $R_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k)$ in place of r^k and \bar{r}^k , respectively. In particular, since $x^* \in \operatorname{fix} T_{\gamma}$ (cf. Theorem 5.6(i)), necessarily $R_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) \to 0$. In turn, due to (5.17), it also holds that $d^k \to 0$. Let $x_0^{k+1} := \bar{x}^k + d^k$; then, from (5.17) we have

$$0 \leftarrow \frac{R_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) + JR_{\gamma}(x^{\star})d^k}{\|d^k\|} = \frac{R_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) + JR_{\gamma}(x^{\star})(x_0^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k) - R_{\gamma}(x_0^{k+1})}{\|x_0^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k\|} + \frac{R_{\gamma}(x_0^{k+1})}{\|x_0^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k\|}.$$

Since $x_0^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k = d^k \to 0$, from strict differentiability of R_{γ} at x^* applied to the first term on the right-hand side it follows that

(5.18)
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \|R_{\gamma}(x_0^{k+1})\| / \|x_0^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k\| = 0.$$

By possibly restricting U_{x^*} , nonsingularity of $JR_{\gamma}(x^*)$ ensures the existence of a constant $\alpha > 0$ such that $||R_{\gamma}(x)|| \ge \alpha ||x - x^*||$ for all $x \in U_{x^*}$. Since $\bar{x}^k + d^k \to x^*$, eventually $x_0^{k+1} \in U_{x^*}$. From (5.18) we obtain

$$0 \leftarrow \frac{\|R_{\gamma}(x_0^{k+1})\|}{\|x_0^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k\|} \ge \alpha \frac{\|x_0^{k+1} - x^{\star}\|}{\|x_0^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k\|} \ge \alpha \frac{\|x_0^{k+1} - x^{\star}\|}{\|x_0^{k+1} - x^{\star}\| + \|\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}\|} = \alpha \frac{\frac{\|x_0^{k+1} - x^{\star}\|}{\|\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}\|}}{1 + \frac{\|x_0^{k+1} - x^{\star}\|}{\|\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}\|}},$$

which implies

(5.19)
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\|x_0^{k+1} - x^*\|}{\|\bar{x}^k - x^*\|} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\|\bar{x}^k + d^k - x^*\|}{\|\bar{x}^k - x^*\|} = 0.$$

A second-order expansion of φ_{γ} at x^{\star} yields

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) = \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) + \frac{1}{2} \langle G_{\star}(\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}), \bar{x}^k - x^{\star} \rangle + o(\|\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}\|^2)$$

and

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k + d^k) = \varphi_{\gamma}(x^*) + \frac{1}{2} \langle G_{\star}(\bar{x}^k + d^k - x^*), \bar{x}^k + d^k - x^* \rangle + o(\|\bar{x}^k + d^k - x^*\|^2)$$

= $\varphi_{\gamma}(x^*) + o(\|\bar{x}^k - x^*\|^2),$

where the last equality uses the inclusion $\|\bar{x}^k + d^k - x^*\| \in o(\|\bar{x}^k - x^*\|)$ (which follows from (5.19)). Substracting,

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k + d^k) - \varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) = -\frac{1}{2} \langle G_{\star}(\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}), \bar{x}^k - x^{\star} \rangle + o(\|\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}\|^2)$$

$$\leq -\beta \|\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}\|^2 + o(\|\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}\|^2),$$

where $\beta = \frac{1}{2}\lambda_{\min}(G_{\star}) > 0$. Hence there exists $k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k + d^k) \leq \varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k)$ for all $k \geq k_0$; in particular, for all $k \geq k_0$,

$$\varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k + d^k) \le \varphi_{\gamma}(\bar{x}^k) \le \varphi_{\gamma}(x^k) - \gamma \frac{1 - \gamma L_f}{2} \|r^k\|^2 \le \bar{\Phi}_k - \sigma \|r^k\|^2,$$

