## 3 What is Differentiability?

There are a lot of ML engineers who brush off the mathematical details of what it means for a function to be differentiable. Algorithmic differentiation (sometimes misleadingly-called "automatic" differentiation) is only guaranteed to work when certain theoretical conditions about the existence of a gradient hold. This part of the class is dedicated to explaining that differentiability is not a freebie.

To start our discussion on differentiability, we will begin with a few preliminaries from analysis.
Definition 3.1 Let $A: \mathcal{H}_{1} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{2}$. Then $A$ is linear if, for every $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and every $x, y \in \mathcal{H}_{1}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(\lambda x)=\lambda A(x) \quad \text { and } \quad A(x+y)=A(x)+A(y) . \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 3.2 (Riesz-Fréchet representation) Let $A: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be linear. Then there exists a unique vector $u \in \mathcal{H}$ such that, for every $x \in \mathcal{H}, A(x)=\langle u \mid x\rangle$.

Although at first-glance it looks unrelated, Theorem 3.2 is a central notion for defining the gradient. A necessary (albeit insufficient) condition for the existence of a gradient is the existence of a directional derivative, defined below.

Definition 3.3 Let $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow]-\infty,+\infty]$ be proper. The directional derivative of $f$ at $x \in \operatorname{dom} f$ in the direction $y \in \mathcal{H}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}(x ; y)=\lim _{\alpha \searrow 0} \frac{f(x+\alpha y)-f(x)}{\alpha} . \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

From Definition 3.3, we point out a few things.
(i) The limit in (30) might not exist.
(ii) If $f$ is convex, then $f^{\prime}(x ; y) \in[-\infty,+\infty]$.
(iii) Even if a directional derivative exists, it might not exist in $\mathbb{R}$ (since it could be $+\infty$ or $-\infty$ ).

Definition 3.4 Let $x \in \operatorname{dom} f$. If $f^{\prime}(x ; \cdot)$ is linear, we say $f$ is differentiable at $x$. In this case, the unique vector provided by Theorem 3.2 is called the gradient of $f$ at $x$ and denoted $\nabla f(x)$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}(x ; \cdot)=\lim _{\alpha \searrow 0} \frac{f(x+\alpha \cdot)-f(x)}{\alpha}=\langle\nabla f(x) \mid \cdot\rangle \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $f$ is differentiable at every $x \in \operatorname{dom} f$, we say that $f$ is differentiable.
Exercise 3.5 Verify that $\nabla\left(\frac{1}{2}\|\cdot\|^{2}\right)(x)=x$.
All of the properties we know and love about differentiability (chain rule, product rule, etc.) have to be proven. Here is an example below.

Proposition 3.6 Let $A: \mathcal{H}_{1} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_{2}$ be a linear operator (with adjoint denoted $A^{*}$ ), let $b \in \mathcal{H}_{2}$, and let $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be proper and differentiable. Set $g=f(A x+b)$. Then $g$ is differentiable and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla g=A^{*}(\nabla f(A \cdot+b)) \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Since $\operatorname{dom} f=\mathcal{H}_{2}$, $\operatorname{dom} g \neq \varnothing$ so we let $x \in \operatorname{dom} g$. By definition,

$$
\begin{align*}
g^{\prime}(x ; y) & =\lim _{\alpha \searrow 0} \frac{g(x+\alpha y)-g(x)}{\alpha}  \tag{33}\\
& =\lim _{\alpha \searrow 0} \frac{f(A(x+\alpha y)+b)-f(A x+b)}{\alpha}  \tag{34}\\
& =\lim _{\alpha \searrow 0} \frac{f(A x+b+\alpha A y)-f(A x+b)}{\alpha}  \tag{35}\\
& =f^{\prime}(A x+b ; A y) . \tag{36}
\end{align*}
$$

So the directional derivative of $g$ exists. Now, since $f$ is differentiable,

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime}(x ; y)=f^{\prime}(A x+b ; A y)=\langle\nabla f(A x+b) \mid A y\rangle=\left\langle A^{*}(\nabla f(A x+b)) \mid y\right\rangle . \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence the directional derivative of $g$ is linear and $g$ is differentiable. The specific form of the gradient is constructed in (37) $\square$

Algorithmic differentiation tools use results like Proposition 3.6 to approximate a gradient of a function by reading its machine code. However, these subroutines do not check the theoretical conditions required for their theorems (e.g., $f$ must be differentiable) - this must be done (and is oftentimes unjustly ignored) by the user.