where the second inequality follows from Proposition 4.3(ii), and the last one from (5.5) and the fact that $\sigma < \gamma \frac{1-\gamma L_f}{2}$. Therefore, for $k \geq k_0$ the linesearch condition (5.1) holds with $\tau_k = 1$, and unitary stepsize is always accepted. In particular, the limit (5.19) reads $\lim_{k\to\infty} ||x^{k+1} - x^*||/||\bar{x}^k - x^*|| = 0$, and from the inequality

$$\begin{split} \|\bar{x}^k - x^\star\| &= \|\bar{x}^k - x^k + x^k - x^\star\| \le \gamma \|R_\gamma(x^k)\| + \|x^k - x^\star\| \\ &= \gamma \|R_\gamma(x^k) - R_\gamma(x^\star)\| + \|x^k - x^\star\| \le (\gamma L_R + 1) \|x^k - x^\star\| \end{split}$$

superlinear convergence of $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ follows. Since

$$||r^k|| = ||R_{\gamma}(x^k) - R_{\gamma}(x^*)|| \le L_R ||x^k - x^*||,$$

also the sequence $(r^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges superlinearly; in turn, since $\|\bar{x}^k-x^\star\|\leq \gamma\|r^k\|+\|x^k-x^\star\|$, so does the sequence $(\bar{x}^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$.

We conclude the section by showing that employing Broyden directions (5.8) in ZeroFPR enables superlinear convergence rates, provided that R_{γ} is Lipschitz continuously *semidifferentiable* at the limit point (see [25]).

THEOREM 5.11 (superlinear convergence with Broyden directions). Suppose that Assumption II is strictly satisfied at a strong local minimum x^* of φ at which R_{γ} is Lipschitz-continuously semidifferentiable. Consider the iterates generated by ZeroFPR with directions d^k selected with Broyden method (5.8), and suppose that $x^k \to x^*$.

Then, the Dennis-Moré condition (5.17) is satisfied, and in particular all the claims of Theorem 5.10 hold.

Proof. It follows from the assumptions and Theorem 4.10 that R_{γ} is strictly differentiable at x^{\star} , and Lipschitz-continuously semidifferentiable there. Writing $G_{\star} = JR_{\gamma}(x_{\star})$,

$$\frac{\|y^k - G_\star s^k\|}{\|s^k\|} = \frac{\|R_\gamma(x^{k+1}) - R_\gamma(\bar{x}^k) - G_\star(x^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k)\|}{\|x^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k\|},$$

and since $x^k, \bar{x}^k \to x^*$, due to [25, Lem. 2.2] there exists L > 0 such that

$$\frac{\|y^k - G_{\star} s^k\|}{\|s^k\|} \le L \max \left\{ \|x^{k+1} - x^{\star}\|, \|\bar{x}^k - x^{\star}\| \right\}$$

for k large enough. Consequently, due to Theorem 5.9 and Lemma B.3, we have that $\frac{\|y_k - G_\star s_k\|}{\|s_k\|}$ is summable. Let $E_k = B_k - G_\star$ and let $\|\cdot\|_F$ denote the Frobenius norm. With a simple modification of the proofs of [25, Thm. 4.1] and [2, Lem. 4.4] that takes

into account the scalar $\vartheta_k \in [\bar{\vartheta}, 2 - \bar{\vartheta}]$ we obtain

$$||E_{k+1}||_{F} \leq ||E_{k} \left(\mathbf{I} - \vartheta_{k} \frac{s_{k}(s_{k})^{\top}}{||s_{k}||^{2}} \right) ||_{F} + \vartheta_{k} \frac{||y_{k} - G_{\star}s_{k}||}{||s_{k}||}$$

$$\leq ||E_{k}||_{F} - \frac{\bar{\vartheta}(2 - \bar{\vartheta})}{2||E_{k}||_{F}} \frac{||E_{k}s_{k}||^{2}}{||s_{k}||^{2}}.$$

Consequently, $(\|E_k\|_F)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is decreasing, and in particular $\bar{E} := \sup(\|E_k\|_F)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is finite. By rearranging the inequality above we obtain

$$\frac{\bar{\vartheta}(2-\bar{\vartheta})}{2\bar{E}} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{\|E_k s_k\|^2}{\|s_k\|^2} \le \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{\bar{\vartheta}(2-\bar{\vartheta})}{2\|E_k\|_F} \frac{\|E_k s_k\|^2}{\|s_k\|^2} \le \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} (\|E_k\|_F - \|E_{k+1}\|_F) \\
\le \|E_0\|_F.$$

Therefore, $(\frac{\|E_k s_k\|}{\|s_k\|})_{k \in \mathbb{N}} = (\frac{\|(B_k - G_\star) s_k\|}{\|s_k\|})_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is square summable, proving in particular the claimed Dennis–Moré condition (5.17).

6. Simulations. We now present numerical results with the proposed method. In ZeroFPR we set $\beta = 1/2$, and for the nonmonotone linesearch we used the sequence $p_k = (\eta Q_k + 1)^{-1}$, where $Q_0 = 1$, $Q_{k+1} = \eta Q_k + 1$, $\eta = 0.85$: in this way $(p_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is computed as in [52, 30].

We performed experiments with different choices of d^k in step 3. In particular,

- ZeroFPR(Broyden): $d^k = -H_k \bar{r}^k$ and H_k is obtained by the Broyden method (5.8) with $\bar{\vartheta} = 10^{-4}$;
- ZeroFPR(BFGS): $d^k = -H_k \bar{r}^k$, where H_k is computed using BFGS updates (5.9);
- ZeroFPR(L-BFGS): d^k is computed using L-BFGS [38, Alg. 7.4] with memory

We only show the results with full quasi-Newton updates (Broyden, BFGS) for one of the examples: for the other experiments we focus on L-BFGS, which is better suited for large-scale problems. Although JR_{γ} is nonsymmetric at the critical points in general, we observed that the symmetric updates of BFGS and L-BFGS perform very well in practice and outperform the Broyden method.

We compared ZeroFPR with the forward-backward splitting algorithm (denoted FBS), that is (2.5), the inertial FBS (denoted IFBS) proposed in [16, eq. (7)] (with parameter $\beta=0.2$), and the nonmonotone accelerated FBS (denoted AFBS) proposed in [30, Alg. 2] for fully nonconvex problems. All experiments were performed in MATLAB. The implementation of the methods used in the tests is available online.²

6.1. Nonconvex sparse approximation. Here we consider the problem of finding a sparse solution $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to a least-squares problem Ax = b, where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Sparsity can be induced by constraining or penalizing the ℓ_0 quasi norm of x, namely the number of nonzero elements of x, but due to the challenges of nonconvexity it is often the case that the ℓ_1 norm is used instead. As well explained and documented in [51], the use of the (square root of the) $\ell_{1/2}$ quasi norm, namely $\|x\|_{1/2}^{1/2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^{1/2}$, is in some sense optimal in trading off representativeness of the solution and numerical simplicity of the ℓ_0 and ℓ_1 approaches, respectively. The problem then becomes

(6.1)
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathbb{1}_2 \|Ax - b\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_{1/2}^{1/2}.$$

²http://github.com/kul-forbes/ForBES

Table 6.1

Nonconvex sparse approximation. Performance of FBS, IFBS, AFBS, and ZeroFPR on problems with different values of n and λ . The table shows average and maximum CPU time required to reach $||R_{\gamma}(x^k)|| \leq 10^{-6}$ in 100 random experiments. Each algorithm was run on the same set of randomly generated problems, with $x^0 = 0$.