Definition 3.7 Let $f$ be proper and differentiable. $f$ is smooth (" $L$-smooth") if there exists $L>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\forall x, y \in \mathcal{H}) \quad\|\nabla f(x)-\nabla f(y) \leq L\| x-y \| . \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

Exercise 3.8 Construct a function which is differentiable and nonsmooth.
Proposition 3.9 Let $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow]-\infty,+\infty]$ be proper and convex. Then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\forall x \in \operatorname{dom} f)(\forall y \in \mathcal{H}) \quad f^{\prime}(x ; y-x)+f(x) \leq f(y) . \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. By Proposition 2.2, for every $\alpha \in] 0,1[$,

$$
\begin{align*}
f(x+\alpha(y-x))-f(x) & =f((1-\alpha) x+\alpha y)-f(x)  \tag{40}\\
& \leq(1-\alpha) f(x)+\alpha f(y)-f(x)  \tag{41}\\
& =\alpha(f(y)-f(x)) . \tag{42}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{f(x+\alpha(y-x))-f(x)}{\alpha} \leq f(y)-f(x) . \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

Taking the limit as $\alpha \searrow 0$ implies $f^{\prime}(x ; y) \leq f(y)-f(x)$, which in turn yields (39).

Corollary 3.10 Let $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow]-\infty,+\infty]$ be proper and convex. If $f$ is differentiable at an interior point $x$ of its domain, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\forall y \in \mathcal{H}) \quad\langle y-x \mid \nabla f(x)\rangle+f(x) \leq f(y) . \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

When the lefthand side of (44) is viewed as a function of $y$, we see it is the first-order Taylor series approximation of $f$. Therefore, it follows from (39) that a convex differentiable function always remains above its first-order Taylor approximation! This is the motivating idea in defining a (convex) subgradient ${ }^{3}$

Definition 3.11 Let $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow]-\infty,+\infty]$. A vector $g$ is a subgradient of $f$ at $x \in \mathcal{H}$ if

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\forall y \in \mathcal{H}) \quad\langle y-x \mid g\rangle+f(x) \leq f(y) . \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

The subdifferential of $f$ at $x$ is the set of all subgradients, denoted $\partial f(x)$.
Example 3.12 As shown in class,

$$
\partial(|\cdot|)(x)= \begin{cases}-1 & \text { if } x<0  \tag{46}\\ {[-1,1]} & \text { if } x=0 \\ 1 & \text { if } x>0\end{cases}
$$

This leads to the following fundamental theorem for optimization.
Theorem 3.13 (Fermat's Rule) Let $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow]-\infty,+\infty]$ be proper. Then $x$ is a minimizer of $f$ if and only if $0 \in \partial f(x)$.

Proof. By definition,

$$
\begin{align*}
0 \in \partial f(x) & \Leftrightarrow(\forall y \in \mathcal{H})
\end{aligned} \quad\langle 0 \mid y-x\rangle+f(x) \leq f(y) ~ 子 \begin{aligned}
0 &  \tag{47}\\
& \Leftrightarrow(\forall y \in \mathcal{H}) \tag{48}
\end{align*} \quad f(x) \leq f(y) .
$$

Unlike differentiable functions, there are technical conditions we must check in order to get the "standard" rules one would hope for. The following theorem demonstrates some conditions required to simplify computing the subdifferential of a sum of functions.

[^0]Theorem 3.14 (Sum rule) Let $f, g \in \Gamma_{0}(\mathcal{H})$ and suppose that one of the following holds:
(i) The interior of $\operatorname{dom} g$ intersects with $\operatorname{dom} f$
(ii) $\operatorname{dom} g=\mathcal{H}$
(iii) The relative interiors of $\operatorname{dom} f$ and $\operatorname{dom} g$ intersect.

Then $\partial(f+g)=\partial f+\partial g$.
Remark 3.15 If $f$ is convex and differentiable at $x \in \mathcal{H}$, then $\partial f(x)=\{\nabla f(x)\}$.


[^0]:    ${ }^{3}$ There are more general notions of subgradients (e.g., Clarke or Mordukhovich subdifferentials). For functions on $\Gamma_{0}(\mathcal{H})$, these notions are usually all equivalent.