n	λ	FBS	IFBS	AFBS	ZeroFPR(L-BFGS)
		avg/max (s)	avg/max (s)	avg/max (s)	avg/max (s)
500	0.10	0.141/0.405	0.159/0.449	0.135/0.221	0.037/0.088
	0.03	0.498/2.548	0.688/3.962	0.274/0.430	0.084/0.126
	0.01	1.305/5.445	1.721/4.942	0.570/1.157	0.152/0.560
1000	0.10	0.176/0.287	0.231/0.659	0.228/0.483	0.021/0.077
	0.03	0.576/2.756	0.645/4.165	0.382/0.841	0.091/0.275
	0.01	1.864/9.740	2.391/8.311	0.795/1.446	0.222/0.438
2000	0.10	0.291/0.599	0.392/0.719	0.393/0.640	0.025/0.055
	0.03	0.553/1.841	0.602/3.270	0.464/0.702	0.088/0.198
	0.01	2.108/10.934	2.439/8.010	0.979/1.411	0.271/0.464

where $\lambda > 0$ is a regularization parameter. The function $||x||_{1/2}^{1/2}$ is separable, and its proximal mapping can be computed in closed form as follows (see [51, Thm. 1]):

$$\left[\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma \| \cdot \|_{1/2}^{1/2}}(x) \right]_i = \frac{2}{3} \left(1 + \cos \frac{2}{3} \left(\pi - \arccos \frac{\gamma}{8} (|x_i|/3)^{-3/2} \right) \right) x_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

We ran numerical experiments consistently with the setting of [20, sect. 8.2]. We considered different scenarios obtained by changing the regularization term λ and the size of A, keeping a constant column-to-row ratio of n/m = 5 for matrix A. Matrix A was generated with random Gaussian entries, with zero mean and variance 1/m, while vector b was generated as $b = Ax_{\text{orig}} + v$, where $x_{\text{orig}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ was randomly generated with k = 5 nonzero normally distributed entries, and $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a noise vector with zero mean and variance 1/m.

For each scenario, we solved 100 randomly generated problems and compared the performance of all algorithms in terms of CPU time to reach an accuracy of $||r^k|| \leq 10^{-6}$. For all algorithms and problems, we used $x^0 = 0$ as the starting iterate. Average and worst-case performance of the algorithms in each of the nine scenarios are illustrated in Table 6.1; apparently, ZeroFPR is significantly faster than FBS, IFBS, and AFBS, even in a worst-case-to-average comparison.

Figure 6.1 shows the convergence rates of the algorithms in one of the generated problems (see color figures in the online version). Since ZeroFPR employs a linesearch, and therefore the complexity of each iteration is unknown a priori, we recorded the number of matrix-vector products by A and A^{\top} performed during the iterations and displayed it on the horizontal axis. Apparently, ZeroFPR with Broyden's directions achieves superlinear convergence, beating the linear convergence of FBS, IFBS, and AFBS. This comparison also confirms what was previously announced, namely the great performance of (L-)BFGS directions.

6.2. Dictionary learning. Expressing large data by means of only few elements from a collection of vectors is an important problem in machine learning and signal processing. The challenge is finding such a collection of vectors, known as a *dictionary*, that can accurately represent data signals in the sparsest way. In mathematical terms, given m signals $y_1, \ldots, y_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we wish to find k dictionary atoms $d_1, \ldots, d_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ in such a way that each y_j can be represented, or accurately approximated, as a sparse linear combination of them. If we stack the data in a matrix $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, and the

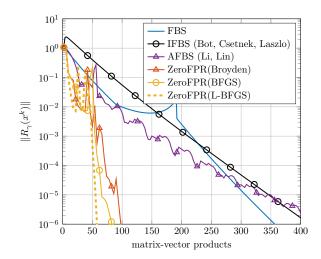


FIG. 6.1. Nonconvex sparse approximation. Convergence of fixed-point residual and cost in FBS, IFBS, AFBS, and ZeroFPR for different choices of the search directions and for n=1500, $\lambda=0.03$.

dictionary atoms in a matrix $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ (to be found), the problem can be expressed as follows [1]:

(6.2) minimize
$$\frac{1}{2} ||Y - DC||_F^2$$
 subject to $||d_i||_2 = 1$, $i = 1, ..., k$, $||c_j||_0 \le N$, $j = 1, ..., m$, $||c_j||_{\infty} \le T$, $j = 1, ..., m$,

where $C = [c_1, \ldots, c_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times m}$ is a matrix containing the sought coefficients, and $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and T > 0 are parameters. Differently from [1], we bound the set of feasible points by means of the ℓ_{∞} -norm constraint; this artificial constraint ensures that ∇f is globally Lipschitz continuous over the feasible domain (cf. Remark 5.3). Moreover, we explicitly constrain the norm of the dictionary atoms: this causes no loss of generality, as the objective value of (6.2) is unchanged if the jth atom d_j and the jth row of C are scaled by reciprocal factors.

The problem can be expressed in the canonical form (1.1) by letting $f(D,C) = \frac{1}{2}||Y - DC||_F^2$ and $g(D,C) = \delta_S(D,C)$, where

$$S = \left\{ D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k} \mid ||d_j||_2 = 1, \ j = 1, \dots, k \right\} \times \left\{ C \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times m} \mid \frac{||c_j||_0 \le N}{||c_j||_\infty \le T,} \ j = 1, \dots, m \right\}$$

is the product of Euclidean spheres and box-constrained ℓ_0 balls. Both f and g are nonconvex in this case. The projection of (D,C) onto S is simple and columnwise separable: the columns d_j of D are scaled by their ℓ_2 norm, while the N largest coefficients (in absolute value) of the columns c_j of C are projected onto the box [-T,T] and the other ones are set to zero; see, e.g., [7, Alg. 3 and Ex. 4.6].

We tested our algorithm on 50 problems with $N=3,\ n=20,\ m=500,$ and k=50 for a total of 26000 variables each. We chose $T=10^6$ as a large bound for ℓ_∞ norm of the columns of C. Problems were generated according to [1, sect. V.A]: first, a dictionary $D_{\rm gen}\in\mathbb{R}^{20\times 50}$ was randomly generated with normal entries, and each column was normalized to one. Then, a matrix $C_{\rm gen}\in\mathbb{R}^{50\times 500}$ was constructed with 3

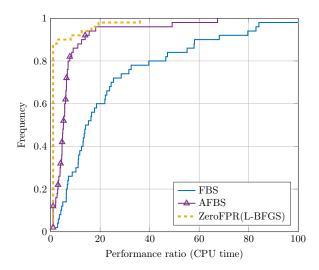


FIG. 6.2. Dictionary learning. Performance profiles of FBS, AFBS, and ZeroFPR(L-BFGS) when applied to 50 randomly generated problems with $n=20, m=500, k=50, T=10^6$, and N=3. The algorithms are executed until tolerance $||R_{\gamma}(x^k)|| \leq 10^{-4}$ is reached. In the great majority of cases, ZeroFPR(L-BFGS) reaches a critical point significantly faster than FBS.

normally distributed nonzero coefficients per column. Then we set $Y = C_{\text{gen}}D_{\text{gen}} + V$, where $V \in \mathbb{R}^{20 \times 500}$ is a matrix with normally distributed entries with variance 10^{-2} .

We compared FBS, AFBS, and ZeroFPR(L-BFGS), using the backtracking procedure discussed in Remark 5.2 to adaptively adjust the stepsize γ . IFBS could not be applied due to the lack of an adaptive stepsize-selection rule for the algorithm [16]. Moreover, we did not test ZeroFPR with Broyden and (full) BFGS directions because of the prohibitive overhead of storing and operating with 26000 \times 26000 matrices.

Figure 6.2 shows the performance profile of the algorithms by comparing the time needed to reach an accuracy of $||r^k|| \le 10^{-4}$ starting from $(D^0, C^0) = (0, 0)$. In most of the cases, ZeroFPR(L-BFGS) exhibited a speedup of a factor of 5-to-100 with respect to FBS, and of 3-to-60 with respect to AFBS, at reaching a critical point.

7. Conclusions. The forward-backward envelope is a valuable tool for deriving efficient algorithms tackling nonsmooth and nonconvex problems of the form $\varphi = f + g$, as it can be used as a merit function to devise globally convergent linesearch methods solving the system of nonlinear equations defining the stationary points of φ .

ZeroFPR implements this idea, and we proved that it globally converges to a stationary point under the assumption that φ_{γ} has the Kurdyka–Lojasiewicz property. Furthermore, if the linesearch directions satisfy the Dennis–Moré condition (for example, if they are determined according to the Broyden method), the convergence rate at strong local minima is superlinear.

Numerical simulations with the proposed method on convex and nonconvex problems confirm our theoretical results. Using the Broyden method, BFGS (in the case of small-scale problems), and L-BFGS (for large-scale problems) to compute directions in ZeroFPR greatly outperforms FBS and its accelerated variant. It is our belief that the surprising efficacy of (L-)BFGS is due to the fact that, under the appropriate assumptions, the Jacobian of R_{γ} at strong local minima is similar to a symmetric and positive definite matrix. Future investigation may better explain the effectiveness of symmetric update formulas in this framework.

Appendix A. Proofs of section 4.

Proof of Theorem 4.10 (twice differentiability of φ_{γ}). (i) That $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}$ is (strictly) differentiable at $x^{\star} - \gamma \nabla f(x^{\star})$ iff g (strictly) satisfies Assumption II(ii) follows from [42, Thms. 3.8 and 4.1]. Consequently, if f is of class C^2 around x^{\star} (and in particular strictly differentiable at x^{\star} [49, Cor. 9.19]), $R_{\gamma}(x) = x - \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(x - \gamma \nabla f(x))$ is (strictly) differentiable at x^{\star} with Jacobian as in (4.7) due to the chain rule of differentiation (and the fact that strict differentiability is preserved by composition). For $\gamma' \in (\gamma, \Gamma(x^{\star}))$ and $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we have

$$d^{2}g(x^{\star}|-\nabla f(x^{\star}))[w] = \liminf_{\substack{w' \to w, \\ \tau \to 0^{+}}} \frac{g(x^{\star} + \tau w') - g(x^{\star}) + \tau \langle \nabla f(x^{\star}), w \rangle}{\tau^{2}/2} \stackrel{(4.4)}{\geq} -\frac{1}{\gamma'} ||w||^{2}.$$

Expression (4.5) of the second-order epi-derivative then implies $\langle Mw, w \rangle \ge -\frac{1}{\gamma'} \|w\|^2$ for all $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (since Mw = 0 for $w \in S^{\perp}$). Therefore, $\lambda_{\min}(M) \ge -1/\gamma' > -1/\gamma$, proving $I + \gamma M$ to be positive definite, and in particular invertible.

The proof now is similar to that of [50, Lem. 2.9]. To obtain an expression for $P_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) = J \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(x^{\star} - \gamma \nabla f(x^{\star}))$ we can apply [49, Ex. 13.45] to the function $g + \langle \nabla f(x^{\star}), \cdot \rangle$ so that, letting $d^2g = d^2g(x^{\star}|-\nabla f(x^{\star}))[\cdot]$ and Π_S being the idempotent and symmetric projection matrix on S,

$$P_{\gamma}(x^{*})d = \operatorname{prox}_{(\gamma/2)d^{2}g}(d) = \underset{d' \in S}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \langle d', Md' \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \| d' - d \|^{2} \right\}$$

$$= \Pi_{S} \underset{d' \in \mathbb{R}^{n}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \langle \Pi_{S} d', M \Pi_{S} d' \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \| \Pi_{S} d' - d \|^{2} \right\}$$

$$= \Pi_{S} \left(\Pi_{S} [I + \gamma M] \Pi_{S} \right)^{\dagger} \Pi_{S} d$$

$$= \Pi_{S} [I + \gamma M]^{-1} \Pi_{S},$$
(A.1)

where \dagger indicates the pseudoinverse, and the last equality is due to [10, Facts 6.4.12(i), (ii) and 6.1.6(xxxii)]. Apparently, $JP_{\gamma}(x^{\star})$ is symmetric and positive semidefinite.

- (ii) Since Q_{γ} is (strictly) continuous at x^* and R_{γ} is (strictly) differentiable at x^* , from [50, Prop. 6.2] we have that $\nabla \varphi_{\gamma} = Q_{\gamma} R_{\gamma}$ is (strictly) differentiable at x^* , and (4.7) follows by the chain rule.
- (iii) A simple application of the chain rule proves (4.8); moreover, combined with (4.7) we obtain $\nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) = \frac{1}{\gamma} [Q_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) Q_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) P_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) Q_{\gamma}(x^{\star})]$, and since both $Q_{\gamma}(x^{\star})$ and $P_{\gamma}(x^{\star})$ are symmetric, so is $\nabla^2 \varphi(x^{\star})$.

Proof of Theorem 4.11 (conditions for strong local minimality). We show that all conditions are equivalent to either one of the following:

- (f) $\langle d, (\nabla^2 f(x^*) + M) d \rangle > 0 \ \forall d \in S$, where M and S are as in Assumption II;
- (g) $JR_{\gamma}(x^{\star})$ is similar to a symmetric and positive definite matrix.
- (c) \Leftrightarrow (d) This is trivial since $\nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^*)$ exists, as shown in Theorem 4.10(iii).
- (a) \Leftrightarrow (f) This follows from [49, Thm. 13.24(c)], since

$$d^2\varphi(x^*|0)[d] = \langle d, \nabla^2 f(x^*)d \rangle + d^2 g(x^*|-\nabla f(x^*))[d] = \langle d, (\nabla^2 f(x^*) + M)d \rangle + \delta_S(d).$$

(c) \Leftrightarrow (e) If $\nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^*) \succ 0$, then x^* is a (strong) local minimum for φ_{γ} and, due to (4.8), necessarily $JR_{\gamma}(x^*)$ is invertible. Conversely, if x^* is a local minimum for φ_{γ} , then $\nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^*) \succeq 0$. If, additionally, $JR_{\gamma}(x^*)$ is invertible, then due to (4.8), $\nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^*)$ is also invertible, and thus positive definite.

- (c) \Leftrightarrow (g) By comparing (4.7) and (4.8) we observe that $JR_{\gamma}(x^{\star})$ is similar to $Q_{\gamma}(x^{\star})^{-1/2}\nabla^2\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{\star})Q_{\gamma}(x^{\star})^{-1/2}$, which is positive definite iff $\nabla^2\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{\star})$ is as well.
 - (f) \Leftrightarrow (g) The proof is the same as that of [50, Thm. 2.11(b) \Leftrightarrow (c)].
- (b) \Rightarrow (g) With similar reasonings as in the proof of the implications "(a) \Leftrightarrow (f) \Leftrightarrow (g)," we conclude that local minimality of x^* for φ entails $JR_{\gamma}(x^*)$ being similar to a symmetric and positive semidefinite matrix. Therefore, if $JR_{\gamma}(x^*)$ is nonsingular, then it is similar to a symmetric and positive definite matrix.
- (e) \Rightarrow (b) This is trivial since $\varphi_{\gamma} \leq \varphi$ and $\varphi_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) = \varphi(x^{\star})$ (cf. Proposition 4.3(i) and Theorem 4.4(i)).

Appendix B. Additional results for section 5.

LEMMA B.1. Consider the iterates generated by ZeroFPR and suppose that the directions $(d^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ are selected so as to satisfy (5.13). Then, (i) $||x^{k+1} - x^k|| \le (\gamma + D)||r^k||$; (ii) $||\bar{x}^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k|| \le \gamma ||r^{k+1}|| + (2\gamma + D)||r^k||$;

- (iii) in particular, $\|x^{k+1} x^k\|$ and $\|\bar{x}^{k+1} \bar{x}^k\|$ converge to 0.

Proof. For all k's we have

$$||x^{k+1} - x^k|| = ||\bar{x}^k + \tau_k d^k - x^k|| = ||\tau_k d^k - \gamma r^k|| \le \gamma ||r^k|| + \tau_k ||d^k|| \le (\gamma + D) ||r^k||,$$

where in the last inequality we used the fact that $\tau_k \in (0, 1]$. This proves Lemma B.1(i), and (ii) trivially follows by the triangular inequality $\|\bar{x}^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k\| \leq \|x^{k+1} - x^k\| + \|x^{k+1} - x^k\|$ $\gamma \|r^{k+1}\| + \gamma \|r^k\|$. Using this, Lemma B.1(iii) follows from Theorem 5.6(i).

Lemma B.2. Consider the iterates generated by ZeroFPR. Suppose that (5.13) is satisfied and that the sequence $(x^k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is bounded. Then, $\omega(x^k)=\omega(\bar{x}^k)$ are nonempty compact and connected sets over which φ and φ_{γ} are constant and coincide. Moreover,

(B.1)
$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \operatorname{dist}(x^k, \omega(x^k)) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \operatorname{dist}(\bar{x}^k, \omega(x^k)) = 0.$$

Proof. The sets of cluster points are nonempty because of boundedness of the sequences; in turn, connectedness and compactness as well as (B.1) are shown in [15, Rem. 5], which applies since $||x^{k+1} - x^k||$ and $||\bar{x}^{k+1} - \bar{x}^k||$ converge to 0 (cf. Lemma B.1(iii)). Moreover, since $(\varphi_{\gamma}(x^k))_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to some value $\varphi_{\star}\in\mathbb{R}$ and $\omega(x^k) = \omega(\bar{x}^k) \subseteq \operatorname{fix} T_{\gamma}$ as shown in Theorem 5.6, it follows from Theorem 4.4(i) that φ and φ_{γ} coincide on $\omega(x^k)$ (and equal φ_{\star}).

Lemma B.3. Suppose that Assumption II is satisfied at a strong local minimum x^* of φ . Then, for any $\gamma \in (0, 1/L_f)$ the FBE φ_{γ} possesses the KL property at x^* , and the desingularizing function ψ can be taken of the form $\psi(s) = \rho s^{1/2}$ for some $\rho > 0$.

Proof. From Theorem 4.11(c) it follows that x^* is a strong local minimum for φ_{γ} at which φ_{γ} is twice differentiable with $H_{\star} := \nabla^2 \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) \succ 0$. Let $\lambda := \lambda_{\min}(H_{\star})$ and $\Lambda := \lambda_{\max}(H_{\star})$. Since $\nabla \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{\star}) = 0$, from a second-order expansion of φ_{γ} and a first-order expansion of $\nabla \varphi_{\gamma}$ we obtain that there exists a neighborhood $U_{x^{\star}}$ of x^{\star} such that, for all $x \in U_{x^*}$, $\varphi_{\gamma}(x) - \varphi_{\gamma}(x^*) \leq \frac{\Lambda}{4} ||x - x^*||^2$ and $||\nabla \varphi_{\gamma}(x)|| \geq \frac{\lambda}{2} ||x - x^*||$, and in particular

$$\psi'(\varphi_{\gamma}(x) - \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{*})) \|\nabla \varphi_{\gamma}(x)\| = \frac{\rho}{2\sqrt{\varphi_{\gamma}(x) - \varphi_{\gamma}(x^{*})}} \|\nabla \varphi_{\gamma}(x)\| \ge \frac{\rho\lambda}{2\sqrt{\Lambda}}.$$

Letting $\rho = \frac{2\sqrt{\Lambda}}{\lambda}$ we obtain that ψ is a KL function for φ_{γ} at x^* .

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